

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

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## Abstract

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Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) simulations have provided the basis for most such assessments and yet are being gradually superseded by more recent simulations from Phase 6 (CMIP6).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

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

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4     **X. R. Weng<sup>1</sup>, J. X. Zhu<sup>1,\*</sup>, D. G. Wang<sup>1,\*</sup>, S. Wang<sup>2</sup>, and J. X. Qiu<sup>1</sup>**  
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11    **Key Points:**

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

**21 Abstract**

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

41

**42 Plain Language Summary**

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

55

## 56 **1 Introduction**

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

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

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

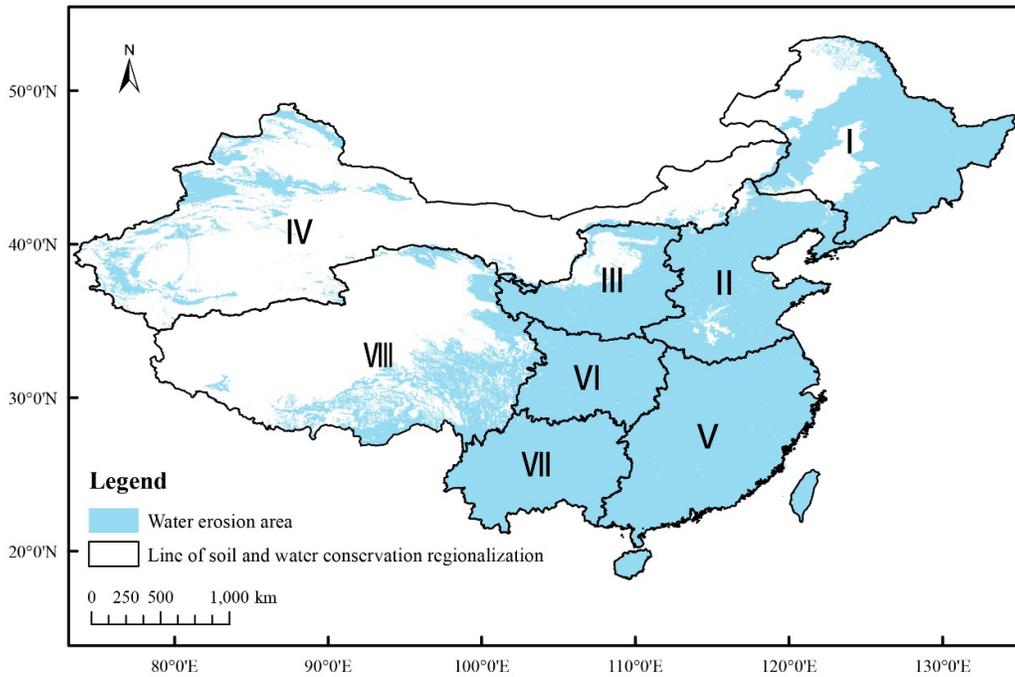
108 This study has two main objectives: (1) Through the selected CMIP6 high-resolution GCM and  
109 CMIP5 high-resolution RCM, combined with land use change data and RUSLE model, the impacts and  
110 differences of climate change and land use change on soil erosion in China under the two frameworks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

## 119 **2 Data and Methods**

### 120 **2.1 Study area**

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

144 shown in Fig.1



145

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

## 150 2.2 Datasets

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

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

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

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

### 191 2.3 Methodology

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

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

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

## 209 3 Results

### 210 3.1 Historical simulation of soil erosion

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

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

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

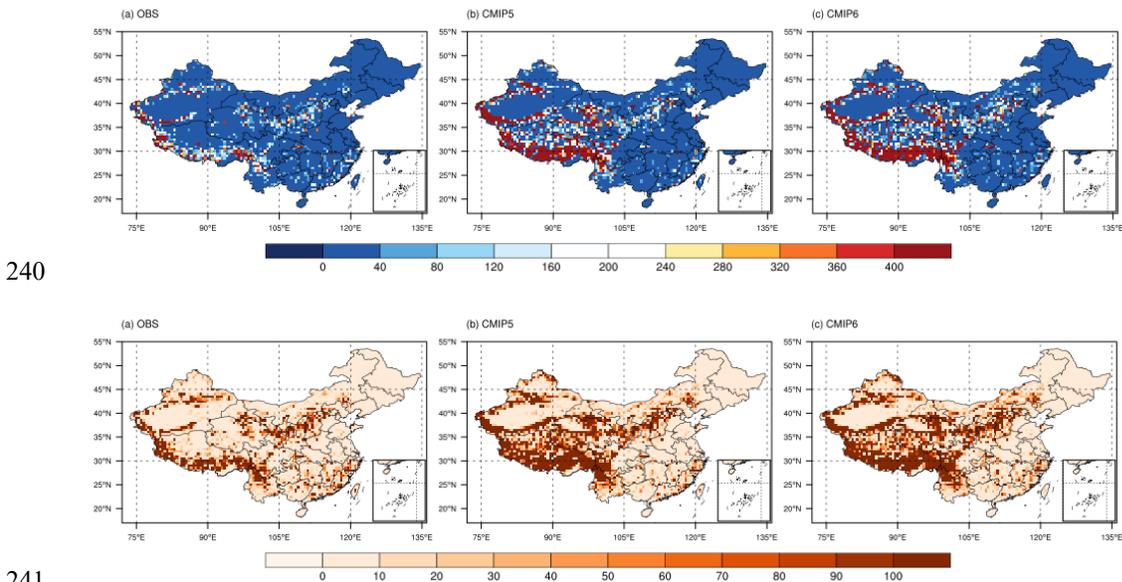


Fig.2 Spatial patterns of soil erosion (unit:  $\text{t}\cdot\text{km}^{-2}\cdot\text{a}^{-1}$ ) from (a) observation, (b) CMIP5 model and (c) CMIP6 model over China for 1986-2005

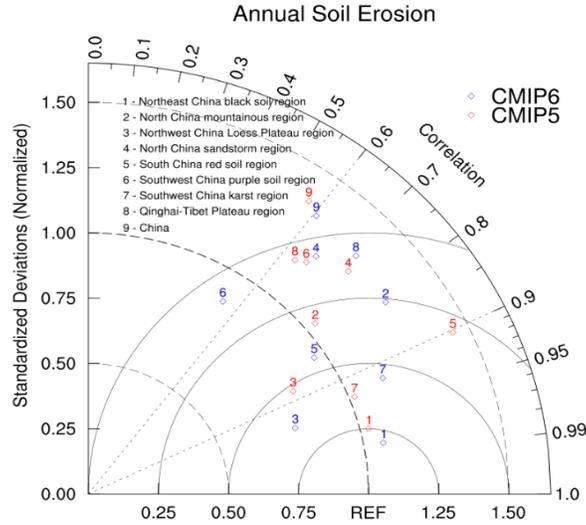
Tab.1 Factors A, R, and P of each area from (a) observation, (b) CMIP5 model, and (c) CMIP6

245 model over China for 1986-2005

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

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



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

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### 3.2 Future projections of soil erosion

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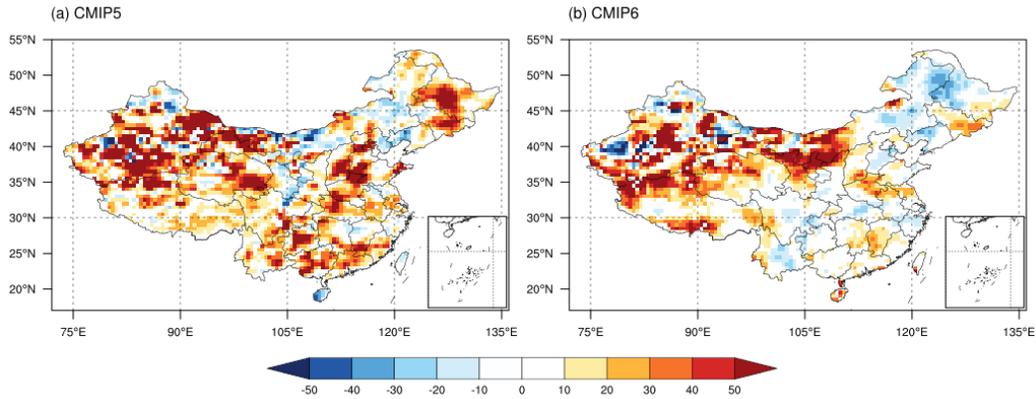
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The CMIP5 and CMIP6 outputs of soil erosion were used to estimate the projected percentage of change for the near future (2031-2050) compared to the base period over China (Fig.4). In terms of the spatial distribution of changes, results show that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



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

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### 3.3 Effects of climate and land use change on soil erosion

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

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

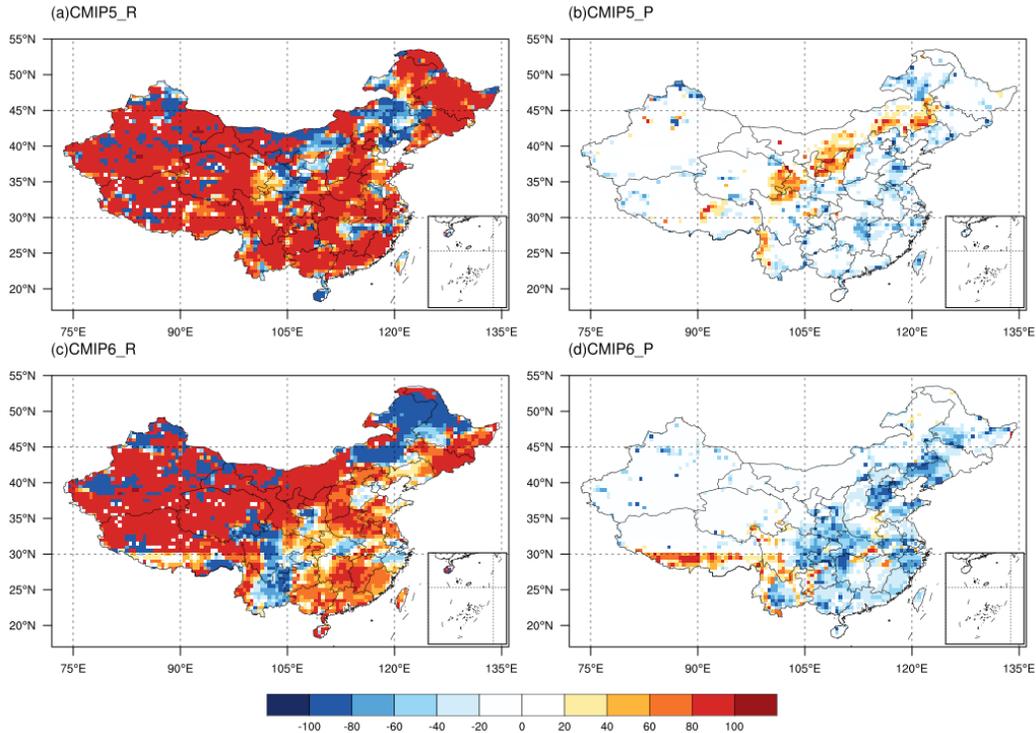
Land use change can either lead to a further increase in soil erosion (agricultural expansion and deforestation) or a decrease (agricultural abandonment and reforestation) (Eekhout and de Vente, 2022). But if we only discuss the P factor, with the improvement of human awareness of protecting the ecological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

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

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

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

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

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#### 4 Conclusion

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

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

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

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

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

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