

The impact of lateral boundary forcing in the CORDEX-Africa ensemble over southern Africa

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Abstract

The region of southern Africa (SAF) is among the most exposed climate change hotspots and is projected to experience severe impacts on multiple economical and societal sectors. For this reason, producing reliable projections of the expected impacts of climate change is key for local communities. In this work we use a set of 19 regional climate models (RCMs) performed in the context of the Coordinated Regional Climate Downscaling Experiment (CORDEX) – Africa and a set of 10 global climate models (GCMs) participating in the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5), that were used as the driving GCMs in the RCM simulations. We are concerned about the degree to which RCM simulations are influenced by their driving GCMs, with regards to monthly precipitation climatologies, precipitation biases and precipitation change signal, according to the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) 8.5 for the end of the 21st century. We investigate the degree to which RCMs and GCMs are able to reproduce specific climatic features over SAF and over three sub-regions, namely the greater Angola region, the greater Mozambique region and the greater South Africa region. We identify that during the beginning of the rainy season, when regional processes are largely dependent on the coupling between the surface and the atmosphere, the impact of the driving GCMs on the RCMs is smaller, compared to the core of the rainy season, when precipitation is mainly controlled by the large-scale circulation. In addition, we show that RCMs are able to counteract the bias received by their driving GCMs, hence, we claim that the cascade of uncertainty over SAF is not additive, but indeed the RCMs do provide improved precipitation climatologies. The fact that certain bias patterns over the historical period (1985-2005) identified in GCMs are resolved in RCMs, provides evidence that RCMs are reliable tools for climate change impact studies over SAF.

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38 1 Introduction

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40 The region of southern Africa (SAF) is among the most exposed climate change hotspots (Diffenbaugh and Giorgi,
41 2012), and is projected to experience severe impacts on multiple economical and societal sectors (Conway et al., 2015;
42 Masipa, 2017; Shew et al., 2020). Poverty, food insecurity and high levels of malnutrition (Misselhorn and Hendriks,
43 2017) render SAF a region particularly vulnerable to the impacts of climate change (Casale et al., 2010; Luan et al.,
44 2013; Wolski et al., 2020). In addition, the population’s reliance on rain-fed agriculture makes strategic planning
45 necessary as it aims to mitigate the impact of climate change on local communities.

46 Global climate models (GCM) participating in the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) (Taylor
47 et al., 2012) project a significant decline in annual precipitation over SAF (IPCC and Stocker, 2013), with the most
48 pronounced changes projected under representative concentration pathway 8.5 (RCP8.5) (Sillmann et al., 2013). This
49 reduction is also identified in the regional climate model (RCM) simulations performed in the context of the
50 Coordinated Regional Climate Downscaling Experiment (CORDEX) – Africa domain (Nikulin et al., 2012; Giorgi
51 and Gutowski, 2015). More specifically according to CORDEX-Africa simulations, annual precipitation is expected
52 to decline by up to 50% by the end of the 21st century (Pinto et al., 2018), while duration of dry spells is projected to
53 increase (Dosio et al., 2019). Despite this, extreme rain events are expected to increase in frequency and intensity
54 (Pinto et al., 2016; Abiodun et al., 2019). Nevertheless, for a global warming level of 2 °C, certain parts of SAF
55 (northern Angola, Zambia, northern Mozambique and eastern South Africa) are projected to experience precipitation
56 increase during specific times of the year (Maúre et al., 2018).

57 The question of whether or not RCMs produce demonstrable added value relative to their driving GCMs, has often
58 fueled debate between the RCM and GCM modelling communities (Lloyd et al., 2020). The outcome of the debate is
59 not binary. The literature provides ample evidence that there is indeed evidence of added value in RCMs, but it is
60 dependent on the region ~~examined~~, on the season, and the climate mechanisms that are at play (Luca et al.,
61 2016, Feser et al., 2011). RCM ensembles such as those in CORDEX-Africa endeavor to provide added value, by
62 dynamically downscaling historical and scenario simulations originating from coarse resolution GCMs (Dosio et al.,
63 2019). The added value in RCM simulations arises as a result of their higher horizontal resolution (<50 km), which
64 makes it possible for atmospheric waves and synoptic scale disturbances to be represented in a more realistic manner.

65 An additional aspect that further contributes towards this end, is the more accurate representation of land surface
66 characteristics (topography, land use etc.) in RCMs (Di Luca et al., 2013). Moreover, the physics of an RCM can be
67 targeted for processes specific to the region it is being run for, giving it a local advantage over GCMs that may have
68 had their physics developed for global applications. Nevertheless, RCMs also are accompanied by a set of model
69 deficiencies ~~of their own~~ that affect the final output of the downscaled data (Boberg and Christensen, 2012). In Sørland
70 et al. (2018) it is reported that although RCM biases are affected by the driving GCMs, they are nonetheless not
71 additive, a result that counters the common “cascade of uncertainty” criticism. Still, uncertainty arising from both the
72 driving GCM (Moalafhi et al., 2017) and the downscaling RCM affect the final product (Nikulin et al., 2012), and it
73 is important to diagnose the sources and causes of these errors (Déqué et al., 2012).

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74 Attributing this uncertainty into its respective components is key for a better assessment of the reliability of RCM
75 simulations (Christensen and Kjellström, 2020). GCMs provide the lateral boundary conditions to the RCMs and each
76 RCM receives, absorbs, and modulates the received atmospheric forcing in different ways, depending on the numerical
77 formulations and parameterization schemes employed. Discerning between the signal received by the GCM and the
78 signal produced by the RCM is critical for assessing the robustness with which different modelling systems are able
79 to accurately reproduce observed climatologies and generate reliable estimates of the expected climate change. In
80 addition, the manner in which an RCM responds to the atmospheric forcing provided by a GCM can be region specific
81 (Rana et al., 2020; Wu and Gao, 2020) (e.g., regions located in close proximity to the boundaries of the RCM domain
82 can be more severely affected by the driving GCMs, than regions at the center of the RCM domain or there can be
83 region specific response around complex topography versus lowlands). Also, the degree to which an RCM is
84 influenced by the driving GCM can be process specific. For instance, when there is a strong large-scale circulation
85 signal that is introduced to an RCM domain (e.g. advective mid-latitude storms), it is quite likely that the RCM will
86 be able to reproduce the information that is received at its lateral boundaries, however, the GCM's impact on the RCM
87 simulation may also vary depending on how far a region lies from the RCM domain boundaries (Kim et al., 2020). If,
88 however, the large-scale forcing is weak, then the atmospheric conditions simulated within the RCM domain are more
89 dependent on the dynamic and thermodynamic processes employed by the RCM (e.g. convective thunderstorms).
90 In this work we aim to assess whether it is the RCMs or their driving GCMs that dominate monthly precipitation
91 climatology, monthly precipitation bias and climate change signal over SAF. We take into account the region-specific
92 characteristics of this question by analyzing SAF and three subregions, namely southeastern Angola, Mozambique
93 and South Africa. We also consider the different atmospheric processes that are in play over each region by analyzing
94 monthly climatologies. Precipitation over SAF results from various atmospheric processes that are highly variable
95 during the rainy season (Oct-Mar), so by performing the analysis on a monthly basis, we are able to indirectly study
96 how certain processes are reproduced by GCM and RCM simulations. In order to differentiate between the signal
97 emanating from the RCMs and their driving GCMs, we use the analysis of variance (ANOVA) in both the GCM and
98 the RCM ensembles (Déqué et al., 2007, 2012). Since the information provided by RCMs will eventually be used by
99 both climate and non-climate scientists, especially in light of climate change impact studies, we aim to provide some
100 information with regards to how much each RCM output is affected by its driving GCM and what climate change
101 signals are identified consistently in both RCMs and GCMs.

102

103 **2 Material and methods**

104 **2.1 Data**

105 The data analyzed in the current work ~~are displayed in Table 1 and~~ consist of RCM simulations performed in the
106 context of CORDEX-Africa, a set of simulations performed in the context of CMIP5, and the CHIRPS satellite rainfall
107 product (Funk et al., 2015). More specifically, the CORDEX-Africa simulations selected are those that were driven
108 by more than two GCMs (at least three simulations available using the same RCM driven by at least three different
109 GCMs) and for which there are runs available for both the historical and the future period under RCP8.5. All RCMs

110 employed a relaxation zone which was either 10 grid-points wide (CCLM4-8-17.v1) or eight points wide (RCA4.v1
 111 and REMO2009.v1). Relaxation in all RCM simulations was performed using Davie's method (Davies, 1976, 1983).
 112 The CMIP5 GCMs selected are the ones that were used to drive the CORDEX-Africa simulations. All RCM and GCM
 113 simulations were retrieved from the Earth System Grid Federation (<https://esgf-data.dkrz.de/projects/esgf-dkrz/>). The
 114 CHIRPS rainfall product is used for calculating precipitation biases in both the CORDEX-Africa and CMIP5
 115 ensembles and was retrieved from: <https://www.chc.ucsb.edu/data/chirps>. CHIRPS is available at 5 km spatial
 116 resolution and for the calculation of biases it was remapped to the coarser resolution grid using conservative
 117 remapping. A fact that is commonly obscured is that observational datasets are often considered as "ground truth"
 118 however, they also are subject to multiple sources of uncertainty, caused by the underlying station datasets used, the
 119 statistical algorithms employed in spatially interpolated methods, or the algorithms employed in satellite rainfall
 120 products (Karypidou et al., 2022) (Le Coz and van de Giesen, 2020). More specifically, over southern Africa, it was
 121 found that gauge-based products employing spatial interpolation methods displayed high uncertainty over regions
 122 where the underlying station network was scarce, mainly over the Angola region and the northern parts of SAF
 123 (Karypidou et al., 2022). In addition, it was found that this attribute was inherited by all rainfall satellite products that
 124 were using direct merging techniques with gauge-based datasets. Here, we display monthly precipitation during the
 125 historical period (1985-2005) across four observational datasets, given in Table 1. More specifically, we use the
 126 CRUv4.06 dataset (Harris et al., 2020), which is a purely gauge-based product (employing station data and a spatial
 127 interpolation algorithm to provide a spatially continuous gridded product), ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020), which is a
 128 reanalysis product, CHIRPS (Funk et al., 2015), which is a satellite rainfall product, and finally, MSWEP (Beck et al.,
 129 2017) which is a product merging station data, satellite data and dynamic model outputs. All datasets have been
 130 analyzed using monthly mean values. The results are displayed in Fig. 1. As shown, there is a substantial agreement
 131 among them both with regards to the spatial and temporal pattern of monthly precipitation over southern Africa.

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133 Table 1 Gauge-based, satellite, reanalysis and merged precipitation products analyzed over the study region using
 134 monthly mean precipitation for the period 1985-2005.

Dataset	Resolution	Frequency	Type	Period
CRU TS4.06	0.5°	Monthly total	Gauge-Based	1901-2021
MSWEP	0.1°	3-hourly	Merged product	1979-present
CHIRPS.v2	0.05°	Daily totals	Satellite	1981-present
ERA5	~0.25°	Hourly	Reanalysis	1979-present

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 136 Our analysis is split into two sections: the qualitative and the quantitative part. In the qualitative part, we aim to
 137 identify if RCMs exhibit systematic behavior relative to their driving GCMs. For the quantitative part, we aim to
 138 quantify the degree to which monthly precipitation climatologies, biases and climate change signals are affected by
 139 the downscaled RCMs or by the GCMs driving the RCM simulations. For this purpose, we employ an ensemble of 19
 140 RCM simulations driven by 10 GCMs and the driving GCMs that were used to provide the lateral boundary conditions
 141 to the RCMs. From the historical simulations we use the period 1985-2005 and from the projection simulations we
 142 use the period 2065-2095 under RCP8.5. All CORDEX-Africa simulations are available at ~50 km horizontal
 143 resolution and are shown in Table 1, while the horizontal resolution for the driving GCMs is provided in Table 32.
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145 **Table 12** Input RCM and GCM simulations used. The CORDEX-Africa simulations are given in the columns. The
 146 CMIP5 GCMs used as driving fields are given in the rows.

	CCLM4-8-17.v1	RCA4.v1	REMO2009.v1
CanESM2		√	
CNRM-CM5	√	√	
EC-EARTH	√	√	√
HadGEM2-ES	√	√	√
MIROC5		√	√
MPI-ESM-LR	√	√	√
IPSL-CM5A-LR			√
IPSL-CM5A-MR		√	
CSIRO-Mk3-6-0		√	
GFDL-ESM2M		√	
NorESM1-M		√	

147

148 **Table 23** Horizontal resolution of the CMIP5 GCMs used as driving fields in the CORDEX-Africa simulations.

GCMs	Latitude Res.	Longitude Res.	References
CanESM2	2.7906 °	2.8125 °	(CCCma, 2017)
CNRM-CM5	1.40008 °	1.40625 °	(Voltaire et al., 2013)
CSIRO-Mk3-6-0	1.8653 °	1.875 °	(Jeffrey et al., 2013)
EC-EARTH	1.1215 °	1.125 °	(Hazeleger et al., 2010)
GFDL-ESM-2M	2.0225 °	2.5 °	(Dunne et al., 2012)
HadGEM2-ES	1.25 °	1.875 °	(Collins et al., 2011)
IPSL-CM5A-MR	1.2676 °	2.5 °	(Dufresne et al., 2013)
IPSL-CM5A-LR	1.894737 °	3.75 °	
MIROC5	1.4008 °	1.40625 °	(Watanabe et al., 2010)
MPI-ESM-LR	1.8653 °	1.875 °	(Giorgetta et al., 2013)
NorESM1-M	1.894737 °	2.5 °	(Bentsen et al., 2013)

149

150 2.2 Methods

151 The study region and subregions considered are depicted in **Fig. 12**. The subregions are selected based on particular
 152 phenomena and processes that are of importance for the seasonal cycle of precipitation. More specifically, Region A
 153 (hereafter: **SAF-All**) encompasses the entire SAF region and is defined as the area extending from 10 °E to 42 °E and
 154 from 10 °S to 35 °S. Region B (hereafter: **Angola region**) was selected to capture the main region of interest with
 155 regards to the Angola Low (AL) pressure system (Howard and Washington, 2018) and covers the area extending from
 156 14 °E to 25 °E and from 11 °S to 19 °S. Region C (hereafter: **East Coast**) covers the eastern coastline, Mozambique and
 157 surrounding countries and extends from 31 °E to 41 °E and from 10 °S to 28 °S. Lastly, we define the **SAfr region**
 158 **Region D**, which covers much of South Africa and extends from 15 °E to 33 °E and from 26 °S to 35 °S.

159 One of the primary synoptic scale features controlling precipitation over SAF is the Angola Low (AL) pressure system
 160 (Reason and Jagadheesha, 2005; Lyon and Mason, 2007; Crétat et al., 2019; Munday and Washington, 2017; Howard
 161 and Washington, 2018), which has a distinct seasonal cycle throughout the rainy season (Oct-Mar). This motivates its

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162 selection as a subregion for our study. The AL exhibits heat low characteristics during Oct-Nov and tropical low
163 characteristics during Dec-Feb (Howard and Washington, 2018). This suggests that during Oct-Nov, since
164 precipitation is thermally induced and thus tightly dependent on land-atmosphere interactions, it will be the RCMs
165 that are dominant in controlling precipitation processes. As the rainy season progresses, the AL changes to a tropical
166 low pressure system and its formation is controlled by the large-scale circulation that is characterized by easterly
167 winds from the Indian Ocean that enter SAF via the Mozambique channel. Since precipitation during Dec-Feb is
168 caused by ~~the tropical low phase of the Angola low pressure system, which is the monthly aggregate of frequent~~
169 ~~transient low pressure systems crossing southern African~~ ~~transient low pressure systems~~ (Munday and Washington,
170 2017; Howard and Washington, 2018; Howard et al., 2019), we hypothesize that the impact of the driving GCM fields
171 during Dec-Feb is enhanced.

172 In addition, the wider area of Mozambique is a region where the majority of tropical cyclones/depressions make
173 landfall over continental SAF. The occurrence of transient low-pressure systems is enhanced during the core of the
174 rainy season (Dec-Feb) and thus we are interested in identifying whether the impact of the driving GCMs is dominant
175 during Dec-Feb. Also, since according to (Muthige et al., 2018), the number of landfalling tropical cyclones under
176 RCP8.5 is expected to decline in the future, we are interested in examining whether the impact of the driving GCMs
177 to the RCM simulations will be altered under future conditions. Hence, ~~the East Coast region~~ ~~Region-C~~ is used as a
178 region indicative of the landfalling tropical cyclones/depressions. Lastly, we examine the area encompassing South
179 Africa (~~hereafter: SAfrRegion-D~~) due to its strong land-ocean gradients, complex topography and strong seasonal
180 variations in rainfall zones.

181

182 2.2.1 Monthly precipitation climatology and bias

183 In order to assess whether or not the RCMs improve the monthly precipitation climatologies relative to their driving
184 GCMs, we employ a method initially described in Kerkhoff et al. (2015) and later employed by Sørland et al. (2018),
185 which displays in a scatterplot form the RCM increment as a function of the GCM bias. More specifically, the RCM
186 increment is described as the difference of each RCM simulation from its driving GCM (RCM-GCM). The RCM
187 increment is plotted against the GCM bias (GCM-OBS). This plot displays whether or not the RCM increment
188 counteracts the GCM bias. If the RCM increment reduces the GCM bias, then points are expected to lie along the y=-
189 x line (negative correlation). On the contrary, if the RCM increment increases the GCM bias, then points are expected
190 to lie along the y=x line (positive correlation). If the RCM increment and the GCM bias are independent, then points
191 are expected to be scattered randomly.

192

193 2.2.2 Climate change signal

194 The climate change signal (CCS) is identified as the monthly mean difference between the future period (2065-2095)
195 minus the historical period (1985-2005). As an exploratory method of inspecting the differences between each RCM
196 simulation from its respective driving (GCM) for monthly precipitation during both the historical and the future period,
197 we subtract the downscaled precipitation field (RCM_{DRI}) from its driving (DRI), as in Eq. 1:

$$DIFF = RCM_{DRI} - DRI$$

Eq. 1

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If $DIFF > 0$ (monthly precipitation), then we assume that the RCM enhances precipitation, relative to its driving GCM, while if $DIFF < 0$ then we assume that the RCM reduces precipitation, relative to its driving GCM. This method is employed in the qualitative part of the analysis.

2.2.3 Analysis of variance

Additionally, we employ an ANOVA decomposition (Déqué et al., 2007, 2012), in order to understand whether it is the RCMs or their respective driving GCMs that are responsible for controlling precipitation over the historical (1985-2005) period and the future period (2065-2095). For this purpose, we use two quantities, namely the “inter-RCM” variance and the “inter-GCM” variance, as in (Déqué et al., 2012). More specifically, the “inter-RCM variance” is the variance between all the RCM simulations that are driven by the same GCM. Subsequently, all variances obtained for all driving GCMs are averaged.

$$RCM_{var} = \frac{1}{N_{RCM}} \sum_{RCM_j} (P_{ij} - \bar{P}_j)^2 \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

The quantity P_{ij} is the monthly precipitation obtained from all RCMs (j) that were driven by the same GCM (i). The quantity \bar{P}_j is the mean monthly precipitation obtained by all RCMs (j) that share a common driving GCM (i). As a final step, the average of all variances is calculated.

$$Inter_RCM_{var} = \frac{\sum GCM_{ij}}{N} \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

Similarly, the “inter-GCM” variance describes the variance between all the GCMs that were used to drive a single RCM and then averaged over all the variances obtained for all driven RCMs. [N refers to all available simulations contributing to either the inter-RCM or inter-GCM variance.](#)

$$GCM_{var} = \frac{1}{N_{GCM}} \sum_{GCM_i} (P_{ij} - \bar{P}_i)^2 \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

Likewise, the average of all variances is calculated.

$$Inter_GCM_{var} = \frac{\sum RCM_i}{N} \quad \text{Eq. 5}$$

Both “inter-RCM” and “inter-GCM” variances are normalized by the total variance obtained for all months, as in (Vautard et al., 2020), so that all values, both for historical and projection runs and RCM and GCM simulations are comparable. A schematic of the process described above is provided in **Fig. S1**.

3 Results

The October and January precipitation climatologies for the period 1985-2005 are displayed in **Fig. 23** and **Fig. 34**, respectively. We use October and January climatologies, because these 2 months may be considered representative of the distinctive processes controlling precipitation over SAF (see section 2.2). We avoid using seasonal means, since the temporal averaging of precipitation often obscures attributes that are better identified on a monthly level. The remaining months of the rainy season are shown in the supplementary material. More specifically, we use October as it is the month that heralds the onset of the rainy season and is often associated with weak precipitation and convective processes that are mainly due to excess surface heating. Also, it is during October that the most intense formations of the heat low expression of the AL are observed. Likewise, we use January as it represents the core of the rainy season,

228 with very strong large-scale precipitation, mainly from the southeastern (SE) part of SAF, through transient synoptic
229 scale low pressure systems.

230 As it is displayed in **Fig. 23**, precipitation during October occurs in the northwestern (NW) part and the SE part of
231 SAF. Precipitation in the NW part is associated with the southward migration of the rainband (Nicholson, 2018), while
232 precipitation over the SE part is associated with an early formation of the tropical temperate troughs (TTTs). As it is
233 evident from **Fig. 23**, CCLM4-8-17.v1 reduces precipitation amounts (approximately 4-5 mm/d) in both the NW and
234 SE parts of SAF, relative to the lateral boundary forcing it receives. On the contrary, RCA4.v1 systematically enhances
235 precipitation amounts, regardless of the driving GCM. Also, precipitation according to RCA4.v1 displays a very
236 localized spatial pattern with very strong spatial heterogeneity. ~~This may be attributed to the fact that the topography
237 is not smoothed enough and leads to high precipitation values over grid boxes with high elevation (Van Vooren et al.,
238 2019). This attribute is indicative of specific structural model biases related to how high-resolution elevation affects
239 precipitation in RCA.v1 (Van Vooren et al., 2019).~~ This is particularly evident in the mountainous region over coastal
240 Angola. REMO2009.v1 also enhances precipitation amounts regardless of the driving GCM, however in a much more
241 spatially homogeneous way than RCA4.v1.

242
243 As it is shown in **Fig. 34**, high precipitation amounts during January are observed over the northern and eastern regions
244 of SAF. During January, differences among the driving GCMs become more pronounced, however, all models agree
245 on the dry conditions observed over the southwestern (SW) part of SAF. With regards to the downscaled products,
246 CCLM4-8-17.v1 produces high precipitation amounts over the central part of northern SAF but displays varying
247 amounts of precipitation over the coastal parts, depending on the driving GCM. RCA4.v1 downscales precipitation in
248 a very localized pattern and enhances precipitation over areas with steep terrain. Also, precipitation over the lake
249 Malawi region is particularly enhanced, regardless of the driving GCM. REMO2009.v1 displays similar precipitation
250 amounts to its driving GCMs, however it enhances precipitation over the coastal part of Angola and Mozambique and
251 yields excess precipitation over lake Malawi, when it is driven by HadGEM2-ES and IPSL. The monthly climatologies
252 for the rest of the rainy season months are shown in the supplementary material (**Fig. S2 – S5**).

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254
255
256 In **Fig. 45** the monthly precipitation bias for October over SAF is shown. Biases are calculated using the CHIRPS
257 satellite rainfall product as a reference. With the exception of IPSL-CM5A (LR/MR) and CanESM2, all other GCMs
258 display a consistent wet bias that ranges from 0.1 – 30 mm/d (in isolated areas), with most values over SAF falling
259 0.1-3 mm/d. Overall, the same pattern generally holds for RCA4.v1 and REMO2009.v1, while CCLM4-7-18.v1
260 displays a systematic dry bias that reaches 2 mm/d, when forced with EC-EARTH, MPI-ESM-LR and HadGEM2-ES.
261 More specifically, concerning RCA4.v1, the region where the highest wet bias is observed is over [the Angola](#)
262 [regionRegion B \(the Angola Low region\)](#) and over the NW parts of coastal Angola. The dry bias regions in RCA4.v1
263 are identified over the northeastern (NE) and southern parts of SAF and they rarely exceed -1.5 mm/d.

264 The monthly precipitation biases for January over SAF are shown in **Fig. 56**. There is a prevailing wet bias identified
265 in almost all GCMs that typically reaches 3 - 3.5 mm/d, however, in MIROC5, NorESM and GFDL-ESM2M the
266 biases exceed 5 mm/d over a major part of SAF. Another feature that systematically appears in GCMs is a dry bias
267 over the NE part of SAF. This bias pattern is also identified in almost all RCMs with a systematic wet bias over central
268 and western SAF and a region of dry bias in the NE part. More specifically, in RCA4.v1 and REMO2009.v1, there is
269 a dry bias over the NE and the southern coast of SAF, while in CCLM4-7-18.v1 the dry bias over the eastern region
270 extends inland to cover almost the whole of Mozambique. Another interesting feature is identified around the Angolan
271 coast, where wet biases exceed 5 mm/d, while over an adjacent region there is a strip of dry biases that reaches 2
272 mm/d. Considering the abrupt increase in elevation and the steep escarpment over the coastal Angola-Namibia region,
273 this is possibly caused by local circulation driving excess moisture transport from the Atlantic Ocean and overly
274 aggressive orographically triggered precipitation on the windward side of the topography (wet bias strip), that leads
275 to dry conditions in the lee side (dry bias strip) (Howard and Washington, 2018). It is noted that the wet bias over the
276 coastal region is identified in most of the RCA4.v1 simulations and in all REMO2009.v1 simulations, however, the
277 dry bias in the lee side is seen in CCLM4-7.18.v1 only. The monthly precipitation biases for the rest of the rainy
278 season months ~~is~~are shown in the supplementary material (**Fig. S6 – S9**). Monthly precipitation biases averaged over
279 southern Africa (SAF-All) and the three subregions examined are displayed in Fig. S10.

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281 A more detailed look into specific subregions over SAF where certain climatological features and processes are at
282 play, can help gain a more in-depth insight of how the precipitation biases are distributed during each month of the
283 rainy season and whether or not the RCMs display any improvement relative to their driving GCMs. For this reason,
284 we plot the RCM increments (RCM-GCM) as a function of the GCM biases (GCM-OBS). The results for October
285 over SAF and the 3 subregions are displayed in **Fig. 67**. In general, all points are identified close to the $y=-x$ line,
286 hence there is a tendency that RCMs systematically counteract GCM biases. There are nonetheless substantial
287 differences between the four regions. For instance, over SAF-All Region A (SAF region) the IPSL-MR GCM
288 has a wet bias equal to almost 1 mm/day, which is counteracted by RCA by an increment of -0.4 mm/month. Other
289 RCA simulations when driven by HadGEM2-ES, CNRM-CM5 or EC-EARTH, display an RCM increment similar to
290 that of the GCM bias, hence RCMs mitigate the GCM bias. Over the Angola region Region B (Angola Low region)
291 most of the RCMs display an RCM increment that is nearly equal to the GCM bias. Similar conclusions are drawn for
292 Regions C and D also. The RCM increments as a function of the GCM biases for January are shown in **Fig. 78**. For
293 all regions except the SAfr region Region D (South Africa) points are lying closely to the $y=-x$ line, hence overall,
294 RCM increments counteract the GCM biases. The scatterplots for the rest of the months of the rainy season are shown
295 in the supplementary material (**Fig. S10-S11 – S13S14**). In general, although precipitation in RCMs is strongly
296 dependent on the driving GCMs, the RCM increments are anticorrelated to the GCM biases. The anticorrelations are
297 particularly strong for the Dec-Mar period of the rainy season over SAF-All region Region A, B and C, but not over
298 D (**Fig. S14S15**).

299 In Fig. 89 the mean analysis of variance of all RCMs driven by the same GCM and of all GCMs driving the same
300 RCM is shown. Values are spatially averaged for southern Africa and the 3 subregions examined (land pixels only)
301 and refer to the period 1985-2005. In [SAF-All regionRegion-A](#), monthly precipitation during October and November
302 is dominated by the RCMs, while during Jan-Mar, it is the GCMs that play a dominant role in formulating precipitation
303 over SAF. This is indicative of the impact that RCMs exert on the formulation of precipitation during Oct-Nov-Dec
304 and the fact that the contribution from the GCMs becomes dominant during Jan-Feb-Mar. The fact that the contribution
305 of RCMs during Oct-Nov-Dec dominates can be attributed to the fact that precipitation during these months is the
306 result of regional processes that are largely dependent on the coupling between the surface and the atmosphere. The
307 land-atmosphere coupling is a characteristic resolved by the RCMs, through mechanisms described in land surface
308 models, planetary boundary layer schemes, convection schemes etc., making the contribution of the large scale drivers
309 from the GCM less important. However, during Jan-Feb-Mar we observe that the contribution from the RCMs is
310 reduced, and it is the GCMs that control the monthly precipitation variability. This can be attributed to the fact that
311 during Jan-Feb-Mar it is the large-scale circulation that modulates precipitation over SAF and the GCMs control the
312 transient synoptic scale systems that enter SAF. [Over the Angola regionIn-Region-B](#), the pattern is similar, however,
313 October and November precipitation are closer to the diagonal, indicating an almost equal contribution by both RCMs
314 and GCMs. Also, Dec-Feb move closer to the diagonal, nevertheless, precipitation during March is mainly formulated
315 by GCMs. [In-Over the East Coast regionRegion-C](#), October remains equally influenced by both RCMs and GCMs,
316 however November and December are dominated by the influence of the RCMs. [In-Over the SAfr regionRegion-D](#),
317 precipitation for all months except October is influenced by GCMs.

318 In Fig. 910 the climate change signal for October precipitation over SAF is depicted. All GCMs agree that October
319 precipitation will decline by approximately 2 mm/d over the regions that experience precipitation during this period,
320 namely the NW and SE parts of SAF. In addition, some GCMs display a minor precipitation increase (0 - 0.5 mm/d)
321 in the SW part of SAF, while some others display a slightly larger (1.5 mm/d) precipitation increase over the eastern
322 parts of South Africa. Moreover, it is seen that the precipitation change signal is replicated by almost all the
323 downscaling RCMs, nevertheless, there are some considerable differences between the RCMs and their driving GCM.
324 More specifically, RCA4.v1 in almost all simulations, displays a larger reduction of the precipitation change signal
325 relative to its driving GCM, both in magnitude and in spatial extent. Precipitation changes in CCLM4-8-17.v1 seem
326 to follow closely the driving GCMs, with a severe exception when CNRM-CM5 is used (the NW part of SAF
327 experiences precipitation decline almost 4 mm/d larger than in the driving GCM). The case for when CCLM4-8-17.v1
328 is driven by CNRM-CM5 may be partly caused by the fact that the historical simulation had erroneously used lateral
329 boundary conditions from a different simulation member of CNRM-CM5 (Vautard et al., 2020). In REMO2009.v1, a
330 precipitation decline region is identified in the NW part of SAF and a minor precipitation increase over eastern South
331 Africa is identified. This pattern for REMO2009.v1 appears to be consistent, regardless of the driving GCM, which
332 could be partly explained by the fact that precipitation during October is thermally driven, and thus the impact of the
333 driving GCMs is not dominant. The precipitation increase in the SE part of SAF is seen over a localized region and
334 could be associated with an increase in the precipitation caused by the Tropical Temperate Troughs (TTTs) (Ratna et
335 al., 2013; Macron et al., 2014; Shongwe et al., 2015).

336 In **Fig. 101** the climate change signal for precipitation during January is displayed. The precipitation change displays
337 a very strong regional heterogeneity. It is also observed that although there is a strong precipitation change signal in
338 all driving GCMs, not all RCMs downscale the signal uniformly. It is also notable that, even among the GCMs, there
339 are substantial differences in the spatial extent and sign of the change. Nevertheless, there are some features that
340 appear in most of the simulations. For instance, almost all GCMs project drying conditions over the SW part of SAF,
341 especially the coastal zone. The precipitation decline is equal to -1 mm/d. This could be explained by a consistent
342 increase in frequency of the Benguela Coastal Low-Level Jet events (Lima et al., 2019; Reboita et al., 2019), causing
343 oceanic upwelling and a subsequent reduction in precipitation. In addition, there is a subset of GCMs that identify a
344 severe precipitation decline over the Angola region that reaches -5 mm/d. Furthermore, in many GCMs a region of
345 precipitation increase is identified, extending from central SAF towards SE SAF. This is particularly identifiable in
346 HadGEM2-ES, and the RCM simulations forced by it. The monthly precipitation changes for the rest of the rainy
347 season months is shown in the supplementary material (**Fig. S15 S16 – S18S19**).

348 In **Fig. 121** the spatial average of the $RCM_{DRI} - DRI$ difference (DIFF) is shown for the whole of SAF (land pixels
349 only). If $DIFF > 0$, it indicates that the RCMs enhance precipitation relative to their driving GCM, while if $DIFF < 0$
350 then RCMs reduce precipitation relative to their driving GCM. As it is shown, DIFF values for October are symmetric
351 around zero and do not exceed the range $(-1) - 1$ mm/d, either for the historical or the future period. Almost symmetric
352 are the DIFF values for November also, however, their spread increases, reaching values that range $(-2) - 2$ mm/d. In
353 both months, CCLM4-7-18.v1 always reduces precipitation amounts relative to the lateral boundary forcing it
354 receives, regardless of the driving GCM or the period examined. During December, the precipitation reduction in all
355 RCMs becomes more pronounced and reaches values equal to -3 mm/d. In January, only 1 RCM enhances
356 precipitation (~ 0.5 mm/d) with all the rest displaying precipitation reduction. During February and March, some
357 positive DIFF values re-appear for some simulations. Overall, there is a strong linear relationship between DIFF in
358 1985-2005 and 2065-2095, which further implies that if an RCM is drier than its driving GCM during the historical
359 period, then it will retain this attribute during the future period also. Nonetheless, we highlight that RCMs preserve
360 precipitation change signal generated by the GCMs. Considering that one primary shortcoming of the GCMs over
361 SAF is their wet bias and that RCMs systematically reduce this bias, we gain increased confidence that RCMs can be
362 reliably used for future projections with regards to precipitation change.

363 In **Fig. 132** the spatial average of the precipitation change signal from RCMs and their driving GCMs relative to 1985-
364 2005 for SAF and the 3 subregions is displayed. Concerning **SAF-All regionRegion-A**, all models during October
365 identify a precipitation reduction at the end of the 21st century that can reach -0.9 mm/d. The precipitation decline
366 signal is also identified during November, indicating a later onset of the rainy season over SAF, as it has already been
367 shown for CMIP5 (Dunning et al., 2018). During December and January there is a variability in the spatial averages
368 of the change signal that ranges from -0.8 to 0.8 mm/d. A similar pattern is also seen for February and March. The
369 distribution of the ensemble members for both RCMs and GCMs in Regions B and C is similar to that of **SAF-All**
370 **regionRegion-A**, however in Regions B and C precipitation change values display a considerably larger spread. **Over**
371 **the SAfr regionIn-Region-D** the climate change signal is symmetric around 0 for all months, except March.

372 The impact the RCMs and GCMs on monthly precipitation for the period 2065-2095 under RCP8.5 is shown in **Fig.**
373 **143**. Regions A and B show a similar behavior as in the historical period (**Fig. 89**), however, over the East Coast
374 region in Region C, precipitation during March is more strongly dominated by GCMs. The same observation holds
375 also over the SAfr region for Region D. In general, regional processes continue to dominate contributions to variability
376 during Oct-Nov, while large scale features dominate during Dec-Mar.

377

378 **3 Discussion and conclusions**

379 In this work we investigated whether it is the RCMs or the driving GCMs that control the monthly precipitation
380 variability, monthly precipitation biases and the climate change signal over southern Africa and how these
381 relationships vary from month-to-month throughout the rainy season. Our work examines monthly precipitation
382 variance caused by the lateral boundary conditions and does not examine parameter and structural uncertainty
383 separately in the multi-RCM and the multi-GCM ensembles analyzed. Towards this end, More specifically, we use an
384 ensemble of 19 RCM simulations performed in the context of CORDEX-Africa and their driving GCMs. According
385 to the literature (Munday and Washington, 2018), precipitation in the CMIP5 simulations is characterized by a
386 systematic wet bias over southern Africa. In the CORDEX-Africa RCM simulations there is also a persistent wet bias,
387 especially during the core of the rainy season (DJF), however, it is of smaller magnitude and of smaller spatial extent,
388 in the RCMs than the GCMs. It is found that all RCMs reduce monthly precipitation compared to their driving GCMs
389 for both historical (1985-2005) and future period (2065-2095) under RCP8.5.

390 Over The Angola region Region B, which encompasses the activity of the Angola Low pressure system (AL) activity,
391 displays the highest wet biases with regards to mean monthly precipitation, among all subregions examined. †The
392 months with the largest wet biases (for the Angola region) are found to be November, while the month with the
393 largest precipitation bias spread is found to be and March. In all months except of October, the CMIP5 GCMs display
394 biases that are approximately 1-1.5 mm/d wetter than the wettest CORDEX-Africa RCM ensemble members.
395 November is the month during which there is a transition of the AL from a heat low phase to a tropical low system,
396 and March indicates the end of the rainy season. Hence, precipitation during the transition months is challenging for
397 both RCMs and GCMs. Over the East Coast region Region C, representing the wider area of over Mozambique, the
398 bias signal is reversed and after January, with most of the models-RCMs displaying a dry bias. Over the SAfr
399 region South Africa (Region D), the majority of models display a consistent wet bias for all months of the rainy season.
400 All models (CMIP5 and CORDEX-Africa) display an intense dry bias in the NE part of SAF, which can be related to
401 the misrepresentation of the moisture transport entering the region from the Indian Ocean (Munday and Washington,
402 2018). In general, although RCMs display an improvement of precipitation biases relative to their driving GCMs, still
403 some bias patterns persist even in RCMs, calling for a process-based evaluation of specific climatological features
404 such as the formulation of the Angola Low and the transport of moisture from the NE part of SAF towards central
405 SAF.

406 More specifically, we found that CCLM4-7-18.v1 produces the smallest bias when the whole of SAF is examined,
407 however, it displays a systematic dry bias over the East Coast region Region C (greater Mozambique region), hence,

408 CCLM4-7-18.v1 should be used with caution over eastern SAF, especially if it is exploited within drought-related
409 climate services. Concerning RCA4.v1, we find a very regionally heterogeneous -almost pixelated- spatial pattern for
410 precipitation, which can be attributed to the sharp topography used (Van Vooren et al., 2019). RCA4.v1, due to the
411 large size of its ensemble, is optimal for analyzing its behavior under different driving GCMs. In general, we find that
412 RCA4.v1 is more prone to follow the signal received from the driving GCMs, contrary to what is observed for
413 CCLM4-7-18.v1. REMO2009.v1 presents a compromise between the behaviors of RCA4.v1 and CCLM4-7-18.v1.
414 It is highly recommended that when RCM simulations are used for the whole of SAF or a subregion thereof, the spread
415 and statistical properties of all available RCMs and their driving GCMs should be examined and an ensemble of RCMs
416 should be employed based on their ability to reproduce key climatic features of the region of interest. Increasing
417 evidence is provided that not all models are fit for constructing an ensemble mean (or median) for all regions (Her et
418 al., 2019; Raju and Kumar, 2020; Tebaldi and Knutti, 2007). Lastly, a very important aspect when the calculation and
419 characterization of biases is discussed for GCMs and RCMs, is that biases are assessed based on a satellite or gauge-
420 based product, which are often erroneously regarded as “the ground truth” (Harrison et al., 2019; Alexander et al.,
421 2020). Of course, the climate community is bound to work with the state-of-the-science products that are available,
422 however, biases and errors in the “observational datasets” should be kept in sight-mind when the bias of climate models
423 is discussed. In this work we use the CHIRPS precipitation product, as it has been shown to outperform other satellite
424 precipitation products (Toté et al., 2015; Ayehu et al., 2018; Dinku et al., 2018).

425
426 Concerning the climate change signal, there is a strong agreement among all GCMs and RCMs that precipitation
427 during October will decrease by $(-0.1) - (-1)$ mm/d, a fact ~~which is~~ associated with a projected later onset of the rainy
428 season, which is further ~~associated-linked withby~~ a northward shift of the tropical rain belt (Dunning et al., 2018;
429 Lazenby et al., 2018) ~~(Dunning et al., 2018)~~. The topic of reduced early rainfall over southern Africa for the end of
430 the 21st century under all emission scenarios/pathways has been examined extensively for the CMIP3 and CMIP5
431 GCM ensembles (Seth et al., 2011; Cook and Vizu, 2021; Lazenby et al., 2018; Howard and Washington, 2019). A
432 common observation in all CMIP5 GCMs for the early rainy season by the end of the 21st century is that instability
433 over southern Africa reduces, surface temperature increases, and the heat low phase of the Angola Low pressure
434 system is strengthened (Howard and Washington, 2019). However, rainfall decline in the CMIP5 ensemble over
435 southern Africa should be additionally considered in the context of the systematic precipitation biases already
436 diagnosed in the historical simulations (Munday and Washington, 2018; Howard and Washington, 2019). Considering
437 that the systematic wet precipitation bias is significantly reduced in the CORDEX-Africa ensemble relative to their
438 driving CMIP5 GCMs (Karypidou et al., 2022), we gain confidence that future precipitation projections according to
439 the CORDEX-Africa ensemble provide a more plausible future scenario. For the rest of the months, the results are
440 variable, indicating the need for a multi-model approach, when climate change impacts are assessed. A feature that is
441 identified in some GCMs and is transferred to the downscaling RCMs, is a precipitation increase that extends from
442 the central SAF region towards the southeast. This result is consistent with previous work that shows an increase in
443 frequency of landfalling cyclones along the eastern seaboard of SAF (Muthige et al., 2018). Since tropical cyclones

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444 are a particular cause of severe flooding events over the region of Mozambique, there is an urgent need for planning
445 and mitigation strategies over the region.

446 ~~Lastly, Concerning~~ precipitation variability and whether it is the RCMs or the driving GCMs that dominate monthly
447 precipitation, we find that, as expected, over the whole of SAF (~~SAF-All regionRegion-A~~), October and November
448 are dominated by RCMs, while during Dec-Mar it is the GCMs that mainly formulate the precipitation climatologies.
449 This is explained by the fact that after December there is a strong large-scale forcing, which is provided to the RCMs
450 by the lateral boundary conditions given through the GCMs. The results for the historical period are comparable to
451 that for future projections.

452 ~~Lastly, it is imperative to highlight that the impact of the lateral boundary conditions on RCM simulations comprise~~
453 ~~only a portion of the potential sources of uncertainty in the CORDEX-Africa ensemble examined, therefore attributing~~
454 ~~entirely the variance of RCM simulations to the driving GCMs would be erroneous. Therefore, we mention that~~
455 ~~uncertainty in RCM simulations can have a plethora of sources that are mainly categorized as parameter or structural~~
456 ~~uncertainty (Günther et al., 2020; Howland et al., 2022). These types of uncertainty sources may relate to the~~
457 ~~parameterization schemes employed by each RCM or assumptions and numerical choices involved in the dynamics~~
458 ~~of each specific RCM. However, since within CORDEX-Africa only a limited number of variables is being made~~
459 ~~available to the community, it would be impossible to meticulously comment on all possible sources of uncertainty~~
460 ~~and access the impact of their variance on monthly precipitation.~~

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461 *Code and data availability*

462 For the data processing and statistical analysis we used the R Project for Statistical Computing ([https://www.r-](https://www.r-project.org/)
463 [project.org/](https://www.r-project.org/)), the Climate Data Operators (CDO) (<https://code.mpimet.mpg.de/projects/cdo/>) and Bash programming
464 routines. Processing scripts are available via ZENODO under DOI: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5569984>. CMIP5
465 and CORDEX-Africa precipitation data were retrieved from the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) portal
466 (<https://esgf-data.dkrz.de/projects/esgf-dkrz/>). The Climate Hazards Group InfraRed Precipitation with Station data
467 (CHIRPS) products were retrieved from: <https://www.chc.ucsb.edu/data/chirps>.

468

469 *Supplement*

470 The supplement related to this article is available online.

471

472 *Author contribution*

473 MCK, SPS and EK designed the research. MCK performed the analysis and prepared the manuscript. SPS, EK, LS
474 and GN edited the manuscript and provided corrections.

475

476 *Competing interests*

477 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

478

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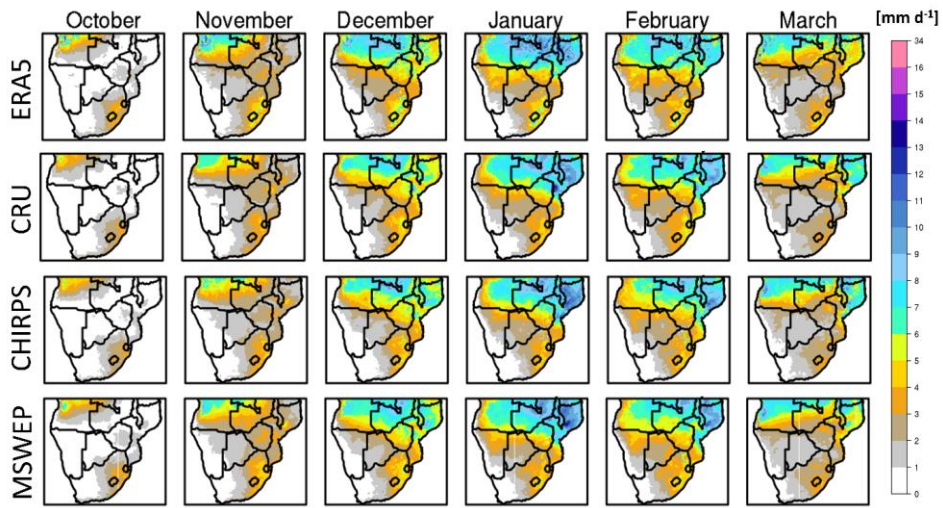
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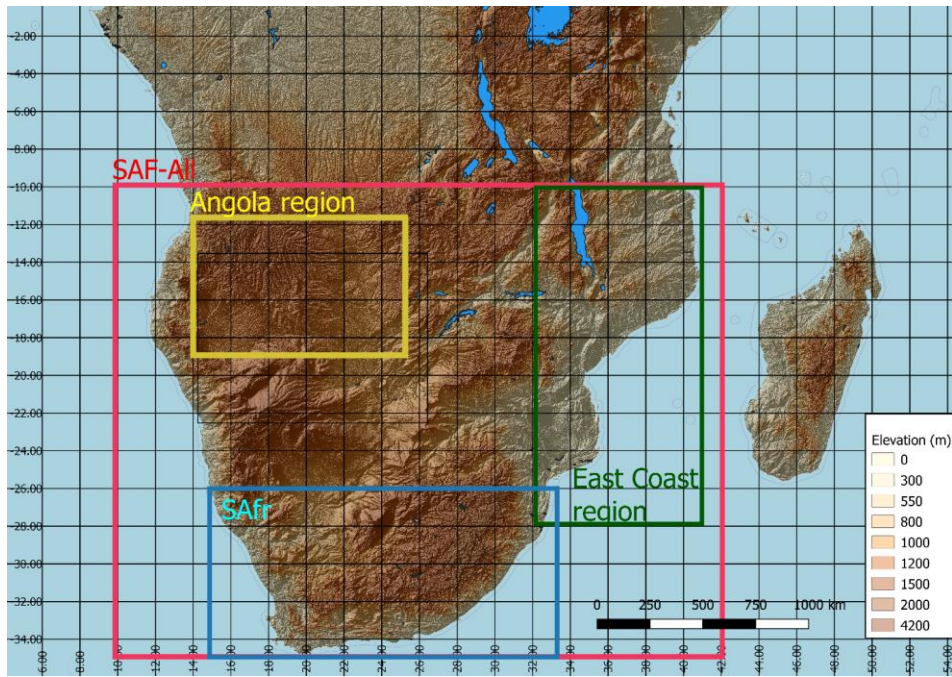
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713 [Figure 1. Monthly mean precipitation climatology for the period 1985-2005.](#)

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715 **Figure 21.** Study region and subregions over southern Africa.

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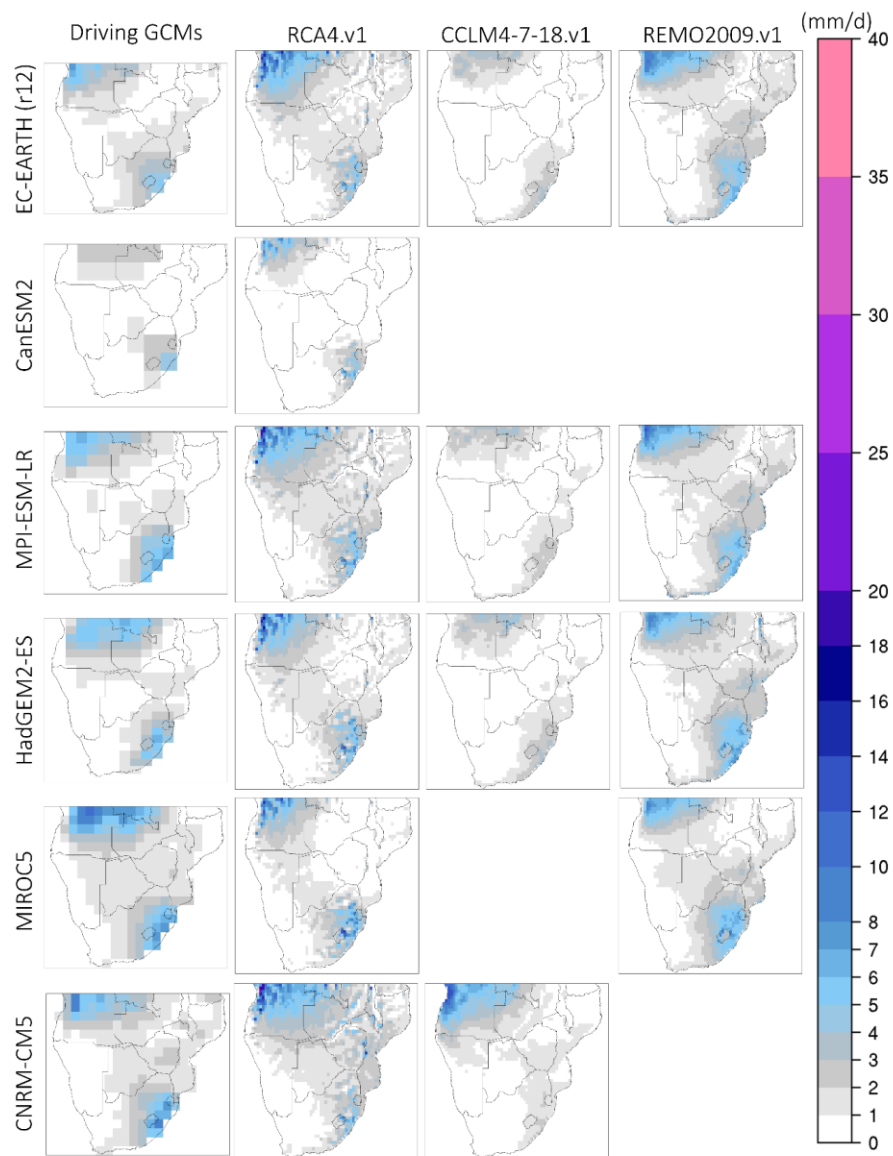
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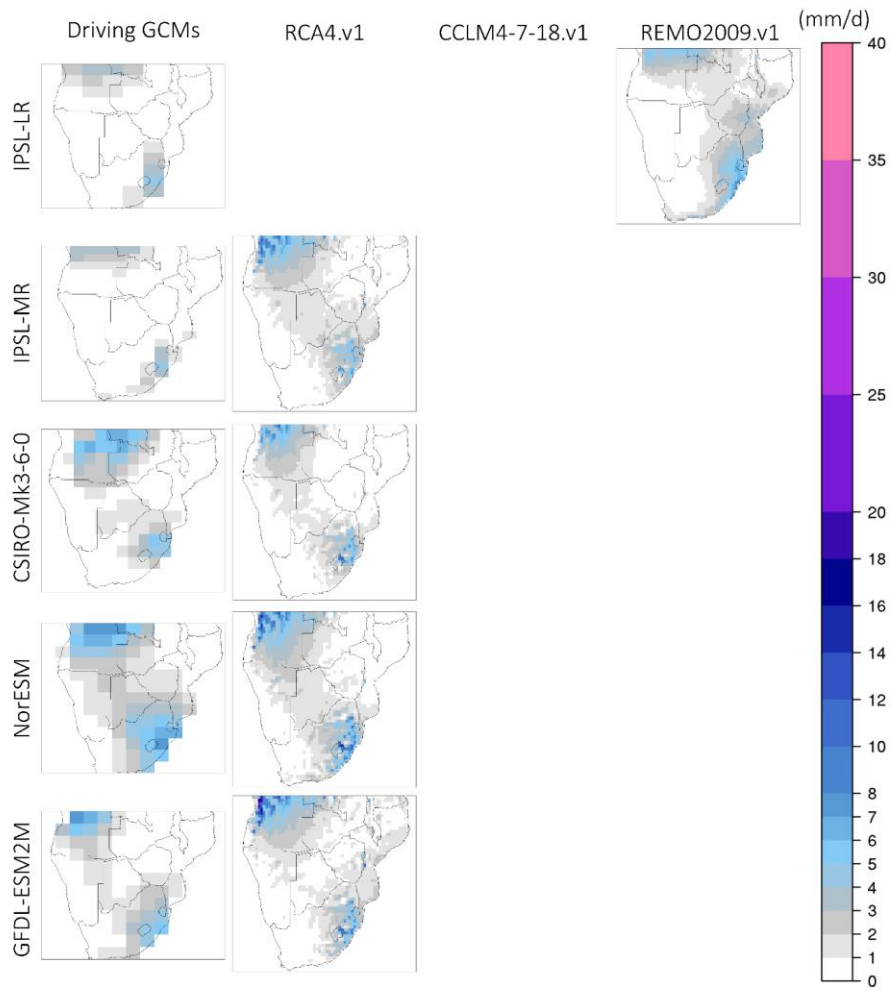
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 728 **Figure 23.** Monthly precipitation climatologies (mm/d) during October for the period 1985-2005. First column (from
 729 the left) displays precipitation from the driving GCMs and columns 2-4 display the downscaled precipitation output
 730 from RCA4.v1, CCLM4-8-17.v1 and REMO2009.v1.
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733 **Figure 32.** Continued.

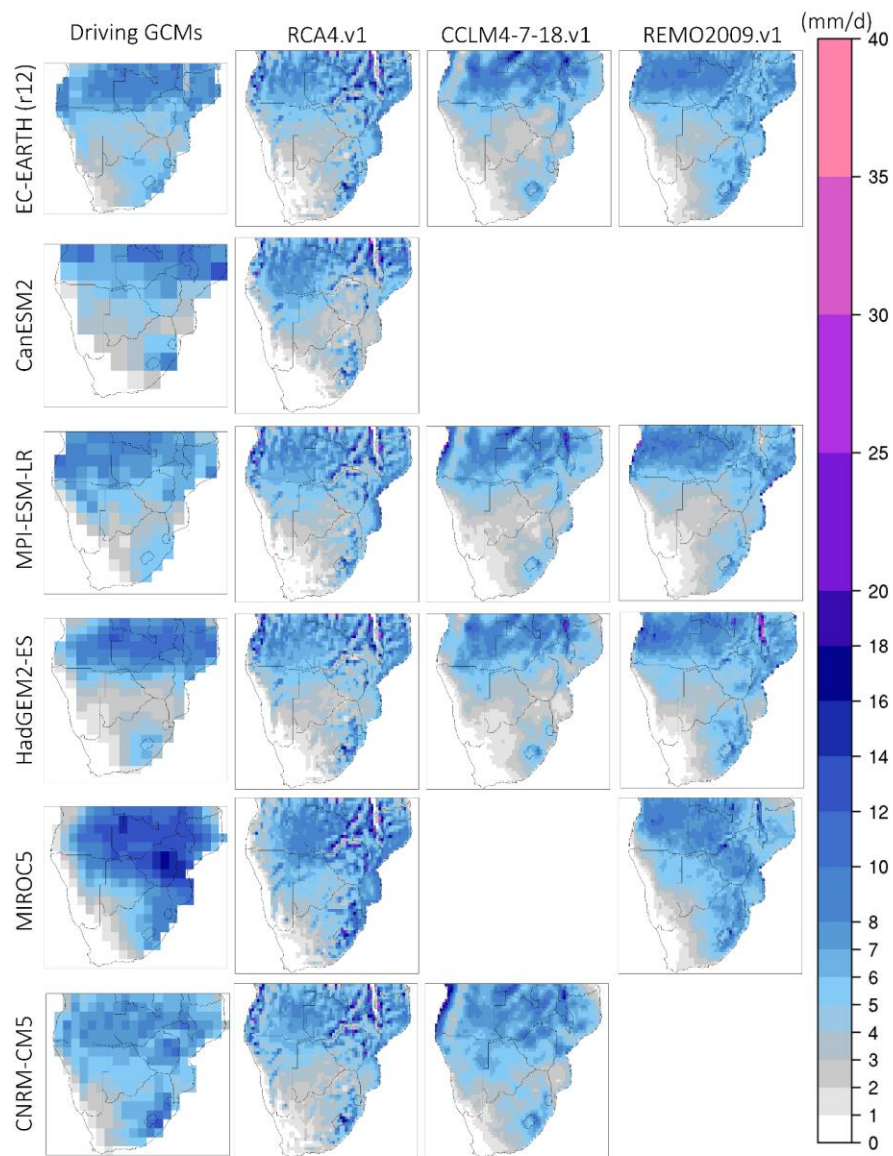
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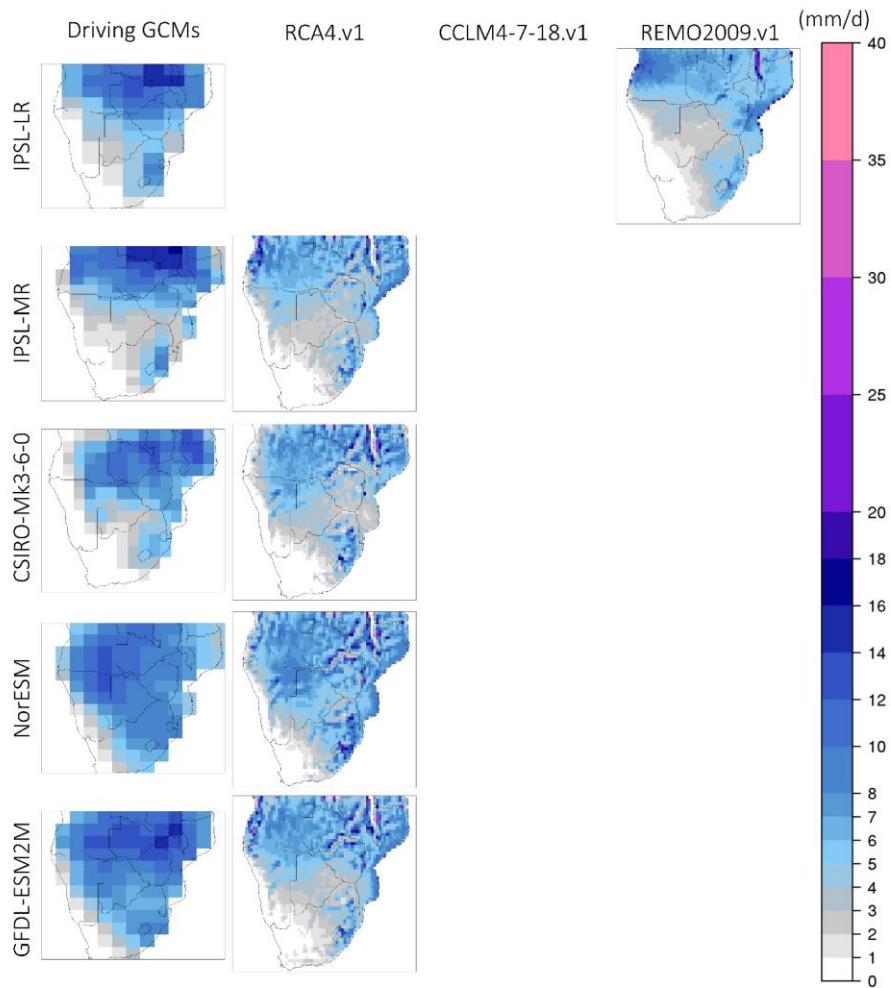
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 740 **Figure 43.** Monthly precipitation climatologies (mm/d) during January for the period 1985-2005. First column (from
 741 the left) displays precipitation from the driving GCMs and columns 2-4 display the downscaled precipitation output
 742 from RCA4.v1, CCLM4-8-17.v1 and REMO2009.v1.



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745 **Figure 43.** Continued.

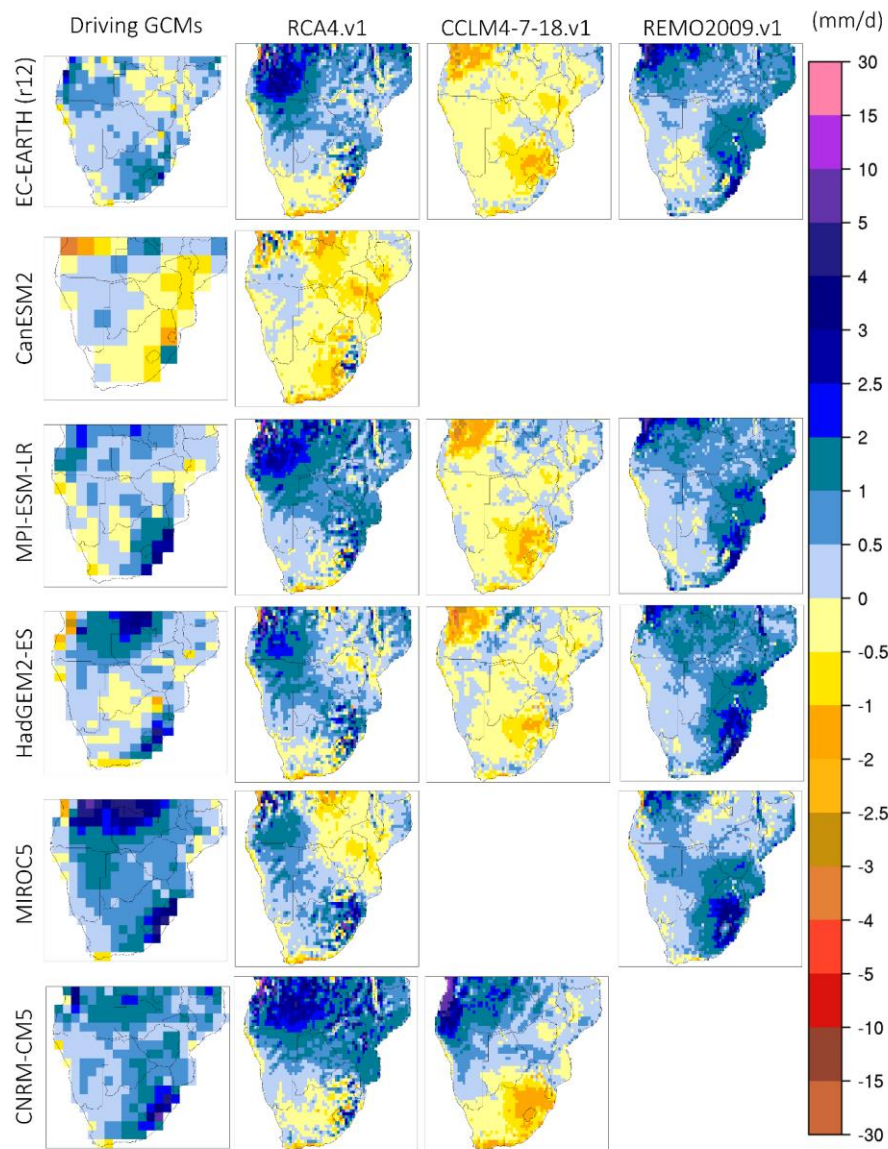
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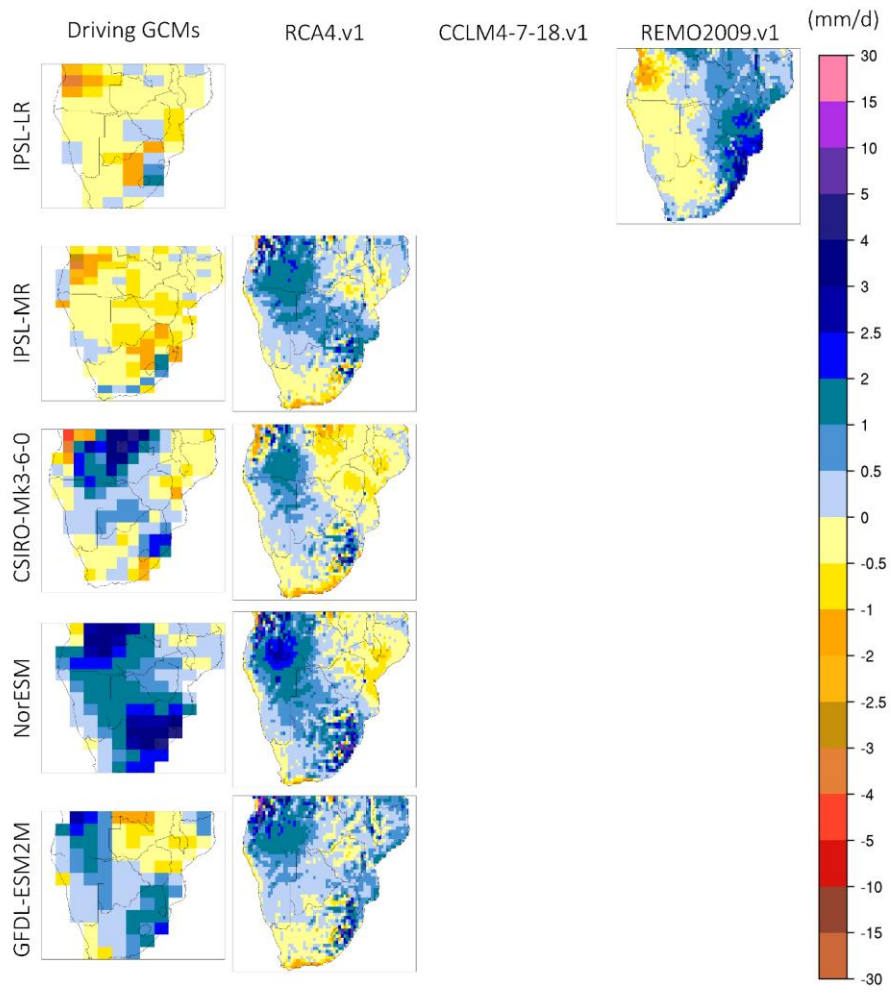
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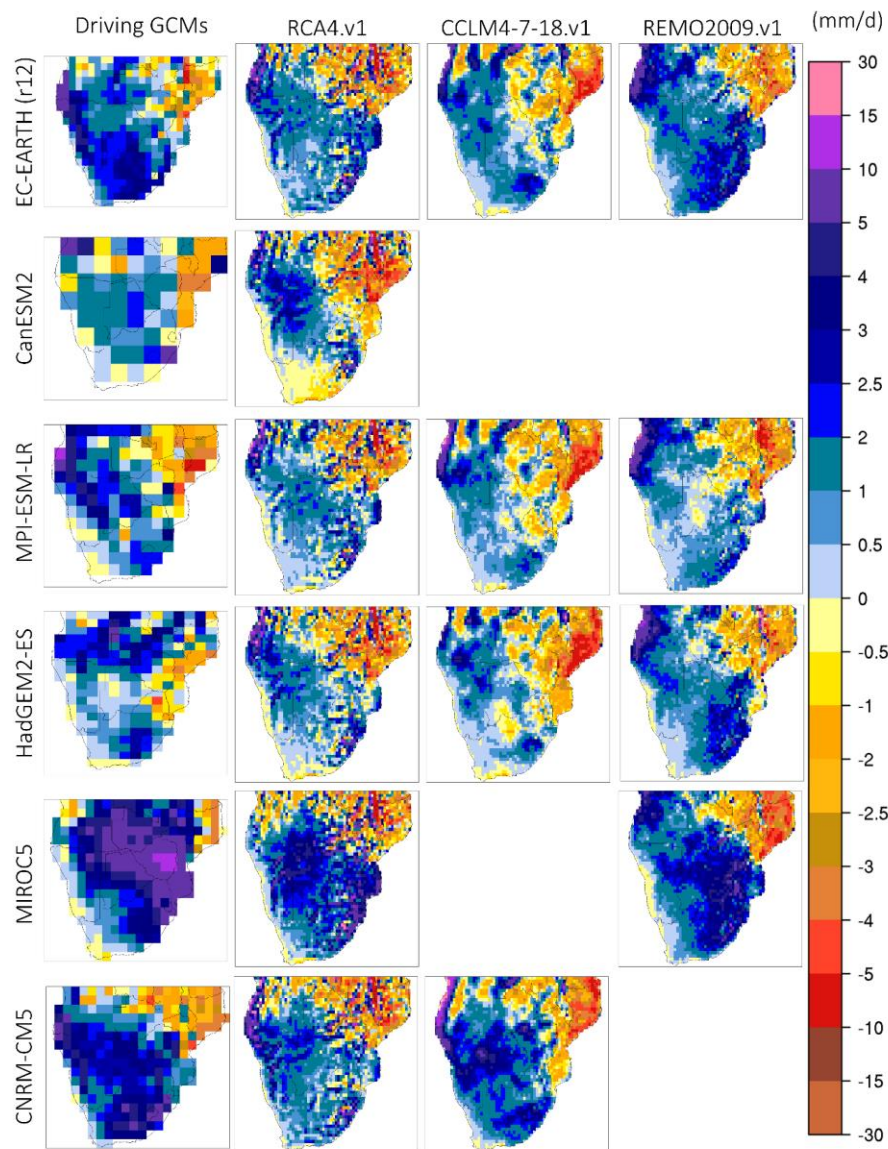


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 752 **Figure 54.** Monthly precipitation bias (model – CHIRPS in mm/d) during October for the period 1985-2005. First
 753 column (from the left) displays the biases in the driving GCMs and columns 2-4 display the biases in the downscaled
 754 precipitation output according to RCA4.v1, CCLM4-8-17.v1 and REMO2009.v1.

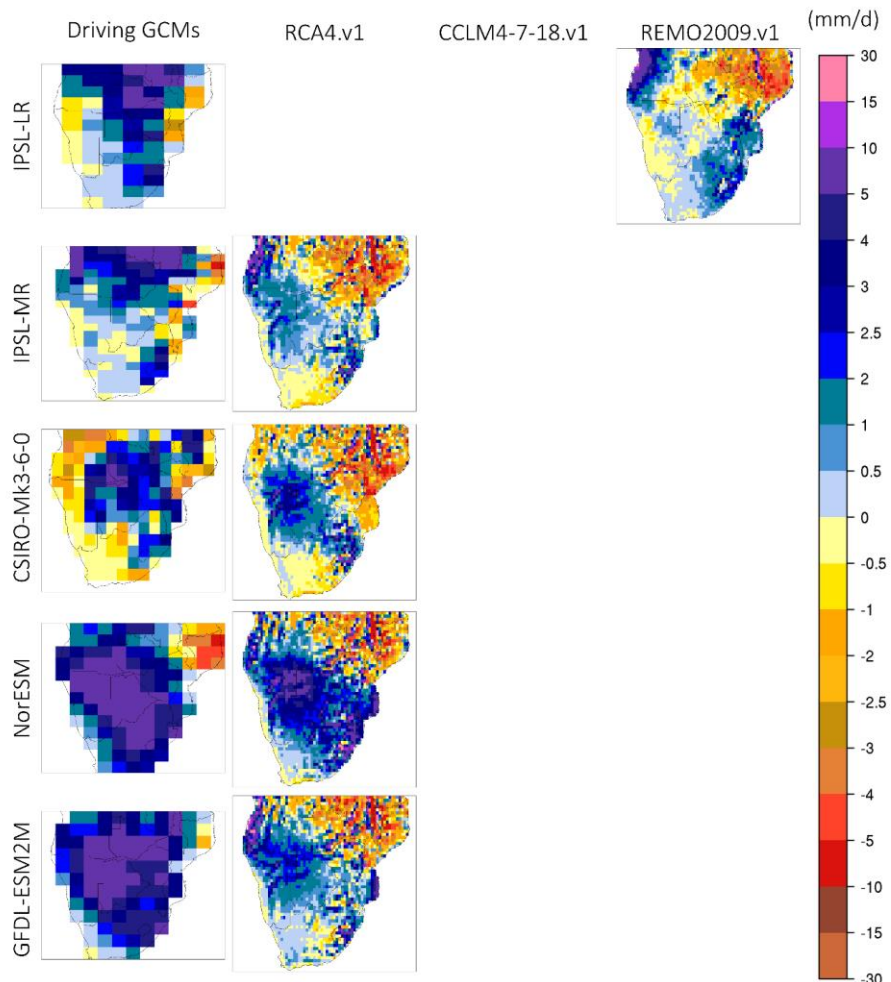


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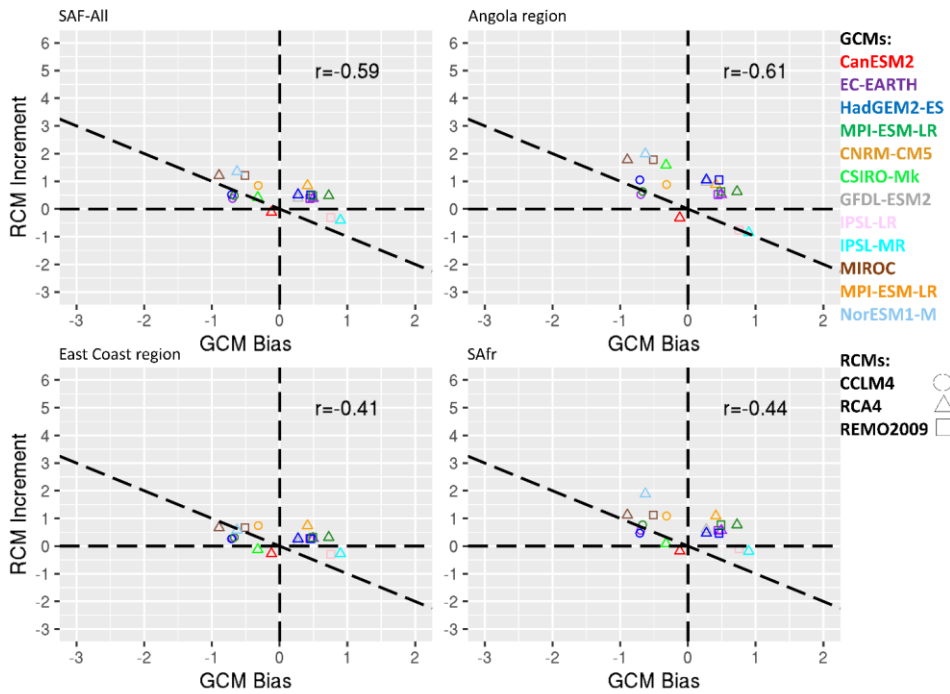


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 764 **Figure 65.** Monthly precipitation biases (model – CHIRPS in mm/d) during January for the period 1985-2005. First
 765 column (from the left) displays precipitation biases from the driving GCMs used and columns 2-4 display the
 766 downscaled products according to RCA4.v1, CCLM4-8-17.v1 and REMO2009.v1.



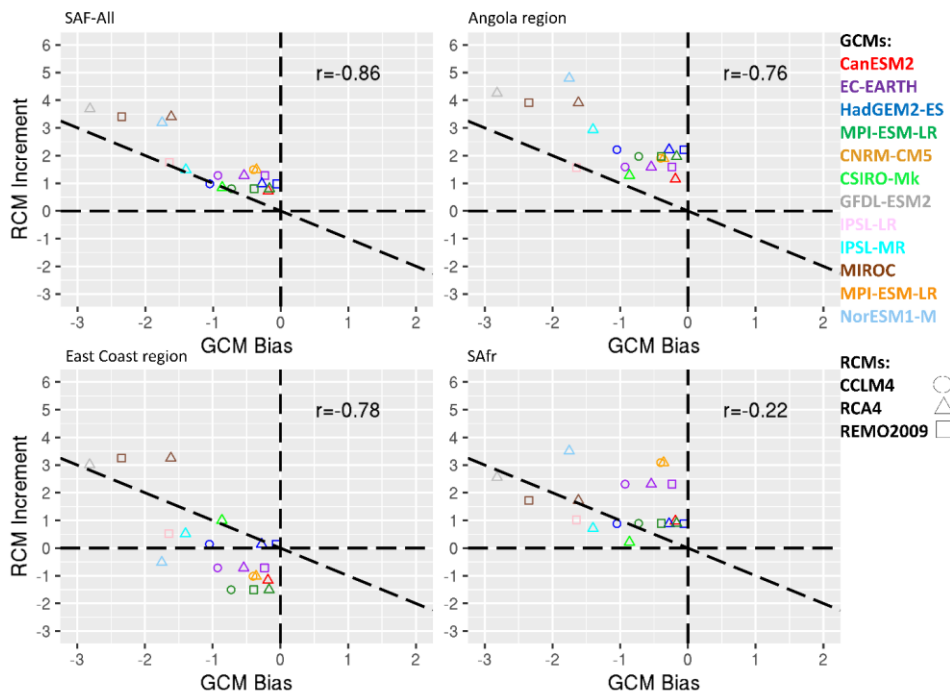
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Figure 65. Continued.



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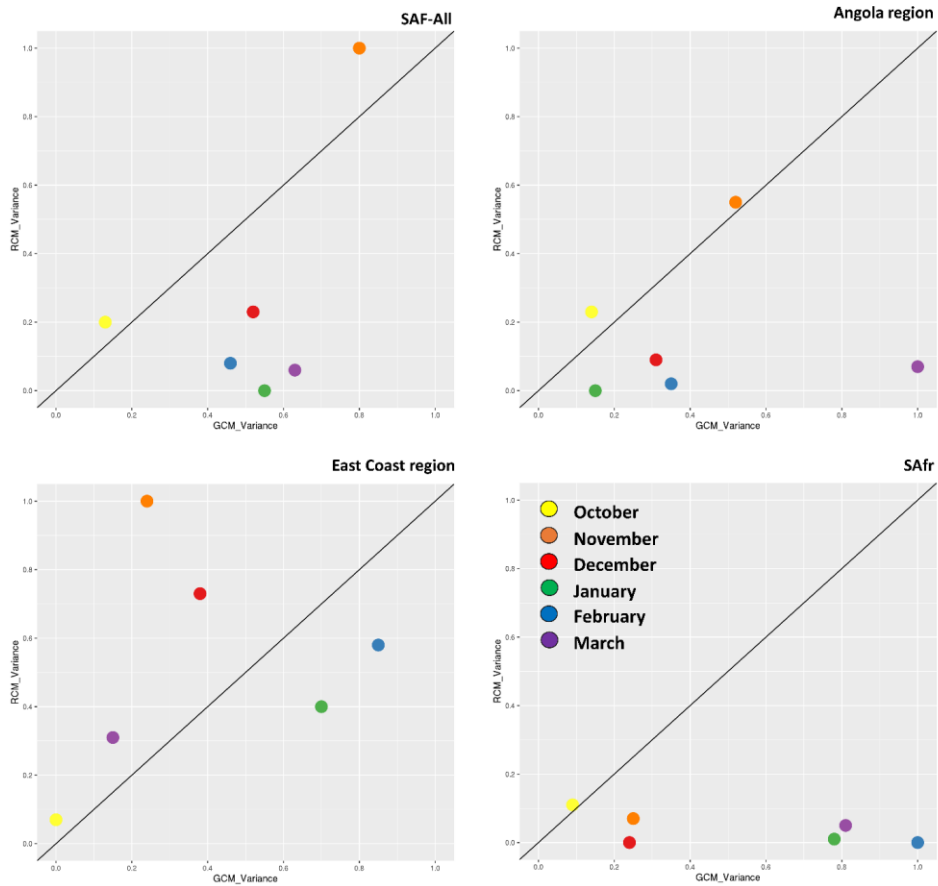
776 **Figure 76.** Scatterplots of the RCM increment (RCM-GCM) for precipitation (mm/day) as a function of the GCM
 777 bias (GCM-OBS) for October. Colors indicate the driving GCM and shapes indicate the downscaling RCMs. The four
 778 panels indicate spatial averages over southern Africa (SAF-All region/Region A), the Angola Low-region (Region B),
 779 the East Coast/Mozambique region (Region C) and the SAfr region-South Africa region (Region D).



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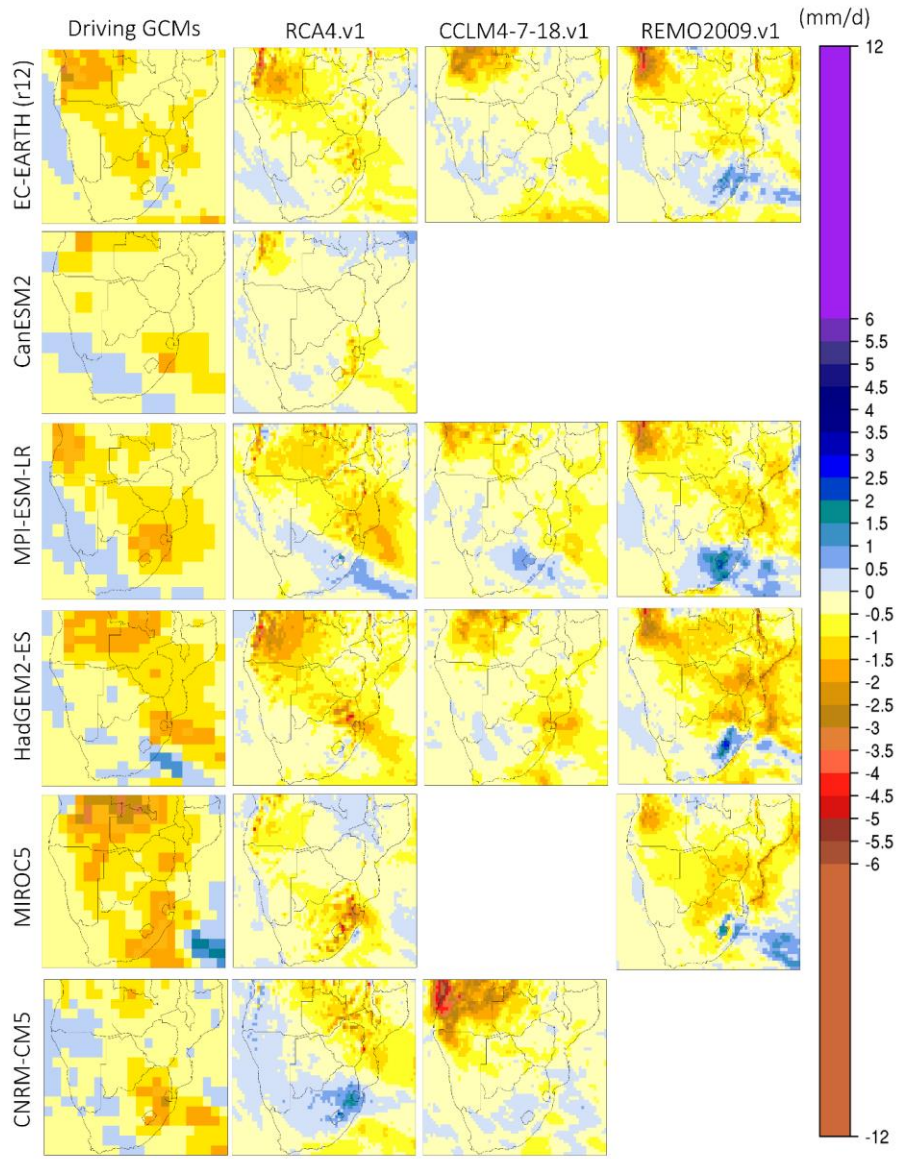
781 **Figure 87.** Scatterplots of the RCM increment (RCM-GCM) for precipitation (mm/day) as a function of the GCM
 782 bias (GCM-OBS) for January. Colors indicate the driving GCM and shapes indicate the downscaling RCMs. The four
 783 panels indicate spatial averages over southern Africa (Region A-SAF-All region), the Angola Low-region (Region B),
 784 the East CoastMozambique region (Region C) and the SAfr region and South Africa region (Region D).

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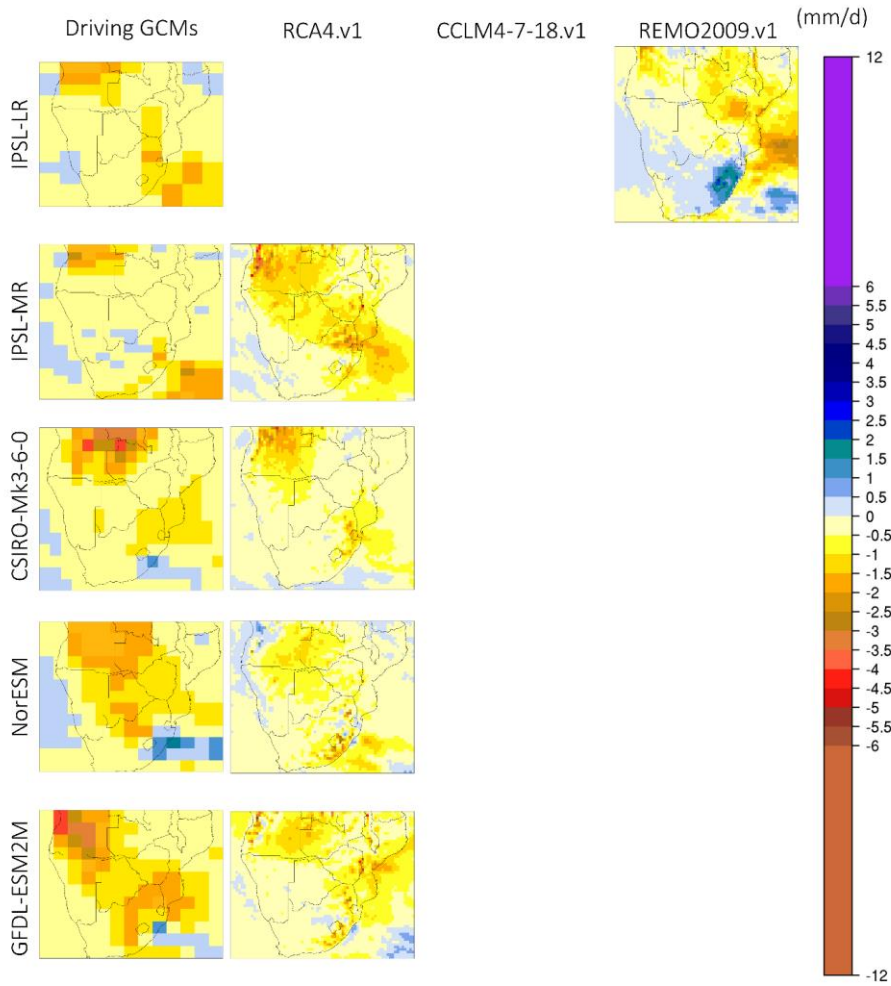
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 787 **Figure 98.** Analysis of variance for monthly precipitation during 1985-2005 for southern Africa (Region-A
 788 region) and the 3 sub-regions examined, namely Region-B (the Angola region), East Coast region
 789 (Mozambique region) and the SAfr region. Region-D (South Africa region). The x and y-axis display standardized
 790 precipitation variances.

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798 **Figure 109.** Monthly precipitation change (future – present in mm/d) during October for the period 2065-2095 relative
799 to 1985-2005. First column (from the left) displays precipitation change from the driving GCMs used and columns 2-
800 4 display the downscaled products according to RCA4.v1, CCLM4-8-17.v1 and REMO2009.v1.

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803 **Figure 109.** Continued.

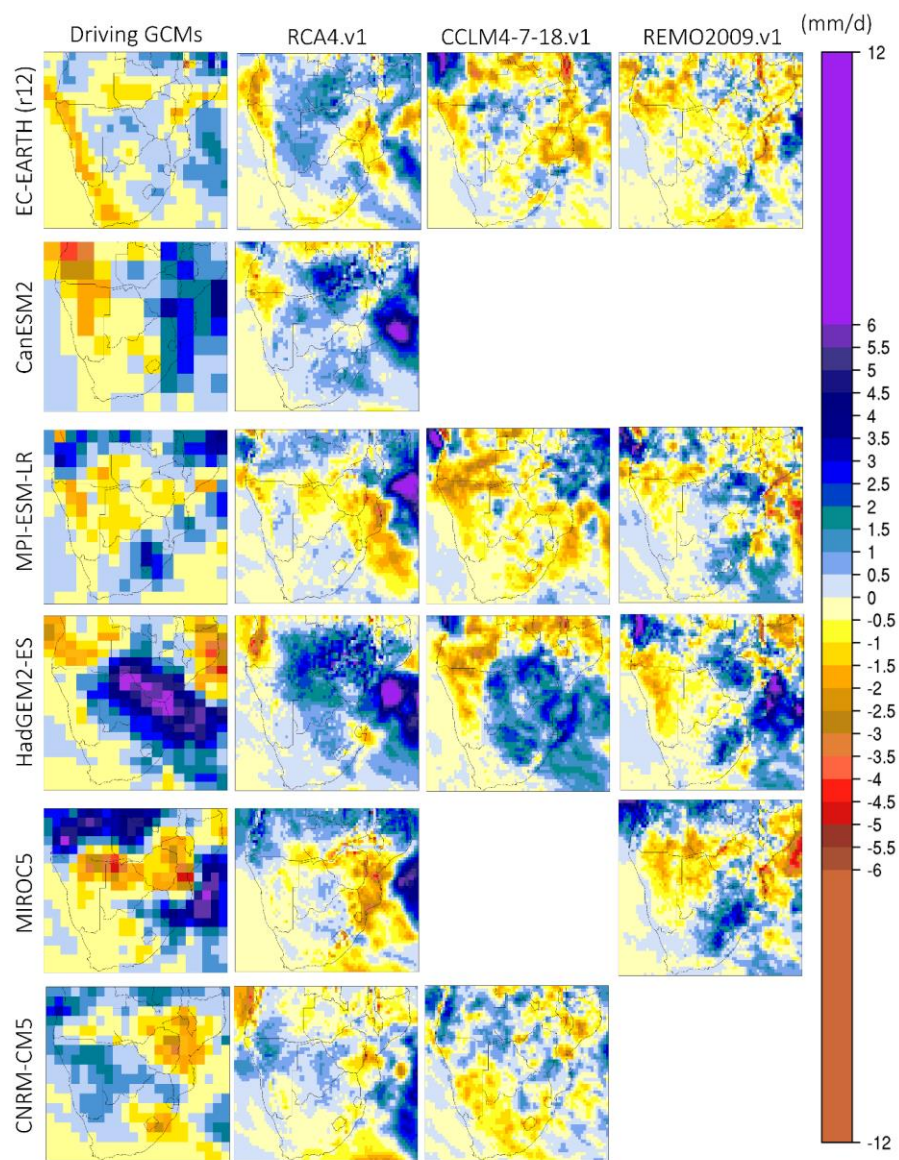
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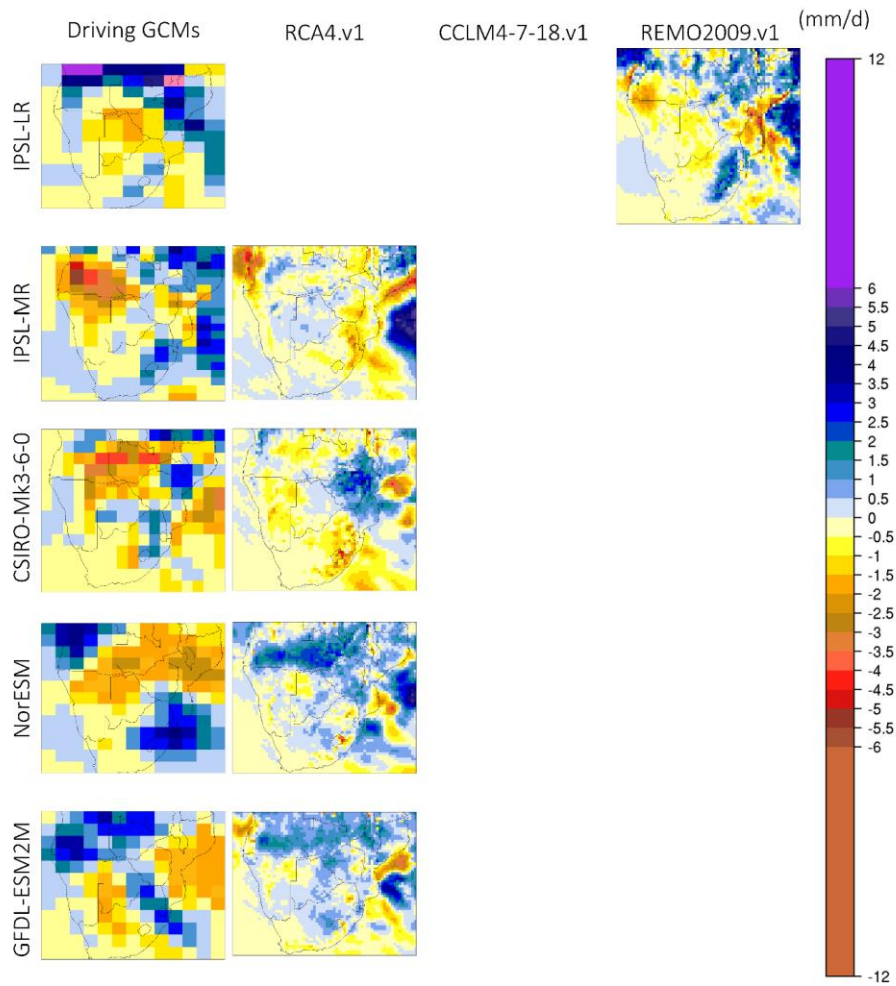
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 810 **Figure 110.** Monthly precipitation change (future – present in mm/d) during January for the period 2065-2095 relative
 811 to 1985-2005. First column (from the left) displays precipitation change from the driving GCMs used and columns 2-
 812 4 display the downscaled products according to RCA4.v1, CCLM4-8-17.v1 and REMO2009.v1.



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815 **Figure 110.** Continued.

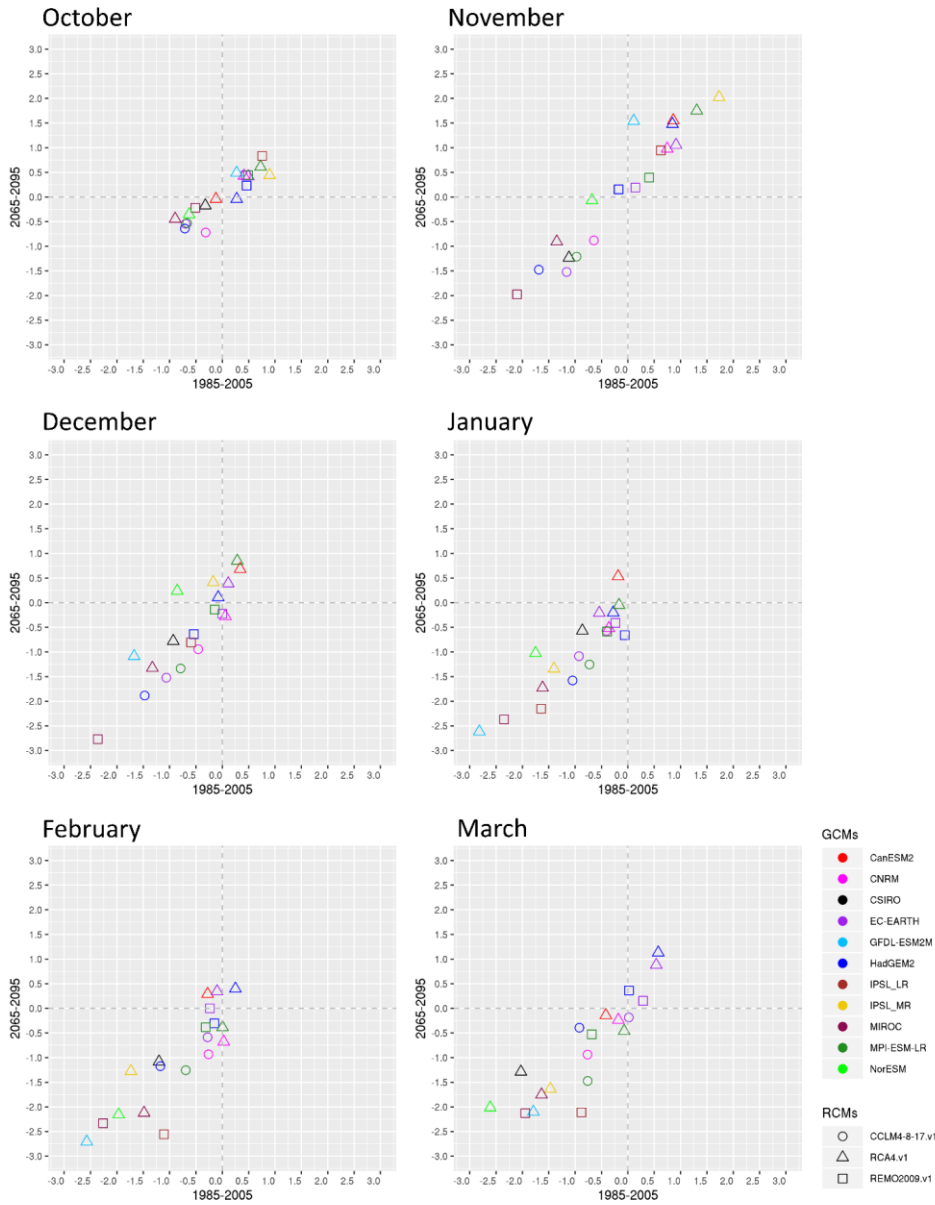
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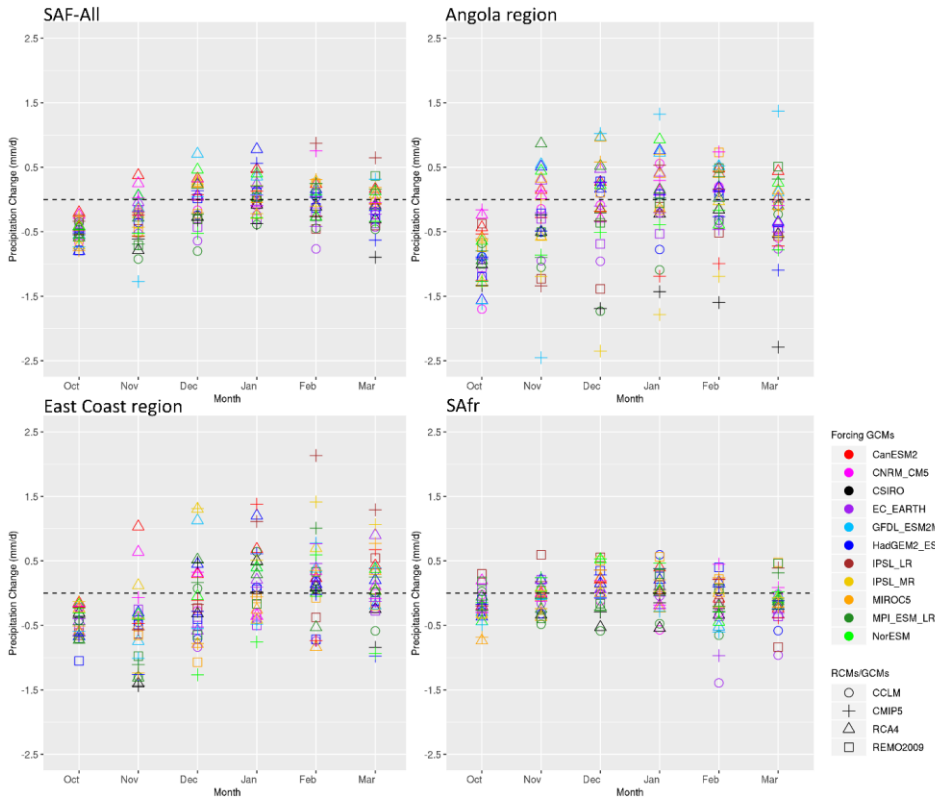
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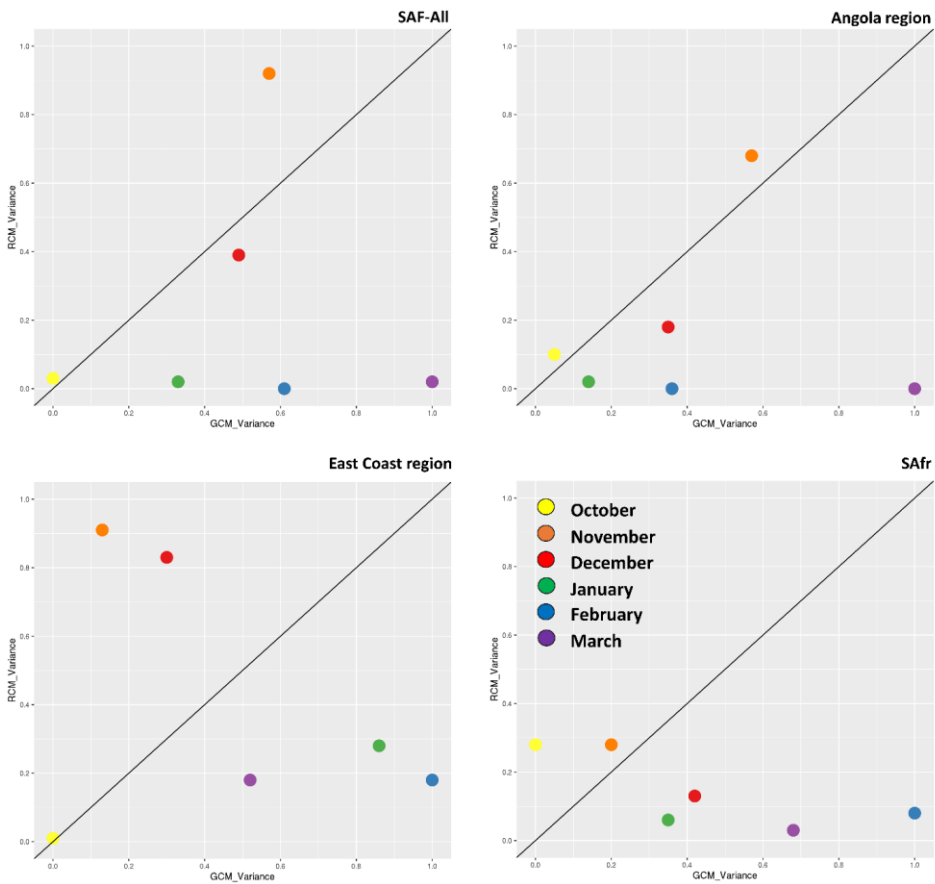
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 822 **Figure 124.** Monthly RCM_{DRI} – DRI spatial averages over southern Africa for the historical period (1985-2005) on
 823 the x-axis and the future period (2065-2095) under RCP8.5 on the y-axis.



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 825 **Figure 132.** Spatial average of the precipitation change signal (mm/d) from RCMs and their driving GCMs relative
 826 to 1985-2005 for southern Africa and the 3 sub-regions examined.



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 828 **Figure 143.** Analysis of variance for monthly precipitation during 2065-2095 for southern Africa (Region A SAF-All
 829 region) and the 3 sub-regions examined, namely the Region B (Angola region), East Coast region Region C
 830 (Mozambique region) and the SAfr region Region D (South Africa region). The x and y-axis display standardized
 831 precipitation variances.

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