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# Earth's Future

## RESEARCH ARTICLE

10.1029/2023EF003617

### Special Section:

CMIP6: Trends, Interactions, Evaluation, and Impacts

### Key Points:

- The sensitivity of precipitation to temperature is latitude dependent, increasing over high latitudes and decreasing in mid-latitude regions
- The response of extreme precipitation to global warming is approximately three times larger (19%/K) than that for mean precipitation (6%/K)
- Both extreme precipitation and mean precipitation show a greater sensitivity to temperature across global dry regions relative to wet regions

### Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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# Asymmetrical Precipitation Sensitivity to Temperature Across Global Dry and Wet Regions

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**Abstract** Global warming is expected to increase precipitation extremes. However, the response of extreme precipitation to global warming in various climates remains unclear. Here, we analyzed changes in the sensitivities of extreme and mean precipitation to temperature across the dry and wet regions of the world during 1960–1999 and 2060–2099 using global climate models. Both extreme and mean precipitation exhibited similar spatial patterns; however, the magnitude of sensitivity for extreme precipitation was approximately three times higher (19%/K) than for mean precipitation (6%/K). A higher precipitation sensitivity to temperature was observed in the dry regions than in the wet regions. Dry regions exhibited a four- to five-fold higher temperature sensitivity for mean precipitation, and marginally higher temperature sensitivity for extreme precipitation than wet regions. These findings highlight the importance of implementing adaptive strategies to alleviate the effects of global warming on dryland ecosystems.

**Plain Language Summary** Global warming alters the precipitation regimes and poses significant risks to ecosystems and humans. In this study, we investigated how mean and extreme precipitation responds to projected warming across global dry and wet regions. We found that the sensitivity of extreme precipitation was three times greater than that of global mean precipitation over land (which implies that global warming is expected to alter extreme precipitation more than mean precipitation). Our results also suggest greater sensitivity in dry regions than in wet regions, indicating that warming is expected to cause higher rainfall variability in dry regions than in wet regions.

## 1. Introduction

Global warming is expected to amplify the hydrologic cycle, causing a large increase in atmospheric water vapor content (O'Gorman & Schneider, 2009), which balances radiative and sensible heat changes with rising temperatures (Held & Soden, 2006; Pendergrass & Hartmann, 2014). Extreme precipitation is likely to intensify with warming at a rate consistent with the water-holding capacity of the atmosphere,  $\sim 7\%/K$ , according to the Clausius–Clapeyron (C–C) equation (Berg et al., 2013; Lehmann et al., 2015; Prein et al., 2017; Trenberth, 2011). In contrast, short-duration (in particular at hourly) precipitation response to warming at double the C–C rate has been observed across diverse regions worldwide (IPCC AR6; Seneviratne et al., 2021). However, global-mean precipitation averages (totals) are constrained, and are expected to increase at a lower rate of  $\sim 1\%–3\%$  per degree of warming (Allen & Ingram, 2002, see Section 8.2, IPCC AR6; Douville et al., 2021). Recently, there have been significant trends in temperature and precipitation extremes across many regions worldwide (Fischer & Knutti, 2015; Wei et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020), causing devastating effects on human and natural systems (AghaKouchak et al., 2020; Barbero et al., 2017; Easterling et al., 2000; Liu et al., 2009; Min et al., 2011). Examining changes in the precipitation response to temperature is critical for understanding the impact of climate change on future climate risk (Min et al., 2011).

Accumulating evidence has shown that the increase in extreme precipitation worldwide is associated with an increased temperature (Allen & Ingram, 2002; Barbero et al., 2017; Frei et al., 2006; Screen & Simmonds, 2014; Trenberth et al., 2003) and that extreme rainfall occurs differently than changes in mean precipitation. Using CMIP5 climate models, a previous study found that the increase in extreme and mean precipitation across climate scenarios is similar in the tropics but that the increase in extremes is smaller relative to the mean at high latitudes. In contrast to mean precipitation, changes in extreme precipitation did not depend on the emission scenarios

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(Pendergrass et al., 2015). John et al. (2022) assessed the changes in precipitation extremes and their uncertainties using a global ensemble of climate models from CMIP6 and demonstrated a robust enhancement of extreme precipitation in more than 90% of the models, consistent with the C–C rate. Future seasonal changes in extreme and mean precipitation were also investigated in specific regions of interest. It was found that regions with an increase in mean precipitation experienced more extremes in all seasons, whereas those with a decrease in mean precipitation had fewer extremes (Bador & Alexander, 2022). These results highlighted the importance of understanding the differences in the responses of extreme and mean precipitation to temperature.

The response of precipitation to temperature varies regionally. Changing patterns of precipitation might exacerbate the contrast between dry and wet areas (Sun et al., 2020), leading to drier conditions in the dry and wetter conditions in the wet regions when considering the difference between precipitation and evaporation (P–E) (Allan et al., 2010; Greve et al., 2014; Liu & Allan, 2013). A recent study also documented that the projected mean and extreme precipitation changes are positively related in dry regions, whereas no relationship exists in wet regions (Donat et al., 2016, 2019). Global dry and wet regions, including grid cells that are based on their dry or wet status, regardless of their geographical location, are considered to have an adequate degree of spatial aggregation to obtain robust regional results rather than aggregation over a geographical region, which may cause uncertainties due to the large internal variability. Knowledge regarding changes in the sensitivity of projected extreme and mean precipitation to temperature between global dry and wet regions requires further research, as they are essential to understand the effects of global warming.

In this study, we analyzed the spatiotemporal variations in global precipitation and its percentile distribution based on the latest climate models from the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6). We then calculated the changes in the sensitivities of extreme and mean precipitation to temperature in the future (2060–2099) compared with the historical period (1960–1999) over global land areas. Finally, we analyzed the different responses of precipitation to temperature across dry and wet regions. Based on these results, we attempted to address the following two questions: (a) What are the differences in the responses of extreme and mean precipitation to temperature? (b) What is the projected precipitation response to temperature between global dry and wet regions over land?

## 2. Data and Method

### 2.1. Data

Considering that CMIP6 models simulate climate extremes more effectively than CMIP5 models, owing to their finer resolution and parameterization improvements (Bourdeau-Goulet & Hassanzadeh, 2021; Chen et al., 2020; Eyring et al., 2016; Grose et al., 2020; O'Neill et al., 2016), we retrieved daily precipitation data from 17 CMIP6 models for the historical simulations (1960–1999) and future simulations until the end of the century (2060–2099) (<https://esgfnode.llnl.gov/search/cmip6>) (Eyring et al., 2016). Detailed information on the model is presented in Table S1 in Supporting Information S1. We selected 17 models because they are commonly used to study extreme precipitation (Thackeray et al., 2022; Yazdandoost et al., 2021). Only one simulation variant was used for each forcing experiment to ensure equal weighting for each selected model. It should be noted that some studies consider SSP5-8.5 to be an overestimation of the anticipated future warming according to Hausfather and Peters (2020); both moderate and high shared socioeconomic pathways were used (SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5, respectively) to ensure the robustness of the results.

The anomaly of future precipitation change was defined as the difference between two intervals: the baseline (1960–1999) and the projection period (2060–2099). The 99th percentile of the historical period (all days) was used as the threshold for defining extreme precipitation. The difference in the total precipitation volumes for extremes between the two periods was then calculated. Given the different resolutions of various models, the local precipitation sensitivity was performed on a native grid, and a global-mean (area-weighted) result was generated for each model. Finally, the multi-model ensemble mean (MEM) sensitivity was obtained, and MEM local metrics were calculated following bilinear remapping to a common  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  grid to reduce the spread of models and plotting purposes.

### 2.2. Method

#### 2.2.1. Sensitivity of Precipitation to Temperature

The sensitivity of precipitation to temperature ( $\eta$ ,  $\eta_{99}$ ) is expressed as the ratio of normalized anomaly precipitation ( $dP$ , unit: %) to the global-mean air temperature change ( $\Delta\text{GSAT}$ , unit: K), where  $\eta$  denotes the sensitivity of

mean precipitation to temperature and  $\eta_{99}$  denotes the sensitivity of extreme precipitation to temperature. For  $\eta_{99}$ , the anomaly is the difference in the total amount of extreme precipitation that meets and exceeds the historical 99th percentile threshold between 2060–2099 and 1960–1999. We first calculated the global threshold maps of the 99th percentile of daily precipitation over the historical period (1960–1999) for each model. Subsequently, historical and future precipitation were compared to the threshold to identify the local extreme events. The precipitation volumes of all extreme events and a difference between historical and future were then calculated. The difference was then normalized using the historical precipitation volumes before being divided by  $\Delta\text{GSAT}$ . Notably, all available days were used, rather than just wet days, when calculating the 99th percentile threshold. Therefore, the threshold may be a bit lower for some dry regions, especially those susceptible to the influence of atmospheric circulation patterns, which, in turn, leading to a bit larger  $\eta_{99}$ .

### 2.2.2. Definitions of Global Dry and Wet Regions

To unravel differences in the sensitivity of precipitation to temperature between global dry and wet regions, we first identified the dry (and wet) grid cells from each model and each year using a percentile-based threshold of 30% (or 70%) of the historical precipitation during 1950–2014 for all global land grid cells. Global dry (or wet) regions are those where the precipitation is lower (or higher) than the threshold. The results from all models and years were then merged to generate the spatial distribution of these regions. The details of the method can be found in a study by Donat et al. (2016). For extreme and mean precipitation, we defined the global dry and wet regions separately using the above method.

### 2.2.3. Correlation Analysis

Pearson's  $r$  was used to calculate the correlation coefficient between the temperature sensitivities of extreme precipitation ( $\eta_{99}$ ) and mean precipitation ( $\eta$ ). Additionally, a null hypothesis test was performed, in which the distributions underlying the samples were uncorrelated and normally distributed. We selected a two-sided  $p$ -value to test non-correlation. For a given sample with a correlation coefficient  $r$ , the  $p$ -value is the probability that the correlation coefficient  $r'$  of random samples A and B with zero correlation would be greater than or equal to  $|r|$ . Pearson's correlation and  $p$ -value tests were performed using the SciPy library within the Python platform, following established statistical guidelines for the preferred significance level and sample size.

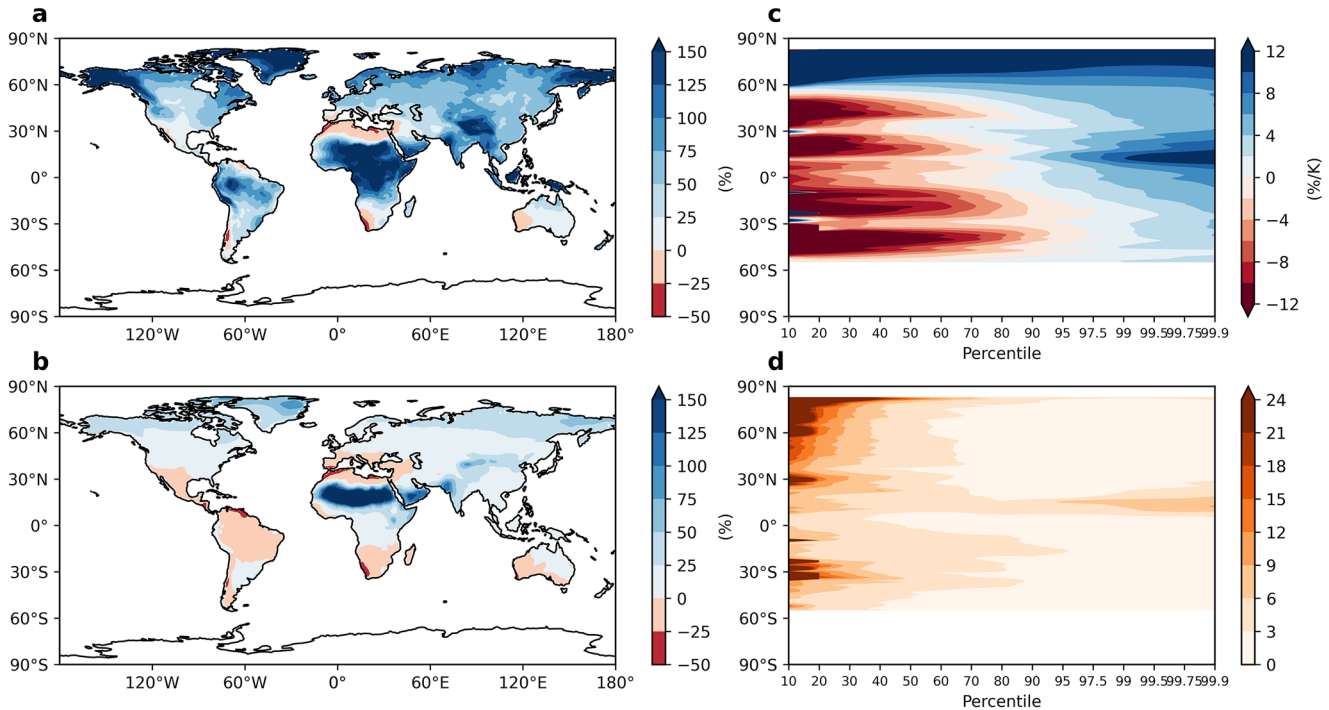
## 3. Results

### 3.1. Divergent Changes in Projected Precipitation

The multi-model ensemble mean (MEM) extreme precipitation volumes showed an increase of 73% on land (the future 2060–2099 period minus the historical 1960–1999 period), whereas mean precipitation volumes increased by 24% (Figures 1a and 1b). The precipitation sensitivity to temperature between the future (2060–2099) and historical (1960–1999) periods presented an increasing trend across all precipitation percentiles over the high-latitude regions ( $>60^\circ$ ). Conversely, a widespread decline in precipitation sensitivity to temperature was witnessed in most precipitation percentiles across the low and middle latitudes ( $\leq 60^\circ$ ). Notably, an overall increasing trend in precipitation sensitivity to temperature was detected for extreme precipitation (percentiles  $>99$ th) across all latitude gradients (Figure 1c). The standard deviation of precipitation among the models revealed high variability with light and middle precipitation (percentiles  $<50$ th), which may be related to the strong effect of circulation changes, as CMIP6 models show little overall improvement for the summer monsoons (Fiedler et al., 2020). In contrast, low variability was observed in heavy and extreme precipitation, suggesting a consistent and robust increase in the projected extreme precipitation among the models (Figure 1d).

### 3.2. Global Patterns of Precipitation Response to Temperature

To identify where and how strongly climate warming impacts precipitation, we calculated the differences in extreme and mean precipitation between historical and future periods. Subsequently, we estimated the sensitivity of precipitation to global warming by dividing this difference by the change in global mean temperature ( $\Delta\text{GSAT}$ ). We found that both extreme and mean precipitation sensitivities exhibited similar spatial patterns. However, the magnitude of the sensitivity of extreme precipitation was much larger than that of the mean precipitation. The extreme precipitation sensitivity revealed a strong increase ( $>30\%/K$ ) in the central region of Africa, the Tibetan Plateau, India, the Arabian Peninsula, and Southeast Asia, whereas regions with a reduction ( $<-4\%/K$ ) in  $\eta_{99}$



**Figure 1.** The multi-model ensemble mean (MEM) precipitation change (%) of extremes (a) and averages (b) from the historical 1960–1999 period to the projected future 2060–2099 period, respectively, from 17 CMIP6 models under the SSP-5.85 scenario. Panel (c) shows the temperature sensitivity of precipitation change between 1960–1999 and 2060–2099 on the latitude and percentile scales over the global land area. Panel (d) is the same as (c) but for the standard deviation of precipitation sensitivity to temperature across models. In Panel (c), the latitudinal-mean precipitation change (%) is divided by  $\Delta\text{GSAT}$  (K).

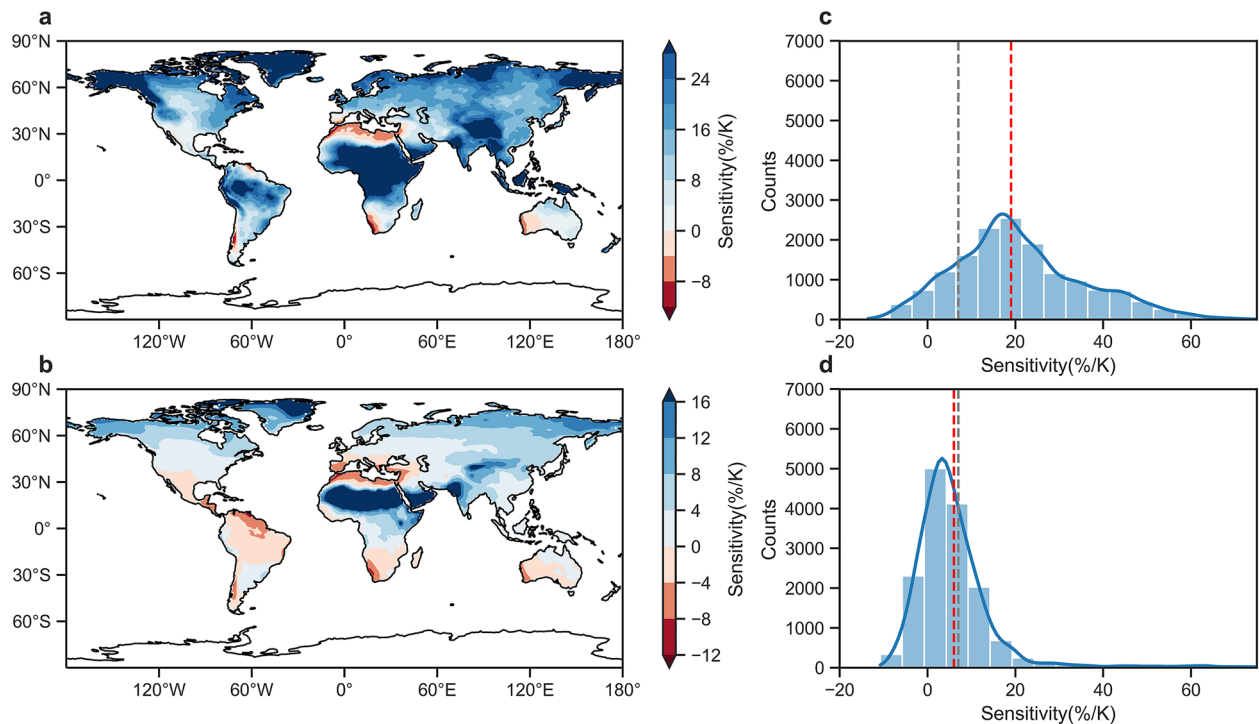
primarily occurred along the western coastlines of the continental land masses, spanning across Australia, South America, and Africa, in addition to the Mediterranean coastal regions (Figures 2a and 2b). Middle and northern Africa, particularly the Sahara region, showed a large increase in  $\eta_{99}$  and  $\eta$ . These results suggest that a larger  $\eta_{99}$  and  $\eta$  might increase regional precipitation variability; thus, posing a challenge to the sustainability of dry regions ecosystems under future global warming.

On further examination of the frequency distribution of different sensitivities, we showed that the global-mean (area-weighted) sensitivity for extreme precipitation on the land area was three times (19%/K) larger than that for the mean precipitation (6%/K), the latter being close to Clausius–Clapeyron relationship ( $\sim 7\%/K$ ). We further estimated that the result for the global area was 16.5%/K for  $\eta_{99}$  and 3.5%/K for  $\eta$  (Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1), consistent with prior research. We also discovered very large sensitivities in the East Pacific, which may be associated with the “warmer gets wetter” mechanism over the ocean (Chadwick et al., 2013; Fischer & Knutti, 2015). Additionally, the results indicated a widespread increase in both  $\eta_{99}$  and  $\eta$  across global land areas, with the regions with increased and decreased sensitivities accounting for 94% and 6% for extreme precipitation, whereas those for the mean precipitation were 79% and 21%, respectively (Figures 2c and 2d). We repeated the above analysis at SSP-3.70 scenario simulations and found similar results, with a mean precipitation of 5.5%/K and an extreme for 18%/K, respectively (Figure S2 in Supporting Information S1), highlighting the robustness of these results.

### 3.3. Asymmetrical $\eta_{99}$ and $\eta$ Across Global Dry and Wet Regions

To gain insight into the changes in sensitivity across the dry and wet regions, we classified global land areas into dry and wet regions based on the historical annual extreme and mean precipitation from 1950 to 2014, respectively (Figures 3a and 3b). For dry regions, the sensitivity of extreme precipitation was  $\sim 22\%/K$ , whereas that, for mean precipitation was  $\sim 11\%/K$ . For wet regions, the sensitivity of extreme precipitation was  $\sim 19\%/K$ , whereas that for mean precipitation was  $\sim 2\%/K$ . This result suggests that the temperature sensitivities of precipitation in global dry regions are significantly stronger than those in wet regions, with a five-fold higher temperature sensitivity





**Figure 2.** The multi-model ensemble mean (MEM) temperature sensitivity of the extreme (a) and mean (b) precipitation. The sensitivity is the ratio of the normalized anomaly precipitation ( $dP$ , unit: %) to global-mean air temperature change ( $\Delta G_{SAT}$ , unit: K) from the historical 1960–1999 period to future 2060–2099 period. Panels (c) and (d) present the data distributions in panels (a) and (b), respectively. Colorbars in panels (a) and (b) are different on the positive axis. In panels (c) and (d), the red line is the global-mean (area-weighted)  $\eta_{99}$  ( $\eta$ ) values, and the gray line represents the rate of the Clausius–Clapeyron relationship ( $\sim 7\%/K$ ).

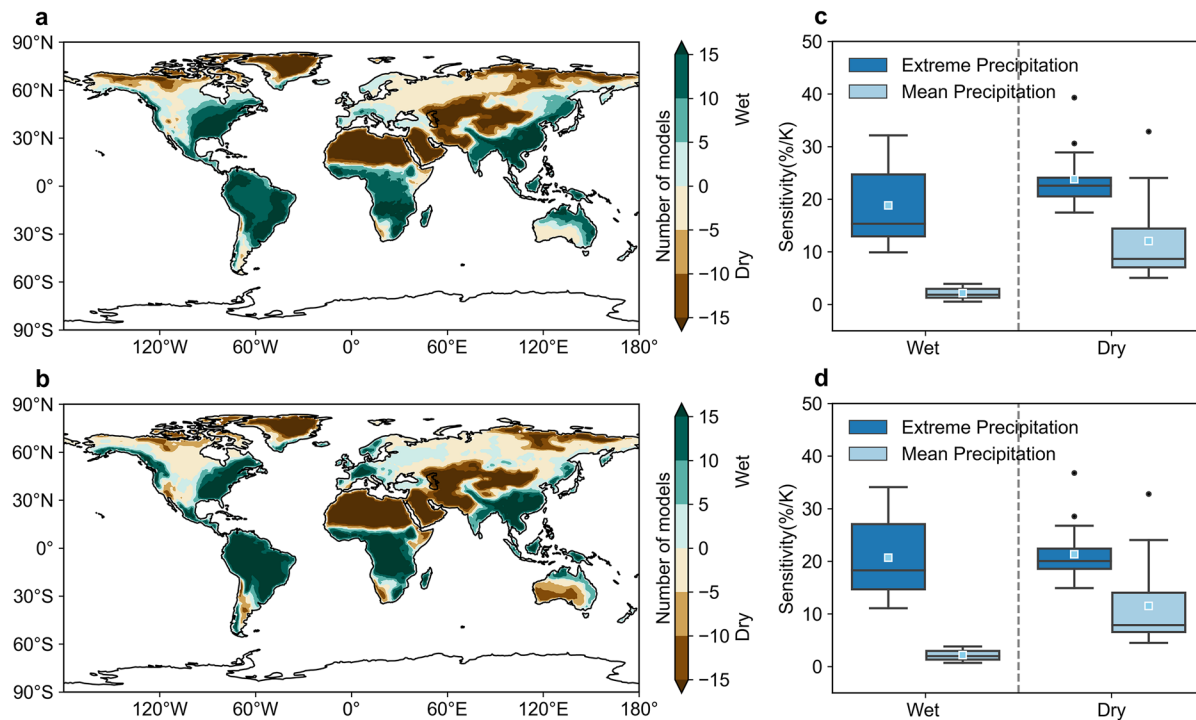
for mean precipitation and a minor higher for extreme precipitation. Different models also show a spread in the extreme and mean precipitation sensitivities between dry and wet regions (Figures 3c and 3d), reflecting inter-model variability over different climatic zones (Yazdandoost et al., 2021).

To eliminate the potential influence of dynamic changes in the distribution of dry or wet regions, we calculated sensitivities by constraining regions that remained consistently dry or wet from historical (1950–2014) to future (2036–2100) periods. The analysis revealed consistent results with asymmetrical  $\eta$  ( $\eta_{99}$ ) values across global dry and wet regions (Figure S3 in Supporting Information S1). The SSP3-7.0 scenarios also agreed with these findings (Figure S4 in Supporting Information S1). Additionally, we repeated the experiments at a global scale and found a larger  $\eta$  ( $\eta_{99}$ ) value in dry regions than in wet regions, similar to the findings from global land regions (Figure S5 in Supporting Information S1). These results suggest that precipitation in dry regions may show a greater sensitivity to temperature under global warming. With the intensification of global warming in dry areas in future, these regions will experience greater variability in precipitation.

### 3.4. Coupling of $\eta_{99}$ and $\eta$ Across Global Wet and Dry Regions

To analyze the potential coupling mechanisms between the mean and extreme precipitation sensitivity across dry and wet regions, we further calculated the correlation coefficient between  $\eta_{99}$  and  $\eta$  across global wet and dry regions (Figure 4). The results indicate that precipitation in dry regions is more sensitive to global warming and there is a higher correlation coefficient between extreme and mean precipitation sensitivities. For instance, the correlation coefficients between  $\eta_{99}$  and  $\eta$  were 0.92 ( $p < 0.01$ , based on extreme precipitation partition) and 0.93 ( $p < 0.01$ , based on mean precipitation partition), respectively, for the global dry regions. However, the correlation of these two sensitivities weakened for wet regions, with correlation coefficients of 0.67 ( $p < 0.01$ ) and 0.68 ( $p < 0.01$ ), respectively.

We examined our results for the regions classified by more than five models (Figure S6 in Supporting Information S1) and found similar results with stronger correlations between  $\eta_{99}$  and  $\eta$  in the dry regions (0.92 and



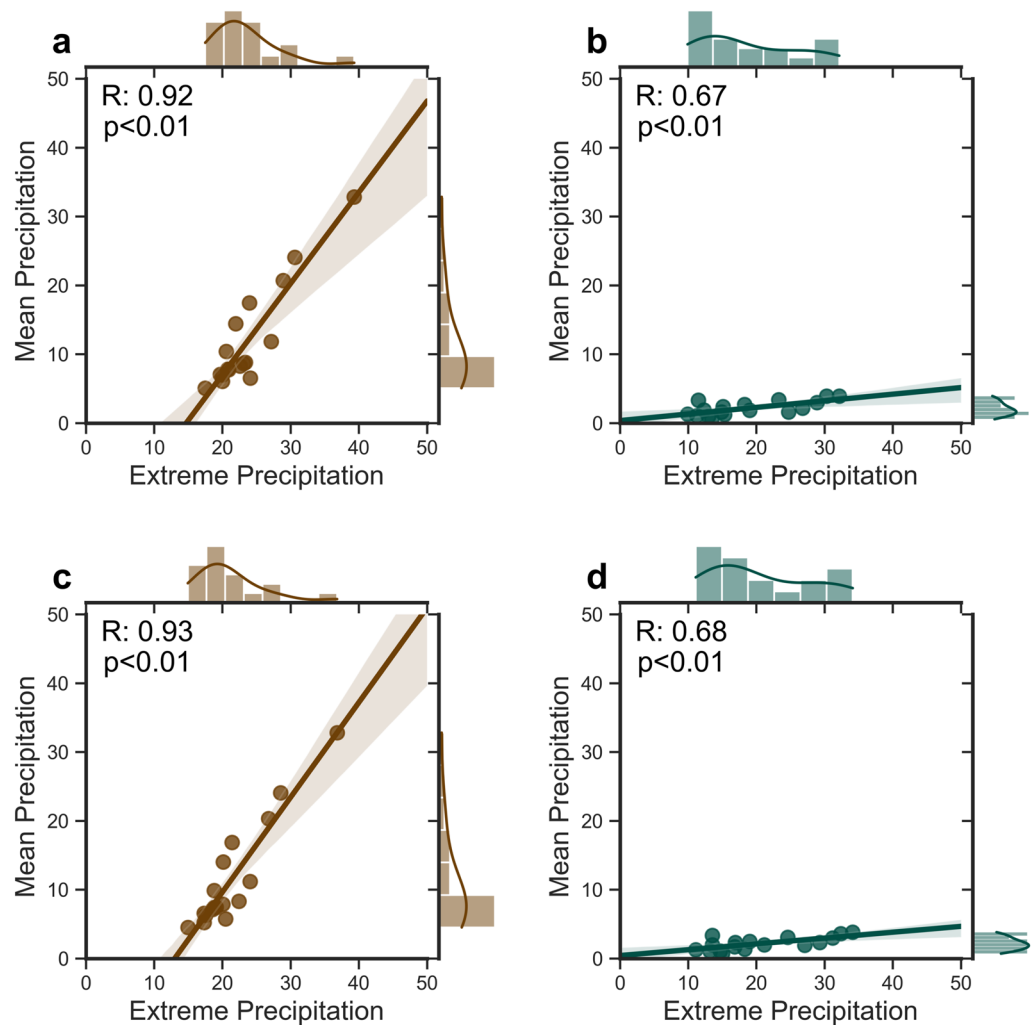
**Figure 3.** Sensitivity of precipitation to temperature in the wet and dry regions identified by the ensemble of CMIP6 models. Panels (a) and (b) show the spatial pattern of global dry and wet regions classified by the extreme and mean precipitation index from 1950 to 2014, respectively. The extreme (mean) precipitation index contained two percentile-based thresholds of 30% and 70% of the historical annual extreme (mean) precipitation during 1950–2014. Global dry (or wet) regions are those where the precipitation is lower (or higher) than the 30% (70%) threshold. Panels (c) and (d) display the temperature sensitivities of extreme and mean precipitation across models. The solid line in boxplots represents the median sensitivity values of models. The square represents the average values.

0.92) than those in the wet regions (0.81 and 0.84). The SSP3-7.0 scenarios also agreed with these findings (Figure S7 in Supporting Information S1). Additionally, we conducted similar analyses in global regions to ensure the robustness of these findings. The results indicated that  $\eta_{99}$  and  $\eta$  showed a stronger correlation for global dry regions than for wet regions, with values of 0.69 and 0.70 for dry regions and 0.55 and 0.45 for wet regions, respectively (Figure S8 in Supporting Information S1).

#### 4. Discussions and Conclusions

Based on the latest CMIP6 precipitation and temperature projections, we observed that the projected changes in global precipitation are latitude-dependent with an overall increasing trend for extreme precipitation (percentiles  $\geq 99$ th) across all latitudes. Our results indicate a nearly three-fold increase in the sensitivity of extreme precipitation to global mean surface temperature changes (19%/K) compared with that for mean precipitation (6%/K, reasonably close to the C–C relationship of  $\sim 7\%/K$ ). Here, we focused on the response of land precipitation to global warming. Land warming occurs to a greater extent than global warming, which may induce a bit larger sensitivity here (Table S2 and Figure S9 in Supporting Information S1). Nevertheless, these findings suggest the potential for higher flood risk over land regions under changing climatic conditions. We also found greater  $\eta$  and  $\eta_{99}$  across dry regions relative to wet regions worldwide under a warming climate, which is vital for the stability of dryland ecosystems. Since dry regions are a vital component of the carbon cycle globally, an increase in  $\eta$  ( $\eta_{99}$ ) in dry regions may alter the variability in precipitation and therefore threaten the dryland ecosystem and global carbon budget. Moreover, poor infrastructure in most dry regions makes them prone to extreme and high-intensity rainfall events (Liu et al., 2023). Urgent adaptation measures are required in dry regions to cope with the projected changes in future hazards driven by global warming. A deeper understanding of the response of precipitation to temperature across different climates will facilitate better planning and management of future extreme events.

We also reported a stronger coupling between extreme and mean precipitation temperature sensitivities in dry regions than in wet regions. An equivalent study was conducted under the SSP3-7.0 scenario, and the results were



**Figure 4.** Correlation between the mean and extreme precipitation sensitivity in global dry (in brown color) and wet (in green color) regions. This is demonstrated by scatter plots of mean precipitation changes across the globe against extreme precipitation changes in different CMIP6 models (with each dot representing one model). Panels (a) and (b) were obtained from the extreme precipitation partition, whereas subplots c and d were obtained from the mean precipitation partition.

found to be similar to those of the SSP5-8.5 scenario (Figures S2, S4 and S7 in Supporting Information S1). The stronger  $\eta$  and  $\eta_{99}$  in dry regions may relate to thermodynamic mechanisms (Roderick et al., 2015; Sherwood & Fu, 2014), circulation changes (Chadwick et al., 2013; Chou et al., 2009; Vecchi et al., 2006), and land-atmospheric feedbacks (Berg et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2019). The lack of surface moisture and evaporative cooling amplifies regional surface warming in dry regions compared with that in humid lands and oceans. We calculated the proportion of extreme precipitation from the total annual precipitation. It was observed that extreme precipitation accounted for 36%–37% of the total annual precipitation for dry regions, while that for wet regions was 19%–21%. These results suggest a tight coupling between extreme and mean precipitation in dry areas relative to that in wet regions (Figure S10 in Supporting Information S1). Therefore, both mean and extreme precipitation are likely to intensify in most global land regions by the end of the 21st century, and the intensification of extreme precipitation in dry regions in particular would inevitably lead to flood risk and adverse impacts on dry ecosystems (Donat et al., 2016; Yao et al., 2021).

We further calculated the correlation coefficient between the  $\eta_{99}$  and  $\eta$  across tropical ( $<30^\circ$ ) and extratropical ( $30^\circ$ – $60^\circ$ ) land regions, and found significant differences between the two, with a much greater difference in correlation observed in wet regions than in dry regions (Figures S11 and S12 in Supporting Information S1). These findings may be related to the large uncertainties in model simulations of extratropical land regions



(O’Gorman, 2012; Pendergrass et al., 2015; Tabari et al., 2019). The internal variability becomes an important contributor in the model uncertainty, weakening the coupling between  $\eta_{99}$  and  $\eta$  in the extratropical land regions, with correlation coefficients of 0.52 ( $p < 0.5$ ) and 0.44 ( $p < 0.1$ ).

Our study also has several limitations. First, the uncertainty and reliability of climate models vary across regions, which may have influenced our results. For example, extreme and mean precipitation sensitivity results show high standard deviations across models over Africa (Bao et al., 2017; Pendergrass et al., 2015). In this study, we used a multi-model ensemble mean approach to minimize the effects of the strong biases associated with individual models. Second, the different thresholds adopted to define extreme precipitation can affect the temperature sensitivity results (Alexander et al., 2019). Finally, we evaluated the individual CMIP6 models on their native grids and calculated the ensemble mean results after bilinear resampling onto a common  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  grid (Thackeray et al., 2022). The re-gridding process may have had only a minor effect on the results. Nevertheless, our findings provide a perspective on the response of precipitation to global warming and can be used to plan extreme precipitation events, particularly in dry regions.

### Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest relevant to this study.

### Data Availability Statement

We would like to acknowledge the World Climate Research Programme’s Working Group on Coupled Modelling. We thank the climate modeling groups for producing and making their model outputs available (Eyring et al., 2016). The data is available at <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>. Codes are available from: <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7630041>.

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