

This document is a postprint version of an article published in Agricultural Water Management © Elsevier after peer review. To access the final edited and published work see <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agwat.2021.106797</u>

Document downloaded from:



1	Modeling	impacts	of	climate	change	on	the	water	needs	and	growing
2	cycle of c	rops in th	nre	e Medite	rranean	bas	ins.				

Funes I.^{1*}, Savé R.¹, de Herralde F.¹, Biel C.¹, Pla E.², Pascual D.², Zabalza J.³, Cantos G.⁴, Borràs
G.⁴, Vayreda J.² & Aranda X.¹

6

¹ IRTA (Institute of Agrifood Research and Technology), Torre Marimon, Caldes de Montbui
 (Barcelona), Spain

² CREAF, Centre de Recerca Ecològica i Aplicacions Forestals, E-08193 Bellaterra (Cerdanyola del
Vallès), Spain

³ IPE-CSIC (Pyrenean Institute of Ecology), Estación Experimental de Aula Dei - CSIC, Zaragoza.,
 Spain

⁴ OCCC (Catalan Office for Climate Change. Government of Catalonia), Avinguda Diagonal, 523 525, 08029 Barcelona, Spain.

15

16 Abstract

In this study, the suitability of major crops currently growing in three case study basins in Catalonia 17 (NE Spain) was assessed for the first half of the 21st century. For this purpose, an estimation was 18 19 made of net hydric needs (NHN) and a set of agroclimatic parameters. Climate change impacts were estimated at sub-basin level using temperature and precipitation temporal series based on the Third 20 Report on Climate Change in Catalonia under the RCP4.5 scenario. Potential crop 21 evapotranspiration (ETc, FAO procedure) and monthly water balance considering soil water holding 22 23 capacity were used to estimate actual evapotranspiration (ETa) and NHN. Over the period studied, NHN would generally rise, with small (+0.1%) to high (+6.6%) increases in the 2020s and moderate 24

(+3.9%) to high (+6.7%) increases in the 2040s. Dynamics would be different for the three basins 25 and general trends vary from crop to crop. At all events, a generalized increase in NHN together with 26 lower water availability could severely limit crop productivity in the case of both rainfed and irrigated 27 28 crops (irrigation restrictions). Phenological changes could represent a greater constraint for crop productivity. Overall, the number of frost days will decrease (from -0.1 days in March to -8.7 days in 29 30 April) in the three basins, while extremely hot days will increase (from +0.3 days in July to +3.8 days in August). Growth cycles will begin earlier (from -1 days to -12 days for crops with a base 31 32 temperature of 10 °C), and for some crops they will be shorter (from -8 days to -27 days in the case 33 of maize and up to -10 days in the case of vines). The impacts of climate change in the three basins 34 could result in significant limitations for crops if adaptive strategies beyond irrigation and growing cycle issues are not applied. The results of this study could serve as a basis for the development of 35 adaptation strategies to improve and maintain agriculture in the case study basins and in similar 36 37 regions.

38

39 Keywords

40 Watershed; Agriculture; Net hydric needs; Crop phenology; Adaptation

41

42 Highlights

- The main impacts of climate change on crops until 2050 was assessed in three
 Mediterranean basins.
- Modeling was performed at sub-basin level under the RCP4.5 scenario.
- Net hydric needs of crops are expected to increase (from +0.1% to +6.7%) in all basins.
- Advancement (1-12 days) and shortening (8-27 days) of the growing cycle are expected.
- A baseline to design adaptation and mitigation strategies was drawn.
- 49

*Corresponding author. Full permanent address: IRTA Torre Marimon, C-59 km 12.1, 08140
Caldes de Montbui, Barcelona (Spain). Tel.: +34 902 789 449; E-mail address:
inmaculada.funes@irta.cat

53

1. Introduction

55

54

In future climate change (CC) scenarios, the Mediterranean region stands out as a "hot spot" 56 due to projections of substancial increases in temperature and decreases in rainfall (IPCC, 57 58 2014), which would lead to marked decreases in water availability throughout the Mediterranean region (Pascual et al., 2015). For example, in Catalonia (NE Spain) average 59 annual precipitation would decrease by approximately 9% and temperature would increase 60 61 by +1.4 °C until 2050 (TICCC, 2016). Agriculture is and will continue to be one of the systems 62 most affected by CC, since - alongside radiation - temperature and water are the main drivers of crop production (Phogat et al., 2018; Ruiz-Ramos et al., 2018). In the 63 Mediterranean region, agriculture is expected to be heavily impacted by higher and extreme 64 temperatures, droughts or soil salinity. To be specific, the principal CC impacts on crops 65 66 would be changes in phenology and growing cycle (Trnka et al., 2011; Caubel et al., 2015; Funes et al., 2016); higher water demands (Savé et al., 2012; Girard et al., 2015; Phogat et 67 al., 2018; Saadi et al., 2015; Valverde et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2015) and water scarcity 68 69 (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2017a,b); decreasing yields (Olesen and Bindi, 2002; Saadi et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2015; Ruiz-Ramos et al., 2018); or soil salinity constraints (Connor et al., 70 71 2012; Phogat et al. 2018). Consequently, food production and security would be seriously 72 compromised (Cramer et al., 2018).

73

Assessing how climate is expected to affect crops is extremely useful for policy makers, planners, farmers and other stakeholders, who can propose and execute adaptation and 76 mitigation strategies at the local/regional scale to make agriculture more resilient to changes (Caubel et al., 2015). The use of combined adaptation measures tailored to site-specific 77 conditions reduces the impacts of CC more effectively than single and generalized adaptation 78 79 measures: this has been shown by Ruiz-Ramos et al. (2018) for the Mediterranean context, but can probably be applied to other regions. In general, both adaptation and mitigation 80 strategies have to be addressed in order to reduce greenhouse gas emissions (GHGs), 81 sequester carbon, protect crops from extreme events and ensure sustainable use of soil and 82 water (Prestele et al., 2018). Indeed, climate-smart agriculture (FAO, 2013) has been 83 84 proposed by FAO as a strategy to adapt and build resilience to CC and to reduce agricultural GHGs, while maintaining high yields and ensuring food security. In summary, strategies and 85 policies must consider productivity, adaptation and mitigation as the three interlinked pillars 86 that support the successful achievement of targeted goals for agriculture and CC issues 87 (FAO, 2013). Therefore, when seeking to identify better strategies to make agriculture more 88 resilient, the first step is to assess the main impacts of CC on crops. 89

Future water availability and water demands call the current water management model into 90 91 question, so adaptation decisions must necessarily be aimed at improving water management at a policy level (Iglesias and Garrote, 2015) and target both hazards and 92 93 vulnerabilities, i.e. water supply and water demand issues (Ronco et al., 2017). Changes in 94 crop distribution and crop choices (Valverde et al., 2015), restricting areas of higher water-95 consuming crops or creating new varieties adapted to CC (Mo et al., 2017), adapting the 96 cropping calendar (Ronco et al., 2017) and crop diversification (Lin, 2011) have all been proposed as strategies of adaptation to CC for the purpose of maintaining crop production. 97 But they should also be considered as part of a water management strategy: restricting the 98 area of high-consuming crops, even if they are not irrigated, will free water resources at the 99 100 basin level; changing crop distributions according to changes in phenological constraints, reducing the crop cycle and using new varieties with lower water needs would be steps in 101 the same direction. 102

103 This study forms part of the LIFE MEDACC Project (LIFE12 ENV/ES/000536 Demonstration and validation of innovative methodology for regional climate change adaptation in the 104 Mediterranean area). One of the main objectives of this project is assessment of the impacts 105 106 of climate on agriculture, forest and water at the basin level. Ecohydrology served as a central 107 tool, as it allows consideration of human interference on water balance at the landscape level by using the river basin as a geo-hydrological unit (Savé et al., 2012). The basin has been 108 an appropriate natural unit for assessing or planning any initiative or strategy aimed at 109 conservation, regeneration, adaptation or mitigation to CC. Catalonia is suitably 110 111 representative of the Mediterranean region, since it presents a wide range of climate conditions in a relatively small area (Pascual et al., 2015). 112

In this study, three basins were chosen to represent the diversity of the Mediterranean at a 113 local scale. They feature a wide range of topographic, climatic and environmental conditions, 114 and land uses of the Mediterranean region, particularly of Catalonia, including inland vs. 115 coastal differences, which makes this study novel. Another novel feature of this study is that 116 this is the first time an improved upscaling of net hydric needs (NHN) has been applied to 117 these three sub-basins. The improved upscaling uses homogeneous climate, crop type and 118 119 soil type units. This leads to an understanding of how changes in basin water balance result from the combination of changes in crop phenology, potential evapotranspiration and crop 120 distribution in each basin. This approach worked well in previous studies (Savé et al., 2012), 121 showing CC effects such as increased net water needs and changes in phenology and crop 122 123 growing cycle (Savé et al., 2012), or impacts on apple flowering time (Funes et al., 2016), despite the fact that in those studies AR4 scenarios A1 and B2 were used instead of RCPs 124 of AR5 (IPCC 2014), a different methodology for projections was employed, results were only 125 obtained for a single coastal basin, and the most notable results corresponded to the second 126 127 half of the 21st century, a period not considered here.

128 The main goals of this study were: (i) to estimate annual net hydric needs (NHN) of major 129 crops in the three basins for the baseline period and two future periods under CC conditions, in order to assess agricultural suitability; (ii) to estimate the monthly pattern of NHN of some
crops, which helps to explain the different annual NHN responses of crops to CC; (iii) to
estimate a set of agroclimatic parameters capable of indicating the consequences of CC for
crop phenology and growing cycle, in order to better understand and manage the risks posed
by CC; and (iv) to identify a set of possible adaptation solutions, in view of the results
obtained.

136

137 2. Material and Methods

A general overview of the material and methods is shown in Figure 1.

139 **2.1. Study area**

140The study area comprises three basins: those of the river Segre, Ter and Muga. The basins141are located in Catalonia (NE Spain; Fig. 2) under Mediterranean conditions, with an area of14213,205, 2,952 and 762 km² respectively. These basins were chosen to represent the diversity143of the Mediterranean region at a local scale, with a wide range of topographic, climatic and144environmental conditions (Pyrenean, inland and coastal; Fig. A.1 of Appendix A), and land145uses (Table 1).

The Segre is the longest river in Catalonia (it is a tributary of the Ebro River). The Segre basin is highly stressed by agricultural demands (it is the most agricultural and irrigated basin; Table 1). Water demand in the Ter basin is mainly for urban users (74% in 2007) inside and outside the basin, and as a result, the ecological flows defined for the lower part of the river



Figure 1. General overview of *Material and Methods*. ET₀ is potential evapotranspiration, ETc is crop evapotranspiration, Kc is crop coefficient, ETa is

actual evapotranspiration, SWC is soil water content, Pef is effective precipitation, TAW is total available water and NHN is net hydric needs

- are frequently not achieved. Moreover, the Ter basin is densely forested. The Muga basin is
 strongly influenced by its coastal condition. Crops obtain 75% of its water, whereas urban
 users receive 20%.



Table 1. Areas of major crops and other land uses within the case study basins delineated by SWAT, and percentage of irrigated land for each crop according to the agricultural plots geographical information system (SIGPAC, 2013), the declaration of eligible agricultural area for Common Agricultural Policy payments of the Government of Catalonia (DUN, 2013), and other data sources outside Catalonia (Aragon, France and Andorra). Numbers in brackets are percentages of each land use with respect to the whole basin area.

		A	vrea (ha)	% irrigated					
	Land use	Segre	Ter	Muga	Segre	Ter	Muga		
Crops	Winter cereals	185,306	27,011	7,730	16	16	24		
	Maize	32,112	5,463	1,912	98	62	90		
	Forage crops	40,327	13,437	3,344	66	12	26		
	Other Arable land	10,168	4,618	1768	33	18	30		
	Orchards	42,863	1,719	449	96	90	53		
	Olives	38,770	237	1,473	11	8	1		
	Nuts	16,563	879	40	12	50	31		
	Vineyards	3,842	72	895	37	5	4		
	Tree Farming	85	1,235	-	92	1	-		
	Total Crops	369,950 (28%)	54,671 (19%)	17,611 (23%)	38	22	30		
	Forest	296,337 (22%)	112,125 (38%)	31,421 (41%)					
	Grassland	557,712 (42%)	103,710 (35%)	21,875 (29%)					
	Urban	50,781 (4%)	15,040 (5%)	4,473 (6%)					

207

208

209

201

Major crops are considered to be those occupying more than 1% of the crop area at the sub-basin level. Winter cereals comprise wheat, barley, oats and triticale. The group of forage crops is composed of alfalfa, ryegrass, artificial meadows, polyphytic pastures and other forage crops. Other arable land consists of oleaginous crops, cereals and horticulture. Orchards refer to plantations of sweet fruit trees. Nuts are almonds, walnuts, hazelnuts and pistachio trees. Grassland refers to pastures, woodland pastures and bush pastures (all three SIGPAC land uses). Tree farming refers to poplar plantations.

2.2. Basin delineation, climate change projections and meteorological parameter regionalization at the sub-basin level.

210 Basin and sub-basin delineation was performed using SWAT (Soil and Water Assessment

Tool; Arnold et al., 1998) and based on a digital elevation model of 30 m resolution (ICC,

212 2012). Sub-basin delimitation was based on elevation, creating units with similar areas (Fig.

A.2 of Appendix A).

Daily meteorological data were obtained from 340 stations managed by the Spanish State 214 215 Meteorological Agency (AEMET) and the Meteorological Service of Catalonia (SMC). Some of the meteorological stations also provided data on radiation, relative humidity and wind 216 speed (see spatial distribution of weather stations in Fig. A.3 of Appendix A). The stations 217 218 were chosen according to their locations within or close to the case study basins, considering climatic heterogeneity and continuity in data series. Climate data were subjected to a process 219 of quality control, filling gaps and homogenization. More detailed information about climate 220 221 data processing can be found in Appendix B.

222 CC projections for temperature and precipitation were conducted using the RCP4.5 scenario 223 (IPCC, 2014) until the time horizon 2050. The RCP4.5 scenario is a stabilization scenario in which total radiative forcing is stabilized shortly after 2100, without overshooting the long-run 224 radiative forcing target level (Pascual et al., 2016). The time horizon of 2050 was chosen, 225 226 because short temporal periods are more appropriate for territorial policies in the study area (land planning, irrigation plans, etc.). This may make it difficult to see clear changes from the 227 baseline, but on the other hand the capacity of long temporal time frames to predict reliable 228 229 changes is limited.

The future temporal series are based on information in the Third Report on Climate Change 230 in Catalonia (TICCC) about the regional dynamic downscaling of CORDEX/EUROCORDEX 231 climate change projections for the three main climatic sub-regions in Catalonia: Pyrenees, 232 Inland and Coast (TICCC, 2016). The changes in temperature and precipitation proposed in 233 234 TICCC (TICCC, 2016) were applied to the observed temperature and precipitation series of the meteorological stations (those in or near the case study basins) for the baseline period 235 (2002-2011), year by year, at the daily scale, by using the delta method (Zahn and Storch, 236 2010). A different delta was applied to each month of the year, in accordance with the results 237 238 of TICCC (2016).

To estimate potential evapotranspiration (ET₀) according to Penman-Monteith, meteorological parameters needed (such as solar radiation, humidity and wind speed) were estimated at a daily scale by using the weather generator included in SWAT (Neitsch et al., 2005). This uses statistics, based on measured records of each weather station, to complete missing information or simulate representative daily climatic data for the sub-basin. More details of these statistics are explained in Neitsch et al. (2011).

Moreover, SWAT was employed to regionalize the meteorological parameter series at the sub-basin scale to be used in the remainder modeling. More details about meteorological parameter regionalization at the sub-basin level can be found in Appendix B.

Taking into account the changes presented in TICCC, the plausible scenario for the study area is a general warming (Table 2 and Fig. A.4) in all the basin segments and in both temporal horizons analyzed (from +0.6 °C to +1.3 °C), leading to a general increase in ET_0 (from +2.0% to +4.7%). Projections show higher warming in the sub-regions Pyrenees and Inland than in Coast. As for precipitation, a decrease is likely (between -3.7% and -14.2%; Table 2 and Fig. A.4), but with lower certainty (TICCC, 2016).

- 254
- 255
- 256
- 257
- 258
- 259
- 260

261

Table 2. Overview of the spatial distribution at the sub-basin level of: a) mean annual precipitation (MAP; mm); b) mean annual evapotranspiration (ET₀; mm) and c) mean annual temperature (MAT; °C) in the three case study basin segments for the baseline period (2002-2011) and differences in % (MAP and ET0) or °C (MAT) for both future decades analyzed under the RCP 4.5 scenario: 2020s (2021-2030) and 2040s (2041-2050).

			Segre			Ter		Muga						
	Basin Segment	Baseline (mm)	2020s (Δ %)	2040s (Δ %)	Baseline (mm)	2020s (Δ %)	2040s (Δ %)	Baseline (mm)	2020s (Δ %)	2040s (Δ %)				
MAP	Upper	932	+0.1	-1.4	981	-7.5	-8.9	1045	-3.7	-10.0				
	Middle	755	-14.1	-14.2	876	-8.5	-11.3	811	-5.7	-11.7				
	Lower	403	-9.3	-10.1	760	-8.7	-12.8	674	-7.1	-12.2				
ET ₀	Upper	419	+2.6	+3.5	805	+2.7	+4.5	816	+2.5	+3.8				
	Middle	907	+3.7	+4.7	892	+2.0	+3.7	853	+2.3	+3.3				
	Lower	979	+3.4	+4.4	928	+1.5	+3.1	870	+2.1	+3.1				
		Baseline (°C)	2020s (Δ °C)	2040s (Δ °C)	Baseline (°C)	2020s (Δ °C)	2040s (Δ °C)	Baseline (°C)	2020s (Δ °C)	2040s (Δ °C)				
MAT	Upper	7.3	+0.7	+1.2	9.7	+0.9	+1.3	12.6	+0.60	+1.1				
	Middle	11.8	+0.7	+1.2	13.1	+0.7	+1.1	14.7	+0.60	+1.0				
	Lower	14.4	+0.8	+1.2	14.7	+0.6	+1.0	15.4	+0.66	+1.0				

268

269

270 **2.3. Agricultural land uses**

A crop distribution map at species level was created for each basin from SIGPAC and DUN for the year 2013 (map scale 1:5,000). Methodological details about the crop mapping can be found in Appendix B.

Most crops in the Segre basin occupy the lower basin and tend to be grouped according 274 to crop typology. The main crops in this lower basin are rainfed winter cereals (Table 1), 275 located mainly in the eastern part of the lower basin and even extending to the middle basin 276 (Fig. 3). The central part of the lower basin (Lleida Valley) is dominated by maize, fruit 277 orchards and alfalfa. In the western part of the lower basin, the agricultural land is primarily 278 occupied by nectarine or peach trees. There are some important areas of grape production, 279 and olives and almonds are grown in the southern part. The lower and middle parts of the 280 Ter basin are devoted to agriculture (Fig. 3). Two crops dominate the lowest part of the lower 281 Ter: apple and maize, which are in fact the two most irrigated crops in the basin (Table 1). 282

Herbaceous crops such as winter cereals, sorghum, sunflower, rape, etc. and some woody 283 crops such as hazel occupy the remainder of the lower Ter. In the middle Ter, herbaceous 284 crops such as winter cereals, maize, sorghum, rape and fodder crops predominate. Crops in 285 the Muga basin occupy the middle and lower segments (Fig.3). Maize is commonly found in 286 287 the lower part, while winter cereals are widespread in the lower and middle basin segments. Fodder and woody crops, such as olives and vines (mostly rainfed; Table 1), dominate the 288 middle part of the basin. The irrigated land in this basin is mainly occupied by maize and 289 290 alfalfa or fruit orchards, such as apple or peach (Table 1). Winter cereals are mostly rainfed, 291 except wheat in the lower basin, with an irrigated area of as much as 43% (Table 1).

292



293

Figure 3. Agricultural land use distribution in the case study basins (a) Segre, b) Ter and c) Muga according to SIGPAC 2013 and DUN 2013 for Catalonia and other regional and national sources for areas beyond Catalonia. A description of land uses in this figure can be found in the footnotes to Table 1. Grayscale hillshading represents topography of non-agricultural areas.

298

2.4. Available water capacity of agricultural soils

301 Soil maps were specifically generated for the three basins (map resolution 100x100 m), since 302 they were not previously available for these basins at an appropriate resolution. Details about 303 soil mapping methodology can be found in Appendix B. For each basin, the resulting soil 304 map was intersected with the sub-basin map and the crop map in order to calculate the area 305 of each soil class corresponding to the agricultural land in each sub-basin. In this way, it was 306 possible to estimate an area-weighted mean value in each sub-basin for the following soil attributes: maximum rooting depth of soil profile (Z; mm) and available water capacity of the 307 soil layer (AWC; mm H₂O/mm soil). AWC was calculated by subtracting the fraction of water 308 309 present at permanent wilting point (the soil water content at a soil matric potential of -1.5 MPa) from that present at field capacity (the soil water content at a soil matric potential of -310 311 0.033 MPa) (Neitsch et al., 2011). By multiplying both values (Z and AWC) at sub-basin level, a mean value of a maximum soil water capacity was obtained that could subsequently be 312 313 used in NHN estimations as the Total Available Soil Water (TAW; mm).

For all three basins, soils were classified into 5 TAW classes (Table 3 and Fig. A.5 in 314 315 Appendix A). In the Muga basin, cropland mainly corresponds to soils with the two highest 316 TAW classes (ranging from 150 to 300 mm), since the best soils, those with the highest capacity to store water, are sought for agricultural activity. In the Ter basin, crops are grown 317 in the three highest classes of soil (ranging from 100 to 300 mm). However, in the Middle Ter 318 319 the soils used for agriculture have a lower TAW classification (100-150 mm). In the Segre basin, agricultural land is largely situated in the lower Segre, irrespective of the capacity of 320 soils to store water. Crops with higher water requirements such as maize, alfalfa and fruit 321 orchards occupy the soils with the highest TAW values (200-300 mm), leaving the soils with 322 lower TAW values (<150 mm) to crops such as winter cereals and woody crops such as 323 olives or almonds. 324

Table 3. Areas (ha) of the total available soil water (TAW) classes in the whole basin and segments of the Segre, Ter and Muga basins. The numbers in brackets are percentages representing the proportion of the total agricultural area occupied by each class.

ΤΔ\Λ/	ha (%)															
(mm)		Seg	jre			т	er			Muga						
	Total Basin	Upper	Middle	Lower	Total Basin	Upper	Middle	Lower	Total Basin	Upper	Middle	Lower				
15-30	96,663	2,365	16,636	77,662	2,081	329	651	1,102	18 9	19	49	120				
	(24.5)	(11.4)	(19.0)	(27.1)	(3.8)	(8.5)	(3.2)	(3.7)	(1.3)	(10.4)	(0.9)	(1.3)				
30-100	136,245	1,771	38,509	95,965	6,107	1,389	4,071	647	1,688	126	654	907				
	(34.5)	(8.5)	(44.0)	(33.5)	(11.3)	(35.9)	(19.8)	(2.2)	(11.2)	(68.3)	(11.9)	(9.7)				
100-150	47,306	10,580	18,297	18,429	22,889	1,685	13,400	7,805	1,654	30	1,281	344				
	(12.0)	(51.0)	(20.9)	(6.4)	(42.2)	(43.6)	(65.3)	(26.1)	(11.0)	(16.1)	(23.3)	(3.7)				
150-200	13,888	97	1,716	12,076	9,985	39	783	9,163	8,400	3	2,332	6,065				
	(3.5)	(0.5)	(2.0)	(4.2)	(18.4)	(1.0)	(3.8)	(30.6)	(56.0)	(1.6)	(42.4)	(65.1)				
200-300	101,044	5,950	12,338	82,756	13,220	426	1,615	11,179	3,075	7	1,186	1,882				
	(25.6)	(28.7)	(14.1)	(28.8)	(24.4)	(11.0)	(7.9)	(37.4)	(20.5)	(3.7)	(21.6)	(20.2)				

328

329

330 **2.5. Net hydric needs estimations**

Daily crop potential evapotranspiration (ETc, mm day⁻¹) was calculated for major crops (those 331 occupying more than 1% of the crop area at sub-basin level) in the three basins according to 332 FAO procedure in Allen et al. (1998). ET₀ was calculated from the meteorological series 333 regionalized at the sub-basin level by SWAT from 2002 to 2050. First, daily potential 334 evapotranspiration (ET₀, mm day⁻¹) was calculated in the usual way by applying the Penman-335 Monteith equation, which is the most appropriate for a Mediterranean climate of all the 336 methods available in SWAT for potential evapotranspiration estimation (Licciardello et al., 337 2011). Secondly, ETc was calculated for each major crop in each sub-basin from the general 338 ET₀ of the sub-basin and a crop coefficient (Kc, dimensionless) modified by crop phenological 339 stage, as follows: 340

341 ETc=ET₀ Kc

[1]

Since the reference surface considered for ET₀ is a hypothetical grass reference crop that resembles an extensive surface of green, well-watered grass of uniform height, actively growing and completely shading the ground (Allen et al., 1998), ETc of grassland and other 345 herbaceous crops such as ryegrass were considered to be equal to ET_0 (Kc=1). In the case 346 of alfalfa and olives, ETc was estimated using a fixed Kc value of 0.78 and 0.65, respectively. For the remaining major crops, Kc values were based on those published in ACA and IRTA 347 (2008), a compilation of different studies estimating Kc coefficients for different crops in 348 349 Catalonia (Girona et al., 2004, 2011, Marsal et al. 2013, 2016). Kc coefficients are defined in these publications following the crop growth function, based on accumulated growing degree 350 days (GDD). For this study, GDD were adapted to different base temperatures depending on 351 352 the crop typology. More details are described in Vicente-Serrano et al. (2014).

353 Under FAO procedure, ETc corresponds to the crop evapotranspiration under standard 354 conditions. These standard conditions refer to crops grown in large fields under excellent agronomic and soil water conditions. However, ETc may actually be limited by available water 355 coming from rain and soil water content. In this case, ETc is reduced to the so-called actual 356 357 evapotranspiration (ETa, mm month⁻¹). Thus, for the land area occupied by each crop in each sub-basin, a monthly water balance was recurrently calculated to obtain ETa from ETc, 358 effective precipitation (Pef, mm month⁻¹) and the soil water content (SWC, mm month⁻¹), as 359 follows: 360

- 361
- 362

oWC-1 + Pe ETa= SWC-1 + Pef [2] if $ETc > SWC_{-1} + Pef;$ and 363 364 [3] 365 366 367 368

if ETc < SWC₋₁ + Pef;

373

where ETc, ETa and Pef are from the current month, SWC₋₁ is the surplus SWC at the end of the previous month and SWC_c is water remaining in the soil at the end of the current month and available for crop consumption in the water balance of the next month (i.e. SWC_c of current month equals SWC₋₁ of next month, and so on). RAW (readily available water, mm) is the amount of water that a crop can extract from the root zone without suffering water stress. RAW was calculated for each crop and sub-basin from Total Available Water for each basin (TAW, see section 2.4) and a depletion factor (p) for each crop:

Theoretically, p ranges from 0 to 1. A value of 0.50 for p is commonly used for many crops. For major crops in the case study basins, values for p in the range of 0.50-0.55 were quite common. The minimum value for p was 0.40, corresponding to almonds, and the maximum 0.65, corresponding to olives (Allen et al., 1998).

Hence, after RAW calculation, SWC surplus for the next month (SWC_c) is calculated as:

$$387 \qquad SWC_{c} = RAW \qquad if SWC_{-1} + Pef-ETa > RAW \qquad [7]$$

388 SWCc= SWC +Pef –ETa if SWC₋₁+Pef-ETa < RAW [8]

389

- 390 Pef in equations [2], [5], [7] and [8] was calculated according to Clarke (1998):
- 391
- 392
- 393 394
- 395

397
$$Pef = \frac{Pt(125-0.2Pt)}{125}; (Pt<250mm)$$
 [9]

398

399

Pef

$$Pef = 125 + 0.1Pt; (Pt \ge 250 mm)$$
 [10]

400

401 where Pt is the total monthly precipitation (mm).

402 Finally, net hydric needs of the crops (NHN, mm month-1) at the monthly scale were 403 calculated as the difference between ETc and ETa:

404

405 NHN=ETc-ETa [11]

406

Calculated in this way, NHN does not take account of water inefficiencies in the irrigation system or water pipes used for distribution, i.e. only plant level water requirements are considered. Moreover, projections of NHN estimations in this study do not take into consideration possible changes in agricultural land use (crop changes, abandonment, afforestation, or conversion to urban or industrial soil) for the first half of the 21st century. Theoretical net hydric needs of major crops were calculated for both rainfed and irrigated cropland in each basin.

414

415

2.6. Phenological and agroclimatic indicators

Phenological and agroclimatic indicators were calculated to assess the suitability of presentday crops to conditions projected for the near future. A set of general agroclimatic indicators
was calculated for the baseline period and the future period up to 2050 under the RCP4.5
CC scenario. Indicators affecting crops in general were estimated following Savé et al. (2012)

420 and are detailed in Table 4. In addition, some crop-specific indicators for maize, grapevine421 and apple were calculated.

422 **Table 4.** General and crop-specific phenological and agroclimatic indicators of climate change impacts on agriculture: definition, units, climatic parameter

- 423 on which each indicator is based, and basin segment in which they were estimated. Tmax is the daily maximum temperature (°C), Tmin is the daily minimum
- 424 temperature (°C), Tmean is the daily average temperature (°C) and DOY is the day of year.

Crop	Climate impacts	Phenological/ Agroclimatic indicator	Definition	Units	Climatic parameter	Basin Segment
	Frost damage in germination of some cereals and flowering of woddy crops	Frost days	Number of days with minimum temperature lower than 0°C in March and April	days	Tmin	
AU	Heat damage in blossom and grain formation of some cereals	Heat 30 days	Number of days with temperature higher than 30 °C in July and August	days	Tmax	
All major crops	Heat damage/stress in orchard fruits	Heat 35 days	Number of days with temperature higher than 35 °C in July and August	days	Tmax	All basins and segments
	Beginning of growing cycle of most of the crops	DOY T10	Day when daily mean temperature begins to be higher 10°C	DOY	Tmean	
	Duration of growing cycle	DOY 600FAO	Day when 2076 GDD (Tbase=10°C) were reached from 1 st January to assess the cycle duration of FAO cycle grain maize varieties of 600	days	Tmean	Lower Segre; Lower Ter; and middle and Lower Muga
Maize	Duration of growing cycle	DOY 700FAO	Day when 2126 GDD (Tbase=10°C) were reached from 1 st January to assess the cycle duration of FAO cycle grain maize varieties of 700	days	Tmean	
Grapevine	Time and duration of phenological stages	DOY pheno Days pheno	Date when grapevine budbreak, flowering, fruitset, pea size, veraison and harvest stages are completed ^a Days passing between phenological stages ^a	DOY days	Tmean	Lower Segre
Apple	Time of phenological stages	DOY bloom	Date when apple flowering is completed in 8 apple cultivars ^b	DOY	Tmax and Tmin	Lower Ter

425

426 ^a Time and duration of phenological stages of grapevine were estimated based on phenology records from South Catalonia (data not shown) and calculating accumulated a mean value of GDD

427 needed to reach each stage at Tbase=10 °C (Budbreak: 71 GDD; Bloom: 319 GDD; Fruitset: 429 GDD; Berry at pea size: 429 GDD; Veraison: 221 GDD; Harvest: 1857 GDD; Leaf Fall: 2163

428 GDD).

429 ^bDOY bloom for apples was estimated according to Funes et al. (2016)

430 **3. Results**

Results were analyzed for the baseline period (2002-2011) and for two time horizons for the
RCP4.5 scenario (2020s, from 2021 to 2030, and 2040s, from 2041 to 2050). They were
aggregated at three segments in each basin (upper, middle and lower basin segments; see
Fig. A.2).

- 435
- 436

3.1. Climate change impacts on net hydric needs of crops

437 **3.1.1. Current and future annual crop NHN: spatial distribution**

438 Spatial distribution of the estimated current and future annual crop NHN in the three basins is presented in Figure 4. The highest current NHN (more than 3000 m³/ha) are concentrated 439 in the lower Segre (Fig. 4a) associated with maize and forage crops (from 4500-5000m³/ha) 440 and orchards (from 3000 to 4500 m³/ha). In the Ter and Muga basins, higher current NHN 441 are located in lower basin segments, mainly represented by maize, forage crops and 442 orchards, ranging from 2000 to 4000 m³/ha (Fig. 4b and c). In the middle and upper Muga, 443 crops – predominantly winter cereals and olives – present current annual NHN of below 1000 444 m³/ha. Crops in the middle Ter present current annual NHN of 500 to 1500 m³/ha. 445

Most crops in the Segre basin are expected to experience increases in NHN (warm color 446 447 ramp) with respect to the baseline (Fig. 4a) in the 2020s. These increases will stabilize or slow down in the 2040s, except for the upper course and some areas in the middle and lower 448 basin, where NHN could decrease (cold color ramp), which explains the behavior of the total 449 annual NHN for the whole basin (Table 5). The Ter basin presents the most variable response 450 451 of crop NHN to CC of the three basins (Fig. 4b). Annual NHN could increase for most major crops in both future periods with respect to the baseline and right across the basin (warm 452 color palette). The general trend is an increase in absolute values for the whole basin (see 453 Table 5), except for some areas of winter cereals, for which annual NHN could decrease 454 455 (cold color palette) in both periods in the lower basin, despite some recovery in the 2040s.

456 Crops in the Muga basin show a slight increase in their NHN (green-yellow color palette) as a response to CC from the baseline period to future periods (Fig. 4c), except for forage crops 457 458 (sharp increase in NHN) and winter cereals (decrease in NHN). Forage crops show a considerable increase in the 2020s, higher than in the case of other crops (warmest colors), 459 460 but since the proportion of these crops is relatively small in the Muga basin, their effect on NHN at the whole basin level is negligible; there is a much higher proportion of winter cereals, 461 which show a decrease in NHN in the 2020s (cold colors), and this moderates the increase 462 463 in all other crops, leading to a slight overall increase for the whole basin in the 2020s (Table 464 5).



Figure 4. Spatial distribution of the annual net hydric needs (NHN) of major crops in the three case study basins (a) Segre, (b) Ter, (c) Muga in the baseline period (above), and future annual NHN differences from the baseline period at two future time periods: 2020s (2021-2030) and 2040s (2041-2050); *negative annual NHN differences imply decreases and positive differences imply increases with respect to NHN in the baseline period.

471 **3.1.2.** Current and future annual crop NHN: total basin values

Total annual NHN values in hm³ are expected to increase for the Ter and Segre basins, 472 although trends show different patterns in the speed and intensity of change (Table 5). In the 473 Segre basin, the total annual increase in NHN with respect to the baseline would reach 474 475 almost 53 hm³ in the 2020s and 54 hm³ in the 2040s, an increase of 6.6% and 6.7% respectively. In the Ter basin, the increase with respect to the baseline would be almost 1.6 476 hm³ in the 2020s and 6.6 hm³ in the 2040s, an increase of 2.5% and 10.3% respectively. As 477 478 for the Muga basin, calculations show a total annual increase in NHN of almost 0.02 hm3 in 479 the 2020s and 0.61 hm3 in the 2040s (an increase of 0.1% and 3.9% respectively), but these estimates are not statistically significant. In general, the highest increases are observed for 480 the lower and middle basin segments, although higher relative changes (%) appear in some 481 upper basin segments (Table 5). In the lower Segre, mean annual NHN of crops would rise 482 from 2903 m³/ha in the baseline to 3099 m³/ha in the 2040s. The corresponding figures for 483 the lower and middle Ter from the baseline to the 2040s would show an increase of almost 484 100 m³/ha and 150 m³/ha respectively. Finally, as no variation in land use or crop distribution 485 is assumed between periods, NHN changes calculated between periods by area (m³/ha) 486 show the same trends and statistical significances as absolute NHN values in hm³/year; thus, 487 no statistically significant variation in m³/ha between periods was obtained for the Muga 488 basin. 489

Total annual NHN values (hm³) show statistically significant differences between basin 490 491 segments in all periods, with the lower course always returning the highest figures, and the upper course the lowest. The same pattern may be observed in the mean annual NHN of 492 crops (m³/ha) when comparing the basin segments of the Segre. However, in the Muga 493 494 basin, while the upper and middle segments returned similar lower values across the different 495 periods, the lower course showed the highest values. For its part, the Ter basin showed a gradient from the lower to the upper segment, with the middle segment presenting 496 497 intermediate values not statistically different from the other two segments.

Table 5. Annual average theoretical NHN values for the total basin and lower, middle and upper basin segments (absolute values in hm³/year and mean values in m³/ha for the whole basin) for the baseline period (2002-2011) and both future periods under the RCP4.5 climate change scenario: 2020s (2021-2030) and 2040s (2041-2050). Differences (hm³) and relative changes (%) in absolute NHN values of major crops with respect to the baseline period. Statistical differences in values between periods are represented with lower case letters and differences between basin segments are represented with upper case letters within each basin. Significant differences in mean values between periods and basin segments were tested by ANOVA (p<0.05) within each basin. No interactions were detected.

		Total Basin NHN (hm ³)	Differ ∆ hm	ences* ³ (Δ %)	Mean basin NHN (m ^³ /ha)							
Basin	Basin Segment	Baseline	2020s	2040s	Baseline	2020s	2040s					
	Lower basin	731.32 ^{Aa}	+43.01 ^{Ab} (+5.9)	+46.61 ^b (+6.4)	2903 ^{Aa}	3085 ^{Ab}	3099 ^{Ab}					
Soaro	Middle basin	99.00 ^{Ba}	+9.92 ^{Bb} (+10.0)	+7.74 ^{Bb} (+7.8)	690 ^{Ba}	761 ^{Bb}	745 ^{Bb}					
Segre	Upper basin	4.98 ^{Ca}	-1.09 ^{Cb} (-21.8)	-1.10 ^{Cb} (-22.1)	212 ^{Ca}	166 ^{Cb}	165 ^{Cb}					
	Whole basin	835.30ª	+51.84 ^ь (+6.2)	+53.25 ^b (+6.4)	1967ª	2097 ^b	2099 ^b					
	Lower basin	36.2 ^{Aa}	+0.50 ^{Aab} (+1.4)	+2.80 ^{Ab} (+7.7)	1286 ^{Aa}	1302 ^{Aab}	1384 ^{Ab}					
Ter	Middle basin	24.2 ^{Ba}	+0.60 ^{Bab} (+2.5)	+2.90 ^{Bb} (+12.0)	1219 ^{ABa}	1248 ^{ABab}	1367 ^{ABb}					
	Upper basin	3.6 ^{Ca}	+0.50 ^{Cab} (+13.9)	+0.80 ^{Cb} (+22.2)	979 ^{Ba}	1111 ^{Bab}	1207 ^{Bb}					
	Whole basin	64 ^a	+1.60 ^{ab} (+2.5)	+6.60 ^ь (+10.3)	1239ª	1269 ^{ab}	1365 ^b					
-	Lower basin	10.7 ^{Aa}	-0.04 ^{Aa} (-0.4)	+0.20 ^{Aa} (+1.9)	1420 ^{Aa}	1414 ^{Aa}	1447 ^{Aa}					
Мида	Middle basin	4.6 ^{Ba}	+0.08 ^{Ba} (+1.6)	+0.41 ^{Ba} (+9.0)	584 ^{Ba}	594 ^{Ba}	637 ^{Ba}					
muya	Upper basin	0.28 ^{Ca}	-0.01 ^{Ca} (-4.2)	-0.001 ^{Ca} (-0.5)	964 ^{Ba}	923 ^{Ba}	959 ^{Ba}					
	Whole basin	15.6ª	+0.02ª (+0.1)	+0.61ª (+3.9)	992ª	993ª	1031ª					

* Relative change (%) with respect to the baseline period.

515 **3.1.3. Crop-specific current and future mean annual NHN**

516 In the Segre, typical rainfed crops such as grapevine and almond could present an increase in their mean annual NHN in the 2040s from 9 to 15%, with olives showing an increase of up 517 to 17% in the lower basin, where agriculture is concentrated (Table A.1). In general, winter 518 519 cereals would report an increase (around 43% for barley) in the 2020s, and a subsequent slowdown in the 2040s, in accordance with the general pattern for this basin. NHN of fruit 520 orchards such as apple would increase by up to 10% in the lower basin in the 2040s. Finally, 521 522 pastures in the middle Segre would increase by up to 45% in the 2020s and almost 50% in 523 the 2040s.

In the Ter basin, annual mean NHN of maize could increase by up to 9% and 14% in the 524 2040s in the lower and middle segments respectively (Table A.2). Annual NHN of ryegrass 525 526 could increase by up to 11% and 15% in the 2040s in the lower and middle segments respectively, and by almost 22% in the upper segment. Winter cereals follow the same 527 pattern in the middle and upper basin, where NHN could increase by around 10% in the 528 2040s. However, in the lower basin, annual NHN of winter cereals could decrease by up to 529 9% in the 2020s and 5% in the 2040s. Finally, in the 2020s and 2040s, annual NHN of apple 530 trees in the lower basin could increase by around 3% and 9% respectively. 531

532 In the Muga basin, olives would consistently show an increase in NHN in the lower and middle segments, including an increase of up to 24% in the 2040s in the middle basin, where this 533 crop is widespread (Table A.3). Grapevines would show an increase of up to 10% in the 534 2040s. In the same period, forage crops (alfalfa or pastures) in the middle and lower Muga 535 could record increases with respect to the baseline of more than 8% and more than 11% 536 537 $(3000-4000 \text{ m}^3/\text{ha})$. Also in the 2040s, winter cereals such as barley could show a decrease of more than 11% and almost 23% in the middle and lower Muga respectively. Maize could 538 see increases of almost 1% and 4% in the 2040s in the lower and middle Muga respectively. 539

541 **3.1.4. Monthly crop NHN patterns**

Some of the annual NHN results, such as the decrease in the annual NHN of winter cereals 542 in several sub-basins, are easier to understand if an analysis is made of monthly behavior 543 patterns in the NHN of crops. In general, an earlier increase in ETa in the year and a 544 subsequent decrease for both future time horizons analyzed is observed, but it is only 545 reflected in an increase in total annual NHN depending on crop phenology, so different 546 monthly NHN patterns can be observed (Fig. 5). For instance, in general, in the case of 547 548 orchards such as olive trees in the lower Segre, a first monthly NHN pattern can be observed: NHN only increase from May to July (Fig. 5), but no NHN increases were observed in the 549 following summer months for future horizons with respect to the baseline (growth cycle 550 advancement due to increased temperatures) and the annual NHN increase was modest. On 551 552 the other hand, a second monthly NHN pattern for future horizons was observed in the case of forage crops, such as pastures in the middle Segre (Fig. 5): higher NHN in most of the 553 spring and summer months, resulting in a higher annual NHN increase. Finally, a third 554 monthly NHN pattern for future horizons may be observed in a number of crops and basin 555 segments, such as maize in the lower Ter and barley in the lower Muga (Fig. 5): an increase 556 in NHN in the early growing cycle balanced by lower NHN later in the cycle for phenological 557 reasons (growth cycle advancement due to increased temperatures), resulting on occasions 558 in an annual decrease in NHN with respect to the baseline. 559



Figure 5. Patterns in monthly actual evapotranspiration (ETa, left) and net hydric needs (NHN, right): from bottom to top, barley in the lower Muga, maize in the lower Ter, pastures in the middle Segre, and olives in the lower Segre in the baseline period (2002-2011), 2020s (2021-2030) and 2040s (2041-2050). Letters represent significant differences between at least two time horizons each months. The color of the letter denotes the time horizon: gray for baseline, blue for 2020s and green for 2040s. Significant differences between mean monthly NHN values were tested by ANOVA (p<0.05). Time horizons with the same letter are not significantly different. An absence of letters denotes no significant differences between any time horizon.

3.2. Climate change impacts on crop growing cycle and phenology

571 The three patterns observed in monthly NHN in the previous section mostly reflect variations 572 in the growing cycle determined from GDD accumulation, which produced a general 573 advancement in the growing cycle and, depending on the species, a shortening of the cycle 574 as well. Apart from GDD accumulation, several general agroclimatic indices calculated show 575 this, but the specific growing cycle indices estimated for several species (maize, grapevine 576 and apple) also show changes in their respective growing cycles.

577 Frost days in March and April would decrease throughout the three basins, most markedly in the upper and middle basin segments (Table 6). This does not necessarily mean a reduction 578 or disappearance of frost risk because of the advancement of the crop cycle, as can be seen 579 in DOYT10, which indicates an advancement of the growing cycle of up to 8-12, 7-10 or 5-8 580 days in the lower, middle and upper basin, respectively, in the 2040s. The number of days 581 582 with risk of heat damage in July and August would increase in all basins and segments (Table 6). Heat 30 days shows an increase of 3-5 days in the 2040s depending on the basin and 583 the segment, except in the upper Segre where the increase in the 2040s is barely 1 day. 584 Heat 35 days would approximately double in all basins in the 2040s in relation to the baseline. 585

586 Both maize-specific indicators related to the rapid completion of the growing cycle (DOY 600FAO and DOY700FAO, Table 6) show that it could be shortened in the 2040s compared 587 to the baseline, ranging from 20 to 27 days shorter, depending on the basin and segment. 588 For grapevine, DOY pheno at budbreak would be reached 7 days earlier in the 2020s and 589 590 10 days earlier in the 2040s compared to the baseline (Figure A.6 of Appendix A), while Days pheno to harvest after budbreak (180 days in the baseline period) would be shortened by up 591 to 6 days in the 2020s and 11 days in the 2040s, mainly due to shortening in all phases after 592 blooming, particularly from veraison to harvest. Although Days pheno at the blooming phase 593 594 would last up to 6 days longer in the 2040s, DOY pheno at blooming would be slightly advanced because of earlier budbreak. Finally, the shortening of the growing cycle would 595 result in an earlier DOY pheno at harvest of about 13 days in the 2020s and 21 days in the 596 2040s. DOY bloom in apples would show no changes in the 2020s or 2040s: in spite of a 597 delay at the beginning of chill accumulation of almost 10 days, an equivalent, 598 599 counterbalancing effect is observed during the heat accumulation phase, and no changes 600 would occur during the chilling phase (Fig. A.7 of Appendix A).

Table 6. General and maize-specific indicators for growth and development in the upper, middle and lower segments of the case study basins for baseline (2002-2011) and future periods (2020s and 2040s) under the RCP 4.5 scenario. The definition of each indicator can be found in Table 4.

	Segre											Ter								Muga									
				Upper			Middle			Lower		Upper		Middle		Lower			Upper			Middle			Lower				
	Indicator		Baseline	Δ2020s	Δ2040s	Baseline	A2020s	Δ2040s	Baseline	A2020s	Δ2040s	Baseline	A2020s	Δ2040s	Baseline	Δ2020s	A2040s	Baseline	Δ2020s	<u>A</u> 2040s	Baseline	Δ2020s	Δ2040s	Baseline	A2020s	Δ2040s	Baseline	A2020s	Δ2040s
	Frost days	March	19.6	-0.5	-1.4	13.3	-0.6	-1.8	5.4	-0.4	-1.5	17.3	-1.3	-2.3	7.8	-0.8	-1.9	6.5	-0.3	-0.9	8.4	-1.1	-2.1	2.7	-0.1	-0.1	1.7	-0.1	-0.4
- s		April	19.6	-7.8	-8.7	4.6	-0.5	-1.1	0.4	-0.1	-0.2	7.1	-1.1	-1.7	0.8	-0.1	-0.5	0.5	-0.1	-0.3	1	-0.6	-0.3	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Heat 30	July	0.7	+0.6	+0.9	13.6	+2.9	+5	22.1	+2.7	+4	4.4	+2.8	+5.0	14.1	+2.8	+4.8	17.6	+1.6	+3.0	9	+2.1	+3.9	12.9	+1.9	+3.9	13.8	+2.7	+3.9
nera	days	August	0.7	+0.5	+0.9	11.5	+2.8	+4.8	19.2	+3.1	+4.4	3.5	+2.4	+4.5	10.6	+2.8	+5	15.3	+2	+4	5.5	+1.8	+3.8	11	+2.3	+4.7	11.8	+2.7	+4.6
indi	Heat 35	July	0	0	0	2.4	+1.5	+3.2	5.1	+3.3	+5.6	0	+0.3	+0.4	1.2	+1	+1.9	2.8	+1.2	+2.4	0.4	+0.4	+0.9	0.5	+0.5	+0.9	1.2	+0.4	+1
	days	August	0	0	0	2.4	+1	+2.5	4.2	+1.9	+3.8	0.3	+0.3	+0.6	1.5	+0.6	+1.5	3.7	+0.7	+1.9	0.5	+0.4	+0.6	1.3	+0.2	+0.7	1	+0.8	+1.5
	DOY T10		150	-2	-5	108	-3	-7	82	-4	-10	131	-4	-8	101	-4	-7	80	-1	-8	107	0	-5	79	-4	-10	70	-7	-12
ize ators	DOY 600FAO		t	t	†	‡	‡	‡	282	-13	-22	†	†	†	‡	‡	‡	299	-14	-24	†	t	†	299	-11	-23	284	-14	-23
Maiz indicat	DOY 700FAO		t	t	†	‡	ŧ	‡	285	-11	-20	t	t	t	‡	‡	‡	307	-19	-27	t	t	†	303	-8	-20	289	-13	-22

604

601

602 603

605 † Maize is not a major crop in this basin segment, so calculations were not performed.

606 ‡ Calculations were not performed as the required GDD are not attained in all years in most of the sub-basins, at least in the reference period.

4. Discussion

608 Our estimations showed the main impacts of CC on the NHN, growing cycle and phenology 609 of major crops in three Mediterranean basins in the first half of the 21st century under the 610 RCP4.5 scenario, a GHGs emission stabilization scenario that assumes the execution of 611 mitigation policies (Thomson et al., 2011).

612

613

4.1. Projected changes in the NHN of crops

Most crops in the three basins could experience a significant increase in NHN until mid-614 615 century with respect to the baseline period (Fig. 4; Table A.1 to A.2 and Table 5), as shown by similar studies under Mediterranean (Phogat et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2015; Valverde et 616 617 al., 2015; Savé et al., 2012; see review in Iglesias and Garrote, 2015) and non-Mediterranean conditions (Hong et al., 2016; see review in Iglesias and Garrote, 2015; McDonald and 618 619 Girvetz, 2013). However, NHN decreases have been calculated for some crops (especially for winter cereals) at certain locations in all the case study basins up until 2050 under the 620 RCP4.5 scenario. Although NHN decreases are also projected in other studies (Hong et al., 621 2016; Zhao et al., 2015; Lorite et al., 2018), this is not an obvious result. These decreases 622 are associated with changes in duration (shortening) or beginning (advancement) of the 623 growing cycle, particularly in annual crops (Fig. A.6). Shortening and advancement of the 624 625 growing cycle partially compensates or overcompensates the earlier NHN increase in some annual crops. A shortened and advanced growing cycle leads to a lower demand for water 626 627 due to higher soil water availability, and there is also less time for water to be consumed. We believe there are two main reasons for these novel results: first, they were obtained under 628 the RCP4.5 scenario, a pathway for stabilization of radiative forcing by 2100 (IPCC 2014) in 629 contrast with the A2 scenario from AR4; and secondly, we were able to fine-tune our 630 631 calculations by using homogeneous climate, crop type and soil type units, which leads to more reliable estimations of ETa. The reason we were able to arrive at these fine-tuned 632

results is that our study is one of the few that considers general and exhaustively projected
changes in the NHN of major crops at a basin scale, including the range of conditions of a
specific region.

636 In general and in terms of absolute values, NHN would increase in the Ter and Segre basins, albeit in a different way, throughout the first half of the century. NHN increases range from 637 638 small to moderate in the 2020s to moderate to high in the 2040s. Dynamics would vary for 639 the three basins: there would be no statistically significant variation for the Muga basin a continuous increase for the Ter basin, and an initial increase followed by stability in the Segre 640 basin (Table 5). These general trends vary from crop to crop (Table A.1 to A.3). The highest 641 642 increases in NHN are found in the lower segments of the basins, where agriculture is spatially concentrated (Table 5). Most notably, in the lower Segre annual NHN (total values) would 643 644 increase by 43.7 and 47 hm³/year in the 2020s and 2040s respectively. Lower annual NHN increases (total values) are estimated the lower Ter: 2.8 hm³/year in the 2040s. 645

At all events, a generalized increase in NHN is observed in the case study basins; combined
with lower water availability, which restricts irrigation, this could become very limiting for crop
production.

649

650

4.2. Projected changes and impacts on crop growing cycle and phenology

A general advancement of the crop growing cycle has been shown throughout the future time horizons in this study. Moreover, a shortened crop growing cycle has been estimated in annual crops such as maize (Table 6) and temperate fruits such as grapevine (Fig. A.6). However, a general prolongation of the vegetative season was predicted by some authors (Trnka et al., 2011; Tian et al., 2014), opening new time windows for cropping. The behavior of some herbaceous crops such as pastures (Fig. 5) fit this pattern. A higher number of days presenting extremely hot temperature (*Heat 30 days* and *Heat 35 days*) as projected for the

three basins (Table 6) is consistent with the current increase in detrimental heat effects in 658 the study area, such as the heat stroke observed in apple (Joaquim Carbó, personal 659 communication), seriously affecting fruit quality. A decrease in Frost days (Table 6) would 660 not necessarily mean a reduction or disappearance of frost risk. In fact, the projected 661 662 advancement and shortening of the crop growing cycle could counterbalance this reduction in frost days, leading to an increase in spring frost risk (Darbyshire et al., 2013), as early 663 phenological stages may still occur when frost events are still frequent despite the 664 665 advancement of the crop growing cycle. These changes (Table 6; Fig. A.6 and A.7) are in 666 line with other studies that assess crop growing cycle and phenology (Trnka et al., 2011; Saadi et al., 2015; Ruiz-Ramos et al., 2018; Koufos et al., 2018). 667

668 Upper segments of basins would experience the greatest climatic changes, because they 669 are the coldest and wettest. However, effects on crop production would be higher in the 670 middle and lowest segments of basins since this is where most of the cropland is situated. 671 The coastal effect leads to clear differences between the lower basin and the rest of the 672 basin, except in the case of the Segre, as this is a tributary river and its lower course is clearly 673 inland.

674

675

4.3. Adaptation measures and strategies

676 Adaptation measures and strategies should be consistent with the results presented so far, 677 in order to reduce the future impacts of CC and facilitate the design of more resilient 678 agricultural water management systems in Catalonia as a whole. These measures would 679 mainly consist in: i) Changing the water management scheme; ii) changing the crop distribution and crop choices (low water demand crops; Allain et al., 2018; Mo et al., 2017; 680 Ronco et al., 2017); iii) Applying support or supplementary irrigation and increasing irrigation 681 efficiency (Ruiz-Ramos et al., 2018; Dechmi and Skhiri, 2013); iv) Adjusting irrigation to net 682 irrigation requirements (Dechmi and Skhiri, 2013; Allain et al., 2018; Pascual et al., 2018); v) 683

Adjusting sowing dates and the cropping calendar (Rotter et al., 2013; Ruiz-Ramos et al., 684 685 2017); and vi) Changing to cultivars or crops more suited to adverse conditions (Mo et al., 2017; Ronco et al., 2017). These measures would also form part of a water management 686 strategy: in line with our results, some research in the study area (Milano et al., 2013 in the 687 688 Ebro basin and Vicente-Serrano et al., 2017a in the Segre basin) has concluded that a future scenario characterized by higher demands together with decreased water availability is highly 689 plausible. Therefore, it will be necessary to adopt new water use and management strategies 690 691 in the case study basins in order to maintain yields and improve agriculture. For example, 692 beyond increasing irrigation efficiency, adjusting irrigation to hydric needs and not to a predetermined concession should form part of a water management strategy in a water and 693 694 land governance framework; the decision to use low water demand crops or varieties should 695 not simply be left to the growers, but it should also be included in a water governance scheme, together with restricting the area of higher water consuming crops or defining 696 support irrigation protocols to allow crop survival in the driest years. 697

698 In fact, many other adaptation measures and strategies could be proposed, such as the following: a shift in diet towards a reduction in meat consumption, since fodder crops are 699 large water and land consumers (Vanham et al. 2016); changes in land use and forest 700 701 management to regulate water availability for the basin (Zabalza-Martínez et al., 2018); rainwater harvesting and storage (Rockström, 2002); reuse of wastewater in agriculture 702 (Panagopoulos et al, 2014; Ronco et al., 2017); crop diversification and crop rotation by 703 alternating water-demanding crops with crops that demand less water (Allain et al., 2018; 704 705 Lin, 2011); and conservation agriculture (Prestele et al., 2018) or physically protecting crops 706 from adverse events by establishing abatement infrastructures. Clearly, some of these measures would also form part of a water management scheme. 707

As a matter of fact, choosing site-specific measures and combining them are the most appropriate options when seeking to adapt agricultural systems to CC measures (Dechmi and Skhiri, 2013; Ruiz-Ramos et al., 2017). Moreover, the implementation of policies,
including water management, with a combination of CC mitigation and adaptation measures
is highly recommended in order to make agricultural systems more resilient and obtain high
yields (FAO, 2013).

714

715

4.4. Limitations of the study

Due to the methodology used in this study for NHN estimations based on Savé et al., (2012), 716 some limitations must be acknowledged that make it necessary to look at our results with 717 some care, although we believe the effect of these limitations is negligible. First, although no 718 uncertainty or validation analyses have been performed, similar annual ETc and NHN values 719 720 (estimated for the baseline period) were obtained for maize and apple trees in GIROREG experiences (from 2014 to 2017) in the Muga and Ter basins within the framework of LIFE 721 MEDACC (Francesc Camps, personal communication). Similar values of annual NHN for 722 wheat have been reported by Saadi et al., (2015): 275 mm in the area of Lleida compared 723 724 with 211.6 mm estimated in the present study for the lower Segre (Table A. 1).

Secondly, the delta method used in climate projections will probably not reflect extreme values. However, intra-annual variability is already considered in the projections by using different deltas for the different seasons; and, as projections are applied to mean values for long periods (more than 10 years), interannual variability is not the main focus, also because uncertainty in extreme values is much greater than in mean values.

730

Thirdly, the effect on crop transpiration of increased CO_2 in the RCP 4.5 scenario was not considered in the NHN calculation. Some authors (Elliot et al., 2014, Zhao et al., 2015) have highlighted the importance of considering increased CO_2 . However, following the arguments presented by Savé et al. (2012), we thought that the uncertainties of not considering increased CO₂ effects would motivate a correction of our results, but we do not believe these
corrections would raise or lower the estimations presented here. First of all, the CO₂ increase
in the RCP4.5 scenario is very small, so no substancialtrffg0744 reductions in stomatal
conductance are to be expected, and this reduction would be partially compensated by a
higher leaf area index, also resulting from plant adaptation to higher CO₂ concentrations,
giving a similar transpiration per soil area.

Fourthly, another source of uncertainty can be found in the use of estimated soil maps for the case study basins, as soil attributes such as available water capacity are determinant for crop NHN estimation through estimation of ETa. However, no complete high-resolution soil maps were available for the study area.

Fifthly, estimations based on phenological and agroclimatic models that are valid in the reference period are implicitly assumed to be valid for the estimated periods. Moreover, the estimated changes in growing cycle in this study are based on GDD accumulation, and changes in phenology for grapevines or maize use very simple models also based on GDD accumulation.

750

Finally, the health status of the crop would undoubtedly affect these results, and pests and diseases are expected to increase in the Mediterranean as a result of climate change (MedECC 2019).

Beyond this, crop performance will be affected by agronomical practices, local edaphic conditions and production needs, i.e. the market, which have not been included in the calculations. Moreover, this study has focused on the expected conditions for current crops in the basins where they are now being grown: based on the results in this study, conclusions could be drawn about the degree of productivity of these crops in their present locations.

760 **4.5. Recommendations and future work**

Integrating the results of this study with hydrological modeling for future climate and land use
 scenarios would make it possible to estimate the gap (the deficit or imbalance) between water
 supply and water demands with regard to agriculture in the area and to design water
 management strategies.

Moreover, further modeling work becomes necessary for the purpose of simulating different initiatives and/or scenarios (concerning water management, land use changes, best management practices in agriculture and CC scenarios) at the basin or regional scale, in order to test different adaptation and mitigation strategies for Catalonia.

769 **5.** Conclusion

770 Most crops in the case study basins would show significant NHN increases before midcentury, directly related with increased crop potential evapotranspiration and decreased 771 precipitation during the growing season. The generalized NHN increase and the low water 772 availability for irrigation could challenge the feasibility of maintaining the current agricultural 773 774 model in the study area. Other key results of this work are a general advancement and shortening of the growing cycle, lengthening of the vegetating season, impacts on phenology 775 and damages associated with extreme temperatures. These future scenarios open up new 776 possibilities in terms of crop and variety choices, adjustment of the cropping calendar and a 777 778 wide range of CC adaptation measures that should form part of any water management 779 scheme within a governance framework. This study represents a starting point from which to simulate adaptation and mitigation strategies that will be instrumental in the design of more 780 resilient agricultural systems in Catalonia, including water management, and its findings 781 782 could be partially extrapolated to many other regions of the Mediterranean basin.

- 784
- 785

786 Acknowledgements

787 This work was supported by the research project "LIFE12 ENV/ES/000536-Demonstration and validation of innovative methodology for regional climate change adaptation in the 788 Mediterranean area (LIFE MEDACC)", financed by the LIFE program of the European 789 Commission. We would like to thank the Coordination service for registration and financial 790 aid of the Ministry of Agriculture, Livestock, Fisheries and Food (Government of Catalonia) 791 for data on the declaration of eligible agricultural areas for common Agricultural Policy 792 793 payments for the year 2013. Finally, we want to thank the reviewers for their constructive comments and Sergio Vicente (IPE-CSIC) for his work on climate projections and his suport 794 795 in the review process.

796

797 Appendix A and B. Supplementary material and more methodological details.

- Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version atdoi:10.1016/j.agwat.2021.106797.
- 800
- 801

802 References

- ACA, IRTA. (2008). Pla per a l'eficiencia en l'ús de l'aigua per a reg agrícola. Agencia
 Catalana de l'aigua i Institut de recerca i tecnología agroalimentaria.
- Allain, S., Ndong, G. O., Lardy, R., and Leenhardt, D. (2018). Integrated assessment of
 four strategies for solving water imbalance in an agricultural landscape. Agronomy for
 Sustainable Development 38, 12.
- 3. Allen, R.G., Pereira, L.S., Raes, D., Smith, M. (1998). Crop evapotranspiration —
 guidelines for computing crop water requirements. FAO Irrigation and drainage paper 56.
 Food and Agriculture Organization, Rome.

- 4. Arnold J.G., Srinivasan R., Muttiah R.S., Williams J.R. (1998). Large-area hydrologic
 modeling and assessment: Part I. Model development. Journal American Water
 Resources Association, 34(1), 73-89.
- 5. Caubel, J., García de Cortázar-Atauri, I., Launay, M., de Noblet-Ducoudré, N., Huard, F., Bertuzzi, P., and Graux, A.I. (2015). Broadening the scope for ecoclimatic indicators to assess crop climate suitability according to ecophysiological, technical and quality criteria. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology 207, 94-106.
- 6. Clarke D. (1998). CROPWAT for Windows: User Guide. FAO, Rome.
- 7. Connor, J. D., Schwabe, K., King, D., and Knapp, K. (2012). Irrigated agriculture and
 climate change: The influence of water supply variability and salinity on adaptation.
 Ecological Economics 77, 149-157.
- 8. Cramer, W., Joel, G., Fader, M., Garrabou, J., Gattuso, J.-P., Iglesias, A., A. Lange, M.,
 Lionello, P., Carmen Llasat, M., Paz, S., Peñuelas, J., Snoussi, M., Toreti, A., N. Tsimplis,
 M., and Xoplaki, E. (2018). "Climate change and interconnected risks to sustainable
 development in the Mediterranean."
- 9. Darbyshire, R., Webb, L., Goodwin, I., and Barlow, E. W. (2013). Evaluation of recent
 trends in Australian pome fruit spring phenology. Int J Biometeorol 57, 409-21.
- 10. Dechmi, F., and Skhiri, A. (2013). Evaluation of best management practices under
 intensive irrigation using SWAT model. Agricultural Water Management 123, 55-64.
- 11. DUN. (2013). Declaration of eligible agricultural area for Common Agricultural Policy
 payments. Government of Catalonia. Annual
- 832 12. Elliott, J., Deryng, D., Müller, C., Frieler, K., Konzmann, M., Gerten, D., Glotter, M., Flörke,
 833 M., Wada, Y., Best, N., Eisner, S., Fekete, B. M., Folberth, C., Foster, I., Gosling, S. N.,
 834 Haddeland, I., Khabarov, N., Ludwig, F., Masaki, Y., Olin, S., Rosenzweig, C., Ruane, A.

- C., Satoh, Y., Schmid, E., Stacke, T., Tang, Q., and Wisser, D. (2014). Constraints and
 potentials of future irrigation water availability on agricultural production under climate
 change. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 111, 3239-3244.
- 13. FAO. (2013). Sourcebook on Climate Smart Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, Food
 and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), Rome, Italy.
 http://www.fao.org/climatechange/37491-0c425f2caa2f5e6f3b9162d39c8507fa3.pdf
- 14. Funes, I., Aranda, X., Biel, C., Carbo, J., Camps, F., Molina, A. J., de Herralde, F., Grau,
 B., and Save, R. (2016). Future climate change impacts on apple flowering date in a
 Mediterranean subbasin. Agricultural Water Management 164, 19-27.
- 844 15. Girard, C., Pulido-Velazquez, M., Rinaudo, J. D., Page, C., and Caballero, Y. (2015).
 845 Integrating top-down and bottom-up approaches to design global change adaptation at
 846 the river basin scale. Global Environmental Change-Human and Policy Dimensions 34,
 847 132-146.
- 848 16. Girona, J., Marsal, J., Mata, M., del Campo, J. (2004). Pear crop coefficients obtained in
 849 a large weighing lysimeter. In Proceedings of the IVth International Symposium on
 850 Irrigation of Horticultural Crops, Snyder, R. L., Ed. Int Soc Horticultural Science: Leuven
 851 1; pp 277-281.
- 852 17. Girona J., del Campo J., Mata M., Lopez G., Marsal J. (2011) A comparative study of
 853 apple and pear tree water consumption measured with two weighing lysimeters. Irrigation
 854 Science 29: 55-63.
- 18. Hong, E. M., Nam, W. H., Choi, J. Y., and Pachepsky, Y. A. (2016). Projected irrigation
 requirements for upland crops using soil moisture model under climate change in South
 Korea. Agricultural Water Management 165, 163-180.
- 858 19. ICC, (2012). Digital elevation model (30 m resolution). Institut Cartogràfic de Catalunya,
 859 2012 [online].

- 20. Iglesias, A., and Garrote, L. (2015). Adaptation strategies for agricultural water
 management under climate change in Europe. Agricultural Water Management 155, 113 124.
- 21. IPCC. (2014). Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups
 I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
 Change [Core Writing Team, R.K. Pachauri and L.A. Meyer (eds.)].IPCC, Geneva,
 Switzerland, 151 pp. https://www.ipcc.ch/reports/
- Koufos, G. C., Mavromatis, T., Koundouras, S., and Jones, G. V. (2018). Response of
 viticulture-related climatic indices and zoning to historical and future climate conditions in
 Greece. International Journal of Climatology 38, 2097-2111.
- 23. Licciardello, F., G. Rossi, C., Srinivasan, R., M. Zimbone, S., and Barbagallo, S. (2011).
 Hydrologic Evaluation of a Mediterranean Watershed Using the SWAT Model with
 Multiple PET Estimation Methods. Transactions of the ASABE 54, 1615-1625.
- 24. Lin, B. B. (2011). Resilience in Agriculture through Crop Diversification: Adaptive
 Management for Environmental Change. BioScience 61, 183-193.
- 25. Lorite, I. J., Gabaldón-Leal, C., Ruiz-Ramos, M., Belaj, A., de la Rosa, R., León, L., and
 Santos, C. (2018). Evaluation of olive response and adaptation strategies to climate
 change under semi-arid conditions. Agricultural Water Management 204, 247-261.
- 26. Marsal J., Girona J., Casadesus J., Lopez G., Stöckle C.O. (2013). Crop coefficient (Kc)
 for apple: comparison between measurements by a weighing lysimeter and prediction by
 CropSyst. Irrigation Science, 31:455–463. DOI 10.1007/s00271-012-0323-7.
- 27. Marsal, J., Casadesus, J., Lopez, G., Mata, M., Bellvert, J., and, Girona, J. (2016).
 Sustainability of regulated deficit irrigation in a mid-maturing peach cultivar. Irrigation
 Science 34, 201-208.

- 28. McDonald, R. I., and Girvetz, E. H. (2013). Two Challenges for U.S. Irrigation Due to
 Climate Change: Increasing Irrigated Area in Wet States and Increasing Irrigation Rates
 in Dry States. PLOS ONE 8, e65589.
- 887 29. MedECC. First Mediterranean Report MedECC (2019; https://www.medecc.org/wp 888 content/uploads/2018/12/MedECC-Booklet_EN_WEB.pdf).
- 30. Milano, M., Ruelland, D., Dezetter, A., Fabre, J., Ardoin-Bardin, S., and Servat, E. (2013).
 Modeling the current and future capacity of water resources to meet water demands in
 the Ebro basin. Journal of Hydrology 500, 114-126.
- 31. Mo, X.-G., Hu, S., Lin, Z.-H., Liu, S.-X., and Xia, J. (2017). Impacts of climate change on
 agricultural water resources and adaptation on the North China Plain. Advances in
 Climate Change Research 8, 93-98.
- 32. Neitsch, S.L., Arnold, J.G., Kiniry, J.R. and Williams, J.R. (2005). Soil and Water
 Assessment Tool (SWAT) Theoretical Documentation. Blackland Research Center,
 Texas Agricultural Experiment Station and Grassland, Soil and Water Research
 Laboratory, Temple, TX.
- 33. Neitsch, S. L., Arnold, J. G., Kiniry, J. R., Srinivasan, R., and Williams, J. R. (2011). Soil
 and Water Assessment Tool Input/Output File Documentation: Version 2009, Texas
 Water Resources Institute Technical Report 365, Texas A&M University System, College
 Station (Texas).
- 34. Olesen, J. E., and Bindi, M. (2002). Consequences of climate change for European
 agricultural productivity, land use and policy. European Journal of Agronomy 16, 239262.
- 906 35. Panagopoulos, Y., Makropoulos, C., Kossida, M., and Mimikou, M. (2014). Optimal
 907 Implementation of Irrigation Practices: Cost-Effective Desertification Action Plan for the
 908 Pinios Basin. Journal of Water Resources Planning and Management 140, 05014005.

- 36. Pascual, D., Pla, E., Lopez-Bustins, J. A., Retana, J., and Terradas, J. (2015). Impacts
 of climate change on water resources in the Mediterranean Basin: a case study in
 Catalonia, Spain. Hydrological Sciences Journal-Journal Des Sciences Hydrologiques
 60, 2132-2147.
- 913 37. Pascual D., Zabalza Martinez J., Funes I., Vicente-Serrano S.M., Pla E., Savé R., Aranda
 914 X., Biel C. (2016). Methodology to assess climate change impacts in the LIFE MEDACC
 915 case-study basins: Generation of scenarios, vulnerability maps and quantification of
 916 impacts. Deliverable 13. LIFE MEDACC. http://medacc-life.eu/sites/medacc917 life.eu/files/docuemnts/d13 methodologyseriesmaps v4.pdf
- 38. Pascual D., Pla E., Zabalza Martinez J., Vicente-Serrano S.M., Funes I., Savé R., Aranda
 X., Biel C. (2018). Effects of the implementation actions in LIFE MEDACC case study
 basins. Deliverable 22. LIFE MEDACC. http://medacc-life.eu/sites/medacclife.eu/files/docuemnts/d22 monitoringresults 7.pdf
- 39. Phogat, V., Cox, J. W., and Simunek, J. (2018). Identifying the future water and salinity
 risks to irrigated viticulture in the Murray-Darling Basin, South Australia. Agricultural
 Water Management 201, 107-117.
- 40. Prestele, R., Hirsch, A. L., Davin, E. L., Seneviratne, S. I., and Verburg, P. H. (2018). A
 spatially explicit representation of conservation agriculture for application in global
 change studies. Global Change Biology 24, 4038-4053.
- 41. Rockstrom, J. (2000). Water resources management in smallholder farms in Eastern and
 Southern Africa: An overview. Physics and Chemistry of the Earth, Part B: Hydrology,
 Oceans and Atmosphere 25, 275-283.
- 42. Ronco, P., Zennaro, F., Torresan, S., Critto, A., Santini, M., Trabucco, A., Zollo, A. L.,
 Galluccio, G., and Marcomini, A. (2017). A risk assessment framework for irrigated
 agriculture under climate change. Advances in Water Resources 110, 562-578.

43. Rötter, R. P., Höhn, J., Trnka, M., Fronzek, S., Carter, T. R., and Kahiluoto, H. (2013).
Modelling shifts in agroclimate and crop cultivar response under climate change. Ecology
and Evolution 3, 4197-4214.

44. Ruiz-Ramos, M., Ferrise, R., Rodriguez, A., Lorite, I. J., Bindi, M., Carter, T. R., Fronzek, S., Palosuo, T., Pirttioja, N., Baranowski, P., Buis, S., Cammarano, D., Chen, Y., Dumont,

- 939 B., Ewert, F., Gaiser, T., Hlavinka, P., Hoffmann, H., Hohn, J. G., Jurecka, F., Kersebaum,
- 940 K. C., Krzyszczak, J., Lana, M., Mechiche-Alami, A., Minet, J., Montesino, M., Nendel,
- 941 C., Porter, J. R., Ruget, F., Semenov, M. A., Steinmetz, Z., Stratonovitch, P., Supit, I.,
- Tao, F., Trnka, M., de Wit, A., and Rotter, R. P. (2018). Adaptation response surfaces for
 managing wheat under perturbed climate and CO2 in a Mediterranean environment.
 Agricultural Systems 159, 260-274.
- 45. Saadi, S., Todorovic, M., Tanasijevic, L., Pereira, L. S., Pizzigalli, C., and Lionello, P.
 (2015). Climate change and Mediterranean agriculture: Impacts on winter wheat and
 tomato crop evapotranspiration, irrigation requirements and yield. Agricultural Water
 Management 147, 103-115.
- 46. Savé, R., de Herralde, F., Aranda, X., Pla, E., Pascual, D., Funes, I., and Biel, C. (2012).
 Potential changes in irrigation requirements and phenology of maize, apple trees and
 alfalfa under global change conditions in Fluvia watershed during XXIst century: Results
 from a modeling approximation to watershed-level water balance. Agricultural Water
 Management 114, 78-87.
- 954 47. SIGPAC. (2013). Agricultural Plots Geographical Information System. Government of955 Catalonia. Shapefile. Annual
- 48. Thomson, A. M., Calvin, K. V., Smith, S. J., Kyle, G. P., Volke, A., Patel, P., DelgadoArias, S., Bond-Lamberty, B., Wise, M. A., Clarke, L. E., and Edmonds, J. A. (2011).

- 958 RCP4.5: a pathway for stabilization of radiative forcing by 2100. Climatic Change 109,
 959 77.
- 49. Tian, Z., Yang, X., Sun, L., Fischer, G., Liang, Z., and Pan, J. (2014). Agroclimatic
 conditions in China under climate change scenarios projected from regional climate
 models. International Journal of Climatology 34, 2988-3000.
- 50. TICCC. Government of Catalonia; Institute of Catalan Studies. (2016). Climate change in
 Catalonia: Executive summary of the Third Report on Climate Change in Catalonia.
 Writing team: Xavier Duran, M. Josep Picó and Lluís Reales. Edited by Arnau Queralt,
 Barcelona. Available online at: http://cads.gencat.cat/ca/detalls/detallarticle/Tercerinforme-sobre-el-canvi-climatic-a-Catalunya-00003
- 51. Trnka, M., Eitzinger, J., Semerádová, D., Hlavinka, P., Balek, J., Dubrovský, M., Kubu,
 G., Štěpánek, P., Thaler, S., Možný, M., and Žalud, Z. (2011). Expected changes in
 agroclimatic conditions in Central Europe. Climatic Change 108, 261-289.
- 52. Valverde, P., Serralheiro, R., de Carvalho, M., Maia, R., Oliveira, B., and Ramos, V.
 (2015). Climate change impacts on irrigated agriculture in the Guadiana river basin
 (Portugal). Agricultural Water Management 152, 17-30.
- 53. Vanham, D., del Pozo, S., Pekcan, A. G., Keinan-Boker, L., Trichopoulou, A., and Gawlik,
 B. M. (2016). Water consumption related to different diets in Mediterranean cities.
 Science of the Total Environment 573, 96-105.
- 977 54. Vicente-Serrano S. M., Zabalza J., Pla E., Pascual D., Serrano R., Borràs G., Savé R.,
 978 Biel C. (2014). Protocol of database quality and homogeneity. Deliverable 4. Life 979 MEDACC.http://medacc-life.eu/sites/medacc-
- 980 life.eu/files/docuemnts/deliverable_4_life_medacc.pdf
- 55. Vicente-Serrano, S. M., Zabalza-Martinez, J., Borras, G., Lopez-Moreno, J. I., Pla, E.,
 Pascual, D., Save, R., Biel, C., Funes, I., Azorin-Molina, C., Sanchez-Lorenzo, A., Martin-

- Hernandez, N., Pena-Gallardo, M., Alonso-Gonzalez, E., Tomas-Burguera, M., and El
 Kenawy, A. (2017a). Extreme hydrological events and the influence of reservoirs in a
 highly regulated river basin of northeastern Spain. Journal of Hydrology-Regional Studies
 12, 13-32.
- 987 56. Vicente-Serrano, S. M., Zabalza-Martinez, J., Borras, G., Lopez-Moreno, J. I., Pla, E.,
 988 Pascual, D., Save, R., Biel, C., Funes, I., Martin-Hernandez, N., Pena-Gallardo, M.,
 989 Begueria, S., and Tomas-Burguera, M. (2017b). Effect of reservoirs on streamflow and
 990 river regimes in a heavily regulated river basin of Northeast Spain. Catena 149, 727-741.
- 57. Zabalza-Martínez, J., Vicente-Serrano, S., López-Moreno, J., Borràs Calvo, G., Savé, R.,
 Pascual, D., Pla, E., Morán-Tejeda, E., Domínguez-Castro, F., and Tague, C. (2018). The
 Influence of Climate and Land-Cover Scenarios on Dam Management Strategies in a
 High Water Pressure Catchment in Northeast Spain. Water 10, 1668.
- 58. Zahn, M.; von Storch, H. (2010). Decreased frequency of North Atlantic polar lows
 associated with future climate warming. Nature 467, 309.
- 59. Zhao, G., Webber, H., Hoffmann, H., Wolf, J., Siebert, S., and Ewert, F. (2015). The
 implication of irrigation in climate change impact assessment: a European-wide study.
 Global Change Biology 21, 4031-4048.