



1 Global scale evaluation of precipitation datasets for

2 hydrological modelling

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22 Abstract. Precipitation is the most important driver of the hydrological cycle but is challenging to estimate over 23 large scales from satellites and models. Here, we assessed the performance of six global and quasi-global high-24 resolution precipitation datasets (ERA5 global reanalysis (ERA5), Climate Hazards group Infrared Precipitation 25 with Stations version 2.0 (CHIRPS), Multi-Source Weighted-Ensemble Precipitation version 2.80 (MSWEP), 26 TerraClimate (TERRA), Climate Prediction Centre Unified version 1.0 (CPCU) and Precipitation Estimation from 27 Remotely Sensed Information using Artificial Neural Networks-Cloud Classification System-Climate Data 28 Record (PERCCDR)) for hydrological modelling globally and quasi-globally. We forced the WBMsed global 29 hydrological model with the precipitation datasets to simulate river discharge from 1983 to 2019 and evaluated 30 the predicted discharge against more than 1800 hydrological stations worldwide, using a range of statistical 31 methods. The results show large differences in the accuracy of discharge predictions when using different 32 precipitation input datasets. Based on evaluation at annual, monthly and daily time scales, MSWEP followed by 33 ERA5 demonstrated a higher CC and KGE than other datasets for more than 50% of the stations. Whilst, ERA5 34 was the second-highest performing dataset, it showed the highest error and bias in about 20% of the stations. The 35 PERCCDR is the least well-performing dataset with large bias (percentage of bias up to 99%) and errors 36 (normalised root mean square error up to 247%) with a higher KGE and CC than the other products in less than 37 10% of the stations. Even though MSWEP provided the highest performance overall, our analysis reveals high 38 spatial variability, meaning that it is important to consider other datasets in areas where MSWEP showed a lower 39 performance. The results of this study provide guidance on the selection of precipitation datasets for modelling 40 river discharge for a basin, region or climatic zone as there is no single best precipitation dataset globally. Finally, 41 the large discrepancy in the performance of the datasets in different parts of the world highlights the need to 42 improve global precipitation data products.

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56 1. Introduction

57 Whilst precipitation is one the most important components of the global hydrological cycle and regulates the 58 climate system (Miao et al., 2019; Sadeghi et al., 2021), it remains one of the most challenging variables to 59 estimate at a global scale using satellite data and modelling approaches (Michaelides et al., 2009; Kidd and Levizzani, 2011; Beck et al., 2017a; Ursulak and Coulibaly, 2021). Reliable precipitation data with sufficient 60 61 spatial and temporal coverage and accurate representation of extreme events is crucial for developing water 62 resource management and planning strategies, hydrological applications including forecasting hydrological 63 extremes, and climate change analysis (Mehran and AghaKouchak, 2014; Nguyen et al., 2018; Sadeghi et al., 64 2021; Acharya et al., 2019). Observed precipitation from meteorological stations is typically used at local to river 65 basin scale with gauge-based gridded precipitation datasets, such as from the Global Historical Climatology 66 Network (Menne et al., 2012), developed to study climate and hydrology over larger scales. However, 67 precipitation from gauges and gauge-based gridded datasets have several drawbacks such as limited spatial and 68 temporal coverage, prevalence of missing values, and limited accuracy in sparsely populated and remote areas 69 (Kidd and Levizzani, 2011; Reichle et al., 2011; Kidd et al., 2017; Sun et al., 2018; Gebrechorkos et al., 2018; 70 Hafizi and Sorman, 2022). In addition, data-sharing policies have caused significant challenges in obtaining data, 71 particularly in developing countries (Gebrechorkos et al., 2018; Hafizi and Sorman, 2022).

72 Over the last few decades, several global and quasi-global precipitation datasets have been developed that address 73 some of these challenges and can be used to drive hydrological models at regional and global scales. The 74 precipitation datasets differ in terms of their spatial resolution, spatial coverage (e.g., global or regional), data 75 sources (e.g., gauge, satellite, reanalysis, and radar), temporal resolution (e.g., sub-daily and daily), and length of 76 record. It is therefore important to evaluate the accuracy of the datasets before they are used to drive global or 77 regional scale hydrological models. Most studies have evaluated precipitation datasets using observed data from 78 field-based meteorological stations at a range of scales (e.g., Beck et al., 2017a; Gebrechorkos et al., 2018; Xiang 79 et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2018; Hong et al., 2022; Wati et al., 2022; AL-Falahi et al., 2020; Ahmed et al., 2019; 80 Fallah et al., 2020). Hydrological models have also been used to assess the quality of the precipitation dataset by 81 comparing simulated and observed discharge across different spatial scales (e.g., Mazzoleni et al., 2019; Beck et 82 al., 2017a; Zhu et al., 2018; Raimonet et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020; Salehi et al., 2022; Zhu et 83 al., 2018; Seyyedi et al., 2015). In principle, this latter approach is able to identify the precipitation datasets which 84 best represent hydrological variability including extremes, even in catchments where there have been multiple 85 drivers of change.

86 The are a limited number of studies assessing multiple precipitation datasets for global hydrological model 87 applications (Voisin et al., 2008; Beck et al., 2017a; Mazzoleni et al., 2019). Beck et al., (2017a) compared the 88 performance of multiple precipitation datasets (e.g., the Climate Hazards group Infrared Precipitation with 89 Stations (CHIRPS, version 2.0), Multi-Source Weighted-Ensemble Precipitation (MSWEP, version 2.0), 90 European Centre for Medium-range Weather Forecasts ReAnalysis Interim (ERA-Interim), and National Centers 91 for Environmental Prediction Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (NCEP-CFSR)) for global hydrological 92 modelling. Mazzoleni et al. (2019) evaluated multiple precipitation datasets including MSWEP (Version 2.1) and 93 CHIRPS in eight river basins on different continents. Both Beck et al. (2017a) and Mazzoleni et al. (2019) found





94 that merged satellite-observation precipitation products showed the best performance compared to satellite-only 95 products. These studies exclusively concentrate on a daily time scale, evaluating performance solely through the 96 Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE). Neither study extends this assessment to monthly and annual time scales, and 97 notably, they do not assess the hydrological extremes which are often considered important to capture. Here, we 98 build upon the work by Beck et al., (2017a) by adding recently developed high-resolution precipitation datasets 99 such as the ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020), TerraClimate (Abatzoglou et al., 2018) and Precipitation Estimation 100 from Remotely Sensed Information using Artificial Neural Networks-Cloud Classification System-Climate Data 101 Record (PERSIANN-CCS-CDR, Sadeghi et al., 2021) and the latest MSWEP version (2.80). These additions 102 significantly broaden the scope of our study, offering a diverse range of products with distinct methodologies. In 103 addition, we use multiple statistical metrics to evaluate the performance of the precipitation products for 104 hydrological modelling at daily, monthly and annual time scales and for daily extremes, which represents a current 105 gap in the modelling literature.

106 The aim of this study is to undertake a comprehensive evaluation, spanning various temporal and spatial scales, 107 to examine how different input precipitation datasets impact the predictions of a global hydrological model. We 108 assess six high-resolution precipitation datasets, each with records spanning over 30 years. A comprehensive and 109 physically based gridded global hydrological model (WBMsed; Cohen et al., (2013)) is used to simulate river 110 discharge globally. The modelled discharge, derived from the six precipitation datasets, is assessed across the 111 various time scales by comparing it with observed discharge data collected from 1825 river gauge stations 112 worldwide. Furthermore, we assess the performance of the precipitation products by examining their accuracy in 113 representing daily extreme precipitation events across various percentiles. In summary, this research offers a 114 thorough evaluation of this set of diverse precipitation products, spanning from daily extreme events to annual 115 time scales, providing an invaluable resource for selecting appropriate basin-to-regional-to-global scale inputs for 116 hydrological modelling applications.

117 2. Data and methods

In the following sections, we outline the various input and evaluation datasets which were used within the WBMsed hydrological modelling framework. The statistical evaluation methods used to assess the results are also outlined.

121 2.1. Input global and quasi-global precipitation datasets

122 The precipitation datasets used herein are selected based on their length of record (>30 years period), and spatial 123 coverage (global and quasi-global) (Table 1). The selected precipitation datasets are the ERA5 global reanalysis 124 (ERA5), Climate Hazards group Infrared Precipitation with Stations version 2.0 (CHIRPS), Multi-Source 125 Weighted-Ensemble Precipitation version 2.80 (MSWEP), TerraClimate (TERRA), Climate Prediction Centre 126 Unified version 1.0 (CPCU) and Precipitation Estimation from Remotely Sensed Information using Artificial 127 Neural Networks-Cloud Classification System-Climate Data Record (PERCCDR). Due to their spatial coverage, 128 CHIRPS and PERCCDR are evaluated only up to latitudes of 50°N and 60°N, respectively (Table 1). Each dataset 129 was subsequently used to force the WBMsed hydrological model, to generate streamflow estimates.





ERA5 is the fifth generation European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) reanalysis data
available globally from 1940 to present (Hersbach et al., 2020). ERA5 combines modelled data and observations
to create a complete and consistent global climate dataset using data assimilation methods. ERA5 provides
improved precipitation representation such as the inclusion of tropical cyclones when compared to the ERAInterim (He et al., 2020; Jiao et al., 2021). ERA5-Land is available at higher spatial resolution (0.1°) from 1950
to present compared to ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020). The data is freely available from Copernicus Climate Data
Store (https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-era5-land?tab=overview).

137 CHIRPS is a high-resolution quasi-global rainfall product primarily developed for monitoring droughts and global 138 environmental changes (Funk et al., 2015). CHIRPS provides coupled gauge-satellite precipitation estimates with 139 a 0.05° spatial resolution and long-period records. The product is developed by combining satellite-only Climate 140 Hazards group Infrared Precipitation (CHIRP), Climate Hazards group Precipitation climatology (CHPclim), and 141 data from ground stations. CHIRP and CHPclim were developed based on calibrated infrared cold cloud duration 142 (CCD) precipitation estimates and ground station data from the Global Historical Climate Network (GHCN). The 143 product is available at the Climate Hazards Group (https://www.chc.ucsb.edu/data/chirps/) on daily, 10-day, and 144 monthly timescales from the 1981-near present. Due to its availability at high spatial and temporal resolution, 145 CHIRPS is widely used in hydrological studies (Luo et al., 2019; Gebrechorkos et al., 2020; Geleta and Deressa, 146 2021; Wang et al., 2021; Opere et al., 2022; Day and Howarth, 2019; Gebrechorkos et al., 2019) and modelling 147 of hydrological extremes such as droughts and floods (Chen et al., 2020; Mianabadi et al., 2022; Peng et al., 2020).

148 MSWEP is a global high-resolution (0.1°) precipitation product developed by merging multiple datasets such as 149 ground stations (~77,000), satellite-based rainfall estimates, and reanalysis data (Beck et al., 2019b). MSWEP 150 includes station data from the Global Historical Climatology Network-Daily (GHCN-D), Global Summary of the 151 Day (GSOD), Global Precipitation Climatology Centre (GPCC), and WorldClim; satellite data from the Global 152 Satellite Mapping of Precipitation (GSMaP), Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) Multi-satellite 153 Precipitation Analysis (TMPA-3B42RT), Climate Prediction Center morphing technique (CMORPH), and 154 Gridded Satellite (GridSat); and reanalysis datasets such as the Japanese 55-year Reanalysis (JRA-55) and 155 European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) interim reanalysis (ERA-Interim) (Beck et al., 156 2017b, 2019b). MSWEP has been widely used in regional and global scale hydrological studies such as for floods and droughts (Gu et al., 2023; Gebrechorkos et al., 2022b; Reis et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2022; 157 158 Gebrechorkos et al., 2022c; Xiang et al., 2021; López López et al., 2017) and for developing high-resolution 159 global scale hydrological extreme and climate datasets and regional drought monitoring (Gebrechorkos et al., 160 2023, 2022a; Li et al., 2022b). MSWEP is available from 1979-present at multiple timescales (e.g., 3 hourly) and 161 can be accessed from the GloH2O website (https://www.gloh2o.org/mswep/).

162 TerraClimate (TERRA) is a high-resolution (0.04°) terrestrial monthly climate (e.g., precipitation and 163 temperature) and climatic water-balance dataset available from 1958-2020 (Abatzoglou et al., 2018). TERRA was 164 developed by combining high and coarse spatial resolution datasets such as WorldClim climatological normals 165 and Climatic Research Unit gridded Time Series (CRU TS) and JRA-55, respectively. The data was evaluated 166 against ground observation from the Historical Climate Network and exhibited better performance than the CRU-





- 167 TS (Abatzoglou et al., 2018). The monthly climate and climatic water balance is available from the Climatology
- 168 Lab website (<u>https://www.climatologylab.org/</u>).
- 169 CPCU is a gauge-based analysis of daily precipitation datasets available globally from 1979 to present (Chen et 170 al., 2008). CPCU is the product of the CPC Unified Precipitation project at NOAA Climate Prediction Center. 171 The product uses data from more than 30,000 (1979-2005) and 17,000 (2006-present) stations. The CPCU data is 172 publicly available NOAA at the Physical Sciences Laboratory (PSL, 173 https://downloads.psl.noaa.gov/Datasets/cpc global_precip/) and has been used for hydrological and climate 174 studies (Beck et al., 2017a; Zhu et al., 2021; Hou et al., 2014).

175 The PERCCDR is a quasi-global (latitude from 60°S to 60°N) dataset developed at the University of California 176 (Sadeghi et al., 2021). PERCCDR provides precipitation estimates at high spatial (0.04°) and temporal (3-hourly) 177 resolutions from 1983 to present. The dataset is developed using the rain rate output from the PERSIANN-CCS 178 model, which uses GridSat-B1 IR and NOAA Climate Prediction Center (CPC-4km) IR data. Compared to other PERSIANN precipitation datasets, PERCCDR provides a realistic representation of precipitation extremes 179 180 globally and shows better agreement with CPCU precipitation (Sadeghi et al., 2021). The PERCCDR has been 181 used in hydrological studies (Salehi et al., 2022; Eini et al., 2022) and is freely available from the Center for 182 Hydrometeorology and Remote Sensing (CHRS) Data Portal (https://chrsdata.eng.uci.edu/).

183	Table 1. The six precipitation datasets used in this study, their spatial and temporal resolution, spatial coverage
184	and data sources.

Abbreviation	Full name	Spatial	Tempo	Temp	Data	Reference
		resolution	ral	oral	source	
		and	resolut	covera		
		coverage	ion	ge		
ERA5	ECMWF (European	0.1°, global	Sub-	1979-	Gauge and	(Hersbach et
	Centre for Medium-Range		daily	presen	reanalysis	al., 2020)
	Weather Forecasts)			t		
	Reanalysis V5					
CHIRPS	Climate Hazards group	0.05°,	Daily	1981-	Gauge,	(Funk et al.,
	Infrared Precipitation with	quasi		presen	satellite,	2015)
	Stations (CHIRPS) version	global		t	and	
	2.0	(50°S-			reanalysis	
		50°N)				
MSWEP	Multi-Source Weighted-	0.1°, global	Daily	1979-	Gauge,	(Beck et al.,
	Ensemble Precipitation			presen	satellite,	2019b)
	(MSWEP) version 2.80			t	and	
					reanalysis	





TERRA	TerraClimate	0.042°,	Monthl	1958-	Gauge and	(Abatzoglou
		global	У	presen	reanalysis	et al., 2018)
				t		
CPCU	Climate Prediction Centre	0.5°, global	Daily	1979-	Gauge	(Chen et al.,
	(CPC) Unified V1.0			presen	only	2008)
				t		
PERCCDR	Precipitation Estimation	0.04°,	Sub-	1983-	Gauge and	(Sadeghi et
	from Remotely Sensed	Quasi	daily	presen	satellite	al., 2021)
	Information using	global		t		
	Artificial Neural	(60°S-				
	Networks-Cloud	60°N)				
	Classification System-					
	Climate Data Record					
	(PERSIANN-CCS-CDR)					

185 2.2. WBMsed hydrological model

186 The WBMsed (Cohen et al., 2013, 2014) hydrological model is used to assess the performance of the different 187 precipitation datasets for hydrological modelling globally. WBMsed is a global-scale hydrogeomorphic model, 188 an extension of the WBMplus global hydrology model (Wisser et al., 2010), which is part of the FrAMES 189 biogeochemical modelling framework (Wollheim et al., 2008). The WBMplus model is one of the first Global 190 Hydrological Models (GHMs) applied to a global domain (Cohen et al., 2013; Grogan et al., 2022). The model 191 represents the major hydrological cycle components of the land surface and tracks the balances and fluxes between 192 the atmosphere, surface water storages, vegetation, runoff, and groundwater (Grogan et al., 2022). The model 193 includes hydrological infrastructure (e.g., dams), agricultural water requirements, and domestic and industrial 194 water uses. A high-resolution gridded river network connects grid cells, which allows the routing of fluxes 195 downstream (e.g., streamflow). The model requires several climate datasets as input in addition to precipitation, 196 including temperature, humidity, air pressure and wind speed. We use an identical model setup to that used by 197 Cohen et al., (2022) with all input datasets as detailed in Cohen et al. (2013) with updates to air temperature which 198 used the daily ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020) dataset re-gridded at 10 arc-minutes resolution; reservoir capacity-199 global reservoir and dam database (GRanD v1.3; Lehner et al., (2011)); and flow network-6 arc-minute 200 HydroSTN30 network which is a derivative from HydroSHEDS high resolution gridded network (Lehner et al., 201 2008). In addition, we used each of our six input precipitation datasets, ERA5, CHIRPS, MSWEP, TERRA, 202 CPCU, and PERCCDR in turn, keeping all other parameters and inputs the same. Even though WBMsed can 203 disaggregate monthly time series into daily, TERRA (only available at monthly resolution, see table 1) is evaluated 204 on monthly and annual time scales, whilst all other datasets are evaluated at daily time scales in addition. WBMsed 205 simulations were run at 0.1° (~11km at the equator) spatial and daily temporal resolutions. Several WBMsed 206 streamflow validation analyses have been reported previously (e.g., Cohen et al., 2022; Dunn et al., 2019; Cohen 207 et al., 2014, 2013; Moragoda and Cohen, 2020), which indicate that the model represents the long-term average 208 observed streamflow globally. Cohen et al. (2022) report R²=0.99 in 30-year average prediction against USGS 209 gauge data and a global river dataset.





210 2.3. Observed river discharge from ground stations

Observed daily and monthly river discharge used to evaluate the hydrological model were obtained from the 211 212 Global Runoff Data Centre (GRDC, 2023). The GRDC is an international data archive 213 (https://www.bafg.de/GRDC/), which hosts data for over 10,000 hydrological stations. The number of stations 214 with a length of record greater than 10 years during the evaluation period (1981-2019) are limited. Due to the 215 spatial resolution of the input datasets and the model simulations (~11x11 km), we only consider stations with a 216 catchment area of greater than 100 km². Overall, 1825 suitable stations were identified with daily and monthly 217 records, largely in North and South America, Europe and Australia, with very few stations in Africa and Asia 218 (Figure 1).

219 2.4. Evaluation metrics

Several methods are used to assess the modelled discharge using the streamflow observations: the Pearson correlation coefficient (CC, Eq. 1), Kling-Gupta Efficiency (KGE, Eq. 2) (Gupta et al., 2009), Root-Mean-Square
Error (RMSE, Eq.3) and Percentage of bias (Pbias, Eq.4). A KGE value of 1.0 indicates a perfect match between
the observed and simulated discharge, whereas values lower than -0.41 show that the model is worse than using
the mean of the observed discharge as a predictor (Knoben et al., 2019). For spatial comparison, the RMSE is
normalised by the standard deviation of the observed data (NRMSE; Eq. 5).

226
$$CC = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (M_i - \bar{M}) * (o_i - \bar{o})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (M_i - \bar{M})^2} * \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (o_i - \bar{o})^2}}$$
(1)

227
$$KGE = 1 - \sqrt{(r-1)^2 + (\alpha - 1)^2 + (\beta - 1)^2}$$
 (2)

228
$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (O_i - M_i)^2}{N}}$$
 (3)

229
$$Pbias = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (M_i - O_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} O_i} * 100$$
 (4)

$$230 \qquad NRMSE = \frac{RMSE}{SD} * 100 \tag{5}$$

where r is the linear correlation between observed (O) and modelled (M) discharge and α and β are the variability and bias ratios, respectively. The NRMSE and SD are the normalised RMSE and standard deviation, respectively. To assess the performance of the precipitation datasets for representing hydrological extremes, the 90th (Q10) and 10th (Q90) percentile are used, which indicates high and low flows, respectively. The Q10 and Q90 represent the streamflow value that is equalled or exceeded 10% and 90% of the time, respectively.





236 **3. Results**

The performance of the six different precipitation datasets in simulating discharge is evaluated at annual, monthlyand daily time steps and for extremes during the period 1983-2019. The WBMsed output discharge forced by the

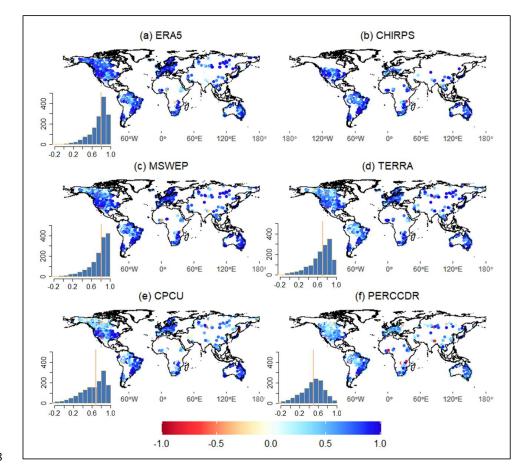
239 six precipitation datasets is referred to as ERA5, CHIRPS, MSWEP, TERRA, CPCU, and PERCCDR below.

240 3.1. Performance of the six precipitation datasets for annual discharge prediction

241 The temporal correlation coefficient (CC) between the observed and simulated annual discharge based on the six 242 precipitation datasets is summarised in Figure 1. Most of the datasets, particularly ERA5, MSWEP, and CHIRPS, 243 showed a high CC in basins of Europe (e.g., Danube basin), South America (e.g., Rio de la Plata-Parana), North 244 America and Australia (e.g., Murray-Darling). MSWEP and ERA5 showed the highest CC for 34% and 32% of 245 the stations, respectively, followed by CPCU and CHIRPS. The TERRA and PERCCDR were the least well-246 performing datasets with lower CC overall, and a higher CC than other datasets for less than 9% of stations. The 247 median CC of MSWEP and ERA5 is 0.82 and 0.8, respectively. MSWEP and TERRA showed lower Pbias and 248 NRMSE compared to the other datasets (Figures S1 and S2). ERA5 and PERCCDR showed a high NRMSE (up 249 to 247%) and Pbias (up to 99%) for more than 46% of stations. Similar to the CC, ERA5 and MSWEP 250 outperformed the other datasets for KGE, with higher values for 32% and 27% of stations, respectively. The 251 performance of MSWEP and ERA5 is higher in basins of Europe, South America, and Australia compared to Asia and Africa. The median KGE values of ERA5 and MSWEP are 0.33 and 0.32, respectively (Figure 2). The 252 253 PERCCDR and CPU demonstrate high KGE only in about 9% of the stations, with median values of 0.10 and 254 0.13, respectively. Based on the annual CC and KGE, there is no single precipitation dataset that is best 255 everywhere, and even the least well-performing dataset overall shows better performance in some stations (Figure 256 3). Figure 3 summarizes the spatial representation of precipitation dataset performance, highlighting the individual 257 datasets exhibiting the highest CC and KGE values at each observation point.







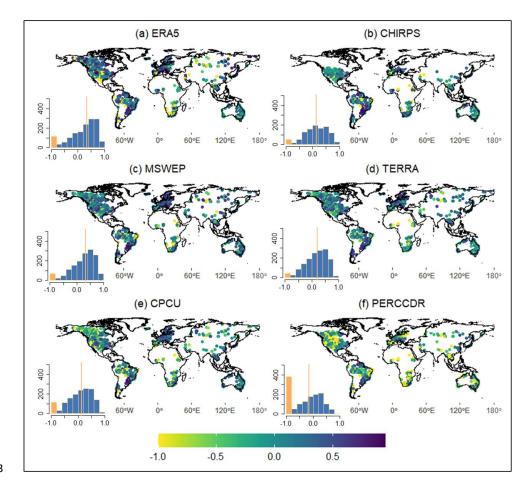
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Figure 1: Correlation (CC) between annual observed and modelled streamflow data using a) ERA5, b) CHIRPS, c)
 MSWEP, d) TERRA, e) CPCU and f) PERCCDR precipitation datasets. The inset histograms show the frequency
 distribution of the monthly CC, with the yellow vertical line indicating the median value.

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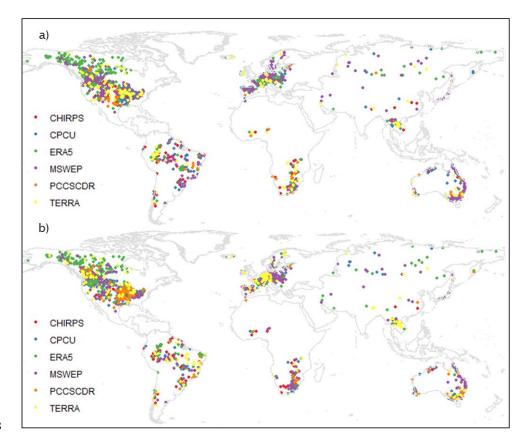


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264Figure 2: KGE between observed and modelled annual streamflow based on a) ERA5, b) CHIRPS, c) MSWEP, d)265TERRA, e) CPCU, and f) PERCCDR precipitation datasets. KGE values below -0.41 indicate bad model performance266than using observed discharge mean as a predictor. The inset histograms show the frequency distribution of the267monthly KGE. KGE values lower than -1 are highlighted in yellow. The yellow vertical line indicates the median value.







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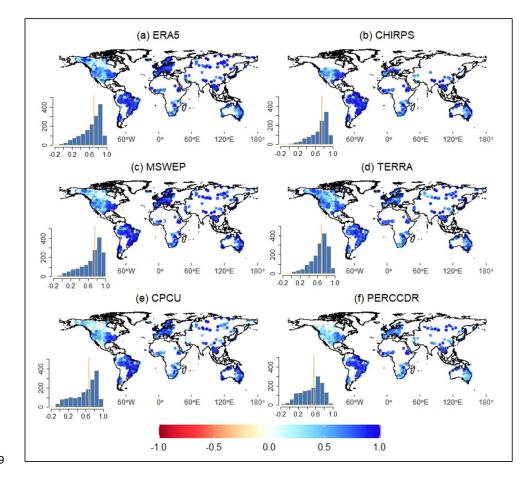
Figure 3: The best performing precipitation dataset (ERA5, CHIRPS, MSWEP, TERRA, CPCU, and PERCCDR) at
each of the observed discharge stations based on annual CC (a) and KGE (b).

271 3.2. Performance of the six precipitation datasets for monthly discharge predictions

The six precipitation datasets consistently demonstrate high CC at a monthly scale in large parts of the world,
except in some rivers of Canada and Australia (Figure 4). The monthly CC, similar to the annual CC, shows a
relatively better performance of MSWEP with a median CC of 0.76. TERRA is the second-best with a median
CC of 0.69. MSWEP and TERRA show a higher CC than other datasets in 35% and 28% of the stations,
respectively. ERA5 and CHIRPS are ranked as the third and fourth datasets with a median CC of 0.71 and 0.75,
respectively. CPCU and PERCCDR are the least well-performing datasets, which only show the highest CC in
less than 6% of the stations with a median CC of 0.67 and 0.56, respectively.







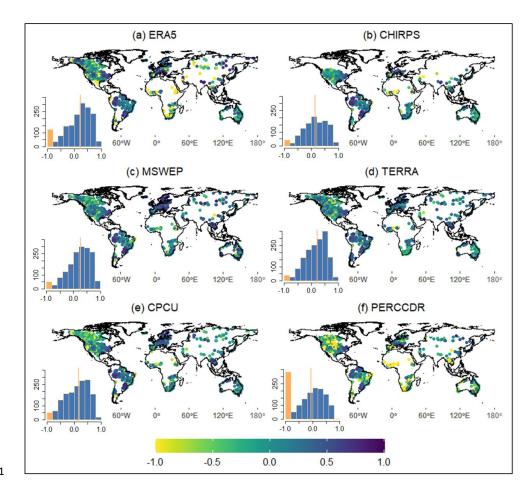
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Figure 4: Correlation (CC) between monthly observed and modelled streamflow data based on a) ERA5, b) CHIRPS,
c) MSWEP, d) TERRA, e) CPCU and f) PERCCDR precipitation datasets. The inset histograms show the frequency
distribution of the monthly CC, with the yellow vertical line indicating the median value.

283 The monthly KGE also indicates the better performance of ERA5 and MSWEP for 26% and 24% of stations, 284 respectively (Figure 5). MSWEP showed a lower Pbias and NRMSE than all datasets, except in 5% of the stations 285 (Figures S3 and S4). Compared to MSWEP, ERA5 showed a larger Pbias and NRMSE in 15% and 19% of the stations. TERRA, a third-best performing dataset based on KGE (18% of stations), shows a lower monthly Pbias 286 287 and RMSE in 85% of the stations compared to CHIRPS, ERA5, and PERCCDR. Compared to all datasets, the 288 PERCCDR showed a higher NRMSE and Pbias in 55% and 28% of the stations, respectively. The spatial 289 representation of precipitation dataset performance is summarized in Figure S5, highlighting the regions where 290 individual datasets demonstrate higher monthly CC and KGE values.







291

Figure 5: Monthly KGE values between observed and modelled streamflow based on a) ERA5, b) CHIRPS, c) MSWEP,
d) TERRA, e) CPCU and f) PERCCDR precipitation datasets. KGE values below -0.41 indicate model performance
that is worse than using the observed discharge mean as a predictor. The inset histograms show the frequency
distribution of the monthly KGE. KGE values lower than -1 are highlighted in yellow. The yellow vertical line indicate
the median value.

297 Figure 6 shows the time series of monthly observed and modelled streamflow based on the six precipitation 298 datasets for selected locations in basins of Africa (Niger, Lokoja), Asia (Mekong, Khong-Chiam), South America 299 (Amazon, Missao-Icana), North America (Mississippi, Savannah), Australia (North East Coast, Mirani-Weir), 300 and Europe (Danube, Dunaalmas). The basins were chosen to represent a good range of climatic regions and 301 drainage areas where there was availability of a long time series of observed data. In Niger, the observed monthly 302 flow and variability at Lokoja station are very well reproduced by CHIRPS and TERRA with a CC of 0.88 and 303 0.85, respectively (Figure 6a). Even though CPCU showed a lower CC (0.64) at Lokoja, it showed a higher KGE 304 (0.62) and lower Pbias (0.4%) compared to the other products. At Lokoja, PERCCDR is the least well-performing 305 dataset with the highest RMSE and Pbias and lowest KGE. The monthly variability at the Khong-Chiam station





- 306 is reproduced by all the precipitation products with a CC of greater than 0.91, with MSWEP and TERRA showing
- 307 the lowest bias and RMSE. ERA5 and CHIRPS performed well at station Missao-Icana in the Amazon with a CC
- 308 of 0.9 and RMSE of about 610 m3/s. For stations Savannah, Mirani-Weir, and Dunaalmas, MSWEP is the best
- 309 product with higher CC (> 0.72) and KGE (> 0.62) and lower Pbias and RMSE (Figures 5d-5f).
- Table 2. KGE of monthly predictions for selected stations in basins of Africa (Niger), Asia (Mekong), South
- 311 America (Amazon), North America (Mississippi), Australia (North East Coast), and Europe (Danube).

Basin	Stations	Longi	Lati	Catchme	ERA	CHIR	MSW	TERR	CPC	PCCSCD
	name	tude	tude	nt area	5	PS	EP	А	U	R
				(km ²)						
Niger	Lokoja	6.8	7.8	1670000	0.21	-0.1	0.60	0.34	0.62	-0.99
Mekong	Khong	105.5	15.3	419000	0.13	0.56	0.70	0.91	0.70	-0.04
	Chiam									
Amazon	Missao	-67.6	1.1	22282	0.71	0.78	0.73	0.72	0.61	0.65
	Icana									
Mississip	Savannah	-88.3	35.2	85833	0.59	0.65	0.67	0.66	0.53	0.66
pi										
North	Mirani-	148.8	-	1211	-0.1	0.38	0.62	0.44	0.46	-0.05
East	Weir		21.2							
Coast										
Danube	Dunaalmas	18.3	47.7	171720	0.34	0.73	0.78	0.52	0.71	-0.49





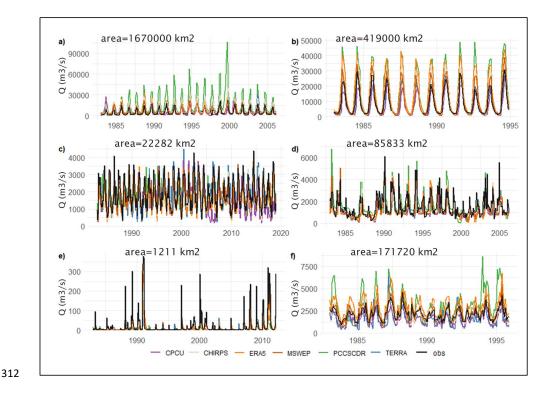


Figure 6: Time series of monthly observed (Obs) and modelled streamflow (Q; m3/s) based on MSWEP, ERA5,
CHIRPS, CPCU, TERRA, and PERCCDR precipitation datasets for locations in river basins of a) Niger (Lokoja), b)
Mekong (Khong-Chiam), c) Amazon (Missao-Icana), d) Mississippi (Savannah), e) North East Coast (Mirani-Weir),
and f) Danube (Dunaalmas).

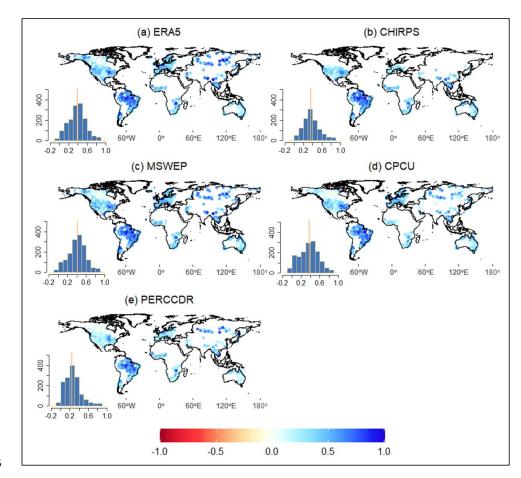
317 3.3

3.3. Performance of the precipitation datasets for daily and daily extreme discharge predictions

318	Based on the daily evaluation, MSWEP followed by ERA5 show a higher CC in more than 50% of the stations
319	with median values of 0.41 and 0.39, respectively (Figure 7). ERA5 and MSWEP performed well in 31% and
320	31% of the stations with high KGE values (Figure 8). Similar to the monthly evaluation, PERCCDR shows poorer
321	performance (lower CC and KGE, higher biases and errors) in almost 95% of the stations. Even though ERA5
322	showed a higher CC and KGE in 30% of the stations it shows a higher NRMSE (up to 250%) and Pbias (up to
323	100%) in 20% and 30% of the stations (Figures S6 and S7). Overall, MSWEP and CHIRPS showed lower NRMSE
324	and Pbias compared to the other products. The CC and KGE of all the products (except CHIRPS) are lower in
325	North America compared to stations in South America, Europe, and Australia.





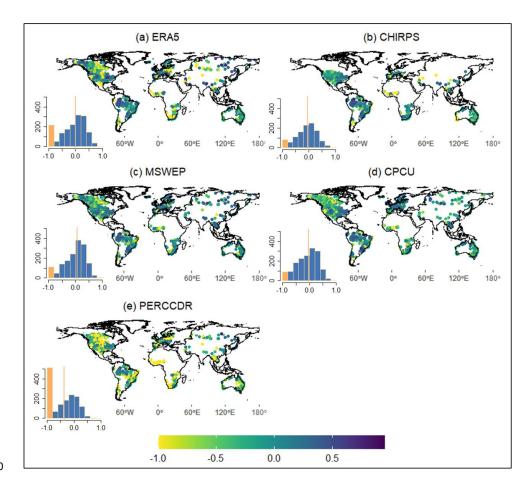


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Figure 7: Correlation (CC) between daily observed and modelled streamflow data using a) ERA5, b) CHIRPS, c)
 MSWEP, d) CPCU and e) PERCCDR precipitation datasets. The inset histograms show the frequency distribution of
 the daily CC, the yellow vertical line indicating the median value.







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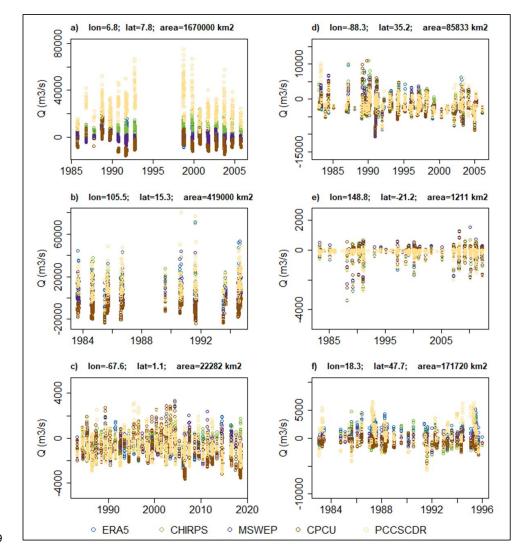
Figure 8: Daily KGE values between observed and modelled streamflow based on a) ERA5, b) CHIRPS, c) MSWEP,
d) CPCU, and e) PERCCDR precipitation datasets. KGE values below -0.41 indicate bad model performance than
using observed discharge mean as a predictor. The inset histograms show the frequency distribution of the daily KGE.
KGE values lower than -1 are highlighted in yellow. The yellow vertical line indicates the median value.

335 The performance of the daily precipitation products is also assessed for daily extremes in terms of the Q10 and 336 Q90 values. Based on the CC, MSWEP is the best-performing dataset for Q90 (Figure S8) and Q10 (Figure S9). 337 For Q10, MSWEP and CPCU exhibited a higher CC than other datasets at 38% and 32% of the stations, 338 respectively. Similarly, for Q90, MSWEP and ERA demonstrated a higher CC compared to other datasets at 35% 339 and 30% of the stations. The median CC for Q10 (Q90) is 0.32 (0.41), 0.28 (0.36), 0.27 (0.35), 0.26 (0.38), and 340 0.16 (0.23) for MSWEP, CPCU, CHIRPS, ERA5, CHIRPS, and PERCCDR, respectively. Similar to the annual, 341 monthly and daily evaluations, PERCCDR showed poor performance for the two extremes (Q90 and Q10). 342 Overall, the performance of the datasets is lower for extremes compared to the annual, monthly and daily scales. 343 Figure 9 displays differences between the observed and modelled Q10 for selected stations of Lokoja, Khong-344 Chiam, Missao-Icana, Savannah, Mirani-Weir, and Dunaalmas (Table 2). Compared to ERA5, CPCU, and 345 PERCCDR, MSWEP followed by CHIRPS showed a higher CC (0.21-0.62) and lower Pbias and RMSE in all





- 346 stations. At stations Missao-Icana, Savannah, and Mirani-Weir, the observed Q10 is underestimated with a Pbias
- 347 of between -20% to -80%. In all the stations, the positive and negative bias is large in PERCCDR and CPCU
- 348 datasets.



349

Figure 9: The difference in Q10 (high flow) between observed and modelled streamflow based MSWEP, CHIRPS,
ERA5, CPCU, and PERCCDR at selected locations (Table 2) in river basins of a) Niger (Lokoja), b) Mekong (KhongChiam), c) Amazon (Missao-Icana), d) Mississippi (Savannah), e) North East Coast (Mirani-Weir), and f) Danube
(Dunaalmas).





354 4. Discussion and Conclusion

355 Given the challenges in representing precipitation at global scales, satellite, climate model, and reanalysis-based 356 precipitation datasets can form the basis for monitoring and prediction of water resources and hydrological 357 extremes, particularly in data-scarce regions of the world (Sheffield et al., 2018; Dembélé et al., 2020). 358 Nevertheless, uncertainties and errors in these datasets require careful analysis to assess their suitability for a 359 specific use. Error in satellite-based precipitation estimates can be due to errors in the sensor measurements, the 360 frequency of sampling, and the retrieval algorithms, including the representation of cloud physics (Dembélé et al., 361 2020; Laiti et al., 2018; Alazzy et al., 2017). Climate model-based datasets, including reanalyses, have large 362 uncertainty due to their coarse spatial resolution and ambiguity associated with model parameters (Gebrechorkos 363 et al., 2018; AL-Falahi et al., 2020; Dembélé et al., 2020; Her et al., 2019). Reanalysis datasets may correct for 364 some of these errors via the assimilation of observational data, but this comes with its own uncertainties due to 365 the error characteristics of the assimilated observations and the assimilation scheme (Sheffield et al., 2006; Parker, 366 2016). In hydrological modelling, errors and biases in precipitation data result in poor representation of the 367 hydrological responses and affect applications (Maggioni and Massari, 2018; Zambrano-Bigiarini et al., 2016). 368 For example, according to Bárdossy et al. (2022), uncertainty in precipitation can lead to hydrological model 369 errors of up to 50%. Hence, it is important to assess the quality and accuracy of the precipitation products before 370 using them in global or basin-scale hydrological models. In data-limited regions, hydrological models driven by 371 precipitation datasets developed from satellite sources, reanalysis or climate models are the only plausible way to 372 represent the terrestrial water cycle (van Huijgevoort et al., 2013).

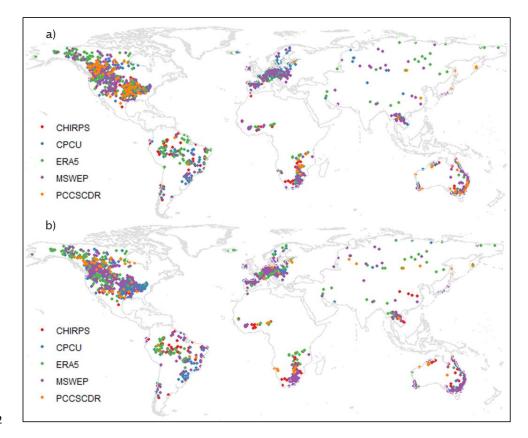
373 In light of the above, this study assesses the performance of selected global and quasi-global precipitation datasets 374 for global hydrological modelling. It is important to note that this study assesses the precipitation datasets without 375 calibration of the WBMsed model for each dataset, which could theoretically improve their performance in 376 replicating observed river discharge. Within this context, our objective is not to evaluate the absolute performance 377 of the hydrological model, which can be influenced by local factors, rather our focus is on comparing the relative 378 performance of these datasets at individual locations across various precipitation datasets. Based on the evaluation 379 at annual, monthly and daily time scales and analysis of daily extremes, no single precipitation dataset consistently 380 exhibits high accuracy across all geographical regions, nor is one consistently better than the other datasets. This 381 finding is in line with previous studies (Beck et al., 2017a; Dembélé et al., 2020). A similar pattern of varied 382 performance (e.g., lower in Africa and the central United States and better in Europe) by different global 383 hydrological models and precipitation datasets has been presented (Beck et al., 2017a; Lin et al., 2019; Harrigan 384 et al., 2020). In addition to the uncertainty in the precipitation datasets, the poorer performance in some regions 385 presented in this and previous studies (Beck et al., 2017a; Lin et al., 2019; Harrigan et al., 2020) can be due to the 386 lack of representation in the hydrological models of anthropogenic influences, such as for agriculture, irrigation, 387 water supply, and energy production.

Comparably, MSWEP and ERA5 consistently exhibited higher CC and KGE values at over 50% of the stations
across annual, monthly, and daily time scales. According to Gu et al. (2023), satellite- and reanalysis-based
precipitation datasets, such as MSWEP and ERA5, can provide satisfactory performance for simulating discharge
globally. The higher performance of MSWEP indicates the advantage of incorporating a large number of daily





392 observations from field-based meteorological stations, in addition to a large set of satellite and reanalysis datasets 393 (Beck et al., 2017a, 2019a). Other studies have also shown the good performance of MSWEP for hydrological 394 modelling in different parts of the world (Beck et al., 2017a; Lakew, 2020; Li et al., 2022a; Reis et al., 2022; Gu 395 et al., 2023; López López et al., 2017; Satgé et al., 2019; Ibrahim et al., 2022). For example, Satgé et al. (2019) evaluated 12 satellite-based precipitation estimates such as MSWEP, CHIRPS and PERSIANN-CDR in South 396 397 America (Lake Titicaca region) and found MSWEP was the best precipitation dataset for realistic simulation of 398 river discharge. MSWEP was also found to be the most reliable precipitation dataset compared to multiple datasets 399 such as CHIRPS and CMORPH for hydrological and climate studies in basins of Eastern China (Shaowei et al., 400 2022; Wu et al., 2018). Figure 10 displays the datasets with higher CC and KGE values for modelling daily 401 discharge, offering a clear depiction of the spatial variability in precipitation dataset performance.



402

Figure 10: The best performing precipitation dataset (CHIRPS, CPCU, ERA5, MSWEP, and PERCCDR) at each of
 the observed discharge stations based on daily CC (a) and KGE (b).

Even though ERA5 showed a higher KGE and CC than MSWEP, CHIRPS and TERRA in about 32% of the
stations it showed a higher error and biases. Previous studies have revealed bias and errors in ERA5 precipitation
(Lavers et al., 2021; Bechtold et al., 2020; AL-Falahi et al., 2020; Jiang et al., 2023; Lavers et al., 2022), which
leads to propagated errors and bias in hydrological modelling outputs. Harrigan et al. (2020) also reported large





409 biases in ERA5-driven hydrological simulations in the Central United States, South America (e.g., Brazil), and 410 Africa. According to Lavers et al. (2022), ERA5 precipitation is more reliable in extratropical areas compared to 411 tropical areas. Despite CPCU being a gauge-based precipitation dataset it did not show as good performance as 412 MSWEP and ERA5 on annual, monthly, and daily timescales. In addition to the lower KGE and CC, CPCU 413 showed higher bias and error, particularly on annual and monthly time scales. The bias and errors in CPCU can 414 be due to the coarse resolution (0.5°) and the limited number of stations used to develop the datasets, particularly 415 in Africa and South America. According to Beck et al. (2017a), CPCU can be used in large river basins with dense 416 meteorological stations but can be disadvantageous in Africa and South America. This highlights the need to 417 expand and maintain the meteorological stations in these regions, but also the need to draw from satellite and 418 model data sources. The PERSIANN-CDR is the least-performing product with lower KGE and higher errors and 419 biases, which has been highlighted elsewhere in terms of its inability to represent precipitation extremes (Miao et 420 al., 2015; Solakian et al., 2020).

421 The precipitation datasets show limited skill overall in reproducing daily extremes (high and low flows), relative 422 to the annual and monthly time scales. MSWEP and CPCU have shown a high CC in about 38% of the stations. 423 This is consistent with the findings of Tang et al., (2019) for the Mekong River Basin. CHIRPS and PERSIANN-424 CDR are the least skilful in capturing extremes with a very low CC and large positive and negative biases (Araujo 425 Palharini et al., 2021). For instance, numerous precipitation products have been observed to both underestimate 426 and overestimate low and high precipitation values in Brazil (Palharini et al., 2020), consequently resulting in 427 corresponding underestimations and overestimations of low and high streamflows. In general, several studies have 428 concluded that precipitation datasets exhibit a substantial disparity in daily extreme precipitation events (e.g., 429 Araujo Palharini et al., 2021; Jiang et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2022), which can be attributed to factors such as 430 inaccuracies in satellite sensors, retrieval algorithms, temporal sampling, and satellite-observation merging and 431 bias correction procedures used, particularly in gauge-limited regions (Miao et al., 2015; El Kenawy et al., 2015; 432 Shen et al., 2010; Jiang et al., 2019). In addition to the uncertainty of the precipitation datasets, the limited 433 availability of hydrological observations limits the ability to assess these datasets globally, especially for extreme 434 flood and drought events (Brunner et al., 2021).

435 Overall, the evaluation presented in this paper underlines the importance of selecting high-quality precipitation 436 datasets to drive hydrological models. Since no single precipitation dataset was found to be adequately accurate 437 everywhere, this study can help identify the best precipitation products for any basin or region under consideration. 438 Based on our results, MSWEP is the best overall choice but there are regions where ERA5, CHIRPS and CPCU 439 were better overall (e.g., see Figure 10). All the precipitation datasets, particularly ERA5 and PERCCDR, require 440 bias correction before being used to drive hydrological models in regions like North America, Asia, Africa, and 441 Australia. For data-scarce regions such as Africa and Asia, it is difficult to recommend a precipitation dataset due 442 to the limited number of hydrological stations used in this study. Finally, improving the precipitation datasets by 443 adding more ground observations, for example, and by better representing anthropogenic drivers in hydrological 444 models has the potential of considerably improving global and regional hydrological predictions.





445 Data availability

446 The selected precipitation datasets used in this study are openly accessible to the public. ERA5 is freely available from the Copernicus Climate Data Store (CDS; https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-447 448 era5-land?tab=overview). CHIRPS can be obtained from the Climate Hazards Group (CHG; 449 https://www.chc.ucsb.edu/data/chirps/). Access to the MSWEP precipitation dataset is provided through the 450 GloH2O website (https://www.gloh2o.org/mswep/). TERRA is accessible from the Climatology Lab website 451 (https://www.climatologylab.org/). CPCU is publicly available through the NOAA Physical Sciences Laboratory 452 (PSL; https://downloads.psl.noaa.gov/Datasets/cpc global precip/), and PERCCDR can be freely accessed 453 through the Center for Hydrometeorology and Remote Sensing (CHRS; https://chrsdata.eng.uci.edu/).

454 Author contribution

SG, JL, and SJD conceived the study, incorporating input from all co-authors. SG led the global hydrological modelling, while JL, SJD, and LS assisted with data management and computational resources. SG was responsible for evaluating various precipitation datasets for hydrological modelling and drafted the initial manuscript. SC provided the hydrological model and input parameters. MW, GB, RB, PD, HG, EV, YL, RH, LH, SM, and JN executed extensive data quality control and identified stations for evaluation. PA, HC, AN, AT, and JS provided code, methods, and guidance. DP, SJD, and SED supervised the research and secured funding. All authors contributed to investigating research findings and played integral roles in manuscript writing and editing.

462 Competing interests

463 We declare that Louise Slater is a topical editor of Hydrology and Earth System Sciences (HESS).

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