Influence of initial soil moisture in a Regional Climate Model study over West Africa. Part 1: Impact on the climate mean

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12 Abstract.

The impact of soil moisture initial conditions on the mean climate over West Africa was 13 examined using the latest version of the Regional Climate Model of the International Centre for 14 15 Theoretical Physics (RegCM4) at a horizontal resolution of 25 km × 25 km. The soil moisture reanalysis of the European Centre Meteorological Weather Forecast's reanalysis of the 20th 16 17 century ERA20C is used to initialize the control experiment, while its minimum and maximum values over the entire domain are used to establish the initial dry and wet soil moisture 18 19 conditions respectively (hereafter dry and wet experiments). For the control, the wet and dry experiments, an ensemble of five runs from June to September are performed. In each 20 experiment, we analyzed the two idealized simulations most sensitive to the dry and wet soil 21 moisture initial conditions. The impact of soil moisture initial conditions on precipitation in West 22 Africa is linear over the Central and West Sahel where dry (wet) experiments lead to rainfall 23 decrease (increase). The strongest precipitation increase is found over the West Sahel for wet 24 25 experiments with a maximum change value of approximately 40%, while the strongest precipitation decrease is found for dry experiments over Central Sahel with a peak of change of 26 approximately -4%. The sensitivity of soil moisture initial condition can persist for three to four 27 months (90-120 days) depending on the region. However, the influence on precipitation is no 28 29 longer than one month (between 15 and 30 days). The strongest temperature decrease is located over the Central and West Sahel with a maximum change of approximately -1.5 °C in wet 30 experiments, while the strongest temperature increase is found over the Guinea Coast and 31 Central Sahel for the dry experiments, with a maximum of change around 0.6°C. A significant 32

impact of soil moisture initial conditions on the surface energy fluxes is noted: in the wet (dry) experiments, a cooling (warming) of surface temperature is associated with a decrease (increase) of sensible heat flux, an increase (decrease) of latent heat flux and a decrease (increase) of the boundary layer depth. Part II of this study investigates the influence of soil moisture initial conditions on climate extremes.

38 **1 Introduction**

In the climate system, soil moisture is a crucial variable that influences water balance and 39 surface energy components through latent surface fluxes and evaporation. Therefore, soil 40 moisture impacts the development of weather patterns and precipitation. The strength of soil 41 moisture impacts on land-atmosphere coupling varies with location and season. Koster et al. 42 (2004) sustained that improving the simulation of the atmospheric response to the slow 43 44 variations of land and ocean surface conditions may be important for seasonal climate prediction. The atmospheric response to ocean temperature anomalies has been well documented (Diedhiou 45 and Mahfouf 1996; Kirtman et al. 1998; Rasmusson et al. 1982). Schär et al. 1999 sustained that 46 the role of soils may be comparable to that of the oceans. The solar energy received by the 47 48 oceans is stored in summer and used to heat the atmosphere in winter. Conversely, the precipitation received by the soil is stored in winter and the moistening (cooling) is returned to 49 50 the atmosphere in summer. Through its impact on surface energy fluxes and evaporation, there are many additional impacts on the climate process of soil moisture, such as boundary-layer 51 52 stability and air temperature (Hong and Pan, 2000; Kim and Hong 2006). Several studies have shown that the anomalies of soil moisture may persist for several weeks or months, however, its 53 impact remains only for a shorter time in the atmosphere, not exceeding few days (Vinnikov and 54 Yeserkepova 1991; Liu et al., 2014). The important role of anomalies in soil moisture in the 55 coupling between land and atmosphere has been shown in several studies, using numerical 56 climate models (Zhang et al., 2011) and observation datasets (Zhang et al., 2008a; Dirmeyer et 57 al., 2006). For instance, over East Asia, Zhang et al., (2011) showed that soil moisture is found 58 to have a much stronger impact on daily maximum temperature variability than on daily mean 59 temperature variability, but generally has small effects on daily minimum temperature, except in 60 the eastern Tibetan Plateau. They showed that soil moisture has a prominent contribution to 61 precipitation variability in many parts of western China. 62

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64 West Africa is known to exhibit strong coupling between soil moisture and precipitation (Koster 65 et al., 2004). Several previous studies have been conducted over West Africa on a global scale

using atmospheric general circulation model (AGCMs) to investigate the impact of soil moisture 66 initial conditions on the land-atmosphere coupling (Koster et al., 2004; Douville and al, 2001; 67 68 Zhang et al., 2008b). However, at local and regional scales, the land-atmosphere coupling studies with AGCMs, present significant uncertainties (Xue et al. 2010). The regional climate models 69 70 (RCMs) have been used to simulate the impact on interannual climate variability of anomalies in 71 soil moisture (Seneviratne et al. 2006; Zhang et al. 2011). These studies have received a lot of 72 attention due to the increase of climate variability associated with extreme weather events that 73 have greater societal and environmental impacts. In general, these studies have been conducted in Asia, Europe and America (e.g. Seneviratne et al. 2006 for Europe; Zhang et al. 2011 for Asia; 74 Zhang et al. 2008b for America). Overall, the results of these studies showed that during 75 summer, the strong impact of the anomalies of soil moisture in land-atmosphere occurred mainly 76 over the transition zones with a climate between wet and dry regimes, in agreement with Koster 77 et al. (2004). The relevance and extent of this potential feedback are still poorly understood in 78 West Africa. 79

This study will focus on the influence of soil moisture initial conditions on climate mean. It is 80 based on performance assessment of the Regional Climate model version 4 coupled to the 81 version 4.5 of the Community Land Model (RegCM4-CLM4.5) performed by Koné et al. (2018) 82 where the ability of the model to reproduce the climate mean has been validated. The 83 descriptions of the model and experimental setup used in this study are presented in Section. 2; 84 in the Section 3, the influence of wet and dry soil moisture initial conditions on the subsequent 85 climate mean is analyzed and discussed; and in Section 4 the main conclusions are presented. 86 87 While this Part I investigates the impacts on the climate mean, the Part II of this article will be focused on the influence of soil moisture initial conditions on climate extremes. 88

89 2. Model and experimental design

90 2.1 Model description and observed datasets

91 The fourth generation of the Regional Climate Model (RegCM4) of the International Centre for Theoretical Physics (ICTP) is used in this study. Since its release, its physical representations 92 have been continuously developed and implemented. The version used in the present study is 93 RegCM4.7. The MM5 (Grell et al., 1994) non-hydrostatic dynamical core has been ported to 94 RegCM without removing the existing hydrostatic core. The model dynamical core used in this 95 study is non-hydrostatic. RegCM4 is a limited area model using a sigma pressure vertical grid 96 and the finite differencing algorithm of Arakawa B-grid (Giorgi et al., 2012). The radiation 97 scheme used in this version of RegCM4.7 is derived from the National Center for Atmospheric 98

Research (NCAR) Community Climate Model Version three (CCM3) (Kiehl et al., 1996). 99 Aerosols representation is from Zakey et al. (2006) and Solmon et al. (2006). The large-scale 100 precipitation scheme is from Pal et al. (2000) and the moisture scheme is the SUBgrid EXplicit 101 moisture scheme (SUBEX). The SUBEX take into account the sub-grid scale cloud variability, 102 and the accretion processes and evaporation for stable precipitation following the work of 103 Sundqvist et al., 1989. In the planetary boundary layer (PBL), the sensible heat over ocean and 104 land, water vapour and turbulent transport of momentum are calculated according to the 105 106 scheme of Holtslag et al. (1990). Heat and moisture, the momentum fluxes of ocean surfaces in this study are computed as in Zeng et al. (1998). In RegCM4.7, convective precipitation and 107 land surface processes can be described by several parameterizations. Based on Koné et al. 108 (2018), we selected the convective scheme reported by Emanuel (1991) and the interaction 109 processes between soil, vegetation and atmosphere are parameterized with CLM4.5. In each 110 grid cell, CLM4.5 has 16 different Plant Functional Types (PFTs) and 10 soil layers (Lawrence 111 et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2016). RegCM4 is integrated over the domain of West Africa depicted 112 in Fig. 1 with 25 km (182x114 grid points; from 20° W-20° E and 5° S-21° N) with horizontal 113 resolution and with 18 vertical levels and the initial and boundary conditions are taken from the 114 European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts reanalysis (EIN75; Uppala et al., 2008; 115 Simmons et al., 2007). The sea surface temperatures are obtained from the National Oceanic 116 and Atmosphere Administration (NOAA) optimal interpolation weekly (OI WK) (Reynolds et 117 al., 1996). The topography data are taken from the States Geological Survey (USGS) Global 118 Multi-resolution Terrain Elevation Data (GMTED; Danielson et al., 2011) at 30 arc-second 119 spatial resolution, which is an update to the Global Land Cover Characterization (GTOPO; 120 Loveland et al., 2000) dataset. 121

Our analysis focuses on precipitation and the 2 m air temperature over the West African domain 122 during the June-July-August-September (JJAS). We validate the simulated precipitation with the 123 dataset from the Climate Hazards Group Infrared Precipitation with Stations (CHIRPS) 124 developed at the University of California at Santa Barbara at the 0.05° high-resolution available 125 126 from 1981 to 2020 (Funk et al., 2015). The validation of the simulated 2 m temperature relies on the CRU datasets (Climate Research Unit version 3.20) from the University of East Anglia, 127 gridded at a horizontal resolution of 0.5° for 1901 to 2011 (Harris et al., 2013). To facilitate 128 comparison between RegCM4 simulations, all products has been re-gridded to $0.22^\circ \times 0.22^\circ$ 129 130 using a bilinear interpolation method (Nikulin et al., 2012).

131 2.2 Experiments setup and analysis methodology

The European 20th Century Weather Prediction Center ERA20C soil moisture reanalysis is used to initialize the control experiment, while its domain-wide minimum and maximum values are used to establish the initial dry and wet soil moisture conditions respectively (hereafter dry and wet experiments). We initialized the dry and wet soil moisture initial conditions (in volumetric fraction m³.m⁻³) respectively at the minimum value (=0.117*10⁻⁴) and the maximum value (=0.489).

We designed three experiments (reference, wet, and dry), each with an ensemble of five (5) 138 simulations. The simulation time period for each experiment lasts for 4 months, starting from 139 June 1st to September 30th. The difference between these three experiments is the change in the 140 initial soil moisture condition (reference initial soil moisture condition, wet initial soil moisture 141 condition, and dry initial soil moisture condition) during the first day of the simulation (June 1 st 142 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004 and 2005) over the West African domain. Then, we selected the two 143 runs most impacted by the wet and dry soil moisture initial conditions in order to exhibit the 144 effects on the climate mean beyond the limits of the impacts of RegCM4 initial soil moisture 145 146 internal forcing. In the same context, several previous studies have selected two extreme years to investigate the climate models sensitivity to soil moisture initial conditions (Hong et al., 2000; 147 Kim and Hong, 2006) outside Africa. 148

Hong and al. (2000) used only two years (three months per year) to investigate the impact of 149 initial soil moisture over North America (in the Great Plains) during two summers spanning 150 May-June-July (MJJ) in 1988 (corresponding to a drought) and 1993 (corresponding to a 151 flooding event). Kim and Hong (2006) selected two contrasting years 1997 (below normal 152 precipitation) and 1998 (above normal precipitation year) for their study over east Asia. The first 153 seven days (Kang et al., 2014) are excluded from the analysis as a spin-up period. Except the 154 geographical location, the experimental setup is the same as that of Hong and Pan (2000). The 155 geographical location of this study is the same as in Koné et al. (2018), with four sub-regions 156 (Fig. 1) exhibiting different features of the annual precipitation cycle: Central Sahel (10° W - 10° 157 E; 10° N - 16° N), West Sahel (18° W - 10° W, 10° N - 16° N), and Guinea Coast (15° W - 10° 158

159 E; 3° N - 10° N).

In several previous studies (Liu et al., 2014; Hong and Pan, 2000; Kim and Hong, 2006), the mean biases (MB) averaged over their studied domains are used to quantify the impact of the soil moisture initial conditions. In our study, we used the MB and the probability density function (PDF; Gao et al., 2016; Jaeger and Seneviratne, 2011) by fitting a normal distribution to better capture how many grid points are impacted by soil moisture initial conditions. The pattern correlation coefficient (PCC) is also used as a spatial correlation to reveal the degree of largescale similarity between model simulations and observations. These performance metrics (MB,
PCC, and PDF) are computed for both modeled and observed temperature and precipitation only
over land grid points.

For the two years most sensitive to soil moisture initial conditions, the Student t-test is used to 169 compare the significance of the difference between a wet or dry sensitivity test (sample 1) and 170 the control (sample 2) in assuming that our two samples are independent and in considering that 171 this method performs well for climate simulations compared to more sophisticated techniques 172 developed to address autocorrelation (Damien et al., 2014). The Student t-test is extensively used 173 for analysis in climate sciences; it is fairly robust and easy to use and interpret (Menedez et al., 174 2019; Talahashi and Polcher, 2019). The Student t-test takes into account, the difference between 175 the means of each sample, the variance (S) and the number of degrees of freedom (n - 1), which 176 depends on the sample size (n). The test statistic is calculated as: 177

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$$t = \frac{\overline{X}_1 - \overline{X}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{S_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{S_2^2}{n_2}}}$$

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180 Where \overline{X}_1 (\overline{X}_2) are the sample means, n_1 (n_2) are the sample sizes and S_1^2 (S_2^2) are the sample 181 variances. In this study, the t-test at the 95% confidence level is used to consider statistically 182 significant.

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184 **3. Results and discussion**

185 **3.1. Influence of soil moisture initial conditions on precipitation.**

To identify the two runs most impacted by the dry and wet experiments among the ensemble of 186 five simulations (initiated on 1st June 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004 and 2005), we superimposed on 187 Figure 2, the magnitude of daily soil moisture changes of the 5 runs compared to their 188 corresponding control experiment over West African domain. Figure 2 shows that for the dry 189 experiments (negative values of daily soil moisture changes), the weakest and strongest impacts 190 of soil moisture initial conditions are found with the runs initiated on 1st June 2004 and 2003 191 respectively. For the wet experiments (positive values of daily soil moisture changes), the 192 weakest impact is found for the run initiated on 1st June 2003, while the other runs exhibit quite 193 the same strong sensitivity. From these results, we selected the two runs initiated on June 1st, 194 2003 and June 1st, 2004 as the simulations most influenced by the initial wet and dry soil 195 moisture conditions, respectively, to better highlight the effects on the climate mean beyond the 196

limits of the impact of the initial internal soil moisture forcing. It is worth noting that 2003 is
wetter than 2004 and is more sensitive to the dry experiment. While 2004 which is drier than
2003 is more sensitive to the wet experiment.

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Figure 3 displays the spatial distribution of the observed mean rainfall (mm/day) from CHIRPS 201 (Fig. 3a, c) for the runs JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 and the simulated from control experiments 202 (Fig. 3b, d) initialized with reanalysis soil moisture ERA20C. Table 1 reports the MB and PCC 203 for model simulation compared to CHIRPS, computed for the Central Sahel, Guinea Coast, West 204 Sahel, and the entire West African domain. The CHIRPS product displays a zonal band of 205 rainfall centered around 10° N, decreasing from North to South (Fig. 3a, c). The maximum 206 207 values are located over the mountain regions of Cameroun and Guinea. While the precipitation minimum values are found over the Sahel and the Sahara. The control experiments (Fig. 3 b and 208 209 d) reproduced the large-scale pattern of observed rainfall with PCC = 0.72 and 0.77 for the runs JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004, respectively (Table 1). The spatial extent of rainfall maxima and the 210 North-South gradient are well captured by control experiments; however, their magnitudes are 211 underestimated with respected to the CHIRPS observation. Over West African domain, dry MB 212 reaching -49.31% and -50.56% are obtained for the runs JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004, 213 respectively (Table 1). Fig. 4 displays the change in mean precipitation (in %) in JJAS 2003 and 214 JJAS 2004 for dry and wet experiments with respect to the control experiments. The dotted area 215 shows changes with a statistical significance of 95%. 216

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Dry and wet sensitivity experiments showed that precipitation is significantly affected by soil 218 219 moisture initial conditions at magnitude varying with the sub-regions (Fig. 4). Over the Central 220 Sahel, for the dry experiments (Fig. 4a, c), we found a precipitation decrease for JJAS 2003 and 221 JJAS 2004 (Fig. 4a, c). On the other hand, over the Guinea coast, we found an increase in rainfall for both JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004. For the wet experiments (Fig.4b, d), there is an increase of 222 rainfall over most of studied domains for both JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004. Overall, the impact of 223 224 the soil moisture initial conditions on the precipitation is linear only over the Central Sahel for both JJAS 2003 and 2004. Therefore, the dry (wet) experiments exhibits significant decrease 225 226 (increase) in precipitations with respect to the control experiments (Fig.4a, c).

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For a better quantitative evaluation, the PDF distributions of precipitation changes in JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004, over (a) central Sahel, (b) west Sahel, (c) Guinea coast and (d) West Africa obtained from dry and wet experiments with respect to the control experiments are shown in Fig.

5. Table 2 summarizes the maximum values of changes obtained from the PDF's of the different 231 variables used in this study. The impact on precipitation of the soil moisture initial conditions is 232 linear only over Central Sahel (Fig.5a) where the change in dry (wet) experiments showed a 233 precipitation decrease (increase). The strongest precipitation increase is found over West Sahel 234 for the wet experiment with maximum change reached 40%. However, the strongest 235 precipitation decrease is found over the Central Sahel for dry experiment with a maximum 236 change value about -4% (Table 2). We noted that the impacts on precipitation of the wet 237 experiments are greater than those from dry experiments (Table 2). These results are consistent 238 with previous studies that supported a strong relationship between precipitation and soil moisture 239 in particular over the transition zones with a climate between wet and dry climate regimes 240 (Koster et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2014; Douville et al., 2001). 241

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Fig. 6 and Fig. 7 shows the changes in the daily soil moisture and precipitation, respectively, 243 from dry and wet experiments with respect to the control experiments, during the runs JJAS 244 2003 and JJAS 2004. To compute the changes of daily soil moisture, we considered the second 245 top soil layer in CLM4.5 (from 0 to 2.80 cm). In general, the impacts of soil moisture initial 246 conditions on the daily soil moisture persist from three to four months over the studied domains 247 (Fig.6). The strongest duration and amplitude of the impact on the daily soil moisture is found 248 over the West Sahel sub-region. The impact on the daily soil moisture lasts four months in JJAS 249 2003 and JJAS 2004. For wet experiments, the weakest duration of the impact of soil moisture 250 initial conditions is found over the Guinea Coast and lasts three months (Fig. 6c). While, for dry 251 experiments, the weakest impact on the daily soil moisture is found over Central Sahel and lasted 252 three months (Fig. 6a). These results are in line with previous works which argued that the soil 253 moisture-atmosphere feedback strength and the land memory are place dependent (Vinnikov et 254 al. 1996; Vinnikov and Yeserkepova 1991). 255

Figure 7 shows the changes of the daily precipitation to the soil moisture initial conditions over 256 the different studied domains. The impact of the wet experiments on daily precipitation is greater 257 in magnitude than that of dry experiments over most studied domains (Fig. 7). For dry 258 experiments, the strongest daily precipitation response (about -4mm.day⁻¹), is found over the 259 260 Guinea Coast in the run JJAS 2003 (Fig. 7c). While for the wet experiments, the strongest impact on the daily precipitation is more than 8mm.day⁻¹ and it is found over the West Sahel and the 261 Guinea Coast (Fig. 7b, c, respectively). It is worth to note that the impact of initial soil moisture 262 conditions on daily precipitation is much shorter than the duration of the impact on daily soil 263 264 moisture. The significant impact on daily precipitation is found only for wet experiments, and

did not last more than 15 days in large parts of the study domain, excepted over wetter subregion of Guinea Coast where it lasts approximately one month. We noted that the precipitation peaks over West Sahel and Guinea Coast (Fig. 7b and c, respectively) during August and September coincide with fluctuation in the daily soil moisture impact (Fig.6b and c). This probably indicates the strong feedback of soil moisture and precipitation during this period over the Guinea Coast and West Sahel regions.

To investigate the causes of the precipitation changes, we examined the vertical profile change in relative humidity and air temperature for the runs JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004, respectively, from dry and wet experiments with respect their control experiment.

The impacts on relative humidity and air temperature (Fig.8 and Fig.9, respectively) of soil moisture initial conditions are significant in the lower troposphere. In the low and midtroposphere, a drying and a warming are found in the dry experiments, while a moistening and a cooling are simulated in the wet experiments. This indicates that a weak (strong) dry convection is found over most of the studied domains for dry (wet) experiments. The strongest impact on the relative humidity and temperature in the lower and middle troposphere is found over central Sahel (Fig.8a and Fig. 9a).

For the upper troposphere, the significant impact on relative humidity and temperature is found only for wet experiments, and exhibited a drying and a warming over most of studied domains (Fig.8 and Fig.9). This impact for the wet experiments was also reported by Hong and Pal (2000).

To understand other causes of the precipitation changes illustrated in Fig. 4, we analyzed the 285 changes in lower tropospheric wind (850hpa) and specific humidity for the runs JJAS 2003 and 286 JJAS 2004 during the dry and wet experiments with respect to the control experiments (Fig. 10). 287 For the dry experiments (Fig. 10a, c), we found that the moistening of the lower atmosphere 288 decreases over most of the study domain. However, the strong wind magnitude changes over the 289 Atlantic Ocean bring the moistening from the ocean to the Guinea Coast and West Sahel. This 290 can explain the precipitation increase over these sub-regions in the dry experiments. Over 291 292 Central Sahel, the strong decrease in precipitation seems to be associated with the decrease of specific humidity which is particularly notable in the run JJAS 2003 (Fig.4a). Conversely, for the 293 294 wet experiments (Fig.10b, d), an increase in the moistening of the atmosphere is found mainly 295 over the Sahel band while further South, a decrease of the specific humidity is simulated over 296 Guinea Coast. The strong change in wind magnitude shifts the moistening from the North to the South, leading to precipitation increase over most part of study domain (Fig.4 b and d). These 297

results are broadly consistent with precipitation changes for dry and wet experiments shown inFigure 4.

Summarizing these results, the impact of soil moisture initial conditions is linear only over the 300 Central Sahel for the runs JJAS 2003 and 2004. The strongest precipitation decrease is found 301 over Central Sahel for the dry experiment in the run JJAS 2003 with maximum change reaching 302 -4%. While, the strongest precipitation increase is found over the West Sahel for the wet 303 experiment in the run JJAS 2004 with maximum change about 40%. The impact of soil moisture 304 305 initial conditions on daily soil moisture can persist for three to four months according to the subdomains, while the significant impact on precipitation (greater than 1mm.day⁻¹) is much shorter 306 and no longer than one month. The impact of soil moisture initial conditions is mostly confined 307 308 at the near-surface climate and somewhat at the upper troposphere.

309 3.2. Influence on temperature and other surface fluxes.

Figure 11 shows the spatial distribution of the mean observed 2m temperature from CRU during 310 JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 (Fig. 11a, c, respectively) and the mean simulated temperature from 311 the control experiments of runs JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 (Fig.11 b, d, respectively) initialized 312 313 with ERA20C. Table 3 summarizes the PCC and MB between model simulations of temperature with respect to CRU, calculated for the West Sahel, Central Sahel, Guinea Coast and the entire 314 315 West African domain. The CRU temperature displays a zonal distribution over the whole West Africa domain. Maximum values of approximately 34 °C are found over the Sahara, while the 316 317 lowest temperatures not exceed 26°C, are located over the Guinea Coast especially in orographic 318 regions such as Guinean highlands, Cameroon Mountains and the Jos Plateau. The control experiments (Fig. 11b, d) showed good agreement in the representation of the large-scale pattern 319 of CRU observation, with PCC about 0.99 for both JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 (Table 3), 320 including the meridional gradient between Sahara Desert and Guinea Coast which is crucial for 321 the African Easterly Jet evolution and formation (Thorncroft and Blackburn 1999; Cook 1999). 322 The spatial extent of temperature maxima and minima are well reproduced by control 323 experiments, however their magnitudes are overestimated compared to CRU. The strongest 324 warm MB of control experiments relative to CRU are approximately 2.68 °C and 2.14 °C 325 respectively for JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004; they are found over the West Sahel (Table 3). 326

Figure 12 shows changes in mean temperature for the runs JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 of dry and wet experiments with respect to the control experiments. The dots show areas where impacts of soil moisture initial condition are statistically significant at the 0.05 level. In the dry experiments, for both JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 runs, the warmest changes are located under the latitude 13° N, with maximum values located over the Guinea coast. For the wet experiments, the coolestchanges are found over the West and Central Sahel.

For a better quantitative evaluation, the PDF distributions of the changes in mean temperature in 333 runs JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 are showed in Figure 13. The impact on temperature is linear 334 over the Central Sahel, Guinea Coast and the whole West African domain (Fig.13a, c and d). The 335 strongest mean temperature decrease is observed over the Central and West Sahel in wet 336 experiments with the maximum change approximately -1.5 °C (Table 2). However, the strongest 337 338 increase of mean temperature is found over the Central Sahel (JJAS 2003) and the Guinea coast (JJAS 2004) in dry experiments reaching 0.56 °C and 0.59°C, respectively (Table 2). Overall, 339 the impact in the dry (wet) sensitivity experiments on 2m-temperature showed an increase 340 (decrease) in warming (cooling) for both JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 over most of the studied 341 domains. The exception is found over the west Sahel, where both dry and wet experiments lead 342 to temperature increase (Fig.13, Table2). 343

We now analyze the influence of soil moisture initial conditions anomalies on land energy balance, particularly on the surface fluxes sensible and latent heat. Figure 14 shows changes in sensible heat fluxes (in W.m⁻²) in runs JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004, from dry and wet experiments compared to the control experiments. The dots show changes that are statistically significant at the 0.05 level. As shown in figure 14, the impact on sensible fluxes of soil moisture initial conditions is strong. It is linear over most of the studied domains: the dry (wet) experiments with respect to the control exhibits significant increase (decrease) of the sensible heat (Fig.14).

The PDF distributions of change in sensible heat flux are displayed in Figure 15. The dry (wet) 351 experiments showed an increase (a decrease) of the sensible flux in both runs JJAS 2003 and 352 JJAS 2004 (Fig. 15). The impact in wet experiments is strong over Central and West Sahel 353 compared to the dry experiments, but not for Guinea Coast (Fig. 15, Table 2). In the dry 354 experiments, the strongest sensible heat flux increase is found over Guinea Coast, with 355 maximum change about 9.18 W.m⁻² during JJAS 2004 (see Table 2). In the wet experiments, the 356 strongest sensible heat flux decrease is located over Central Sahel with maximum change about 357 -39.66 W.m⁻² during JJAS 2003 (see Table 2). 358

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Unlike the case of sensible heat flux, changes in latent heat showed a linear opposite patterns. Dry experiments result in latent heat flux decrease, while the wet experiments result in latent heat flux increase over most of studied domains (Fig. 16). The PDF distributions of latent heat flux changes are shown in Figure 17. In the wet experiments, the strongest latent heat flux increase is found over West Sahel with maximum change reaching 36.49 W.m⁻² in JJAS 2004 (Table2). In the dry experiments, the strongest latent heat flux decrease is located over Guinea
Coast with maximum change reaching -14.64 W.m⁻² in JJAS 2004 (Table2). It is worth to note
that the impacts on latent and sensible heat flux in wet experiments are stronger compared to
those in the dry experiments over most of studied domains, except over Guinea Coast (Table 2).

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We then examined the impact on the stability of the PBL of the soil moisture initial conditions. 370 Different spatial distributions of surface fluxes significantly affect the boundary layer 371 372 development. Soil moisture can influence rainfall by limiting evapotranspiration, which affects the development of the daytime PBL and thereby the initiation and intensity of convective 373 precipitation (Eltahir, 1998). Figure 18 shows changes in PBL (in m) for JJAS 2003 and JJAS 374 375 2004, from dry and wet experiments with respect to the control experiments with dotted areas that are statistically significant at the 0.05 level. The soil moisture initial conditions impact 376 significantly the PBL. The dry experiments show PBL increase under the latitude 15 °N for both 377 JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 (Fig.18 a and c, respectively). For the wet experiments, a PBL 378 decrease is found over most of the studied domains. The PDF of PBL changes (Fig. 19) show 379 that the impact on PBL is linear over most of studied domains. The dry (wet) experiments lead to 380 an increase (decrease) of PBL for both JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004. The strongest PBL increase 381 (decrease) is found over Guinea Coast (West Sahel) in dry (wet) experiments during JJAS 2004 382 (JJAS 2003) reaching 146.80m (-293.23m). A dry (wet) air is located above the areas where 383 PBL increase (decrease), causing the air column to become warm (cool) and dry (moist) for the 384 dry (wet) experiment (see Fig. 8 and Fig. 9). These results are consistent with the work of Hong 385 and Pan (2000). 386

Summarizing the results of this section, we found that in the wet experiments, the cooling of the mean temperature is associated with an increase of the latent heat flux, a decrease of the sensible heat flux and of the PBL depth over most studied domain. Conversely, in the dry experiments, the warming of surface temperature is associated with a decrease of latent heat, an increase of sensible heat flux and PBL depth.

392 **4.** Conclusion

The impact of the soil moisture initial conditions on the subsequent summer (JJAS) mean climate over West Africa was explored using the RegCM4-CLM45. In particular, the aim of this study was to investigate how soil moisture initialization at the beginning of the rainy season may affect the intra-seasonal variability of temperature and precipitation mean within the subsequent season (June to September). For this purpose, we set up three numerical experiments with RegCM4 in which we applied, at the first day (June 1st), a control soil moisture initial condition (control experiment), a wet soil moisture initial condition (wet experiment), and a dry soil moisture initial condition (dry experiment). For each experiment, an ensemble of five simulations beginning from June 1st to September 30th(JJAS), for the years 2001 to 2005 is performed. In this paper, we present results of the two runs JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 most impacted by soil moisture dry and wet initial conditions respectively to avoid effects of initial soil moisture internal forcing.

The impact of soil moisture initial conditions on precipitation is linear only over the Central 405 Sahel for both JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004, and over the West Sahel especially in JJAS 2004. In 406 the dry experiment, the strongest precipitation decrease is found over the Central Sahel in JJAS 407 2003 with maximum change reaching -4% while in the wet experiment, the strongest 408 precipitation increase is found over the West Sahel in JJAS 2004 with maximum change 409 reaching 40%. The impact of soil moisture initial conditions can persist for three to four months 410 (90-120 days) depending on the sub-region but the impact on precipitation is no longer than 30 411 days (15 days over the Sahel and 30 days over the Guinea Sahel). This study shows that when 412 413 averaged over the entire West African region, the sensitivity of rainfall to initial soil moisture conditions is not captured. However, it is important to have a good initialization of soil moisture 414 because depending on the region, the sensitivity of rainfall can be more or less strong. Indeed, 415 rainfall is more sensitive to initial soil moisture conditions in the western and central Sahel (arid 416 zones) than in the Guinean Coast (humid zone). In these arid Sahelian zones, wetter initial 417 conditions will result in more rainfall, especially in the West Sahel, and dry initial conditions 418 will result in less rainfall, especially in the Central Sahel. In the Guinean Coast, the sensitivity of 419 precipitation to initial soil moisture conditions is lower and other factors could be involved such 420 as moisture advection from the Atlantic by the monsoon flow (Koné et al., 2018) and a lower 421 422 albedo (Charney 1975).

423 Our results show that soil moisture wet initial conditions lead in the lower troposphere to an 424 increase of relative humidity associated with a cooling of air temperature and in the upper 425 troposphere, to a decrease of relative humidity and a warming of air temperature. While the dry 426 experiments mainly impact the lower troposphere with a decrease of the relative humidity 427 associated with a warming air temperature.

428 The temperature at 2m is more sensitive to the anomalies of initial soil moisture condition than

- 429 the precipitation. The strongest impact on 2m-temperature is found over the Central Sahel with a
- 430 maximum change about -1.5 °C and 0.6°C for the wet and dry experiments, respectively.

Our study showed significant impacts of soil moisture initial conditions on the surface energy fluxes. For the wet experiments, we found that the cooling of surface temperature is associated with a decrease of the sensible heat flux, an increase of the latent heat flux and a decrease of the PBL depth. For the dry experiments, the warming of surface temperature is associated with an increase of the sensible heat flux, a decrease of the latent heat flux and an increase of the PBL depth.

This study showed that soil moisture as a boundary condition plays a major role in controlling summer climate variability not only over the Sahel band but also over humid zones such as Guinea Coast. Therefore, the good prescription of soil moisture initial conditions could improve the simulation of precipitation and temperature, which would help to reduce biases in climate model simulations. Overall, land surface initialization can contribute to improving sub-seasonal to seasonal forecast skill, but this requires further investigation.

- This study is the first investigating the impact of soil moisture initial conditions in West Africa. 443 However, this study is based on idealized experiments: sensitivity experiments such as "wet" and 444 "dry" ones conducted in this study were not intended to simulate real climate since such 445 extremes are very rare. Moreover, this study is very specific to RegCM4. In the future, an 446 investigation using different RCMs in a multi-model framework will contribute to better quantify 447 the impact of soil moisture initial conditions. At shorter timescales, there is a need to understand 448 how the soil moisture initial conditions contribute to the triggering and the maintenance of the 449 mesoscale convective systems which are known to explain large amount of rainfall in the region 450 (Mathon et al., 2002). Finally, in the context of climate change, considering the projected 451 increase of high-impact weather events in the region, there is a need to explore the sensitivity of 452 soil moisture initial conditions to climate extremes. 453
- 454

455 Authors contributions

The authors declare to have no conflict of interest with this work. B. Koné and A. Diedhiou fixed the analysis framework. B. Koné carried out all the simulations and figures production according to the work plan proposed by A. Diedhiou. Figures for this manuscript were prepared by B. Koné according the outline proposed by A. Diedhiou and A. Diawara. All authors contributed to the analyses and to the drafting of this manuscript.

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704	Tables and figures:
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	Central Sahel	West Sahel	Guinea	West Africa
	PCC MB (%)	PCC MB (%)	PCC MB (%)	PCC MB (%)
CTRL_2003	0.98 -47.97	0.87 -75.76	0.82 -47.12	0.73 -49.31
CTRL_2004	0.98 -47.89	0.87 -68.35	0.85 -51.97	0.77 -50.56

Table1: The pattern correlation coefficient (PCC) and the mean bias (MB) for JJAS precipitation
for model simulations with respect to CHIRPS, calculated for Guinea coast, central Sahel, west
Sahel and the entire West African domain during the period 2003 and 2004.

	Central	Central Sahel		West Sahel		Guinea coast		West Africa	
	ΔWC	ΔDC	ΔWC	ΔDC	ΔWC	ΔDC	ΔWC	ΔDC	
2003 2004	13.80 15.86	- 4.09 -3.29	29.95 38.58	6.58 -1.25	19.40 26.6	9.20 12.68	8.88 10.72	4.68 7.64	
2003	-1.48	0.56	-1.55	-0.41	-0.15	0.54	-0.62	0.50	
2004	-1.51	0.47	-1.15	-0.24	-0.19	0.59	-0.41	0.59	
2003	-16.89	8.57	-39.66	5.31	-2.41	7.52	-14.32	8.06	
2004	-19.53	7.55	-31.97	7.23	-3.01	9.18	-14.46	6.81	
2003	21.27	-6.67	34.21	-6.06	3.09	-13.38	15.86	-8.07	
2004	28.55	-4.81	36.49	-6.20	7.09	-14.64	19.68	-8.53	
2003	-233.49	81.23	-293.23	-0.16	-94.42	132.74	-128.90	75.57	
2004	-223.06	49.48	-247.08	19.87	-119.38	146.80	-117.69	56.53	
	2003 2004 2003 2004 2003 2004 2003 2004 2003 2004		$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	Central SahelWest Sa ΔWC ΔDC ΔWC 200313.80-4.0929.95200415.86-3.29 38.58 2003-1.48 0.56 -1.552004-1.510.47-1.152003-16.89 8.57 - 39.66 2004-19.537.55-31.97200321.27-6.6734.21200428.55-4.81 36.49 2003-233.49 81.23 - 293.23 2004-223.0649.48-247.08	Central SahelWest Sahel ΔWC ΔDC ΔWC ΔDC 200313.80-4.0929.956.58200415.86-3.29 38.58 -1.252003-1.48 0.56 -1.55-0.412004-1.510.47-1.15-0.242003-16.898.57-39.665.312004-19.537.55-31.977.23200321.27-6.6734.21-6.06200428.55-4.81 36.49 -6.202003-233.4981.23-293.23-0.162004-223.0649.48-247.0819.87	Central SahelWest SahelGuinee ΔWC ΔDC ΔWC ΔDC ΔWC 200313.80-4.0929.956.5819.40200415.86-3.29 38.58 -1.2526.62003-1.48 0.56 -1.55-0.41-0.152004-1.510.47-1.15-0.24-0.192003-16.898.57- 39.66 5.31-2.412004-19.537.55-31.977.23-3.01200321.27-6.6734.21-6.063.09200428.55-4.81 36.49 -6.207.092003-233.4981.23- 293.23 -0.16-94.422004-223.0649.48-247.0819.87-119.38	Central SahelWest SahelGuinea coast ΔWC ΔDC ΔWC ΔDC ΔWC ΔDC 200313.80-4.0929.956.5819.409.20200415.86-3.29 38.58 -1.2526.612.682003-1.48 0.56 -1.55-0.41-0.150.542004-1.510.47-1.15-0.24-0.19 0.59 2003-16.898.57- 39.66 5.31-2.417.522004-19.537.55-31.977.23-3.01 9.18 200321.27-6.6734.21-6.063.09-13.38200428.55-4.81 36.49 -6.207.09-14.642003-233.4981.23- 293.23 -0.16-94.42132.742004-223.0649.48-247.0819.87-119.38146.80	Central SahelWest SahelGuinea coastWest A ΔWC ΔDC ΔWC ΔDC ΔWC ΔDC ΔWC 200313.80-4.0929.956.5819.409.208.88200415.86-3.29 38.58 -1.2526.612.6810.722003-1.48 0.56 -1.55-0.41-0.150.54-0.622004-1.510.47-1.15-0.24-0.19 0.59 -0.412003-16.898.57- 39.66 5.31-2.417.52-14.322004-19.537.55-31.977.23-3.01 9.18 -14.46200321.27-6.6734.21-6.063.09-13.3815.86200428.55-4.81 36.49 -6.207.09-14.6419.682003-233.4981.23-293.23-0.16-94.42132.74-128.902004-223.0649.48-247.0819.87-119.38146.80-117.69	

Table2: Table summarizing the maximum values of change obtained from the PDF distribution
for precipitation, temperature, sensible heat, latent heat and PBL, calculated for Guinea coast,
central Sahel, west Sahel and the entire West African domain during the period JJAS 2003 and
JJAS 2004.

	Central Sahel		West Sahel		Guinea		West Africa	
	PCC	MB (°C)	PCC	MB (°C)	PCC	MB (°C)	PCC	MB (°C)
CTRL_2003	0.9	9 1.52	0.99	2.68	0.99	-0.34	0.99	0.85
CTRL_2004	0.9	9 1.50	0.99	2.14	0.99	-0.57	0.99	0.51

Table3: The pattern correlation coefficient (PCC) and the mean bias (MB) for JJAS 2mtemperature for model simulations with respect to CRU, calculated for Guinea coast, central
Sahel, west Sahel and the entire West African domain during the period JJAS 2003 and JJAS
2004.



Figure 1: Topography of the West African domain. The analysis of the model result has an
emphasis on the whole West African domain and the three sub-regions Guinea coast, central
Sahel and west Sahel, which are marked with black boxes.





Figure 2: Changes in daily soil moisture in the 5 runs (JJAS 2001 to 2005) over West African domain, for the dry (Δ DC) and wet (Δ WC) experiments with respect to their corresponding control experiment.



Figure3: Mean precipitation (mm/day) from CHIRPS (a, c) and the simulated control experiments (CTRL) (b, d) with the reanalysis initial soil moisture ERA20C during JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004.





Figure4: Changes in mean precipitation (in %) for JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004, from dry (resp. a and c) and wet (resp. b and d) experiments with respect to the control experiment, the dotted area shows differences that are statistically significant at 0.05 level.





Figure 5: PDF distributions (%) of mean precipitation changes in JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004, over (a) central Sahel, (b) West Sahel, (c) Guinea and (d) West Africa derived from dry (ΔDC) and wet (ΔWC) experiments compared to the control experiment.





- **Figure 6:** Daily domain-average soil moisture changes for JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004, from dry (ΔDC) and wet (ΔWC) experiments with respect to the control experiment.



Figure 7: Daily domain-average precipitation changes for JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004, from dry (ΔDC) and wet (ΔWC) experiments with respect to the control experiment.



Figure 8: Vertical profile changes in Relative humidity for JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 from the dry (Δ DC) and wet (Δ WC) experiments with respect to corresponding control experiment over (a) central Sahel, (b) west Sahel, (c) Guinea coast, and (d) West Africa.

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Figure 9: Vertical profile changes in temperature for JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 from the dry
(ΔDC) and wet (ΔWC) experiments with respect to the control experiment over (a) central Sahel,
(b) west Sahel, (c) Guinea coast, and (d) West Africa.

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- 866



Figure 10: The lower tropospheric wind (850hpa) and moisture bias for JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 from the dry (a and c) and wet (b and d) experiments with respect to the control experiment.





Figure 11: Mean 2m-temperature (°C) from CRU (a and c) for JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004 and
the simulated control experiment (b and d) with the reanalysis initial soil moisture ERA20C.







Figure 12: Changes in 2m-temperature (°C) for JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004, from dry (resp. a and
c) and wet (resp. b and d) experiments with respect to the control experiment, the dotted area
shows differences that are statistically significant at 0.05 level.





Figure 13: PDF distributions (%) of mean temperature changes in JJAS 2003 and JJAS 2004, over (a) central Sahel, (b) West Sahel, (c) Guinea and (d) West Africa derived from dry (Δ DC) and wet (Δ WC) experiments compared to the control experiment.





Figure 14: Same as Fig.12 but for sensible heat fluxes (in W.m⁻²).







Figure 15: Same as Fig.13 but for sensible heat fluxes (in W.m⁻²).





Figure 16: Same as Fig.12 but for latent heat fluxes (in W.m⁻²).

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Figure 18: Same as Fig.12 but for the change of the height of the planetary boundary layer (inm).





Figure 19: Same as Fig.13 but for the height of the planetary boundary layer (in m).