

1 **Climatic, topographic, and groundwater controls on runoff response**  
2 **to precipitation: evidence from a large-sample data set**

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9 **Abstract.** Understanding the factors that influence catchment runoff response is essential for effective water resource  
10 management. Runoff response to precipitation can vary significantly, depending on the dynamics of hillslope water storage  
11 and release, and on the transmission of hydrological signals through the channel network. Here, we use Ensemble Rainfall-  
12 Runoff Analysis (ERRA) to characterize the runoff response of 244189 Iranian catchments with diverse landscapes and  
13 climates. ERRA quantifies the increase in lagged streamflow attributable to each unit of additional precipitation, while  
14 accounting for nonlinearities in catchment behavior. Peak runoff response, as quantified by ERRA across Iran, is higher in  
15 more humid climates, in steeper and smaller catchments, and in catchments with shallower water tables. The direction and  
16 approximate magnitude of these effects persist after correlations among the drivers (e.g., deeper water tables are more common  
17 in more arid regions) are accounted for. These findings highlight the importance of catchment attributes in shaping runoff  
18 behavior, particularly in arid and semi-arid regions, where climatic variability and groundwater dynamics are crucial factors  
19 in sustainable water resource management and effective flood risk mitigation.

20 **1 Introduction**

21 Runoff generation is influenced by the interaction of different processes which vary according to climate conditions and  
22 catchment properties (Zillgens et al., 2007). Investigating catchment hydrological responses to precipitation events can provide  
23 insights into the governing factors that control streamflow generation (von Freyberg et al., 2018).  
24 Topography plays a significant role in rainfall-runoff responses (Beven and Kirkby, 1979; Hernandez et al., 2003; Zevenbergen  
25 and Thorne, 1987; Inaoka et al., 2020), with larger catchment areas often experiencing overland flow once the land becomes

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56 nonstationary, and heterogeneous systems (Kirchner, 2022). It is a data-driven, nonparametric, and model-independent  
57 approach for quantifying rainfall-runoff relationships across various time lags.

58 Although considerable progress has been made in elucidating the factors that influence runoff response, a comprehensive  
59 understanding of how topographic, climatic, and hydrological variables interact to shape runoff response remains elusive.  
60 ~~While~~While several studies (e.g., Merz et al., 2006; Norbiato et al., 2009; Tarasova et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2023) have  
61 explored the controls of variable runoff response in temperate climates, such investigations are notably absent in arid  
62 environments, underscoring the unique focus of this study in bridging this gap. Although many studies have focused on  
63 individual drivers, the interactions between them and their combined impact on runoff response are still not fully understood.  
64 Specifically, our analysis addresses the following questions: (1) How do topographic, climatic, and groundwater variables,  
65 and their interactions, influence runoff response in catchments, and (2) How do variations in groundwater depth influence  
66 runoff response when accounting for other relevant factors such as slope, or catchment size?

67 In this study, we apply ERRA to analyze how runoff response is influenced by several interacting factors—including  
68 groundwater depth, aridity index, slope, and catchment area—across Iran’s diverse climatic and topographic regions.

69 **2 Methods**

70 **2.1 Study sites**

71 Iran has a diverse climate due to its varied topography and geography. The country’s climate is primarily arid to semi-arid,  
72 with 35.5% of its land classified as hyper-arid, 29.2% as arid, and 20.1% as semi-arid. A further 5% of the country has a  
73 Mediterranean climate, while the remaining areas, located near the Caspian Sea where rainfall is more abundant, are classified  
74 as humid or hyper-humid (Ashraf et al., 2021). The average annual precipitation across Iran is about 240 mm; however, in the  
75 northern provinces near the Caspian Sea, rainfall can exceed 1,800 mm annually (World Bank, n.d.). In contrast, the central  
76 and eastern regions of Iran receive as little as 50 mm of rainfall. Potential evaporation also varies widely, from 500 mm  
77 annually in the northwest to 3,750 mm in the southern desert regions, exceeding rainfall by a factor of 75 on annual averages.  
78 The country’s temperatures also vary dramatically, ranging from an average of 0°C in the ~~north~~northern mountains to 28°C  
79 in the south (Maghrebi et al., 2023).

80 **2.2 Dataset**

81 ~~This study used~~Our analysis uses daily streamflow data from 1,549 active hydrometric stations provided by the Iranian Water  
82 Resources Management Company (IWRMC, 2018). Each station is identified by a unique site code and the location of the  
83 stream gauge is given by its latitude and longitude. For each gauge, we first extracted the corresponding upstream sub-

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84 catchment using ArcGIS's watershed tools and the SRTM-DEM. SRTM's topographic data (Jarvis et al., 2008) at 90m  
85 resolution. Pour point snapping was used applied to match gauge locations to the extracted drainage network networks. For  
86 394 gages, we could not find a gauges, the DEM catchment extraction failed, resulting in no reasonable catchment  
87 and boundaries. Consequently, these gauges were discarded excluded from our analysis, resulting in 1,155 sub-catchments  
88 with corresponding gauges and streamflow. Next, daily rainfall timeseries for each catchment were extracted from CHELSA's  
89 (Karger et al., 2017) global precipitation downscaling reanalysis, and catchments. Catchments with unreasonable Q/P ratios  
90 (i.e.,  $Q/P > 0.8$ ), were discarded from our analysis. to exclude those with potentially erroneous or unrepresentative discharge  
91 observations. In order to minimize the impact of dams, we also excluded catchments where with large dams were visible on  
92 Google Earth or where dam effects were evident in the hydrographs. Among the analyzed catchments, 47% exhibit no overlap  
93 with others, while only 27% overlap with other catchments by more than 20% of their drainage area.

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94 To study groundwater-surface water interactions, we downloaded used monthly timeseries time series of depth to  
95 groundwater published by Iran's Ministry of Energy for depth from 13,538 wells coveringspanning the period 2000-2018.  
96 (IWRMC, 2018). We calculated the temporal mean groundwater depth for each time series, then averaged these values to  
97 obtain the spatiala mean depth to groundwater for each catchment. In total we have 214 found 189 catchments with rainfall-  
98 runoff data and correspondingas well as groundwater levels level measurements. We categorized split the average  
99 groundwater depth to the water table into three distinct classifications categories; the shallowest 25% of these catchments  
00 were classified as "shallow groundwater" with depth ranging from 1 to 14 m (blue points in Fig. 1a), the deepest 25% were  
01 classified as "deep groundwater" with depth ranging between 27 and 92 m (red points in Fig. 1a), and the remaining 50% were  
02 classified as "intermediate groundwater" (white with depth in the range of 14-27 m (yellow points in Fig. 1a).

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03 The aridity index ( $AI = P/PET$ ) is widely used as a proxy to compare climatic aridity across space and time (Arora, 2002;  
04 Nastos et al., 2013; Greve et al., 2019; Zomer et al., 2022; Barrientos et al., 2023). In this study To ensure consistency with  
05 our precipitation dataset, we used the aridity index ( $AI = P/PET$ ) as an indicator for climatic conditions. The calculated  
06 mean AI value values for each catchment is calculated from using CHELSA's precipitation (P) and potential  
07 evapotranspiration (PET) time series (Karger et al., 2017). First, we computed annual means for P and PET over the period  
08 2000-2018. Next, we obtained the Global Aridity Index Database (Trabucco and Zomer, 2018) ratio  $AI = P/PET$ . Finally,  
09 we extracted the spatial mean for each catchment. Since AI is the ratio of precipitation to potential evapotranspiration, higher  
10 AI values indicate greater humidity.

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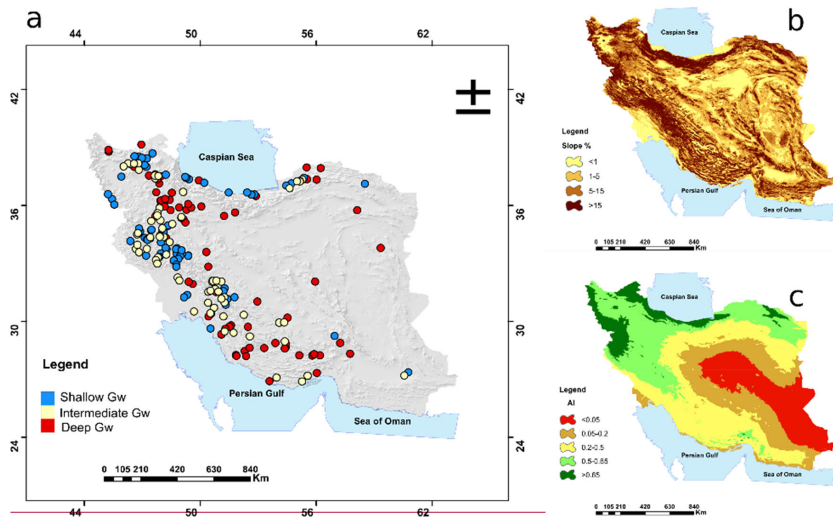
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11 Catchment-averaged topographic slope in this study was calculated from the 90-meter-resolution Shuttle Radar Topography  
12 Mission Digital Elevation Model (SRTM-DEM; <http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org>) (Jarvis et al., 2008).

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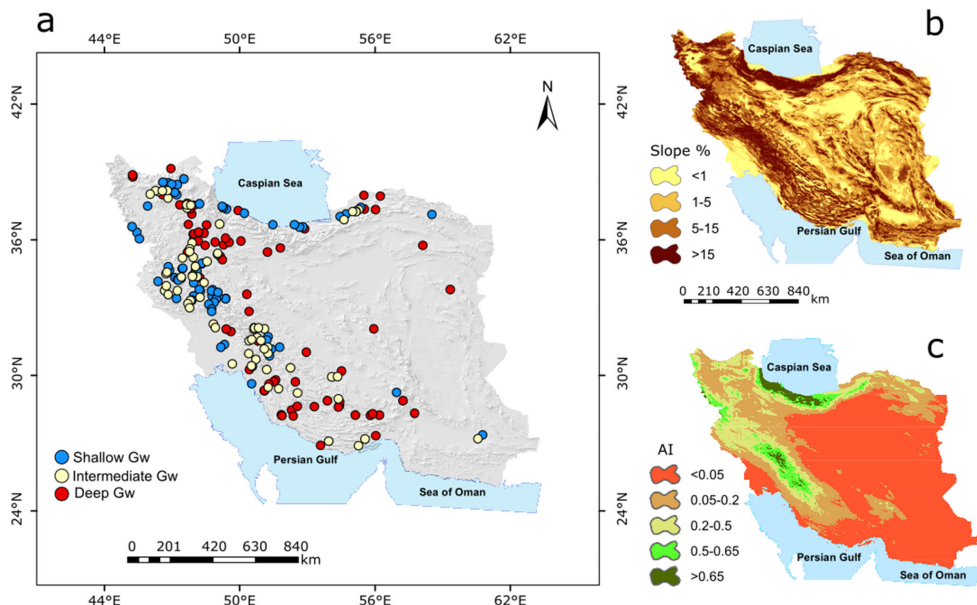
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**Figure 1.** Locations of the study catchments, color-coded by groundwater depth – shallow (<14m), intermediate (14-27m) and deep (>27m) and superimposed on a hillshade map of Iran (a), with maps of hillslope gradients (b) and aridity index,  $AI=P/PET$  (c). The study sites span widely differing climatic and topographic settings, with a wide range of groundwater depths.

### 2.3 Ensemble Rainfall-Runoff Analysis (ERRA)

Here, we examine the relationship between precipitation and streamflow using Ensemble Rainfall-Runoff Analysis (ERRA: Kirchner, 2022, 2024). ERRA is a data-driven approach that generalizes classical unit hydrograph methods to account for nonlinearity and nonstationary in hydrological response. ERRA's weighted average runoff response distributions (RRDs) measure the incremental increase in streamflow, per unit of precipitation input, over a range of lag times. With ERRA, we first estimated each catchment's nonlinear response functions (NRFs) relating daily, which use piecewise linear broken-stick functions to express how streamflow response varies with precipitation intensity and incremental increases in streamflow at each time lag. Each of these NRFs had four knot points ("xknots"; Kirchner, 2024), spaced as evenly as possible between the highest and lowest precipitation values, with the constraint that each broken-stick interval contained at least 20 nonzero

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29 and non-missing values. The average of these NRFs, ~~divided~~weighted by ~~the average~~ precipitation intensity, yields the  
30 weighted average RRD. ~~The weighted average~~RRDs (Kirchner, 2024). In this paper, we exclusively use weighted average  
31 RRDs; however, for simplicity, we refer to them as RRDs. The RRD quantifies the catchment's average runoff response while  
32 still accounting for its underlying ~~nonlinearity, and nonlinearities~~. It also ~~avoiding the~~avoids overestimation ~~bias~~biases that  
33 ~~is~~are inherent in many applications of conventional regression-based unit hydrograph methods to nonlinear systems (see Sect.  
34 3.4 of Kirchner, 2024). Streamflow can respond to precipitation over various time scales, typically reaching a peak within  
35 minutes, hours, or days, followed by a recession that can last from days to months. Here, we studied lags up to 10 days. This  
36 was sufficient to capture every catchment's peak runoff response (which often came during the same day that precipitation fell,  
37 or the first day afterward) and recession back toward base flow.

38 We ~~also~~used ERRA's robust estimation option to reduce the influence of any outliers in our source data. ~~With this~~Using the  
39 approach ~~outlined here~~, we generated runoff response distributions from our daily time series of precipitation and streamflow,  
40 and calculated the peak heights of these RRDs for all catchments. Figure 2 shows precipitation and streamflow time series for  
41 three example catchments with shallow groundwater levels and three catchments with deep groundwater levels. The  
42 corresponding RRDs for lags up to 10 days are shown in Fig. 3.

44 2.4 Factors affecting runoff response distributions (RRDs)

45 Relationships between RRD peak height and groundwater depth, aridity index, catchment ~~slope~~, and catchment area were  
46 assessed using ~~rank~~ correlation and regression analyses. Spearman rank correlation coefficients ( $\rho$ ) were used as robust  
47 measures of monotonic relationships between RRD peak height and the four climatic, hydrologic and topographic drivers (Fig.  
48 4). We also accounted for the confounding effects of correlations among the different drivers using partial regression leverage  
49 plots (Fig. 5). These leverage plots measure how much the RRD peak height would change, per unit change in each of the  
50 drivers, if the other drivers were held constant; they also facilitate the identification of individual points that disproportionately  
51 affect the results (Cook and Weisberg, 1982; Hoaglin and Welsch, 1978; St. Laurent and Cook, 1992; Wei et al., 1998; Wright  
52 et al., 2019).

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54 **3 Results and discussion**

55 **3.1 Runoff response distributions (RRDs)**

56 The impulse response of rainfall to runoff can be summarized using ~~weighted average~~ RRDs calculated from ERRA (Fig. 3).

57 Runoff response distributions express how the runoff response to one unit of precipitation is distributed over time. At our

58 ~~244~~189 study catchments, runoff response typically peaks within the first day following precipitation input and then rapidly

59 declines, lasting about 2-3 days. The results indicate that RRD peak heights are generally higher in catchments with shallow

60 groundwater compared to those with deep groundwater, as illustrated in Fig. 2, which shows example comparisons between

61 rainfall-runoff time series for three catchments ~~with shallow groundwater and three with deep groundwater.~~

62 Our results show that catchments with shallower groundwater, particularly in western and northern Iran, tend to have higher

63 average ~~runoff~~RRD peak heights. Shallow groundwater is common in Caspian Sea catchments, where many of Iran's

64 permanent rivers are located, and in western regions, where high precipitation keeps groundwater close to the surface, aiding

65 runoff. In contrast, more arid areas have deeper groundwater that is less connected to the surface, with infiltration to

66 groundwater being limited by evaporative demand.

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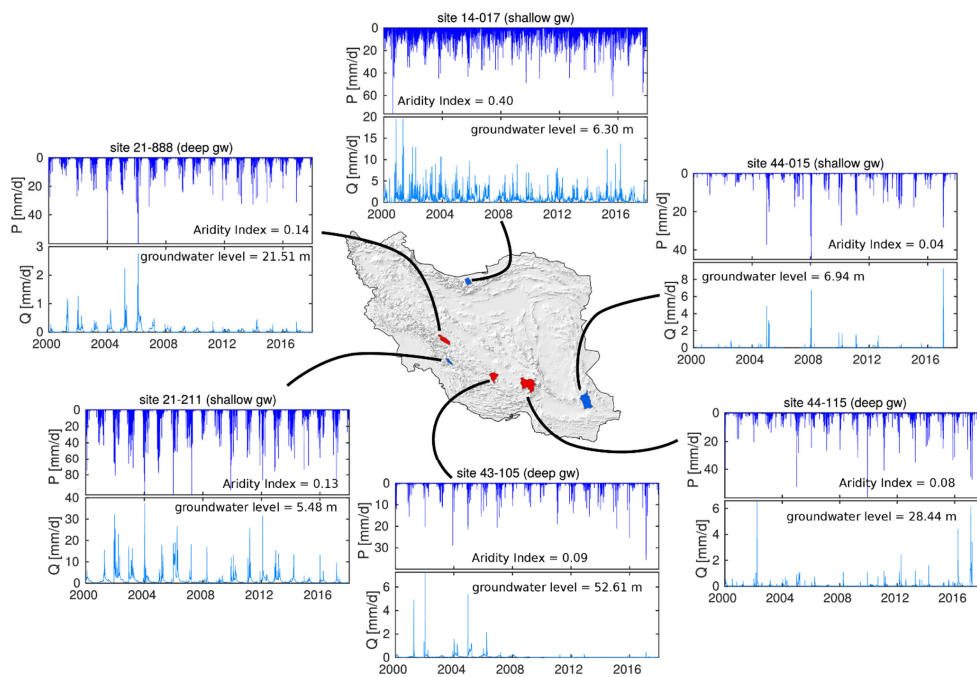
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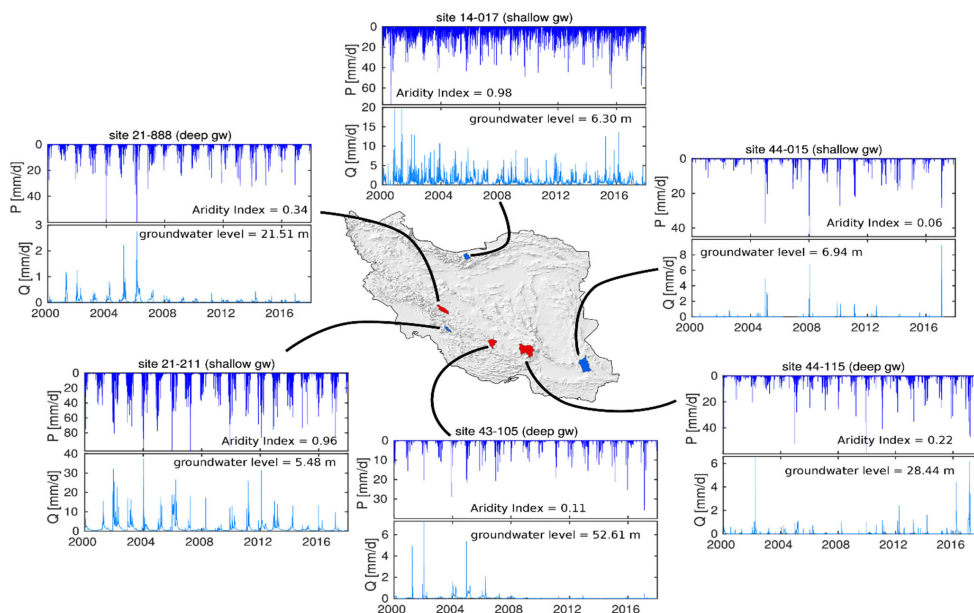




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**Figure 2.** Time series of precipitation and stream discharge for 3 catchments with shallow groundwater (in blue on map) and 3 catchments with deep groundwater (in red on map). Note that axis scales vary so that each catchment's behavior is visible. These example time series reflect climatic differences across Iran; at the relatively humid Caspian Sea coast (site 14-017), precipitation and runoff events are frequent, whereas at the Persian Gulf & Sea of Oman catchment (site 21-211), precipitation and streamflow are strongly seasonal, with long dry periods in summer, and at the Central Plateau catchment (site 44-015), precipitation is highly episodic, yielding infrequent and brief runoff events. Catchments with deeper groundwater tend to have lower and more episodic stream flows (compare sites 21-888 and 21-211, for example). Many catchments with deeper (and declining) groundwater (e.g., 21-888 and 43-105) exhibit visually obvious decreases in streamflow, but some others (e.g., 44-115) do not. Time series for the same sites, but over shorter time spans to reflect the details more clearly, are shown in Supplementary Figure S1.

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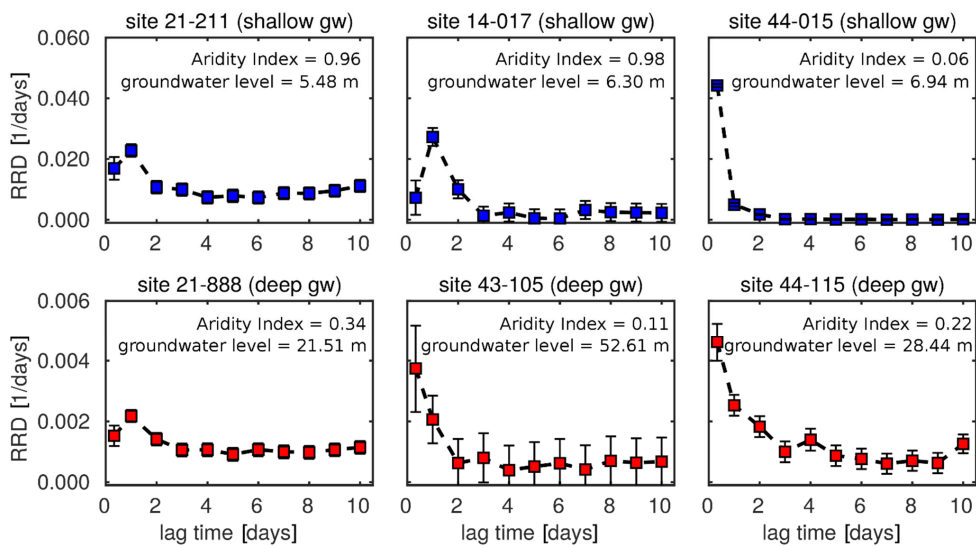
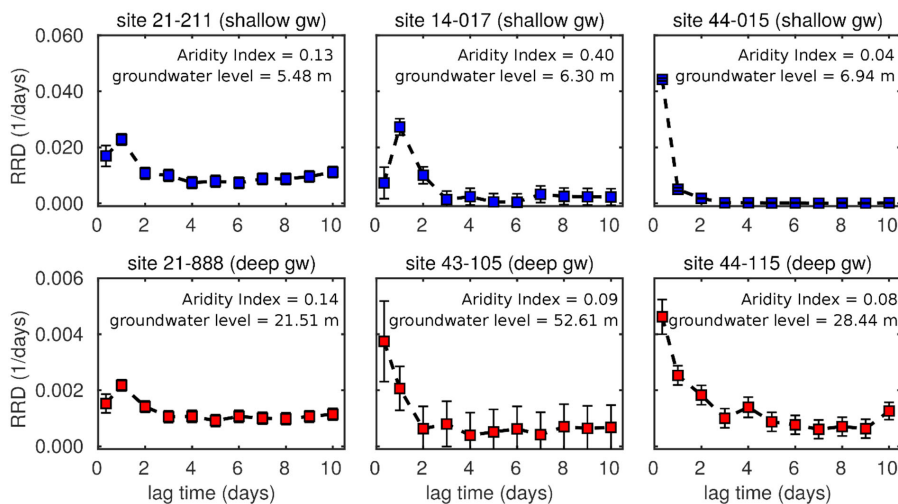
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81 ~~Figure 3. Weighted-average runoff~~Runoff response distributions (RRDs) for the six example catchments shown in Fig. 2. Note the  
82 factor-of-10 difference in the axis scales for the catchments with shallow groundwater (top row) versus those with deep groundwater  
83 (bottom row). Runoff response typically peaks the same day that precipitation falls, or one day after, and decays away within the  
84 next two days. Sites with shallow groundwater (top row) exhibit much stronger runoff response than those with deep groundwater  
85 (bottom row; note different axis scale).

86

87 **3.2 Factors influencing runoffRRD peak height**

88 Comparisons of RRD peak height and explanatory variables across catchments revealed a negative Spearman rank correlation  
89 coefficient ( $\rho_s = -0.2722$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) between RRD peak height and groundwater depth (Fig. 4). This indicates that deeper  
90 groundwater levels are associated with smaller RRD peak heights, while catchments with shallower groundwater exhibit higher  
91 RRDrunoff peaks: in response to precipitation. In regions with shallow groundwater, limited subsurface levels, the subsurface's  
92 capacity to store excess water leadsis limited, leading to higher near-surface runoff during intense rainfall events. Rapid  
93 saturation of the near-surface layers can also contribute to increased overland flow (e.g., Steenhuis et al., 2005). Conversely,  
94 deeper groundwater levels enhance subsurface water retention, promoting infiltration and reducing surface runoffmaking  
95 streamflow less responsive to precipitation.

96 Differences in runoff behavior between areas with shallow and deep groundwater can also be attributed to subsurface flow  
97 paths. In regions with shallow water tables, translatory flow dominates, quickly displacing water stored in the soil (Hewlett  
98 and Hibbert, 1967), resulting in sharp runoff response peaks. In contrast, deeper groundwater allows for deeper infiltration of  
99 rainwater (Florancie et al., 2024), bypassing intermediate layers and delaying saturation. (Florancie et al., 2024), thus leading  
200 to lower runoff response peaks and more gradual hydrological responses. However, the relatively weak correlation suggests  
201 that while groundwater depth may influence RRD peak height, it is unlikely to be the primary controlling factor in the study  
202 area.

203 The correlation analysis revealed a positive Spearman correlation ( $\rho_s = 0.443$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) between RRD peak height and  
204 topographic slope, suggesting that runoffRRD peak height is generally higher in steeper terrain. This finding is consistent with  
205 hydrological theory, as stronger topographic gradients accelerate runoff, contributing to sharper and more pronounced peaks  
206 (Inaoka et al., 2020). The observed correlation underscores the importance of topographic features in catchment hydrology  
207 and suggests that slope should be considered when assessing runoff potential in similar landscapes.

208 Additionally, a negative Spearman correlation ( $\rho_s = -0.2721$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) was found between RRD peak height and catchment  
209 area, indicating that larger catchments tend to have somewhat lower RRD peak heights. These smaller RRD peak heights may  
210 result from dispersion of runoff peaks during transmission through the drainage network, or from the superposition of runoff

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211 peaks generated at different distances from the outlet (and thus lagged by different amounts before they reach the gauging  
212 station). Larger catchments also may encompass more varied topographic and soil characteristics, leading to a wider variety  
213 of sub-catchment runoff responses which are combined at the outlet. Nonetheless, the weak correlation suggests that catchment  
214 area alone does not dictate RRD peak height, implying a more complex interaction among factors that influence runoff  
215 behavior.

216 TheOur analysis revealed a negativepositive correlation between theclimatic aridity index and RRD  
217 peak height ( $\rho = -0.1827$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). This observation aligns with the research of Barrientos et al.  
218 (2023), who reported that runoff response is sensitive to variations in aridity. However, the weak  
219 correlation suggests that the aridity index may primarily influence other hydrological factors, such as  
220 groundwater levels, which more directly interact with runoff response. In arid regions (i.e., with low  
221 AI), groundwater wells tend to be deeper, whereas in more humid regions (with higher AI), wells are  
222 typically shallower. For instance, catchments near the Caspian Sea, with an AI > 0.65, often exhibit  
223 shallow groundwater and higher runoff peak heights. Similarly, regions in the wetter parts of Iran, with  
224 an AI between 0.5 and 0.65, also tend to show shallow groundwater and higher RRD peaks. In contrast,  
225 more arid regions exhibit deeper groundwater, with limited surface connectivity and reduced recharge  
226 due to higher evaporative demand, resulting in lower RRD peaks.

227 More generally, the relatively weak correlation between AI and RRD peak height suggests that AI is only one of  
228 many. However, the modest correlation between AI and RRD peak height suggests that AI is only one of several factors,  
229 including climatic, ecological, geographic, geological, and anthropogenic drivers, that influence runoff behavior (Van Dijk et  
230 al., 2013; Schewe et al., 2014; Barrientos et al., 2023-2023). In arid regions (low AI), for example, groundwater wells are  
231 generally also deeper, while in more humid regions (higher AI), wells tend to be shallower (Fig. S2). The catchments near the  
232 Caspian Sea (AI > 0.65), for example, frequently display shallow groundwater tables and higher RRD peak heights. Similarly,  
233 catchments in other humid regions of Iran (AI between 0.5 and 0.65) also show shallower groundwater and higher RRD peaks.  
234 By contrast, in more arid regions, deeper groundwater levels, limited surface connectivity, and higher evaporative demand  
235 contribute to reduced recharge and lower RRD peaks.

236 NoteReaders should note, that because the RRD quantifies the increase in streamflow per unit of precipitation, it normalizes  
237 for the differences in precipitation amounts between humid and arid catchments. Thus, the higher RRD peaks in humid  
238 catchments do not simply reflect the fact that precipitation amounts tend to be higher there. Instead, the higher RRD peaks  
239 imply that humid catchments generate more streamflow, per unit of precipitation, in response to rainfall, with the result that  
240 peak runoff response increases more-than-proportionally to precipitation inputs.

241 To further examine these patterns, we computed correlations between mean specific discharge (discharge per unit basin area)  
242 and the catchment attributes described above. This analysis revealed broadly similar relationships to those observed for the  
243 RRD (Figure S3).

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244 We used partial regression leverage plots to better understand the significance and relative influence of each driver for RRD  
245 peak height (Fig. 5). Figure 5 compares the leverage of log-transformed RRD peak height against the leverage of our four log-  
246 transformed explanatory variables (groundwater depth, aridity index, catchment area, and slope). Leverage plots show the  
247 effects of each driver, with the linear effects of the other drivers removed. The results shown in Fig. 5 are broadly similar to  
248 those shown in Fig. 4, except for AI, which shows a reversed, but statistically insignificant trend with all  $p>0.05$ . All other  
249 variables being are statistically significant drivers of RRD peak height. However, the influence of AI appears substantially  
250 stronger after the effects of the other drivers are accounted for (compare Figs. 5d and 4d). AI and topographic with  $p<0.001$ .  
251 Topographic slope emerge as the strongest controls on RRD peak height, and followed by catchment area is  
252 revealed to be the weakest (Fig. 5 and groundwater depth (see effect tests in Table 1).  
253 These findings highlight the significant role of close relation between aridity in influencing both and groundwater depth and  
254 runoff behavior. In humid regions (i.e., with high AI), where water tables are closer to the surface, limited subsurface storage  
255 capacity reduces the ability to absorb rainfall, potentially increasing near-surface runoff and accelerating hydrological response  
256 (Erdbrügger et al., 2023). Conversely, in arid regions (i.e., with low AI), groundwater tends to be deeper, and subsurface layers  
257 often retain more capacity to store rainfall. Under minimal precipitation, this leads to lower and more delayed runoff  
258 peaks, as more water is absorbed into the unsaturated layers or lost through evaporation (Condon et al., 2020).

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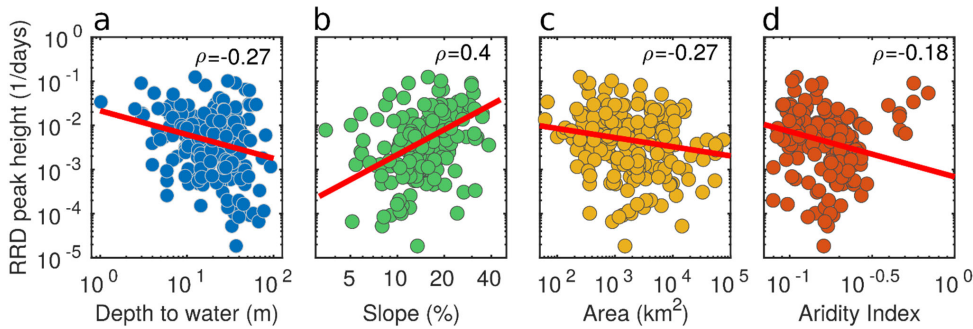
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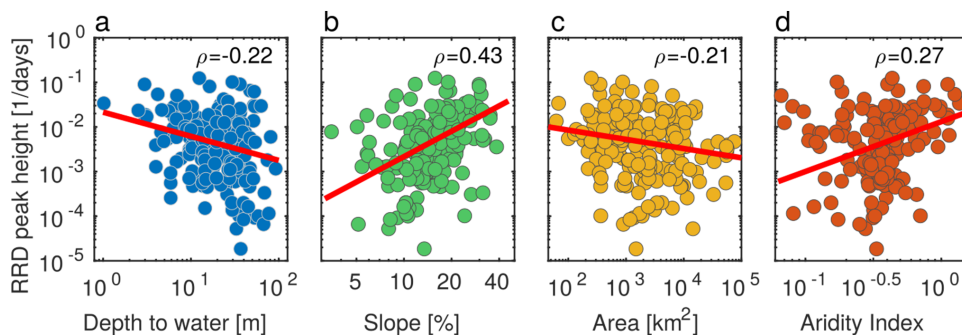
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259 While this study primarily focuses on climatic, groundwater, and topographic controls, other factors, such as geological  
260 heterogeneity, may also contribute to variability in runoff response. Differences in bedrock permeability and soil properties  
261 can influence infiltration and water storage, underscoring the potential role of subsurface properties in shaping hydrological  
262 processes (Izadi et al., 2020). Although detailed geological analysis was beyond the scope of this study, future research  
263 could explore how geological variability interacts with climatic and topographic factors to refine our understanding of runoff  
264 generation across diverse landscapes.  
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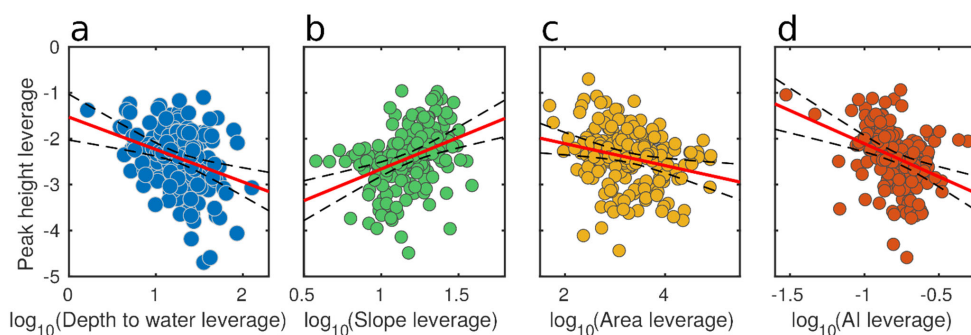
**Figure 4.** Log-log scatterplots relating weighted average RRD peak height to four catchment attributes (all axes are logarithms): depth to groundwater (a), mean topographic slope (b), drainage area (c), and aridity index (d). All Spearman rank correlations ( $\rho$ ) are statistically significant at  $p < 0.001$ .

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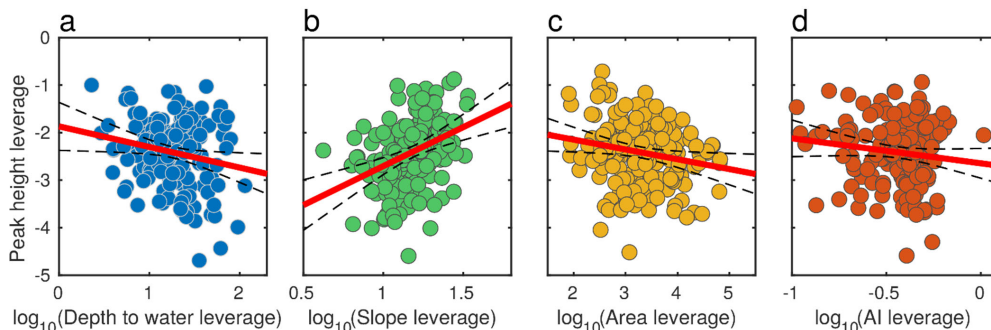
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**Figure 5.** Leverage plots relating ~~weighted-average~~ RRD peak height to four catchment attributes: depth to groundwater (a), mean topographic slope (b), drainage area (c), and aridity index (d) ~~(all)~~. All axes are logarithms. Leverage plots show the effects of each variable, with the linear effects of the other three variables removed. Red lines show multiple linear regression slopes ~~(all statistically significant at  $p < 0.001$ )~~, and dashed lines show  $p = 0.05$  confidence bounds. All attributes are statistically significant at  $p < 0.01$  except  $\log_{10}(\text{AI})$ , for which  $p = 0.05$  (Table 1).

**Table 1.** Partial regression results: effects of groundwater level, topography and climate on  $\log_{10}(\text{RRD peak height})$

variable	estimate	standard error	t ratio	prob> t	effect test sum of squares	
$\log_{10}(\text{groundwater depth})$	-0.7043	0.16	-4.45	<2.72	0.0001	
	7.300072	3.07				
$\log_{10}(\text{AI})$	-mean slope	1.4464	0.27	31	5.2925	<0.0001
	40.301145					
$\log_{10}(\text{basin area})$	-0.2420	0.07	-3.45279	0.0007	4.380058	3.24
$\log_{10}(\text{mean slope})$	1.38	AI	-0.25	5.44	<53	0.0001 10.9127
	-1.95	0.0527	1.58			

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## Conclusion

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## Conclusions

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This study examines the complex relationships between topographic, climatic, and hydrological factors in shaping peak runoff response to precipitation inputs, as quantified by runoff response distribution (RRD) peak heights estimated by Ensemble Rainfall-Runoff Analysis (ERRA) for catchments across Iran. (Figs. 1-3). The findings reveal that topography and climate are important controls on runoff response distribution (RRD) peak height (Fig. 4), with topographic slope and the aridity index being the most influential factors, followed by basin area and groundwater depth (Fig. 5, Table 1). Steeper slopes accelerate runoff, producing sharper RRD peaks, while regions with higher AI (more humid climates) tend to have stronger runoff responses per unit of precipitation due to shallower groundwater tables and limited infiltration (Fig. 4). Conversely, arid regions with lower AI (more arid climates) and deeper groundwater levels exhibit more subdued runoff responses due to greater subsurface water retention.

While groundwater depth and catchment area showed relatively weaker correlations with runoff peak height, these factors still have important effects. Shallow groundwater enhances runoff by rapidly saturating the surface allowing more rapid mobilization of subsurface storage, while deeper groundwater promotes infiltration. Larger catchment areas tend to reduce dispersed runoff intensity peaks because flows generated in different parts of the catchment are not synchronized at reach the outlet. In conclusion, the at different times. This study highlights the importance of considering multiple interacting factors when assessing runoff behavior, particularly in arid and semi-arid regions where climate and groundwater conditions play a crucial role in shaping hydrological responses. These insights may be helpful in developing effective water resource management strategies and mitigating flood risks in vulnerable regions.

**Data availability.** The stream flow and groundwater dataset used in our analysis is available for download at <https://stu.wrm.ir>. Daily rainfall and potential evapotranspiration time series for each catchment were obtained from the CHELSA climatology dataset (Karger et al., 2017). The aridity index dataset can be accessed from Trabucco and Zomer (2018; 2017).

**Author contributions.** The manuscript was written by ZE with contributions by all authors; HJS and JK conceived the work. The analysis was carried out by ZE and HJS under supervision of JWK. All authors collaboratively discussed the methodology, interpreted the results, and reviewed. ZE wrote the manuscript with inputs from all co-authors.

**Competing interests.** The authors have declared that there are no competing interests.

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