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relating climatic variations to changes in vegetation,  
surface hydrology, fluxes and natural resources**

Éric Mougin, Pierre Hiernaux, L. Kergoat, Manuela Grippa, Patricia de Rosnay, Franck Timouk, Valérie Le Dantec, Valérie Demarez, François Lavenu, M. Arjounin, et al.

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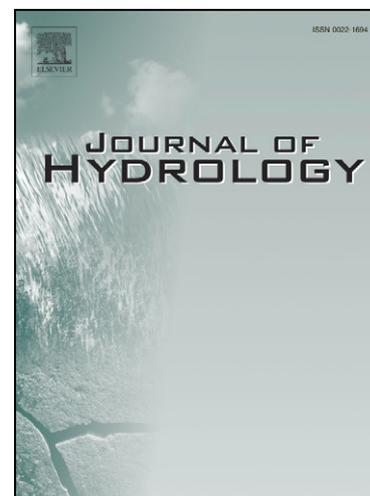
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## Accepted Manuscript



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 2                   **Relating climatic variations to changes in vegetation, surface**  
 3                   **hydrology, fluxes and natural resources**  
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## 1 Summary

2 The Gourma site in Mali is one of the 3 instrumented meso-scale sites deployed in West-  
3 Africa as part of the African Monsoon Multidisciplinary Analysis (AMMA) project. Located  
4 both in the Sahelian zone *sensu stricto*, and in the Saharo-Sahelian transition zone, the  
5 Gourma meso-scale window is the northernmost site of the AMMA-CATCH observatory  
6 reached by the West-African monsoon.

7  
8 The experimental strategy includes deployment of a variety of instruments, from local to  
9 meso-scale, dedicated to monitoring and documentation of the major variables characterizing  
10 the climate forcing, and the spatio-temporal variability of surface processes and state  
11 variables such as vegetation mass, leaf area index (LAI), soil moisture and surface fluxes.  
12 This paper describes the Gourma site, its associated instrumental network and the research  
13 activities that have been carried out since 1984. In the AMMA project, emphasis is put on the  
14 relations between climate, vegetation and surface fluxes. However, the Gourma site is also  
15 important for development and validation of satellite products, mainly due to the existence of  
16 large and relatively homogeneous surfaces. The social dimension of the water resource uses  
17 and governance is also briefly analyzed, relying on field enquiry and interviews.

18  
19 The climate of the Gourma region is semi-arid, daytime air temperatures are always high and  
20 annual rainfall amounts exhibit strong inter-annual and seasonal variations. Measurements  
21 sites organized along a north-south transect reveal sharp gradients in surface albedo, net  
22 radiation, vegetation production, and distribution of plant functional types. However, at any  
23 point along the gradient, surface energy budget, soil moisture and vegetation growth contrast  
24 between two main types of soil surfaces and hydrologic systems. On the one hand, sandy  
25 soils with high water infiltration rates and limited run-off support almost continuous  
26 herbaceous vegetation with scattered woody plants. On the other hand, water infiltration is  
27 poor on shallow soils, and vegetation is sparse and discontinuous, with more concentrated  
28 run-off that ends in pools or low-lands within structured endorheic watersheds.

29  
30 Land surface in the Gourma is characterized by rapid response to climate variability, strong  
31 intra-seasonal, seasonal and interannual variations in vegetation growth, soil moisture and  
32 energy balance. Despite the multi-decadal drought, which still persists, ponds and lakes have  
33 increased, the grass cover has largely recovered, and there are signs of increased tree cover  
34 at least in the low lands.

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36  
37 **KEYWORDS** Sahel; AMMA; Mali; Gourma; vegetation; rainfall; fluxes; long term monitoring;  
38 water resource.

39

## 1 INTRODUCTION

2  
3 From the late 1960's, the Sahelian region has experienced chronic below average annual  
4 rainfall although a return to wetter conditions has been observed in the last two decades in  
5 parts of West-Africa (Lebel et al., this issue). The long dry period has been punctuated by  
6 major droughts that occurred throughout out the Sahel in 1972-73 and in 1983-84 with  
7 dramatic consequences on water resources and on vegetation cover that triggered soil  
8 erosion and massive losses in livestock and aggravated population poverty. Although it is by  
9 no means the first arid episode in historical period and during the Holocene (Brooks, 2006),  
10 the situation differs by the density of human population and intensity of natural resource use  
11 that could aggravate the effect of aridity. This is particularly true in agro-pastoral areas in the  
12 Sahel where the growth of population is high and where changes in land cover and soil  
13 degradation due to changes in land use, are problematic. Purely pastoral areas of the Sahel  
14 suffer less from man induced effects due to a lower population density, and a relatively small  
15 impact of grazing compared to clearing land for crops. The changes in vegetation and  
16 hydrology observed in the pastoral areas are thus likely more due to climate variation and its  
17 effect on hydrological and ecological processes than to land-use. Yet, observations made in  
18 this region since the early 20<sup>th</sup> century have given rise to theories about anthropogenic  
19 induced degradation effects by overgrazing and over-exploitation, finally leading to drought  
20 and desertification (Stebbing, 1935; Charney et al., 1975). More recent field and remote  
21 sensing observations have questioned these views and the relative responsibility of climate  
22 variation and land use changes on the ecosystem production and climate (Giannini et al.,  
23 2008 and references therein).

24  
25 The response at different temporal scales of vegetation and hydrologic systems to chronic  
26 (multi-year) dry conditions and acute (single year) droughts experienced in the Sahel remain  
27 questioned. Is the Sahelian ecosystem resilient? Are there trends towards definitive  
28 aridification? Related to these question is a continuing controversy on the interpretation given  
29 to the inter-annual variations in Rain Use Efficiency indices either calculated from field data,  
30 or from satellite data using NDVI statistics and rain estimates (Tucker et al., 1991; Prince  
31 ,1991; Olsson et al., 2005; Anyamba and Tucker, 2005; Hein and de Ridder, 2006; Prince et  
32 al., 2007; Heumann et al., 2007). In addition, consequences of such changes on the  
33 interaction between the surface and the atmosphere still need to be assessed with the  
34 support of *in situ* data, very scarce in the Sahel. Moreover, possible thresholds and  
35 discontinuities in the dynamics of the ecosystem response to climate changes are expected  
36 to be revealed by sampling along the Sahel eco-climatic gradient to the transition with the  
37 hyper-arid Sahara desert to the north.

38  
39 The African Monsoon Multidisciplinary Analysis (AMMA) – Couplage de l'Atmosphère  
40 Tropicale et du Cycle Hydrologique (CATCH) site in the Gourma region, in Mali, samples the  
41 northern edge of the West African Monsoon (WAM) domain. The site is thus well situated to  
42 witness ecosystem changes and related changes in the WAM system. The Gourma region  
43 has indeed recorded extremes in the droughts of 1972-73 and again 1983-84, with severe  
44 impact on vegetation, crops, livestock and the population (de Leeuw et al., 1992). First  
45 observations of drought impacts on vegetation and soils of the Gourma region were reported  
46 over a few sites in 1972 (Boudet, 1972) and the sites revisited a few years later (Boudet  
47 1977). The impact of the 1983-84 droughts on rangeland resources was measured on a set  
48 of 25 rangeland sites that included some of the sites described by Boudet (Hiernaux, 1984).  
49 These sites were selected to sample the North-South bioclimatic gradient, the main  
50 vegetation and soil types and a range of grazing intensity, and were regularly monitored until  
51 1995 and more irregularly studied till 2001. The monitoring of these study sites was  
52 intensified from 2002 onwards under the AMMA project (Redelsperger et al., 2006) with  
53 additional instrumentation at selected sites. The current activities focus on the relationships  
54 between climate variability, at different temporal scales, and the main surface processes  
55 related to vegetation, hydrology and fluxes. In particular, these studies address a critical

1 need for improved documentation and understanding of the long term trends in vegetation in  
2 response to climate change. Studies conducted over the Gourma site also complement those  
3 performed at the second AMMA-CATCH Sahelian site located in the agro-pastoral region in  
4 southern Sahel (Cappelaere et al., this issue).

5  
6 The present paper aims to describe the research activities carried out at the AMMA-CATCH  
7 site in Mali. Firstly, the general characteristics of climate, soil, surface hydrology, vegetation,  
8 population and livelihoods in the Gourma site are presented. Secondly, the observation  
9 strategy and the associated networks of instrument and monitoring sites are described.  
10 Third, main results are summarised with special emphasis on the specific hydrological,  
11 physical and ecological processes that prevail at the northern edge of the WAM. The strong  
12 seasonal and inter-annual dynamics of the ecosystem are highlighted and long term trends  
13 are outlined. Initial findings on the social dimension of water resource are summarized,  
14 focusing local social vulnerability to water-related risks, water management practices and the  
15 environmental public policy that reflect the effectiveness of the climate change agenda in  
16 Mali.

## 19 THE GOURMA SITE

### 20 *Location*

21 The northernmost AMMA-CATCH site is located in the Gourma region which stretches from  
22 the loop of the Niger River southward down to the border region with Burkina-Faso. The  
23 meso-scale site also extends in the Haoussa region, to the north of the Niger River (Fig.1).  
24 The study considers staggered scales in three embedded windows. From meso scale to local  
25 scale, these windows are:

26 The Gourma meso-scale site (Fig. 1), a 1 x 3 degree area (40 000 km<sup>2</sup>) in the  
27 centre of the Gourma region; it extends over the Sahelian bioclimatic gradient from  
28 Southern Sahel to the Sahel-Sahara transition. Thirty seven local monitoring sites,  
29 each 1 x 1km in size, are distributed along the bioclimatic gradient in three groups:  
30 Northern, Central and Southern Sahel. The main soil types are sampled within each  
31 group and a range of grazing pressure status (from light to intensively grazed) is  
32 sampled among the sandy soil sites.

33 The Hombori super-site (Fig. 2), a 50 x 50 km area (2500 km<sup>2</sup>) which extends over  
34 the central Sahelian bioclimate, at mid latitude within the meso-scale site (15.58 –  
35 15.13 °N; 1.75° – 1.33 °W); the super-site includes 9 of the 37 monitoring sites on  
36 an array of soil types that is representative of soils in the whole meso-scale site;

37 Three local sites (1 km<sup>2</sup>), namely Agoufou (15.3°N, 1.5°W), (Fig. 3), Eguerit  
38 (15.50°N, 1.40°W) and Kelma (15.2°N, 1.6°W), representative of the three main  
39 substrates within the super site, are more instrumented and more frequently  
40 monitored than the other sites.

### 42 *Climate*

43 Located towards the northern limit of the area reached by the West African Monsoon, the  
44 region experiences a single rainy season with most precipitation falling between late June  
45 and mid September. Over the 1950-2007 period, mean annual rainfall was 372 mm at the  
46 Hombori meteorological station (15.3°N, 1.7°W). The rainy season is followed by a long dry  
47 season of ~8 months in the South increasing to ~ 10 months in the North. As elsewhere in  
48 the Sahel, the Gourma site experienced a long drought which began in the late 1960s until  
49 the end of the 1980's. More average rainfall conditions have been observed since the 1990s  
50 (Fig. 4a). Mean air temperature recorded at Hombori is 30.2°C. The highest monthly value is  
51 observed in May (42°C) whereas the lowest one occurs in January (17.1°C).

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### *Geology, topography and soils*

The underlying geology of the Gourma region includes Precambrian sandstones and schists eroded into a peneplain surfaces with occasional plateaus of hard sandstones that have resisted erosion. The Gourma peneplain is at between 250 and 330m altitude with highest isolated sandstone buttes reaching 900 to 1100m. The eroded and exposed peneplain surfaces are locally capped by iron pan formed during the humid period of the Quaternary, but larger areas of the region are covered by deep and stabilized sand dunes deposited during arid periods. Besides these two major landforms, and also inherited from the humid periods of the quaternary remnants of alluvial systems and lacustrine depressions, also formed during humid periods of the Quaternary, can be observed.

Using visual interpretation of a colour composite of Landsat Thematic Mapper (TM) data field observations over the Gourma site, and by supervised classification of SPOT-4 images, nine types of soil substrate are identified including: rock outcrops (schist or sandstones), soils covered by gravels or iron pan, sand dune (bare or fixed), sandy plain, sand sheet, loamy sands, loamy flats, clay plains and flooded depressions. At meso-scale, most land units are mosaics of up to four soil types. However, based on water infiltration and fertility properties, soils types can be gathered into three main categories: sandy soils extending over 58% of the area, shallow soils on rock and hard pan outcrops extending on 23.3% and fine textured soils in low lands on 18.7%. In the meso-scale map, the land units (Fig. 1b) have been attributed the dominant (area > 66%) category and left to mosaic otherwise. The three main soil categories extend on similar proportion of the land within the Hombori super-site, with 53.9, 29.6 and 16.4% for sandy, shallow and fine textured soils respectively. As at meso-scale, predominantly sandy or shallow soils distribute in large alternant swaths of contrasted land cover (Table 1), also contrasting with the land cover of the lowland fine textured soils that form a web of narrow bands often slotted in between sandy and shallow soils (Fig. 5). Soil texture for the 3 local sites (Agoufou, Kelma and Eguerit) is indicated in Table 2.

### *Surface hydrology*

Although the Niger River across northern sector of the Gourma mesoscale site from west to east at 17° latitude N (Figure 1a), the Gourma is globally endorheic contributes little water to, nor receives water from, the Niger River. Two hydrologic systems characterize the Gourma region. On sandy soils (58% of the total surface), hydrologic systems are endorheic operating at short distance from dune slopes to inter-dune depressions within small adjacent catchments. On the shallow soils and low land fine textured soils (42%), endorheic systems operate over much larger distances with concentrated run-off feeding a structured web of rills ending in one or several interconnected pools. Among them most are temporary ponds but there are a few permanent lakes such as Agoufou and Gossi, this later being the largest within the Gourma site. Away from the Niger River, these ponds or lakes and the local shallow water tables supplied by some of them are the major water resources for the Gourma population and their livestock.

### *Land cover, vegetation and land use*

As elsewhere in the Sahel, the vegetation of the Gourma comprises a herbaceous layer almost exclusively composed of annual plants, among which grasses dominate, and scattered bushes, shrubs and low trees. The density and canopy cover of woody plants are low on average, i.e. a few hundreds per hectare and a few percent respectively. However, woody plants distribution is highly variable, with higher densities along drainage lines, around pools, in the inter-dune depressions and also on shallow soils. On shallow soils, with the

1 narrow linear thickets dominated by shrubs and trees set perpendicular to the slope, known  
2 as 'tiger bush' (Hiernaux and Gerard, 1999), can form.

3 Except for the rice fields of the flooded alluvial plains along the narrow Niger River valley,  
4 cropped land only extends in the southern half of the Gourma site over a few percent of the  
5 land. The main rain-fed crop is millet grown on sandy and loamy sand soils, with limited  
6 areas of sorghum, rice and okra fields in low land clay soils. All areas, including cropped  
7 fields after harvest, are used for livestock grazing under communal access. Daily grazing  
8 orbits and seasonal moves are used to optimize livestock access to changing water and  
9 fodder resources. This results in a range of grazing pressure status, from intensive year-  
10 round grazing close to water points and homesteads, to light wet season grazing in area  
11 remote from water points. These pastoral land use patterns translate to a web of livestock  
12 paths radiating from the water points, and spots with high soil organic matter and nutrient  
13 contents localised in livestock resting areas close to water points and camps.

### 14 *Population and livelihoods*

15 Analysis of scarce population census data in the Gourma remains to be done to get a clear  
16 picture of the actual demographic situation and trends. Yet, after the decrease of the rural  
17 population observed in the years following the droughts (RIM, 1987; (Ag Mahmoud, 1992;  
18 Hiernaux, 1996), the spectacular development of some of the small towns such as Gossi and  
19 the settlement of some of the pastoralists leading to the conversion of temporary camps into  
20 permanent villages are indicators of profound changes in society and livelihoods. The food  
21 crisis of the droughts in the mid 1970's and early 1980's, and later, the civilian insecurity that  
22 prevailed in the 90's, all contributed to increase out migration and settlement in towns.  
23 However, the development of modern means of communications with the tar of the main  
24 road across the Gourma achieved in 1985, the Gao bridge over the Niger River in 2007, and  
25 the recent expansion of the cell phone network also helped. Unfortunately, the lack of reliable  
26 statistics on agricultural activities limits the trend interpretation. The total area cropped  
27 nowadays in the southern half of the Gourma does not differ markedly from what it was in the  
28 1950's (Gallais, 1975), yet large reduction in area cropped followed the droughts and  
29 cropping expansion has been observed since the mid 1990's. The trends in pastoral activity  
30 are even more difficult to assess because of the large seasonal mobility of livestock, and the  
31 flexibility to adapt these moves to resources opportunities. Livestock population suffered from  
32 the droughts (Bourn and Wint, 1985) but seems to have recovered (RIM, 1987), although  
33 population moves and changes in management hamper interpretation. The severe droughts  
34 of the 1970's and 1980's have focused the interest of the international community on the  
35 living conditions and vulnerability of the populations in the Sahel. The setting up of a range of  
36 political measures at the regional to local scale to reduce environmental and social costs of  
37 such event were organized in most countries prone to droughts or desertification (Dia et al.,  
38 2008). After decades of debates and social transformations, it remains difficult to disentangle  
39 the environmental and social factors that condition the vulnerability of exposed populations.  
40 This particularly applies to access to drinking water that remains a major constraint for  
41 livelihood and economic development in the Gourma region, where population has to mostly  
42 rely on surface water. Indeed, unlike some other regions of the Sahel (e.g. the Ferlo of  
43 northern Senegal), there is no continuous aquifer in the Gourma that could support  
44 development of a network of deep wells. As a result the sedentary population in the Gourma  
45 concentrates around the relatively few locations with reliable water, while large areas remain  
46 poorly and seasonally populated (Ag Mahmoud, 1992).

## 48 **INSTRUMENT AND MONITORING NETWORK**

### 49 *Overall strategy*

50 The overall observation strategy is based on the deployment of a variety of instrument  
51 networks, from local- to meso-scales, dedicated to the monitoring and documentation of the  
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1 major variables characterizing the climate forcing and the spatio-temporal variability of  
2 geophysical and land surface variables. Located on the 3 dominant soil types that can be  
3 encountered in the region, the three local sites are extensively instrumented (Table 3). Long  
4 term measurements corresponding to the AMMA Long Observing Period (LOP) monitor  
5 meteorological variables, vegetation and surface hydrology including soil moisture and water  
6 surfaces. Emphasis is also put on the estimation of surface fluxes at local scales and their  
7 up-scaling to the super-site scale and finally to meso-scale. Up-scaling of surface fluxes is  
8 performed either through weighting by the relative area covered by each landform type  
9 (Timouk et al., this issue) or using land surface models and remote sensing data following an  
10 assimilation strategy (Jarlan et al., 2008).

11  
12 Understanding, modelling and predicting plant vegetative phenology (the seasonal cycle of  
13 LAI and biomass and their inter-annual variation) is key to correct prediction of soil moisture,  
14 herbaceous production and flux variability. Thus, intensive process field studies that  
15 complement the long term monitoring focus on the characterization of the numerous  
16 ecological and ecophysiological processes responsible for the phenological cycle of  
17 vegetation: carbon assimilation, water uptake and release, vegetation growth and decay,  
18 coupled C/H<sub>2</sub>O/N cycles, etc. Moreover, since soil moisture controls soil evaporation, plant  
19 transpiration and thus energy fluxes, soil moisture is monitored at different spatial scales by  
20 means of local automatic and satellite measurements. Finally, the overall set up provides  
21 data sets, forcing variables and functional understanding of land surface to validate large-  
22 scale models. In addition, NO<sub>x</sub> biogenic emissions and dry deposition are measured and  
23 related to meteorological variables and surface characteristics such as soil moisture and land  
24 use cover. These relations will provide better parameterizations of biogenic emissions and  
25 surface characteristics in a Sahelian environment at both local and meso scale (Delon et al.,  
26 2007).

#### 27 28 *Meteorological observations*

29 The instrument network deployed within the meso-scale site is shown in Fig. 1a. Three  
30 Automatic Weather Stations (AWS) were installed along the climatic gradient at Agoufou  
31 (15.3°N), Bamba (17.1°N) and Kobou (14.7°N), in 2002, 2004 and 2008, respectively. These  
32 stations measure (at a 15 minute intervals) the standard meteorological variables and useful  
33 complementary variables such as the 4 components of the net radiation (Table 4). These  
34 observations are complemented by those collected by the AERONET sun photometer  
35 installed at the Agoufou site, providing information about atmospheric aerosol optical  
36 properties and water vapour content (<http://loaphotons.univ-lille1.fr/photons/>).

37 Being the most important variable, rainfall is intensively monitored by a network of automatic  
38 and manual raingauges that have been progressively installed since 2004. In 2008, this  
39 network consists of 32 automatic raingauges distributed within the Gourma meso-scale  
40 window, with an enhanced density over the Hombori super-site. These automatic raingauges  
41 are complemented by 15 manual raingauges among which 8 belong to Malian rainfall  
42 services (Fig. 1a and Fig. 2). In addition, chemical composition of rainfall water and dry and  
43 wet depositions as well as gas concentration are provided by the analysis of data collected  
44 by a semi-automatic station located at the Agoufou local site. This station belongs to a  
45 regional network deployed in West-Africa within the frame of the IDAF Observing System  
46 (<http://medias.obs-mip.fr/idaf/>).

47 A precise CO<sub>2</sub> measurement system installed at the Agoufou site in April 2006 is providing  
48 measurements of atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration ([CO<sub>2</sub>]), with an absolute  
49 precision of 0.2 ppm and with continuous and long-term data collection. The Agoufou  
50 instrument complements two additional systems in Southern and Central Africa in connection  
51 with the GlobalView-CO<sub>2</sub> project ([www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/globalview/co2/](http://www.esrl.noaa.gov/gmd/ccgg/globalview/co2/)). As the  
52 time-series available at African sites increases much improved inverse quantification of  
53 African sources and sinks will be possible (Lokupitiya et al., 2008).

54 Automatic acquisitions are complemented by measurements of vertical profiles of [CO<sub>2</sub>] in  
55 the nocturnal boundary layer (0-200 m altitude) measured with a tethered balloon. Boundary

1 layer budgets based on measurements allow estimations of sensible, latent and CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes at  
2 a scale larger than that of the flux stations. The Low Level Jet, which essentially is the  
3 monsoon flow, has been portrayed with the frequent tethered balloon profiles (Bain et al., in  
4 revision).

#### 6 *Surface hydrology and water cycle observations*

7 Runoff in the Gourma region depends on soil depth, texture and rainfall patterns. In  
8 endorheic catchments on sandy soils, evaluation of run-off, run-on and infiltration processes  
9 are performed thanks to data recorded by soil moisture stations that have been installed at  
10 the top, middle and bottom locations of dune slopes at the Agoufou site. In addition, a joint  
11 monitoring of the seasonal dynamics of the unsaturated zone associated to vegetation  
12 dynamics is performed along a 'hydrological' transect that crosses a series of endorheic  
13 catchments (Fig. 3). This set-up is designed to address the interactions between water  
14 redistribution and herbaceous and woody vegetation patterns, and between vegetation  
15 dynamics and production and soil moisture availability.

16 Over wider areas, documentation of the spatio temporal variability of soil moisture content is  
17 performed using local automatic measurements collected by a network of 12 soil moisture  
18 stations deployed within the Gourma meso-scale window (Fig. 1). Automatic acquisitions are  
19 complemented by field surface measurements performed along transects of 1 km to 50 km  
20 long with the objective of satellite products validation. A detailed description of the soil  
21 moisture network and the associated up-scaling methodology can be found in de Rosnay et  
22 al. (this issue).

23 Water losses through evaporation and plant transpiration is studied through eddy-correlation  
24 measurements performed through 4 flux stations, including 2 heat flux and 2 CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>O  
25 stations, that were installed within the Gourma site since 2005. Among them, 3 are installed  
26 within the Hombori super-site on representative dominant surfaces, namely the Agoufou  
27 woody savannah on sand dunes (Fig. 6), the Kelma open *Acacia* forest on clay soil, and on a  
28 bare soil patch at the Eguerit rocky erosion surface (Fig. 2). The fourth flux station is  
29 positioned on almost bare sands in the northern part of the Gourma window at the Bamba  
30 site otherwise characterized by sparse perennial herbs and very scattered trees. These  
31 stations are part of the CarboAfrica project ([www.carboafrica.net](http://www.carboafrica.net)) whose eddy-correlation  
32 measurement stations are distributed on the major African ecosystems.

33 Flux measurements at the Hombori super-site are complemented by sap flow measurements  
34 performed on representative tree species: *Acacia senegal*, *Acacia raddiana*, *Combretum*  
35 *glutinosum* and *Balanites aegyptiaca* at the Agoufou site and *Acacia seyal* at the Kelma site.  
36 These automatic stations give an estimation of the transpiration from trees, providing useful  
37 data to interpret the measurements made by the flux stations.

38 Besides the measurements made on the soil unsaturated zone, manual observations of the  
39 water level of the Agoufou pond has been performed weekly since 2007. The monitoring of  
40 the seasonal and inter-annual variations of its surface extent is based on different sensors  
41 including aerial photographs and satellite images at different spatial resolution namely  
42 Landsat, SPOT-4, MODIS, CORONA and FORMOSAT (Gardelle et al., 2009).

#### 44 *Vegetation monitoring and ecophysiology*

45 The monitoring of the vegetation is based on the survey of 37 1km x 1km sites distributed  
46 along the North-South bioclimatic gradient (Fig.1). Measurements are made every month  
47 during the rainy season for three plant functional types namely, annual herbs, perennial  
48 herbs and trees. At the Hombori super-site over the Agoufou, Kelma and Eguerit local sites,  
49 the seasonal variation of Leaf Area Index (LAI), vegetation cover, plant height, herbage  
50 above- and below ground masses, and floristic composition are monitored every 10 days  
51 during the growing season along a 1 km long 'vegetation' transect (figure 3). Tree and herb  
52 LAI is estimated using hemispherical images (Mougin et al., in preparation). Phenology of the  
53 main tree species is also measured along the climatic gradient using sampling techniques  
54 detailed in Hiernaux et al. (1994). At the different sites, woody population dynamics are

1 regularly monitored (Hiernaux et al., 2009a, this issue). The survey includes the estimation of  
2 tree density, tree height, crown cover, wood and foliage masses.

3 In addition, automatic measurements of Photosynthetic Active Radiation (PAR) interception  
4 by tree canopies complement LAI measurements and provide useful data for process model  
5 development and validation. Incident and transmitted PAR cells installed at the Agoufou  
6 savannah site (Fig. 3) and Kelma open forest site provide time variation of the fraction of  
7 PAR absorbed by the vegetation layer.

8 In addition to automatic acquisitions, intensive field campaigns are carried out at the three  
9 local sites. Field work mainly consists of ecophysiological measurements aiming at  
10 charactering the plant and soil response to their environment, particularly to water  
11 availability. This includes measurements of stomatal conductance, leaf water potential, and  
12 gas exchange (transpiration and photosynthesis). Associated to laboratory chemical analysis  
13 of soil and vegetation samples, these measurements provide the necessary input parameters  
14 for land surface models and for model parameterization. Since 2004, intensive field  
15 measurements have been performed in collaboration with international teams like the  
16 Climate and Land Surface Systems Interaction Centre (CLASSIC,  
17 <http://classic.nerc.ac.uk/IGBP.php>) in the United Kingdom and the TROPical Biome In  
18 Transition (TROBIT, [www.geog.leeds.ac.uk/research/trobit/](http://www.geog.leeds.ac.uk/research/trobit/)) project. The list of surface  
19 variables monitored at different spatial scales is given in Table 5.

#### 21 *Remote sensing survey*

22 Since 1984, the study sites of 1 x 1 km in size have been selected, whenever possible, within  
23 3 km x 3 km similar surfaces allowing monitoring to be conducted with medium and coarse  
24 resolution satellites such as the Advanced Very High Resolution Radiometer (AVHRR)  
25 onboard the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) series (Hiernaux and  
26 Justice, 1986). The presence of large homogeneous and flat surfaces characterized by a  
27 high seasonal and inter-annual variability makes the Gourma site particularly well suited both  
28 for methodological development and for multi product validation exercises.

29 Seasonal, inter-annual and decadal variations of vegetation cover, LAI and herbage  
30 production are assessed and mapped through Normalised Difference Vegetation Index  
31 (NDVI) values derived from various satellite sensors operating at different spatial resolutions  
32 in the optical domain (Hiernaux and Justice, 1986; Lo Seen et al., 1995). Besides, surface  
33 soil moisture (SSM) variations have been monitored by both active and passive microwave  
34 sensors, including the European Remote Sensing (ERS) Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR),  
35 the ENVISAT-Advanced Synthetic Aperture Radar (ASAR) and the Advanced Microwave  
36 Scanning Radiometer (AMSR-E).

37 Associated to an appropriate field sampling strategy at different spatial scales, the Gourma  
38 site has been extensively used for the development of multi-spectral remote sensing inverse  
39 methods, particularly with the following sensors: European Remote Sensing (ERS) wind  
40 scatterometer (e.g. Frison et al., 1998; Jarlan et al., 2002; Zribi et al., 2009), Special Sensor  
41 Microwave/Imager (SSM/I) sensor (Frison et al., 2000), ERS-SAR (Zine et al., 2005),  
42 SPOT/VEGETATION (Jarlan et al., 2008; Mangiarotti et al., 2008), ENVISAT- ASAR (Baup  
43 et al., 2007). Current activities focus on the evaluation of important surface variables for  
44 model initialisation and spatialisation like the MODIS derived albedo and LAI products  
45 (Myneni et al., 2002), and the AMSR-E (Gruhier et al. 2008) derived SSM products (Fig. 7).  
46 Such an evaluation is crucial before their assimilation in land surface models. More details on  
47 the validation exercise over the Gourma site can be found in Samain et al. (2008), de  
48 Rosnay et al. (this issue).

49  
50 Since 2000, the Gourma sites have been integrated in the site network of the Validation of  
51 Land European Remote sensing Instruments (VALERI) (Baret et al., 2009;  
52 [www.avignon.inra.fr/valeri/](http://www.avignon.inra.fr/valeri/)) and Committee on Earth Observation Satellites (CEOS) / Land  
53 Product Validation (Morissette et al., 2006; <http://lpvs.gsfc.nasa.gov/>) projects. Among the  
54 selected validation sites, the Gourma site stands out as the site with the lowest spatial  
55 heterogeneity when high- (SPOT) and low- resolution (MODIS) products are compared

1 (Garrigues et al., 2008). In addition, the Gourma site network has been retained as ESA  
 2 calibration/validation site for the forthcoming Soil Microwave and Ocean Salinity (SMOS)  
 3 mission (<http://www.esa.int/esaLP/LPsmos.html>).  
 4  
 5

#### 6 *Human population, natural resource management and societies*

7 A several-year cycle of observations (interviews, enquiries, etc.) has been initiated in the  
 8 commune of Hombori, with three main objectives: analysis of the spatio-temporal patterns of  
 9 the water resources availability; identification and analysis of the social vulnerability to water  
 10 risks; observation and interpretation of the multi-level social and political management of the  
 11 resources. The data are organized in a GIS with other layers on the proximity with villages,  
 12 campsites, roads or tracks, the availability of other resources (wood, pastures, fishes, etc.)  
 13 and the related extractive or exploiting activities.  
 14

#### 15 *Integration in observation networks*

16 In Mali, the AMMA-CATCH site is associated to the 'Observatoire du Gourma / Réseau  
 17 National de Surveillance Environnementale (RNSE) coordinated by the University of  
 18 Bamako/FAST. In addition, the northern sites of the Gourma site, located north on the left  
 19 side of the Niger River, are part of the ROSELT/OSS (*Réseau d'Observatoires de*  
 20 *Surveillance Ecologique à Long Terme / Observatoire du Sahara et du Sahel*) network  
 21 ([www.roselt-oss.org/pays/mali/](http://www.roselt-oss.org/pays/mali/)). As part of these activities leading national collaborators  
 22 include Institut d'Economie Rurale (IER-Bamako), Centre de Recherches Régional  
 23 Agronomique (CRRRA-Gao), Direction Nationale de la Météorologie (DNM-Bamako) and the  
 24 Faculté des Sciences et Techniques (FAST-Bamako).  
 25  
 26

## 27 **MAIN FINDINGS**

### 29 **Spatial patterns along the bioclimatic gradient**

30  
 31 The Gourma mesoscale site is a 3° north-south by 1° east-west transect with a series of  
 32 monitored sites distributed on the dominant soil surfaces along the rainfall gradient. The  
 33 rationale in establishing study sites along such an extended transect lies in the possibility of  
 34 long-term monitoring on a climatic and ecological gradient. This is the reason why several  
 35 transects have been designed in different eco-climatic zones of semi-arid regions like the  
 36 Northern Australia Tropical Transect (NATT) or the Kalahari transect (Canadell et al., 2002).  
 37 The following paragraphs summarize the main findings of this 'transect' approach.  
 38

#### 39 *Climate*

40 The whole transect is under the influence of the West African monsoon. The Inter Tropical  
 41 Discontinuity, which separates the south-westerlies monsoonal winds from the north-  
 42 easterlies Harmattan wind, crosses the Gourma on its way North, on average in May and in  
 43 October on its way South (Flamant et al., 2009). Rainfall is concentrated in the core of the  
 44 monsoon season, which extends from late June to mid September. Rainy season duration  
 45 and the annual total rainfall decrease with increasing latitude characterized by an average  
 46 annual rainfall of 450 mm in the south of the Gourma meso-scale window progressively  
 47 declining to 150 mm in the north (Frappart et al., this issue). The rainfall gradient is therefore  
 48 about 1mm km<sup>-1</sup>, a value commonly reported for the Sahel climatic gradient (Lebel et al., this  
 49 issue). The number of rainfall events decreased with latitude, and each rainy day brings, on  
 50 average, slightly less rainfall than further south. Maximum air temperature and diurnal  
 51 temperature ranges increase from the south west edge of the Gourma region to the northern  
 52 one, thus following the aridity gradient.

53 The Gourma transect samples an extremely sharp gradient of surface albedo and net  
 54 radiation. Since soils are bright sands and vegetation is sparser at the northern edge of the  
 55 Gourma site, surface albedo reaches values as high as 40% throughout the year at Bamba

1 (17.1°N, 1.4°W) whereas albedo values vary from 20% (wet season) to 35% (dry season) at  
 2 Agoufou (15.3°N, 1.5°W) (Samain et al., 2008). Net radiation is inversely correlated with the  
 3 albedo gradient. During the monsoon season, the daily average net radiation is maximum  
 4 near 15° N, and decreases northward to 17°N (Fig. 8), typifying the reduced radiation budget  
 5 of desert and semi-desert areas related to increasing albedo (Timouk et al., this issue). The  
 6 moist static energy (Guichard et al., this issue), whose latitudinal variations impact the  
 7 intensity of the monsoon flow, also decreases from Agoufou to Bamba.

### 8 9 *Vegetation*

10 Over most of the Gourma site, annual plants largely dominate the composition of the  
 11 herbaceous layer as elsewhere in the Sahel. However, perennial herbaceous, especially  
 12 grasses and sedges, are more common towards each of the two transitions zones. Tussock  
 13 perennials, such as *Andropogon gayanus* and *Cymbopogon giganteus* occur in some of the  
 14 loamy sand depressions to the south of the Gourma mesosite, while the tussocks of *Panicum*  
 15 *turgidum*, *Aristida sieberiana* and *Cyperus jeminicus*, colonise the dunes north of the Niger  
 16 River.

17  
18 Although the diversity of the herbaceous species is generally low as elsewhere in the Sahel  
 19 and species composition quite variable from year to year at a site, there are trends in species  
 20 composition with long cycle annuals such as *Diheteropogon hagerupii*, *Pennisetum*  
 21 *pedicellatum* and *Schoenefeldia gracilis* becoming more frequent in wetter sites to the south  
 22 of the region. Woody plant species diversity also increases with rainfall: many woody species  
 23 common in the Sudanian zone are not present north of the 450 mm isohyet such as  
 24 *Sclerocarya birrea*, while others do not grow north of the 300 mm isohyet such as  
 25 *Combretum glutinosum* and *Pterocarpus lucens*. However, there are also species common in  
 26 the arid and hyper-arid zones which are not spontaneous in more humid zones such as  
 27 *Salvadora persica*, *Euphorbia balsamifera*, *Maerua crassifolia* and *Acacia ehrenbergiana*.

28  
29 Herbaceous production decreases and its interannual variability increases on sandy and  
 30 shallow soils as climate becomes drier along the gradient (Fig. 9). However, herbaceous  
 31 production on clay soils in depressions across the full transect is similar because because  
 32 vegetation growth in these sites is driven by run-on and flood regime rather than by  
 33 precipitation *per se*. Similarly there is a weak trend of decreasing woody plant density,  
 34 canopy cover and height on sandy soils and shallow soils, as climate gets drier along the  
 35 gradient, but this relationships is not seen on clay soils (Hiernaux et al., 2009a, this issue).

## 36 37 38 **Two contrasted soil and hydrologic systems**

39  
40 In addition to the latitudinal arrangement along the climatic gradient, the Sahelian ecosystem  
 41 of the Gourma site is patterned by the juxtaposition of contrasted soils and hydrologic  
 42 systems across most of the rainfall gradient except in the northern transition zone to the  
 43 Sahara (north of the Niger River) which is dominated by sand dunes (Fig. 1)

### 44 45 *Soils and hydrologic systems*

46 The hydrologic behaviour (run-on/run-off balance) of each unit in the supersite soil map, has  
 47 been rated during a field survey, based on the expected water infiltration of the soil and the  
 48 topography. The rate used is the value of the coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) of the empirical relationship  
 49 between total infiltration or balance index (I) resulting from a precipitation (P) and a standard  
 50 precipitation of 10 mm (Hiernaux, 1984):  $I = P + \alpha (2P - 10)/10$

51 Among the values taken the coefficient  $\alpha$ , nine typical values between -4 (high losses by run-  
 52 off) and 15 (extremely high gains due to large external inputs) have been retained to  
 53 characterise the hydrologic behaviour each soil unit. As expected from an overall endorheic  
 54 system, the area weighed mean of the run-on/run-off balance rate calculated over the whole  
 55 super-site is almost null (-0.1). The slightly negative value of the weighed mean results the

1 slight imbalance between dominant run-off on rocky soils (-3.5) and loamy soils (-1.5),  
 2 balanced sandy soils (0.0), and dominant run-on on clay (+4.5) and sandy-loam soils (+2.2).  
 3 Anomalies of mean NDVI anomalies calculated over the wet season on a series of 2000-  
 4 2006 MODIS images confirm the empirical rating, highlights the partition of the Gourma into  
 5 two contrasted hydrologic systems. Sandy soil catchments consistently present small  
 6 anomalies and relatively high mean NDVI values, while watershed on otherwise textured  
 7 soils have large anomalies and relatively low mean NDVI values.

#### 8 9 *Soils and soil moisture*

10 In addition to rainfall variability, run-on / run-off balance driven by soil types and  
 11 geomorphology play an important role on the spatial patterns and dynamics of soil moisture  
 12 (de Rosnay et al., Timouk et al., this issue). Clay soils located in depressions with surface  
 13 run-on are temporarily flooded during the rainy season. Due also to their high clay content,  
 14 these surfaces exhibit the highest soil moisture (SM) values maintained at saturation during  
 15 flooding events. In contrast, rocky soils characterized by high run-off fraction show low SM  
 16 values. Lastly, the endorheic sandy systems, characterized by limited run-on / run-off  
 17 processes and by a high infiltration rate, show a well pronounced SM dynamics  
 18 characterized by fast variations of the surface soil moisture (Fig. 10a). In sandy soils, surface  
 19 flows and surface ponding rarely occurs and then only in limited areas for short time periods  
 20 (i.e. a few hours).

#### 21 22 *Vegetation*

23 Large differences in annual production of the herbaceous vegetation are observed between  
 24 sites belonging to the two hydrologic systems. Herbaceous yields are systematically low on  
 25 the shallow soil sites for which a large fraction of the rainfall is lost by run-off whereas  
 26 lowland fine textured soils present extreme values depending on success or failure of plant  
 27 seedlings to withstand flood. At inter-annual scales, production on sandy soils varies less  
 28 dramatically, with mean values between that of rocky soils and depressions. The spatial  
 29 heterogeneity of the herbaceous layer can be assessed as the coefficient of variation of  
 30 above ground biomass in 100 random samples (1m<sup>2</sup>) taken at peak biomass each year  
 31 (towards the end of the wet season (Hiernaux et al., 2009b, this issue). The coefficient of  
 32 variation of the herbaceous layer ranges between 50 and 75% in low land clay soils, 50 and  
 33 100 % in sandy soils, and 75 and 150% in shallow soils. Part of the high values reached by  
 34 herbaceous spatial heterogeneity is explained by the relative extent of bare soil patches that  
 35 on average cover only 6% of the area in sandy soils sites, but 72.3% on lowland clay and  
 36 83.5% on shallow soils.

37  
38 Woody plant populations also differ markedly between soils types, by the density of the  
 39 woody plants, their size and canopy cover, but also with regard to spatial distribution mode  
 40 and species composition. Over the super-site, canopy cover of woody plants reaches 9.5%  
 41 shared between bushes (5.8%), shrubs and low trees (3.7%). Woody plant cover are  
 42 unequally distributed in the landscape with 40.3% canopy cover in low land clayed soils,  
 43 12.2% in the loamy-clay to loamy-sand soils of flats and valleys, 5.7% in sandy soils and  
 44 2.9% in shallow soils. The spatial distribution of the woody plant varies from near random in  
 45 some *Acacia seyal* forest in lowlands or *Euphorbia balsamifera* open stands on loamy sands,  
 46 but are more often aggregated in relation with the pattern of soils, micro-topography and run-  
 47 off/run-on balances.

48 Soils and their associated hydrologic properties also largely determine the woody plant  
 49 species composition. Three dominant species contribute equally, for 13% each, to the woody  
 50 plant cover in the supersite: *Acacia raddiana*, predominantly but not exclusively on sandy  
 51 soils, the ubiquitous *Balanites aegyptiaca* and *Acacia seyal* which dominates in the low land  
 52 forest on flooded clay soils. *Acacia ehrenbergiana* and *Boscia senegalensis*, common on  
 53 shallow and sandy-loam soils contribute each to 9%. Another three species account for 5-6  
 54 % each: *Combretum glutinosum* on sandy soils, *Anogeissus leiocarpus* on flooded loamy

1 soils and *Acacia nilotica* on flooded clay soils. Together these 8 species account for 73% of  
2 the cover, the 13 other species all account for less than 5% of the woody cover.  
3  
4

## 5 **A brief and hectic rain season**

### 6 *Seasonal cycle*

7 Surface energy budget, soil moisture and vegetation growth are markedly shaped by the  
8 alternation of a long dry season and a short rain season, as detailed in Guichard et al., de  
9 Rosnay et al., Timouk et al. (2009, this issue) and Hiernaux et al. (2009b, this issue). Being  
10 at the northern edge of the WAM domain, the average rain season in the Gourma only lasts  
11 120 days on average in the south and 60 days on average in the north with 30 to 12 rainy  
12 days from south to north across the Gourma site (Frappart et al., this issue). The rainfall is  
13 made of several major rain events with important intermittency. Not surprisingly, this is  
14 reflected in many aspects of eco-hydrology in the Gourma. The rapid germination and growth  
15 of the annual grasses and dicotyledons is a prime example of such a sharp cycle. During the  
16 period of seedling establishment, characterized by active root growth, LAI remains at low  
17 values, below 0.1 at the Agoufou local site in 2007 (Fig.10). Then, if soil moisture permits, as  
18 after DoY 210 of 2007 at Agoufou, following heavy rains, growth is rapid till the end of August.  
19 At Agoufou, maximum LAI was reached on DoY 235 (August 22 2007) followed by the  
20 beginning of senescence triggered by the lack of water in the rooting zone. C4 annual  
21 grasses display very high photosynthesis rates (Damesin et al. unpublished data), which  
22 sustains the rapid growth whenever soil moisture is available between seedling  
23 establishment and flowering. In September 2007, the overall decrease of the green  
24 vegetation at Agoufou was buffered by late rainfall events occurring between DoY 238 and  
25 258. However, the bulk of the herbaceous production is achieved within a few days or weeks  
26 of active production so that the level of herbaceous yield is largely determined by the  
27 duration and soil moisture condition of that period. In turn, the rapid plant growth greatly  
28 impacts the land surface properties like the energy balance and water fluxes. The  
29 synchronized response of surface albedo and LAI can be seen in Fig.7a and Fig. 10b, with a  
30 time lag between these two variables and soil moisture (Fig. 10).  
31  
32  
33

### 34 *Intra-seasonal variations*

35 In addition to the shortness of the rain season, plants are confronted with a high level of  
36 uncertainty in the timing and consistency of rainfall within the growing season. It is frequent  
37 that the first germinations dry out due to a lack of rain, while the subsequent cohorts of plants  
38 grow normally and produce seeds. Sequences of 5 to 10 days without precipitation are  
39 frequent even during the core of the rainy season and the frequency and duration of these  
40 intra-seasonal droughts increase with latitude (Frappart et al., this issue). These dry spells  
41 considerably modify the surface energy budget and evapotranspiration, as shown on Fig. 8  
42 and Fig. 10c for the Agoufou grassland in 2007. During a dry spell starting after the rainfall of  
43 DoY 240, the latent heat flux decreases rapidly during a 7 days dry period, whereas the  
44 surface energy is increasingly dissipated as sensible heat flux. During the dry spell, soil  
45 moisture is depleted and plant growth is interrupted (Fig. 10a, b). The system switches back  
46 to moist conditions after the rain of DoY 249, immediately for latent and sensible heat fluxes  
47 (Fig. 10c), after two days for the CO<sub>2</sub> flux (Fig. 10d). Plant growth also rapidly resumes,  
48 which shows how quickly Sahelian grasslands can recover after a short dry spells during the  
49 growing season.  
50  
51

## 52 **Large inter-annual variations**

### 53 *Climate*

1 The varying number and intensity of rain events observed during a rainy season at Hombori  
2 generate an important inter-annual variability in soil and vegetation growth. The AMMA  
3 Enhanced Observing Period (EOP), sampled three different years: 2005 (total 408mm)  
4 provided a long and regular rain season close to the climate average. 2006 (total 377mm)  
5 was characterized by a very late but intense rain season, whereas 2007 (total 291mm) was  
6 also very late but well below the long-term average (Fig. 4b). The rainfall recorded from 2005  
7 to 2007 are largely above the 167mm recorded in 2004, which in the Gourma, was a drought  
8 almost as extreme as the 'historical droughts of 1973 and 1984.

#### 11 *Inter-annual variability of vegetation*

12 Most of the Inter-annual variation in annual herbaceous production result from inter-annual  
13 variation in the soil moisture regime driven by rainfall volume and distribution as illustrated by  
14 the variations of herbaceous green mass at Agoufou during the 2005, 2006 and 2007 wet  
15 season (Fig 11). However, it may occur locally, that the seed stock limits growth, either  
16 because rainfall were insufficient in previous years for plants to seed because intense  
17 herbivory reduced seed production, or else because high seed consumption by rodents or  
18 birds has depleted the seed stock. More generally, since the herbaceous cover originates  
19 every year from the germination of seeds produced mostly during the previous growing  
20 season, and because annual plants respond strongly and quickly to soil water availability,  
21 frequent and abrupt changes in species composition have been observed. However, these  
22 shifts are not linked to the inter-annual variations in herbaceous production (Hiernaux et al.,  
23 2009b, this issue).

24  
25 For perennial components of the vegetation, there are inter-annual variations in the  
26 production of established individuals and variation in population recruitment and mortality  
27 rates. Compared to annual plants, the production variations are buffered by the wider  
28 growing season and the benefit from soil moisture stocked over consecutive years. Yet, inter-  
29 annual discrepancies measured in maximum leaf mass per standard branchlet on an array of  
30 woody species reached proportions of 4 to 1 in extreme cases (Hiernaux et al., 1994). Even  
31 more fluctuant between years are the mortality and cohort recruitment events, contributing to  
32 the decoupling of woody population dynamics from annual climates.

#### 34 *Inter-annual variability in surface properties and energy fluxes*

35 The difference in rainfall between 2005 and 2006, illustrated in Janicot et al. (2008),  
36 produced a dry anomaly throughout the Sahel in early 2006, indicated by a significant  
37 AMSR-E derived soil moisture anomaly, leading to a negative anomaly of early season  
38 NDVI. The core monsoon season however is characterized by a reversal of the anomalies,  
39 which turn positive, showing that plants were able to recover, and even produce more  
40 greenness, in 2006 compared to 2005. This scheme applies to the whole central and  
41 northern Sahel and holds also true for the Gourma (Fig.11). As a result, surface albedo and  
42 net radiation obey the same logic, with net radiation and albedo reaching similar values in  
43 2006 and 2005 (Samain et al., 2008). Data from 2007, however demonstrate that plant  
44 recovery is significantly impaired if the late season rainfall are insufficient to compensate a  
45 late start of the monsoon season. In terms of energy balance, 2004 was remarkable in the  
46 sense that the seasonal cycle was almost completely suppressed by the drought, because of  
47 a very poor vegetation growth for the Agoufou site (Samain et al. 2008).

## 50 **Long term trends**

### 52 *Climate*

53 Compared to the wet period of the 50s, the annual rainfall amount in the 1970-2007 dry  
54 period shows a 20% reduction translating to a southward shift of the annual isohyets  
55 (Frappart et al., this issue). The length of the rainy season has decreased during the 1950-

1 2007 period due to both a delay of the starting date and an earlier ending. Results show that  
2 the decrease of the number of rainy days in the Gourma site in the last decade may be  
3 associated to an intensification of the daily rainfall.

4 Since 1950, the observed mean annual air temperature increase is about 0.7°C. This  
5 increasing trend mainly affects the minimum temperatures, which have increased 1.3°C,  
6 whereas the positive trend is much less pronounced on the maximum temperatures (0.1°C).  
7 This trend is consistent with the observations made over the West African Sahel showing  
8 that the increase is higher at the driest edge of the Sahel (Zhou et al., 2007).

#### 9 10 *Surface waters*

11 In apparent contradiction with the negative precipitation trend, the analysis of the long term  
12 remote sensing data showed evidences of a general increase in the surface of the Gourma  
13 ponds over the last 50 years (Gardelle et al., 2009). Moreover, after the major droughts of  
14 the 1970s and 1980s some temporary ponds became permanent. A particularly striking  
15 example is the increase of the Agoufou pond area as quantified by the classification of  
16 remote sensing images; its size at the end of the rainy season was less than 10 ha in the  
17 sixties, increased to about 60 ha in 1996 and it is nowadays between 440 and 560 ha (Fig.  
18 12). Corresponding calculated normalized anomalies of the surface extent of the Agoufou  
19 pond show very negative values in 1954 and 1965 i.e. during the wet period whereas positive  
20 values are found since 1990, in a context of drier years (Fig. 13). However, note that the very  
21 dry 2004 year exhibits the only negative anomaly within the last decade.

22  
23 These observations are in agreement with the increase of surface runoff reported for some  
24 other Sahelian region (e.g. Favreau et al., 2009; Cappelaere et al.; this issue; Descroix et al.,  
25 this issue) yet its causes are not yet fully understood. The intensification of agricultural  
26 activities and the associated increase of crusted soils suggested as a possible explanation  
27 for the South West Niger region does not hold for the Gourma site, where agriculture has a  
28 minor impact and where, more likely, causes are to be sought in the decrease of vegetation  
29 and in the modification of soil surface characteristics following the major droughts of the  
30 1970s and 1980s.

#### 31 32 *Vegetation*

33 Long term trends like the shift to more arid tolerant species after the 1984 drought and the  
34 slow return to typical Sahelian flora, can only be identified through systematic and regular  
35 observations performed over long period of time as they are masked by high inter-annual  
36 variability (Hiernaux et al., 2009b, this issue). This applies particularly to tree population  
37 dynamics which operate at a longer time scale than that of the herbaceous cover (Hiernaux  
38 et al., 2009a, this issue).

39 Dramatic variations of the woody cover occurred during the study period following the 1983-  
40 84 drought, which affected all the woody populations (Fig. 14 and Fig. 15). Following the  
41 drought-induced mortality and in spite of below average rainfall conditions, woody  
42 populations have recovered in most sites as illustrated by site #17 on sandy soils and site  
43 #21 on clay soils, apart from specific situations possibly linked to land use history (fire,  
44 clearing, camp settlement) like on the site #31. Tree density and canopy cover have strongly  
45 increased in temporarily flooded open forests on clayed plains (e.g. site #21) which benefit  
46 from increasing run-off water originating from adjacent shallow soils. Similar observations are  
47 made along the latitudinal gradient and there is no evidence for a higher sensitivity to drought  
48 at the driest end of the rainfall gradient.

49 Fig. 16a-16b display the normalized rainfall anomaly index (Lebel and Ali, this issue) for the  
50 Hombori meteorological station over the 1984-2007 study period, and a similar normalized  
51 index calculated from measurements of herbaceous production performed on 3 sandy sites  
52 at the Hombori super-site. Only observations collected on endorheic sandy soils are reported  
53 here as they are more directly related to rainfall variations. The range of variability is of the  
54 same order for the two data sets, but with slightly higher variability in annual rainfall than in  
55 herbage production. In contrast to observations made over the Niger site (Hiernaux et al.,

1 2009c, Cappelaere et al., 2009, this issue), there is no evidence for a long term decreasing  
2 trend in herbage production which remains strongly related to the rainfall amount and above  
3 all to the temporal distribution of rainfall events (see also, Hiernaux et al., 2009b, this issue).  
4 These results point out the strong resilience of the herbaceous cover on sandy soils in the  
5 Sahel.

## 8 **The human dimension**

### 10 *Social dimensions of the water resource*

11 The most striking character of the water resource in the commune of Hombori is the diversity  
12 of local situations: practically every village or pastoral camp has a particular relationship with  
13 the resource. It results from the combination of different factors: a) the types of water  
14 availability (lakes, pools, shallow wells); b) the types of access modes including various  
15 extraction devices, sources of energy and transportation modes; c) the rules framing the  
16 legitimacy, precedence and other determinants of access to the resource; d) the economical  
17 conditions for accessing and extracting the resource; e) the organization required to maintain  
18 the resource and access. These local observations might be representative of a many  
19 municipalities in the Gourma or even in the Sahel.

### 22 *Social vulnerability to the water resource and management*

23 Monsoon variability is recognized as a key determinant of water security, by the social  
24 groups that organize their life in a way that provides the maximum advantage of these  
25 environmental features. However, the capacity for these populations to overcome crises is  
26 limited by several factors. It has been observed that, in response to the severe droughts,  
27 several of the surveyed households diversified their portfolio of activities and resource uses  
28 (Thébaud, 2002). This was possible due to the availability of a diversity of resources on a  
29 restrained territory and because their accessibility and exploitability were susceptible of  
30 social rearrangements. From enquiries among households in Hombori, a few structural  
31 patterns conditioning the social vulnerability to water-related risks can be identified: a) the  
32 scarcity of permanent potable water points; b) the lack of maintenance of some water  
33 devices available for collective uses; c) the concurrent uses in the same places that often  
34 results in the spoiling of the freshwater; e) the absence of treatment plants. Yet, not all social  
35 groups are equality exposed to risks, and exposure depends on the activity. The most often  
36 evoked risk concerns human health. The risk of water shortage is related to the intensity of  
37 the rainy season and on the threats put on the agriculture production and food security. The  
38 water use requires an every day hard labour usually done by women. Recurring water  
39 scarcity directly increases this burden and intensify the vulnerability of the corresponding  
40 groups.

### 42 *Water resource management practices and governance*

43 Water management, effective at the local scale, is embedded in a national policy frame  
44 which may explicitly concern the resources like in the National Plan for Environment (1998),  
45 the Pastoral Charter (2001) and the Orientation Law for Agriculture (2006). It can also  
46 constitute a deeper legal trend that impacts resource management and governance like the  
47 adoption of decentralization measures (Kassibo, 1997; Dia, 2006) and the consequent  
48 transfer of environmental liability to territorial authorities. Three kinds of legal instruments are  
49 operated: a) orientation instruments that define objectives (food security, institutional tools to  
50 protect the environment, etc;) and open the possibility for local actors to assume  
51 environmental responsibilities; b) binding regulations that introduce new obligations and  
52 permissions regarding the access and uses of resources; c) incentives that allow for  
53 negotiated local arrangements between the stakeholders (Dicko and Djiré, 2007). Yet the  
54 local practices are far from these idealized frames, most often reflecting the concurrent uses  
55 of resources and the development of strategies by the local actors. Surface water such as

1 ponds for example, is the main water resource that has always been used as drinking water  
2 for human and livestock, for washing, for several craft activities, and it is increasingly used  
3 for gardens irrigation and fish breeding. Opposite to some well or borehole water, pond  
4 water remains a free public good in Hombori. However, the access to pond water may be  
5 regulated, at least seasonally when becoming scarce, either by infrastructures like crop field  
6 and fences that impede or channel the access of livestock or else through priority  
7 arrangements between use and users. In some particular case, the use of water is paid  
8 either in kind (fetch water to irrigate) or money (right to breed fish in ponds). The beneficiary  
9 of this fishing tax is not clearly stated by law and generates conflict between village  
10 customary and district authorities.  
11

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## 1 CONCLUSION

2  
3 Taking advantage of existing data sets on climate and vegetation, the AMMA-CATCH  
4 research activities at the Gourma site in Mali are widely multi-disciplinary and rely on the  
5 deployment of a large network of instruments across the climatic gradient. The up-scaling of  
6 local-scale results is achieved by remote sensing and modelling tools. During the AMMA  
7 Enhanced Observing Period (2005-2007), numerous investigations of eco-physiology and  
8 land surface processes have been carried out. The combined use of the Long Term  
9 Ecological survey (1984-present) and the results of the recent process studies should allow  
10 us to reanalyse historical survey data and develop realistic scenarios on the role of land  
11 surface in the transition from the wet period (1950 – 1970) to the dry period (1970 to  
12 present). Such realistic scenarios are crucial for a correct interpretation of  
13 surface/atmosphere feedback loops. Furthermore, the combination of long term surface  
14 dynamics monitoring with detailed process studies establishes a much awaited basis for  
15 future climate/land surface simulations in West-Africa.

16  
17 The variation in rainfall across the Sahelian climatic gradient shows a  $1\text{mm km}^{-1}$  in rainfall  
18 with increasing latitude. From South to North there is also a sharp gradient of surface albedo  
19 and net radiation, a decrease in mean vegetation production yet increasing variability from  
20 year to year, at least on sandy and shallow soils. The distribution of vegetation functional  
21 types also follows the latitudinal arrangements: with more perennial herbaceous at both  
22 extremities of the gradient, the functional diversity of annual herbaceous decreasing with  
23 latitude as well as the woody plant density, size, cover and species diversity.

24  
25 However, at any point along the gradient, surface energy budget, soil moisture and  
26 vegetation growth contrast between two main types of soil surfaces and hydrologic systems.  
27 On the one hand, sandy soils with high water infiltration rates and limited run-off within small  
28 endorheic catchments, support almost continuous herbaceous layer with scattered woody  
29 plants. On the other hand, water infiltration is poor on shallow soils and lowland fine textured  
30 soils, generating large concentrated run-off that ends in pools within structured endorheic  
31 watersheds. The vegetation cover of these watersheds is extremely patchy, with large areas  
32 remaining bare of herbaceous all year round, and large areas with very scattered shrubs  
33 contrasting with small areas of dense linear thickets and low land forest. Because of the  
34 distinct soil surface, soil moisture regime and vegetation growth, the two main hydrologic  
35 systems also contrast in albedo, energy balance, water and  $\text{CO}_2$  fluxes. The short duration of  
36 the rainy season and the determinant role of a few major rain events with important  
37 intermittency reinforce the functioning contrast between the two hydrologic systems.

38  
39 The long term dynamics of the ecosystem seems to also diverge between the two hydrologic  
40 systems that share the landscape. Indeed, the vegetation of the sandy soils is more sensitive  
41 and responds more rapidly to drought than vegetation on rocky soils or in the depressions.  
42 But the vegetation demonstrated large resilience, so that even if some components such as  
43 the woody plant population remained affected over longer time the ecosystem functioning  
44 recovered after a couple of years. On the contrary, deep structural and functional changes  
45 triggered by the droughts have persisted if not aggravated in the gravelly watersheds. On the  
46 watershed slopes, vegetation cover kept regressing over decades following drought, and its  
47 partial recovery adopt new patterns marked by the increased run-off and soil erosion that  
48 resulted from the large and durable opening of the herbaceous layer. At the watershed scale  
49 increased run-off has fed the swelling of ponds in apparent contradiction with the negative  
50 precipitation trend. The impact of the increased run-on on lowland vegetation is more  
51 variable depending on the associated change in flood regime, but globally there is a  
52 significant increase in woody plant population density and cover in lowlands.

53  
54 Although much of the research is still active, the Mali site of AMMA-CATCH is already  
55 contributing through scientific publications including papers in this special issue of the

1 Journal of Hydrology to a better knowledge on the physical, hydrological and biological  
2 processes at soil surface in relation with the West African Monsoon. Some elements of the  
3 feedback effects of the variation of geophysical surface on the atmosphere and the WAM  
4 system are also revealed by the study.  
5

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2

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9

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1 **Figure captions**

2  
3 Fig. 1: a) and c) Location of the Gourma meso-scale site ( $14.5^{\circ}$  -  $17.5^{\circ}$  N;  $1^{\circ}$  -  $2^{\circ}$  W) showing  
4 the three embedded study spatial scales (Gourma meso-, Hombori super- and Agoufou,  
5 Eguerit and Kelma local- sites) superimposed on a Landsat false colour composite image.  
6 The figure shows the instrument and vegetation monitoring site networks. Green coloured  
7 surfaces correspond to savanna vegetation on sandy soils. Pink surfaces correspond to  
8 rocky and gravelly surfaces like lateritic pans. Fine textured loamy soils are associated to  
9 white surfaces; b) Dominant soil types at meso-scale. Also indicated are the mean isohyets  
10 estimated during 1970-89 period (Frappart et al., this issue).

11  
12 Fig. 2: Location of the instrument network and vegetation monitoring sites at the Hombori  
13 super-site ( $15.58 - 15.13^{\circ}$  N,  $1.75^{\circ} - 1.33^{\circ}$  W).

14  
15 Fig. 3: Location of the instrument network at the Agoufou local site ( $15.3^{\circ}$  N,  $1.5^{\circ}$  W).

16  
17 Fig. 4: Long term rainfall anomalies at the Hombori meteorological station: a) 1920 – 2007  
18 period (mean = 373 mm). The anomaly is calculated as the difference between the total  
19 amount of the year under consideration and the long term annual mean; b) Cumulative daily  
20 rainfall at Hombori during EOP (2005 – 2007).

21  
22 Fig.5: Land cover map of the Hombori super-site obtained from the classification of SPOT-4  
23 images, photo-interpretation of Landsat scenes and field observations. Land cover classes 1-  
24 5 belong the endorheic system with local sheet run-off. Classes 6-10 belong to the endorheic  
25 system with concentrated run-off in structured watersheds.

26  
27 Fig. 6: Eddy covariance flux station at the Agoufou local site (August 2005).

28  
29 Fig. 7: Evaluation of satellite products during EOP (2007): a) MODIS albedo, b) Normalised  
30 AMSR-E volumetric Surface Soil Moisture (SSM), c) MODIS Leaf Area Index (LAI).

31  
32 Fig. 8: Comparison of the seasonal variation of net radiation observed at Agoufou ( $15.3^{\circ}$  N,  
33  $1.5^{\circ}$  W) and Bamba ( $17.1^{\circ}$  N,  $1.4^{\circ}$  W) during 2007. Also are indicated the daily rainfalls for the  
34 two sites.

35  
36 Fig. 9: Variation of vegetation production across the Gourma gradient: a) mean herbaceous  
37 mass measured at the end of the growing season over 1984-2006, b) temporal variation  
38 index (mean of the site coefficient of variation of the mass mean), plotted against the latitude  
39 position of the sites sorted by soil types.

40  
41 Fig. 10: Seasonal variation of surface variables at the Agoufou local site during EOP (2007)  
42 from 30 May to 27 October: a) Daily rainfall and soil water content in the rooting zone (0 to 1  
43 meter depth), b) Total (herbaceous + trees) Leaf Area Index (LAI); from 28 August to 10  
44 Septembre: c) Sensible and Latent fluxes, d)  $\text{CO}_2$  flux.

45  
46 Fig. 11: Inter-annual variations of vegetation herbage mass at Agoufou during EOP (2005-  
47 2007). Uncertainties on mass values are 15%.

48  
49 Fig. 12: Comparison of aerial photographs and high resolution satellite images recorded over  
50 the Agoufou pond at the end of the raining season in 1966 (CORONA satellite image), 1996  
51 (aerial photograph) and 2006 (SPOT satellite image).

52  
53 Fig. 13: Long term anomalies of the surface extent of the Agoufou pond over the period  
54 1954-2007. Estimation of the maximum annual extent is based on the use of aerial, high  
55 (SPOT and Landsat) or intermediate (MODIS) resolution satellite images.

1 Fig. 14: Long term tree cover variation for 3 vegetation sites at the Hombori super-site  
2 showing increasing (# 21), overall constant (# 17) and decreasing (# 31) trends. On the  
3 central plots, blue and red symbols correspond to live and dead trees, respectively (after  
4 *Hiernaux et al., 2009a, this issue*). Aerial images show the variation of tree density on the  
5 different sites between a) October 1984 (# 17) or 1985 (# 21, 31) and b) March 2007 (# 17,  
6 21, 31).  
7

8 Fig. 15: Comparative photographs of the same vegetation sites as in Fig. 14, showing the  
9 variation in the tree population, taken in a) 1985 (#17, 31) or 1988 (# 21) and b) 2005 (# 31)  
10 or 2007 (# 17, 21).  
11

12 Fig. 16: Long term anomalies at the Hombori super-site over the period 1984 – 2007 of a)  
13 Rainfall Index, b) herbage production Index. Estimated vegetation anomalies are based on  
14 measurements made on 3 vegetation sites located on sandy soils (after *Hiernaux et al.,*  
15 *2009b, this issue*).  
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2 **Table 1** Characteristics of the land cover types mapped over the Hombori super-site:  
 3 relative areas (%) of bare soil patches, of canopy cover by woody plants and area cropped,  
 4 and indication of main woody plant species encountered.

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Land cover types	Bare soil patches (%)	Woody plant cover (%)	Dominant woody species	Cropped field area (%)
Bare sands	>80	< 0.5	<i>Leptadenia pyrotechnica</i> , <i>Balanites aegyptiaca</i> , <i>Acacia raddiana</i>	0
Sand dune	<20	2 – 10	<i>Acacia raddiana</i> , <i>Combretum glutinosum</i> , <i>B. aegyptiaca</i> , <i>A. Senegal</i> , <i>L. pyrotechnica</i>	< 5
Sand sheet	<30	1 – 3	<i>Acacia ehrenbergiana</i> , <i>Boscia senegalensis</i> , <i>Maerua crassifolia</i> , <i>A. raddiana</i> , <i>B. aegyptiaca</i>	0
Sandy plain	<10	5 – 15	<i>A. raddiana</i> , <i>B. aegyptiaca</i> , <i>Sclerocarya birrea</i> , <i>Guiera senegalensis</i> , <i>A. laeta</i>	0 – 30
Loamy sands	<20	10 – 30	<i>A. laeta</i> , <i>Sclerocarya birrea</i> , <i>Euphorbia balsamifera</i> , <i>Grewia bicolor</i>	0 – 30
Loamy flats	>80	< 0.5	<i>A. ehrenbergiana</i> , <i>B. senegalensis</i> , <i>Calotropis procera</i> , <i>M. crassifolia</i> , <i>Commiphora africana</i>	0
Clayed plain	0 – 100	5 – 80	<i>Acacia seyal</i> , <i>Anogeissus leiocarpus</i> , <i>Acacia nilotica</i> , <i>Mitragyna inermis</i> , <i>B. aegyptiaca</i>	< 5
Hard pan	>80	0 – 5	<i>Boscia senegalensis</i> , <i>Combretum micranthum</i> , <i>Pterocarpus lucens</i> , <i>A. ehrenbergiana</i>	0
Schist outcrop	>80	< 1	<i>A. ehrenbergiana</i> , <i>Commiphora Africana</i> , <i>Maerua crassifolia</i> , <i>Ziziphus mauritiana</i>	0
Sandstone rocks	>80	1 – 15	<i>Sclerocarya birrea</i> , <i>Acacia Senegal</i> , <i>Combretum micranthum</i>	< 1
Mean	41	9.5		2.4

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**Table 2** Characteristics of soil texture in terms of sand, clay and silt contents (%) for the 3 local sites (Agoufou, Kelma and Eguerit). Particles size are defined as clay (<0.002 mm), silt (<0.05 mm), and sand (<2 mm).

Depth (cm)	Agoufou (15.34°N, 1.48°W)			Eguerit (15.50°N, 1.40°W)			Kelma (15.22°N, 1.56°W)		
	Sand	Silt	Clay	Sand	Silt	Clay	Sand	Silt	Clay
0-6	91.0	3.3	4.6	43.6	29,8	26.3	47.8	27.5	24.5
6-12	91.1	3.2	5.1	43.6	27,9	28.1	40.3	19.4	40.0
12-25	89.7	4.1	5.8	30.2	27,4	42.1	35.1	19.8	45.1
25-50	90.9	3.2	5.5	-	-	-	31.6	16.1	52.4
50-100	92.0	1.9	5.8	-	-	-	30.1	21	48.9

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**Table 3** General characteristics of the 3 instrumented local sites distributed within the Hombori super-site. Is also indicated the list of instruments deployed on each site (FS: *Energy and CO<sub>2</sub> Flux station*; AWS: *Automatic Weather Station*; AR: *Automatic Raingauge*; ASMS: *Automatic Soil Moisture Station*; PARIS: *PAR Interception Station*; SFS: *Sap Flux Station*; CO2: *CO<sub>2</sub> precision station*; IDAF: *wet and dry deposit station*; AERONET: *photometer*; HFS: *Heat Flux Station*).

Site Name Location	Soil Type	Vegetation type	Dominant herbaceous species	Dominant woody species	Instrument
Agoufou (15.34°N, 1.48°W)	Fixed dunes	Open woody savannah	<i>Cenchrus biflorus</i> , <i>Aristida mutabilis</i> , <i>Zornia glochidiata</i> , <i>Tragus berteronianus</i>	<i>Acacia raddiana</i> , <i>Combretum glutinosum</i> , <i>B. aegyptiaca</i> , <i>A. Senegal</i> , <i>L. pyrotechnica</i>	FS, AWS, AR, ASMS, PARIS, SFS, CO <sub>2</sub> , IDAF, AERONET
Eguerit (15.50°N, 1.40°W)	Gravels, loamy patches	Scattered shrubs, herbs on loamy deposits	<i>Schoenefeldia gracilis</i> , <i>Aristida adscensionis</i> , <i>Pennisetum violaceum</i> , <i>Panicum laetum</i>	<i>A. ehrenbergiana</i> , <i>Commiphora Africana</i> , <i>Maerua crassifolia</i> , <i>Ziziphus mauritiana</i>	HFS, AR, ASMS
Kelma (15.22°N, 1.56°W)	Clayed soil	Open Forest	<i>Sporobolus hevolvus</i> , <i>Echinochloa colona</i> , <i>Aeschynomene sensitive</i>	<i>Acacia seyal</i> , <i>Acacia nilotica</i> , <i>B. aegyptiaca</i>	FS, AR, ASMS, SFS

**Table 4** List of measured variables at the Automatic Weather Stations.

Variable	Unit	Height (m)	Instrument
Incoming short wave radiation	$W m^{-2}$	2.2	Kipp&Zonen CNR1
Outgoing short wave radiation	$W m^{-2}$	2.2	Kipp&Zonen CNR1
Incoming long wave radiation	$W m^{-2}$	2.2	Kipp&Zonen CNR1
Outgoing long wave radiation	$W m^{-2}$	2.2	Kipp&Zonen CNR1
Incoming global PAR	$mmol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	2.2	Delta T BF3
Incoming diffuse PAR	$mmol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	2.2	Delta T BF3
IRT surface temperature	$^{\circ}C$	2.2	Apogee IRTS-P
Wind velocity	$m s^{-1}$	2.2	Vector A100R
Wind direction	$^{\circ}360$	2.2	Vector W200P
Atmospheric pressure	hPa	1	Setra 278
Air temperature	$^{\circ}C$	2	Campbell CS215
Relative humidity	%	2	Campbell CS215
Rainfall	mm	1,5	Campbell SBS500
TDR Soil moisture	Ms	-0.1, -0.3, -0.6, -0.8, -1.2, -1.5, -2.5, -4.0, -5.0	Campbell CS616
Soil heat flux	$W m^{-2}$	-0.05, -0,1	Huskflux HFP01
Soil temperature	$^{\circ}C$	-0.05, -0,1	Campbell &08, 107
Soil surface temperature	$^{\circ}C$	-0.001	RoHS type K
PIR radiometer (MODIS, SPOT)	$mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	3	Skye SKR1850A
R radiometer (MODIS, SPOT)	$mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	3	Skye SKR1850A

**Table 5** List of monitored variables recorded at the Gourma site with automatic instruments and field campaigns.

Variable	Units
Gross Photosynthetic Productivity (GPP)	$\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$
Net Primary Productivity (NPP)	$\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$
Net Ecosystem Productivity (NEP)	$\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{d}^{-1}$
Herbaceous green standing mass (BM)	$\text{gDM m}^{-2}$
Herbaceous dry standing mass	$\text{gDM m}^{-2}$
Herbaceous litter mass	$\text{gDM m}^{-2}$
Herbaceous root mass	$\text{gDM m}^{-2}$
Herbaceous Leaf Area Index (LAI)	$\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$
Tree standing mass	$\text{gDM m}^{-2}$
Tree Plant Area Index (PAI)	$\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$
Fraction of Absorbed Photosynthetically Active Radiation (FAPAR)	-
Soil Respiration	$\mu\text{molC m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$
Maximum Photosynthetic Assimilation	$\mu\text{molC m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$
Latent heat flux	$\text{W m}^{-2}$
Sensible heat flux	$\text{W m}^{-2}$
Soil heat flux	$\text{W m}^{-2}$
CO <sub>2</sub> concentration (at 2m)	ppmv
Runoff	$\text{mm d}^{-1}$
Drainage	$\text{mm d}^{-1}$
Soil Water Content	$\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$
Sap flow	$\text{kg h}^{-1}$

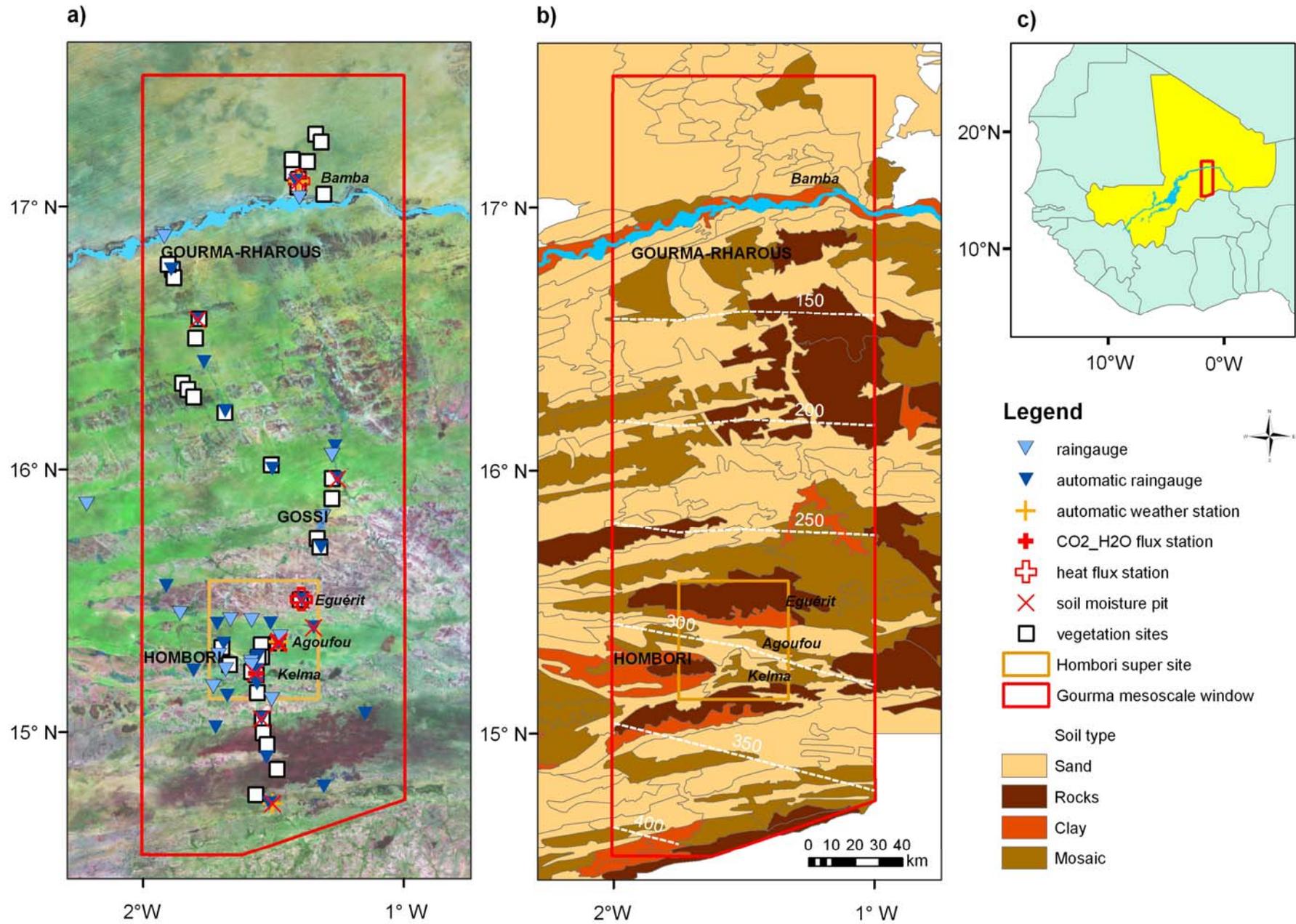


Fig.2

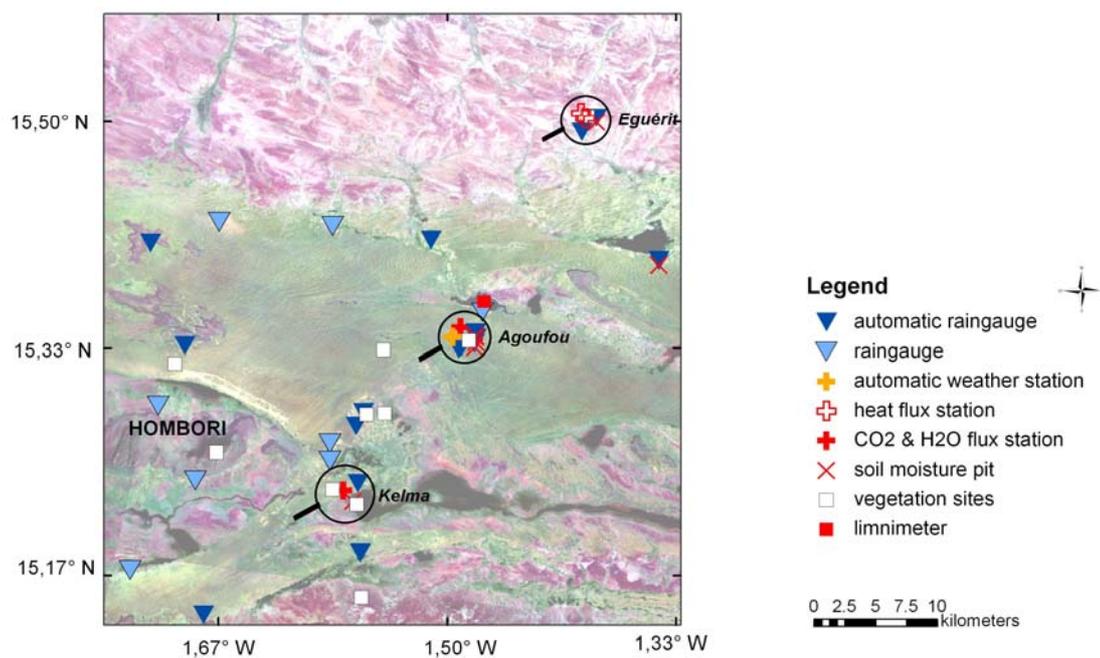


Fig. 3

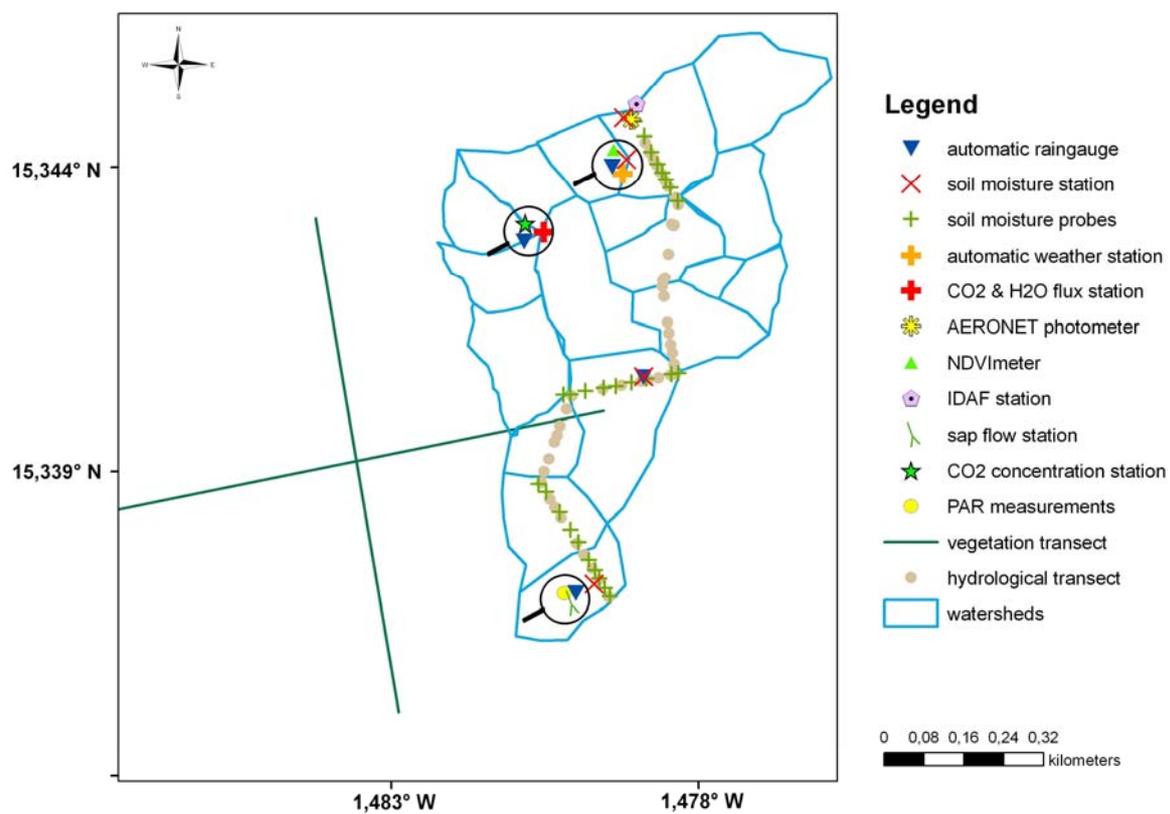
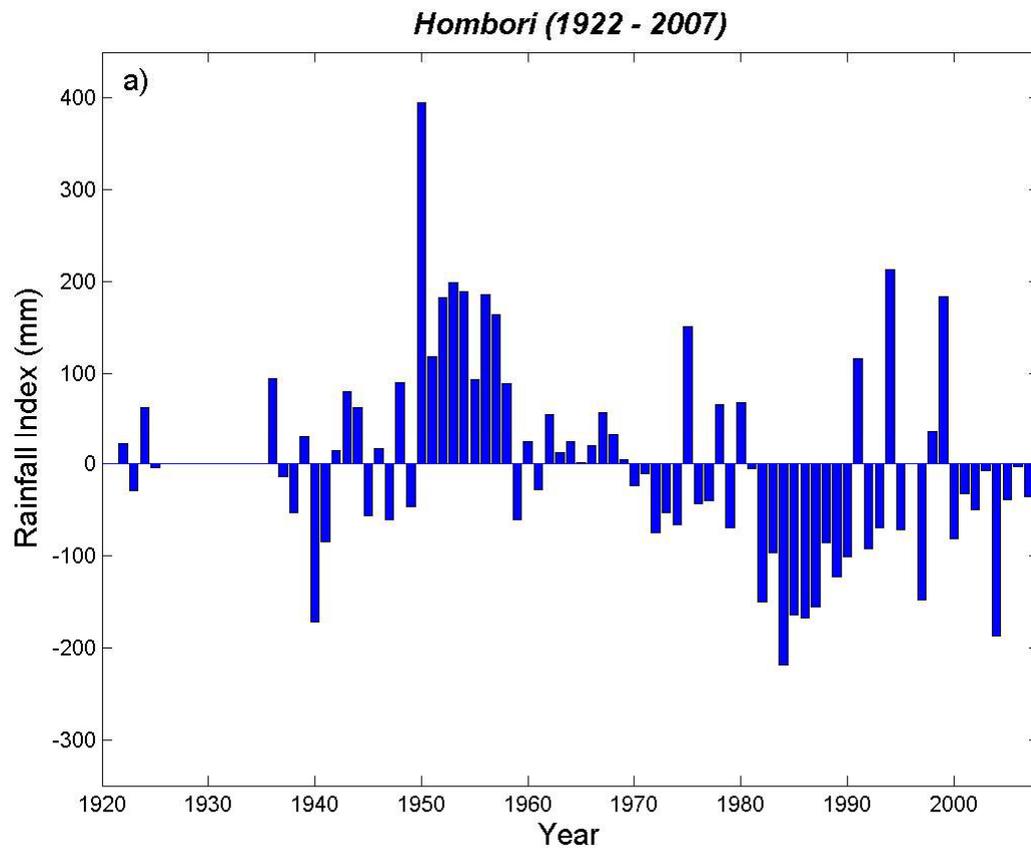
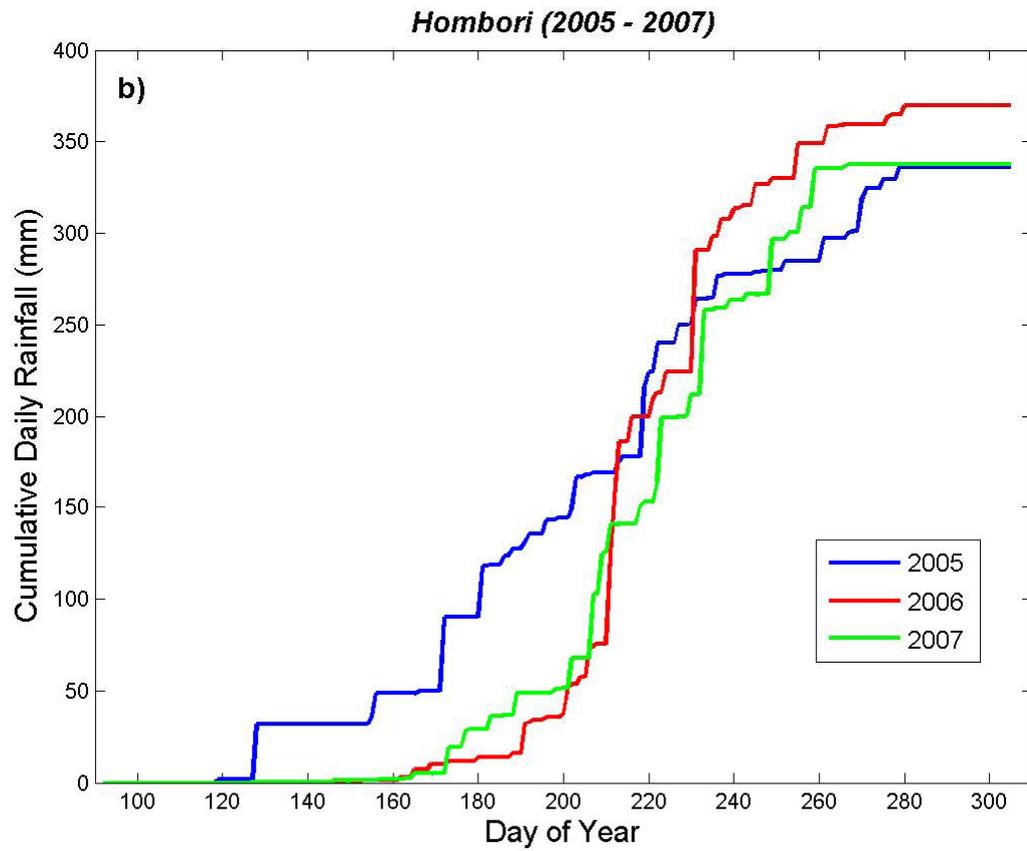


Fig.4



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Fig. 5

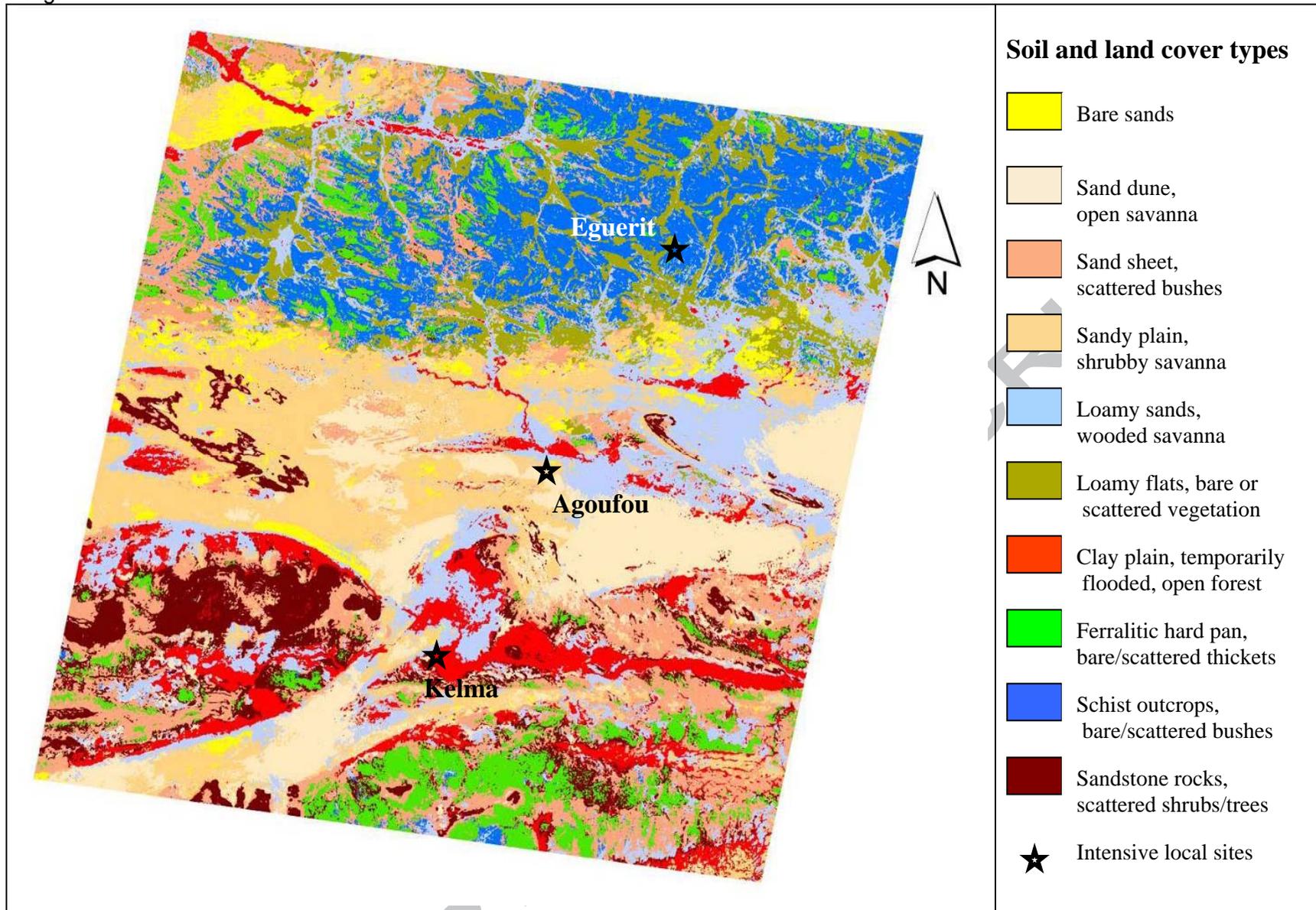


Fig. 6



Fig. 7

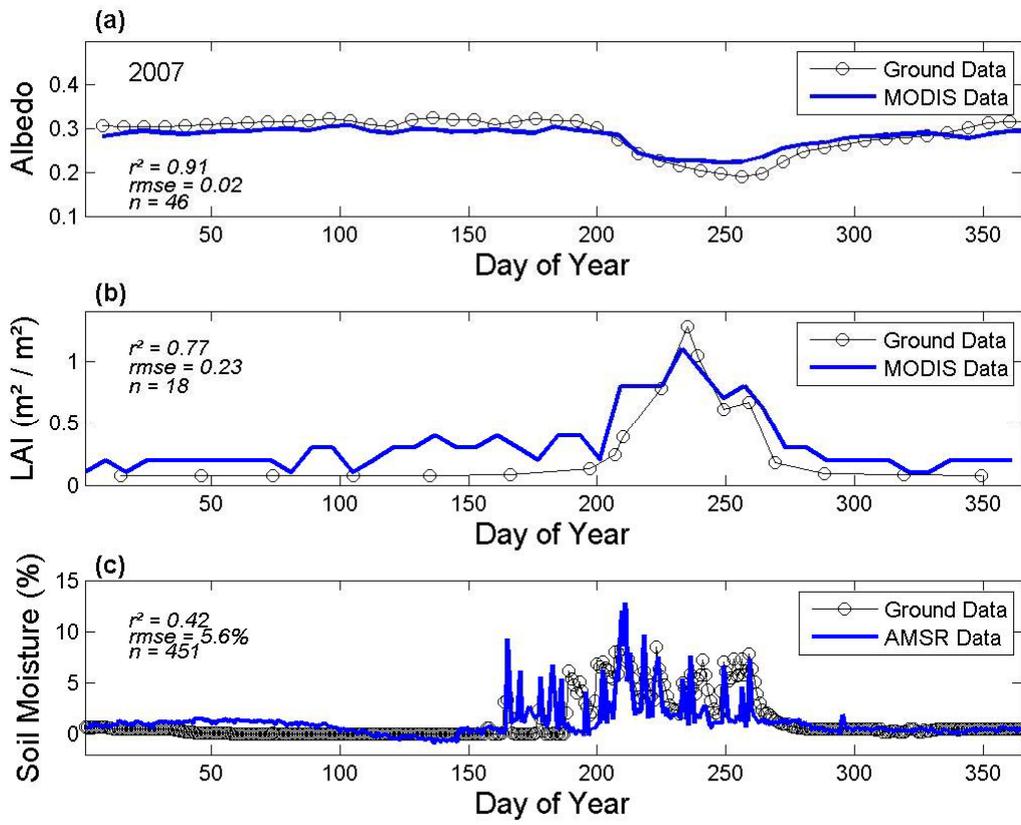


Fig. 8:

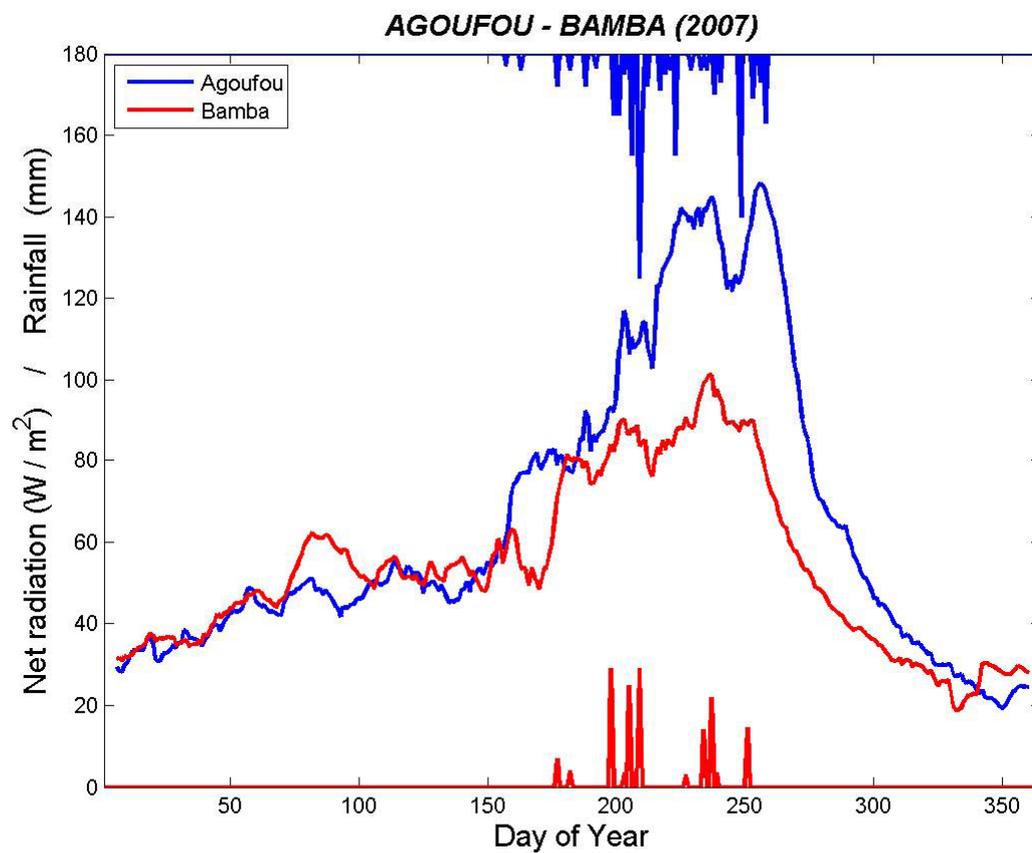


Fig. 9

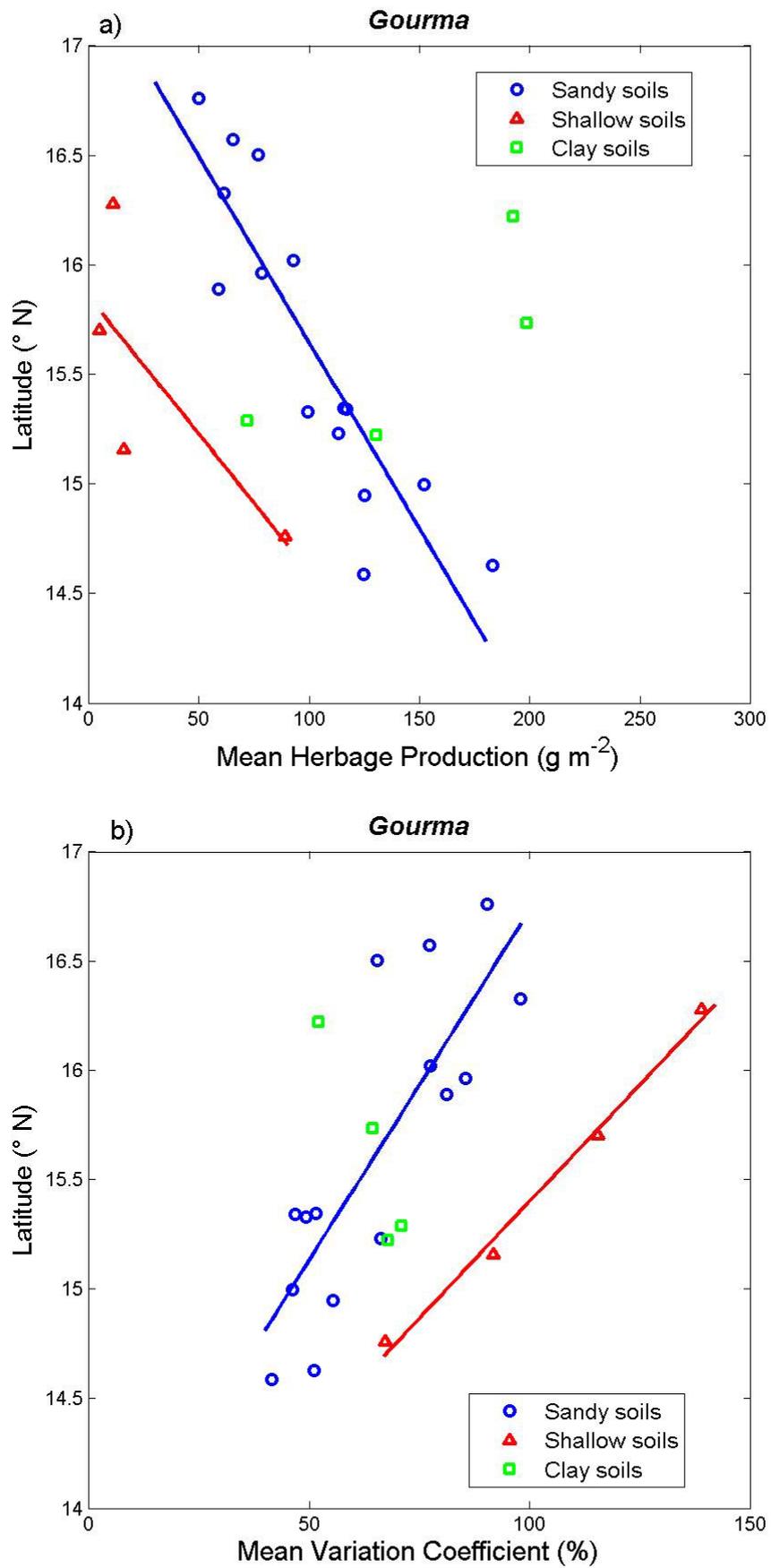


Fig. 10

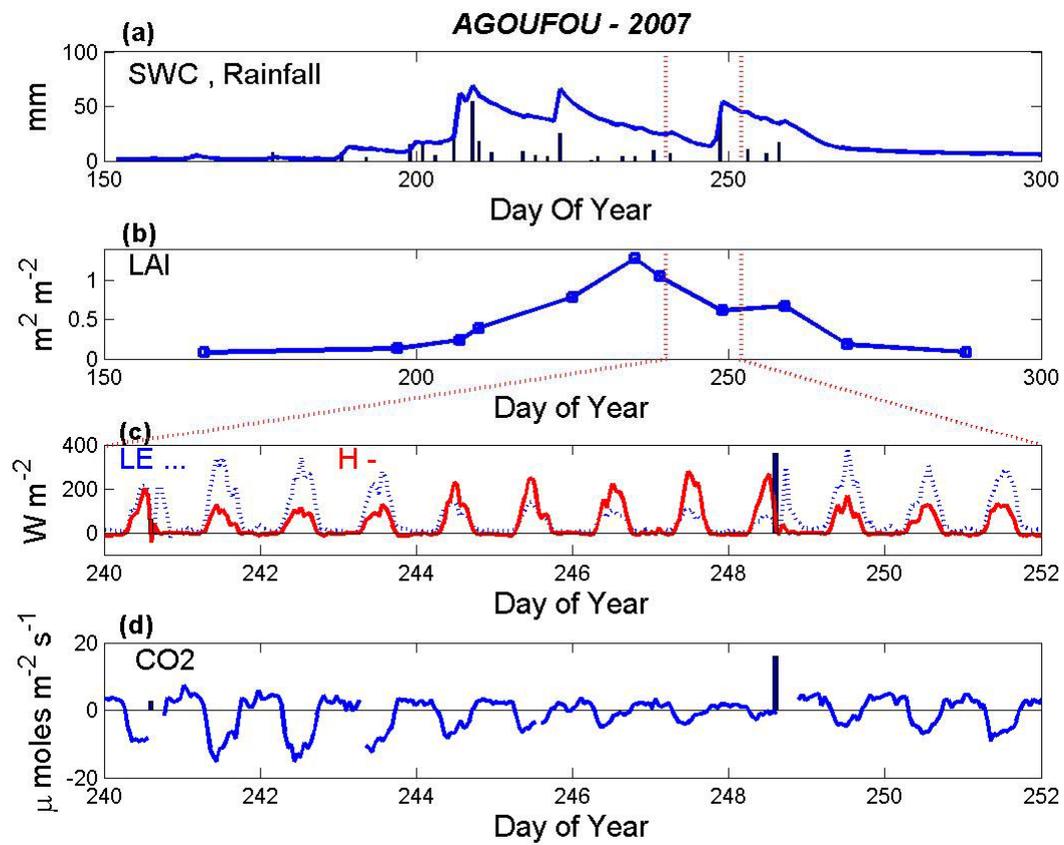


Fig. 11

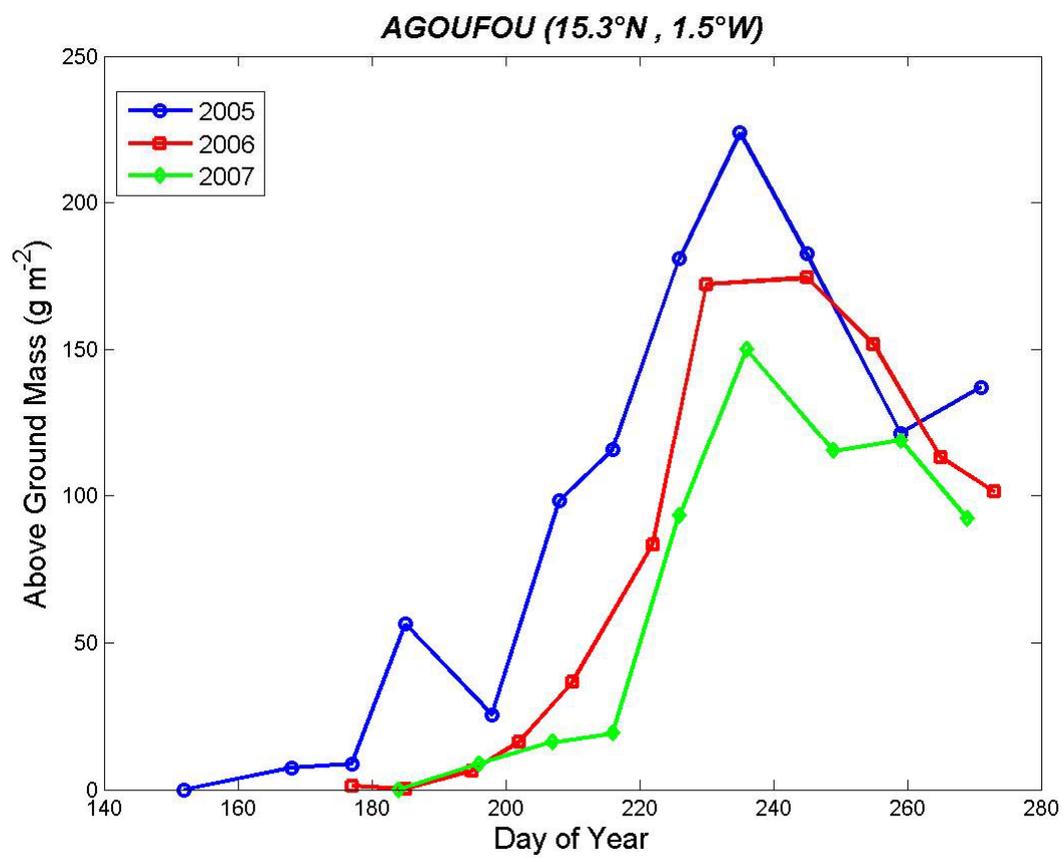
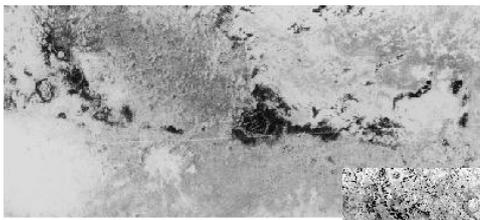


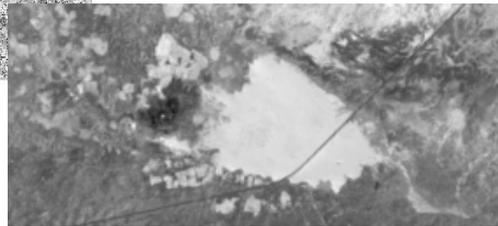
Fig. 12



October 1966



September 1996

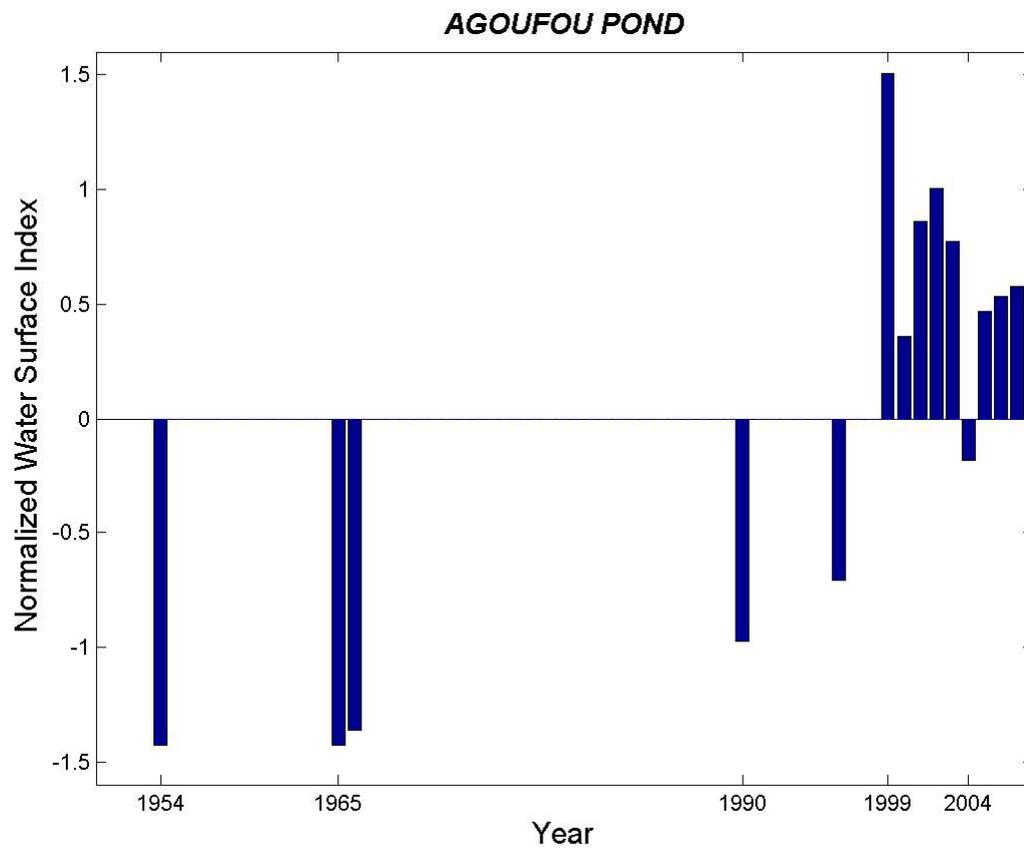


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Fig. 13



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Fig. 14

a) 1984 - 1985

b) 2007

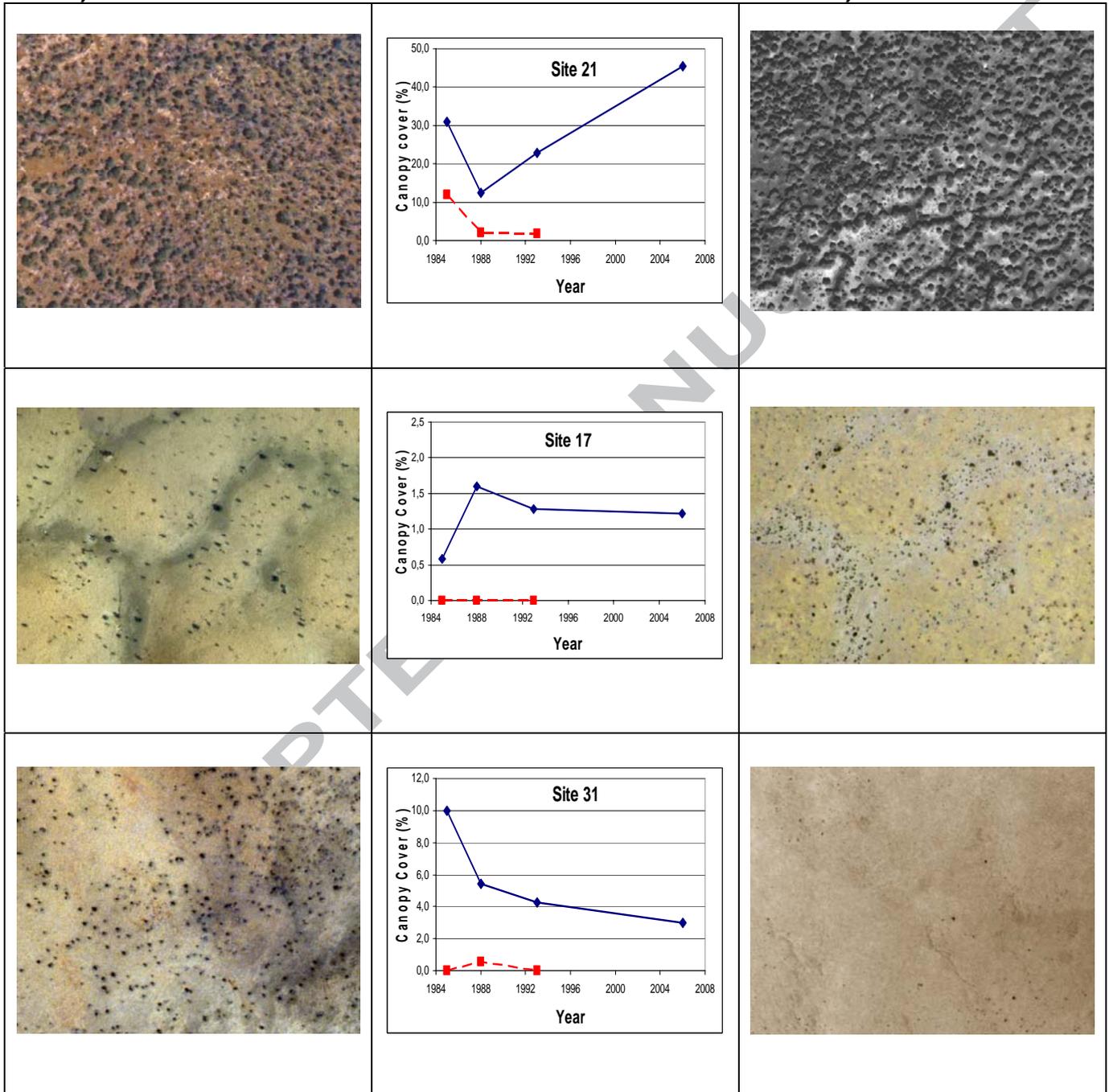


Fig. 15

a) 1985 - 1988

b) 2005 - 2007

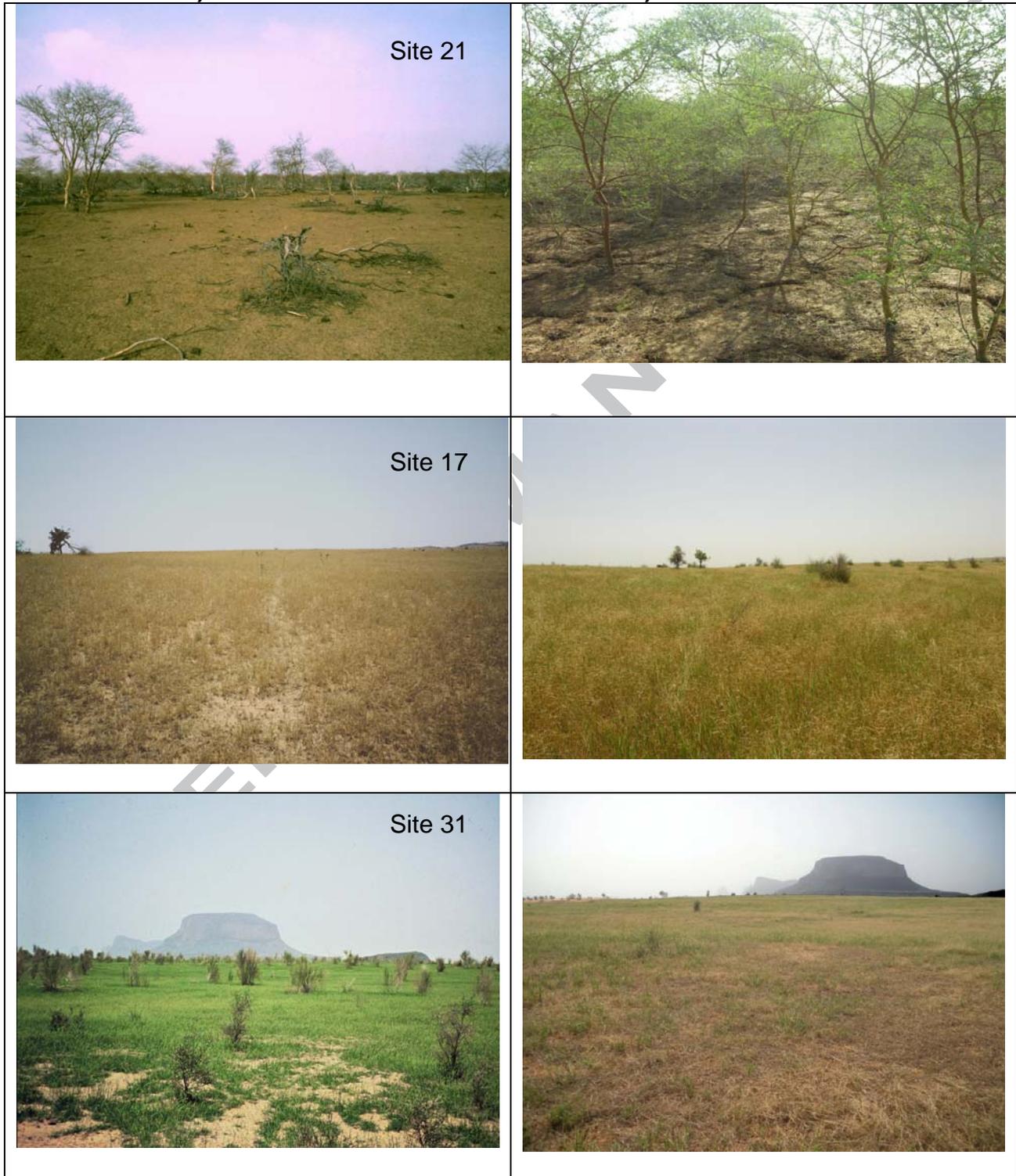


Fig. 16

