WATER







Climate change brings extra rain as warmer oceans evaporate more moisture

Water resources will not increase everywhere: in places more rain may not keep pace with strong heat

➡ Longer, hotter summers deplete water resources but melting glaciers can cause short-term surges

Where less or more water is made available to countries already facing chronic water scarcity, losses or gains match heightened marginal water supply costs

Adapting to impacts of climate change on water is feasible in most cases, but in highly arid regions, solutions may prove too costly



GEOPOLITICAL VULNERABILITY



S Economic Cost (2010 PPP non-discounted) Country Low Emitters Developed Poveloping Country High Emitters Other Industrialized

\$ = Losses per 10,000 USD of GDP



(O) (S) = Millions of USD (2010 PPP non-discounted)

ater is an important input to the full range of economic activities and is therefore a crucial natural resource with market value (Morrison et al., 2009). Rainfall is highly uncertain (Blöschl and Montanari, 2010). Two global climate change projections could show mirror opposites for a region like Brazil: one dry and the other wet (Murray et al., 2012). A full ensemble of IPCC models was used to predict water supply change presented here (Nohara et al., 2006). But selecting only some models as opposed to others would likely have produced a different set of results. For some regions it is more certain whether they will be dry (such as Southern and Eastern Europe and North Africa) or wet (North America, East Asia). Others are completely unsure about what the future holds (Australasia, South America). In this assessment, roughly half of all countries are expected to either gain or have a no impact. The other half will suffer losses. Water is supplied according to specific local conditions at the market price (McKinsey & Company, 2009). However, the price of water varies widely around

the world, from more than 8 dollars per

m3 in Denmark to less than 8 cents/m3

in parts of India (GWI, 2008). Generally speaking, water costs a larger share of income in most developed than in developing countries. As a result, climate change is contributing to a worsening of water availability in the Mediterranean basin, and generating a large share of estimated global losses.

CLIMATE MECHANISM

Climate change increases rainfall globally, since the planet's water cycle accelerates as it warms (Huntington, 2006). As temperature increases, so does the overall moisture content of the air and rain falls back to ground levels (Allen and Ingram, 2002). More moisture in the air from the world's oceans is the main contributor to the water cycle's acceleration (Syed et al., 2010). However, much of the additional rain falls in the far north or south (Nohara et al., 2006).

Recent evidence shows that rainfall has already declined in the tropics and increased significantly in the far north and south (Helm et al., 2010). Even where more rainfall occurs, if evaporation rates are high due to greatly increased temperature, a loss of water availability can result (Chu et al., 2009). Long-term decline in the world's glaciers and longer drier summers also aggravate water scarcity in certain areas and lead to near-term surges in flows elsewhere before declining again (NSIDC, 2008; Immerzeel et al., 2012; Marengo et al., 2011; Olefs et al., 2009). Economic impacts will cause the greatest challenges where water scarcity and the cost of water are already high (Morrison et al., 2009).

IMPACTS

The effect of climate change on water scarcity is already estimated to cost affected countries 45 million dollars a year. However, 30 billion dollars in yearly gains in water resources in countries experiencing increasing water availability mean a net global loss of 15 billion dollars a year. This net global loss is stable at 15 billion dollars a year to 2030 and declines by three times as a share of global GDP. By 2030, affected countries will incur 200 billion dollars in yearly losses, which are almost entirely offset by similar levels of gains in other countries.

The bulk of losses is estimated to affect wealthy European countries, such as France, Germany, Spain, and Italy. Mexico and Turkey are also expected to experience high losses in absolute terms. Canada, China, Japan, India, and Russia are estimated here to recoup the largest gains.

Southern and Eastern European countries are estimated to be worst affected relative to GDP, along with a number of Central American countries, such as Belize and Panama. The impacts represent a possible outcome of highly unpredictable rainfall and should be treated with caution, especially for countries in sub-regions with considerable uncertainty about the direction of change (wet or dry). On a global level, the results could be considered more robust since different hydrological regimes will invariably favour some and disfavour others in terms of water availability.

THE BROADER CONTEXT

The world is experiencing a growing water crisis. Between 2010 and 2030, global water demand is expected to increase by around 40%, requiring an additional 3 trillion m3 of water, as compared with a total global demand of only 4.5 trillion m3 today, without accounting for the possible impacts of climate change (McKinsey & Company, 2009). This increase is driven largely by population increases and economic



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growth, which brings greater industry demand for water. Over half of the water gap is expected to be met through infrastructure and other changes which deviate from business-as-usual approaches to water. Unless countries develop more sophisticated responses to dealing with the water supply, the expense of closing this gap, while technically possible, will become increasingly cost-prohibitive, because of the steep cost of generating water to compensate for the water scarcity in an economy.

VULNERABILITIES AND WIDER OUTCOMES

Pollution, over-grazing, deforestation, and other environmentally unsustainable practices can all exacerbate water scarcity (Economy, 2010). Farmers who must rely on rainfall alone and who cannot afford or get access to irrigation are highly vulnerable to falling water availability. Water insecurity can lead to food insecurity in marginalized communities and to a lack of water for sanitation and drinking, leading to further negative health consequences, or even violence and conflict (Ludi, 2009; Raleigh, 2010).

(\$)

2010 2030

70 500

700 4,750

1,250 9,000

9,000 25,000

> 200 1,250

900

150 1,250

15 100

80 650

500 3.500

40 300

10 65

100 850

40

30 200

75 600

200

1.000

400 2 750

4,750 15,000

800 2.250

> 45 300

4.000 30.000

100

6.750 700 5.000

1,000 150

2,000 6,000 2,500 400



Economies heavily reliant on agriculture, responsible for about 70% of global water demand, are also more vulnerable to water stress (FAO AQUASTAT, 2012).

RESPONSES

2010

0.25

0.50

0.50

0.50

0.75

0.00

5

0.75

0.50

0.75

0.75

0.75

0.75

0.50

0.25

20

0.25

0.75

0.50

Ω 25

0.50

0.75

5

Managing water often requires large-scale investment that can have an important impact on longer-term development prospects (Aerts and Droogers in Kabat et al. (eds.), 2009). Planning for the wrong outcome is costly. Where uncertainty is high, it is therefore vital that responses are appropriate for a wide range of possible outcomes, i.e., a wet or a dry future (Dessai et al., 2009). However,

planning for different outcomes can add significantly to the costs of adaptation. Five broad response areas are central to effective water management: 1) Enhancing catchment capacity or access to supplies, through reservoirs or wells for instance; 2) There is wide scope for improving water efficiency in many contexts (Wallace, 2000), from micro-irrigation, to improved drainage and re-use of water, lining canals and limiting water leakage, as well as the cultivation of more water-efficient crops (Rodríguez Díaz et al., 2007; Wilby and Dessai, 2010: Elliot et al., 2011): 3) Supporting improved institutional environments to enable communities to make and implement effective decisions is critical (Rogers and Hall, 2003); 4) The vulnerability of communities to water stress can also be reduced, whether for socio-economic reasons (e.g., subsistence farmers), pollution, land degradation, or deforestation (Sullivan, 2011; Kiparsky et al., 2012; Epule et al., 2012; Postel and Thompson, 2005); 5) GHG emission reductions do not instantaneously slow or accelerate the hydrological cycle, but will limit the extent of changes in water availability due to climate change in the long term (Wu et al., 2010; Arnell et al., 2011).

THE INDICATOR

The indicator measures costs of changes in the re-supply of water resources due to temperature and precipitation changes caused by climate change (Nohara et al., 2006). It considers agricultural, domestic/municipal and industrial demand and country or regionspecific marginal water costs (Rosengrant at al., 2002; McKinsey & Company, 2009). A key limitation not controlled for is that while climate change may increase water availability over a year, if it does not fall when water demand peaks in the absence of adequate catchment, reservoir and irrigation facilities, water scarcity may still increase. It has been estimated that around 20% of areas experiencing increased water could also experience an increase in water scarcity, including India, Northern China, and Europe (Yamamoto et al., 2012). Since the indicator is aggregating the country-level picture of change, it is possible that increases in water availability for some parts of a country are not compensating fully for decreases in water availability elsewhere.

\$

COUNTRY
CUTE
rmenia
lustria
Belarus
Belize
Bolivia
Bulgaria
Costa Rica
Croatia
zech Republic
l Salvador
rance

COUNTRY	2010	2030	2010	2030
Ukraine	1,000	7,000	1	5
Zimbabwe	30	200	1	5
SEVERE				
Albania	35	250	0.25	0.50
Antigua and Barbuda	1	20		
Bahamas	15	100		
Barbados	10	70		
Bosnia and Herzegovina	40	300		0.25
Chile	400	3,250	1	5
Cote d, Ivoire	45	300	1	5
Cuba	150	1,250		
Dominica	1	10		
Dominican Republic	100	950		
Germany	5,000	15,000	1	5
Grenada	1	15		
Haiti	15	100		
lamaica	35	250		
Saint Lucia	1	20		
Saint Vincent	1	15		
Swaziland	10	70		0.25
Turkey	1,750	5,500	10	20
HIGH				
Afghanistan	35	250	1	5
Angola	70	450	1	1
Australia	750	2,000	0.50	1
Azerbaijan	100	800	0.25	0.50
Belgium	350	1,000	0.25	0.50
Benin	10	75	0.25	0.75
Botswana	20	100		0.25
Fiji	1	20		
Guinea	10	60	0.25	0.75
taly	2,250	6,750	1	5

COUNTRY	2010	2030	2010	2030
Kiribati		1		
Luxembourg	50	150		
Mali	15	95	0.75	1
Marshall Islands		1		
Mauritania	5	40	0.25	0.25
Micronesia		1		
Namibia	10	55		0.25
Palau		1		
Poland	900	6,250	1	1
Portugal	250	700	0.25	0.25
Samoa	1	5		
Solomon Islands	1	5		
South Africa	550	3,500	5	5
Suriname	1	15		
Тодо	5	30	0.25	0.50
Tonga	1	5		
Trinidad and Tobago	15	150		0.25
Tuvalu				
Uzbekistan	40	300	0.50	1
Vanuatu	1	5		
Venezuela	350	2,750	1	5
MODERATE				
Algeria	15	95		0.25
Burkina Faso	1	15		0.25
Cape Verde	1	5		
Cyprus	5	15		
Egypt	1	15		
Gambia	1	5		
Ghana	10	55	0.25	0.25
Iran	300	2,250	1	1
Iraq	5	55	0.25	0.25
Israel	10	65		

Georgia Greece

Guatemala

Guyana

Honduras

Hungary

Lesotho

Malta

Mexico

Moldova Nicaragua

Panama

Romania

Slovakia

Slovenia Spain

Switzerland

Taiikistan

Kyrgyzstan

Macedonia



CLIMATE UNCERTAINTY Limited
Partial
Considerable

COUNTRY	2010	2030	2010	2030
Jordan	1	10		
Lebanon	1	10		
Liberia	1	1		
Libya	1	5		
Morocco	10	70		0.25
Netherlands	150	500		0.25
Saudi Arabia	20	150		0.25
Senegal	1	5		
Syria	10	65		0.25
Tunisia	1	15		
Turkmenistan	10	75		0.25
LOW				
Argentina	-150	-1,250	-0.25	-0.50
Bahrain	-1	-5		
Bangladesh	-25	-200	-0.50	-1
Bhutan	-85	-700	-0.50	-1
Brazil	-1,250	-10,000	-5	-10
Brunei	-55	-450		-0.25
Burundi	-1	-10	-0.25	-0.25
Cambodia	-15	-150	-0.25	-0.50
Cameroon	-35	-250	-0.75	-1
Canada	-2,500	-7,250	-1	-1
Central African Republic	-5	-25	-0.25	-0.50
Chad	-25	-150	-0.50	-1
China	-5,750	-60,000	-30	-55
Colombia	-250	-2,000	-1	-5
Comoros	-1	-1		
Congo	-5	-50		-0.25
Denmark	-65	-200		
Djibouti	-1	-5		
DR Congo	-20	-100	-1	-5
Ecuador	-750	-5,500	-1	-5

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WATER

COUNTRY	2010	2030	2010	2030
Equatorial Guinea	-5	-35		
Eritrea				
Estonia	-100	-800	-0.25	-0.50
Ethiopia	-100	-650	-5	-5
Finland	-1,000	-3,000	-0.75	-1
Gabon	-1	-10		
Guinea-Bissau		-1		
Iceland	-25	-70		
India	-2,000	-15,000	-15	-35
Indonesia	-950	-7,500	-10	-20
Ireland	-250	-700	-0.25	-0.25
Japan	-4,250	-10,000	-1	-5
Kazakhstan	-50	-350	-0.25	-0.25
Kenya	-65	-400	-1	-5
Kuwait		-1		
Laos	-70	-750	-1	-1
Latvia	-55	-350		-0.25
Lithuania	-20	-150		
Madagascar	-1	-5		
Malawi	-1	-15		-0.25
Malaysia	-800	-6,000	-1	-5
Maldives	-10	-60		
Mauritius	-10	-65		
Mongolia	-1	-10		
Mozambique	-1	-5		
Myanmar	-75	-600	-1	-5
Nepal	-25	-200	-1	-1
New Zealand	-90	-250		-0.25
Niger	-10	-55	-0.50	-1
Nigeria	-65	-400	-1	-1
North Korea	-20	-200	-0.50	-1
Norway	-1,250	-4,000	-0.75	-1

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(national)

COUNTRY	2010	2030	2010	2030
Oman	-25	-200		-0.25
Pakistan	-10	-60		-0.25
Papua New Guinea	-100	-850	-5	-5
Paraguay	-25	-200	-0.25	-0.50
Peru	-200	-1,500	-1	-1
Philippines	-45	-350	-0.50	-1
Qatar	-10	-55		
Russia	-2,500	-15,000	-5	-10
Rwanda	-5	-40	-0.25	-0.50
Sao Tome and Principe		-1		
Seychelles	-1	-5		
Sierra Leone		-1		
Singapore	-250	-2,000		
Somalia	-5	-40	-0.50	-1
South Korea	-85	-650	-0.25	-0.50
Sri Lanka	-1	-20		
Sudan/South Sudan	-40	-300	-1	-1
Sweden	-1,500	-4,500	-1	-1
Tanzania	-200	-1,250	-5	-10
Thailand	-300	-2,250	-1	-5
Timor-Leste	-5	-35		
Uganda	-70	-450	-1	-5
United Arab Emirates	-15	-150		
United Kingdom	-1,250	-4,000	-0.75	-1
United States	-1,250	-4,000	-1	-1
Uruguay	-10	-70		
Vietnam	-100	-1,000	-1	-1
Yemen	-10	-60	-0.25	-0.25
Zambia	-1	-5		