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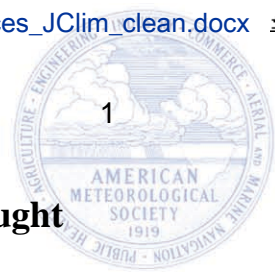
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1 **The influence of climate model biases on projections of aridity and drought**

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PRELIMINARY ACCEPTED VERSION

32 Abstract

33 Global Climate Models (GCMs) have biases when simulating historical climate conditions, which
34 in turn have implications for estimating the hydrological impacts of climate change. This study
35 examines the differences in projected changes of aridity (defined as precipitation over potential
36 evapotranspiration, or P/PET)) and the Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI) between raw and
37 bias-corrected GCM output for the continental United States (CONUS). For historical simulations
38 (1950-1979) the raw GCM ensemble median has a positive precipitation bias (+24%) and negative
39 PET bias (-7%) compared to the bias-corrected output when averaged over CONUS with the most
40 acute biases over the interior western United States. While both raw and bias-corrected GCM
41 ensembles project more aridity (lower P/PET) for CONUS in the late 21st century (2070-2099),
42 relative enhancements in aridity were found for bias corrected data compared to the raw GCM
43 ensemble owing to positive precipitation and negative PET biases in the raw GCM ensemble.
44 However, the bias-corrected GCM ensemble projects less acute decreases in summer PDSI for the
45 southwest United States compared to the raw GCM ensemble (1 to 2 PDSI units higher), stemming
46 from biases in precipitation amount and seasonality in the raw GCM ensemble. Compared to the
47 raw GCM ensemble, bias-corrected GCM inputs not only correct for systematic errors but also can
48 produce high-resolution projections that are useful for impact analyses. Therefore, changes in
49 hydroclimate metrics often appear considerably different in bias-corrected output compared to raw
50 GCM output.

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56 ***1. Introduction***

57 With current and impending increases in air temperature and changes in precipitation
58 around the world, water scarcity and security is becoming one of the most important topics of the
59 21st century. Issues of aridity and drought – which can directly cause water scarcity and food
60 insecurity – depend on whether there is a water surplus or deficit at a given location, which is
61 determined by the balance between precipitation and potential evapotranspiration (PET). With
62 changes in climate, reduced precipitation amounts can induce short-term droughts that then are
63 more readily reinforced by higher PET and temperature (Diffenbaugh et al. 2015). In addition,
64 systematic changes in precipitation and PET at a given location may be part of a longer term shift
65 to a more arid climate (Cook et al. 2014). Globally, about one-third of land area is currently
66 designated as arid, with an expansion projected as a result of anthropogenic climate change (Feng
67 and Fu 2013; Huang et al., 2015; Scheff and Frierson 2014, 2015).

68 A long history of droughts has been documented across the United States, both in the
69 instrumental and paleoclimatic records (e.g., Cook et al. 2004; Herweijer and Seager 2008;
70 Woodhouse and Overpeck 1998). However, numerous widespread severe droughts have been
71 observed across the United States since the late 20th century, including a persistent drought across
72 the southwestern United States (Woodhouse et al. 2010), intense but short-lived droughts across
73 Texas and the southern Great Plains (Seager and Hoerling 2014) and the midwestern United States
74 (Hoerling et al. 2013), and one of the most acute multi-year droughts in California in over a
75 millennia (Griffin and Anchukaitis 2014). Additionally, drought occurrences for a large portion of
76 the United States have been found to be increasing since the late 20th century (Ficklin et al. 2015).
77 It is likely that such changes are a combination of anthropogenic forcing and natural variability,
78 with a number of recent studies suggesting that enhanced greenhouse gas concentrations are

79 increasing the likelihood of such droughts, particularly ones associated with anomalously high
80 PET (e.g., Diffenbaugh et al. 2015; Rupp et al. 2012). It is therefore imperative to understand
81 changes in drought intensity, duration, and frequency – as well as overall shifts in aridity – with
82 projected changes in climate.

83 Primarily through increases in temperature and vapor pressure deficit, PET is projected to
84 increase (Ficklin et al. 2015; Sheffield et al. 2012; Vicente-Serrano et al. 2014). Regional changes
85 in precipitation and its seasonality may offset, partially offset, or compound increases in PET.
86 Several recent studies have examined such changes in precipitation and PET in the context of
87 drought (Ault et al. 2014; Cook et al. 2015; Dai 2013; Sheffield and Wood 2008) and aridity (Feng
88 and Fu 2013; Girvetz and Zganjar 2014; Scheff and Frierson 2014, 2015; Seager and Vecchi 2010;
89 Seager et al. 2007). There is a general concurrence among these studies showing an overall
90 increase in aridity and drought intensities under projected changes in climate. However, it is
91 important to note that Johnson and Sharma (2010) show that PET could decrease with climate
92 change due to decreases in wind speed.

93 A majority of prior analyses of changes in drought and aridity have used direct (or raw)
94 output from Global Climate Models (GCMs) or coarse resolution GCM bias-corrected estimates,
95 which have documented biases in simulating regional climate (e.g., Maurer and Hidalgo 2008;
96 Polade et al. 2013; Rupp et al. 2013). Such biases include differences in the magnitude, seasonality,
97 and variability of model output relative to observations. For example, Scheff and Frierson (2015)
98 showed substantial intermodel biases in precipitation and PET across large geographic regions of
99 the globe with individual model biases in precipitation typically opposing PET biases in sign and
100 magnitude. Biases in GCM simulations run for contemporary conditions should translate into
101 similar biases in projections of drought or aridity under climate change scenarios. At the local

102 scale, such biases can substantially alter the magnitude and sometimes the sign of change for
103 annual moisture related variables (e.g., Christensen et al. 2008; Hagemann et al. 2011; Johnson
104 and Sharma 2015; Maurer and Pierce 2014). Downscaling and bias-correction methods have been
105 used to correct some GCM biases and translate the coarser resolution model output to localized
106 scales (e.g., Fowler et al. 2007). The abundance of approaches to downscale GCM data confounds
107 matters as dynamical downscaling typically allows for the persistence of systemic biases (e.g.,
108 Glotter et al. 2014) while statistical downscaling approaches are unable to account for sub-regional
109 changes in climate that arise through physical processes at sub-GCM grid scales. Despite the
110 limitations of statistical downscaling approaches, they remain the preferred approach for climate
111 impact assessment using ensembles of GCMs.

112 There are still differences of opinion regarding whether direct or bias-corrected model
113 output should be used in climate change assessments. While the usage of direct GCM or RCM
114 output ensures internal consistencies across variables, substantial biases in resultant variables may
115 render direct output unrealistic and ultimately unsuitable for subsequent modeling. For example,
116 GCMs fail to resolve topographic features and thus may poorly model precipitation across complex
117 terrain (Sheffield et al., 2013b). Likewise, model biases in precipitation seasonality can be
118 problematic for realistic projections of regional water resources. Collectively, failure to account
119 for GCM or RCM biases may result in gross errors for both historical and future climate
120 simulations (e.g., Muerth et al., 2013). By contrast, statistical methods inherent in empirical bias
121 correction often lack a physical basis (e.g., Ehret et al., 2012) and may obscure uncertainties
122 inherent with downscaling itself. However, while the climate modeling community and computing
123 resources continue to advance toward higher resolution GCMs, statistical bias correction currently
124 is required to make climate projections usable for impact assessment.

125 To our knowledge, the effect of precipitation and PET bias from raw GCMs on drought
126 has yet to be explored. Recent work by Huang et al., (2015) found that bias-correcting GCMs from
127 the fifth Coupled Model Inter-Comparison Project (CMIP5) led to global increases in the aridity
128 index (precipitation/PET) compared to using direct GCM output. Johnson and Sharma (2015) and
129 Nasrollahi et al. (2015) assessed the performance of GCMs at simulating meteorological droughts
130 against historical observations/downscaled GCM datasets, finding that raw GCM output tend to
131 overestimate drought conditions based on the Standard Precipitation Index. However, these studies
132 concentrated only on precipitation, neglecting the role of PET. In the interest of assessing and
133 interpreting the impact of bias-corrected GCM output on projected changes in drought and aridity,
134 we focus on the continental United States where a large number of weather stations and high-
135 resolution gridded datasets provide the basis for downscaling and bias-correcting raw GCM output
136 to local or regional scales. We concentrate on how bias-correcting raw GCM output can modify
137 projections of precipitation and PET and subsequent changes in aridity and drought occurrences.
138 Specifically, our research questions are:

139 [1] How do projected changes in precipitation and PET differ between raw and bias-corrected
140 GCM output?

141 [2] How does the bias in [1] affect the precipitation-PET imbalance?

142 [3] How does the bias in [1] affect projections of aridity (precipitation/PET) and drought?

143 We expect the results to this study to be useful for researchers that have used or intend to use raw
144 GCM output for aridity or drought projections. Additionally, this work also has important
145 implications for water resource managers and planners.

146 *2. Methods and Materials*

147 *2.1 Raw and bias-corrected/downscaled Global Climate Model data*

148 Data from 17 CMIP5 GCMs that had daily output of 2-m maximum and minimum
149 temperature, specific humidity, 10-m wind velocity, downward shortwave radiation and
150 precipitation at the surface were acquired for both historical forcing experiments (1950-2005) and
151 future forcing experiments (2006-2099) using Representative Concentration Pathway 8.5 (Table
152 1). Raw GCM output was aggregated to a common $2^{\circ}\times 2^{\circ}$ degree resolution grid using bilinear
153 interpolation. Bias correction and statistical downscaling of these variables for all models was
154 performed using the Multivariate Adaptive Constructed Analogs (MACA) approach (Abatzoglou
155 and Brown 2012) to a reference, observed 4-km resolution surface meteorological dataset
156 (Abatzoglou 2013). The observed dataset of Abatzoglou (2013) incorporated 4-km monthly output
157 from PRISM (Parameterized Regression on Independent Slopes Model, Daly et al., 2008) with the
158 higher temporal resolution output from the North American Land Data Assimilation System -
159 Phase (NLDAS2). Variables of 10-m wind and solar radiation were derived exclusively from
160 NLDAS2/North American Regional Reanalysis.

161 Raw daily GCM output was bias corrected prior to downscaling and a joint-bias correction
162 was used for temperature and precipitation outputs (Li et al., 2014). MACA uses a joint constructed
163 analogs approach for downscaling daily temperature (maximum and minimum air temperatures),
164 wind velocity (u and v components) and regular constructed analogs for precipitation, solar
165 radiation and specific humidity. A total of 30 analogs spanning the continental United States were
166 used. To account for novel analogs, the residual (GCM target minus constructed analog) was bi-
167 linearly interpolated to the final pattern. Finally, a secondary bias correction was applied to the
168 end product to ensure adherence with the training data. We note that there are several statistical
169 downscaling methods and uncertainty arising from the choice of downscaling can color results
170 (e.g., Fowler et al., 2007). Likewise, differences in observed data that climate model is trained to

171 exist, although are often of much lower magnitude than biases between GCM output and
172 observations (e.g., Rupp et al., 2013).

173 The bias correction procedures used in MACA allow for projected changes in the
174 distribution of a given variable (e.g., precipitation) as simulated by the GCM at daily timescales
175 to be entrained into the downscaled products. For example, projected changes in the 99th percentile
176 distribution of precipitation in the raw GCM output are mirrored in the downscaled output. The
177 MACA approach was further adjusted to ensure the preservation of trends from raw GCM output
178 to downscaled fields at monthly timescales (Pierce et al., 2015). Daily output from both raw GCM
179 and downscaled data were temporally aggregated to monthly timescales for subsequent analysis.
180 The bias-corrected/downscaled GCM data can be obtained at:
181 <http://maca.northwestknowledge.net/>

182 ***2.2 Potential evapotranspiration***

183 Potential evapotranspiration for this work was estimated using the United Nations Food
184 and Agriculture Organization Penman-Monteith method (Allen et al. 1998). Net radiation is
185 estimated using the approach of Allen et al. (1998), whereby both downwelling and upwelling
186 components of shortwave and longwave radiation are incorporated. Albedo from Barkstrom
187 (1984) was used and the surface resistance was not modified from the reference crop. Full
188 documentation and code of this procedure can be found in Ficklin et al. (2015).

189 Although approaches have been adopted to estimate the reduction in water demand for
190 reference crops with elevated CO₂ (Roderick et al., 2015), the magnitude of changes in water use
191 efficiency are variable across biomes and hence this factor was not included in this work. It is
192 important to note that incorporating the response of vegetation to elevated CO₂ (or removing the
193 assumption of fixed surface resistance) will result in increased vegetative water use efficiency,

194 resulting in changes in evapotranspiration, soil moisture, and surface water runoff (Ficklin et al.,
195 2009; Donohue et al., 2013; Roderick et al., 2015). This study, however, examines how biases in
196 raw GCM output, when compared to bias-corrected GCM output, will affect future projections of
197 aridity and drought. While GCMs are able to incorporate the effects of CO₂ on precipitation and
198 ET via increased water-use efficiency of vegetation (and therefore soil moisture), the degree to
199 which vegetation is modeled in GCMs varies and, as shown here (and elsewhere), often uses biased
200 values of precipitation and temperature to determine the impacts of the vegetation response.

201 *2.3 Definition of Aridity and Drought*

202 Two metrics of aridity and drought were used in subsequent analyses: a measure of short-
203 term soil moisture imbalance -- Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI; (Palmer 1965)) -- and a
204 measure of long-term soil moisture imbalance -- the Aridity Index (AI). PDSI is a drought index
205 that characterizes the cumulative departure of local mean soil moisture conditions based on a
206 simplified water balance calculation. Soil available water capacity used in the PDSI calculations
207 was extracted from the State Soil Geographic Database (STATSGO) for every downscaled grid
208 node. Although PDSI has several limitations (e.g., Alley 1984; Karl and Knight 1985; Werick et
209 al. 1994), it is commonly used throughout the world to quantify observed drought and drought
210 projections (e.g., Dai 2011). The PDSI calibration time period is the historical forcing period of
211 1950-2005 for each GCM and all deviations are compared to this time periods within the internal
212 PDSI calculations.

213 To assess long-term soil moisture imbalances, we used the aridity index (AI) defined as
214 the ratio of precipitation and PET ($AI = P/PET$). AI is widely used (Girvetz and Zganjar 2014;
215 Hulme 1996) and is a useful parameter in terrestrial biome classifications and climatic suitability

216 for agriculture. Lower values represent more arid moisture regimes, while larger values represent
217 more humid moisture regimes.

218 *2.4 Statistical analyses*

219 For this work, we relate the raw GCM ensemble to the bias-corrected/downscaled GCM
220 ensemble because the bias-corrected/downscaled GCM ensemble has been trained against an
221 observational dataset. The bias-corrected/downscaled GCM data (precipitation, inputs for PET
222 calculation, AI, and PDSI) were upscaled to the same resolution as the raw GCM data by taking
223 the average of all downscaled cells within a raw GCM grid element ($2^{\circ}\times 2^{\circ}$) and is henceforth
224 referred to as “bias-corrected data.” Statistical analyses were performed on the historical (1950-
225 1979) and late-21st century (2070-2099) time periods for the GCM ensemble median (e.g., median
226 of all annual AI values for 2070-2099). The comparison between the observed climate and bias-
227 corrected climate should by definition be very similar when using the quantile bias correction
228 approach (Abatzoglou and Brown, 2012).

229 To assess the variability of GCM projections around the GCM ensemble median, the
230 interquartile range (IQR) of the GCM ensemble was calculated. Deficit months are defined as
231 months where monthly PET exceeds monthly precipitation. The deficit months for each year are
232 then summed. Raw and bias-corrected PDSI values are only presented for the late-21st century
233 time period because the PDSI values are relative to the raw and bias-corrected historical time
234 period, respectively, and thus PDSI for the historical time period would, on average, be near zero.
235 Additionally, for consistency and comparison with other studies (e.g., Cook et al., 2015; Williams
236 et al., 2015), the average PDSI during June, July, and August (JJA) is used in our analysis. It is
237 important to note the biases for grid elements on the coast that contain large parts of the ocean may
238 induce large biases from averaging a smaller number of bias-corrected and downscaled grid points.

239 *2.5 Evaluation of GCM biases*

240 Numerous approaches exist for evaluating biases in GCM simulation of regional climate.
241 We focus on two aspects of biases that impact resulting fields of precipitation and PET: (i) biases
242 in annual precipitation, annual PET, and the variables that contribute to annual PET and (ii) biases
243 in the seasonality of precipitation. In both cases we only consider biases from the climatology and
244 not those in interannual variability (although it is important to note that unrepresentative
245 interannual variability is another potential bias in AI and PDSI). Raw GCM biases in annual and
246 seasonal (e.g., DJF) GCM outputs for the historical time period (1950-1979) were compared to
247 those from bias-corrected GCM data. We evaluate biases in spatially-weighted absolute and
248 relative (percent changes) depending on the climate output. Biases are presented as the bias of the
249 GCM raw or bias-corrected ensemble median unless otherwise noted.

250 *3. Results*

251 *3.1 Differences in precipitation and potential evapotranspiration between raw and bias-* 252 *corrected GCMs*

253 Annual mean precipitation from the raw and bias-corrected GCM outputs are shown in
254 Figure 1 for the historical and late 21st century time periods. Additionally, percent differences
255 between the raw GCM and bias-corrected GCM ensembles for precipitation are shown for both
256 time periods as well as the differences in precipitation between the end of the 21st century and
257 historical time period for raw and bias-corrected GCM ensembles. Spatially-averaged over all grid
258 cells of the continental United States, the raw GCM ensemble shows a +24% and +22% percent
259 bias from the bias-corrected data for the historical and projected time periods, respectively (i.e.,
260 there is an overall “wet bias” in the median of the raw GCM ensemble). The wet bias in the raw
261 GCM output is particularly acute across much of the interior western United States with numerous
262 grid cells receiving over twice the precipitation as bias-corrected output. The northeastern United

263 States also shows wet biases, though not as extreme as the western United States (~15%). Less
264 than 40% of grid cells across the continental United States show a dry bias. These dry biases are
265 mostly concentrated in the coastal region of the western United States and the southern United
266 States, centered on Arkansas and the Gulf Coast. Finally, around a third of all grid cells show
267 minor bias (+/- 10%) in precipitation.

268 Projected changes in annual precipitation adhere to the same general latitudinal dipole
269 pattern when comparing raw GCM output to bias-corrected GCM output, with increases in
270 precipitation in the north and decreased precipitation in the south (Figure 1). Averaged over the
271 continental United States, the bias-corrected GCM ensemble projections result in a slightly larger
272 mean increase in annual precipitation (2% increase) than the raw GCM ensemble projections
273 (0.75% increase). This difference between projected and historical precipitation is most apparent
274 for the western United States, where the bias-corrected GCM ensemble leads to large increases in
275 precipitation for the northern half of the western United States (~15-20% average increase
276 compared to the historical time period), as compared to the raw GCM ensemble (5-15%) that
277 shows a dipole pattern with increases north of 40N and decreases south of 35N. Both the raw and
278 bias-corrected GCM ensembles project decreases in precipitation for the southern United States
279 equator-ward of 35°N (southern California to Florida). Conversely, both the raw and bias-
280 corrected GCM ensemble projections show comparable increases in precipitation of approximately
281 5 – 20% for the Midwest and northeastern United States. Examining the difference between the
282 raw and bias-corrected GCM ensembles (lower-right panel in Figure 1) shows that the raw GCM
283 projections lead to an overall drier western United States than does the bias-corrected GCMs by
284 up to 15%, while the raw GCMs project an increase in precipitation from the central Midwest to
285 Gulf Coast region.

286 The seasonal distribution of precipitation is an important element that determines the
287 hydroclimatology of a region. Climate projections show distinct seasonal patterns of precipitation
288 change across North America (Sheffield et al. 2013a; Sheffield et al. 2013b). Figure 2 shows the
289 percent of annual precipitation for each season (DJF = winter; MAM = spring; JJA = summer;
290 SON = fall) during 1950-1979 for the raw and bias-corrected GCM ensemble medians, as well as
291 the difference between the two ensembles. Although summaries of changes in precipitation can be
292 presented in absolute numbers, biases in precipitation magnitude often necessitate examining
293 changes in precipitation as a percent of historical values.

294 Several important seasonal differences can be found in the raw GCM ensemble – bias-
295 corrected GCM ensemble for the historical time period. The raw GCM ensemble overestimates
296 the fraction of annual precipitation occurring in winter for a large portion of the United States and
297 underestimates the fraction of annual precipitation occurring in summer in many of these same
298 regions. The same overestimation and underestimation occurs for the spring and fall seasons. The
299 winter overestimation can be found for much of the central United States, a portion of the western
300 United States (Nevada and Utah), southern Texas, and southern Florida where, on average, 10-
301 20% more of the annual precipitation occurs during winter compared to the bias-corrected GCM
302 ensemble. The overestimation (~5 – 15% compared to the bias-corrected GCM ensemble) of the
303 percent of annual precipitation in spring shifts eastward into New England and the Great Lakes
304 region as well as across the southwestern United States. For the summer and fall seasons, the raw
305 GCM ensemble underestimates precipitation compared to the bias-corrected GCM ensemble by
306 approximately 3% overall, but with large spatial variation. This is especially the case for the central
307 United States, stretching from Texas to North Dakota as well as along the Gulf Coast from Florida
308 to Texas, during the summer, where the percent of annual precipitation during JJA is 10-25% less

309 than the bias-corrected GCM ensemble. Finally, a negative bias in the percent of annual
310 precipitation occurring during autumn was seen for much of the United States, with large biases
311 in the eastern United States and southern Texas.

312 Analogous to Figure 1, percent biases and percent changes from the historical to projected
313 time periods for annual PET are shown in Figure 3. For a large portion of the continental United
314 States (~75%), annual PET for the raw GCM ensemble is lower than bias-corrected GCM
315 ensemble PET annual values with an average bias of -10 cm/year (-7% difference). Negative
316 biases in PET derived from raw GCM output are pronounced for much of the western and eastern
317 United States (-20 to -50 cm/year), whereas a positive bias in PET is apparent across the central
318 United States (+10 to +30 cm/year).

319 The biases in the PET are a result of biases in the underlying variables used to derive PET.
320 Figure 4 shows historical ensemble medians of average annual temperature, wind, specific
321 humidity, and solar radiation, all of which are inputs for the Penman-Monteith PET calculations.
322 For the average annual temperature, the raw GCM ensemble has a cold bias for the western United
323 States (~2-4 °C colder than the bias-corrected GCM ensemble) and a warm bias of 1-3 °C for the
324 central United States and 2-4 °C for the coastal eastern United States. The spatial pattern of the
325 average annual temperature biases was highly spatially correlated (0.64) to the PET biases,
326 suggesting that temperature biases may have a large control on the PET bias. Much of the central
327 to western United States and coastal eastern United States has a positive bias in wind of
328 approximately 1-4 m/s, while much of the eastern United States has a neutral or negative wind bias
329 (although wind biases did not correlate well with the PET biases; -0.02 correlation). Much of the
330 United States has a positive bias in specific humidity, ranging from 0.0005 to 0.002 kg/kg.
331 However, the specific humidity biases presented here are relatively small compared to the typical

332 values of specific humidity. Even so, there is a negative correlation (-0.48) of specific humidity
333 biases to PET biases. Lastly, raw GCM ensemble solar radiation exhibited a positive bias of the
334 United States with an average of 2.8 W/m^2 . As with specific humidity, this overall bias is relatively
335 small, but extreme positive biases in the Midwestern and western United States and extreme
336 negative biases in the Pacific Northwest occur within a few grid cells. The only regions where
337 negative biases occur are in the Pacific Northwest and along the western and eastern coasts. Solar
338 radiation biases are moderately positively correlated (0.38) to PET biases.

339 Both the raw and bias-corrected GCMs project increases in PET by the late 21st century
340 across the entire United States (Figure 3). The spatial patterns between the raw and bias-corrected
341 GCM ensembles are similar (large increases in the central United States). The bias-corrected and
342 raw GCM ensembles project similar increases in PET for the continental United States (~34
343 cm/year increase; 29% increase; Figure 3). A large portion of the United States PET projections
344 are lower for the raw GCM ensemble (10-20 cm/year lower) compared to the bias-corrected GCM.
345 The only extensive regions where PET is higher for the raw GCM ensemble are the southwestern
346 and central United States.

347 *3.2 Comparison of deficit months between raw and bias-corrected GCMs*

348 The comparison of the historical time period between the raw and bias-corrected GCM
349 ensembles indicates that the raw GCM ensemble underestimates the number of dry months (PET
350 > precipitation) compared to the bias-corrected GCM ensemble by, on average, 1 month for the
351 continental United States (Figure 5). For the southwestern United States, the bias-corrected GCM
352 ensemble indicates that 11-12 months of the year will be dry, while the raw GCM ensemble
353 indicates 10-11 deficit months.

354 For the projected time period, the changes in precipitation (Figure 1) and PET (Figure 3)
355 cause the average number of deficit months for the raw and bias-corrected GCMs to increase by
356 0.88 months and 1.11 months, respectively. Deficit months calculated from the bias-corrected
357 GCMs indicate that much of United States will have more than 8 deficit months out of the year,
358 while for the raw GCMs there are still regions where the number of deficit months is less than 6.
359 Increases in precipitation (Figure 1) are not large enough to overcome the increase in PET (Figure
360 3), resulting in projections of overall increases in deficit months for the entire continental United
361 States.

362 ***3.3 Comparison of aridity between raw and bias-corrected GCMs***

363 The bias-corrected GCM ensemble leads to more arid conditions (defined as a lower AI)
364 for the historical and projected time periods (Figure 6). The raw and bias-corrected GCM
365 ensembles are in general agreement of the AI values for much of the central United States;
366 however, there the bias-corrected ensemble leads to more arid conditions from Louisiana to Iowa.
367 There are large differences in AI for the eastern and western United States between the raw and
368 bias-corrected GCM ensembles consistent with the aforementioned biases in PET and
369 precipitation. For both regions, the historical and projected AI values for the raw GCM ensemble
370 estimates much more humid conditions (larger AI values) than does the bias-corrected GCM
371 ensemble. The raw GCM ensemble projects larger decreases in AI.

372 ***3.4 Comparison of PDSI between raw and bias-corrected GCMs***

373 Drought occurrence and magnitude, defined by JJA PDSI, are projected to increase for the
374 entire United States for both the raw and bias-corrected GCM ensembles (Figure 7). The raw and
375 bias-corrected GCMs, however, have large differences (weighted mean absolute difference of
376 0.48) and produce a different spatial pattern of PDSI (spatially-weighted correlation of just 0.38).

377 For much of the western United States and southern Mississippi valley, the JJA PDSI from the raw
378 GCM ensemble is more negative (drier) than the bias-corrected GCM ensemble on the order of 1
379 to 2 PDSI units.

380 To assess the spread of PDSI projections across the raw and bias-corrected GCM
381 ensembles, the number of GCMs in the ensemble that result in a late 21st ensemble average JJA
382 PDSI of at least -1 (mild drought), -2 (moderate drought), and -3 (severe drought) were tallied
383 (Figure 8). The GCMs from the raw and bias-corrected ensemble general concur on mild drought
384 conditions in the late 21st century (mean absolute error = 1.3; and spatially-weighted correlation =
385 0.6). The only major region of difference is the southwestern United States, where more GCMs
386 (4-8) from the raw ensemble project mild drought conditions than does the bias-corrected GCM
387 ensemble. The largest differences occur for moderate and severe drought conditions. For moderate
388 drought conditions, the raw GCMs are in near concurrence (>15 GCMs) that the late 21st century
389 time period will to more arid conditions for south-central United States and intermountain western
390 United States. For the bias-corrected GCMs, there is still a concurrence that these regions will
391 transition to more arid climates by the end of the 21st century. However, the number of GCMs that
392 agree on the drought occurrences are lower. Another discrepancy is that the bias-corrected GCMs
393 agree on moderate drought conditions for the upper Midwest (>10 GCMs), while moderate drought
394 conditions are only projected for approximately half of the raw GCMs for this same region. Lastly,
395 projections from both GCM ensembles suggest less than moderate drought conditions (< -2 JJA
396 PDSI) for the California region, with the bias-corrected GCM ensemble encompassing a larger
397 area. For severe drought conditions, the raw and bias-corrected GCM ensembles do not concur on
398 severe drought conditions for both coasts of the United States. However, there are several regions
399 in the central United States where both ensemble project, on average, severe drought conditions

400 during the late 21st century. Differences between the raw and bias-corrected ensembles for severe
401 drought conditions are spatially similar to the moderate drought conditions.

402 *3.5 Variation around the GCM ensemble median*

403 Apart from the count of GCMs that agree on a mild, moderate, and severe drought for the
404 late-21st century, the results presented in this study are for the ensemble medians. While the GCM
405 ensemble median is resistant to outliers (i.e., unrepresentative GCMs) and, therefore, a reliable
406 indicator of spatial variability and temporal changes, the variability around the GCM median can
407 reveal the overall agreement between GCMs. Figure 9 presents the interquartile range of projected
408 changes in annual precipitation, PET, AI, and JJA PDSI around the ensemble median for the raw
409 and downscaled GCMs for the end of the 21st century time period. For precipitation, the average
410 interquartile range is 12 cm for the raw GCM ensemble and 10 cm for the downscaled GCM
411 ensemble. However, Figure 9 indicates that the spatial pattern of inter-GCM variability differs
412 between the downscaled GCM ensemble and the raw GCM ensemble. For the downscaled GCM
413 ensemble, the largest precipitation variability across GCMs occurs in the southeastern and
414 northwestern United States, while a large portion of the western United States has low variability
415 on the order of 6 cm. The variability around the raw GCM ensemble median is highest in the
416 Pacific northwestern (20 cm) and southeastern United States (16 cm), though the variability is
417 noticeably higher than the downscaled ensemble throughout the United States. For PET, the
418 variability around the raw GCM ensemble median is much higher than the downscaled GCM
419 variability. For a large portion of the United States, the variability of PET around the raw GCM
420 ensemble median is greater than 20 cm, a value that is not exceeded for the downscaled GCM
421 ensemble. Owing to the limited variability around the bias-corrected GCM ensemble, the AI
422 (precipitation/PET) variability is much lower than the raw GCM ensemble. For JJA PDSI, there is

423 high variability for much of the United States, with an average JJA PDSI IQR of 3.8 PDSI units
424 for both ensembles. Interestingly, JJA PDSI for both the raw and downscaled GCMs have a high
425 variability around the upper Midwest of the United States. High variability with the raw GCMs
426 encompasses a larger area in the upper Midwest, encroaching into parts of the intermountain
427 western United States. It is important to note that the JJA PDSI IQR range spans both dry (negative
428 PDSI) and wet conditions (positive PDSI).

429 *4. Discussion and Summary*

430 GCMs can exhibit significant biases when simulating the observed climate due to their
431 spatial resolution and simplified parameterizations of important climatic processes (Randall et al.
432 2007). Even so, there is still confidence that GCMs provide useful estimates of future climatic
433 changes (Randall et al. 2007). Given the results presented here, however, we recommend that raw
434 GCM outputs be used with caution for climatic and hydrological impact studies due to their coarse
435 resolution and precipitation and PET biases. To link output from GCMs to a local or regional scale,
436 downscaling and bias-correction is needed. We show that using raw GCM data with biases in
437 precipitation and the climatic inputs that determine PET can lead to inaccurate projections of
438 aridity and drought for the continental United States. Both projections, however, do not include
439 the role of increased vegetation water use efficiency in an elevated CO₂ environment.

440 For the GCM ensembles used in this work, the raw GCM ensemble had a positive (wet)
441 precipitation bias compared to the bias-corrected GCM ensemble for much of the United States.
442 This wet bias has been found in several recent studies (Mehran et al. 2014; Rupp et al. 2013;
443 Sheffield et al. 2013b). A recent study by Nasrollahi et al. (2015) indicates annual precipitation
444 biases in CMIP5 model simulations result in discrepancies in observed wetting and drying trends,

445 leading to the conclusion that much work needs to be done in simulating the daily and monthly
446 intensities and frequencies of regional precipitation.

447 The annual precipitation biases assessed in this study are rooted in the biases in seasonal
448 precipitation. We find that the seasonal differences were largest for the winter and summer time
449 periods. The raw GCM ensemble overestimates winter precipitation for a large portion of the
450 United States, while, for these same regions, the summer precipitation is underestimated. This is
451 likely a consequence of the raw GCMs doing a poor job in simulating the northward extent and
452 precipitation amount of the North American monsoon (Geil et al. 2013) and poor representation
453 of convective precipitation in the interior of the United States (Mehran et al. 2014). Additionally,
454 the winter biases in the western United States are likely due to orographic precipitation not being
455 fully resolved in the raw GCMs (Sheffield et al. 2013b).

456 To our knowledge, a detailed assessment of the PET bias that results from bias in PET
457 inputs has yet to be performed. We show that PET estimates from the bias-corrected GCM
458 ensemble lead to higher PET than does the raw GCM ensemble. Scheff and Frierson (2015) found
459 that precipitation biases were anti-phase to PET biases and our results confirm this (Figures 1 and
460 3). Examining the individual components of the Penman-Monteith inputs suggests that bias in
461 temperature is highly correlated with bias in PET from the raw GCM ensemble, which is physically
462 consistent. Saturation vapor pressure is exponentially related to temperature and therefore a bias
463 in temperature (particularly when temperature is high) can lead to even larger biases in the vapor
464 pressure deficit and the slope of the saturation vapor curve (Δ in Penman-Monteith PET). Biases
465 in wind were not correlated with PET biases. In the Penman-Monteith equation, wind is directly
466 but non-linearly related to PET, so once wind speed surpasses a relatively low value (~ 2 - 3 m/s),
467 PET responds weakly to wind speed. Nearly the entire United States is above this threshold for

468 both ensembles (Figure 4) and therefore any bias in wind will likely not result in much PET bias
469 as long as the wind speeds do not become extremely low. It is important to note that the GCMs do
470 not show declines in wind speeds on par with observations, although some GCMs do show a
471 reduction by mid-century (Kumar et al., 2015). The biases in specific humidity and solar radiation
472 were highly correlated with PET bias, but the magnitudes of their biases are relatively low.

473 The number of deficit months ($PET > precipitation$) for both ensembles indicates that the
474 raw GCM ensemble underestimates the number of deficit months compared to the bias-corrected
475 GCM ensemble, especially for the southwestern United States. Even with precipitation and PET
476 biases, the raw and bias-corrected GCM ensembles project a drier future, albeit with different
477 magnitudes. Biases in the raw GCM ensemble produce an overall lower number of deficit months
478 ($PET > precipitation$) than the bias-corrected GCM ensemble largely as a result of higher PET
479 estimates coupled with lower precipitation values from the bias-corrected ensemble. This monthly
480 imbalance of PET and precipitation leads to larger areas and shifts in aridity for the bias-corrected
481 GCM ensemble. While the comparison of AI shifts between raw and bias-corrected GCM
482 ensemble is a novel result, previous studies on projected aridity changes largely agree with our
483 findings and show an overall increase in arid lands will occur (Feng and Fu 2013; Overpeck and
484 Udall 2010; Seager et al. 2007). However, these studies and our study do not consider the role that
485 elevated CO_2 may play in increasing vegetation water use efficiency, which has recently been
486 studied in Donohue et al. (2013) and Roderick et al. (2015). Their conclusion is that a warmer
487 atmosphere does not necessarily lead to more arid conditions when additional effects of elevated
488 CO_2 are considered. It is also important to note, however, that the use of AI may be too simplified
489 to make strong conclusions on shifts of aridity. While the AI has been extensively used throughout
490 the literature, recent work by Girvetz and Zganjar (2014) suggest that calculating AI only using

491 months where there is a precipitation deficit may be more useful than using all months. This
492 adjustment would correct for a bias in the original AI towards changes in precipitation that occur
493 during already wet months, resulting in a dampened precipitation signal during the deficit months
494 when summed at the annual time step (Chou et al. 2013). Using more advanced aridity metrics
495 such as the cumulative moisture surplus and cumulative moisture deficit may provide stronger
496 insight into the differences between the raw and downcaled GCM ensembles and is perhaps a
497 future avenue of study.

498 While the examination of long-term precipitation deficits (aridity) are important, short-
499 term precipitation deficits (drought; PDSI) can also give insight on the differences between the
500 raw and bias-corrected GCM ensemble, even if averaged over a 30-year time period. PDSI
501 calculates a simplified water balance at the monthly time step, and therefore month-to-month
502 variability in soil moisture (and the precipitation/PET balance) is captured. It is important to note
503 that future projections of soil moisture in the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
504 Assessment Report 5 (IPCC AR5) indicate drier soil moistures in the United States, but the lower
505 values (<2 mm in the top 10 cm in the soil compared to historical averages) do not drastically
506 deviate from historical soil moisture (IPCC, 2013). This result compared to our result suggests two
507 very different futures of soil moisture and is likely due to the differences in soil moisture
508 estimation. A future avenue of study would be to bias-correct soil moisture output directly from
509 GCMs and then examine differences in projections.

510 We show that drought occurrences and magnitudes are projected to increase for the entire
511 United States for JJA, similar to other studies using different GCMs and time period (e.g., Cook
512 et al. 2015; Zhao and Dai 2015). There are some locations, mainly located on the eastern and
513 western United States coasts, where average JJA PDSI for the future time periods is projected to

514 be less than -2, indicating a transition to a more arid climate that is akin to a “moderate drought”
515 under current climatic conditions. However, based on Figures 7 and 8, there are individual GCMs
516 that project even more extreme (positive and negative) PDSI values at the end of the 21st century.

517 Compared to the raw GCM ensemble, we find higher PDSI values (decreased occurrence
518 and magnitude of drought) and greater concurrence between GCMs for the southwestern United
519 States for the bias-corrected GCM ensemble. As several recent studies have examined this area of
520 the United States using paleoclimate reconstructions and GCM projections (Ault et al. 2014; Cook
521 et al. 2015; Cook et al. 2004), it is important to note the large wet bias in raw GCM output in
522 winter precipitation and biases in precipitation seasonality across this region. Coupling a constant
523 or decrease in projected precipitation from the raw GCM ensemble with an increase in projected
524 PET will result in increases in drought. Therefore, for the western United States, using a raw GCM
525 ensemble may lead to drier conditions than would be expected if the GCM biases were bias-
526 corrected. For other regions such as the Upper Midwest, the bias-corrected GCMs project larger
527 increases in drought compared to the raw GCMs, primarily due to the positive precipitation bias
528 in the raw GCMs in the seasons preceding the JJA time period.

529 It is important to note and discuss the different time scales used in PDSI and AI. AI does
530 not include any precipitation and PET seasonality – it is simply the ratio of the two variables for
531 the entire year. PDSI, on the hand, explicitly has a temporal (autoregressive) component that has
532 a memory of up to 12-18 months (Cook et al., 1999; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2010). Not only does
533 PDSI have a long memory, but moisture surpluses and deficits for individual months can have a
534 long-lasting effect on drought conditions, which is not necessarily true with AI. Additionally, PDSI
535 values are in reference to its mean and variance during the PDSI calibration period, and therefore
536 changes in PDSI reflect changes in standardized units and not absolute changes. Therefore, any

537 changes in PDSI are relative to the historical time period, which can be quite different between the
538 raw and bias-corrected GCMs. Changes in PDSI (for both ensembles) may also be a result of a
539 signal-to-noise issues such that if model variability is low, a moderate change in aridity can
540 produce a large decrease in PDSI. Lastly, the raw GCM ensemble has much more variability
541 around the GCM ensemble median than the bias-corrected GCM ensemble for all climatological
542 components, especially for PET, which is largely due to the raw GCMs not being constrained by
543 an observed dataset.

544 Using both raw and bias-corrected GCM ensembles, our results point towards a drier future
545 in terms of aridity and drought. Even with an overall increase in dry conditions, substantial regional
546 differences exist between raw and bias-corrected GCM projections. These differences are
547 particularly large in the southwestern and midwestern United States, which has important
548 implications for water resources management and agriculture.

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728
729 **Figure and Table Captions**

730 **Table 1.** General Circulation Models used in this study for Representative Concentration

731 Pathway 8.5

732

733 **Figure 1.** Annual mean precipitation, differences, and biases between the raw and bias-corrected

734 GCM ensemble (rows) and projections for the 1950-1979 and 2070-2099 time periods (columns).

735 Differences in projections are shown in the lower-right panel.

736 **Figure 2.** Percent of annual total precipitation for 1950-1979 by climatological season for the raw
737 and bias-corrected GCM ensemble as well as the difference.

738 **Figure 3.** Biases in annual mean potential evapotranspiration (PET) between the raw and bias-
739 corrected GCM ensemble (rows) and PET projections for the 1950-1979 and 2070-2099 time
740 periods (columns). Differences in projections are shown in the lower-right panel.

741 **Figure 4.** Biases in the climatic inputs for the Penman-Monteith annual mean potential
742 evapotranspiration (PET) between the raw and bias-corrected GCM ensemble and PET projections
743 for the 1950-1979 time period.

744 **Figure 5.** The number of annual deficit months ($PET > P$) for the raw and bias-corrected GCM
745 ensembles (rows) for the 1950-1979 and 2070-2099 time periods (columns). Differences in
746 projections are shown in the lower-right panel.

747 **Figure 6.** Aridity Index (precipitation/potential evapotranspiration) for the raw and bias-corrected
748 GCM ensembles (rows) for the 1950-1979 and 2070-2099 time periods (columns). Differences in
749 projections are shown in the lower-right panel.

750 **Figure 7.** Average June, July, and August PDSI for the 2070-2099 time period for the raw and
751 bias-corrected GCM ensembles as well as the difference.

752 **Figure 8.** The number of raw and bias-corrected GCMs that agree on a 2070-2099 average of a
753 PDSI value of less than -1 (mild drought), -2 (moderate drought), and -3 (severe drought).

754 **Figure 9.** The interquartile range (IQR) around the 2070-2099 raw and bias-corrected GCM
755 ensemble medians for precipitation, potential evapotranspiration, Aridity Index, and June, July,
756 August PDSI.

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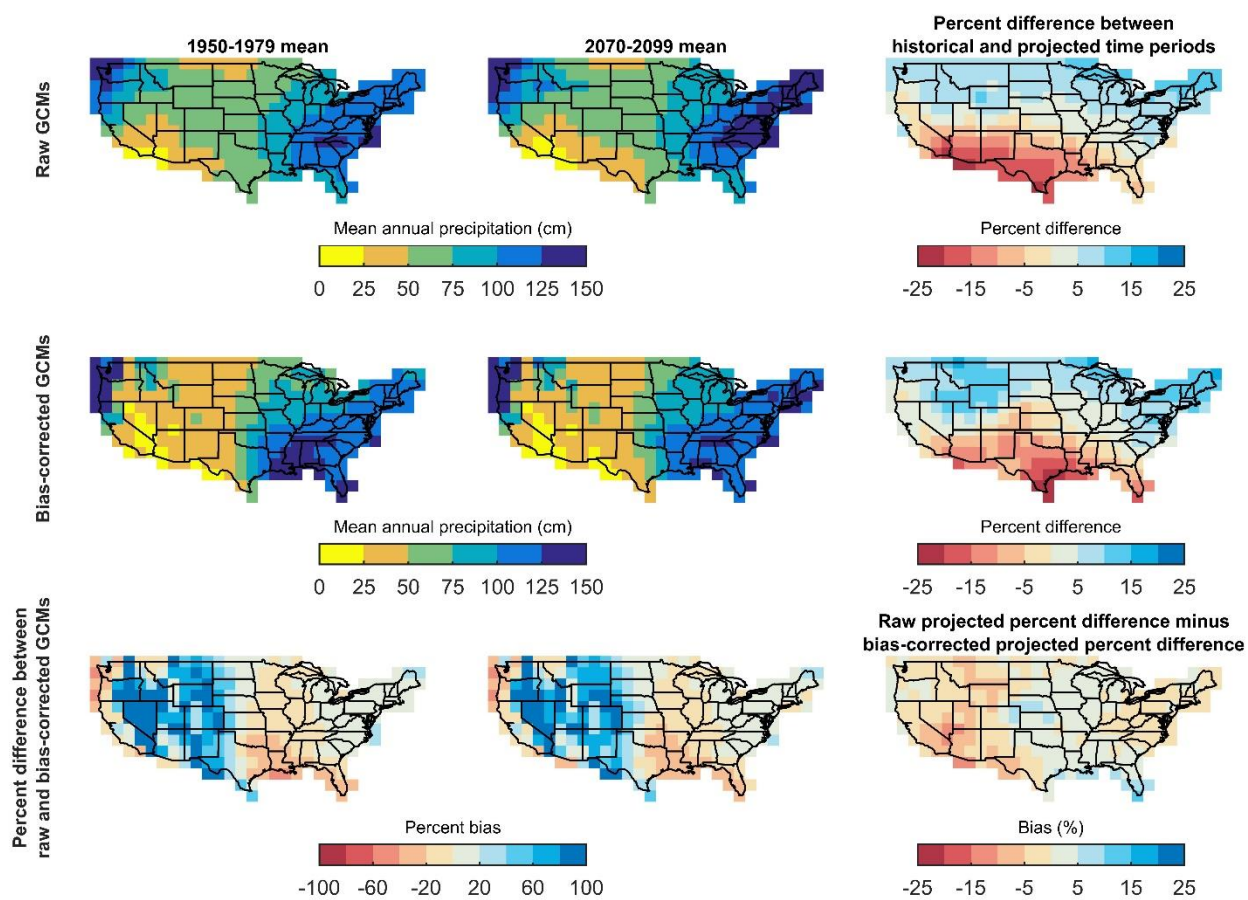
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761**Table 1.** General Circulation Models used in this study for Representative Concentration Pathway 8.5

Model Name	Model Country	Model Agency
bcc-csm1-1	China	Beijing Climate Center, China Meteorological Administration
bcc-csm1-1	China	Beijing Climate Center, China Meteorological Administration
BNU-ESM	China	College of Global Change and Earth System Science, Beijing Normal University, China
CanESM2	Canada	Canadian Centre for Climate Modeling and Analysis
CNRM-CM5	France	National Centre of Meteorological Research, France
CSIRO-Mk3-6-0	Australia	Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization/Queensland Climate Change Centre of Excellence, Australia
GFDL-ESM2M	USA	NOAA Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory, USA
GFDL-ESM2G	USA	NOAA Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory, USA
HadGEM2-ES	United Kingdom	Met Office Hadley Center, UK
HadGEM2-CC	United Kingdom	Met Office Hadley Center, UK
inmcm4	Russia	Institute for Numerical Mathematics, Russia
IPSL-CM5A-LR	France	Institut Pierre Simon Laplace, France
IPSL-CM5A-MR	France	Institut Pierre Simon Laplace, France
MIROC5	Japan	Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute (The University of Tokyo), National Institute for Environmental Studies, and Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology
MIROC-ESM	Japan	Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute (The University of Tokyo), and National Institute for Environmental Studies
MIROC-ESM-CHEM	Japan	Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute (The University of Tokyo), and National Institute for Environmental Studies
MRI-CGCM3	Japan	Meteorological Research Institute, Japan

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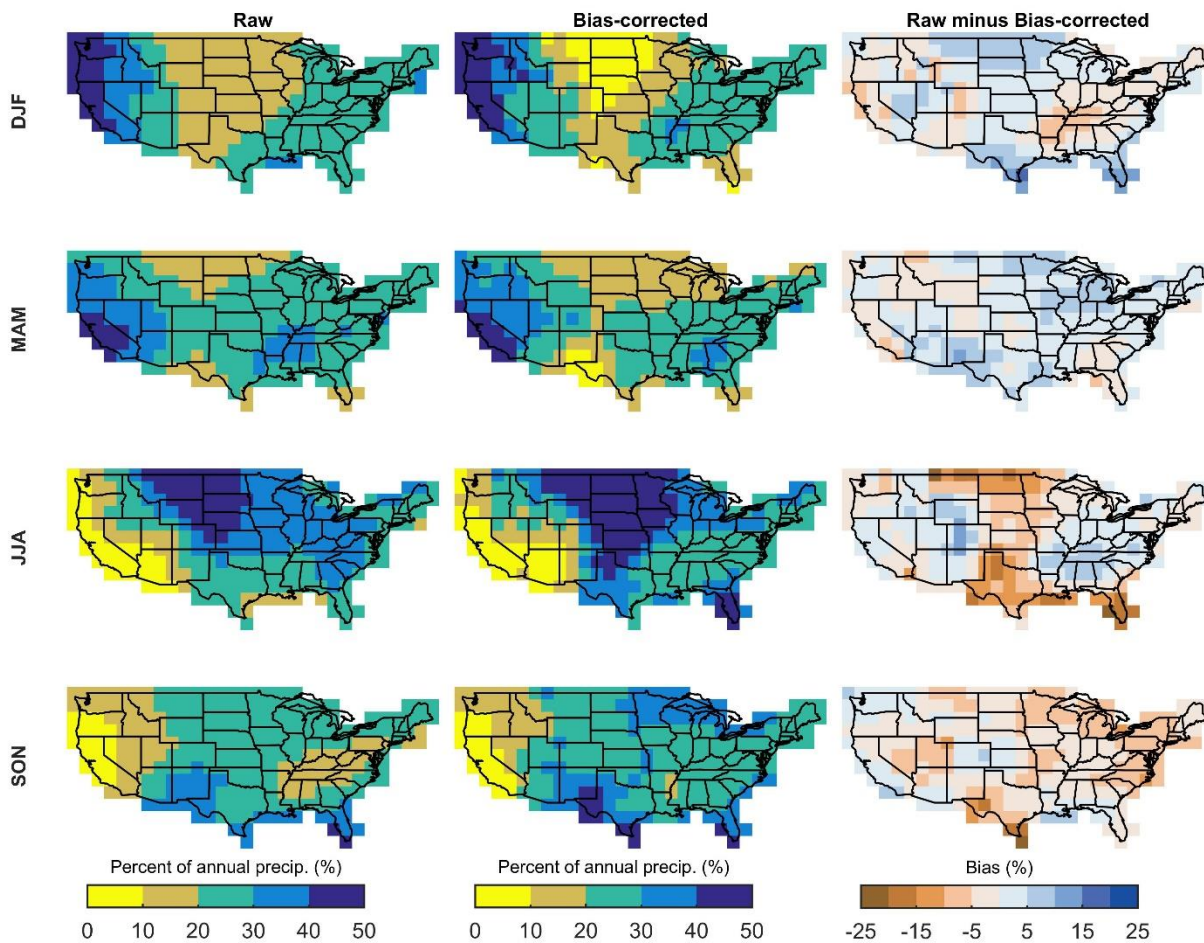
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 766 **Figure 1.** Annual mean precipitation, differences, and biases between the raw and bias-corrected
 767 GCM ensemble (rows) and projections for the 1950-1979 and 2070-2099 time periods (columns).
 768 Differences in projections are shown in the lower-right panel.
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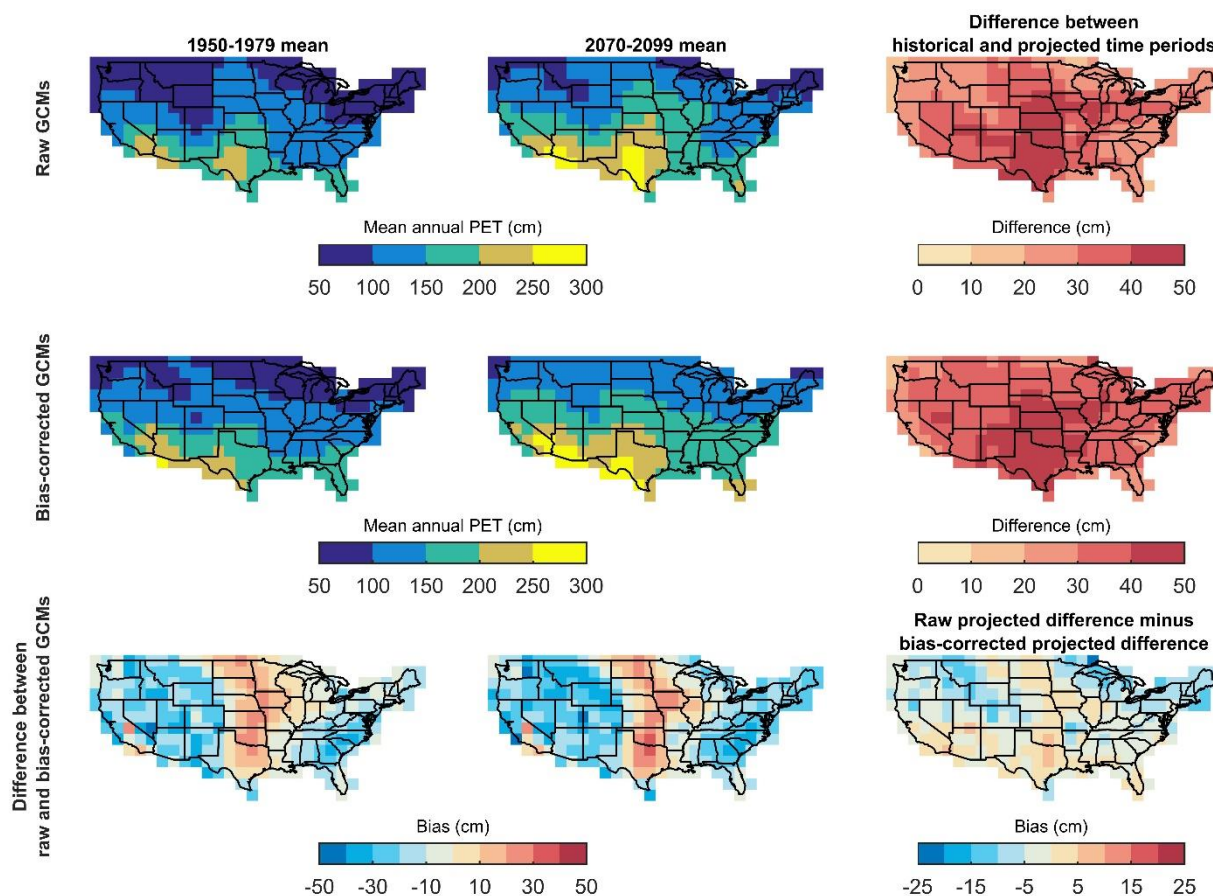
782 **Figure 2.** Percent of annual total precipitation for 1950-1979 by climatological season for the raw
 783 and bias-corrected GCM ensemble as well as the difference.

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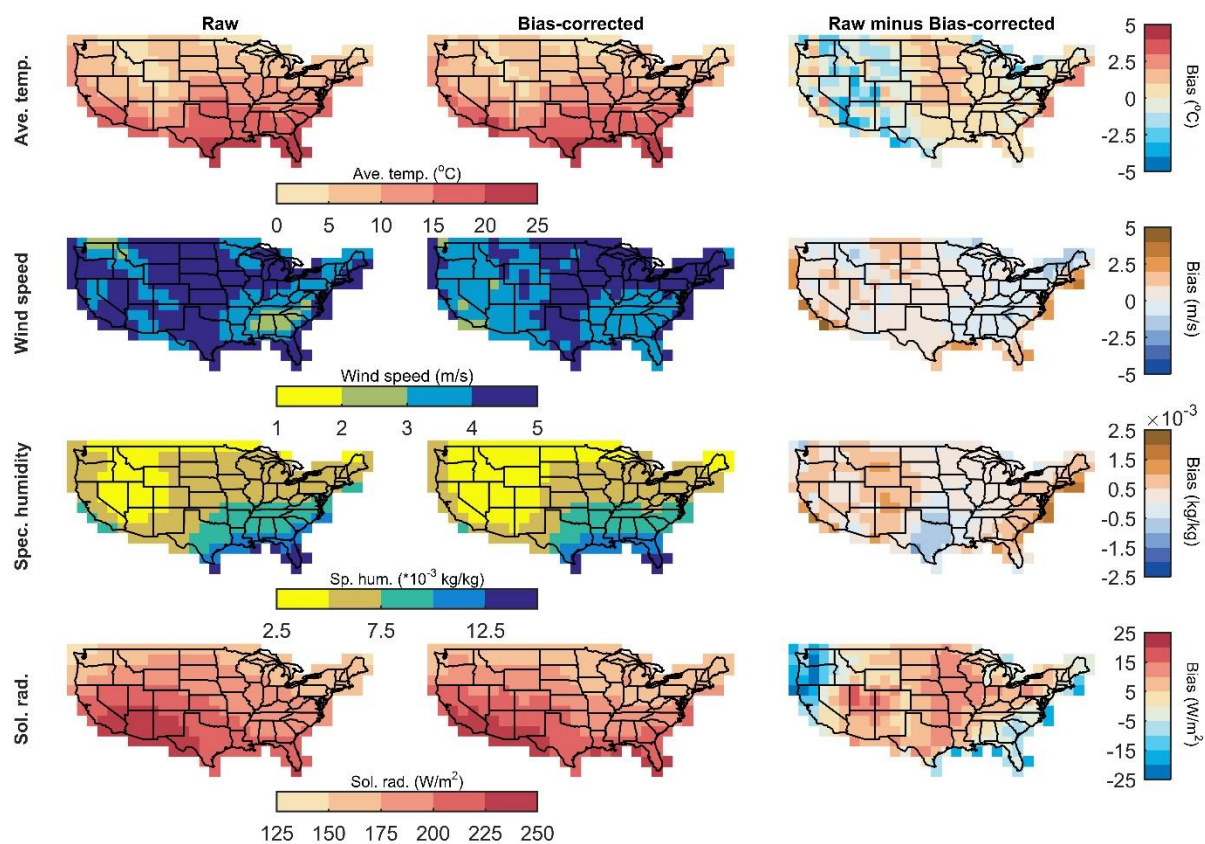
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801 **Figure 3.** Biases in annual mean potential evapotranspiration (PET) between the raw and bias-
 802 corrected GCM ensemble (rows) and PET projections for the 1950-1979 and 2070-2099 time
 803 periods (columns). Differences in projections are shown in the lower-right panel.



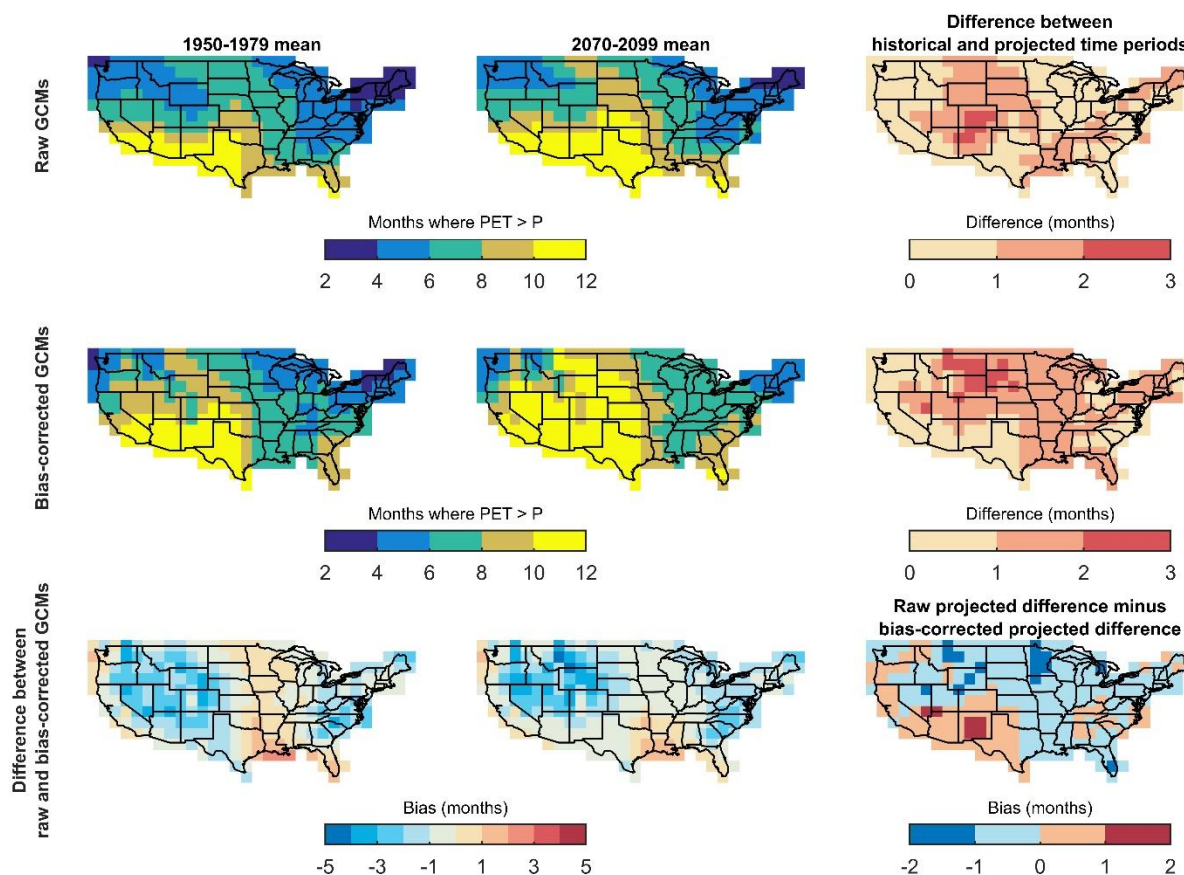
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820 **Figure 4.** Biases in the climatic inputs for the Penman-Monteith annual mean potential
 821 evapotranspiration (PET) between the raw and bias-corrected GCM ensemble and PET projections
 822 for the 1950-1979 time period.



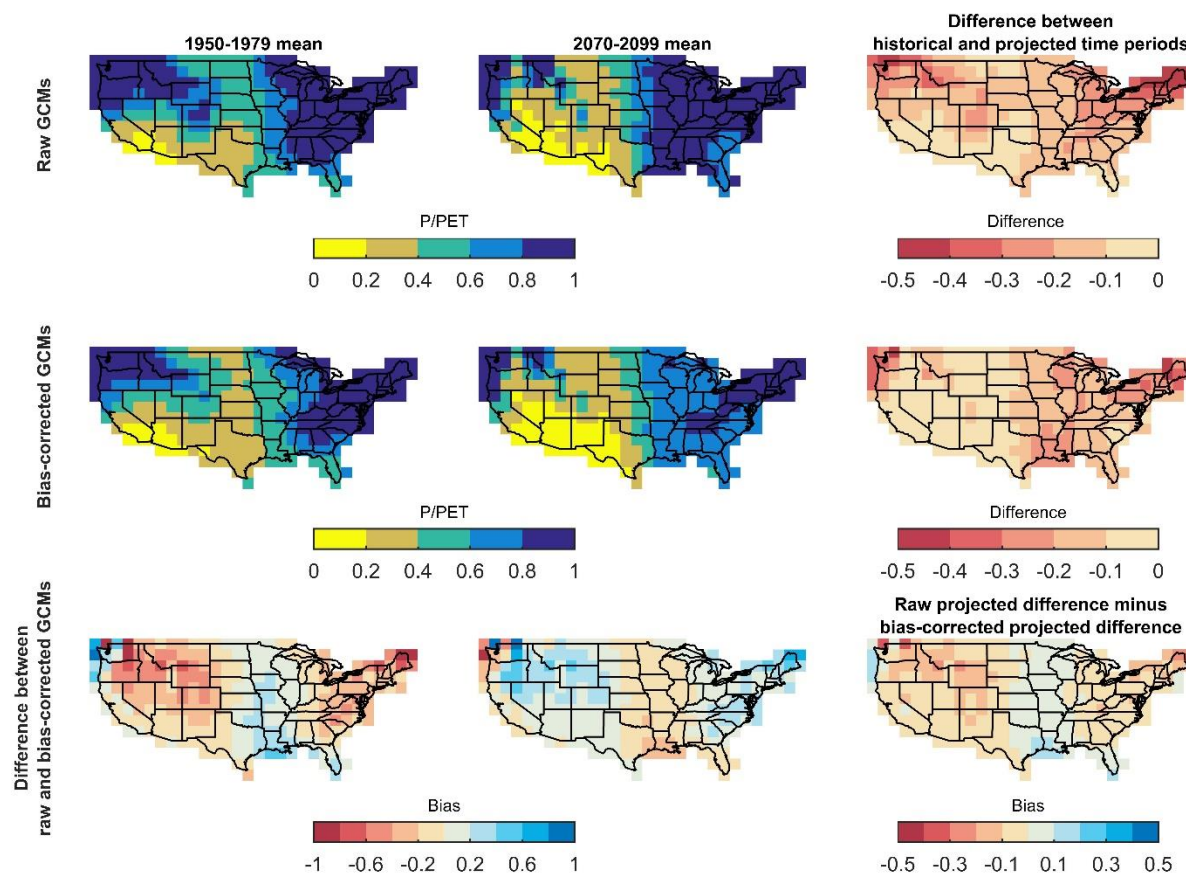
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840 **Figure 5.** The number of annual deficit months ($PET > P$) for the raw and bias-corrected GCM
 841 ensembles (rows) for the 1950-1979 and 2070-2099 time periods (columns). Differences in
 842 projections are shown in the lower-right panel.



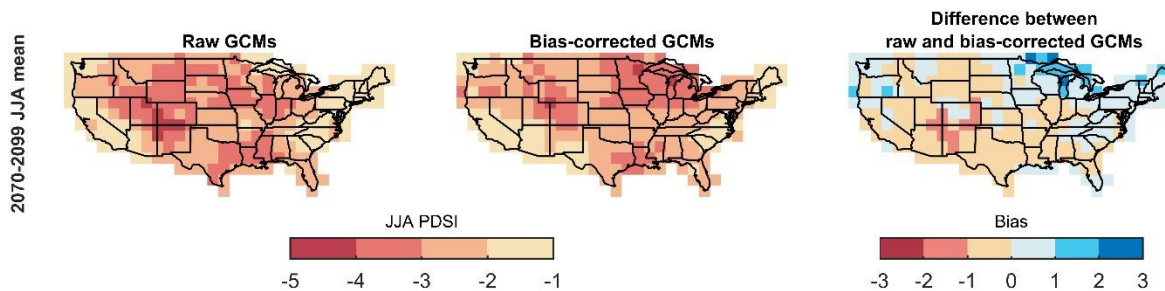
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859 **Figure 6.** Aridity Index (precipitation/potential evapotranspiration) for the raw and bias-corrected
 860 GCM ensembles (rows) for the 1950-1979 and 2070-2099 time periods (columns). Differences in
 861 projections are shown in the lower-right panel.



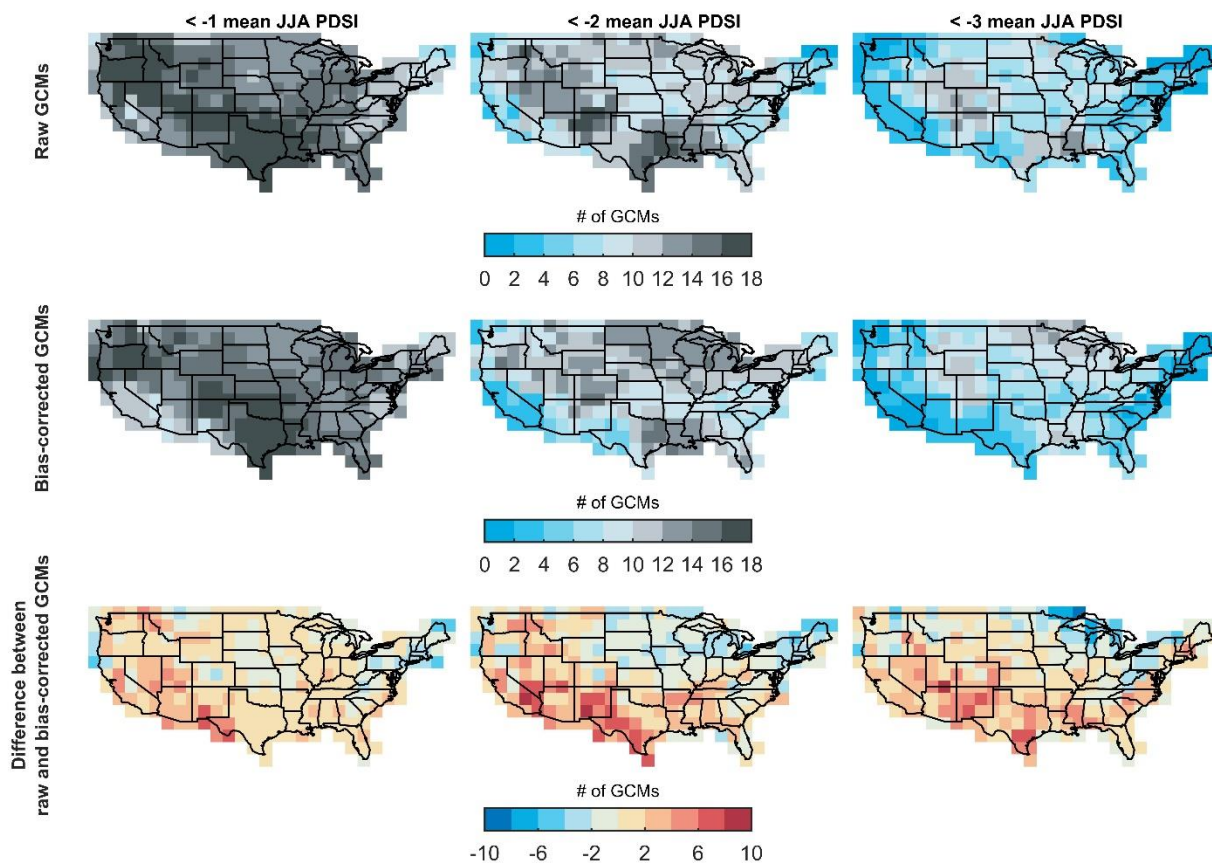
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878 **Figure 7.** Average June, July, and August PDSI for the 2070-2099 time period for the raw and
879 bias-corrected GCM ensembles as well as the difference.



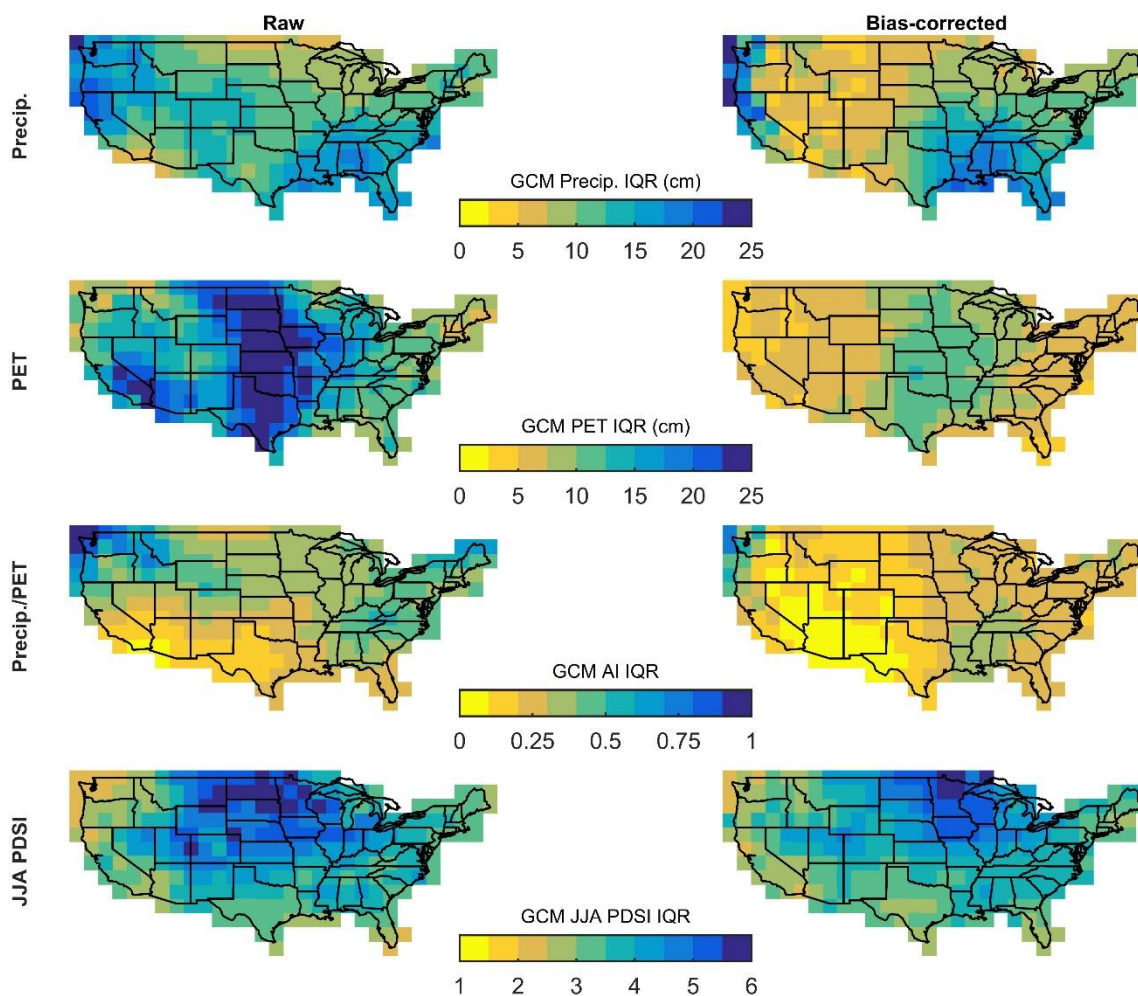
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911 **Figure 8.** The number of raw and bias-corrected GCMs that agree on a 2070-2099 average of a
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 932 ensemble medians for precipitation, potential evapotranspiration, Aridity Index, and June, July,
 933 August PDSI.



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