

# REGIONAL FREQUENCY ANALYSIS FOR EXTREME RAINFALL IN SICILY

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## 1. Introduction

Reliability of hydraulic and hydro-geological risk evaluations in a fixed region mostly depends on the knowledge of intensity-duration-frequency relationship (IDF) of extreme rainfall events.

In fact, in order to evaluate peak flood events in ungaged sites and considering the short sample size of extreme flood events temporal series, it is often preferred to recur to pluviometric determinations and use indirect rainfall-runoff models.

From a statistical point of view, the actual necessity to evaluate a return period higher than the sample size showed the inadequacy of inferential statistical techniques. These techniques are inappropriate to determinate correctly the distribution right tail, leading to modern regionalization techniques.

The spatial-temporal stationarity hypothesis within statistically homogeneous wide areas, adopted by such techniques, allows the information transfer from space to time. The latter solution allows high sample size, ensuring the moments and the reliable probability distribution estimations. The many and diversified regionalization techniques proposed in the last years may nevertheless conduct to very different results, according to different modalities and approaches adopted in their implementation.

The "index flood"<sup>1</sup> method is the regional technique widely used in Italy thanks to the commitment of the Italian National Research Group for the Prevention of Hydro-Geological Disaster (GNDCI), belong-

ing to CNR [5, 6, 7]. This group has developed a special operative programme for the definition of suitable methodologies and uniform procedures to estimate intense rainfall and peak flood in Italian country [5, 6, 7, 23], developing a national research project, called VAPI (VALutazione delle Piene in Italia), based on the use of TCEV (Two-Component Extreme Value distribution) probabilistic model [1, 20]; in Sicily the mentioned study was delivered in 1993 by the GNDCI research unit, supervised by prof. Ignazio Melisenda Giambertoni.

In this manuscript we update the regional study carried out by the Sicilian research unit about short duration extreme rainfall, introducing also the sequent recent regionalization techniques:

- the probabilistic regional model based on L-moments, assuming that the latter statistics are constant in homogeneous regions [11, 12, 13];
- the parametric method MGs, introduced by Maione et al. [2, 16, 17], which considers the spatial variability of the conventional moments higher than the first order.

## 2. Regional models

### 2.1 TCEV model

This model can be classified as an "index flood" method, whose main assumption is that the hydrologic variable  $X$ , within a statistically homogeneous region, has the same frequency distribution  $F(x=X/I)$ , apart from a scale factor  $I(X)$ , called index flood.  $I(X)$  is usually the at-site mean of the probability distribution, though any location parameter of the distribution may be used.

In a homogeneous region, the variable  $X(T)$ , for a fixed return period  $T$ , is estimated as the product between the index flood and the dimensionless quantile

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<sup>1</sup> The term "index flood" comes from early method applications to flood data in hydrology, but the procedure can be used with other kind of data, such as extreme rainfall.

$x(T)$  of the regional frequency distribution  $F(x)$ :

$$X(T)=I(X) x(T) \quad (1)$$

The function  $x(T)$  is called ‘‘growth curve’’.

The regional model based on TCEV (two-component extreme value) distribution is valid under the hypothesis of stationarity and spatial-temporal independence of the observations [23].

The TCEV distribution explains the population of annual maximum value as originating from two different populations, the first one caused by ordinary events and the second one caused by extreme events [5, 19, 23]. The TCEV expression is:

$$F(X) = \exp[-\lambda_1 \exp(-X/\vartheta_1) - \lambda_2 \exp(-X/\vartheta_2)] \quad (2)$$

where the parameters  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  are the mean number of annual events respectively of the ordinary component and the outlying one (shape parameters, with  $\lambda_1 \gg \lambda_2$ ) and  $\vartheta_1, \vartheta_2$  are scale parameters, respectively of the ordinary component events and the extraordinary one ( $\vartheta_2 \gg \vartheta_1$ ) [20].

The distribution probability  $F(x)$  of the variable  $x=X/I$ , is:

$$F(x) = \exp[-\lambda_1 (\exp(\frac{x}{\vartheta_1}))^{-x} - \Lambda^* \lambda_1^{1/\Theta^*} \exp((\frac{x}{\Theta^* \vartheta_1}))^{-x}] \quad (3)$$

where the shape parameter  $\Theta^* = \vartheta_2/\vartheta_1$  and the scale parameter  $\Lambda^* = \lambda_2/\lambda_1^{1/\Theta^*}$  depend only on the distribution coefficient of skewness  $\gamma$  [5, 19, 23].

A hierarchical procedure of the regional parameters estimation, based on three successive levels, derives from the further observation that the coefficient of variation CV of the TCEV distribution depends on the parameters  $\Lambda^*, \Theta^* e \lambda_1$  [23].

The first level of regionalization implies the research of regions with  $\gamma$  constant, which involves  $\Lambda^*$  and  $\Theta^*$  (estimated by the maximum likelihood method) constant, in the same region.

The second level of regionalization requires the research of sub-regions with CV constant, which involves  $\lambda_1$  constant in addition to  $\Lambda^*$  and  $\Theta^*$  constant.

The third level of regionalization consists in the definition of empirical relations able to estimate the index value.

## 2.2 LM model

Among the index flood methods recently introduced, we find the regional probabilistic model based on the use of the linear moments, called L-Moments (afterwards called LM).

Representing an evolution of the probability weighed moments introduced by Greenwood et al. [10], LM are estimated as linear function of the data respect to conventional moments, which are expressed by the elevation to power of the data. This implies that:

- LM are less sensitive than conventional moments to the presence of outliers in a sample [13, 24];

- LM estimators are unbiased for all sample sizes and all distributions, also in the case of highly skewed distributions, against conventional moments [24].

Besides LM, respect to conventional moments, allow a more robust estimation of frequency distribution parameters, especially for small samples [13, 24] and a more efficient statistical parameter estimation than the maximum likelihood method [13]. In particular the latter method, applied to small samples, loses in accuracy [3, 13].

Vogel [24] showed that the use of the LM is preferable in the case of highly skewed distributions if the probability distribution identification of a data sample is made by graphic comparison between the moments empiric values and the moments theoretical distribution.

The first four L-moments are [13]:

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_1 &= E[X_{1j}] \\ \lambda_2 &= \frac{1}{2} E[X_{22} - X_{12}] \\ \lambda_3 &= \frac{1}{3} E[X_{33} - 2X_{23} + X_{13}] \\ \lambda_4 &= \frac{1}{4} E[X_{44} - 3X_{34} + 3X_{24} - X_{14}] \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where  $E$  is the expected value and  $X_{i,j}$  is the variable value, growing ordered, of the sub-sample with size  $j$  drawn by the sample considered.

Analogously to traditional moments,  $\lambda_1$  is a location measure of the distribution and coincides with the sample mean,  $\lambda_2$  is a scale measure of the distribution and is always greater than, or equal to, zero [13].

The L-moments ratio are dimensionless quantities and are defined as follows [13]:

$$\tau = \lambda_2/\lambda_1, \text{ called L-CV} \quad (5')$$

$$\tau_r = \lambda_r/\lambda_2, \text{ where } r = 3, 4, \dots \quad (5'')$$

where  $\tau$  (L-CV),  $\tau_3$  (L-skewness) e  $\tau_4$  (L-kurtosis) are respectively measures of variation, skewness and kurtosis. For samples with positive values it turns out:  $0 \leq \tau < 1$  e  $|\tau_r| < 1$  for  $r \geq 3$ .

Hosking e Wallis [11, 12, 13] developed a regionalization procedure based on LM ratio, articulated in four steps:

1. Screening of the data using discordancy measure test;
2. Identification and test of homogeneous regions;
3. Choice of a regional frequency distribution;
4. Parameters estimation of the regional frequency distribution.

The first step consists in an inspection of the data, towards the aim to identify errors, inconsistencies, trends and outliers, through the statistic  $D$ , that identifies sites grossly discordant with the group as a whole.

Hosking et al. [13] qualify the site as potentially discordant if the  $D$  value, calculated for every historical series in a fixed region, is greater than a critical value estimated by the authors at significance level

equal to 10% (discordancy measure D is however significant only for regions with at least seven sites). For regions with at least 15 sites, a site is considered discordant if  $D \geq 3$ .

The second step consists in grouping sites towards the aim to identify a region with the support of classification techniques or multivariate statistical procedure (as cluster analysis) based on geographic, physical and climatic station characteristics. To investigate the regional homogeneity, Hosking proposed to evaluate the heterogeneity measure  $H_1$ , defined as [13]:

$$H_1 = \frac{V_1 - \mu_V}{\sigma_V} \quad (6)$$

where  $V_1$  is the weighted standard deviation of the at-site sample L-CV:

$$V_1 = \left[ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N n_i (\tau^i - \tau^R)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N n_i} \right]^{1/2} \quad (7)$$

and  $\mu_V$  and  $\sigma_V$  are respectively average and standard deviation of  $V_1$ , computed by simulating 500 homogeneous regions. These generated regions contain sites with the same record lengths of the region studied and the kappa distribution as parent distribution.

Hosking and Wallis declare a region “acceptably homogeneous” if  $H_1 < 1$ , “possibly heterogeneous” if  $1 \leq H_1 < 2$  and “definitely heterogeneous” if  $H_1 \geq 2$ .

However the authors underline that a moderated heterogeneity ( $1 \leq H_1 < 2$ ) yields a quantile estimation much more accurate than the at-site estimation; moreover they recommend  $H=2$  “as the point at which re-defining ... omissis ... the region is very likely to be beneficial” [13].

Furthermore Hosking, analogously to  $H_1$ , defines two other statistics for testing homogeneous regions:  $H_2$  and  $H_3$ . The first one is based on L-CV and L-skewness and the last one on L-skewness and L-kurtosis.

In particular, the use of  $H_3$  is suggested in hierarchical procedure of regionalization [13].

The third step consists in the choice of an appropriate frequency distribution for a homogeneous regions previously identified. Towards this aim, Hosking and Wallis define the statistic test Z, which allows to find the frequency distribution fitting among the well-known three parameters distributions:

Generalized Extreme Value (GEV), Generalized Logistic (GLO), Generalized Pareto (GPA), LogNormal III (LN3) and Pearson III (PE3). The distribution is considered as a good fit of the observed data if  $Z \leq 11,64$  [13].

In the last step, the frequency distribution parameters are estimated basing on regional sample L-moments ratio.

Hosking et al. furnished the relations between LM and the mostly common frequency distribution parameters [11, 13].

### 2.3 MGs model

The principal hypothesis of index flood method is the invariance of the moment greater than the first order of the normalized variable, within a region considered statistically homogeneous.

Maione et al. [2, 16, 17], regarding annual maximum flood series, observe that the coefficients of variation CV and of skewness  $\gamma$  vary within large Italian areas considered homogeneous in TCEV hierarchical procedures. Moreover, the authors detected a link between these two statistics.

The latter remark suggested the use of parametric methods, which take into account the CV spatial variability and indirectly the  $\gamma$  spatial variability by means of the relationship  $\gamma(CV)$ . Maione et al. formulated the two-parameters regional probabilistic model, called MG, depending on both the average,  $\mu$ , and the coefficient of variation, CV:

$$X/\mu = f(T, CV) \quad (8)$$

Following this approach, the model varies in the space according to CV; the X estimation depends on CV and on the scale factor,  $\mu$ .

Towards the aim to further reduce the parameters to be estimated, the same authors proposed the simplified MGs model. The latter is based on the observation that the normalization of the variable X respect to the standard deviation  $\sigma$ , made the corresponding quantile not very sensitive to CV and  $\gamma$  changes. In this case, the quantile  $X/\sigma$  could be expressed as function of the only return period, T:

$$X/\sigma = f(T) \quad (9)$$

As a consequence, the estimation of the variable X depends only on the scale parameter  $\sigma$ . In (9) we find again the index flood expression, with index value  $\sigma$ .

The authors derived the MGs model equation empirically, investigating the annual maximum floods observed in 249 stations placed in all Italy [16, 17].

Assuming that:

- the  $i$ -th value  $Q_{ij}$  of the generic historical series j is independent from the other values in the same series
- and observing that:
- the values  $Q_{ij}/\sigma_j$  (normalized respect to the standard deviation  $\sigma_j$ ) can be drawn from a single population,

the probability distribution P of the variable  $\hat{Q}_j/\sigma_j$ , where  $\hat{Q}_j$  is the historical series maximum value, can be expressed by:

$$P_{\hat{Q}_j/\sigma_j}(q) = P_{Q/\sigma}(q)^{N_{med}} \quad (10)$$

where  $N_{med}$  indicates the historical observation series mean and q is the quantile.

Ordering the sample of  $N_{el}$  values  $\hat{Q}_j/\sigma_j$  ( $N_{el}$  represent the number of historical series) in decreasing order, the quantile value, q and consequently the generic variable,  $Q/\sigma$ , is the one corresponding to the place element,  $N_{theor}$  [2]:

$$N_{theor}(q) = N_{el}[1 - P_{\hat{Q}_j/\sigma_j}(q)] = N_{el}[1 - P_{Q/\sigma}(q)^{N_{med}}] = N_{el}[1 - (1 - 1/T(q))^{N_{med}}] \quad (11)$$

So, known  $N_{el}$  and  $N_{med}$ , for each  $N_{theor}$ , and thus for a fixed  $\hat{Q}_j/\sigma_j$ , it is possible to evaluate the correspondent return period  $T(\hat{Q}_j/\sigma_j)$  by equation (11).

The pairs  $(\ln T, \hat{Q}_j/\sigma_j)$ , representative of Italian rivers maximum flood studied, plotted in a semi-logarithmic diagram, showed, for  $T = 30-800$  years, the following linear relationship [2]:

$$\frac{Q}{\sigma} = c + b \ln T \quad (12)$$

where  $c$  and  $b$  are growth law parameters, valid in the whole Italian peninsula.

### 3. Application to Sicilian rainfall data

#### 3.1 Data

The data used in this work are the rainfall annual maximum series of duration 1, 3, 6, 12 and 24 hours in 235 sites, placed in all Sicily. The observed period is 1928-1998 and every site had record length more than 10, with sample size mean equal to 29.2. The comparison between record length in VAPI study (1928-1981) and the present upgrade, is showed in figure 1.

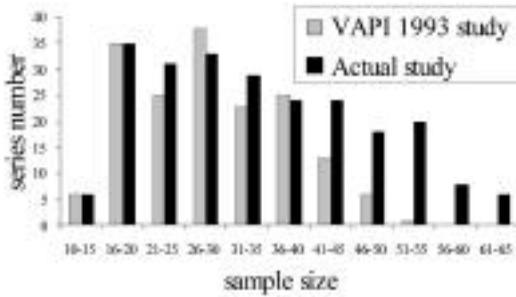


Fig. 1 - Comparison between record length in VAPI study (1928-1981) and the present upgrade (1928-1998).

#### 3.2 TCEV model

Before investigating the first level of regionalization, the third moment order independence (coefficient of skewness  $\gamma$  or L-skewness  $\tau_3$ ) by duration was verified, for sample size  $n \geq 30$ . In figure 2 the  $\gamma$  and  $\tau_3$  substantial invariance by duration  $t$  is showed, where  $\gamma$  and  $\tau_3$  are respectively the means of coefficient of skewness and coefficient of L-skewness, sample size weighted. This observation implies the invariance of  $\Theta^*$  and  $\Lambda^*$  by duration (temporal independence).

At the first level of regionalization, Sicily was hypothesized as a spatial homogeneous region. This hypothesis was verified through the heterogeneity meas-

Parent	Duration t [hours]				
	1	3	6	12	24
Kappa					
H <sub>3</sub> test	0.10	1.07	-0.08	-1.05	0.14

TABLE 1 - H<sub>3</sub> test for duration 1÷24 hours.

ure  $H_3$ , introduced by Hosking [13], for each duration. The results of the latter test (table 1), show the homogeneity of all island in  $\tau_3$  and  $\tau_4$  for all duration, excepting  $t=3$  hours.

The value  $H_3=1.07$  for  $t=3$  hours indicates a potentially heterogeneity. However, in order to obtain a better quantile estimation, Hosking suggests to subdivide a region in sub-regions only if  $H > 2$ . For this reason, the whole Sicily is also considered homogeneous for  $t=3$  hours.

After checking the spatial independence of the third moment order, the values  $\Theta^*$  e  $\Lambda^*$  were estimated for sites with  $n \geq 30$  (record length mean equal to 48) and for all durations with the maximum likelihood method [5]. The resulting parameters are:

$$\Theta^* = 2.399 \text{ and } \Lambda^* = 0.360 \quad (13)$$

At the second level of regionalization the spatial homogeneous sub-region individuation was investigated by observing the  $L-CV_1$  mean spatial-temporal

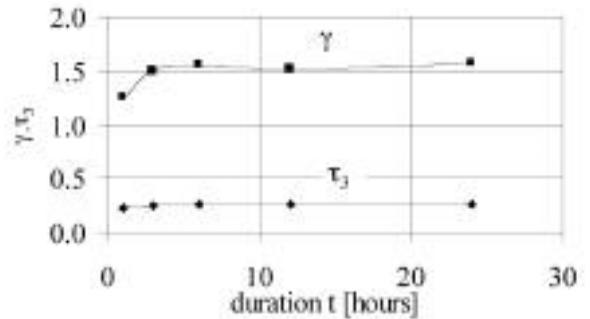


Fig. 2 -  $\gamma$  and  $\tau_3$  empirical means, sample size weighted, for  $t=1 \div 24$  hours and  $n \geq 30$ .

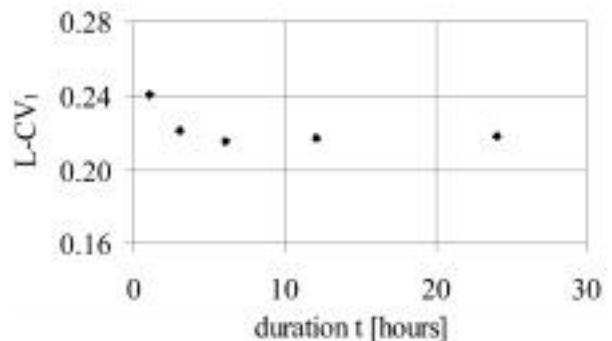


Fig. 3 -  $L-CV_1$  mean, sample size weighted, for  $t=1 \div 24$  hours and  $n \geq 20$ .

invariance, where  $L-CV_1$  is the L-CV of ordinary component. The  $L-CV_1$  value was sample size weighted, for  $n \geq 20$  [9]. Regarding temporal dependence figure 3 suggested a different behavior for  $t=3 \div 24$  hours and for  $t=1$  hour.

This evidence suggested to subdivide the whole sample into two different data sets, one for  $t=1$  hour and another one for  $t=3 \div 24$  hours. For each data set the spatial homogeneous sub-region individuation was detected using the “k-means” method. This classification method, like the one-way analysis of variance, subdivides a set of objects in a fixed number of groups, maximizing the standard deviation between groups rather than inside groups.

Each site was characterized by its own  $L-CV_1$  and U.T.M. coordinates, normalized on its own range.

For both  $t=1$  hour and  $t=3 \div 24$  hours sample, the analysis let to find two sub-regions, not coincident. To validate these classifications the not-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was applied to  $L-CV_1$  samples of the two sub-regions individuated for both  $t=1$  hour and  $t=3 \div 24$  hours.

The test, that verifies the null hypothesis  $H_0$  of identical  $L-CV_1$  distributions against the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  of different  $L-CV_1$  distributions, showed the following results (table 2):

- for  $t=1$  hour the hypothesis  $H_0$  (sample  $L-CV_1$  identical distribution) was accepted (p-value = 0.393), indicating a single sub-region;
- for  $t=3 \div 24$  hours the hypothesis  $H_0$  (sample  $L-CV_1$  identical distribution) was rejected (p-value < 0.001) indicating two different sub-regions (figure 4).

Duration [hours]	p-value	Number of identified sub-regions
1	0.393	1
3, 6, 12, 24	<0.001	2

TABLE 2 - p-value related to Mann-Whitney test.

From this statistic evidence the following homogeneous sub-regions in  $L-CV_1$  were individuated:

- one sub-region coincident with the whole Sicily, for  $t=1$  hour;
- two sub-regions, called sub-region 1 and sub-region 2, for  $t=3 \div 24$  hours (figure 4).

The regional parameter  $\lambda_1$  was calculated by  $L-CV_1$  spatial mean, inverting the following theoretical relationship:

$$L-CV_1 = \frac{0.312}{0.251 + \log \lambda_1} \quad (14)$$

For each duration and sub-region,  $\lambda_1$  results as follows:



Fig. 4 - Sub-regions 1 and 2, homogeneous in  $L-CV_1$ , for  $t=3 \div 24$  hours.

- $t = 1$  hour:  
 $\lambda_1 = 14.65$  (all Sicily)
- $t = 3 \div 24$  hours:  
 $\lambda_1 = 24.57$  (sub-region 1)  
 $\lambda_1 = 18.03$  (sub-region 2)

Now, considering that  $F = \frac{T-1}{T}$ , the growth curve

obtained inverting the equation (3), are:

- $t = 1$  hour:  
 $x(T) = 0.256 + 1.306 \log T \quad (15')$
- $t = 3 \div 24$  hours:  
Sub-region 1:  
 $x(T) = 0.309 + 1.174 \log T \quad (15'')$   
Sub-region 2:  
 $x(T) = 0.278 + 1.250 \log T \quad (15''')$

The equations (15)<sup>2</sup> gives a quantile estimation slightly greater than the last pluviometric Sicilian study [5] for each duration  $t$  (+2 ÷ 10%).

At the third level of regionalization, it was necessary to estimate the index value, that, in this case, was the theoretical TCEV law mean,  $\mu$ . By the substantial equality of empirical average  $m_c$  and  $\mu$ ,  $m_c$  was assumed as the index value.

To calculate  $m_c$  at unengaged sites or at sites with short sample size, under the hypothesis of the well-known pluviometric probability curve validity:

$$m_c = at^n \quad (16)$$

it was sufficient to know the parameters  $a$  and  $n$ . These parameters, estimated for all 235 sites, were

<sup>2</sup> In the applications, for  $1 < t < 3$  hours,  $x(T)$  can be estimated by linear interpolation between  $x(T)$  from eq. (15') and  $x(T)$  from eq. (15'') if the site falls in sub-region 1 and between eq. (15') and eq. (15''') if the site falls in sub-region 2.

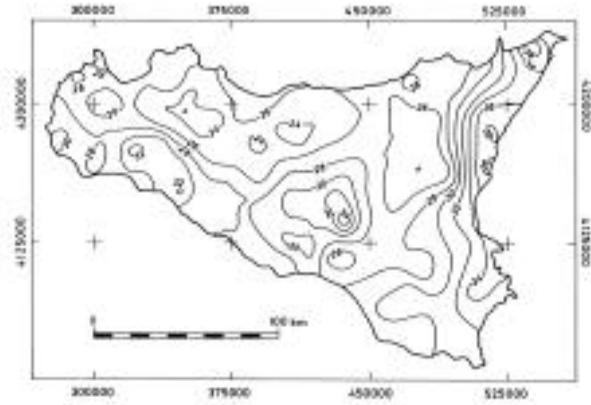


Fig. 5 - Iso-a map (equation (16)).

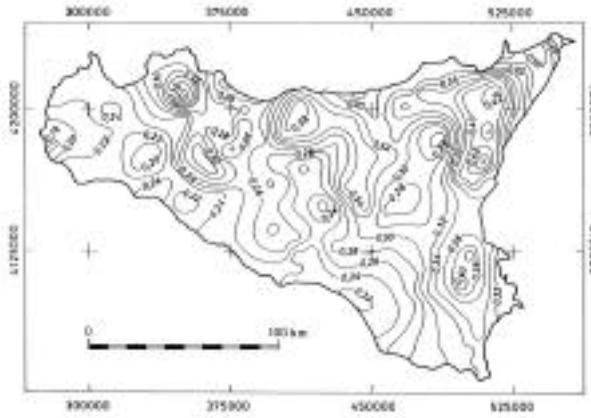


Fig. 6 - Iso-n map (equation (16)).

spatially interpolated through the exponential kriging method. In figure 5 and 6 the iso-a and iso-n curve for Sicily are showed.

The  $m_c$  estimation with iso-a and iso-n maps involves an error. To evaluate this error, the normalized error ( $ne$ ) of  $m_c$  was used:

$$ne(m_c) = (\hat{m}_c - m_c) / m_c \quad (17)$$

where  $\hat{m}_c$  is calculated from the equation (16) with  $a$  and  $n$  obtained by maps in figures 5 and 6 and  $m_c$  is the historical series mean. In table 3, for each  $t$ , mean and standard deviation of  $(ne)m_c$ , valued for 235 sites, are showed. In the same table it is possible to observe that  $\hat{m}_c$  slightly overestimates  $m_c$ .

	Duration t [hours]				
	1	3	6	12	24
$\langle ne(m_c) \rangle$ [%]	2.24	1.37	1.26	1.32	3.33
s.d. [ $ne(m_c)$ ] [%]	13.80	13.41	13.94	14.84	16.03

TABLE 3 - Mean and standard deviation (s.d.) of  $ne(m_c)$ , where  $ne(m_c)$  is the normalized error of  $m_c$  obtained by using iso-a and iso-n maps and for duration  $t=1 \div 24$  hours.

### 3.3 LM model

In order to obtain a good estimation of the L-moments ratio  $\tau_3$  and  $\tau_4$ , the samples with  $n \geq 30$  were considered. As a consequence the sites analyzed were 109 in the whole Sicily, with a sample size mean equal to 41.2.

The discordancy measure identified only 5 samples with  $D \geq 3$  for each duration  $t$ . The analysis of these discordant series showed the presence of outliers in these sites; thus, all stations were considered in the analysis.

In the second step of the procedure, the test  $H_1$  was used to verify the homogeneity of the Sicilian region.

The results of the  $H_1$  statistic, showed in table 4, indicated a region acceptably homogeneous for  $t=1$  hour and possibly heterogeneous for  $t=3 \div 24$  hours.

As already mentioned a moderated heterogeneity ( $1 \leq H_1 < 2$ ) yields a quantile estimation much more accurate than the at-site estimation and only for  $H_1 > 2$  it is convenient to redefine the region studied [13]. For these reasons Sicily was considered a unique homogeneous region for all durations.

Moreover, the value of  $H_1 = -0.30$  for  $t=1$  hour (table 4) indicates a positive correlation between the data values at different sites.

	Duration t [hours]				
	1	3	6	12	24
$H_1$ test	-0.30	1.97	1.91	1.96	1.82

TABLE 4 -  $H_1$  test for duration  $t=1 \div 24$  hours.

The choice of a distribution for the whole Sicily and for each duration was previously made by using the L-moments ratio diagram ( $\tau_3, \tau_4$ ).

Figure 7 shows the pairs  $(\tau_3^R, \tau_4^R)$  for each duration, where  $\tau_3^R$  and  $\tau_4^R$  are respectively the  $\tau_3$  and  $\tau_4$  regional weighted mean of the observed data, and the  $\tau_4(\tau_3)$  of theoretical probability distributions GEV,

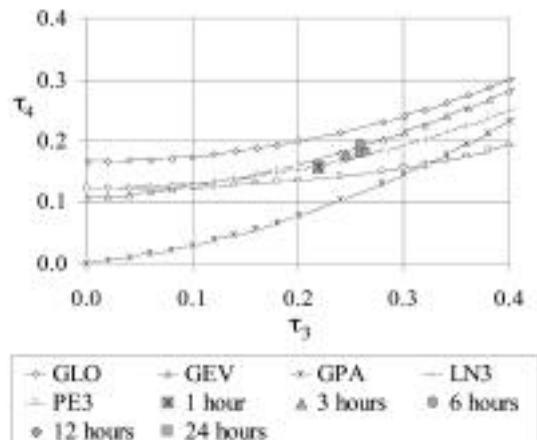


Fig. 7 - L-moments ratio diagram ( $\tau_3, \tau_4$ ).

	Duration t [hours]				
	1	3	6	12	24
GLO	7.13	4.21	3.29	5.35	4.91
GEV	2.03	<b>0.21</b>	<b>-0.63</b>	<b>1.04</b>	<b>1.16</b>
GPA	-9.85	-9.60	-10.28	-9.34	-8.10
LN3	<b>0.43</b>	-1.81	-2.68	<b>-0.85</b>	<b>-0.88</b>
PE3	-2.65	-5.42	-6.30	-4.27	-4.49

TABLE 5 - Z test for GEV, GLO, GPA, LN3 and PE3 distribution, for duration 1÷24 hours.

GLO, GPA, LN3 e PE3. The closeness of the regional pairs ( $\tau_3^R, \tau_4^R$ ) to a given distribution gives a visual indication of the distribution expected to have a good fit of the sample. Looking figure 7, GEV and LN3 distribution are expected to have a good fit of the observed data.

This indication was validated by the test Z [13]. The results, reported in table 5, indicate the acceptance of GEV distribution for  $t=3\div 24$  hours and LN3 for  $t=1, 12, 24$  hours (bold character in table 5), as previously showed in the L-moments ratio diagram ( $\tau_3, \tau_4$ ).

Considering that GEV distribution provided the best fit of the data for  $t=3\div 24$  hours and for  $t=1$  hours the Z value (2.03) was not so far from the critical value 1.64, the GEV law was chosen as the probability distribution for each duration.

The GEV distribution expression is:

$$F(x) = \exp\{-[1 - k(x - \xi)/\alpha]^{1/k}\} \text{ for } k \neq 0 \quad (18)$$

where  $\xi$  is the location parameter,  $\alpha$  is the scale parameter and  $k$  is the shape parameter. For the estimation of the parameters  $\xi, \alpha$  and  $k$  Hosking developed the following approximation [13]:

$$\begin{aligned} k &= 7.8590c + 2.9554c^2 \\ \alpha &= \lambda_1 k / \{\Gamma(1+k)(1-2^{-2})\} \\ \xi &= \lambda_1 - \alpha \{1 - \Gamma(1+k)\} / k \\ c &= \frac{2}{3 + \tau_3} - \frac{\ln 2}{\ln 3} \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

where  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$  and  $\tau_3$  are the weighted regional LM.

The estimated parameters are reported in table 6.

For  $t=1$  hour  $k$  was near to 0, indicating, for this duration, a good fit to the Gumbel distribution.

Parameters	Duration t [hours]				
	1	3	6	12	24
$\epsilon$	0.784	0.780	0.784	0.789	0.774
$\alpha$	0.329	0.303	0.296	0.300	0.306
$k$	-0.076	-0.132	-0.135	-0.114	-0.141

TABLE 6 - GEV distribution parameters for duration 1÷24 hours.

Furthermore it was observed that, except for  $t=1$  hour, the parameters  $\alpha$  and  $k$  were approximately constant. Therefore a unique GEV distribution for  $t=3\div 24$  hours was adopted, with  $\xi, \alpha$  and  $k$  equal to the average of the values  $\xi_i, \alpha_i$  and  $k_i$  for  $i=3, 6, 12, 24$  hours.

The expression of the GEV quantile  $x(F)$  is:

$$x(F) = \xi + \frac{\alpha}{k} \{1 - (-\ln F)^k\} \text{ for } k \neq 0 \quad (20)$$

where  $F = \frac{T-1}{T}$ .

Thus, the growth curves  $x(T)$ , called GEV-LM, are:

- $t = 1$  hour:

$$x(T) = 0.784 - 4.347 \left\{ 1 - \left[ -\ln \left( \frac{T-1}{T} \right) \right]^{-0.076} \right\} \quad (21')$$

- $t = 3\div 24$  hours:

$$x(T) = 0.782 - 2.308 \left\{ 1 - \left[ -\ln \left( \frac{T-1}{T} \right) \right]^{-0.131} \right\} \quad (21'')$$

The estimation of the variable  $X(T)$  can be derived by equation (1), where the growth curve is expressed by (21') or (21''), respectively for  $t=1$  hour and  $t=3\div 24$  hours, and the index flood is the at-site rainfall mean. In ungaged sites the scale factor may be calculated with the equation (16), with  $a$  and  $n$  obtained by the iso- $a$  and iso- $n$  maps (figures 5 and 6).

### 3.4 MGs model

The link between  $\gamma$  and CV empirical series for all durations was observed for Sicily (figure 8), assuming the following expression:

$$\gamma = 4.58CV - 0.82 \quad (22)$$

This observation confirmed the remark of Maione et al. [16, 17], justifying the adoption of their parametric model. The further observations that the values  $X_{Max}/\sigma$ , obtained by normalizing the maximum values of sample series,  $X_{Max}$ , respect to the standard deviation  $\sigma$  of its series, were independent by CV (figure 9), led to the simpler MGs parametric model.

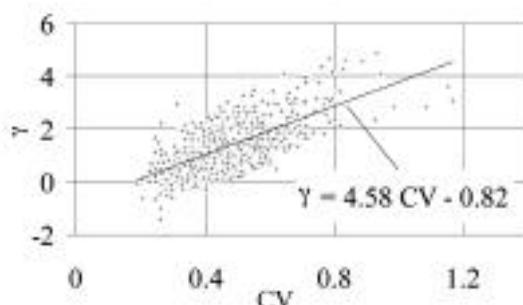


Fig. 8 - Relationship  $\gamma$  (CV) for historical rainfall series of duration  $t=1\div 24$  hours.

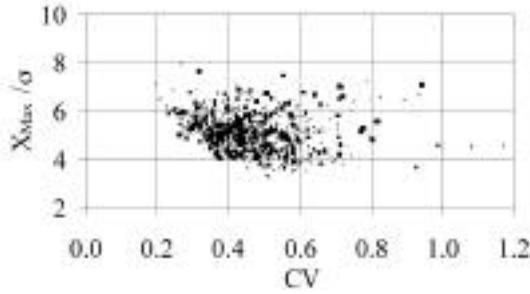


Fig. 9 - Dispersion of pairs (CV,  $X_{max}/\sigma$ ) for duration  $t=1\div 24$  hours.

Following the procedure introduced by Maione et al. [16, 17], (par. 2.3)  $N_{med}$  is 29 and  $N_{el}$  is 235.

For range  $T=30\div 900$  years, the pairs  $(T, X_{Max}/\sigma)$ , with  $T$  derived by (11), plotted in a semi-logarithmic diagram, indicate a good fit to the following linear equation (figures 10):

$$\frac{X}{\sigma} = c + b \ln T \quad (23)$$

where values  $c$  and  $b$  for duration  $t=1\div 24$  hours are reported in table 7. It was possible to observe that the parameters  $c$  and  $b$  are substantially constant for  $t=1\div 12$  hours range. Therefore, the constant values  $c=3.23$  and  $b=0.509$  were assumed for  $t=1\div 12$  hours, while it was maintained  $c=2.80$  and  $b=0.614$  for  $t=24$  hours<sup>3</sup>.

So the quantile function became, respectively:

for  $t=1\div 12$  hours

$$\frac{X_{t,T}}{\sigma_t} = 3.235 + 0.509 \ln T \quad (24')$$

for  $t=24$  hours

$$\frac{X_{t,T}}{\sigma_t} = 2.797 + 0.614 \ln T \quad (24'')$$

To verify the hypotheses that support the MGs model, a comparison between the  $X/\sigma$  normalized

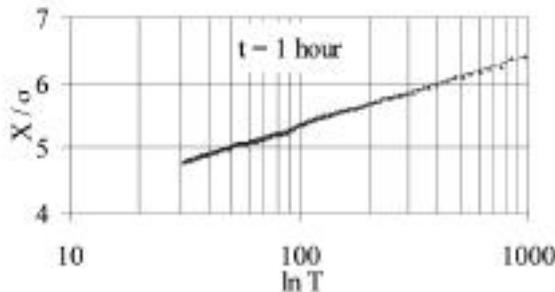


Fig. 10a - Dispersion of pairs  $(T, X/\sigma)$  for duration  $t=1$  hour.

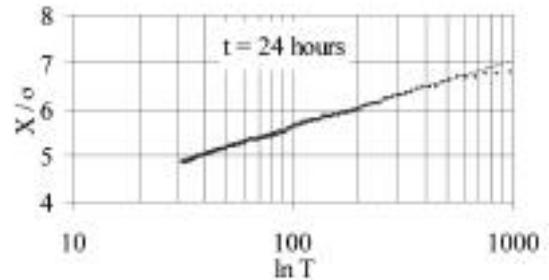


Fig. 10b - Dispersion of pairs  $(T, X/\sigma)$  for duration  $t=24$  hours.

Duration [hours]	c	b
1	3.167	0.472
3	3.237	0.512
6	3.328	0.512
12	3.209	0.538
24	2.797	0.614

TABLE 7 -  $c$  and  $b$  MGs parameters for duration  $t=1\div 24$  hours.

quantile, obtained by GEV (assumed as parent distribution), and the MGs model here derived, was established.

For  $T=200$  years, in figure 13 are reported:

- the pairs  $(X/\sigma, CV)$ , obtained by GEV with parameters computed satisfying the empirical link (10) (GEV points);
- the two MGs laws, expressed by equations (24), that obviously are horizontal straight lines.

Figure 11 shows that, assuming GEV law as parent distribution, the quantile  $X/\sigma$  is independent from CV and, according to equation (22), from  $\gamma$ . In addition, the MGs laws overlap GEV points representing the Sicilian extreme rainfall sample, showing a good fit to Sicilian data.

To estimate  $X_{t,T}$  with equations (24) in a generic site, it was necessary to know or to estimate the at-site  $\sigma_t$  value. To calculate  $\sigma_t$  at un-gauged sites or at sites with short record, it is usual to recur to regression

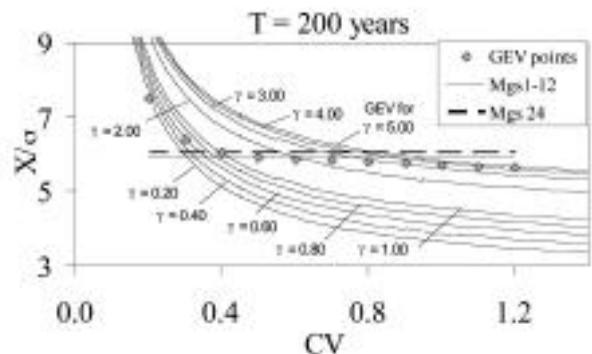


Fig. 11 -  $X/\sigma$  quantile obtained by GEV (GEV points) and MGs model quantile for  $t=1\div 12$  hours and  $t=24$  hours.

<sup>3</sup> In the applications, for  $12 < t < 24$  hours,  $x(T)$  can be estimated by linear interpolation between  $x(T)$  from eq. (24') and  $x(T)$  from eq. (24'').

analysis using measurable parameters such as altitude, longitude, latitude, distance of the site from the sea and so on. Cause weak links found between  $\sigma_t$  and geographic variables, we chose to interpolate the empirical value,  $\hat{\sigma}_t$ , obtained in the 235 sites studied, with exponential kriging technique and for all Sicily.

In figures 12 the five maps of iso- $\sigma$  for  $t=1, 3, 6, 12$  and 24 hours are shown.

The  $\sigma_t$  estimation through iso- $\sigma$  maps involves an error, evaluated in normalized form as:

$$ne(\sigma_t) = (\hat{\sigma}_t - \sigma_t) / \hat{\sigma}_t \quad (25)$$

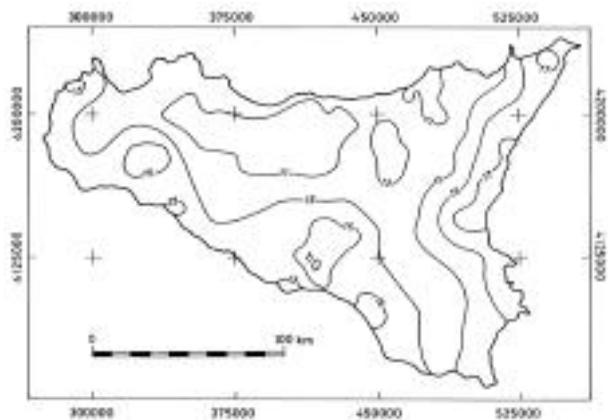


Fig. 12a - Iso- $\sigma$  map for  $t=1$  hour.

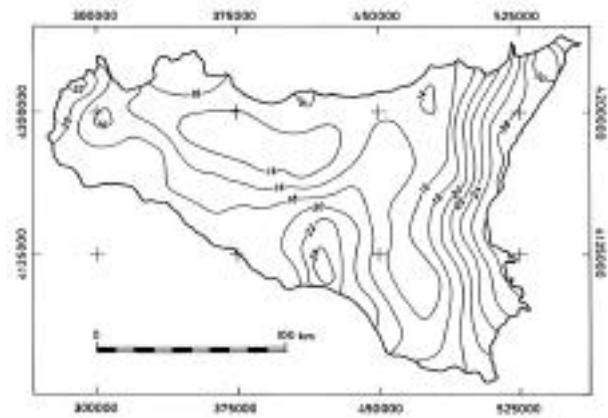


Fig. 12b - Iso- $\sigma$  map for  $t=3$  hours.

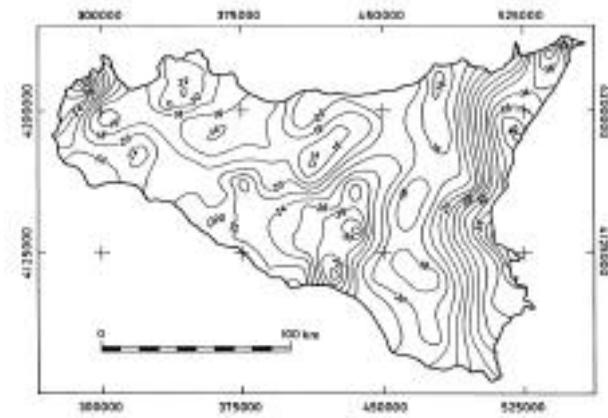


Fig. 12c - Iso- $\sigma$  map for  $t=6$  hours.

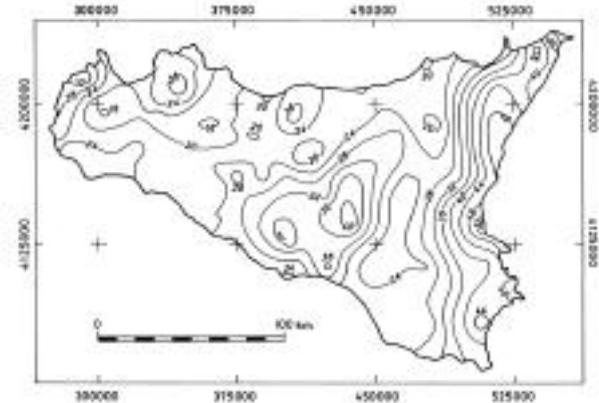


Fig. 12d - Iso- $\sigma$  map for  $t=12$  hours.

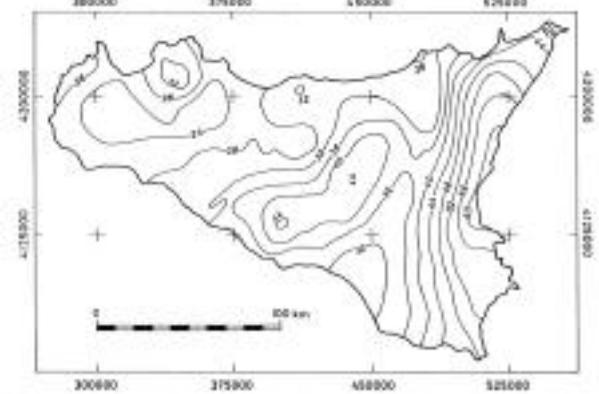


Fig. 12e - Iso- $\sigma$  map for  $t=24$  hours.

where  $ne$  is the normalized error of  $\sigma_t$ ,  $\hat{\sigma}_t$  is the standard deviation obtained by iso- $\sigma$  maps and  $\sigma_t$  is the historical series standard deviation.

In table 8, for each  $t$ , mean and standard deviation of  $ne(\sigma_t)$ , evaluated for the 235 sites, are showed. Results show that  $\hat{\sigma}_t$  slightly overestimates  $\sigma_t$  (5÷11 %).

Comparison between tables 3 and 8 shows that mean and standard deviation of  $ne(\sigma_t)$  are greater than mean and standard deviation of  $ne(m_c)$ . In other words, this comparison shows that the estimation of  $m_c$  by iso-a and iso-n maps is better than the estimation of  $\sigma$  by iso- $\sigma$  maps. This evidence has an important effect on extreme rainfall estimation by regional models based on this two different index values.

	Duration $t$ [hours]				
	1	3	6	12	24
$\langle ne(\sigma_t) \rangle$ [%]	5.71	8.04	9.49	10.04	11.04
s.d. [ $ne(\sigma_t)$ ] [%]	27.18	30.70	34.26	35.11	35.27

TABLE 8 - Mean and standard deviation (s.d.) of  $ne(\sigma_t)$  where  $ne(\sigma_t)$  is the normalized error of  $\sigma_t$ , obtained by using iso- $\sigma$  maps and for duration  $t=1 \div 24$  hours.

Coming back to figures 12, it was observed that the spatial distribution of  $\sigma$  shows the same behavior for every  $t$ : high and growing value in the oriental coast of Sicily and in a center-southern limited area. This fact suggested a scale behavior, expressed as follows:

$$\frac{\sigma_t}{d \cdot t^f} = \sigma_{t^*} \quad (26)$$

where  $t^*$  is the fixed duration and  $d \cdot t^f$  is the scale function, with coefficients  $d$  and  $f$ . After deriving  $t^*=6$  hours as the smaller standard deviation error in the range  $t=1 \div 24$  hours, the parameter values were obtained:  $d=0.61$  and  $f=0.29$ . Therefore, the (26) relationship becomes:

$$\sigma_t = 0.61 t^{0.29} \sigma_6 \quad (27)$$

where  $\sigma_6$  is the standard deviation for  $t=6$  hours.

Thus, it is possible to estimate  $\sigma_t$  by using equation (27) and only the map of  $\sigma_6$ .

To evaluate the estimate error of (27), the following normalized error ( $ne'$ ) of  $\sigma_t$  was used:

$$ne'(\sigma_t) = (\hat{\sigma}_t' - \sigma_t) / \sigma_t \quad (28)$$

where  $\hat{\sigma}_t'$  is obtained by equation (27) and  $\sigma_6$  map.

In table 9, for each  $t$ ,  $ne'(\sigma_t)$  mean and standard deviation, valuated for the 235 sites, are showed. The same table shows that  $\hat{\sigma}_t'$  overestimates  $\sigma_t$  on average by 10%.

	Duration $t$ [hours]				
	1	3	6	12	24
$\langle ne'(\sigma_t) \rangle$ [%]	10.73	10.56	9.49	12.40	11.69
s.d. [ $ne'(\sigma_t)$ ] [%]	32.32	31.89	34.26	38.11	39.59

TABLE 9 - Mean and standard deviation (s.d.) of  $ne'(\sigma_t)$ , where  $ne'(\sigma_t)$  is the normalized error of  $\sigma_t$ , obtained by using iso- $\sigma_6$  map for  $t=6$  hours and equation (27).

#### 4. Regional models comparison

In order to establish the best predictive regional model, the TCEV, GEV-LM and MGs regional estimations were compared with the at-site estimation, for the stations with record length  $n \geq 45$ . The return period  $T$  was chosen equal to 200 years<sup>4</sup> and the local estimate was computed by GEV and Gumbel distribution with parameters obtained by weighted moment method [16, 17].

The comparison was carried out examining, for the regional models, the index value estimation in the two following cases:

- Case 1: Index value estimated by historical series;
- Case 2: Index value estimated by regional interpolated maps.

The first case explains the regional distribution performance and the second one indicates the regional model performance taking into account the index value estimation error.

The regional models performance is described by average ( $\mu_{ne}$ ), standard deviation ( $\sigma_{ne}$ ), maximum positive ( $\max_{ne}$ ) and maximum negative ( $\max_{ne}$ ) of normalized error:

$$\frac{X_{reg} - X_{loc}}{X_{loc}} \quad (29)$$

where  $X_{reg}$  is the precipitation obtained by regional models and  $X_{loc}$  is the precipitation obtained by local models (table 10).

Figures 13 and 14 show average (or bias) and standard deviation histograms of normalized error.

Results show, in Case 1, a lower  $\mu_{ne}$  and  $\sigma_{ne}$  using MGs model than TCEV or GEV model, for each duration.

In Case 2, results show, for  $t=1 \div 12$  hours, a lower  $\mu_{ne}$  using MGs model than TCEV or GEV model, but, for  $t=24$  hours, the three regional models perform analogously. Instead, the  $\sigma_{ne}$  is similar for the three regional models studied, with a little advantage for MGs model for  $t=1 \div 12$  hours.

Comparing Case 1 and Case 2 we can observe that the index value estimation error have an important effect on the extreme rainfall estimation. In fact, changing from Case 1 to Case 2, it is possible to notice that MGs model  $\sigma_{ne}$  grows up approaching the TCEV and GEV model  $\sigma_{ne}$ . As already told, this evidence is explained by the observation that  $\sigma_t$  estimate error is greater than  $m_c$  estimate error.

After all, we suggest the use of MGs model for  $t=1 \div 12$  hours, cause a lower  $\mu_{ne}$  and a little advantage in term of  $\sigma_{ne}$  using the latter model than TCEV or GEV model.

Instead for  $t=24$  hours, the use of MGs, TCEV and GEV regional models gives the same result.

Furthermore, we observe the same behavior for TCEV and GEV-LM models, also detected by Brath in center-northern Italy [4].

#### 5. Conclusions

The present study concerned the regional frequency analysis of extreme rainfall in Sicily. In particular, the TCEV regional model, proposed by Rossi et al. [20] applied in Sicily in the VAPI Project (CNR), was updated. The update allowed:

- to identify a single growth curve for all Sicily, for  $t=1$  hour;
- to identify the growth curves for two sub-regions, for  $t=3 \div 24$  hours.

The regional model based on linear moments [13]

<sup>4</sup> No evident trend was detected in Sicily for annual high intensity rainfall [18].

		GUMBEL (local estimate)						GEV <sub>loc</sub> (local estimate)					
		GEV-LM		TCEV		MGs		GEV-LM		TCEV		MGs	
		CASE1	CASE2	CASE1	CASE2	CASE1	CASE2	CASE1	CASE2	CASE1	CASE2	CASE1	CASE2
1 hour	$\mu_{ne}$ (%)	9	11	22	24	1	2	10	11	22	24	0	2
	$\sigma_{ne}$ (%)	10	15	11	17	5	14	16	21	18	23	5	19
	max $p_{ne}$ (%)	34	48	49	65	15	36	45	60	62	78	11	47
	max $n_{ne}$ (%)	-17	-9	-7	1	-13	-19	-29	-19	-21	-10	-12	-23
3 hours	$\mu_{ne}$ (%)	17	15	17	16	0	2	19	18	19	18	2	4
	$\sigma_{ne}$ (%)	12	18	12	18	6	15	16	20	16	20	6	17
	max $p_{ne}$ (%)	42	66	39	62	15	40	56	71	59	67	15	44
	max $n_{ne}$ (%)	-13	-23	-11	-21	-13	-23	-13	-23	-11	-21	-12	-23
6 hours	$\mu_{ne}$ (%)	15	12	15	12	1	-2	12	8	12	9	-3	-5
	$\sigma_{ne}$ (%)	14	21	14	21	7	17	21	26	21	26	5	19
	max $p_{ne}$ (%)	41	60	44	64	20	38	52	72	55	76	6	48
	max $n_{ne}$ (%)	-21	-32	-23	-34	-13	-42	-32	-42	-34	-43	-14	-50
12 hours	$\mu_{ne}$ (%)	14	9	14	10	1	-3	16	11	16	11	3	-2
	$\sigma_{ne}$ (%)	15	23	14	23	8	21	17	24	16	24	7	21
	max $p_{ne}$ (%)	44	61	41	62	19	45	45	62	48	64	19	53
	max $n_{ne}$ (%)	-19	-30	-21	-31	-14	-43	-19	-30	-21	-31	-14	-43
24 hours	$\mu_{ne}$ (%)	10	6	10	6	6	-3	7	3	7	3	1	-6
	$\sigma_{ne}$ (%)	15	24	14	23	8	24	22	29	21	28	5	27
	max $p_{ne}$ (%)	49	68	46	64	28	47	57	75	54	71	12	46
	max $n_{ne}$ (%)	-31	-34	-29	-33	-15	-43	-44	-46	-43	-45	-11	-52

TABLE 10 - Normalized error statistics of  $(X_{reg}-X_{loc})$ , where  $X_{reg}$  and  $X_{loc}$  are respectively the regional and local estimates, for duration  $t=1\div 24$  hours,  $T=200$  years, sites with  $n\geq 45$  and Case 1 and Case 2.

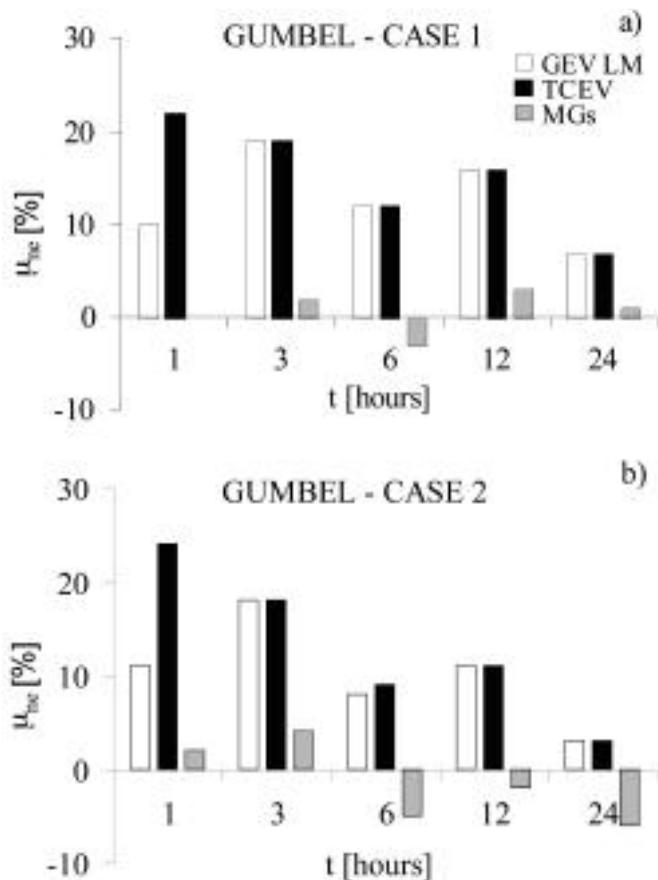


Fig. 13 - Comparison in term of  $\mu_{ne}$  between regional models (GEV-LM, TCEV, MGs) and GEV local model for Case 1 (figure 13a) and Case 2 (figure 13b) and for  $t=1\div 24$  hours.

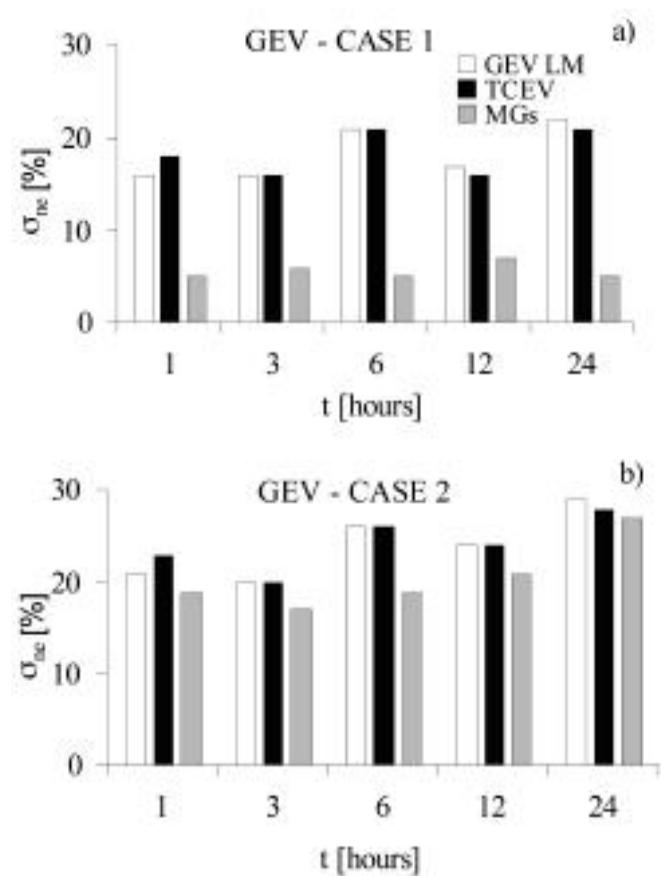


Fig. 14 - Comparison in term of  $\sigma_{ne}$  between regional models (GEV-LM, TCEV, MGs) and GEV local model for Case 1 (figure 14a) and Case 2 (figure 14b) and for  $t=1\div 24$  hours.

allowed the identification of the GEV as the regional probability distribution and the individuation of two growth curves valid in all Sicily dependent on duration  $t$ : one for  $t=1$  hour and another one for  $t=3\div 24$  hours.

The adoption of the regional parametric model introduced by Maione et al. [16, 17] allowed to identify a growth curve for  $t=1\div 12$  hours and another one for  $t=24$  hours, valid in all Sicily.

At gauged sites the index value (mean of the pluviometric variable for TCEV and GEV regional model and standard deviation of the pluviometric variable for MGs model) can be estimated by historical series, while, in ungauged site, the index term can be evaluated by using interpolated maps.

The three model regional estimations were compared with the at-site estimation, computed by GEV and Gumbel distribution, for the stations with record length  $n \geq 45$  and return period  $T = 200$  years.

The comparison was carried out taking into consideration, for the regional models, the index value estimation in the two following cases:

- Case 1: Index value estimated by historical series;
- Case 2: Index value estimated by regional maps.

The results indicate that, in Case 1, the MGs regional model performs better than the other two regional models for each duration  $t$  but, in Case 2, the performance of MGs model is slightly better than the other regional models studied only for  $t=1\div 12$  hours.

Furthermore, we observe the same behavior for TCEV and GEV-LM models, also detected by Brath in center-northern Italy [4].

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## SUMMARY

The study regarded the regional frequency analysis of extreme rainfall in Sicily, using rainfall annual maximum series of duration 1, 3, 6, 12 and 24 hours in 235 sites, stationed in all Sicily and for the period 1928-1998.

The applied regional models, after the appropriate verifications, were: the TCEV hierarchical model (Rossi et al.), the model based on the use of the linear moments LM (Hosking et al.) and the MGs parametric model (Maione et al.).

For unengaged sites, as in a flood index approach, the index value of each model was evaluated through maps derived from spatial interpolation.

The three models regional estimations were compared with the at-site estimation, computed by GEV and Gumbel distribution, for the stations with record length  $n \geq 45$  and return period  $T = 200$  years.

The comparison was carried out taking into consideration, for the regional models, the index value estimation in the two following cases:

- Case 1: Index value estimated by historical series;
- Case 2: Index value estimated by interpolated maps.

The results indicate that, in Case 1, the MGs regional model performs better than the other two regional models for each duration  $t$  but, in Case 2, the performance of MGs model is weakly better than the other regional models studied only for  $t=1 \div 12$  hours.

Furthermore, we observe the same behavior of TCEV and GEV-LM models, also detected by Brath in center-northern Italy [4].

**Key words:** rainfall, regional model, MGs, TCEV, L-moments.

## Appendix

### Example of extreme rainfall calculation

In this appendix it is estimated the extreme rainfall value  $X_{t,T}$  with the three regional models illustrated in this paper in an unengaged site called "P" (U.T.M. coordinates: Lon East = 375.000 m and Lat North = 4.200.000 m,) for durations  $t_1=4.5$  hours and  $t_2=18$  hours and return period  $T=50$  years.

The three regional estimates are compared with the local estimations, computed by using Gumbel distribution, in the nearby Ciminna station (UTM coordinates: Lon East= 373.384 m and Lat North = 4.194.980 m).

### TCEV model

Falling P in sub-region 1 (figure 4) and being  $t \geq 3$ , the growth factor  $x(T)$  is (eq. 15''):

$$\begin{aligned} x(T) &= 0.309 + 1.174 \log T \\ &= 0.309 + 1.174 \log (50) = 2.30 \\ &\text{by maps in figures 5 and 6:} \\ a &= 26 \text{ mm ; } n = 0.28 \end{aligned}$$

$$t_1=4.5 \text{ hours}$$

$$m_c = a t^n = 26 * 4.5^{0.28} = 39.62 \text{ mm}$$

$$X_{t=4.5, T=50} = x(T) * m_c = 2.30 * 39.62 = 91.13 \text{ mm}$$

$$t_2=18 \text{ hours}$$

$$m_c = a t^n = 26 * 18^{0.28} = 58.40 \text{ mm}$$

$$X_{t=18, T=50} = x(T) * m_c = 2.30 * 58.40 = 134.32 \text{ mm}$$

### GEV-LM model

$$t_1=4.5 \text{ hours}$$

Because  $t \geq 3$ , the growth factor  $x(T)$  is (eq. 21''):

$$\begin{aligned} x(T) &= 0.782 - 2.308 \left\{ 1 - \left[ -\ln \left( \frac{T-1}{T} \right) \right]^{-0.131} \right\} = \\ &= 0.782 - 2.308 \left\{ 1 - \left[ -\ln \left( \frac{50-1}{50} \right) \right]^{-0.131} \right\} = 2.32 \end{aligned}$$

$$m_c = a t^n = 26 * 4.5^{0.28} = 39.62 \text{ mm}$$

$$X_{t=4.5, T=50} = x(T) * m_c = 2.32 * 39.62 = 91.92 \text{ mm}$$

$$t_2=18 \text{ hours}$$

$$m_c = a t^n = 26 * 18^{0.28} = 58.40 \text{ mm}$$

$$X_{t=18, T=50} = x(T) * m_c = 2.32 * 58.40 = 135.49 \text{ mm}$$

### MGs model

$$t_1=4.5 \text{ hours}$$

$\sigma_{t=4.5}$  is evaluated by equation (27), where  $\sigma_{t=6}$  is estimated by figure 12c:

$$\sigma_6 = 15 \text{ mm}$$

$$\sigma_{t=4.5} = 0.61 t^{0.29} \sigma_6 = 0.61 * 4.5^{0.29} * 15 = 14.15 \text{ mm}$$

Because  $t \leq 12$ , it is used the equation (24'):

$$\begin{aligned} X_{t=4.5, T=50} &= \sigma_{t=4.5} (3.235 + 0.509 \ln T) = \\ &= 14.15 * (3.235 + 0.509 \ln(50)) = 74.00 \text{ mm} \end{aligned}$$

$$t_2=18 \text{ hours}$$

$\sigma_{t=18}$  is evaluated by equation (27), where  $\sigma_{t=6}$  is estimated by figure 12c:

$$\sigma_6 = 15 \text{ mm}$$

$$\sigma_{t=18} = 0.61 t^{0.29} \sigma_6 = 0.61 * 18^{0.29} * 15 = 21.16 \text{ mm}$$

Because  $12 < t < 24$ ,  $X_{t,T}$  is evaluated by linear interpolation between eq. (24') and eq. (24''):

$$\begin{aligned} X_{t=18, T=50} &= \sigma_{t=18} \left[ \frac{1}{2} (3.235 + 0.509 \ln(50)) + \right. \\ &\left. + \frac{1}{2} (2.797 + 0.614 \ln(50)) \right] = 110.24 \text{ mm} \end{aligned}$$

### Local estimate at Ciminna Station

By Gumbel law application to Ciminna station extreme rainfall data (duration  $t = 1, 3, 6, 12, 24$  hours; record length equal to 48),  $X_{t,T}$  results:

$$X_{t=4.5, T=50} = 72.16 \text{ mm}$$

$$X_{t=18, T=50} = 115.60 \text{ mm}$$

By comparing this local estimation against regional ones it is noticed that MGs model performs better than TCEV or GEV-LM model. Furthermore, TCEV and GEV-LM model perform analogously.

