

Evaluation of the applicability of climate forecast system reanalysis weather data for hydrologic simulation:

A case study in the Bahe River Basin of the Qinling Mountains, China

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Abstract: In recent years, global reanalysis weather data has been widely used in hydrological modeling around the world, but the results of simulations vary greatly. To consider the applicability of Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) data in the hydrologic simulation of watersheds, the Bahe River Basin was used as a case study. Two types of weather data (conventional weather data and CFSR weather data) were considered to establish a Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) model, which was used to simulate runoff from 2001 to 2012 in the basin at annual and monthly scales. The effect of both datasets on the simulation was assessed using regression analysis, Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (*NSE*), and Percent Bias (*PBIAS*). A CFSR weather data correction method was proposed. The main results were as follows. (1) The CFSR climate data was applicable for hydrologic simulation in the Bahe River Basin (R^2 of the simulated results above 0.50, *NSE* above 0.33, and $|PBIAS|$ below 14.8. Although the quality of the CFSR weather data is not perfect, it achieved a satisfactory hydrological simulation after rainfall data correction. (2) The simulated streamflow using the CFSR data was higher than the observed streamflow, which was likely because the estimation of daily rainfall data by CFSR weather data resulted in more rainy days and stronger rainfall intensity than was actually observed. Therefore, the data simulated a higher base flow and flood peak discharge in terms of the water balance, except for some individual years. (3) The relation between the CFSR rainfall data (x) and the observed rainfall data (y) could be

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represented by a power exponent equation: $y=1.4789x^{0.8875}$ ($R^2=0.98$, $P<0.001$). There was a slight variation between the fitted equations for each station. The equation provides a theoretical basis for the correction of CFSR rainfall data.

Keywords: CFSR; weather data; hydrologic simulation; applicability evaluation; SWAT model; Bahe River Basin

1 Introduction

As the driving factor for hydrological models, it is clear that hydrometeorological data is of great significance. However, investigators often encounter various practical challenges such as missing data, difficulty in collecting data, a lack of observation stations, and being located far from study areas. These problems have greatly restricted research progress and have also reduced the efficiency of models. Since the 1990s, some international researchers have used satellite data as an input to hydrological models (Barrett *et al.*, 1993; Dile and Srinivasan, 2014). With the development of surface observation technology, satellite remote sensing, radar observation systems, and computer models, the inversion of meteorological data using these techniques has been increasingly applied to hydrological modeling. Global reanalysis weather data provided by the United States and Europe is currently used for various hydrological applications around the world (Zhao *et al.*, 2010; Fuka *et al.*, 2014). Some examples include: the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR); the NCEP and US Department of Energy (DOE) NCEP/DOE; the NCEP and the National Center of Atmospheric Research (NCAR) NCEP/NCAR; the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) RA-15/40; Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA) JRA-25; and National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) DAO. In recent years, global reanalysis weather data has also been gradually applied to the field of hydrology. For example, it has been reported that NCEP/NCAR and ECMWF 40-year datasets have an obvious variability in the field of reanalysis precipitation, and it has therefore been suggested that higher spatial resolution data would have great advantages in acquiring higher frequency events, especially in medium-sized watersheds (Ward *et al.*, 2011; Fuka *et al.*, 2014). Zhao *et al.* (2015) reported that in terms of the performance of model simulation, Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) data was more effective than gauge data provided at monthly time scale. Fuka *et al.* (2014) suggested that when global reanalysis data sets are selected for small- to medium-sized watersheds, three criteria should be considered: (1) the dataset should be open and available, including temperature and precipitation; (2) spatial resolution needs to be 30 km; and (3) the length of records should include adequate historical coverage to allow model calibration and validation, and extend to the present. Compared with nine other global reanalysis data products, Fuka *et al.* (2014) found that only the CFSR dataset could simultaneously satisfy the aforementioned criteria.

The CFSR provided by NCEP was completed over 36 years (from 1979 to 2014). It is currently used by many researchers who regard it as an ideal alternative data source. When conducting a hydrologic forecast, Dile and Srinivasan (2014) demonstrated that CFSR weather data was a viable option for simulating the hydrology of data-scarce regions such as remote parts of the Upper Blue Nile Basin. Sharp *et al.* (2015) compared the CFSR reanalysis hourly wind speed with in situ measurements and discovered that CFSR weather data could represent the variety of terrain across the UK well. To a certain extent, CFSR might therefore provide an alternative to in situ measurements for the UK. Fuka *et al.* (2014) re-

ported that a watershed model forced by CFSR precipitation and temperature data could provide a perfect runoff simulation. The simulation result was as good as or better than a model using conventional weather data (Fuka *et al.*, 2014). CFSR weather data is widely applied in the field of meteorology (Xu *et al.*, 2010; Hu *et al.*, 2013; Xiang *et al.*, 2014), but the application of CFSR in the field of hydrology has been less frequently reported in China. According to the results of several Chinese studies, CFSR precipitation data can be affected by topography and geomorphology, the number of available sites and their homogeneity, and the physical parameters of models. This results in significant differences between CFSR precipitation and observed precipitation, resulting in streamflow simulations using CFSR precipitation being overestimated. It has also been shown that CFSR weather data has different levels of applicability in different regions (Hu *et al.*, 2013; Tang *et al.*, 2014; Yu and Mu, 2015). These studies have indicated that the quality of CFSR data still needs to be improved, but CFSR reanalysis data can be used for hydrological simulations, especially in areas lacking observed data. Unfortunately, although many researchers (Dileand Srinivasan, 2014; Worqlul *et al.*, 2014; Fuka *et al.*, 2014; Zhao *et al.*, 2015; Yu and Mu, 2015; Blacutt *et al.*, 2015) have conducted evaluations of the suitability of CFSR weather data, they have not proposed revised methods for the use of CFSR weather data or their methods were oversimplified. To improve the applicability of CFSR for different study areas, we undertook a preliminary revision of CFSR weather data on the basis of previous studies.

The Qinling Mountains, as the geographical boundary dividing the north and south of China, is not only an area sensitive to global climate change, but is also prone to torrential flooding, debris flows, and landslides. Due to the terrain, Qinling has a limited number of hydrometeorological stations at high altitudes, which is a major challenge for the hydrological simulation of small- to medium-sized watersheds. Therefore, we selected the Bahe River Basin, which is located on a north-facing slope in the Qinling Mountains, as the study area. Based on ArcGIS 10.2 and SWAT 2012, we used regression analysis, Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (*NSE*), and Percent Bias (*PBIAS*) to comprehensively explore the suitability of CFSR weather data for hydrological simulations. We used the results to propose a revised method for CFSR weather data in the Bahe River Basin. We hope that the results will provide a scientific reference for hydrological simulation and mountain hazard warning in the Qinling Mountains.

2 Study area

Rising in Jiudaogou (Nine Gaps) (part of the Bayuan Townships, Lantian County, Shaanxi Province), Bahe River is located on a north-facing slope of the Qinling Mountains and to the southeast of Xi'an City (33°50'N–34°27'N, 109°00'E–109°47'E). It has a length of 104.1 km, drainage area of approximately 2581 km², and the river drops by 1142 m. Topographically, the area tilts from the southeast to the northwest (Figure 1). The Bahe River Basin has a warm temperate continental monsoon climate. Annual precipitation in the area is about 800 mm and annual evaporation is about 776 mm.

3 Hydrometeorological data

3.1 Data sources

Digital elevation model (DEM) data, land cover data, soil data, hydrological data and

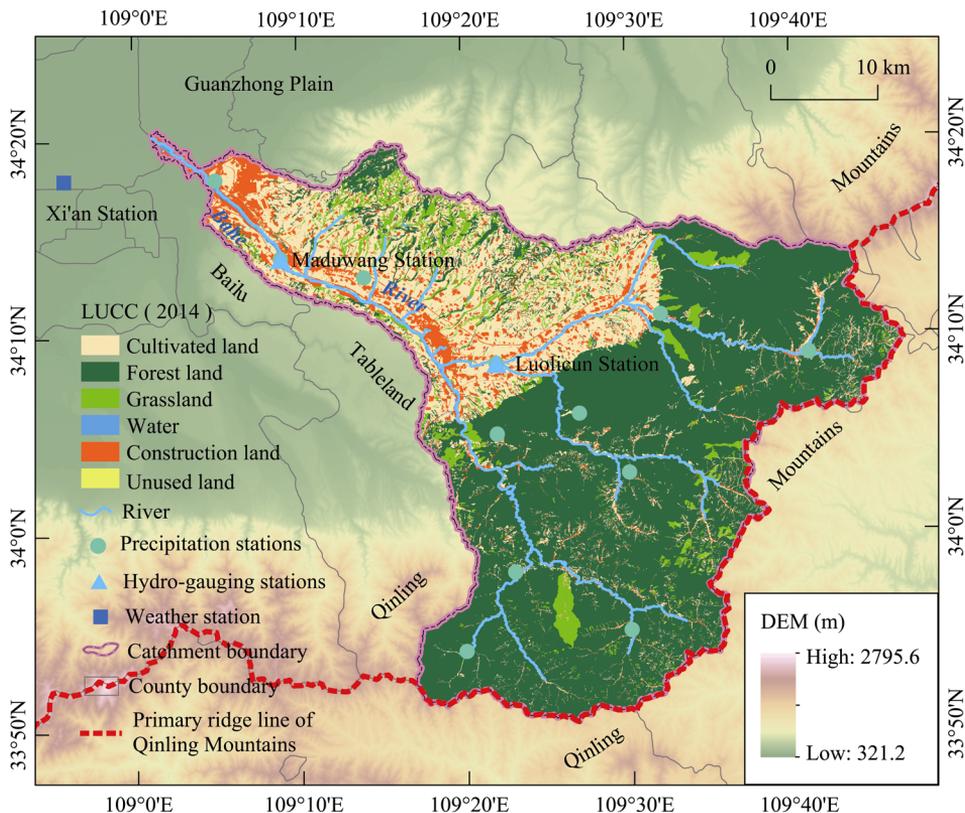


Figure 1 Map showing the location of the Bahe River Basin and its land use types in 2014

meteorological data are the essential and fundamental information required for modeling in a Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) model. The DEM dataset was obtained from the Geospatial Data Cloud (<http://www.gscloud.cn>) and has a resolution of 30 m × 30 m. The land cover data used in the SWAT was collected from the Department of Land and Resources of Shaanxi Province’s Second National Land Survey County-level Database. By reclassifying the land use, we identified six land use types (Figure 1) in the study area. The soil dataset was derived from the China Soil Map Based Harmonized World Soil Database (v1.1) provided by the Cold and Arid Regions Sciences Data Center at Lanzhou (<http://westdc.westgis.ac.cn/>), China. The hydrological data was transcribed from *Yellow River Basin Hydrological Data (2001–2012)*, which is a special collection held in the Xi’an University of Technology Library. The meteorological data used in our study had two different sources. The conventional weather data was provided by the China Meteorological Data Network (<http://data.cma.gov.cn/>) and *Yellow River Basin Hydrological Data (2001–2012)*. The CFSR weather data was downloaded from the SWAT model’s official website (<http://globalweather.tamu.edu/>).

3.2 Comparison of the conventional and CFSR weather data

Meteorological data is the driving factor of the hydrological modeling in the SWAT model. However, many researchers have been unable to obtain high-quality hydrometeorological data. The main purpose of this study was to investigate if global reanalysis data products can

replace observed hydrometeorological data for use in hydrological modeling, especially for areas where there is a lack of observed data. To intuitively compare the performance of a CFSR weather simulation with a conventional one in the SWAT model, no model calibration was undertaken. This also eliminated the influence of parameter calibration. Clearly, the two types of data had some significant differences in their temporal and spatial features.

In the Bahe River Basin, there are 12 conventional precipitation stations that provide a dense network with a uniform distribution (Figure 2). Because the SWAT model adopts the Thiessen Polygon Interpolation algorithm to distribute meteorological sites for a sub-basin, each precipitation station represented only a small part of the sub-basin (Table 1). We selected the period 2001–2012. On account of some rain gauging stations only operating in flood season, equipment failure, or lags in upgrades, there was some missing data. The conventional stations provided daily observed precipitation data. The average annual precipitation of the 12 stations was 763.2 mm with the maximum value recorded at Wangchuan station (904.2 mm) and the minimum at Xiqu station (582.8 mm).

Table 1 Conventional rainfall information (2001–2012) and Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) weather data in the Bahe River Basin

Stations	Id	Average annual rainfall (mm)	Elevation (m)	Controlling sub-basins
Bayuan ^a	P01	773.9	1144	Sub 13-14, 17
Mujiayan ^c	P02	896.3	794	Sub 3-4, 7-8, 19, 21
Muhuguan ^b	P03	649.9	1200	Sub 25-28
Lanqiao ^b	P04	676.7	1768	Sub 22-23
Luolicun ^{c,e}	P05	830.4	544	Sub 12, 15-16, 18, 20
Gepaizhen ^a	P06	853.6	1145	Sub 32-33
Yuchuan ^a	P07	891.2	1117	Sub 29-31
Longwangmiao ^c	P08	806.2	1352	Sub 34-35
Wangchuan ^a	P09	904.2	985	Sub 24
Pantaowan ^a	P10	655.5	495	Sub 2, 5-6, 9-11
Maduwang ^{c,e}	P11	637.2	431	Sub 1
Xiqu ^c	P12	582.8	402	Sub 1
CFSR1 ^d	p3391094	1223.5	1590	Sub 27, 29-31, 33-35
CFSR2 ^d	p3391097	1271.0	1142	Sub 28, 32
CFSR3 ^d	p3421091	437.0	470	Sub 1, 5
CFSR4 ^d	p3421094	645.2	680	Sub 2, 6-12, 15-16, 18-20, 22-24
CFSR5 ^d	p3421097	983.7	1385	Sub 3-4, 13-14, 17, 25-26

Note: ^aindicates rain gauging stations operating only in the flood season (from April to October) of 2001; ^bindicates rain gauging stations operating in the flood season during 2001–2010; ^cindicates rain gauging stations operating year round; ^dindicates meteorological stations; ^eindicates hydro-gauging stations.

CFSR is the product of global climate reanalysis grid data generated by the NCEP Global Forecast System. The horizontal resolution of the CFSR is $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ (approximately 38×38 km). Compared with the use of conventional weather stations, CFSR is more suitable for a large-scale to mesoscale watershed. Users can access the SWAT website (<http://global-weather.tamu.edu/>) to freely and expediently download daily CFSR weather data (including

data (including precipitation, wind, relative humidity, and solar) in the SWAT file format for a given location and time period. As mentioned earlier, the use of CFSR weather data has many advantages, but also some drawbacks. For example, CFSR weather data over- or underestimates precipitation at some stations and there are large uncertainties in its data quality.

4 The hydrological model and its evaluation

4.1 SWAT model

The SWAT model is a watershed scale model, which was developed by Jeff Arnold of the Agricultural Research Service (ARS) of United States Department of Agriculture (USDA). It has a strong physical basis and can be used for modeling in regions where there is a lack of observational data (Wang *et al.*, 2003). The original intention of the model was to predict the long-term effects of large watershed land management on runoff, sediment, and agricultural chemicals, under conditions of complex land use, soil type, and management measures (Hu, 2015). At present, the model is applied widely in North America, Africa, the Middle East, Europe, and other locations (Dile and Srinivasan, 2014; Rouholahnejad *et al.*, 2014; Abbaspouret *et al.*, 2015; Troin *et al.*, 2015). In recent years, Chinese researchers have conducted research in various basins at different scales, including the basins of Yellow River, Heihe River, Sanjiang Plain, Beiluo River, Jinjiang River, Xiangjiang River, Ganjiang River, and Hanjiang River (Liu *et al.*, 2004; Wang and Chen, 2008; Lai *et al.*, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2014; Hu, 2015). These studies have mainly involved simulations of runoff and sediment discharge, soil erosion, agricultural non-point source pollution, and climate and land use changes on runoff response, as well as SWAT model improvements, hydrological simulations at different temporal and spatial scales, the coupling of various hydrological models, the sensitivity and optimization of model parameters, and considerations of the regional adaptability of the SWAT model (Hu, 2015).

4.2 Model setup

A unified projection and coordinate system is the mathematical foundation for successfully running the SWAT model. All spatial data in this study used the Xi'an 1980 coordinate system and the 3° zoning Gauss_Kruger projection system, and the central meridian was 108°E. The linear river data in the Second National Land Survey County-level Database was used in the extraction of the river network, using a DEM to ensure the accuracy of the auto-generated river network. To obtain the appropriate amount of sub-basin and number of Hydrological Response Units (HRUs), we set the minimum catchment area to 2000 ha (20 km²) on the basis of a repeated debug. The threshold of land use, soil type, and gradient was set to 20% in each case. Finally, the SWAT model generated 35 sub-basins (Figure 2) and 315 HRUs. To obtain a better initial state, the SWAT model needs to set a preheating period of 3–5 years. The preheating period of the model used in this study was set to 5 years, and therefore the start simulation time was January 1, 1996 and the end was December 31, 2012. In addition, we used the two different types of meteorological data and selected two different time intervals (monthly and annual) for hydrological simulation.

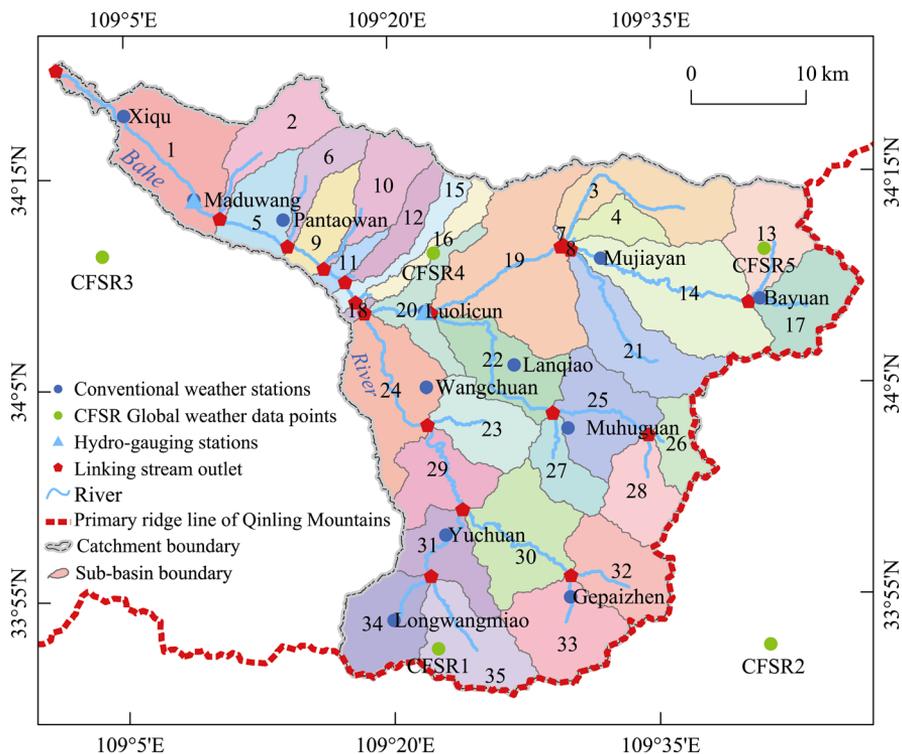


Figure 2 Map showing the distribution of sub-basins and hydrometeorological stations

4.3 Model evaluation

(1) Regression analysis

Regression analysis is the most basic method of quantitative analysis. A unary linear regression analysis and a nonlinear regression analysis of a power exponent model, which are used in mathematical statistics to determine the quantitative relationship between two or more interdependent variables, were used in this study. Considering that the two methods are very common there is no further explanation given here.

(2) Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (*NSE*)

In hydrology, efficiency is usually evaluated with the Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency coefficient (*NSE*). *NSE* is a normalized statistic to determine the relative amount of residuals and the variance of the observed data (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970). It is calculated with Equation (1):

$$NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Q_{obs}^i - Q_{sim}^i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Q_{obs}^i - Q_{obs}^{mean})^2} \quad (1)$$

where *NSE* is the Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency; Q_{obs}^i is the observed streamflow at the *i*th time interval; Q_{sim}^i is the simulated streamflow at the *i*th time interval; Q_{obs}^{mean} is the average of the observed streamflow; and *n* is the total number of observations. *NSE* values can range from $-\infty$ to 1. An *NSE* value of 1 corresponds to a perfect match between observed and simulated streamflow. An *NSE* value between 0 and 1 is considered to be an acceptable level

of performance, whereas an *NSE* value ≤ 0 suggests the observed average is a better predictor than the model.

(3) Percent Bias (*PBIAS*)

Percent Bias (*PBIAS*) is another important index for evaluating the efficiency of a hydrological model (Gupta *et al.*, 1999; Moriasi *et al.*, 2007). It is computed with Equation (2):

$$PBIAS = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Q_{obs}^i - Q_{sim}^i) * 100}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Q_{obs}^i)} \tag{2}$$

The meaning of the variables in Equation (2) is the same as in Equation (1). The optimal value of *PBIAS* is 0. A positive value indicates that the model has underestimated and a negative value indicates an overestimation.

5 Results

5.1 Model simulations with conventional weather data

All of the simulation results in this study were obtained without any parameter calibration. Figures 3 and 4 show the simulated and observed flow at monthly and annual time scales,

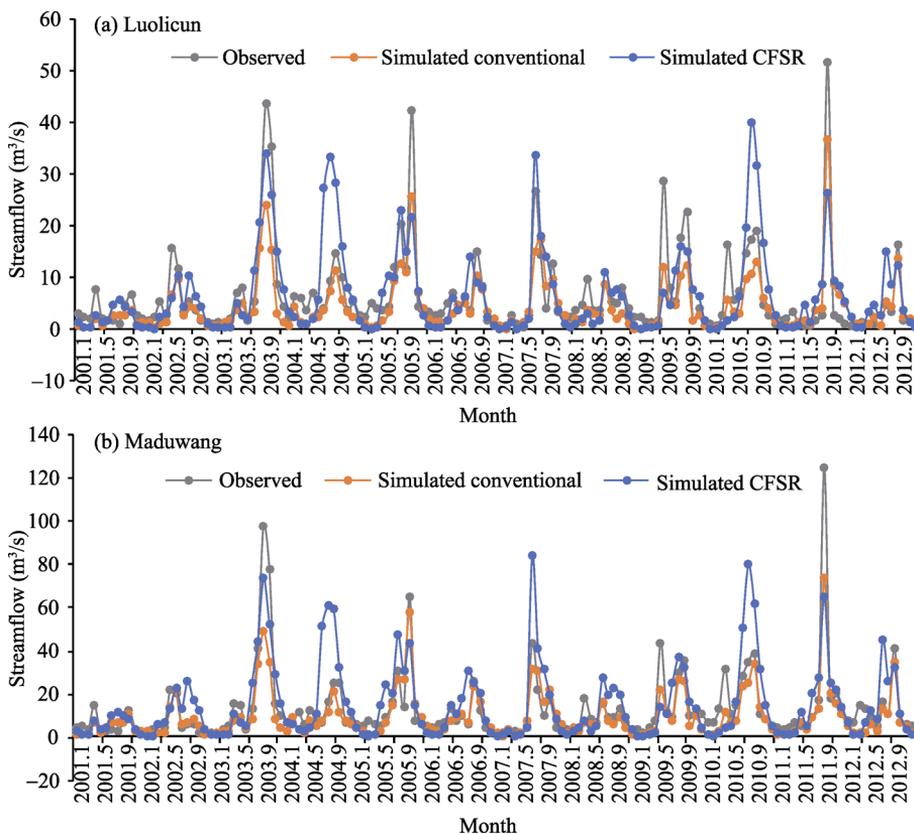


Figure 3 Hydrographs showing monthly observed streamflow and streamflow simulated with conventional and Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) weather data

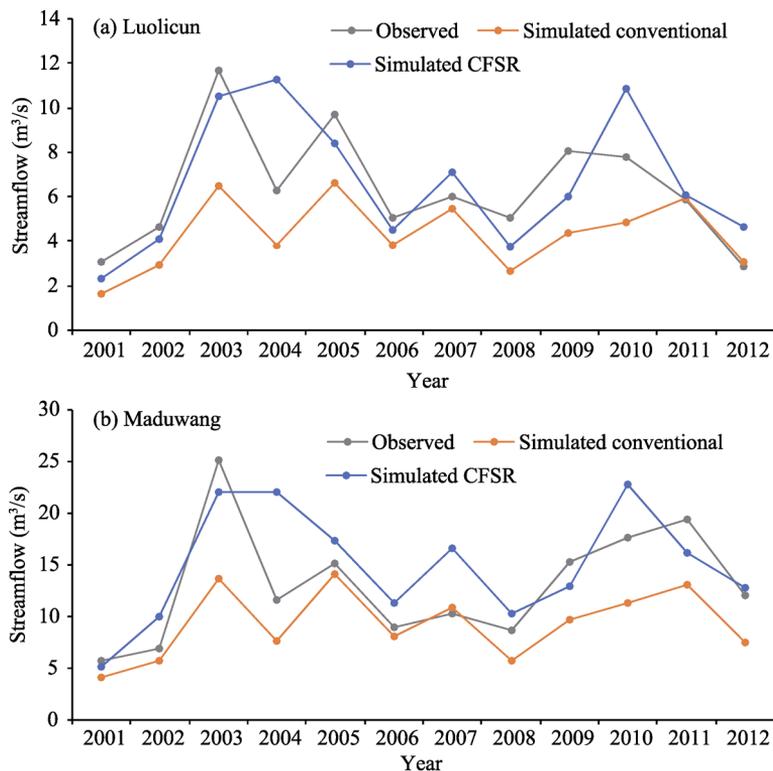


Figure 4 Hydrographs showing annual observed streamflow and streamflow simulated with conventional and Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) weather data

respectively. It was found that the discharge curve of the simulations using conventional weather data at a monthly time scale fitted perfectly with the observed steamflow. Nevertheless, the SWAT model driven by conventional weather performed poorly in the simulation of base and peak flow, and generally underestimated both values. A similar situation was apparent in the simulations with an annual time scale, in which the normal year was well simulated, but the simulation of wet years was underestimated. To accurately quantify the relationship between the simulated and observed streamflow, we performed an ordinary linear regression analysis. Figures 5 and 6 show that this resulted in a highly ($0.001 < P < 0.01$) or extremely ($P < 0.001$) significant linear relationship. At a monthly time scale, the goodness of fit (R^2) values for Luolicun and Maduwang were 0.85 and 0.83 respectively. However, the R^2 values at an annual time scale were 0.66 (Luolicun) and 0.72 (Maduwang), i.e., slightly worse.

As seen in Table 2, the NSE values for two hydrological stations were greater than 0, indicating that the simulation results at both monthly and annual time scales were within the acceptable range, but at different scales, and displayed a greater difference ($NSE_{monthly} > 0.7$, $NSE_{annual} < 0.2$). The $PBIAS$ values for Luolicun and Maduwang were greater than 0. Overall, simulated streamflow was generally lower than observed streamflow, but the $PBIAS$ values at monthly and annual time scales were basically the same. In conclusion, the SWAT model based on conventional weather data produced better hydrological simulations. Monthly simulation results were generally more reliable than annual simulations, although they also displayed minor underestimations. There were still some concerns regarding the simulation

results at an annual time scale, such as some large deviations in individual years, underestimations of *NSE* and goodness-of-fit (R^2) values (which were the main sources of uncertainty in model simulations), the quality of hydrological and meteorological data, and modeling without parameter calibration. These issues were system errors rather than mistakes. After choosing 13 parameters to preliminarily calibrate the SWAT model, we found that the *NSE* value of the annual simulated result increased to 0.78, the R^2 value increased to 0.8, and the $|PBIAS|$ values decreased to 5.6 and 7.8.

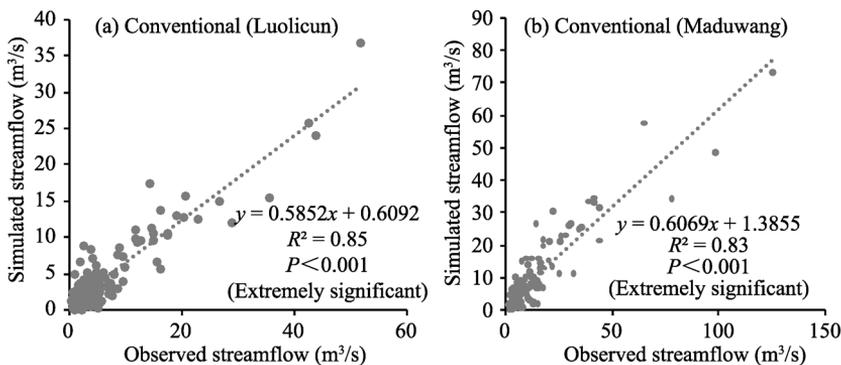


Figure 5 Regression analysis between monthly observed and simulated streamflows

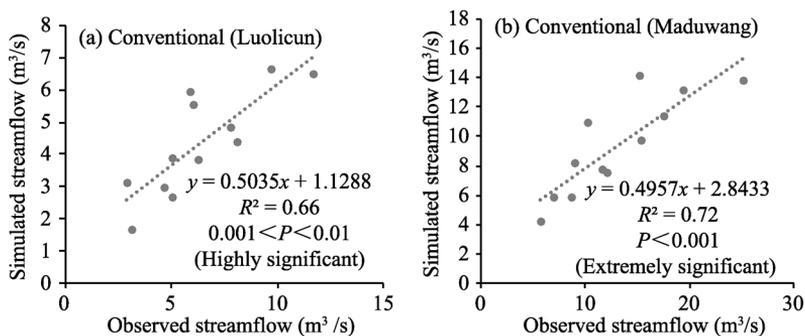


Figure 6 Regression analysis between annual observed and simulated streamflows

Table 2 Model performance evaluations for monthly and annual time scales in the Bahe River Basin using conventional and Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) weather simulations

Time scales	Hydro-gauging stations	Conventional		CFSR	
		<i>NSE</i>	<i>PBIAS</i>	<i>NSE</i>	<i>PBIAS</i>
Monthly	Luolicun	0.708	31.841	0.428	-4.260
	Maduwang	0.718	28.640	0.372	-14.401
Annual	Luolicun	0.151	31.840	0.339	-4.523
	Maduwang	0.182	28.587	0.370	-14.783

5.2 Model simulations with CFSR weather data

For the SWAT model hydrological simulation, CFSR weather data and conventional weather data had some features in common, but the differences were more obvious (Figures 3–8 and

Table 2). For example: (1) The simulated streamflow using CFSR weather data and observed streamflow had a highly ($0.001 < P < 0.01$) or extremely significant ($P < 0.001$) linear relationship, but the R^2 values at the two time scales were similar ($R^2_{\text{monthly}} > 0.50$, $R^2_{\text{annual}} > 0.52$). (2) NSE_{monthly} (Luolicun was 0.428, Maduwang was 0.372) were also higher than NSE_{annual} (Luolicun was 0.339, Maduwang was 0.370). NSE values greater than 0 suggested that simulation results were within satisfactory thresholds. Nonetheless, both NSE_{monthly} and NSE_{annual} were below 0.5, and the NSE_{annual} values of CFSR simulations were higher than those of conventional weather simulations. (3) For the same hydrological station, the NSE_{monthly} and NSE_{annual} of simulations using CFSR weather data were almost the same, but they were less than 0 and the degree of deviation of simulations was far lower than for the simulations produced using conventional weather data. A negative $PBIAS$ value indicated an overestimation. The SWAT model based on CFSR weather data performed well in hydrological simulations, but sometimes overestimated streamflow. Compared with annual simulations, monthly simulations were more accurate. If model calibration is performed, CFSR reanalysis data will be more applicable in the Bahe River Basin.

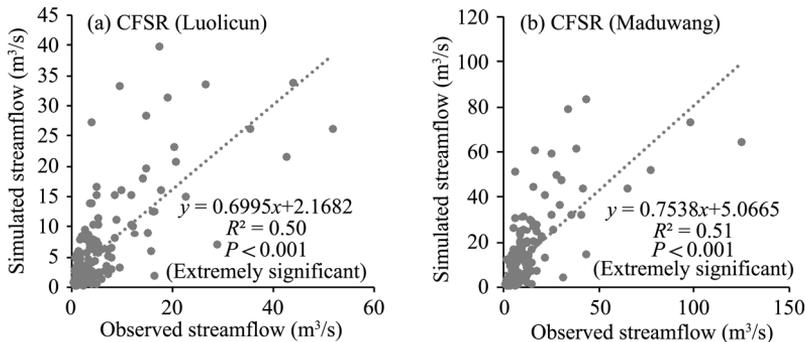


Figure 7 Regression analysis between monthly observed and simulated streamflows

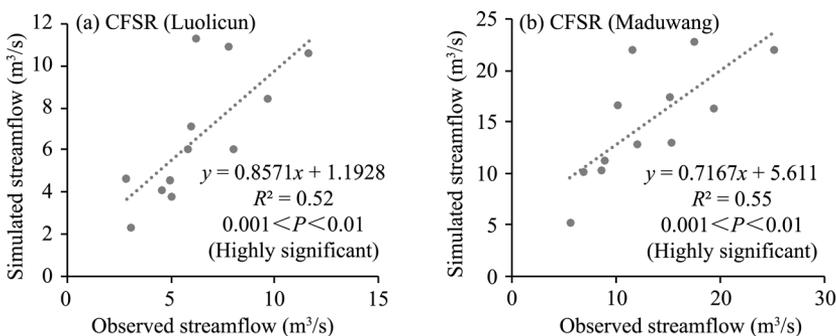


Figure 8 Regression analysis between annual observed and simulated streamflows

5.3 Comparison of simulated results based on the two sets of weather data

(1) Model evaluation criteria

According to the standard evaluation of model efficiency, the results above indicate that the conventional weather data in the SWAT model produced better simulations than the CFSR weather data overall. However, in terms of hydrological simulations, CFSR weather

data performed better than conventional weather data at annual time intervals, as did the *PBIAS* values.

(2) Simulation of water balance components

Figure 9 shows that the use of the two types of weather data in the estimation of water balance produced consistent results in the Bahe River Basin, but the CFSR weather data resulted in a higher estimated value at each stage of the water balance. For annual precipitation, the value estimated by CFSR weather data (884.3 mm) was 109.4 mm higher than the value from the conventional precipitation station (774.9 mm). Actual evapotranspiration (ET) and the surface runoff contribution to streamflow (SUR_Q) were not obviously different between simulations using conventional and CFSR weather data. Runoff simulated by CFSR weather data indicated a higher groundwater contribution to streamflow (GW_Q) and a higher lateral flow contribution to streamflow (LAT_Q) than conventional weather data. In addition, the water yield (WYLD) value simulated by CFSR weather data was 106.3 mm higher than in the simulation using conventional weather. We need to understand why the CFSR simulation results for base and peak flow were overestimated.

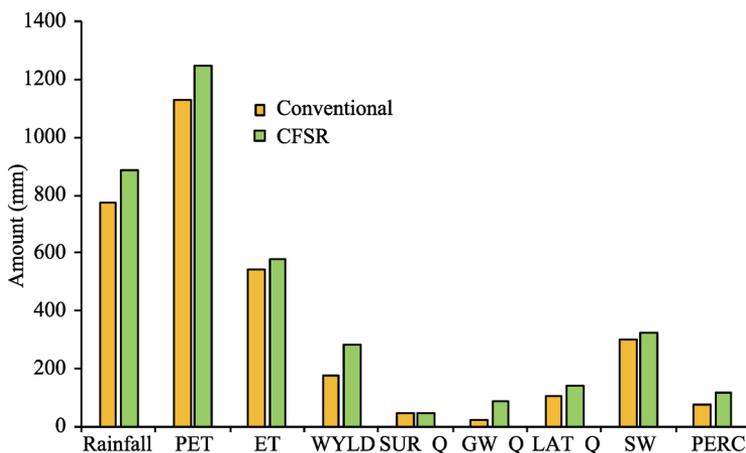


Figure 9 Water balance components for the conventional and Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) weather data simulations in the Bahe River Basin (Rainfall, average annual precipitation; PET, potential evapotranspiration; ET, actual evapotranspiration; WYLD, water yield (= SUR_Q + LAT_Q+GW_Q-TLOSS); SUR_Q, surface runoff contribution to streamflow; GW_Q, groundwater contribution to streamflow; LAT_Q, lateral flow contribution to streamflow; SW, soil water content; PERC, water percolating passed the root zone; Q-TLOSS, transmission loss)

(3) Simulation of actual evapotranspiration

Figure 10 shows the average monthly actual evapotranspiration in the Bahe River Basin simulated by the SWAT model in 2001–2012. In terms of actual evapotranspiration, both simulation results were almost the same (a difference of just 35.2 mm), and the two curves were also extended with a similar regularity, displaying a “Λ”-shaped pattern throughout the year. In particular, the conventional weather simulation gave higher estimates than the CFSR weather simulation from January to June, but the opposite happened from July to December.

(4) Simulation of average monthly streamflow

From Figure 11, it can be seen that there are two high peak values of flow in the basin, which occurred in May and September, respectively. Although both types of weather data

could simulate the change of flood season well, they underestimated the peak flow in May. It was found that CFSR weather data could satisfactorily simulate the peak flow in September, but compared with the observed and simulated streamflows obtained using the conventional weather data, the CFSR weather data overestimated the runoff in July and August. This was mainly because the rainfall simulation of the CFSR reanalysis data was about 52.85 and 28.33% higher than the observed rainfall in July and August (Figure 10). It was also the main reason why CFSR precipitation was higher than the observed rainfall at annual time scales. The runoff processes simulated by the two types of weather data from January to May were almost the same, but their values were significantly underestimated compared to the observed runoff.

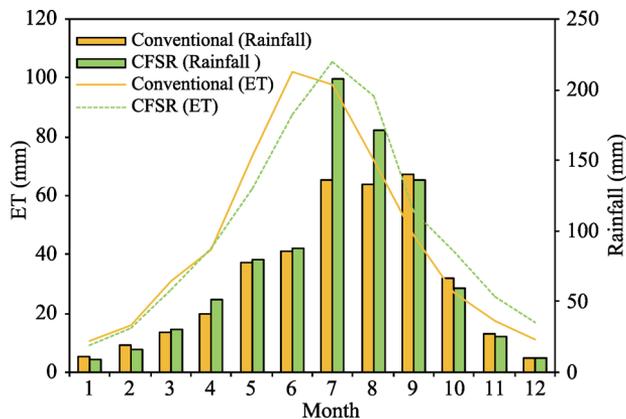


Figure 10 Average monthly actual evapotranspiration simulated with conventional and Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) weather data in the Bahe River Basin

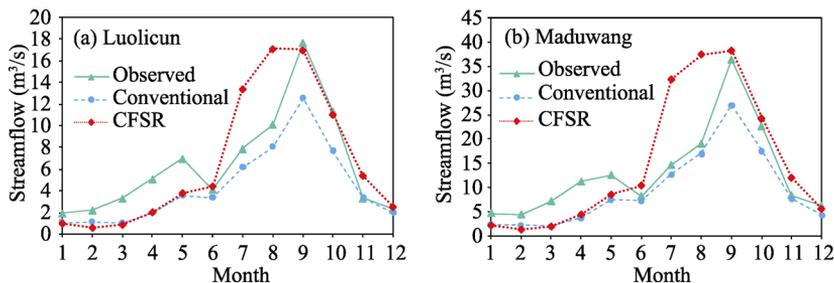


Figure 11 Average monthly streamflow hydrograph simulated with conventional and Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) weather data in the Bahe River Basin

5.4 Attribution analysis and CFSR weather data revision

For the runoff simulation of the SWAT model, when the conventional weather simulations were compared with the CFSR weather data simulations from multiple evaluation criteria, some issues still remained.

(1) In the hydrological simulation without model calibration, for the R^2 and NSE values of the runoff simulation, the annual simulation using conventional weather data produced lower values than the monthly simulations. This was mainly due to the many precipitation stations operating in the flood season (from April to October) in the Bahe River Basin (Table 1). For this reason, annual precipitation was underestimated compared to the actual value. However,

this situation could be improved by calibrating the model parameters.

(2) Rainfall is an important factor in the process of runoff generation and flow concentration. The average annual rainfall (884.3 mm) estimated by the CFSR simulation was 14.11% more than that recorded at conventional precipitation stations (774.9 mm). In terms of changes in rainfall, there were no significant differences during the other months, except for July and August for which rainfall amounts were far higher than those recorded at conventional precipitation stations. In terms of water balance, CFSR rainfall made a large contribution to base flow, lateral flow and water yield. This was an important reason why CFSR simulations overestimated the annual flows, and simulated higher monthly base and peak flows. Fortunately, CFSR weather data can effectively compensate for the inadequacies of conventional weather data. It is likely that CFSR weather data will have the potential for a broad application in hydrological predictions.

CFSR weather data is a product based on conventional ground observation data, satellite remote sensing data, and highly advanced and coupled atmospheric-oceanic-surface modeling components, and it has a high degree of space-time resolution (Dile and Srinivasan, 2014). Therefore, there must be a certain relationship between estimated and observed precipitation data (Hu *et al.*, 2013; Worqlul *et al.*, 2014; Blacutt *et al.*, 2015). There have been many studies that have revised observed weather data (Ye *et al.*, 2007), but few investigators have conducted revisions of global climate reanalysis data or weather satellite data. Studies of reanalysis weather data revisions are still at an exploratory stage. In some related studies (Zhao *et al.*, 2010; Fuka *et al.*, 2014; Dile and Srinivasan, 2014; Worqlul *et al.*, 2014; Yu and Mu, 2015; Blacutt *et al.*, 2015), the investigators did not consider the revision of CFSR weather data. Some researchers have focused on the statistical characterization of CFSR and conventional weather data, but they have not proposed a method of data revision. Some researchers have considered that revised CFSR weather data could be better used in hydrological models, but some problems exist with their proposed revisal methods (Table 3).

Based on previous studies, we selected various CFSR stations and their adjacent

Table 3 Advances in methods used to revise reanalysis data in recent years

Researcher	Year	Revising data or not	Revisal method	Notes
Dile <i>et al.</i>	2014	No	–	They introduced Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) data into a Soil Water and Assessment Tool (SWAT) model, but did not undertake a revision.
Fuka <i>et al.</i>	2014	No	–	
Worqlul <i>et al.</i>	2014	No	–	They found that the estimates of Multi-Sensor Precipitation Estimate–Geostationary (MPEG) and CFSR data conformed to the actual value, but CFSR overestimated or underestimated precipitation at some stations.
Blacutt <i>et al.</i>	2015	No	–	They focused on the contrast between the statistical characteristics of CFSR and conventional weather data, ignoring their relevance at a monthly scale.
Zhao <i>et al.</i>	2015	No	–	They used a monadic linear regression to analyze Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) satellite data and observed precipitation data and found that the degree of fitting was relatively high. However, they did not give the fitting equation for the stations investigated.
Yu <i>et al.</i>	2015	Yes	Error ratio method	They defined a correction coefficient (measured annual precipitation/CFSR annual precipitation), but the modified scale was large.

conventional precipitation stations to conduct a regression analysis at monthly and annual scales, respectively. By comparing the fitting effects of different functional models, we found that the R^2 value of a power exponent model at a monthly time scale was the highest. From Figure 12, it was evident that the fitting at five stations was very poor, with low R^2 values (0.15–0.53). However, monthly R^2 values were greater than 0.96 ($P < 0.001$), indicating that CFSR rainfall and observed precipitation had an extremely significant power exponent relation. The different stations had different power exponent fitting equations and R^2 values. R^2 values in high altitude stations (> 1100 m) were slightly larger than in low altitude stations (< 700 m). The percentage error lines of the scatter diagram in Figure 12 show that when monthly CFSR precipitation at high altitude stations was greater than 100 mm, the percentage

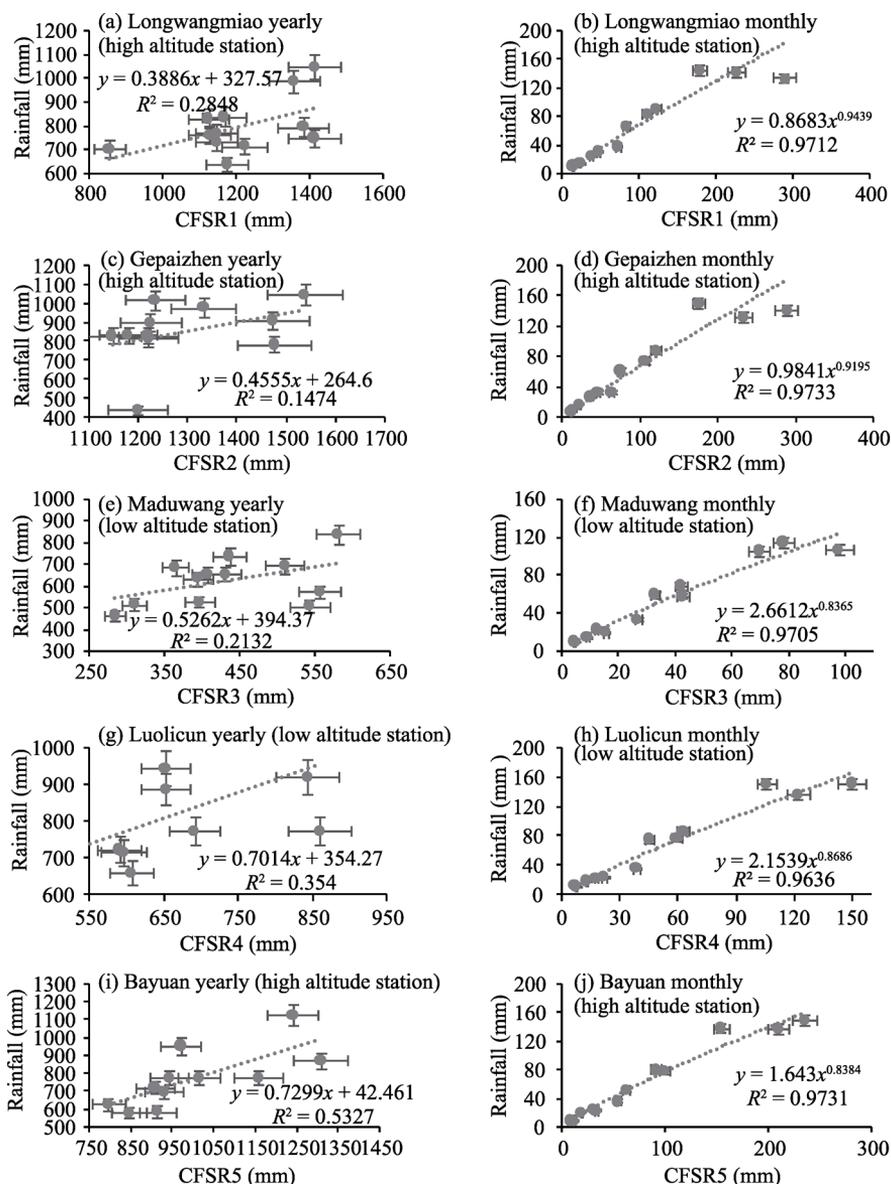


Figure 12 Annual and monthly precipitation fitting between observed rainfall stations and Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) stations

error displayed an increasing trend. However, to achieve the same trend, precipitation at low altitude stations only needed to exceed 35 mm. Furthermore, we calculated the multi-year average monthly precipitation for five CFSR stations and 12 observed rainfall stations, respectively, and after fitting, we found that they equally well satisfied a power exponent relation. The fitting equation was as follows:

$$y = 1.4789x^{0.8875} \quad (R^2=0.98, P<0.001) \quad (3)$$

where x is the average monthly precipitation for a CFSR station, and y is the average monthly precipitation for a conventional precipitation station. This equation is based on the fitting of multi-year average monthly precipitation data, and needs to be more stable to reflect the relationship between the two types of weather data at monthly time scales. Using this equation, the monthly precipitation from CFSR weather data will be more accurate. The R^2 value of this power exponent equation was higher than that of the monadic linear equation proposed by Zhao *et al.* (2015), which provides a reference method for the revision of CFSR rainfall data.

5.5 The performance of revised CFSR weather data

There was an extremely significant power exponent relationship between the precipitation from CFSR stations and observed rainfall in the Bahe River Basin. To some extent, CFSR weather data can compensate for the shortcomings of conventional weather data in base flow and flood simulations. Runoff in the basin is not only associated with total rainfall, but is also related to the distribution of rainfall intensity (Zhou *et al.*, 2005). Compared with the daily observed precipitation, CFSR daily rainfall data causes problems such as the overestimation of rainfall days or torrential rain intensity, which results in problems with the accuracy of the data and its applicability to certain regions. So how can we solve these problems? We conjecture that if the CFSR precipitation data is revised by the fitting equation in Figure 12, the errors associated with CFSR weather data may be reduced. We can then input the revised CFSR rainfall data to the SWAT model, with the other conditions unchanged, and operate the model again to produce a more satisfactory simulation result.

To clearly and intuitively demonstrate the difference in the simulation results before and after the revision of CFSR weather data, we undertook a comparison of the monthly runoff simulation at Maduwang hydrological station from 2001 to 2003 (Figure 13). From the scatter plots in Figure 13, it can be seen that the simulation was clearly improved after the revision. To put this in perspective, before revision, the R^2 value was 0.8223, the NSE value was 0.807, and the $PBIAS$ value was 1.270. After revision, the R^2 value was 0.8516, the NSE value was 0.850, and the $PBIAS$ value was -5.018 . The discharge hydrograph displayed several changes before and after the revision of CFSR weather data. For example, after revision, CFSR precipitation data improved the base flow, reduced the small flood peak flow (e.g., in July 2001, August and September 2002), and increased the big flood peak flow (e.g., in April 2001, June 2002, April and September 2003) to make it closer to the observed peak value. This confirmed that the revision of CFSR precipitation data produced a better hydrological simulation in the Bahe River Basin, and also improved the efficiency of the SWAT model. At the same time, it also confirmed that the data revision method presented in formula (3) was effective.

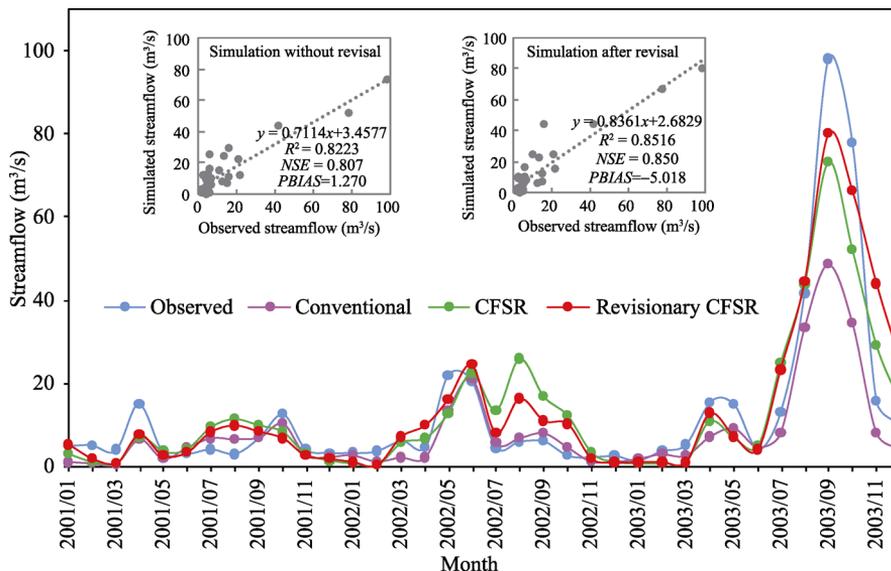


Figure 13 Contrast in simulation results (2001–2003) before and after the revision of Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (CFSR) weather data at Maduwang hydrological station

6 Conclusions and discussion

We investigated the applicability of CFSR weather data for hydrological simulation in the Bahe River Basin. The main results were as follows. (1) CFSR and conventional weather data had their own advantages and disadvantages for hydrological simulation using the SWAT model. We found that the NSE value of the simulation results was low ($0.33 < NSE < 0.5$), while the performance was improved when using the SWAT model with revised CFSR weather data (Figure 13). From the overall evaluation results, conventional weather data still had some advantages in runoff simulation, but revised CFSR weather data might be a good option for areas with a lack of observed data. (2) Simulation results driven by the two types of weather data were different at different time scales. Streamflows simulated by conventional weather data were lower than observed streamflows, with a $PBIAS$ value between 28.5 and 31.9. Streamflows simulated by CFSR weather data were higher than observed streamflows, with a $PBIAS$ value between -14.8 and -4.26 . The main reason for this was that some rainfall stations were only used in the flood season, which would lead to a lower observed rainfall. However, CFSR daily rainfall data had a longer duration and a stronger rainfall intensity, and therefore it could simulate a higher base flow and peak flow just in terms of water balance. After analysis and comparison, some CFSR stations underestimated rainfall in the flood season and annual rainfall in some wet years, which led directly to a reduction in surface runoff, and caused an underestimation of runoff in some years (September of 2003, 2005, 2009, and 2005). This was determined by the system error and data quality of CFSR weather data, but also indicated the necessity of revising CFSR weather data. (3) Overall, there was an extremely significant power exponent relationship between observed rainfall data (y) and CFSR rainfall data (x), which could be expressed as $y = 1.4789 x^{0.8875}$ ($R^2 = 0.98$, $P < 0.001$), but the fitting equation and R^2 value for each pair of stations were different. After the revision of CFSR weather data, it was found that the R^2 value in-

creased from 0.8223 to 0.8516, the *NSE* value increased from 0.807 to 0.850, and the accuracy of base flow and peak flow simulation was also improved. To some extent, this compensated for the deficiencies of simulations by conventional weather data and unrevised CFSR weather data.

CFSR weather data has many advantages over conventional weather data in that it not only provides a complete set of climatic data, but also has the flexibility to be applied to different hydrological models. In addition, it has the advantages of high space-time resolution, easy data collection, and reducing the cost of study. In terms of hydrological simulation, CFSR weather data could be a valuable option for some areas lacking observed data (Dile and Srinivasan, 2014). Because of terrain, the type of climate forecast model used, and system errors, CFSR reanalysis data for daily rainfall and rainy days were overestimated in the wet period. This meant that it was not possible to use CFSR weather data for hydrological simulations without data quality control and an applicability evaluation analysis. A preliminary attempt was undertaken in this study in terms of revision of CFSR rainfall data, which found a good power exponent relationship between CFSR and observed rainfall data. The method used to revise CFSR reanalysis data and a comparison of the effects on the data before and after revision were also studied and discussed. However, due to space constraints, we presented only a preliminary discussion of the method used to revise CFSR reanalysis data. Moreover, the weather input data of the SWAT model also includes daily temperature, daily wind speed, daily relative humidity and daily solar radiation, and there may be quantitative relations between these factors and observed data. There may be a more scientific and effective method for the revision of CFSR weather data. These issues need to be investigated in the future work.

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