Links between seasonal suprapermafrost groundwater, the hydrothermal change of the active layer, and river runoff in alpine permafrost watersheds

Jia Qin^{1,2}, Yongjian Ding^{1,2*}, Tianding Han^{1,2}, Faxiang Shi^{1,2}, Qiudong Zhao^{2,3}, Yaping Chang^{1,3}, Junhao 5 Cui^{1,2}

¹ State Key Laboratory of Cryospheric Sciences, Northwest Institute of Eco-Environment and Resources, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Lanzhou, 730000, China

University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, 100049, China

³ Key Laboratory of Eco-hydrology Inland River Basin, Northwest Institute of Eco-Environment and Resources, Chinese
 Academy of Sciences, Lanzhou, 730000, China

Correspondence to: Yongjian Ding (dyj@lzb.ac.cn)

Abstract. The seasonal dynamic of <u>the</u> suprapermafrost groundwater significantly affects <u>the</u> runoff generation and confluence in permafrost basins and is a leading issue that must urgently be addressed in hydrological research in cold and alpine regions. In this study, the seasonal dynamic process of the suprapermafrost groundwater level (SGL), vertical gradient

- 15 changes of soil temperature (ST), and-moisture content in the active layer (AL), and river level changes were systematically analyzed at four permafrost watersheds in the Qinghai–Tibet Plateau using comparative analysis and the nonlinear correlation evaluation method. How–The impact of freeze–thaw processes impact-on seasonal SGL; and the links between SGL and surface runoff; were also discussedinvestigated. The SGL process in a hydrological year can be divided into four periods: (A) a rapid falling period (October–middle November), (B) a stable low-water period (late November–May), (C) a
- 20 rapid rising period (approximately June), and (D) a stable high-water period (July–September), which synchronously respond to seasonal variations in soil moisture and temperature in the AL. The characteristics and causes of SGL changes significantly varied significantly during these four different periods. The freeze_thaw process of the AL has crucialregulated regulatory effects on SGL and surface runoff in permafrost watersheds. During pPeriod A, with rapid AL freezing, the ST had a dominant impact on the SGL; Fin pPeriod B, the AL was entirely frozen because ofdue to the stably low ST, and-while
- 25 the SGL dropped to the lowest level with small changes. During pPeriod C, ST in the deep soil layers of the active layerAL (below 50 cm depth) significantly impacted the SGL (nonlinear correlation coefficient R²>0.74, P_<0.05), whereas the SGL change in the shallow soil layer (0-__50 cm depth) had-showed a closer relationship-association with soil moisture content. Rainfall was the major cause for the stable_-high SGL during pPeriod D. In addition, the SGLs in pPeriods C and D were closely linked to the retreat and flood processes of river runoff. The SGL contributed approximately 57.0–65.8-% of the river</p>

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runoff changes in pPeriod D. These findings can provide references for will help to facilitate future hydrological research in

the permafrost basins and guide the rational development and utilization of water resources in cold and alpine regions.

1 Introduction

<u>The g</u>Groundwater in permafrost watersheds is always composed of <u>comprises</u> suprapermafrost, intrapermafrost, and subpermafrost groundwater (Clark et al., 2001; Mavromatis et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2020). The suprapermafrost

- 35 groundwater (SG) refers to the groundwater distributed above the permafrost layer, <u>jand</u> its stable floor is the permafrost table, which is primarily recharged is primarily replenished by rainfall, surface water, and lateral flow in the active layer (AL) (Ma et al., 2017; Tregubov et al., 2022). When the surface soil is frozen, most surface replenishment recharge sources of the SG are cut off, whereas, during the summer thawing season, the SG becomes non-confined water with a free surface (Qin et al., 2022). SG significantly impacts the regional water cycle and the supply-demand relationship of ecological water
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processes and hydrology in cold regions (Wellman et al., 2013; Chang et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2021).

The <u>suprapermafrost groundwater level (SGL)</u> maintains a high value during the summer half-<u>of the</u> year because of<u>due to</u> the quantity of rainfall and surface water frequently infiltrating into the thawed AL (Wei et al., 2021; Tregubov et al., 2021; <u>Wei et al., 2021</u>). The <u>dynamics of the</u> suprapermafrost groundwater level (SGL_) dynamic is<u>are</u> directly affected

in permafrost watersheds (Huang et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2021). It-) and plays a crucial role in regulating land surface

- 45 by rainfall and the surface meltwater supply (Young et al., 2000). Because of <u>Due to</u> the impermeability of the permafrost table, SG can flow out of low-lying areas after reaching a particular level or <u>laterally directly</u> supply river runoff or lakes <u>laterally</u> (Krickov et al., 2018; O'Neill et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2021; Qin et al., 2022). In the winter half of the year, with decreasing air temperature and surface soil freezing, most SG <u>turn-transforms</u> into ground ice stored in the AL (Xu et al., 2021). As a type of groundwater, SG has a crucial significantly impacts on the hydrological processes and water cycles in the
- 50 permafrost basins through water migration and transformation (Ge et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2018). <u>SG_As-is_one</u> of the primary water sources for lake and river runoffs in a permafrost basin, the SG cannot be disregarded, especially during the summer AL thawing period. In some continuous permafrost basins, such as the source area of the Shule River in the northeastern part of the Qinghai–Tibet Plateau (QTP), SG contributes to over 30-% of the total river runoff (Qin et al., 2022). The SG replenished recharged-over 60 mm of water into the thermokarst lake Thermokarst Lake in the Beiluhe watershed of
- the QTP_from June 20 to October 26, 2019, when the surface runoff flow into the thermokarst lake<u>Thermokarst Lake</u> was only approximately 170 mm (Gao et al., 2021). The effect of frozen SG in the winter half of the year can also not beshould be considered <u>-disregarded because since</u> the ice stored in AL could rapidly thaw <u>in-during</u> spring and supply a substantial amount of water to the spring flood. For example, at least one-third of the Shestakovka River spring flood is formed by attributed to melted superpermaforst ice (Lebedeva, 2019), and the measured SG contributes to over 60-<u>%%</u> of the total discharge in the Ugol'naya-Dionisiya River at the beginning of the warm season (Tregubov et al., 2021). In addition, SG is a

major source of baseflow in cold river basins. Simulation analysis shows that $t\underline{T}$ he <u>SG</u> contribution of <u>SG</u> to base flow is over 90.%% in the continuous permafrost region of the Yukon River Basin around the Arctic (Walvoord et al., 2012).

Permafrost thaw is closely linked to soil moisture and temperature (Schuur and Abbott, 2011). The dynamics of SGL are closely related to associated with the seasonal hydrothermal changes and freeze-thaw processes of AL. With the

- 65 freezing thawing refreezing of the AL, tThe SGL correspondingly has a correspondingly distinct response to -the freezingthawing-refreezing of AL (Renzheng and Juan, 2019), which is a significant hydrological characteristic that differs from that in non-frozen soil regions (Wei et al., 2018). Previous studies regarding on seasonal SG have primarily focused on the characteristics of SGL change in different freeze-thaw stages of AL in basins of the high latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere and QTP (Chang et al., 2015; Throckmorton et al., 2016; O'Connor et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2021) and the
- 70 impact factors of SG variation, including the climate (such as rainfall and air temperature (Dugan et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2021), geological conditions (Woo and Xia, 1995; Sjöberg et al., 2013), soil properties (Raudina et al., 2018), and vegetation types (Koch et al., 2022), as well as the slope and aspect of the permafrost watershed (Wei et al., 2021; Tregubov et al., 2021; Wei et al., 2021). O'Connor et al. (2019) found have previously reported that the SGL in the during early summer (June) in was lower than that in the lateduring late summer (August) in an Arctic watershed. Chang et al. (2015) and Gao et al. (2021) 75 reported that SGL significantsignificantly rises rose during the AL thawing period during in summer, while it will falls back
- and was rapidly fellrestored after following land surface freezing in autumn and early-winter in the source region of the Yangtze River. These studies have-recognized the significant impact of seasonal SG on the ecology and the-interaction between surface water and groundwater in cold regions, which have further highlighted the necessity of conducting a systematic study-investigations intoon the seasonal changes of SG in the Qinghai Tibet Plateau, as an important cold region
- 80 in the world.

Changes in Aair temperature change directly affects affect the thickness and the freeze-thaw process of AL, as well as the water-resisting effect of permafrost (Chang et al., 2015). That It, in turn, causes further initiatess the replenishment process and dynamic changes of SGL (O'Connor et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2021). Precipitation is the main-primary water source of SG. Especially in the thawing period, rainfall directly dominates the SGL variation (Dugan et al., 2009; Zhang et 85 al., 2021). In addition, the SGL always varies in permafrost regions with different vegetation and soils, because of due to the varied-<u>differences in migration rates</u> and infiltration amounts of surface water to SG. For example, the hydrograph of SGL in alpine meadows is significantly differenters from that of alpine grasslands and bare land during the same rainfall events. In non-vegetation regions, SGL<u>peaks and rapidly</u> responds faster to rainfall and has the highest peak (Koch et al., 2022). In addition, the SG depth also varies in different land cover of a of specific regions, ; for instance, such as the SG depth in the swamp meadow of the Yellow River source is 0.1-0.8 meters, while 0.8-2 meters in the alpine grassland, and 2-8 meters in the desertification grassland (Wenbing et al., 2003). Moreover, it is evident that there are significant differences have been reported in the interactive transport between SG and river runoff under different topographies, especially under different slope aspects. Wei et al. (2018, 2021) reported that SG hasobserved a lower terrain migration trend for SG in during the thawing season, and they propose proposed a hypothesis that the SG maybe flows into and recharge replenish the nearby 95 rivers or Thermokarst Lakes-thermkarst lakes. Renzheng- (2019) reported that a few-small amount of water could infiltrate into-AL in-during the initial freeze period of surface soil, which leads to thereby lowering SGL comparing compared to-with river levels (RL); therefore, thus the SG would be resupplied by the nearby rivers. However, these findings lack supporting

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analysis based on field observation data. It is <u>therefore</u> necessary to conduct a detailed study of <u>on</u> the "SG-river level<u>RL</u>" dynamic to clarify its linkage with to topography changes.

- 100 Existing Data from previous studies have expanded our enhanced the understanding of SG, the and its effect of which has improved the development of permafrost hydrology. It is necessary to systematically reveal-investigate the linkage between the seasonal hydrothermal changes of AL, SG₃₇ and surface runoff. This unclear linkage, which has been regarded as a "black box" in hydrological analyses and simulations (Yongjian et al., 2017), is a bottleneck problem in permafrost hydrological studies (Ge et al., 2011; Lafrenière et al., 2019). Identifying seasonal variations in SG and its hydrological
- 105 linkages based on systematic experimental observations is essential in cold regions, especially in the context of climate warming.

To <u>further_better</u> understand the dynamic rules and driving factors of SG, this study selected continuous permafrost watersheds in different locations of the QTP to <u>explore-address</u> two <u>scientific problemschallenges</u>: (1) the seasonal dynamic pattern and spatial differentiation law of SG and (2) the influence of the AL freeze-thaw process on the dynamic changes in

SG and river runoff in permafrost watersheds. Based on field observations, this study attempted to-revealed the seasonal variation patterns of SG, aiming to provide scientific and theoretical support for and facilitate regional water cycle research in permafrost regions.

2 Study area and materials

2.1 Selected research stations

- 115 Due to tThe long-term cold climate and special geological tectonic movements, contribute to the special -development process and distribution characteristics of the permafrost on-in the QTP has a special development process and distribution characteristics (Cheng et al., 2019). With the rising temperatures, the permafrost area in the plateau has decreased to 1.06 million km² (or 40% of the total area of the QTP), but ityet remains the largest and highest permafrost region in the middle and low latitudes of the world (Zhao et al., 2020). The climate on-in the QTP has become warmer and wetter, with the warming rate almost twice the global average (Zhao et al., 2020). With permafrost the degradation of permafrost, the permafrost thickness has become has become thinner and some island permafrost have has also begun to thaw, making proundwater dynamic gradually active. There is a large amount of groundwater in the OTP and while several many areas are
 - groundwater dynamic gradually active. There is a large amount of groundwater in the QTP, and while several many areas are affected by permafrost and AL change. Large A large proportion of groundwater burial is shallow, and the thickness of the aquifer is relatively thin (<3_m) (Cheng and Jin, 2013).

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5 Four permafrost stations were selected in this study-(, namely HLG, SL, MD, and FHS)-, at different locations on the QTP (Fig. 1) to conduct<u>for</u>-a comparative analysis of the meteorological and hydrothermal changes in AL and river runoff. The HLG experimental station and SL experimental stations are located in the headwater regions of the Heihe and Shule Rivers in the Qilian Mountains of the northeastern QTP, respectively, and while the MD and FHS stations are in the headwater regions of the Yellow and Yangtze Rivers in the hinterland of the QTP, respectively. The mean annual

- precipitation at these four stations ranges from 100_to 400 mm. Stations HLG and SL in the Qilian Mountains have higher annual precipitation than stations stations FHS and MD. The annual precipitation at the HLG station is the highest (403.4 mm), whereas that at the MD station is 133.7 mm. The mean annual temperature in the four stations ranges from -5.2 °C (FHS) to 2 °C (MD), and while the their ground temperature ranges from -1.7 °C (FHS) to 0.3 °C (HLG). The maximum AL thawing depth at the research sites changes from 1.5 m at the FHS observation station to 2.5 m at the HLG station in summer.
 The primary vegetation types on the underlying surfaces of the stations are alpine meadows, alpine grasslands, and swamp
- meadows (Table 1).



140 Figure 1: Permafrost distribution and locations of the four SG observation stations in the QTP.

Table 1. The parameter characteristics in the four experimental watersheds of the Qinghai-Tibet plateau.

	P (mm)	Ta (°C)	Tg (°C)	Hmax (m)	vegetation type
HLG	403.4	-3.1	-0.3	2.5	Alpine grassland
SL	350.2	-3.5	-0.5	2.0	Alpine meadow
MD	133.7	-2.0	-1.0	1.8	Swamp meadow
FHS	290.9	-5.2	-1.7	1.5	Alpine meadow

Note: P is the annual precipitation, Ta is the annual mean air temperature, Tg is the annual mean ground temperature, and Hmax is the 145 maximum yearly depth of AL.

The AL thickness of the four experimental watersheds them is influenced by the vegetation coverage and slope orientation. In areas with poor vegetation coverage and sunny slopes, the total thickness of the permafrost layer does not 150 exceed 100 m; conversely, --iIn areas with well-developed vegetation and shady slopes, the maximum thickness of the permafrost layer can reach-about 300 m, while the permafrost layer on the riverbed is the thinnest (e.g. it generally lower than 50_m in FHS). In addition, AL and deeper permafrost layerlayers contain abundant ground ice, and the thawing and freezing of ground icewhich in AL-can significantly affect SVMC change. The selected watersheds are commonly located in relativerelatively open terrain with wide and shallow valleyvalleys, and with the mean annual river discharge of them are 155 0.12×10^8 km³ (HLG), 0.2×10^8 km³ (FHS), 0.4×10^8 km³ (MD), and 1.0×10^8 km³ (SL), respectively. Over 80% of the RL is concentrated in the summer half year. Storage time of groundwater, especially the SG, in the experimental watersheds is relatively short and relies heavily on the supply of precipitation. SG is always discharged through by converging into adjacent rivers. The active period of groundwater is mainly during June-October;, and the SG around the river has been stored for a long time. Affected by the river water, there is stillremains a high SG level in November, with sufficient recharge 160 replenishment and more active movement of groundwater. In-During summer, groundwater replenishes the river water, while in later autumn and early winter, the RL is above the SGL, leading to the replenishment of SG recharging back-from river water-to-SG.

2.2 Experimental data

This study was primarily based on soil temperature (ST) and soil volumetric moisture content (SVMC) measured at different 165 depths of AL, as well as the SGL data at the four permafrost stations (Fig. 1). The analysis of ST, SVMC₂₅ and SGL was conducted in a hydrological year (from 1st of October-1 to 30th of September-30), and and the time scale was daily. These data were obtained from the field observation stations of the Chinese Academy of Sciences, along with -and from existing literature (Chang et al., 2015; Wei et al., 2018; Qin et al., 2022). The daily data of the river level (RLL) during the wet season (in summer) and water recession period (in autumn) in SL and FHS watersheds was also measured and compared 170 with SGL to analyze the "SGL-RL" dynamic relationship. Daily rainfall data for the same hydrological year were obtained from automatic rain and snow gauges (T-200B) (30 min) at the permafrost stations and national weather stations (http://data.cma.cn/) in the study areas.

2.3 Observation of soil hydrothermal change and SGL

- ST and SVMC at different AL depths were the two major soil hydrothermal parameters used in this study. In SL and HLG stations, <u>ST and SVMC they</u>-were continuously measured using HydraProbe Lite sensors with an accuracy of 0.3 °C and ±1.0.%%. The ST in the MD and FHS stations were measured <u>by-using</u> S-TMB-M006 sensors with an accuracy of 0.2 °C₅ and the SVMC was measured <u>by-using</u> S-SMC-M005 sensors with an accuracy of ±3.0.%%. All sensors are suitable for use at -40.°C 50 °C. All probes used for measuring the ST and SVMC were buried in the soil from the ground surface (10 cm depth) to the permafrost table. Probes were installed in the soil at depths of 10, 20, 40, 60, 80, 120₃, and and 160 cm. All
- depth) to the permanost table. Proces were instaned in the son at depths of 10, 20, 40, 60, 80, 120<u>s</u>, and and 100 cm. An instruments were attached to a CR1000 data logger for data acquisition at each station, and recorded data were collected once every 30 min. The ST and SVMC data in the SL, MD_s and FHS stations were used to detail analyseanalyze the hydrothermal change of AL in a hydrological year, because since some data of ST and SVMC in the HLG station is was missing due to instrument damage.
- The SGLs at the four stations were measured using a HOBO pressure water level logger (U 20-001-04) produced in the United States. The logger, is a built-in pressure water level sensor with a fully enclosed titanium alloy shell, is. It is suitable for the automatic observation of groundwater in alpine environments. The measurement accuracy was high, with a resolution of 0.014 kPa (0.14 cm water depth). A water level logger was set in the AL groundwater wells at the four stations, and data were automatically collected every 30 min₁. The HOBOware Pro software was used to operate the logger. Using a reference water level, HOBOware Pro automatically converts pressure readings into water level readings, and the providing_SGL data for a specific measurement period-can be obtained. In addition, some data from manually measuring the groundwater level with a ruler were used to compare and correct the HOBO-observed SGL data in different wet and dry periods. Daily SGL was calculated by averaging all corrected water level data obtained every 30 min for each daydaily.
- The necessary calibrations of tThe SGL, SVMC₂₇, and and ST sensors were done-calibrated prior tobefore field observations. The calibration process, which includeds measuring the initial value of the sensors, recording the measurement results, and and then adjusting the measurement results to achieve accurate values. Before install and bury probes, wWe firstly excavated the original soil in AL layer by layer. Then, and buried the probes: were buried and the uundisturbed soils were backfilled in different layers. At the beginningDuring the initial days of the SGL, SVMC, and ST sensor workingfunction, the data were always-influenced by the unstable soil structure. So and were therefore the data in the initial period of the sensors installed were excluded from analysisin the study. Daily, Every 30 min of recorded data recorded in a day will bewas assessed ehecked to eliminate instantaneous-abnormally high or low values, which were interpolated by adjacent data. In addition, typical alpine hillslopes were selected in the central part of the SL and FHS experimental watersheds where the groundwater flow field on the hillslopes was cut by the river (with ground ice exposed at the edge of
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205 thawing period.

2.4 Correlation analysis between the SGL and soil hydrothermal parameters in the AL

For a detailed study on To better investigate seasonal SGL, the tipping points of the SGL data series were analyzed using the Pettitt test (Pettitt, 1979). A contour map was created using SigmaPlot (SigmaPlot 14.0, 2020) software to analyze the ST and SVMC changes at different depths of the AL. To analyze the impact of soil hydrothermal parameters on SGL, the 210 Boltzmann formula was used to perform nonlinear fitting between ST and SGL as well as between-SVMC and SGL at different AL depths. The formula was evaluated and judged to be optimum for to nonlinear fitting analysis between SG and hydrothermal variables in AL (Wang et al., 2012; Chang et al., 2015), as confirmed using through the Levenberg-Marquardt method (Bates and Watts, 1988) and Universal Global Optimization algorithm (Benson, 2002). SPSS (SPSS 18.0, 2016) was used to perform nonlinear correlation analysis. The fitting and correlations were evaluated using the coefficient of determination (R^2) and root mean square error (RMSE). The Boltzmann formula is expressed as follows: 215

$$H = H_0 + \frac{a}{1 + e^{-\left(\frac{T - T_0}{b}\right)}}$$

where H represents is the SGL, and T and T_0 represent are the ST of the target depths and the initial ST during the calculation period at that depth, respectively (unit: $^{\circ}C$); H₀ represents-is the initial SGL, and a and b are undetermined parameters that are related to associated with soil characteristics at different depths.

220 3 Seasonal characteristics of SGL, ST₂, and and SVMC

As shown in Figure Fig. 2, the SG data series during a-the hydrological year have four obvious tipping points in each one of the four observation stations. The Pettitt test results indicated that the trend of the streamflow series changed on 4th of December4 Dec, 11th of June, 11 Jun, and and 5th of July5 Jul in the HLG station; 17th of November17 Nov, 10th, and 25th of a June, 10 Jun, and 25 Jun in the SL station; 3rd of November 3 Nov, 5th of December 5 Dec, 6th of June, 6 Jun, and and 10th of July10 Jul in the MD station;, andas well as 29th of October29 Oct, 20th of November,20 Nov 7th, and 26th of June , 7 Jun, 225 and 26 Jun-in the FHS station. According to the tip points, which refer to the start or end times of different periods, there are four typical periods of SGL variation throughout the hydrological year at different stations on the QTP. The four periods of the SG hydrographs, which can be divided as follows: (A) rapid falling period, (B) stable low-water period, (C) rapid rising period,, and and (D) stable high-water period. Periods A-D began in mid-autumn (October-early November), early winter 230 (late November–early December), early summer (June), and mid-summer (July), respectively. The specific start and end times of each period, as well as the duration of each period, showed minimal difference among the four stations (Fig. 2).

rapidly <u>decreases decreased</u> to <u>0 °C zero</u> (rapid freezing) <u>and</u>, stable low temperature below 0 °C (frozen stability), rapidly <u>rising increased</u> above 0 °C (rapid thawing), and <u>fluctuation fluctuated</u> above 0 °C (thawing stability) in Periods A, B, C₁₃, and D, respectively. The SVMC also has four corresponding stages, <u>namely</u>: rapid reduction, stable low value, rapid rise_3 and fluctuation with the complete melting of the AL.

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To some extent, SVMC could be a dynamic indicator of SGL. According to the vertical variations in seasonal SVMC and SGL at the experimental sites (Fig. 3), summer SGL fluctuates at depths where SVMC has a high value. For example, the summer SGL at the SL site primarily fluctuated at 40–60 cm depths, where the SVMC also hashad a high value, and while the soil remains remained saturated or nearly saturated for an extended duration. Similar toLikewise the SL station, the summer SGL at the MD station fluctuates fluctuated in 10–80 cm depths, where the SVMC also maintained a higher value (Fig. 2). Exploring the soil characteristics and SVMC in the AL can indirectly clarify the SGL dynamics in a specific area.



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Figure 2: Four major phases of the seasonal suprapermafrost groundwater level (SGL) and the corresponding daily precipitation
 (P) in different sites of the QTP. A–D refer to the rapid falling period, stable low-water period, rapid rising period, and and stable high-water period, respectively.

250 Figure 3: Vertical variations in soil temperature (ST) and soil volumetric moisture content (SVMC) in the different sites of the QTP.

<u>that</u> AL <u>has</u>-<u>had</u> a distinct role in water conservation and <u>ean</u>-<u>could</u> significantly regulate soil water transport and runoff processes in a permafrost watershed. This water-conservation effect is crucial for alpine ecosystems.

4 Impact of ST and SVMC on SG in the study area

Figuress- 4 and 5 show the correlations between ST and SGL, as well as between SVMC and SGL, in different soil layers at 265 the SL station. The nonlinear relationships between the measured ST and SG are were very good (R²>0.8, P_<0.01) during pPeriod A (also the rapid freezing period of AL) (Fig. 4a). The results in Figure Fig. 4a show a significant nonlinear correlation between SGL and ST at different depths ranging from 0-to-160 cm, with a determinable coefficient (\mathbb{R}^2) ranging from 0.81–0.98 (P_<0.05). However, significant differences were observed in the response of the SGL to the ST at different depths. For example, the range of ST at a depth of 10 cm at the SL station was approximately -10-5 °C₂ corresponding to 270 rapid changes in SGL, while it narrowed to approximately -4-4 °C at a depth of 50 cm, -1-4 °C at a depth of 90 cm₃₇ and approximately -0.2-3 °C at a depth of 160 cm (Fig. 4a). This is consistent with the gradual decrease in ST with increasing depth, which indicates that SG is more sensitive to ST changes in the deeper AL than in the shallow layer in pPeriod A. According to the fitting analysis shown in Figure Fig. 4a, the correlation between ST and SGL gradually increases increased with increasing depth. In the early stage of pPeriod A, as the ST decreased, the soil froze gradually, and the liquid water in 275 the soil transformed into solid ice, resulting in a thereby decreasing e in the SGL. The correlation coefficient between ST and SGL was the lowest in shallow soil, especially in the soil layer of 0-10 cm depth. This, indicates ing that the impact of shallow soil freezing on the SGL was weak during the freezing-process in Period A. This has a limited impact on the SGL, which can obtain a particular amount of some surface water through fissure infiltration and lateral flow.

Figure 4: Correlations of SGL and SVMC (ST) in different depths of AL during Periods A and C. 280

While Meanwhile, in the period C (also the rapid thawing period of AL), the nonlinear relationships between the measured ST and SG fit well only in the deeper soil layers (below 50 cm depths) of AL (Fig. 4c). - The SG in the deeper soil layers was more dominated by ST compared with that in the shallow soils during Period C. In the period During this, there 285 was no significant relationship between ST and SGL at depths of 10, 30, and or 50 cm (P > 0.05). ST at 70, 90, 120,, and and 160 cm depths had a significant effect on SGL (P_<0.01): However, the overall correlation between ST and SGL improved with increasing depth, and the impact of ST on SGL became more significant (Fig. 4c). The shallow soils (0-50 cm) in AL rapidly thawed in the initial stage of pPeriod C, with the rapidly rising SGL-rising rapidly, caused by the rapid supply of external water sources, including the potential lateral flow from thawed soils, rainfall and snowmelt infiltration (Yongjian et 290 al., 2017). In the subsequent stage of Period C, soil water replenishment was relatively stable, and SGL dynamics were significantly affected by the thawing depths of AL dominated by ST, according to the good consistency between SGL and the thawing process (Figs. 2 and 3). In addition, the variation range of ST in the different soil layers differed, as during Period C. As shown in Fig. 4c, the ST range in shallow soil was substantially wider than that in deep soil (Fig. 4c).- During the SGL variation period, the variation range of ST at a depth of 10 cm was $3-12 \, {}^{\circ}C_{3}$, while and the response of SGL to ST in deep soil was more intense. For example, the fluctuation of SGL from low to high water levels was completed within the

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range of approximately -0.5-0.5 °C at 160 cm (Fig. 4c). This indicates that the ST impacts SGL dynamics only after soil thawing (>_-0.5 °C).

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- Compared to-with ST, the impact of SVMC on SGL is limited during pPeriod A, although the nonlinear relationships between SGL and SVMC fit well both in the 0–90 cm deep soils ($0.85 \le R^2 \le 0.96$, P_<0.05) and 120–160 cm deep soils ($R^2 = 0.96$, P_<0.01)-during Period A (Fig. 4b). As ST continued to decreases during pPeriod A, the liquid water in the AL soil gradually froze-freezes into solid water, resulting in the observed SVMC (liquid water content), and the SGL continuously accordingly decreased-decreases accordingly. Although there was a good relationship between SGL and SVMC at the 120– 160 cm depth, the impact of soil moisture below 120 cm on SGL may be limited because since SGL drops rapidly from high to low levels with minimal decrease in SVMC below 120 a depth of 120-cm (Fig. 4b).
- When the SGL changed in pPeriod A, the variation range of the SVMC first increased and then decreased from the shallow to deep soil layers. The SVMC range gradually increased from 7–22-%% (10 cm) in the shallowest layer to 10–33-%% (70 cm) and then gradually decreased to 32–33-%% (160 cm). This indicates that the response rate of the SGL to soil moisture first decreased and and then increased with depth. By comparing the response rate of SGL to ST changes at different depths during pPeriod A (Fig. 4a), it waswe found that deeper soils in the 0–70 cm soil layer had-showed a larger influence of ST on SGL. Although the SVMC and ST both-have good relationships with the SGL at a depth below-a depth of 70 cm, the variation scope of the SVMC isremains minimal. The freezing process of deep soil determines the uplift process of the AL lower boundary, which affects the SGL. Therefore, the deep layer also more directly impacts the SGL owing to the ST.
- The SGL during <u>pPeriod C is-was</u> closely related to the changes in soil water of AL, especially in the shallow soil layers. As shown in Figure–Fig. 4d, the correlations between the SGL and SVMC were–also fitted well during Period C (RMSE <-10). Except for the soil layers at 70–120 cm depths, where the correlation between the SGL and SVMC was poorer ($R^2 <-0.6$, P >-0.05), the different soil layers of AL showed a good nonlinear correlation between the SGL and SVMC (P <0.01) (Fig. 4d). The SGL changes in soil layers at 0–50 cm depths were more correlated with the–SVMC, while SGL changes in a deeper AL<u>layer</u> (70–120 cm-depths) were more significantly affected by ST, with better correlation (Fig.ure 4c,
- 4d). The correlawwtioncorrelation between SVMC and SGL was also very good (R² = 0.93) at the <u>AL</u> bottom of the AL (160 cm depth). The correlation patterns further confirmed that AL began to melt downwards from the surface soil during the warm season. <u>Meanwhile</u>, <u>Dd</u>uring the rapid thawing period of AL (<u>pPeriod C</u>), the shallow soil first <u>melts-melted</u> and <u>can could rapidly</u> receive water supply from rainfall and surface meltwater, <u>which further resultsresulting</u> in the rapid response of the SGL. The SGL in a shallow soil layer has a high degree of response to SVMC change, while the thawing of deep soil in
- 325 AL is primarily controlled by ST. A higher ST leads to deep soil thaws, and the water flow channels between the surface AL and deep soil can then be fully connected, resulting incausing alternations in SGL-changing accordingly. When the deep soil insufficiently-thaweding is not significant, the water-resisting effect of frozen soil existsbecomes more prominent, and the it is difficult to-formation of lateral flow and saturated soil flow to replenish recharge the SG becomes challenging. The water movement of the thawed soil layer (including saturated soil flow) cannot does not participate in SG dynamics, resulting in

- athereby weakening theer response of the SGL changes to SVMC than to ST in the 70–160 cm deep soil layer throughout 330 pPeriod C. Based on the analysis above, it can be inferred that Therefore, the SG in Period C is primarily replenished recharged by soil water in the shallow layers, and the SGL rise is significantly influenced by thawing depth, dominated by ST in-a deeper AL.
- In pPeriod D (also the stable thawing period of AL), SGL was mostly not sensitive to either ST or SVMC changes in 335 different AL depths-of the AL, according to the correlation analysis (Fig. 5). The range of ST fluctuations gradually decreases with increasing AL depth, though but generally exceedings 2 °C. Through correlation analysis, we found that tThe correlation between the ST at different AL depths and the SGL during period D was very poor (R²<0.1) (Fig. 5a). The SVMC shows showed an "increase-decrease-increase" process as depth increases increased. The correlation between SVMC and SGL in the shallow soil was better than that in the deep soil, with the highest correlation observed at a depth of 10 cm 340 $(R^2=0.52)$ (Fig. 5b). This Lindicatinges that during pPeriod D, the SGL was more sensitive to SVMC changes in the shallow AL (0-30 cm)-, whereas The SGL in the remaining depths of the AL werewas not sensitive to either ST or SVMC changes during Period D, when SGL fluctuated at high values for an extended duration, while and deep soil water remained predominantly saturated or nearly saturated. According to the rainfall process during this period (Fig. 2), the dynamics of the SGL were primarily affected by rainfall, which could rapidly replenish recharge the water storage in shallow soils and subsequently affect the SGL.
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Figure 5: Variations and correlations of SGL and ST (a) as well as SGL and SVMC (b) in different depths (Ds) of the permafrost active layer in Period D.

5 Linkage between river discharge and SGL

To further analyze the impact of SG on river runoff, Figure Fig. 6 shows the relationship between SGL and RL in the SL and FHS river basins during pPeriods C and D, respectively. In both the SL and FHS watersheds, the SGL and RL processes were similar (Figure-Fig. 6a, 6c). As shown in Figure-Fig. 6a, the SGL and RL showed stable fluctuations in the SL watershed during 15–25th of June 15–June 25 (pPeriod C) and 19th of July to the 24th of 19–August 24 (early pPeriod D), with a high (P <0.05) and the consistency of the "SGL-RL" process consistency was high (P<0.05). However, compared with early pPeriod D, the changes in the consistency of the SGL and RL processes-changes in pPeriod C was slightly poor (R²= 0.07, P <0.05), which may might have been caused by the different AL thawing processes and the replenishment recharge of

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snowmelt water to river runoff. In pPeriod D, the dynamic process of SGL was highly consistent with the regression and flood processes of river runoff, with a high correlation (R²-=0.57, P_<0.001). It can be inferred that Therefore, the SGL contributed to approximately 57.0-%% of the RL changes in Period D in the SL watershed (Fig.ure 6b). Compared with pPeriod C, the consistency in pPeriod D was superior, and the regression and flood processes were quicker.

Similar to the SL watershed, the SGL and RL in the FHS watershed had consistent fluctuations from from the 31st of August to the 18th of 31-October-18 (pPeriod D), then. Both showed a significant downward trend from the 2nd of October-2 365 (late pPeriod D);, and their curves were also in good agreement (Figure Fig. 6c). It can be inferred from Figure Figure 6d indicates that the SGL contributed approximately 65.8-% of the RL changes in pPeriod D in the FHS watershed: hHowever, the rate of decrease in SGL was larger than that of RL. The decrease in SG was larger than 0.3 m, while that of RL was approximately 0.12 m. This may be because the surface soil begins to gradually freeze with as the temperature drops in late pPeriod D when the river water can be replenished recharged by rainfall or snowmelt water. The freezing of shallow soil weakens the hydraulic connection between AL and the land surface, resulting in poorer water replenishment recharge conditions, fewer water supply sources for AL, and a relatively largesignificant decrease in SGL.

375 Figure 6: Variations of SGL (a, c) and the correlations between SGL and river level (RL) (b, d) in pPeriods C and D, respectively, in the SL and FHS watersheds.

6 Framework of watershed hydrology responding to the freeze-thaw of AL

According to the above analysis, the yearly hydrothermal changes have four distinct periods with seasonal AL freezing and
thawing. The characteristics of the AL depth, SVMC, SGL₃₇ and surface RL changes in the four periods significantly varied significantly (Figure 7). In pPeriod A, ST rapidly decreased, leading tocausing the upper layer and the bottom of the AL to begin freezing approximately simultaneously, which resulted in the limited of the external water supply to the AL. Then,
the SGL rapidly decreased and reached the minimum value, as the surface RL rapidly also decreased rapidly. However, because ofdue to the replenishment recharge of rainfall runoff or snowmelt runoff, the rate of RL decline of RL was relatively slower than that of SGL. In pPeriod B, the ST was consistentlystably low, the AL was entirely frozen₃₇ and the SGL dropped to the lowest level with small-minimal changes₃₇ though tThe RL changes, in this period, were not always consistent with the SGL at all times during the period.

When <u>During</u> snowmelt water <u>replenishment</u>recharge occurs, RL significantly increases, and the runoff process fluctuates and changes accordingly. In <u>pPeriod</u> C, the warming of the air temperature led to <u>the</u> rapid downward thawing of the AL from the surface, resulting in the <u>rapid rise of SGL</u>, <u>rising rapidly and</u> reaching <u>its maximum a peak</u> value. Affected by the recharge of the lateral outflow of the SGL and rainfall runoff, the RL <u>also</u> rose rapidly. In <u>pPeriod</u> D, high

temperatures led to the deepest AL thawing. During this period, <u>during which</u> SGL and RL were significantly affected by rainfall. The SGL can increase rapidly with rainfall events-during the rainy season and maintain a higher value for a year with <u>small-few</u> fluctuations. In late <u>pPeriod</u> D, when rainfall decreases, or <u>no rain occurs is absent</u>, the SGL rapidly falls, and the river runoff is primarily <u>replenished</u> recharged by a small amount of SG flowing out from AL, resulting in RL falling backdecreasing to a low value. When snowfall occurs in late autumn, snowmelt <u>replenishes</u> recharges river runoff and causes the RL to rise. In addition, river runoff reverses the <u>replenishment recharge</u> of the SG, leading to a moderate increase in the SGL. Under the scenario of continuous warming in the future, AL will be thicker, and the precipitation processes, and vegetation underlying surfaces will change; leading to a more complex water regulatory mechanism <u>of associated with</u> AL change.

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Figure 7: Framework of watershed hydrology responding to the freeze-thaw of the permafrost active layer.

This study identified the tipping points of SG change in during a hydrological year in different regions of the QTP by via M-K mutation detection, and further-divided SG data series into different stages. Although similar stages of seasonal SGL change were also-found in some-other permafrost regions of the Northern Hemisphere (Wellman et al., 2013; Koch, 2016; Tregubov et al., 2021; Koch et al., 2022), our study is the firstly systematic first to systematically 410 summarizedsummarize a four-stage pattern of SG seasonal change in a hydrological year. The seasonal variations of SG in the Qinghai-Tibet-Plateau are relatively consistent with the freeze-thaw characteristics of AL₇ and they are mainly influenced by ST and SVMC changes, which has been previously concluded in some previousby studies of permafrost groundwater in Alaska (Hinkel and Nelson, 2003; Walvoord et al., 2012; Wellman et al., 2013), Canada (Woo and Xia, 1995; Clark et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2021), and some other pan-Arctic watersheds (Young, and Mingko, 2000; Dugan et al., 2009; Throckmorton et al., 2016; Koch, 2016; Koch et al., 2022). What's different is that However, this study conducted a more 415 detailed analysis of the ST and SVMC at different soil depths and variation stages impacting on-SGL changes. We and showed found-that limited the -impact of SVMC on SGL-is limited, while the ST of AL has had a larger impact on SG during pPeriod A_-During pPeriod C, the SG in the deeper soil layers was more dominated by ST, while in the shallow soil layers of AL, it is was closely related to the changes in soil water, which mainly comesprimarily originating from meltwater of 420 ground ice (Gubareva et al., 2018; Tregubov et al., 2021). In pPeriod D, SGL dynamic is was mostly not sensitive to either ST or SVMC changes in at different AL depths of the AL, and it is was primarily affected by rainfall. In this study, it was observed that SGL in pPeriod D was the highest compared towith other stages of athe year, which has been reported before (Rawlins, 2021; Tregubov et al., 2021). While it This this study also further quantitative quantitatively revealed the contribution of SG to the RL changes in the thawing season of permafrost watersheds according to the correlation analysis. 425 For example, it found that over 50-%% of the surface runoff in pPeriod D was replenished recharged by nearby SG in the SL watershed of the QTP. In addition, this study found that there are differences in the degree of elose-correlation between SG and surface water in different regions of the Oinghai Tibet Plateau, based on the analysis of field observation data. For example, the SG-RL hydrographs are quitesignificantly different d in the SL and FHS watershedwatersheds (Fig. 6), indicating significant differences in the amount and rate of complementarity between SG and river runoff. The reasons for 430 this difference may be related attributed to the distance between the river and the measured point of SG, the slope, soil, and

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active layer thickening has on groundwater flows depends most on the position (depth) of the saturated thickness (O'Connor et al., 2019). Th<u>ise conclusion</u> was further confirmed in <u>this our</u>study. The SG observation points of FHS and SL are approximately 30 meters and 20 meters far from the river, respectively, with the landscape type is bothbeing alpine meadows

vegetation types (O'Connor et al., 2019). Farther The farther the distance, the longer the time and slower the process of the mutual replenishment. The differences in water holding capacity and water resistance of different soils also directly affects the complementary amount between SG and river runoff (Wei et al., 2021). In addition, the thickening and deepening of the active layerAL does not always exert an appreciable corresponding control on groundwater flows, and the impact that

(Renzheng et al., 2019; Qin et al., 2022). While tThe saturated zone in the AL of the SL site is was 50-80 cm in depth, and it while of the FHS site is was only in 0-30 cm in depth (Fig. 3). It was observed that the variation of SGL-RL hydrographs is-was more similar in FHS than it in SL watersheds, which implies near -surface saturated zone resulting in a closer complementary relationship between SG and river runoff (Fig. 6).

The large proportion of SG replenishing recharging river runoff in this study implies implied that SG is was a crucial replenishment recharge source for permafrost basin runoff, especially in-during summer. While this has been supposed previously suggestedbefore (i.e., Bense et al., 2009; Shepelev and Pavlova, 2014; Fischer et al., 2017), our analysis provides

- 445 a quantitative assessment of this impact and shows confirms itsit to be true in different regions of the QTP. According to the coefficient of determination R² in p-Period D, 57.0–65.8% of the river runoff was replenished recharged by SG in the study areas. In contrast, the SG contributed only approximately 10.0-<u>%</u> of the RL changes in pPeriod C. Tregubov et al. (2021) reached a similar result conclusion in the Ugol'naya-Dionisiya River, Northeast Russian, which and reported that the contribution of SG to river discharge in period C is was 10-30% of the total discharge. The difference of contribution rate 450 in pPeriods C and D is-was closely related to the storage capacity of suprapermafrost reservoir and the recharge intensity of surface water to SG (Ma et al., 2017). During the previous C, when the AL was beginning tobegan to thaw and the storage capacity of suprapermafrost reservoir was still-small, the replenishment recharge of SG to river runoff is was limited (Qin et al., 2022). In the During summer, the seasonal thaw moved downward and thus the storage capacity of suprapermafrost
- reservoir increased, leading to most of the infiltrated rainwater being stored in the AL (Bosson et al., 2013). The larger 455 recharge intensity of surface water (rainfall) and storage capacity of suprapermafrost reservoir result in the drainage of SG to river runoff in pPeriod D.

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Our data showed that there exist-two distinct high-water soil layers (saturated zone) in the AL of the QTP during summer: a near surface high-water zone (0-90 cm depth) and a deep layer (from 110 cm depth to the bottom of the AL), with a dry layer (90-110 cm depth) generally present in the middle AL (Fig. 4). The founding These results differ is different from the observed results inthose of previous studies on the Arctic watersheds (Quinton, 1997; Street et al., 2016; Sebastian et al., 2023), where have having only one saturated zone in the AL of different specific regions during thawing season, e.g., a near surface saturated zone in the riparian zone and deep saturated zone in the hillslopes (O'Connor et al., 2019).

The feature could be related to rainfall characteristics, Topography (slope), vegetation root depth, as well as waterholding capacity, soil type₃, and soil composition of the soil at different depthslayers ((O'Connor et al., 2019)...). Abundant 465 summer rainfall could quickly vertical vertically infiltrate into the near surface near-surface soil layer and lead tincrease the moisture content of the shallow soils having high moisture content (even saturated) in the QTP (Fig. 2) and Arctic watersheds (O'Connor et al., 2019; Sebastian et al., 2023).- Figures 2 and 3 show that the surface rainfall could infiltrate downward into a_maximum 90 cm depth in the AL-_on the QTP during summer rainfall events. The soilssoil in the middle AL often has low moisture content limited by the weak infiltration capacity and poor water-holding capacity (Qin et al., 2022) few, while potential gravity water and fissure waters from surface water and shallow soils, coupled with the waterresisting effect of the permafrost table always-leads to highly, even saturated zone in the bottom of the AL. In addition, the

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maximum AL depths of severallarge amount of Arctic watersheds are less than <- 100 cm (Hinkel and Nelson, 2003), while it is-was 1.0—2.0 m depths in average in the QTP. This and the differences in soil texture and soil hydrological characteristics could partly explain the two observed saturated zones in the AL of the QTP. The two saturated zones in AL, on the other hand, in turn, lead to two potential water sources of lateral flow replenishing recharging river runoff and permafrost lakes, which differs from the conclusions that of only one major lateral replenishment recharge-zone in AL studied in Arctic watersheds (Koch, 2016; O'Connor et al., 2019; Manasypov et al., 2020). These findings provide novel insights intois could whance the knowledge for hydrological analysis and simulation in permafrost regions.

8 Conclusions

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480 This study analyzed the seasonal dynamics of SG and the correlations between SGL, ST, SVMC₂, and and RL at different stations on in the QTP. The variation process of the SGL during a the hydrological year can be distinctly divided into four periods, namely: a rapid falling period (October-middle November) (A), a stable low-water period (late November-May) (B), a rapid rising period (approximately June) (C)₂₅ and a stable high-water period (July-September) (D). This synchronously corresponds to the ST and SVMC variations in AL, which experienced a rapid freezing period, frozen 485 stability period, rapid thawing period, and and thawing stability period during periods A–D of the SGL, respectively.

ST and SVMC in AL have important significantly impacts on influence the SGL changes in permafrost watersheds, whereas the impact however, varied in the four different periods. Compared with the other periods, the SGL in period D was permanently higher. The correlations between SGL and ST, as well as between SGL and SVMC, were relatively poor, and the SGL change responded well to rainfall. During pPeriods A and C, SGL had a good nonlinear correlation with ST and 490 SVMC in the AL, while the correlations varied at different depths. During pPeriod C, when AL rapidly melted, SVMC in the shallow soils (0-50 cm depth) had a better correlation correlated with SGL, whereas ST in deeper AL soils of AL (below 50 cm) showed a closer relations association with SGL than with SVMC. It can be inferred that Therefore, SG in pPeriod C was primarily replenished recharged by soil water in shallow layers, and while the SGL rise was significantly influenced by the thawing depth dominated by ST in deeper AL. In pPeriod A, there is a significant nonlinear correlation between SGL and ST at different <u>AL</u> depths of the AL ($0.81 \le R^2 \le 0.98$, P < 0.05). As the depth increases in the AL, the impact of the SVMC on the

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SGL weakens, whereas ST gradually becomes the dominant factor affecting the SGL.

According to the comparative analysis, the retreat and flood processes of river runoff were consistent with the SGL changes in pPeriods C and D, which are the primary annual runoff periods in permafrost basins. The RL dynamics were closely related to the SGL changes during these two periods. The SG and river runoff are-were interconnected, and their water linkages arewere significantly affected by the freeze-thaw state of AL. The SGL contributed approximately 10.0%% of the RL changes in pPeriod C, whereasile in pPeriod D_{τ} approximately 57.0–65.8-%% of the surface runoff in permafrost watersheds was replenished recharged by SG, primarily by via rainfall infiltration. The SG is a crucial and potential water source for alpine permafrost watersheds.

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In summaryconclusion, the characteristics of SG vary_at different periods of the year-vary, and-they have a crucial regulatory effect on the hydrology of permafrost watersheds. With eContinuous climate warming, the will thicken AL-will thicken, and alter the potential precipitation and alpine vegetation-also will change. Furthermore, Tthe change mechanism underlying SGL will correspondingly become more complex and require further research.

Author contribution

Jia Qin and Yongjian Ding developed the idea and outlines of the article. Jia Qin prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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