

Can we trust remote sensing ET products across Africa?

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Overview

We would like to thank the editor for his dedication in reviewing the manuscript and responses to the reviewers. We are also thankful for his thoughtful and constructive suggestions and comments. We have addressed all the comments raised by the editor and the manuscript has improved from the proposed changes.

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Editor Comments

Editor, Comment 1

As per reviewer #2 one of the main weakness of the original version of the manuscript is lack of details and clarity on methods, results etc. I would strongly encourage you to have the revised manuscript reviewed by a colleague outside of the authors list to make sure that they find methods etc easily comprehensible.

Authors Response

1. The manuscript was read by two separate reviewers outside of the co-author list. Both gave useful and helpful comments on the manuscript to help with the changes.
2. Reviewer 1: Had mostly small comments regarding the overall manuscript with small suggestions on how to improve the manuscript which were mostly taken on board. In general, the comment was made that it was an "Very interesting and fun to read"
3. Reviewer 2: Had some suggestions on improvement of the methodology which were incorporated in the methodology section. He also had three main points which were 1. Contextualising the paper which was added to the discussion section, 2. The ranking system which we did not change and 3. The crop coefficient method which he did not agree with so we took it out of the paper as we also agreed. We also identified the shortcomings in the discussion section. He found the discussion and conclusion sections of the paper well written and gave a clear understanding of the paper.

Authors Changes in Manuscript

Changes were all throughout the manuscript due to the entire restructuring of the original manuscript.

Editor, Comment 2

I think reviewer #2's comment on the downscaling of coarse resolution data is valid and should be discussed in the manuscript. Interpolation of coarse resolution data can introduced further uncertainties and some of the differences can occur simply due to statistical interpolation.

Authors Response

This point was discussed in detailed as a response to author two. Subsequent to the editor's request, this was also discussed with Wim Thierry, a global climate modeller who understands this issue well. In terms of cropping these products using the catchment boundary shapefiles, he told us that it makes sense that we resample to the highest resolution in order to get the correct (or as correct as possible) boundaries. We also implemented some discussion about the reasons for this downscaling in the manuscript P7L13-16. As mentioned to reviewer #2 we calculated ET_{WB} with the original resolution and resampled resolution and found negligible differences.

Authors Changes in Manuscript

"Products were resampled to the highest resolution in order to obtain the best approximation of basin areas when overlaid with basin boundary shapefiles. Only negligible differences were found between calculations of ET_{WB} using products with original resolution compared with ET_{WB} calculated using resampled products. The nearest neighbours' interpolation method was used for any resampling required from course to high resolution as to not lose any information."

Can we trust remote sensing ET products over Africa?

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Abstract. Evapotranspiration (ET) is one of the most important components in the water cycle. However, there are relatively few direct measurements of ~~ET (available ET (e.g. using flux towers), whereas, Nevertheless,~~ various disciplines ranging from hydrology to agricultural and climate sciences ~~require information on the spatial and temporal distribution of ET at regional and global scales.~~ Due to ~~the~~ limited data availability, attention has turned toward satellite based products to fill observational gaps. Various remote sensing (RS) and other data products have been developed, providing a large range of ET estimations. Across Africa only a limited number of flux towers are available which are insufficient for systematic evaluation of ~~remotely sensed (RS-) derived RS derived and other available~~ ET products. Thus ~~we propose a methodology for evaluating RS-derived ET data,~~ in this study, we conduct a methodological evaluation of nine existing RS derived and other ET products in order to evaluate their reliability at the basin scale ~~using a~~. A general water balance (WB) approach is used, where ET is equal to precipitation minus discharge for long-term ~~annual~~ averages. Firstly, RS-ET products are compared with WB inferred ET (ET_{WB}) for basins without long-term trends present. The ~~RS products are then assessed according to spatial characteristics through analysing two ET products and calculated ET_{WB} are then evaluated against the Budyko equation, used as a reference condition. The spatial characteristics of the ET products are finally assessed through the analysis of selected land cover elements across Africa,~~ forests, irrigated areas and water bodies. ~~A,~~ across Africa. Additionally, a cluster analysis is ~~also~~ conducted to identify similarities between individual ET products. ~~Finally, the RS products are evaluated against the Budyko equation.~~ The results show that CMRSET, SSEBop and WaPOR rank highest in terms of estimation of long-term ~~annual~~ average mean ET across basins with low biases. ~~Along with ETMonitor, the same three products rank highest in spatial distribution of ET patterns and good spatial variability~~ across Africa. GLEAM and MOD16 consistently rank consistently ranks the lowest in most ~~criteria evaluation.~~ Many of the products analysed in this study can be trusted depending evaluation criteria however, has the longest available time period. Each product shows specific advantages and disadvantages. Depending on the study under question, ~~keeping in mind some of these products have large biases in magnitude estimation. However our recommendation would be the~~ at least one product should be suitable for a particular requirement. Care should be taken to bear in mind that many products suffer from a large bias. Based on the evaluation criteria in this study the three highest ranked products ~~being,~~ CMRSET, SSEBop and WaPOR ~~would suit many user needs due to low biases and good spatial variability across Africa.~~

1 Introduction

Evapotranspiration (ET) or the water vapor flux is an important component in the water cycle and is widely studied due to its implications in hydrology to agricultural and climate sciences (Trambauer et al., 2014). Growing attention has been given to estimating ET fluxes at regional and global scales for a wide variety of reasons, for example, understanding the partitioning of energy and water at the earth's surface and their feedbacks; how the different external drivers of ET vary regionally and; understanding the impacts of potential changes on the hydrological cycle under a changing climate, to name a few (Teuling et al., 2009; Vinukollu et al., 2011a; Mu et al., 2011). However, the estimation of ET at large scales has always been a difficult task due to direct measurement of ET being possible only at point locations, for example using flux towers (Trambauer et al., 2014). Obtaining ET observations from flux towers is challenging due to the high costs of implementation and maintenance and often studies rely on openly accessible data especially for regions in Asia, South America and Africa. Worldwide flux tower data can be openly accessed through FLUXNET – a global network of micrometeorological flux measurement sites that measure the exchange of CO₂, water vapor and energy between the biosphere and the atmosphere (Baldochi et al., 2001). From the latest FLUXNET-2015 dataset,¹, however there is limited coverage in many regions (Figure 1 (left panel)). For the entire African continent, for example, there are only six eddy covariance sites in Africa, from which latent heat (LE) measurements can be obtained, which can be converted to ET. Figure 1 shows the distribution and data availability of the sites. Gap filled LE data using the Marginal Distribution Sampling (MDS) technique is available at these locations however, a general lack of energy balance closure is found at many sites (?). For this reason LE can also be obtained with a correction factor applied for energy balance closure and thus, reduces the number of data points and sites available for use FLUXNET sites (Figure 1 (right panel)) with available ET data. Due to the limited data availability of observed point data for the entirety of the African continent in situ measurements a method of evaluating ET estimations using data other than point measurements observations is required.

Recent advances in satellite based ET products provide promising data to fill these observational gaps (Alkema et al., 2011; Miralles et al., 2016; Guerschman et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2016; Mu et al., 2007, 2011; Jung et al., 2011; Senay et al., 2016). ET cannot be directly measured by satellite based measurements, but can be derived from physical variables that can be observed from space, such as latent heat flux and surface heat flux using the surface energy balance. In addition, due to passing frequencies and cloud interference, interpolations in time are required. In this respect Keeping this in mind, remote sensing derived ET cannot be interpreted as direct satellite observations but as model outputs based on satellite forcing data (Miralles et al., 2016). Satellite observations often give useful information on the spatial variability, however the products tend to suffer from a large bias. Therefore, large-scale estimations of ET are most commonly products of remote sensing based models, hydrological models and land-surface models (Trambauer et al., 2014). More recently, remote sensing ET products have also

¹ FLUXNET is a global network of micrometeorological flux measurement sites that measure the exchange of CO₂, water vapor and energy between the biosphere and the atmosphere (Baldochi et al., 2001)

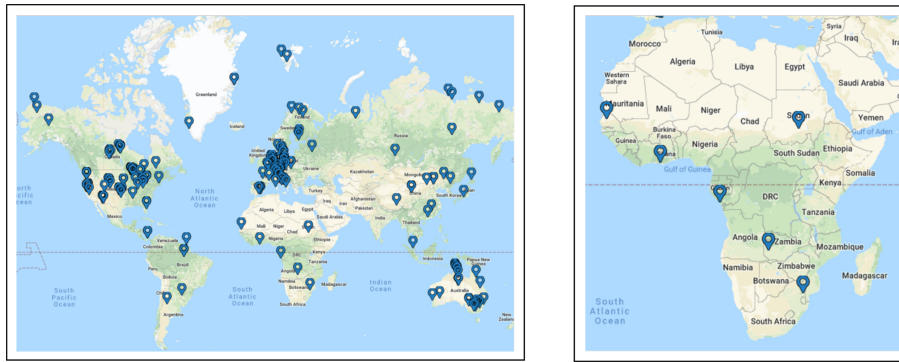


Figure 1. (left) distribution of flux towers with LE data across Africa worldwide. (right) Number distribution of years of available data at the six flux tower sites across Africa for both gap filled and bias corrected LE (Google)

been developed using Machine Learning (ML) approaches such as Model Tree Ensemble (MTE) or Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) combined with observed flux tower data or model outputs used as training sets (Tramontana et al., 2016; Jiménez et al., 2011; Jung et al., 2017; Alemohammad et al., 2017).

With this large Satellite observations often give useful information on the spatial variability, however many products tend to suffer from a large bias. With this range of approaches to estimate ET, large differences are observed among the products and therefore, validation evaluation is required. Since it is difficult to validate ET estimates using observed data, an alternate method of inferring ET for a river basin is used. Assuming the change in water storage (soil moisture, lakes, deltas) is negligible at the river basin scale, ET becomes equal to Keeping in mind limited availability of in situ measurements for evaluation, an alternate approach is to consider the water balance closure at the river basin scale. Only few studies exist comparing different satellite based and gridded ET products at the global and continental scales using this approach among others. In their study, Miralles et al. (2016) evaluated four commonly used and tested algorithms (the Surface Energy Balance System (SEBS): (Su, 2002), the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MOD16): (Mu et al., 2007, 2011), the Global Land Evaporation Amsterdam Model (GLEAM): (Miralles et al., 2011) and the Priestly-Taylor Jet Propulsion Laboratory model (PT-JPL): (Fisher et al., 2008)) to derive ET using a range of methods including water balance closure across a broad range of catchments worldwide. They found that GLEAM and PT-JPL appear more realistic when compared with 837 globally distributed catchments, however find that all products show large dissimilarities in conditions of water stress and drought conditions (Miralles et al., 2016). Another global evaluation of three process-based models (SEBS, Penman-Montieth algorithm (PM-Mu): (Mu et al., 2007; Penman, 1948; Montieth, 1965) and Priestly-Taylor based approach (PT-Fi): (Priestley and Taylor, 1970)) in their estimation of ET was conducted by Vinukollu et al. (2011a) using the water balance approach at twenty six major basins worldwide along with other methods. A Root Mean Square Difference (RMSD) of 118 to 194 mm/year and bias of -132 to 53 mm/year were found between the estimated annual ET and water balance approximations. The LandFlux initiative, supported by GEWEX (<http://www.gewex.org/>) is a framework aiming to evaluate and compare several global ET data sets (Mueller et al., 2011; Jiménez et al., 2011). With these aims, global merged bench-marking ET products were derived

(Mueller et al., 2013a) using 40 datasets over a seven year period (1989-1995) and 14 datasets over a seventeen year period (1989-2005) to be used for evaluation. At the continental scale a study by Trambauer et al. (2014) compared ET estimates derived using a continental hydrological model (PCR-GLOBWB: (Van Beek and Bierkens, 2009) with other independently computed ET products (the European Center for Medium-range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) Re-Analysis (ERA)-Interim: (Dee et al., 2011), ERA-Land: (Balsamo et al., 2015), MOD16, GLEAM and three other versions of the PCR-GLOBWB model) using visual inspection and statistical methods. By sub-dividing the continent into climatic regions, they found that the annual anomalies of ET for each of the products with respect to the multi-product mean was highest in ERA-Interim. GLEAM was in most cases lower than the multi-product mean while PCR-GLOBWB was close to the multi-product mean in nearly all cases.

To our knowledge, there are no existing studies focusing solely and entirely on the African continent that use the water balance approach for evaluating existing ET products. The water budget of a catchment implies that precipitation (P) minus river discharge (Q) equals evapotranspiration (ET_{WB}) when considering a long time period so that the change in water storage (soil moisture, lakes, deltas) can be neglected (Miralles et al., 2016, 2011; Vinukollu et al., 2011b). Using this general **Water Balance (WB)** water balance to infer ET_{WB} , it is possible to gain understanding of the magnitude of ET within a given basin and hence to estimate biases in ET estimation by the different **ET products** products at the catchment scale. Unfortunately, the period of observation for measured discharge for certain basins is limited or do not overlap with **RS-derived estimations of ET**. For this reason long-term annual averages for time series without trends are existing ET products and thus different time periods need to be used.

This **Therefore, this** study focuses on **a methodology for evaluating RS-derived ET products from discharge observations and observation-based precipitation to derive ET** evaluating nine existing, mostly open access, ET products (ET_{RS}) using a water balance approach over Africa. The products being analysed are CSIRO's Moderate resolution imaging spectroradiometer Reflectance Scaling Evapotranspiration (CMRSET): (Guerschman et al., 2009), ETMonitor: (Zheng et al., 2016), GLEAM, LandFlux-EVAL, MOD16, FLUXNET Model Tree Ensemble (MTE): (Jung et al., 2011), the operational Simplified Surface Energy Balance model (SSEBop): (Senay et al., 2013), the Food and Agriculture Organisation's (FAO) portal to monitor **Water Productivity through Open access of Remotely sensed derived data (WaPOR)**: (FAO, 2018) and the **Water, Energy and Carbon Cycle with Artificial Neural Networks (WECANN)**: (Alemohammad et al., 2017). The evaluation of the products will be conducted using a) a comparison of their performance against calculated ET_{WB} , b) a robustness check of their performance against the Budyko curve (Budyko, 1974) which provides a reference condition for the water balance assuming it correctly partitions P into Q and c) a spatial variability assessment using **a WB approach**, at the continental scale over Africa using **long-term averages for non-overlapping time periods. A trend analysis is conducted in order to justify the use of different time periods. Spatial variability is analysed using** specific land cover elements that tend to have a higher or lower ET such as (forests, water bodies and irrigated areas).

2 Data ~~The remote sensing and Methods~~

2.1 ~~Data~~

2.1.1 ~~Evapotranspiration products~~

The derived ET products being evaluated in this study include ~~WaPOR, GLEAM, CMRSET, ETMonitor, GLEAM, LandFlux-EVAL, MOD16, MTE, SSEBop, WaPOR and WECANN~~. Overall there are large differences between the products which results in certain advantages and disadvantages between products. All products have a global spatial coverage (advantage) except for WaPOR (disadvantage). All products are openly accessible (advantage) except for ETMonitor (disadvantage). GLEAM and ETMonitor have a daily, CMRSET has an 8-daily and WaPOR has dekadal temporal resolution (advantage) over other products which have monthly or yearly resolutions (disadvantage). Most products are still ongoing (advantage) except for ETMonitor, LandFlux-EVAL and MTE (disadvantage). GLEAM, MTE and LandFlux-EVAL have data available prior to 1990 (advantage) with all other product data available after 1999 (disadvantage). CMRSET and WaPOR have the highest resolutions ($(0.0022^\circ \times 0.0022^\circ)$) (possible advantage), LandFlux-EVAL and WECANN have the lowest resolutions ($1^\circ \times 1^\circ$) (possible disadvantage) with all other products ranging in between. Table 1 summarises the different features mentioned and whether these are possible advantages or disadvantages. These different ET products give a good sample of the available data sets to choose from.

All products have been projected and gridded on a $0.0022^\circ \times 0.0022^\circ$ geographic grid and averaged at yearly temporal resolution. Table 1 for the purposes of this study. Table 2 summarizes the characteristics of the remote sensing products being used. For details and access on each of the products please refer to the references and access section in Table 2.

2.2 ~~Remotely sensed ET products~~

2.1.1 ~~GLEAM Precipitation products~~

The Global Land Evaporation Amsterdam Model (GLEAM) is a physically based model that estimates terrestrial evapotranspiration using satellite observations (Miralles et al., 2011, 2016). It consists of three different calculation schemes, namely, (1) rainfall interception driven by rainfall and vegetation observations; (2) potential evaporation calculated using the Priestley and Taylor (P-T) equation (Priestley and Taylor, 1972) and driven by satellite observations; and (3) a stress factor attenuating potential evaporation based on a semi-empirical relationship between microwave vegetation and optical depth (VOD) observations and root zone soil moisture estimates (Alemohammad et al., 2017). GLEAM ET estimates are provided at daily temporal resolution from 1980-2013 and $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ spatial resolution.

2.1.2 ~~WaPOR~~

The Food and Agriculture Organisation's data portal to monitor Water Productivity through Open access of Remotely sensed derived data (WaPOR) offers products related to water productivity (WP) derived mainly from freely available remote sensing

Table 1. Characteristics of precipitation products

<u>Feature</u>	<u>Global Spatial Coverage</u>	<u>Openly Accessible</u>	<u>Dekadal or higher temporal resolution</u>	<u>Product ongoing</u>	<u>Available from 1990 or earlier</u>	<u>highest resolution</u>	<u>Lowest resolution</u>
<u>Possible advantage or disadvantage</u>	<u>Advantage in general. Possible disadvantage in losing features if coarse resolution.</u>	<u>Advantage as accessible for everyone</u>	<u>Advantage as captures more temporal features</u>	<u>Advantage as can still be accessed for the present</u>	<u>Advantage as available for a longer time period</u>	<u>Possible advantage as may capture more features</u>	<u>Possible disadvantage as may capture fewer features</u>
<u>CMRSET</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
<u>ETMonitor</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>
<u>GLEAM</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>
<u>LandFlux-EVAL</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>
<u>MOD16</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>
<u>MTE</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>
<u>SSEBop</u> ⁵	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>
<u>WaPOR</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>
<u>WECANN</u> ⁵	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>
<u>FLUXNET-MTE</u> , <u>ETMonitor</u> <u>and</u> <u>CMRSET</u> . <u>All data are</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Yes</u>

satellite data (FAO, 2018). Actual evapotranspiration estimates are the sum of the soil evaporation (E) and canopy transpiration (T). Calculation of E and T are based on the ETLook model described in ? using the Penman-Montieth (P-M) equation (Montieth, 1965) adapted for remote sensing input and solved separately for E and T. For T the coupling with the soil is made via the root zone soil moisture content whereas for the E the coupling is made via the soil moisture content of the topsoil (FAO, 2018). The actual evapotranspiration and Interception (ETIa) maps [The precipitation products](#) used in this study are provided at a spatial resolution of $0.0022^{\circ} \times 0.0022^{\circ}$ and at either dekaadal or annual temporal resolution for the period 2009-present [the Earth2Observe \(E2OBS\)](#), [WATCH forcing data methodology applied to ERA-Interim Reanalysis \(WFDEL\)](#), [ERA-Interim data Merged and Bias-corrected \(EWEMBI\)](#), [the Climate Hazards group Infrared Precipitation with Stations \(CHIRPS\)](#) and [the Multi-Source Weighted Ensemble Precipitation \(MSWEP\)](#).

10 2.1.2 MOD16

MODIS Global Evapotranspiration Project (MOD16) estimates terrestrial evapotranspiration by using satellite remote sensing data. Terrestrial ET includes evaporation from wet and moist soil, rain water intercepted by the canopy and transpiration through stomata from plant leaves and stems. ET datasets are calculated using (Mu et al., 2011) improved algorithm from the initial developed algorithm in (Mu et al., 2007) and is based on the P-M equation. Improvements include; evaporation from wet soil; nighttime ET; simplified calculation of vegetative fraction cover; adding soil heat flux; improving estimates of stomatal conductance, aerodynamic resistance and boundary layer resistance and separating dry and wet canopy surfaces (Mu et al., 2011). MOD16 ET estimates are provided at a spatial resolution of $0.0083^{\circ} \times 0.0083^{\circ}$ and at either 8-daily, monthly or annual temporal resolution for the period 2000-2014.

2.1.2 SSEBop

20 The operational Simplified Surface Energy Balance (SSEBop) model estimates ET as a function of the land surface temperature (T_s) from remotely sensed data and reference ET (ET_o) from global weather datasets using the Simplified Surface Energy Balance (SSEB) method developed by ????. The Surface Energy Balance (SEB) is first solved for each pixel for a reference crop condition using the standard P-M equation and is adjusted according to T_s through an ET fraction approach, which accounts for the spatial variability of water availability and vegetation health in the landscape (?). SSEBop uses pre-defined, 25 seasonally dynamic boundary conditions that are unique to each pixel for "hot/dry" and "cold/wet" reference points defined in ? and ?. SSEBop ET estimates are provided at a spatial resolution of $0.0096^{\circ} \times 0.0096^{\circ}$ and at either monthly or annual temporal resolution for the period 2001-2017.

2.1.2 WECANN

30 The Water, Energy and Carbon Cycle with Artificial Neural Networks (WECANN) retrieves monthly estimates of Latent Heat Flux (LE) using the Artificial Neural Network (ANN) approach. The LE estimates, converted to ET in this study using a coefficient, uses remotely sensed solar-induced fluorescence (SIF) estimates along with remotely sensed estimates of precipitation,

temperature, soil moisture, snow cover and net radiation as inputs. Different observations and/or model-based estimates of LE are used to produce the training dataset using a Bayesian perspective (Alemohammad et al., 2017). WECANN-LE estimates are provided at a spatial resolution of $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$ and at monthly Precipitation products were averaged at yearly temporal resolution for the period 2007-2015 purposes of this study.

5 2.1.2 FLUXNET-MTE

The FLUXNET Model Tree Ensemble (FLUXNET-MTE) provides global fluxes of LE, converted to ET in this study, derived from empirical upscaling of eddy covariance measurements from the FLUXNET global network (Baldocechi et al., 2001). The MTE method uses an ensemble learning algorithm by training the MTEs for LE using site-level explanatory variables and fluxes and then applying these established MTEs using gridded datasets of the same explanatory variables (Jung et al., 2011).

10 MTE LE estimates cover a period from 1982-2012 at a spatial resolution of $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ and at a monthly temporal resolution.

2.1.2 ETMonitor

ETMonitor is a process-based model using mainly satellite observations to estimate ET at the global scale. In order to calculate ET, different modules for different land cover classes are used, including soil evaporation and plant transpiration for soil-plant systems based on the Shuttleworth-Wallace (?) model, an analytical module for rainfall interception loss by
15 vegetation canopies, a water evaporation module for water bodies based on the P-M equation and a sublimation module for snow/ice surfaces (Zheng et al., 2016). The ET estimates are available globally, covering a period from 2008-2012 at a spatial resolution of $0.0096^{\circ} \times 0.0096^{\circ}$ and at daily temporal resolution.

2.1.2 CMRSET

CMRSET provides estimates of ET based on surface reflectances from MODIS-Terra and interpolated climate data. The
20 algorithm uses Enhanced Vegetation Indices (EVI) through its relationship with Leaf Area Index (LAI) and Global Vegetation Moisture Indices (GVMI) which provides information on vegetation water content and allows the separation of surface water and bare soil to scale derived P-T potential evapotranspiration (Guerschman et al., 2009). CMRSET ET estimates are available at a spatial resolution of $0.0022^{\circ} \times 0.0022^{\circ}$ and an 8-day temporal resolution for the period 2000-2013.

2.1.2 Multi-Product Mean

25 The Multi-Product Mean (MPM) is obtained by calculating the mean of the eight aforementioned RS ET products used in this study. The product has a spatial resolution of $0.0022^{\circ} \times 0.0022^{\circ}$ Table 3 summarizes the characteristics of the products being used. For details and access on each of the products please refer to the references and access section in Table 3. The ensemble of the three P products were used for all calculations requiring P.

2.2 Precipitation data

2.1.1 EWEMBI

~~Earth2Observe, WFDEI and~~

2.1.1 MSWEP

- 5 ~~The Multi-Source Weighted Ensemble Precipitation (MSWEP) is a gridded precipitation product based on gauge (WorldClim, GHCND, GSOD, GPCC, and others), satellite (CMORPH, GridSat, GSMaP, and TMPA 3B42RT) and reanalysis (ERA-Interim and JRA-55) data (?). The dataset provides precipitation estimates globally at a spatial resolution of $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ and temporal resolution of 3-hourly covering the period 1979-2017.~~

2.2 Discharge data

10 2.1.1 Discharge data

Discharge data was obtained from the Global Runoff Data Centre (GRDC) ~~for the majority of basins and from~~ and the Vrije Universiteit Brussels (VUB) Department of Hydrology and Hydraulic Engineering (HYDR) ~~for the Nile and Blue Nile basins. All data was initially obtained at either daily or monthly temporal resolution and aggregated to monthly and yearly averages. Table 4 summarizes the characteristics of the data being used. For details and access on each of the products please refer to the~~ references and access section in Table 4.

2.2 Reference potential evapotranspiration data

~~The datasets used for reference potential evapotranspiration~~

2.1.1 Reference potential evapotranspiration data

- 20 Three global reference Potential Evapotranspiration (PET) was data products developed by Deltares (Sperna Weiland et al., 2015) ~~. The datasets are derived from the WFDEI dataset with a resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ and downscaled based on a high resolution Digital Elevation Model (DEM) from the Shuttle Radar Topography Mission at 90m resolution (Sperna Weiland et al., 2015).~~ Three datasets were used for PET are used based on the Hargreaves ~~-(Har)~~ (Hargreaves and Samani, 1985), Penman-Montieth (P-Mand-) (Montieth, 1965; Penman, 1948) and Priestly-Taylor (P-T approaches respectively. The global PET datasets have a spatial resolution of $0.083^\circ \times 0.083^\circ$ and daily temporal resolution covering the period 1979-2012.) (Priestley and Taylor, 1972) approaches. Table 5 summarizes the characteristics of the products being used. For details and access on each of the products please refer to the references and access section in Table 5. The ensemble of the three PET products were used for all calculations requiring PET.

3 Methodology

2.1 Methods

A methodology to evaluate ~~RS-derived ET~~ ET product estimations is presented next:

1. ~~Preprocessing and data analyses~~ Comparison between catchment water balance evapotranspiration (ET_{WB}) and ET products
2. ~~Comparison using WB-inferred ET estimates~~ Evaluation of ET_{WB} and ET product estimations using the Budyko curve (ET_{Budyko}) as a reference
3. ~~Performance with characteristics~~ Assessment of spatial variability using land cover elements
4. ~~Evaluation using the Budyko curve~~ Assessment of similarity using a cluster analysis

2.2 **Preprocessing and data analyses**

2.1.1 Catchment water balance evapotranspiration (ET_{WB})

Due to the limited availability of direct observations of ET across Africa, we infer ET estimates at the river basin level using the ~~WB approach~~. ~~The long-term WB assumes water balance approach assuming~~ a negligible change in storage (discussed further in Section 5) ~~and therefore the total inflow (P) is equal to the total outflow (ET and Q) and therefore ET is equal to P minus Q, according to the following equation: for long time periods:~~

$$ET_{WB} = P - Q \quad (1)$$

~~For all the~~

~~ET_{WB} was calculated for 27 major river basins in Africa, discharge data from GRDC and other sources were analysed at their outlets based on data availability and quality. As seen in across Africa based on discharge data (GRDC and HYDR VUB) quality and availability at the outlets of 54 major basins (Fig. 2, from fifty-four major basins in Africa we found twenty-seven basins with sufficient and quality discharge data at the outlet. The spread of only these twenty-seven basins covers the majority of the African continent). Catchment or basin areas were taken from the 'Major River Basins of the World' (MRBW) shapefile (World Bank, 2017). Discharge was converted from cubic meters per second to millimeters per year using the above mentioned catchment areas for all years of data availability for each basin. Since direct observations of precipitation from gauges were not used, three different precipitation products, as described above, are used for comparison. Using these available discharge data and precipitation data from precipitation was taken as the average of the three data products, EWEMBI, CHIRPS and MSWEP, the annual average ET was estimated across. Basin average precipitation was calculated for the years 1979-2016 according to the MRBW shapefile boundaries recording the basin mean. The performance of the precipitation products in estimating P for each of the twenty-seven basins using equation 1 and basins were compared. Long-term ET_{WB} was calculated by using~~

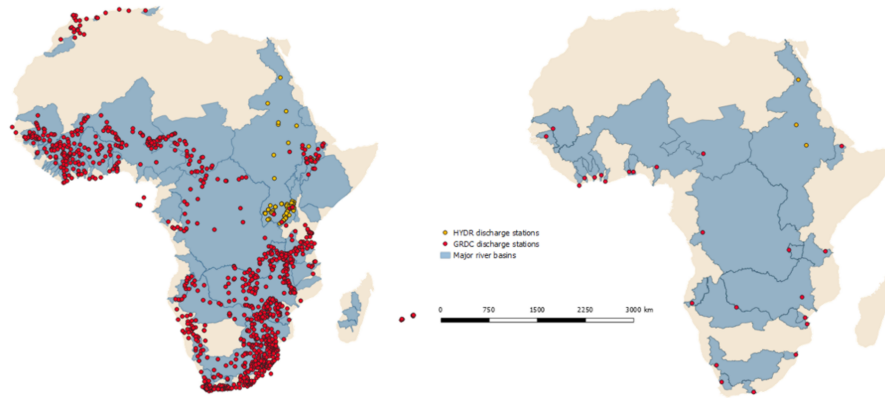


Figure 2. (left) All major basins in Africa and all available discharge stations; (right) Major basins in Africa with available discharge data at outlet

the long-term average ~~was calculated.~~ discharge and precipitation data for each catchment. The MRBW shapefile area did not differ greatly with the drainage area reported by the GRDC except in two cases. Here we found the ET_{WB} calculated using the two areas only differed by 2.5 percent and 3.3 percent and thus kept these basins in the analyses.

~~(left) All major basins in Africa and all discharge stations; (right) Major basins in Africa with available discharge data at~~
 5 outlet

As mentioned previously, using the general WB to infer average ET across different basins poses the problem of limited to no overlapping time periods between the data sources. Thus, we investigated whether or not annual trends can be detected from the inferred ET. ~~If the data show~~ One problem that arises when using the water balance approach is that the period of observation for measured discharge is limited or does not overlap with existing ET products in certain cases. For this reason, long-term averages of ET_{WB} were used where no major trends across the different basins then it can be justified to evaluate the ET estimations using long-term averages from ~~were present in order to justify the evaluation using~~ different time periods (discussed further in Section 5).

The Mann-Kendall (MK) (Mann, 1945; Kendall, 1948) test was used to identify whether a monotonic upward or downward trend is present in the ~~inferred ET~~ ET_{WB} estimates. The MK test is non-parametric (distribution free) and best used as an exploratory analysis to identify where changes are significant or of large magnitude (Matzke et al., 2014) and should only be used where seasonal trends are not present. Considering annual averages are used in this study, the MK test was deemed appropriate. ~~A python function mk_test developed by Matzke et al. (2014) was used to conduct the MK test. The function returns the following outputs:-~~

- ~~- trend: the type of trend (increasing, decreasing or no trend)~~
- 20 - h: hypothesis testing, returns True (if trend is present) or False (if trend is absent)

- p: p value of the significance test (low value ≤ 0.05 for true and high value > 0.05 for false)
- z: normalised test statistic

After conducting the test, if trends were present, these basins were discounted from the analyses.

5 Lastly, a cluster analysis was performed, using the method followed by Wartenburger et al. (2018) on the RS products and the MPM to investigate the overall level of similarity between the individual products in terms of spatial variability. The long-term average map for each product and the MPM were used whereby the pairwise Euclidean distance between each dataset for each pixel was calculated and evaluated. Each of the maps used were resampled to $0.0096^\circ \times 0.0096^\circ$ for computation efficiency.

2.2 Comparison using WB inferred ET estimates

In order to conduct ~~comparisons of ET estimations, all RS derived products~~ our comparisons using the calculated ET_{WB} , all
 10 ET products being evaluated were projected to WGS 84, EPSG:4326 on a ~~$0.0022^\circ \times 0.0022^\circ$ grid~~, $0.0022^\circ \times 0.0022^\circ$ grid.
This resolution represented the highest spatial resolution of the products being analysed. ~~The nearest neighbors~~ Products were
resampled to the highest resolution in order to obtain the best approximation of basin areas when overlaid with basin boundary
shapefiles. Only negligible differences were found between calculation of ET_{WB} using products with original resolution
compared with ET_{WB} calculated using resampled products. The nearest neighbours' interpolation method was used for any
 15 resampling required from course to high resolution to limit the loss of any information. The estimations were then combined to
 give a single map for each product of the long-term ~~annual average ET~~ average ET_{RS} across Africa. The time periods averaged
 for each product can be found in Table 4. ~~These maps were then clipped for each of the basins being analysed~~ 2. Basin average
 ET_{RS} was calculated according to the MRBW shapefile boundaries and the basin mean was recorded. The Root Mean Square
Error (RMSE), the basin area weighted RMSE ($RMSE_{aw}$), the correlation coefficient (r), bias and basin area weighted bias
 20 ($bias_{aw}$) between ET_{WB} versus ET_{RS} for all basins were calculated. Basin area weighting was considered when calculating
bias and RMSE due to a large difference in basin areas. Therefore, basins with larger areas had more weight in the basin
area weighted statistics than basins with smaller areas. Correlations were calculated based on long-term annual average ET
recorded. From these results the correlation, average difference and weighted average difference with the estimated WB ET
 25 using all three precipitation products was calculated. The ranking of the RS ET estimations for the correlation, average and
weighted average difference was based on the mean performance against the three WB ET estimates derived using EWEMBI,
CHIRPS and MSWEP precipitation data.

2.2 Performance with characteristics land cover elements

Two types of land cover elements were evaluated in this study. A map with areas equipped for irrigation actually irrigated by
 30 FAO and Rheinische Friedrich-Wilhelms-University (Siebert et al., 2013) and a map of water bodies was obtained from the
 Global Reservoir and Dam (GRanD) database (Lehner et al., 2011) were used to evaluate how well the ET products identified
 spatial characteristics. Two steps were used, firstly the maps were evaluated visually using the same colour scale. Secondly,
 since for water bodies the ET should be more or less equal to the PET, the long-term annual average mean ET estimates across

~~water bodies by the products were compared with the long-term annual average mean PET estimates across water bodies by calculating the difference between them. For irrigated areas, average crop coefficients (ke=averages across all basins.~~

~~The ranking of the ET /PET) for maize, wheat and sugarcane estimated by FAO were used as a reference. Thus, the long-term annual average mean ET estimates across irrigated areas were divided by the long-term annual average mean PET estimates across irrigated areas to find the average crop coefficient (ke) across irrigated areas. The difference between the reference ke from FAO and estimated ke using RS ET estimates and PET derived using Hargreaves, P-M and P-T were then found. Ranking was based firstly on visual inspection of the distribution of irrigated areas and water bodies between the products and secondly on the smallest average difference of mean ET of irrigated areas and water bodies with the specified reference conditions~~products are based on their performance on RMSE, $RMSE_{aw}$, r, bias and $bias_{aw}$.

2.2 Evaluation using the Budyko curve

2.1.1 Evaluation using the Budyko curve

The Budyko equation partitions precipitation into streamflow and ET_{Budyko} by describing the relationship between mean annual ET and ~~the~~ long-term average water and energy balance at catchment scales (Sposito, 2017) as seen in Fig. 3. Budyko (1974) developed this approach for the physics of catchment ET by postulating on the phase transformation of green water to vapor and thus that ET reflects not only the partitioning of water but also radiant energy at the vadoze zone and atmosphere interface (Sposito, 2017; Gerrits et al., 2009) following equation 2.

$$\left[\frac{PET}{P} \tanh\left(\frac{1}{\frac{PET}{P}}\right) \left(1 - \exp^{-\frac{PET}{P}}\right) \right]^{0.5} \quad (2)$$

~~Since the~~

~~The~~ Budyko curve provides a reference condition for the water balance assuming it correctly describes the partitioning of P into Q, ~~then we can use this information which can be used~~ to see how well ~~our products~~ ~~the ET products and calculated~~ ET_{WB} perform in estimating ET. For each of the basins under study, we calculated ET/P and PET/P and plotted these against the Budyko curve. ~~We derived long-term annual average basin mean PET estimates for~~ ~~Average PET estimates from the three products using the~~ Hargreaves, P-M and P-T approaches ~~. We also used P from~~ ~~were used by taking the basin mean PET according to the MRBW shapefile boundaries. The performance of the reference potential evapotranspiration products in estimating PET for each of the basins were compared. P was taken as the average of EWEMBI, CHIRPS and MSWEP separately to compare the results.~~ ~~precipitation products. The bias was found between the calculated ET_{WB} and ET_{RS} with the calculated ET_{Budyko} .~~

The ranking of the ~~RS products using the Budyko evaluation is~~ ET_{RS} ~~from each product are~~ based on the ~~smallest difference with the Budyko ET estimations for the average ET across the basins for the three PET approaches, Hargreaves, P-M and P-T.~~ ~~performance of their average bias across all basins with that of the calculated ET_{Budyko} .~~

2.1.2 Spatial variability assessment

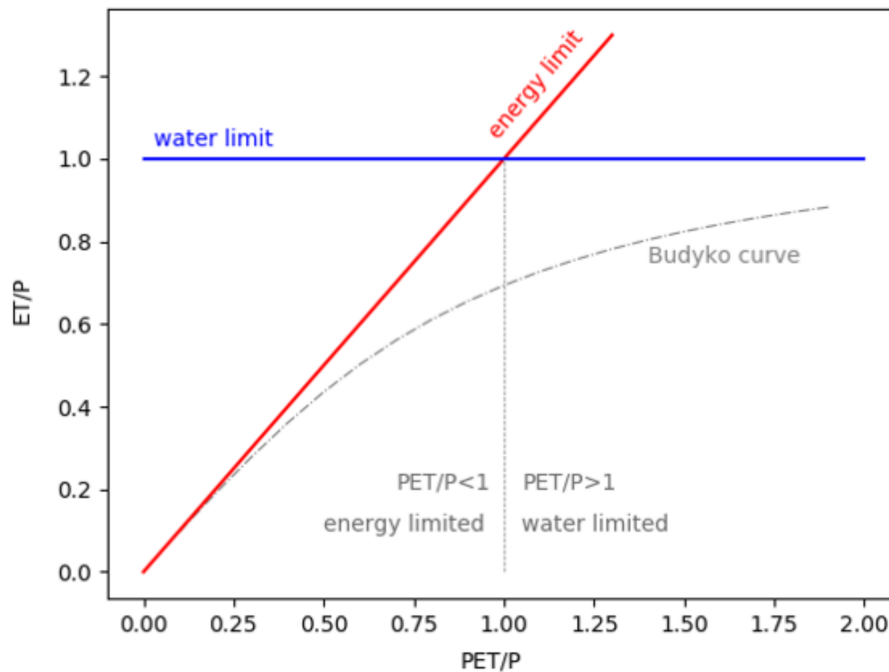


Figure 3. Budyko curve showing the energy limit and water limit

Three types of land cover elements were evaluated in this study, irrigated areas, water bodies and forested areas. A map with Areas Equipped for Irrigation actually irrigated (AEIai) by FAO and Rheinische Friedrich-Wilhelms-University (Siebert et al., 2013), a map of Water Bodies obtained from the Global Reservoir and Dam (WB_{GRanD}) database (Lehner et al., 2011) and a map of 2013 Intact Forest Landscapes (IFL) were used to evaluate how well the ET products identified spatial characteristics. Two steps were used. Firstly the ET products were evaluated visually. Using different scales and identified land cover elements (Figure ??) the ET products were evaluated on how well each type of land cover element was detected. Secondly, a quantitative assessment was conducted for forested areas and water bodies. A quantitative assessment of irrigated areas was not conducted due to not being able to find a suitable reference condition for such large pixels and long-term temporal scales. For water bodies ET should be more or less equal to the PET. Therefore, the long-term annual average ET_{RS} and PET across water bodies was calculated by recording the mean according to the boundary provided by the WB_{GRanD} map. The mean ET_{RS} for water bodies for each ET product was then compared with the PET mean for water bodies by calculating the bias.

For forested areas, the average ET was taken from literature where estimations for the Congo forest, the forested area being evaluated, were between 1200-1500 mm/year (Otto et al., 2013; Reynolds et al., 1988). Therefore a value of 1350 mm/year as a reference for ET across the evaluated forested area was taken. Mean values of ET for the forested area were found using the IFL shapefile and recorded for each ET product. The bias between the reference ET as reported in literature and calculated mean ET for forested areas for each product was found and recorded.

Budyko curve showing the energy limit and water limit

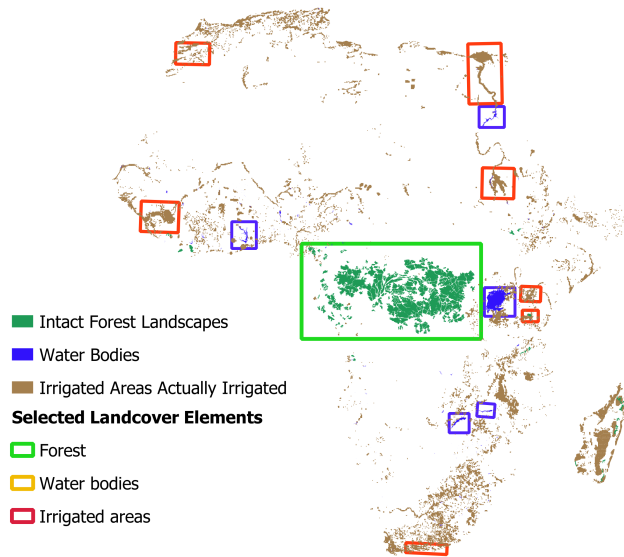


Figure 4. IFL, WB GRanD and AEIai land cover element maps and areas selected for visual inspection

Ranking was conducted in two stages. Firstly on the performance of ET products to characterise the three land cover element types through visual inspection. And secondly based on the bias of each of the ET products in relation to the used reference for water bodies and forested area.

5 2.1.3 Assessment of similarity

Lastly, a cluster analysis was performed, using the method followed by Wartenburger et al. (2018) on the ET products to find the overall level of similarity between the individual products in terms of spatial variability and magnitude. The aggregated long-term average maps for all products were used whereby the pairwise Euclidean distance between each data set for each pixel was calculated and evaluated. Each of the maps used were resampled to $0.0096^\circ \times 0.0096^\circ$ for computation efficiency.

10 3 Results

~~In this section we present the obtained results for the different methodology stages.~~

3.1 Preprocessing and data analyses

Figure ??(

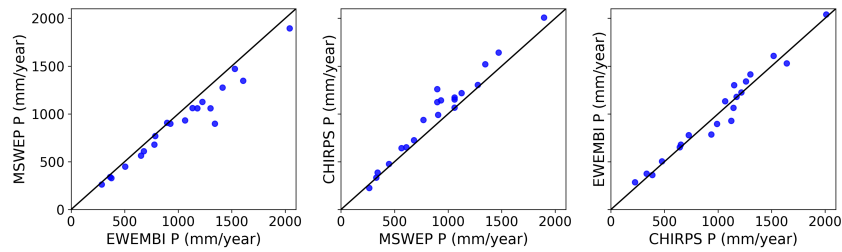


Figure 5. Comparison of the EWEMBI, MSWEP and CHIRPS precipitation products on their prediction of mean P across the basins

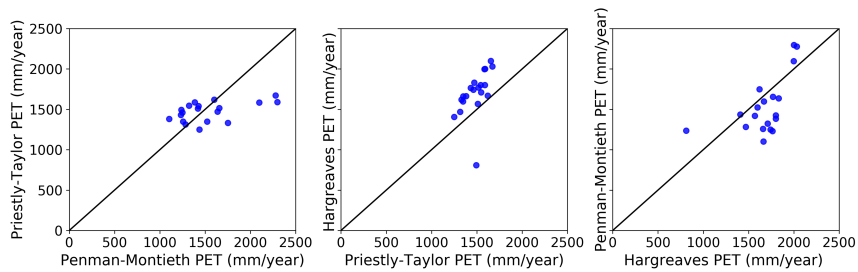


Figure 6. Comparison of the P-M, P-T and Hargreaves potential evapotranspiration products on their prediction of mean PET across the basins

3.1 Catchment water balance

15 3.1.1 Comparison of precipitation and potential evapotranspiration products

Precipitation and potential evapotranspiration were taken as the average of three products. Here we compare the results of the different P and PET products for the basins being analysed. We see that the three precipitation products show little differences in their estimations of long-term average P across the basins. No large outliers can be seen (Figure 4). The comparison of the three PET products showed larger differences in their estimations of long-term average PET across the basins (Figure 5). One significant outlier can be seen for Bandama basin where the Hargreaves PET product has a much lower PET estimation than the Priestly-Taylor product. However, as no reference PET was available for Banadama or any of the other basins we kept all basins within the analyses and still used the average of all three products.

3.1.2 Basins used in the analyses

- 5 Figure 6 (left) shows the annual-average-ETlong-term average ET_{WB} estimates for the twenty-seven-27 basins with available discharge and precipitation data. The spread of the ET across the basins seems to be consistent with the African climate, where

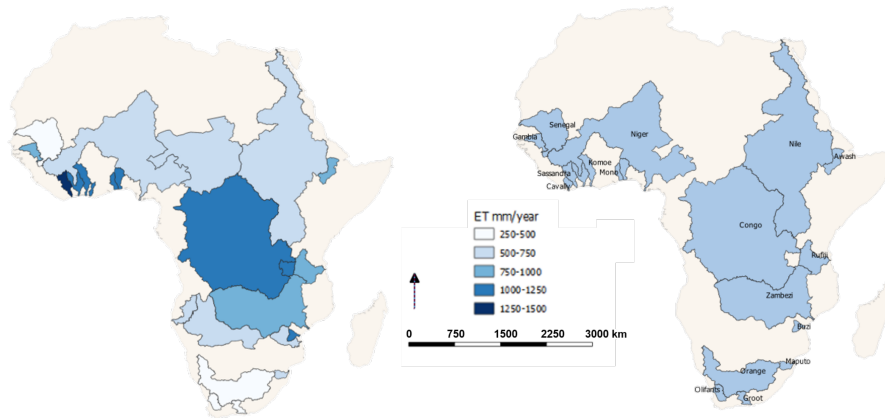


Figure 7. (right) ET_{WB} estimation for 28 major basins in Africa using P-Q (left) Final basins being analysed after trend-analyses to discount basins with trends in ET_{WB} , P and/or Q.

basins in the semi-arid to arid northern and southern parts of Africa show lower ET than the more centrally located basins known to be more tropical.

For the MK test was then conducted on the 27 basins with calculated ET_{WB} to test for trends. In order for the MK test to be accurate a minimum of ten data points should be used. However, of the twenty seven basins being tested, eleven basins did not have sufficient data points for an accurate analyses invalidating these results. Table 2 shows results from conducting a MK test for monotonic trends in the ET estimates inferred from the WB approach for the remaining twenty seven basins across Africa with available discharge data. ET estimates for twenty two of the basins show no trends, while three basins show trends, Cunene and Okavango increasing trends and the Nile a decreasing trend. Two basins, Rufiji and Tana, did not have any overlapping precipitation and discharge data to calculate ET for analyses. For the basins with fewer than ten data points, which were not available for all basins. For these basins the MK test was conducted on the collected precipitation and discharge P and Q data used to calculate ET. From the eleven basins analysed, five basins, the Blue Nile, Lake Chad, Save, Tana and Void, show a increasing or decreasing trend in either the precipitation or discharge as seen in Table 2. Thus from the MK trend analyses conducted on ET, P and Q estimated, seven basins showed a trend in at least one of the three variables and thus were eliminated from the study. Figure ?? (right) shows the final twenty basins being analysed after elimination based on For the results from the MK test please see Table A1 in Appendix A. After conducting the MK test on the 27 basins for major trends in the calculated ET_{WB} and/or the precipitation and discharge data, 20 basins remained without a monotonic trend being present. The number and (Fig. 6). The spread of the final basins being analysed still gives a good coverage remaining 20 basins still gives good spatial coverage for analysis across the African continent.

3.1.3 Catchment water balance comparison

- 5 Two groupings or clusters are observed when looking at the similarity between individual products and the MPM (Fig. 4). We see one cluster formed with three Table 6 shows the calculated statistics for the comparison of the long-term average ET_{WB} versus ET_{RS} across the average of all basins. Three products, CMRSET, SSEBop and WaPOR, with SSEBop and WaPOR being slightly more similar than with CMRSET. And a second cluster with the remaining products and the MPM showing the most similar products being WECANN with MPM and GLEAM with MTE.
- 10 Dendrogram after performing a cluster analysis showing the overall level of similarity between the RS products and MPM

3.2 Comparison using WB inferred ET estimates

- Figure 5 shows the correlation of the long-term annual average basin mean ET estimates and the different RS ET products, the MPM and the WB inferred ET using the different precipitation products across the twenty basins. For all products the correlation between the WB inferred ET using EWEMBI, CHIRPS and MSWEP precipitation is relatively high ranging from
- 15 88 to 95 percent. MTE, WaPOR and WECANN estimates show the highest correlations while SSEBop shows the lowest correlations with WB estimations.

- Figures 6 and 7 shows the average percentage difference and weighted average percentage difference in the long-term annual average basin mean ET estimates between the RS products and the WB ET respectively. The trends and percentage differences across the products are very similar in both figures. WaPOR, SSEBop and CRMSET show the smallest biases, maximum of 6 and 9 percent, compared with the WB ET estimates derived using the EWEMBI and CHIRPS precipitation respectively. While SSEBop, the MPM and MTE show the smallest biases, maximum 10 percent, compared with WB ET estimates derived using MSWEP precipitation. GLEAM and ETMonitor show the largest biases, maximum 28, 32 and 22 percent, compared with WB estimates using EWEMBI, CHIRPS and MSWEP precipitation respectively when looking at average percentage
- 5 difference. While GLEAM and MOD16 show the largest biases, maximum 36, 36 and 27 percent, compared with WB estimates using EWEMBI, CHIRPS and MSWEP precipitation products respectively when looking at the weighted average percentage difference. The mean difference ranges between 13-319 clearly stand out in terms of showing low biases ranging from 3-46 mm/year from a total average of 849 mm and 8-394 year. The remainder of the products have relatively large biases ranging from 115-313 mm/year from a total weighted average of 1152 mm.

- 10 Table 3 shows the ranking of the RS products based on the mean WB ET derived using the three precipitation products for each of the calculated statistics. Considering the correlation is relatively high for all the products, we see that the higher ranked products are WaPOR, SSEBop and CMRSET, while GLEAM and ETMonitor are ranked as the year. CMRSET and WaPOR are the only two products that overestimate ET with respect to calculated ET_{WB} while all other products underestimate ET when looking at the average bias across all basins. All products show a high RMSE, with CMRSET, SSEBop and WaPOR showing the lowest RMSE and $RMSE_{gw}$. The $RMSE_{gw}$ for most products exceeds 300 mm/year. There is a significant positive correlation for all products ranging from 0.89-0.97 with GLEAM and LandFlux-EVAL showing the strongest relationships with ET_{WB} across the different basins.

Delving deeper into the biases (Fig. 7) we can identify certain basins where most products have large biases, namely Awash, Groot, Niger, Olifant and the Upper Blue Nile. The only pattern that may be seen here with the location of the basins is that they

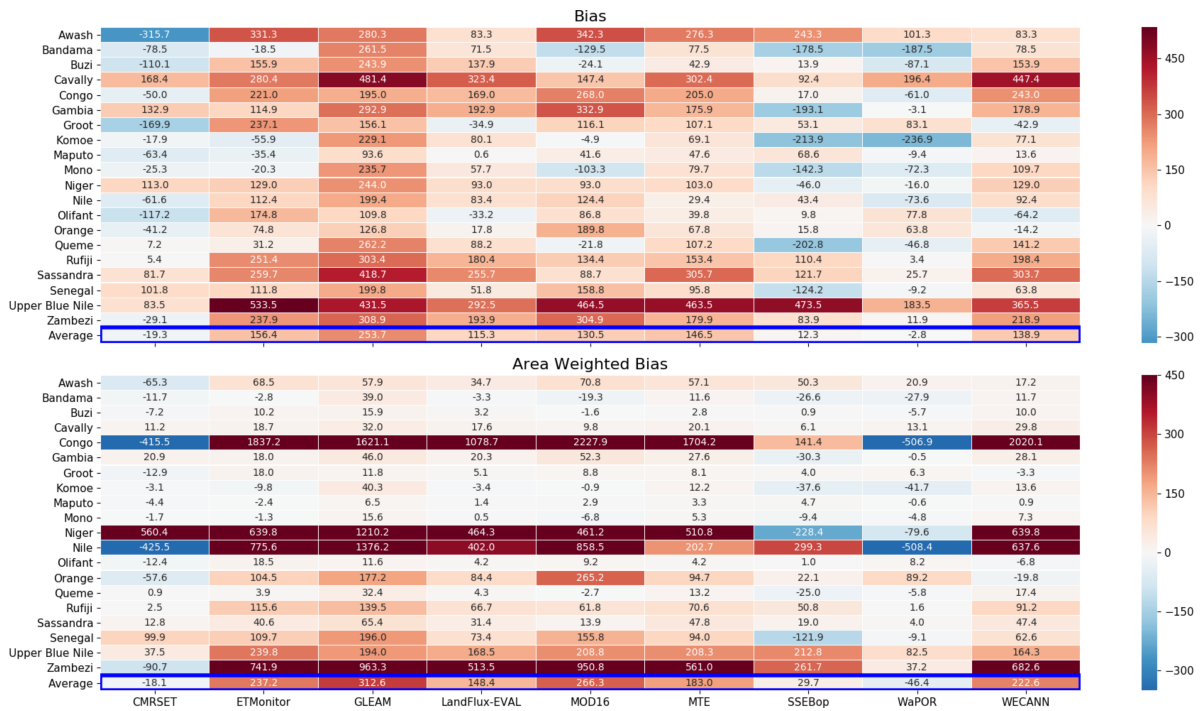


Figure 8. Correlation-Bias and basin area weighted bias between the long-term mean-WB inferred annual average calculated ET_{wb} and RS derived-ET across RS for all basins using three different precipitation products (EWEMBI (left), CHIRPS (middle) and MSWEP (right)) the average of the 20 basins

20 are found in the semi-arid northern and southern regions of Africa. The majority of the products underestimate basin-average ET across most basins except for CMRSET and WaPOR where ET is mostly overestimated. While the ET is equally over and underestimated by SSEBop across the different basins.

Percentage difference between long-term mean-WB inferred ET and RS derived ET across basins using three different precipitation products (EWEMBI (left), CHIRPS (middle) and MSWEP (right))

25 **3.2 Evaluation using the Budyko curve**

3.3 Performance with characteristics land cover elements

Figure 8 shows a section of the Nile basin where large irrigation occurs from the Nile Delta in Egypt all the way down to the Gezira scheme in Sudan. This area was selected as it was easiest to view the differences between products on how well they performed in showing the spatial distribution of ET since the ET is relatively higher in these areas than surrounding areas. Most of the products are able to capture the spatial distribution of irrigation patterns in this area with some products performing better than others except for GLEAM. Even the coarser products, WECANN and MTE can also slightly capture higher ET in these larger irrigation areas. As expected the higher resolution products, WaPOR, CMRSET, SSEBop and ETMonitor capture the

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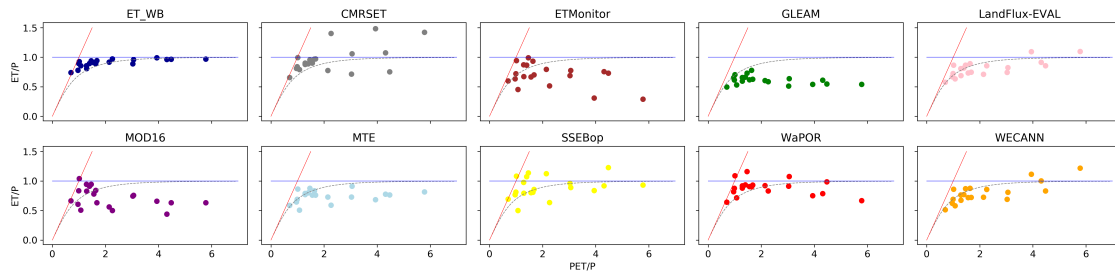


Figure 9. Weighted average (based on area) percentage difference between long-term mean WB inferred Evaluation of the calculated ET_{WB} and RS-derived-ET across basins RS from products using the Budyko curve calculated using average P and PET from three different precipitation products (EWEMBI (left), CHIRPS (middle) and MSWEP (right))

spatial patterns of ET across these areas very well. From visual inspection we ranked the performance of each of the products in capturing the spatial distribution ability of each ET product to capture ET according to the Budyko curve. The ET_{WB} follows the Budyko curve well, where we see that for each of the basins, the calculated ET_{WB} falls very close to the Budyko curve. The calculated ET for most of the ET products and also for the majority of basins falls under the curve showing a tendency for products to underestimate basin ET as previously observed. Conversely, a clear tendency by the CMRSET product of overestimating basin ET can be seen. What is interesting to note here is that some ET products exceed either the water limit and/or the energy limit in their calculation of ET in irrigated areas as seen in Table 3. We see that WaPOR and CMRSET rank the highest while GLEAM and WECANN rank the lowest certain basins. This implies water is being lost, for example through the groundwater system when the energy limit is exceeded or there is an additional input of water beyond precipitation if the water limit is exceeded. SSEBop, WECANN and CMRSET exceed the water limit in more basins relative to other products, however their ET estimations are not necessarily further from ET estimations using the Budyko approach as given by equation 2. This is confirmed in table 9 where CMRSET and SSEBop along with WaPOR have the lowest biases when compared with ET_{Budyko} after ET_{WB} .

Figure 9 also compares the products at capturing spatial characteristics, this time using water bodies. We zoomed into Lake Victoria to clearly

3.3 Spatial variability assessment

Figure 9 shows ET across Africa for all ET products with the specific land cover elements (forest, irrigated areas and water bodies) highlighted. Two different scales are used in order to be able to identify and visualise the spatial patterns of ET across a large lake. The majority of products here do not estimate ET across water bodies. Only visually compare the products according to spatial variability rather than magnitude of ET. For products where large biases were found, a scale of 0-1200 mm/year was used and for the remaining products a scale of 0-1800 mm/year was used. Visually, all products capture the forested area. Irrigated areas are also captured well by most products. GLEAM and LandFlux-EVAL do not capture the majority of selected irrigated areas. CMRSET, ETMonitor, SSEBop and WaPOR estimate ET across Lake Victoria. We can see that CMRSET and

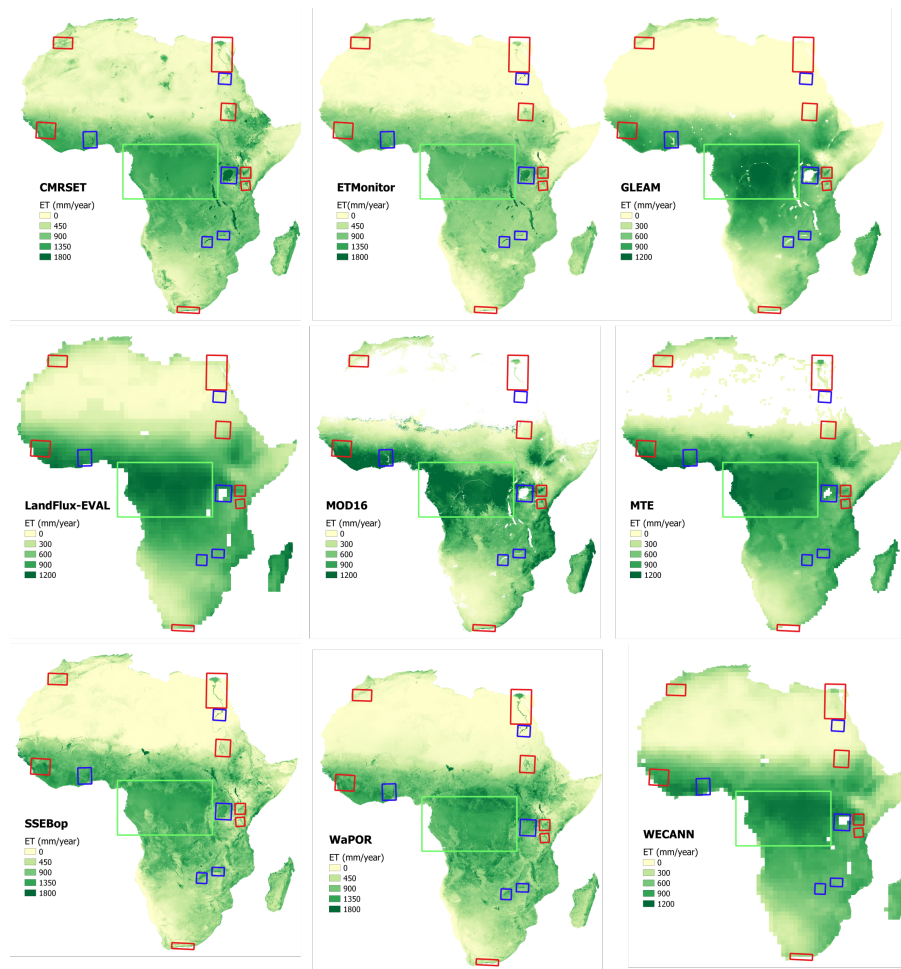


Figure 10. Spatial assessment across Africa of each ET product based on selected land cover elements, forest, irrigated areas and water bodies

ETMonitor show higher ET across the lake than SSEBop and WaPOR which show better characterisation capture most of the selected irrigated areas while the remaining products capture a few. GLEAM, LandFlux-EVAL, MOD16, MTE and WECANN only estimate land ET and thus do not have ET across water bodies. The remaining products capture the water bodies well, with CMRSET and ETMonitor showing larger differences in their estimations of ET across water bodies, thus these products were ranked higher than the other two. The than the surrounding areas over SSEBop and WaPOR. A ranking based on visual inspection and magnitude of how well each ET product captures the selected land cover element can be found in Table 3. For all products that did not estimate ET across water bodies the ranking was set to 9. 8.

Figure 10 shows the difference between the reference crop coefficients of maize, wheat and sugarcane with the estimates long-term annual average mean crop coefficient across irrigated areas in Africa. It is clear that all products show underestimations

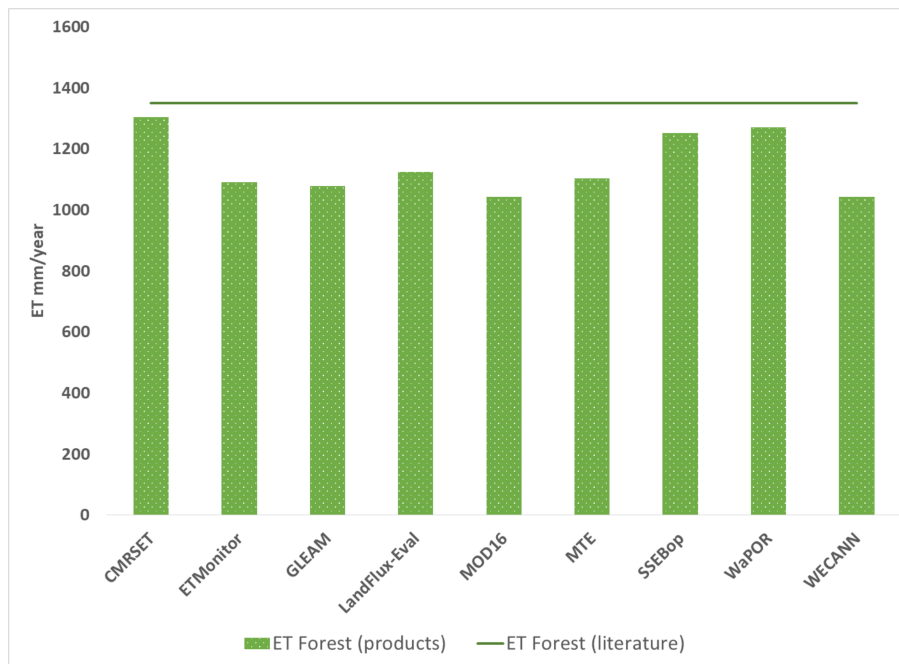


Figure 11. Comparison of RS products in representing irrigated areas. Zoomed to part of mean ET across the Nile basin selected forested area for each product versus mean ET found from literature

in irrigated areas when compared with the reference crop coefficients. The shapefile used for defining the irrigated areas shows very small areas that are smaller than the highest resolution pixels from our products. Thus some of these irrigated areas are calculating ET but are not being accounted as irrigated areas within our products which may account for the underestimation. We see that the three products that have the smallest difference with the reference crop coefficients are consistently CMRSET, WaPOR and SSEBop. Figure 11 shows the difference between the the long-term annual average mean Figures 10 and 11 show the bias between the mean ET across the forests and water bodies estimated by the ET products and the reference ET used for each element. All ET products capture ET across the selected forested area, however some perform better than others at describing the magnitude. CMRSET, SSEBop and WaPOR have very low biases with respect to the reference found in literature, while MOD16 and WECANN have the largest biases. All products underestimate ET across the forested area with respect to the used reference. The four products which estimate ET across water bodies from the RS ET estimates and PET estimates using the Hargreaves, P-M and P-T approaches. Only four products are presented ETMonitor, CMRSET, WaPOR and SSEBop while all other products do not calculate ET, show relatively low biases with the reference PET. CMRSET overestimates ET while ETMonitor, SSEBop and WaPOR underestimate ET on average across water bodies however, some water bodies are included in those products due to the resolution of the data. Therefore, only CMRSET, ETMonitor, The lowest bias for water bodies is found in ETMonitor.

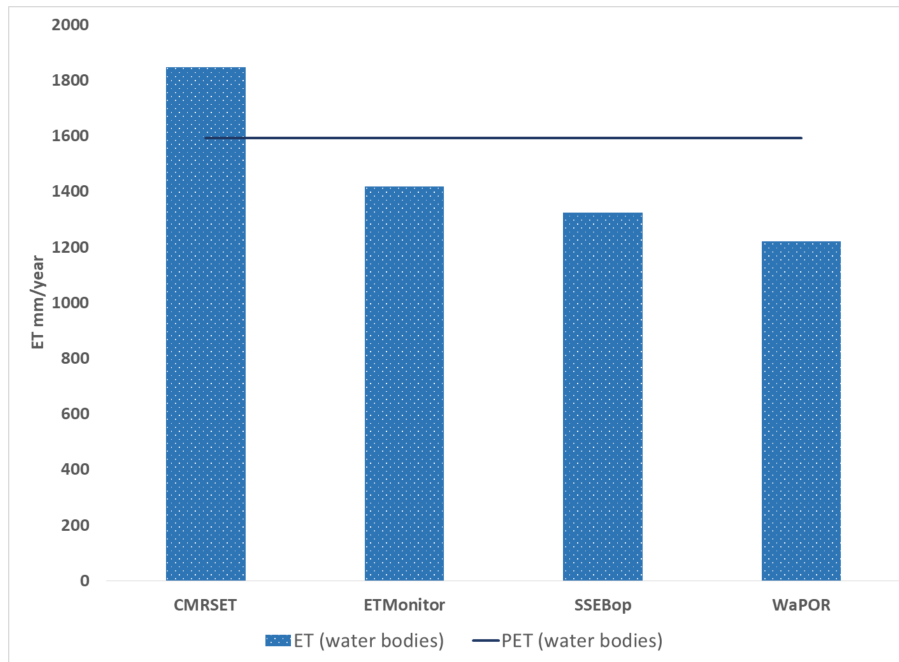


Figure 12. Comparison of RS products in representing mean ET across water bodies. Zoomed to part of estimated by each ET product and PET using the Nile basin average of three PET products

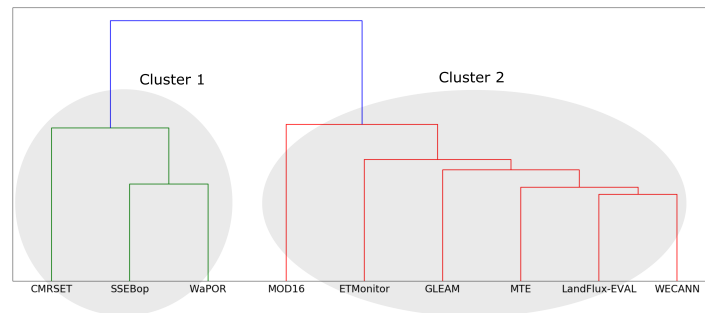


Figure 13. Cluster analysis based on the pairwise Euclidean distance between each pixel for each ET product to assess overall similarity between data sets

3.4 Product similarity assessment

- 10 Two groupings or clusters are observed when looking at the similarity between individual products (Fig. 12). We see one cluster formed with three products, CMRSET, SSEBop and WaPOR, with SSEBop and WaPOR have estimations of ET across water bodies. All four products tend to estimate ET across water bodies relatively well with small differences with the PET

estimates across water bodies. All products underestimate ET across water bodies except for CMRSET which overestimates ET being slightly more similar than with CMRSET. And a second cluster with the remaining products. Within the second cluster, LandFlux-EVAL and WECANN show the highest level of similarity which also coincides with having the same spatial resolution.

Table 3

3.5 Ranking of products

Table 8 shows the ranking of the different RS-ET products based on the mean ET across irrigated areas and water bodies compared with PET estimates. We see that the highest ranked products for irrigated areas are CMRSET and SSEBop and the lowest are GLEAM and ETMonitor, while for water bodies the highest ranked products are ETMonitor and CMRSET.

Average difference across long-term ET and PET estimates using (top) P-M (middle) P-T and (bottom) Hargreaves approaches for irrigated areas

Average difference across long-term ET and PET estimates using (top) P-M (middle) P-T and (bottom) Hargreaves approaches for water bodies

3.6 Evaluation using the Budyko curve

The results different assessment criteria. First we look at the ranking for statistics of the catchment water balance. In terms of bias and bias_{aw} CMRSET, SSEBop and WaPOR are consistently ranked the highest while GLEAM is ranked the lowest. When looking at the RMSE and RMSE_{aw} the same three products along with LandFlux-EVAL are ranked the top four while again GLEAM is ranked lowest. For correlation GLEAM and LandFlux-EVAL rank highest while SSEBop is ranked the lowest. Overall for comparison of calculated ET_{WB} and ET calculated by the products, CMRSET, LandFlux-EVAL, SSEBop and WaPOR rank the highest while GLEAM and MOD16 rank the lowest. Second we look at the comparison with the reference condition of the Budyko analysis are shown in Figs. 12, ?? and ?? which shows estimations of long-term annual average basin mean ET using the WB and RS products plotted against PET/P estimates calculated using EWEMBI, CHIRPS and MSWEP precipitation respectively. In each figure long-term annual average basin mean PET was calculated using Hargreaves, P-M and P-T approaches. We see that for all three precipitation products the different ET estimations across the basins follow the same trends with small differences in values. However, curve. Here, the same ranking pattern can be seen, with CMRSET, LandFlux-EVAL, SSEBop and WaPOR ranking highest and GLEAM and MOD16 ranking the lowest. Thirdly we look at the spatial variability rankings. For spatial variability with visual inspection, CMRSET, ETMonitor, SSEBop and WaPOR rank the highest and LandFlux-EVAL and WECANN rank the lowest. For spatial variability with quantitative inspection we see that the water limit and energy limit are exceeded by some ET models in figures 12, ?? and ??, thus when using EWEMBI, CHIRPS or MSWEP precipitation respectively. Exceeding the energy limit implies water is being lost through the groundwater system for example and exceeding the water limit suggests there is an additional input of water beyond precipitation. SSEBop, WECANN and CMRSET exceed the water limit in a more basins relative to other products, however their ET estimations are not necessarily further from ET estimations using the Budyko approach as given by equation 2. Figure (b) in Figs. 12, ?? and

?? plots the WB-ET estimations on the Budyko curve and suggests these ET estimations across the different basins follows the curve relatively well, especially when using EWEMBI precipitation. Figures (a) and (c) of Figs. 12, ?? and ?? show the highest and lowest performing RS product respectively, in terms of being closest to the Budyko curve. Table 3 shows the ranking of the different RS products based on the Budyko evaluation. We see that the highest ranked products are WECANN and MTE and the lowest ranked products are GLEAM and MOD16. same four products, CMRSET, ETMonitor, SSEBop and WaPOR rank the highest with GLEAM and WECANN ranking the lowest. Overall for spatial variability, CMRSET, ETMonitor, SSEBop and WaPOR rank highest while GLEAM and WECANN rank the lowest. The final ranking was conducted with and without visual inspection. The top four products, CMRSET, LandFlux-EVAL, SSEBop and WaPOR, do not vary in the two ranking schemes. GLEAM is also ranked lowest in both ranking schemes. Interesting to note is that ETMonitor ranks higher when including visual inspection while WECANN ranks higher when excluding visual inspection.

Evaluation of EWEMBI WB and RS derived ET estimates using the Budyko curve with PET estimates from Hargreaves, PM and PT approaches. Figure (a) WECANN ET estimations (smallest difference with Budyko curve), Fig. (b) WB-ET estimations and Fig. (c) GLEAM ET estimations (largest difference with Budyko curve) plotted on the Budyko curve.

Evaluation of CHIRPS WB and RS derived ET estimates using the Budyko curve with PET estimates from Hargreaves, PM and PT approaches. Figure (a) WECANN ET estimations (smallest difference with Budyko curve), Fig. (b) WB-ET estimations and Fig. (c) GLEAM ET estimations (largest difference with Budyko curve) plotted on the Budyko curve.

Evaluation of MSWEP WB and RS derived ET estimates using the Budyko curve with PET estimates from Hargreaves, PM and PT approaches. Figure (a) WECANN ET estimations (smallest difference with Budyko curve), Fig. (b) WB-ET estimations and Fig. (c) CMRSET ET estimations (largest difference with Budyko curve) plotted on the Budyko curve.

5 4 Discussion

We make two assumptions in this paper regarding the methodology applied for evaluating RS derived ET estimates the selected ET products. The first assumption is that if no trends are present in long-term annual average mean WB inferred ET estimates average ET_{WB} across a basin, then long-term annual average mean ET estimates average ET_{WB} across basins can be compared with different time periods. This is true if long-term trends in global ET are not visibly present. However, Jung et al. (2010) claim that there have been declining trends in global ET estimates in the recent past along with the last major El Niño event in 1998 with largest regional contributions to the declining trend in Australia and Southern Africa. The exact opposite effect is reported by Zhang et al. (2016) which claims significant increases in global land ET trends especially in Australia and Southern Africa. Other studies also focus on investigating trends in long-term ET and do not come to a consensus as to the cause or direction of the trend (Miralles et al., 2014; Douville et al., 2013; Jung et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2016).

15 Differences in mean WB-ET estimations for varying RS product periods

With this in mind, it is difficult to assume there is long-term global trend in one direction or the other. For this first assumption to hold, we must also address the possibility that regardless of whether there are no trends present, the mean ET from one period may be different from another period due to precipitation variability. In this case we analysed four basins for which the

calculated ~~WB-ET estimations covered the different periods of all RS-ET~~ WB estimations had a period sufficient enough to cover
20 the time period of the range of ET products being evaluated. For the four basins, ET_{WB} was calculated for each of the different
RS-product periods and for each of the four basins the corresponding mean WB-ET was found. This was then subtracted from
the calculated WB-ET time periods of the ET products. We then found the bias from the the calculated long-term mean average
ET_{WB}. From Table 4-9 we see that the percentage differences ~~in mean for the different periods relative to total basin long-term~~
average ET ranges from 0 to a maximum of 7.4 percent ~~of basin-ET for the four basins evaluated and all ET products.~~ Thus, ~~in~~
25 considering the lack of consensus of the direction of a long-term global trend in ET and very low differences in precipitation
variability, in this study our assumption holds that if no significant trend can be found in annual long-term ET estimates then
different time periods can be used due to lack of overlapping data.

The second assumption is that the water balance can be simplified to equation 1 where for ~~annual~~ long-term average estimates
the change in storage is negligible. Many studies make this assumption for long-term averages and basin scale averages (Du
30 et al., 2016; Taniguchi et al., 2003; Wang and Alimohammadi, 2012; Carter, 2001; Budyko, 1974). However a recent study by
Rodell et al. (2018) quantified trends in terrestrial water storage using the Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE)
data for the period 2002- 2016. The largest annual trend found in this study is 20 mm per year and for the African continent
can be found across sections of the Congo, Zambezi, Okavango, Cunene, Save and Rufiji basins. Of these basins Okavango,
Cunene and Save are not used in this study and thus are not affected. Assuming a contribution of the largest trend in storage
for the other basins this represents a maximum of 2.3 percent of the long-term annual average mean basin ET. Therefore we
assumed negligible change in storage for our calculations.

The comparison between the RS products ~~were was~~ carried out at the highest spatial resolution of the different products
5 which is $0.0022^{\circ} \times 0.0022^{\circ}$. As we are resampling from coarse resolution to higher resolution, the nearest neighbor method
employed for completing the resampling is sufficient, as the magnitude and spatial characteristics will not be altered or lost
(Porwal and Katiyar, 2014; Gurjar and Padmanabhan, 2005). It must also be kept in mind that the initial spatial resolution
and the temporal period under comparison are not the same for each product and this may effect the ranking that we are
considering. However, considering there are different resolution products available, this is an important feature in considering
10 the ranking of products in terms of accuracy in order to make an educated decision on which product to use. Also many of the
~~coarser resolution~~ products do not estimate ET across water bodies and this may therefore explain the large biases in certain
products when comparing ET estimations with the ~~WB-ET estimations.~~ ET_{WB} estimations. Another aspect to bear in mind, is
that WaPOR, ETMonitor and WECANN have less than 10 years in total coverage in order to calculate their long-term ~~annual~~
average.

15 ~~We used the assumption that where there is ample water ET equals PET (McMahon et al., 2013) and thus applied this~~
~~assumption for evaluating our ET products for irrigated areas and water bodies. The assumption seems to hold quite well for~~
~~some of the products when evaluating water bodies. We also used the assumption that for irrigated areas ET/PET should equal~~
~~the crop coefficient. However all products seem to be underestimating the long-term annual average ET over irrigated areas~~
~~when compared with crop coefficients. One of the largest factors in this is that we take the entire irrigated area mean to calculate~~
20 ~~one crop coefficient, where we know there are many different crops being grown and thus should account for many different~~

~~crop coefficients that is not feasible in this study. Also areas much smaller than the highest resolution product are being taken into consideration in the irrigated areas and thus ET in these areas are not being calculated as irrigated area pixels. This can effect the calculation of ET and in most cases would be underestimated. Therefore the resolution of the product in this case, is also a factor for this underestimation.~~

25 Evaluation of the spatial characteristics is completed using two steps, the comparison of land cover elements with PET reference estimates and visual interpretation. There are two issues involved in this spatial comparison. Firstly, the evaluation is taking place based on products originating with different resolutions. Thus, the view that higher resolution products will may outperform the coarser resolution products, which is generally the case. However, we can also see that coarser resolution products, namely ~~WECANN and MTE~~LandFlux-EVAL and in certain cases MTE and WECANN, outperform the higher
30 resolution product GLEAM~~in these spatial characteristics and thus, this is not always the case. Also, the~~. Thus higher resolution products do not always outperform lower resolutions as can be seen. The spatial resolution of the ET estimates used may also be a critical element in determining which product is of use for the user. Secondly, the visual interpretation can be viewed as quite arbitrary and subjective according to the evaluator's eye. ~~This again is the case, however~~However, by using land cover elements that are large and easy to visualize, such as forested areas, irrigated areas and water bodies, the relative subjectivity can be reduced.

We used the assumption that where there is ample water ET equals PET (McMahon et al., 2013) and thus applied this assumption for evaluating our ET products for water bodies. The assumption holds quite well for the products that estimate ET over water. There are several reasons why it is difficult to find a quantitative reference for irrigated areas at such large
5 magnitudes. Firstly, it is difficult to assume there is no mixing and only irrigated areas are found in pixels of a minimum of 250m x 250m. Secondly, an irrigated area of a particular size is often in reality growing more than one crop which is difficult to measure or map. A reference that could be used in subsequent studies would be to use water productivity (biomass/water consumed (ET)) for comparison.

The overall ranking for each product was based on the average ranking of the different comparative elements. An overall
10 ranking was performed including the visual inspection of the land cover elements, however was also performed without, due to the subjectivity of the analyst doing the visual inspection. This does not affect the ranking of the top four or the lowest ranked product but changes the order of the products ranked in the middle. WaPOR, CMRSET, SSEBop and LandFlux-EVAL are consistently ranked 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively. CMRSET and WaPOR rank first when including a visual inspection however only WaPOR ranks first without. The lowest ranked product is GLEAM in both cases. WECANN ranks higher without visual
15 inspection from positions 8 to 6 and ETMonitor ranks lower without visual inspection going from position 5 to 7.

Looking at the overall level of similarity between the products in Fig. 4 we can see that for the cluster between ~~CRMSET~~CMRSET, SSEBop and WaPOR all products use MODIS as an input. SSEBop and WaPOR both use the P-M method for the calculation of ET, while CMRSET uses the P-T method. ETMonitor and MOD16 also use MODIS as an input with ~~MODIS~~MOD16 using the P-M method for ET calculation and ETMonitor using both Shuttleworth-Wallace and the P-M method, however both are
20 found in the second cluster. The remaining products within the second cluster use different inputs and different ET estimation methods. Thus, no patterns can be inferred through the cluster analysis by looking at the input or ET calculation method. What

is clear is that the first cluster contains the products which have the highest spatial resolutions and which overall rank the best in terms of ET estimation based on the proposed methodology evaluation criteria.

~~The overall ranking for each product was based on the average ranking of the different comparative elements. An overall ranking was performed including the visual inspection of the land cover elements, however was also performed without including the visual inspection due to this being rather subjective based on the analyst. This does not affect the ranking of the top three or the lowest two ranked products but changes the order.~~ In terms of consistency in results with previous studies conducted on some of the products under evaluation we see similar tendencies. According to Miralles et al. (2016) GLEAM, MOD16 and other products in their study show divergences in conditions of water stress and drought. Considering large parts of Africa are potentially under water stress due to the semi-arid and arid climate (IPCC, 2019; World Bank, 2018), this can explain the low ranking of GLEAM and MOD16 in this study. The RMSE and biases found in our study for Africa are comparable with those found by Vinukollu et al. (2011b) at the global scale, however comparing different products to that of this study. The range is higher in this study for Africa than the range found at the global scale. In their study, Trambauer et al. (2014) found GLEAM to underestimate ET in terms of their multi-product mean. This is again consistent with our finding where biases in GLEAM showed large underestimations across the basins in Africa with respect to the calculated ET_{WB} . We used the LandFlux-EVAL benchmark product as an ensemble product without calculating the multi-product mean of the products ranked in the middle. CMRSET, WaPOR and SSEBop are consistently ranked 1, 2 and 3, respectively. The lowest ranked products in both cases are GLEAM and being used in this study, as it was developed using a large range of ET products. LandFlux-EVAL, with the coarsest spatial resolution, ranked fourth in the final ranking only outranked by the products with the three highest spatial resolutions in this study, CMRSET, SSEBop and WaPOR. Therefore, LandFlux-EVAL performs well overall regardless of its coarse resolution and is interesting due to being an ensemble product. Therefore, continuation or commencement of a similar initiative to develop a benchmark product using a range of ET data sets including high resolution products ranked within this study may improve the ensemble product for future use.

It is also important to note that the overall ranking is interesting for global or large scale regional modellers however, for catchment studies a detailed look into their basin(s) of interest and local elements should also be considered. For example, if we look at the basin level bias and area weighted bias (Fig 7) for three of the large basins in Africa, the Congo, the Nile and the Niger basins, the following products have the lowest biases in the specified order: for the Congo basin, SSEBop, CMRSET and WaPOR; for the Nile basin, MTE, SSEBop and CMRSET; and for the Niger basin, WaPOR, SSEBop and MOD16. MPM is consistently ranked 5 in both cases. MTE and WECANN rank higher without visual inspection from positions 6 to 4 and 6 to 5, respectively. ETMonitor's ranking position changes the most ranking lower without visual inspection going from position 4 to 7. This shows that a detailed look into the local characteristics of a particular basin is required before selecting a product for use. Due to the limited overlap between discharge data and ET estimations by the products, temporal evaluations were not possible. It would also be interesting and valuable to see which products capture temporal trends which may also effect the choice of a product.

20 5 Conclusions

This study focuses on the question of whether or not we can trust remote sensing and other ET products over Africa. By trying to overcome the problem of the lack of data for validation and evaluation purposes the methodology proposed-used can identify which products perform well in terms of biases ,magnitudes and spatial characteristics. Using observations of discharge and observation based precipitation products to infer long-term annual average mean ET estimates at the basin scale and overcoming
25 the lack of overlapping data for comparison by using different time periods for calculation of our long-term annual averages, RS-derived ET estimations averages, different ET products were evaluated. According to the comparison of the ET_{WB} with ET_{Budyko}, we see that ET_{WB} follows the Budyko curve and has an overall low bias across the basins. This indicates the calculated ET_{WB} is a sound reference condition to use for analyses. Based on the different elements being analysed CMRSET, WaPOR and SSEBop capture the magnitude of ET showing small biases in the long-term annual average mean ET across basins. The same
30 products also capture the spatial distribution of the ET patterns well along with ETMonitor. WECANN performs well in both the correlation and Budyko analysis Apart from the visual inspection, the ensemble product LandFlux-EVAL consistently ranks fourth or higher acting as a bridge between the products with the highest spatial resolutions and others. The high correlation statistics indicate a good spatial distribution of WECANN ET magnitudes but the product seems to show bias in all products, especially GLEAM and LandFlux-EVAL which rank the highest. However, nearly all products show relatively large biases in ET estimations, except CMRSET, SSEBop and WaPOR. It is difficult to come to a concrete judgement as to the reasons behind the differences between the ET products. A big difference between the top three ranked products and the others is the high spatial resolution as well as the estimation of ET as a whole rather than only land ET in most other cases. However, no
5 pattern can be found between the product ranking and the forcing or ET calculation methods. There are also certain advantages and disadvantages of the products outside of the evaluation criteria which are important to name. Although GLEAM is ranked lowest overall, the product has the longest temporal coverage starting from 1980 and is on-going. This is contradictory with WECANN ranking high in the Budyko analysis which indicates small differences with ET estimates using the Budyko curve. GLEAM and MOD16 are consistently ranked low in both spatial pattern analysis and in terms of ET magnitude estimation.
10 LandFlux-EVAL and MTE also have early starting years however only go up to 2005 and 2012, respectively. ETMonitor is also no longer being extended and is not openly accessible or available for use. WaPOR is only available for Africa and not globally compared to all other products. Therefore, if we answer our question of whether to trust remote sensing estimates of ET across Africa, the answer is not black and white. Yes, in general we can trust some products at least based on the products under evaluation in this study. CMRSET, WaPOR and SSEBop show low biases in estimations and a good spatial distribution
15 of ET patterns. Each of these products have relatively high resolutions and both CMRSET and SSEBop are global products. Depending on the study under question, other products can also be used, however the bias in magnitudes need whether an early and long time period is needed, whether a higher or lower resolution is required, whether looking at the global or regional scale or whether looking only at land evapotranspiration, a different product may be more suited than another. However, a large consideration to be kept in mind ,From this analysis at the African scale, there are better products to use than GLEAM and
20 MOD16 which do not for Africa, is that the three highest ranked products, CMRSET, SSEBop and WaPOR have low biases

and perform well in ~~many of the evaluated criteria~~ spatial variability and will suit most needs within a given study. However, for catchment scale studies within Africa a detailed look into the characteristics of the basin should be considered along with the overall ranking.

Appendix A: [Appendix A](#)

<u>Basin</u>	<u>Variable</u>	<u>Data Availability</u>	<u>Trend</u>	<u>hypothesis</u>	<u>p-value</u>	<u>z-value</u>	<u>no. of sample</u>
Awash	<u>ET</u>	<u>1990-2004</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.2496</u>	<u>-1.1514</u>	<u>14</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>					<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1990-2004</u>	MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET				<u>15</u>
Bandama	<u>ET</u>	<u>1979-1996</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.7619</u>	<u>-0.3030</u>	<u>18</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>					<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1970-1996</u>	MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET				<u>27</u>
Blue Nile	<u>ET</u>	not enough ET data points to conduct MK test on calculated ET					<u>4</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.6875</u>	<u>-0.4023</u>	<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1900-1982</u>	<u>decreasing</u>	<u>true</u>	<u>0.0009</u>	<u>-3.3271</u>	<u>83</u>
Buzi	<u>ET</u>	not enough ET data points to conduct MK test on calculated ET					<u>5</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.4210</u>	<u>-0.8046</u>	<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1957-1983</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>1.0</u>	<u>0.0</u>	<u>23</u>
Cavally	<u>ET</u>	<u>1979-1996</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.54449</u>	<u>-0.6060</u>	<u>18</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>					<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1970-1996</u>	MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET				<u>27</u>
Congo	<u>ET</u>	<u>1979-2010</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.0830</u>	<u>-1.7336</u>	<u>31</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>					<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1903-2010</u>	MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET				<u>108</u>
Cunene	<u>ET</u>	<u>1980-2015</u>	<u>increasing</u>	<u>true</u>	<u>0.0003</u>	<u>3.5823</u>	<u>36</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>					<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1980-2015</u>	MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET				<u>36</u>
Gambia	<u>ET</u>	not enough ET data points to conduct MK test on calculated ET					<u>5</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.2579</u>	<u>1.1315</u>	<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1979, 1981-82, 1984, 1988</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.8065</u>	<u>0.2449</u>	<u>5</u>
Groot	<u>ET</u>	<u>1979-2015</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.1697</u>	<u>1.3733</u>	<u>37</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>					<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1964-2014</u>	MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET				<u>51</u>
Kamoe	<u>ET</u>	<u>1979-1996</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.3633</u>	<u>-0.9091</u>	<u>18</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>					<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1970-1996</u>	MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET				<u>27</u>
Lake Chad	<u>ET</u>	not enough ET data points to conduct MK test on calculated ET					<u>4</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>	<u>increasing</u>	<u>true</u>	<u>0.0194</u>	<u>2.3384</u>	<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1983-1986</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.3081</u>	<u>-1.0190</u>	<u>4</u>
Maputo	<u>ET</u>	not enough ET data points to conduct MK test on calculated ET					<u>5</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.3393</u>	<u>-0.9555</u>	<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1953-1983</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.1261</u>	<u>-1.5297</u>	<u>31</u>
Mono	<u>ET</u>	<u>1979-2007</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.5115</u>	<u>-0.6565</u>	<u>29</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>					<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1944-2007</u>	MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET				<u>64</u>
Niger	<u>ET</u>	<u>1979-2006</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.6214</u>	<u>0.4939</u>	<u>28</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>					<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1970-2006</u>	MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET				<u>37</u>
Nile	<u>ET</u>	not enough ET data points to conduct MK test on calculated ET					<u>6</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.2909</u>	<u>1.0560</u>	<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1912-1984</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.0693</u>	<u>1.8164</u>	<u>56</u>
Okavango	<u>ET</u>	<u>1979-2014</u>	<u>increasing</u>	<u>true</u>	<u>0.0127</u>	<u>2.4926</u>	<u>36</u>
	<u>P</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>					<u>38</u>
	<u>Q</u>	<u>1950-2014</u>	MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET				<u>65</u>
Olifant	<u>ET</u>	<u>1979-2014</u>	<u>no trend</u>	<u>false</u>	<u>0.9457</u>	<u>0.0681</u>	<u>36</u>

Orange	P	1979-2016					38
	Q	1927-2014				MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET	88
	ET	1979-2016	no trend	false	0.6691	0.4274	38
Queme	P	1979-2016					38
	Q	1936-2014				MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET	79
	ET	1979-80, 1982-84, 1990-2005, 2007	no trend	false	0.3377	0.9587	22
Rufiji	P	1979-2016					38
	Q	1948-2007				MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET	60
	ET	not enough ET data points to conduct	not enough ET data points to conduct			MK test on calculated ET	0
Sassandra	P	1979-2016	no trend	False	0.6508	-0.4526	38
	Q	1954-1978	no trend	False	0.9741	-0.0324	20
	ET	1979-1996	no trend	false	0.8796	0.1515	18
Save	P	1979-2016					38
	Q	1970-1996				MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET	27
	ET	not enough ET data points to conduct	not enough ET data points to conduct			MK test on calculated ET	3
Senegal	P	1979-2016	no trend	False	0.8801	0.1509	38
	Q	1968-1981	increasing	True	0.0118	2.5183	14
	ET	1979-1989	no trend	false	0.2129	1.2456	11
Tana	P	1979-2016					38
	Q	1979-1989				MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET	11
	ET	not enough ET data points to conduct	not enough ET data points to conduct			MK test on calculated ET	0
Upper Blue Nile	P	1979-2016	decreasing	True	0.0006	-3.4447	38
	Q	1975-1978	no trend	False	0.7341	-0.3397	4
	ET	not enough ET data points to conduct	not enough ET data points to conduct			MK test on calculated ET	8
Void	P	1979-2016	no trend	False	0.6875	-0.4023	38
	Q	1961-1983	no trend	False	0.1339	-1.4988	26
	ET	not enough ET data points to conduct	not enough ET data points to conduct			MK test on calculated ET	3
Zambezi	P	1979-2016	no trend	False	0.1251	-1.5338	38
	Q	1979-1981	increasing	True	0.0483	1.9748	7
	ET	1979-1990	no trend	false	0.5371	0.6172	12
	P	1979-2016					38
	Q	1960-1990				MK test not conducted, no trend found in ET	31

Author contributions. IW and AVG conceived and designed the alternate methodology for evaluation of large scale RS ET products. IW performed the required data analysis using scripts written by IW. IW and AVG prepared the structure of the manuscript. IW wrote the initial draft of the paper. AVG and WB supervised the research and contributed to improving the manuscript prior to submission. MM contributed to improving the manuscript prior to submission. LJ made available ETMonitor data that is not openly accessible.

5 "Data Availability" - data used in this analysis that is openly accessible can be accessed when requested by emailing the first author.

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Table 2. Characteristics of remotely sensed ET products

Product	Temporal Coverage	Spatial Coverage	Temporal Resolution	Spatial Resolution	Estimation Approach	Input Data Source	Reference	
CMRSET (v20140423)	2000-2013	Global	8-daily	0.0022° × 0.0022°	P-T Equation, relationship between EVI and GVMi	MODIS	(Guerschman et al., 2009)	
	Access: http://remote-sensing.nci.org.au/u39/public/html/wirada/index.shtml							
ETMonitor	2008-2013	Global	daily	0.005° × 0.005°	P-M, Gash model, Shuttleworth-Wallace	MODIS	Zheng et al. (2016)	
GLEAM	1980-2015	Access: email first author in reference						
GLEAM (v3.2a)	1980-2016	Global	Daily	0.25° × 0.25°	P-T Equation, soil stress factor	AMSR-E, LPRM, CMORPH , TRMM	Martens et al. (2017); Mir et al. (2011)	
	Access: www.gleam.eu							
MOD16A3								
LandFlux-EVAL (v1.89)	1989-2005	Global	Monthly	1° × 1°	Ensemble Approach	See reference	Mueller et al.	
	Access: https://iac.ethz.ch/group/land-climate-dynamics/research/landflux-eval.html							
MOD16 (vA3)	2000-2014	Global	Monthly	0.0083° × 0.0083°	P-M Equation, surface conductance model	MODIS	Mu et al. (2007)	
	Access: https://modis.gsfc.nasa.gov/data/dataproduct/mod16.php							
MTE								
MTE (vMay12)	1982-2012	Global	Monthly	0.5° × 0.5°	MTE approach, training using in-situ observations, flux tower data	Eddy Co-variance, in-situ	Jung et al. (2012)	
	Access: https://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/climate-data/fluxnet-mte-multi-tree-ensemble							
SSEBop								
SSEBop (v4)	2003-2017	Global	Monthly	0.0096° × 0.0096°	P-M Equation, ET fractions from T_s estimates	MODIS	??? Senay et al. (2017)	
	Access: https://earlywarning.usgs.gov/fews/search							
WaPOR								
WaPOR (v1.1)	2009-2017	Africa	Dekadal	0.0022° × 0.0022°	P-M Equation, calculates E, T and I separately	MODIS, GEOS-5/MERRA	FAO (2018)	
	Access: https://wapor.apps.fao.org/home/1							
WECANN								

Table 3. Characteristics of precipitation products

<u>Product</u>	<u>Temporal Coverage</u>	<u>Spatial Coverage</u>	<u>Temporal Resolution</u>	<u>Spatial Resolution</u>	<u>Input Data Source</u>	<u>Reference</u>
<u>EWEMBI (v1.1)</u>	<u>1979-2016</u>	<u>Global</u>	<u>daily</u>	<u>0.5° × 0.5°</u>	<p>ERA-Interim data Merged and Bias-corrected (EWEMBI) is a global precipitation product. Data sources of EWEMBI are ERA-Interim reanalysis data (ERA-I), WATCH forcing data methodology applied to ERA-Interim reanalysis data (WFDEI); earth2Observe forcing data (, WFDEI; (Weedon et al., 2014) E2OBS) and NASA/GEWEX Surface Radiation Budget data (SRB) (Dee et al., 2011; Weedon et al., 2014; ?) . The dataset covers the entire globe at a spatial resolution of 0.5° × 0.5° and daily temporal resolution from 1979 to 2013.</p> <p>2.1.1 CHIRPS</p> <p>Climate Hazards group Infrared Precipitation with</p>	<u>(Lange, 2019)</u>

Table 4. Characteristics of discharge data

<u>Product</u>	<u>Temporal Coverage</u>	<u>Spatial Coverage</u>	<u>Temporal Resolution</u>	<u>Spatial Resolution</u>	<u>Input Data Source</u>	<u>Reference</u>
<u>GRDC (v1.1)</u>	<u>1806-2019</u>	<u>Global</u>	<u>daily</u>	<u>point data</u>	<u>in situ discharge gauges</u>	
	Access: https://www.bafg.de/GRDC/EN/Home/					
<u>HYDR-VUB</u>	<u>1932-2018</u>	<u>Global</u>	<u>daily</u>	<u>point data</u>	<u>in situ discharge gauges</u>	
	Access: on request to http://www.hydr.vub.ac.be/					

Table 5. Characteristics of potential evapotranspiration products

<u>Product</u>	<u>Temporal Coverage</u>	<u>Spatial Coverage</u>	<u>Temporal Resolution</u>	<u>Spatial Resolution</u>	<u>Input Data Source</u>	<u>Reference</u>
<u>Hargreaves</u>	<u>1979-2012</u>	<u>Global</u>	<u>daily</u>	<u>0.05° × 0.05°</u>	<u>WFDEI, SRTM DEM</u>	<u>(Sperna Weiland et al., 2015)</u>
	Access: https://wci.earth2observe.eu/					
<u>Penman-Monteith</u>	<u>1979-2012</u>	<u>Global</u>	<u>daily</u>	<u>0.05° × 0.05°</u>	<u>WFDEI, SRTM DEM</u>	<u>(Sperna Weiland et al., 2015)</u>
	Access: https://wci.earth2observe.eu/					
<u>Priestly-Taylor</u>	<u>1979-2012</u>	<u>Global</u>	<u>daily</u>	<u>0.05° × 0.05°</u>	<u>WFDEI, SRTM DEM</u>	<u>(Sperna Weiland et al., 2015)</u>
	Access: https://wci.earth2observe.eu/					

Table 6. Mann-Kendall test results for all basins on evapotranspiration Calculated statistics, precipitation (EWEMBI) and discharge Basin Variable Data Availability Trend hypothesis p-value z-value no. of samples Awash ET 1990-2004 no trend false 0.2496 -1.1514 14 Bandama ET 1979-1996 no trend false 0.7619 -0.3030 18 4 P 1979-2016 no trend false 0.6875 -0.4023 38 Q 1900-1982 decreasing true 0.0009 -3.3271 83 5 P 1979-2016 no trend false 0.4210 -0.8046 38 Q 1957-1983 no trend false 1.0 0.0 23 Cavally ET 1979-1996 no trend false 0.54449 -0.6060 18 Congo ET 1979-2010 no trend false 0.0830 -1.7336 31 Cunene ET 1980-2015 increasing true 0.0003 3.5823 36 5 P 1979-2016 no trend false 0.2579 1.1315 38 Q 1979 bias, 1981-82 bias_{aw}, 1984 RMSE, 1988 no trend false 0.8065 0.2449 5 Groot RMSE_{aw} and r for the comparison of the long-term annual average ET 1979-2015 no trend false 0.1697 1.3733 37 Kamoe w_B versus ET_{RS}

Olifant ET 1979-2014 no trend false 0.9457 0.0681 36 Orange ET 1979-2016 no trend false 0.6691 0.4274 38 Qume ET 1979-80, 1982-84, 1990-2003

Table 7. Bias between the ET_{Budyko} and ET_{EB}

<u>mm/year</u>	<u>ET_{WB}</u>	<u>CMRSET</u>	<u>ETMonitor</u>	<u>GLEAM</u>	<u>LandFlux-EVAL</u>	<u>MOD16</u>	<u>MTE</u>	<u>SSEBop</u>	<u>WaPOR</u>	<u>WECANN</u>
<u>bias</u>	<u>42</u>	<u>101</u>	<u>202</u>	<u>284</u>	<u>152</u>	<u>185</u>	<u>177</u>	<u>140</u>	<u>86</u>	<u>180</u>

Table 8. Ranking of the RS products based on the different evaluation steps of the proposed methodology

	CMRSET	ETMonitor	GLEAM	<u>LandFlux-EVAL</u>	MOD16	MPM-MTE	SS
Correlation -height	Catchment water balance ranking (CWB)						
<u>bias</u>	4 <u>3</u>	7 <u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	4	<u>5</u>	7	4
<u>bias_{aw}</u>	1	1 <u>7</u>	<u>9</u>	4	<u>8</u>	<u>5</u>	
Average <u>RMSE</u>	1 <u>2</u>	8	9	<u>3</u>	<u>7</u>	5	
<u>RMSE_{aw}</u>	3	<u>6</u>	<u>9</u>	4	<u>8</u>	<u>5</u>	
Weighted-Average <u>r</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	1	<u>1</u>	7	<u>4</u>	
<u>Overall CWB ranking</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>7</u>	5	
Budyko ranking							
<u>Budyko</u>	2	<u>8</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>5</u>	
Spatial variability ranking							
Irrigated-Areas-	Visual Inspection (VI) - land cover elements						
<u>Forest</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>8</u>	1	4 <u>7</u>	
<u>Irrigated Area</u>	6 <u>1</u>	5 <u>4</u>	8	<u>9</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	
Water Bodies	1	1	9 <u>n/a</u>	9 <u>n/a</u>	9 <u>n/a</u>	9 <u>n/a</u>	
<u>Overall VI spatial ranking</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>7</u>	9	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	
Quantitative Inspection (QI) - land cover elements							
Irrigated-Areas <u>Forest</u>	1	8 <u>6</u>	9 <u>7</u>	4	5 <u>8</u>	5	
Water Bodies	2	1	9 <u>n/a</u>	9 <u>n/a</u>	9 <u>n/a</u>	9 <u>n/a</u>	
Budyko <u>Overall QI spatial ranking</u>	6 <u>1</u>	7 <u>4</u>	9	8 <u>5</u>	4 <u>7</u>	<u>6</u>	
<u>Overall spatial ranking</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>8</u>	<u>7</u>	5	<u>6</u>	
Final-ranking (with visual)-	Final ranking						
<u>With visual inspection</u>	1	4 <u>5</u>	9	8 <u>4</u>	5 <u>7</u>	6	
Final-ranking (without visual)- <u>Without visual inspection</u>	1 <u>2</u>	7	9	<u>4</u>	8	5	

Table 9. [Differences in mean WB ET estimations for varying RS product periods](#)

	Total	Period								Average
		CMRSET	ETMonitor	GLEAM	MOD16	MTE	SSEBop	WaPOR	WECANN	
Congo	1979-2010	2000-2010	2008-2010	1980-2010	2000-2010	1982-2010	2003-2010	2009-2010	2007-2010	
ET mm/year	1186	1203	1159	1196	1203	1194	1194	1168	1193	1189
Bias mm/year		17	27	10	17	8	8	18	7	14
% bias		1.4	2.3	0.8	1.4	0.7	0.7	1.5	0.6	1.2
Groot	1979-2015	2000-2013	2008-2013	1980-2015	2000-2014	1982-2012	2003-2015	2009-2015	2007-2015	
ET mm/year	373	390	381	377	390	371	387	396	392	386
Bias mm/year		17	8	4	17	2	14	23	19	13
% bias		4.4	2.1	1.1	4.4	0.5	3.6	5.8	4.9	3.4
Olifant	1979-2014	2000-2013	2008-2013	1980-2014	2000-2014	1982-2012	2003-2014	2009-2014	2007-2014	
ET mm/year	278	279	293	284	278	286	272	275	296	283
Bias mm/year		1	15	6	0	8	6	3	18	7
% bias		0.4	5.1	2.1	0.0	2.8	2.2	1.1	6.1	2.5
Orange	1979-2015	2000-2013	2008-2013	1980-2015	2000-2014	1982-2012	2003-2015	2009-2015	2007-2015	
ET mm/year	349	377	376	356	374	362	351	350	351	362
Bias mm/year		28	27	7	25	13	2	1	2	13
% bias		7.4	7.2	2.0	6.7	3.6	0.6	0.3	0.6	3.6