1	Understanding the Spatial Differences in Terrestrial Water Storage Variations in the Tibetan Plateau
2	from 2002 to 2016
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23 Abstract:

24	Climate change has been driving terrestrial water storage variations in the high mountains of Asia in
25	recent decades. This study is based on Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) data to
26	analyse spatial and temporal variations in terrestrial water storage (TWS) across the Tibetan Plateau (TP)
27	from April 2002 to December 2016. Regional averaged TWS anomaly has increased by 0.20 mm/month
28	(p<0.01) during the 2002-2012 period, but decreased by -0.68 mm/month (p<0.01) since 2012. The
29	seasonal variations in TWS anomalies also showed a decreasing trend from May 2012 to December 2016.
30	TWS variations in the TP also shown significant spatial differences, which is decreasing in southern TP
31	but increasing in the Inner TP. And a declining trend was clearly evident in the seasonal variability of
32	TWS anomalies in the south TP (about -30 to -55 mm/a), but increasing in the inner TP (about 10-35
33	mm/a). Meanwhile, this study links temperature/precipitation changes, glacial retreat, and lake area
34	expansion to explain the spatially differences in TWS. Results indicated that precipitation increases and
35	lake area expansion drove increasing TWS in the Inner TP during the 2002-2016 period, but temperature
36	increases and glacial retreat drove decreasing TWS in southern TP.
37	Key words: Terrestrial water storage; Climate change; Spatial difference; GRACE; Tibetan Plateau
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45 1 Introduction

46

47 (Immerzeel et al., 2010). Regional air temperature has increased by 0.039 °C/a during the last 50 years 48 (Deng et al., 2017), and the warming drives glacial retreat (Jacob et al., 2012; Yao et al., 2012; Neckel et 49 al., 2014). The rapid glacial retreat is also affected by other factors, such as atmospheric circulations (Yao 50 et al., 2012) and black soot (Xu et al., 2009). Meanwhile, a shorter snow cover duration (-3.5 \pm 1.2 51 days/decades) also with the plateau warming (Xu et al., 2017). As a result, many scholars have focused on the region's distinctive glacial and snow melt-related features, such as terrestrial water storage (TWS) 52 53 variations (Matsuo and Kosuke, 2010; Song et al., 2015), lake area expansion (Zhang et al., 2013; Song 54 et al., 2015), and runoff changes (Sorg et al., 2012; Lutz et al., 2014; Khadka et al., 2014). 55 The Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) satellite mission were launched in March 2002. 56 It monitors monthly variations in Earth's gravitational field to determine the planet's surface mass 57 changes (Wahr et al., 1998). Since GRACE satellites launch, the data have been widely used in 58 hydrological research to i) estimate global and regional TWS variations (Syed et al., 2008; Long et al., 59 2015); ii) estimate evapotranspiration by evaluating the modelled evapotranspiration on a basin scale 60 through the estimation of results (Rodell et al., 2004; Ramillien et al., 2006); iii) monitor drought by 61 assimilating results to improve drought detection (Houborg et al., 2012; Long et al., 2013); iv) measure 62 groundwater depletion, such as the analysis of groundwater changes in the northwest Indies, which 63 showed groundwater depletion at a rate of 4 cm/a (Rodell, 2009); and v) estimate the mass balance of 64 glaciers, as was done in the Antarctic (Chen et al., 2006), Greenland (Jin and Zou, 2015), and high Asia 65 (Matsuo and Heki, 2010). Therefore, GRACE data now serves as a new data source for hydrological

The Tibetan Plateau (TP) region is rich in water resources and is strongly impacted by climate change

66 research.

67	The Tibetan Plateau region serves as Asia's water tower (Immerzeel et al., 2010), and all rivers in the
68	surrounding region originate there. Thus, the TP is very important to the ecological environment as well
69	as to the economic development of the downstream regions. Previous studies indicated a negative glacial
70	mass balance in the TP between 2003 and 2009/2010 (Matsuo and Heki, 2010; Jacob et al., 2012). Yi
71	and Sun (2014) pointed out that there were positive glacial changes of about 30 Gt/a in the Inner TP
72	during 2003-2012. Recent studies also indicate that TWS shows a decreasing trend in the middle
73	Himalayas (-20 mm/a) but an increasing trend in the Inner TP (9.7 mm/a) during the period 2003-2012
74	(Guo et al., 2016). So why has TWS increased in the Inner TP but decreased in the southern TP? Zhang
75	et al. (2013) suggested that lake area expansion in the Inner TP can explain 61% of the increasing mass.
76	Precipitation changes have also affected TWS variations in the TP (Yi and Sun, 2014). However, current
77	studies lack a systematic and comprehensive analysis of spatial differences in TWS in the TP during
78	recent climate changes.
79	In this study, we focus on spatially differences in TWS variations in the TP during the 2002-2016 period.
80	First, we describes the temporal and spatial variations in terrestrial water storage in the TP based on
81	GRACE data. Second, we determine impact factors of the spatial differences in TWS in the TP. Section
82	2 describes the study area, data, and methods. Section 3 presents the results, section 4 provides detailed
83	discussions, and section 5 presents the conclusions.
84	2 Data and Methods
85	2.1 Study area
86	The Tibetan Plateau is located in the southwest of China. It lies between Central and East Asia, and is
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- 87 largely defined as lying between 25°-39°N, and 70°-106°E (Fig. S1). The average elevation of the TP
- 88 exceeds 4,000 m, which is why it is sometimes referred to as "the roof of the world" or the "third pole".

89	Furthermore, it has nearly as many glaciers and glacial areas as Antarctica and Greenland (Yao et al.,
90	2012). The Tibetan Plateau is the headwater area of most rivers in the surrounding regions, including the
91	Yellow River, the Yangtze, the Brahmaputra, the Ganges, and the Indus. The Inner TP is an exorheic
92	drainage basin and the southern TP is an endorheic drainage basin (Fig.S1). The TP has a typical plateau
93	climate (Table S1). The water vapor in this region is largely controlled by the India monsoon and the
94	East Asia monsoon (Yao et al., 2012), with annual precipitation measuring about 472 mm and mainly
95	occurring in summer (Table S1).

96 2.2 Data

97 2.2.1 Temperature and precipitation

98 We collected observational data from 87 meteorological stations from the Climate Data Center
99 (<u>http://data.cma.cn/</u>). Most stations are located in the southeastern portion of the Tibetan Plateau, while

- a few are in the northwest (Fig. S1). In this study, we analysed temperature and precipitation trends in
- 101 the TP using daily observation data.
- **102** 2.2.2 GRACE data
- 103 The GRACE data were provided by the Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL, available at
- 104 https://grace.jpl.nasa.gov/data/get-data/jpl global mascons/) of the California Institute of Technology.
- 105 In this study, the datasets are gridded at $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$, and the time range is from April 2002 to December
- 106 2016. Data were missing for 17 months (i.e., June and July 2002; January and June 2011; May and
- 107 October 2012; March, August, and September 2013; February and December 2014; June, October, and
- 108 November 2015; and April, September, and October 2016), and were therefore interpolated based on
- Long's method (Long et al., 2015).
- 110 2.2.3 GLDAS data

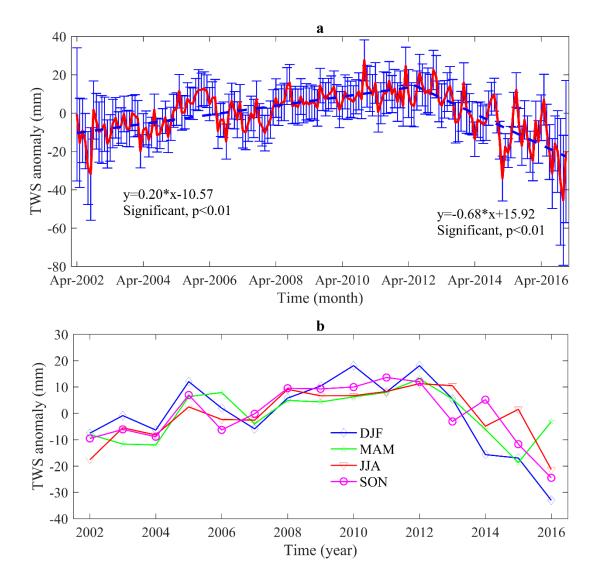
111	The Global Land and Data Assimilation System (GLDAS) products are based on satellite- and ground-
112	based observational data products, then using advanced land and surface modeling and data assimilation
113	techniques to generate optimal fields of land and surface states and fluxes (Rodell et al., 2004). The
114	systems included four land and surface models, namely Mosaic, Noah, the Community Land Model
115	(CLM), and the Variable Infiltration Capacity (VIC). In this paper, we selected runoff and evaporation
116	data from the GLDAS-Noah model products. The GLDAS-Noah model is provided on 0.25-degree
117	global grids (available at http://disc.sci.gsfc.nasa.gov/hydrology/data-holdings). Detailed information
118	about the GLDAS land surface model is given in Rodell et al. (2004).

- 119 2.3 Methods
- 120 2.3.1 Terrestrial water storage calculations

121 In this study, the Mascons approach (for details see Watkins et al., 2015) was used to calculate surface 122 mass change based on the Level-1 GRACE observations, processed at JPL. The characteristic of this 123 method is to helpful eliminate noise from outside the region of interest (ROI). The Earth's oblateness 124 scales (C20) coefficients were replaced in order to reduce uncertainty from the native GRACE-C20 125 values (Chen et al., 2005; Cheng et al., 2011). Meanwhile, the degree-1 coefficients were estimated using 126 the method from Swenson (2008). Then, a glacial isostatic adjustment (GIA) correction in the model 127 (Geruo and Wahr, 2013) was applied to remove glacial rebound effects, especially in mountains regions 128 and high latitude areas. The data anomalies base period is from January 2004 to December 2009, because 129 there are no missing values in this period. Finally, the scaling factors were applied to the data over the 130 study area, and the scale-corrected time series was calculated as follow:

- 131 g'(x, y, t) = g(x, y, t) * s(x, y) (1)
- 132 Where x is longitude, y is latitude, t is time (months), g(x,y,t) is the grid surface mass change value, and

- 133 the scaling grid is s(x,y). The scaling factors are provided by the JPL website
- 134 (https://grace.jpl.nasa.gov/data/get-data/jpl global mascons/). The uncertainty estimates approach in
- this study was described in Wahr et al., (2006).
- 136 The seasonal cycle of terrestrial water storage has been removed.
- 137 2.3.3 Trend test
- 138 The Mann-Kendall (MK) non-parametric trend test is a powerful trend detection method that is widely
- used in hydrology and meteorology time series analyses (Hirsch, 1984; Hamed, 1998; Yue, 2002; Hamed,
- 140 2008). In this study, the MK trend test was used to detect the trend of TWS, temperature, and precipitation.
- 141 The slope of the trend is estimated by using Sen's non-parametric trend estimator (Sen, 1968).
- 142 3 Results
- 143 3.1 Temporal and spatial variations in TWS
- 144 3.1.1 Temporal variations
- 145 The temporal variations in TWS anomalies were analysed for the Tibetan Plateau during the period from
- April 2002 to December 2016. The results (Fig. 1a) showed that a significant increasing trend of about
- 147 0.20 mm/month (p<0.01) from April 2002 to April 2012, but a decreasing trend from May 2012 to
- 148 December 2016, with a rate of around -0.68 mm/month (p<0.01). The results of seasonal variations in
- 149 TWS anomalies showed a decreasing trend from May 2012 to December 2016 (Fig. 1b).



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151 Figure 1a shows the temporal variations in TWS anomalies in the Tibetan Plateau from April 2002 to

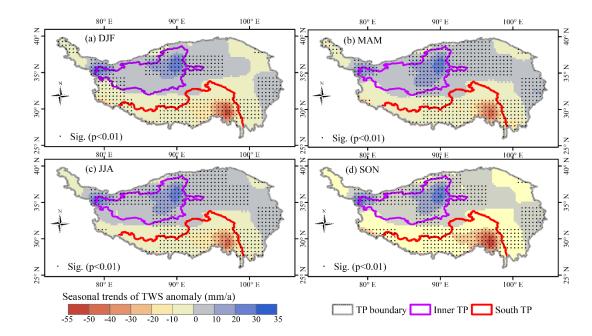
152 December 2016 (blue bar represents the uncertainty). Figure 1b illustrates seasonal changes of TWS (DJF,

153 MAM, JJA, and SON).

154 The results for seasonal variations in TWS anomalies indicate positive anomalies in DJF and MAM (Fig.

- 155 S2). There were negative anomalies in JJA and SON.
- 156 3.1.2 Spatial variations
- 157 The spatial variations in TWS anomalies indicate significant spatial differences in all seasons between
- 158 April 2002 and December 2016 (Fig. 2). A declining trend was clearly evident in the seasonal variability
- of TWS anomalies in the south TP (about -30 to -55 mm/a), but increasing in the inner TP (about 10-35

160 mm/a). The results also showed that TWS decreased in the Inner TP since 2012 (Fig.S3), which may be



161 due to rising temperature and increasing evaporation (Fig.S3).



163 Figure 2 Spatial variations in seasonal TWS anomalies in the Tibetan Plateau between April 2002 and

164 December 2016, with a spatial resolution of 0.5×0.5 degree; a is DJF, b is MAM, c is JJA, and d is SON.

165 TWS has increased in the full TP and the Inner TP between April 2002 and December 2016 by 0.002

- 166 mm/month, and 0.58 mm/month (p<0.01), respectively (Table 1). But TWS has decreased in the southern
- 167 TP by -0.62 mm/month (p<0.01) during this period.
- 168 Table 1 The TWS variations in the TP and sub regions (Inner TP and south TP) during 2002.04-
- 169 2016.12. Mean is the average value of TWS anomaly for 2002.04-2016.12.

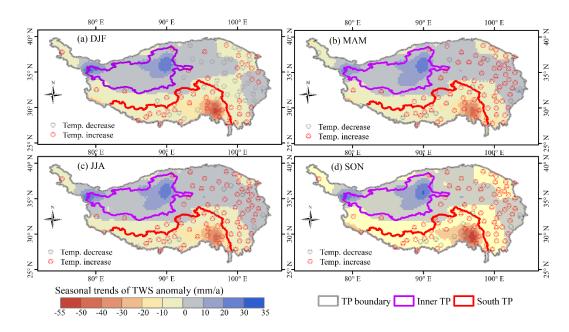
	Trend (mm/month)	Significance	Periods
Full TP	0.002		2002.04-2016.12
Inner TP	0.58	**	2002.04-2016.12
South river basin	-0.62	**	2002.04-2016.12

170 ** Significant at p<0.01

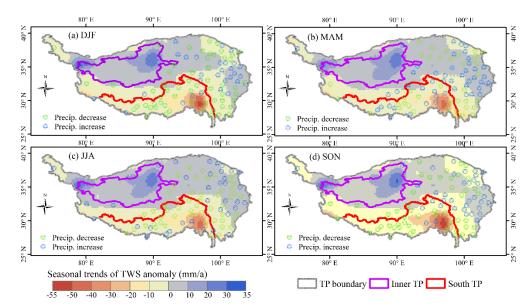
171 3.2 Relationship between TWS variations and recent climate change

172 Climate change is an important factor driving TWS variations in mountains regions (Deng and Chen,
173 2017). Temperatures have increased in DJF, MAM, JJA, and SON between April 2002 and December
174 2016 in the south TP (Fig. 3). In the south TP, precipitation have decreased in DJF, JJA, and SON during
175 this period (Fig. 4), but increased in MAM. In the Inner TP, temperatures decreased in full seasonal (Fig.





178 Figure 3 Spatial variations in temperature in the Tibetan Plateau during 2002-2016, a is DJF, b is MAM,



179 c is JJA, and d is SON.



181 Figure 4 Same as Fig.3 but for precipitation.

TWS variations have increased in the Inner TP, with a rate of 0.58 mm/month (p<0.01) (Fig. 5a), but decreased in the south TP (-0.62 mm/month, p<0.01) (Fig. 5b). Temperature and precipitation changes in the Inner TP and south TP were also analysed over during the past decade. Moreover, temperature decreased (-0.38 °C/a) and precipitation increased (1.07 mm/a) in the Inner TP (Fig. 5a), but temperature increased (0.01 °C/a) and precipitation decreased (-2.82 mm/a) in the south TP (Fig. 5b).</p>

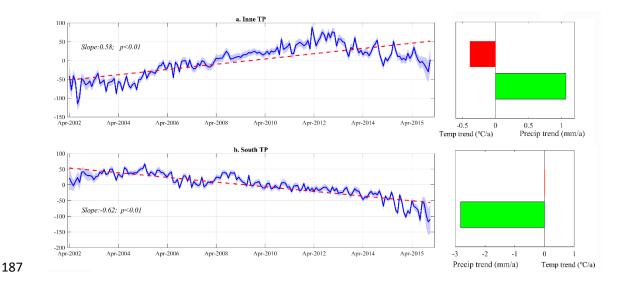


Figure 5. The left plane refers to a, TWS variations in the Inner TP between April 2002 and December
2016, and blue shading is represents uncertainty. Right plane are the trend of temperature and
precipitation during this period. "b" is the same to a but for the south TP.

TWS variations have decreased in the Inner TP from May 2012 to December 2016, with a rate of -1--4mm/month (Fig.6b). We also analysis differences in temperature (Fig.6c), precipitation (Fig.6d), precipitation (Fig.6e), and evaporation (Fig.6f) between April 2002-April 2012 and May 2012-December 2016. The mean and maximum temperature have positive value in the Inner TP, it is means that temperature increased in this region. Precipitation also increased in the Inner TP. Evaporation have increased in the Inner TP. Therefore, the rising temperature resulted in evaporation increased and glaciers retreat are an important factors for TWS variations in the TP.

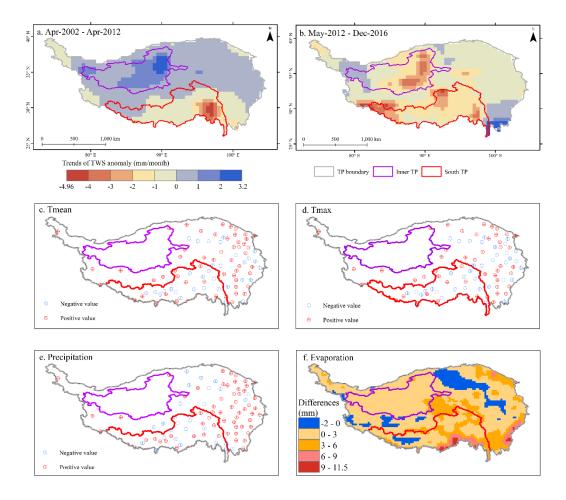




Figure 6 a is the trend of TWS variations in the TP from April 2002 to April 2012. b is the trend of TWS
variations in the TP from May 2012 to December 2016. c is the difference in Tmean between April 2002April 2012 and May 2012-December 2016. d, e, f same as c but for Tmax, precipitation, and evaporation,
respectively. The evaporation data was provided by GLDAS Noah model at 0.25×0.25 degree.

- 203 3.3 Effects of lake area changes
- Lake water storage is yet another component of TWS in the TP (Xiang et al., 2016), and is mainly
- distributed in the Inner TP. The number of small lakes (1-10 km²) decreased from 2005 to 2014, but the
- area also spawned six new lakes ≥ 10 km² (Wan et al., 2016). Figure S4 reveals that lakes in the southern
- 207 TP, between 2005 and 2014, show a decreasing rate by -7%, while those in the Inner and northern TP
- exhibit a growth rate of 15.5%.
- Figure 7 indicates that lake area changes, for areas $>100 \text{ km}^2$ between 2005 and 2014 in the eastern

portion of the Inner TP, exhibit increasing trends. Results show that most of the lake areas increased by
at least 20% (Table 2), with Ayakkum Lake and Aqqikkol Lake having increased 30.79% and 31.75%,
respectively. Therefore, lake water storage increased in the Inner TP are an important factor for TWS
spatial variations in the TP during the past decade. Over the past decade, lakes on the Inner TP have
displayed an expand trend. With the increasingly intensive temperature (Fig.3) and precipitation (Fig.4),
the large amount of glaciers, snow and permafrost meltwater has caused lakes expanding (Song et al.,
2013).

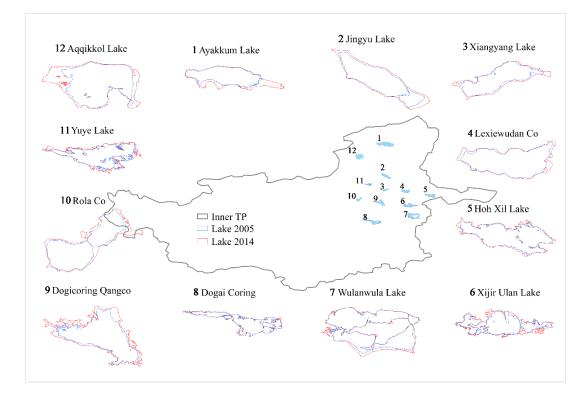


Figure 7. The typical lake area changes in the Inner TP (dataset provided by Wan et al., 2016).

Table 2. Changes in the number and area of lakes in the Tibetan Plateau from 2005 to 2014

220 $(\Delta = (\text{Area2014-Area2005})/\text{Area2005*100}$. The lake data are supported by Wan (2016). (Unite:km²)

ID	Name	Area	Area	Δ (%)	ID	Name	Area	Area	Δ (%)
_		2005	2014				2005	2014	
1	Aqqikkol	408.68	538.45	31.75	7	Wulanwula	566.74	650.99	14.87
	Lake					Lake			
2	Dogaicoring	313.68	403.1	28.51	8	Xiangyang	100.8	121.01	20.05

	Qangco					Lake			
3	Dogai Coring	458.42	492.41	7.42	9	Xijir Ulan	371.88	462.69	24.42
						Lake			
4	Jingyu Lake	280.42	339.57	21.1	10	Ayakkum	754.59	986.9	30.79
						Lake			
5	Hoh Xil Lake	313.14	350.38	11.89	11	Rola Co	137.91	169.9	23.2
6	Lexiewudan	342.82	273.3	12.09	12	Yuye Lake	122.24	145.91	19.36
_	Со								

221 3.4 Effects of glacial retreat

222 In the Tibetan Plateau, glaciers have largely retreated over past decades, driven by climate change (Yao 223 et al., 2012), and this has had an impact on water storage changes (Jacob et al., 2012). Table 3 showed 224 that glaciers retreated slightly in the Ayakkum Lake and Dogai Coying areas from 2001 to 2013, with a 225 rate of -1.45% and -1.93%, respectively. Figure 7 also shows that these two basins are located in the 226 eastern Inner TP. The maximum decrease of TWS occurred in the eastern south TP (Fig. 2). Accordingly, 227 glaciers sharply retreated in the Mekong River basin (-8.91%) during 2001-2013 (Table 3). Meanwhile, 228 Table 3 also indicates glacial retreat in the Salween River and Ganges River areas of -2.32% and -3.4%, 229 respectively. The joint results for Figs. S4 and S6 indicate that glacial retreat contributed to TWS 230 decreases in the south TP.

- Table 3. Glacier area change in Inner TP and south river basin on the Tibetan Plateau during 2001-
- 232 2013 (Ye et al., 2017).

Regions	Basins	Changes (%)	Period
Inner TP	Ayakkum lake	-1.45	2001-2013
	Dogai Coying	-1.93	2001-2013
South river basin	Mekong River	-8.91	2001-2013
	Salween River	-2.32	2001-2013
	Ganges River	-3.14	2001-2013

234 4. Discussion

235	Terrestrial storage variations are closely related to precipitation and evaporation. Specifically, ΔS =P-E-
236	R, where ΔS is terrestrial water storage, P is precipitation, E is evaporation, and R is runoff. According
237	to the water budget equation, we know that water storage is a transient state that is determined by the
238	relationship between the input and output of the water system. Therefore, the water budget equation can
239	be simplified as $\Delta S = (water)_{in} - (water)_{out}$, where $(water)_{in}$ is the input variable (i.e., precipitation, runoff)
240	and (water) _{out} is the output variable (i.e., evaporation, runoff and human water use). The negative trend
241	of TWS anomalies is caused by input less than output in the water system, i.e., drought. For example, the
242	Amazon Basin experienced a negative trend of TWS anomalies during 2003-2013 due to decreased
243	precipitation (Xavier et al., 2010). The drought events in northwestern India, however, were mainly due
244	to irrigation consumption that led to groundwater overexploitation (Rodell et al., 2009).
245	The warming environmental has a significant impact on runoff variations in the TP. Runoff reduction in
246	the southern and eastern TP because of warming and wind stilling led to less precipitation in the monsoon
247	impacted region (Yang et al., 2013). Annual runoff decreased in wet part of TP since 2000 (Liu et al.,
248	2018), but increased in dry part (Wang et al., 2017). According to future climate scenarios and VIC-
249	glacier model, the runoff will remain stable or moderately increase in 2011-2040 relative to 1971-2000
250	in the six major river basins in the TP, but increase by 2.7-22.4% during 2041-2070 relative to 1971-2000
251	(Su et al., 2015).
252	The GLDAS runoff data can fill the gaps from the observation station sparse in TP. Some studies
253	evaluated the runoff product of Noah model against observations station data in five river basin in the
254	TP, and results shown that the best performance in capture the temporal variability of streamflow at
255	monthly and seasonal scales (Bai et al., 2016). The uncertainties in GLDAS runoff simulations has been

discussed in detail in Bai et al. (2016), which is indicated that uncertainties sources from three parts:
forcing data, model structure, and model parameters. Therefore, the quality of the atmospheric forcing
data has significant influences on runoff simulated accuracy (Zaitchik et al., 2010), for example,
precipitation and air temperature (Wang et al., 2016).

- 260 We used GLDAS-Noah model evaporation and runoff datasets to analysis evaporation and runoff
- changes in the TP during 2002-2016. With rising air temperature, evaporation increased in most parts of
- the TP (Fig. S5b). Evaporation increased may be caused lake water storage decreased (Song et al., 2013).
- 263 With the increasingly intensive climate warming tendency, the runoff of meltwater will be increased from
- 264 mountainous glaciers/snow. But the runoff analysis results indicated that surface runoff has a decreased
- trend in most of the TP (Fig. S5c), especially in the south TP.
- 266 Recent studies also indicate that TWS shows a decreasing trend in the middle Himalayas (-20 mm/a), but

267 an increasing trend in the Inner TP (9.7 mm/a) during the period 2003-2012 (Guo et al., 2016). The 268 spatio-temporal variations in TWS anomalies in the TP are related to temperature and precipitation. Over 269 the past 40 years, the temperature has increased (You et al., 2015; Deng et al., 2017), such that the 270 increased rate in winter is larger than that in summer (Xu et al., 2008). At the same time, annual mean 271 precipitation also increased, showing obvious seasonal differences (Xu et al., 2008). Since 2000, data at 272 the observation stations in this study show a clear temperature increase. Meanwhile, precipitation has 273 decreased in the southern Tibetan Plateau, but increased in the northern Tibetan Plateau. Figure 4 shows 274 that precipitation changes are consistent with spatial variations in TWS in the TP. The temperature 275 increases likely accelerated the retreat of glaciers in southern regions (Fig. 3), which then led to a 276 declining trend in precipitation (Fig. 4) and TWS anomalies.

277 Overall, decreases in water storage in the TP were mainly caused by glacier retreat (Singh and Lars,

278 2004). According to the China Second Glacier Inventory (CSGI, Guo et al., 2014), glaciers cover 279 approximately 4.54×10⁴ km² of the TP. Matsuo and Heki (2010) suggested that the glacier mass loss rate 280 of -47 Gt/a in the high mountains of Asia (HMA) from 2003 to 2009 mainly occurred in the Himalayas. 281 Yao et al. (2012) suggested that the glacier retreat in the Himalayas (about -790 mm/a) was due to 282 increased temperatures and decreased precipitation, whereas the glacier advance in the Karakoram and 283 Kunlun Mountains (about +250 mm/a) is caused by increased precipitation (0.01-0.02 mm/day). 284 Meanwhile, glacier retreat is also closely related to freezing level heights (FLH) (Wang et al., 2014). For 285 instance, FLH in the Kunlun Mountains showed a decreasing trend of -2.33 m/a (Chen et al., 2015). 286 Decreased FLH can mainly influence the glaciers mainly either by inhibiting glacier retreat or 287 accumulating snow. Moreover, we also suggest that decreased FLH will probably result in the advance 288 of glaciers in the western TP. Thus, from 2003 to 2013, the increases in precipitation and snowfall, along 289 with decreases in FLH resulting in glacier advance, are the primary impact factors contributing to the 290 positive anomalies of TWS in the northwestern TP. 291 The total lake area in the TP increased 7.03% during 2005-2014 (Wan et al., 2016). Precipitation 292 increased and glacier retreat are contributed to lake expansion (Song et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2017). 293 Meanwhile, the increased rates for the total area of lakes were located in the Inner TP (Wan et al., 2016). 294 But lakes in the south river basins are trending towards a decrease. The TWS variations are in good 295 agreement with changes in temperature and precipitation (Fig. 5), and these results are similar to those 296 of Song's (2014), which showed that precipitation increases also supported lake expansion. In endorheic drainage basins, precipitation, glacier and snow melt will promote lake expansion, however, in exorheic 297 298 drainage basins, the complex correlations between glacier retreat and lake changes depend primarily on 299 differences between the amount of water flowing into and out of the lakes.

300	Additionally, glacier and snow melt changes also cause groundwater changes. From 2003 to 2009,
301	groundwater in the Inner TP showed an increasing trend (about $+1.66 \pm 1.52$ Gt/a) (Xiang et al., 2016),
302	whereas the groundwater in the Bengal basin of Bangladesh and north-central India (which, in our study,
303	includes the Brahmaputra and Ganges, respectively) exhibited a clear decreasing trend. Figure 4 shows
304	that precipitation has an increasing trend in the Inner TP and a decreasing trend in the south of the TP.
305	Yao et al. (2012) also found that glaciers retreated in the Himalayas region but advanced in the Kunlun
306	region. Therefore, the groundwater changes in these areas may have been caused both by glacial melting
307	and increased precipitation.
308	Climate changes determine TWS variations by strongly influencing changes in glaciers and snow, lake
309	water, soil moisture, and groundwater. The possible mechanism of TWS variations in endorheic drainage
310	basins (i.e., Inner TP) differs from that in exorheic drainage basins (i.e., south of TP). In the Inner TP,
311	increased precipitation led to increases in both lake water and groundwater storage, so the TWS increased
312	in the inner TP. In endorheic drainage basins, the glaciers' retreat did not lead to a TWS decrease because
313	glacier and snow melt did not flow out of this region. In the southern TP (Fig. 5b), increases in
314	temperature resulted in increases in glacier and snow melt, but decreases in precipitation (especially in
315	snowfall). The end results of these changes were decreases in lake water and groundwater storage,
316	resulting in a TWS decline.
317	This study mainly focused on the effects of climate changes on TWS variations in high Asia. The work
318	provided a comprehensive analysis of the effects of changes in climate factors on TWS variations in the
319	region. Our future research focus will highlight a typical river basin in the Tibetan Plateau to
320	quantitatively analyse the impact of climate changes on TWS variations.

321 5. Conclusions

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322	In this study, we investigated the temporal and spatial variations in TWS in the Tibetan Plateau from
323	April 2002 to December 2016. The temporal variations in TWS anomalies can be divided into two stages.
324	In the first stage (April 2002 to April 2012), TWS had a significant increasing trend of ~ 0.20 mm/month
325	(p<0.01); in the second stage (May 2012 to December 2016), it deceased at a rate of -0.68 mm/month
326	(p<0.01). At the same time, spatial variations in TWS anomalies indicate that the Inner TP had an
327	increasing trend (0.58 mm/month, p<0.01), whereas the southern TP had a decreasing trend (-0.62
328	mm/month, p<0.01).
329	Seasonal variations in TWS anomalies indicate positive anomalies in the Inner TP, and shown negative
330	anomalies in the southern TP. Temperatures increased and precipitation decreased has led to TWS
331	declined in the southern TP. But contrast, temperatures decreased and precipitation increased finally
332	resulted in TWS raised in the Inner TP.

- 333 Increases in temperature accelerated the retreat of glaciers and evaporation decreased, which, together
- 334 with precipitation decreases, resulted in TWS anomalies showing a reduced trend in the south TP.
- However, in the Inner TP, TWS showed an increase from April 2002 to April 2012, which was caused by
- increased precipitation and temperature decreased. But TWS have a decreased trend from May 2012 to
- 337 December 2016, which was caused by evaporation increased and glaciers retreat.
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