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11 **Interannual, probabilistic prediction of water resources over Europe following the**
12 **heatwave and drought 2018**

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17 **Key Points:**

- 18 • Terrestrial systems modeling with the Terrestrial System Modeling Platform affords
19 interannual probabilistic water resources predictions.
- 20 • The probability of an anomalously dry water year 2018/19 is high.
- 21 • The current trajectory suggests another extreme drought in late 2019.

22

23 Abstract

24 The year 2018 was one of the hottest and driest years in Europe having a large impact on
25 agriculture, ecosystems and society. The associated drought in central and northern Europe
26 underpins the need for water resources predictions at the seasonal to interannual time scale. In this
27 study, we propose a probabilistic, terrestrial prediction system including water resources utilizing
28 the Terrestrial Systems Modeling Platform, TSMP. Based on an existing climatology from 1996
29 to 2018, a probabilistic prediction for the water year 2018/19 was performed accounting for
30 atmospheric uncertainty in an ensemble approach. The results show that the water year 2017/18 is
31 an outlier with respect to dry conditions considering all available years of the climatology. The
32 prediction shows that, on average, the water deficit will not be alleviated until the end of 2019 and
33 that there is a higher probability for anomalously dry conditions. However, the current trajectory
34 obtained from a simulation applying recent atmospheric reanalysis data is located in the dry tail of
35 the ensemble potentially indicating a continuation of a severe drought in future.

36 1 Introduction

37 At the seasonal time scale and beyond, droughts associated with heat waves are difficult to predict,
38 mainly because of uncertainty related to the atmospheric forcing (Miralles et al., 2019). However,
39 the hypothesis is that memory effects related to slow dynamics of the groundwater-soil water-
40 vegetation (GSV) system render the prediction challenge an initial value problem, which may lead
41 to predictive skill potentially over extended periods (Dirmeyer, 2000). Here, the major assumption

42 is that memory effects including interactions of the GSV system with the atmospheric forcing are
43 correctly simulated in the forward model.

44 In recent years there have been many efforts to establish a reliable seasonal forecasting system
45 applying various approaches. First, there is the possibility of using statistical tools e.g. linear
46 stochastic models (e.g. Mishra and Desai, 2005), Bayesian frameworks (e.g. Madadgar and
47 Moradkhani, 2013) or the collection and transformation of multiple datasets (e.g. Hao et al., 2015).
48 These approaches rely on drought indices derived from as much observational data as possible to
49 derive probability density functions. Then there is the possibility to use climate models with a
50 dynamical core, e.g. Yuan et al. (2013) and Yuan and Wood (2013). Because predictions with
51 climate models alone generally do not lead to satisfactory results, there are recent studies that
52 combine models with observational data using machine learning methods (Rhee and Im, 2017;
53 Hosseini-Moghari and Araghinejad, 2015). Furthermore, there has been success with an
54 experimental combination of hydrological modeling and regional climate forecasts in the Sub-
55 Sahara region (Sheffield et al., 2013).

56 The importance of soil moisture and groundwater in the occurrence of extreme temperature events
57 and droughts has been shown previously (e.g., Seneviratne et al., 2010; Hirschi et al., 2011).
58 However, at the continental scale, weather forecast or climate models do not provide the whole
59 water cycle and strongly simplify the GVS system generally neglecting groundwater dynamics.
60 While hydrological models seem an alternative, at the continental scale, the groundwater
61 compartment and coupling with the soil water are also simplified (Zink et al., 2016), which may
62 affect adversely the simulation of memory effects (Lo & Famiglietti, 2010). Additionally, in

63 hydrologic modeling, potential impacts of the subsurface and land surface on atmospheric
64 processes affecting precipitation are not taken into account.

65 Thus, in order to relax simplifying assumptions, we propose the application of an integrated
66 terrestrial systems modeling approach for water resources and drought prediction. In this study,
67 integrated terrestrial modeling refers to the representation of the complete terrestrial hydrologic
68 and energy cycle from groundwater across the land surface into the atmosphere. In the recent past,
69 considerable advancements have been achieved since the early work of e.g., York et al. (2002) and
70 Maxwell et al. (2007) to couple subsurface, land surface and atmospheric models to close the
71 terrestrial cycles in models and provide physically consistent states and fluxes throughout the
72 terrestrial system. At the continental scale, which is of interest in this study, e.g. Miguez-Macho
73 and Fan (2012) and Walco et al. (2000) applied groundwater parameterizations and simulated the
74 terrestrial cycle over the Amazon and also globally at relatively coarse spatial resolutions. Keune
75 et al. (2016) used the Terrestrial Systems Modeling Platform (TSMP) including a 3D variably
76 saturated groundwater representation in a continuum approach to show that surface-atmosphere
77 feedbacks are well-captured and that groundwater actually mitigated the 2003 heatwave over
78 Europe. Later Keune et al. (2018) showed that human water use related to groundwater abstraction
79 and irrigation may systematically change the distribution of water resources due to local and non-
80 local subsurface-land surface-atmosphere feedbacks.

81 In this study, we applied TSMP over the European continent in predictive mode to assess the
82 evolution of water resources in the water year 2018/19 (September - August), the year after the
83 record-breaking drought 2018, focusing especially on the representation of atmospheric
84 uncertainty via ensemble simulations. The analyses concentrated on the Mid-European region and
85 included anomalies of atmospheric and hydrologic variables based on a previously generated

86 climatology. Additionally, we addressed the question whether the 2018 drought interacts with the
87 atmosphere and potentially reduces precipitation amounts in the water year 2018/19 causing a
88 positive drought feedback.

89 **2 Methods**

90 In the following, we briefly describe the relevant components of the integrated terrestrial systems
91 model applied in this study, the experimental setup of the probabilistic prediction system, and the
92 analyses of the anomalies and interactions with the atmosphere.

93 2.1 The Terrestrial Systems Modeling Platform (TSMP)

94 TSMP (Gasper et al., 2014; Shrestha et al., 2014) closes the terrestrial water and energy cycle from
95 groundwater across the land surface into the atmosphere coupling the atmospheric model COSMO
96 5.1 with the land surface model CLM3.5 and the groundwater model ParFlow 3.2 via the Ocean
97 Atmosphere Sea Ice Soil Model Coupling Toolkit (OASIS3-MCT). Below, we provide only a brief
98 overview of TSMP; the interested reader is referred to Shrestha et al., 2014 and Gasper et al., 2014.

99 The non-hydrostatic model COSMO has been developed by a consortium of weather services
100 under the leadership of the German Weather Service (Baldauf et al., 2011). With different
101 configurations COSMO can serve as an operational weather forecast model or for regional scale
102 climate simulations. COSMO solves the primitive Euler-equations and includes multiple types of
103 precipitation, radiation and a 2.5 turbulence closure. It parametrizes shallow convection, energy
104 and momentum transfer with the surface.

105 The Community Land Model (CLM3.5) consists of the shallow soil, snow layers, land cover,
106 vegetation and handles the interaction with the atmosphere (Oleson et al., 2004, 2008). To

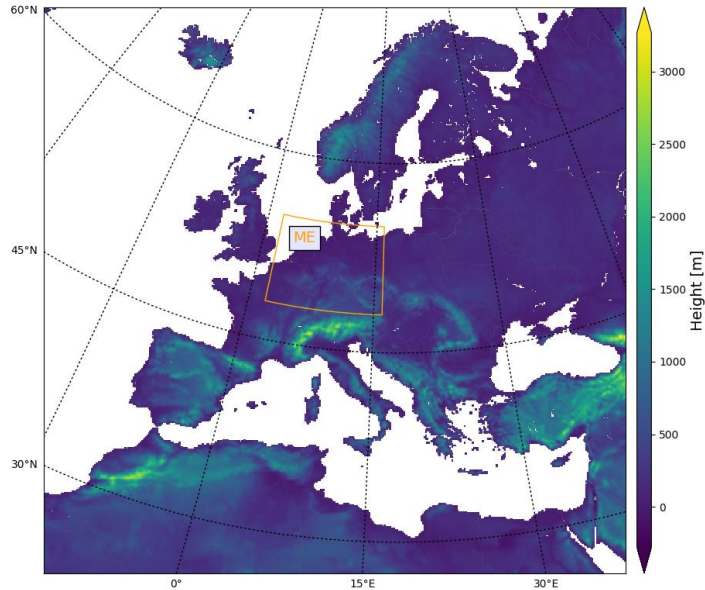
107 accomplish this CLM3.5 parameterizes hydrologic, biologic and radiation processes, such as
108 evapotranspiration, sensible and ground heat. In TSMP, CLM3.5 supplies COSMO with the
109 boundary condition of surface albedos, energy fluxes, evapotranspiration, root-water uptake and
110 surface stresses. The land cover is described by sixteen different plant functional types (PFTs). In
111 TSMP, the hydrologic component of CLM3.5 is completely replaced by ParFlow.

112 The hydrological model ParFlow (Jones and Woodward, 2001; Ashby and Falgout, 1996; Kollet
113 and Maxwell, 2006; Maxwell, 2013) solves the 3D Richards equation with a Newton-Krylov
114 solver to model integrated variably saturated groundwater-surface water flow. In ParFlow,
115 Richards equation is discretized in space using finite differences and an implicit backward Euler
116 scheme in time. Overland flow is modeled by solving the kinematic wave equation in a finite
117 volume approach. ParFlow receives the incoming precipitation after canopy interception as well
118 as the water loss from evapotranspiration from CLM3.5. In turn, ParFlow provides the hydrologic
119 state to CLM3.5 in terms of soil moisture and matric potential.

120 In TSMP, the coupler OASIS3-MCT (Valcke, 2013) connects the different component models in
121 the form of independent executables based on a Multiple Process Multiple Data (MPMD)
122 approach. OASIS3-MCT acts as the driver initializing the models, managing the time steps and

123 coupling frequencies, exchanging the coupling data in 2-D arrays in memory and finally
124 terminating the simulation.

125 2.2 Model domain and setup



126

127 Figure 1. The European CORDEX model domain including the topographic height. The box
128 indicates the Mid-Europe (ME) focus region of this study.

129

130 The model domain shown in figure 1 has been implemented according to the Coordinated Regional
131 climate Downscaling Experiment (CORDEX) (Giorgi et al., 2009). The domain covers all Europe
132 based on a rotated latitude-longitude grid with a horizontal resolution of 0.11° resulting in a
133 resolution of approximately 12.5 km. COSMO has a vertical range of 50 km with a time step of
134 60 s. CLM has ten soil layers ranging 3 m into the soil, ParFlow has five extra layers covering in

135 total 57 m depth below the land surface. The first ten layers of CLM and ParFlow are identical. In
136 ParFlow, there is a variable vertical discretization ranging from 2cm at the land surface to more
137 than $\sim 10^1$ m toward the bottom of the aquifer based on a terrain following grid. CLM3.5 and
138 ParFlow use a time step of 900 s, which also constitutes the coupling frequency.

139 Topographic slopes required by ParFlow were estimated from the USGS GTOPO30. Boundary
140 conditions on the coast are set by a constant hydraulic pressure with a hydrostatic profile for
141 ParFlow. The soil parameters of ParFlow model are estimated with the help of the Food and
142 Agricultural Organization (FAO) database (Carballas et al., 1990). To achieve this fifteen types of
143 soil are defined based on the texture information. To account for the loss of information due to
144 spatial aggregation and anisotropy, the values of the horizontal permeability are scaled by 1000.
145 For CLM, PFTs are obtained from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS)
146 database (Friedl et al., 2002). The individual values for stem and leaf area index and the monthly
147 bottom and top heights of the PFT are calculated with the global CLM surface data set. Additional
148 details of the setup can be obtained from Furusho et al., (2019)

149 2.3 Setup of the probabilistic prediction system

150 The setup of the probabilistic prediction system is directed at the goal to provide interannual water
151 resources predictions including droughts. The system is designed to account for the climatologic
152 atmospheric uncertainty, since atmospheric processes are arguably not predictable at that time
153 scale. To initialize the prediction, the terrestrial state in terms of water and energy at the end of the
154 previous water year was applied, in this case August 2018. This state was obtained from a
155 climatological/evaluation (EVAL) simulation starting in 1989 by Furusho et al. (2019) based on
156 atmospheric boundary conditions from ERA-Interim (Dee et al., 2011). Then the following water

157 year was simulated, here 2018/19, applying all previous years as atmospheric boundary conditions
 158 proposing that the predicted year is contained in the climatologic ensemble of all previous years
 159 with respect to atmospheric conditions. In this way, we are able to account for the climatologic
 160 atmospheric uncertainty without any prior assumptions. Furusho et al. (2019) analyzed the
 161 climatology starting from 1996 due to spin up effects that were detected in 1989 to 1995. Therefore
 162 only the atmospheric forcing of the water years 1996 to 2018 was applied resulting in an ensemble
 163 of 22 forcing years for 2018/19 potentially reducing the real uncertainty range.

164 2.4 Analyses

165 In the analyses, we focused on the region of Mid-Europe (ME), where the drought 2018 was
 166 pronounced. For the analysis, the data was extracted in spatially averaged, monthly mean values.
 167 The variables considered at this point are 2m air temperature, tas (K), precipitation, pr (L), and
 168 total column water storage $s_{i,j}$ (L) from the land surface to the bottom of the aquifer. The latter
 169 constitutes an integrated measure of water resources and was calculated as follows

$$170 \quad s_{i,j} = \sum_k^{nz} sat_{i,j,k} por_{i,j,k} dz_k$$

171 where $sat_{i,j,k}$ is the relative saturation (-), $por_{i,j,k}$ the porosity (-) for a pixel with indices i, j, k in
 172 the lateral and vertical direction, respectively, dz_k is the extent of a vertical grid cell (L) and nz is
 173 the number of grid cells in the vertical direction. This leads to a storage estimation for every
 174 subsurface column in the model. Utilizing the monthly mean values, monthly anomalies were
 175 calculated for each pixel and then the Mid-Europe (ME) domain.

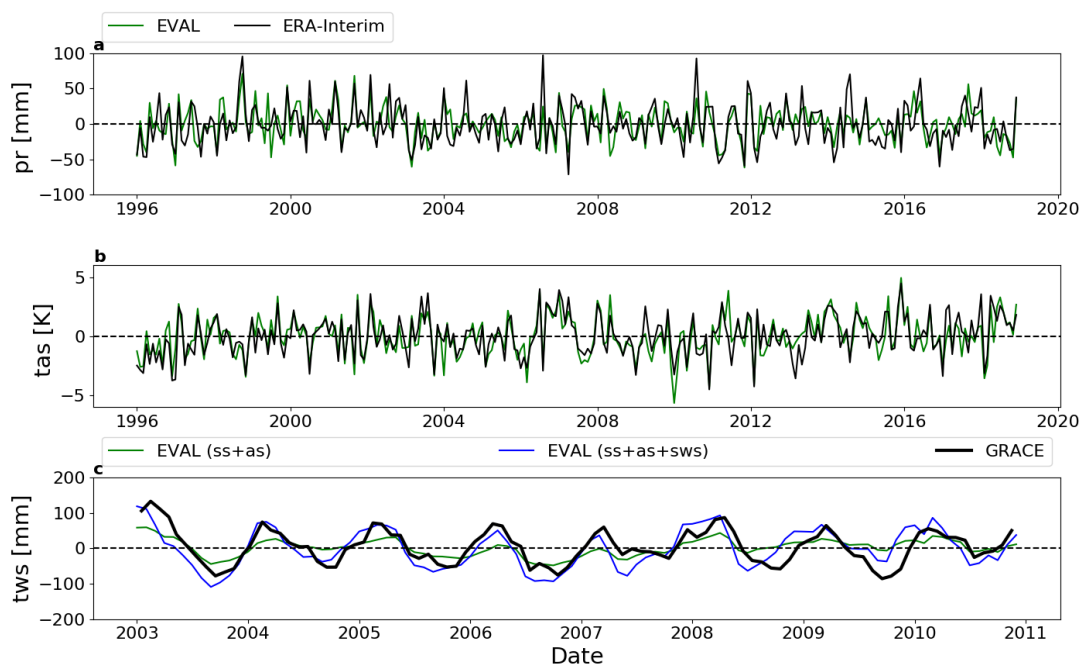
176 In order to evaluate the simulations, ME averaged time series for tas and pr were compared to
 177 ERA-Interim information, and s were compared to GRACE mascon data (Watkins et al., 2015). In

178 the latter, the s anomalies were recalculated based on the time period used in the GRACE mascon
179 data set. Interactions with the atmosphere were inspected, in particular precipitation, by subtracting
180 the monthly precipitation values from the probabilistic prediction. In other words, every ensemble
181 member of the year 2019 with the initial condition of the drought year 2018 was subtracted from
182 the corresponding values of the same month of EVAL. Box plots of precipitation increments were
183 generated for each month of the water year 2018/19 in order to identify systematic changes in
184 monthly precipitation amounts due to the dry initial condition in the probabilistic predictions.

185 **4 Results and discussion**

186 While the probabilistic prediction covers all Europe, the 2018 drought was most pronounced in
 187 central, northern Europe. Therefore, in this study, we focus on Mid-Europe (ME), which is part of
 188 the PRUDENCE regions defined in Christensen and Christensen (2007).

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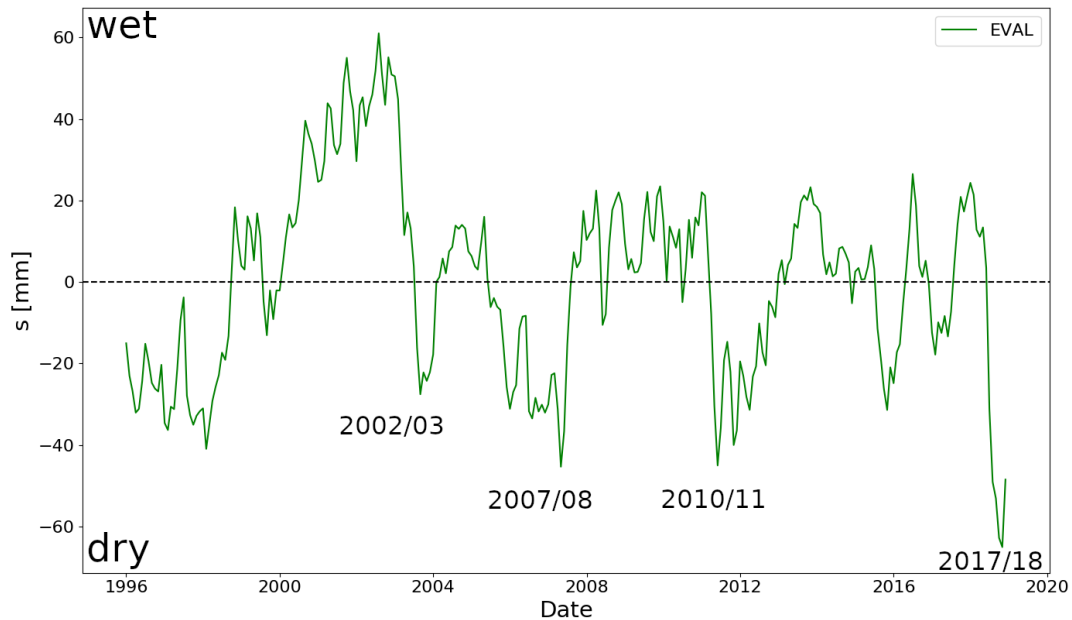
191 Figure 2. Anomalies calculated from ERA-Interim and the evaluation run, EVAL, from 1996 to
 192 2018 over Mid-Europe for (a) monthly precipitation, pr , and (b) air temperature, tas . Storage
 193 anomalies s (c) were calculated for the entire soil column including soil water, ss , and aquifer, as ,

194 storages ($ss + as$) and also surface water storage ($ss + as + sws$) based on the time period used on
195 the GRACE mascon data set.

196

197 Figure 2 a) and b) show monthly anomalies of air temperature, tas and precipitation, pr , calculated
198 over the subdomain ME from 1996 to 2018, respectively. The black curve shows ERA-Interim for
199 comparison. The plots for tas and pr anomalies show that the EVAL is in good agreement with
200 ERA-Interim, which is remarkable, because EVAL constitutes a transient simulation without any
201 correction (e.g. nudging). In case of s a comparison with the GRACE mascon data was performed.
202 In contrast to a) and b) the mean storage is calculated from 2004 to 2009 as a single value for the
203 whole period to be comparable to the GRACE data. Additionally, we derived two different water
204 storage anomalies for EVAL. The first anomaly consists of soil water storages, ss , and aquifer
205 storage, as , following equation 1 covering the entire subsurface column from the land surface to
206 the bottom of the aquifer ($ss + as$). The second anomaly additionally includes surface water of
207 rivers and streams ($ss + as + sws$). There is a good agreement with GRACE in case of subsurface
208 and surface water storage anomalies ($ss + as + sws$). In some years, there is a small phase shift in
209 the simulated anomalies. Additionally the anomalies in the water years 2007/08 and 2009/10 were
210 over- and underestimated, respectively. At this point, we explain these discrepancies with
211 deviations of EVAL from real world precipitation in these years. Additionally, snow and ice, and
212 lakes were not included in the anomalies from EVAL. The anomalies of subsurface storage ($ss +$

213 *as*) only exhibit smaller amplitudes and fewer dry anomalies, which is due to the inclusion of
 214 groundwater in the analysis.

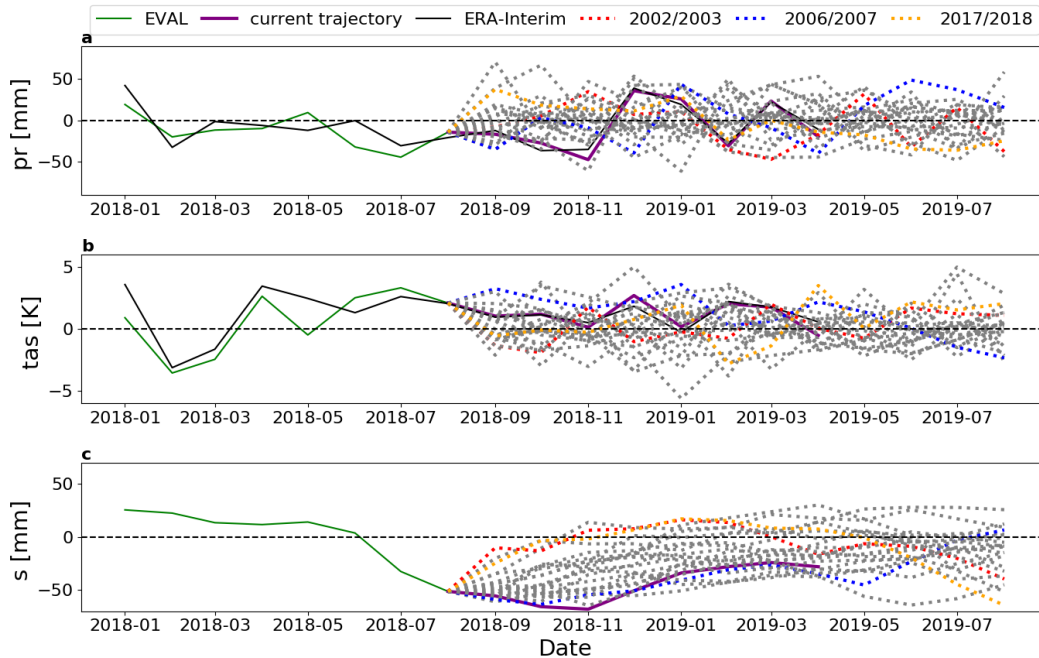


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216 Figure 3. Time series of monthly column storage anomaly, s , averaged over Mid-Europe (ME)
 217 region.

218 Figure 3 shows the time series of monthly column storage anomalies averaged over the ME
 219 region. The major droughts of the water years 2002/03, 2007/08, 2010/11, and 2017/18 are
 220 clearly discernible. In addition, EVAL captures the transition from the extreme wet year of

221 2001/02, which was characterized by the massive Elbe-Danube flood, to the extreme dry year
 222 2002/03 very well, which lends additional confidence in the forward simulations using TSMP.

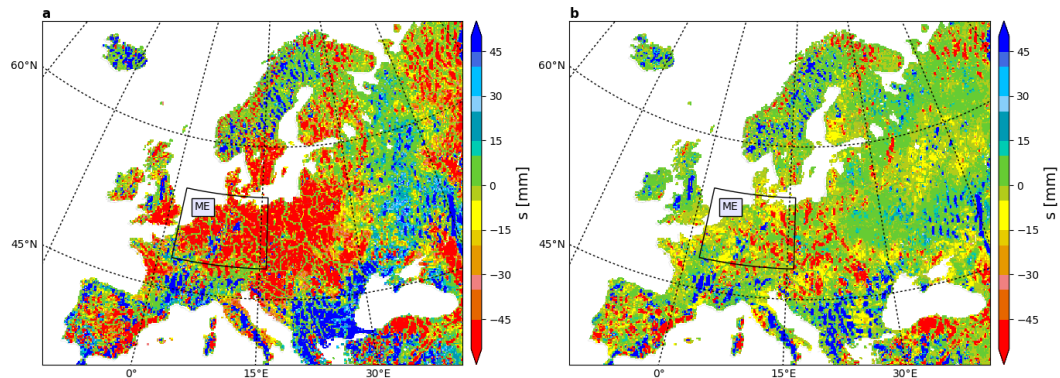


223
 224 Figure 4. Plots of the period from the beginning of 2018 to August 2019 for the monthly (a)
 225 precipitation anomalies, (b) temperature anomalies and (c) the water storage anomalies. The
 226 probabilistic prediction period of the water 2018/19 includes all ensemble members in dashed lines
 227 and the current trajectory (purple solid line).

228
 229 Figure 4 depicts the anomalies of pr , tas and s of EVAL for the period January until the end of
 230 August 2018 and the ensuing probabilistic prediction of the water year 2018/19. The heatwave is
 231 clearly visible with low precipitation (figure 4a) and high temperature anomalies (figure 4b). Over
 232 the course of the year, the influence of these two variables on the water storage, s , is apparent

233 (figure 4c). The s anomaly changes from a wet (positive) anomaly to a strongly dry (negative)
234 anomaly in August 2018. The hydrologic state at the end of August 2018 then served as the initial
235 condition for the probabilistic forecast of 2019 based on the ensemble atmospheric boundary
236 conditions of 1996/97 to 2017/18. In figure 4c, the individual ensemble members are plotted in
237 dashed lines. We highlighted with colors dry forcing years that are 2002/03 and 2017/18, where
238 the latter is a repetition of the extreme drought, and a wet year 2006/07. Inspection of the ensemble
239 member 2002/03 shows that, because the end of 2002 was rather wet, this ensemble member is
240 reducing the anomaly strongly, while the dry year 2003 increases again the negative anomaly. A
241 repetition of 2017/18 shows similar behavior resulting in an even stronger deficit at the end of
242 2018/19. This is the only ensemble member that leads to an even stronger dry anomaly at the end
243 of the simulation. 2006/07 is a wet year in the ensemble that turns the storage deficit into a positive
244 anomaly. Most of the ensemble members reduce the dry anomaly significantly until the summer
245 2019, however, the majority still exhibit a significant dry anomaly at the end of the water year
246 2018/19. Thus, there is an increased probability that the drought continues well into the water
247 year 2019/20. Inspecting the current trajectory (purple line in figure 4c) from the simulation using
248 the most recent ERA-Interim boundary information (at the time of submission) the dry anomaly is
249 increasing even beyond the ensemble emphasizing the strength of the drought 2018, which reached
250 its peak in November 2018. While the dry anomaly decreased during the winter and spring, the

251 current trajectory is located in the dry tail of the ensemble suggesting that there is a high probability
 252 of continuing drought conditions throughout the current water year and potentially also 2019/20.



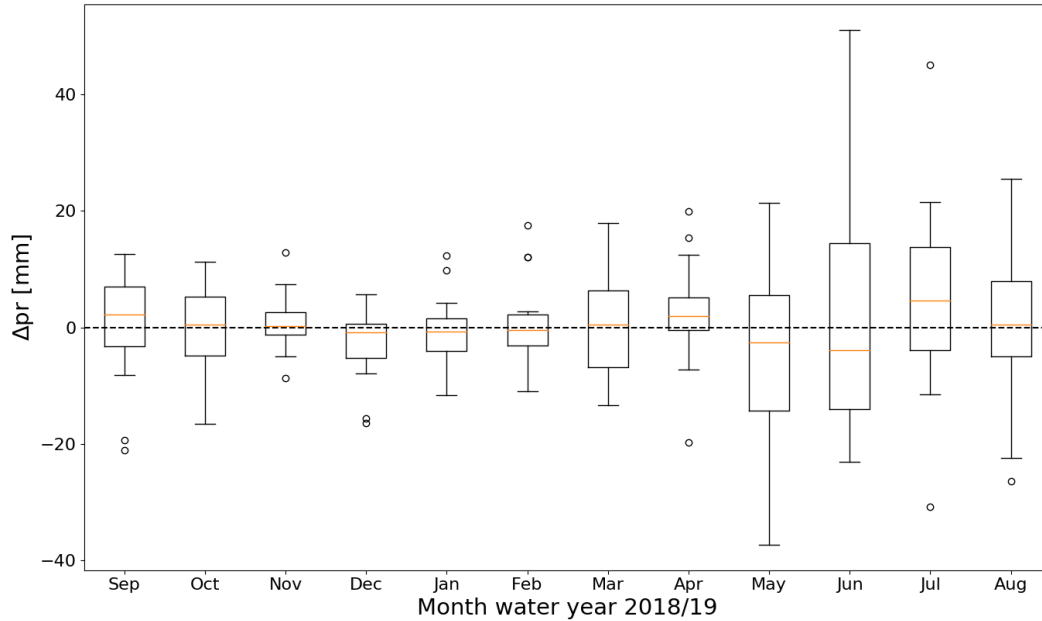
253

254 Figure 5. Water storage anomaly over the European model domain with a focus on the Mid-Europe
 255 region (ME) (a) for August 2018 and (b) the mean of all ensemble members in August 2019.

256

257 Figure 5 provides the results of the spatial analyses of the s anomaly over Europe. In August 2018
 258 (figure 5a) the water deficit is significant, especially in the ME region, which is consistent with
 259 real-world observations. The ensemble mean (figure 5b) of the probabilistic prediction suggests
 260 that over large parts of ME the drought will persist at least until the end of the water year 2018/19.
 261 Figure 5 also emphasizes the strong spatial variability from the regional to the continental scale,
 262 which depends on multi-scale heterogeneity in physical parameters and fluxes especially related

263 to evapotranspiration and precipitation. At the smallest spatial scale on the order of the resolution
 264 of the model, the anomaly patterns need to be treated with care because of the uncertainty related
 265 to local rainfall amounts in the transient coupled simulations.



266

267 Figure 6. Boxplot of the difference of the evaluation run minus the corresponding ensemble
 268 member, Δpr , for all years. Lower to upper quartile are marked with the box, the median is
 269 indicated by the yellow line, the range of the data is indicated by the bars and the outliers are
 270 marked with circles.

271

272 The question remains, whether the extreme hydrologic drought interacted and continues to interact
 273 with atmospheric processes in the water year 2018/19. We attempted to answer the question in a
 274 rather *ad hoc* fashion at the spatial scale of the ME domain and the monthly time scale by

275 inspecting the increments of monthly precipitation amounts from the individual ensemble
276 members and the years of the EVAL simulation. With the help of the increments we tested the
277 hypothesis that the extreme drought 2018 reduced precipitation amounts in the ensuing water year
278 2018/19. Figure 6 shows the boxplots of the increments, which do not exhibit a systematic
279 reduction (or increase) in precipitation following the 2018 drought. The increments fluctuate
280 around zero with increasing variance until the end of the probabilistic prediction period, which
281 does not suggest a systematic reduction of precipitation amounts in the water year 2018/19 due to
282 the drought 2018 at the considered space and time scale.

283 **5 Summary and conclusions**

284 The study proposes an interannual probabilistic prediction system of the terrestrial system from
285 groundwater across the land surface into the atmosphere at the continental scale. Atmospheric
286 uncertainty is accounted for by utilizing many years of historic atmospheric information as
287 boundary conditions for the predictions. The system was applied to the water year 2018/19 based
288 on the initial condition of the extreme drought at the end of the water year 2017/18 over the Mid-
289 -European region (ME), which is the focus of this study.

290 In order to verify the prediction system over ME, results from an extended evaluation simulation
291 from 1996 to 2018 were compared to results from ERA-Interim and GRACE satellite information,
292 which showed good agreement. While this lends confidence in the predictive skill of the applied
293 Terrestrial Systems Modeling Platform, additional verification is required for additional variables,
294 and different space and time scales. Further inspection of the evaluation anomalies showed that
295 2018 was the strongest drought in terms subsurface water storage since 1996. The results from the
296 probabilistic prediction indicated that there is a high probability of a continuing water deficit at

297 the end of August 2019 due to memory effects of the drought 2018 of the subsurface-land surface
298 system. The current trajectory of the water storage anomaly for 2018/19 suggests that the strong
299 drought may persist also into 2019/20. Currently, 22 years of historic atmospheric forcing has been
300 applied in an attempt to capture the atmospheric uncertainty, which is probably not enough.
301 Additional years will be added to assess the robustness of the approach. An increment analysis of
302 precipitation amounts suggested that the 2018 drought did not influence precipitation in the water
303 year 2018/2019 in an average sense over ME. However the analysis was limited; in future, more
304 work is needed to interrogate subsurface-land and surface-atmosphere feedbacks across multiple
305 space and time scales, and variables. The prediction system has the potential to provide continues,
306 quasi-operational probabilistic predictions over the course of a water year given enough
307 computational and data storage resources, which are significant. Additionally, the current
308 trajectory can be continuously updated with incoming atmospheric re-analyses in order to provide
309 continues information on the current state of the terrestrial system. We provide this information
310 and the data sets of this study at https://datapub.fz-juelich.de/slts/prob_cordex/. Note, in this study,
311 the system was applied in the context of water scarcity. In the future, the potential for probabilistic
312 flood forecasting will be explored as well.

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322 available at https://datapub.fz-juelich.de/slts/prob_cordex/.

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