



Global change in flood and drought intensities under climate change in the 1 21st century 2

3 Behzad Asadieh*, Nir Y. Krakauer

4 Civil Engineering Department and NOAA-CREST, The City College of New York, 5

8 * Correspondence to Behzad Asadieh: basadie00@citymail.cuny.edu

9

10

Abstract

11 Global warming is expected to intensify the Earth's hydrological cycle and increase flood and 12 drought risks. Changes in global high and low streamflow extremes over the 21st century 13 under two warming scenarios are analyzed as indicators of hydrologic flood and drought 14 intensity, using an ensemble of bias-corrected global climate model (GCM) fields fed into 15 different global hydrological models (GHMs). Based on multi-model mean, approximately 16 37% and 43% of global land areas are exposed to increases in flood and drought intensities, 17 respectively, by the end of the 21st century under RCP8.5 scenario. The average rates of 18 increase in flood and drought intensities in those areas are projected to be 24.5% and 51.5%, 19 respectively. Nearly 10% of the global land areas are under the potential risk of simultaneous increase in both flood and drought intensities, with average rates of 10.1 and 19.8%, 20 21 respectively; further, these regions tend to be highly populated parts of the globe, currently 22 holding around 30% of the world's population (over 2.1 billion people). In a world more than 4 degrees warmer by the end of the 21st century compared to the pre-industrial era (RCP8.5 23 24 scenario), increases in flood and drought intensities are projected to be nearly twice as large as 25 in a 2 degree warmer world (RCP2.6 scenario). Results also show that GHMs contribute to 26 more uncertainties in streamflow changes than the GCMs. Under both forcing scenarios, there 27 is high model agreement for significant increases in streamflow of the regions near and above 28 the Arctic Circle, and consequent increases in the freshwater inflow to the Arctic Ocean, 29 while subtropical arid areas experience reduction in streamflow.

City University of New York, New York, USA; basadie00@citymail.cuny.edu;

⁶ nkrakauer@ccny.cuny.edu 7





1 1. Introduction

2 Floods and droughts, the natural disasters with the highest cost in human lives (Dilley, 2005; 3 IFRC, 2002), are projected to be intensified under anthropogenic global warming and climate 4 change (Dai, 2011; Dankers et al., 2013; Field, 2012; Stocker et al., 2013). Observational 5 records as well as global climate model (GCM) simulations both show that the amount of water vapor in the atmosphere increases at a rate of approximately 7% per K of increase in global 6 7 mean temperature (Allen and Ingram, 2002; Held and Soden, 2006; Wentz et al., 2007), similar 8 to dictation of the Clausius-Clapevron equation conditional to stable relative humidity (Held 9 and Soden, 2006; Pall et al., 2006). Increased amount of atmospheric water content is expected 10 to intensify precipitation extremes (Allan and Soden, 2008; O'Gorman and Schneider, 2009; 11 Trenberth, 2011), as evidenced by both observations and GCM simulations (Alexander et al., 12 2006; Asadieh and Krakauer, 2015, 2016; Kharin et al., 2013; Min et al., 2011; O'Gorman and 13 Schneider, 2009; Stocker et al., 2013; Toreti et al., 2013; Westra et al., 2013), with relatively 14 stronger impact than for mean precipitation (Asadieh and Krakauer, 2016; Lambert et al., 15 2008; Pall et al., 2006). Change in intensity and distribution of precipitation events under 16 climate change is expected to increase the intensity and frequency of flood and drought events 17 in many regions (Asadieh and Krakauer, 2015, 2016; Dankers et al., 2013; Field, 2012; Held 18 and Soden, 2006; Min et al., 2011; O'Gorman and Schneider, 2009; Stocker et al., 2013).

Runoff projections from 3 GCMs show strong positive trend around high latitudes and 19 20 negative trend for some mid-latitude regions, by the end of the 21st century (Hagemann et al., 21 2013). Another study of runoff projections from a larger ensemble of GCMs also confirms such 22 trends in runoff for the 21st century (Tang and Lettenmaier., 2012). Changes in runoff, and 23 consequently in streamflow, under current and future climate change has strong implications 24 for available freshwater resources (Arnell, 2004; Brekke et al., 2009; Oki and Kanae, 2006; 25 Stocker et al., 2013; Vörösmarty et al., 2000). Climate change is projected to decrease runoff in 26 land areas around Mediterranean and some parts of Europe, southern Africa and central and 27 southern America, and consequently increase water stress in those regions (Arnell, 2004). It is 28 also projected to increase aridity in southern Europe and the Middle East, Australia, Southeast 29 Asia, and large parts of Americas and Africa, in the 21st century (Dai, 2011).

Climate-change-induced decrease in mean precipitation and consequently runoff can
 increase water stress in such regions. Regions experiencing increase in total annual
 precipitation and runoff under climate change may also face increased water stress, as a result
 of change in precipitation and runoff distribution (Arnell, 2004; Asadieh and Krakauer, 2016;





1 Oki and Kanae, 2006). Implications of anthropogenic climate change for flood events are 2 widely noted in the literature; However, there are few multi-model analyses of future change in 3 streamflow extremes at global scale (Arnell, 2004; Dankers et al., 2013; Hirabayashi et al., 4 2008, 2013; Koirala et al., 2014; Schewe et al., 2013), or detection of regions that may 5 experience simultaneous increases in both flood and drought intensities. A study of streamflow 6 provided by the Inter-Sectoral Impact Model Intercomparison Project (ISI-MIP) (Warszawski 7 et al., 2013) projects increases for the high latitudes, eastern Africa and India, and decreases in 8 streamflow of Mediterranean and southern Europe as well as South America and southern parts 9 of North America, by the end of the 21st century (Schewe et al., 2013), similar to some other 10 studies (Hagemann et al., 2013; Tang and Lettenmaier., 2012). Another study of ISI-MIP streamflow projects increases in 30 year return period of high flow in major parts of Siberia and 11 12 some regions around Southeast Asia, and decreases in northern and eastern Europe and some regions around western United States, by the end of the 21st century (Dankers et al., 2013). 13 14 Approximately two-thirds of global land area are projected to experience positive trend in the 15 magnitude and frequency of 30 year return period of high flow (Dankers et al., 2013), 16 magnitude of 95th percentile of streamflow (Koirala et al., 2014), and magnitude of 17 annual-maximum daily streamflow (Asadieh et al., 2016).

18 Accurate simulation of weather fields such as precipitation, as well as simulation of the 19 diverse hydrological processes that lead to streamflow generation, are major sources of 20 uncertainty in streamflow trend simulation. Some earlier adoptions of climate model 21 projections for flooding studies utilized single state-of-the-art global hydrological models 22 (GHMs) for flow routing and streamflow simulation under the GCM-simulated climate 23 (Hirabayashi et al., 2013; Koirala et al., 2014). However, GHMs are also a major source of 24 uncertainty, as flow routings in different GHMs using the same weather fields can result in 25 markedly different flood and drought trend predictions (Giuntoli et al., 2015; Haddeland et al., 26 2011; Hagemann et al., 2013). Additionally, historical simulations of weather variables from 27 GCMs have shown discrepancies compared to the observations (biases) (Asadieh and 28 Krakauer, 2015; Ehret et al., 2012; Hempel et al., 2013; Krakauer and Fekete, 2014), which 29 may affect the climate change impact projections using the GCM outputs (Hagemann et al., 30 2011, 2013). This issue is often solved utilizing bias correction methods, in which the mean 31 value of the time series is adjusted according to the observational records, while supposedly 32 preserving the trends (Hempel et al., 2013).





1 A study of change in 100-yr flood return period in the last 3 decades of the 21st century compared to the last 3 decades of the 20th century, projected by 11 GCMs under various 2 emission scenarios, shows increased flood frequency over the South and Southeast Asia, 3 4 northern Eurasia, South America, and tropical Africa (Hirabayashi et al., 2013). Another similar study investigates changes in 5th and 95th percentiles of flow, projected by the same 11 5 GCMs (Koirala et al., 2014). However, both these studies use a single state-of-the-art river 6 7 routing model developed by the authors for streamflow data generation using the GCM inputs. A study of changes in frequency of 95th and 10th percentiles of streamflow in the 21st century, 8 9 using multiple GCMs and GHMs from ISI-MIP, shows that the number of days with flow above the historical 95th percentile will significantly increases in the high latitudes and the 10 number of days with flow below the historical 10th percentile will increases significantly in 11 12 Mediterranean, southern North America, and Southern Hemisphere (Giuntoli et al., 2015). 13 However, this study investigates changes in frequency of streamflow extremes, and not 14 intensity.

15 Here, we use daily streamflow simulations from 25 GCM-GHM combinations (5 bias-corrected GCMs and 5 GHMs) from the ISI-MIP. We analyze simulated streamflow at the 16 end of the 21st century (2070-2099, 21C) in comparison with the end of the 20th century 17 (1971-2000, 20C). We study changes in the magnitude of the 95th percentile of annual 18 streamflow (P95) in 21C compared to 20C, in which an increase would be an indication of 19 increase in the flood intensity. We also study the change in the magnitude of the 5th percentile 20 21 (P5), in which a decrease would correspond to an increase in the drought intensity. 22 GHM-generated streamflow based on GCM inputs do not well capture the annual trends in 23 flow compared to observations, even where, as in ISI-MIP, the GCM outputs are 24 bias-corrected. However, the multi-decade average of bias-corrected ISI-MIP streamflow is 25 shown to be more similar to that of observation-based streamflow simulations (Asadieh et al., 26 2016). Other studies have also used relative changes in multi-decade average of streamflow 27 indices in a future 21C time window compared to a historical 20C time window for flooding 28 and streamflow extremes analyses (Dankers et al., 2013; Hirabayashi et al., 2013; Koirala et 29 al., 2014; Tang and Lettenmaier., 2012). Alongside the study of the magnitude of change, we 30 also study the percentage of global population affected by changes in flood and/or drought 31 intensities. Limiting global warming to 2 degrees Celsius above the pre-industrial era 32 (achievable in RCP2.6 scenario (Moss et al., 2010; Stocker et al., 2013)) has been targeted in 33 many scientific and governmental plans, for instance the 2015 Paris Climate Agreement





1 (UNFCCC, 2015). However, the increasing trajectory of emissions observed over the 2 beginning on the 21st century, if continued, is more consistent with around 4 degrees Celsius of 3 warming by the end of the century (similar to RCP 8.5 scenario (Moss et al., 2010; Stocker et 4 al., 2013)). Hence, we study both low and high radiative forcing scenarios (RCP2.6 and 5 RCP8.5) to investigate the impacts of 21C anthropogenic forcing on flood and drought risks.

6 2. Materials and Methods

7 We use daily streamflow data obtained from the first phase of the ISI-MIP (Warszawski et al., 8 2013). The ISI-MIP streamflow projections are produced by multiple GHMs, based on 9 bias-corrected meteorological outputs of 5 GCMs from the fifth version of the Coupled Model 10 Intercomparison Project (CMIP5) (Dankers et al., 2013), which are downscaled to 0.5 degree 11 resolution for the period 1971-2099. The GCMs contributing to the first phase of ISI-MIP are: 12 GFDL-ESM2M, HadGEM2-ES, IPSL-CM5A-LR, MIROC-ESM-CHEM and NorESM1-M 13 (Warszawski et al., 2013). The 5 GHMs selected for this study are WBM, MacPDM, 14 PCR-GLOBWB, DBH and LPJmL (refer to supplementary materials for details). ISI-MIP 15 provides the streamflow outputs for only 5 GCMs, from more than 5 GHMs. Here, the number 16 of GHMs is also limited to 5 so that the uncertainties arising from the GCMs and GHMs are readily comparable. 17

18 Relative changes in streamflow can be very large for individual grid cells, particularly in 19 currently-frozen high latitudes. This bias averages across models and grid cells toward a 20 positive trend, as the decreases are limited to 100% loss of the historic flow, while the increase 21 can be well over 100% of the historic flow. Accordingly, changes are here normalized to 22 between -1 and +1, so the ranges of increases and decreases are comparable. Normalized 23 increase in the magnitude of P95 indicates increase in flood intensity, and is called the flood 24 indicator. Since increased drought intensity corresponds to decrease in the magnitude of P5, the 25 normalized changes in P5 are multiplied by -1 to form the drought indicator. We refer to 26 positive/negative change in flood (drought) indicator as increased/decreased flood (drought) 27 intensities, respectively.

Increase and decrease in flood and drought can form four combinations, which are categorized as the following four quadrants: 1. Increased flood and drought, 2. Increased flood and decreased drought, 3. Increased drought and decreased flood, and 4. Decreased flood and drought. Results obtained are averaged for each of these quadrants and the comparison of





- 1 results between different scenarios is made for each quadrant individually. Assignment of each
- 2 grid cell to the specified quadrant is based on the averaged change across GCMs and GHMs.
- In order to calculate the normalized change in flood intensity of a grid cell, the magnitude
 of the 95th percentile of daily streamflow (P95) is calculated for each year, and then averaged
 for 20C (called Q_{20C}) and 21C (called Q_{21C}). The normalized change is calculated as:

$$\Delta Q = \frac{Q_{21C} - Q_{20C}}{Q_{21C} + Q_{20C}}$$
Eq.1

6 The ΔQ value ranges between -1 and +1, where a normalized change equal to -1 indicates 7 total loss of the 20C flow in the 21C and a normalized change equal to +1 indicates that all of 8 the 21C flow is resultant of the change and the flow in 20C was zero. For normalized change in 9 drought intensity of a grid cell, the same calculations are performed on the magnitude of the 5th 10 percentile of annual streamflow (P5) and the ΔQ is multiplied by -1, so a positive number 11 would indicate increase in hydrological drought intensity (decrease in low flow). Multi-model 12 ensemble averages of changes are calculated based on the normalized change values. However, 13 averaged normalized changes are then reverted to relative changes, and results are shown in 14 both normalized change and relative percentages (cf. Figure S1).

15 We exclude the grid cells that have average daily flow below 0.01 mm over the period of 16 1971-200 (Hirabayashi et al., 2013). Greenland ice sheets are also excluded from the analysis. 17 Grid cells remained to be studied, cover 75.9% of global land area, but include 95.9% of global 18 population as of the year 2015. The grid cells with very low streamflow volume are excluded 19 from the calculations, because such regions are very sensitive to changes projected by models 20 and small increases in streamflow result in large relative changes in flood index, which may not 21 meaningfully correspond to flooding risk for such dry regions. To identify the dry grid cells, 22 the streamflow simulation of the WBM-plus model driven by reanalysis climate fields of 23 WATCH Forcing Data (WFD) is used (Asadieh et al., 2016), as the ISI-MIP uses the WFD 24 dataset for bias-correction of the GCM output (Hempel et al., 2013).

Calculation of normalized change in streamflow in 21C compared to 20C is performed on each of the 25 GCM-GHM combination datasets individually. The results are averaged over the models for each grid cell. The multi-model averages are then averaged over the grid cells that show increase in the indicator and also the over the grid cells that show decrease in the indicator (two separate values for each indicator). The multi-model averages are also averaged for each quadrant. This averaging gives a better sense of the projected magnitudes of flood and





drought intensity changes for each warming scenario in affected regions than averaging over all land areas, because the positive and negative trends cancel each other out in a global averaging due to the semi-symmetric behavior of changes (Figures 2.c and d). In a supplementary analysis, the streamflow data of all the model combinations were averaged first and the normalized change was calculated on the multimodel-averaged streamflow data. Both approaches yielded very similar results, indicating that the analyses are not sensitive to the method of averaging.

8 The two-sample t-test (Snedecor and Cochran, 1989) is used in this study to quantify the 9 statistical significance level of difference between the means of the 20C and 21C streamflow 10 time series (refer to supplementary materials). The percentage of land area with statistically 11 significant change (at 95% confidence level) is reported. The affected population is 12 calculated using the Gridded Population of the World (GPW) data from the Center for 13 International Earth Science Information Network (CIESIN) (Doxsey-Whitfield et al., 2015).

14 **3. Results and Discussion**

15 Based on multi-model mean results under RCP8.5 scenario, 36.7% of global land area shows 16 an increase in flood indicator (whose magnitude averages 24.55%), and 39.2% of land area 17 shows an average of 21.10% decrease. On the other hand, 43.2% of global land area shows an average 51.40% increase in drought indicator, and 32.7% of land area shows 30.30% decrease 18 19 (Table 1). Figure 1 shows global maps of normalized change in median, P5, and P95 of 20 streamflow in 21C compared to 20C under two different warming scenarios, obtained from the 21 ensemble mean of all 25 GCM-GHM combination datasets. Under RCP8.5 scenario, the high 22 latitudes show an increase in all percentiles of flow, while the Mediterranean shores, Middle 23 East, southern North America and the Southern Hemisphere show a decrease in all percentiles. 24 The United Kingdom, some parts of Indonesia, India and southern Asia show an increase in the 25 magnitude of P95 while experiencing a decrease in the magnitude of P5. Median flow shows a 26 general pattern of change similar to P5. As shown in the figure, changes are more intense in 27 RCP8.5 scenario (representative of 4 degrees warmer world in 21C compared to pre-industrial 28 era) than in RCP2.6 scenario (representative of 2 degrees warmer world in 21C compared to 29 pre-industrial era). However, unlike the RCP8.5 scenario, the RCP2.6 scenario projects increase in P95 for eastern United States as well as southern and western Europe. Global maps 30 31 of change in median, P5, and P95 of streamflow for each individual model, are shown in 32 supplemental Figures S2-7.





1 Figure 2 depicts the multi-model mean changes in flood and drought indicators averaged 2 by latitude, as well as the scatter of the grid cells over the defined quadrants, under each RCP 3 scenario. Results show increased flood and decreased drought in high latitudes, especially in 4 the regions near and above the Arctic Circle, in both warming scenarios. The changes are 5 projected with high agreement among the models in both scenarios, with greater change in 6 RCP8.5 compared to RCP2.6 (Figure 2). This indicates future increase in the flow volume of 7 the Arctic rivers and increased freshwater inflow into the Arctic Ocean, continuing the trend 8 observed over the last decades (Peterson et al., 2002; Rawlins et al., 2010), which can be 9 attributed to the thaw of permafrost and increased precipitation in a warmer climate. Rivers play a critical role in the Arctic freshwater system (Carmack et al., 2016; Lique et al., 2016), as 10 11 river runoff is the major component of freshwater flux into the Arctic Ocean (Carmack et al., 12 2016). Arctic rivers' inflow to the Arctic Ocean accounts for around 10% of global annual 13 water flux into the oceans (Haine et al., 2015; Lique et al., 2016). The projected increase in 14 meltwater flux the Arctic Ocean may contribute to sea level rise and changes in water salinity, 15 temperature as well as circulation in the Arctic Ocean (Peterson et al., 2002; Rawlins et al., 16 2010). The Southern Hemisphere shows a general increasing trend in drought and decrease in 17 flood, indicating a negative trend in flow volume. The Northern Hemisphere tropics however 18 show a mixed trend, as flood and drought mean changes averaged over latitude show 19 fluctuations (Figure 2).

20 Figures 3 and 4 depict multi-model changes in flood and drought indicators under different 21 warming scenarios, averaged over different latitudinal windows. Figure 3 shows the results 22 from streamflow routings of each GHM based on inputs from multiple GCM simulations, 23 where the thick lines in the plots denote the mean of change in the indicator and the shades 24 denote ± 1 st. dev. For each single GHM (shown by distinct colors), the thick line in the plots 25 show the average of GCMs and the shading denotes the standard deviation of GCMs. Hence, 26 the shadings in this figure are representative of uncertainties arising from GCMs. In the 27 meantime, different average values (thick lines) means that different GHMs have produced 28 different streamflow routings and different change values in the indicators, even though the 29 routings are based on inputs from the same ensemble of GCMs. Figure 4, on the other hand, 30 shows streamflow routings of multiple GHMs based on inputs from each of the GCMs, where 31 the thick lines in the plots denote the mean of change in the indicator and the shades denote ± 1 32 st. dev. For each single GCM (shown by distinct colors), the shading denotes the standard 33 deviation of GHMs and hence, is representative of uncertainties arising from GHMs. The





RCP8.5 scenario show higher normalized change values and larger uncertainties, compared to
 the RCP2.6 scenario. The uncertainties are proportionally greater for drought trend projection
 than for flooding (Figure 3 and 4).

4 The shadings in the Figure 4 (GHM uncertainty representative) is wider than in the Figure 5 3 (GCM uncertainty representative), which shows that the GHMs contribute to higher rate of uncertainties in flood and drought change projections than GCMs. As seen in Figure 3 (c-d), 6 7 for instance, drought predictions of the DBH hydrological model for Northern Hemisphere are 8 significantly different from other hydrological models, even though the streamflow routings 9 are based on the same GCM inputs. Such inconsistency between DBH models and other 10 models' results may not be detectable, if the results are averaged as they are in the Figure 4. 11 Wide shadings in Northern Hemisphere drought trends in Figure 4 (c-d) shows high 12 uncertainties among the GHMs for that region, while the Figure 3 (c-d) reveals the major cause 13 of such uncertainties to be the DBH model.

14 Figure 5 illustrates the global maps of combined change in flood and drought indicators 15 under each RCP scenarios, obtained from the multi-model mean results of all 25 GCM-GHM combination datasets. Grid cells falling in each of the defined quadrants are shown with 16 17 different colors, saturation of which is representative of the intensity of changes. As shown in 18 the Figure, northern high latitudes, especially north Eurasia, northern Canada and Alaska, as 19 well as eastern Africa and parts of South and Southeast Asia and Eastern Oceania show 20 increase in flood intensity in both scenarios, similar to findings of earlier studies (Dankers et 21 al., 2013; Hirabayashi et al., 2013; Schewe et al., 2013). Central America, Southern Africa, 22 Middle East, Southern Europe, Mediterranean and major parts of South America and Australia 23 show increase in drought intensity in both scenarios, comparable to findings of earlier studies 24 (Arnell, 2004; Dai, 2011; Hagemann et al., 2013; Schewe et al., 2013). The United Kingdom 25 and the shores of the North Sea as well as large parts of Tibetan, South Asia and Western 26 Oceania show increase in both flood and drought intensities. In these cases, while preserving 27 the direction of change, the RCP8.5 scenario projects stronger change compared to the RCP2.6 28 scenario. Southern and Western Europe and southern parts of the United States show 29 small-magnitude, mixed increases in flood and drought intensities in RCP2.6 scenario. 30 However, projections under RCP8.5 scenario are for strong increase in drought in those 31 regions. Some parts of eastern Russia and northern United States show reduction in both flood 32 and drought intensities (Figure 5). Compared to RCP2.6, the RCP8.5 scenario shows more 33 expansion in drought intensity and less expansion in flood intensity (Figure 5 and Table 2).





1 Under the low radiative forcing scenario (RCP2.6), 45.4% of global land area shows 2 increase in flood intensity in the multi-model mean and 36.4% shows increase in drought, 3 indicating more land area exposure to flood intensity than to drought. The high radiative 4 forcing scenario (RCP8.5) projects increased flood intensity in 36.6% of global land area and 5 increased drought in 43.2%. Unlike the RCP2.6 scenario, the RCP8.5 scenario projects more 6 land area exposure to drought intensity than to flood. Moreover, flood and drought events are 7 more intense in RCP8.5 compared to RCP2.6, as the relative change values for 21C are nearly 8 double; for instance, comparing the relative increases in flood indicator in Quad.2 (30.2% vs. 9 15.1%), and relative increases in drought indicator in Quad.3 (62.2% vs. 28.1%) (Table 3). Under RCP8.5 scenario, change in flood and drought indicators in 54.0 and 64.9%, 10 11 respectively, of the global land area is statistically significant. The significance fraction is 12 lower for the RCP2.6 scenario (38.4 and 53.8% of global land area in flood and drought 13 indicators, respectively). The significance percentage is calculated for the 14 multimodel-averaged streamflow time series in 21C compared to 20C, and the percentages for 15 each individual model may be different. Under RCP8.5 scenario (and similarly in RCP2.6), 16 nearly 9.6% of global land areas show both increase in flood and drought intensities. 17 Unfortunately, these regions are dominantly highly populated parts of the globe, the residence of around 29.6% of the world's current population, or more than 2.1 billion people (Table 2). 18 19 The 2015 Paris Climate Agreement, adopted at the 21st meeting of the Conference of Parties (COP21), targets to limit the global temperature rise "well below" 2°C above the pre-industrial 20 21 levels (UNFCCC, 2015). Even though seeming to be ambitious, such an agreement in 22 intergovernmental level is a start to motivate the developed countries producing the majority of 23 greenhouse gases to limit emissions and finance the climate-resilient development in lower 24 income economies.

25 4. Conclusion

26 Global daily streamflow simulations of 25 GCM-GHM combination datasets are analyzed to 27 study the implications of increased GHG emissions and consequent atmospheric temperature 28 rise for global streamflow extremes. The projected changes in high and low streamflow 29 percentiles in the 21C compared to the 20C were studied, under both low and high radiative 30 forcing scenarios, to investigate the regions projected to face increases in flood and/or drought 31 events' intensities, and study the number of people affected by such changes. Multiple GHMs 32 and GCMs are used to account for uncertainties arising from the hydrological models and flow 33 routing process on the flood and drought studies, additional to the weather field simulation





1 uncertainties. Results suggest that northern high latitudes, especially north Eurasia, northern 2 Canada and Alaska, as well as Tibetan and Southern India will face strong increases in flood intensities over the 21st century, while the Mediterranean shores, Middle East, southern North 3 4 America and the Southern Hemisphere are projected to see strong increases in drought 5 intensities. The projected increase in meltwater flux from the pan-Arctic watershed into the 6 Arctic Ocean may contribute to sea level rise, and changes in salinity, temperature and 7 circulation in the Arctic Ocean. The United Kingdom and the shores of the North Sea as well as 8 large parts of Tibetan, South Asia and Western Oceania show increase in both flood and 9 drought intensities. Regions projected to experience simultaneous increases in both flood and drought event intensities as a result of change in streamflow distribution, are highly populated 10 11 parts of the globe, even though covering a small fraction of global land area. Results show that 12 GHMs contribute to more uncertainties in streamflow changes than the GCMs, where different 13 GHMs have produced different streamflow routings and different change values in the 14 indicators, even though the routings are based on inputs from the same ensemble of GCMs. A 15 world 2°C warmer than the pre-industrial era will still face increases in flood and drought in 16 most regions. However, the GCM and GHM ensemble projects that 4°C of warming will bring 17 nearly twice as much increase in the intensity of those events.

18 Author Contribution

B. Asadieh and N.Y. Krakauer conceived and designed the experiment. B. Asadieh carried out
the analyses and wrote the initial manuscript. B. Asadieh and N.Y. Krakauer analyzed the
results, wrote the manuscript, and made the conclusions.

22 Acknowledgments

The authors gratefully acknowledge support from NOAA under grants NA11SEC4810004, NA12OAR4310084 and NA15OAR4310080, and from PSC-CUNY Award # 68346-00 46. All statements made are the views of the authors and not the opinions of the funding agency or the U.S. government.

27 Conflict of interest

28 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

29 References

Alexander, L. V., Zhang, X., Peterson, T. C., Caesar, J., Gleason, B., Klein Tank, A. M. G., Haylock, M., Collins,
 D., Trewin, B., Rahimzadeh, F., Tagipour, A., Rupa Kumar, K., Revadekar, J., Griffiths, G., Vincent, L.,





- Stephenson, D. B., Burn, J., Aguilar, E., Brunet, M., Taylor, M., New, M., Zhai, P., Rusticucci, M. and
 Vazquez-Aguirre, J. L.: Global observed changes in daily climate extremes of temperature and precipitation, J.
 Geophys. Res., 111(D5), D05109, doi:10.1029/2005JD006290, 2006.
- Allan, R. P. and Soden, B. J.: Atmospheric warming and the amplification of precipitation extremes, Science (80-.
 321(5895), 1481–484, doi:10.1126/science.1160787, 2008.
- Allen, M. R. and Ingram, W. J.: Constraints on future changes in climate and the hydrologic cycle, Nature, 419(6903), 224–232, doi:10.1038/nature01092, 2002.
- Arnell, N. W.: Climate change and global water resources: SRES emissions and socio-economic scenarios, Glob.
 Environ. Chang., 14(1), 31–52, doi:10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2003.10.006, 2004.
- Asadieh, B. and Krakauer, N. Y.: Global trends in extreme precipitation: climate models versus observations,
 Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci., 19(2), 877–891, doi:10.5194/hess-19-877-2015, 2015.
- Asadieh, B. and Krakauer, N. Y.: Impacts of changes in precipitation amount and distribution on water resources
 studied using a model rainwater harvesting system, JAWRA J. Am. Water Resour. Assoc., 1–22,
 doi:10.1111/1752-1688.12472, 2016.
- Asadieh, B., Krakauer, N. Y. and Fekete, B. M.: Historical trends in mean and extreme runoff and streamflow based on observations and climate models, Water, 8(5), 189, doi:10.3390/w8050189, 2016.
- Brekke, L. D., Maurer, E. P., Anderson, J. D., Dettinger, M. D., Townsley, E. S., Harrison, A. and Pruitt, T.:
 Assessing reservoir operations risk under climate change, Water Resour. Res., 45(4), 1–16,
 doi:10.1029/2008WR006941, 2009.
- Carmack, E. C., Yamamoto-Kawai, M., Haine, T. W. N., Bacon, S., Bluhm, B. A., Lique, C., Melling, H.,
 Polyakov, I. V., Straneo, F., Timmermans, M. L. and Williams, W. J.: Freshwater and its role in the Arctic
 Marine System: Sources, disposition, storage, export, and physical and biogeochemical consequences in the
 Arctic and global oceans, J. Geophys. Res. G Biogeosciences, 121(3), 675–717, doi:10.1002/2015JG003140,
 2016.
- Dai, A.: Drought under global warming: A review, Wiley Interdiscip. Rev. Clim. Chang., 2(1), 45–65, doi:10.1002/wcc.81, 2011.
- Dankers, R., Arnell, N. W., Clark, D. B., Falloon, P. D., Fekete, B. M., Gosling, S. N., Heinke, J., Kim, H.,
 Masaki, Y., Satoh, Y., Stacke, T., Wada, Y. and Wisser, D.: First look at changes in flood hazard in the
 Inter-Sectoral Impact Model Intercomparison Project ensemble, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci., 111(9), 3257–3261,
 doi:10.1073/pnas.1302078110, 2013.
- 31 Dilley, M.: Natural disaster hotspots: a global risk analysis (Vol. 5), World Bank Publications., 2005.
- Doxsey-Whitfield, E., MacManus, K., Adamo, S. B., Pistolesi, L., Squires, J., Borkovska, O. and Baptista, S. R.:
 Taking advantage of the improved availability of census data: a first look at the gridded population of the
 world, version 4 (GPWv4), Pap. Appl. Geogr., 1(3), 226–234, doi:10.1080/23754931.2015.1014272, 2015.
- Ehret, U., Zehe, E., Wulfmeyer, V., Warrach-Sagi, K. and Liebert, J.: HESS Opinions "should we apply bias correction to global and regional climate model data?," Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci., 16(9), 3391–3404, doi:10.5194/hess-16-3391-2012, 2012.
- Field, C. B.: Managing the risks of extreme events and disasters to advance climate change adaptation: special report of the intergovernmental panel on climate change, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK., 2012.
- Giuntoli, I., Vidal, J. P., Prudhomme, C. and Hannah, D. M.: Future hydrological extremes: The uncertainty from
 multiple global climate and global hydrological models, Earth Syst. Dyn., 6(1), 267–285,
 doi:10.5194/esd-6-267-2015, 2015.
- Haddeland, I., Clark, D. B., Franssen, W., Ludwig, F., Voß, F., Arnell, N. W., Bertrand, N., Best, M., Folwell, S.,
 Gerten, D., Gomes, S., Gosling, S. N., Hagemann, S., Hanasaki, N., Harding, R., Heinke, J., Kabat, P., Koirala,
 S., Oki, T., Polcher, J., Stacke, T., Viterbo, P., Weedon, G. P. and Yeh, P.: Multimodel estimate of the global
 terrestrial water balance: setup and first results, J. Hydrometeorol., 12, 869–884,
 doi:10.1175/2011JHM1324.1, 2011.
- Hagemann, S., Chen, C., Clark, D. B., Folwell, S., Gosling, S. N., Haddeland, I., Hanasaki, N., Heinke, J.,
 Ludwig, F., Voss, F. and Wiltshire, A. J.: Climate change impact on available water resources obtained using
 multiple global climate and hydrology models, Earth Syst. Dyn., 4(1), 129–144, doi:10.5194/esd-4-129-2013,
 2013.





- 1 Hagemann, S., Chen, C., Haerter, J. O., Heinke, J., Gerten, D. and Piani, C.: Impact of a statistical bias correction 2 on the projected hydrological changes obtained from three GCMs and two hydrology models, J. 3 Hydrometeorol., 12(4), 556-578, doi:10.1175/2011JHM1336.1, 2011.
- 4 Haine, T. W. N., Curry, B., Gerdes, R., Hansen, E., Karcher, M., Lee, C., Rudels, B., Spreen, G., de Steur, L., 5 Stewart, K. D. and Woodgate, R.: Arctic freshwater export: Status, mechanisms, and prospects, Glob. Planet. 6 Change, 125, 13-35, doi:10.1016/j.gloplacha.2014.11.013, 2015.
- 7 Held, I. M. and Soden, B. J.: Robust responses of the hydrological cycle to global warming, J. Clim., 19(21), 8 5686-5699, doi:10.1175/JCLI3990.1, 2006.
- 9 Hempel, S., Frieler, K., Warszawski, L., Schewe, J. and Piontek, F.: A trend-preserving bias correction - the 10 ISI-MIP approach, Earth Syst. Dyn., 4(2), 219-236, doi:10.5194/esd-4-219-2013, 2013.
- 11 Hirabayashi, Y., Kanae, S., Emori, S., Oki, T. and Kimoto, M.: Global projections of changing risks of floods and 12 droughts in a changing climate, Hydrol. Sci. J., 53(4), 754–772, doi:10.1623/hysj.53.4.754, 2008.
- 13 Hirabayashi, Y., Mahendran, R., Koirala, S., Konoshima, L., Yamazaki, D., Watanabe, S., Kim, H. and Kanae, S.: 14 Global flood risk under climate change, Nat. Clim. Chang., 3(9), 816-821, doi:10.1038/nclimate1911, 2013.
- 15 IFRC: World disaster report, focus on reducing risk, edited by J. Walter, International Federation of Red Cross 16 and Red Crescent Societies. Geneva Switzerland [online] Available from: 17 https://www.ifrc.org/PageFiles/89755/2002/32600-WDR2002.pdf, 2002.
- 18 Kharin, V. V., Zwiers, F. W., Zhang, X. and Wehner, M.: Changes in temperature and precipitation extremes in 19 the CMIP5 ensemble, Clim. Change, 119(2), 345-357, doi:10.1007/s10584-013-0705-8, 2013.
- 20 Koirala, S., Hirabayashi, Y., Mahendran, R. and Kanae, S.: Global assessment of agreement among streamflow 21 22 projections using CMIP5 model outputs, Environ. Res. Lett 9(6). 64017. doi:10.1088/1748-9326/9/6/064017, 2014.
- 23 Krakauer, N. Y. and Fekete, B. M.: Are climate model simulations useful for forecasting precipitation trends? 24 and 24009 Hindcast synthetic-data experiments, Environ. Res. Lett. 9(2). 25 doi:10.1088/1748-9326/9/2/024009, 2014.
- 26 Lambert, F. H., Stine, A. R., Krakauer, N. Y. and Chiang, J. C. H.: How much will precipitation increase with 27 global warming?, Eos, Trans. Am. Geophys. Union, 89(21), 193-194, doi:10.1029/2008EO210001, 2008.
- 28 Lique, C., Holland, M. M., Dibike, Y. B., Lawrence, D. M. and Screen, J. A.: Modeling the Arctic freshwater 29 system and its integration in the global system: Lessons learned and future challenges, J. Geophys. Res. G 30 Biogeosciences, 121(3), 540-566, doi:10.1002/2015JG003120, 2016.
- 31 Min, S.-K., Zhang, X., Zwiers, F. W. and Hegerl, G. C.: Human contribution to more-intense precipitation 32 extremes, Nature, 470(7334), 378-81, doi:10.1038/nature09763, 2011.
- 33 Moss, R. H., Edmonds, J. a, Hibbard, K. a, Manning, M. R., Rose, S. K., van Vuuren, D. P., Carter, T. R., Emori, 34 S., Kainuma, M., Kram, T., Meehl, G. a, Mitchell, J. F. B., Nakicenovic, N., Riahi, K., Smith, S. J., Stouffer, R. 35 J., Thomson, A. M., Weyant, J. P. and Wilbanks, T. J.: The next generation of scenarios for climate change 36 research and assessment, Nature, 463(7282), 747-756, doi:10.1038/nature08823, 2010.
- 37 O'Gorman, P. A. and Schneider, T.: The physical basis for increases in precipitation extremes in simulations of 38 21st-century climate change, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci., 106(16), 14773-14777, doi:10.1073/pnas.0907610106, 39 2009.
- 40 Oki, T. and Kanae, S.: Global hydrological cycles and world water resources, Science (80-.)., 313(5790), 1068-41 1072, doi:10.1126/science.1128845, 2006.
- 42 Pall, P., Allen, M. R. and Stone, D. A.: Testing the Clausius-Clapevron constraint on changes in extreme 43 precipitation under CO2 warming, Clim. Dyn., 28(4), 351-363, doi:10.1007/s00382-006-0180-2, 2006.
- 44 Peterson, B. J., Holmes, R. M., McClelland, J. W., Vörösmarty, C. J., Lammers, R. B., Shiklomanov, A. I., 45 Shiklomanov, I. a and Rahmstorf, S.: Increasing river discharge to the Arctic Ocean, Science (80-.)., 46 298(5601), 2171-2173, doi:10.1126/science.1077445, 2002.
- 47 Rawlins, M. A., Steele, M., Holland, M. M., Adam, J. C., Cherry, J. E., Francis, J. A., Groisman, P. Y., Hinzman, 48 L. D., Huntington, T. G., Kane, D. L., Kimball, J. S., Kwok, R., Lammers, R. B., Lee, C. M., Lettenmaier, D. 49 P., Mcdonald, K. C., Podest, E., Pundsack, J. W., Rudels, B., Serreze, M. C., Shiklomanov, A., Skagseth, O., 50





1 T.: Analysis of the Arctic system for freshwater cycle intensification: Observations and expectations, J. Clim., 23(21), 5715–5737, doi:10.1175/2010JCLI3421.1, 2010.

- Schewe, J., Heinke, J., Gerten, D., Haddeland, I., Arnell, N. W., Clark, D. B., Dankers, R., Eisner, S., Fekete, B.
 M., Colón-González, F. J., Gosling, S. N., Kim, H., Liu, X., Masaki, Y., Portmann, F. T., Satoh, Y., Stacke, T.,
 Tang, Q., Wada, Y., Wisser, D., Albrecht, T., Frieler, K., Piontek, F., Warszawski, L. and Kabat, P.:
 Multimodel assessment of water scarcity under climate change, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci., 111(9), 3245–3250,
 doi:10.1073/pnas.1222460110, 2013.
- 8 Snedecor, G. W. and Cochran, W. G.: Statistical methods, 8thEdn, Iowa State University Press, Iowa., 1989.
- Stocker, T. F., Qin, D., Plattner, G.-K., Tignor, M. M. B., Allen, S. K., Boschung, J., Nauels, A., Xia, Y., Bex, V.
 and Midgley, P. M.: Climate change 2013: The physical science basis. Working group I contribution to the
 fifth assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, Cambridge University Press.,
 2013.
- Tang, Q. and Lettenmaier., D. P.: 21st century runoff sensitivities of major global river basins, Geophys. Res.
 Lett., 39(6), doi:10.1029/2011GL050834, 2012.
- Toreti, A., Naveau, P., Zampieri, M., Schindler, A., Scoccimarro, E., Xoplaki, E., Dijkstra, H. A., Gualdi, S. and Luterbacher, J.: Projections of global changes in precipitation extremes from Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 models, Geophys. Res. Lett., 40(18), 4887–4892, doi:10.1002/grl.50940, 2013.
- Trenberth, K. E.: Changes in precipitation with climate change, Clim. Res., 47(1), 123–138, doi:10.3354/cr00953, 2011.
- UNFCCC: Adoption of the Paris Agreement (FCCC/CP/2015/L.9/Rev.1). [online] Available from:
 http://unfccc.int/resource/docs/2015/cop21/eng/109r01.pdf, 2015.
- Vörösmarty, C. J., Green, P., Salisbury, J. and Lammers, R. B.: Global water resources: vulnerability from climate
 change and population growth, Science (80-.)., 289(5477), 284–288, doi:10.1126/science.289.5477.284,
 2000.
- Warszawski, L., Frieler, K., Huber, V., Piontek, F., Serdeczny, O. and Schewe, J.: The Inter-Sectoral Impact Model Intercomparison Project (ISI-MIP): Project framework, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci., 111(9), 1–5, doi:10.1073/pnas.1312330110, 2013.
- Wentz, F. J., Ricciardulli, L., Hilburn, K. and Mears, C.: How much more rain will global warming bring?,
 Science (80-.)., 317(5835), 233–235, doi:10.1126/science.1140746, 2007.
- Westra, S., Alexander, L. V. and Zwiers, F. W.: Global increasing trends in annual maximum daily precipitation,
 J. Clim., 26(11), 3904–3918, doi:10.1175/JCLI-D-12-00502.1, 2013.





Table 1. Multi-model average change in flood and drought indicators, as well as percent of population and land area affected by each category, for RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 scenarios. Presented percentages are for total global land area and total global population, and sum up to the 75.9% of global land area and 95.9% of the year 2015 total global population considered in this study. The value of change for indicators are normalized change and the numbers in parenthesis show the changes reverted to the relative percentages.

	Percent of Change, in flood or drought		Land Area Affected (% of total 148.9 million km ² , sum up to 75.9%)		Population Affected (% of total 7.13 billion people, sum up to 95.9%)	
	RCP 8.5	RCP 2.6	RCP 8.5	RCP 2.6	RCP 8.5	RCP 2.6
Flood Increased Cells	0.1093 (24.55 % rel.)	0.0606 (12.90 % rel.)	36.7%	45.4%	53.7%	62.7%
Flood Decreased Cells	-0.1178 (-21.10 % rel.)	-0.0539 (-10.25 % rel.)	39.2%	30.5%	42.2%	32.2%
Drought Increased Cells	0.2045 (51.40 % rel.)	0.1029 (22.95 % rel.)	43.2%	36.3%	67.8%	56.1%
Drought Decreased Cells	-0.1784 (-30.30 % rel.)	-0.1018 (-18.50 % rel.)	32.7%	39.6%	28.1%	39.8%





1 Table 2. Percent of population and land area affected by each flood and drought 2 change quadrants, for RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 scenarios. Presented percentages are for 3 total global land area and total global population. Hence, the percentages presented 4 for quads. 1-4 sum up to the 75.9% of global land area and 95.9% of the year 2015 5 total global population considered in this study.

0 1 1			2				
		Quad. 1. flood and drought increased	Quad. 2. flood increased, drought decreased	Quad. 3. drought increased, flood decreased	Quad. 4. flood and drought decreased		
Land area affected (% of total 148.9	RCP8.5	9.6%	27.0%	33.6%	5.7%		
million km ²)	RCP2.6	10.8%	34.5%	25.5%	5.1%		
Population affected (%	RCP8.5	29.6%	24.1%	38.2%	4.0%		
people)	RCP2.6	27.1%	35.6%	28.9%	4.3%		





1 Table 3. Multi-model average change in flood and drought indicators, averaged for 2 each quadrant, for RCP2.6 and RCP8.5 scenarios. The numbers show the normalized 3 change and the numbers in parenthesis show the changes reverted to the relative 4 percentages.

	Quad. 1. flood and drought increased		Quad. 2. flood increased, drought decreased		Quad. 3. drought increased, flood decreased		Quad. 4. flood and drought decreased	
	Change in	Change in	Change in	Change in	Change in	Change in	Change in	Change in
	flood	drought	flood	drought	flood	drought	flood	drought
RCP8.5	0.0481	0.0901	0.1311	-0.1909	-0.1290	0.2372	-0.0508	-0.1183
	(10.10 %)	(19.80 %)	(30.20 %)	(-32.05 %)	(-22.85 %)	(62.20 %)	(-9.65%)	(-21.15 %)
RCP2.6	0.0306	0.0556	0.0700	-0.1074	-0.0593	0.1230	-0.0267	-0.0635
	(6.30 %)	(11.80 %)	(15.05 %)	(-19.40 %)	(-11.20 %)	(28.05 %)	(-5.20%)	(-11.95 %)







 Figure 1. Global maps of normalized change in different streamflow percentiles (95th, 5th and median), under the RCP8.5 and RCP2.6 scenarios. Maps show the ensemble mean results of all 25 models. It should be noted that the results presented are the values of the change in different percentiles and are not necessarily equal to the defined flood and drought indicators.







Figure 2. Multi-model change in flood and drought indicators under (a) RCP8.5 and (b) RCP2.6 scenarios, averaged by latitude, and scatter plot of change in flood and drought indicators for each grid cell under (c) RCP8.5 and (d) RCP2.6 scenarios. The thick line in the panels a and b show the ensemble mean value of all 25 GCM-GHM combination datasets and the shading denotes ± 1 st. dev.





4

5

6



Figure 3. Multi-model change in flood indicator under RCP8.5 (a) and RCP2.6 (b) scenarios, and change in drought indicator under RCP8.5 (c) and RCP2.6 (d) scenarios, averaged by latitude. The thick lines in the plots show the mean change in the indicator, based on the streamflow routings of each GHM based on inputs from multiple GCMs, and the shades denote ± 1 st. dev.





4

5

6



Figure 4. Multi-model change in flood indicator under RCP8.5 (a) and RCP2.6 scenarios (b), and change in drought indicator under RCP8.5 (c) and RCP2.6 scenarios (d), averaged by latitude. The thick lines in the plots show the mean change in the indicator, based on the streamflow from each GCM's simulated climate routed by multiple GHMs, and the shading denotes ±1 st. dev.







2 3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

Figure 5. Global map of combined change in flood and drought indicators under (a) RCP8.5 and (b) RCP2.6 scenario. The maps show the ensemble mean results of all 25 GCM-GHM combination datasets. Grid cells with increase in both flood and drought (Quad. 1) are shown in purple shade, cells with increased flood (Quad. 2) and drought (Quad. 3) are shown in blue and red shades, respectively, and cells with decrease in both flood and drought (Quad. 4) are shown in yellow shade. The saturation of colors shows the intensity of change, based on the normalized change in indicators, as shown in the legend. Distribution of cells in each of the quadrants are comparable to the Figures 2.c and d. Grid cells with normalized changes less than 1% (equal to 2% in relative terms) in each quadrant are considered as no change cells and are shown in gray. Grid cells excluded from the calculations are shown in white.