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Assessment of climate change impacts on soil water balance and aquifer recharge in a semiarid region in south east Spain

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1 **Assessment of climate change impacts on soil water balance and aquifer**
2 **recharge in a semiarid region in south east Spain**

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28

29 **Abstract**

30

31 Climate change forecasts in a semiarid region are of much interest to academics, managers
32 and governments. A significant decrease in annual precipitation and an increase in mean
33 annual air temperature are expected; consequently, changes in the soil water balance and
34 groundwater recharge to aquifers are expected as a response to climate change forecasts. In
35 this context, our study aimed to assess the impact of climate changes on the soil water balance
36 and natural groundwater recharge in a semiarid area (Ventós-Castellar aquifer, SE, Spain). To
37 this end, we selected Global Climate Model HadCM3 after comparing it with two other
38 models (ECHAM4 and CGCM2). The HadCM3 model climate data (air temperature and
39 precipitation in two emission scenarios: A2-high and B2-low; 2011-2099) were coupled to a
40 HYDROBAL hydrological model to determine the soil water balance. The HYDROBAL
41 model results showed that climate change will have a significant impact on the soil water
42 balance in the study area, especially on groundwater recharge during the latter period. In both
43 the A2-high and B2-low scenarios, the selected years to run the HYDROBAL model showed
44 a decrease in water balance components (Precipitation, actual evapotranspiration, aquifer
45 recharge and runoff) in relation to the baseline period (1961-1990). Over the projected period
46 (2011-2099), we expect fewer rainfall events (>15 mm), which promote aquifer recharge,
47 longer dry summer seasons and, consequently, reduced average annual recharge that ranged
48 from 3-17%; 10-49 mm, if compared to the baseline period. The methodology developed in
49 the present study can be beneficial for assessing the impact of predicted climate change on
50 groundwater recharge, and can help managers and planners to devise strategies for the
51 efficient use and conservation of freshwater resources.

52

53 **Keywords:** Climate change, soil water balance, aquifer recharge, HYDROBAL model,
54 semiarid region

55

62 1. Introduction

63

64 Global climate change will have a strong impact on the hydrological cycle and, therefore, on
65 water resources in many regions of the world, which is the general agreement reached by
66 academics and governments (Kundzewick, and Somlyódy, 1997; Allen and Ingram, 2002;
67 Huntington, 2006; Wilby et al., 2006; IPCC, 2007, 2013). Groundwater is an essential
68 component of the hydrological cycle that could be seriously affected. Variability in annual
69 precipitation is expected to have direct consequences on groundwater resources (Green et al.,
70 2011; Jyrkama and Sykesa, 2007; Dragoni and Sukhija, 2008; Kundzewicz and Döll, 2009).
71 However, it is hard to establish global potential effects because the relation between climate
72 compounds and groundwater is a rather complex one. For this reason, advancing further in
73 our understanding of the impact of climate change is necessary because, on a global scale, one
74 third of the world population depends on groundwater, especially in semiarid areas.
75 Therefore, groundwater resources may be relatively robust in response to changes in driving
76 climate variables under climate change if compared with surface water given the buffering
77 effect of groundwater storage. Hence the role of groundwater in water resources management
78 is particularly beneficial because it can be used to support public water supply projects and to
79 study ecosystem services during the drought periods expected in future climate change
80 scenarios. Groundwater resources will depend on changes in the volume and distribution
81 (spatial and temporal) of natural recharge.

82

83 The latest Assessment Reports of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC,
84 2007, 2013) state that the mean air temperature on the global surface has increased by
85 $0.6\pm 0.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ since 1861, and predicts an increase of $2\text{-}4^{\circ}\text{C}$ in the next 100 years. More frequent
86 intense and extreme weather events (including drought and flooding) are also expected. Based

87 on the IPCC (2007, 2013) predictions, annual air temperatures will show a warming rate of
88 between 0.1 and 0.4°C per decade, but this impact could be particularly severe in south
89 European countries like Spain (Giorgi et al., 2004; Alcamo et al., 2007). The warming pattern
90 shows a strong south-to-north gradient, especially in summer, which indicates a warming rate
91 across southern regions of between 0.2 and 0.6°C per decade. For annual precipitation, trends
92 in Europe for the 1900-2000 period have shown a contrasting picture between northern
93 Europe (10-40% wetter) and southern Europe (up to 20% drier). In most European countries,
94 these changes are more marked in winter. Annual precipitation predictions in northern Europe
95 indicate an increase from 1-2% per decade, with a decrease of up to 1% per decade (and even
96 up to 5% in summer) in southern Europe. The frequency and duration of very wet periods
97 have significantly decreased in many regions in recent decades (Hiscock et al., 2012). These
98 general simulations have been specified for Spain, where an increase in the mean annual
99 temperature of 2.5°C and a decrease in annual rainfall ranging from 2% in northern basins to
100 17% in southern basins are expected. These predictions of climate change in south Europe,
101 particularly in SE Spain, will have a considerable impact on agriculture and water resources,
102 especially on the natural groundwater recharge of aquifers (Ayala-Carcedo and Iglesias, 2000;
103 CEDEX, 2012).

104

105 Quantifying the impact of climate change on groundwater resources requires both reliable
106 climate change forecasting and accurate groundwater recharge estimations (Maxwell and
107 Kollet, 2008). Hydrological models can be combined with climate scenarios generated from
108 downscaling Global Climate Models (GCMs) to produce potential scenarios of climate
109 change effects on groundwater resources on the local scale. The IPCC gives a set of GCMs
110 (e.g., HadCM3 from the UK, ECHAM 4 from Germany, and CGCM2 from Canada) with a
111 well standardised group of scenarios (e.g., A1B, A2, B1, B2, etc.) for climate impact studies.

112

113 In the last decade, a growing number of case studies has been generated in an attempt to
114 quantify the likely direct impacts on groundwater (Scanlon et al., 2006; Hendricks Franssen,
115 2009; Green et al., 2011; Herrera-Pantoja and Hiscock, 2008; Viviroli et al., 2011; Stoll et al.,
116 2011; Thampi and Raneesh, 2012; Ali et al., 2012). Thus many of these studies have
117 predicted decrease in recharge values over the 21st century. However, other studies predict an
118 increase in aquifer recharge under certain conditions and periods (Döll, 2009; Gurdak and
119 Roe 2010). Mediterranean region shows a high vulnerability to changes on meteorological
120 variables such as temperature or rainfall. Otherwise, projections indicate an increased
121 likelihood of droughts (Iglesias et al, 2007). Many climate change studies have consistently
122 predicted a reduction in groundwater recharge (Manzano et al., 1998; Younger et al., 2002;
123 Bates et al., 2008; Döll, 2009; Aguilera and Murillo, 2009; Guardiola-Albert and Jackson,
124 2011; Hiscock et al., 2012; Pulido-Velazquez et al., 2014). However, more studies about these
125 changes are needed, especially in arid and semiarid Mediterranean area, where water resource
126 availability is very reduced.

127

128 Therefore, we carried out this study to assess the impact of climate change on the soil water
129 balance and natural groundwater recharge in a small aquifer in a semiarid area (SE, Spain).
130 This well known karstic aquifer can be considered as well representative of the kind of
131 aquifers in this region. Temperature and precipitation data from a selected GCM, previously
132 downscaled by AEMet (2009), were coupled to the HYDROBAL hydrological model, which
133 has been previously tested in this semiarid area with good results (Bellot and Chirino, 2013;
134 Touhami et al., 2013, 2014). Impact on groundwater recharge was assessed for two emission
135 IPCC scenarios: A2-high and B2-low. This work attempts to make up for the lack of such
136 studies in semiarid ecosystems.

137

138 **2. Study area**

139

140 The study area (Figure 1) is a small aquifer called Ventós-Castellar located in the
141 Municipality of Agost in the province of Alicante in SE Spain (38° 28'N, 0° 37'W). Altitude
142 ranges from 300 to 840 m a.s.l. Slopes vary between 25-30% and are mainly south-facing.
143 The Ventós-Castellar aquifer consists chiefly of 80-120-metre-thick fractured Cenomanian
144 limestones, bound at the base by Albiense marls, while there are Upper Cretaceous limestones
145 and marls at the top. The geological structure is characterised by a synclinal with its main axis
146 tilted to the southwest. On the southern and eastern aquifer borders, Albiense marls outcrop,
147 while faults come into contact with impermeable (Cretaceous and Tertiary) marls on its north
148 and western borders. The aquifer is completely isolated from other aquifer formations.
149 Aquifer recharge takes place through the direct infiltration of rainwater, while natural
150 discharges are produced mainly through the Agost spring located on the southern border of
151 the carbonate outcrops. Nowadays this spring is dry and is solely exploited for urban supply
152 to the town of Agost. Despite pumping not being excess ($< 189.000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ yr}^{-1}$), the hydrological
153 balance of the system has been severely altered; consequently, the water table has dropped
154 more than 70 m over the last three decades. Short-term changes in groundwater levels suggest
155 that aquifer replenishment responds only to significant rainfall episodes. Thus, automated
156 piezometric records reveal that rises in the water table are observed for a few hours after each
157 storm (Andreu et al., 2010, 2011). The Ventós-Castellar aquifer is optimal for the purpose of
158 this paper for several reasons: it has been under direct observation for the last 30 years; it
159 presents an automatic weather station that takes continuous recordings, and nowadays, it is
160 equipped with two continuous-log piezometers. Hence, long-term climatic data records (daily
161 rainfall, air temperature, atmospheric pressure, wind speed and direction) and water table

162 elevations are readily available. Its small size also allows better monitoring, and it shows a
163 quick response to rainfall events (>15 mm), which provides a better understanding of this
164 aquifer.

165

166 According to the Agost Meteorological Station database (1976-2010 period), this area has a
167 semiarid Mediterranean climate characterised by highly variable rainfall pulses. The mean
168 annual rainfall is 275 mm and the mean annual temperature is 18.5°C. The interannual
169 variability of precipitation is very high. However, the temporal distribution is the main abiotic
170 factor that affects the regeneration of the vegetation cover in the semiarid area. Vegetation
171 cover is sparse. *Stipa tenacissima* L. is the dominant species, followed by *Globularia alypum*
172 L., *Brachypodium retusum* (Pers.), and scattered patches of *Quercus coccifera* L., mixed with
173 reforested *Aleppo* pine (*Pinus halepensis* Miller). Soils are shallow, thinner than 15 cm on
174 average, which have developed over marl and calcareous bedrock, and are classified as Lithic
175 Leptosol (FAO-ISRIC-IUSS, 1998). It has a silt-loam texture (17.7% clay, 50.9% silt, 8.4%
176 fine sand and 23.0% coarse sand), an average bulk density of 1.3 g cm⁻³ and porosity of 58%
177 (Chirino, 2003).

178

179 **3. Methodology**

180

181 *3.1. Climatic data source*

182

183 The climatic data (from 1961 to 2009) were obtained by the Spanish National Meteorological
184 Agency (AEMET) from the meteorological stations closest to the study area. Two weather
185 stations were selected to model the climatic conditions at Ventós-Castellar aquifer, and they
186 hold the longest climate records available for this area. The daily precipitation data from 1961

187 to 2099 were collected from the Agost-Escuela weather station (376 m a.s.l., 38° 26'N; 0°
188 38'W) which is about 1 km southwest of the aquifer. The maximum and minimum temperatures
189 data were obtained from the Novelda weather station (241 m a.s.l., 38° 23'N; 0° 46'W). This
190 weather station is located 15 km southwest of the aquifer. By considering the different
191 altitudes above sea level of the Novelda and the Agost-Escuela weather stations, the
192 maximum and minimum temperatures values were corrected. The corrected factor was
193 0.50°C/100 m a.s.l. for the minimum temperature, and 0.75°C/100 m a.s.l. for the maximum
194 temperature. The temperature and precipitation data during the 1991-2010 period were not
195 considered in this study, because the climate database during this period is not available to the
196 HadCM3 model.

197

198 *3.2. Analysis of climate change forecasts on temporal dynamic of precipitation and air*
199 *temperature toward the end of the 21st century*

200

201 Firstly, in order to select the most representative Global Climate Model (GCM) of the
202 climatic conditions (historical and future data) at the study site, we selected the three most
203 widely used GCMs in the European region from the IPCC Data Distribution Centre: (1) The
204 CGCM2 model represents the second generation coupled Canadian global model (Flato et al.,
205 2000); (2) The HadCM3 model represents the third version of the coupled atmosphere-ocean
206 model presented by Gordon et al. (2000); (3) The ECHAM4 model is based on the prevision
207 model of the European Centre for Medium Range Weather Forecast (ECMWF; Roeckner et
208 al. 1996). For this purpose, we used the AEMet data downscaled within the PRUDENCE and
209 ENSEMBLES projects (AEMet, 2009).

210

211 For the purpose of comparing the performance of the three GCMs (HadCM3, ECHAM4 and
212 CGCM2), we attempted to answer two questions: (1) Are there differences between the data
213 observed at the study site and in databases of the three GCMs? For this purpose, we analysed
214 the database (precipitation, minimum and maximum air temperature) corresponding to the
215 periods 1976-1990 and 1980-1990 respectively. A statistical analysis was done using the
216 multiple pair-wise comparisons of the Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric test (XLSTAT[®], 2014).
217 (2) Do the forecasts of the three GCMs differ very much for the emission scenarios during the
218 future period? For this analysis, we compared the database (precipitation, minimum and
219 maximum air temperature) from the 2011-2099 period of the three GCMs for two emission
220 scenarios: Scenario A2-high projects, high population growth and slow economic and
221 technological development; Scenario B2-low estimates, slower population growth, rapid
222 economic development and places more emphasis on environmental protection. Scenario B2-
223 low shows more concern for environmental and social sustainability if compared to Scenario
224 A2-high. These two selected scenarios cover a wide range of variation, which have been
225 considered sufficiently representative of the set of scenarios. The climate series data of
226 emission Scenarios A2-high and B2-low were analysed for three future time series (2011-
227 2040, 2041-2070 and 2071-2099), which are commonly used in scenario constructions (IPCC,
228 2007).

229

230 Secondly, in order to analyse the temporal variation of the climatic variables of this model
231 (precipitation, minimum and maximum air temperature) throughout the study period (from
232 1961-1990 and 2011-2099), a General Linear Model univariate analysis was performed. Data
233 were analysed by two-way ANOVA using two factors: (1) the period's factor (1961-1990,
234 2011-2040, 2041-2070 and 2071-2099) and (2) the emission scenarios factor (A2-high and
235 B2-low). Annual precipitation (Figure 2) and mean annual air temperature (maximum and

236 minimum; Figure 3) were used as the dependent variables. This statistical analysis was
237 performed using the SPSS v.18 package (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

238

239 3.3. HYDROBAL model description

240

241 Hydrological simulations were performed with the HYDROBAL model (Bellot et al., 1999,
242 2001; Bellot and Chirino, 2013). HYDROBAL is a model that integrates meteorological
243 conditions, vegetation characteristics and soil processes to simulate water balances in
244 ecosystems dominated by different vegetation types. The model estimates water flows across
245 vegetation canopy and soil water balance using a simple mass balance equation calculated by
246 a daily time step. This equation estimates the groundwater recharge (R) by considering
247 precipitation (P) to be input, less output by rainfall interception, actual evapotranspiration
248 (Et_a), runoff (R_{off}) and change in soil water storage (θ). A brief description of the model is
249 presented herein, but a more detailed description and discussion of it can be found in Bellot
250 and Chirino (2013) and in Touhami et al. (2013). The input data are: (1) soil data (depth of
251 soil, total porosity, field capacity, wilting point and initial soil moisture); (2) climate data
252 (rainfall, air temperature, relative humidity and global radiation); (3) vegetation data (plant
253 cover, vegetation structure and species composition). Reference evapotranspiration (Et_o) was
254 computed from the climate variables by the Hargreaves-Samani method (Hargreaves and
255 Samani, 1982). Actual evapotranspiration (Et_a) was estimated using a negative exponential
256 approach according to the k factor and Et_o . The k factor is an empirical parameter that
257 integrates the structural and ecophysiological characteristics of vegetation cover types. The
258 model's outputs variables (expressed in $L\ m^{-2}\ day^{-1}$) were: interception, net precipitation,
259 surface runoff, soil water reserves, actual evapotranspiration, direct percolation, infiltration
260 and potential recharge. A multivariate sensitivity analysis of the HYDROBAL model was

261 performed. The model was calibrated during 1997/98 and 1998/99 on the basis of soil
262 moisture by the Time Domain Reflectometry System (Reflectometer Tektronic 1502C,
263 Metallic TDR cable Tester, Tektronix, Beaverton, OR, USA) from 0 to 30 cm (maximum soil
264 depth) by employing 12 probes installed in the experimental plots (Chirino, 2003; Bellot and
265 Chirino, 2013). The HYDROBAL model has been validated using water table records from
266 2002 to 2008 (Touhami et al., 2013). Over the last decade, the HYDROBAL model has been
267 successfully applied under semiarid conditions to analyse the soil water balance on different
268 vegetation cover types and to assess its effects on runoff, evapotranspiration and soil moisture
269 (Bellot et al., 1999; Chirino, 2003). It has also been used to assess the effect of different land-
270 use scenarios on water resources and aquifer recharge (Bellot et al., 2001; Touhami et al.,
271 2013, 2014).

272

273 *3.4. Soil water balance and aquifer recharge calculation*

274

275 The daily data (precipitation and air temperature) predicted with the HadCM3 model were
276 used in the HYDROBAL hydrological model to assess the impact of climate changes on the
277 soil water balance and natural groundwater recharge in the Ventós-Castellar aquifer. One
278 representative year per decade during the different analysed periods was selected; the baseline
279 and future periods (emission scenarios A2-high and B2-low). The selected year had to meet
280 two conditions: (1) the year whose annual precipitation came close to the mean precipitation
281 of the decade; (2) showing a similar distribution of monthly precipitation to the mean monthly
282 observed in the study area. According to the two conditions, the selected years per analysed
283 period were: during the baseline period (1961-1990), the years 1970, 1971, 1990; in the future
284 time series for scenarios A2-high; period (2011-2040), the years 2020, 2023, 2031; period
285 (2041-2070), the years 2047, 2058, 2066; and the period (2071-2099), the years 2078, 2084

286 and 2096. For scenario B2-low; period (2011-2040), the years 2017, 2021, 2033; period
287 (2041-2070), the years 2050, 2060, 2068; period (2071-2099), the years 2077, 2087 and 2098.

288

289 The HYDROBAL model was used to estimate the soil water balance and aquifer recharge in
290 the main representative vegetation cover types of the study area. The considered vegetation
291 types were: (1) open *Stipa tenacissima* steppes with lesser dwarf shrubland cover (52% of the
292 total surface cover); (2) degraded open land or bare soil (0.5%); (3) afforested pine and dry
293 grassland (10%); (4) dry grassland (18%); (5) afforested pine and thorn shrubland (13.5%);
294 and (6) scattered thorn and sclerophyllous shrublands (6%). In order to determine the soil
295 water balance on the aquifer scale, the model's variable output values were weighted
296 according to the percentage of vegetation cover types on the aquifer surface. A further
297 explanation is presented in Touhami et al. (2013, 2014).

298

299 Finally using the HYDROBAL model output variables (precipitation, actual
300 evapotranspiration, groundwater recharge, runoff, and soil moisture), a General Linear Model
301 univariate analysis was performed to analyse the water balance results. Data were analysed by
302 a two-way ANOVA using two factors: (1) period factor, by considering the average during
303 each period, and the mean of the three selected years per period (1961-1990, 2011-2040,
304 2041-2070 and 2071-2099); (2) the emission scenarios factor: A2-high and B2-low. Given
305 our aim to know the temporal evolution tendency towards the end of the 21st century, several
306 regression analyses were also performed. A polynomial equation ($y = a + bx + cx^2$) showed the
307 best fit. This statistical analysis was performed using the SPSS v.18 package (SPSS Inc.,
308 Chicago, IL, USA).

309

310 **4. Results**

311

312 4.1. *Global Climate Models selection*

313

314 The first analysis results indicated that during the baseline period, the HadCM3 model
315 presented the most similar database (precipitation and air temperature) to the data observed
316 (1976-1990) if compared with the three analysed GCMs ($p < 0.001$, Table 1). The ECHAM4
317 database showed slight differences, while the CGCM2 database presented the largest
318 differences ($p < 0.001$, Table 1). In the second analysis, when we compared the forecast of the
319 three GCMs for emission scenarios A2-high and B2-low during the 2011-2099 period, we
320 observed that the databases of the HadCM3 model and ECHAM4 models presented similar
321 precipitation and minimum air temperature values ($p < 0.001$, Table 2) in both emission
322 scenarios (A2-high and B2-low). For maximum air temperature, we found significant
323 differences ($p < 0.001$, Table 2). In this case, the CGCM2 database also showed the largest
324 differences ($p < 0.001$, Table 2) if compared to the other GCMs; therefore we considered not
325 using this CGM for the water balance study. In summary, the HadCM3 model database gave
326 the best fit according to the observed data (1976-1990) and showed similar climatic forecast
327 in emission scenarios A2-high and B2-low during the 2011-2099 period if compared to
328 ECHAM4 model. For this reason, we selected the HadCM3 database as it was the most
329 suitable model to assess the impact of climate change forecasts on the soil water balance and
330 natural groundwater recharge in our study area. This model is extensively described in
331 Gordon et al. (2000), Pope et al. (2000), and has been widely used in climate change studies
332 in Mediterranean region (Rodríguez et al., 2007; Candela et al., 2009).

333

334 4.2. *Climate change impact on precipitation and air temperature*

335

336 The results indicate a significant decreasing of annual precipitation from the baseline period
337 (1961-1990) to the future period (2071-2099; Table 3). The modelling predictions suggest
338 that mean precipitation will decrease by 1% during (2011-2040); 6% during (2041-2070) and
339 12% during the latter period (2071-2099) if compared to the baseline period (1961-1990).
340 This will be the equivalent to a reduction in average annual precipitation of up to 1.1% per
341 decade. Neither differences between emission scenarios (A2-high and B2-low) nor
342 interactions between the assessed factors ($p < 0.05$, Table 3) were found. The report of the
343 Centre for Studies and Experimentation of Public Works, Spain (CEDEX, 2012), obtained a
344 similar results, which generally predicted that the mean precipitation in Spain will lower by
345 5% during the first period (2011-2040); 8% during the middle period (2041-2070) and 13%
346 during the last period (2071-2099).

347

348 As a result of climate change forecasts for the selected years (a representative distribution
349 years for the study condition), there will be more days without precipitation ($P = 0$ mm).
350 Although a mean of 325 days yr^{-1} without rainfall was found during the baseline period
351 (1961-1990), this will increase to 344 days yr^{-1} during the last period (2071-2099). Another
352 consequence of climate change is that the duration of dry summer periods will prolong. In the
353 summers during the baseline period, a mean of 117 consecutive days without significant
354 rainfall (< 5 mm) was observed. However by the end of the 21st century (2071-2099),
355 summer dry periods are expected to last 173 days (5.7 months) in the A2-high scenario and
356 148 days (4.9 months) in the B2-low scenario. Consequently, the duration of dry seasons will
357 increase from 26.5% to 47.8% depending on the scenario emissions. This increase in drought
358 events will become commoner in southern European regions (Hiscock et al. 2012).

359

360 Previous hydrogeological studies carried out in the Ventós-Castellar aquifer have indicated
361 that rain events of < 15 mm are predominant (Chirino et al., 2006) and that these events
362 hardly ever increase the water table level (Andreu et al., 2002; Touhami et al., 2013). So their
363 contribution to aquifer recharge is considered negligible. We also considered the rainfall
364 events of >15 mm during the baseline period (120 events), and found a decrease of almost
365 19% and 27% at the end of this century (23-32 rain events) in the A-high scenario and the B2-
366 low scenario, respectively.

367

368 The maximum air temperature will increase by 1.4°C during 2011-2040, 2.7°C during 2041-
369 2070 and 4.4°C during 2071-2099 in comparison to the baseline period. The same pattern was
370 also observed for minimum temperature (an increase of 1.3°C during 2011-2040, 2.5°C during
371 2041-2070 and 4.0°C during 2071-2099). These will be the equivalent to an increase in the
372 maximum and minimum temperatures of up to 0.4°C per decade. A significant increase in air
373 temperature was also found towards the end of this century ($p < 0.001$, Table 3). The
374 scenarios factor affected air temperature. The A2-high scenario showed a higher air
375 temperature (maximum and minimum) than B2-low ($p < 0.01$, Table 3), and some interactions
376 between both emission scenarios were also seen.

377

378 The frequency distribution of analysing the annual precipitation for the baseline and the future
379 periods provided some evidence for climate change. During the baseline period (1961-1990),
380 53% of the years showed annual precipitation to be 200-350 mm (Figure 4), classified as a
381 semiarid climate according to the climatic classification of Rivas-Martínez (1983). The
382 predominance of years with annual precipitation falling within the semiarid climate range
383 (200-350 mm) was maintained during periods 2011-2040 and 2041-2070. However at end of
384 the 21st century, the years with precipitation below 200 mm yr⁻¹ will predominate (>62% in

385 both scenarios; Figure 4), which corresponds to an arid climate. These results, along with the
386 expected increase in air temperature, are indicators of climate aridification in the study area at
387 end of the 21st century, which is expected to affect the soil water balance.

388

389 *4.3. Water balance results for climate change scenarios*

390

391 Changes in meteorological variables alter the water balance and the partitioning of
392 precipitation between evapotranspiration, surface runoff, and groundwater recharge. In order
393 to establish the effect on water budget a soil water balance has been applied to the future
394 meteorological variables. After applying the HYDROBAL model's water balance (Table 4) to
395 the Ventós-Castellar aquifer, the results show a decreasing in the annual average of all the
396 output water balance variables at the different periods projected, especially with the A2-high
397 scenario. The average recharge during the last period, 2071-2099, will decrease by up 3%
398 during (2011-2040), 8% during (2041-2070) and 17% during the last period (2071-2099) if
399 compared to the baseline period (1961-1990).

400

401 It is predicted that the available water volume for groundwater recharge will decrease over the
402 entire 21st century. In the later years of this century, we will observe lower annual
403 precipitation if compared to the baseline period in both scenarios and, consequently,
404 groundwater recharge will diminish (Table 4). By averaging the three selected years per
405 period, the temporal variation analysis of the HYDROBAL model's output variables indicated
406 a significant decrease in water balance components (recharge, actual evapotranspiration,
407 runoff and soil moisture; $p < 0.01$; Table 5) with different amplitudes. We did not find
408 significant differences between scenarios ($p > 0.05$; Table 5). In both scenarios (A2-high and
409 B2-low), a second-grade polynomial equation with a significant fit ($p > 0.05$) showed a

410 temporal decrease in the HYDROBAL model's output variables from the baseline period to
411 the end of this century (Figure 5).

412

413 Soil water content and annual rainfall distribution play a key role in the aquifer recharge
414 volume. In the A2 scenario, the year 2058, with less annual precipitation (220 mm), will
415 produce a higher aquifer recharge (47 mm) than the year 2066 ($P = 249$ mm; $R = 36$ mm;
416 Figure 6). This result is due to a higher rain event concentration in the spring of 2058 (Figure
417 6), which will bring about a sustained increase in soil water content and, consequently, in
418 aquifer recharge. However, in 2066, we will observe more separate rain events. Although an
419 increase in soil water content will take place, the increase in aquifer recharge was not
420 observed (Figure 6). We observed a similar result in the B2-low scenario. The year 2098, with
421 23 mm less of annual precipitation, will produce 10 mm more of aquifer recharge than the
422 year 2033 (Figure 6). The explanation is the same as that indicated for the A2-high scenario.

423

424 **5. Discussion**

425

426 The results of the predicted scenarios for precipitation (a decrease in annual precipitation of
427 up to 1.1% per decade) and air temperature (an increase in the mean air temperature of up to
428 0.4°C per decade) agree with the Assessment Reports of the Intergovernmental Panel on
429 Climate Change in southern Europe (IPCC, 2007, 2013). Similar results have been confirmed
430 in the Alicante region, SE Spain, where Aguilera and Murillo (2009) estimated a decrease in
431 annual precipitation of up to 1% and an increase in the mean air temperature of up to 0.45°C
432 per decade for the future 100-year series when compared to the baseline period (1961-1990).
433 Christensen et al. (2007) compared the results of eight Regional Climate Models (RCMs) in
434 basins in south Spanish basins for the same climatic scenarios, A2-high and the B2-low, with

435 the baseline period (1961-1990). In this previous work, the future climate simulated with the
436 HadCM3 model reported similar results, with increases of 0.5°C in air temperature and
437 slightly higher results for annual precipitation (2% per decade) during the 21st century.

438

439 As expected, the results predicted for semiarid regions, which is our case, will be slightly
440 higher than the results predicted for wetter regions. On the Island of Majorca, Candela et al.
441 (2009) used the same GCM, HadCM3, and estimated a less marked decrease in annual
442 precipitation of up to 0.1% per decade, and an increase in the mean air temperature of up to
443 0.2°C if compared to the control period 1970-2000. Larger differences were observed if
444 compared to studies done in northern Spain. The estimated data results from the work of
445 Raposo et al. (2013) on the Galicia Coast, NW Spain, used different RCMs to predict a
446 decrease in annual precipitation by up to 0.2% per decade, and an increase in the mean air
447 temperature of up to 0.1°C during the future 2071-2100 period if compared to the control
448 period of 1961-1990. The works of Candela et al. (2009) and Christensen et al. (2007) found
449 significant differences between scenarios A2-high and B2-low for variable precipitation, but
450 no significant differences in air temperature.

451

452 The study area has a high potential vulnerability to climate changes. The changes projected in
453 the precipitation and air temperature regime will significantly influence the average annual
454 recharge of the Ventós-Castellar aquifer. Despite uncertainties we will observe that the
455 change in the percentage of aquifer recharge vs. the baseline period (1961-1990) will
456 decrease by up 3% (10 mm) during the period 2011-2040; 8% (24 mm) during the period
457 2041-2070 and by up 17% (49 mm) during the last period (Table 5). Several previous studies
458 have reported results that came close to the values observed in our study. On the Island of
459 Majorca (Spain), Younger et al. (2002) also estimated the same decrease in mean aquifer

460 recharge of up to 16% during the future 100-year series if compared to the pre-1995 values.
461 By using the HadCM3 projections between 2071-2099 vs. the 1961-1990 baseline period in
462 the Almonte-Marismas aquifer (Doñana wetland, SW Spain), Guardiola-Albert and Jackson
463 (2011) indicated that the mean annual recharge rates will decrease by 14%. The same
464 reduction value for scenario A2-high (14%) has been reported by Pulido-Velazquez et al.
465 (2014) in the Serral-Salinas aquifer in Altiplano (Murcia, SE Spain) after applying different
466 RCMs. Other studies carried out in the Iberian Peninsula have shown lower recharge. Candela
467 et al. (2009) investigated the impacts of climate change on groundwater recharge in the Inca-
468 Sa Pobla coastal aquifer (Majorca Island, Spain) for the year 2025. They indicated a 12.5%
469 decrease in natural recharge if compared to 1980-2005, which could be due to differences in
470 the compared periods. On the Galicia Coast, N Spain, Raposo et al. (2013) estimated lower
471 decrease in recharge of up to 9% for the 2071-2100 period if compared to the 1961-1990 one,
472 which is in accordance with the wetter climatic conditions in north Spain. While studying the
473 effect of climate change on the natural groundwater recharge in other karstic aquifers similar
474 to Ventos-Castellar aquifer ([Jumilla-Villena](#), [Solana](#), [Serral-Salinas](#) and [Peñarrubia](#)) in the
475 province of Alicante, SE Spain, Aguilera and Murillo (2009) applied the ERAS model and
476 observed that the mean annual groundwater recharge values for 1900-2000 decrease
477 significantly of up to 50%. This major difference in the change in the recharge percentage
478 might be due to the fact that these authors adopted a different methodological approach and a
479 distinct baseline period to those used in our study.

480

481 These reductions in recharge could affect dependent groundwater supplies. In Alicante
482 province many small towns like Agost only use groundwater resources. Therefore the
483 forecasts of changes in vegetation cover (species distribution and composition), according to
484 Thuiller et al. (2005) and Bakkenes et al. (2006), will give rise to further changes in the soil

485 water balance and aquifer recharge forecasts. It is necessary to devise specific water resources
486 management policies in accordance with future forecasts. Therefore, adaptation measures to
487 climate change in the water resources field for the Ventós-Castellar aquifer are necessary.
488 Planning water resources projects using the principles of precaution, organisation and
489 efficiency will prove most profitable in the future.

490

491 The results showed in this study have been obtained from climate data forecasts indicated by
492 the Global Climate Model HadCM3. Although the IPCC have used several methods and
493 models (simple models, multi-models) in order to get solid data on climate change forecasts,
494 still there are uncertainties, and the sources are diverse. At present, some methods are
495 explicitly responsible for major sources of uncertainty such as climate feedbacks, ocean heat
496 uptake, radiative forcing and the carbon cycle (IPCC, 2007). Using disturbances in the
497 atmosphere feedbacks, land carbon cycle, ocean physics and aerosol sulphur cycle processes,
498 Booth et al. (2012) show several studies about variations in the climate change forecasts due
499 to uncertainty in the global climate model HadCM3. The authors indicated that a small
500 minority of simulations resulting from combinations of strong atmospheric feedbacks and
501 carbon cycle responses show temperature increases in excess of 9 degrees. Davy and Esau
502 (2014) indicated the need for a better description of the stably-stratified atmospheric boundary
503 layer in global climate models in order to constrain the current uncertainty in climate
504 variability and projections of climate change in the surface layer. They show that the
505 uncertainties in the depth of the atmospheric boundary layer can explain up to 60% of the
506 difference between the simulated and observed surface air temperature trends and 50% of the
507 difference in temperature variability for the Climate Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5
508 (CMIP5) ensemble mean. The aerosol indirect effects continue to be a major source of
509 uncertainty in modelling the climate of Earth. Ban-Weiss et al. (2014) indicated that the used

510 sensitivity in some GCMs could be subject to misinterpretation due to the confounding
511 influence of meteorology on both aerosols and clouds. Other uncertainties can be due to
512 climate scenarios; for this, some works had been focused to get consistent climate scenarios,
513 enabling project teams, researchers and academics a best understanding of the climate change
514 forecast (Ricketts et al., 2013). On the other hand, we must also consider the own
515 uncertainties of the hydrological models (McMahon et al., 2015) from database of
516 precipitation and temperature of the GCMs.

517

518 **6. Conclusions**

519

520 Process of forecasting climate change and groundwater recharge is highly complex, especially
521 in semiarid region where recharge is reduced and associated to few events per year. In order
522 to continue the advance in this research topic, this study presents a methodological approach
523 for assessing climate change impacts on soil water balance and aquifer recharge. Coupling
524 projected climates based on circulation models and a HYDROBAL hydrologic model,
525 recharge has been estimated on a small karstic aquifer in southern Spain. Three global change
526 models were tested, but HadCM3 model was selected as the most suitable model to assess the
527 impact of climate forecast on the region on A2-high and B2-low scenarios. Mean annual
528 precipitation will decrease in annual precipitation of up to 1.1% per decade. Drought periods
529 will be more frequent along the time for both scenarios (A2-high and B2-low). The analysed
530 data suggest a transition from the semiarid condition during the baseline period (1961-1990;
531 53% of the years with annual precipitation between 200-350 mm) to the arid condition at end of
532 the century (2071-2099; 62% of the years with annual precipitation <200 mm).

533

534 Results reveal that during the different periods climate change will have variables impacts on
535 groundwater recharge. Despite uncertainties recharge will be affected (2011-2040 up to 3%
536 and 2041-2070 up to 8%). In the last period (2071-2099), climate change seems have a strong
537 impact and recharge could be seriously reduced if it is compared to the baseline period (1961-
538 1990). This may be attributed to the decrease in mean annual precipitation and the increase in
539 mean air temperature observed during the last period. The results obtained in this work are
540 subjected mainly to uncertainties and the level of confidence in the regional projections.

541

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543

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ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

800 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

801

802 Figure 1. Geographical location and geological setting of the Ventós-Castellar aquifer.

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805 (2011-2099). The HadCM3 model output data for the A2-high (grey bar) and B2-low (black
806 bar) scenarios.

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820 a dashed line); B2-low (black circle and polynomial regression as a solid line). The data of the
821 HYDROBAL model output variables in each selected year. Quadratic Polynomial Equation (y
822 $=a+b*x+c*x^2$) and determination coefficient (significant level* $p<0.05$; ** $p<0.01$; ***
823 $p<0.001$).

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825 Figure 6. Temporal variation of daily precipitation, soil moisture and aquifer recharge using
826 the HYDROBAL model for the years analysed, 2047 and 2058 for A2-high and 2060 and
827 2098 for B2-low (P: precipitation, black bar, R: recharge, dash-dot line and θ : soil moisture,
828 grey solid line).

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TABLE

Table 1. Comparison between the observed data from the Agost-Escuela and Novelda meteorological station and the databases for the baseline period for the GCMs. Results of the non-parametric test, multiple pair-wise comparisons of the Kruskal-Wallis test and the *post hoc* Wilcoxon pairs comparison. Mean±standard error. For each climatic variable, the values followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$.

Table 2. A comparison results of the GCMs for the study period (2011-2099; N=90). Statistical analyses were performed using the Kruskal-Wallis test (XLSTAT®, 2014). Mean±standard error. For each climatic variable, the values followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$.

Table 3. Precipitation and air temperatures for the study period of the HadCM3 model. General Linear Model univariate results using two factors: periods (1961-1990, 2011-2040, 2041-2070 and 2071-2099) and emission scenarios (A2-high and B2-low). Mean ± standard error; $N_{\text{period}} = 30$, $N_{\text{scenario}} = 30$; Tukey's HSD *post hoc* test.

Table 4. The water balance results for climate change in the A2-high and B2-low scenarios from HadCM3 between the baseline period and future years.

Table 5. The water balance results. General Linear Model univariate results using two factors: (1) period: considering one average year per decade (3 years/period/scenario) during each periods (1961-1990, 2011-2040, 2041-2070 and 2071-2099) and (2) scenarios (A2-high and B2-low). Mean ± standard error; N=3; Tukey's HSD *post hoc* test.

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 40 meteorological station and the databases for the baseline period for the GCMs. Results of the
 41 non-parametric test, multiple pair-wise comparisons of the Kruskal-Wallis test and the *post*
 42 *hoc* Wilcoxon pairs comparison. Mean \pm standard error. For each climatic variable, the values
 43 followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$.
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Variables	Observed data	Global Climate Models (GCMs)			p-values
		HadCM3	ECHAM4	CGCM2	
P (mm)	302.6 \pm 32.3a	303.7 \pm 26.5a	236.7 \pm 20.3ab	165.9 \pm 11.9b	<0.001
max T ^a (°C)	23.06 \pm 0.33a	23.45 \pm 0.17a	24.05 \pm 0.14b	22.14 \pm 0.17c	<0.001
min T ^a (°C)	11.44 \pm 0.40a	11.73 \pm 0.18a	11.98 \pm 0.10a	10.54 \pm 0.14b	<0.001

46 ^P Precipitation between the years 1976-1990 (N=15).

47 ^{max T^a} maximum temperature between 1980-1990 (N=11).

48 ^{min T^a} minimum temperature between 1980-1990 (N=11).
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 83 Statistical analyses were performed using the Kruskal-Wallis test (XLSTAT[®], 2014).
 84 Mean±standard error. For each climatic variable, the values followed by the same letter are
 85 not significantly different at $p < 0.05$.

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Variables	Global Climate Models (GCMs)			p-values
	HadCM3	ECHAM4	CGCM2	
A2-high scenario				
P (mm)	246.40 ± 9.17 ^a	231.17±5.77 ^a	180.55±3.88 ^b	<0.001
max T ^a (°C)	25.35 ± 0.18 ^b	26.02±0.16 ^a	24.11±0.15 ^c	<0.001
min T ^a (°C)	13.53 ± 0.18 ^a	13.67±0.13 ^a	12.17±0.12 ^b	<0.001
B2-low scenario				
P (mm)	246.94 ± 10.51 ^a	227.08 ± 6.39 ^a	166.59±4.12 ^b	<0.001
max T ^a (°C)	25.05 ± 0.13 ^b	25.79 ± 0.13 ^a	23.73±0.11 ^c	<0.001
min T ^a (°C)	13.24 ± 0.13 ^a	13.51 ± 0.11 ^a	11.82±0.09 ^b	<0.001

88 ^P Precipitation.
 89 ^{max T^a} maximum temperature.
 90 ^{min T^a} minimum temperature.

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 111 factors: periods (1961-1990, 2011-2040, 2041-2070 and 2071-2099) and emission scenarios (A2-high and B2-low). Mean \pm standard error; N
 112 period = 30, N_{scenario} = 30; Tukey's HSD *post hoc* test.
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	Period factor				Scenario factor		Main effects and interactions		
	1961-1990	2011-2040	2041-2070	2071-2099	A2-high	B2-low	Period	Scenario	Period x scenario
P (mm)	273.58 \pm 5.82a	270.81 \pm 6.90a	258.10 \pm 6.64ab	240.26 \pm 7.54b	261.21 \pm 4.67	260.51 \pm 4.95	0.002**	0.912 ns	0.940 ns
max T ^a (°C)	21.39 \pm 0.11d	22.74 \pm 0.11c	24.04 \pm 0.11b	25.79 \pm 0.12a	23.63 \pm 0.13	23.31 \pm 0.10	<0.001***	0.002**	<0.001***
min T ^a (°C)	10.25 \pm 0.12d	11.59 \pm 0.11c	12.71 \pm 0.12b	14.23 \pm 0.13a	12.33 \pm 0.12	12.03 \pm 0.10	<0.001***	0.009**	<0.001***

115 ^P Precipitation.

116 ^{max T^a} maximum temperature.

117 ^{min T^a} minimum temperature.

118 ^{a-d} Values followed by the same letter are not significantly different at $p < 0.05$.

119 *** $p < 0.001$

120 ** $p < 0.01$

121 ^{ns} not significant.

122 Table 4. The water balance results for climate change in the A2-high and B2-low scenarios
 123 from HadCM3 between the baseline period and future years.
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	Baseline period			A2-high scenario								
	1970	1971	1990	2020	2023	2031	2047	2058	2066	2078	2084	2096
P (mm)	279	297	303	323	274	200	273	220	249	246	167	141
Et _a (mm)	178	212	201	190	170	172	165	197	175.7	193.6	151	127
R (mm)	73	72	76	97	73	41	78	47	36	37	22	11
R _{off} (mm)	4.0	5.2	5.0	5.3	4.6	3.8	3.7	4.6	4.0	4.0	3.3	2.2
θ (%)	13.8	14.5	13.6	14.2	14	13.9	13.3	14.2	13.5	13.5	13	12.4

	Baseline period			B2-low scenario								
	1970	1971	1990	2017	2021	2033	2050	2060	2068	2077	2087	2098
P (mm)	279	297	303	285	269	201	222	259	216	193	167	178
Et _a (mm)	178	212	201	160	181	152	172	167	141	159	134	131
R (mm)	73	72	76	83	61	26	38	59	40	25	20	36
R _{off} (mm)	4.0	5.2	5.0	4.2	4.1	3.2	3.6	4.1	2.8	3.2	2.5	2.9
θ (%)	13.8	14.5	13.6	13.8	14.1	13.4	13.6	13.6	12.6	13.3	12.9	12.8

125 ^P precipitation.
 126 ^{R_{off}} runoff.
 127 ^{Et_a} actual evapotranspiration.
 128 ^R groundwater recharge.
 129 ^θ Soil moisture.

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Table 5. The water balance results. General Linear Model univariate results using two factors: (1) period: considering one average year per decade (3 years/period/scenario) during each periods (1961-1990, 2011-2040, 2041-2070 and 2071-2099) and (2) scenarios (A2-high and B2-low). Mean \pm standard error; N=3; Tukey's HSD *post hoc* test.

	Period factor				Scenario factor		Main effects and interactions		
	1961-1990	2011-2040	2041-2070	2071-2099	A2-high	B2-low	Period	Scenario	Period x Scenario
P (mm)	293.00 \pm 4.56a	258.66 \pm 19.95a	239.83 \pm 9.71ab	182.00 \pm 14.56b	247.66 \pm 16.15	239.08 \pm 13.97	<0.001	0.571	0.981
Et _a (mm)	197.14 \pm 6.49a	170.72 \pm 5.49ab	169.73 \pm 7.40ab	149.26 \pm 10.23b	177.68 \pm 6.79	165.75 \pm 7.25	<0.002	0.149	0.754
R (mm)	73.42 \pm 0.83a	63.76 \pm 10.90a	49.54 \pm 6.64ab	24.93 \pm 3.98b	55.11 \pm 7.65	50.71 \pm 6.48	<0.005	0.144	0.829
R _{off} (mm)	4.75 \pm 0.24a	4.20 \pm 0.29a	3.80 \pm 0.25ab	3.01 \pm 0.26b	4.14 \pm 0.26	3.74 \pm 0.25	<0.001	0.550	0.826
θ (%)	13.94 \pm 0.17a	13.91 \pm 0.11a	13.47 \pm 0.21ab	12.98 \pm 0.16b	13.66 \pm 0.17	13.49 \pm 0.15	<0.005	0.366	0.789

^P precipitation.

^{R_{off}} runoff.

^{Et_a} actual evapotranspiration.

^R groundwater recharge.

^{θ} Soil moisture.

^{a-b} the values followed by the same letters within rows do not differ significantly at $p = 0.05$.

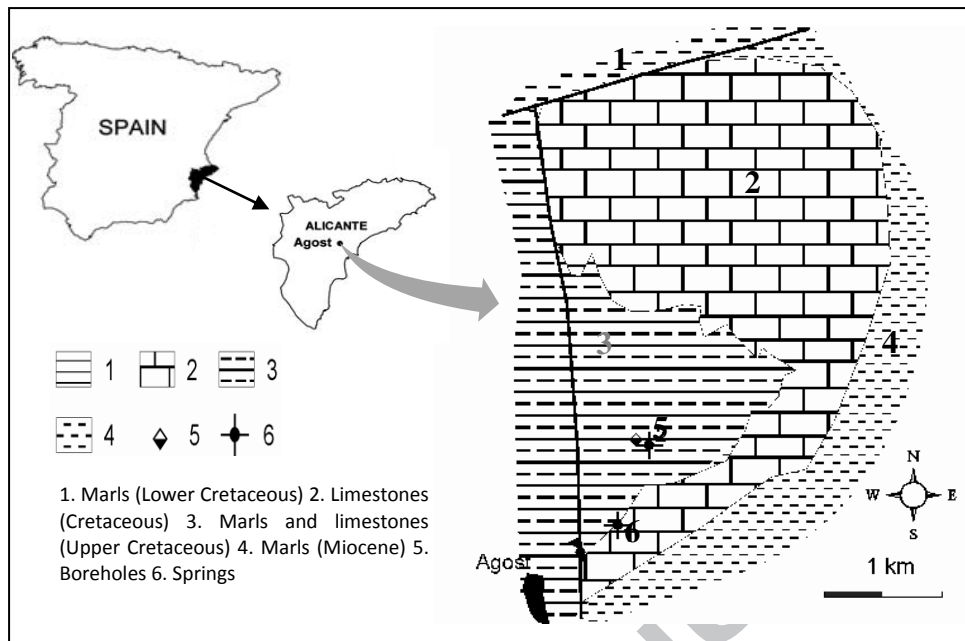


Fig. 1. Geographical location and geological setting of the Ventós-Castellar aquifer.

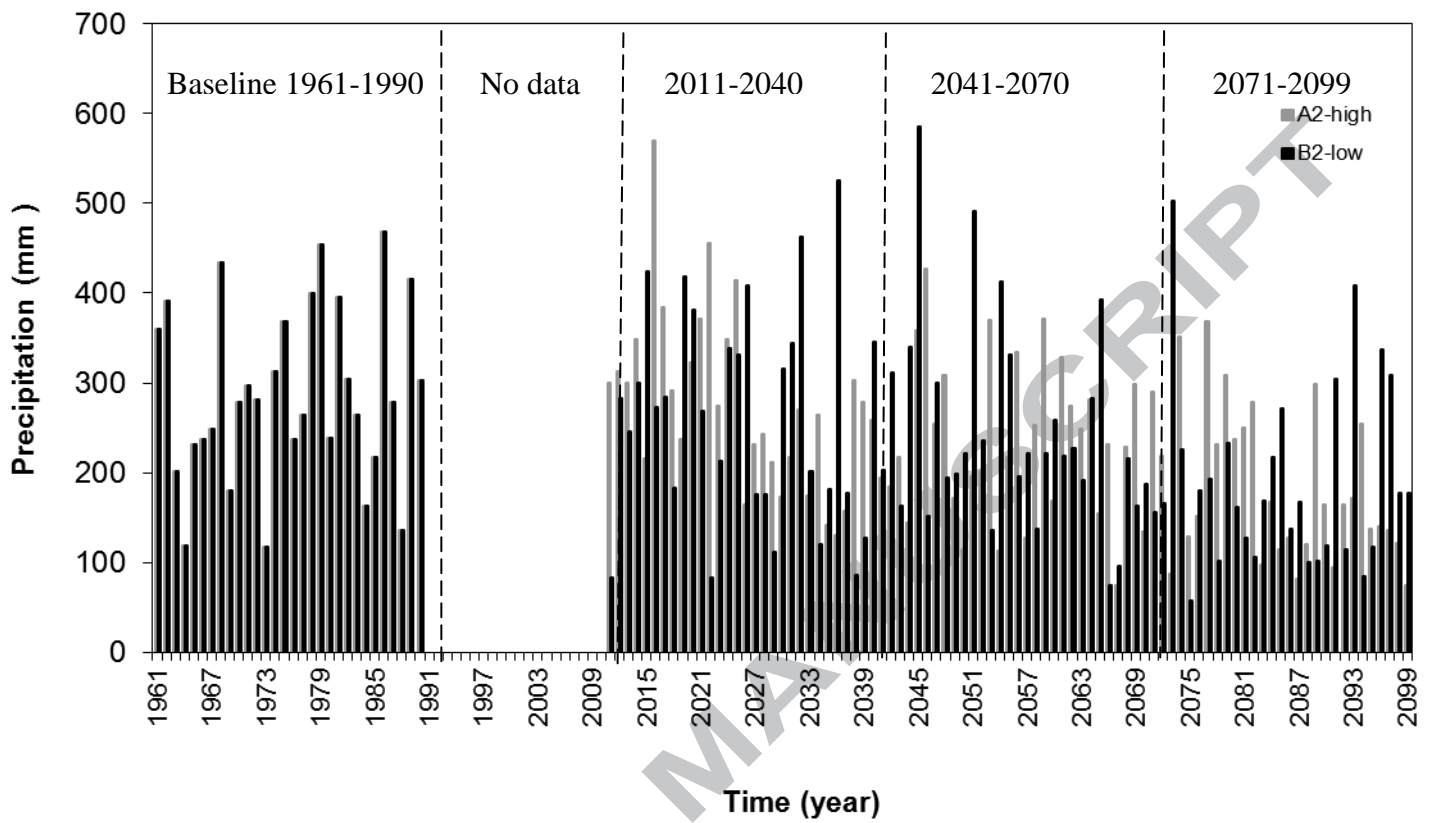


Fig. 2. Annual precipitation during the baseline period (1961-1990) and the future period (2011-2099). The HadCM3 model output data for the A2-high (grey bar) and B2-low (black bar) scenarios.

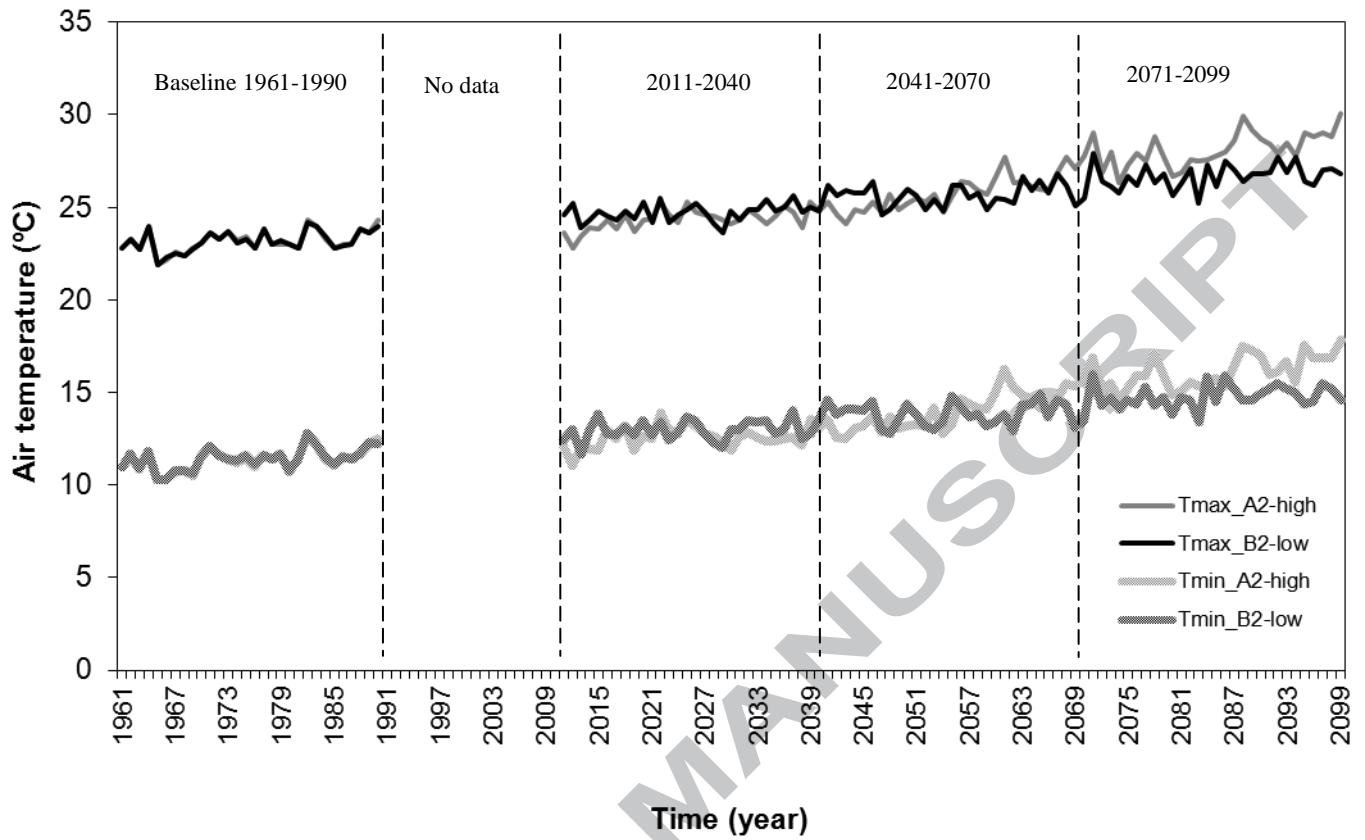


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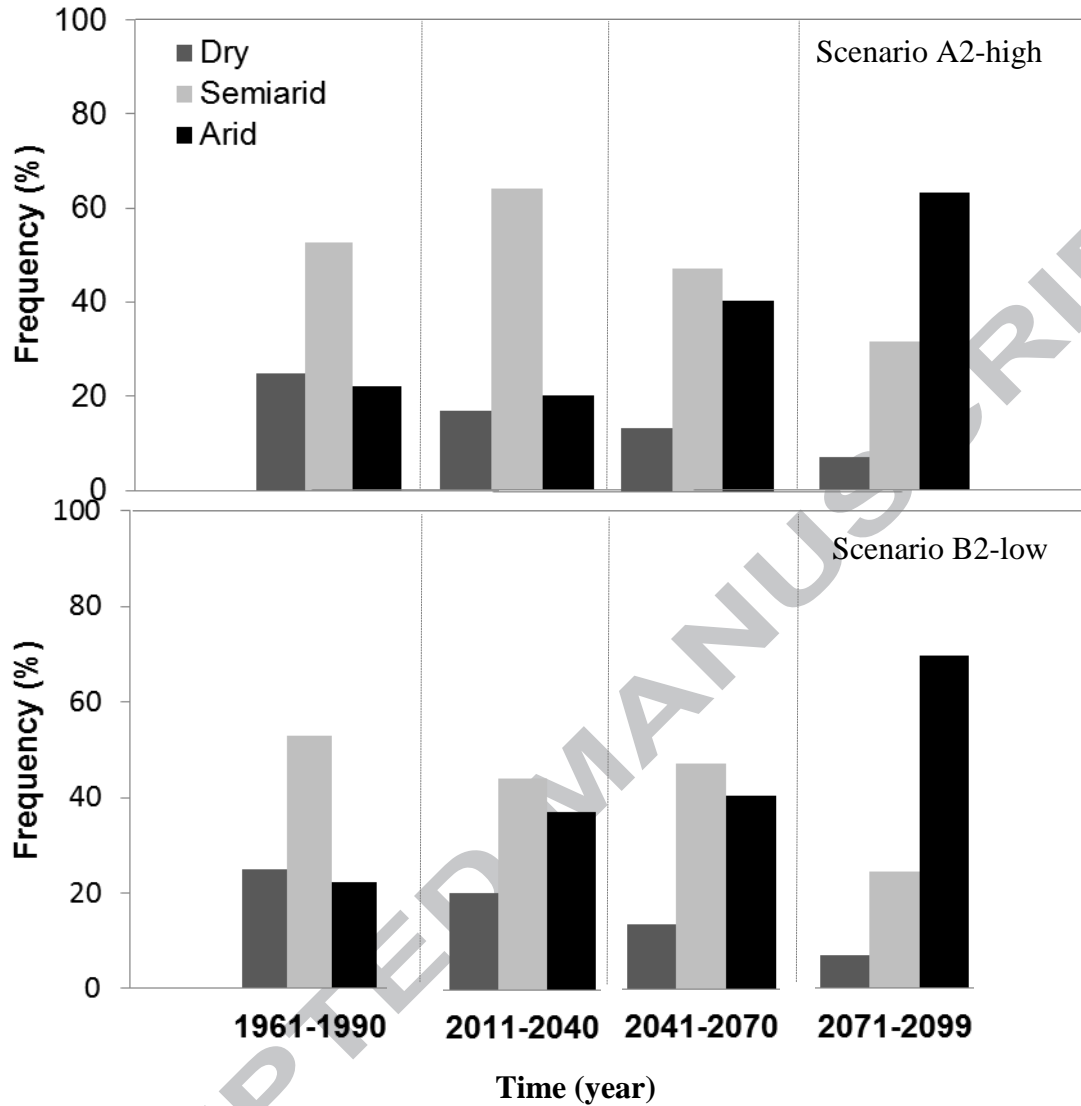


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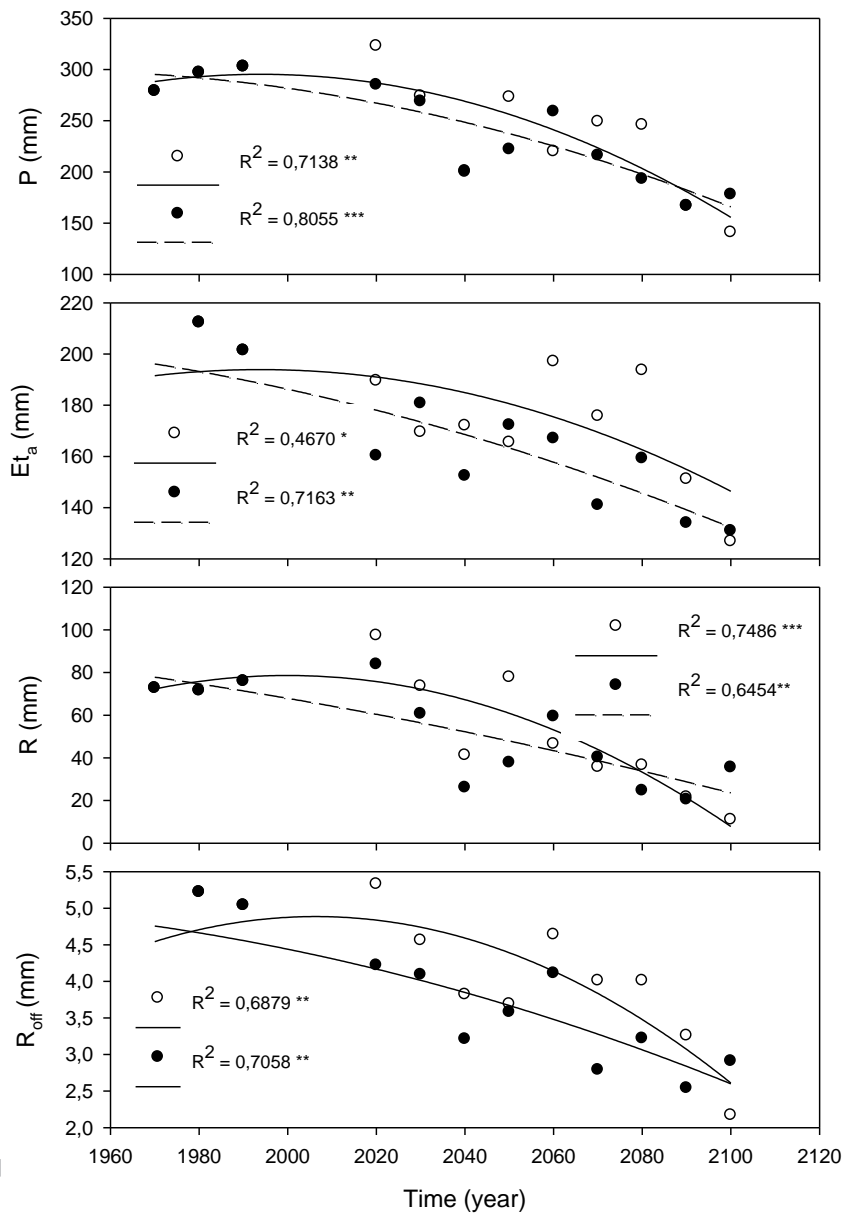


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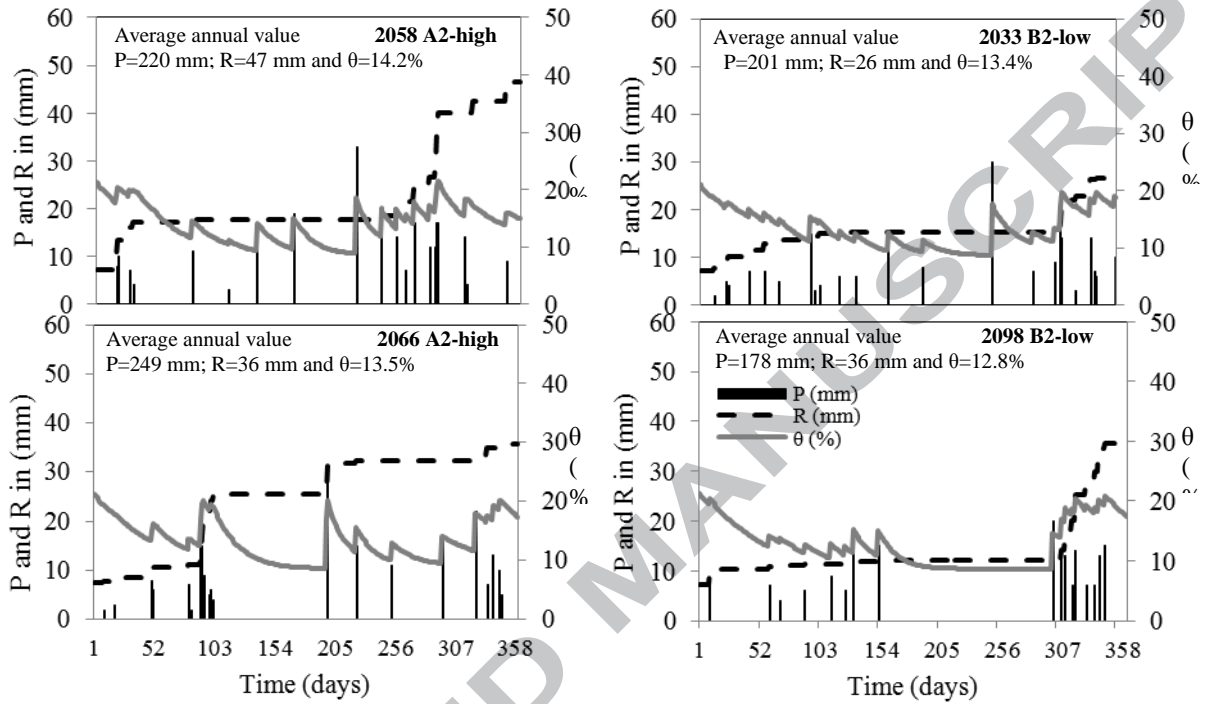


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1226 Highlights

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1229 • Research analyses impact of climate change on the soil water balance and
1230 recharge

1231 • Three GCM's were tested. HadCM3 model was selected as the most suitable
1232 model

1233 • Change in precipitation and temperature will influence the average annual
1234 recharge

1235 • HYDROBAL model showed that climate change have a significant impact on
1236 recharge

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