

Southwest

The Southwest region stretches from the southern Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Coast. Elevations range from the lowest in the country to among the highest, with climates ranging from the driest to some of the wettest. Past climate records based on changes in Colorado River flows indicate that drought is a frequent feature of the Southwest, with some of the longest documented “megadroughts” on Earth. Since the 1940s, the region has experienced its most rapid population and urban growth. During this time, there were both unusually wet periods (including much of 1980s and 90s) and dry periods (including much of 1950s and 60s)¹. The prospect of future droughts becoming more severe as a result of global warming is a significant concern, especially because the Southwest continues to lead the nation in population growth.

Human-induced climate change appears to be well underway in the Southwest. Recent warming is among the most rapid in the nation, significantly

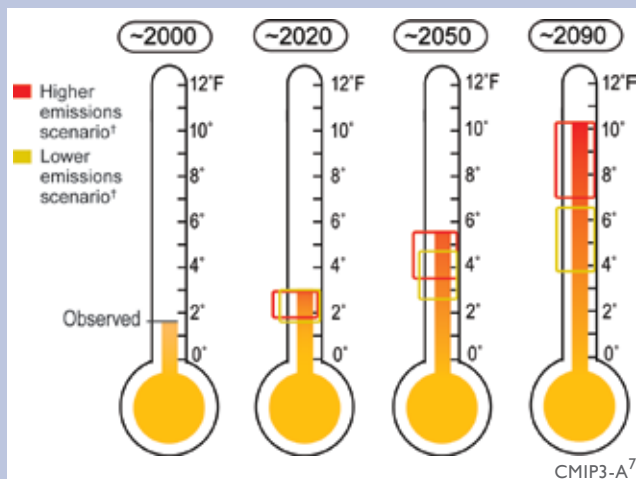
more than the global average in some areas. This is driving declines in spring snowpack and Colorado River flow²⁻⁴. Projections suggest continued strong warming, with much larger increases under higher emissions scenarios[†] compared to lower scenarios. Projected summertime temperature increases are greater than the annual-average increases in some parts of the region, and are likely to be exacerbated locally by expanding urban heat island effects⁵. Further water cycle changes are projected, which, combined with increasing temperatures, signal a serious water supply challenge in the decades and centuries ahead^{2,6}.

Water supplies will become increasingly scarce, calling for trade-offs among competing uses, and potentially leading to conflict.

Water is, quite literally, the lifeblood of the Southwest. The largest use of water in the region is associated with agriculture, including some of the nation’s most important crop-producing areas in California. Water is also an important source of hydroelectric power, and water is required for the large population growth in the region, particularly that of major cities such as Phoenix and Las Vegas. Water also plays a critical role in supporting healthy ecosystems across the region, both on land and in rivers and lakes.

Water supplies in some areas of the Southwest are already becoming limited, and this trend towards scarcity is likely to be a harbinger of future water shortages^{2,8}. Groundwater pumping is lowering water tables, while rising temperatures reduce river flows in vital rivers including the Colorado². Limitations imposed on water supply by projected temperature increases are likely to be made worse by substantial reductions in rain and snowfall in the spring months, when precipitation is most needed to fill reservoirs to meet summer demand⁹.

Average Annual Temperature



These thermometers compare the average annual temperature for the Southwest during the baseline years of 1960 to 1979 to present-day temperatures (1990 to 2007) and projected future temperatures (2004 to 2059 and 2080 to 2099). The brackets on the thermometers represent the likely range of model projections, though lower or higher outcomes are possible. By the end of the century, average annual temperature is projected to rise approximately 4°F to 10°F above the historical baseline, averaged over the Southwest region. Changes will be more or less in different areas, and by season.

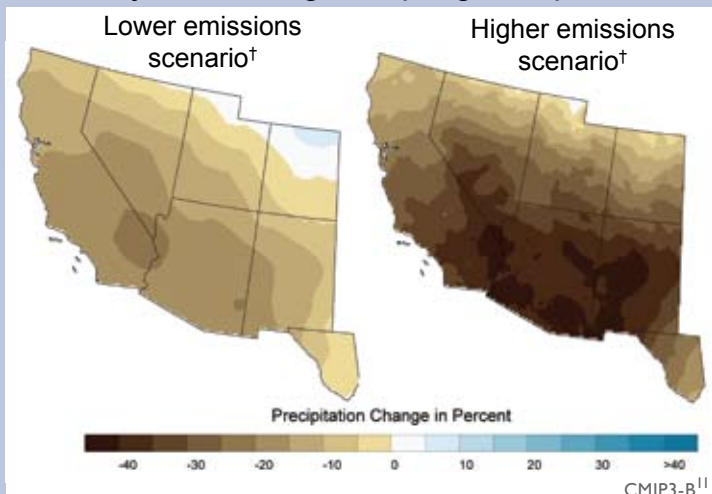
A warmer and drier future means extra care will be needed in planning the allocation of water for the coming decades. The Colorado Compact, negotiated in the 1920s, allocated the Colorado River's water among the seven basin states. It was based, however, on unrealistic assumptions about how much water was available because the observations of runoff during the early 1900s turned out to be part of the greatest and

longest high-flow period of the last five centuries¹⁰. Today, even in normal decades the Colorado River doesn't have enough water to meet the agreed-upon allocations. During droughts and under projected future conditions, the situation looks even bleaker.

Under exceptional circumstances, water designated for agriculture could provide a back-up supply for urban water needs. Similarly, non-renewable groundwater could be tapped during especially dry periods. Both of these options, however, come at the cost of either current or future agricultural production.

Water is already a subject of contention in the Southwest, and climate change—coupled with rapid population growth—promises to increase the likelihood of water-related conflict. Projected

Projected Change in Spring Precipitation

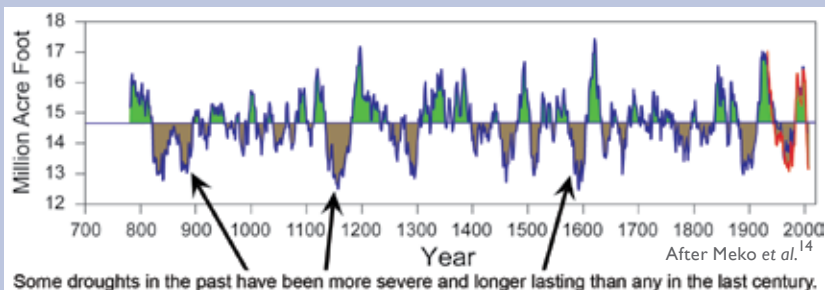


Percentage change in March-April-May precipitation for 2080-2099 compared to 1961-1979 for a lower emissions scenario[†] (left) and a higher emissions scenario[†] (right). CMIP3-B¹¹

Future of Drought in the Southwest

Droughts are a long-standing feature of the Southwest's climate. The droughts of the last 110 years pale in comparison to some of the decades-long "megadroughts" that the region has experienced over the last 2000 years¹². During the closing decades of the 1500s, for example, major droughts gripped parts of the Southwest¹³. These droughts sharply reduced the flow of the Colorado River^{10,14} and the all-important Sierra Nevada headwaters for California¹⁵, and dried out the region as a whole. As of 2009, much of the Southwest remains in a drought that began around 1999. This event is the most severe western drought of the last 110 years, and is being exacerbated by record warming¹⁶.

Over this century, projections point to an increasing probability of drought for the region^{17,18}. Many aspects of these projections, including a northward shift in winter and spring storm tracks, are consistent with observed trends over recent decades¹⁹⁻²¹. Thus, the most likely future for the Southwest is a substantially drier one (although there is presently no consensus on how the region's summer monsoon [rainy season] might change in the future). Combined with the historical record of severe



Colorado River flow has been reconstructed back over 1200 years based primarily on tree-ring data. These data reveal that some droughts in the past have been more severe and longer lasting than any experienced in the last 100 years. The red line indicates actual measurements of river flow during the last 100 years. In the future, droughts will continue to occur, but will become hotter, and thus more severe, over time¹⁷.

droughts and the current uncertainty regarding the exact causes and drivers of these past events, the Southwest must be prepared for droughts that could potentially result from multiple causes. The combined effects of natural climate variability and human-induced climate change could turn out to be a devastating "one-two punch" for the region.

L1 temperature increases, combined with river-flow
 L2 reductions, will increase the risk of water con-
 L3 flicts between sectors, states, and even nations. In
 L4 recent years, negotiations regarding existing water
 L5 supplies have taken place among the seven states
 L6 sharing the Colorado River and the two states (New
 L7 Mexico and Texas) sharing the Rio Grande. Mexico
 L8 and the United States already disagree on meeting
 L9 their treaty allocations of Rio Grande and Colorado
 L10 River water.

L12 In addition, many Native American water settle-
 L13 ments have yet to be fully worked out. The South-
 L14 west is home to dozens of Native communities
 L15 whose status as sovereign nations means they hold
 L16 treaty rights to the water that runs through their
 L17 land. However, the amount of water available to
 L18 each nation is negotiable. Increasing water de-
 L19 mand in the Southwest is driving current negotia-
 L20 tions of tribal water rights. While several nations
 L21 have legally settled their water rights, many other
 L22 tribal negotiations are either currently underway
 L23 or pending. The Navajo Nation, the largest Native
 L24 American reservation in the United States, is now
 L25 negotiating its claim to the New Mexico portion
 L26 of the San Juan River with the federal govern-
 L27 ment. Competing demands from treaty rights, rapid
 L28 development, and changes in agriculture in the
 L29 region, exacerbated by years of drought and climate
 L30 change, have the potential to spark significant con-
 L31 flict over an already over-allocated and dwindling
 L32 resource.

L35 **Increasing temperature, drought,
 L36 wildfire, and invasive species will
 L37 accelerate transformation of
 L38 the landscape.**

L40 Climate change already appears to be influenc-
 L41 ing both natural and managed ecosystems of the
 L42 Southwest^{16,22}. Future landscape impacts are likely
 L43 to be substantial, threatening biodiversity, pro-
 L44 tected areas, and ranching and agricultural lands.
 L45 These changes are often driven by multiple factors,
 L46 including changes in temperature and drought pat-
 L47 terns, wildfire, invasive species, and pests.

Conditions observed in recent years can serve as
 indicators for future change. For example, tempera-
 ture increases have made the current drought in
 the region more severe than the natural droughts of
 the last several centuries. As a result, about 4,600
 square miles of piñon-juniper woodland in the Four
 Corners region of the Southwest have experienced
 substantial die-off of piñon pine trees¹⁶. Record
 wildfires are also being driven by rising tempera-
 tures and related reductions in spring snowpack
 and soil moisture²².

How climate change will affect fire in the South-
 west varies according to location. In general, total
 area burned is projected to increase²³. How this
 plays out at individual locations, however, depends
 on regional changes in temperature and precipita-
 tion, as well as on whether fire in the area is cur-
 rently limited by fuel availability or by rainfall²⁴.
 For example, fires in wetter, forested areas are
 expected to increase in frequency, while areas
 where fire is limited by the availability of fine fuels
 experience decreases²⁴. Climate changes could also
 create subtle shifts in fire behavior, allowing more
 “runaway fires”—fires that are thought to have
 been brought under control, but then rekindle²⁵.
 The magnitude of fire damages, in terms of eco-
 nomic impacts as well as direct endangerment,
 also increases as urban development increasingly
 impinges on forested areas^{24,26}.

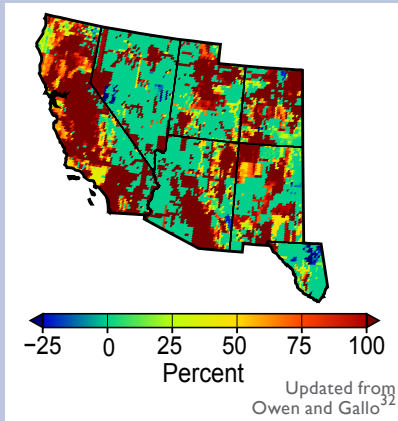
Climate-fire dynamics will also be affected by
 changes in the distribution of ecosystems across the
 Southwest. Increasing temperatures and shifting
 precipitation patterns will drive declines in high-
 elevation ecosystems such as alpine forests and
 tundra^{23,27}. Under higher emissions scenarios[†], high-
 elevation forests in California, for example, are
 projected to decline by 60 to 90 percent before the
 end of the century^{23,28}. At the same time, grasslands
 are projected to expand, another factor likely to
 increase fire risk.

As temperatures rise, some iconic landscapes of the
 Southwest will be greatly altered as species shift
 their ranges northward and upward to cooler cli-
 mates, and fires attack unaccustomed ecosystems
 which lack natural defenses. The Sonoran Desert,
 for example, famous for the saguaro cactus, would
 look very different if more woody species spread

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Change in Population from 1970 to 2007



The map above, showing percentage changes in population, shows the very rapid growth in much of the Southwest. Places with over 100 percent growth increases are shown in maroon. Some of these areas experienced increases over 500 percent.

northward from Mexico into areas currently dominated by succulents (such as cacti) or native grasses²⁹. The desert is already being invaded by red brome and buffle grasses that do well in high temperatures and are native to Africa and the Mediterranean. Not only do these noxious weeds out-compete some native species in the Sonoran Desert, they also fuel hot, cactus-killing fires. As climate changes, therefore,

the Saguaro and Joshua Tree National Parks could end up with far fewer of their namesake plants³⁰. In California, two-thirds of the more than 5,500 native plant species are projected to experience range reductions up to 80 percent before the end of this century under projected warming³¹. In their search for optimal conditions, some species will move uphill, others northward, breaking up present-day ecosystems; those species moving southward to

higher elevations might cut off future migration options as temperatures continue to increase.

The potential for successful plant and animal adaptation to coming change is further hampered by existing regional threats such as human-caused fragmentation of the landscape, invasive species, river-flow reductions, and pollution. Given the mountainous nature of the Southwest, and the associated impediments to species shifting their ranges, climate change likely places other species at risk. Some areas have already been identified as possible refuges, where species at risk could continue to live if these areas were preserved for this purpose³¹. Other rapidly changing landscapes will require major adjustments, not only from plant and animal species, but also the region's ranchers, foresters, and other inhabitants.

Increased frequency and altered timing of flooding will increase risks to people, ecosystems, and infrastructure.

Paradoxically, a warmer atmosphere and an intensified water cycle are likely to mean not only a greater likelihood of drought for the Southwest, but also an increased risk of flooding. Winter precipitation in Arizona, for example, is already becoming more variable, with a trend towards both more frequent extremely dry and extremely

A Biodiversity Hotspot

The Southwest is home to two of the world's 34 designated "biodiversity hotspots". These at-risk regions have two special qualities: they hold unusually large numbers of plant and animal species that are endemic (found nowhere else), and they have already lost over 70 percent of their native vegetation^{33,34}. About half the world's species of plants and land animals occur only in these 34 locations, though they cover just 2.3 percent of the Earth's land surface.

One of these biodiversity hotspots is the Madrean Pine-Oak Woodlands. Once covering 178 square miles, only isolated patches remain, mainly on mountaintops, in the United States. The greatest diversity of pine species in the world grows in this area: 44 of the 110 varieties³⁵, as well as more than 150 species of oak³⁶. Some 5,300 to 6,700 flowering plant species inhabit the ecosystem, and over 500 bird species, 23 of which are endemic. More hummingbirds are found here than anywhere else in the United States. There are 384 species of reptiles, 37 of which are endemic, and 328 species of mammals, six of which are endemic. There are 84 fish species, 18 of which are endemic. Some 200 species of butterfly thrive here, of which 45 are endemic, including the Monarch that migrates 2,500 miles north to Canada each year³⁷. Ecotourism has become the economic driver in many parts of this region, but illegal logging, land clearing for agriculture, urban development, and now climate change threaten the region's viability.

L1 wet winters³⁸. Some water systems rely on smaller
 L2 reservoirs being filled up each year. More frequent
 L3 dry winters suggest an increased risk of these
 L4 systems running short of water. However, a greater
 L5 potential for flooding also means reservoirs cannot
 L6 be filled to capacity as safely in years where that
 L7 is possible. Flooding also causes reservoirs to fill
 L8 with sediment at a faster rate, thus reducing their
 L9 water-storage capacities.

L10
 L11 On a global scale, precipitation patterns are already
 L12 observed to be shifting, with more rain falling in
 L13 heavy downpours that can lead to flooding^{17,39}.
 L14 Rapid landscape transformation due to vegetation
 L15 die-off and wildfire as well as loss of wetlands
 L16 along rivers is also likely to reduce flood-buffering
 L17 capacity. Moreover, increased flood risk in the
 L18 Southwest is likely to result from a combination of
 L19 decreased snow cover on the lower slopes of high
 L20 mountains, and an increased fraction of winter pre-
 L21 cipitation falling as rain and therefore running off
 L22 more rapidly⁴⁰. The increase in rain on snow events
 L23 will also result in rapid runoff and flooding⁴¹.

L24
 L25 The most obvious impact of more frequent flooding
 L26 is a greater risk to human beings and their infra-
 L27 structure. This applies to locations along major riv-
 L28 ers, but also to much broader and highly vulnerable
 L29 areas such as the Sacramento-San Joaquin River
 L30 Delta system. Stretching from the San Francisco
 L31 Bay nearly to the state capital of Sacramento, the
 L32 Sacramento-San Joaquin River Delta and Suisun
 L33 Marsh makes up the largest estuary on the West
 L34 Coast of North America. With its rich soils and
 L35 rapid subsidence rates—in some locations as high
 L36 as two or more feet per decade—the entire Delta
 L37 region is now below mean water level, protected by
 L38 more than a thousand miles of levees and dams⁴².
 L39 Projected changes in the timing and amount of river
 L40 flow, particularly in winter and spring, is estimated
 L41 to more than double the risk of Delta flooding
 L42 events by mid-century, and result in an eight-fold
 L43 increase before the end of the century⁴³. Taking into
 L44 account the additional risk of a major seismic event
 L45 and increases in sea level due to climate change
 L46 over this century, the California Bay-Delta Author-
 L47 ity has concluded that the Delta and Suisun Marsh
 L48 are not sustainable under current practices; efforts
 L49 are underway to identify and implement adaptation
 L50 strategies aimed at reducing these risks⁴³.

Unique tourism and recreation opportunities are likely to suffer.

Tourism and recreation are important aspects of the region’s economy. Increasing temperatures will affect important winter activities such as downhill and cross-country skiing, snowshoeing, and snowmobiling that require snow on the ground. Projections indicate later snow and less snow coverage in ski resort areas, particularly those at lower elevations and in the southern part of the region²⁸. Decreases from 40 to almost 90 percent are likely in end-of-season snowpack under a higher emissions scenario[†] in counties with major ski resorts from New Mexico to California⁴⁴. In addition to shorter seasons, earlier wet snow avalanches—more than six weeks earlier by the end of this century under a higher emissions scenario[†]—could force ski areas to shut down affected runs before the season would otherwise end⁴⁵. Resorts require a certain number of days just to break even; cutting the season short by even a few weeks, particularly if those occur during the lucrative holiday season, could easily render a resort unprofitable.

Even in non-winter months, ecosystem degradation will affect the quality of the experience for hikers, bikers, birders, and others who enjoy the Southwest’s natural beauty. Water sports that depend on the flows of rivers and sufficient water in lakes and reservoirs are already being affected, and much larger changes are expected.

Cities and agriculture face increasing risks.

Resource use in the Southwest is involved in a constant three-way tug of war between preserving natural ecosystems, supplying the needs of rapidly expanding urban areas, and protecting the lucrative agricultural sector, which particularly in California, is largely based on highly temperature- and water-sensitive specialty crops. Urban areas are also sensitive to temperature-related impacts on air quality, electricity demand, and the health of their inhabitants.

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L1 The magnitude of temperature increases projected
 L2 for the Southwest, particularly when combined with
 L3 urban heat island effects for major cities such as
 L4 Phoenix, Albuquerque, Las Vegas, and many Cali-
 L5 fornia cities, represent significant stresses to health,
 L6 electricity, and water supply in a region that already
 L7 experiences very high summer temperatures^{5,28,46}.

L8
 L9 If present-day levels of ozone-producing emissions
 L10 are maintained, rising temperatures also imply
 L11 declining air quality in urban areas such as those
 L12 in California which already experience some of the
 L13 worst air quality in the nation (see *Society* sector)⁴⁷.
 L14 Continued rapid population growth is expected to
 L15 exacerbate these concerns.

L16
 L17 With more intense, longer-lasting heat wave events
 L18 projected to occur over the coming century, de-
 L19 mands for air conditioning are expected to deplete
 L20 electricity supplies, increasing risks of brown- and
 L21 black-outs⁴⁶. Electricity supplies will also be af-
 L22 fected by changes in the timing of river-flows and
 L23 where hydroelectric systems have limited storage
 L24 capacity and reservoirs^{48,49}.

L25
 L26 Much of the region's agriculture will experience
 L27 detrimental impacts in a warmer future, particu-
 L28 larly specialty crops in California such as apri-
 L29 cots, almonds, artichokes, figs, kiwis, olives, and
 L30 walnuts^{50,51}. These and other specialty crops require
 L31 a minimum number of hours at a chilling tempera-

R1 ture threshold in the winter to become dormant
 R2 and set fruit for the following year⁵⁰. Accumulated
 R3 winter chilling hours have already decreased across
 R4 central California and its coastal valleys. This trend
 R5 is projected to continue to the point where chilling
 R6 thresholds for many key crops would no longer be
 R7 met. A steady reduction in winter chilling could
 R8 have serious economic impacts on fruit and nut
 R9 production in the region. California's losses due to
 R10 future climate change are estimated between zero
 R11 and 40 percent for wine and table grapes, almonds,
 R12 oranges, walnuts, and avocados, varying signifi-
 R13 cantly by location. For example, grape-growing
 R14 regions with marginal conditions such as Califor-
 R15 nia's Central Valley are likely to be more negatively
 R16 affected than optimal grape-growing regions such
 R17 as Napa and Sonoma^{39,52}.

R18
 R19 Adaptation strategies for agriculture in Califor-
 R20 nia include more efficient irrigation and shifts in
 R21 cropping patterns, which have the potential to help
 R22 compensate for climate-driven increases in water
 R23 demand for agriculture due to rising tempera-
 R24 tures⁵³. The ability to use groundwater and/or water
 R25 designated for agriculture as backup supplies for
 R26 urban uses in times of severe drought is expected
 R27 to become more important in the future as climate
 R28 change dries out the Southwest; however, these sup-
 R29 plies are at risk of being depleted as urban popula-
 R30 tions swell.

Adaptation: Strategies for Fire

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 L34
 L35 Living with present-day levels of fire risk, along with projected increases in risk, involves actions by
 L36 residents along the urban-forest interface as well as fire and land management officials. Some basic
 L37 strategies for reducing damage to structures due to fires are being encouraged by groups like National
 L38 Firewise Communities, an interagency program that encourages wildfire preparedness measures
 L39 such as creating defensible space around residential structures by thinning trees and brush, choosing
 L40 fire-resistant plants, selecting ignition-resistant building materials and design features, positioning
 L41 structures away from slopes, and working with firefighters to develop emergency plans.

L42
 L43 Additional strategies for responding to the increased risk of fire as climate continues to change could
 L44 include adding fire-fighting resources²⁵, and improving evacuation procedures and communications
 L45 infrastructure. Also important would be regularly updated insights into what the latest climate science
 L46 implies for changes in types, locations, timing, and potential severity of fire risks over seasons to
 L47 decades and beyond; implications for related political, legal, economic, and social institutions; and
 L48 improving prognostications for regeneration of burnt-over areas and the implications for subsequent
 L49 fire risks. Reconsideration of policies that encourage growth of residential developments in or near
 L50 forests is another potential avenue for adaptive strategies²⁶.

