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**1 Land water storage variability over West Africa**  
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3 **Abstract.**

4 Land water storage plays a fundamental role on the West African water  
5 cycle and has an important impact on climate and on the natural resources  
6 of this region. However, measurements of land water storage are scarce at  
7 regional and global scales and, especially, in poorly instrumented endhoreic  
8 regions, such as most of the Sahel, where little useful information can be de-  
9 rived from river flow measurements and basin water budgets.

10 The GRACE satellite mission provides an accurate measurement of the  
11 terrestrial gravity field variations from which land water storage variations  
12 can be derived. However, their retrieval is not straightforward, and differ-  
13 ent methods are employed which result in different water storage GRACE  
14 products. On the other hand, water storage can be estimated by land sur-  
15 face modelling forced with observed or satellite-based boundary conditions,  
16 however such estimates can be highly model dependent.

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17 In this study, land water storage by six GRACE products and soil mois-  
18 ture estimations by nine land surface models (run within the framework of  
19 the AMMA Land Surface Intercomparison Project, ALMIP) are evaluated  
20 over West Africa, with a particular focus on the Sahelian area. The water  
21 storage spatial distribution, including zonal transects, its seasonal cycle and  
22 its inter annual variability are analysed between 2003 and 2007. Despite the  
23 non-negligible differences among the various GRACE products and among  
24 the different models, a generally good agreement between satellite and model  
25 estimates is found over the West Africa study region. In particular, GRACE  
26 data are shown to reproduce well the water storage inter annual variability  
27 over the Sahel for the 5-year study period. The comparison between satel-  
28 lite estimates and ALMIP results lead to the identification of processes need-  
29 ing improvement in the land surface models. In particular, our results point  
30 out the importance of correctly simulating slow water reservoirs as well as  
31 evapotranspiration during the dry season for accurate soil moisture modelling  
32 over West Africa.

## 1. Introduction

33 Land water storage plays a fundamental role within the global water cycle and on cli-  
34 mate, particularly in regions where the coupling between land surface and the atmosphere  
35 is theorized to be important such as West Africa [*Koster et al.* , 2004]. In this region, land  
36 processes related to soil moisture and vegetation have been shown to have an important  
37 impact on the development of the summer monsoon, by amplifying its response to oceanic  
38 forcing [*Giannini et al.* , 2003, 2008]. Monitoring water storage changes over this region  
39 is therefore fundamental for better understanding land-atmosphere processes as well as  
40 evapotranspiration related processes. In addition, given the possible link between soil  
41 moisture and the atmosphere, improved knowledge of water storage which is a relatively  
42 slow varying component in the climate system, could lead to improved long term pre-  
43 dictions [*Philippon and Fontaine* , 2002]. Moreover, in West Africa, and particularly in  
44 the Sahel, water storage changes directly affect the natural resource availability, therefore  
45 they have a significant environmental and socio-economic impact. Water storage is a key  
46 variable for evaluating the past and present state of natural resources such as water and  
47 fodder and to model their future development within the context of climate change.

48 However, direct measurements of land water storage are not readily available at regional  
49 and global scales. This is true especially in the Sahel, where monitoring the water budget  
50 components is not easy due to the scarcity of in situ measurements especially in terms  
51 of precipitation. Even when local measurements are available, it remains difficult to  
52 extrapolate them over larger areas given the relatively large spatial heterogeneity of the  
53 main components of the terrestrial water cycle (see for example *Lebel et al.* [1997].)

54 Moreover, little useful information on water storage can be derived from river discharge  
55 measurements since this region is mostly endhoreic, i.e., the main West African water  
56 basins are not fed by Sahelian waters.

57 The GRACE satellite mission provides an accurate measurement of terrestrial gravity  
58 field variations from which land water storage variations can be derived. As opposed to  
59 microwave passive and active spaceborne sensors that can be used to retrieve surface soil  
60 moisture in the uppermost few centimetres, GRACE data can be used to estimate water  
61 storage variations integrated over the entire water column, including the root zone as well  
62 as deeper groundwater reservoirs. The retrieval of the terrestrial water storage (TWS)  
63 from the satellite gravity measurements is not straightforward and requires solving an  
64 ill-posed inverse problem. Different methods are employed to do this by various research  
65 teams [*Chambers* , 2006; *Rowlands et al.* , 2005; *Liu* , 2008; *Bruisma et al.* , 2010;  
66 *Ramillien et al.* , 2005] that provide different GRACE water storage estimates [see for  
67 example, *Klees et al.* , 2008a] .

68 Since the satellite launch in 2002, GRACE data have been increasingly used for different  
69 hydrological applications [among others, *Ramillien et al.* , 2008a; *Schmidt et al.* , 2008],  
70 for example the monitoring of extreme hydrological events [*Chen et al.* , 2009; *Seitz et al.* ,  
71 2008; *Andersen et al.* , 2005], for evaluating hydrological fluxes such as evapotranspiration  
72 [*Rodell et al.* , 2004; *Ramillien et al.* , 2006], to compute atmospheric water vapour  
73 convergence [*Swenson and Wahr* , 2006] and reiver discharge [*Syed et al.* , 2005], as well  
74 as for integrated water budget studies [*Yirdaw et al.* , 2008; *Crowley et al.* , 2006].

75 Evaluation of the seasonal and interannual variability of the GRACE water storage  
76 estimates has been mainly carried out over well defined water basins at regional or global



77 scales. GRACE water storage products have been compared to in-situ measurements  
78 using soil moisture networks [*Swenson et al* , 2008], to well level data combined with  
79 hydrological models [*Schmidt et al.* , 2008] and to modelling results [e.g., *Schmidt et al.*  
80 , 2006; *Papa et al.* , 2008; *Syed et al.* , 2008; *Schmidt et al.* , 2008; *Klees et al.* , 2008a].  
81 GRACE data have also been used to provide useful information for calibrating and/or  
82 improving the water storage simulation in land surface models [*Ngo-Duc et al.* , 2007;  
83 *Niu et al.* , 2007; *Güntner et al.* , 2008; *Syed et al.* , 2008; *Alkama et al.* , 2009].

84 Until recently, only a few GRACE studies have been carried out over west Africa, despite  
85 the fact that several global studies included the Niger river basin [e.g., *Papa et al.* , 2008;  
86 *Schmidt et al.* , 2008; *Ramillien et al.* , 2008b; *Syed et al.* , 2008; *Ngo-Duc et al.* , 2007].  
87 No extensive evaluation of GRACE water products has been performed for the Sahel, and  
88 more generally, for endhoreic areas. Moreover, the capability of GRACE to reproduce the  
89 interannual variability of water storage changes over West Africa has not been specifically  
90 addressed.

91 The objective of this work is to better understand the intra seasonal and interannual  
92 variability of the water cycle over West Africa, and in particular, the Sahel. This is  
93 done by using GRACE TWS products as well as soil moisture derived by an ensemble of  
94 land surface models participating in the AMMA Land Surface Intercomparison Project  
95 [ALMIP, *Boone et al.* , 2009]. For the time period 2003-2007, satellite products and models  
96 outputs are analysed and compared considering different aspects of the continental water  
97 storage: the seasonal cycle (amplitude and phase), the interannual variability during the  
98 wet and dry season and the zonal distribution.

## 1.1. Study area

99 The study area is the West African region bordering the Guinean gulf to the South and  
100 the Sahara desert to the North (Fig. 1). The analysis is carried out over two arbitrary  
101 areas: the "West Africa" box between  $10^{\circ}\text{W}$  -  $10^{\circ}\text{E}$  and  $6^{\circ}\text{N}$  -  $18^{\circ}\text{N}$  and the "Sahel" box  
102 between  $10^{\circ}\text{W}$  -  $10^{\circ}\text{E}$  and  $12^{\circ}\text{N}$  -  $18^{\circ}\text{N}$ .

103 West Africa is characterized to a good approximation by a zonal distribution of pre-  
104 cipitation and land cover. The annual precipitation gradient ranges from about 1000  
105 mm/year in the Guinean zone to 100 mm/year to the north of the Sahelian region. The  
106 precipitation annual cycle (Fig. 2) is driven by the West African monsoon, and it is  
107 related to the meridional displacement of the Inter tropical Convergence Zone [ITCZ,  
108 *Sultan and Janicot* , 2003]. It reaches  $5^{\circ}\text{N}$  in April and stays in a quasi-stable position  
109 until the end of June, then it abruptly shifts during the first half of July to  $10^{\circ}\text{N}$ , where  
110 it remains until the end of August. Over the Sahel, the rainy season peaks between July  
111 and September. The ITCZ gradually withdraws southward from September to November  
112 which is associated with a sharp precipitation decrease over this region.

113 The West African hydrological systems are also roughly organised as a function of the  
114 latitudinal gradient, with significant water lateral transfers within deeper soil layers in  
115 the southern areas, and hortonian systems, characterised by superficial water flow, to the  
116 north [*Peugeot et al.* , 1997; *Braud et al.* , 1997]. Southern areas are mostly exohreic  
117 with considerable sheet run-off. The hydrological system become progressively endhoreic  
118 going northward, where, depending on the soil properties, endhoreic sandy soils alternate  
119 with smaller areas characterised by concentrated run-off. The Sahel is dominated by large  
120 old sedimentary basins consisting in either deep fossil aquifers or less deep, more or less

121 fragmented, actively recharged aquifers which are affected by minor seasonal fluctuations  
122 and decadal trends [Favreau *et al.*, 2009]. The southern half of the West African box is  
123 dominated by the African Shield with shallow fragmented aquifers which have variations  
124 that follow the seasonal pattern of rainfall and river drainage.

125 The vegetation gradient follows the precipitation pattern: going from south to north,  
126 the dominant vegetation consists of forest, savannah and parkland, grassland and open  
127 shrub lands. Crops and fallows are also present and they are scattered throughout the  
128 study region.

129 The largest river in the Sahel is the Niger, but the majority of the Sahel box is endhoreic  
130 and does not feed the Niger River [Descroix *et al.* , 2009]. The run-off seasonal evolution  
131 is delayed compared to the precipitation seasonal cycle. The maximum run-off enters and  
132 exits the Sahel box in September and the river flow decreases after the rain season at a  
133 slower rate than precipitation. The Inner Niger delta, an area of swamps and small lakes  
134 in the Sahelian region in Mali, typically floods during the wet season and is subject to  
135 intense evaporation, further delaying the Niger discharge seasonal cycle.

## 2. Data and methods

### 2.1. GRACE data

136 The Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) satellite mission, managed by  
137 NASA and DLR, has been collecting data since mid-2002. Estimates of the Earth's gravity  
138 field produced by GRACE can be used to infer changes in mass at and below the surface of  
139 the Earth, including the oceans, the polar ice sheets, the land water storage (surface water,  
140 soil moisture, snow and ground water) and the solid Earth. To extract land water storage  
141 changes on a given region of the Earth, two issues need to be addressed: 1- the contribution

142 of atmospheric, oceanic, and solid earth mass variations need to be separated from the  
143 hydrological signal, which generally requires the employment of background models ; 2-  
144 the TWS signal over a given region of the earth needs to be separated from contaminations  
145 coming from a different region, such as the water storage variability in a neighbouring area  
146 or ocean.

147 In this study, six different GRACE products (table 1) are employed and briefly described  
148 below.

149 • The three monthly land water solutions (RL04) provided by the GeoForschungsZen-  
150 trum, Potsdam (GFZ), the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology  
151 (JPL), and the Center for Space Research , University of Texas at Austin (CSR), with a  
152 spatial resolution of 400 km, available at <ftp://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov/tellus/grace/monthly>.  
153 These three datasets are processed as reported by *Chambers* [2006]. Each monthly grav-  
154 ity field is represented by a set of spherical harmonic (Stokes) coefficients, developed to  
155 degree and order 60. CSR, GFZ, and JPL use different algorithms to compute gravity  
156 field harmonic coefficients from the raw GRACE observations, although they have agreed  
157 to use similar background models for the ocean and the atmosphere. Spatial averaging,  
158 or smoothing, of GRACE data is commonly used to reduce the anisotropic noise, which  
159 manifests itself in strong north-south stripes. Systematic errors causing the longitudinal  
160 stripes, identified by correlations between spherical harmonic coefficients of like parity  
161 within a particular spectral order, are removed using the destriping method described by  
162 *Swenson and Wahr* [2006b]. After destriping, the signal can be further smoothed using a  
163 Gaussian filter of a certain radius. For the comparison to the ALMIP results, in this study  
164 we employ the destriped but unfiltered solutions. However, solutions smoothed with a

165 Gaussian filter of radius equal to 500 and 300 km are also analysed in section 2.1.1 in  
166 order to better investigate the effects of filtering.

167 • The DEOS Mass Transport Model (DMT-1) monthly solutions by the University of  
168 Delft available at <http://www.lr.tudelft.nl>. The DMT-1 is also based on the decomposition  
169 into spherical harmonic Stokes coefficients to degree and order 120. The details of the  
170 computation of monthly solutions and corresponding covariance matrices are given by  
171 *Liu* [2008]. The series of monthly solutions is post-processed by applying statistically  
172 optimal Wiener filters based on full signal and noise covariance matrices instead of a  
173 Gaussian filter. The signal variances and solutions are computed iteratively, according to  
174 the scheme described by *Klees et al.* [2008b].

175 • The Level-2 GRGS-EIGEN-GL04 10 day models derived from GRACE GPS  
176 and K-band range-rate data and from LAGEOS-1/2 SLR data [*Bruisma et al.* ,  
177 2010] available at <http://grgs.obs-mip.fr/index.php/fre/Donnees-scientifiques/Champ-de-gravite/grace/release02>. These gravity fields are expressed in terms of normalized spher-  
178 ical harmonic coefficients from degree 2 up to degree 50 using a stabilization approach  
179 without additional filtering. We use the TWS 10-day grids with a spatial resolution of  $1^\circ$   
180  $\times 1^\circ$  from January 2003 to December 2007.

182 • The 10 day land water solutions from GSFC, with a spatial resolution of  $4^\circ \times 4^\circ$ ,  
183 available for the period April 2003- April 2007 at <http://grace.sgt-inc.com/>. The data are  
184 processed with an approach based on a local time-dependent mass recovery using mass  
185 concentrations blocks [*Mascons, Rowlands et al.* , 2005] rather than using global basis  
186 functions such as spherical harmonics. The formulation for Mascons solutions exploits  
187 the fact that a change in potential caused by adding a small uniform layer of mass over a

188 region at a time  $t$ , can be represented as a set of (differential) potential coefficients which  
189 can be added to the mean background field. Mascons can be located in space, and hence,  
190 short wavelength errors (e.g. due to ocean tides) should not leak into land areas, although  
191 spatial constraints are imposed on neighbouring  $4^\circ \times 4^\circ$  pixels.

192 In the following study, the water storage anomalies (reported in mm) have been re-  
193 centered for each solution by removing the mean over the 2003-2006 common period.

### 194 **2.1.1. Filtering and leakage**

195 Several recent studies have shown that GRACE data over the continents provide infor-  
196 mation on the total land water storage with an accuracy between 15 and 30 mm of liquid  
197 water thickness equivalent [*Schmidt et al.* , 2006; *Llubes et al.* , 2007; *Klosko et al.* ,  
198 2009], depending on the region considered.

199 GRACE water storage estimates at a given location are affected by data processing  
200 which requires a compromise between maximising spatial resolution and reducing noise.  
201 This is done following different approaches, such as, for example:

- 202 • truncating the harmonical series computation at a given degree (50, 60 or 120, the  
203 lower the degree, the greater the smoothing) as done for all the products considered here  
204 except the Mascons (CSR, JPL and GFZ truncating at degree 60, CNES at 2 to 50 and  
205 DMT at 120) ;
- 206 • applying smoothing filters, such as the Gaussian filtering with the radius of 300 and  
207 500 km used by the CSR, JPL and GFZ post-processed solutions or the optimal Wiener  
208 filter used in the DMT-1 model;
- 209 • employing stabilisation approaches such as that used for the CNES solution;
- 210 • imposing spatial constraints as done for the Mascon solutions.

211 All of these approaches make the water storage estimates in a given region biased and  
212 sensitive to mass changes outside the region of interest (leakage). Leakage is comprised of  
213 to mechanisms: a) leakage of signal from the target area to the surroundings (leakage out),  
214 and b) leakage of signal from the surroundings into the target area (leakage in). In this  
215 paper, we employ the term leakage to mean both mechanisms (leakage in and out), even  
216 if sometimes this term is used to described the mechanism b) only. A survey of different  
217 methods employed to take into account leakage effects can be found in *Longuevergne et*  
218 *al.* [2010]. *Chen et al.* [2005] showed that if temporal water storage variations are  
219 homogeneous over a sufficiently large area, leakage in and out may partially cancel each  
220 other, minimising the overall leakage effect. On the contrary, leakage effects are expected  
221 to have the highest impact when mass changes inside the study region are in opposition of  
222 phase with mass changes outside it. For basins surrounded by areas with smaller storage  
223 variations (oceans, deserts) the effects of leakage should therefore make the effective water  
224 storage underestimated.

225 Fig. 3 shows, for each product, the spatial distribution of water storage anomalies in  
226 September, the month of the maximum soil water over West Africa. To illustrate the  
227 impact of using a Gaussian filter in the post-processing, CSR, JPL and GFZ solutions  
228 smoothed by a Gaussian filter of 500 km radius are also shown. All GRACE estimates  
229 indicate a maximum, more or less pronounced, at the south-east corner of the study  
230 area and another maximum at a latitude of about  $12^{\circ}$  N but at different longitudes for  
231 different products. In addition, CSR, JPL and GFZ at 500 km appears much smoother  
232 than the same unfiltered solutions. However the latter solutions show the effects of residual  
233 longitudinal stripes not completely eliminated by the destriping process by *Swenson and*

234 *Wahr* [2006b]. Alternative destriping methods [*Frappart et al.*, 2011; *Klees et al.*, 2008b;  
235 *Kusche*, 2007], which are more efficient for equatorial areas, may be applied. However,  
236 in this study, these effects are not a major problem given that we analyse water storage  
237 changes averaged over a sufficiently large longitudinal domain.

238 Regarding the seasonal dynamics, Fig. 4 shows the comparison between the CSR, JPL  
239 and GFZ solutions (multi-product mean) post-processed by a Gaussian filter with a 500  
240 km radius and the corresponding solutions without any Gaussian filtering. Over the  
241 West African box, filtered data show a lower dynamic than the unfiltered data, which is  
242 consistent with the geographic configuration, West Africa being surrounded by areas with  
243 small seasonal dynamics (ocean, Sahara desert). Conversely, for the Sahel box, the 500 km  
244 Gaussian filter slightly increases the seasonal dynamics. This implies that contamination  
245 from the Soudanian area, located to the South of the Sahel box, more than compensates  
246 damping effect from the Sahara desert at the Northern border. Differences between the  
247 monthly TWS values of smoothed and unsmoothed solutions are no more than 10-15 mm  
248 for both regions but are more significant at about  $10^\circ$  where CSR, JPL and GFZ unfiltered  
249 solutions are more coherent with the other solutions analysed (CNES, DMT et GSFC)  
250 than the CSR, JPL and GFZ solutions post-processed using a Gaussian filter (not shown).

251 Leakage resulting from the combined effects of Gaussian filtering, destrip-  
252 ing and truncating the harmonical series, can be estimated from hydrologi-  
253 cal models, as done for example by *Klees et al.* [2007] and by Swenson  
254 ([ftp://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov/pub/tellus/grace\\_monthly/swenson\\_destripe/ss201008/](ftp://podaac.jpl.nasa.gov/pub/tellus/grace_monthly/swenson_destripe/ss201008/)) who  
255 propose correcting factors to account for this. This is estimated here for the CSR, JPL and  
256 GFZ solutions following the method by Swenson that calculates a correcting factor on a



257 one degree grid basis by using a global simulation of land hydrology. The simulated TWS  
258 field underwent the same processing as the RL04 data: spherical harmonical expansion,  
259 truncation to degree 60 and destriping. The data were then post processed using a 300  
260 km Gaussian filter, and then regressed against the original TWS. The regression slope can  
261 then be used as a correction factor for the GRACE data. This correction, accounting for  
262 leakage out and leakage in, is shown in Fig. 5 for the West Africa and the Sahel boxes. It  
263 has very similar effects to those attributed to the application of the Gaussian filter alone  
264 (Fig. 4), with the GRACE seasonal dynamics enhanced over West Africa and reduced  
265 for the Sahel box. A similar calculation with another hydrological model following the  
266 method by *Ramillien et al.* [2008b] (not shown) resulted in a slightly higher leakage over  
267 the Sahel box.

268 In conclusion, the above estimates of leakage errors imply that, for global solutions,  
269 water storage changes are probably underestimated for the West Africa box, whereas they  
270 may be slightly overestimated for the Sahel box. A complete error budget should also  
271 address the data and inversion errors, which are not known precisely. In this analysis,  
272 we do not apply explicit corrections to account for leakage effects given that they are  
273 dependent on hydrological models and on the methodology followed to calculate them.  
274 Our approach is therefore to inter-compare the different GRACE solutions to have a rough  
275 idea of GRACE processing errors.

276 The temporal evolution of the TWS by all the GRACE products considered, spatially  
277 averaged over the West African and the Sahelian boxes (given its coarser resolution the  
278 GSFC product has been averaged over slightly larger boxes, with latitudes between  $4^{\circ}\text{N}$   
279 -  $20^{\circ}\text{N}$  for West Africa, and  $12^{\circ}\text{N}$  -  $20^{\circ}\text{N}$  for the Sahel, and longitudes between  $12^{\circ}\text{W}$  -

280 12°E) is shown in Fig. 6. The six products are quite consistent regarding their temporal  
281 evolutions, with water storage maxima generally found in September and minima in April  
282 (West Africa) and May (Sahel). A temporal shift is sometimes observed with respect to  
283 the date at which the maxima and minima are reached : this is not systematic for a given  
284 product and it is more important for the dates of the water storage minima for which  
285 the shift can be up to 2 months (as for example over the Sahel in 2007). In term of the  
286 amplitudes of the seasonal water storage changes (for each year, the difference between the  
287 maximum and minimum value), the 6 GRACE products show significant differences, with  
288 the CNES and CSR solutions generally higher and GFZ lower than the other solutions.  
289 Year to year variations are also observed among the different solutions.

## 2.2. ALMIP models

290 The ALMIP model inter comparison [*Boone et al.* , 2009] was carried out by run-  
291 ning different state-of-the-art land surface models using the same forcing database, which  
292 consists in atmospheric state variables, precipitation and incoming radiative fluxes. The  
293 atmospheric state variables were derived form ECMWF short term forecast data, while  
294 downwell radiative fluxes were a mix of ECMWF and LANDSAF estimates.

295 For the simulation of the different components of the water budget, the most crucial  
296 forcing variable is precipitation. In this study, we used the simulations forced by the Trop-  
297 ical Rainfall Measurement Mission (TRMM) precipitation product 3B-42 [*Huffman et al.* ,  
298 2007] (see Fig. 2). Nine different models which are made for climate or numerical weather  
299 prediction (such as for example SSIB, NOHA, HTESEL, ISBA and ORCHIDEE), or  
300 more hydrologically based models (such as for example CLSM) participated in this inter  
301 comparison (table 2). These models have different degrees of complexity in terms of the

302 representation of the water budget variables, such as, for example, the number of verti-  
303 cal soil layers and the soil depth over which vertical water transfers are simulated (for  
304 more details see *Boone et al.* [2009]). Among the ALMIP models, CLSM is the only  
305 model including a representation of a saturated area following the TOPMODEL concept.  
306 Land surface parameters concerning soil and vegetation are taken from the ECOCLIMAP  
307 database for all models except for HTESSEL and SSIB.

308 The time change in soil moisture,  $\Delta S$ , vertically integrated over all of the soil layers,  
309 is the output variable considered in the following analysis for comparison with GRACE  
310 water storage change. It is related to the other water budget variables (input precipitation,  
311  $P$ , evapotranspiration,  $E$  and total run-off, including surface run-off and drainage,  $R$ , in  
312 mm/hour) by the following equation:

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = P - E - R$$

313  $\Delta S$  is calculated in the ALMIP experiment over a time interval of 3 hours. Mean an-  
314 nual values for the variables on the right hand side of the above equation are reported in  
315 Table 3. Simulated evapotranspiration is very significant over the Sahel, accounting for  
316 85% of input precipitation on average (multi models average for the whole study period).  
317 Total run-off is much less, with surface run-off accounting for 6 % and drainage for 8.5%  
318 of input precipitation. Total run-off is more significant in the Southern part of the study  
319 area, where it is 30% of input precipitation, while evapotranspiration accounts for 70 %  
320 of input precipitation between 6° N and 12° N. However, the partitioning between evap-  
321 otranspiration and total run-off is quite variable among different models: over the West  
322 Africa region, average yearly simulated evapotranspiration ranges from a minimum value  
323 of 482 mm/year for the SSIB1 model to a maximum of 677 mm/year for the HTESSEL

324 model. Total run-off ranges from a minimum value of 95 mm/year for the HTESSEL  
325 model to a maximum of 317 mm/year for the SSIB1 model.

326 As done for the GRACE products,  $\Delta S$  has been integrated over time to obtain monthly  
327 soil moisture and then transferred to anomalies by removing the mean over the 2003-2006  
328 period.

329 The spatial distribution of soil moisture anomalies for the different ALMIP models in  
330 September is shown in Fig. 7. All models have a soil moisture maximum to the south-east  
331 corner of the study area and this is more evident for HTESSEL, ORCHIDEE and JULES  
332 than for the other models. Another area of high soil moisture, more or less pronounced,  
333 is found by the majority of models at about 12°N and 5°W. Fig. 8 shows the temporal  
334 variability of modelled water storage spatially averaged over the West Africa and the  
335 Sahel boxes for the nine land surface models considered. The temporal changes are very  
336 coherent among the different models and the dry and wet phases are well represented.  
337 This is perhaps not surprising since soil moisture changes are primarily determined by  
338 the precipitation events that are the same for all models. However, large differences  
339 among the model simulations can be observed during the drying phase following the rainy  
340 season. Differences in the parametrisations employed by different land surface models are  
341 indeed enhanced in this period compared to the wetting phase when the water storage  
342 simulation is more constrained by the input precipitation. Significant differences of soil  
343 moisture seasonal amplitudes among different models are also observed.

### 3. Results

344 In the following section, the spatial and temporal distribution of water storage anomalies  
345 by GRACE and soil moisture anomalies by ALMIP are analysed.

346 Given the scatter among different GRACE water storage estimations as well as among  
347 different model results, the comparison between GRACE products and ALMIP results  
348 does not allow the determination of 'the best' GRACE products or 'the best' land sur-  
349 face model. Therefore, in the following analysis, results are first presented as mean and  
350 standard deviation values for the 6 GRACE products compared to mean and standard  
351 deviation values for the 9 ALMIP models considered.

352 Fig. 9 shows the temporal evolution of the mean GRACE and the mean ALMIP water  
353 storage anomalies over the 2003-2007 period. A general agreement is found between satel-  
354 lite and model estimations: the wet and dry phases are distinguished well in both cases,  
355 and water storage mean amplitudes are quite similar. The overall agreement between  
356 GRACE and models is worse during the dry season: GRACE products show a strong  
357 interannual variability that is not observed for the ALMIP models in the dry season.  
358 Moreover, a water storage increase during the dry season (January to March) is some-  
359 times observed in the GRACE data, particularly in 2005, but also in 2007 and to a lesser  
360 extent in 2006. This increase, detected by all of the GRACE products (fig. 4), is unlikely  
361 related to the data processing methodology, but its causes remain unclear.

362 The comparison between satellite and model outputs has to be carried out carefully since  
363 the two estimates are not completely equivalent. Water storage estimates by GRACE do  
364 take into account soil water integrated over the entire soil depth, therefore including  
365 aquifers as well as surface water contained within river beds and floodplains. In the land  
366 surface models employed here, the entire "hydrologically active" soil depth is represented  
367 by a shallow soil reservoir. In addition there is no water transfer between adjacent cells  
368 and drainage through the deepest soil limit is lost. No explicit treatment of river water

369 and floodplains is taken into account in this study. The comparison is therefore valid if  
370 these effects are not significant over the study area.

371 As detailed in the following subsection, for the Sahel box, we have calculated the con-  
372 tribution of water in the Niger River (the largest river of the Sahel box) and in the Niger  
373 delta to the seasonal variations of equivalent water height.

374 The effects of aquifers and the water table are much more difficult to quantify given the  
375 scarcity of information of these variables at a regional scale and the large heterogeneity  
376 of underground systems in West Africa. In this sense, GRACE may provide missing  
377 information that is otherwise difficult to quantify. If all the other sources of discrepancies  
378 are accounted for, one can argue that the differences between GRACE and ALMIP gives  
379 an indication of water table variability.

### 3.1. Niger River and Niger delta contribution

380 The Niger River loses water through evaporation when flowing in the Sahelian zone  
381 because of the large floodplain known as the Mali wetland or the Niger inner delta and  
382 also because a large part of the basin consists of endhoreic systems, which do not con-  
383 tribute water to the river [*Descroix et al.*, 2009]. Water mass variations have been  
384 estimated using satellite altimetry data for the Niger River and from literature for the  
385 Niger delta. As detailed in the appendix, records of 12 altimetry-derived water levels from  
386 the Hydroweb website (<http://www.legos.obs-mip.fr/en/soa/hydrologie/hydroweb>) based  
387 on measurements from Topex/Poseidon, Jason-1, ERS-2, ENVISAT and GFO, have been  
388 combined to estimates of the river width to derive variations in the river water mass. For  
389 the inner delta, the mass of water has been estimated by the difference in river discharge  
390 at Dire (outlet) and Douna and Kirango (upstream) from the Global Runoff Data Center

391 (<http://www.grdc.sr.unh.edu/>), subtracting evaporation losses within the delta (see the  
392 appendix).

393 Fig. 10 shows the Niger River and Niger delta TWS (mm) anomaly for the Sahel box.  
394 The main contribution is due to the delta, with a seasonal amplitude of -4 to 6 mm while  
395 the river water mass varies between -2 and 2 mm. Due to the delay caused by the slow  
396 water progression in the floodplain, the Niger flood peak shifts from August to December  
397 when flowing in the Sahel box, which attenuates the seasonal cycle of the total mass  
398 variation. The contribution of the other rivers in the Sahel box is expected to be, at  
399 most, of the same magnitude as the Niger river, with a seasonal cycle of a few millimetres  
400 or less.

### 3.2. Seasonal cycle

401 The mean seasonal cycle, calculated as the mean over the period 2003-2007 for each  
402 month, is plotted in fig. 11. In general, a good agreement is found between GRACE and  
403 ALMIP seasonal water storage variations for both West Africa and the Sahel. To better  
404 compare GRACE estimates and ALMIP output over the Sahel, the water in the Niger  
405 River and Niger delta has been removed from the GRACE signal and also plotted (gray  
406 curve in fig. 11, right panel): GRACE water storage amplitudes are slightly reduced in  
407 September and October but the shape of the seasonal cycle is not substantially changed,  
408 in line with the conclusions by *Kim et al.* [2009] for semiarid areas. Correcting for  
409 leakage effects, as discussed in section 2.1.1, may further reduce GRACE amplitudes over  
410 the Sahel and make them more consistent with ALMIP amplitudes. Mean total run-off by  
411 ALMIP (also shown in fig. 11) is between 0 and 15 mm, so the effects of its redistribution  
412 on water storage amplitudes cannot be higher than 15 mm. Also ALMIP models do not

413 explicitly account for water table that could increase the water storage amplitudes. Given  
414 that, over the Sahel, seasonal water storage amplitudes by GRACE and ALMIP are of  
415 the same order, groundwater level variations, not represented in land surface models, do  
416 not seem to be the most significant factor affecting water stock variations in this region.

417 Instead, for the West Africa box, GRACE amplitudes may be underestimated because of  
418 leakage effects which could therefore enhance the difference between GRACE and ALMIP.  
419 This suggests a more important role of slow reservoirs (rivers, dams, aquifers) in the  
420 southern part of the study region.

421 Regarding the shape of the seasonal cycle, a steeper slope is observed for GRACE than  
422 for ALMIP during the drying-up phase (January to April) for both the West Africa and  
423 the Sahel boxes. Only two models ISBA and CLSM (fig. 12 top) show a depletion of  
424 available moisture comparable to GRACE results in the Sahel. As shown in Fig. 12  
425 (middle) this is mainly due to differences in the formulation of dry season evaporation  
426 Indeed for ISBA and CLSM, evapotranspiration during the dry season over the Sahel is  
427 about double than for the other ALMIP models (for example, average values between  
428 January and April are of 14mm/month for ISBA and 12 mm/month for CLSM). In the  
429 case of ISBA, the bare soil parametrisation includes water vapour transfer in addition to  
430 liquid water transfer allowing a more efficient drying of the surface layer that may therefore  
431 enhance evaporation during the dry season. For the CLSM model, the representation of  
432 a saturated zone and of sub grid heterogeneity, redistributing water within the pixel in  
433 ponds, shallow water table and temporary flooded areas, results in a longer water retention  
434 in the soil layer after the wet season, which allows a sustained evaporation during the dry



435 phases. This longer "memory effect" in the water budget of the CLSM has already been  
436 reported by *Mahanama and Koster* [2003].

437 As far as the wet season is concerned (see also fig. 7), soil moisture differences among  
438 different models are linked to differences in evapotranspiration for the majority of the  
439 models considered here (ISBA, JULES, SWAP, ORCHIDEE, CLSM, SETHYS) for which  
440 slightly higher soil moisture values in the wet season correspond to lower evapotranspira-  
441 tion, which is related to reduced net radiation (not shown). SSIB and NOAH soil moisture  
442 anomalies are less related to evapotraspiration: indeed these two models generate much  
443 more total run-off than the land surface model average. In contrast, HTESSEL generates  
444 a smaller amount of total run-off than the other models. For HTESSEL and SSIB, these  
445 differences can be due to the use of a different soil and vegetation parameters than the  
446 other ALMIP models (which used ECOCLIMAP: see Table 2). For NOAH, the high total  
447 run-off is likely due to the particular scheme developed by *Decharme* [2007]. Indeed,  
448 significant differences in the water budget components are found for models employing  
449 the same soil and vegetation parameters. These differences are therefore related to the  
450 intrinsic physics of each model and particularly the run-off scheme. CLSM stands apart  
451 from the other models, and shows a shift in the seasonal evolution of evapotranspiration  
452 that is more delayed into the season with a maximum arriving about one month after the  
453 other models which is related to the long memory effect discussed above. It should be  
454 noted that the inter-model scatter in the ALMIP models is consistent with other similar  
455 off-line model intercomparison projects (see a recent example by *Dirmeyer et al.* [2006])

456 In terms of the seasonal cycle phase, GRACE wetting and drying up periods are gener-  
457 ally delayed in comparison to ALMIP results. A similar shift of about one month has been

458 also reported by *Schmidt et al.* [2008], who compared GRACE and models estimations  
459 over 18 drainage basins in the world, and was attributed to the incomplete description  
460 of water lateral transfers in the water storage modelling. The inclusion of a slow reser-  
461 voir, accounting for processes such as surface run-off routing and drainage into deeper  
462 soil layers, could change the shape of the seasonal cycle, with more water being retained  
463 after the wet season and being evacuated progressively during the dry season, instead of  
464 being immediately lost by run-off and drainage. However *Winsemius et al.* [2006] and  
465 *Klokocnik* [2008] also found temporal shifts and hypothesize that these could be caused  
466 by leakage or the irregular sampling of the GRACE satellites.

### 3.3. Zonal distribution of land water storage

467 Fig. 13 shows the zonal distribution of soil water storage amplitudes which have been  
468 calculated as the difference between the maximum and the minimum values for each  
469 latitudinal band for the different GRACE products and the different ALMIP models in  
470 2006. The absolute values of the amplitudes vary among GRACE products, but the shape  
471 of their zonal distribution is quite similar for all the products with a well defined peak  
472 at about 10° N (except for the GFSC solution, which spatial resolution of 4°x4° is not  
473 fine enough to determine the shape of the zonal curve). A more important spread in the  
474 absolute values of the amplitudes is observed for the ALMIP results, with CLSM much  
475 higher and SSIB much lower than the average. Moreover, model outputs do not agree  
476 on the shape of the latitudinal distribution with peaks scattered between 8° and 11° N.  
477 These differences seem to be at least partially explained by evapotranspiration differences  
478 during the dry season. As shown in Fig. 14, models with higher evapotranspiration  
479 between December and March correspond to models with the higher soil moisture seasonal

480 amplitudes and vice versa. CLSM exhibits again a distinct behaviour (fig. 13 and 14),  
481 which is consistent with its formulation as it is the only LSM including a water table and  
482 the effect of deep soil moisture memory. However Gascoïn et al. (2009) showed that this  
483 water table may be insufficient to capture large regional aquifer dynamics.

484 We already discussed the role of evapotranspiration during the dry season to explain  
485 the soil moisture seasonal curve over the Sahel (fig. 9 right panel). The results reported  
486 here show that dry season evapotranspiration plays an important role to the South of the  
487 study region also (figs. 13 and 14).

### 3.4. Interannual variability

488 Interannual variability has been evaluated by subtracting the mean seasonal cycle  
489 (shown in Fig. 9) from the water storage temporal evolution in Fig. 7. The results  
490 are shown in Fig.15 for the Sahel box. For clarity, the wet season (August-November) and  
491 the rest of the year (December to July) are reported separately. From August to Novem-  
492 ber, a promising good agreement is found between GRACE and ALMIP: both clearly  
493 show, for example, the wet conditions at the end of the 2003 rainy season that was rather  
494 good in term of precipitation amount, the important and dramatic drought that affected  
495 the Sahel at the end of 2004, the early onset of the monsoon in 2005 and the delayed  
496 onset in 2007 and 2006. Similar results (not shown) have been found for the entire West  
497 African region. In the December to July period, ALMIP models do not show a significant  
498 interannual variability except for a small signature from the previous wet season evident  
499 at the end of 2003 and of 2004, which are the extreme wet and dry years. This is may  
500 be due to the fact that the ALMIP simulations, except for the CLSM model, do not have  
501 strong dynamics in the soil layer below the root zone. On the contrary GRACE estimates

502 indicate large interannual water storage variations for the December to July period also.  
503 This could be due to variability in slow water reservoirs that are not well accounted for  
504 by models. Even if noise in the GRACE water height solutions may affect the results, the  
505 GRACE interannual signature during the dry season is consistent with precipitation in  
506 the previous rainy season. GRACE data provide therefore a base to study memory effects  
507 and particularly the impact of the previous monsoon season on the following monsoon  
508 onset.

#### 4. Concluding discussion

509 The results of this study show that GRACE products provide useful detection of water  
510 storage changes over West Africa and the Sahel. An important outcome of this study is  
511 that GRACE data are able to reproduce the water storage interannual variability over  
512 the Sahel. This is encouraging for the evaluation of water storage monitoring and trend  
513 detection, which will be possible when satellite gravimetry data will be available over a  
514 sufficiently long time period.

515 Substantial uncertainties remain in terms of the magnitudes estimated by the different  
516 GRACE products. The effects of leakage on the estimated water storage variations by  
517 GRACE could account for a part of the observed discrepancies, but they should not sub-  
518 stantially change the results presented here, at least over the Sahel. Indeed, for the large  
519 domains used in this study, the differences among different GRACE solutions, accounted  
520 for by the multi-product analysis carried out here, are higher than the estimated effects  
521 of leakage .

522 The comparison between GRACE products and ALMIP soil moisture estimations al-  
523 lowed the identification of the most critical processes that need to be taken into account

524 to improve water storage modelling over the study area. In line with the findings of other  
525 studies comparing GRACE products and land surface model outputs over different areas  
526 [*Ngo-Duc et al.* , 2007; *Niu et al.* , 2007; *Güntner et al.* , 2008; *Syed et al.* , 2008; *Kim*  
527 *et al.* , 2009; *Alkama et al.* , 2009], the inclusion of slow water reservoirs and transfer  
528 schemes routing total run-off in the land surface models could improve the agreement  
529 between satellite and model estimates in West Africa. Moreover, we have shown that dry  
530 season processes, in particular evapotranspiration, play an important role in the modelling  
531 of soil moisture over the Sahel. This is also the case in the Southern part of the study  
532 region where vegetation effects are more important. Even when using the same soil and  
533 vegetation input data (soil type, soil depth, vegetation type and root depth), models differ  
534 in the soil moisture estimations. The simulation of the dynamics of the deepest soil layers  
535 is therefore a critical issue, particularly concerning processes related to vertical transfers  
536 upwards and downwards, horizontal heterogeneity, transpiration through deep roots and  
537 gas phase transfers for dry soil evaporation. This further points out the value of GRACE  
538 satellite data for water cycle related studies in this region where observations are quite  
539 scarce and modelling is difficult.

## 5. Appendix

540 Monthly Niger height levels averaged over 2002-2007 have been derived from altimetry  
541 data at twelve locations in the Sahel box (Table 4). For each station, river width at the  
542 minimum and maximum river height has been derived from Landsat and Google Earth  
543 imagery and the River cross section for each monthly data has been estimated assuming  
544 a trapezoidal section. The length of the river corresponding to each location (which  
545 characteristics are summarised in Table 4) has been derived from Google Earth imagery,

546 excluding the delta (Kirango to Dire). The total length of the Niger river in the Sahel  
 547 box is 1636 km (delta excluded).

The water budget of the delta can be written as:

$$\frac{\Delta D}{\Delta t} = F_{in} - F_{out} - ETR_{delta} + (R_{local} + P_{local} + I)$$

548 where  $D$  is the mass of water,  $F_{in}$  is the water entering the delta measured at  
 549 Kirango and Douna and exiting the delta at Dire (data obtained from from GRDC  
 550 <http://www.grdc.sr.unh.edu/>),  $ETR_{delta}$  represents evaporation losses in the delta. The  
 551 other terms are precipitation on the delta ( $P_{local}$ ), small range run-off contributing to  
 552 the delta ( $R_{local}$ ) and exchanges with water tables ( $I$ ), which are neglected ([*Mahé et al.*  
 553 , 2009]).  $ETR_{delta}$  is computed as the product of the flood surface  $S_{delta}$  by monthly  
 554 evaporation rate for open water  $E$  given by *Quensière et al.* [1994], table 5, as:

$$ETR_{delta} = E \cdot S_{delta}$$

555 The flooded surface is estimated for 2003 using equations given by *Zwart and Grigoras*  
 556 [2005] for expanding and receding periods, based on water height data at Akka and landsat  
 557 images.

558 To ensure consistency, monthly ETR for 2003 has been rescaled so that annual ETR  
 559 corresponds to annual  $F_{in} - F_{out}$  which is measured over 1922-1992.

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**Table 1.** GRACE products employed in this study.

Product name	Spatial grid	Spatial resolution	Temporal frequency	Time span
GFZ -v 04	1°x1°	400 km	1 month	Oct 2002-Apr 2008 (missing Jan 2003, Jun 2003, Jan 2004, Sept 2004*)
JPL -v 04	1°x1°	400 km	1 month	Aug 2002-Apr 2008 (missing Jan 2003, Jun 2003, Jan 2004)
CSR -v 4.1	1°x1°	400 km	1 month	Sep 2002-Apr 2008 (missing Jun 2003, Jan 2004)
DEOSS DMT V 1	1°x1°	400 km	1 month	Feb 2003 - Dec 2007 (missing Jun. 2003)
CNES -GRGS v 2	1°x1°	400 km	10 days	Aug 2002-May 2008
GSFC -Mascons	4°x4°	4°x4°	10 days	Apr 2003-Apr 2007

\* removed because of aliasing problems

**Table 2.** Land surface models participating to ALMIP-Exp3. The names of the people who performed the simulations are in *italic* below the institute name. The model configuration used for ALMIP is shown in the rightmost column where L represents the number of vertical soil layers, E represents the number of energy budgets per tile, and SV corresponds to the soil-vegetation parameters used. Tile refers to the maximum number of completely independent land surface types permitted within each grid box.

Model Acronym	Institute	Recent Reference	ALMIP configuration
HTESSEL	ECMWF, Reading, UK <i>G. Balsamo</i>	<i>Balsamo et al.</i> [2008]	4L, 6 tiles, 1E, SV: ECMWF
ORCHIDEE -CWRR	IPSL, Paris, France <i>P. de Rosnay</i>	<i>d'Orgeval et al.</i> [2008]; <i>de Rosnay et al.</i> [2002]	11L, 13 tiles, 1E, SV: ECOCLIMAP
ISBA	CNRM, Toulouse, France <i>A. Boone</i>	<i>Noilhan and Mahfouf</i> [1996]	3L, 1 tile, 1E, SV : ECOCLIMAP
JULES	CEH, Wallingford, UK <i>P. Harris</i>	<i>Essery et al.</i> [2003]	4L, 9 tiles, 2E, SV: ECOCLIMAP
SETHYS	CETP/LSCE, France <i>S. Saux-Picart and C. Ottlé</i>	<i>Saux-Picart et al.</i> [2009]	3L, 12 tiles, 2E, SV: ECOCLIMAP
NOAH	CETP/LSCE (NCEP) <i>B. Decharme and C. Ottlé</i>	<i>Chen and Dudhia</i> [2001]; <i>Decharme</i> [2007]	7L, 12 tiles, 1E, SV: ECOCLIMAP
CLSM	UPMC, Paris, France <i>S. Gascoin and A. Ducharne</i>	<i>Koster et al.</i> [2000] <i>Gascoin</i> [2009]	3L, 5 tiles, 1E, SV: ECOCLIMAP
SSiB	LETG, Nantes, France; UCLA, Los Angeles, USA <i>I. Pocard-Leclercq</i>	<i>Xue et al.</i> [1991]	3L, 1 tile, 2E, SV: SSiB
SWAP	IWP, Moscow, Russia <i>Y. Gusev and O. Nasonova</i>	<i>Gusev et al.</i> [2006]	3L, 1 tile, 1E, SV: ECOCLIMAP

**Table 3.** Water budget components by the ALMIP land surface models over West Africa and the Sahel. For the ensemble of the ALMIP models considered, mean values are reported.

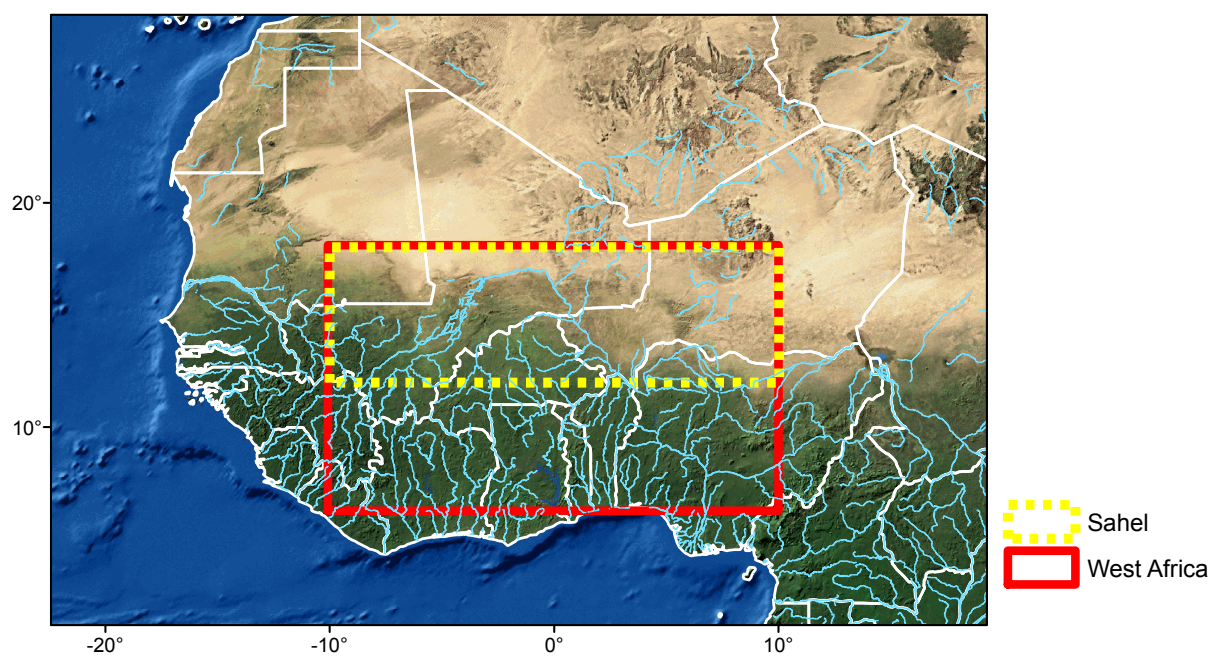
	West Africa				
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Precipitation (mm/year)	894	769	698	740	791
Evaporation (mm/year)	639	619	591	585	575
Surface runoff (mm/year)	67	52	44	49	61
Drainage (mm/year)	164	110	77	103	145
	Sahel				
	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Precipitation (mm/year)	535	404	449	433	433
Evaporation (mm/year)	437	362	381	377	361
Surface runoff (mm/year)	35	24	26	23	28
Drainage (mm/year)	58	32	33	29	40

**Table 4.** Characteristics of the altimetry stations used to estimate water mass in the Niger river in the Sahel box.

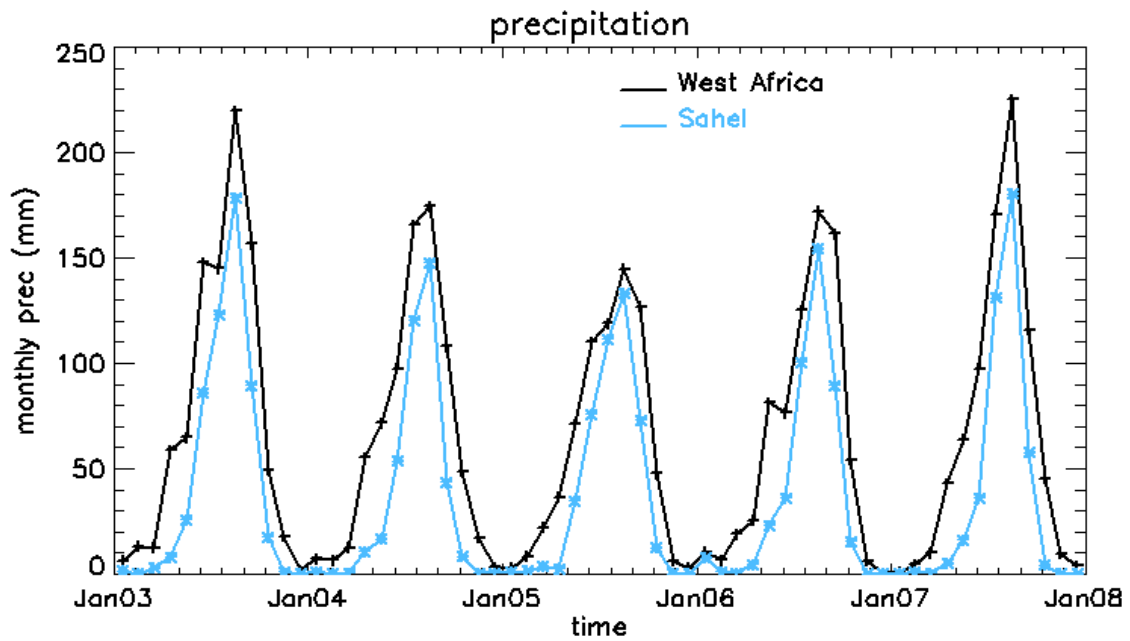
Station ID	Lat	Lon	min width (m)	max width (m)	River length (km)
259	13.18	352.89	600	3090	295.0
173	13.72	354.20	300	2400	87.0
459	16.67	357.11	600	2100	23.5
388	16.73	357.44	1000	4000	43.5
917	16.83	357.80	400	1500	49.0
846	16.92	358.20	380	1500	45.5
373	17.01	358.47	500	4500	60.5
302	17.01	358.94	260	1550	58.0
831	17.00	359.19	400	2000	55.0
760	16.94	359.64	500	7000	102.5
287	15.96	0.15	370	2800	183.0
745	14.31	1.25	550	2900	633.5

**Table 5.** Monthly evaporation rate(mm) after *Quensière et al.* [1994]

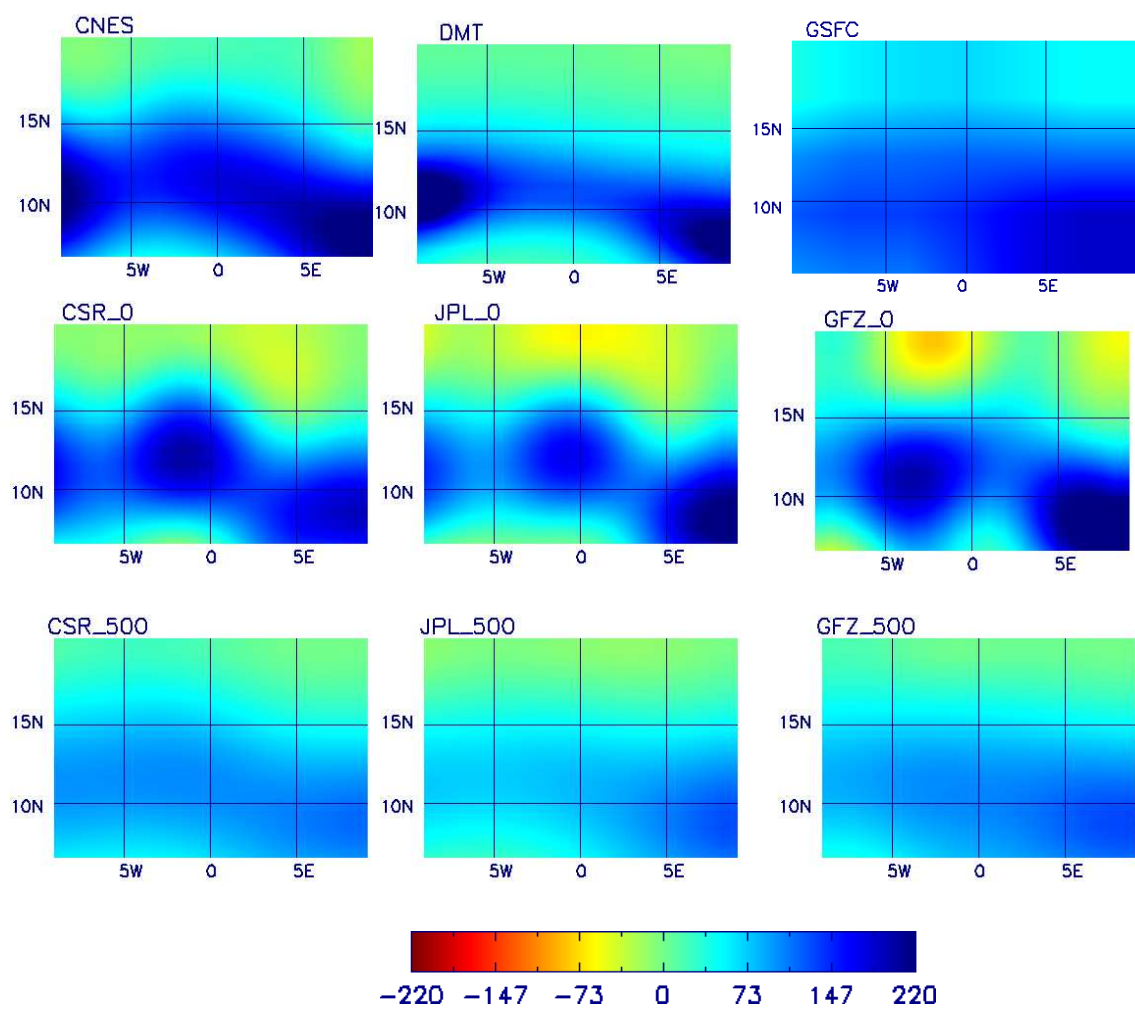
Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
167	187	212	219	230	215	205	170	173	180	180	160



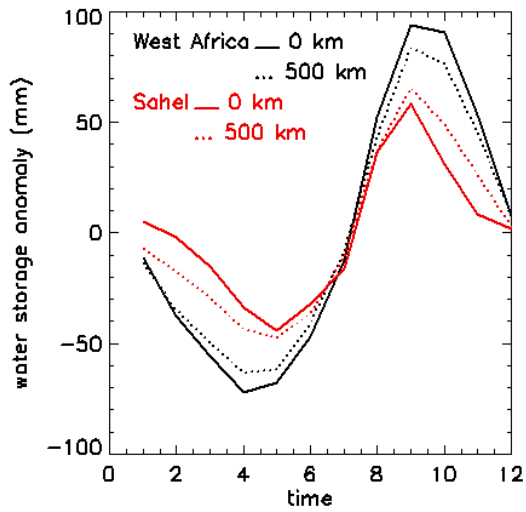
**Figure 1.** Study area, with overlaid the West Africa and Sahel boxes employed in this study.



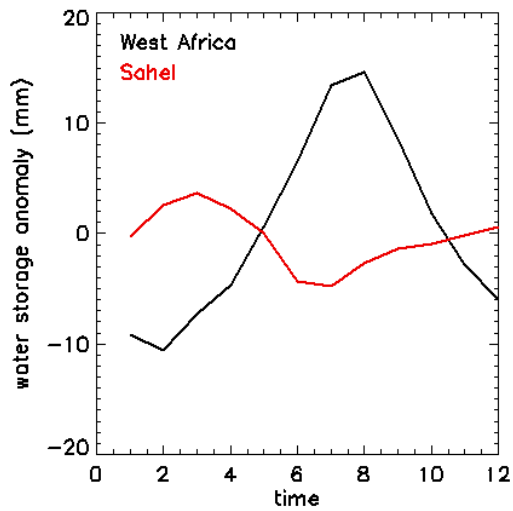
**Figure 2.** Monthly precipitation (mm) over West Africa and the Sahel by the TRMM dataset employed for the ALMIP simulations.



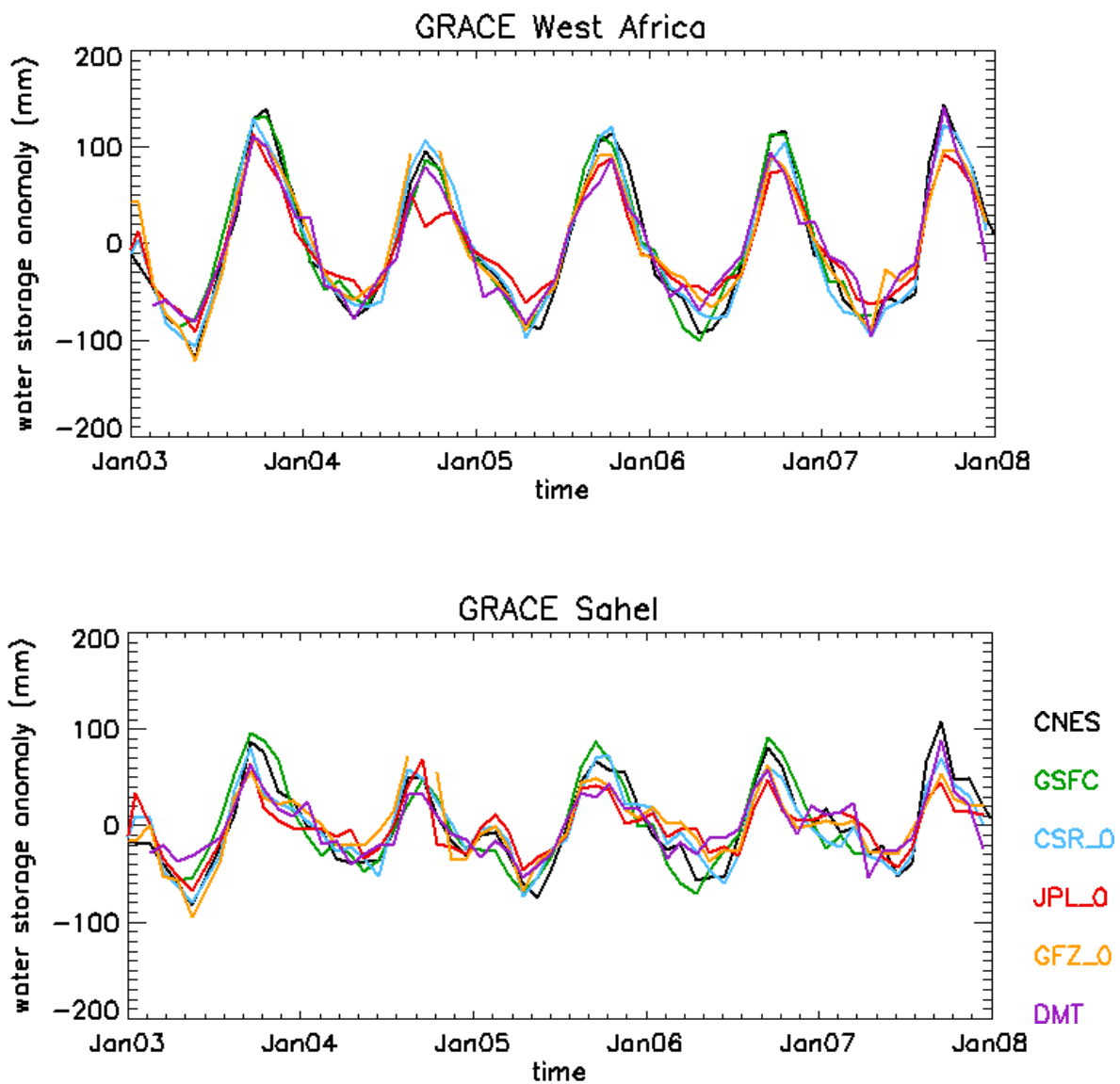
**Figure 3.** Spatial distribution of water storage anomalies (mm) over the West Africa study region for all the GRACE products. September 2006.



**Figure 4.** Seasonal cycle (multi annual mean over the study period 2003-2007) for CSR, JPL and GFZ solutions unsmoothed and smoothed by a Gaussian filter of 500 km.

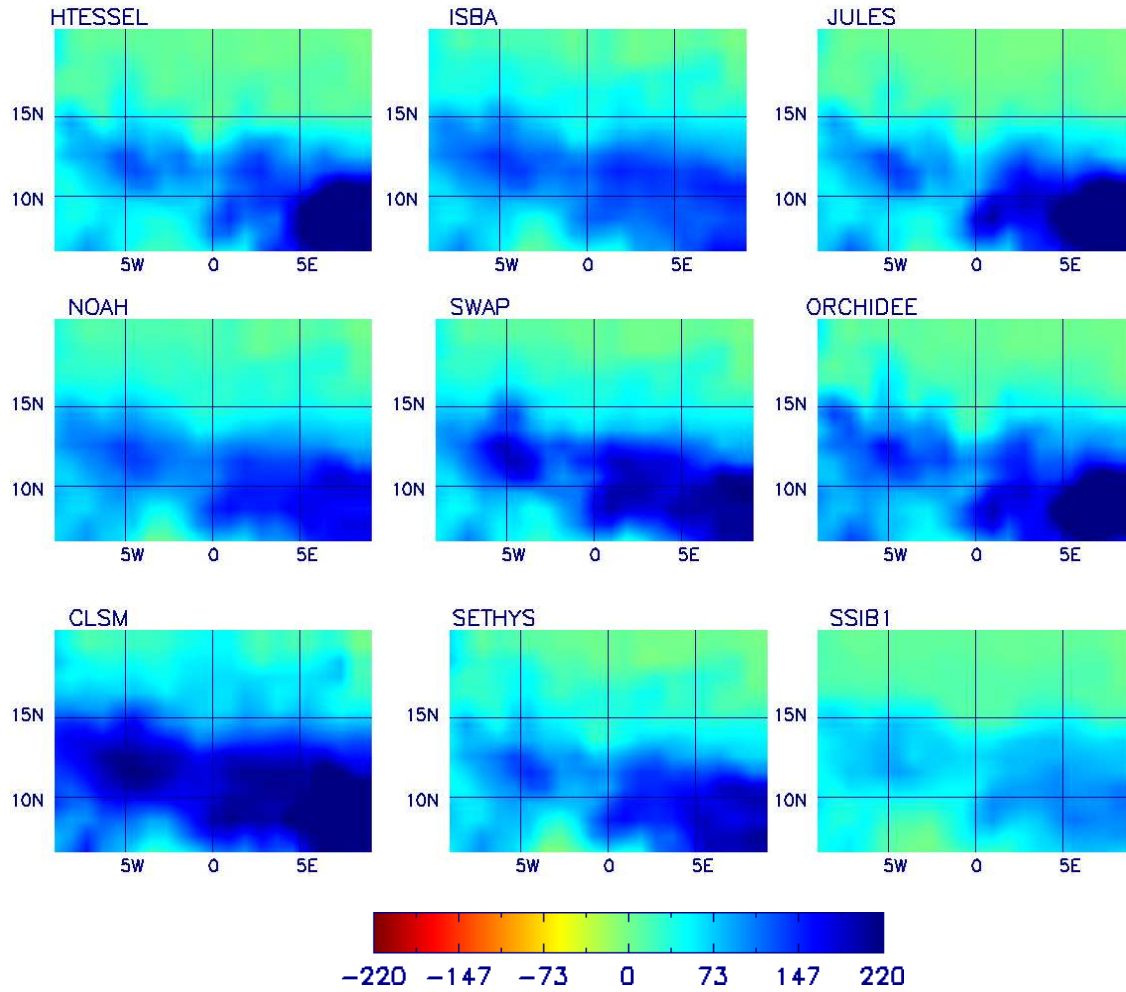


**Figure 5.** Leakage correction for CSR solutions over West Africa and the Sahel

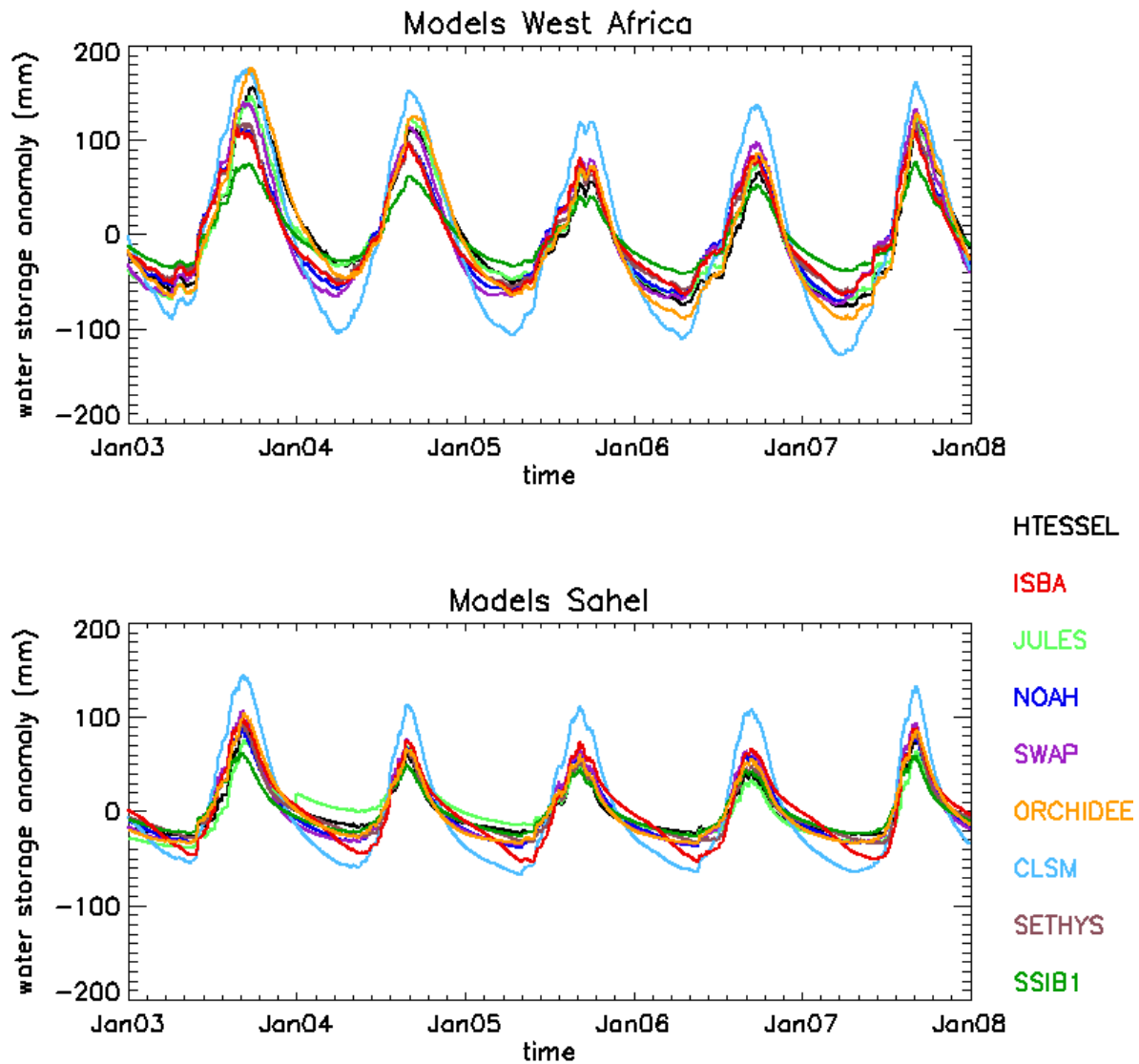


**Figure 6.** Water storage changes for the 6 different GRACE solutions employed in this study, spatially averaged over the West Africa and the Sahel boxes.

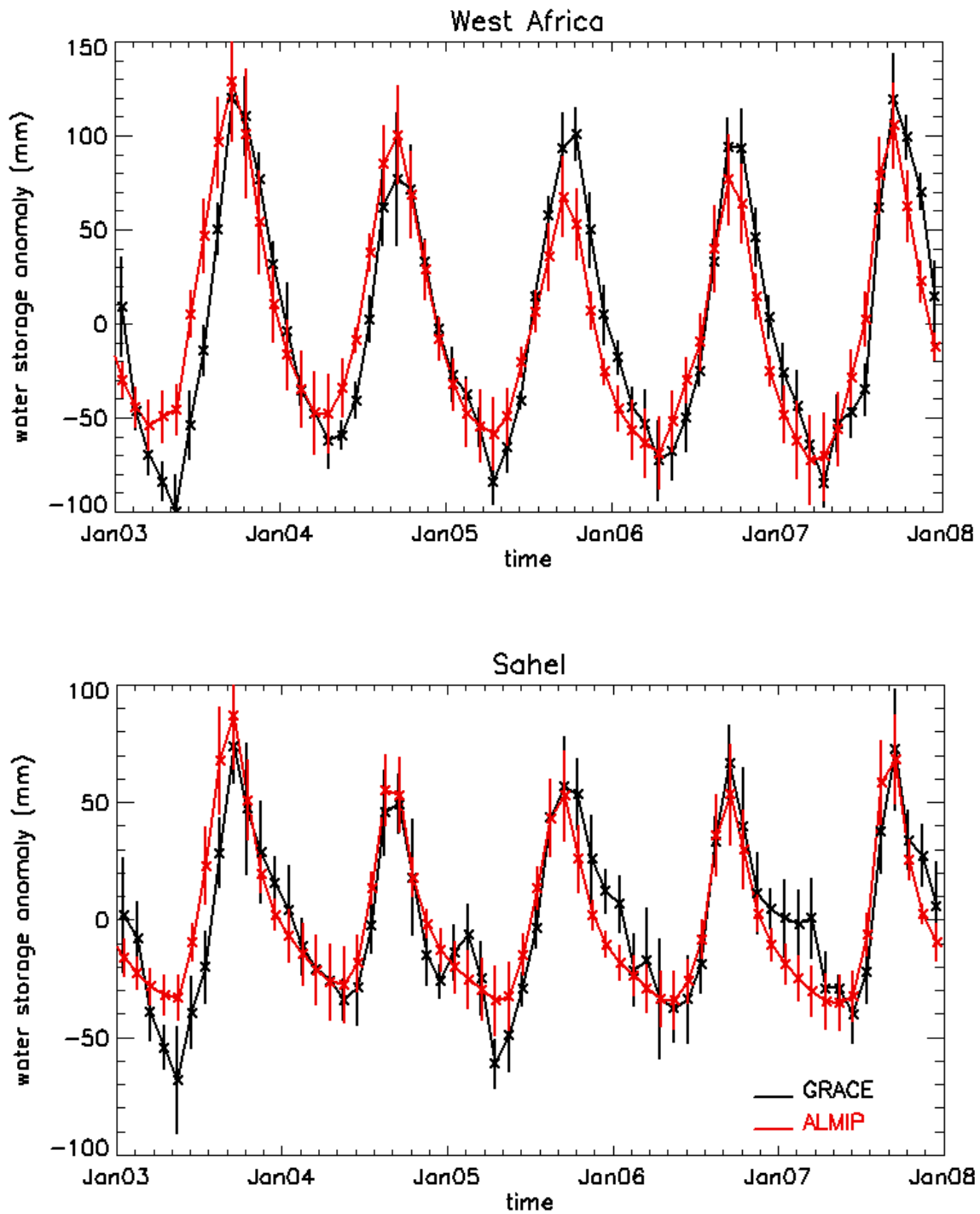




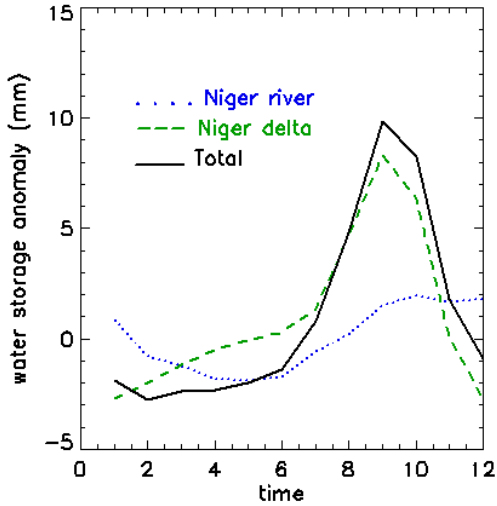
**Figure 7.** Spatial distribution of water storage anomalies (mm) over the West Africa study region for all the ALMIP models analysed. September 2006.



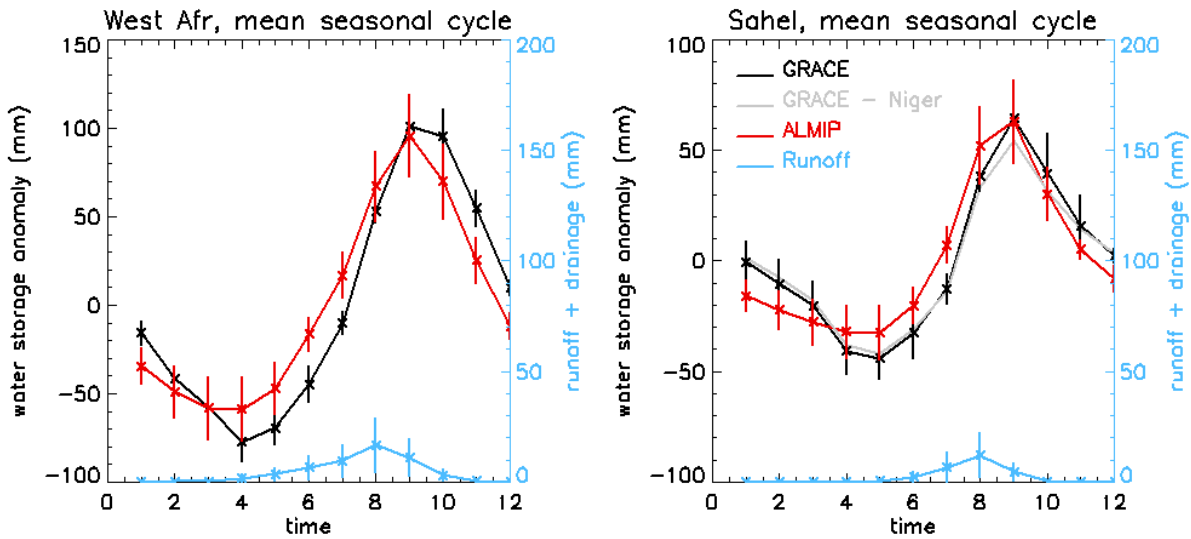
**Figure 8.** Simulated water storage changes for the 9 different models employed in this study, spatially averaged over the West Africa and the Sahel boxes.



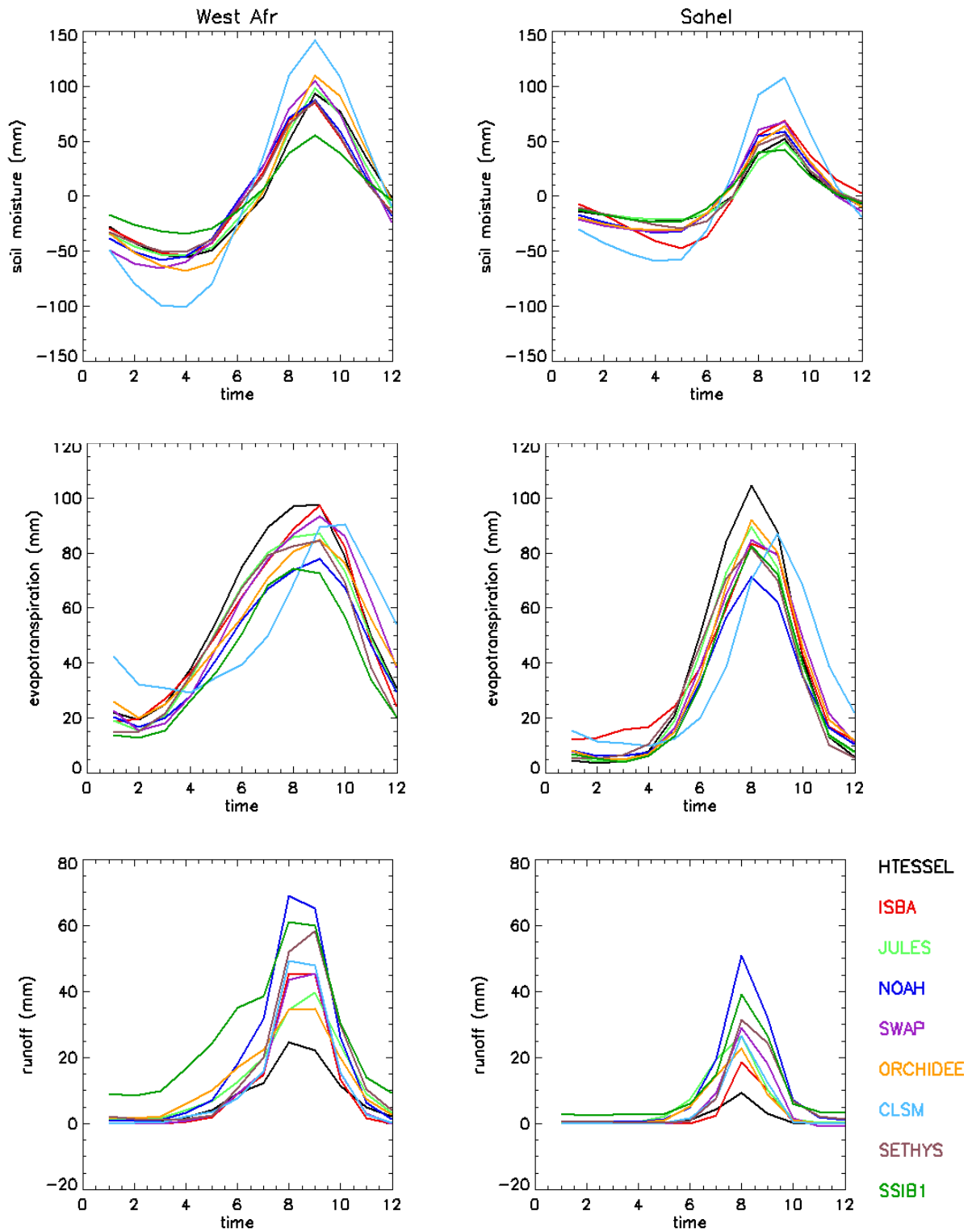
**Figure 9.** Temporal evolution of GRACE (multi-solutions mean and standard deviation) and ALMIP (multi-models mean and standard deviation) water storage variations for the West Africa and the Sahel.



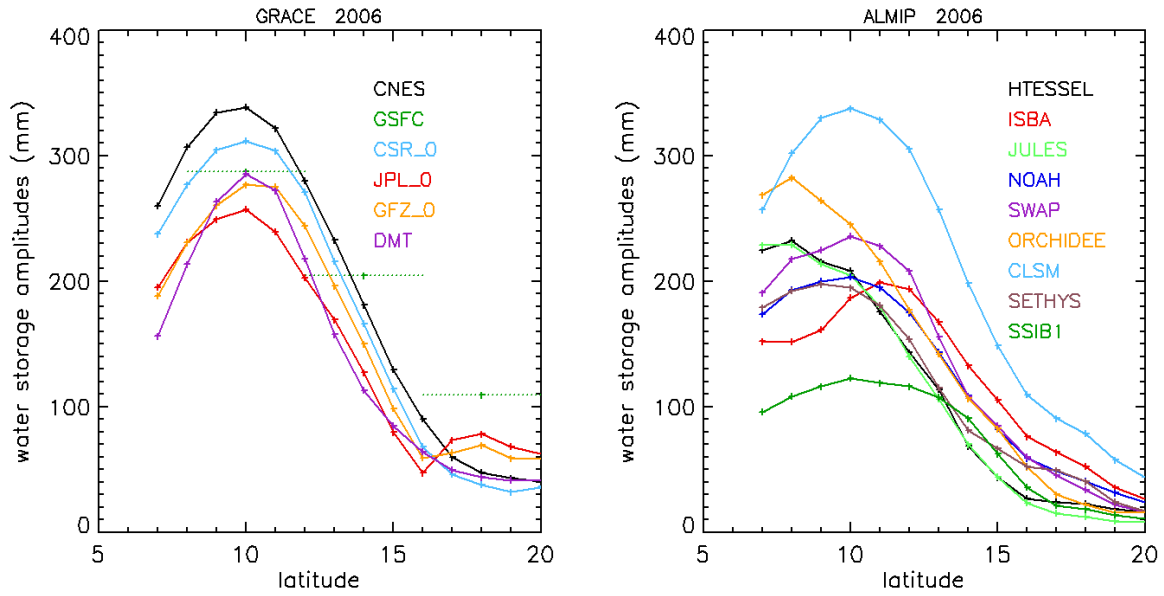
**Figure 10.** Water storage contribution from the Niger river (water in the river itself, in the delta and total) in the Sahel box.



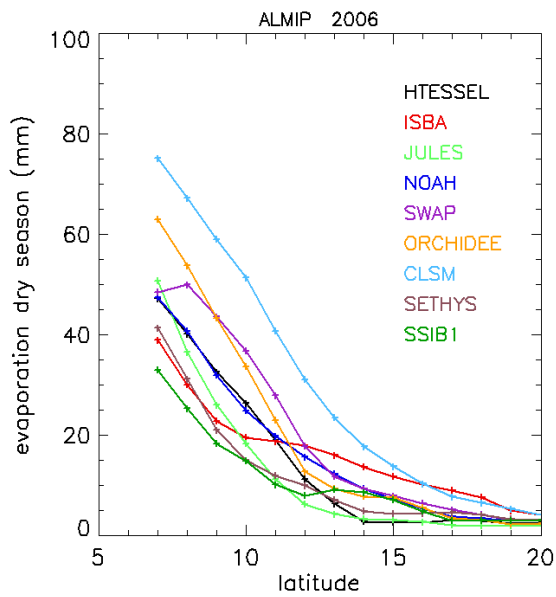
**Figure 11.** Water storage mean seasonal cycle over the period 2003-2007 for GRACE (multi-solutions mean and standard deviation) and ALMIP (multi-models mean and standard deviation). The mean total run-off by ALMIP is also shown in blue. The Gray curve on the right hand plot represents the GRACE water storage without the Niger river contribution (fig. 10)



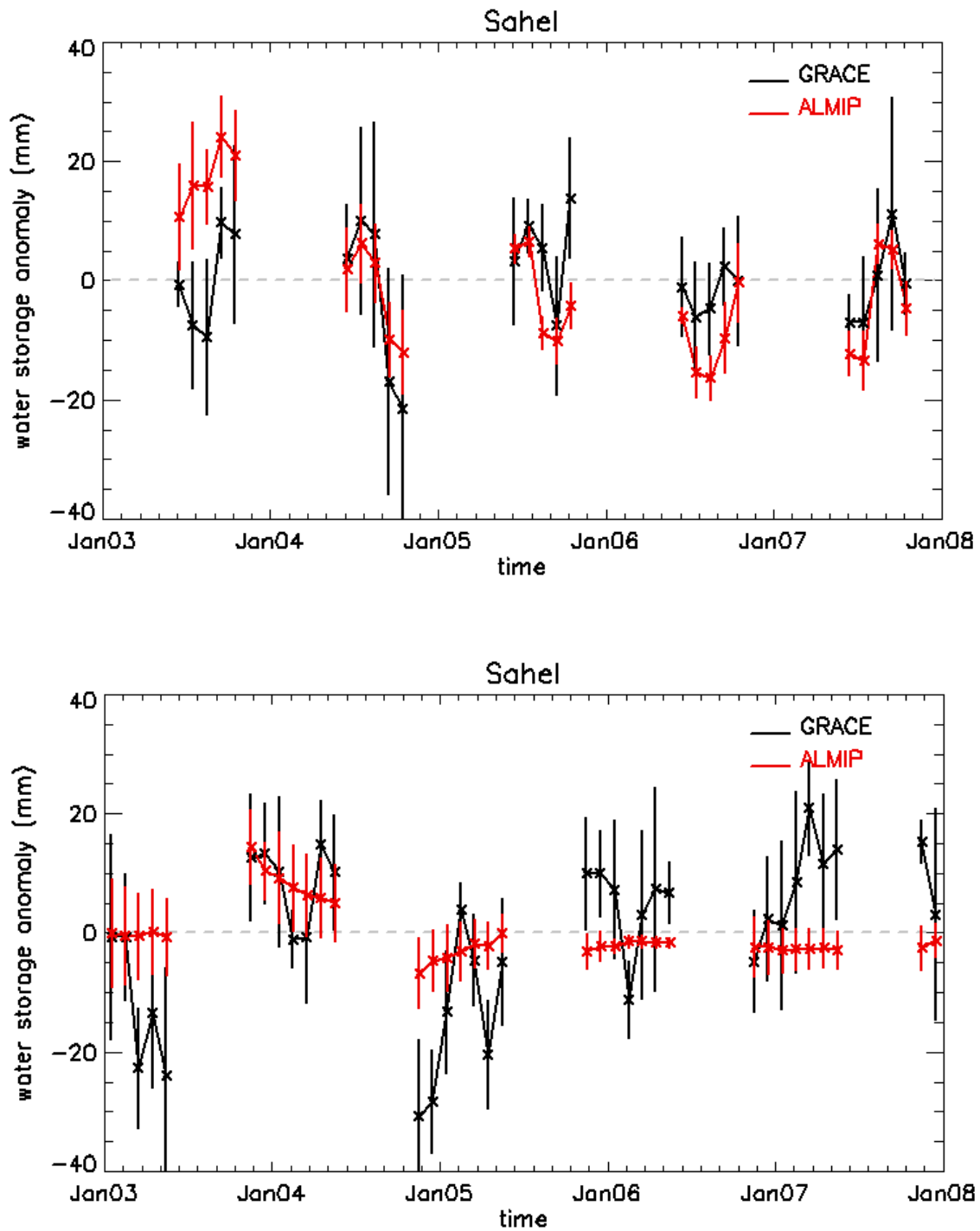
**Figure 12.** Soil moisture, evaporation and total run-off (runoff+drainage) mean seasonal cycle over the period 2003-2007 for the different ALMIP models.



**Figure 13.** Latitudinal distribution (transects of 1° in latitude averaged over the full longitude extent of the study area of the annual amplitudes (difference between maximum and minimum values) in 2006 estimated by GRACE (left panel) and ALMIP models (right panel).



**Figure 14.** Latitudinal distribution of dry season (December to March) evaporation for the different ALMIP models.



**Figure 15.** Interannual variations (temporal evolution minus seasonal cycle) in the water storage estimations by GRACE (multi-solutions mean and standard deviation) and ALMIP (multi-models mean and standard deviation) during the August to November (top) and December to July (bottom) periods.