

1 **Disaggregation of Future Regional Climate Model Data to Generate Future**  
2 **Rainfall Intensity-Duration-Frequency Curves to Assess Climate Change**  
3 **Impacts**

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16 Disaggregation of Future Rainfalls to Generate IDF Curves

17

18 **Abstract**

19 Heavy increase in urbanization, industrialization and population is causing an increase in  
20 emissions of greenhouse gases (GHG) and this causes variations in atmosphere. Climate  
21 change causes extreme rainfall events and these events are expected to be enhanced in the  
22 future. Since flooding is influencing urban areas, controlling and management of flooding is a  
23 major necessity. Intensity-Duration-Frequency (IDF) curves play a huge role in representing  
24 rainfall characteristics by linking intensity, duration, and frequency of rainfall.

25 Analysing short-duration rainfall is crucial for urban areas due to fast responses of drainage  
26 systems against heavy rainfall events. IDF curves were generated via the Gumbel method for  
27 rainfalls from 5-min to 24-h in this study. However, providing short-duration rainfall data is  
28 challenging due to the low capacity, costs and geographic conditions. Therefore, the  
29 HYETOS disaggregation model was applied to obtain sub-hourly data.

30 IDF curves are stationary since they only consider historical events. However, IDF curves  
31 must be non-stationary and time varying based on preparation for upcoming extreme events.

32 This study aims to generate IDF curves under climate change scenarios. The Regional

33 Climate Model (RCM) HadGEM2-ES generated under Representative Concentration  
34 Pathways (RCP) 4.5 and 8.5 scenarios and was used in the study to represent future rainfalls.  
35 Future daily rainfalls were disaggregated into sub-hourly using disaggregation parameters of  
36 corresponding station's historical rainfall data since it is impossible to estimate parameters  
37 when hourly data is not available. With this new approach, future daily rainfall data is  
38 disaggregated into 5-min data by complying with historical rainfall patterns rather than  
39 complying with randomly selected rainfall characteristics. The study concluded that future  
40 rainfall intensities increases compared to historical IDF curves. RCP8.5 scenarios have higher  
41 rainfall intensities for all return periods compared to RCP4.5 scenarios for all stations except  
42 a station. In addition, the accuracy of the selected disaggregation model was verified.

43

44 **Keywords:** IDF curves, disaggregation, climate change, RCM, RCP, flood

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## 47 **1. INTRODUCTION**

48 Irrepressible growth of industrial activities, urbanization and population enhance greenhouse  
49 gases (carbon dioxide, methane, aerosols etc.) emissions. This enhancement causes major  
50 variations in climate and leads to a necessity to deal with a serious challenge in the future:  
51 climate change (Mirhosseini, Srivastava, & Stefanova, 2013). Climate change causes global  
52 warming by increasing global temperatures, and this causes enhancement of  
53 evapotranspiration and water vapour in the atmosphere, hence, more extreme events such as  
54 extreme rainfall. Extreme rainfall events are one of the most serious consequences of these  
55 changes and they can cause floods. Floods damage to structures such as sewers, drainage  
56 systems, bridges, and infrastructures (Singh, Arya, Taxak, & Vojinovic, 2016). Dealing with  
57 heavy rainfall events that cause floods, loss of life, crops, and properties, is challenging for  
58 urban areas. High intensity rainfall events are considered a key factor in flooding events.  
59 Rainfall Intensity-Duration-Frequency (IDF) curves are necessary in designing hydraulic  
60 structures such as sewers, drainages, gutters, and culverts since an inappropriate design can  
61 lead to losses of life, economy and property (Burn, 2014). Using IDF curves to design water  
62 facilities allows engineers to be ready for extreme events. Thus, possible damages can be  
63 decreased. IDF curves are widely applied in many water related projects, flood forecasting  
64 and management and water management (Simonovic & Peck, 2009).  
65 IDF curves give a rainfall intensity for the selected duration and return period. These IDF  
66 curves demonstrate the possibility of occurrence of a rainfall event for a specific duration.  
67 Durations can vary between 5 minutes and 24 hours. Ordinarily, short-duration (high-  
68 resolution) rainfalls (e.g., from 5 min to 30 min) are analysed for urban areas, whereas longer  
69 duration (low-resolution) rainfalls (e.g., from 1 hour to 24 hours) are applied for rural areas  
70 (Bougadis & Adamowski, 2006). Urban floods, especially flash floods, are the typical  
71 consequence of the fast responses by drainage systems (Forestieri et al., 2017). Therefore,  
72 analysing short-duration rainfalls is crucial for urban areas due to fast responses of drainage  
73 systems against heavy rainfall events (Nhat, Tachikawa, Sayama, & Takara, 2008). Even  
74 though long-duration data can be provided from rain gauge stations and climate models  
75 easily, providing short-duration rainfall data is challenging due to the limitations of a  
76 station's capability, costs and geographic conditions. Even if short-duration rainfall data is  
77 obtained, they are usually scarce and not reliable. Hence, it is mandatory to apply a process  
78 called "disaggregation" to overcome these limitations. There is a large volume of  
79 disaggregation methods and studies describing disaggregation. K-nearest neighbour (KNN)  
80 developed by Prairie, Rajagopalan, Lall, and Fulp (2007), HYETOS developed by

81 Koutsoyiannis and Onof (2001), and Multivariate Rainfall Disaggregation (MuDRain)  
82 developed by Koutsoyiannis (2003) models have been used widely (Debele, Srinivas, &  
83 Parlange, 2007; Hanaish, Ibrahim, & Jemain, 2011; Lu & Qin, 2013). Rodriguez-Iturbe, Cox,  
84 and Isham (1987) developed the Bartlett-Lewis disaggregation model to disaggregate daily  
85 and hourly rainfall into sub-hourly (e.g., 5-min). Afterwards, a disaggregation model  
86 HYETOS based on Bartlett-Lewis model was established by Koutsoyiannis and Onof (2001).  
87 The HYETOS model allows users to obtain short-duration rainfalls from long-duration  
88 rainfalls by benefitting from four statistical values of 1, 6, 12 and 24-h rainfall data (mean,  
89 variance, auto-covariance lag 1 and proportion of dry days).  
90 To generate IDF curves, annual maxima for rainfalls are obtained for each duration.  
91 Afterwards, probability distribution functions such as Gumbel, Generalized Extreme Value  
92 (GEV), the Log-Normal and Log Pearson Type III are applied to annual maxima to obtain  
93 rainfalls for each return period. Computed rainfalls (mm) are converted to rainfall intensities  
94 (mm/h). Many researchers generated and studied on IDF curves since 1930s (Sherman, 1931;  
95 Bernard, 1932; Hershfield, 1961; Bell, 1969; Chen, 1983; Burn & Taleghani, 2012; Van de  
96 Vyver, 2018; Nwaogazie & Sam, 2019).  
97 Although IDF curves based on historical rainfall events are used frequently, they are still not  
98 fully sufficient against a rapidly changing environment. Historical rainfall-based IDF curves  
99 are stationary, therefore they are ineffective in catching climate change conditions (Singh et  
100 al., 2016). Current IDF curves assume that extreme rainfall events will not change under  
101 future climate conditions. Hence, developing advanced IDF curves, which are successful at  
102 representation of both historical and future climate conditions, is a huge necessity. With this  
103 type of IDF curves, it is possible to deal with extreme rainfall events under non-stationary  
104 climate conditions. Many studies have been performed to update IDF curves considering  
105 future conditions (Mirhosseini et al., 2013; Liew, Raghavan, & Liong, 2014; Hajani, 2020).  
106 In the study of Zhu, Stone, and Forsee (2012), they investigated the generation of IDF curves  
107 that were affected by rainfall intensity changes under SRES-A2 greenhouse emission  
108 scenario. Rainfall intensities with 3-h intervals obtained from compounds of Regional  
109 Climate Models (RCMs) and Global Climate Models (GCMs) were used in the study. IDF  
110 curves were developed for single station locations and calculated annual maximum series for  
111 3, 6, 9, 12, 18, 24, 48 and 96 hours. De Souza Costa, Blanco, and de Oliveira-Junior (2020)  
112 performed a study on IDF curves under future climate conditions. They used three different  
113 Global Climate Models (GCMs) under Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP)  
114 scenarios RCP4.5 and RCP8.5.

115 This study generates historical IDF curves and updated IDF curves based on disaggregated  
116 rainfalls to assess climate change impact on rainfall intensities. (5, 10, 15, 30 minutes; 1, 2, 3,  
117 4, 5, 6, 8, 12, 18 and 24 hours) for durations, (2, 10, 25, 50 and 100 years) for return periods  
118 were selected. Eight meteorological stations from Istanbul, Turkey were selected as study  
119 areas. Gumbel function was selected as a frequency analysis technique to generate IDF  
120 curves from annual maximum rainfalls. RCMs generated under RCP scenarios RCP4.5 and  
121 RCP8.5 were provided for the period of 2021-2099. to be used as daily future rainfall data.  
122 HadGEM2-ES developed by the Met Office Hadley Centre Institute (MOHC) was selected as  
123 the RCM. Unfortunately, RCMs are not suitable to use directly due to biases between  
124 observed and simulated historical rainfall data. Therefore, the distribution mapping method  
125 was applied to correct these biases. Provided future rainfall events were in daily form, hence,  
126 the HYETOS model was applied for the disaggregation of daily future rainfall into sub-  
127 hourly and hourly rainfall to generate IDF curves, which is generated by rainfalls in the range  
128 of 5-min and 24-h. Observed rainfall data provided by the Turkish State Meteorological  
129 Service (TSMS) contains different 1-min and hourly rainfall data sets. The HYETOS model  
130 was also applied for the disaggregation of observed hourly rainfall data provided by the  
131 TSMS into sub-hourly rainfall to generate historical IDF curves. As mentioned before,  
132 HYETOS parameters are computed if hourly rainfall data exist. However, providing and  
133 dealing with future hourly data for long periods (e.g., 80 years for 2021-2099) is thorny due  
134 to huge amounts of data. If the aim is to generate short-duration future IDF curves, short-  
135 duration future rainfall should be obtained. Therefore, this study focuses on the  
136 disaggregation of future daily rainfall data. Since the data are daily, it is impossible to  
137 compute the parameters for future data. Therefore, the monthly parameters of each station's  
138 historical data were used for corresponding station's future data. R Studio was employed  
139 from the beginning of the study for all computations, analyses and plottings.  
140 This study has three objectives: (i) generating more reliable and effective future IDF curves  
141 under various climate change scenarios for urban areas by evaluating short-duration future  
142 rainfall data for drainage and infrastructure systems, (ii) disaggregation of future daily  
143 rainfalls into sub-hourly rainfalls with a new approach to HYETOS disaggregation model,  
144 (iii) verifying the accuracy of the selected model by comparing IDF curves generated by  
145 disaggregated and observed rainfalls for the corresponding stations. This new approach  
146 includes applying historical monthly disaggregation parameters of each station to  
147 corresponding station's future data. This process gives a chance for future data to capture  
148 historical patterns of rainfall as much as possible for each station during the disaggregation

149 process. Hence, the method is valid when hourly future data are scarce due to various  
150 reasons. The final objective is to assess the impact of climate change impact on rainfall  
151 intensities by comparing historical and future IDF curves and IDF curves under RCP4.5 and  
152 RCP8.5 scenarios with each other.

153

154

## 155 **2. DATA AND METHODS**

156

### 157 **2.1 Study Area**

158 The study area Istanbul is located in north-western Turkey (Figure 1). The city is located in  
159 the Marmara region with a total area of 5,343 km<sup>2</sup> and a population of 15,519,267. The  
160 geographical location of the city is 41°00'49"N 28°57'18"E. One of the most important  
161 characteristics of this city is that it separates Europe and Asia. Thus, the city has lands in both  
162 Europe and Asia. The Black Sea and the Marmara Sea are connected in Bosphorus. Istanbul  
163 has the highest population in Turkey and Europe. Camlica Hill is the highest point of the city  
164 with an altitude of 288 m. Rainfall and IDF curve data were provided for eight different  
165 meteorological stations managed by the TSMS in Istanbul. Thus, studies were performed for  
166 the selected stations, and future climate data obtained from RCM were generated for each  
167 station. Three stations are on the Asian side, and five stations are on the European side. The  
168 stations are listed as follows: Canta, Terkos, Olimpiyat, Omerli, Florya, Sariyer, Goztepe, and  
169 Sile (Figure 2).

170

### 171 **2.2 Data Types**

172

#### 173 **2.2.1 Observed Data**

174 To generate IDF curves with the effects of climate change in the future, both observed  
175 rainfall and future climate data simulated under climate change scenarios are needed. In this  
176 study, observed, simulated historical and simulated future rainfall data and historical IDF  
177 curve data were used. 14 years (2005-2018) observed rainfall data (mm) were provided by  
178 the TSMS for 8 different stations. Stations listed in the previous section were: Canta, Terkos,  
179 Olimpiyat, Florya, Sariyer, Goztepe, Omerli, and Sile. For Omerli, Terkos, Canta, and  
180 Olimpiyat stations, 1-minute rainfall data were provided. For other stations, hourly rainfall  
181 data were provided. These data were used for three reasons: (i) to verify that the  
182 disaggregation process was applied correctly, (ii) to obtain Hyetos disaggregation parameters

183 that will later be used in the disaggregation of simulated future rainfall, (iii) to generate  
184 historical IDF curves for all stations. IDF curves generated by observed rainfall provided by  
185 the TSMS were used to make a comparison of both future IDF curves and IDF curves  
186 generated from disaggregated historical rainfall. IDF curves were available for stations  
187 Florya, Goztepe and Sariyer.

188

### 189 **2.2.2 Regional Climate Model (RCM)**

190 Climate models are the representation of the climate system under climatic scenarios to  
191 understand climate change in the future. These models can be divided into GCMs and RCMs.  
192 Both GCMs and RCMs are constructed under different RCP scenarios for various climate  
193 components such as rainfall, temperature, wind, etc. High-resolution RCMs represent  
194 truthful simulations of heavy rainfall compared to GCMs. Therefore, RCMs are preferable for  
195 water management projects. (Mailhot, Duchesne, Caya, & Talbot, 2007). Both simulated  
196 historical and simulated future data were obtained from the Earth System Grid Federation  
197 (ESGF) – Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory (LLNL) website. Simulated daily  
198 historical rainfall data for the period of 1949-2005 were provided. Simulated daily future  
199 rainfall data were provided for 2021-2099 under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios.

200 The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) published the Fifth Assessment  
201 Report (IPCC 2014) to assess climate change in the future using RCP scenarios. RCPs are  
202 used to define emissions of air pollutants, greenhouse gases, and atmospheric concentrations.  
203 Watts per square meter (W/m<sup>2</sup>) is the unit which represents energy imbalance in the  
204 atmosphere. Radiative forcing is 4.5 W/m<sup>2</sup> for RCP4.5 and 8.5 W/m<sup>2</sup> for RCP8.5 (Padhiary,  
205 Patra, Dash, & Kumar, 2020). In terms of rainfall intensities, the magnitudes are listed as  
206 follows from the lowest to the highest: RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0, and RCP8.5 (Singh et al.,  
207 2016).

208 The selected RCM was from the Coordinated Regional Climate Downscaling Experiment  
209 (CORDEX) Europe program. Model HadGEM2-ES with a 12.5 km resolution developed by  
210 the MOHC was preferred. Outputs from HadGEM2-ES were downscaled to each station.  
211 Distribution mapping was preferred as bias-correction methods to handle biases between  
212 observed and simulated historical data.

213

### 214 **2.2.3 Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR)**

215 As mentioned in previous sections, RCMs are not available to use directly due to biases  
216 between observed and simulated historical data. To correct these biases, the Climate Model

217 Data for Hydrologic Modeling (CMhyd) tool was applied (Rathjens, Bieger, Srinivasan,  
218 Chaubey, & Arnold, 2016). Using the CMhyd tool, RCMs were downscaled to each  
219 meteorological station to study with finer-scale climate data. Simulated historical data,  
220 observed data, and simulated future data were used together for the bias-correction process.  
221 As observed data to be used in the bias-correction process, daily rainfall for the period of  
222 1979-2014 was obtained from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP)  
223 Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) for each station. The CFSR is a reanalysis  
224 service which combines observations made in the past by weather stations with today's  
225 weather model to provide a complete picture of past rainfall events. Missing values are  
226 recreated by blending overlapping existing values from the observed data. CFSR data were  
227 preferred since the observed data provided by TSMS have some missing values. Simulated  
228 historical RCM data were provided for the period of 1949-2005, therefore, it was necessary to  
229 overlap periods of historical RCM data and observed data as much as possible. Observed data  
230 provided by the TSMS was insufficient to overlap RCM data since the data is from 2005 to  
231 2018 and the period of historical RCM data is 1949-2005. The study of El Afandi (2014)  
232 concluded that the CFSR can be used when there are lacks in observed data sets since the  
233 discrepancies between observed and CFSR data are too small. The CFSR rainfall data can be  
234 considered as an alternative for data-scarce regions (Cuceloglu & Ozturk, 2019). Used data  
235 types are demonstrated in Figure 3.

236

### 237 **2.3 Bias-Correction of Simulated Data**

238 The RCM has disadvantages to use directly as climate data in hydrological studies. RCM  
239 outputs are not suitable to be used directly without correcting their biases. These biases arise  
240 due to inconsistencies between observed and simulated historical rainfall (Rathjens et al,  
241 2016). Observed high rainfall and the number of dry days is not well represented if biases  
242 exist. Seasonal alterations and extreme temperatures are predicted badly due to biases. RCMs  
243 simulate low rainfall days instead of dry days (Teutschbein & Seibert, 2010). The CMhyd  
244 software developed by Texas A&M University (TAMU) which is available online was  
245 preferred for the bias-correction process. The general framework of the bias-correction  
246 process was described by Rathjens et al. (2016) in Figure 4. First, biases between observed  
247 climate data and simulated historical climate data are identified and the bias-correction  
248 algorithm is then parameterized. This algorithm is then applied to simulated future climate  
249 data to correct biases. As a result, corrected historical and future climate data are obtained as  
250 output. Bias-correction helps users to use RCMs or GCMs in hydrological studies by

251 representing simulated data better. Several bias-correction methods, including distribution  
252 mapping, were developed in the study of Teutschbein and Seibert (2010). In this study, the  
253 distribution mapping method was employed as the bias-correction method.

254

### 255 **2.3.1 Distribution Mapping**

256 Teutschbein and Seibert (2010) applied this method in their studies. “Probability mapping”,  
257 “quantile matching”, “statistical downscaling”, and “histogram equalization” terms can be  
258 used for distribution mapping in the literature. With the distribution mapping, the distribution  
259 function of simulated climate data is corrected to coordinate with the distribution function of  
260 observed data. To perform this, a transfer function is used to shift the distribution of  
261 simulated data. It is assumed that the biases are stationary under climate change for this  
262 method (Teutschbein & Seibert, 2010). Distribution mapping employs Gamma distribution to  
263 remove biases. Thom (1958) expressed the Gamma distribution with shape parameter  $k$ , and  
264 scale parameter  $\beta$ . Gamma distribution is applicable to the distribution of rainfall (Teutschbein  
265 & Seibert, 2010).

$$266 \quad f_y = \frac{1}{\beta^k \Gamma(k)} x^{k-1} e^{-x/\beta} ; x \geq 0; \beta, k > 0 \quad (1)$$

267 Where  $\beta$  is the scale parameter,  $k$  is the shape parameter,  $\Gamma$  is the gamma function, and  $x$  is  
268 normalized daily rainfall. Each grid and month have its own scale and shape parameter. With  
269 this method, mean, variance, skew, and frequency of rainfall events are corrected. The  
270 distribution profile is managed by shape parameter  $k$ . Three circumstances are considered by  
271 the value of  $k$ . When  $k < 1$ , it defines exponentially shaped Gamma distribution,  $k = 1$   
272 describes exponential distribution,  $k > 1$  indicates a skewed uni-modal distribution. The scale  
273 parameter  $\beta$  dictates dispersion of the Gamma distribution.  $k > 1$  situation is commonly  
274 applied for observed daily rainfall. If the scale parameter  $\beta$  is small, it eventuates to a more  
275 compressed distribution, and this ends up with lower probabilities of extreme rainfall. If the  $\beta$   
276 is large, this causes a stretched distribution, and this is the reason for higher probabilities of  
277 extreme events (Teutschbein & Seibert, 2010). The study by Teutschbein and Seibert (2010)  
278 showed that gamma distribution parameters fitted to simulated climate data showed similar  
279 patterns for the selected catchments in the study area. They reported that the level of  
280 commitment of the distribution parameters ( $k/\beta$ ) defines the skill for the RCM to reproduce  
281 rainfall. As mentioned before, Teutschbein and Seibert (2010) compared several bias-  
282 correction methods including linear scaling, local intensity scaling, power transformation,  
283 variance scaling, and distribution mapping considering the skills of methods to arrange the

284 statistics of the respective observed climate data. The study concluded that distribution  
285 mapping is the best performing method for rainfall with the minimum MAE (minimum  
286 absolute error). They also concluded that the method is applicable to both current and future  
287 climate data.

288

#### 289 **2.4 Disaggregation of Daily and Hourly Rainfalls into Sub-Hourly Rainfall**

290 Hydrological studies such as generating IDF curves require high-resolution rainfall data. This  
291 need arises from the fact that maximum values of finer scales of observed rainfall (e.g., sub-  
292 hourly and hourly) are necessary to develop an IDF curve. However, providing high-  
293 resolution data is challenging due to the limitations of a station's capability, costs and  
294 geographic conditions. To cope with this shortcoming of finer scale rainfall data,  
295 disaggregation methods which derive finer scale data (i.e. hourly and sub-hourly) from  
296 coarser-scales (i.e. daily data) are applied.

297 As in past studies, high-resolution rainfall was needed in this study. IDF curves are generated  
298 using maximum values of sub-hourly rainfall (in the range of 5 to 30 minutes) and hourly  
299 data (i.e., from 1 to 24 hours). Four stations with 1-minute rainfall data were provided,  
300 however there is still a lack of sub-hourly data for the stations of Florya, Goztepe, Sile, and  
301 Sariyer. Hourly rainfall data were provided for these four stations for 2005-2018. The  
302 disaggregation process was used for two purposes in this study (i) to disaggregate hourly  
303 historical rainfall data to sub-hourly data, (ii) to disaggregate daily future climate data  
304 simulated from RCMs to sub-hourly and hourly data.

305 (Koutsoyiannis & Onof, 2001) developed a computer programme called Hyetos based on the  
306 Bartlett-Lewis model, and they implemented a disaggregation scheme in an R package called  
307 "HyetosMinute". The Bartlett-Lewis model was constructed by Rodriguez-Iturbe et al. (1987)  
308 to overcome the inefficiency of simple Poisson models. In this study, Hyetos disaggregation  
309 model was applied.

310 The original Bartlett-Lewis model has 5 parameters ( $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ ,  $\mu_x$ ,  $\eta$ ,  $\lambda$ ) for the disaggregation  
311 process. Storm origins are developed by  $\lambda$ , cell origins are developed by  $\beta$ , cell arrivals end  
312 after a specific time, and the time is exponentially distributed with  $\gamma$ . Each cell has a duration  
313 exponentially distributed with  $\eta$ . Uniform intensity for each cell is distributed exponentially  
314 with  $\mu_x$ . Hanaish et al. (2011) explained the original Bartlett-Lewis rectangular pulses model  
315 in their study.

316 Rodriguez-Iturbe, Cox, and Isham (1988) adjusted the original model to boost the flexibility  
317 of the model to generate larger diversity of rainfall. This modified model is called Modified

318 Modified Bartlett-Lewis Rectangular Pulse Model (MBLRPM). With Gamma distribution,  $\eta$   
319 is changed for each storm.

320 In this model,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  also altered, therefore ratios  $k=\beta/n$  and  $\phi=\gamma/\eta$  stay constant. So that  
321 MBLRPM model has 6 parameters ( $\alpha, \phi, \mu_x, k, \lambda, v$ ). An enhanced version of the  
322 Evolutionary Annealing-Simplex Method is applied to estimate Bartlett-Lewis model  
323 parameters. 4 historical statistical values (mean, variance, auto-covariance lag-1, and the  
324 proportion of dry days) for 1-, 6-, 12- and 24-hour time scales of rainfall data are used to  
325 perform the estimation. MBLRPM parameters are used for single site disaggregation as  
326 inputs. Each month has its own parameters for the disaggregation process. Bartlett-Lewis  
327 parameters cannot be calculated for future data due to the absence of hourly future rainfall  
328 data. Therefore, parameters obtained for observed rainfall data were used for corresponding  
329 station's future monthly data. For example, parameters were calculated for each month of  
330 observed rainfall data of Florya station. Afterwards, these parameters were used for the  
331 disaggregation process of future rainfall data of Florya station for the corresponding months.  
332 Thus, each station has its own parameters for future rainfalls. The aim in doing this was to  
333 adapt to historical patterns of rainfall as much as possible for each station.

334 For the assessment of accuracy of the selected disaggregation method Hyetos, a comparison  
335 was performed between the historical IDF curves provided by the TSMS and IDF curves  
336 generated using observed hourly and sub-hourly historical data that disaggregated from the  
337 observed hourly rainfall provided by the TSMS. Results showed that IDF curves were in  
338 close relationship, so that MBLRPM was successful for the disaggregation. As mentioned  
339 before, MBLRPM was applied to disaggregate observed hourly rainfall into sub-hourly  
340 rainfall and disaggregate simulated daily future rainfall into sub-hourly and hourly to  
341 generate future IDF curves

342

## 343 **2.5 Generating Historical and Future IDF Curves**

344 This study focuses on generating IDF curves for both historical and future rainfalls. Periods  
345 of 2, 5, 10, 25, 50 and 100-year were selected as return period and for the durations, 5-, 10-,  
346 15-, 30-min, and 1-, 2-, 3-, 4-, 5-, 6-, 8-, 12-, 18- and 24-h were selected.

347 The RCMs generated under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 climate change scenarios were used to  
348 generate future IDF curves. On the other hand, observed rainfall data were used for historical  
349 IDF curves. Generating IDF curves requires annual maximum rainfall value for each duration  
350 (5-, 10-, 15-, 30-min, and 1-, 2-, 3-, 4-, 5-, 6-, 8-, 12-, 18- and 24-h) of both historical period  
351 (2005-2018) and future period (2021-2099). Historical 1-min data were aggregated to 5-, 10-,

352 15-, 30-min, and 1-, 2-, 3-, 4-, 5-, 6-, 8-, 12-, 18- and 24-h for Terkos, Omerli, Canta and  
 353 Olimpiyat stations. Hourly historical data were disaggregated into 5-min rainfalls for Florya,  
 354 Goztepe, Sariyer and Sile stations. Afterwards, 5-min rainfalls were aggregated to durations  
 355 from 5-min to 24-hours. Future Similarly, future daily rainfall data were disaggregated into 5-  
 356 min data and then aggregated. After rainfall data for all selected durations were obtained,  
 357 annual maximum rainfall values were computed for each duration.

358 Probability distribution functions (PDF) are used to generate IDF curves. IDF curves were  
 359 generated using the Gumbel distribution. The major advantage of the Gumbel distribution is  
 360 its easy application and its use for only extreme events. Gumbel has two parameters: location  
 361 and scale. The function of Gumbel is defined as:

$$362 \quad F(x) = \frac{1}{\beta} e^{\frac{x-\alpha}{\beta}} e^{-e^{\frac{x-\alpha}{\beta}}} \quad (2)$$

363 Where  $\alpha$  is the location, and  $\beta$  is the scale parameter. In this study, Method of Moments  
 364 (MoM) was applied for the estimation of the parameters. Calculating rainfall intensities  
 365 requires a Gumbel frequency factor for each return period. The mean and standard deviation  
 366 of annual maximum values for each duration are then calculated. The Gumbel frequency  
 367 factor  $K_T$  is calculated using the equation (Nwaogazie & Sam, 2019):

$$368 \quad K_T = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\pi} \left[ 0.5772 + \ln \left[ \ln \left[ \frac{T}{T-1} \right] \right] \right] \quad (3)$$

369 Where T is the return period.

370 The value of random variable R, which is rainfall (mm) for this study, was found with the  
 371 equation given by Chow (1951):

$$372 \quad R_T = M + K_T S \quad (4)$$

373 Where R is rainfall (mm), M and S are mean and standard deviation of observed maximum  
 374 rainfall for the current duration, respectively, and  $K_T$  is the Gumbel frequency factor for each  
 375 return period. Hence, rainfall values are calculated for the current duration at different return  
 376 periods. Rainfall intensity I (mm/h) can be calculated by dividing rainfall R by selected  
 377 duration d (hours).

$$378 \quad I = \frac{R_T}{d} \quad (5)$$

379 Then, the process is performed for each duration and maximum rainfall intensities are  
 380 obtained for each duration and for each return period.

381 Briefly, the steps to generate IDF curves are followed:

- 382 1. Annual maximum values of rainfall data for each duration (5-, 10-, 15-, 30-min, and 1-, 2,  
383 3-, 4-, 5-, 6-, 8-, 12-, 18- and 24-h) and year (2005-2018 and 2021-2099) are calculated.  
384 2. MoM was applied to obtain Gumbel parameters.  
385 3. Gumbel frequency factors are derived for each return period.  
386 4. Mean and standard deviation values are calculated for observed maximum rainfall values  
387 for each duration.  
388 5. Rainfall values are computed with Chow's equation and rainfall intensity is calculated by  
389 dividing rainfall into durations.  
390 6. The process is repeated for each duration.  
391 7. IDF curves are plotted with calculated rainfall intensities for each duration and each  
392 return period.  
393  
394

### 395 **3. RESULTS**

396 This chapter contains three sections to show results of analyses of IDF curves. Differences  
397 quantified by percentage between IDF curves were determined. The first section contains the  
398 comparisons of IDF curves generated by the disaggregated rainfalls and IDF curves provided  
399 directly by the TSMS. These comparisons were performed to verify the accuracy of the  
400 disaggregation process. The second section displays the generated IDF curves for singular  
401 data: historical and future rainfalls of RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. This section is created to exhibit  
402 differences between historical and future climate conditions. Accordingly, historical IDF  
403 curves and future IDF curves generated for both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios were  
404 compared separately. Section 3, the final section of the results chapter displays the  
405 differences between future IDF curves RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 to prove the impacts of different  
406 climate scenarios on rainfall.  
407

#### 408 **3.1 Performance of the Disaggregation Model**

409 IDF curves generated by observed rainfall for Florya, Sariyer and Goztepe stations were  
410 supplied by the TSMS to evaluate the performance of Hyetos disaggregation model. For the  
411 evaluation, the observed IDF curves were compared to the disaggregated IDF curves  
412 generated by the rainfall disaggregated from the hourly observed data. Initially, hourly  
413 observed rainfall data were disaggregated into sub-hourly data (5-, 10-, 15- and 30-min).  
414 Rainfall of hourly and greater time durations (1-, 2-, 3-, 4-, 5-, 6-, 8-, 12-, 18- and 24-h) were

415 obtained by the aggregation of disaggregated 5-min rainfall data rather than the aggregation  
416 of hourly rainfall data provided by the TSMS. After obtaining all disaggregated rainfall data  
417 for all durations, IDF curves were generated using the Gumbel distribution method.  
418 Both disaggregated and observed IDF curves were plotted together to exhibit the accuracy of  
419 disaggregation method and to prove that IDF values are in close relationship. Percentage  
420 difference between total values of observed and disaggregated IDF curves is 2.36% for  
421 Florya, 2.98% for Goztepe and 3.04% for Sariyer station. These comparisons revealed that  
422 there is a positive correlation between observed and disaggregated rainfall intensities by 2.8%  
423 total average change when all stations considered. Since the selected disaggregation model  
424 shows a good performance to obtain sub-hourly data from hourly/daily data, the process was  
425 applied for the disaggregation of daily future rainfall data, as well. IDF curve trends for  
426 observed and disaggregated rainfall data for three stations are demonstrated in Figure 5. In  
427 addition, the percentage differences between IDF curves of disaggregated and observed  
428 rainfalls for each duration and return period are written in Table 1, Table 2, and Table 3 for  
429 Florya, Goztepe, and Sariyer stations, respectively.

430

### 431 **3.2 Changes in Rainfall Intensities under Future Climate Conditions**

432 This section deals with the variations of future IDF curves (2021-2099) with respect to  
433 historical (2005-2018) IDF curves. Analyses showed that both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios  
434 have similar rainfall intensity trends. 588 rainfall intensity values exist for each RCP  
435 scenarios which are the multiply of 14 durations, 6 return periods, and 7 stations (RCP4.5  
436 analyses for Omerli and RCP8.5 analyses for Canta do not exist due to uncorrectable biases).  
437 Most of these rainfall intensities are increasing in terms of number of values for RCP4.5 and  
438 RCP8.5 scenarios with respect to historical rainfall intensities with a value of 95.4% (561 of  
439 588 is increasing) and 98.30% (578 of 588 is increasing), respectively. Rate of increase in  
440 terms of total value of rainfall intensities under RCP4.5 is 36.5%, and under RCP8.5 is  
441 42.3%. For the RCP4.5 scenario, the observed highest increase in terms of value of a specific  
442 rainfall intensity is 79.7% for Canta station for the duration of 24-h and a return period of 2-  
443 y, and the highest decrease is -25% for Olimpiyat station for the duration of 2-h and a return  
444 period of 100-y. For the RCP8.5, the highest increase is %74 for Omerli station for the  
445 duration of 1-h and return period of 2-y, the highest decrease is -17% for Sariyer station for  
446 the duration of 5-min and return period of 2-year. Rainfall intensities are decreasing in  
447 Olimpiyat station more than other stations for both RCPs. Findings of analyses are  
448 summarized in Table 4 for both RCPs. Table 4 contains average increases by percentage for

449 each return period. When changes are considered from the point of return periods, average of  
450 percentage increase is the greatest for 2-y return period and it is the lowest for 100-y return  
451 period. This result reveals that, increase of rainfall intensities will be higher for shorter  
452 periods and lower for larger periods. But the same trend is not valid in terms of durations.  
453 Even though 24-h durations have the greatest average value of percentage increase, this value  
454 is not changing gradually, which means that rainfall intensities can increase more for shorter  
455 durations or longer durations. Analyses revealed that extreme rainfall intensities are  
456 increasing in the future with respect to historical (Figure 6 and Figure 7). Table 4 shows  
457 average percentage increase of IDF values under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios with respect  
458 to historical IDF values in terms of return periods.

459

### 460 **3.3 IDF Curve Trends of RCP4.5 and RCP8.5**

461 As revealed in the previous section, rainfall intensities are increasing substantially under  
462 RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios. While rainfall intensities under RCP4.5 are increasing by an  
463 average of 30 to 45 percent for return periods, and 30 to 51 for durations, they are increasing  
464 by an average of 38 to 47 for return periods, and 38 to 57 for durations under RCP8.5. It is  
465 clear that RCP8.5 scenarios cause more extreme events with respect to RCP4.5 scenarios  
466 (Figure 8). In this section, the impacts of RCP scenarios on rainfall intensities are evaluated.  
467 Table 5 exhibits average of percentage increases of RCP8.5 with respect to RCP4.5 for each  
468 station, return period and duration. also shows IDF curve trends for both scenarios for a  
469 selected station. What stands out in Table 5 is RCP8.5 scenarios have higher rainfall  
470 intensities in all stations except Terkos station. In Terkos station, rainfall intensities are  
471 increasing for both scenarios with respect to historical IDF, but RCP4.5 has 6.59% higher  
472 rainfall intensities than RCP8.5 in terms of total rainfall intensities of return periods and  
473 durations. Olimpiyat is the station most affected by RCP8.5 with 14.5% difference to  
474 RCP4.5. In Florya station, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios have almost the same trends for  
475 rainfall intensities. In total of all stations, RCP8.5 scenarios have 2.67% higher rainfall  
476 intensities. Rainfall intensities are increasing more for higher durations under RCP8.5, but  
477 increasing trend is almost same for all return periods. Table 5 demonstrates the total average  
478 percentage increase (when all return periods and durations are selected) of IDF values under  
479 RCP8.5 with respect to RCP4.5 for each station.

480 Table 6 shows the average total change of IDF values for RCP8.5 with respect to RCP4.5  
481 only for each return period.

482

483

## 484 **4. DISCUSSION**

485

### 486 **4.1 Applicability of the Disaggregation Model**

487 The first analysis was performed using observed hourly rainfall data from Florya, Goztepe  
488 and Sariyer. Since the observed IDF curves for these stations were provided by the TSMS,  
489 they were used to verify the performance of the disaggregation method. Hourly rainfall data  
490 were disaggregated into sub-hourly data. Afterwards, IDF curves for disaggregated rainfall  
491 data were generated and compared to observed IDF curves. These comparisons revealed that  
492 there is a positive correlation between observed rainfall and disaggregated rainfall data by  
493 2.8% total average change for three stations. Percentage differences between disaggregated  
494 and observed IDF curves were demonstrated in Table 1, Table 2, and Table 3. IDF curve  
495 trends for both disaggregated and observed IDF curves given in Figure 5 also show a close  
496 relationship between them. Therefore, the selected disaggregation method was applied to all  
497 data sets.

498

### 499 **4.2 Behaviours of Rainfall Intensities in the Future**

500 The second analysis can be considered the main analysis since it shows the differences  
501 between historical and future IDF curves. Hence, the impact of climate change can be  
502 observed with these comparisons. Historical and future IDF curves (for both RCP4.5 and  
503 RCP8.5) were generated for all stations. Afterwards, the generated IDF curves were plotted  
504 and compared. Conclusions of this analysis are listed as follows.

505 1. Most of rainfall intensities are increasing in terms of number of values for RCP4.5 and  
506 RCP8.5 rainfall intensities compared to historical rainfall intensities with a value of 95.4%  
507 (561 of 588 is increasing) and 98.30% (578 of 588 is increasing), respectively. Hence, rainfall  
508 events will be more intensified in the future compared to historical events and as a result,  
509 rainfall events will be more destructive.

510 2. Rainfall intensities will increase for shorter return periods more than higher ones. The  
511 evidence of this result implies that rainfall intensities will be higher for more frequent events  
512 in the coming future. For example, rainfall intensities are expected to rise by average 45%  
513 and 47% for 2-y return period, while percentages are 30% and 38% for 100-y return period,  
514 for RCP4.5 and RCP8.5, respectively.

515 3. There is no definite trend for increase in rainfall intensities in terms of durations, however  
516 24-h rainfall intensities are expected to increase at a greater rate when compared to other  
517 durations for each RCP scenarios.

518 4. Minimum average percentage increase for RCP4.5 is 30% (in 100-y return period) and  
519 maximum one is 44% (in 2-y). The values are 38% (in 100-y) and 47% (in 2-y) for RCP8.5  
520 compared to historical rainfall intensities.

521 5. Rate of increase in terms of total value of rainfall intensities under RCP4.5 is 36.5%, and  
522 under RCP8.5 is 42.3%. This result shows that rainfall intensities will be higher under  
523 RCP8.5 scenarios compared to RCP4.5.

524 6. For RCP4.5, the observed highest increase in terms of value of a specific rainfall intensity  
525 is 79.7% for Canta station for the duration of 24-h and a return period of 2-y. For RCP8.5, the  
526 highest increase is %74 for Omerli station for the duration of 1-h and return period of 2-y.

527 7. Most rainfall intensities increase for each duration and return period. However, rainfall  
528 intensities are decreasing in Olimpiyat station more than other stations for both RCPs.

529 8. Some rainfall intensities tend to decrease in the future. The highest decrease is -25% for  
530 RCP4.5 (Olimpiyat station for the duration of 2-h and a return period of 100-y). For RCP8.5,  
531 the highest decrease is -17% for Sariyer station for the duration of 5-min and return period of  
532 2-year.

533 Briefly, the second analysis concludes that rainfall will be intensified in the future for both  
534 scenarios compared to historical events. Besides, it is possible to observe higher rainfall  
535 intensities for more frequent events compared to rare events in the coming future.

536

#### 537 **4.2 Which Climate Scenario is More Severe?**

538 In the last analysis, differences between RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios were evaluated. As  
539 mentioned before, rainfall intensities tend to increase predominantly in the future compared  
540 to historical conditions. The results of this analysis are listed as follows:

541 1. While rainfall intensities under RCP4.5 are increasing by an average of 30 to 45 percent in  
542 terms of return periods, they are increasing by an average of 38 to 47 under RCP8.5. It is  
543 clear that RCP8.5 scenarios cause more extreme events with respect to RCP4.5 scenarios.

544 2. RCP8.5 scenarios have a higher rainfall intensity in all stations except Terkos station  
545 compared to RCP4.5. Rainfall intensities are higher by an average of 6.59% under RCP4.5  
546 for Terkos. These results reflect those of (Xin, Zhang, Wu, & Fang, 2013; Pattnayak, Kar,  
547 Dalal, & Pattnayak, 2017; Camilo et al., 2018; Uraba, Gunawardhana, Al-Rawas, & Baawain,  
548 2019; Vanli, Ustundag, Ahmad, Hernandez-Ochoa, & Hoogenboom, 2019) who also

549 concluded that RCP4.5 scenarios can have higher rainfall intensities for specific stations and  
550 seasons. The highest increase of rainfall intensities under RCP8.5 is 14.51% (for Olimpiyat  
551 station) compared to RCP4.5.

552 3. In total of all stations, RCP8.5 scenarios have 2.67% more rainfall intensities. Estimating  
553 higher rainfall intensities for RCP8.5 scenarios compared to RCP4.5 is expected according to  
554 the IPCC (2014). Rainfall intensities are increasing more for all return periods and durations  
555 under RCP8.5 more than that in RCP4.5 and this supports previous findings in the literature  
556 (Wang & Chen, 2014; Singh et al., 2016; Nilawar & Waikar, 2019). Rainfall intensities are  
557 increasing more for higher durations under RCP8.5, but increasing trend is almost same for  
558 all return periods. Rainfall intensities are increasing under RCP8.5 compared to RCP4.5 for  
559 all return periods, however the 100-y return period has the highest increase rate (2.84%).  
560 Briefly, RCP8.5 scenarios will give more extreme and destructive results in the future for  
561 most of the stations. When all stations are considered together, RCP8.5 scenarios have higher  
562 rainfall intensities for all return periods and durations.

563

564

## 565 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

566 The most serious cause of urban floods are short-duration heavy rainfall events. Therefore,  
567 the generation of IDF curves under all climate conditions requires the implication of short-  
568 duration rainfalls (from 5-min to 30-min). Besides, most of the current applications of IDF  
569 curves are stationary based, in other words, only historical rainfall events are evaluated to  
570 show possible upcoming events rather than considering climate change in the future.

571 Therefore, generating updated IDF curves includes short-duration rainfalls considering both  
572 historical and future climate conditions was necessary. This study was performed to achieve  
573 the goal of generating updated IDF. Eight meteorological stations from Istanbul city were  
574 selected as study areas. RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 were preferred to obtain RCMs to represent  
575 future daily rainfall data. With a new approach to existing HMETOS method, future daily  
576 rainfalls were disaggregated by applying parameters of historical data for future rainfalls to  
577 be coherent with historical rainfall patterns. The study revealed that there is a close  
578 relationship between observed and disaggregated IDF curves. Therefore, the selected  
579 disaggregation method was applied to all data sets.

580 The results conclude that rainfall will be intensified in the future for both scenarios compared  
581 to historical events. Besides, it is possible to observe higher rainfall intensities for more  
582 frequent events compared to rare events in the coming future. RCP8.5 scenarios will give

583 more extreme and destructive results in the future for all stations except Terkos. When all  
584 stations are evaluated as a whole, RCP8.5 scenarios have higher rainfall intensities compared  
585 to RCP4.5 for all return periods and durations.

586 The findings of this study support the idea that extreme events such as heavy rainfall will  
587 increase under climate change impacts in the future. On the other hand, the study revealed  
588 that selected disaggregation method HYETOS is a successful and reliable tool and it can be  
589 applied in hydrology studies.

590 This study once again demonstrated the need to use an updated IDF curve, which is generated  
591 under future climate conditions, for hydrology, hydraulic and other water related applications.  
592 Each RCM has its own characteristics and hence, future rainfall intensities can vary for each  
593 of them. Likewise, different disaggregation methods can simulate sub-hourly rainfall data in  
594 different ways. Therefore, future studies can be performed for more stations to enrich the  
595 awareness of climate change by evaluating more RCMs, disaggregation methods and  
596 distribution functions.

597

598

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604

605

#### 606 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

607 The data that support the findings of this study are openly available at  
608 <https://globalweather.tamu.edu> , <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/esgf-llnl/> and after payment  
609 at <https://mevbis.mgm.gov.tr/mevbis/ui/index.html#/Login>

610

611

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751 **TABLES**752 **Table 1: Percentage differences between observed and disaggregated IDF curves for**  
753 **each duration and return period for Florya station.**

Durations	Return Periods (Years)					
	2 y	5 y	10 y	25 y	50 y	100 y
5 min	1.17	2.44	1.67	-0.27	-1.97	-3.88
10 min	-0.94	1.91	3.03	3.59	3.72	3.60
15 min	-0.64	2.05	2.74	2.88	2.59	2.13
30 min	-2.08	1.14	3.01	5.05	6.36	7.56
1 h	-1.58	0.84	2.55	4.59	6.06	7.51
2 h	-1.96	-0.32	1.38	3.68	5.46	7.27
3 h	-3.35	-2.13	0.39	4.37	7.69	11.28
4 h	-3.20	-1.53	0.87	4.39	7.20	10.19
5 h	-3.88	-2.46	0.34	4.71	8.32	12.22
6 h	-4.19	-3.47	-0.52	4.56	9.04	13.93
8 h	-4.38	-4.37	-1.57	3.47	8.03	13.06
12 h	-4.80	-6.01	-3.11	2.72	8.21	14.52
18 h	-5.20	-7.81	-4.90	1.64	8.08	15.68
24 h	-4.99	-6.72	-3.98	1.94	7.68	14.41

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769 **Table 2: Percentage differences between observed and disaggregated IDF curves for**  
770 **each duration and return period for Goztepe station.**

Durations	Return Periods (Years)					
	2 y	5 y	10 y	25 y	50 y	100 y
5 min	0.80	4.60	5.21	4.75	3.82	2.69
10 min	0.94	4.16	4.68	4.22	3.41	2.33
15 min	0.22	2.77	3.70	4.33	4.53	4.56
30 min	1.09	4.04	4.19	3.09	1.70	0.11
1 h	-1.82	-0.34	2.06	5.64	8.57	11.70
2 h	-0.53	0.22	1.58	3.63	5.28	7.03
3 h	-0.80	0.36	2.03	4.42	6.35	8.36
4 h	-0.75	0.00	1.55	3.91	5.83	7.85
5 h	-0.55	0.36	1.84	4.01	5.75	7.54
6 h	-0.21	1.00	2.29	3.99	5.24	6.46
8 h	-1.34	-0.30	1.62	4.66	7.15	9.89
12 h	-0.36	0.38	1.57	3.37	4.84	6.48
18 h	-0.09	0.43	1.24	2.50	3.56	4.78
24 h	0.01	0.92	1.06	1.00	0.91	0.82

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786 **Table 3: Percentage differences between observed and disaggregated IDF curves for**  
787 **each duration and return period for Sariyer station.**

Durations	Return Periods (Years)					
	2 y	5 y	10 y	25 y	50 y	100 y
5 min	-0.18	1.48	1.42	0.85	0.19	-0.61
10 min	-0.92	1.46	2.24	2.65	2.69	2.64
15 min	-0.83	1.57	2.41	2.93	3.08	3.09
30 min	-1.70	2.48	4.33	5.81	6.51	6.91
1 h	-3.30	0.20	2.97	6.43	8.91	11.26
2 h	-1.56	0.98	2.97	5.52	7.40	9.26
3 h	-1.47	0.74	2.57	4.95	6.76	8.58
4 h	-1.47	0.68	2.69	5.42	7.56	9.79
5 h	-2.14	-0.16	2.32	5.98	8.92	12.09
6 h	-2.15	0.00	2.64	6.49	9.61	12.95
8 h	-1.50	-0.12	1.90	5.00	7.55	10.32
12 h	0.72	1.68	2.38	3.24	3.92	4.64
18 h	2.11	2.53	2.44	2.13	1.85	1.56
24 h	-5.08	-4.64	-2.75	0.53	3.49	6.78

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803 **Table 4: Average percentage increase of RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 IDF values compared to**  
 804 **historical IDF values in terms of return period.**

Scenarios	Return Period (Years)					
	2	5	10	25	50	100
RCP4.5	44.87	39.96	37.29	34.34	32.33	30.39
RCP8.5	47.18	44.66	43.06	41.09	39.64	38.15

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832 **Table 5: Total average percentage increase in IDF values under RCP8.5 compared to**  
833 **RCP4.5 for each station.**

Olimpiyat	Sariyer	Sile	Goztepe	Florya	Terkos
14.51	3.025	2.49	2.48	0.11	-6.59

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863 **Table 6: Total average change in IDF values under RCP8.5 compared to RCP4.5 in**  
 864 **terms of return periods.**

Return Period (Year)	2	5	10	25	50	100
Average Change (%)	2.60	2.51	2.59	2.70	2.78	2.84

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867 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

868 **Figure 1: Location of Istanbul city.**

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870 **Figure 2: Eight meteorological stations selected as study areas.**

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872 **Figure 3: Used data types including historical 1-minute and hourly rainfalls (mm) from**  
 873 **the Turkish State Meteorological Service (TSMS), historical simulated daily rainfall**  
 874 **from the Regional Climate Model (RCM), historical daily rainfall from the Climate**  
 875 **Forecast System Reanalysis, future daily rainfalls generated under Representative**  
 876 **Concentration Pathways (RCP) 4.5 and 8.5 scenarios from the RCM, and historical IDF**  
 877 **curves generated with observed rainfalls from the TSMS.**

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879 **Figure 4: Framework of bias-correction process developed by Rathjens et al. (2016).**

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881 **Figure 5: Plottings of IDF curves generated with observed and disaggregated rainfalls**  
 882 **for Sariyer, Florya, and Goztepe stations to show the performance of the disaggregation**  
 883 **model.**

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885 **Figure 6: RCP4.5 and RCP 8.5 future IDF curve trends compared to historical IDF**  
 886 **curves for stations Olimpiyat, Goztepe and Florya stations.**

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888 **Figure 7: RCP4.5 and RCP 8.5 future IDF curve trends compared to historical IDF**  
 889 **curves for stations Terkos, Sile, and Sariyer stations.**

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891 **Figure 8: Comparison of IDF curve trends under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios for**  
 892 **stations Sile, Terkos, Olimpiyat, Sariyer, Florya, and Goztepe stations.**

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