

Evaluating the accuracy of gridded water resources reanalysis and evapotranspiration products for assessing water security in poorly gauged basins

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Abstract

Achieving water security in poorly gauged basins is critically hindered by a lack of in situ river discharge data to assess past, current and future evolution of water resources. To overcome this challenge, there has been a shift toward the use of freely available satellite and reanalysis data products. However, due to inherent bias and uncertainty, these secondary sources require careful evaluation to ascertain their performance before being applied in poorly gauged basins. The objectives of this study were to evaluate river discharge and evapotranspiration estimates from eight gridded water resources reanalysis (WRR), six satellite-based evapotranspiration (ET) products and ET estimates derived from complimentary relationship (CR-ET) across eight river basins located in Central-West Africa. Results highlight strengths and weaknesses of the different WRR in simulating discharge dynamics and ET across the basins. Likewise satellite-based products also show some strength and weaknesses in simulating monthly ET. Our results further revealed that the performance of the different models in simulating river discharge and evapotranspiration is strongly influenced by model structure, input data and spatial resolution. Considering all hydrological model evaluation criteria, FLDAS-Noah, Lisflood, AWRAL, and Terra were among the best performing WRR products while for ET estimates, FLDAS-Noah, Terra, GLEAM3.5a & 3.5b, and PMLV2 outperformed the rest of the products. Given the plethora of WRR and ET products available, it is imperative to evaluate their performance in representative gauged basins to identify products that can be applied in each region. However, the choice of a particular product will depend on the application and users requirements. Taking together, results from this study suggest that gridded WRR and ET products are a useful source of data for assessing water security in poorly gauged basins.

33 **1. Introduction**

34 River discharge is one of the most important hydrological variables underpinning water resources
35 management, aquatic ecosystems sustainability, flood prediction, and drought warnings at different
36 scales (McNally et al., 2017; Couasnon et al., 2020). However, observed river discharge data is often
37 not available at the exact location where critical water management decisions need to be made (Neal
38 et al., 2009). This is especially the case in developing and semi arid/arid regions where discharge
39 gauging stations are sparse (Krabbenhof et al., 2022), while the number of existing stations are
40 declining (Rodríguez et al., 2020). Despite the acute shortage in observed data, developing regions
41 are areas that are more vulnerable to adverse hydroclimatological conditions (Byers et al., 2018;
42 Kabuya et al., 2020). Furthermore, achieving water security in poorly gauged basins remains a critical
43 development challenge as climate change, population growth, rapid urbanization, and economic
44 growth continue to exert pressure on available water resources under hydrological uncertainty (Flörke
45 et al., 2018; Hirpa et al., 2019). This highlights the urgent need for more reliable data to better assess
46 past, current, and future evolution of water resources, and to predict extreme hydroclimatological
47 events so that better strategies can be put in place to enhance water management and mitigate the
48 impact of extreme events (Nkiaka et al., 2020; Slater et al., 2021). Water security in this study refers
49 to the availability of sufficient quantities of water for human use and ecosystem sustainability.

50 Evapotranspiration (ET) is another important hydrological variable that represents the linkage
51 between water, energy and carbon cycles and ecosystem services and is the second largest process in
52 the hydrological cycle after precipitation (Zhang et al., 2019). Therefore, ET plays a critical role in
53 water availability at different scales. As such, accurate estimates of ET are also crucial for water
54 management operations such as basin-scale water balance estimation, irrigation planning, estimating
55 water footprint, and assessing the impact of climate change on water availability. However, globally,
56 in situ ET monitoring stations are also scarce while the existing monitoring network cannot provide
57 sufficient information on the temporal and spatial trends of ET at large scales (Laipelt et al., 2021).
58 ET data scarcity may therefore limit our ability to understand changes in the hydrological cycle and
59 water security in the context of environmental change and hydrological uncertainty.

60 To enhance water security in poorly gauged basins, there has been a progressive shift toward
61 the use of gridded data derived from satellite and reanalysis (Odusanya et al., 2019; Nkiaka, 2022).
62 This is because gridded data products can provide high spatial resolution and long-term homogeneous
63 data for previously unmonitored areas at scales that are suitable for studying changes in the
64 hydrological cycle and for water management applications (Sheffield et al., 2018). Several gridded
65 data products with global coverage have been produced in recent decades including reanalysis and
66 satellite-based products. Examples of reanalysis products include Watch Forcing Data applied to
67 ERA-Interim (Weedon et al., 2014) and Climate Forecast System Reanalysis (Saha et al., 2014).

68 There is also a plethora of satellite products for different hydrometeorological variables such as
69 precipitation, temperature, soil moisture, and ET. For satellite derived ET estimates, it is worth noting
70 that this variable cannot be directly measured by satellites, but rather derived from physical variables
71 observed by satellites from space such as radiation flux. As such, satellite derived ET estimates could
72 rather be referred to as model outputs constrained by satellite data. Another technique used to produce
73 ET estimates is the complimentary relationship (Ma et al., 2021). Considering the way gridded ET
74 products are derived, they tend to suffer from large biases (Weerasinghe et al., 2020; Mcnamara et
75 al., 2021) and therefore need to be validated before use. In fact, it is argued that validating gridded
76 ET products is an essential step in understanding their applicability and usefulness in water
77 management operations (Blatchford et al., 2020).

78 Previously, much attention in the development of gridded environmental data was focused on
79 hydrometeorological variables such as precipitation and temperature. However, rapid advancement
80 in computer technology has led to the development of gridded water resources reanalysis (WRR) with
81 quasi global coverage using both land surface models (LSMs) and Global Hydrological Models
82 (GHMs) driven by satellite and reanalysis data. Examples of WRR products include the Global Land
83 Data Assimilation System [GLDAS] (Rodell et al., 2004), “The Global Earth Observation for
84 Integrated Water Resources Assessment” [earth2Observe] (Schellekens et al., 2017), and the Global
85 Flood Awareness System [GloFAS-ERA5] (Harrigan et al., 2020). Several studies have demonstrated
86 that model-based gridded WRR products can be used as an alternative to observe river discharge in
87 poorly gauged basins to: (1) understand hydrological processes (Koukoula et al., 2020), (2) support
88 transboundary water management (Sikder et al., 2019), (3) identify flood events (Gründemann et al.,
89 2018; López et al., 2020), and (4) support national water policies (Rodríguez et al., 2020). These
90 examples demonstrate that WRR products have great potential for addressing water security
91 challenges in poorly gauged basins. Despite their numerous advantages, outputs from WRR are also
92 fraught with uncertainties resulting from errors in the forcing data, model structure, and the
93 parameterisation of the physical processes in the model scheme (Koukoula et al., 2020). Therefore, it
94 is necessary to evaluate the performance of these products against observed river discharge where
95 available.

96 Whilst the use of outputs from WRR in water management has gained significant attention in
97 many ungauged or poorly gauged regions such as Asia and Latin America (López et al., 2020;
98 Rodríguez et al., 2020; Sikder et al., 2019), they remain largely under-utilized in Africa. For example,
99 there are only a few case studies reporting on the use of these products in the Upper Blue Nile River
100 basin (Koukoula et al., 2020; Lakew et al., 2020) and the Zambezi River basin (Gründemann et al.,
101 2018). Considering the scale of water insecurity in Africa -compounded by acute data scarcity
102 (Nkiaka et al., 2021), we feel that evaluating the performance of gridded WRR products in Africa

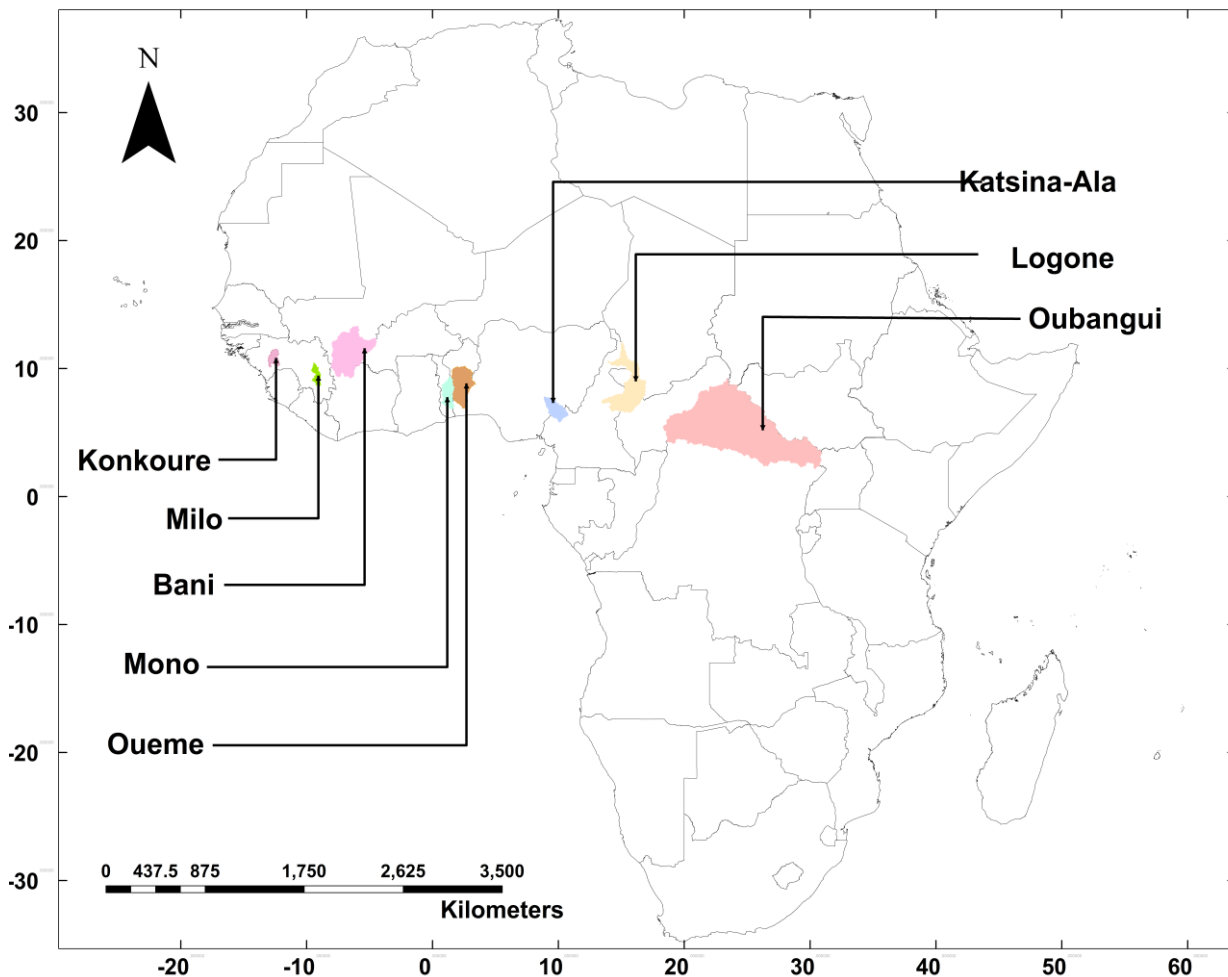
103 may enhance their adoption in water management in the region. On the other hand, several studies
104 evaluating the performance of gridded data in Africa have focused mostly on precipitation (Dinku et
105 al., 2018; Satgé et al., 2020) while few studies that have evaluated gridded ET products focused on
106 large basins, (Blatchford et al., 2020; Weerasinghe et al., 2020; Mcnamara et al., 2021) and mostly
107 adopting an annual timescale. This may be attributed to the large scale of the basins which is ideal
108 for the application of satellite data and the coarse spatial resolution of some of the ET products. The
109 availability of high spatial and temporal resolution ET products suggest that it is now possible to
110 evaluate these products in small- to medium-size basins and at a higher temporal resolution.

111 The objectives of this paper were to: (1) evaluate the performance of earthH2Observe Tier 1
112 and other WRR products in simulating discharge and evapotranspiration in selected small to medium-
113 size basins in Central-West Africa, and (2) evaluate the performance of six satellite-based gridded
114 ET estimates and ET estimates obtained using the complimentary relationship (CR-ET). Considering
115 that only a few studies have attempted to evaluate gridded WRR and ET products over Africa, this
116 paper contributes to the contemporary debate on the performance of these products and how there
117 can be used to assess water security in poorly gauged basins. We evaluated ET estimates from WRR
118 and other sources considering that users needs for the application of these products may vary. Hence
119 our evaluation covered a wide range of models and products to align with the needs of different users.

120 **2. Materials and methods**

121 **2.1. Study area**

122 The selected basins are located in Central-West Africa ranging in size from 9,000 km² to 499,000
123 km² (Figure 1). Rainfall in the region is mostly controlled by the north-south movement of the
124 intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ). The main criteria for selecting the basins were: (1) availability
125 of observed river discharge data and (2) for the period of the available discharge data to coincide with
126 the period when gridded WRR and ET data are also available. Model evaluation timestep was
127 determined by the timestep of river discharge data. Shapefiles for all the basins were obtained from
128 HydroSHEDS, locations of the discharge gauging stations were obtained from the respective data
129 sources while the area of each basin was calculated from the basin shapefiles. HydroSHEDS drainage
130 network offers the unique opportunity to generate watershed boundaries for GRDC gauging stations
131 using a proofed dataset and applying a consistent methodology. Table 1 shows that some of the basins
132 are transboundary in nature.



133
134 **Figure 1:** Locations of the eight river basins where the performance of WRR and gridded ET
135 products were evaluated

136 **Table 1:** Characteristics of river basins and sources of river discharge data

Basin	Total area (km ²)	Transboundary (Yes or No) Countr(y/ies)	Population (thousands)	Source of river discharge data
Bani	101,600	(Yes) Ivory Coast, Mali, and Burkina Faso	63,766	GRDC
Katsina-Ala	22,963	(Yes) Cameroon and Nigeria	219,875	NHSA
Konkoure	10,250	(No) Guinea-Conakry	13,053	GRDC
Logone	87,953	(Yes) Cameroon, Chad, and Central Africa Republic	44272	LCBC
Milo	9,620	(No) Guinea-Conakry	13,053	GRDC
Mono	21,575	(Yes) Togo, Benin	21,479	Co-author
Oubangui	499,000	(Yes) Central Africa Republic and the Democratic Republic of Congo	88,742	GRDC
Oueme	46,990	(No) Benin	11,488	Co-author

137 Global River Discharge Centre [GRDC], Nigeria Hydrological Services Agency [NIHSA], Lake Chad Basin Commission
138 [LCBC]. Population data sourced from (Undesa, 2019)

139 2.2. Input data

140 2.2.1. Water resources reanalysis (WRR)

141 The WRR product evaluated in this study include “The Global Earth Observation for Integrated Water
142 Resources Assessment” (earth2Observe), Famine Early Warning Systems Network [FEWS NET]
143 Land Data Assimilation System (FLDAS), and TerraClimate. The earth2Observe Tier 1 product

144 consists of a multi-model ensemble of ten global models at a spatial resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ spanning
 145 from 1979 to 2012 and driven by Watch Forcing Data methodology applied to ERA-Interim
 146 reanalysis (WFDEI) data (Schellekens et al., 2017). WRR data from earth2Observe are freely
 147 available at (<https://wci.earth2observe.eu/portal/>). Model evaluation here omits the Joint UK Land
 148 Environment Simulator (JULES), Simple Water Balance Model (SWBM), and the simple conceptual
 149 HBV hydrological model (HBV-SIMREG) as data from the models was not available from the portal
 150 for the selected basins at the time of writing. As such, seven models and a model ensemble were
 151 included in this study. Evaluation of ET data also omits Lisflood model as data was not available
 152 from the portal at the time writing. Although there is an available Tier 2 product with a higher spatial
 153 resolution (0.25°), this study did not utilise these data as selected basins were not included at the time
 154 of conducting this research. We also evaluated discharge data from FLDAS-Noah and TerraClimate
 155 with spatial resolutions of 0.1° and 0.041° respectively. Table 2 provides a brief summary of the
 156 different models used in this study.

157 **Table 2: Water resources reanalysis (WRR) products evaluated**

Model provider	Model name	Model type	Routing scheme	Reference
CNRS (Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique)	ORCHIDEE (Organizing Carbon and Hydrology in Dynamic Ecosystems)	LSM	Cascade of linear reservoirs	(Krinner et al., 2005)
CSIRO (Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization)	AWRA-L (Australian Water Resources Assessment)	GHM	Cascade of linear reservoirs	(Van Dijk et al., 2014)
ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts)	HTESSSEL (Hydrology Tiled ECMWF Scheme for Surface Exchanges over Land)	LSM	CaMa-Flood	(Balsamo et al., 2009)
JRC (Joint Research Centre)	LISFLOOD	GHM	Double kinematic wave	(Van Der Knijff et al., 2010)
UniUt (Universiteit Utrecht)	PCR-GLOBWB	GHM	Travel time	(Van Beek et al., 2011)
MeteoFr (Meteo France)	SURFEX	LSM	TRIP with stream	(Decharme et al., 2010)
UniK (Universitat Kassel)	WaterGAP	GHM	Manning–Strickler	(Wada et al., 2014)
NASA	FLDAS-Noah	LSM	Soil-layer water and energy balance	(Mcnally et al., 2017)
University of California Merced	TerraClimate	GHM	Bucket type model	(Abatzoglou et al., 2018)

158

159 2.2.2. Evapotranspiration products

160 In addition to the ET estimates from the reanalysis products, we also evaluated several satellite-based
 161 ET estimates including GLEAM3.5a & 3.5b, MODIS16A2, PMLV1, PMLV2, SSEBop and estimates
 162 obtained through complimentary relationship (Table 3). ET products from WRR have the same spatial
 163 resolution with the discharge estimates while remote sensing products have different spatial

164 resolutions. However, we did not resample the ET data to the same resolution because a previous
 165 study has shown that resampling does not have any significant impact on the results (Weerasinghe et
 166 al., 2020). Table 3 provides a summary of all ET products evaluated in this study.

167 **Table 3: Characteristics of the different ET products**

ET product	Core equation	Temporal resolution	Spatial resolution	References
GLEAM3.5a & 3.5b	Priestley-Taylor	Monthly	0.25° x 0.25°	(Martens et al., 2017)
MODIS16A2	Penman-Montieth	8-day	1/48°x1/48°	(Mu et al., 2007; Mu et al., 2011)
PMLV1	Penman–Monteith–Leuning	Monthly	0.5° x 0.5°	(Zhang et al., 2016)
PMLV2	Penman–Monteith–Leuning	8-day	1/192°x1/192°	(Zhang et al., 2019)
SSEBop	Surface Energy Balance	Monthly	1/96° x 1/96°	(Senay et al., 2013)
CR-ET	Penman-Montieth	Monthly	0.25°	(Ma et al., 2021)

168

169 2.3. Evaluation data

170 2.3.1. River discharge

171 Observed river discharge data were used to evaluate the performance of WRR models and to estimate
 172 basin-wide water balance evapotranspiration (ET_{WB}) using the water balance concept. The source of
 173 the river discharge data is available in Table 1. Gaps in the discharge data were filled using Self-
 174 Organizing Maps which which is a robust method for infilling missing gaps in hydrometeorological
 175 time series (Nkiaka et al., 2016).

176 2.3.2. Precipitation

177 Precipitation data were to estimate basin-wide water balance evapotranspiration (ET_{WB}). To reduce
 178 uncertainties inherent in precipitation estimates, an ensemble mean of three different satellite-based
 179 precipitation products was used. The different products were Climate Hazards Group InfraRed
 180 Precipitation with Station data [CHIRPS] (Funk et al., 2015), Precipitation Estimation from Remotely
 181 Sensed Information using Artificial Neural Networks-Climate Data Record [PERSIANN-CDR]
 182 (Ashouri et al., 2015) and Global Precipitation measurement [GPM] (Skofronick-Jackson et al.,
 183 2018). The precipitation products have spatial resolutions of 0.05°, 0.1° and 0.25° for CHIRPS, GPM
 184 and PERSIANN-CDR respectively. These precipitation products have been validated extensively
 185 across the study domain (Satgé et al., 2020; Dembélé et al., 2020) and used in several studies in Africa
 186 (Larbi et al., 2021; Nkiaka, 2022). The data were downloaded as the spatial average for each basin
 187 using the Climate Engine research App.

188 2.3.3. GRACE

189 GRACE data are monthly anomalies of terrestrial water storage changes (TWSC) used to quantify
 190 changes in terrestrial water storage. The dataset has a global coverage spanning the period 2003–2017

191 (Tapley et al., 2019). The data has a coastline resolution improvement (CRI) filter to reduce leakage
192 errors across coastlines and land-grids, using scaling factors derived from the community land model
193 (Wiese et al., 2016). The data has recently been re-processed to reduce measurement errors and
194 represents a new generation of gravity solutions that do not require empirical post-processing to
195 remove correlated errors, as such, the present data is better than the previous GRACE version that
196 was based on spherical harmonic gravity solution (Wiese et al., 2016). To minimize errors and
197 uncertainties in the GRACE-derived TWSC estimates, we used an ensemble mean of three GRACE
198 mascon solutions derived from different processing centres including Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL)
199 RL06M Version 2.0 GRACE mascon solution with a spatial resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$, Center for
200 Space Research at University of Texas, Austin (CSR GRACE/GRACE-FO RL06 v02 Mascon Grids)
201 with a spatial resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ and NASA GSFC GRACE and GRACE-FO MASCON
202 RL06 v1.0 with spatial resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$. GRACE data were used to estimate basin-wide water
203 balance evapotranspiration (ET_{WB}).

204 **2.4. Evaluating gridded WRR**

205 WRR models were evaluated following a multi-objective approach commonly used in evaluating the
206 performance of hydrological models, including the Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency (NSE), Kling-Gupta
207 efficiency (KGE), and the percent bias (PBIAS). NSE scores range from $-\infty$ to 1, with 1 indicating a
208 perfect representation of observed discharge. NSE scores ≥ 0.50 can be considered acceptable whereas
209 NSE scores ≤ 0.0 indicate poor model performance (Moriasi et al., 2007). Similarly, the KGE is a
210 dimensionless metric that can be decomposed into three components crucial for evaluating
211 hydrological model performance accounting for temporal dynamics (correlation), bias errors
212 (observed vs simulated volumes), and variability errors (relative dispersion between observations and
213 simulations) (Gupta et al., 2009). KGE scores range from $-\infty$ to 1, with 1 considered the ideal value.
214 Next, PBIAS is used to measure the tendency of the simulated discharge to be larger or smaller than
215 their observed counterparts (Gupta et al., 2009). PBIAS is expected to be 0.0, with low magnitude
216 values indicating accurate simulations, positive values indicate underestimation, negative values
217 indicate overestimation (Moriasi et al., 2007). According to Moriasi et al. (2007), a hydrological
218 model with PBIAS values in the range $\pm 25\%$ can be considered to be acceptable. Furthermore, a
219 temporal evaluation of flow hydrographs was carried out by plotting the monthly simulated vs
220 observed discharge to ascertain visually if the models were able to capture the magnitude, seasonality,
221 and interannual variability of discharge.

222

223

224 **Table 4: Contingency table for 80th percentile river discharge**

	Observed discharge		
		Yes	No
Simulated discharge	Yes	Hits (H)	False Alarms (FA)
	No	Misses (M)	Correct Negatives

225

226 Lastly, we evaluated the models ability to predict discharge above specific thresholds. This evaluation
 227 step is of critical importance when considering operational water management requirements such as
 228 water allocation and reservoir operation which rely on monthly river discharge. To achieve this, we
 229 adopted the Critical Success Index (CSI) as the metric to evaluate the ability of each model to simulate
 230 discharge at 20th and 80th percentiles (i.e. discharge at 80th and 20th percent exceedance respectively).
 231 CSI is calculated from a two-dimensional contingency table defining the events in which observed
 232 and simulated discharges exceed a given threshold (Thiemig et al., 2015). We used the 20th and 80th
 233 percentiles to assess the ability of the models to simulate both low and high flows respectively. The
 234 contingency table (Table 4) is a performance measure used in summarizing all possible forecast-
 235 observation combinations such as hits (H; event forecasted and observed), misses (M; event observed
 236 but not forecasted), false alarms (FA; event forecasted but not observed) and correct negatives (CN;
 237 event neither forecasted nor observed). The ideal value for CSI is 100% and the metric is calculated
 238 as follows:

239
$$CSI = \frac{H}{H + M + FA} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

240 **2.5. Evaluating gridded ET**

241 We also adopted a multi-step approach to evaluate the performance of ET products by assessing the
 242 annual ET–precipitation ratio, evaluating the statistical performance of ET products against long-term
 243 ET_{WB} and the ability of the products to capture monthly ET variability.

244 In the first step, the annual ET–precipitation ratio was calculated to compare with the ratio
 245 obtained using ET_{WB} method. The ET–precipitation ratio can also provide an estimate of the amount
 246 of water available in each basin after evapotranspiration losses. In the second step, different statistical
 247 metrics were used to assess the performance of the ET products using the monthly ET_{WB} as a reference
 248 (Andam-Akorful et al., 2015; Koukoula et al., 2020). The monthly ET_{BW} was calculated using the
 249 basin water balance equation as follows:

250
$$ET_{WB} = P - Q - \Delta S \quad (2)$$

251 Where P is average monthly precipitation over the basin (mm), Q is river discharge (mm) and ΔS is
 252 the terrestrial water storage change [TWSC] (mm). Unlike several studies that have evaluated ET
 253 products on an annual timescale, this study adopts a monthly sample. As such, the TWSC component

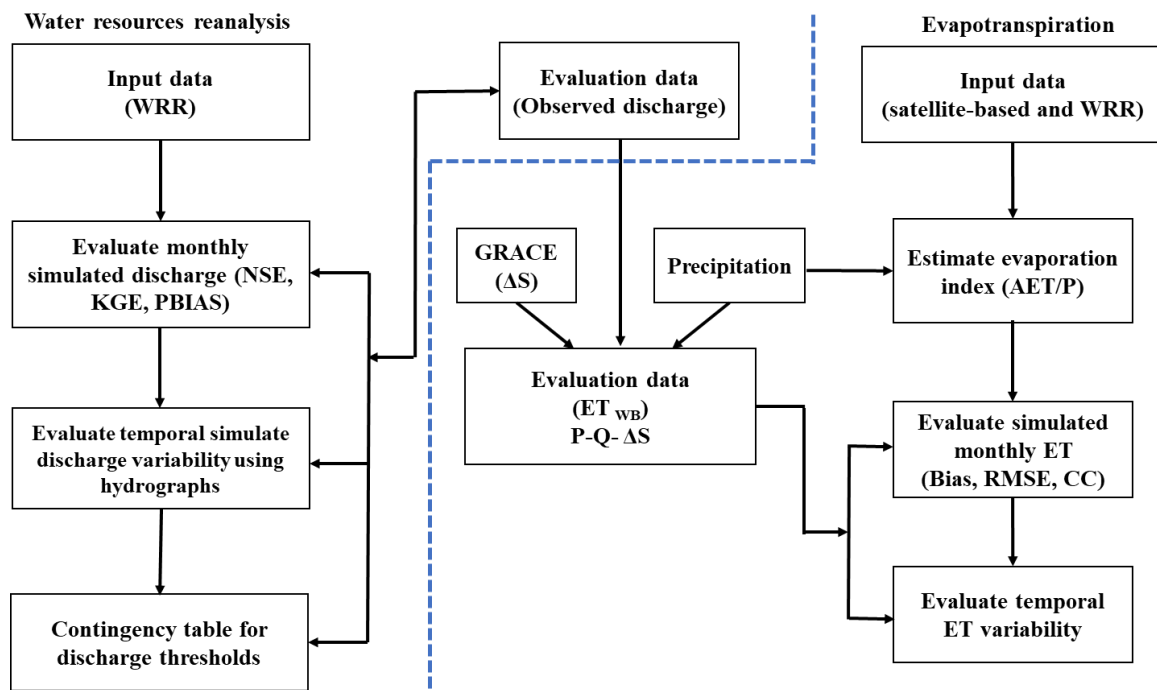
254 (ΔS) in equation 2 that is often neglected when estimating ET_{WB} over several years (≥ 10 years) could
255 not be overlooked. Due to the likely impact of anthropogenic activities such as reservoir operation,
256 water withdrawal, and monthly rainfall variability on TWSC, values derived at monthly timescales
257 are important. TWSC data used in this study were the mean of three different GRACE mascon
258 solutions produced by different processing centres highlighted earlier.

259 Due to its coarse spatial resolution, it has been argued that GRACE is not sensitive at detecting
260 changes in monthly TWSC in small-size basins $\leq 150,000 \text{ km}^2$ (Rodell et al., 2011). Based on this
261 claim, it might be argued that GRACE data may not be applicable in this study considering that most
262 of the basins are below this threshold except the Oubangui ($499,000 \text{ km}^2$). However, several studies
263 (Liu, 2018; Biancamaria et al., 2019; Oussou et al., 2022; Xie et al., 2022), have demonstrated that
264 GRACE can provide acceptable TWSC estimates for basins that are smaller than this threshold. To
265 further minimize errors and uncertainty in the GRACE-derived TWSC in our smaller-size basins, we
266 re-gridded the GRACE mascon solutions from JPL and NASA to a spatial resolution of 0.25° which
267 is the same spatial resolution for the mascon solutions from CSR. We then proceeded to extract and
268 average the timeseries of all coincident GRACE grid cells for each basin from the three different
269 mascon solutions with the same spatial resolution. Gaps in the time series were infilled using the
270 linear function in Python. Finally, we calculated the ensemble mean of the three solutions to represent
271 GRACE-derived TWSC estimate for each basin. To estimate changes in monthly TWSC, we
272 calculated the difference between consecutive GRACE measurements for each basin, divided by the
273 time between measurements, using the following equation:

$$274 \quad \Delta S = (S_{[n]} - S_{[n-1]})/dt \quad (3)$$

275 Where ΔS represents the TWSC (mm), n is the measurement number, and dt is the time difference
276 between two consecutive GRACE measurements (months).

277 Lastly, temporal evaluation of the products was carried out by plotting the time series of all
278 ET products against ET_{WB} to visually establish if the gridded ET products were able to capture the
279 magnitude, seasonality, and interannual variability of ET across the basins.



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Figure 2: Flowchart outlining the steps used in evaluating the WRR and ET products (The blue dotted line in the flow chart separates evaluation of WRR from ET products)

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3. Results

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3.1. Water resources reanalysis products

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3.1.1. Hydrological performance

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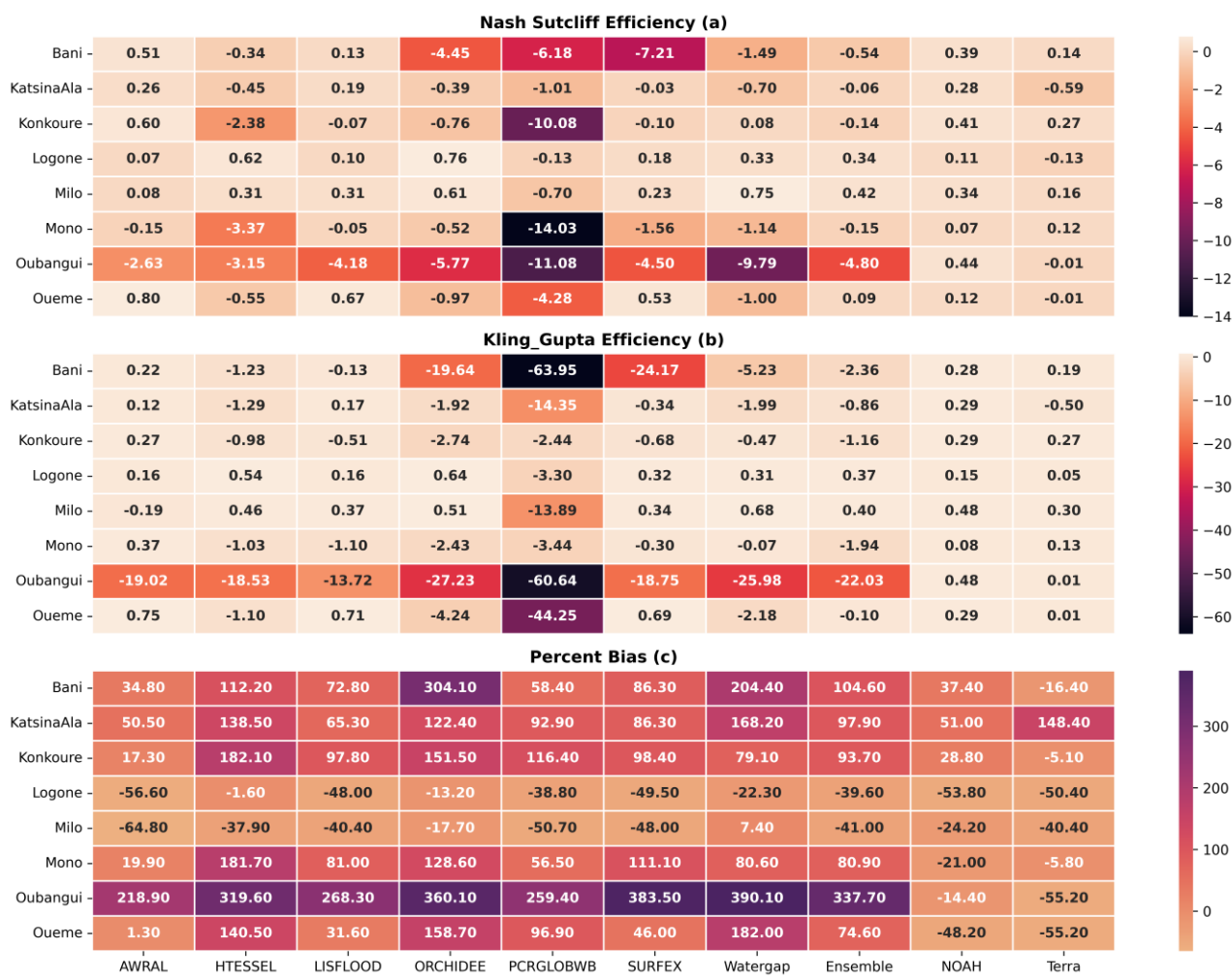
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A multi-objective approach using different statistical metrics (NSE, KGE and PBIAS) was used to evaluate discharge estimates from WRR products. The performance of the models in simulating discharge is shown in Figure 3. Using the NSE as a performance metric, results show that FLDAS-Noah produced positive scores in all the basins (0.15–0.48). Terra, AWRAL and Lisflood produced positive scores (0.01–0.75) in seven, six and four basins respectively. SURFEX model produced positive scores in three basins while ORCHIDEE, HTESSEL, Watergap and the ensemble mean produced positive scores in two basins each while PCR-GLOBW produced negative scores in all the basins (Figure 3a).



294

295 **Figure 3:** Statistical evaluation of the models using (a) NSE, (b) KGE, and (c) PBIAS. Red and
 296 orange colours represent poor model performance in Figures 3a, 3b & 3c, however, the acceptable
 297 PBIAS range in Figure 3c is $\pm 25\%$. Ensemble refers to the mean of WRR from the earthH2Observe.

298 KGE results show that FLDAS-Noah also produced positive scores (0.11– 0.44) in all basins,
 299 followed by AWRAL, Lisflood and Terra with positive scores in six, five and four basins respectively
 300 (Figure 3b). SURFEX and Watergap produced positive scores in three basins while ORCHIDEE and
 301 HTESSEL produced positive scores (0.31–0.76) in two basins. The ensemble mean produced positive
 302 scores (0.09 – 0.42) in three basins while PCRGLOBWB produced the lowest KGE scores (Figure 3b).

303 Positive and negative PBIAS values were obtained in the different basins. Negative values
 304 indicate that the model overestimated discharge volumes compared to observed discharge while
 305 positive values indicate the opposite. FLDAS-Noah, Terra and AWRAL produced acceptable PBIAS
 306 scores ($\pm 25\%$) in three basins, ORCHIDEE and Watergap produced similar scores in two basins and
 307 HTESSEL in one basin (Figure 3c). The rest of the models including the ensemble mean either grossly
 308 overestimated or underestimated discharge volumes in all the basins.

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3.1.2. Temporal evaluation

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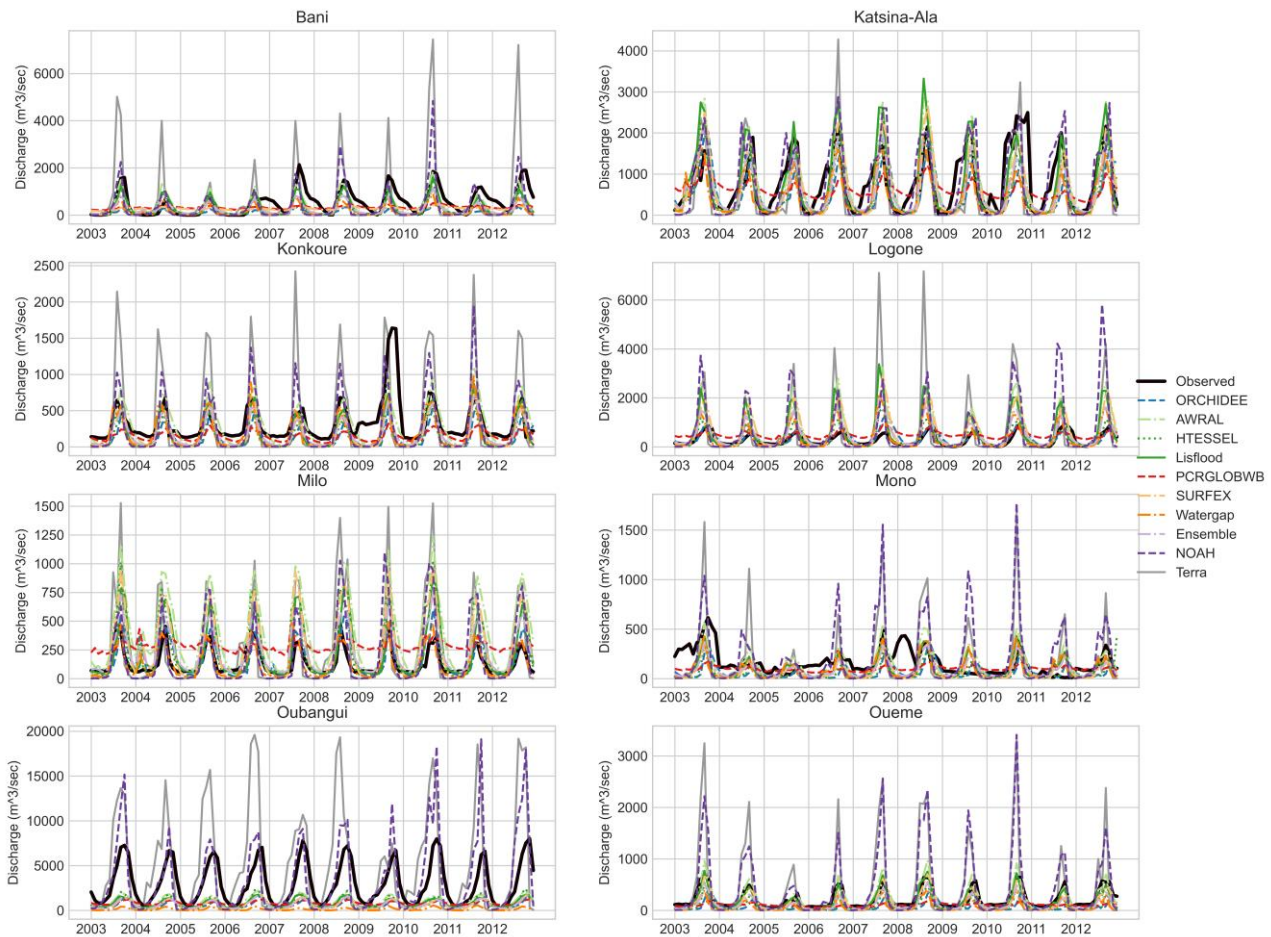
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The ability of the models to capture discharge variability was analysed by comparing the simulated vs observed discharge. Results show that most of the models were able to capture the seasonal discharge variability including peak and low flows (Figure 4). However, PCR-GLOBW systematically overestimated low flows and underestimated high flows across all basins. In the Oubangui basin, all models were able to capture the seasonal variability but consistently underestimated peak flows except FLDAS-Noah and Terra models which both overestimated peak flows (Figure 4). For example, measured peak discharge in the river exceeds 5000 m³/sec, but all models except FLDAS-Noah and Terra simulated it to be less than 2000 m³/sec (Figure 4).



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Figure 4: Evaluation of temporal flow variability simulated by the different model

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3.1.3. Critical Success Index

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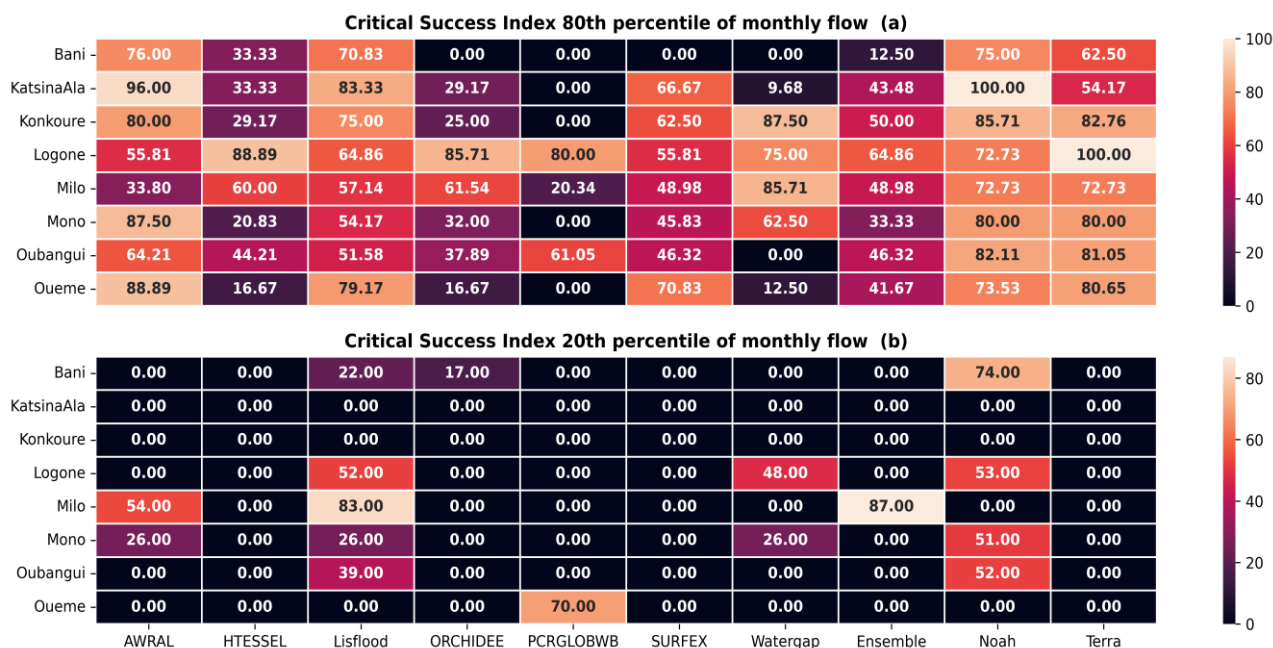
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Figure 5 shows the performance of the models in simulating the 80th and 20th percentiles monthly discharge. For the 80th percentile flows, results show that FLDAS-Noah and Terra produced CSI scores above 50 % in all basins followed by Lisflood and AWRAL in seven and six basins respectively while Surfex and Watergap produced similar scores in four basins each (Figure 5a). For the 20th percentile flows, only FLDAS-Noah produced CSI scores above 50 % in four basins while Lisflood produced similar scores in two basins. The performance of the other models in simulating

329 the 80th percentile flow shows a large spread while most models including the ensemble mean failed
 330 to simulate the 20th percentile flow across all the basins. Taking together, results suggest that the
 331 models simulated high flows better than the low flows with only FLDAS-Noah capable of capturing
 332 both flow regimes in most basins (Figure 5b).



333
 334 **Figure 5:** Critical Success Index for 80th and 20th percentile of monthly flow across all basins

335 3.2. Evapotranspiration products

336 Mean monthly Precipitation and GRACE estimates obtained by averaging the three different
 337 precipitation products and GRACE mascon solutions processed by three different centres are
 338 available in the supplementary material. The mean of the different products was used in order to
 339 reduce the uncertainties estimates from a single source are used. The mean precipitation and GRACE
 340 estimates were used in this study to evaluate the performance of the different evapotranspiration
 341 products in this study.

342 3.2.1. Evapotranspiration–precipitation ratio

343 Figure 6 shows the annual ET–precipitation ratio for all basins. It can be observed that average annual
 344 ET–precipitation ratio ranges between (0.56–0.77) for WRR and (0.53–0.83) for satellite-based
 345 products over a period 2003–2012 across all basins. WaterGap produced the highest ratio (0.46-0.99)
 346 among WRR models, SSEBop produced the highest ratio (0.54–0.99) while MOD16A2 produced the
 347 lowest ratio (0.43–0.67) among the satellite-based products (Figure 6). Results show that the
 348 evaporation ratios from the different ET estimates were mostly in the same order of magnitude with
 349 the ratio from ET_{WB} across all the basins except for WaterGap, SSEBop, MOD16A2 and CR-ET
 350 which produced values which were beyond this range (Figure 6).

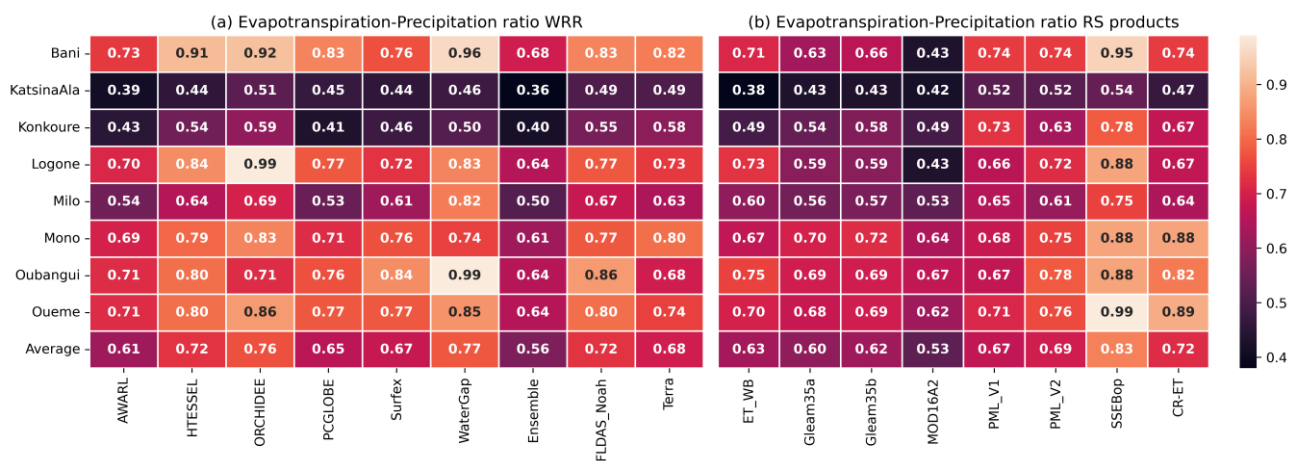


Figure 6: Annual evapotranspiration – precipitation ratio 2003 – 2012. WRR: water resources reanalysis and RS: remote sensing

3.2.2. Basin-wide water balance estimates

Figure 7 shows the results of the statistical metrics used in evaluating the ET estimates using monthly ET_{WB} as reference. Considering bias as a performance metric, AWARL, FLDAS-Noah and Terra produced the lowest bias scores among WRR products while PMLV2, Terra, and GLEAM3.5a & 3.5b produced the lowest bias scores among the satellite-based products (Figure 7a&d). Most WRR products underestimated ET and similarly most satellite-based products also systematically underestimated ET with among the satellite-based products while the rest of the products produced mixed results (Figure 7a&d). However, SSEBop systematically overestimated ET in all the basins while MOD16A2 grossly underestimated this variable in all but one basin with respect to monthly ET_{WB} (Figure 7d).

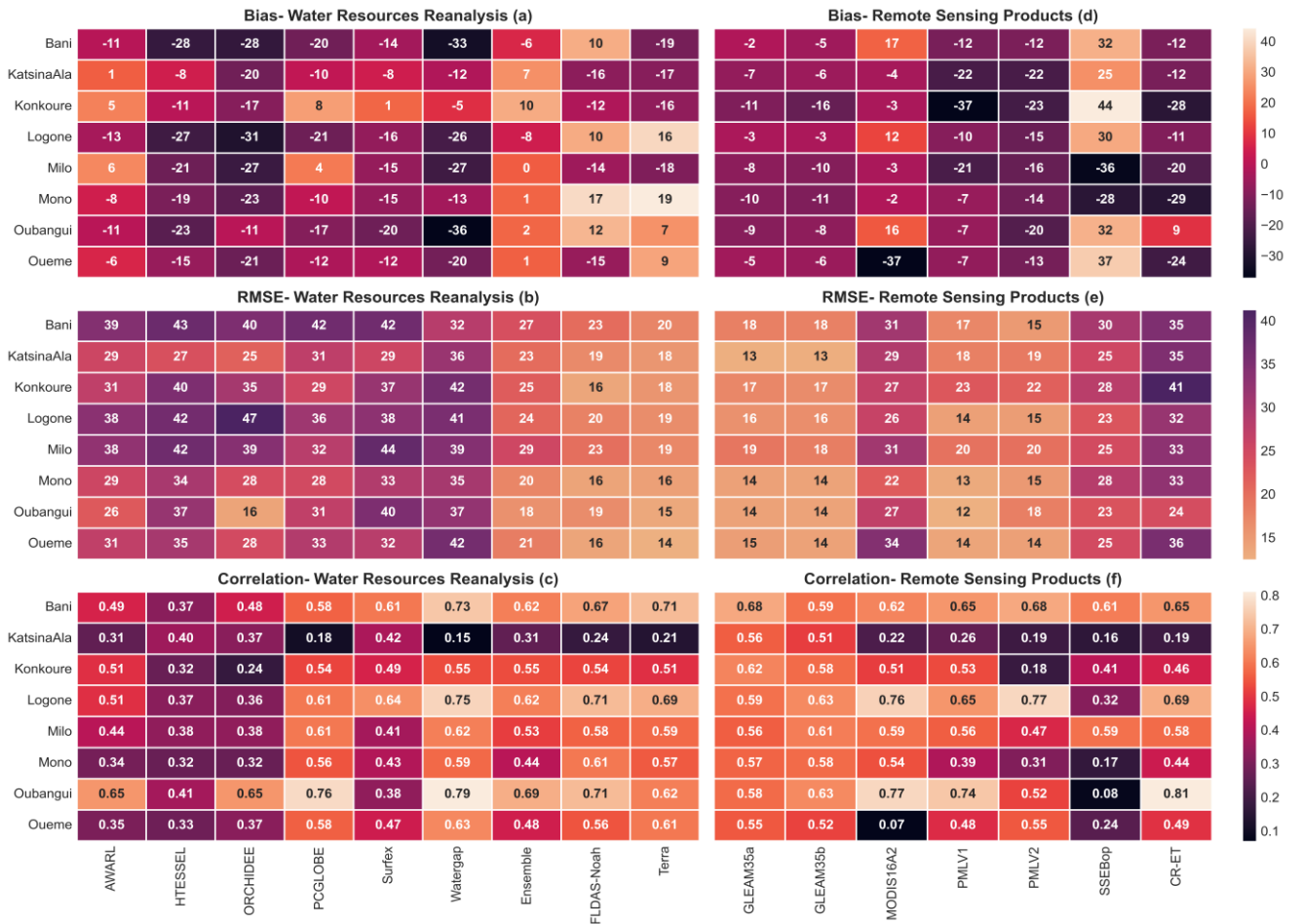
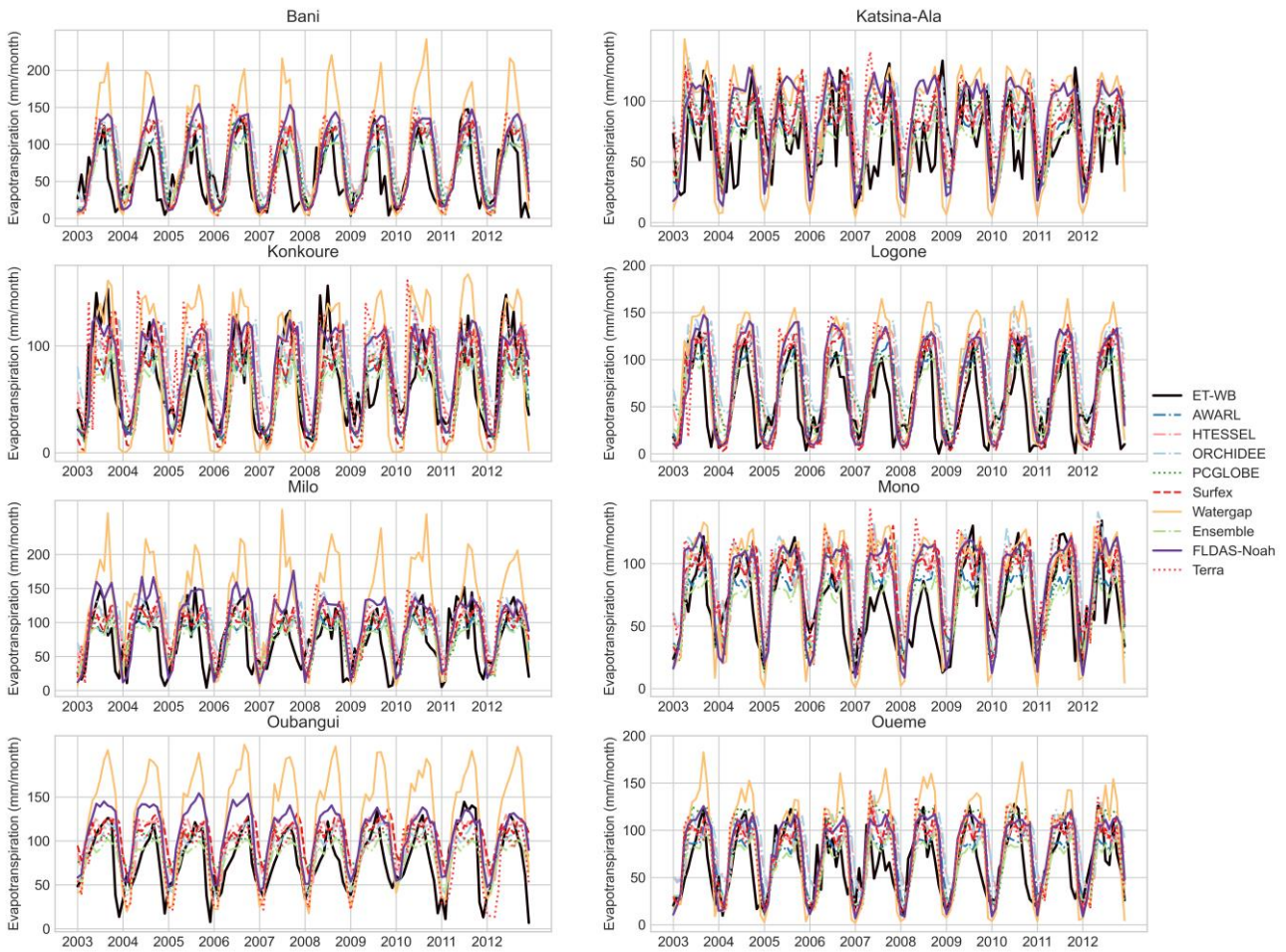


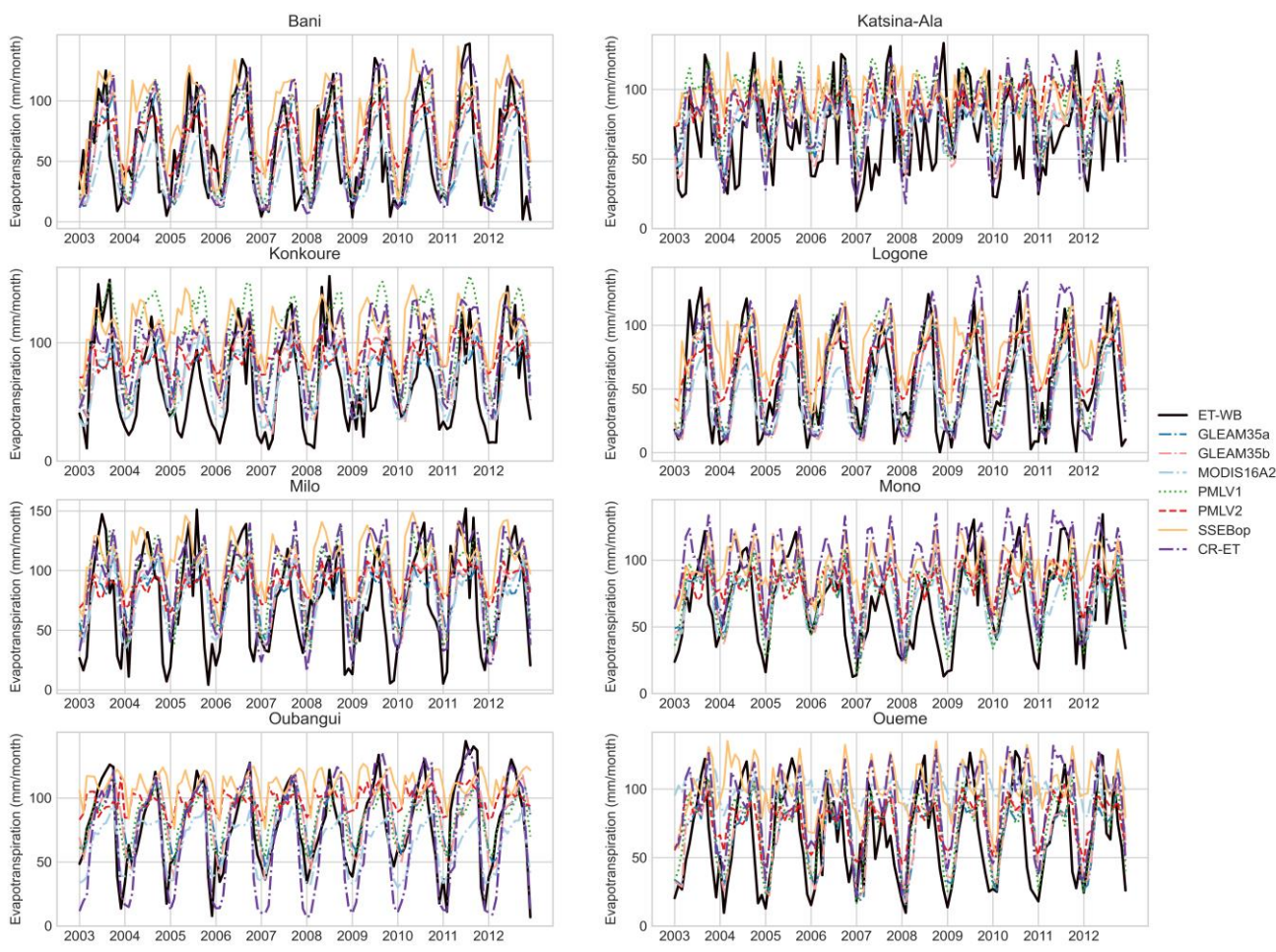
Figure 7: Bias, RMSE, and Pearson correlation coefficient between monthly ET_{WB} and different ET products (a-c: WRR and d-f: remote sensing products).

364
 365
 366
 367 FLDAS-Noah and Terra produced the lowest RMSE (14–23 mm/month) among the WRR products
 368 while GLEAM3.5a & b and PMLV1 & 2 produced the lowest RMSE (13–23 mm/month) among the
 369 satellite-based products (Figure 7b&e). The rest of the products both WRR and satellite-based
 370 produced substantially higher RMSE scores (Figure 7b&e). Among WRR products, only FLDAS-
 371 Noah and Terra produced slightly higher Pearson correlation scores across most basins (Figure 7c).
 372 On the other hand most satellite-based products produced high Pearson correlation scores (≥ 0.50) in
 373 all basins except PMLV2 and SSEBop which both produced low scores (< 0.50) in four and six basins
 374 respectively (Figure 7f). ET estimates produced from complimentary relationship (CR-ET)
 375 performed poorly across most basins.



376

377 **Figure 8:** Seasonal cycle of ET estimates from WRR and basin-wide water balance
 378 evapotranspiration. ET_{WB} represents monthly evapotranspiration estimated by the water balance
 379 method, while the rest are derived from LSMs and GHMs.



380

381 **Figure 9:** Seasonal cycle of ET estimates from remote sensing-based products and basin-wide water
 382 balance evapotranspiration.

383

384

3.2.3. Monthly ET variability

385

386 Figures 8 & 9 show the seasonal cycle of ET_{WB} against both WRR products and satellite-based ET
 387 estimates. It can be observed that most products were able to replicate the seasonal ET cycle across
 388 all the basins (Figure 8 & 9). Watergap systematically overestimated ET estimates across the all the
 389 basins among all the WRR products (Figure 8). SSEBop overestimated ET in some basins among the
 390 satellite-based products (Figure 9). The performance of CR-ET follows that of the rest of the products
 with cases of ET estimate over- and underestimation in some basins.

391 4. Discussion

392 The overarching goal of this paper was to assess the performance of gridded WRR and ET products
 393 and to estimate the relative uncertainty in monthly basin-wide evapotranspiration (ET_{WB}) estimates.
 394 Below we provide a discussion and implications of our results in water security assessment in poorly
 395 gauged basins.

396

397

398 **4.1. Water resources reanalysis**

399 The performance of WRR products was assessed through commonly used model evaluation metrics,
400 discharge variability, and verification skill scores (critical success index) using observed river
401 discharge data. Our results show strong differences in the performance of the different models in
402 simulating river discharge across the basins. FLDAS-Noah model produced positive NSE and KGE
403 values in all basins and PBIAS values within the acceptable range ($\pm 25\%$) in three basins. Temporal
404 evaluation of the WRR products showed that FLDAS-Noah, Terra, AWRAL and Lisflood were able
405 to capture the seasonal variability in discharge as demonstrated by high KGE scores. Indeed, high
406 KGE values suggest that some models were able to capture the temporal dynamics (strong
407 correlation), and low bias scores indicate that the variability errors between the observed discharge
408 and simulation were also low (Gupta et al., 2009). Nevertheless, Terra consistently overestimated
409 peak flows in all the basins.

410 Apart from Noah which is a LSM used in FLDAS, most GHMs used in earthH2Observe tier
411 1 product performed better than the LSMs, which is consistent with results from other studies (Lakew
412 et al., 2020). The strong performance of GHMs compared to LSMs can be attributed to the differences
413 in the model structure and parametrisation schemes between LSMs and GHMs (Gründemann et al.,
414 2018; Koukoula et al., 2020). For example, some GHMs such as Watergap are able to simulate lakes
415 and reservoirs and water withdrawal while LSMs can only simulate natural processes. Such
416 differences in model structure can significantly influence discharge volumes simulated by both types
417 of models (Gründemann et al., 2018). Although PCRGLOBW is a GHM, it produced substantially
418 low performance compared to the LSMs which is consistent with results from other studies in the
419 region (Gründemann et al., 2018; Lakew et al., 2020). This suggest that PCRGLOBW model may
420 not be suitable for assessing water security in the region.

421 The ability of the models to simulate flow thresholds was evaluated using the CSI. Results
422 show that FLDAS-Noah, Terra, AWRAL and Lisflood were able to capture more than 50% of 80th
423 percentile monthly flow in most basins. We also noted that apart from FLDAS-Noah, the rest of the
424 GHMs performed better than the LSMs from earthH2Observe in their ability to capture the 80th
425 percentile monthly flows across the basins while only FLDAS-Noah was able to capture 20th
426 percentile flows in three basins. The performance of FLDAS-Noah compared to other models can be
427 attributed to the fact that it was specially designed and optimized to produce physically meaningful
428 variables for monitoring food and water security in data-scarce regions in Africa (Mcnally et al.,
429 2017). Furthermore, FLDAS-Noah and Terra with spatial resolutions of 0.1° & 0.041° respectively
430 perform better than other models which may be attributed to their higher spatial resolutions compared
431 to other models with a coarser resolution (0.5°). In fact, Gründemann et al. (2018), reported that WRR
432 products with higher spatial resolution perform better than products with coarser resolution in their

433 ability to simulate discharge. The performance of FLDAS-Noah can also be attributed to the fact the
434 FLDAS is driven by a combination of different precipitation products thereby reducing the
435 uncertainty in the input data while earth2observe tier 1 product are driven by one data source (WFDEI)
436 which increases the uncertainty in the input data which is propagated to the model outputs. Our results
437 also showed that Lisflood performed better than most of the other earth2observe models and this may
438 be attributed to the fact that Lisflood has been extensively used in research and operational settings
439 in Africa (Thiemig et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2020). As such, the model parameters may have been
440 better constrained in the region than other models from earthH2Observe. Taking together, results from
441 this study highlight the importance of evaluating outputs from WRR products in representative basins
442 before applying them in studies that may have wider policy and financial implications in poorly
443 gauged basins. Our results suggest a need to enhance the spatial resolution of WRR products and for
444 the products to be driven by input data from multiple sources to reduce the uncertainties in the input
445 data.

446 **4.2. Evapotranspiration products**

447 The annual ET–precipitation ratio produced by WRR and satellite-based ET products are within the
448 range estimated for the global land regions (Rodell et al., 2015) with the only exception being
449 WaterGap, SSEBop, MOD16A2 and CR-ET with values beyond this range. This suggests that ET
450 estimates from both sources performed well in this aspect. The annual ET–precipitation ratios
451 obtained in this study show that annual ET does not exceed annual precipitation in most basins during
452 the period under evaluation suggesting the availability of sufficient water resources in each basin.

453 Considering all the ET evaluation criteria and comparing between estimates from WRR and
454 satellite-based products, FLDAS-Noah, Terra, GLEAM3.5a & 3.5b, and PMLV2 appear to
455 outperform the rest of products even though GLEAM products slightly underestimated ET in all the
456 basins. Conversely, WaterGap, SSEBop and MOD16A2 performed poorly and may not be suitable
457 for water security assessment in the region. Our results are generally consistent with those from other
458 studies indicating that GLEAM and MODIS16A2 underestimate evapotranspiration, while SSEBop
459 overestimates this variable in most parts of Africa (Weerasinghe et al., 2020; Adeyeri and Ishola,
460 2021; Mcnamara et al., 2021). Given that ET estimates from FLDAS-Noah is produced together with
461 other water balance components (runoff, soil moisture and baseflow), outputs from this model may
462 be recommended for water security assessment in the region because of water balance closure. Our
463 results also revealed that the performance of satellite-based ET products is not influence by spatial
464 resolution which is consistent with results from previous studies (Weerasinghe et al., 2020; Jiang and
465 Liu, 2021). For example, GLEAM products with a spatial resolution of 0.25° outperformed products
466 such as MODIS16A2 and SSEBop with higher spatial resolutions. Conversely, ET estimates from

467 WRR appear to be influenced by spatial resolution considering that FLDAS-Noah and Terra with
468 higher spatial resolutions outperformed other products with coarser resolutions.

469 Although all the products were able to capture the temporal dynamics of ET across all the
470 basins, there were substantial discrepancies in the magnitude of monthly ET from each model. This
471 finding is consistent with results from other studies showing strong differences in ET estimates
472 produced by different models (Weerasinghe et al., 2020; Adeyeri and Ishola, 2021). The discrepancies
473 in monthly ET estimates from the models may be attributed to differences in model structure,
474 parameters, and uncertainties in the input data used in driving the models. This is also in-line with
475 findings from another study in West Africa highlighting the impact of model parameters and input
476 data uncertainty on ET estimates (Jung et al., 2019). Considering the aforementioned factors, it may
477 be difficult to expect the products to produce similar results.

478 **5. Conclusions**

479 The objectives of this study were to assess the performance of water resources reanalysis and
480 evapotranspiration products across eight basins in Africa. It should be noted the evaluation of the
481 performance of WRR and ET products in this study did not explicitly consider the influence the
482 models structure, parameters and input data on their performance. However, we do acknowledge that
483 these factors could have significant impact on the performance of the different models evaluated.

484 The evaluation of WRR products for discharge simulation show varying strengths and
485 weaknesses for the different models. Some models were able to capture the discharge dynamics in
486 the basins while others could not adequately capture this pattern. Differences in the model
487 performance can be attributed to differences model structure, parameters, input data used in driving
488 the models and the spatial resolution of the WRR products. Apart from FLDAS-Noah which is a land
489 surface model (LSM), our evaluation results show that global hydrological models (GHMs)
490 performed better than LSMs except PCRGLOBW.

491 Evaluation of gridded ET products also revealed varying strengths and weaknesses for the
492 different products. Based on the different evaluation criteria (bias, RMSE, Pearson correlation
493 coefficient, and temporal ET variability), FLDAS-Noah appears to outperform most of other ET
494 estimates and may therefore be recommended for water security assessment in the region. More so,
495 because of water balance closure and the availability of other water balance components (runoff, soil
496 moisture and baseflow). Our results also suggest that the performance of satellite-based ET products
497 is not influenced by spatial resolution, while differences in ET estimates may be attributed to
498 differences in model structure, parameters and the input data used to drive each ET model. On the
499 contrary, spatial resolution appears to have a significant impact on the performance of WRR in
500 simulating ET estimates.

501 Results from this study suggest that WRR and ET products may be used for water security
502 assessment in poorly gauged basins. However, it is imperative to evaluate the performance of these
503 products in representative gauged basins before applying them in poorly gauged basins. This is
504 because applying the products in poorly gauged basins without evaluating their performance may
505 lead to poor water management decisions with wider policy and financial implications. There is also
506 a need for WRR and ET products to be driven by input data from multiple sources to reduce
507 uncertainties in the input data. Furthermore, the spatial resolution of WRR products needs to be
508 enhanced given that models with higher spatial resolutions outperformed those with coarser
509 resolutions. Results from this study may be used by the products developers to improve on the quality
510 of future WRR and ET products.

511 **Author contributions:** EN and RGB designed the methodological framework and contributed to the
512 entire strategic and conceptual framework of the study. EN prepared the data, performed the analyses,
513 interpreted the results and wrote the original draft. JN and EIB provided discharge data for the Mono
514 and Oueme basins respectively. All authors read the paper and provided feedback.

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