



## WorldCereal: a dynamic open-source system for global-scale, seasonal, and reproducible crop and irrigation mapping

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### 20 **Abstract.**

The challenge of global food security in the face of population growth, conflict and climate change requires a comprehensive understanding of cropped areas, irrigation practices and the distribution of major commodity crops like maize and wheat. However, such understanding should preferably be updated at seasonal intervals for each agricultural system rather than relying on a single annual assessment. Here we present the European Space Agency funded WorldCereal system, a global, seasonal, and reproducible crop and irrigation mapping system that addresses existing limitations in current global-scale crop and irrigation mapping. WorldCereal generates a range of global products, including temporary crop extent, seasonal maize and cereals maps, seasonal irrigation maps, seasonal active cropland maps, and confidence layers providing insights into expected product quality. The WorldCereal product suite for the year 2021 presented here serves as a global demonstration of the dynamic open-source WorldCereal system. The presented products are fully validated, e.g., global user's and producer's accuracies for the annual temporary crop product are 88.5% and 92.1%, respectively. The WorldCereal system provides a vital tool for policymakers, international organizations, and researchers to better understand global crop and irrigation patterns and inform decision-making related to food security and sustainable agriculture. Our findings highlight the need for continued community efforts such as additional reference data collection to support further development and push



the boundaries for global agricultural mapping from space. The global products are available at  
35 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7875104> (Van Tricht et al., 2023).

## 1 Introduction

Global food security is a major challenge in the face of population growth and climate change (Rosegrant and Cline, 2003; Brown and Funk, 2008; Prosekov and Ivanova, 2018). A vital step in achieving the Zero Hunger sustainable development goal is obtaining a global view on cropped areas, particularly those that produce major commodity crops like maize and  
40 wheat (Fritz et al., 2013; FAO, 2022). In addition, a global perspective on irrigation practices is equally crucial to ensure sustainable and efficient use of water resources, especially as agriculture becomes more intensive and changing precipitation patterns affect major crop-producing regions worldwide (Fischer et al., 2007; Elliott et al., 2014).

Such global views on crop extent, crop type and irrigation should preferably be generated at seasonal intervals for each agricultural system rather than as one-off or yearly products, due to the dynamic nature of growing seasons, meteorological  
45 conditions, agricultural practices and rotation cycles (You and Sun, 2022; Bégué et al., 2018). Moreover, recent crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic, the most extreme weather events in decades and the war in Ukraine have had a profound impact on global food systems and further stressed the need to capture seasonal changes in cropped areas and irrigation status for which to date large data gaps remain (FAO, 2022). This information can help policymakers and international organizations better plan and allocate resources for food production and distribution (Becker-Reshef et al., 2019).

50 Crop mapping remains however a difficult task due to the diversity and complexity of agricultural systems (Liu et al., 2020). Satellite remote sensing has become an essential data source for land cover/use mapping thanks to an increased availability of open and free data, cloud computing infrastructure and powerful machine learning algorithms (Szantoi et al., 2020; Karthikeyan et al., 2020; Pandey et al., 2021). However, most global satellite-based products do not focus on one specific land cover class such as cropland and have to balance many land cover classes in one mapping approach, such as the  
55 European Space Agency (ESA) WorldCover 2021 global land cover product that maps the world in 11 distinct classes at 10 m resolution (Zanaga et al., 2022). Only a few global products are dedicated to cropland. Pittman et al. (2010) presented a 250 m cropland layer based on MODIS data where they concluded that moving from static to dynamic cropland monitoring applications would be the next step in global cropland mapping. Thenkabail et al. (2021) published a global cropland extent product at 30 m (GCEP30) for the year 2015 based on Landsat imagery and Potapov et al. (2022) presented the first time  
60 series of global maps of cropland extent and change based on 30 m Landsat data at 4-year intervals. Such long intervals were required to capture sufficient clear-sky observations for accurate cropland detection. While unprecedented, such existing initiatives are not yet fully closing the global agricultural data gaps because of one or more of the following limitations (FAO, 2022): (i) their specific definition of cropland precludes their usage in near real-time because they need access to multiple years of data; (ii) they do not cover the full thematic detail that is required for global agricultural monitoring  
65 purposes, including crop-specific maps for the big commodity crops such as maize and wheat; (iii) they provide a one-time



product, while the dynamic nature of agricultural landscapes requires frequent and timely updates; (iv) they do not explicitly account for local growing seasons which hampers crop-specific mapping in different seasons; (v) they do not provide information on agricultural practices at seasonal timescales, such as the occurrence of active cropland or the application of irrigation in specific growing seasons; (vi) they exclusively provide the end product without publication of an open-source system that allows reproducibility, continuity and improvement of these products; and (vii) they have limited local applicability in areas with less training data.

In the framework of the ESA's WorldCereal project, we aimed to address these current existing limitations, pushing the boundaries on global-scale, seasonal, and reproducible crop and irrigation mapping by building an open-source and highly scalable system with the potential to generate globally consistent maps that can be locally finetuned if users add their own training data. In this research, we present the range of WorldCereal products that have been generated for the year 2021 at global level. This includes (i) an annual temporary crop map, (ii) seasonal maize and cereals (wheat + barley + rye) maps, (iii) seasonal active irrigation maps, (iv) seasonal active cropland maps and (v) confidence layers related to the individual products. The complete 2021 WorldCereal product suite demonstrates the capabilities of the dynamic open-source WorldCereal system on a global scale, emphasizing the importance of continuing its development beyond the 2021 showcase. This product suite can also act as a foundation for an operational worldwide crop monitoring system, thereby contributing to the achievement of the Zero Hunger sustainable development goal.

## 2. Definitions

### 2.1 Annual temporary crop map

Land cover maps typically contain a cropland class, but this class is not always consistently defined (Tubiello et al., 2023). The base product that is generated by the WorldCereal system is an annual temporary crop map. This is a binary map identifying land used for crops with a less-than-one-year growing cycle which must be newly sown or planted for further production after the harvest (FAO, 2023). Sugar cane, asparagus and cassava are also considered as temporary crops, despite the fact that they remain in the field for more than one year. The WorldCereal temporary crop maps exclude perennial crops as well as (temporary) pastures. These maps are generated once a year, the period being defined in a region by the end of the last growing season that is considered by the system (cfr. Sect. 2.2).

### 2.2 Crop seasonality

Agriculture is dynamic in nature with different crops being grown in different seasons throughout the year depending on local growing conditions. A global crop mapping system should therefore include a definition of growing seasons that reflect regional patterns. This is particularly challenging in equatorial areas that exhibit no clear winter-summer seasonality and are often characterized by multiple growing seasons in a calendar year that follow the spatial and temporal variability of



precipitation patterns in addition to local agricultural practices (Jägermeyr and Frieler, 2018; Franch et al., 2022). As part of the WorldCereal system, Franch et al. (2022) developed gridded global crop calendars at 0.5 ° resolution for maize and wheat, leveraging the main existing global crop calendar products: GEOGLAM Crop Monitor, the United States Department of Agriculture Foreign Agricultural Service (USDA-FAS), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) and the Joint  
100 Research Centre's Anomaly Hot-Spots of Agricultural Production (ASAP). Given the global extent of the WorldCereal products and the gaps that existing products exhibit at this scale, crop calendars were simulated in those areas not covered by any of these products (Franch et al., 2022). The resulting crop calendars were used to stratify the globe into zones with similar maize and wheat growing seasons (Sect. 3.3) which form the basis for tasking the WorldCereal system to generate the products (Sect. 4). The crop calendars consist of one major wheat season and up to two maize seasons. Spring cereals  
105 grown at northern latitudes generally exhibit the same seasonality as maize in those regions and are therefore not characterized by a separate growing season.

### 2.3 Seasonal crop type maps

The WorldCereal crop type products provide binary maps for the maize and wheat growing seasons as defined by the global crop calendars, showing where maize and cereals are grown. Cereals include wheat, barley and rye, which belong to the  
110 *Triticeae* tribe. These crops were grouped together because their spectral signatures and growing seasons were too similar to reliably distinguish them at a global scale. The WorldCereal crop type maps are generated within the respective annual temporary crop mask (Sect. 2.1).

### 2.4 Seasonal active irrigation maps

Irrigation can be applied in many ways, some of which are easier to detect from space than others. Additionally, the reason  
115 to irrigate might differ per crop and region (Burt et al., 2000). For example, in some countries, only the most valuable crops are irrigated and saved from dehydration due to a general water shortage, whilst in other countries irrigation is widely applied to maximize crop yield. The WorldCereal irrigation product was primarily trained using irrigation data from (semi-)arid climate zones. This was done partly by choice (the impact of irrigation on the environment is larger in dry regions), but also by necessity since there is limited irrigation data available for temperate regions. Our definition, therefore, primarily  
120 focuses on irrigation that is applied to enable healthy crop growth, instead of maximizing crop yield. Seasonally actively irrigated cropland is therefore defined by the WorldCereal system as a piece of land that is extensively irrigated during a specific growing season where, without irrigation applied at regular intervals, crop growth would be significantly reduced or impossible. Incidental irrigation, such as irrigation that has been applied only during the sowing period of a crop, is not translated to actively irrigated cropland. A pixel can only be classified as being irrigated inside the annual temporary crop  
125 mask.



## 2.5 Seasonal active cropland maps

Assessing total crop production at regional scale does not only require an indication on where temporary crops are grown (as indicated by the WorldCereal temporary crop map), but also during which growing season(s) the identified areas are effectively in use for growing crops. To cover this need, the WorldCereal active cropland products indicate whether or not a pixel identified as temporary crops has been actively cultivated during a specific growing season. In order for a pixel to be labeled as “active” during a particular growing season, a full crop growth cycle (sowing, growing, senescence and harvesting) needs to take place within the designated time period. Note that this active marker is not crop-type specific and will capture other crop types aside from cereals and maize as long as they show a similar seasonality. This also means in practice that any crop grown (slightly) outside the predefined growing seasons will not be flagged as active cropland in any of the seasons covered by the system.

## 3. Materials and methods

In this section we outline the methodology for the creation of the WorldCereal products. While the presented products focus on the year 2021 at the global scale, the general methodology can be applied to other years and custom regions as well.

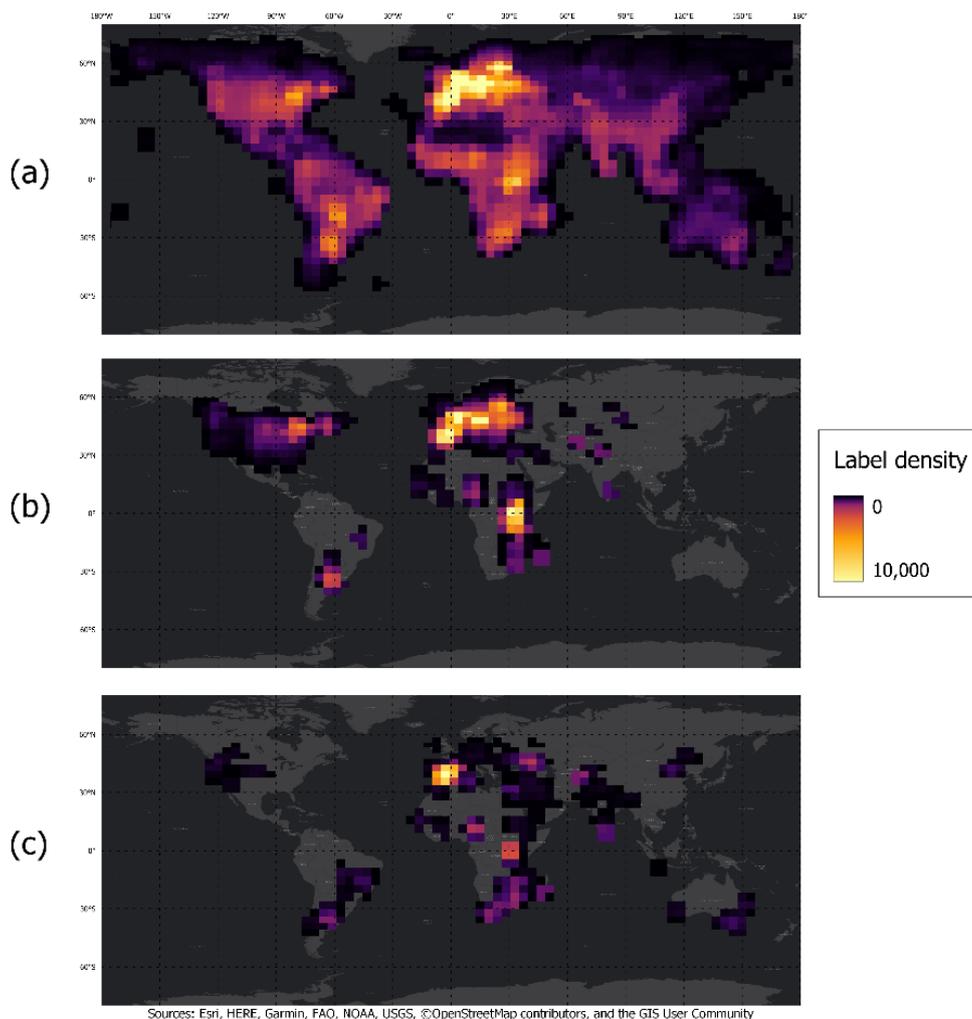
### 3.1 Training data

High-quality and representative training data is key to a well-performing and robust mapping system. Classification algorithms that need to be transferrable in space and time require training data that are spatially well spread and ideally cover as many of the agrometeorological conditions over time as possible. This reduces the risk of overfitting to specific locations, crop types, years and growing conditions (Cracknell and Reading, 2014; Gu et al., 2016; Pelletier et al., 2017). Within the WorldCereal project, a community-based, open and harmonized reference data repository at global extent was developed to address this need (Boogaard et al., *in review*). This repository currently holds around 75 million harmonized samples from 2017 onward, originating from different sources such as the Group on Earth Observations Global Agricultural Monitoring Initiative (GEOGLAM) Joint Experiment for Crop Assessment and Monitoring (JECAM) sites, the Radiant MLHub, the Future Harvest (CGIAR) centres, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration Food Security and Agriculture Program (NASA Harvest), the International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis (IIASA) citizen science platforms (LACO-Wiki and Geo-Wiki), as well as from individual project contributions. Each sample contains information on either its land cover/use, crop type, irrigation status or a combination of these. A timestamp, derived as accurately as possible, allows to assign a sample to a specific year and growing season(s). Finally, a confidence score indicates the expected quality of a sample and was derived at the original reference dataset source level based on the combined expert assessment of spatial, temporal and thematic accuracy. A large number of samples is located in the EU and the USA, thanks to major contributions of European Land Parcel Identification System (LPIS) datasets and points sampled from the USDA Crop Data



Layer. These datasets were therefore subsampled for training to reduce the spatial bias and keep the amount of training input extractions manageable. The detailed description of this reference data module and the harmonization process followed can be found in Boogaard et al. (*in review*). Irrigation training data was especially sparse, consisting of only 36,000 rainfed and 26,000 irrigated samples divided over 19 countries. Since this was too limited to train a global irrigation mapping system, manually collected samples were included. The irrigated samples of this dataset consisted of center pivot irrigation sites which were visually selected using Google Satellite and Bing Aerial base layers. A minimum NDVI peak threshold of 0.4 was set to prevent including center pivots that were not showing any cropping activity during the training period. Rainfed samples were primarily collected from Europe, Northern Africa, India, Australia, and Argentina. The accuracy of this dataset was verified using the FAO AQUASTAT data on areas equipped for irrigation (FAO, 2016). This manual training dataset added another 50,000 irrigated and 30,000 rainfed samples. The resulting label density at  $\sim 5^\circ$  resolution for land cover/use, crop type and irrigation training samples is shown in Figure 1. While the land cover samples are globally well distributed, strong regional differences in label availability and even large data gaps are apparent for crop type and irrigation training data.

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**Figure 1: Available label density at  $\sim 5^\circ$  resolution for training the different WorldCereal models. (a) Land cover labels to be used for temporary crop mapping shows a good global spread. (b) Labels for training the crop type models exhibit large spatial gaps. (c) Irrigation labels are the most sparsely distributed.**

### 175 3.2 Inputs and pre-processing

The satellite-based inputs used to create the WorldCereal products are optical Sentinel-2, radar Sentinel-1 and thermal Landsat 8 time series. Sentinel-2 optical bands were first subjected to cloud and shadow masking by applying a dilated version of the binarized SEN2COR scene classification mask (Main-Knorn et al., 2017). For crop type mapping, a crop-specific Growing Degree Days (GDD) normalization step was performed on the original time series using mean daily  
180 temperature data from the global AgERA5 reanalysis dataset (Boogaard et al., 2020). The aim of this step is to better align the time series of identical crops that are growing under different temperature regimes. The procedure is outlined in detail in



Cintas et al. (2023). Next, depending on the product, either the original or GDD-normalized acquisitions were composited to 10-day regular timestamps using a median operator. The remaining missing values due to prolonged cloudy periods were linearly interpolated.

185 Sentinel-1 pre-processing consists first of an orbit direction selection in case both ascending and descending orbits are acquired over a region. This prevents mixing of backscatter signals under entirely different viewing conditions, but also increases the generalizability of the system given that in most regions of the world only one orbit direction is acquired. The orbit direction selection is done by retrieving the times between subsequent acquisitions and selecting the orbit direction with the smallest maximum temporal gap. Speckle was reduced by applying a Gamma-MAP filter with a kernel size of 7 and an  
190 equivalent number of looks of 3, preserving the original spatial resolution while significantly reducing speckle noise in the signal. Next, crop specific GDD normalization was done in case of crop type mapping (Cintas et al., 2023). Finally, a 12-day compositing was performed using a mean operator and any missing values due to for example temporary unavailability of the satellite were linearly interpolated.

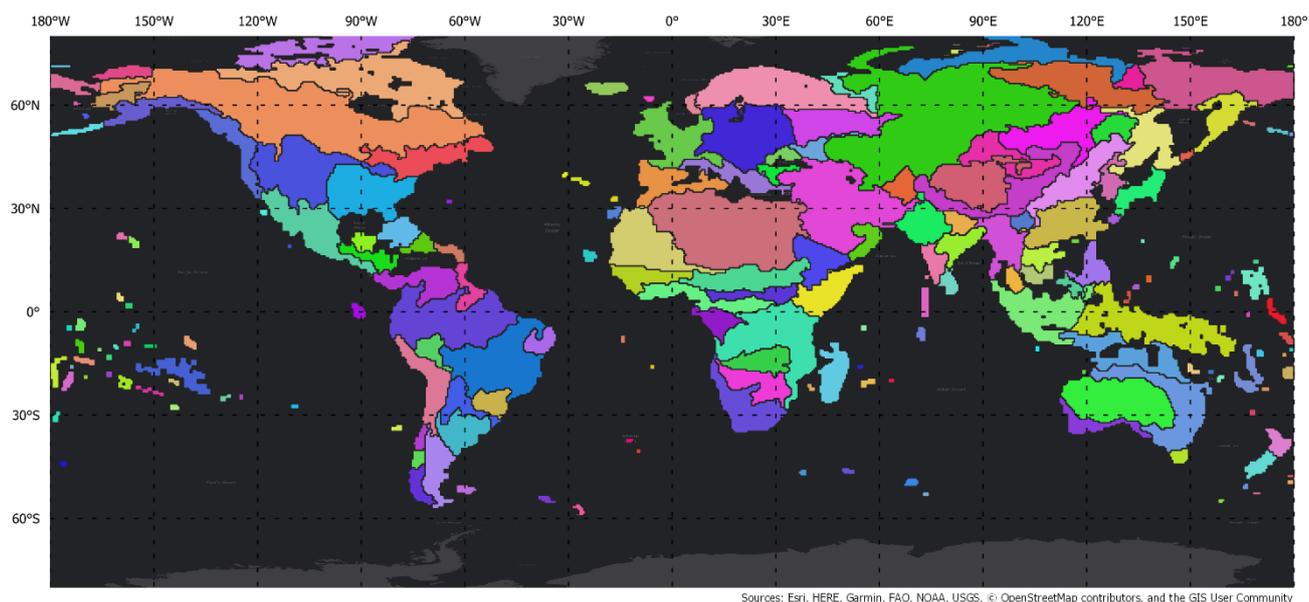
The Landsat 8 Collection 2 Level 2 surface temperature band ST\_B10 was first masked using an eroded and dilated version  
195 of the mask originally delivered with the product, in turn based on the CFMask algorithm. The data were then composited into 16-day time series using a median filter. The remaining missing values in particularly cloudy periods were linearly interpolated.

Next to the main satellite inputs, the workflow also makes use of ancillary data sources. We used the Copernicus DEM - Global and European Digital Elevation Model (COP-DEM) at approximately 30 m spatial resolution (“GLO-30”). The  
200 original 30 m data were resampled to 20 m spatial resolution to align with the Sentinel-2 tile grid and to be compatible with the classification workflow. Another auxiliary layer is based on biome membership. Based on the 846 ecoregions of the Ecoregions2017 map (Dinerstein et al., 2017), the world was stratified into 13 biomes. Biome membership allows a classification model for implicit grouping of training and inference data based on shared characteristics as described by their biome. These biomes were originally obtained as discrete vector polygons. Using these in the classification can cause the  
205 appearance of hard border artefacts in the products. To avoid these artefacts and reflect the natural and gradual transitions between biomes, we derived a set of continuous biome raster datasets. The original biome polygons were first simplified with a tolerance of 0.01 °, buffered at 0.05 ° and rasterized with a resolution of 0.01 °. The obtained raster datasets were then filtered with a Gaussian kernel of radius 0.5 °, with maximum amplitude of 1 at the center and zero at the borders. The resulting filtered biomes gradually transition from 0 to 1 in a range of 1 ° around the original discrete biome borders. This  
210 means that points close to the biome boundaries will have a certain degree of membership also with other nearby biomes, representing the gradual transition between different biomes.

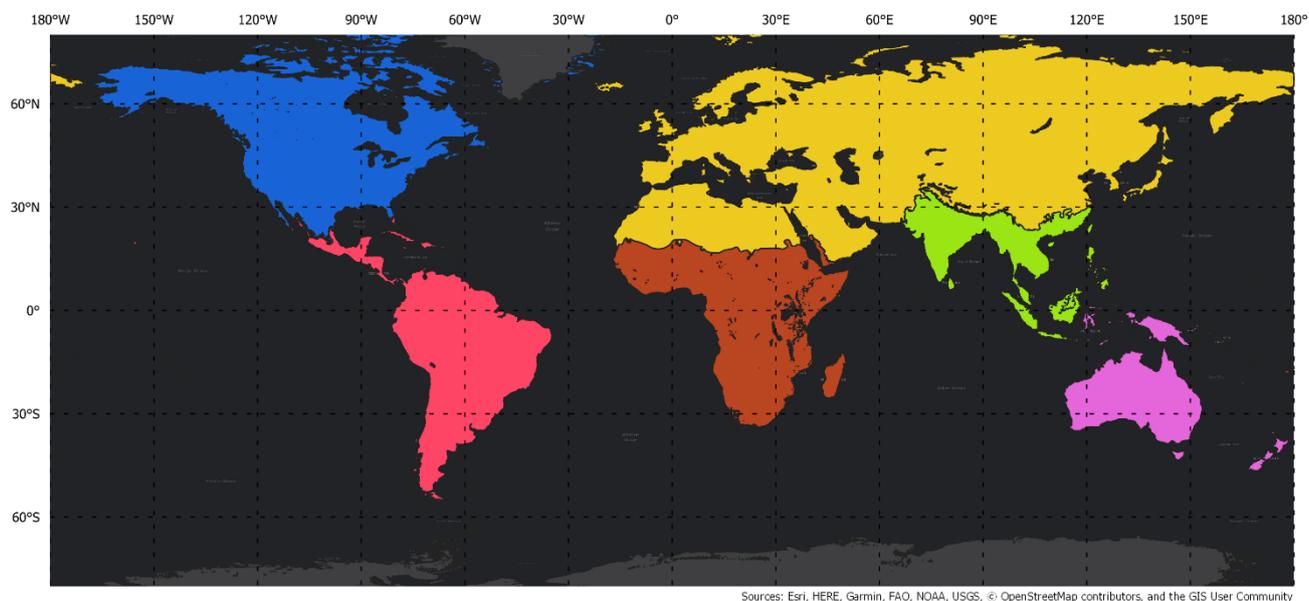


### 3.3 Stratification

The WorldCereal classification system aims for product generation within one month after the end of a particular growing season. Due to the dynamic nature of these growing seasons across the globe, we created a stratification based on the global crop calendars discussed in Sect. 2.2. Regions sharing similar crop calendars were grouped into 203 homogenous agro-ecological zones (AEZ) that are used as a mapping trigger for the system (Figure 2). In addition, Buchhorn et al. (2020) reported that classification algorithms for global mapping purposes are better adapted to sub-continental and continental patterns if they are trained and applied at sub-global scale. Therefore, we also stratified the global terrestrial regions into large biogeographical realms (Figure 3) following the Ecoregions2017 dataset (Dinerstein et al., 2017). This allows model training at realm level instead of global level, provided that sufficient training data is available (Sect. 3.5).



**Figure 2: Global stratification based on crop calendar similarity. Each resulting agro-ecological zone (AEZ) serves as a WorldCereal map trigger to generate products based on local seasonality.**



**Figure 3: Biogeographical realms used to train localized temporary crop extent models (Dinerstein et al., 2017).**

### 3.4 Feature extraction

Classification features were derived from the five data sources discussed in Sect. 3.2, i.e. optical, radar, thermal infrared, DEM and fuzzy biomes. Aside from the DEM and biomes, feature extraction always starts from pre-processed time series, either directly derived from the data source (e.g. Sentinel-2 reflectance bands) or a derived time series using a combination of multiple input variables (e.g. a spectral index). Exact timing and length of the time series was determined by the pixel-based crop calendars for the respective products (Sect. 2.2 **Error! Reference source not found.**). Whereas different features were originally computed at the native spatial resolution of the input data source for computational purposes, in the end all features were resampled to 10m resolution before being used as input in the classification models. In the remainder of this section, we describe in more detail the specific features that were computed for generating the different WorldCereal products.

#### 3.4.1 Temporary crop mapping features

Mapping temporary crops using satellite data remains challenging in many regions, due to the variability in agricultural landscapes, spectral similarity with other land cover classes, fallow practices and cloud obstruction during the growing season (Vancutsem et al., 2013). Defining a robust and characteristic set of features that separates temporary crops from all other land cover classes is therefore key. From the Sentinel-2 optical pre-processed inputs, we computed the following vegetation indices which have a proven record for mapping cropland (Valero et al., 2016; Nakalembe et al., 2021; Thenkabail et al., 2021; Potapov et al., 2022): normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI), normalized difference water



245 index (NDWI), normalized difference greenness index (NDGI), angle on near infrared (ANIR), normalized difference  
 moisture index (NDMI), and two normalized difference red edge indices (NDRE85 and NDRE75). The reader is referred to  
 Table S1 for more information on these indices. Together with the shortwave-infrared bands B11 and B12, we summarized  
 these time series using the 10<sup>th</sup> (p10), 50<sup>th</sup> (p50) and 90<sup>th</sup> (p90) percentiles as well as the interquartile range (IQR). For NDVI  
 in specific, also six equidistant time series descriptors (ts0-ts5) were added to explicitly capture the temporal profile, as well  
 250 as 12 of the temporal features describing the evolution of a crop profile based on the work by Valero et al. (2016). As for  
 Sentinel-1 SAR features, three time series were used as the basis for feature computation, i.e. VV, VH backscatter and the  
 radar vegetation index (RVI), all of which have proven their use in crop mapping studies (Kenduiwo et al., 2018; Van  
 Tricht et al., 2018; Mandal et al., 2020). These time series were summarized using the p10, p50 and p90 percentiles and the  
 IQR. DEM altitude and slope and fuzzy biome membership features were included as well. Finally, positional features  
 255 latitude/longitude were also added which we call localization features. Localization features allow classification algorithms  
 to become “spatially aware” and hence gain knowledge on where training or inference data is originating from. To avoid  
 overfitting on exact combinations of latitude and longitude and at the same time reduce the risk of inferior product quality in  
 data sparse regions, a random perturbation of up to 2.5° and 10° was added during training to latitude and longitude,  
 respectively. The complete list of features used for temporary crop mapping is provided in Table 1.

260

**Table 1: Selected features for temporary crop mapping**

Data source	Time series	Features
OPTICAL	NDVI	p10, p50, p90, IQR, ts0, ts1, ts2, ts3, ts4, ts5, maxdif, mindif, difminmax, peak, lengthpeak, areapeak, ascarea, asclength, ascratio, descarea, desclength, descratio,
	NDWI, NDGI, ANIR, NDMI, NDRE85, NDRE75, B11, B12	p10, p50, p90, IQR
SAR	VV, VH, RVI	p10, p50, p90, IQR
DEM		Altitude, slope
BIOMES		13 biome fuzzy membership features
LOCALIZATION	latitude/longitude	Center latitude/longitude for a pixel



### 3.4.2 Crop type mapping features

Specific crop type identification within the temporary crop mask started from a similar collection of features as for  
 265 temporary crop mapping. To further enrich the feature set for distinguishing between different crop types, the standard  
 deviation (STD) temporal statistic was added, in addition to the Sentinel-2 RGB bands (B02, B03, B04). We also computed  
 the enhanced vegetation index (EVI) which was used to automatically detect the growing seasons in a time series, based on  
 the method described by Bolton et al. (2020). Outputs of the season detection algorithm include the number of detected  
 270 growing seasons and for each season the date of its start, peak and end. Based on these outputs, minimum, median and  
 maximum of both the length and EVI amplitude for all detected seasons were derived and added as classification features.  
 Biome and localization features, in turn, were not included because insufficient global coverage of training data was  
 available to cover all possible biome and localization combinations. The full feature set is described in Table 2. The  
 seasonality detection is also used in the WorldCereal system to generate a seasonal active cropland layer (cf. Sect. 2.5).

275 **Table 2: Selected features for crop type mapping**

Data source	Time series	Features
OPTICAL	NDVI	p10, p50, p90, STD, ts0, ts1, ts2, ts3, ts4, ts5, maxdif, mindif, difminmax, peak, lengthpeak, areapeak, ascarearea, asclength, ascratio, descarea, desclength, descratio,
	NDWI, NDGI, ANIR,	p10, p50, p90, STD
	NDRE1, NDRE5,	p10, p50, p90, STD
	B2, B3, B4, B12	p10, p50, p90, STD
	EVI	lSeasMax, lSeasMed, lSeasMin, aSeasMax, aSeasMed, aSeasMin
SAR	VV, VH, RVI	p10, p50, p90, IQR
DEM		Altitude, slope

### 3.4.3 Irrigation mapping features

The feature collection of the WorldCereal irrigation model focuses on optical and thermal satellite observations from  
 Sentinel-2 and Landsat 8, respectively, in combination with meteorological data from AgERA5. The basic features of the  
 280 algorithm are pure Sentinel-2 based indices, such as NDVI, NDWI, modified normalized difference water index (MNDWI),



EVI, and global vegetation moisture index (GVMI) (see Table S1). These features can explain the health of a crop or if a crop is experiencing any form of stress. To prevent overfitting of the model, only the p90 and STD were calculated for these indices and added as features to the model. The p90 explains if a crop was able to flourish, potentially because of irrigation, or if a crop showed clear signs of stress. The STD is used to understand how dynamic the growing season of a crop was. A  
285 more advanced feature based on multiple Sentinel-2 bands is the spectral (cosine) median absolute deviation (SMAD). This feature highlights the temporal variation of multiple optical bands and has a positive impact on the detection of irrigation (Wellington and Renzullo, 2021). Finally, also the geomedian (GM) calculated for the near-infrared and shortwave-infrared bands of Sentinel-2 were added to the model to emphasize the absorption patterns of chlorophyll and water.

Second, the relation between the air temperature ( $T_{\text{air}}$ ) and land surface temperature (LST) is used to further understand the  
290 stress conditions of a crop. Under well-watered conditions, the difference between  $T_{\text{air}}$  and LST is minimal, because the crop is cooling itself through transpiration processes. An increasing difference between  $T_{\text{air}}$  and LST indicates that the crop is unable to transpire to its maximum potential and that stomata are being closed. Additional water is necessary for the crop to continue growing.

The third feature set focuses on the impact of irrigation on evapotranspiration (ET). Similar to the proposed Sentinel-2 based  
295 indices, ET indicates if a crop can thrive or not. Modeling the actual ET using remote sensing data is complex and requires many inputs. To increase the computational efficiency of the model, a simple relation between the reference evapotranspiration ( $ET_0$ ) and the NDVI is used to calculate the actual ET. This relation is based on the work of Kamble et al. (2013). The  $ET_0$  is calculated using AgERA5 data and relies on the penman-monteith equations (Allen et al., 1998). Since ET only explains if a crop is thriving and cannot help making a distinction between a rainfed crop in a humid climate or an  
300 irrigated crop in a more arid climate, precipitation data were added. The resulting precipitation deficit ( $P_{\text{def}}$ ) explains the difference between evapotranspiration and precipitation, where a large  $P_{\text{def}}$  can be the result of extensive irrigation. From the  $P_{\text{def}}$  time series, multiple features were calculated. The basic features are p10, p50, and p90, followed by the STD of the ET data. Additionally, the cumulative  $P_{\text{def}}$  was calculated to understand the trend, longevity, and severity of the precipitation deficit. From this cumulative  $P_{\text{def}}$ , the maximum and minimum were calculated, together with the maximum duration of a  
305 positive  $P_{\text{def}}$  and the maximum slope of the cumulative  $P_{\text{def}}$  curve. To conclude, also the sum divided by the length of the growing season of the  $ET_0$ ,  $ET_{\text{act}}$ , and P were added as features to the algorithm. The duration of a positive cumulative  $P_{\text{def}}$ , the maximum cumulative  $P_{\text{def}}$ , and the minimum cumulative  $P_{\text{def}}$  were also divided by the length of the season. These divisions were made to ensure that there is no bias toward regions with longer growing seasons.

Finally, to also include the relation between soil moisture and irrigation, the optical trapezoid model (OPTRAM) was used.  
310 This model focuses on the relationship between shortwave infrared reflectance and the NDVI (Sadeghi et al., 2017). In this model, the shortwave infrared reflectance is converted into surface-transformed reflectance (STR). A trapezoidal model relies on a predefined wet and dry edge. These edges explain at which NDVI and STR value the soil is saturated or at its wilting point. In contrast to the original OPTRAM model, the edges are defined by grouping the STR data of one growing



315 season by discrete NDVI steps. The dry edge of each step is represented by the minimum STR value within that specific  
 step. The wet edge is calculated by adding the median STR with the standard deviation of the STR to prevent the model to  
 become too sensitive to oversaturated conditions, which is a known issue (Sadeghi et al., 2017). The final wet and dry edges  
 are calculated by applying a linear regression through all the individual wet and dry edge values. For this soil moisture data,  
 p50, p90 and STD were calculated and used as features. The final feature set was based on the correlation between the  
 precipitation and the OPTRAM-based soil moisture content. A high correlation indicates that an increase in soil moisture is  
 320 primarily driven by precipitation. A low correlation, on the other hand, might indicate that other factors, like irrigation, could  
 have caused the increase in soil moisture content. For this dataset also p50, p90 and STD were calculated. Table 3 shows an  
 overview of all the features used in the irrigation classification algorithm.

**Table 3: Selected features for active irrigation mapping**

Data source	Time series	Features
OPTICAL	NDVI, EVI, MNDWI,	p90, std
	NDWIveg, GVMi	p90, std
	B08, B11	GM
	B02 + B03 + B04 + B08 + B11 + B12	SMAD
TIR	LST - Ta	p50, p90, STD
METEO	Precipitation, ETa, ET0	Sum
	Precipitation deficit	p10, p50, p90, std, cum_max, cum_min, cum_maxdur, cum_maxslope
	SSM, SSM_adj	p50, p90, STD

325

### 3.5 Classification

The classification algorithms are based on a CatBoost model, which is a high-performance model architecture for gradient  
 boosting on decision trees (Prokhorenkova et al., 2018). Input to the respective algorithms were the features listed in Tables  
 1-3. The output of each model is a binary classification of the inputs into the class of interest vs. all other classes. For the  
 330 temporary crop map, this means a binary classification of temporary crops vs. all other land cover types. For seasonal crop  
 type maps, this means maize or cereals vs. all other crops. For irrigation maps, actively irrigated crops are mapped against  
 rainfed crops. As discussed in Sect. 3.3, separate temporary crop mapping models were trained for each realm. Crop type and  
 irrigation models were trained at the global level because of a lack of sufficient training samples in each individual realm.



The models were trained on their respective seasonal training features: we trained temporary crop models based on annual  
335 features; a winter cereals model was trained based on the main wheat season features; a spring cereals model was trained  
using the features from the maize season in selected northern zones that are known to grow spring cereals; and a maize  
model was trained on the combined features of up to two maize seasons. For each model, the training data was randomly  
divided into 70% calibration, 20% validation and 10% test samples. During training, only calibration and validation samples  
were used, while test samples were retained for performance assessment. Each model was trained with a maximum of 4000  
340 iterations, a depth of 8, a learning rate of 0.05 and early stopping activated after 40 rounds without improvement. The  
distribution of the binarized training samples is imbalanced, the degree by which depends on the availability of different  
sources of reference datasets. To cope with this imbalance, we computed the class weights that balance the distribution,  
which we then used for loss weighting to eliminate the imbalance problem. In addition to these class weights, sample  
specific weights were also adjusted based on the confidence score of the respective reference dataset they were originating  
345 from (cfr. Sect. 3.1). It is important to note that the models were trained on the combined training data from the available  
years (2017-2021) without providing year-specific information to the model. The aim was to train generalized models across  
multiple years that do not specifically require new training data in unseen years.

As a complementary product of the binary prediction, the models also provide binary class probabilities which we used to  
assess the pixel-based model's confidence in its prediction. Unconfident model predictions are characterized by binary  
350 probabilities close to 0.5, while confident model predictions are close to 0 or 1. Therefore, we defined classification  
confidence as a value between 0 and 100, computed using Eq. (1).

$$confidence = \left( \frac{probability - 0.5}{0.5} \right) \times 100, \quad (1)$$

355

where *probability* is the class probability of the winning class ( $\geq 0.5$ ).

### 3.6 Postprocessing

Since classification was done on a per-pixel basis, no contextual information was taken into account in the workflow. This  
can lead to the so-called salt-and-pepper effect in the output product (Hirayama et al., 2019). We therefore applied the  
360 majority filter technique (Stuckens et al., 2000) to reduce this effect and used a kernel size of 5 pixels for the temporary  
crops product and 7 pixels for the crop type and irrigation products. To retain high-confident model predictions, we switched  
off majority filtering for those pixels that had a confidence of  $\geq 0.85$  for temporary crops and  $\geq 0.75$  for crop type and  
irrigation.

Consistency between the different products was ensured during postprocessing in three ways. First, a positive crop detection  
365 by one of the crop type detectors in a season automatically identifies a pixel as active cropland for that particular season.



Second, a pixel marked as inactive in a season automatically sets that pixel to rainfed in the irrigation product. Third, any overlap between different crop type products within the same growing season was resolved by retaining the crop type with the highest confidence. Different seasons, even when partly overlapping, were not subject to conflict resolving as they were processed independently and at different times.

### 370 **3.7 Validation**

The validation approach differs from product to product, depending on quality and availability of reference datasets that were not used during model training and hence available for independent validation.

#### **3.7.1 Annual temporary crop maps**

We followed the guidelines for rigorous accuracy assessment provided in Stehman and Foody (2019) and Szantoi et al. (2021). To validate the annual temporary crop products, a new validation dataset (Lesiv et al., 2023b) was created which is completely independent from all other existing maps or reference datasets, and which is in line with the cropland definition and mapping period of the WorldCereal products as outlined in Sect. 2. The sampling design of the validation dataset is probabilistic with random distribution of sample sites. The validation sample sites were generated before the WorldCereal products were produced. Therefore, to avoid issues with inclusion probabilities, we selected a random sample design in equal area projection (Goode Homolosine). Taking into account that arable land covers approximately up to 10% of all land, the sample size consisted of 50 000 unique sample sites, with possibly up to 5000 sample sites labeled as temporary crops. Response design has been implemented in the Geo-Wiki application (Fritz et al., 2012) where each validation sample site has been visually interpreted by several experts. To decide if a sample is covered by temporary crops in a given period of time, the experts looked at very high-resolution Google historical imagery and Google Street level images, Microsoft Bing images, ESRI imagery, Planet historical data, Sentinel-2 time series, and Modis NDVI time series. The validation sample sites where the experts disagreed on temporary crop presence were revisited and revised.

By using the new validation dataset, we calculated confusion matrices with accuracy metrics such as overall, user's and producer's accuracies. To calculate 95% confidence intervals for each metric, we applied bootstrapping with replacement (Szantoi et al., 2021). All the calculations were done at global level and by continents.

#### 390 **3.7.2 Seasonal crop type maps**

The coverage and availability of crop type information for the year 2021 is limited. Therefore, to get a global overview of the quality of the crop type products, we decided to invest in a new crop type validation dataset (Lesiv et al., 2023a). This dataset was created by using a new IIASA tool, called "Street Imagery validation" (<https://svweb.cloud.geo-wiki.org/>) where users could check street level images (e.g., Google Street Level images, Mapillary etc.) and identify the crop type where it is possible. The advantage of this tool is that there are plenty of georeferenced images with dates, going back in time. The



disadvantage is that users need to check plenty of images where only few will clearly show cropland fields that are mature enough to be identified. To make the data collection more efficient, we provided our experts with preliminary maps of points in agricultural areas where street level images are available for the year 2021. Then, the experts checked those locations in an opportunistic way. In total, we collected around 3500 unique locations, distributed around the globe and matching the  
400 WorldCereal 2021 mapped seasons (Table 4). This dataset is completely independent from all the existing maps and reference datasets. Since it is not a subset from the training dataset, there are no potential issues related to spatial autocorrelation between training and validation datasets. Though, it has a limitation – the sample design is not probabilistic. By using the new validation dataset on crop type, we calculated a confusion matrix with metrics, which we called overall agreement and agreement by classes. We did not use the term “accuracy” since the sample design is not probabilistic.

### 405 **3.7.3 Seasonal active irrigation maps**

The amount of total land that is being irrigated differs from year to year, heavily depending on weather conditions. As it has been mentioned in the description of training data, there is very limited information available about actual irrigation of cropland fields, giving us little means to run a quantitative validation of irrigation products as such, especially by season. For irrigation we hence focus on a qualitative assessment, by spatially comparing the WorldCereal irrigation products with two  
410 open access datasets: (i) Global map of areas equipped for irrigation expressed as percentages, produced by FAO (Siebert et al., 2013); and (ii) the Landsat-Derived Global Rainfed and Irrigated-Cropland Product at 30 meters (LGRIP30) (Teluguntla et al., 2023). To this end, the WorldCereal seasonal irrigation products were combined into an annual product and subsequently (together with the LGRIP30 map) aggregated to match the resolution of the FAO map (0.083 degree). This combined irrigated area map describes if in any of the three seasons within the same year a pixel is being classified as  
415 irrigated. Finally, we have compared the WorldCereal irrigation products with data on irrigated land from The World Factbook (CIA, 2012).

### **3.7.4 Seasonal active cropland maps**

Provided the strict definition of the seasonal active cropland maps, no ground truth data is available for validating this specific product. This marker is therefore to be used for informative purposes and only as an indication whether or not a full  
420 growing season was detected by the WorldCereal system.

## **4. WorldCereal products**

The WorldCereal system was demonstrated at scale by globally following the crop calendars described in Sect. 2.2 for the year 2021 and generating all WorldCereal products associated with each of these seasons. The resulting seasonal products are listed in Table 4. A temporary crop map was generated based on one year of input data, described by the tc-annual  
425 season. Within the resulting temporary crop mask, winter cereals, spring cereals and maize maps were generated within their



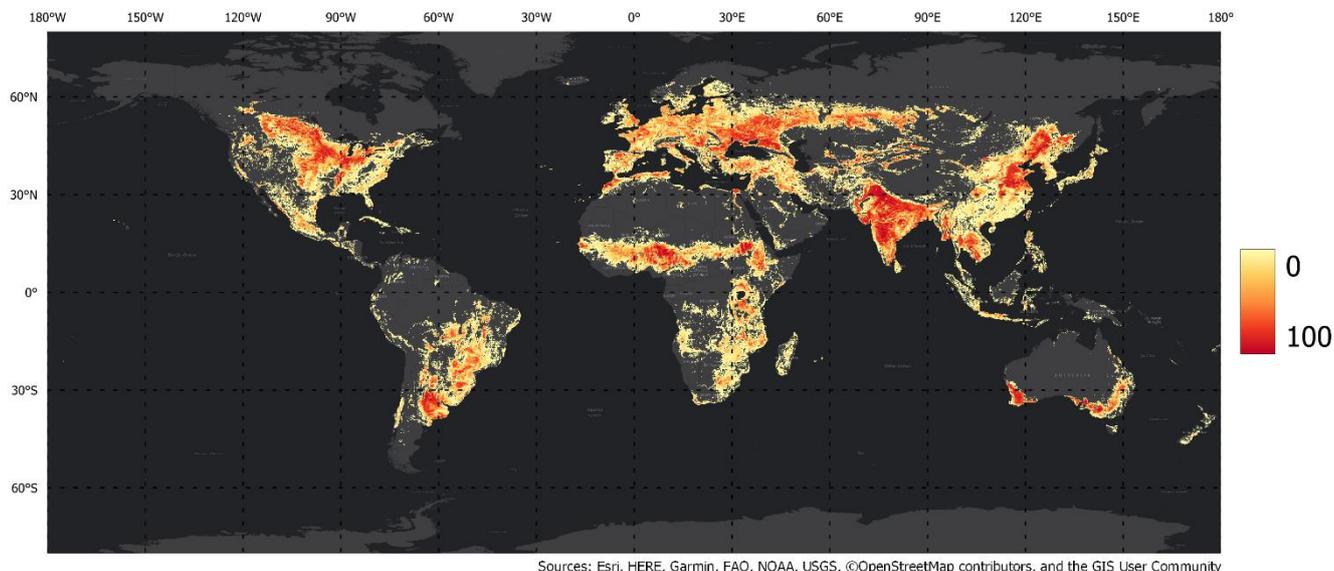
respective seasons. Active cropland and active irrigation maps were generated for each of these seasons next to the crop type maps. The WorldCereal system works at Sentinel-2 tile level, with each tile being subdivided into 10x10 km blocks to ensure memory-efficient processing. Prior to global processing, a global agricultural mask was developed to determine which tiles could be excluded because of their distance to the closest agricultural area. This agricultural mask was largely based on the 2019 Copernicus Global Land Cover product v3 (Buchhorn et al., 2020b): each 10x10 km processing block showing a fraction of agricultural land lower than 1 % was initially excluded from the processing list. The area to be processed was cleaned and expanded by subsequently applying an erosion and dilation operation using a 20 and 40 km radius respectively. After additional cleaning through visual analysis, the mask was resampled to Sentinel-2 tile level using a conservative approach: only if none of the blocks within a tile were flagged as containing no cropland, the tile was excluded from further analysis. This resulted in a total of 11,867 out of 18,537 Sentinel-2 tiles to be processed by the WorldCereal system (see Supplementary Figure S1). All other Sentinel-2 tiles were considered to contain no temporary crops in the WorldCereal product layers. Of the original 203 WorldCereal AEZ across the globe (Figure 2), 106 zones intersect with tiles that were processed and products were therefore generated for those zones (cfr. Sect. 6).

440 **Table 4: WorldCereal seasonal products. The name of the season is provided with the associated product layers.**

SEASON	PRODUCT	REMARKS
tc-annual	Temporary crops map	
tc-wintercereals	Winter cereals map Active cropland map Active irrigation map	
tc-maize-main / tc-springcereals	Maize map Spring cereals map Active cropland map Active irrigation map	Only in parts of Northern hemisphere
tc-maize-second	Maize map Active cropland map Active irrigation map	

#### 4.1 Temporary crop extent map

The global temporary crop extent map for 2021 shows the occurrence of at least one temporary crop over the course of one year at 10m resolution. The result is shown in Figure 4, where the original product was downsampled to ~0.004 ° resolution. Although this figure seemingly shows one global layer, it was in fact generated at different times during the calendar year for the individual zones described in Sect. 3.3, respecting their regional seasonality.

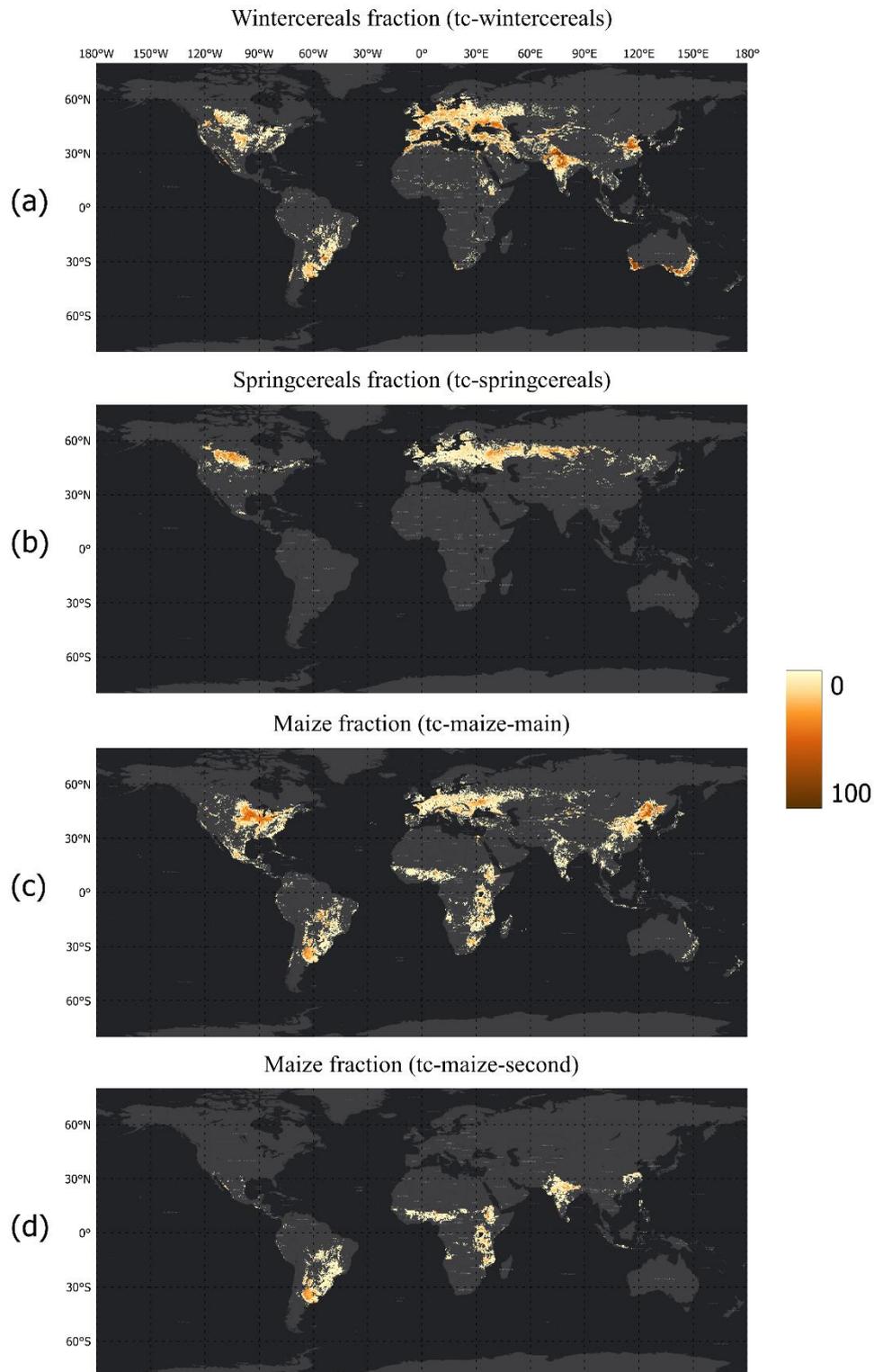


Sources: Esri, HERE, Garmin, FAO, NOAA, USGS, ©OpenStreetMap contributors, and the GIS User Community

450 **Figure 4: WorldCereal 2021 temporary crop extent map. The original 10m product was resampled to  $\sim 0.004^\circ$  resolution showing the fraction of the original 10 m pixels that were labelled as temporary crops. This global overview consists of a mosaic of the individual zones for which the product was generated.**

#### 4.2 Seasonal crop type maps

The seasonal crop type maps were generated separately for each growing season defined in the individual zones (Figure 2). By mosaicking the individual zones, global seasonal cereals and maize maps at 10 m resolution were generated, which in turn were resampled to  $\sim 0.004^\circ$  resolution (Figure 5). Maize and spring cereals were generated during the same growing  
455 season (tc-maize-main). Overlap between these two products was resolved during postprocessing (Sect. 3.6). No conflict resolving was done between different seasons, as these were processed independently.



Sources: Esri, HERE, Garmin, FAO, NOAA, USGS, ©OpenStreetMap contributors, and the GIS User Community

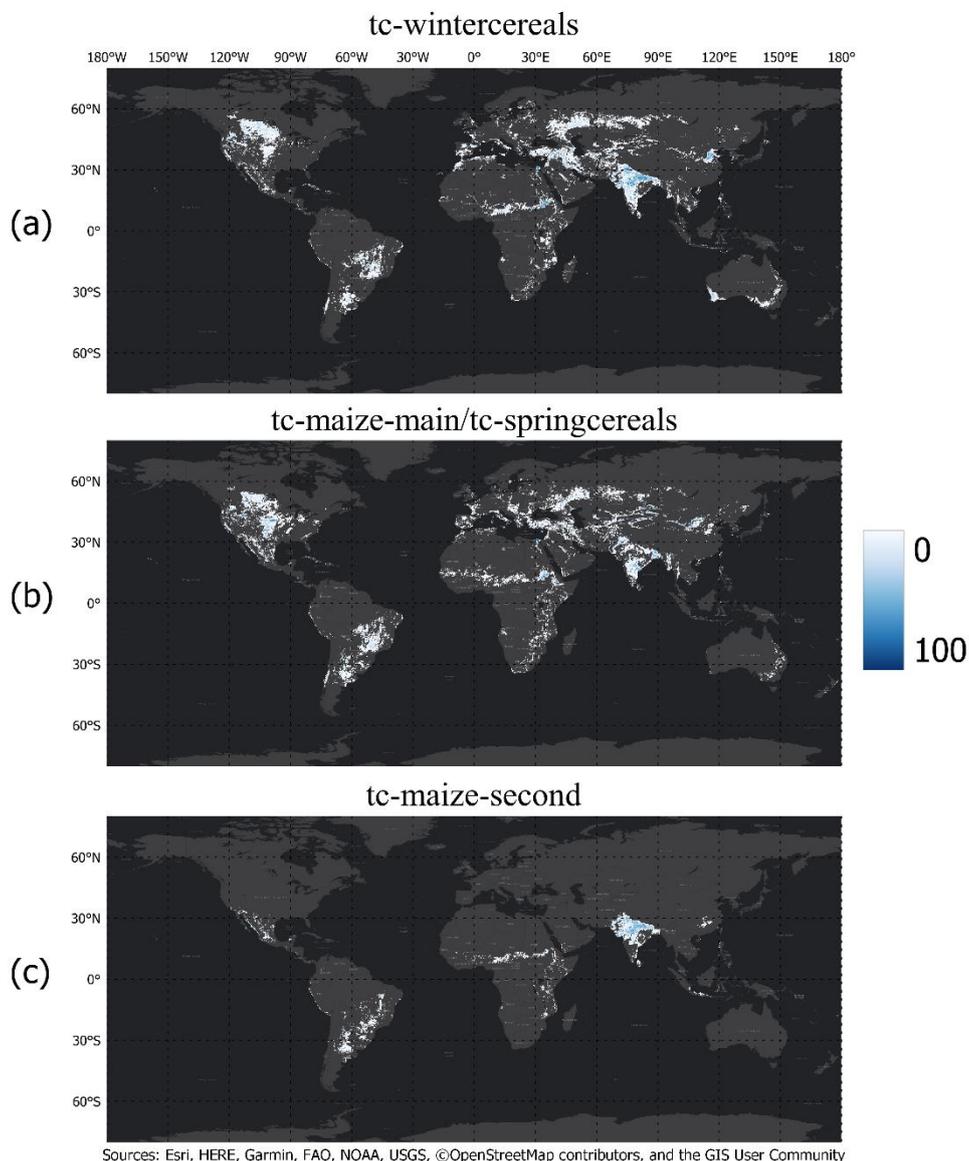


460 **Figure 5: WorldCereal 2021 seasonal crop type products. The original 10 m products were resampled to  $\sim 0.004^\circ$  resolution showing the fraction of land covered by each crop type. These global overviews consist of a mosaic of the individual AEZ for which the product was generated. (a) Winter cereals fraction in the tc-wintercereals season. (b) Spring cereals fraction in the tc-springcereals season. (c) Maize fraction in the tc-maize-main season. (d) Maize fraction in the tc-maize-second season.**

### 4.3 Seasonal active irrigation maps

465 Similar to the seasonal crop type maps, the irrigation maps were generated separately for each growing season and then combined to an annual 10m product. The downsampled ( $\sim 0.004^\circ$ ) results of these irrigation maps showing the fraction of irrigated land is visualized in Figure 6. Areas without active irrigation are shown transparent. As with the annual temporary crop and seasonal crop type products, the global overview shown in Figure 6 in reality consists of the different AEZ-based products generated at different times in the year.

470



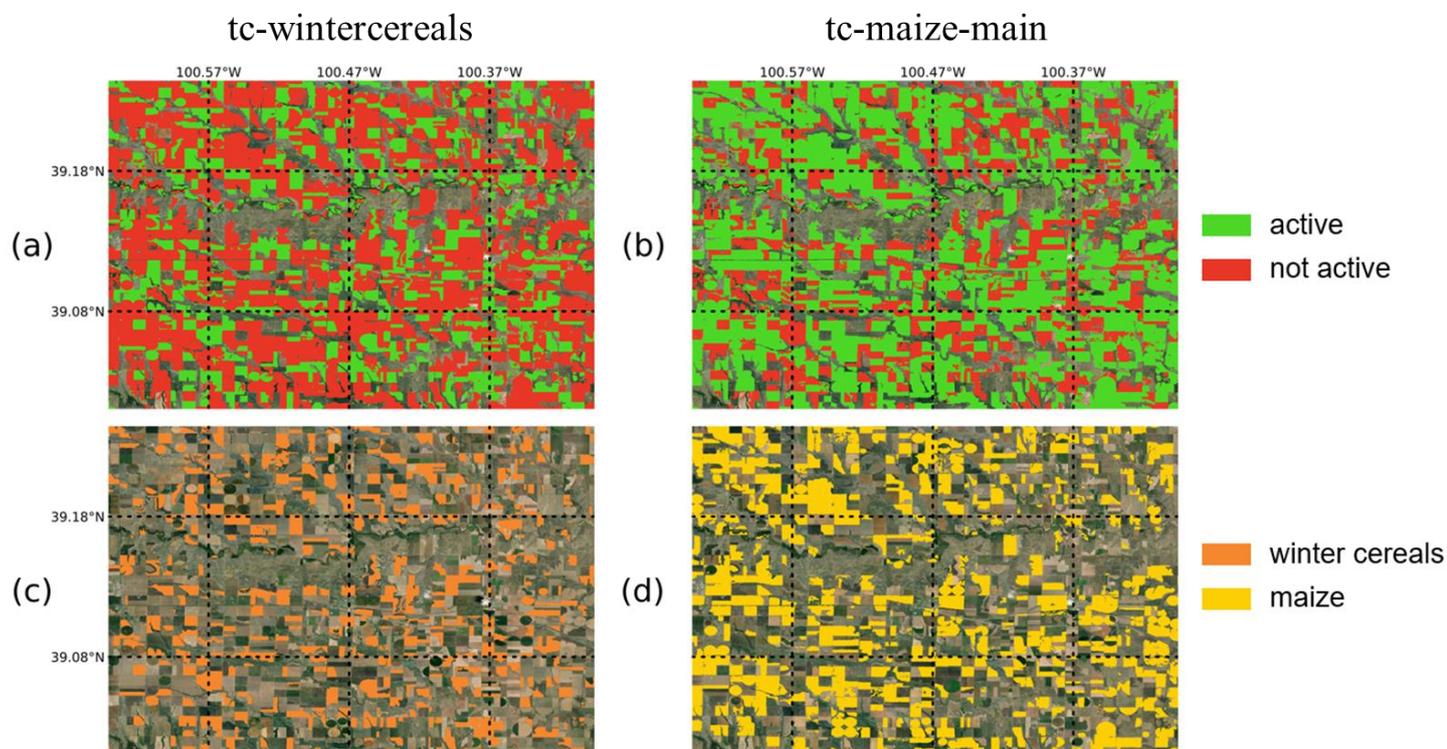
475 **Figure 6: WorldCereal 2021 seasonal active irrigation products. The original 10 m products were resampled to  $\sim 0.004^\circ$  resolution showing the fraction of irrigated land. These global overviews consist of a mosaic of the individual AEZ for which the product was generated. (a) Fraction of irrigated land in the tc-wintercereals season. (b) Fraction of irrigated land in the tc-maize-main/tc-springcereals season. (c) Fraction of irrigated land in the tc-maize-second season.**

#### 4.4 Seasonal active cropland maps

Active cropland layers were generated for all seasonal layers described in Table 4. These layers show whether or not a full crop growth cycle (consisting of sowing, growing, harvesting) has been detected in the areas identified by the temporary crop mask (Sect. 4.1) within the specific season under consideration. An example is shown in Figure 7 for a region near



480 Grainfield, Kansas, USA where a mixture of winter cereals and maize were detected by the WorldCereal system in their respective seasons. Fields being labelled as active cropland in Figure 7 but not as one of the target crop types of the WorldCereal system indicate the presence of another crop type that follows the same seasonality as the crop for which the season was originally defined.



485

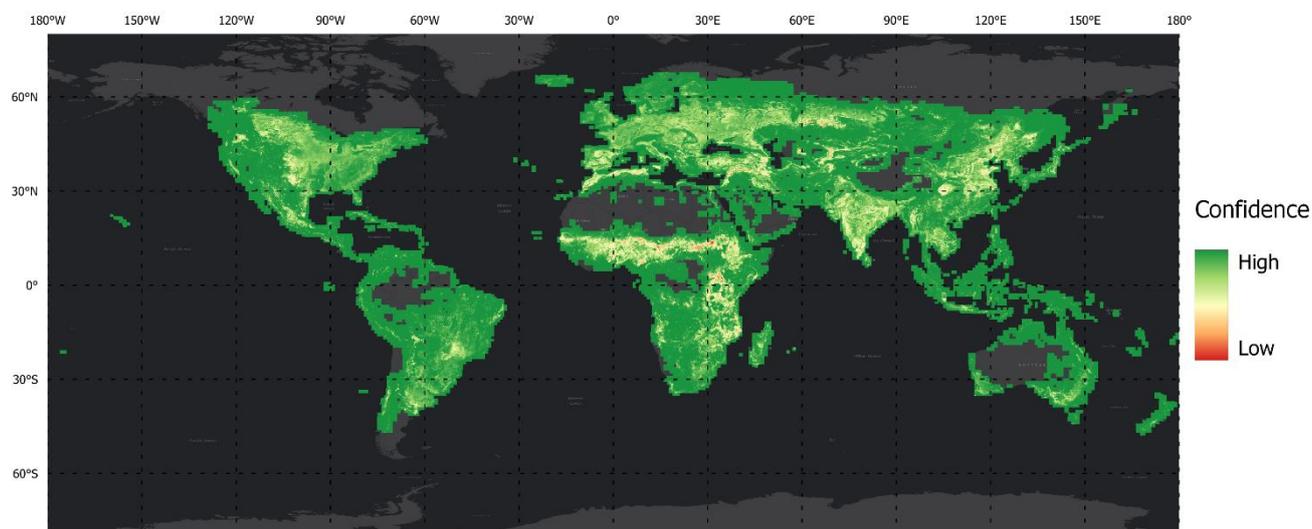
**Figure 7: Example of seasonal active cropland maps near Grainfield, Kansas, USA. Active cropland for (a) tc-wintercereals and (b) tc-main-maize seasons show different crop seasonality at parcel level. The (c) winter cereals and (d) maize maps overlap with active cropland for their respective season. Parcels showing up as active cropland but outside winter cereals and maize masks indicate other crops that follow the seasonality for which the respective crop type map was created.**

#### 490 4.5 Confidence maps

Temporary crop extent, crop type and irrigation maps all have related confidence layers as described in Sect. 3.5. As an example, Figure 8 shows the global confidence layer associated with the temporary crop extent product (Figure 4). Regions of low confidence indicate that the model struggles to provide a reliable prediction, in turn meaning that in those locations the feature values used as predictors do not clearly relate to one of the two binary classes being mapped. Several reasons can be identified that may cause unreliable predictions. The most straightforward explanation is a training data gap in a specific region where the feature values do not resemble any of the combinations seen during model training in which case  
495 extrapolation by the model fails. Mixed pixels can also explain lower confidence, for example on the border of agricultural



fields where a pixel could include both temporary crops and another land cover class. A third explanation relates to specific agrometeorological conditions that are too different from what the model has learned. In this case, although a region could be covered by training data from a different year, the features from the mapping year are too different resulting in model confusion. A fourth explanation is the degree of cloud obstruction in the optical observations during the growing season. While this is partly tackled by the inclusion of radar inputs into the classification, the lack of a clear crop growth cycle in the optical inputs can significantly deteriorate crop detection performance. A last possible explanation is related to noise in the training data, either because of inconsistent class definitions or temporal, thematic and/or geolocation inaccuracies. This confuses the model in such way that conditions similar to the noisy training data lead to low-confidence and potentially wrong predictions. Apart from mixed pixels which are linked to the input data resolution, the most straightforward solution to improve model confidence is to gather additional training data that fills the knowledge gap. Low confidence regions could therefore point the community to targeted training data collection efforts where it is mostly needed to help boost model confidence and accuracy.



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**Figure 8: WorldCereal 2021 temporary crop extent mapping confidence.** The original 10m product was resampled to  $\sim 0.004^\circ$  resolution showing the mean confidence of the original 10 m pixels.

## 5. Product validation

Table 5 summarizes the results of the annual temporary crop extent validation at global level and by continent. It includes overall accuracy, user's and producer's accuracies, as well as 95 % confidence intervals calculated by applying bootstrapping with replacement. The most informative are user's and producer's accuracies, which are 88.5 % and 92.1 %, respectively for the globe. Overall, high accuracy numbers are observed for most continents, while somewhat lower

515



accuracies are observed in Asia and Africa. As expected based on agricultural landscape complexity in combination with large training data gaps, Africa has the lowest accuracy numbers.

520

**Table 5: Summary of accuracy estimates for the WorldCereal temporary crop product by regions.**

World regions	Overall accuracy	95% confidence intervals for overall accuracy		User's accuracy for cropland	95% confidence intervals for user's accuracy		Producer's accuracy for cropland	95% confidence intervals for producer's accuracy	
		lower bound	upper bound		lower bound	upper bound		lower bound	upper bound
Global	97.8%	97.8%	97.9%	88.5%	88.0%	89.0%	92.1%	91.7%	92.5%
Africa	97.2%	97.0%	97.4%	76.7%	75.0%	78.3%	85.9%	84.5%	87.5%
Asia	97.3%	97.2%	97.5%	85.3%	84.4%	86.1%	93.9%	93.3%	94.5%
Australia and Oceania	99.0%	98.8%	99.2%	91.1%	89.0%	93.6%	96.1%	94.8%	98.0%
Europe	97.8%	97.6%	98.1%	96.6%	96.0%	97.2%	92.9%	92.0%	93.9%
North America	98.7%	98.5%	98.8%	95.6%	94.7%	96.5%	93.3%	92.3%	94.3%
South America	98.9%	98.8%	99.1%	95.7%	94.8%	96.8%	90.4%	89.1%	91.8%

Table 6 shows the results of the independent crop type validation at global level. For calculating the confusion matrix, maize in the tc-maize-main and tc-maize-second seasons was combined in one class “maize”, while spring cereals and winter cereals were also combined in one class “cereals”. Overall, omission errors (complementary metric to producer's accuracy) are larger than commission errors (complementary metric to user's accuracy) for both crop types. This could be explained by a lack of training data. Important to note is that the presented results are biased towards the areas covered by the validation dataset, which includes 2617 crop type records.

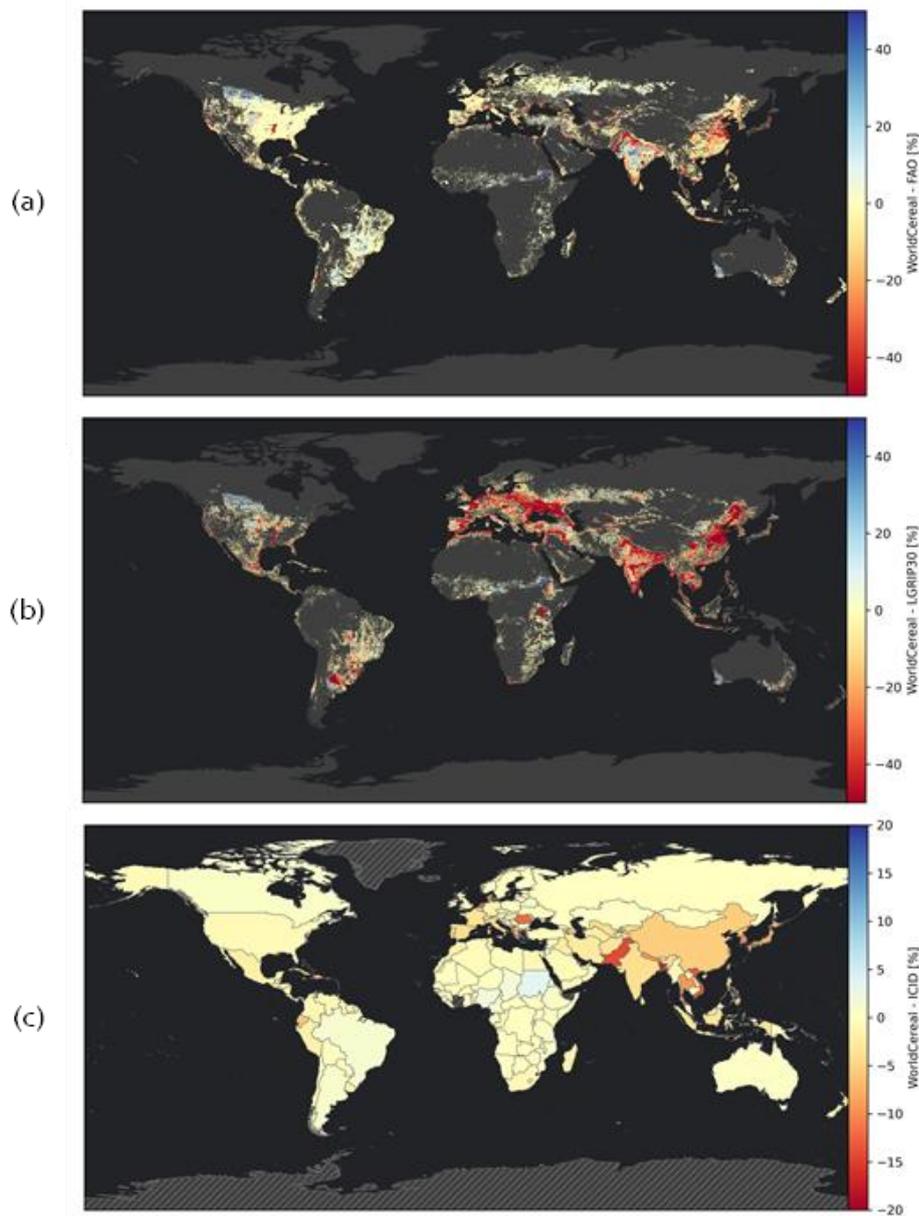


530 **Table 6: Global crop type validation results**

WorldCereal products/validation dataset	Other crops	Maize	Cereals	Agreement by classes (User's accuracy)
Other crops	1010	167	161	75.5%
Maize	78	544	12	85.8%
Cereals	31	10	604	93.6%
Agreement by classes (Producer's accuracy)	90.3%	75.5%	77.7%	
Overall agreement				82.5%

Figure 9 shows the results of the comparison of the WorldCereal irrigation products with (a) the FAO global map of areas equipped for irrigation in 2005 (Siebert et al., 2013), (b) the Landsat-Derived Global Rainfed and Irrigated-Cropland Product at 30 meters (LGRIP30) (Teluguntla et al., 2023), and (c) country statistics on irrigated land from the International Commission on Irrigation & Drainage (ICID) (ICID, 2022). The figures must be interpreted with caution since we do not know what the ground truth is. It is important to consider the following aspects:

- Wherever the WorldCereal irrigation products show less irrigation (areas highlighted in red), it could be that not all the areas equipped for irrigation were actually irrigated in 2021. This is a common practice in many countries. Also, both the FAO and LGRIP30 maps include perennial cropland in their definitions, while the WorldCereal products do not. Therefore, it is logical that those two maps show more irrigation areas in some places. Finally, as mentioned in the definition of the WorldCereal irrigation product, we do not consider incidentally irrigated cropland, for example cropland that is only irrigated during the sowing period, which could also be a cause of the general underestimation of irrigated land compared to other datasets.
- Wherever the WorldCereal irrigation products show more irrigation (areas highlighted in blue), those pixels could be either areas recently equipped for irrigation, or WorldCereal commission errors, or FAO's and LGRIP30 omission errors. However, we think that the hotspots in the south of the Sahel, the USA, Russia and Brazil are most likely WorldCereal commission errors.

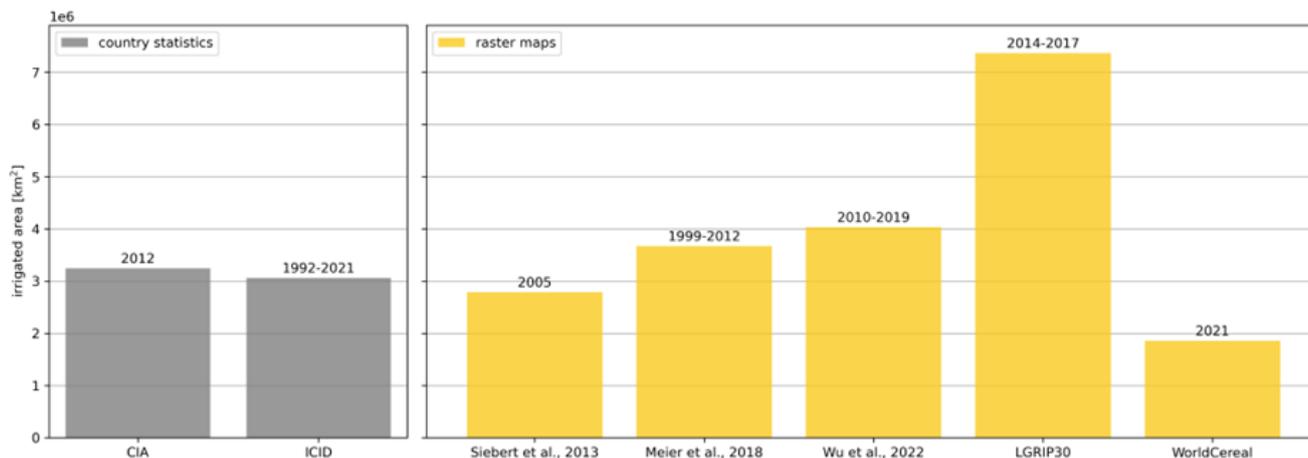


550 **Figure 9: Differences in percentages whilst comparing the WorldCereal combined irrigation product and: (a) the FAO global area equipped for irrigation in 2005 map, (b) the LGRIP30 irrigated area map for 2015, and (c) the International Commission on Irrigation and Drainage (ICID) world irrigated area dataset. The WorldCereal products show more irrigation in blue areas and less in red areas, compared to the other datasets.**

Figure 9b shows that there is a large difference between the WorldCereal irrigated area product and the LGRIP30 map. Mainly in Europe and Asia the LGRIP30 classifies significantly more land as being irrigated. To understand how these maps



555 relate to global statistics, Figure 10 shows a comparison between multiple global irrigation maps from literature and statistical datasets from the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA, 2012) and ICID (ICID, 2022).



560 **Figure 10: Comparison between global statistical datasets from the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) and International Commission on Irrigation and Drainage (ICID) on irrigated area compared to five global irrigated area maps that are based on remote sensing data.**

The two statistical datasets used for this analysis show relatively similar global irrigated area values of roughly 3 million km<sup>2</sup>. The map from Siebert et al. (2013) is used to produce the area equipped for irrigation map of the FAO and describes the irrigated land around the year 2005. The studies from Meier et al. (2018) and Wu et al. (2023) mainly focus on long time series of NDVI data to determine irrigated areas. The LGRIP30 map is based on the Global Cropland-Extent Product at 30-m Resolution (GCEP30) (Thenkabail et al., 2021) to mask agricultural areas and it combines multiple spectral bands and indices of Landsat-8 from 2014-2017 to train multiple machine learning models (Teluguntla et al., 2023). From the different irrigation maps, the map from Siebert et al. (2013) agrees best with the statistical datasets. Both the maps from Meier et al. (2018) and Wu et al. (2023) show an overestimation of irrigated areas compared to the statistical datasets. The LGRIP30 map shows a drastic overestimation of the irrigated area, which is almost double compared to the findings from the CIA and ICID. Finally, the WorldCereal irrigation product underestimates the global irrigated area by roughly 35 %, which is partly due to omission errors, but also caused by the fact that the WorldCereal product only focuses on temporary crops. The year 2021 is deemed to be a relatively wet year for Europe, South America, Australia, and parts of Southern Asia (NOAA, 2022), so potentially many farms that are equipped for irrigation did not require irrigation. Producing more irrigated area maps for different years with the WorldCereal system should give more insight into this hypothesis. Combining irrigated area maps from different years could also add information on the irrigation frequency of each pixel.

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575



## 6. Data availability

### 6.1 WorldCereal products

The WorldCereal 2021 products are available at: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7875105> (Van Tricht et al., 2023). Each WorldCereal product has its own archive in the repository and contains cloud-optimized geotiff (COG) files per AEZ which were reprojected from the original Sentinel-2 tile grid to the lat/lon WGS84 projection. Confidence layers are available separately and were downsampled to 0.0004 ° resolution.

### 6.2 Reference data

The harmonized reference data used in the WorldCereal system can be accessed in two ways. The first way to find the data is using the Geo-Wiki hosted reference data module available at <https://worldcereal-rdm.geo-wiki.org>, where users can browse through the different datasets, visible on a global map. All data and metadata can also be downloaded from the website. A second way to access the data is by entering the WorldCereal community in the Zenodo data repository, available at <https://zenodo.org/communities/worldcereal-rdm/>. The repository shows the harmonized data in three parts, each one having its own license, based on the licence of the original datasets. Furthermore, the protocol to harmonize the reference data is also available there. The Zenodo repository also has API access enabled.

The new reference datasets developed for validation of the WorldCereal products are available on

- <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7825628> for the global crop type collected using the Street Imagery validation tool (Lesiv et al., 2023a)
- <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7837480> for the global validation dataset on temporary crop 2021 collected using Geo-Wiki (Lesiv et al., 2023b)

## 7. Code availability

The entire classification module code used to generate the WorldCereal 2021 products described here is publicly available on <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7863779> (Van Tricht and Degerickx, 2023).

## 8. Conclusions

The European Space Agency (ESA) WorldCereal system has successfully produced the first global, seasonal, and reproducible temporary crop extent, crop type and irrigation maps at 10 m resolution. Its product suite for the year 2021 presented here provides a range of seasonal maps that are fully validated. Global user's and producer's accuracies for the annual temporary crop product reached 88.5 % and 92.1 %, respectively. Validation numbers of the other product layers exhibit a spatial bias due to the limited availability of independent validation samples, or could not be quantitatively



determined due to a lack of sufficient validation samples. Despite the known challenges and complexities associated with the  
605 mapping of dynamic agricultural landscapes at large spatial scales, our efforts have demonstrated the capabilities of the  
dynamic open-source WorldCereal system to generate high-quality products at global scale and with high spatial detail,  
thereby maximizing their applicability and relevance for local agricultural monitoring purposes. As such, we strongly believe  
the WorldCereal system provides a vital tool for policymakers, international organizations, and researchers to better  
understand global to regional crop and irrigation patterns and inform decision-making related to food security and  
610 sustainable agriculture. The complete 2021 WorldCereal product suite can also act as a foundation for a worldwide crop  
monitoring system, providing a significant step forward in addressing the challenge of global food security. Due to these  
significant potential contributions, we want to strongly emphasize the importance of continuing the development of the  
system beyond this 2021 showcase. Moving forward, we recommend focusing on enhancing the quality of the products in  
areas where confidence is lowest by forging local/regional collaborations in improved collection of ground truth data which  
615 will further enhance the local applicability of these products. Such continued community efforts are crucial to support further  
improvements to the system and push the boundaries for global agricultural mapping from space.

### **Author contributions**

KVT and JD: conceptualization, methodology, software, investigation, writing – original draft, review and editing,  
visualization, funding acquisition; SG: conceptualization, supervision, project administration, funding acquisition, writing –  
620 review and editing; DZ: methodology, software; MB, AG and SK: software; JB: methodology, software, validation,  
investigation, writing – original draft, review and editing; ML: validation, data curation, writing – original draft, review and  
editing; JCB: validation, data curations, writing – original draft, review and editing, funding acquisition; SF and IBR:  
conceptualization, funding acquisition; BF: methodology, funding acquisition; BMB: methodology; HB: data curation,  
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### **Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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