

1 **ADHI: The African Database of Hydrometric Indices**

2 **(1950-2018)**

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51 Revised manuscript

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81 **Abstract**

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83 The African continent is probably the one with the lowest density of hydrometric stations
84 currently measuring river discharge, despite the fact that the number of operating stations
85 was quite important until the 70s. This new African Database of Hydrometric Indices
86 (ADHI) provides a wide range of hydrometric indices and hydrological signatures
87 computed from different sources of data after a quality control. It includes 1466 stations
88 with at least 10 years of daily discharge data over the period 1950-2018. The average
89 record length is 33 years and 131 stations have complete records over 50 years. With
90 this new dataset spanning most climatic regions of the African continent, several
91 hydrometric indices have been computed, representing mean flow characteristics and
92 extremes (low flows and floods), that are made accessible to the scientific community.
93 The database will be updated on a regular basis to include more hydrometric stations and
94 longer time series of river discharge. The ADHI database is available for download at:
95 <https://doi.org/10.23708/LXGXQ9> (Tramblay and Rouché, 2020).

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98 **1. Introduction**

99

100 There is a growing need for large-scale streamflow archives (Addor et al., 2020; Hannah
101 et al., 2011), that are extremely useful to evaluate continental land-surface simulations
102 (Archfield et al., 2015; Newman et al., 2015; Ghiggi et al., 2019; Do et al., 2020), remote
103 sensing data products (Beck et al., 2017; Brocca et al., 2019; Forootan et al., 2019; Satgé
104 et al., 2020), develop operational flood or drought monitoring systems (Alfieri et al., 2020;
105 Harrigan et al., 2020; Lavers et al., 2019; Thiemig et al., 2011), or evaluate aquifer
106 outflows and characteristics (Dewandel et al., 2003, 2004). In Africa, the density of active
107 monitoring networks is lower compared to other continents and there are challenges in
108 the exchange of hydrometric data across countries (Mahé and Olivry, 1999; Viglione et
109 al., 2010; Mahe et al., 2013; Stewart, 2015; Dixon et al., 2020).

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111 African countries are largely under-represented in large-scale databases such as the
112 Global Runoff Data Center (GRDC) or the recent GSIM initiative (Do et al., 2018;
113 Gudmundsson et al., 2018), and/or the time series are mostly not updated. At the African
114 scale, there is still a lack of coordination for hydrological data collection and
115 dissemination, despite the launch in 1975 of the UNESCO Intergovernmental
116 Hydrological Program (IHP) dedicated to water research, water resources management,
117 as well as education and capacity building. This initiative enhanced the set up and

118 management of international rainfall and runoff databases at the regional scale of the
119 FRIEND programs (Van Lanen et al., 2014), but these are still largely not updated. There
120 is still not enough partnership between the national hydrological services and in many
121 countries licensing issues prevent the distribution of the data collected.
122

123 The density of monitoring networks in Africa has been declining over time; a serious
124 concern for hydrologists since data acquisition and experimental data analysis remain
125 central to understand hydrological processes and their spatio-temporal variability
126 (Hannah et al., 2011; Roudier et al., 2014; Blume et al., 2016; Beven et al., 2020). There
127 are several reasons for this decline: the budgetary austerity measures imposed by the
128 international financial institutions, the lack of permanent funding of national hydrological
129 services, and the typically low number of well-trained technical staff in these departments
130 (Bodian et al., 2016, 2020; Hannah et al., 2011). As a result, hydrological monitoring is
131 now often dependent on research projects that cannot support long term observations.
132 Studies focusing on regional river discharge variability are rare at the scale of Africa due
133 to the lack of data. For instance, Conway et al. (2009) could only present a study on a
134 reduced number of representative regional basins, and Roudier et al. (2014) compared
135 only published anomaly results in their review of climate change impacts on the hydrology
136 of West Africa.
137

138 Since in many cases, there are strict conditions related to the redistribution of un-
139 processed data (Do et al., 2018), it is very often not possible to provide the complete time
140 series of discharge data. To address these challenges, the focus has been shifted to
141 publishing hydrological indices and signatures, which are useful to to characterize the
142 behavior of different components of river discharge, from low flows, annual runoff to floods
143 (Addor et al., 2018; McMillan et al., 2017), and to assess the potential impact of climate
144 change and human activities on river regimes (Mahe et al., 2013). They can be used for
145 various purposes, including basin classifications, aquifer properties characterization,
146 hydrological predictions in ungauged catchments (Westerberg et al., 2016, Gnann et al.,
147 2020) and to investigate long term trends for different hydrological processes (Do et al.,
148 2017; Nka et al., 2015). We introduce here the African Dataset of Hydrometric Indices
149 (ADHI) that aims at giving access to an ensemble of hydrometric indices computed from
150 an unprecedented large ensemble of stations with daily discharge data (Tramblay et al.,
151 2020, Tramblay and Rouché, 2020). Thus, useful information regarding the African rivers'
152 variability over the last 68 years can be shared with the international community, while
153 respecting the confidentiality of the original records when these are not allowed to be
154 publicly shared by the national authorities.
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157 **2. Data sources and processing**

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159 **2.1 Data collection**

160

161 The database used in the present work is based on the collection of stations from the
162 Global Runoff Data Center (GRDC) and the SIEREM database (Boyer et al., 2006; Dieulin
163 et al., 2019). The hydro-climatological data contained in SIEREM is the legacy from the
164 former *Laboratoire d'Hydrologie* of the *Office de la recherche scientifique et technique*
165 *outré-mer* (ORSTOM, now *Institut de Recherche pour le Développement*, IRD, France).
166 It must be noted that in addition to the daily data, the SIEREM database also contains
167 instantaneous rainfall and discharge for hundreds of experimental small catchments
168 mostly established in the 1950s and 1960s. The criterion to include a station in the ADHI
169 database is to have a minimum of 10 full years, not necessarily consecutive, of daily
170 discharge data between 1950 and 2018. Most of the hydrological stations in French-
171 speaking countries have been set up and managed for decades by the ORSTOM Institute
172 (Mahe and Olivry, 1999). At the time the data were processed, the SIEREM database
173 included a total of 1046 series, with several of them being duplicates of the same
174 monitoring station but for different time periods. There are a total of 101 stations with 2
175 times series, 42 stations with 3 time series, 24 stations with 4 time series and 7 stations
176 with 5 time series. In most cases, one time series includes the longest record and that
177 one was kept for the analysis in the present paper. For some stations, the different time
178 series were differing substantially during the same period, due to different rating curves.
179 A visual inspection of these series led to the elimination of erroneous or doubtful data.
180 Only for 17 stations the time series were concatenated, after making sure the rating
181 curve(s) applied on the different time periods to compute river discharge were adequate,
182 by comparing daily runoff on a common period. Additionally, to these 1046 series, 933
183 stations have been retrieved from the GRDC database. For 106 of these stations, there
184 was a duplicate station in the SIEREM database with longer time series and the latter
185 were selected. After this data quality processing step, 672 stations were kept for SIEREM
186 and 794 for the GRDC database for a total of 1466 stations (Figure 1). The stations from
187 SIEREM mostly cover the Western, Central and Northern African regions and stations
188 from the GRDC the Eastern and Southern parts of Africa. Figure 2 depicts the number of
189 stations available per year, showing a sharp decline at the end of the 1980s, and shows
190 the number of stations having from 10 to 69 years of record. It can be seen that, for about
191 100 stations, complete records are available over 50 years.

192

193 **2.2 Data quality**

194

195 Since the data collected are sometimes from manual records, they are subject to possible
196 errors in the reporting of discharge values. For outlier detection, no single method can
197 outperform visual inspection and local expert knowledge (Crochemore et al., 2020).

198 Indeed, in rivers with a strong variability in the annual regime and extremes, the most
199 important flood peaks may be wrongly reported as outliers. Consequently, we carried out
200 a visual inspection of the data when the maximum value was exceeding 5 times the
201 median discharge. For only a few data points in the discharge time series, some obvious
202 errors were detected with daily discharge exceeding by several orders of magnitude the
203 median flow. In these cases, the data has been reported as missing data in an absence
204 of an objective criterion to correct the record. In addition, through visual inspection it was
205 possible to identify stations where some gap filling methods have been applied (13
206 stations) or where the data are suspicious (28 stations). A flag has been added in the
207 metadata to identify these stations. It is worth noting that, for the stations of the SIEREM
208 database, most of the data were analyzed and criticized prior to the inclusion in the
209 database by the former ORSTOM hydrology laboratory, with therefore a reduced level of
210 error in the archived data.

211
212 In addition, to detect possible shifts in the data due to non-natural influences, such as an
213 artificial drift in the monitoring devices, changing instrumentation, recalibration of the
214 rating curve, or river regulation by dams or reservoirs, the Pettitt test (Pettitt, 1979) was
215 applied to mean annual runoff series. We reported the cases when the null hypothesis of
216 homogeneity was rejected, at the 5% significance level. 14 stations are reported with
217 homogeneity breaks in the metadata and this result was consistent with a visual
218 inspection. Since the possible causes of these changes in flow regime could be manifold
219 and should be investigated with a more detailed case-by-case analysis, we choose to
220 keep these stations in the database, but to flag them accordingly.

221

222 **2.3 Climate characteristics**

223

224 This data collection results in the largest ever built database of daily discharge data in
225 Africa. These stations belong to different climate zones (Figure 1), according to the
226 Köppen-Geiger climate classification (Peel et al., 2007). The main climate zone
227 represented is Savannah (class Aw) for 687 stations corresponding to west and central
228 Africa basins. The second most represented climate zone is Steppe-hot (Bsh) for 207
229 stations located in the Sahel region and southern Africa (Botswana, Namibia). The
230 temperate with dry winter classes (Cwa and Cwb) include 187 and 125 stations,
231 respectively located in southern Africa (Zambia, Angola, Rwanda, Mozambique, South
232 Africa and Zimbabwe). The 98 stations belonging to the Desert-hot class (Bwh) are mostly
233 located in the northern and southern boundaries of the Sahara Desert. 87 Stations under
234 a temperate climate with dry hot summer, corresponding to Mediterranean climate (Csa)
235 are found in North Africa and the southwestern part of South Africa. Thus, the selected
236 river basins are representative of most of the climate zones in Africa. It must be noted
237 that for large basins, such as the Congo, Niger or even the Orange rivers, the climate

238 type at the outlet may not be representative of the whole catchment, that may span over
239 diverse climate zones.

240
241 To document the mean annual precipitation and evapotranspiration at the catchment
242 scale, the CRU4 dataset has been considered (Harris et al., 2020). However, without
243 long-term and homogeneous ground monitoring networks over the African continent, no
244 best precipitation database could be identified for Africa as a whole (Sylla et al., 2013;
245 Beck et al., 2017; Awange et al., 2019; Satgé et al., 2020). For some regions, such as
246 Northern or Equatorial Africa, there are large differences between different remote
247 sensing or gauged-based precipitation products (Gehne et al., 2016; Harrison et al., 2019;
248 Nogueira, 2020), in particular for extreme precipitation events. This is the reason why we
249 choose to provide only mean annual precipitation, evapotranspiration and temperature.
250 This implies that the ADHI dataset does not provide metrics relying on time series of
251 precipitation or evapotranspiration, such as the runoff ratio, streamflow-precipitation
252 elasticity or catchment response time. To calculate these indices requiring climatic time
253 series for a given catchment, the user is advised to check first the best available data for
254 that area.

255

256 **2.4 Catchment delineation**

257

258 Station catchments areas have been delineated with the Hydroshed Digital Elevation
259 Model (DEM) at 15 sec resolution using the TopoToolbox2 algorithm (Schwanghart and
260 Scherler, 2014). The map of the catchments is shown in Figure 3. Despite a careful check
261 of the geographic coordinates of the stations, this type of automatic catchment delineation
262 procedure is prone to some errors, in particular in regions with low elevation and flat
263 terrain properties. This is particularly the case of catchments with endoreic areas, such
264 as the Niger, Chari and Logone basins, where the precision of the DEM is crucial to
265 identify these areas. Since the gauge locations are not necessarily located on the streams
266 derived from the DEM, The TopoToolbox2 makes possible to re-locate automatically the
267 gauges on the nearest river stream. However, this procedure did not work for 61
268 catchments, with a catchment area error exceeding 10% compared to the available
269 metadata. For these basins, a manual procedure with the Arcmap® software has been
270 implemented to delineate the catchment boundaries from flow direction maps. In addition,
271 for several hundred of catchments it was possible to compare the results of the catchment
272 delineation procedure with the catchment areas available in the SIEREM database and
273 the ORSTOM reports (available online at the adress:
274 <https://horizon.documentation.ird.fr>), which have been most often individually delineated
275 and carefully checked from ground knowledge over the years (Dieulin and Boyer, 2005).

276

277 From the catchment delineated, the mean, maximum and minimum altitude from the
278 Hydroshed DEM have been extracted and included in the metadata. In addition, the
279 European Space Agency Climate Change Initiative Land cover data (ESA-CCI LC) (ESA,
280 2017) has been extracted for each catchment for the year 2015. This database contains
281 land cover maps at a 300m spatial resolution for 38 classes, compliant with the UN Land
282 Cover Classification System (LCCS). The classes have been grouped into 8 new classes:
283 forest, urban areas, cropland, irrigated croplands, grassland, shrubland, sparse
284 vegetation and bare land. Overall, the basins are characterized by a low proportion of
285 urban areas, a large proportion of forests, especially in the intertropical zone (mean =
286 41%, median = 37%), and a majority of non-irrigated cultivated area, on average covering
287 31% of the total area of the basins. Indeed, the irrigated crops represent only 0.43% on
288 average.

289

290 **2.5 River regulation**

291

292 Dams and reservoirs have also been extracted and added in the metadata of the stations.
293 The Global Reservoir and Dam Database (GRanD) v1.3 (Lehner et al., 2011) has also
294 been considered to identify regulated basins. The number of dams included in each river
295 basin has been extracted using the catchment boundaries. As shown in the metadata of
296 GRanD, most of the dams in Africa basins have been constructed around the 1970s
297 (Figure 4). The rivers could be considered regulated if at least one dam exists in the
298 catchment area, otherwise the river is considered natural (Figure 5). However, the
299 influence of dams and reservoirs on the flow regime are linked to the location of the
300 regulation structure, the portion of the basin controlled, and the management strategies.
301 For instance, in a large basin with only one dam located on a small headwater catchment,
302 its influence may not be distinguishable at the river outlet. On the other hand, a station
303 located immediately downstream a dam outlet may have its flow regime strongly impacted
304 by dam operations. It should be also noted that other regulation structures like small dams
305 or water diversion channels that may not be included in the GRanD database could be
306 present in the catchments considered natural (Lehner et al., 2011; Pekel et al., 2016).
307 This is particularly the case in semi-arid areas where earthen-made channels, often
308 informal, draw their water supply from the river itself, by building small diverting structures
309 (Underhill, 1984; Kimmage, 1991). They can represent a large number of structures, but
310 a variable amount of water withdrawal at the basin scale (Barbier et al., 2009; Bouimouass
311 et al., 2020). Similarly, no data is available yet on the importance and impact of
312 groundwater abstraction, if any, on the flow regime measured at the stations.

313

314 **3. Hydrometric indices**

315

316 Here is presented the list of indices computed from daily discharge data. While
317 hydrological indices refer to standard statistical metrics, such as the mean, maximum, or
318 percentiles computed from time series of discharge data, hydrological signatures can be
319 defined as metrics describing the hydrological behavior and the dominant processes in a
320 river basin (Addor et al., 2018). Most of the indices are computed with the Toolbox for
321 Streamflow Signatures in Hydrology (TOSSH, available at the address:
322 <https://github.com/TOSSHtoolbox/>) (Gnann et al., 2021). The indices and signatures
323 selected spans a large variety of runoff characteristics from high to low flows, from
324 previous literature (Poff et al., 1997; Richter et al., 1996; Baker et al., 2004; Yadav et al.,
325 2007; Clark et al., 2009; Estrany et al., 2010; Sawicz et al., 2011; Euser et al., 2013;
326 Safeeq et al., 2013; Addor et al., 2018; McMillan, 2020).

327

328 **3.1 Available streamflow signatures and indices derived from daily discharge**

329

330 Several signatures charactering baseflow rely on the application of a base flow filter.
331 Since the choice of the baseflow separation method can introduce uncertainties in the
332 calculation of these signatures (Su et al., 2016), two baseflow filtering methods are
333 compared: the Lyne and Hollick recursive digital filter (Ladson et al., 2013), with the
334 default values for the filter parameter (0.925) and the number of passes (3), and
335 alternatively the UKIH smoothed minima method (UKIH, 1980), that does not require any
336 calibration parameter. The base flow index (BFI) is the ratio between the baseflow volume
337 and the total streamflow volume. The baseflow recession (BaseflowR) is the baseflow
338 recession constant assuming an exponential recession behavior (Safeeq et al., 2013).
339 The base baseflow magnitude calculates the difference between the minimum and the
340 maximum of the baseflow regime, defined as the average baseflow on each calendar day.
341 The two base flow separation method compared to compute the baseflow-related indices
342 provide very similar results, with a correlation above 0.9 for all indices obtained with the
343 two approaches.

344

345 To compute the mean half flow date and the mean half flow interval, the beginning of the
346 hydrological year has been defined as the month following the month with the minimum
347 average runoff. Indeed, the hydrological year has different starting dates across the
348 African continent, in North Africa the hydrological year usually starts in September, in
349 western Africa around March-April and in January for southern Africa. The mean half flow
350 date is the day when the cumulative discharge reaches half of the annual discharge. The
351 mean half flow interval is the time span between: i) the date on which the cumulative
352 discharge since the start of water year reaches a quarter of the annual discharge and
353 ii) the date on which the cumulative discharge since the start of water year reaches three
354 quarters of annual discharge.

355

356 Some metrics are derived from the calculation of the Flow duration Curve (FDC), such as
357 its slope between the 33rd and 66th flow percentiles (McMillan et al., 2017), the peak
358 distribution, the slope between the 10th and the 50th percentiles of the FDC constructed
359 only with hydrographs peaks (Euser et al., 2013) and the variability index, the standard
360 deviation of the logarithms of discharge from 10th to the 90th percentiles of the FDC
361 (Estrany et al., 2010). It must be noted that 194 rivers have more than 50% of days with
362 zero-flow and for these stations, but also all the others with an intermittent regime, several
363 metrics derived from the Flow Duration Curve (FDC) are not adapted. For these basins,
364 specific methods to estimate the FDC should be applied (Rianna et al., 2013). Similarly,
365 there is no baseflow in these basins. Consequently, the indices relying to base flow or the
366 flow duration curve are not computed for these basins.

367
368 In addition, different hydrological signatures describing the hydrologic responses of the
369 basins are also provided. The flashiness index is defined as the sum of absolute
370 differences between consecutive daily flows (Baker et al., 2004), it reflects the frequency
371 and rapidity of short term changes in streamflow, especially during high runoff events.
372 The number of master recession curves (MRC) is computed from the changes in
373 recession slopes, and represent different reservoirs contributing to the runoff response
374 (Clark et al., 2009; Estrany et al., 2010). This signature can help to understand the
375 functional forms of storage–discharge relationships and identify model structures adapted
376 to represent it. The rising limb density is the ratio between the number of rising limbs and
377 the total amount of timesteps in the hydrograph (Sawicz et al., 2011). It is a descriptor of
378 the hydrograph shape and smoothness, without consideration for the flow magnitude.
379 Small values of the rising limb density indicate a smooth hydrograph.

380
381 From the supplied indices, some other useful indicators could be derived. For example,
382 for hydrogeology applications it would be interesting to compute the low stage specific
383 discharge that is the ratio between the low-stage discharge and the area of the watershed.
384 This can be an indicator of aquifers' contribution to river discharge. The main issue is
385 related to the definition of the low-stage discharge. From the indices proposed in the
386 present database, it could be 5th percentiles of daily streamflow or the minimum of 7-
387 days consecutive streamflow, per year. Similarly, the low-flow index could be computed
388 from the ratio of the 90th and 50th percentiles of daily streamflow (Smakhtin, 2001).

389 390 **3.2 Indices computed on the whole record**

391
392 These indices have been computed using the whole time series available for each
393 station. Consequently, they are computed on different base periods depending on the
394 stations, with the period of record for each station being made available in the
395 metadata. These indices are listed in table 1.

396
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Table 1: Hydrometric indices in the ADHI database

Hydrological regime	Mean daily streamflow, the arithmetic mean of daily data
	Standard deviation of daily streamflow
	Minimum daily streamflow
	Maximum daily streamflow
	Mean monthly streamflow (12 values from January to December)
	5th, 10th, 25th, 50th, 75th, 90th, 95th and 99th percentiles of daily streamflow
	Frequency of zero-flow days
Baseflow	Baseflow index
	Baseflow magnitude
	Baseflow recession
Seasonality	Mean half flow date
	Mean half flow interval
Variability	lag-1 autocorrelation of flow
	lag-7 autocorrelation of flow
	Slope of flow duration curve
	Coefficient of variation of runoff
	Peak distribution
	Variability index
	Variance of runoff
Hydrological response	Richards-Baker flashiness index
	Skewness of runoff
	Rising limb density
	Number of master recession curves

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400 The basins included in the ADHI database include a wide range of catchment areas, from
401 a few square kilometers to several hundred thousand, in the case of large rivers such as
402 the Congo, Niger, Orange, Zambezi, Senegal, Okavango and Volta. As shown in Figure
403 6, the average runoff is generally well correlated to the size of the basins with
404 nevertheless a variability linked to local climatic and geological conditions. The mean
405 annual precipitation is one of the explanatory factors of the observed ranges of mean river
406 runoff, but also strongly modulated by local conditions. A large number of basins have an
407 aridity index (ratio between precipitation and potential evapotranspiration) of less than
408 0.60, indicative of arid to semi-arid conditions (figure 7a). The varying degrees of aridity
409 encountered in the basins are an important explanatory factor for the hydrological
410 response at the African scale. For instance, the coefficient of variation of runoff (figure
411 7b) or the flashiness index (figure 7c) have greater values under conditions of increasing
412 aridity.

413
414

3.3 Indices computed on monthly or annual basis

415
416 These indices have been computed for each calendar year, for consistency with other
417 databases such as GSIM (Do et al., 2018; Gudmundsson et al., 2018). These indices
418 have been computed for the years with less than 5% missing data:

- 419
- 420 1. Mean annual runoff
 - 421 2. Minimum of 7-days consecutive streamflow, per year, and corresponding date
 - 422 3. Annual maximum runoff, and the corresponding date
 - 423 4. Annual values for the 5th, 10th, 25th, 50th 75th, 90th, 95th and 99th percentiles
424 of daily streamflow

425
426 In addition to these annual series, the monthly time series contains for each month the
427 mean, maximum and minimum runoff, the last column being the number of missing days
428 per month. There is one file per station. It is advised to consider the monthly values only
429 for the months with no missing values, or missing values less than 10% or 5%.

430
431 These time series make it possible to analyze the long-term evolution of mean and
432 extreme runoff (Tramblay et al., 2020), but can also be useful to validate hydrological
433 modelling results. Focusing on extreme high and low runoff, very different seasonal
434 patterns of occurrence could be observed for different regions of Africa. On figure 8 are
435 plotted the mean dates of annual maximum runoff and the annual minimum of 7-day
436 runoff. This seasonal analysis has been performed with directional statistics (Burn, 1997;
437 Mardia et al., 2015): the dates of occurrence were converted into angular values to
438 compute the mean date of occurrence (θ) together with the concentration index (r), which
439 is a measure of the flood occurrences variability around the mean date. The annual
440 maximum runoff shows three distinct patterns (Figure 8): First, stations with floods
441 occurring during December-February in northern and southern Africa, with a strong
442 variability of their date of occurrence. Second, the stations in western Africa with floods
443 occurring during summer and a low seasonal variability. Third, the stations in central-
444 south Africa, with floods occurring in boreal spring and early summer with various degrees
445 of variability depending on the sub-region considered and the level of aridity. For annual
446 minimum runoff, the patterns are usually reversed, with the low flow period spanning on
447 average during June to October in North Africa, January-March in western Africa, and
448 between September and November in southeast Africa. Yet this global picture hides local
449 behaviors such East-West contrast in southern Africa or the North-South gradient in West
450 Africa (Mahe et al., 2013). Similarly, the observed variability even for some neighboring
451 catchments reflects the local influences of topography, soils and land cover. As noted
452 previously, the seasonal variability of extreme high or low runoff events is also strongly
453 related to the catchment aridity.

454

4. Data availability

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456

457 The ADHI database is available for download at: <https://doi.org/10.23708/LXGXQ9>
 458 (Tramblay and Rouché, 2020). Different files are supplied in the AHDI database. The
 459 ADHI_stations.tab file contains the station metadata (Table 2) and the
 460 ADHI_summary.tab file contains for each station the variables described in table 3.

461

462 Table 2: Catchment metadata in the file ADHI_stations.tab

463

Catchment characteristics	Description
Unique identifier for each station	
Station code	native code from the original data source
Station Name	
Data source	SIEREM or GRDC
Catchment area (km ²)	Computed from HydroShed DEM
Mean Altitude (m)	Computed from HydroShed DEM
Maximum Altitude (m)	Computed from HydroShed DEM
Minimum Altitude (m)	Computed from HydroShed DEM
Mean annual precipitation (mm)	CRU4
Mean annual evapotranspiration (mm)	CRU4
Mean annual temperature (°C)	CRU4
Forest cover (%)	ESA-CCI Land Cover 2015
Urban areas (%)	ESA-CCI Land Cover 2015
Cropland (%)	ESA-CCI Land Cover 2015
Cropland, irrigated (%)	ESA-CCI Land Cover 2015
Grassland (%)	ESA-CCI Land Cover 2015
Shrubland (%)	ESA-CCI Land Cover 2015
Sparse vegetation (%)	ESA-CCI Land Cover 2015
Bare land (%)	ESA-CCI Land Cover 2015
Starting year of the data records	
Ending year of the data records	
Longitude of the station (WGS84)	
Latitude of the station (WGS84)	
Number of dams	GrandD v1.3
Country	
Flag	0: no identified data issue, 1: some gap filling detected, 2: suspicious data, 3: Obvious regime break

464

465 Table 3: Hydrometric indices in the file ADHI_summary.tab

466

Variable Name	Description
Mean_q	Mean daily streamflow (m ³ /s)

Std_q	Standard deviation of daily streamflow
Mini_q	Minimum daily streamflow
Maxi_q	Maximum daily streamflow
Jan_q, Fev_q... Dec_q	Mean monthly streamflow (12 values from January to December)
q5th, q10th, q25th, q50th q75th, q90th, q95th and q99th	Percentiles of daily streamflow
BFI_LH	Baseflow index, with the Lyne and Hollick baseflow separation method
BFI_UKIH	Baseflow index, with the UK Institute of Hydrology baseflow separation method
BaseflowR	Baseflow recession
BaseflowM_LH	Baseflow magnitude, with the Lyne and Hollick baseflow separation method
BaseflowM_UKIH	Baseflow magnitude, with the UK Institute of Hydrology baseflow separation method
CoV	Coefficient of variation of runoff
HFD_mean	Mean half flow date
HFI_mean	Mean half flow interval
AC1	Lag-1 autocorrelation of flow
AC7	Lag-7 autocorrelation of flow
FDC_slop	Slope of flow duration curve
PeakDistri	Peak distribution
FlashI	Richards-Baker flashiness index
MRC_num	Number of master recession curves
Q_skew	Skewness of runoff
Q_var	Variance of daily runoff
RLD	Rising limb density
VariI	Variability index
Freq_0	Frequency of zero-flow days

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The compressed folders AnnualMean.zip, AnnualMax.zip, Annual7DayMin.zip, AnnualPercentiles.zip contains time series for mean annual runoff, annual maximum runoff, annual minimum of 7-day discharge and annual values for the 5th, 10th, 25th, 50th 75th, 90th, 95th and 99th percentiles of daily streamflow. There is one file per station. The data files for the annual mean, maximum and 7 days minimum contains as columns the year, month, day and the data as the last column. The data files for the percentiles contains the year as first column and then the other columns contain the percentile values.

478 The compressed folder MonthlySeries.zip contains as columns (after the year and
479 month) the mean, maximum and minimum monthly runoff, the last column is the number
480 of missing days per month. There is one file per station.

481
482 The compressed folder Plots.zip contains for each station a plot of the daily discharge
483 data available.

484
485 The compressed folder Catchment_boundaries.zip contains the catchment boundaries
486 in the shapefile format (one .shp file per basin).

487
488 The compressed folder Catchment_plots.zip contains for each basin a plot of the
489 catchment area in .PNG format.

490

491 **5. Conclusions and perspectives**

492

493 This new hydrological database brings together the largest number of African river flow
494 measurement stations, in comparison with other previously published datasets. In this
495 ADHI dataset, we included a total of 1466 stations with at least 10 years of discharge data
496 between 1950 and 2018, for a mean record length of 33.3 years. Half of the stations have
497 more than 30 years of data. By comparison, the recent GSIM database contains 979
498 stations in Africa, with a record length varying from 1 year to 110 years until 2015, and a
499 mean record length of 33.8 years. This ADHI database results from a pooling of the GRDC
500 and SIEREM databases, built from contributions of several agencies in African countries
501 in charge of the management of hydrological measurement networks. This database will
502 be regularly updated with data from SIEREM and GRDC. Since most of the pre-
503 processing steps have been automated, it would be possible to increase the number of
504 stations considered or the length of the data series, if more data would become available.
505 The data from the SIEREM database is already regularly updated from contributions of
506 different institutes. In the future, individual contributions from researchers or institutes will
507 be also welcome to increase the spatio-temporal coverage of the data. The FRIEND
508 program (UNESCO/IHP) will also contribute to increase the number of stations through
509 coordinated efforts at the regional level. The dataset provides a series of indices that
510 describes a wide range of mean and extreme runoff properties, allowing the
511 characterization of the hydrological regime and applications linked to the management of
512 water resources and hydrological risks. This database includes different catchment sizes
513 and rivers with different hydrological regimes that makes possible to analyze the behavior
514 of rivers in very different contexts for a wide range of scales.

515

516 More broadly, this ADHI database could contribute to a better knowledge on African
517 hydrology. For instance, the impacts of dams on river discharge remains largely

518 unquantified at the scale of Africa (Biemans et al., 2011). From these indices, various
519 applications can be sought. For example, the percentiles of the daily streamflow could be
520 useful to calibrate hydrological models using the flow duration curve (McMillan et al.,
521 2017) and to constrain model outputs (Tumbo and Hughes, 2015; Ndzabandzaba and
522 Hughes, 2017). Flow duration curves are also useful for catchment classification
523 according to their rainfall-runoff response (Cheng et al., 2012). In the recent years, global
524 runoff simulations have been provided by the Global Flow Awareness System, with land
525 surface or global hydrological model driven by reanalysis data (Alfieri et al., 2020;
526 Harrigan et al., 2020). Yet, due to the small number of stations representing African basins
527 in the currently available databases preventing a robust calibration of the models, the
528 hydrological simulations have a poor performance (Harrigan et al., 2020). More generally,
529 this new ADHI database could open perspectives to apply hydrological models in African
530 basins, in particular combined with recent remote sensing data products (Brocca et al.,
531 2019; Satgé et al., 2020). Beside deterministic hydrological modelling approaches,
532 several statistical methods to estimate the return levels of floods have been proposed, in
533 order to safely design dams, reservoirs, sewers or other water regulation structures.
534 Regional frequency analysis methods have been applied to estimate floods in ungauged
535 basins in several African countries such as Morocco (Zkhiri et al., 2017), Tunisia (Ellouze
536 and Abida, 2008), South Africa (Nathanael et al., 2018; Smakhtin et al., 1997), or the
537 Volta basin (Komi et al., 2016). However studies at a larger regional scale remain very
538 scarce (Farquharson et al., 1992; Padi et al., 2011) while there is a strong need to improve
539 the knowledge on hydrological hazards in African countries (Di Baldassarre et al., 2010).
540 With this recent database becoming available, it could be possible to develop regional
541 frequency analysis techniques for floods or low flows tailored for the African context,
542 taking also into account the impacts of global changes.

543

544 **Acknowledgements**

545

546 River runoff has been obtained from The Global Runoff Data Centre, 56068 Koblenz,
547 Germany and included in the database with their authorization. We would like to thank
548 the GRDC (<https://www.bafg.de/GRDC/>) for granting access to their data. A large part of
549 the data processed in the present study comes from the SIEREM database
550 (<http://www.hydrosciences.fr/sierem>), and the authors wish to express their gratitude to
551 all the persons who contributed to this database over the years. The authors wish to thank
552 Sebastian Gnann for his assistance and feedback with the TOSSH toolbox
553 (<https://github.com/TOSSHtoolbox/>).

554

555 The database is available from the online repository: <https://doi.org/10.23708/LXGXQ9>
556 Additional indices could be computed upon reasonable request to the corresponding
557 author.

558
 559 This work is dedicated to the memory of Claudine Dieulin who passed away in January
 560 2020 during the course of this project
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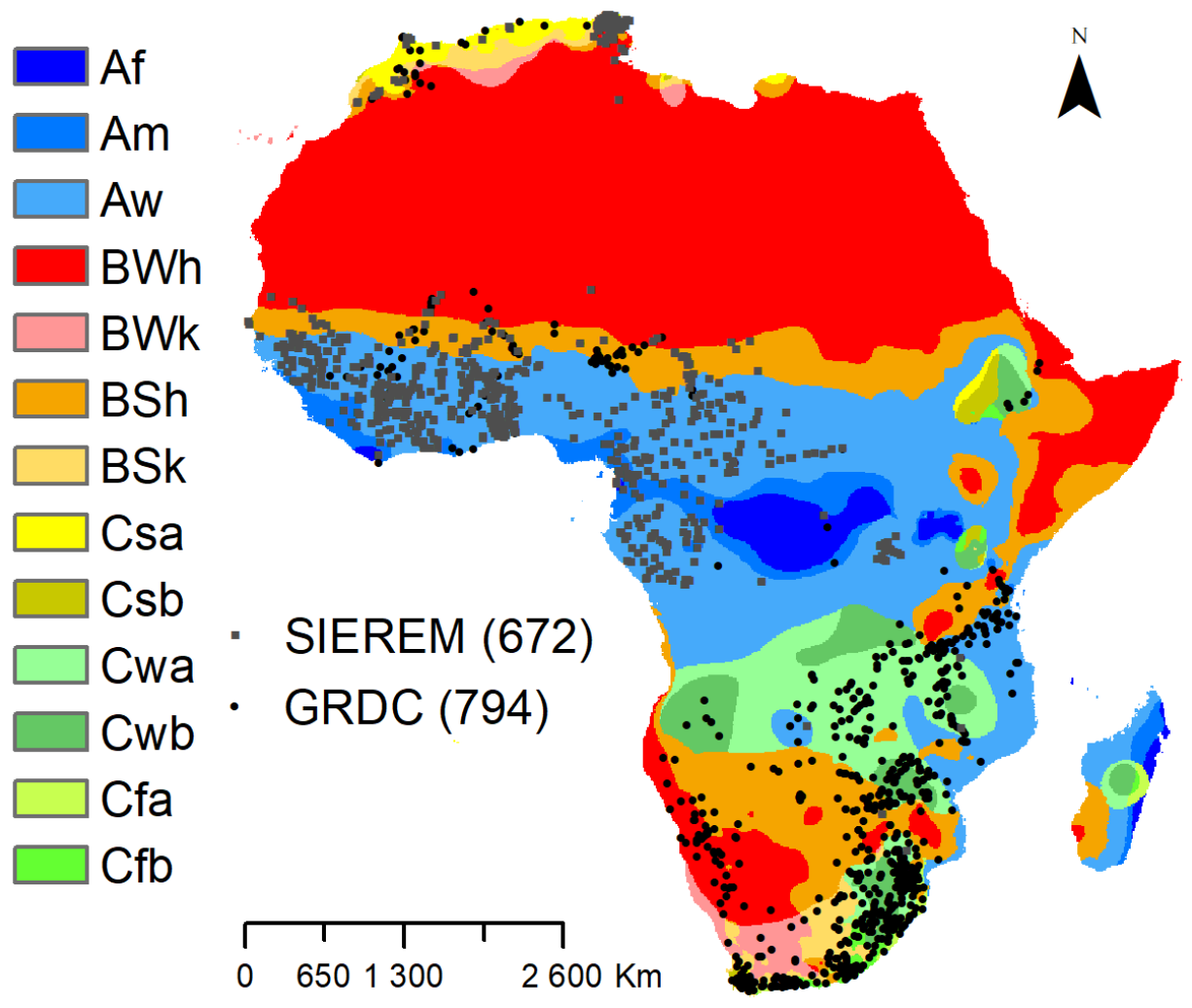
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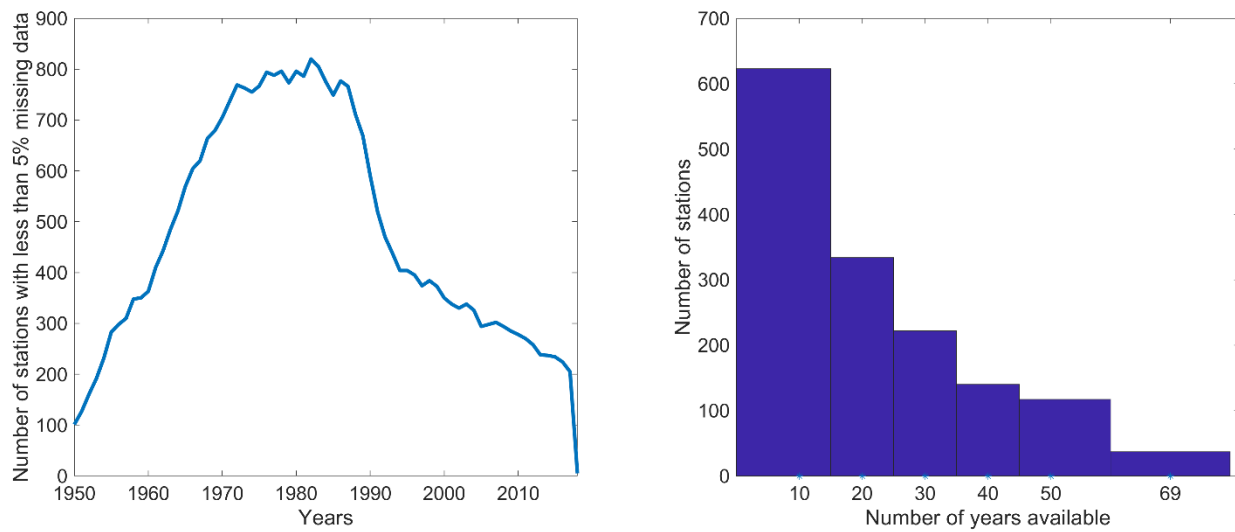
Figures



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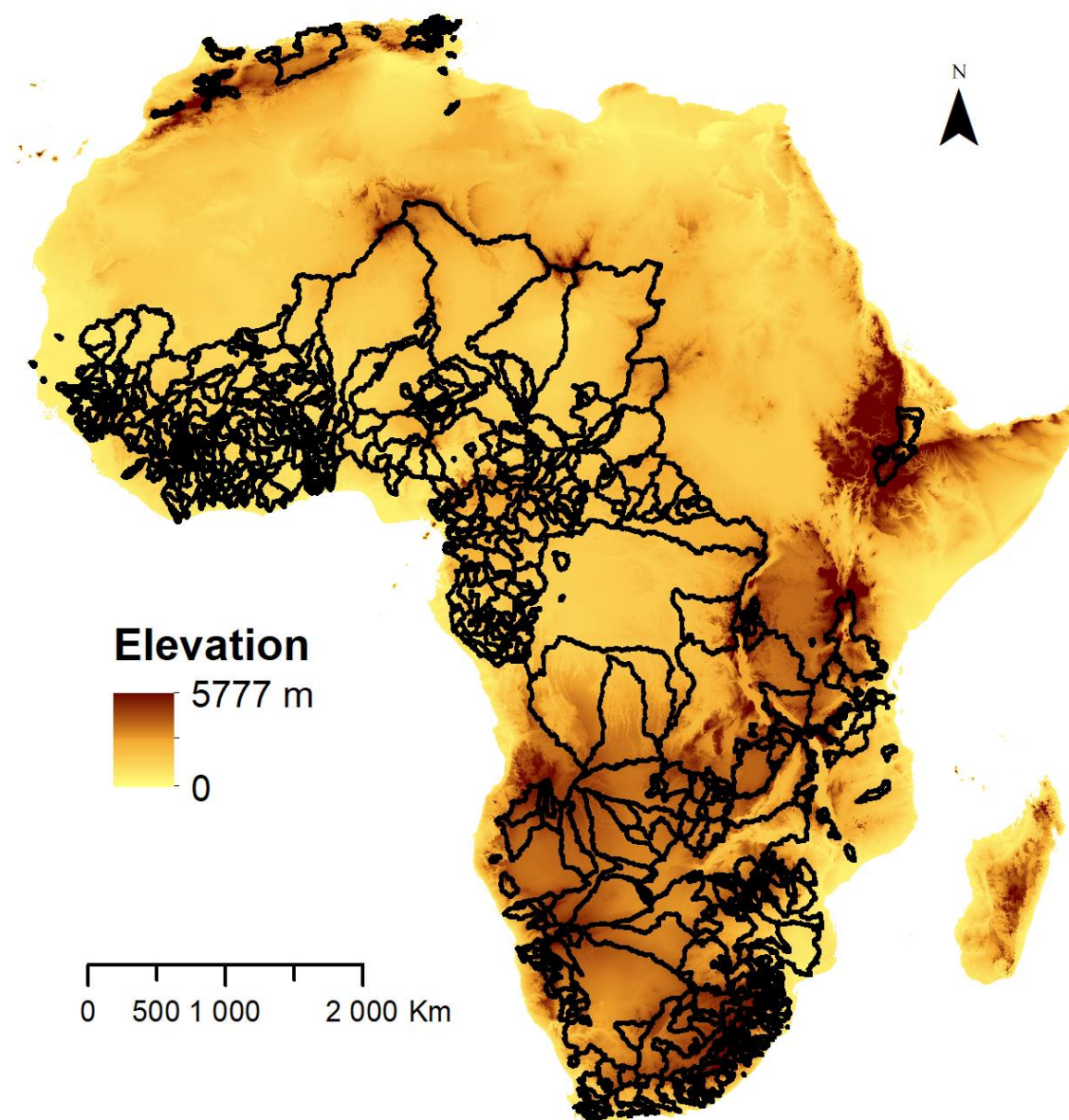
Figure 1: Map of the selected stations for the ADHI database from the SIEREM and GRDC datasets. The different colors represent the main climate zones in Africa from the Köppen-Geiger climate classification (Peel et al., 2007)

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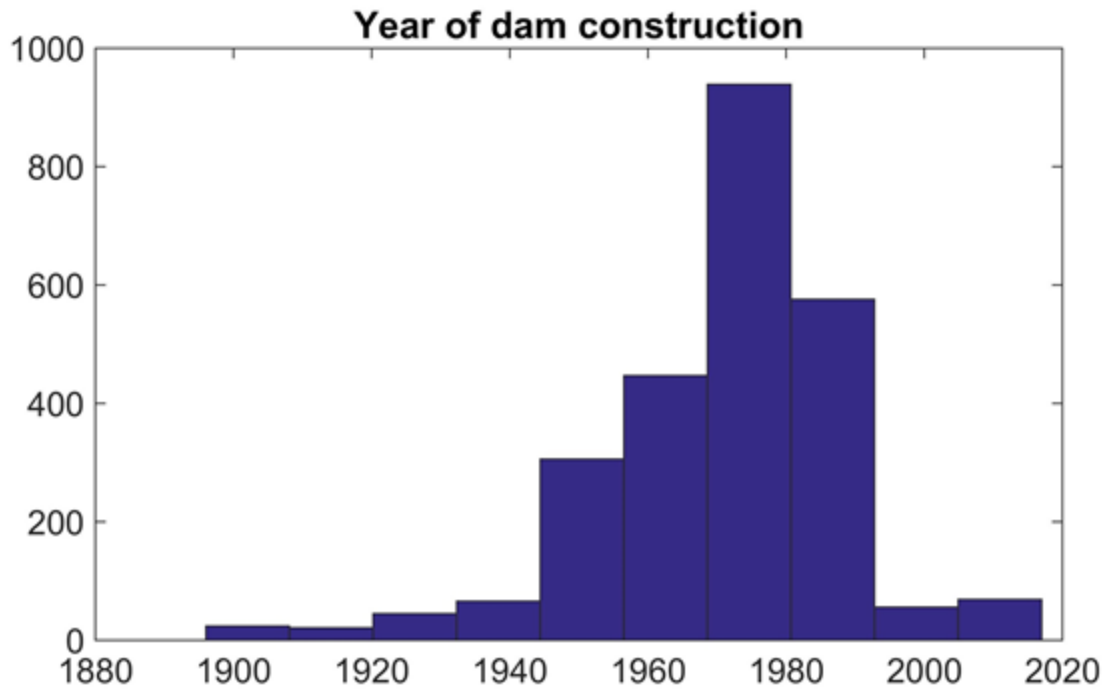
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Figure 2: Number of available stations per year with less than 5% missing data (left) and number of stations available for different record lengths (right)



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Figure 3: Map of the delineated catchment boundaries in black, with elevation from HydroSheds digital elevation model (<https://www.hydrosheds.org/>).

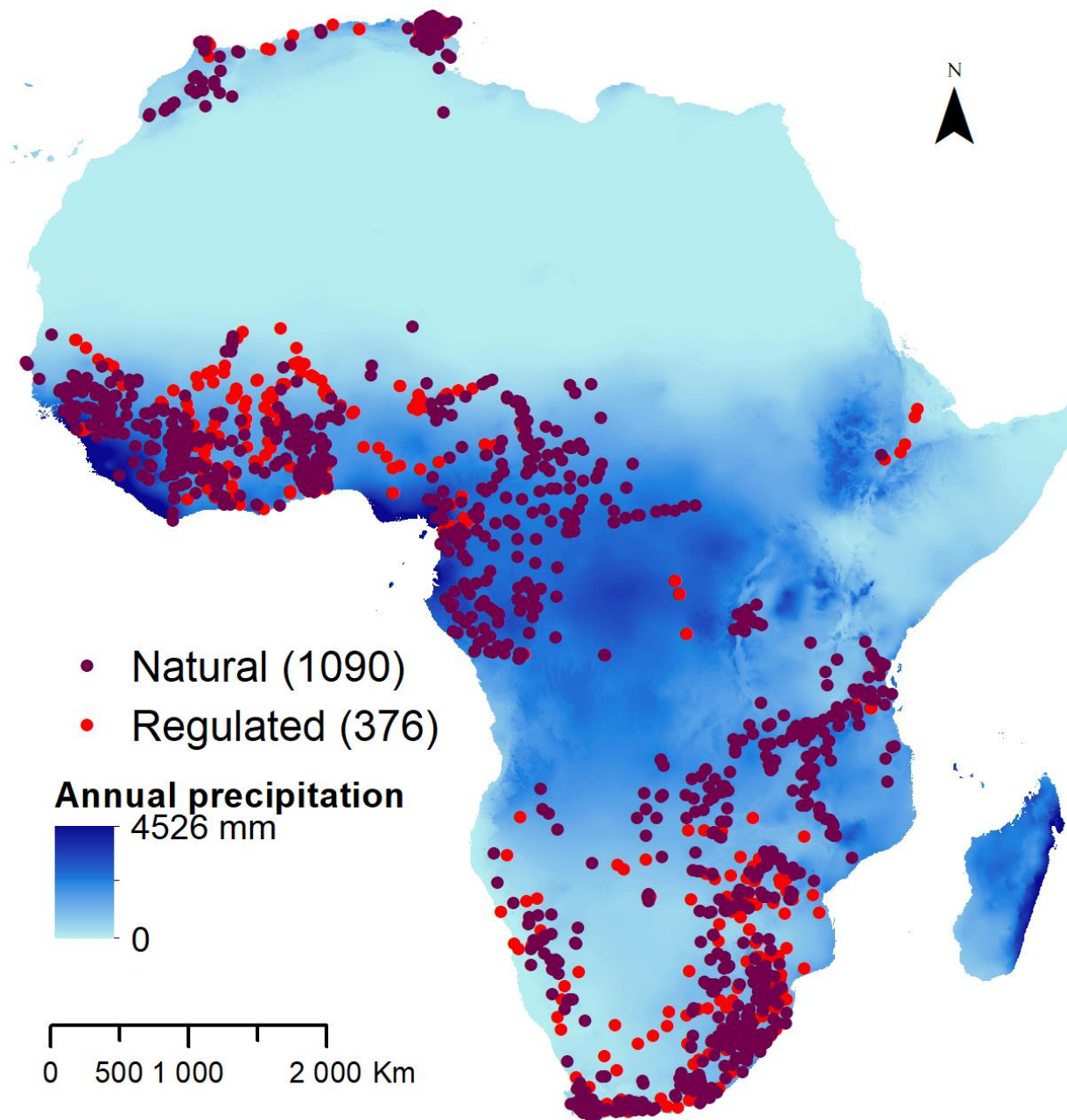


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912 Figure 4: Years of building date for dams located in the catchment database (data from
913 the Global Reservoir and Dam Database v1.3)

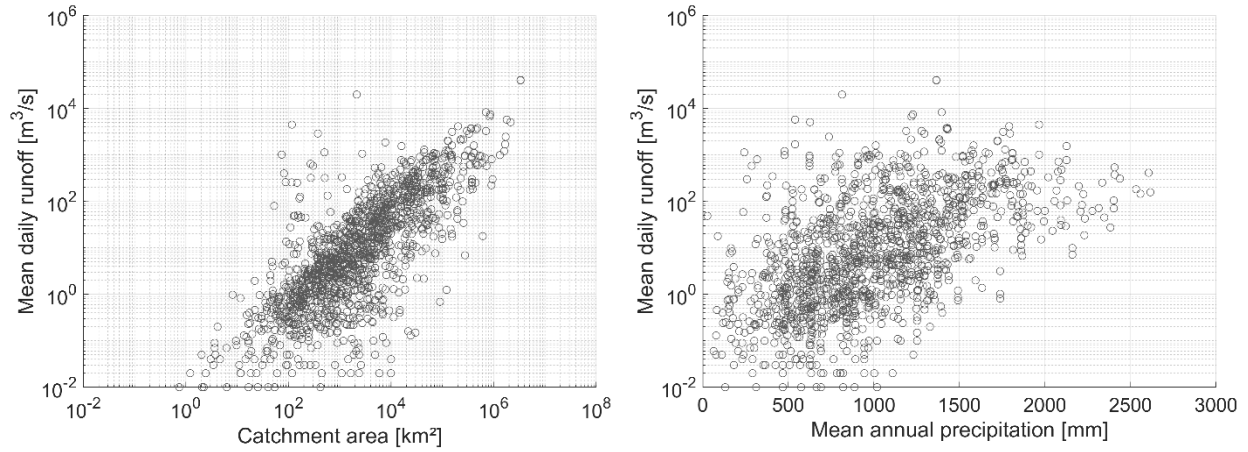
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Figure 5: Map of stations with a natural or regulated flow regime. Basins are considered regulated if they contain at least one dam or reservoir from the GRanD database (Lehner et al., 2011). Mean annual precipitation between 1970 and 2000 is provided from the WorldClim database (Fick and Hijmans, 2017).



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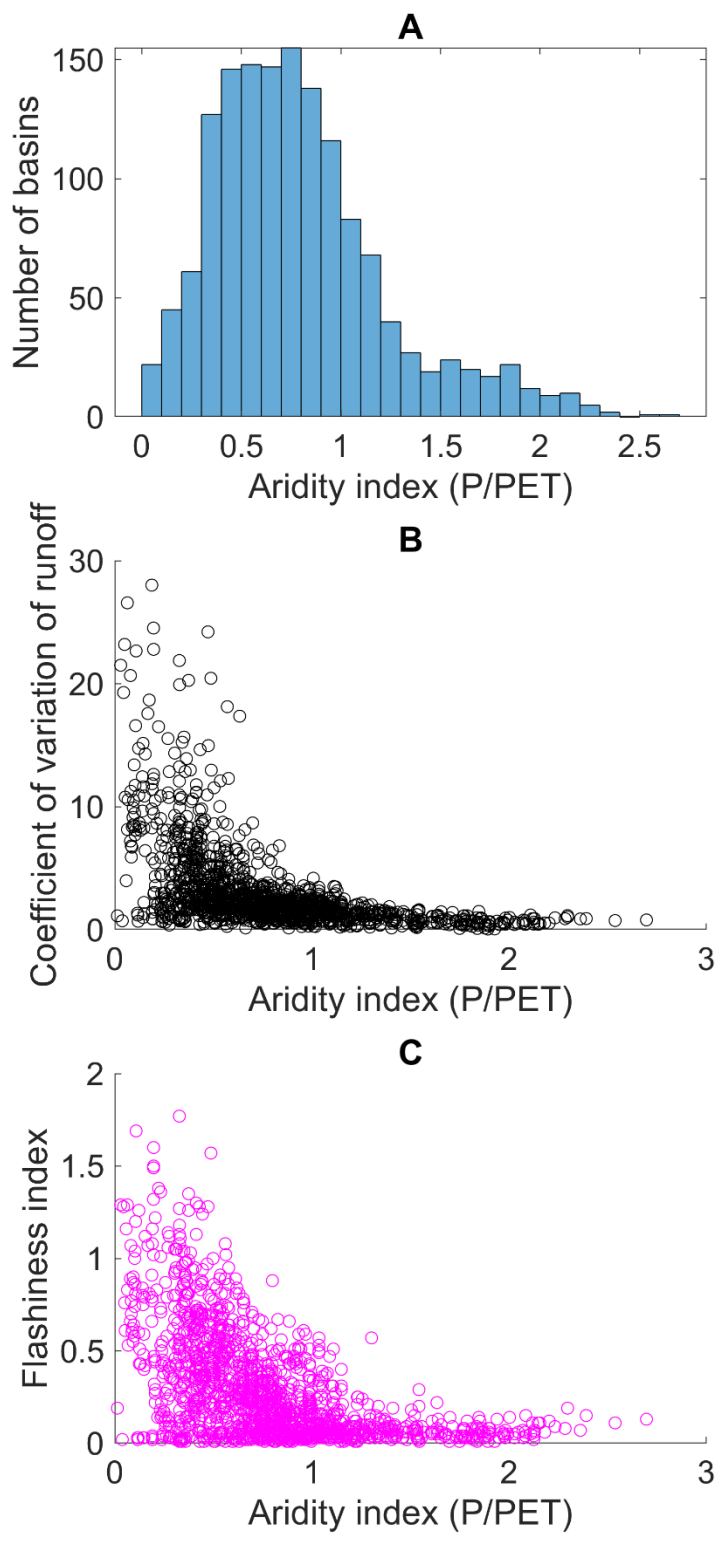
930 Figure 6: Relationship between mean daily river discharge and catchment area (left)

931 and mean annual precipitation (right)

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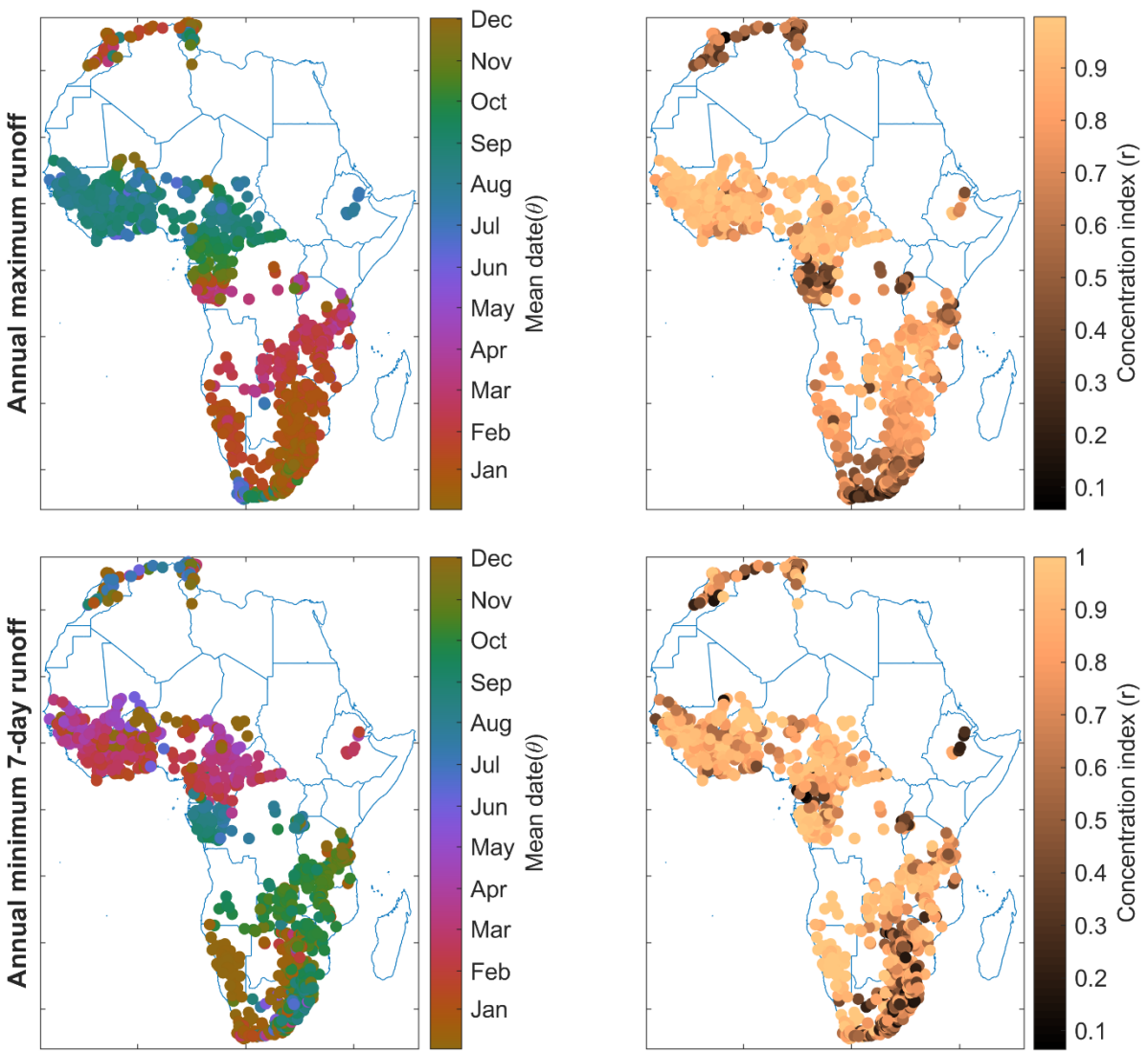
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935 Figure 7: histogram of the aridity index per basin (A), relationship between the aridity
936 index and the coefficient of variation of runoff (B), relationship between the aridity
937 index and the flashiness index (C)
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Figure 8: Mean date of occurrence (left) of annual maximum runoff and annual minimum of 7-day runoff, together with the variability around the mean date (right) represented by the concentration index