

1 Use of streamflow indices to identify the catchment drivers of 2 hydrograph

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7
8 **Abstract.** Time irreversibility or temporal asymmetry refers to the steeper ascending and gradual descending parts
9 of a streamflow hydrograph. The primary goal of this study is to bring out the distinction between streamflow
10 indices directly linked with rising limbs and falling limbs and to explore their utility in uncovering processes
11 associated with the steeper ascending and gradual descending limbs of the hydrograph within the time-
12 irreversibility paradigm. Different streamflow indices are correlated with the rising and falling limbs and the
13 catchment attributes. The key attributes governing rising and falling limbs are then identified. The contribution of
14 the work is on differentiating hydrographs by their time irreversibility features and offering an alternative way to
15 recognize primary drivers of streamflow hydrographs. A series of spatial maps describing the streamflow indices
16 and their regional variability in the Contiguous United States (CONUS) is introduced here. These indices
17 complement the catchment attributes provided earlier (Addor et al., 2017) for the CAMELS data set. Findings of
18 the study revealed that the elevation, fraction of precipitation falling as snow, and depth to bedrock mainly
19 characterize the rising limb density, whereas the aridity and frequency of precipitation influence the rising limb
20 scale parameter. Moreover, the rising limb shape parameter is primarily influenced by forest fraction, the fraction
21 of precipitation falling as snow, mean slope, mean elevation, sand fraction, and precipitation frequency. It is noted
22 that falling limb density is mainly governed by climate indices, mean elevation, and the fraction of precipitation
23 falling as snow. However, the recession coefficients are controlled by mean elevation, mean slope, clay, the
24 fraction of precipitation falling as snow, forest fraction, and sand fraction. Streamflow indices are flow descriptors
25 that quantify the streamflow dynamics, which are usually determined for a specific basin and are distinct from
26 other basin features. The streamflow indices are appropriate for large-scale and comparative hydrology studies,
27 independent of statistical assumptions and can distinguish signals that indicate basin behavior over time. In this
28 paper, the characteristic features of the hydrograph's temporal asymmetry due to its different underlying
29 hydrologic processes are primarily highlighted. Time irreversibility or temporal asymmetry refers to the steeper
30 ascending and gradual descending parts of a streamflow hydrograph. Streamflow indices linked to each limb of
31 the hydrograph within the time irreversibility paradigm are distinguished with respect to its processes driving the
32 rising and falling limbs. Various streamflow indices relating the rising and falling limbs, and the catchment
33 attributes such as climate, topography, vegetation, geology and soil are then correlated. Finally, the key attributes
34 governing rising and falling limbs are identified. The novelty of the work is on differentiating hydrographs by
35 their time irreversibility property and offering an alternative way to recognize primary drivers of streamflow
36 hydrographs. A set of streamflow indices at the catchment scale for 671 basins in the Contiguous United States
37 (CONUS) is introduced here. These streamflow indices complement the catchment attributes provided earlier

38 ~~(Addor et al., 2017) for the CAMELS data set. A series of spatial maps describing the streamflow indices and~~
39 ~~their regional variability over the CONUS is illustrated in this study.~~

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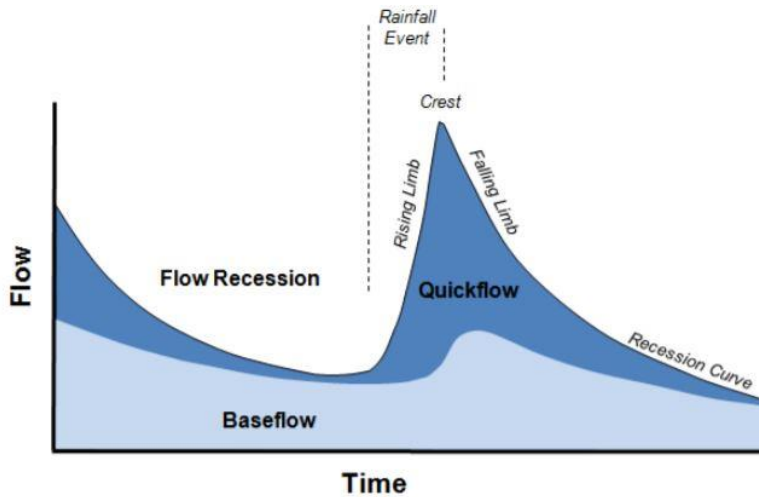
41 1 Introduction

42 Hydrologists use data to understand the hydrologic system by identifying several unique catchment signatures and
43 employ various flow descriptors independent of statistical assumptions yet capable of capturing signals that reflect
44 the basin's long-term unique behavior. Hydrological indices, commonly referred to as hydrologic metrics,
45 hydrologic signatures, or diagnostic signatures, are quantitative flow metrics that characterize statistical or
46 dynamical hydrological data series (McMillan, 2021). Specifically, streamflow indices are flow descriptors
47 derived from discharge time-series data, and a considerable collection of indices are available to aid in the better
48 characterization of hydrological features, ranging from basic statistics like the mean to more sophisticated metrics
49 (Addor et al., 2018; McMillan, 2021). In many cases, daily streamflow records are not permitted for redistribution;
50 however, researchers have computed streamflow indices and made them publicly accessible.

51 Hydrological indices are increasingly used in emerging areas such as global-scale hydrologic modeling and large-
52 sample hydrology to extract relevant information and compare the different watershed processes (Addor et al.,
53 2017, 2018; McMillan, 2021). These indices offer an indirect way to explore hydrological processes as well as
54 provide insights into hydrologic behavior in catchments where data other than streamflow is restricted and are
55 widely used in process exploration, model calibration, model selection, and catchment classification (Addor et al.,
56 2018; Clark et al., 2011; Kuentz et al., 2017; McMillan et al., 2011; Sawicz et al., 2011). McMillan (2021)
57 presented a classification that differentiates between statistics and dynamics-based signatures and between
58 signatures at different timescales.

59 The relevance of time irreversibility (or temporal asymmetry) of streamflow variability on a daily scale has been
60 emphasized in recent studies (Koutsoyiannis, 2020; Mathai and Mujumdar, 2019; Serinaldi and Kilsby, 2016).
61 The disparity in physical mechanisms driving the hydrograph's rising and falling limbs (Fig.1) contributes to time
62 irreversibility. ~~(Koutsoyiannis, 2020) shows that irreversibility may be ignored at scales relevant to hydrological~~
63 ~~applications in atmospheric processes, but it is critical to include irreversibility in studies related to streamflow.~~
64 ~~Unlike other variables such as temperature, wind, precipitation, time irreversibility has been marked for~~
65 ~~streamflow at a daily scale (Koutsoyiannis, 2020).~~ Streamflow recessions convey valuable information about the
66 basin storage properties and aquifer characteristics (Aksoy & Bayazit, 2000). High variability encountered in the
67 recession behaviour of individual segments is always a challenge in modeling the recession limb (Tallaksen,
68 1995). Recessions do not follow a simple form; due to their nonlinear nature (Aksoy et al., 2001). Various
69 segments of recession represent different stages in the flow process and there is a need to differentiate the recession
70 to various segments and to characterize the recession rates separately. Such segmentation of recession curves
71 enables us to reveal the nonlinear behavior of streamflow dynamics. Time irreversibility must therefore be
72 acknowledged in streamflow analysis, accounting for the distinction of the recession into different segments, with
73 a faster recession induced by high discharges caused by surface runoff and a slower recession caused by baseflow
74 (Fig.1), and the characterization of the recession rates separately (Mathai and Mujumdar, 2019). In this study,
75 streamflow indices are chosen to better understand different hydrological processes by recognizing the streamflow

76 hydrograph's temporal asymmetry. The novelty in the work presented here is to differentiate hydrograph limbs by
77 their time irreversibility property and use their associated indices to provide an approach to derive insights on the
78 primary drivers of streamflow hydrographs.



79 **Figure 1.** Schematic representation of rising limb and falling limb
80 (source: Environment Southland;
81 <https://www.es.govt.nz/environment/water/groundwater/groundwater-monitoring>)
82

83 The analysis employs a collection of indices drawn from hydrograph shape diagnoses, to extract information about
84 the properties of rising and falling limbs of the hydrograph. The principle of time irreversibility is encapsulated
85 by six streamflow indices that characterize the shape of a streamflow hydrograph.

86 The goals of this study are as follows: i) to identify the key drivers of streamflow hydrograph (rising and falling
87 limbs) in terms of catchment attributes (eg. mean slope, aridity, fraction of precipitation falling as snow) using
88 time-irreversibility-based indices; ii) to present a spatial map-based attribute class based on streamflow indices
89 for a large-sample hydrology dataset. The attribute class is a broad classification of attributes based on a particular
90 aspect/feature. *Topography, climate, and soil* are examples of attribute classes. In this study, we present a new
91 attribute class of streamflow indices related to rising and falling limbs, referred to as "*TI-streamflow indices*"
92 (*Time-irreversibility streamflow indices*).

93 Hydrograph analysis is referred to as the investigation of the numerous factors that influence hydrograph shape
94 (Rogers, 1972). The presence of hydrographs with a similar shape in long-term observation series of runoff
95 ~~suggests~~demonstrates that the same conditions of runoff generation reoccur from time to time in the catchment
96 of a river due to climate cyclicity and as a result of hydrological processes (Khrystyuk et al., 2017). Because
97 climatic factors are dynamic in space and time, they seem to be the most significant factors influencing the
98 hydrograph shape provided that changes in catchment conditions like land use are small. Khrystyuk et al., (2017)-
99 suggested that for the Desna river basin in Russia, temperature, snow water equivalent, and snowmelt conditions
100 are the most critical factors influencing the shape of hydrographs. However, it is likely that these controls may
101 not be equally important controls on hydrograph across all regions globally. Temperature, snow water equivalent,
102 and snowmelt conditions are the most critical factors influencing the shape of hydrographs (Khrystyuk et al.,

103 ~~2017). The shape, timing, and peak flow of a streamflow hydrograph are influenced spatially and temporally by~~
104 ~~rainfall and watershed factors (Singh, 1997). Using a physical laboratory model, a study has investigated the~~
105 ~~influence of chosen meteorological and physiographic parameters on the runoff hydrograph (Roberts and~~
106 ~~Klingeman, 1970). Storm-related parameters (rainfall intensity, rainfall duration, storm movement) and basin~~
107 ~~surface conditions are among the inputs that could be experimentally modified in the model (simulated~~
108 ~~permeability, antecedent moisture conditions). The study revealed that each variable was shown to have a~~
109 ~~substantial impact on the shape of the hydrograph (Roberts and Klingeman, 1970). Certain factors had a more~~
110 ~~considerable impact on the rising limb of the runoff hydrograph, whereas others were more important in terms of~~
111 ~~the flood crest (Roberts and Klingeman, 1970). One of the earlier studies by Roberts and Klingeman (1970) have~~
112 ~~investigated the influence of meteorological and physiographic parameters on the runoff hydrograph using a~~
113 ~~physical laboratory model. Storm-related parameters (rainfall intensity, rainfall duration, storm movement) and~~
114 ~~basin surface conditions are among the inputs that could be experimentally modified in this model. The results~~
115 ~~revealed that each of these variables mentioned above has a substantial impact on the hydrograph shape where~~
116 ~~certain factors had a more considerable effect on the rising limb of the runoff hydrograph, whereas others were~~
117 ~~more important in terms of the flood crest (Roberts and Klingeman, 1970).~~

118 As shown in numerous studies in the literature, our notion of time-irreversibility and its indices could also ~~perform~~
119 ~~a reasonable job of articulating the helpful in understanding the~~ catchment drivers of streamflow hydrographs.
120 This study presents an attribute class of hydrograph shape descriptors with temporal asymmetry. The significance
121 of large-sample hydrology datasets in open hydrologic science and their potential to improve hydrological studies'
122 transparency is also underlined in this study.

123 Large-sample hydrology (LSH) gathers information from a large number of catchments to gain a more
124 comprehensive understanding of hydrological processes and to go beyond individual case studies. LSH helps
125 identify catchment behavior and leads one to derive precise conclusions regarding different hydrological
126 processes and models (Addor et al., 2020). Studies involving large-sample catchments help in understanding the
127 drivers of hydrological change (Blöschl et al., 2019), in assessing hydrological similarity and classification
128 (Berghuijs et al., 2014; K. A. Sawicz et al., 2014), in predictions in ungauged basins (Ehret et al., 2014), and in
129 analysing model and data uncertainty (Coxon et al., 2014) and foster hydrology research by standardizing and
130 automating the creation of large-sample hydrology datasets worldwide (Addor et al., 2020). LSH assists in
131 exploring interrelationships between numerous catchment attributes related to landscape, climate, and hydrology
132 (Addor et al., 2017; Alvarez-Garreton et al., 2018; Gupta et al., 2014; Newman et al., 2015; Sawicz et al., 2011)
133 and generalizing rules that can significantly improve the predictability of the water cycle (Alvarez-Garreton et al.,
134 2018).

135 The primary challenges in fostering LSH are data availability and accessibility, which seriously hinder its use in
136 data-scarce regions. Despite the fact that a few large-scale hydrology studies have been undertaken, the number
137 of publicly available large-scale datasets is still restricted (Addor et al., 2017, 2020; Coxon et al., 2020). Moreover,
138 licensing restrictions and strict access policies make the datasets rarely available to the public (Coxon et al., 2020).

139 Model Parameter Estimation Experiment project (MOPEX) dataset (Duan et al., 2006), Canadian model parameter
140 experiment (CANOPEX) database (Arsenault et al., 2016), Global Streamflow Indices and Metadata Archive (Do
141 et al., 2018; Gudmundsson et al., 2018), Global Runoff Reconstruction (Ghiggi et al., 2019), HydroATLAS (Linke

142 et al., 2019) and the Catchment Attributes and MEteorology for Large-Sample studies (CAMELS) (Addor et al.,
 143 2017) are notable contributions of open and accessible large-sample catchment datasets (Coxon et al., 2020). The
 144 concept of time irreversibility-based streamflow indices is then applied to CAMELS catchments with the goal of
 145 encouraging large-sample hydrology studies. The primary contribution of this study is to establish the distinction
 146 between signatures directly linked with rising limbs and falling limbs and their utility in uncovering processes
 147 associated with the hydrograph's steeper ascending and gradual descending limbs.
 148

149 2 Methods

150 To facilitate an understandingeomprehesion of various hydrological processes and streamflow hydrograph
 151 drivers, the study employs streamflow indices considering the streamflow hydrograph's temporal asymmetry. The
 152 description of indices used in this study are tabulated in Table 1. Streamflow indices linked to each limb of the
 153 streamflow hydrograph within the time-irreversibility paradigm are distinguished since hydrographs have rising
 154 and falling limbs. The following indices are considered in the rising limb category: 1) rising limb density, 2) rising
 155 limb shape parameter, and 3) rising limb scale parameter. In contrast, 1) falling limb density 2) slope of upper
 156 recession (upper recession coefficient) 3) slope of lower recession (lower recession coefficient) are selected in
 157 falling limb category. The next step is to compute these indices for a large number of catchments and correlate
 158 them with attributes such as climate, topography, vegetation, geology, and soil. The streamflow indices can be
 159 correlated explicitly since sub-categories are involved in each of the catchment attributes discussed above. Finally,
 160 the key attributes governing rising and falling limbs can be summarized and identified. The specifics of indices
 161 are explained further below.

162 Rising limb density (RLD) is defined as the ratio of the number of rising limbs and the cumulative time of rising
 163 limbs (Shamir et al., 2005). RLD is a hydrograph shape descriptor without considering the flow magnitude (Fig.
 164 2) and the expression for RLD is given as,

$$RLD = \frac{N_{RL}}{T_R} \quad (1)$$

165 The ratio of the number of falling limbs to the cumulative time of falling limbs is termed as falling limb density
 166 (FLD) (Fig. 2) (Shamir et al., 2005). The expression for FLD is given as,

$$FLD = \frac{N_{FL}}{T_F} \quad (2)$$

167
 168 **Table 1.** Hydrological descriptors with temporal asymmetry.
 169

<i>Attribute</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Unit</i>	<i>Data source</i>	<i>References</i>	
<i>Rising limb</i>	RLD	Rising limb density	day ⁻¹	N15 – USGS data [*]	Shamir et al. (2005)
	a	Rising limb scale parameter	-	https://doi.org/10.5065/D6MW2F4D	Mathai and Mujumdar, (2019)

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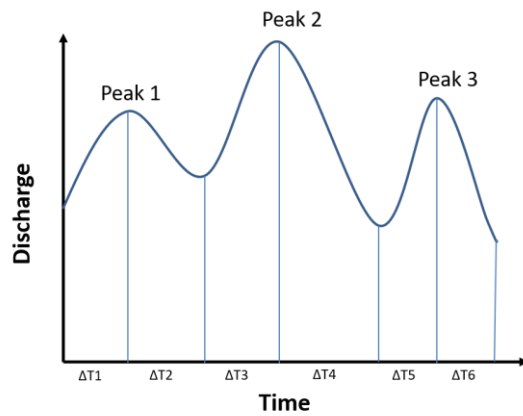
	b	Rising limb shape parameter	-		Mathai and Mujumdar, (2019)
Falling limb	FLD	Falling limb density	day ⁻¹		Shamir et al. (2005)
	b ₁	Upper recession coefficient	-		Mathai and Mujumdar, (2019)
	b ₂	Lower recession coefficient	-		Mathai and Mujumdar, (2019)

* N15 covers 671 catchments in the contiguous USA (CONUS), which provides daily meteorological forcing and daily streamflow measurements from the United States Geological Survey (USGS).

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$$\text{Rising limb density} = \frac{3}{\Delta T1 + \Delta T3 + \Delta T5}$$

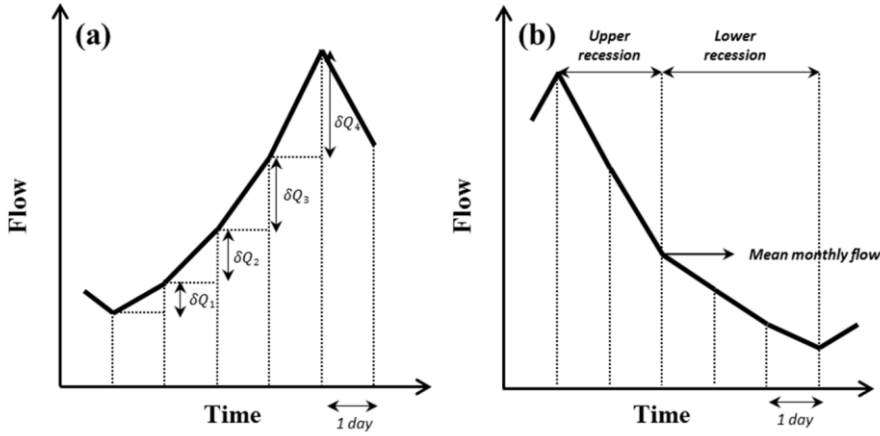
$$\text{Falling limb density} = \frac{3}{\Delta T2 + \Delta T4 + \Delta T6}$$



172

173 **Figure 2.** Schematic example of rising limb density (RLD) and falling limb density (FLD) calculation (Shamir et
174 al., 2005).

175 We first identify the hydrologic state of the stream (ascension and recession) (Mathai and Mujumdar, 2019). To
176 determine the hydrologic state of a stream - increasing (wet) or decreasing (dry) - on a given day, a time series of
177 diurnal increments is extracted by differencing the original time series with its one-day lagged time series. The
178 positive increments are identified as diurnal increments for wet days (ascension limb).



179
180 **Figure 3.** Schematic representation of flow series (a) ascension limb and (b) recession limb (Mathai and
181 Mujumdar, 2019).

182 To characterize the shape of the rising limbs occurring on wet days, the diurnal increments are fitted using an
183 appropriate probability density function. The Weibull distribution reflects the diurnal increments of streamflow
184 that occur on wet days satisfactorily (Mathai and Mujumdar, 2019; Stagge and Moglen, 2013; Szilagyi et al.,
185 2006), and the scale ‘ a ’ and shape ‘ b ’ parameters of the Weibull distribution are computed for each catchment by
186 using observed diurnal increments of streamflow (indicating δQ) of the ascension limb (Fig 3.a). The Weibull pdf
187 is positive only for positive values of x , and is zero otherwise. For strictly positive values of the scale parameter
188 a and shape parameter b , the density function is given by

$$f(x; a, b) = \begin{cases} \frac{b}{a} \left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^{b-1} e^{-(x/a)^b} & x \geq 0, \\ 0 & x < 0, \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

189 where $a > 0$, $b > 0$. The shape and scale parameters of the Weibull distribution are estimated for each catchment
190 from the observed diurnal increments of the streamflow. The scale parameter controls the magnitude of the
191 increasing limb, whilst the shape parameter reflects the flashiness of the increasing limb. The scale parameter is
192 related to the magnitude of storm events which mirrors the general shape of flows in the stream. As a result,
193 correlating these parameters with catchment attributes reveals which catchment attributes drive the magnitude and
194 flashiness of rising limbs.

195 In contrast, an exponential recession is used to capture the shape of the falling limbs on dry days of the daily
196 hydrograph, representing the falling limbs’ underlying dynamics (Mathai and Mujumdar, 2019). As the upper
197 recession refers to the fast flow following a storm event and the lower recession refers to the baseflow recession,
198 falling limb modeling is done in two stages (Fig 3.b) (Aksoy, 2003; Aksoy and Bayazit, 2000). The steps to obtain
199 recession coefficients b_1 and b_2 are explained below (Mathai and Mujumdar, 2019). To portray the shape of the
200 recession limbs occurring on dry days of the daily hydrograph, an exponential recession is employed to capture
201 the falling limbs’ underlying dynamics (Mathai & Mujumdar, 2019). The expression for the exponential recession
202 is given as follows,

$$Q_t = Q_0 e^{-bt} \quad (4)$$

203 where b is the recession coefficient, t is time, Q_t is the flow t days after the peak and Q_0 is the peak flow (Mathai
 204 & Mujumdar, 2019). Mean flow value is chosen as an appropriate measure (Sargent, 1979) to divide the recession
 205 into two stages. The limbs with a peak flow value greater than the observed mean flow value are considered as
 206 upper recessions and those with peak flow values smaller than the observed mean as lower recessions. However,
 207 it may be noted that using the mean monthly flow can lead to unusual situations if peak flow for a given event is
 208 below the monthly mean. In such cases, the entire recession would be classified as a lower recession curve, and
 209 no upper part would exist. In those situations, there are still different driving processes for the first and second
 210 part of the recession, but these would all be lumped into one category in this case. Since we are dealing with the
 211 long-term time series, the recession slope will be nearly constant for a catchment and does not vary much with
 212 the recession separation technique used. In this study, we calculate recession slope at an annual scale. The upper
 213 recession is modelled as follows,

$$Q_t = Q_0 e^{-b_1 t} \quad (5)$$

214 where b_1 is the recession coefficient for the upper part of the recession limb, t is the number of days after the
 215 peak, Q_t is flow t days after the peak, Q_0 is the preceding peak flow (Mathai & Mujumdar, 2019). The lower
 216 recession is represented as,

$$Q_t = Q_0^* e^{-b_2(t-t^*)} \quad (6)$$

217 where b_2 is the recession coefficient for the lower part of the recession limb, t^* is the time from the start of the
 218 lower recession, Q_0^* is the initial flow in the lower part of the recession (Mathai & Mujumdar, 2019). The recession
 219 expressions for upper and lower recession are fitted by regressing $\ln(Q_t/Q_0)$ versus t and $\ln(Q_t/Q_0^*)$ versus $t -$
 220 t^* respectively. These linear regressions are performed on each individual recession sequence. The average of the
 221 upper/lower recession parameters is taken as the upper/lower recession parameter of that catchment (on daily time
 222 series data).

223 The study uses indices related to rising limb (viz., RLD, rising limb scale parameter, rising limb shape parameter)
 224 and recession limb (viz., FLD, upper recession coefficient, lower recession coefficient) to summarize the
 225 characteristic shape of steeper rising and gradually declining falling limb and its application in understanding the
 226 role of various drivers of catchment attributes in streamflow generation.

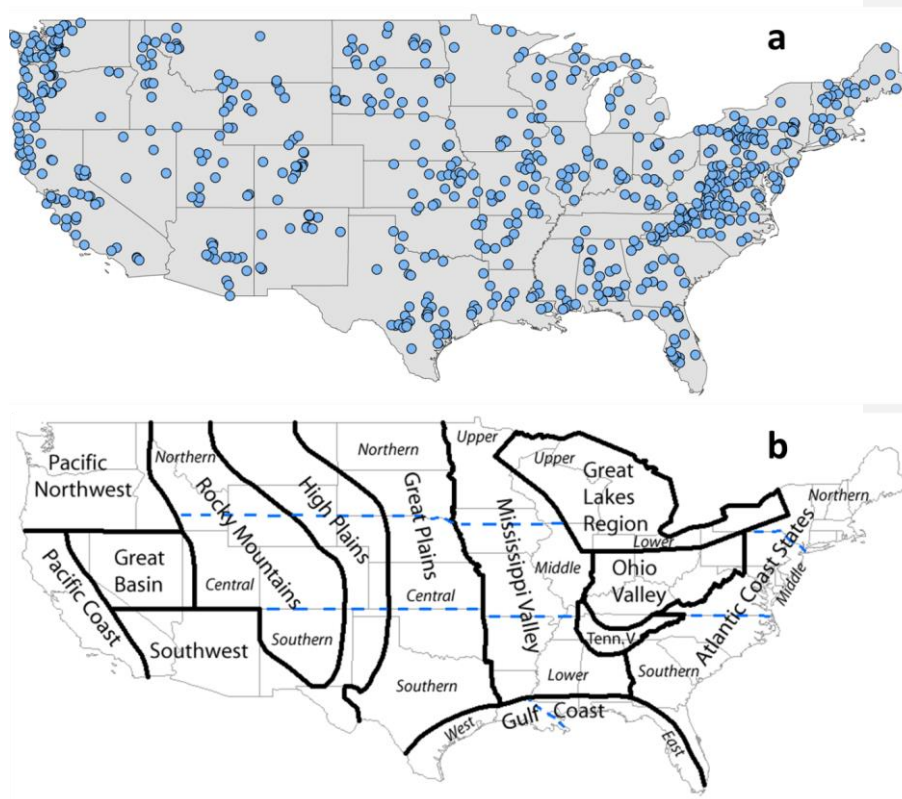
227 3 Dataset used

228 Section 3 provides the description of the dataset used and the study area chosen. This study employs the CAMELS
 229 dataset, which encompasses daily discharge data and catchment attributes for 671 catchments (Fig. 4) across the
 230 continental United States, representing a diverse set of catchments with long streamflow time series covering a
 231 wide range of hydro-climatic conditions (Addor et al., 2017). The time frame chosen for the analysis is from 1
 232 October 1989 to 30 September 2009 (Addor et al., 2017).

233 The topographic characteristics of CAMELS dataset are represented in Fig. S1. Except for the Appalachian
 234 Mountains, the eastern part of the Continental United States is much flatter than the western portion, according to

235 mean elevation and mean slope maps (Fig. S1.a and S1.b). Figure S1.c depicts the spatial pattern of catchment
236 size, highlighting presence of some catchments with an area greater than 10,000 km². The landscape of each
237 catchment is described using multiple attributes, which can be divided into various classes as shown in Table S1
238 (Addor et al., 2017).

239
240
241



242
243 **Figure 4.** (a) Map of 671 CAMELS catchments in the continental United States considered in this study. (b)
244 Geographical regions of US according to NOAA National Centers for Environmental Information referred for the
245 analysis (source: NOAA National Centers for Environmental Information; <https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/temp-and-precip/drought/nadm/geography>).
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250

4 Results and Discussion

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251 The first sub-section below looks at the regional variability of the streamflow indices used in this study. For the
252 671 CAMELS catchments, rising limb density, falling limb density, rising limb scale parameter, rising limb shape
253 parameter, upper recession coefficient, and lower recession coefficient are computed and given as spatial maps.
254 Streamflow indices are then presented in hydrological clusters to incorporate a more explicit spatial representation
255 of catchment behavior across the CONUS. Catchment attributes cover a broad range of aspects of catchment
256 hydrology such as: land cover, soil, climate, geology, topography and the association between these attributes and
257 streamflow indices is discussed further in the subsequent section. As the climate is the most important factor in
258 the US for the hydrological behavior for the CAMELS dataset (Jehn et al., 2020), the effect of climatic attributes
259 on streamflow indices associated with rising and falling limbs is also investigated here.

260 **4.1 Spatial Variability in Streamflow Indices**

261 **4 Results and Discussion**

262 The regional variability of the streamflow indices is investigated by computing the rising limb density, falling
263 limb density, rising limb scale parameter, rising limb shape parameter, upper recession coefficient, and lower
264 recession coefficient for 671 CAMELS catchments and given as spatial maps. Streamflow indices are then
265 presented in hydrological clusters to incorporate a more explicit spatial representation of catchment behavior
266 across the CONUS. Catchment attributes cover a broad range of aspects of catchment hydrology such as: land
267 cover, soil, climate, geology, topography and the association between these attributes and streamflow indices is
268 discussed further in the subsequent section. It is important to understand the influence of climatic zones on the
269 streamflow indices, as climate attributes influence the catchment streamflow dynamics (Addor et al., 2018;
270 Berghuijs et al., 2014; Jehn et al., 2020; Knoben et al., 2018; Stein et al., 2021). Since the catchments are
271 distributed in varied climatic zones (Jehn et al., 2020; Knoben et al., 2018; Stein et al., 2021), the CAMELS data
272 is ideal for addressing this question. With this motivation, the effect of climate attributes on streamflow indices
273 associated with rising and falling limbs is investigated here.

274 **4.1 Spatial Variability in Streamflow Indices and Relation of the Streamflow Indices with Catchment 275 Attributes**

276 Streamflow indices related to rising limbs and falling limbs are computed for the selected catchments and
277 displayed in spatial maps as shown in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6, respectively. The spatial analysis is based on the United
278 States' geographical areas (for details, refer to Fig. 43b) as defined by NOAA's National Centers for Environmental
279 Information and is referred to in the following spatial maps. Furthermore, ~~ten~~ the clusters provided by Jehn et al.
280 (2020) to represent the discrete hydrological behaviors of the continental United States are adopted in this study
281 to understand the regional variability of catchment behavior. Figure S2 and Table S2 present the location map and
282 details of the ten clusters. Figure S3 shows Boxplots of the catchment attributes of the clusters (after Jehn et al.,
283 2020).

284 Even though a comprehensive dataset such as CAMELS provides an excellent overview of various catchments
285 in contrasting climatic and topographic regions, it does not by itself provide insights give conclusions to explain
286 hydrologic behavior. We ~~then~~ presented ~~here~~ streamflow indices in ~~these~~ clusters representing distinct
287 hydrological behavior, enabling an ready understanding of the hydrological processes. Jehn et al. (2020)
288 summarize the characteristics of each catchment cluster in terms of climate, hydrology and location.

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289 [The clusters presented by Jehn et al. \(2020\) are formed based on agglomerative hierarchical clustering with ward](#)
290 [linkage on the principal components of the hydrological signatures. The hydrological signatures identified with](#)
291 [the highest spatial predictability are used to cluster 643 catchments from the CAMELS dataset \(Jehn et al., 2020\).](#)
292 [This facilitates straightforward interpretations of the observations to explain the hydrologic behavior in each](#)
293 [cluster.](#)

294 [In this paper, we first identify the regions in the United States where high/low values of streamflow indices occur.](#)
295 [The dominant catchment attributes of these regions are also identified using corresponding clusters. The](#)
296 [streamflow indices and the dominant catchment attribute are then related to interpreting the obtained findings'](#)
297 [process. Features of the 10 clusters provided by Jehn et al. \(2020\) are used to interpret the findings of the results.](#)
298 [Even though a comprehensive dataset like CAMELS provides an excellent overview of various catchments in](#)
299 [contrasting climatic and topographic regions, it does not give conclusions to explain hydrologic behavior. In order](#)
300 [to address this difficulty, we transformed the streamflow indices and presented them in clusters that represent](#)
301 [distinct hydrological behavior which facilitates a ready interpretation of hydrological processes. The ten clusters](#)
302 [represent groups of catchments with distinct hydrological behavior and have distinct spatial patterns as well. The](#)
303 [clusters presented by Jehn et al. \(2020\) are formed based on agglomerative hierarchical clustering with ward](#)
304 [linkage on the principal components of the hydrological signatures. The hydrological signatures that are identified](#)
305 [with the highest spatial predictability are used to cluster 643 catchments from the CAMELS dataset. In terms of](#)
306 [geographical regions, the rising limb density is highest over the Atlantic coast states, Ohio valley, Lower](#)
307 [Mississippi Valley, Southern Great Plains, Southwest and Pacific, and lowest along the Upper Great Lakes region,](#)
308 [Upper Mississippi Valley, Great Basin, and Northern Rocky Mountains, Northern Interior Plains, and East of Gulf](#)
309 [Coast \(Fig. 5.a\). Further, in terms of hydrological clusters, the Appalachian Mountains \(Cluster 10\), Southeastern](#)
310 [and Central Plains \(Cluster 1\), and all Southern most states of the US \(Cluster 9\) witness high rising limb densities](#)
311 [\(Fig. 6.a\). Cluster 1 is characterized by dense vegetation cover and low elevation resulting in little annual](#)
312 [snowfall. Cluster 10 catchments are located in the Appalachian Mountains, with a higher mean elevation than](#)
313 [most other clusters, experiencing low aridity and high forest cover. However, Cluster 9 encompasses all of the](#)
314 [United States' southern states, with lower precipitation seasonality and higher forest cover and green vegetation.](#)
315 [Furthermore, all of the catchments in Cluster 9 are very near the sea, with a low snow component and high](#)
316 [evapotranspiration. We used Spearman rank correlation for the correlation analysis \(Table 2\). Green-colored](#)
317 [coefficients represent positive correlation, and the red-colored correlation coefficients represent negative](#)
318 [correlation \(Table 2\). It can be seen that the rising limb density shows a negative correlation \(Table 2\) with the](#)
319 [area \(\$r = -0.30\$ \), elevation \(\$r = -0.20\$ \) fraction of precipitation falling as snow \(\$r = -0.33\$ \), and depth to bedrock \(\$r\$](#)
320 [= \$-0.32\$ \). Northwestern Forested Mountains \(Clusters 3, 4\), located in the mountains of the western US, experience](#)
321 [low values of rising limb density. The catchments of Cluster 3 have the largest snow storage in the dataset. Cluster](#)
322 [4 is found in the western United States' mountains, where there is a lot of snow, same as Cluster 3. Low values of](#)
323 [rising limb density are observed due to a negative correlation with the fraction of precipitation falling as snow \(\$r\$](#)
324 [= \$-0.33\$ \). The study indicates that rising limb density is mainly governed by elevation and fraction of precipitation](#)
325 [falling as snow in the CONUS.](#)

326 [Considerably low values of rising limb scale parameters are experienced over the Rocky Mountains, High Plains,](#)
327 [Great Plains, Upper Mississippi Valley, Great Basin, Southwest, and the Great Lakes regions, whereas the Pacific](#)

328 Northwest shows high values of rising limb scale parameters (Fig. 5.b). Clusters (5, 7) over the Northwestern
329 Forested Mountains of CONUS experience very high values of rising limb scale parameters (Fig. 6.b). These
330 catchments have the highest discharge, especially in the early summer, due to a combination of high precipitation
331 and snowmelt. Further, the region in the Continental US which receives the highest precipitation is included in
332 Cluster 5. Moreover, Cluster 5 consists of a large proportion of forest. Again, Cluster 7 with high values of rising
333 limb scale parameter is characterized by high fraction of precipitation falling as snow. High precipitation and
334 snowmelt might result in a large discharge. Higher discharges can create higher values of rising scale parameters
335 as the rising limb scale parameter regulates the magnitude of the rising limb. Low values of rising limb scale
336 parameters are shown by Clusters 2, 8, 9. This is because of low water availability, low snow fraction precipitation
337 falling as snow, and high evaporation experienced in these regions. Low discharge and thus lower rising limb
338 scale parameters can be caused by excessive evaporation, low water availability, and a low snow fraction of
339 precipitation falling as snow. It is observed that the rising limb scale parameter (Table 2) shows a negative
340 correlation with climate ($r = -0.53$ for aridity) and a positive association with the vegetation attributes ($r = 0.46$
341 for forest fraction, $r = 0.41$ for LAI maximum, $r = 0.44$ for green vegetation fraction maximum). Frequency of
342 precipitation ($r = -0.56$ for high precipitation frequency, $r = -0.63$ for low precipitation frequency) display a strong
343 negative association with the rising limb scale parameter.

344 Low rising limb shape parameter occurs along the Great Plains, Mississippi Valley, Pacific coast, and the west of
345 Gulf Coast (Fig. 5.c). In contrast, the shape parameter over the Rocky Mountains, High Plains, Great Basin, Pacific
346 Northwest, and the Great Lakes region witnesses the highest values of rising limb shape parameters (Fig. 5.c). All
347 the catchments located in the Southern states of the US (Cluster 9), Great Plains and North American deserts
348 (Cluster 8), and the Central Plains (Cluster 2) characterize low values of rising limb shape parameters (Fig. 6.c).
349 This is due to low water availability, low snow fraction precipitation falling as snow, low leaf area index, and high
350 evaporation experienced in these regions. Excessive evaporation and a low snow fraction of precipitation falling
351 as snow can contribute to low discharge and thus lower rising limb shape parameters. It is noted that the rising
352 limb shape parameter indicates (Table 2) a positive correlation with vegetation attributes ($r = 0.41$ for forest
353 fraction) and the fraction of precipitation falling as snow ($r = 0.53$), mean slope ($r = 0.36$), mean elevation ($r =$
354 0.41), and sand fraction ($r = 0.37$) whereas, it negatively correlates with precipitation frequency ($r = -0.42$ for high
355 precipitation frequency and $r = -0.45$ for low precipitation frequency). High values of rising limb shape parameters
356 are seen in Clusters 3, 4 (Fig. 6.c) located in the Northwestern Forested Mountains of the western US, dominant
357 with a summer peak of discharge caused by rapid snowmelt. The rapid snowmelt can cause flashy hydrographs
358 with high values of rising limb shape parameters.

359 Catchments with a high falling limb density are predominantly located along the Great Basin and the Rocky
360 Mountains and in the High Plains region (Fig. 7.a). This is due to less forest cover in these arid regions and falling
361 limb density shows a positive association with the arid climate ($r = 0.39$). Clusters 6, 7 over Marine West Coast
362 Forests and Western Cordillera experience smaller falling limb densities (Fig. 8.a). We can see that falling limb
363 density is mainly governed by climate indices and is negatively correlated with the land cover characteristics (for
364 LAI maximum ($r = -0.37$) and green veg frac max ($r = -0.40$, Table 2). Mean elevation ($r = 0.55$) also strongly
365 characterizes the nature of the falling limb density. Besides, fraction of precipitation falling as snow ($r = 0.42$) is
366 also positively correlated with falling limb density.

367 Similarities exist between the patterns of the upper recession coefficient and the lower recession coefficient (Fig.
368 7.b and Fig. 7.c). Clusters 3, 4 located in the Northwestern Forested Mountains, which have overall low discharge,
369 show low values of upper and lower recession coefficients (Fig. 8.b and Fig. 8.c). Clusters 2 and 9, located in the
370 eastern US, witness high values of recession coefficients: due to low slope inclinations, water takes a long time
371 to reach the outlet (Fig. 8.b and Fig. 8.c). Recession coefficients are negatively correlated (Table 2) with
372 topographic indices (with mean elevation: upper $r = -0.40$, lower $r = -0.35$; with mean slope: upper $r = -0.38$,
373 lower $r = -0.37$, where upper r and lower r corresponds to correlation values of upper and lower recession
374 coefficients respectively). Further, the recession coefficients show a positive correlation with clay (upper $r = 0.52$,
375 lower $r = 0.32$) and negative correlations with the fraction of precipitation falling as snow (upper $r = -0.46$,
376 lower $r = -0.39$), forest fraction (upper $r = -0.31$, lower $r = -0.28$), and sand fraction (upper $r = -0.38$, lower $r =$
377 -0.23). Moreover, the geology attributes such as subsurface porosity (upper $r = 0.13$, lower $r = 0.16$) reveal a
378 positive correlation to recession coefficients and a negative (upper $r = -0.09$, lower $r = -0.18$) with subsurface
379 permeability (Table 2).

380 We first identify the regions in the United States where high/low values of streamflow indices occur. The dominant
381 catchment attributes of these regions are also identified using corresponding clusters. The streamflow indices and
382 the dominant catchment attribute are then related to interpret the process behind the obtained findings. In terms
383 of geographical regions, the rising limb density is highest over the Atlantic coast states, Ohio valley, Lower
384 Mississippi Valley, Southern Great Plains, Southwest and Pacific, and lowest along the Upper Great Lakes region,
385 Upper Mississippi Valley, Great Basin, and Northern Rocky Mountains, Northern Interior Plains, and East of Gulf
386 Coast (Fig. 5.a). Further, in terms of hydrological clusters, Appalachian Mountains (Cluster 10), Southeastern and
387 Central Plains (Cluster 1) and all Southern most states of the US (Cluster 9) witness high rising limb densities and
388 these clusters are characterized by a high forest fraction, low aridity, and high frequency of high precipitation
389 events (Jehn et al., 2020), respectively (Fig. 6.a). The higher the forest proportion, the more precipitation is
390 intercepted, resulting in a shallow rising limb and longer lag time of hydrograph. A high frequency of high
391 precipitation episodes, on the other hand, can result in more rising limbs and higher rising limb densities.

392 Northwestern Forested Mountains (Clusters 3, 4), located in the mountains of the western US, experience low
393 values of rising limb density as these clusters are characterized by a dominant summer peak of discharge caused
394 by rapid snowmelt (Fig. 6.a). In these clusters, we identified regions with low rising limb densities and the main
395 catchment characteristics as dominant summer discharge peaks induced by quick snowmelt (Jehn et al., 2020). A
396 long lag time and shallow rising limb might be caused by snow on the ground; hence low values of rising limbs
397 might be caused by a longer lag time.

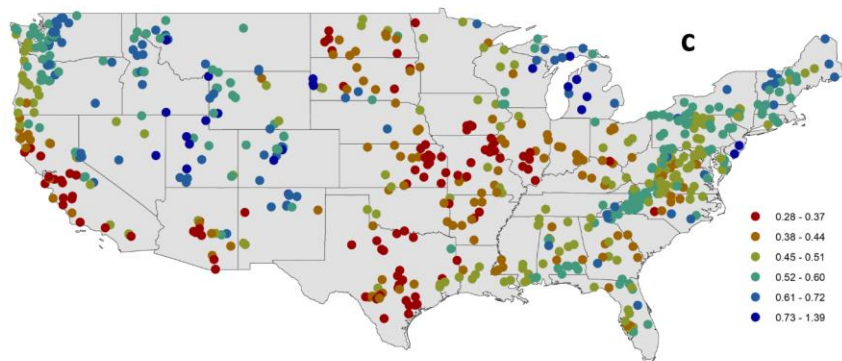
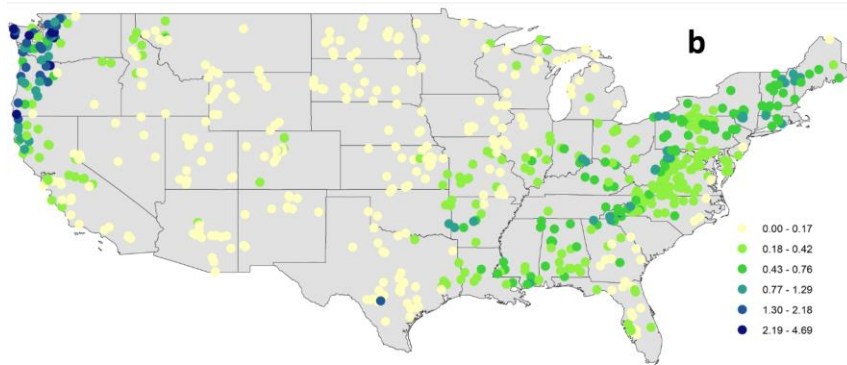
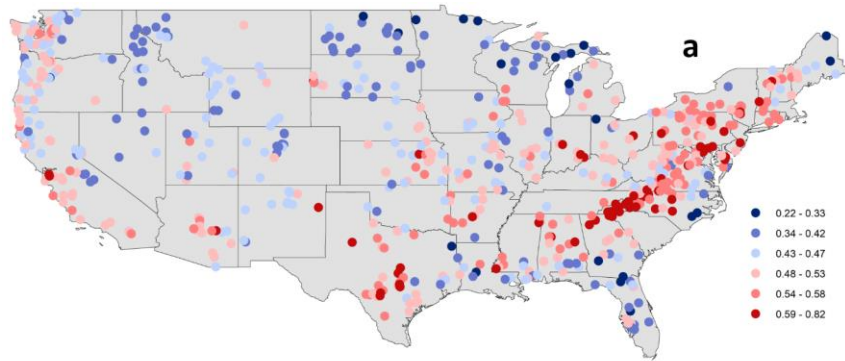
398 Considerably low values of rising limb scale parameters are experienced over the Rocky Mountains, High Plains,
399 Great Plains, Upper Mississippi Valley, Great Basin, Southwest, and the Great Lakes regions, whereas the Pacific
400 Northwest shows high values of rising limb scale parameters (Fig. 5.b). Clusters (5, 7) over the Northwestern
401 Forested Mountains of CONUS experience very high values of rising limb scale parameters (Fig. 6.b). These
402 catchments have the highest discharge, especially in the early summer, due to a combination of high precipitation
403 and snowmelt. Further, the region in the Continental US which receives the highest precipitation is included in
404 Cluster 5. Moreover, Cluster 5 consists of a large proportion of forest. Again, Cluster 7 with high values of rising
405 limb scale parameter is characterized by high fraction of precipitation falling as snow. High precipitation and

406 snowmelt might result in a large discharge. Higher discharges can create higher values of rising scale parameters
407 as the rising limb scale parameter regulates the magnitude of the rising limb. Low values of rising limb scale
408 parameters are shown by Clusters 2, 8, 9. This is because of low water availability, low snow fraction precipitation
409 falling as snow, and high evaporation experienced in these regions. Low discharge and thus lower rising limb
410 scale parameters can be caused by excessive evaporation, low water availability, and a low snow fraction of
411 precipitation falling as snow.

412 Low rising limb shape parameter occurs along the Great Plains, Mississippi Valley, Pacific coast, and the west of
413 Gulf Coast (Fig. 5.c). In contrast, the shape parameter over the Rocky Mountains, High Plains, Great Basin, Pacific
414 Northwest, and the Great Lakes region witnesses the highest values of rising limb shape parameters (Fig. 5.c). All
415 the catchments located in the Southern states of the US (Cluster 9), Great Plains and North American deserts
416 (Cluster 8), and the Central Plains (Cluster 2) characterize low values of rising limb shape parameters (Fig. 6.c).
417 This is due to low water availability, low snow fraction precipitation falling as snow, low leaf area index, and high
418 evaporation experienced in these regions. Excessive evaporation and a low snow fraction of precipitation falling
419 as snow can contribute to low discharge and thus lower rising limb shape parameters. High values of rising limb
420 shape parameters are seen in Clusters 3, 4 (Fig. 6.c) located in the Northwestern Forested Mountains of the western
421 US, dominant with a summer peak of discharge caused by rapid snowmelt. The rapid snowmelt can cause flashy
422 hydrographs with high values of rising limb shape parameters.

423 Catchments with a high falling limb density are predominantly located along the Great Basin and the Rocky
424 Mountains and in the High Plains region (Fig. 7.a). Clusters 4, 2, 8 over Northwestern Forested Mountains, Central
425 Plains, Great Plains, and North American deserts characterize higher magnitudes of falling limb density, and
426 Clusters 6, 7 over Marine West Coast Forests and Western Cordillera smaller falling limb densities (Fig. 8.a).
427 This is due to less presence of forest cover in these arid regions and falling limb density shows a positive
428 association with the arid climate.

429 Similarities exist between the patterns of the upper recession coefficient and the lower recession coefficient (Fig.
430 7.b and Fig. 7.c). Clusters 3, 4 located in the Northwestern Forested Mountains, which have overall low discharge,
431 show low values of upper and lower recession coefficients (Fig. 8.b and Fig. 8.c). Clusters 2 and 9, located in the
432 eastern US, witness high values of recession coefficients; due to low slope inclinations, water takes a long time
433 to reach the outlet (Fig. 8.b and Fig. 8.c).

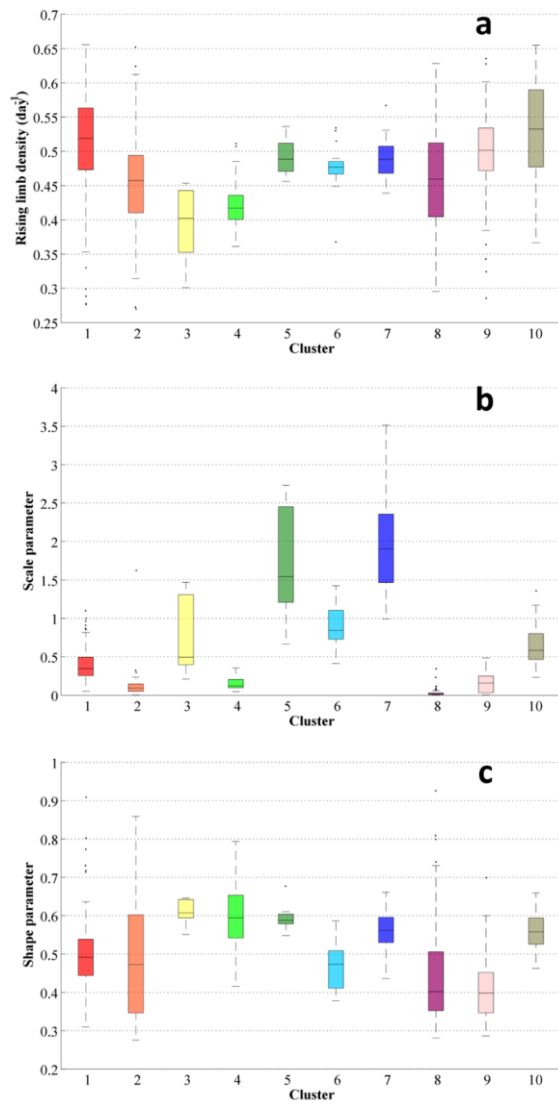


434

435 **Figure 5.** Spatial maps of streamflow indices associated with a rising limb (a) rising limb density [day^{-1}], (b)

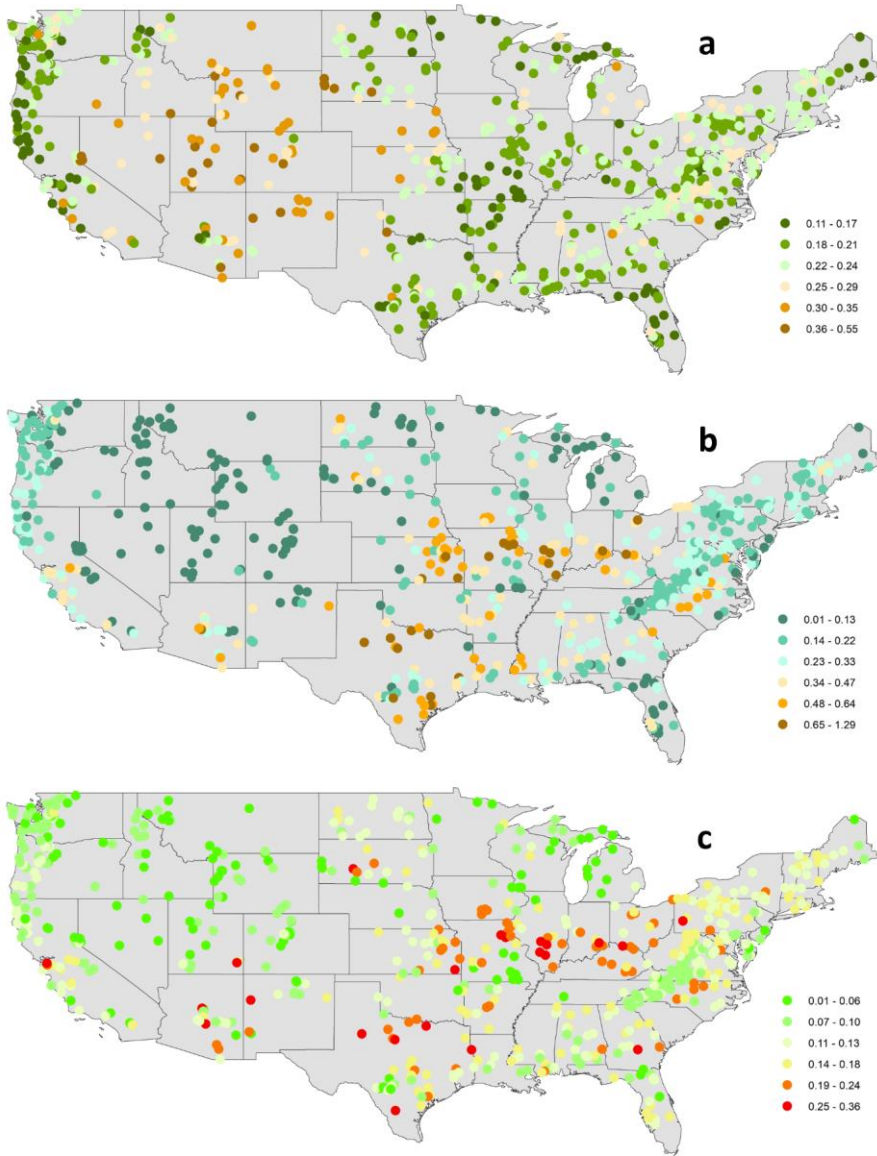
436 rising limb scale parameter, (c) rising limb shape parameter over the CONUS.

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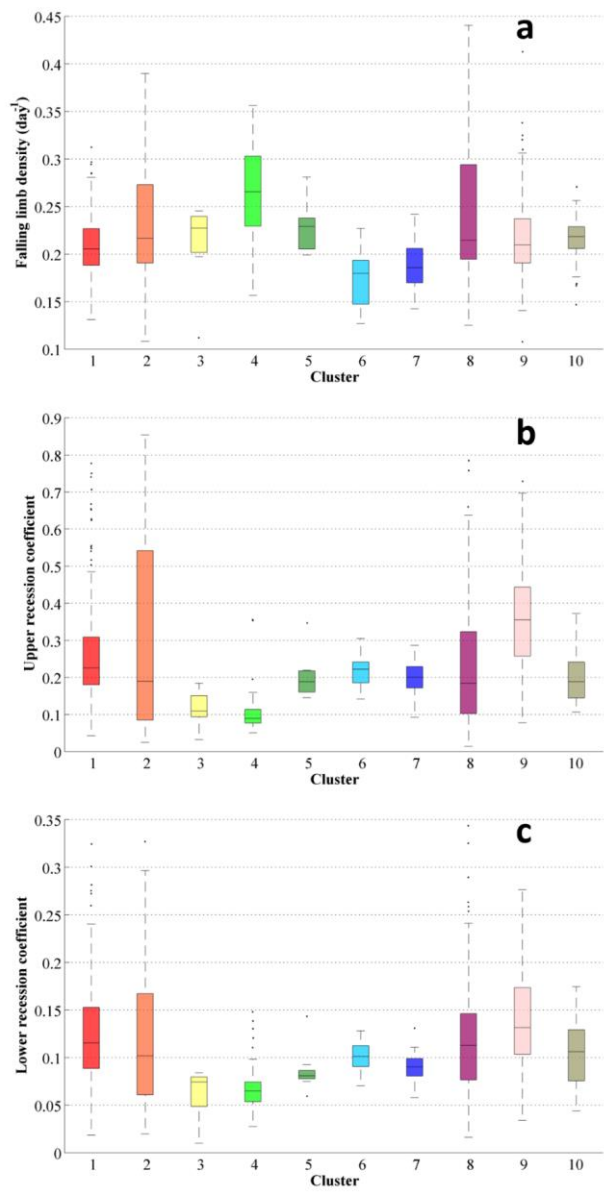
438

439 **Figure 6.** Boxplots of the hydrological descriptors linked with the rising limb (a) rising limb density [day⁻¹], (b)
 440 rising limb scale parameter, (c) rising limb shape parameter of the clusters over the CONUS.



441

442 **Figure 7.** Regional variability of streamflow indices associated with the falling limb (a) falling limb density [day⁻¹], (b) upper recession coefficient, (c) lower recession coefficient over the CONUS.
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444

445 **Figure 8.** Boxplots of the streamflow indices related with the falling limb (a) falling limb density [day^{-1}], (b) upper
 446 recession coefficient, (c) lower recession coefficient of the clusters.

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448

<u>Area</u>	<u>-0.30</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.17</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.06</u> <u>(0.11)</u>	<u>-0.13</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.06</u> <u>(0.10)</u>	<u>-0.06</u> <u>(0.11)</u>
<u>Mean elevation</u>	<u>-0.20</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.13</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.41</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.55</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.40</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.35</u> <u>(0.00)</u>
<u>Mean slope</u>	<u>-0.06</u> <u>(0.13)</u>	<u>0.35</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.36</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.18</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.38</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.37</u> <u>(0.00)</u>
<u>Precipitation seasonality</u>	<u>-0.04</u> <u>(0.26)</u>	<u>-0.36</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.14</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.01</u> <u>(0.75)</u>	<u>0.17</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.22</u> <u>(0.00)</u>
<u>Frac of precp as snow</u>	<u>-0.33</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.04</u> <u>(0.27)</u>	<u>0.53</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.42</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.46</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.39</u> <u>(0.00)</u>
<u>Aridity</u>	<u>-0.10</u> <u>(0.01)</u>	<u>-0.53</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.16</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.39</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.04</u> <u>(0.30)</u>	<u>0.03</u> <u>(0.45)</u>
<u>High precp freq</u>	<u>0.08</u> <u>(0.04)</u>	<u>-0.56</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.42</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.12</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.31</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.27</u> <u>(0.00)</u>
<u>High precp dur</u>	<u>-0.15</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.00</u> <u>(0.97)</u>	<u>-0.07</u> <u>(0.09)</u>	<u>0.12</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.11</u> <u>(0.01)</u>	<u>-0.17</u> <u>(0.00)</u>
<u>Low precp freq</u>	<u>0.00</u> <u>(0.91)</u>	<u>-0.63</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.45</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.17</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.26</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.19</u> <u>(0.00)</u>
<u>Low precp dur</u>	<u>-0.03</u> <u>(0.49)</u>	<u>-0.25</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.29</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.11</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.07</u> <u>(0.07)</u>	<u>0.01</u> <u>(0.84)</u>
<u>Depth to bedrock</u>	<u>-0.32</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.21</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.16</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.19</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.19</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.21</u> <u>(0.00)</u>
<u>Sand frac</u>	<u>-0.28</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.02</u> <u>(0.62)</u>	<u>0.37</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.02</u> <u>(0.63)</u>	<u>-0.38</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.23</u> <u>(0.00)</u>
<u>Clay frac</u>	<u>0.26</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.15</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.47</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.00</u> <u>(0.93)</u>	<u>0.52</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.32</u> <u>(0.00)</u>
<u>Forest frac</u>	<u>0.10</u> <u>(0.01)</u>	<u>0.46</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.41</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.17</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.31</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.28</u> <u>(0.00)</u>
<u>LAI maximum</u>	<u>0.20</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.41</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.17</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.37</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.09</u> <u>(0.03)</u>	<u>-0.04</u> <u>(0.28)</u>
<u>Green veg frac max</u>	<u>0.18</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.44</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.15</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.40</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.05</u> <u>(0.16)</u>	<u>-0.01</u> <u>(0.74)</u>
<u>Subsurface porosity</u>	<u>-0.16</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.06</u> <u>(0.12)</u>	<u>-0.16</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.08</u> <u>(0.03)</u>	<u>0.13</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>0.16</u> <u>(0.00)</u>
<u>Subsurface permeability</u>	<u>-0.11</u> <u>(0.00)</u>	<u>-0.04</u> <u>(0.34)</u>	<u>0.06</u> <u>(0.12)</u>	<u>0.03</u> <u>(0.39)</u>	<u>-0.09</u> <u>(0.02)</u>	<u>-0.18</u> <u>(0.00)</u>

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4.2 Relation of the Streamflow Indices and the Catchment Attributes

The association between the streamflow indices related to rising and falling limbs and catchment attributes is examined in this section. Table 2 shows the relation of streamflow indices linked with rising limb, and Table 3 shows the association of indices of the falling limb with catchment attributes. We used Spearman rank correlation for the correlation analysis. (in Tables 2 and 3). Green-colored coefficients represent positive correlation, and the red-colored correlation coefficients represent negative correlation. Table 2 and Table 3 have certain columns that are blank because only significant correlation values are provided in the table. Across all five attribute classes, the vegetation/land cover attributes positively correlate with all rising limb indices (Table 2). It can be seen that the rising limb density shows a positive correlation with all the three vegetation density indicators, namely fraction of forest, maximum leaf area index, maximum green vegetation fraction (Table 2).

However, it is observed that the rising limb scale parameter shows a negative correlation with climate and a positive association with the vegetation attributes (Table 2). Aridity and frequency of precipitation (Table 2) display a strong negative association with the rising limb scale parameter. It is noted that the rising limb shape parameter indicates a positive correlation with vegetation attributes and the fraction of precipitation falling as snow, mean slope, mean elevation, and sand fraction whereas, it negatively correlates with precipitation frequency.

Falling limb density is mainly governed by climate indices and is negatively correlated with the land cover characteristics (Table 3). Mean elevation also strongly characterizes the nature of the falling limb density. Besides, aridity and fraction of precipitation falling as snow are also positively correlated with falling limb density. Recession coefficients are negatively correlated with topographic indices (Table 3). Further, the recession coefficients show a positive correlation with clay and negative correlations with the fraction of precipitation falling as snow, forest fraction, and sand fraction. Moreover, the geology attributes such as subsurface porosity reveal a positive correlation to recession coefficients and a negative with subsurface permeability (Table 3).

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485 **Table 2.** Correlation between streamflow indices linked with rising limb and the catchment attributes. Green
 486 colored coefficients represent positive correlation, and the red colored correlation coefficients represent the
 487 negative correlation.

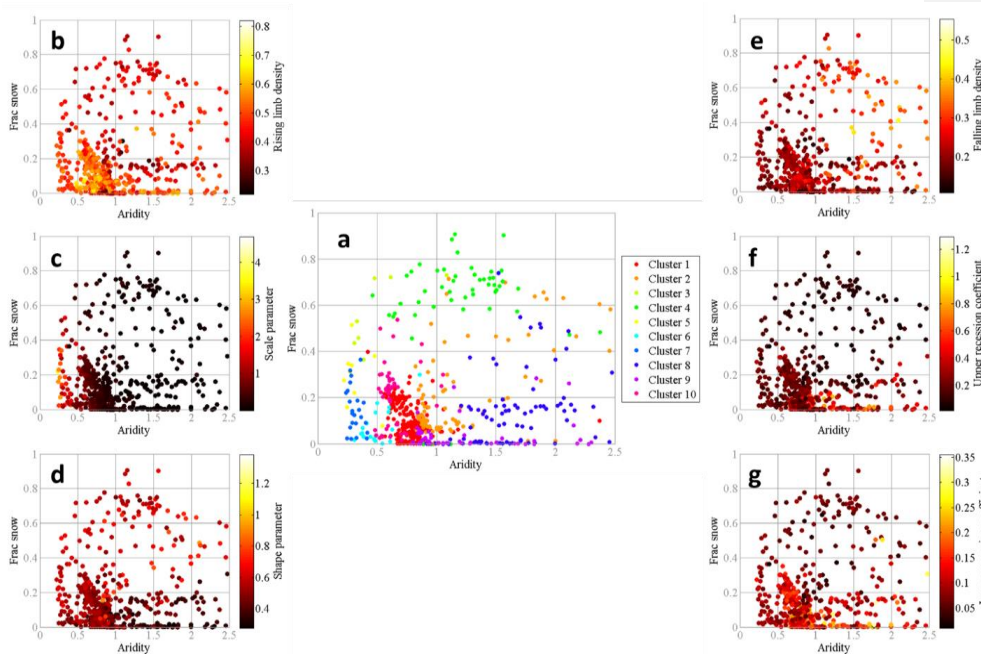
Spearman rank correlation coefficients	Topography			Climate						Soil			Land cover			Geology		
	Area	Mean elevation	Mean slope	Precipitation seasonality	Frac of preep as snow	Aridity	High preep freq	High preep dur	Low preep freq	Low preep dur	Depth to bedrock	Sand frac	Clay frac	Forest frac	LAI maximum	Green veg frac max	Subsurface porosity	Subsurface permeability
Rising limb density	-0.30	-0.20			-0.33	-0.10	0.08	-0.15			-0.32	-0.28	0.26	0.10	0.20	0.18	-0.16	-0.11
Scale parameter	-0.17	-0.13	0.35	-0.36		-0.53	-0.56		-0.63	-0.25	-0.21		-0.15	0.46	0.41	0.44		
Shape parameter		0.41	0.36	-0.14	0.53	-0.16	-0.42		-0.45	-0.29	-0.16	0.37	-0.47	0.41	0.17	0.15	-0.16	

488 **Table 3.** Correlation between streamflow indices linked with falling limb and the catchment attributes. Green
 489 colored coefficients represent positive correlation, and the red colored correlation coefficients represent the
 490 negative correlation.

491

Spearman rank correlation coefficients	Topography			Climate						Soil			Land cover			Geology		
	Area	Mean elevation	Mean slope	Precipitation seasonality	Frac of preep as snow	Aridity	High preep freq	High preep dur	Low preep freq	Low preep dur	Depth to bedrock	Sand frac	Clay frac	Forest frac	LAI maximum	Green veg frac max	Subsurface porosity	Subsurface permeability
Falling limb density	-0.13	0.55	0.18		0.42	0.39	0.12	0.12	0.17	0.11	-0.19			-0.17	-0.37	-0.40	0.08	
Upper recession coefficient		-0.40	-0.38	0.17	-0.46		0.31	-0.11	0.26		0.19	-0.38	0.52	-0.31	-0.09		0.13	-0.09
Lower recession coefficient		-0.35	-0.37	0.22	-0.39		0.27	-0.17	0.19		0.21	-0.23	0.32	-0.28			0.16	-0.18

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493

494 **Figure 9.** (a) Comparison of the hydrological clusters of Jehn et al. (2020) with the climate index space (fraction
 495 of precipitation falling as snow vs. aridity). Single dots show the catchments and are colored by their hydrological
 496 clusters. Comparison of the streamflow indices in climate index space (b) rising limb density (c) rising limb scale
 497 parameter, (d) rising limb shape parameter, (e) falling limb density, (f) upper recession coefficient, (g) lower
 498 recession coefficient for all catchments. Single dots show the catchments and are colored according to the value
 499 of the streamflow indices.

500

501 **4.3 Influence of Attributes of Climate to Streamflow Indices**

502 The climatic indices indicate a more substantial influence on hydrological signatures than the topographic, soil,
 503 land cover, and geological attributes combined (Addor et al., 2018). Additionally, the findings of Jehn et al. (2020)
 504 highlighted that the climate appears to be the most critical factor influencing hydrological behavior in the
 505 CAMELS dataset as a whole, and depending on the location, either aridity, snow, or seasonality are most
 506 important. Hence, the streamflow indices are then examined in the climate index space (aridity along x axis and
 507 fraction of precipitation falling as snow along the y axis) to evaluate the main drivers of the catchments. Single
 508 dots show the catchments and are colored by their hydrological clusters (Fig. 9.a).

509 Clusters 5, 6, 7, 1, 10 are characterized by a low fraction of precipitation falling as snow and humid climate,
 510 whereas Clusters 3, 4 have humid climate experiencing a high fraction of precipitation falling as snow (Fig. 9.a).
 511 Clusters 2, 8, 9 are featured by a low fraction of precipitation falling as snow and arid climate (Fig. 9.a). The three
 512 categories mentioned above are referred to as G1, G2, and G3, respectively.

513 Clusters G1 with a low fraction of precipitation falling as snow with humid climate show (Clusters 1, 9, 10) high
514 rising limb densities (Fig. 9.b) and (Clusters 5, 7) high rising limb scale parameters (Fig. 9.c). This is because the
515 rising limb density negatively correlates with fraction of precipitation falling as snow (Fig. 9.b), whereas the rising
516 limb scale parameter negatively correlates with aridity (Fig. 9.c). Moreover, these Clusters G1 experience a low
517 value of (Clusters 6, 7) falling limb density (Fig. 9.e). This is because the falling limb density positively correlates
518 with the climate indices (Fig. 9.e).

519 As mentioned earlier, Clusters G2 with humid climate and with a high fraction of precipitation falling as snow
520 (Clusters 3, 4) display low values of rising limb density as rising limb density correlates negatively with the
521 fraction of precipitation falling as snow (Fig. 9.b). G2 witnesses higher values of rising limb shape parameter due
522 to its negative correlation with aridity and positive correlation with the fraction of precipitation falling as snow
523 (Fig. 9.d). Furthermore, the Clusters of G2 (Clusters 3, 4) show low values of recession coefficients as they depict
524 a strong negative correlation with the fraction of precipitation falling as snow (Fig. 9.f, g).

525 Low values of rising limb scale and shape parameters are noticed for the Clusters 2, 9, 8 (Clusters G3) with arid
526 climate and low fraction of precipitation falling as snow (Fig. 9.c, d) due to its negative correlation with aridity as
527 stated earlier. Cluster 8 experiences the maximum values of falling limb density (Fig. 9.e) where the region
528 witnesses low fraction of snow and arid catchments, due to its strong positive correlates with the aridity.

529 **4.2 Influence of Attributes of Climate to Streamflow Indices**

530 The climatic indices indicate a more substantial influence on hydrological signatures than the topographic, soil,
531 land cover, and geological attributes combined (Addor et al., 2018, Stein et al., 2021). Additionally, the findings
532 of Jehn et al. (2020) highlighted that the climate appears to be the most critical factor influencing hydrological
533 behavior in the CAMELS dataset as a whole, and depending on the location, either aridity, snow, or seasonality
534 are most important. Hence, the streamflow indices are then examined in the climate index space (aridity along x-
535 axis and fraction of precipitation falling as snow along the y-axis) to evaluate the main drivers of the catchments.
536 Single dots show the catchments and are colored by their hydrological clusters (Fig. 9.a).

537 Clusters 5, 6, 7, 1, 10 are characterized by a low fraction of precipitation falling as snow and humid climate,
538 whereas Clusters 3, 4 have humid climate experiencing a high fraction of precipitation falling as snow (Fig. 9.a).
539 Clusters 2, 8, 9 are featured by a low fraction of precipitation falling as snow and arid climate (Fig. 9.a). The three
540 categories mentioned above are referred to as G1, G2, and G3, respectively.

541 Clusters G1 with a low fraction of precipitation falling as snow with humid climate show (Clusters 1, 9, 10) high
542 rising limb densities (Fig. 9.b) and (Clusters 5, 7) high rising limb scale parameters (Fig. 9.c). This is because the
543 rising limb density negatively correlates with fraction of precipitation falling as snow (Table 2: $r = -0.33$, Fig.
544 9.b), whereas the rising limb scale parameter negatively correlates with aridity (Table 2: $r = -0.53$, Fig. 9.c).
545 Moreover, these Clusters G1 experience a low value of (Clusters 6, 7) falling limb density (Fig. 9.e). This is
546 because the falling limb density positively correlates with the climate indices (Table 2: $r = 0.42$ for fraction of
547 precipitation falling as snow and $r = 0.39$ for aridity, Fig. 9.e).

548 As mentioned earlier, Clusters G2 with humid climate and with a high fraction of precipitation falling as snow
549 (Clusters 3, 4) display low values of rising limb density as rising limb density correlates negatively with the

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550 fraction of precipitation falling as snow (Table 2: $r = -0.33$, Fig. 9.b). G2 witnesses higher values of rising limb
551 shape parameter due to its negative correlation with aridity ($r = -0.16$) and positive correlation with the fraction
552 of precipitation falling as snow (Table 2: $r = 0.53$, Fig. 9.d). Furthermore, the Clusters of G2 (Clusters 3, 4) show
553 low values of recession coefficients as they depict a strong negative correlation with the fraction of precipitation
554 falling as snow (Table 2: upper $r = -0.46$, and lower $r = -0.39$, Fig. 9.f, g).

555 Low values of rising limb scale and shape parameters are noticed for the Clusters 2, 9, 8 (Clusters G3) with arid
556 climate and low fraction of precipitation falling as snow (Fig. 9.c, d) due to its negative correlation with aridity as
557 stated earlier. Cluster 8 experiences the maximum values of falling limb density (Fig. 9.e) where the region
558 witnesses low fraction of snow and arid catchments, due to its strong positive correlates with the aridity ($r = 0.39$).

559 **5 Concluding remarks**

560 Streamflow hydrograph portrays the time distribution of runoff at the point of measurement by a single curve, and
561 the hydrographs are characterized by their time irreversibility property. In this study, the indices related to this
562 characteristic feature are used to study the catchment drivers of streamflow hydrograph. The streamflow indices
563 associated with the time irreversibility of hydrograph open new opportunities to investigate the interaction
564 between topography, soil, climate, vegetation, geology that drive the hydrological behavior of catchments.
565 Moreover, most of the previously presented hydrologic indices are employed only for time-symmetric processes
566 (McMillan, 2021); the importance of the time irreversibility of streamflow is highlighted in this study. The indices
567 associated with rising and falling limbs are primarily correlated to distinct catchment attributes, establishing a
568 relationship between the indices and catchment attributes such as climate, topography, soil, geology, and
569 vegetation to delineate the controlling drivers in corresponding hydrograph sections. A set of streamflow indices
570 with temporal asymmetry for 671 catchments in the United States is presented in this study. The regional
571 variations among catchments over the United States are compared and discussed using the spatial maps of
572 streamflow indices. Such spatial maps of the streamflow indices supplement the hydrometeorological time series
573 and catchment attributes provided by Addor et al. (2017).

574 The study revealed that the rising limb indices such as rising limb density, rising limb shape parameter and rising
575 limb scale parameter correlate positively with vegetation indices. Falling limb density is primarily controlled by
576 climate indices and is negatively correlated with land cover characteristics; the structure of the falling limb density
577 is also closely influenced by mean elevation. The study showed that the rising limb density is mainly governed
578 by the elevation and fraction of precipitation falling as snow. Climate indices, mean elevation, and the fraction of
579 precipitation falling as snow mainly influence falling limb density. In contrast, the aridity and frequency of
580 precipitation drive the rising limb scale parameter. Furthermore, forest fraction, the fraction of precipitation falling
581 as snow, mean slope, mean elevation, sand fraction, and precipitation frequency influence the rising limb shape
582 parameter. Mean elevation, mean slope, clay, the fraction of precipitation falling as snow, forest fraction, and sand
583 fraction all determine recession coefficients. Finally, streamflow indices are studied in the climate index space to
584 isolate the runoff generation's leading drivers. High rising limb densities and rising limb scale parameters are
585 observed in catchments with low precipitation falling as snow and a humid climate. It is observed that the
586 catchments with a humid climate and a high fraction of precipitation falling as snow display low values of rising
587 limb density, high values of the rising limb shape parameter, and low values of recession coefficients. The lowest
588 values of rising limb scale and shape parameters, and the highest values of falling limb density, are seen in

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589 catchments of arid climates and a low fraction of precipitation falling as snow.

590 In general, the contribution of this work lies in differentiating hydrographs depending on their time irreversibility
591 property and using the corresponding indices to provide an alternative methodology for identifying the drivers of
592 streamflow hydrographs. In the context of large-sample hydrology research, the concept of time-irreversibility
593 and the indices associated with it could also be used to describe the drivers at catchment scale. [It must be noted](#)
594 [that Each attribute \(e.g., climate vegetation, soil, geology\) usually does not exist independently in space but is](#)
595 [closely interwoven, resulting in various strongly correlated attributes in a catchment \(Jehn et al., 2020; Stein et](#)
596 [al., 2021\). However, it would be beyond the scope of this paper document to describe all probable relationships](#)
597 [between attributes. Keeping this in mind, the main focus of this study was constrained to only identify the](#)
598 [controlling attributes of streamflow indices. Another limitation of the work is related with the characterization of](#)
599 [recessions used.](#)

600 [Future work may investigate using the inflection point or another recession separation technique to characterize](#)
601 [recessions.](#)

602

603 *Data availability.* The CAMELS dataset can be found at <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess21-5293-2017> (Addor et al.
604 2017). [The hydrometeorological time series \(https://doi.org/10.5065/D6MW2F4D\) used in this paper are freely](#)
605 [available online.](#)

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