





Improved regional scale processes reflected in projected hydrological changes over large European catchments


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Abstract For the fourth assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), the recent identification where the climate change signal in the composition of the coupled atmosphere/ocean general circulation model (GCM) of the Max Planck Institute for Meteorology has been used to conduct an ensemble of transient climate simulations. These simulations comprise three control simulations for the past century covering the period 1860–2000, and nine simulations for the future (2001–2100) using greenhouse gas (GHG) and aerosol concentrations according to the three IPCC scenarios B1, A1B and A2. For each scenario three simulations were performed. The global simulations were dynamically downscaled over Europe using the regional climate model (RCM) REMO at 0.44° horizontal resolution. Improved representation of the land sea contrast and related moisture transport processes over the Baltic Sea catchment, (about 50 km), whereas the physics packages of the GCM and RCM largely agree. The regional simulations comprise the three control simulations (1950–2000), the three A1B simulations and one simulation for B1 as well as for A2.

Keywords Regional climate change (2001–2100). In our study we concentrate on the climate change signals in the hydrological cycle and the temperature by comparing the mean projected climate at the end of the twenty-first century (2071–2100) to a control period representing current climate (1961–1990). The robustness of the climate change signal projected by the GCM and RCM is analysed focussing on the large European catchments of Baltic Sea (land only), Danube and Rhine. In this respect, a robust climate change signal designates a projected change that sticks out of the noise of global climate models.

The climate of the Earth is influenced by increasing greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations, changing aerosol compositions and loads as well as by land surface changes. Global climate models are investigating possible trends in future global climate through the development of climate change scenarios. These follow specific assumptions for the evolution of GHG and aerosols, several of which have been defined by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC; Houghton et al. 2001) and are described in the IPCC Special Report on Emission Scenarios (SRES, Nakicenovic et al. 2000).

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The hydrological cycle is crucially important to life on the choice of the climate model as each model uses different techniques to discretize the dynamical equations and largely by the release of latent heat due to rain and snow to parameterize sub-grid effects, uncertainty due to natural formation. At longer time-scales, the hydrological cycle affects the groundwater storage, the thermohaline circulation in the ocean and the evolution of glaciers and ice sheets. Hydrological regimes vary accordingly to local and regional climate variations. Looking towards future climate, the projected climate change in the mean and in the variability will in turn produce changes in hydrological conditions. Thus, an adequate representation of the hydrological cycle, its future development and associated uncertainties are key issues in studies of global and regional climate change (e.g. Cubasch et al. 2000). In this context, it must be noted that hydrological processes depend on processes that are generally several orders of magnitude smaller than the typical grid-size used in current general circulation models (GCMs) and in current regional climate models (RCMs). Consequently the importance of the hydrological cycle is highlighted by the Global Energy and Water Cycle Experiment (GEWEX; e.g. Sorooshian et al. 2007). Here, 10 RCMs were forced with observed sea surface temperature (SST) and lateral boundary conditions cycle induced by climate change may affect the society more than any other changes, e.g. with regard to food risks, water availability and water quality.

Due to the lack of computer power, global climate models are generally still not able to represent surface hydrological cycle of the ten RCMs and the reduction of heterogeneities on scales less than about 100 km grid length. However, global climate change has an influence on these local and regional scales, which will be experienced by man-kind directly (Christensen et al. 2007). Improved knowledge on regional climate change can be achieved with the use of different regionalization techniques, including high-resolution and variable resolution GCMs (Cubasch et al. 1995; Déqué and Piedelievre 1995), nested RCMs (Giorgi and Mearns 1999), and statistical down-scaling (Wilby et al. 1998). RCMs are used for the dynamical downscaling of the global scale GCM simulations to regional scales (e.g., Giorgi 2006). Climate simulations performed with GCMs provide a consistent representation of the large-scale global circulation in both the atmosphere and the ocean, while RCMs introduce more details to the atmospheric simulations due to regional features such as topography and inland seas (Rummukainen et al. 2001). In both cases, simulations are usually produced for a control climate representing present-day climate conditions and for future climates representing various emission scenarios.

For the hydrological cycle simulated by coupled atmosphere-ocean GCMs and RCMs and its projected future changes, several kinds of uncertainties exist. There is uncertainty in the GHG and aerosol concentrations based on the different IPCC SRES scenarios, uncertainty due to the RCM ensemble were conducted. Among these studies, Hagemann and Jacob (2007) evaluated the simulated hydrological cycle of the ten RCMs and the reduction of uncertainty in the future projections by considering the multi-model ensemble mean over the catchments of the Baltic Sea (land area only), Danube and Rhine. First results by considering two different scenarios and two different GCM forcings were obtained with the RCM RCAO (Ränen et al. 2004) within the PRUDENCE project. Here, the four simulations agreed on a general increase in precipitation in northern Europe, especially in winter, and on a general decrease in precipitation in southern and central Europe in summer. However, the magnitude and the geographical patterns of the change differed considerably between the two GCM forcings. Rowell (2006) made an initial attempt to estimate the uncertainty that arises from typical variations in RCM formulation, focussing on projected changes in surface air temperature and precipitation over the UK. It was found that the largest source of uncertainty, for both variables and in all seasons, is the formulation of the forcing GCM.

Also within PRUDENCE, Rowell (2005) analysed projected seasonal changes in temperature, precipitation and snow mass over Europe from a three-member ensemble (3*control, 3*A2 scenario) of 30 year time slice simulations conducted with the GCM HadAM3P (Pope et al. 2000) regarding statistical significance. Here, the mean precipitation anomalies in the future scenario are dominated (to first order and in all seasons) by a large-scale

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pattern of enhanced precipitation in the north and reduced precipitation in the south. However, the boundary between these two regimes displays a sizable annual cycle, such that it is located at about 40°N in winter, 45°N in spring, 60°N in summer and 55°N in autumn. Kennett et al. (2008) used a three-member ensemble of the RCM HadRM3H to study the robustness of projected changes in extreme precipitation at the grid box level over Europe.

In the present study, we use a large ensemble of 10 transient coupled atmosphere-ocean GCM simulations (3*control, three for each of B1, A1B and A2) and eight RCM simulations (3*control, 3*A1B, 1*B1, 1*A2) that have been conducted at the Max Planck Institute for Meteorology (MPI-M). The aim of the study is to investigate how robust the projected changes in the hydrological cycle of the MPI-M climate models are compared to natural climate variability as it is represented in both the global simulations. Further we will address the question whether the robustness of the climate change signal differs between the GCM and the RCM forced by the GCM. In order to answer these questions we have focused on large European catchments, especially on the Baltic Sea, Danube and Rhine catchments, which are representing different climate conditions (see Sect. 2.3).

The method to investigate the robustness of projected climate change is described in Sect. 2, where also brief descriptions of the climate simulations used in the present study are given. Sections 3 and 4 consider the projected annual and monthly changes, respectively, and water regions and seasons are identified where the climate change signal in the hydrological cycle is robust. Noticeable differences between the GCM and the RCM projections are discussed in Sect. 5, and finally Sect. 6 gives some conclusions.

2 Methods

Section 2.1 briefly describes the GCM and RCM simulations considered in the present study, and notes the main differences in the physical parameterizations of both models. Section 2.2 considers the method used to identify robust projected climate changes, and Sect. 2.3 introduces the European catchments this study is focusing on.

2.1 Climate model simulations

For the fourth assessment report of the IPCC, the coupled atmosphere/ocean GCM ECHAM5/MPIOM (Roeckner et al. 2003; Jungclaus et al. 2006) has been used to conduct an ensemble of climate simulations. These simulations comprise three control simulations for the past century (1950–2000), the three A1B simulations and one simulation for B1 as well as for A2 (2001–2100). The physics packages of ECHAM5 and REMO largely agree as REMO uses mainly the ECHAM4 physics package (Roeckner et al. 1996). Notable differences are: In ECHAM5 a new scheme for stratiform clouds was implemented that includes prognostic equations for the water phases (vapor, liquid, solid), bulk cloud microphysics (Lohmann and Roeckner 1996), and a statistical cloud cover scheme with prognostic equations for the distribution moments (Tompkins 2002). In the used REMO version the cloud ice content is calculated diagnostically. The vegetation dependent land surface parameters in both models are taken from the LSP2 dataset (Hagemann 2002). However, ECHAM5 uses a time invariant snow free surface background Albedo, while REMO uses a prescribed seasonal cycle according to Rechid et al. (2008). In ECHAM5 a prognostic equation for the amount of snow on the canopy has been introduced, and the calculation of the surface albedo over snow covered areas was modified (Roesch et al. 2001). ECHAM5 operates with a discrete (0/1) land sea mask, while REMO utilizes a fractional distribution of land, water and sea ice whereas the vertical fluxes at the atmosphere–surface interface are calculated separately for the different compartments within a model gridbox (Semmler et al. 2004). In REMO the improved Arno scheme (Hagemann and Denil Gates 2003) is implemented to represent the separation of rainfall and snow melt into surface runoff and infiltration, which is a further development of the Arno scheme (Denil and Todini 1992) used in ECHAM5.

2.2 Robustness of projected changes

In our study we focus on the 2 m temperature and the components of the hydrological cycle in a control period (1961–1990) representing current climate, and in a future period (2071–2100) representing a possible climate in the end of the twenty-first century. In order to consider projected future changes, we will compare the ensemble means of the three scenarios for this future period to the ensemble mean of the control period. In order to consider the robustness of the climate change signal, we compare the mean change of each scenario to the maximum spread within all scenarios and within the control simulation, which is taken to represent the natural climate variability.

In the following, we give a more detailed description of this method, which is also schematically shown in Fig. 1. For a given variable P we first calculated the 30-year average for each month over the chosen period. This was done for each climate simulation. Then, these climatological averages were interpolated from the climate model grid to a regular 0.5° grid where they were integrated over different large European catchment areas. The catchment areas were taken from a modified 0.5° catchment dataset of Hagemann and Dürenil (1998). For each of the ensembles X (Control = C20, Scenarios = B1, A1B, A2), an ensemble mean $\mu_{P, X}$ and a standard deviation $\sigma_{P, X}$ could be obtained. For a specific scenario, the projected change ΔP_F of a hydrological variable is defined relative to the mean $\mu_{P, C20}$ of the control period $\Delta P_F = (\mu_{P, F} - \mu_{P, C20}) / \mu_{P, C20}$. The natural climate variability is supposed to be represented by the maximum spread within each of the scenarios and within the control simulation. It is also defined relative to the corresponding mean of the control period: $S = \text{Max}(\sigma_{P, C20}, \sigma_{P, B1}, \sigma_{P, A1B}, \sigma_{P, A2}) / \mu_{P, C20}$. A projected change ΔP_F is considered as robust if $\Delta P_F > S$, i.e. the robustness $r = \Delta P_F / S > 1$. Thus, no robust signal means that the projected change is within the noise of natural climate variability. For the temperature only the absolute changes and spreads are considered: $\Delta T_F = (\mu_{T, F} - \mu_{T, C20})$ and $S = \text{Max}(\sigma_{T, C20}, \sigma_{T, B1}, \sigma_{T, A1B}, \sigma_{T, A2})$.

Note that the chosen definition of r is somewhat limited. Ideally, a large ensemble (e.g. 10) would be desirable for the control period and for each of the scenarios. However, due to the very large requirements in computing time, it was impossible to achieve such a large number of climate model simulations. A standard deviation estimated from a sample of three members is of course a poor estimator. But on the one hand the standard deviation is calculated from 30-year averages. On the other hand the overestimation of the true natural variability (or spread) by one three-member standard deviation has the same probability as an underestimation. Hence, we choose the maximum standard deviation S out of four three-member ensembles as a

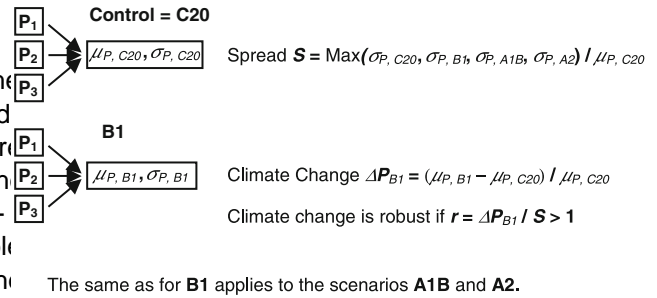


Fig. 1 Schematic description of the method to define a robust climate change signal in the variable P . (Note that for the temperature only the absolute changes and spreads are considered, i.e. no division by the control mean.) The spread S is calculated from the control and the A1B scenario simulations.]

critical measure, which very likely causes an overestimation of the true spread. Thus, a “robust” signal ($r > 1$) yielded by the method described above is also very likely robust. Although the spread for the RCM is only based on two three-member ensembles it shows a similar behaviour as the GCM spread, which also gives some confidence in the robustness criteria for the RCM signals.

2.3 Study areas

As mentioned above, in order to investigate the robustness of projected changes in the hydrological cycle, several large European catchments are considered (Fig. 2). Only the Baltic Sea catchment (about 1.8 Million km² land points only are considered in the following if not stated otherwise) representing a maritime climate since it is water-dominated by advection from the ocean and from the Baltic Sea, the Danube catchment (about 800,000 km²) representing a continental climate as it is land-dominated by advection from the surrounding land areas, and the Rhine catchment (about 160,000 km²) that is located in a transition zone of both climates. The latter is also largely influenced by Alpine snow processes and climate. All catchments were

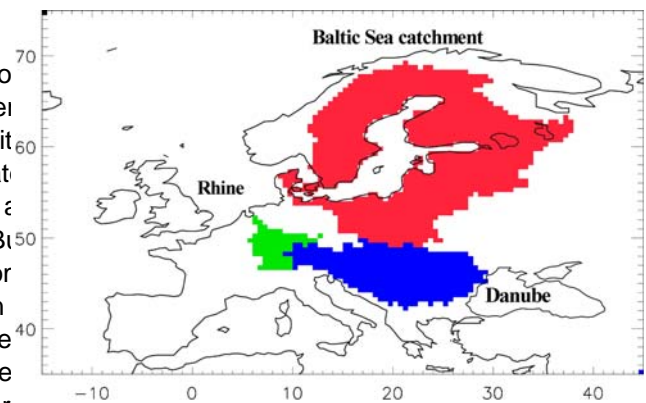


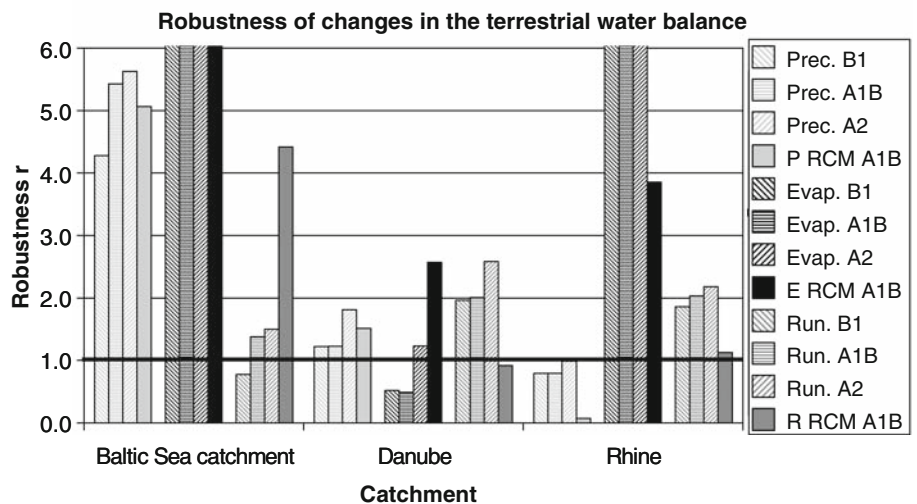
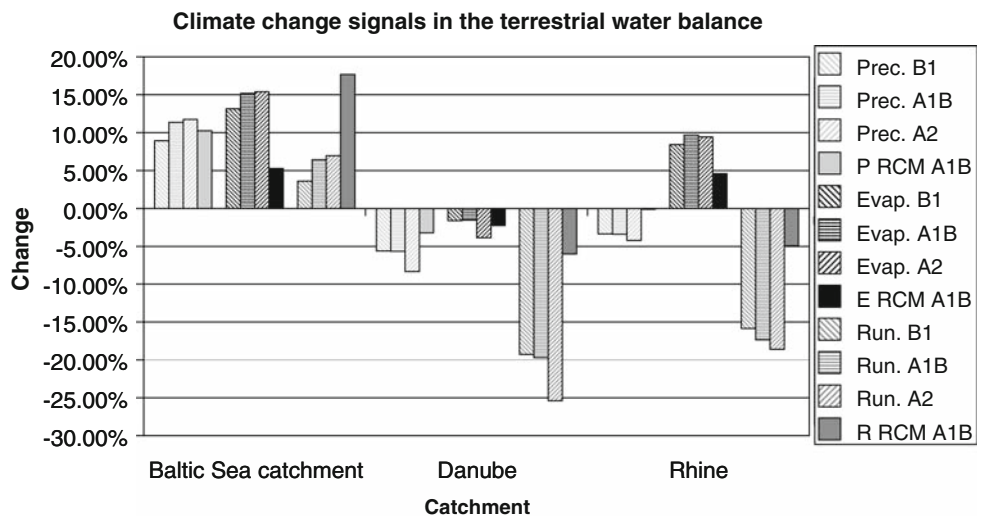
Fig. 2 Large European river catchments at 0.5° resolution

also considered in previous hydrological studies focusing on model evaluation of the atmospheric GCM ECHAM5 (Hagemann et al. 2006), and of several RCMs including B1, A1B, A2; RCM: A1B). While the upper panel shows REMO in the European MERCURE project (Hagemann et al. 2004) as well as in several studies within the PRUDENCE project (e.g. Graham et al. 2007, Hagemann and Jacob 2007, Hirschi et al. 2007, Van den Hurk et al. 2005). Since the climate change results of the MPI-M models for the Elbe catchment (about 145,000 km²) are very similar to the Rhine catchment, the Elbe is not considered in this study.

3 Annual signals

Figure 3 summarizes the projected annual ensemble mean changes between the two 30-years periods (cf. Section 2.2) of these changes whereas a change is considered as robust if $r > 1$. For the Baltic Sea catchment, both GCM and RCM show robust increases in precipitation, evapotranspiration and runoff pointing to a general enhancement of the hydrological cycle in this region. Remarkably the RCM's projected increase in evapotranspiration is much lower than those projected for the different scenarios by the GCM (see Section 5.1 for a more detailed discussion), which leads to a much stronger increase in runoff projected by the RCM. For the GCM, the projected increases in runoff are robust only for A1B and A2, even though the projected change is close to the spread. For the Danube, the GCM projects a robust decrease in precipitation and runoff for all scenarios, whereas the latter is not

Fig. 3 Climate change signals (upper panel) and their robustness (lower panel) of the terrestrial water balance (Prec. Precipitation, E, Evap. evapotranspiration, R, Run. Runoff) for 2071–2100 compared to 1961–1990. P, E and R RCM denote the changes yielded by the RCM REMO. All other changes are obtained by the GCM ECHAM5/MPIOM. A signal is considered as robust if $r > 1$



robust in the RCM's A1B scenario. The RCM instead shows a robust decrease in evapotranspiration although the signal is relatively small. For the Rhine, there is a robust season with maximum temperature increase. Here, the increase in evapotranspiration that is lower in the RCM A1B scenario than in the GCM scenarios. Similar to the Danube catchment, the GCM projects a robust runoff decrease that in contrary to the Danube is also robust in the RCM's A1B scenario although the RCM signal is comparatively small compared to the GCM. Differences in the results for the Danube and the Rhine catchments will also be discussed in Sect. 5.2.

The examination of the annual mean changes suggests that differences in the projected evapotranspiration changes between the GCM and RCM lead to differences in the projected runoff changes and their robustness. Although for some variables in some catchments no robust climate change signals are yielded, there might be seasonal varying robust changes as will be shown in Sect. 5.2.

4 Monthly signals

Figure 4 shows that the monthly climate change signals of 2 m temperature are fairly robust for all months and all time periods, whereas the projected decrease in precipitation is much more pronounced in the GCM than in the RCM. This temperature increase is projected for the winter while a maximum increase in the summer is shown for the Danube catchment projected by the GCM.

Fig. 4 Monthly mean temperature changes (2071–2100 compared to 1961–1990) over the Baltic Sea (upper panels) and Danube catchments (lower panels) as projected by the GCM ECHAM5/MPIOM (left panels) and the RCM REMO (right panels). Max Std denotes the maximum spread for the corresponding ensembles

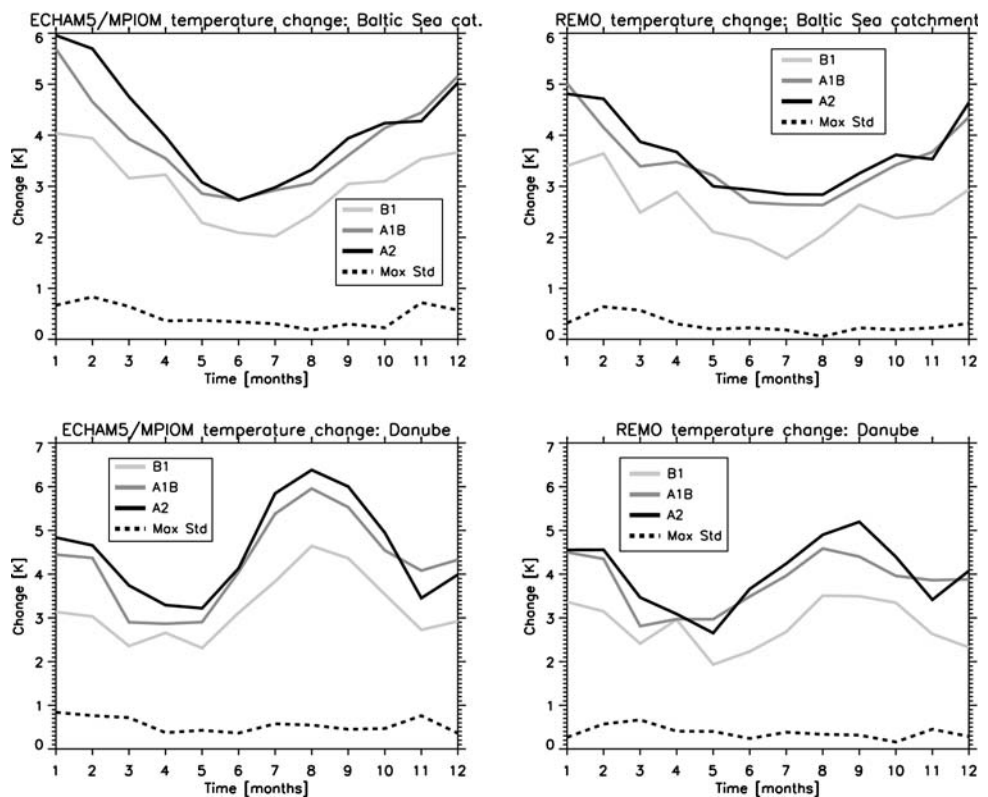
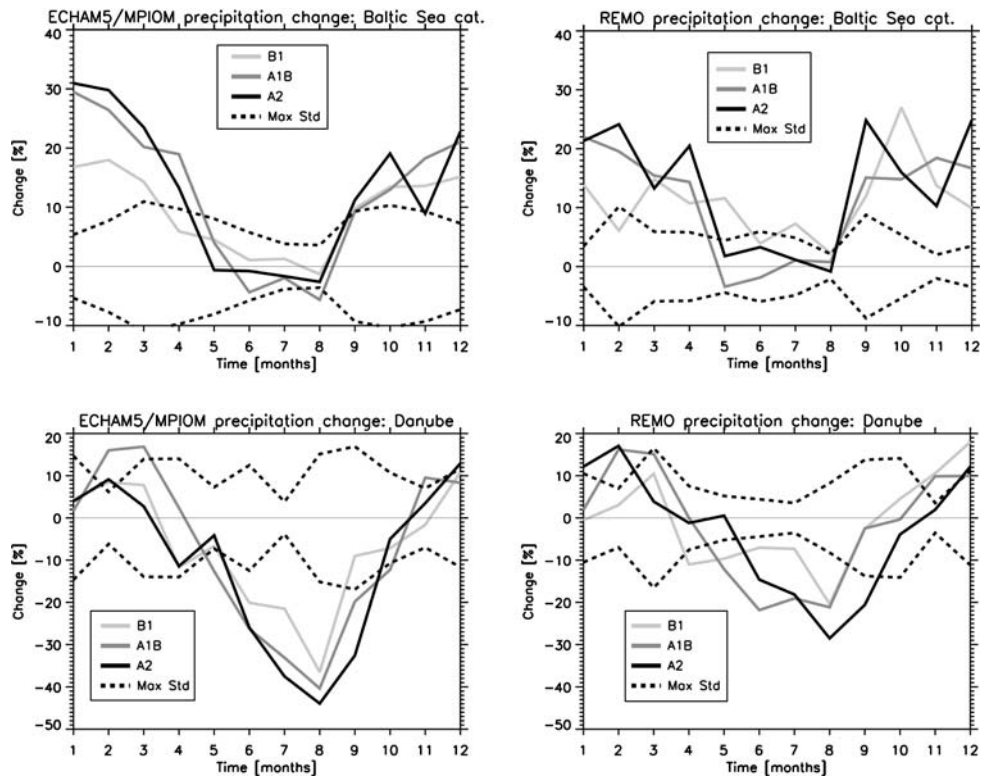


Fig. 5 Monthly mean precipitation changes (2071–2100 compared to 1961–1990) over the Baltic Sea (upper panels) and Danube catchments (lower panels) as projected by the GCM ECHAM5/MPIOM (left panels) and the RCM REMO (right panels). Max Std denotes the maximum spread for the corresponding ensembles

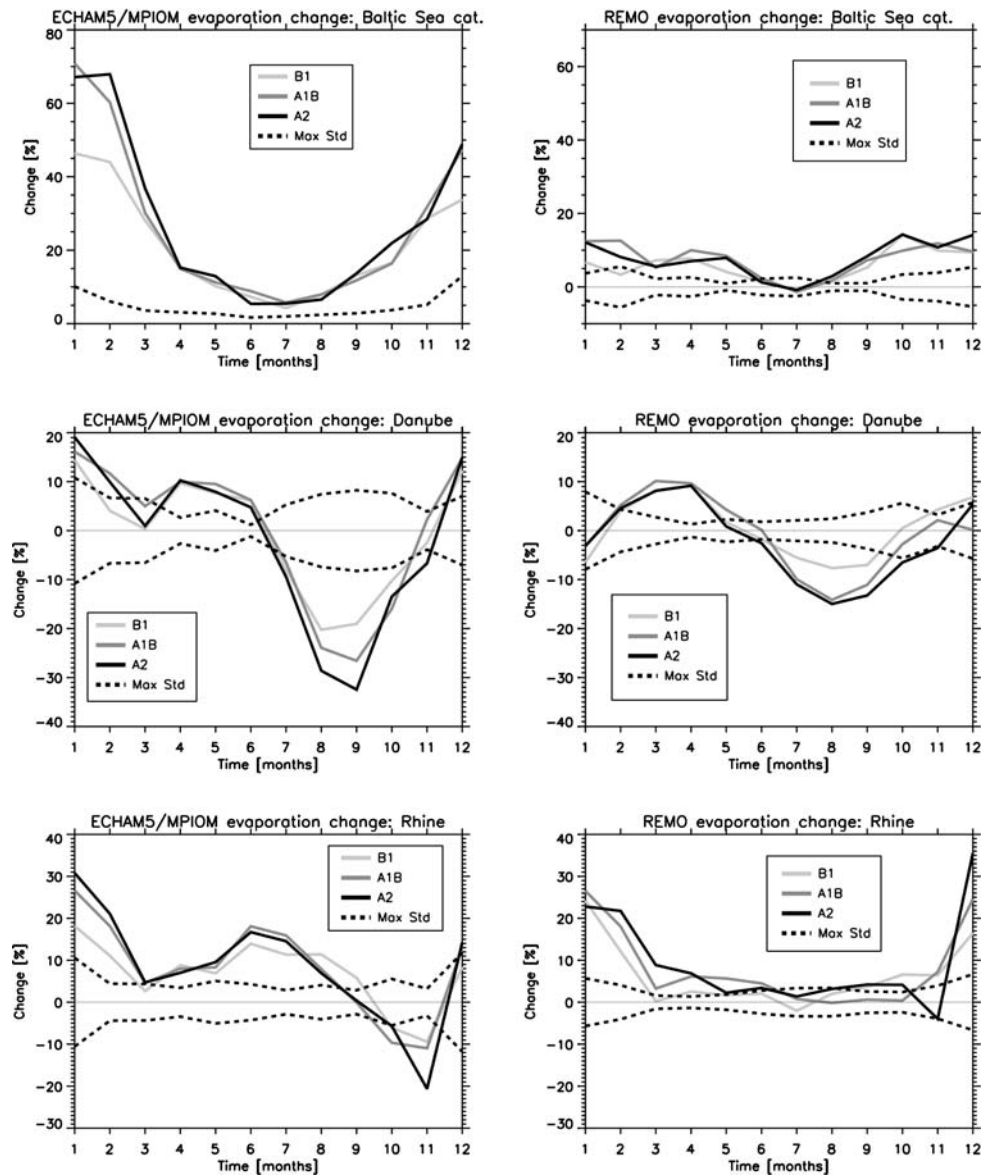


For the Baltic Sea catchment, both GCM and RCM show robust increases in evapotranspiration (Fig. 6) throughout the year except for the summer in the RCM. But the relative increase in evapotranspiration is much stronger in the GCM, especially during winter time. This is in agreement with its projected stronger reduction in precipitation (Fig. 5). In addition, the GCM projects robust increases of evapotranspiration during the winter and spring, whereas the spring increases are relatively small over the Danube catchment. The RCM projects a much smaller reduction that is robust from May to October for increase also in the summer and a decrease in the late summer and autumn. As for the Danube, the latter is clearly related to the drying of the region induced by the strong reduction in summer time precipitation. But different to the Danube, the single realizations of B1 and A2, again indicates this reduction in evapotranspiration occurs much later in the year for the GCM and the RCM projects no reduction at all, although the projected reduction in precipitation is very similar in both catchments. This indicates

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Fig. 6 Monthly mean evapotranspiration changes (2071–2100 compared to 1961–1990) over the Baltic Sea (upper panels), Danube (middle panels) and Rhine catchments (lower panels) as projected by the GCM ECHAM5/MPIOM (left panels) and the RCM REMO (right panels). Max Std denotes the maximum spread for the corresponding ensembles



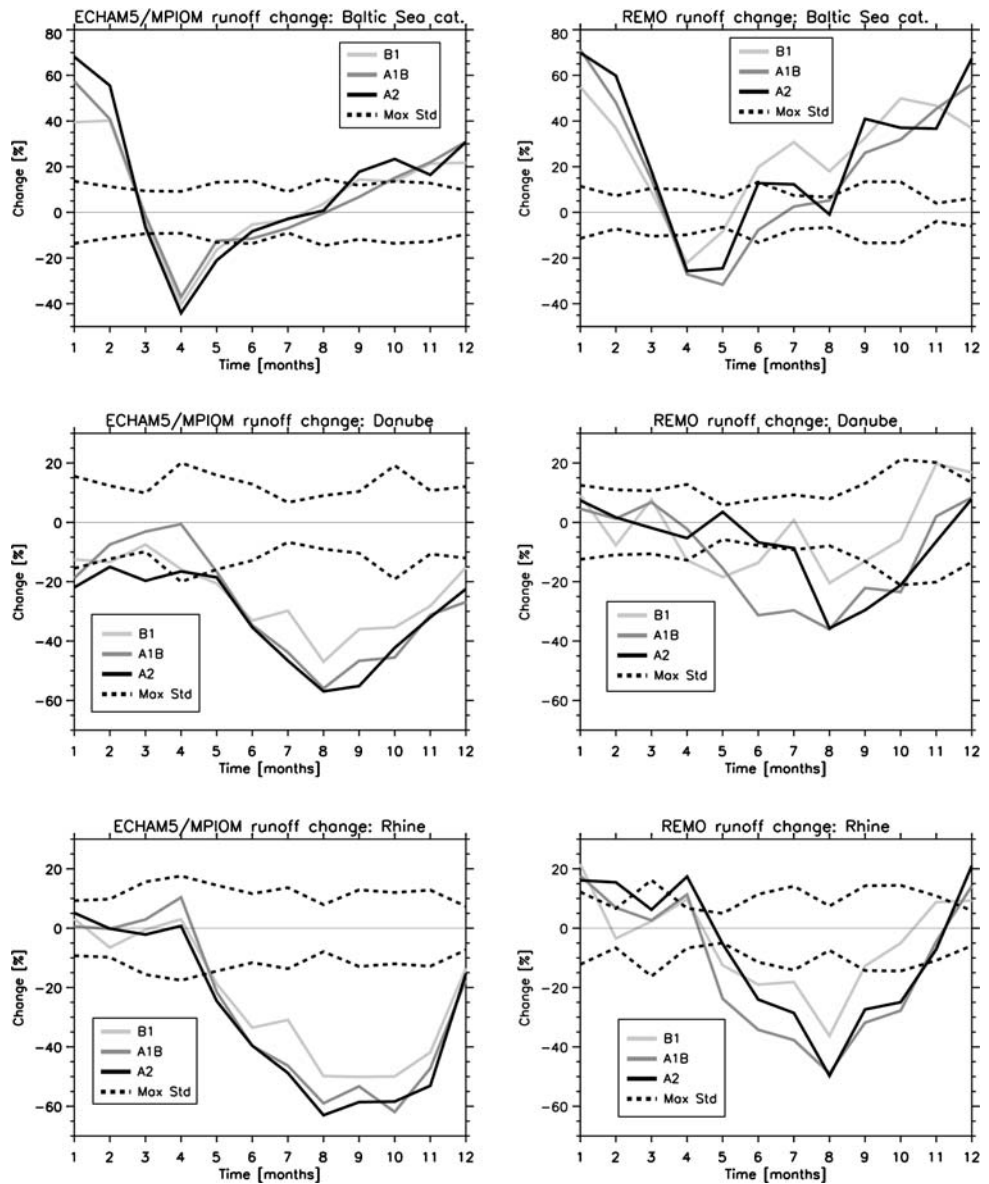
Sect. 5.2 It can be noted (see also Fig. 7) that for both the Baltic Sea catchment, especially during winter time. GCM and RCM, the projected runoff decreases are stronger for the Rhine than for the Danube. Albeit the RCM compared to +11% in the winter is also stronger in result is consistent to the REMO results obtained in the absolute amounts (+4,000³m³s compared to +1,200³m³s), PRUDENCE project (cf. Sect. 1), it noticeably differs from which is consistent with the about 1 K higher projected the reduction in runoff projected by the PRUDENCE warming in the A1B scenario of the GCM compared to the multi-model ensemble mean, which is stronger for the RCM. This different behaviour will be discussed and Danube than for the Rhine (Hagemann and Jaeger, 2007). analysed in more detail in the following.

5 Discussion

5.1 Baltic Sea catchment

As shown in Sect. 4, the GCM projects a much stronger warm water (note that the RCM uses the SST of the Baltic relative increase in evapotranspiration than the RCM over Sea surface that was simulated by the GCM), and thus of

Fig. 7 Monthly mean runoff changes (2071–2100 compared to 1961–1990) over the Baltic Sea (upper panels), Danube (middle panels) and Rhine catchments (lower panels) as projected by the GCM ECHAM5/MPIOM (left panels) and the RCM REMO (right panels). Max Std denotes the maximum spread for the corresponding ensembles



the moistening of the atmosphere from the Baltic Sea instead the strongest evaporation increase is shown over land. Consequently, the moisture transport from the water to the land in the downstream area of the prevailing winter time land is more realistic, thereby causing less water demand at atmospheric westerly circulation. the atmosphere over land. Therefore a smaller increase of The simulated snow pack does not contribute significantly to the difference between GCM and RCM. The robust increase in runoff due to the projected increase in overall amount for current climate (1961–1990; Fig. 8) agrees quite well between the GCM and the RCM. However,

This explanation certainly holds for most parts of the year, since the melting season starts slightly later in the year, but in the winter evapotranspiration amounts are comparatively low, which puts a challenge to the explanation. However, our explanation is supported by Fig. 9, showing a strong increase in evaporation projected by the RCM only over the Baltic Sea water surface, whereas the similar reduction in the snow pack. Also the horizontal evaporation increase over the Baltic Sea catchment land area is much lower. The GCM projects a comparatively lower increase over the water surface than the RCM, and horizontal structures due to the higher RCM resolution and

Fig. 8 Monthly ensemble means of (a) evapotranspiration, (b) snow pack, (c) cloud cover, and (d) column integrated cloud water over the Baltic Sea catchment for the GCM's and RCM's control climate (C20, 1961–1990 *solid lines*) and A1B scenario simulations (2071–2100 *dashed lines*)

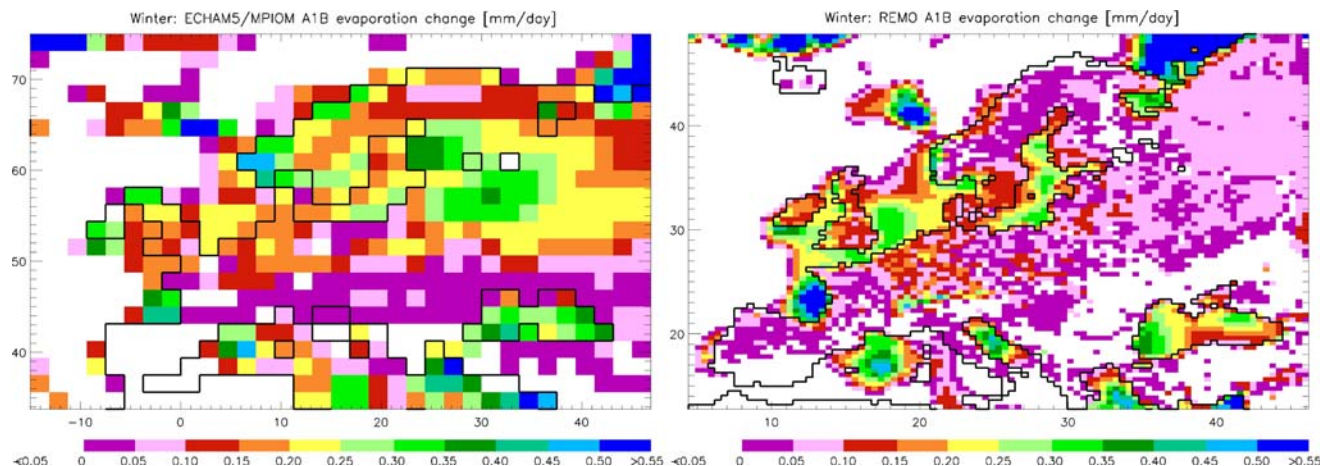
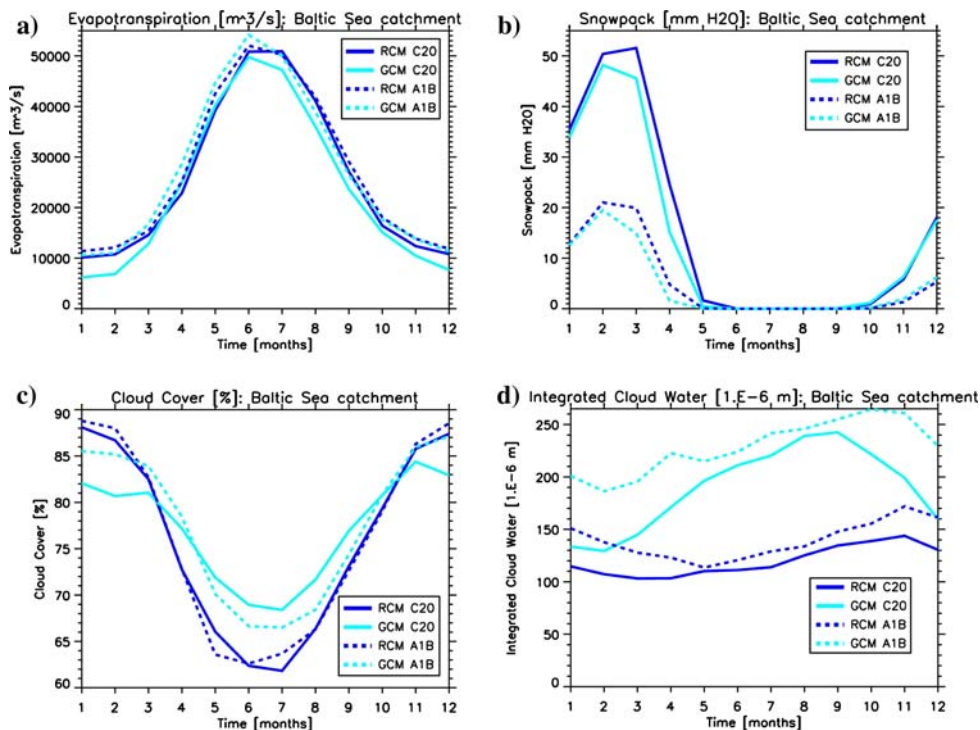


Fig. 9 A1B ensemble mean changes (2071–2100 compared to 1961as ECHAM5 uses a regular Gaussian lat/lon grid while REMO uses a 1990) of evapotranspiration in the winter (DJF) as simulated by the rotated lat/lon grid. Thus, the axis tick marks on the panel denote GCM ECHAM5/MPIOM (left panel) and the RCM REMO (right panel) geographical coordinates while the axis tick marks on the panel denote the grid box number (index) within the rotated REMO grid

the tendency to somewhat larger snow amounts simulated by the RCM (not shown). The GCM projects a strong increase in evapotranspiration in the winter (DJF) as simulated by the rotated lat/lon grid. This leads to a moister atmosphere on larger scales.

Considerable differences between the GCM and RCM therefore, more clouds are formed which lead to a larger warming induced by the enhanced downwelling long wave content (Fig.8d). The RCM projects almost no change in increased cloud cover on temperature in the winter is the the total cloud cover except for a slight increase in the night time warming. In the summer less cloud cover winter. Here, the GCM projects a strong increase in the enhances the warming of the surface. But for the GCM this winter and a clear reduction during summer time. In the effect is very likely compensated by the stronger cooling winter, this is fairly consistent with the stronger increase induced to the larger increases in the GCM's summer time

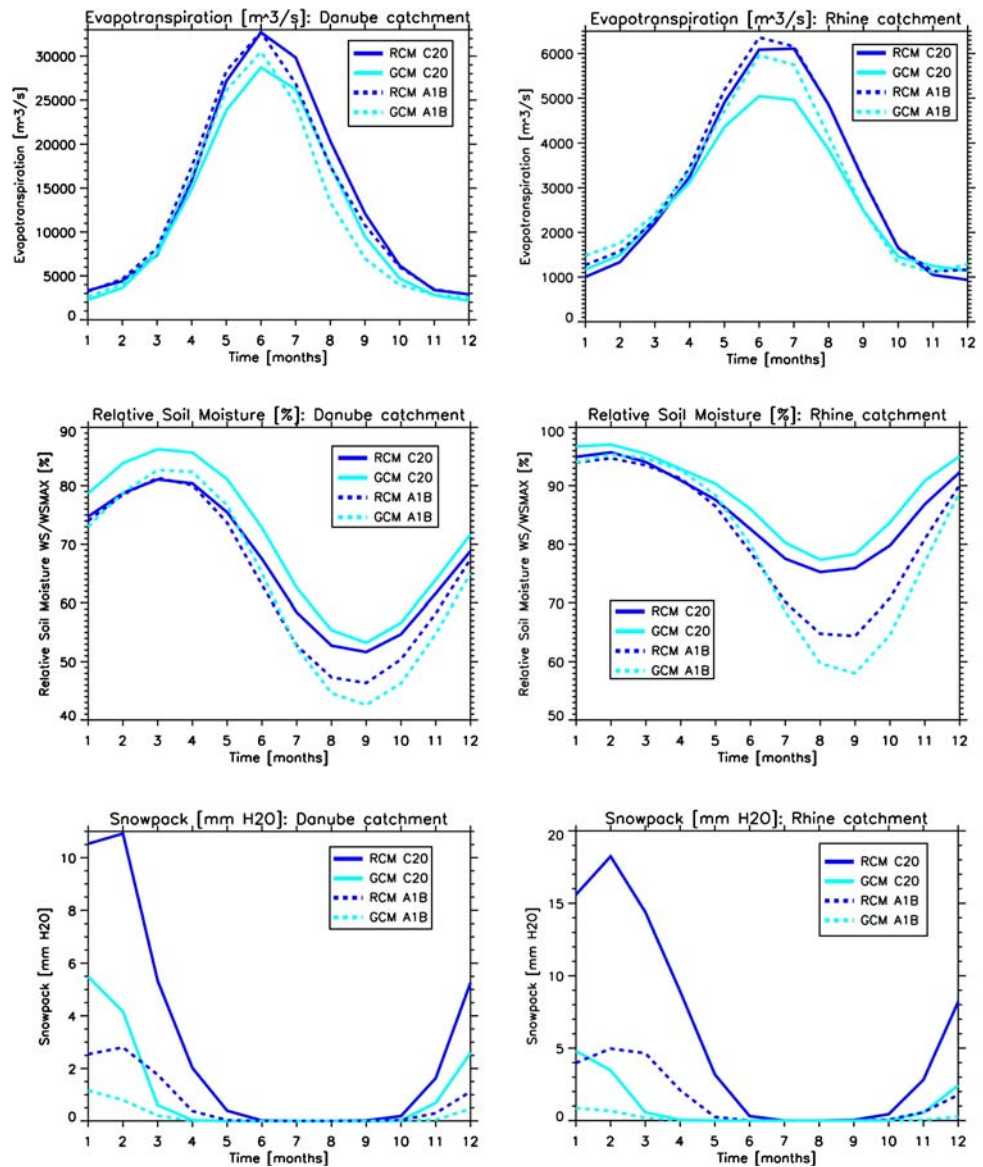
evaporation (Fig. 6, 8a) so that no significant difference in less evaporative cooling of the surface and, hence, an enhanced warming. Note that for the Rhine catchment, despite of the GCM and the RCM (cf. Fig. 4). For ICW (Fig. 8d), the RCM projects a general increase stronger projected drying, the GCM soil in the A1B scenario is wetter than the RCM soil in the first half of the year the winter time increase projected by the GCM is much (see below). This explains why the projected increase in stronger. Also the simulated mean annual cycle difference evapotranspiration is extended to the end of summer by the largely between the RCM and the GCM, which is a consequence of the different cloud physics used in the two models. Whether the use of this different cloud physics catchment than over the Danube catchment. This is related to the fact that the current mean state of the soil is generally also to differences in future changes is a subject of further studies that are beyond the scope of the present paper. and RCM control period, respectively) than in the Danube catchment (70.9 and 67.1%), thereby leading to a larger GCM and RCM, the RCM domain is large enough to allow buffer capacity of the soil in the Rhine catchment (cf. Sect. 4).

Even though the large scale forcing is the same for the models. Thus, part of the differences in the projected The different behaviour of GCM and RCM is likely to changes between the GCM and RCM can also be explained by the fact that the higher resolution of the RCM by the differences in the projected circulation patterns leads to a better representation of local scale processes the winter (not shown). Here, the projected North–South including soil moisture feedbacks to the atmosphere. pressure gradient over Europe is more pronounced in the Seneviratne et al. (2006) stated that due to the northward GCM than in the RCM, i.e. increasing the high over the shift of climatic regimes in Europe in response to Mediterranean and deepening the low over the North increasing anthropogenic GHG concentrations, a new Atlantic. On the one hand this leads to stronger westerly transitional climate zone between dry and wet climates winds in the GCM and, thus, to an enhanced evapotranspiration. On the other hand, the North Atlantic influence on central and eastern Europe. They also pointed out that Northern Europe is stronger in the GCM projections than inland–atmosphere coupling is significantly affected by global warming and is itself a key player for climate change, masses are transported into the Baltic Sea catchment, thereby highlighting the importance of soil–moisture–temperature feedbacks (in addition to soil–moisture–precipitation feedbacks) for future climate changes over this region. Van den Hurk et al. (2005) stated that in many GCM may also partially be induced by the better resolved cases models overemphasize the positive land–atmosphere feedback that leads to a dry soil, strong evaporation stress and reduced precipitation, which poses severe problems in the interpretation of hydrological aspects of climate change in future GHG emission scenarios. In this respect, the so called “summer drying problem” (the too dry and too warm simulation of the summertime climate over central and eastern Europe) is often reported for many GCMs and Fig. 10 shows for the Danube catchment, the future RCMs. Hagemann et al. (2004) considered this problem warming leads to an increase in evapotranspiration (upper panels) in the spring and the early summer. This additionally dries the soil (middle panels), so that in the late summer and autumn the evaporative demand of the atmosphere cannot be fulfilled, which leads to a projected reduction of evapotranspiration. As the projected reduction in precipitation is stronger in the GCM than in the RCM, as shown for the Danube by Hagemann et al. (2006). The the drying of the soil is also stronger. Noteworthy is that problem is much less pronounced in the RCM, which even although the mean soil moisture in the current climate shows some overestimation of summer rainfall over the larger in the GCM, based on the A1B scenario it is pro-Rhine catchment. Within PRUDENCE, results of Hagemann and Jacob (2007) indicated that the use of RCMs can reduce reduction in evapotranspiration is also stronger, leading to overcome problems that a driving GCM might have with

5.2 Danube and Rhine

As shown in Sect. 4, the GCM projects a much stronger drying and about a 1 K higher warming than the RCM over the Danube and Rhine catchments during the summer. Figure 10 shows for the Danube catchment, the future RCMs. Hagemann et al. (2004) considered this problem warming leads to an increase in evapotranspiration (upper panels) in the spring and the early summer. This additionally dries the soil (middle panels), so that in the late summer and autumn the evaporative demand of the atmosphere cannot be fulfilled, which leads to a projected reduction of evapotranspiration. As the projected reduction in precipitation is stronger in the GCM than in the RCM, as shown for the Danube by Hagemann et al. (2006). The the drying of the soil is also stronger. Noteworthy is that problem is much less pronounced in the RCM, which even although the mean soil moisture in the current climate shows some overestimation of summer rainfall over the larger in the GCM, based on the A1B scenario it is pro-Rhine catchment. Within PRUDENCE, results of Hagemann and Jacob (2007) indicated that the use of RCMs can reduce reduction in evapotranspiration is also stronger, leading to overcome problems that a driving GCM might have with

Fig. 10 Monthly ensemble means of evapotranspiration (upper panels), relative soil moisture (middle panels) and accumulated snowpack (lower panels) over the Danube (left panels) and Rhine (right panels) catchments for the GCM's and RCM's control climate (C20, 1961–1990, solid lines) and A1B scenario simulations (2071–2100, dashed lines). The relative soil moisture is defined as the soil moisture content divided by the field capacity, which is the maximum soil water holding capacity in the land surface schemes of ECHAM5 and REMO



the representation of local scale processes or parameter resolution the RCM better resolves the fine scale orographic structures in the Alps so that a larger amount of an improved simulation of soil moisture feedbacks to the high and, thus, cold grid boxes is included in the Alpine atmosphere, which in turn leads to the lower projected regional warming. This is not the case for the coarse GCM orography. Therefore the RCM has probably a considerable amount of snow cover over the Alps during November–April, which

It was mentioned above that in the Rhine catchment this is about six times larger than in the GCM for the current GCM soil in the A1B scenario is wetter than the RCM soil climate and largely reduced in the A1B scenario (Fig. 10, middle panels). Consequently a substantial part of the stronger drying during the summer and in the annual mean increased RCM precipitation is stored in the snow pack and From November to April comparable increases in precipitation (11.8 and 15%) and evaporation (9 and 11.1%) are accompanied by large runoff generation, as large snow projected by the GCM and the RCM. But the projected melt fluxes occur during a relatively short time. In the changes in runoff (−8.5 and +8.6%) differ, which means GCM, most parts of the increased precipitation enter the that more water is infiltrated into the soil in the GCM surface runoff / infiltration process more evenly distributed (+363%) than in the RCM (+113%). Due to its longer residence time so that usually infiltration prevails, which moistens

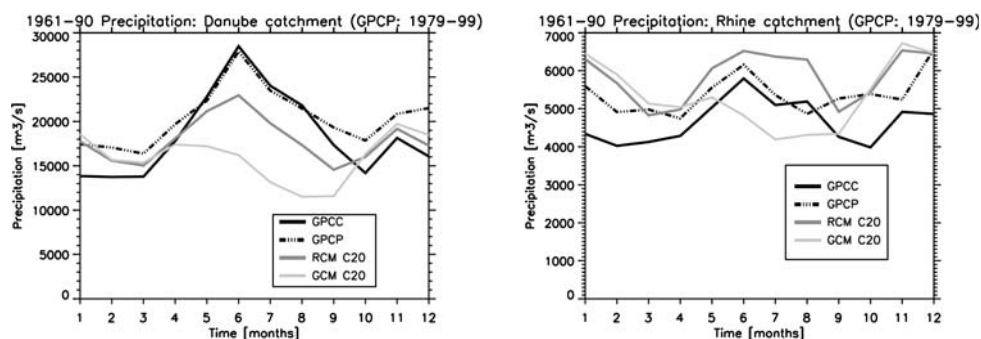


Fig. 11 Observed and simulated monthly ensemble mean precipitation (GPCP; Huffman et al. 1997) at 2.5 resolution (corrected but where it is known that this correction is too large (Rudolf and Rubel 2005)). Since GPCP data were not available for the control climate, Global Precipitation Climatology Centre (GPCC; Fuchs et al. 2007) at the period 1979–1999 was used instead. It was chosen to show both 0.5 resolution (uncorrected for the systematic undercatch of observations to reflect the uncertainty in precipitation datasets measurement gauges), and from the Global Precipitation Climatology

the soil and, hence, leads to a wetter soil than in the RCM balance over the Baltic Sea catchment, an overall robust A1B scenario during the first half of the year. To a less extent this effect can also be seen for the Danube catchment. In addition the different behaviour of the RCM in the Rhine in the GCM. The latter is much smaller in the RCM winter and early spring might also be supported by the and not even robust for the Danube catchment. In addition, better resolved soil moisture capacity structures. pronounced robust seasonal signals were found, even in

If the projected changes in the pressure patterns are considered over the regional domain (not shown) the GCM shows a slightly (less than 0.5 hPa) stronger increase in high pressure systems than the RCM, which might support a somewhat stronger continental increase on the climate over central and south-eastern Europe. This would also further the warming and drying, especially during the summer and autumn. As mentioned in Sect. 1, the RCM domain is large enough to allow for differences in runoff dynamical quantities between the GCM and the RCM. Thus, the stronger warming in the GCM may also have caused the small differences in the pressure patterns between both models.

6 Summary and conclusions

In the present study, we have analysed the robustness of the climate change signal in the hydrological cycle over the large European catchments of Baltic Sea (land only), Danube and Rhine. The projected climate changes were obtained from an ensemble of coupled atmosphere-ocean simulations using the GCM ECHAM5/MPIOM and GCM REMO. In this respect, a robust climate change signal was defined as a projected change (2071–2100 compared to 1961–90) that is larger than the spread representing the natural climate variability in these models.

The analysis of the annual mean changes yielded a robust increase in all components of the terrestrial water

climate and hence a more credible climate change projection. This is even along the lines of thoughts provided in the IPCC AR4 global and regional climate change chapters (IPCC 2007). Over the Baltic Sea catchment, the RCM has an improved representation of the land sea contrast, and, hence, improved related moisture transport processes between water and land areas. Over the Danube and Rhine catchments, the better distribution of soil moisture leads to an improved representation of soil moisture feedbacks to the atmosphere.

How RCM projections behave, when different scenarios and different GCM forcing are used, is currently being investigated within the EU project ENSEMBLES that started in September 2004. Here, a main issue is to determine whether the use of several RCMs with different GCM forcings actually results in more condense in the overall results. The hydrological analyses conducted in the present study and in PRUDENCE (e.g., by Hagemann and Jacob 2007) will be continued within the EU project WATCH. Here, different GCM and RCM simulations (ideally if forced by different GCMs) from the ENSEMBLES project shall be analysed in a similar way. These analyses will provide useful background for studies on uncertainties in the hydrological cycle and its future changes, especially if hydrological models are forced with climate model input, such as it is planned in the WATCH project.

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