
1 **Decreases in global beer supply due to extreme drought and heat**

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16 **Main Text:**

17 6 pages of text (excluding references, and figure legends)

18 6 pages of method section

19 Figs. 1-5

20
21 **Supplementary Online Materials:**

22 Materials and Methods

23 Supplementary References

24 Supplementary Figures [1-40]

25

26 **Beer is the most popular alcoholic beverage in the world by volume consumed, and yields**
27 **of its main ingredient, barley, decline sharply in periods of extreme drought and heat. Yet,**
28 **although the frequency and severity of drought and heat extremes increase substantially**
29 **in range of future climate scenarios by 5 Earth System models, the vulnerability of beer**
30 **supply to such extremes has never been assessed. Here, we couple a process-based crop**
31 **model (DSSAT) and a global economic model (GTAP) to evaluate the effects of concurrent**
32 **drought and heat extremes projected under a range of future climate scenarios. We find**
33 **that these extreme events may cause substantial decreases in barley yields worldwide.**
34 **Average yield losses range from 3% to 17% depending on the severity of the conditions. In**
35 **turn, decreases in the global supply of barley lead to proportionally larger decreases in**
36 **barley used to make beer, and ultimately result in dramatic regional decreases in beer**
37 **consumption (e.g., -32%) and increases in beer prices (e.g., +193%). Although certainly not**
38 **the most concerning impact of future climate change, climate-related weather extremes**
39 **may threaten the availability and economic accessibility of beer, thereby adding insult to**
40 **injury. [193 words]**

41 Rising incomes are strongly correlated with increases in consumption of resource-
42 intensive animal products (meat and dairy)^{1,2}, processed foods³, and alcoholic beverages⁴
43 (Figs. SI-1 and SI-2). Despite concerns that such trends are not healthy or environmentally
44 sustainable^{2,5,6}, global demand for these foods and beverages will continue to grow as
45 economic development proceeds⁷.

46 At the same time as demand for such products is increasing, climate change threatens to
47 disrupt the supply of agricultural products⁸⁻¹². A substantial and increasingly sophisticated
48 body of research has begun to project the impacts of climate change on world food
49 production, focusing on staple crops of wheat^{13,14}, maize^{15,16}, soybean^{17,18}, and rice^{19,20}.
50 However, if adaptation efforts prioritize necessities, climate change may undermine the
51 availability, stability and access to “luxury” goods to a greater extent than for staple foods.
52 Although some attention has been paid to the potential impacts of climate change on luxury
53 crops such as wine and coffee²¹⁻²³, the impacts of climate change on the most popular
54 alcoholic beverage in the world, beer, have not been carefully evaluated.

55 Here, we assess the vulnerability of the global beer supply to disruptions by extreme
56 drought and heat events that may occur during the 21st-century as the climate changes;
57 these are the main mechanisms by which climate damages crop production^{24,25}. Details of
58 our analytical approach are in Methods and in Section 2 of SI. In summary, we develop an
59 extreme event severity index for barley based on extremes in historical data (1981–2010)
60 and use it to characterize the frequency and severity of concurrent drought and heatwaves
61 (i.e. extreme event severity) under climate change as projected by five different Earth
62 System Models (ESMs) during 2010-2099. Extreme event years are years with concurrent
63 drought and heat (i) during barley growing season and (ii) in areas where barley is now
64 grown which are (iii) more severe than 100-year events in the historical record (as a
65 weighted average of the barley-growing grid cells). Among the 450 modeled years (90 years
66 * 5 ESMs) of each Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP), we identify 17, 77, 80, and

67 139 such extreme event years in RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0, and RCP8.5, respectively. We then
68 model the impacts of these extreme events on barley yields (the primary agricultural input
69 to most beer²⁶) in 34 world regions (most of which are individual countries) using a process-
70 based crop model (DSSAT). Next, we examine the effects of the resulting barley supply
71 shocks on the supply and price of beer in each region using a global economic model (GTAP,
72 a computable general equilibrium model). Finally, we test the sensitivity of our results to key
73 sources of uncertainty including extreme events of different severities, technology and
74 parameter settings in the economic model^{27,28}. Thus, we assess future sudden changes in
75 barley production and subsequent changes in beer consumption across the world in years
76 when extreme drought and heat occur. Furthermore, because such extreme events could
77 occur in any future year and it is not possible to anticipate how agricultural and socio-
78 economic systems will evolve, we analyze impacts based on the recent geographical
79 distribution of barley crops, recent levels of economic development and structure, recent
80 population, and recent demands for barley and beer (i.e. as of 2011, which is the latest
81 available year for data of our economic model).

82 **Extreme events limit beer supply**

83 Fig. 1a shows the relationship between future increases in global mean (land) surface
84 temperatures and the index of extreme event severity (i.e. the prevalence and magnitude of
85 concurrent extreme drought and heat during barley growing season and over barley-growing
86 regions) for each “extreme event year” we identify (Fig. SI-13 shows historical trend). The
87 trend is relatively flat as global mean (land) surface temperatures increase up to $\sim 2^{\circ}\text{C}$, above
88 which there is a rapid increase in extreme event severity up to $\sim 7^{\circ}\text{C}$ of warming (RCP8.5, Fig.
89 1a). The corresponding annual likelihoods of concurrent drought and heatwave in the
90 pathways and models are summarized by the bars in Fig. 1b. On average, the annual
91 likelihood of such extreme events projected by the climate models over the 21st century is
92 $\sim 4\%$ in RCP2.6 (i.e. an emissions pathway likely to avoid 2°C of mean temperature increase
93 during this century), increasing to $\sim 17\text{-}18\%$ in RCP4.5 and RCP6.0 (temperature increases of
94 $3\text{-}4^{\circ}\text{C}$), and up to $\sim 31\%$ in RCP8.5 (temperature increases $>4^{\circ}\text{C}$). Importantly, the likelihoods
95 of extreme events in the second half of the century (top of error bars in Fig. 1b) are
96 considerably greater, with extreme events occurring roughly 1 in every 3 years in RCP6.0
97 (top whisker of orange bar in Fig. 1b) and roughly 1 in every 2 years in RCP8.5 (top whisker
98 of red bar in Fig. 1b) (Figs. SI-14 and SI-15 show spatial pattern).

99 Crop modeling using the weather conditions from each extreme event year projects the
100 average barley yield losses shown in Fig. 2 (see Fig. SI-21 for uncertainty of yield losses). The
101 greatest losses occur in tropical areas such as central and south America and central Africa
102 (Fig. 2). In the same years, yields in temperate barley-growing areas such as the Europe
103 decrease rather moderately (yellow in Fig. 2) or even increase somewhat (blue and dark blue
104 in Fig. 2) including northern parts of the U.S. and northwest Asia.

105 The box-and-whisker plots at the right in Fig. 2 show the global distribution of barley yield
106 changes. Global mean barley yields decrease during extreme event years, with more severe
107 extreme events and yield losses associated with higher emission pathways; average yield

108 reductions during these years are -3%, -9%, -10%, and -17% in RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0, and
109 RCP8.5, respectively. Yield impacts are thus well-matched with increases in extreme event
110 severity (See correlation of yield loss and severity index in Fig. SI-20).

111 Although we assume that the current geographical distribution and area of barley
112 cultivation is maintained, final barley production may not decrease to the same degree as
113 estimated by the weather-driven crop model if agronomic inputs are diverted to barley
114 production during extreme events—labor, machinery, fertilizer, irrigation, etc. (same as
115 Nelson 2014²⁸; Iglesias 2012²⁹). The contribution of these inputs is modeled in the GTAP
116 model as the nonlinear reduction of labor and other inputs. For example, under RCP8.5,
117 increases in labor and capital factors of production mean that an 17% mean decrease of
118 DSSAT-modeled barley yields worldwide (Fig. 2a) corresponds to only a 15% reduction in the
119 global barley production (Fig. 3, “global” panel; also see Figs. SI-21 and SI-22 for
120 national/regional barley yield/production changes).

121 Our economic modeling shows that global- and country-level barley supply declines
122 progressively in more severe extreme event years (i.e., under higher emissions pathways;
123 solid bars in Fig. 3), with largest mean supply decreasing by 27-38% under RCP8.5 in some
124 European countries (Belgium, Czech Republic and Germany). Barley supply changes are not
125 only affected by shifts in barley production, but also by international trade among countries.
126 For example, in some countries whose domestic production decreases (e.g., Brazil, relative
127 area of black hatching), trade between countries mediates the effects of changes in local
128 production on country-specific barley supply, with an increasing share of imported barley
129 being consumed. On the other hand, depending on the magnitude of production losses,
130 barley-exporting countries may conserve their domestic production via reduced net export
131 (e.g., Australia; decreasing length of red hatches in Fig. 3), or increase their exports to meet
132 demand in other countries (e.g., the U.S.); however, the larger decreases in barley supply
133 occur in countries which rely heavily on barley imports (e.g., China, Japan, and Belgium), as
134 demand for such imports exceeds any increases in exports.

135 Changes in barley supply due to extreme events will affect the barley available for making
136 beer somewhat differently in each region as the allocation of barley among livestock feed,
137 beer brewing, and other uses will depend on region-specific prices and demand elasticities
138 as different industries seek to maximize profits (Fig. 3, yellow bars indicate barley allocated
139 to the beer sector). In recent years, the beer sector consumes around 17% of global barley
140 production, but as seen in Fig. 3, this share varies drastically across major beer-producing
141 countries, for example from 83% in Brazil to 9% in Australia. Further analyzing the relative
142 changes in shares of barley use, we find that in most cases barley-to-beer shares shrink more
143 than do barley-to-livestock shares, showing that food commodities (in this case, animals fed
144 on barley) will be prioritized over luxuries such as beer during extreme event years. At the
145 global level, the most severe climate events (i.e. RCP8.5) cause the barley supply to decrease
146 by 15% (ranging from 6-22% in our uncertainty analysis over 25-75 percentiles), but the
147 share of barley-to-beer decreases by 20% (from the initial 17% of all barley down to 14%).
148 Among countries, we see that the reduction in barley consumption in RCP8.5 is greatest in

149 Belgium (38% with uncertainty range of 18-57%), where the barley to beer share decreases
150 by 48% (from the initial 28% to 14%). Therefore, future drought and heat events will not
151 only lower the total availability of barley for most key countries but will also reduce the
152 share of barley used for beer production (also see Figs. SI-24 and SI-25 for changes in
153 absolute and relative shares in all countries/regions).

154 **Global reductions in beer consumption**

155 Ultimately, our modeling suggests that increasingly widespread and severe droughts and
156 heat under climate change will cause considerable disruption in global beer consumption
157 and increase beer prices (Figs. SI-26 and SI-27). During the most severe climate events (e.g.,
158 RCP8.5), our results indicate that global beer consumption would decline by 16% (0-41%)
159 (roughly equal to the U.S.'s total annual beer consumption in recent years), and that beer
160 prices would on average double (100-656% of recent prices). Even in less severe extreme
161 events (e.g., those occurring in RCP2.6 simulations), global beer consumption drops by 4%
162 (0-15%) and prices jump by 15%(0-52%).

163 Fig. 4 shows, for each RCP, ten key countries according to changes in total beer
164 consumption by volume (left column; Figs. 4a-4d), changes in the price of beer (middle
165 column; Figs. 4e-4h), and changes in the per capita consumption of beer (right column; Figs.
166 4i-4l) (see percent changes for all main beer consuming countries in Figs. SI-26 to SI-28;
167 absolute changes in Figs. SI-30 to SI-32). For comparison, consumption data from ten key
168 countries in recent years is shown in Fig. 5 (see Figs. SI-3 to SI-5 for additional details). Total
169 beer consumption decreases most under climate change in the countries that consume the
170 most beer by volume in recent years (Fig. 4a). For example, the volume of beer consumed in
171 China—today the largest consuming country by volume (Fig. 5a)—decreases by more than
172 any other country as the severity of extreme events increase (we model a decrease in
173 consumption in China of 8.9% under RCP8.5, equivalent to 4.34 billion liters, Figs. 4b-d).
174 Meanwhile, some countries with smaller total beer consumption face prodigious reductions
175 in their beer consumption: the volume of beer consumed in Argentina falls by 0.27 billion
176 liter (0.03-0.44 billion liter), equivalent to a 32% (0-56%) reduction, during more severe
177 climate events (i.e. RCP8.5; Fig. 4d); even in the least severe climate events (i.e. in RCP2.6;
178 Fig. 4b), total beer consumption in Argentina and Canada decreases by 16% (2-27%) and 11%
179 (2-17%) respectively.

180 Countries where beer is currently most expensive (e.g., Australia and Japan) are not
181 necessarily where future price shocks will be the greatest (Figs. 4e-4h and Fig 5b). Changes
182 in the price of beer in a country relates to consumers' ability and willingness to pay more for
183 beer rather than consume less, such that the largest price increases are concentrated in
184 relatively affluent and historically beer-loving countries. For reference, the \$4.84 (\$1.07-
185 8.49) increase in the price of a five-hundred-mL bottle projected for Ireland under RCP8.5 is
186 equivalent to a price hike of \$20.61 (\$4.55-36.15) per 6-pack of 12-ounce beers i.e., about
187 193% (43-338%) increase to pre-event price (12 US fl oz \approx 355 mL) (Fig. 4h).

188 At the level of individuals in each country, the greatest reductions tend to better align
189 with those countries that consume the most beer per capita in recent years (Figs. 4i-4l). For

190 example, the highest levels of annual per capita consumption, in Ireland and Czech Republic,
191 are today 276 and 274 five-hundred-mL bottles, respectively (equivalent to ~5 bottles per
192 week or a bit more than a 6-pack per week). The projected impacts of climate change would
193 cause a decrease in Ireland and Czech Republic of 81(47-125) and 81 (55-117) bottles per
194 year under RCP8.5 (Figs. 4l). Proportional but somewhat smaller absolute decreases occur in
195 other countries, including Germany, Austria, and Belgium.

196 **Impacts of changes in mean climate**

197 We also assessed the impacts of changes in mean climate on barley yield and beer supply
198 globally and at the level of specific countries (Figs. SI-33 to SI-37). Under RCP2.6, gradual
199 changes in temperature and precipitation reduce global barley yields slightly (Fig. SI-34). In
200 higher warming pathways, changes in mean temperatures and precipitation substantially
201 decrease barley yields, though not as much as during years with extreme drought and heat
202 (Fig. SI-33). Over the long term, adaptation efforts may be able to offset mean damages to
203 barley production from climate change through changes in agronomic practices, cultivars, or
204 barley growing areas, however extreme events are difficult to manage under any climate
205 regime. Although the magnitude of potential climate adaptations in the agricultural sector
206 remains a topic of much debate³⁰, it is clear that extreme climatic events will pose serious
207 supply disruptions. For example, assuming that adaptation efforts are perfectly successful in
208 preventing yield decreases due to changes in mean climate, extreme events will still result in
209 increasingly large production losses, and the frequency and severity of these events
210 increases with temperature increase (Fig. 1 and Fig. SI-33). Thus, our focus here is on the
211 impact of extreme events that could occur in any year.

212 **Uncertainties and limitations**

213 We perform a sensitivity analysis to test the relative importance of different input
214 parameters (SI section 3.5). We vary each input by +/- 10% in turn, observing the effect on
215 global beer consumption. The results are shown in Figs. SI-38 and SI-39. The efficiency with
216 which barley is converted to beer (the 'technology' bar) has the largest effect across all the
217 emissions pathways, followed by physical shocks of, e.g., drought/heat severity and
218 stockpiling, with elasticities and other economic parameters.

219 In addition, our methodological approach in this study has some important limitations
220 deserving discussion, including our use of a single crop model to estimate barley yields, and
221 the fact that our estimates of impact are based on the current agricultural practices, global
222 economy, population, and prevailing dietary/beverage preferences.

223 A single crop model (DSSAT) is used to evaluate the effects of drought and heat on barley
224 yields. The DSSAT model is known to underestimate yield damage caused by spikelet sterility
225 and leaf senescence under droughts and heatwaves^{31,32}, and neglects the possibility that
226 pest and disease attacks could also happen concurrently³³. However, numerous studies
227 demonstrate model skill in reproducing historical barley yields³⁴⁻³⁸, and a Europe-focused
228 model intercomparison shows that yields projected by the DSSAT model are near the mean
229 of nine crop models³⁹.

230 Our results reflect impacts of extreme events as though they happened in today’s world.
231 For example, we do not assess the effect of future changes in barley agriculture, such as
232 increases in farm productivity due to new technology; the use of different, more drought- or
233 heat-tolerant barley cultivars; or increases in barley stockpiling (we review challenges of
234 stockpiling barley for beer in SI section 2.4). Similarly, global population and socio-economic
235 conditions are held constant. Further studies may incorporate these factors for a more
236 complete picture of beer supply in the future; as a first step, we seek to isolate the effects of
237 extreme climatic events holding all other conditions constant.

238 Limiting assumptions about socio-economic change is also a common approach to isolate
239 the influence of climate change^{40,41}, although changes to actual future beer consumption will
240 also be influenced by changes in economic structure, trade, income, demographic, and
241 lifestyle changes⁴² in each region. The Shared Socio-economic Pathways (SSPs)^{43,44} project
242 continued population and economic growth: e.g., in the “middle-of-the-road” SSP2, global
243 population increases by 35% in 2050 relative to 2010 and global GDP triples over the same
244 period. In the countries with the greatest total beer consumption in recent years, such as
245 China, Brazil and Russia, SSP2 projects GDP to increase by a factor of 3-6. Under such
246 growth, per capita beer demand is also likely to increase. Similarly, population in the
247 countries whose per capita beer consumption is highest in recent years, such as Ireland,
248 Belgium and Czech Republic, increases by 10%-40% in SSP2, which will probably also lead to
249 an increase in the total beer demand. Although we do not explicitly model these trends, they
250 are likely to exacerbate the beer shortages and related price increases that we model during
251 barley crop failures.

252 **Conclusions**

253 In conclusion, concurrent extremes of drought and heat can be anticipated to cause both
254 substantial decreases in beer consumption and increases in beer price, and the frequency and
255 severity of these extreme events is correlated with future increases in mean surface
256 temperature increases under climate change. Although the effects on beer may seem modest
257 in comparison to many of the other—some life-threatening—impacts of climate change, there
258 is nonetheless something fundamental in the cross-cultural appreciation of beer. For perhaps
259 many millennia^{45,46}, and still today for many people, beer has been an important component
260 of social gatherings and human celebration. Thus, although it may be argued that consuming
261 less beer isn’t itself disastrous—and may even have health benefits, there is nevertheless little
262 doubt that for millions of people around the world, the climate impacts on beer consumption
263 will add insult to injury.

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366 **Methods**

367 **Framework of integrated model.** Our integrated model (frameworks are in Figs. SI-Fig.6 and SI-Fig.7)
368 links Earth System Models (ESMs, including GFDL-ESM2M, HadGEM2-ES, IPSL-CM5A-LR, MIROC-ESM-
369 CHEM, NorESM1-M) with a crop model (DSSAT) and a global economic model (GTAP). The ESMs
370 estimate the severity and frequency of extreme events under four scenarios (RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0,
371 and RCP8.5). DSSAT simulates global changes in barley yield during extreme event years. GTAP, which
372 contains a detailed classification of the agricultural and food sectors, simulates the changes in global
373 beer consumption and prices based on barley yield shocks.

374

375 **Source of historical and future weather data.** For historical data (1981-2010), daily weather data
376 come from the AgMERRA dataset. The AgMERRA is a post-processing of the NASA Modern-Era
377 Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA) suitable for agricultural modeling,
378 featuring consistent, daily time series data and the data demonstrates a similar pattern to other
379 observed historical products, and also substantially improves the representation of daily precipitation
380 distributions of extreme events⁴⁷. The data of growth duration and planting region of barley comes
381 from Sacks et al, 2010⁴⁸. For future data (2010-2099), the climate scenario data was extracted from
382 output archives of five ESMs under four Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP2.6, RCP4.5,
383 RCP6.0, RCP8.5) retrieved from CMIP website (<http://cmip-pcmdi.llnl.gov/cmip5>). The data was
384 interpolated into 0.5°x0.5° horizontal resolution and bias-corrected with respect to historical
385 observation by Hempel et al.⁴⁹ to remove systematic errors.

386

387 **Extreme years selected using earth system models (ESMs).**

388 First, standardized precipitation index (*SPI*)⁵⁰ and extreme degree days 30°C+ (*EDD*) are calculated for each
389 grid cell ('*g*') and each year ('*y*') in global barley planting region during growth period of barley using the
390 historical data from 1981-2010.

391 Second, the annual global barley drought index (*DI*) is calculated using the following equation based on
392 the standard precipitation index (*SPI*):

393
$$DI_y = \sum_{g=1}^n A_g \times SPI_{g,y}, \text{ when } SPI_{g,y} \leq -1.0 \quad (1)$$

394 where DI_y is global barley drought index for year y ; A_g is the scaling factor equal to the ratio of the area for
395 grid cell ' g ' to total area in global barley planting region; $SPI_{g,y}$ is the standardized precipitation index for
396 grid cell ' g ' and year ' y '; n is the total number of grid cells for planting barley.

397 For extreme heat, the annual global barley heat index (*HI*) is calculated using the similar method based
398 on extreme degree days 30°C+ (*EDD*). The threshold (30°C) is in accord with the existing literature that
399 temperature exposure in excess of will be harmful to the growth of barley⁵¹⁻⁵³.

400 Third, we fit the annual global barley drought and heat indices with Pearson-III distributions (the "best"
401 universal model for describing probability distribution of extreme events⁵⁴; also see K-S test in section
402 2.2 of SI), and use the fitted curves to derive the global barley drought index DI^{100} and heat index HI^{100}
403 corresponding to 1 in 100 year probability.

404 Next, using the same method in step 1 and 2 to calculate the global barley drought index (DI_y) and heat
405 index (HI_y) for 4 RCPs and 5 ESMs in the future (2010-2099).

406 Finally, we select extreme event years when both extreme drought ($DI_y \geq DI^{100}$) and extreme heat ($HI_y \geq$
 407 HI^{100}) concurrently strike in the same year. Then we calculate an integrated extreme event index (EEI_y) for
 408 the selected years based on the following equation:
 409

$$410 \quad EEI_y = \begin{cases} \frac{DI_y - DI^{100}}{DI^{100}} + \frac{HI_y - HI^{100}}{HI^{100}}, & \text{when } DI_y \geq DI^{100} \text{ and } HI_y \geq HI^{100} \\ -1, & \text{when } DI_y < DI^{100} \text{ or } HI_y < HI^{100} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

411 All modeled extreme event years where $EEI_y \geq 0$ are selected to simulate global barley yield using the crop
 412 model and subsequently beer supply and price using the economic model (details in SI section 2.2).
 413

414 **Simulation of barley yield change using crop model (DSSAT).**

415 According to the extreme event years selected above, we simulate global barley yield change due
 416 to extreme events compared with the average yield during 1981-2010 on gridded level by the CSM-
 417 CERES-Barley, which is part of the Decision Support System for Agrotechnology Transfer (DSSAT)
 418 version 4.6⁵⁵. The DSSAT-Barley has been tested in various environments around the globe. For
 419 example, barley-specific analyses using DSSAT were performed in Czech Republic which shows that
 420 the coefficient of determination between simulated and experimental yields equals 0.88³⁴; Other
 421 applications in Argentina, Central Europe, Ireland and West Asia all provided the reliability of CERES-
 422 Barley in different environments with root-mean-square-error (RMSE) for yield less than 15%³⁵⁻³⁸. A
 423 Europe-focused model intercomparison also shows that yields projected by the DSSAT model are near
 424 the mean of nine crop models³⁹.

425 Before feeding into the input database, we adapted the source code of DSSAT for parallel
 426 computations at a 0.5°x0.5° grid resolution on High Performance Computers (HPC), and then gridded
 427 formatted inputs used to drive the model include daily weather data, soil parameters, crop calendar
 428 data and management information:

- 429 – Weather data inputs for DSSAT include maximum and minimum temperatures, precipitation,
 430 total radiation, and humidity, derived from the sources described above.
- 431 – Soil parameters (soil texture, bulk density, PH, organic carbon content, and fraction of calcium
 432 carbonate for each of five 20 cm thick soil layers) were obtained from International Soil Profile
 433 Data set (WISE)⁵⁶. Soil parameters were allocated to each simulation grid cell based on the
 434 spatially dominant soil type taken from the digital Soil Map of the World (DSMW) (FAO,
 435 1990)⁵⁷. Soil retention and hydraulic parameters were calculated using pedotransfer
 436 functions⁵⁸. Soil parameters for organic soils missing in WISE data set were adopted from
 437 Boogaart et al (1998)⁵⁹.
- 438 – Crop calendar data set was obtained from the Center for Sustainability and Global
 439 Environment (SAGE). This data set is the result of digitizing and georeferencing existing
 440 observations of crop planting and harvesting dates, at a resolution of 5'⁵⁰. The data set
 441 provides ranges of crop planting and harvesting dates for different crops in each grid.
- 442 – Management information requires fertilizer applications, irrigation, and other management
 443 practices. A crop-specific gridded data set (by 5') of nitrogen fertilizer application for the world
 444 (around the years of 1999 or 2000) was used in our simulation to setup current fertilizer

445 application rate for barley in each grid cell, with phosphorous and potash assuming unlimited.
446 This dataset was developed by integrating national and subnational fertilizer application data
447 from a variety of sources^{5,60,61}.

448 Then we first model barley yields across the world during the historical period (1981-2010). Barley
449 yield was simulated as 0.5°x0.5° grid scale, with two main production systems (spring barley and
450 winter barley; regarding how to select spring and winter barley in each grid, see detail in section 2.3
451 of SI) and two water management scenarios (fully irrigated and rainfed). Historical national barley
452 production is aggregated from simulated gridded yield, and weighted by grid cell barley areas around
453 2000 from the gridded global dataset by combining two data products of Monfreda et al (2008)⁶² and
454 Spatial Production Allocation Model⁶³. Second, we adopted the barley genetic parameters of specific
455 cultivar from previous works such as Trnka et al., (2004)³⁴ as the initial parameters. But applying
456 parameters of a few specific cultivars to the whole world is more complicated than it seems, for
457 example, cultivars from Europe may not be able to germinate in tropical and semi-tropic conditions and
458 vice versa. As lacking of experimental observation, we tuned and calibrated model parameters related
459 to crop genotype characteristics so that the simulated yields from 1981-2010 were comparable to the
460 statistical data (Figs. SI-17 to SI-19) following the Xiong et al., (2014)⁶⁴ method (See detail in section
461 2.3 of SI). Third, barley yields across the world are simulated during extreme event years. Fourth,
462 global and national yields were aggregated from gridded values. Finally, national/regional and global
463 yield change is calculated, which is the deviation from the national/regional or global yield average of
464 1981-2010(details in SI section 2.3).

465

466 **Simulation of beer consumption and price change using a global economic model (GTAP).**

467 The barley yield changes from the crop model are used to carry out simulations using GTAP for
468 changes in barley production and the impact on beer production and price. GTAP is a well-known and
469 widely used global general equilibrium economic model developed by the Department of Agricultural
470 Economics at Purdue University^{65,66}. The model assumes cost minimization by producers and utility
471 maximization by consumers. In a competitive market setup, prices adjust until supplies and demands
472 of all commodities equalize. The model and database have been extensively used in areas like climate
473 change, food security policy, energy, poverty and migration, etc.

474 Our simulations use a comparative static analysis approach to simulate the impact of climate
475 changes on beer supply and prices under current economic conditions (e.g. as in Ciscar et al., 2011⁴⁰;
476 Hsiang et al., 2017⁴¹). Utilizing current economic conditions has the advantage of minimizing
477 assumptions and model uncertainties related to future economic conditions. For using GTAP model to
478 realize the purpose of the study:

479 First, we improved the database by splitting barley and beer from existing sectors in the model.
480 Barley was split out from “other grains” sector and beer from “beverage and tobacco” sector using
481 the routines from Splitcom method⁶⁷. In this procedure, the old flows of data both at national and
482 trade level are allocated between the new flows using weights. The national weights include the
483 division of each unsplit user's use of the original split commodity among the new commodities; the
484 division of unsplit inputs to the original industry between the new industries; the splitting of new
485 industry's use of each new commodity. Barley use is mainly shared between feed, food, processing

486 and others (seed, waste, etc.). In our process, we assume that processing is mainly covered by beer
 487 production, so we allocate all the “processing” share of barley as input to beer sector. The newly
 488 created beer sector is allocated to wholesalers/retailors, restaurants/bars and private household
 489 consumption (we got the beer consumed by “food” and other sectors from FAOSTAT⁶⁸. Then the
 490 proportion of beer used by “food” sector was allocated to three sectors i.e. “wholesalers/retailors,
 491 restaurants/bars and private household consumption” based on the respective share of the original
 492 “b_t” sector by these three sectors). The “own use” (defined as self-use of a sector of its own output,
 493 e.g., seed used to sow “barley” or electricity used by the “electricity” sector) of barley was taken from
 494 the “seed”; for beer the own use was kept to zero as beer doesn’t have self-use. Moreover, we have
 495 covered only barley-based beer in our “beer” sector, while the beer produced from other feedstocks
 496 (wheat, corn etc.) are placed under “otherbt” sector. Trade shares allocate the original slice of the
 497 split commodity into the new commodity for all elements of basic price value, tax, and margin. Finally,
 498 we used the RAS method for balancing the newly created database. The values for the national shares
 499 matrix were obtained from FAOSTAT⁶⁸ (Table SI-1). The trade shares matrix was calculated based on
 500 the data from UN Comtrade Database⁶⁹.

501 Second, our sectoral aggregation scheme for GTAP ensures that all the competing and
 502 complimenting sectors for both barley and beer are present in the most disaggregated form. For
 503 example, for barley, other crops compete for inputs of production and both livestock and households
 504 (in addition to beer production) are major users of barley (see SI Appendix Table A1). Beer is
 505 consumed locally by wholesalers/retailors (covered in “Trade” sector), restaurants/bars (covered in
 506 “Recreational services” sector), and bought by private consumers (represented by the default “Private
 507 Households”). For regional aggregation, we kept the details for all the main beer producing,
 508 consuming, and trading regions, both in volumetric and per capita terms (see SI Appendix Table A2).

509 Third, the yield shocks for barley were incorporated into GTAP model via changes in land use
 510 efficiency for the land used by barley production in each region (parameter “afe” in Eq. 3), the
 511 conventional method for translating yield perturbations into economic models^{28, 29, 70}. Land use
 512 efficiency affects both price and demand for land in the following two equations.

513 Equation of Price of primary factor composite in each sector/region (The following equations are in
 514 percentage form, same here after):

$$515 \quad pva_{j,r} = \sum_{k=1}^n (SVA_{k,j,r} * (pfe_{k,j,r} - afe_{k,j,r})) \quad (3)$$

517 where

518 j = production commodity (industry) ; r = region; k = endowment commodity

519 pva = firms' price of value added in industry j of region r

520 pfe = firms' price for endowment commodity k in ind. j, region r

521 SVA = share of k in total value added in j in r

522 afe = sector/region specific average rate of primary factor k augmenting technology change

523 In the improved model, to reflect the difficulty of substitution between land and other key
 524 agronomic inputs like labor and capital, we surveyed the existing literature in this area. The literature
 525 shows that in case of sudden events, it is hard for farmers to substitute land with other key inputs for
 526

527 crop production and is reflected by the lower value of the elasticity of substitution between land and
 528 the other inputs. Therefore, for barely production in the extreme event years, we choose a fraction of
 529 the original value. Specifically, we changed the elasticity of substitution between endowments
 530 (ESUBVA, Eq. 4, and SI Fig. 8) for barely to a low level of original value according to previous vast
 531 literature (for details see SI section 2.4). Considering the uncertainty of the key parameter, we have
 532 further analyzed the sensitivity analysis for the key parameter (SI section 2.5 and 3.5)

533 Endowment commodities' input to each regions/industries:

534

$$535 \quad qfe_{k,j,r} = -afe_{k,j,r} + qva_{j,r} - ESUBVA_j * (pfe_{k,j,r} - afe_{k,j,r} - pva_{j,r}) \quad (4)$$

536 where

537 qfe = demand for endowment k for use in industry j in region r

538 qva = value added in industry j of region r

539 $ESUBVA$ = elasticity of substitution between capital/labor/land, in production of value added in j

540 In the original GTAP model, capital and labor can freely move between production activities, while
 541 for land and natural resources such movement is largely restricted (Eq. 5, 6; SI Fig.9). By default,
 542 different crops can adjust their demand for land within some margin (with transformation elasticity
 543 $ETRAE = -1$). However, under the drought and extreme heat conditions of the real world, people may
 544 first want to ensure their food security by expanding the area for staple food crops (like wheat) rather
 545 than that of barley, resulting in reduced barley planted area. In this study, we made a less severe
 546 assumption that land shares will stay unchanged for barley and other competing crops, considering
 547 the total supply of land can hardly expand in short time. While we assume that labor, machinery and
 548 other inputs to barley (e.g., fertilizers, irrigation, etc.) can be augmented by increasing the working
 549 hours or additional investment. So, in our improved model, the acreage of land used for barley (or any
 550 other crops) in the normal year is still used for barley (or any other crops) in during extreme event
 551 year ($ETRAE = 0$).

552 Allocation of the sluggish endowments across sectors:

$$553 \quad qoes_{k,j,r} = qo_{k,r} + ETRAE_k * (pm_{k,r} - pmes_{k,j,r}) \quad (5)$$

554 where

555 $qoes$ = supply of sluggish endowment k used by j in r

556 qo = industry output of commodity k in region r

557 $ETRAE$ = Elasticity of transformation for sluggish primary factor endowments (non-positive, by
 558 definition)

559 pm = market price of commodity k in region r

560 $pmes$ = market price of sluggish endowment k used by j in r

561 Composite price for sluggish endowments:

$$562 \quad pm_{k,r} = \sum_{j=1}^n (REVSHR_{k,j,r} * pmes_{k,j,r}) \quad (6)$$

563 where

564 $REVSHR$ = share of endowment use by different industries

565 Mobile endowments (capital and labor) were allowed to behave normally as they can be provided
 566 via higher investment under the extreme event (Eq. 7, 8).

567 Allocation of the mobile endowments across sectors:

568
$$qo_{k,r} = \sum_{j=1}^n (SHREM_{k,j,r} * qfe_{k,j,r}) \quad (7)$$

569 where

570 SHREM = share of mobile endowment k used by sector j at market prices

571 Composite price for mobile endowments:

572
$$pm_{k,r} = VFM_{k,j,r} / qfe_{k,j,r} \quad (8)$$

573

574 where

575 VFM = Producer expenditure on endowment k by industry j in r valued at market prices

576 We also add the changes in barley foreign trade to production for each country thereby simulating
577 the changes in barley supply.

578 Finally, for simulating the changes in beer consumption and price after experiencing the barley
579 production change, we consider regional differences in allocation of barley to all users (beer, feed,
580 food and others). In the normal year, barley shares to different uses come from FAOSTAT⁵⁷ (see SI
581 Table 1). In extreme event year, barley is distributed to different users according to the profit
582 maximization principle. Final beer consumption for each country also contains net beer import.

583

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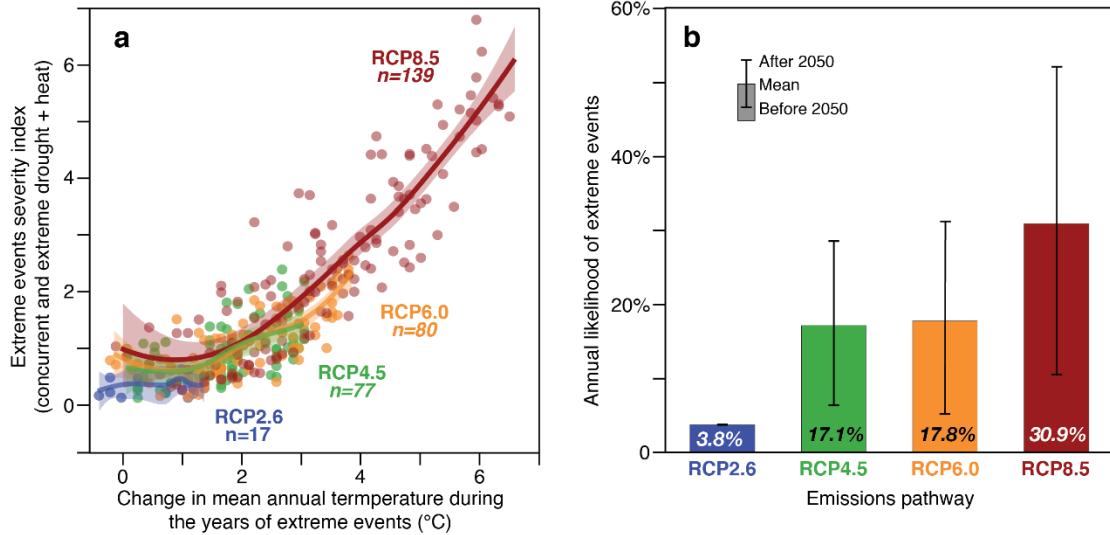
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Figure 1 | Extreme event severity and frequency under future climate change. **a**, The relationship between change in global mean (land) surface temperature in year of extreme event (relative to the mean of observation from 1981-2010) and the severity of concurrent drought and heat, where the curve is binomial regression curve with 95% confidence interval. **b**, Annual likelihood of a concurrent extreme events under each of the Representative Concentration Pathways as projected by five ESM models. Top and bottom whiskers indicate the annual likelihood of extreme events after 2050 and before 2050.

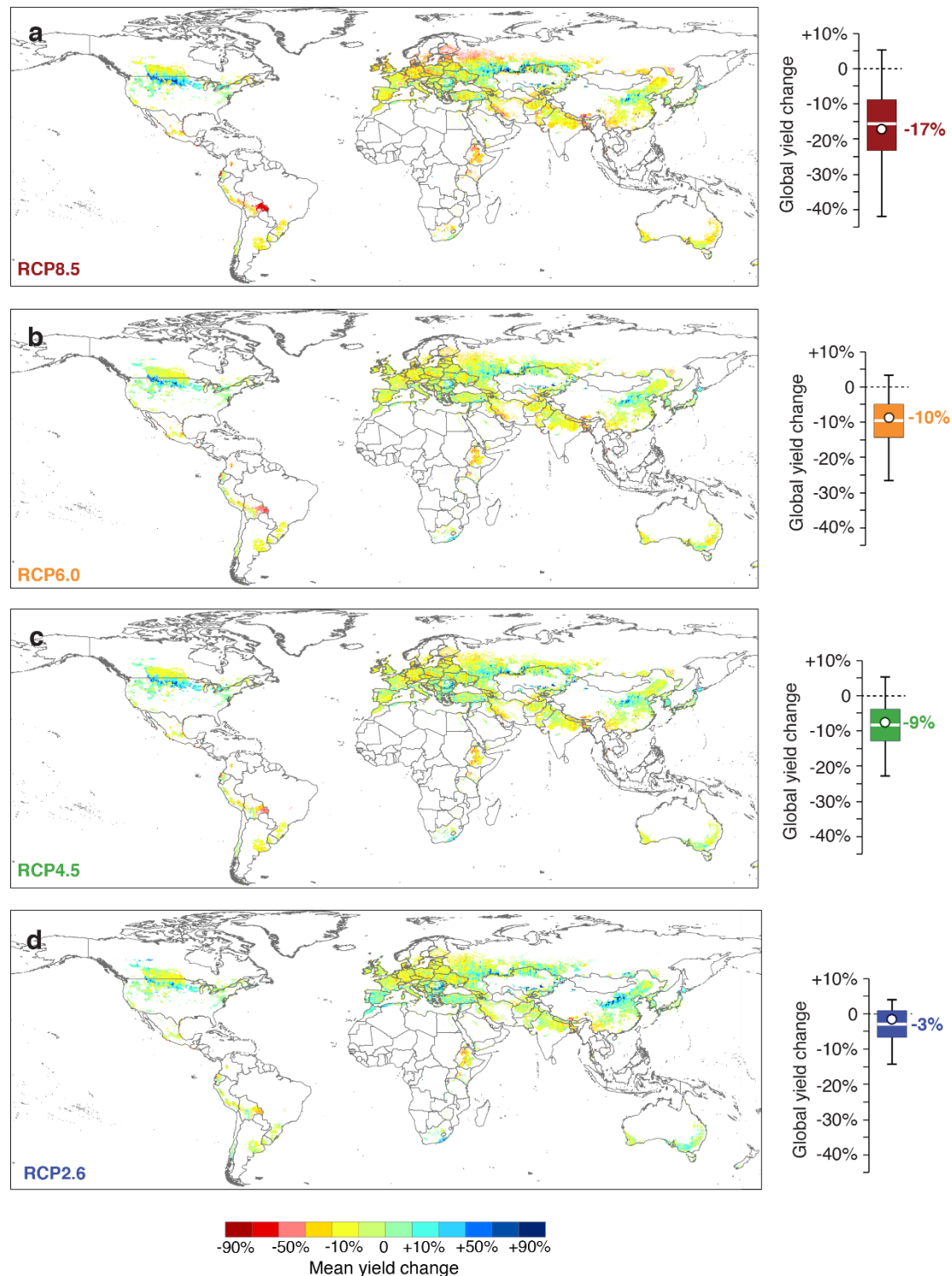
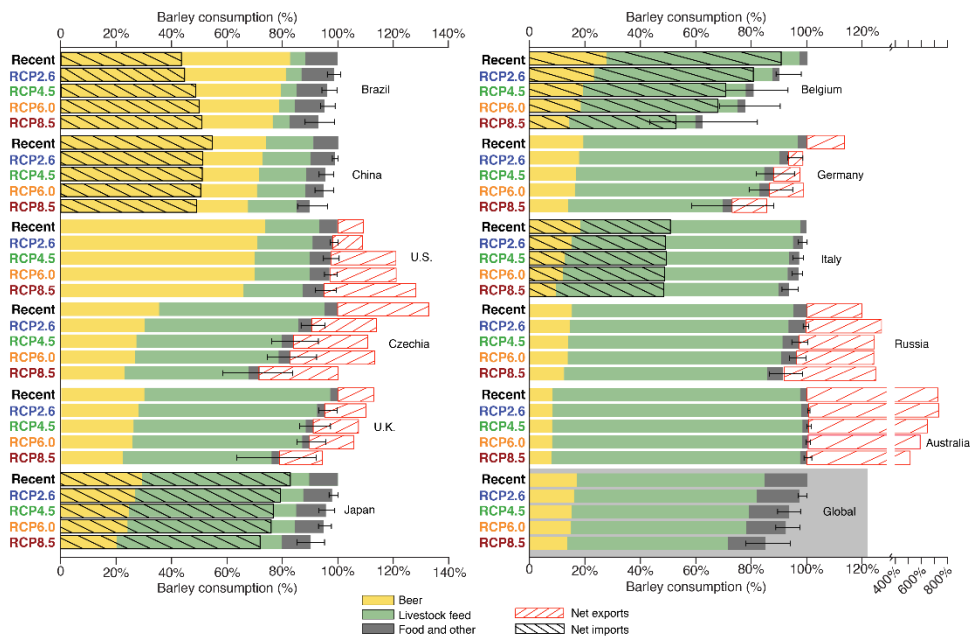


Figure 2 | Average barley yield shocks during extreme event years. Gridded average yield change with 0.5°x0.5° resolution across all predictions of extreme event years (left) and global aggregated change in barley yield (right) under RCP8.5 (a), RCP6.0 (b), RCP4.5 (c) and RCP2.6 (d), compared with the average yield from 1981-2010. Box-and-whisker plots to the right show the range of global changes, with white points indicating the mean, dark lines indicating the median, top and bottoms of the box at the 25th and 75th percentiles, and whiskers indicating the minimum and maximum of all data. We map all grid cells where barley harvested area exceeds 1% of grid cell area. The grid cell

655 barley areas are from the gridded global dataset around 2000 by combining two data products of
656 Monfreda et al (2008)⁶² and Spatial Production Allocation Model⁶³



657

658

Figure 3 | Barley consumption by country and globally under future climate change. For each

659

country and the global aggregate, the bars show the total consumption of barley averaged over all

660

extreme event years during 2010-2099, and the share for different barley uses. Whiskers indicate the

661

25th and 75th percentiles of all total consumption changes. Hatching indicates the fraction of

662

consumption imported on net (black) and production exported on net (red), if any. The source of the

663

share in recent year is GTAP database. Here the selected countries are a mix of countries having one

664

or more of significant barley export, import and/or countries with large barley

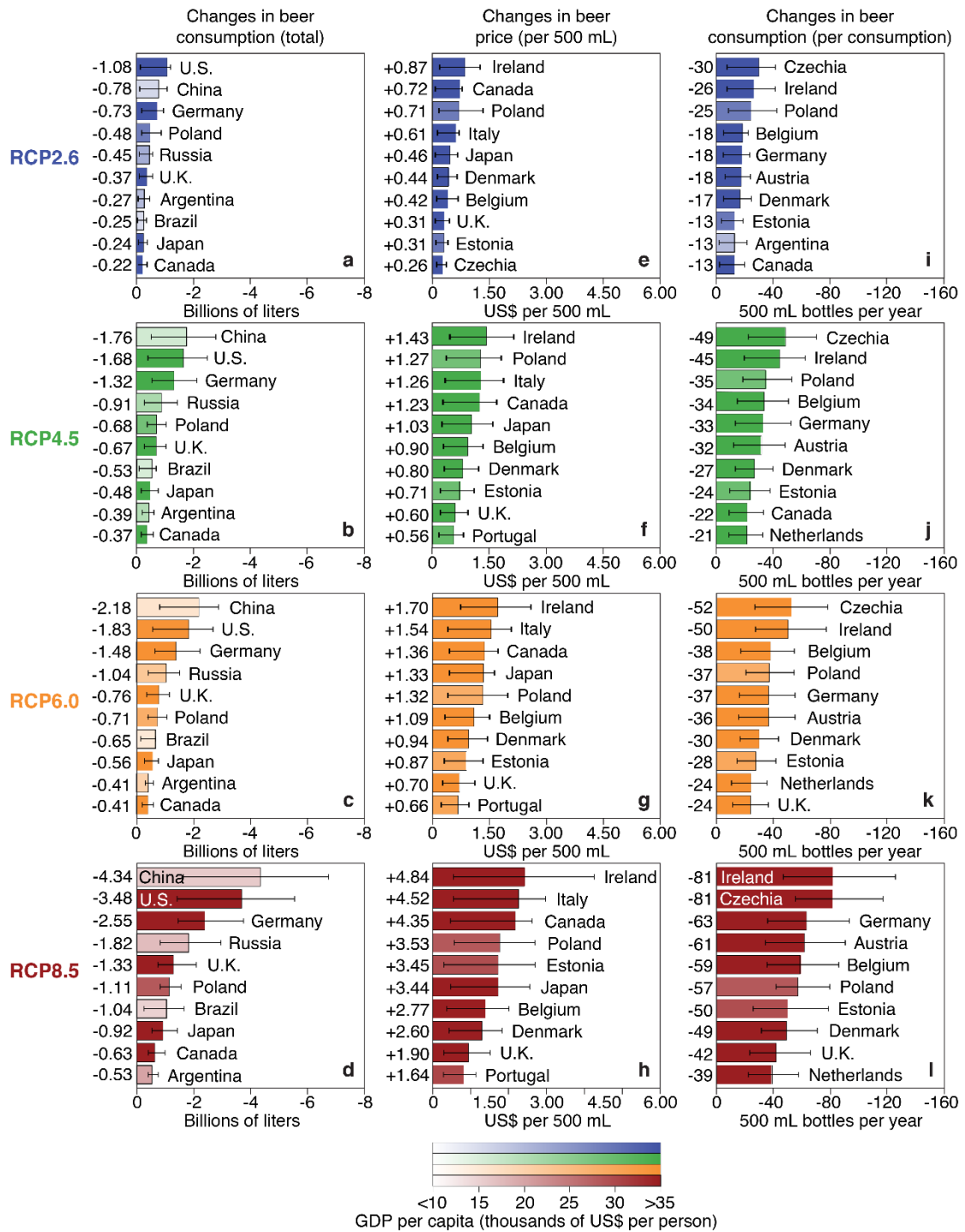
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production/consumption. Figs. SI-24 and SI-25 show the 'absolute' and 'relative' share for all the

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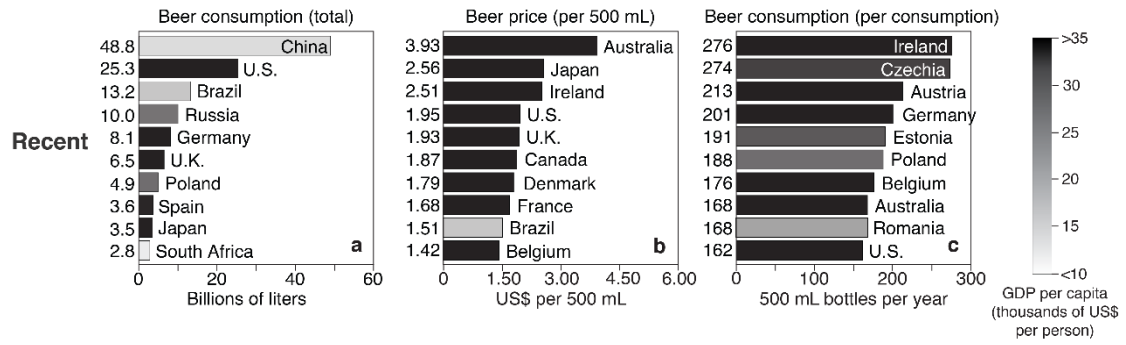
countries.

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Figure 4 | Changes in beer consumption and price under increasingly severe drought-heat events. Each column of figures present results for top 10 most affected countries i.e., (a-d) by absolute change in the volume of beer consumed, (e-h) US\$ change in beer price, and (i-l) beer consumption per capita per annum. The severity of extreme events increases from top to bottom. The length of the bars for each RCP show average changes of all modeled extreme event years 2010-2099. Whiskers indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles of all changes (See percent changes with full range for all main beer consuming countries in Figs. SI-26 to 28; absolute changes in Figs. SI-30 to 32).



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Figure 5 | Beer consumption and price in recent years. The data source of total beer consumption and population is FAOSTAT⁶⁸. The beer price is collected from Numbeo's survey of cost of living (www.numbeo.com).