

1 CAMELS-AUS: Hydrometeorological time series and landscape 2 attributes for 222 catchments in Australia

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8 **Abstract.**

9 This paper presents the Australian edition of the Catchment Attributes and Meteorology for Large-sample Studies (CAMELS)
10 series of datasets. CAMELS-AUS comprises data for 222 unregulated catchments, combining hydrometeorological timeseries
11 (streamflow and 18 climatic variables) with 134 attributes related to geology, soil, topography, land cover, anthropogenic
12 influence, and hydroclimatology. The CAMELS-AUS catchments have been monitored for decades (more than 85% have
13 streamflow records longer than 40 years) and are relatively free of large scale changes, such as significant changes in landuse.
14 Rating curve uncertainty estimates are provided for most (75%) of the catchments and multiple atmospheric datasets are
15 included, offering insights into forcing uncertainty. This dataset allows users globally to freely access catchment data drawn
16 from Australia's unique hydroclimatology, particularly notable for its large interannual variability. Combined with arid
17 catchment data from the CAMELS datasets for the USA and Chile, CAMELS-AUS constitutes an unprecedented resource for
18 the study of arid-zone hydrology. CAMELS-AUS is freely downloadable from
19 <https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.921850> (Fowler et al., 2020a).

20 **1 Introduction**

21 For some time, the ideals of 'comparative hydrology' and 'large-sample hydrology' have been advanced as complementary
22 and necessary components of hydrology (eg. Falkenmark and Chapman 1989; Andréassian et al, 2006; Gupta et al. 2014).
23 Alongside traditional hydrological studies, which may focus on a single catchment, or possibly compare results among several
24 catchments within a region, large-sample studies aim to establish the generality of results and to test paradigms applicable on
25 regional-to-global scales (eg. McMahon et al 1992; Peel et al., 2004; Kuenst et al, 2018; Ghiggi et al., 2019; Mathevet et al.,
26 2020). Large samples of catchments are also insightful for certain tasks, such as prediction in ungauged basins (eg. Pool et
27 al., 2019) or training and evaluation of machine learning algorithms (eg. Kratzert et al, 2018; Shen, 2018; Kratzert et al., 2019).
28 Thus, large sample studies are a growing component of recent hydrological research (see review by Addor et al., 2019).

29

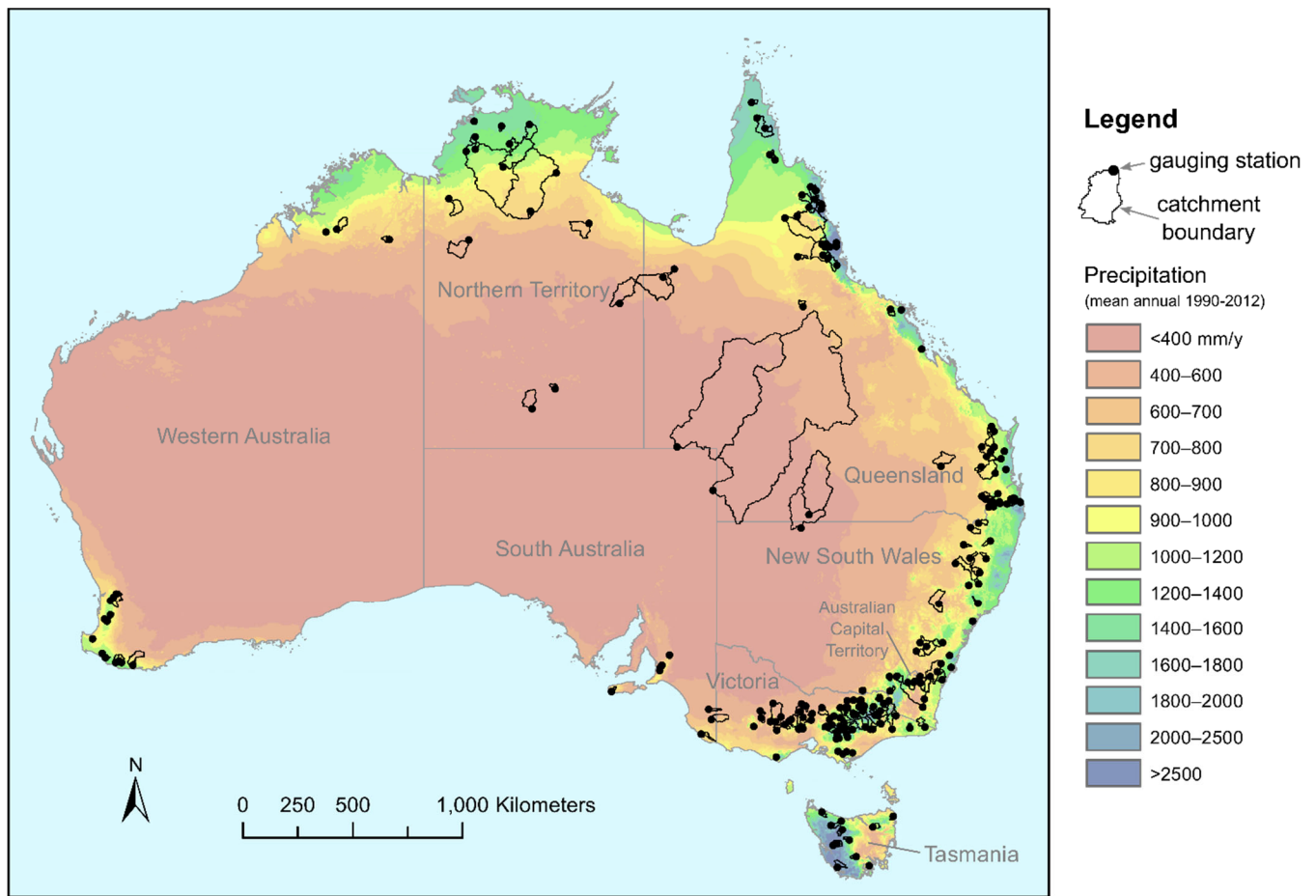
30 However, issues of data availability and commensurability, which are endemic to environmental sciences, are exacerbated for
31 large sample hydrology. Large samples may cross jurisdictions or data providers, require harmonisation across different data
32 formats or nomenclatures (eg. hydrometric data quality codes/flags) and are more likely to suffer from spatial gaps due to
33 different data sharing policies of water agencies (Viglione et al., 2010; Addor et al., 2019). Thus, the importance of FAIR data
34 (Findable, Accessible, Interoperable and Reusable, see Wilkinson et al. 2016 and the Open Data Charter 2015) in hydrology
35 is amplified in large sample hydrology and there is a clear need for open publication of datasets wherever possible to allow
36 equal access. Such policies also encourage hydrologists to work across boundaries – an important ideal since the spatial
37 distribution of hydrologists globally does not reflect the spread of interesting hydrological environs, nor the pressing need for
38 hydrological insights to inform policy.

39

40 Responding to these needs, multiple recent projects have publicly released large sample hydrological datasets (e.g., Arsenault
41 et al., 2016; Do et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2019; Linke et al., 2019; Olarinoye et al., 2020). Here we contribute to one such ongoing
42 project – the Catchment Attributes and Meteorology for Large-sample Studies, or CAMELS, project. Originally launched for
43 the United States (Newman et al., 2015; Addor et al., 2017), CAMELS datasets now exist for Chile (Alvarez Garreton et al.,
44 2018), Great Britain (Coxon et al., 2020) and Brazil (Chagas et al., 2020). The defining features of a CAMELS dataset are
45 that they complement data on streamflow (which is often publicly available) with other data types: (i) pre-processed climatic
46 data for each catchment, such as would be required to run a hydrological model; and (ii) catchment attributes which characterise
47 various aspects of the catchment without the need for field visitation (impractical for large samples). They also support
48 download of the entire dataset in contrast to agency websites which may only support one-at-a-time download (if at all). Lastly,
49 whereas government agencies reserve the right to retrospectively re-process their streamflow data (eg. due to rating curve
50 changes), CAMELS datasets enable repeatability because a given CAMELS release effectively “freezes” the data, creating a
51 consistent version that is available indefinitely via a persistent digital object identifier (DOI).

52

53 The present dataset focusses on the continent of Australia, including the southern state of Tasmania, but excluding other
54 Australian territories. Australia is the world’s sixth largest country (approximately 7.7×10^6 km²) and is comparable in size
55 to the conterminous USA or Europe, but the hydrologically active parts of the country tend to be limited to coastal regions,
56 with the interior being semi-arid or arid (Figure 1; see also Knoben et al., 2018). Thus, dense gauging of streamflow covers
57 only a small proportion of the total area, with the remaining areas providing few gauged locations. While sparsely gauged, the
58 dry parts of Australia provide interesting arid-zone catchment examples, many of which are included in the CAMELS-AUS
59 dataset. In addition to arid regions, Australia includes northern areas with tropical climate and southern areas with temperate
60 climate.



61

62 **Figure 1: Location of the 222 CAMELS-AUS flow gauging stations and catchments, along with mean annual precipitation (from**
 63 **Jones et al., 2009) and Australian states and territories.**

64 This paper is structured as follows. In Section 2 we describe the rationale for the dataset, including considerations of why
 65 Australian hydroclimate is interesting and relevant to hydrologists globally; and factors shaping the dataset, including local
 66 data availability. Section 3 provides a technical description of the dataset and forms the bulk of the paper. Sections 4 and 5
 67 explain CAMELS-AUS data availability and conclude the manuscript, respectively.

68 **2 Rationale**

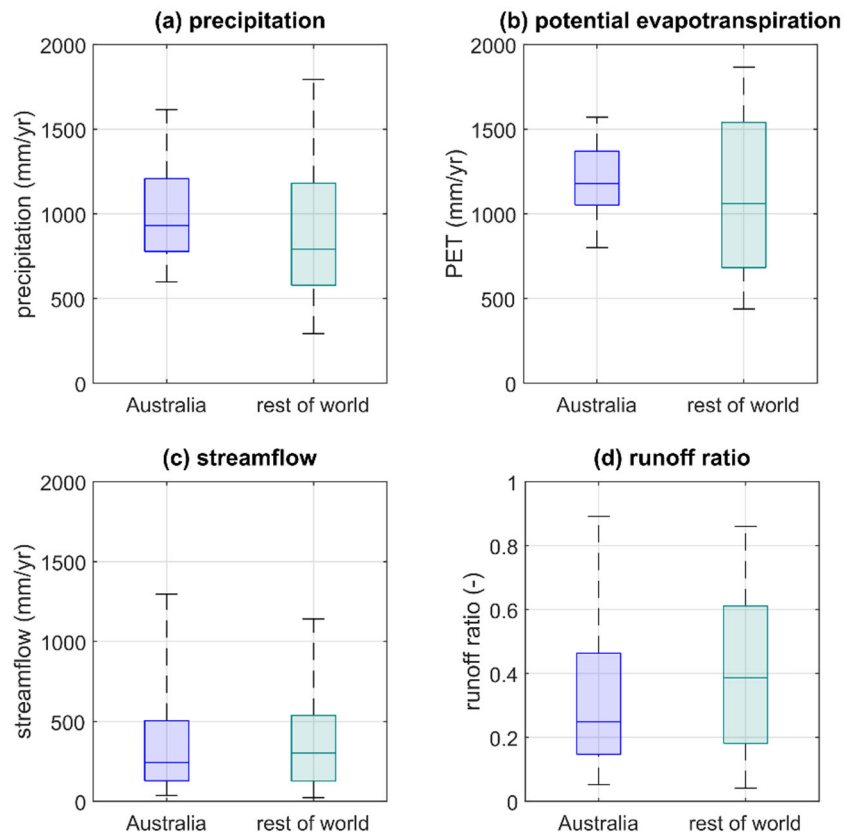
69 This section lays out the motivations underpinning the release of this dataset for Australia. It also outlines why CAMELS-
 70 AUS takes its present form, including two chief aspects: catchment selection; and inclusion of local versus global datasets.

71 **2.1 Motivation: Australian hydroclimate and its place in the study of arid-zone hydrology and hydrology under**
72 **climatic change**

73 Every region on earth is unique and has characteristics of interest for hydrological study. Within Australia and for CAMELS-
74 AUS, three characteristics are noted here. Firstly, Australia contains many arid landscapes, and considerable advances in arid-
75 zone hydrology have been made there (eg. Western et al., 2020). CAMELS-AUS contains more than twenty arid-zone rivers
76 (depending on definition but see Figure 1), so the publication of the dataset opens the study of these rivers to a global pool of
77 scientists. Added together with included arid-zone rivers in the USA and Chile (Addor et al., 2017; Alvarez-Garreton et al.,
78 2018), the CAMELS datasets together provide a significant sample for the study of arid-zone hydrology.

79

80 Secondly, Australian catchments tend to have lower rainfall-runoff ratios, linked to higher evaporative demand. As shown in
81 Figure 2d, the median rainfall runoff ratio among Australian catchments is approximately 0.25, compared to approximately
82 0.4 for the rest of the world. Australian catchments are often water-limited (at least on a seasonal basis), providing different
83 modelling challenges to energy limited catchments from higher latitudes.



84

85 **Figure 2: Mean annual values of hydrological variables for the global set of 699 catchments presented by Peel et al. (2010; $n_{\text{Australia}}$**
86 **= 123; $n_{\text{rest of world}}$ = 576). Boxplots show the 5th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 95th percentiles. Potential evapotranspiration in this dataset is a**
87 **reference crop estimate using a method similar to Hargreaves' method, as outlined in Adam et al. (2006).**

88 Finally, a notable characteristic of Australian hydroclimatology is its tendency for multi-year spells of climatic anomalies of
89 larger magnitude compared to most other regions of the world (Peel et al., 2005), due partly to the strong influence of climate
90 teleconnections such as the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO, eg. Peel et al., 2002; Verdon-Kidd and Kiem, 2009). Recent
91 severe droughts have affected south-east Australia, including the 13-year Millennium Drought (Van Dijk et al., 2014) which
92 provided the opportunity for knowledge sharing with other drought-prone regions (Aghakouchak et al., 2014) and supplied
93 many case studies of hydrological model failure (ie. the high bias and low model performance in differential split sample
94 testing reported by, eg., Saft et al., 2016), which are under ongoing investigation (eg. Fowler et al., 2020b). In the context of
95 providing credible runoff projections, case studies of long droughts are the only means by which hydrologists can test
96 hypotheses regarding how catchments respond physically to the onset of drier conditions, including aspects of long ‘memory’
97 (eg. Fowler et al., 2020b) and potential to shift behaviour, possibly in a quasi permanent fashion (eg. Peterson et al., 2021).
98 Thus, it is hoped that the public release of datasets such as CAMELS-AUS may hasten scientific progress towards more
99 defensible and robust hydrological models.

100 **2.2 Context: hydrometeorological monitoring in Australia**

101 Systematic climatic measurement in Australia extends back to the late 1800s (eg. Ashcroft et al., 2014), with widespread
102 streamflow gauging of headwater catchments commencing from the 1950s and 60s. Meteorological monitoring is the
103 responsibility of a federal Bureau of Meteorology (BOM), but streamflow monitoring falls to the states and territories of
104 Australia, rather than the federal government (Skinner and Langford, 2013). Thus, Australian streamflow data has historically
105 been dispersed between its six states and two territories (Figure 1) and, while quality control is relatively well-established,
106 methods and formats (eg. quality codes/flags) are not consistent between states and territories. Since the 2000s this situation
107 has partially been rectified after federal legislation required the BOM to collate data from the states under new ‘Water
108 Information’ powers (Vertessy, 2015).

109 **2.3 Catchment choice: the Hydrologic Reference Stations dataset**

110 Under its new responsibilities the BOM initiated several national hydrological projects, one of which is called the *Hydrologic*
111 *Reference Stations* project (Turner et al., 2012). This project selected a large set of gauging stations, each on unregulated
112 streams, to serve as a “platform to investigate long-term trends in water resource availability” (Turner et al., 2012, p. 1555).
113 The project has a website for provision of streamflow data to the public (www.bom.gov.au/water/hrs/).
114

115 We adopted the Hydrologic Reference Stations as the basis for CAMELS-AUS, for three reasons:

- 116 • The selection criteria used by the BOM, including record length, lack of regulation, and stationarity of anthropogenic
117 influence (see Section 3.2) are consistent with the aim of the CAMELS project to provide high-quality scientific data;

- 118 • Considerable effort has already been expended by the BOM to standardise and quality check the streamflow data,
119 which was only possible via contacts with state agencies that are not necessarily available to academic authors (for
120 an example, see BOM, 2020). It is logical to take advantage of this prior effort; and
- 121 • The Hydrologic Reference Stations have attained a degree of acceptance within the Australian hydrological
122 community, partly due to extensive consultation with stakeholders during development (see Section 3.2). Also, they
123 have been adopted by numerous academic studies (eg. Zhang et al., 2014; 2016; Wright et al., 2018; McInerney et
124 al., 2017; Fowler et al., 2016, 2018, 2020b).

125

126 It is noted that this choice is not intended to limit future inclusion of a wider range of stations/catchments. We envisage that
127 the Hydrologic Reference Stations may provide the nucleus for future versions of the CAMELS-AUS dataset, while the current
128 selection provides a sensible and pragmatic starting point. The Hydrological Reference Station dataset itself may be subject
129 to future expansion, which would inform future CAMELS-AUS versions. Furthermore, whereas the Hydrological Reference
130 Stations project, by definition, sought catchments which are minimally disturbed (or at least having stationarity of
131 anthropogenic influence), future versions could be more inclusive so as to cater for studies examining diverse anthropogenic
132 influences including changes over time – an approach already taken by CAMELS-GB (Coxon et al., 2020) and CAMELS-BR
133 (Chagas et al., 2020). In summary, the current form of CAMELS-AUS should not be interpreted as setting a norm for future
134 versions (or other datasets).

135 **2.4 Local versus global datasets**

136 A key choice in developing CAMELS-AUS was whether to use local or global datasets (or both) when extracting
137 hydrometeorology time series and catchment attributes. On the one hand, global datasets are important to facilitate
138 intercontinental comparisons. On the other hand, when local datasets are available, they are generally the highest quality
139 information that exists for a given region (eg. Acharya et al., 2019). With the advent of large-sample hydrology, it is now
140 possible to conduct near-global studies using very large samples of catchments (eg. over two thousand in Mathevet et al., 2020)
141 and future studies might compose such large samples by combining continental-scale datasets like the various CAMELS.
142 However, the lack of standardised approaches and sources between national large sample datasets remains a key limitation of
143 large-sample studies (Addor et al., 2019).

144

145 The approach followed by the CAMELS datasets so far is to use the best possible data available for each country, so national
146 datasets have been prioritised over global datasets. In some cases, global datasets have been employed, for instance the Global
147 Lithological Map (Hartmann and Moosdorf, 2012) in CAMELS and CAMELS-CL or the Multi-Source Weighted-Ensemble
148 Precipitation (Beck et al., 2017) in CAMELS-CL. But overall, the best national data products were selected for each country,
149 leveraging the knowledge of CAMELS creators. This enables global users, who may not be familiar with these national
150 products, to benefit from this local knowledge. It also gives direct access to the best available data to users whose study

151 focusses on catchments from a single country (see, eg., intercomparisons in Acharya et al., 2019). In keeping with this
152 approach, the priority was given to national data products to produce CAMELS-AUS.

153

154 In parallel, efforts are ongoing to increase the consistency among the CAMELS datasets (in terms of data products used to
155 derive the time series and catchment attributes, and also naming conventions and data format, see Addor et al., 2019), in order
156 to create a dataset that is globally consistent. This is part of a second phase, which will build upon the current phase which is
157 focussed on the release of national products, such as CAMELS-AUS. To contribute to this effort, we have supplied the
158 CAMELS-AUS catchment boundaries and gauge locations. Because of these ongoing efforts, our expectation is that the data
159 introduced here, derived from Australian sources, will in time be complimented by data derived from global datasets.

160 3 CAMELS-AUS dataset technical description

161 The previous section outlined key decisions made for CAMELS-AUS, ie. it is based on the Hydrological Reference Stations,
162 and its data are derived from Australian rather than global sources. This section provides more detail and presents each aspect
163 of the dataset in turn. Work not undertaken by the present authors (eg. earlier efforts by the BOM for the Hydrological
164 Reference Stations project) is clearly marked. In many cases, subsections end with a “*Included in dataset:*” sentence to clearly
165 outline items in the online repository related to the sub-section text.

166

167 Before presenting the detail, we note that the online repository of the dataset (Fowler et al., 2020a) includes the following:

- 168 ● A file containing the overall attribute table, containing all non-timeseries data (see Tables 1, 3 and 4); and
- 169 ● 27 timeseries files, each containing data for all catchments for a given hydroclimatic variable (see Table 2).
- 170 ● Extra files such as shapefiles and readme files as noted below.

171 3.1 Catchment selection rules

172 Given the decision (Section 2.2 above) to base the CAMELS-AUS dataset on the BOM’s Hydrologic Reference Stations, this
173 subsection summarises the process of catchment selection undertaken earlier by the BOM. As described in Turner et al. (2012):

- 174 ● **Initial selection:** 246 potential stations were initially selected based on three criteria: (i) record length (minimum of
175 1975 onwards); (ii) availability of data including historic rating curve information; and (iii) lack of regulation by large
176 dams.
- 177 ● **Invitation for stakeholders to suggest additional stations:** BOM consulted with seventy stakeholders from federal,
178 state and territory agencies and water authorities, who were given the opportunity to add new stations to the list. This
179 enlarged the list to 362 stations.
- 180 ● **Targeted fact-finding:** To elicit information about each candidate station/catchment, the relevant agencies were
181 asked a series of questions about the catchments in their jurisdiction relating both to past and present practices. Topics

182 included diversions, irrigation structures, upstream point source discharge, land clearing, forestry, urbanisation, fire,
183 and farm dams.

184 ● **Final selection:** the final selection process considered all the above information. A good coverage of Australia's
185 various hydroclimatic regions was desired, although this is inherently limited by the coverage of the gauging network.
186 Where possible, only stations with < 5% missing data and < 10% change in forest cover were selected.

187
188 The above process provided the first version of the Hydrologic Reference Stations, with a total of 221 catchments.
189 A subsequent update in 2015, which included a detailed review and update of streamflow data up to 2014 (BOM, 2020),
190 resolved to retain all existing stations and add one more (ID 215207). Thus, the final number of stations is 222 (Figure 1).

191
192 *Included in dataset:* The following variables are provided in the CAMELS-AUS attribute table (see Table 1): Station ID,
193 station name (including river name and station name), drainage division and river region (out of 13 drainage divisions and 218
194 river regions across Australia). Unfortunately, information is not available about which catchments were included or excluded
195 under the above rules.

196 3.2 Catchment boundaries

197 For all but ten of the catchments, catchment boundaries were derived via flow path analysis (using Esri's Arc Hydro) of
198 topographic data undertaken by the authors. The input data was: (i) the post-processed and hydrologically enforced DEM of
199 Gallant et al. (2012) which is derived from the 1-second (approximately 30 m) grid Shuttle Radar Topography Mission (SRTM)
200 dataset; and (ii) the location of the streamflow gauges as provided by the BOM. The Arc Hydro analysis determines the
201 apparent position of streams from the DEM data, and it was found that the published locations rarely fall precisely on these
202 digital streamlines. The mismatch is unsurprising given location data may be decades old and significant figures may have
203 been truncated with the passage of data between databases (or never reported in the first place). Also, the position of the digital
204 streamline may or may not match reality, particularly in flat landscapes. To derive catchment areas, the BOM-published gauge
205 locations were shifted to the nearest streamline with expected catchment area. This movement was generally less than 200 m.
206 As noted, this method was used for most catchments, with the following exceptions:

- 207 ● For the six largest catchments (A0030501, A0020101, G8140040, G9030250, 424002 and 424201A), this process
208 was not undertaken due to excessive computational requirements. For context, the largest catchment is approximately
209 the size of the United Kingdom (see Figure 1);
- 210 ● For a further four catchments (A2390519, A2390523, 307473 and 606185), the Arc Hydro process resulted in a
211 catchment boundary that was inconsistent with the boundaries displayed on the Hydrologic Reference Station website.
212 Although degraded for fast mapping, the website boundaries show the approximate position of the boundary as agreed
213 with stakeholders / agencies who have local knowledge. Therefore, in cases of obvious mismatch, the Arc Hydro-

214 derived boundaries were assumed to be in error. Despite the ‘blockiness’ of the website boundaries, they were
215 considered to be a better option for these four catchments.

216

217 For these ten catchments a protocol was developed to read the website’s .json file to extract the boundary vertices. The website
218 boundaries were then adopted. Note, more detail on the above considerations, including a selection of figures, is given in the
219 dataset within the readme file README_CAMELS_AUS_Boundaries.pdf.

220

221 *Included in dataset:* The main inclusions are a point shapefile of adopted gauge locations and a polygon shapefile of adopted
222 catchment areas. Further information included are: point shapefile of BOM published gauge locations; polygon shapefile of
223 website mapped boundaries; readme file explaining the above logic but in more detail and with figures. As listed in Table 1,
224 the CAMELS-AUS attribute table lists the coordinates of the catchment outlet and centroid, along with notes which expand
225 on issues listed above, on a catchment-by-catchment basis.

226 **3.3 Catchment area and nestedness**

227 To calculate catchment areas, the catchment boundaries were first projected into the appropriate local coordinate system under
228 the Map Grid of Australia (MGA). Due to Australia’s size, the MGA defines different coordinate systems based on
229 longitude. Using the catchment centroid, each catchment was placed within a zone and this zone was used to calculate area
230 using the standard tool within Esri’s ArcMap. Inspection of catchment boundaries revealed that some of the catchments are
231 ‘nested’ (ie. entirely contained) within others, for example, when two gauges lie on the same stream (one downstream of the
232 other) and both have been included in the dataset. The upstream (ie. entirely contained) catchments are clearly marked in the
233 CAMELS-AUS attribute table (see Table 1). Catchments containing nested catchments are also marked.

234

235 Before moving on from considerations of spatial data, it is noted that: (i) CAMELS-AUS does not come with a spatial layer
236 for the river network; (ii) users may find the 15s Hydrosheds River Network (www.hydrosheds.org/downloads) or the BoM
237 Geofabric v2 SH network (www.bom.gov.au/water/geofabric/download.shtml) useful; and (iii) the reason these are not
238 included in CAMELS-AUS is because of licencing concerns (for Hydrosheds) and file size concerns (for the Geofabric).

239

240 *Included in dataset:* The following variables are provided in the CAMELS-AUS attribute table (see Table 1): catchment area,
241 map zone, and three indicators related to nestedness (NestedStatus, NextStationDS, NumNestedWithin).

242 **3.4 Streamflow data and uncertainty**

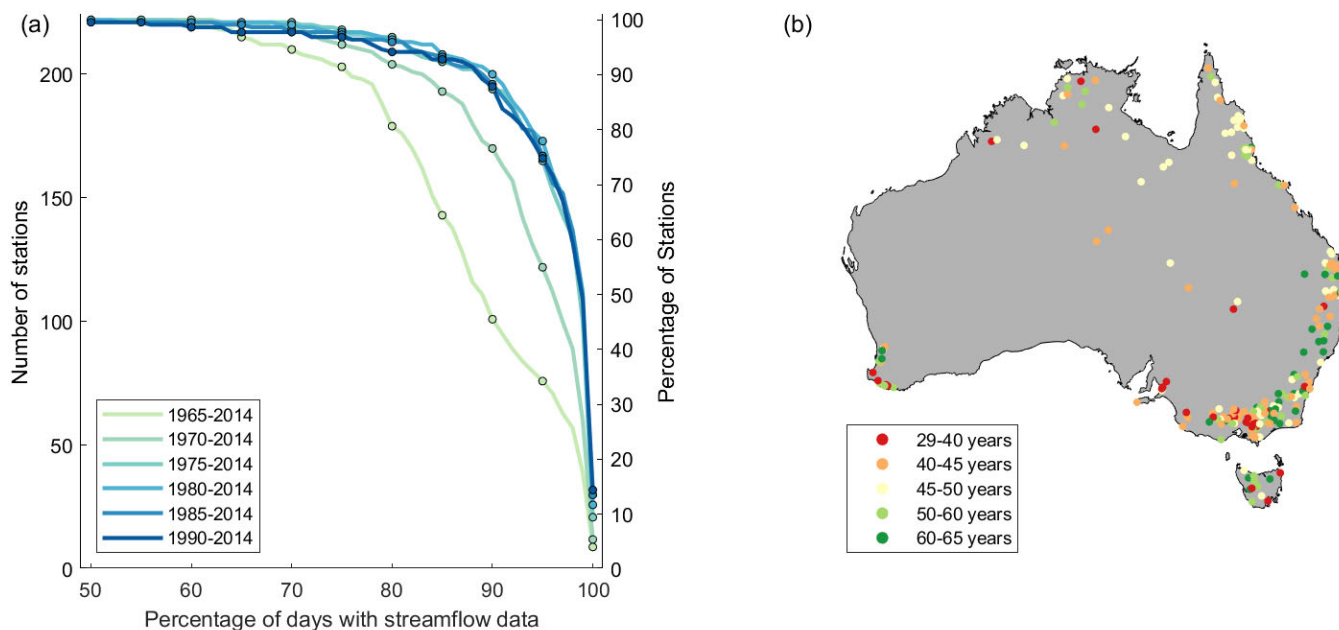
243 Streamflow timeseries data are provided by the BOM in two variants: non gap filled, and gap filled. The gap filled variant is
244 filled using the daily rainfall-runoff model GR4J (Perrin et al., 2001) but the BOM have not published further methodological
245 details about calibration method, validation procedures, or the specifics of the interpolation method. In addition to the

Short name	Description	Data source / notes	
<i>station_id</i>	Station ID used by the Australian Water Resources Council.	Hydrologic Reference Stations (HRS) project, Bureau of Meteorology (BOM) www.bom.gov.au/water/hrs	
<i>station_name</i>	River name and station name		
<i>drainage_division</i>	Drainage division, of the 13 defined by the BOM.		
<i>river_region</i>	River region, of the 218 defined by the BOM.		
<i>notes</i>	General notes about data issues and/or catchment area calculations		
<i>lat_outlet</i>	Latitude and longitude at outlet. Note, in most cases this will be slightly different to the BoM published value because most outlets needed to be moved onto a digital streamline in order to facilitate flow path analysis.		
<i>long_outlet</i>			
<i>lat_centroid</i>	Latitude and longitude at centroid of the catchment.		
<i>long_centroid</i>			
<i>map_zone</i>	Map zone used to calculate catchment area (function of longitude)		
<i>catchment_area</i>	Area of upstream catchment in km ²		
<i>state_outlet</i>	Indicates which state or territory of Australia the outlet is within		
<i>state-alt</i>	If the catchment crosses a state or territory boundary, the alternative state or territory is listed here, otherwise "n/a"		
<i>daystart</i>	Time (UTC) for midnight local standard time (for <i>state_outlet</i>). This is the day start time for T_{max} and T_{min} (see Section 3.5.2).		This study For daystart_Q, see Jian et al., (2017)
<i>daystart_P</i>	Time (UTC) for 9am local standard time (for <i>state_outlet</i>). 9am is when once-per-day precipitation measurements are reported (see Section 3.5.2).		
<i>daystart_Q</i>	Time (UTC) for streamflow day start time, assuming local standard time for <i>state_outlet</i> . This varies by state/territory (Section 3.5.2).		
<i>nested_status</i>	"Not nested" indicates the catchment is not contained within any other. "Level1" means it is contained within another, except in cases where it is contained in another "Level1" catchment in which case it is marked "Level2". There are no "Level3" catchments in the present dataset.		
<i>next_station_ds</i>	For "Level1" and "Level2" nested catchments, <i>NextStationDS</i> ('DS' meaning downstream) indicates the catchment they are contained within.		
<i>num_nested_within</i>	Indicates how many catchments are nested within this catchment.		
<i>start_date</i>	Streamflow gauging start date (yyyymmdd)	HRS (see above)	
<i>end_date</i>	Streamflow gauging end date (yyyymmdd)		
<i>prop_missing_data</i>	Proportion of data missing between startdate and enddate		

248 streamflow data, the BOM also provide quality codes/flags. As mentioned in Section 2.1, the quality codes/flags of each state
 249 of Australia are different but the BOM has harmonised these to a common set (www.bom.gov.au/water/hrs/qc_doc.shtml).
 250 For CAMELS-AUS, these data are supplied as follows. Firstly, summary statistics about period of record (start date, end date
 251 and proportion of missing data) are provided in the attribute table, as listed in Table 1. Regarding timeseries data (Table 2),
 252 each of the above three data types (gap filled, non-gap-filled, and quality codes/flags), are provided within CAMELS-AUS
 253 exactly as supplied by the BOM, except that they are presented as a single file across all catchments. In addition, since the
 254 units of the streamflow files are ML d^{-1} whereas modelling studies typically use mm d^{-1} , CAMELS-AUS provides an additional
 255 streamflow timeseries file in mm d^{-1} .

256

257 Figure 2 shows that CAMELS-AUS stations are typically long term gauges, with the shortest record being 29 years. All but
 258 17 gauges commence by 1975 (in line with the selection rules in Section 3.1) and all but 22 of the records contain data up until
 259 the cut-off date for this dataset which is 31st December 2014. Thus, records longer than 40 years are typical (Figure 2b).
 260 Figure 2a considers both the record extent and missing data to determine the overall data availability for different overlapping
 261 periods. The data availability for the periods starting in 1965 and 1970 are lower than the others, as expected given the remarks
 262 about record length. An increase in missing data post-1990 means that the data availability curves decrease slightly for the
 263 most recent period (dark blue).



264

265 **Figure 2: Plot after Coxon et al. (2020) showing (a) Number of stations with percentage of available streamflow data for different**
 266 **periods, b) Length of the flow time series for each gauge.**

267 Information about streamflow uncertainty is provided with CAMELS-AUS (Table 1) from an earlier study by McMahon and
268 Peel (2019). McMahon and Peel (2019) examined available rating curve data for 166 of the 222 stations, developed rating
269 curves based on Chebyshev polynomials and estimated uncertainties using an approach which considered regression error and
270 uncertainty in water level. The original authors post-processed their data to provide the following statistics (Table 3) for
271 CAMELS-AUS: (i) Number of separate rating curves considered for a given station (median value across all stations was 3);
272 (ii) Number of days considered across all curves (median value was ~14,700 or ~40 years); (iii) low, medium and high flow
273 rates in mm d⁻¹ (discharge exceeded 90%, 50% and 10% of the time over days considered by the curves); (iv) 95% confidence
274 intervals around the low, medium and high flow estimates, expressed in percentage terms. However, for some stations
275 considered by McMahon and Peel (2019) the above data are not supplied in full, for the following reasons: (a) the percentile
276 flow is zero (cease to flow), leading to undefined relative uncertainty estimates due to the need to divide by zero; or (b) the
277 percentile flow is outside the rated range, in which case neither upper or lower bounds are reported for that flow. In a small
278 number of cases the uncertainty bound numbers are very high, and these cases are generally associated with near-cease-to-
279 flow conditions. For example, the highest value of $Q_{uncert_Q10_upper}$ (refer Table 3 for naming conventions) occurs for
280 catchment 919309A, for which Q10 is 0.000023 mm d⁻¹ but the upper bound is 0.05 mm d⁻¹, which is >2000 times higher.
281 Thus, $Q_{uncert_Q10_upper}$ for this catchment is 201,400%.

282

283 *Included in dataset:* Three streamflow timeseries files for flow, as explained above and listed in Table 2. One timeseries file
284 for streamflow quality codes/flags. In the CAMELS-AUS attribute table: three attributes related to record extent and
285 availability (startdate, enddate, prop_missing_data; see Table 1) plus eleven attributes related to streamflow uncertainty
286 ($Q_{uncert_NumCurves}$, Q_{uncert_N} , Q_{uncert_Q10} , $Q_{uncert_Q10_upper}$, $Q_{uncert_Q10_lower}$, Q_{uncert_Q50} ,
287 $Q_{uncert_Q50_upper}$, $Q_{uncert_Q50_lower}$, Q_{uncert_Q90} , $Q_{uncert_Q90_upper}$, $Q_{uncert_Q90_lower}$; see Table 3).

288 3.5 Hydrometeorological timeseries

289 3.5.1 Availability of gridded hydrometeorological data in Australia

290 It is common practice in large sample hydrology studies to derive climate timeseries inputs by processing gridded data rather
291 than directly using gauged point information (as is still common in industry). The first Australia-wide gridded climate product
292 was the Scientific Information For Land Owners (SILO) project of the government of the State of Queensland (Jeffrey et al.,
293 2001). Later, the BOM developed a separate set of climate grids under the Australian Water Availability Project (AWAP;
294 Jones et al., 2009). SILO and AWAP are similar: they are both interpolated products based purely on the BoM's climate
295 monitoring sites and (where relevant) incorporating topography as a co-variate. They both output grids on a resolution of
296 $0.05^\circ \times 0.05^\circ$ (approximately 5 km). However, the datasets differ in the variables they provide: AWAP provides precipitation,
297 temperature, vapour pressure and radiation, all of which SILO also provides in addition to vapour pressure deficit, and,
298 importantly for modelling studies, various formulations of potential evapotranspiration (PET). They also differ in spatial

299 interpolation method: the SILO method forces an exact match to measured values, whereas AWAP does not (Tozer et al.,
300 2012). Both AWAP and SILO are commonly used in Australia. Rather than select one dataset over another, CAMELS-AUS
301 includes both datasets and leaves the choice to users. When possible, users are encouraged to compare the datasets to obtain
302 insights into interpolation uncertainty for the forcing data. For all AWAP and SILO variables, timeseries for each catchment
303 were compiled by the CAMELS-AUS project by calculating the catchment spatial average separately for each day. The full
304 available period was extracted which for most variables is 1900-2018 (SILO) and 1911-2017 (AWAP). Exceptions to these
305 record extents are noted in the text below.

306 **3.5.2 Limitations arising from conventions for definition of daily timesteps**

307 Variables such as precipitation and streamflow are continuous, and formatting into a daily timestep requires arbitrary
308 conventions to split continuous time into 24 hour periods. For example, the BOM convention is that precipitation is split at
309 9am each day, and a daily value refers to the precipitation that occurred over the preceding 24 hours. Thus, if the BOM reports
310 18 mm precipitation for 14th March, this means that 18 mm was recorded between 9am 13th March and 9am 14th March. For
311 streamflow, the conventions may vary depending on state or territory, but in collating the HRS data the BOM claims that
312 conventions have been standardised to 9am to 9am (ie. the same as precipitation). However, an audit of HRS data conducted
313 by Jian et al. (2017) investigated this standardisation. They report that data from the states of Victoria, New South Wales,
314 Queensland and the Australian Capital Territory (which together account for 168 of 222 stations) were consistent with the 9am
315 to 9am claim. In contrast, they report that Western Australia (16 stations) data appear to be subject to a 01:00 split (ie. 8 hours
316 earlier than expected) and South Australia and Northern Territory data (25 stations) appear to be subject to a 23:30 split (ie.
317 9.5 hours earlier than expected). Modellers should be mindful of these points when designing studies and interpreting results,
318 since modelling results may be sensitive (Reynolds et al., 2018; Jian et al., 2017) to the day definitions for both precipitation
319 and discharge (and, if relevant, the degree to which they are offset from one another). Regarding PET, the key variables (eg.
320 temperature) are aligned directly with the day they are reported. This creates a time offset between PET and precipitation. In
321 the experience of the CAMELS-AUS authors, this offset will typically make little difference to the results of (eg.) a rainfall
322 runoff modelling study, since PET typically influences streamflow via seasonal, not daily, dynamics, in most CAMELS-AUS
323 catchments. In the interests of providing CAMELS-AUS data subject to minimal manipulation, we do not apply a time shift
324 to PET (or any other data), but users may wish to manually shift PET earlier by one day to minimise the time offset between
325 precipitation and streamflow.

326
327 A further consideration is that, due to Australia's large size, the CAMELS-AUS catchments occupy three different timezones.
328 The majority are in a single zone (UTC+10:00) covering Queensland, New South Wales, the Australian Capital Territory,
329 Victoria and Tasmania. However, South Australia and the Northern Territory are in a separate zone (UTC+09:30); while
330 Western Australia uses UTC+08:00. In addition, daylight saving time is used in South Australia, New South Wales, the
331 Australian Capital Territory, Victoria, and Tasmania. During the daylight savings period (typically October to April) one hour

332 needs to be added to the UTC times stated above. Given this multiplicity of combinations, measurements taken on either side
333 of a state border that are marked with the same timestamp (eg. 9am) may, in reality, have been taken at different times.
334

335 Unfortunately, these limitations (related to timezones and day definitions) are inherent to the observations, and this then carries
336 across into derivative products such as gridded climate data. In principle, if data were measured continuously it would be
337 possible to redefine the day definitions and thus harmonise across timezones and data products, but unfortunately most
338 observations are only taken once per day rather than continuously. Thus, there is little choice but to accept the use of these
339 data despite these limitations.

340 **3.5.2 Precipitation**

341 AWAP and SILO precipitation are provided in the files *precipitation_awap.csv* and *precipitation_silo.csv*, respectively (Table
342 2). Users interested in a comparison of AWAP and SILO precipitation are referred to Tozer et al. (2012) who note that the
343 two products vary due to differences in interpolation methods, as noted above. They also assess the impact of adopting these
344 gridded products on rainfall runoff modelling outcomes, which may be of interest to CAMELS-AUS users.
345

346 One further rainfall-related timeseries file is *precipitation_var_awap.csv* which provides, for each day, the spatial variance
347 due to differences between grid cell values within a given catchment. This analysis was conducted using the tool *AWAPer*
348 (Peterson et al., 2020) and the outputs can be used to understand how representative areal averages are across a given
349 catchment, and how this varies with time.

350 **3.5.3 Evaporative demand**

351 As noted, evaporation and evapotranspiration variables are provided by SILO only (Table 2). SILO provides PET estimates
352 for the FAO56 short crop (FAO, 1956) and ASCE tall crop (ASCE, 2000) methodologies, in addition to three
353 evapotranspiration formulations from Morton (1983), namely point potential, areal wet environment potential, and areal actual.
354 Three additional evaporation products are also provided, namely Morton (1983) shallow lake, interpolated Class A pan
355 evaporation (which only covers the measured period, 1970 onwards), and synthetic Class A pan evaporation extended to the
356 full SILO period using the method of Rayner (2005). See Table 2 for adopted file names.

357 **3.5.4 Other timeseries**

358 AWAP timeseries are provided for a further four variables: daily maximum temperature, daily minimum temperature, vapour
359 pressure (1950 onwards), and solar radiation (1990 onwards). Solar radiation AWAP data has numerous gaps which have
360 been filled by the average Julian Day value: for example, if the 5th March is missing, we adopt the average value over all non-

Table 2: Hydrometeorological time series data supplied with CAMELS-AUS. All timesteps are daily. All non-streamflow data were processed as part of the CAMELS-AUS project to extract catchment averages from Australia-wide AWAP/SILO grids.

Category	File name	Source data	Description / comments	Unit
streamflow	<i>streamflow_MLd.csv</i>	Hydrologic Reference Stations (HRS) project, Bureau of Meteorology (BOM) www.bom.gov.au/water/hrs	Streamflow (not gap filled)	ML d ⁻¹
	<i>streamflow_MLd_infilled.csv</i>		Streamflow gap filled by the BOM using GR4J (Perrin et al, 2003)	ML d ⁻¹
	<i>streamflow_mmd.csv</i>		Streamflow (not gap filled) expressed as depths relative to CAMELS-AUS adopted catchment areas (Table 1).	mm d ⁻¹
	<i>streamflow_QualityCodes.csv</i>		Quality codes/flags as supplied by the HRS website, with meanings listed at www.bom.gov.au/water/hrs/qc_doc.shtml	-
precipitation	<i>precipitation_awap.csv</i>	BOM's Australian Water Availability Project (AWAP), (Jones et al., 2009) www.bom.gov.au/climate/maps/AWAP provides 0.05° grids.	catchment average precipitation	mm d ⁻¹
	<i>precipitation_var_awap.csv</i>		Spatial internal variance in precipitation as calculated by the 'AWAPer' tool (Peterson et al. 2020).	mm ² d ⁻²
	<i>precipitation_silo.csv</i>		catchment average precipitation	
Actual and potential evapo-transpiration (AET and PET)	<i>et_short_crop_silo.csv</i>	Scientific Information for Land Owners (SILO) project, Government of Queensland (Jeffrey et al., 2001) www.longpaddock.qld.gov.au SILO provides 0.05° grids.	FAO56 short crop PET (see FAO, 1998)	mm d ⁻¹
	<i>et_tall_crop_silo.csv</i>		ASCE tall crop PET (see ASCE, 2000)	
	<i>et_morton_wet_silo.csv</i>		Morton (1983) wet-environment areal PET over land	
	<i>et_morton_point_silo.csv</i>		Morton (1983) point PET	
	<i>et_morton_actual_silo.csv</i>		Morton (1983) areal AET	
evaporation	<i>evap_morton_lake_silo.csv</i>		Morton (1983) shallow lake evaporation	
	<i>evap_pan_silo.csv</i>		Interpolated Class A pan evaporation	
	<i>evap_syn_silo.csv</i>		Interpolated synthetic extended Class A pan evaporation (Rayner, 2005)	
temperature	<i>tmax_awap.csv</i>	AWAP (see above)	Daily maximum temperature	°C
	<i>tmax_silo.csv</i>	SILO (see above)		
	<i>tmin_awap.csv</i>	AWAP (see above)	Daily minimum temperature	
	<i>tmin_silo.csv</i>	SILO (see above)		
Other variables	<i>solarrad_awap.csv</i>	AWAP (see above)	Solar radiation	MJ m ⁻²
	<i>radiation_silo.csv</i>	SILO (see above)		
	<i>vprp_awap.csv</i>	AWAP (see above)	Vapour pressure	hPa
	<i>vp_silo.csv</i>	SILO (see above)		
	<i>vp_deficit_silo.csv</i>		Vapour pressure deficit	hPa
	<i>rh_tmax_silo.csv</i>		Relative humidity at the time of maximum temperature	%
	<i>rh_tmin_silo.csv</i>		Relative humidity at the time of minimum temperature	%
	<i>mslp_silo.csv</i>		Mean sea level pressure	hPa

Table 3: Flow uncertainty information, climatic indices and streamflow signatures provided in the attribute table of CAMELS-AUS

Short Name	Description	Units	Data source / notes
<i>q_uncert_NumCurves</i>	Flow uncertainty: number of rating curves considered in analysis by McMahon and Peel (2019), and total number (<i>Q_uncert_N</i>) of days the curves apply to	-	McMahon and Peel (2019)
<i>q_uncert_N</i>			
<i>q_uncert_q10</i>	Q10 (ie. flow exceeded 90% of the time) flow value with 95% confidence limits. Note, only calculated considering days for which rating curves are available.	mm d ⁻¹	
<i>q_uncert_q10_upper</i>		%	
<i>q_uncert_q10_lower</i>		%	
<i>q_uncert_q50</i>	As above but for the median flow	mm d ⁻¹	
<i>q_uncert_q50_upper</i>		%	
<i>q_uncert_q50_lower</i>		%	
<i>q_uncert_q90</i>	As above but for Q90 (flow exceeded 10% of the time)	mm d ⁻¹	
<i>q_uncert_q90_upper</i>		%	
<i>q_uncert_q90_lower</i>		%	
<i>p_mean</i>	mean daily precipitation	mm d ⁻¹	Climatic signatures are calculated using code from Addor et al. (2017), using the following datasets (cf. Table 1) - Precipitation is based on AWAP rainfall. - PET is based on SILO Morton Wet Env. PET - temperature data is based on AWAP temperature
<i>pet_mean</i>	mean daily potential evapotranspiration (PET) (Morton's Wet Environment)	mm d ⁻¹	
<i>aridity</i>	aridity (<i>pet_mean</i> / <i>p_mean</i>)	-	
<i>p_seasonality</i>	precipitation seasonality (0: uniform; +ve: Dec/Jan peak; -ve: Jun/Jul peak)	-	
<i>frac_snow</i>	fraction of precipitation on days colder than 0° C	-	
<i>high_prec_freq</i>	frequency of high precipitation days, ≥5 times <i>p_mean</i>	d y ⁻¹	
<i>high_prec_dur</i>	average duration of high precipitation events	days	
<i>high_prec_timing</i>	season during which most high precip. days occur (djf, mam, jja, or son)	season	
<i>low_prec_freq</i>	frequency of dry days (≤ 1 mm/d)	d y ⁻¹	
<i>low_prec_dur</i>	average duration of low precipitation periods (days ≤ 1 mm/d)	days	
<i>low_prec_timing</i>	season during which most dry days occur (djf, mam, jja, or son)	season	
<i>q_mean</i>	mean daily streamflow	mm d ⁻¹	Hydrologic signatures are calculated using code from Addor et al. (2017). Where required, climate datasets are the same as above.
<i>runoff_ratio</i>	ratio of mean daily streamflow to mean daily precipitation	-	
<i>stream_elas</i>	sensitivity of annual streamflow to annual rainfall changes	-	
<i>slope_fdc</i>	slope of flow duration curve (log transformed) from percentiles 33 to 66	-	
<i>baseflow_index</i>	baseflow as a proportion of total streamflow, calculated by recursive filter	-	Original sources of signature formulations: - <i>stream_elas</i> - Sankarasubramanian et al. (2001); - <i>slope_fdc</i> - Sawicz et al. (2011); - <i>baseflow_index</i> - Ladson et al. (2013); and - <i>hdf_mean</i> - Court (1962).
<i>hdf_mean</i>	mean half flow date (date marking the passage of half the year's flow). Calculated according to April-March water years.	day of year	
<i>Q5</i>	5% flow quantile (low flow – flow exceeded 95% of the time)	mm d ⁻¹	
<i>Q95</i>	95% flow quantile (high flow – flow exceeded 5% of the time)	mm d ⁻¹	
<i>high_q_freq</i>	frequency of high flow days (≥9 times mean daily flow)	d y ⁻¹	
<i>high_q_dur</i>	average duration of high flow events	days	
<i>low_q_freq</i>	frequency of low flow days (< 0.2 times mean daily flow)	d y ⁻¹	
<i>low_q_dur</i>	average duration of low flow periods	days	
<i>zero_q_freq</i>	frequency of days with Q = 0	d y ⁻¹	

365 missing instances of the 5th March. SILO timeseries are provided for the following variables: daily maximum temperature,
366 daily minimum temperature, vapour pressure, vapour pressure deficit, solar radiation, mean sea level pressure (1957 onwards),
367 relative humidity at time of maximum temperature and relative humidity at time of minimum temperature. See Table 2 for
368 adopted file names.

369 **3.6 Catchment attributes**

370 The following subsections, along with Tables 3 and 4, summarise the set of CAMELS-AUS catchment attributes. Spatial
371 distributions of selected attributes are mapped in Figure 3.

372

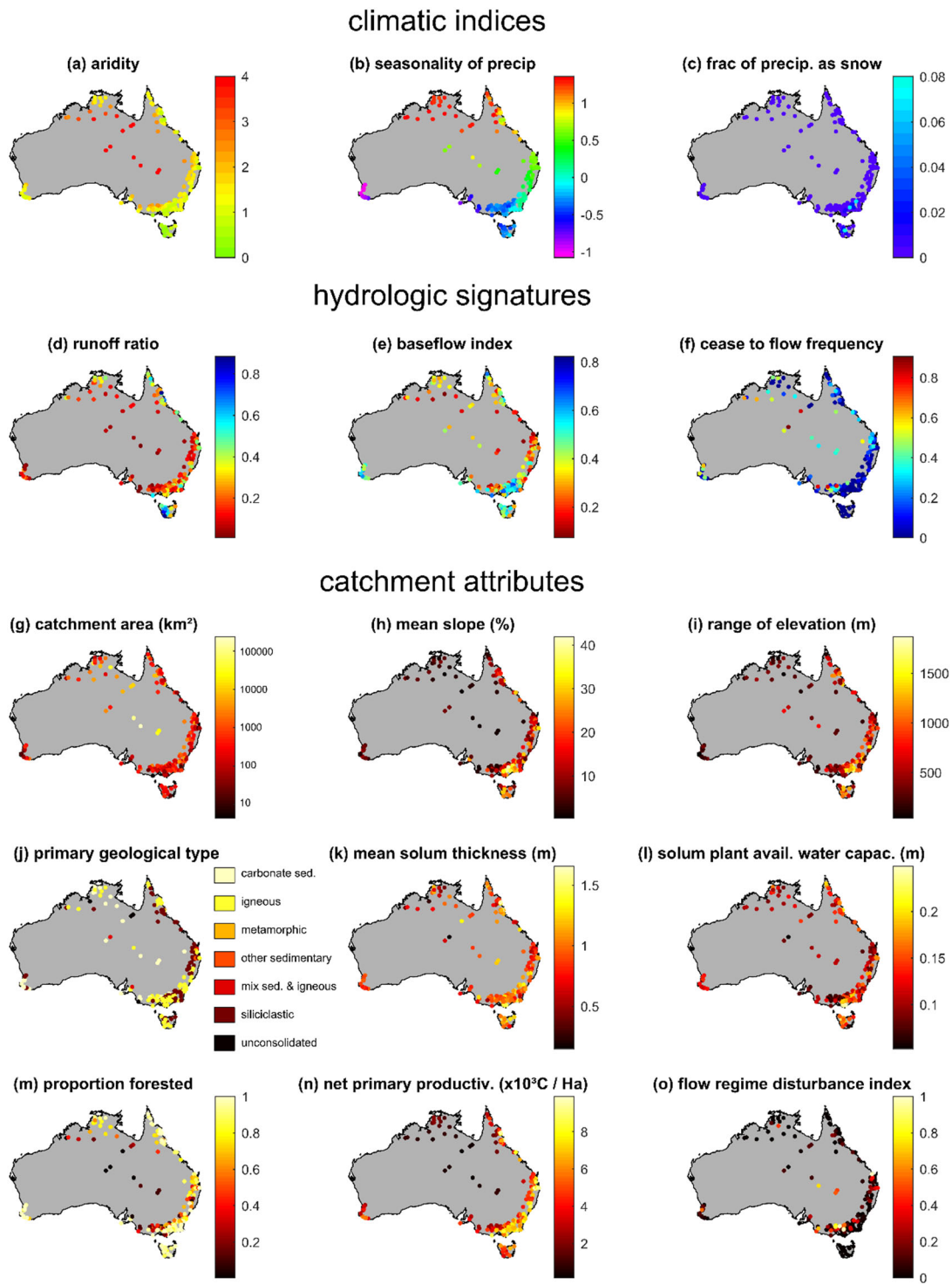
373 We note that the CAMELS-AUS dataset owes much to the earlier work of Stein et al. (2011), whose *National Environmental*
374 *Stream Attributes* project calculated a broad variety of catchment attributes spatially across Australia, 74 of which are included
375 in CAMELS-AUS dataset. Stein et al. (2011) calculated these for the upstream area of each stream segment in Australia based
376 on a 250k scale stream and catchment dataset (the BOM Geospatial Fabric v2.1, www.bom.gov.au/water/geofabric/), and the
377 contribution of the CAMELS-AUS project for the 74 indices is limited to (i) spatially matching each outlet to the appropriate
378 segment (of which there are 1.4 million to choose from); and (ii) sorting through the attributes to identify those relevant to
379 CAMELS-AUS (eg., not all Stein et al. 2011 attributes relate to the upstream catchment area; others relate to the local area
380 immediately around the stream segment and are thus irrelevant as CAMELS-AUS attributes in nearly all cases).

381 **3.6.1 Climatic indices and streamflow signatures**

382 Eleven climatic indices are provided, as listed in Table 3, calculated using the same code used in the original CAMELS (Addor
383 et al., 2017). The code requires input timeseries of precipitation, temperature and PET, and for this purpose AWAP was used
384 where available (precipitation, temperature) and for PET, SILO Morton Areal Wet Environment PET was used (this
385 combination of inputs is consistent with past modelling studies such as Fowler 2016; 2018; 2020b). Likewise, thirteen
386 streamflow signature indices are provided, as listed in Table 3, also calculated using code from Addor et al. (2017). Together,
387 the climatic and streamflow indices cover a wide range of statistics commonly used to characterise hydroclimate in modelling
388 and regionalisation studies, and their common formulation with Addor et al. (2017) aids intercontinental comparison.

389 **3.6.2 Geology and soils**

390 Geology data are taken from Stein et al. (2011) which in turn is from the 1:1,000,000 scale *Surface Geology of Australia*.
391 In Table 4 this dataset is cited for brevity as *Geoscience Australia (2008)* but here we acknowledge the detailed state-by-state
392 work of Liu et al. (2006), Raymond et al. (2007a, 2007b, 2007c), Stewart et al. (2008), and Whitaker et al. (2007, 2008). For
393 each catchment the proportion taken up by each of the seven geological types is provided as separate attributes. Additionally,
394 we follow Alvarez-Garreton et al. (2018) in defining separate categorical attributes for the primary and secondary geological
395 units (see Figure 3j for a map of the primary types) with their respective areas defined as separate numerical attributes.



396

397

398

Figure 3: Maps of selected climatic indices (a – c), hydrologic signatures (d – f) and other catchment attributes (g – o). For definitions, see Tables 3 and 4.

399 Soils data are taken from a variety of sources. The soil depth attribute (*SolumThickness*) is based on the Atlas of Australian
400 Soils (Isbell, 2002), which divides Australia into soil ‘map units’, each with associated ‘principle profile forms’ (ppfs) in order
401 of dominance. In turn, the dataset provides estimates (McKenzie et al., 2000) of the distribution of solum thicknesses (as 5th,
402 50th and 95th percentiles) associated with each ppf. The CAMELS-AUS *SolumThickness* is defined as a spatial average across
403 the map units that occur in the catchment, where the depth assumed for a given map unit is the median value for its dominant
404 ppf. Soil saturated hydraulic conductivity (*ksat*) and water holding capacity (*solpawhc*) are taken from Stein et al. (2011)
405 which in turn is from Soil Hydrologic Properties of Australia (Western and McKenzie, 2004).

406 **3.6.3 Topography and geometry**

407 Maximum elevation and average elevation are each taken from Stein et al. (2011), but because the gauging stations themselves
408 are not features in the Stein et al. dataset, we calculate the elevation at the outlet separately. Catchment slope is calculated as
409 the spatial average of the slope product of Gallant et al. (2012), which is itself based on the 1 second SRTM DEM.

410
411 Stein et al. (2011) provide a variety of attributes related to the geometry of the catchment and/or stream network. Each of
412 these are based on the geometry of the streams and catchments defined in the BOM’s Geospatial Fabric v2.1
413 (www.bom.gov.au/water/geofabric/download.shtml), which itself is based on the 9 second (approximately 270 m) DEM of
414 Hutchinson et al. (2008). The attributes are: (i) maximum flow path length *upsdist* upstream from the outlet; (ii) stream density;
415 (iii) Strahler (1957) stream order at outlet; (iv) elongation ratio; (v) relief, here defined as ratio of the mean and maximum
416 elevations above the outlet; and (vi) relief ratio, here defined as elevation range divided by flow path distance.

417
418 Further attributes are defined based on the *Multi-Resolution Valley Bottom Flatness* (MRVBF) index of Gallant et al. (2012).
419 As the name indicates, the index relates to the shape of the landscape and the degree of deposited sediment. As explained in
420 Table 4, the index values contrast erosional (MRVBF=0) locations with depositional (MRVBF>0) locations ranging from
421 ‘small hillside deposits’ (MRVBF=1) through to ‘extensive depositional basins’ (MRVBF=9). Ten separate attributes are
422 defined based on each integer value (0, 1 ... 9) that MRVBF can take, indicating the proportion of the catchment in the given
423 class. Lastly, using an earlier MRVBF version, Stein et al. (2011) analysed how common it is for a stream to pass through
424 erosional landscapes (MRVBF=0), and defined this as an additional attribute, ‘confinement’.

425 **3.6.4 Land cover and vegetation**

426 Land cover and vegetation attributes are primarily based on the Dynamic Land Cover Dataset (DLCD), v2 of Lymburner et
427 al. (2015). Across Australia, the DLCD maps 22 land cover classes using MODIS satellite data over rolling two year windows,
428 providing 13 separate time-slices (Jan. 02 – Dec. 2003, Jan. 03 – Dec. 04 ... Jan. 2014 – Dec. 2015). The CAMELS-AUS
429 dataset incorporates this data in three ways:

- 430 1. A separate attribute for each land cover class, where the attribute value indicates the temporal average proportion of
431 the catchment taken up by the class over the 13 time-slices;
- 432 2. Since ‘proportion forested’ is an oft-used catchment attribute, a separate attribute is defined as the sum of the four
433 DLCDC classes which mention trees (‘trees – closed’, ‘trees – open’, ‘trees – scattered’ and ‘trees – sparse’); and
- 434 3. The timeseries data itself is provided in full for each catchment, in a separate spreadsheet *Landcover_timeseries.xlsx*
435

436 The DLCDC dataset is complemented by data from Stein et al. (2011), in turn sourced from the National Vegetation Information
437 System (NVIS; DEWR, 2006). Stein et al. (2011) report the proportion of the catchment occupied by NVIS “major vegetation
438 subgroups” (categories are grasses, forests, shrubs, woodlands and bare). This has considerable overlap with the DLCDC, and
439 the reason it is included is because the NVIS also estimates the proportion of these vegetation types that existed in the
440 catchment’s ‘natural’ state (pre-1750; note this is pre-European but not pre-Indigenous settlement). For each of the 5
441 categories, the NVIS provides natural pre-1750 (‘_n’) and ‘extant’ (meaning current, ‘_e’) statistics.

442 **3.6.5 Anthropogenic influences**

443 Anthropogenic influences are relevant to CAMELS-AUS because some catchments are minimally disturbed (eg. pre-European
444 vegetation cover, few roads) while others, although unregulated, are nonetheless significantly changed from their natural state
445 (eg. due to agricultural land use, small private (farm) dams, small towns and/or paved roads). Data on anthropogenic influences
446 are taken from Stein et al. (2011) based on earlier work with the same lead author (Stein et al., 2002). The earlier study aimed
447 to identify the ‘wild’ rivers of Australia by quantifying human impacts on two broad categories: the flow regime (sub
448 categories: impoundments, flow diversions and levee banks) and the catchment (sub categories: infrastructure, settlements,
449 extractive industries and landuse). Following the same method, Stein et al. (2011) provide a unitless index varying between
450 zero and one to quantify human effects in each of these categories and subcategories, all of which are in CAMELS-AUS.

451
452 In addition to the Stein et al. (2002) indices, one further attribute from the Stein et al. (2011) dataset is included in CAMELS-
453 AUS: the length of river upstream before encountering a dam. Although most of the current catchments lack large dams (and
454 thus this will be the same as *upsdist*, see Section 3.7.2), it is possible that future releases may include catchments that are
455 marginally regulated and the index might be relevant in these cases.

456 **3.6.6 Other catchment attributes**

457 This final category contains indices that do not easily fit in one category, or that fit into more than one. The attributes
458 quantifying human population are included here as they are relevant to both the land cover category and the anthropogenic
459 influences, but fit neatly into neither. These population attributes, taken from Stein et al. (2011), are based on aggregation of
460 census population to 9 second grid squares, and quantify the spatial average, the maximum grid value present in the catchment,

Table 4: Catchment attributes included in the attributes table of CAMELS-AUS (apart from climatic and hydrologic indices)

	Short name	Description	Unit	Data source	Notes/references		
Geology and Soils	<i>geol_prim</i>	Two most common geologies (see list in cell below) with corresponding proportions.	-	Geoscience Australia (2008)	Preprocessed by Stein et al. (2011)		
	<i>geol_prim_prop</i>						
	<i>geol_sec</i>						
	<i>geol_sec_prop</i>						
	<i>unconsoldted</i>	Proportion of catchment taken up by individual geological types, specifically: unconsolidated rocks; igneous rocks, siliciclastic/undifferentiated sedimentary rocks; carbonate sedimentary rocks; other sedimentary rocks; metamorphic rocks; and mixed sedimentary/igneous rocks.	-				
	<i>igneous</i>						
	<i>silicised</i>						
	<i>carbntated</i>						
	<i>othersed</i>						
	<i>metamorph</i>						
	<i>sedvolc</i>						
	<i>oldrock</i>	Catchment proportion old bedrock	-				
	<i>claya</i>	Percent clay in the soil A & B horizons, for the stream valley in the reach containing gauging station.	%			National Land and Water Resources Audit (2001)	Preprocessed by Stein et al. (2011)
	<i>clayb</i>						
<i>sanda</i>	As above, but % sand in the soil A horizon	%					
<i>solum_thickness</i>	Mean soil depth considering all principle profile forms	m	McKenzie et al. (2000)	-			
<i>ksat</i>	Saturated hydraulic conductivity (areal mean)	mm h ⁻¹	Western and McKenzie (2004)	Preprocessed by Stein et al. (2011)			
<i>solpawhc</i>	Solum plant available water holding capacity (areal mean)	mm					
Topography and geometry	<i>elev_min</i>	Elevation above sea level at gauging station	m	Gallant et al. (2009)	-		
	<i>elev_max</i>	Catchment maximum and mean elevation above sea level	m	Hutchinson et al. (2008)	Preprocessed by Stein et al. (2011)		
	<i>elev_mean</i>						
	<i>elev_range</i>	Range of elevation within catchment: <i>elev_max</i> - <i>elev_min</i>	m		-		
	<i>mean_slope_pct</i>	Mean slope, calculated on a grid-cell-by-grid-cell basis	%	Gallant et al. (2012)	-		
	<i>upsdist</i>	Maximum flow path length upstream	km	Hutchinson et al. (2008)	Preprocessed by Stein et al. (2011). For <i>strahler</i> , see Strahler (1957) For <i>elongratio</i> , see Gordon et al. (1992).		
	<i>strdensity</i>	Ratio: (total length of streams) / (catchment area)	km ⁻¹				
	<i>strahler</i>	Strahler stream order at gauging station	-				
	<i>elongratio</i>	Factor of elongation as defined in Gordon et al. (1992)	-				
	<i>relief</i>	Ratio: (mean elev. above outlet)/(max elev. above outlet)	-				
	<i>reliefratio</i>	Ratio: (elevation range)/(flow path distance)	-				
	<i>mrvbf_prop_0 through to mrvbf_prop_9</i>	Proportion of catchment occupied by classes of Multi-Resolution Valley Bottom Flatness (MRVBF). These indicate areas subject to deposition. Broad interpretations are: 0 – erosional; 1 – small hillside deposit; 2-3 – narrow valley floor; 4 – valley floor; 5-6 – extensive valley floor; 7-8 – depositional basin; 9 – extensive depositional basin	-	CSIRO (2016)	Gallant and Dowling (2003)		
<i>confinement</i>	Proportion of stream segment cells & neighbouring cells that are not valley bottoms (as defined by MRVBF)	-	Hutchinson et al. (2008)	Preprocessed by Stein et al. (2011)			
Land Cover and Vegetation	<i>lc01_extracti</i>	Proportion of catchment occupied by land cover categories within the <i>Dynamic Land Cover Dataset</i> (DLCD): <i>mines and quarries</i> (ISO name: <i>extraction sites</i>) <i>lakes and dams</i> (<i>inland water bodies</i>) <i>salt lakes</i> (<i>salt lakes</i>) <i>irrigated cropping</i> (<i>irrigated cropping</i>) <i>irrigated pasture</i> (<i>irrigated pasture</i>) <i>irrigated sugar</i> (<i>irrigated sugar</i>) <i>rain fed cropping</i> (<i>rainfed cropping</i>) <i>rain fed pasture</i> (<i>rainfed pasture</i>) <i>rain fed sugar</i> (<i>rainfed sugar</i>) <i>wetlands</i> (<i>wetlands</i>) <i>closed tussock grassland</i> (<i>tussock grasses - closed</i>) <i>alpine meadows</i> (<i>alpine grasses - open</i>) <i>open hummock grassland</i> (<i>hummock grasses - open</i>)	-	Lymburner et al. (2015)	Note, the source dataset has 13 timeslices; these attributes indicate the temporal average. The timeslices are separately supplied with CAMELS-AUS		
	<i>lc03_waterbo</i>						
	<i>lc04_saltlak</i>						
	<i>lc05_irrcrop</i>						
	<i>lc06_irrpast</i>						
	<i>lc07_irrsuga</i>						
	<i>lc08_rfcropp</i>						
	<i>lc09_rfpastu</i>						
	<i>lc10_rfsugar</i>						
	<i>lc11_wetlands</i>						
	<i>lc14_tussclo</i>						
	<i>lc15_alpineg</i>						
	<i>lc16_openhum</i>						

	Short name	Description	Unit	Data source	Notes/references
	<i>lc18_opentus</i>	open tussock grasslands (<i>tussock grasses - open</i>)			
	<i>lc19_shrbsca</i>	scattered shrubs and grasses (<i>shrubs and grasses - sparse - scattered</i>)			
	<i>lc24_shrbden</i>	dense shrubland (<i>shrubs - closed</i>)			
	<i>lc25_shrbope</i>	open shrubland (<i>shrubs - open</i>)			
	<i>lc31_forclos</i>	closed forest (<i>trees - closed</i>)			
	<i>lc32_foropen</i>	open forest (<i>trees - open</i>)			
	<i>lc33_woodope</i>	open woodland (<i>trees - scattered</i>)			
	<i>lc34_woodspa</i>	woodland (<i>trees - sparse</i>)			
	<i>lc35_urbanar</i>	urban areas (<i>urban areas</i>)			
	<i>prop_forested</i>	sum(LC 31, LC 32, LC 33, LC 34)			
	<i>nv_grasses_n</i>	Major vegetation sub-groups within the <i>National Vegetation Information System (NVIS)</i> . Despite redundancy with the DLCD attributes (see above), these are included because NVIS quantifies alteration from 'natural' by differentiating between 'pre-1750' ('_n') and 'extant' ('_e'). Subgroups:	-	DEWR (2006)	Preprocessed by Stein et al. (2011)
	<i>nv_grasses_e</i>				
	<i>nv_forests_n</i>				
	<i>nv_forests_e</i>				
	<i>nv_shrubs_n</i>				
	<i>nv_shrubs_e</i>				
	<i>nv_woodl_n</i>				
	<i>nv_woodl_e</i>				
	<i>nv_bare_n</i>				
	<i>nv_bare_e</i>				
	<i>nv_nodata_n</i>				
	<i>nv_nodata_e</i>				
Anthropogenic Influences	<i>distupdamw</i>	maximum distance upstream before encountering a dam or water storage	km	Geoscience Australia (2004)	
	<i>impound_fac</i>	Dimensionless factors quantifying human impacts on catchment hydrology, in two broad categories: - Flow regime factors: impoundments (<i>ImpoundmF</i>), flow diversions (<i>FlowDivF</i>), and levee banks (<i>LeveebankF</i>). The combined effect is disturbance index <i>FlowRegimeDI</i> ; - Catchment factors: infrastructure (<i>InfrastrucF</i>), settlements (<i>SettlementF</i>), extractive industries (<i>ExtractiveIndF</i>) and landuse (<i>LanduseF</i>). The combined effect is captured in <i>CatchmentDI</i> . <i>FlowRegimeDI</i> and <i>CatchmentDI</i> are combined in <i>RiverDI</i>	-	Stein et al. (2002), updated by Stein et al. (2011)	Preprocessed by Stein et al. (2011)
	<i>flow_div_fac</i>				
	<i>leveebank_fac</i>				
	<i>infrastruc_fac</i>				
	<i>settlement_fac</i>				
	<i>extract_inf_fac</i>				
	<i>landuse_fac</i>				
	<i>catchment_di</i>				
<i>flow_regime_di</i>					
<i>river_di</i>					
Other	<i>pop_mean</i>	Average and maximum human population density in catchment across 3" grid squares.	km ⁻²	ABS (2006)	Preprocessed by Stein et al. (2011)
	<i>pop_max</i>				
	<i>pop_gt_1</i>				
	<i>pop_gt_10</i>				
	<i>erosivity</i>	Rainfall erosivity (spatial average across catchment)	MJ mm ha ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	NLWRA (2001)	
	<i>anngro_mega</i>	Average annual growth index value for megatherm, mesotherm and microtherm plants, respectively	-	Xu and Hutchinson (2011)	
	<i>anngro_meso</i>				
	<i>anngro_micro</i>				
	<i>gromega_seas</i>	Seasonality of growth index value for megatherm, mesotherem and microtherm plants, respectively	-		
	<i>gromeso_seas</i>				
<i>gromicro_seas</i>					
<i>npp_ann</i>	Net Primary Productivity estimated by Raupach et al. (2002) for pre-European settlement conditions: - annually; and - for the twelve calendar months of the year	tC Ha ⁻¹	Raupach et al. (2002)	Preprocessed by Stein et al. (2011)	
<i>npp_1</i>					
<i>through to npp_12</i>					

463 and the proportion of grid squares exceeding 1 and 10 people km⁻². A further inclusion is the erosivity which is primarily a
464 climatic attribute but is often used by studies associated with the soil category. The erosivity is taken from Stein et al. (2011)
465 and in turn from the National Land and Water Resources Audit (NLWRA, 2001).

466

467 Finally, there are two further subcategories of attributes: growth indices of plants, and net primary productivity statistics. The
468 growth indices of plants, compiled by Stein et al. (2011) and calculated using the Australian National University's ANUCLIM
469 program (Xu and Hutchinson, 2011), quantify the suitability of growing conditions (and the seasonality thereof) for three types
470 of plants: megatherm (plants living in relatively high temperatures year round), mesotherm (plants living in seasonally high
471 temperatures) and microtherm (plants living in low temperatures). Net primary productivity (NPP) statistics are provided from
472 Stein et al. (2011) based on Raupach et al. (2002). NPP is defined by Raupach et al. (2002) as "*plant photosynthesis less plant*
473 *respiration ... the carbon or biomass yield of the landscape*" and "*the most important driver of the coupled balances of water,*
474 *C, N and P*". Although Raupach et al. (2002) quantified both baseline (pre-agricultural) and current NPP, only the baseline
475 figures were processed by Stein et al. (2011). The attributes include the annual average NPP in addition to averages for each
476 calendar month separately.

477 **4 Data availability**

478 The CAMELS-AUS dataset is freely available for download from the Pangaea online repository at
479 <https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.921850> (Fowler et al., 2020a). The dataset can only be downloaded via Pangaea's
480 '*view dataset as html*' option, not '*download dataset as tab-delimited text*'. The dataset (along with datasets on which it is
481 based) is subject to a Creative Commons BY (attribution) licence agreement (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>).

482 **5 Conclusions**

483 This paper introduced a new freely available dataset for Australia, CAMELS-AUS. It is the fifth CAMELS dataset worldwide,
484 and the first large sample hydrology dataset for Australia to include data on climatic forcing, catchment attributes, and gauging
485 uncertainty. CAMELS-AUS provides timeseries data (streamflow and 18 climatic variables) and a broad set of 134 attributes,
486 for 222 unregulated catchments from across Australia. Given the unique hydroclimate of Australia, with high hydroclimatic
487 variability and many case studies of multi-year drought, it is hoped that the release of this dataset will accelerate progress in
488 such fields as arid zone hydrology and the study of hydrology under a changing climate.

489 **6 Author contribution**

490 KF and NA conceived the dataset with the support of MP. KF, NA and MP designed the dataset. KF, CC and SCA analysed
491 and compiled the hydrometeorological timeseries and catchment attribute data. MP analysed earlier work (McMahon and
492 Peel, 2019) to provide the uncertainty estimates included in the dataset. KF wrote the initial draft of the manuscript and all
493 co-authors edited and amended it to provide the final manuscript.

494 **7 Competing interests**

495 The authors declare they have no conflict of interest.

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