1 2 Seasonal cycles and trends of water budget components in 18 3 river basins across the Tibetan Plateau: a multiple datasets 4 perspective 5 Venbin Liu^a, Fubao Sun^{a,b*}, Yanzhong Li^a, Guoqing Zhang^{b,ec,d}, 7 Yan-Fang Sang^a,

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34 Highlights

35	•	Monthly basin wide ET was calculated through water balance considering the-
36		impacts of glacier and water storage change A water balance approach to quantify
37		monthly evapotranspiration which accounts for the changes in glacier and water
38		storage of Tibetan Plateau
39	•	Water budget components and trends for 18 river basins over the TP were-
40		evaluatedEvaluation of water budget components and trends for 18 river basin in
41		<u>Tibetan Plateau</u>
42	•	Uncertainties were discussed from multiple dataset perspectiveDiscussion of
43		uncertainties arise from multiple datasets used in Tibetan Plateau

45	Abstract. The dynamics of water budget over the Tibetan Plateau (TP) are not fully-
46	well understood so far due to because of the lack of quantitative observations of the
47	land surface water cyclehydroclimatic observations. Here, we investigated the
48	seasonal cycles and trends of water budget components, e.g., precipitation, runoff and
49	evapotranspiration (ET), in 18 TP basins using multi source datasets during the period
50	1982 2011 Based on multi-source datasets over a 30-year period (1982-2011), we
51	investigate the seasonal cycles and trends of water budget components, e.g.,
52	precipitation (P), evapotranspiration (ET) and runoff (Q) of 18 river basins in TP. A-
53	two step bias correction procedure was applied to calculate the basin wide ET-
54	considering the influences of glacier and water storage changeWe apply a two-step
55	bias-correction procedure to calculate the basin-scale ET considering the changes in
56	glacier and water storage change. The results indicated that precipitation, which
57	mainly concentrated during June-October (varied among different monsoons impacted
58	basins), is the major contributor to the runoff in the TP basins. The basin-wide snow
59	water equivalent (SWE) was relatively higher from mid-autumn to spring for most TP-
60	basinsmost of the river basins in TP. The water cycles intensified under a global
61	warming in most of these basins; receded in the upper Yellow and Yalong sub-river
62	basins due to the except for the upper Yellow and Yalong Rivers, which were-
63	significantly influenced by the weakening East Asian monsoon. Consistent with the-
64	climate warming climate and moistening in the TP and western China, the aridity
65	index (PET/P) in most basinsmost of the river basins decreased. These results
66	highlighted demonstrate the usefulness of integrating the multi-source datasets (e.g.,
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67	in situ observations, remote sensing products, reanalysis, land surface model
68	simulations and climate model outputs) for hydrological applications in the
69	data-sparse regions. More generally, such approach might offer helpful insights
70	towards understanding the water/energy budgets and sustainability of water resource
71	management practices of data-sparse regions in a changing environment and could-
72	be beneficial for understanding the water and energy budgets, sustainable-
73	management of water resources under a warming climate in the harsh and the-
74	data sparse Tibetan Plateau.
75	
76	1 Introduction
77	As the highest plateau in the globe (the average elevation is higher than 4000 meters
78	above the sea level), the Tibetan Plateau (TP, also called "the roof of the world" or
79	"the third Pole") is <u>regarded as</u> one of the most vulnerable region under a warming
80	climate and is subjected exposed to strong interactions among atmosphere,
81	hydrosphere, biosphere and cryosphere in the earth system (Duan and Wu, 2006; Yao
82	et al., 2012; Liu W. et al., 2016b). It-also serves as the "Asian water tower" from
83	which many some major Asian rivers such as Yellow river <u>River</u> , Yangtze river <u>River</u> ,
84	Brahmaputra river <u>River</u> , Mekong river <u>River</u> , Indus river <u>River</u> , etc., originate. It
85	provides is a vital water resource to support the livehood of hundreds of millions of
86	people in China and the surrounding neighboring Asian countries (Immerzell-
87	Immerzeel et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2013). Knowledge about the water budgets and
88	their responses to the changing environment is thus erucial for understanding the
89	hydrological regimes and for sustainable water resources management as well as-
90	environmental protection in this special regionHence sound knowledge of water_
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91	budget and hydrological regimes of TP and its response to changing environment	
92	would have practical relevance for achieving sustainable water resource management	
93	and environmental protection in this part of the world (Yang et al., 2014; Chen et al.,	
94	2015).	
95		
96	The TP is also known as a typical data sparse mountain region which brings great	
97	challenges to hydrological and related land surface studies. Despite the importance of	
98	TP in this geographic region, advance in hydrological and land surfaces studies in this	
99	region has been limited by data scarcity (Zhang et al., 2007; Li F. et al., 2013; Liu X.	
100	et al., 2016). For exampleinstance, less than 80 observation stations (~10% of a total	
101	of ~750 observation station across China) have been established in TP by the , since-	
102	the 1950s, totally 750 stations have been established over China by the Chinese	
103	Meteorological Administration (CMA) since the mid-20 th century, among which only	带格式的: 上标
104	less than 80 stations are distributed over the plateau (Wang and Zeng, 2012). These	
104 105	stations are generally sparse and unevenly distributed They are primary sparse and	
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105 106	stations are generally sparse and unevenly distributed They are primary sparse and unevenly located at relatively low elevation regions, focus only on the meteorological	
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105 106 107 108	stations are generally sparse and unevenly distributed They are primary sparse and unevenly located at relatively low elevation regions, focus only on the meteorological variables and lack of other land surface observations such as evapotranspiration, snow water equivalent and latent heat fluxes, etc In addition, long-term-consecutive	
105 106 107 108 109	stations are generally sparse and unevenly distributed They are primary sparse and unevenly located at relatively low elevation regions, focus only on the meteorological variables and lack of other land surface observations such as evapotranspiration, snow water equivalent and latent heat fluxes, etc In addition, long-term-consecutive observations of river discharge, snow depth, lake depth and glacier melts in the TP are	
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116	installation of in-situ monitoring systems (Yang et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2013; Ma et
117	al., 2015), but it is extremely expensive to maintain long term observations at basin or
118	regional scales the overall cost of running the operational sites would be substantial.
119	Another workaround would be through modeling approach, i.e., feeding remote
120	sensing information and meteorological forcing data into physically-based land
121	surface model (LSM) to simulate the basin-wide water budget is to simulate
122	basin wide water budgets through physical based land surface models at several large-
123	river basins forced with remote sensing data and large scale gridded meteorological
124	forcing datasets (Bookhagen and Burbank, 2010; Xue et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2013;
125	Cuo et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2016). However, such approach is not
126	immune from the issue of data scarcity at multiple river basins (with varied sizes
127	and/or terrain complexities) for supporting model calibration and validation purposes-
128	it is still difficult to use land surface models to multiple basins especially to the
129	relatively smaller ones under complex terrains due to the lack of adequate data for-
130	model calibration and validation (Li F. et al., 2014).
131	
132	Most recently, several A number of global (or regional) datasets relevant to the
133	calculation of wfor water budget components have been released recently. They
134	including include remote sensing-based retrievals (Tapley et al., 2004; Zhang et al.,
135	2010; Long et al., 2014; Zhang Y. et al., 2016), land surface model (LSM) simulations
136	(Rui, 2011), reanalysis outputs (Berrisford et al., 2011; Kobayashi et al., 2015) and
137	gridded forcing data interpolated from the in situ observations (Harries et al., 2014).
138	For example, there are many products for related to terrestrial evapotranspiration (ET)
139	such as GLEAM_E (Global Land surface Evaporation: the Amsterdam Methodology,
140	Miralles et al., 2011a), MTE_E (a product integrated the point-wise ET observation at

141	FLUXNET sites with geospatial information extracted from surface meteorological
142	observations and remote sensing in a machine-leaning algorithm, Jung et al., 2010),
143	LSM-simulated ETs from Global Land Data Assimilation System version 2
144	(GLDAS-2) with different land surface schemes (Rodell et al., 2004), ETs from
145	Japanese 55-year reanalysis (JRA55_E), the ERA-Interim global atmospheric
146	reanalysis dataset (ERAI_E) and the National Aeronautic and Space Administration
147	(NASA) Modern Era Retrosphective-analysis for Research and Application (MERRA)
148	reanalysis data (Lucchesi, 2012). Moreover, there are also several global or regional
149	LSM-based runoff simulations from GLDAS and the Variable Infiltration Capacity
150	(VIC) model (Zhang et al., 2014). A few attempts have been made to validate multiple
151	datasets for certain water budget components and to explore their possible
152	hydrological implications, fFor example, Li X. et al. (2014) and Liu W. et al. (2016a)
153	evaluated multiple ET estimates against the water balance method at annual and
154	monthly time scales. Bai et al. (2016) assessed streamflow simulations of GLDAS
155	LSMs in five major rivers over the TP based on the discharge observations. Although
156	there are certain uncertainties might exist among different datasets with various
157	spatial and temporal resolutions and calculated through using different algorithms
158	(Xia et al., 2012), they offer an opportunity do provide a great chance for us to
159	quantify examine the general basin-wide water budgets and their uncertainties in
160	gauge-sparse regions such as the TP considered in this study.
161	
162	From the multiple datasets perspective, this study aims to investigate the water budget
163	in 18 TP river basins distributed across the Tibetan Plateau; and evaluate seasonal
164	cycles and annual trends of these water budget components. The objectives of this-
165	study are (1) to investigate the general water budgets in 18 river basins across the
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166	Tibetan Plateau from the perspective of multiple datasets, and (2) to evaluate the		
167	seasonal cycles and annual trends of water budget components for 18 TP basins. Theis		
168	paper is organized as follows: the datasets and methods applied in this study are		
169	described in Sect.2. The results of season cycles and annual trends of water budget		
170	components for 18 TPthe river basins are presented and discussed in Sect.3. The		
171	uncertainties inherited from arise from employing multiple datasets are also discussed		
172	in the same section. In the Sect.4, we generalize our findings summarized the general-		
173	results which would be helpful for understanding the water balances of the TP Rivers		
174	located at westerlies dominated, Indian monsoon dominated and East Asian-		
175	monsoon dominated regionsriver basins under constant influence of interplay between		
176	westerlies and monsoons (e.g., Indian monsoon, East Asian monsoon) in the Tibetan		
177	<u>Plateau</u> .		
178			
179	2 Data and <u>Method</u> methods		
	 2 Data and <u>Methodmethods</u> 2.1 Multiple datasets used 		
180		带格式的: 两端对齐	
179 180 181 182	2.1 Multiple datasets used	带格式的: 两端对齐	
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180 181 182 183	2.1 Multiple datasets used 2.1.1 Study basins Eighteen river basins over the TP (Fig.1) with the drainage area ranging from 2832 to	带格式的: 两端对齐	
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180 181 182 183 184 185 186 187	2.1 Multiple datasets used 2.1.1 Study basins Eighteen river basins over the TP (Fig.1) with the drainage area ranging from 2832 to 191235 km ² (Table 1) are chosen in this study due to the availability of runoff data during the period 1982-2011. They mainly locate at the northwestern, southeastern and eastern parts of the plateau with multiyear mean and basin averaged temperature and precipitation ranging from -5.68 to 0.97 ^o C and 128 to 717 mm, which are solely or combined controlled by the westerlies, the Indian Summer monsoon and the Easter	带格式的: 两端对齐	
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191	monsoon dominated basins such as Yellow, Yangtze and Bayin (0-0.96% and
192	9.42-20.05%, respectively) (Table 1).
193	<figure 1,="" here="" please,="" thanks=""></figure>
194	<table 1,="" here="" please,="" thanks=""></table>
195	2.1.2-1 Runoff, Precipitation precipitation and Terrestrial terrestrial storage
196	change
197	We obtained the oObserved daily runoff (Q) of the study period during the period-
198	1982-2011 was obtained from the National Hydrology Almanac of China (Table 21).
199	There are < 30% missing data in some gauging stations such as Yajiang, Tongren,
200	Gandatan and Zelingou. Therefore, the VIC Retrospective Land Surface Dataset over
201	China (1952~2012, VIC_IGSNRR simulated) with a spatial resolution of 0.25 degree
202	and a daily temporal resolution from the Geographic Sciences and Natural Resources
203	Research (IGSNRR), Chinese Academy of Sciences, is also used. This dataset is
204	derived from the VIC model forced by the gridded daily observed forcing
205	(IGSNRR_forcing) (Zhang et al., 2014). A degree-day scheme was used in the model
206	to consider account for the influences of snow and glacier on hydrological processes.
207	
208	In terms of precipitation (P), we used the gridded monthly precipitation dataset
209	available at CMA (spatial resolution of 0.5 degree; 1961-2011; interpolated drom
210	observations of 2372 national meteorological stations using the Thin Plate Spline
211	method) Monthly gridded precipitation dataset (0.5 degree, 1961-2011) form CMA,-
212	which was interpolated from observations of 2472 national meteorological stations-
213	using the Thin Plate Spline method, was used in this study (Table 21). Since the
214	reliability of this dataset might be restricted by the relatively sparse stations and
215	complex terrain conditions of TP, we make an attempt to incorporate two other
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216	precipitation datasets ((IGSNRR_forcing and Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission
217	TRMM 3B43 V7). Considering the uncertainty of CMA precipitation over the TP due
218	to the relatively sparse stations and the complex terrain conditions, two other-
219	precipitation datasets (IGSNRR_forcing and TRMM (Tropical Rainfall Measuring-
220	Mission) 3B43 V7, Huffman et al., 2012) were also used. The precipitation from
221	IGSNRR forcing datasets (0.25 degree) was derived by interpolating gauged daily
222	precipitation from 756 CMA stations based on the synergraphic mapping system
223	algorithm (Shepard, 1984; Zhang et al., 2014) and was further bias-corrected using
224	the CMA gridded precipitation.
225	<table 2<u="">1, here please, thanks></table>
226	<u>To get the change in terrestrial storage (ΔS), we used of t</u> Three latest global terrestrial
227	water storage anomaly and water storage change (ΔS) datasets (available on the
228	GRACE Tellus website: http://grace.jpl.nasa.gov/) that were retrieved from the
229	Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE, Tapley et al., 2004; Landerer
230	and Swenson, 2012; Long et al., 2014). Briefly, they, which were processed
231	separately at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL), the GeoForschungsZentrum (GFZ)
232	and the Center for Space Research at the University of Texas (CSR), were used. To
233	minimize the errors and uncertainty of extracted ΔS -, Twehe averaged these GRACE
234	retrievals (2002-2013) from three processing centers were averaged and a glacier-
235	isostatic adjustment correction as well a destriping filter were applied to minimize the
236	errors and uncertainties of extracted ΔS . from different processing centers in this study.
237	
238	2.1.3-2 Temperature, potential evaporation and ET
239	We obtained the The CMA monthly gridded temperature dataset (0.5 degree) from
240	CMA; and potential evaporation (PET) dataset (0.5 degree, Harris et al., 2013) from
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241	Climatic Research Unit (CRU), in the University of East Anglia. were used in this
242	study. Moreover, we used six published global / regional ET products (four diagnostic
243	products and two LSMs simulations, Table 2), namely (1) GLEAM_E (Miralles et al.,
244	2010, 2011), which estimated consist of three sources of ET (transpiration, soil
245	evaporation and interception) separately through for bare soil, short vegetation and
246	vegetation with a tall canopy through calculated using a set of algorithm
247	(www.gleam.eu), (2) GNoah_E simulated by-using_GLDAS-2 with the Catchment
248	Noah scheme (<u>http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gove/hydrology/data-holdings</u>) (Rodell et al.,
249	2004), (3) Zhang_E (Zhang et al., 2010), which is estimated using the modified
250	Penman-Monteith approach equation forced with MODIS data, satellite-based
251	vegetation parameters and meteorological observations
252	(<u>http://www.ntsg.umt.edu/project/et</u>), (4) MET_E (Jung et al., 2010)
253	(https://www.bgc-jena.mpg.de/geodb/projects/Home.phs), (5) VIC_E (Zhang et al.,
254	2014) from VIC_IGSNRR simulations
255	(http://hydro.igsnrr.ac.cn/public/vic outputs.html) and (6) PML_E (Zhang Y. et al.,
256	2016) computed from global observation-driven Penman-Monteith-Leuning (PML)
257	model (<u>https://data.csiro.au/dap/landingpage?pid=csiro:17375&v=2&d=true</u>).
258	
259	2.1.4- <u>3</u> Vegetation and snow/glacier parameters
260	To quantify the dynamics of vegetation of each river basin, we applied t The
261	Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) and the Leaf Area Index (LAI) were-
262	used to quantify the dynamics of vegetation for 18 TP basins (Table 21). Briefly, tThe
263	NDVI data was obtained from the Global Inventory Modeling and Mapping Studies

264 (GIMMS) (Turker et al., 2005)

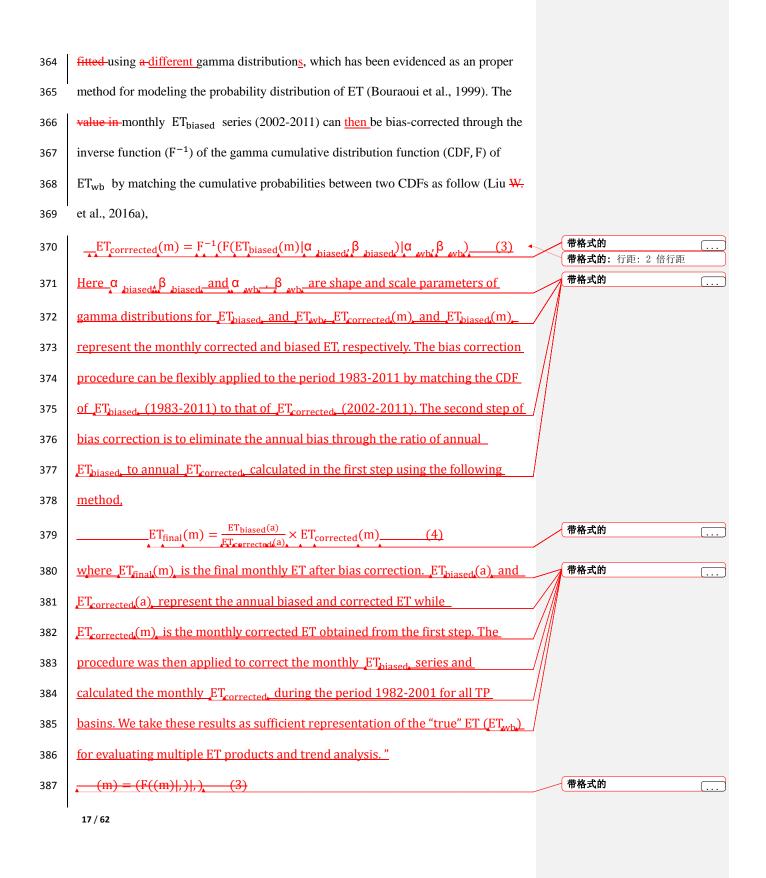
265	(https://nex.nasa.gov/nex/projects/1349/wiki/general_data_description_and_access/)
266	while the LAI data was collected from the Global Land Surface Satellite (GLASS)
267	products (http://www.glcf.umd.edu/data/lai/) (Liang and Xiao, 2012). Whist the
268	change in seasonal snow cover and glacier has significant impact on the water and
269	energy budgets of TP, it remains a technical challenge to get reliable observations due
270	to harsh environment (especially at the basin scale). However, recently available
271	satellite-based/LSM-simulated products might provide adequate characterization of
272	the variation of snow cover and glacier. Seasonal snow and glacier are widespread-
273	over the plateau which significantly influences the water and energy budgets in the TP,
274	but their observations are difficult due to the harsh environment, especially at the
275	basin scale. However, there are currently a few satellite based or LSM simulated
276	products which could provide general information about the variations of snow and
277	glacier. To quantify the change in snow cover at each basin, we applied the The-daily
278	cloud free snow composite product from MODIS Terra-Aqua and the Interactive
279	Multisensor Snow and Ice Mapping System for the Tibetan Plateau-was applied to-
280	quantify the snow cover changes for each basin (Zhang et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2015).
281	in conjunction with t-The snow water equivalent (SWE) retrieved from Global Snow
282	Monitoring for Climate Research product (GlobSnow-2, http://www.globsnow.info/)
283	and the VIC_IGSNRR simulations were also used in this study (Takala et al., 2011;
284	Zhang et al., 2014). We extracted general distribution of glacier of TP from Moreover,
285	the Second Glacier Inventory Dataset of China was used to extract the general-
286	distribution of glacier (Guo et al., 2014). All gridded datasets used were first
287	uniformly interpolated to a spatial resolution of 0.5 degree based on the bilinear
288	interpolation to make their inter-comparison possible. The datasets were then

extracted for each of TP basins.

291	2.1. <mark>5-4_</mark> Monsoon indices
292	In general, t The TP climate is generally under the influence of influenced by the
293	westerlies, Indian summer monsoon and East Asian summer monsoon (Yao et al.,
294	2012). To investigate the changes of monsoon systems and their potential influences-
295	<u>impact</u> on the water budget in the TP basins, <u>we used</u> three monsoon indices, namely
296	Asian Zonal Circulation Index (AZCI), Indian Ocean Dipole Mode Index (IODMI)
297	and East Asian Summer Monsoon Index (EASMI) , are used in this study. Briefly, t-
298	The IODMI is an indicator of the east-west temperature gradient across the tropical
299	Indian Ocean-defined by(Saji et al.,(1999), which can be downloaded from the
300	following website:
301	http://www.jamstec.go.jp/frcgc/research/d1/iod/HTML/Dipole%20Mode%20Index.ht
302	<u>ml</u> . The EASMI and AZCI (60° -150°E) reflect the dynamics of East Asian summer
303	monsoon (Li and Zeng, 2002) and the westerlies (represented by Asian Zonal
304	Circulation index), which can be obtained from Beijing Normal University (the-
305	http://ljp.gcess.cn/dct/page/65577) and the National Climate Center of China
306	(http://ncc.cma.gov.cn/Website/index.php?ChannelID=43WCHID=5), respectively.
307	
308	2.1.15 Study basins
309	In this study, we selected 18 river basins of varied sizes (range: 2832-191235 km ² ;
310	see Table 1 for details) with adequate runoff data over a 30-year period (1982-2011).
311	Eighteen river basins over the TP (Fig.1) with the drainage area ranging from 2832 to
312	191235 km ² (Table 1) are chosen in this study due to the availability of runoff data
313	during the period 1982 2011. They are distributed in mainly locate at the northwestern,
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314	southeastern and eastern parts of the plateau with multiyear-mean and basin-averaged
315	temperature and precipitation ranging from -5.68 to 0.97 °C and 128 to 717 mm,
316	which are solely dominated or under the influences of or combined controlled by the
317	westerlies, the Indian Summer monsoon and the Easter Asian monsoon (Yao et al.,
318	2012). There are more The glacier and snow covers are relatively more forin the
319	westerlies-dominant basins such as Yerqiang, Yulongkashi and Keliya (10.86~23.27%)
320	and 29.16~35.95%, respectively); less forwhereas are less for the East Asian
321	monsoon-dominated basins such as Yellow, Yangtze and Bayin (0~0.96% and
322	<u>9.42~20.05%, respectively) (Table 12).</u>
323	<pre><figure 1,="" here="" please,="" thanks=""></figure></pre>
324	<u><table 12,="" here="" please,="" thanks=""></table></u>
325	
326	2.2 Methods
327	2.2.1 Water balance-based ET estimation
328	The basin-wide water balance at the monthly and annual timescales could be written
329	as the principle of mass conservation (also known as the continuity equation,
330	Oliverira et al., 2014) of basin-wide precipitation (P, mm), evapotranspiration (ET_{wb} ,
331	mm), runoff (Q, mm) as well as terrestrial water storage change (Δ S, mm),
332	$ET_{wb} = P - Q - \Delta S \tag{1}$
333	In most TP basins, glacier melt (M_G , mm) contributes to river discharge together with
334	precipitation (liquid precipitation and snow). The monthly and annual water balance
335	in these basins can thus be revised as,
336	
	$ET_{wb} = P + M_G - Q - \Delta S \tag{2}$
337	$ET_{wb} = P + M_G - Q - \Delta S $ (2) Several attempts have been made for separating glacier contributions to river
337 338	

339	land-surface hydrological modeling for some individual TP basins (Zhang et al., 2013;
340	Zhou et al., 2014; Neckel et al., 2014; Xiang et al., 2016). However, accurate
341	quantification of M_{G} is difficult in the data-sparse TP, especially for multiple basins.
342	In this study, we simply use the percentages of glacier melt to river discharge for
343	some TP basins derived from the literatures (Chen, 1988; Mansur and Ajinisa, 2005;
344	Zhang et al., 2013; Liu J. et al., 2016) and the empirical relations between the glacier
345	area ratio (%) and glacier melt in basins mentioned above (Table 3).
346	<table 33,="" here="" please,="" thanks=""></table>
347	The terrestrial water storage (Δ S) in Eq. (2) , which includes the surface, subsurface
348	and ground water changes. It has been demonstrated, cannot be neglected in water
349	balance calculation at a over monthly or and annual timescales due to snow
350	accumulation cover change and some anthropogenic interferences such as (e.g.,
351	reservoir operation, agricultural water withdrawal) reservoir regulation and
352	agriculture irrigation-(Liu W. et al., 2016a). For the period 2002-2011, we calculated
353	basin-wide The water balance-based-ET (ETwb) during 2002-2011 can be calculated
354	throughdirectly using the GRACE-derived Eq. (2) using the GRACE derived mass-
355	anomaly as- ΔS in Eq. (2). Since GRACE data is absent before 2002, we calculated
356	the monthly ET _{wb} using the following two-step bias-correction procedure For
357	calculation before 2002 when the GRACE data is unavailable, we use a two-step bias-
358	correction procedure-(Li X. et al., 2014)-to close the water balance at monthly-
359	timescale considering the ΔS . We define $\underline{d} P + M_G - Q$ in Eq. (2) as biased ET
360	(ET _{biased} , available from 1982- <u>to</u> 2011) relative to the <u>"true" ET (</u> -ET _{wb} - $(= P + P)$
361	$M_G - Q - \Delta S_{1}$ available from during the period 2002-2011 when the GRACE data is
362	available)-calculated from Eq. (2). Over the period 2002-2011, we first fitted Firstly,
363	the ET _{biased} and ET _{wb} series separately over the period 2002 2011 were separately
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388	Here , and are the shape and scale parameters of gamma distribution for		带格式的:	字体:	Cambria	Math
			带格式的:	字体:	Cambria	Math
389	and . The second step is to eliminate the annual bias through the ratio of annual —					
390	to annual <u>calculated in the first step using the following method</u> ,					
201	$(m) \rightarrow (m)$ (4)		带格式的:	字体,	Combraio	Math
391		<	带格式的:带格式的:			
392	The procedure was then applied to correct the monthly—series and calculated 🔹		非加粗 带格式的:	宫休,	Combosio	Math
393	the monthly during the period 1982-2001 for all TP basins. The obtained was-		带格式的:			Matii
394	seemed as the "true" ET for evaluating multiple ET products and further for the					
395	trend analysis.					
396	2.2.2 Modified Mann-Kendall test method					
397	The Mann-Kendall (MK) test is a rank-based nonparametric approach which is less					
398	sensitive to outlier relative to other parametric statistics, but it is sometimes					
399	influenced by the serial correlation of time series. Pre-whitening is often used to					
400	eliminate the influence of lag-1 autocorrelation before the use of MK test,Ffor					
401	example, $X(X_1, X_2,, X_n)$ is a time series data, it in pre-whitening, the analyzed-					
402	time series $(,,,)$ will be replaced by $(X_2 - cX_1, X_3 - cX_2,, X_{n+1} - cX_n)$ in					
403	pre-whitening if the lag-1 autocorrelation coefficient (c) is larger than 0.1 (von Storch,					
404	1995). However, significant lag-i autocorrelation may still be detected after					
405	pre-whitening because only the lag-1 autocorrelation is considered in pre-whitening					
406	(Zhang et al., 2013). Moreover, it sometimes underestimate the trend for a given time					
407	series (Yue et al., 2002). Hamed and Rao (1998) proposed a modified version of MK					
408	test (MMK) to consider the lag-i autocorrelation and related robustness of the					
409	autocorrelation through the use of equivalent sample size, which has been widely used					
410	in previous studies during the last five decades (McVicar et al., 2012; Zhang et al.,					
411	2013; Liu and Sun, 2016). In the MMK approach, if the lag-i autocorrelation					
412	coefficients are significantly distinct from zero, the original variance of MK statistics					
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413	will be replaced by the modified one. In this study, we used the MMK approach to
414	quantify the trends of water budget components in18 TP basins and the significance of
415	trend was tested at the >95% confidence level.
416	3 Results and Discussion
417	3.1 ET evaluation and General hydrological characteristics of 18 TP basins
418	In this study, wWe first assessed the VIC_IGSNRR simulated runoff against the
419	observations for each basin (for example, at Tangnaihai and Pangduo stations in
420	Fig.2). If the Nash Efficiency coefficient (NSE) between the observation and
421	simulation is above 0.65, tThe VIC_IGSNRR simulated runoff is acceptable and
422	could be used to replace the missing values for a given basin, if the Nash Efficiency
423	coefficient (NSE) between the observation and simulation is above 0.65. Moreover,
424	the CMA precipitation is consistent with TRMM (Corr = 0.86 , RMSE = 8.34
425	mm/month) and IGSNRR forcing (Corr = 0.94, RMSE = 7.15mm/month)
426	precipitation for multiple basins (and also for the smallest basin above Tongren station,
427	Fig.2), , although the observation-derived and TRMM-estimated precipitation also has
428	uncertainties which reveals the applicably of CMA precipitation under the TP
429	conditions. The magnitudes of GRACE-derived annual mean water storage change
430	(ΔS) in 18 TP basins are relatively less than those for other water balance components
431	such as annual P, Q and ET (Table 4). The uncertainties among GRACE-derived
432	annual mean ΔS from different data processing centers (CSR, GFZ and JPL) are
433	small for 18 basins except for in the basins controlled by Gadatan and Tangnaihai
434	stations.
435	
436	< Figure 2, here please, thanks>
437	< Table 4, here please, thanks>
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438

439	We then evaluated six ET products in 18 TP basins against our calculated ET_{wb} at a
440	monthly basis during the period 1983-2006 (Fig. 3). The ranges of monthly averaged
441	ET among different basins (approximately 4-39 mm month ⁻¹) are very close for all
442	products compare with to that calculated from the $ET_{wb}(6-42 \text{ mm month}^{-1})$. However,
443	GLEAM_E (correlation coefficient: Corr = 0.85 and root-mean-square-error: RMSE =
444	5.69 mm month ⁻¹) and VIC_E (Corr = 0.82 and RMSE = 6.16 mm month ⁻¹) perform
445	relatively better than others. Although Zhang_E and GNoah_E were found closely
446	correlated to monthly ET_{wb} in the upper Yellow River, the upper Yangtze River,
447	Qiangtang and Qaidam basins (Li X. et al., 2014), they did not exhibit overall good
448	performances (Corr = 0.61, $RMSE = 7.97 \text{ mm month}^{-1}$ for Zhang_E and Corr = 0.42,
449	$RMSE = 10.16 \text{ mm month}^{-1}$ for GNoah_E) for 18 TP basin used in this study. We thus
450	use GLEAM_E and VIC_E together with ET_{wb} to calculate the seasonal cycles and
451	trends of ET in 18 TP basins in the following sections.
452	< Figure 3, here please, thanks>
453	To investigate the general hydroclimatic characteristics of rivers over the TP, we
454	classify 18 basins into three categories, namely westerlies-dominated basins
455	(Yerqiang, Yulongkashi and Kelia), Indian monsoon-dominated basins (Brahmaputra
456	and Salween), and East Asian monsoon-dominated basins (Yellow, Yalong and
457	Yangtze) referred to Tian et al. (2007), Yao et al. (2012) and Dong et al. (2016).
458	Interestingly, they are clustered into three groups under Budyko framework (Budyko,
459	1974; Zhang D. et al., 2016) with relatively lower evaporative index for in Indian
460	monsoon-dominant basins and higher aridity index-for in westerlies-dominant basins,
461	which reveal various long-term hydroclimatologic conditions (Fig. 4). Overall, the
462	annual mean air temperature increases (-5.68 ~0.97 $^{\circ}\mathrm{C})$ while multiyear mean glacier
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463	area (and thus the glacier melt normalized by precipitation) decreases $(23.27 \sim 0\%)$
464	gradually from the westerlies-dominant, Indian monsoon-dominant to East Asian
465	monsoon-dominant basins. The vegetation status (NDVI range: 0.05~0.43; LAI range:
466	$0.03 \sim 0.83$) tends to be better and ET increases (and thus runoff coefficient gradually
467	decreases) from cold to warm basins (Fig. 4 and Table 1). The R^2 between
468	basin-averaged NDVI and ET is 0.76 which shows a clear vegetation control on ET in
469	18 TP basins. The results is-are in line with Shen et al. (2015), which indicated that
470	the spatial pattern of ET trend was significantly and positively correlated with NDVI
471	trend over the TP. The dominant climate systems are overall discrepant for the three
472	TP regions with different water-energy characteristics and sources of water vapor. The
473	westerlies-controlled basins are relatively colder than the Indian monsoon-dominated
474	basins, thus they develop more glaciers (and thus have more snow melt contributions
475	to total river streamflow) and have relatively less vegetation (and thus limit vegetation
476	transpiration). It is a general picture of hydrological regime in high-altitude and cold
477	regions (Zhang et al., 2013; Cuo et al., 2014), which could be interpreted from the
478	perspective of multi-source datasets in the data-sparse TP.
479	< Figure 4, here please, thanks>
480	3.2 Seasonal cycles of basin-wide water budget components for the TP basins
481	The multi-year means of water budget components (i.e., P, Q, ET, snow cover and
482	SWE) and vegetation parameters (i.e., NDVI and LAI) were-are calculated for each
483	calendar month and for 18 TP river basins using multi-source datasets available from
484	1982 to 2011. Overall, the seasonal variations of P, Q, ET, air temperature and
485	vegetation parameters are similar in all TP basins with peak values occurred in May to
486	September (Fig.5 and Fig.6). The seasonal cycles of snow cover and SWE are
487	generally time consistent among the as well for 18 TP basins (the peak values mainly
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488	occur from October to next April, Fig.7). With the ascending air temperature from
489	cold to warm months, the basin-wide precipitation increases and vegetation cover_
490	expandsturns green gradually (the basin-wide ET also increase). Meanwhile, snow
491	cover and glaciers retreat and snow melt or vanish gradually with the melt water
492	supplying the river discharge together with precipitation. The inter-basin variations of
493	hydrological regime are to a large extent linked to the climate systems that prevail
494	over the TP.
495	< Figure 5, here please, thanks>
496	Although the temporal patterns of hydrological components are general <u>ly</u> analogous,
497	they varied vary among the parameters, climate zones and even basins (Zhou et al.,
498	2005) For example, relative to air temperature, the seasonal pattern of variation of

e, relative to air temperature, the seasonal pat 498 of variation of 499 runoff is more similar to precipitation which reveals that runoff is mainly controlled 500 by precipitation in most TP basins. It is in agreement with that summarized by Cuo et 501 al. (2014). In the westerlies-dominated basins, the peak values of precipitation and 502 runoff mainly concentrate in June-August, which contribute approximately 68-82% 503 and 67-78% of annual totals, respectively. During this period, the runoff always 504 exceeds precipitation which indicates large contributions of glacier/snow-melt water 505 to streamflow. It is consistent with the existing findings in Tarim River (Yerqiang, 506 Yulongkashi and Keliya rivers are the major tributaries of Tarim River), which 507 indicated that the melt water accounted for about half of the annual total streamflow 508 (Fu et al., 2008). The ET (vegetation cover) in three westerlies-dominated basins are 509 relatively less (scarcer) than that in other TP basins while the percentages of glacier 510 and seasonal snow cover are higher in these basins which contribute more melt water 511 to river discharge (Fig.6 and Fig.7). Overall, the SWE in Yerqiang, Yulongkashi and 512 Keliya rivers are relatively higher in winter than other seasons, but they vary with

basins and products which <u>reveal reflect</u> considerable uncertainties in SWE
estimations.

< Figure 6, here please, thanks> 515 In the Indian monsoon and East Asian monsoon-dominated basins, the runoff 516 concentrates during June-September (or June- October) with precipitation being the 517 dominant contributor of annual total runoff. For example, the peak values of 518 519 precipitation and runoff occur during June-September at Zhimenda station 520 (contributing about 80% and 74% of the annual totals) while those occur during 521 June-October at Tangnaihai station (contributing about 78% and 71% of the annual 522 totals, respectively). The results are quite similar to the related studies in eastern and 523 southern TP such as Liu (1999), Dong et al. (2007), Zhu et al. (2011), Zhang et al. 524 (2013), Cuo et al. (2014). The vegetation cover (ET) in most basins is relatively better 525 denser (higher) than that in the westerlies-dominant basins. Moreover, the seasonal 526 snow mainly covers from mid-autumn to spring and correspondingly the SWE is 527 relatively higher in these months in all basins except for Yellow River above Xining 528 station, Salwee River above Jiayuqiao station and Brahmaputra River above Nuxia 529 and Yangcun stations.

530

< Figure 7, here please, thanks>

3.3 Trends of basin-wide water budget components for the TP basins

Trends in water budget components for 18 TP basins during the period 1982-2011
were also examined through the modified Mann-Kendall test (MMK) in this study.
The hydrological cycles has intensified in the westerlies-dominated basins with Q, P
and ET_{wb} all ascended with <u>under</u> regional warming (Fig.8), especially in the Keliya
River basin (Numaitilangan station). The aridity index (PET/P), which is an indicator
for the degree of dryness, slightly declined in all basins in northwestern TP. Although

538	both P and PET were found both increase since the 1980s (Shi et al., 2003; Yao et al.,
539	2014), the declined PET/P is, to some extent, attributed to the ascending P exceed the
540	increase in PET for-in these basins (except for the Yulongkashi basin)The climate
541	moistening (Shi et al., 2003) in the headwaters of these inland rivers would be
542	beneficial to the water resources and oasis agro-ecosystems in the middle and lower
543	basins. The increase in streamflow was also found in most tributaries of the Tarim
544	River (Sun et al., 2006; Fu et al., 2010; Mamat et al., 2010).
545	
546	Moreover, the westerlies, revealed by the Asian Zonal Circulation Index (60° -150° E),
547	slightly enhanced (linear trend: 0.21) over the period of 1982-2011 (Fig.9). With the
548	strengthening westerlies, more More water vapor was may be transported and fell as
549	precipitation or snow in northwestern TP (e.g., the eastern Pamir region) with the
550	strengthening westerlies. Both SWE products (VIC_IGSNRR simulated and
551	GlobaSnow-2 product) showed slightlyincrease for across all basins with the-
552	incremental <u>rising</u> seasonal snow covers and advanced glaciers (Yao et al., 2012).
553	More precipitation was transformed into snow or glacier and the runoff coefficient
554	(Q/P) exhibited decrease although precipitation obviously increased (Fig.8). In
555	addition, the transpiration in these basins may might decrease with vegetation
556	degradation <u>as</u> revealed by the NDVI and LAI (Yin et al., 2016) but the atmospheric
557	evaporative demand indicated by CRU PET increased (significantly increase in the
558	Yulongkashi and Keliya rivers) during the period 1982-2011.
559	< Figure 8, here please, thanks>
560	< Figure 9, here please, thanks>
561	In the East Asian monsoon-dominated basins, there are two types of change for
562	basin-wide water budget components. For example, P and Q slightly decreased in the

563	upper Yellow River (Tangnihai, Huangheyan and Jimai stations) and Yalong River
564	(Yajiang station) but increased in other basins (Zelingou, Gandatan, Xining, Tongren
565	and Zhimenda stations) over the period of 1982-2011 (Fig.10). The decline in Q and P
566	for the upper Yellow and Yalong Rivers (locate at the eastern Tibetan Plateau) were
567	consistent with that found by Cuo et al. (2013, 2014) as well as Yang et al. (2014), and
568	were in line with the weakening (linear slope: -0.01) of the East Asian Summer
569	Monsoon (Fig.9). The vegetation turned green while ET_{wb} and PET increased in all
570	nine basins with the significantly ascending air temperature during the period
571	1982-2011. The aridity index (PET/P) was found-decreased in all basins except for the
572	upper Yellow River basin above Jimai station and the upper Yalong River basin above
573	Yajiang station. Moreover, both the runoff coefficients and SWE were decreased
574	except for the Bayin River above Zelingou station and the upper Yellow River above
	Tongren station in the East Asian monsoon dominated basins.
575	Tongren station in the East Asian monsoon dominated basins.
575 576	Figure 10, here please, thanks>
576	< Figure 10, here please, thanks>
576 577	< Figure 10, here please, thanks> The hydrological cycles were also found-intensified in the Indian monsoon-dominated
576 577 578	< Figure 10, here please, thanks> The hydrological cycles were also found intensified in the Indian monsoon-dominated basins such as Salween River and Brahmaputra River (Fig.11), which were in line
576 577 578 579	< Figure 10, here please, thanks> The hydrological cycles were also found intensified in the Indian monsoon-dominated basins such as Salween River and Brahmaputra River (Fig.11), which were in line with the strengthening (linear trend: 0.01) of the Indian Summersummer monsoon
576 577 578 579 580	Figure 10, here please, thanks> The hydrological cycles were also found-intensified in the Indian monsoon-dominated basins such as Salween River and Brahmaputra River (Fig.11), which were in line with the strengthening (linear trend: 0.01) of the Indian Summersummer monsoon (revealed by the Indian Ocean Dipole Mode Index) during the specific period
576 577 578 579 580 581	Figure 10, here please, thanks> The hydrological cycles were also found-intensified in the Indian monsoon-dominated basins such as Salween River and Brahmaputra River (Fig.11), which were in line with the strengthening (linear trend: 0.01) of the Indian Summersummer monsoon (revealed by the Indian Ocean Dipole Mode Index) during the specific period 1982-2011 (Fig.9). In the six basins, trends in P, Q and ET _{wb} were are all upward.
576 577 578 579 580 581 582	Figure 10 , here please, thanks> The hydrological cycles were also found intensified in the Indian monsoon-dominated basins such as Salween River and Brahmaputra River (Fig.11), which were in line with the strengthening (linear trend: 0.01) of the Indian Summersummer monsoon (revealed by the Indian Ocean Dipole Mode Index) during the specific period 1982-2011 (Fig.9). In the six basins, trends in P, Q and ET _{wb} were are all upward. For example, at Jiayuqiao station, the annual streamflow showed slightly increasing
576 577 578 580 581 582 583	Figure 10, here please, thanks> The hydrological cycles were also found intensified in the Indian monsoon-dominated basins such as Salween River and Brahmaputra River (Fig.11), which were in line with the strengthening (linear trend: 0.01) of the Indian Summersummer monsoon (revealed by the Indian Ocean Dipole Mode Index) during the specific period 1982-2011 (Fig.9). In the six basins, trends in P, Q and ET _{wb} were are all upward. For example, at Jiayuqiao station, the annual streamflow showed slightly increasing trend which was consistent with that examined during 1980-2000 by Yao et al. (2012).
576 577 578 579 580 581 582 583 584	Figure 10, here please, thanks> The hydrological cycles were also found intensified in the Indian monsoon-dominated basins such as Salween River and Brahmaputra River (Fig.11), which were in line with the strengthening (linear trend: 0.01) of the Indian Summersummer monsoon (revealed by the Indian Ocean Dipole Mode Index) during the specific period 1982-2011 (Fig.9). In the six basins, trends in P, Q and ET _{wb} were are all upward. For example, at Jiayuqiao station, the annual streamflow showed slightly increasing trend which was consistent with that examined during 1980-2000 by Yao et al. (2012). The vegetation status, revealed by NDVI and LAI, turned better significantly-with the
576 577 578 580 581 582 583 583 584	Figure 10, here please, thanks> The hydrological cycles were also found-intensified in the Indian monsoon-dominated basins such as Salween River and Brahmaputra River (Fig.11), which were in line with the strengthening (linear trend: 0.01) of the Indian Summersummer monsoon (revealed by the Indian Ocean Dipole Mode Index) during the specific period 1982-2011 (Fig.9). In the six basins, trends in P, Q and ET _{wb} were are all upward. For example, at Jiayuqiao station, the annual streamflow showed slightly increasing trend which was consistent with that examined during 1980-2000 by Yao et al. (2012). The vegetation status, revealed by NDVI and LAI, turned better significantly-with the ascending air temperature. The aridity index (PET/P) decreased in all basins except

588	runoff coefficient (Q/P) increased at Gongbujiangda and Nuxia while decreased at	
589	Jiayuqiao, Pangduo, Tangji and Yangcun stations. Moreover, the basin-wide SWE	
590	declined in the upper Salween River and Brahmaputra River above Pangduo, Tangjia	
591	and Gongbujiangda stations while increased in Brahmaputra River above Nuxia and	
592	Yangcun stations.	
593	< Figure 11, here please, thanks>	
594	3.4 Uncertainties	
595	The results may unavoidably associate with several aspects of uncertainties which	
596	mainly inherited from the multi-source datasets-used. For example, although the	
597	seasonal cycles of ET_{wb} can be captured by GLEAM_E and VIC_E, they still have	
598	considerable uncertainties such as at some stations (e.g., Numaitilangan,	
599	Gongbujiangda and Nuxia-stations) (Fig.5). <u>With respect to Compared to the the</u>	
600	annual trend of ET_{wb} (Table 4), most ET products (including the well-performed	
601	GLEAM_E and VIC_E in some basins) cannot detect the decreasing trends in 7 out of	
602	18 basins (at Kulukelangan, Tongguziluoke, Xining, Tongren, Jimai, Nuxia and	
603	Gongbujiangda stations) due to their different forcing data; algorithm used as well as	
604	varied spatial-temporal resolutions (Xue et al., 2013; Li et al., 2014; Liu W et al.,	
605	2016a). In particular, it is well known that land surface models have some difficulties	
606	(e.g., parameter tuning in boundary layer schemes) when applying to the TP, even	
607	though they have good performances in different regimes (Xia et al., 2012; Bai et al.,	
608	2016). For example, Xue et al. (2013) indicated that GNoah E underestimated	带格式的: 字体:小四,非加粗, 非倾斜,字体颜色:文字 1
609	the ET _{wb} in the upper Yellow River and Yangtze River basins on the Tibetan Plateau	带格式的: 字体:小四,非加粗, 非倾斜,字体颜色:文字 1
610	mainly due to its negative-biased precipitation forcing. We thus only used ET_{wb} in	
611	the trend detection of water budget components in Fig.8, Fig.10 and Fig.11 in this	
612	study.	
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613	The two SWE products also showed large uncertainty with respect to both their
614	seasonal cycles and trends. The VIC_IGSNRR simulated and GlobaSnow-2 SWEs
615	have not been validated in the TP due to the lack of snow water equivalent
616	observations, but in some basins (e.g., Zelingou and Numaitilangan) they showed
617	similar seasonal cycles and annual trends.
618	
619	
620	
621	
622	
623	Moreover, the interpolation of missing values of runoff with VIC_IGSNRR simulated
624	runoff and the gridded precipitation data (which interpolated from limited gauged
625	precipitation over the plateau) also involved introduced some uncertainties as well as.
626	There are also considerable uncertainties arising from empirical extending the ET
627	series back prior to the GRACE era. Finally, we obtained the contributions of
628	glacier-melt to discharge in some basins from the literatures and took them as fixed-
629	constant numbers. It may inherit considerable uncertainty from varied studies using
630	different approaches such as glacier mass-balance observation, isotope observation
631	and hydrological modeling, and the contribution rates would also change under a
632	warming climate. However, accurate reliable quantification of the contribution of
633	glacier-melt to discharge is technically difficult nowadayschallenging, especially for
634	the data-sparse basins. With these caveats, we can interpret the general hydrological
635	regimes and their responses to the changing climate in the TP basins from solely the
636	perspective of multi-source datasets, which are comparable to the existing studies
637	based on the in situ observations and complex hydrological modeling.

<Table 4<u>5</u>, here please, thanks>

639	4 Summary
640	In this study, we investigated the seasonal cycles and trends of water budget
641	components in 18 TP basins during the period 1982-2011, which is not well
642	understood so far due to the lack of adequate observations in the harsh environment,
643	through integrating the multi-source global/regional datasets such as gauge data,
644	satellite remote sensing and land surface model simulations. By using a two-step bias
645	correction procedure, we calculated the annual basin-wide ETwb was calculated
646	through the water balance approach considering the impacts of glacier and water
647	storage change. The We found that the GLEAM_E and VIC_E were found perform
648	better relative to other products against the calculated ET _{wb} .
649	
650	From the Budyko framework perspective, tThe general water and energy budgets
651	were-are different in the westerlies-dominated (with higher aridity index, runoff
652	coefficient and glacier cover), the Indian monsoon-dominated and the East Asian
653	monsoon-dominated (with higher air temperature, vegetation cover and
654	evapotranspiration) basins-under the perspective of Budyko framework. In the 18 TP
655	basins, precipitation is the major contributor to the river runoff, which concentrates
656	mainly during June-October (June-August for the westerlies-dominated basins,
657	June-September or June to October for the Indian monsoon-dominated and the East
658	Asian monsoon-dominated basins). The basin-wide SWE is relatively higher from
659	mid-autumn to spring for all 18 TP basins except for Keliya River and Brahmaputra
660	River above the Nuxia and Yangcun stations. The vegetation cover is relatively less
661	whereas snow/glacier cover is more in the westerlies-dominant basins compared with-
662	to other basins. In the period 1982-2011, we found that hydrologic cycle intensified
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663	across most of the basins in Tibetan Plateau; receded at some tributaries located at the
664	upper Yellow River and Yalong River (due to weakening East Asian monsoon). The-
665	hydrological cycles were found intensified under the regional warming in most TP-
666	basins except for most tributaries of the upper Yellow River and the Yalong River,
667	which were significantly influenced by the weakening East Asian monsoon during the
668	period 1982 2011. The aridity index (PET/P) exhibited decrease in most TP basins
669	which corresponded to the warming and moistening climate in the TP and western
670	China. Moreover, the runoff coefficient (Q/P) declined in most basins which may be,
671	to some extent, due to ET increase induced by vegetation greening and the influences
672	of snow and glacier changes. Although there are considerable uncertainties inherited
673	from multi-source data used, the general hydrological regimes in the TP basins could
674	be revealed, which are consistent to the existing results obtained from in situ
675	observations and complex land surface modeling. It indicated the usefulness of
676	integrating the multiple datasets available (e.g., such as in situ observations, remote
677	sensing-based products, reanalysis outputs, land surface model simulations and
678	climate model outputs) for hydrological applications. The generalization here results
679	obtained could be helpful for understanding the hydrological cycles and supporting
680	sustainable - further for the water resources management and eco-environment
681	protection under a warming climate in the vulnerable. Tibetan Plateau under global
682	warming.
683	
684	Author contributions. Wenbin Liu and Fubao Sun developed the idea to see the
685	general water budgets in the TP basins from the perspective of multisource datasets.

Wenbin Liu collected and processed the multiple datasets with the help of Yanzhong

Li, Guoqing Zhang, Wee Ho Lim, Hong Wang as well as Peng Bai, and prepared the

686 687

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939	Table 1: Main features of the 18 used TP river basins. GA% and SC% represent the percentages of multiyear mean glacier cover and snow cover in each basin.
940	The glacier and snow cover data are extracted, respectively, from the Second Glacier Inventory Dataset of China and the daily TP snow cover dataset
941	(2005-2013) -
942	
943	



Table 21: Overview of multi-source datasets applied in this study

Data category	Data source	Spatial resolution	Temporal resolution	Available period used	Reference
Runoff (Q)	Observed, National Hydrology	_	Daily	1982-2011	—
	Almanac of China				
	VIC_IGSNRR simulated	0.25°	Daily	1982-2011	Zhang et al. (2014)
Precipitation (P)	Observed, CMA	0.5 °	Monthly	1982-2011	—
	TRMM 3B43 V7	0.25°	Monthly	2000-2011	Huffman et al. (2012)
	IGSNRR forcing	0.25°	Daily	1982-2011	Zhang et al. (2014)
Temperature (Temp.)	Observed, CMA	0.5 °	Monthly	2000-2011	—
Terrestrial storage change	GRACE-CSR	Approx.300-400 km	Monthly	2002-2011	Tapley et al. (2004)
(ΔS)	GRACE-GFZ	Approx.300-400 km	Monthly	2002-2011	Tapley et al. (2004)
	GRACE-JPL	Approx.300-400 km	Monthly	2002-2011	Tapley et al. (2004)
Potential evaporation (PET)	CRU	0.5 °	Monthly	1982-2011	Harris et al. (2013)
Actual evaporation (ET)	MTE_E	0.5 °	Monthly	1982-2011	Jung et al. (2010)
	VIC_E	0.25°	Daily	1982-2011	Zhang et al. (2014)
	GLEAM_E	0.25°	Daily	1982-2011	Miralles et al. (2011)
	PML_E	0.5 °	Monthly	1982-2011	Zhang Y et al. (2016)
	Zhang_E	8 km	Monthly	1983-2006	Zhang et al. (2010)
	GNoah_E	1.0 °	3 hourly	1982-2011	Rui (2011)

	NDVI	GIMMS NDVI dataset	8 km	15 daily	1982-2011	Tucker et al. (2005)				
	LAI	GLASS LAI Product	0.05°	8 daily	1982-2011	Liang and Xiao (2012)				
	Snow Cover	TP Snow composite Products	500 m	Daily	2005-2013	Zhang et al. (2012)				
	SWE	VIC_IGSNRR simulated	0.25°	Daily	1982-2011	Zhang et al. (2014)				
		GlobSnow-2 Product	25 km	Daily	1982-2011	Takala et al. (2011)				
	Glacier Area	the Second Glacier Inventory	-	-	2005	<u>Guo et al. (2014)</u>	\langle	带格式的: 字体:五- 自动设置	号,字体	本颜色:
		Dataset of China						带格式的: 字体: 五	号,字体	\$颜色:
7	Table 12: Main features of t	the 18-used TP river basins used in	n this study. The precip	pitation and temperature	statistics for each basin	were calculated from the	l	自动设置		
8	observed									
)	CMA datasets while the NDVI	and LAI statistics were extracted f	rom the GIMMS NDVI	dataset and GLASS LA	I product. The GA% and	SC% represented the				
)	percentages of multiyear-mean	glacier cover and snow cover in ea	ach basin which were ca	dculated . The glacier ar	nd snow cover data are ex	stracted, respectively, from				
	the Second Glacier Inventor	y Dataset of China and the daily								
2	TP snow cover dataset (2005-2	<u>2013)–</u>								
3										

No.	Station	<u>Altitude</u>	River name	Drainage area	Multi	year-mean (1982-	-2011) and basin	-averaged	paramete	ers	
<u>INO.</u>	Station	<u>(m)</u>	Kivel name	<u>(km²)</u>	<u>Q (mm/yr)</u>	Prec. (mm/yr)	Temp.(°C/yr)	<u>NDVI</u>	LAI	<u>GA%</u>	<u>SC%</u>
<u>01</u>	<u>Kulukelangan</u>	<u>2000</u>	<u>Yerqiang</u>	<u>32880.00</u>	<u>158.60</u>	<u>128.34</u>	<u>-5.68</u>	<u>0.05</u>	<u>0.03</u>	<u>10.97</u>	<u>35.03</u>
<u>02</u>	<u>Tongguziluoke</u>	<u>1650</u>	<u>Yulongkashi</u>	<u>14575.00</u>	<u>151.56</u>	134.04	-4.07	0.06	0.04	<u>23.27</u>	<u>35.95</u>
<u>03</u>	<u>Numaitilangan</u>	<u>1880</u>	<u>Keliya</u>	<u>7358.00</u>	<u>103.18</u>	<u>137.14</u>	-4.78	0.06	0.03	10.86	<u>29.16</u>
<u>04</u>	<u>Zelingou</u>	<u>4282</u>	<u>Bayin</u>	5544.00	<u>41.42</u>	<u>340.68</u>	<u>-4.98</u>	<u>0.13</u>	0.09	<u>0.09</u>	<u>21.22</u>
<u>05</u>	<u>Gadatan</u>	<u>3823</u>	Yellow	<u>7893.00</u>	200.95	<u>566.01</u>	-4.60	0.34	0.54	0.13	14.94
<u>06</u>	<u>Xining</u>	<u>3225</u>	Yellow	9022.00	<u>99.90</u>	<u>503.74</u>	<u>0.97</u>	0.36	0.70	0.00	10.06
<u>07</u>	Tongren	<u>3697</u>	Yellow	2832.00	<u>149.36</u>	<u>533.25</u>	<u>-1.37</u>	<u>0.39</u>	<u>0.83</u>	0.00	<u>9.42</u>
<u>08</u>	<u>Tainaihai</u>	<u>2632</u>	<u>Yellow</u>	<u>121972.00</u>	<u>159.48</u>	<u>540.32</u>	<u>-2.40</u>	<u>0.34</u>	0.72	<u>0.09</u>	<u>15.89</u>
<u>09</u>	<u>Huangheyan</u>	<u>4491</u>	Yellow	<u>20930.00</u>	<u>31.18</u>	<u>386.42</u>	-4.81	0.23	0.61	0.00	17.25
<u>10</u>	<u>Jimai</u>	<u>4450</u>	Yellow	45015.00	85.50	441.48	-4.16	0.26	0.52	0.00	20.05

<u>11</u>	Yajiang	<u>2599</u>	Yalong	67514.00	<u>237.66</u>	717.05	<u>-0.23</u>	<u>0.43</u>	0.80	0.15	18.36
<u>12</u>	Zhimenda	<u>3540</u>	<u>Yangtze</u>	<u>137704.00</u>	<u>96.23</u>	<u>405.66</u>	<u>-4.83</u>	<u>0.20</u>	<u>0.26</u>	<u>0.96</u>	<u>17.87</u>
<u>13</u>	<u>Jiaoyuqiao</u>	<u>3000</u>	Salween	72844.00	364.26	<u>620.88</u>	<u>-1.89</u>	<u>0.29</u>	<u>0.44</u>	<u>2.02</u>	<u>23.73</u>
<u>14</u>	<u>Pangduo</u>	<u>5015</u>	<u>Brahmaputra</u>	16459.00	<u>348.31</u>	<u>544.59</u>	<u>-1.53</u>	0.27	<u>0.33</u>	<u>1.66</u>	<u>23.33</u>
<u>15</u>	<u>Tangjia</u>	<u>4982</u>	<u>Brahmaputra</u>	<u>20143.00</u>	350.61	<u>555.17</u>	<u>-1.89</u>	0.27	<u>0.34</u>	<u>1.39</u>	<u>21.83</u>
<u>16</u>	<u>Gongbujiangda</u>	<u>4927</u>	<u>Brahmaputra</u>	6417.00	<u>586.96</u>	692.06	-4.24	0.27	<u>0.36</u>	4.12	<u>25.99</u>
<u>17</u>	<u>Nuxia</u>	<u>2910</u>	<u>Brahmaputra</u>	<u>191235.00</u>	<u>307.38</u>	401.35	<u>-0.73</u>	0.22	0.25	<u>1.90</u>	<u>13.50</u>
<u>18</u>	<u>Yangcun</u>	<u>3600</u>	<u>Brahmaputra</u>	<u>152701.00</u>	163.25	<u>349.91</u>	<u>-0.87</u>	<u>0.19</u>	<u>0.18</u>	<u>1.28</u>	<u>10.52</u>

Table 32: Contribution of glacier-melt to discharge in eighteen <u>18 TP</u> basins ("—" shows no glacier influences, "—*" shows the percentage is empirically
 estimated through the relation between lacier area ratio and glacier melt for basins in which the glacier melt contribution has been reported in the literatures)

Basin	Contributions of glacier-melt	Reference
Dasin	to discharge (%)	Reference
Kulukelangan	62.7 <mark>3</mark>	Mansur and Ajnisa (2005)
Tongguziluoke	64.9 <mark>0</mark>	Liu J et al. (2016)
Numaitilangan	71 <u>.0</u>	Chen (1988)
Zelingou	_	—
Gadatan	_	—
Xining	_	—
Tongren	_	—
Tainaihai	0.8 <mark>0</mark>	Zhang et al. (2013)
Huangheyan	—	—
Jimai	—	—

Yajiang	1.4 <mark>0</mark>	*
Zhimenda	6.5 0	Zhang et al. (2013)
Jiaoyuqiao	4.8 0	Zhang et al. (2013)
Nuxia	11.6 0	Zhang et al. (2013)
Pangduo	10.1 3	*
Tangjia	8. <u>5</u> 49	*
Gongbujiangda	25 <u>.2</u> .15	*
Yangcun	7.8 <mark>1</mark>	*

961 962

963 Table 4: Annual-averaged water storage changes (ΔS) in 18 TP basins derived from GRACE retrievals (2002-2013) from three different processing centers (CSR,
 964 GFZ and JPL)

965

Basin	<u>Water storage Change (ΔS,mm)</u>					
	<u>CSR</u>	<u>GFZ</u>	JPL			
Kulukelangan	<u>-0.16</u>	<u>-0.16</u>	<u>-0.00</u>			
Tongguziluoke	<u>0.10</u>	<u>0.10</u>	0.28			
<u>Numaitilangan</u>	<u>0.24</u>	<u>0.22</u>	<u>0.41</u>			
<u>Zelingou</u>	<u>0.63</u>	<u>0.41</u>	<u>0.69</u>			
<u>Gadatan</u>	<u>0.02</u>	<u>-0.24</u>	<u>-0.03</u>			
<u>Xining</u>	<u>-0.08</u>	<u>-0.35</u>	<u>-0.14</u>			
<u>Tongren</u>	<u>-0.13</u>	<u>-0.41</u>	<u>-0.21</u>			
<u>Tainaihai</u>	<u>0.12</u>	<u>-0.16</u>	<u>0.10</u>			
<u>Huangheyan</u>	<u>0.60</u>	<u>0.35</u>	<u>0.70</u>			

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<u>Jimai</u>	<u>0.41</u>	<u>0.15</u>	<u>0.48</u>
<u>Yajiang</u>	<u>-0.23</u>	<u>-0.50</u>	<u>-0.21</u>
Zhimenda	<u>0.57</u>	<u>0.38</u>	<u>0.78</u>
<u>Jiaoyuqiao</u>	<u>-1.00</u>	<u>-1.13</u>	<u>-0.79</u>
<u>Nuxia</u>	<u>-1.42</u>	<u>-1.44</u>	<u>-1.31</u>
Pangduo	<u>-1.21</u>	<u>-1.29</u>	<u>-1.02</u>
<u>Tangjia</u>	<u>-1.40</u>	<u>-1.46</u>	<u>-1.24</u>
<u>Gongbujiangda</u>	<u>-1.61</u>	<u>-1.67</u>	<u>-1.47</u>
<u>Yangcun</u>	<u>-1.33</u>	<u>-1.34</u>	<u>-1.21</u>

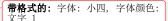
Table 45: Nonparametric trends for different ET estimates during the period 1982-2006 detected by modified Mann-Kendall test, the bold number showed the
 detected trend is statistically significant at the 0.05 level

Basin	$\mathrm{ET}_{\mathrm{wb}}$	GLEAM_E	VIC_E	Zhang_E	PML_E	MET_E	GNoah_E
Kulukelangan	-0.09	0.09	0.18	_	0.03	-0.01	0.07
Tongguziluoke	-0.02	0.10	0.13	_	0.03	-0.08	0.19
Numaitilangan	0.04	0.10	0.14	_	0.14	-0.10	0.22
Zelingou	0.13	0.23	0.11	0.09	0.04	0.06	0.02
Gadatan	-0.09	0.25	0.070	-0.10	-0.01	0.06	-0.07
Xining	-0.06	0.54	0.01	-0.08	0.01	0.02	-0.06
Tongren	-0.06	0.34	-0.15	-0.17	0.07	0.02	0.13
Tainaihai	0.06	0.28	-0.03	-0.11	0.04	0.05	0.04
Huangheyan	0.08	0.19	-0.01	-0.10	0.08	0.05	0.10

971	Jimai	-0.07	0.23	-0.01	-0.08	0.03	0.05	0.10
972	Yajiang	0.17	0.26	0.06	-0.21	-0.01	0.03	-0.02
973	Zhimenda	0.11	0.28	0.10	0.01	0.07	0.04	0.07
975	Jiaoyuqiao	0.18	0.28	0.10	-0.11	0.05	0.05	0.07
074	Nuxia	-0.09	0.25	0.09	-0.10	0.12	0.04	0.10
974	Pangduo	0.05	0.28	0.17	-0.07	0.07	0.07	0.11
975	Tangjia	0.09	0.26	0.17	-0.09	0.20	0.06	0.12
975	Gongbujiangda	-0.26	0.12	0.13	-0.16	0.19	0.01	0.15
976	Yangcun	0.03	0.28	0.08	-0.06	0.10	0.04	0.09
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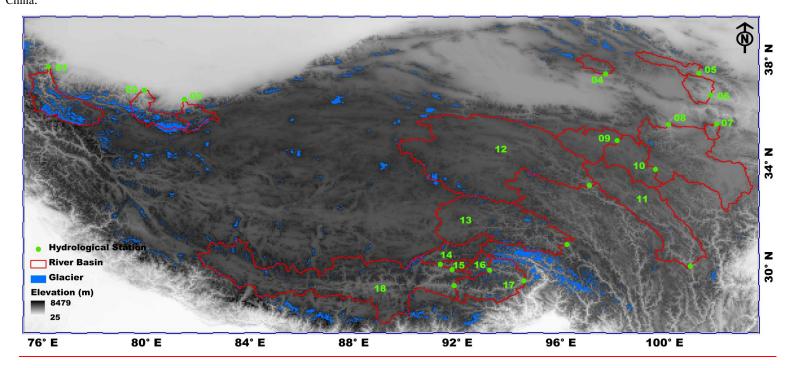
984 Figure captions:

- 985 **Figure1.** Map of river basins and hydrological gauging stations (green dots) over the
- 986 Tibetan Plateau (TP) used in this study. The grey shading shows the topography of TP
- 987 in meters above the sea level and the blue shading exhibits the glaciers distribution in
- 988 TP extracted from the Second Glacier Inventory Dataset of China.
- 989 Figure 2. Comparison of VIC_IGSNRR simulated and observed monthly runoff for
- 990 Tangnaihai and Panduo stations (a and b) as well as (c) basin-averaged monthly
- 991 TRMM, CMA gridded and IGSNRR forcing precipitations for the smallest basin
- 992 (Tongren station) over the period 1982-2011. (d) shows the comparison of TRMM
- 993 (blue) and IGSNRR forcing (red) precipitations against CMA gridded precipitation for
- 18 river basins over TP during the period 2000-2011.
- **Figure 3.** Comparison of different ET products against the calculated ET through the water balance method (ET_{wb}) at the monthly time scale for 18 TP basins during the
- 997 period 1983-2006. The boxplot of annual-monthly estimates of different ET products
- 998 for 18 TP basins are shown in (a) while the correlation coefficients and
- 999 root-mean-square-errors (RMSEs, mm/month) for each ET product relatively to ET_{wb}
 1000 are exhibited in (b).
- 1001 Figure 4. General water and energy status (a. the perspective of Budyko framework)
- and their relationships with glacier (b) and vegetation (c and d) for eighteen TP river
- basins (1983-2006). The ET used in this figure is calculated from the bias-correctedwater balance method.
- 1005 Figure 5. Seasonal cycles (1982-2011) of water budget components in westerlies-
- dominated (column 1), East Asian monsoon-dominated (columns 2-4) and Indian
- 1007 monsoon-dominated (columns 5-6) TP basins.
- 1008 Figure 6. Seasonal cycles (1982-2011) of air temperature and vegetation parameters
- 1009 in westerlies-dominated (column 1), East Asian monsoon-dominated (columns 2-4)
- 1010 and Indian monsoon-dominated (columns 5-6) TP basins.
- 1011 **Figure 7**. Seasonal cycles (1982-2011) of snow cover and snow water equivalent
- 1012 (SWE) in westerlies-dominated (column 1), East Asian monsoon-dominated (columns
 - 45 / 62



- 1013 2-4) and Indian monsoon-dominated (columns 5-6) TP basins. The snow cover was
- 1014 extracted from cloud free snow composite product during the period 2005-2013. It
- should also be noted that the GlobSnow data are not available for some basins.
- 1016 Figure 8. Sen's slopes of water budget components and vegetation parameters in
- 1017 westerlies-dominated TP basins during the period of 1982-2011. The double red stars
- showed that the trend was statistically significant at the 0.05 level.
- 1019 Figure 9. Linear and non-parametric trends of westerly, Indian monsoon and East
- 1020 Asian summer monsoon during the period 1982-2011 revealed prospectively by the
- 1021 Asian Zonal Circulation Index, Indian Ocean Dipole Mode Index and East Asian
- 1022 Summer Monsoon Index.
- 1023 Figure 10. Similar to Figure 8 but for East Asian monsoon-dominated TP basins. It
- should be noted that the GlobSnow data are not available for some basins. The double
- red stars showed that the trend was statistically significant at the 0.05 level.
- 1026 Figure 11. Similar to Figure 8 but for Indian monsoon-dominated TP basins. It should
- 1027 be noted that the GlobSnow data are not available for some basins. The double red
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Figure 1. Map of river basins and hydrological gauging stations (green dots) over the Tibetan Plateau (TP) used in this study. The grey shading shows the
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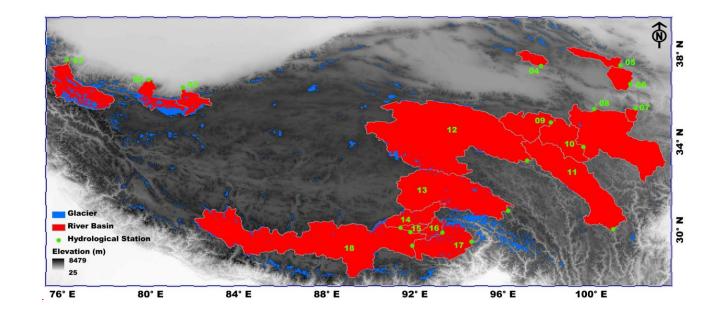
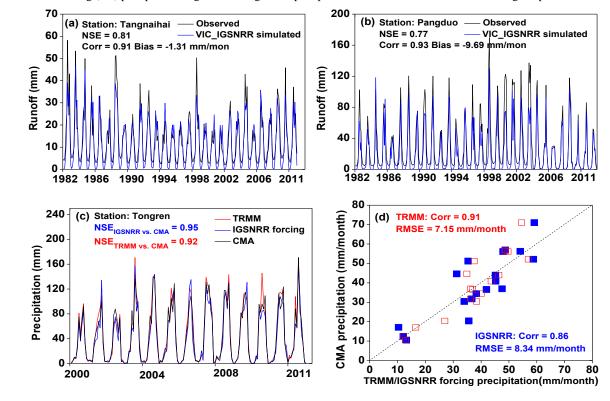


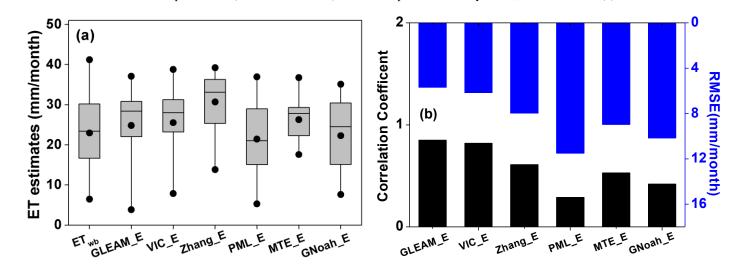
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1039 1040

1041Figure 3. Comparison of different ET products against the calculated ET through the water balance (ET_{wb}) at the monthly time scale for 18 river basins over the1042Tibetan Plateau during the period 1983-2006. The boxplot of annual-monthly estimates of different ET products for 18 TP basins are shown in (a) while the1043correlation coefficients and root-mean-square-errors (RMSEs, mm/month) for each ET product relatively to ET_{wb} are exhibited in (b).



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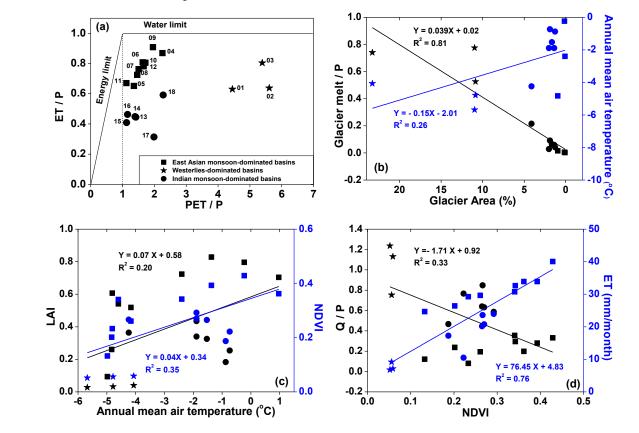
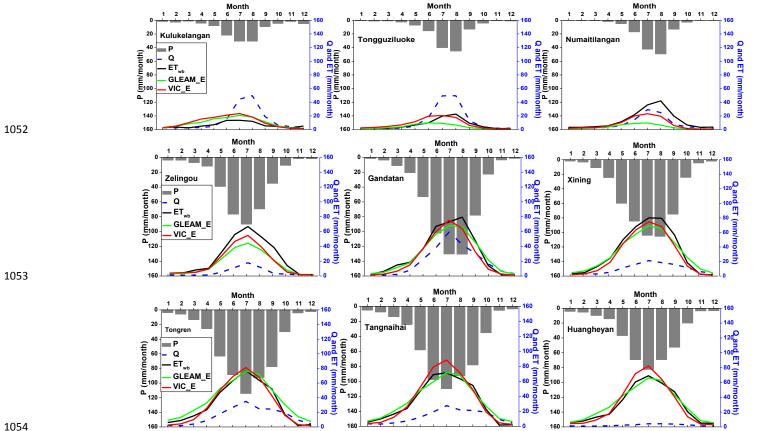
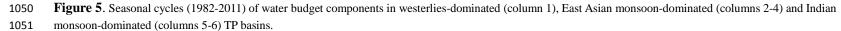
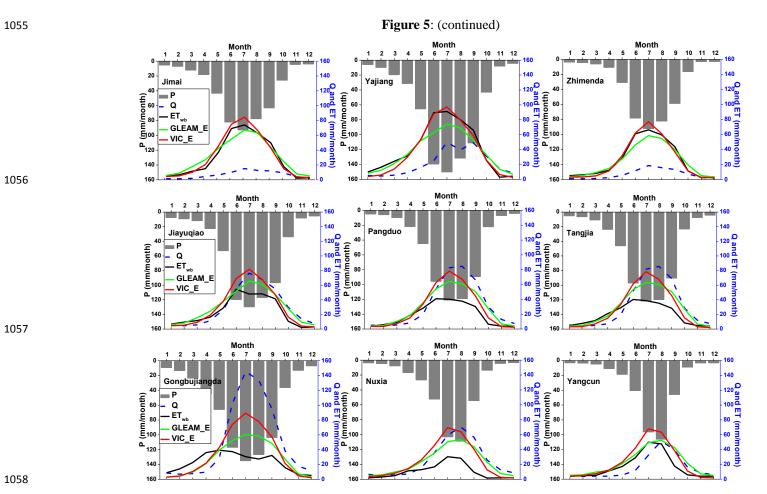


Figure 4. General water and energy status (a. the perspective of Budyko framework) and their relationships with glacier (b) and vegetation (c and d) for eighteen
 TP river basins (1983-2006). The ET used in this figure is calculated from the bias-corrected water balance method.

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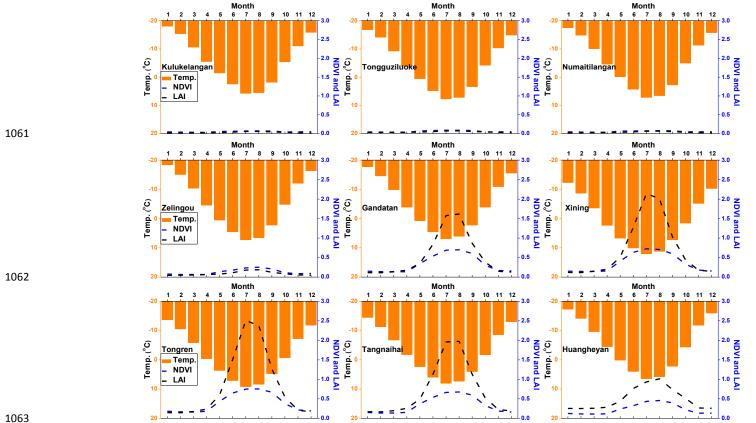
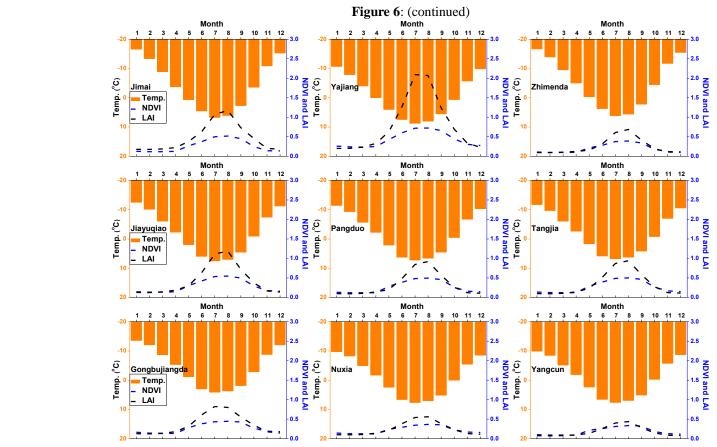


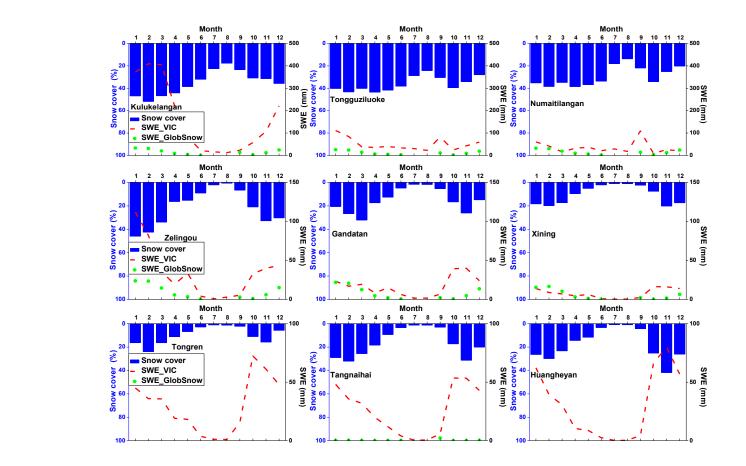
Figure 6. Seasonal cycles (1982-2011) of air temperature and vegetation parameters in westerlies-dominated (column 1), East Asian monsoon-dominated (columns 1059 2-4) and Indian monsoon-dominated (columns 5-6) TP basins. 1060

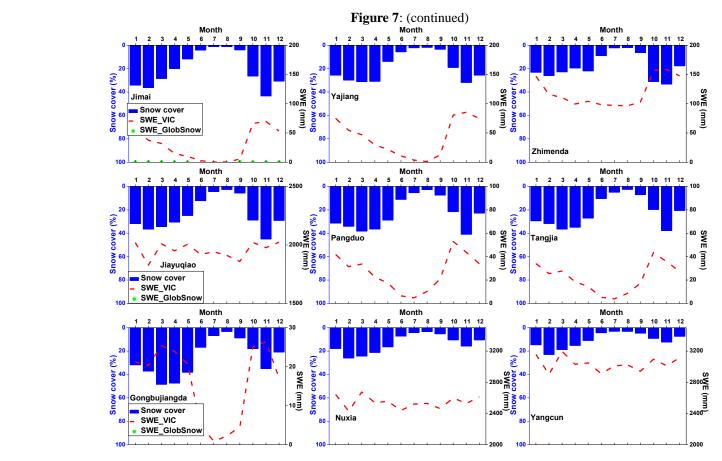


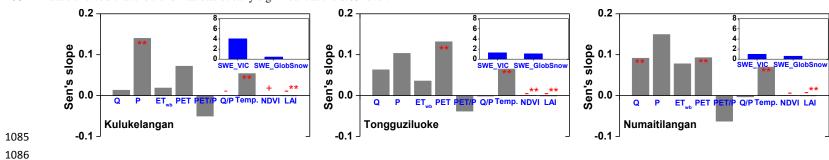
1069 Figure 7. Seasonal cycles (1982-2011) of snow cover and snow water equivalent (SWE) in westerlies-dominated (column 1), East Asian monsoon- dominated

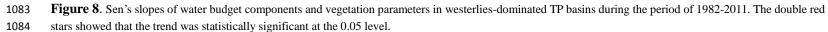
- 1070 (columns 2-4) and Indian monsoon-dominated (columns 5-6) TP basins. The snow cover was extracted from cloud free snow composite product during the period
- 1071 2005-2013. It should also be noted that the GlobSnow data are not available for some basins.

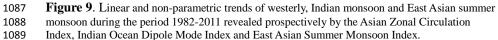
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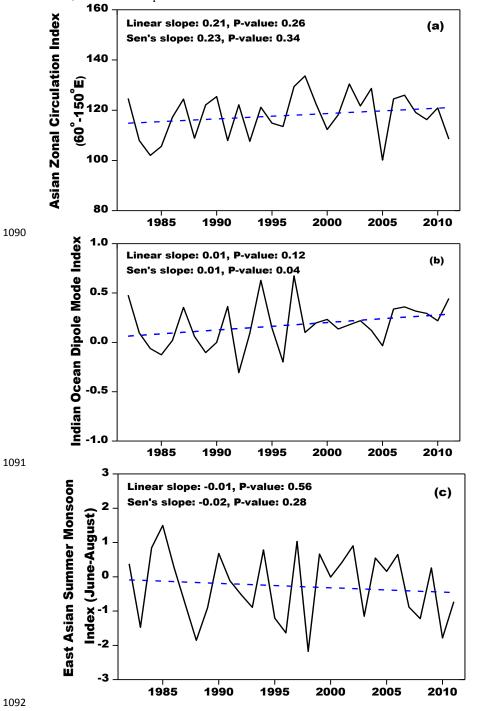














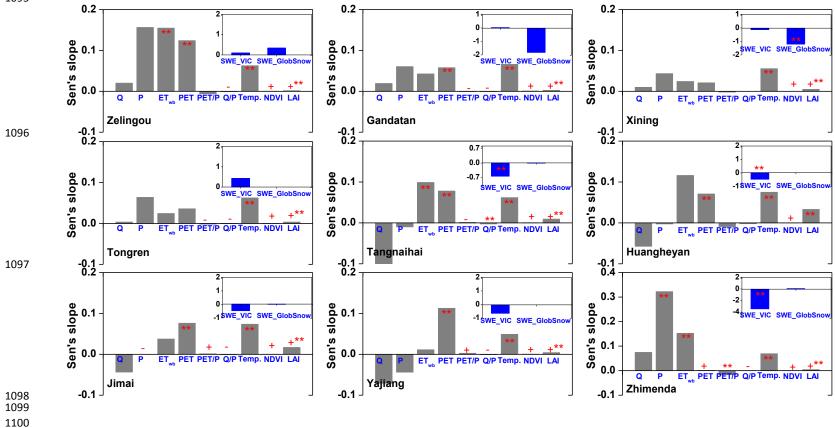


Figure 10. Similar to Figure 8 but for East Asian monsoon-dominated TP basins. It should be noted that the GlobSnow data are not available for some basins. The double red stars showed that the trend was statistically significant at the 0.05 level.

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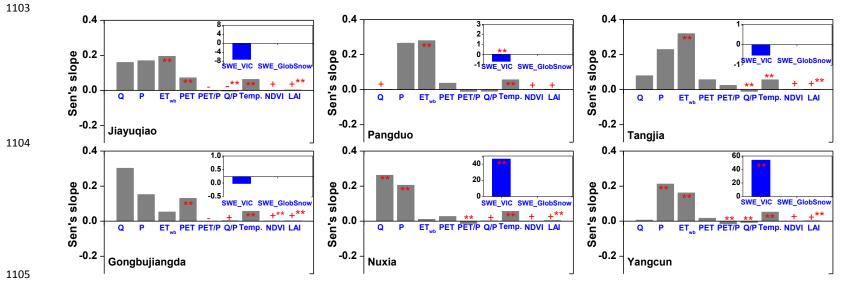


Figure 11. Similar to Figure 8 but for Indian monsoon-dominated TP basins. It should be noted that the GlobSnow data are not available for some basins. The double red stars showed that the trend was statistically significant at the 0.05 level.