

Guan, X., Nissen, K., Nguyen, D., Merz, B., Winter, B., Vorogushyn, S. (2023): Multisite temporal rainfall disaggregation using methods of fragments conditioned on circulation patterns. - Journal of Hydrology, 621, 129640.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2023.129640>

Multisite temporal rainfall disaggregation using methods of fragments conditioned on circulation patterns

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1. Introduction

A wide range of applications involving planning, design, and management of water resources systems at small spatial scales relies on rainfall data with high temporal, for instance hourly, resolution (Breinl and Di Baldassarre, 2019; Pui et al., 2012). However, high-resolution rainfall measurements are generally scarce (Gutierrez-Magness and McCuen, 2004), especially for rural and remote regions. The precipitation gauging network operated by the German Weather Service (DWD), for example, includes roughly 5,700 stations with daily rainfall observation history spanning back more than 100 years. Compared to this, only about 1,200 stations record rainfall at subdaily resolution and an even smaller number has publicly available data covering more than 30 years (Lisniak et al., 2013).

One way to overcome this shortcoming is to derive fine-resolution data from the widely available coarser-resolution (e.g. daily) data through data transformation procedures, generally referred to as rainfall disaggregation (Gutierrez-Magness and McCuen, 2004; Koutsoyiannis and Onof, 2001; Sharma and Srikanthan, 2006). Temporal disaggregation is often used for scenario-based hydrological simulations when combined with regional weather generators (Mezghani and Hingray, 2009; Winter et al., 2019). For instance, Winter et al. (2019) estimated 100-year design floods in 16 catchments in Vorarlberg, Austria with a continuous hydrologic modelling approach with hourly resolution, driven by a multi-site weather generator providing daily precipitation and air temperature in combination with a temporal disaggregation procedure.

Numerous disaggregation models have been proposed in the literature based on diverse concepts. These include: (1) Bartlett–Lewis/Neyman–Scott rectangular pulse models based on point process theory (Khaliq and Cunnane, 1996; Lu and Qin, 2014; Pui et al., 2012); (2) random cascade models based on scale-invariance theory (Anis and Rode, 2015; Müller and Haberlandt, 2018); and (3) the nonparametric method of fragments (MOF) inspired from analog principle (Carreau et al., 2019; Li et al., 2018; Lu et al., 2015;

24 Sharma and Srikanthan, 2006; Westra et al., 2012). Pui et al. (2012) compared these temporal rainfall
25 disaggregation models at single sites and found that the nonparametric MOF outperformed the point
26 process-based and cascade models in matching the observed hourly intensity-frequency relationship, in
27 particular for extreme rainfall characteristics.

28 MOF achieves temporal disaggregation by employing the subdaily distribution of analog days, also
29 known as fragments, to distribute daily precipitation totals into subdaily intervals. In the daily-to-hourly
30 disaggregation procedure, the fragments are the rainfall amounts (or fractions of the daily rainfall
31 amount) of the 24 hours of one day (Sharma and Srikanthan, 2006). Analog days are defined as days
32 that are similar in terms of a number of features (Carreau et al., 2019). Often the only feature used to
33 determine analog days is the daily rainfall total at a given location (Sharma and Srikanthan, 2006;
34 Westra et al., 2012). Recently, modifications were introduced to MOF to improve the model's ability in
35 reproducing the hourly rainfall. These modifications include the consideration of the wet-dry state of
36 the days preceding and following the target day (Breinl and Di Baldassarre, 2019; Westra et al., 2012),
37 other climate variables like temperature, relative humidity and air pressure (Rafatnejad et al., 2021),
38 spatial information such as inter-site correlation or neighboring information (Carreau et al., 2019; Müller
39 and Haberlandt, 2018), and the category of daily rainfall amount (classified in 5 mm bins) (Li et al.,
40 2018). The features introduced in these modifications to better filter the analog days are generally daily
41 variables. Hence, it is implicitly assumed that these daily features allow to condition the precipitation
42 distribution on the subdaily scale (Carreau et al., 2019).

43 The basic assumption of the MOF rainfall temporal disaggregation is stationarity, i.e. that the daily-
44 subdaily rainfall relationship from the analog period remains unchanged in the period for which the
45 disaggregation is performed. This assumption is particularly questionable when the disaggregation is
46 performed for future climate change projections. In order to account for dynamic changes in the
47 atmosphere, circulation patterns (CPs) can be used to condition the selection of analog days for MOF.

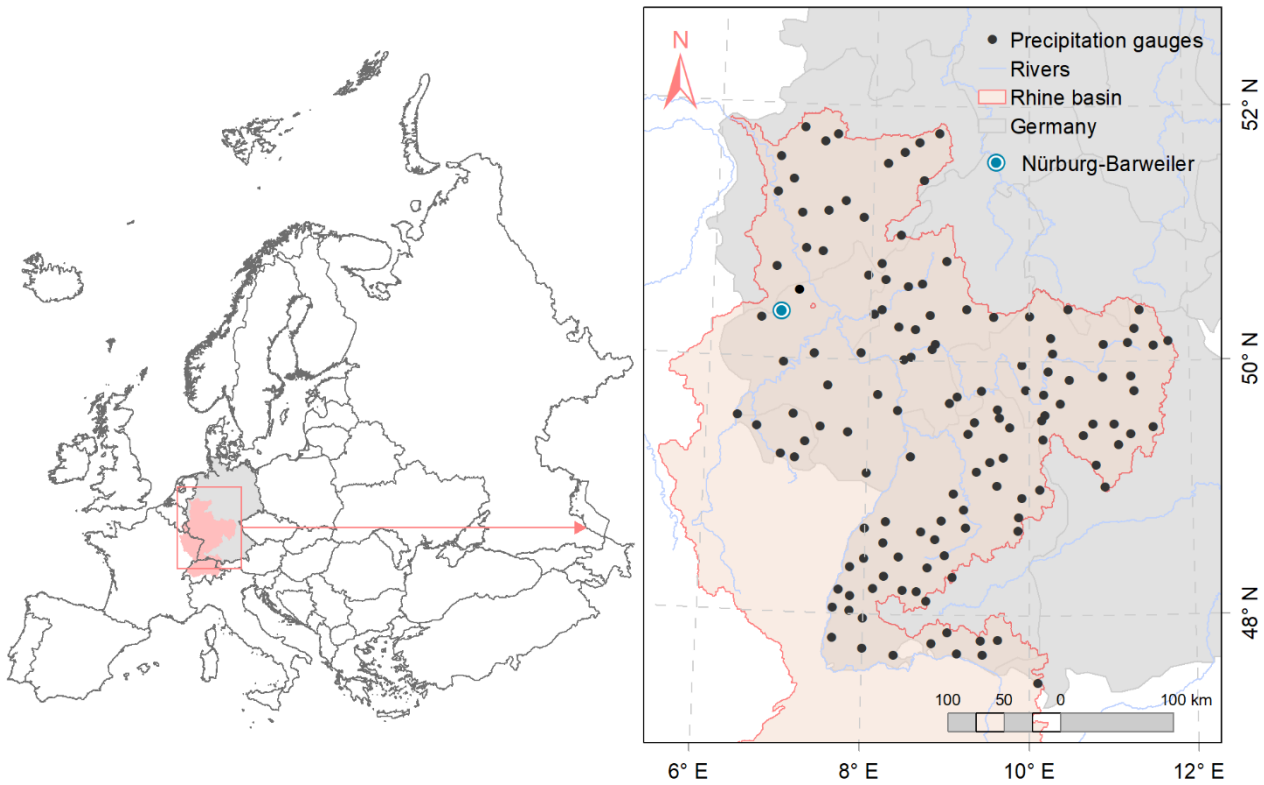
48 CPs describe the atmospheric circulation at any given moment in time, and CP classifications are applied
49 to simplify the physical reality by identifying a small number of representative patterns to which the
50 instantaneous patterns are assigned (Huth et al., 2008). One of the goals of CP classification is to
51 improve the description of effects the atmospheric circulation has on surface climate, like precipitation
52 formation (Huth et al., 2016). Conditioning the rainfall temporal disaggregation on CPs allows to
53 consider climate change effects related to changes in frequency, persistence, and seasonality of these
54 weather patterns on the link between daily and hourly rainfall distributions. However, possible within-
55 type changes, in particular due to increasing temperature and (Super-) Clausius-Clapeyron-scaling, may
56 strongly determine the link between daily and hourly rainfall distributions (Lenderink et al., 2017). If
57 such changes occur, they will not be represented by a CP-based disaggregation. Besides the capability to
58 consider climatic changes – at least to some extent, a CP-based disaggregation may also be preferable as
59 different CPs may be associated with different precipitation types (e.g., large-scale, long-lasting events
60 vs. small-scale, short-duration events), which may have different subdaily distributions (Kronenberg et
61 al., 2012; Lisniak et al., 2013). Hence, we hypothesize that MOF conditioned on CPs can better represent
62 the rainfall generation mechanisms and provides a more robust link between daily and subdaily rainfall
63 in the context of climate change than a standard MOF procedure.

64 In this study, we develop a rainfall temporal (daily to hourly) disaggregation procedure by conditioning
65 the method of fragments on circulation patterns for multisite applications. The performance of this CP-
66 based disaggregation procedure is evaluated against the standard MOF procedure in the Rhine river
67 basin. The sensitivity of the MOF to the number of CPs and seasonal stratification is further analyzed
68 and discussed.

69 2. Research area and data

70 2.1 Research area

71 The Rhine River basin with a drainage area of about 185,000 km² is situated in northwestern Europe,
72 covering 9 countries (Figure 1). With a length of about 1,320 km, it flows from the Swiss Alps through
73 middle mountain ranges and lowlands and drains into the North Sea in the Netherlands (see Ullrich et al.
74 (2021) for a detailed description). The Rhine river and its tributaries are often affected by flooding
75 caused by persistent precipitation, heavy rainfall or snowmelt. In July 2021, a record-breaking flood hit
76 west Germany, Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands and in particular the left-side Rhine
77 tributaries Ahr, Erft and Ruhr, causing more than 200 fatalities and tremendous socio-economic impacts
78 (Mohr et al., 2022). Hydrological analysis of such floods in small-scale catchments require hourly
79 precipitation time series, which are rarely available. Long-term precipitation series are often available at
80 daily time scale and need to be disaggregated. We select the rainfall gauges located in the German part
81 of the Rhine basin to develop the rainfall disaggregation model and to compare it to existing methods
82 given the availability and accessibility of hourly rainfall data in this region.



83

84 *Figure 1 Research area (German part of the Rhine river basin) and the associated hourly rainfall observation network with 134 precipitation*
 85 *gauges and an exemplary gauge (Nürburg-Barweiler).*

86

87 2.2 Hourly precipitation observations

88 The hourly rainfall observations are collected from the Climate Data Center of the German Weather
 89 Service (DWD, <https://www.dwd.de/>, last access: 26th of February, 2022). These observations are quality
 90 controlled measurements from DWD stations and legally and qualitatively equivalent partner stations.
 91 There are in total 1,038 stations across Germany, most of which provide hourly rainfall observations
 92 since 2000. 134 rainfall stations located in the German part of the Rhine basin are selected with at least
 93 15 years (2006-2020) of hourly rainfall records and with no more than 2% missing data in each year
 94 (Figure 1).

95 2.3 Circulation patterns

96 We classify circulation patterns using daily values of the mean sea-level pressure field of the ERA5 data
 97 set for the period from January 1979 to July 2021. ERA5 is the fifth generation ECMWF atmospheric

98 reanalysis of the global climate (Hersbach et al., 2020). We smoothed the original ERA5 data by
99 interpolating it to a regular 1°x 1° grid. The classification is conducted using the objective classification
100 algorithm SANDRA (Simulated **AN**nealing and **D**iversified **RA**ndomization) (Philipp et al., 2007). It is
101 based on k-means and minimizes the within-cluster variance of the Euclidian distance between the
102 cluster elements and the cluster centroid. The problem of a conventional k-means approach is that it
103 often converges to a local optimum. SANDRA avoids this problem and searches for the global optimum
104 by introducing random reassignments of cluster elements. The number of classes in CP classification
105 affects its ability to stratify the surface climate variable of interest (Huth et al., 2016; Vallorani et al.,
106 2018). Therefore, 5 different numbers of CP classes (4, 5, 6, 7, and 8) are generated and the sensitivity of
107 the disaggregation performance to the number of classes is examined.

108 3. Methods

109 3.1 Multisite rainfall disaggregation with method of fragments

110 The method of fragments (MOF) is a non-parametric disaggregation technique. The idea is to resample a
111 vector of fragments that represents the relative distribution of subdaily to daily rainfall (Pui et al., 2012).
112 The number of fragments corresponds to the subdaily temporal resolution used, i.e. if the disaggregation
113 is conducted from daily to hourly resolution, the relative distribution of subdaily values consists of 24
114 relative weights that sum up to 1. In the simulation, variability is introduced by a k-nearest neighbor
115 algorithm. The proposed non-parametric multisite MOF model works as follows:

116 (i) Obtain the daily rainfall vector $\{R_{t,1}, R_{t,2}, \dots, R_{t,n}\}$ to be disaggregated where t represents the date of
117 the day, and n denotes the number of rainfall sites in the observation network. $R_{t,s}$ (s indicates individual
118 rainfall site, with the value ranging from 1 to n) can be obtained from the observed daily rainfall or from
119 other sources, such as daily weather generators (Nguyen et al., 2021; Winter et al., 2019) and General
120 Circulation Models (GCMs) (Rafatnejad et al., 2021).

121 (ii) Use the observational hourly records, $R_{i,m,s}$, to build daily time vectors $R_{i,s}$, where i denotes the day,
122 m is the hourly time step and s is a site of the rainfall observation network.

$$R_{i,s} = \sum_{m=1}^{24} R_{i,m,s} \quad (1)$$

123 Form a time series of vectors with hourly to daily ratios, which are so-called fragments.

$$f_{i,m,s} = R_{i,m,s}/R_{i,s} \quad (2)$$

124 (iii) To consider the seasonal variability, the standard MOF based disaggregation procedure builds a
125 window with l days around the target day t from which to sample the fragments vectors (Westra et al.,
126 2012; Pui et al., 2012). For example, if t represents the 15th of April and $l = 14$, all days between the first
127 (1st) and last (29th) day of April from all available years are considered for disaggregation. This standard
128 disaggregation procedure, usually with a time window width $l=14$, is further called monthly-based
129 disaggregation procedure.

130 In this study, the MOF conditioned on circulation patterns is proposed and termed CP-based
131 disaggregation procedure. To this end, the days with the same CP class as the target day t are selected
132 into the candidate pool for fragments sampling instead of imposing a monthly window. Additionally,
133 circulation patterns and candidate days are stratified into winter (November 1st – April 30th) and summer
134 (May 1st – October 30th) seasons.

135 (iv) Filter the candidate pool obtained in Step (iii) based on the wet (rainy)-dry (non-rainy) status of the
136 target day. Only days with the same wet-dry status as the target day t will be selected to obtain possible
137 nearest neighbors; here N denotes the number of possible neighbors.

138 (v) Before calculating the distance between target day and candidate day, the daily rainfall amounts are
139 standardized, which is a preferable operation for positively skewed random variables such as rainfall
140 (Breinl and Di Baldassarre, 2019).

141 In this study, the Manhattan distance (the sum of absolute differences) is used as a measure to quantify
 142 the similarity of multisite daily rainfall vectors between target day t and candidate day i . The Manhattan
 143 distance has been shown to work well with nearest neighbor algorithms for rainfall disaggregation (Breinl
 144 and Di Baldassarre, 2019; Breinl et al., 2017). The distance $d(R_t, R_i)$ is calculated as:

$$d(R_t, R_i) = \sum_{s=1}^n |R_{t,s} - R_{i,s}| \quad (3)$$

145 (vi) Identify the k nearest neighbors, with $k = \sqrt{N}$. The distances are sorted for all $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$ and the
 146 highest probability is assigned to the neighbor with the smallest distance to the target day. The probability
 147 (p_j) is computed as:

$$p_j = \frac{1/j}{P_t}, P_t = \sum_{j=1}^k 1/j \quad (4)$$

148 (vii) Sample a candidate day by applying the inverse cumulative distribution function of Eq. (4) and using
 149 random numbers between 0 and 1 sampled from a uniform distribution. The date of the sampled day is
 150 used and the corresponding hourly fragments ($f_{i,m,s}$) are applied at each site in the disaggregation. The
 151 hourly time series $R_{i,m,s}$ of the target day t are then derived using daily rainfall series ($R_{t,s}$) as:

$$R_{i,m,s} = R_{t,s} \times f_{i,m,s} \quad (5)$$

152 (viii) Repeat Step (i) to Step (vii) for each day t until the entire daily records are disaggregated.

153 3.2 Experimental setup

154 To evaluate the CP-based disaggregation procedure developed in this study and to investigate its
 155 sensitivity towards the number of CP classes and towards the consideration of seasonality, three
 156 disaggregation experiments are performed (Table 1). To make full use of the limited hourly
 157 observations, we perform a leave-one-out cross-validation. Each single year of the hourly observations is
 158 selected and aggregated to the daily scale to be subsequently disaggregated using the remaining 14
 159 years. The original hourly data for each year is then used to test the performance of the disaggregation

160 procedure in the different experiments. A total of 30 Monte-Carlo (MC) runs, given the computational
 161 constraint, with the same length (15 years) as the observed precipitation records are generated to
 162 explore the sampling variability of the nearest neighbor candidate date.

163 *Table 1 Overview of the disaggregation experiments. CLA4 to CLA8 and SW_CLA4 to SW_CLA8 abbreviations denote the experiments with 4*
 164 *to 8*

Experiment	Scheme	Classes	Conditional variable
Month	Standard monthly-based MOF disaggregation procedure	12 (months)	Month
CLA {4, 5, 6, 7, 8}	MOF disaggregation procedure conditioned on circulation patterns	Number of CPs {4, 5, 6, 7, 8}	CP
SW_CLA {4, 5, 6, 7, 8}	Disaggregation procedure conditioned on circulation pattern classification, considering two seasons (summer and winter)	Number of CPs $2 \times \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$	CP and season

165

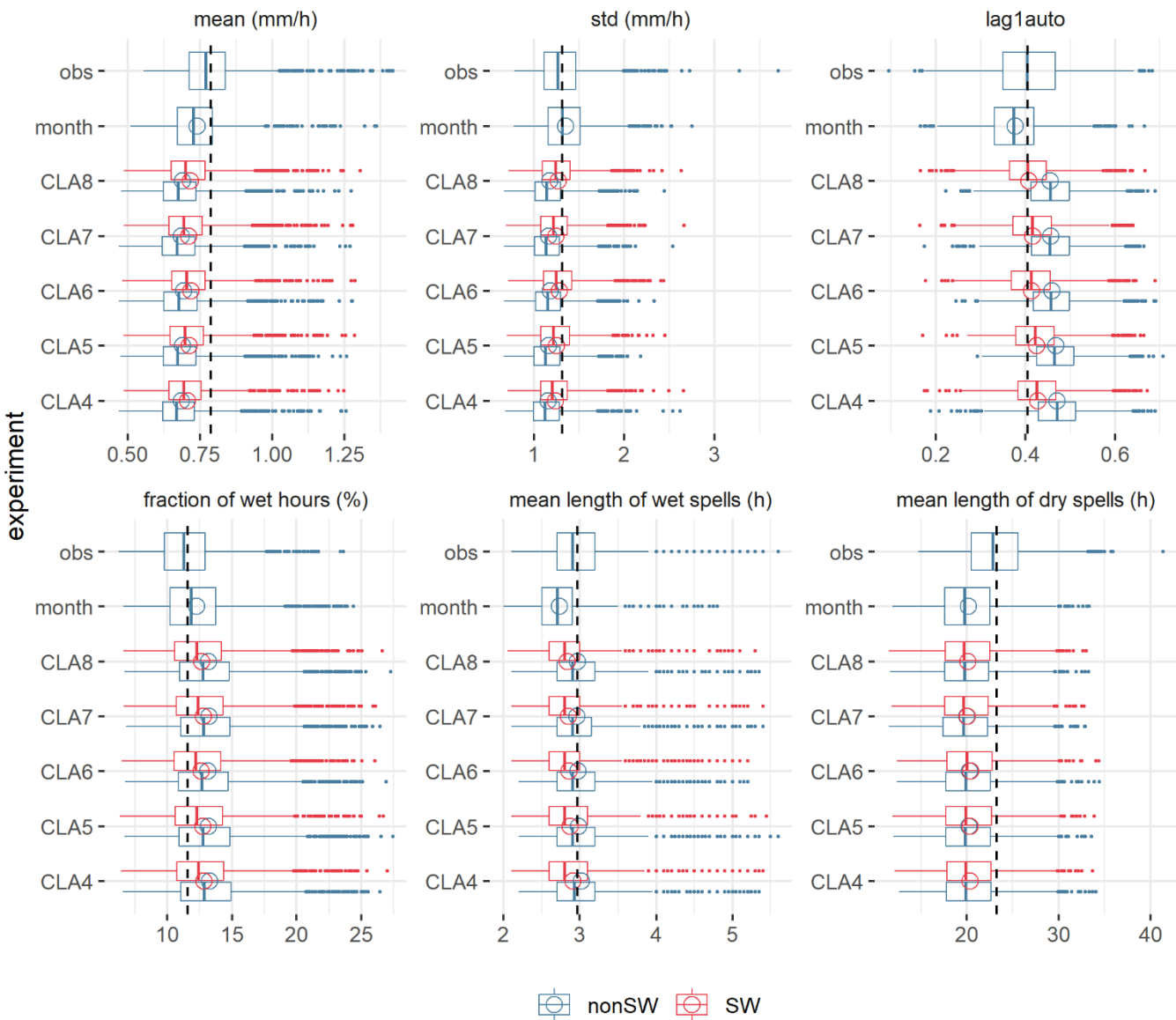
166 [3.3 Performance evaluation](#)

167 The performance evaluation of the different rainfall disaggregation experiments employs the following
 168 indicators, as suggested by previous studies (Breinl and Di Baldassarre, 2019; Li et al., 2018; Pui et al.,
 169 2012). The performance in reconstructing standard rainfall statistics includes mean value, standard
 170 deviation, fraction of wet (rainy) hours, and lag-1 autocorrelation. The mean wet/dry spell length is
 171 selected to reflect the model performance in simulating the wet and dry features in the rainfall temporal
 172 disaggregation. The skill in maintaining the spatial correlation structure is indicated by inter-site Pearson
 173 correlation coefficients. Finally, the performance of the disaggregation procedures to meet the extreme
 174 percentiles (95th, 97th, 99th and 99.5th) of hourly rainfall is evaluated. The metrics for disaggregated
 175 precipitation relate to the median of the 30 MC runs and are compared against the indicators of the
 176 original records.

4. Results

4.1 Standard metrics

According to the different experiments (Table 1), the simulated hourly rainfall series at the 134 rainfall stations in the German part of Rhine river basin are compared with the observed counterparts, and the statistical metrics reflecting the disaggregation performance in reproducing key hourly rainfall characteristics are calculated. Figure 2 summarizes the model performance with regard to mean value, standard deviation (std), lag-1 autocorrelation coefficient (lag1auto) and fraction of wet hours. All disaggregation models tend to underestimate the mean hourly rainfall values, which results from the overestimation of the number of wet hours in disaggregation procedures as the same daily precipitation totals are distributed to more wet shares. The monthly-based MOF shows a slightly better performance in reproducing the mean value than the CP-based procedures, but the difference in mean value between monthly-based and CP-based approaches with seasonal stratification and high number of classes (like SW_CLA8) is not large. All model variants perform well with respect to standard deviation. Lag-1 autocorrelation is underestimated by the monthly-based MOF and overestimated by the CP-based MOF, whereas the seasonally stratified CP-based procedure performs best. Generally, the seasonally stratified CP-based procedure outperforms the one without stratification for all four indicators. With increasing number of CP classes, the performance improves.



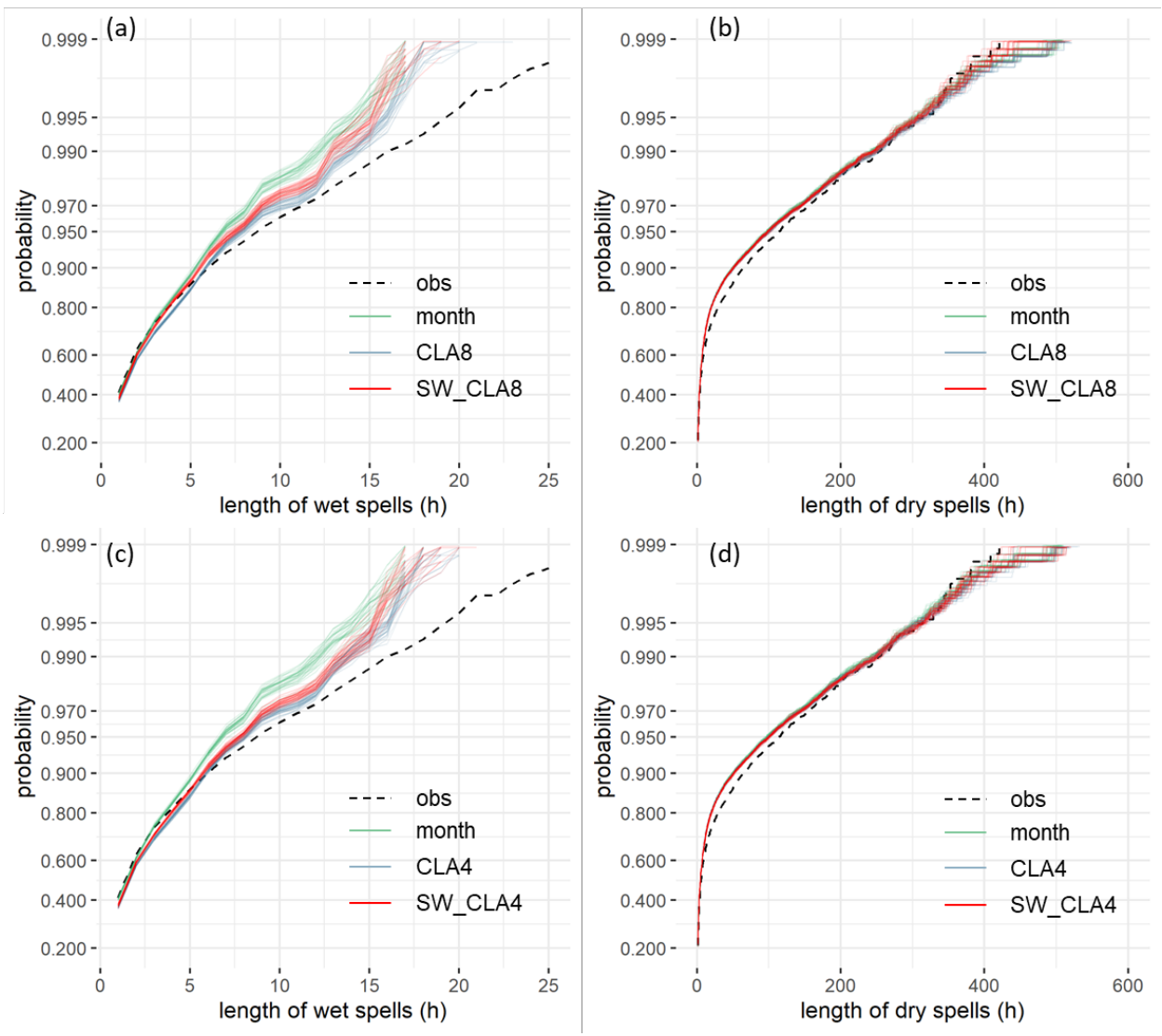
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196 *Figure 2: Comparison of mean, standard deviation (std), lag-1 autocorrelation (lag1auto), fraction of wet hours, mean length of wet and dry*
 197 *spells (average duration of precipitation events) between disaggregated hourly rainfall in different experiments (see Table 1) and observations*
 198 *(obs). SW and nonSW denote the results from CP-based disaggregation with and without considering season stratification respectively. The*
 199 *boxplots cover the median of metrics from 30 MC runs in 134 stations, where the middle solid line marks the median and the box represents*
 200 *the interquartile range. The black dashed lines represent the mean values of statistics for observed hourly rainfall, while the circles denote the*
 201 *mean values of the simulated counterparts.*

202 All disaggregation procedures consistently underestimate the dry spell duration compared to
 203 observations (Figure 2). The mean length of the simulated dry spells is approximately 20 hours
 204 compared to the observed 23 hours. Such underestimation is also demonstrated in Figure 3 (b) and (d)
 205 and the difference among different disaggregation experiments is nearly indistinguishable. In terms of
 206 mean length of wet spells, the CP-based models perform better than monthly-based procedure,

207 especially for longer wet spells (see Figure 3 a and c) which is largely underestimated by the monthly-
 208 based disaggregation procedure. We suggest that CP-based disaggregation pools days with long and
 209 short duration wet spells which may correspond to frontal and convective rainfall, respectively, in a
 210 better way than monthly-based disaggregation. The discontinuity of rainfall events between days could
 211 play a role as well, as the disaggregation procedure does not consider the wet-dry status in the
 212 preceding and following days of the target day.

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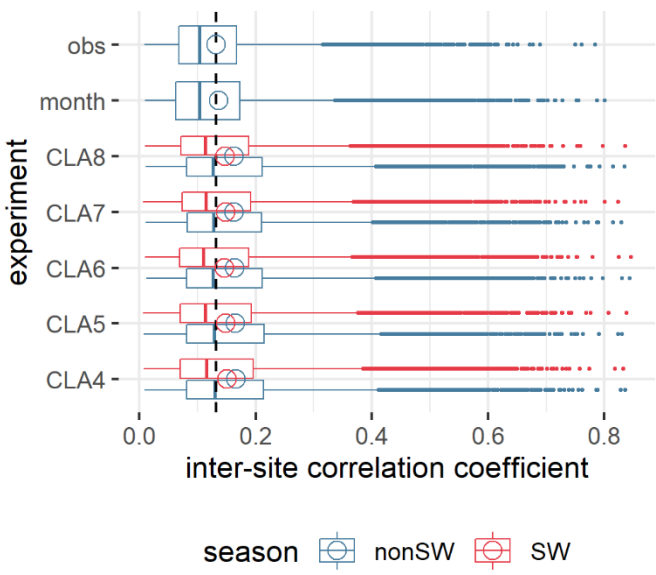


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215 *Figure 3 Comparisons of the cumulative distribution probability curves (shown as logit-scaled) of length of wet (a and c) and dry (b and d)*
 216 *spells for the example station Nürburg-Barweiler (see Figure 1) for five disaggregation procedures (month, CLA4, SW_CLA4, CLA8, and*
 217 *SW_CLA8) and observations*

218 4.2 Spatial correlation

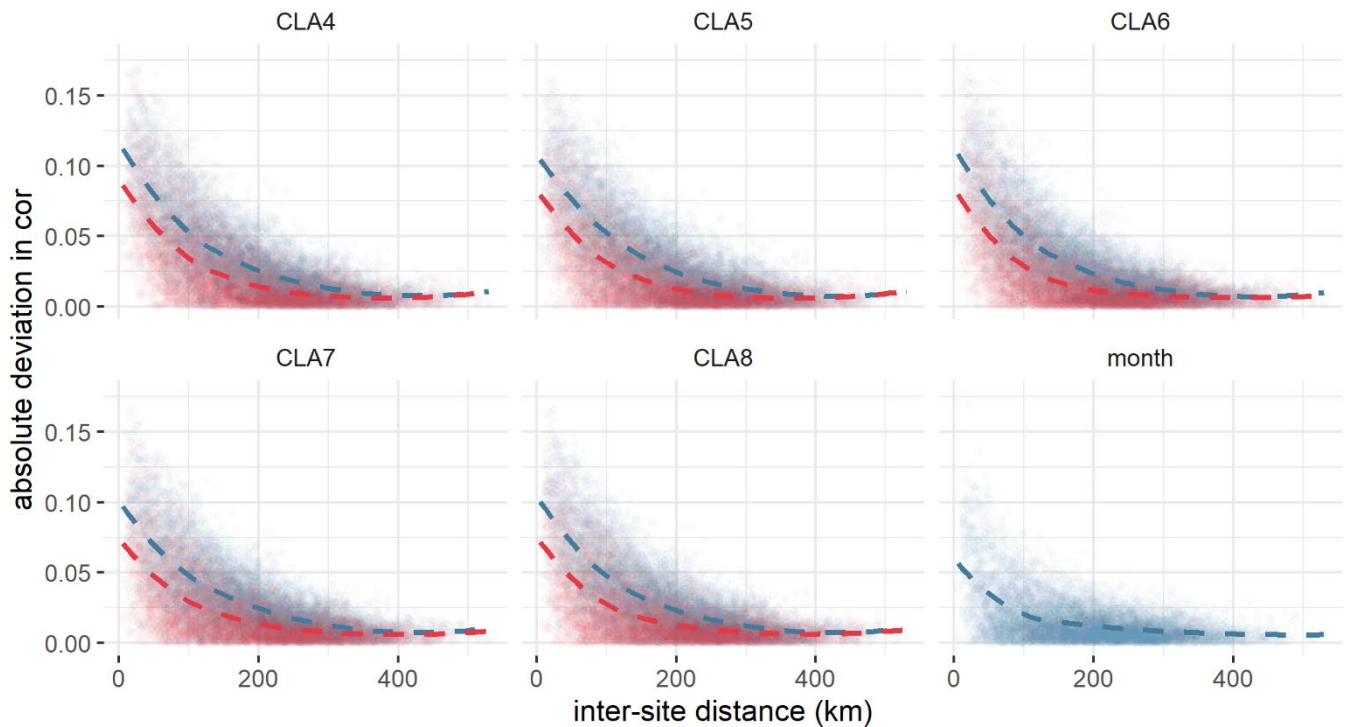
219 The pair-wise inter-site Pearson correlation coefficients of hourly rainfall series are given in Figure 4 to
220 assess the spatial connections of precipitation across station locations. The deviations between
221 simulated and observed correlation coefficients versus inter-site distance are given in Figure 5. All
222 disaggregation procedures reproduce the spatial correlation well, with most absolute deviations
223 between simulated and observed coefficients lower than 0.1. The monthly-based MOF performs best in
224 terms of spatial correlation. The CP-based disaggregation procedure without seasonal stratification
225 tends to slightly overestimate the inter-site correlations, whereas considering the seasonality (Figure 5)
226 clearly reduces the bias. The number of CPs does not affect the performance for this characteristic.



227

228 *Figure 4 Comparison of inter-site correlation coefficients for different disaggregation procedures and observations*

229

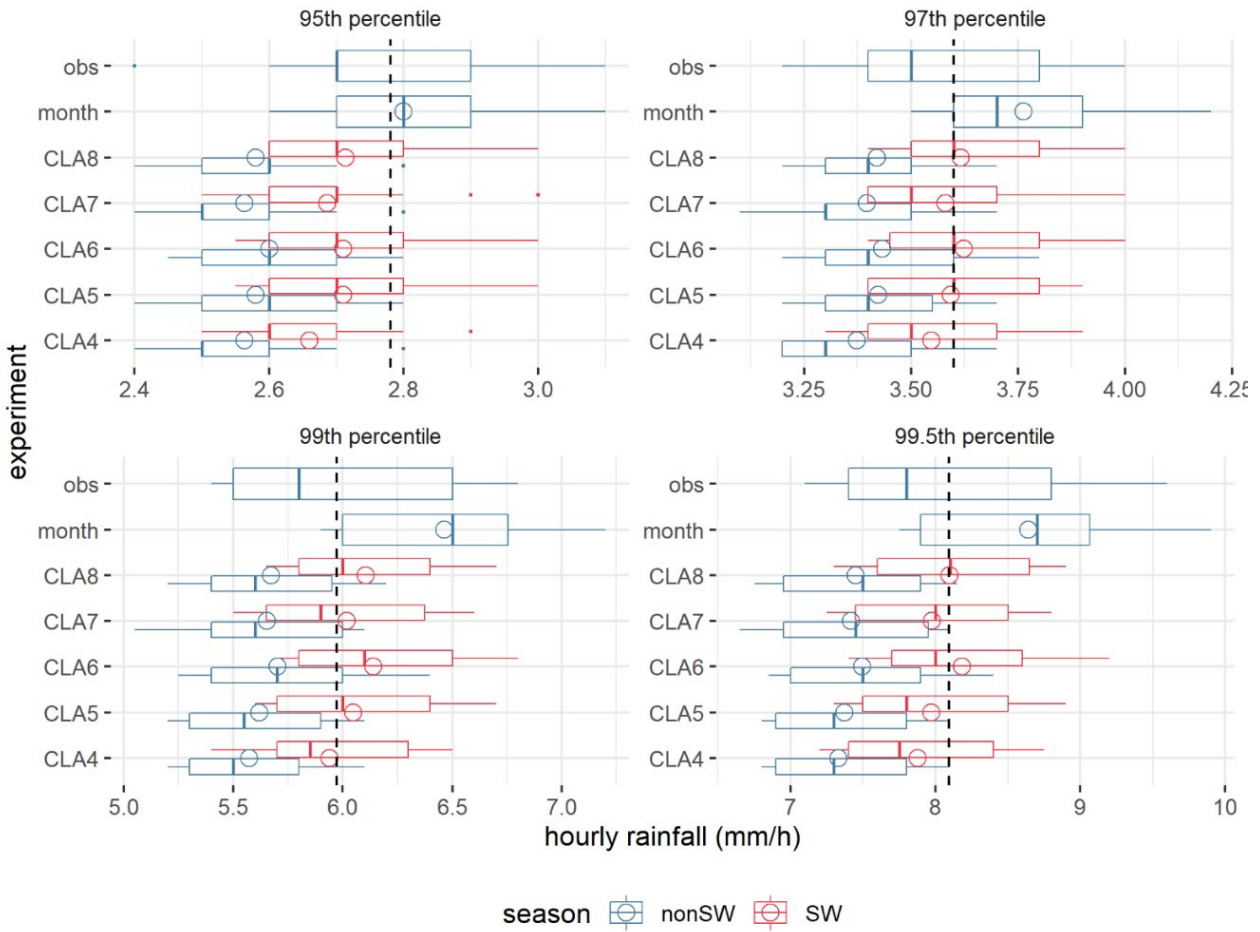


230

231 *Figure 5: Deviation in inter-site correlation coefficients vs inter-site distance between simulated and observed hourly rainfall series. The*
 232 *distances between gauges are computed by using the Haversine formula. In the CP-based experiments (CLA4-8), the red and blue circles,*
 233 *together with the corresponding dash lines, denote the results from disaggregation with and without considering seasonal stratification,*
 234 *respectively.*

235 4.3 Precipitation extremes

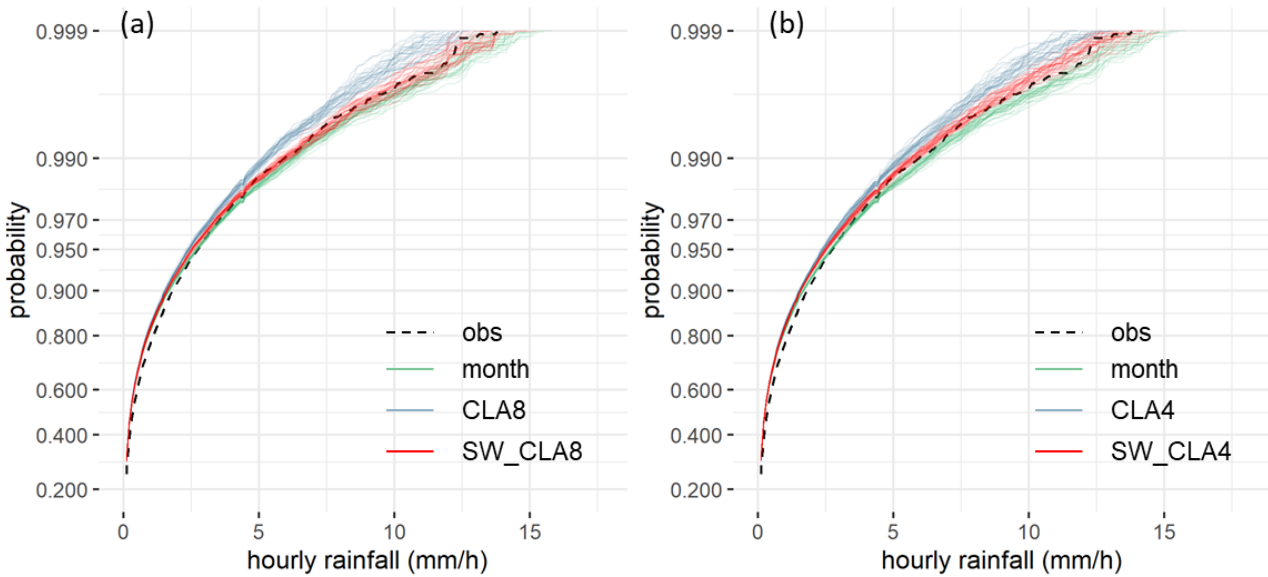
236 To examine the disaggregation performance in reproducing the hourly rainfall extremes, several high
 237 percentiles are calculated and compared with observations (Figure 6). In addition, the cumulative
 238 distribution functions for the example station Nürburg-Barweiler are given in Figure 7. For less extreme
 239 precipitation (95th percentile) the monthly-based MOF outperforms the CP-based disaggregation. For
 240 more extreme precipitation (97th, 99th, 99.5th percentiles), however, the monthly-based procedure
 241 overestimates, the CP-based without seasonal stratification underestimates and the CP-based with
 242 seasonal stratification largely matches the observed percentiles. This is also demonstrated in Figure 7
 243 (for the example rainfall station) that the probability curves from 30 runs of SW_CLA8 disaggregation
 244 can better envelope the observation one (black dashed line). The number of CP classes does not play a
 245 strong role, though the classification with four classes performs worst.



246

247

Figure 6: Comparison of extreme hourly rainfall percentiles for different disaggregation procedures and observations.



248

249

250

Figure 7 Comparisons of the cumulative distribution functions (shown as logit-scaled) of hourly rainfall for the example station Nürnberg-Barweiler (Figure 1) for five disaggregation procedures (month, CLA4, SW_CLA4, CLA8, and SW_CLA8) and observations.

251 5. Discussion

252 In this study, we demonstrate that the temporal rainfall disaggregation based on MOF is improved in
253 reproducing hourly rainfall extremes when conditioned on circulation patterns along with seasonal
254 (winter/summer) stratification. We assume that the additional information injected by CPs and
255 seasonality better describes precipitation formation mechanisms and hence the link between daily sums
256 and hourly precipitation distributions. Additionally, the number of CP classes also plays a role. Models
257 with more CP classes and seasonality considered perform better in rainfall temporal disaggregation and
258 the SW_CLA8 disaggregation procedure shows the best performance in extreme hourly rainfall
259 simulation (Figure 6 and Figure 7). It is expected that increasing the number of classes in CP stratification
260 improves the performance in explaining the rainfall variability, as shown in Beck and Philipp(2010) and
261 Huth et al. (2008), and further improves the performance of the disaggregation model. However,
262 increasing the number of CP classes is computationally more demanding and also each class becomes
263 less populated since the length of time series is limited, which will inevitably introduce more uncertainty
264 in candidate days sampling. Another concern is related to the underestimation of hourly rainfall mean
265 values in all disaggregation experiments, which results from the overestimation of fraction of wet hours
266 in the fragments sampling procedure. Although monthly-based standard MOF shows lower
267 underestimation (Figure 2), the difference between monthly-based model and CP-based approach with
268 seasonal stratification and high number of CP classes (like SW_CLA8) is rather small. Apparently, all
269 models underestimate precipitation in the range between 50th and 95th percentiles (Figure 7). CP-based
270 models perform similarly to the monthly-based approach. However, for higher percentiles above 95th
271 the monthly-based approach strongly overestimates precipitation compared to the CP-based one
272 (Figure 6). Hence, the monthly based approach compensates the underestimation for lower percentiles
273 with overestimation for higher percentiles resulting in a better mean. We thus consider the CP-based
274 approach to be better particularly with regards to disaggregation of extreme precipitation, which plays

275 an important role in many practical applications in water management, such as flood design estimation
276 and risk analysis.

277 The major limitation of the CP-based disaggregation is the stationarity assumption of the link between
278 daily sums and subdaily distributions in each CP class. This assumption is challenged by the
279 thermodynamic changes in the atmosphere, in particular increasing water vapor with increasing air
280 temperature (Lenderink et al., 2017). The CPs in this study are classified by using only daily mean sea
281 level pressure and seasonality (summer/winter), which does not account for this thermodynamic effect.
282 Westra et al. (2013) examined the daily-to-subdaily disaggregation performance of MOF conditioned on
283 a range of atmospheric covariates, such as air temperature and relative humidity, where the
284 atmospheric covariates with the greatest influence on the sub-daily rainfall temporal pattern were
285 identified by fitting a generalized additive model (GAM). They found that the temporal distribution of
286 subdaily rainfall is sensitive to changes in atmospheric temperature. The maximum intensity of short-
287 duration rainfall increased by 4.1 – 13.4% per degree change in air temperature for the maximum 6 min
288 burst, and by 3.1 – 6.8% for the maximum 1 h burst. Rafatnejad et al. (2021) evaluated climate change
289 impacts on extreme subdaily rainfall amounts by using MOF with inclusion of air temperature and other
290 weather variables as influential factors, where the distances between target and candidate days were
291 weighted by the correlation coefficients between conditional variables and rainfall series. Their results
292 indicated an increase in the extremes, for instance in the mean and standard deviation of the 95th
293 percentile. Therefore, one approach to further improve the CP-based rainfall temporal disaggregation
294 model in reproducing subdaily rainfall extremes is to include additional conditional variables, in
295 particular air temperature, into the CP classification, which is expected to represent the thermodynamic
296 effect of climate warming on the link between daily rainfall totals and subdaily distributions. On the
297 contrary, Breinl and Di Baldassarre (2019) used both precipitation and air temperature in a single matrix
298 to compute the distances between the target day and candidate days and this approach delivered

299 poorer performance with regards to subdaily rainfall extremes and inter-site correlation. So, the
300 question remains, how to optimally incorporate additional weather variables to circulation patterns into
301 the MOF disaggregation procedure and can be addressed in future research.

302 6. Conclusions

303 In this research, a multisite method of fragments-based rainfall temporal disaggregation model
304 conditioned on circulation pattern (CP) classification is developed and applied for the German part of
305 the Rhine river basin. Its performance in simulating standard rainfall statistics, spatial correlation, wet
306 and dry spells features and extremes is examined and compared with the standard disaggregation
307 procedure (monthly-based). The CP-based disaggregation shows good performance in representing
308 standard rainfall statistics, including standard deviation, lag-1 autocorrelation, and fraction of wet hours,
309 although the monthly-based method of fragments disaggregation performs slightly better with regard to
310 mean. Both disaggregation procedures underestimate the mean duration of dry spells, while the CP-
311 based models outperform monthly-based one in wet spell length estimation. The spatial correlation
312 structure in terms of the inter-site correlation coefficients is well maintained by both procedures.

313 The CP-based rainfall disaggregation procedure significantly improves the simulation of rainfall
314 extremes, especially for high percentiles. The performance gain may be explained by the improvement
315 of CP classification in stratifying extreme rainfall features. It could be shown that model performance
316 increases with the number of CP classes; this comes, however, at the costs of higher computational
317 demands and higher uncertainty. The superior performance for rainfall extremes is a valuable
318 improvement for many practical applications in water management, such as flood design estimation and
319 risk analysis. In addition, the CP-based approach opens up the possibility of including climate change
320 effects in generating subdaily rainfall series.

321 CRediT authorship contribution statement

322 Conceptualization: SV, XG, DVN, BM; Methodology: XG, KN, BW; Data curation and Coding: XG; Writing –
323 original draft: XG; Writing – review & editing: SV, BM, DVN, KN and BW; Supervision: SV and BM

324 Declaration of Competing Interest

325 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships
326 that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

327 Acknowledgement

328 Xiaoxiang Guan is sponsored by China Scholarship Council for his PhD research (Grant #:
329 202106710029). This study is carried out in the KAHR project (Grant #: 01LR2102F) and the contributions
330 from the ClimXtreme projects FLOOD (Grant #: 01LP1903E) and LASLI (Grant #: 01LP1903A) all funded by
331 the German Federal Ministry for Research and Education (BMBF) are acknowledged.

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