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1 2

Understanding process controls on groundwater recharge variability across Africa through Recharge Landscapes

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11 Abstract

12 Groundwater is critical in supporting current and future reliable water supply throughout Africa. Although continental maps of groundwater storage and recharge have been 13 developed, we currently lack a clear understanding on how the controls on groundwater 14 15 recharge vary across the entire continent. Reviewing the existing literature, we synthesize information on reported groundwater recharge controls in Africa. We find that 15 out of 22 of 16 these controls can be characterised using global datasets. We develop 11 descriptors of 17 climatic, topographic, vegetation, soil and geologic properties using global datasets, to 18 19 characterise groundwater recharge controls in Africa. These descriptors cluster Africa into 15 20 Recharge Landscape Units for which we expect recharge controls to be similar. Over 80% of 21 the continents land area is organized by just nine of these units. We also find that aggregating the Units by similarity into four broader Recharge Landscapes (Desert, Dryland, Wet tropical 22 23 and Wet tropical forest) provides a suitable level of landscape organisation to explain differences in ground-based long-term mean annual recharge and recharge ratio (annual 24 25 recharge / annual precipitation) estimates. Furthermore, wetter Recharge Landscapes are more efficient in converting rainfall to recharge than drier Recharge Landscapes as well as 26

27 having higher annual recharge rates. In Dryland Recharge Landscapes, we found that annual recharge rates largely varied according to mean annual precipitation, whereas recharge ratio 28 estimates increase with increasing monthly variability in P-PET. However, we were unable to 29 explain why ground-based estimates of recharge signatures vary across other Recharge 30 Landscapes, in which there are fewer ground-based recharge estimates, using global datasets 31 alone. Even in dryland regions, there is still considerable unexplained variability in the 32 33 estimates of annual recharge and recharge ratio, stressing the limitations of global datasets for investigating ground-based information. 34

Keywords: Groundwater recharge, Africa, recharge controls, ground-based estimates,
landscapes, comparative hydrology

37 **1 Introduction**

With an estimated storage of 0.66 million km³, groundwater is the largest store of freshwater 38 in Africa, exceeding annual volumes of streamflow by a factor of 100, and its development is 39 40 fundamental for securing current and future water supply (MacDonald et al., 2012). Understandably it is often regarded as important for both urban (Foster et al. 2020; Oiro et al. 41 2020) and rural (Calow et al. 1997; Lapworth et al. 2013; MacDonald and Calow 42 43 2009) communities, though quantifying its role in water supply remains challenging for many parts of the continent (Chávez García Silva et al. 2020). In Northern Africa, groundwater 44 irrigation practices (Siebert et al. 2010) have potentially led to the depletion of groundwater 45 resources (Aeschbach-Hertig and Gleeson 2012; Rodell et al. 2018). In contrast, groundwater 46 use in sub-Saharan Africa is primarily for domestic supply and sanitation services (Braune 47 48 and Xu 2010) and is potentially being under-utilized for crop production (Giordano 2006; Siebert et al. 2010). In dryland river basins, securing water supply from surface water is 49 challenging due to the high inter-annual variability of streamflow and persistent dry periods 50

(Conway et al. 2009; Siam and Eltahir 2017; Sidibe et al. 2019). Therefore increasing groundwater abstraction for more conjunctive use of surface water and groundwater could reduce vulnerability to climate driven surface water shortages, particularly in rural communities (Calow et al., 1997; Lapworth et al., 2013; MacDonald & Calow, 2009) and generally improve water accessibility (Robins et al., 2006). In the future, rapid population growth (Gerland et al. 2014; Parnell and Walawege 2011) and climate change could further enhance the value of African groundwater resources (Taylor et al. 2013).

58

Yet, our understanding of the spatial variability of groundwater recharge processes across 59 Africa remains limited, constraining our ability to plan for the sustainable use of this resource 60 (MacDonald et al., 2021), though recharge rates should not be regarded as a safe-yield for 61 62 groundwater use (Aeschbach-Hertig and Gleeson 2012). Recent studies have tried to overcome this problem in multiple ways: [1] Scaling up knowledge from a limited number of 63 detailed local studies. Cuthbert et al. (2019b) used multi-decadal groundwater level 64 65 timeseries in conjunction with local knowledge to develop site specific conceptual models 66 which allowed the authors to highlight a relationship between climate and recharge frequency, sensitivity to precipitation and dominant recharge mechanisms. However, this 67 68 approach relies heavily upon rare long-term data as well as local knowledge and therefore it is challenging to transfer findings to larger scales or different regions. [2] Recently, 69 70 MacDonald et al. (2021) used 134 ground-based annual recharge estimates compiled from the literature along with global datasets to develop a continental statistical model. This model 71 72 enabled them to estimate long-term groundwater recharge rates across Africa using mean 73 annual precipitation without qualitative inclusion of different recharge processes. [3] Most studies have based their continental scale estimates on process-based models. Global scale 74 hydrological models and land surface models can estimate groundwater recharge rates across 75

large spatial domains (Reinecke et al. 2021). However, recharge outputs from these models 76 77 have not yet been thoroughly evaluated (Bierkens, 2015; Telteu et al., 2021; Wagener et al., 78 2021). Furthermore, global models thus far only include a limited number of process 79 representations and neglect regionally dominant controls which could be important for Africa, such as karst (Hartmann et al., 2015; Hartmann et al., 2014) or dryland-specific 80 hydrological processes (Quichimbo et al. 2021). This is likely because most (if not all) 81 82 available continental to global scale models available to estimate recharge have their origin from regions outside of Africa. 83

In this study we want to take a step back to review what dominant controls should be present 84 in a model across Africa and investigate how well we can quanitfy these process controls 85 given the available data. In doing so, We specifically aim to answer three questions: (i) What 86 are the dominant controls on groundwater recharge already identified across Africa in 87 previous studies? (ii) Using global datasets only, what descriptors of controlling processes 88 can we define, and which regions of Africa should have similar recharge controls when 89 clustered using these descriptors? (iii) How do these regions for which we expect similar 90 controls compare to ground-based recharge observations? Due to the limited amount of 91 92 ground-based data on groundwater recharge in Africa, we adopt an approach which builds strongly on our a priori understanding of recharge controls in Africa identified from the 93 94 literature. In doing so we build on previous efforts by Scanlon et al. (2006) who synthesized 95 qualitative local knowledge of recharge processes for the world's dry regions. In keeping with the database compiled by (MacDonald et al., 2021), we only review the controls on 96 recharge which is distributed throughout the landscape. MacDonald et al. (2021) define 97 distributed recharge as both diffuse and focussed recharge but exclude focussed recharge 98 from large discrete features such as rivers or lakes. Where focussed recharge is widely 99 distributed through ephemeral rivers, depressions or rock fractures which are common over a 100

large area and contribute to regional recharge, they include this in their definition of 101 distributed recharge which we use. We follow the ideas of Winter's concept of hydrological 102 103 landscapes (Winter 2001) and define Recharge Landscape Units to represent areas for which we expect similar recharge controls. We then compare these areas against an openly 104 available, comprehensive and thoroughly quality assured dataset of ground-based recharge 105 estimates in Africa, recently published by MacDonald et al. (2021). Although we use their 106 107 database in our analysis, this work has some key differences to the previous work by MacDonald et al. (2021). Firstly, we attempt to explicitly link our analysis to both the 108 109 qualitative (understanding of recharge controls) and quantitative (i.e., ground-based recharge estimates) findings in the literature, whereas MacDonald et al. (2021) only investigate the 110 quantitative data. Furthermore, our classification approach allows us to explore whether 111 relationships between environmental controls and recharge signatures vary between different 112 environmental settings. In contrast, the statistical approach taken by MacDonald et al. (2021) 113 only allowed them to investigate relationships which applied to the whole continent. Finally, 114 we investigate both long-term mean annual recharge rates of groundwater recharge and 115 recharge ratios. This allows us to understand how different recharge signatures vary and 116 interact in space, furthering our understanding of groundwater recharge beyond just looking 117 at annual rates. 118

119 2. Review of process controls on groundwater recharge across Africa

Most of the existing knowledge base on groundwater recharge processes, controls and rates in Africa comes from a relatively small number of case studies investigating recharge at the field, catchment, or sometimes regional scale. These studies use a wide range of methods to understand recharge processes throughout the continent, with approaches often varying according to environmental setting, data availability and the objective of the individual studies (MacDonald et al. 2021). Details of the strengths and weaknesses of the different

methods can be found in Scanlon et al. (2002) and Healy (2010). We organize the review of 126 controls into four domains: climate and weather, topography, landcover/use, and soils and 127 geology. The aim of this review is firstly to identify dominant controls on groundwater 128 recharge, and secondly to understand whether these controls have clear positive or negative 129 relationships with groundwater recharge, or if their relationship with recharge is ambiguous. 130 We are considering processes that govern the potential recharge of an aquifer, which can be 131 132 more than the actual recharge due to interflow processes or if the potential recharge rate is so large that it exceeds the rate at which water can flow laterally through the aquifer (Theis 133 134 1940). In the latter case, the aquifer can become over-full such that available recharge is rejected. We show a summary of this review in Figure 1. An extended version of the review 135 can be found in the supplemental information. 136

137 *Climate and weather*

Annual scale components of the water-energy balance are a first order control on the spatial 138 variability of groundwater recharge (Kim and Jackson, 2012; Mohan et al., 2018; Cuthbert et 139 al., 2019b; MacDonald et al., 2021), as they control the quantity of water available to be 140 partitioned into groundwater recharge, as well as the energy available to partially control 141 atmospheric losses (Budyko, 1974). Hence studies in Africa show variability of annual 142 recharge rates along a climate gradient, largely defined by precipitation due to the generally 143 144 high levels of energy available (MacDonald et al. 2021). In an upland catchment of Cameroon where rainfall exceeds 3000 mm/year, estimated recharge rates exceed 900 145 mm/year (Kamtchueng et al. 2015), in comparison to recharge rates between 160 mm/year 146 and 330 mm/year in the Ethiopian Highlands where annual rainfall is approximately 1300 147 mm/year (Azagegn et al. 2015; Banks et al. 2021; Demlie 2015). Groundwater resources 148 throughout the deserts, which receive very little annual rainfall (Nicholson 2000), are 149 recharged at rates below 5 mm/year (Foster et al., 1982; Dabous and Osmond, 2001; Zouari 150

et al., 2011), or may not even be actively recharged (Befus et al. 2017). In these regions deep
'fossil' groundwaters recharged prior to the Holocene dominate aquifer stores (Sturchio et al.,
2004; Guendouz et al., 2006; Abotalib et al., 2016; Jasechko et al., 2017).

154 Groundwater recharge volumes are often biased towards the rainy season as elevated rainfall

is required to overcome high rates of evapotranspiration (Bromley *et al.*, 1997; Demlie *et al.*,

156 2007; Walraevens et al., 2009; Mechal et al., 2015), and greater monthly and daily

157 precipitation intensity leads to a more efficient conversion of rainfall to recharge (Jasechko

and Taylor 2015; Owor et al. 2009; Taylor and Howard 1996). Groundwater level

159 observations in the Makutapora wellfield, Tanzania, suggest that recharge is dependent upon

160 months with the most extreme (> 95th percentile) rainfall (Taylor, Todd, et al. 2013) often

161 enhanced by the El Nino Southern Oscillation and the Indian Ocean Dipole. However, the

multiple climate oscillations known to affect climate patterns in Africa (Brown et al., 2010)

163 can have opposing effects in different parts of the continent (Nicholson and Kim 1997).

164 Nonetheless, wetting and drying cycles are being reflected in observed groundwater

hydrographs throughout Africa (Taylor *et al.*, 2013; Cuthbert *et al.*, 2019b; Kolusu *et al.*,

166 2019), showing both seasonally extreme recharge events as well as recharge events which are

167 more episodic in nature.

Episodic rainfall events are particularly important in arid landscapes where recharge often depends upon a small number of days of intense rainfall (Vogel and Van Urk, 1975; Mazor *et al.*, 1977; Van Tonder and Kirchner, 1990; Nkotagu, 1996; De Vries et al., 2000; Xu and Beekman, 2003; Wanke et al., 2008). Döll and Fiedler (2008) stressed the importance of heavy rainfall events in semi-arid and arid regions as they modelled groundwater recharge globally, applying a rainfall threshold of 10 mm/day to drylands, below which they assumed recharge would not occur. They identified this threshold via an independent analysis of 25 chloride profile estimates of annual recharge distributed throughout the world as well asregional model estimates of recharge in Death Valley, California.

In summary, annual and seasonal precipitation as well as heavy rainfall events have a positive
relationship with groundwater recharge in Africa – largely driving inter- and intra-annual
recharge variability, while the amount of energy available from radiation has a negative
relationship with groundwater recharge. However, the influence of large-scale climate
oscillations on groundwater recharge in Africa is less clear as their effect on climate patterns
vary regionally.

183 *Topography*

Topographic slope controls the movement of water across the land surface and therefore 184 185 controls water infiltration into the subsurface and groundwater recharge, with gentler slopes promoting more recharge than steeper slopes (Simmers 1990). The role of slope in 186 controlling groundwater recharge has been discussed throughout many different regions of 187 Africa, including Ethiopia (Gebreyohannes et al. 2013), Nigeria (Abdullateef et al. 2021; 188 Fashae et al. 2014), Botswana (Lentswe and Molwalefhe 2020) and Algeria (Boufekane et 189 190 al., 2020). Yet interestingly, McKenna and Sala (2018) found that recharge beneath flat 191 playas in the south-western United States is greater when they are surrounded by steeper slopes which promote greater run-on onto the playa. 192

In dry regions, intense rainfall events are important drivers of focused recharge through flash
flooding (Sultan et al. 2000) and the formation of ephemeral water bodies and depression
storage (Lehner and Döll, 2004), i.e. in areas where water accumulates on the land surface.
In Africa's dry regions, alluvial aquifers underlying dry riverbeds are recharged episodically
or perhaps seasonally by river transmission losses following heavy rainfall (Tantawi, ElSayed and Awad, 1998; Sultan *et al.*, 2000; Gheith and Sultan, 2002; Benito *et al.*, 2010;

Walker et al., 2019; Seddon *et al.*, 2021). These storms can activate focused recharge
mechanisms despite negligible diffuse recharge in interfluve regions due to high evaporation
(Favreau et al. 2009). In endoreic arid basins, surface water can also accumulate in salt pans
which typically occupy topographic depressions (Lehner and Döll 2004). (De Vries et al.,
2000) use chloride profiles to show that in the eastern fringes of the Kalahari Desert, recharge
is enhanced under these pans, with estimated annual rates of 50mm in comparison to 7mm for
the surrounding landscape.

Therefore, slope generally has a negative relationship with groundwater recharge since it will
provide an easier flow path for water to move downhill, whereas topographic depressions
have a positive relationship with (focused) groundwater recharge because they allow water to
accumulate.

210 *Landcover/use*

Landcover and use varies considerably across the African continent. Bare soils (33% of 211 Africa's land area) occupy most of northern Africa as well as parts of southern and eastern 212 Africa, whilst grasslands (15.4%), shrublands (13.4%) and agriculture (11.6%) are largely 213 214 distributed throughout the Sahel and Southern and Eastern Africa, and forests and woodland (26%) spread across western, central and south-eastern regions (Mayaux et al., 2004; 215 Tsendbazar et al., 2017; Xiong et al., 2017). These vegetation patterns influence the spatial 216 217 variability of groundwater recharge (Kim and Jackson 2012) through their control over transpiration, interception and soil evaporation fluxes (Gordon et al., 2005; Schlesinger and 218 Jasechko, 2014; Good et al., 2015). 219

An estimated 7% of the continent's precipitation returns to the atmosphere via interception
evaporation, mostly occurring in the densely forested regions of Central Africa where this
flux can exceed 10% of the precipitation input (Miralles et al. 2010; Zhang et al. 2016; Zheng

et al. 2017). Globally, we could not find any studies directly discussing the relationship
between rainfall interception and groundwater recharge. However, it seems reasonable to
assume that by limiting the amount of precipitation reaching the land surface, interception
consequently reduces groundwater recharge.

An estimated 49% and 21% of precipitation over Africa returns to the atmosphere via 227 228 transpiration and bare soil evaporation, respectively (Zhang et al. 2016). The bulk of continental transpiration is associated with the tropical forests (Gordon et al., 2005; Good et 229 al., 2015), where tall vegetation with deep rooting systems increases the capacity of root-zone 230 moisture storage (Nijzink et al. 2016) and the access to deeper groundwater (Barbeta and 231 Peñuelas 2017). When investigating groundwater recharge at regional and catchment scales, 232 studies often find that recharge rates are lower in areas which are forested than in areas which 233 are unforested or have bare soils (Gebreyohannes et al. 2013; Houston 1982; Howard and 234 Karundu 1992; Stone and Edmunds 2012). Furthermore, the presence of woodland or forest 235 can restrict groundwater recharge to years of particularly high rainfall, even when recharge in 236 grass, crop or unvegetated parts of the catchment occurs annually (Houston 1982; Howard 237 and Karundu 1992). In the Kalahari Desert, dense bush and tree savannah is believed to 238 transpire much of the annual rainfall during the long dry season, leading to very little 239 recharge (De Vries et al., 2000; Sibanda et al., 2009). Similarly, chloride profiles in Senegal, 240 241 suggest that groundwater recharge rates decline as vegetation density increases (Edmunds and Gaye 1994). Land clearing, often for agricultural expansion, can also enhance 242 groundwater recharge rates by reducing evapotranspiration (Taylor and Howard 1996; Været 243 et al. 2009). 244

Land clearing for agriculture does not only affect recharge through changes to

evapotranspiration, it can also alter the mechanisms through which recharge occurs, by

247 altering soil surface properties (Wirmvem et al. 2015) as well as runoff run-on processes

(Leduc et al., 2001; Leblanc *et al.*, 2008; Favreau *et al.*, 2009; Ibrahim *et al.*, 2014; Wirmvem *et al.*, 2015). Agricultural land adjacent to many of Africa's largest lakes and rivers is
regularly equipped for irrigation (Siebert et al. 2015). Excess irrigation water can infiltrate
into the soil and percolate to the aquifer, increasing groundwater recharge rates (Bouimouass
et al. 2020; Scanlon et al. 2007). Nonetheless, as irrigation technologies become more
efficient, recharge via irrigation excesses is expected to decline (Scanlon et al. 2007).

Urban settings only account for less than 0.01% of the African landscape (Zhou et al. 2015). 254 Although, urbanisation is typically perceived as reducing groundwater recharge by reducing 255 the permeable surface area, recharge rates in urban areas can be as high as or even higher 256 than nearby rural areas (Lerner 2002; Sharp 2010). Urbanization can dampen existing 257 recharge mechanisms, but it can also introduce new mechanisms such as localised recharge 258 where there is little drainage infrastructure (Lerner 2002; Sharp 2010), as well as leakages 259 from on-site sanitation (Foster et al., 1999; Diouf, 2012; Lapworth et al., 2017) and piped 260 261 distribution networks if such water supply is available.

In short, we find that the transpiration and canopy storage controls of different landcovers show a negative relationship with groundwater recharge, whereas the additional supply of water to agricultural land through irrigation has a positive relationship with recharge. Effects of urbanisation on groundwater recharge on the other hand are more ambiguous.

266 Soils and Geology

Soils with larger sand fractions are more permeable and support higher recharge rates than
finer clay soils. In a global scale meta-analysis of recharge estimates, Kim and Jackson
(2012) show that on average sandy soils are 50% more efficient in converting water input
into groundwater recharge. Similar results are found at regional and catchment scales in
Senegal, Sudan and Zimbabwe, whereby higher recharge rates are estimated in areas where

the sand fraction is a more dominant component of the soil (Abdalla 2009; Butterworth et al.

273 1999; Edmunds and Gaye 1994). Lower recharge rates are found in clayey soils as the

vertical percolation of water through the soil profile is restricted (Attandoh et al. 2013;

Edmunds et al. 1992) and soil moisture is more exposed to evapotranspiration (Mensah et al,

276 2014; Yidana and Koffie, 2014; Kotchoni et al., 2018).

277 However, soil texture alone fails to recognise structural soil properties which enable

278 infiltration via preferential flow paths which bypass the soil matrix (Beven and Germann

1982). Macropores in the soil structure allow infiltration to bypass vegetation rooting zones

and impermeable soil layers (De Vries et al., 2000; Mazor, 1982; Van Tonder & Kirchner,

281 1990; Xu & Beekman, 2003) and facilitate recharge in conditions which would otherwise be

282 prohibitive. These preferential flow paths are an important mechanism for groundwater

283 recharge across a range of contrasting environmental settings. In the Botswanan Kalahari

284 Desert, semi-arid Tanzania and the tropical highlands of Ethiopia, the contribution of

preferential flows to groundwater recharge is approximately 24%, 60% and 36%, respectively

286 (Demlie et al. 2007; Nkotagu 1996; de Vries and Gieske 1990).

287 Rock fracturing (Nkotagu, 1996; Xu and Beekman, 2003; Adams et al., 2004; Kebede et al.,

288 2005; Kamtchueng *et al.*, 2015) and vertical conduits in karstic rock (Farid *et al.*, 2014;

289 Hartmann et al., 2014, 2017; Chemseddine et al., 2015; Ayadi et al., 2018; Leketa et al.,

2019) also provide preferential flow paths for groundwater recharge. In dry landscapes such

as the Kalahari Desert, rock fracturing at bedrock outcrops and isolated rock formations

called inselbergs (Burke 2003) can locally enhance groundwater rates (Mazor, 1982;

Butterworth et al., 1999; Brunner et al., 2004; Wanke et al., 2008). The distribution and

294 geometry of the superficial geology can also have a marked impact on recharge pathways and

rates in conjunction with the underlying bedrock and distribution of stream networks (Zarate

et al. 2021). Similar observations have been made regarding focused recharge opportunitiesfor water in karstic regions (Hartmann et al. 2017).

298 Soil perturbations such as crusting, cementation, compaction, weathering, and tillage can also have a significant impact on recharge rates. Whilst studies mostly find that soil crusting 299 (Favreau et al. 2009; Jacks and Traoré 2014; Wakindiki and Ben-Hur 2002), cementation 300 301 (Nash et al., 1994; De Vries et al., 2000; Xu and Beekman, 2003; Francis et al., 2007) and compaction (Hamza and Anderson, 2005; du Toit et al., 2009) reduce the permeability of soil 302 layers and hence reduce groundwater recharge, the effects of deeply weathered soils known 303 as laterites (Bromley et al., 1997; Rueedi et al., 2005; Cuthbert and Tindimugaya, 2010; 304 Bonsor et al., 2014) and agricultural tilling practices (Abu-Hamdeh, 2004; Osunbitan et al., 305 2005; Spaan et al., 2005; Strudley et al., 2008; Thierfelder and Wall, 2009; Abidela Hussein 306 et al., 2019) on recharge are much less clear. 307

Therefore, in summation we find that, soil grain sizes, bedrock outcrops and properties which promote preferential flow paths, such as soil macropores, rock fractures and karst geology, have a positive relationship with groundwater recharge. Some soil perturbations such as compaction, cementation and crusting have a negative relationship with groundwater recharge, whereas others, including tilling and soil laterization, have a less clear relationship with recharge.

314 Interactions between controls

Up to now we have largely looked at landscape properties and their control over recharge processes independently, in reality, groundwater recharge is a function of the interactions between these controls. Hence at the continental scale, we would typically expect to find some of the lowest recharge rates in areas with the most freely draining soils, as these regions also have the lowest precipitation volumes. By identifying patterns in the landscape, i.e.

climate, topography, vegetation, soils and geology, we can begin to conceptualise recharge
processes of different environmental settings found in Africa. We can find these patterns as
landscapes are continuously co-evolving (Troch et al. 2013) via an array of physical and
biological processes which effect the uplift and deformation of bedrock and the erosion,
transportation and deposition of sediments (Dietrich and Perron 2006; Reinhardt et al. 2010).
This co-evolution, explains why we typically expect to find certain landscapes throughout the
continent, including rainforests, tropical woodlands and savannas and deserts.

We often regard climate as an external force driving the hydrological system, but it also 327 controls the spatial and temporal patterns of landcover (Zhou et al., 2014; Hawinkel et al., 328 2016; Bouvet et al., 2018; Measho et al., 2019; Ndehedehe et al., 2019) and soils (Jenny 329 1941; Towett et al. 2015). Climate and vegetation patterns as well as soil properties are also 330 strongly affected by local topography. In mountainous areas we see vegetation becoming 331 shorter and less dense above the treeline, as temperatures decline and thinning soils make 332 ground conditions less stable (Harsch et al., 2009; Egli and Poulenard, 2016). Increased 333 precipitation and runoff due to orographic forcing as well as steeper slopes, promote more 334 active erosion and sediment transport fluxes at elevation and therefore prevents the 335 accumulation of soils (Acosta et al. 2015). In contrast, at lower elevations, vegetation can 336 assist the accumulation of soils by reducing surface water erosion and promoting infiltration 337 338 (Acosta et al. 2015; Descheemaeker et al. 2006; Descroix et al. 2009; Thompson et al. 2010). In water limited regions, vegetation density often increases in topographic depressions such 339 as ephemeral streams, as accessibility to groundwater may be locally improved (Morin et al., 340 2009; Steward et al., 2012; Ndehedehe et al., 2019; Grodek et al., 2020). 341

342

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345

Relationship between recharge control and rechargeNegativeAmbiguousPositive

	negative	c Ambiguous Tositive					
	Climate & weather						
	Radiation	Large scale climate oscillations	Annual precipitation				
			Seasonal precipitation				
δ			Heavy rainfall events				
	Topography						
	Slope		Ephemeral streams				
			Depression storage				
	Landcover/use						
	Transpiration	Urban settings	Irrigation				
	Canopy Storage						
	Soils & geology						
2516	Bedrock Outcrops	Laterite	Soil grain size				
	Cemented soils	Tillage	macropores, fractures, karst				
	Compacted soils						
	Soil crusts						

346

Figure 1. Summary of groundwater recharge controls for Africa identified in the literature. Controls are colour coded
 according to their relationship with recharge with red and blue representing negative and positive relationships, respectively.
 Bold font highlights controls which we can characterise using global datasets.

350

351 **3. Materials and methods**

352 To consolidate our understanding of groundwater recharge controls taken from reviewing the

353 literature, we take a classification approach which we can then use as a tool to investigate

354 why ground-based estimates of groundwater recharge vary spatially across the continent. We

- acknowledge their will be uncertainty in the classification due to the limitations of our own
- understanding and of global datasets. However, we aim to connect the qualitative and
- 357 quantitative information obtained from local/regional findings to large scale regionalization
- 358 approaches.

359 **3.1 Global Datasets**

We used nine global datasets to characterize the previously identified groundwater recharge controls. Furthermore, controls were only integrated into our classification if the literature indicated it had a clear positive or negative relationship with groundwater recharge and it could be characterized using global datasets. The datasets used and the indices calculated are summarized in Table 1.

Indices describing annual and seasonal climate attributes mostly characterise first-order 365 366 estimates of the water potentially available for groundwater recharge (P-PET) annually and seasonally as well as its variability. This also builds on previous work by Wolock et al. 367 (2004) who used P-PET as the climatic index to delineate hydrological landscapes in the 368 369 United States. We characterised heavy rainfall across Africa using a threshold of 10 mm/day. Several studies in Africa (Döll and Fiedler 2008; Owor et al. 2009; Taylor and Howard 1996) 370 371 have found annual recharge has a stronger correlation with the average volume of rainfall per year on days with at least 10 mm of rain, than with mean annual precipitation and hence we 372 selected this as threshold for heavy rainfall in Africa. Though we acknowledge the rainfall 373 374 threshold for recharge occurrence likely varies across the continent. We characterized the influence of landcover on groundwater recharge via transpiration and canopy storage 375 processes, by attributing vegetation specific transpiration coefficients to a landcover dataset 376 377 and by looking at the Leaf Area Index, respectively. This approach is also often taken when parameterizing these processes in continental scale hydrological modelling (Telteu et al., 378 2021). To avoid having multiple indices to describe soil textures we instead calculated the 379 ratio of soils which promote infiltration (i.e., sand) to those which restrict infiltration (i.e., silt 380 and clay) (Saxton et al., 1986; Wösten et al., 2001). We used the depth to bedrock dataset of 381 382 (Pelletier et al. 2016) to highlight bedrock outcrop regions and the world map of carbonate rock outcrops (Williams and Ford 2006) to highlight the extent of carbonate rock outcrops. 383

385 Table 1. Details of the recharge control indices we defined to characterise recharge controls across Africa and the global datasets we used to calculate them.

Attribute	Description	Units	Period	Data source	Reference
Climate attribut P-PET	tes Mean annual precipitation minus mean annual PET.	mm/year	1979-2015	1. MSWEP v1.2 (Precipitation)	1. (Beck et al. 2017)
P-PET in season	Mean annual volume of precipitation in excess to PET in months considered in-season. A month is considered in-season when P exceeds PET.	mm/year	1979-2015	Spatial res.: 0.25° Temporal res.: Daily 2. CRU v4 (PET)	2. (Harris et al., 2020)
σ(P-PET)	The standard deviation of monthly P-PET	mm/month	1979-2015	Spatial res.: 0.5° Temporal res.:	
P10	The average volume of rainfall per year on days with at least 10 mm of rain.	mm/year	1979-2015	Monthly	
Topography att					
Slope	Geodesic slope of the DEM using a 3 by 3 moving window.	Degrees	-(Lehner, Verdin, and Jarvis 2013)	HydroSHEDS Spatial res.: 15 arc seconds	(Lehner et al., 2013)
Landcover/use					
Kveg	Vegetation coefficient related to transpiration. Vegetation-specific annual values (L. J. Gordon et al. 2005) applied to a landcover classification. Mean value from 1992- 2005.	-	1992-2015	ESA-CCI v2.0.7 Spatial res.: 300m Temporal res.: Yearly	(Defourny et al. 2017)
LAI	Mean leaf area index (based on 12 monthly means from 1981- 2015)	-	1981-2015	GIMMS- LAI3g v2 Spatial res.: 0.25° Temporal res.: Monthly	(Mao and Yan. 2019)
Irrigation	Area equipped for irrigation multiplied by the fractional area actually irrigated.	4 km ²	2005	Global Map of Irrigation Areas Spatial res.: 5 arc minutes	(Siebert et al., 2013)
Soil attributes					
Sand / (Clay + Silt)	The ratio of sand (>0.05mm) to silt (0.002-0.05mm) and clay (<0.002mm) in the fine earth fraction of the top 2m of the	-	-	SoilGrids250m Spatial res.: 250m	(Hengl et al. 2017)

	soil profile. Proportions of each soil texture are by weight. Take the depth weighted harmonic mean across intervals of 0- 5cm, 5-15cm, 15- 30cm, 30cm-60cm, 60-100cm, 100- 200cm.			
Geology attr Depth to bedrock	Average soil and sedimentary deposit thickness. Maximum of 50m.	m	- Gridded Thickness of Soil, Regolith and Sedimentary Deposit Layers Spatial res.: 30 arc seconds	(Pelletier et al. 2016)
Karst	Extent of carbonate rock outcrop areas.	-	- World Map of Carbonate Rock Outcrops V3.0	(Williams and Ford 2006)

387

388 **3.2** Ground-based annual recharge and recharge ratio estimates

We used the database compiled by MacDonald et al. (2021) of long-term mean annual 389 recharge estimates compiled from case studies in the literature. We selected this database 390 above other meta-datasets (Moeck et al. 2020; Mohan et al. 2018) because of its focus on 391 Africa, the thorough quality assurance conducted throughout its compilation, and the 392 393 additional meta-data provided, such as recharge estimate uncertainty ranges. Through quality 394 assurance steps, MacDonald et al. (2021) removed 182 datapoints (from an initial 316), due to duplicative studies in the same location and findings which were solely dependent upon 395 hydrological modelling. Additional screening removed data points where the site co-ordinates 396 397 and date of the study period were not provided. Finally, we removed estimates dated prior to 1979 or after 2015, as they would not correspond to the timing of the climate datasets we 398 used. Ultimately, we were left with 129 ground-based estimates of annual groundwater 399 recharge distributed across Africa. 111 of these sites/studies also reported corresponding 400 mean annual precipitation rates, so we could estimate long-term mean recharge ratios at these 401

locations (Figure 2). Spatially, 31 of these estimates reflect recharge rates over spatial scales
less than 100 km², a further 41, 29, and 28 are for spatial scales of 100-2500 km², 2500-

404 62500 km^2 and greater than 62500 km^2 , respectively.

405



406

407 Figure 2. The remaining annual recharge and recharge ratio estimates collected from case studies in the literature by
 408 MacDonald et al. (2021), after initial screening of the data. The recharge ratio is defined as the fraction of precipitation being
 409 converted to recharge (recharge / precipitation).

410 **3.3 Clustering**

411 To delineate regions with expected similar recharge control indices (i.e., Recharge Landscape Units) we use a fuzzy c-means clustering algorithm (Bezdec 1981). This fuzzy clustering 412 algorithm allows for pixels to belong to multiple units simultaneously, albeit with varying 413 degrees of membership, thus enabling us to study the gradual transition between units (e.g., 414 reflecting different landscapes). The degree of overlap in membership allowed us to 415 determine the uniqueness of each delineated Recharge Landscape Unit. The degree of 416 membership is dependent upon how close in value each pixel's recharge control indices are to 417 the centroid of each unit, which is regarded as being representative for a unit. Membership 418 scores vary from 0 to 1, with 0 representing no similarity and 1 suggesting the pixel's 419

recharge control indices are equal to the values of the unit's centroid. Further details on the
algorithm and on application details are provided in the supplemental material. Ultimately,
we attributed each pixel to the unit with which it has the highest degree of membership,
which we refer to as its primary unit.

424 **3.4 Random Forests**

We used classification-based Random Forests to expand our classification for recharge 425 controls in Africa to the rest of the world. Random Forests is a machine learning algorithm 426 427 which combines multiple trees to produce an ensemble of predictions (Breiman 2001; Breiman et al. 1984), which link predictor variables (recharge control indices) to a response 428 429 (Recharge Landscape Units). Each individual tree develops rules for predicting responses which are structured as a binary decision tree composing of nodes and branches. At each 430 431 node a conditional binary split is applied to one of the predictor variables. The split forms two branches which link to nodes in the overlying stratum. This splitting continues until the 432 terminal node (the leaf) is met and the outcome is predicted. Each classification tree in the 433 ensemble model is trained on observations (Pixels of classification for recharge controls in 434 Africa) which were randomly selected with replacement from a sub-sample of 70% of the 435 total observations ('in-bag' observations). The random forest model consists of 25 trees each 436 with a maximum of 400 decision splits. Increasing the number of trees or decision splits did 437 438 not significantly improve model performance. Addor et al., (2018) previously used Random 439 Forests to predict observed streamflow signatures across the USA and Stein et al., (2021) used random forests to explore how climate and catchment attributes influence flood 440 generating processes. 441

442

444 **4 Results**

446

controls in Africa

445 **4.1 Recharge Landscape Units outline regions with similar recharge**

Based on our review in section 2, we defined and calculated 11 indices to characterise the

- 448 different controls on distributed groundwater recharge we identified in our review (Figure 1).
- 449 To avoid using redundant information for each control, we checked the correlations between
- 450 each of the indices initially considered and removed indices such that none of the indices for
- 451 a given control had Pearson correlation coefficients greater than or equal to 0.7 with one
- 452 another (see supplemental information) (Dormann et al. 2013).





454 Figure 3. 11 recharge control indices characterising controls identified in the literature using global datasets. a) P-PET; b) P-455 PET in-season; c) σ (P-PET); d) P10; e) Slope; f) Kveg; e) Leaf Area Index; h) Irrigated area; i) Sand / (Clay + Silt); j) Depth 456 to bedrock; k) Karst. The definitions of each index the datasets used for their characterisation are stated in Table 1.

The cluster analysis combines the 11 indices into 15 Recharge Landscape Units with similar 457 recharge control indices of which 9 cover over 80% of the African land area (Figure 4). We 458 initially identified 14 units using fuzzy clustering, as additional units did not greatly reduce 459 the dissimilarity within individual units. The 15th unit which delineates potential karst regions 460 was manually superimposed. Even though we expect recharge to vary significantly between 461 the different settings in which karst is found, we delineate the group as a whole, because we 462 463 expect the recharge mechanism associated to karst environments to be a dominant control on recharge processes. We can see the continent has been roughly organised into very dry 464 465 regions in the north and south of the continent and wetter regions spanning from West Africa down through Central Africa towards Mozambique and Madagascar. Even though the spatial 466 organisation of the units suggest proximity is a reasonable indicator for similarity, we do find 467 regions with similar recharge control indices which are also far away from each other. For 468 example, hyper arid regions with shallow soils can be found along Namibia's coastline as 469 well as the coastlines of Egypt and Sudan and throughout the Sahara Desert (unit 5) and 470 471 extremely wet regions can be found on the coast of West Africa and eastern Madagascar (unit 7). Likewise dry highland regions with high slope can be found in South Africa, the East 472 African Rift, Ethiopian Highlands and in the Atlas Mountains (unit 4) and flat regions with 473 thick soil profiles can be found throughout the Sahel, South Sudan and the Kalahari basin 474 (unit 13). In contrast, we also find Recharge Landscape Units which appear to represent 475 476 unique and spatially concentrated areas, such as the Congo Basin Rainforest (units 9 and 14), as well as regions where properties appear more diverse with multiple units appearing within 477 smaller areas, such as Madagascar and Ethiopia. 478



480 Figure 4. Map of the 15 Recharge Landscape Units of our classification for a priori understanding of recharge controls in481 Africa. We group the Recharge Landscape Units into broader groups of similar units which we call Recharge Landscapes.

We found that grouping Recharge Landscape Units into broader Recharge Landscapes 483 suitably organises the African landscape into regions with noticeably different distributions 484 485 of long-term average annual recharge and recharge ratio (Figure 6). Further disaggregation of the landscape did not allow us to explain any further variability in the ground-based estimates 486 of recharge signatures when using global datasets. These broader Recharge Landscapes also 487 aggregate Recharge Landscape Units with similar recharge control indices, as shown by the 488 489 boxplots in Figure 5. For each index, boxplots are organized by the median values of each unit, ordered from left to right in descending order. In Dryland and Wet tropical Recharge 490 491 Landscapes, we see that climate and weather, landcover and soil texture indices transition smoothly across all units. Units within Wet tropical forest Recharge Landscape are typically 492 associated to high Kveg and Leaf Area index values and fine soil textures, whilst units of the 493 494 Desert Recharge Landscape have low Kveg and Leaf Area values as well as predominantly 495 sandy soils. Similarly, most units have similar topographic slopes except for unit 3, 4 and 13 which represent highland and flat plain regions. There is a clear divide in the depth of soils in 496 each of the units, with six of the units showing deeper soil profiles and 8 showing a tendency 497 towards shallow soils. We can see that unit 15 which represents karst regions occurs in a 498 wide range of different climate, topographical, landcover and soil settings. Irrigated areas do 499 not contribute to large areas of any of our Recharge Landscape Units. 500

Desert Recharge Landscapes could only be further differentiated by their depth to bedrock, while other landscape types were dis-aggregated by climate seasonality, slope, landcover and slope, as well as the depth to bedrock. Desert Recharge Landscape Units are differentiated according to where depth to bedrock is less than 13.5 m (unit 5), where the bedrock depth is between 13.5 m and 33.9 m (unit 6) and where the depth to bedrock is greater than 33.9 m (unit 3). This reflects differences in topography throughout Desert Recharge Landscapes, as mountainous Desert Recharge Landscapes with greater slopes also have smaller bedrock

depths. Dryland Recharge Landscapes are also largely dis-aggregated according to the depth
to bedrock, with unit 13 representing where bedrock depth is greater than 37m, unit 10 where
bedrock depth is between 16.3m and 37m and units 11 and 12 where the bedrock depth is less
than 16m.





recharge estimates of each Recharge Landscape is 217.2 mm/year in contrast to a standard deviation of 113.7 mm/year when looking across the whole dataset population. Similarly for ground-based estimates of recharge ratio, the standard deviations within Desert, Dryland, Wet tropical and Wet tropical forest Recharge Landscapes are, 0.033, 0.059, 0.070 and 0.092, respectively. Again, standard deviation between the mean recharge ratio estimates of each Recharge Landscape is greater than across the whole population, each being 0.079 and 0.072 respectively.

We also investigated the possible influence of the different groundwater recharge estimation 532 methods to see whether this explained any of the variability in annual recharge and recharge 533 ratio estimates within the individual spatial units (see supplemental information). However, 534 in agreement with (MacDonald et al. 2021) we did not find a relationship between the 535 estimation methods used and the recharge signatures. Additionally, one of the benefits of the 536 database compiled by MacDonald et al. (2021) is that they provide uncertainty ranges for 537 each of their ground-based estimates. Although figure 6 does not show these uncertainty 538 ranges, we found that these uncertainty ranges were lowest for both annual recharge and 539 recharge ratio in Desert Recharge Landscapes and were largest in Wet tropical and Wet 540 541 tropical forest Recharge Landscapes (see supplemental). However, uncertainty ranges relative to the ground-based estimates were largest in Desert Recharge Landscapes and lowest in Wet 542 543 tropical forest Recharge Landscapes. Below we discuss the larger Recharge Landscapes.



544

Figure 6. a) Map of ground-based estimate data points distributed across the Classification of recharge controls in Africa.
Boxplots of the ground-based estimates of long-term mean annual recharge (b) and recharge ratio (c) found in each of the
Recharge Landscape Units. No data points are located within Unit 9 and hence it is not shown. Only one data point is located
within Unit 14. Unit 15 representing karst does not have its own boxplot. Instead, we have superimposed (red dots) these
data points above the units which they would have otherwise been attributed to. For this plot we simply use the average
ground-based estimates of annual recharge ratio at each data point and ignore the uncertainty ranges.

551 Desert (RLU 3, 5, 6)

552 Desert Recharge Landscapes are characterised by low moisture availability (P-PET), low vegetation cover (kveg) and very high sand content in its soils (Figure 5). These properties 553 lead to the lowest annual recharge and recharge ratio estimates occurring in Africa, as 80% of 554 annual recharge (recharge ratio) estimates in Desert Recharge Landscapes are below 555 5mm/year (4%). Low recharge ratios suggest that even when rain does fall, only a small 556 557 fraction is converted to recharge, despite the sandy soils, owing to the very high potential evapotranspiration demand. In these regions evapotranspiration can draw on moisture from 558 substantial depths which prohibits the downward flux of moisture towards to water table 559 (Lehmann et al. 2019; Scanlon et al. 2006). We also find ground-based recharge estimates in 560 Desert Recharge Landscapes show very little variability. Although we find marginally greater 561 annual recharge rates and recharge ratios in unit 5, we cannot explain why, and differences 562 may not be significant as there are only 20 data points across this region. 563

565 Dryland (10, 11, 12, 13)

About 51% of the 129 ground-based estimates are sited in Dryland Recharge Landscapes 566 where water is generally only available for recharge seasonally (units 10, 11, 12 and 13). 70% 567 of these sites have annual recharge rates between 3-30 mm/year and a further 18% of these 568 sites have rates between 30-100 mm/year. Typically, in these regions less than 10% of 569 rainfall is converted to recharge, with only 9 of the 58 sites recording higher recharge ratios. 570 In this Recharge Landscape, we find that long-term estimates of annual recharge vary 571 according to mean annual precipitation, whereas recharge ratios are greater at sites with 572 greater monthly variability in P-PET (Figure 7). 573



574

Figure 7. Boxplots showing how ground-based estimates of mean annual recharge (a, c) and recharge ratio (b, d) vary
according to monthly variability of P-PET and Mean Annual Precipitation in Dryland Recharge Landscapes. Recharge
signatures are binned according to percentiles (0-20; 20-40; 40-60; 60-80; 80-100) of the controlling variable. In the top left

578 corner of each sub-plot, we show the spearman rank correlation and the p-value for testing the hypothesis of no correlation.

580 Wet tropical (1, 2, 4, 8)

18 (26) out of 28 annual recharge estimates in the Wet tropical landscapes (units 1, 2, 7, 8) 581 582 exceed 100mm/year (50mm/year). These sites are also the more efficient in converting rainfall to recharge with 56% (92%) of them having recharge ratios greater than 10% (5%). 583 The wetter conditions as well as seasonal periods of heavy monsoon rain allows deeper 584 585 drainage, despite increased partitioning of rainfall at the land surface by vegetation, steeper terrain, and less permeable soils. Most of the variability between and within Wet tropical 586 landscape units is attributed to differences in annual and seasonal scale water excess (P-PET) 587 and heavy rainfall events (P10). 588

589 Differences in annual recharge and recharge ratio estimates of units 1 (median annual

recharge 115mm/year; median recharge ratio 9%) and 2 (median annual recharge

591 148mm/year; median recharge ratio 14%) could be attributed to greater LAI and Kveg

592 properties in unit 2. However, when comparing the properties of the individual sites we do

not find this relationship. Highland areas (unit 4) show a particularly large variability in the
fraction of precipitation being converted to recharge. This perhaps reflects the high degree of

variability we can expect in highland regions depending upon landscape positioning.

596 *Wet tropical forest (7, 9, 14)*

These areas are characterised by the highest vegetation cover (LAI) and moisture availability (P-PET). We only have three ground-based estimates of annual recharge and recharge ratio within this Recharge Landscape: two in unit 7 and one in 14. The highest annual recharge estimate in our database is located in unit 7, with 31% of rainfall being converted to recharge to allow a rate of 941 mm/yr. Referring to existing literature, we find that in addition to high annual precipitation rates (3050 mm/yr) extensive bedrock fracturing near the land surface enables rapid infiltration and recharge (Kamtchueng et al. 2015).

604 *Karst – present across the other Landscapes (15)*

We do not find a clear pattern whereby the presence of karst at a site indicates higher annual recharge rates or recharge ratios than other sites within a similar setting (Figure 6). When investigating the individual studies, some studies reported karst despite not being identified as such by the global dataset, and vice versa Within settings defined as karst by global datasets, annual recharge rates and recharge ratios increase with increasing annual scale P-PET (see supplemental information).

611 **5 Discussion**

5.1 Which regions of Africa show similar recharge controls when clustered using descriptors derived from global datasets?

We find 15 Recharge Landscape Units within which we expect recharge processes to be 614 similar, according to our clustering result. Only 9 Recharge Landscape Units are needed to 615 characterize over 80% of the continent's land area. Although we initially wanted to 616 617 investigate the potential membership of pixels to multiple Recharge Landscape Units, more than 80% of pixels have a membership greater than 0.8 to their primary unit (please see 618 supplemental information). This is likely due to the high dimensionality of the dataset we are 619 using in the cluster analysis. In light of this, and because we further aggregated our 14 (out of 620 15) Recharge Landscape Units into broader Recharge Landscapes (largely according to 621 climate), we simply used the primary unit membership. The Recharge Landscapes we 622 identify are Desert, Dryland, Wet tropical and Wet tropical forest, which account for 32.5%, 623 26.9%, 24.6% and 8.4% of Africa's land area respectively (total of 92.4%). An additional 624 625 7.25% of the continent's land area is defined by its geology (i.e. karst) and can be found distributed across each of the four previously mentioned Recharge Landscapes (as we would 626 expect according to previous studies, e.g. Hartmann et al., 2017). At the resolution of our 627

classification, climate indices have strong positive correlations with landcover indices 628 (pearson correlation coefficient > 0.7). It is not surprising that our Recharge Landscapes 629 strongly resemble previous climate classifications (Peel et al., 2007; Knoben et al., 2018), 630 because climate is a dominant control on the long-term evolution of land surface and near 631 surface landscape characteristics including topography (Chen et al. 2019), soils and 632 vegetation (Pelletier et al. 2013). It is important to recognise that the classification of places 633 634 may vary temporally (Aleman et al. 2020; Tierney et al. 2017), however as existing continental scale datasets for ground-based recharge estimates only provide long-term mean 635 636 annual rates, we were not currently able to investigate the temporal variability of groundwater recharge and how this relates to changing landscape classification (Sawicz et al. 637 2014). Furthermore, we regard the classification as a tool for analysis rather than something 638

639 unchanging in time.

640 Our Recharge Landscapes broadly resemble the ecozones in classifications by Olson et al. (2001) and Jasechko et al. (2014), which identify five and three different regions across 641 Africa respectively. They are also similar to the five regions delineated by MacDonald et al. 642 (2021) when using aridity classes to investigate the spatial variability of recharge across 643 Africa. Unlike Olson et al. (2001) and Jasechko et al. (2014) we do not aggregate deserts and 644 xeric shrublands, which we instead include in our Dryland Recharge Landscapes. Hence our 645 646 Desert Recharge Landscapes more closely align with the hyper-arid regions delineated by MacDonald et al. (2021), whilst our Dryland Recharge Landscapes also align with their arid 647 and semi-arid regions. By separating dry systems according to the occurrence of vegetation, 648 we differentiate between regions where transpiration has a greater effect on recharge 649 processes (Scott et al., 2006; Cavanaugh et al., 2011; Gebreyohannes et al., 2013). 650 Consequently, we organise the Kalahari Desert as a Dryland, as it is affected by transpiration 651 652 (Foster et al. 1982). Our Dryland Recharge Landscapes can be found throughout the desert,

shrubland and tropical biomes of classifications by Olson et al. (2001) and Jasechko et al. 653 (2014). Thus, previous ecozone classifications may have delineated these regions too broadly. 654 655 We also see that by identifying Dryland Recharge Landscapes with low slope and high bedrock depths (RLU 13), we identified a landscape unit where large seasonal wetlands are 656 likely to occur (Olson et al. 2001). These wetlands include the Okavango delta, the Kafue and 657 Barotse floodplains in Southern Africa; the Sudd Swamps in Eastern Africa; and the inland 658 659 Niger delta, Hadejia-Nguru wetlands and wetlands of Southern Chad in the Sahel. Such wetlands can be significant sources of annually occurring focused groundwater recharge, 660 given soil conditions do not restrict infiltration (Edmunds et al., 1999; Wolski et al., 2006). 661 Unlike the classifications of Olson et al. (2001), Jasechko et al. (2014) and MacDonald et al. 662 (2021), we further disaggregate Desert Recharge Landscapes according to depth to bedrock. 663 In Desert Recharge Landscapes, shallow bedrock depths largely align with mountainous 664 regions, which are often regarded as important recharge zones for current episodic recharge 665 events (Gheith and Sultan 2002; Sultan et al. 2007) and more regular recharge events in 666 previous paleoclimate periods (Sturchio et al. 2004). Our Wet tropical forest Recharge 667 Landscapes largely align with the tropical and subtropical moist forests shown in Olson et al. 668 (2001). Though further disaggregation into units identifies unique regions such as the Swamp 669 forests of the Congo Basin and regions with extreme monsoonal rainfall in the Gulf of 670 Guinea. In contrast, neither Jasechko et al. (2014) nor MacDonald et al. (2021) identify the 671 672 forested regions of their tropical and humid classes, respectively.

673

5.2 How do regions with similar controls compare to ground-based

674 recharge estimates?

In Africa, Recharge Landscapes with greater long-term mean annual recharge rates are alsomore efficient in converting precipitation to recharge, as shown by the higher long-term mean

recharge ratio estimates. We do not know whether this relationship is found across other 677 continents or regions as previous studies investigating the controls on ground-based recharge 678 679 estimates across large spatial scales assess the spatial variability of annual recharge rates only (Moon et al., 2004; Mohan et al., 2018; Moeck et al., 2020; MacDonald et al., 2021). 680 Investigating how recharge signatures interact in space allowed us to advance our 681 conceptualisations of recharge processes across Africa. Though comparative hydrology is 682 683 only just starting to be recognised by observational investigations within the groundwater community (Haaf et al. 2020; Heudorfer et al. 2019), it is well established within the surface 684 685 water community (Addor et al. 2018; Sawicz et al. 2011, 2014) and has already been used in global scale groundwater investigations using global scale modelling products (Cuthbert et 686 al., 2019a). 687

Even though we can explain the variability of ground-based estimates of annual recharge and 688 recharge ratio between different Recharge Landscapes, we have very limited ability to 689 explain why they vary within Recharge Landscapes using global datasets. Wet tropical and 690 Wet tropical forest Recharge Landscapes receive higher rates of annual recharge and are also 691 more efficient in converting precipitation to recharge than Dryland and Desert Recharge 692 Landscapes, as shown by the higher recharge ratio estimates in these places. This is not 693 surprising, as heavy seasonal, monthly and daily rainfall is already known to be important for 694 695 recharge processes in both tropical and dry regions of Africa (Döll and Fiedler 2008; Jasechko and Taylor 2015; Owor et al. 2009; Taylor, Todd, et al. 2013). Furthermore, in 696 agreement with Taylor et al. (2013), we find that mean annual recharge ratios in Dryland 697 Recharge Landscapes, increase with monthly variability in P-PET. However, interactions 698 with other large-scale physical or biological indices offer little further explanation for why 699 ground-based estimates of annual recharge and recharge ratio vary within individual 700 701 Recharge Landscapes. For the most part, our inability to explain the spatial variability of

ground-based recharge estimates within Recharge Landscapes stresses the limitations of 702 global datasets for describing the complex interactions between landscape properties and how 703 704 they control more local recharge processes. It could also be attributed to the scale differences in the resolution of our classification and the representative areas of each of our ground-based 705 estimates. Previous studies trying explain the spatial variability of recharge processes at 706 continental and global scales also mostly establish relationships with broad climate and eco-707 708 hydrological patterns (Jasechko et al., 2014; Cuthbert et al., 2019b; MacDonald et al., 2021). Furthermore, MacDonald et al. (2021) were also unable to explain the more regional/local 709 710 spatial variability in ground-based estimates of recharge using global datasets. More specifically, they found that there are spatial correlations in long-term average recharge rates 711 across Africa up to distances of 900 km, which cannot yet be explained by environmental 712 properties. Ultimately, this suggests a gap between what we can learn from local insight and 713 714 from large scale regionalization, regarding the interaction of environmental properties and their control over recharge processes. This potentially has wider implications as global-scale 715 models which are frequently used to estimate groundwater recharge at these scales (Döll and 716 Fiedler 2008; Wada et al. 2010), typically rely upon assimilating global datasets for climate 717 forcing, characterising the land surface and model parameterisations (Telteu et al. 2021). 718 Nonetheless, understanding which recharge controls are currently identifiable using these 719 methods could help guide the evaluation and future development of continental scale models 720 721 (Gleeson et al. 2021). For example, recharge ratio estimates across the Sahara from PCR-722 GLOBWB are typically greater than 0.2 (Jasechko et al. 2014), whilst our analysis shows they are mostly below 0.04. 723

724 5.3 Looking ahead

Given the limited explanatory power of global datasets as shown in our and other previousstudies, it is likely that continental and global scale modelling of groundwater recharge can
benefit from the implementation of landscape-based conceptualisations of recharge processes 727 and controls (Gao et al. 2018). Hartmann et al. (2015) showed (for carbonate rock regions 728 729 across Europe and Northern Africa) that even relatively simple process conceptualizations capture main differences in recharge dynamics between different large landscape groups. 730 Such conceptual models characterize largely our prior understanding of groundwater recharge 731 in different landscapes. This is likely to be particularly important in data sparse regions where 732 733 we cannot reasonably rely upon model parameterisation schemes that rely heavily on the reliability of soils and other data (Wagener et al. 2021). Adding information through the 734 735 definition of simple system conceptualizations, would enable us to further combine expected hydrologic behaviour of the landscape with widely available datasets (e.g. Cuthbert et al., 736 2019b). By focussing on regionally dominant recharge controls, we can develop more 737 parsimonious mathematical models that are also more appropriate for the data scarcity found 738 in many places (Sarrazin et al., 2018), or specific hydrologic processes of most relevance 739 (Quichimbo et al. 2021). 740



741

742 Figure 8. Application of the recharge landscape classification framework to domains outside of the study region. We used a 743 random forest to transfer our Recharge Landscape Units across the rest of the world, with the previously discussed recharge 744 control indices acting as predictor variables. The random forest model is an ensemble of 25 classification trees each with a 745 maximum of 400 decision splits. The model was trained on data points in Africa which were randomly selected with 746 replacement from a sub-sample of 70% of the Africa data points ('in-bag'). Model testing on 'out of bag' data points found a 747 misclassification rate of just 4%. Areas shown in white are significantly dissimilar to the study region. The criterion for this 748 separation was having mean temperatures below 13.5°C or above 35.5°C and snow fractions above 0.1. We estimated snow 749 fractions by using a simple temperature threshold. Precipitation on days with an average temperature below 1°C is regarded 750 as entirely snowfall whereas it is entirely rainfall on days with an average temperature above 1°C (Berghuijs et al., 2014).

751 We use a global gridded dataset of daily temperature provided by the Climate Prediction Center, NOAA

752 (NOAA/OAR/ESRL PSD). Further details are provided in the supplemental information.

753

The value of comparative hydrology in this context could lie in identifying regions of 754 similarity beyond the direct study domain. As discussed here, specific studies with ground-755 756 based estimates of groundwater recharge are rare – certainly across Africa. Figure 8 shows how the classification approach introduced here would classify other regions of the world if 757 758 applied globally. All areas shown in white are significantly dissimilar to our study domain and hence unsuitable for comparison. However, areas in colour map onto some areas in our 759 domain and thus offer the potential for transferability of knowledge gained from outside our 760 direct study domain. For example, studies in karst regions (shown in red) might complement 761 the rather sparse ground-based measurements available inside Africa, thus offering an 762 opportunity to expand on existing datasets like that compiled by MacDonald et al. (2021). 763

6 Conclusions 764

765 We set out to study the variability of groundwater recharge across Africa through the use of a 766 classification of groundwater recharge controls as landscape elements, utilising global datasets to characterize our *a priori* understanding following an extensive literature review. 767 Our final classification consists of 15 recharge landscape units which are similar across the 768 11 indices we used to describe recharge controls across the continent. We aggregated these 769 Recharge Landscape Units into four larger Recharge Landscapes, including Desert, Dryland, 770 Wet tropical, and Wet tropical forest, which broadly agrees with classifications by Olson et 771 al. (2001) and Jasechko et al. (2014). Karstic environments are treated separately, scattered 772 across each of the Recharge Landscapes we have found. 773

A classification approach has allowed us to consolidate most of the findings from previous 774 studies into a spatial representation of expected recharge controls across the African 775

continent. Much of our previous understanding of recharge processes in Africa was point or 776 plot based, originating from the case studies which have assessed recharge processes and 777 controls throughout the region. We hypothesize that the small number of Recharge 778 779 Landscapes needed to characterize the broader recharge controls of the African landscape, is explained by the dominance of climatic controls, likely connected with the co-evolution of 780 vegetation, soils, and topography. These Recharge Landscapes were useful in organising 781 782 ground-based estimates of annual recharge and recharge ratio. Yet, in exception of Dryland Recharge Landscapes, we were not able to explain the variability of estimated recharge 783 784 signatures within each of the Recharge Landscapes using global datasets alone.

There is still considerable variability in ground-based estimates of groundwater recharge 785 which cannot yet be explained using global datasets. This result highlights the limits of using 786 global datasets to decipher the complex interactions of landscape properties in controlling 787 recharge processes. Nonetheless, future data-based modelling of groundwater recharge at 788 continental scales could be advanced by using methods which explore the relationships 789 between controls and recharge within regions of similarity, instead of across the entire 790 791 continent (MacDonald et al. 2021). Further advancement is also likely to come from the 792 development of system conceptualizations which allow us to add more information than that embedded in global datasets (Wagener et al. 2021). This would lead to a convergence of top-793 794 down strategies (such as classification) with other more bottom-up approaches like the one taken by Cuthbert *et al.* (2019b). Further expanding the study domain using similarity 795 principles might offer a strategy for expanding existing strategies. Furthermore, considering 796 the co-evolution of multiple landscape properties could help further separate the 797 hydrologically relevant behaviour of different places (Troch et al. 2013), which in turn could 798 help the predictive ability of global datasets used in model parameterisations. Currently such 799

38

800 expected hydrologic behaviour (derived from literature reviews), is only considered through801 the definition of appropriate predictor variables.

802 Finally, as meta-analysis databases become more common in continental and global scale

hydrological studies (Moeck et al. 2020; Wang et al. 2020), we would like to stress the

- 804 importance of thorough quality assurance in their initial development. Our findings from
- these studies depend upon strong underlying datasets and it is unlikely future studies will
- assess the quality of these datasets when investigating or expanding upon them. For the same
- reasons, the initial development of these databases should also ensure that additional meta-
- 808 information is comprehensive.

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