

1 **Evaluation and Comparison of the GWR Merged Precipitation and**  
2 **Multi-Source Weighted-Ensemble Precipitation based on High-**  
3 **density Gauge Measurement**

4

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 Accurate estimation of precipitation in both space and time is essential for  
16 hydrological research. We compared multi-source weighted ensemble precipitation  
17 (MSWEP) with multi-source fused satellite precipitation (CHIRPS) based on high-  
18 density rain gauge precipitation observations in the Taihu Lake basin. We proposed a  
19 new merge precipitation algorithm GWRMP based on the geographically weighted  
20 regression (GWR) method. GWRMP corrects the bias of MSWEP by using high-  
21 density rain gauge precipitation to address the common problem of daily precipitation  
22 underestimation in MSWEP. The large-scale spatial coverage of the water surface in  
23 this region leads to the uneven distribution of rain gauges on the lake. There are  
24 differences in the descriptive ability of the three spatial precipitation types, MSWEP,  
25 GWRMP, and IDW, for spatial and temporal precipitation information in the Taihu  
26 Lake basin. A comparison shows that GWRMP has a significant advantage in  
27 obtaining the spatial and temporal variability of precipitation in areas with complex

28 topographic conditions. GWRMP compensates the problem of underestimation of  
29 precipitation by MSWEP (10% to 25%), and avoids the risk of the high dependence of  
30 IDW on rain gauges, and improves the accuracy of spatial and temporal precipitation  
31 in large lake areas with sparse distribution of rain gauges (Pbias limited to 10%).  
32 GWRMP improved the estimation for different rainfall intensities in the Taihu Lake  
33 basin, especially in the mid-level rainfall and above precipitation frequencies.  
34 Compared with IDW and MSWEP, GWRMP is more suitable for intense precipitation  
35 monitoring and storm flood frequency study in the basin. Therefore, GWRMP is a  
36 better choice for spatial and temporal estimation of precipitation in the Taihu Lake  
37 basin. The GWRMP algorithm can be applied to other regions with unevenly spaced  
38 high-density rain gauges.

39 **Keywords:** Multi-Source Weighted-Ensemble Precipitation, GWR Merged  
40 Precipitation, Accuracy Evaluation System, Spatial Inhomogeneity, Taihu Lake Basin.

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## 41 1. INTRODUCTION

42 As the principal medium of energy, water exchange, and transport between land  
43 and the atmosphere, precipitation is one of the most basic meteorological and  
44 hydrological elements that have high spatial variability. The acquisition of high-  
45 quality spatial and temporal precipitation data is the basis of global and regional  
46 climate change studies and land surface hydrological processes (Behrangi et al.,  
47 2011). Taking full advantage of different precipitation acquisition methods and  
48 integrating spatial distribution information of precipitation from various sources has  
49 become an important development direction in the development of regional or global  
50 precipitation data internationally.

51 Radar precipitation is highly dependent on base information for regional and  
52 reanalysis rainfall. Satellite precipitation can cover a large part of the globe with high  
53 spatial and temporal resolution. Satellite fusion precipitation products include Global  
54 Precipitation Climatology Project (GPCP)(George J. Huffman, Adler, Bolvin, & Gu,  
55 2009; 2001), TMPA from Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission (TRMM) (George J.  
56 Huffman, Adler, Bolvin, & Nelkin, 2010), Integrated Multi-Satellite Retrievals  
57 (IMERG) for GPM (George J. Huffman, Bolvin, Nelkin, & Jackson 2015) and  
58 CHIRPS data (Climate Hazards Infrared Precipitation with Stations) (Funk et al.,  
59 2015). With the advancement of observed precipitation technology, the fused  
60 precipitation data sources are no longer limited to multi-satellite fusion, but towards  
61 multiple pathways such as radar, satellite, and reanalysis. In 2002, the U.S. Climate  
62 Prediction Center Morphing Technique developed a high-resolution CMORPH  
63 precipitation product with global coverage(Joyce, Janowiak, Arkin, & Xie,  
64 2004).Beck et al. (2017; 2018) integrated various types of precipitation data such as  
65 CPC Unified, GPCC, CMORPH, GSMaP-MVK, TMPA 3B42RT, ERA-Interim, JRA-  
66 55, etc., and proposed MSWEP V2.1, a multi-source precipitation fusion data based  
67 on a weighted ensemble. MSWEP has the advantages of global coverage and high  
68 spatial and temporal resolution (3 hours,  $0.1\times 0.1^\circ$ ) and long time series (1979

69 present). CHIRPS and MSWEP have both long time series and high spatial and  
70 temporal resolution features, which are more suitable for precipitation-related  
71 meteorological drought monitoring and storm flood frequency analysis (Abro, Zhu,  
72 Ali Khaskheli, Elahi, & Aleem ul Hassan Ramay, 2020; Funk et al., 2015; Liu, Wei,  
73 Zhang, Zhang, & Lliu, 2020; Xu et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2020).

74 Integration of precipitation data from various sources requires both  
75 spatiotemporal resolution and application conditions. Therefore, accuracy assessment  
76 is essential for region-specific applications. The accuracy assessment results of  
77 CHIRPS and MSWEP in different regions of the world show that the fused  
78 precipitation data, despite the accuracy validation in many studies, have obvious  
79 precipitation underestimation problems and limited capability in estimating heavy  
80 precipitation. (Akhilesh, nair, & Indu, 2017; Alijanian, Rakhshandehroo, Mishra, &  
81 Dehghani, 2017; Awange, Hu, & Khaki, 2019; Darand & Khandu, 2020; Deng, Jiang,  
82 Wang, & Iv, 2018). Currently, most studies related to the application of CHIRPS and  
83 MSWEP evaluate or validate the accuracy of rainfall estimates and analyze the error  
84 characteristics, and then determine the applicability of various fused precipitation data  
85 to the study area and content. Precipitation accuracy assessment has generally taken a  
86 time-series accuracy assessment method based on rain gauges. This method does not  
87 consider the correlation between precipitation events and neighboring spatial units,  
88 which can be inadequate in characterizing the spatial structure characteristics of  
89 precipitation. We evaluate the accuracy of the fused precipitation data in terms of time  
90 series, space, and intensity, which can fully describe its accuracy characteristics.  
91 Furthermore, it compares the applicability of data from several sources in the study  
92 region.

93 For regions with a good observation database, surface rainfall is mainly obtained  
94 based on dense rainfall observation stations. The accuracy of surface rainfall depends  
95 on the density and uniformity of distribution of the observation station network. The  
96 distribution of rainfall stations in the Taihu Lake basin is relatively dense, and there is

97 a long time series of surface precipitation observation records. However, there are  
98 fewer rainfall stations in the large lakes in the basin. Therefore, the limited rainfall  
99 observation information is not enough to accurately reflect the real distribution of  
100 precipitation in the large lakes. The multi-source ensemble spatial precipitation data  
101 applicable to the Taihu Lake basin were chosen preferably as a source of precipitation  
102 information analysis, which could help investigate the space-time evolution patterns  
103 of meteorological and hydrological elements in the watershed. CHIRPS and MSWEP  
104 have high Spatio-temporal accuracy compared with other fused precipitation data, but  
105 there is a problem of precipitation underestimation. We correct the accuracy of multi-  
106 source fused precipitation based on the precipitation observed by intensive rain  
107 gauges and obtain fused precipitation data with a high spatial resolution and accurate  
108 precipitation estimation capability. This data provides more refined precipitation data  
109 for hydro-meteorological studies in the whole Taihu Lake basin. The excellent surface  
110 observation data in the Taihu Lake basin provides both a foundation for the accuracy  
111 of MSWEP precipitation calibration and sufficient measured precipitation comparison  
112 information for MSWEP and the accuracy assessment of the corrected fused  
113 precipitation.

114 Since the flood season, rainfall is the main part (more than 60%) of the annual  
115 precipitation in the Taihu Lake basin, and the heavy rainfall that has an important  
116 impact on the regional socio-economy also occurs mostly during this period. We  
117 focused on the fusion estimation of precipitation in the Taihu Lake Basin during the  
118 flood season. The specific research ideas are as follows: (1) Collect and organize the  
119 precipitation data in the Taihu Lake basin during the flood season (May to  
120 September), including daily rainfall station observations from 1979 to 2016, MSWEP  
121 raster precipitation data from 1979 to 2016 ( $0.1^{\circ} \times 0.1^{\circ}$ ), and CHIRPS raster  
122 precipitation data from 1981 to 2016 precipitation information ( $0.05^{\circ} \times 0.05^{\circ}$ ). (2)  
123 Comparative analysis of CHIRPS and MSWEP daily precipitation accuracy based on  
124 rain gauge rainfall, and preferable selection of suitable multi-source fused spatial

125 precipitation information sources. (3) Construct a fused precipitation estimation  
126 model based on GWR and generate ground-checked multi-source fused precipitation  
127 data (GWRMP). (4) Construct a Spatio-temporal precipitation accuracy assessment  
128 system to systematically evaluate the capability of GWRMP in capturing multi-source  
129 precipitation information such as temporal, spatial, and precipitation intensity in the  
130 Taihu basin.

## 131 **2. DATA AND METHODS**

### 132 **2.1 Study Area**

133 Taihu Lake Basin is located in the Yangtze River Delta area of China (Figure 1).  
134 It is adjacent to the Yangtze River in the north, Qiantang River in the south, and the  
135 sea in the east. The total area of the basin is 36,869 km<sup>2</sup>, of which the water area is  
136 6134 km<sup>2</sup> and the water surface proportion is 17%. It is a typical plain river network  
137 area, located in the subtropical monsoon climate zone with four distinct seasons and  
138 abundant rainfall. The average annual precipitation is 1,185 mm, with the bulk of  
139 precipitation occurring during the flood season (May to September) at 726 mm,  
140 approximately 61% of the annual precipitation. The topography of the basin is  
141 complex and includes mountainous, plain, and lake topography, with a dense river  
142 network and numerous lakes. The Central Lake area is the third-largest freshwater  
143 lake in China, with a water area of nearly 2338 km<sup>2</sup>. The complex terrain and climate  
144 conditions are characterized by low terrain in the middle of the basin and high in the  
145 surrounding areas, thus, flooding is easy to produce and difficult to eliminate. Taihu  
146 Lake Basin is one of the most developed areas in China, with a dense population and  
147 large- and medium-sized cities. Once a flood disaster occurs, the resulting social and  
148 economic losses are serious. According to the distribution of the river system, the  
149 Taihu Basin (THB) can be categorized into seven water conservancy zones (Figure 1):  
150 district of Huxi (HX), Hangjiahu (HJH), HQ, Wuchengxiyu (WCXY),  
151 Yangchengdianmao (YCDM), Pudongpuxi district (PDPX), and Zhexi (ZX). Taking  
152 into account the terrain height difference, the Taihu Basin can also be divided into

153 three terrain areas: district of mountainous (ZX), lake (HQ), and plain (HX, WCXY,  
154 YCDM, HJH, PDPX). Figure 1(a) shows the geographical location of the Taihu Lake  
155 Basin, and Figures 1(b) and 1(c) show the physical geography and socio-economic  
156 overview of the Taihu Lake Basin, respectively.

157

158 [Insert Figure 1]

159

## 160 **2.2 Datasets**

### 161 ***2.2.1 Precipitation data of the rainfall station network***

162 The observation data of daily precipitation in Taihu Lake Basin mainly originate  
163 from the hydrological yearbook of the basin, and the precipitation data have been  
164 reorganized and quality controlled. There is a high-density rainfall gauge network in  
165 the study area, and the spatial distribution of gauges is shown in Figure 1(d). The  
166 number of available rainfall stations varies from year to year. We used 130 gauges of  
167 rain daily observation precipitation data in Taihu Lake Basin from 1979 to 2016 as the  
168 calibration benchmark to determine the accuracy of the spatial rainfall data in Taihu  
169 Lake Basin. Meanwhile, eight rain gauges in the water conservancy zone are reserved,  
170 and the remaining 122 rain gauges are used for inverse distance interpolation to obtain  
171 the spatial precipitation IDW ( $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ ).

### 172 ***2.2.2 Climate Hazards Infrared Precipitation with Stations ( CHIRPS )***

173 The long series multi-source satellite fusion precipitation uses the CHIRPS daily  
174 precipitation dataset proposed by the USGS/Group on Climate Hazards (GCH)  
175 science team that can be used in conjunction with surface models. This data covers  
176 most of the global land area ( $50^\circ$  S to  $50^\circ$  N) and is characterized by low latency, high  
177 resolution ( $0.05^\circ$ ), and long records (1981 to present). The data can be downloaded at  
178 <https://data.chc.ucsb.edu/products/CHIRPS-2.0/>. We used the global  $0.05^\circ \times 0.05^\circ$   
179 CHIRPS daily precipitation data from 1981 to 2016, and obtained the CHIRPS spatial  
180 daily precipitation data of Taihu Lake basin by cropping and other pre-processing.

### 181 **2.2.3 Multi-Source Weighted-Ensemble Precipitation (MSWEP)**

182 The MSWEP precipitation information was obtained using the latest version 2  
183 data released by the European Union Joint Research Centre (EU/JRC), which covers  
184 the global region with a spatial and temporal resolution of 3 h and  $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ ,  
185 respectively, and the data can be downloaded at <http://www.gloh2o.org/>. We used the  
186 precipitation data from 1979 to 2016 MSWEP periods and obtained the daily  
187 precipitation cumulatively based on the three hours of precipitation within each day.  
188 The raw data were stitched by MRT and cropped by ArcGIS to obtain the daily spatial  
189 precipitation data of MSWEP in the Taihu Lake basin.

## 190 **2.3 GWRMP Merged Precipitation Estimation and Accuracy Assessment Method**

### 191 **2.3.1 GWRMP merging precipitation estimation**

192 There are many precipitation fusion methods, but the basic idea is to use spatial  
193 precipitation products such as satellites as the initial estimation field of precipitation,  
194 calculate the difference between the rainfall observed at the same location station and  
195 the initial estimation field, use the empirical function method to calculate the weights  
196 of the different points and obtain the error field according to the weight interpolation  
197 error, and superimpose the error field and the initial estimation field to obtain the  
198 prediction field (Wang, 2019). Brunson, Fotheringham, and Charlton (1998)  
199 proposed a spatial regression model-geographic weighted regression model based on  
200 the spatial variable coefficient regression model using the idea of local smoothness,  
201 which applies to the quantitative simulation of non-stationary spatial relationships  
202 among variables. Hu, Yang, Wang, Yang, and Liu (2013) proposed a residual-based  
203 GWR rainfall fusion scheme, which was later widely used in rainfall fusion analysis  
204 calculation(Chao et al., 2018;). The GWRMP model mainly includes the following  
205 three steps: (1) obtaining the rainfall deviation between rainfall station precipitation  
206 and corresponding spatial precipitation. (2) Interpolating the local characteristics of  
207 spatial precipitation as weights and interpolating the geographically weighted  
208 regression of rainfall station precipitation deviation to obtain the spatial distribution of

209 rainfall error. (3) Through the inverse operation of the rain gauge rainfall bias  
210 estimation method, the obtained spatial errors are superimposed with the spatial  
211 precipitation to obtain the geographically weighted regression-based fused  
212 precipitation data GWRMP. The specific calculation formula refers to the literature  
213 (Li, 2018).

### 214 **2.3.2 Timing accuracy evaluation index system**

215 We take the daily precipitation data of actual sites as the benchmark to evaluate  
216 the accuracy of daily precipitation of IDW, MSWEP, and GWRMP grids. The  
217 indicator system includes classification, volume classification, and quantitative  
218 indicators. Quantitative accuracy indicators reflected the accuracy of daily  
219 precipitation description by fused precipitation data. We used the common relative  
220 bias (Pbias ), the coefficient of determination (RR)(He et al., 2017), Root Mean  
221 Square Error (RMSE), and Kling-Gupta efficiency (KGE)(Pool, Vis, & Seibert, 2018)  
222 metrics to assess the consistency of fused daily precipitation with the baseline  
223 precipitation in terms of time series distribution. The details of each accuracy index  
224 are shown in Equations (1) to (7) in the Appendix.

225 The classification index mainly reflects the ability of fused precipitation to  
226 recognize the occurrence of daily precipitation events. We used the probability of  
227 detection (POD) to determine the degree of under-reporting of daily precipitation  
228 events by MSWEP, and Heidke's skill score (HSS) to synthesize the ability of fused  
229 precipitation to estimate the occurrence of daily precipitation events in the raster of  
230 the Taihu Lake basin(Hu et al., 2013). The volumetric classification index is an  
231 extension of the classification index, which strengthens the ability to identify  
232 precipitation and overcomes the shortcomings of the traditional classification index to  
233 a certain extent. The study used the volumetric detection index (VHI) to assess the  
234 detection ability to merge precipitation to raster precipitation (AghaKouchak &  
235 Mehran, 2013). The specific formulas for each time-series accuracy index are detailed  
236 in Equations (8) to (10) in Appendix A.

### 237 **2.3.3 Sliding space precipitation accuracy evaluation**

238 The sliding window statistical method can quantify the spatial precipitation  
239 accuracy. We analyzed the relationship between GWRMP and IDW errors and the  
240 density of ground rain gauges. The precipitation accuracy of GWRMP is less affected  
241 by the density of rain gauges compared to IDW from a side perspective. The  
242 precipitation accuracy of GWRMP may be better than that of conventional  
243 interpolated precipitation in areas with uneven distribution of ground observations.  
244 Under ideal conditions, the higher the density of rainfall stations in the study area, the  
245 higher the spatial precipitation accuracy of IDW, and the smaller the difference  
246 between GWRMP and IDW. The above statistical results indicate that IDW has  
247 significant errors in spatial precipitation accuracy in the area observed by few rainfall  
248 stations, and its spatial precipitation information inversion capability is lower than  
249 that of GWRMP, which indirectly proves that GWRMP is better than IDW in  
250 describing spatial precipitation information. Figure 2 shows the specific process of  
251 sliding window statistical analysis of spatial precipitation accuracy. Considering that  
252 the statistical results may be affected by the window size, the study selects 2×2, 3×3,  
253 and 4×4 sliding windows. The window unit is moved from left to right and from top  
254 to bottom, counting the count gauges (CG) and mean deviation (MD) of the rainfall  
255 stations in each window.

256

257 [Insert Figure 2]

258

### 259 **2.3.4 Systematic evaluation of precipitation accuracy with multi-method** 260 **combinations**

261 Interpolation methods are common to reflect spatial precipitation information in  
262 areas where rain gauges are densely and evenly distributed. The Taihu Lake basin has  
263 a large lake area where rain gauges are densely distributed but not uniform.  
264 Nevertheless, interpolated precipitation is the principal research method for spatial

265 precipitation studies in the Taihu Lake basin. This study took the spatial precipitation  
266 obtained by the commonly used inverse distance interpolation algorithm as a  
267 reference, analyzed the differences in the accuracy of IDW, MSWEP, and ground  
268 checked GWRMP daily precipitation, and systematically evaluated the reliability of  
269 GWRMP daily precipitation. Considering the strong dependence of IDW precipitation  
270 on the location of rainfall stations, eight rainfall stations (covering seven water  
271 subdivisions in the Taihu Lake basin) are reserved for daily precipitation observation  
272 data as a reference for spatial precipitation accuracy calibration. Table 1 shows the  
273 spatial location information of the reserved rain gauges. The distribution of rain  
274 gauges in the Taihu Lake area is extremely uneven (Figure 1), and two rain gauges  
275 were reserved for calibration.

276

277 [Insert Table 1]

278

279 Advance rain gauge methods are affected by objective conditions such as  
280 topography, and the accuracy assessment results may have errors. We also applied the  
281 counting precision results of rain gauges within each water subarea to evaluate and  
282 compare the precipitation precision in all aspects of time series, space, and intensity.  
283 This method has the risk of high accuracy of IDW precipitation due to the dual role of  
284 interpolated precipitation IDW and accuracy assessment benchmark by 130 rain  
285 gauges. However, the accuracy evaluation results are much more statistically  
286 significant when the accuracy evaluation and zonal comparison are carried out based  
287 on more rain gauge precipitation samples. By the proposed method, we evaluate the  
288 accuracy of 130 rain gauges measured precipitation and its corresponding spatial  
289 precipitation MSWEP, GWRMP, and IDW. The results overall show the ability of  
290 each spatial precipitation data in capturing Spatio-temporal precipitation information  
291 in the Taihu Lake basin.

### 292 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 293 **3.1 Long series multi-source fusion precipitation data optimization**

294 Multi-source ensemble precipitation combines the advantages of rainfall from  
295 different sources. However, there are large differences in the Spatio-temporal  
296 accuracy and time series length of precipitation data. For long-term precipitation  
297 change statistics in the Taihu Lake basin, we select the multi-source satellite fused  
298 precipitation CHIRPS from 1981 to present and the multi-source ensemble  
299 precipitation MSWEP v2.1 data since 1979 from numerous spatial precipitation data.  
300 We used 130 rainfall stations with measured daily precipitation in the Taihu Lake  
301 basin as the benchmark. Analysis of the precipitation detection accuracy of CHIRPS  
302 and MSWEP in terms of time series and rain intensity filtered the daily-scale spatial  
303 precipitation data that best characterize the Taihu Lake basin.

304 Using the high-density and long-series ground rain gauge observations, we took  
305 the seven hydraulic subareas in the Taihu Lake basin as the statistical unit. We plotted  
306 the scatter plots of sub-region rain gauge precipitation with the corresponding raster  
307 rainfall of CHIRPS and MSWEP v2.1, respectively (Figure 3). The results show that  
308 the consistency of daily precipitation with rainfall stations is significantly higher for  
309 MSWEP than CHIRPS. The correlation coefficients between MSWEP daily  
310 precipitation series and ground rain gauges observed precipitation are above 0.75 for  
311 all water subdivisions. The correlation coefficients between CHIRPS daily  
312 precipitation series and ground daily observed precipitation generally range from 0.61  
313 to 0.63. It is worth noting that there is an underestimation of daily rainfall for the  
314 MSWEP phenomenon, a problem of systematic errors in this data, which has been  
315 proved in many studies (Akhilesh et al., 2017; Alijanian, Rakhshandehroo, Mishra, &  
316 Dehghani, 2019; Deng et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2020). In contrast, despite the  
317 underestimation of daily precipitation by MSWEP, the explanatory power of daily-  
318 scale precipitation changes on the surface is still higher than that of CHIRPS, which  
319 can reflect the trends of rainfall in the Taihu Lake basin.

320

321 [Insert Figure 3]

322

323 The results of the combined assessment of time series and classification accuracy  
324 (Figure 4) show that MSWEP has a higher ability to classify and identify and  
325 quantitatively characterize daily precipitation events in the Taihu Lake basin. MSWEP  
326 accurately characterizes rainfall information better than CHIRPS. The Pbias of  
327 CHIRPS is significantly lower than MSWEP in all water sub-regions except for ZX,  
328 probably due to the systematic errors prevalent in this data. MSWEP always  
329 underestimates surface precipitation to a certain extent, but CHIRPS does not have  
330 similar problems. The quantitative accuracy indicators RMSE, KGE, and RR all show  
331 that MSWEP precipitation is strongly synchronized with the baseline rainfall gauge  
332 precipitation in terms of time series variation ( $RMSE < 10$ ,  $KGE > 0.6$ ,  $RR > 0.6$ ), while  
333 CHIRPS is in low agreement with the measured rainfall ( $RMSE > 10$ ,  $KGE < 0.5$ ,  
334  $RR < 0.5$ ). In particular, the RR of CHIRPS in each subzone is less than 0.2, indicating  
335 that CHIRPS cannot simulate the temporal variation of daily precipitation in the Taihu  
336 Lake basin. Besides, the MSWEP classification indexes  $POD > 0.75$ , HSS generally  
337 higher than 0.6, and VHI close to 1 are higher than the corresponding classification  
338 indexes of CHIRPS ( $POD$  lower than 0.6, HSS no more than 0.5, and VHI less than  
339 0.75). The evaluation shows that MSWEP has strong classification recognition ability  
340 and precipitation characterization ability for daily precipitation events in the Taihu  
341 Lake basin. In general, the quantitative assessment and classification capability of  
342 MSWEP for daily precipitation events in the Taihu Lake basin is higher than that of  
343 CHIRPS.

344

345 [Insert Figure 4]

346

347 According to the precipitation classification standard of the China  
348 Meteorological Administration (GB/T 28592-2012, 2012), daily rainfall in the Taihu

349 Lake basin is classified into six levels: no rain (0 to 0.1 mm), light rain (0.1 to 10  
350 mm), moderate rain (10 to 25 mm), heavy rain (25 to 50 mm), rainstorms (50 to 100  
351 mm), and heavy rainstorms ( $> 100$  mm). We counted the precipitation frequency of  
352 CHIRPS and MSWEP spatial precipitation in different precipitation intensity class  
353 intervals based on various levels of precipitation events at the actual rainfall stations,  
354 respectively (Figure 5).

355 The combined assessment of the ability of CHIRPS and MSWEP in the  
356 frequency of precipitation events of different intensities shows that both CHIRPS and  
357 MSWEP have the problem of underestimating the frequency of precipitation. CHIRPS  
358 is more accurate than MSWEP in evaluating days without rainfall, and MSWEP is  
359 more capable of capturing days with rainfall than CHIRPS. With the increase of  
360 precipitation intensity, MSWEP's ability to capture precipitation events decreases, and  
361 the frequency of captured precipitation tends to be higher than that of CHIRPS. The  
362 results indicate that CHIRPS is not sensitive to all levels of rainfall intensity, and the  
363 underestimation phenomenon is not related to rainfall intensity. The underestimation  
364 problem of MSWEP becomes more obvious with the increase of precipitation  
365 intensity, and there is the phenomenon of underestimating high precipitation. On the  
366 whole, CHIRPS can be used for the assessment of rainless days in dry areas and is  
367 suitable for drought monitoring, while MSWEP is more suitable for precipitation  
368 accuracy assessment in wet areas, but not for extreme precipitation analysis.

369

370 [Insert Figure 5]

371

### 372 **3.2 GWRMP merged precipitation time series accuracy assessment**

373 We selected MSWEP, which has a higher ability to characterize precipitation in  
374 the Taihu Lake basin, as the spatial daily rainfall data for this region. To address the  
375 common problem of precipitation underestimation in MSWEP, especially the weak  
376 ability to capture heavy rainfall. We used 130 long series of rain gauge data to correct

377 the accuracy of MSWEP daily precipitation. Based on a geographically weighted  
378 regression model, we fused rain gauges with MSWEP daily precipitation to obtain  
379 fused precipitation data (GWRMP). The GWRMP time series are daily precipitation  
380 from May to September 1979 to 2016, and the spatial resolution is consistent with  
381 MSWEP at  $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ .

382 Figure 6 is a scatter plot of the observed and corresponding location MSWEP,  
383 GWRMP, and IDW daily precipitation at the reserved rainfall stations from May to  
384 September 1979 to 2016. It shows that the consistency between the calibrated  
385 GWRMP daily rainfall and the measured value is the highest, and the correlation  
386 coefficient of each station reaches above 0.85. The consistent between MSWEP and  
387 measured precipitation is slightly lower, and the correlation coefficient between  
388 spatial rainfall and measured precipitation at each calibrated station ranges from 0.75  
389 to 0.8. IDW has a high difference between the measured and estimated values at  
390 DTXS, located in the lake area of Taihu. Since the distribution of lake-area rain  
391 gauges is relatively sparse, inappropriately using IDW to characterize spatial  
392 precipitation.

393

394 [Insert Figure 6]

395

396 We evaluated the quantitative and classification accuracy metrics for spatial and  
397 measured precipitation at the eight sites (Table 2). It shows the strongest to weakest  
398 ability to characterize the measured precipitation information in the order of GWRMP  
399 (Pbias controlled within 12%), IDW, and MSWEP precipitation without error  
400 correction (Pbias between -9% and -22%). The consistent agreement between  
401 GWRMP daily rainfall and measured precipitation is the highest, with RR generally  
402 higher than 0.7 and RMSE controlled at 5~8 mm. The classification indexes show that  
403 GWRMP, IDW, and MSWEP have high synchronicity in precipitation frequency and  
404 rainfall characterization ability. The POD is generally higher than 0.85, the HSS is

405 more than 0.6, and the VHI is 0.97~0.99. The above spatial precipitation data have a  
406 good classification and identification ability for daily precipitation events in the Taihu  
407 Lake basin, which can effectively characterize the precipitation changes during the  
408 study period. In summary, GWRMP has a higher classification and quantitative  
409 characterization ability for daily precipitation events in the Taihu Lake basin, and its  
410 daily precipitation accuracy is better than that of IDW and MSWEP.

411

412 [Insert Table 2]

413 In addition to the spatial precipitation accuracy assessment of the reserved rain  
414 gauges, we also develop a systematic accuracy assessment of rain gauge scale  
415 precipitation for different hydraulic divisions (methods see chapter 4.1). Figures 7 and  
416 8 show the scatter plots and the time-series precision assessment of daily rainfall  
417 relative to the baseline precipitation for MSWEP, GWRMP, and IDW. The agreement  
418 between GWRMP, IDW, and the baseline rainfall gauge precipitation is high in all the  
419 seven hydraulic divisions in the Taihu basin. Both have strong explanatory power for  
420 surface daily precipitation events and rainfall variability. MSWEP data generally  
421 underestimate daily precipitation (-10% to -20%) in zonal simulations. IDW has  
422 minor overall errors, but daily precipitation errors are slightly higher in mountainous  
423 areas of western Zhejiang Province and Taihu Lake area than in other zoning areas  
424 due to topography and rain gauge distribution. The GWRMP fused precipitation  
425 compensates for the underestimation problem of MSWEP. However, the fusion  
426 algorithm uses the interpolation of the errors (more positive values) between the  
427 point-scale actual measurements and MSWEP to obtain the surface-scale errors,  
428 which may cause regional expanded systematic errors in the surrounding area with the  
429 imposed errors. It results in a certain degree of overestimation problem in GWRMP.  
430 We found that MSWEP can capture the precipitation events in the basin by accuracy  
431 evaluation, but there is a significant underestimation error. MSWEP has the lowest  
432 accuracy among the three types of spatial precipitation. The index evaluation results

433 of IDW and MSWEP are similar for each hydraulic subdistrict in the Taihu Lake  
434 basin. However, there are differences in the quantitative index evaluation results in the  
435 Taihu Lake area, with the Pbias of IDW relative to the measured precipitation ranging  
436 from -15% to -20%, which is significantly higher than that of GWRMP (7% to 10%).

437

438 [Insert Figure 7]

439

440 [Insert Figure 8]

441

### 442 **3.3 GWRMP merged precipitation intensity accuracy assessment**

443 We analyzed the IDW, MSWEP, and GWRMP raster precipitation data in the  
444 Taihu Lake basin to accurately capture the frequency of different levels of rainfall  
445 using the reserved eight rainfall stations for various levels of precipitation events  
446 (Figure 9). The results of the analysis within each hydraulic subarea show that the  
447 frequency of different levels of rainfall during the flood season is no rain (60% to  
448 65%), light rain (22% to 26%), moderate rain (7% to 9%), heavy rain (3% to 5%),  
449 rainstorms (1.4% to 1.7%), and heavy rainstorms (0.1% to 0.4%). The study analyzed  
450 the sensitivity of IDW, MSWEP, and GWRMP precipitation intensities using rain  
451 gauge observed precipitation as a benchmark. The results show that there are  
452 differences in their ability to capture the frequency of actual precipitation intensity.  
453 The IDW was subject to significant fluctuations due to the topography of the rain  
454 gauge distribution. DTXS, WL (Taihu Lake lake area), SP (mountainous region), and  
455 ZDG (higher elevation) were weak in capturing each precipitation intensity event  
456 compared to other zonal rain gauges. MSWEP and GWRMP observe a low frequency  
457 of rainless days, which were more sensitive to precipitation. With the increase of  
458 rainfall intensity, the sensitivity of GWRMP to precipitation events gradually  
459 increases, especially for precipitation levels above moderate rainfall. The rainfall  
460 intensity detection accuracy of GWRMP is significantly better than that of IDW and

461 MSWEP.

462

463 [Insert Figure 9]

464

465 Figure 10 shows the statistical results of the zonal accuracy assessment, and it is  
466 consistent with the results of the reserved rain gauge assessment. The probability of  
467 rainless weather in each subzone of the Taihu basin is about 60%, and ZX is around  
468 55%. The light rainfall weather is between 20% and 30%. Moderate rainfall ranges  
469 from 7% to 9%, with ZX reaching 10%. The rainstorm and heavy rainstorm weather  
470 are 1% to 2% and 0.2% to 0.4%, respectively. There a high proportion of rainy days in  
471 the Taihu Lake basin during the flood season, with nearly half of the weather being  
472 rainy days. There are most rainy days in the flood season due to the topography of  
473 ZX. The highest frequency of light rainfall occurred in the Taihu Lake basin. With the  
474 increase of precipitation intensity, the probability of occurrence decreases  
475 significantly. There are some deviations in the frequency of different levels of  
476 precipitation in each subzone of the basin. Compared with other divisions, ZX has the  
477 highest precipitation frequency in all different levels. Spatial precipitation data have  
478 significant differences in their ability to characterize precipitation intensity in the  
479 Taihu Lake basin. The GWRMP and IDW are generally higher than MSWEP for  
480 different levels of precipitation intensity, and the detection accuracy becomes higher  
481 with increasing precipitation intensity. However, the difference in the frequency  
482 distribution of IDW precipitation intensity in each partition is significantly higher  
483 than that of GWRMP, indicating that the detection ability of IDW for precipitation  
484 intensity is less stable than that of GWRMP.

485 Combining the results of the two precipitation intensity accuracy assessments,  
486 we can see that GWRMP is more suitable for precipitation observation in the Taihu  
487 Lake basin. It can be applied to extreme rainstorm monitoring and provide a reference  
488 for storm flood analysis.

489

490 [Insert Figure 10]

491

492 **3.4 GWRMP merged precipitation spatial accuracy assessment**

493 Under the condition of high density and uniform distribution of ground rain  
494 gauge, the precipitation accuracy obtained by interpolation is relatively reliable. To  
495 explore the precipitation accuracy of GWRMP at the spatial scale of the Taihu Lake  
496 basin, we have selected IDW as the benchmark reference. The study analyzes the  
497 errors of GWRMP and IDW using the sliding window statistical method. We compare  
498 the differences of error values under different rain gauge density distributions to  
499 indirectly diagnose the accuracy of GWRMP in describing spatial precipitation  
500 information in the Taihu Lake basin. We compare the differences of error values under  
501 different rain gauge density distributions to indirectly diagnose the accuracy of  
502 GWRMP in describing spatial precipitation information in the Taihu Lake basin.

503 Figure 11 shows the rainfall station density and spatial precipitation deviation for  
504 different sliding windows in the Taihu Lake basin during the flood period from 1979  
505 to 2016. The total bias of monthly precipitation for each sliding window is less than  
506 60 mm, and the average value is less than 40 mm during the study period. With the  
507 increase of rain gauge density, the average bias between GWRMP and IDW tends to  
508 decrease. Because of the influence of IDW on the distribution of surrounding rain  
509 gauges, there are some error dispersion points between GWRMP and IDW under the  
510 same rain gauge density. The error dispersion points and dispersion values decrease as  
511 the density of the rain gauge increases. Comparing the statistical results of different  
512 window units, the average error within the 2×2 and 3×3 windows has a significant  
513 negative correlation with the rain gauge density. Within the 4×4 window, the larger  
514 the statistical rain gauge density is, the average error gradually tends to stabilize as a  
515 systematic error that is not affected by the rain gauge density. Specifically, when the  
516 window rainfall station density is between 0 and 10, the relative deviation is

517 significantly negatively correlated with the rainfall station density. The spatial rainfall  
518 accuracy of GWRMP is better than that of IDW. When the window rainfall station  
519 density is greater than 11, the trend of decreasing relative deviation is not significant  
520 (the average error is 20 mm). The GWRMP spatial rainfall accuracy is relatively  
521 consistent with IDW.

522 To summarize, the GWRMP fused precipitation can accurately reflect the spatial  
523 precipitation information in the Taihu Lake basin with better accuracy than the  
524 commonly used IDW rainfall.

525

526 [Insert Figure 11]

527

#### 528 **4 CONCLUSIONS**

529 We selected the long-term sequence of high temporal and spatial accuracy multi-  
530 source merged rainfall CHIRPS and MSWEP v2.1. It takes the actual precipitation  
531 measured by the rain gauge in the Taihu basin as the benchmark for accuracy  
532 assessment. Evaluation of daily precipitation detection accuracy on time series and  
533 rain intensity for two types of precipitation data. In this way, the daily spatial  
534 precipitation data were select to best characterize the daily scale spatial precipitation  
535 data in the Taihu Lake basin. Based on the GWR model, we use the precipitation  
536 information from the high-density rain gauge and the screened fused precipitation for  
537 calibration and revision. Comprehensive integration of GWRMP merged spatial daily  
538 precipitation data in the Taihu Lake basin. We conducted the accuracy evaluation of  
539 the spatially integrated precipitation data in the Taihu Lake basin, and the main  
540 conclusions are as follows:

541 (1) Both CHIRPS and MSWEP have the advantages of long time series and high  
542 spatial and temporal resolution, while MSWEP has the problem of underestimating  
543 precipitation due to systematic errors. However, in terms of daily precipitation  
544 characterization ability, the quantitative assessment and classification recognition of

545 daily precipitation events were significantly better than CHIRPS in the Taihu basin.  
546 CHIRPS was more suitable for drought monitoring because of its ability to capture  
547 rainless days. MSWEP has high precipitation capture ability, so it was useful for  
548 precipitation accuracy assessment in wet areas but was not preferable for extreme  
549 precipitation analysis.

550 (2) GWRMP was based on the MSWEP spatial precipitation distribution, with  
551 accuracy calibration by used rainfall station precipitation. It has compensated the  
552 problem of underestimation of precipitation by MSWEP. GWRMP provides  
553 continuous spatial precipitation distribution information of the watershed with a  
554 precipitation accuracy guarantee. Compared with IDW, which relies too much on the  
555 distribution of rainfall stations, GWRMP raster precipitation has a strong ability to  
556 characterize the spatial information in low-density rainfall station distribution areas.

557 (3) MSWEP has limited ability to characterize intense precipitation information,  
558 especially there was a significant underestimation of the frequency of precipitation of  
559 medium rainfall intensity and above. IDW has a weak ability for each precipitation  
560 intensity event in low-density areas. GWRMP has improved precipitation accuracy for  
561 each precipitation level after fusing ground observed rainfall information, and the  
562 precipitation accuracy increases significantly with the increase of precipitation  
563 amount. Compared with MSWEP and IDW, GWRMP was more suitable for intense  
564 precipitation monitoring and storm flood analysis in the Taihu Lake basin.

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#### 579 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

580 The gauged data of daily precipitation mainly originate from the hydrological  
581 yearbooks of Taihu Lake Basin, it can be found in the library of Hohai University,  
582 China. The MSWEP v2.1 data was provided by the European Union Joint Research  
583 Center (EU/JRC) (<http://www.gloh2o.org/>). The program codes of precipitation  
584 accuracy evaluation can be accessed on GitHub  
585 (<https://github.com/Borealis-wxs/zjRepo/>).

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## 683 APPENDICES

684 (1) Calculation formula for the time series quantitative accuracy index is as  
685 follows:

$$BR = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (G_i - \bar{G})(S_i - \bar{S})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (G_i - \bar{G})^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (S_i - \bar{S})^2} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

$$RR = \frac{\left[ \sum_{i=1}^n (G_i - \bar{G}_i)(S_i - \bar{S}_i) \right]^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (G_i - \bar{G}_i)^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (S_i - \bar{S}_i)^2} \quad (2)$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (G_i - S_i)^2}{n}} \quad (3)$$

$$KGE = 1 - \sqrt{(\alpha - 1)^2 + (\beta - 1)^2 + (\gamma - 1)^2} \quad (4)$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (S_i - \bar{S})^2}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (G_i - \bar{G})^2}} \quad (5)$$

$$\beta = \frac{\bar{S}}{\bar{G}} \quad (6)$$

$$\gamma = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (G_i - \bar{G})(S_i - \bar{S})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (G_i - \bar{G})^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (S_i - \bar{S})^2}} \quad (7)$$

694 where  $S_i$  and  $G_i$  are fusion precipitation (MSWEP, GWRMP) and surface  
 695 reference (rainfall station, IDW) daily precipitation, respectively;  $\bar{S}$  and  $\bar{G}$  are the daily  
 696 average values of fusion precipitation and surface reference precipitation;  $n = 5814$ ,  
 697 the total number of days from May to September, 1979 to 2016.

698 (2) Calculation formula of time series classification accuracy index is as follows:

$$\text{POD} = \frac{n_{11}}{n_{11} + n_{01}} \quad (8)$$

$$\text{HSS} = \frac{2(n_{11}n_{00} - n_{10}n_{01})}{(n_{11} + n_{01})(n_{01} + n_{00}) + (n_{11} + n_{10})(n_{10} + n_{00})} \quad (9)$$

where  $n_{11}$  is the frequency of daily precipitation events detected by both the reference precipitation data and the fusion precipitation data;  $n_{01}$  is the frequency of daily precipitation events detected by the reference precipitation data in which the fusion precipitation data are not detected;  $n_{10}$  is the frequency of events detected by the fusion precipitation data, not detected by the reference precipitation data; and  $n_{00}$  is the frequency at which both baseline precipitation data and fusion precipitation data are detected as non-precipitation events.

$$\text{VHI} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (S_i | S_i \geq P_i \& G_i \geq P_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n (S_i | S_i \geq P_i \& G_i \geq P_i) + \sum_{i=1}^n (G_i | S_i < P_i \& G_i \geq P_i)} \quad (10)$$

where  $S_i$ , and  $G_i$  represent the daily precipitation of the benchmark data and the daily precipitation of the fusion, respectively, and  $P_i$  is the daily precipitation event threshold. This study uses 0.1 mm as the threshold for rain.