



**TWENTY FIRST CENTURY PROJECTIONS OF EXTREME  
PRECIPITATIONS IN THE PLATA BASIN**

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**ABSTRACT**

Distributions of monthly rainfall averaged spatially over three regions of the Plata Basin (LPB) were projected for 2011-2040 and 2071-2100 using outputs of four regional climate models (RCMs) nested in three different general circulation models, run with the SRES A1B emission scenario. Tuning of simulations with observations was done at the control period 1981-1990.

During the past 50 years, in part of LPB there was a positive trend in annual precipitation. Two of the models indicate the maintenance of this trend over the northeast of Argentina and south of Brazil, while over the southernmost region of LPB, all models show growing precipitation throughout the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Trends are less ambiguous for extreme precipitation, especially in the southernmost part of LPB, where huge and long-lasting floods take place over plains with small drainage.

Months with extreme precipitation in LPB present a pronounced annual cycle with higher frequency from October to April. According to the RCM projections this pattern would persist during the twenty first century. Although, other factors cannot be discarded, the projected trends towards higher extreme monthly precipitation seem to be caused by an increase of the moisture convergence in the lower atmosphere over the east of LPB.

**Key Words:** *Climate Change, La Plata Basin, floods, twenty first century.*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

La Plata Basin (LPB), which stretches over 3 million km<sup>2</sup>, is the fifth largest basin in the world and the second in South America. It is the core of the economic activities of Brazil, Uruguay and Argentina and includes all Paraguay. LPB population is near 130 million, and according to projections could reach 200 million by 2050 increasing the already important exposure of people, infrastructure and services to extreme precipitations and floods.

Long lasting floods in LPB can be characterized by two major types, namely overflows over banks of the big rivers and water excess stagnation on flat areas with very small runoff. The first type, which affects huge areas of the flood valleys of the Paraguay River, the Paraná River in Argentina and the Uruguay River, in extreme cases reaching 50,000 Km<sup>2</sup>, are generally originated far upstream by great monthly or seasonal extended rainfalls in the middle of the LPB between 24° and 28 °S (Camilloni and Barros 2003, Barros *et al.* 2004).

The second type of long lasting floods takes place over very flat lands with slow drainage, mainly in the southern part of LPB in Argentina, and it is a distinctive feature of the regional hydrology (Latrubesse and Brea 2009). From now on, we will refer to them as plain floods. They range from a few to several hundred kilometres and in some cases last many months or even more than a year. The water excess is not only determined by rainfall immediately before the flood, but by other factors such as soil moisture where saturation may be reached as the result of either intense rainfall in a short period of time or by above normal precipitations over several months; also on evaporation and surface runoff, which are highly dependent on land cover and topography. Therefore it is difficult to find a direct simple relationship between floods and local or regional rainfall. However, in most of the largest floods of the last three decades, the mean regional precipitation exceeded the mean plus one standard deviation in the month when the flood starts. (Garavaglia *et al.* 2012) and therefore monthly precipitation over this threshold could be seen as indicative of potential flooding.

Both types of floods have become more frequent in the last decades. The main LPB rivers not only increased their mean discharges (García and Vargas 1998, Genta *et al.* 1998, Barros *et al.* 2004), but also the frequency of their extreme flows resulting in more frequent floods (Camilloni and Barros 2003, Barros *et al.* 2004). Regarding plain floods, there is a lack of systematic information to address the issue of trends in flooding; however these floods seem to have become more frequent after the 1980s. For example, the great flood events in what is known as the depression of the

1 Salado basin in the southernmost part of LPB have recurred almost every 10 years since the late  
2 1980s, namely in 1987, 2001-2002 and 2012-2013.  
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6 These trends in flooding were matched with increased precipitation trends. Several authors have  
7 found positive precipitation trends which lead towards more humid conditions in South Eastern  
8 South America (SESA) during the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Castañeda and Barros 1994,  
9 Barros *et al.* 2000, Giorgi 2002, Liebmann *et al.* 2004, Haylock *et al.* 2006). Regarding the trends  
10 in extremes at a scale compatible with the long lasting regional floods, Doyle *et al.* (2012) showed a  
11 decrease in the frequency of months with low precipitation (below the 10th percentile), but an  
12 increase in the frequency of months with precipitation extremes (above the 90th percentile) that  
13 largely explain the mean annual positive precipitation trends over SESA. Extreme daily rainfall  
14 events in SESA, which favour small but particularly intense floods, also had a positive trend in  
15 recent years (Re and Barros 2009, Penalba and Robledo 2009).  
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25 Given the connection between extreme monthly precipitation and floods, the question that arises is  
26 if the positive trends in the frequency of extreme monthly precipitation will persist during the rest of  
27 this century or on the contrary will be irrelevant or even reversed. To address this issue, we may  
28 relay on the projections of Global Climate Models (GCMs) which are the most accepted tool for the  
29 characterization of future climate scenarios. However, they are deficient in adequately representing  
30 some observed regional features; in particular, they largely underestimate mean annual precipitation  
31 in the LPB (Boulanger *et al.* 2007, Vera and Silvestri 2009, Saurral 2010). On the other hand,  
32 several authors point out that some variables related to precipitation, such as the atmospheric  
33 circulation or water vapour transport and convergence of humidity at low levels, are however well  
34 simulated by GCMs. In this sense, Solman and Le Treut (2006) found that the modelled EOF  
35 patterns of monthly 500 hPa geopotential heights anomalies compare reasonably well with those  
36 from the NCEP reanalysis Data for 1950–2000, while Gulizia *et al.* (2012), concluded that the  
37 overall pattern of water vapour transport and convergence in South America are also properly  
38 represented by GCMs. Garavaglia *et al.* (2012) found that there is a significant increase in the  
39 probability of occurrence of extreme monthly rainfall on the SESA when there are persistent  
40 conditions in the mid tropospheric levels of cyclonic vorticity advection and inflow of humidity in  
41 low levels coming from the north. Therefore, if precipitation projections by climate models result  
42 consistent with projections of circulation features and humidity advection, this consistency could be  
43 an additional source of confidence in the assessment of future precipitation fields.  
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Some, but not all GCM deficiencies in representing the observed precipitation field may be due to their low spatial resolution. To address this issue, it can be used regional climate models (RCMs) with higher spatial resolution, which may resolve certain regional scale features which GCMs are not able to properly depict. Even so, improved model resolution alone is insufficient to provide a quality simulation of South American climate (Seth *et al.* 2007) and a correction scheme should be applied to obtain acceptable future scenarios.

The main objective of this paper is to assess if large scale precipitation extremes aggregated at monthly scale, which sometimes result in extended floods in LPB, will continue to increase or become more frequent or not during the twenty first century. To this purpose, it was used climate projections of four RCMs nested in three different GCMs, which were run in the context of CLARIS LPB Project, a Europe-South America Network Collaborative Project for Climate Change Assessment and Impact Studies in La Plata Basin. These RCM models present systematic errors in describing the observed precipitation fields, which were calculated and then used to correct future precipitation scenarios over large LPB regions. In addition, to increase confidence in these projections, it was also analyzed to what extent the known main atmospheric drivers of heavy extended regional rainfall in the RCM projections have consistent trends with their extreme regional precipitation projections.

## 2. DATA

Simulated monthly precipitation, monthly geopotential height at 500 hPa level, daily specific humidity and zonal and meridional wind components at 1000, 900, 850 and 700 levels were taken from four RCMs for 3 different periods: 1981-1990 (control period), 2011-2040 (near future) and 2071-2100 (end of century).

The RCMs used were the Rossby Centre RCM version 3.5 (RCA), (Kjellström *et al.* 2005, Samuelsson *et al.* 2006) run with ECHAM5 GCM boundary conditions and 0.5x0.5° horizontal resolution, Prognostic at the Mesoscale version 2.4 (PROMES), (Sanchez *et al.* 2007, Dominguez *et al.* 2010) with HadCM3 GCM-Q0 boundary conditions and resolution of 50x50km, ICTP Regional Climate Model version 3 (RegCM3), (Pal *et al.* 2007, Da Rocha *et al.* 2009a,b) also with same boundary conditions and horizontal resolution, and Modele de Circulation Generale du LMD version 4 (LMDZ) (Hourdin *et al.* 2006, Li 1999) using GCM IPSL boundary conditions and 0.48°

1 of resolution approximately. All models run for the twenty first century with only one emission  
2 scenario, namely the SRES A1B, which is an intermediate scenario between possible very high and  
3 very low emission scenarios for this century.  
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8 Observed monthly rainfall from 60 stations distributed over southern and eastern LPB were taken  
9 from the Argentine National Weather Service, the Agência Nacional de Águas (ANA) and National  
10 Weather Service of Brazil, the National Weather Direction of Uruguay and the Direction of  
11 Meteorology and Hydrology of Paraguay, Fig 1. Tropospheric variables of the control period were  
12 taken from the global National Centers for Environmental Prediction-National Center for  
13 Atmospheric Research (NCEP–NCAR) reanalysis (Kalnay *et al.* 1996).  
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### 20 **3. METHODOLOGY**

#### 21 **3.1 Regions and indexes**

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26 The areal average of the observed monthly precipitation was calculated in three regions of LPB, R1,  
27 R2, and R3, Fig 1, for the observed period (1990-2004) and similarly for each RCM outputs for the  
28 control, near future and end of century periods.  
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32 Each of the three regions has nearly homogeneous features in the precipitation field with small  
33 gradients and similar annual regime and has a connection with long lasting floods. Region R1,  
34 includes southern Paraguay, most of north-eastern Argentina, and the western part of southern  
35 Brazil. The eastern region, R2, encompasses part of southern Brazil. The northern parts of these two  
36 regions are the main source of floods in the Paraguay and Paraná rivers (Camilloni and Barros  
37 2003, Barros *et al.* 2004), while the southern part of R2 contributes to some of the major floods in  
38 the Uruguay River. R3 includes south-western Uruguay and most of the central-eastern Argentina, a  
39 region where most of the plain floods in LPB take place.  
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46 Regional averages of monthly precipitations will be considered extreme when they exceed their  
47 mean value plus one standard deviation; assuming a normal distribution for the sake of simplicity,  
48 this criterion implies that monthly regional averages are considered extreme when exceeding the  
49 percentile 83.5, which corresponds to approximately 200 mm. in regions 1 and 2 and 137 mm. in  
50 region 3. Based on these thresholds, the months of extreme precipitation (MEP) were determined  
51 for the observed and projected periods.  
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For almost the same three regions, Garavaglia *et al.* (2012) found important increments in the probabilities of occurrence of a MEP when thresholds of a few indexes were surpassed. These indexes describe circulation features over SESA and will be used here to assess if projections of extreme precipitation by the RCMs are consistent with their circulation projections.

To capture prevailing and persistent conditions of cyclonic vorticity advection over SESA, the index I500 is calculated from monthly 500 hPa geopotential as:

$$I500_i = (\overline{\varphi_2} - \overline{\varphi_1}) \quad (1),$$

where *i* denotes month, 1 and 2 correspond to the areas in the latitudinal band between 25° and 45° S over the South American continent (80°-60° W) and the Atlantic Ocean (50°-30° W) respectively;  $\varphi$  is geopotential height at 500hPa and the bar indicates areal average values. I500 higher values are consistent with the presence of a trough in the mid troposphere over the west of the South American continent at subtropical latitudes.

The two other indices used here were monthly means of the divergence of daily water vapor transport integrated between surface and 700hPa, west (DW) and east (DE) of 60° W, from latitudes 25° to 35° S between 65° and 60° W in the case of DW and between 60° and 50° W for DE.

### 3.2 Statistical distributions for the control period

#### 3.2.1 Precipitation distribution

For each region, percentile distributions were calculated for the simulated regional monthly precipitation series and indices, and contrasted with the observations in the control period. RCMs underestimate the regional averages of monthly precipitation for all percentiles in the three regions, Figure 2. The only exception is the LMDZ model in region R2; this model is the one that less underestimates precipitation in the three regions. The highest discrepancies between simulated and observed precipitations in regions R1 and R3, are in the high and extreme monthly precipitation ranges reaching differences between 50 and 150 mm, which evidences the low skill of the RCMs to characterize extreme rainfall over SESA. In R2 the underestimation is approximately constant throughout the whole range, but still important. This general underestimation calls for some correction scheme in the projections of these models to obtain credible estimates of future precipitation scenarios.

#### 3.2.2 Circulation index distributions



1 To explore the possible causes of the precipitation underestimation, it is also presented the  
2 percentile distribution of the circulation indices as calculated from the RCM simulations and  
3 compared with their respective observed distributions. In the case of the I500 index, Figure 3,  
4 positive (negative) values indicate prevailing cyclonic (anticyclonic) advection over SESA.  
5 Garavaglia *et al.* (2012) using an almost equivalent index found that when this index was above the  
6 threshold of 20 hPa there was a considerable increase in the probability of a MEP with respect to  
7 the climatologic value. Except in the case of the PROMES model, the percentage of the months  
8 with prevailing cyclonic advection in the observed case, about 30 %, was approximately similar in  
9 the other RCM simulations (Fig. 3). I500 values associated with prevailing anticyclonic advection  
10 were very well represented by these three models. RegCM3 model has the best representation of the  
11 circulation conditions that favour extreme rainfalls over SESA (high I500 percentiles), while RCA  
12 and LMDZ overestimate these conditions attaining the 20 hPa threshold with little more frequency  
13 than in the observations. Therefore, except for the case of PROMES, the underestimation of  
14 precipitation by RCMs in its whole percentile range including the highest values cannot be  
15 attributed to a model misrepresentation of the mid tropospheric circulation. Thus, these RCMs make  
16 a correct representation of a key feature of the circulation field for the development of precipitation  
17 in SESA. This result is consistent with the adequate GCM representation of the tropospheric  
18 circulation found by Solman and Le Treut (2006), since RCMs are nested in GCMs and presumably  
19 share with them their large scale atmospheric features.  
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35 The convergence of water vapour over the eastern region represented by the DE index is in general  
36 correctly captured by the RCMs, Figure 4, with the exception of the LMDZ model that indicates net  
37 convergence of moisture in almost every month of the period. In the extreme monthly events of  
38 moisture convergence (low percentiles), the RCA model tends to slightly underestimate this  
39 convergence while PROMES overestimates it; the RegCM3 model is the closest to observations.  
40 The thresholds in the convergence values that are related to a probability of a MEP higher than the  
41 climatic ones depend on the region ranging from -1 to -3  $10^{-5}$   $\text{mms}^{-1}$  in R1 and R2 respectively  
42 Garavaglia *et al.* (2012). With the exception of the LMDZ model, in general, these thresholds are  
43 attained by the model simulations in a percentage of months similar to the observed case.  
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51 Figure 5 shows the poor performance of the RCMs in representing the DW index during the control  
52 period. The observations indicate a preponderance of monthly cases with net convergence in this  
53 region, while three of the four models indicate only a few cases of net convergence with small  
54 values. The RegCM3 model distribution includes months, with net convergence or divergence but  
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1 also tend to underestimate the convergence with respect to observations. In conclusion, extreme  
2 months of moisture convergence in large region of western Argentina (low percentiles in DW) that  
3 favour extreme precipitations over SESA are poorly represented by the four RCMs.  
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8 Although the DW index represents the convergence of water vapour outside of the regions where  
9 precipitation is here studied, namely to the west, it has a considerable influence in the probability of  
10 occurrence of a MEPs on these regions when it is below the threshold of  $-4$  to  $-5 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ mms}^{-1}$   
11 (Garavaglia *et al.* 2012). This is because most of the mesoscale convective systems (MCSs) that  
12 affect the southern LPB originate west of  $60^\circ \text{ W}$  (Doyle *et al.*, 2012) and then move eastwards  
13 (Salio *et al.*, 2007) where they reach a mature state and are responsible of pouring rainfalls that  
14 account for about 60% of the annual precipitation in the region (Nesbitt *et al.*, 2006). The  
15 development of these MCSs requires of intense moisture transport from the tropics to the  
16 subtropics, which is not well represented by the RCMs, Fig. 6. This figure is for the period October-  
17 March when, as will be seen in the next section, most of the MEPs take place. The observed case  
18 shows a water vapour transport from the north and two distinct areas of convergence in the east and  
19 west of LPB; in the two examples of RCM simulations, although with some differences, there is a  
20 northern transport of water vapour, but the convergence in the west area is reduced and bounded to  
21 its westernmost area near the Andes and not in the area farther east where MCS developed (Doyle  
22 *et al.* 2012).  
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35 In spite of some particularities in each model, in general they simulate correctly some of the key  
36 features of the atmospheric circulation associated with precipitation, namely the convergence of  
37 moisture in the east of SESA and the mid tropospheric circulation as indicator of cyclonic vorticity  
38 advection. It seems that the RCMs underestimation of precipitation, including that of the high  
39 percentile range, may be in part due to their lack of moisture convergence over central Argentina.  
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### 45 3.2.3 Correction factors

46 The analysis made using the control period indicates the need for some correction scheme to obtain  
47 credible estimates of future scenarios of precipitation and the related atmospheric indexes. The  
48 scheme adopted is the adjustment of the simulated distributions from models to the observed  
49 distribution (Wood, 2002). Therefore the correction factors are defined as:  
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$$55 f_i = \frac{\text{Observed}_i}{\text{RCM}'s_i} \quad (2),$$

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2 in the case of precipitation, and

$$3 \quad f_i = \text{Observed}_i - \text{RCM}'s_i \quad (3)$$

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5 for I500, DW and DE indices, where  $i$  denotes each of the percentiles.

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9 These factors were applied to the distributions of precipitation and indices percentiles obtained from  
10 RCMs for the near future and end of century periods. More details on motivation for this correction  
11 procedure and its scheme in Saurral *et al.* (2013) in this volume. The implicit assumption in this  
12 methodology is that the factors will remain approximately constant in the projected periods.  
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## 15 16 17 **4. RESULTS**

### 18 19 20 **4.1 Precipitation**

#### 21 22 23 *4.1.1. Projection of future distributions*

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25 Figures 7, 8 and 9 show the percentile distributions of monthly precipitation for the three regions  
26 and four RCMs used in this work for the present period as compared with the observed one. This  
27 reference period was chosen as 1990/2004. In the LPB there were important trends in precipitation  
28 starting in some areas in the 1960 decade and in the 1970 in others, (Barros *et al.* 2000, Liebmann *et*  
29 *al.* 2004). In any case, the bulk of the change took place before 1990, while later the attained mean  
30 annual values were fluctuating without significant trends. Therefore, using a period after 1990 as  
31 reference for present conditions prevents incorrectly estimating as future changes those that already  
32 have been taken place. The limit of 2004 is because some of the data bases used are yet incomplete  
33 after that year.  
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42 Over R1, Figure 7, only the RCA model shows a persistent increase in precipitation values in the  
43 medium and high percentiles, mainly towards the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. For example, in the very  
44 extreme monthly precipitation of the 95 percentile, the observed value of 260 mm would increase to  
45 359 mm in the last thirty years of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. In the case of LMDZ model, there is a trend to  
46 greater precipitations in much of the distribution toward the end of century period, but extreme  
47 monthly precipitation become more intense since the beginning of the century. RegCM3 model  
48 does not show noticeable changes in the future high percentiles but shows increases over time in the  
49 rest of distribution, especially in the 40-80 percentiles range towards the end of century, while the  
50 PROMES model does not show significant changes in none of the two future scenarios.  
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3 Over southern Brazil, in R2, RCA and LMDZ models also show increases in rainfall values for high  
4 and extreme precipitation months, being more pronounced towards the end of century. The  
5 remaining two models do not show significant changes in the distribution of monthly precipitation  
6 over time in this region.  
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11 In the south of the La Plata basin, region R3, all RCM projections are consistent in showing a clear  
12 increase in the extreme values of monthly rainfall. For the near future period there are increases  
13 only in high and the extreme rainfall values without major changes in the rest of the distribution,  
14 while by the end of the century not only the increase in the extreme precipitation values is more  
15 pronounced, but except for the PROMES model, extends to the rest of the distribution.  
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21 While RCM projections indicate the possibility of precipitation increasing with time in the three  
22 regions, this appears less ambiguous in the south of the La Plata basin and especially for extreme  
23 monthly precipitations. According to these RCM projections and being conservative, it should be  
24 ruled out the possibility that extreme precipitations would be lower than in the recent observed  
25 period.  
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#### 30 31 32 *4.1.2 Projections of the annual cycle of months with extreme precipitation*

33 As already explained, here we define as months with extreme precipitation (MEP) those with  
34 precipitation above the mean plus one standard deviation. In SESA, the availability of moisture for  
35 heavy precipitations varies throughout the year and, is generally smaller in winter. Thus, the  
36 frequency of MEPs has a marked annual cycle in the three regions, being more frequent from  
37 October to April, figures 10, 11 and 12. According to the RCM projections, this pattern would  
38 persist throughout the 21<sup>st</sup> century and the increase in frequency would take place mostly during the  
39 warm half of the year.  
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46 Changes at monthly calendar level present a general pattern despite some differences between the  
47 four models, i.e. increase in the number of MEP in the first four months of the year, especially  
48 towards the end of the century. In this period, more than half of the January months would have  
49 extreme rainfalls according to all RCMs in the three regions, with only one exception (RCA model  
50 in R2), Figure 10, 11 and 12.  
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1 The scenarios of MEP frequency change in the spring months are highly variable between models  
2 and months, but with a similar general pattern of increasing frequency of MEP by the end of the  
3 century. Over the south of LPB, in R3, projections show a few months of extreme rainfall emerging  
4 in the cold season, which were not present in the observed period (Figure 12).  
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#### 10 **4.2 Projection of indices**

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12 In section 4.1, it was shown that according to the RCMs, there will be a general trend towards an  
13 increase in intensity and frequency of months with high and extreme precipitation in the three  
14 regions, but more unambiguously in the south of LPB. To gain some understanding of what  
15 processes may be behind these possible changes, it will be discussed the projection of the  
16 atmospheric indices associated to the occurrence of MEPs (Garavaglia *et. al.* 2012). Changes in  
17 these indices could summarize changes in circulation conditions that are related to extreme rainfalls  
18 in SESA. Since the models were unable to reproduce the observed convergence in the west of  
19 Argentina, the corresponding index, DW, is not going to be considered in these discussion.  
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28 The projections of the I500 index, Figure 13, do not show future trends towards circulations that  
29 enhance the occurrence of extreme rainfall in the region. On the contrary, there are less projected  
30 cases over 20 hPa which in a study that used a somewhat similar I500 index definition is a threshold  
31 for increasing probability of MEPs (Garavaglia *et. al.* 2012). In general, I500 tends to be slightly  
32 reduced in future scenarios of three models and considerably decreased in the case of the LMDZ  
33 model.  
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40 RCA, PROMES and LMDZ models and less clearly RegCM3 project an increase in convergence of  
41 water vapour in the region east of 60° W (DE index), Figure 14. This increase is much more evident  
42 for extreme monthly events (low percentiles) and towards end of century.  
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46 The general trend towards more precipitation in SESA in the twenty first century, especially in the  
47 case of high and extreme monthly precipitation as projected by the RCMs do not seem to respond to  
48 more cyclonic advection in the mid tropospheric circulation, but to an increase of the water vapour  
49 convergence in the lower atmosphere over the east of the subtropical SESA.  
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#### 54 **5. CONCLUDING REMARKS**

1 During the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century in the LPB there was a general positive trend in  
2 precipitation starting in some areas in the 1960 decade and in the 1970 in others, (Barros *et al.*  
3 2000, Liebmann *et al.* 2004). These trends were more evident in monthly extremes and at a spatial  
4 scale compatible with the long lasting regional floods, Doyle *et al.* (2012).  
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10 According to the four RCMs analyzed, these trends would not be reversed during the present  
11 century and will likely persist in monthly extreme precipitations as two of the four models project in  
12 northeast of Argentina and south of Brazil and all models do for the southern part of LPB, namely  
13 in region 3, Figure 1, where extended and lasting floods take place over very flat plains with small  
14 drainage. Therefore, without critical changes in other conditions, like land use or drainage works, it  
15 could be expected that present recurrence of long lasting floods will persist or even become shorter.  
16 These results bear uncertainties related to the RCMs skills, but also those depending on the  
17 realization or not of the emission scenario used to force these models, namely the SRES A1B. For  
18 the near term future, global climate would be approximately similar no matter which emission  
19 scenarios actually will take place. Therefore, emission scenarios will not affect the near term future  
20 climate and results from one emission scenario can be considered representative of any other  
21 possible one. On the contrary, since global climate by the end of the century will be critically  
22 dependable on the emission scenario, the results here presented, based on a kind of mid emission  
23 scenario, only can be seen as a qualitative approach for the sign of changes.  
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34 MEPs have a marked annual cycle in LPB, being more frequent from October to April, and  
35 according to the RCM projections this pattern would persist throughout the 21<sup>st</sup> century because  
36 their increase in frequency would take place mostly during the warm half of the year. However, in  
37 the case of the southernmost LPB region, it would appear MEPs in future scenarios during winter  
38 time, which were not observed in the reference period. This result would worsen flood conditions  
39 contributing to enduring flooding because of the small evaporation in that part of the year.  
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46 The general trend towards higher extreme monthly precipitation in SESA in the twenty first  
47 century, as projected by the RCMs, seems to respond to an increase of the water vapour  
48 convergence in the lower atmosphere over the east of the subtropical SESA. Although, other factors  
49 would contribute to this increased convergence, the mere warming associated to the global climate  
50 change will contribute to it. In fact, regional warming was projected by the four RCMs here  
51 analyzed (Saurral *et al.* 2013 in this volume).  
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**FIGURE CAPTIONS**

**Figure 1:** Regions and precipitation stations.

**Figure 2:** Percentile distribution of monthly precipitation averaged over regions a) R1, b) R2 and c) R3 for the control period 1981/1990. Black for the observed values and simulated by models RC (green), RegCM3 (violet), LMDZ (blue) and PROMES (orange).

**Figure 3:** Percentile distribution of the I500 index. According to the definition of the index, positive (negative) values indicate prevailing cyclonic (anticyclonic) advection over SESA. Colours as in Figure 2.

**Figure 4:** Percentile distribution of the DE index. According to the definition of the index, positive (negative) values indicate prevailing divergence (convergence) of water vapour in the low levels of the atmosphere in SESA. Colours as in Figure 2.

**Figure 5:** As in Figure 4 but for the DW index.

**Figure 6:** Mean water transport (arrows) integrated between 1000 and 700 hPa ( $\text{mm m s}^{-1}$ ) and its divergence in contours ( $10^{-5} \text{ mm s}^{-1}$ ) for the period October-March. a) Observed, b) RCA model and c) RegCM3 model. The boxes indicate the areas where DW and DE indexes are calculated

**Figure 7:** Percentile distribution of monthly precipitation of RCM models averaged over region R1, a) RCA, b) PROMES, c) RegCM3, d) LMDZ for the near future (blue) and for the end of the century (green). In black the observed distribution for the 1990-2004 period.

**Figure 8:** As in Figure 7, but for region R2.

**Figure 9:** As in Figure 7, but for region R3.

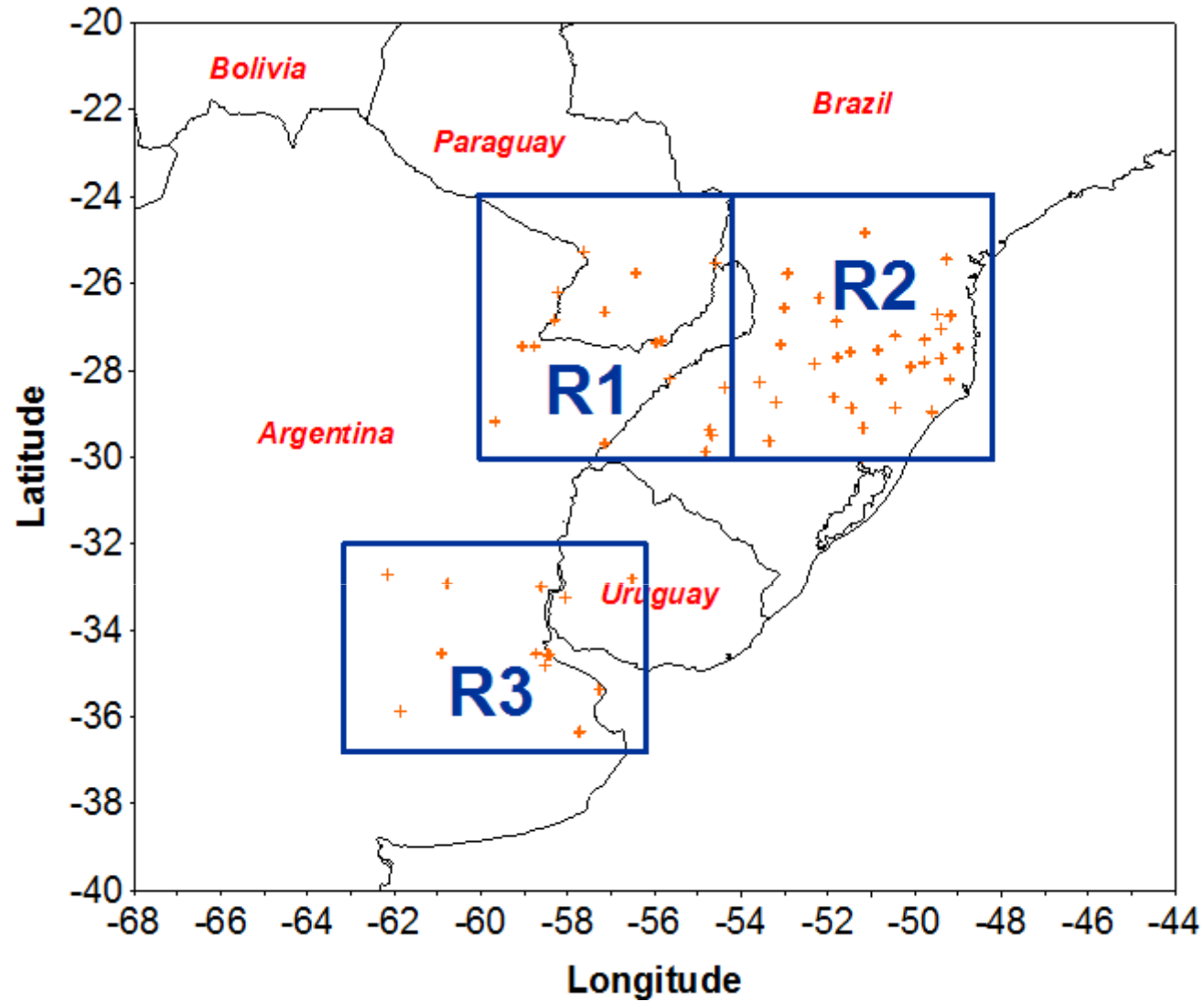
**Figure 10:** Annual cycle of the frequency of MEPs for region R1. Observed values 1990-2004 in black. Model projections for the near future in panel a) and for the end of the century in panel b), RCA in green, RegCM3 in violet, LMDZ in light blue and PROMES in orange.

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3 **Figure 11:** As in Figure 10, but for region R2.  
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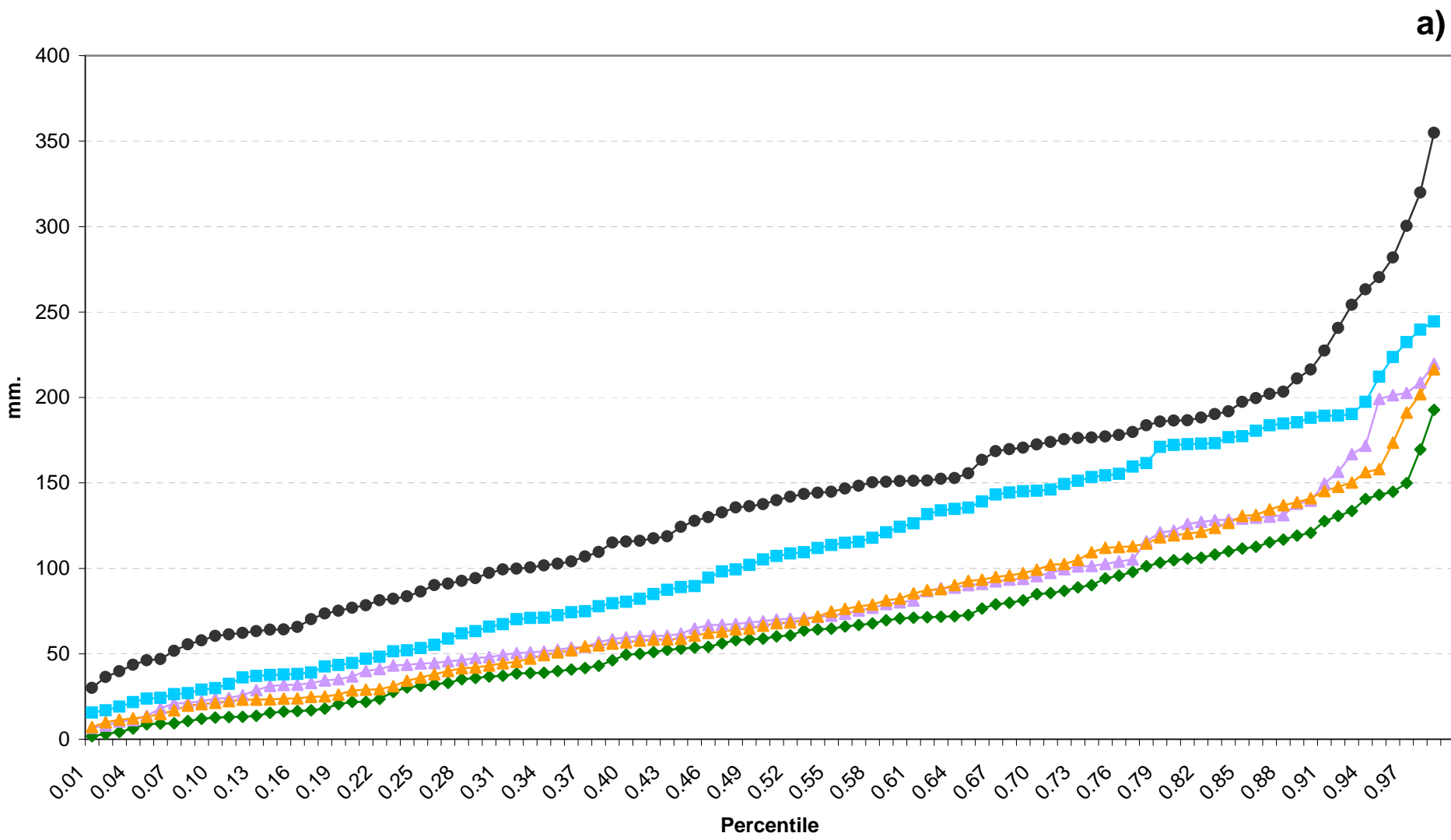
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7 **Figure 12:** As in Figure 10, but for region R3.  
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10 **Figure 13:** Percentile distribution of projected I500 index. a) RCA, b) PROMES, c) RegCM3, d)  
11 LMDZ for the near future (blue) and for the end of the century (green). In black the observed distribution for  
12 the 1990-2004 period.  
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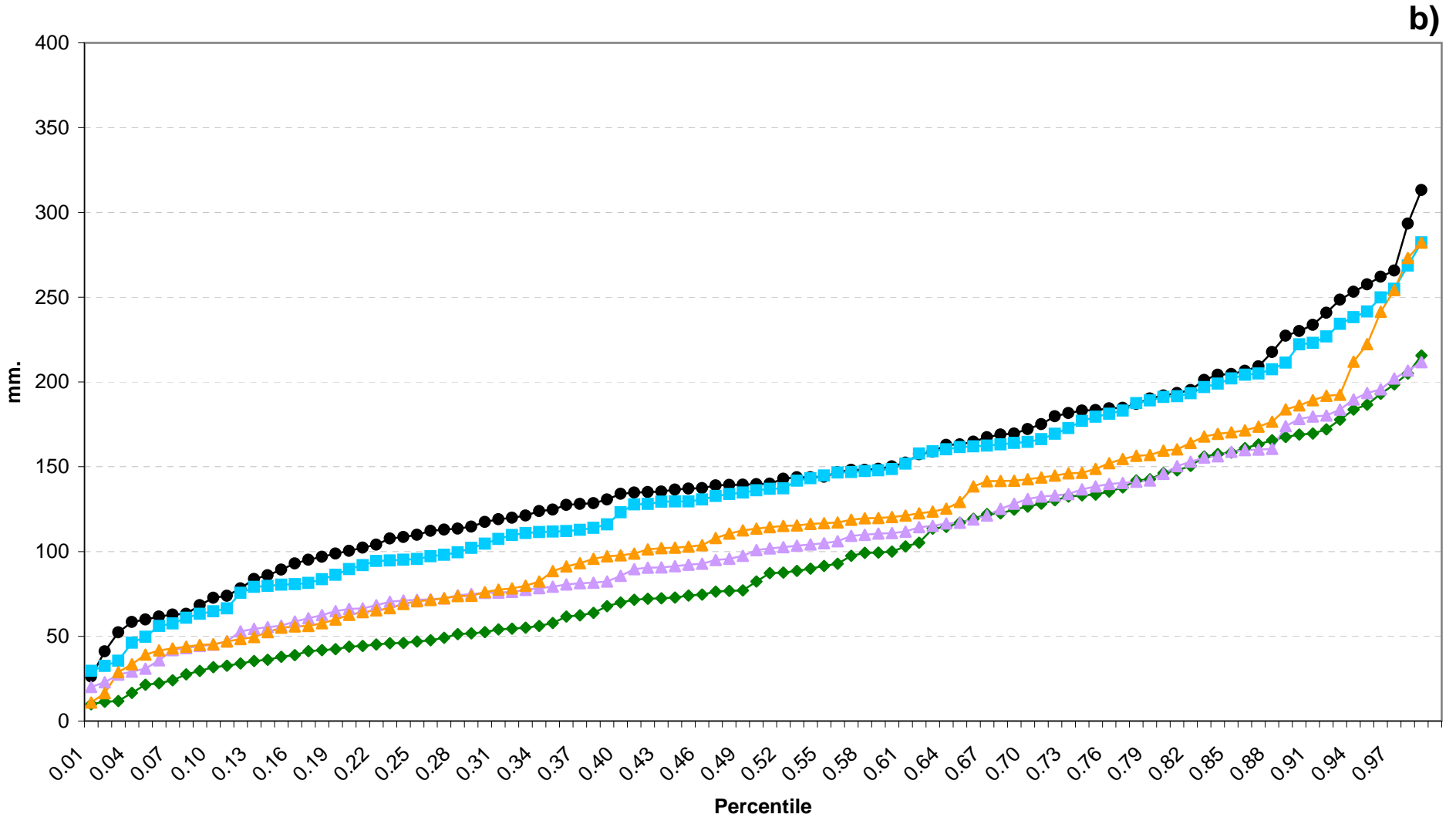
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16 **Figure 14:** Percentile distribution of projected DE index. a) RCA, b) PROMES, c) RegCM3, d) LMDZ  
17 for the near future (blue) and for the end of the century (green). In black the observed distribution for the  
18 1990-2004 period.  
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**Figure 1:** Regions and precipitation stations.

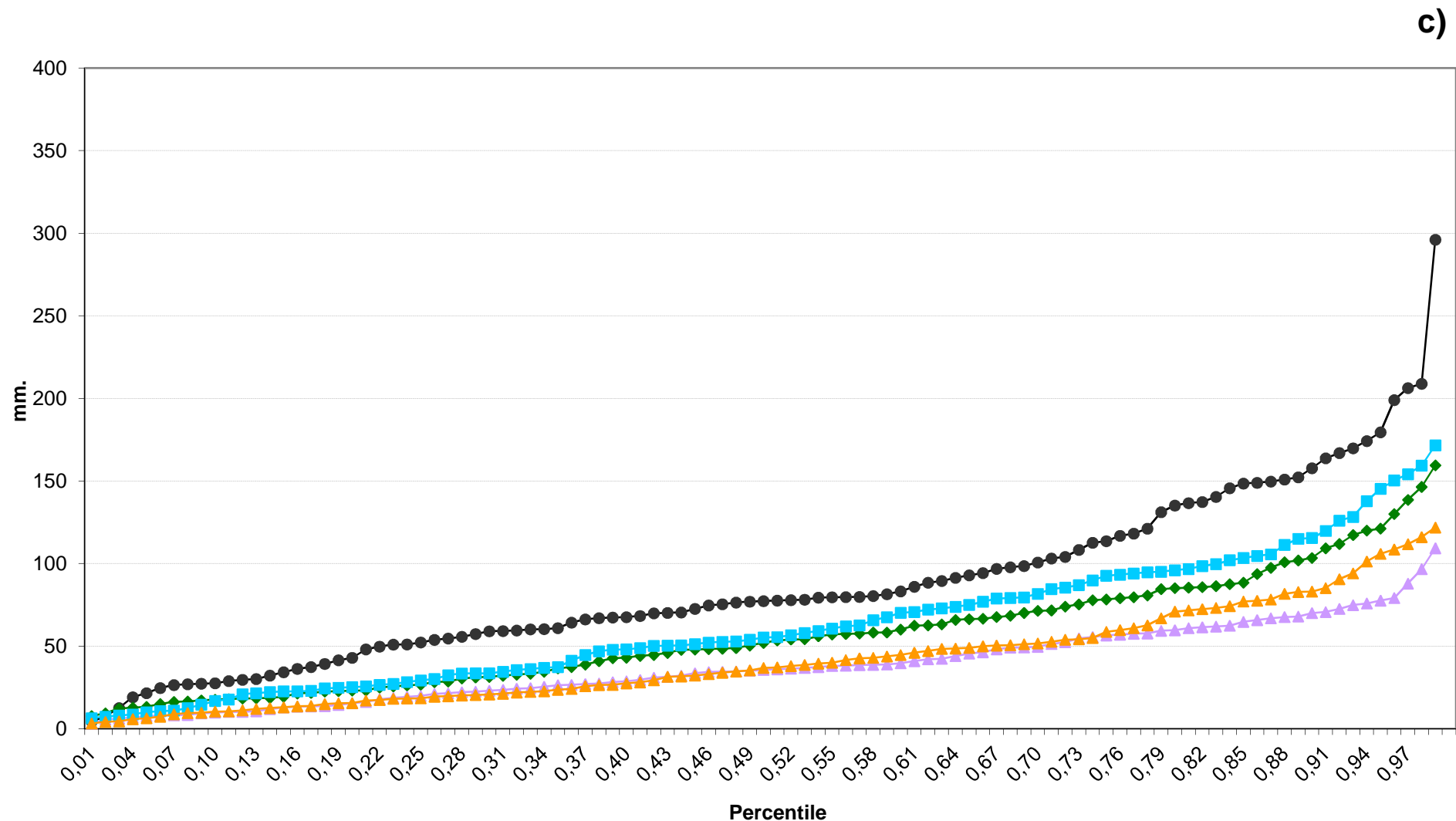


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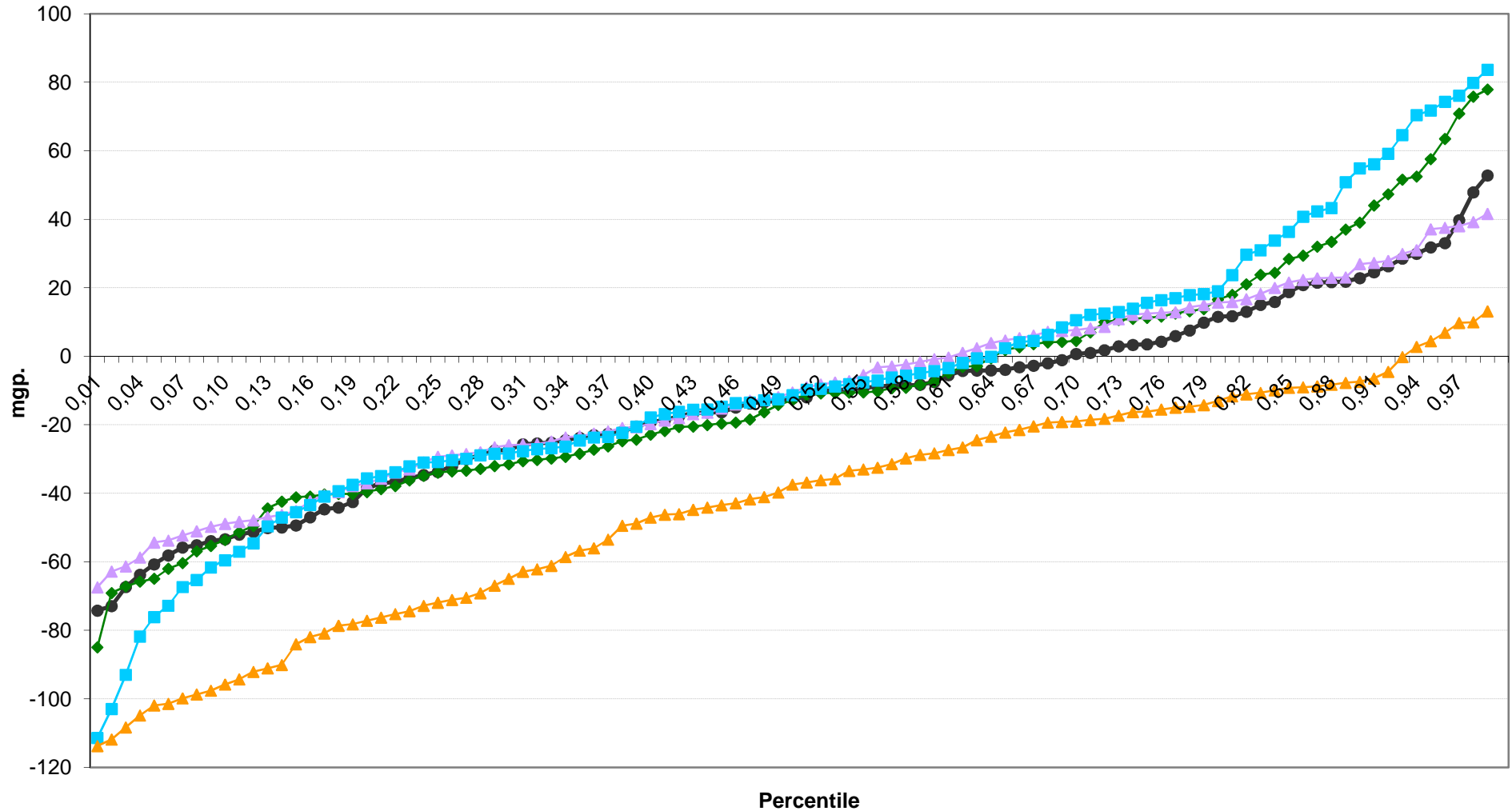
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**Figure 2:** Percentile distribution of monthly precipitation averaged over regions a) R1, b) R2 and c) R3 for the control period 1981/1990. Black for the observed values and simulated by models RC (green), RegCM3 (violet), LMDZ (blue) and PROMES (orange).

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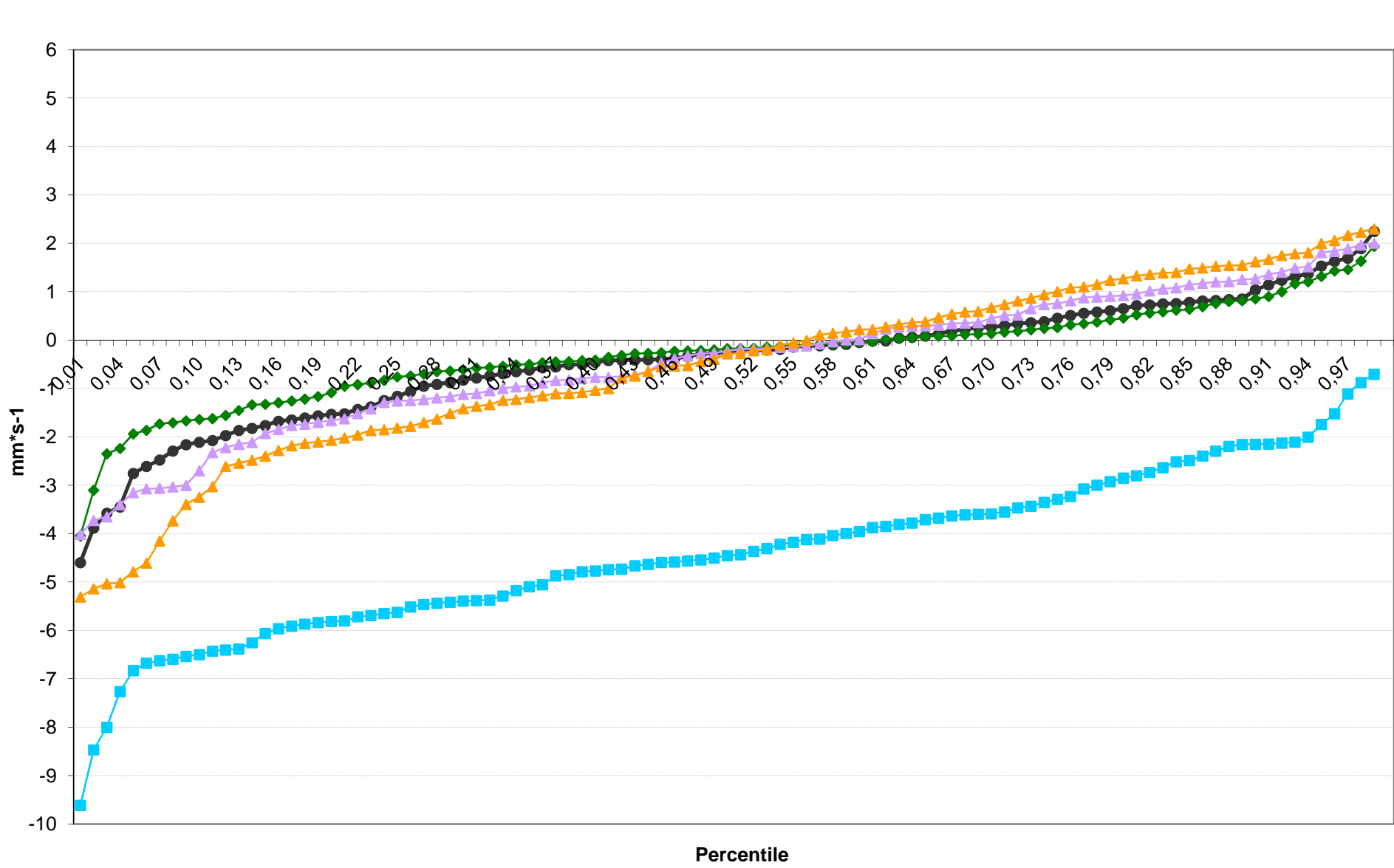




**Figure 3:** Percentile distribution of the I500 index. According to the definition of the index, positive (negative) values indicate prevailing cyclonic (anticyclonic) advection over SESA.

Colours as in Figure 2.  
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**Figure 4:** Percentile distribution of the DE index. According to the definition of the index, positive(negative) values indicate prevailing divergence (convergence) of water vapour in the low levels of the atmosphere in SESA. Colours as in Figure 2.

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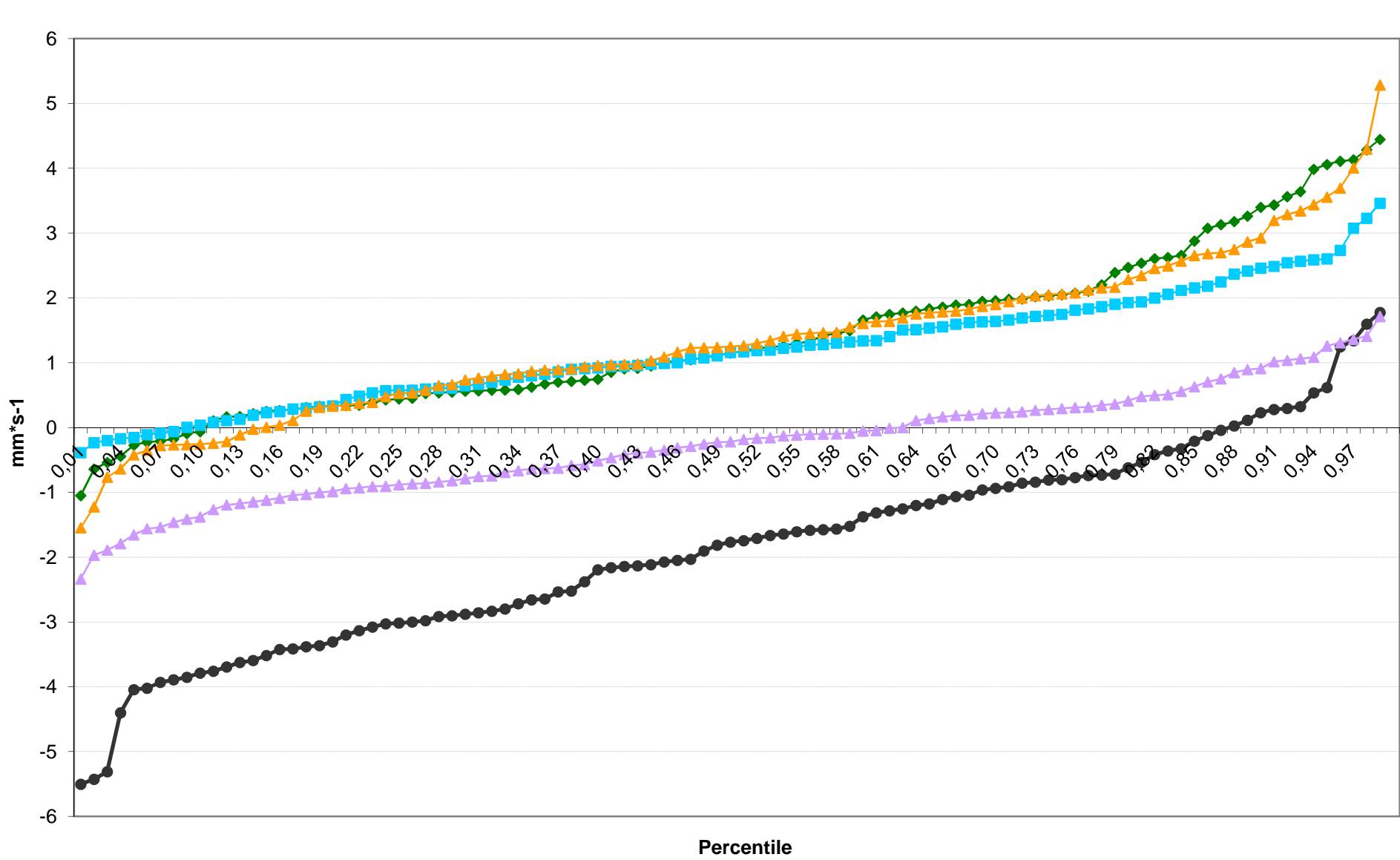
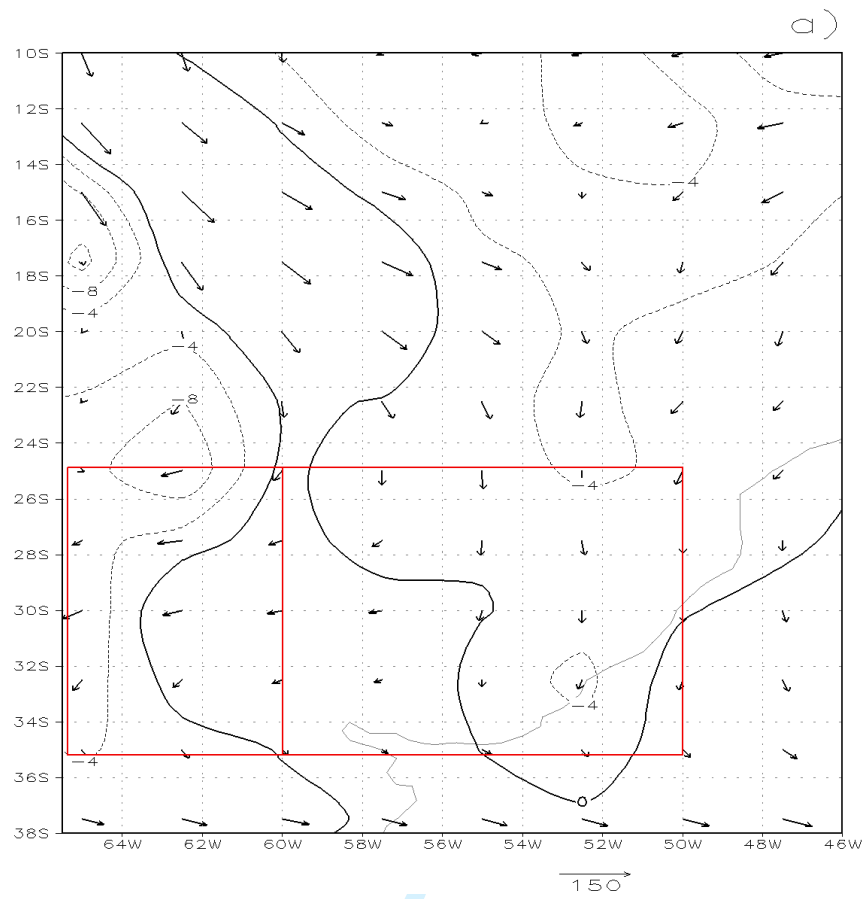
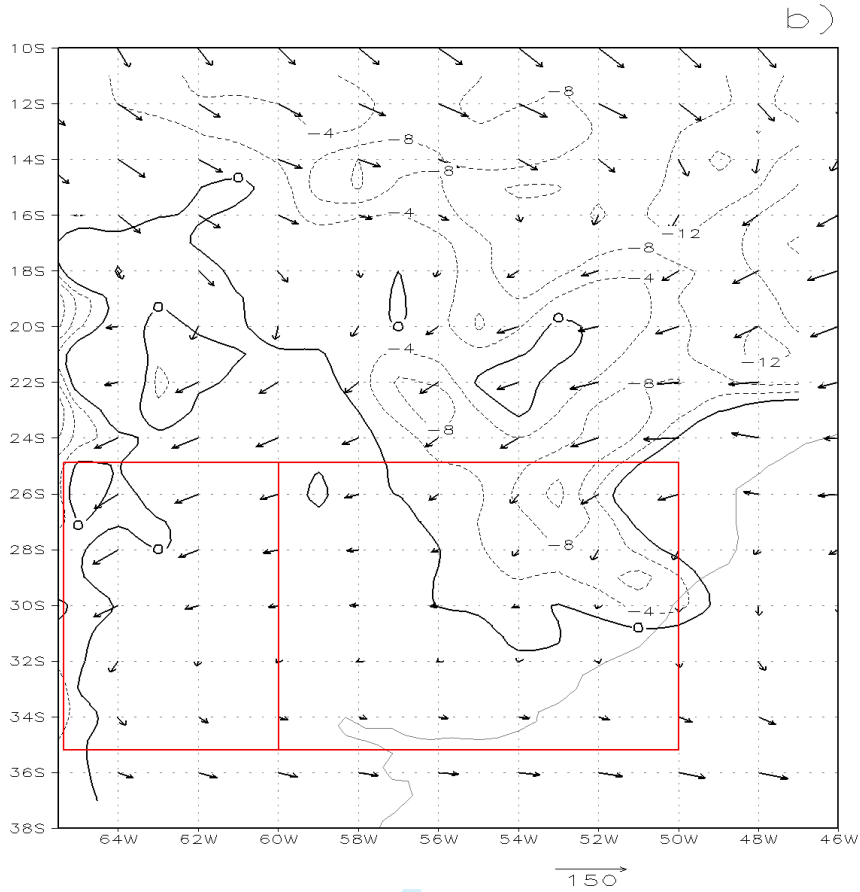


Figure 5: As in Figure 4 but for the DW index.

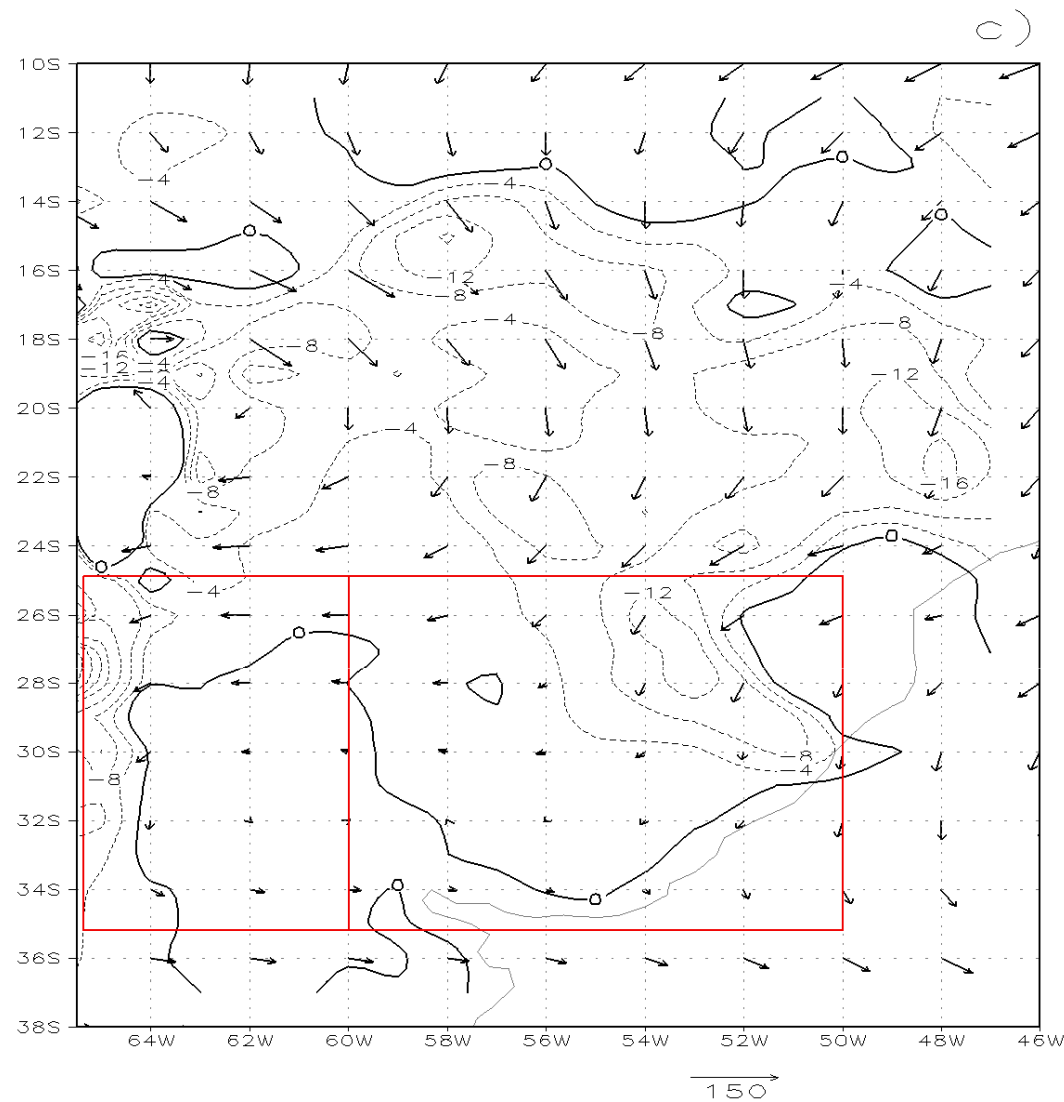
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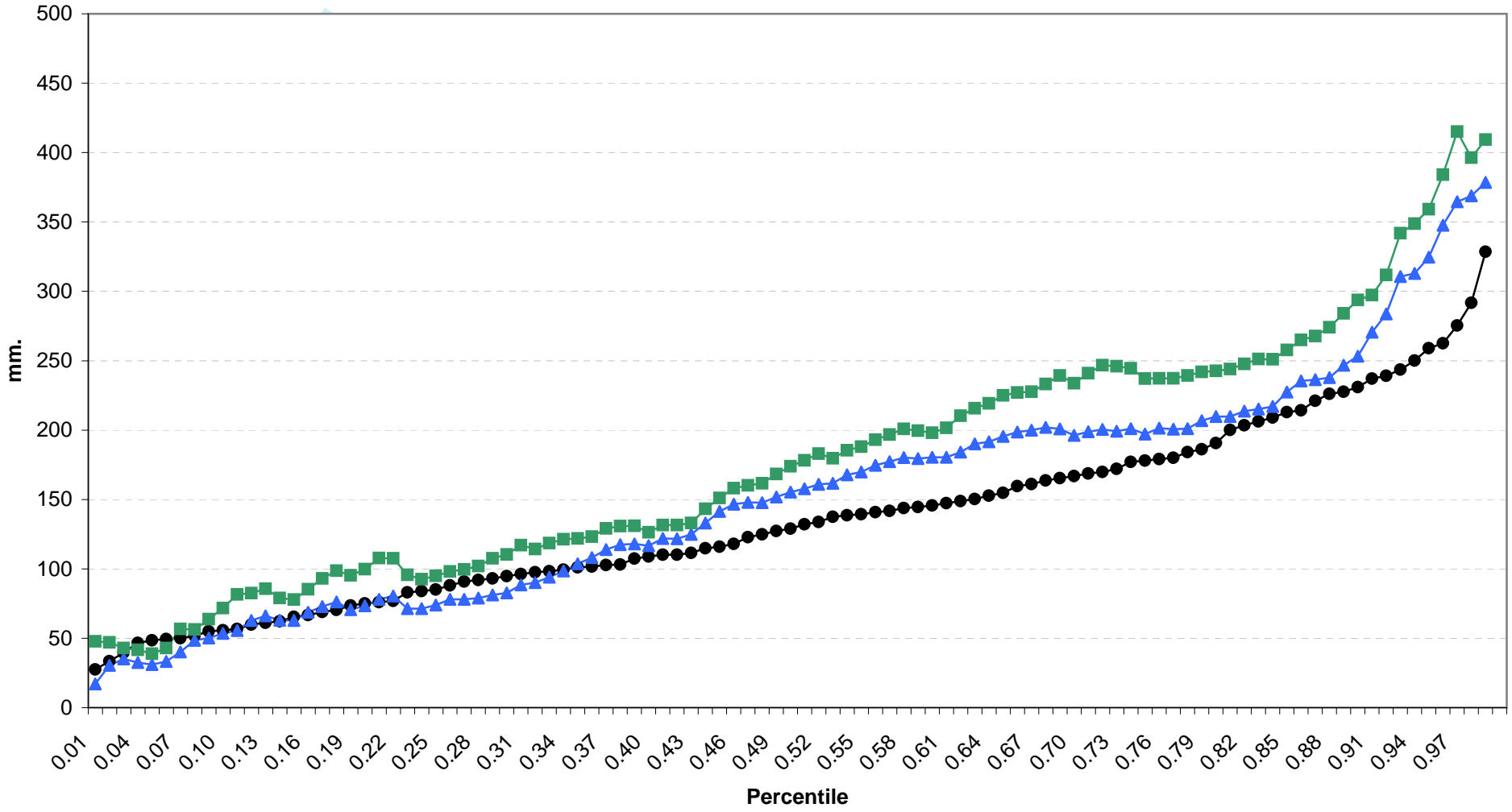


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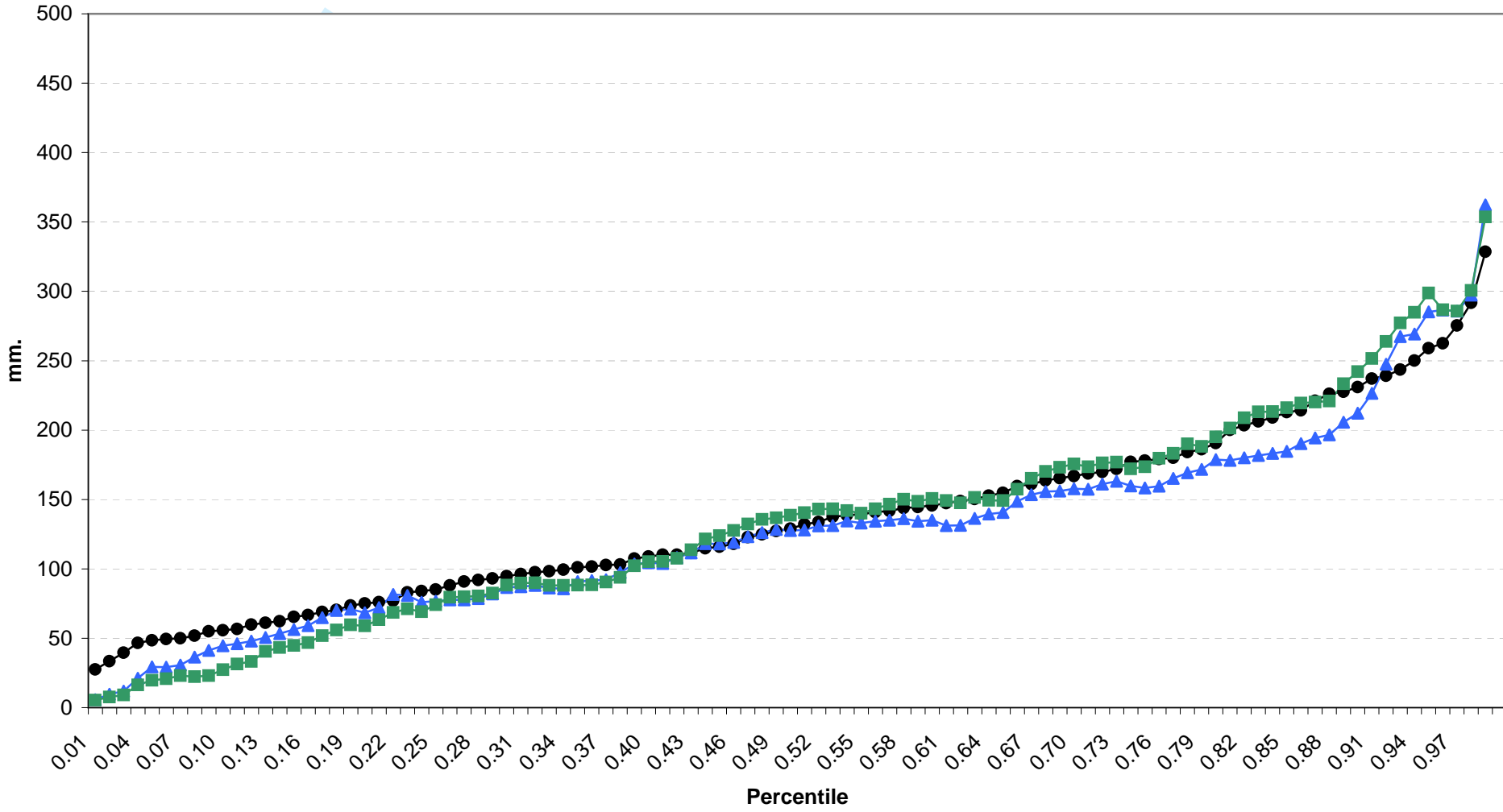


**Figure 6:** Mean water transport (arrows) integrated between 1000 and 700 hPa (mm m s<sup>-1</sup>) and its divergence in contours (10-5 mm s<sup>-1</sup>) for the period October-March. a) Observed, b) RCA model and c) RegCM3 model. The boxes indicate the areas where DW and DE indexes are calculated

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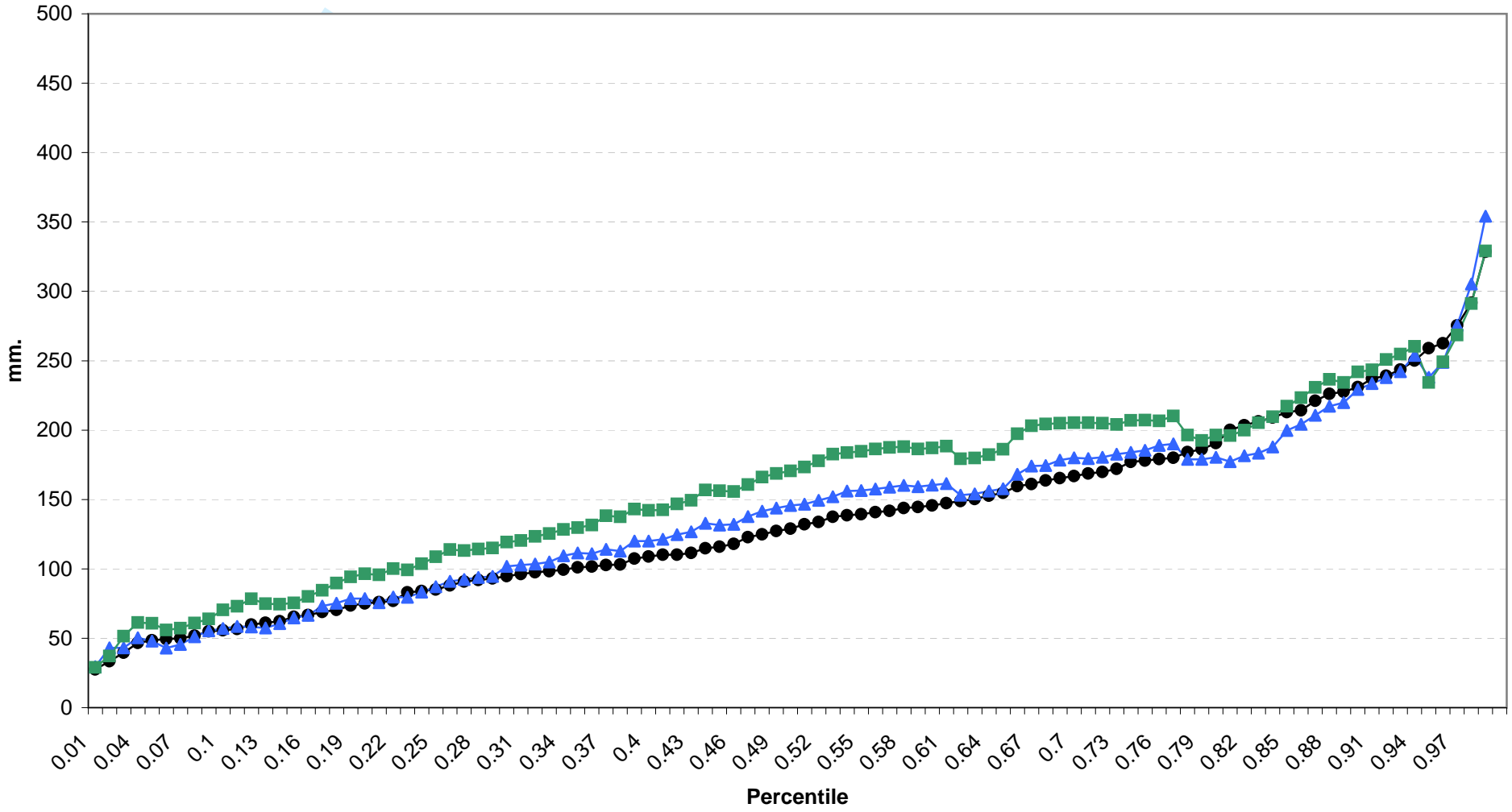


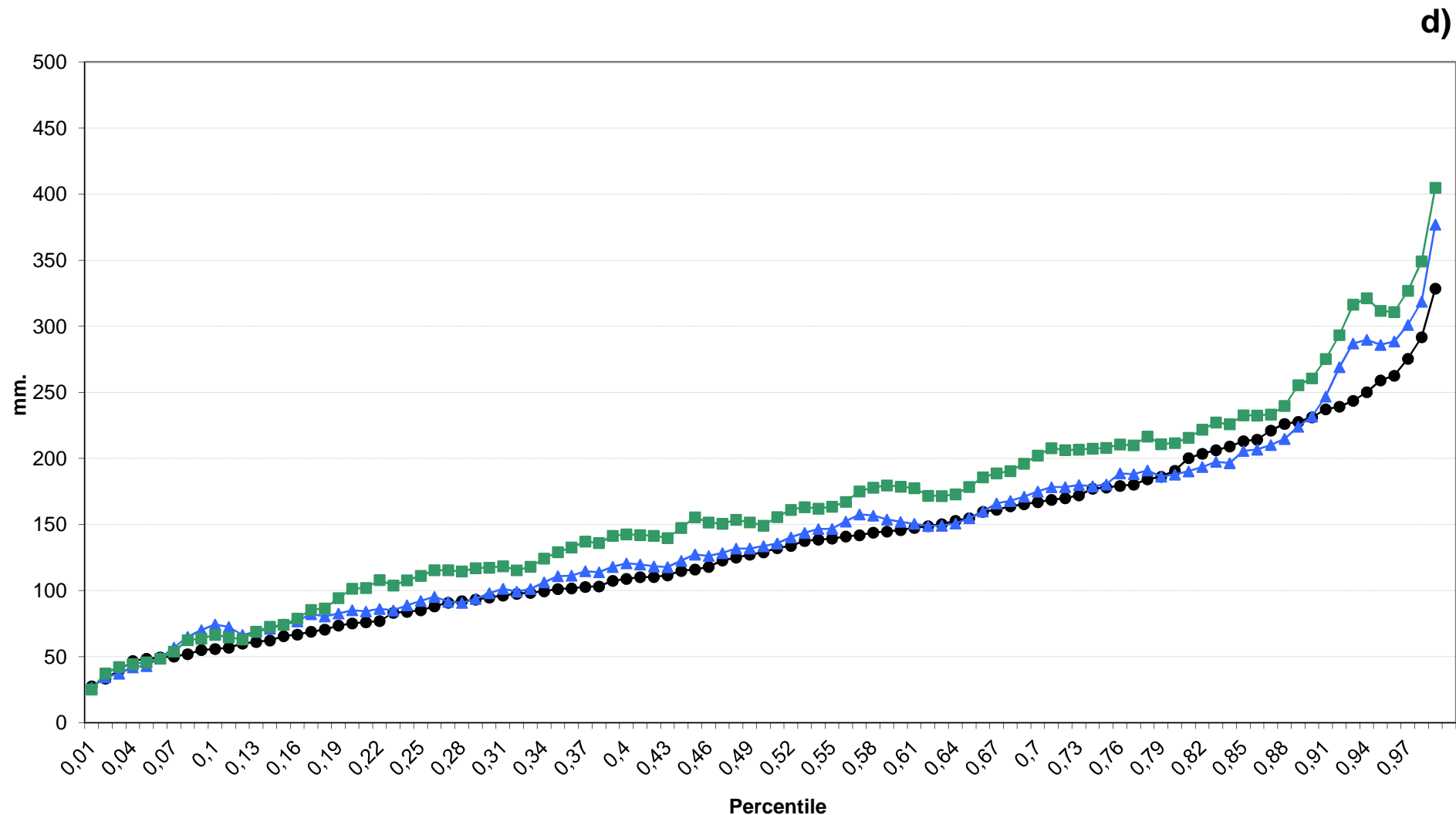
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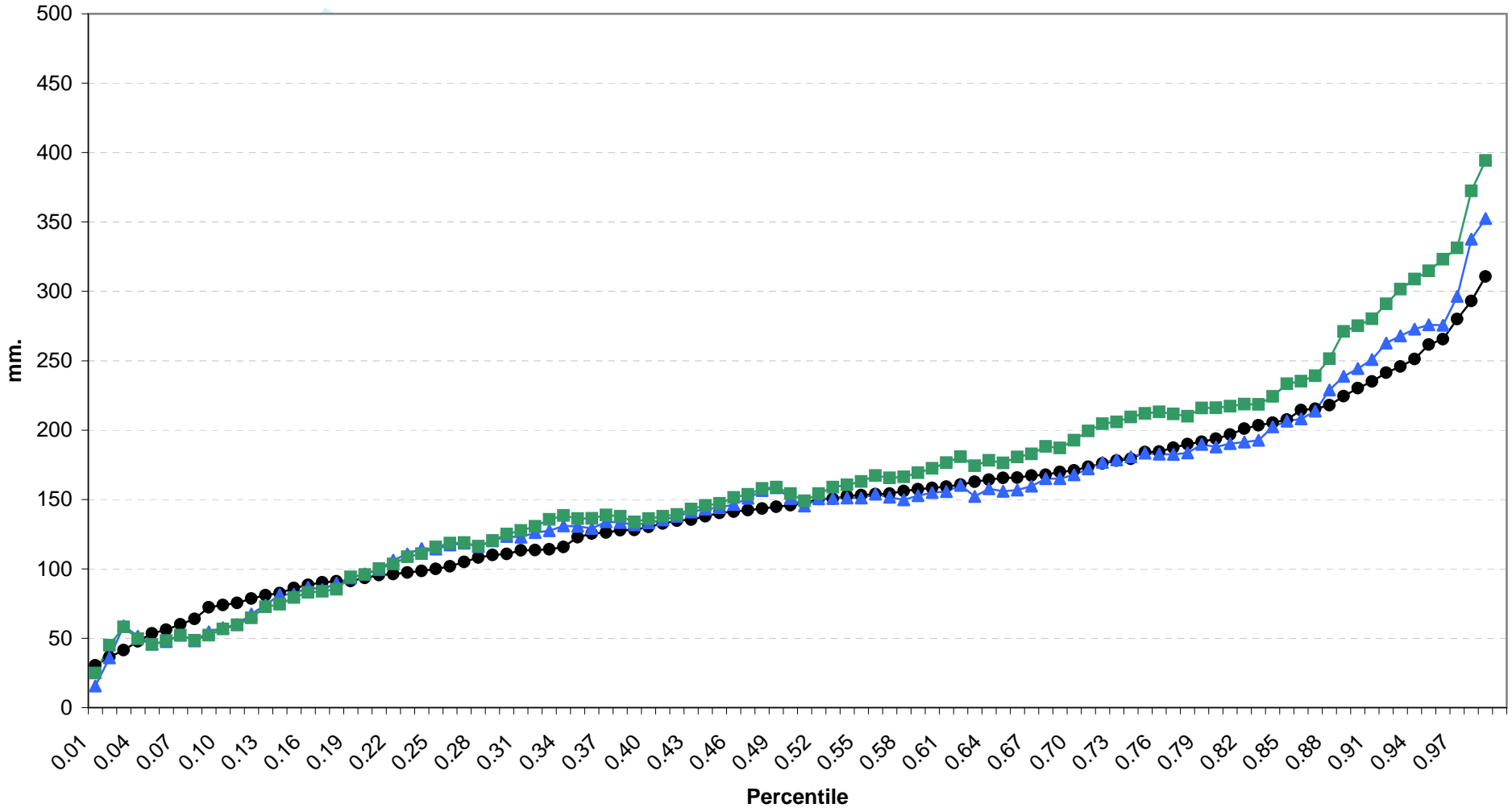
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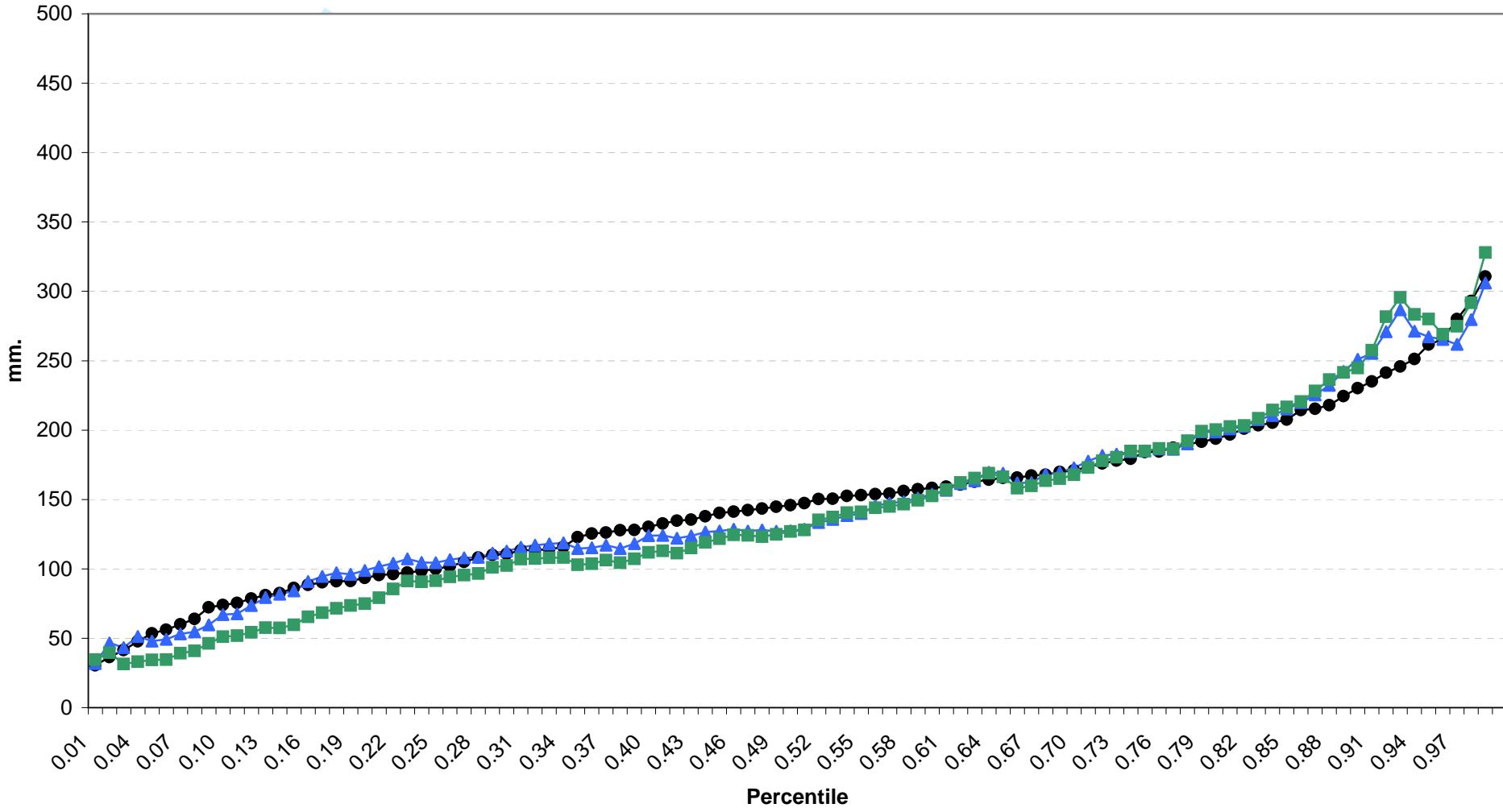
**Figure 7:** Percentile distribution of monthly precipitation of RCM models averaged over region R1, a) RCA, b) PROMES, c) RegCM3, d) LMDZ for the near future (blue) and for the end of the century (green). In black the observed distribution for the 1990-2004 period.

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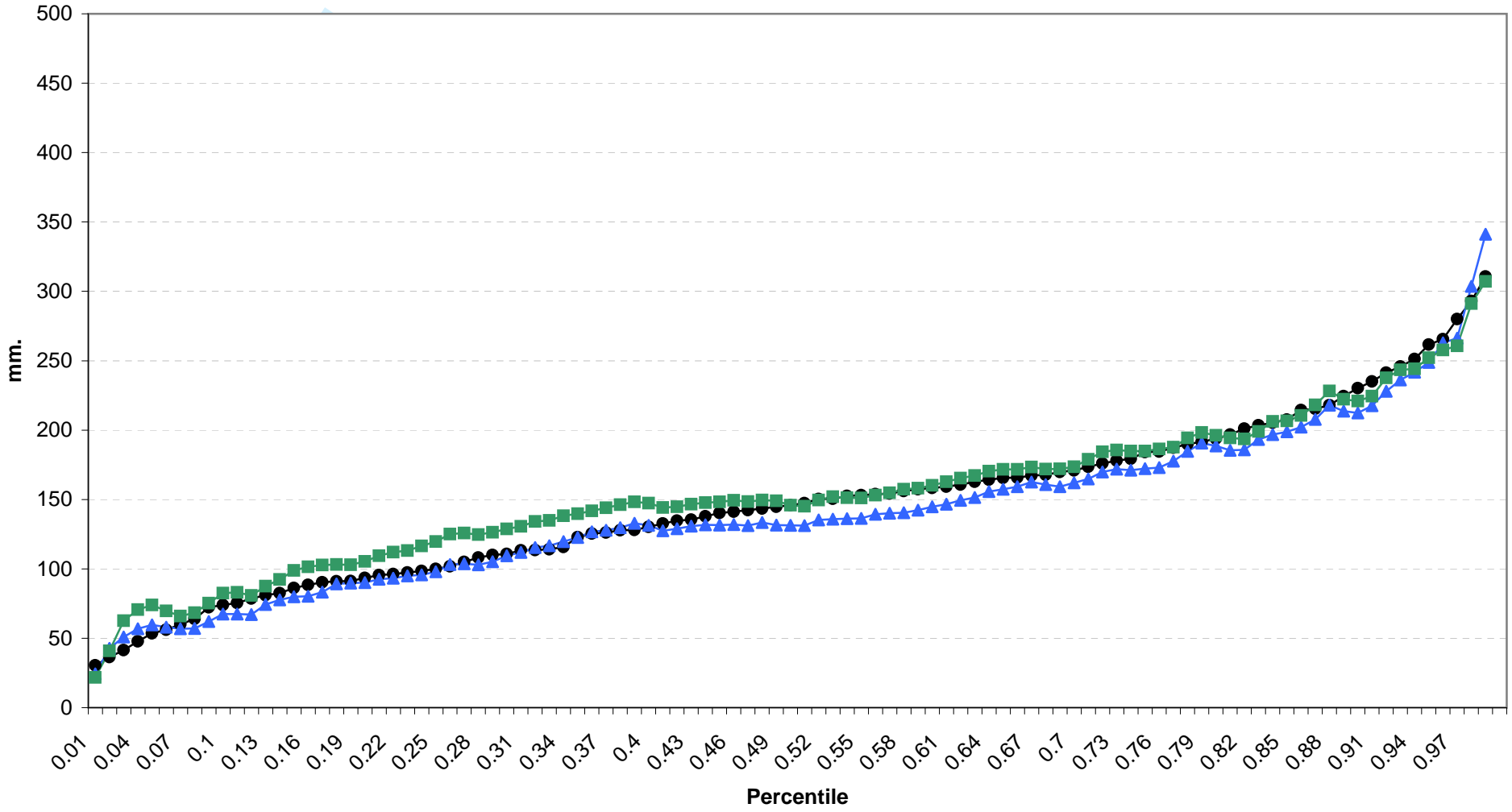


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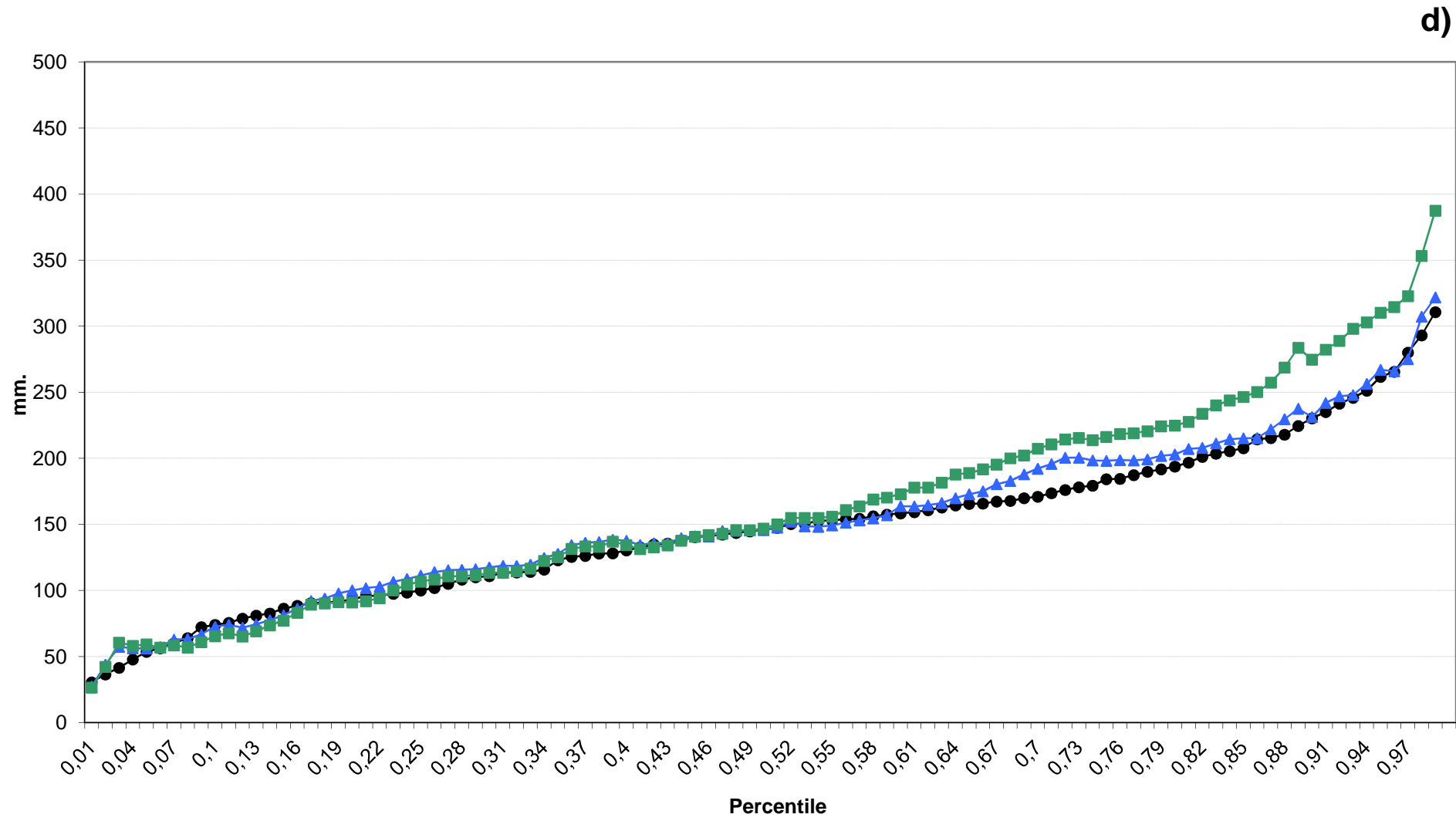
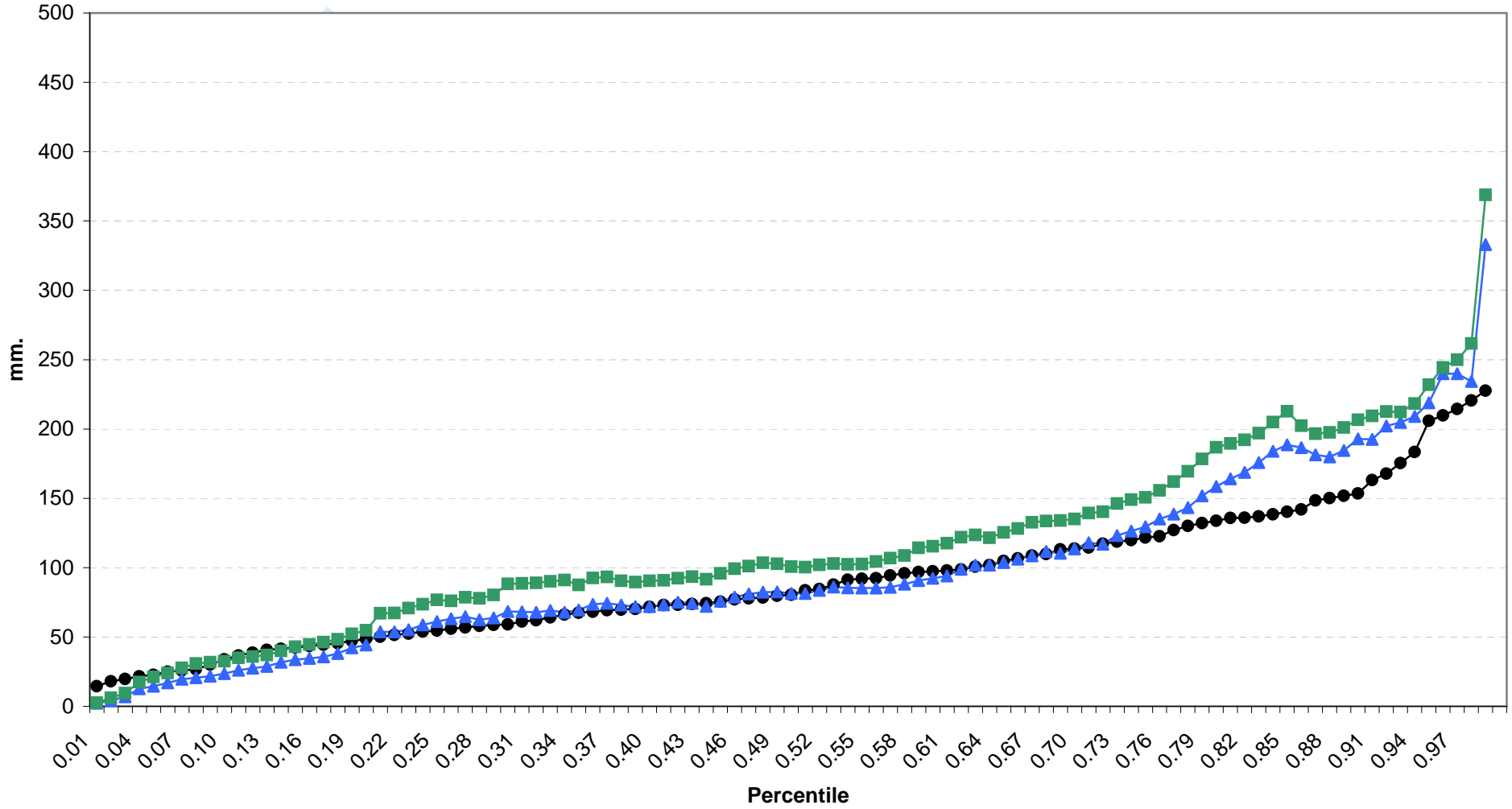


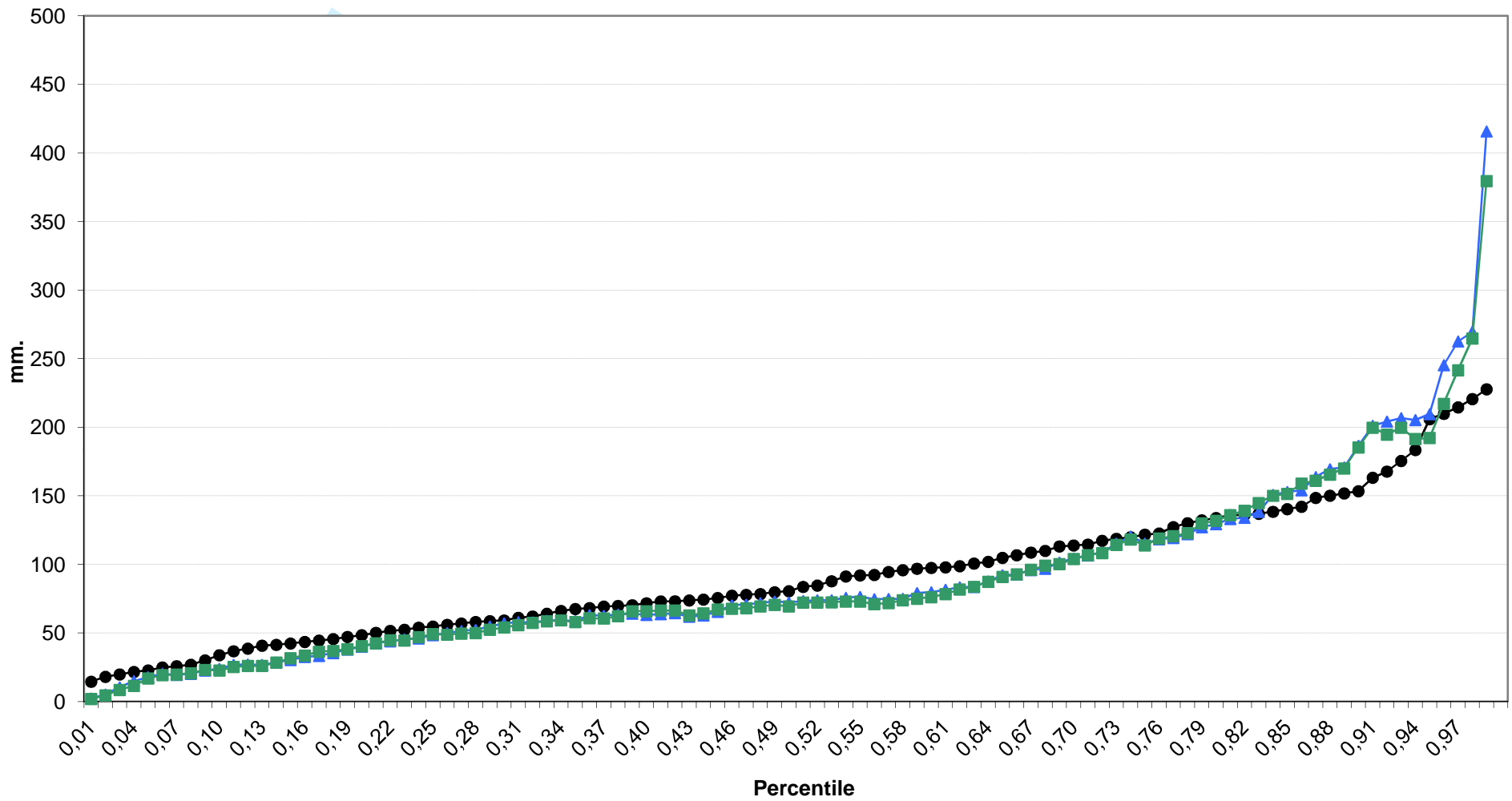
Figure 8: As in Figure 7, but for region R2.

a)



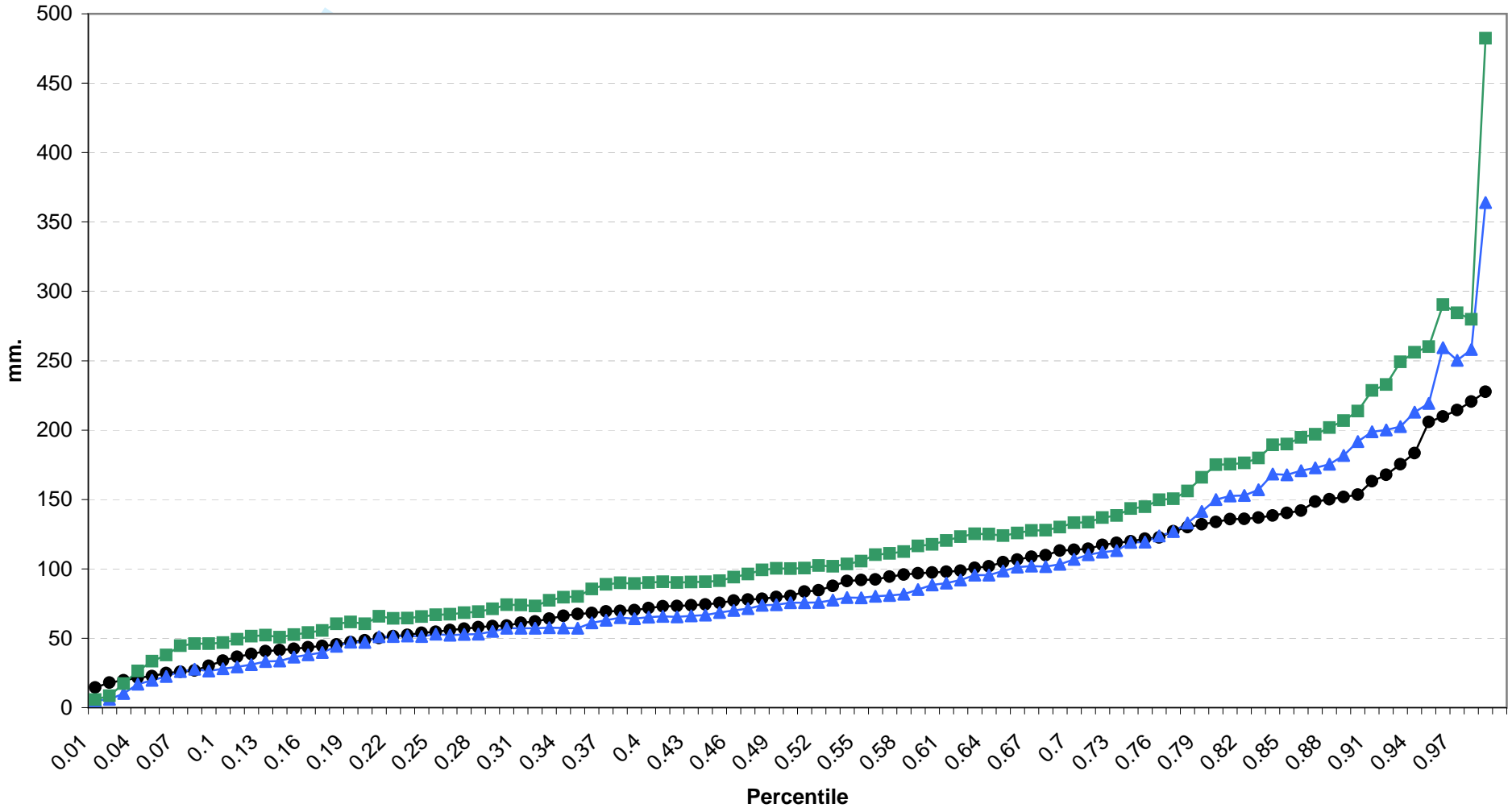
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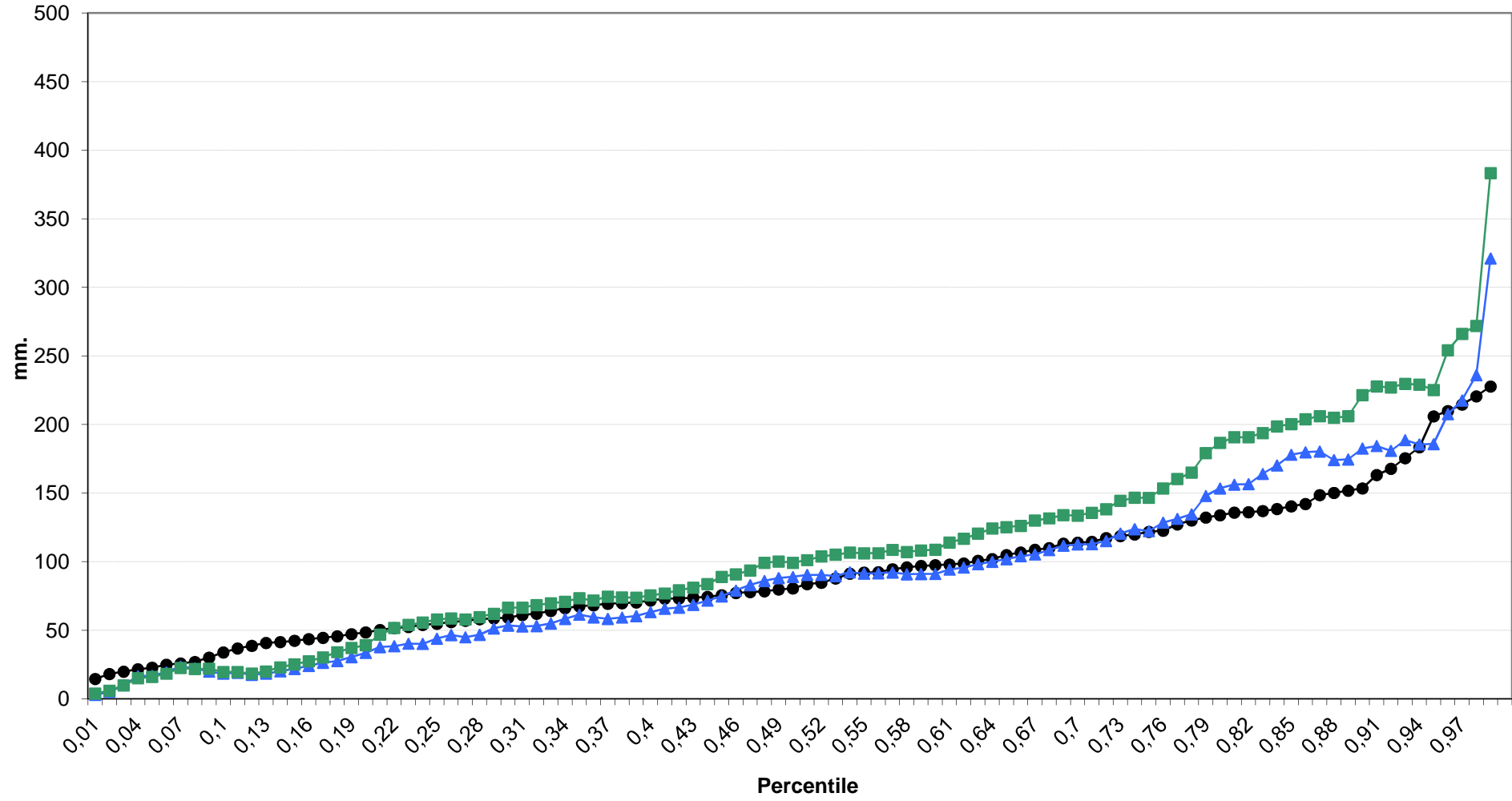
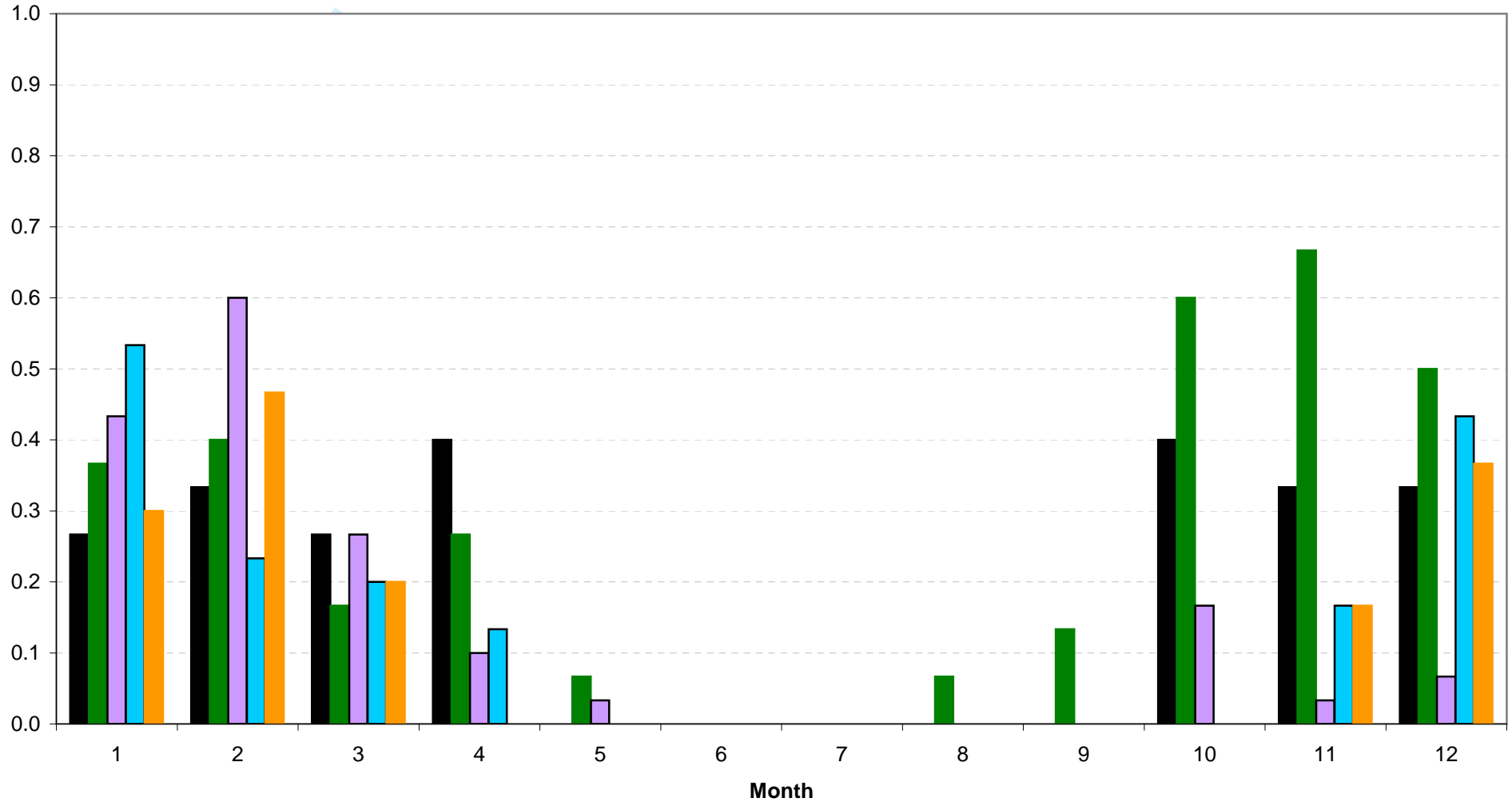
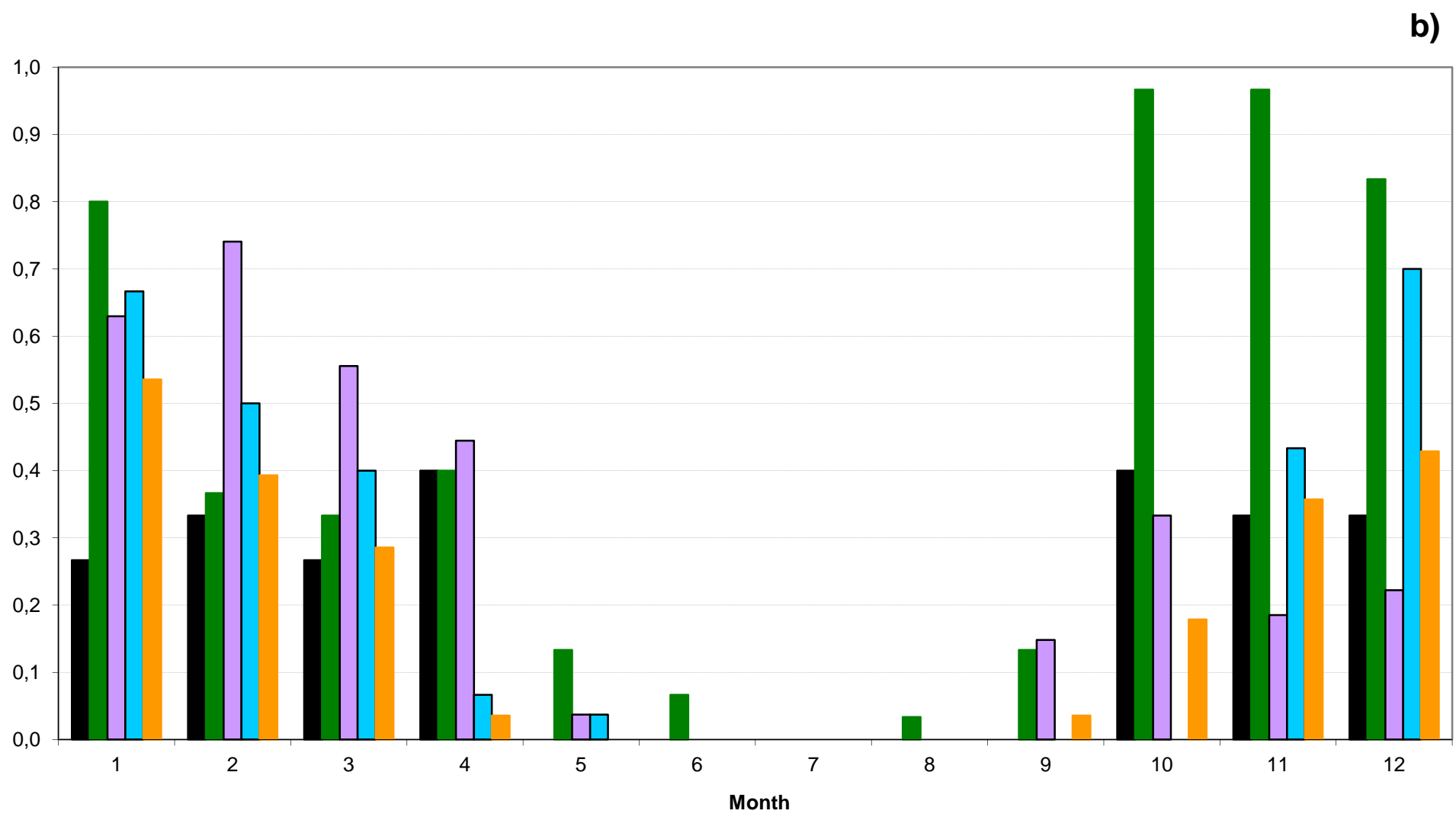


Figure 9: As in Figure 7, but for region R3.

a)



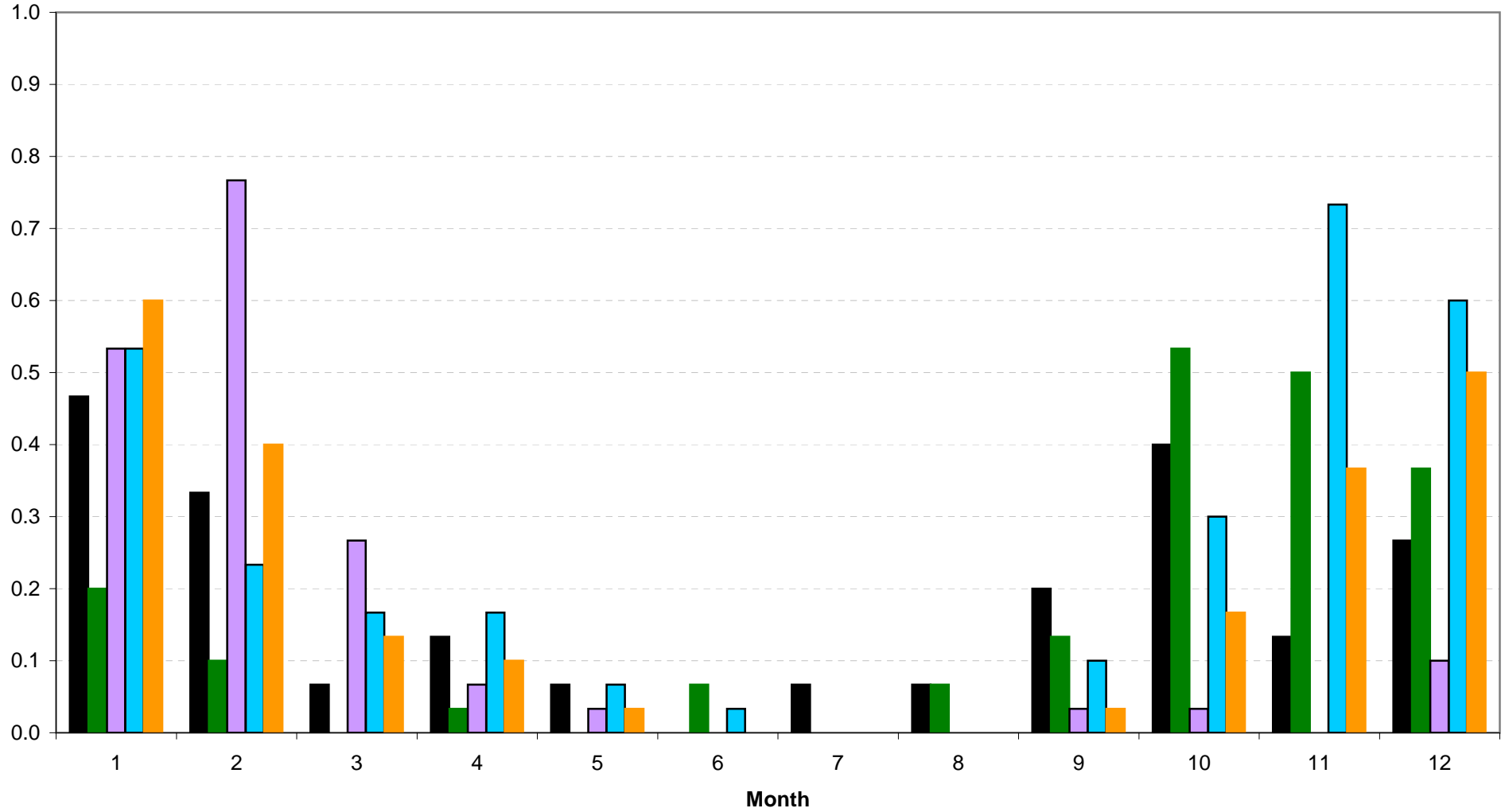
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**Figure 10:** Annual cycle of the frequency of MEPs for region R1. Observed values 1990-2004 in black. Model projections for the near future in panel a) and for the end of the century in panel b), RCA in green, RegCM3 in violet, LMDZ in light blue and PROMES in orange.

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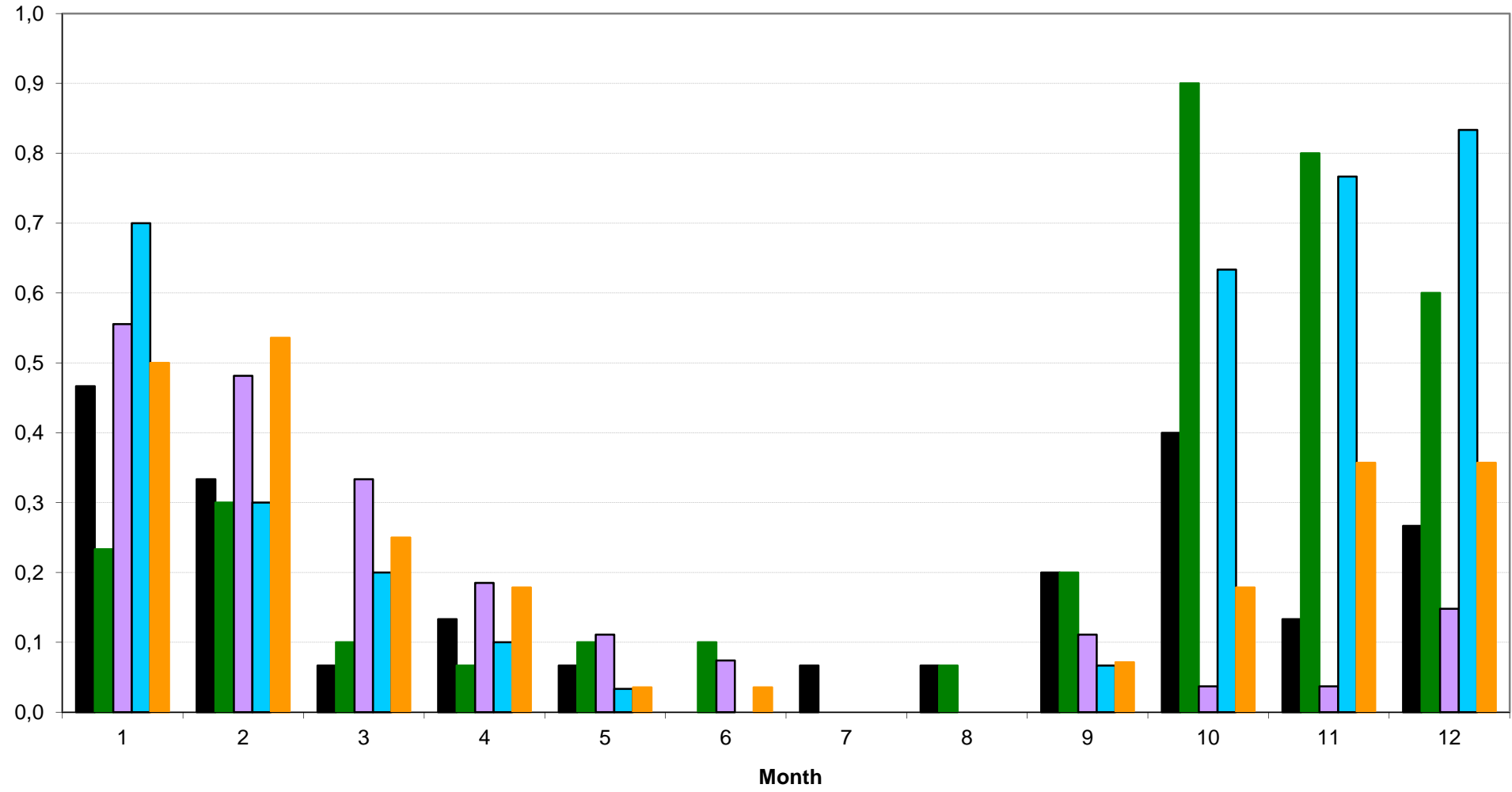
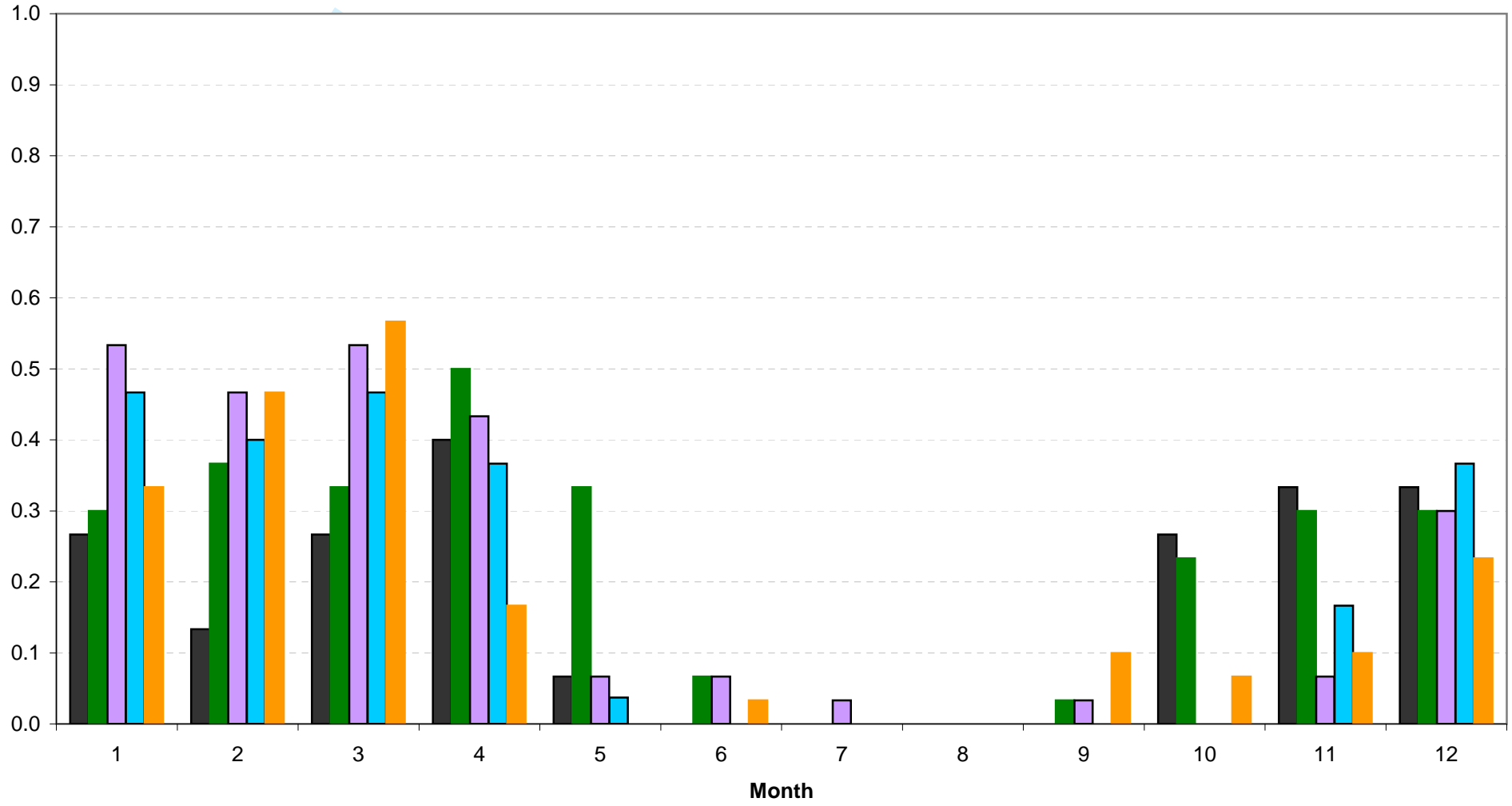


Figure 11: As in Figure 10, but for region R2.

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b)

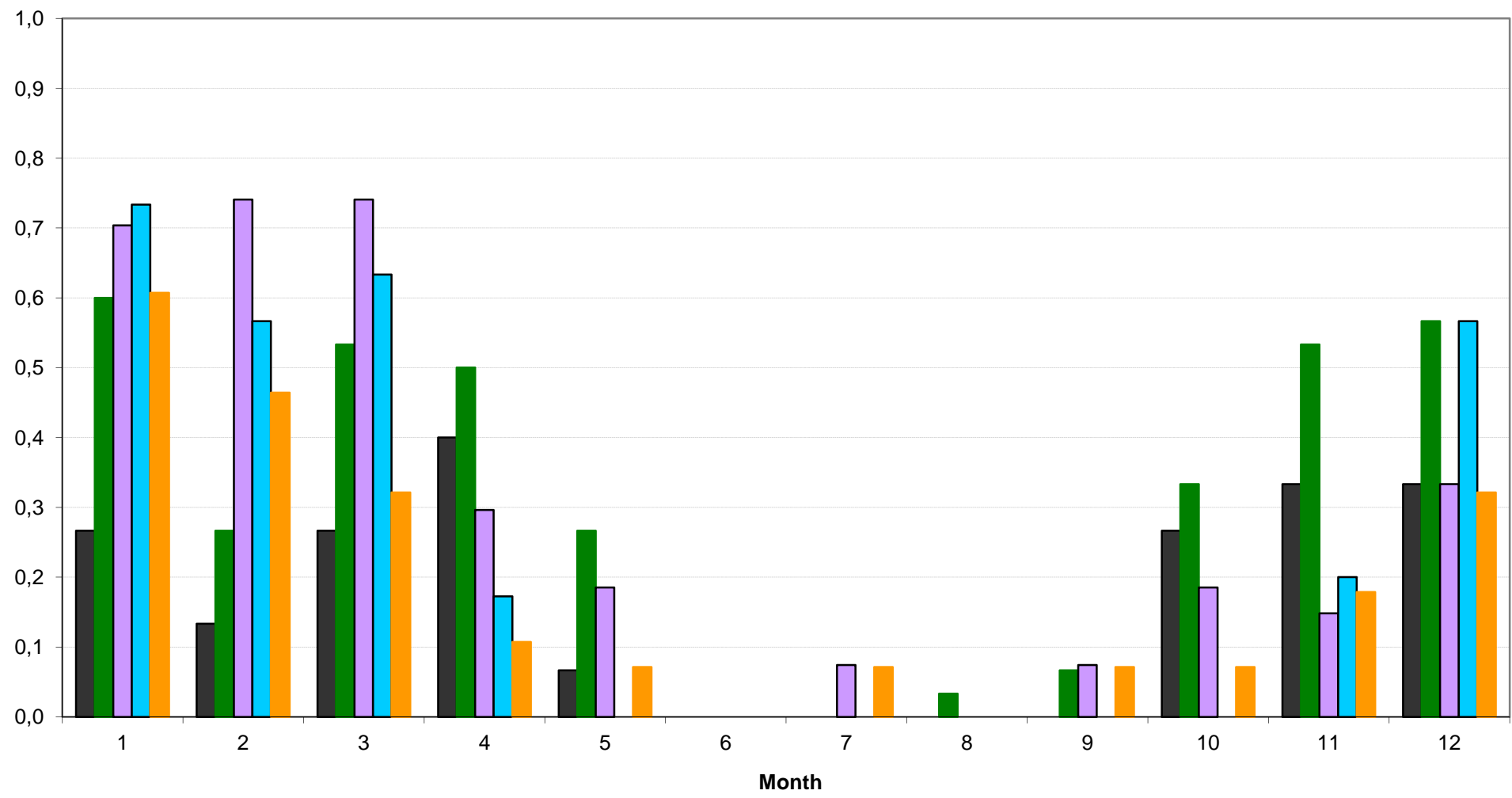
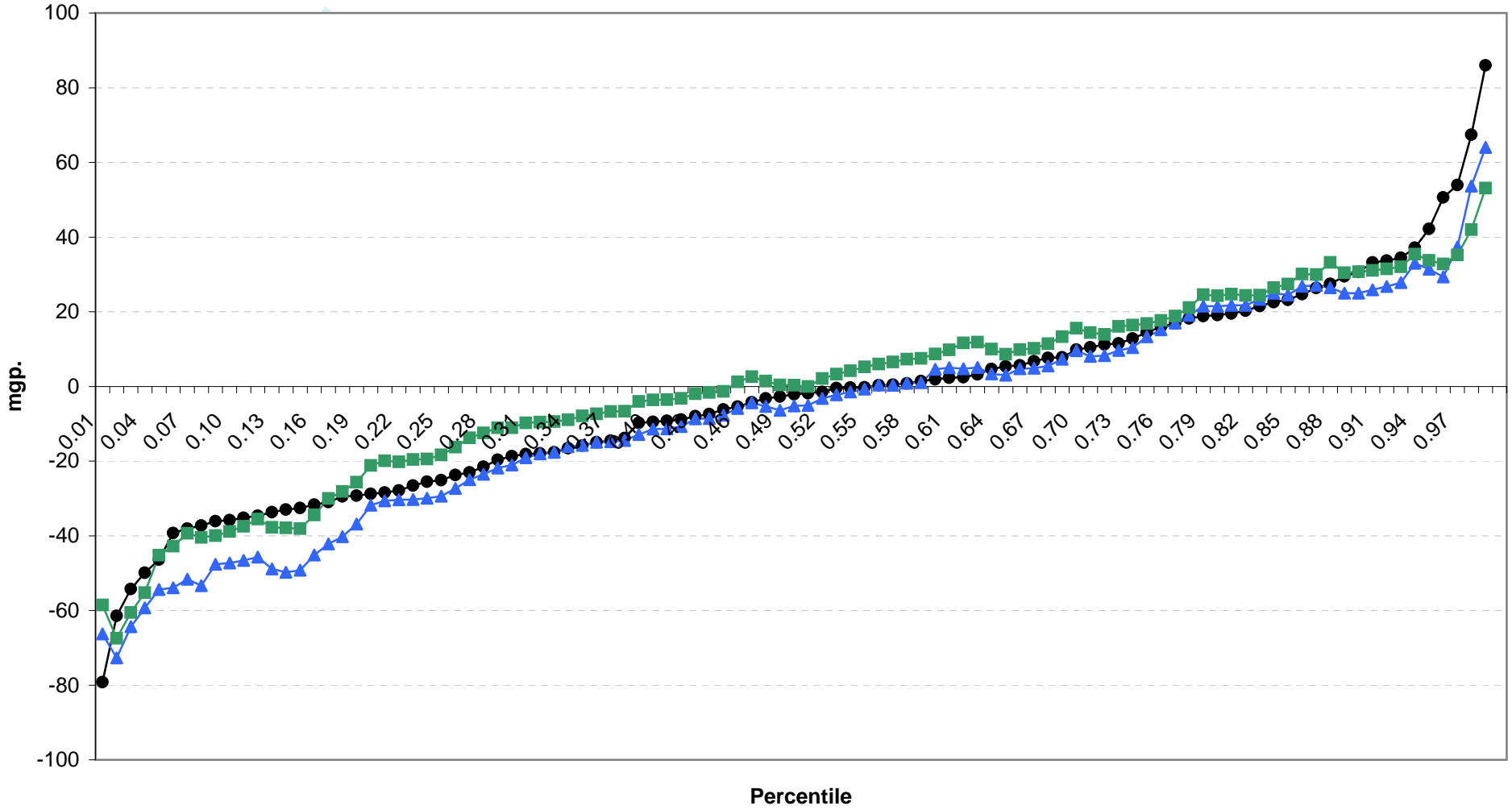


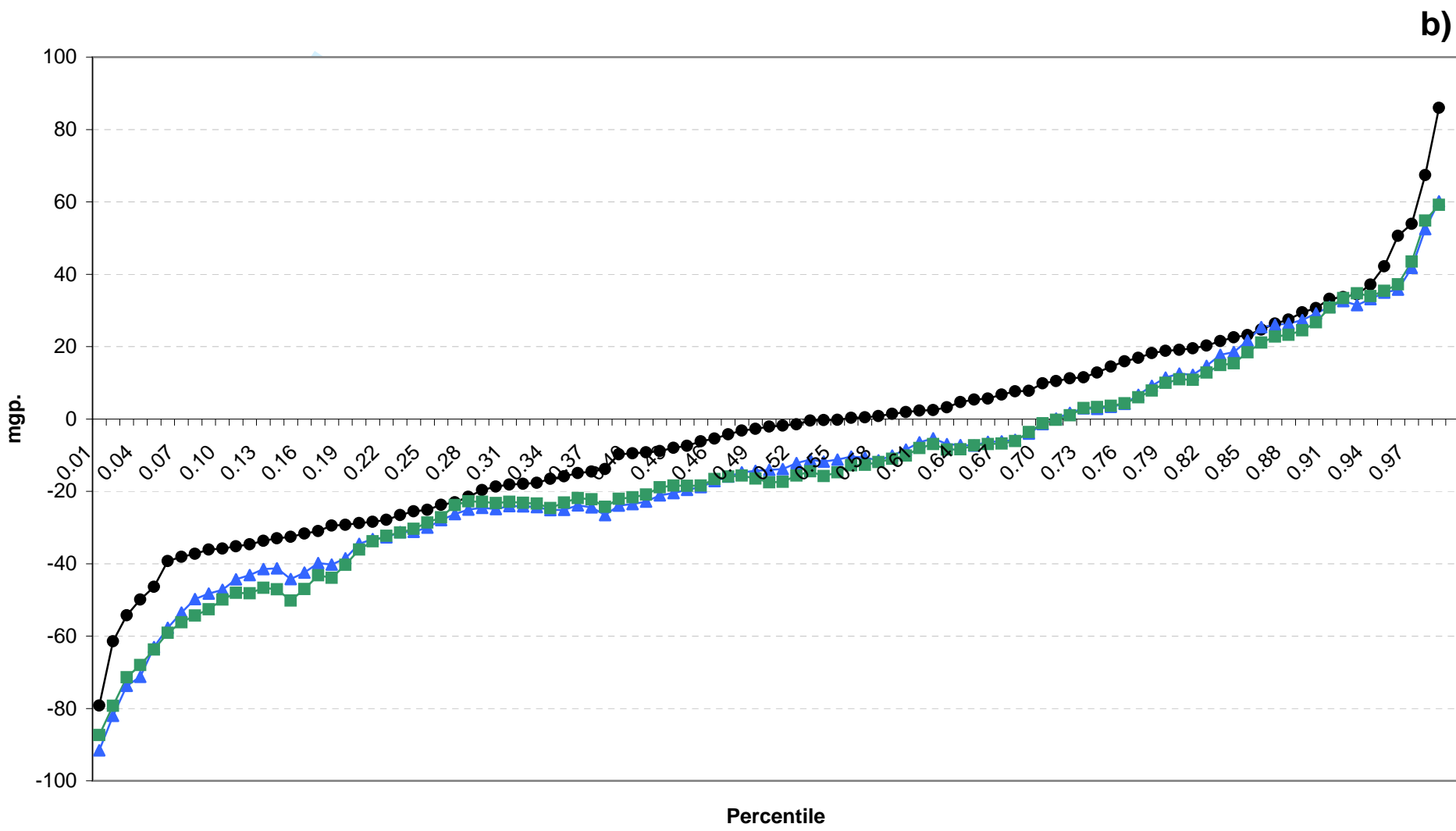
Figure 12: As in Figure 10, but for region R3.

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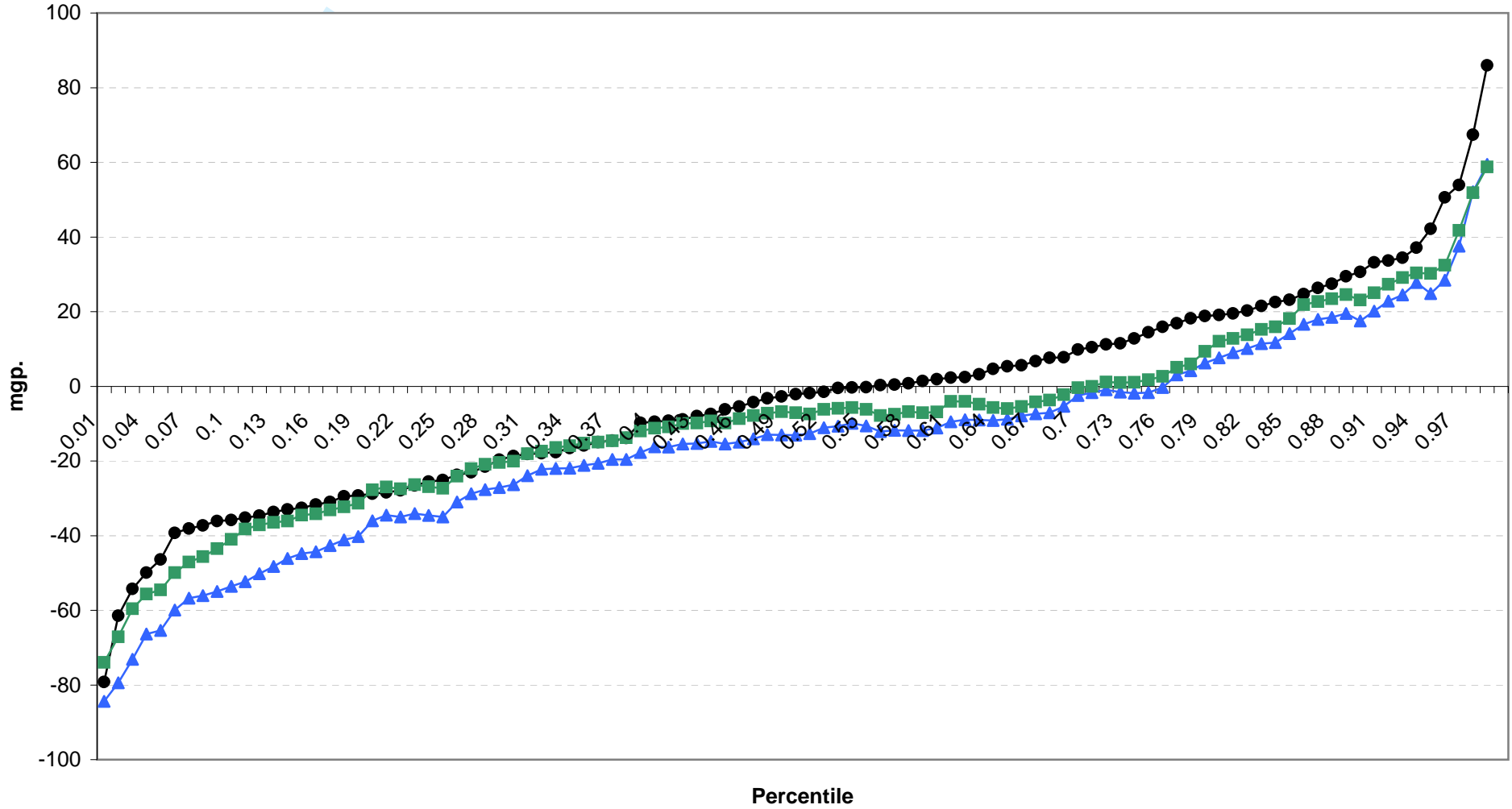


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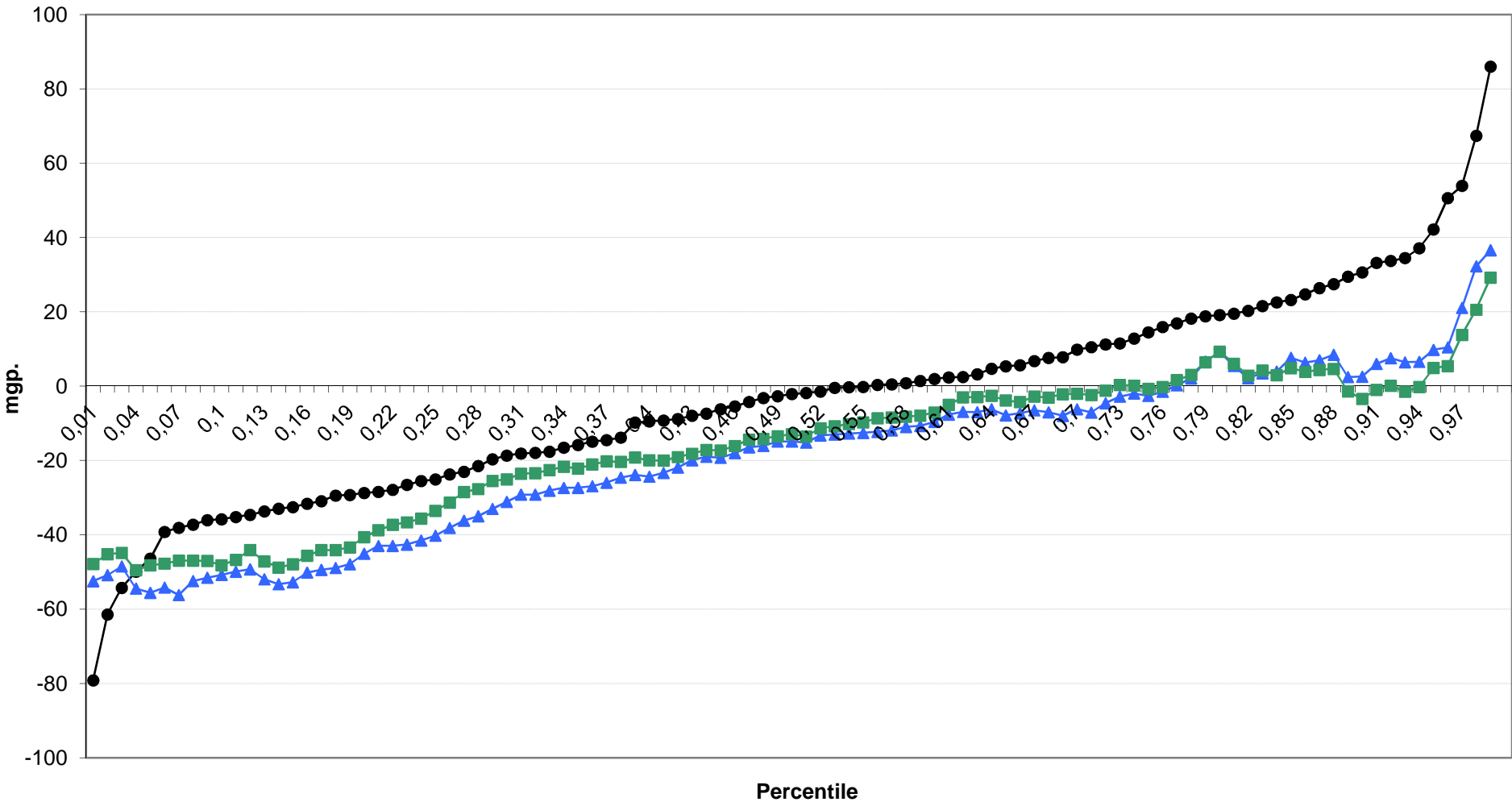




c)

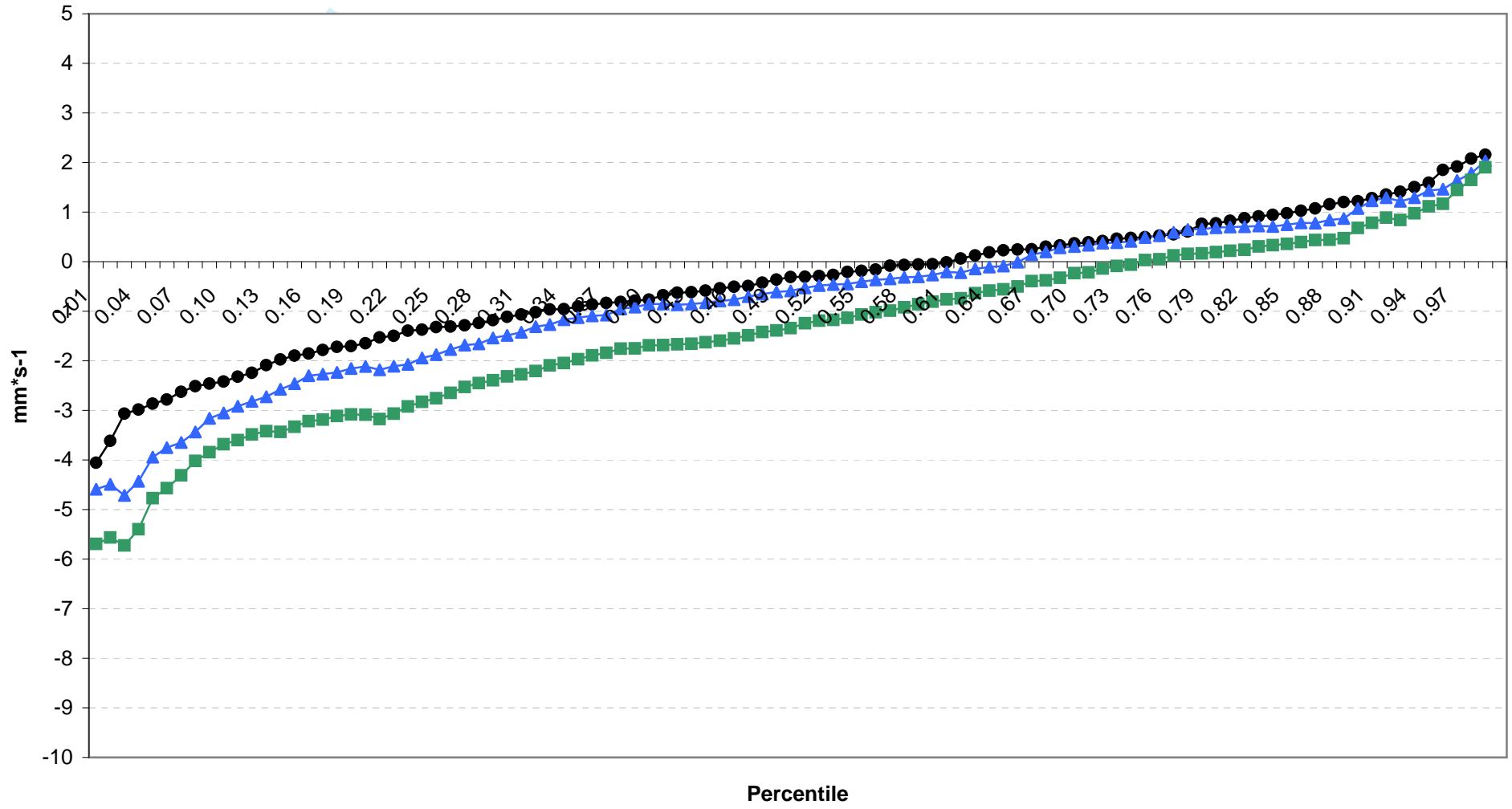


d)

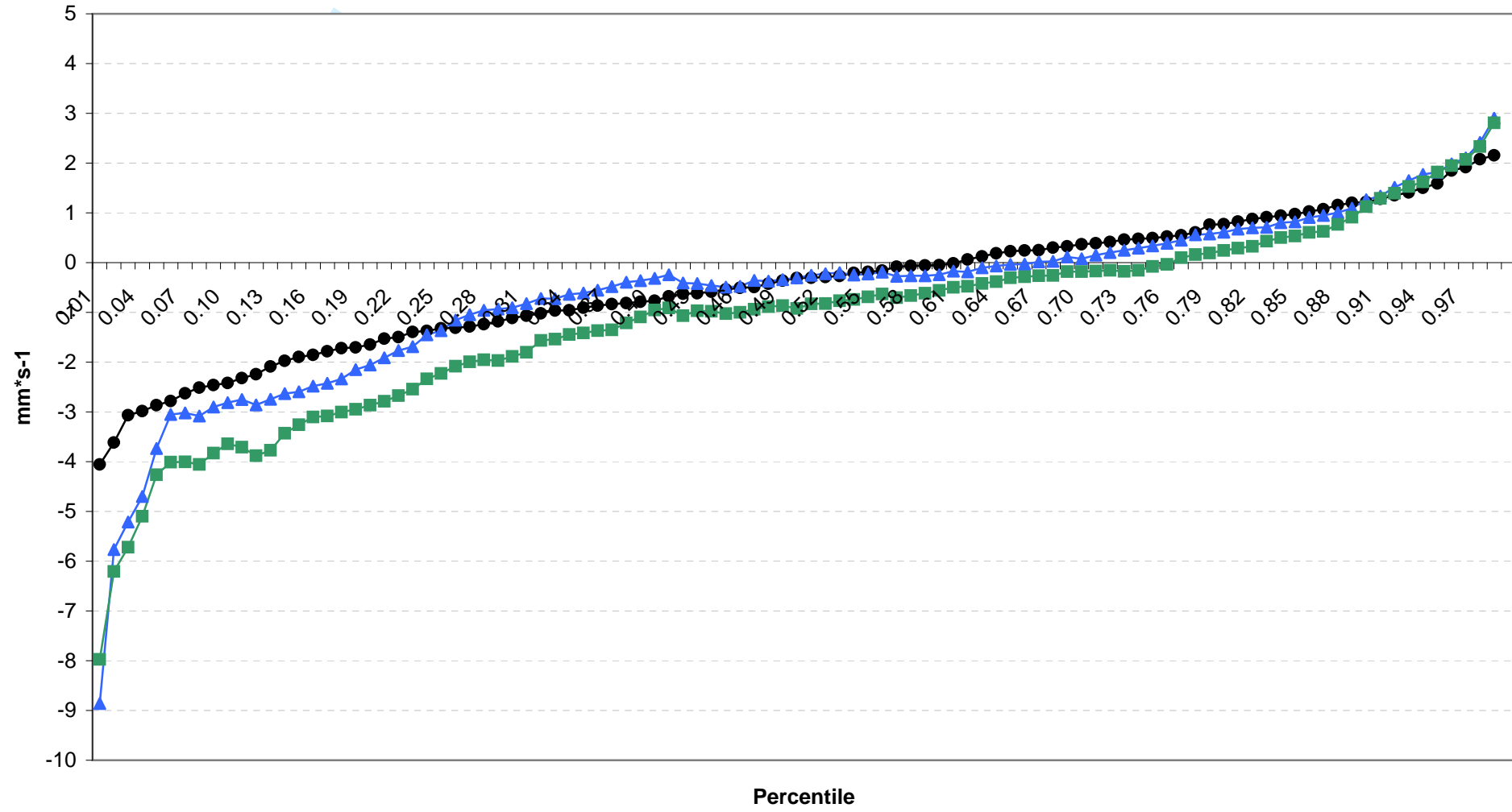


**Figure 13:** Percentile distribution of projected I500 index. a) RCA, b) PROMES, c) RegCM3, d) LMDZ for the near future (blue) and for the end of the century (green). In black the observed distribution for the 1990-2004 period.

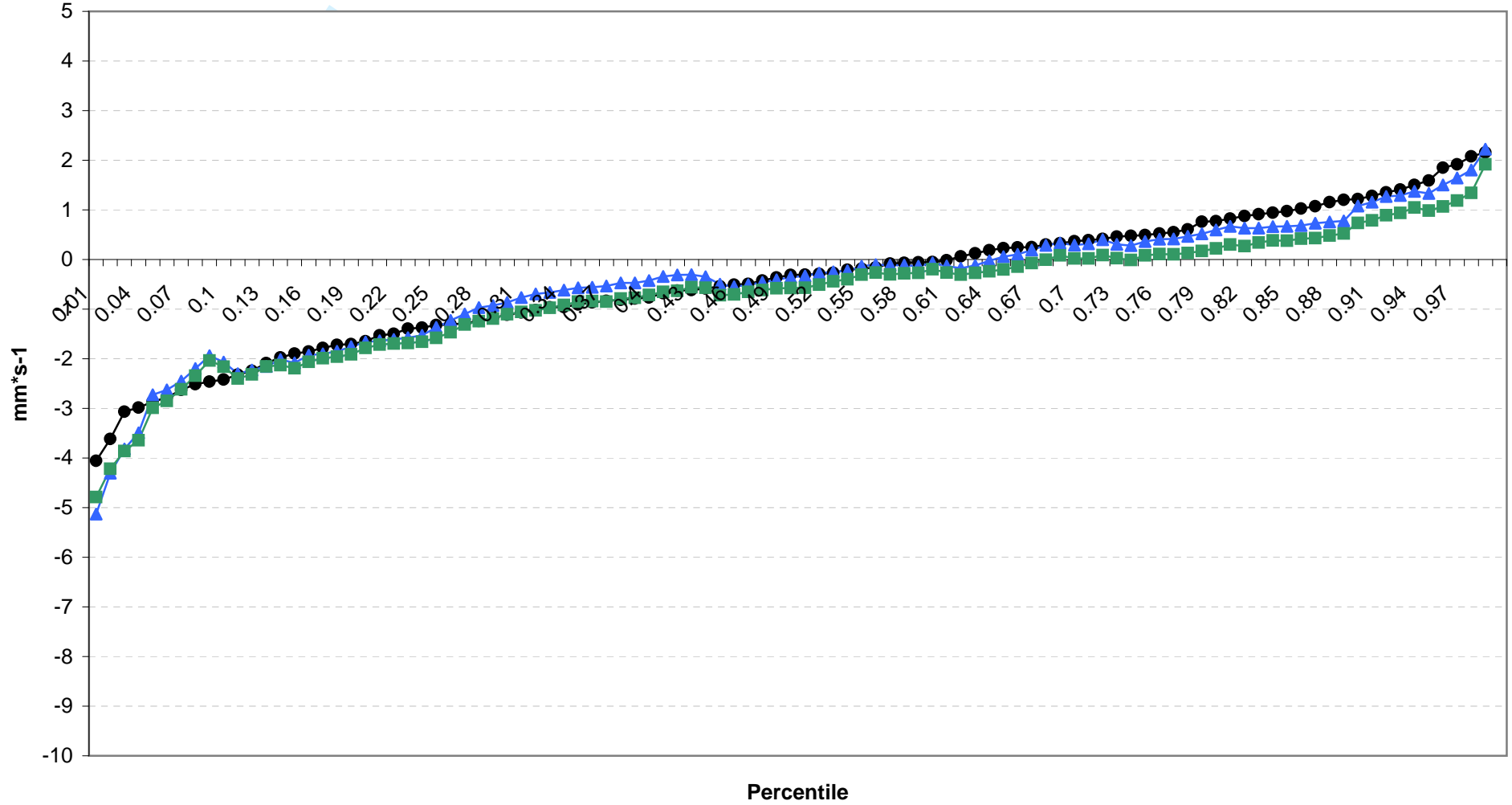
a)



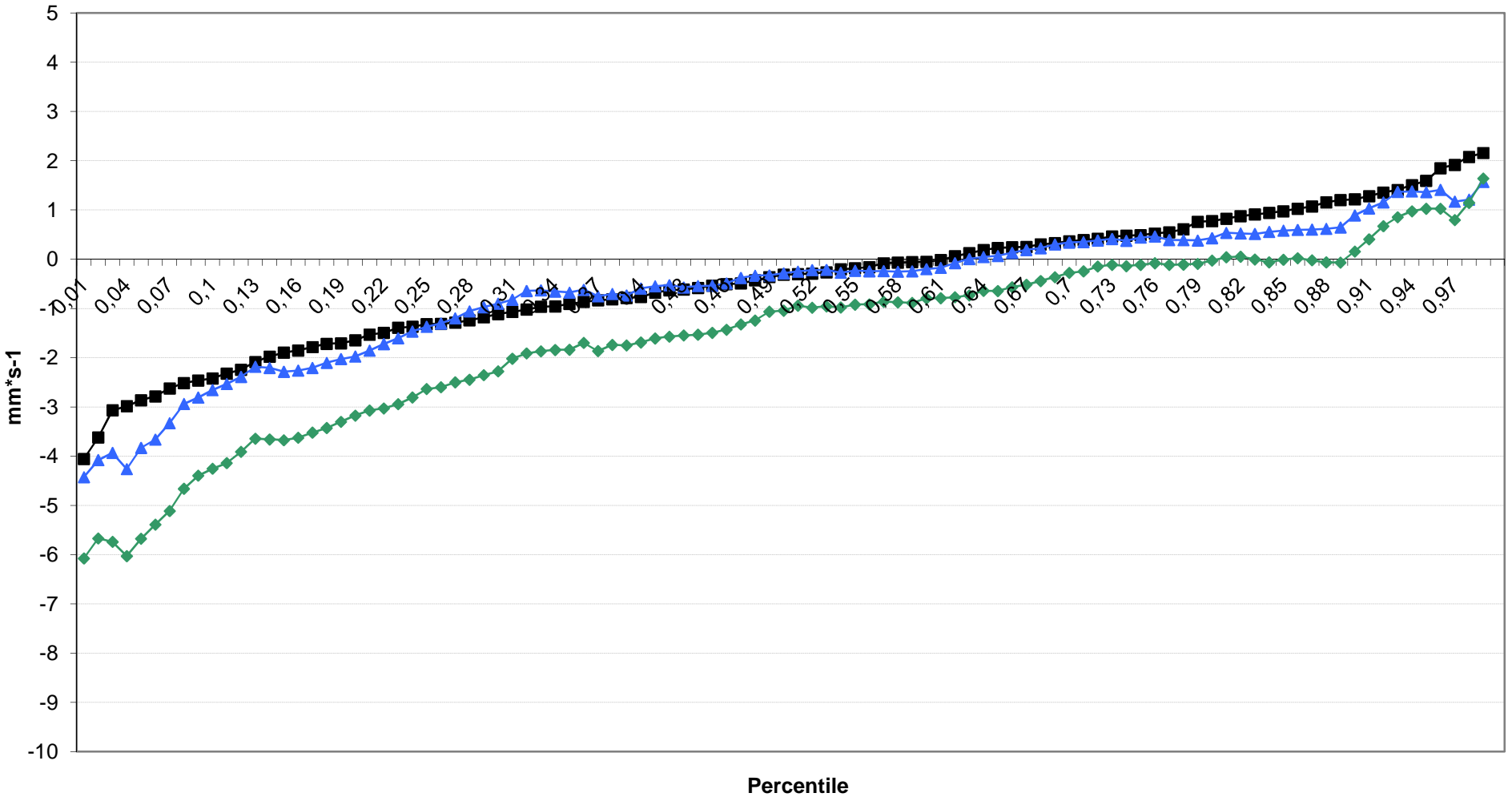
b)



c)



d)



**Figure 14:** Percentile distribution of projected DE index. a) RCA, b) PROMES, c) RegCM3, d) LMDZ for the near future (blue) and for the end of the century (green). In black the observed distribution for the 1990-2004 period.

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