



# 1 **Streamflow indices to identify catchment drivers of** 2 **hydrograph**

3 Jeenu Mathai<sup>1</sup> and Pradeep P. Mujumdar<sup>1,2</sup>

4 <sup>1</sup>Department of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, India

5 <sup>2</sup>Interdisciplinary Centre for Water Research, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, India

6 *Correspondence to:* P. P. Mujumdar ([pradeep@iisc.ac.in](mailto:pradeep@iisc.ac.in))

7

8 **Abstract.** Streamflow indices are flow descriptors that quantify the streamflow dynamics, which are usually  
9 determined for a specific basin and are distinct from other basin features. The flow descriptors are appropriate for  
10 large-scale and comparative hydrology studies, independent of statistical assumptions and can distinguish signals  
11 that indicate basin behavior over time. In this paper, the characteristic features of the hydrograph's temporal  
12 asymmetry due to its different underlying hydrologic processes are primarily highlighted. Streamflow indices  
13 linked to each limb of the hydrograph within **the time-irreversibility paradigm** are distinguished with respect to  
14 its processes driving the rising and falling limbs. Various streamflow indices relating the rising and falling limbs,  
15 and the catchment attributes such as climate, topography, vegetation, geology and soil are then correlated. Finally,  
16 the key attributes governing rising and falling limbs are identified. The novelty of the work is on differentiating  
17 hydrographs by their time irreversibility property and offering an alternative way to recognize primary drivers of  
18 streamflow hydrographs. A set of streamflow indices at the catchment scale for 671 basins in the Contiguous  
19 United States (CONUS) is presented here. These streamflow indices complement the catchment attributes  
20 provided earlier (Addor et al., 2017) for the CAMELS data set. A series of spatial maps describing the streamflow  
21 indices and their regional variability over the CONUS is illustrated in this study.

22

## 23 **1 Introduction**

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

33

34 Hydrological indices are increasingly used in emerging areas such as global-scale hydrologic modeling and large-  
35 sample hydrology to extract relevant information and compare the different watershed processes (Addor et al.,  
36 2017, 2018; McMillan, 2021). These indices offer an indirect way to explore hydrological processes as well as  
37 provide insights into hydrologic behavior in catchments where data other than streamflow is restricted and are

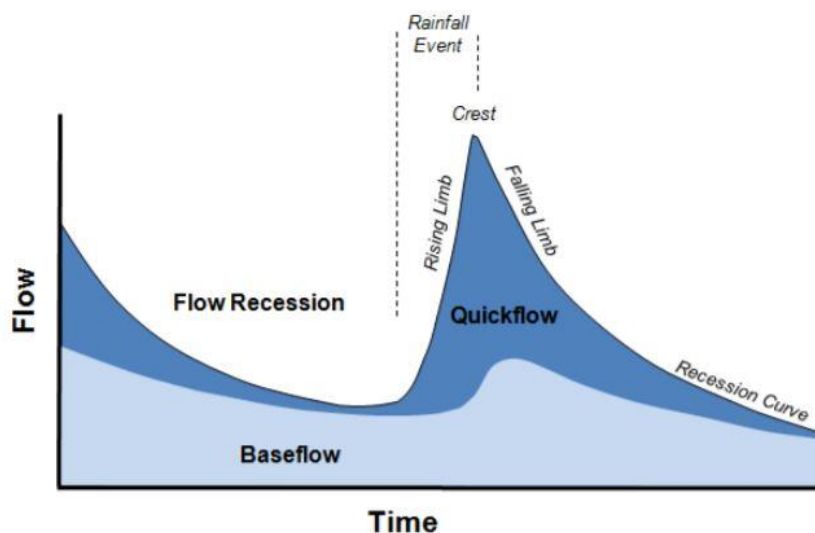


38 widely used in process exploration, model calibration, model selection, and catchment classification (Addor et al.,  
39 2018; Clark et al., 2011; Kuentz et al., 2017; McMillan et al., 2011; Sawicz et al., 2011). McMillan (2021)  
40 presented a classification that differentiates between statistics- and dynamics-based signatures and between  
41 signatures at different timescales.

42

43 The relevance of time irreversibility (or temporal asymmetry) of streamflow variability on a daily scale has been  
44 emphasized in recent studies (Koutsoyiannis, 2020; Mathai and Mujumdar, 2019; Serinaldi and Kilsby, 2016) the  
45 disparity in physical mechanisms driving the hydrograph's ascension and recession limbs (Fig.1) contributes to  
46 time irreversibility. Unlike other variables such as temperature, wind, precipitation, time irreversibility has been  
47 marked for streamflow at a daily scale (Koutsoyiannis, 2020). Moreover, the various segments of the recession  
48 phase represent different phases in the flow process. As a result, time irreversibility must be acknowledged in  
49 streamflow analysis, accounting for the distinction of the recession into different segments, with a faster recession  
50 induced by high discharges caused by surface runoff and a slower recession caused by baseflow (Fig.1), and the  
51 characterization of the recession rates separately (Mathai and Mujumdar, 2019). In this study, streamflow indices  
52 are chosen to better understand different hydrological processes by recognizing the streamflow hydrograph's  
53 temporal asymmetry.

54



55

**Figure 1.** Schematic representation of rising limb and falling limb

56

(source: Environment Southland;

57

<https://www.es.govt.nz/environment/water/groundwater/groundwater-monitoring>)

58

59

## 60 2 Methods

61

To facilitate a comprehension of various hydrological processes and streamflow hydrograph drivers, the study  
62 employs streamflow indices considering the streamflow hydrograph's temporal asymmetry. The description of  
63 indices used in this study are tabulated in Table 1. Streamflow indices linked to each limb of the streamflow  
64 hydrograph within the time-irreversibility paradigm are distinguished since hydrographs have rising and falling



65 limbs. The following indices are considered in the rising limb category: 1) rising limb density, 2) rising limb shape  
 66 parameter, and 3) rising limb scale parameter. In contrast, 1) falling limb density 2) slope of upper recession  
 67 (upper recession coefficient) 3) slope of lower recession (lower recession coefficient) are selected in falling limb  
 68 category. The next step is to compute these indices for a large number of catchments and correlate them with  
 69 attributes such as climate, topography, vegetation, geology, and soil. The streamflow indices can be correlated  
 70 explicitly since sub-categories are involved in each of the catchment attributes discussed above. Finally, the key  
 71 attributes governing ascension and recession limbs can be summarized and identified. This work's main novelty  
 72 is to differentiate hydrographs by their time irreversibility property and using their associated indices by offering  
 73 an alternative way to recognize primary drivers of streamflow hydrographs. The specifics of indices are explained  
 74 further below.

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

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

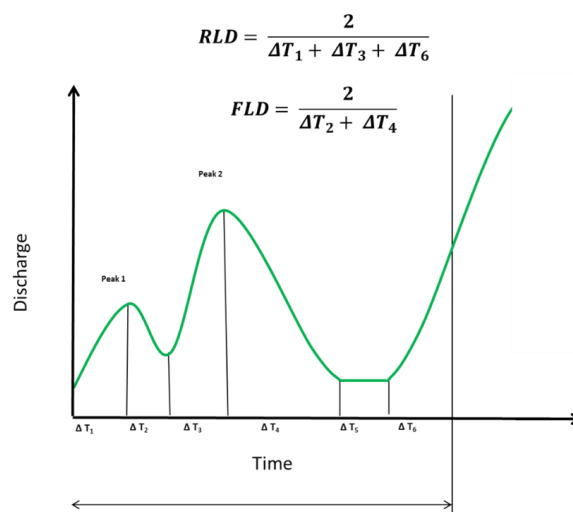
78 The ratio of the number of falling limbs to the cumulative time of falling limbs is termed as falling limb density  
 79 (FLD) (Fig. 2) (Shamir et al., 2005). The expression for FLD is given as,

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

80 **Table 1.** Hydrological descriptors with temporal asymmetry.

Sl.no	Attribute	Description	Unit	Data source	References
1	RLD	Rising limb density	day <sup>-1</sup>	N15 – USGS data	Shamir et al. (2005)
2	FLD	Falling limb density	day <sup>-1</sup>		
3	a	ascension limb scale parameter	-		Mathai and Mujumdar, (2019)
4	b	ascension limb shape parameter	-		
5	b <sub>1</sub>	Upper recession coefficient	-		
6	b <sub>2</sub>	Lower recession coefficient	-		

81



82

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

85 The diurnal increments of streamflow are fitted with an appropriate probability density function to depict  
 86 the shape of the ascension limbs which occur on wet days. The Weibull distribution reflects the diurnal  
 87 increments of streamflow that occur on wet days reasonably well (Mathai and Mujumdar, 2019; Stagge  
 88 and Moglen, 2013; Szilagyi et al., 2006), and the scale 'a' and shape 'b' parameters of the Weibull  
 89 distribution are computed for each catchment by using observed diurnal increments of streamflow. In  
 90 contrast, an exponential recession is used to capture the shape of the recession limbs on dry days of the  
 91 daily hydrograph, representing the falling limbs' underlying dynamics (Mathai and Mujumdar, 2019). As  
 92 the upper recession refers to the fast flow following a storm event and the lower recession refers to the  
 93 baseflow recession, falling limb modeling is done in two stages.

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

99 **3 Contributions of the Study**

100 The analysis employs a collection of indices drawn from hydrograph shape diagnoses, which extracts  
 101 information about a basin's ascension and recession limbs' inherent properties. The principle of time  
 102 irreversibility is encapsulated by six streamflow indices that describe and characterize a streamflow  
 103 hydrograph's shape, and indices for a particular basin are consistent and distinct from indices from other  
 104 basins.



105 The goals of this study are as follows: i) to identify the key drivers of streamflow hydrographs (in terms  
106 of catchment attributes) using time-irreversibility-based indices ii) to present a spatial map-based attribute  
107 class of time-irreversibility-based indices for a large sample hydrology dataset.

108 As shown in numerous ways/studies in the literature, our notion of time-irreversibility and its indices  
109 could also do a reasonable job of articulating the catchment drivers of streamflow hydrographs. This  
110 study presents an attribute class of hydrograph shape descriptors with temporal asymmetry. The  
111 significance of large sample hydrology datasets in open hydrologic science and their potential to improve  
112 hydrological studies' transparency is also underlined in this study.

#### 113 **4 Motivation to extend to large sample hydrology**

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

126 The primary challenges in fostering LSH are data availability and accessibility, which seriously hinder  
127 its use in data-scarce regions. Despite the fact that a few large-scale hydrology studies have been  
128 undertaken, the number of publicly available large-scale datasets is still restricted (Addor et al., 2017,  
129 2020; Coxon et al., 2020). Moreover, licensing restrictions and strict access policies make the datasets  
130 rarely available to the public (Coxon et al., 2020).

131 Model Parameter Estimation Experiment project (MOPEX) dataset (Duan et al., 2006), Canadian model  
132 parameter experiment (CANOPEX) database (Arsenault et al., 2016), Global Streamflow Indices and  
133 Metadata Archive (Do et al., 2018; Gudmundsson et al., 2018), Global Runoff Reconstruction (Ghiggi et  
134 al., 2019), HydroATLAS (Linke et al., 2019) and the Catchment Attributes and MEteorology for Large-  
135 Sample studies (CAMELS) (Addor et al., 2017) are notable contributions of open and accessible large  
136 sample catchment datasets (Coxon et al., 2020).

137 Addor et al. (2017) introduced a new dataset (CAMELS) made publicly available for large-sample  
138 hydrological studies. This dataset covers meteorological and streamflow datasets provided by Newman  
139 et al. (2015) and provides quantitative metrics for a large variety of attributes for 671 catchments in the  
140 contiguous United States (CONUS). Streamflow records are available in the dataset from 1990 to 2009  
141 for the 671 catchments, which are minimally influenced by human activities (Addor et al., 2017).



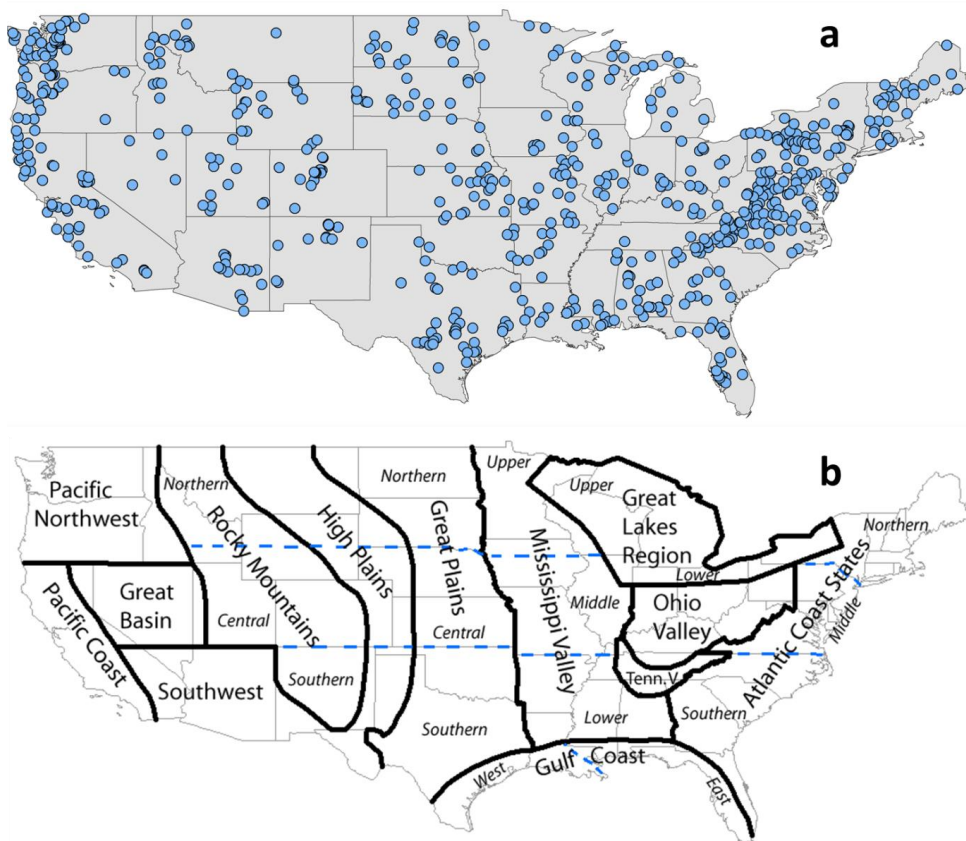
142 The CAMELS dataset prompted hydrological research by enabling open access to hydrologic data and  
143 establishing a common standard across the database. CAMELS promoted open access to datasets for the  
144 United States, and it is eventually expanded to the United Kingdom (CAMELS-GB), Chile (CAMELS-  
145 CL), and Brazil (CAMELS-BR). The CAMELS proposes five classes of catchment attributes, namely  
146 location, topography, geology, land cover characteristics, climatic indices, and hydrological signatures,  
147 in order to promote common standards and formats in large sample studies (Addor et al., 2017). The  
148 concept of time irreversibility-based streamflow indices is then applied to CAMELS catchments with the  
149 goal of encouraging large sample hydrology studies.

#### 150 **5 Dataset used**

151 Section 5 provides the description of the dataset used and the study area chosen. This study employs the  
152 CAMELS dataset, which encompasses daily discharge data and catchment attributes for 671 catchments  
153 (Fig. 3) across the continental United States, representing a diverse set of catchments with long  
154 streamflow time series covering a wide range of hydro-climatic conditions (Addor et al., 2017). The time  
155 frame chosen for the analysis is from 1 October 1989 to 30 September 2009 (Addor et al., 2017). The  
156 topographic characteristics of CAMELS dataset are represented in Fig. 4. Except for the Appalachian  
157 Mountains, the eastern part of the Continental United States is much flatter than the western portion,  
158 according to mean elevation and mean slope maps (Fig. 4.a and 4.b). Figure 4.c depicts the spatial pattern  
159 of catchment size, highlighting presence of some catchments with an area greater than 10,000 km<sup>2</sup>.

160

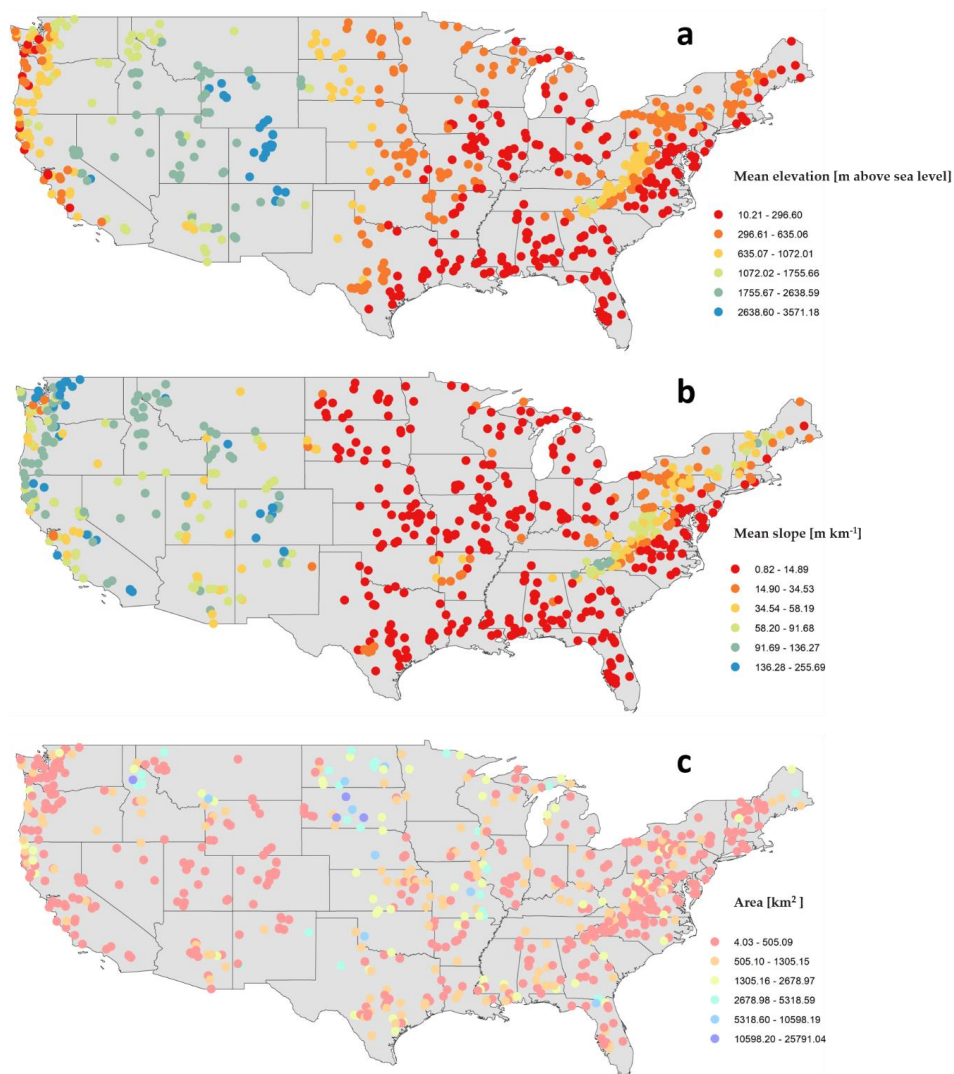
161



162

163 **Figure 3.** (a) Map of 671 CAMELS catchments in the continental United States considered in this study.  
164 (b) Geographical regions of US according to NOAA National Centers for Environmental Information  
165 referred for the analysis (source: NOAA National Centers for Environmental Information;  
166 <https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/temp-and-precip/drought/nadm/geography>).

167



168

169

170

171

172

173

174

**Figure 4.** Maps of topographic characteristics of CAMELS catchments over the CONUS (Addor et al., 2017). (a) Mean elevation [m above sea level] (b) Mean slope [m km<sup>-1</sup>] (c) Area [km<sup>2</sup>]. The eastern US seems to have a much flatter mean elevation and mean slope than the western US, which significantly influences catchment behavior. The majority of the catchments are noticed to be smaller, with an area of fewer than 3000 km<sup>2</sup>.

175

176

177

178





179

**5.1 Catchment attributes**

180

The landscape of each catchment is described using multiple attributes, which can be divided into various classes as shown in Table 2 (Addor et al., 2017). **The details of the attributes used in this study is summarized in Table 2.**

181

182

183

**Table 2.** CAMELS attributes (Addor et al., 2017)

184

185

Sl.no	Attribute	Description	Unit
<b>Climatic indices</b>			186
1	aridity	aridity (ratio of mean PET to mean precipitation)	-
2	p_seasonality	seasonality and timing of precipitation (positive (negative) values indicate that precipitation peaks in summer (winter); values close to 0 indicate uniform precipitation throughout the year)	-
3	frac_snow	fraction of precipitation falling as snow	-
4	high_prec_freq	frequency of high precipitation days	days yr <sup>-1</sup>
5	high_prec_dur	average duration of high precipitation events	days
6	low_prec_freq	frequency of dry days	days yr <sup>-1</sup>
7	low_prec_dur	average duration of dry periods	days
<b>Land cover characteristics</b>			
8	Forest_frac	forest fraction	-
9	Lai_max	maximum monthly mean of the leaf area index	-
10	Gvf_max	maximum monthly mean of the green vegetation fraction	-
<b>Soil characteristics</b>			
11	soil_depth_pelletier	depth to bedrock	m
12	sand_frac	sand fraction	%
13	clay_frac	clay fraction	%
<b>Geological characteristics</b>			
14	geol_porosity	subsurface porosity	-
15	geol_permeability	subsurface permeability (log10)	m <sup>2</sup>

192

193

194

195



## 196 **6 Results and Discussion**

197 The first sub-section below looks at the regional variability of the streamflow indices used in this study. For the  
198 671 CAMELS catchments, rising limb density, falling limb density, ascension limb scale parameter, ascension  
199 limb shape parameter, upper recession coefficient, and lower recession coefficient are computed and given as  
200 spatial maps. Streamflow indices are then presented in hydrological clusters to incorporate a more explicit spatial  
201 representation of catchment behavior across the CONUS. Catchment attributes cover a broad range of aspects of  
202 catchment hydrology such as, land cover, soil, climate, geology, topography and the association between these  
203 attributes and streamflow indices is discussed further in the subsequent section. As the climate is the most  
204 important factor in the US for the hydrological behavior for the CAMELS dataset (Jehn et al., 2020), **the influence**  
205 **of climatic factors on streamflow indices is finally studied.**

### 206 **6.1 Spatial Variability in Streamflow Indices**

207 Streamflow indices related to rising limbs and falling limbs are computed for the selected catchments and  
208 displayed in spatial maps as shown in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6, respectively. The spatial analysis is based on the United  
209 States' geographical areas (for details, refer to Fig. 3b) as defined by NOAA's National Centers for Environmental  
210 Information and is referred to in the following spatial maps. **Furthermore, ten clusters provided by Jehn et al.**  
211 **(2020) to represent the discrete hydrological behaviors of the continental United States are adopted in this study**  
212 **to understand the regional variability of catchment behavior.** Figure S1 and Table S1 present the location map and  
213 details of the ten clusters.

214 In terms of geographical regions, the rising limb density is highest over the Atlantic coast states, Ohio valley,  
215 Lower Mississippi Valley, Southern Great Plains, Southwest and Pacific, and lowest along the Upper Great Lakes  
216 region, Upper Mississippi Valley, Great Basin, and Northern Rocky Mountains, Northern Interior Plains, and East  
217 of Gulf Coast (Fig. 5.a). Further, in terms of hydrological clusters, Appalachian Mountains (Cluster 10),  
218 Southeastern and Central Plains (Cluster 1) and all Southern most states of the US (Cluster 9) witness high rising  
219 limb densities and **these clusters are characterized by a high forest fraction, low aridity, and high frequency of**  
220 **high precipitation events, respectively (Fig. 6.a).** Northwestern Forested Mountains (Clusters 3, 4), located in the  
221 mountains of the western US, experience **low values of rising limb density as these clusters are characterized by**  
222 **a dominant summer peak of discharge caused by rapid snowmelt (Fig. 6.a).**

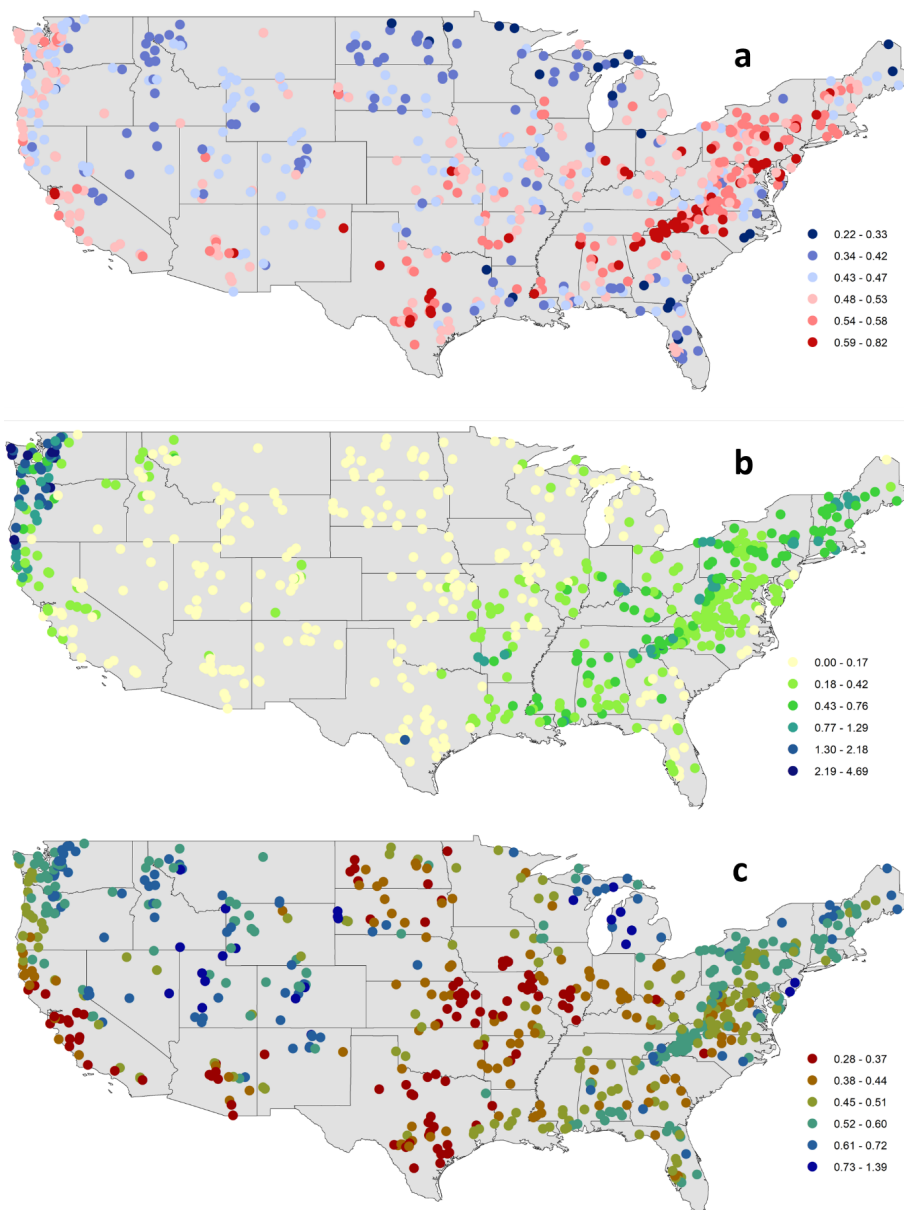
223 Considerably low values of rising limb scale parameters are experienced over the Rocky Mountains, High Plains,  
224 Great Plains, Upper Mississippi Valley, Great Basin, Southwest, and the Great Lakes regions, whereas the Pacific  
225 Northwest shows high values of rising limb scale parameters (Fig. 5.b). Clusters (5, 7) over the Northwestern  
226 Forested Mountains of CONUS experience very high values of rising limb scale parameters (Fig. 6.b). **These**  
227 **catchments have the highest discharge, especially in the early summer, due to a combination of high precipitation**  
228 **and snowmelt.** Further, the region in the Continental US which receives the highest precipitation is included in  
229 **Cluster 5. Moreover, Cluster 5 consists of a large proportion of forest. Again, Cluster 7 with high values of rising**  
230 **limb scale parameter is characterized by high fraction of precipitation falling as snow.** Low values of rising limb  
231 scale parameters are shown by Clusters 2, 8, 9. **This is because of low water availability, low snow fraction**  
232 **precipitation falling as snow, and high evaporation experienced in these regions.**



233 Low rising limb shape parameter occurs along the Great Plains, Mississippi Valley, Pacific coast, and the west of  
234 Gulf Coast (Fig. 5.c). In contrast, the shape parameter over the Rocky Mountains, High Plains, Great Basin, Pacific  
235 Northwest, and the Great Lakes region witnesses the highest values of rising limb shape parameters (Fig. 5.c). All  
236 the catchments located in the Southern states of the US (Cluster 9), Great Plains and North American deserts  
237 (Cluster 8), and the Central Plains (Cluster 2) characterize low values of rising limb shape parameters (Fig. 6.c).  
238 **This is due to low water availability, low snow fraction precipitation falling as snow, low leaf area index, and high**  
239 **evaporation experienced in these regions.** High values of rising limb shape parameters are seen in Clusters 3, 4  
240 (Fig. 6.c) located in the Northwestern Forested Mountains of the western US, **dominant with a summer peak of**  
241 **discharge caused by rapid snowmelt.**

242 Catchments with a high falling limb density are predominantly located along the Great Basin and the Rocky  
243 Mountains and in the High Plains region (Fig. 7.a). Clusters 4, 2, 8 over Northwestern Forested Mountains, Central  
244 Plains, Great Plains, and North American deserts characterize higher magnitudes of falling limb density, and  
245 Clusters 6, 7 over Marine West Coast Forests and Western Cordillera smaller falling limb densities (Fig. 8.a).  
246 **This is due to less presence of forest cover in these arid regions.**

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

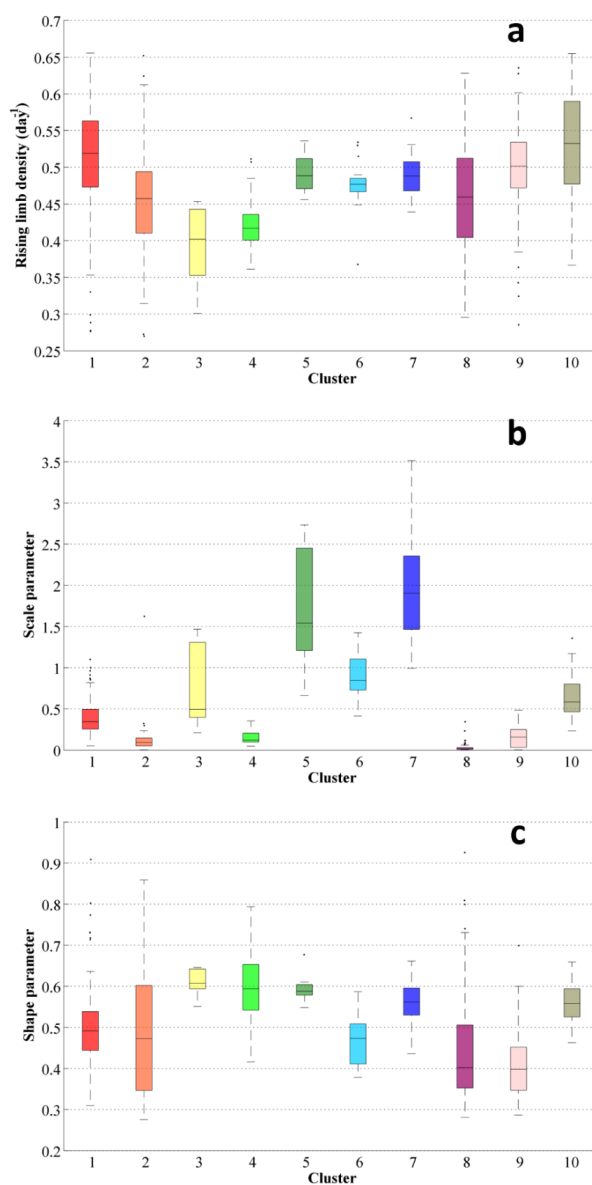


252

253 **Figure 5.** Spatial maps of streamflow indices associated with a rising limb (a) rising limb density [ $\text{day}^{-1}$ ], (b)  
254 rising limb scale parameter, (c) rising limb shape parameter over the CONUS. The Atlantic coast states, Ohio  
255 Valley, Lower Mississippi Valley, Southern Great Plains, Southwest, and Pacific have the highest rising limb  
256 density, while the Upper Great Lakes region, Upper Mississippi Valley, Great Basin, Northern Rocky Mountains,  
257 Northern Interior Plains, and East of Gulf Coast have the lowest. The Rocky Mountains, High Plains, Great Plains,  
258 Upper Mississippi Valley, Great Basin, Southwest, and Great Lakes regions have low values of rising limb scale  
259 parameters, but the Pacific Northwest has high values of rising limb scale parameters. The Great Plains,  
260 Mississippi Valley, Pacific coast, and west of Gulf Coast have low rising limb shape parameters. The shape  
261 parameter has the greatest values of rising limb shape parameters over the Rocky Mountains, High Plains, Great  
262 Basin, Pacific Northwest, and Great Lakes regions.



263

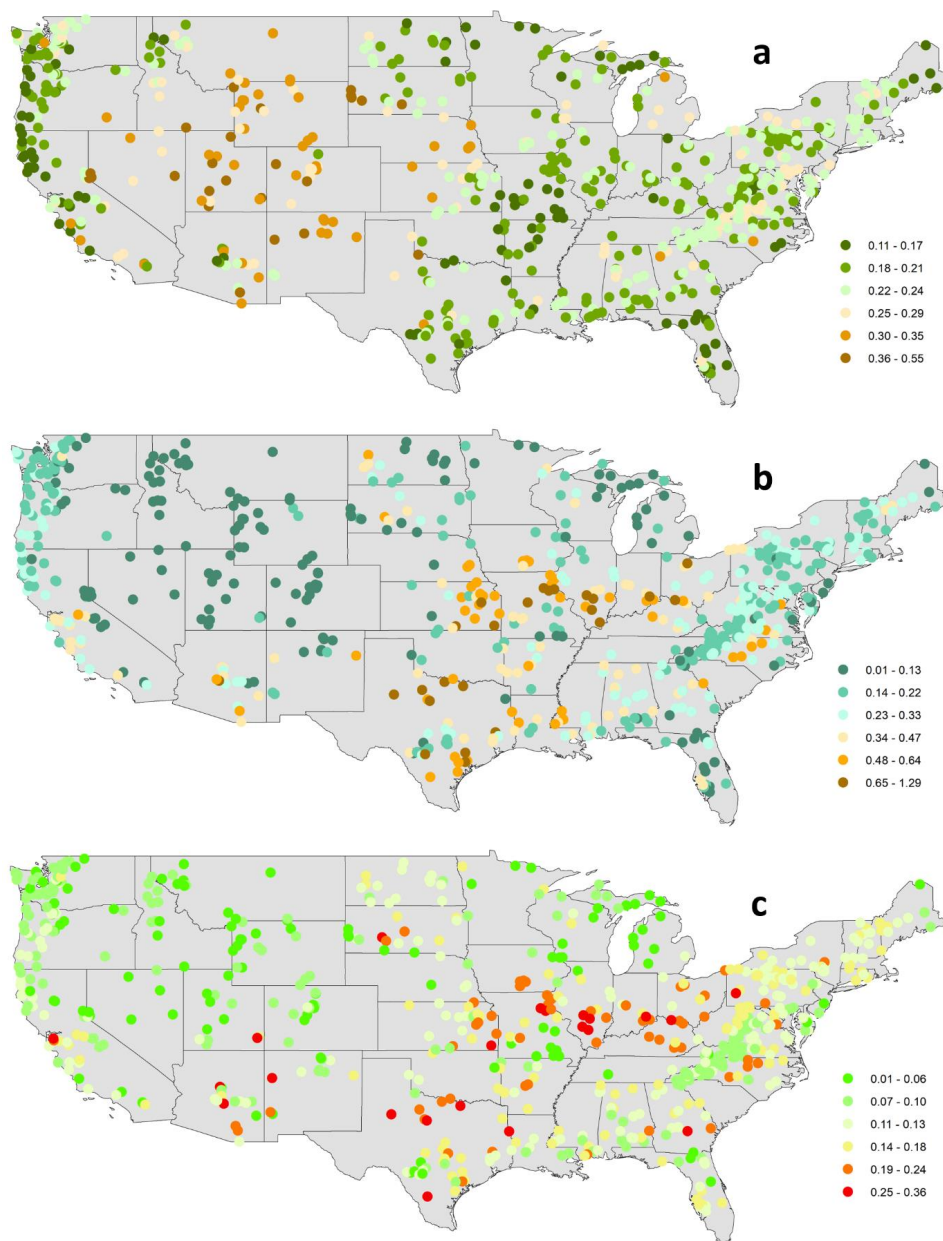


264

265 **Figure 6.** Boxplots of the hydrological descriptors linked with the rising limb (a) rising limb density [ $\text{day}^{-1}$ ], (b)  
266 rising limb scale parameter, (c) rising limb shape parameter of the clusters over the CONUS. High rising limb  
267 densities are observed in Clusters 10, 1, and 9, which are characterized by a high forest fraction, low aridity, and  
268 a high frequency of high precipitation events, respectively. Rising limb scale parameters are exceptionally high  
269 in Clusters 5, 7. Due to a combination of high precipitation and snowmelt, these catchments have the highest  
270 discharge. Because of the low water availability, low snow fraction precipitation falling as snow, low leaf area  
271 index, and high evaporation experienced in these areas, catchments in Cluster 9, Cluster 8, and Cluster 2 have low  
272 values of rising limb shape parameters.



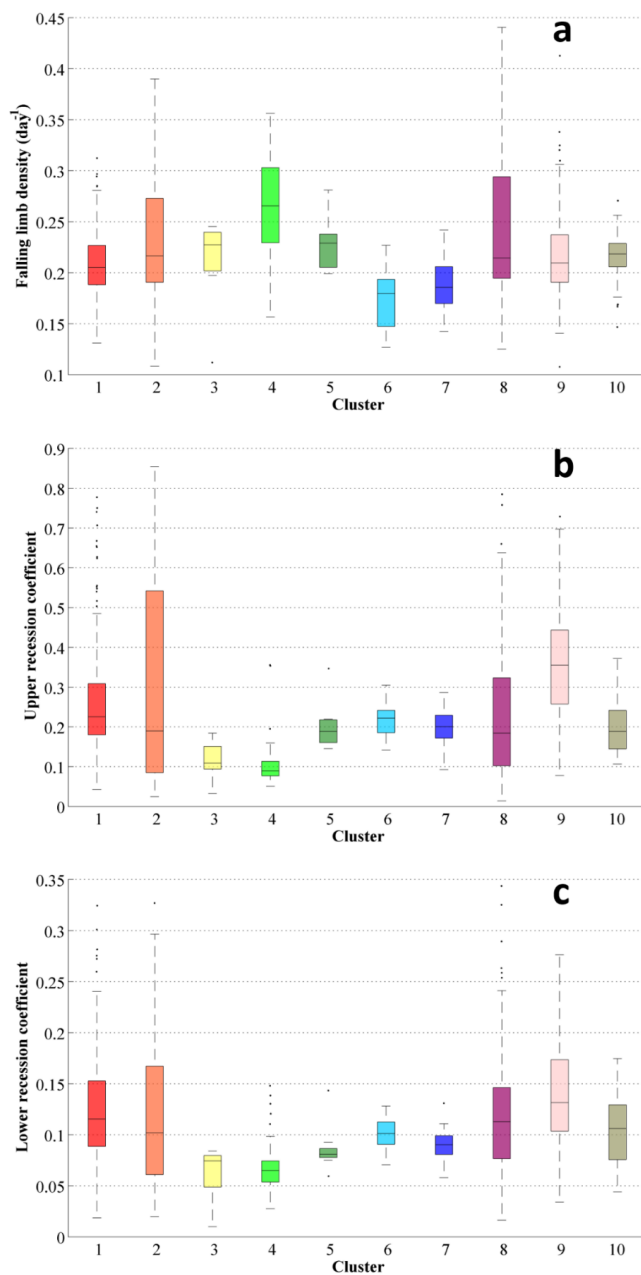
273



274

275 **Figure 7.** Regional variability of streamflow indices associated with the falling limb (a) falling limb density  
276 [day<sup>-1</sup>], (b) upper recession coefficient, (c) lower recession coefficient over the CONUS. The Great Basin and the  
277 Rocky Mountains, and the High Plains region have high falling limb density. The patterns of the upper recession  
278 coefficient and the lower recession coefficient are similar.

279



280

281 **Figure 8.** Boxplots of the streamflow indices related with the falling limb (a) falling limb density [ $\text{day}^{-1}$ ], (b)  
282 upper recession coefficient, (c) lower recession coefficient of the clusters. Clusters 4, 2, 8 have higher falling limb  
283 densities, while Clusters 6, 7 have lower falling limb densities due to the less forest cover in these arid areas.  
284 Clusters 3, 4, which have a low discharge, have low upper and lower recession coefficients. Clusters 2, 9 have  
285 high recession coefficients due to low slope inclinations.



286

## 287 **6.2 Relation of the Flow Descriptors and the Catchment Attributes**

288 The association between the flow descriptors related to rising and falling limbs and catchment attributes is  
289 examined in this section. Table 3 shows the relation of streamflow indices linked with rising limb, and Table 4  
290 shows the association of indices of the falling limb with catchment attributes. Across all five attribute classes, the  
291 vegetation/land cover attributes positively correlate with all rising limb indices (Table 3). It can be seen that the  
292 rising limb density shows a positive correlation with all the three vegetation density indicators, namely fraction  
293 of forest, maximum leaf area index, maximum green vegetation fraction (Table 3).

294

295 However, it is observed that the rising limb scale parameter shows a negative correlation with climate and a  
296 positive association with the vegetation attributes (Table 3). Aridity and frequency of precipitation (Table 3)  
297 display a strong negative association with the rising limb scale parameter. It is noted that the rising limb shape  
298 parameter indicates a positive correlation with vegetation attributes and the fraction of precipitation falling as  
299 snow, mean slope, mean elevation, and sand fraction whereas, it negatively correlates with precipitation  
300 frequency.

301

302 Falling limb density is mainly governed by climate indices and is negatively correlated with the land cover  
303 characteristics (Table 4). Mean elevation also strongly characterizes the nature of the falling limb density. Besides,  
304 aridity and fraction of precipitation falling as snow are also positively correlated with falling limb density.  
305 Recession coefficients are negatively correlated with topographic indices (Table 4). Further, the recession  
306 coefficients show a positive correlation with clay and negative correlations with the fraction of precipitation falling  
307 as snow, forest fraction, and sand fraction. Moreover, the geology attributes such as subsurface porosity reveal a  
308 positive correlation to recession coefficients and a negative with subsurface permeability (Table 4).

309

310

311





312 **Table 3.** Correlation between streamflow indices linked with rising limb and the catchment attributes. Green  
 313 colored coefficients represent positive correlation, and the red-colored correlation coefficients represent the  
 314 negative correlation. The vegetation/land cover attributes positively correlate with all rising limb indices amongst  
 315 all five attribute groups. It can be seen that the rising limb density has a positive relationship with all three  
 316 vegetation density measures. The rising limb scale parameter, has a negative association with climate and a  
 317 positive relationship with vegetation attributes. The rising limb shape parameter positively correlates with  
 318 vegetation attributes and the fraction of precipitation that falls as snow, mean slope, mean elevation, and sand  
 319 fraction.

Spearman rank correlation coefficients	Topography			Climate						Soil			Land cover			Geology		
	Area	Mean elevation	Mean slope	Precipitation seasonality	Frac of precp as snow	Aridity	High precp freq	High precp dur	Low precp freq	Low precp 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	

320  
 321  
 322  
 323  
 324  
 325  
 326  
 327  
 328  
 329  
 330

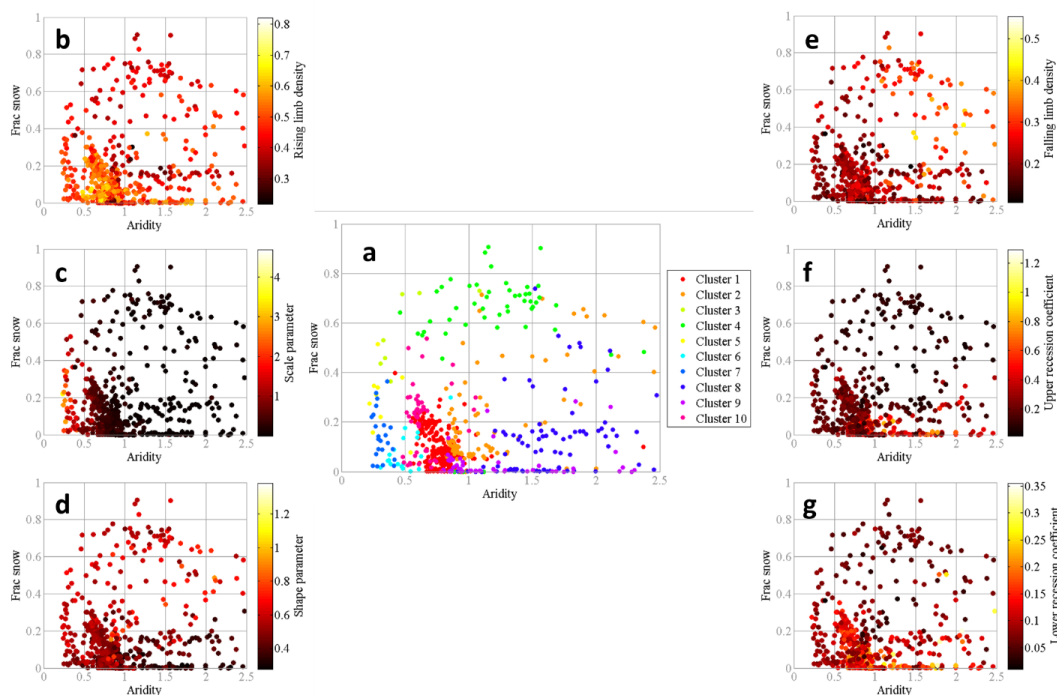


331 **Table 4.** Correlation between streamflow indices linked with falling limb and the catchment attributes. Green  
 332 colored coefficients represent positive correlation, and the red-colored correlation coefficients represent the  
 333 negative correlation. Climate factors are the principal drivers of falling limb density and are negatively associated  
 334 with land cover characteristics. Topographic indicators are negatively correlated with recession coefficients.  
 335 Furthermore, the recession coefficients reveal a positive association with clay and negative correlations with the  
 336 fraction of precipitation falling as snow, forest fraction, and sand fraction.

337

Spearman rank correlation coefficients	Topography			Climate						Soil			Land cover			Geology		
	Area	Mean elevation	Mean slope	Precipitation seasonality	Frac of precp as snow	Aridity	High precp freq	High precp dur	Low precp freq	Low precp 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

338



339

340 **Figure 9.** (a) Comparison of the hydrological clusters of Jehn et al. (2020) with the climate index space (fraction  
341 of precipitation falling as snow vs. aridity). Single dots show the catchments and are colored by their hydrological  
342 clusters. Comparison of the streamflow indices in climate index space (b) rising limb density, (c) rising limb scale  
343 parameter, (d) rising limb shape parameter, (e) falling limb density, (f) upper recession coefficient, (g) lower  
344 recession coefficient for all catchments. Single dots show the catchments and are colored according to the value  
345 of the streamflow indices. Low values of rising limb density, high values of the rising limb shape parameter, and  
346 low values of recession coefficients are seen in catchments with a humid environment and a high fraction of  
347 precipitation falling as snow. In arid climates with a low fraction of precipitation falling as snow, the lowest values  
348 of rising limb scale and shape parameters, as well as the highest values of falling limb density, can be seen.

349

### 350 **6.3 Streamflow Indices with Attributes of Climate**

351 Climate attributes seem to be the most important indicator for hydrological behavior in the United States among  
352 the various attribute categories (Jehn et al., 2020). Hence, the flow descriptors are then examined in the climate  
353 index space (aridity along x-axis and fraction of precipitation falling as snow along the y-axis) to evaluate the  
354 main drivers of the catchments. Single dots show the catchments and are colored by their hydrological clusters  
355 (Fig. 9.a).

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



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

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

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

## 376 7 Concluding remarks

377 Streamflow hydrograph portrays the time distribution of runoff at the point of measurement by a single curve, and  
378 the hydrographs are characterized by their time irreversibility property. In this study, the indices related to this  
379 characteristic feature are used to study the catchment drivers of streamflow hydrograph. The streamflow indices  
380 associated with the time irreversibility of hydrograph open new opportunities to investigate the interaction  
381 between topography, soil, climate, vegetation, geology that drive the hydrological behavior of catchments.  
382 Moreover, most of the previously presented hydrologic indices are employed only for time-symmetric processes;  
383 the importance of the time irreversibility of streamflow is highlighted in this study. The indices associated with  
384 rising and falling limbs are primarily correlated to distinct catchment attributes, establishing a relationship  
385 between the indices and catchment attributes such as climate, topography, soil, geology, and vegetation to  
386 delineate the controlling drivers in corresponding hydrograph sections. A set of streamflow indices with temporal  
387 asymmetry for 671 catchments in the United States is presented in this study. The regional variations among  
388 catchments over the United States are compared and discussed using the spatial maps of streamflow indices. Such  
389 spatial maps of the streamflow indices supplement the hydrometeorological time series and catchment attributes  
390 provided by Addor et al. (2017).

391 The study revealed that the rising limb indices such as rising limb density, rising limb shape parameter and rising  
392 limb scale parameter correlate positively with vegetation indices. Falling limb density is primarily controlled by  
393 climate indices and is negatively correlated with land cover characteristics; the structure of the falling limb density  
394 is also closely influenced by mean elevation. Finally, flow descriptors are studied in the climate index space to  
395 isolate the runoff generation's leading drivers. High rising limb densities and rising limb scale parameters are  
396 observed in catchments with low precipitation falling as snow and a humid climate. It is observed that the  
397 catchments with a humid climate and a high fraction of precipitation falling as snow display low values of rising



398 limb density, high values of the rising limb shape parameter, and low values of recession coefficients. The lowest  
399 values of rising limb scale and shape parameters, and the highest values of falling limb density, are seen in  
400 catchments of arid climates and a low fraction of precipitation falling as snow.

401 In general, the contribution of this work lies in differentiating hydrographs depending on their time irreversibility  
402 property and using the corresponding indices to provide an alternative methodology for identifying the drivers of  
403 streamflow hydrographs. In the context of large sample hydrology research, the concept of time-irreversibility  
404 and the indices associated with it could also be used to describe the drivers at catchment scale.

405

406 *Data availability.* The CAMELS dataset can be found at <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess21-5293-2017> (Addor et al.  
407 2017).

408 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

409 *Acknowledgements.* We would like to thank all the people who created the CAMELS dataset. The funding  
410 received from the Ministry of Earth Sciences (MoES), Government of India, through the project, “Advanced  
411 Research in Hydrology and Knowledge Dissemination”, Project No.: MOES/PAMC/H&C/41/2013-PC-II, is  
412 gratefully acknowledged.

413

#### 414 **References**

415

416 Addor, Newman, A. J., Mizukami, N. and Clark, M. P.: The CAMELS data set: catchment attributes and  
417 meteorology for large-sample studies, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 21(10), 5293–5313, doi:10.5194/hess-21-5293-  
418 2017, 2017.

419 Addor, Nearing, G., Prieto, C., Newman, A. J., Le Vine, N. and Clark, M. P.: A Ranking of Hydrological  
420 Signatures Based on Their Predictability in Space, *Water Resour. Res.*, 54(11), 8792–8812,  
421 doi:10.1029/2018WR022606, 2018.

422 Addor, N., Do, H. X., Alvarez-Garreton, C., Coxon, G., Fowler, K. and Mendoza, P. A.: Large-sample hydrology:  
423 recent progress, guidelines for new datasets and grand challenges, *Hydrol. Sci. J.*, 65(5), 712–725,  
424 doi:10.1080/02626667.2019.1683182, 2020.

425 Alvarez-Garreton, C., Mendoza, P. A., Pablo Boisier, J., Addor, N., Galleguillos, M., Zambrano-Bigiarini, M.,  
426 Lara, A., Puelma, C., Cortes, G., Garreaud, R., McPhee, J. and Ayala, A.: The CAMELS-CL dataset: Catchment  
427 attributes and meteorology for large sample studies-Chile dataset, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 22(11), 5817–5846,  
428 doi:10.5194/hess-22-5817-2018, 2018a.

429 Alvarez-Garreton, C., Mendoza, P. A., Boisier, J. P., Addor, N., Galleguillos, M., Zambrano-Bigiarini, M., Lara,  
430 A., Puelma, C., Cortes, G., Garreaud, R., McPhee, J. and Ayala, A.: The CAMELS-CL dataset: catchment  
431 attributes and meteorology for large sample studies – Chile dataset, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 22(11), 5817–5846,  
432 doi:10.5194/hess-22-5817-2018, 2018b.

433 Arsenault, R., Bazile, R., Ouellet Dallaire, C. and Brissette, F.: CANOPEX: A Canadian hydrometeorological  
434 watershed database, *Hydrol. Process.*, 30(15), 2734–2736, doi:10.1002/hyp.10880, 2016.



- 435 Berghuijs, W. R., Sivapalan, M., Woods, R. A. and Savenije, H. H. G.: Patterns of similarity of seasonal water  
436 balances: A window into streamflow variability over a range of time scales, *Water Resour. Res.*, 50(7), 5638–  
437 5661, doi:10.1002/2014WR015692, 2014.
- 438 Blöschl, G., Hall, J., Viglione, A., Peirdigão, R. A. P., Parajka, J., Merz, B., Lun, D., Arheimer, B., Aronica, G.  
439 T., Bilibashi, A., Boháč, M., Bonacci, O., Borga, M., Čanjevac, I., Castellarin, A., Chirico, G. B., Claps, P.,  
440 Frolova, N., Ganora, D., Gorbachova, L., Gül, A., Hannaford, J., Harrigan, S., Kireeva, M., Kiss, A., Kjeldsen, T.  
441 R., Kohnová, S., Koskela, J. J., Ledvinka, O., Macdonald, N., Mavrova-Guirguinova, M., Mediero, L., Merz, R.,  
442 Molnar, P., Montanari, A., Murphy, C., Osuch, M., Ovcharuk, V., Radevski, I., Salinas, J. L., Sauquet, E., Šraj,  
443 M., Szolgay, J., Volpi, E., Wilson, D., Zaimi, K. and Živković, N.: Changing climate both increases and decreases  
444 European river floods, *Nature*, 573(7772), 108–111, doi:10.1038/s41586-019-1495-6, 2019.
- 445 Clark, M. P., McMillan, H. K., Collins, D. B. G., Kavetski, D. and Woods, R. A.: Hydrological field data from a  
446 modeller’s perspective: Part 2: Process-based evaluation of model hypotheses, *Hydrol. Process.*, 25(4), 523–543,  
447 doi:10.1002/hyp.7902, 2011.
- 448 Coxon, G., Freer, J., Wagener, T., Odoni, N. A. and Clark, M.: Diagnostic evaluation of multiple hypotheses of  
449 hydrological behaviour in a limits-of-acceptability framework for 24 UK catchments, *Hydrol. Process.*, 28(25),  
450 6135–6150, doi:10.1002/hyp.10096, 2014.
- 451 Coxon, G., Addor, N., Bloomfield, J. P., Freer, J., Fry, M., Hannaford, J., Howden, N. J. K., Lane, R., Lewis, M.,  
452 Robinson, E. L., Wagener, T. and Woods, R.: CAMELS-GB: hydrometeorological time series and landscape  
453 attributes for 671 catchments in Great Britain, *Earth Syst. Sci. Data*, 12(4), 2459–2483, doi:10.5194/essd-12-  
454 2459-2020, 2020.
- 455 Do, H. X., Gudmundsson, L., Leonard, M. and Westra, S.: The Global Streamflow Indices and Metadata Archive  
456 (GSIM) – Part 1: The production of a daily streamflow archive and metadata, *Earth Syst. Sci. Data*, 10(2), 765–  
457 785, doi:10.5194/essd-10-765-2018, 2018.
- 458 Duan, Q., Schaake, J., Andréassian, V., Franks, S., Goteti, G., Gupta, H. V., Gusev, Y. M., Habets, F., Hall, A.,  
459 Hay, L., Hogue, T., Huang, M., Leavesley, G., Liang, X., Nasonova, O. N., Noilhan, J., Oudin, L., Sorooshian,  
460 S., Wagener, T. and Wood, E. F.: Model Parameter Estimation Experiment (MOPEX): An overview of science  
461 strategy and major results from the second and third workshops, *J. Hydrol.*, 320(1–2), 3–17,  
462 doi:10.1016/j.jhydrol.2005.07.031, 2006.
- 463 Ehret, U., Gupta, H. V., Sivapalan, M., Weijjs, S. V., Schymanski, S. J., Blöschl, G., Gelfan, A. N., Harman, C.,  
464 Kleidon, A., Bogaard, T. A., Wang, D., Wagener, T., Scherer, U., Zehe, E., Bierkens, M. F. P., Di Baldassarre,  
465 G., Parajka, J., van Beek, L. P. H., van Griensven, A., Westhoff, M. C. and Winsemius, H. C.: Advancing  
466 catchment hydrology to deal with predictions under change, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 18(2), 649–671,  
467 doi:10.5194/hess-18-649-2014, 2014.
- 468 Ghiggi, G., Humphrey, V., Seneviratne, S. I. and Gudmundsson, L.: GRUN: an observation-based global gridded  
469 runoff dataset from 1902 to 2014, *Earth Syst. Sci. Data*, 11(4), 1655–1674, doi:10.5194/essd-11-1655-2019, 2019.
- 470 Gudmundsson, L., Do, H. X., Leonard, M. and Westra, S.: The Global Streamflow Indices and Metadata Archive  
471 (GSIM) – Part 2: Quality control, time-series indices and homogeneity assessment, *Earth Syst. Sci. Data*, 10(2),  
472 787–804, doi:10.5194/essd-10-787-2018, 2018.



- 473 Gupta, H. V., Perrin, C., Blöschl, G., Montanari, A., Kumar, R., Clark, M. and Andréassian, V.: Large-sample  
474 hydrology: a need to balance depth with breadth, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 18(2), 463–477, doi:10.5194/hess-18-  
475 463-2014, 2014.
- 476 Jehn, F. U., Bestian, K., Breuer, L., Kraft, P. and Houska, T.: Using hydrological and climatic catchment clusters  
477 to explore drivers of catchment behavior, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 24(3), 1081–1100, doi:10.5194/hess-24-1081-  
478 2020, 2020.
- 479 Koutsoyiannis, D.: Simple stochastic simulation of time irreversible and reversible processes, *Hydrol. Sci. J.*,  
480 doi:10.1080/02626667.2019.1705302, 2020.
- 481 Kuentz, A., Arheimer, B., Hundecha, Y. and Wagener, T.: Understanding hydrologic variability across Europe  
482 through catchment classification, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 21(6), 2863–2879, doi:10.5194/hess-21-2863-2017,  
483 2017.
- 484 Linke, S., Lehner, B., Ouellet Dallaire, C., Ariwi, J., Grill, G., Anand, M., Beames, P., Burchard-Levine, V.,  
485 Maxwell, S., Moidu, H., Tan, F. and Thieme, M.: Global hydro-environmental sub-basin and river reach  
486 characteristics at high spatial resolution, *Sci. Data*, 6(1), 283, doi:10.1038/s41597-019-0300-6, 2019.
- 487 Mathai and Mujumdar, P. P.: Multisite Daily Streamflow Simulation With Time Irreversibility, *Water Resour.*  
488 *Res.*, 55(11), 9334–9350, doi:10.1029/2019WR025058, 2019.
- 489 McMillan, H. K.: A review of hydrologic signatures and their applications, *WIREs Water*, 8(1), 1–23,  
490 doi:10.1002/wat2.1499, 2021.
- 491 McMillan, H. K., Clark, M. P., Bowden, W. B., Duncan, M. and Woods, R. A.: Hydrological field data from a  
492 modeller’s perspective: Part 1. Diagnostic tests for model structure, *Hydrol. Process.*, 25(4), 511–522,  
493 doi:10.1002/hyp.7841, 2011.
- 494 Newman, A. J., Clark, M. P., Sampson, K., Wood, A., Hay, L. E., Bock, A., Viger, R. J., Blodgett, D., Brekke,  
495 L., Arnold, J. R., Hopson, T. and Duan, Q.: Development of a large-sample watershed-scale hydrometeorological  
496 data set for the contiguous USA: data set characteristics and assessment of regional variability in hydrologic model  
497 performance, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 19(1), 209–223, doi:10.5194/hess-19-209-2015, 2015.
- 498 Richter, B. D., Baumgartner, J. V., Powell, J. and Braun, D. P.: A Method for Assessing Hydrologic Alteration  
499 within Ecosystems, *Conserv. Biol.*, 10(4), 1163–1174, doi:10.1046/j.1523-1739.1996.10041163.x, 1996.
- 500 Sawicz, K., Wagener, T., Sivapalan, M., Troch, P. A. and Carrillo, G.: Catchment classification : empirical  
501 analysis of hydrologic similarity based on catchment function in the eastern USA, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 8(3),  
502 2895–2911, doi:10.5194/hess-15-2895-2011, 2011.
- 503 Sawicz, K. A., Kelleher, C., Wagener, T., Troch, P., Sivapalan, M. and Carrillo, G.: Characterizing hydrologic  
504 change through catchment classification, *Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci.*, 18(1), 273–285, doi:10.5194/hess-18-273-  
505 2014, 2014.
- 506 Serinaldi, F. and Kilsby, C. G.: Irreversibility and complex network behavior of stream flow fluctuations, *Phys.*  
507 *A Stat. Mech. its Appl.*, 450, 585–600, doi:10.1016/j.physa.2016.01.043, 2016.
- 508 Shamir, E., Imam, B., Morin, E., Gupta, H. V. and Sorooshian, S.: The role of hydrograph indices in parameter  
509 estimation of rainfall-runoff models, *Hydrol. Process.*, 19(11), 2187–2207, doi:10.1002/hyp.5676, 2005.



- 510 Stagge, J. H. and Moglen, G. E.: A nonparametric stochastic method for generating daily climate-adjusted  
511 streamflows, *Water Resour. Res.*, 49, 6179–6193, doi:10.1002/wrcr.20448, 2013.
- 512 Szilagyi, J., Balint, G. and Csik, A.: Hybrid, Markov chain-based model for daily streamflow generation at  
513 multiple catchment sites, *J. Hydrol. Eng.*, 11(3), 245–256, 2006.
- 514
- 515