

Estimating the Effect of Climate Internal Variability and Source of Uncertainty in Climate-Hydrological Projections in a Representative Watershed of Northeastern China

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1 *Estimating the effect of climate internal variability and source of uncertainty in*
2 *climate-hydrological projections in a representative watershed of Northeastern China*

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6
7 **Abstract:**

8 The decomposition and quantification of uncertainty sources in ensembles of
9 climate-hydrological simulation chains is a key issue in climate impact researches. The mainly
10 objectives of this study partitioning climate internal variability (CIV) and uncertainty sources in
11 the climate-hydrological projections simulation process, the climate simulation process formed by
12 six downscaled GCMs under two emission scenarios called GCMs-ES simulation chain, the
13 hydrological simulation process add one calibrate Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) model
14 called GCMs-ES-HM simulation chain. The CIV and external forcing of climate projections are
15 investigated in each GCMs-ES simulation chain. The CIV of precipitation and ET are large in
16 rainy season, and the single-to-noise ratio (SNR) are also relatively high in rainy season.
17 Furthermore, the uncertainty decomposed frameworks based on analysis of variance (ANOVA)
18 are established. The CIV and GCMs are the dominate contributors of runoff in rainy season. It
19 worth noting the CIV can propagate from precipitation and ET to runoff projections. In additional,
20 the hydrological model parameters are the third uncertainty contributor of runoff, which embody
21 the hydrological model simulate process play important role in hydrological projections in future.
22 The findings of this study advised that the uncertainty is complex in hydrological, hence, it is
23 meaning and necessary to estimate the uncertainty in climate simulation process, the uncertainty
24 analysis results can provide effectively efforts to reduce uncertainty and then give some positive
25 suggestions to stakeholders for adaption countermeasure under climate change.

26 **Key words:** *climate change; GCMs; climate-hydrological projections; uncertainty contributor; climate internal*
27 *variability; ANOVA*

28
29 **1. Introduction**

30 Hydrology cycle has been significantly impacted by climate change, a large number of studies
31 have assessed the future climate projections and quantified corresponding impacts on hydrological
32 regimes (Vaghef et al. 2019; Anjum et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2016; Wang et al. 2018). As the

33 primary tools for providing the future climate variables in changing environment, GCMs are
34 employed to drive HMs, such as the SWAT to obtain the future runoff projections in recently
35 studies (Wang et al. 2020). GCM can be used to simulated the general circulation of the earth's
36 atmosphere, which can provide the credible information from past to future meteorological data
37 (Zhang et al. 2016). Generally, the assessments of the climate change on hydrological regimes are
38 to drive a hydrological model with an ensemble of GCMs. Statistical downscaling methods
39 (SDMs) and dynamic downscaling methods are used to obtain a fine spatial resolution of GCMs at
40 watershed scales. SDMs are effectively and widely used to linkage the gaps of the spatial and
41 temporal resolution exist between GCMs and HMs (Wang et al. 2020). Future runoff process is
42 commonly obtained with a sequence of climate simulation process under various emission
43 scenarios, however, a large body of uncertainties exist in the process of estimating hydrological
44 projections under climate change impacts (Shen et al. 2018). The different aspects of uncertainty
45 in the model chain can be categorized as: (I) climate simulation uncertainty; (II) hydrological
46 simulation uncertainty. (Byun et al. 2019; Li et al. 2015; Chen et al. 2016; Ficklin et al. 2016;
47 Zhang et al. 2013; Lee et al. 2016; Nóbrega et al. 2011).

48 For climate simulation uncertainty, there are three kinds of uncertainty sources:(i) external
49 forcing, (ii) model response uncertainty, and (iii) internal variability (Hawkins and Sutton 2011;
50 Deser et al. 2012). The external forcing uncertainty represents arises from the anthropogenic
51 forcing employed in emission scenarios (Yu et al. 2020). Model response uncertainty is
52 explanation as the different climate change model may output different responses for the same
53 forced information. The internal uncertainty explains as the natural variability of the precipitation
54 and temperature etc., which describes the natural process in the atmosphere, ocean, and their
55 couple uncertainties (Pesce et al. 2019). The inherently chaotic internal processes in the climate
56 system are cascading to the hydrological processes (Lafaysse et al. 2014). The similarly
57 larger-scale atmosphere circulation may lead to different local-scale climate projections, this
58 local-scale of internal variability can be dominantly accounted by the downscaling method
59 (Lafaysse et al. 2014). Take the statistical downscaling method for example, it uses a stochastic
60 process to produces climate projections at finer scales for a certain large-scale pattern, and the
61 performance of estimating internal variability, moreover, the internal variability plays a significant
62 important role in climate change projections (Doi and Kim 2020). On the base of independently of

63 the external forcing, the internal variability of climate projections has been analyzed by many
64 studies to estimate the uncertainty range of a chosen forced response and obtain a robust detection
65 of climate change effects (Steinschneider et al. 2015; Schindler et al. 2015; Nerantzaki et al.
66 2020).

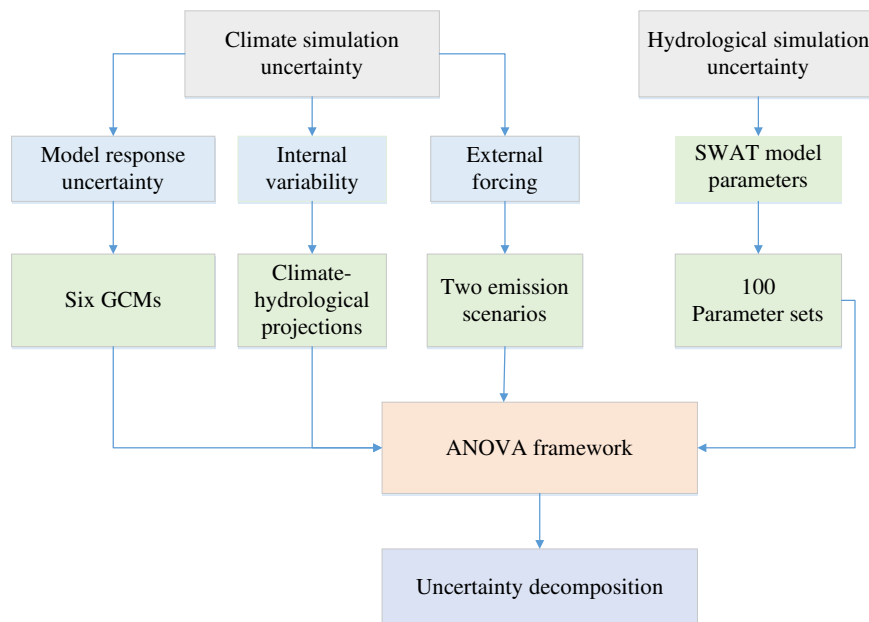
67 For the hydrological simulation uncertainty which included input data, hydrological model
68 structure and model parameters (Lee et al. 2016; Xue et al. 2014; Yen et al. 2014; Nerantzaki et
69 al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2013; Qin et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2013; Lee et al. 2016; Galavi et al. 2020).
70 Among the hydrological modeling uncertainty, the uncertainty from model structure mainly
71 caused by the mathematical model, it is able to portray the real characteristic of the basin (Gupta A
72 and Govindaraju R S 2019) and it can be expressed by parameters. The contribution of parameters
73 uncertainties is significant impacts in the model output, the different parameters may due to the
74 runoff changing in opposite directions (Zhang et al. 2019). In addition, parameter uncertainty is
75 relatively to control by some conceptual or empirical parameters and an appropriate calibration
76 method (Wu and Chen 2015). The inappropriate estimation of main parameters may result in
77 non-negligible uncertainty, for this reason, parameters uncertainty has received most attention of
78 previous studies (Nerantzaki et al. 2019). There are several methods for quantifying the model
79 parameters uncertainty analysis, such as the Sequential Uncertainty Fitting algorithm (SUFI2)
80 (Abbaspour KC et al. 2011), the Generalized Likelihood Uncertainty Estimation (GLUE) (Beven
81 and Binley 1992) and the Parameter Solution (ParaSol) (Griensven and Meixner 2006), these three
82 techniques are widely been applied in sensitivity and uncertainty analysis of parameters in
83 hydrological model. The technology of SUFI2 shows the robust ability in estimation the parameter
84 uncertainty (Zhao et al. 2018; Xue et al. 2014).

85 In order to obtain a robust detection of climate change effects and give some useful suggestions
86 to practical decision making, this manuscript focus on analyzing the changing of precipitation,
87 temperature, ET and runoff under climate change, and evaluating the source of uncertainty
88 contribution in the two simulations chains.

89 To segregate the uncertainty contribution of individual sources in hydrological simulated chain,
90 Bosshard et al. (2013) quantified the uncertainties contributions of an ensemble of hydrological
91 climate impact projections by using the ANOVA method. The ANOVA technique has fewer
92 assumptions as compared to other uncertainty analysis methods, such as Bayesian methods and

93 GULE (Vaghef et al. 2019). In recently hydrological application, the assessment framework based
 94 on ANOVA has been used to investigated the individual and interaction uncertainty from different
 95 sources (Chawla et al. 2018; Qi et al. 2016; Kujawa et al. 2020; Keller et al. 2019; Wang et al.
 96 2020). However, the different kinds of uncertainty sources have not been estimated equally in
 97 previous researches. They mainly aim on decomposition the GCMs, emission scenarios,
 98 downscaling method, hydrological model structure and parameter for simulation chains (Kujawa
 99 et al. 2020; Shi et al. 2020; Keller et al. 2019). Moreover, to investigate the role of the internal
 100 variability in the overall climate change uncertainty can provide more useful information to
 101 uncertainty estimating of simulation chains and establish more comprehensive framework of
 102 uncertainty analysis (Liu et al. 2012; Schindler et al. 2015; Steinschneider et al. 2015; Nerantzaki
 103 et al. 2020). Therefore, comprehensive and systematical investigating the hydrological climate
 104 change impact and estimating different sources of uncertainty is worth and necessary.

105 The mainly aim of this study is:(1) to analyze the precipitation, temperature, ET and runoff
 106 projections changing under climate change. (2) to estimate the role of internal variability and
 107 external forcing on the climate-hydrological projections. (3) to quantify the source of uncertainty
 108 contribution on the overall uncertainty. (4) to confirm the important influence factors and
 109 uncertainty source of runoff. The uncertainty decomposition framework of this study shows in
 110 Fig.1.



111

112

Fig.1. Flowchart of the uncertainty decomposition framework of this study

113

For this purpose, this manuscript combined six GCMs models under two Representative

114 Concentration Pathways (RCPs), which have been based on the fifth phase of the Coupled Model
115 Intercomparison Project (CMIP5). These climate change scenarios were downscaled by the
116 statistical downscaling method. Morphing (Belcher et al. 2019) and then a widely used
117 hydrological model SWAT was used to runoff simulation, the SUFI-2 (Abbaspour et al. 2011)
118 uncertainty approach for capturing the relatively uncertainty of SWAT model parameters. The
119 findings of this research may provide some meaningful suggestions on hydrological climate
120 change impacts and presents a methodology for partitioning uncertainty sources of runoff
121 projections in a representative watershed in Northeastern of China.

122 **2. Study area and data**

123 **2.1. Study area**

124 The Biliu River basin is located in the Northeastern of China spans 39.54° to 40.35° N in latitude
125 and 122.29° to 122.93° E in longitude with an approximate area of 2085km² (Fig.2). The Biliu River
126 Reservoir was built in 1975 and the storage of it is 9.34×10⁸ m³. The mainly utility of this
127 reservoir is water supply for nearby big cities and cropland irrigation. Another reservoir, called
128 Yushi Reservoir, which was built in 2001 and located in the upstream of Biliu River, with a
129 storage capacity of 0.89×10⁸ m³ and a drainage area of 313km². Because of the reservoir supplies
130 water to the outside of the basin, thus, the impact of Yushi Reservoir should be considered in the
131 hydrological model. This study area has the characterized of temperate, monsoon marine climate,
132 and with the rainy season from June to September. The mean annual precipitation is 746mm, the
133 average annual temperature is 8.40°C to 10.3°C, and the maximum and minimum temperatures
134 are 35.8°C and -23.5°C, respectively.

135 **2.2. Data and climate change scenarios**

136 The historical observed daily precipitation and daily runoff data were available form1978-2004,
137 the monthly precipitation and runoff data were form 1958-2011, which were obtain from the Biliu
138 River Reservoir administration and Hydrology Bureau of Liaoning Province. The DEM, land-use
139 map, and soil type map are obtained from the Data Center for Resources and Environmental
140 Science, Chinese Academy of Sciences.

141 The climate data were used output from six GCMs in CMIP5 under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5
142 emission scenarios: ACCESS1-0, BCC-CSM1.1(m), CESM1-BGC, CESM1-CAM5, CMCC-CM,

143 MPI-ESM-MR (Table1). The climate data were extracted for 1980-2004 period, 2041-2065 period
 144 and 2066-2090 period, which defined as reference period, 2050s and 2080s two future period.

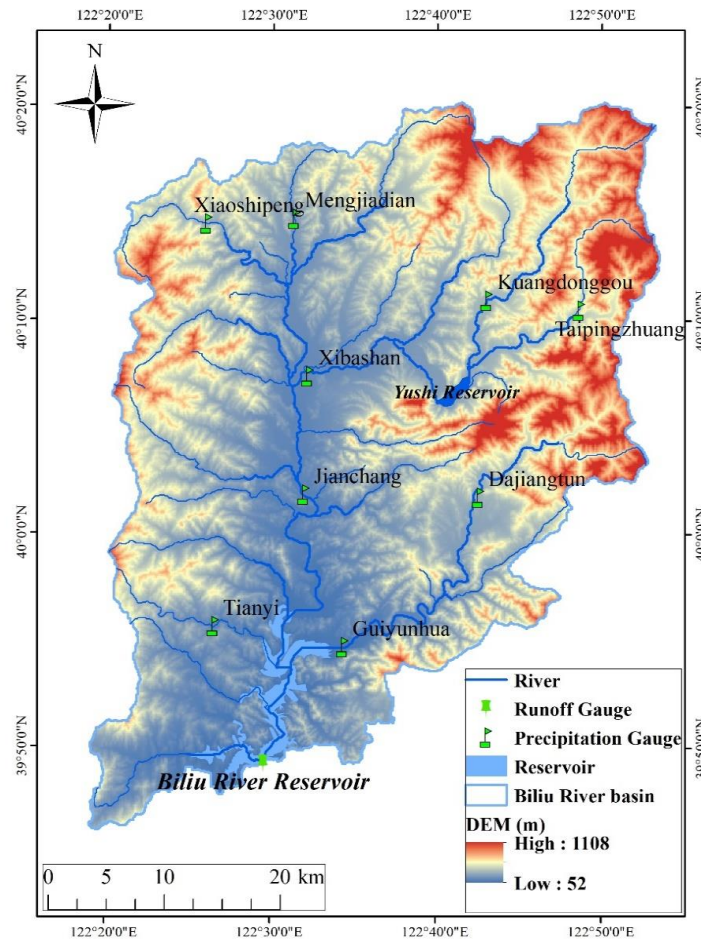
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Table 1 Description of CMIP5 climate models and scenarios

Climate Models	Country	Resolution	Scenarios
ACCESS1.0	Australia	1.88° × 2.48°	RCP4.5, RCP8.5
BCC-CSM1.1(m)	China	1.13° × 1.13°	RCP4.5, RCP8.5
CESM1(BGC)	USA	1.3° × 0.9°	RCP4.5, RCP8.5
CESM1(CAM5)	USA	1.3° × 0.9°	RCP4.5, RCP8.5
CMCC-CM	Italy	0.75° × 0.75°	RCP4.5, RCP8.5
MPI-ESM-MR	Germany	1.88° × 1.88°	RCP4.5, RCP8.5

147



148

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150

Fig.2. The location of precipitation gauge, runoff gauge, river, boundaries in Biliu River basin.

151 **3. Methodology**

152 **3.1 Hydrological modeling and parameter uncertainty assessment**

153 The SWAT 2012 is used to simulate runoff in this study. SWAT is a physically based water-scale
154 model which is widely used in investigating hydrological processes around the world (Wang et al.
155 2020). The model divided the watershed into hydrologic response units (HRUs), each of these
156 HRUs based on a unique combination of soil, land use and slope characteristics (Nie et al. 2011).
157 Recently, the model has been developed to estimate the climate change impact on hydrological
158 regimes in the predict conditions over long periods of future. The SWAT-CUP software was
159 utilized for calibration and uncertainty assessment of parameters (Abbaspour et al. 2007). SUFI2
160 algorithm was chosen to calibrate and validate the parameters in the SWAT-CUP (Abbaspour et al.
161 2004). In order to account for the parameter uncertainty of the model, this manuscript used Latin
162 hypercube sampling (LHS) to generated hydrological model parameter sets. The Nash-Sutcliffe
163 model efficiency (E_{NS}), the average relative error (R_e), and the coefficient of determination (R^2)
164 are used as objective function, which measure the distance between the observations and the
165 simulations. Through sensitive analysis of the calibration process, 11 hydrological input
166 parameters have been generated. The initial iteration of LHS derived 1000 simulations, for all
167 initial parameter sets, the best 100 parameter sets were selected by the condition as E_{NS} above 0.9,
168 R^2 above 0.9 and $|R_e|$ below 10.

169 **3.2 Climate change scenario and downscaling method**

170 The CMIP5 have provide future climate database and widely around the world (Kujawa et al.
171 2020; Zhu et al. 2018; Shi et al. 2020). Six GCMs from CMIP5 were selected to represent the
172 future climate scenarios under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 emission scenarios. SWAT hydrological model
173 was driven by six GCMs and two emission scenarios, for a total of 12 ensemble scenario members
174 under 2050s and 2080s.

175 Because of the simpler and easily using merits (Abbaspour et al. 2004; Zhu et al. 2018; Chen et
176 al. 2010), this manuscript adopts Morphing approach to remove biased from the original GCMs
177 climate projections, this method involves a shift, a linear stretch (scaling factor), and a
178 combination of shift and a stretch (Belcher et al. 2005). The downscaled precipitation and

179 temperature are calculated by Morphing and shows acceptable performance in the study
180 watersheds more details of the downscaling process were shown in Zhu et al. (2018).

181 **3.3 The internal variability estimate method**

182 The internal uncertainty is expected to present the natural viability of the regional climate at
183 decadal multi-decadal time scale in the simulation chains (Lafaysse et al. 2014). In order to
184 investigate the internal variability of the hydrological variables, the external component need be
185 subtracted from variable series, and then the fluctuations of the variable series can be regarded as
186 the internal variability (Frankcombe et al. 2015). The standard deviation of the ensemble variable
187 or the residual to quantify the internal variability is the robust method has been applied in many
188 previous publications (Yu et al. 2020; Maher et al. 2020; Evin et al. 2020; Hingray et al. 2020;
189 Thompson et al. 2015; Lafaysse et al. 2014).

190 Generally, the internal variability is quantified by the “detrend” and “differenced” method,
191 which can separate the internal variability and external forcing (Frankcombe et al. 2015; Kim et al.
192 2018). In these two methods, firstly, the external forcing can be estimate, secondly, the external
193 forcing is subtracted from the hydrological variable series, and then the fluctuations of the
194 variables are regarded as internal variability. (Frankcombe et al. 2015; Zhang and Huang 2013)

195 **3.4 Uncertainty evaluation and decomposition**

196 For a simulated chain as GCMs-ES, the total uncertainty comes from GCMs, external
197 variability (emission scenarios) and internal variability.

198 (1) The different components of the total uncertainty

199 The hydrological projections can be decomposed by hydrological variability and internal
200 variability (Evin et al. 2019; Hingray et al. 2019). The raw hydrological projections $Y_{i,j}$ under
201 climate change can be express as Eq. (1).

$$202 \quad Y_{i,j} = \varphi_{i,j} + \eta_{i,j} \quad (1)$$

203 Where $\varphi_{i,j}$ is the hydrological variability under the hydrological simulation chain; $\eta_{i,j}$ is the residual variance of
204 the climate variability for the given hydrological simulation chain, it can also be express as internal variability.

205 The hydrological variability $\varphi_{i,j}$ of any simulation chain can be defined as Eq. (2):

$$206 \quad \varphi_{i,j} = \mu + \alpha_h + \beta_k + \gamma_l + \xi_{h,k,l} \quad (2)$$

207 Where μ is the overall mean of hydrological variability under climate change; α_h is the effect contributed by

208 hydrological model parameters; β_k is the effect contribute by GCMs; γ_1 is the effect contribute emission scenarios;
 209 $\xi_{h,k,l}$ is the interaction terms of the model.

210 On the base of the above expression of the raw output from simulate chains, the overall
 211 variance of the runoff projections $Var[Y_{h,k,l}]$ as flowing:

$$212 \quad Var[Y_{h,k,l}] = Var[\varphi_{h,k,l}] + Var[\eta_{h,j,k}] \quad (3)$$

213 Where $Var[\varphi_{h,k,l}]$ is the uncertainty in the hydrological variable under climate change, $Var[\eta_{h,j,k}]$ is the
 214 uncertainty of internal variability of hydrological variable.

$$215 \quad Var[\varphi_{h,j,k}] = Var[\alpha_h] + Var[\beta_j] + Var[\gamma_k] + Var[\xi_{h,j,k}] \quad (4)$$

216 Where $Var[\alpha_h]$ is the variance of SWAT model parameters effects; $Var[\beta_j]$ is the variance of GCMs model
 217 effect; $Var[\gamma_k]$ is the variance of the emission scenarios; $Var[\xi_{h,j,k}]$ is the variance of the interaction effects.

218 (2) The uncertainty quantified and decomposition

219 This manuscript constructs a three-way ANOVA framework to decomposition the different
 220 uncertainties contribution, this technology has ability to partition the total observed variance into
 221 different sources, and then quantify the contribution of different sources to total variance (Wang et
 222 al. 2018; Aryal et al. 2017).

223 It based on a biased variance estimator that underestimates the variance when the sample size is
 224 small. In order to diminish the bias effects caused by the different number of levels of the
 225 uncertainty factors, Bosshard et al. (2013) proposed a subsampling method was applied in this
 226 manuscript. This subsampling technology selected two samples from the large sample sets, and
 227 then a new sample can be generated for ANOVA. This study selects two SWAT parameters sets
 228 out of the 100 sets, the superscript j was replaced by $g(h, i)$, which is 2×4950 matrix as
 229 following:

$$230 \quad g = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & \Lambda & 1 & 2 & 2 & \Lambda & 98 & 98 & 99 \\ 2 & 3 & \Lambda & 100 & 3 & 4 & \Lambda & 99 & 100 & 100 \end{pmatrix} \quad (5)$$

231 Based on the ANOVA theory and the form of Eq. (3) and Eq. (4), the ANOVA model can be
 232 expressed as Eq. (6). It is composed by the mean effects of SWAT model parameters (α_h), GCMs
 233 model (β_k), emission scenarios (γ_1), internal variability ($\eta_{h,j,i}$) and interaction effects ($\xi_{h,j,i}$). The
 234 mean effects can be computer as the deviation of each factors mean value and the global mean

235 $M^{g(-,j),-,}$.

236
$$M^{g(h,j),k,l} - M^{g(-,j),-,} = \alpha_h + \beta_j + \gamma_l + \eta_{h,j,l} + \xi_{h,j,l} \quad (6)$$

237 In the ANOVA model, the total variance of the hydrological variable $M^{g(h,j),k,l}$ is expressed as
238 the total sum of squares (SST), and it can decompose into individual variance of each effect:

239

240
$$SST = SSA + SSB + SSC + SSIV + SSI \quad (7)$$

241 Where SSA, SSB, SSC is the uncertainty contribution of SWAT model parameters, GCMs, emission scenarios
242 respectively, SSIV is the internal variability and SSI is the contribution of the interaction effects between SWAT
243 model parameters, GCMs and emission scenarios.

244 By this approach, the intercomparisons among the uncertainty contribution of SWAT model
245 parameter, GCMs, emission scenarios, internal variability and the interaction effects are not
246 affected by the different sampling number.

247 **4 Results**

248 **4.1 hydrological model parameters calibrated and uncertainty**

249 The SWAT model is constructed based on the historical daily meteorological data and spatial
250 geographic data of the study basin. Before being used to predict the future runoff, the hydrological
251 model parameters need to be calibrated and validated. This study divided the calibration period
252 (1982~1996) and validation period (1997~2011) based on the precipitation and runoff changing
253 trends. The simulated data from the SWAT was compared with the historical observed data to
254 ensure its reliability. Three metrics E_{NS} , R_e , and R^2 are been used to estimate the model
255 performance during calibrated and validated period. More details about the calibration and
256 validation were introduced in (Zhu et al. 2018). The SUFI2 method is used to calibrate the
257 parameters for the 1982-2011 period runoff in study area. The parameters setting was shown in
258 Table 2.

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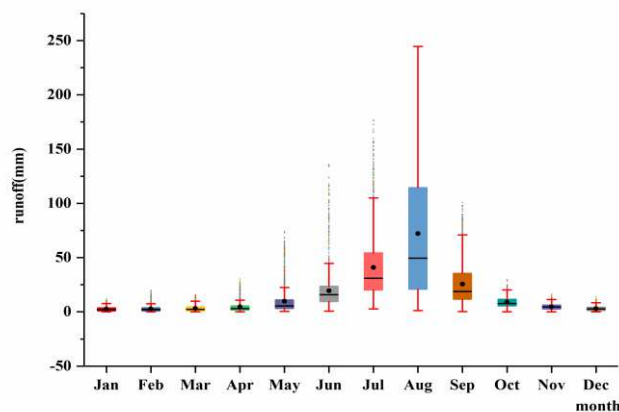
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Table 2 The selected SWAT model parameters

Parameter	Definition	Min	Max
CN2	Initial SCS runoff curve number for moisture condition	0.75	1.25
SURLAG	Surface runoff lag coefficient	1.00	23.98
LAT_TTIME	Lateral flow converge coefficient	0.01	179.92
ESCO	Soil evaporation compensation factor	0.01	1.00
GW_DELAY	The delay time	0.37	500.00
ALPHA_BF	Baseflow alpha factors (days)	0.00	1.00
GWQMN	Threshold depth of water in the shallow aquifer required for return flow to occur	0.41	499.72
SFTMP	Snowfall temperature	-5.00	5.00
SMFMX	Melt factor for snow	1.50	8.00
TIMP	Snowmelt temperature lag factor	0.01	1.00

266

267 The SUFI2 is used as a parameter uncertainty estimate method for reference period in the study
 268 basin. For final ensemble of the 100 parameter sets generate by the LHS, and then these parameter
 269 sets are put in the SWAT model to generate 100 behavioral simulations which are performance in
 270 Fig. 3 with the help of box plots. Each box represents 100 behavioral simulations which outputs
 271 by the calibrated SWAT model. The length of the box plots denotes the runoff changes range from
 272 100 simulations corresponding to one specific month. The differences between two boxes shows
 273 the parameters effect are quite differently for one given month. It can be seen in Fig. 3 that the
 274 month runoff variability due to SWAT model parameter sets are relatively larger in June to
 275 September. As the flooding season (summer and early autumn) in the watershed, the difficulty of
 276 the flood control measures would remarkably increase in future, hence, the contribution of the
 277 SWAT model parameter sets need be quantified.



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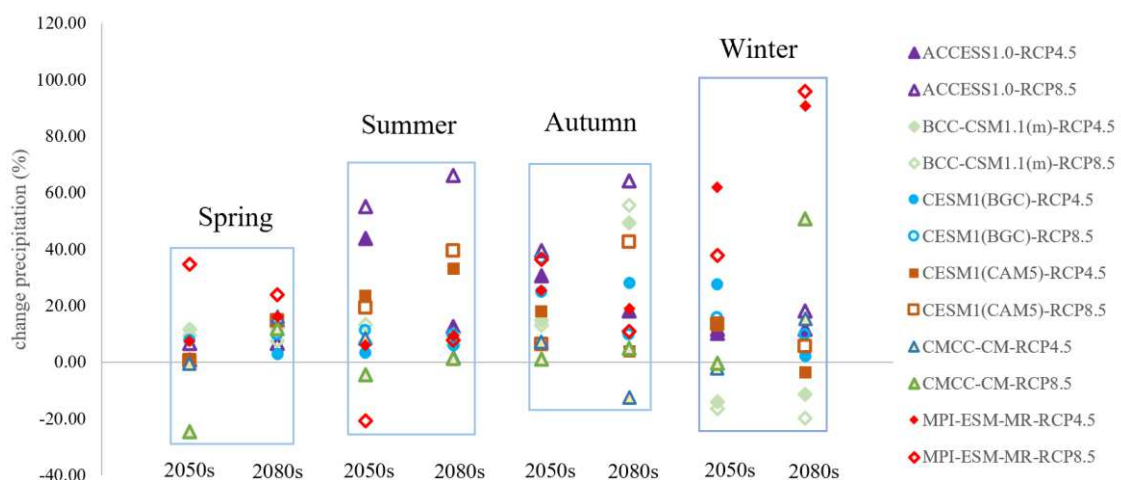
Fig.3. The SWAT model parameters uncertainty of the reference periods.

280 **4.2 Impacts of climate change on the hydrological-climate projections**

281 **4.2.1 The precipitation projections change under climate change**

282 The future precipitation projections which were compare with the reference period (1980-2004)
 283 and demonstrated in Fig.4. It can be seen that the precipitation projections performance a marked
 284 increase trend in 2050s and 2080s. Lots of GCMs-EM simulation chains shows an increased trend,
 285 except several model chains shows a decreased trend in winter. It can be noted that the
 286 precipitation projections have non-negligible uncertainty in future. This uncertainty of
 287 precipitation propagates through the hydrological model and is amplified in the runoff outputs.
 288 Hence, the precipitation uncertainty under climate change need be investigated previously.

289 For the 2050s summer, the precipitation changing interval is from an 54.13% increase to -21.2%
 290 decrease, all of the precipitation projections show an increased trend in this period except for
 291 CMCC-CM (-5.04%) and MPI-ESM-MR (-21.20%) under RCP8.5 scenarios. The uncertainty of
 292 precipitation projections is significant in the 2080s winter, which changes from -19.79% to
 293 95.95%. In contrast, the changing rang of spring and autumn are relatively small, among the two
 294 future periods, the uncertainty range of spring is from 31.2% to -21.27% in 2050s, and the range
 295 from 1.71% to 41.18% in 2080s autumn. Compared to the other seasons, the change range of
 296 spring is smallest in 2080s. Fig.4 displays the precipitation changing ratios has a large changing
 297 range for different GCMs in the same emission scenarios as the model uncertainty. And shows
 298 different precipitation changing ratios for each GCM in different emission scenarios as the
 299 external forcing uncertainty.



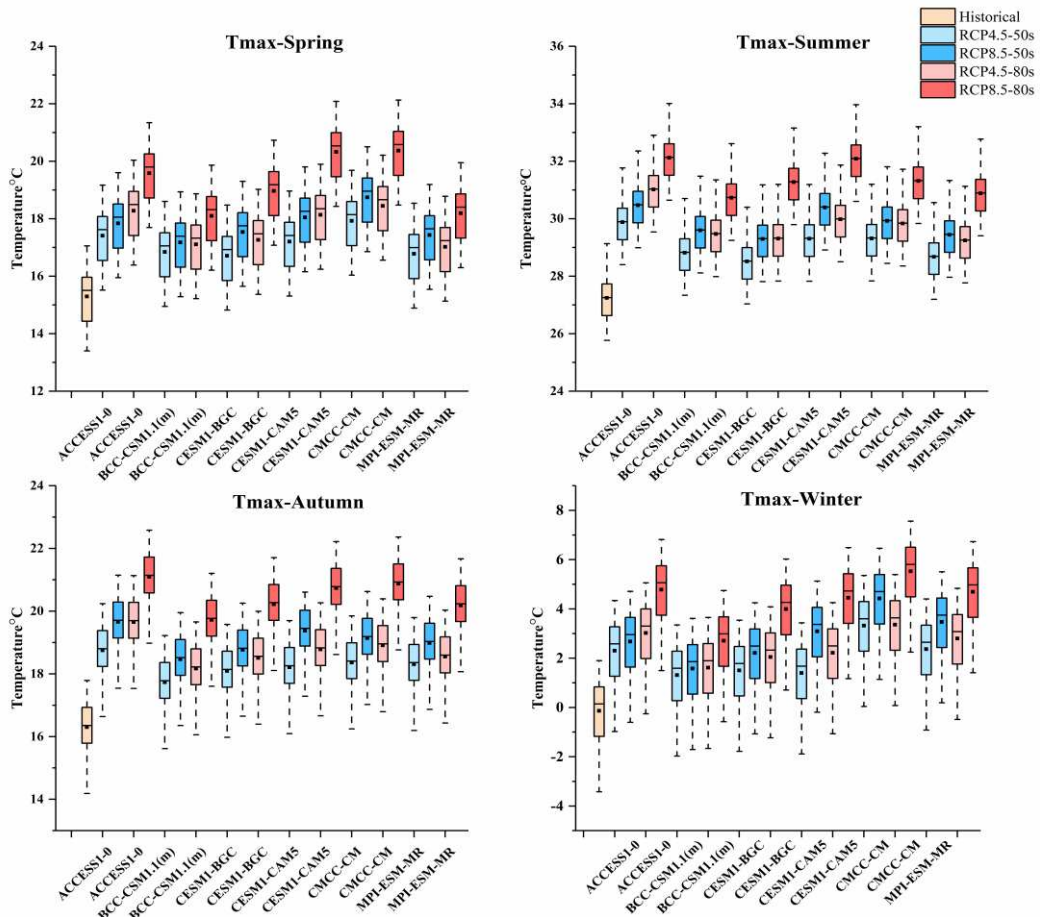
301 Fig.4. The uncertainty range of the precipitation change is shown for the four seasons.
302

303 ***4.2.2 The temperature projections change under climate change***

304 The box chart of Fig.5a and Fig.5b shows the maximum and minimum temperature (T_{\max} and
305 T_{\min}) compared to the reference period (1980~2004), the temperature projections show a univocal
306 increased trend for each season among all GCMs-ES simulation chains. Specifically, in the 2050s
307 period, the mean temperature increases of 1.95 °C under RCP4.5 and 2.73°C under RCP8.5,
308 while increase of 2.73 °C under RCP4.5 and 4.20°C under RCP8.5. Moreover, under RCP4.5,
309 the T_{\max} increase range in winter and summer is larger than the other season, the mean T_{\max} in
310 summer increases of 1.84°C for 2050s and 2.52°C for 2080s , while the mean T_{\max} in winter
311 increases of 2.17°C for 2050s and 2.65°C for 2080s.

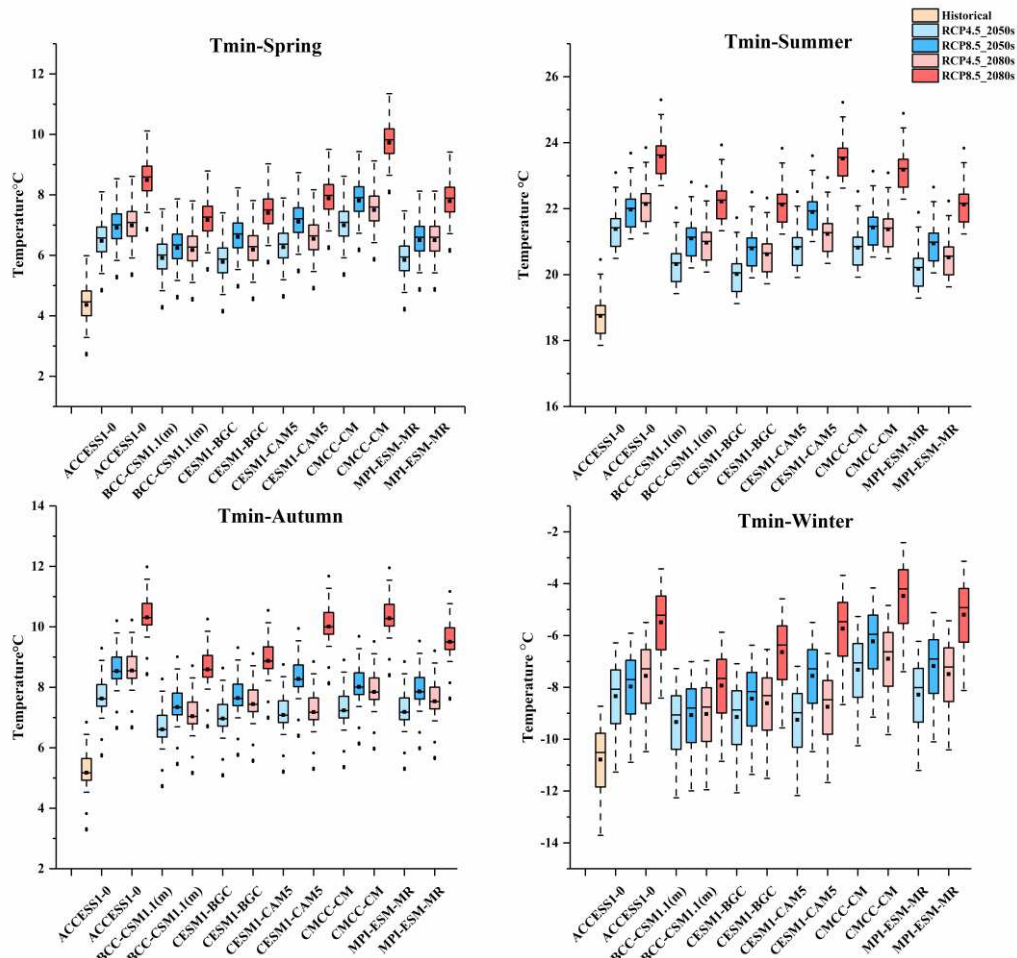
312 Similar increasing trends are also shown in T_{\min} under RCP4.5, the mean T_{\min} in winter
313 increases of 2.17°C for 2050s and 2.73°C for 2080s. In addition, under RCP8.5, the greatest
314 increase of mean T_{\max} is shown in winter, which increase of 3.50°C for 2050s and 4.50°C for
315 2080s. Again, the mean T_{\max} also increases significant in summer and autumn under RCP8.5,
316 where mean T_{\max} increases from 2.61°C for 2050s summer to 4.17°C for 2080s autumn. There is
317 a similar increasing trend in T_{\min} under RCP8.5, and the increases of summer, autumn and winter
318 are all above 4.0°C. In contrast to the increase temperature in two periods of future, it can be
319 found that the uncertainty of T_{\max} and T_{\min} are largely determined by GCMs. For instances, the
320 ACCESS1-0 model shows the maximum increases and the CESM1-BGC shows the minimum
321 increase of T_{\max} in 2050s summer, however, the MPI-EMS-MR shows the minimum increase of
322 T_{\max} in 2080s summer.

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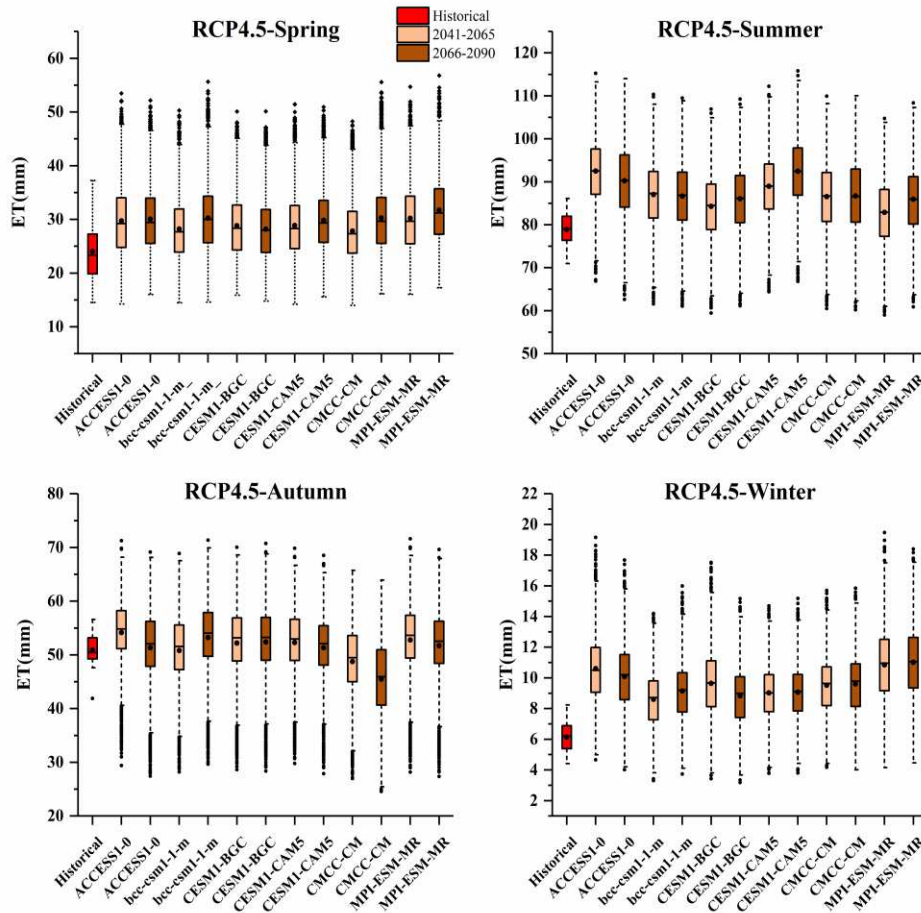
325 Fig.5a The Tmax in 2050s and 2080s under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios based on 6 GCMs
 326 compare with reference period (1980-2004). Lower and upper box boundaries indicate the 25th
 327 and 75th percentiles, respectively. The black lines and dots inside the box represent the median and
 328 mean value, respectively. The lower and upper whiskers indicate the 10th and 90th percentiles,
 329 respectively.
 330



331
 332 Fig.5b The T-min in 2050s and 2080s under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios based on 6 GCMs
 333 compare with reference period (1980-2004). Lower and upper box boundaries indicate the 25th
 334 and 75th percentiles, respectively. The black lines and dots inside the box represent the median and
 335 mean value, respectively. The lower and upper whiskers indicate the 10th and 90th percentiles,
 336 respectively.
 337

338 4.2.3 The ET projections change under climate change

339 The ensemble of 1200 GCMs-SDM-HM simulation chains are established to output 1200 sets
 340 ET projections in 2050s and 2080s, the future season ET projections comparing with baseline
 341 period shows in Fig.6a and Fig.6b. For RCP4.5 emission scenarios, the season mean ET
 342 projections shows an obvious increased trend in summer and winter. However, the autumn mean
 343 ET projections demonstrate a relatively smaller increased, some of the models show a decreased
 344 trend. Consistent changing trend can be obtained in RCP8.5 emission scenarios, moreover, the ET
 345 projections shows a diversity between 2050s and 2080s.



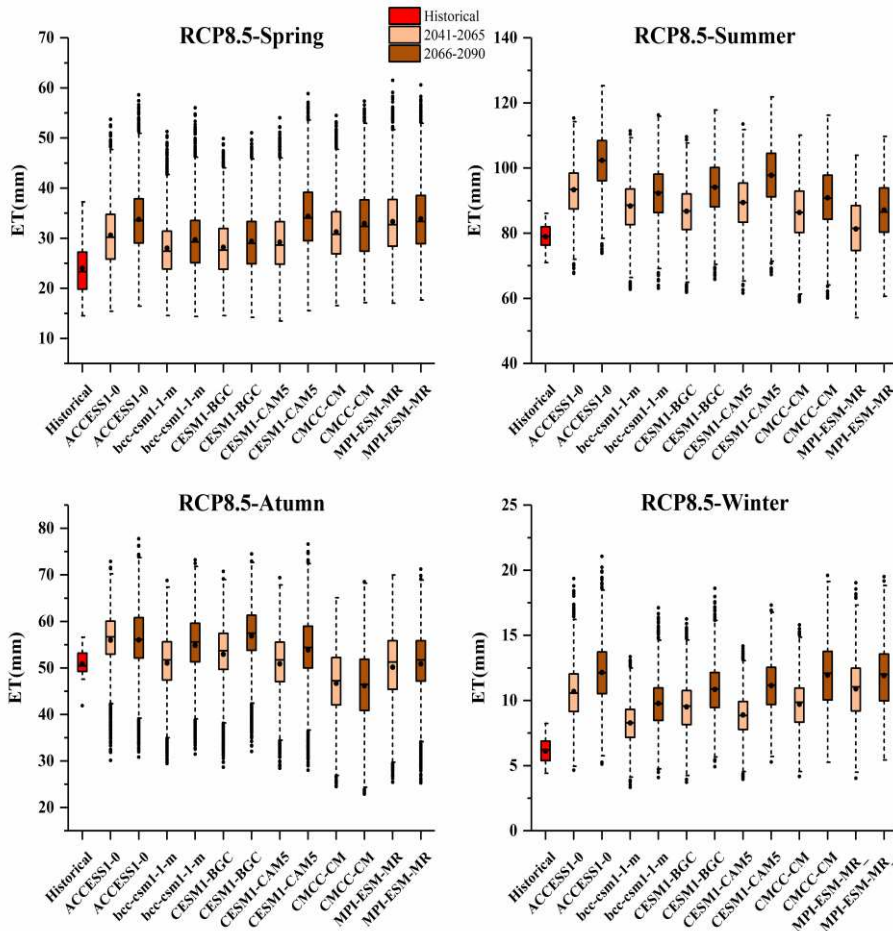
346

347

Fig.6a The ET in 2050s and 2080s under RCP4.5 scenarios based on 6 GCMs compare with reference period (1980-2004). Lower and upper box boundaries indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles, respectively. The black lines and dots inside the box represent the median and mean value, respectively. The lower and upper whiskers indicate the 10th and 90th percentiles, respectively.

351

352



353
 354 Fig.6b The ET in 2050s and 2080s under RCP8.5 scenarios based on 6 GCMs compare with
 355 reference period (1980-2004). Lower and upper box boundaries indicate the 25th and 75th
 356 percentiles, respectively. The black lines and dots inside the box represent the median and mean
 357 value, respectively. The lower and upper whiskers indicate the 10th and 90th percentiles,
 358 respectively.

359

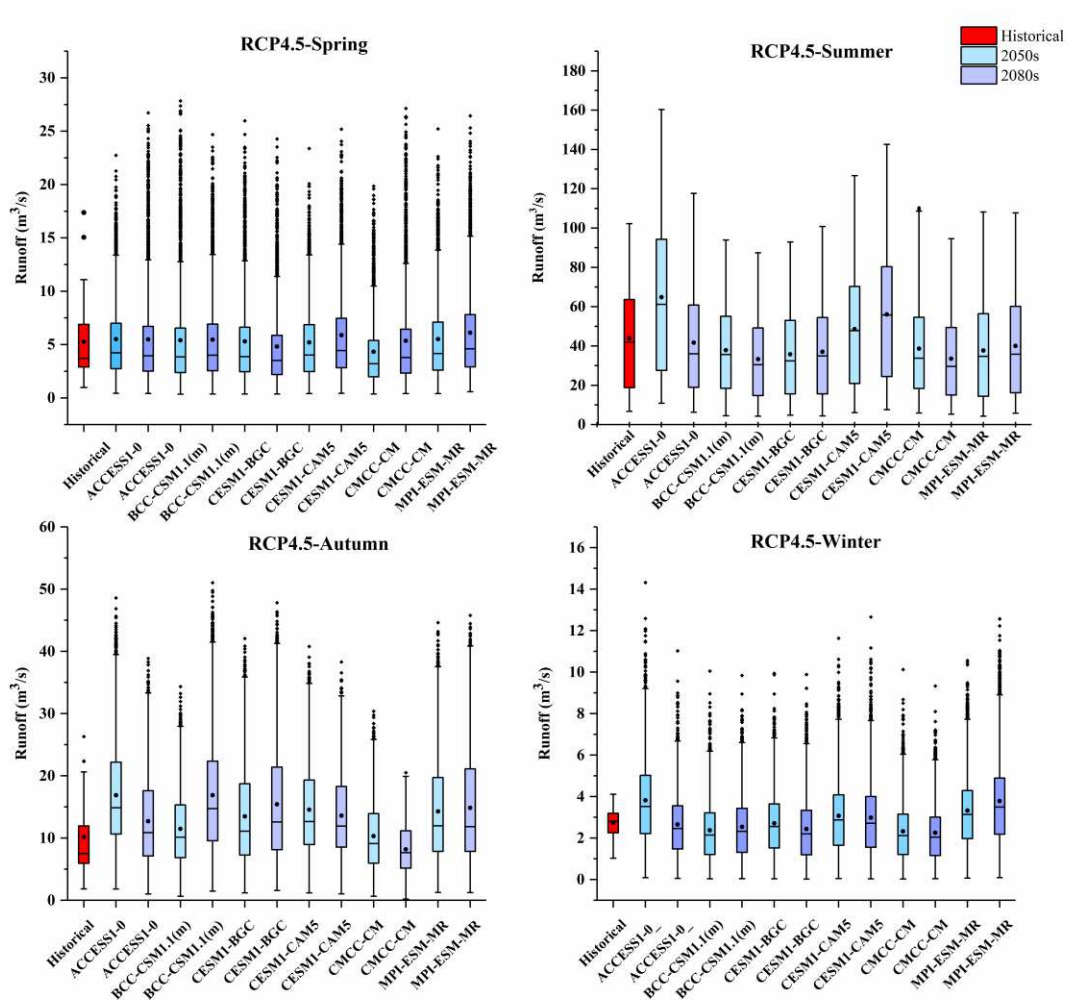
360 **4.2.4 The runoff projections change under climate change**

361 The ensemble of 1200 GCMs-EM-HM simulation chains are established to output 1200 sets
 362 runoff projections in 2050s and 2080s. The 1200 simulation chains, which includes six GCMs,
 363 two emission scenarios, 100 SWAT model parameter sets. The predicted runoff projections of four
 364 seasons in two future periods are compared with the reference period in Fig.7a and Fig.7b, each
 365 box and whisker plots for runoff projections are generated from 1200 simulation chains. For 2050s,
 366 the runoff projections increase more significant in autumn than the other seasons. In terms of
 367 changes in autumn runoff, all projections of runoff show an increased trend in basin, ranging
 368 1.37% -66.01 % under RCP4.5 and -11.99 % -97.08 % under RCP8.5. The projected of summer

369 runoff varies from -18.41% to 47.78%, the projects changing show difference among the six
370 GCMs, for instance, ACCESS1-0 projected an increase 47.78% while CESM1-BGC projects a
371 decrease -18.41% under RCP4.5. These differences are more significant under RCP8.5, for
372 example, the ACCESS1-0 projected an increase 70.41% while the other models all demonstrated a
373 decrease trend. For 2080s, there still exist obvious differences among projections, however, a
374 relatively consistent increasing trend can be found in autumn under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. In
375 contrast, the runoff projections of summer show a decrease trend among five models ranging from
376 -25.29% to -5.21%, except for CESM1-CAM5 model showed an increases trend of 29.37% under
377 RCP4.5 scenarios. While the summer runoff projections showed increases from 7.93% to 85.76%
378 and decreases from -11.6% to -29.15%, the decrease trend is smaller than increase trend, thus, a
379 slight increase trend with the mean increase value as 11.95% can be found in 2080s under RCP8.5.

380 In addition, the runoff projections shown a slight increases trend in autumn and winter both
381 under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios, and also shown a small various among different GCMs.

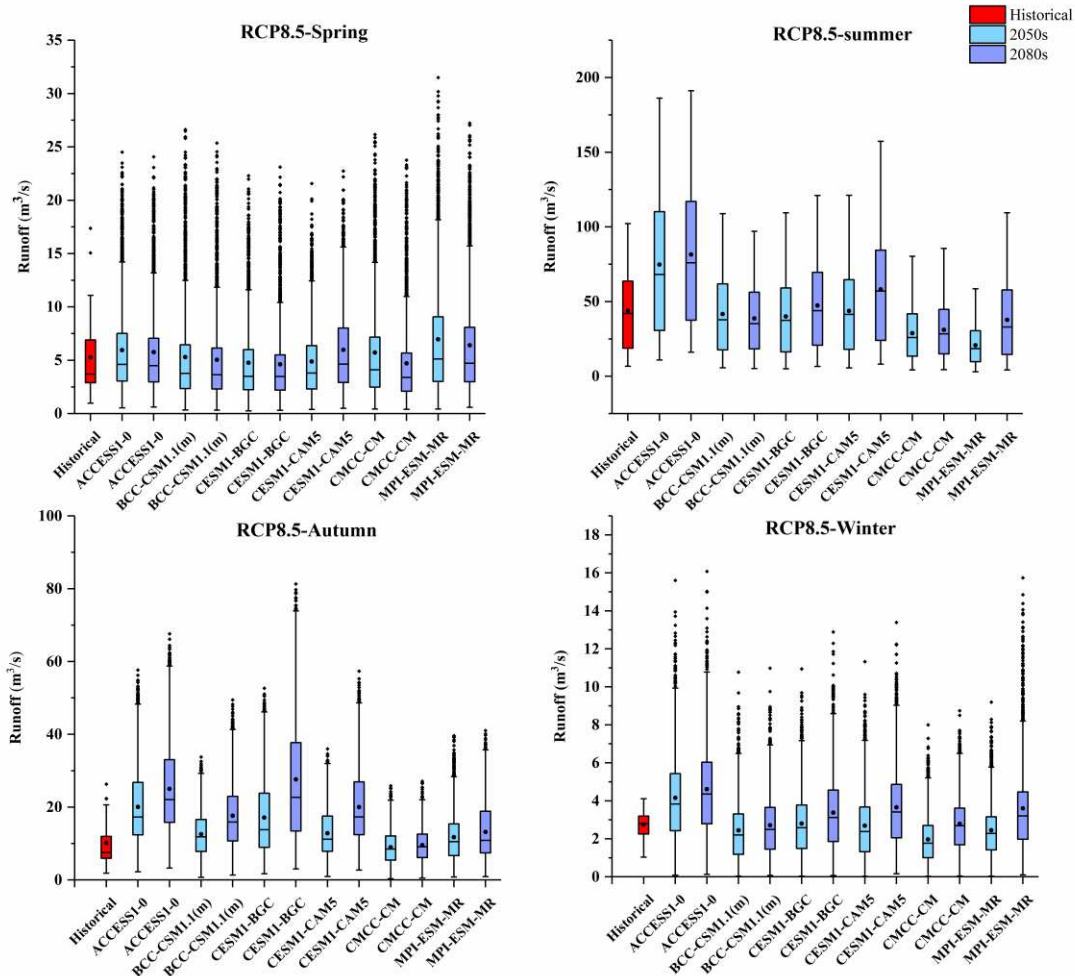
382



383

384 Fig.7a The runoff in 2050s and 2080s under RCP4.5 scenario based on 6 GCMs compare with
 385 reference period (1980-2004). Lower and upper box boundaries indicate the 25th and 75th
 386 percentiles, respectively. The black lines and dots inside the box represent the median and mean
 387 value, respectively. The lower and upper whiskers indicate the 10th and 90th percentiles,
 388 respectively.

389



390

391 Fig.7b The runoff in 2050s and 2080s under RCP8.5 scenario based on 6 GCMs compare with
 392 reference period (1980~2004). Lower and upper box boundaries indicate the 25th and 75th
 393 percentiles, respectively. The black lines and dots inside the box represent the median and mean
 394 value, respectively. The lower and upper whiskers indicate the 10th and 90th percentiles,
 395 respectively.

396

397 Furthermore, the box-and-whisker plots show in Fig.7a and Fig.7b, the upper and lower ends
 398 represent the highest and lowest runoff, and the change range indicated the uncertainty bound.

399 Compared with the runoff in reference period, the projected runoff reveals a slight increase in
 400 mean and median values and wide uncertainty range under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios.

401 Accordingly, the runoff projections under RCP8.5 projections demonstrate obvious large
 402 uncertainty than RCP4.5 scenarios. Compared with the other seasons, the summer runoff
 403 projections showed the largest uncertainty brands under two emission scenarios in future.

404 Observing median values, the summer and autumn projections in 2050s and 2080s show the
 405 non-negligible differences, for example, the median values for summer under RCP4.5 scenario

406 feature a decrease in projections as BCC-CSM1.1(m), CESM1-BGC, CMCC-CM AND
407 MPI-ESM-MR, which ranging from -22.82% to -15.04%, in contrast, the median values show an
408 increase from 45.55% to 13.79% in projected of ACCESS1 and CESM1-CAM5. In addition, the
409 median values for the spring runoff projections in 2050s under RCP4.5 portray a consistent slight
410 increase from 3.23% to 12.51%, only CMCC-CM projection show a decrease as -12%. Overall,
411 the runoff projected by all GCMs showed a large uncertainty in two future periods. Comparing
412 2050s and 2080s, it can be found that the lower ends become smaller and the upper ends become
413 larger, which indicate that the uncertainty bonds increasing from 2050s to 2080s. In addition,
414 comparing the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios, the uncertainty bound of RCP8.5 scenarios are
415 always larger than RCP4.5.

416 ***4.2.5 Impacts of climate factors to runoff change***

417 After analyzing the changes of precipitation, T_{max} , T_{min} , ET and runoff in future, it can be found
418 that the different climate factors may produce different contribution to runoff changing. Hence, it
419 is important to analyze the relationship between the change of runoff and change of climate factors.
420 In order to determine the relationships between them, the multiple linear regression was performed
421 for each model chain using changes of precipitation, T_{max} , T_{min} and ET as the independent
422 variables and the runoff as the dependent variables.

423 The regression coefficients for runoff are shown in Table 3 In general, the increase of
424 precipitation may cause a positive effect on runoff increasing, this trend can be found in all of the
425 models and scenarios and coefficients at the 0.001 significant level. In contrast, the increase of ET
426 projections was negatively related to runoff, and there are seven projections at the 0.001
427 significant level. In addition, the increase T_{max} and T_{min} may contribute the increase trend of runoff,
428 however, the coefficients did not pass the significant test even at 0.05 level. Above all, the
429 precipitation and ET has a larger influence in runoff projection in most model chain. From the
430 CIV values of precipitation and ET, the internal variability of precipitation and ET may pay an
431 important role to runoff. Although the runoff changing under climate scenarios have been widely
432 reported in lots of researches. The large uncertainties were observed in the runoff changing,
433 external forcing, model response and internal variability.

434 Table 3 The multiple linear regression coefficients for runoff (R mm year⁻¹) with maximum temperature (T_{max} °C),
 435 minimum temperature (T_{min} °C), precipitation (P mm year⁻¹) and ET (mm year⁻¹) in a multiple linear regression
 436 model (R= a₁ T_{max}+ b₁ T_{min}+ c₁ P+ d₁ ET+ e₁). p 描述显著性水平: ***: p<0.001, **: p<0.01, *: p<0.05.

Models	a ₁	b ₁	c ₁	d ₁	e ₁	R ²
ACCESS1-0_RCP45	22.75	-21.40	0.92***	-0.97***	-197.62**	0.96
ACCESS1-0_RCP85	61.05	23.89	0.97***	-0.86	-1284.58	0.75
BCC-CSM1.1(m)_RCP45	20.96	-15.30	0.85***	-0.81***	-237.05	0.92
BCC-CSM1.1(m)_RCP85	17.26	-13.92	0.84***	-0.76**	-205.54	0.93
CESM1(BGC)_RCP45	28.98	-25.77	0.86***	0.21***	-209.88	0.93
CESM1(BGC)_RCP85	81.42	-38.46	0.99***	-0.5	-1370.22***	0.86
CESM1(CAM5)_RCP45	18.15	-17.34	0.90***	-0.93	-153.06	0.96
CESM1(CAM5)_RCP85	22.13	-20.34	0.87***	-0.77***	-265.73	0.96
CMCC-CM_RCP45	5.92	18.26	0.62***	-0.53	-248.50	0.75
CMCC-CM_RCP85	15.40	-14.67	0.68***	-0.45*	-235.24	0.87
MPI-ESM-MR_RCP45	29.52	-24.95	0.88***	-1.02***	-224.86	0.94
MPI-ESM-MR_RCP85	24.93	-15.04	0.77***	-0.65**	-348.45	0.90

437

438 **4.3 Evaluation of the uncertainty influence factors of runoff**

439 **4.3.1 Quantifying the relative contribution of internal variability and external** 440 **forcing**

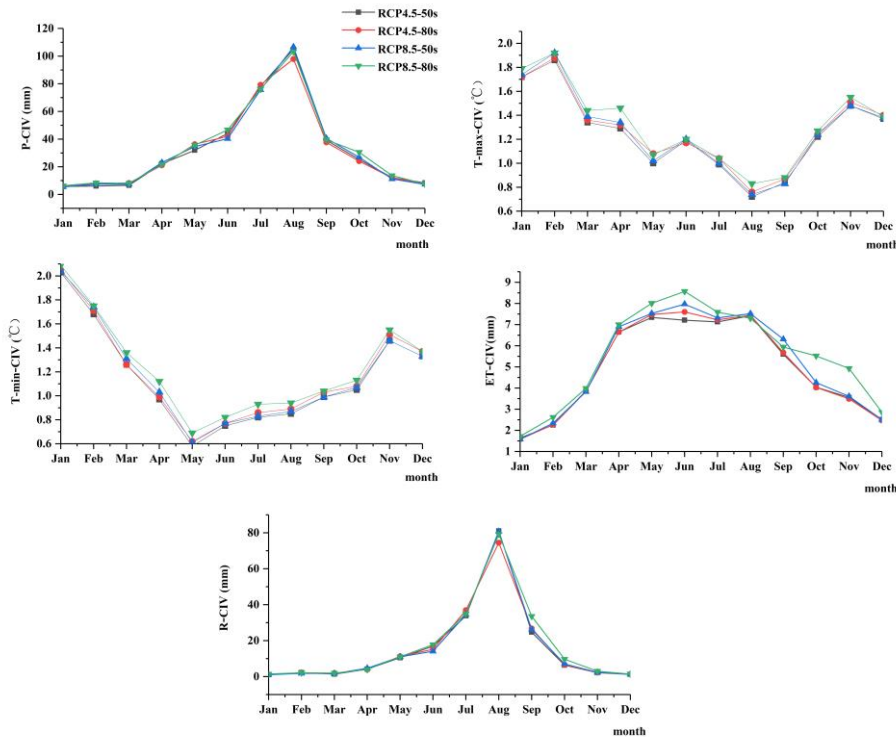
441 In the GCMs-EM chains, the variety climate projection (precipitation, temperature, ET) trends
 442 in individual model realization results from the superposition of CIV and the external forcing. In
 443 order to investigate the internal variability of the precipitation trends, six GCMs are forced by the
 444 same external forcing, and then the CIV of the precipitation projections had been calculated under
 445 two emission scenarios.

446 Fig.8 showed the CIV values of precipitation, T_{max}, T_{min}, ET, precipitation and runoff
 447 projections. From the CIV values of precipitation, the CIV values are higher in June to September
 448 than the other month and the lowest values appeared in December and February. The large
 449 diversity across the individual members demonstrated the important role of internal variability in
 450 June to September precipitation projection. The internal variability plays an important role in rainy
 451 season. Compared with precipitation projections, the CIV values of T_{max} and T_{min} are relatively
 452 smaller in rainy season than the other month. For ET projections, it can be obtained that the CIV
 453 values are large in May to September, which mean that the internal variability plays an important
 454 role in ET trends in this period. The CIV values of runoff demonstrate that the internal variability

455 is higher in rainy season than the other seasons.

456 From the CIV values of runoff projections under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 emission scenarios, it can
457 be found that the CIV values of rainy season are larger than the other seasons, and the maximum
458 CIV value of the runoff projections appeared in August. Hence, the internal variability has an
459 important role in rainy season.

460 Compared the CIV values of precipitation, temperature, ET and runoff projections, the internal
461 variability of precipitation and runoff showed obvious increased in rainy season. On consideration
462 of the summer runoff has significantly influence on the water resources management and flood
463 control, hence, the uncertainty of runoff projections and the contribution of different uncertainty
464 sources need be special investigated.



465

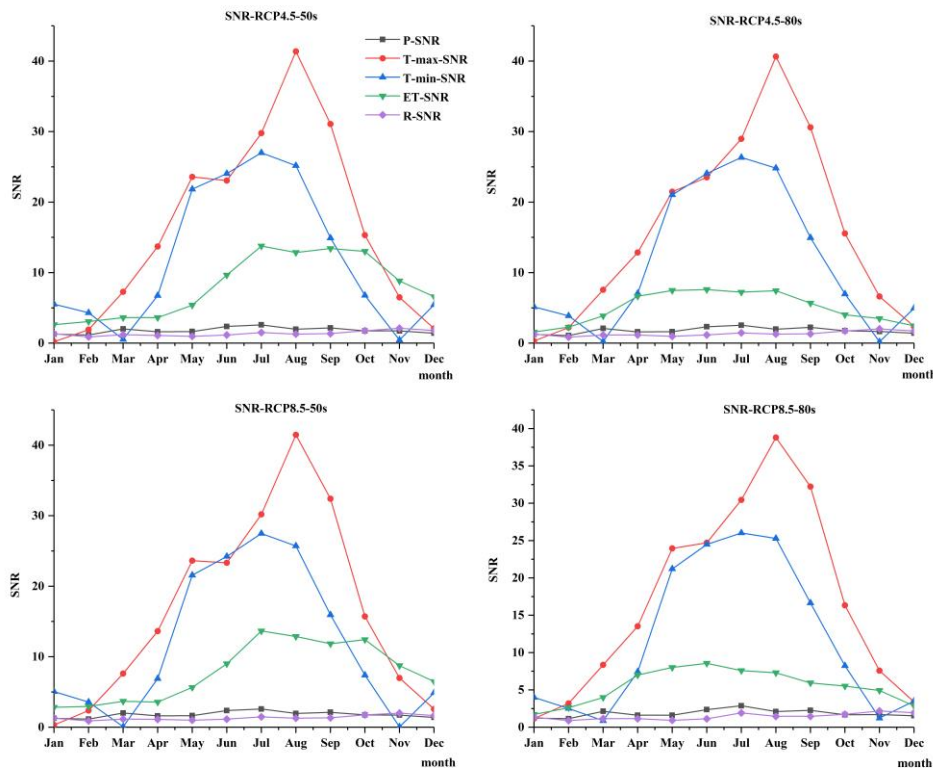
466 Fig.8. The CIV values of climate-hydrological projections

467

468 The SNR is defined as the absolute value of ensemble mean divided by the CIV, which can
469 measure the relative contribution of external forcing and internal variability. The SNR values of
470 precipitation, temperature, ET and runoff are showed in Fig.9. This metrics convey useful
471 information about the magnitudes of the forced and internally generated components of climate
472 projections under future climate change. It can be seen from the Fig.9 that the SNR values of

473 precipitation and runoff are relatively smaller than the other climate projections.

474 The SNR values of T_{\max} and T_{\min} demonstrate a relatively higher values in May to October, it
475 worth noting that the temporal pattern of the SNR is mainly determined by the internal variability
476 pattern in November to March and by a mainly combination of forced response in April and
477 October. The SNR of ET is higher in June to October than the other month in 2050s period, and it
478 is relatively stable in 2080s period. Hence, the external forcing is the mainly components of ET
479 projections changing. In addition, the SNR of runoff is relatively small which like precipitation.
480 An important result is that the external forcing contributed a considerable higher component in
481 temperature and ET changing than precipitation and runoff, and the SNR exhibits higher values in
482 June to September than the other models in both two emission scenarios and future periods.



483

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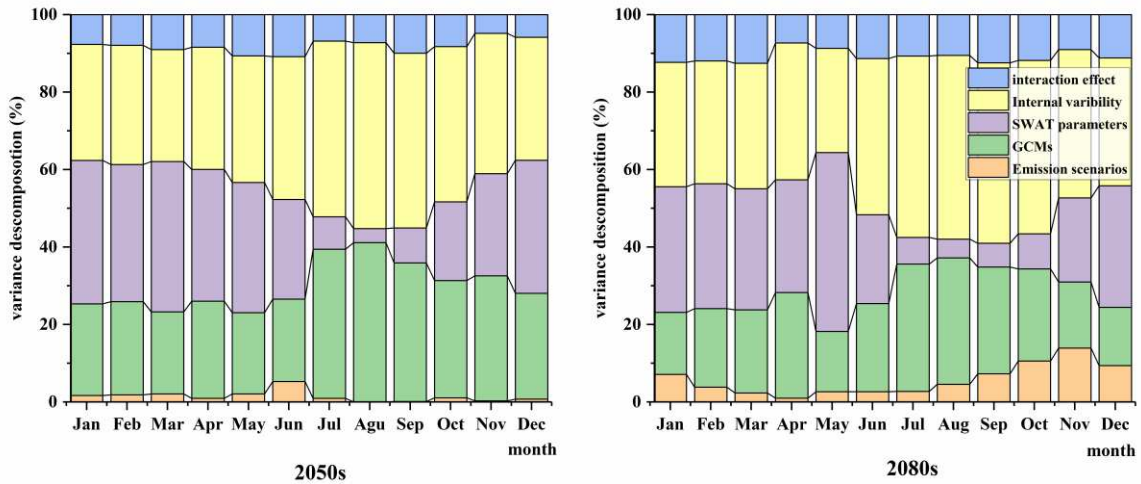
Fig.9 The SNR values of climate-hydrological projections

485 4.3.2 Contribution analysis of uncertainty sources

486 As mentioned previously, the uncertainty sources of GCMs-EM involve external forcing, model
487 response, and internal variability. From the contribution of the external forcing and internal
488 variability, it can be observed that the external forcing plays an important role in temperature and

489 ET changing. In compatible, the SNR values of the runoff are relatively small, with values mostly
 490 around 1 in both scenarios and future periods. However, the SNR values can't able to quantify the
 491 internal variability and external forcing contribution to total uncertainty.

492 The ANOVA method is used to quantified the uncertainty contribution of different sources of
 493 uncertainty in 2050s and 2080s.



494
 495 Fig.10 The contribution of uncertainty sources to the runoff in 2050s and 2080s period.
 496

497 The contribution of uncertainty sources showed in Fig.10. It is noteworthy that the effect of
 498 internal variability is non-negligible, which is exceeded the contribution due to the GCMs. It
 499 contributes 29%-48% and 31.4% -47.4% of the total variance in 2050s and 2080s, respectively.
 500 The biggest contribution embodies in September in two future periods, which is late flooding
 501 season in watershed. The second significant uncertainty contributor is GCMs, which account for
 502 21% -41% and 15% -33% in 2050s and 2080s, and the biggest uncertainty is in September (2050s)
 503 and August (2080s) respectively. For the SWAT model parameter sets, the contribution accounts
 504 for 4%-39% and 4.8% -32.4% in 2050s and 2080s, respectively. Compared with the previous two
 505 uncertainty sources, the SWAT model parameters main effect the Spring (March to May) and
 506 Winter (December to February) runoff projections. The interaction term contribution to the runoff
 507 projection explaining approximately 8% - 11% and 7% -12% throughout the 2050s and 2080s
 508 periods, respectively. The contribution of emission scenarios is relatively small, which bellows 5%
 509 and 10.5% in 2050s and 2080s, respectively.

510 Overall, the results of uncertainty decomposition in Fig. 10 indicate a negligible contribution of
511 internal variability to the overall uncertainty, and the dominant sources of uncertainty are GCMs
512 and SWAT model parameters. The results also show that the internal variability and GCMs mainly
513 effect the runoff in June and October, which contained the entire flood season in Northeastern of
514 China.

515 **5 Discussion**

516 **5.1 Climate-hydrological projections changes**

517 This study estimated climate-hydrological projections changes under climate change impacts in
518 a respective watershed in Northeastern China. Compared with the reference period, the
519 temperature and precipitation projections performance an increased trend in two future periods,
520 and this increased trend is more significant under RCP8.5 emission scenarios and later future
521 period as 2080s. This finding is consistence with some pervious publications, Wang et al. (2020)
522 found that the response of hydrological extreme events to climate changing shows much higher in
523 2070-2099 under RCP8.5 scenarios. The ET projections shows obvious increase trend in summer
524 and winter, and a relatively small increase trend in autumn, although the two emission scenarios
525 have a similar changing trend, a diversity changing can also be found between different models
526 under RCP8.5 periods. For the runoff projections, this study found that there exist a relatively
527 consist increased trend in autumn than the other seasons in two future periods. From the multiple
528 linear regression analysis of runoff, the precipitation has a significant positive effect on runoff, and
529 ET shows a relatively small negative effect on runoff. Hence, the increase precipitation and
530 relatively small increase ET may due to a relatively obvious increased in autumn.

531 However, the projected of runoff in future also demonstrated an obvious diversity in future,
532 especially in Summer and Autumn. On consideration of the two seasons contained the flood
533 season of the study watershed, the uncertainty of the GCMs-EM-HM simulation chain need be
534 estimate step to step.

535 **5.2 Internal variability and external forcing**

536 From climate-hydrological prediction results, it can be found an obvious uncertainty of each
537 simulation chain. As above mentioned, the internal variability and external forcing influence on
538 the climate projections is investigated by CIV and SNR two indicates. The GCMs-EM-HM chains

539 have been operated for six GCMs under a same emission scenario, and then the CIV and SNR
540 values of the precipitation and temperature projections have been computed for each
541 GCMs-EM-HM chain.

542 The findings indicated that the CIV values of precipitation, ET and runoff are large in rainy
543 season, which consistence contained June and September, the results showed that the internal
544 variability play an important role in these climate projections. The SNR values of precipitation
545 and runoff are stable among 12 months, it is difficult to determine which is the important influence
546 source of climate-hydrological projections by the SNR values. Considering the June to September
547 contains the entirely flood season in research watershed, the annual internal variability and
548 external forcing uncertainty contribution of runoff projections need be investigated particularly.

549 ***5.3 Uncertainty assessment***

550 The ANOVA framework was constructed to quantify the uncertainty sources contribute to the
551 overall uncertainty, furthermore, in considering the substantial effects of internal variability on the
552 uncertainty of runoff projections, the uncertainty contribution of internal variability has been
553 considered to ensure the comprehensive of uncertainty assessment.

554 From the results from ANOVA framework, the internal variability and GCMs are the main
555 contributor in runoff projections in rainy season. In addition, the third important effect term is
556 SWAT model parameter sets, it plays important role in overall uncertainty in January to May and
557 October to December.

558 These findings indicate that the internal variability is the important uncertainty sources among
559 the different sources chosen by this study, which agree with the findings of some previous
560 publications (Lafaysse et al. 2014; Hingray et al. 2019). Meanwhile, the runoff projections are
561 significantly impact by the choices of GCMs, this point also has been found in many studies
562 (Kujawa et al. 2020), for instance, Zhang et al. (2021) found the disparity between different
563 GCMs may mainly impacted the climate change researches, and the increased sample sized of
564 GCMs may conduct a complete uncertainty assessment. As an important tool for runoff simulation
565 and prediction, the hydrological model is a non-negligible uncertainty contributor of overall
566 uncertainty, among the uncertainty derive form the hydrological model, the model parameters
567 obtained more attention (Keller et al. 2019; Vaghefi et al. 2019; Nerantzaki et al. 2020). Moreover,

568 the contribution of and interaction effect are relatively small compared with the other uncertainty
569 sources, these findings consist with some previous researches (Bosshard et al. 2013; Qi et al. 2016;
570 Vaghef et al. 2019).

571 The quantifying of internal variability has been demonstrated in several previous studies
572 (Lafaysse et al. 2014; Evin et al. 2019; Hingray et al. 2019), however, most of the studies focused
573 on decomposition the internal uncertainty of climate system through the GCMs-EM simulation
574 chains (Doi and Kim. 2020; Yu et al. 2020; Maher et al. 2020; Hawkins and Sutton. 2011).
575 Moreover, this study indicates that the internal variability, GCMs model, emission scenarios,
576 hydrological model parameters and interaction effects need be quantified entirely. Because of the
577 annual distribution contribution of different sources are the important information of uncertainty
578 analysis. The contribution of uncertainty sources in each month can be found in the uncertainty
579 quantified results straightforward.

580 On consideration of the internal variability may propagate in the GCMs-EM-HM simulation
581 chain and effect the runoff uncertainty. Internal variability and external forcing of precipitation,
582 temperature and ET can also provide some useful information to runoff uncertainty analysis. For
583 rainy season, the internal variability and GCMs are the dominant uncertainty in runoff. On the
584 base of multiple linear regression, the precipitation and ET has significantly influence on runoff,
585 and their uncertainty can also influence on runoff uncertainty. From the CIV and SNR values of
586 climate projections, it can be found that the internal variability of precipitation and ET are large in
587 rainy season. Hence, the internal variability of precipitation and ET may affect runoff to some
588 extent. Above all, the internal variability obvious role of the in shaping overall uncertainty, and
589 some of the uncertainty source of runoff projections can be trace back to precipitation and ET etc.

590 **6 Conclusion**

591 An ensemble of GCMs-EM-HMs simulation chains were used in this study to estimate the
592 climate-hydrological projections response to the climate change. Subsequently, the details of
593 different sources of uncertainty are essential for the runoff prediction and to identify the
594 fundamental uncertainty source is meaningful to reduce existing uncertainties in future. The main
595 conclusions of this study can be summarized as flowing:

596 (1) Based this study analysis of future climate conditions for the Biliu River basin, it can be

597 found that an increase in seasonal mean temperature for both emission scenarios, with greatest
598 increase in summer and autumn. In term of precipitation, it indicates an increased trend in summer,
599 autumn and winter and a relatively larger uncertainty in summer and winter. Results based on the
600 SWAT modeling indicated that the ET shows a slight increase in summer and winter, and the
601 runoff projections trend a diversity changing trend in future, especially in summer and autumn.
602 Large uncertainty brings difficult to the water resources and flood control management to propose
603 the adaptation strategy under climate change.

604 (2) By elucidating the impact of climate internal variability of runoff projections, this study
605 analysis the internal variability and external forcing of climate projections and find out the
606 important influence factor of runoff projections. In term of precipitation and ET, the internal
607 variability is larger in June to September, and the SNR values also shows the internal variability
608 and external forcing are both important influence factors to runoff. Combining with the internal
609 variability and GCMs are the dominate uncertainty contributors in June to September. It is worth
610 noting that the internal variability can propagate in the GCMs-EM-HMs simulation chains, and the
611 internal variability of runoff projections is remarkable in flood season of study watershed in future.
612 As the rain season in the study basin, some water resources adaptation measures need be planned
613 to alleviate the climate change influence, especially in high emission scenarios (RCP8.5) and far
614 future (2080s).

615 (3) This study found GCMs, internal variability and SWAT model parameters are the mainly
616 uncertainty contributor of runoff. In addition, the SWAT model parameters uncertainty
617 significantly effects runoff projections in spring and winter, thus the calibration of sown melt
618 parameters needs more attention. The influence of external forcing is smaller in GCMs-EM-HMs
619 than GCMs-EM, because the uncertainty sources increased and the hydrological simulation
620 process bring more uncertainty to runoff.

621 The findings of this study indicate that the uncertainty of climate-hydrological system is
622 noticeable in future, these kinds of uncertainties may extremely influence the stakeholders and
623 local water resources government to provide correct hydrological regulation and flood control
624 measures. This study also reveal that the internal variability is non-negligible in predicting
625 climate-hydrological projections, which is worth more research in future.

626

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633

634 ***Conflicts of interest/Competing interests***

635 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
636 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

637

638 ***Author's Contribution***

639 Conceptualization, Xuehua Zhao and Yongbo Zhang; Methodology, Wenjun Cai and Xueping Zhu;
640 Formal Analysis, Wenjun Cai and Xueping Zhu; Writing Original Draft Preparation Wenjun Cai
641 and Xueping Zhu; Writing—Review & Editing, Wenjun Cai and Xueping Zhu; Funding
642 Acquisition, Wenjun Cai and Xueping Zhu.

643

644 ***Availability of data and material***

645 The climate data in 1901-2099 for RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 were downloaded from the National
646 Climate Center (<http://ncc.cma.gov.cn>). The long-term experiment data of 1850-2100 for the
647 chosen six climate models in CMIP5 were downloaded from the Program for Climate Model
648 Diagnosis and Intercomparison (PCMDI, <http://pcmdi3.llnl.gov/esgcat/>). Yearly and monthly
649 precipitation and runoff data in 1958-2011 were obtained from the Biliu River Reservoir
650 administration. Month meteorological data were obtained from the China Meteorological Data
651 Sharing Service System (<http://cdc.cma.gov.cn/inex.jsp>). The Digital Elevation Model (DEM) data
652 (90×90m) were obtained from the CGIAR Consortium for Spatial Information (CGIAR-CSI)
653 (<http://srtm.csi.cgiar.org>). Soil type and land use maps were obtained from the Data Center for
654 Resources and Environmental Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences
655 (<http://www.resdc.cn/fist.asp>).

656

657 ***Code availability***

658 The calculate code of climate internal variability and ANOVA are according to the corresponding
659 formulas, which has already described in this manuscript.

660

661 ***Ethics approval***

662 ALL that data and analysis in this manuscript are ethics approval.

663

664 ***Consent to participate***

665 This manuscript consent to participate.

666

667 ***Consent for publication***

668 This manuscript consent to publication.

669

670

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677

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