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A New Normal for Streamflow in California in a Warming Climate: Wetter Wet Seasons and Drier Dry Seasons

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Abstract

In this study, we investigate changes in future streamflows in California using bias-corrected and routed streamflows derived from global climate model (GCM) simulations under two representative concentration pathways (RCPs): RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. Unlike previous studies that have focused mainly on the mean streamflow, annual maxima or seasonality, we focus on projected changes across the distribution of streamflow and the underlying causes. We report opposing trends in the two tails of the future streamflow simulations: lower low flows and higher high flows with no change in the overall mean of future flows relative to the historical baseline (statistically significant at 0.05 level). Furthermore, results show that streamflow is projected to increase during most of the rainy season (December to March) while it is expected to decrease in the rest of the year (i.e., wetter rainy seasons, and drier dry seasons). We argue that the projected changes to streamflow in California are driven by the expected changes to snow patterns and precipitation extremes in a warming climate. Changes to future low flows and extreme high flows can have significant implications for water resource planning, drought management, and infrastructure design and risk assessment.

51 **1. Introduction**

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53 Excessive deviation from the normal hydrological condition in river systems can impose 54 catastrophic socioeconomic impacts (e.g., fatalities, infrastructure and property damage, 55 agricultural loss, and disruption of daily life) and challenge the existing water management plans 56 (e.g., Demaria et al., 2016; Nazemi & Wheater, 2014). Current methods for design of hydraulic 57 structures (e.g., dams, bridges, levees, spillways, culverts) are based on the so-called stationary 58 assumption that assumes the statistics of extremes and distribution of the underlying variables do 59 not change over time (Sadegh et al., 2015). The stationarity assumption requires that the 60 distribution of past observed events and the statistics of observed extremes are a good 61 representative of possible future conditions (e.g., Koutsoyiannis, 2006; Read & Vogel, 2015; 62 Villarini et al., 2009). However, in recent years, studies have shown that different natural and 63 anthropogenic factors (e.g., land use land cover, climate, urbanization, watershed modification) 64 can alter streamflow characteristics (Alfieri et al., 2015; Beighley et al., 2003; Hailegeorgis & 65 Alfredsen, 2017; Krakauer & Fung, 2008; Luke et al., 2017; Mallakpour et al., 2017; Mallakpour 66 & Villarini, 2015; Villarini et al., 2015), thus questioning the validity of the stationary assumption 67 (Cheng et al., 2014).

68 The projected warming and expected changes in precipitation and snow patterns are anticipated 69 to change river flows (e.g., Alfieri et al., 2015; McCabe & Wolock, 2014; Nazemi & Wheater, 70 2014). A warmer climate is expected to intensify the hydrological cycle, increasing the frequency 71 and/or intensity of extreme events such as droughts and floods (e.g., Das et al., 2013; Milly et al., 72 2005; Pachauri et al., 2015; Voss et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2017). Warmer land surface and water 73 bodies may increase evaporation (Scheff & Frierson, 2014), and enlarge atmospheric moisture 74 holding capacity (the Clausius–Clapeyron relation; O'Gorman & Muller, 2010); both of which can 75 contribute to the changes in river flows (e.g., Alfieri et al., 2015).

76 Moreover, a warmer climate may drive earlier snowmelt, decline in snowpack, change in 77 seasonality of river flows and changes in snow to rain ratio (e.g., Cayan et al., 2001; Harpold et 78 al., 2017; Knowles et al., 2006; Mao et al., 2015; Neelin et al., 2013; Stewart et al., 2005). These 79 changes are even more important in regions like California, where streamflow relies on winter 80 snow accumulation (e.g., Diffenbaugh et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017). Several studies have 81 documented that warm and wet storms brought by atmospheric rivers (AR) during winter may 82 cause severe flooding in California (e.g., Barth et al., 2016; Dettinger, 2011; Leung & Qian, 2009; 83 Ralph et al., 2013). *Jeon et al. (2015)* used 10 CMIP5 climate models to show that AR events in 84 warming climate would bring more frequent and severe storms to California in the future. 85 Similarly, *Payne and Magnusdottir (2015)* used 28 CMIP5 models in a study where they projected 86 up to 35% increase in AR landfall days. *Dettinger (2011)* have shown that potential increases in 87 the magnitude and frequency of AR events in the future can cause more severe and frequent 88 flooding events in California.

89 In recent years, California has experienced a series of flooding events (Vahedifard et al., 2017) 90 on the heels of a 5-year drought (e.g., AghaKouchak et al., 2014; Hardin et al., 2017; Shukla et al., 91 2015). In 2017, a major flood in Northern California led to structural failure of Oroville Dam's 92 spillway that triggered the evacuation of about 200,000 people. In another event, a levee breach 93 near Manteca, CA, provoked the local government to evacuate about 500 people (Vahedifard et 94 al., 2017). In light of the occurrence of recent extreme events over Northern California, this study 95 aims to answer a simple but important question: how will streamflow distribution change for 96 Northern California under a warming climate? The insights gained by improving our

97 understanding of the possible changes in the direction and magnitude of streamflow can have 98 profound implications on adaptation strategies to cope with the future extreme events (i.e., floods 99 and droughts) and better managing of the water resources (*Villarini et al. (2015))*.

100 Several studies have previously investigated projected changes in the hydrologic cycle over 101 California from different perspectives (AghaKouchak et al., 2014; Ashfaq et al., 2013; Burke & 102 Ficklin, 2017; Diffenbaugh et al., 2015; Hailegeorgis & Alfredsen, 2017; Li et al., 2017; Thorne 103 et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2005). Our current state of the knowledge is mostly limited to possible 104 changes in average annual, annual maxima or seasonal streamflow mainly using gridded runoff 105 products. While most studies reported changes in seasonality of streamflow over California, there 106 is no consensus on the direction (sign) of change in the flow regime. Some studies projected little 107 or no change in future annual streamflow over California (e.g., Regonda et al., 2005; Stewart et 108 al., 2005; Thorne et al., 2015), while others projected a decreasing trend in streamflow (e.g., 109 Berghuijs et al., 2014; Das, et al., 2011b; Li et al., 2017). Furthermore, there are a number of 110 studies that have focused only on the peak flows, where they projected increases in the magnitude 111 of flooding in California under climate change scenarios (e.g., Das et al., 2011a, 2013; M. D. 112 Dettinger & Ingram, 2012). The aim of the current study is to get a more comprehensive view of 113 possible changes in streamflow distribution over Northern California by analyzing the possible 114 changes in different streamflow quantiles. Unlike previous studies, and instead of gridded runoff 115 simulations, we employed a unique data set generated for the $4th$ California Climate Assessment 116 group, which includes climate model simulations, bias corrected, and routed for 59 sites across 117 Northern California for the period of 1950–2099. Moreover, in order to investigate the direction 118 of change in river discharge, in addition to investigating the mean flows, we examine changes over 119 different parts of the discharge regime (from low to high flows).

120 **2. Data and Method**

122 Daily streamflow $(m³/s)$ data for 59 locations across Northern California were developed at the 123 Scripps Institution of Oceanography, University of California San Diego and acquired from the 4th 124 California Climate Assessment group (Pierce et al., 2014, 2015; Figure S1). The Variable 125 Infiltration Capacity (VIC) land surface model (Lohmann et al., 1996, 1998), a macro-scale 126 hydrological model framework that simulates surface and subsurface processes, was forced with 127 downscaled global climate model (GCM) simulations to route streamflow at a daily temporal scale. 128 The use of downscaling techniques to convert the coarse spatial resolution in the GCMs to high 129 resolution hydrological variables is an inevitable step for the climate change impacts assessment 130 studies (Mehrotra & Sharma, 2015). The VIC model is driven by the high-resolution Localized 131 Constructed Analogs (LOCA) downscaled and bias-corrected minimum and maximum 132 temperature, and precipitation. The LOCA method calculates the simulated hydrological variable 133 (with a grid resolution of 0.0625°) by using a multiscale spatial matching framework in order to 134 pick suitable analog days from historical observations. Pierce et al., 2014 mentioned that the 135 motivation behind developing the LOCA method was to have a framework that can better preserve 136 regional patterns in temperature and precipitation, and also better represent the maximum 137 temperature and precipitation for California. There are a number of limitations associated with the 138 use of any downscaling technique including simplification of the physical processes that may result 139 in systematic errors that can be distributed between temperature and precipitation (Mehrotra & 140 Sharma, 2012, 2016). More detailed description of the downscaling and bias-correction methods 141 to develop the streamflow dataset we used here, together with limitations and advantages, can be 142 found in Pierce et al., 2014, 2015.

143 The VIC model parameters were obtained from the University of Colorado hydrologically 144 based dataset for entire California (Livneh et al., 2013; Maurer et al., 2002). The details on the 145 VIC model, together with strengths, weakness and parameterization of it can be found in the *Pierce* 146 *et al. (2016)*. As Pierce et al. (2016) indicated while the VIC hydrological modeling framework is 147 widely used in the hydrological community, the use of any hydrological model will result in some 148 degree of uncertainty to projected climate variables and future studies are encouraged to perform 149 similar analysis using additional land surface models. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that the 150 antecedent moisture conditions in a drying climate were merely accounted for by the energy 151 balance scheme of the VIC model, and further uncertainty analysis is required to scrutinize such 152 impacts on the trends of streamflow. This will be the subject of a future study.

153 In this study, the bias-corrected inputs to the VIC model are based on ten GCMs from the Fifth 154 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5; Table S1) and two representative concentration 155 pathways (RCPs): RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. We use these ten models, selected from 32 different 156 GCMs by the Climate Action Team Research Working Group of the 4th California's Climate 157 Change Assessment, as they cover a wide range of possible conditions that California may confront 158 in the future (CDWR, 2015). Furthermore, the future climate related policies and actions in 159 California would be based on the outputs of these climate models that is provided by the 4th 160 California's Climate Change Assessments (**www.ClimateAssessment.ca.gov**).

161 For each site and scenario, we calculated the ensemble median of daily streamflow based on 162 all the ten climate models from 1950 to 2099 using 1950 to 2005 as the historical baseline period 163 and 2020 to 2099 as the projection period. To investigate changes in the magnitude and direction 164 of discharge, we computed annual time series for different discharge quantiles (from low to high 165 flows) of the daily streamflow for each of the 59 locations (Lins & Slack, 1999; Villarini & Strong,

166 2014). We then use the nonparametric Mann-Kendall test (Kendall & Gibbons, 1990; Mann, 1945) 167 to detect monotonic trends in different parts of the streamflow distribution. An extensive 168 discussion on the Mann-Kendall test can be found in *Helsel & Hirsch (1992).* The test evaluates 169 the null hypothesis (H0) of no statistically significant change against the alternative hypothesis 170 (Ha) of a statistically significant trend in the time series at 0.05 significance (95% confidence) 171 level. We also examined the projected change in the magnitude and direction of river discharge 172 based on two hydrological indices, namely 7-day peak flow and 7-day low flow (see 173 Supplementary Material Section S1; Monk et al., 2007; Olden & Poff, 2003; Richter et al., 1996, 174 1998). Finally, we used the projected change in the mean monthly flows to compare the 175 streamflows over the wet seasons versus the warm seasons to get insight about the possible 176 seasonal changes in streamflow. We compared the mean of the hydrological indices in the 177 projection period relative to the baseline period under the RCP 4.5 and 8.5 by computing 178 normalized percent change: $\left(\frac{Future-Historical}{Historical} \times 100\right)$.

179

180 **3. Results**

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182 Figure 1 shows presence/absence of statistically significant trends, at 5% level, in the annual 183 mean (panel A-C), annual minima (panel D-F) and annual maxima (panel G-I) of ensemble median 184 of daily streamflow data. Overall, out of the 59 locations, none exhibits statistically significant 185 changes in the annual mean of daily streamflow for both the historical forcing (figure 1A) and the 186 RCP 4.5 scenario (figure 1B). Similar behavior is observed for the RCP8.5 scenario, with only 2 187 locations showing statistically significant changes in the annual mean of streamflow (Figure 1C). 188 Lack of pronounced signal of change in the annual mean discharge is also observed when we

189 explore trends in the annual volume of ensemble daily streamflow data (Figure S2). These results 190 are consistent with previous studies revealing that future annual mean flow and annual volume of 191 water are not projected to change significantly relative to the baseline (e.g., Regonda et al., 2005; 192 Stewart et al., 2005; Thorne et al., 2015).

193 However, trends and patterns fundamentally change when investigating the upper and lower 194 tails of the streamflow distribution. Figures 1D-E show the changes in the magnitude of annual 195 minima. Although the signal of change is relatively weak for the historical period (Figure 1 E; only 196 8 out of 59 sites show statistically significant change), it becomes much stronger when we explore 197 changes in the projection period. As shown, 19 and 54 sites (out of 59) exhibit statistically 198 significant decreasing trends in the discharge annual minima under the RCP 4.5 (Figure 1E) and 199 8.5 (Figure 1F) scenarios, respectively. Investigating annual maxima reveals opposing trends: 27 200 sites show statistically significant increasing trends in the baseline period, whereas 29 and 55 sites 201 exhibit statistically significant increasing trends under the RCP 4.5 (Figure 1H) and RCP 8.5 202 (Figure 1I) scenarios, respectively. Therefore, climate models point to a widespread decreasing 203 (increasing) trends in the annual minima (maxima) over Northern California. Under the RCP 8.5 204 scenario changes in the annual minimum and maximum discharge are larger and widespread over 205 the entire Northern California.

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Figure 1: Statistically significant trends in the annual mean (panel A-C), annual minima (panel D-F) and 208 annual maxima (panel G-I) flows over Northern California. Left panels summarize the results for the 209 historical baseline period. Middle and right panels represent change in the projection period under the RCP 210 4.5 and 8.5 scenarios, respectively. Positive and negative trends are presented with upward blue, and downward red triangles, respectively. The grev circles show sites with no statistically significant trend at 211 downward red triangles, respectively. The grey circles show sites with no statistically significant trend at 212 0.05 level.

²¹⁴ To get a more detailed picture on how the tails of discharge distribution are changing, we 215 investigate percent changes in the projected mean of 7-day low flows (Figures 2A and 2C) and 7- 216 day high flows (Figures 2B and 2D) relative to the historical period. Figure 2 depicts that the 217 magnitudes of 7-day low flows are projected to slightly decrease for both concentration paths

218 relative to the baseline, and changes are marginally higher under the RCP 8.5 (Figure 2C). 219 Considering the magnetite of 7-day high flows (Figures 2B and 2D), most locations exhibit 220 pronounced increasing patterns. It is worth mentioning that the magnitude of change is higher 221 under RCP 8.5 relative to RCP 4.5. Most of the stations that show slightly decreasing trends in the 222 magnitude of 7-day high flows are located in the southern part of the study region.

223

225 Figure 2: Percent change [%] in the magnitude of 7-day low flows (left panels) and 7-day high flows (right 226 panels) relative to the historical period for the RCP 4.5 (top panels) and RCP 8.5 (bottom panels). 227 228 To this end, our analysis points to a decreasing trend in the magnitude of low flows and 229 increasing trend in the magnitude of high flows. To further explore this issue, we investigate how 230 the distribution of river discharge is expected to change under global warming. We extend our 231 analysis to examine the presence of monotonic trends over different discharge quantiles (i.e., 232 Q0.05, Q0.25, Q0.5, Q0.75, Q0.95) using the Mann-Kendall test. Here, we only show the results

233 for RCP 8.5 for brevity, and similar results for RCP 4.5 can be found in Figure S3. Figure 3 shows 234 that the future projections point to statistically significant decreasing trends in the streamflow 235 relative to the baseline period for the $5th$, $25th$, $50th$ and $75th$ percentiles. While in the baseline period 236 we do not observe a statistically significant change for the $95th$ percentiles of discharge, a 237 significant increasing trend for the 95th percentile of projections is observed consistent with the 238 previous figures. These trends are most prevalent over the northern part of the study area. Figure 239 3 confirms that current climate model simulations indicate an asymmetrical change in the tails of 240 the streamflow distribution; i.e. low flows decrease and high flows increase.

243 Figure 3: Trends in the magnitude of different discharge quantiles: Q0.05 (panels A and F), Q0.25 (panels 244 B and G), Q0.50 (panels C and H), Q0.75 (panels D and I), and Q0.95 (panels E and J). Left panels depict 245 the baseline period whereas the right panels represent future projections (RCP 8.5). Positive and negative 246 trends are presented with upward blue, and downward red triangles, respectively. Grey circles show the 247 sites with no statistically significant trends at 0.05 level.

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250 The change in the distribution of streamflow is more evident by looking at Figure 4 which 251 presents the Empirical Cumulative Distribution Functions (ECDFs) of the ensemble median of 252 daily streamflow in the baseline and projection periods for two locations: Orville Lake (Figure 4A) 253 and Shasta Lake (Figure 4B). The projected streamflow ECDFs confirm the results from Figure 3 254 and show the potential changes in different parts of the discharge distribution. The discharge below 255 the 80th percentiles exhibits a lower low flow, while it indicates higher high flows above the $80th$

256 percentiles.

259 Figure 4: Empirical Cumulative Distribution Functions (ECDFs) of streamflow in the baseline (blue line)
260 and projection periods (red line RCP 4.5 and green line RCP 8.5) in the Oroville Lake (left panel) and 260 and projection periods (red line RCP 4.5 and green line RCP 8.5) in the Oroville Lake (left panel) and 261 Shasta Lake (right panel). 262

263 To understand the seasonal changes, we have also investigated percent changes in the projected 264 mean of streamflows relative to the baseline period at the monthly scale (Figures 5 and S4). During 265 the winter months (December, January, and February) and March (when most of the annual 266 precipitation is delivered), majority of the sites depict an increase in the monthly mean of projected 267 streamflow. This increasing pattern is more prevalent for the sites that are located in the north part 268 of the study region over the Sacramento River Basin. In the rest of the year (April to November), 269 the results point to a marked decrease in the mean of streamflow relative to the baseline period, 270 with deviation from the mean being more pronounced in April to July. Overall, these results show 271 that mean monthly streamflows over the rainy season are projected to increase by the end of the 272 century under RCP 8.5 (similar results for RCP 4.5 shown in Figure S4), while for the rest of the 273 year a decreasing trend is expected. This indicates California can possibly face wetter wet seasons 274 and drier dry seasons by the end of this century. This finding is in line with *Pierce et al. (2013)* 275 that projected an increase in winter average precipitation in California. Note that these changes in 276 the mean monthly streamflows are more noticeable for the higher emissions scenario (RCP 8.5; 277 Figure S5).

279 Figure 5: Percent change [%] in the mean of the monthly river discharge under RCP 8.5 relative to the 280 baseline period.

281 **4. Discussion and Conclusion**

283 In this study, we explore potential changes in future river flows in California using bias-284 corrected and routed simulated streamflows from multi-model climate simulations. Our results 285 indicate that the annual mean of daily streamflow is not expected to change significantly by the 286 end of this century. However, we observe opposing trends and sign of change when examining 287 changes in the upper and lower tails of streamflow distribution. Results point to a widespread 288 statistically significant increase in the magnitude of the annual streamflow maxima and a prevalent 289 decreasing trend in the annual streamflow minima under both RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 scenarios. 290 Investigating 7-day low and high flows and different quantiles of streamflow distribution also 291 confirm this finding, indicating that extreme high and low flows are expected to intensify while 292 the mean flows are not expected to change significantly. Overall, the decreasing (increasing) trends 293 in the magnitude of 7-day high flows are vivid in the southern (northern) part of the study domain. 294 Our results are in agreement with *Yoon et al. (2015)* who postulated future changes in large scale 295 circulation patterns might intensify future floods and droughts. Our findings are also consistent 296 with *Li et al. (2017)* who pointed to declines in low to moderated discharge in the future. However, 297 in contrast to *Li et al. (2017)*, our analysis does not identify a statistically significant change in the 298 annual mean streamflow. Instead, we only find an increasing pattern in the magnitude of high 299 flows.

300 We also examine projected changes in the mean of monthly streamflow relative to the baseline 301 period. Model simulations show that while annual mean of daily streamflow is not projected to 302 significantly change, mean of monthly streamflow is projected to increase during most of the rainy 303 season (December to March) and to decrease in the dry season. This increasing signal is more 304 pronounced for the sites that are located in the Sacramento River Basin. In other words, not only 305 the distribution of streamflow, but also the seasonality of river discharge is projected to change by 306 the end of this century. Note that, as *Wasko & Sharma (2017)* indicated, the response of streamflow 307 to an extreme precipitation event depends on the catchment size, and extreme precipitation events 308 at a higher temperature level may not necessarily result in higher streamflow. Our results here 309 indicate that in the future, California can face wetter rainy seasons, and drier dry seasons as 310 indicated. Moreover, *Das et al. (2011b)* have shown the important role of warm season warming 311 versus cool season warming on the streamflow level in the western United States. They projected 312 a higher reduction in streamflow under warmer warm season and an increase in the streamflow 313 under warmer cool season. Therefore, projected changes in the mean of monthly streamflow will 314 be of key importance for improving our strategies to manage water resources in California.

315 While attribution of the projected changes in discharge is not the main focus of this study, a 316 possible explanation for the observed changes in river discharge is that low to moderate flow in 317 rivers is sustained primarily by snow, with snowpack decreasing in the western United States and 318 snowmelt happening earlier in spring (Huning & Margulis, 2017; Maurer et al., 2007; Mote et al., 319 2005; Stewart et al., 2005). *Stewart et al. (2005)* examined the seasonality of streamflow in 320 snowmelt-dominated regions of western North America from 1948 to 2002 where they pointed to 321 a reduction of spring and summer streamflow due to earlier snowmelt. For the northern part of 322 California, Pierce et al. (2013) projected an increase in daily precipitation intensity in the winter 323 season while spring precipitation is projected to decrease that can worsen the impact of earlier 324 snowpack melting on the water resources. A smaller contribution of snowmelt to streamflow and 325 also reduction in the ratio of snow over rain can lead to lower low to moderate discharge during 326 seasons with lower precipitation (Li et al., 2017; Mote et al., 2005). Moreover, *Diffenbaugh et al.* 327 *(2015)* indicated that snowpack in the montane regions of California has an important role in

328 sustaining river discharge during the dry season. However, the projected increase in temperatures, 329 and consequently earlier snowmelt can result in elongated dry and low flow periods (Ashfaq et al., 330 2013; Diffenbaugh et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017; Stewart et al., 2005). *Li et al. (2017)* showed that 331 historically one-third of precipitation over the entire western United States falls as snow, which 332 accounts for more than half of the total annual streamflow. They projected that smaller fraction 333 (~%40 to %30) of snowmelt will contribute to annual discharge in the future. Furthermore, they 334 argued that runoff will be more rainfall driven in the future over California. On the other hand, 335 high flow events might be mainly controlled by moist and warm extreme AR events (M. Dettinger, 336 2011; Jeon et al., 2015). An extensive discussion on the impacts of warming climate on ARs can 337 be found in *Espinoza et al. (2018)* where they indicated that all the studies conducted over western 338 United States point to an increase in the frequency of AR events in a changing climate. Moreover, 339 in a recent study, *Ragno et al., (2018)* showed that future extreme precipitation events are expected 340 to intensify in California, despite relatively unchanged precipitation mean. Their findings are 341 consistent with our results on future changes to the high flows.

342 Projected changes in California's streamflows can have profound implications for water 343 resource management and infrastructure design and risk assessment. This issue becomes even 344 more important considering the already aging infrastructures (e.g., dams, levees, and bridges) 345 designed based on historical extremes and the assumption of stationarity. Any shift in high flows 346 in the future would increase the risk of infrastructure failure or damages to critical structures such 347 as the 2017 failure of the Orville Dam spillway. Therefore, new methodological frameworks are 348 needed to incorporate potential projected changes in the current infrastructure design and risk 349 assessment procedures to lower the risk of infrastructure failures in the future.

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Supplementary Materials: 612
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Table S1: List of the global climate models used in this study.

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 Figure S1: Map showing location of the study area. The dark red circles show the location of the 523 59 routed streamflow sites used in this study. 59 routed streamflow sites used in this study.

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642 Figure S2: Same as Figure 1 in the main paper but for the annual volume of water $\left[\frac{m^3}{s}\right]$. In this

643 figure, the dark blue (cyan) upward triangles show a statistically significant increasing trend at the 5% (10%) level and the red (orange) downward triangles show a statistically significant decreasing

 5% (10%) level and the red (orange) downward triangles show a statistically significant decreasing

645 trend at the 5% (10%) level. The light blue (cream) triangles show the locations with increasing

646 (decreasing) trends that are not statistically significant at 10% level.

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Figure S3: Same as Figure 3 in the main text but for the RCP 4.5 scenario.

655 Figure S5: Percent change [%] between the mean of the monthly river discharge under RCP 8.5 (Figure 5) 656 and the RCP 4.5 scenario (Figure S4). 657 658 659 660 **S1.Climate Indices Toolbox** 661 In this study, we used the Climate Indices Toolbox to calculate the metrics that can 662 characterize the condition of streamflow (e.g., magnitude, frequency and timing; Figure S4 and 663 S5). This toolbox has developed in MATLAB and is able to calculate and compares a suite of more 664 than 250+ metrics for hydroclimate variables among two distinct time span of interests (Table S6 665 for the list of these metrics). The user can simply use a Graphical User Interface (GUI) or a script 666 to execute the underlying functions and compute the hydroclimate indices of interest by dividing 667 the data into two periods.

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Figure S4. The GUI to execute the Climate Indices Toolbox. If the user select the option of

- 670 calculating the ETTCDI climate indices, detailed daily information about precipitation, maximum
- 671 and minimum daily temperature is required. The two buttons "1st and 2nd Period Data" will open 672 browsers for the user to select input data (text file) for each period.
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674 Figure S5. The script file to run the Climate Indices Toolbox. Detailed description is provided in 676 the script to guide the users to select proper option. 677

678 Input data to the toolbox should be prepared as the text file with the first line will read as 679 header and at least four and at maximum seven columns. The first three columns identify the year, 680 month and day, respectively. The fourth column in the input data is the hydroclimate variable of 681 interest and might be any hydroclimatological variable such as streamflow, precipitation, 682 temperature, etc. The next three columns are arbitrary and are only to be provided if the user wishes 683 to calculate ETTCDI climate indices that are based on the European Climate Assessment 684 (http://etccdi.pacificclimate.org/list_27_indices.shtml). These three columns take daily values of 685 precipitation, maximum and minimum daily temperature, with a fixed order.

686 Upon executing the Climate Indices Toolbox, a summary report file (text format) is 687 generated that details the metric values for the first and second selected periods, as well as the 688 change in the magnitude of the metric and percent change between the selected periods. Metrics 689 are ranked in descending order based on absolute value of percent change. Metrics used in the 690 Climate Indices Toolbox are described in Table S6.

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692 Table S6. Description of metrics available in the Climate Indices Toolbox.

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