

Comparison of CMIP5 and CMIP6 high-resolution simulations for soil erosion response to climate and land use changes over China

Xuerou Weng¹, Jinxin Zhu¹, Dagang Wang², Shuo Wang³, and Jianxiu Qiu¹

¹Sun Yat-Sen University

²Sun Yat-sen Univerisity

³The Hong Kong Ploytechnic University

December 21, 2022

Abstract

Soil erosion is impacted by climate and land use changes which need to be quantified to assess future risks and to design efficient soil conservation measures. The Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) simulations have provided the basis for most such assessments and yet are being gradually superseded by more recent simulations from Phase 6 (CMIP6). The High-Resolution Model Intercomparison Project (HighResMIP) experiment in CMIP6 adds value over the downscaled CMIP5 simulations by improving process representation in the global climate system. Our study investigates and compares high-resolution model simulations from CMIP6 against CMIP5. Model evaluation for the reference period (1986–2005) indicates that the CMIP6 model outperforms the regional climate models (RCM) from CMIP5 for better circulation simulations, but both overestimate soil erosion in China. The average projected soil erosion increases by 27.85 from CMIP5 and 20.03 t·hm⁻²·a⁻¹ from the CMIP6 model with remarkable geographical heterogeneity. Soil erosion is projected to decrease in black soil regions, purple soil regions, and karst regions from CMIP6 results, which is opposite to the increasing trend found in those regions from CMIP5. Land use and climatic changes contributed 51.68% and -5.92% respectively from CMIP5 simulations while 35.74% and -13.77% from CMIP6 to the increased soil erosion rate. The negative contribution of land use change is gradually intensified with the CMIP6 model representing finer-scale processes of converting land-use type into cropland, pasture, and urban land. Overall, the CMIP6 projections provide a less severe soil erosion situation while addressing the need to pursue soil conservation more.

Hosted file

950304_0_art_file_10521667_rmvsfh.docx available at <https://authorea.com/users/568310/articles/614208-comparison-of-cmip5-and-cmip6-high-resolution-simulations-for-soil-erosion-response-to-climate-and-land-use-changes-over-china>

1 **Comparison of CMIP5 and CMIP6 high-resolution simulations for**
2 **soil erosion response to climate and land use changes over China**

3
4 **X. R. Weng¹, J. X. Zhu^{1,*}, D. G. Wang^{1,*}, S. Wang², and J. X. Qiu¹**

5
6 ¹ School of Geography and Planning, Sun Yat-Sen University, Guangzhou, China.

7 ² Department of Land Surveying and Geo-Informatics, The Hong Kong Polytechnic
8 University, Hong Kong, China.

9 Corresponding author: Jinxin Zhu (zhujx29@mail.sysu.edu.cn); Dagang Wang
10 (wangdag@mail.sysu.edu.cn)

11 **Key Points:**

- 12 • A comparison of soil erosion impacts using Coupled Model Intercomparison
13 Project version 5 (CMIP5) and Phase 6 (CMIP6) high-resolution models is
14 performed over China.
- 15 • CMIP6 model outperforms downscaled model from CMIP5 for better
16 circulation simulations in terms of validation and project a less severe soil
17 erosion future.
- 18 • It is recommended to update soil erosion impact studies performed using
19 CMIP5 with the CMIP6 high-resolution models.
- 20

21 Abstract

22 Soil erosion is impacted by climate and land use changes which need to be quantified to assess future
23 risks and to design efficient soil conservation measures. The Coupled Model Intercomparison Project
24 Phase 5 (CMIP5) simulations have provided the basis for most such assessments and yet are being
25 gradually superseded by more recent simulations from Phase 6 (CMIP6). The High-Resolution Model
26 Intercomparison Project (HighResMIP) experiment in CMIP6 adds value over the downscaled CMIP5
27 simulations by improving process representation in the global climate system. Our study investigates
28 and compares high-resolution model simulations from CMIP6 against CMIP5. Model evaluation for
29 the reference period (1986–2005) indicates that the CMIP6 model outperforms the regional climate
30 models (RCM) from CMIP5 for better circulation simulations, but both overestimate soil erosion in
31 China. The average projected soil erosion for 2031–2050 relative to the historical period increases by
32 27.85 from CMIP5 and 20.03 $\text{t}\cdot\text{hm}^{-2}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$ from the CMIP6 model with remarkable geographical
33 heterogeneity. Soil erosion is projected to decrease in the black soil region, purple soil region, and karst
34 region from CMIP6 results, which is opposite to the increasing trend found in those regions from
35 CMIP5. Land use and climatic changes contributed 51.68% and -5.92% respectively from CMIP5
36 simulations while 35.74% and -13.77% from CMIP6 to the increased soil erosion rate. The negative
37 contribution of land use change is gradually intensified with the CMIP6 model representing finer-scale
38 processes of converting land-use type into cropland, pasture, and urban land. Overall, we assess that the
39 CMIP6 projections provide a less severe soil erosion situation while addressing the need to pursue soil
40 conservation more.

41

42 Plain Language Summary

43 Global warming is intensifying the hydrological cycle significantly, which in turn impacts soil erosion
44 by water worldwide. It is essential to quantify these impacts to assess future risk and vulnerability.
45 High-resolution climate models coupled with erosion models are the optimal tools to achieve this. The
46 models from Coupled Model Intercomparison Project version 5 (CMIP5) have been downscaled to
47 assess the impacts of climate change on rainfall erosivity over the past decade. The more recent sixth
48 phase (CMIP6) has started to directly generate high-resolution projections, which brings the necessity
49 of comparison between CMIP5 and CMIP6 in terms of performance and projection differences. Results
50 show that the CMIP6 model outperforms the downscaled model from CMIP5 in terms of validation and
51 projects a less severe soil erosion future. The high-resolution CMIP6 model adds value over the
52 downscaled CMIP5 model by improving process representation in the global climate system. Soil
53 erosion is projected to decrease in the black soil region, purple soil region, and karst region from
54 CMIP6 results while the increase from CMIP5.

55

56 **1 Introduction**

57 According to the Global Assessment of Land Degradation (GLADA), about 1.1 billion hectares of
58 global land have been degraded by soil erosion (Bai et al., 2008). Erosion removes the fertile topsoil,
59 where most organic matter and nutrients are available. Naipal et al., (2018) estimated that accelerated
60 soil erosion due to human activities has led to a total potential soil organic carbon loss of 74 Pg during
61 the period 1850–2005, of which 79%–85% occurred in agricultural land and grassland. Moreover, soil
62 erosion has been reported to cause annual socio-economic losses of approximately 40 billion dollars
63 globally (Oldeman et al., 1990; Crosson, 1995). Now, coupled with the rapid changes in land use and
64 climate, these problems will worsen. A recent study found that both land use and climate change
65 contributing to global soil erosion by water would increase by 30%–66% by 2070 (Borrelli et al.,
66 2020). Hence, projecting this variability well in advance can more effectively guide the government to
67 take measures to control soil degradation, protect the ecological environment, and provide a theoretical
68 reference for realizing the sustainable utilization of land resources. A modeling approach, climate
69 models with different climate scenarios combined with erosion models, is a common and useful way to
70 project soil erosion under climate change (Zhi et al., 2011). However, the previous model simulation is
71 based on the framework of CMIP5. With the introduction of new CMIP6 and SSP scenarios, the issue
72 of revisiting soil erosion simulations and projections is raised.

73 Over the past few decades, progress in climate modeling has provided new insight regarding soil
74 erosion. The potential effects of climate change on erosion have been studied using different integrated
75 modeling frameworks consisting of hydrologic/erosion, climate, and land use models (Maeda et al.,
76 2010b; Borrelli et al., 2020; Eekhout and Vente, 2022; Luetzenburg et al., 2020; Maeda et al., 2010a;
77 Pal et al., 2021). In order to incorporate the impacts of future climate change, a multi-model, multi-
78 scenario approach with various global climate models (GCMs) is often combined with the Revised
79 Universal Soil Loss Equation (RUSLE). GCMs can simulate the effects of greenhouse gas (GHG)
80 emissions on climatic systems and realistically predict future conditions (Hartmann, 2016). The
81 essential climatic variables obtained from GCMs simulations are used as input data to RUSLE to assess
82 the possible impacts of climate change on soil erosion. These GCMs are available publicly as part of
83 the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP). However, the resolution of GCMs is too coarse to
84 feed the erosion models (Rivington et al., 2008). The resolution of the model plays an important role in
85 the reliability of the final results. Meanwhile, extreme events are responsible for high soil erosion rates,
86 the GCMs do not capture these extremes. The high-resolution regional climate models (RCMs) are
87 superior to that GCMs to capture a more realistic local forcing such as complex topography and land
88 surface heterogeneity (Nikiema et al., 2017; Vizy et al., 2013). Recently, the continuous efforts to
89 develop model resolution and physics have shown advancement in rainfall and land use simulation in
90 the CMIP6 models relative to the CMIP5 and CMIP3 models. The CMIP6 model forecasts additional
91 scenarios using shared socioeconomic pathways (SSPs) (O'Neill et al., 2016; Schlund et al., 2020).
92 These updated climate projections take socioeconomic developments, technological advancement, and
93 other environmental factors (such as land use) into account (Moss et al., 2010), enabling the
94 development of new scenarios to better evaluate the consequences of climate change policies. The
95 CMIP6 is the ideal framework for conducting studies of a large multi-model ensemble with a higher
96 resolution. The High-Resolution Model Intercomparison Project (HighResMIP) experiments within the
97 CMIP6 models (Haarsma et al., 2016), for the first time, were conducted with resolutions of at least 50
98 km in the atmosphere and 0.25° in the ocean. These experiments provide an opportunity to understand
99 the hydrological cycle and its variability based on global high-resolution multi-model ensemble

100 simulation. Compared with CMIP5, CMIP6 (coarse resolution and HighResMIP experiments) models
101 show an improvement in bias reduction of extreme precipitation over Asia (Dong and Dong, 2021),
102 particularly for HighResMIP in the simulation of precipitation distribution in China (Xin et al., 2021).
103 Therefore, the investigation of the impact of land use and climate change on soil erosion based on these
104 recently released model projections and the horizontal comparison with the results of CMIP5 high-
105 resolution RCMs has not been performed. Hence, more studies showing the benefit obtained from the
106 improvement of CMIP6 compared with the CMIP5 framework affecting the research on soil erosion
107 are needed.

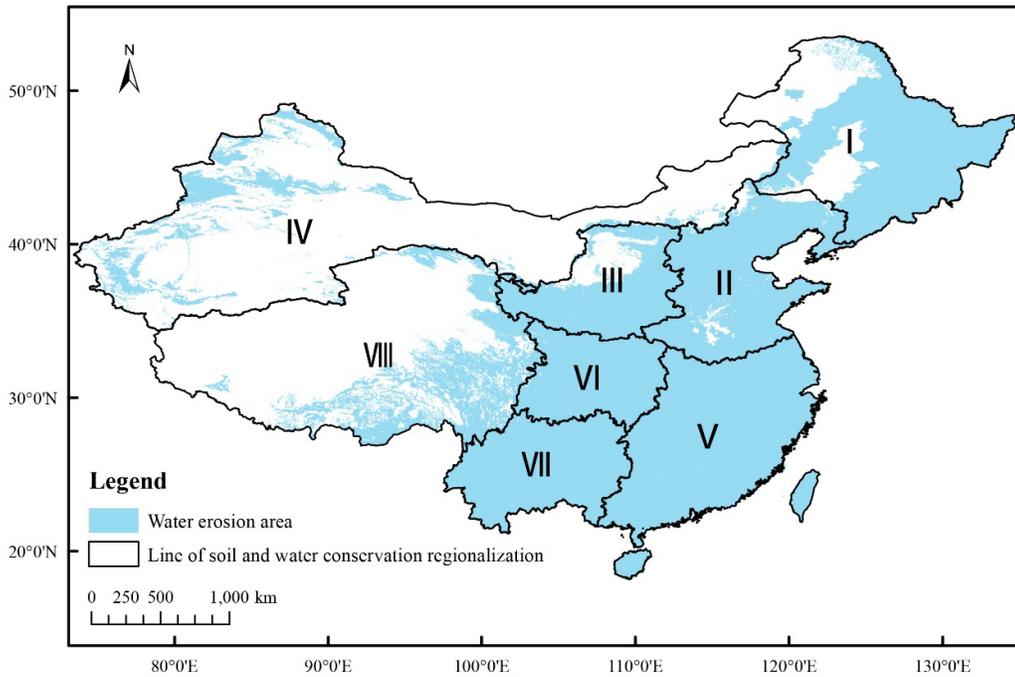
108 This study has two main objectives: (1) Through the selected CMIP6 high-resolution GCM and
109 CMIP5 high-resolution RCM, combined with land use change data and RUSLE model, the impacts and
110 differences of climate change and land use change on soil erosion in China under the two frameworks
111 are comprehensively analyzed and compared. The future estimation of soil and water loss under RCPS
112 and SSPs scenarios is studied. (2) The control variable method is used to quantitatively analyze the
113 difference in the contribution rate of climate change and land use change to soil erosion under the two
114 frameworks, and to analyze the underlying mechanism and reasons. This effort will assist local
115 authorities to pinpoint current and future problematic soil erosion rates at the highest resolution
116 possible, in support of measures to conserve soil resources. Assessment of the simulated relationship
117 from the recent two generations of CMIP will also provide new insight for the scientific community in
118 model development.

119 **2 Data and Methods**

120 **2.1 Study area**

121 China is located on the east side of the Eurasian continent and the west coast of the Pacific Ocean,
122 geographically ranging from 73°33'E to 135°05'E and 3°51'N to 53°33'N. The huge undulation of
123 topography, numerous mountains and hills, and complex and diverse strata, especially the Quaternary
124 loose sediments and slightly cemented clastic rocks that are widely covered, provide conditions for soil
125 erosion. Precipitation is the basic dynamic condition for the occurrence and development of hydraulic
126 erosion. China has obvious monsoons and strong continental characteristics. Precipitation is
127 concentrated, rain and heat are in the same season, and the water and heat conditions from the southeast
128 coast to the northwest inland are different in space. The precipitation in most parts of the country is
129 concentrated from June to August, and the precipitation decreases from southeast to northwest. The
130 surface composition, soil, and its parent material are the material sources of soil erosion. The soil types
131 in China are diverse and show a zonal distribution pattern, which is closely related to the occurrence
132 and distribution of soil erosion. Vegetation is an important factor affecting soil erosion. The zonal
133 distribution of vegetation in China is obvious. Due to the gradual reduction of precipitation from
134 coastal to inland, the landscape features from forest to grassland and then to the desert are formed,
135 reflecting the law of regional differentiation from coastal to inland. In addition, China's social and
136 economic development is unbalanced, the economic development intensity in the eastern region is
137 high, a large amount of agricultural land is converted into construction land, and artificial soil erosion
138 is relatively serious. The problems of grassland overload and land desertification and degradation are
139 prominent in the western region. Excessive land reclamation still exists in Southwest China, and soil
140 erosion of sloping farmland is very serious. Frequent rainstorms, dense population distribution, and
141 frequent production activities lead to obvious differences in soil erosion types and distributions in
142 China. According to the Soil Erosion Classification Standard of China established by the Ministry of
143 Water Resources, the study area is divided into the following eight water and soil conservation areas, as

144 shown in Fig.1



145

146 Fig.1 The eight soil and water conservation areas in mainland China: Northeast China black soil
 147 region (I), North China mountainous region (II), Northwest China Loess Plateau region (III), North
 148 China sandstorm region (IV), South China red soil region (V), Southwest China purple soil region (VI),
 149 Southwest China karst region (VII) and Qinghai-Tibet Plateau region (VIII)

150 2.2 Datasets

151 The simulated daily precipitation data are retrieved from the MPI-M-MPI-ESM-LR of CORDEX
 152 (<https://esg-dn1.nsc.liu.se/search/cordex/>) and MPI-ESM1.2-XR of CMIP6 ([https://esgf-](https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/)
 153 [node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/](https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/)). Both models have been developed by the Max Planck Institute for
 154 Meteorology (MPI-M), Germany. They shared the same parent dynamical core structure,
 155 parameterizations, simulation variant, and spatial resolution (50km). MPI-ESM1.2-XR is obtained
 156 from the control runs of a model taking part in the High-Resolution Model Intercomparison Project
 157 (HighResMIP) within the CMIP6 protocol. HighResMIP aims to study improvement in climate model
 158 simulation performance with increased horizontal resolution and to reduce simulation uncertainty based
 159 on multi-model ensemble simulation (Haarsma et al., 2016). High-resolution models are more capable
 160 of representing diurnally forced circulations and modulated rainfall due to orography (Boyle and Klein,
 161 2010). We mainly focus on the high-emission pathways (SSP5-8.5 for CMIP6 and RCP8.5 for CMIP5),
 162 because they can allow us to respond to climate extremes to high-level warming (e.g., 3 °C above pre-
 163 industrial). SSP5-8.5 for CMIP6 and RCP8.5 for CMIP5 are high-emission scenarios with the same
 164 radiative forcing of 8.5 W/m² by 2100. Although SSP5-8.5 shows about 20% higher CO₂ emissions by
 165 the end of the century and lower emissions of other greenhouse gases, they are close to each other.

166 To assess the ability of the models to simulate precipitation, daily precipitation in 1986-2005 from
 167 the APHRODITE (Asian Precipitation-Highly Resolved Observational Data Integration Towards
 168 Evaluation of Water Resources) dataset is used. APHRODITE, with a spatial resolution of 0.25°×
 169 0.25°, is a high-resolution and long-time (since 1951) land precipitation gridding data covering the
 170 entire Asian region. At present, the dataset has been applied to the research on climate change and the

171 water cycle, and the test of high-resolution model results (Xu et al., 2016; Du et al., 2022; Tan et al.,
172 2021).

173 The dataset of land use includes four periods 1990, 1995, 2000, and 2005. The Landsat TM/ETM
174 remote sensing images of each period are used as the main data source and generated through manual
175 visual interpretation. DEM data is derived from the Resource Data Cloud Platform
176 (<http://www.resdc.cn/>). The soil data and Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) data are
177 developed by the National Tibetan Plateau Data Center (<http://data.tpdc.ac.cn/>). Land-Use
178 Harmonization 1 (LUH1) (<https://doi.org/10.3334/ORNLDAAAC/1248>) and Land-Use Harmonization 2
179 (LUH2) (<https://luh.umd.edu/>) are used for the CMIP5 and CMIP6 simulations of land use states. In
180 preparation for CMIP5, the LUH1(Chini et al., 2014) project provided harmonized land use data for the
181 years 1500–2100 at $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ resolution. Land use categories of cropland, pasture, primary land,
182 secondary (recovering) land, urban land, and underlying annual land-use transitions are included.
183 Building upon previous work from CMIP5, for which the original LUH1 dataset was used, LUH2
184 (Hurt et al., 2020) has updated inputs from the History of the Global Environment database (HYDE)
185 for historical agricultural patterns, a new historical wood harvest reconstruction, new maps, and 20
186 rates of shifting cultivation, extends the timespan to 850-2100 at $0.25 \times 0.25^\circ$, and constrains the forest
187 cover gross transitions using remote sensing observations. In addition, LUH2 includes 12 different
188 land-use types (i.e. forested and non-forested primary and secondary land, cropland of C3 annual, C3
189 perennial, C4 annual, C4 perennial, and C3 nitrogen-fixing, urban, managed pasture and rangeland)
190 and includes transitions between all combinations of these categories.

191 2.3 Methodology

192 The RUSLE was developed in the 1980s by the U.S. Department of Agriculture Agricultural
193 Research Service (USDA-ARS) (Renard et al., 1991) (Renard, 1997). Supported by the geographical
194 information system (GIS) and remote sensing (RS) technologies, the RUSLE model has been
195 extensively used to estimate long-term annual soil erosion under many scenarios (Millward & Mersey,
196 1999) and at multiple scales (Wang et al., 2021). Studies have confirmed the applicability and
197 reliability of the model in China (Wang et al., 2021). This paper adopted the RUSLE model to estimate
198 the soil erosion in China from 1986-2005 and 2031-2050 (Tang et al., 2015; Xue et al., 2018; Ghosal
199 and Das, 2020), and the model can be expressed as follows:

$$200 \quad A = R \times LS \times K \times C \times P$$

201 A is the annual soil erosion ($\text{t} \cdot \text{hm}^{-2} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$). R is the rainfall erosivity factor ($\text{MJ} \cdot \text{mm} \cdot \text{hm}^{-2} \cdot \text{h}^{-1} \cdot \text{a}^{-1}$). A
202 universal rainfall erosivity calculation method based on daily rainfall data from 71 representative
203 meteorological stations across China is applied in this study (Zhang et al., 2002). K is the soil
204 erodibility factor ($\text{t} \cdot \text{hm}^2 \cdot \text{h} \cdot \text{MJ}^{-1} \cdot \text{hm}^{-2} \cdot \text{mm}^{-1}$), which can be calculated using the formula proposed by
205 (Williams, 1990). C is the cover management factor and the C factor in this paper was updated based
206 on the method (Knijff et al., 2000). LS is the average topographical parameter that combines the slope
207 length and steepness (dimensionless) by referring to the method of (Liu et al., 1994). P is the
208 conservation support practice factor.

209 3 Results

210 3.1 Historical simulation of soil erosion

211 Fig.2 shows the spatial distribution of annual mean soil erosion over China derived from
212 observation data, CMIP5, and CMIP6 models for the period from 1986-2005. The figure of observation
213 shows that annual soil erosion is relatively low over Northeast China's black soil region, increasing
214 southeastward and reaching the maximum in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau region and Northwest China

215 Loess Plateau region. The study area's average annual total soil erosion for the base period (1986 to
 216 2005) is $55.89 \text{ t}\cdot\text{hm}^{-2}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$. Compared to observation data, CMIPs simulate the annual soil erosion in a
 217 similar spatial pattern, both of which can capture regional and local behaviors of high-intensity soil
 218 erosion across China. There is no apparent improvement in CMIP6 models in capturing the spatial
 219 pattern and direction of changes in the observation data (Gusain et al., 2020). However, the average soil
 220 erosion of 1986-2005 in CMIP5 and CMIP6 are $364.79, 477.97 \text{ t}\cdot\text{hm}^{-2}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$. The simulated soil erosion is
 221 higher than the observations over most areas, especially in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau region. This is
 222 mainly because the observation data is obtained by interpolating the measured rainfall data of the
 223 rainfall stations, but there are few rainfall stations in the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau which could lead to
 224 great uncertainty in the interpolation.

225 An overestimation of rainfall erosivity (34%-71% higher) and underestimation of the conservation
 226 support practice factor (16%-19% lower) for all of China are estimated by CMIPs compared with the
 227 observations. Only the spatial patterns of rainfall erosivity in CMIP6 for a few areas are closer to the
 228 observations than in CMIP5. The RCM of CMIP5 fails to capture the orographic effects and local
 229 change in the landmass that influences the spatial variability and distribution of rainfall (Zhu et al.,
 230 2020; Jain et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2022). This will lead to an underestimation of extreme rainfall by
 231 the RCM. Latest studies have also shown that an improvement is observed in CMIP6 over CMIP5 in
 232 simulating the spatial variability of average mean precipitation over the dry areas and high rainfall
 233 receiving areas (Gusain et al., 2020). CMIP6 simulation results pay more attention to the influence of
 234 rainfall erosivity on soil erosion, especially the critical soil and water loss caused by heavy rainfall
 235 events. For the P factor, the decreased difference from observation is found in arid and semiarid regions
 236 of China from CMIP5 to CMIP6. The new version of Land-Use Harmonization 2 is completely updated
 237 with new inputs and includes higher spatial resolution, increased detail (12 states vs. 5 and all
 238 associated transitions), and added management layers (Hurt et al., 2020). The newly added
 239 management factors for CMIP6 are conducive to better evaluating the P factor.

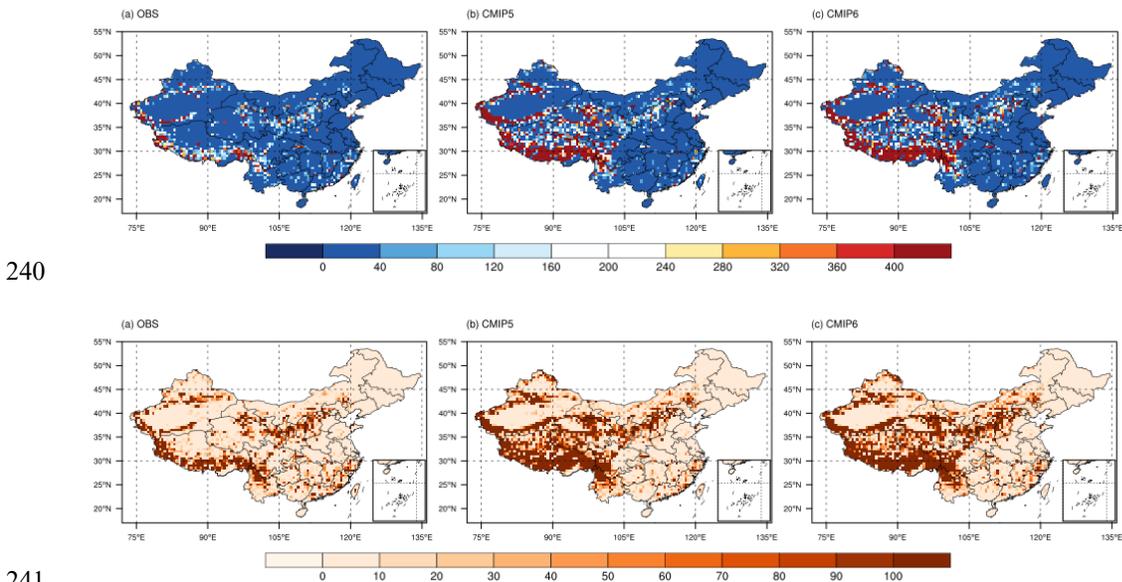


Fig.2 Spatial patterns of soil erosion (unit: $\text{t}\cdot\text{km}^{-2}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$) from (a) observation, (b) CMIP5 model and (c) CMIP6 model over China for 1986-2005

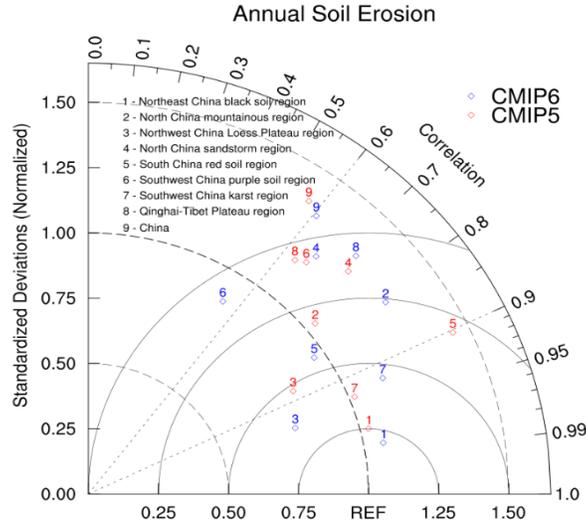
Tab.1 Factors A, R, and P of each area from (a) observation, (b) CMIP5 model, and (c) CMIP6

245 model over China for 1986-2005

Area	A ($t \cdot km^{-2} \cdot a^{-1}$)			R ($MJ \cdot mm \cdot hm^{-2} \cdot h^{-1} \cdot a^{-1}$)			P		
	OBS	CMIP5	CMIP6	OBS	CMIP5	CMIP6	OBS	CMIP5	CMIP6
I	0.85	2.03	2.21	548.85	1723.70	1663.90	0.79	0.71	0.69
II	20.64	33.19	30.12	1226.00	1432.80	2520.70	0.59	0.60	0.33
III	71.53	96.75	141.72	416.00	667.76	1251.30	0.76	0.54	0.53
IV	61.20	380.49	243.83	51.57	236.27	205.27	0.97	0.75	0.84
V	30.19	19.13	19.21	4670.40	3330.30	3752.20	0.70	0.69	0.61
VI	24.97	24.39	66.85	1947.70	1373.90	3294.60	0.73	0.67	0.68
VII	42.40	62.07	74.79	1930.00	2740.60	2490.60	0.85	0.72	0.77
VIII	148.34	1288.00	2174.50	196.37	1466.80	1780.40	0.98	0.65	0.80
China	55.89	364.79	477.97	1004.30	1347.60	1718.50	0.85	0.69	0.71

246

247 This study uses a Taylor diagram (Taylor, 2001) to quantify the pattern similarity between two
248 variables (i.e., soil erosion from observations and CMIPs). The Taylor diagram provides a concise
249 statistic summary of how well the pattern distribution of the two variables matches. The diagram
250 visualizes the degree of correlation (pattern correlation coefficient, PCC), centered root mean square
251 error (RMSE), and the ratio of spatial standard deviation (RSD). In this study, the Taylor diagram was
252 used to visualize and evaluate the soil erosion performance of CMIP5 and CMIP6 over each erosion
253 region. The ability of the two CMIP models to estimate annual soil erosion is presented as Taylor
254 diagrams (Fig.3). 'REF' on the x-axis represents the observation data (observation). As shown in Fig.3,
255 both CMIP5 and CMIP6 offer good performance in reproducing soil erosion in the Northeast China
256 black soil region and the Southwest China karst region. The PCCs between the simulation and
257 observation are greater than 0.90, the centered RMSEs are generally less than 0.25, and the RSDs
258 mainly vary from 1 to 1.25. Results of CMIPs have lower PCCs and higher RMSEs over the North
259 China sandstorm region, Southwest China purple soil region, and Qinghai-Tibet Plateau region
260 compared with the results of the other five regions. Overall, CMIP6 shows slight improvements,
261 compared to CMIP5, in simulating the spatial pattern for soil erosion, especially in the Northeast China
262 black soil region, and Northwest China Loess Plateau region with higher PCCs and lower RSDs. In
263 conclusion, compared with CMIP5, limited improvements in reproducing soil erosion are found in
264 CMIP6. The high-resolution GCM results of CMIP6 are closer to the observed values than the high-
265 resolution RCM results of CORDEX. This suggests that the most recent GCM offered by CMIP6 can
266 enhance local simulation details while better capturing the relationship between large-scale and
267 mesoscale circulation. Therefore, CMIP6's high-resolution GCM can provide more reliable climate
268 system simulation and projection. The horizontal resolution of the model does not change from the
269 RCM of CMIP5 to the GCM of CMIP6. In terms of relative aspects, the better performance of climate
270 models in capturing climate variables and soil erosion characteristics is more likely associated with the
271 representation of physical processes in climate models from CMIP6 (Su et al., 2021).



272

273

274

Fig.3 Taylor diagram of the spatial distribution of annual soil erosion for CMIP5 and CMIP6 models

275

3.2 Future projections of soil erosion

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

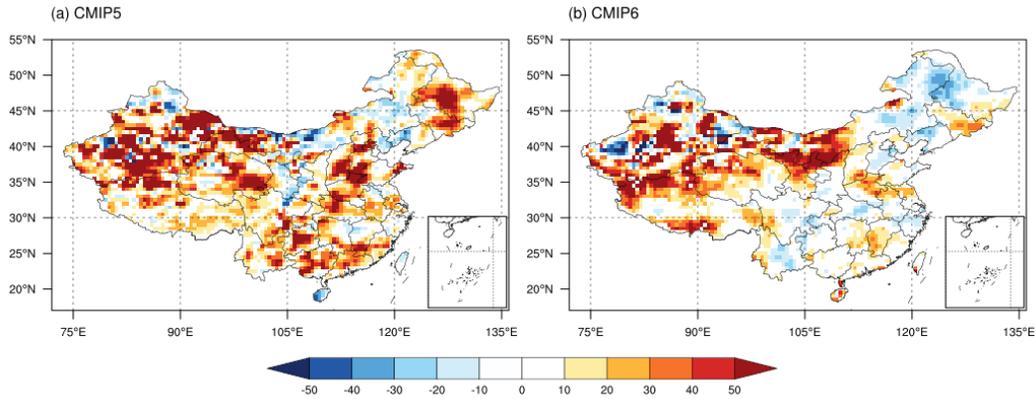
289

290

291

292

The CMIP5 and CMIP6 outputs of soil erosion were used to estimate the projected percentage of change for the near future (2031-2050) compared to the base period over China (Fig.4). In terms of the spatial distribution of changes, results show that almost all regions expect an increase of soil erosion under the RCP8.5 and SSP5-8.5. They both projected the largest increase in soil erosion over the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau region. But CMIP6 projected a less amount of positive change in soil erosion than projected by CMIP5 models. Relative to 1986-2005, areal-mean soil erosion would increase by approximately 27.85 and 20.03 $t \cdot hm^{-2} \cdot a^{-1}$ over China for RCP8.5 and SSP5-8.5, respectively. Furthermore, the change in soil erosion in a few parts of eastern China is not consistent between the two CMIPs. According to the latest version CMIP6 and the extreme scenario SSP5-8.5, soil erosion over the Northeast China black soil region, Southwest China purple soil region, and Southwest China karst region signalize 4.54%, 2.88%, and 1.62% decrease for 2031-2050 relative to 1986-2005. Contrary to CMIP6, CMIP5 estimates that these areas will increase by 15-21% under the RCP8.5 climate scenario. Under the framework of CMIP6, LUH2 pays more attention to the influence of management factors on land use. The introduction of human disturbance and the slow increase of rainfall erosivity result in the intensified soil erosion simulated by CMIP6 is less than that simulated by CMIP5. CMIP6 model takes more parameters into account, so its simulated soil erosion change needs more attention.



293

294

295

Fig.4 Relative percentage changes for 2031-2050 relative to 1986-2005 in annual soil erosion (unit: $t \cdot km^{-2} \cdot a^{-1}$) projected by CMIP5 and CMIP6 models

296

3.3 Effects of climate and land use change on soil erosion

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

320

321

322

323

324

325

326

In the process of projecting changes in soil erosion in the study area, it is considered that climate warming affects the R and P factors in the RUSLE model mainly by changing rainfall and land use types. Through the control variate method, the contribution rates of rainfall and land use to soil erosion changes can be calculated by exploring one factor while remaining the other unchanged. The results are shown in the following Fig.5. According to the CMIP5 simulation, the contribution rate of rainfall change to the aggravation of soil erosion in the study area is as high as 51.68%, while the contribution rate of land use is only -5.92%. Both climate change and land use change affect soil erosion and its spatial distribution. The impact of climate change is far greater than that of land use change. Compared with CMIP5, CMIP6 amplifies the negative effect of land use, with a contribution rate of -13.77%, while reducing the positive effect of rainfall, with a contribution rate of only 35.74%.

For rainfall erosivity, regions showing obvious differences between CMIP6 and CMIP5 are mainly located in a few areas of the Southwest China karst region, Northwest China Loess Plateau region, and Northeast China black soil region, where the magnitude of the difference is respectively 75.34%, 74.63%, and 63.53%. Among them, it is worth noting that the future response of extreme rainfall to warming in the Northwest China Loess Plateau region by CMIP6 (72.67%) is large than by CMIP5 (-1.96%). CMIP6 and CMIP5 simulated climate changes in these three regions have opposite contributions to soil erosion. This is related to the opposite variation of erosive rainfall simulated by the two models. CMIP6 simulation results show that the erosive rainfall in the Southwest China karst region and Northeast China black soil region during 2031-2050 will decrease compared with the historical period, and in other areas will further increase compared with CMIP5. As the most active factor in the process of soil erosion, changes in precipitation can directly lead to changes in soil erosion, and the change rate of the latter can be several times of the former. A 4% to 18% increase in precipitation can cause a 31% to 167% increase in soil loss (Zhang, 2007). Considering the superiority of CMIP6 compared with CMIP5, it is necessary to timely optimize the soil and water conservation work in each region according to the simulation results of CMIP6.

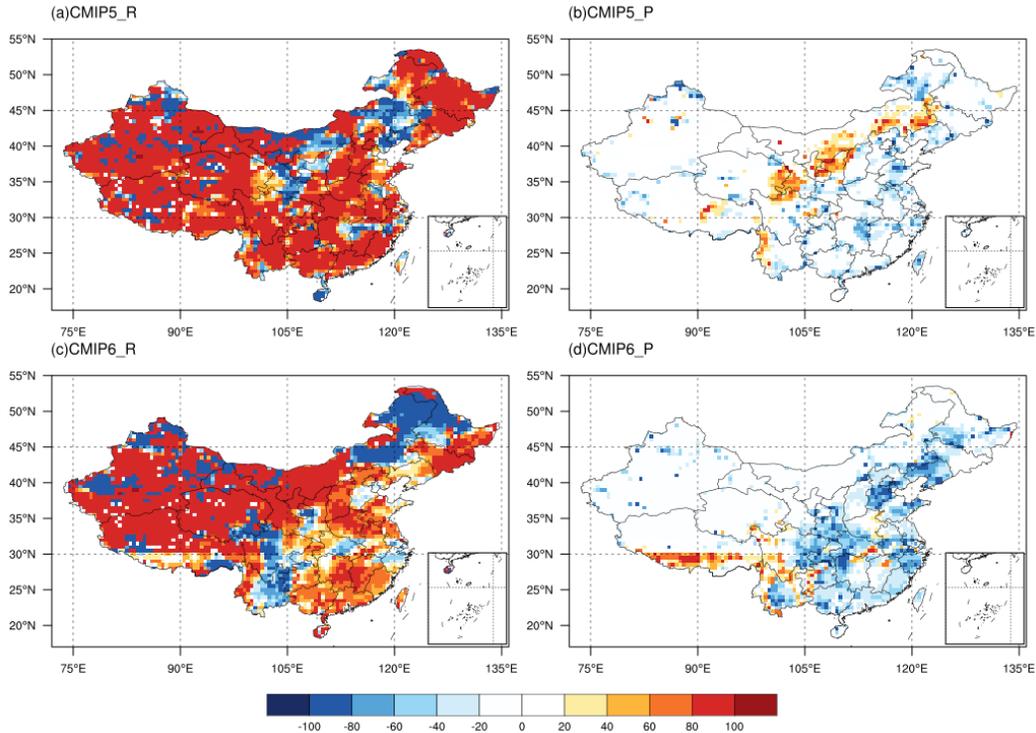
Land use change can either lead to a further increase in soil erosion (agricultural expansion and deforestation) or a decrease (agricultural abandonment and reforestation) (Eekhout and de Vente, 2022). But if we only discuss the P factor, with the improvement of human awareness of protecting the ecological environment, taking scientific and reasonable soil and water conservation measures will help to achieve the effect of controlling soil and water loss. In near future for all regions except the Qinghai-

327 Tibet Plateau region, the negative effect of the P factor on soil erosion in SSP5-8.5 are larger than those
 328 in RCP8.5. The largest differences are found in Southwest China purple soil region. Under the SSP5-
 329 8.5 climate scenario, more land in the region has changed from natural vegetation that has never been
 330 affected by human activities to non-forest land that has gradually recovered under human interference.
 331 The area of purple soil area is smaller than that of other areas (such as black soil area), so the change
 332 proportion of the same volume of land in the whole area will become particularly prominent.
 333 Additionally, due to the unique fertile soil conditions of black soil and purple soil, protective
 334 agriculture must be actively carried out in the farming area to ensure food security in the future.
 335 Currently, the relative share of conservation agriculture of total global cropland is estimated at 12.5%,
 336 with a clear increasing trend since the mid-1990s (Kassam et al., 2019). The soil conservation practice
 337 scenario shows a potential overall offset of the estimated soil erosion increase of about 64% (Borrelli et
 338 al. 2017). Soil conservation measures are often promoted as a solution to adapt to the projected
 339 increase of soil erosion under climate change (Amundson et al., 2015), which may include land use
 340 change, such as reforestation, and a range of on-site and off-site measures (Xiong et al., 2018). The
 341 future projections of soil loss rates could be at least 16% higher if land use changes are ignored.
 342 Therefore, it is recommended that projections of soil losses due to water erosion should consider both a
 343 wide range of climate change scenarios but also future land use changes.

344 Tab.2 Contributions of land use and climate changes to soil erosion in each area

Area	Climate change		Land use change	
	CMIP5	CMIP6	CMIP5	CMIP6
I	52.98	-10.55	-6.99	-17.34
II	41.31	45.85	-16.48	-35.17
III	-1.96	72.67	22.61	-15.06
IV	48.38	41.38	-0.46	-6.15
V	61.86	45.90	-20.40	-33.18
VI	52.56	20.67	-11.19	-51.03
VII	72.16	-3.19	-9.17	-12.21
VIII	72.68	52.36	0.70	7.72
China	51.68	35.74	-5.92	-13.77

345



346

347

348

Fig.5 The contribution of climate change and land use change to soil erosion under RCP8.5 and SSP5-8.5

349

4 Conclusion

350

351

352

353

354

This study compares a 50km global climate model from CMIP6 and a 50km regional climate model from CMIP5 in terms of simulating and projecting soil erosion response to climate and land-use changes. Special attention is paid to the differences in the effects of land use change and precipitation change on soil erosion under different emission scenarios. The main findings are summarized as follows:

355

356

357

358

359

360

(1) Our diagnostics from both CMIP5 and CMIP6 show that there are increases in soil erosion over China for a future warmer world. We find that both CMIP5 and CMIP6 models capture the observed soil erosion patterns. But the PCC of CMIP6 is slightly larger than that of CMIP5, and the RSD is smaller. The validation results of the high-resolution GCM of CMIP6 are superior to the RCM of CMIP5 with the same resolution because the CMIP6 model not only depicts the finer regional details of processes but also reproduces their interaction with large mesoscale circulation.

361

362

363

364

365

366

367

(2) Both models project increased soil erosion in China for 2031-2050 relative to 1986-2005, but the value projected under SSP5-8.5 is less than that under RCP8.5. The average projected increases in soil erosion are 27.85 derived from CMIP5 and 20.03 $t \cdot hm^{-2} \cdot a^{-1}$ derived from CMIP6 models with remarkable geographical heterogeneity. We assess that the CMIP6 projections provide a less severe soil erosion situation with better performance in reproducing observational patterns. It is recommended to the decision-makers to update impact studies for water and soil conservation performed using CMIP5 with the CMIP6 high-resolution model.

368

369

370

(3) The contribution rates of land use change and climate change to soil erosion projected by CMIP models are quantified. Land use and climatic changes contributed 51.68% and -5.92% respectively from CMIP5 simulations while 35.74% and -13.77% from CMIP6 to the increased soil

371 erosion rate. The negative contribution of land use change is gradually intensified with CMIP6 models
372 representing finer-scale processes of converting land-use type into cropland, pasture, and urban land.
373 Therefore, impact studies for soil erosion based on the CMIP5 projections would benefit from updating
374 to the CMIP6 high-resolution model to get more confidence in estimating future climate and land-use
375 conditions. This has important implications for policymakers and stakeholders who will have to weigh
376 the uncertainty of climate and land-use change in their decisions.

377

378 **Acknowledgments**

379 This study was supported by the Guangzhou Basic and Applied Basic Research Foundation
380 (Grant No. 202201011403), the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities-Sun Yat-Sen
381 University (Grant No. 22qntd2001), and the Hong Kong Research Grants Council Early Career Scheme
382 (Grant No. PP5Z). Data used in this paper is freely available at Mendeley Data
383 (DOI:10.17632/w948kfrsv6.1). We acknowledge and thank the climate modeling groups in the
384 Coordinated Regional Climate Downscaling Experiment and Coupled Model Intercomparison Project
385 for generating their model outputs and making them available. All authors declare no competing
386 financial interests.

387

388 **References**

- 389 Amundson, R., Berhe, A., Hopmans, J., Olson, C., Sztein, A., Sparks, D. (2015). Soil science. Soil and
390 human security in the 21st century. *Science*, 348 <http://doi.org/10.1126/science.1261071>
- 391 Bai, Z. G., Dent, D. L., Olsson, L. E., Schaepman, M. E. (2008). Global assessment of land degradation
392 and improvement: I. Identification by remote sensing. *Blumea*
- 393 Borrelli, P., Robinson, D. A., Fleischer, L. R., Lugato, E., Ballabio, C., Alewell, C., Meusburger, K.,
394 Modugno, S., Schütt, B., Ferro, V., Bagarello, V., Oost, K. V., Montanarella, L., Panagos, P. (2017).
395 An assessment of the global impact of 21st century land use change on soil erosion. *Nature*
396 *Communications*, 8(1), 2013. <http://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-02142-7>
- 397 Borrelli, P., Robinson, D. A., Panagos, P., Lugato, E., Yang, J. E., Alewell, C., Wuepper, D.,
398 Montanarella, L., Ballabio, C. (2020). Land use and climate change impacts on global soil erosion by
399 water (2015-2070). *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*,
400 117(36), 21994-22001. <http://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2001403117>
- 401 Boyle, J., Klein, S. A. (2010). Impact of horizontal resolution on climate model forecasts of tropical
402 precipitation and diabatic heating for the TWP-ICE period. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*
403 *Atmospheres*, 115(D23) <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1029/2010JD014262>
- 404 Chini, L. P., Hurtt, G. C., Froking, S. (2014). LUH1: Harmonized Global Land Use for Years 1500-
405 2100, V1: ORNL Distributed Active Archive Center.
- 406 Crosson, P. R. (1995). Soil erosion estimates and costs. *Science*, 269 5223, 461-464.
- 407 Dong, T., Dong, W. (2021). Evaluation of extreme precipitation over Asia in CMIP6 models. *Climate*
408 *Dynamics*, 57(7), 1751-1769. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s00382-021-05773-1>
- 409 Du, Y., Wang, D., Zhu, J., Lin, Z., Zhong, Y. (2022). Intercomparison of multiple high-resolution
410 precipitation products over China: Climatology and extremes. *Atmospheric Research*, 278, 106342.
411 <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2022.106342>
- 412 Eekhout, J. P. C., de Vente, J. (2022). Global impact of climate change on soil erosion and potential for
413 adaptation through soil conservation. *Earth-Science Reviews*, 226, 103921.
414 <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.earscirev.2022.103921>
- 415 Ghosal, K., Das Bhattacharya, S. (2020). A Review of RUSLE Model. *Journal of the Indian Society of*
416 *Remote Sensing*, 48(4), 689-707. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s12524-019-01097-0>
- 417 Gusain, A., Ghosh, S., Karmakar, S. (2020). Added value of CMIP6 over CMIP5 models in simulating
418 Indian summer monsoon rainfall. *Atmospheric Research*, 232, 104680.
419 <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2019.104680>
- 420 Haarsma, R. J., Roberts, M. J., Vidale, P. L., Senior, C. A., Bellucci, A., Bao, Q., Chang, P., Corti, S.,
421 Fučkar, N. S., Guemas, V., von Hardenberg, J., Hazeleger, W., Kodama, C., Koenigk, T., Leung, L. R.,
422 Lu, J., Luo, J. J., Mao, J., Mizielinski, M. S., Mizuta, R., Nobre, P., Satoh, M., Scoccimarro, E.,
423 Semmler, T., Small, J., von Storch, J. S. (2016). High Resolution Model Intercomparison Project
424 (HighResMIP v1.0) for CMIP6. *Geoscientific Model Development*, 9(11), 4185-4208.
425 <http://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-9-4185-2016>
- 426 Haarsma, R., Roberts, M., Vidale, P. L., Senior, C., Bellucci, A., Bao, Q., Chang, P. P., Corti, S.,
427 Fučkar, N., Guemas, V., Hardenberg, J., Hazeleger, W., Kodama, C., Koenigk, T., Leung, L., Lu, J.,
428 Luo, J., Mao, J., Mizielinski, M., Storch, J. (2016). High Resolution Model Intercomparison Project
429 (HighResMIP v1.0) for CMIP6. *Geoscientific Model Development*, 9, 4185-4208.
430 <http://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-9-4185-2016>
- 431 Hartmann, D. L. (2016). Chapter 11 - Global Climate Models. In D. L. Hartmann (Ed.), *Global*

- 432 Physical Climatology (Second Edition) (325-360). Elsevier.
 433 <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-328531-7.00011-6>.
- 434 Hurtt, G. C., Chini, L., Sahajpal, R., Frohling, S., Bodirsky, B. L., Calvin, K., Doelman, J. C., Fisk, J.,
 435 Fujimori, S., Klein Goldewijk, K., Hasegawa, T., Havlik, P., Heinemann, A., Humpenöder, F.,
 436 Jungclaus, J., Kaplan, J. O., Kennedy, J., Krisztin, T., Lawrence, D., Lawrence, P., Ma, L., Mertz, O.,
 437 Pongratz, J., Popp, A., Poulter, B., Riahi, K., Shevliakova, E., Stehfest, E., Thornton, P., Tubiello, F. N.,
 438 van Vuuren, D. P., Zhang, X. (2020). Harmonization of global land use change and management for
 439 the period 850 – 2100 (LUH2) for CMIP6. *Geoscientific Model Development*, 13(11), 5425-5464.
 440 <http://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-13-5425-2020>
- 441 Hurtt, G., Chini, L., Sahajpal, R., Frohling, S., Bodirsky, B., Calvin, K., Doelman, J., Fisk, J., Fujimori,
 442 S., Klein Goldewijk, K., Hasegawa, T., Havlik, P., Heinemann, A., Humpenöder, F., Jungclaus, J.,
 443 Kaplan, J., Kennedy, J., Krisztin, T., Lawrence, D., Tubiello, F. (2020). Harmonization of global land
 444 use change and management for the period 850-2100 (LUH2) for CMIP6. *Geoscientific Model
 445 Development*, 5425-5464. <http://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-13-5425-2020>
- 446 Jain, S., Salunke, P., Mishra, S. K., Sahany, S., Choudhary, N. (2019). Advantage of NEX-GDDP over
 447 CMIP5 and CORDEX Data: Indian Summer Monsoon. *atmospheric research*, 228, 152-160.
 448 <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2019.05.026>
- 449 Kassam, A., Friedrich, T., Derpsch, R. (2019). Global spread of Conservation Agriculture.
 450 *International Journal of Environmental Studies*, 76(1), 29-51.
 451 <http://doi.org/10.1080/00207233.2018.1494927>
- 452 Knijff, J., Jones, R., Montanarella, L. (2000). Soil Erosion Risk Assessment in Europe. *Soil Erosion
 453 Risk Assessment in Europe*
- 454 Liu, B., Nearing, M., Risse, M. (1994). Slope Gradient Effects on Soil Loss for Steep Slopes.
 455 *Transactions of the ASAE*, 37, 1835-1840. <http://doi.org/10.13031/2013.28273>
- 456 Luetzenburg, G., Bittner, M. J., Calsamiglia, A., Renschler, C. S., Estrany, J., Poepl, R. (2020).
 457 Climate and land use change effects on soil erosion in two small agricultural catchment systems
 458 Fugnitz – Austria, Can Revull – Spain. *Science of the Total Environment*, 704, 135389.
 459 <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.135389>
- 460 Maeda, E. E., Pellikka, P. K. E., Siljander, M., Clark, B. J. F. (2010a). Potential impacts of agricultural
 461 expansion and climate change on soil erosion in the Eastern Arc Mountains of Kenya. *Geomorphology*,
 462 123(3), 279-289. <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geomorph.2010.07.019>
- 463 Maeda, E. E., Pellikka, P. K. E., Siljander, M., Clark, B. J. F. (2010b). Potential impacts of agricultural
 464 expansion and climate change on soil erosion in the Eastern Arc Mountains of Kenya. *Geomorphology*,
 465 123(3), 279-289. <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.geomorph.2010.07.019>
- 466 Millward, A. A., Mersey, J. E. (1999). Adapting the RUSLE to model soil erosion potential in a
 467 mountainous tropical watershed. *Catena*, 38(2), 109-129. [http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0341-8162\(99\)00067-3](http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0341-8162(99)00067-3)
- 469 Moss, R. H., Edmonds, J. A., Hibbard, K. A., Manning, M. R., Rose, S. K., van Vuuren, D. P., Carter,
 470 T. R., Emori, S., Kainuma, M., Kram, T., Meehl, G. A., Mitchell, J. F. B., Nakicenovic, N., Riahi, K.,
 471 Smith, S. J., Stouffer, R. J., Thomson, A. M., Weyant, J. P., Wilbanks, T. J. (2010). The next
 472 generation of scenarios for climate change research and assessment. *Nature*, 463(7282), 747-756.
 473 <http://doi.org/10.1038/nature08823>
- 474 Naipal, V., Ciais, P., Wang, Y., Lauerwald, R., Guenet, B., Van Oost, K. (2018). Global soil organic
 475 carbon removal by water erosion under climate change and land use change during AD 1850 –

- 476 2005. *Biogeosciences*, 15(14), 4459-4480. <http://doi.org/10.5194/bg-15-4459-2018>
- 477 Nikiema, P. M., Sylla, M. B., Ogunjobi, K., Kebe, I., Gibba, P., Giorgi, F. (2017). Multi-model CMIP5
478 and CORDEX simulations of historical summer temperature and precipitation variabilities over West
479 Africa. *International Journal of Climatology*, 37(5), 2438-2450.
480 <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.4856>
- 481 Oldeman, L. R., Hakkeling, R. T. A., Sombroek, W. G. (1990), World map of the status of human-
482 induced soil degradation: an explanatory note.
- 483 O'Neill, B. C., Tebaldi, C., van Vuuren, D. P., Eyring, V., Friedlingstein, P., Hurtt, G., Knutti, R.,
484 Krieglner, E., Lamarque, J. F., Lowe, J., Meehl, G. A., Moss, R., Riahi, K., Sanderson, B. M. (2016).
485 The Scenario Model Intercomparison Project (ScenarioMIP) for CMIP6. *Geoscientific Model*
486 *Development*, 9(9), 3461-3482. <http://doi.org/10.5194/gmd-9-3461-2016>
- 487 Pal, S. C., Chakraborty, R., Roy, P., Chowdhuri, I., Das, B., Saha, A., Shit, M. (2021). Changing
488 climate and land use of 21st century influences soil erosion in India. *Gondwana Research*, 94, 164-185.
489 <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gr.2021.02.021>
- 490 Renard, K. G. (1997). Predicting soil erosion by water: A guide to conservation planning with the
491 Revised Universal Soil Loss equation (RUSLE). *Predicting soil erosion by water: A guide to*
492 *conservation planning with the Revised Universal Soil Loss equation (RUSLE)*.
- 493 Renard, K. G., Foster, G. R., Weesies, G. A., Porter, J. P. (1991). RUSLE: Revised universal soil loss
494 equation. *Journal of Soil and Water Conservation*, 46(1), 30.
- 495 Rivington, M., Miller, D., Matthews, K. B., Russell, G., Bellocchi, G., Buchan, K. (2008). Evaluating
496 regional climate model estimates against site-specific observed data in the UK. *climatic change*, 88(2),
497 157-185.
- 498 Schlund, M., Lauer, A., Gentine, P., Sherwood, S. C., Eyring, V. (2020). Emergent constraints on
499 equilibrium climate sensitivity in CMIP5: do they hold for CMIP6? *Earth System Dynamics*, 11(4),
500 1233-1258. <http://doi.org/10.5194/esd-11-1233-2020>
- 501 Su, B., Huang, J., Mondal, S. K., Zhai, J., Wang, Y., Wen, S., Gao, M., Lv, Y., Jiang, S., Jiang, T., Li,
502 A. (2021). Insight from CMIP6 SSP-RCP scenarios for future drought characteristics in China.
503 *Atmospheric Research*, 250, 105375. <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2020.105375>
- 504 Tan, M. L., Gassman, P. W., Liang, J., Haywood, J. M. (2021). A review of alternative climate
505 products for SWAT modelling: Sources, assessment and future directions. *Science of the Total*
506 *Environment*, 795, 148915. <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.148915>
- 507 Tang, Q., Xu, Y., Bennett, S. J., Li, Y. (2015). Assessment of soil erosion using RUSLE and GIS: a
508 case study of the Yangou watershed in the Loess Plateau, China. *Environmental Earth Sciences*, 73(4),
509 1715-1724. <http://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-014-3523-z>
- 510 Taylor, K. E. (2001). Summarizing multiple aspects of model performance in a single diagram. *Journal*
511 *of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 106(D7), 7183-7192.
512 <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1029/2000JD900719>
- 513 Vizy, E. K., Cook, K. H., Crétat, J., Neupane, N. (2013). Projections of a Wetter Sahel in the Twenty-
514 First Century from Global and Regional Models. *Journal of Climate*, 26(13), 4664-4687.
515 <http://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-12-00533.1>
- 516 Wang, L., Li, Y., Li, M., Li, L., Liu, F., Liu, D. L., Pulatov, B. (2022). Projection of precipitation
517 extremes in China's mainland based on the statistical downscaled data from 27 GCMs in CMIP6.
518 *Atmospheric Research*, 280, 106462. <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2022.106462>
- 519 Wang, Z., Zeng, Y., Li, C., Yan, H., Yu, S., Wang, L., Shi, Z. (2021). Telecoupling cropland soil

520 erosion with distant drivers within China. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 288, 112395.
521 <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2021.112395>

522 Williams, J. R. (1990). EPIC-erosion/productivity impact calculator: 1. Model documentation.
523 *Technical Bulletin - United States Department of Agriculture*, 4(4), 206-207.

524 Xin, X., Wu, T., Jie, W., Zhang, J. (2021). Impact of Higher Resolution on Precipitation over China in
525 CMIP6 HighResMIP Models. *Atmosphere*, 12(6), 762.

526 Xiong, M., Sun, R., Chen, L. (2018). Effects of soil conservation techniques on water erosion control:
527 A global analysis. *Science of the Total Environment*, 645, 753-760.
528 <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.07.124>

529 Xu, H., Xu, C., Chen, S., Chen, H. (2016). Similarity and difference of global reanalysis datasets
530 (WFD and APHRODITE) in driving lumped and distributed hydrological models in a humid region of
531 China. *Journal of Hydrology*, 542, 343-356. <http://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2016.09.011>

532 Xue, J., Lyu, D., Wang, D., Wang, Y., Yin, D., Zhao, Z., Mu, Z. (2018). Assessment of Soil Erosion
533 Dynamics Using the GIS-Based RUSLE Model: A Case Study of Wangjiagou Watershed from the
534 Three Gorges Reservoir Region, Southwestern China *Water* (10, pp.).

535 Zhi, Li, Wen-Zhao, Liu, Xun-Chang, ZhangFen-Li, Zheng. (2011). Assessing the site-specific impacts
536 of climate change on hydrology, soil erosion and crop yields in the Loess Plateau of China. *Climatic*
537 *Change*

538 Zhu, H., Jiang, Z., Li, J., Li, W., Sun, C., Li, L. (2020). Does CMIP6 Inspire More Confidence in
539 Simulating Climate Extremes over China? *Advances in Atmospheric Sciences*, 37(10), 1119-1132.
540 <http://doi.org/10.1007/s00376-020-9289-1>

541