

## Highlights

### **Fast, accurate watershed delineation with a hybrid of raster and vector methods**

Matthew Heberger

- Open source software in Python enables delineation of watersheds of any size.
- Hybrid delineation using vector and raster data is faster than conventional methods.
- The Global Watersheds web app brings watershed delineation to the general public.

# Fast, accurate watershed delineation with a hybrid of raster and vector methods

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## Abstract

We describe a method of watershed delineation that combines vector-based methods (fast but approximate) and raster-based methods (more accurate but computationally expensive). This hybrid method is faster and uses less memory than existing software, and can be run on a normal laptop computer. This allows the delineation of very large watersheds, such as the Nile or the Mississippi, using high-resolution 90 m terrain data, in under 2 minutes on a laptop computer. While the hybrid concept is established, this work provides a rigorous validation, along with a modern, open-source implementation. We introduce a Python software package for performing watershed delineation almost anywhere on Earth using this method and the MERIT-Hydro and MERIT-Basins datasets. Benchmarking shows that the software is 10–100 times faster than conventional methods of watershed delineation, with equivalent accuracy. Compared with industry-standard software from ESRI, our software’s watersheds were a better match with USGS gage watersheds, with a coefficient of areal correspondence of 0.93. Finally, we describe Global Watersheds, a free and easy-to-use web application that allows anyone to find watersheds and downstream flow paths over almost all of the Earth’s land area (excluding Antarctica and some small islands). The app democratizes access to state-of-the-art hydrological analysis tools that were previously limited to specialists, making it a powerful tool for education, policy, and research.

*Keywords:* watersheds, rivers, Python, network analysis, open-source software, Digital Elevation Models

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## 1. Introduction

Watersheds, also referred to as *catchments* or *drainage basins*, are fundamental geographic units in hydrology. Watershed *delineation* is the process of finding a watershed’s boundaries. It is vital to many fields of science and engineering, such as the planning and analysis of water supply, flooding, aquatic habitat, or the fate and transport of pollutants. Historically, analysts delineated watersheds manually using paper topographic maps, using the elevation contour lines to determine the direction of steepest slope and the direction of water flow. Computerized methods for watershed delineation were introduced in the 1980s and have been widely used since. The basic methods of computerized watershed delineation were described by O’Callaghan and Mark (1984), and important contributions in data and software were made over the next two decades. Thorough overviews of watershed delineation using modern software is given by Maidment and Djokic (2000) and Johnson (2009).

Automated watershed delineation can sometimes be more accurate than manual delineation, especially where high-resolution terrain data is available. In any case, it is more repeatable and removes analysts’ subjectivity. Today, watershed delineation tools are a part of several Geographic Information System (GIS) software packages (e.g., ArcGIS, QGIS, GRASS, Whitebox, Global Mapper). In addition, there are standalone programs such as TauDEM (Tarboton, 2016), and watershed delineation functions in specialty hydrology software such as HEC-GeoHMS and SWAT+. Libraries are also available for Python (e.g., pysheds, PyFlwDir, PCRaster) and Matlab (Schwanghart and Scherler, 2014, TopoToolbox).

Most computer methods for watershed delineation use gridded, or *raster*, datasets that represent the elevation of the land surface and the direction and accumulation of water flow. Another class of methods uses *vector* data, with polylines representing rivers and flow pathways, and polygons representing subdivisions of drainage basins. Figure 1 illustrates the difference between vector and raster data models. Vector methods can be much faster, but the spatial resolution of the output watershed is limited by the size of the input data’s smallest polygons or unit catchments. Raster-based methods may be more accurate, but for large watersheds or for high-resolution input data, the analysis can be slow and require more computer memory than is available to

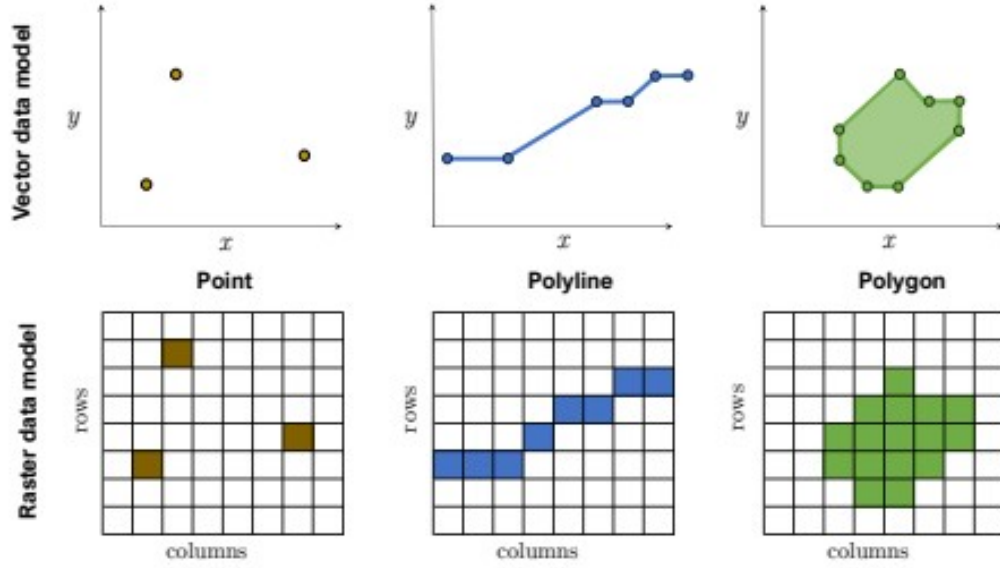


Figure 1: Raster and vector data models for geographic data.

36 some analysts.

37 The development of software described here was motivated by the author’s  
 38 need to delineate a large number of watersheds for studies in large-scale  
 39 hydrology (LSH). This subdiscipline of hydrology investigates the movement  
 40 and storage of water at spatial scales that range from multiple river basins  
 41 to the entire globe (Cloke and Hannah, 2011; Addor et al., 2020). One of  
 42 several challenges in large-scale investigations is the difficulty in accurately  
 43 delineating river basin boundaries (Kauffeldt et al., 2013). The ability to  
 44 create large numbers of watersheds, quickly and accurately, will facilitate  
 45 the next wave of innovative studies in the hydrologic sciences.<sup>1</sup>

#### 46 1.1. Raster methods of watershed delineation

47 Automated watershed delineation uses raster elevation data from a Dig-  
 48 ital Elevation Model (DEM). Raw DEM data generally produces inaccurate

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<sup>1</sup>Examples of notable applications that depended on large collections of catchments include: Prediction in Ungaged Basins (Hrachowitz et al., 2013); the Panta Rhei Initiative of the International Association of Hydrological Sciences (IAHS) focused on change in hydrology and society (Blöschl et al., 2025); and hydrologic forecasting with machine learning (e.g., Nearing et al., 2024).

flow networks, so a number of processing steps create a “hydrologically conditioned” DEM, typically including: fill pits, resolve flats, burn streams, and fence ridgelines. From the conditioned DEM, analysts create a flow-direction grid based on the steepest slope for each cell. The D8 algorithm, where water in each grid cell flows in 1 of 8 directions into an adjacent cell, remains the most widely used despite more complex alternatives like  $D\infty$  (Tarboton, 1997).

For the most accurate results, analysts use the highest-resolution data available. The current standard for global terrain data in hydrology is 3 arc-second resolution (approximately 90 m near the equator), as seen in HydroSHEDS (Lehner, 2022) and MERIT-Hydro (Yamazaki et al., 2019). This is 10 times better than datasets available 20 years ago, and this trend continues with the forthcoming HydroSHEDS version 2 based on 0.4 arcsecond (12 m) TanDEM-X data (Lehner et al., 2022).

Higher resolution brings challenges. File size and memory requirements increase quadratically with resolution. Large-scale hydrology studies often require high-performance computing facilities (e.g., Amatulli et al., 2022; Do et al., 2018), which are out of reach for many researchers, limiting the potential of high-resolution datasets.

One workaround for large watersheds is using lower-resolution data, common in large-sample hydrology (e.g., Pan et al., 2012) and global land surface modeling (e.g., Harrigan et al., 2020). However, flow-direction rasters from lower-resolution elevation data have historically had many errors requiring manual correction (Lehner, 2022), and watersheds automatically derived from coarse grids often have area errors exceeding 70% for basins over 5,000 km<sup>2</sup> (Kauffeldt et al., 2013).

Another approach involves *upscaling* raster datasets while preserving drainage network fidelity. The idea is to leverage high-resolution DEM accuracy to create accurate flow-direction grids, then upscale to more computationally lightweight resolutions. Watersheds delineated with lower-resolution data will have blocky boundaries, but if the polygon is accurate in size, extent, and location, it suffices for many applications. Eilander et al. (2021) developed an iterative algorithm for creating accurate upscaled flow-direction grids, as well as “scale invariant” estimates of river length and slope.

To speed up watershed delineation, recent approaches include enabling parallel processing for high-performance clusters or multi-core computers (e.g., Tarboton, 2016), leveraging GPUs (Kotyra, 2023; Kumar et al., 2025), and tiling strategies that reduce memory usage for continental-scale datasets

(Zhao et al., 2025).

The “watershed marching algorithm” by Haag et al. (2020) finds a watershed’s *perimeter* rather than every interior pixel, achieving 100–1,000 times faster performance than ESRI software. However, this requires precomputing a special data structure, and no source code is available.

Im algorithms and GPU capabilities can speed up watershed delineation compared to existing software. In this paper, we take a different approach: rather than optimizing raster processing, we seek to *minimize* the necessary raster processing and make use of more efficient vector-based geographic operations.

### 1.2. Vector methods of watershed delineation

For analysts not concerned with pixel-perfect accuracy, or where quality raster data are unavailable, vector-based methods offer a different approach to delineating watersheds. We are aware of three different approaches based on vector data. The first method can be applied where terrain data is unavailable (or unusable due to low quality), but a vector representation of the river network map is available. Karimipour et al. (2013) developed a Voronoi polygon-based medial axis extraction algorithm that was shown to be “reasonably comparable” to DEM-based methods. A second method is based on Triangulated Irregular Networks (TINs), alternatives to raster data that efficiently describe terrain. Several delineation methods using TINs have been proposed (Jones et al., 1990; Mee-Jeong et al., 2006; Freitas et al., 2016).

The third vector-based method of watershed delineation makes use of vector hydrography datasets that divide the land surface *unit catchments* or *subwatersheds*. Typically, the unit catchments and river reaches have a 1:1 relationship and share a common identification number. Reaches (and unit catchments) are related to one another via a network topology, an abstraction of the real-world flow network. Using network theory, a river network can be modeled as an *acyclic directed graph*.

Analysts may create their own, custom vector datasets by digitizing topographic data, or by processing digital terrain data using GIS software (e.g., ESRI, GRASS, SAGA plugins for QGIS), or specialized software for hydrologic data processing (e.g., TauDEM, WhiteBox, HEC-GeoHMS). The size of unit catchments depends on the resolution of the terrain data and the user’s selected *drainage density*—the upstream area or number of pixels considered necessary for stream formation.

123 One well-known vector hydrographic dataset with coverage of the United  
124 States is the Watershed Boundary Dataset published by the U.S. Geologi-  
125 cal Survey (USGS, 2022).<sup>2</sup> Datasets with near-global coverage include Hy-  
126 droSHEDS (Lehner, 2022), HDMA (Verdin, 2017), MERIT-Basins (Lin et al.,  
127 2019), and TDX-Hydro (Carlson et al., 2024).

128 To delineate a watershed using vector hydrography data, you first find the  
129 terminal (most downstream) or “home” unit catchment—the one in which  
130 the watershed outlet is located. This is done via a straightforward geospatial  
131 overlay analysis. Using techniques from network analysis, you next find all of  
132 the upstream unit catchments. This can be done efficiently in Python using  
133 the NetworkX library. There are also tools or plugins for GIS to perform  
134 such analyses (e.g., Network Tools in ArcGIS or the Flow Trace plugin for  
135 QGIS). The result from the network analysis is the set of river reaches (and  
136 unit catchments) that contribute flow to your chosen outlet. For display,  
137 the set of unit catchments can be merged and dissolved to create the final  
138 watershed polygon.

139 Watershed creation with vector data is less computationally demand-  
140 ing than raster methods, as it uses larger building blocks; unit catchments  
141 are typically hundreds or thousands of times bigger than pixels.<sup>3</sup> However,  
142 watershed boundaries created with vector unit catchments will usually be  
143 downstream of the requested outlet, and the watershed will be larger than it  
144 should be. As a rule, the watershed boundary should pass through the outlet  
145 point. So with vector methods of watershed delineation, we have a tradeoff  
146 for increased speed in terms of lower accuracy and an area bias.

147 Area errors of a few percent will have minimal impact on hydrologic  
148 analyses like calculating water balances. Regardless, it just *looks wrong* when  
149 you zoom in and the watershed boundary does not coincide with the outlet  
150 point. Such errors may be unacceptable to cartographers, picky clients, or  
151 persnickety advisors. Greater precision may also be necessary for studying  
152 water pollution, where it is important to pinpoint the location of contaminant  
153 sources. When the delineated watershed is too large, we may falsely identify  
154 locations as part of the contributing area when they are, in fact, downstream

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<sup>2</sup>The USGS uses the term Hydrologic Unit (HU) for individual catchments, and each is assigned a unique Hydrologic Unit Code (HUC).

<sup>3</sup>With the datasets used in this paper, MERIT-Basins unit catchments average 45 km<sup>2</sup>, over 5000 times bigger than the 0.008 km<sup>2</sup> pixels in MERIT-Hydro from which they are derived.

155 of the outlet.

### 156 1.3. *Hybrid method of watershed delineation*

157 The “hybrid” method of watershed delineation leverages the strengths of  
158 both vector and raster data. First, we use vector data and network analysis  
159 to find the set of unit catchments upstream of the outlet. Then, to find the  
160 watershed boundary near the outlet, we use more computationally expensive  
161 raster methods to “split” the downstream unit catchment. The results of  
162 the two analyses are then merged. With this method, we can achieve pixel-  
163 perfect accuracy with much greater speed.

164 The hybrid method for watershed delineation is not new. It was described  
165 in a 1999 conference paper by Djokic and Ye. The authors called their  
166 method Fast Watershed Delineation, or FWD. They wrote that it was first  
167 created at ESRI in 1997 as a set of scripts called Watershed Delineator,  
168 “developed for the Texas Natural Resource Conservation Commission, with  
169 the sole purpose of efficiently delineating watersheds.” Instead of using an  
170 existing vector dataset, their scripts create a new set of unit catchments at  
171 runtime using the Arc/Info `subwatershed` command. While these scripts  
172 were in the public domain, they required proprietary ESRI software to run  
173 them. The scripts were written in Avenue, the defunct scripting language  
174 for ESRI’s ArcView, which the company stopped supporting in 2002.

175 Since then, the hybrid method has been used by the U.S. Geological  
176 Survey (USGS). Examples include the NHD Watershed Tool for ArcView  
177 (Steeves, 2003) and NHDPlus Tools for ArcMap (Horizon Systems, 2010).  
178 These scripts also require proprietary ESRI software, and they are limited  
179 to watersheds in the continental United States. The USGS also uses the  
180 hybrid method of watershed delineation in the web application StreamStats  
181 (USGS, 2021) and for its application programming interface (API) called  
182 NLDI (Blodgett, 2022). Finally, Castronova and Goodall (2014) describe a  
183 similar method of watershed delineation using both raster and vector data,  
184 although the code is no longer available.

185 Despite the fact that these methods have been in use for over two decades,  
186 many researchers (particularly those who work outside the US or do not use  
187 ArcGIS) may be unaware of them. In this paper, we introduce an implemen-  
188 tation of the hybrid method of watershed delineation that is open source and  
189 based on free software and data.



## 2. Software Description

The software described here, **delineator.py**, is a set of Python scripts that can be run on any computer. The scripts described here have been created specifically to work with two related datasets with global coverage, MERIT-Hydro (raster) and MERIT-Basins (vector), and could be readily adapted to use other datasets. The required data files are:

- flow direction (raster)
- flow accumulation (raster)
- unit catchments (vector polygons)
- river reaches (vector polylines)

The data files are organized into 61 continental-scale basins (Pfafstetter level 2 basins), referred to here as *megabasins* (see Figure 2). This project includes sample data for Iceland (megabasin 27) and links to download data files for all other regions.

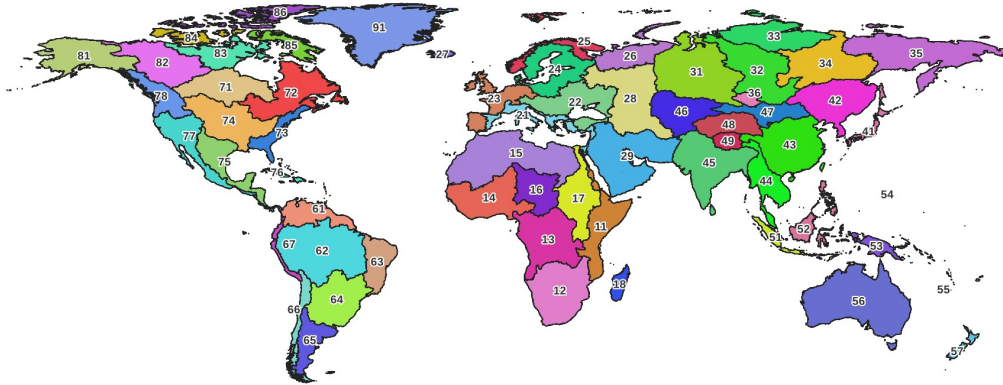


Figure 2: Data files for use with this project are organized into 61 continental-scale megabasins.

An overview of the main steps in the hybrid method of watershed delineation follows, with a more detailed explanation below.

- 206 1. Find the continental-scale megabasin in which the outlet falls (see Figure 2. This tells the software which data files to use in the analysis.
- 207
- 208 2. Find the unit catchment corresponding to the watershed outlet. We refer to this as the *terminal* unit catchment or the *home* unit catchment.
- 209
- 210 3. Identify all of the unit catchments upstream of the home unit catchment.
- 211
- 212 4. Split the home unit catchment to find the exact boundary around the outlet.
- 213
- 214 5. Merge and dissolve the upstream unit catchments found in step 2 with the split unit catchment found in step 3. This is the final watershed.
- 215

216 These steps are illustrated in Figure 3. This example is for a relatively small (500 km<sup>2</sup>) watershed, on Cattaraugus Creek in western New York, USA. For step 1, the outlet point is Basin 72, which covers parts of north-eastern United States and Canada (see Figure 2. This tells the script which data files to read in the following steps.

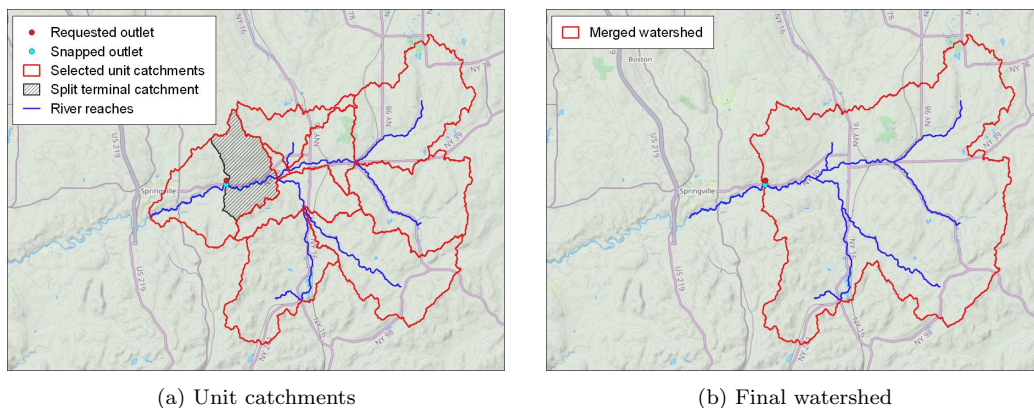


Figure 3: Illustration of vector polygon unit catchments which are merged to create the watershed.

221 For step 2, the script performs a spatial join on the outlet point and the  
 222 unit catchments geodata layer. Here, the outlet falls in a unit catchment  
 223 with a COMID (for common ID) of 72057856.

224 For step 3, the script uses network analysis to find the home unit catch-  
 225 ment's upstream neighbors. In this case, the script finds 8 upstream unit  
 226 catchments. The network data for step 3 comes from the MERIT-Basins  
 227 rivers shapefile. Reading shapefiles and creating a GeoDataFrame is a fairly

slow process. Once you have done this once, you can optionally save time in the future by storing the GeoDataFrame as a Python pickle (.pkl) file. Note that these files are not any smaller than the original shapefile, so they do not save disk space; they are just much faster to load so future watershed delineation will be faster.

For step 4, the script uses raster methods to *split* the home unit catchment at the outlet point. Step 4 is illustrated in Figure 4. In brief, first, the pour point is snapped to the stream flow line, or the grid cell with a sufficiently high flow accumulation. (For pour point snapping options, see Section 2.1.4.) Next, we use the flow-direction raster to find the set of grid cells that are upstream of this point. The result is a raster mask, which we then *polygonize* or convert to a vector polygon.

For step 4, the script uses the Python library `pysheds` (Bartos et al., 2023). The app reads a slice or “window” from raster datasets (flow direction and flow accumulation) in a bounding box around the unit catchment. Next, we mask out pixels that do not overlap the unit catchment by setting them to NaN (not a number). This step to be the key to getting reliable results, which we discovered through trial and error. Without this step, there is a risk of the pour point being snapped to another nearby stream.

Finally, in step 5, we merge and dissolve the individual unit catchments into the final watershed polygon. For large watersheds with thousands of unit catchments, dissolving is still the slowest step in the delineation pipeline. The result of the dissolve operation is the final watershed polygon, which may then be saved to one of several possible formats for display or analysis.

## 2.1. Options and configuration

The Python scripts in `delineator.py` are configurable and offer several options to users. Some options govern what outputs will be produced, while other options affect the watershed’s appearance.

### 2.1.1. Higher-resolution threshold

In some cases, high precision is not necessary. Configuration options include a “lower resolution threshold”, in square kilometers. Lower-resolution mode has two main differences. First, the program will use simplified unit catchment boundaries. Because these polygons have fewer vertices, processing them is faster. Second, the script will not perform the detailed raster-based calculations near the outlet. As a result, the watershed will contain

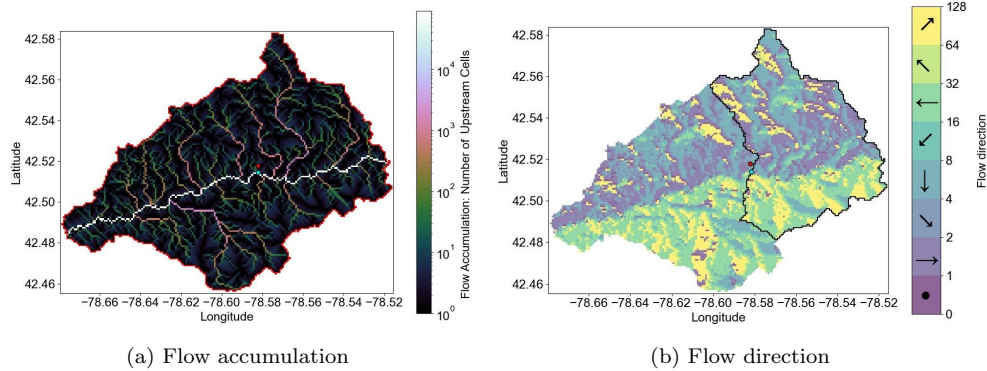


Figure 4: Illustration of detailed raster-based methods used to split the terminal unit catchment, or draw an accurate boundary at the outlet. At left, the outlet is snapped or relocated to a stream, or a grid cell with a high flow accumulation. At right, the set of cells upstream of the outlet is determined based on flow direction.

some extra area downstream of the requested outlet. On the author’s lap-  
top, it took 93 seconds to delineate the 6 million km<sup>2</sup> Amazon watershed  
using high-resolution data, versus 27 seconds in lower-resolution mode. We  
recommend setting the lower-resolution threshold at around 50,000 km<sup>2</sup> for  
general hydrology applications, or higher if you intend to publish maps or  
figures where appearances matter. The loss in precision is barely noticeable  
in large watersheds and at low zoom levels.

### 2.1.2. Simplify shapes

The geodata output by the script may contain more detail than you need  
for display or analysis, and unnecessarily large output files. To remove some  
vertices from the watershed boundary and river flowlines, set **SIMPLIFY =**  
**True**. You will also need to set **SIMPLIFY\_TOLERANCE** to a value in decimal  
degrees, corresponding to the distance parameter in the Douglas-Peucker  
algorithm for polyline simplification. Note that the MERIT-Basins vector  
data is based on MERIT-Hydro raster data with a resolution of 3 arcseconds,  
or  $\approx 0.000833^\circ$ . Setting the simplification tolerance to half this value removes  
the jagged “stair step” appearance typical of polygonized raster data without  
much loss of detail, and reduces file sizes by over 50%.

### 2.1.3. Interactive map

The script can output a browser-based interactive map, a fast and conve-  
nient way to review the results. An HTML map page is output when you set

284 `MAKE_MAP = True`. Interactivity is provided by JavaScript and the DataTables and Leaflet plugins. For large watersheds, the river network may be  
285 too dense, and contain too many polylines to display, causing the browser  
286 to lag or crash. Therefore, the app will *prune* the river network, removing  
287 small tributary streams, based on Strahler stream order (Strahler, 1957). We  
288 recommend setting `NUM_STREAM_ORDERS` to 4 or less.  
289

#### 290 2.1.4. *Pour point snapping*

291 A common challenge in watershed delineation is “snapping the pour  
292 point” to coincide with a flowline in the digital dataset. While various methods  
293 have been implemented, no clear consensus exists on the best approach  
294 (Lindsay et al., 2008; Xie et al., 2022). Our script includes two methods.  
295 The conventional approach snaps the outlet to the closest point on the river  
296 reach within the home unit catchment. Sometimes the requested outlet does  
297 not fall inside a unit catchment, especially if you are searching for watershed  
298 outlets near the coast. The `SEARCH_DISTANCE` parameter (in decimal degrees)  
299 controls the search radius when the point does not overlap a catchment. Setting  
300 `SEARCH_DIST = 0` requires the point to fall inside a unit catchment. We  
301 recommend at least  $0.005^\circ$  for reliable results, with larger values accommodating  
302 greater coordinate uncertainty.

303 A second, experimental method applies when you have an a priori area  
304 estimate of the watershed area. Setting `MATCH_AREAS = True` searches the  
305 neighborhood around the outlet for a river reach whose upstream area is the  
306 closest match. This method is experimental and works best for watersheds  
307 over  $1,000 \text{ km}^2$ . Manual adjustment of the pour point toward the correct  
308 river centerline often yields better results.

#### 309 2.1.5. *Fill internal holes*

310 Oftentimes, watersheds created by computer will contain internal gaps  
311 or “donut holes.” Many small gaps and slivers are data artifacts, which we  
312 recommend filling. To do so, set `FILL = True`. Larger holes may represent  
313 sinks, where water flows in but not out. As an example, consider North  
314 America’s Rio Grande watershed, shown in Figure 5. Between the two main  
315 branches, the Rio Grande in the west and the Pecos River in the east, there  
316 is an endorheic basin that runs north-south for 560 km from New Mexico to  
317 Texas. Within this basin, there are several alkaline lakes or *playas*. These  
318 may be important for surface water flow and overland runoff, and less so for

319 studies of groundwater or basin water budgets. To keep larger holes, and  
 320 enter a non-zero value for the `FILL_THRESHOLD` parameter.

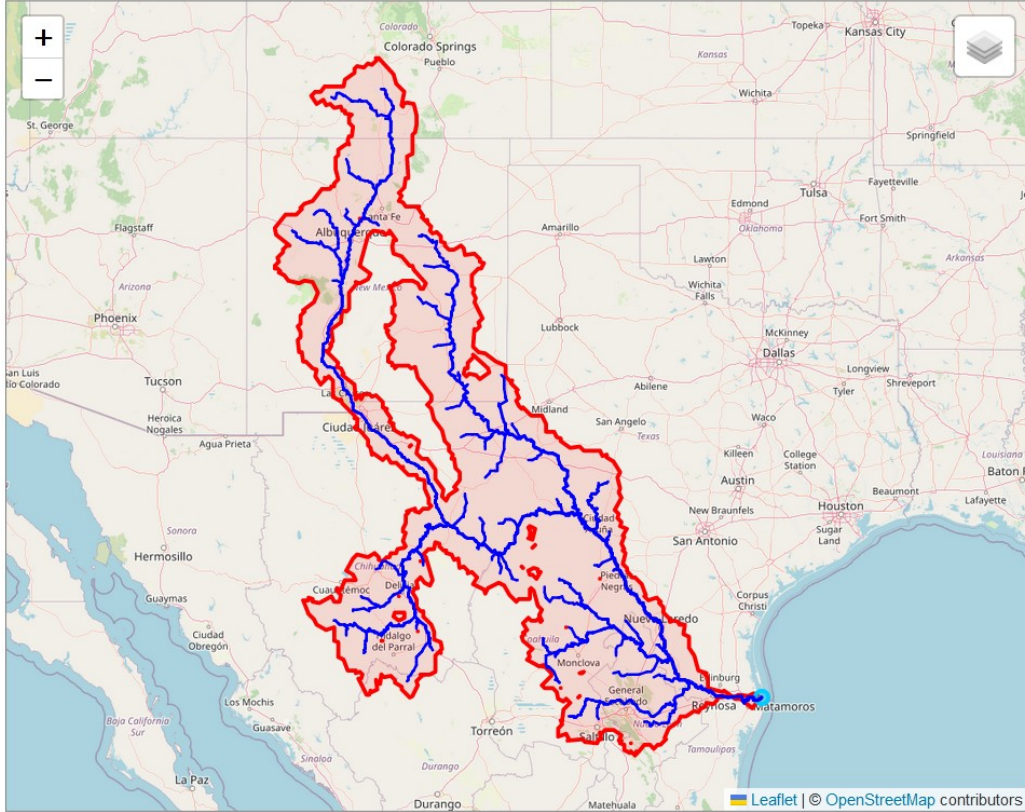


Figure 5: Rio Grande watershed showing endorheic basin between main branches.

## 321 2.2. Web application for watershed delineation

322 The web app Global Watersheds is an online implementation of the soft-  
 323 ware described here, at <https://mghydro.com/watersheds>. The app lets  
 324 users delineate watersheds or find downstream flow paths for nearly any  
 325 point on Earth. The app is very easy to use; one simply clicks a point on  
 326 a map and then clicks a button. More advanced features are available un-  
 327 der an Options menu. For example, the user can choose from among three  
 328 data sources: MERIT-Hydro, HydroSHEDS, or the USGS NLDI. There is  
 329 also an option to delineate watersheds for a line or a polygonal area, rather  
 330 than a single point. In addition to upstream watersheds, users can also trace  
 331 downstream flow paths.

332 The web version includes certain features that make it faster than the  
333 desktop software, including a PostGIS-enabled PostgreSQL database and  
334 memoization of expensive function calls. In essence, the app gets faster  
335 over time, as it draws on an expanding library of saved results. Further, it  
336 uses robust web infrastructure (nginx web server, caching with Memcached,  
337 gzip compression) that is optimized for speed and efficiency. For example,  
338 users request the Amazon and the Nile watersheds almost every day, and the  
339 response time is under three seconds.<sup>4</sup>

340 The app allows users to download geodata of watershed boundaries and  
341 rivers in several formats (shapefile, geopackage, GeoJSON, and KML). There  
342 is also an option to create a watershed data report with information on land  
343 cover, population, hydrology, and climatology. These data are extracted from  
344 state-of-the-art global databases from a variety of sources, and summarized  
345 over the watershed area.

346 In November 2025, users delineated around 99,000 watersheds, and down-  
347 loaded geodata for around 12,000 of them. Based on an informal poll con-  
348 ducted in the spring of 2023, over half the respondents are scientists and  
349 engineers, but there were also many students, educators, and members of  
350 the general public. Our main goal in building the app was to democratize  
351 access to hydrological analysis and to help raise “watershed consciousness”  
352 (Parsons, 1985). Or, in other words, the understanding that we all live in  
353 a watershed and that water connects us all, sometimes in surprising and  
354 unexpected ways.

### 355 2.3. Application Programming Interface (API)

356 An API for the web app allows one to get watersheds and rivers without  
357 using the map interface. In general, the API is faster and easier to use than  
358 the Python scripts; it does not require downloading large datasets, and takes  
359 advantage of the web optimizations described above. Full documentation of  
360 the API is provided at mghydro.com, along with example Python code in a  
361 Jupyter notebook.

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<sup>4</sup>To put into perspective how transformational this is, in a 2014 forum post on Stack Exchange, a leading authority on terrain analysis wrote that, after downloading and processing the terrain data, “extracting the watershed for a point on the Nile delta took 2 hours and 9 minutes” (Lindsay, 2014).

### 362 3. Validation and Benchmarking

363 We claimed above that a hybrid of raster and vector methods should be  
364 faster and more accurate than using either method on its own. Here, we  
365 describe a set of experiments designed to test this assertion. The scripts for  
366 the benchmarking experiments are available in this paper’s code repository.  
367 Benchmarking scripts were all run in the same virtual environment using  
368 Python v3.11 on the author’s Dell laptop (Intel i7 processor, 32 GB of RAM)  
369 running Windows 10.

#### 370 3.1. Validating the accuracy of watershed boundaries

371 Watersheds delineation with a flow-direction raster and the D8 algorithm  
372 are strictly deterministic. For a given point on the flow-direction grid, the  
373 set of upstream grid cells should always be the same, regardless of the soft-  
374 ware or algorithm used. So the first, most basic validation was to compare  
375 watersheds output from our software to those from established raster-based  
376 software packages. We compared output for several watersheds created with  
377 delineator.py to those created with TauDEM and pysheds. TauDEM is an  
378 industry standard software package that is distributed as a Windows exe-  
379 cutable (Tarboton, 2016). Pysheds is a Python library for watershed de-  
380 lineation (Bartos et al., 2023). (Note that delineator.py uses pysheds for  
381 raster processing. Here, for benchmarking, we are using pysheds by itself to  
382 do watershed delineation using purely raster methods.) In every instance,  
383 the watersheds produced by the three software packages were 100% identical  
384 down to the individual pixel scale. This confirmed that our implementation  
385 of the hybrid method of watershed delineation creates the same results as  
386 widely-used and tested software packages.

387 We performed a second validation test to evaluate the accuracy of wa-  
388 tershed boundaries. This second validation experiment tested the software’s  
389 capability when outlet points may not be precisely aligned with the raster  
390 datasets. In other words, it tests the entire workflow, including snapping  
391 the pour point and finding the upstream contributing area. We considered  
392 a watershed correct if it closely matched authoritative, published geodata  
393 for watershed boundaries. For this experiment, we found the watersheds  
394 corresponding to river flow gages in the United States operated by the U.S.  
395 Geological Survey (USGS). The USGS has high standards for review and veri-  
396 fication of published data, requiring all watershed delineations to be checked  
397 by experienced hydrographers (Johnston et al., 2009; Jones et al., 2022).



398 Therefore, we were confident that these watershed boundaries are mostly  
 399 correct and use them as the basis for validating our software’s outputs.

400 To compare the similarity of two polygons, we used the Coefficient of  
 401 Areal Correspondence (CAC), defined as the ratio of the intersecting area  
 402 and the union area (Taylor, 1977). The CAC<sup>5</sup> has been used by researchers  
 403 to compare the areas of two watersheds delineated with competing methods  
 404 (e.g., Johnston et al., 2009). If the test watershed polygon is  $A$ , and the true  
 405 polygon is  $B$ , the CAC can be stated as:

$$\text{CAC} = \frac{A \cap B}{A \cup B} \quad (1)$$

406 Some researchers have compared watersheds by comparing their areas,  
 407 for example by creating a scatterplot and calculating  $R^2$ . This method has  
 408 an important flaw however. Two watersheds may have a similar surface area,  
 409 and yet be completely non-overlapping. In such cases,  $R^2$  will be misleading  
 410 and exaggerate the quality of the result.

411 We sampled 120 gages actively operated by the USGS in the continental  
 412 United States, as shown in Figure 6.<sup>6</sup> To ensure we sampled a range of water-  
 413 shed areas, we stratified the population into quintiles and sampled 24 gages  
 414 from each. We downloaded USGS watersheds using their web API, the Hydro  
 415 Network-Linked Data Index (NLDI), and carefully reviewed each in QGIS.  
 416 Then, we delineated watersheds for each gage using the latitude and longitude  
 417 coordinates of the gage with our software delineator.py (in higher-resolution  
 418 mode) and with the “Create Watersheds” function in ESRI’s ArcGIS Online  
 419 (ESRI).

420 Figure 7 shows the results of the validation experiment. On average,  
 421 our software’s watersheds are more accurate than those created with ESRI  
 422 software (average  $CAC = 0.93$ , vs. ESRI’s 0.83). However, where ESRI

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<sup>5</sup>This metric appears to have been re-invented several times, and is also called the Jaccard Index or the Tanimoto Index (Wikipedia contributors, 2024). In computer vision, it is called Intersection over Union (IoU Rosebrock, 2016).

<sup>6</sup>We also tested our software for delineating watersheds globally, outside of the United States, and the results often appeared better than those returned by ESRI’s software. However, we could not find a definitive source for the true watershed boundaries, so we do not report any results here. We hypothesize that the reason our software produces better results is related to data sources; it appears that ESRI’s watershed tool uses HydroSHEDS terrain data outside of the United States, while our software is using newer, more accurate MERIT-Hydro data.

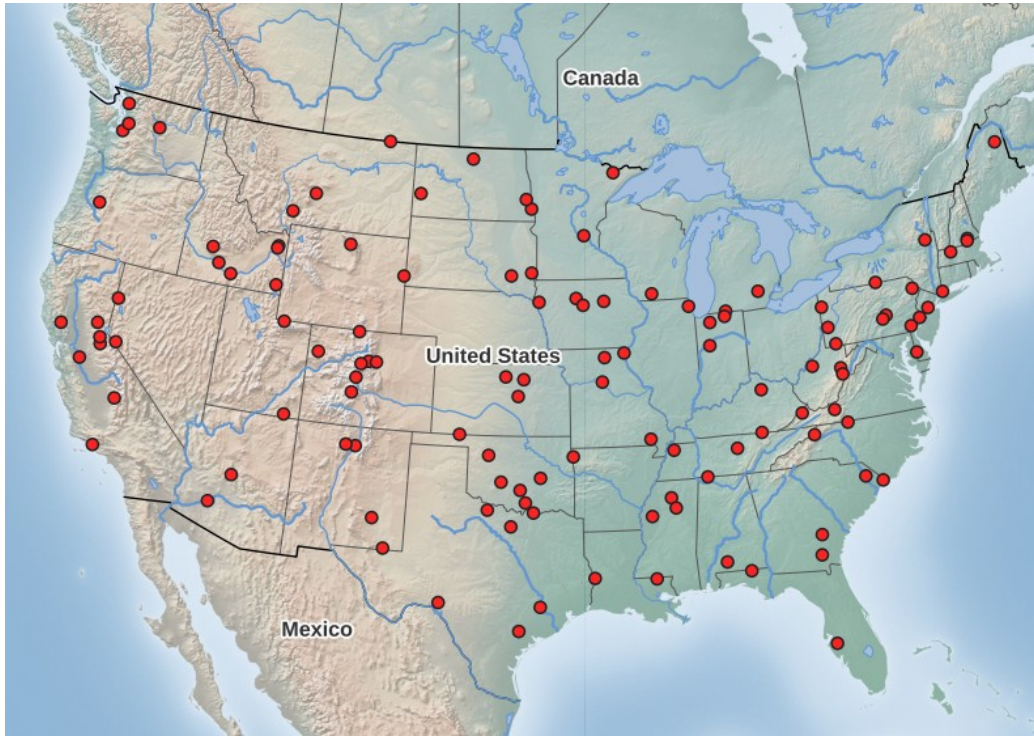


Figure 6: Sample of 120 USGS gages used as watershed outlets to test the accuracy of the watershed delineation software.

423 returns poor results, it is usually due to incorrect pour point snapping. For  
 424 14 of the 100 requested watersheds, ESRI's routine snapped the watershed  
 425 outlet to the incorrect location, and returned a spurious watershed, often on  
 426 a nearby tributary. This pour-point snapping error does not appear to be  
 427 related to geography or watershed size. Nevertheless, when ESRI's software  
 428 does snap the pour point to the correct river reach, the watershed boundaries  
 429 are accurate: 81% of the ESRI watersheds had a  $CAC > 0.9$ . With our  
 430 software, 83% of watersheds had a  $CAC > 0.9$ . This small experiment shows  
 431 that delineator.py returns watershed boundaries that are accurate, rivaling  
 432 those of industry-standard software for watersheds in the USA.

### 433 3.2. Benchmarking delineation speed

434 To evaluate the speed of the software, two benchmarking experiments  
 435 were conducted. For these experiments, we compared the performance of  
 436 delineator.py to two other widely-used raster-based methods of watershed

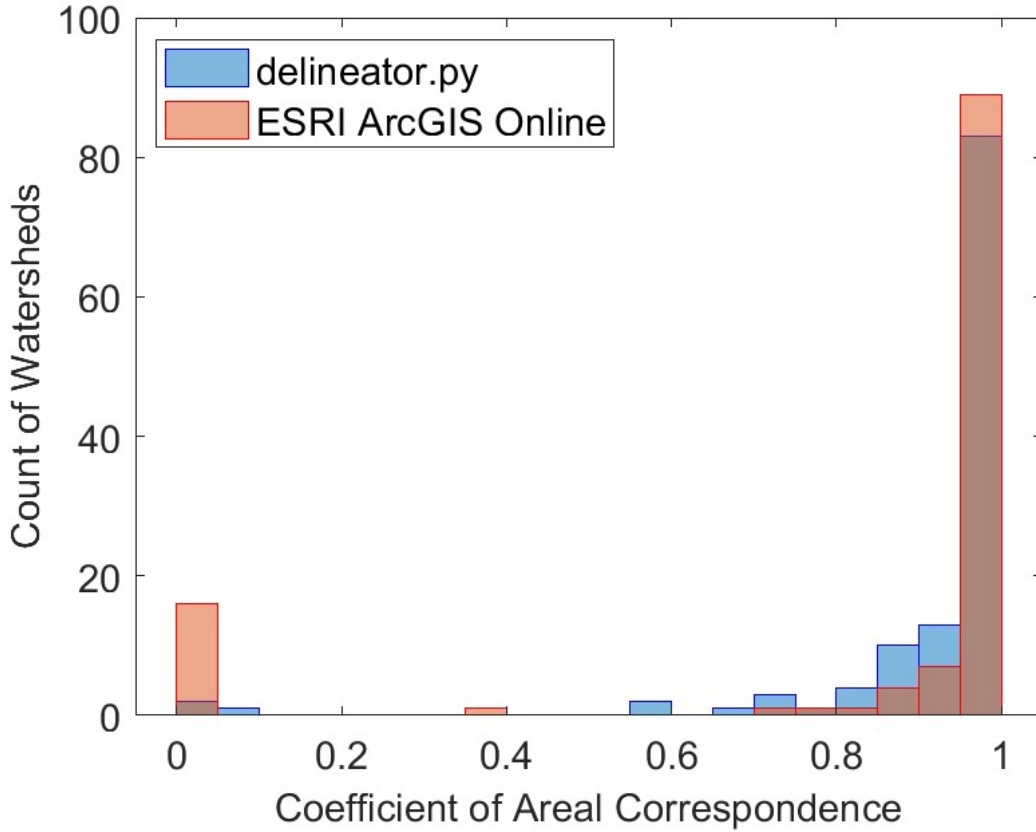


Figure 7: Accuracy of watershed delineation for 120 sampled locations in the continental United States.

delineation: TauDEM and pysheds, described briefly in the Section 3.1 De-  
 lineation was controlled by a set of scripts in Python 3.11, including timing  
 of the processing.

For the first experiment, we sampled river locations from the gage catalog  
 of the Global Runoff Data Center (GRDC), which contained 10,360 stations  
 in 2023. We used a stratified sampling design, first eliminating gages with  
 small watersheds ( $< 100 \text{ km}^2$ ) or unreported area. We divided the remaining  
 gages into deciles by area and drew equal samples from each, ensuring water-  
 sheds ranging from  $100 \text{ km}^2$  to 4 million  $\text{km}^2$ . We added the Amazon River  
 outlet to test performance on the world’s largest watershed (6 million  $\text{km}^2$ ).  
 Because delineation appears to take longer with larger input rasters, we also  
 stratified by drawing samples from three megabasins of varying size: Iceland

(small), Western Europe (medium), and the Amazon (large).

The results of the first benchmarking experiments are shown in Figure 8a. Overall, we see that our software, delineator.py, outperforms TauDEM and pysheds in terms of speed. For small- to mid-size watersheds ( $< 100,000 \text{ km}^2$ ), delineator.py returned results in less than one second (mean response time of 0.26 seconds), while pysheds averaged 14 s and TauDEM 37 s. As the size of watersheds increases, the performance gap closes. For the world's largest watershed, the Amazon (6 million  $\text{km}^2$ ), the response times were: delineator.py: 93 s; pysheds: 108 s, TauDEM 120 s.

With each software package, we see a relationship between delineation time and the size of the watershed. In Figure 8a, a second-order polynomial trendline has been fitted to each data series. With delineator.py, the speed is highly dependent on the basin size ( $R^2 = 0.99$ ). This has to do with the time required to merge and dissolve the vector unit catchments, which is a function of the number of polygons and the number of vertices to be processed. The results in Figure 8a also show that the size of the raster data files has an effect on speed. With TauDEM and pysheds, the processing times are shorter in the Iceland megabasin (squares on the plot), where the flow-direction raster is relatively small. Processing time is longer over the Amazon megabasin, where the raster data files are larger.

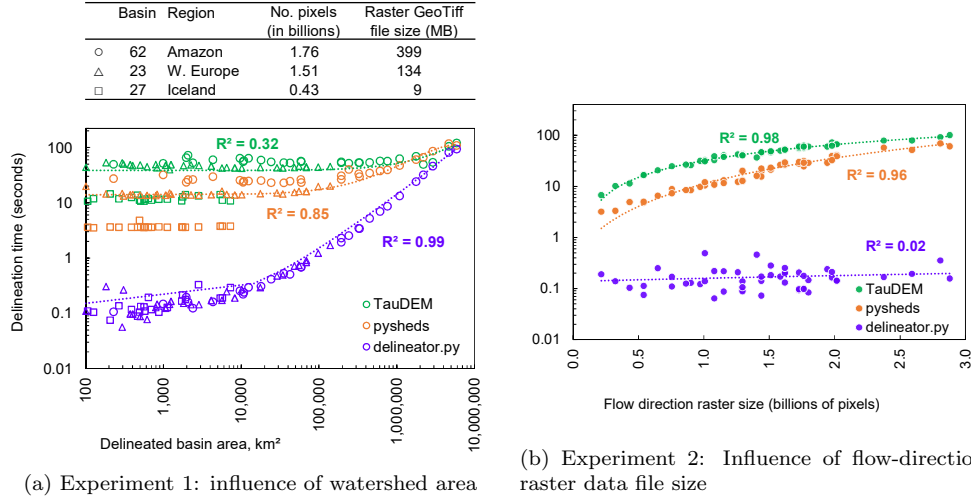


Figure 8: Results of benchmarking experiments: delineation time for three watershed delineation software packages, including the one presented in this paper.

469 For a second benchmarking experiment, we tested the effect of input raster  
 470 size more methodically, and holding the watershed size roughly equal (around  
 471 10 million pixels). To vary the input size, we used MERIT-Hydro raster data  
 472 files for 52 of the 61 continental-scale megabasins shown in Figure 2 (those  
 473 with flow accumulation  $> 10^7$ ). In each megabasin, we searched the flow  
 474 accumulation raster for a pixel with about  $10^7$  upstream cells. The location  
 475 of this pixel becomes our test outlet for benchmarking. The results of this  
 476 experiment are shown in Figure 8b. With both TauDEM and pysheds, we  
 477 see a strong relationship between the size of the input raster and processing  
 478 time. On the other hand, the delineation time with delineator.py does *not*  
 479 vary with the input raster size. This is because the software only reads a  
 480 small slice of the raster data, in a window the size of a single unit catchment,  
 481 with an average area of 45 km<sup>2</sup>. This greatly reduces the time to read raster  
 482 data into memory. In contrast, the other software packages read the entire  
 483 flow-direction raster file, which is a costly operation.

## 484 4. Discussion and future direction

### 485 4.1. Known limitations

486 In many areas, automated watershed delineation simply does not produce  
 487 reasonable results. Flow paths may be ambiguous or indeterminate, or the  
 488 digital terrain data may not accurately model real-world flow paths. In some  
 489 instances, the deterministic 8-direction flow algorithm cannot always capture  
 490 the complexity of real-world flow paths. This is another reason that we insist  
 491 on the necessity of checking all results, or what some refer to as human-in-  
 492 the-loop processing. Typical problem areas include:

- 493 • **Flat land** where the algorithm has trouble determining which direc-  
 494 tion water flows. Examples: Florida, the Netherlands, the Ganges-  
 495 Brahmaputra Delta.
- 496 • **Deserts and arid areas** where there are fewer channels because there  
 497 is little rainfall or runoff. Examples: North Africa, Central China, much  
 498 of the American Southwest, the Orange River on the border of South  
 499 Africa and Namibia.
- 500 • **Glaciers, ice, and tundra** environments where the surface is frozen  
 501 all or part of the time. Such environments can be found across Arc-  
 502 tic and subarctic regions. Examples: Iceland, Greenland, northern  
 503 Canada, and northern Russia.

- 504 • **Karst, sand, or other permeable land** where water infiltrates into  
 505 the ground. Here, it is not clear whether surface watersheds are a mean-  
 506 ingful concept. Examples: the Yucatan Peninsula in Mexico, parts of  
 507 the Deschutes River basin in Oregon, the Karst Plateau along the Italy-  
 508 Slovenia border.
- 509 • **Urban areas** with many impervious surfaces and where flow paths are  
 510 affected by curbs, sewers, or drains.
- 511 • Areas where **hydraulic infrastructure** such as irrigation canals or  
 512 pipelines can reroute flow in unexpected ways.

513 In addition, there are some land areas where our scripts cannot delineate  
 514 watersheds because MERIT-Hydro data is not available. This affects some  
 515 islands, such as Hawaii and the Azores. However, there is data for the Canary  
 516 Islands, Fiji, Tuvalu, the Galapagos, and many others.

#### 517 4.2. *The myth of “fully automated” delineation*

518 No automated software for watershed delineation can entirely replace hu-  
 519 man judgment. Automated watershed delineation routines often make mis-  
 520 takes. The good news is that some of these mistakes can be readily corrected  
 521 through manual intervention. Errors having to do with incorrect pour point  
 522 snapping, for instance, can often be resolved by “nudging” or slightly moving  
 523 the watershed outlet point. An experienced analyst can quickly identify and  
 524 fix such issues. Software with a user-friendly display lets you review results  
 525 and iterate quickly. To this end, the software described here creates an in-  
 526 teractive map viewable in a web browser that lets the user easily review the  
 527 results via a simple, familiar interface. Where the results are unsatisfactory,  
 528 analysts can modify the outlet coordinates and re-run the delineation.

529 The Global Watersheds web app makes reviewing delineation results even  
 530 faster and more intuitive. One particularly useful feature for improving con-  
 531 sistency is the option to overlay MERIT-Basins river centerlines on the map.  
 532 By placing outlet points directly on these centerlines, analysts can achieve  
 533 more predictable and reliable delineation results.

#### 534 4.3. *Possible future enhancements*

535 There are possible enhancements of this software that could make it even  
 536 faster and more accurate. Accuracy is a function of the terrain data used  
 537 as input. The hybrid watershed delineation algorithm described in this

538 paper has been implemented using global datasets MERIT-Hydro (raster  
539 data of flow direction and flow accumulation) and MERIT-Basins (vector  
540 data for river reaches and unit catchments). The hybrid approach could be  
541 adapted for use with other datasets, for example, higher-resolution regional  
542 or national datasets, or other global datasets such as the forthcoming Hy-  
543 droSHEDS version 2 Lehner et al. (2022). The important thing is to have  
544 raster and vector data derived from the same source and consistent with one  
545 another. In our testing, mixing and matching different datasets gives poor  
546 results.

547 To increase the *speed* of watershed delineation with this method, the  
548 focus should be on the vector data processing. The slow step is merging  
549 and dissolving the upstream unit catchments. One promising approach is to  
550 preprocess the catchment data at various geographic scales, and to create  
551 a nested set of larger catchments, using an encoding system like Pfafstetter  
552 or Hydrologic Unit Codes. This is the approach we have taken with the  
553 Global Watersheds web app, where we use memoization to save the results  
554 of merging and dissolving unit catchments. As this is an expensive operation,  
555 the app does it once and subsequently reuses the result.

## 556 5. Conclusion

557 We described a method to delineate watersheds using a hybrid approach  
558 that combines the speed of vector-based methods with the accuracy of raster-  
559 based methods. While the hybrid method is not new, to the best of our  
560 knowledge, our implementation in Python is the first that is open source  
561 and based on free software. Our implementation uses state-of-the-art global  
562 datasets at 90 m resolution: MERIT-Hydro (Yamazaki et al., 2019) and  
563 MERIT-Basins (Lin et al., 2019). The software can be run on an ordinary  
564 desktop or laptop computer and can create watersheds of any size, including  
565 those of the largest river basins on Earth such as the Amazon, Mississippi,  
566 or Ob Rivers.

567 The methods described here are general and can be used with other ter-  
568 rain datasets aside from the ones described above. For example, it could be  
569 used with high-resolution local terrain data derived from LIDAR. Datasets  
570 require some preprocessing for use with this method, which can be time-  
571 consuming and require some expertise. It may not be worth doing this pre-  
572 processing if you are only looking to create a few watersheds. However, it is

573 worthwhile when you want to create hundreds or thousands of watersheds,  
574 or to set up a watershed delineation service.

575 There are already a number of software packages and libraries for delineat-  
576 ing watersheds. The software described here satisfies the needs of analysts  
577 performing large scale hydrologic investigations, as it can be used nearly  
578 anywhere (over land) on the globe and can readily delineate hundreds or  
579 thousands of watersheds. It is faster than previous methods, and can be run  
580 with modest hardware, including ordinary laptop computers. Nevertheless,  
581 as with any delineation software, results need to be carefully reviewed. Au-  
582 tomated watershed delineation is often wrong, and there is a strong need for  
583 expert judgment.

584 An online demo of the software, the Global Watersheds web app (at  
585 <https://mghydro.com/watersheds>), allows you to perform watershed delin-  
586 eation without downloading or installing any software or data. The web app  
587 is the first of its kind, allowing users to delineate watersheds for nearly any-  
588 where on Earth with a click of a mouse button. It is being used by a wide  
589 range of users in science, engineering, and education. It is our sincere hope  
590 that it will contribute to increased environmental awareness and help to raise  
591 watershed consciousness.

## 592 6. Software and data availability

593 The Python code described in this paper for performing watershed de-  
594 lineation is free and open source. The software is released under the MIT  
595 License. Additional code for the benchmarking experiments described in this  
596 paper can be found in the project’s GitHub archive.

- 597 • Name of the software: **delineator.py**
- 598 • Developer: Matthew Heberger
- 599 • Contact information: [matt@mghydro.com](mailto:matt@mghydro.com)
- 600 • Hardware required: Laptop or desktop computer
- 601 • Program language: Python, HTML, JavaScript
- 602 • Year first available: 2022
- 603 • Cost: Free



- 604 • License: MIT License, <https://spdx.org/licenses/MIT.html>
- 605 • DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.7314287
- 606 • Software available from: <https://github.com/mheberger/delineator>
- 607 • Online Demo: <https://mghydro.com/watersheds>
- 608 • Program size: 69 MB

609 The software repository comes bundled with a sample of the input data  
610 covering Iceland so that users can get started quickly and test the software.  
611 Additional data is needed to perform watershed delineation in different re-  
612 gions (see Figure 2). As described in the article, these data are free; however,  
613 their licenses only allow for non-commercial use. For complete global cover-  
614 age, the datasets (MERIT-Hydro and MERIT-Basins) have a total size of 73  
615 GB.

## 616 7. Declaration of competing interest

617 The author declares that he has no known competing financial interests  
618 or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work  
619 reported in this paper.

## 620 8. Declaration of generative AI and AI-assisted technologies in the 621 manuscript preparation process

622 During the preparation of this work, the author used Claude.ai to sug-  
623 gest revisions to an overly verbose draft and Notebook LM in order to help  
624 create the required graphical abstract. After using these services, the author  
625 reviewed and edited the content as needed and takes full responsibility for  
626 the content of the published article.

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