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4 **Larger Drought and Flood Hazards and Adverse Impacts on Population and** 5 **Economic Productivity under 2.0 than 1.5°C Warming**

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21 **Key Points:**

- 22 • Annual runoff generally increases while terrestrial ecosystem water retention generally
23 decreases under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming
- 24 • More areas would experience droughts (34.6%), floods (54.4%), droughts and floods
25 (14.5%) under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming
- 26 • More people (85.9% totally) and GDP (85.9% totally) would be affected by droughts
27 or/and floods under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming
28

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29 **Abstract**

30 Climate change may have major influences on surface runoff, which would consequently result
31 in important implications for terrestrial ecosystems and human well-being. At global scale there
32 is limited understanding of these issues with respect to the warming targets stipulated in the
33 Paris Agreement. Here we use a well-established hydrological model (Variable Infiltration
34 Capacity; VIC) forced with a representative ensemble of latest climate projections from four
35 global circulation models (GCMs) to estimate potential future changes in runoff and Terrestrial
36 Ecosystem Water Retention (TEWR), as well as changes in extreme runoff and their impacts
37 on population, and overall gross domestic product (GDP) worldwide. Results suggest that
38 annual runoff generally would have larger increases, while annual TEWR generally would have
39 larger decreases under the 2.0°C warming scenario as opposed to 1.5°C warming scenario.
40 Global mean warming of 2°C versus 1.5°C would lead to more distinct spatial patterns in runoff
41 change, with a general shift of the runoff distribution towards more extreme low runoff in
42 Mexico, western U.S., Western Europe, southeastern China, West Siberian Plain and more
43 extreme high runoff in Alaska, northern Canada, and large parts of Asia. More people and GDP
44 would be exposed to extreme low runoff decrease, extreme high runoff increase, extreme low
45 runoff decrease as well as extreme high runoff increase under a higher warming scenario. This
46 study differentiates hydrological impacts between the two warming scenarios and illustrates
47 higher runoff, lower TEWR, larger potential drought and flood hazards and adverse impacts
48 on population and GDP under 2°C than 1.5°C.

49

50 1. Introduction

51 Climate impact assessments and associated adaptation strategies at regional and global
52 scales have been a key concern for various sectors, such as water, agriculture, and ecosystem
53 (Frieler et al., 2017; Prudhomme et al., 2014; Rosenzweig et al., 2014; Schewe et al., 2014).
54 The Paris Agreement, produced by United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
55 (UNFCCC, 2015), aims at holding the global mean temperature increase to well below 2.0°C
56 compared to pre-industrial levels, which results in efforts to explore 1.5°C pathways (IPCC,
57 2018; Mitchell et al., 2017; Schleussner et al., 2016). Consequently, recent climate impact
58 assessments largely focus on the differences between those two warming targets (Betts et al.,
59 2018; Nangombe et al., 2018). Freshwater is vital for sustaining human activities and
60 environmental requirements (Liu, Lim, et al., 2018). Global warming leads to changes in the
61 distribution of water resources in many regions, and the global and regional hydrological cycles
62 have been greatly influenced by climate change, and consequently leads to more frequent and
63 more severe drought and flood hazards (Döll & Müller Schmied, 2012; Hagemann et al., 2013;
64 Heinke et al., 2019; IPCC, 2018). With indispensable societal dependencies, freshwater is at
65 the heart of climate impact assessments, but at the same time one of the most vulnerable sectors
66 to climate change (Döll & Müller Schmied, 2012; Hagemann et al., 2013; Heinke et al., 2019;
67 IPCC, 2018).

68 In addition, extreme weather events and associated low or high runoff levels have attracted
69 wide attention recently (Dottori et al., 2018; Leng et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2018). With increasing
70 global mean temperature, extreme precipitation is expected to intensify, which has been
71 supported by both historical observations and model simulations (Asadieh & Krakauer, 2017;
72 O'Gorman & Schneider, 2009; Trenberth, 2011). Shifts towards more intense precipitation may
73 increase the severity and frequency of extreme runoff in different regions (Alfieri et al., 2015;
74 Dankers et al., 2014), which is often directly associated with adverse impacts on human well-

75 being and economic status. Some previous studies have analyzed potential changes of droughts
76 under different warming scenarios (Liu, Sun, et al., 2018; Liu, Lim, et al., 2018; Su et al., 2018).
77 All of these have indicated that more droughts and floods would happen under warming
78 scenarios, and consequently, more adverse impacts would happen under warming scenarios.
79 On the contrary, there have been arguments that floods are decreasing despite of increases in
80 extreme rainfall (Sharma et al., 2018) based on observed data, except in the most extremes
81 cases, including small catchments or urban catchments (Wasko & Sharma, 2017), indicating
82 precipitation change is not the only reason for flood change in the future.

83 Empirical approaches and process-based approaches have been used to investigate runoff
84 change under warming scenarios in the future (Asadieh & Krakauer, 2017; Heinke et al., 2019;
85 Liu, Sun, et al., 2018; Liu, Lim, et al., 2018; Su et al., 2018). Process-based approaches estimate
86 runoff by describing various components of the hydrological cycle such as interception and
87 evaporation. However, empirical-based approaches estimate runoff or droughts through
88 quantifying patterns between observed hydrological indices and catchment characteristics
89 without considering physical hydrological processes explicitly (Booker & Woods, 2014;
90 Bourdin et al., 2012). Most climate change impact assessment studies are conducted at regional
91 scale to quantify runoff change under warming scenarios (Kay et al., 2018; Leng et al., 2015;
92 Leng et al., 2016; Zhai et al., 2018), while only a few studies have used process-based models
93 at high spatial resolution and at global scale because of high computation cost (Asadieh &
94 Krakauer, 2017; Heinke et al., 2019). Moreover, some global hydrological models are not
95 enough calibrated for climate change impact assessment at a regional scale (Gosling et al.,
96 2017). In addition, compared with the previously used climate change scenarios from Coupled
97 Model Inter-comparison Project (CMIP), the climate change scenarios provided by “Half a
98 degree Additional warming, Prognosis and Projected Impacts” (HAPPI) project are particularly
99 designed for impact assessment in terms of Paris Agreement (Mitchell et al., 2016; Mitchell et

100 al., 2017).

101 Terrestrial ecosystem services have increasingly become concerned with global climate
102 change. Terrestrial Ecosystem Water Retention (TEWR), representing water retained in
103 terrestrial ecosystems, is one of important ecosystem services (Gong et al., 2017; Xu et al.,
104 2017). There are some scattered case studies, but limited comprehensive assessments at a
105 regional or global scale. TEWR is shown to increase in mainland China for the period of 2000-
106 2010 because of natural capital investment policies, changes in biophysical factors, and
107 socioeconomic development (Ouyang et al., 2016). However, how TEWR will be affected by
108 global warming in the future has been rarely investigated.

109 Hazard represents the potential occurrence of a natural or human-induced physical event
110 or trend or physical impact that may cause loss of life, injury, or other health impacts, as well
111 as damage and loss to property, infrastructure, livelihoods, service provision, ecosystems, and
112 environmental resources (IPCC, 2014). In this study, a decrease in extreme low runoff is
113 associated with drought hazard, while an increase in extreme high runoff is associated with
114 flood hazard (Asadieh & Krakauer, 2017). Climate change impacts on annual runoff and
115 extreme runoff have been investigated previously, but the subsequent influences on socio-
116 economy have been rarely investigated (Dottori et al., 2018). Population and GDP are key
117 indicators of socio-economy development. Population and GDP would suffer directly from
118 runoff change and especially extreme runoff change, such as water supply, navigation,
119 hydropower generation, droughts and floods (Döll & Müller Schmied, 2012; Heinke et al.,
120 2019). Therefore, in this study, we choose population and GDP to evaluate the adverse impacts
121 of drought and flood hazards on socio-economy development.

122 We present one of the most comprehensive analyses targeting global runoff and TEWR
123 change specifically differentiating the 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenario. This analysis is based
124 on the well-established hydrological model VIC with a worldwide spatial resolution of 0.5°.

125 We calibrate VIC at 18 major river basins (Table S1) before running it with 20 bias-corrected
126 future climate projections from a rigorous selection of 4 representative GCMs: ECHAM6-3-
127 LR, MIROC5, NorESM1-HAPPI, and CAM4-2degree (Table S2). This study aims to
128 investigate (1) how annual runoff and TEWR will change; (2) how the extreme low and high
129 runoff will change, and (3) how the projected changes in extreme runoff will affect population
130 and GDP, under the 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios, respectively. Based on previously studies
131 (Dottori et al., 2018; Heinke et al., 2019; Liu, Sun, et al., 2018; Liu, Lim, et al., 2018), extreme
132 low runoff is supposed to decrease while extreme high runoff to increase under warmer
133 scenarios, which implies more droughts and floods and more adverse impacts on population
134 and GDP with climate warming. We also assume that a well calibrated process-based
135 hydrological model forced by dedicated climate change scenarios will produce more robust
136 results.

137 **2. Materials and Methods**

138 **2.1 Model description**

139 The process-based model VIC (Liang et al., 1994, 1996) is applied for the hydrological
140 modeling in this study. The model, developed for large-scale applications, considers different
141 soil types and three layers, and dynamic natural vegetation growth in each grid cell. Here we
142 run it at a 0.5° spatial grid with global coverage. In this study, VIC soil-related parameters such
143 as soil texture and vegetation parameters within each grid, including number of vegetation
144 classes, fraction of the grid covered by each vegetation, and root zone thickness as well as
145 fraction of root in corresponding zones for every vegetation type, are introduced by Nijssen,
146 Schnur, et al., (2001) and Nijssen, O'Donnell, et al., (2001) mainly based on FAO soil map
147 (FAO 1995), World Inventory of Soil Emission Potentials (WISE) database (Batjes, 1995) and
148 1 km AVHRR-derived land cover data (Hansen et al., 2000). In each grid cell, up to 12 land

149 cover types are explicitly simulated, including evergreen needleleaf forests, evergreen
150 broadleaf forests, deciduous needleleaf forests, deciduous broadleaf forests, mixed forests,
151 woodlands, wooded grasslands/shrublands, closed shrublands, opened shrublands, grasslands,
152 croplands and bare soil. Total evapotranspiration is separately calculated for each land cover
153 type (n th) from canopy evaporation ($E_{c,n}$, mm) and vegetation transpiration ($E_{t,n}$, mm), and
154 evaporation from the bare soil (E_1 , mm). Total runoff consists of surface runoff ($Q_{s,n}$, mm) and
155 base flow ($Q_{b,n}$, mm) (Liang et al., 1994). The VIC model uses the variable infiltration curve
156 to account for the spatial heterogeneity of runoff generation. It assumes that surface runoff for
157 the upper two soil layers is generated by those areas for which precipitation exceeds the storage
158 capacity of the soil. The method of ARNO model (Todini, 1996) is used to describe base flow
159 generation, which only happens in the bottom soil layer. A routing model is used to calculate
160 runoff in each basin after running VIC model (Lohmann et al., 1996, 1998a, 1998b).

161 **2.2 VIC model calibration and validation**

162 There are seven parameters to be calibrated for the VIC model, including the variable
163 infiltration curve parameter (b), the maximum velocity of base flow (D_{smax}), the fraction of
164 D_{smax} where non-linear base flow begins (D_s), the fraction of maximum soil moisture where
165 non-linear base flow occurs (W_s), and the thickness of each soil moisture layer (d_i , $i=1, 2, 3$).
166 Historical daily climate data from the Water and Global Change (WATCH) project (Weedon et
167 al., 2011) at a 0.5° spatial resolution are used for calibration and validation in the 18 river basins
168 (Table S1). In this dataset, precipitation is corrected using Global Precipitation Climatology
169 Centre full product (GPCC) version 4 and Climatic Research Unit (CRU) TS2.1 gridded
170 observations, and temperature is corrected based on CRU TS2.1. Comparisons have shown a
171 good agreement between WATCH forcing data and FLUXNET data at seven sites. The WATCH
172 forcing data has been used widely (Dalin et al., 2012; Y. Liu et al., 2018; van Vliet et al., 2013).

173 The 18 major basins include Amazonas River basin (AMA), Amur River basin (AMU), Congo
174 River basin (CON), Danube River basin (DAN), Ganges River basin (GAN), Lena River basin
175 (LEN), Mackenzie River basin (MAC), Mekong River basin (MEK), Mississippi River basin
176 (MIS), Murry River basin (MUR), Niger River basin (NIG), Nile River basin (NIL), Ob River
177 basin (OB), Rio Parana River basin (PAR), Volga River basin (VOL), Yangtze River basin
178 (YAN), Yellow River basin (YEL), Yenisey River basin (YEN). We calibrate model
179 parameters individually for all the 18 river basins, at a spatial resolution of 1.0° instead of 0.5°
180 to reduce computational costs for calibration. Previous studies have documented this
181 calibration procedure at a higher spatial resolution does not significantly improve results
182 (Haddeland et al., 2002; Zhou et al., 2016). Input data are aggregated to $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid and
183 calibration is performed against monthly runoff observations from the Global Runoff Data
184 Center (GRDC) for basins outside China, and from local water resources department for Yellow
185 River basin and Yangtze River basin in China. The global river routing networks dataset at 1°
186 $\times 1^\circ$, which is upscaled from finer resolutions using a dominant river tracing (DRT) algorithm
187 (Wu et al., 2011), is used in the routing model. A global optimization method, shuffled complex
188 evolution method developed at the University of Arizona (SCE-UA) (Duan et al., 1994), is
189 used to calibrate the seven parameters of the VIC model through fitting the simulated runoff
190 from the VIC model to the observed runoff at the corresponding hydrological station. The
191 Kling-Gupta efficiency (KGE) (Gupta et al., 2009) value is used as the objective function,
192 which represents the fit between the simulated and observed runoff in the process of calibration
193 in each basin. Target values are calculated as follows:

$$194 \quad KGE = 1 - ED, \quad (1)$$

$$195 \quad ED = \sqrt{(r-1)^2 + (\alpha-1)^2 + (\beta-1)^2}, \quad (2)$$

$$196 \quad r = \frac{Cov_{so}}{\sigma_s \cdot \sigma_o}, \quad (3)$$

197
$$\alpha = \frac{\sigma_s}{\sigma_o}, \quad (4)$$

198
$$\beta = \frac{\mu_s}{\mu_o}, \quad (5)$$

199 where ED is the Euclidian distance from the ideal point, r , α , β represent the linear
200 correlation coefficient, relative variability, bias between simulated values (χ_s) and observed
201 values (χ_o), respectively. μ_s , μ_o represent means of χ_s , χ_o , and σ_s , σ_o represent
202 standard deviations of χ_s , χ_o . Cov_{so} is the covariance between χ_s and χ_o . A good
203 simulation result will have KGE close to 1.

204 2.3 Selection of representative ensembles from each GCM

205 To select subsets from the vast amount of available GCM ensembles, several envelope-
206 based methods have been proposed (Cannon, 2015; Lutz et al., 2016) to create a representative
207 subset that covers the full extent of all ensembles. Here we use the Katsavounidis-Kuo-Zhang
208 (KKZ) method (Cannon, 2015; Chen et al., 2016; Katsavounidis et al., 1994; Wang et al., 2018)
209 to select five representative ensembles in each GCM. The VIC model has four input variables,
210 including daily precipitation (mm), mean wind speed (m/s), maximum (Tmax) and minimum
211 (Tmin) temperature (°C). Mean values of these four input variables are calculated individually
212 for each climate model ensemble (3 GCMs \times 20 ensembles + 1 GCM \times 10 ensembles; 70
213 ensembles in total) as grid-cell-area-weighted average for each continent, under the baseline
214 period (2006-2015), as well as the 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios (2106-2115). Respective
215 relative changes in precipitation ($\Delta P/P$, %) and wind speed ($\Delta Wind/Wind$, %), and absolute
216 changes in maximum and minimum temperature ($(\Delta Tmax + \Delta Tmin)/2$, °C) at continental level
217 are calculated. Changes are standardized to zero mean and unit standard deviation to eliminate
218 influences from different magnitudes and units between variables. Finally, we select five

219 representative ensembles (Table S3) for each GCM through the following procedure: i) The
220 ensemble closest to the centroid of all the ensembles is selected as the first representative
221 ensemble; ii) The ensemble farthest from the first selected ensemble is selected as the second
222 representative ensemble; iii) The next three ensembles are selected according to their distance
223 to previously-selected ensembles in that the distance to the nearest previously-selected
224 ensemble is calculated. Then, the ensemble with the largest distance among the remaining
225 ensembles is selected as the next representative ensemble.

226 **2.4 Simulation protocol**

227 Model simulations for the baseline (2006-2015) and future (2106-2115) for 1.5 and 2.0°C
228 warming compared to pre-industrial conditions are forced by daily climate data obtained from
229 the HAPPI project (Mitchell et al., 2017). For this climate forcing dataset, representative
230 concentration pathway 2.6 (RCP2.6) are used to provide the model boundary conditions for the
231 1.5°C warming scenario, and a weighted combination of RCP2.6 and RCP4.5 are used for the
232 2.0°C warming scenario (Mitchell et al., 2017). Following the Inter-Sectoral Impact Model
233 Intercomparison Project 2b (ISIMIP2b) (Frieler et al., 2017) simulation protocol, these model
234 inputs have been bias-corrected using the trend-preserving bias correction method described in
235 Hempel et al., (2013). The HAPPI input data are first interpolated to a $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ grid, and then
236 bias corrected using the EWEMBI (Earth2Observe, WFDEI and ERA-Interim data Merged
237 and Bias-corrected for ISIMIP) dataset (Lange, 2018). Table S2 shows all considered ensemble
238 members from each GCM. Then five ensembles are selected through KKZ method to decrease
239 the computational cost for each warming scenario in every GCM. This results in 200
240 simulations ($4 \text{ GCMs} \times 5 \text{ ensembles} \times 10 \text{ years}$) for each of the scenarios, respectively. Because
241 there are only 10 years in every ensemble, so we repeat the first year for ten times as the spin-
242 up period to make the model become stable, and then do simulations for the 10 years in each

243 ensemble of each scenario.

244 **2.5 TEWR change**

245 We calculate TEWR from a water balance perspective, that is, the ratio of input water and
246 output water per grid cell, as follows:

$$247 \quad \text{TEWR} = \frac{P}{E + R}, \quad (6)$$

248 where P is precipitation (mm), ET is evapotranspiration (mm), and R is runoff (mm). TEWR is
249 calculated at the monthly time scale and annual TEWR is the sum of monthly values.

250 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

251 Changes in annual mean temperature (°C), annual precipitation (%), annual runoff (%) and
252 annual TEWR (%) in each grid are calculated in each ensemble for the future 10-year period
253 (2106–2115) under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios relative to the baseline period. We adopt
254 the median change (Tao & Zhang, 2011) among ensembles to represent the changing trend of
255 every variable, including annual mean temperature, precipitation, runoff, and TEWR under the
256 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios by ECHAM6-3-LR, MIROC5, NorESM1-HAPPI, CAM4-
257 2degree, and all of them, relative to baseline scenario. Basin means are calculated by
258 calculating area-weighted averages. Extreme low runoff is defined as the 5th percentiles of the
259 consecutive 10-years mean 7-days runoff, and extreme high runoff is defined as the 95th
260 percentiles of the consecutive 10-years daily runoff. Median changes among all ensembles (4
261 GCMs × 5 ensembles) are used to represent changes of extreme low and high runoff in each
262 grid under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios, relative to baseline period.

263 The coefficient of determination (r^2) between each predictor to dependent variable is used
264 to reveal driving factors that cause changes in runoff and TEWR from the 400 change samples
265 in each grid cell (4 GCMs × 5 ensembles × 2 scenarios × 10 years). As for runoff, there are

266 four climate variables used in each simulation, including precipitation, maximum temperature,
267 minimum temperature, and wind speed. Strong correlation exists between maximum and
268 minimum temperature, so we analyze the effects of three climate variables, including annual
269 precipitation change, annual mean temperature change, annual mean wind speed change on
270 annual runoff change. The equation to calculate TEWR has three input variables, including
271 precipitation, evapotranspiration, and runoff. So we analyze the effects of these three variables,
272 including annual precipitation change, annual evapotranspiration change, and annual runoff
273 change, on annual TEWR change. The weight of r^2 of each predictor to the sum of r^2 of the
274 three predictors are calculated to represent the relative contribution of each variable in each
275 grid, and defines a specific RGB color.

276 **2.7 Impacts of extreme runoff change on population and GDP**

277 To consider the number of people and GDP affected by runoff change, we use the historical
278 and future population data and GDP data at a spatial resolution of 0.5° from the ISIMIP2b
279 (Frieler et al., 2017). The shared socioeconomic pathways (SSPs) are scenarios of the GDP and
280 population growth throughout the coming centuries. There are 5 SSPs designed to cover a broad
281 range of future socioeconomic development pathways (O'Neill et al., 2017), including: SSP1
282 (Sustainability), SSP2 (Middle of the Road), SSP3 (Regional Rivalry), SSP4 (Inequality),
283 SSP5 (Fossil-fueled Development). According to Döll et al. (2018), Frieler et al. (2017),
284 Heinke et al. (2019) and Sun et al. (2019), the population and GDP data based on SSP2
285 projections are adopted in the future time period because the SSP2 describes a development
286 pattern of moderate challenges to mitigation and adaptation (Fricko et al., 2017). In this study,
287 global gridded population and GDP data in 2005 are used to represent population and GDP
288 condition under baseline period (2006-2015), while global gridded population and GDP data
289 in 2099 are used to represent population and GDP condition under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming

290 scenarios (2106-2115). Top 20 countries are selected according to population and GDP data in
291 2005, respectively (Table 1).

292 **3. Results**

293 **3.1 VIC model parameters' calibration and validation**

294 In this study, we first select top 10 basins according to length, surface area, total runoff,
295 respectively, then add one more river basin in Europe and South America. Finally, 18 main
296 river basins are selected (Figure S1), including CON, NIG and NIL in Africa, AMU, GAN,
297 LEN, MEK, OB, YAN, YEL, YEN in Asia, DAN and VOL in Europe, MAC and MIS in North
298 America, MUR in Oceania, AMA and PAR in South America. Summary characteristics of each
299 basin, including location and area, are shown in the Table S1. The calibration period is about
300 10 years (mostly from 1980 to 1989) in each basin, and validation period range from 1990 to
301 1999 in most basins (Table S1). The calibrated VIC model simulates runoff fairly well in most
302 main basins (Figure 1). In 14 out of 18 basins, the KGE value exceeds 0.5 in both the calibration
303 and validation period. The four basins in which the model does not perform well, with the KGE
304 value less than 0.5 in the calibration period and (or) in the validation period, include MUR,
305 NIG, NIL, and YEL (Figure 1). This can be explained by the fact that channel losses in the
306 routing process are not calculated (Nijssen, O'Donnell, et al., 2001), and the impact of human
307 activities such as water withdrawal are not considered in this model. Despite these typical
308 global model limitations, the calibration has improved simulation results in all basins. Since
309 we only calibrate parameters in the 18 main basins in the world, the parameters of uncalibrated
310 grids are set the same with the parameters of the calibrated nearest grid in the same continent.

311 **3.2 Changes in runoff under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios and the controlling factors**

312 Spatial-temporal changes in annual mean temperature and annual precipitation under 1.5
313 and 2.0°C warming scenarios (2106-2115), relative to baseline period (2006-2015), are shown

314 in Figure S2 and Figure S3. In general, the projected spatial patterns of runoff change are
315 consistent with those of precipitation, suggesting runoff change should be dominated by
316 precipitation change (Figure 2 and Figure S3), while the magnitude of the runoff change (%)
317 is greater than the magnitude of the precipitation change (%). The annual runoff is projected to
318 decrease in large areas in South America, Africa, Oceania and part of North America, Europe,
319 and Asia under 1.5 °C warming scenario (Figure 2e). From 1.5 to 2.0°C warming scenario,
320 runoff is projected to decrease in less grids located in South America, Africa, and Oceania, but
321 in more grids located in the middle and low latitudes in North America, large parts in Europe
322 and West Asia (Figure 2j). Generally, runoff is projected to increase more or decrease less under
323 2.0 than 1.5°C warming scenario. Runoff is projected to increase in 53.1% and 53.7% of the
324 grids, while decrease in 30.6% and 30.0% of the grids, respectively, under 1.5 and 2.0°C
325 warming scenarios. At the basin scale, annual runoff in seven (six) out of 18 basins are
326 projected to decrease under 1.5°C (2.0°C) warming scenario (Table S4 and Figure S4c).
327 Although annual runoff increases more (or decreases less) in large areas under 2.0 than 1.5°C
328 warming scenario (Figure 2e,j and Figure S4c), it is projected to increase less (or decrease more)
329 under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming scenario in some basins including the DAN, MIS, VOL, YAN,
330 and YEL (Table S4 and Figure S4c). Annual runoff in the above-mentioned basins would
331 change by -1.4% (-2.5%), 1.6% (-13.3%), 12.6% (4.5%), 10.0% (2.8%), and 12.0% (2.4%)
332 under 1.5°C (2.0°C) warming scenario, respectively. We further investigate the factors
333 controlling runoff change under the two warming scenarios (Figure 3). It is obvious that
334 precipitation change is the major factor for runoff change over the world, however, temperature
335 change and wind speed change influence runoff change through influencing evapotranspiration
336 (Ekness & Randhir, 2015; She et al., 2017). In the VIC model, temperature and wind speed
337 change influence runoff more in low latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere and in the Southern
338 Hemisphere than middle and high latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere.

339 3.3 Changes in TEWR under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios and the controlling factors

340 The projected changes in TEWR (Figure 4) are less than those of precipitation and runoff
341 (Figure S3 and Figure 2). Annual TEWR is projected to increase in large parts of Alaska,
342 Canada, Russian Federation, Kazakhstan, Belarus, Ukraine, Pakistan under 1.5°C warming
343 scenario (Figure 4e). It is projected to increase in large parts of Alaska, Canada, Russian
344 Federation, Kazakhstan, Saudi Arabia under 2.0°C warming scenario (Figure 4j). In other parts
345 of the world, TEWR is mainly projected to decrease or remain unchanged (Figure 4e,j). In 39.6%
346 and 46.3% of the grids, it is projected to decrease under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios,
347 while in 44.1% and 37.4% of the grids, it is projected to increase under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming
348 scenarios. Generally, it is projected to decrease more (or increase less) under 2.0°C than 1.5°C
349 warming scenario. At basin scale, compared with median changes in annual precipitation and
350 runoff, median change in annual TEWR is projected to decrease in more basins (Table S4 and
351 Figure S4d) under the two warming scenarios. Median change in annual TEWR in 8 out of 18
352 basins (including AMA, CON, GAN, MEK, MIS, MUR, VOL, YEL) is projected to decrease
353 under 1.5°C warming scenario, and the decreasing trend is projected in 12 basins (including
354 AMA, CON, DAN, GAN, MAC, MEK, MUR, NIL, PAR, VOL, YAN, YEL) under 2.0°C
355 warming scenario. TEWR in 11 out of 18 basins (including AMA, AMU, DAN, GAN, MAC,
356 MUR, NIG, NIL, PAR, YAN, YEN) is projected to decrease under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming
357 scenario (Table S4 and Figure S4d). Increasing evapotranspiration accompanied with
358 increasing temperature would lead to TEWR decrease to some extent. The controlling factors
359 are investigated separately in this study (Figure 5). TEWR change is the result of multiple
360 factors interactions, including climate conditions, terrain, soil texture, and land cover. For
361 example, in northern Canada, Alaska, eastern United States, West Siberian Plain, East
362 European Plain, and large areas in China and Mongolia, runoff change is the main factor
363 controlling TEWR change.

364 **3.4 Changes in extreme runoff under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios**

365 Changes in extreme low and high runoff are investigated (Figure 6). Extreme low runoff
366 is projected to decrease in 33.4% of grids over the world, mainly in South America, Africa,
367 Southeast Asia, Central Europe and Southern Europe under 1.5°C warming scenario, which
368 represents more drought hazards would exist in these areas (Figure 6a). When the warming
369 target is 2.0°C instead of 1.5°C, extreme low runoff is projected to decrease in more grids
370 (34.6%). Drought hazards are projected to decrease in South America, Africa and Central
371 Europe under 2.0°C than 1.5°C warming, while they are projected to increase in Mexico,
372 western U. S., Western Europe, southeastern China and West Siberian Plain (Figure 6b). Mean
373 extreme low runoff is projected to decrease from -2.9% to -3.3% from 1.5 to 2.0°C warming
374 scenarios. This means extreme low runoff is projected to decrease in more grids, and extreme
375 low runoff is projected to decrease more under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming scenario. Extreme high
376 runoff is projected to increase in 52.0% of grids over the world under 1.5°C warming scenario,
377 which are mainly located in the Northern Hemisphere including southern U.S., Alaska,
378 northern Canada, large parts of Asia, Northern Europe and areas in Africa near the equator
379 (Figure 6c). Extreme high runoff is projected to increase in 54.4% of grids under 2.0°C
380 warming scenario. More extreme high runoff is projected to increase in Alaska, northern
381 Canada, large parts of Asia under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming scenario (Figure 6c,d). And the
382 increase in extreme high runoff is significantly greater in 2.0°C warming scenario than 1.5°C
383 warming scenario. Increase of mean extreme high runoff change is 4.5% and 6.5% under 1.5
384 and 2.0°C warming scenarios, respectively. Thus, more droughts and floods would happen
385 under 2.0°C than 1.5°C warming. In addition, extreme high runoff is projected to increase, as
386 well as extreme low runoff is projected to decrease concurrently in 12.8% and 14.5% of grids
387 over the world under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios, which represents more droughts and
388 floods would happen concurrently when global warming target increases from 1.5°C to 2.0°C.

389 3.5 Adverse impacts on population and GDP

390 The impacts of extreme runoff changes under warming scenarios on population and GDP
391 are further analyzed. Total number of people is projected to increase from 6.5 billion in 2005
392 to 9.0 billion in 2099. However, total GDP is projected to increase nearly tenfold, from 59 to
393 532 trillion in 2005 PPP USD, during the period from 2005 to 2099. Three zones are defined
394 according to extreme runoff change, including extreme low runoff decrease, extreme high
395 runoff increase, extreme low runoff decrease as well as extreme high runoff increase.
396 Percentage of population and GDP influenced by extreme runoff change in each zone are
397 shown in Table 2 and Table 3. At the global scale, 44.6% (45.1%) of population would be
398 influenced by extreme low runoff decrease, 56.1% (61.0%) of population would be influenced
399 by extreme high runoff increase under 1.5°C (2.0°C) warming scenario. Therefore, more
400 population would be influenced by droughts and floods under 2.0°C than 1.5°C warming. 15.3%
401 (20.2%) of population would be influenced concurrently by extreme low runoff decrease and
402 extreme high runoff increase under 1.5°C (2.0°C) warming scenarios, which means more
403 population would be influenced by droughts and floods simultaneously with global warming
404 of 2.0°C than 1.5°C (Table 2). 43.7% and 57.1% of GDP would be influenced by extreme low
405 runoff decrease and extreme high runoff increase under 1.5°C warming scenario, respectively.
406 These percentage increased to 48.3% and 59.5% under 2.0°C warming scenario, respectively.
407 Same as population, the percentage of GDP influenced by both decrease in extreme low runoff
408 and increase in extreme high runoff would increase from 16.2% to 21.9% with global warming
409 of 1.5°C to 2.0°C (Table 3). More people and GDP would experience adverse impacts of
410 droughts and floods from 1.5 to 2.0°C warming scenario. Therefore, limiting global average
411 temperature increase to below 1.5 instead of 2.0°C warmer than pre-industrial levels would
412 reduce the percentage of population and GDP influenced by droughts and floods.

413 Runoff change has an obvious spatial heterogeneity. Population and GDP in each grid

414 which would be influenced in different runoff change zones under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming
415 scenarios are shown in Figure S5 and Figure S6. Grids with high population density (>200,000)
416 influenced by extreme low runoff decrease are mainly located in Sub-Saharan Africa, Western
417 Europe, Central Europe, Southern Europe, Central America, northern South America, eastern
418 U.S., South Asia, southeastern China, and Southeast Asia under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming
419 scenarios (Figure S5a,d). The number of such grids would increase notably in southeastern
420 China under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming scenario (Figure S5a,d). The grids with high population
421 density influenced by extreme high runoff increase are mainly located in India, East Asia,
422 Southeast Asia, Western Africa, western Central Africa, Central Europe under 1.5°C warming
423 scenario (Figure S5b). When global warming increases from 1.5°C to 2.0°C, besides above-
424 mentioned areas, the grids in Eastern Africa also have a large population influenced by extreme
425 high runoff increase (Figure S5e). The grids with a high population density influenced by both
426 extreme low runoff decrease and extreme high runoff increase are mainly scattered in South
427 Asia, East Asia, and Southeast Asia, under 1.5°C warming scenario. And these grids are mainly
428 scattered in Western Africa, Eastern Africa, Central Europe, South Asia, East Asia, and
429 Southeast Asia under 2.0°C warming scenario (Figure S5c,f). The GDP affected by extreme
430 runoff change have nearly the same spatial pattern as population under both 1.5 and 2.0°C
431 warming scenarios (Figure S6).

432 The top 20 countries are selected according to the population and GDP data in 2005,
433 respectively (Table 1). The affected population and GDP in grids, which are suffered from
434 extreme low runoff decrease, extreme high runoff increase, extreme low runoff decrease as
435 well as extreme high runoff increase, are summed in each country. Then the ratios of affected
436 population (GDP) to all population (GDP) in these 20 countries under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming
437 scenarios are calculated (Figure 7). The percentage of population would be more influenced by
438 floods (extreme high runoff increase) than droughts (extreme low runoff decrease) in China,

439 India, Russian Federation, Nigeria, Bangladesh, Japan, Philippines, Viet Nam, Egypt, Iran, and
440 Thailand under the two warming scenarios. As for United States of America, Indonesia, Brazil,
441 Pakistan, Mexico, Turkey, and France, the percentage of population would be more influenced
442 by droughts than floods under the two warming scenarios (Figure 7a). Percentage of GDP
443 would be more influenced by floods than droughts in China, Japan, India, Russian Federation,
444 Korea (the Republic of), Iran, and Saudi Arabia. By contrast, it would be more influenced by
445 droughts than floods in France, Italy, Brazil, Mexico, Spain, Canada, Indonesia, Turkey, and
446 Australia (Figure 7b). Obviously, the population and GDP in most of the selected countries in
447 Asia would be influenced by floods. More than 30% of population in Philippines (China,
448 Indonesia, Pakistan, Germany) are projected to be affected by droughts and floods concurrently
449 under 1.5°C (2.0°C) warming scenario (Figure 7a). More than 30% of GDP in Italy and Korea
450 (the Republic of) (China, Germany, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland,
451 Indonesia) are projected to be affected by droughts and floods concurrently under 1.5°C (2.0°C)
452 warming scenario (Figure 7b).

453

454

4. Discussion

4.1 Larger drought and flood hazards and adverse impacts on population and economic productivity under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming

Future runoff changes under warming scenarios have been investigated using different methods under various warming scenarios (Hagemann et al., 2013; Krysanova et al., 2017; Milly et al., 2005). In recent years, extreme runoff including droughts and floods has been investigated more frequently, with different evaluation criteria varying from daily, monthly to yearly to account for changes in extreme runoff (Gosling et al., 2017; Henley et al., 2019; Zhai et al., 2018). The results show that more land areas would be exposed to potential flood hazards than drought hazards, which is supported by other studies using different GCMs and hydrological models under RCP2.6 scenario (Asadieh & Krakauer, 2017). Liu, Lim, et al., (2018) used a mathematical approach combined with HAPPI climate scenarios to quantify changes in the magnitude of monthly water availability below normal conditions. Their results showed that more (less) people in East Asia, Central Europe, South Asia, and Southeast Asia (Western Africa and Alaska/northwestern Canada) would be exposed to water shortage. Their results have some differences from this present study due to use of different droughts indicators, and study methods (process-based hydrological model vs mathematical approach). Dottori et al., (2018) investigated flooding impacts using the ISIMIP fast-track multi-model hydrological ensemble and found the greatest losses would happen in the Asian continent at 1.5°C, 2.0°C, and 3.0°C warming scenarios. In addition, there are some studies at global or regional scale, showing that global warming would lead to more floods, more droughts, and more adverse impacts on population and GDP, albeit with some differences (Gosling et al., 2017; Heinke et al., 2019; Liu, Sun, et al., 2018). Compared with the previous studies, we use a well calibrated process-based hydrological model forced by 20 representative climate projections to investigate annual mean runoff, annual mean TEWR, droughts and floods, as well as the

adverse impacts on population and GDP, aiming to provide more comprehensive, systematic and robust results. The findings presented in this study supplement the climate change impact assessment on runoff change forced by earlier climate modeling archives, such as CMIP5, especially for the global warming target put forward by the Paris Agreement.

4.2 Representativeness of selected climate projections

Although it is always advised to use all available climate projections in impact studies, the cost of storage and computation may be prohibitive (Wang et al., 2018). Therefore, we use KKZ method to select five representative climate projection ensembles from each GCM (Table S3). The representativeness of selected ensembles is first analyzed at continental scale. For each continent under the two warming scenarios, the absolute values of difference between the median value of 20 selected ensembles and the median value of all 70 ensembles are no more than 1.52%, 0.12°C, 0.09°C, and 0.52%, respectively, for changing in area-weighted mean of daily precipitation, maximum temperature, minimum temperature, and wind speed under the two warming scenarios (Figure 8). Percentage of spread coverage (PSC) is calculated by dividing the variable's range in the selected ensembles by the variable's range in all ensembles. PSC is no less than 74.81% for changes of all the four variables in the two warming scenarios at continental scale (Figure 8). At grid scale, the absolute values of differences between the median values of the 20 selected ensembles and median values of all the 70 ensembles in 80% grids are less than 2.76%, 0.14°C, 0.12°C, and 1.06%, respectively, for precipitation, maximum temperature, minimum temperature, and wind speed change under the two warming scenarios (Figure S7). PSC for 80% of grids are more than 63.79%, 72.51%, 73.72%, and 70.72%, respectively, for changes in precipitation, maximum temperature, minimum temperature, and wind speed for the selected ensembles (Figure S8). Therefore, the selected ensembles through KKZ method are able to reduce the computational cost while representing the median values

of changes and the uncertainties of all ensembles.

4.3 Uncertainties and limitations

There may exist some uncertainties from future projections in climate change, population, and GDP (Allen et al., 2000; Woldemeskel et al., 2014). In this study, we try to account for the climate model uncertainties by using a large number of ensembles. Nevertheless, it's worth noting that HAPPI samples a recent decade and then uses low RCP scenarios to produce the Paris Agreement warmer worlds. This means that it is only sampling aspects of interannual climate variability in the recent climate and cannot project changes in sea surface temperatures (SST) variability that may occur, for example more frequent El Niño or La Niña events (Cai et al., 2015, 2018). The projections in affected number of people and GDP under warming scenarios can be dependent on the selection of SSP scenario and the definition of drought and flood hazards (Döll et al., 2018; Heinke et al., 2019; Liu, Sun, et al., 2018). If we use the projections of population and GDP under SSP1 scenario, the projections in affected number of people and GDP by droughts and floods may be less compared with SSP2 scenario. The WATCH forcing data is applied to provide climate forcing data but there is observational uncertainty (Herold et al., 2016) that is not captured by the use of one dataset alone. The robustness of the results could be further confirmed using other forcing datasets, since the simulated results are strongly affected by the uncertainty in the climate forcing data (Müller Schmied et al., 2016; Herold et al., 2016). The land cover are assumed constant in hydrological model integrations lead to a systematic bias since global warming as well as projected potential increases in droughts or floods would likely lead to land cover change, which in turn lead to runoff change (Li et al., 2018; Piao et al., 2007). And human activities also have unavoidable impacts on water resources (Huang et al., 2018). Urbanization may have increased floods caused by larger proportion of impermeable surfaces, while construction of dams may have

opposite effect caused by more regulation (Wasko & Sharma, 2017). Precipitation change is not the only reason for flood change. Uncertainty remains in the relationships between changes in precipitation and flood magnitude across the spectrum of catchment, storm, and antecedent hydrologic conditions (Sharma et al., 2018). Furthermore, projected increases in droughts or floods, may lead to either the increase in mortality rate in those areas, or immigration to more suitable areas, which are not taken into account in the population data (Heinke et al., 2019). These are limitations associated with nearly all future predictions and are worth to investigate in further studies.

5. Conclusions

In this study, we provide a comprehensive and systematic assessment of runoff change, TEWR change, extreme low and high runoff change and the adverse impacts on population and GDP under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios through a well-established hydrological model VIC. Hazards and adverse impacts are projected to increase under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming scenario. Annual runoff is projected to increase more under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming scenario. Annual TEWR is projected to decrease more under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming scenario. Similar to our hypotheses, more potential droughts and floods are projected under 2.0 than 1.5°C warming scenario. Potential drought hazards are projected to happen in large parts of the Southern Hemisphere, Southern Europe. And potential flood hazards are projected to happen in many areas in Asia and the northern part of North America under the two warming scenarios. About 44.6% (45.1%), 56.1% (61.0%), 15.3% (20.2%) of population is projected to be affected by droughts, floods, droughts and floods concurrently under 1.5°C (2.0°C) warming scenario. Similarly, about 43.7% (48.3%), 57.1% (59.5%), 16.2% (21.9%) of GDP is projected to be affected by droughts, floods, droughts and floods concurrently under 1.5°C (2.0°C) warming scenario. Our results identify the vulnerable regions where should be put more efforts in mitigating hazards of drought and flood over the world. Drought and flood hazards would

probably happen in some areas with high density of population and GDP, including Sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Europe, Central Europe, Western Europe, South Asia, Southeast Asia, East Asia, Central America, and eastern U.S. under the 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios. Societal impacts on main countries in Asia would be mainly associated with floods. The study highlights the need for governments around the world to pursue efforts to limit the global warming to 1.5°C.

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Climate projections from HAPPI data are available at <http://portal.nerdc.gov/c20c/data/ClimateAnalytics/>. Observed runoff data and the boundaries of the eighteen main basins are available at https://www.bafg.de/GRDC/EN/Home/homepage_node.html. Global VIC input data at 0.5-degree resolution are available at <https://vic.readthedocs.io/en/master/Datasets/Datasets/>. Global River Routing Networks at 1-degree are obtained at <https://vic.readthedocs.io/en/master/Datasets/Datasets/>. We acknowledge the HAPPI core team and NERSC for data storage. We acknowledge ISIMIP for providing population data, GDP data and WATCH climate data at a 0.5° resolution. Supplementary Information is available online. The authors declare no competing financial interests. This work was supported by the National Key Research and Development Program of China (no. 2017YFA0604703) and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (nos. 41571088, 41571493, and 31561143003). R.Z. acknowledges financial support from China Scholarship Council.

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Table 1. Selected countries according to population and GDP data under baseline period.

The top 20 countries in the world according to population

China (CHN); India (IND); United States of America (USA); Indonesia (IDN); Brazil (BRA); Pakistan (PAK); Russian Federation (RUS); Nigeria (NGA); Bangladesh (BGD); Japan (JPN); Mexico (MEX); Philippines (PHL); Viet Nam (VNM); Germany (DEU); Ethiopia (ETH); Egypt (EGY); Turkey (TUR); Iran (Islamic Republic of; IRN); Thailand (THA); France (FRA)

The top 20 countries in the world according to GDP

United States of America (USA), China (CHN), Japan (JPN), India (IND), Germany (DEU), United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (GBR), France (FRA), Russian Federation (RUS), Italy (ITA), Brazil (BRA), Mexico (MEX), Spain (ESP), Korea (the Republic of; KOR), Canada (CAN), Iran (Islamic Republic of; IRN), Indonesia (IDN), Turkey (TUR), Australia (AUS), Saudi Arabia (SAU), Netherlands (NLD)

* Country names are displayed in ISO3 format

Table 2. Percentage of population which would be influenced by extreme low runoff decrease, extreme high runoff increase, extreme low runoff decrease and extreme high runoff increase concurrently in different continents and over the world.

Influenced population	Africa		Asia		Europe		North America		Oceania		South America		World	
	1.5 °C	2.0 °C	1.5 °C	2.0 °C	1.5 °C	2.0 °C	1.5 °C	2.0 °C	1.5 °C	2.0 °C	1.5 °C	2.0 °C	1.5 °C	2.0 °C
Extreme low runoff decrease	51.2 %	44.4 %	35.9 %	38.2 %	53.5 %	73.5 %	43.3 %	54.6 %	45.8 %	37.6 %	81.2 %	62.1 %	44.6 %	45.1 %
Extreme high runoff increase	34.8 %	51.0 %	74.9 %	79.5 %	49.7 %	43.1 %	46.3 %	17.6 %	7.0 %	24.3 %	30.1 %	40.6 %	56.1 %	61.0 %
Extreme low runoff decrease and extreme high runoff increase	5.8 %	13.1 %	20.7 %	27.2 %	17.4 %	21.2 %	13.7 %	7.4 %	3.6 %	6.5 %	21.5 %	17.0 %	15.3 %	20.2 %

* Greenland and grid cells with annual runoff < 5 mm in the baseline period are masked.

Table 3. Percentage of GDP which would be influenced by extreme low runoff decrease, extreme high runoff increase, extreme low runoff decrease and extreme high runoff increase concurrently in different continents and over the world.

Influenced GDP	Africa		Asia		Europe		North America		Oceania		South America		World	
	1.5 °C	2.0 °C	1.5 °C	2.0 °C	1.5 °C	2.0 °C	1.5 °C	2.0 °C	1.5 °C	2.0 °C	1.5 °C	2.0 °C	1.5 °C	2.0 °C
Extreme low runoff decrease	46.5 %	44.3 %	36.8 %	41.0 %	50.2 %	75.2 %	42.7 %	54.4 %	40.0 %	30.1 %	82.5 %	63.5 %	43.7 %	48.3 %
Extreme high runoff increase	35.9 %	50.1 %	75.8 %	80.9 %	49.4 %	43.1 %	47.7 %	19.1 %	4.6 %	20.4 %	30.8 %	40.9 %	57.1 %	59.5 %
Extreme low runoff decrease and extreme high runoff increase	5.4 %	13.5 %	21.5 %	30.0 %	15.3 %	23.2 %	15.3 %	8.5 %	1.7 %	4.2 %	22.5 %	17.0 %	16.2 %	21.9 %

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* Greenland and grid cells with annual runoff < 5 mm in the baseline period are masked

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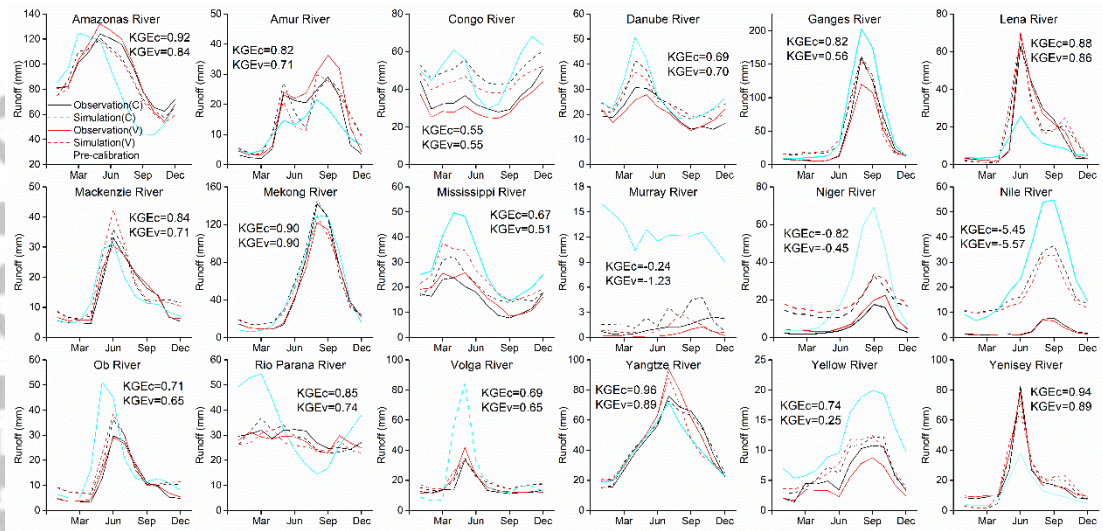


Figure 1. Observed (solid lines) and simulated (dashed lines) monthly runoff (mm) during the calibration period (black lines) and validation period (red lines) aggregated to the basin level at specific gauge stations (Table S1) in all 18 basins considered in this study. Blue lines represent uncalibrated results. C and V represent calibration period and validation period, respectively.

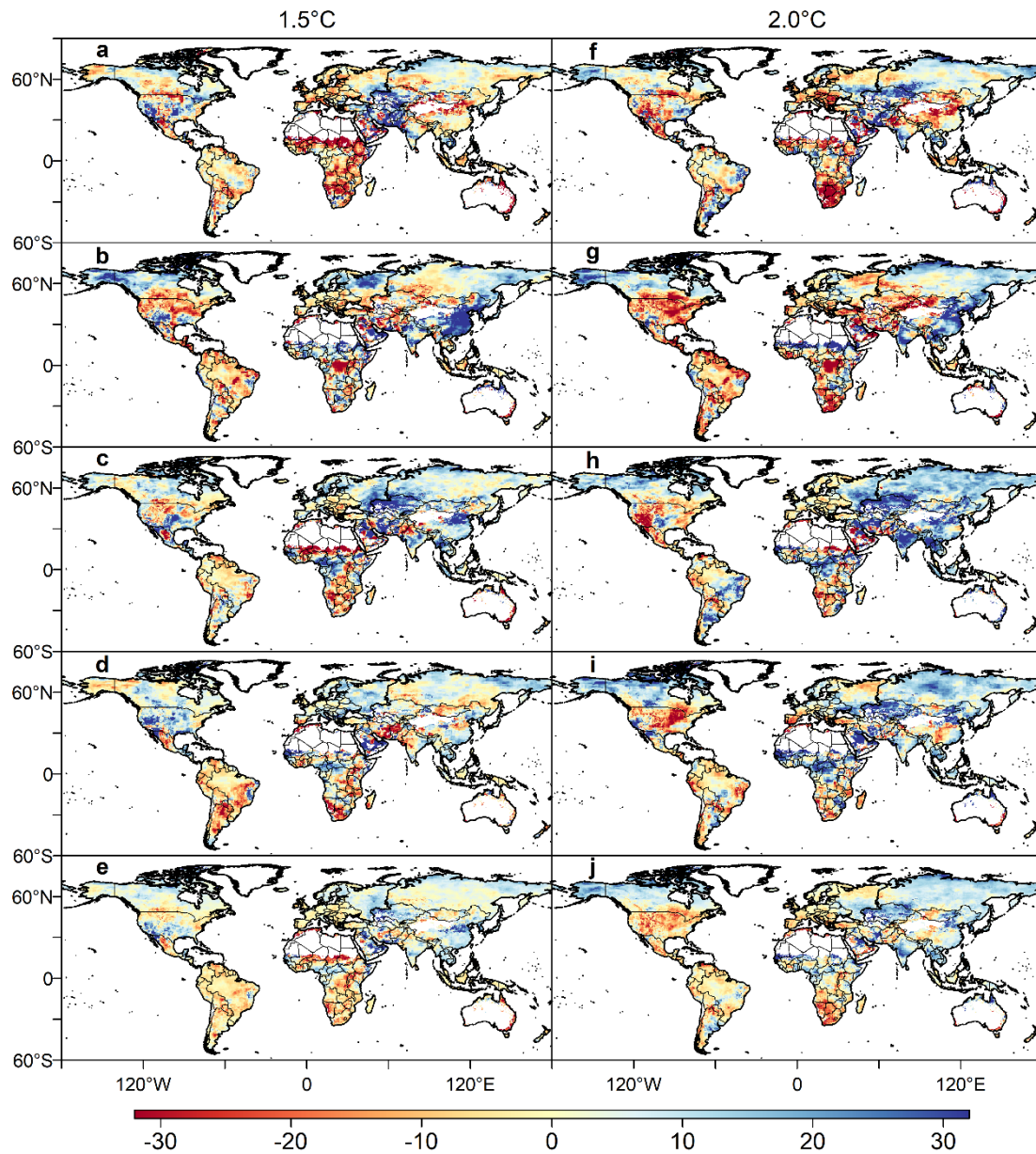


Figure 2. Median values of the projected changes in annual runoff (%) over the world under the 1.5°C (a-e) and 2.0°C (f-j) warming scenarios by ECHAM6-3-LR (a,f), MIROC5 (b, g), NorESM1-HAPPI (c,h), CAM4-2degree (d,i), and all four GCMs (e,j), relative to 2006-2015. Greenland and grid cells with annual runoff < 5 mm in the baseline period are masked.

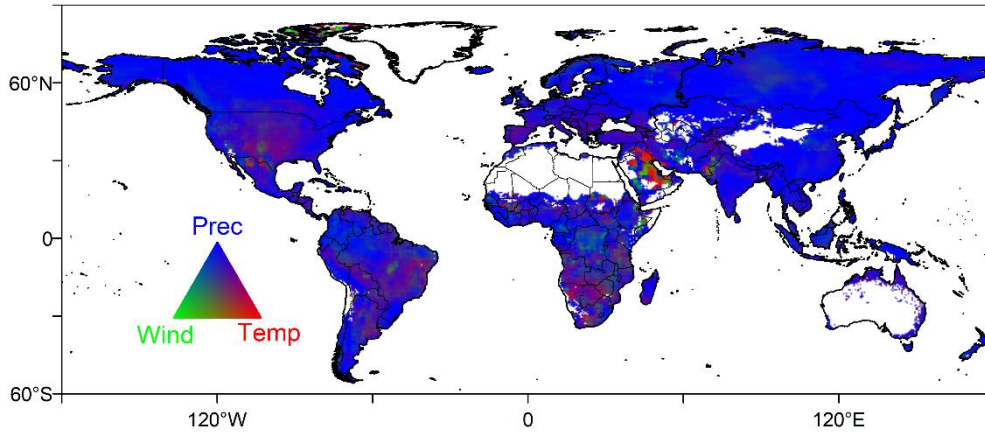


Figure 3. The weight of the three key factors in which Prec, Temp, Wind represent annual precipitation change, annual mean temperature change and annual mean wind speed change, based on the coefficient of determination (r^2) between each predictor change to annual runoff change. Greenland and grid cells with annual runoff < 5 mm in the baseline period are masked.

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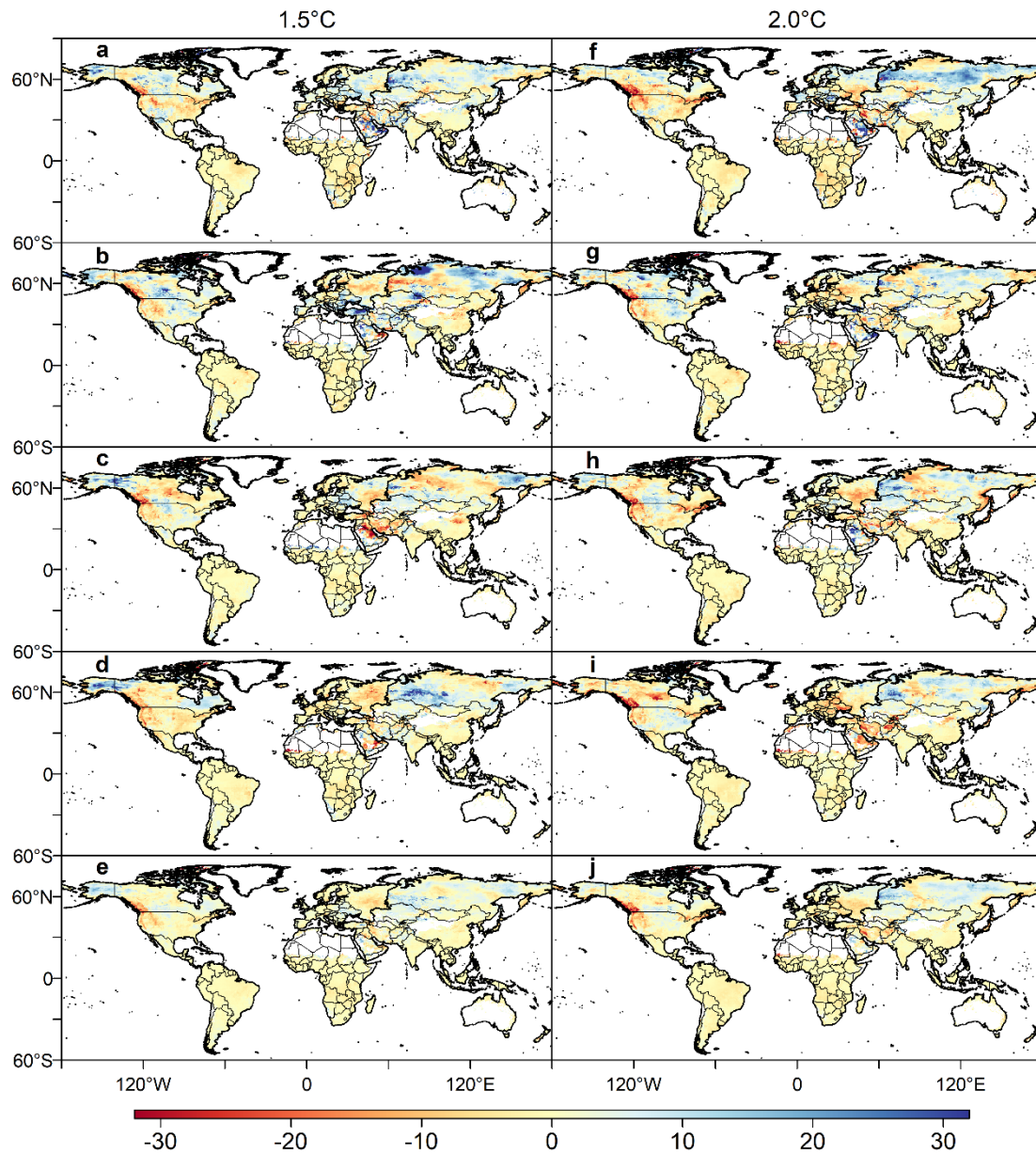


Figure 4. Median values of the projected changes (%) in annual TEWR over the world under the 1.5°C (a-e) and 2.0°C (f-j) warming scenarios by ECHAM6-3-LR (a,f), MIROC5 (b, g), NorESM1-HAPPI (c,h), CAM4-2degree (d,i), and all four GCMs (e,j), relative to 2006-2015. Greenland and grid cells with annual runoff < 5 mm in the baseline period are masked.

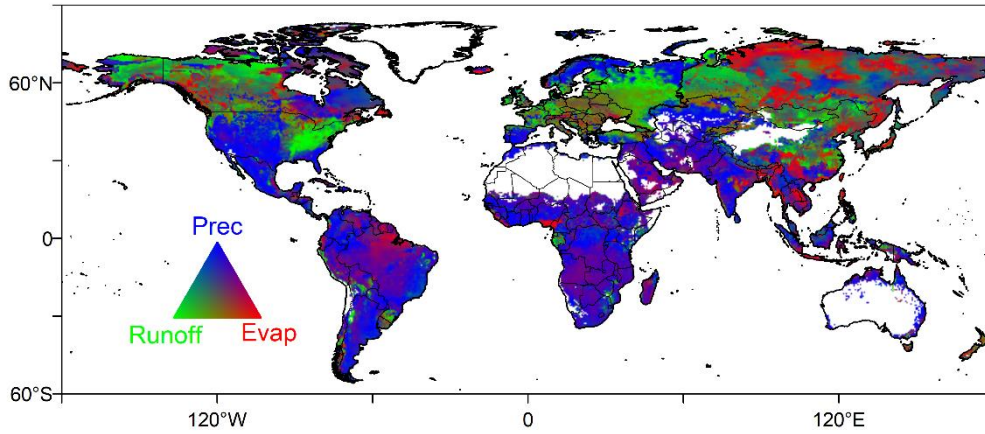


Figure 5. The weight of the three key factors in which Prec, Evap, Runoff represent annual precipitation change, annual evapotranspiration change and annual runoff change, based on the coefficient of determination (r^2) between each predictor to annual TEWR change. Greenland and grid cells with annual runoff < 5 mm in the baseline period are masked.

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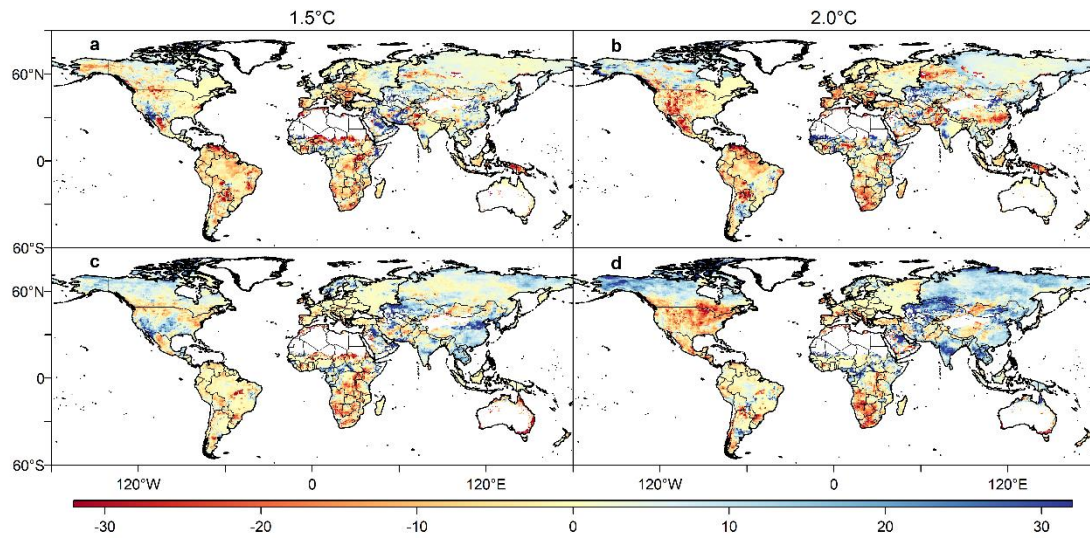


Figure 6. Changing trends of extreme low runoff (a,b) and extreme high runoff (c,d) under 1.5 (a,c) and 2.0°C (b,d) warming scenarios (2106-2115) relative to the baseline period (2006-2015). Greenland and grid cells with annual runoff < 5 mm in the baseline period are masked.

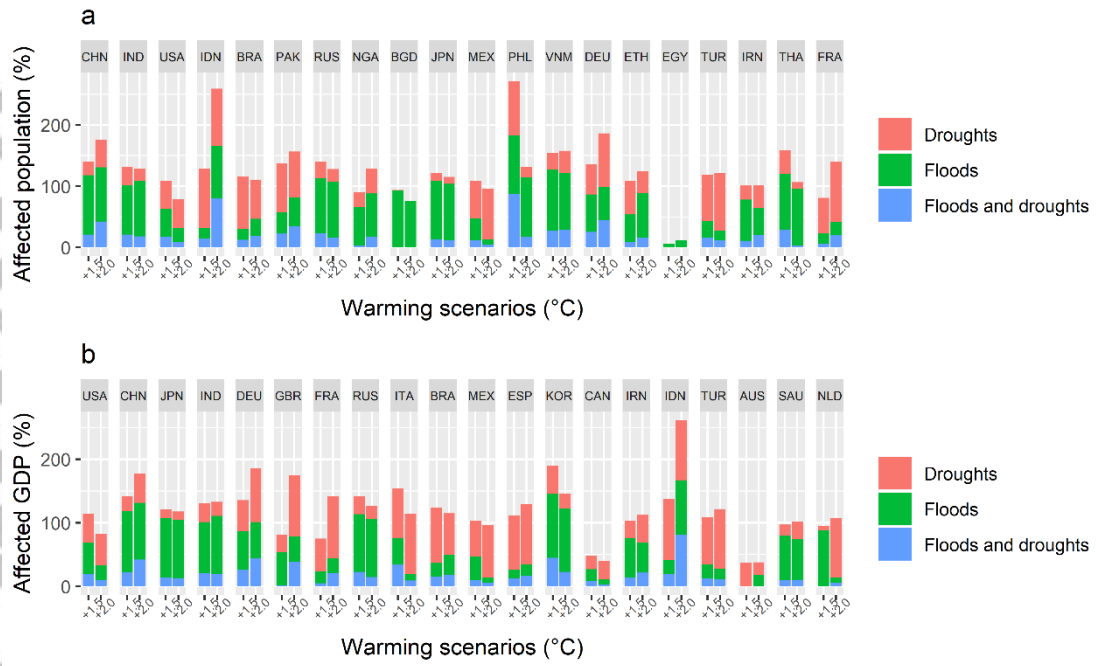


Figure 7. Stacked bar about proportion of affected population (a) and GDP (b) under 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios in the top 20 countries, respectively. The red, green, blue parts represent proportion of population or GDP would potentially be affected by droughts, floods, droughts and floods, respectively. Country names are displayed in ISO3 format, full names are listed in Table 1. Greenland and grid cells with annual runoff < 5 mm in the baseline period are masked.

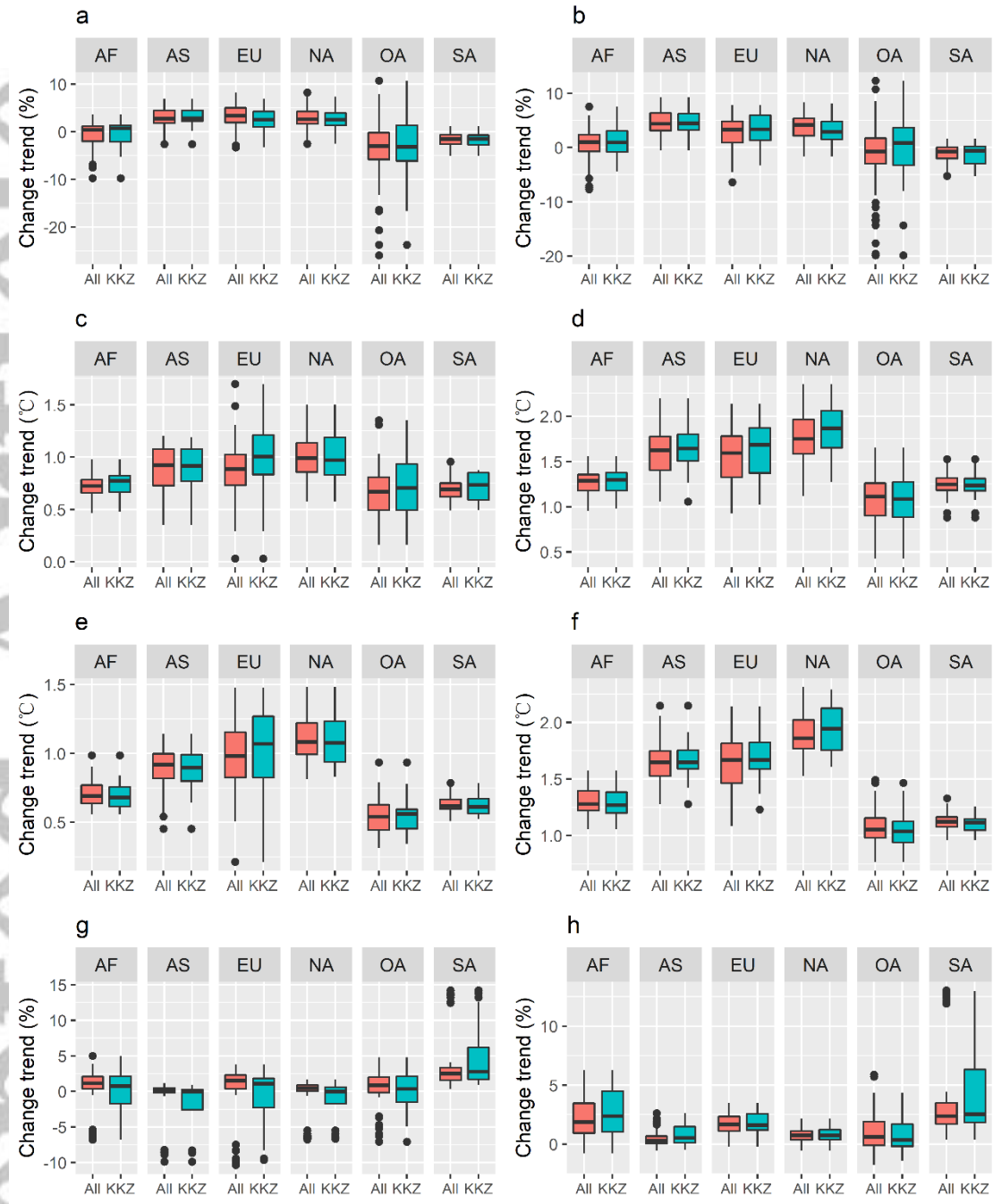


Figure 8. Changes in area-weighted average precipitation (a,b), maximum temperature (c,d), minimum temperature (e,f), wind speed (g,h) at continental scale (AF: Africa; AS: Asia; EU: Europe; NA: North America; OA: Oceania; SA: South America) among all 70 ensembles (3 GCMs \times 20 ensembles + 1 GCM \times 10 ensembles; All) and 20 ensembles (4 GCMs \times 5 ensembles; KKZ) selected through KKZ method under 1.5 (a,c,e,g) and 2.0°C (b,d,f,h) warming scenarios.