

Future changes in the mean and variability of extreme rainfall indices over the Guinea Coast and role of the Atlantic equatorial mode

Koffi Worou¹, Thierry Fichet¹, and Hugues Goosse¹

¹Earth and Climate Research Centre (TECLIM), Earth and Life Institute (ELI), Université catholique de Louvain (UCLouvain), Louvain-la-Neuve, Belgium

Correspondence: Koffi Worou (koffi.worou@uclouvain.be)

Abstract. The occurrence of climate extremes could have dramatic impacts on various sectors such as agriculture, water supply, and energy production. ~~Over the last decades, less frequent and more intense rainfalls have been observed in the coastal areas of West Africa (the Guinea Coast). Part of this~~ This study aims to understand part of the variability in the extreme ~~rainfalls~~ rainfall indices over Guinea Coast that can be related to the Atlantic equatorial mode (AEM) whose positive phases are associated with an ~~enhancement of the mean rainfall over the Guinea Coast and an~~ increase in the intensity and frequency of rainfall events. ~~The climate models~~ We use six extreme indices computed from six observed rainfall databases and historical and SSP5-8.5 simulations from 24 general circulation models (GCMs) that participate in the sixth phase of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP6) ~~simulate reasonably well the rainfall extremes over the Guinea Coast and West Africa. to~~ study changes in extreme rainfall events over Guinea Coast during July-September. Under present-day conditions, we found ~~that current GCMs clearly overestimate the frequency of wet events and the maximum number of consecutive wet days. The magnitude of the other extreme indices simulated is within the range of the observations which, moreover, present a large spread. Our results confirm existing studies.~~ However, less attention has been paid to the evaluation of the modelled rainfall extremes associated with the AEM under different climate conditions, while the variability of the AEM is expected to decrease in the future with a potentially significant impact on the extreme events. Here, we use ~~historical and SSP5-8.5 simulations~~ from six (one) observed rainfall (sea surface temperature) data and 24 ~~models that contributed to CMIP6 to investigate the~~ GCMs outputs to investigate the present-day, near-term, mid-term, and long-term future links between the AEM and the extreme rainfall events over ~~the~~ Guinea Coast. The biases in the extreme rainfall responses to the AEM are ~~reasonably well represented over the 1995-2014 period, although there are substantial biases in their magnitudes. Future changes indicate an increase in the mean and~~ subject to a large spread across the different models and observations. For the long-term future ~~(2080-2099), less frequent and more intense rainfall events are projected. As an illustration, the multimodel ensemble median (EnsMedian) maximum rainfall during five consecutive wet days (RX5day) would be 21 % higher than under present-day conditions. Moreover, the~~ variability of the majority of the extreme indices over ~~the Guinea Coast . The average across the 12 indices of their percentage of~~ Guinea Coast is projected to increase (48 % for RX5day in the long-term ~~changes in mean and variability equals to and , respectively~~ future). By contrast, the decreased variability of the AEM in a warmer climate leads to a reduced magnitude of the rainfall extreme responses associated ~~to AEM over the~~ with AEM over Guinea Coast. ~~The~~

multi-model median values of the long-term changes in the variance explained by the AEM for the different extreme indices range between and While under present-day conditions the AEM explains 18 % of the RX5day variance in the EnsMedian, this value is reduced to 8 % at the end of 21st century. As a consequence, ~~while in absolute~~ in absolute, there is a projected increase in the total variability of most of the extreme rainfall indices, but the contribution of the AEM to this variability weakens in a warmer future climate.

1 Introduction

Extreme rainfall events are climatic hazards that could have damaging impacts on the life of people living in the affected regions. For example, during July and August 2012, more than 1.5 million West and Central African people experienced severe flash flood events (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), 2012, 2021). Fofana et al. (2022) reported that over the period 1982-2019 Severe flash flood events were reported over West and Central Africa during the last decades, affecting millions of people, one-third of the flooding events in Bamako destroying houses, buildings and left dozens of deaths (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), 2012, 2021). Some of these climatic hazards were caused by severely abnormal rainfalls. In 2019, the rainfall, which often contribute to increasing the rivers levels, favouring flooding of the Niger River after heavy rainfall affected people, destroyed houses, and killed 57 people (Elagib et al., 2021). In the northern part of Togo, more than people were affected by intense rainfalls surrounding areas (Elagib et al., 2021; Fofana et al., 2022). A combination of different factors could also lead to high impact weather events, such as the very heavy rainfall that occurred in October 2020, with the Oti River bursting its banks and flooding the surrounding areas, leading to 11 dead and buildings damaged (, last access: 20-04-2021) . For people born in 2021 in the Sub-Saharan Africa, the exposure to river flooding events is expected to increase 4.6, 8, and 8.6 times more than without climate change, in a world where global warming is limited to 1.5 °C, or where global warming reaches 2.4 °C or 3.5 °C by 2100, respectively (, last access: 11-08-2022). This increase is two to fourfold higher than the flooding events experienced by people in the same area, born in 1960, and highlights the climate urgency in reducing our greenhouse gas emissions for the safety of young people (Thiery et al., 2021). Ouagadougou on the 1st of September 2009 (Engel et al., 2017; Lafore et al., 2017; Beucher et al., 2019) , where than one third of the annual rainfall was recorded within 24 hours, and reached 263 mm. In addition, the large-scale sea surface temperature (SST) conditions during this event showed an anomalous warming of the Mediterranean Sea, a negative North Atlantic Oscillation-like pattern and a pronounced Atlantic cold tongue. This enhanced cold tongue corresponds to a negative phase of the Atlantic equatorial mode (AEM), whose impact on the occurrence of extreme rainfall events over Guinea Coast is the focus of the current study (Zebiak, 1993: ?, ?).

The Sixth Assessment Report (AR6) of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) stated that there is a low confidence in the observed heavy precipitation trend over West Africa for the During the last decades, as well as in the contribution of human influence to that trend (Seneviratne et al., 2021). However, there are some regional differences in the observed trends. For instance, in Nigeria, Dike et al. (2020) reported a significant increasing trend of the total wet-day rainfall amount, the maximum consecutive 5 days rainfall and the rainfall intensity in the June-September season over the period

1975-2013. Furthermore, they stated that the occurrence of flooding events in Nigeria could be attributed to the intensification of rainfall extremes.

Over the Guinea Coast has experienced changes in its rainfall characteristics, with conclusions that depend on the season considered, the period of study, the source of observations and the extreme rainfall index used (Bichet and Diedhiou, 2018; New et al., 2006). It is important to highlight that these changes are not homogeneous over the whole region. Through the period 1961-2000, the observations indicate a decrease in the annual rainfall in southern Nigeria, with, however, an increase in the intensity of the daily rainfall and the annual maximum 1 day rainfall (New et al., 2006). Moreover, Bichet and Diedhiou (2018) demonstrated that over the 1981-2014 period, on the one hand, there is no overall clear significant trend in the mean April-June (AMJ) rainfall over Guinea Coast. However, north (south) of they observed a negative (positive) trend in the rainfall intensity and the rainfall intensity during wet spells, and an overall positive trend in the rainfall intensity during isolated wet days, with a tendency to a decrease in the rainfall occurrence. On the other, for the mean rainfall, rainfall intensity, rainfall intensity during isolated wet days and rainfall intensity during wet spells, a dominant positive trend is obtained over Guinea Coast during the September-November season, with a tendency to an increasing frequency of the rainfall events.

In addition, Odoulami and Akinsanola (2017) showed a significant negative trend in the June-September mean daily rainfall over the Guinea Coast during the 1998-2013 period, which represents up to 4% of the seasonal daily mean rainfall. Nevertheless, they found a decrease in the frequency of rainfall events higher than the 95th percentile, as well as a decrease in the contribution of these extreme events to the total annual rainfall. They. This result is opposite to Kpanou et al. (2020), who, on an annual base, found an increasing trend in the number of days with rainfall exceeding the 95th percentile over coastal areas in the southwestern Côte d'Ivoire, Togo, and Bénin. Odoulami and Akinsanola (2017) also observed an overall upward and insignificant trend in the number of dry days over that area and a significant decreasing trend in the number of wet days.

More specifically, on an annual basis, Kpanou et al. (2020) showed that, during 1981-2015, coastal areas in the southwestern Côte d'Ivoire, Togo, and Bénin experienced an increasing trend in the total annual rainfall, which is associated with an increasing trend in the number of days with rainfall exceeding the 95th percentile and their contribution to the total rainfall. However, they found no clear trend in the total rainfall over. The Sixth Assessment Report (AR6) of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) stated that there is a low confidence in the observed heavy precipitation trend over West Africa for the last decades, as well as in the southern Ghana, where a significant increasing trend in both the number of days with rainfall exceeding the 95th percentile and their contribution to the total annual rainfall compensate with both a significant decreasing trend in the number of days with rainfall below the 95th percentile and their contribution to the total annual rainfall. contribution of human influence to that trend (Seneviratne et al., 2021).

The Several studies have shown that climate General Circulation Models (GCMs) participating in the sixth phase of the Coupled Models Intercomparison Project (CMIP6) simulate reasonably well the spatial distribution of the rainfall extreme indices in West Africa, with however different levels of intensity (Faye and Akinsanola, 2021; Klutse et al., 2021). Particularly, these models overestimate the frequency of wet days and the largest number of consecutive wet days (CWD, Table 3), and present positive biases in the heavy and very heavy rainfalls (R10mm and R20mm, respectively) over areas with a

complex topography. Furthermore, the modelled mean maximum wet spell lengths are not in accordance with observations (Klutse et al., 2021). The climate models show, however, a good spatial pattern of the mean maximum dry spell length. magnitude (Faye and Akinsanola, 2021; Klutse et al., 2021). Moreover, Regional Climate Models (RCMs) forced with CMIP5 GCMs outputs also show a good performance (CORDEX project) show an added value in simulating the spatial distribution of the present-day mean rainfall, maximum number of consecutive dry days and the total rainfall exceeding 95th percentile extreme indices over West Africa (Akinsanola et al., 2020).

Extreme rainfall events are projected to intensify in a climate with a high anthropogenic emission of greenhouse gases (Rind et al., 1989; Mearns et al., 1995; Hegerl et al., 2015; Diedhiou et al., 2018; Akinsanola et al., 2020; van der Wiel and Bintanja, 2021). Under the shared socioeconomic pathway scenarios, Li et al. (2021a) showed a long-term increase in the frequency and intensity of the maximum 1 day (RX1day) and 5 days (RX5day) rainfall in nearly all the regions of the globe. At a regional scale, van der Wiel and Bintanja (2021) found that, over West Africa, the heavy rainfall events exceeding the 98th rainfall percentile will increase in a warmer climate. Under the In addition these models project an enhancement of extreme rainfall events over Guinea Coast in the future, under the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 4.5 forcing scenario, projections carried out within RCM-CMIP5 suggest a future decrease of the total wet-day precipitation (PRCPTOT) in the Savannah-Sahel region, and an increase in the western Guinea Coast (westward of E) (Akinsanola and Zhou, 2019). This pattern is more amplified under the RCP8.5 forcing scenario.

These simulations also show an overall increase in the number of days with rainfall exceeding (R10mm) and (R20mm) in the Guinea Coast and the Savannah regions. The amount of rainfall during very wet days (R95pTOT), the RX5day and the simple daily rainfall intensity (SDI) also increase over the Guinea Coast, the Savannah and the Sahel areas. This means an increasing intensity of rainfall and wet extreme rainfall, which would exacerbate the risk of more frequent floods in the West Africa. Akinsanola and Zhou (2019) reported an overall future decrease in CWD over the West Africa, except along the coastline in the West. With respect to the change in the maximum consecutive dry days (CDD), there is a decrease (an increase) in the western (eastern) areas of the Guinea Coast.

Analyses of and 8.5 forcing scenarios (Akinsanola and Zhou, 2019). Furthermore, Akinsanola et al. (2020) demonstrated from RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 projections with RCMs demonstrated an increase in the West African rainfall variability, which is associated with enhanced mean rainfall and rainfall extremes in the Guinea Coast (Akinsanola et al., 2020). There is an increased variability of the June-September (JJAS) daily rainfall under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 (larger magnitude) forcing scenarios, relative to the present-day conditions (10-28%). The increase of the rainfall variability in the Guinea Coast is present from the synoptic to intraseasonal timescales, with a large spread of the models on the annual timescale. This increased variability is dominated by an increased coefficient of variation of the rainfall (the ratio between the standard deviation of the rainfall and the rainfall climatology), alongside with an increased mean rainfall in the western areas of the Guinea Coast. Overall, a large part of this increased rainfall variability in West Africa can be. This increase in variability was explained by the change in the water vapour vapor in a warmer world following the Clausius Clapeyron equation (Akinsanola et al., 2020). The future enhancement of the rainfall variability in the Guinea Coast is associated with an intensification of the mean rainfall.

130 Heavy rainfalls in West Africa could occur under organized mesoscale convective systems (MCS) such as squall lines, enhanced convection triggered by the propagation of the African Easterly Waves (AEWs) or moisture advection from the Atlantic Ocean (Thorneroft and Hoskins, 1994a, b; Gu and Adler, 2004; Maranan et al., 2019; Baidu et al., 2022). A combination of these different factors could also lead to high impact weather events, such as the very heavy rainfall that occurred in Ouagadougou on the 1st of September 2009 (Engel et al., 2017; Lafore et al., 2017; Beucher et al., 2019). More than one-third of the annual rainfall was recorded within , and reached . In addition, the large-scale sea surface temperature (SST) conditions during this event showed an anomalous warming of the Mediterranean Sea and a negative NAO-like pattern and a pronounced Atlantic cold tongue. This pronounced cold tongue corresponds to a negative phase of the Atlantic equatorial mode (AEM), a mode characterized by anomalous warming and cooling in the eastern equatorial Atlantic basin (Zebiak, 1993). These SST conditions were favourable to an increased rainfall over the Sahel. Another extremely high rainfall event occurred on the 12th of June 2016 over the Guinea Coast. The rainfall amount recorded in Abakaliki (a station in Nigeria) reached 223.5 mm in 24 hours and resulted from a long-lived MCS which was formed over the Darfur elevated areas and then moved southwestward towards Abakaliki (Maranan et al., 2019).

145 The first mode of covariability between the sea surface temperature in the tropical Atlantic and the rainfall over West Africa during the boreal summer indicates a strong connection between the eastern equatorial Atlantic SST and the Guinea Coast rainfall, and explains 31% of the total covariability (Polo et al., 2008). In the current climate, positive These local SST changes are related to the Atlantic equatorial mode, also named Atlantic zonal mode (Zebiak, 1993), whose variability occurs on interannual timescales. Positive phases of the AEM are characterized by above normal SST conditions in the eastern equatorial Atlantic. The enhanced low-level wind convergence over the warm oceanic area is accompanied by an ascent of moist air, which is then advected by the low-level circulation towards toward the Guinea Coast. This provides favourable conditions for the rainfall occurrence over this region (Polo et al., 2008; Rodríguez-Fonseca et al., 2015; Schubert et al., 2016; Lübbecke et al., 2018; Worou et al., 2020). Worou et al. (2022) have demonstrated that the covariability between the Guinea Coast rainfall and the AEM is maximum in JAS, in the simulations performed within CMIP6 models (June-September in observations), under present-day conditions. Over the 1901-2016 period, in observations, the eastern equatorial Atlantic positive correlation with the rainfall over the Guinea Coast was stationary-clear during the boreal summer (Losada et al., 2012; Diatta and Fink, 2014; Worou et al., 2020). Particularly, the decrease in the variance of equatorial Atlantic SST gradient after 1960s coincides with the decrease in the variance of the rainfall in Guinea Coast (Tokinaga and Xie, 2011). This highlights the importance of the AEM in driving part of the rainfall variability in the coastal Guinea. Nevertheless, the variability of the AEM is projected to decrease under future global warming (Worou et al., 2022; Crespo et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2022). This would reduce the potentially reduce the role of the AEM in the Guinea Coast rainfall variability associated with one standard deviation of the AEM. Moreover, over the Guinea Coast, Diatta et al. (2020) showed that the Guinea Coast rainfall extremes are strongly correlated with the AEM index. Atiah et al. (2020) also showed an increase (a decrease) in the total annual wet day rainfall, heavy rainfall and very heavy rainfall over Ghana during warmer (colder) sea surface conditions in the eastern equatorial Atlantic. Therefore, it is important to understand and quantify the projected potential changes in the extreme rainfall events in Guinea Coast that are associated with the AEM.

165 Previous studies suggested a link between the AEM and the Guinea Coast extreme rainfall variability in observations. However, this link in the current GCMs and the impact of the projected reduction in the AEM variability on the extreme rainfall events over Guinea Coast have not yet been assessed. This study aims to further explore the relationship suggested in previous studies between the AEM and the extreme rainfall events over the Guinea Coast under present-day and future climate conditions by using outputs from CMIP6 models and to determine how those changes in AEM contribute to the simulated changes in rainfall extremes. The ~~second-section~~ Section 2 is dedicated to the data used in this work and the methods adopted. Section ~~3-3~~ 3 describes the present-day statistics of the rainfall extremes over the Guinea Coast, and the near-term, mid-term and long-term future changes in the mean and variability of these extremes. In Section 4, the impact of the AEM on the Guinea Coast rainfall extremes under present-day conditions is evaluated, as well as the future changes in the extreme indices responses related to the AEM. We conclude with ~~the last-section~~ Section 5, where our findings are summarized.

2 Datasets and methods

175 The present study focuses on the impact of the Atlantic equatorial mode on the rainfall extreme events over the Guinea Coast under different climate conditions. Four 20-year periods are considered: the present-day (1995 - 2014), the near-term future (2021 - 2040), the mid-term future (2041 - 2060) and the long-term future (2080 - 2099) periods. The choice of these periods is based on the definition provided by ? (see their Table SPM.1).

2.1 CMIP6 data

180 ~~Rainfalls and SSTs~~ Daily rainfall and monthly SST data from 24 climate models participating in CMIP6 were retrieved from one of the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) portals (e.g. <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>, last access: 15 June 2022) and analysed. The analysis ~~for of~~ of the present-day period is based on the historical simulations, which covered the 1850-2014 period and were forced with observed natural and anthropogenic forcings (Eyring et al., 2016). The analyses for the future periods rely on the shared socioeconomic pathway with a high greenhouse gas emission (SSP5-8.5, O'Neill et al., 2016). These simulations are started from the year 2015. We choose the SSP5-8.5 scenario to get the clearest signal of climate change. ~~Only one realization of each simulation is considered for each GCM. Table ??-~~

190 The majority of the studies analysing the internal modes of variability in the tropical Atlantic only used one member for each available model (e.g., ?Richter and Tokinaga, 2020; Worou et al., 2022; Crespo et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2022). We rely here on the same approach and use one realization for each model in our study, assuming that all realizations are equivalent for the analyses we performed. It could be interesting to test the limitations of this hypothesis using the models that provide a relatively large ensemble for both historical and future simulations. However, this is out of the scope of this present study, and we expect that the differences between ensemble members of a specific model are smaller than the differences between models for the diagnostics analysed here. Table 2.1 provides a list of the different models used ~~and~~, their corresponding ensemble member, and their resolution.

CMIP6 In the variant label for each model ~~Historical member member~~, "r", "i", "p" and "f" represent the realization index, the initialization method, the physics, and the forcing, respectively. Note that in the SSP5-8.5 member ACCESS-CM2 r1i1p1f1 ACCESS-ESM1-5 r1i1p1f1 outputs, the parent variant label does not necessarily correspond to the variant label. We then read thoroughly metadata in future simulation outputs and associate them to their corresponding parents, from which they were branched. For example, the daily precipitation file from the SSP5-8.5 simulation r2i1p1f1 performed with CESM2 was branched on the historical r1i1p1f1 CESM2-WACCM r1i1p1f1 CNRM-CM6-1 r1i1p1f2 CNRM-CM6-1-HR r1i1p1f2 CNRM-ESM2-1 r1i1p1f2 CanESM5 r1i1p1f1 EC-Earth3 r1i1p1f1 EC-Earth3-Veg r1i1p1f1 GFDL-ESM4 r1i1p1f1 HadGEM3-GC31-LL r1i1p1f3 INM-CM4-8 r1i1p1f1 INM-CM5-0 r1i1p1f1 IPSL-CM6A-LR r1i1p1f1 KACE-1-0-G r1i1p1f1 MIROC-ES2L r1i1p1f2 MIROC6 r1i1p1f1 MPI-ESM1-2-HR r1i1p1f1 MPI-ESM1-2-LR r1i1p1f1 MRI-ESM2-0 r1i1p1f1 NorESM2-LM r1i1p1f1 NorESM2-MM r1i1p1f1 UKESM1-0-LL r1i1p1f2 output.

CMIP6 In the variant label for each model ~~Historical member member~~, "r", "i", "p" and "f" represent the realization index, the initialization method, the physics, and the forcing, respectively. Note that in the SSP5-8.5 member ACCESS-CM2 r1i1p1f1 ACCESS-ESM1-5 r1i1p1f1 outputs, the parent variant label does not necessarily correspond to the variant label. We then read thoroughly metadata in future simulation outputs and associate them to their corresponding parents, from which they were branched. For example, the daily precipitation file from the SSP5-8.5 simulation r2i1p1f1 performed with CESM2 was branched on the historical r1i1p1f1 CESM2-WACCM r1i1p1f1 CNRM-CM6-1 r1i1p1f2 CNRM-CM6-1-HR r1i1p1f2 CNRM-ESM2-1 r1i1p1f2 CanESM5 r1i1p1f1 EC-Earth3 r1i1p1f1 EC-Earth3-Veg r1i1p1f1 GFDL-ESM4 r1i1p1f1 HadGEM3-GC31-LL r1i1p1f3 INM-CM4-8 r1i1p1f1 INM-CM5-0 r1i1p1f1 IPSL-CM6A-LR r1i1p1f1 KACE-1-0-G r1i1p1f1 MIROC-ES2L r1i1p1f2 MIROC6 r1i1p1f1 MPI-ESM1-2-HR r1i1p1f1 MPI-ESM1-2-LR r1i1p1f1 MRI-ESM2-0 r1i1p1f1 NorESM2-LM r1i1p1f1 NorESM2-MM r1i1p1f1 UKESM1-0-LL r1i1p1f2 output. **Table 1.** List of the analysed 24 CMIP6 models in this study, as well as their ensemble member considered in the historical and SSP5-8.5 simulations, and their resolutions.

CMIP6 In the variant label for each model ~~Historical member member~~, "r", "i", "p" and "f" represent the realization index, the initialization method, the physics, and the forcing, respectively. Note that in the SSP5-8.5 member ACCESS-CM2 r1i1p1f1 ACCESS-ESM1-5 r1i1p1f1 outputs, the parent variant label does not necessarily correspond to the variant label. We then read thoroughly metadata in future simulation outputs and associate them to their corresponding parents, from which they were branched. For example, the daily precipitation file from the SSP5-8.5 simulation r2i1p1f1 performed with CESM2 was branched on the historical r1i1p1f1 CESM2-WACCM r1i1p1f1 CNRM-CM6-1 r1i1p1f2 CNRM-CM6-1-HR r1i1p1f2 CNRM-ESM2-1 r1i1p1f2 CanESM5 r1i1p1f1 EC-Earth3 r1i1p1f1 EC-Earth3-Veg r1i1p1f1 GFDL-ESM4 r1i1p1f1 HadGEM3-GC31-LL r1i1p1f3 INM-CM4-8 r1i1p1f1 INM-CM5-0 r1i1p1f1 IPSL-CM6A-LR r1i1p1f1 KACE-1-0-G r1i1p1f1 MIROC-ES2L r1i1p1f2 MIROC6 r1i1p1f1 MPI-ESM1-2-HR r1i1p1f1 MPI-ESM1-2-LR r1i1p1f1 MRI-ESM2-0 r1i1p1f1 NorESM2-LM r1i1p1f1 NorESM2-MM r1i1p1f1 UKESM1-0-LL r1i1p1f2 output.

CMIP6 model	Historical member	SSP5-8.5 member	Resolution (°lat×°lon)
-------------	-------------------	-----------------	------------------------

ACCESS-CM2	r1i1p1f1	r1i1p1f1	1.25 x 1.88
ACCESS-ESM1-5	r1i1p1f1	r1i1p1f1	1.25 x 1.88
CESM2	r1i1p1f1	r2i1p1f1	7 0.94 x 1.25
CESM2-WACCM	r1i1p1f1	r1i1p1f1	0.94 x 1.25
CNRM-CM6-1	r1i1p1f2	r1i1p1f2	1.40 x 1.41

2.2 Observations

195 ~~Daily~~

To evaluate the performance of the models in simulating different aspects of the extreme indices, and to take into account uncertainties in observations, we use daily rainfall data from ~~the Climate Hazards Group Infrared Precipitation with Station Data (CHIRPS) are used to diagnose the observed rainfall extremes over West Africa (Funk et al., 2015). This dataset combines satellite observations with rain-gauge measurements and is available at a spatial resolution of 0.25°. It covers the 1981-2022~~ period and can be retrieved from (last access: 16 June 2022). Biehet and Diedhiou (2018) showed a good quality of the CHIRPS rainfall data when compared to rain-gauge data in the Guinea Coast area. six different sources: CHIRPS, ARCv2, PERSIANN-CCS-CDR, REGEN LongTermStns, TAMSAT v3, and GPCC-FDD-v2022. These data are described in Table 2. We show in Fig. S1 three additional observed rainfall data: GSMAP, IMERG and GPCP (???). These data are not considered in our current work, as they do not cover the present-day period (1995-2014). They show, however, a consistent annual cycle of the extreme rainfall indices with the other observational rainfall data (Fig. 1). A comparison between some of those datasets is also given in Sanogo et al. (2022); ?.

Observed monthly SST data are derived from the Hadley Centre Global Sea Ice and Sea Surface Temperature (HadISST). This dataset is available at a spatial resolution of 1° (Rayner et al., 2003) and covers the 1870-2022 period. We do not include additional observed SST data, as we consider that this is not a critical point for our analyses.

Table 2. List of the six observed rainfall data considered in this study.

Data	Title	Availability	Resolution (°lat × °lon)	Reference
CHIRPS	Climate Hazards Group Infrared Precipitation with Station Data	1981-2023	0.25 x 0.25	?
ARCv2	African Rainfall Climatology Version 2	1983-2023	0.1 x 0.1	?
PERSIANN-CCS-CDR	Precipitation Estimation from Remotely Sensed Information using Artificial Neural Networks-Cloud Classification System-Climate Data Record	1983 - 2023	0.04 x 0.04	?
REGEN LongTermStns	Rainfall Estimates on a Gridded Network based on long-term station data v1-2019	1950-2016	1 x 1	?
TAMSAT v3	Tropical Applications of Meteorology using SATellite data and ground-based observations, version 3.0	1983-2023	0.0375 x 0.0375	?
GPCC-FDD-v2022	Global Precipitation Climatology Centre, Full Data Daily Version 2022	1982-2020	1 x 1	?

210 **2.3 ~~Methods~~Choice of the season**

This study is focused on the July-September season (JAS), ~~when the Guinea Coast rainfall covariability with the AEM is at its maximum in the current climate models (Worou et al., 2022)~~ following Worou et al. (2022). This season contributes to 46 % of the total annual rainfall over the Guinea Coast. It is also dominated by the monsoon system of West Africa, which is

characterized by an abrupt shift of the rainfall band from the coastal areas in the end of June to the Sahel region. Sanogo et al. (2022) found a strong coupling between the West African monsoon rainfall and the occurrence of extreme precipitation events, mainly during the boreal summer. ~~The Guinea Coast area extends between $20^{\circ}W$ — $15^{\circ}E$. Note that although mesoscale convective systems have an important contribution to the Guinea Coast rainfall during April-May-June and $4^{\circ}S$ — $10^{\circ}N$ (similar to Faye and Akinsanola (2021), with 32 points in the selected area on a grid of \times resolution.~~

2.3.1 Definition of the AEM

September-October-November (?), the annual cycle of the very wet day index (Table 3) across different observations indicates the highest values during July, August, September and October (Fig. S1 (b)). The total wet day precipitation (PRCPTOT) and the contribution of the monthly rainfall to the annual rainfall (ANNPCT) also show their highest values over these months (Fig. S1 (a),(c)). As we do not focus our analysis on specific contributions of mesoscale convective systems to the rainfall over Guinea Coast, we will keep the JAS season as the focus of our study.

~~All the~~

2.4 Methods

2.4.1 Definition of the AEM index

Before computing the AEM index, all the monthly observations and models SST data are remapped on a ~~same grid~~ the HadISST grid, at 1° of resolution. ~~Over each~~, by using a bilinear interpolation method with the climate data operator routine (CDO, <https://code.mpimet.mpg.de/projects/cdo>). The index of the AEM is defined over the Atlantic Niño 3 region (ATL3, Zebiak, 1993) which extends between $20^{\circ}W$ - $0^{\circ}E$ and $3^{\circ}S$ - $3^{\circ}N$. There are models with a low resolution that only have a few grid points within the ATL3 region. If the AEM index was computed on each model grid, this would imply to use different regions for different models. This motivates the choice of a common grid of 1° of resolution, which requires interpolating the data. A similar procedure has been applied in ~~Worou et al. (2022)~~ for instance.

Over every 20-year study period, the ~~SST data are then monthly~~ SST data is linearly detrended at each grid point and to remove any drift due to climate change. The resulting monthly SST anomalies are then averaged over the ~~region between~~ $20^{\circ}W$ — $0^{\circ}E$ and $3^{\circ}S$ — $3^{\circ}N$. This area is known as the Atlantic Niño (also called AEM or Atlantic zonal mode) region (ATL3, Zebiak, 1993). ~~The obtained~~ ATL3 region. Next, we compute the seasonal (JAS) mean of the obtained area-averaged monthly SST anomalies ~~are averaged over the JAS season, and then normalized and standardized. This operation is performed~~ for each of the four periods considered. This gives one value per year for the AEM index. The AEM index time series are then standardized, by dividing them by their standard deviation over the entire period considered.

2.4.2 Computation of the extreme rainfall indices

First, all the daily ~~observational and model~~ rainfall data are remapped on the grid of the model which has the lowest resolution (~~In our study, this corresponds to the grid of MIROC-ES2L model, with a resolution of 2.8°). The daily rainfall indices are then~~

245 ~~computed and averaged over the JAS season.~~ We use a first order conservative remapping method with the CDO routine to perform the remapping of the rainfall data. We define the Guinea Coast region as the area extending between 18°W - 15°E, and 4°S - 10°N. There are 32 grid points inside this area on the MIROC-ES2L grid (Fig. S2).

In this work, we analyse a set of ~~12 rainfall extreme~~ six extreme rainfall indices defined by the Expert Team on Climate Change Detection and Indices (ETCCDI) (http://etccdi.pacificclimate.org/indices_def.shtml, last access: 16 June 2022);

- 250
- the SDII (simple daily intensity index), which describes the intensity of wet rainfall events;
 - the R95p (very wet day), which describes the intensity of rainfall events exceeding the 95th percentile;
 - the CWD (consecutive wet days), which describes the maximum duration of a wet event;
 - the RX5day (maximum 5 days precipitation), which is the intensity of an event over a duration of five days;
 - the FRQW (frequency of wet days), which describes the frequency of wet events;
- 255
- R20mm (very heavy precipitation days), which is a measure of the frequency of rainfall events exceeding 20 mm, and which could have a high socioeconomic impact.

The details of these indices are provided in Table 3. The indices recommended by the ETCCDI are widely used to monitor and detect changes in drought and wet conditions over different regions. Some applications can be found in several studies such as New et al. (2006); Sillmann et al. (2013a, b); Mouhamed et al. (2013); Diedhiou et al. (2018); Faye and Akinsanola (2021);

260 Delhaye et al. (2022), among others. We computed these indices in two ways. Firstly, we computed monthly indices over the whole period of study, and perform the monthly averages to get the mean annual cycle. In a second way, we considered for each year in the period of study, daily rainfall values over the JAS season (92 values at each grid point). We obtain one value per year for each extreme index. The corresponding series provide the information needed to study the seasonal climatology and interannual variability of the extreme rainfall indices.

265 2.4.3 Links between the AEM and the extreme rainfall indices

The analysis of the JAS rainfall extreme patterns associated with the JAS AEM is completed through linear regressions of the extreme anomalies at each grid point onto the standardized JAS AEM SST index. The patterns are computed for each GCM ~~and then averaged to obtain the the multi-model ensemble mean (EnsMean).~~ The regression ~~pattern~~ patterns in the observations ~~is~~ are computed by regressing the rainfall indices from ~~CHIRPS~~ the six different observational data onto the standardized AEM

270 index from HADISST. ~~The change in the patterns is defined as the difference of the regression coefficients between the future and present-day periods, and is computed for each GCM. We consider the EnsMean spatial patterns rather than the pattern of each GCM. The reason of this choice is based on the fact that the EnsMean performs better compared to each model, in the representation of~~ In both cases, we will consider the ensemble median (EnsMedian) of the models and the extreme rainfall indices over the West Africa (Akinsanola and Zhou, 2019; Faye and Akinsanola, 2021). For each grid point of the EnsMean

275 regression pattern, a signal is considered as robust if 50 EnsMedian of the observations to resume the common characteristics.

Table 3. List and definition of the ~~12~~six rainfall extreme indices selected for this study. These indices are based on the definition provided by the ETCCDI.

Index Label	Index Name	Index Definition	Index Unit
SDII	Simple daily intensity index	For each year, compute the average of wet days daily rainfall in a month/season. A wet day is defined as a day when the rainfall is greater or equal to 1 mm	$mm \cdot day^{-1}$
R20mm	Very heavy precipitation days	For each year, count the number of days in the month/season when the daily rainfall is greater or equal to 20 mm	$days$
R95p	Very wet days	Let PR95 be the 95 percentile of the wet-day daily rainfall timeseries in the month/season over the 1995-2014 period. For each year, sum of rainfall over days in the month/season, when the rainfall amount is greater or equal to PR95	mm
RX5day	Maximum 5 days precipitation	For each year, compute the maximum of the rainfall sum over 5 consecutive days in the month/season.	mm
CWD	Consecutive wet days	For each year, compute the largest number of consecutive wet days in the month/season. A wet day is defined as a day when the rainfall is greater or equal to 1 mm	$days$
FRQW	Frequency of wet days	For each year, compute the number of wet days (when the rainfall is greater or equal to 1 mm) in the month/season. The result is divided by the total number of days in the month/season, and multiplied by 100	$\%$

280 To identify the most robust changes among the members of those observations and models' EnsMedians, we will only consider a two-third sign-agreement approach among the set of data to show the robust signals related to AEM: at a grid point, a regression coefficient value is robust if more than 66% of the models present a significant regression coefficient at 5% level and if two-thirds agree on the sign of the multimodel EnsMedian (Rehfeld et al., 2020). Similarly, the robustness of the models' EnsMedian change in the regression patterns between two periods will be based on the two-third sign agreement approach: at a grid point, the change in the regression slope between two periods is robust if at least two-third of the models agree on the sign of the EnsMeanEnsMedian.

2.4.4 Robustness of the mean state changes ~~and of the changes in the teleconnection patterns~~

285 We use the methodology suggested in the Cross-Chapter Box Atlas 1 of the IPCC AR6 (Dosio et al., 2021) to disentangle the forced changes signal from the internal variability. We will mainly indicate regions where the forced response (the EnsMedian change in the climatology) is robust, or conflicting or non-robust. A change in the mean state is considered as robust if two thirds of the models show changes greater than the interannual variability (IAV) and two-thirds 80% of the models agree on the sign of the change. Similar to Dosio et al. (2021), the The IAV is computed for each model following the equation:

$$IAV = \sqrt{\frac{2}{20}} \times 1.645 \times \sigma \quad (1)$$

290 where σ is the standard deviation of the linearly detrended variable for the present-day conditions period (1995-2014). The factor $\sqrt{2/20}$ takes into account the variability of the difference between two 20-year periods. The factor 1.645 considers a confidence interval of 90% for the change signal to exceed the IAV. ~~Unrobust change signal is also defined for grid points where more than 80% A change is considered non-robust if less than two-third of the models show a small change compared to their IAV.~~

295 ~~For the extreme rainfall regression patterns related to the AEM~~ present a change greater than the IAV. Finally, a change is considered as robust signal is conflicting if more than two-thirds two-third of the models project a change greater than the IAV, and less than 80% agree on the sign of the change (Rehfeld et al., 2020).

Additionally, we test another approach used in ? (but we keep the IPCC approach), to determine the similarities in the robustness of the mean state changes. In this approach, a signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) is defined as:

$$300 \quad SNR = \frac{\overline{\Delta X}}{\sigma \Delta X} \quad (2)$$

where:

- ΔX is the change in a variable X in one model,
 - $\overline{\Delta X}$ is the multimodel ensemble mean (EnsMean) of the change in a variable X , which is termed the forced signal.
 - $\sigma \Delta X$ is the spread of the changes (the standard deviation) among the different models, which is due to the internal variability and the different responses of the GCMs.
- 305

Therefore, regions where the SNR is greater than one are supposed to experience a robust change. Qualitatively, both approaches give a similar result for the robust long-term changes in the extreme indices, except for R95p (Fig. S4). In the IPCC approach, the projected long-term changes in R95p are non-robust, whereas the second approach shows robust changes over a large area of West Africa. Moreover, the IPCC approach gives more information on grid points where the change is not robust or conflicting, whereas the second approach only provides information on the robust forced changes. Hereafter, we consider the IPCC approach.

310

2.4.5 Performance metrics for the ~~multi-model~~ EnsMean models

The evaluation of the ~~EnsMean models'~~ performance in representing the spatial distribution of the different extreme indices relative to observations is based on four metrics which have been applied in different studies (e.g., Akinsanola and Zhou, 2019; Faye and Akinsanola, 2021; Akinsanola et al., 2021; Li et al., 2021b) :

315

- the percentage of bias (%BIAS)

$$\%BIAS = 100 \times \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - O_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n O_i} \quad (3)$$

– the normalized root mean square error (NRMSE)

$$NRMSE = \frac{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - O_i)^2}}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n O_i} \quad (4)$$

320 – the pattern correlation coefficient (PCC)

$$PCC(M, O) = \frac{Cov(M, O)}{\sqrt{Var(M)Var(O)}} \quad (5)$$

– a variant of the Taylor skill score (Taylor, 2001)

$$TSS = \frac{4(1 + PCC)^2}{\left(\frac{\sigma_{cmip6}}{\sigma_{observation}} + \frac{\sigma_{observation}}{\sigma_{cmip6}}\right)^2 (1 + PCC_0)} \frac{4(1 + PCC)^2}{\left(\frac{\sigma_{cmip6}}{\sigma_{observation}} + \frac{\sigma_{observation}}{\sigma_{cmip6}}\right)^2 (1 + PCC_0)^2} \quad (6)$$

where M and O are model and observation values, respectively, i is the index of a grid point, n is the number of grid points
 325 over which the data are compared, Cov and Var are the covariance and variance, respectively, PCC_0 is the maximum correlation reachable, set to 1 in our case, and σ_{cmip6} and $\sigma_{observation}$ are the standard deviations of the ~~Ensemble and observations~~ model and observation patterns (mean state ~~patterns or teleconnection patterns~~ pattern or teleconnection pattern) over the Guinea Coast, respectively. ~~TSS and PCC (%BIAS and NRMSE)~~ TSS and PCC (%BIAS and NRMSE) values are close to one (zero) for a very good representation of the observations by the ~~models' Ensemble~~ model. The ~~TSS~~ TSS is close to zero for no match between the ~~Ensemble and observations~~ model and observation. Moreover, one can choose to penalize models with low spatial correlation or low spatial variability by modifying the power of the different terms in the TSS (e.g., equations 4 and 5 in Taylor, 2001). In our case, both the variability and correlation terms are to the same power. We do not choose to reward models that better represent the spatial pattern correlation than the spatial variability and inversely.

3 Present and future rainfall extremes over the Guinea Coast

335 3.1 Annual cycle of extreme rainfall indices over Guinea Coast

The mean annual cycle of the Guinea Coast extreme rainfall indices is shown in Figure 1. In the GCMs, the magnitudes of those indices increase in general from January, reach a maximum during the boreal summer and decrease afterward. In the observations, a similar behaviour is present in the indices SDII, R20mm, R95p and RX5day (Fig. 1 (a)-(d)). It is not the case for the observed CWD and FRQW. The CWD increases during the first months of the year, reaches a plateau in May (between
 340 10 and 11 days for the Ensemble) until July. Then it increases again and reaches a maximum in September (14 days for the Ensemble). Interestingly, in the observations, the FRQW presents a bimodal structure in the observations, with its highest values in May and September (76 % and 79 % for the Ensemble, respectively).

In the observations, the uncertainties in the SDII, R20mm, R95p and RX5day are larger for the boreal spring, summer and fall, compared to their values during the boreal winter. The GCMs spread for SDII is comparable to the observations' spread in

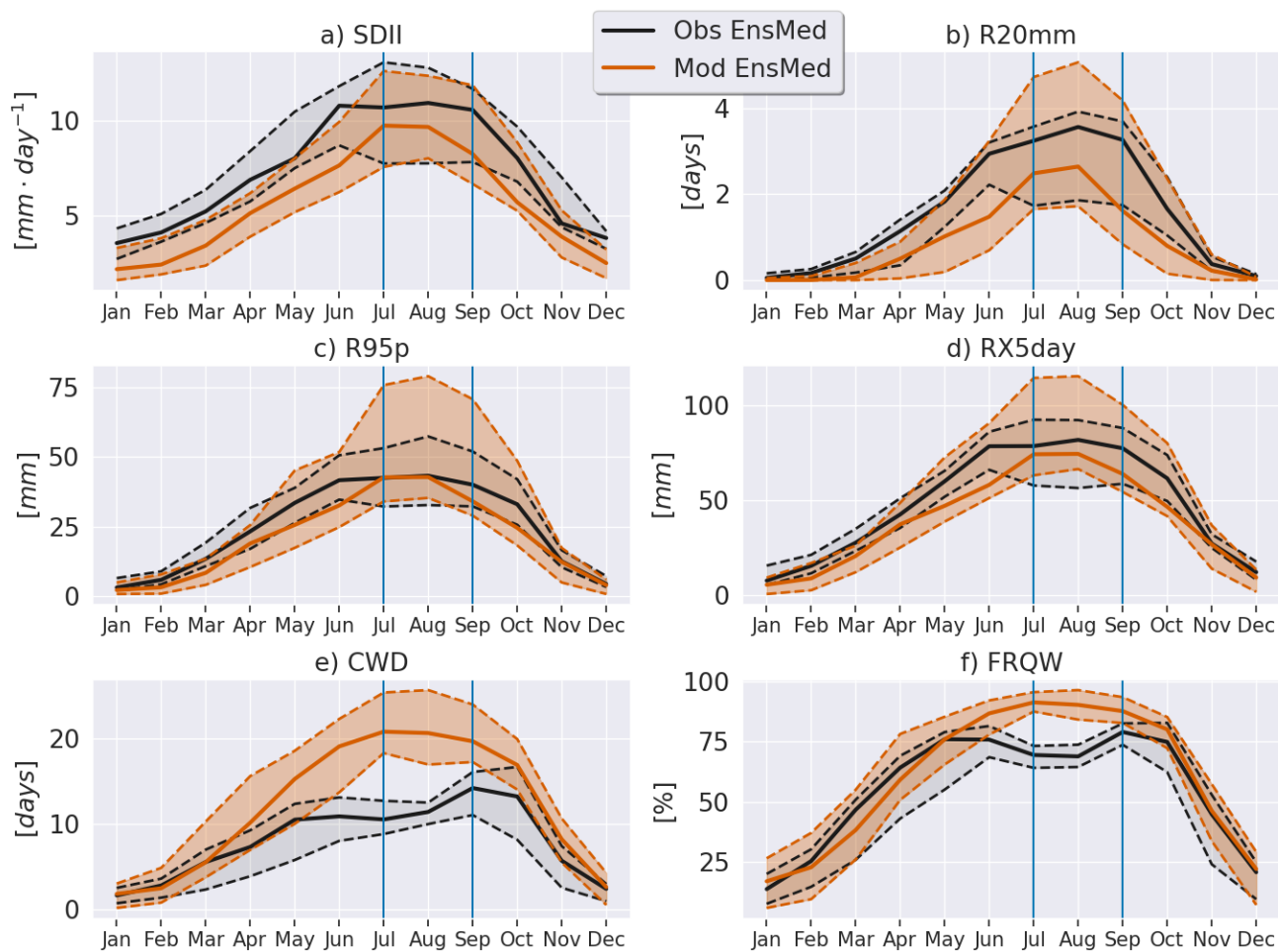


Figure 1. Annual cycle of the six extreme rainfall indices over the Guinea Coast during the 1995 – 2014 period. The black (orange) curves indicate the median values of the 6 (24) observations (models). The gray (orange) shading indicates the 10th - 90th percentile range for 6 (24) observations (GCMs). These percentiles are marked with the dashed curves (in black for observations, and in orange for models). The two vertical lines indicate the JAS season.

345 JAS, despite the lower models' EnsMedian value compared to observations' EnsMedian. For example, in July, the SDII 10th - 90th percentile values ranges between 7.5 and 13 mm · day⁻¹. For R20mm, R95p and RX5day, the models' spreads are larger than the spreads in the observations.

In JAS, there is a difference of one day between the R20mm observations and models EnsMedians. The 10th - 90th percentile values range between 1.7 and 5 days for the models. Interestingly, in July and August, both models and observations EnsMedians
350 have the same value, 42 mm. The maximum difference among them in the annual cycle is of the order 8.5 mm. In August, the 10th (90th) percentile value of R95p is 35(79) mm for the models, against 33(57) mm in observations.

For the RX5day, the maximum difference between the models and observations EnsMedians is 20 mm (found in June). The maximum EnsMedian value in observations (models) is reached in August, 82(74) mm.

Finally, the models simulate too many consecutive wet events compared to observations, mainly during the boreal summer.
355 There is no overlapping of the spread of the models and observations in JAS, for CWD and FRQW. The models EnsMedian CWD reaches 20 days in July, which is two-times the value of the observations EnsMedian (Fig. 1 (e)). Remarkably, the spread of the FRQW is reduced in JAS, compared to the other seasons, in both models and observations. The models EnsMedian FRQW value in July is 91%, against 69% for the observations EnsMedian (Fig. 1 (f)).

In summary, there is a large variability among the different observed datasets, in the annual cycle for most of the extreme
360 indices. The uncertainties in the observed SDII are comparable to the uncertainties in the models, although the models EnsMedian indicate weaker intensities compared to the observations' EnsMedian. For the other indices, the spread of the models is higher than the spread of the observations.

3.2 Mean JAS rainfall extremes in Guinea Coast under present-day conditions

First, we present the observed and simulated JAS spatial distribution of ~~the rainfall extremes simulated by climate models~~
365 extreme rainfall indices over West Africa in the present-day period (~~Fig. 2~~-Fig. 2). The EnsMedian JAS spatial distribution of the indices in the six observational data is shown in contours in Fig. 2 (and in colours in Fig. S5). Most of the indices show maximum values over the Guinean Highlands (in the western Guinea Coast) and the Cameroon mountains (east of ~~5°E~~5°E), and moderate values in the center Guinea Coast (between ~~7.5°W~~and ~~5°E~~7.5°W and 5°E). From ~~10°N to the North~~10°N ~~to the north~~, there is a gradual decrease (~~increase~~) of the wet (dry) indices. ~~In particular, the total precipitation over wet days (PRCPTOT) in the wet indices. Focusing on Guinea Coast, the simple daily intensity index (SDII) ranges between 600 and (200 and) 6(6) and 10(8) mm · day⁻¹ over the center Guinea Coast in the EnsMean of the region in the models (observations) . Except for R95pf and RX1day, the EnsMean captures reasonably well the spatial distribution of the rainfall extremes over the Guinea Coast. However, there are some biases EnsMedian (Fig. 2 (a)). Figure 3 (a) indicates a robust EnsMedian wet bias of 1 to 2 mm · day⁻¹ in the EnsMean, relative to the observations (Fig. 3, Fig. S5). In particular, a dominant positive (negative)~~
375 bias in CWD and FRQW (CDD) is present over the entire Guinea Coast . For SDII, R95pf SDII over the center of Guinea Coast, and RX1day, the biases are negative along the coast and positive more inland non-robust dry biases elsewhere. Over the Sahel, there is a homogenous dry bias stretching from the west to the east, with robust values exceeding 2 mm · day⁻¹ in some locations.

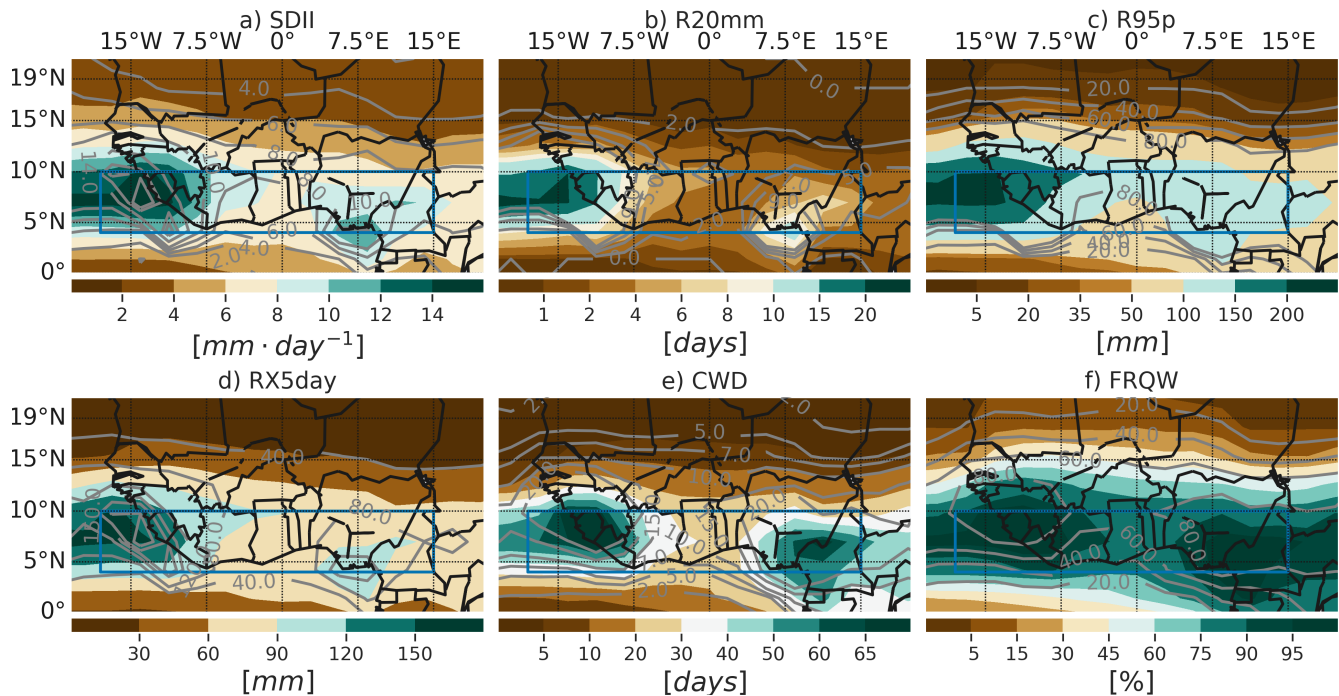


Figure 2. EnsMedian distribution of the mean JAS extreme rainfall indices over the 1995-2014 period from 24 CMIP6 models. The blue rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region. Contours in gray show the observations EnsMedian values.

380 The R20mm index presents a non-robust EnsMedian overestimation of 1 to 2 days over the center Guinea Coast (Fig. 3 (b)). The R20mm bias is, however, negative and robust over the eastern Cameroon and the western Sahel. For the other indices, most of the R95p and RX5day variables, the EnsMedian biases are positive in the center of the Guinea Coast and robust among the different observations, mainly over the center Guinea Coast. The bias values can reach 50 mm and 30 mm for R95p and negative elsewhere in the region. RX5day, respectively (Fig. 3 (c)-(d)). For each of these two variables, Sahel models EnsMedian exhibits weaker values compared to the observations, and this bias is robust north of 15°N in general.

385 Table 4 illustrates the performance of the models in simulating the mean JAS rainfall-based extreme indices by comparing the Guinea Coast grid point values in the EnsMean against the observations. The R10mm and The CWD and FRQW summer values in the northern hemisphere are uniformly overestimated by the PRCPTOT are the variables that are the best represented by the EnsMean, as indicated by the Taylor skill score values of 0.77 and 0.70, respectively. R20mm, PRCPTOT and R10mm exhibit the highest pattern correlation coefficients, which amount to 0.93, 0.91 and 0.84, respectively. Only R95pf GCMs

390 EnsMedian over the Guinea Coast, and this bias is coherent among the different observations (Fig. 3 (e)-(f)). The spatial distribution of CWD biases indicates values between 10 and 30 days in the center Guinea Coast, and these values exceed 30 days east of 7.5°W. The CWD biases are weaker over Sahel (between 0 and -5 days). The FRQW positive biases range between 10 and RX1day present a PCC value below 0.5. These variables also present the poorest Taylor Skill Score (0.14-40%

395 over Guinea Coast, and 0.19, respectively). Moreover, the R95pf, R10mm and PRCPTOT root-mean-square error represents 25%, 27% and 27% of the mean observed values, respectively, which are the lowest among the different variables considered. Furthermore, there are too many consecutive wet days in the climate models compared to observations, while the number of consecutive dry days is too low. The CWD exhibits the highest percentage bias (+72.99%) relative to exceed 40% along the coast (between 7.5°W and 0°E). Over the Sahel, FRQW is uniformly underestimated.

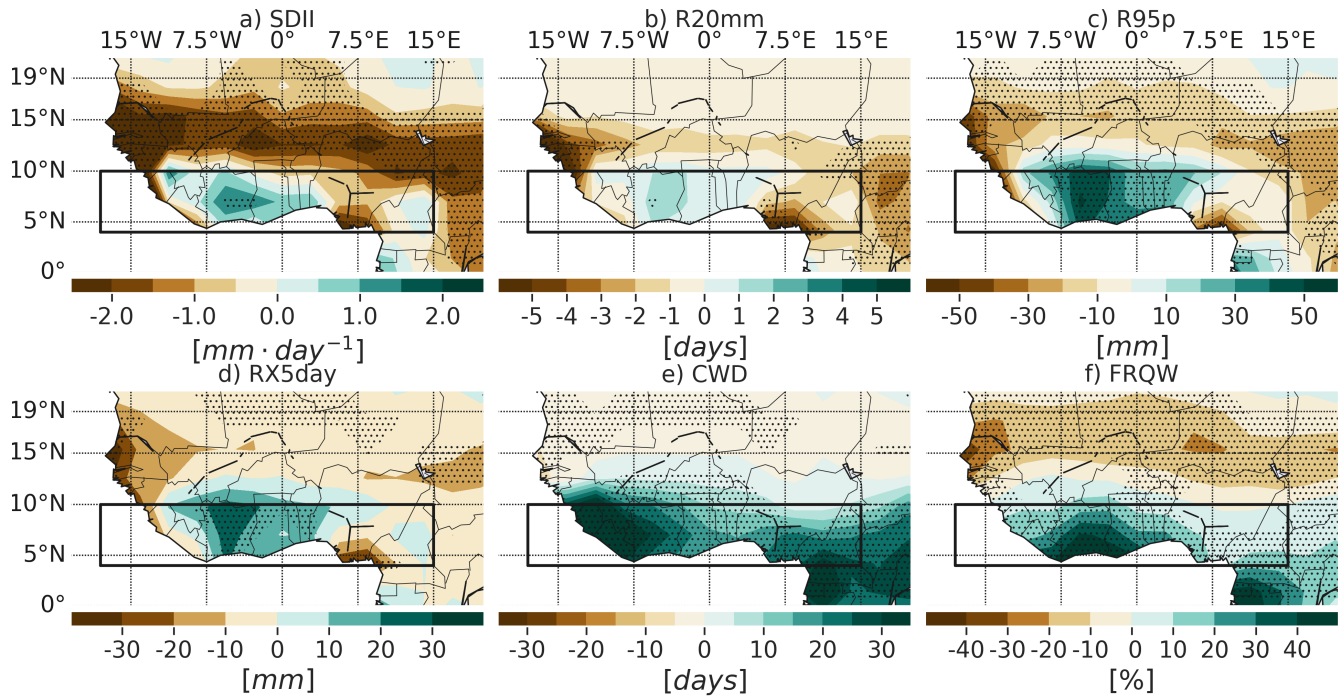


Figure 3. JAS mean biases of the 6 rainfall-based extreme indices over the 1995-2014 period. The biases for each model are computed relative to each of the 6 observations. In total, there are 6 observations \times 24 models = 144 different biases. The stippling indicates regions where two-third of the biases agree on the sign of the EnsMedian of the 144 biases. The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region.

400 Figure 4 presents a summary of the models' performances in simulating the extreme characteristics over Guinea Coast. It shows that the relative bias (in %) is higher in the CWD than in the other variables. Compared to the observations, all the CWD values in the models are higher in magnitude, with a %BIAS median value of 108% (Fig. 4 (a)). This means, in other words, that the CWD values in the GCMs are two orders of magnitude greater than in the observations. This can also be seen in Fig. 4 (b), where the EnsMedian value of the NRMSE is 1.3, which is the highest NRMSE value compared to the other extreme rainfall indices. This overestimation of the CWD by the GCMs over the coastal regions has already been reported by
 405 Faye and Akinsanola (2021). Likewise, the frequency of wet days present a Despite the substantial differences in magnitude compared to the observations, the CWD spatial correlation between models and observations gives a median value of 0.5. The corresponding TSS amounts to 0.4.

Compared to the other extreme indices, the models present a consistent positive bias in the **EnsMean** that amounts to 18.09% of the observations.

410 The maximum rainfall over 5 consecutive wet days (RX5day) is better represented than the maximum one-day rainfall (RX1day). Its pattern correlation coefficient amounts to 0.75, JAS FRQW (Fig. 4 (a)). The EnsMedian %BIAS amounts to 23%, which also confirms results in Fig. 1 (f). Likewise, the spread of the NRMSE is small, and its median value is 0.3 (Fig. 4 (b)). However, there is a large spread in the spatial correlations between the mean JAS values in the models and the values in observations (Fig. 4 (c)). The PCC and TSS values of the FRQW present similar characteristics with median values of 0.4 and

415 the Taylor skill score equals 0.47. The EnsMean overestimates the overall 0.3, respectively.

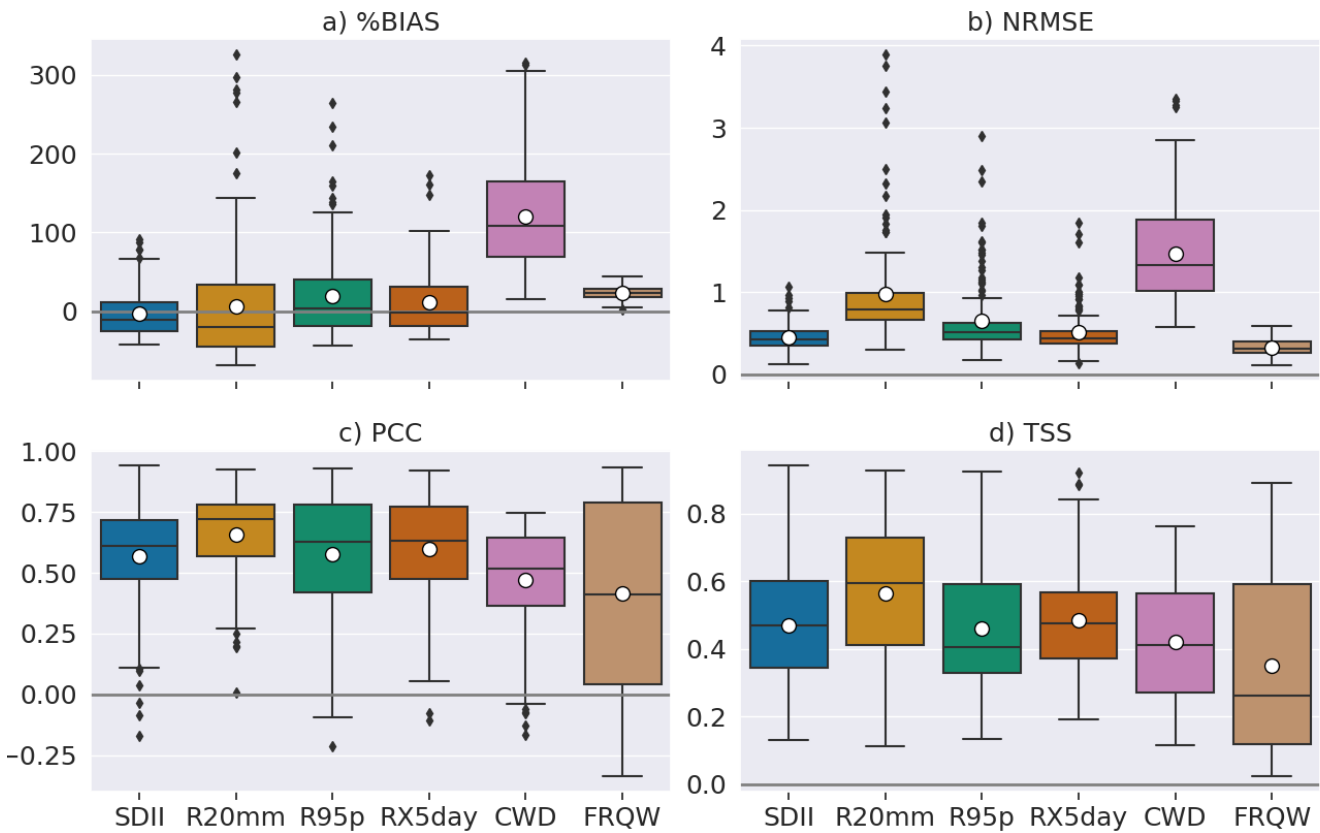


Figure 4. Performance of the 24 GCMs relative to the 6 rainfall observations, in representing the spatial distribution of the rainfall extreme indices over the Guinea Coast. Each boxplot indicates the distribution of $24 \times 6 = 144$ different values. The median (mean) values of the statistics are represented by the horizontal bar (white circle). Outliers are plotted individually with the black markers.

R95p and RX5day over the Guinea Coast, are indices of intensity and duration of extreme rainfall events. The performance statistics of these indices indicate no clear representation compared to the different observations in term of %BIAS (Fig. 4 (a)). The median values of this latter are 2.7% and the percentage of bias reaches, against for RX1day. Alongside, the wet days and extremely wet days (-2.4% for R95p and R99p) statistics over the entire Guinea Coast show positive biases that represent

420 ~~14.66% and 24.10% of the observations, respectively (0.36 RX5day, respectively. Although the sign of the bias is not coherent among the different observations, more than 75 % of the NRMSE are below 0.63 (0.52) for R95p (RX5day) (Fig. 4 (b)). The EnsMedian values of PCC and TSS are 0.6 (0.6) and 0.4 (0.5), respectively for R95p (RX5day) (Fig. 4 (c)-(d)).~~

Finally, more than half of the model's biases in SDII and R20mm (over Guinea Coast) are negative, relative to the observations (Fig. 4 (a)). The EnsMedian value of these two variables amounts to ~~-11 % and 0.44 for their NRMSE). Furthermore, the~~
425 ~~Taylor skill score of -20 %, respectively. As in the case of R95p and RX5day, there are more than 25 % cases where the SDII and R20mm are overestimated. Moreover, 75 % of the models present an NRMSE lower than 0.5 (1), for the SDII (R20mm) index. The EnsMedian value of the PCC and TSS are 0.6 and 0.5 for SDII, respectively. For R20mm, the EnsMedian value of PCC and TSS corresponds to 0.7 and 0.6, respectively, and they are the highest values compared to the other extreme indices. It is important to note that the area defining the Guinea Coast is large, and the fraction of wet days rainfall that contributes to~~
430 ~~the seasonal rainfall (R95pf) is very poor (around 0.14). sign of the biases is not uniform over the region for all the variables. Thus, the area average over the region is subject to compensating effects.~~

In summary, over Guinea Coast, it rains too frequently and during too many consecutive days in the GCMs, compared to the observations. However, the intensity of daily wet events is weaker, and the number of very heavy precipitation days (with an intensity above 20 mm) is lower than observed. In contrast, very wet day intensity (with rainfall exceeding 95th percentile)
435 is higher than observed. The R20mm, according to the TSS metric has the highest EnsMedian values, and can be considered as the index which is better represented in the GCMs. Moreover, the biases in the indices can be as large as the spread of the observations, mainly for R95p, CWD, and FRQW (Fig. S3). The performance metrics for the individual models across the six different observations are shown in Figs. S6 - S9. Next, we will describe the changes of the rainfall extremes over the Guinea Coast under global warming, as projected by the climate models. All the indices will be studied, regardless of their good or
440 poor representation by the GCMs, but the biases identified here will be accounted for in our discussion.

~~EnsMean distribution of the mean JAS extreme rainfall indices over the 1995-2014 period from 24 CMIP6 models. The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region:~~

~~Spatial distribution of the EnsMean bias relative to CHIRPS for the JAS mean of the 12 rainfall-based extreme indices over the 1995-2014 period. The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region:-~~

445 ~~Performance of the multi-model ensemble mean in representing the spatial distribution of the rainfall extreme indices over the Guinea Coast.~~

~~%BIAS NRMSEPCC TSS SDII -19.22 0.50 0.58 0.25 R10mm -3.71 0.27 0.84 0.77 R20mm -16.16 0.51 0.93 0.63 R95p 14.66 0.36 0.78 0.62 R99p 24.10 0.44 0.70 0.56 R95pf 8.59 0.25 -0.14 0.14 PRCPTOT 0.53 0.27 0.91 0.70 RX1day -1.28 0.53 0.29 0.19 RX5day 0.98 0.34 0.75 0.47 CDD -46.35 0.92 0.68 0.20 CWD 72.99 0.92 0.62 0.65 FRQW 18.09 0.30 0.64 0.31~~

450 3.3 Changes in the mean and variability of the JAS extreme rainfall extremes indices over the Guinea Coast

Figure 5 displays the projected EnsMean-EnsMedian long-term changes (2080-2099 minus 1995-2014) in the rainfall extreme indices over West Africa. The spatial patterns of the changes (relative to the present-day period) in the extreme rainfall indices over West Africa are similar for the near-term, mid-term and long-term periods, with, in general, a gradual increase in magni-

tude over the three future periods. ~~The total wet day precipitation (PRCPTOT) is projected to increase (decrease) significantly over the eastern~~ However, the near-term and mid-term changes (Figs. S10-S11) are often less robust than the long-term changes.

In particular, over the majority of West Africa, the forced change in the different extreme indices does not emerge from the IAV in the near-term future period, as also shown by ?. These authors found that the interannual forced changes in the central (western) Sahel (Fig. 5 (g)). ~~Over the Guinea Coast, the change in PRCPTOT is weaker and not robust, compared to the changes over the Sahel. The spatial distribution of the JAS PRCPTOT mean change over West Africa is similar to the change in the mean in August-October (June-August(JJA) rainfall obtained in early studies by Dosio et al. (2021), as well as the change in the wet season rainfall obtained by Wainwright et al. (2021). Moreover, the intensity of the daily rainfall over wet days (SDII) increases significantly in most areas of the Guinea Coast (Fig. 5 (a)), and the frequency of wet days significantly decreases (Fig. 5 (i)). Additionally, the maximum consecutive wet day (CWD) indices are projected to decrease over the Guinea Coast and the western Sahel~~ becomes stronger than the IAV only from the 2060s (2080s). ~~For the maximum consecutive dry days (CDD)~~In agreement with ?, we found an increase in the SDII over the central to eastern regions of Guinea Coast and Sahel, which becomes stronger than the IAV from 2040s (Fig. S11 (a) and 5 (a)). Our results also show over the western areas of the Sahel, a long-term decrease in the SDII, which is stronger than the IAV, but with less agreement on the sign of the change among the models.

Analysing the various indices specifically, we found that the changes in the R95p are not robust over Guinea Coast, even at the end of the 21st century. This suggests a strong influence of IAV on the intensity of rainfall events exceeding the 95th percentile. We note that the long-term projection of these events is robust over the easternmost Sahelian region (Fig. 5 (c)). The R20mm is projected to increase over several areas of West Africa in the long-term future: easternmost Sahel and Guinea Coast, ~~there is a projected significant decrease (increase) in the eastern (western) Sahel, while over the central Guinea Coast~~ (Fig. 5 (b)), which is consistent with Akinsanola and Zhou (2019).

The FRQW index exhibits a robust decrease of 5% over Guinea Coast, ~~there is an insignificant increase in the CDD. The change pattern in the CDD index is consistent with findings by Dosio et al. (2021). and over western Sahel (Fig. 5 (f)). Additionally, a robust decrease in the CWD is projected in the westernmost and easternmost region of the Guinea Coast. Over the Sahel, only the decrease in the western areas is robust for the CWD index (Fig. 5 (e)).~~ These changes in CWD ~~and CDD~~ also confirm are consistent with the findings of Klutse et al. (2018) under a global warming of 1.5 °C and 2 °C. Consistently, Wainwright et al. (2021) found an increase (a decrease) in the mean length of dry (wet) spells over the Guinea Coast during the wet season in a future warmer climate.

There is also a robust increase in ~~the maximum 1-day and maximum 5 consecutive days precipitation (RX1day and RX5day)~~ over the Sahel and Guinea Coast, ~~over the Guinea Coast and the central to eastern Sahel (Fig. 5 (d)).~~ These results show a tendency to less frequent and more intense rainfall over the Guinea Coast in a warmer climate, which happens over shorter duration. Our results are in accordance with Dosio et al. (2021), who found an increase in the mean SDII, ~~RX1day~~ and a decrease in the number of wet days in the ~~JJA-June-August~~ long-term projections for the Guinea Coast.

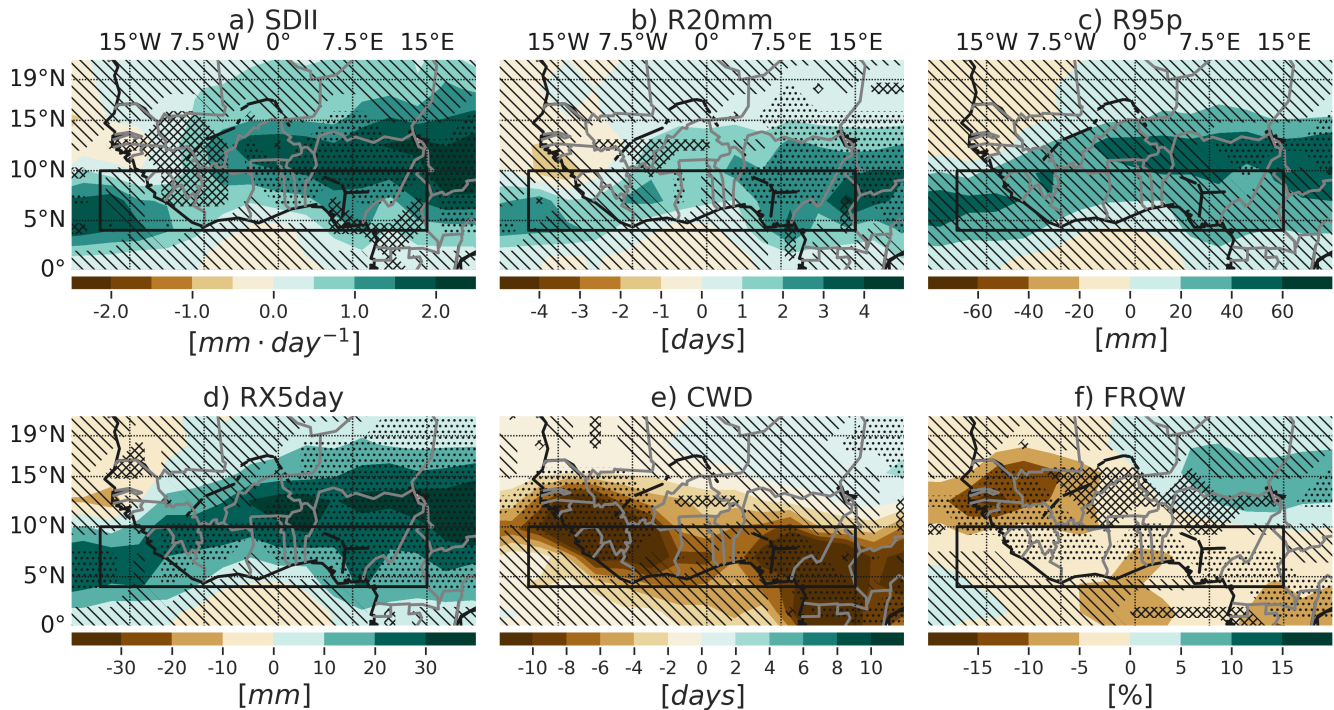


Figure 5. Projected multi-model ensemble **mean**-long-term **median** change in the JAS rainfall extreme indices over West Africa, relative to the present-day period (2080-2099 minus 1995-2014). The stipling indicates **grid-points-regions** where **two-thirds-the change robustly emerges from internal variability (at least 66% of the models show changes-a change greater than the interannual-variability-IAV and two-thirds-at least 80% of the models agree on the sign of change)**; **hatching (\)** indicates regions where the change **-Diagonal bars is non-robust (fewer than 66% of the models show areas-change greater than the IAV)**; **crossed lines (X)** indicate **conflicting signals** where **at least 66% of the models show change is-weaker-greater than the interannual-variability-IAV, with less than 80% agreement on the sign of the change**.

490 The assessment of the changes in the very wet days and extremely wet days indices (R95p and R99p) confirms an enhancement of the extreme rainfall events in the Guinea Coast, which is however unrobust. The contribution of the wet days rainfall to the total seasonal rainfall (R95pf) also increases over the majority of West Africa, with a low confidence. Events of rainfall exceeding 10 mm and 20 mm (R10mm and R20mm indices) are reinforced between 5° W and 10° E, with only few significant signals over the Guinea Coast. The spatial distribution of the mean changes in R95p, R10mm and R20mm in our study are different from the patterns obtained in the RCM-CMIP5 projections (Akinsanola and Zhou, 2019).

495 Figure 6 displays the average of the change in mean and standard deviation of the **JAS** extreme rainfall indices over the Guinea Coast for the 2021-2040, 2041-2060 and 2080-2099 periods, relative to 1995-2014. There is a **large uncertainty around the change in the mean total wet-day precipitation (PRCPTOT) over the Guinea Coast in the three future periods**, while an **increase in the total wet-day rainfall variability is obtained in the mid-term tendency toward an increase in magnitude of SDII, R20mm, R95p and RX5day averages over Guinea Coast, which is gradual from the near-term to the long-term future periods**.

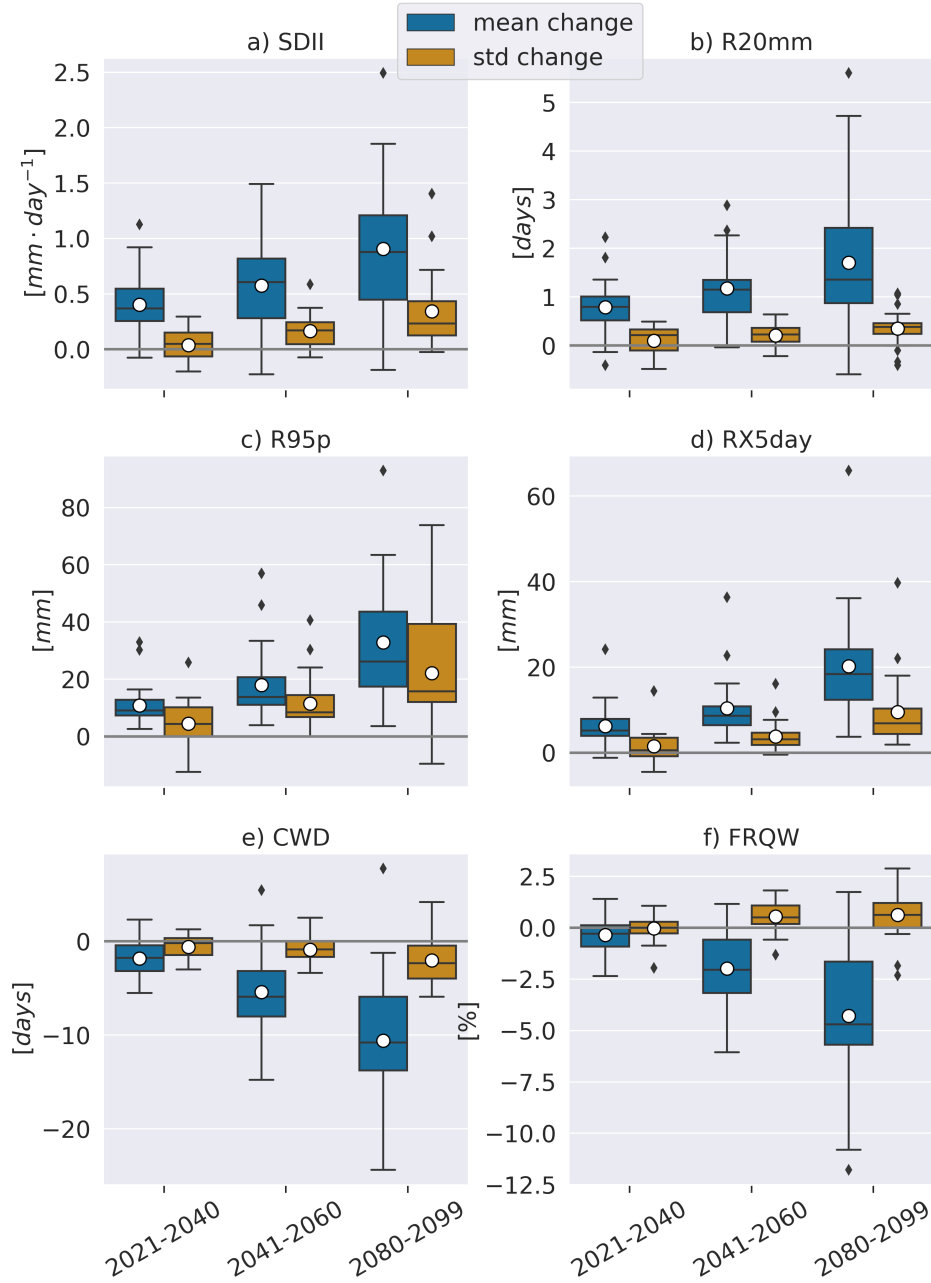


Figure 6. Average Boxplots of the average of the near-term, mid-term and long-term changes (relative to the present-day period) in the mean and standard deviation of the rainfall extreme indices over the Guinea Coast. Positive (negative) changes in the mean (standard deviation) are drawn in blue (orange). The median (mean) changes in the standard deviation are drawn in orange (blue). The value of each distribution is indicated with a black horizontal bar (white circle). Black horizontal bars indicate the 90% confidence interval of the difference in the mean over the 24 models.

500 Except the R10mm, CDD and FRQW, the magnitude of the change in both the mean and standard deviation gradually increases with time over the three (Figs. 6 (a)-(d)). The variability in these variables also exhibits a gradual increase with time in the future periods. The changes in the near-term period relative to the present-day conditions are not clear for the majority of the indices. The mid-term and long-term changes indicate a clear increase in Specifically, the changes in the mean and standard deviation of the simple daily rainfall intensity, the very wet days and extremely wet days, as well as the contribution of very wet days to the seasonal total rainfall. The maximum 1 day and 5 days precipitation also increases clearly in mean and standard deviation over the mid-term and long-term periods, relative to the present-day period. Besides, the mean and R95p are of the same order of magnitude.

510 Consistent with the previous discussion, there is projected decrease in the CWD and FRQW indices over Guinea Coast (Figs. 6 (e)-(f)). The variability of the CDD index increase, while they decrease for the CWD index in the mid-term and long-term periods, relative to the present-day period. The frequency of wet days is reduced in mean, with little changes in its variability. These results suggest a decrease in frequency of rainfall events and an intensification of extreme rainfall events over shorter days over the Guinea Coast in the middle and the end of the 21st century, under the highest emission greenhouse gas scenario. The projected CWD will also decrease over the three future periods, with higher magnitudes in the long-term increase (decrease) in the mean of SDII, R20mm, R95p, RX5day (CWD) averaged over the Guinea Coast are in accordance with Akinsanola and Zhou (2019), as well as the increase in CDD from the central to eastern Guinea Coast period compared to the others. For the FRQW, however, no change in the variability is projected in the near-term period, while there is a slight increase from the mid-term to the long-term future periods.

520 In summary, under future global warming, rainfall events over the Guinea Coast are projected to intensify (increase in the daily rainfall intensity over wet days), to be less frequent, to happen over shorter days duration, and to be more extreme (increase in the amount of rainfall during very wet and extremely wet days). This would increase the exposure of the West-African population to flooding events in a warmer future. According to the climate scenarios, for which future global warming is limited to 1.5°C, 2.4°C and 3.5°C by 2100, people born in 2021 in Sub-Saharan Africa will experience, during their lifetime, 4.6, 8, and 8.6 times more river flooding events than without climate change, respectively (Thiery et al., 2021, <https://myclimatefuture.info/>, last a . This increase is two to fourfold higher than the flooding events experienced by people in the same area, born in 1960, and highlights the climate urgency in reducing our greenhouse gas emissions for future generations. Besides, we found that the overall signs of the extreme indices long-term changes over Guinea Coast are in accordance with Akinsanola and Zhou (2019) . However, the results of these authors are obtained from RCM-CMIP5 projections and show more robust changes over West Africa, without taking into account the IAV influence. Moreover, there is a projected increase in the variability of most of the rainfall-based extreme indices, which is consistent with Akinsanola et al. (2020). The multi-model median long-term percentage of change in mean and variability averaged over the 12 indices amounts to and , respectively - changes in mean (variability) averaged Guinea Coast, for SDII, R20mm, R95p, RX5day, CWD and FRQW correspond to 11 (29), 35 (22), 20 (29), 21 (48), -23 (-12) and -5 (37)%, respectively (Fig. S12-S13).

530 Wet and dry extreme events in the over Guinea Coast could also happen under positive or negative phases of the Atlantic equatorial mode. Thus, it is important, respectively. As forced changes induced by future global warming can be exacerbated

or damped by internal climate variability, study of the impacts of known internal climate modes of variability becomes crucial. It is the objective of this study, to understand the future changes in the rainfall extremes extreme indices over the Guinea Coast that are connected with the AEM –

4 Impact of the AEM on the rainfall extreme events over the Guinea Coast

on the interannual timescales. The impact of the AEM on the extreme rainfall variability during the boreal summer is assessed here by regressing the JAS extreme indices onto the standardized JAS AEM index.

4 Impact of the AEM on the rainfall extreme events over the Guinea Coast

4.1 AEM impact on the rainfall extreme events under present-day climate conditions

Except for the total wet-day precipitation index, the regression coefficients of the EnsMean for the extreme indices are hardly significant over the Guinea Coast and the entire West Africa. Most of the significant signals are located in the Atlantic oceanic region. The EnsMean Over the majority of the Guinea Coast region, positive anomalies of the extreme rainfall indices are associated with positive phases of the AEM (Figs. 7, S14). In GCMs, the extreme responses to this oceanic mode of variability are robust, according to the two-third sign agreement metric, except for the CWD index. In all cases, there is an anomalous increase (decrease) in the wet indices, in association with warm (cold) phases of the AEM over the Atlantic oceanic region (between the equator and the southern limit of Guinea Coast). A noteworthy feature of the anomalous patterns is the lack of robust signals over the majority of the Sahelian region. Particularly, the westernmost area of Sahel exhibits an opposite phase relationship with the AEM, for CWD and FRQW indices (Fig. 7 (e)-(f)), compared to Guinea Coast.

The GCMs EnsMedian regression patterns associated with one standard deviation of the AEM index show an increased intensity of rainfall over wet days (SDII) (0.2 to 0.6 mm · day⁻¹) and total wet-day rainfall (up to) 0.2 to 0.6 mm · day⁻¹) over the Guinea Coast (Fig. 7(a),(g)). There is about one-day increase in the number of days with heavy and very heavy precipitation (R10mm and R20mm) are also increased up to three days and one day, respectively, during positive AEM events (Fig. 7(b)-(e)). Table 9 displays the performance metrics of the extreme rainfall indices related to the AEM. Compared to the observations, there is overall a good spatial distribution of the SDII and PRCPTOT anomalies over West Africa (Fig. S14). Over the Guinea Coast, the SDII and PRCPTOT pattern correlation coefficients between the EnsMean and observations are 0.74 and 0.52, respectively. In addition, PRCPTOT presents the best skill score among the different indices (0.56), and one of the lowest NRMSE (0.81). For R10mm and R20mm, the PCC values amount to 0.48 and 0.51, respectively. Nonetheless, over the Guinea Coast, the SDII, PRCPTOT, R10mm and R20mm responses to AEM are underestimated in the EnsMean, compared to the observations (Table 9, Fig. 8).

Maps of the JAS rainfall extreme indices regressed onto the standardized JAS AEM SST index over the 1995-2014 period. The stippling represents grid points where 50% of the models show a significant regression coefficient at 5% level and where two thirds of the models agree on the sign of the regression coefficient. The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region.

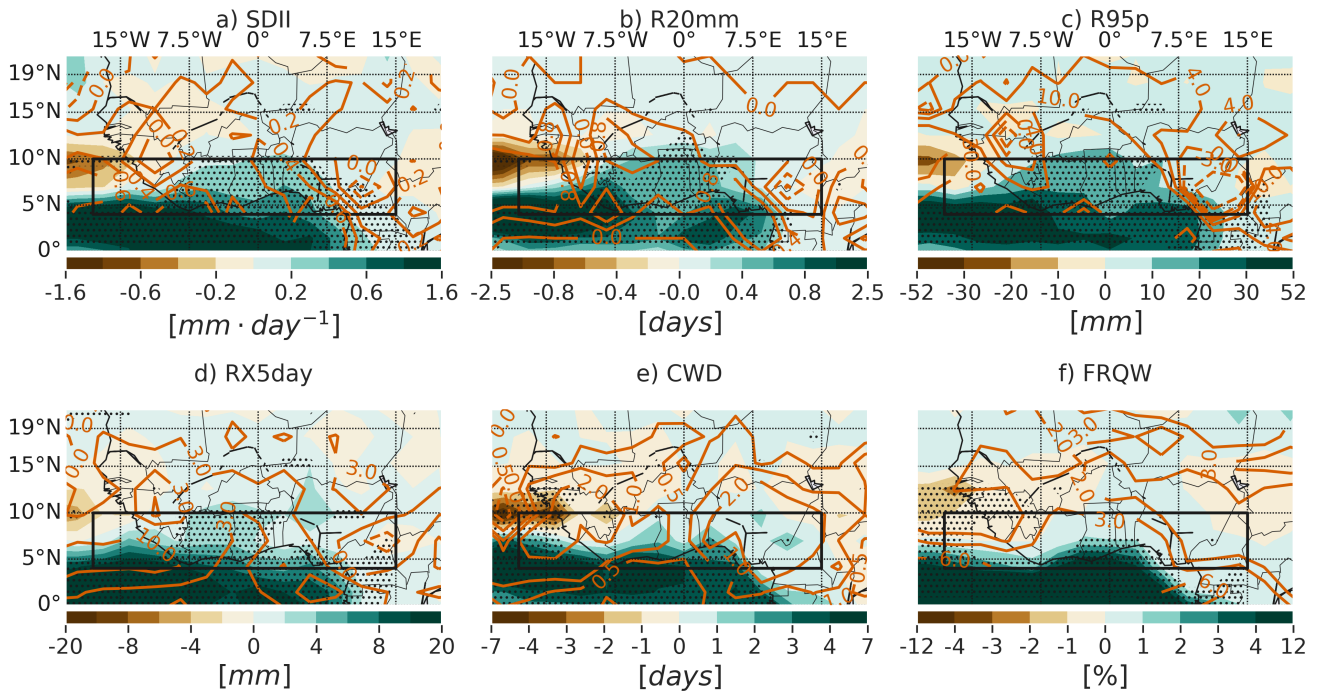


Figure 7. Maps of the JAS rainfall extreme indices regressed onto the standardized JAS AEM SST index over the 1995-2014 period. The stippling represents grid points where two thirds of the models agree on the sign of the EnsMedian regression coefficient across 24 GCMs. Contours indicate the multi-observation median values of the regression coefficients from six different rainfall data. The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region.

565). Warmer than average sea surface conditions in the eastern equatorial Atlantic favour an increased amount of rainfall during very wet and extremely wet days, as well as the contribution of the very wet days to the seasonal total rainfall (Fig. 7(d)–(f) wet days (R95p) (Fig. 7(c)). Over the Guinea Coast, the anomalies related to one standard deviation of the AEM index range between 10–10 and 30 mm for R95p. The contribution of the wet days rainfall to the seasonal rainfall is increased up to 3%. For R99p, the anomalies are between 5 and maximum precipitation over five consecutive days (0 to 10 mm) in most areas located to RX5day) is also intensified over Guinea Coast (Fig. 7(d)), with positive anomalies ranging between 2 to 6 mm. The anomalous EnsMedian patterns of the maximum consecutive wet days (CWD) related to a warm phase of the AEM shows a non-robust increase of one to three days in wet spells duration (Fig. 7(e)). Similarly, the frequency of wet days over the Guinea Coast is higher up to 4% under warm sea surface conditions in the eastern equatorial Atlantic (Fig. 7(f)).

575 Fig. 8 displays the biases in the west (east) of 5°E. Although the regression patterns of R95p, R99p and R95pf are positively correlated with the observed patterns, their skill scores are weak (between 0.18 and 0.26). Compared to the observations, the regression patterns of R99p and R95pf in the EnsMean for the Guinea Coast present some positive biases which are the strongest among the different indices (Table 9, Fig. 8 (associated with the AEM, for the different extreme indices. Over

Guinea Coast, SDII and R20mm show no systematic biases relative to the different observations (Fig. 8 (a)-(fb)). For In the eastern Guinea Coast, there is an overestimation (underestimation) of the R95p, the regression pattern in the EnsMean is underestimated compared to the observations, mainly along the western coast (Fig. 8(d)).

The maximum daily precipitation and the maximum precipitation over five consecutive days (RX1day and RX5day (CWD) anomalies by the GCMs (Fig. 8 (c)) are intensified over the Guinea Coast during warm phases of the AEM (Fig. 7(h)-(ie)). The increase in RX1day reaches 3mm, against 2 to 6 mm for RX5day. The RX1day regression coefficients are overestimated in EnsMean compared to the observations, with a bias percentage of . This index also has a weak Taylor skill score (0.15) while its pattern correlation between EnsMean and observation amounts to 0.48. Unlike the response of RX1day to the AEM phases, the magnitude of the RX5day anomalous pattern is lower in EnsMean than observed. The bias percentage is -9.16%. Besides, the RX5day PCC and TSS values are weak (0.41 and 0.28, respectively). Regarding the FRQW, there is a robust underestimation of its anomalies related to one standard deviation of the AEM index over West Africa (Fig. 8 (f)).

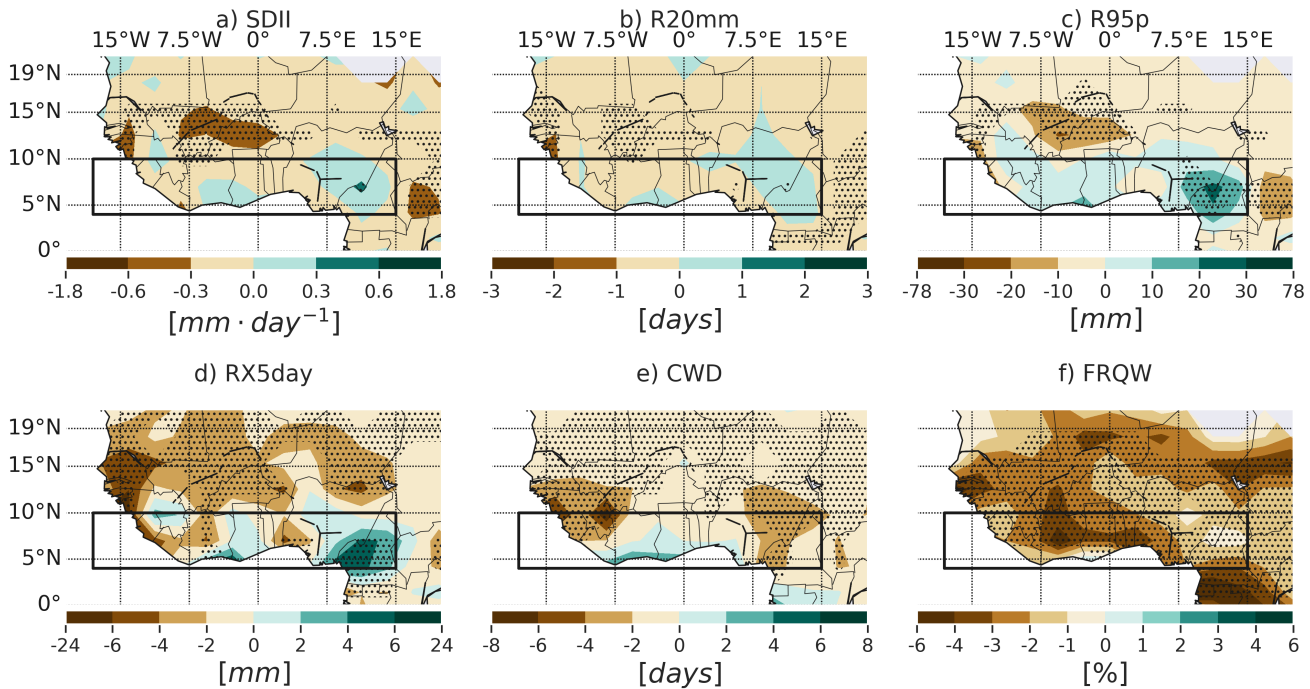


Figure 8. Performance-Spatial distribution of the EnsMean in simulating EnsMedian bias relative to six observations for the JAS Guinea Coast rainfall extremes regression patterns associated with pattern of the AEM over 1995-2014 extreme rainfall indices related to one standard deviation of the Atlantic equatorial mode SST index. In total, there are six observations \times 24 models = 144 different biases. The stippling indicates regions where two-third of the biases agree on the sign of the EnsMedian of the 144 biases. The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region.

~~%BIAS -NRMSE PCC -TSS -SDII -54.42 -0.97 -0.74 -0.42 -R10mm -53.64 -0.81 -0.48 -0.53~~ Figure 9 displays the performance
590 ~~metrics for the GCMs extreme rainfall indices related to the AEM. The EnsMedian values of the %BIAS correspond to -17,~~
~~-30, 34.5, 6, -31 and -75 % for SDII, R20mm -49.84 -1.07 -0.51 -0.41, R95p -2.96 -1.43 -0.27 -0.26 -R99p -350.11 -9.17 -0.35~~
~~0.18 -R95pf -1199.96 -21.78 -0.19 -0.26 -PRCPTOT -55.36 -0.81 -0.52 -0.56 -RX1day -41.99 -3.45 -0.48 -0.15, RX5day -9.16 -1.65 -0.41~~
~~0.28 -CDD -50.87 -1.58 -0.13 -0.32 -CWD -50.86 -1.72 -0.39 -0.09 -FRQW -63.87 -1.10 -0.18 -0.34~~

The anomalous EnsMean patterns of the maximum consecutive dry and wet days related to a warm phase of the AEM show
595 a reduction in the length of dry spells over the Guinea Coast, and an increase in wet spells duration (Fig. 7(j)-(k)). The decrease
in CDD is less than one day and the overall distribution of CDD in the Guinea Coast is underestimated. The bias percentage
amounts to ~~-50.87%~~, and the pattern correlation coefficient with observations is close to zero. For the CWD index, the
EnsMean pattern indicates an increase of one to three days in its values over coastal areas during positive AEM phases.
However, there is a negative correlation between the EnsMean pattern and the observations pattern for this index (-), CWD
600 and FRQW, respectively (Fig. 9 (a)). The CWD response to the AEM in The biases for FRQW are the largest. Moreover, the
NRMSE of R95p has the highest values, compared to the other variables (Fig. 9 (b)) with an EnsMedian value reaching 4.
In more than 75 % of the cases, the pattern correlation (PCC) between the individual models and the different observations is
lower than 0.5 (Fig. 9(c)). Particularly, the CWD anomalies are negatively correlated with the observation patterns in much of
the models (the correlations are weak, however). According to the TSS, the response of the EnsMean has the poorest Taylor
605 skill score over the Guinea Coast (Table 9). Similarly, the frequency of wet days over the Guinea Coast is amplified up to 4%
under warm sea surface conditions in the eastern equatorial Atlantic. Compared with the observations, the FRQW anomalous
values are also underestimated in the EnsMean, with a bias percentage of ~~-63.87%~~. The FRQW pattern correlation between
the EnsMean and observations is weak, and the TSS is equal to 0.34. SDII index to AEM is better represented by the models,
and this is indicated by a median TSS value of 0.4 among the set of 24 GCMs \times 6 observations = 144 values (Fig. 9 (d)). This
610 can also be seen from Fig. S18, where much of the good performances of the different models relate to SDII. The individual
%BIAS, NRMSE and PCC statistics for the individual models are available in Figs. S15-S17.

In summary, the anomalous warming of the eastern equatorial Atlantic during positive phases of the AEM leads to positive
(negative) anomalies in the wet (dry) extreme indices over the Guinea Coast. This result is consistent with Atiah et al.
(2020); Diatta et al. (2020). However, according to the Taylor skill score, the performance of the models in representing the
615 anomalous responses in the different extreme indices is poor to modest, although some indices exhibit a good pattern corre-
lation coefficient. Over Guinea Coast, the biases in the indices (except FRQW) are relatively small compared with the spread
in the regression patterns of the observations (Fig. S19). Furthermore Worou et al. (2022) showed that the current GCMs can
replicate the SST variability associated with the AEM over the tropical Atlantic Ocean, but they struggle to replicate the spatial
distribution of the observed rainfall response to its phases over the tropical Atlantic and the Guinea Coast. In the next section,
620 the future changes in the Guinea Coast extreme rainfall indices related to the AEM will be assessed.

~~Spatial distribution of the EnsMean bias relative to observations for the JAS regression pattern of the extreme rainfall indices
related to one standard deviation of the Atlantic equatorial mode. The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region.~~

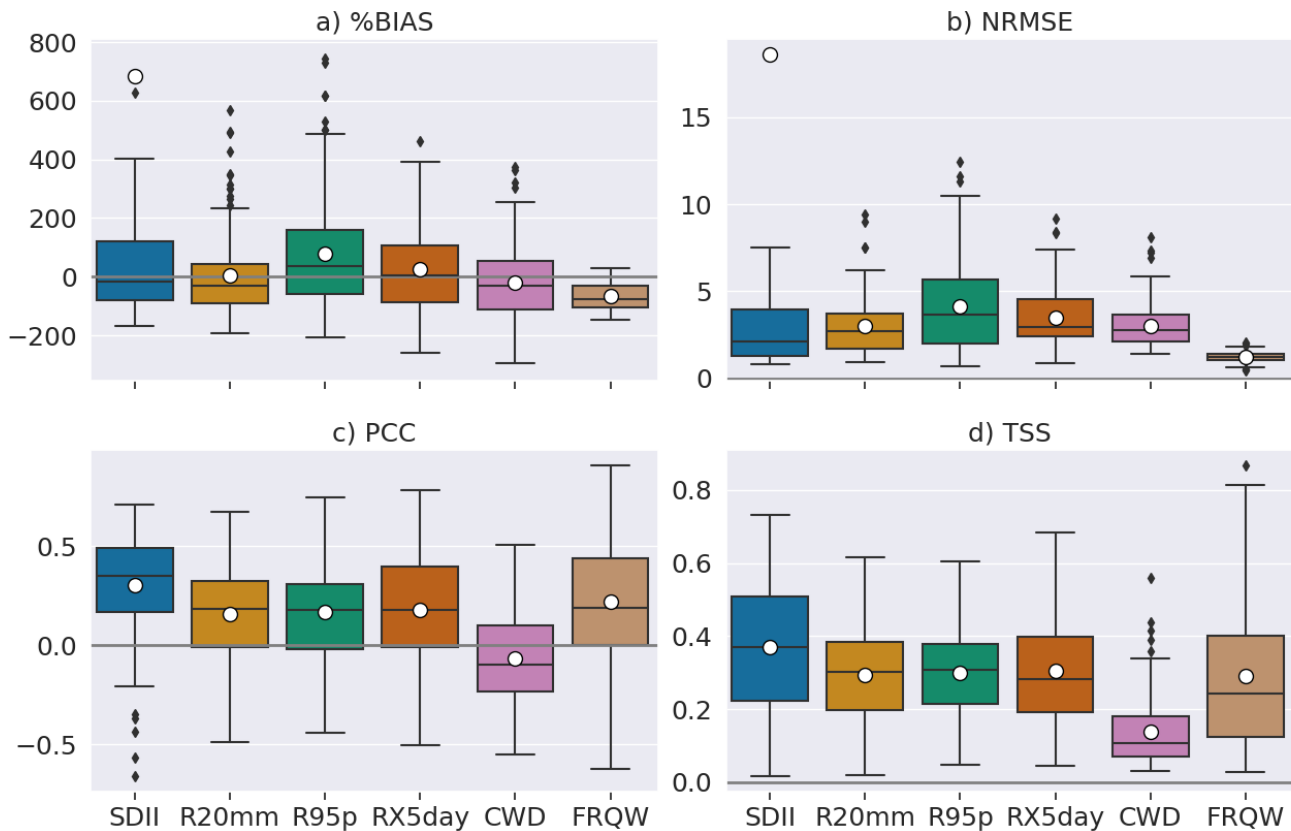


Figure 9. Performance of the 24 GCMs relative to the six rainfall observations, in representing the spatial distribution of extreme rainfall responses to AEM over the Guinea Coast. Each boxplot indicates the distribution of $24 \times 6 = 144$ different values. The median (mean) values of the statistics are represented by the horizontal bar (white circle). Outliers are plotted individually with the black markers. Note that all the outliers for SDII are not plotted, to improve the readability of the figure.

4.2 Future changes in the rainfall extreme events associated with the AEM

The changes of the equatorial Atlantic mean state under the highest greenhouse gas emission scenario (SSP5-8.5) lead to a weakened variability of the AEM in the future (Worou et al., 2022; Crespo et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2022). Worou et al. (2022) showed a projected weakening of the trade winds climatology over the equatorial Atlantic and a deeper thermocline in the eastern equatorial Atlantic which would lead to a reduction of the coupling between the surface and the thermocline depth. This implies a future weakening of the Bjerknes feedback (Bjerknes, 1969) in the equatorial Atlantic that explains the reduced variability of the AEM under global warming, and the weaker future impact of the AEM on the rainfall over the equatorial Atlantic and the Guinea Coast. These results are confirmed by Crespo et al. (2022), who found a future reduction of the AEM variability in a warmer climate, mainly due to a weakening of the third component of the Bjerknes feedback (the SST response to the variations of the thermocline depth). Yang et al. (2022) also found a reduced AEM variability. They

underlined a greater role of a more stable tropical Atlantic atmosphere background in a future warmer climate (Jia et al., 2019), in reducing the AEM variability, compared to the weakening associated with the deepening of the eastern equatorial Atlantic mean thermocline. Subsequently, the variability of the JAS rainfall over the equatorial Atlantic and Guinea Coast that is related to the different phases of AEM is reduced (Worou et al., 2022). ~~Figure 10(g) shows a clear decrease in the variability of the total wet-day precipitation averaged over the Guinea Coast, which is associated with one standard deviation of the AEM in the near-term, mid-term and long-term future periods, compared to the present-day situation. This result is in accordance with Worou et al. (2022). The EnsMean change in the PRCPTOT response to AEM amounts to -6.7 , -10.8 and $-15 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{days}^{-1}$ for the consecutive three future periods. The models' median reduction percentage in the PRCPTOT-AEM values compared to the 1995-2014 period are -31% , -33% and -50% for the near-term, mid-term and long-term future periods, respectively. The spatial distribution of the long-term change in the PRCPTOT-AEM values over the Guinea Coast ranges between -10 and -30 mm (Fig. 11(g)) in most of the areas located westward of 5°E .~~

~~The variability of the simple daily rainfall intensity in relation with the AEM is reduced in a warmer climate, compared to the present-day conditions. The magnitude of the change in the Guinea Coast SDII-AEM EnsMean ranges from $-0.09 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ in 2021-2040 to $-0.17 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ in 2080-2099 (Fig. 10). EnsMedian is about $-0.1 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$ in the three future periods (Fig. 10(a)). The models' median EnsMedian values of the percentage of change in the regression coefficients averaged over the Guinea Coast are -20% , -30% and -40% changes in the average of SDII response to AEM over Guinea Coast correspond to -37% , -32% and -87% in the near-term, mid-term and long-term periods, respectively (Fig. S20 (a)). However, less than two-third of the models agree on the sign of these changes, whatever the future period considered. The spatial distribution of the long-term change in the SDII anomalies over the Guinea Coast gives indicates values that reach $-0.4 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{day}^{-1}$, which are barely robust over the region (Fig. 11) is robust only over the central Guinea Coast (Fig. 11(a)). The maps corresponding to the near-term and mid-term changes in the regression patterns are available in Figs. S21-S22. These maps show weak changes in the regression patterns over Guinea Coast, compared to the long-term future changes. The regression maps corresponding to the four different periods are also displayed in Fig. S23.~~

The number of days with heavy and very heavy precipitation associated with one standard deviation of the AEM also decreases in the future periods shows a small decrease less than one day in the long-term future period compared to the present-day period (Fig. 11) Fig. 11(b)-(e). The average of the R10mm (R20mm) changes relative to 1995-2014 over the Guinea Coast equals -0.28 (-0.18), -0.29 (-0.22) and -0.61 (-0.33) days -0.1 , -0.2 and -0.2 days in the 2021-2040, 2041-2060, 2080-2099 periods, respectively (Fig. 10) Fig. 10(b)-(e). The multi-model median values corresponding to the percentage of changes in the area averaged R10mm (R20mm) regression coefficients over the Guinea Coast lie between -28% and -72% (-37% and -86%) -29% and -64% over the three future periods (Fig. S20 (b)).

The spatial patterns of the future changes in the variability of rainfall during the very wet days and extremely wet days (R95p and R99p) that is related to the warm and cold AEM events indicate a reduction in R95p and R99p magnitudes over most of the areas in the Guinea Coast areas west of 5°E in the Guinea Coast (Fig. 11(d)-(e)). The spatial change patterns are similar for both variables, and very few grid points agree on the sign of the change across the different models. The EnsMean

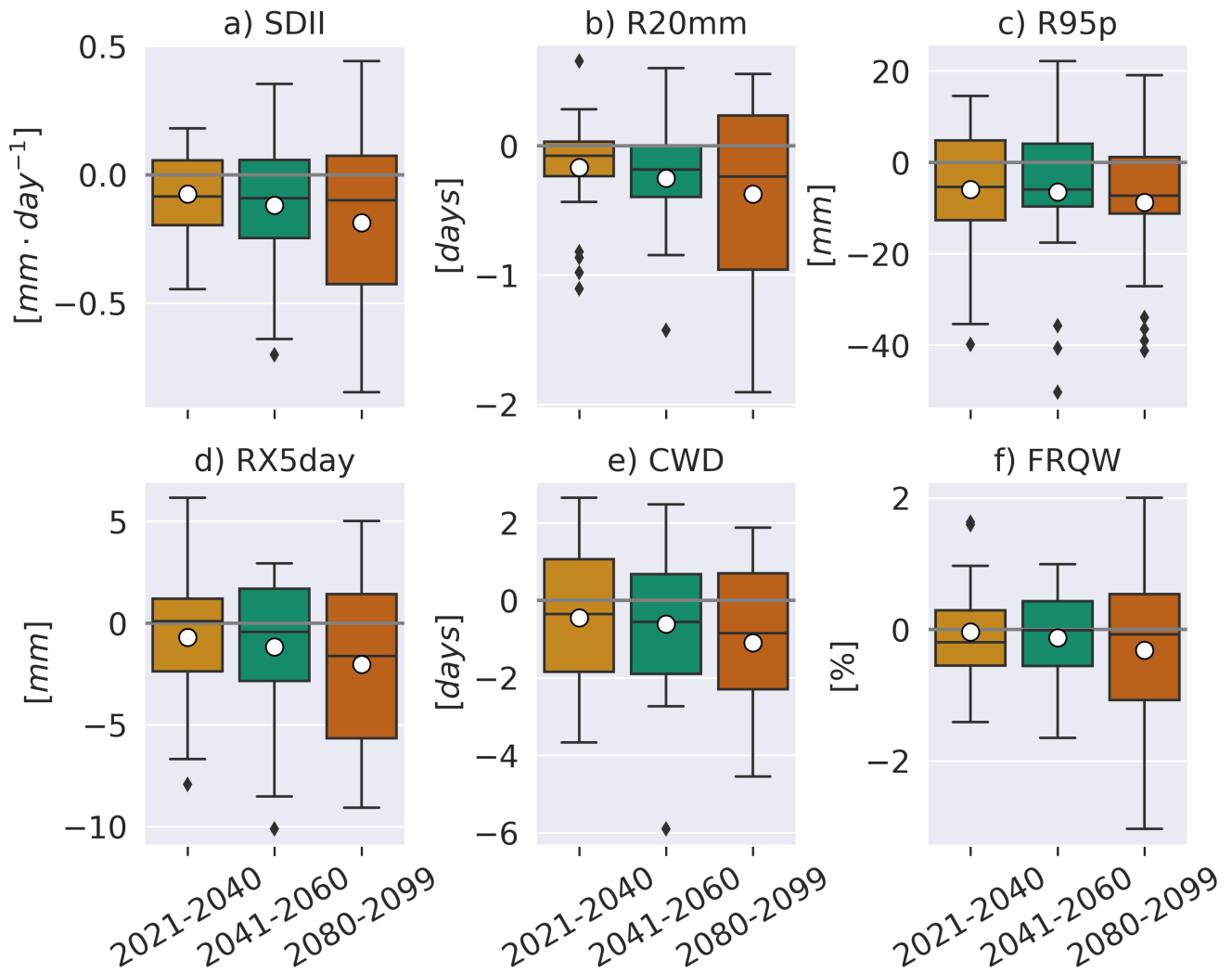


Figure 10. Near-term, mid-term and long-term changes in the [Guinea Coast area](#) average of the JAS extreme rainfall responses to one standard deviation of the JAS AEM index over the Guinea Coast. Black bars indicate [Each boxplot represents the 90% confidence interval distribution of difference in the mean over 24 GCMs.](#) The median (mean) value of each distribution is indicated by a black horizontal bar (a white circle).

(Fig. 11(c)). Elsewhere over Guinea Coast, there is no evidence of a robust change in the R95p pattern. The EnsMedian change in the average of R95p (R99p) averaged over the Guinea Coast ranges from -6.57 mm to -8.79 mm (to) -5.3 mm to -7.3 mm over the three future periods (Fig. 10(d)-(e) Fig. 10(c)). The multi-model median values of the Guinea Coast R95p change percentage (R99p) change percentage reaches -34% (-44%), -42% (-45%) and -49% (-26%) and the agreement among the models corresponds to -41% (62%), -38% (67%) and -50% (67%) in the near-term, mid-term and long-term future periods, respectively, relative to the present-day period (Fig. S20 (c)). In addition, the anomalous contribution of the very wet day precipitation to the total seasonal rainfall also weakens (Fig. 10(f) and Fig. 11(f)). The average of the R95pf-AEM change over the Guinea Coast ranges between $-$ and $-$, and the median percentage of change of the R95pf-AEM lies between -34% and -46% for the three future periods.

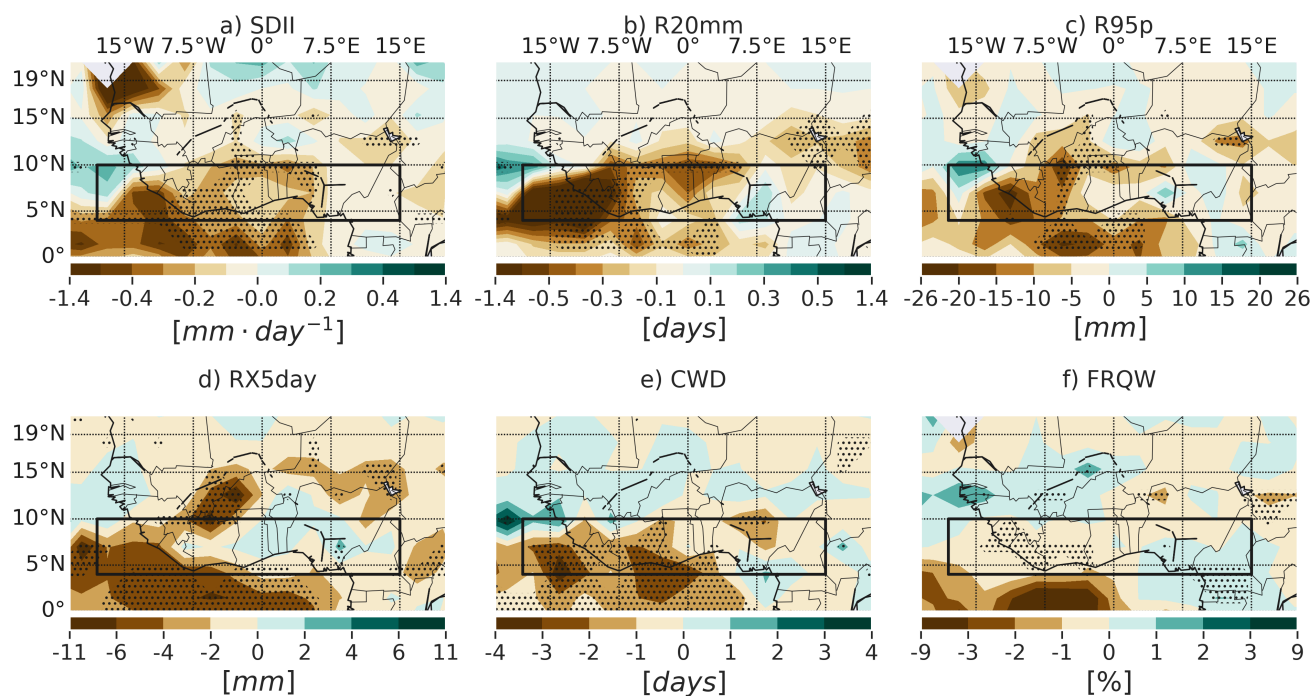


Figure 11. Long-term changes in the regression patterns of the JAS extreme rainfall indices associated with the standardized JAS AEM SST index (2080-2099 minus 1995-2014). The stippling indicates grid points where two thirds of the models agree on the sign of the change.

Lower maximum one day and maximum Lower maximum five days precipitation related to one standard deviation of the AEM index averaged over the Guinea Coast are projected in the 2021-2040, 2041-2060 and 2080-2099 periods, compared to their magnitude in the 1995-2014 period (Fig. 10(h)-(i) Fig. 10(d)). Over the three mid-term and long-term future periods, the EnsMean reduction is lower than 1 mm for the RX1day index, while the decrease is between -0.79 and -2.14 mm for RX5day. Besides, the multi-model median RX5day EnsMedian reduction is between -0.4 and -1.6 mm . The near-term EnsMedian

change is positive but very close to zero (0.1 mm). In the three cases, there is a low agreement among the models in the sign of the changes averaged over Guinea Coast (less than 55%). The multimodel EnsMedian values of the percentage of change in the RX1day (RX5day) averaged over the Guinea Coast range between -7% and -68% (-20% and -55%) for -24% and -58% over the three future periods (Fig. S20 (d)). The maps of the changes in the RX1day and RX5day responses to AEM events are similar (Fig. 11(h)-(i)). The sign of the change is not uniform over the Guinea Coast, and the models hardly agree on the change sign over the grid points. anomalies over Guinea Coast.

690 The projected decrease in the AEM variability in the future leads to a decrease in the magnitude of the wet and dry spells corresponding to one standard deviation of the AEM index. However, the EnsMean-EnsMedian change in the anomalous responses of these indices averaged over the Guinea Coast is less than one day in the different three future periods (Fig. 10(j)-(k)). For the long-term change particularly, the reduction is clear for CWD, while for CDD, the 90% confidence interval indicates that the EnsMean change ranges between -0.02 and 0.1 days. For the other periods, there is a weak confidence around the sign of the change. In addition, the multi-model median Fig. 10(e)). The EnsMedian value of the change percentages of the CDD (CWD) CWD change percentages averaged over the Guinea Coast approximate -32% (-54%), -24% (-45%) and -50% (-82%) (as well as the percentage of agreement) approximate -56% (54%), 46% (67%) and -71% (71%) for the near-term, mid-term and long-term future periods, respectively, relative to the present-day period. Figure 11(j)-(k) (Fig. S20 (e)). These area-average statistics are robust for the mid-term and long-term future changes, according to the two-third sign agreement metric. Figure 11(e) displays the spatial distribution of the long-term changes of the two indices. It shows an overall decrease in the CDD and in the CWD response to AEM. It also shows a robust decrease in CWD magnitudes over the Guinea Coast, which are between zero and one day for CDD and reaches three days in the west of 5°W in the Guinea Coast for CWD. For both indices, there is no grid point in which more than two-thirds of the models agree on the sign of the change over the is between one and three days over the central and western Guinea Coast.

705 Finally, a reduction in the positive anomalies of the frequency of wet days over the Guinea Coast that are linked with one standard deviation of the AEM is projected in the future, under the SSP5-8.5 scenario. The grid-point values of the Robust long-term change pattern are between 0 and -2%. There are only few areas in the Guinea Coast where models agree on the reduction up to 1% are detected in the western Guinea Coast. In the eastern part of the region, non-robust weak long-term reduction (Fig. 11(l) changes are projected (Fig. 11(f)). The averages of the change patterns over the Guinea Coast are equal to -0.02%, -0.15% and -0.38% -0.2%, -0.0% and -0.1%, for the three consecutive future periods, respectively, relative to the present-day period (Fig. 10(f) (Fig. 10(f)). The multi-model median value of the percentage of the change in the FRQW-AEM index averaged over the Guinea Coast ranges between -17% and -50% -20% and -38% over the three future periods (Fig. S20 (f)), but these values are non-robust. About half of the 24 GCMs agree on the sign of the EnsMedian change, which makes the result uncertain.

715 Table 12 shows the multi-model median value of the part of the variance explained by the AEM for the 12 rainfall-based extreme indices in each of the four periods. For each of the extreme indices, there is a clear decrease of the proportion of variability explained. To quantify the contribution of AEM in the total variability of the rainfall extremes over Guinea Coast,

we correlate each extreme index averaged over Guinea Coast with the standardized AEM index. The square of the correlation coefficient gives the variance explained fraction (VEF). Figure 12 shows the distribution of the VEF across 24 GCMs, for each extreme index and for each period of the current study. There is a clear decrease in the VEF by the AEM in the three future periods, compared to the between the present-day. Moreover, the reduction is stronger in the period and the long-term period for the majority of the indices (except for the CWD). Under the future. However, change in the VEF is not linear with time, and this could be due to the small set of models used in our study. Under present-day conditions, the AEM variability explains between 12.51% and 27.74% of the variance of the extreme indices over the Guinea Coast. Median VEF ranges between 13 % and 28 %, for the six indices. In the 2080-2099, the proportion of variance explained by the AEM lies between 4.25% and 12.18% across the different variables. The corresponding multi-model median value of the percentage of change relative to 1995-2014 ranges between and, long-term future, the VEF does not exceed 8 %. This indicates a weaker role of AEM in the last decades of 21st century, under SSP5-8.5 scenario.

In summary, subsequent to the decrease in the AEM variability in a future warmer climate relative to the present-day conditions, there is a decrease in the variability of the extreme rainfall indices associated with the AEM. For the majority of the indices, the average of the changes in the teleconnection amplitude between the Guinea Coast and the eastern equatorial Atlantic indicates an overall enhancement in magnitude with time. Crespo et al. (2022) demonstrated that the models with the strongest warm sea surface biases exhibit the weakest change in both the AEM variability and the third component of the Bjerknes feedback. Given the positive SST biases in most of the CMIP6 models in the eastern Atlantic basin (Richter and Tokinaga, 2020; Worou et al., 2022; Crespo et al., 2022), improving these biases would likely increase the change in the AEM variability, suggesting that the projected weakened AEM variability is robust despite these biases. Moreover, despite the increase in the total variability of the majority of the extreme indices under global warming in the future (Section 3.3), there is a reduction of in the proportion of variance explained by the AEM for these extreme indices. This result highlights a weaker role played by the AEM in the future, in explaining the explaining the future rainfall extreme variability over the Guinea Coast. Furthermore, there is more confidence in the results averaged over the Guinea Coast than in the spatial distribution of the changes in the teleconnection patterns.

~~Rainfall extreme indices averaged over the Guinea Coast: multi-model median values of the proportion of the variance explained by the AEM over four different periods (in %):~~

~~1995-2014 2021-2040 2041-2060 2080-2099 SDII 23.26 12.33 17.25 5.13 R10mm 27.74 15.62 19.95 12.18 R20mm 15.94 8.02 10.85 5.34 R95p 16.44 10.21 12.79 7.42 R99p 15.91 8.16 9.97 6.12 R95pf 15.05 9.32 13.58 4.60 PRCPTOT 23.30 17.03 19.18 10.47 RX1day 12.51 8.87 13.38 4.25 RX5day 20.33 11.95 17.46 9.17 CDD 13.11 10.19 11.88 7.41 CWD 13.47 6.59 9.96 6.17 FRQW 26.35 18.43 16.75 5.85~~

5 Summary and conclusions

In this study, the The Atlantic equatorial mode of variability has mainly influenced rainfall changes over Guinea Coast during the last century. The current study aimed to understand the links between this oceanic mode of variability and the extreme

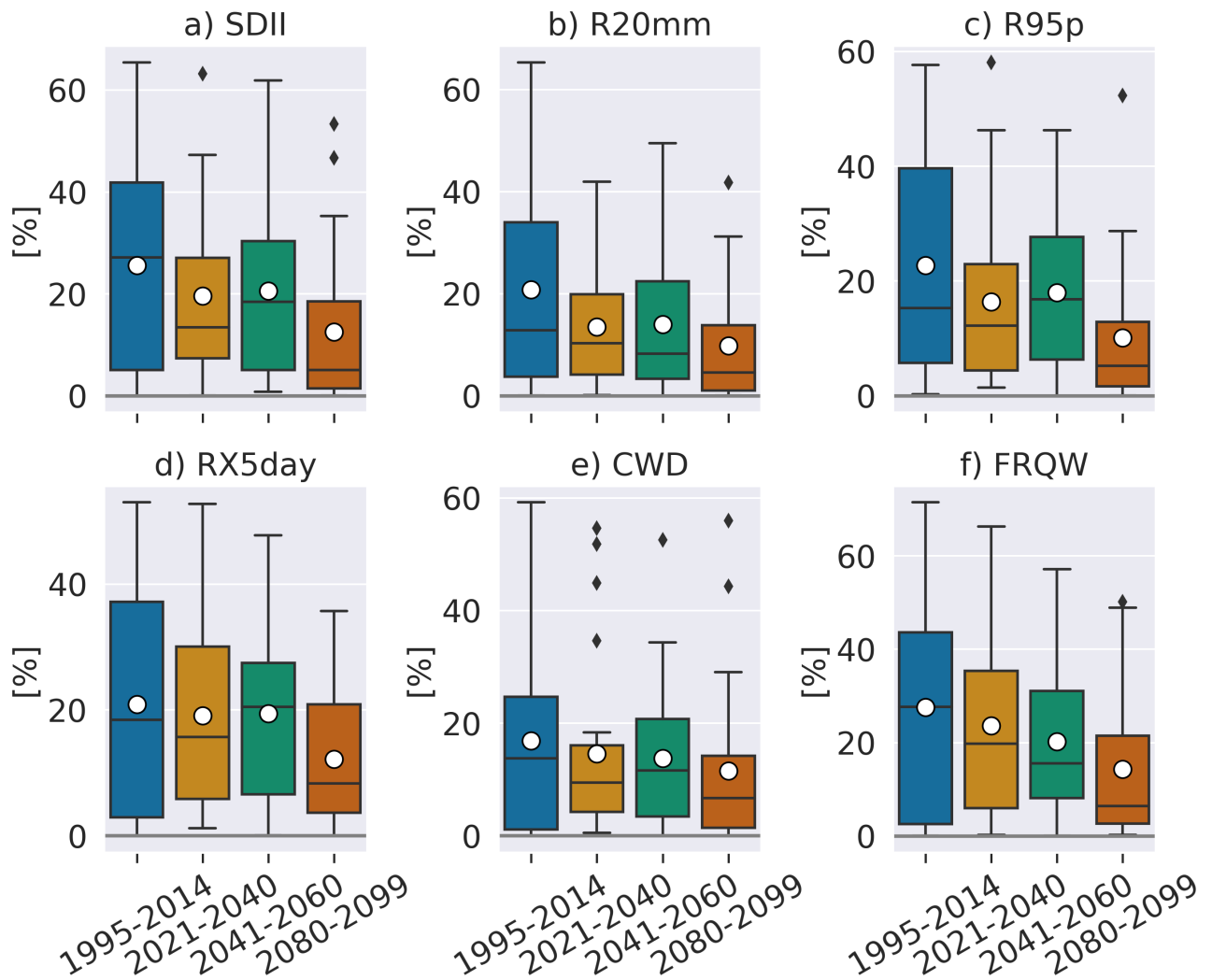


Figure 12. Regression of the Guinea Coast rainfall extreme indices onto the standardized AEM index: proportion of the variance explained by the AEM over four different periods (in %). Each boxplot represents the distribution of 24 GCMs. The median (mean) value of each distribution is indicated by a black horizontal bar (a white circle).

rainfall events over the Guinea Coast under different climate conditions. The performance of 24 GCMs participating in CMIP6 in simulating 12 six JAS rainfall-based climate extremes indices over the Guinea Coast was assessed as well as the projected mean changes in these extremes under global warming. ~~The EnsMean~~ We used six different observation database to evaluate the models. Historical and SSP5-8.5 simulations were considered to study changes in the near-term (2021-2040), mid-term (2041-2060) and long-term (2080-2099) future periods, compared to the present-day climate period (1995-2014).

Under present-day conditions, we found that the GCMs EnsMedian simulates less intense ~~but~~ rainfall events. All the models exhibit too frequent rainfall and longer wet spells over the Guinea Coast, compared to the observations. ~~The duration of the wet (dry) spells are also longer (shorter) in the EnsMean compared to CHIRPS. There is~~ These models show a wide range of FRQW spatial correlation with the different observations, which makes this variable uncertain in the models, as indicated by its poorest skill score (0.26 for the EnsMedian), compared to the other variables. On the other hand, the R20mm is better represented in the models, according to the distribution of the PCC and TSS values in the GCMs. The EnsMedian values for these metrics are 0.7 and 0.6, respectively. For the other variables, the EnsMedian PCC (TSS) values are between 0.5 and 0.6 (0.4 and 0.5). Those results indicate that despite the good performance of the models for some aspects of the rainfall characteristics, there is still a need to ~~improve the GCMs for a better representation of~~ continue the effort toward an improvement of the GCMs to ~~better represent~~ the mean state of the West African hydroclimate. This would lead to a more reliable use of climate models for climate services over West Africa, in order to implement better mitigation and adaptation strategies to climate change. ~~Despite the biases, the mean extreme indices show an overall good spatial pattern correlation between the EnsMean and CHIRPS over the Guinea Coast region. The PCC values range between 0.58 and 0.93 for 10 indices over 12.~~

Under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, changes in the near-term (2021-2040), mid-term (2041-2060) and long-term (2080-2099) periods are evaluated, relative to the present-day climate conditions (1995-2014). Consistent with previous studies (Dosio et al., 2021; Wainwright et al., 2021), results of the average of the mean changes in the extreme indices over the Guinea Coast indicate an intensification of the daily rainfall, together with a decrease in the frequency of wet days and the duration of wet spells. ~~In parallel, the length of the dry spells increases.~~ The number of days with precipitation exceeding 20mm is ~~modestly increased, while increased, as well as~~ the rainfall amount during the very wet days and ~~extremely wet days is enhanced. Similarly,~~ the maximum rainfall amount over ~~one day and~~ five consecutive days ~~intensifies.~~

The ~~sign of the long-term change in R10mm and PRCPTOT is~~ area average of the extremes indices over Guinea Coast indicates an intensification of extreme conditions in the projections, with a gradual increase in magnitude over the three future periods. However, it is important to note that the spatial distribution of the changes is not uniform over the ~~Guinea Coast, unlike the sign region, and the robustness~~ of the changes in the other extreme indices. ~~The PRCPTOT increases in the west of 5°W, in the northern part of the Guinea Coast and in the east of 5°E, while it decreases in the other areas of the Guinea Coast. Moreover, except for R10mm, CDD, CWD and FRQW, there is a gradual increase with time in~~ at a grid point varies among different indices and the future period considered. In general, internal variability is large enough to mask the forced signal during the first decades of the projection over Guinea Coast. In the mid-term changes, only a few areas in the western Guinea Coast exhibit a robust change in SDII, R20mm and RX5day. In the long-term projections, the ~~variability of the different extremes indices averaged over the Guinea Coast, for the consecutive three future periods.~~ R95p projections remain uncertain over Guinea Coast.

while robust change signal with a uniform sign can be found for the other extreme indices. These conclusions are in overall agreement with ? , who estimated the different numbers of models ensemble members needed to resolve the forced signal in the projections over Sahel. This kind of study needs to be performed over Guinea Coast. It is, however, beyond the aim of our current study, which is rather focused on teleconnection processes.

790 Anomalous warming (cooling) of the eastern equatorial Atlantic in positive (negative) phases of the AEM is associated with ~~increased (decreased) total rainfall over the~~ above (below) normal values of wet extreme rainfall indices over Guinea Coast in the current climate. ~~Our results indicate , on the one hand, Accordingly, our results indicate~~ an in-phase relationship between the ~~wet different~~ extreme indices of the Guinea Coast and the AEM SST index. ~~A positive AEM phase is also accompanied by a decrease in the CDD. However, However, over Guinea Coast,~~ the multi-model ~~EnsMean-EnsMedian~~ spatial distributions
795 of the extreme rainfall anomalies related to one standard deviation of the AEM under the present-day conditions are ~~barely significant over the~~ not significant for CWD, and are limited to few areas very close to the coastal line for FRQW. These two indices present the poorest TSS values, in term of performance of the 24 GCMs relative to the six different observations, and compared to the other extreme indices. The index that has the closest pattern to the observations is SDII. The distributions of the TSS values for R20mm, R95p and RX5day indices are similar, with an EnsMedian value close to 0.3. The six observations
800 are consistent with the sign of the regression patterns of the different extreme indices over Guinea Coast. ~~On the other hand, However, the biases in the GCMs's patterns vary a lot through the 24 models and the six observations, leading to no consensus on the sign of the bias, except for the FRQW for which there is a consistent underestimation of the responses to AEM.~~

Additionally, there is a projected weakening of the AEM under global warming. Subsequently, there is overall a projected decrease in magnitude of the Guinea Coast rainfall extreme responses to this mode of climate variability in the three future
805 periods, relative to the present-day situation. For the majority of the indices, the average of the changes in the teleconnection amplitude between the ~~Guinea Coast~~ However, the spatial distribution of the changes in the regression patterns is different from one future period to another period and generally non-robust among the models. These results are also limited by the poor skill of the models in representing the extremes responses to AEM under present-day conditions. Moreover, for a given future period, the sign and the significance of the change are highly heterogeneous in space. As an example, there is a mid-term robust
810 increase in the RX5day response to AEM over the center of Guinea Coast, whereas no significant changes are found over the entire region for the near-term and long-term periods. In general, there is no robust changes in the majority of the indices for the near-term and ~~the eastern equatorial Atlantic indicates an enhancement~~ mid-term periods. The long-term changes are, however, stronger in magnitude with time, and this increase becomes more robust for the long-term changes ~~more robustness over~~ Guinea Coast, according to the sign agreement among the models. Thus, in general, it is questionable whether it makes sense
815 to perform an average of non-robust changes over the Guinea Coast region, for a given variable. Moreover, differences among the models' responses could be highlighted by grouping them in different categories based on different criteria. According to the poorest representation (in general) of the extreme responses to AEM under present-day conditions, one could choose to separate models that project an increase in the magnitude of the responses, from the models that project a decrease in the extreme responses to AEM. This is not done in our current study. Another solution would be to use few GCMs with 10 or more

820 ensemble members at high spatial resolution, with a good representation of the AEM impact on West Africa. The increase in the spatial resolution will allow the study of regional differences within the Guinea Coast region.

Despite the biases and uncertainties, the area average of the changes over Guinea Coast is more robust, and gives an overall tendency. However, although there is an overall increase in the total variance of most of the extreme indices over the Guinea Coast, ~~there is a reduction in~~ the contribution of the AEM to explain the variance of these extreme indices ~~-This is reduced.~~
825 This reduction is clear if the long-term variance explained fraction is compared to its values in the present-day situation. This result suggests a weaker role of the AEM in driving the extreme rainfall variability over the Guinea Coast in a future scenario of high emission of greenhouse gases. Therefore, there is a need to identify other oceanic and atmospheric modes of variability or other processes that explain ~~more~~ the future changes in the extremes' variability over the Guinea Coast. These processes should compensate for the decreasing role of the AEM. For instance, Akinsanola et al. (2020) argued that the changes in the
830 circulation (the dynamics) should contribute less to the increase in the rainfall variability over West Africa, while the local thermodynamics should be the dominant factor of these changes.

Our conclusions are based on 24 CMIP6 GCMs that have clear biases and whose resolution is too coarse to represent well some important processes controlling extremes and their changes. It would thus be useful to reevaluate our results with RCMS or even convection permitted models. The processes that drive the biases in the mean state and teleconnection patterns ~~need~~
835 ~~also-also need~~ to be better understood and ~~well-represented-, better represented~~ in order to gain more reliability on the projected changes in the rainfall extremes over the Guinea Coast. Additional insights on the impact of the internal variability on the projected changes over the Guinea Coast could also be gained by using more GCMs or more ensemble members within one GCM, to assess the impact of the internal climate variability on the projected changes over Guinea Coast.

6 **Additional figures**

840 ~~Spatial distribution of the mean JAS extreme rainfall indices over the 1995-2014 period from CHIRPS dataset. The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region.~~

Maps of the JAS rainfall extreme indices (from CHIRPS dataset) regressed onto the standardized JAS AEM SST index (from HADISST dataset) over the 1995-2014 period. The stippling represents significant regression coefficient at 5% level according to a t-test. The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region.

845 References

- Akinsanola, A. A. and Zhou, W.: Projections of West African summer monsoon rainfall extremes from two CORDEX models, *Climate Dynamics*, 52, 2017–2028, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-018-4238-8>, 2019.
- Akinsanola, A. A., Zhou, W., Zhou, T., and Keenlyside, N.: Amplification of synoptic to annual variability of West African summer monsoon rainfall under global warming, *npj Climate and Atmospheric Science*, 3, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41612-020-0125-1>, 2020.
- 850 Akinsanola, A. A., Ongoma, V., and Kooperman, G. J.: Evaluation of CMIP6 models in simulating the statistics of extreme precipitation over Eastern Africa, *Atmospheric Research*, 254, 105 509, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2021.105509>, 2021.
- Atiah, W. A., Tsidu, G. M., Amekudzi, L. K., and Yorke, C.: Trends and interannual variability of extreme rainfall indices over Ghana, West Africa, *Theoretical and Applied Climatology*, 140, 1393–1407, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00704-020-03114-6>, 2020.
- Baidu, M., Schwendike, J., Marsham, J. H., and Bain, C.: Effects of vertical wind shear on intensities of mesoscale convective systems over
855 West and Central Africa, *Atmospheric Science Letters*, 23, e1094, <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/asl.1094>, 2022.
- Beucher, F., Lafore, J.-P., and Chapelon, N.: Simulation and analysis of the moist vortex associated with the extreme rain event of Ouagadougou in 2009, *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, 146, 86–104, <https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.3645>, 2019.
- Bichet, A. and Diedhiou, A.: Less frequent and more intense rainfall along the coast of the Gulf of Guinea in West and Central Africa (1981-2014), *Climate Research*, 76, 191–201, <https://doi.org/10.3354/cr01537>, 2018.
- 860 Bjerknes, J.: Atmospheric teleconnections from the equatorial Pacific, *Monthly Weather Review*, 97, 163–172, [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0493\(1969\)097<0163:atftpe>2.3.co;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0493(1969)097<0163:atftpe>2.3.co;2), 1969.
- Crespo, L. R., Prigent, A., Keenlyside, N., Koseki, S., Svendsen, L., Richter, I., and Sánchez-Gómez, E.: Weakening of the Atlantic Niño variability under global warming, *Nature Climate Change*, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-022-01453-y>, 2022.
- Delhaye, S., Fichet, T., Massonnet, F., Docquier, D., Msadek, R., Chripko, S., Roberts, C., Keeley, S., and Senan, R.: Summertime
865 changes in climate extremes over the peripheral Arctic regions after a sudden sea ice retreat, *Weather and Climate Dynamics*, 3, 555–573, <https://doi.org/10.5194/wcd-3-555-2022>, 2022.
- Diatta, S. and Fink, A. H.: Statistical relationship between remote climate indices and West African monsoon variability, *International Journal of Climatology*, 34, 3348–3367, <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.3912>, 2014.
- Diatta, S., Diedhiou, C. W., Dione, D. M., and Sambou, S.: Spatial Variation and Trend of Extreme Precipitation in West Africa and Tele-
870 connections with Remote Indices, *Atmosphere*, 11, 999, <https://doi.org/10.3390/atmos11090999>, 2020.
- Diedhiou, A., Bichet, A., Wartenburger, R., Seneviratne, S. I., Rowell, D. P., Sylla, M. B., Diallo, I., Todzo, S., Touré, N. E., Camara, M., Ngatchah, B. N., Kane, N. A., Tall, L., and Affholder, F.: Changes in climate extremes over West and Central Africa at 1.5 °C and 2 °C global warming, *Environmental Research Letters*, 13, 065 020, <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/aac3e5>, 2018.
- Dike, V. N., Lin, Z.-H., and Ibe, C. C.: Intensification of Summer Rainfall Extremes over Nigeria during Recent Decades, *Atmosphere*, 11,
875 1084, <https://doi.org/10.3390/atmos11101084>, 2020.
- Dosio, A., Jury, M. W., Almazroui, M., Ashfaq, M., Diallo, I., Engelbrecht, F. A., Klutse, N. A. B., Lennard, C., Pinto, I., Sylla, M. B., and Tamoffo, A. T.: Projected future daily characteristics of African precipitation based on global (CMIP5, CMIP6) and regional (CORDEX, CORDEX-CORE) climate models, *Climate Dynamics*, 57, 3135–3158, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-021-05859-w>, 2021.
- Elagib, N. A., Zayed, I. S. A., Saad, S. A., Mahmood, M. I., Basheer, M., and Fink, A. H.: Debilitating floods in the Sahel are becoming
880 frequent, *Journal of Hydrology*, 599, 126 362, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2021.126362>, 2021.

- Engel, T., Fink, A. H., Knippertz, P., Pante, G., and Bliefernicht, J.: Extreme Precipitation in the West African Cities of Dakar and Ouagadougou: Atmospheric Dynamics and Implications for Flood Risk Assessments, *Journal of Hydrometeorology*, 18, 2937–2957, <https://doi.org/10.1175/jhm-d-16-0218.1>, 2017.
- 885 Eyring, V., Bony, S., Meehl, G. A., Senior, C. A., Stevens, B., Stouffer, R. J., and Taylor, K. E.: Overview of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) experimental design and organization, *Geoscientific Model Development*, 9, 1937–1958, <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-9-1937-2016>, 2016.
- Faye, A. and Akinsanola, A. A.: Evaluation of extreme precipitation indices over West Africa in CMIP6 models, *Climate Dynamics*, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-021-05942-2>, 2021.
- 890 Fofana, M., Adoukpe, J., Larbi, I., Houkpe, J., Koubodana, H. D., Toure, A., Bokar, H., Dotse, S.-Q., and Limantol, A. M.: Urban flash flood and extreme rainfall events trend analysis in Bamako, Mali, *Environmental Challenges*, 6, 100449, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envc.2022.100449>, 2022.
- Funk, C., Peterson, P., Landsfeld, M., Pedreros, D., Verdin, J., Shukla, S., Husak, G., Rowland, J., Harrison, L., Hoell, A., and Michaelsen, J.: The climate hazards infrared precipitation with stations—a new environmental record for monitoring extremes, *Scientific Data*, 2, 150066, <https://doi.org/10.1038/sdata.2015.66>, 2015.
- 895 Gu, G. and Adler, R. F.: Seasonal Evolution and Variability Associated with the West African Monsoon System, *Journal of Climate*, 17, 3364–3377, [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442\(2004\)017<3364:seavaw>2.0.co;2](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0442(2004)017<3364:seavaw>2.0.co;2), 2004.
- Hegerl, G. C., Black, E., Allan, R. P., Ingram, W. J., Polson, D., Trenberth, K. E., Chadwick, R. S., Arkin, P. A., Sarojini, B. B., Becker, A., Dai, A., Durack, P. J., Easterling, D., Fowler, H. J., Kendon, E. J., Huffman, G. J., Liu, C., Marsh, R., New, M., Osborn, T. J., Skliris, N., Stott, P. A., Vidale, P.-L., Wjffels, S. E., Wilcox, L. J., Willett, K. M., and Zhang, X.: Challenges in Quantifying Changes in the Global
- 900 Water Cycle, *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, 96, 1097 – 1115, <https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-13-00212.1>, 2015.
- Jia, F., Cai, W., Wu, L., Gan, B., Wang, G., Kucharski, F., Chang, P., and Keenlyside, N.: Weakening Atlantic Niño–Pacific connection under greenhouse warming, *Science Advances*, 5, eaax4111, <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aax4111>, 2019.
- Klutse, N. A. B., Ajayi, V. O., Gbobaniyi, E. O., Egbebiyi, T. S., Kouadio, K., Nkrumah, F., Quagraine, K. A., Olusegun, C., Diasso, U., Abiodun, B. J., Lawal, K., Nikulin, G., Lennard, C., and Dosio, A.: Potential impact of 1.5 °C and 2 °C global warming on consecutive
- 905 dry and wet days over West Africa, *Environmental Research Letters*, 13, 055013, <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/aab37b>, 2018.
- Klutse, N. A. B., Quagraine, K. A., Nkrumah, F., Quagraine, K. T., Berkoh-Oforiwa, R., Dzrobi, J. F., and Sylla, M. B.: The Climatic Analysis of Summer Monsoon Extreme Precipitation Events over West Africa in CMIP6 Simulations, *Earth Systems and Environment*, 5, 25–41, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s41748-021-00203-y>, 2021.
- Kpanou, M., Laux, P., Brou, T., Vissin, E., Camberlin, P., and Roucou, P.: Spatial patterns and trends of extreme rainfall over the southern
- 910 coastal belt of West Africa, *Theoretical and Applied Climatology*, 143, 473–487, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00704-020-03441-8>, 2020.
- Lafore, J.-P., Beucher, F., Peyrillé, P., Diongue-Niang, A., Chapelon, N., Bouniol, D., Caniaux, G., Favot, F., Ferry, F., Guichard, F., Poan, E., Roehrig, R., and Vischel, T.: A multi-scale analysis of the extreme rain event of Ouagadougou in 2009, *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, 143, 3094–3109, <https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.3165>, 2017.
- Li, C., Zwiers, F., Zhang, X., Li, G., Sun, Y., and Wehner, M.: Changes in Annual Extremes of Daily Temperature and Precipitation in CMIP6
- 915 Models, *Journal of Climate*, 34, 3441–3460, <https://doi.org/10.1175/jcli-d-19-1013.1>, 2021a.
- Li, T., Jiang, Z., Treut, H. L., Li, L., Zhao, L., and Ge, L.: Machine learning to optimize climate projection over China with multi-model ensemble simulations, *Environmental Research Letters*, 16, 094028, <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/ac1d0c>, 2021b.

- Losada, T., Rodríguez-Fonseca, B., Mohino, E., Bader, J., Janicot, S., and Mechoso, C. R.: Tropical SST and Sahel rainfall: A non-stationary relationship, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 39, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2012GL052423>, 2012.
- 920 Lübbecke, J. F., Rodríguez-Fonseca, B., Richter, I., Martín-Rey, M., Losada, T., Polo, I., and Keenlyside, N. S.: Equatorial Atlantic variability-Modes, mechanisms, and global teleconnections, *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Climate Change*, 9, e527, <https://doi.org/10.1002/wcc.527>, 2018.
- Maranan, M., Fink, A. H., Knippertz, P., Francis, S. D., Akpo, A. B., Jegede, G., and Yorke, C.: Interactions between Convection and a Moist Vortex Associated with an Extreme Rainfall Event over Southern West Africa, *Monthly Weather Review*, 147, 2309–2328, <https://doi.org/10.1175/mwr-d-18-0396.1>, 2019.
- 925 Mearns, L., Giorgi, F., McDaniel, L., and Shields, C.: Analysis of daily variability of precipitation in a nested regional climate model: comparison with observations and doubled CO2 results, *Global and Planetary Change*, 10, 55–78, [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0921-8181\(94\)00020-E](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/0921-8181(94)00020-E), results from the Model Evaluation Consortium for Climate Assessment, 1995.
- Mouhamed, L., Traore, S. B., Alhassane, A., and Sarr, B.: Evolution of some observed climate extremes in the West African Sahel, *Weather and Climate Extremes*, 1, 19–25, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wace.2013.07.005>, 2013.
- 930 New, M., Hewitson, B., Stephenson, D. B., Tsiga, A., Kruger, A., Manhique, A., Gomez, B., Coelho, C. A. S., Masisi, D. N., Kululanga, E., Mbambalala, E., Adesina, F., Saleh, H., Kanyanga, J., Adosi, J., Bulane, L., Fortunata, L., Mdoka, M. L., and Lajoie, R.: Evidence of trends in daily climate extremes over southern and west Africa, *Journal of Geophysical Research*, 111, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2005jd006289>, 2006.
- 935 Odoulami, R. C. and Akinsanola, A. A.: Recent assessment of West African summer monsoon daily rainfall trends, *Weather*, 73, 283–287, <https://doi.org/10.1002/wea.2965>, 2017.
- O'Neill, B. C., Tebaldi, C., van Vuuren, D. P., Eyring, V., Friedlingstein, P., Hurtt, G., Knutti, R., Kriegler, E., Lamarque, J.-F., Lowe, J., Meehl, G. A., Moss, R., Riahi, K., and Sanderson, B. M.: The Scenario Model Intercomparison Project (ScenarioMIP) for CMIP6, *Geoscientific Model Development*, 9, 3461–3482, <https://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-9-3461-2016>, 2016.
- 940 Polo, I., Rodríguez-Fonseca, B., Losada, T., and García-Serrano, J.: Tropical Atlantic Variability Modes (1979–2002). Part I: Time-Evolving SST Modes Related to West African Rainfall, *Journal of Climate*, 21, 6457–6475, <https://doi.org/10.1175/2008JCLI2607.1>, 2008.
- Rayner, N. A., Parker, D. E., Horton, E. B., Folland, C. K., Alexander, L. V., Rowell, D. P., Kent, E. C., and Kaplan, A.: Global analyses of sea surface temperature, sea ice, and night marine air temperature since the late nineteenth century, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 108, <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1029/2002JD002670>, 2003.
- 945 Rehfeld, K., Hébert, R., Lora, J. M., Lofverstrom, M., and Brierley, C. M.: Variability of surface climate in simulations of past and future, *Earth System Dynamics*, 11, 447–468, <https://doi.org/10.5194/esd-11-447-2020>, 2020.
- Richter, I. and Tokinaga, H.: An overview of the performance of CMIP6 models in the tropical Atlantic: mean state, variability, and remote impacts, *Climate Dynamics*, 55, 2579–2601, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-020-05409-w>, 2020.
- Rind, D., Goldberg, R., and Ruedy, R.: Change in climate variability in the 21st century, *Climatic Change*, 14, 5–37, <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00140173>, 1989.
- 950 Rodríguez-Fonseca, B., Mohino, E., Mechoso, C. R., Caminade, C., Biasutti, M., Gaetani, M., Garcia-Serrano, J., Vizy, E. K., Cook, K., Xue, Y., Polo, I., Losada, T., Druyan, L., Fontaine, B., Bader, J., Doblas-Reyes, F. J., Goddard, L., Janicot, S., Arribas, A., Lau, W., Colman, A., Vellinga, M., Rowell, D. P., Kucharski, F., and Voldoire, A.: Variability and Predictability of West African Droughts: A Review on the Role of Sea Surface Temperature Anomalies, *Journal of Climate*, 28, 4034–4060, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-14-00130.1>, 2015.

- 955 Sanogo, S., Peyrillé, P., Roehrig, R., Guichard, F., and Ouedraogo, O.: Extreme Precipitating Events in Satellite and Rain Gauge Products over the Sahel, *Journal of Climate*, 35, 1915–1938, <https://doi.org/10.1175/jcli-d-21-0390.1>, 2022.
- Schubert, S. D., Stewart, R. E., Wang, H., Barlow, M., Berbery, E. H., Cai, W., Hoerling, M. P., Kanikicharla, K. K., Koster, R. D., Lyon, B., Mariotti, A., Mechoso, C. R., Müller, O. V., Rodriguez-Fonseca, B., Seager, R., Seneviratne, S. I., Zhang, L., and Zhou, T.: Global Meteorological Drought: A Synthesis of Current Understanding with a Focus on SST Drivers of Precipitation Deficits, *Journal of Climate*, 29, 3989–4019, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-15-0452.1>, 2016.
- 960 Seneviratne, S. I., Zhang, X., Adnan, M., Badi, W., Dereczynski, C., Luca, A. D., Ghosh, S., Iskandar, I., Kossin, J., Lewis, S., Otto, F., Pinto, I., Satoh, M., Vicente-Serrano, S. M., Wehner, M., and Zhou, B.: *Climate Change 2021: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, chap. Weather and climate extreme events in a changing climate, Cambridge University Press. In Press., 2021.
- 965 Sillmann, J., Kharin, V. V., Zhang, X., Zwiers, F. W., and Bronaugh, D.: Climate extremes indices in the CMIP5 multimodel ensemble: Part 1. Model evaluation in the present climate, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 118, 1716–1733, <https://doi.org/10.1002/jgrd.50203>, 2013a.
- Sillmann, J., Kharin, V. V., Zwiers, F. W., Zhang, X., and Bronaugh, D.: Climate extremes indices in the CMIP5 multimodel ensemble: Part 2. Future climate projections, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 118, 2473–2493, <https://doi.org/10.1002/jgrd.50188>, 2013b.
- 970 Taylor, K. E.: Summarizing multiple aspects of model performance in a single diagram, *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 106, 7183–7192, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2000jd900719>, 2001.
- Thiery, W., Lange, S., Rogelj, J., Schleussner, C.-F., Gudmundsson, L., Seneviratne, S. I., Andrijevic, M., Frieler, K., Emanuel, K., Geiger, T., Bresch, D. N., Zhao, F., Willner, S. N., Büchner, M., Volkholz, J., Bauer, N., Chang, J., Ciais, P., Dury, M., François, L., Grillakis, M., Gosling, S. N., Hanasaki, N., Hickler, T., Huber, V., Ito, A., Jägermeyr, J., Khabarov, N., Koutroulis, A., Liu, W., Lutz, W., Mengel, M., Müller, C., Ostberg, S., Reyer, C. P. O., Stacke, T., and Wada, Y.: Intergenerational inequities in exposure to climate extremes, *Science*, 374, 158–160, <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.abi7339>, 2021.
- Thorncroft, C. D. and Hoskins, B. J.: An idealized study of African easterly waves. I: A linear view, *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, 120, 953–982, <https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.49712051809>, 1994a.
- Thorncroft, C. D. and Hoskins, B. J.: An idealized study of African easterly waves. II: A nonlinear view, *Quarterly Journal of the Royal Meteorological Society*, 120, 983–1015, <https://doi.org/10.1002/qj.49712051810>, 1994b.
- 980 Tokinaga, H. and Xie, S.-P.: Weakening of the equatorial Atlantic cold tongue over the past six decades, *Nature Geoscience*, 4, 222–226, <https://doi.org/10.1038/ngeo1078>, 2011.
- United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA): Note de Synthèse : Impact des inondations Afrique de l’Ouest et du Centre, United Nations, <https://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/SynthèsesurlesinondationsAfriquedelOuestetduCentre.pdf>, 2012.
- 985 United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA): ANNUAL REPORT 2020, United Nations, <https://www.unocha.org/sites/unocha/files/2020%20OCHA%20annual%20report.pdf>, 2021.
- van der Wiel, K. and Bintanja, R.: Contribution of climatic changes in mean and variability to monthly temperature and precipitation extremes, *Communications Earth & Environment*, 2, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43247-020-00077-4>, 2021.
- 990 Wainwright, C. M., Black, E., and Allan, R. P.: Future Changes in Wet and Dry Season Characteristics in CMIP5 and CMIP6 Simulations, *Journal of Hydrometeorology*, 22, 2339 – 2357, <https://doi.org/10.1175/JHM-D-21-0017.1>, 2021.

- Worou, K., Goosse, H., Fichefet, T., Guichard, F., and Diakhate, M.: Interannual variability of rainfall in the Guinean Coast region and its links with sea surface temperature changes over the twentieth century for the different seasons, *Climate Dynamics*, 55, 449–470, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-020-05276-5>, 2020.
- 995 Worou, K., Goosse, H., Fichefet, T., and Kucharski, F.: Weakened impact of the Atlantic Niño on the future equatorial Atlantic and Guinea Coast rainfall, *Earth System Dynamics*, 13, 231–249, <https://doi.org/10.5194/esd-13-231-2022>, 2022.
- Yang, Y., Wu, L., Cai, W., Jia, F., Ng, B., Wang, G., and Geng, T.: Suppressed Atlantic Niño/Niña variability under greenhouse warming, *Nature Climate Change*, <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41558-022-01444-z>, 2022.
- Zebiak, S. E.: Air–Sea Interaction in the Equatorial Atlantic Region, *Journal of Climate*, 6, 1567 – 1586, [https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-](https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-1000)
1000 0442(1993)006<1567:AIITEA>2.0.CO;2, 1993.

Author contributions. KW, TF and HG conceptualized the paper. KW performed the analyses, prepared the figures and wrote the manuscript based on the comments and suggestions from TF and HG.

Competing interests. The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-authors have any competing interests

1005 *Acknowledgements.* We acknowledge the World Climate Research Programme, which, through its Working Group on Coupled Modelling, coordinated and promoted CMIP6. We thank the climate modelling groups for producing and making available their model output, the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) for archiving the data and providing access, and the multiple funding agencies who support CMIP6 and ESGF. Computational resources have been provided by the supercomputing facilities of the Université catholique de Louvain (CISM/UCLouvain) and the Consortium des Equipements de Calcul Intensif en Fédération Wallonie Bruxelles (CECI) funded by the F.R.S.-FNRS under convention 2.5020.11. HG is research director with the Fonds de la Recherche Scientifique – FNRS (F.R.S.-FNRS). [We also thank the two anonymous reviewers and Paul-Arthur Monerie for their constructive comments. Many thanks to the Editor, Peter Knippertz, for his advice and encouragement. A last thank to the Editorial Support \(Anna Mirena Feist-Polner\).](#)

1010

Supplement figures

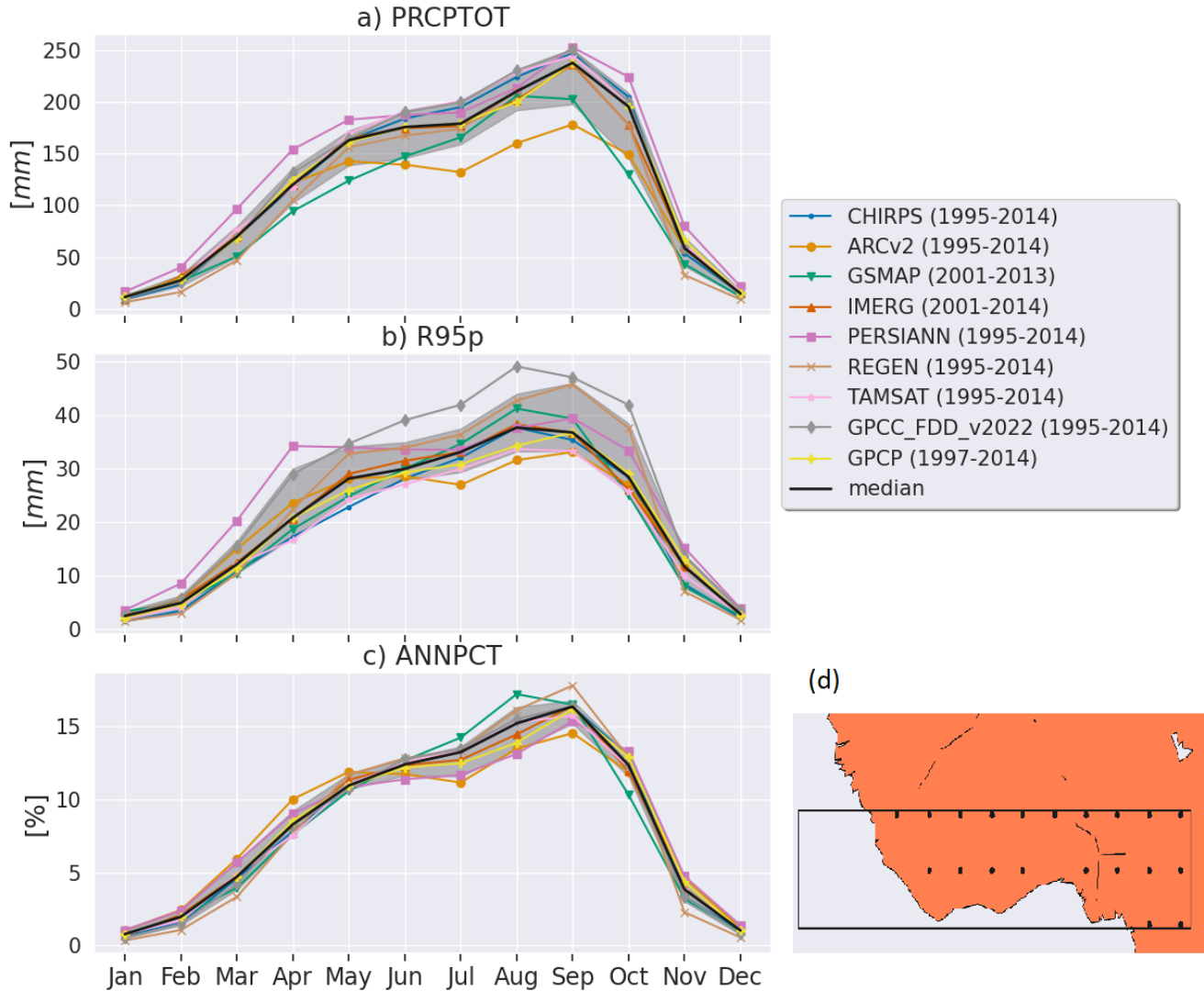


Figure S1. Annual cycle of the (a) total wet day precipitation (PRCPTOT), (b) very wet days precipitation (sum of the daily rainfall over days when the rainfall exceeds the 95th percentile), and (c) contribution of the total monthly rainfall to the total annual rainfall, for nine different observational datasets. The period considered for each dataset is displayed in the legend. The ensemble median of the nine observations is indicated by the black curve. The grey shading shows the 10th to 90th percentile range of the observations. (d) West-Africa region, showing 20 grid points selected to compute the area-average of the three indices over Guinea Coast region (black rectangle).

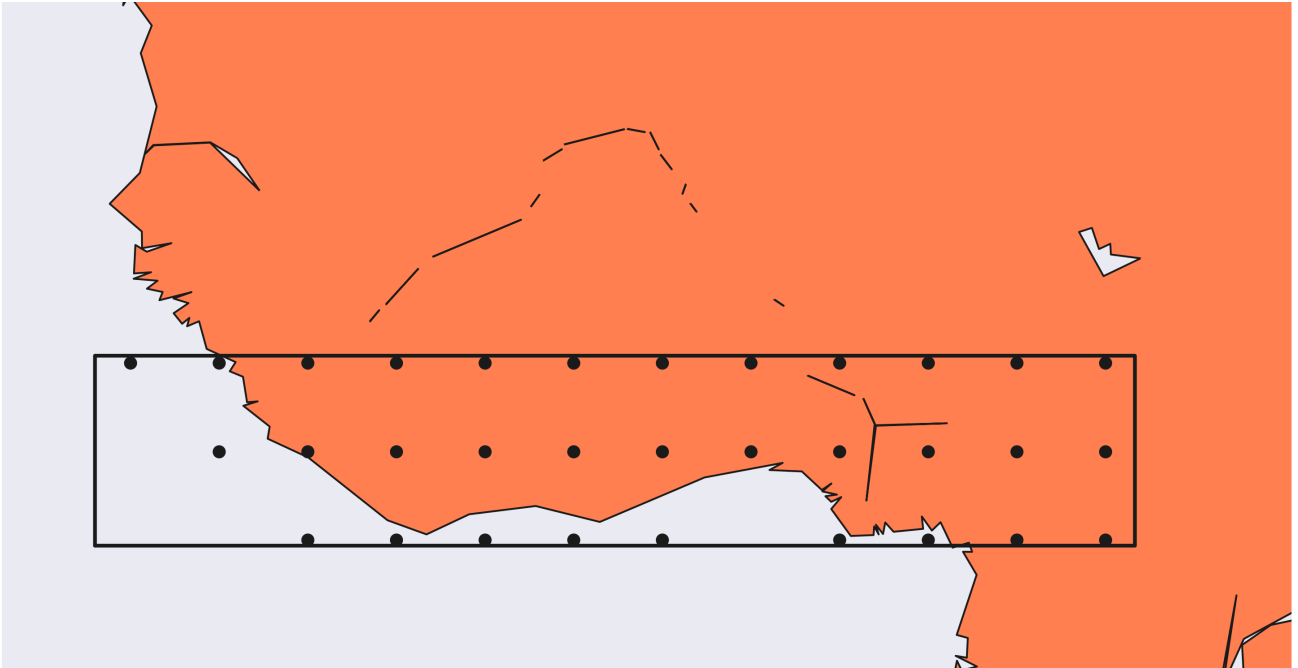


Figure S2. [Map of West Africa showing the Guinea Coast region \(the black rectangle\) and the 32 grid points used when considering an area-average over Guinea Coast.](#)

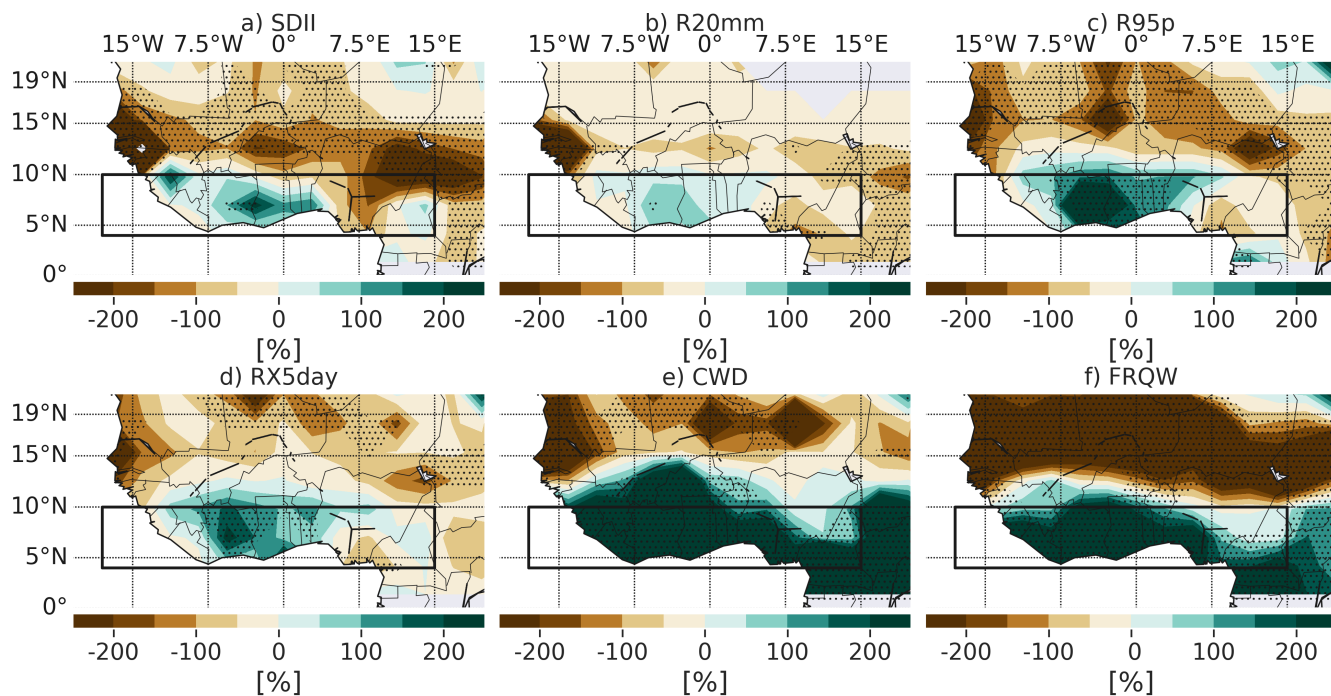


Figure S3. Spatial distribution of the EnsMedian bias percentage relative to the interquartile range of the six observations for the JAS climatology of the extreme rainfall indices over the 1995-2014 period. In total, there are six observations \times 24 models = 144 different biases. The stippling indicates regions where two-third of the biases agree on the sign of the EnsMedian of the 144 biases. The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region.

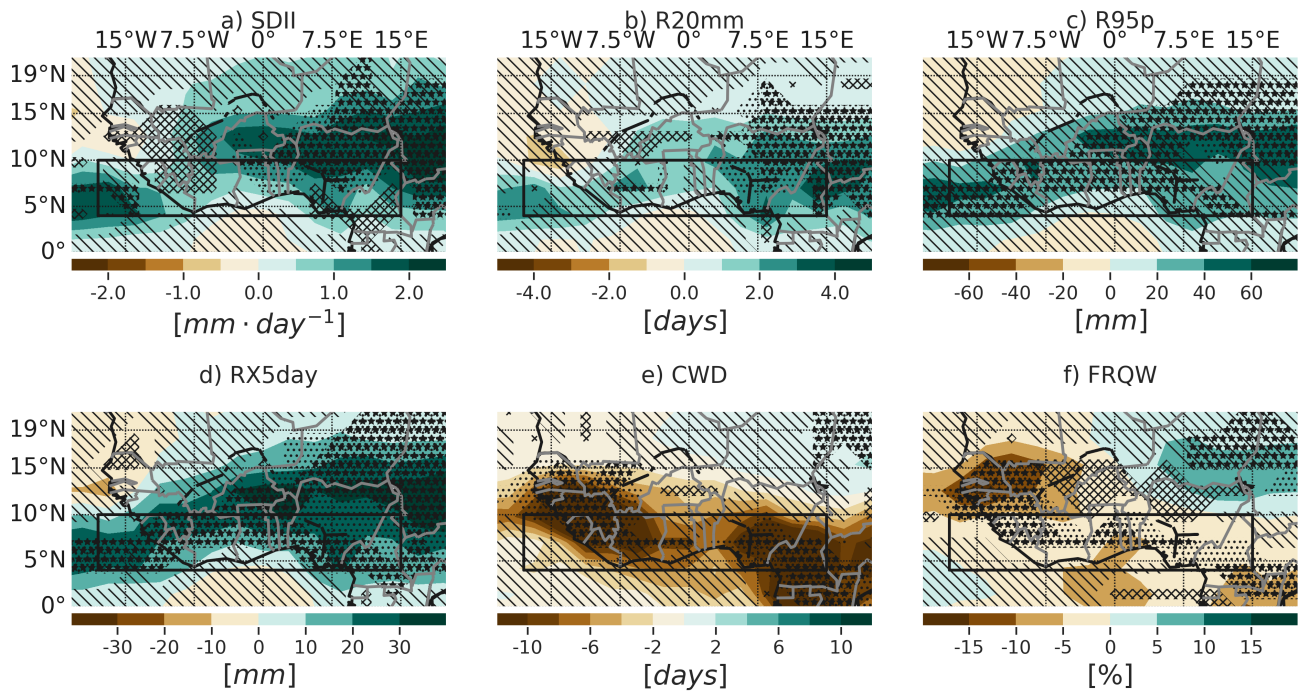


Figure S4. Projected multi-model ensemble long-term median change in the JAS rainfall extreme indices over West Africa, relative to the present-day period (2080-2099 minus 1995-2014). Stippling indicates regions where the change robustly emerges from internal variability (at least 66% of the models show a change greater than the IAV and at least 80% of the models agree on the sign of change); hatching (\\) indicates regions where the change is unrobust (fewer than 66% of the models show change greater than the IAV); crossed lines (X) indicate conflicting signals where at least 66% of the models show change greater than the IAV, with less than 80% agreement on the sign of the change. Stars indicate an another approach used in ?, showing grid points where the forced response is stronger than the internal variability.

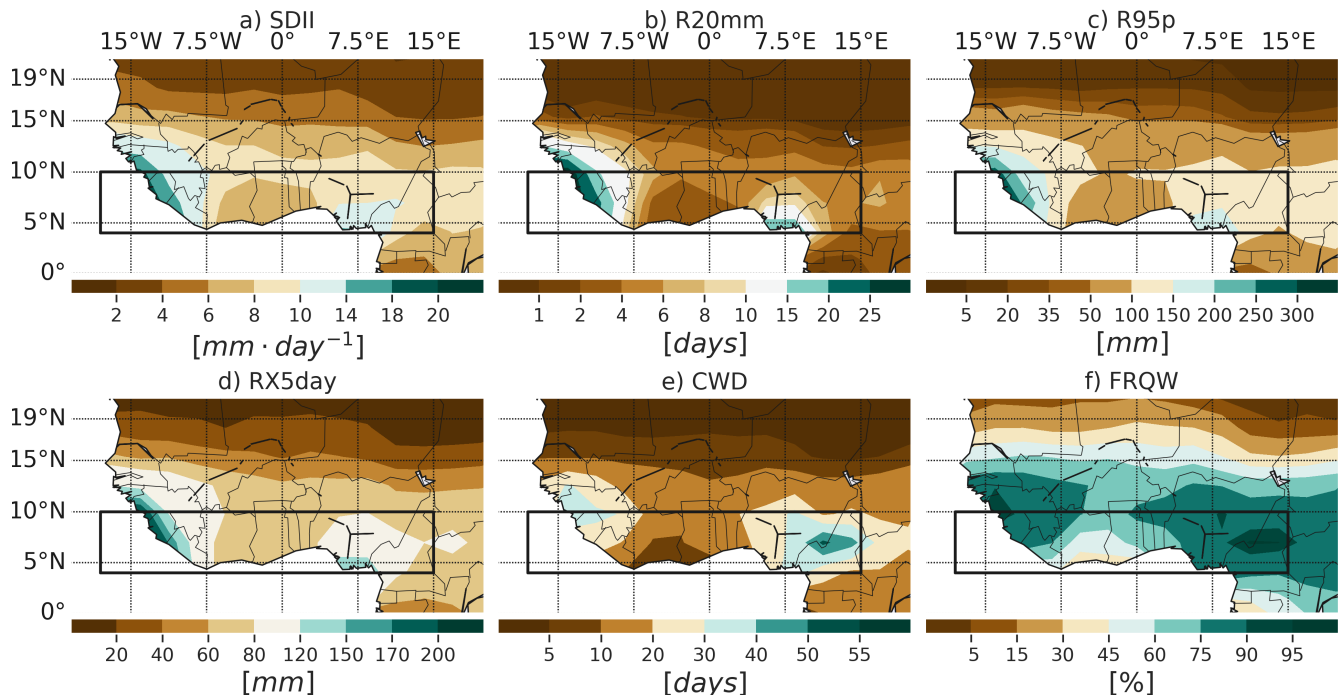


Figure S5. [Spatial distribution of the EnsMedian JAS extreme rainfall indices over the 1995-2014 period from six different rainfall datasets.](#)
[The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region.](#)

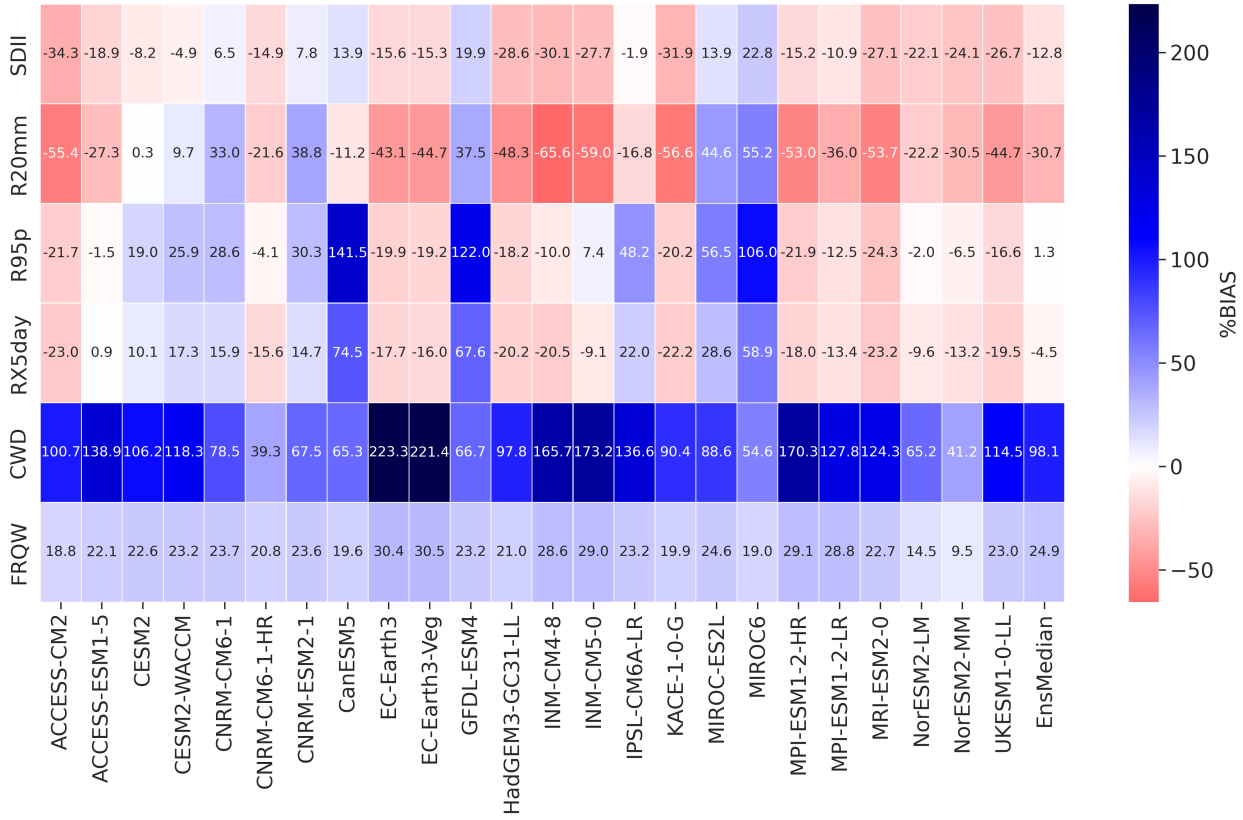


Figure S6. Performance metrics of the individual GCM in representing six different extreme rainfall indices: EnsMedian of %BIAS across six different observations.

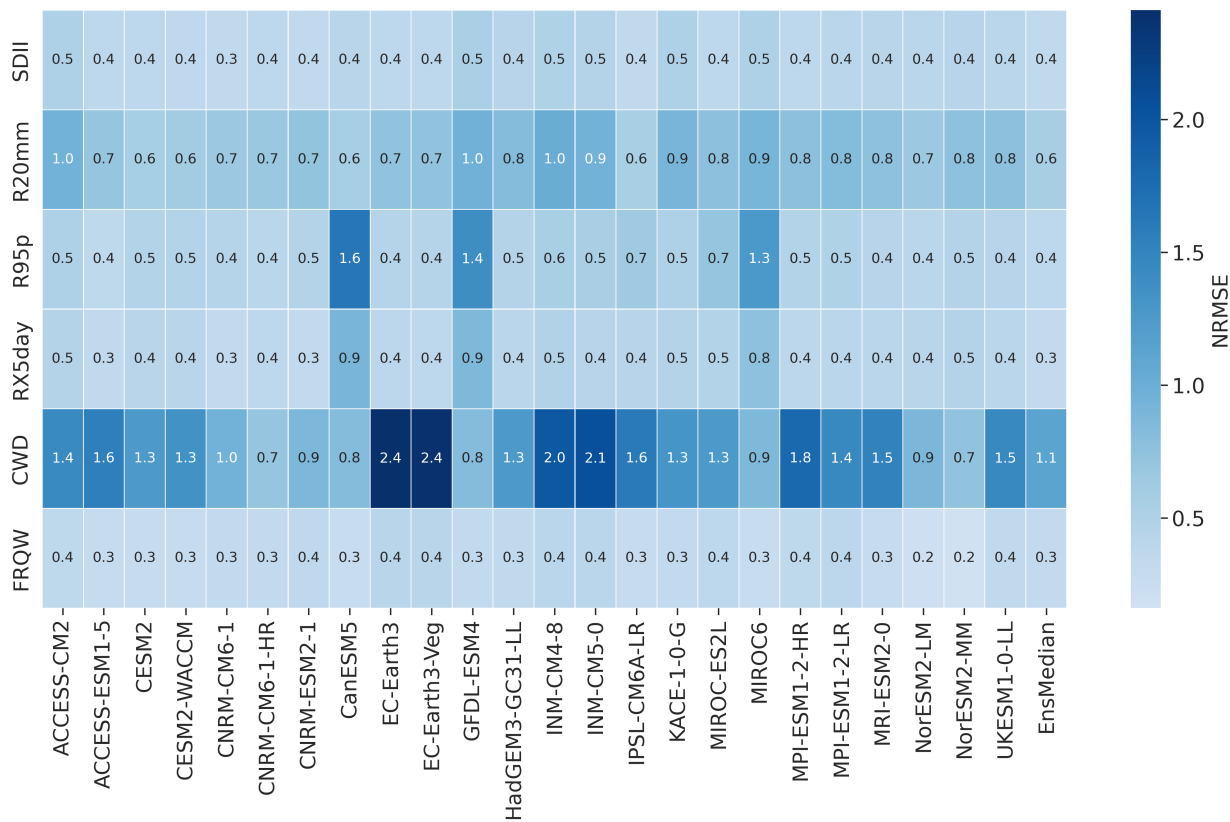


Figure S7. Performance metrics of the individual GCM in representing six different extreme rainfall indices: EnsMedian of NRMSE across six different observations.

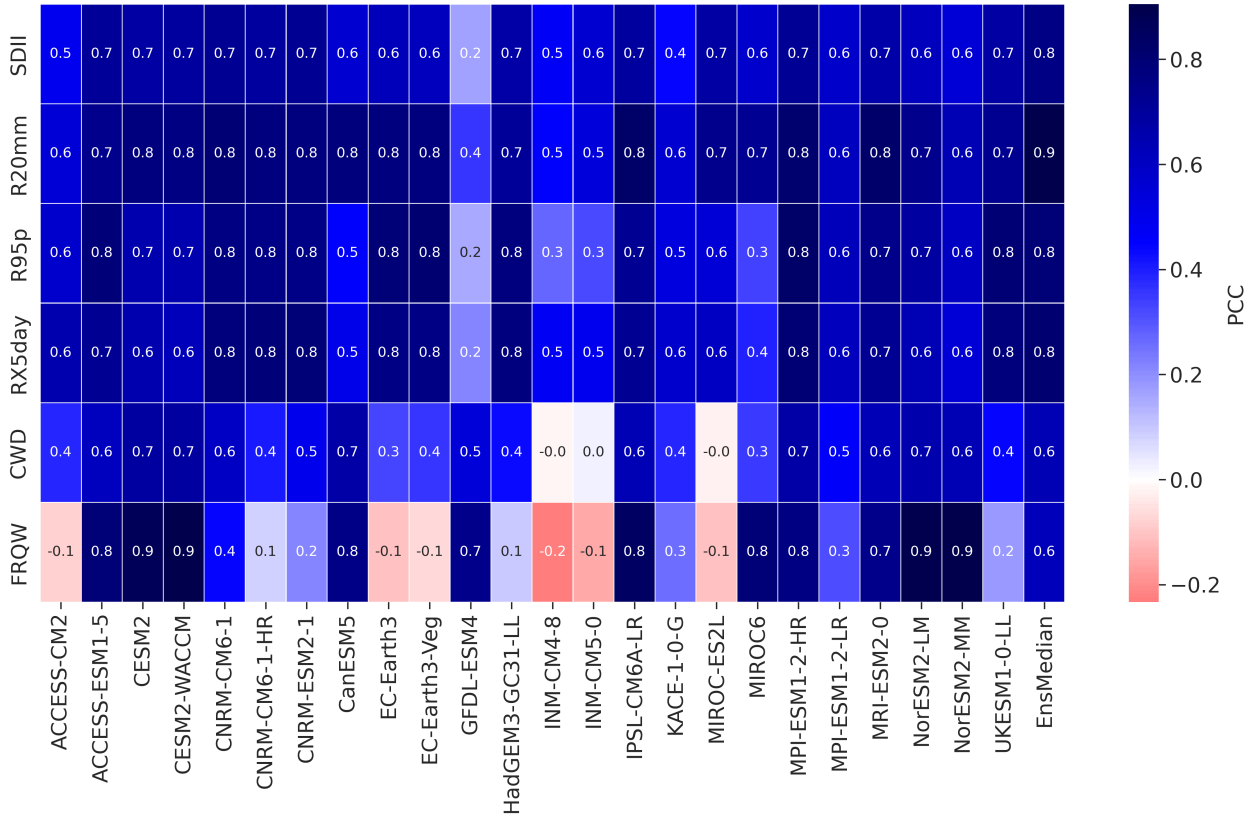


Figure S8. Performance metrics of the individual GCM in representing six different extreme rainfall indices: EnsMedian of PCC across six different observations.

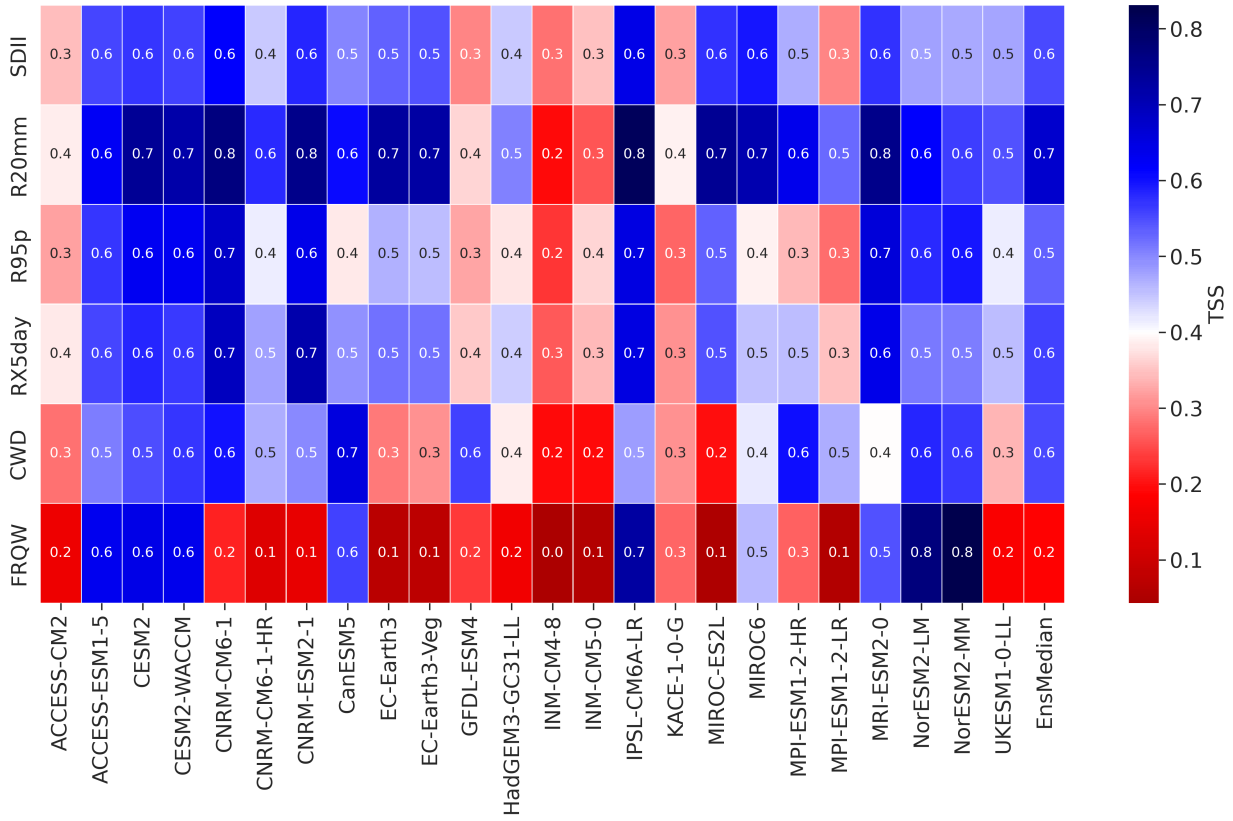


Figure S9. Performance metrics of the individual GCM in representing six different extreme rainfall indices: EnsMedian of TSS across six different observations.

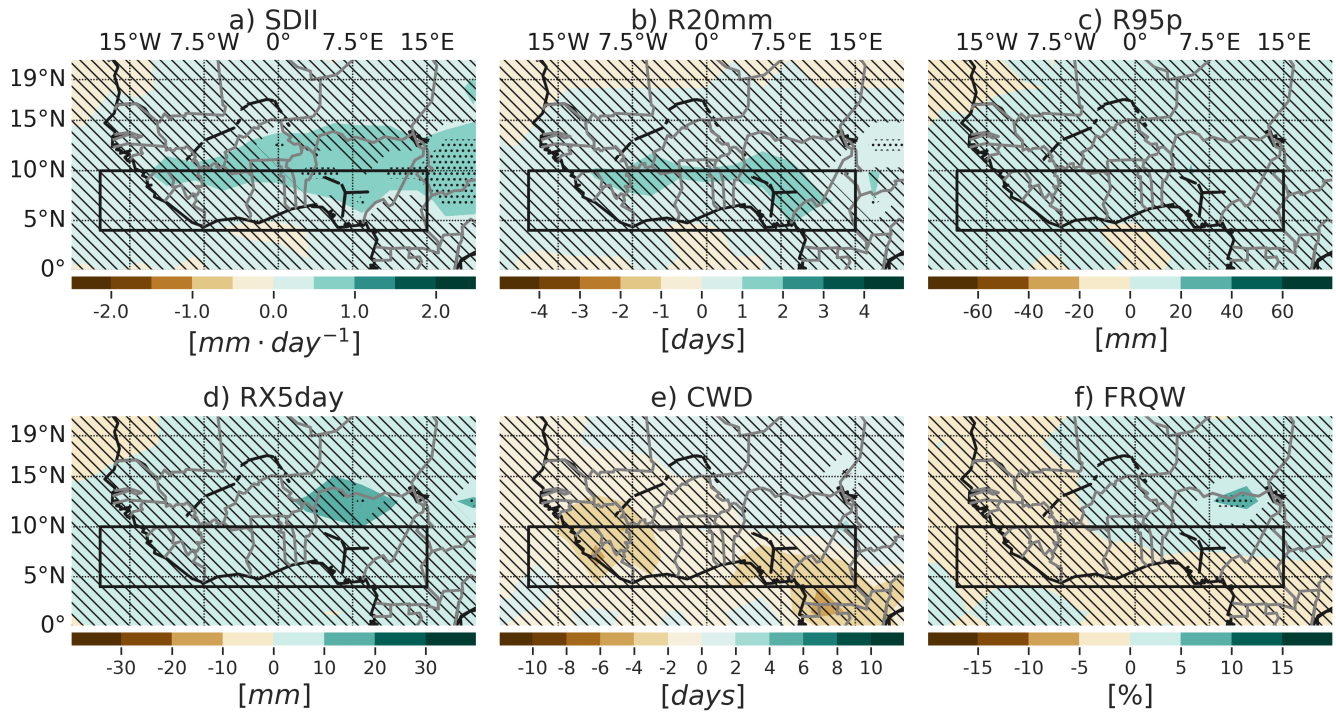


Figure S10. Projected multi-model ensemble near-term median change in the JAS rainfall extreme indices over West Africa, relative to the present-day period (2021-2040 minus 1995-2014). Stippling indicates regions where the change robustly emerges from internal variability (at least 66% of the models show a change greater than the IAV and at least 80% of the models agree on the sign of the change); hatching (\) indicates regions where the change is unrobust (fewer than 66% of the models show change greater than the IAV); crossed lines (X) indicate conflicting signals where at least 66% of the models show change greater than the IAV, with less than 80% agreement on the sign of the change.

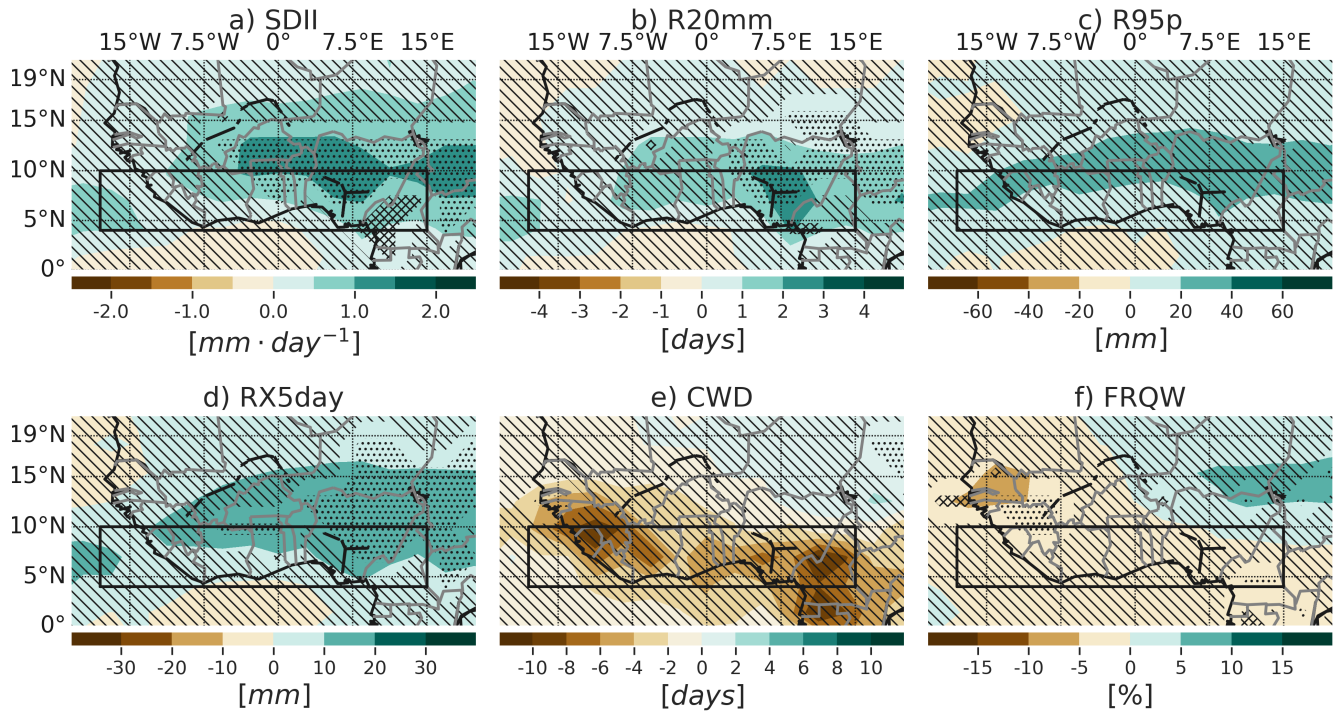


Figure S11. Projected multi-model ensemble mid-term median change in the JAS rainfall extreme indices over West Africa, relative to the present-day period (2041-2060 minus 1995-2014). Stippling indicates regions where the change robustly emerges from internal variability (at least 66% of the models show a change greater than the IAV and at least 80% of the models agree on the sign of the change); hatching (\backslash) indicates regions where the change is unrobust (fewer than 66% of the models show change greater than the IAV); crossed lines (X) indicate conflicting signals where at least 66% of the models show change greater than the IAV, with less than 80% agreement on the sign of the change.

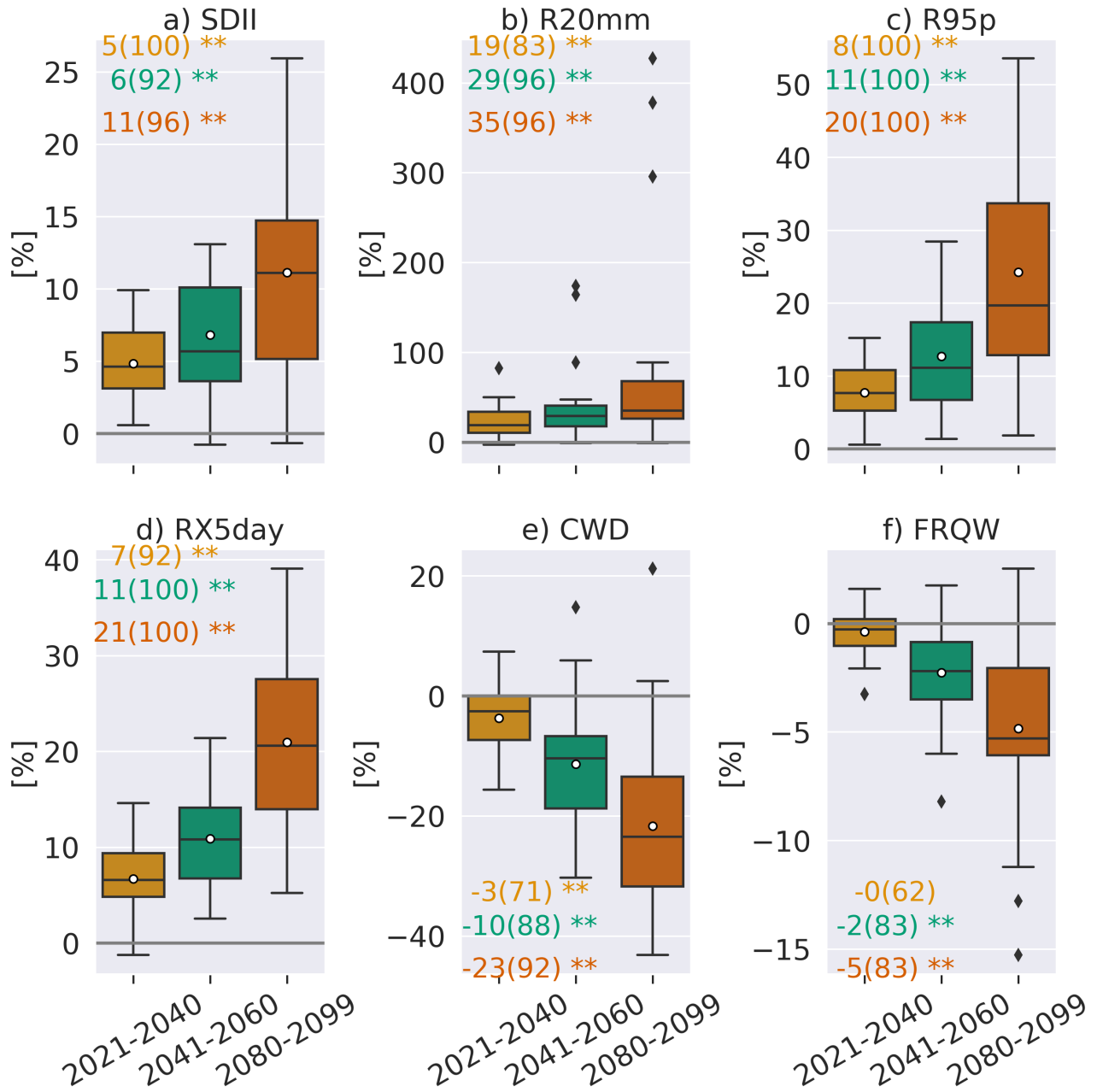


Figure S12. Boxplots of the average of the near-term, mid-term and long-term percentage of changes (relative to the present-day period) in the mean of the rainfall extreme indices over the Guinea Coast. Each boxplot represents the distribution of 24 GCMs. Outliers are indicated by the black marks (losanges). The median (mean) value of each distribution is indicated with a black horizontal bar (a white circle). In each panel, the median value of the change percentages (and the percentage of agreement in parentheses) are indicated for each period, with the same color as the associated boxplot. The two stars indicate more than two-third agreement on the sign of the EnsmMedian change among the 24 GCMs. The percentage of changes are computed at each grid point before performing the averages over Guinea Coast.

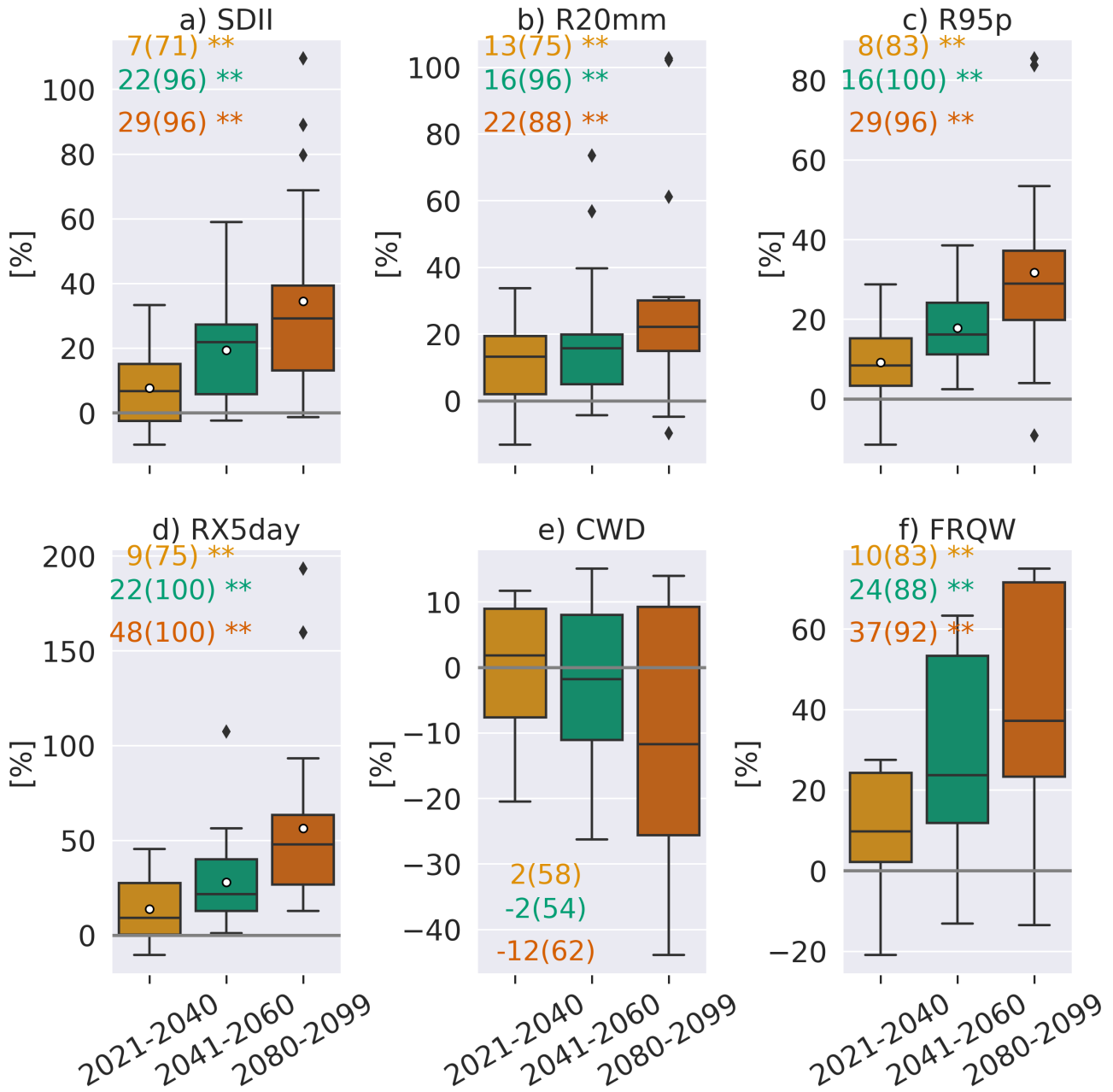


Figure S13. Boxplots of the average of the near-term, mid-term and long-term percentage of changes (relative to the present-day period) in the standard deviation of the rainfall extreme indices over the Guinea Coast. Each boxplot represents the distribution of 24 GCMs. Outliers are indicated by the black marks (losanges). The median (mean) value of each distribution is indicated with a black horizontal bar (a white circle). In each panel, the median value of the change percentages (and the percentage of agreement in parentheses) are indicated for each period, with the same color as the associated boxplot. The two stars indicate more than two-third agreement on the sign of the EnsMedian change among the 24 GCMs. The percentage of changes are computed at each grid point before performing the averages over Guinea Coast.

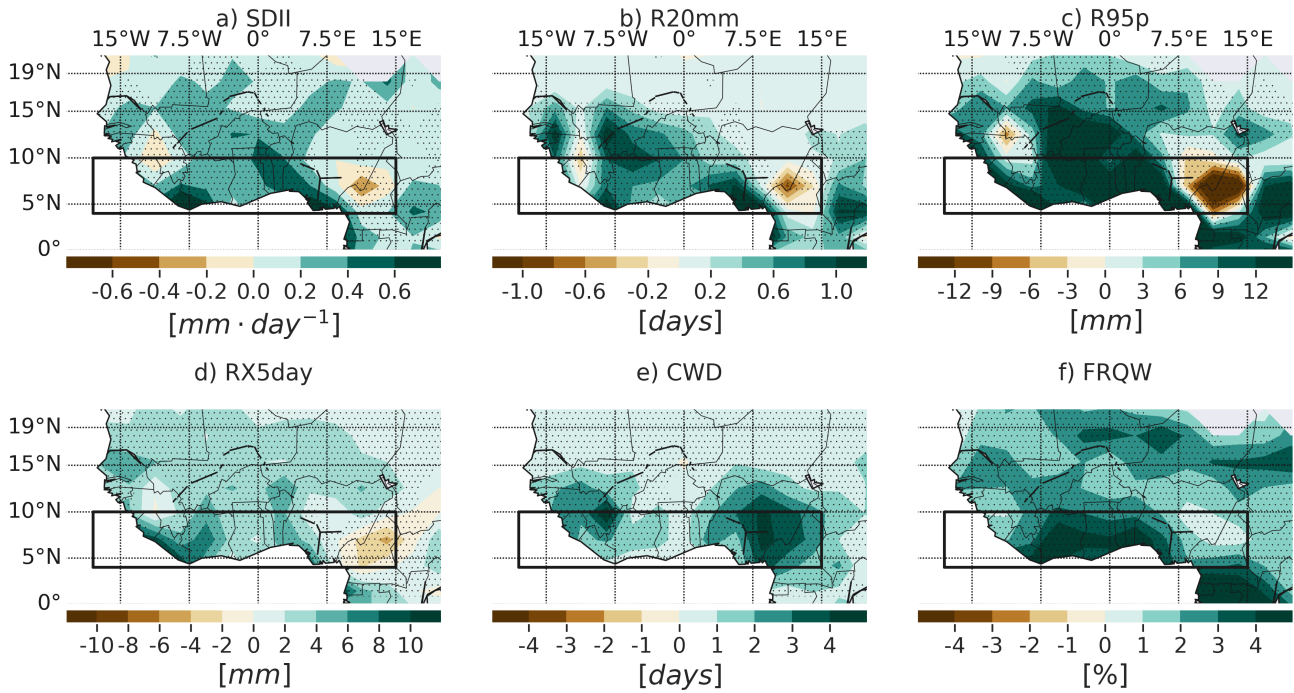


Figure S14. EnsMedian of the JAS observed rainfall extreme indices (from six different sources) regressed onto the standardized JAS AEM SST index (from HADISST dataset) over the 1995-2014 period. The stippling represents grid points where at least 4 data agree on the sign of the regression coefficient. The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region.

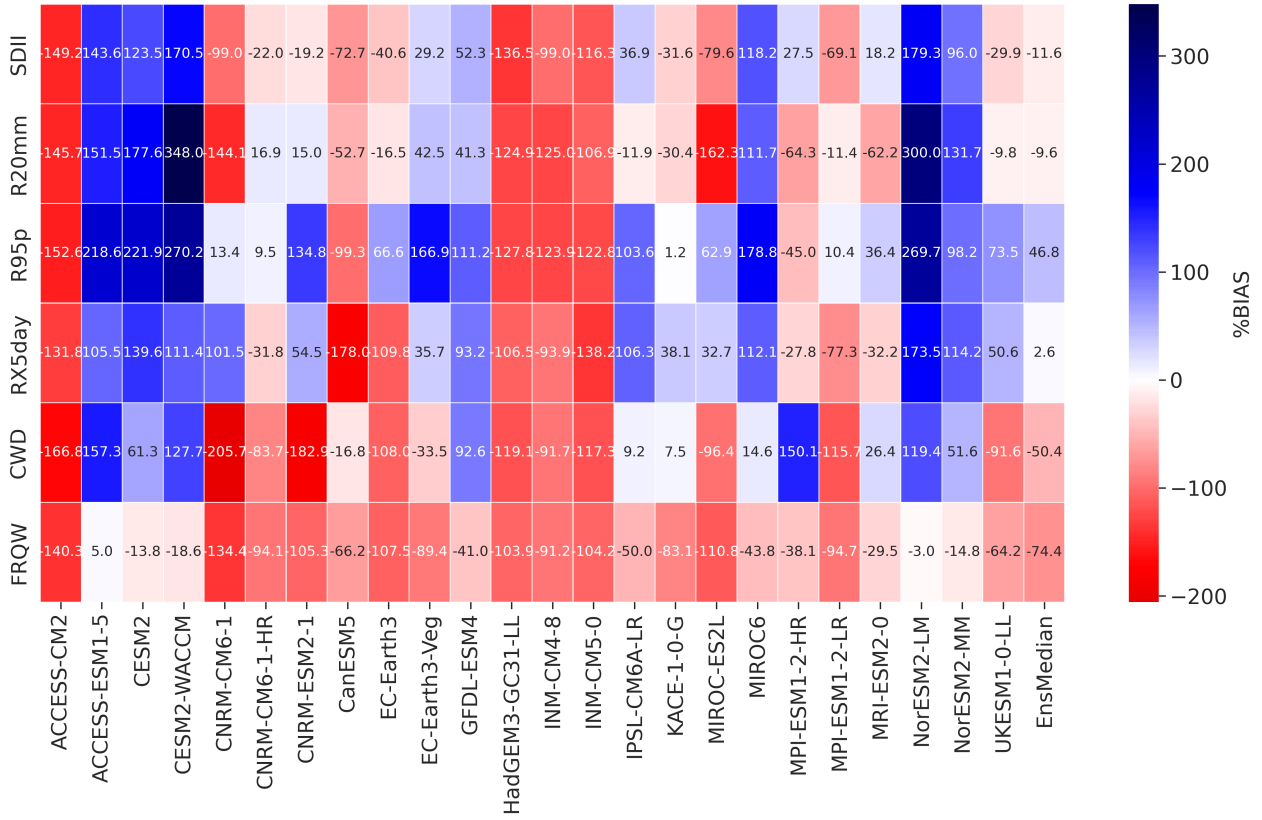


Figure S15. Performance metric of the individual GCM and the 24 GCMs EnsMedian in representing six different extreme rainfall indices: median values of %BIAS across six different observations.

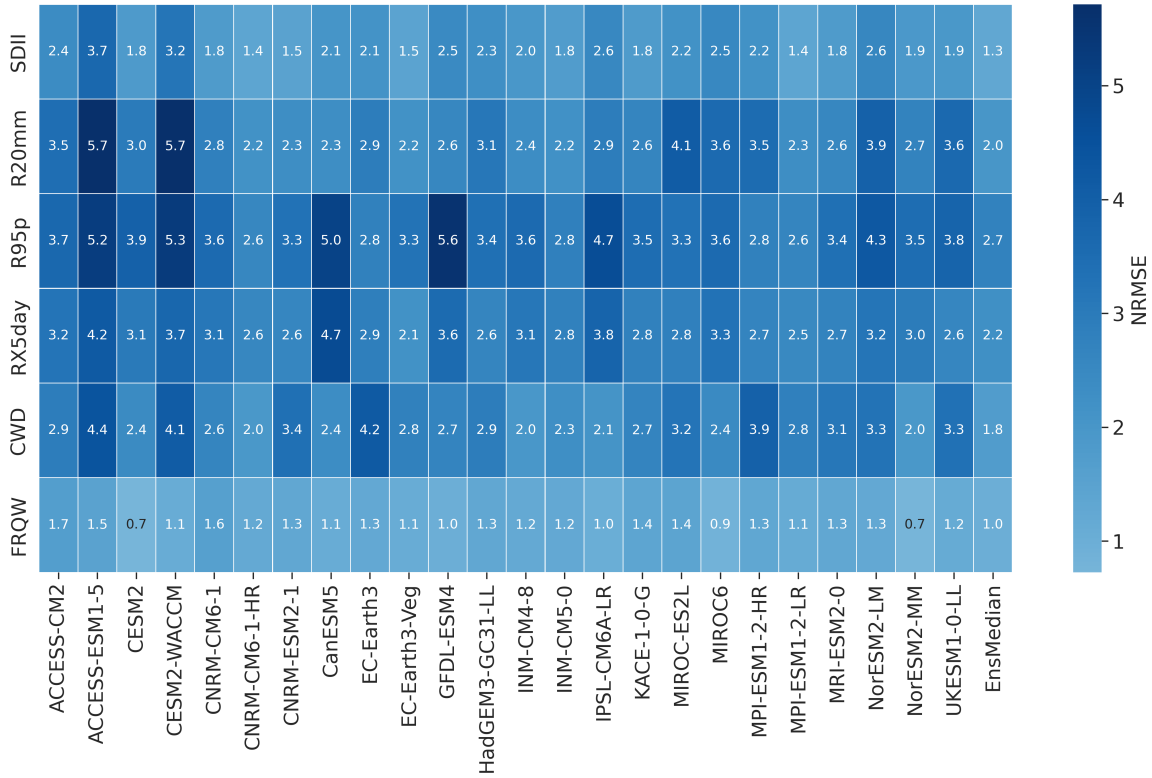


Figure S16. Performance metric of the individual GCM and the 24 GCMs EnsMedian in representing six different extreme rainfall indices: median values of NRMSE across six different observations.

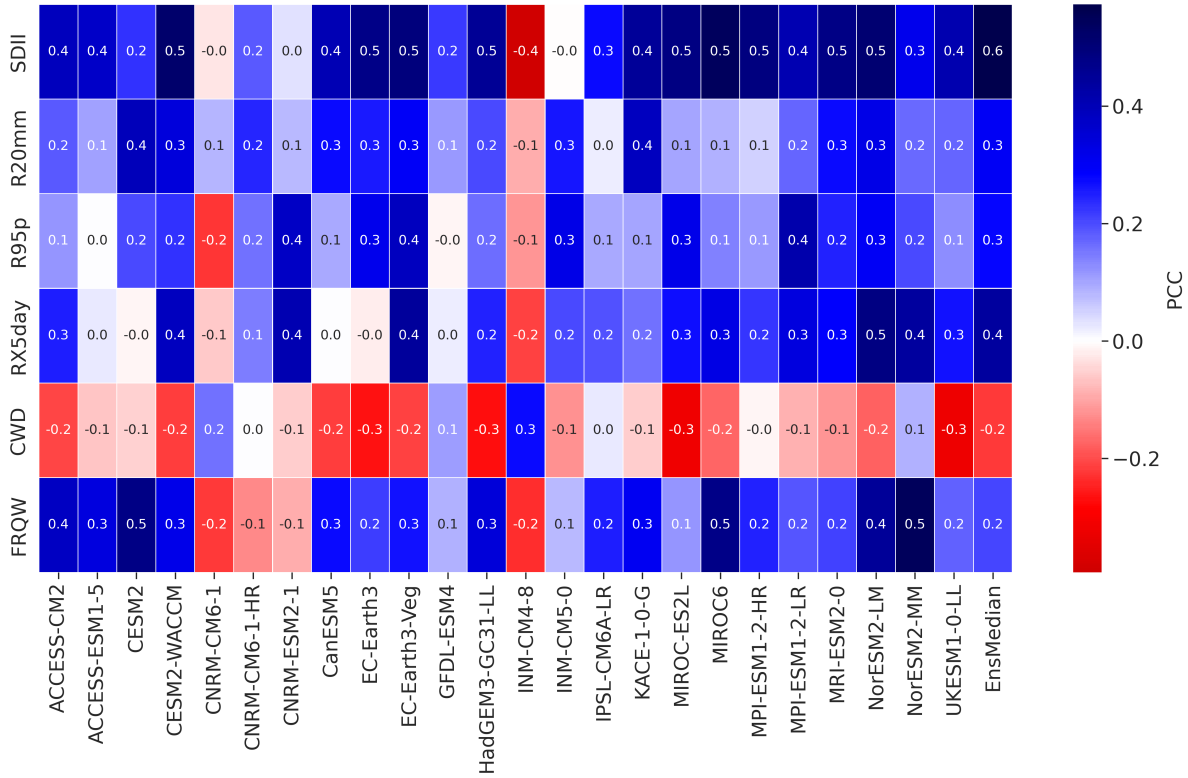


Figure S17. Performance metric of the individual GCM and the 24 GCMs EnsMedian in representing six different extreme rainfall indices: median values of PCC across six different observations.

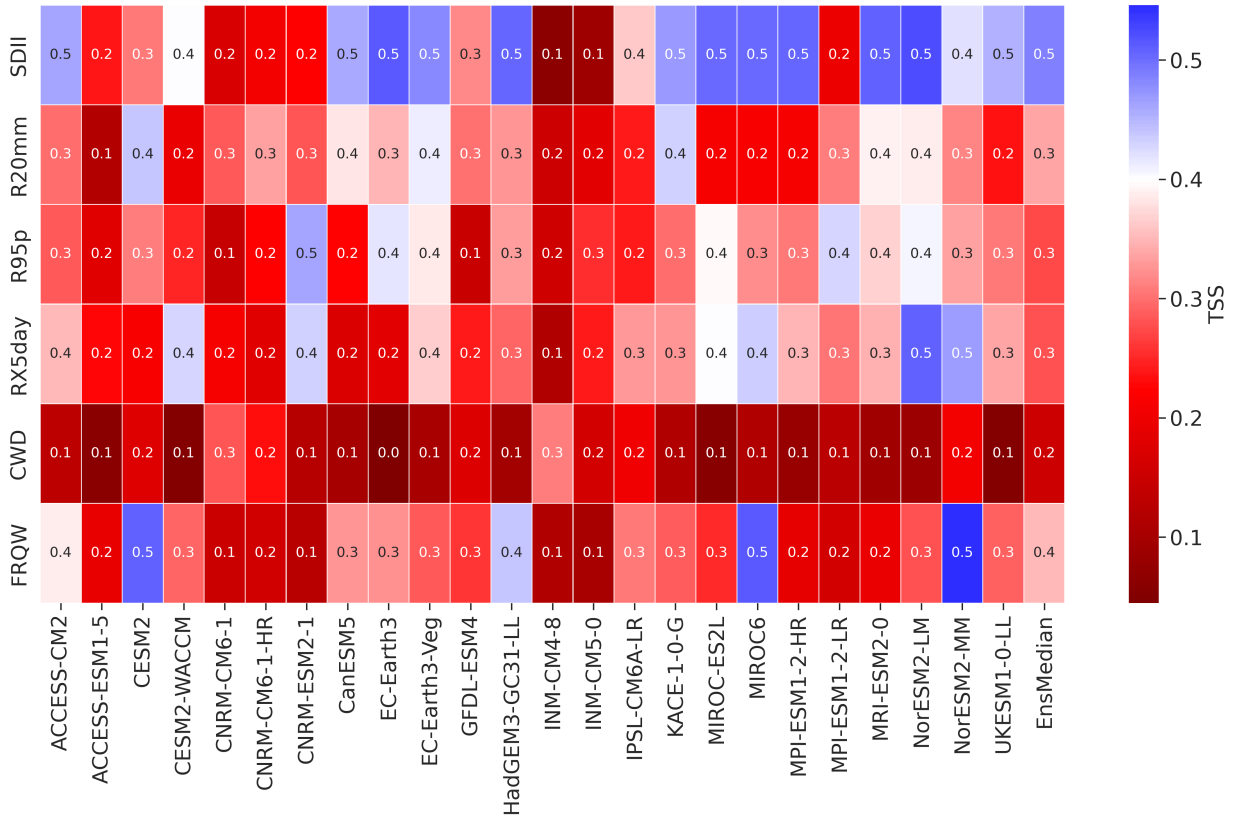


Figure S18. Performance metric of the individual GCM and the 24 GCMs EnsMedian in representing six different extreme rainfall indices: median values of the TSS across six different observations.

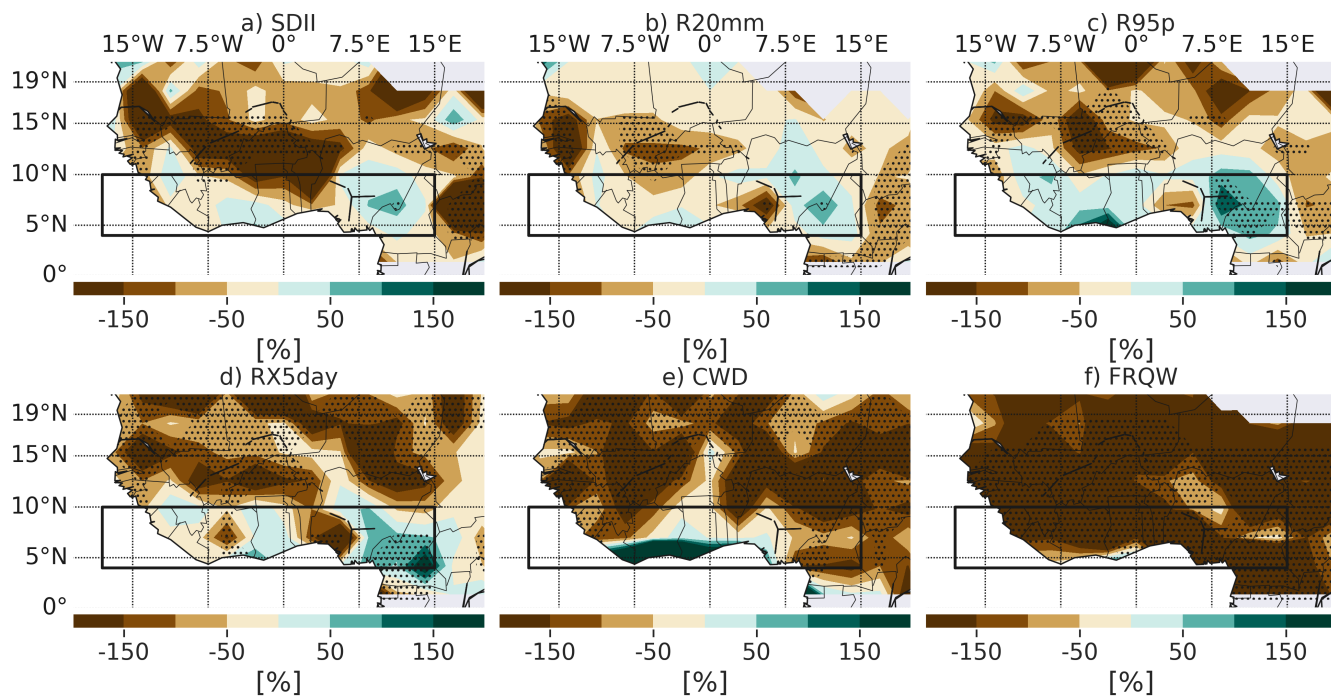


Figure S19. Spatial distribution of the EnsMedian bias percentage relative to the interquartile range of the six observations patterns for the JAS regression patterns of the extreme rainfall indices related to one standard deviation of the Atlantic equatorial mode SST index over 1995-2014. In total, there are six observations \times 24 models = 144 different biases. The stippling indicates regions where two-third of the biases agree on the sign of the EnsMedian of the 144 biases. The black rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region.

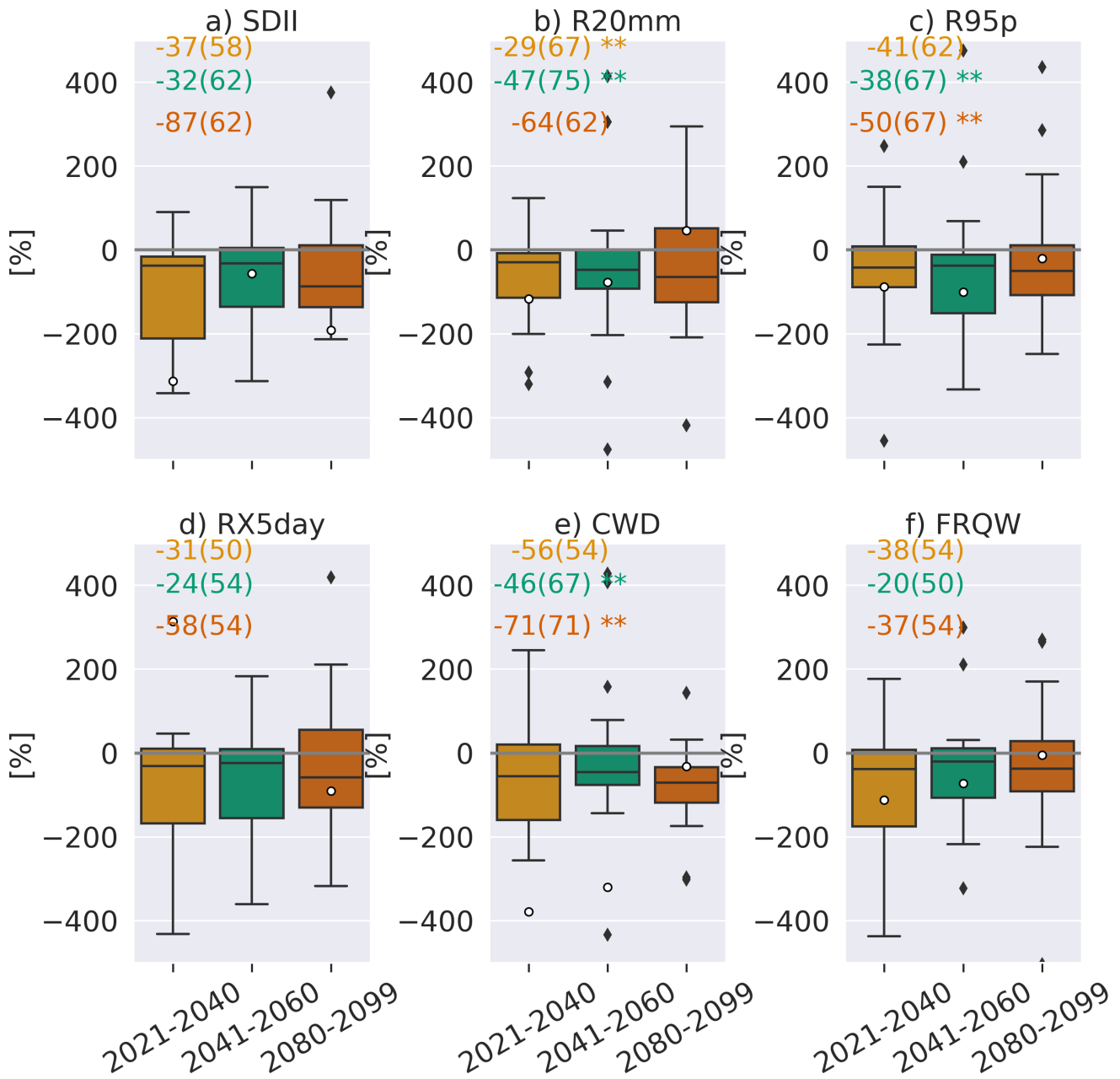


Figure S20. Near-term, mid-term and long-term percentage of changes in the Guinea Coast area-average of the JAS extreme rainfall responses to one standard deviation of the JAS AEM index. Each boxplot represents the distribution of 24 GCMs. Outliers are indicated by the black marks (losanges). The median (mean) value of each distribution is indicated with a black horizontal bar (a white circle). In each panel, the median value of the change percentages (and the percentage of agreement in parentheses) are indicated for each period, with the same color as the associated boxplot. The two stars indicate more than two-thirds agreement on the sign of the EnsMedian change among the 24 GCMs. These changes are computed from the average of the regression coefficients over Guinea Coast for each period.

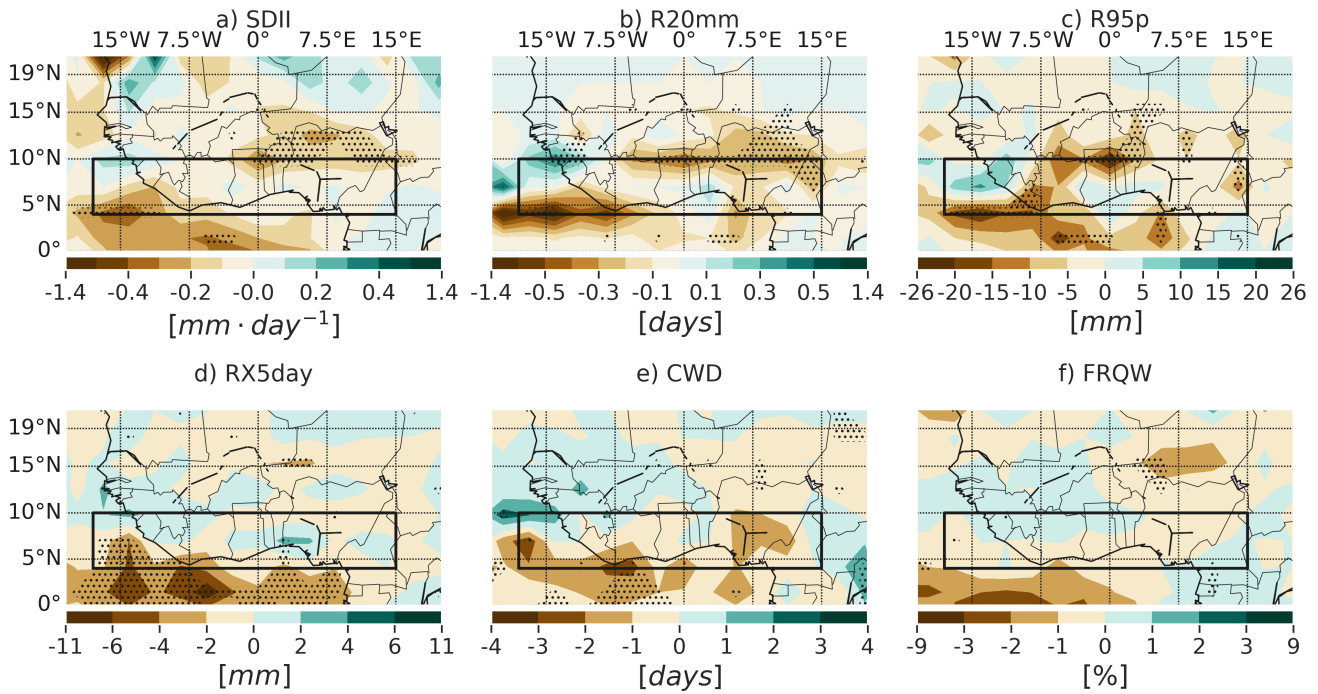


Figure S21. Near-term changes in the regression patterns of the JAS extreme rainfall indices associated with the standardized JAS AEM SST index (2021-2040 minus 1995-2014). The stippling indicates grid points where two thirds of the models agree on the sign of the change.

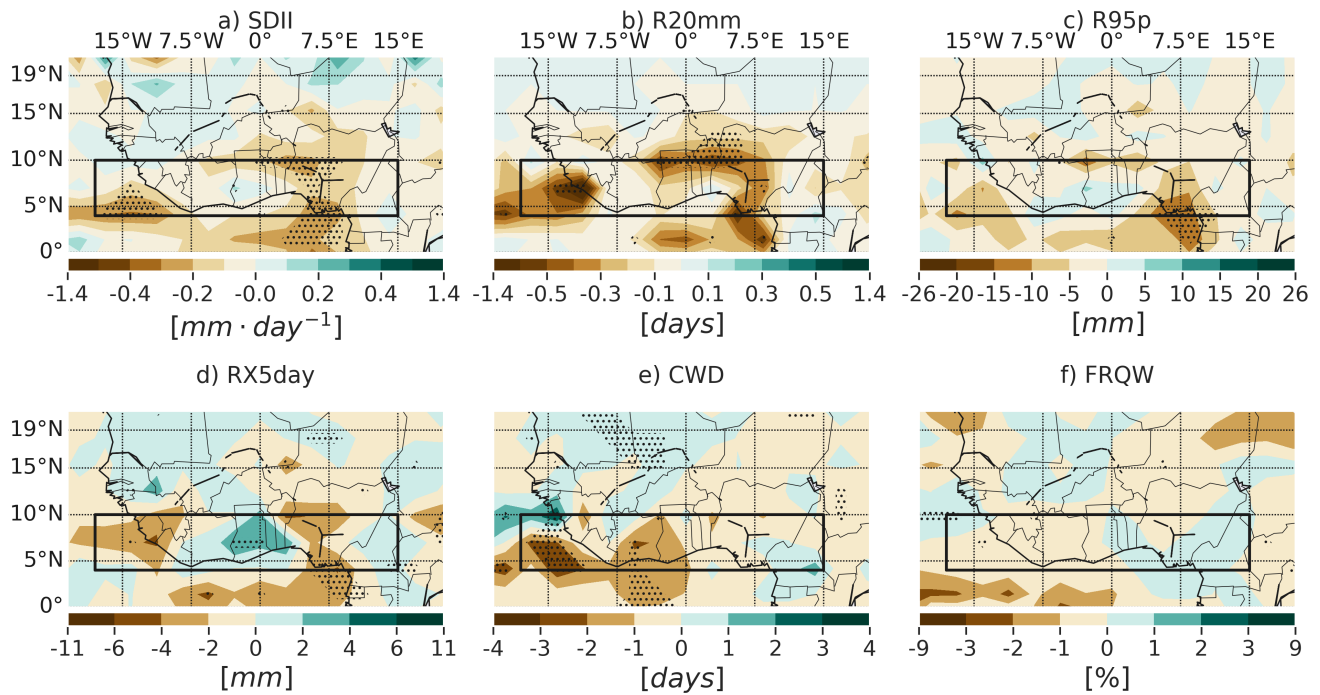


Figure S22. Mid-term changes in the regression patterns of the JAS extreme rainfall indices associated with the standardized JAS AEM SST index (2041-2060 minus 1995-2014). The stippling indicates grid points where two thirds of the models agree on the sign of the change.

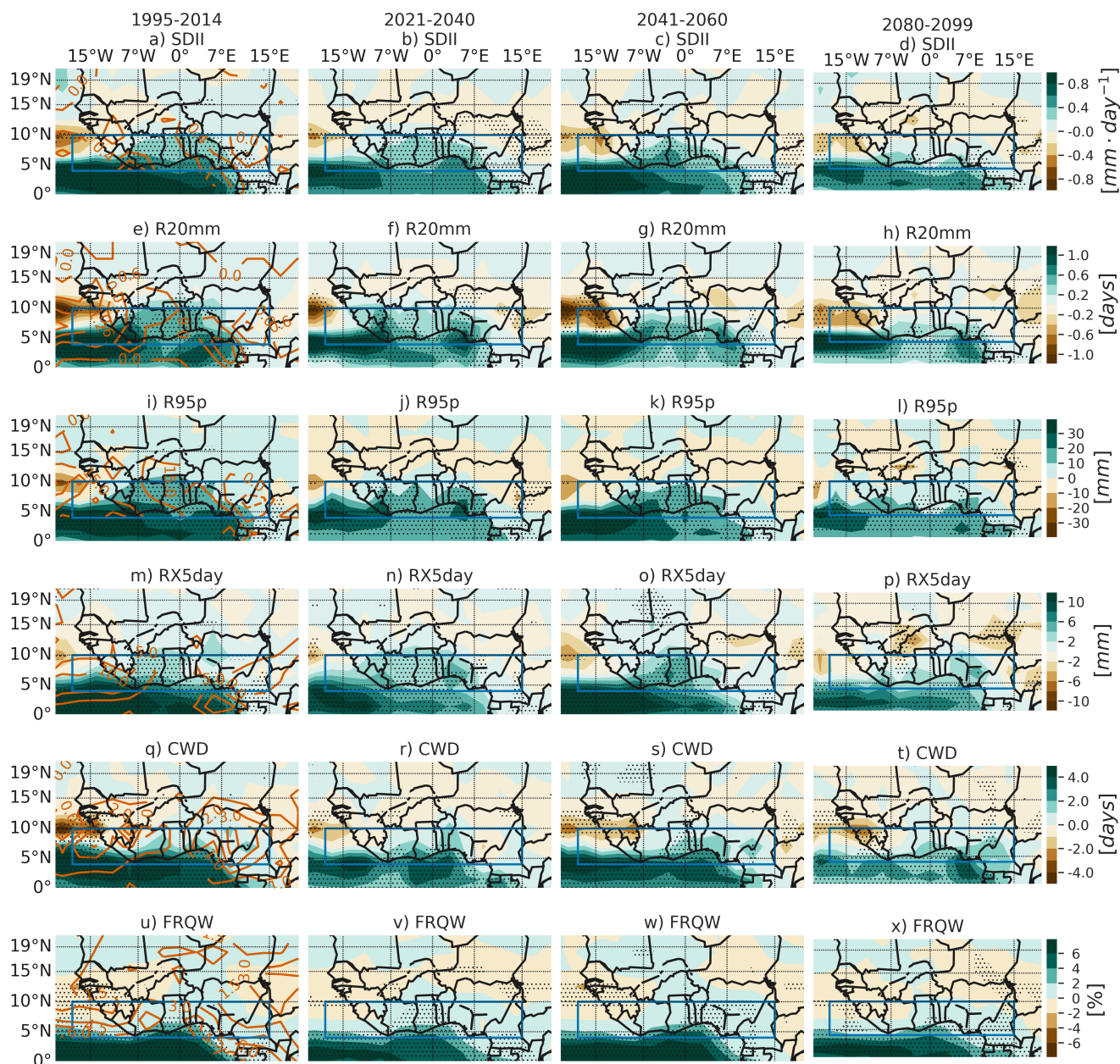


Figure S23. Maps of the JAS rainfall extreme indices regressed onto the standardized JAS AEM SST index over the 1995-2014, 2021-2040, 2041-2060 and 2080-2099 periods. The stippling represents grid points where two thirds of the models agree on the sign of the EnsMedian regression coefficient across 24 GCMs. Contours in the 1995-2014 panels indicate the multi-observation median values of the regression coefficients from six different rainfall datasets. The blue rectangles indicate the Guinea Coast region.