

# Advancements in Modeling Protocols for Assessing Climate Change Impacts on Water Resources: A Review

## ABSTRACT

The scientific community has dedicated significant attention to climate change and climate variability in the past two decades, with numerous investigations focused on these topics. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change's third and fourth assessment reports have provided clear evidence that the planet's climate has undergone significant changes since the pre-industrial era, resulting in a warmer phase. These changes have had severe effects on hydrological processes and the availability of water resources due to shifts in temperature and precipitation patterns. A better comprehension of climate change's impact on water resources can aid in developing sustainable strategies for their management and development. Hydrological models combined with climate models can offer a framework to comprehend and explore the interplay between climate, human activities, and water resources.

*Keywords: Climate change; hydrological model; water; temperature; climate model.*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Climate is the long-term average of regional weather conditions. Climate change is defined as “a change in the state of the climate that can be identified by changes in mean and/or variability of its properties, and that persists for an extended period, typically decades or longer” (IPCC, 2007). It can result from natural variability or human activity, with changes in land use patterns and greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations being the two primary drivers. Human activities, including rapid industrialization, have caused GHG concentrations like carbon dioxide (CO<sup>2</sup>), carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), and nitrous oxide (NOX) to increase in the atmosphere, altering the radiative balance and causing global warming (Houghton et al., 1990). Concentrations of these gases are expected to continue increasing, with CO<sup>2</sup> rising from 280 ppm in pre-industrial times to 379 ppm in 2005 and methane rising from 715 ppb to 1732 ppb in the early 1990s and 1774 ppb in 2005. The increase in GHGs has caused three visible signals of climate change: global temperature increase, changes in precipitation patterns, and an increase in the frequency of extreme events, including sea level rise. According to the IPCC's Fourth Assessment Report, the average global surface temperature is projected to increase by 1.1-2.9°C for low emission scenarios and 2.4-6.4°C for high emission scenarios during 2090-2099 relative to 1980-1999. Over the same period, the global mean sea level is projected to rise by 18-38 cm and 26-59 cm for low and high emission scenarios, respectively, with implications for inundation of coastal and low-lying regions.

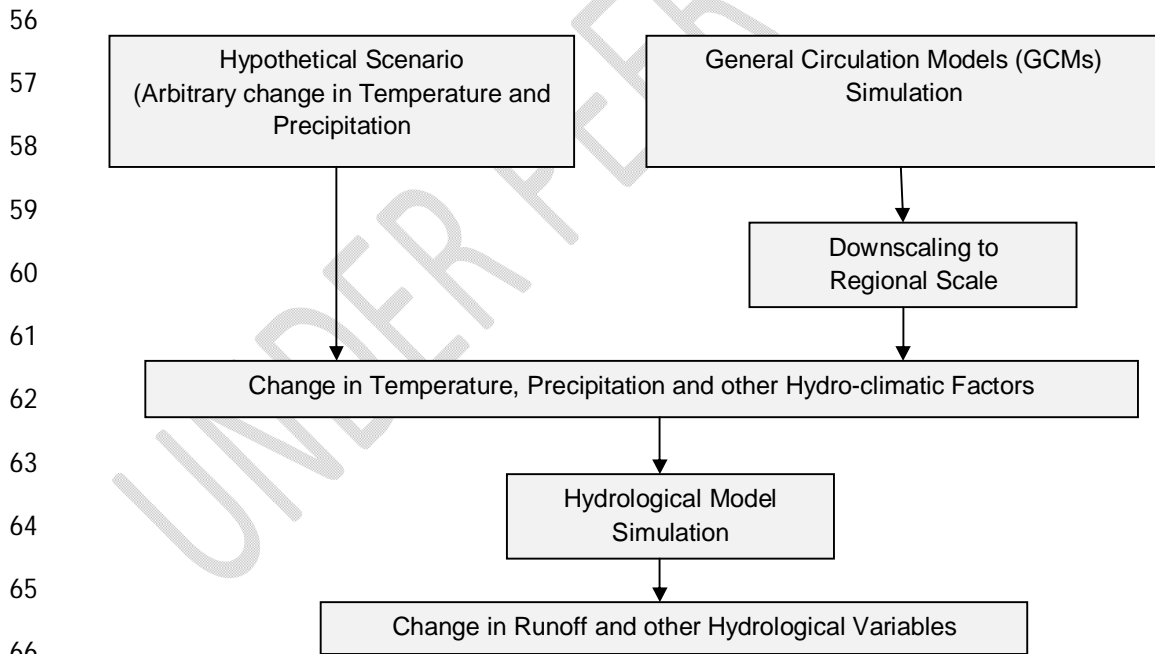
Water is an indispensable resource for sustaining all forms of life on earth. Changes in the water cycle, driven by climate change, have significant impacts on water resources due to their sensitivity to changing climatic conditions. These impacts are manifested through three visible signals of climate change, which are translated into regional scale hydrological changes that affect water availability, agricultural water demand, river/stream flow, hydrological extremes, water quality, salinity intrusion, groundwater recharge, and related phenomena (Borgomeo, 2022). The changing climate conditions can have severe impacts on the hydrological cycle, which can potentially threaten human societies

35 that depend on water resources for agriculture, hydropower production, and ecosystems. Hence, it is  
36 crucial to provide decision-makers with reliable information about the possible future changes in the  
37 hydrological cycle to help them formulate effective strategies for mitigation and adaptation.

38 In order to assess the potential impacts of climate change on water policy and infrastructure at a  
39 regional level, it is crucial to obtain reliable regional projections of temperature, precipitation, stream  
40 flow, and other relevant variables, and then use these projections in impact models to determine  
41 specific impacts (Schwarze et. Al., 2022). Hydrological models are the primary tool for simulating the  
42 effects of climate change on the water cycle and projecting future hydrological patterns. These  
43 models require accurate information on climatological variables, such as temperature, precipitation,  
44 and evapotranspiration, as well as their distribution in time and space. A strong linkage between  
45 climate models and hydrological models is needed to establish future water resource scenarios. This  
46 article aims to identify the current gaps between climate models and hydrological models, discuss  
47 recent research advances, and present the challenges for future research on the hydrological impacts  
48 of climate change.

## 49 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

50 To investigate the effects of climate change on water resources, two types of models and simulations  
51 are typically required. The first type is climate models, which simulate future atmospheric variables  
52 under various climate scenarios. These variables serve as inputs, either directly or indirectly, for  
53 studies on climate change. In cases where climate models are not available, hypothetical scenarios  
54 can be created to represent changes in atmospheric variables, which can then be used as inputs for  
55 hydrological models (as shown in Figure 1).



67 **Fig. 1.**Methodology for assessing climate change impact on hydrology and water resources

### 68 2.1 Hydrological modeling for climate change impacts study

69 Hydrological models have been used to simulate hydrological regimes since the 1960s, with the  
70 development of different types of models, including conceptual, lumped, and physically-based  
71 distributed models. With the advancements in computer technology, these models have improved

72 significantly, allowing for the application of more complex models at higher resolutions in a shorter  
73 amount of time. Furthermore, hydrology has become more interdisciplinary, particularly with climate  
74 change science, as changes in the climate can have both direct and indirect impacts on the  
75 hydrological cycle, which in turn can affect the global and local climate. While the connection between  
76 hydrology and climate science is now widely acknowledged, coupling the two is still a relatively young  
77 discipline. However, given the increasing awareness of climate change, there is now a greater  
78 demand for simulations that can predict potential hydrological changes under future climate  
79 conditions.

80 Studies have explored the effects of climate change on various aspects of the hydrological cycle,  
81 such as flood frequencies (Cameron, 2006), runoff (Bergstrom et. al., 2001), soil moisture  
82 (Mavromatis, 2012), groundwater levels (Goderniaux et. al., 2009), evaporation (Kay and Davies,  
83 2008), and water quality (Wilby et. al., 2006). However, these studies mainly focus on either large-  
84 scale climate change impacts or projections at low temporal resolutions such as seasonal or annual  
85 changes. Studies on regional impacts and extreme events such as floods and droughts are limited  
86 due to the coarse spatial and temporal scales of climate model simulations. These scales do not  
87 match the required regional scale for analyzing daily water resource variations. A fundamental  
88 problem is the lack of standardized procedures for post-processing climate model outputs for  
89 hydrological impact analyses. The resulting hydrological simulations' uncertainty has not been fully  
90 evaluated due to limited computer power, which hinders further investigations.

## 91 **2.2 Modeling for Climate Study**

92 To simulate the current climate and forecast future climate changes, global atmospheric General  
93 Circulation Models (GCMs) have been created.

### 94 **2.2.1 Roles of GCMs in Climate Change Study**

95 The first global climate models (GCMs) were introduced by Phillips (1956) to simulate average,  
96 synoptic-scale (i.e., 104–106 km<sup>2</sup> spatial scale), and atmospheric circulation patterns for specified  
97 external forcing conditions. Over time, various atmospheric GCMs were developed to simulate  
98 average, large-scale, atmospheric circulation (e.g., Holton, 1992). Some of the most widely used  
99 GCMs include the Canadian Climate Center (CCC) model, the Geophysical Fluid Dynamic Laboratory  
100 (GFDL) model, the Goddard Institute for Space Studies (GISS) model, the National Center for  
101 Atmospheric Research (NCAR) model, the Oregon State University (OSU) model, and the United  
102 Kingdom Meteorological Office (UKMO) model, among others.

103 Hydrologists are interested in regional-scale hydrologic variability, but general circulation models  
104 (GCMs), which are used for modeling future climate evolution, are not ideal for this purpose. GCMs  
105 operate on a large spatial scale and have a relatively low temporal resolution, providing limited direct  
106 usefulness for impact studies and hydrological applications. To bridge this gap, researchers have  
107 developed approaches to use GCM output in hydrological modeling at the basin scale. However,  
108 there are several limitations to using GCM data directly for hydrological modeling, i.e.,

- 109 • Decreased accuracy at finer spatial and temporal scales.
- 110 • Decreased accuracy for surface variables compared to free tropospheric variables.
- 111 • Decreased accuracy for variables such as precipitation, evapotranspiration, runoff, and soil  
112 moisture, which are crucial for hydrologic regimes.

### 114 **2.2.2 Gaps between Climate Modeling and Hydrologic Modeling**

115 The atmospheric components of GCMs are highly advanced, utilizing many layers to simulate  
116 atmospheric conditions. However, despite identical atmospheric forcing, parameterizations in current

117 GCMs often fail to provide accurate predictions for many hydrological variables. As a result, gaps  
118 exist between hydrologic and climate modeling due to limitations in GCM simulations. These gaps can  
119 be attributed to several factors, including:

- 120 1. Mismatches in spatial and temporal scales between GCMs and hydrology needs,
- 121 2. Vertical level mismatches,
- 122 3. Discrepancies in the accuracy of GCMs compared to the importance of certain variables  
123 in hydrological regimes.

### 124 **2.2.3 Recent Research Developments and Achievements**

125 The challenge of mismatches between GCMs and hydrological models is a difficult one for both the  
126 meteorological and hydrological modeling communities. In order to address these gaps and reduce  
127 the differences between GCMs and hydrology needs, various methodologies have been developed in  
128 the last two decades. These include:

- 129 • Dynamic downscaling (nesting) approaches for generating high-resolution meteorological  
130 inputs to narrow gap 1.
- 131 • Statistical downscaling approaches that use large-scale free tropospheric variables and/or  
132 surface patterns to simulate local-scale surface variables, and narrow gaps 1 and 2.
- 133 • Macro-scale hydrological modeling approaches for correcting perceived weaknesses in the  
134 representation of hydrological processes in GCMs, and narrowing gap 3.
- 135 • Hypothetical scenarios used as input to hydrological models to show the sensitivity to climate  
136 change within a reasonable interval.

### 137 **2.2.4 Dynamic Downscaling (DD)**

138 The process of dynamical downscaling, also known as nested RCM approach, involves utilizing  
139 regional climate models (RCMs) for specific regions with boundary conditions derived from GCM  
140 simulations. This approach was first applied by Dickinson et al. (1989) in the late 1980s for climate  
141 change studies. RCMs, also called Limited-Area Models (LAMs), produce highly resolved spatial and  
142 temporal climate information, with a grid resolution of approximately 0.22-0.44° (~25-50 km) and a  
143 time step size of six hours (Mearns et al., 2003). The coarse-grid GCM simulation output is used for  
144 initial and lateral boundary conditions, which is called a "one-way nesting approach." While most RCM  
145 studies implement the one-way mode without feedback from RCM to GCM, two-way nesting with  
146 feedback from RCM simulations back to the GCM is an alternative (Lorenz and Jacob, 2005; Foley,  
147 2010; Bowden et al., 2011; Chan et al., 2012).

148 The DD method is capable of resolving atmospheric processes and producing internally consistent  
149 output variables while ensuring consistency with the GCM that is driving it. However, this method  
150 requires powerful computing resources and is heavily dependent on initial and boundary conditions.  
151 Although some RCM simulations include hydrological components such as surface and subsurface  
152 runoff, they often disagree with stream flow observations, making RCM-simulated hydrological  
153 variables less useful for hydrological impact studies. Therefore, other RCM-simulated variables such  
154 as temperature and precipitation are more commonly used in offline mode as inputs to hydrological  
155 models. Nevertheless, even RCM simulations of temperature and precipitation can be significantly  
156 biased and must be handled with care. As RCM models cannot satisfy the needs of spatially explicit  
157 models of ecosystems or hydrological systems, it is still necessary to downscale the results from such  
158 models to individual sites or localities for impact studies.

### 159 **2.2.5 Statistical Downscaling**

160 In statistical downscaling, the relationships between large-scale atmospheric predictor variables and  
161 local meteorological series are established (Kim et al., 1984; von Storch et al., 1993). The

162 classification of statistical downscaling methods can be based on the techniques used or the predictor  
163 variables selected (Wilby and Wigley, 1997; Rummukainen, 1997). Commonly used predictors include  
164 free atmospheric variables such as geopotential heights (Bardossy and Plate, 1992; Wilby, 1995) and  
165 surface patterns such as sea level pressure (Karl et al., 1990).

166 The statistical downscaling approach has been criticized for assuming the invariance of stochastic  
167 parameters in response to changes in climate. However, despite this limitation, the approach has  
168 started to produce regional algorithms that are useful for hydrological applications. Statistical  
169 downscaling plays a crucial role in translating global climate change scenarios into regional impact  
170 assessments, as demonstrated in studies by von Storch et al. (1993) and Wilby and Wigley (1997).

### 171 **3Development of Macroscale Hydrologic Models (MHM)**

172 Macroscale hydrological modeling (MHM) involves applying hydrological models over a large spatial  
173 domain, ranging from a 'large' basin (over 104 km<sup>2</sup>), through a continent, to the entire land surface of  
174 the globe (Arnell, 1993). Hydrologists have become interested in MHM for two basic reasons:

- 175 • to correct perceived weaknesses in the representation of hydrological processes in regional  
176 and global atmospheric models, and
- 177 • to simulate river flows in large river basins for operational and planning purposes, such as  
178 water availability for agriculture, flood hazard, hydroelectric potential, and sediment transport.

179 A macromodel should be transferable from one geographical location to another, applied either to  
180 every sub-basin or on a regular grid, and route runoff from the point of generation through the spatial  
181 domain along the river network (Vorosmarty et. al., 1989). Two approaches have been used in the  
182 development of a macro-model: 'top-down' and 'bottom-up'. The former treats each fundamental unit  
183 as a single lumped catchment, and applies a simple conceptual hydrological model to each of them,  
184 while the latter identifies representative hydrological areas and applies highly-detailed physically-  
185 based hydrological models, then aggregates upwards to all catchments or fundamental units in a  
186 large area (Arnell, 1993; Kite et. al., 1994; Liston et. al., 1994; Sausen et. al., 1994).

### 187 **4Use of Hypothetical Scenarios**

188 The simulations from GCMs are highly valuable for understanding the impacts of climate change on  
189 hydrologic systems and water resources. However, using GCM simulations to directly drive hydrologic  
190 models is challenging due to the mismatch in space and time scales between the two modeling  
191 approaches. This issue was discussed earlier and highlights the need for downscaling techniques to  
192 bridge the gap between the different scales.

193 As a result of the challenges in using GCMs to drive hydrologic models, hydrologists have resorted to  
194 using simple methods to modify present conditions. To estimate the impacts of hypothetical climate  
195 change on hydrological behavior, various climate change scenarios have been developed and widely  
196 adopted. For instance, predictions for "double CO<sup>2</sup>" conditions have become a standard approach in  
197 the field (Loaiciga et al., 1996).

198 The procedure for estimating the impacts of hypothetical climate change on hydrological behavior  
199 typically involves several stages. First, hydrologists determine the parameters of a hydrological model  
200 in the study catchment using current climatic inputs and observed river flows for model validation.  
201 Second, the historical time series of climatic data is perturbed according to some climate change  
202 scenarios, such as adding  $\Delta T = +1, +2, +4$  for temperature or multiplying precipitation values by  $(1 +$   
203  $\Delta P / 100)$ . Third, the hydrological characteristics of the catchment under the perturbed climate are  
204 simulated using the calibrated hydrological model. Finally, the model simulations of the current and  
205 possible future hydrological characteristics are compared. This general procedure has been widely

206 adopted by hydrologists to estimate the impacts of hypothetical climate change on hydrological  
207 behavior (e.g., Loaiciga et. al., 1996).

## 208 **5Uncertainties in the Modeling Chain**

209 Utilizing climate model simulations for hydrological studies presents a significant challenge due to the  
210 diversity of projections that can be produced. The reason for this diversity is that each projection  
211 depends on several factors such as the chosen GCM and its conceptualization, initial and boundary  
212 conditions, the GHG emission scenario, and the chosen downscaling method. The modeling chain for  
213 future hydrological projections comprises three models: GCMs, downscaling models (SD or DD), and  
214 hydrological models. Consequently, uncertainties are introduced due to the choice of future GHG  
215 emission scenarios, climate models and their parameterization, downscaling/post-processing  
216 techniques, and hydrological models and their parameterization. In addition, errors in observed data  
217 used for calibration and validation should also be considered. As a result, it is still challenging to  
218 quantify and reduce individual uncertainties in climate simulations and the subsequent modeling  
219 procedure, as they are often propagated through the entire modeling chain and ultimately lead to  
220 large errors in the final simulation. (Kay et al., 2009; Teutschbein et al., 2011; Beven, 2002;  
221 Teutschbein and Seibert, 2010).

222 To overcome the challenge of producing a variety of different projections when using climate model  
223 simulations for hydrological studies, a possible solution is to apply several model simulations together,  
224 referred to as "ensemble simulations" (Giorgi, 2006; Teutschbein and Seibert, 2010; Ehret et al.,  
225 2012). This method involves the use of multi-model approaches, which have two key advantages:  
226 first, the spread of individual ensemble members covers a more realistic range of uncertainty, and  
227 second, the ensemble median may fit observations better (Teutschbein and Seibert, 2010). By  
228 combining multiple simulations, it is possible to generate a more comprehensive and accurate  
229 representation of the projected hydrological changes, reducing the influence of uncertainties  
230 introduced by individual models and improving the reliability of the final simulations.

## 231 **6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS**

232 The hydrological literature contains numerous regional-scale hydrological simulations that consider  
233 greenhouse scenarios. However, these studies have also highlighted several problem areas related to  
234 the current capacity of GCMs, limitations of downscaling techniques, and hydrological modeling tools.  
235 The significant difference in spatial and temporal scales between GCMs and hydrological models is a  
236 fundamental problem. These issues provide an opportunity for collaborative research between  
237 hydrologists and climate modellers that could be both intellectually stimulating and potentially  
238 beneficial.

239 The challenges faced by both communities are clear.

- 240 • Firstly, improved methodologies are needed to develop climate change scenarios, which  
241 requires improvements in both GCMs and downscaling techniques. These scenarios must  
242 provide the spatial and temporal resolution necessary for assessment models and must  
243 incorporate changes in the mean and variability of climate variables.
- 244 • Secondly, the development of hydrological macroscale models based on a better  
245 understanding of hydrological processes and their interactions is necessary.
- 246 • Thirdly, simulation capacities have generally surpassed available data. Therefore, collecting  
247 reliable data at various spatial and temporal scales is essential to enhance our understanding  
248 of hydrological processes and to test and validate the downscaling techniques and  
249 hydrological models that are being developed.

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