

# Quantify Spatial Distribution of Oceanic Moisture Contribution to the Precipitation over the Tibetan Plateau

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**Abstract.** Evaporation from global oceans is an important moisture source ~~for~~ glaciers and headwaters of major Asian  
15 rivers in the Tibetan Plateau (TP). Although ~~recent~~the accelerated global hydrological cycle, the altered sea–land thermal contrast, and the amplified warming rate over the TP during the past several decades are known to have profound effects on the regional water balance, the spatial distribution of oceanic moisture contribution to the ~~contribution of oceanic evaporation, in particular its spatial variability over the~~ vast TP, remains unclear. ~~The lack of such knowledge~~This hinders ~~their~~  
20 the accurate quantification of regional water budgets and the reasonable interpretation of water isotope records from observations and paleo archives. Based on historical data and moisture tracking, this study systematically quantifies the absolute and relative contributions of oceanic moisture to ~~the~~ long-term ~~TP~~ precipitation in the TP. Results show that the seasonal absolute and relative oceanic contributions are generally out of phase, revealing the previously underestimated ~~overlooked~~ oceanic moisture contributions brought by the westerlies ~~to the TP~~ in winter ~~as dominated by the westerlies~~ and the overestimated moisture contributions from the Indian Ocean in summer. QuantitativelyEspecially, the relative contribution of moisture from the Indian Ocean is only ~30% in the south~~ern~~ TP and further decreases to below 10% in the north~~ern~~most TP. Absolute oceanic contributions exhibit a spatial pattern ~~explain~~ consistent with the dipole pattern of long-term precipitation trends across the Brahmaputra Canyon regions~~southern slope of the Himalayas~~ and the central-north~~ern~~ TP. In comparison, ~~the seasonality of~~ relative oceanic contributions show strong seasonal patterns ~~is~~ associated with ~~that of~~ the seasonality of the precipitation isotopes across the TP.

## 30 1 Introduction

Evaporation from oceans is one of the most important elements in the global hydrological cycle, which constitutes more than 80% of the global surface evaporation and contributes to about 60% half of the terrestrial precipitation (*Van der Ent et al.*,

2010; Trenberth *et al.*, 2011; *Gimeno et al.*, 2020a; *Link et al.*, 2020; *Tuinenburg et al.*, 2020). The global-warming-induced increase of water-holding capacity in the atmosphere, intensification of the land-sea thermal gradient, and the relevant moisture limitation over land (i.e., soil moisture limitation) collectively enhance the role ~~of that~~ oceanic evaporation plays in the global hydrological cycle (*Findell et al.*, 2019; *Algarra et al.*, 2020; *Gimeno et al.*, 2020b). Owing to the complex circulation systems that involve energy-intensive processes. Regionally, large spatial and temporal variations in oceanic evaporation (and its contributions to precipitation over land) have been observed at the regional scale ~~variabilities in oceanic evaporation and its contributions to land precipitation exist due to complex circulation systems and energy intensive processes~~ (*Gimeno et al.*, 2013; *Van der Ent and Savenije*, 2013). Specifically, the continental regions influenced by monsoon systems have been considered to substantially benefit ~~more~~ from oceanic evaporation (*Gimeno et al.*, 2010). One example is the high-elevation Tibetan Plateau (TP) (*Yao et al.*, 2012; *Yao et al.*, 2013; *Yao et al.*, 2018). Although located far from oceans, the TP has long been considered ~~as~~ a gigantic “air pump”, ~~which that~~ attracts low-latitude oceanic moisture up to the Asian continent, ~~due to~~ resulting from its large-scale topography and thermal forcing (*Xu et al.*, 2014; *Wu et al.*, 2015; *Liu et al.*, 2020). More importantly, the TP ~~this~~ region sustains freshwater supplies for more than 10 major Asian rivers affecting billions of livelihoods downstream (*Immerzeel et al.*, 2010; *Lutz et al.*, 2014). However, the TP, but ~~region~~ is now undergoing dramatic hydrological changes (e.g., the intensive cryosphere melt and lakes expansion) (*Yao et al.*, 2012; *Zhang et al.*, 2020). Meteorological records reveal that the atmospheric warming rate over the TP was twice ~~of~~ the global mean during the past five decades, and with experienced further accelerations since 1998 (*Chen et al.*, 2015; *Duan and Xiao*, 2015; *Kuang and Jiao*, 2016). The consequent changes in the huge land–sea thermal gradient may have significantly altered ~~the~~ regional moisture transport processes and circulation systems (*Wang et al.*, 2019).

Hydrological conditions in different parts of the TP are closely connected through the interaction between the mid-latitude westerlies and the Indian Summer Monsoon (ISM) and as well as the strong local recycling (*Xu et al.*, 2008; *Yao et al.*, 2013; *Curio and Scherer*, 2016). During the monsoon season (June–September), ~~the~~ regional heating significantly enhances the southwesterly ~~south-westerly~~ monsoon circulations over the northern Indian Ocean, which brings enormous ~~amount~~ of oceanic moisture to South Asia and the TP (*Xu et al.*, 2008; *Wu et al.*, 2015). However, the impacts of the ISM have gone through changes in during recent decades. The ~~The~~ rapid Indian Ocean warming during the 20<sup>th</sup> century has potentially weakened the land–sea thermal contrast, leading to the dampening of which dampened the summer monsoon Hadley circulation (*Bingyi*, 2005; *Roxy et al.*, 2015). After 2002, the increased land–ocean temperature gradient driven by the enhanced warming of the Indian subcontinent and the slowed warming of the Indian Ocean resulted in the revival of the ISM ~~the ISM revived due to the increased land–ocean temperature gradient driven by the enhanced warming over the Indian subcontinent and slowed warming over the Indian Ocean~~ (*Jin and Wang*, 2017). ~~All t~~ These changes may have altered the oceanic moisture contribution to the TP ~~precipitation~~ over the TP. In fact, the hinterland TP (mainly the central-northern TP) is has ~~become~~ ing wetter during in the recent 50 years, while a drying trend was detected ~~has been observed~~ near the southeastern boundary edge of the TP (*Yang et al.*, 2014; *Jiang and Ting*, 2017; *Wang et al.*, 2018).

70 ~~Some Many~~ recent studies have quantitatively diagnosed the oceanic moisture contribution for different climate regions of the TP (Table S1). As suggested in Table S1, the vast majority the studies have investigated the moisture sources of precipitation in the TP at both regional and subregional scales (“Study area” in Table S1) using backward moisture tracking. However, the spatial distribution of oceanic moisture contribution to the precipitation over vast TP, e.g., the potential latitudinal gradient of the moisture transported from the Indian Ocean, has not been examined. -quantified  
75 ~~the regional average relative contributions of oceanic moisture to the TP precipitation (e.g., 21% in the midwestern TP(Zhang et al., 2017) and 24%–30% in the endorheic TP(Li et al., 2019)), and have suggested that the westerlies can potentially drive oceanic contributions in winter. However, the spatial variation of the oceanic moisture contribution from the Himalayas to the inner TP and their historical changes have not been examined yet.~~

80 On the other hand, ~~an the~~ accurate quantification of ~~the~~ oceanic evaporation contributions~~s~~ can also benefit the interpretation of water isotopes and paleoclimate archive records (i.e., ice core, tree ring, lake sediments, and stalagmites) gathered in the  
85 TP over the past several decades (Tian et al., 2007; Joswiak et al., 2013; Yao et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2021). Water isotopes—the stable isotopic compositions of hydrogen and oxygen—have been widely used to ~~study-examine~~  
the climate and water cycle ~~over~~ the TP, ~~including-as-well-as its-their~~ paleoclimate history (Joswiak et al., 2013; Yao et al., 2013). Specifically, extensive evidence from ~~the~~ precipitation and ice core isotopes since ~~the~~ 1990s ~~has~~ demonstrate~~s~~ that  
90 the onset of the ISM delivers ~~significant-substantial~~ oceanic moisture to the TP as far as ~~the south of 34°–35°N~~ the Tanggula Mountains (34°–35°N) (Tian et al., 2007; Yao et al., 2013). ~~However~~ ~~Nevertheless~~, a quantitative understanding of the relationship between ~~the~~ moisture sources and ~~the~~ spatial-temporal ~~variabilities-variations~~ in water isotopes is still absent, ~~largely hampering the interpretation of hydroclimate significance of the isotope records.~~

95 In addition, tThe moisture contribution to the precipitation over a target region can be viewed from two aspects: absolute and relative contributions. Although relative contribution can be calculated from the absolute contribution, these two metrics in fact reflect different aspects of the regional hydrological cycle. The absolute contribution, which is critical to the water balance, is critical to the understanding of the hydrological status and its dynamics. In comparison, from the perspective of mass balance during mixing, the relative contribution is more relevant to tracer-based studies. However, the differences between absolute and relative contributions ~~the distinctions between these two are non-trivial, and their differences have~~  
rarely been explored over the TP (Zhang et al., 2017; Pan et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2019; Qiu et al., 2019). ~~The absolute contribution, which is critical to water balance, is critical to the understanding of hydrological status and its changes, while the relative contribution is more relevant for tracer-based studies from the consideration of mass balance during mixing.~~

100 In this study, we aim to fill these gaps with long-term moisture tracking simulations driven by multiple reanalysis datasets for the TP. In sections 3.1 and 3.2, we quantify the spatial variation in the absolute and relative contributions of the oceanic

moisture to the TP precipitation. We then compare the long-term trends of oceanic moisture changes and precipitation changes in Section 3.3. We further examine the possible influence of oceanic moisture on the variations in water isotope records over the TP. Leveraging systematic forward and backward moisture tracking simulations, the results of this study are expected to shed new light on the oceanic impacts and dynamics of the hydrological cycle in the TP. Based upon historical reanalysis datasets and moisture tracking simulations, this work seeks to systematically quantify the absolute and relative contributions of oceanic moisture to the TP precipitation, and examine the possible influences of oceanic contribution on precipitation change and water isotope variations.

## 2 Method and data

### 2.1 Numerical atmospheric moisture tracking

The Water Accounting Model-2layers (WAM-2layers) is an Eulerian, a-posterior moisture tracking model which can track tagged moisture both forward and backward in time to determine the spatial and temporal distributions of moisture sources (Van der Ent et al., 2010; Van der Ent, 2014). The two vertical layers in the model are set to deal with the wind shear in the upper air, and in comparison with the commonly-used Lagrangian models (e.g., the FLEXible PARTicle (FLEXPART) dispersion model and the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model) that identify precipitation and evaporation events mainly based on the dynamic humidity information of tracked air particles (Tuinenburg and Staal, 2020), the Eulerian grids enable the WAM-2layers model to excel in computation speed and to consider moisture budget from precipitation and evaporation separately (Van der Ent et al., 2013; Van der Ent, 2014). The basic principle of the forward moisture tracking for the tagged moisture (subscript  $g$ ) in WAM-2layers in the lower layer is the atmospheric water balance (Findell et al., 2019):

$$\frac{\partial S_{gk,lower}}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial(S_{gk,lower}u)}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial(S_{gk,lower}v)}{\partial y} + E_{gk} - P_{gk} + \xi_k \pm F_{vV,g} \quad (1)$$

where  $S_{gk}$  is the atmospheric moisture storage in the atmospheric column layer  $k$ ;  $t$  is time;  $u$  and  $v$  are wind speeds in the zonal ( $x$ ) and meridional ( $y$ ) directions, respectively;  $E_{gk}$  and  $P_{gk}$  are evaporation entering layer  $k$  and precipitation loss leaving from the layer  $k$ , respectively;  $\xi_k$  is the residual and  $F_{vV}$  is the vertical moisture exchange between the two lower and upper layers. Note that  $E_{gk}$  only applies to the bottom lower layer. The “well-mixed” assumption is applied-adopted into this model, which means the that precipitation is assumed to be immediately removed from the atmosphere in the tracking process (i.e.,  $P_g/P = S_g/S$ , where  $P$  and  $S$  are total precipitation and total column atmospheric moisture storage, respectively). The two vertical layers in the model are set to deal with the wind shear in the upper air. To better capture the vertical exchanges due to convection, turbulence, and re-evaporation and to minimize the water balance losses between the two layers, the gross vertical flow is set to 4 times the vertical flow in the net flow direction and 3 times the vertical flow in the opposite direction. Although this is a simplification of the turbulent moisture exchange, physically reasonable results

have been obtained in previous studies, and the general tracking has been validated against the online 3D tracking models (Van der Ent et al., 2013; van der Ent et al., 2014; Findell et al., 2019). Due to the existence of residual  $\xi_k$ , the closure of the model is defined by a ratio of residuals between the two layers, i.e.,  $\xi_{top}/S_{top} = \xi_{bottom}/S_{bottom}$  (van der Ent et al., 2014).

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In the tracking process, the spatial resolution of the Eulerian grids is reduced to  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ , and the time step is set as 0.25 h, to maintain the precision and numerical stability. We have tested the sensitivity of the moisture tracking results to the selection of different time steps. Figure S1 shows the comparison of two simulations using 15-min (0.25 h) and 10-min time steps, suggesting the stability of using different time steps for moisture tracking in the study area. In addition, the vertical separation between the two layers is prescribed as ~~around~~ 812 hPa at the normal atmospheric pressure (Van der Ent et al., 2013). Note that the atmospheric pressure of the vertical separation varies with different surface pressure (the “half-level” pressure in different reanalysis products is defined as  $P_{k-1/2} = A_{k-1/2} + B_{k-1/2} P_s$ , where  $P_s$  is surface pressure,  $k$  represents different model levels, and the values of  $A_{k-1/2}$  and  $B_{k-1/2}$  are defined independently for different reanalysis datasets). Based on our preliminary test experiments, we define select the tracking domain as from ~~30°S to 80°N and from 40°W to 140°E, which that~~ covers nearly all the potential ocean and land source regions of the TP precipitation (30°S–80°N and 40°W–140°E).

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In an Eulerian grid cell  $(x, y)$  in-at time  $t$ , the relative contribution (%) from-of oceanic evaporation to precipitation was-is defined as:

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$$\rho_o(t, x, y) = \frac{M_o(t, x, y)}{M_o(t, x, y) + M_l(t, x, y)} \quad (2)$$

where  $M_o$  is the absolute contribution of oceanic moisture, and  $M_l$  is the absolute contribution of terrestrial moisture represent the absolute contribution of moisture from oceanic and terrestrial (including local recycling) evaporation, respectively. The ocean and land distributions were defined according to the  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  gridded land-sea mask from the ERA-Interim. We further remove inland large lakes (considered as “sea” in the ERA-Interim, e.g., the Caspian Sea and the Black Sea in the Eurasian continent) from the mask. The final land-sea mask with  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  spatial resolution used in this study is shown in Figure S2.

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## 2.2 Data source

Three atmospheric reanalysis products, namely the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) interim reanalysis dataset (ERA-Interim) (Dee et al., 2011), the National Aeronautics and Space Administration Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications version 2 dataset (MERRA-2) (Gelaro et al., 2017), and the Japanese 55-year Reanalysis dataset (JRA-55) (Kobayashi et al., 2015), are used to drive the WAM-2layers. Variables used in our simulations include with the following variables: surface pressure (temporal resolution: 6h), precipitation (3h), evaporation (3h), specific humidity (6h, 17 layers), wind fields (6h, 17 layers), total column water (6h), and vertically integrated moisture

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fluxes (6h). ~~Note that for specific humidity and wind fields, 17 model layers are selected to represent the moisture distribution from the surface to the top of the atmosphere (see details in Table S2).~~ To better ~~represents-describe~~ the water transport in the atmosphere, the moisture considered in this study represents all possible phases of water in the atmosphere, ~~which contains-including~~ water vapor, cloud liquid water, and cloud frozen water. Note that JRA-55 does not ~~contain~~ ~~providethe~~ the liquid and frozen water fluxes, thus we only consider the water vapor flux ~~is-considered-for this dataset~~. The time span of moisture tracking is 1979–2015 for ERA-Interim and JRA-55, and 1980–2015 for MERRA-2. All variables are temporally resampled to 0.25 h and spatially interpolated to  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  grids ~~by-using~~ bilinear method-interpolation for consistency.

~~We further retrieve The-the~~  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  gridded monthly averaged data from the ERA5 (the fifth generation of atmospheric reanalysis product produced by the ECMWF) (Hersbach et al., 2020) to examine the large-scale changes in evaporation, precipitation, horizontal wind fields, and vertical velocity in the upper atmosphere during 1979–2015. ~~precipitation-dataset adopted in this study during 1979–2015 is the Global Precipitation Climatology Centre (GPCC) dataset, which provides globally gridded gauge analysis products derived from quality controlled station observations (Schneider et al., 2018).~~ The event-based precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  data from 19 observation stations of the Tibetan Network for Isotopes in Precipitation (TNIP) are also used in this work. (Yao et al., 2013).

## 3 Results

### 3.1 Absolute and relative contributions of oceanic moisture ~~contributes~~ to the TP precipitation

The absolute contribution (mm per year/season/month) and relative contributions (~~in mm and the percentage of the total sink precipitation%, respectively~~) of global oceanic evaporation to the TP precipitation over the past three decades are tracked forward ~~based-on~~ using an Eulerian moisture tracking model (WAM-2layers) and three reanalysis products (ERA-Interim, MERRA-2, and JRA-55). The spatial patterns of absolute contribution (Figures 1a–e) ~~agrees~~ well with the previous understanding that the ISM brings a large amount of Indian ocean moisture to the southeast~~ern~~ TP and concentrates around the Brahmaputra Canyon in summer (Xu et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2015). In ~~summer~~ the monsoon season (summer, Figure 1c), the absolute contribution of oceanic moisture ~~contribution~~ exhibits a sudden drop from more than 1,000 mm along the south~~ern~~ TP to only about 100 mm in the central-north~~ern~~ TP, after ~~climbing-traveling through~~ the orographic barriers of the Gangdise and the south~~ern~~ slope of the Tanggula Mountains. This massive oceanic moisture also stretches westward along the southwest~~ern~~ slope of the Himalayas. In comparison, in spring and winter (Figure 1b and e), ~~with~~ a relatively weak westerly moisture sink appears around the Pamirs ( $\sim 100 \text{ mm season}^{-1}$ ) ~~mainly in spring and winter~~, as induced by the prevailing orographic precipitation (Curio and Scherer, 2016). ~~In summer, the absolute oceanic moisture contribution exhibits a sudden drop from more than 1,000 mm along the southern TP to only about 100 mm in the central-north TP, after climbing the orographic barriers of the Gangdise and the southern slope of Tanggula Mountains.~~

From the perspective of relative contribution, ~~the~~ oceanic evaporation is responsible for 36%–39% of the total moisture condensation over the TP, and spatially, the relative contribution gradually decreases from more than 50% along the ~~southeastern-southeastern~~ edge of the TP to less than 20% in the central-north~~ern~~ TP (Figure 1f). Seasonally, the relative contributions of oceanic evaporation to the TP precipitation are 33%–41%, 36%–39%, 35%–38%, and 51%–54% in spring, summer, autumn, and winter, respectively. In spring and autumn (Figure 1g and i), the relative contribution decreases gradually from the ~~southwestern-and-southern and southwestern ern parts-TP~~ to the central-north~~ern~~ TP. In summer (Figure 1h), the relative contributions exhibits a roughly a zonal-latitude distribution, with the 50% isoline located between 25°N and 30°N and the 30% isoline between 30°N and 35°N. This pattern is distinct from that of ~~the~~ absolute contribution featured by ~~the~~ oceanic moisture ~~concentrates-concentrating~~ around the southeastern TP. It is also notable that the west~~ern~~most TP (~~the Pamir region~~) shows the lowest relative contribution from oceans in summer; ~~in comparison with that in other seasons, which~~ This indicates a more active role ~~of the that terrestrial land surface~~ evapotranspiration ~~plays in the TP precipitation in the region~~ during the monsoon season.

The largest contrast between ~~the~~ absolute and relative contributions occurs in winter ~~when~~: the absolute contribution reaches the lowest level ~~but-while the~~ relative contribution ~~the highest peaks~~. Based on ~~the~~ backward tracking of seasonal precipitation sources ~~of-for~~ the entire TP (Figure S5), ~~in winter~~, the moisture contribution from the westerlies-dominated oceans (the Mediterranean, the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, and even the Atlantic) is much higher than that from the cold and dry Eurasian continent (Figure S5d–f) ~~in winter (Figure S4)~~. ~~Although the Mediterranean, the Red Sea, and the Persian Gulf are much smaller than the Atlantic, their moisture contribution to the TP precipitation is non-negligible. In fact, the total contributions of these three oceanic source regions can be greater than that of the Atlantic during both the monsoon and non-monsoon seasons (Table S3). In winter, The~~ the westerlies push the 50% isoline of ~~the~~ relative ~~oceanic~~ contribution eastward to the mid-east~~ern~~ TP, with the relative contribution well above 30% for the entire TP. ~~The~~ ~~The observed~~ spatial patterns ~~on annual and seasonal scales observed here~~ are ~~robust-also consistent among simulations driven by different reanalysis datasets (across different simulations, as shown in Figures S2-S3 and S3S4)~~. Figure 2a shows a thorough comparison of ~~monthly contributions among different simulations~~. ~~Seasonally (Figure 2a),~~ the absolute and relative ~~oceanic~~ contributions are in general out of phase; ~~and characterized by~~ high ~~relative-(absolute (relative) contributions~~ in winter (summer (winter) and low ~~relative-(absolute (relative) contributions~~ in summer (winter (summer), ~~no matter which reanalysis dataset is used,~~ ~~despite the enormous Indian moisture transported by the ISM in summer (Figure 2e)~~.

### 3.2 Oceanic mMoisture contributions from different oceans

The backward tracking of precipitation ~~of-for~~ the ~~entire~~ TP ~~region~~ shows ~~that~~ the moisture sources could extend far west to the Atlantic as driven by the mid-latitude westerlies and far south to the south~~ern~~ Indian Ocean as dominated by the monsoon system (Figure S4S6a–c). Given the importance of the ~~interactions between the~~ westerlies and the ISM in

determining the TP's climate and hydrologic cycle (Xu et al., 2008; Yao et al., 2013; Curio and Scherer, 2016; Yao et al., 2018), we divide the major oceanic source regions into the western oceans part (WO, ~~contains including~~ the Mediterranean, the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, and the east~~ern~~ Atlantic) and the Indian Ocean part (IO), as shown in Figure ~~S4d~~S6d.

Annually, ~~t~~The absolute contribution of moisture from the WO decreases from above 100 mm along the west~~ern~~ and south~~ern~~ TP to below-around 20 mm in the central and northeast~~ern~~ TP (Figure 3a). Seasonally (Figure 3b-e), in addition to most parts of the west~~ern~~ TP ~~in spring and winter during the non-monsoon seasons,~~ the WO ~~also substantially contributes to the precipitation in the southern TP-the southwestern edge of the TP, particularly~~ in spring and ~~the southwestern edge of the TP in summer,~~ is also substantially influenced by the moisture transported from the WO (Figures 3b-e). In comparison, the relative contribution gradually weakens from the northwest to the southeast of the TP on both annual and seasonal scales (Figure 3f), ~~and in all seasons except summer~~ (Figures 3f-jg, i, and j). This is consistent with the prevailing orographic precipitation dominated by westerly moisture transport and the zonal movement of the westerlies (Curio and Scherer, 2016). However, the relative contribution ~~of moisture from of the~~ WO ~~decreases-drops~~ to below 10% over the entire TP in summer, because the outbreaking of the ISM and the enhanced evapotranspiration from the wetting Eurasian continent dominate the available moisture over the TP (Figures S1aS5a-c). For the ~~intra-annual~~monthly (~~monthly~~) variations in of the WO moisture contributions to the ~~entire~~ TP precipitation (Figure 2b), the absolute and relative contributions exhibit a phase shift of about three months, with the high absoluterelative (relativeabsolute) contribution in spring (winter) and the low absoluterelative (relativeabsolute) contribution in autumn (summer).

~~From~~ Considering both absolute and relative contributions to the regional precipitation, the moisture contribution of the IO is significantly higher than that of the WO in perspectives, ~~the moisture contribution~~ most parts of the TP ~~from IO~~ (Figure 4) is significantly higher than that from WO, except in-for the most north~~west~~ern most TP. Consistent Along with the onset and retreat of the ISM, the absolute contribution from the IO exceeds 500 mm in-during summer in the southeast~~ern~~most TP and falls to below 100 mm in-during winter nearly over the entire TP (Figures 4b-e). The relative contribution from the IO exhibits roughly a latitudinal gradient zonal distribution on annual scale (Figure 4f), with the 30% and 10% isolines located around-in the south~~ern~~ and north~~ern~~ TP, respectively. This zonal pattern is consistentlasts from spring to autumn (Figures 4g-i), ~~which~~ indicates a dynamic balance between the IO moisture contribution and the total moisture convergence during ~~this-the~~ period. ~~However,~~ tThis synchronism is largely broken in winter with-when the highest level of the relative IO contribution from the IO shifting-shifts from the southeastern to the south~~west~~ernmost TP (Figure 4j), with most, ~~and this~~ IO moisture is mainly from the Arabian Sea (Figures S1dS5d-f). In fact, in the westerlies-dominated winter, the IO is still the major oceanic moisture source in-of the precipitation in the ~~south~~ern TP, while the WO is the dominating oceanic moisture source for the western and northern TP, ~~but the dominating oceanic source shifts to the WO in the western and northern TP.~~ For the monthly variations of the IO moisture contributions ~~to the entire TP~~ (Figure 2c), the absolute contribution reaches its maximum in summer owing to the significantly enhanced ISM, whereas the relative contribution



peaks in both summer and winter. ~~Additional the absolute and relative contributions both exhibit summer peaks, however, an opposite pattern is also found in winter when the relative contribution at a high level but the absolute contribution a low level.~~ Simulations based on MERRA-2 and JRA-55 ~~datasets also both~~ suggest similar spatial patterns of moisture contribution from ~~different oceans~~ ~~WO and IO~~ (Figures ~~S5S7–810~~).

### ~~3.3 Absolute contribution~~ **Long-term trends of oceanic moisture contribution to the TP precipitation explains precipitation changes**

Figure 5 shows the annual trends of oceanic moisture contribution to the TP precipitation during 1979/1980–2015 estimated based on three simulations (driven by ERA-Interim, MERRA-2, and JRA-55). Despite some spatial discrepancies, all three simulations reveal a rough dipole pattern spanning from the southeastern TP to the central-northern TP. The most notable area is the Brahmaputra Canyon region, the most important moisture transport channel for the TP (*Hren et al., 2009*), which has gone through the most significant decrease in oceanic moisture contribution. Specifically, the moisture contribution from both the monsoon-dominated IO and the westerlies-dominated WO show decreasing trends in the Brahmaputra Canyon region (Figure S11). Despite the enhanced evaporation from most oceanic source regions during 1979–2015 (Figure 6a), this oceanic moisture may loss significantly due to the increased precipitation sink along the moisture transport pathway before reaching the target region, for example, when traveling across the Indian Subcontinent and the Bay of Bengal (Figure 6b). In addition, we observe significantly weakened eastward and northward winds in the lower atmosphere (700 hPa) around the Brahmaputra Canyon (Figure 7), suggesting that less moisture may transport through the region in the lower atmosphere. Meanwhile, we also observe significantly weakened upward motion in the region, which further verifies the weakened moisture convergence around the Brahmaputra Canyon region.

Regional precipitation is ~~fueled~~ **fueled** by moisture that is either transported directly from oceans or recycled from lands (*Gimeno et al., 2020a*). In most cases, oceanic moisture contributes to less than 50% of the total precipitation in the TP (except for the southeasternmost TP in summer and the western TP in winter; Figure 1). Compared with the relative contribution of oceanic moisture, the absolute contribution of oceanic moisture (especially that from the IO) exhibits a spatial pattern highly consistent with precipitation distributions over the TP on both annual and seasonal scales (Figure S12). Previous studies have demonstrated that the precipitation seasonality over the TP is determined jointly by ~~Actually, the spatial pattern of absolute oceanic moisture contribution (especially from the IO), rather than the relative contribution, is highly consistent with precipitation distribution (derived from GPCC(Schneider et al., 2018)) over the TP region on both annual and seasonal scales (Figure S9). This is consistent with the consensus that the zonal movement of the westerlies and the onset and retreat of the ISM, suggesting the potential connections between oceanic moisture contributions and precipitation dynamics dominate precipitation seasonality over the TP(Xu et al., 2014; Curio et al., 2015; Yao et al., 2018). Indeed, the long-term (1979–2015) trends of precipitation and oceanic moisture contributions have similar dipole patterns (e.g., decreased precipitation in the Brahmaputra Canyon region but increased precipitation in the central-northern TP)~~

(Figures 5 and 6b). To examine whether the decreased precipitation around the Brahmaputra Canyon region is mainly due to the changes in oceanic moisture contributions, we carried out additional backward moisture tracking simulations for the southeastern TP region (SETP) (Figure S13a). The SETP roughly covers areas dominated by the decrease in both precipitation and absolute oceanic moisture contribution (the blue rectangle in Figure 5). As shown in Figure S13b, the moisture contributions of both the westerlies-dominated western sources and the ISM-dominated southern sources to the SETP decreased over time, and most source regions with substantial decreases are over land. Meanwhile, only few areas in the southwestern slope of the Himalayas and the southwestern corner of the TP show enhanced moisture contribution to the precipitation in the SETP. Although the similar dipole patterns are likely attributable to the interactions between the ISM and the TP, as suggested in *In fact, Jiang and Ting (2017)*, more thorough analyses of the land-atmosphere interactions with physics-based models at higher spatial resolution are still needed to better understand these interactions and their response to climate change.

~~have found a similar dipole pattern of summer precipitation across the southern slope of Himalayas and the central north TP, and they attributed this to the interactions between the ISM and the TP. Here we further reveal that this dipole pattern is driven by the changes in oceanic moisture contribution (particularly from IO). To quantify the impacts of oceanic moisture contribution changes on the inter-annual variability of TP precipitation, we analyze the time series correlations between GPCP precipitation and multi-datasets-based oceanic moisture contributions during 1979/1980–2015 (Figure S10). Consistently significant positive correlations ( $p < 0.05$ ) are found only for absolute contributions of moisture from total ocean sources and IO. However, large discrepancies in the time series and trends of annual oceanic contributions exist among different reanalysis products (Figure S11); similar discrepancy has been suggested in previous studies on long-term variations of hydrological cycle over the TP (Wang and Zeng, 2012; Li et al., 2019). This discrepancy is further exemplified by the patterns of relative oceanic contribution trends among different datasets (Figure S12). Nevertheless, consistency in spatial patterns of absolute oceanic contribution trends is observed across different forcing datasets, which is in good agreement with precipitation trends derived from the GPCP during the same period over the TP (Figure 5).~~

~~A significant decreasing trend of oceanic moisture contribution is found over much of the southeastern TP in all three simulations (Figures 5a–c), although the simulation based on ERA-Interim yields a relatively smaller region with decreasing signals than based on the other two datasets. These decreasing trends further extend northwestward along the southern slope of the Himalayas and the Pamirs, especially in the simulation based on JRA-55. Meanwhile, the increasing trends of oceanic moisture contribution mainly appear in the central northern TP. The contrasting spatial pattern of absolute moisture contribution trends matches well with the precipitation change in the TP (Figure 5d). Similar consistency is also observed for absolute moisture contribution from IO (Figure S13). In fact, Jiang and Ting (2017) have found a similar dipole pattern of summer precipitation across the southern slope of Himalayas and the central north TP, and they attributed this to the interactions between the ISM and the TP. Here we further reveal that this dipole pattern is driven by the changes in oceanic moisture contribution (particularly from IO).~~

### 330 3.4 Relative contribution of oceanic moisture associateds with the patterns of water isotopes

Based on numerous precipitation isotopic observations and ice-core records since the 1990s, previous studies have identified three distinct climate regions/~~domains~~ in the TP, as ~~determined-governed~~ by the westerlies (northern~~ern~~ TP; hereafter westerlies domain), the ISM (southern~~ern~~ TP; hereafter monsoon domain), and their interactions (hereafter transition domain) (Tian et al., 2007; Joswiak et al., 2013; Yao et al., 2013). Theoretically, ~~the~~-moisture delivered by the ISM tends to  
335 have relatively low isotope values due to strong convection activities along its transport paths, whereas ~~the~~-moisture delivered by the westerlies in general has relatively high isotope values (Bowen et al., 2019; Cai and Tian, 2020). Here we further investigate the relationships between the ~~quantified-simulated~~ oceanic moisture contributions and precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  observations at 19 monitoring stations over the TP (Figures ~~6-8~~ and ~~Figures~~ S14–17).

Compared with other oceanic moisture contributions, the relative contribution of oceanic moisture from the IO is strongly correlated with precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (Figure 8), and nearly all stations show negative correlations (Table S4). ~~The strongest relationship is found between precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and relative oceanic moisture contribution from IO (Figure 6).~~ In the monsoon domain, ~~the~~- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  is high in spring and low in summer (note that the ~~revised~~- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  axes are revised), and correspondingly, the relative contribution from the IO is low in spring and high in summer. In comparison, in the westerlies  
345 domain, high  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  ~~values-are~~ associated with ~~low~~ relative contributions from the IO during the monsoon season, ~~whereas~~ while low  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  ~~values-are~~ associated with high relative contributions from the IO during ~~other-the~~ non-monsoon seasons. In the transition domain, the seasonal cycles of ~~the~~- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and the relative contribution from the IO are in an intermediate state between the monsoon domain and the westerlies domain. Note the mismatches between the summer peaks of the relative moisture contribution from the IO and the low  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values in autumn at Lulang, Nuxia, and Bomi stations near the  
350 Brahmaputra Canyon, which ~~is-is~~ likely attributable due to the impact of the moisture transported from Ssoutheast Asia or the Pacific Ocean driven by the trough embedded in the south~~ern~~ branch of the westerlies (Cai and Tian, 2020). Additional backward moisture tracking of the monthly moisture sources for the SETP (which covers Lulang, Nuxia, and Bomi stations) also suggests that the moisture sources gradually extend to Southeast Asia and the western Pacific Ocean during June and September (Figure S18).

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Except for several sites in the southern~~ern~~most TP, our results ~~confirms~~ the theory that a higher percentage of oceanic moisture contribution from the ISM-dominated IO ~~indicates-is associated with~~ a lower precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  value over the TP. As for the relative contribution from the westerlies-~~dominated~~ WO (Figure S15), ~~and~~ the absolute contributions from ~~both-the~~ WO  
360 (Figure S16), and the absolute contribution from the IO (Figure S17), their relationships with the water isotope ratios are much weaker. Based on the seasonality of water isotope ratios, previous studies have ~~also~~ identified a northern~~ern~~most boundary ~~of the ISM's impact~~ around  $34^{\circ}$ – $35^{\circ}\text{N}$  for the impact of the ISM on over the TP, where the Tanggula Mmountains

represent ~~serve as the a~~ main orographic barrier (Tian et al., 2007; Joswiak et al., 2013; Yao et al., 2013). Quantitatively, this geographical barrier ~~of the monsoon system~~ reflected in water isotope ratios ~~is closely in general~~ aligned with the 10%–20% isoline of the relative contribution from ~~the IO~~ and ~~the~~ 20%–30% isoline of the absolute oceanic moisture contribution in summer (Figure 4h).

#### 5.4 Conclusions and discussion

From the perspectives of absolute and relative contributions, this work quantifies the oceanic evaporation contributions to ~~the~~ precipitation over the TP region. After crossing the surrounding mountain ranges of the TP, the absolute (relative) contribution of moisture from global oceans rapidly decreases from more than 1000 mm (50%) around the Brahmaputra Canyon ~~region~~ to only about 100 mm (10%) in the central-northern TP. However, substantial variations in the spatial patterns exist ~~at-on~~ the seasonal scale. For example, the highest absolute contribution of oceanic evaporation to the TP precipitation occurs in the southeast ~~in-during~~ summer, while the highest relative contribution occurs in the western TP ~~in~~ during winter. Specifically, previous studies primarily focused on oceanic moisture contributions ~~of the monsoon-dominated Indian Ocean~~ to the TP precipitation ~~from the monsoon-dominated Indian Ocean~~ (Xu et al., 2008; Yao et al., 2013). In contrast, our results highlight that the westerlies-dominated oceans, such as the Mediterranean, the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, and even the Atlantic, are also important source ~~regions of-for~~ the TP precipitation, especially during the non-monsoon seasons.

In addition, we found that the absolute contribution of oceanic moisture, ~~when compared with relative contribution~~, is more consistent with ~~the~~ precipitation ~~in terms of spatial~~ patterns, while the relative contribution to some extent reflects the variations of precipitation isotopes. Especially, the spatial pattern of trends in ~~the~~ absolute oceanic moisture contributions (particularly from ~~the IO~~) ~~explains-reflects~~ the dipole pattern of precipitation change across the Brahmaputra Canyon ~~regionsouthern slope of the Himalayas~~ and the central-northern TP. Meanwhile, the seasonal variations of relative contribution from ~~the IO~~ are generally out of phase with ~~the~~ precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  over much of the TP in ~~different-all three~~ climate domains. We acknowledge that beyond the influence from moisture sources, precipitation is also ~~jointly-collectively~~ affected by multiple synoptic and climate factors and so are the precipitation isotopes (Dansgaard, 1964; Galewsky et al., 2016; Bowen et al., 2019). Nevertheless, this work systematically quantifies the oceanic moisture contributes to the vast TP, and provides new insights into the influence of oceanic moisture contribution on water cycle and water isotope records in ~~the~~ ~~this~~ region. Future studies on multi-source ~~and multi-process~~ moisture transport are expected to further enrich our understanding of ~~the~~ paleoclimate proxy records and global-warming-induced water resource changes over the TP—the “Asia water tower” and the core area of the Belt and Road Initiative.

## Data availability

395 The ERA-Interim dataset can be downloaded from the official website of the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather  
Forecasts (ECMWF): <https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era-interim> (ECMWF, 2017). The  
MERRA-2 dataset is available at <https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/reanalysis/MERRA-2/> (NASA Goddard Earth Sciences Data  
and Information Services Center, 2018), which is managed by the Goddard Earth Sciences Data and Information Services  
Center (GES DISC), National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). The JRA-55 product was developed by the  
Japan Meteorological Agency and can be downloaded from <https://jra.kishou.go.jp/> (Japan Meteorological Agency, 2018).  
400 The ERA5 dataset can be downloaded from the Copernicus Climate Change Service (C3S) Climate Data Store (CDS):  
<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/> (Copernicus Climate Change Service CDS, 2021). The TNIP  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  data can be downloaded  
from the National Tibetan Plateau/Third Pole Environment Data Center: <http://data.tpsc.ac.cn> (National Tibetan Plateau  
Data Center, 2021). The code of WAM-2layers (v2.4.08) is available at <https://github.com/ruudvdent/WAM2layersPython>  
(van der Ent, 2022). The data generated in this study are available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request.  
405 ~~The ERA-Interim dataset can be downloaded from the official website of the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather~~  
~~Forecasts (ECMWF; <https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era-interim>). The MERRA-2 dataset is~~  
~~available from <https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/reanalysis/MERRA-2/>, which is managed by the Goddard Earth Sciences Data and~~  
~~Information Services Center (GES DISC), National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). The JRA-55 product~~  
410 ~~precipitation dataset is operated by Deutscher Wetterdienst (DWD) under the auspices of the World Meteorological~~  
~~Organization (WMO), and can be downloaded from <https://www.dwd.de/EN/ourservices/gpcc/gpcc.html>. The TNIP  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$~~   
~~data is provided by the National Tibetan Plateau Data Center (-).~~

## Author contribution

415 YL and CW conceptualized the study. YL carried out numerical simulations, conducted formal analysis, ~~and~~ prepared  
figures, and wrote the initial draft. YL, CW, and RH contributed to the visualization of results. All authors contributed to the  
review and editing of the manuscript.

## Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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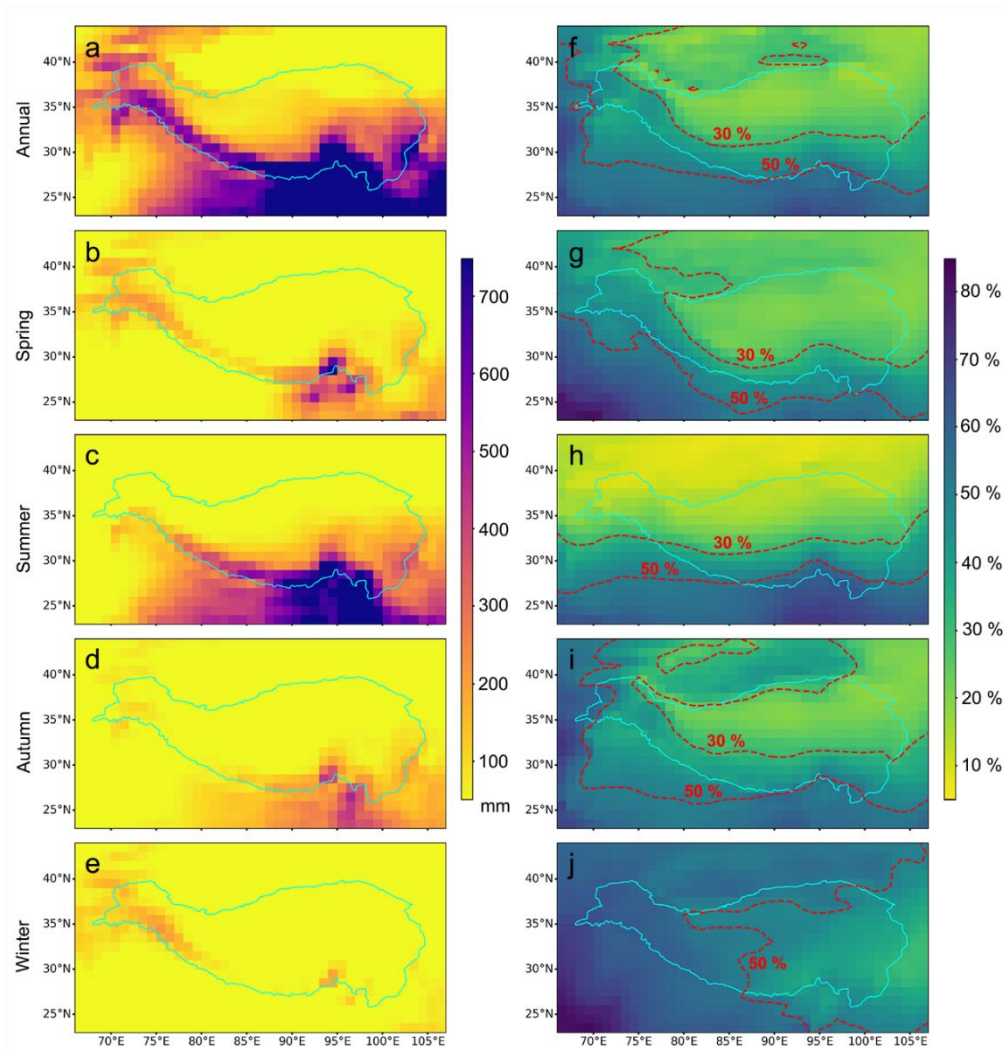
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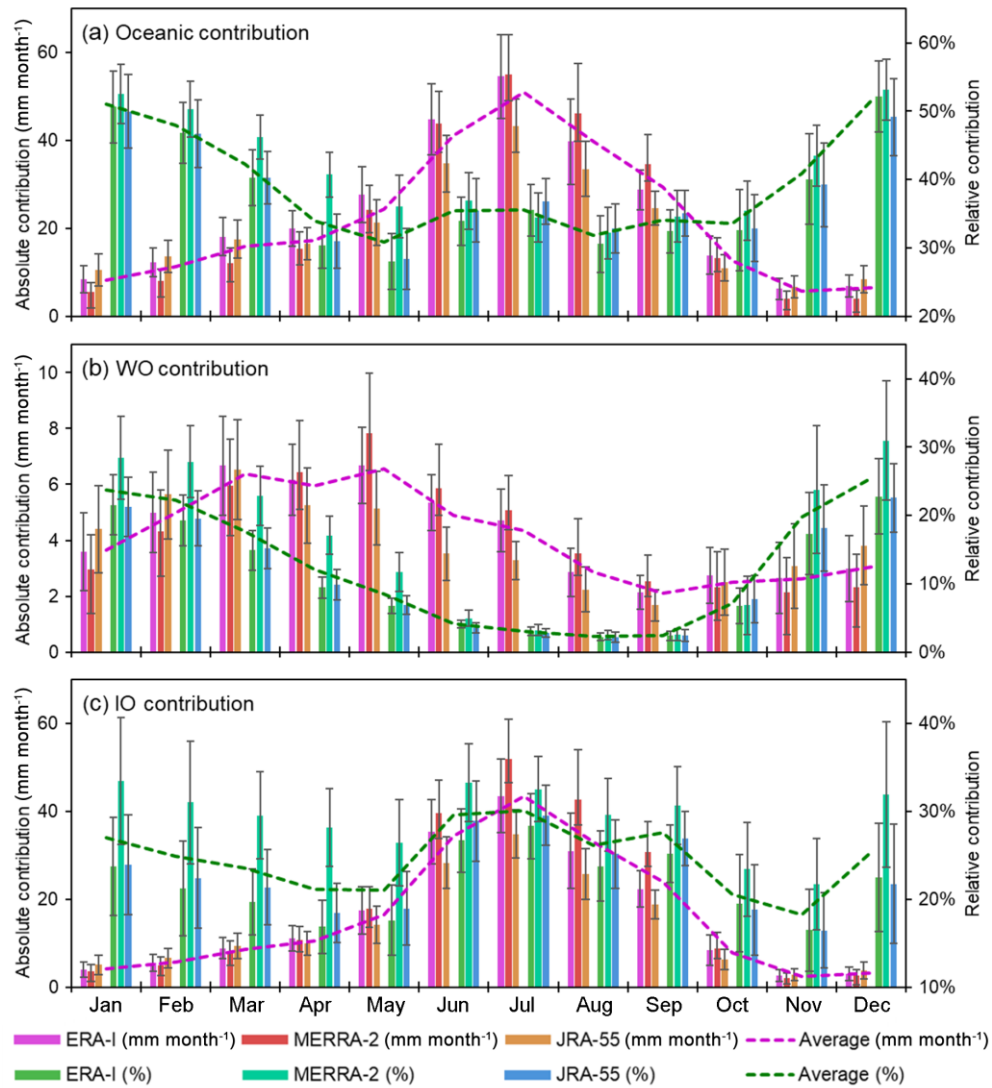


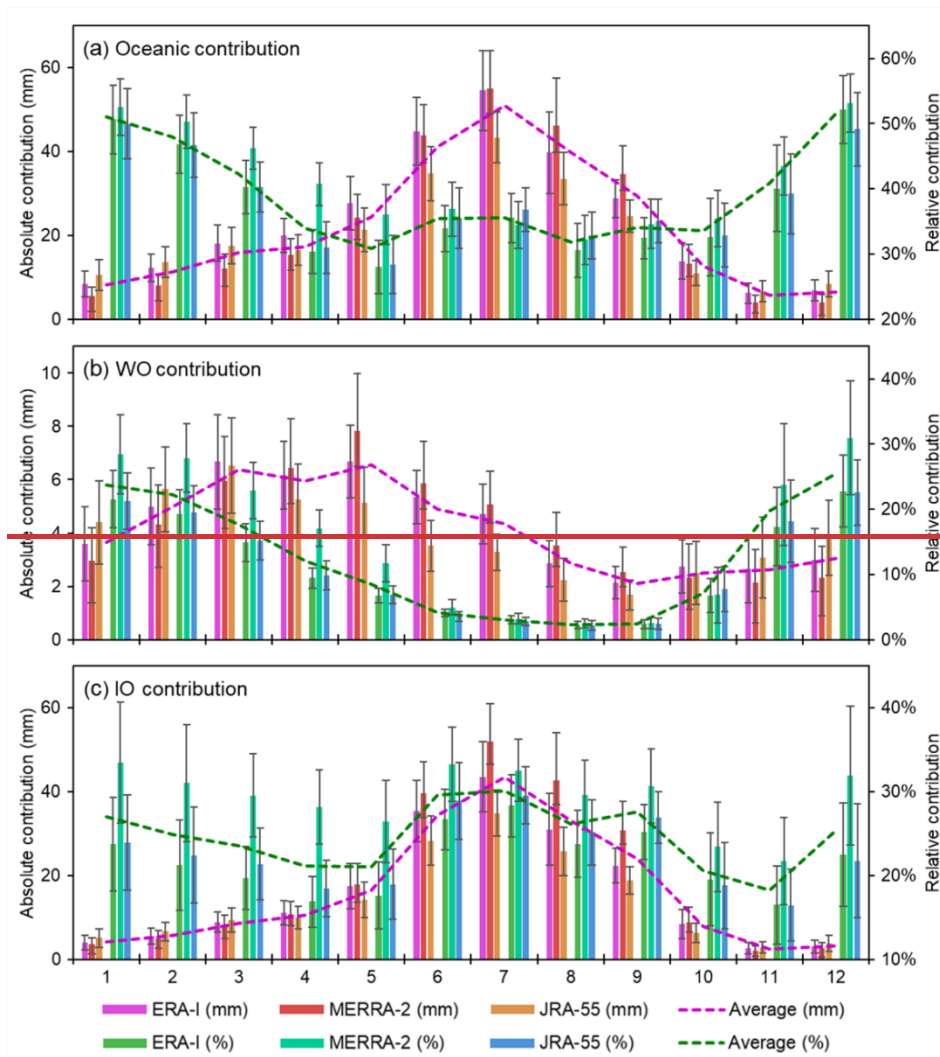
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## Figures

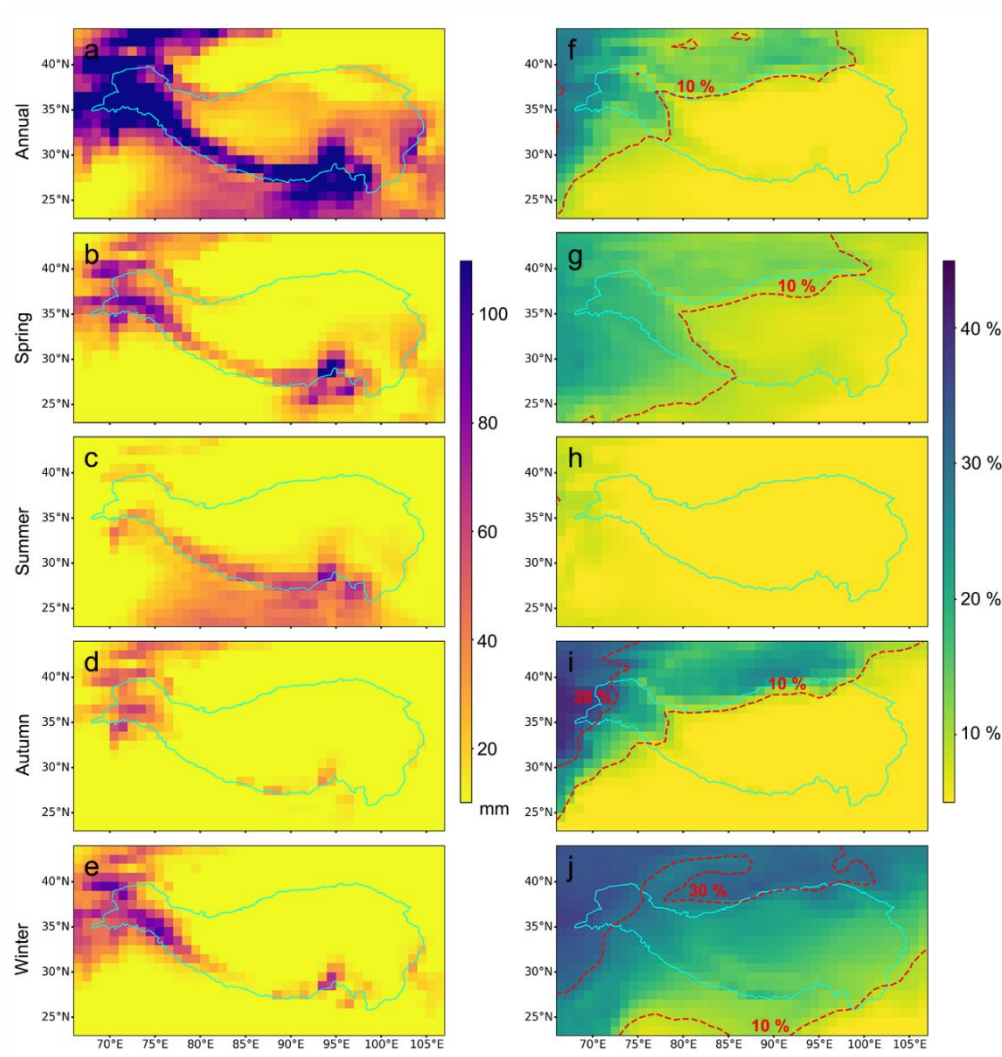


**Figure 1:** Spatial distributions of long-term mean absolute and relative oceanic moisture contributions to the TP precipitation. (a–e) The absolute contribution from global oceans to the TP region (mm, equivalent water height) on annual ( $\text{mm year}^{-1}$ ) and seasonal ( $\text{mm season}^{-1}$ ) scales. (f–j) The relative contribution of oceanic moisture to the TP region (% , the percentage of oceanic contribution relative to total moisture convergence) on annual and seasonal scales. Cyan lines represent the TP boundary, and dashed red lines in (f–j) are 30% and 50% isolines of the relative contribution. The forward moisture tracking results on global oceans are modeled by using WAM-2layers forced with driven by ERA-Interim average over during 1979–2015. Moisture-tracking results driven by MERRA-2 (1980–2015) and JRA-55 (1979–2015) are shown in Figures S2-S3 and S3-S4, respectively.

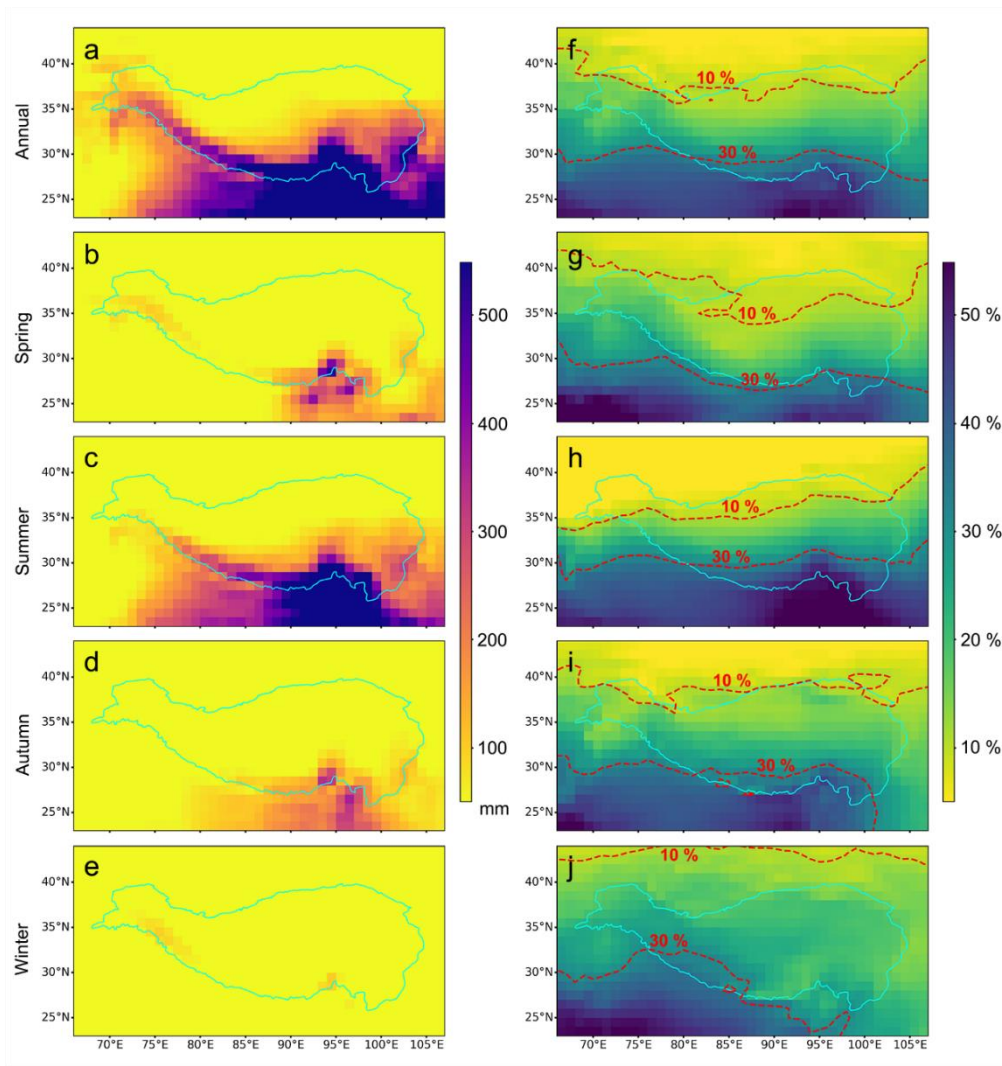




**Figure 2:** Intra-annual variations of long-term mean absolute and relative oceanic moisture contributions to the TP precipitation  
 600 precipitation. (a), (b), and (c) represent the oceanic-moisture contributes to the TP regions from the global oceans,  
the western oceans  
 (WO), and the Indian Ocean (IO), respectively. Pink, red, and yellow bars are absolute contributions (mm); and green, cyan, and blue bars  
 are relative contributions (%). All oceanic contributions are simulated using WAM-2layers driven by ERA-Interim (1979–2015),  
 MERRA-2 (1980–2015), and JRA-55 (1979–2015). Dashed pink and blue-green lines in (a–c) are three datasets average–absolute and  
 relative contributions, respectively, averaged across three simulations with different reanalysis datasets. Error bars represent one standard  
 605 deviation of the interannual variations.



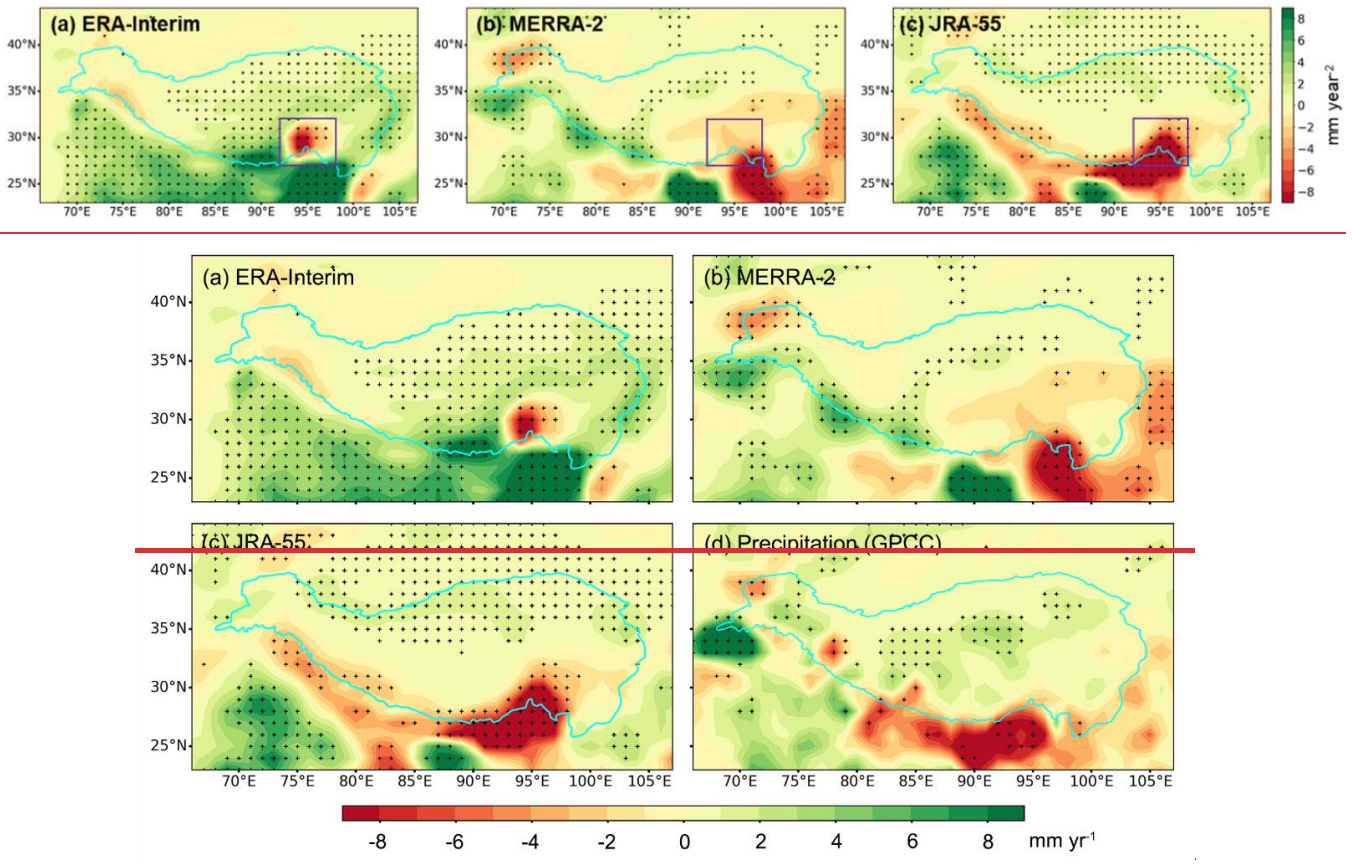
610 **Figure 3:** Spatial distributions of long-term mean absolute and relative moisture contribution from the western oceans (WO) to the TP precipitation. (a–e) The absolute contribution from the WO to the TP region (mm) on annual ( $\text{mm year}^{-1}$ ) and seasonal ( $\text{mm season}^{-1}$ ) scales. (f–j) The relative contribution of the WO moisture to the TP region (%) on annual and seasonal scales. The dashed red lines in (f–j) are 10% and 30% isolines of the relative contribution. The forward moisture tracking results on WO are modeled by using WAM-2layers forced driven by with ERA-Interim averaged over during 1979–2015. Moisture-tracking results driven by MERRA-2 (1980–2015) and JRA-55 (1979–2015) are shown in Figures S5–S7 and S6–S8, respectively.



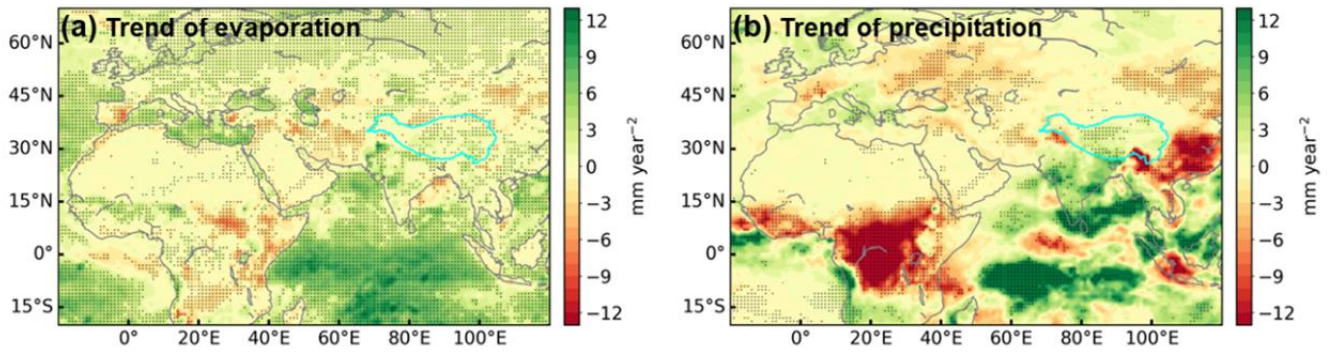
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**Figure 4:** Spatial distribution of long-term mean absolute and relative moisture contribution from the Indian Ocean (IO) to the TP precipitation. (a–e) The absolute contribution from the IO to the TP region (mm) on annual ( $\text{mm year}^{-1}$ ) and seasonal ( $\text{mm season}^{-1}$ ) scales. (f–j) The relative contribution of the IO moisture to the TP region (%) on annual and seasonal scales. The dashed red lines in (f–j) are 10% and 30% isolines of the relative contribution. The forward moisture tracking results on IO are modeled by WAM-2layers forced with ERA-Interim averaged over during 1979–2015. Moisture-tracking results driven by MERRA-2 (1980–2015) and JRA-55 (1979–2015) are shown in Figures S7-S9 and S8-S10, respectively.

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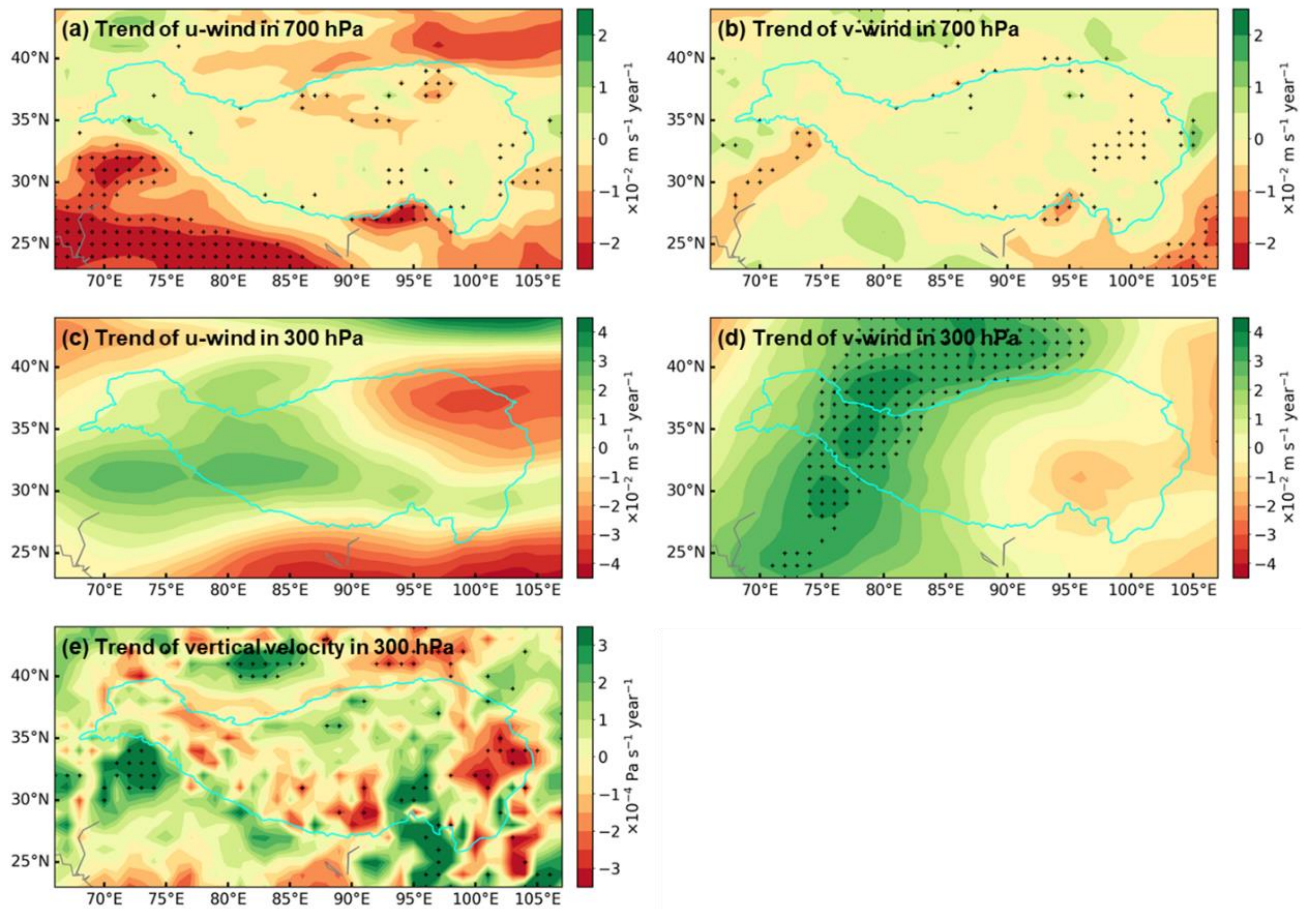


625 **Figure 5:** Long-term trends of oceanic moisture contribution ( $\text{mm yr}^{-1}$ ) to the precipitation over the TP region on the annual scale using (a) ERA-Interim (1979–2015), (b) MERRA-2 (1980–2015), and (c) JRA-55 (1979–2015). Stippling indicates regions with statistically significant trends ( $p < 0.05$ ).



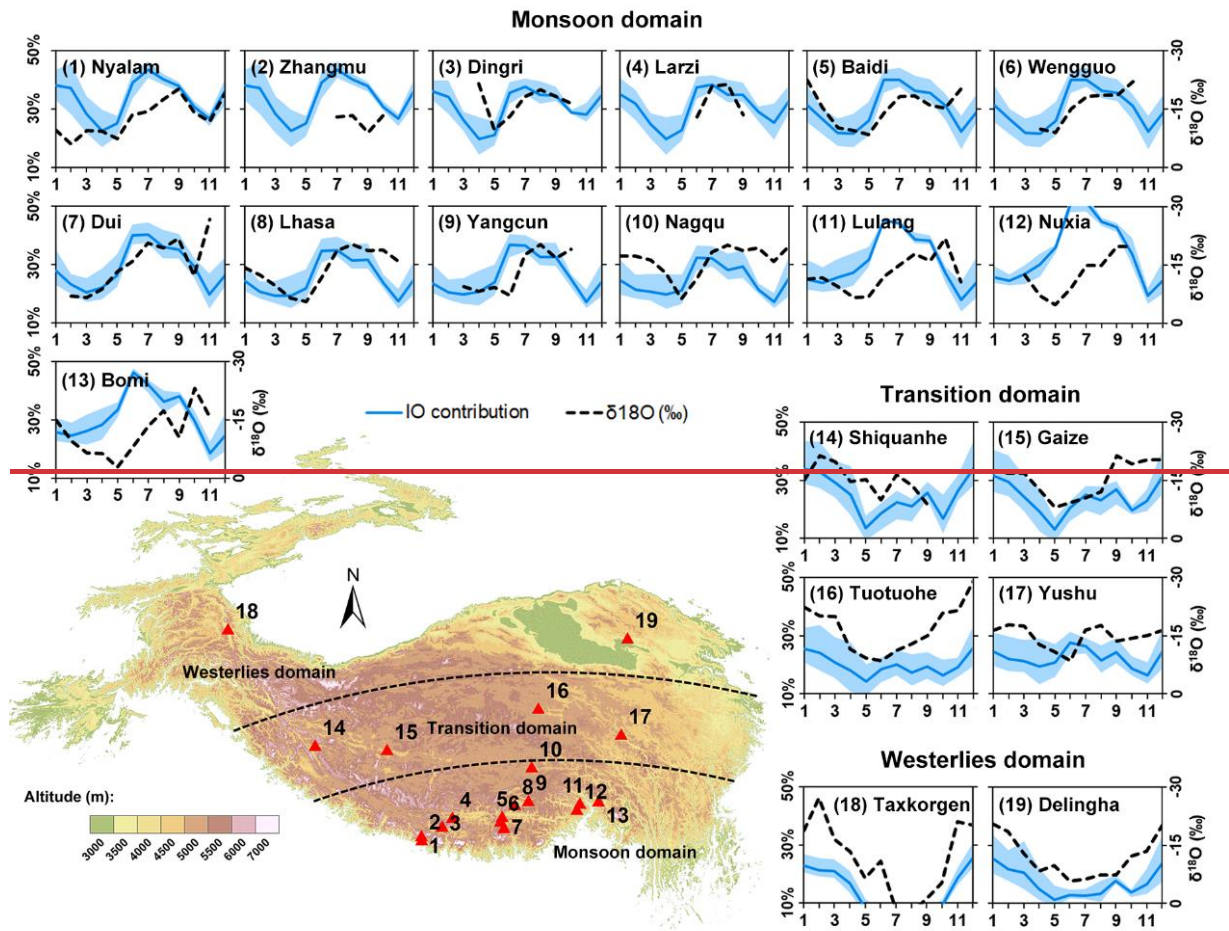
630 **Figure 6:** Long-term trends of annual (a) evaporation and (b) precipitation over possible source regions during 1979–2015. Stippling indicates regions with statistically significant trends ( $p < 0.05$ )

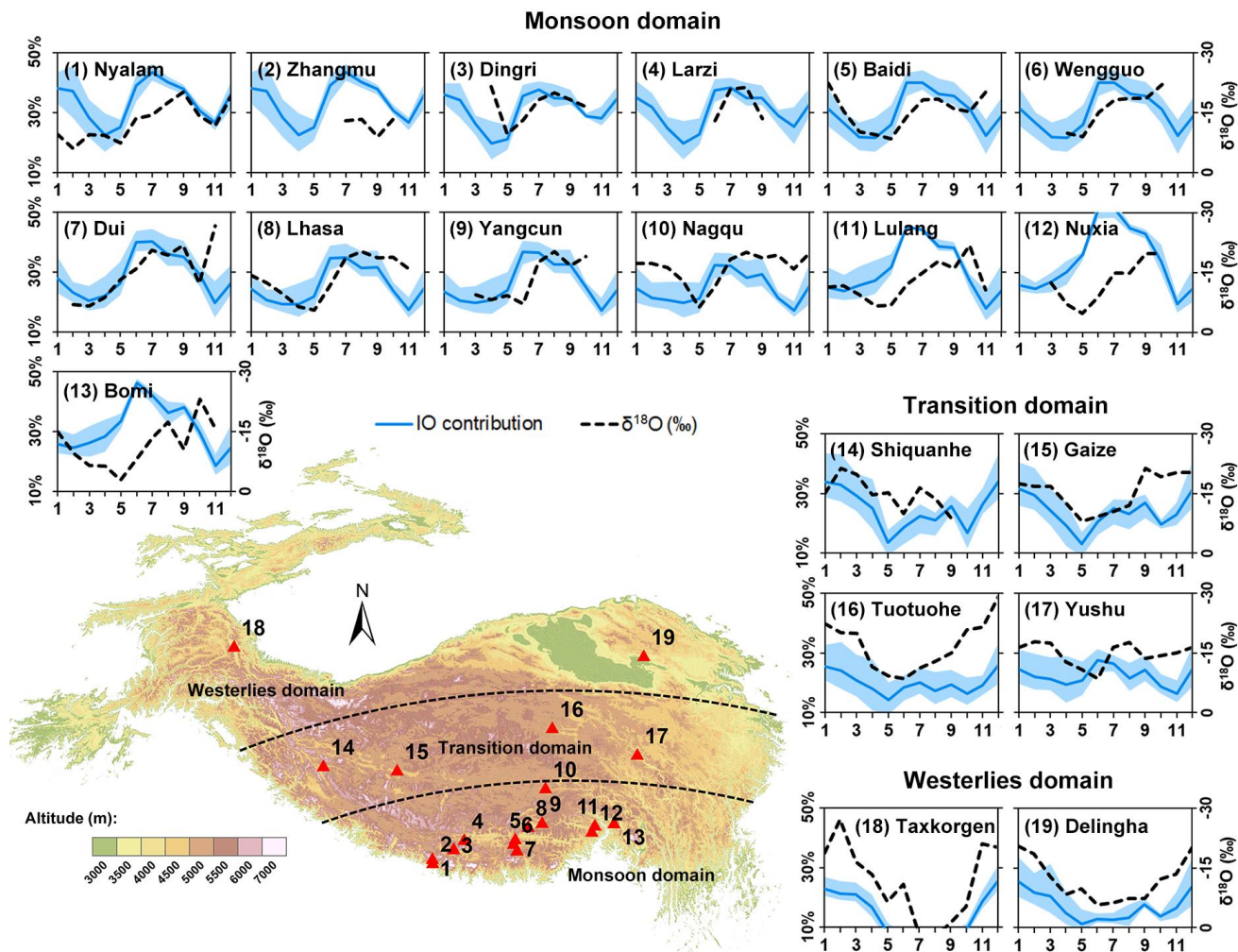




**Figure 7:** Long-term trends of annual (a) zonal (u) wind at 700 hPa (positive denotes enhanced eastward wind), (b) meridional (v) wind at 700 hPa (positive denotes enhanced northward wind), (c) zonal (u) wind at 300 hPa, (d) meridional (v) wind at 300 hPa, and (e) vertical velocity at 300 hPa (positive denotes decreased upward motion) around the TP region during 1979–2015. Stippling indicates regions with statistically significant trends ( $p < 0.05$ ). Note the negative values of vertical velocity indicate upward motion.

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**Figure 68:** Locations of the precipitation isotope monitoring stations and the relationship between the monthly relative IO moisture contributions of moisture from IO (blue lines) and the precipitation isotope observations (dotted lines). Sites 1–13, 14–17, and 18–19 represent stations located within the monsoon domain, transition domain, and westerlies domain, respectively. Blue lines show the mean IO moisture contributions based on three simulations, while the shadings show the range (detailed seasonal variations of three simulations are shown in Figure S14). Note that for consistency, oceanic contributions below 10% and above 50% are not shown for sites 12 and 18.

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