

Increased drought and pluvial risk over California due to changing oceanic conditions

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1 **Abstract**

2 We evaluate winter-time drought and pluvial risk over California through a Bayesian analysis  
3 of the upper and lower quartile of PRISM-based precipitation from 1901-2015. Risk is  
4 evaluated for different time windows to estimate the impact of inter-annual and decadal-to-  
5 multidecadal Pacific and Atlantic variability (positive and negative phases of ENSO, PDO, and  
6 AMO). The impact of increasing trends in global sea surface temperature (SST) on drought  
7 and pluvial risk, is also examined with idealized experimental runs from three climate models  
8 (GFDL-AM2.1, CCM3.0, and GFS). The results shows that the influence of oceanic conditions  
9 on drought risk in California is significant but has changed with higher risk in the last half  
10 century, especially in southern California. The influence of oceanic conditions on pluvial risk  
11 has also been significant, especially during the warm phase of the Pacific Ocean, but increases  
12 over the last century are small compared to drought. Results from the idealized climate model  
13 experiments show that natural variability likely played a major role in the observed changes in  
14 risk, with the global SST increasing trend possibly tempering the increases regionally but not  
15 significantly over California. Despite evolving preferential oceanic conditions for a pluvial  
16 event during the 2015/16 winter (positive phase of ENSO and PDO), California received an  
17 11% winter precipitation surplus, which was not sufficient for drought recovery. The seasonal  
18 and longer-term outlook for negative phases of the ENSO and PDO implies that drought risk  
19 will be elevated in southern California for the next decade.

## 20 **1. Introduction**

21 California is one of the most vulnerable states in the U.S. to severe drought due to the large and  
22 growing water demand for irrigation, energy production, and recreation, and the limited water  
23 supply from the relatively dry regional climate (Grantham and Viers 2014). The current drought  
24 that has persisted since 2011 has led to a declaration of a drought state of emergency and  
25 mandatory curtailment of municipal and agricultural water use (Seager et al. 2015). Most of  
26 California's precipitation falls in the wintertime and the current drought has been driven by  
27 reductions in precipitation over the past winters (Mao et al. 2015). The data record (Daly et al.  
28 2008) shows record-breaking deficits in December 2013 and January 2014 relative to the past  
29 century, moderate deficits in February 2014, and significant total winter precipitation deficits  
30 (<25<sup>th</sup> percentile) during 2013/14 winter (Figure 1c). Most of California (67% of the state)  
31 experienced some form of severe drought (below 25<sup>th</sup> percentile) during the winters of 2011-  
32 14. The drought was also compounded by the more moderate impact of warming induced  
33 declines in snowpack and earlier snowmelt, which has affected the state water supply and water  
34 temperatures in the following seasons (Barnett et al. 2008). Snowfall in the Sierra Nevada  
35 Mountains at the mid- February 2015 was the lowest since 1951 (Mao et al. 2015; Pan et al.  
36 2003) and below the 10<sup>th</sup> percentile at the end of February 2015 (Figure 1a). These deficits led  
37 to reduced groundwater recharge and combined with continued groundwater pumping,  
38 especially in the highly productive agricultural region of the Central Valley (Figure 1b), drove  
39 groundwater depletion of about 2 mm/year (about 70% of the regional total water loss) since  
40 2003 (Famiglietti et al. 2011). Precipitation during the last winter (2014-15) was slightly above  
41 the 25<sup>th</sup> percentile but was not enough for drought recovery.

42 Although the current drought is exceptional in terms of its impacts, there have been  
43 multiple severe and often lengthy droughts over the last century and before. These include, the  
44 severe but short winter drought of 1976/77 (Namias 1978) and longer-term dry conditions

45 during 1987-1992 (Dixon et al. 1996). Prior to the instrumental record, paleoclimate data  
46 indicate that the region has experienced droughts that dwarf anything experienced during the  
47 past century, including ‘mega-droughts’ during the mediaeval period (Stine 1994; Cook et al.  
48 2014).

49         The physical mechanisms that lead to drought for the region are complex (Namias 1978;  
50 Schubert et al. 2004) and are complicated further by the potential influence of climate change  
51 (Seager et al. 2007) that may be changing the risk of drought. About 45% of California’s annual  
52 precipitation occurs in winter, and originates mainly from advected moisture via westerly  
53 winds over the extra-tropical Pacific Ocean (Gimeno et al. 2012). In turn, this is driven by  
54 variations in the Pacific as characterized by the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO; Schonher  
55 and Nicholson, 1989) and Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO; McCabe et al. 2004), and  
56 modulated by conditions in the north Atlantic depending on the season, shifting the location of  
57 the North American jet and the position and strength of the wave train (Mo et al. 2009). Several  
58 studies have shown an influence of global warming on California winter precipitation across  
59 spatial scales. At the planetary scale, the current California drought has been influenced by a  
60 reduction in North Pacific storms due to the presence of upper-level high-pressure anomalies  
61 over the east North Pacific (Bond et al. 2015). These in turn have been linked to the record-  
62 breaking warm sea surface temperature anomalies over that region in 2014, the risk of which  
63 has been estimated to be amplified about two times by anthropogenic impacts (Kam et al. 2015).  
64 On the other hand global warming has been implicated in the increase in the risk of pluvials  
65 over California (Wang and Schubert 2014) due to increases in atmospheric humidity over the  
66 eastern North Pacific. The current drought has also been linked to the recent global warming  
67 hiatus (Delworth et al. 2015).

68         This study is designed to understand the influence of oceanic conditions on drought and  
69 pluvial risk over California and its changes from observational data and to evaluate the impact

70 of global sea surface warming trends on risk. To meet this purpose, this study uses a Bayesian  
71 approach to compute drought and pluvial risk during the full period, and during positive and  
72 negative phases of the PDO, AMO, and ENSO. We also use data from idealized experimental  
73 runs from three global climate models (GFDL-AM2.1, CCM3.0, and GFS). Detailed  
74 descriptions of the data and methods are presented in section 2. Section 3 shows the resulting  
75 drought and pluvial risk maps over California from the observational data, as well as the GCM-  
76 simulated precipitation deficit and surplus forced by prescribed SST anomaly patterns with and  
77 without SST trends. Section 4 highlights the findings of this study and provides an outlook for  
78 California drought and pluvial risk.

79

## 80 **2. Data and Methods**

81 The annual PDO, AMO, and Southern Oscillation Index (SOI) indices for 1900-2014 were  
82 computed from monthly indices from the University of Washington, NOAA Earth System  
83 Research Laboratory, and the Bureau of Meteorology, Australian Government, respectively.  
84 The SOI index is of the opposite sign of ENSO. Wintertime precipitation values over California  
85 for 1901-2015 were computed from monthly precipitation data from the Parameter-elevation  
86 Regressions on Independent Slope Model (PRISM) with 4-km spatial resolution  
87 ([www.prism.oregonstate.edu](http://www.prism.oregonstate.edu); Daly et al. 2008). We computed composites of sea surface  
88 temperature (SST) anomalies for 1900-2014 using the Hadley Centre Sea Ice and Sea Surface  
89 Temperature data set (HadISST; Rayner et al. 2003). These datasets are generated based on  
90 physically-consistent methods and models. However, due to the sparsity of observational data  
91 in the earlier part of the study period, the HadISST data have larger uncertainties (Rayner et al.  
92 2003). The PRISM data uses observed precipitation records from the California Data Exchange  
93 Center (CDEC) stations, which has a relatively good coverage over the state since the early  
94 1900s (Daly et al. 2008). Anomalies of wintertime vertically integrated moisture fluxes and

95 geopotential heights at 500mb were calculated for 1901-2012 from the Twentieth Century  
96 Reanalysis Version 2 (20CR V.2; Compo et al. 2011). The 20CR V.2 data are based on  
97 assimilation of surface pressure measurements, and are also more uncertain during the early  
98 period because of the fewer number of observations. We compute the mean component of  
99 moisture fluxes from a product of monthly mean wind and specific humidity for the composite  
100 analysis during the positive and/or negative phases of the PDO and ENSO for the first and last  
101 80 years of the record. The long-term average of the moisture fluxes is mostly driven by the  
102 mean direction and magnitude of moisture transport, while the transient eddies play a major  
103 role in moisture transport in extreme years (Kam et al. 2014a). However, as the 20C reanalysis  
104 project currently only provides monthly specific humidity and winds, we are unable to estimate  
105 the total moisture transport and convergences (mean + transient eddies). The results in section  
106 3.2 are therefore unable to distinguish the role of transient transport and convergences to CA  
107 droughts and pluvials. To evaluate the robustness of the 20CR data, we compared regional  
108 averaged wintertime precipitation from the 20CR and PRISM data sets (temporal correlation  
109 coefficient is greater than 0.95) (see Supplementary Materials S.1).

110

111 We calculate the uncertainty of our estimates in event frequency ( $p$ ) within a Bayesian  
112 framework. We choose a threshold value as the lower quartile (the 25<sup>th</sup> percentile) of California  
113 wintertime precipitation over 1901-2015 at each grid cell. For pluvials we use the upper quartile  
114 (the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile). We transform the time series of winter precipitation to a Bernoulli process,  
115 a series of zeros (no occurrence) and ones (drought or pluvial occurrences). Based on the  
116 threshold value, the expected drought or pluvial frequency ( $\bar{p}$ ) is 0.25. We can compute the  
117 posterior distribution for the unknown parameter ( $p$ ) given a Bernoulli process sample. First,  
118 we computed the lag-one autocorrelation of time series of the Bernoulli process to evaluate  
119 whether drought or pluvial years are correlated following Damsleth and El-Shaarawi (1988).

120 For drought and pluvial events, only one percent of the area of California shows significant  
121 autocorrelation (not shown). According to Bayesian inference theory, the posterior distribution  
122 is another beta distribution with different parameter values given the prior distribution is a  
123 uniform distribution (a beta distribution with  $\alpha=1$  and  $\beta=1$ ). The posterior distributions for the  
124 full period, and the positive and negative phases of PDO, AMO, and ENSO, are derived from  
125 the fitted beta distributions that have different alpha parameters (total number of years (s) minus  
126 the number of drought occurrences (n) plus one), and different beta parameters (the number of  
127 drought occurrences plus one) during the given periods. This method follows the study of Kam  
128 et al. (2014b) that focused on drought risk over the continental US. Here, we focus on  
129 California winter meteorological drought and pluvial risk. We test the sensitivity of the impact  
130 of oceanic states on drought and pluvial risk using different moving window sizes (see S.2. in  
131 Supplementary Materials). The first and last 60 years are essentially independent (ignoring  
132 temporal persistence) but they are more sensitive to drought and pluvial events due to the  
133 relatively small window size.

134 To understand the impacts of global warming on drought and pluvial risk over CA, we  
135 used three GCM idealized experiment runs from the CLIVAR Drought Working Group  
136 initiative (Findell and Delworth 2009): the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory  
137 Atmospheric Model version 2.1 (GFDM-AM2.1), the National Center for Atmospheric  
138 Research Community Climate System Model version 3.0 (CCM3.0), and the National Centers  
139 for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Global Forecast System (GFS). Individual experiment  
140 runs were forced with prescribed idealized SST anomalies for 50 years for the GFDM-AM2.1  
141 and CCSM3 models, and for 36 years for the GFS model, which provides larger sample sizes  
142 for combinations of the cold phase of the Pacific and the warm phase of the Atlantic than from  
143 the observational data. For example, there are only 16 years with the co-occurrence of the PDO  
144 (-), AMO (+), and ENSO (-) from the HadISST data (1900-2014). The prescribed SST patterns

145 in the idealized experimental runs are taken from the first three modes of a rotated Principle  
146 Component Analysis (Schubert et al. 2009). The first mode is a linear trend of global sea  
147 surface temperature, the second mode is inter-annual and decadal variability of the Pacific, and  
148 the third mode is decadal variability of the Atlantic. Drought (pluvial) is defined as the 25th  
149 (75th) percentile of winter precipitation from the GCM runs forced with cold (warm) Pacific  
150 and warm (cold) Atlantic SST anomalies without global SST increasing trend. Secondly, with  
151 this threshold value, we compute the posterior distributions from the fitted beta distribution  
152 functions from the GCM experiments forced with the idealized SSTs plus global SST  
153 increasing trend. This enables us to quantify changes in drought and pluvial risk due to the SST  
154 increasing trend as depicted by the models.

155

### 156 **3. Results**

#### 157 *3.1. The Changing Influence of Oceanic States on California Drought and Pluvial Risk*

158 Our results indicate that over California a strong negative phase of the PDO has  
159 historically increased the expected drought frequency by more than 5% (frequency=0.3; return  
160 period of about three years) while a strong positive phase decreased it by 5%. The cool La Niña  
161 phase of the ENSO increased the expected drought frequency over southern California by more  
162 than 5% regardless of its strength; however strong positive events (El Niño) decreased drought  
163 frequency over all California by 10% (frequency=0.15; return period of about six years) (Figure  
164 2 d-e). The AMO, by itself, plays a minor role in California wintertime drought. These oceanic  
165 influences have likely played a role in the recent California drought. During the winters of  
166 2011/12 and 2012/13, the cool La Niña phase of ENSO persisted, and the cold phase of the  
167 PDO and the warm phase of the AMO persisted during the winter of 2011/12 through the fall  
168 of 2013, which led to winter precipitation deficits below 25<sup>th</sup> percentile during these winters.



169 Since February 2014, the PDO, AMO, and ENSO have been in transition, with precipitation  
170 slightly more than the 25<sup>th</sup> percentile during the winter of 2014-15.

171 We find that in recent decades, the influence of SSTs on California drought has changed.  
172 During the last 80 years (1936-2015), the negative phases of ENSO and PDO are associated  
173 with an elevation of the risk of drought for 40% and 32% of the area of California, respectively,  
174 with probability  $\geq 0.9$  (hatched areas in Figure 3), while less than 5% of the area of California  
175 showed elevated drought risk during these phases of ENSO and PDO over the first 80 winters  
176 (1901-1980). In contrast, there has been no significant change in overall drought risk,  
177 irrespective of oceanic states. The positive phase of the AMO elevated the risk of drought  
178 moderately between the first 80 and last 80 years (only 6% of the region; not shown). This  
179 suggests that the spatial patterns of the influence of the PDO (-) and ENSO (-) and their impacts  
180 on California winter drought have changed at multi-decadal scale. The positive phases of the  
181 PDO and ENSO are associated with increased winter pluvial risk over the whole of California,  
182 and northern California, respectively. Changes in pluvial risk between the two periods (1901-  
183 1980 and 1936-2015) are significant but for a smaller area relative to the changes in drought  
184 risk (7-8% of the region shows a significant increase in pluvial risk and no areas show a  
185 significant decrease; Figure 3).

186

### 187 *3.2. Potential Mechanisms of Changes in California Drought and Pluvial Risk*

188 Composite annual SST anomaly patterns for the last 80 years show that the surface  
189 temperature gradient between the northcentral and equatorial Pacific has become larger for  
190 both the PDO (-) and ENSO (-). Specifically, warm SST anomalies during the negative phase  
191 of the PDO have become significantly warmer over the northcentral Pacific compared to the  
192 first 80 years (based on the t-test at a significance level = 0.05 darker red and hatched area in  
193 Fig. 4 (c)). Over the same period, cool SST anomalies during the negative phase of the ENSO

214 have become cooler over the tropical Pacific with statistically significant changes over the  
215 equatorial Pacific region. Although global warming contributed to the emergence of positive  
216 sea surface temperature anomalies over most of the Pacific Ocean during this time period, the  
217 magnitude of these anomalies are relatively weak compared to the changes in the anomalies  
218 over the regions related to the PDO and ENSO (see S.3 in Supplementary Materials).

219         The changes in the SST anomaly patterns are associated with changes in large-scale  
220 atmospheric circulation over tropical and extra-tropical regions of the Pacific (Figure 4).  
221 During the last 80 years, weaker northwesterly winds over the north Pacific have occurred  
222 during the PDO (-) phase, resulting in less southeastward moisture transport. Similarly, stronger  
223 easterly winds over the equatorial Pacific, have occurred during the ENSO (-) phase, resulting  
224 in greater westward moisture transport. These moisture transport patterns reduce precipitation  
225 over California more than normal. Conversely, this led to more moisture convergence (above-  
226 normal precipitation) over the western Pacific and southeast Asia. This mechanism is consistent  
227 with idealized model experiments. Over the extra-tropical Pacific region, cold and warm SST  
228 anomalies (above two standard deviations) over the tropical and northcentral Pacific via air-  
229 sea interactions (Lau and Nath 1996) induced high pressure in the mid-troposphere during the  
230 PDO (-) phase, which caused less moisture transport equatorward from the northcentral Pacific.  
231 These anomalies were stronger during 1934-2011 compared to 1901-1980 (see S.4 in  
232 Supplementary Materials), thus increasing the risk of drought during the PDO (-) and ENSO  
233 (-). For pluvial events, the PDO (+) and ENSO (+) phases show statistically significant positive  
234 SST anomalies over a broader region of the tropical Pacific during the last 80 years (see S. 5  
235 in Supplementary Materials) than the PDO (-) and ENSO (-) phases. These anomalies drove  
236 moisture transport over the tropical region in the opposite direction and thus more pluvial  
237 events over northern California. Examination of changes in risk over the broader region of the  
238 Western U.S. (Figure 5) shows that decreased moisture transport over southern California and

219 increased moisture transport over northern California are embedded in an overall northward  
220 shift in pluvial risk and southward shift in drought risk.

221 To test whether climate change has played a role in changing the risk of California  
222 winter droughts and pluvials, we compared idealized SST experiment simulations of three  
223 global climate models and without global SST increasing trend as one of the results due to  
224 climate change (Figure 6). Without the SST increasing trend, the model experiments show that  
225 cold SST anomalies over the Pacific and warm SST anomalies over the north Atlantic (similar  
226 to a combination of the PDO (-), AMO (+), and ENSO (-)) are associated with reduced  
227 precipitation over the U.S. southwest, indicating that the models can reproduce the observed  
228 relationships between oceanic states and California precipitation variability. With the global  
229 SST increasing trend, the models show decreases in the precipitation deficit induced by cold  
230 Pacific and warm Atlantic SSTs, and decreases in precipitation surplus induced by warm  
231 Pacific and cold Atlantic SSTs, suggesting an overall weakening of the intensity of SST-driven  
232 wintertime extremes. There is some disagreement of the GCM responses to global SST  
233 warming trends in terms of the spatial patterns over California, but the models show a fairly  
234 consistent response (e.g. reduction of precipitation deficits) to the warming trends at regional  
235 scale. Based on available data for a single climate model with an historic climate simulation,  
236 the global SST increasing trend has slightly offset increases in drought (pluvial) risk induced  
237 by cold (warm) Pacific SSTs, but not significantly (see S.6 in Supplementary Materials).

238

#### 239 **4. Conclusion and Outlook for California Drought Risk**

240 The longevity and severity of the 2011-2015 California winter drought have implicated  
241 climate change as having played a role. However, this drought should be viewed in the context  
242 of multi-decadal climate variability, and in particular changes in oceanic states associated with  
243 ENSO and the PDO that provide ideal conditions for drought. Idealized model experiments

244 suggest that the increase in drought and pluvial risk over much of California during favorable  
245 oceanic phases is mainly due to natural variability, although global warming may have offset  
246 these increases somewhat.

247         Since the winter of 2014/2015 the ENSO and PDO have transitioned to their positive  
248 phases, which are associated with an increase in wintertime pluvial risk over California.  
249 Climate model predictions indicate that the positive ENSO phase will persist through to 2016  
250 (Kirtman et al. 2014) with the expectation of a precipitation surplus in the winter of 2015/16,  
251 which might help alleviate the current drought. However, decadal forecasts initialized with  
252 observed wind stresses (Thoma et al. 2015) predict that the current negative PDO conditions  
253 (also associated with the global warming hiatus (Delworth et al. 2015)) will persist until the  
254 mid-2020s, suggesting that the long-term risk of drought over California will continue to be  
255 elevated, with the occurrence of individual drought events depending on the frequency of  
256 ENSO (-) (La Niña) events.

257

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1 **Captions of Figures**

2 **Figure 1:** The severity of 2014-15 California drought. (a) Simulated snow water equivalent  
3 percentile is simulated from the Variable Infiltration Capacity (VIC) land surface hydrologic  
4 model. The percentile is computed with respect to the samples within a 49-day window in  
5 1951-2004. (b) Time series of water thickness anomalies over May 2002 through April 2015  
6 from the GRACE data, which is based on the climatology 2004-2008. The GRACE data shows  
7 the deficit of water storage is about -4.0 cm on November 1 in 2013 (the water storage deficit  
8 in November based on climatology (2004-2008) is -2.0 cm). (c-f) Time series of winter  
9 precipitation (c), annual Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) index (d), Atlantic Multi-decadal  
10 Oscillation (AMO) index (e), and Southern Oscillation Index (SOI) over 1900-2014. The  
11 medians of winter time precipitation are represented in (c). The positive phase of SOI represent  
12 a La Niña (negative) phase of El-Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO).

13 **Figure 2:** Favorable oceanic conditions for California drought. Time series of the monthly  
14 PDO (a), AMO (b), and ENSO (c) from January 2011 through February 2015. d-e) The  
15 conditional distributions are computed from the regional averages of drought occurrences  
16 during the certain times: strong negative (blue; below the 33rd percentiles), negative (sky;  
17 below the medians), climatology (black; 1900-2014), positive (orange; above the medians),  
18 and strong positive (red; above the 66th percentiles) of the annual PDO, AMO, and ENSO  
19 indices, respectively. The bottom and top of the box stand for the accumulated belief of degree  
20 at 25% and 75% from the inverse posterior distribution functions and the band within the box,  
21 the accumulated belief degree at 50% from the inverse posterior distribution functions.  
22 Whiskers represent the accumulated belief degree at 1% and 99% from the inverse posterior  
23 distribution functions. North and south California are defined above and below 37.5°N.

24 **Figure 3:** Multi-decadal changes in the Pacific Ocean with California winter drought and  
25 pluvial risk. Drought frequency maps during the negative phases of the PDO and ENSO indices  
26 of the periods, 1901-1980 (a-b) and 1936-2015 (d-e). Pluvial frequency maps during the  
27 positive phases of the PDO and ENSO indices of the periods, 1901-1980 (g-h) and 1936-2015  
28 (j-k). To address the trends in drought and pluvial risk, drought and pluvial frequency maps  
29 during the first and last 80 years periods are in the last column (c, f, i, and l). Green shaded  
30 areas represent the area with the uncertainty equal to or greater than the probability equal to or  
31 greater than 90%, to have higher drought and pluvial frequency than 0.25 ( $DB\{p \geq 0.25\}$ )  
32 based on the conditional posterior distributions.

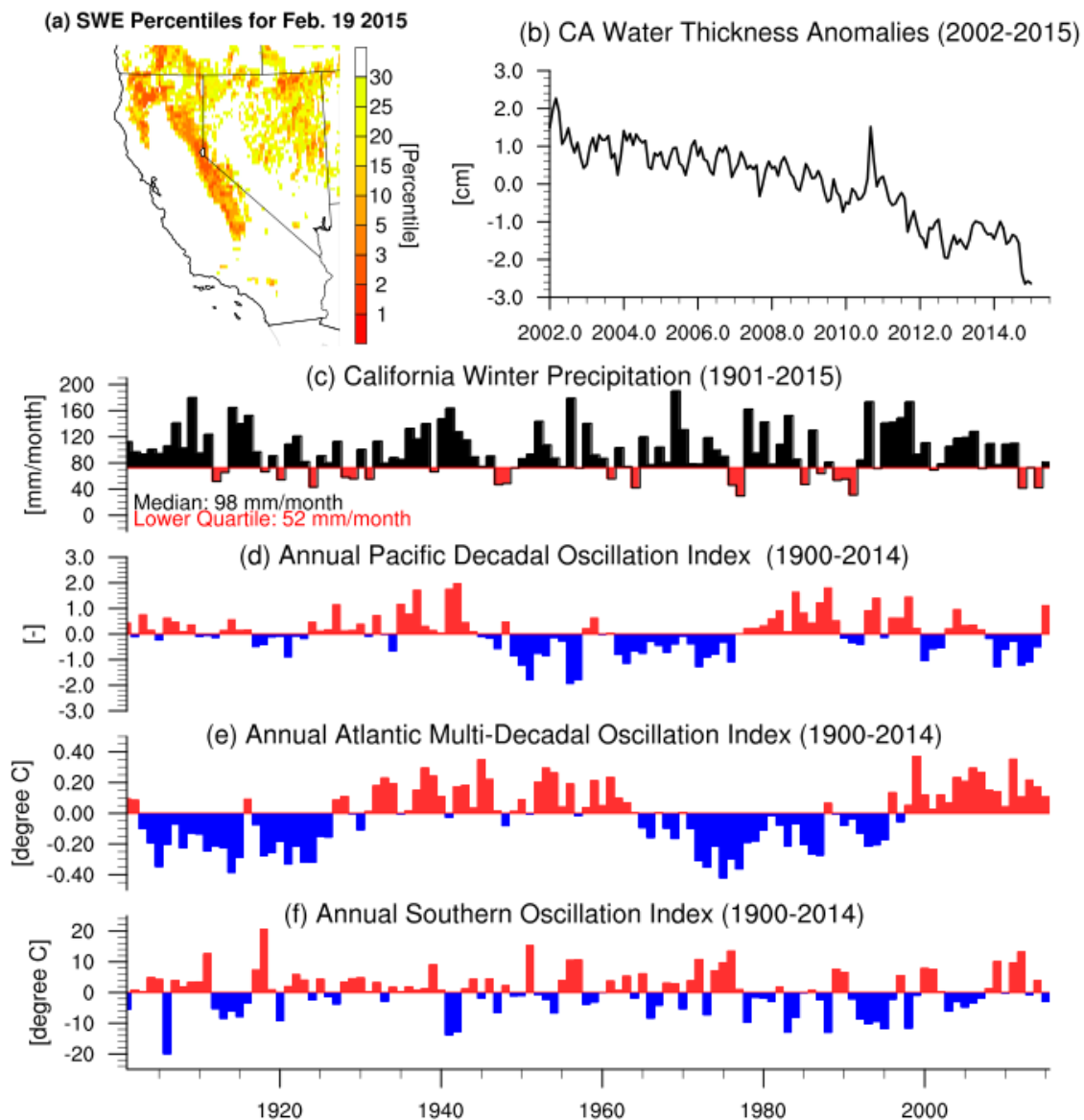
33 **Figure 4:** Multi-decadal changes in the Pacific Ocean and their associations with moisture  
34 transport and convergences. Composite spatial distributions for annual averaged sea surface  
35 temperature anomalies during the PDO (-) and ENSO (-) phases of the periods, 1901-1980 (a-  
36 b) and 1935-2014 (c-d). Composite spatial distributions for wintertime vertically integrated  
37 moisture transport and convergence anomalies during the anomalies during the negative phases  
38 of the PDO and ENSO indices of the periods, 1900-1979 (e-f) and 1936-2012 (g-h).

39 **Figure 5:** Multi-decadal changes in winter drought and pluvial risk over the western U.S. for  
40 different phases of SST variations in the Pacific Ocean. Green shaded areas over blue (red)  
41 colored areas represent areas with higher drought and pluvial frequency than 0.25 ( $DB\{p \geq$   
42  $0.25\}$ ) based on the conditional posterior distributions with probability equal to or greater than  
43 90% (smaller than 10%).

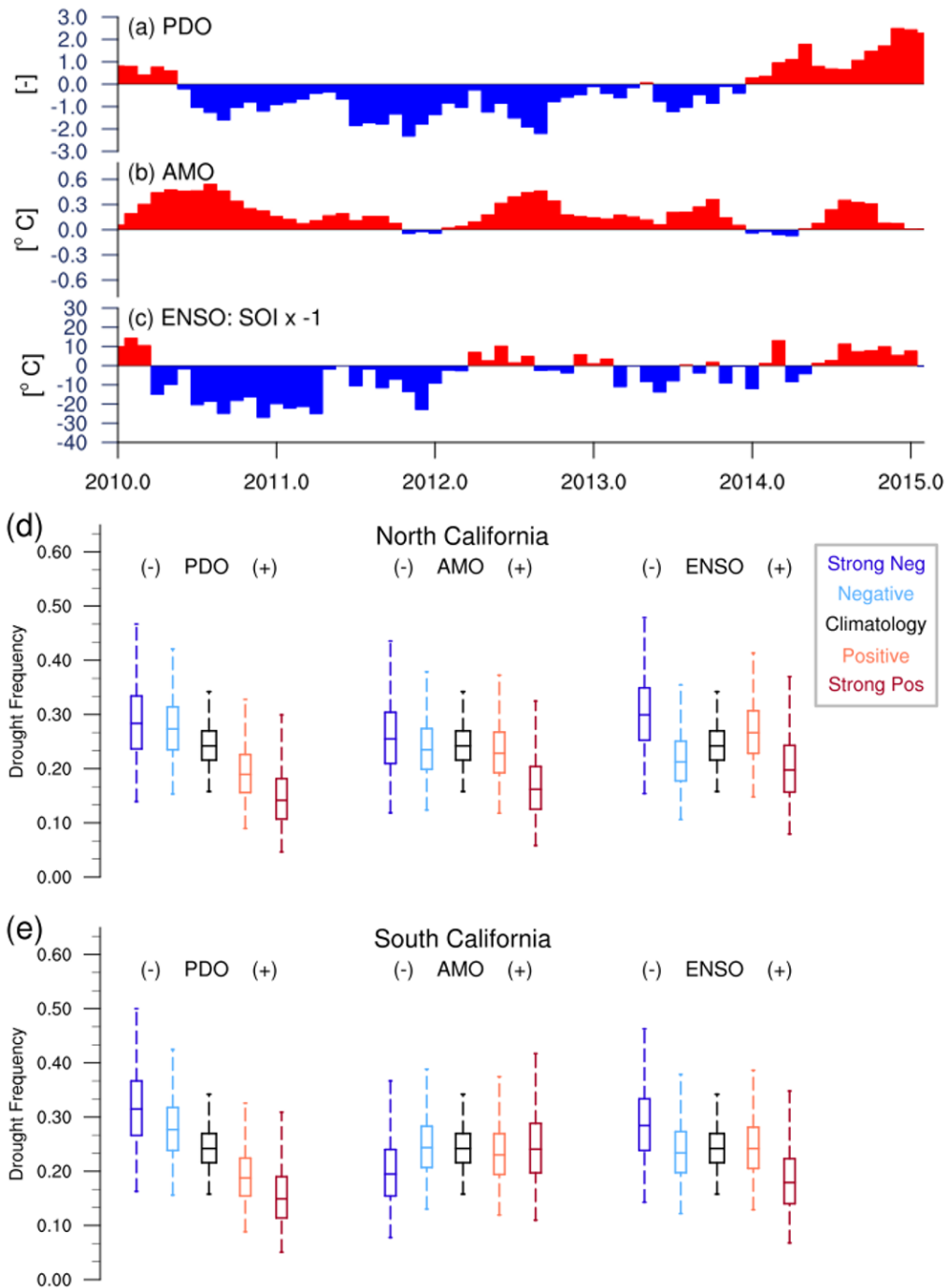
44 **Figure 6:** Idealized SST experiment runs of global climate models from the Climate Variability  
45 and Predictability (CLIVAR) Drought Working Group initiative: the Geophysical Fluid  
46 Dynamics Laboratory Atmospheric Model version 2.1 (GFDL-AM2.1), the National Center  
47 for Atmospheric Research Community Climate System Model version 3.0 (CCM3.0), and the  
48 National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Global Forecast System (GFS). Here,

49 four different SST experiments from three GCM are represented; cold Pacific and warm  
50 Atlantic SST anomalies without/with long-term global warming (cPwA and cPwAwT,  
51 respectively), and warm Pacific and cold Atlantic SST anomalies without/with long-term  
52 global warming (wPcA and wPcAwT, respectively). For each SST experiments, GFDL-AM2.1  
53 and CCM3 are 50-year simulations and GFS is 36-year simulations. The differences of winter  
54 precipitation are computed from the average over the full period from an individual experiment  
55 run.

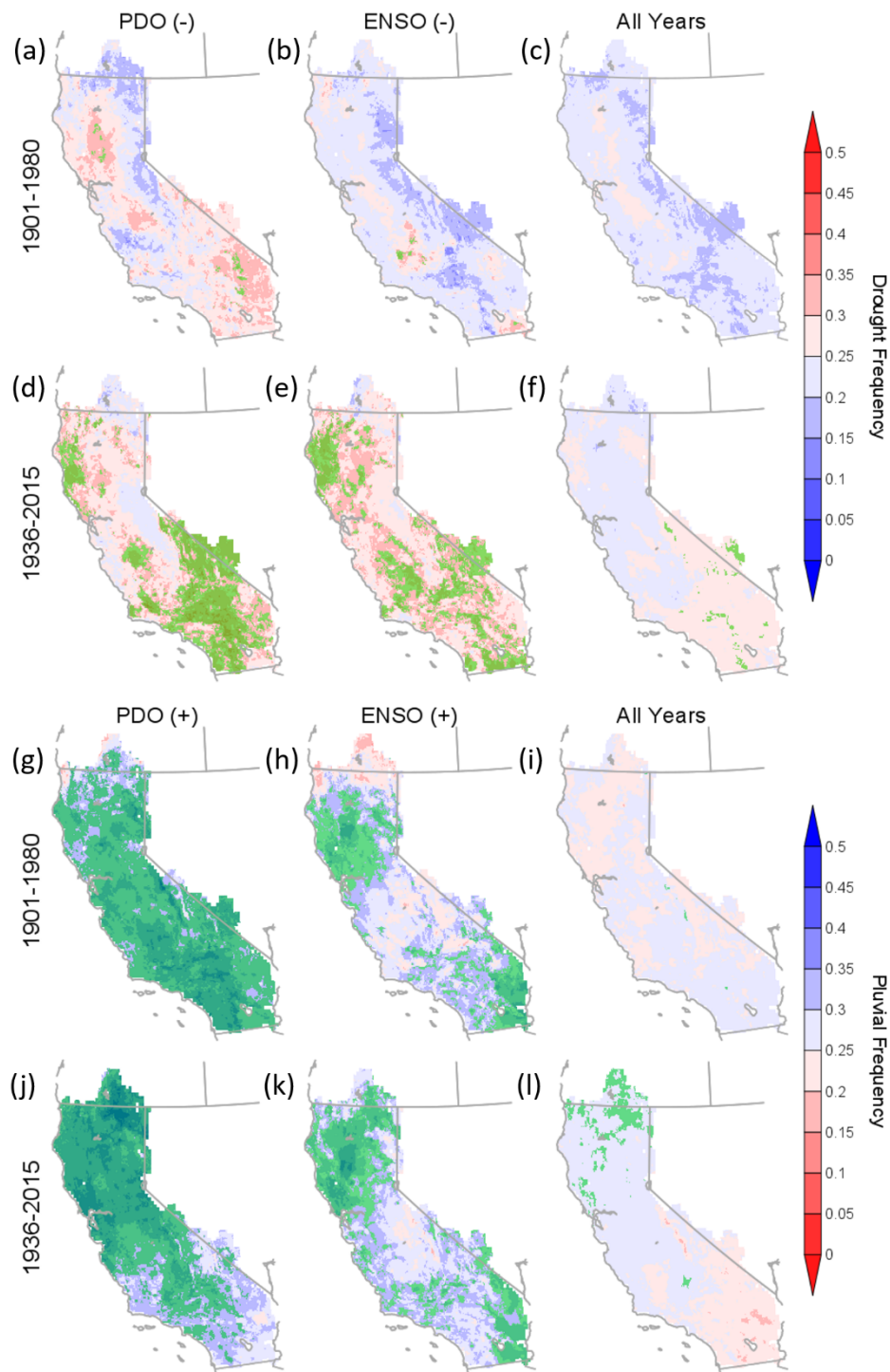




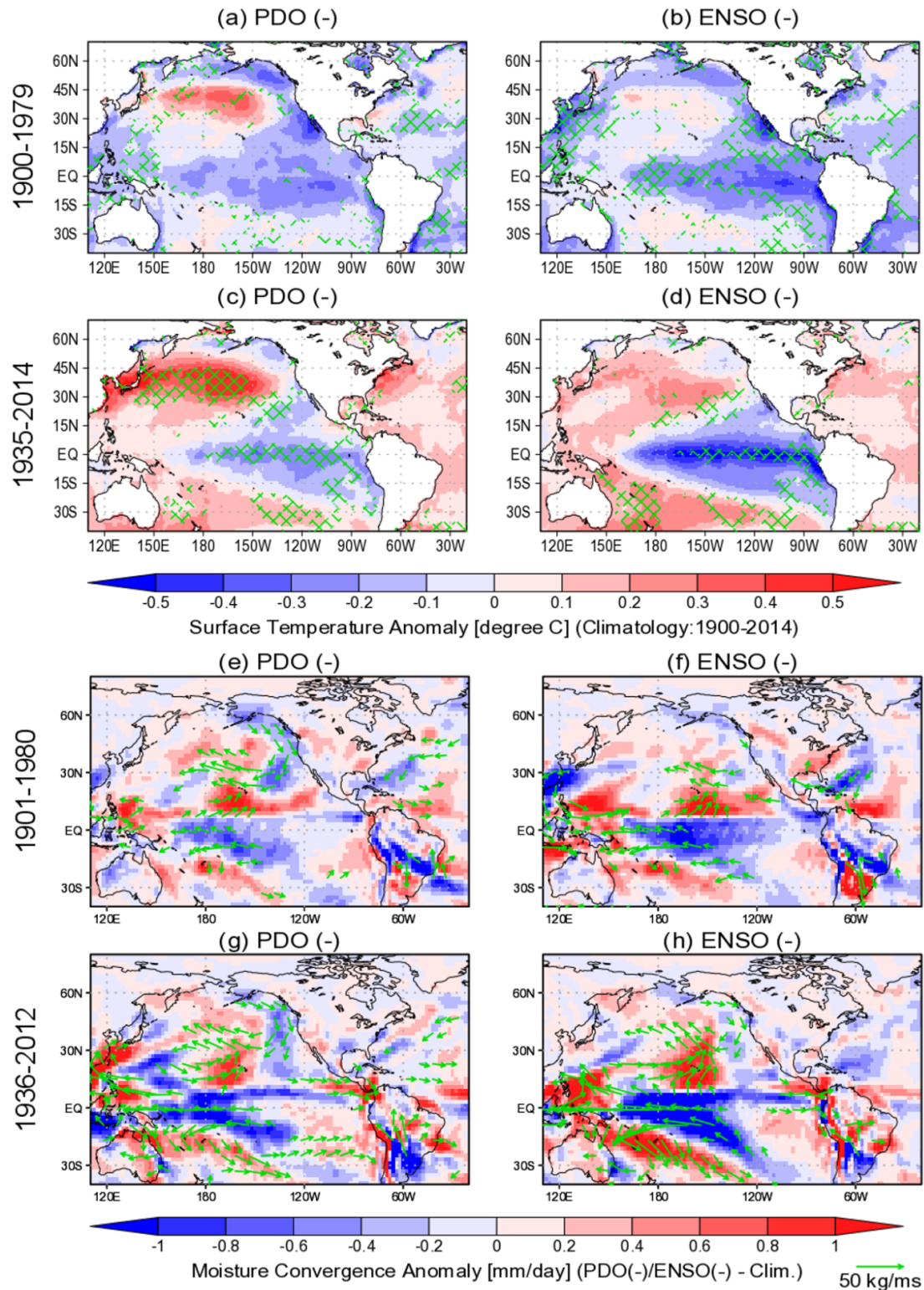
**Figure 1.** The severity of 2014-15 California drought. (a) Simulated snow water equivalent percentile is simulated from the Variable Infiltration Capacity (VIC) land surface hydrologic model. The percentile is computed with respect to the samples within a 49-day window in 1951-2004. (b) Time series of water thickness anomalies over May 2002 through April 2015 from the GRACE data, which is based on the climatology 2004-2008. The GRACE data shows the deficit of water storage is about -4.0 cm on November 1 in 2013 (the water storage deficit in November based on climatology (2004-2008) is -2.0 cm). (c-f) Time series of winter precipitation (c), annual Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) index (d), Atlantic Multi-decadal Oscillation (AMO) index (e), and Southern Oscillation Index (SOI) over 1900-2014. The medians of winter time precipitation are represented in (c). The positive phase of SOI represent a La Niña (negative) phase of El-Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO).



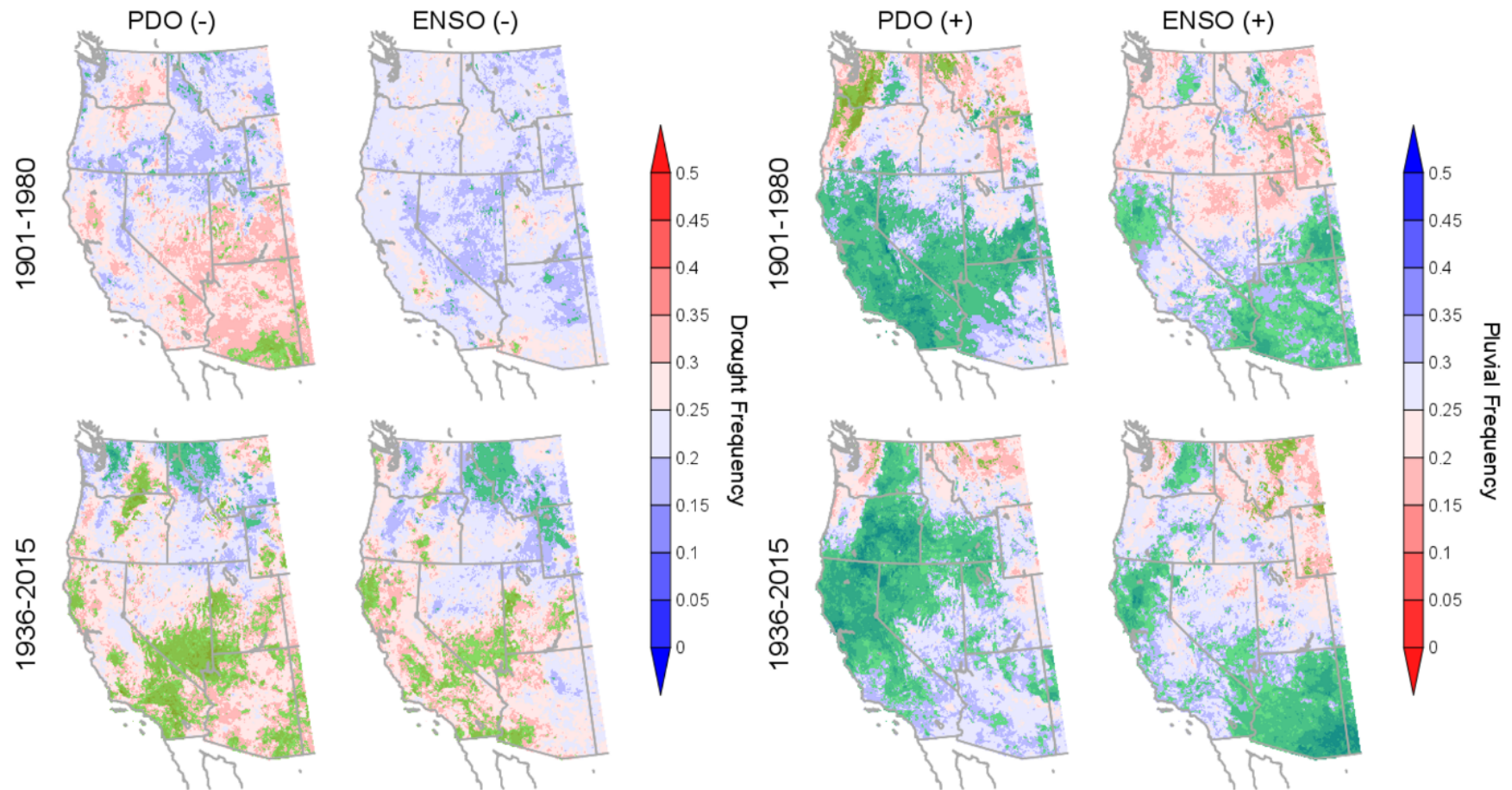
**Figure 2:** Favorable oceanic conditions for California drought. Time series of the monthly PDO (a), AMO (b), and ENSO (c) from January 2011 through February 2015. d-e) The conditional distributions are computed from the regional averages of drought occurrences during the certain times: strong negative (blue; below the 33rd percentiles), negative (sky; below the medians), climatology (black; 1900-2014), positive (orange; above the medians), and strong positive (red; above the 66th percentiles) of the annual PDO, AMO, and ENSO indices, respectively. The bottom and top of the box stand for the accumulated belief of degree at 25% and 75% from the inverse posterior distribution functions and the band within the box, the accumulated belief degree at 50% from the inverse posterior distribution functions. Whiskers represent the accumulated belief degree at 1% and 99% from the inverse posterior distribution functions. North and south California are defined above and below 37.5°N.



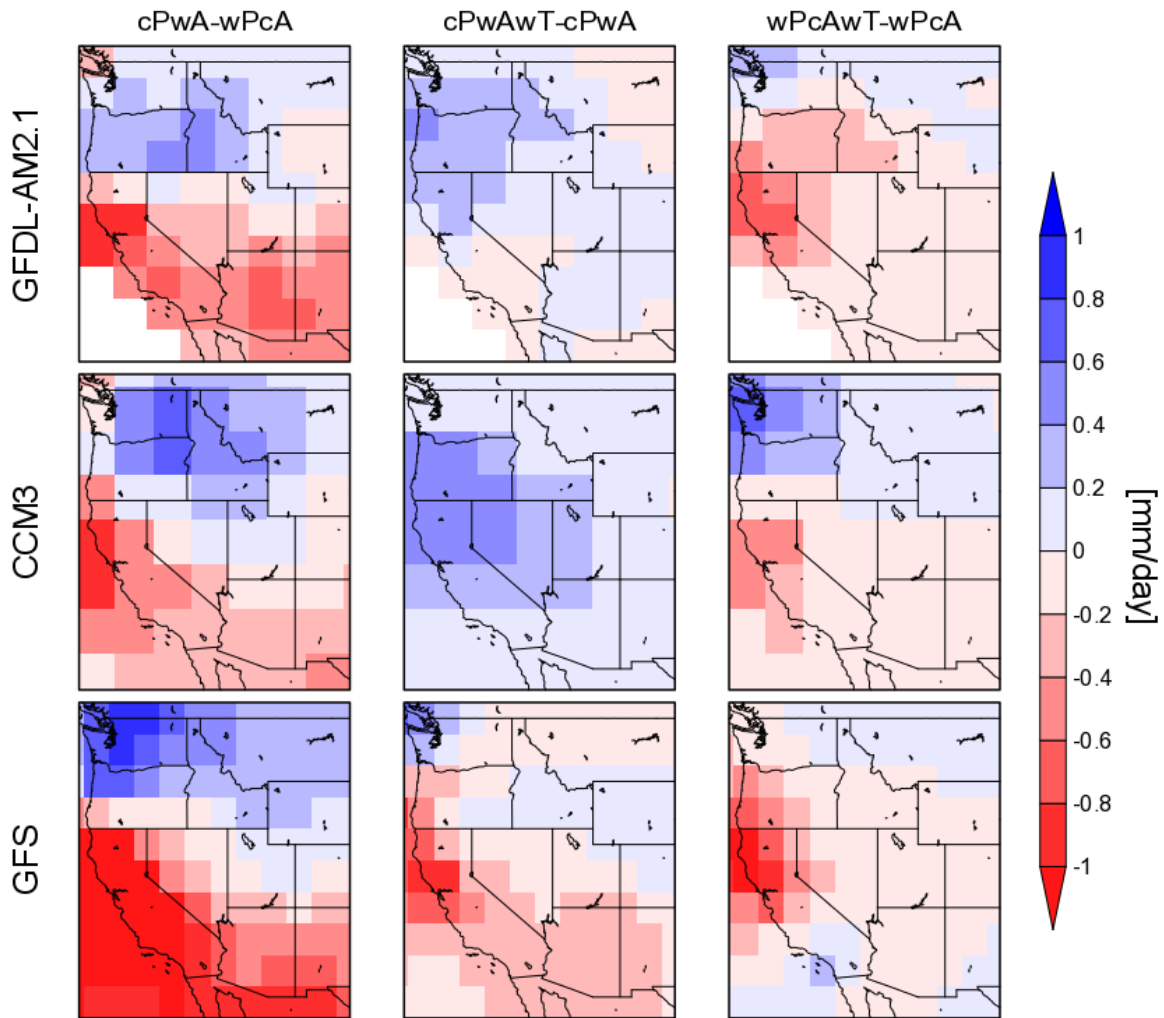
**Figure 3:** Multi-decadal changes in the Pacific Ocean with California winter drought and pluvial risk. Drought frequency maps during the negative phases of the PDO and ENSO indices of the periods, 1901-1980 (a-b) and 1936-2015 (d-e). Pluvial frequency maps during the positive phases of the PDO and ENSO indices of the periods, 1901-1980 (g-h) and 1936-2015 (j-k). To address the trends in drought and pluvial risk, drought and pluvial frequency maps during the first and last 80 years periods are in the last column (c, f, i, and l) Green shaded areas represent the area with the uncertainty equal to or greater than the probability equal to or greater than 90%, to have higher drought and pluvial frequency than 0.25 ( $DB\{p \geq 0.25\}$ ) based on the conditional posterior distributions.



**Figure 4:** Multi-decadal changes in the Pacific Ocean and their associations with moisture transport and convergences. Composite spatial distributions for annual averaged sea surface temperature anomalies during the PDO (-) and ENSO (-) phases of the periods, 1901-1980 (a-b) and 1935-2014 (c-d). Composite spatial distributions for wintertime vertically integrated moisture transport and convergence anomalies during the anomalies during the negative phases of the PDO and ENSO indices of the periods, 1900-1979 (e-f) and 1936-2012 (g-h).



**Figure 5:** Multi-decadal changes in winter drought and pluvial risk over the western U.S. for different phases of SST variations in the Pacific Ocean. Green shaded areas over blue (red) colored areas represent areas with higher drought and pluvial frequency than 0.25 ( $DB\{p \geq 0.25\}$ ) based on the conditional posterior distributions with probability equal to or greater than 90% (smaller than 10%).



**Figure 6:** Idealized SST experiment runs of global climate models from the Climate Variability and Predictability (CLIVAR) Drought Working Group initiative: the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory Atmospheric Model version 2.1 (GFDL-AM2.1), the National Center for Atmospheric Research Community Climate System Model version 3.0 (CCM3.0), and the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Global Forecast System (GFS). Here, four different SST experiments from three GCM are represented; cold Pacific and warm Atlantic SST anomalies without/with long-term global warming (cPwA and cPwAwT, respectively), and warm Pacific and cold Atlantic SST anomalies without/with long-term global warming (wPcA and wPcAwT, respectively). For each SST experiments, GFDL-AM2.1 and CCM3 are 50-year simulations and GFS is 36-year simulations. The differences of winter precipitation are computed from the average over the full period from an individual experiment run.