

1 **Accelerated hydrological cycle over the Sanjiangyuan region induces**
2 **more streamflow extremes at different global warming levels**

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16 **Abstract.** Serving source water for the Yellow, Yangtze and Lancang-Mekong rivers,
17 the Sanjiangyuan region concerns 700 million people over its downstream areas.
18 Recent research suggests that the Sanjiangyuan region will become wetter in a
19 warming future, but future changes of streamflow extremes remain unclear due to the
20 complex hydrological processes over high-land areas and limited knowledge of the
21 influences of land cover change and CO₂ physiological forcing. Based on high
22 resolution land surface modeling during 1979~2100 driven by the climate and
23 ecological projections from 11 newly released Coupled Model Intercomparison
24 Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) climate models, we show that different accelerating rates of
25 precipitation and evapotranspiration at 1.5°C global warming level induce 55% more
26 dry extremes over Yellow river and 138% more wet extremes over Yangtze river
27 headwaters compared with the reference period (1985~2014). An additional 0.5°C
28 warming leads to a further nonlinear and more significant increase for both dry
29 extremes over Yellow river (22%) and wet extremes over Yangtze river (64%). The
30 combined role of CO₂ physiological forcing and vegetation greening, which used to
31 be neglected in hydrological projections, is found to alleviate dry extremes at 1.5 and
32 2.0°C warming levels but to intensify dry extremes at 3.0°C warming level. Moreover,
33 vegetation greening contributes half of the differences between 1.5 and 3.0°C
34 warming levels. This study emphasizes the importance of ecological processes in
35 determining future changes in streamflow extremes, and suggests a “dry gets drier,
36 wet gets wetter” condition over the warming headwaters.

37 **Keywords** Terrestrial hydrological cycle, streamflow extremes, global warming levels,

39 **1 Introduction**

40 Global temperature has increased at a rate of $0.17^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{decade}$ since 1970, contrary
41 to the cooling trend over the past 8000 years (Marcott et al., 2013). The temperature
42 measurements suggest that 2015-2019 is the warmest five years and 2010-2019 is also
43 the warmest decade since 1850 (WMO, 2020). To mitigate the impact of this
44 unprecedented warming on the global environment and human society, 195 nations
45 adopted the Paris Agreement which decides to “hold the increase in the global average
46 temperature to well below 2°C above pre-industrial levels and pursuing efforts to limit
47 the temperature increase to 1.5°C ”.

48 The response of regional and global terrestrial hydrological processes (e.g.,
49 streamflow and its extremes) to different global warming levels has been investigated
50 by numerous studies in recent years (Döll et al., 2018; Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2018;
51 Marx et al., 2018; Mohammed et al., 2017; Thober et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2019; Zhang
52 et al., 2016). In addition to climate change, recent works reveal the importance of the
53 ecological factors (e.g., the CO_2 physiological forcing and land cover change), which
54 are often unaccounted for in hydrological modeling works, in modulating the
55 streamflow and its extremes. For example, the increasing CO_2 concentration is found
56 to alleviate the decreasing trend of streamflow in the future at global scale through
57 decreasing the stomatal conductance and vegetation transpiration (known as the CO_2
58 physiological forcing) (Fowler et al., 2019; Wiltshire et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2019;
59 Zhu et al., 2012). Contrary to the CO_2 physiological forcing, the vegetation greening
60 in a warming climate is found to play a significant role in exacerbating hydrological

61 drought, as it enhances transpiration and dries up the land (Yuan et al., 2018b).
62 However, the relative contributions of CO₂ physiological forcing and vegetation
63 greening to the changes in terrestrial hydrology especially the streamflow extremes
64 are still unknown, and whether their combined impact differs among different
65 warming levels needs to be investigated.

66 Hosting the headwaters of the Yellow river, the Yangtze river and the
67 Lancang-Mekong river, the Sanjiangyuan region is known as the “Asian Water
68 Tower” and concerns 700 million people over its downstream areas. Changes of
69 streamflow and its extremes over the Sanjiangyuan region not only influence the local
70 ecosystems, environment and water resources, but also the security of food, energy,
71 and water over the downstream areas. Both the regional climate and ecosystems show
72 significant changes over the Sanjiangyuan region due to global warming (Bibi et al.,
73 2018; Kuang and Jiao, 2016; Liang et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2016).
74 Historical changes of climate and ecology (e.g. land cover) are found to cause
75 significant reduction in mean and high flows over the Yellow River headwaters during
76 1979-2005, which potentially increases drought risk over its downstream areas (Ji and
77 Yuan, 2018). And the CO₂ physiological forcing is revealed to cause equally large
78 changes in regional flood extremes as the precipitation over the Yangtze and Mekong
79 rivers (Fowler et al., 2019). Thus the Sanjiangyuan region is a sound region to
80 investigate the role of climate change and ecological change (e.g., land cover change
81 and CO₂ physiological forcing) in influencing the streamflow and its extremes (Cuo et
82 al., 2014; Ji and Yuan, 2018; Zhu et al., 2013). Recent research suggests that the

83 Sanjiangyuan region will become warmer and wetter in the future, and extreme
84 precipitation will also increase at the 1.5°C global warming level and further intensify
85 with a 0.5°C additional warming (Li et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2019). However, how
86 the streamflow extremes would respond to the 1.5°C warming, what an additional
87 0.5°C or even greater warming would cause, and how much contributions do the
88 ecological factors (e.g., CO₂ physiological forcing and land cover change) have, are
89 still unknown. Solving the above issues is essential for assessing the climate and
90 ecological impact on this vital headwaters region.

91 In this study, we investigated the future changes in the streamflow extremes over
92 the Sanjiangyuan region from an integrated eco-hydrological perspective by taking
93 CO₂ physiological forcing and land cover change into consideration. The combined
94 impacts of the above two ecological factors at different global warming levels were
95 also quantified and compared with the impact of climate change. The results will help
96 understand the role of ecological factors in future terrestrial hydrological changes
97 over the headwater regions like the Sanjiangyuan, and provide guidance and support
98 for the stakeholders to make relevant decisions and plans.

99 **2 Data and methods**

100 **2.1 Study domain and observational data**

101 The Sanjiangyuan region is located at the eastern part of the Tibetan Plateau
102 (Figure 1a), with the total area and mean elevation being 3.61×10^5 km² and 5000 m
103 respectively. It plays a critical role in providing freshwater, by contributing 35%, 20%
104 and 8% to the total annual streamflow of the Yellow, Yangtze and Lancang-Mekong

105 rivers (Li et al., 2017; Liang et al., 2013). The source regions of Yellow, Yangtze and
106 Lancang-Mekong rivers account for 46%, 44% and 10% of the total area of the
107 Sanjiangyuan individually, and the Yellow river source region has a warmer climate
108 and sparser snow cover than the Yangtze river source region.

109 Monthly streamflow observations from the Tangnaihai (TNH) and the Zhimenda
110 (ZMD) hydrological stations (Figure 1a), which were provided by the local authorities,
111 were used to evaluate the streamflow simulations. Data periods are 1979-2011 and
112 1980-2008 for the Tangnaihai and Zhimenda stations individually. Estimations of
113 monthly terrestrial water storage change and its uncertainty during 2003-2014 were
114 provided by the Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL), which used the mass concentration
115 blocks (mascons) basis functions to fit the Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment
116 (GRACE) satellite's inter-satellite ranging observations (Watkins et al., 2015). The
117 Model Tree Ensemble evapotranspiration (MTE_ET; Jung et al., 2009) and the Global
118 Land Evaporation Amsterdam Model evapotranspiration (GLEAM_ET) version 3.3a
119 (Martens et al., 2017) were used to evaluate the ET simulation.

120 **2.2 CMIP6 Data**

121 Here, 19 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project phase 6 (CMIP6, Eyring et al.,
122 2016) models which provide precipitation, near-surface temperature, specific
123 humidity, 10-m wind speed, surface downward shortwave and longwave radiations at
124 daily timescale were first selected for evaluation. Then, models were chosen for the
125 analysis when the simulated meteorological forcings (e.g., precipitation, temperature,
126 humidity, and shortwave radiation) averaged over the Sanjiangyuan region have the

127 same trend signs as the observations during 1979-2014. Table 1 shows the 11 CMIP6
128 models that were finally chosen in this study. For the future projection (2015-2100),
129 we chose two Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSP) experiments: SSP585 and
130 SSP245. SSP585 combines the fossil-fueled development socioeconomic pathway
131 and 8.5W/m^2 forcing pathway (RCP8.5), while SSP245 combines the moderate
132 development socioeconomic pathway and 4.5 W/m^2 forcing pathway (RCP4.5)
133 (O'Neill et al., 2016). Land cover change is quantified by leaf area index (LAI) as
134 there is no significant transition between different vegetation types (not shown)
135 according to the Land-use Harmonization 2 (LUH2) dataset
136 (<https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/input4mips/>). For the CNRM-CM6-1, FGOALS-g3
137 and CESM2, the ensemble mean of LAI simulations from the other 8 CMIP6 models
138 was used because CNRM-CM6-1 and FGOALS-g3 do not provide dynamic LAI
139 while the CESM2 simulates an abnormally large LAI over the Sanjiangyuan region.
140 To avoid systematic bias in meteorological forcing, the trend-preserved bias
141 correction method suggested by ISI-MIP (Hempel et al., 2013), was applied to the
142 CMIP6 model simulations at monthly scale. The China Meteorological Forcing
143 Dataset (CMFD) was taken as meteorological observation (He et al., 2020). For each
144 month, temperature bias in CMIP6 simulations during 1979-2014 was directly
145 deducted. Future temperature simulations in SSP245 and SSP585 experiments were
146 also adjusted according to the historical bias. Other variables were corrected by using
147 a multiplicative factor, which was calculated by using observations to divide
148 simulation during 1979-2014. In addition, monthly leaf area index was also adjusted

149 to be consistent with satellite observation using the same method as temperature. All
150 variables were first interpolated to the 10 km resolution over the Sanjiangyuan region
151 and the bias correction was performed for each CMIP6 model at each grid. After bias
152 correction, absolute changes of temperature and leaf area index, and relative changes
153 of other variables were preserved at monthly time scale (Hempel et al., 2013). Then,
154 the adjusted CMIP6 daily meteorological forcings were disaggregated into hourly
155 using the diurnal cycle ratios from the China Meteorological Forcing Dataset.

156 The historical CO₂ concentration used here is the same as the CMIP6 historical
157 experiment (Meinshausen et al., 2017), while future CO₂ concentration in SSP245 and
158 SSP585 scenarios came from simulations of a reduced-complexity carbon-cycle
159 model MAGICC7.0 (Meinshausen et al., 2020).

160 **2.3 Experimental design**

161 The land surface model used in this study is the Conjunctive Surface-Subsurface
162 Process model version 2 (CSSPv2), which has been proved to simulate the energy and
163 water processes over the Sanjiangyuan region well (Yuan et al., 2018a). Figure 2
164 shows the structure and main ecohydrological processes in CSSPv2. The CSSPv2 is
165 rooted in the Common Land Model (CoLM; Dai et al., 2003) with some
166 improvements at hydrological processes. CSSPv2 has a volume-averaged soil
167 moisture transport (VAST) model, which solves the quasi-three dimensional
168 transportation of the soil water and explicitly considers the variability of moisture flux
169 due to subgrid topographic variations (Choi et al., 2007). Moreover, the Variable
170 Infiltration Capacity runoff scheme (Liang et al., 1994), and the hydrological

171 properties of soil organic matters were incorporated into the CSSPv2 by Yuan et al.
 172 (2018a), to improve its performance in simulating the terrestrial hydrology over the
 173 Sanjiangyuan region. Similar to CoLM and Community Land Model (Oleson et al.,
 174 2013), vegetation transpiration in CSSPv2 is based on Monin-Obukhov similarity
 175 theory, and the transpiration rate is constrained by leaf boundary layer and stomatal
 176 conductances. Parameterization of the stomatal conductance (g_s) in CSSPv2 is

$$177 \quad g_s = m \frac{A_n}{\frac{P_{CO_2}}{P_{atm}}} h_s + b\beta_t \quad (1)$$

178 where the m is a plant functional type dependent parameter, A_n is leaf net
 179 photosynthesis ($\mu mol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1}$), P_{CO_2} is the CO_2 partial pressure at the leaf
 180 surface (Pa), P_{atm} is the atmospheric pressure (Pa), h_s is the leaf surface
 181 humidity, b is the minimum stomatal conductance ($\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$), while β_t is the
 182 soil water stress function. Generally, the stomatal conductance decreases with the
 183 increasing of CO_2 concentration.

184 First, bias-corrected meteorological forcings from CMIP6 historical experiment
 185 were used to drive the CSSPv2 model (CMIP6_His/CSSPv2). All simulations were
 186 conducted for two cycles during 1979-2014 at half-hourly time step and 10 km spatial
 187 resolution, with the first cycle serving as the spin-up. Correlation coefficient (CC) and
 188 root mean squared error (RMSE) were calculated for validating the simulated monthly
 189 streamflow, annual evapotranspiration and monthly terrestrial water storage. The
 190 King-Gupta efficiency (KGE; Gupta et al., 2009), which is widely used in streamflow
 191 evaluations, was also calculated. Above metrics were calculated as follows:

192
$$CC = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}} \quad (2)$$

193
$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2}{n}} \quad (3)$$

194
$$KGE = 1 - \sqrt{(1 - CC)^2 + \left(1 - \frac{\sigma_x}{\sigma_y}\right)^2 + \left(1 - \frac{\bar{x}}{\bar{y}}\right)^2} \quad (4)$$

195 where x_i and y_i are observed and simulated variables in a specific month/year i
 196 individually, and \bar{x} and \bar{y} are the corresponding monthly/annual means during the
 197 evaluation period n . The σ_x and σ_y are standard deviations for observed and
 198 simulated variables respectively. The correlation coefficient represents the correlation
 199 between simulation and observation, while RMSE means simulated error. The KGE
 200 ranges from negative infinity to 1, and model simulations can be regard as satisfactory
 201 when the KGE is larger than 0.5 (Moriassi et al., 2007).

202 Second, bias-corrected meteorological forcings in SSP245 and SSP585 were
 203 used to drive CSSPv2 during 2015-2100 with dynamic LAI and CO₂ concentration
 204 (CMIP6_SSP/CSSPv2). Initial conditions of CMIP6_SSP/CSSPv2 came from the last
 205 year in CMIP6_His/CSSPv2.

206 Then, the second step was repeated twice by fixing the monthly LAI
 207 (CMIP6_SSP/CSSPv2_FixLAI) and mean CO₂ concentration
 208 (CMIP6_SSP/CSSPv2_FixCO2) at 2014 level. The difference between
 209 CMIP6_SSP/CSSPv2 and CMIP6_SSP/CSSPv2_FixLAI is regarded as the net effect
 210 of land cover change, and the difference between CMIP6_SSP/CSSPv2 and

211 CMIP6_SSP/CSSPv2_FixCO2 is regarded as the net effect of CO₂ physiological
212 forcing.

213 **2.4 Warming level determination**

214 A widely used time-sampling method was adopted to determine the periods of
215 different global warming levels (Chen et al., 2017; Döll et al., 2018; Marx et al., 2018;
216 Mohammed et al., 2017; Thober et al., 2018). According to the HadCRUT4 dataset
217 (Morice et al., 2012), the global mean surface temperature has increased by 0.66°C
218 from the pre-industrial era (1850-1900) to the reference period defined as 1985-2014.
219 Then, starting from 2015, 30-years running mean global temperatures were compared
220 to those of the 1985-2014 period for each GCM simulation. And the
221 1.5°C/2.0°C/3.0°C warming period is defined as the 30-years period when the
222 0.84°C/1.34°C/2.34°C global warming, compared with the reference period
223 (1985-2014), is first reached. The median years of identified 30-year periods, referred
224 as “crossing years”, are shown in Table 2.

225 **2.5 Definition of dry and wet extremes and robustness assessment**

226 In this research, the standardized streamflow index (SSI) was used to define dry
227 and wet extremes (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2012; Yuan et al., 2017). The
228 July-August-September (JAS) mean streamflow for each year of the reference period
229 was first collected and used to fit a gamma distribution:

$$230 \quad f(x, \beta, \alpha) = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta x} \quad (5)$$

231 where x means streamflow, while α and β are parameters. Then the fitted
232 distribution was used to standardize the JAS mean streamflow in each year (i) during

233 both the reference and projection periods as:

$$\begin{aligned} 234 \quad \quad \quad SSI_i &= Z^{-1}(F(x_i)) \\ F(x_i) &= \int_0^{x_i} f(x, \beta, \alpha) dx \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

235 where Z^{-1} means the inverse cumulative distribution function of the normal
236 distribution, while $F(x)$ is the cumulative distribution function of the gamma
237 distribution. Here, dry and wet extremes were defined as SSIs smaller than -1.28 (a
238 probability of 10%) and larger than 1.28 respectively.

239 The relative changes in frequency of dry/wet extremes between the reference
240 period and different warming periods were first calculated for each GCM under each
241 SSP scenario, and the ensemble means were then determined for each warming level.
242 To quantify the uncertainty, the above calculations were repeated by using the
243 bootstrap 10,000 times, and 11 GCMs were resampled with replacement during each
244 bootstrap (Christopher et al., 2018). The 5% and 95% percentiles of the total 10,000
245 estimations were finally taken as the 5~95% uncertainty ranges.

246 **3 Results**

247 **3.1 Terrestrial hydrological changes at different warming levels**

248 As shown in Figures 1b-1e, observations (pink lines) show that the annual
249 temperature, precipitation and growing season LAI increase at the rates of
250 0.63°C/decade ($p=0$), 16.9 mm/decade ($p=0.02$), and 0.02 m²/m²/decade ($p=0.001$)
251 during 1979-2014 respectively. The ensemble means of CMIP6 simulations (black
252 lines) can generally capture the historical increasing trends of temperature
253 (0.30 °C/decade, $p=0$), precipitation (7.1 mm/decade, $p=0$) and growing season LAI
254 (0.029 m²/m²/decade, $p=0$), although the trends for precipitation and temperature are

255 underestimated. In 2015-2100, the SSP245 scenario (blue lines) shows continued
256 warming, wetting and greening trends, and the trends are larger in the SSP585
257 scenario (red lines). The CO₂ concentration also keeps increasing during 2015-2100
258 and reaches to 600 ppm and 1150 ppm in 2100 for the SSP245 and SSP585 scenarios
259 respectively. Although the SSP585 scenario reaches the same warming levels earlier
260 than the SSP245 scenario (Table 2), there is no significant difference between them in
261 the meteorological variables during the same warming period (not shown). Thus, we
262 do not distinguish SSP245 and SSP585 scenarios at the same warming level in the
263 following analysis.

264 Figure 3 and Table 3 show the evaluation of model simulation. Driven by
265 observed meteorological and ecological forcings, the CMFD/CSSPv2 simulates
266 monthly streamflow over the Yellow and Yangtze river headwaters quite well. The
267 Kling-Gupta efficiencies of CMFD/CSSPv2 simulated monthly streamflow are 0.94
268 and 0.91 over Tangnaihai (TNH) and Zhimenda (ZMD) stations, respectively. The
269 simulated monthly Terrestrial Water Storage Anomaly (TWSA) during 2003-2014 in
270 CMFD/CSSPv2 also agrees with the GRACE satellite observation and captures the
271 increasing trend. For the interannual variations of evapotranspiration, CMFD/CSSPv2
272 is consistent with the ensemble mean of the GLEAM_ET and MTE_ET products, and
273 the correlation coefficient and root mean squared error (RMSE) during 1982-2011 are
274 0.87 ($p < 0.01$) and 14 mm/year respectively. This suggests the good performance of
275 the CSSPv2 in simulating the hydrological processes over the Sanjiangyuan region.
276 Although meteorological and ecological outputs from CMIP6 models have coarse

277 resolutions (~100 km), the land surface simulation driven by bias corrected CMIP6
278 results (CMIP6_His/CSSPv2) also captures the terrestrial hydrological variations
279 reasonably well. The Kling-Gupta efficiency of the ensemble mean streamflow
280 simulation reaches up to 0.71~0.81, and the ensemble mean monthly Terrestrial Water
281 Storage Anomaly (TWSA) and annual evapotranspiration generally agree with
282 observations and other reference data (Figures 3c-3d).

283 Figure 4 shows relative changes of terrestrial hydrological variables over the
284 Sanjiangyuan region at different warming levels. The ensemble mean of the increase
285 in annual precipitation is 5% at 1.5°C warming level, and additional 0.5°C and 1.5°C
286 warming will further increase the wetting trends to 7% and 13% respectively. Annual
287 evapotranspiration experiences significant increases at all warming levels, and the
288 ensemble mean increases are 4%, 7% and 13% at 1.5, 2.0 and 3.0°C warming levels
289 respectively. The ratio of transpiration to evapotranspiration also increases
290 significantly, indicating that vegetation transpiration increases much larger than the
291 soil evaporation and canopy evaporation. Although annual total runoff has larger
292 relative changes than evapotranspiration (6%, 9% and 14% at 1.5, 2.0 and 3.0°C
293 warming levels respectively), the uncertainty is large as only 75% of the models show
294 positive signals, which may be caused by large uncertain changes during summer and
295 autumn seasons. The terrestrial water storage (TWS) which includes foliage water,
296 surface water, soil moisture and groundwater, shows slightly decreasing trend at
297 annual scale, suggesting that the increasing precipitation in the future becomes extra
298 evapotranspiration and runoff instead of recharging the local water storage. The

299 accelerated terrestrial hydrological cycle also exists at seasonal scale, as the seasonal
300 changes are consistent with the annual ones.

301 **3.2 Changes in streamflow extremes at different warming levels**

302 Although the intensified terrestrial hydrology induces more streamflow over the
303 headwater region of Yellow river during winter and spring months, streamflow does
304 not increase and even decreases during the flood season (July-September; Figure 5a).
305 Figure 5b shows the changes of streamflow dry extremes over the Yellow river source
306 region at different warming levels, with the error bars showing estimated uncertainties.
307 The frequency of streamflow dry extremes over the Yellow river is found to increase
308 by 55% at 1.5°C warming level (Figure 5b), but the uncertainty is larger than the
309 ensemble mean. However, the dry extreme frequency will further increase to 77% and
310 125% at the 2.0 and 3.0°C warming levels and the results become significant (Figure
311 5b). No statistically significant changes are found for the wet extremes at all warming
312 levels over the Yellow River headwater region, as the uncertainty ranges are larger
313 than the ensemble means.

314 Over the Yangtze river headwater region, streamflow increases in all months at
315 different warming levels (Figure 5c). The frequency of wet extremes increases
316 significantly by 138%, 202% and 232% at 1.5, 2.0 and 3.0°C warming levels (Figure
317 5d), suggesting a higher risk of flooding. Although the frequency of dry extremes also
318 tends to decrease significantly by 35%, 44%, 34% at the three warming levels, the
319 changes are much smaller than those of the wet extremes. Moreover, contributions
320 from climate change and ecological change are both smaller than the uncertainty

321 ranges (not shown), suggesting that their impacts on the changes of dry extremes over
322 the Yangtze river headwater region are not distinguishable. Thus, we mainly focus on
323 the dry extremes over the Yellow river and the wet extremes over the Yangtze river in
324 the following analysis.

325 Different changes of streamflow extremes over the Yellow and Yangtze rivers
326 can be interpreted from different accelerating rates of precipitation and
327 evapotranspiration. Figure 6 shows probability density functions (PDFs) of
328 precipitation, evapotranspiration and their difference (P-ET, i.e. residual water for
329 runoff generation) during the flood season. Over the Yellow river, PDFs of
330 precipitation and evapotranspiration both shift to the right against the reference period,
331 except for the precipitation at 1.5°C warming level. However, the increasing trend of
332 evapotranspiration is stronger than that of precipitation, leading to a left shift for the
333 PDF of P-ET. Moreover, increased variations of precipitation and evapotranspiration,
334 as indicated by the increased spread of their PDFs, also lead to a larger spread of
335 PDFs of P-ET. The above two factors together induce a heavier left tail in the PDF of
336 P-ET for the warming future than the reference period (Figure 6e). The probability of
337 $P-ET < 80\text{mm}$ increases from 0.1 during historical period to 0.11, 0.13 and 0.16 at 1.5,
338 2.0 and 3.0°C warming levels individually. This indicates a higher probability of less
339 water left for runoff generation at different warming levels, given little changes in
340 TWS (section 3.1). Moreover, Figure 6e also shows little change in the right tails of
341 the PDF of P-ET as probability for $P-ET > 130\text{mm}$ stays around 0.1 at different
342 warming levels, suggesting little change to the probability of high residual water. This

343 is consistent with the insignificant wet extreme change over the Yellow river. Over the
344 Yangtze river, however, intensified precipitation is much larger than the increased
345 evapotranspiration, leading to a systematic rightward shift of the PDF of P-ET
346 (Figures 6b, 6d and 6f). Thus both the dry and wet extremes show significant changes
347 over the Yangtze river.

348 **3.3 Influences of land cover change and CO₂ physiological forcing**

349 Figures 7a-7b show the changes of streamflow extremes (compared with the
350 reference period) induced by climate and ecological factors. Although the contribution
351 from climate change (red bars in Figures 7a-7b) is greater than the ecological factors
352 (blue and cyan bars in in Figures 7a-7b), influences of CO₂ physiological forcing and
353 land cover change are nontrivial. The CO₂ physiological forcing tends to alleviate dry
354 extremes (or increase wet extremes), while land cover change plays a contrary role.
355 Over the Yellow river, the combined impact of the two ecological factors (sum of blue
356 and cyan bars) reduces the increasing trend of dry extremes caused by climate change
357 (red bars) by 18~22% at 1.5 and 2.0 °C warming levels, while intensifies the dry
358 extremes by 9% at 3.0°C warming level. This can be interpreted from their
359 contributions to the evapotranspiration, as enhancement effect of the increased LAI on
360 ET is weaker than the suppression effect of CO₂ physiological forcing at 1.5 and
361 2.0°C warming levels, while stronger at 3.0°C warming level (not shown). Over the
362 Yangtze river, similarly, combined effect of land cover and CO₂ physiological forcing
363 increases the wet extremes by 9% at 1.5°C warming level while decreases the wet
364 extremes by 12% at 3.0°C warming level.

365 In addition, Figures 7c and 7d show that the combined impact of CO₂
366 physiological forcing and land cover change also influences the differences between
367 different warming levels. Over the Yellow river, climate change increases dry
368 extremes by 26% from 1.5 to 2.0°C warming level, and by 40% from 1.5 and 3.0°C
369 warming level (red bars in Figure 7c). After considering the two ecological factors
370 (pink bars in Figure 7c), above two values change to 22% and 70% respectively, and
371 the difference between 1.5 and 3.0°C warming levels becomes significant. For the wet
372 extreme over the Yangtze river (Figure 7d), the climate change induced difference
373 between 1.5 and 2.0°C warming levels is decreased by 16% after accounting for the
374 two ecological factors. And this decrease reaches up to 49% for the difference
375 between 1.5 and 3.0°C warming levels. We also compared the scenarios when CO₂
376 physiological forcing and land cover change are combined with climate change
377 individually (blue and cyan bars in Figures 7c-d), and the results show the land cover
378 change dominates their combined influences on the difference between different
379 warming levels.

380 **4 Conclusions and Discussion**

381 This study investigates changes of streamflow extremes over the Sanjiangyuan
382 region at different global warming levels through high-resolution land surface
383 modeling driven by CMIP6 climate simulations. The terrestrial hydrological cycle
384 under global warming of 1.5°C is found to accelerate by 4~6% compared with the
385 reference period of 1985-2014, according to the relative changes of precipitation,
386 evapotranspiration and total runoff. The terrestrial water storage, however, shows a

387 slight but significant decreasing trend as increased evapotranspiration and runoff are
388 larger than the increased precipitation. This decreasing trend of terrestrial water
389 storage in the warming future is also found in six major basins in China (Jia et al.,
390 2020). Although streamflow changes during the flood season has a large uncertainty,
391 the frequency of wet extremes over the Yangtze river will increase significantly by
392 138% and that of dry extremes over the Yellow river will increase by 55% compared
393 with that during 1985~2014. With an additional 0.5°C warming, the frequency of dry
394 and wet extremes will increase further by 22~64%. If the global warming is not
395 adequately managed (e.g., to reach 3.0°C), wet extremes over the Yangtze river and
396 dry extremes over the Yellow river will increase by 232% and 125%. The changes
397 from 1.5 to 2.0 and 3.0°C are nonlinear compared with that from reference period to
398 1.5°C, which are also found for some fixed-threshold climate indices over the Europe
399 (Dosio and Fischer, 2018). It is necessary to cap the global warming at 2°C or even
400 lower level, to reduce the risk of wet and dry extremes over the Yangtze and Yellow
401 rivers.

402 This study also shows the nontrivial contributions from land cover change and
403 CO₂ physiological forcing to the extreme streamflow changes especially at 2.0 and
404 3.0°C warming levels. The CO₂ physiological forcing is found to increase streamflow
405 and reduce the dry extreme frequency by 14~24%, which is consistent with previous
406 findings that CO₂ physiological forcing would increase available water and reduce
407 water stress at the end of this century (Wiltshire et al., 2013). However, our results
408 further show that the drying effect of increasing LAI on streamflow will exceed the

409 wetting effect of CO₂ physiological forcing at 3.0°C warming level (during
410 2048~2075) over the Sanjiangyuan region, making a reversion in the combined
411 impacts of CO₂ physiological forcing and land cover. Thus it is vital to consider the
412 impact of land cover change in the projection of future water stress especially at high
413 warming scenarios.

414 Moreover, about 43~52% of the extreme streamflow changes between 1.5 and
415 3.0°C warming levels are attributed to the increased LAI. Considering the LAI
416 projections from different CMIP6 models are induced by the climate change, it can be
417 inferred that the indirect influence of climate change (e.g., through land cover change)
418 has the same and even larger importance on the changes of streamflow extremes
419 between 1.5 and 3.0°C or even higher warming levels, compared with the direct
420 influence (e.g., through precipitation and evapotranspiration). Thus, it is vital to
421 investigate hydrological and its extremes changes among different warming levels
422 from an eco-hydrological perspective instead of focusing on climate change alone.

423 Although we used 11 CMIP6 models combined with two SSP scenarios to reduce
424 the uncertainty of future projections caused by GCMs, using a single land surface
425 model may result in uncertainties (Marx et al., 2018). However, considering the good
426 performance of the CSSPv2 land surface model over the Sanjiangyuan region and the
427 dominant role of GCMs' uncertainty (Zhao et al., 2019; Samaniego et al., 2017),
428 uncertainty from the CSSPv2 model should have limited influence on the robustness
429 of the result.

430

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436

437 **Competing interests**

438 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

439

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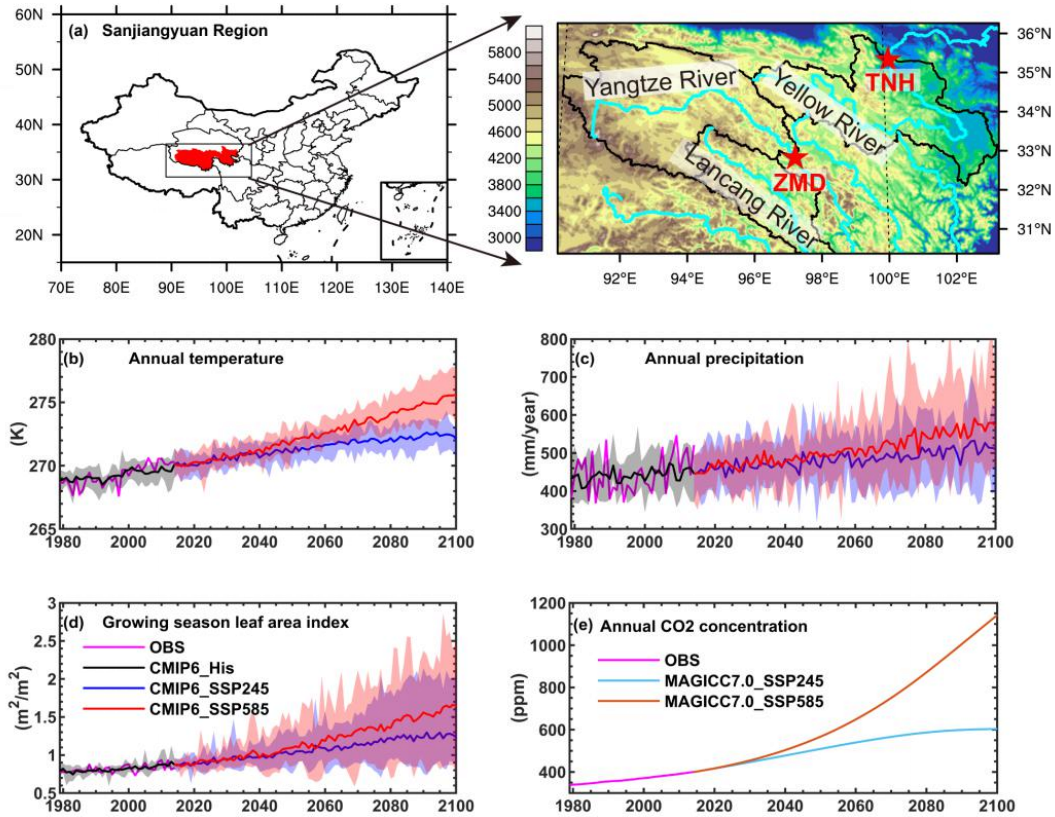
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626



628

629 **Figure 1.** (a) The locations of the Sanjiangyuan region and streamflow gauges. (b)-(d)

630 The time series of annual temperature, precipitation, and growing season leaf area

631 index averaged over the Sanjiangyuan region during 1979-2100. (e) Observed and

632 simulated annual CO₂ concentration over the Sanjiangyuan region. Red pentagrams in

633 (a) are two streamflow stations named Tangnaihai (TNH) and Zhimenda (ZMD).

634 Black, blue and red lines in (b-d) are ensemble means of CMIP6 model simulations

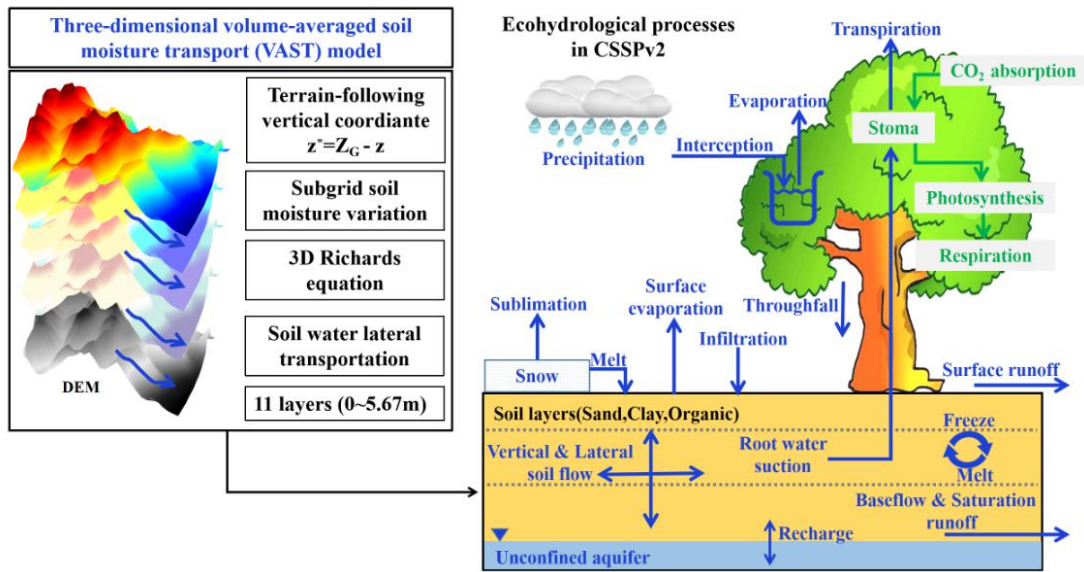
635 from the historical, SSP245 and SSP585 experiments. Shadings are ranges of

636 individual ensemble members. Cyan and brown lines in (e) are future CO₂

637 concentration under SSP245 and SSP585 scenarios simulated by MAGICC7.0 model.

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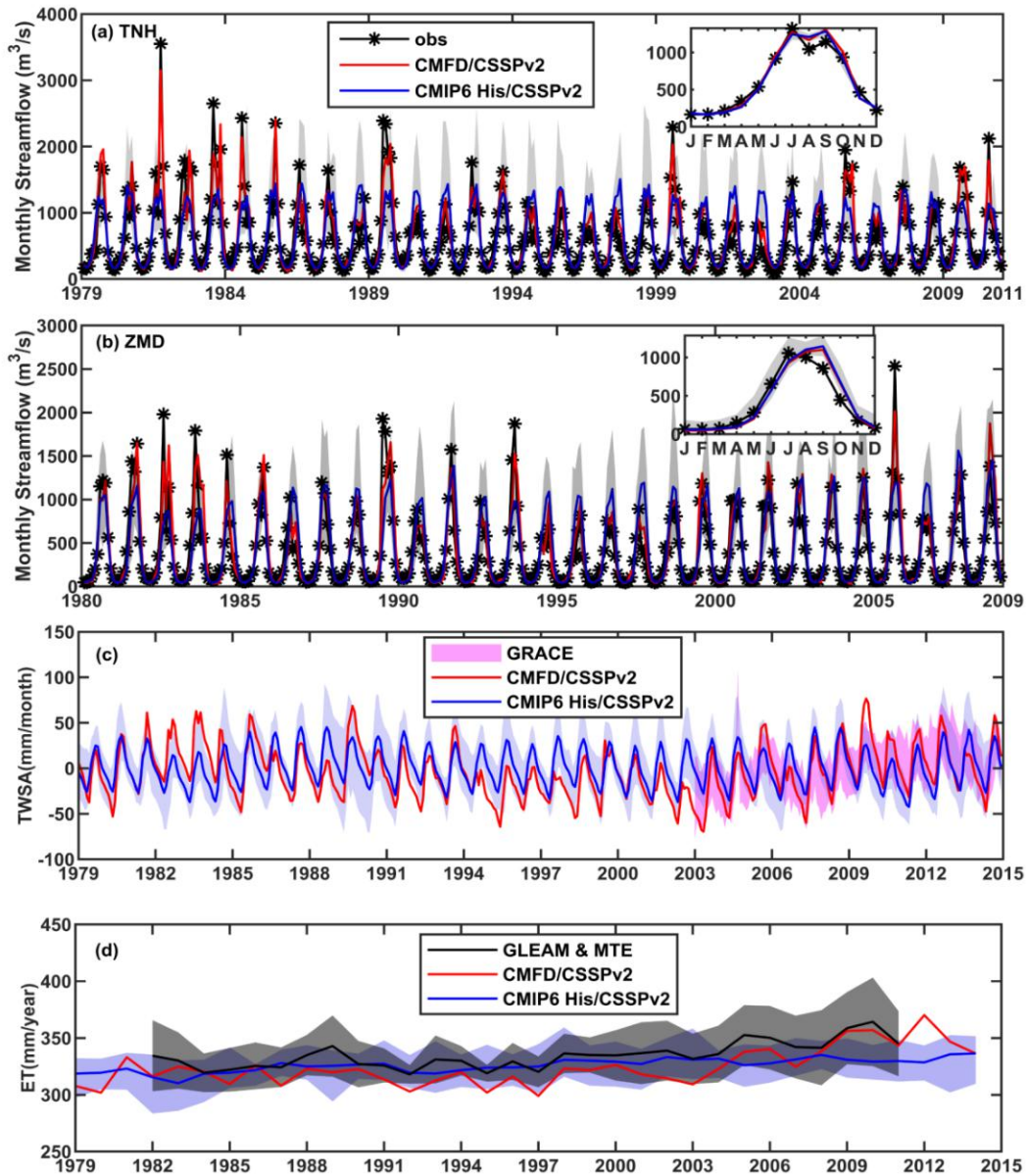
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640

641 **Figure 2.** Main ecohydrological processes in the Conjunctive Surface-Subsurface

642 Process version 2 (CSSPv2) land surface model.



643

644 **Figure 3.** Evaluation of model simulations. (a-b) Observed and simulated monthly

645 streamflow at the Tangnaihai (TNH) and Zhimenda (ZMD) hydrological stations, with

646 the climatology shown in the upper-right corner. (c-d) Evaluation of the simulated

647 monthly terrestrial water storage anomaly (TWSA) and annual evapotranspiration (ET)

648 averaged over the Sanjiangyuan region. Red lines are CSSPv2 simulation forced by

649 observed meteorological forcing. Blue lines represent ensemble means of 11

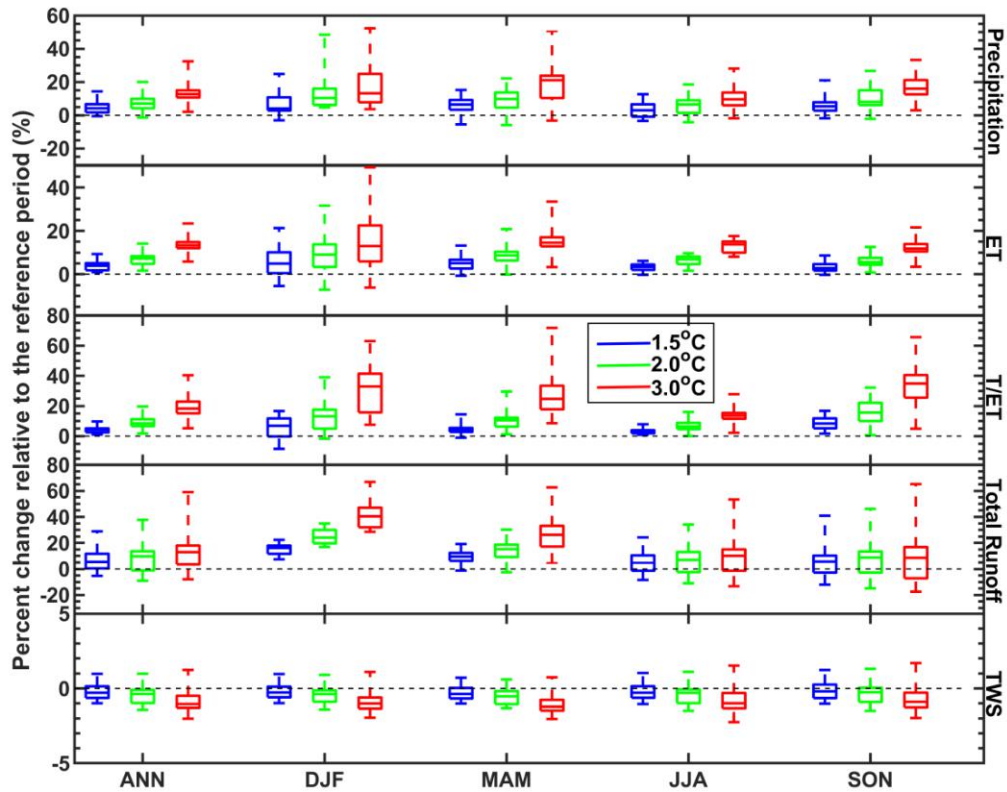
650 CMIP6_His/CSSPv2 simulations, while gray shadings in (a-b) and blue shadings in

651 (c-d) are ranges of individual ensemble members. Pink shading in (c) is GRACE

652 satellite observations. Black line and black shading in (d) are ensemble mean and
653 ranges of GLEAM_ET and MTE_ET datasets.

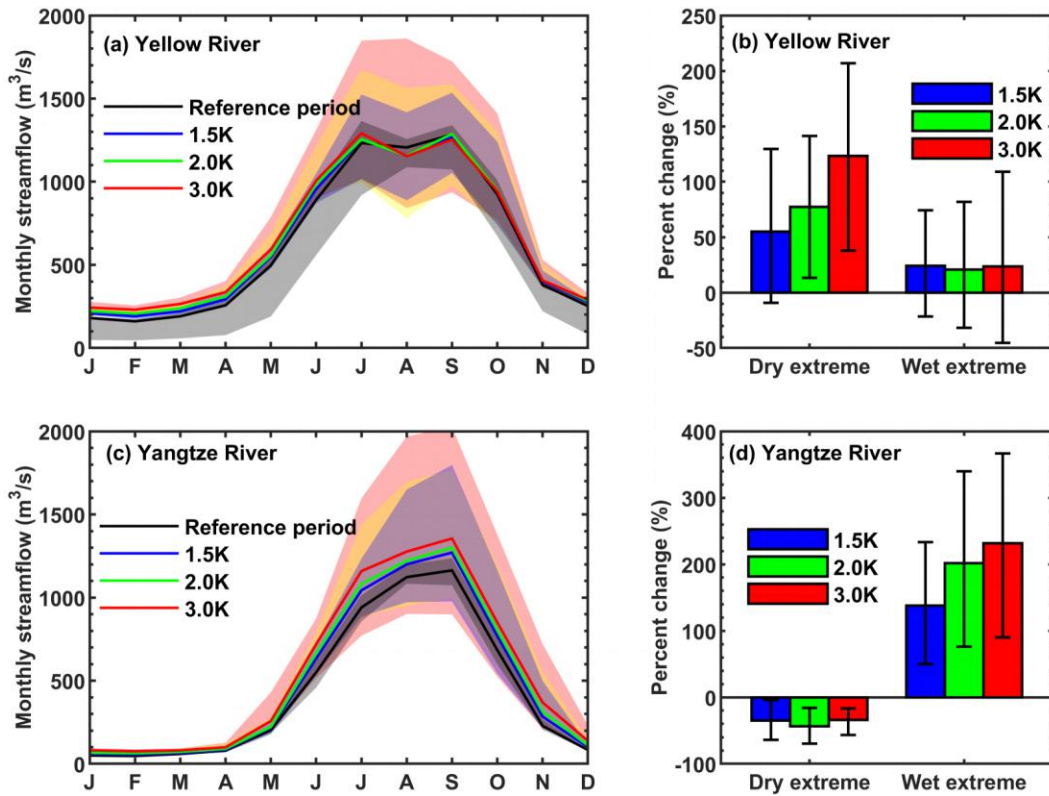
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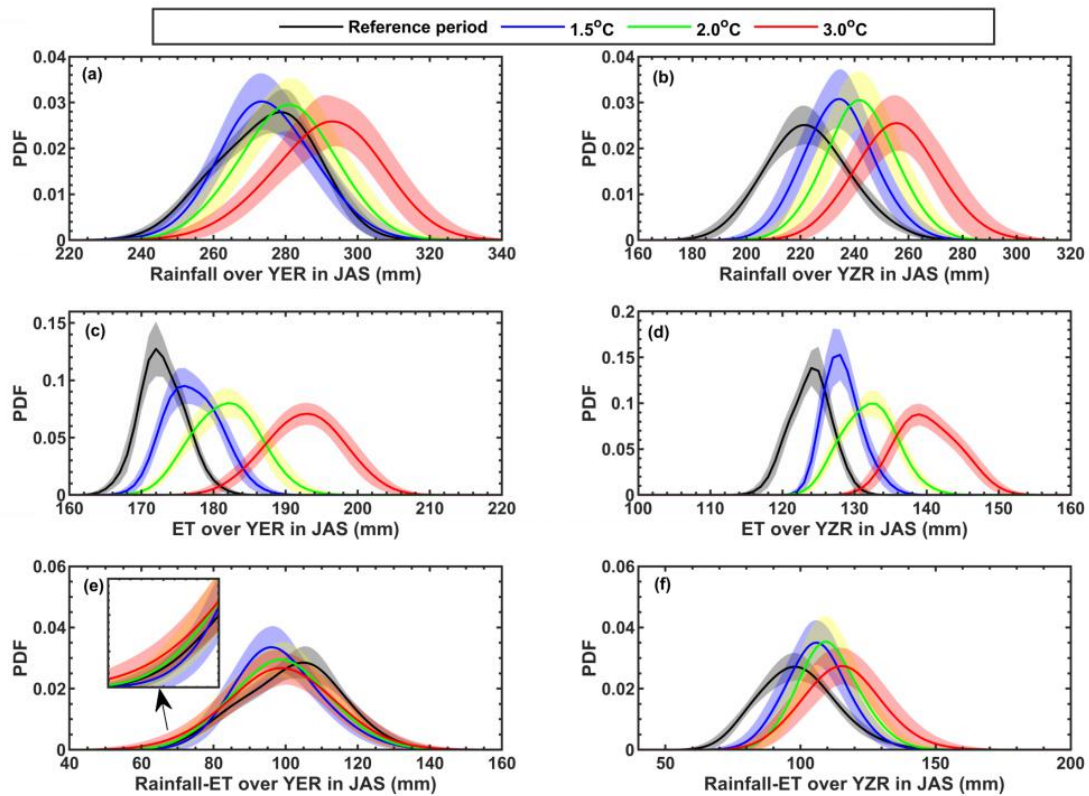
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657 **Figure 4.** Box plots of relative changes of regional mean precipitation,
 658 evapotranspiration (ET), ratio of transpiration to evapotranspiration (T/ET), total
 659 runoff and terrestrial water storage (TWS) at different global warming levels.
 660 Reference period is 1985-2014, and annual (ANN) and seasonal (winter: DF, spring:
 661 MAM, summer: JJA and autumn: SON) results are all shown. Boxes show 25th to
 662 75th ranges among 22 CMIP6_SSP/CSSPv2 simulations, while lines in the boxes are
 663 median values.



665

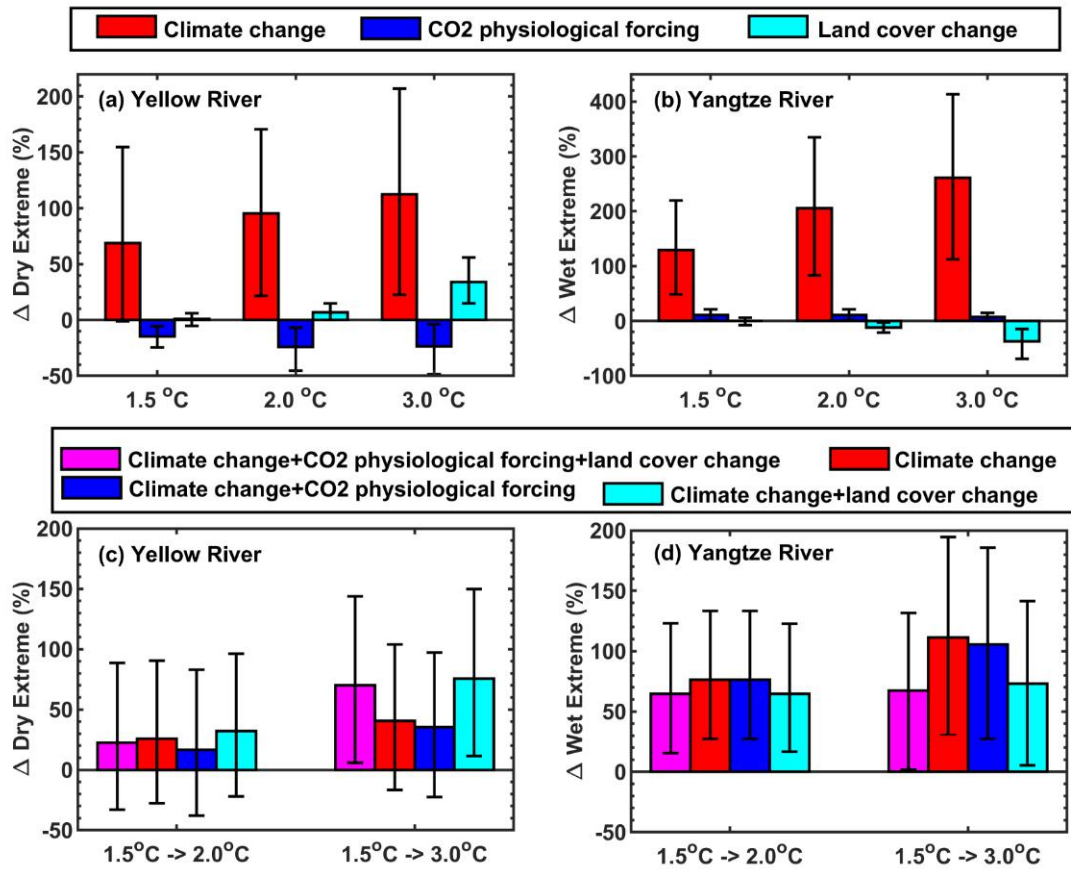
666 **Figure 5.** Changes of streamflow and its extremes at the outlets of the headwater
 667 regions of the Yellow river and the Yangtze river, i.e., Tangnaihai gauge and
 668 Zhimenda gauge. (a) Simulated monthly streamflow over the Yellow river during the
 669 reference period (1985-2014) and the periods with different global warming levels.
 670 Solid lines represent ensemble means, while shadings are ranges of individual
 671 ensemble members. (b) Percent changes in frequency of dry and wet extremes in
 672 July-September at different warming levels. Colored bars are ensemble means, while
 673 error bars are 5~95% uncertainty ranges estimated by using bootstrapping for 10,000
 674 times. (c) and (d) are the same as (a) and (b), but for the Yangtze river.



676

677 **Figure 6.** Probability density functions (PDFs) of regional mean rainfall,
 678 evapotranspiration (ET) and their difference over the headwater regions of Yellow
 679 river (YER) and Yangtze river (YZR) during flooding seasons (July-September) for
 680 the reference period (1985-2014) and the periods with 1.5, 2.0 and 3.0°C global
 681 warming levels. Shadings are 5~95% uncertainty ranges.

682



683

684 **Figure 7.** (a-b) Influences of climate change, CO₂ physiological forcing and land

685 cover change on relative changes in frequency of the dry and wet extremes in

686 July-September at different global warming levels for the headwater regions of

687 Yellow river and Yangtze river. (c-d) Changes of dry and wet extremes under

688 additional warming of 0.5 °C and 1.5 °C with the consideration of different factors. All

689 the changes are relative to the reference period (1985-2014). Ensemble means are

690 shown by colored bars while the 5~95% uncertainty ranges estimated by using

691 bootstrapping for 10,000 times are represented by error bars.

692

693 **Table 1.** CMIP6 simulations used in this study. His means historical simulations
694 during 1979-2014 with both anthropogenic and natural forcings, SSP245 and SSP585
695 represent two Shared Socioeconomic Pathways during 2015-2100. Note the
696 CNRM-CM6-1 and CNRM-ESM2-1 do not provide r1ilp1f1 realization, so r1ilp1f2
697 was used instead.

No.	Models	Experiments	Realization	Horizontal Resolution (Longitude × Latitude Grid Points)
1	ACCESS-ESM1-5	His/SSP245/SSP585	r1ilp1f1	192×145
2	BCC-CSM2-MR	His/SSP245/SSP585	r1ilp1f1	320×160
3	CESM2	His/SSP245/SSP585	r1ilp1f1	288×192
4	CNRM-CM6-1	His/SSP245/SSP585	r1ilp1f2	256×128
5	CNRM-ESM2-1	His/SSP245/SSP585	r1ilp1f2	256×128
6	EC-Earth3-Veg	His/SSP245/SSP585	r1ilp1f1	512×256
7	FGOALS-g3	His/SSP245/SSP585	r1ilp1f1	180×80
8	GFDL-CM4	His/SSP245/SSP585	r1ilp1f1	288×180
9	INM-CM5-0	His/SSP245/SSP585	r1ilp1f1	180×120
10	MPI-ESM1-2-HR	His/SSP245/SSP585	r1ilp1f1	384×192
11	MRI-ESM2-0	His/SSP245/SSP585	r1ilp1f1	320×160

698

699 **Table 2.** Determination of “crossing years” for the periods reaching 1.5, 2 and 3°C
700 warming levels for different GCM and SSP combinations.

Models	1.5°C warming level		2.0°C warming level		3.0°C warming level	
	SSP245	SSP585	SSP245	SSP585	SSP245	SSP585
ACCESS-ESM1-5	2024	2023	2037	2034	2070	2052
BCC-CSM2-MR	2026	2023	2043	2034	Not found	2054
CESM2	2024	2022	2037	2032	2069	2048
CNRM-CM6-1	2032	2028	2047	2039	2075	2055
CNRM-ESM2-1	2030	2026	2049	2039	2075	2058
EC-Earth3-Veg	2028	2023	2044	2035	2072	2053
FGOALS-g3	2033	2032	2063	2046	Not found	2069
GFDL-CM4	2025	2024	2038	2036	2073	2053
INM-CM5-0	2031	2027	2059	2038	Not found	2063
MPI-ESM1-2-HR	2032	2030	2055	2044	Not found	2066
MRI-ESM2-0	2024	2021	2038	2030	2074	2051

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702 **Table 3.** Performance for CSSPv2 model simulations driven by the observed
703 meteorological forcing (CMFD/CSSPv2) and the bias-corrected CMIP6 historical
704 simulations (CMIP6_His/CSSPv2). The metrics include correlation coefficient (CC),
705 root mean squared error (RMSE), and Kling-Gupta efficiency (KGE). The KGE is
706 only used to evaluate streamflow.

Variables	Experiments	CC	RMSE	KGE
Monthly streamflow at TNH station	CMFD/CSSPv2	0.95	165 m ³ /s	0.94
	CMIP6_His/CSSPv2	0.76	342 m ³ /s	0.71
Monthly streamflow at ZMD station	CMFD/CSSPv2	0.93	169 m ³ /s	0.91
	CMIP6_His/CSSPv2	0.82	257 m ³ /s	0.81
Monthly terrestrial water storage anomaly over the Sanjiangyuan region	CMFD/CSSPv2	0.7	22 mm/month	-
	CMIP6_His/CSSPv2	0.4	24 mm/month	-
Annual evapotranspiration over the Sanjiangyuan region	CMFD/CSSPv2	0.87	14 mm/year	-
	CMIP6_His/CSSPv2	0.47	13 mm/year	-

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