



1 **Hydrological drivers of groundwater recharge changes under**
2 **different emission scenarios in agricultural lands**

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15 **HIGHLIGHTS**

16 ● Even with elevated evapotranspiration (ET), increased precipitation (P) will boost
17 agricultural recharge.

18 ● Runoff and soil moisture availability will allocate a portion of $\Delta(P-ET)$ in a higher
19 precipitation condition.

20 ● In humid areas, driving agricultural recharge is mainly precipitation, while for dry



21 areas, ET also affects changes in recharge.

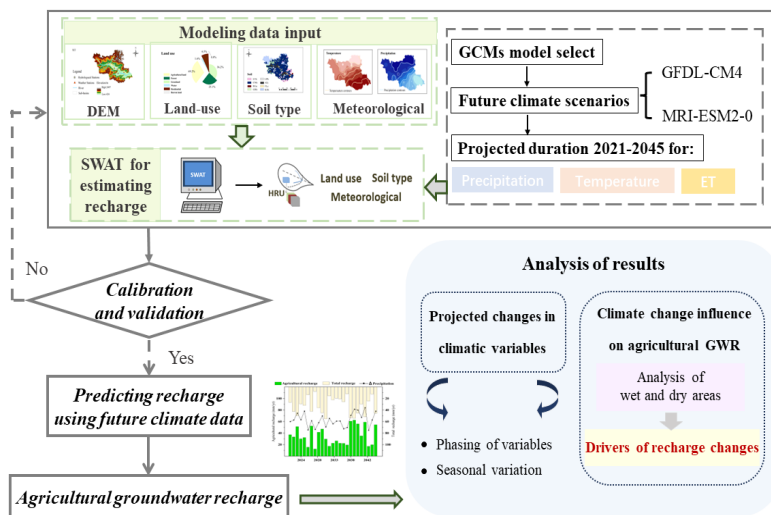
22 **Abstract**

23 Groundwater is a crucial resource that helps ensure the security of food and water.
24 Although the earth's water resources are being negatively impacted by climate change
25 in every manner, there is still limited research on predicting future groundwater
26 recharge. This study constructed the Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) under
27 two Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5) in conjunction with two
28 General Circulation Models (GCMs) from Coupled Model Intercomparison Project 6
29 (CMIP6) to predict the change in agriculture groundwater recharge in 2021–2045
30 relative to the baseline historical data. The Yang River Basin in Hebei Province, China,
31 which is mainly covered by agricultural land along the basin, as the study area to
32 understand how climate change drives groundwater recharge in agricultural land. The
33 results show that the model performs well, with Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) of
34 0.82 and 0.76 in the validation and calibration periods, respectively. The expected
35 temperature and precipitation have increased more, 16.1%-31.3% and 1.8°C-2.5°C,
36 respectively, compared with the historical period 1981-2005. While evapotranspiration
37 (ET) has increased, the distribution of agricultural groundwater recharge reflected
38 spatially varying characteristics, with an overall increasing trend of 31.3% (2021–2045).
39 Consequently, the study area was divided into five regions with varying degrees of
40 wetness and dryness based on the spatial distribution of precipitation (P). It was found
41 that in the higher-precipitation regions, runoff contributed a portion of the future net



42 atmospheric input (P-ET), and it was further concluded that precipitation was the
43 primary climatic factor that drove the recharge to farmland, while evapotranspiration
44 also had an impact on the change in recharge for the relatively dry regions. This will
45 help the region achieve sustainable development and get ready for climate change in
46 the future. It will also provide local policy makers with some knowledge.

47 Graphical Abstract



48

49 **Keywords:** Climate change; Agricultural groundwater recharge; SWAT;
50 **Evapotranspiration; Runoff**

51 1. Introduction

52 Global change affects water resources around the world in generally unknown ways
53 (Green et al., 2011). Groundwater is a vital freshwater resource (Döll, 2009), critical
54 for global food and water security, and essential for sustaining ecosystems and human
55 adaptation to variability and change (Amanambu et al., 2020b). Groundwater recharge

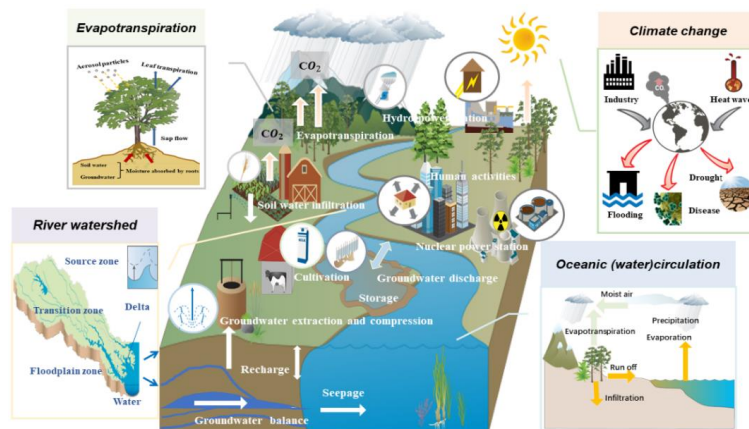


56 (GWR) is one of the major limiting factor for the sustainable use of groundwater(Döll
57 and Fiedler, 2008). Predictions indicate that climate change (CC) will be the main
58 source of pressure affecting future surface and groundwater
59 resources(Intergovernmental Panel on Climate, 2014).There is an increasing number of
60 studies and investigations on the impacts of climate change on groundwater resources.
61 Atawneh et al. (2021) summarised the majority of studies predicting declines in
62 recharge around the world after reviewed the papers from 2010-2020 on the topic of
63 groundwater and climate change, especially in the arid/semi-arid tropic (Amanambu et
64 al., 2020a). Therefore, understanding how climate change drives groundwater recharge
65 is of the essence for the development of water management policies.

66 However, many potential impacts of climate change are still largely uncertain
67 because of the the intricate network of interactions and feedbacks in the climate system
68 (Munday et al., 2008). Previous studies also indicates that future climate change
69 projections of GWR are subject to a wide range of sources of uncertainty(Anurag and
70 Ng, 2022), including hydrological model(surface or groundwater) selection(Akbarpour
71 and Niksokhan, 2018; Hashemi et al., 2015; Younggu et al., 2019) and all General
72 Circulation Models(GCMs) contribute uncertainty in multi-GCM ensemble
73 predictions(Younggu et al., 2019). In addition, a range of anthropogenic factors,
74 including land-use/land-cover change, hydropower dams, and irrigation reservoirs, such
75 these can lead to changes in the direction of recharge predictions. Figure 1 depicts the
76 intricate interrelationships between groundwater and land surface components. These



77 issues have also been taken into account in a number of studies, for example, Luo et al.
78 (2016) quantified the temporal and spatial trends in contributions of climate and land
79 use change (LUCC) to hydrological change in Heihe River Basin (HRB), Northwest
80 China using the Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT). They determined that climate
81 change has had the greatest impact on hydrological changes in the study area
82 watersheds over the past three decades. Khoi et al. (2022) utilized CF downscaling
83 technique method to downscale climate data from 7 General Circulation Models
84 (GCMs) under three SSPs scenarios (SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, and SSP5-8.5) in the
85 downstream part of the Dong Nai River Basin of Ho Chi Minh City (HCMC), Vietnam.
86 The downscaled climate data were applied as input for the SWAT hydrological model
87 to scrutinized the influence of climate change(CC) on river discharge and groundwater
88 recharge (GWR). Results denoted that the GWR of HCMC is prognosticated to have a
89 rising trend in the future period of 2021–2070.



90
91 **Fig.1. Interaction of groundwater systems with agricultural recharge in the face of climate change, and the**
92 **numerous processes that partially affect groundwater systems.**

93 The prevalent approach for quantifying how climate change will drive groundwater



94 is to use hydrological models coupled with downscaled climate projections in reliance
95 on the GCM simulations under different emission scenarios, which requires the
96 selection of appropriate hydrological models as well as the selection of GCMs. SWAT
97 (Arnold et al., 1998b) is a physical-based semi-distributed model capable of predicting
98 the effects of climate change on the water balance and ultimately groundwater recharge.
99 With the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Sixth Report (IPCC AR6), which
100 updated the new scenarios called Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) and assessed
101 the trends of groundwater change over historical time and into the future, it is
102 recognized that groundwater has become an important source of water to meet global
103 agricultural production and domestic demand (LIU et al., 2022). It is worth noting that
104 incorporating CMIP6 in future hydrological studies will be completely new
105 breakthroughs and challenges.

106 No one can deny the importance of groundwater in meeting crop water demands
107 (Awan and Ismaeel, 2014). Climate change is expected to impact agricultural
108 production conditions and groundwater resources, and the study have inspected that a
109 decrease in groundwater recharge leads to a 10-fold increase in the share of
110 groundwater used for irrigation(Kreins et al., 2015). Hebei Province in China is a
111 typical resource-based water-scarce province, and agricultural water use relies mainly
112 on groundwater resources(Liu et al., 2021), however, little is known about how they
113 will impact recharge there. Accordingly, it is very important to evaluate the climate
114 change influence on agricultural groundwater recharge in Hebei Province, which is



115 essential for a robust comprehension of projected changes in water availability.

116 Our study area is the Yang River Basin in Hebei Province, China, which is mainly
117 covered by farmland along the basin, and the use of groundwater irrigation is an
118 important way to meet crop water demand. We used the Soil and Water Assessment
119 Tool (SWAT) under two Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5) of
120 the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory Earth System Model Version 4.0(GFDL-
121 CM4)(Dunne et al., 2020) and Meteorological Research Institute Earth System Model
122 Version 2.0(MRI-ESM2-0)(Yukimoto et al., 2019) from Coupled Model
123 Intercomparison Project 6 (CMIP6) to simulate the changes in recharge in the future
124 period to analyze the influence of future climate change on groundwater recharge in
125 farmland. In order to better understand the elements influencing agricultural recharge,
126 this study further separated the research area into regional analyses based on
127 precipitation. It is anticipated that the findings will support the region's future
128 sustainable development and offer guidance to pertinent practitioners.

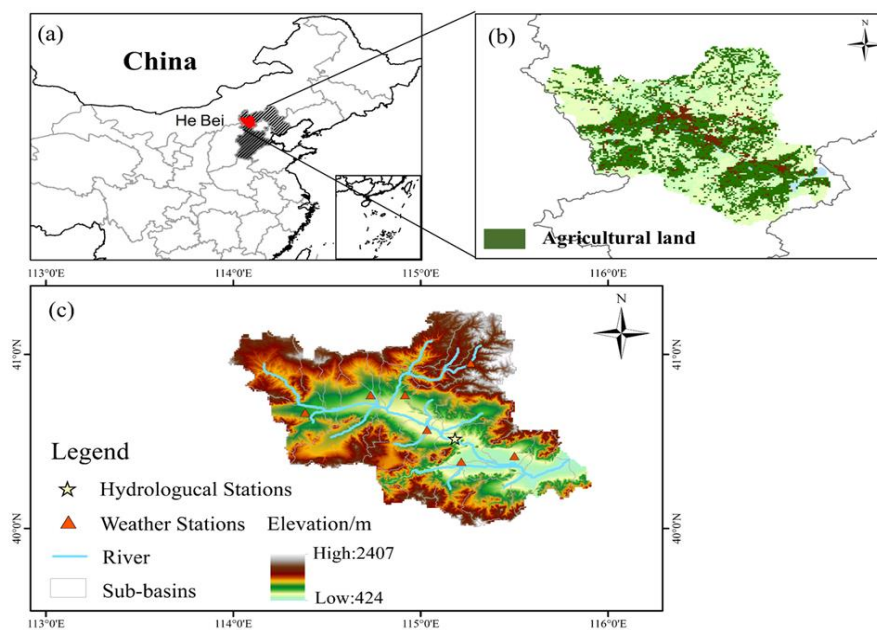
129 **2. Materials and methods**

130 **2.1. Study area**

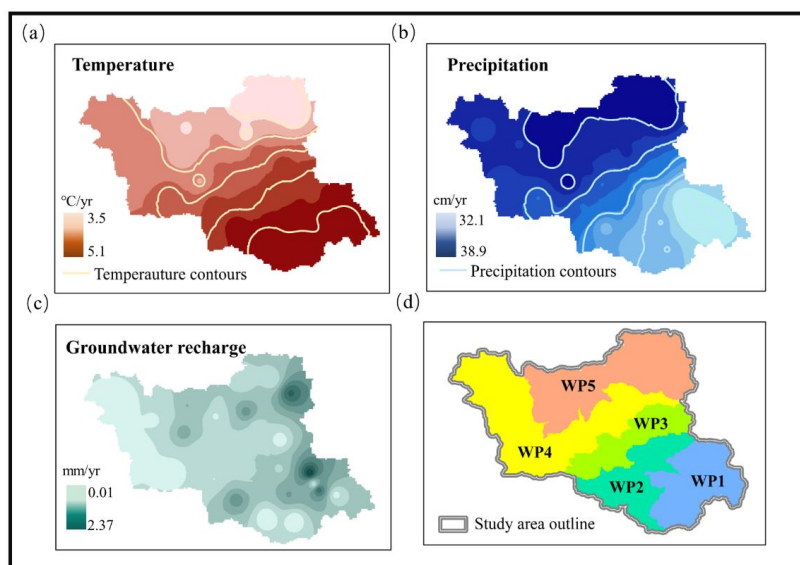
131 The study area is the Yang River basin of Hebei province, which is a part of the
132 Yongding River Basin dam (Fig. 2a). The watershed region, which mostly includes
133 Zhangjiakou City and Huai'an County, is roughly. It belongs to the temperate
134 continental climate (Wang Hui et al., 2019), with cool and dry summers and cold
135 winters, with an average annual temperature of 3-5°C and the average annual



136 precipitation is between 300 and 400 millimeters, and the precipitation progressively
137 decreases as one moves southward. The entire study area was split into five sections,
138 WP1–WP5, based on the spatial distribution of precipitation (Fig. 3d), with WP5 having
139 the highest precipitation.

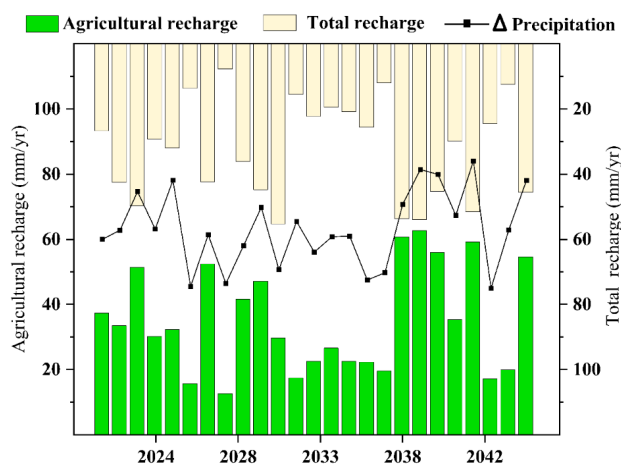


140
141 Fig.2. (a) Location of the study area (b) Land use (c) [Digital elevation model](#) (DEM) with 12.5 m spatial
142 resolution for the study area.



143
144 **Fig.3. 25-year (1981-2005) historical (a)average precipitation(cm/yr) (b) average temperature(°C/yr).**
145 **(c)Simulated 25-year (1981-2005) historical recharge(mm/yr). (d) Dry and wet areas divided by precipitation**

146 The study area has a high land utilization rate, with agricultural land constituting
147 the main type along the basin (Fig.2b), which occupies 36.95% of the total area, about
148 4311km². The total groundwater recharge in the study area gradually decreases from
149 east to west, and the model predicts that the recharge from farmland in the basin will
150 account for 90.45% of the total recharge in the future (2021-2045), with an average
151 annual value of 37.8mm/ yr (Fig.4). As a result, the main emphasis of this study is how
152 climate change is affecting groundwater recharge in agricultural areas.



153
154 Fig.4. Agricultural recharge and total recharge as well as Δ precipitation of the study area in the future 25-
155 year (2021-2045).

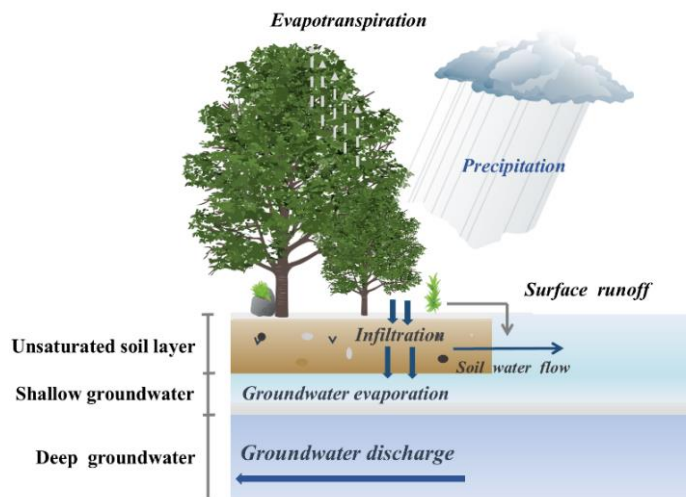
156 2.2. Model description

157 The Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) (<http://swat.tamu.edu/>), is a
158 physically based, semi-distributed hydrological model (Arnold et al., 1998a) that
159 evaluates small watersheds to rivers, simulates surface water as well as groundwater
160 processes(Figure 5), was developed to assist water resource managers in assessing the
161 impact of management on water supplies (Arnold et al., 1998a; Mann, 1945). One of
162 the important outputs of SWAT modeling is that it estimates both unconfined (shallow)
163 aquifers and confined (deep) aquifers (Kilinc et al., 2024). The model divides the
164 watershed into distinct sub-watersheds by setting drainage area thresholds (Xiao et al.,
165 2023), and each sub-watershed consists of hydrological response units (HRUs) together
166 (Zhang et al., 2014). In this study area watersheds were divided into 29 subbasins and
167 526 HRUs. The water balance equation on which the SWAT model is based (Arnold et
168 al., 1998b):



169 $SW_t - SW_0 = \sum_{i=0}^t (R_{day} - Q_{surf} - E_a - W_{seep} - Q_{gw})$ (1)

170 Where: SW_t refers to the final soil water content (mm), SW_0 represents to the initial
171 soil water content (mm), t is the time (days), R_{day} indicates the amount of precipitation
172 on the day i (mm), Q_{surf} is the amount of surface runoff on the day i (mm), E_a refers
173 to the amount of evapotranspiration on the day i (mm), W_{seep} denotes the amount of
174 water entering the vadose zone from the soil profile on day i (mm), and Q_{gw} is the
175 amount of return flow on day i (mm). Further details about SWAT are available in its
176 theoretical documentation (Neitsch et al., 2011).



177
178 Fig.5. Structural schematic of rainfall infiltration in the hydrological cycle

179 2.2.1. Dataset and model set-up

180 The SWAT input dataset involves digital elevation model (DEM), topography, soil
181 characteristics, meteorological data, and observed discharge information (Javed et al.,
182 2024). The soil data as well as the land use data needed to be calculated with



183 modifications based on the characteristics of the study area, and the data entered the
184 weather generator database were pre-processed. The following is a detailed description
185 of the data used:

186 DEM For the model extraction of the river network and automatic identification
187 of watershed boundaries (Du et al., 2017). The data were collected by Phased Array L-
188 band Synthetic Aperture Radar (PALSAR) (Niipele and Chen, 2019), with World
189 Geodetic System 1984 (WGS_1984) and projected coordinates Universal Transverse
190 Mercator Projection with a resolution of 12.5 meters.

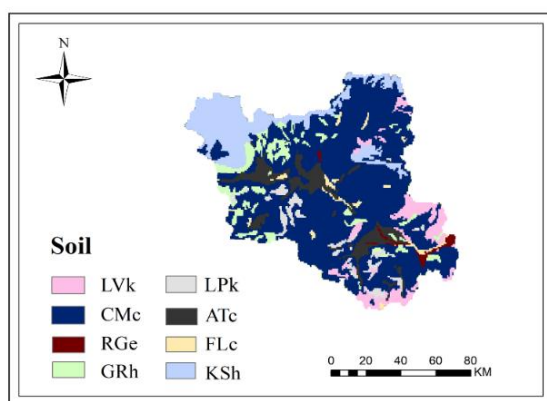
191 The land use data reflects the land use resource utilization in the study area, and
192 this paper focuses on farmland, which is used in this paper as the China Land Use Status
193 Remote Sensing Monitoring Database, a national dataset of land use types. The dataset
194 includes five periods in the late 1980s (1990), 1995, 2000, 2005, and 2010, and the data
195 production is generated by manual visual interpretation using Landsat Thematic
196 Mapper/Enhance Thematic Mapper (TM/ETM) remote sensing images of each period
197 as the main data source. Before inputting into the model, we reclassified the data into
198 agricultural land, forest land, grassland, urban residential land, water bodies, and
199 unused land.

200 In this study, soil data were downloaded from the Harmonized World Soil
201 Database (HWSD) at a resolution of 1 km x 1 km. The soil characteristics from HWSD
202 are reliable for research related to carbon capture, land use change, soil loss estimation,
203 soil organic carbon stock, hydrological modelling, ecosystem services, and so



204 on (Othman et al., 2021; Rivas-Tabares et al., 2020). According to the Chinese soil
205 classification, the soil data was reclassified as shown in Figure 6 and Table 1. The
206 classified soil types were calculated, and the soil database in the SWAT model was
207 modified.

208 The meteorological variables used in this study are described in detail in section
209 3.2. The Meteorological Generator database was constructed from seven
210 meteorological stations, Huai'an, Wanquan, Zhangjiakou, Xuanhua, Zhoulu, Chongli,
211 and Huailai, using daily precipitation, maximum and minimum temperatures, relative
212 humidity, radiation, and wind speeds from 1981 to 2005. After inputting a series of data,
213 a SWAT model was initially constructed to divide the Yang River basin into 29 sub-
214 basins.



215 **Fig.6. Spatial distribution of different soil series (local names) in the study area.**

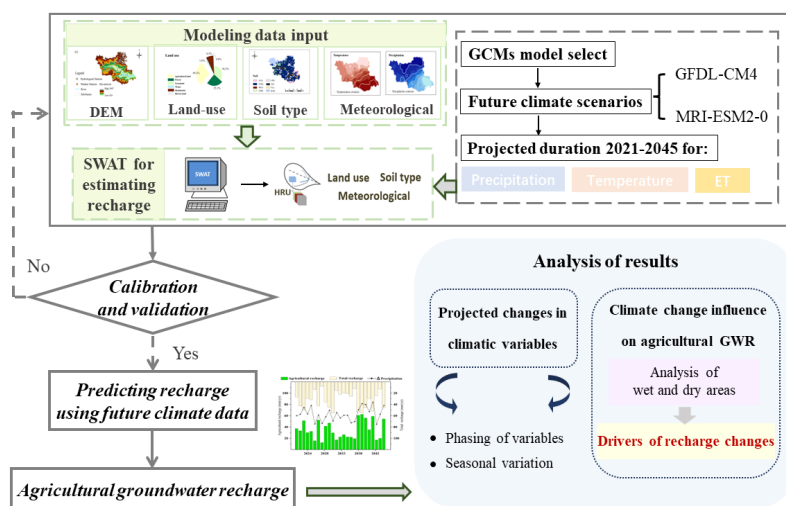
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219



Table 1
Soil types and related parameter

Soil type	Sand(%)	Silt(%)	Clay(%)	K(m d ⁻¹)	AWC(%)	Texture
LVk	83	6	11	0.118	6	LS-SL
	76	7	17	0.148	8	
GRh	24	53	23	0.375	15	SL-CL
	24	48	28	0.362	15	
KSh	37	42	21	0.289	14	L-L
	37	43	20	0.362	13	
CMc	36	43	21	0.326	14	L-L
	34	43	23	0.333	13	
LPk	37	44	19	0.256	14	L
RGe	47	34	19	0.271	11	L-L
	51	31	12	0.278	10	
FLc	34	48	18	0.348	14	L-L
	36	46	18	0.343	13	
ATc	90	6	4	0.075	22	SL-SL
	89	6	5	0.096	19	

220 To analyze the impact of climate change on agricultural groundwater recharge,
 221 the steps of SWAT model simulation and the study process are shown below:



222

223

Fig.7. Methodology framework for analysis of future agricultural recharge.

224 Step 1: Two GCMs (GFDL-CM4 and MRI-ESM2-0) were selected to generate the
225 future climate change scenarios (2021-2045) under two emissions scenarios (SSP2-4.5
226 and SSP5-8.5) from CMIP6.

227 Step 2: Process DEM, land use, and soil data, validate and calibrate the model, and
228 bring future climate data into the SWAT model to begin simulating projections.

229 Step 3: After generating farmland groundwater recharge and each hydrological
230 parameter from the model, study the changes in farmland recharge under different
231 scenarios and identify the factors driving the changes in recharge.

232 In the following sections, this is explained in detail.

233 2.2.2. Model calibration and validation

234 In this study, Sequential Uncertainty Fitting version 2 (SUFI-2) was used to
235 perform sensitivity analyses of 9 parameters in the SWAT model to improve the



236 accuracy of the results. The nine commonly used parameters (CN2; CH_N2; ESCO;
237 GW_DELAY; GWQMN; GW_REVAP; SOL_BD; SOL_K; SOL_AWC) and their
238 ranges were selected for monthly calibration.

239 The model warm-up period was set at one year, the rate period at 2000-2001, and
240 the validation period at 2002, using Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) and Coefficient of
241 determination (R^2). According to Moriasi et al., if $NSE > 0.5$, the model performance
242 can be assessed as "satisfactory", as shown in the formulas (Moriasi et al., 2007):

$$243 \quad NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (Q_{m,i} - Q_{s,i})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Q_{m,i} - \bar{Q}_m)^2} \quad (2)$$

$$244 \quad R^2 = \frac{[\sum_{i=1}^n (Q_{m,i} - Q_{s,i})(Q_{s,i} - \bar{Q}_s)]^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (Q_{m,i} - \bar{Q}_m)^2 \sum_{i=1}^n (Q_{s,i} - \bar{Q}_s)^2} \quad (3)$$

245 Where Q_m is the measured flow; Q_s is the simulated flow; \bar{Q}_m is the mean of the
246 measured flow and \bar{Q}_s is the mean of the simulated flow.

247 2.3. Accumulative anomalies

248 Mathematically, the accumulated anomaly is a method to visually distinguish the
249 change tendency of discrete data and is widely used in meteorology to analyze
250 precipitation and temperature variations (Ran et al., 2010). For a discrete series X_i , the
251 accumulated anomaly (\widehat{X}_t) for data point x_t can be expressed as:

$$252 \quad \widehat{X}_t = \sum_{i=1}^t (x_i - \bar{x}) \quad t = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n \quad (4)$$

$$253 \quad \bar{x} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \quad (5)$$

254 where \bar{x} is the mean of the discrete series x_i , and n is the number of discrete data
255 points. The increase of the value of accumulated anomaly indicates the involving data
256 point is larger than the average, otherwise lower than the average. A rising curve



257 indicates an upward trend in the time series of the meteorological factor, a falling
258 indicates a downward trend and a flat curve indicates an insignificant trend of change.
259 In this study, the variable x represents stations annual average temperature and average
260 precipitation, respectively.

261 **2.4. Mann-Kendall trend test**

262 Mann-Kendall test is a rank-based non-parametric test(Kendall, 1990; Mann, 1945)
263 that does not require any a priori assumptions about the statistical distribution of the
264 data, and to detect variations in hydrometeorological time series data(Forthofer and
265 Lehnen, 1981) and to detect variations in hydrometeorological time series data (Ashraf
266 et al., 2021). For the meteorological data series x_i ($i=1, 2, 3, \dots n$) of length n ($n=25$ in
267 this study, corresponding to 1981-2005 and 2021-2045, respectively), the standardized
268 statistic Z is mainly used to test the trend and significance of the time series(Güçlü,
269 2020), the decreasing (increasing) expression is used for the time series with negative
270 (positive) Z value . The Mann-Kendall test statistic S is determined based on the rank
271 of the data points and they are calculated by the formula:

$$272 \quad Z = \begin{cases} \frac{S-1}{\sqrt{n(n-1)(2n+5)/18}} ; S > 0 \\ 0 ; S = 0 \\ \frac{S+1}{\sqrt{n(n-1)(2n+5)/18}} ; S < 0 \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

273

$$274 \quad S = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \text{sgn}(x_i - x_j), i < j \quad (6)$$

275



$$276 \quad \text{Sign}(x_i - x_j) = \begin{cases} -1, & (x_i - x_j) < 0 \\ 0, & (x_i - x_j) = 0 \\ 1, & (x_i - x_j) > 0 \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

277 Where: If $Z \geq |\pm 2.58|$, it represents that the significance level has reached low a
278 confidence level; If $Z \geq |\pm 1.96|$, it represents that the significance level has reached
279 a high confidence level. In this study, this method to detect the significance of the trend
280 of change in temperature and precipitation of the stations in the future under different
281 scenarios.

282 2.5. Pearson correlation analysis

283 Pearson correlation coefficients were used to investigate correlations between
284 independent and dependent variables (Wu et al., 2023). To evaluate the correlation
285 between precipitation(P)、evapotranspiration(ET)、soil water、runoff and groundwater
286 recharge, the Pearson coefficient between them is as follows (Zhu and Zhang, 2022):

$$287 \quad r = \frac{\text{Cov}(X,Y)}{\sigma(X)\sigma(Y)} = \frac{\sum(x_i - \bar{x}_i)(y_i - \bar{y}_i)}{\sqrt{\sum(x_i - \bar{x}_i)^2} \sqrt{\sum(y_i - \bar{y}_i)^2}} \quad (8)$$

288 Where X and Y are independent and dependent variables, respectively. $\text{Cov}(X, Y)$ is
289 covariance, σ is standard deviation.

290 2.6. Future climate data

291 With the continuous development of research and development teams in various
292 countries around the world (Howarth and Viner, 2022), the number of climate models
293 participating in the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project 6 (CMIP6) is gradually
294 increasing compared to the past. This study used China's downscaled CMIP6



295 precipitation, temperature, and wind speed dataset (1979-2100). This data product
296 contains historical (1979-2014) and future (2015-2100) daily downscaled
297 meteorological variables for the SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 emission scenarios. SSP2-
298 4.5(Elsadek et al., 2024) is the updated Representative Concentration Pathway(RCP)
299 4.5 scenario which has a sustained increase in greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions due
300 to the fact that the land use and aerosol pathways of SSP2-4.5 are not as extreme as the
301 other scenarios have become the focus of interest for the Detection and Attribution
302 Model Intercomparison Project (DAMIP) and the Decadal Climate Prediction Project
303 (DCPP) (Scafetta, 2024),with resulting warming of 3.8-4.2°C. Whereas SSP5-8.5 is the
304 highest emission scenario (Tang et al., 2023), fossil fuel consumption is rapid, allowing
305 for rapid global economic growth while making mitigation more difficult (Kriegler et
306 al., 2017). In this study, we compare climate projections for the future 25 years from
307 2021-2045 with the historical period from 1981-2005.

308 We selected GFDL-CM4 and MRI-ESM2-0 from CMIP6 and calculated future
309 precipitation and temperature changes for these two General Circulation Models
310 (GCMs) under the medium and high scenarios, respectively. Overall, the GCMs
311 generally agree that the watershed will be wetter in the future, with a 6%-18% rise in
312 precipitation predicted for the MRI-ESM2-0 compared to the historical period, and as
313 can be seen in Figure 8 the most significant increase in precipitation is seen in GFDL-
314 CM4 under the SSP5-8.5 high discharge scenario at about 21%. It is worth saying that
315 both GFDL-CM4 and MRI-EMS2-0 show a more humid precipitation pattern in SSP5-



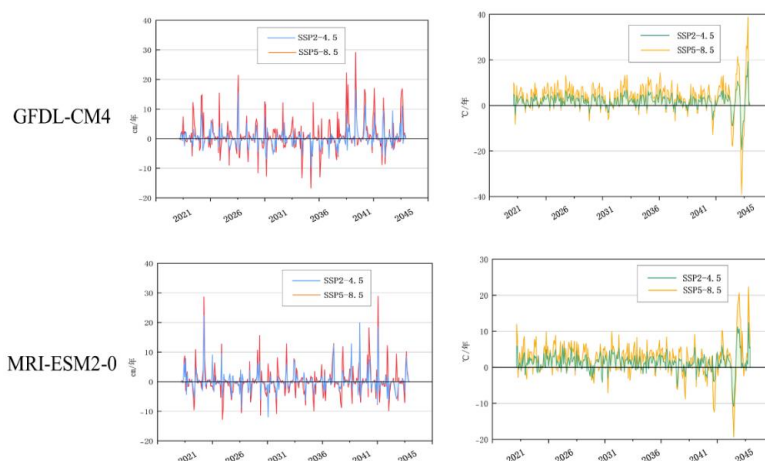
316 8.5 compared to SSP2-4.5, and the temperature change are also similar. Under SSP5-

317 8.5 conditions, the temperature rises more.

318 **Table 2**

319 **List of selected GCMs and average simulated future precipitation under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 for study area**

GCMs	Model Agency	Emission Scenarios	Average Temperature 2021-2045(°C/yr)	Average Precipitation 2021-2045(mm/yr)
GFDL-CM4	Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory, USA	SSP2-4.5	10.3	436.7
		SSP5-8.5		537.6
MRI-ESM2-0	Meteorological Research Institute, Japan	SSP2-4.5	10.4	441.1
		SSP5-8.5		513.5



320
 321 **Fig.8. Average monthly precipitation and temperature for GFDL-CM4 and MRI-ESM2-0 under SSP2-4.5**
 322 **and SSP5-8.5.**

323

324

325

326

327



328 **3. Results**

329 **3.1. Modelling calibration and validation**

330 Due to the spatial variability of the land surface of the watershed and the large
331 number of input parameters when building the model, which makes output results have
332 a great uncertainty, the Sequential Uncertainty Fitting version 2 (SUFI-2) was utilized
333 for the model calibration (Abbaspour et al., 2015). According to the Calibration and
334 Uncertainty Program (SWAT-CUP), this study selected the nine parameters that have a
335 large impact on the results for the rate determination (Zhang et al., 2022)(Table 3), and
336 finally, the values were determined by continuously inputting the parameters to narrow
337 the range of values.

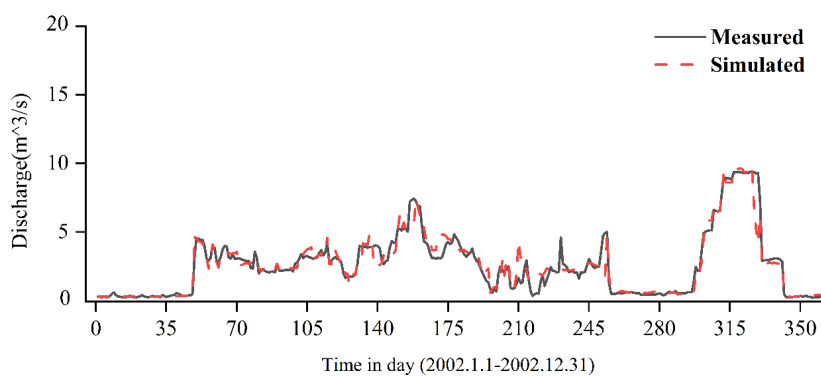
338 **Table 3**
339 **SWAT hydrological model parameter rate ranges and values**

Parameter	Description	Fitted value	Value range
CN2	SCS runoff curve number	87.5	35~98
CH_N2	River manning factor	0.15	0.001~0.30
ESCO	Soil evaporation compensation factor	0.17	0~1
GW_DELAY	Groundwater delay time	83.3	0~200
GWOMN	Threshold depth of water in the shallow aquifer required for return flow to occur	1.67	0~2
GW_REVAP	Groundwater “revap” coefficient	0.10	0.002~0.20
SOL_BD	Soil moist bulk density	2.23	0.9~2.5
SOL_K	Saturated hydraulic conductivity	1666.7	0~200
SOL_AWC	Soil available water content	0.83	0~1

340 The Nash-Sutcliffe coefficients are very close to the station's coefficients of



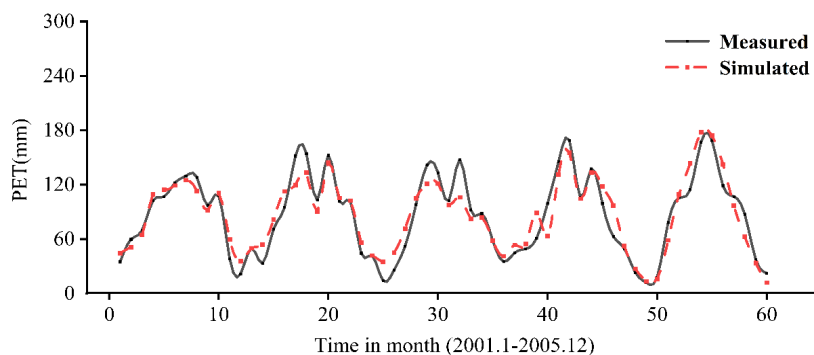
341 determination for both the model calibration and validation periods, and the parameters
342 for the validation period outperform the calibration period, with Nash-Sutcliffe
343 coefficients of 0.76 and 0.82, respectively. Figure 9 shows simulated and measured
344 flows at the basin hydrological stations during the validation period of 2002. It can be
345 seen that SWAT model simulates better in the dry season (January, February, September,
346 October, November, and December) than in the rainy season.



347
348

Fig.9. Simulated and measured discharges during the validation period at station.

349 To further ensure the accuracy of the model result output, we used the data product
350 to calibrate the potential evapotranspiration (PET) of the model output, with a time
351 scale of months, and the calibration time is 2001-2005, with $R^2= 83.7\%$, as shown in
352 Figure 10.



353

354

Fig.10. Simulated and measured potential evapotranspiration during the period 2001-2005 at station.

355

3.2. Projected changes in climatic variables

356

3.2.1. Significant and sudden changes in temperature and precipitation

357

Before analyzing the recharge changes, we analyzed the future climate elements at

358

six meteorological stations in the Yang River basin, respectively Huai'an (HA),

359

Wanquan (WQ), Zhangjiakou (ZJK), Xuanhua (XH), Zholu (ZL), and Huailai (HL).

360

The Mann-Kendall test and cumulative anomaly method to analyze the phased tendency

361

of the two primary climate variables, temperature and precipitation as well as their

362

abrupt changes under different scenarios. Tables 4 and 5 display the notable variations

363

in temperature and precipitation predicted by GFDL-CM4 and MRI-ESM2-0 under

364

SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios. The results indicate that in the future period (2021-

365

2005), both temperature and precipitation at these six stations predicted by the GCMs

366

show a growing trend, and the increasing trend of each meteorological factor predicted

367

by GFDL-CM4 is more significant than that of MRI-ESM2-0. Particularly, under the

368

SSP2-4.5 scenario, GFDL-CM4 predicts a significant level of temperature at all sites,

369

with a highly significant increase in temperature at Wanquan, but for precipitation, the



370 overall increase is more significant under the high emission scenario. Remark, the
 371 precipitation changes predicted by MRI-ESM2-0 are equivalent to those mentioned
 372 above, with a more pronounced trend of rising in precipitation under SSP5-8.5 as
 373 opposed to SSP2-4.5, where the trend of increasing precipitation in Huai'an and
 374 Wanquan in the future period also reaches a certain level of significance.

375 **Table 4**
 376 **Mann-Kendall trend test for stations temperature and precipitation (GFDL-CM4 SSP2-4.5 SSP5-8.5)**

Stations	Temperature			Precipitation			Stations	Temperature			Precipitation		
	Z	Trend	Trend feature	Z	Trend	Trend feature		Z	Trend	Trend feature	Z	Trend	Trend feature
HA	+2.82		**	+0.35	increase	insignificant	HA	+0.90		insignificant	+0.79	increase	insignificant
WQ	+3.15		***	+0.22	increase	insignificant	WQ	+1.61		insignificant	+0.63	increase	insignificant
AJK	+3.02		**	+0.31	increase	insignificant	AJK	+1.54		insignificant	+0.62	increase	insignificant
XH	+2.93		**	+0.40	increase	insignificant	XH	+1.74		+	+0.26	increase	insignificant
ZL	+2.95		**	+0.62	increase	insignificant	ZL	+2.05		*	+0.18	increase	insignificant
CL	+3.00		**	+0.53	increase	insignificant	CL	+2.12		*	+0.13	increase	insignificant

377
 378 ↑ indicates an upward trend; **, *** indicating significance tests with confidence levels of 99% and 99.9%

379
 380 **Table 5**
 381 **Mann-Kendall trend test for stations temperature and precipitation (MRI-ESM2-0 SSP2-4.5 SSP5-8.5)**

Stations	Temperature			Precipitation			Stations	Temperature			Precipitation			
	Z	Trend	Trend feature	Z	Trend	Trend feature		Z	Trend	Trend feature	Z	Trend	Trend feature	
HA	+1.06		insignificant	+0.44	increase	insignificant	HA	+1.50		insignificant	+1.94	increase		+
WQ	+0.57		insignificant	+0.53	increase	insignificant	WQ	+1.41		insignificant	+1.68	increase		+
AJK	+0.71		insignificant	+0.62	increase	insignificant	AJK	+1.37		insignificant	+1.37	increase	insignificant	
XH	+0.42		insignificant	+0.75	increase	insignificant	XH	+1.32		insignificant	+1.50	increase	insignificant	
ZL	+0.64		insignificant	+1.23	increase	insignificant	ZL	+1.43		insignificant	+1.59	increase	insignificant	
CL	+0.75		insignificant	+1.72	increase	+	CL	+1.63		insignificant	+1.59	increase	insignificant	

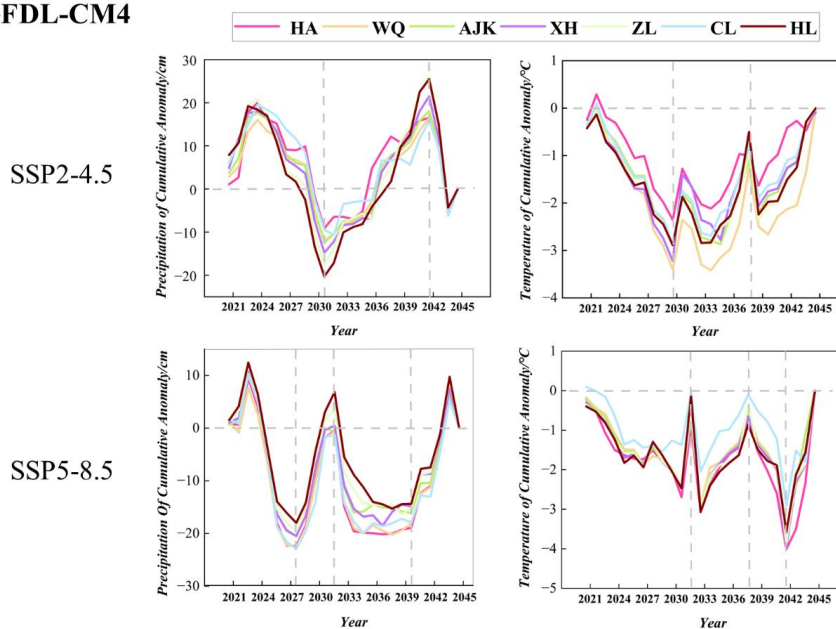
382
 383 ↑ indicates an upward trend; *, + indicating significance tests with confidence levels of 95% and 90%

384 Two GCMs showed projected sudden changes in yearly precipitation and
 385 temperature at all stations under medium to high emission conditions, but the particular
 386 years and trends of the rapid shifts were basically inconsistent. Figure 11 demonstrates
 387 the precipitation predicted by MRI-EMS2-0 varies abruptly in 2037 and 2038, with a
 388 decrease in the early stages and an upward trend after 2038, with an increase of 2.2% -

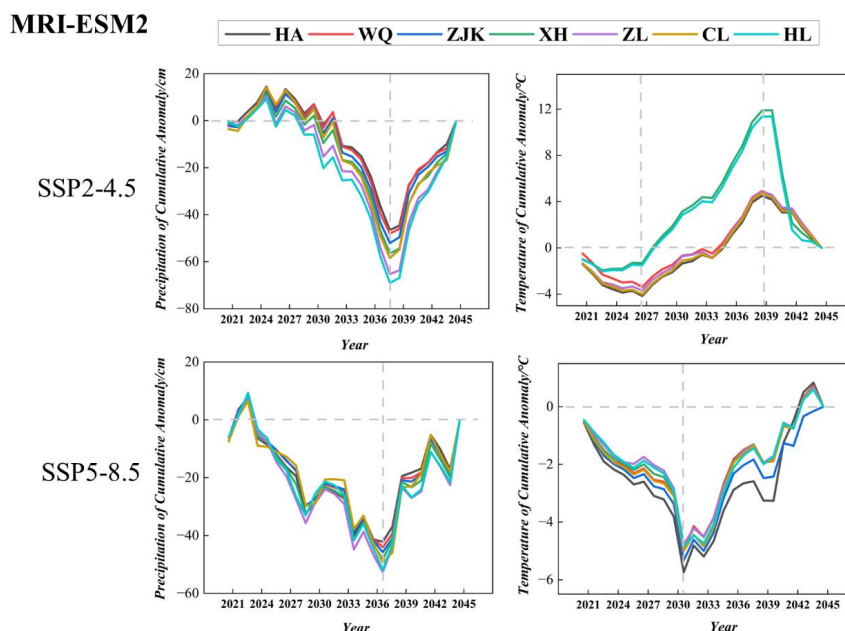


389 4.5% in precipitation. While the precipitation predicted by GFDL-CM4 not only
390 exhibits a sudden increase but also a sudden drop, and the overall trend of change is
391 inconsistent under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 conditions. Regarding temperature, under
392 the SSP2-4.5 scenario, the temperature change of MRI-ESM2-0 increases and then
393 dramatically decreases in 2039, whereas the temperature of the high-emission scenario
394 declines in the first period and then increases in the second period. Among all scenarios,
395 only GFDL-CM4 has a relatively consistent year of temperature mutation, which occurs
396 near 2030 and 2038.

GFDL-CM4



397



398
399 **Fig.11.** Accumulated anomalies for annual average temperature and average precipitation for GCMs under
400 SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5. Which: Huai'an (HA), Wanquan (WQ), Zhangjiakou (ZJK), Xuanhua (XH), Zholu
401 (ZL), Chongli(CL)and Huailai (HL)

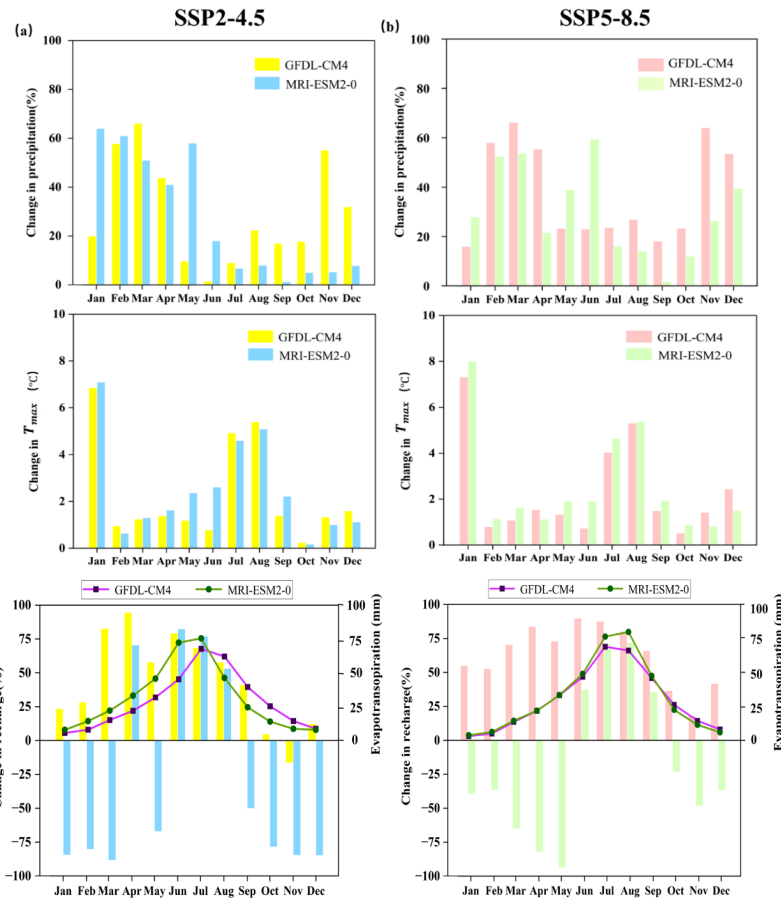
402 3.2.2. Seasonal variation

403 Seasonal trend changes appear in various climatic variables, and the results are
404 shown in Figure 12, which illustrates the future changes in mean monthly rainfall,
405 maximum temperature (T_{max}) in the study area watersheds predicted by the GCMs
406 under the SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios. The selected GCMs predicted higher
407 changes in mean temperature under the more extreme SSP5-8.5 scenario, with T_{max}
408 increasing by 2.17°C and 2.44°C for SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 compared to the historical
409 base period (1981-2005), with the MRI-ESM2- 0 increase generally stronger than the
410 GFDL-CM4 model by 15.7%. The maximum rise in annual T_{max} is likely to occur in
411 future periods under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, at approximately 2.5°C. Notable seasonal



412 variations, the T_{max} rise is stronger in the rainy season than in the dry season, except
413 for an anomalous change in January.

414 Compared to temperature, there is greater variability between GCMs in
415 precipitation predictions and emission scenarios (Ali et al., 2023), and for the two
416 selected GCMs, average rainfall shows an upward trend in the future under both the
417 SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, with a more violent trend, but with a greater
418 magnitude of the increase in SSP5-8.5 is larger. Annual rainfall is expected to increase
419 by 16.4-19.3% under SSP2-4.5, and by 21.9 -31.3% under SSP5-8.5, with GFDL-CM4
420 showing a wetter future than MRI-ESM2-0. Overall, in terms of seasonal variations,
421 precipitation increases to varying degrees in both the wet and dry seasons. It is pertinent
422 to note that under the SSP5-8.5 scenario, precipitation is elevated by 18.7%-22.9% and
423 34.2%-44.9% during the rainy and dry seasons, respectively, and this trend is probably
424 going to continue further in the future.



425

426

427

428

Fig.12. Projected changes in monthly precipitation, maximum temperature (T_{max}), and GWR in Yang river in the future period (2021-2045) under (a) SSP2-4.5, and (b) SSP5-8.5.

429

3.3. Projected changes in agricultural GWR

430

3.3.1. Temporal average changes in recharge

431

Agricultural groundwater recharge predicted by the SWAT model under both GCM

432

forecasts demonstrates a positive reaction to climate change, with a range of future

433

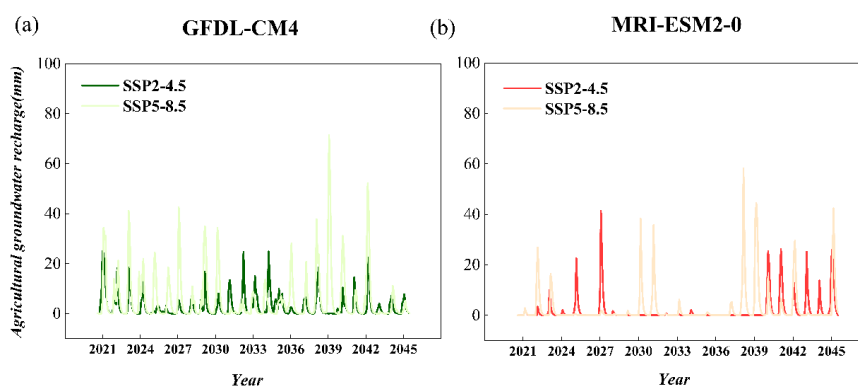
changes in recharge of -18% to +56%, and varying reductions in recharge despite the

434

increase in precipitation under all scenarios. ET ranges from -34% to +69% average



435 change over the next 25 years under all future scenarios projected, with an increasing
436 trend towards less dry season and rainier season, which becomes a potential factor
437 leading to a decline in recharge. Observing Figure 12, it can be inferred that the GWR
438 predicted by MRI-ESM2-0 has basically been decreasing from October to May of the
439 following year (dry season), which is associated with the increase in T_{max} predicted
440 by MRI-ESM2-0, where warming coupled with evapotranspiration has led to a
441 reduction in recharge, with recharge decreasing by 17% in the SSP2-4.5 and 28% in the
442 SSP5-8.5 prediction. On the contrary, the GFDL-CM4 predicted recharge growth has a
443 more pronounced trend, with increases of 44.6-62.9 % cent compared to the historical
444 baseline period (1981-2005), so it seems that the level of uncertainty between the
445 different GCMs is still large.



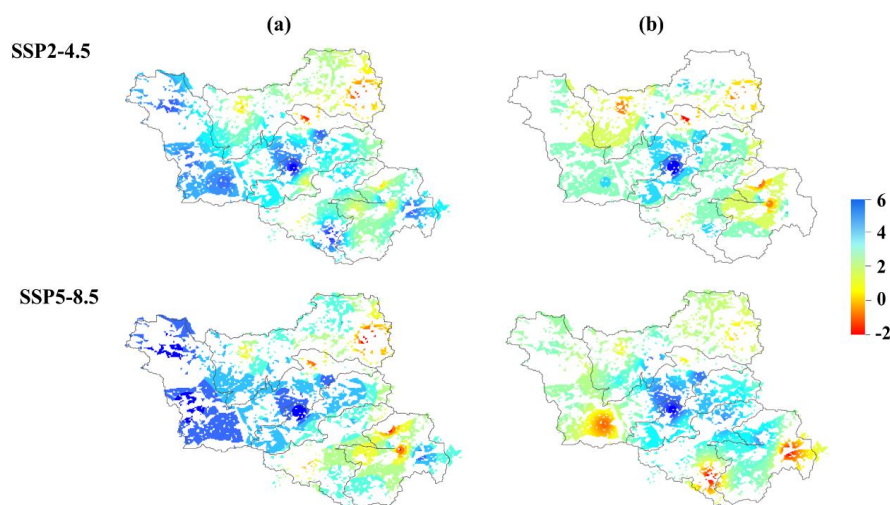
446
447 **Fig.13. Changes in groundwater recharge to agricultural land in the future period (2021-2045) under the**
448 **SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios for GFDL-CM4 and MRI-ESM2-0**

449 3.3.2. Spatial average changes in recharge

450 Figure 14 displays the spatial variation in the distribution of agricultural
451 groundwater recharge, and it can be seen that there is a spatial trend in the recharge



452 projections for each region. From WP1 to WP5, there are both increases and decreases
453 in future projected recharge, with increases being a little more common. The overall
454 increase in recharge is higher in the high-emission scenario than in the low-emission
455 scenario, and across scenarios, the GFDL-CM4 illustrates a more humid picture, with
456 increases in agricultural groundwater recharge ranging from 15.8% to 56.2% across the
457 study area. The WP5 region shows the largest increase in recharge (16.9%-60.1%), and
458 the largest change in recharge in WP4, which changes by 47% from a decrease to an
459 increase, while the WP2 recharge decreased the most, with an average decrease of about
460 22.2%. Compared to the other four regions, WP1 recharge change was the least variable
461 compared to the other four regions. Surprisingly, the region with the highest increase in
462 precipitation, WP3 (17% to 33%), also experienced the largest loss in recharge. This is
463 further discussed below.



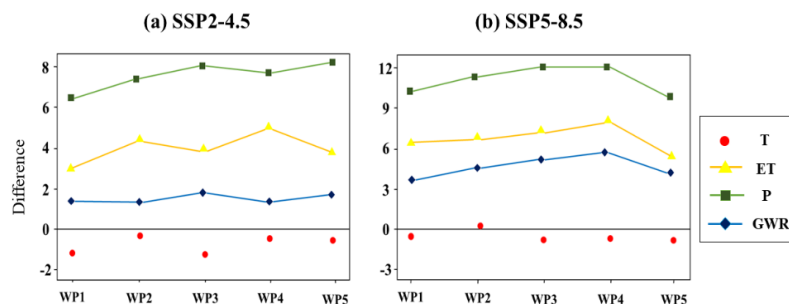
464
465 **Fig.14. Average changes in agricultural groundwater recharge (2021-2045) for (a)GFDL-CM4, and (b)MRI-**
466 **ESM2-0 under SSP2-4.5 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios. All values are in cm/yr.**



467 **4. Discussion: Drivers of Agricultural recharge changes**

468 **4.1. Region-wide analysis**

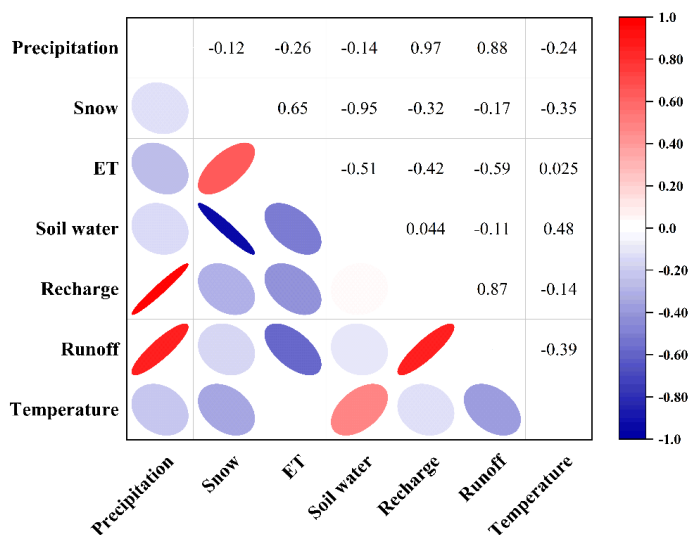
469 To further evaluate how projected climate variables drive changes in agricultural
470 groundwater recharge under various emission scenarios, we compare absolute changes
471 in precipitation(P), temperature(T), and evapotranspiration (ET) for analysis. It is
472 evident from Figure 15 that the change in recharge is relatively close to that of
473 precipitation changes. As can be observed from Figure.15(a), recharging is more
474 strongly impacted by ET when evapotranspiration changes are considerable.
475 Additionally, the change in recharge is inversely correlated with the change in ET, with
476 an increase in ET and a decrease in recharge. For the SSP5-8.5 scenario, on the other
477 hand, the model predicts that ET continues to increase in the future, but precipitation
478 exhibits a much larger increase, and changes in farmland recharge continue to closely
479 follow changes in precipitation (Fig. 15. (b)), at which point the trend in recharge is
480 mainly driven by precipitation. In the SSP2-4.5 scenario, the increase in ET essentially
481 corresponds to the temperature trend.



482
483 **Fig.15. 25-year study area average different(Future[2021-2045]-Historical[1981-2005]) for temperature(°C),**
484 **precipitation(cm/yr), recharge(cm/yr) and evapotranspiration (cm/yr) for (a)SSP2-4.5, and (b)SSP5-8.5 .**



485 According to the water balance equation, we understand that it is not only the
 486 climatic considerations that affect the recharge, particularly during periods of high
 487 precipitation (SSP5-8.5), but also other hydrological processes contribute to the change
 488 of recharge. Based on the water balance elements, the Pearson correlation coefficients
 489 are used to calculate the strong and weak links between precipitation, temperature, snow,
 490 ET, soil water, runoff, and recharge, and Figure 16 illustrates how variations in recharge
 491 have a significant positive correlation with precipitation and runoff.



492
 493 **Fig.16. Pearson correlation coefficients for climatic variables and hydrological elements for SSP5-8.5**

494 To evaluate how future changes in precipitation will be partitioned into recharge
 495 versus other hydrological components, we evaluated the water balance for each of the
 496 two GCMs and the two emissions scenarios:

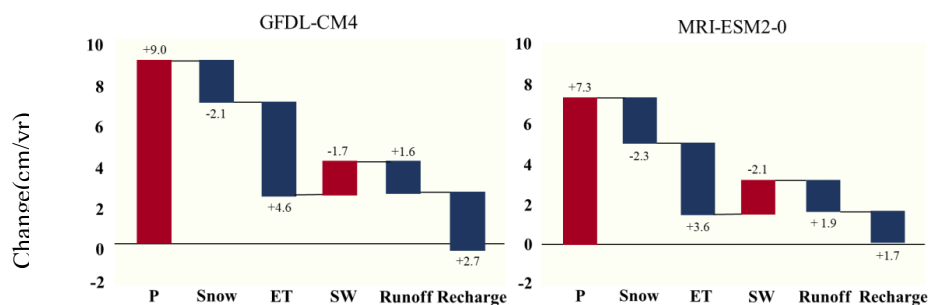
497
$$\Delta Precipitation + \Delta Snow = \Delta ET + \Delta Soil\ water + \Delta Recharge + \Delta Runoff$$

498 Where $\Delta = (\text{Future 25 years [2021-2045] average}) - (\text{Historical 25 years [1981-2005]})$



499 average)

500 In the hydrological compositional waterfall Figure 17, the changes in the increase
501 in precipitation (snow) are all upward in the positive direction, whereas the changes in
502 the positive direction of the precipitation assigned to the other hydrological elements of
503 each constituent water balance are downward, with the figure looking from left to right,
504 with the red indicating an increase in surface water, the darker blue representing a
505 decrease of water at the ground surface, and the water balance virtually reaching zero
506 on the right. Figure.17 shows that the precipitation is partitioned into constituent
507 quantities, with the increase in ET being the largest, with 28% more ΔET in GFDL-
508 CM4 than in MRI-ESM2-0, and the high ET offsets some of the increase in
509 precipitation because $\Delta(P-ET)$ is not equal to 0 but is greater than 0. The change in
510 recharge cannot be underestimated for the much larger increase in precipitation in
511 GFDL-CM4, which, as previously mentioned, also confirms the previous analysis that
512 precipitation is the main driver of the change in recharge. Additionally, as seen in
513 Figure.17, it also shows that for $\Delta(P-ET) > 0$, the increased snowmelt is allocated to
514 runoff and to soil water content through soil infiltration. Consequently, agricultural
515 groundwater recharge is more susceptible to variations in precipitation and ET, it is
516 examined in greater detail for regions with varying degrees of wetness in the sections
517 that follow.



518
519 Fig.17. Water balance analysis for GFDL-CM4 and MRI-ESM2-0 under SSP5-8.5 scenario. All values are in
520 cm/yr.

521 4.2. Analysis of wet and dry areas

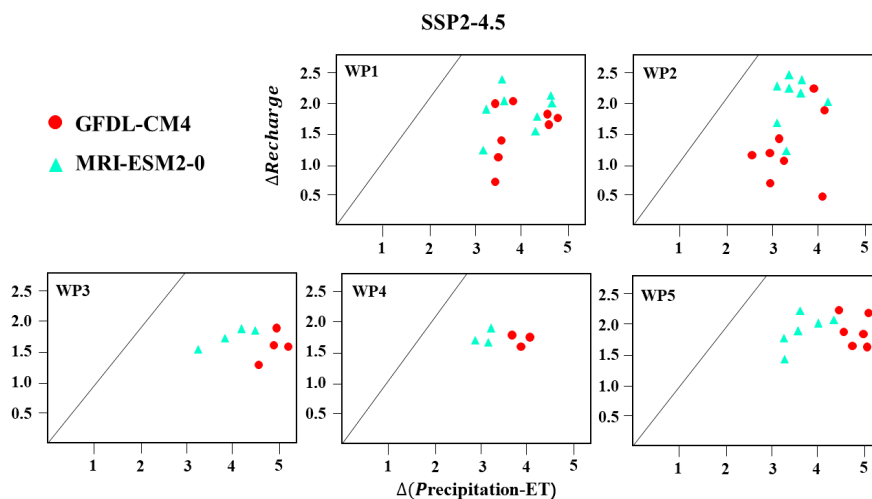
522 For our study area, the precipitation varies greatly, we separated it into WP1 to
523 WP5 (Fig. 3(d)) based on the quantity of precipitation, with WP1 receiving the least
524 amount of precipitation and the WP5 area receiving the most. Each region's differences
525 in farmland recharge can be attributed to a combination of surface topography and
526 climate, in addition to climatic influences.

527 Recharge is significantly connected with precipitation, with a correlation index of
528 0.97 (Figure 16), and the model simulation results indicate that future anticipated
529 precipitation shows a rising trend independent of the emission scenario. The change in
530 recharge is directly impacted by ET when future precipitation is less, and temperature
531 is the primary driver of ET. Both temperature and precipitation are affected by
532 differences in the distribution of spatial patterns, and for the whole study area, the WP5
533 region, where ET is predicted to increase less coupled with more adequate precipitation,
534 is the wettest of the five regions combined, which could explain the increase in recharge.
535 However, Figure 17 also illustrates that precipitation and ET do not fully determine



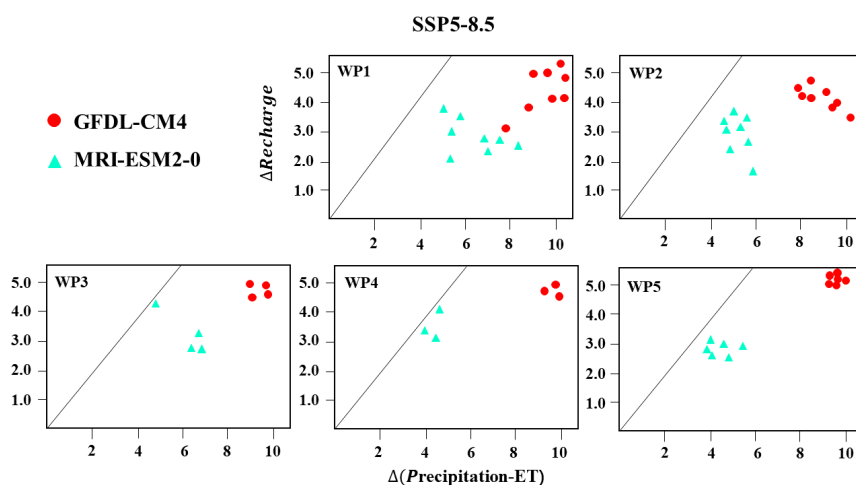
536 changes in recharge and that net atmospheric inputs are also allocated to other
537 hydrological processes into runoff as well as infiltration through the soil. By producing
538 future changes in net atmospheric inputs versus future changes in agricultural
539 groundwater recharge Δ (Precipitation – ET) and Δ Recharge scatter plots (Figure 18
540 and 19), those falling on the 1:1 line indicate that atmospheric input water is entirely
541 allocated to recharge.

542 The scatter plots illustrate disparities between areas with different degrees of
543 wetness and dryness based on climatic properties. From Figures.18 and 19, it can be
544 observed that Δ (Precipitation - ET) > 0 and Δ Recharge is also positively varying, with
545 scattered points distributed below the 1:1 line, suggesting that the net atmospheric input
546 meets the recharge. Almost all the future net atmospheric inputs projected by MRI-
547 ESM2-0 are allocated to recharge (near the 1:1 line), further confirming that
548 precipitation is the primary driver of recharge when precipitation is sufficient. However,
549 in most cases, although Δ (Precipitation - ET) > 0 and Δ Recharge > 0 , the scatters
550 representing the various sub-basins are all some distance from the 1:1 line, indicating
551 that the sufficiently large net inputs are also recharging other processes, and that runoff
552 accounts for part of the volume after some analysis, which is illustrated in Figure 20.



553

554 Fig.18. Scatter plot of Δ (Precipitation – ET) vs Δ Recharge for each region and GCM for the SSP2-4.5
 555 scenario. All values are in cm/yr. The black, diagonal line represents the 1:1line. Δ = Future (2021–2045) –
 556 Historical (1981–2005). Recharge refers to agricultural groundwater recharge.



557

558 Fig.19. Scatter plot of Δ (Precipitation – ET) vs Δ Recharge for each region and GCM for the SSP5-8.5
 559 scenario. All values are in cm/yr. The black, diagonal line represents the 1:1line. Δ = Future (2021–2045) –
 560 Historical (1981–2005). Recharge refers to agricultural groundwater recharge.

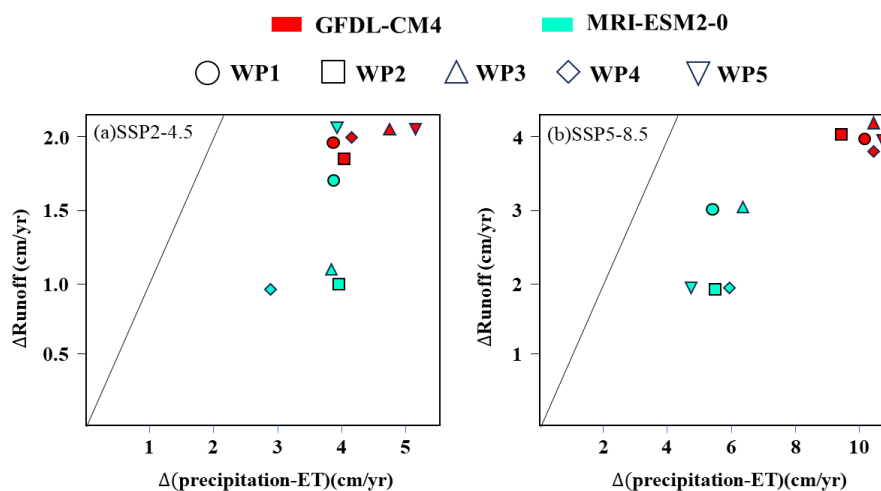
561 When Δ (Precipitation - ET) > 0, P-ET is separated into recharge and runoff.

562 Visual examination of Figure 20 demonstrates that the change in runoff plus the

563 changes in recharge is not equal to the net atmospheric water transport, although the



564 very slight difference, on the other hand to analyze the soil also uses some of the water,
565 it is presumed to be probably due to the distribution of crops on the surface, the root
566 system of the crops absorbs and usage of the water, and the replacement of the natural
567 vegetation with crops can significantly alter recharge through changes in
568 evapotranspiration and infiltration (Scanlon et al.,2005; Ng et al.,2009).



569
570 Fig.20. Scatter plot of study area average $\Delta(\text{Precipitation} - \text{ET})$ (cm/yr) vs ΔRunoff (cm/yr) for each GCM for
571 (a) SSP2-4.5 and (b) SSP5-8.5. The black diagonal line represents the 1:1 line.

572 4.3. Limitations of the research

573 Changes in recharge are driven by a combination of factors, although we selected
574 two climate models, GFDL-CM4 and MRI-ESM2-0, and imported coarse-resolution
575 downscaled GCM climate projection data into the SWAT model to predict and simulate
576 groundwater recharge to agricultural lands in the study area, and the results showed that
577 recharge has a significant response to climate change. This study focuses on the impact
578 of climate change on agricultural land recharge, in a series of processes that do not take



579 into account specific crops coverage and future agricultural expansion, as well as
580 hydrogeological properties, and it is crucial to accurate estimates of groundwater
581 recharge processes based on the soil cover characterizations and the hydrological
582 behavior of the relevant land cover types (Cusano et al., 2024). Other future
583 groundwater recharge studies included, but not incorporated here, include $C O_2$
584 concentrations from more vegetative transpiration (Mustafa et al., 2019a) and the use
585 of model integration to represent model structural uncertainty (Green et al., 2007).

586 **5. Summary and conclusions**

587 This study uses the Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) to investigate future
588 changes in agricultural groundwater recharge in the Yang River Basin, Hebei Province,
589 using climate projections from two GCMs under two emission scenarios (SSP2-4.5 and
590 SSP5-8.5). We analyzed the future agriculture groundwater recharge changes for 2021-
591 2045 relative to 1981-2005 baseline historical conditions. The results show that the
592 model study area performs well, with Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency of 0.82 and 0.76 in the
593 validation and calibration periods, respectively. The anticipated future period will see
594 increases in temperature and precipitation of 16.1-31.3% and 1.8-2.5°C, respectively,
595 resulting in a cumulative 31.3% increase in agricultural recharge throughout the
596 research area. Overall, it is unambiguous that climate change has an impact on
597 recharging in the studied area.

598 The results further indicate that the net atmospheric water transport (P-ET) in the
599 study area is distributed between recharge and runoff, suggesting that runoff is also an



600 important factor in moderating climate change changes on recharge. Against a
601 background of global warming, drastic cryosphere melting has caused a sharp decrease
602 in solid water resources, whereas the increasing meltwater volume is gradually altering
603 hydrological processes and water cycle characteristics (Li et al., 2023). In high emission
604 scenarios, even if evaporation increases due to higher temperatures (Al Atawneh et al.,
605 2021). Abundant precipitation cancels out some of the effects of ET, and the trend in
606 recharge change is essentially the same as the trend in precipitation, when it is
607 precipitation that drives the change in recharge. Under drier conditions, on the other
608 hand, it is ET, in addition to precipitation, that influences the change in recharge. Finally,
609 the formulation of unknown future conditions, such as climatic change scenarios and
610 groundwater abstraction strategies, increases the uncertainty in groundwater model
611 predictions (Mustafa et al., 2019b).

612 Our analysis employs two GCMs with relatively coarse resolution, which greatly
613 underestimates the uncertainty in the GCMs. Even though the SWAT model performed
614 well in the study area, the uncertainty within the model is objective, which may affect
615 the accuracy of the results. Future research will focus on specific crops to examine the
616 surface cover of various crops in more detail, account for irrigation growing seasons,
617 etc., and collaboratively examine variations in groundwater recharge. It is hoped that
618 our forecasts are intended to contribute to the body of knowledge regarding
619 hydrological processes in temperate continental regions in response to potential future
620 climate change.



621 **Authorship contribution statement**

622 **Xinyu Chang:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis,
623 Writing - original draft, Visualization. **Fei Gao:** Writing - review & editing,
624 Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition. **Ziyuan Gong:**
625 Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis. **Tianqi Hu:** Software,
626 Formal analysis. **Shikun Sun:** Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

627 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

628 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

629 **Other Statement**

630 Some figures contain disputed territories in this paper.

631 **Acknowledgement**

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