



1 Large-scale atmospheric circulation control on stable water isotopes in precipitation over the
2 northwestern and southeastern Tibetan Plateau

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 The mid-latitude westerlies and South Asian Summer Monsoon (SASM) are two major atmospheric
13 circulation systems influencing the Tibetan Plateau (TP). We report a seven-year
14 (2007/2008-2013/2014) dataset of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in precipitation ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$) collected at three stations. Taxkorgan
15 (TX) and Bulunkou (BLK) are located on the northwestern TP where westerly winds dominate while
16 Lulang (LL) is situated on the southeastern TP where the SASM dominates. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in precipitation
17 ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$) in northwestern TP varies with surface temperature (T) throughout the study period, and is
18 depleted in ^{18}O in precipitation during June to September when the monsoonal circulation enters the TP.
19 Integration with model outputs suggests that large-scale atmospheric circulation plays a major role in
20 isotopic seasonality in both regions. A teleconnection between precipitation on the northwestern TP and
21 the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) warm phase is suggested by changes in the relationship
22 between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD (e.g., reduced slope and weighted d-excess) in precipitation samples. These
23 observations are indicative of a weakening of the mid-latitude westerly jet allowing local processes in
24 the continental interior to become more dominant, thereby increasing the contribution of secondary
25 evaporation from falling raindrops and kinetic fractionation. Under the conditions of a high Northern
26 Annular Mode (NAM) the westerly jet is intensified over the southeastern TP which enhances local



27 evaporation and continental recycling as revealed by a lower δD - $\delta^{18}O$ slope and intercept, but higher
28 d-excess average in contemporaneously collected precipitation samples. The significant correlation
29 between T and $\delta^{18}O_p$ in the northwestern TP during various composite periods highlights a variation
30 from 0.39‰/°C (ENSO warm) to 0.77‰/°C (high NAM), attributable to decreased (increased) water
31 vapor availability over the northwestern TP during the ENSO warm (strong positive NAM) phase.
32 ENSO cold and strong negative NAM phases show analogous effects on atmospheric circulation over
33 both regions.

34 **Keywords**

35 stable water isotopes; precipitation; Tibetan Plateau; large-scale atmospheric circulation; westerly;
36 summer monsoon; El Niño-Southern Oscillation; Northern Annular Mode



37 **1 Introduction**

38 The Tibetan Plateau (TP) contains the largest mass of ice outside the Arctic and Antarctica, and
39 serves as a Water Tower to East Asia (Immerzeel and Bierkens, 2010). With ice core records revealing
40 high-resolution paleoclimate information in the tropical and sub-tropical alpine regions, it also stores a
41 unique natural archive of Earth's climate history (Thompson et al., 2011). Under global warming,
42 however, climate and environment on the TP is undergoing dramatic changes. Cryospheric changes are
43 very prominent and lead to hydrological changes and modify the atmospheric circulation and
44 land-surface processes in mid-latitudes and the Northern Hemisphere (Allen and Zender, 2011; Bamzai
45 and Shukla, 1999; Lu et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2009; Bolch et al., 2012; Gardner et al., 2013; Yao et al.,
46 2012). Recent research reveals heterogeneous variation of glacial mass balance over the TP with
47 accelerated retreating on the southern TP and more stable (or in some cases advancing) glaciers on the
48 northwestern TP (Bolch et al., 2012; Gardner et al., 2013; Yao et al., 2012). Some studies attribute this
49 heterogeneity to precipitation (Fujita, 2008), or to spatially different temperature variations (Gardner et
50 al., 2013), while others attributed this to changes in the atmospheric circulation characterized by a
51 weakening summer monsoon and enhanced westerly flow (Yao et al., 2012).

52 Many uncertainties exist with regard to range of the influence and interactions among various
53 atmospheric circulation regimes over the region (An et al., 2012; Conroy and Overpeck, 2011; Rozanski
54 et al., 1992). Using the spatial pattern of stable isotopes in precipitation, Yao and his colleagues (2013)
55 proposed regions north of 35°N on the TP as the westerly domain, where most of the moisture
56 originates from the Atlantic, Mediterranean and Caspian Sea, as well as continental recycling
57 throughout the year (Aizen et al., 2006), while the monsoon domain south of 30°N on the TP is
58 dominated by the South Asian Summer monsoon (SASM) circulation. Recent studies bring new
59 insights to this highly generalized view. For example, the decadal (2001-2011) variation of the mass
60 balance of Zhadang glacier (30 °N) on the southern TP is strongly impacted by mid-latitude westerlies
61 Additionally, tropical forcing has been linked to higher latitude climate changes in the Northern
62 Hemisphere (Ding et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014). Better qualification of the interactions between the
63 westerlies and SASM is important to understand climate and environmental changes on the TP, not
64 only for the current global change scenario (Zanchettin et al., 2008), but also for long-term climate
65 fluctuation over geological timescales (An et al., 2012).

66 The details of the interactions between the westerlies and the SASM remain a topic of



67 investigation within the atmospheric community (e.g., Chiang et al., 2015; Liu and Yin, 2001; Park et
68 al., 2012; Sugimoto and Ueno, 2010). One prominent view is that westerly winds dominate over the TP
69 until the early monsoon season (April-June), but almost disappear during the monsoon mature phase
70 (Park et al., 2012). This led to the scenario of retreating westerlies and intrusion of the SASM (Park et
71 al., 2012). While another study (Liu and Yin, 2001) has proposed an in-phase variation of the westerlies
72 with the SASM such that intensified westerlies between 40° N and 50° N associated with a
73 strengthening (more positive) North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) would reinforce the bifurcating flows
74 to the south and southeast of the TP, thus generating cyclonic flow over the eastern TP. Moreover, a
75 study of the latent heat field on the TP suggests a possible weakening of the intrusion of marine
76 moisture from the Bay of Bengal (BOB) in association with the weakening of subtropical westerlies
77 (Sugimoto and Ueno, 2010). General circulation models help illuminate the complex interactions
78 between the two dominant circulation regimes over the TP. Yet modeling studies also require
79 verification and refinement that depends upon utilization of such ground observations include stable
80 water isotopes in precipitation ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$) that contribute to tracing moisture sources and unraveling
81 atmospheric circulation patterns (Araguas-Araguas et al., 2000; Froehlich et al., 2008; Kendall and
82 Caldwell, 1998; Pearson et al., 1991; Rozanski et al., 1992; Tian et al., 2007; Vuille et al., 2005).

83 Data collected by the Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation (GNIP) provides a map of the
84 climatological oxygen isotopic composition of precipitation for January (representative of winter) and
85 July (summer) over the Eurasian continent (Fig. 1). The maps reveal seasonally distinct distributions of
86 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ in the TP region, i.e., lower (more depleted in ^{18}O) in winter and higher (more enriched in ^{18}O) in
87 summer over the northwestern TP relative to that over the southeastern TP. The corresponding
88 atmospheric circulation reveals a close link between the wind circulation and the temporal and spatial
89 variability of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ (Fig. 1). The dominance of westerly flow during January contributes to spatial
90 features reflecting the latitudinal temperature distribution, while the dominance of the SASM during
91 July leads to isotopic depletion in the southeastern TP with deep monsoon convection. Thus large-scale
92 atmospheric circulation appears to be an important control on the spatial distribution of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ on the TP.
93 Under anticipated global changes, the atmospheric circulation over the TP is expected to change due to
94 expected variations in surface processes (snow cover, vegetation, permafrost variation), and
95 modulation of the sea surface temperatures (Wu and Zhang, 1998; Ye and Wu, 1998; Zhao et al.,
96 2007; Sugimoto and Ueno, 2010). Understanding how stable isotopes in precipitation respond to such



97 changes will better elucidate the teleconnection between the large-scale atmospheric circulation
98 regimes and water vapor transport over the TP. Additionally, the use of paleoproxies such as ice cores,
99 lake sediment, tree rings and speleothem should facilitate the identification of extreme climatic phases
100 in the historical record (Rowley and Garzzone, 2007).

101 This research uses $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ as a bridge to link local processes with large-scale atmospheric
102 circulations, and thereby better elucidate the interactions between large-scale atmospheric circulation
103 regimes and local climate changes in the southeastern and northwestern TP. In many tropical regions
104 year-to-year monsoonal variations are affected by El Nino-Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (IPCC, 2013).
105 And the westerly jets are closely related to the evolution of the Northern Annular Mode (NAM). So this
106 study focuses on the southeastern and northwestern parts of the TP to present for the first time the
107 stable isotopic composition in precipitation (including $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and δD) of 7-year continuous time series,
108 aiming to evaluate possible effects of large-scale atmospheric circulation such as ENSO and NAM on
109 moisture sources and atmospheric circulations over the southeastern and northwestern regions. This
110 study also presents a brief comparison of our field observations with available model outputs, to
111 quantify contributions of different moisture sources to local precipitation in different areas on the TP,
112 and to verify different roles of local recycling versus large-scale atmospheric circulations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
113 variations. The unique dataset will enable the consideration of climate changes over the TP against the
114 large-scale atmospheric circulation scenario, and thus contribute to ground validation of general
115 circulation models equipped with stable isotopes.

116 **2 Sampling and data processing**

117 To investigate possible monsoon-westerlies interactions, this study reports a seven-year record
118 (2007/2008 to 2013/2014) at three stations, Lulang (LL; 29°46'N, 94°44'E, 3330 m above sea level (m
119 a.s.l.)) on the southeastern TP, and Taxkorgan (TX; 37°46'N, 75°16'E, 3100 m a.s.l.) and Bulunkou
120 (BLK; 38°39'N, 74°58'E, 3306 m a.s.l.) on the northwestern TP (Fig. 2). A previous study confirmed
121 the BOB summer monsoon dominance over LL (Yang et al., 2012). The two northwestern TP stations
122 are located in the mid-latitudes, where the westerly jet prevails throughout the year. The local
123 meteorological stations at these three sites collected precipitation for subsequent isotopic analyses. The
124 stations are equipped with a refrigerator and manned by staff who are trained observers and required to
125 be on duty-shifts covering 24 hours per day. Event-based precipitation amounts exceeding 0.1 mm is
126 first collected in a deep bucket, and then immediately poured in a 15 ml polyethylene bottle,



127 appropriately marked, sealed tightly and refrigerated until measurement. For snow sampling, snow is
128 first collected in a plastic bag placed in the bucket, and then brought indoors to melt before being
129 poured into the bottle which is also labeled and stored. Simultaneous meteorological parameters that
130 are recorded include air temperature (T), precipitation amount (P), relative humidity (RH), wind speed,
131 and the start/finish of the event. Precipitation samples were assembled roughly every ten months and
132 returned for measurement at the Chinese Academy of Sciences Key Laboratory of Tibetan
133 Environmental Changes and Land Surface Processes. Stable isotopic composition in precipitation
134 ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and δD_p) samples were measured on a Picarro-L1102i of Picarro Inc., Santa Clara, California,
135 using wavelength scanned cavity ring down spectroscopy (WS-CRDS) with a precision for $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ of
136 0.1‰ and for δD_p of 0.5‰. For days experiencing more than one event, the daily amount-weighted
137 means of the δ values is presented.

138 Temperature discussed in this paper is precipitation-synchronous local temperature, which is
139 slightly different from the daily averages. Because the composition of stable isotopes in precipitation is
140 directly influenced by the temperature during precipitation formation, the temperatures presented in the
141 study are more relevant for the interpretation. We refer to the quality control criteria for event
142 precipitation sampling at Nur (Dec., 1990- October, 1992) in the GNIP dataset (www.naweb.iaea.org),
143 where records with the absolute d-excess ($d = \delta\text{D} - 8 \times \delta^{18}\text{O}$) values >40 are considered to be extreme.
144 We applied this same quality control criterion to our data and removed the extreme values from the
145 further analysis. The processes creating such extreme values warrant future investigation but are
146 beyond the scope of this paper.

147 To investigate atmospheric circulation interactions, ERA-interim reanalysis data at a spatial
148 resolution of $0.75^\circ \times 0.75^\circ$ are acquired from the ECMWF Public Datasets, including monthly
149 meridional and zonal wind, specific humidity at 37 pressure levels, and vertically integrated water
150 vapor flux and divergence. Globally-complete fields of monthly Sea Surface Temperatures (SSTs) on a
151 $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid are obtained from the Met Office Hadley Centre's sea ice and sea surface temperature
152 (HadISST) data set (Rayner et al., 2003). Daily Arctic Oscillation (AO) and North Atlantic oscillation
153 (NAO) indices are acquired from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)
154 Climate Prediction Center (CPC). Both circulation systems are considered leading teleconnection
155 patterns in the Northern Hemisphere. Monthly and annual NAO and AO data are retrieved from
156 <http://climatedataguide.ucar.edu/climate-data/hurrell-north-atlantic-oscillation-NAO-index-station-bas>



157 [ed](#). Monthly SST data and their anomalies (base period: 1981-2010) in different Nino regions from
 158 January 1950 to the present are acquired from ERSST Version 4.0 at www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov.

159 3 Results

160 3.1 Variation of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$

161 Precipitation days at TX totaled 231 during 2008-2014, with the most occurrences in 2008 and the
 162 least in 2011 (Table 1). According to the China Meteorological Administration database, annual
 163 precipitation amount averages around 109 mm during the period, varying from 58.9 mm in 2009 to
 164 117.4 mm in 2010, and surface temperature averages 7.7°C on precipitation days. Mean temperatures
 165 on all precipitation days vary widely from year to year. For example, in 2008 the mean daily
 166 temperature was 3.2°C when over 30% of annual precipitation fell as snow, while in 2012 of similar
 167 precipitation frequency, the mean temperature was 10.3°C when only 8% of annual precipitation fell as
 168 snow (Table 1). Daily $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ exhibits the smallest (largest) range and variance in 2009
 169 (2008). Concerning inter-annual variability, the highest annual amount-weighted average value (.8‰)
 170 occurred in 2009 and the lowest value (-11.0‰) in 2011. The most enriched $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ values all occur
 171 during July-August, while the most depleted values are irregularly distributed throughout the year (Fig.
 172 3a).

173 Table 1 Basic information of sampling stations reported in this study.

ID	Period covered	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (‰)			T ($^\circ\text{C}$)	Precipitation days total	
		Min	Max	Mean			
TX	2008.1~ 2014.10	2008	-27.0	12.2	-6.6	3.2	49
TX		2009	-8.4	11.6	-0.1	7.9	19
TX		2010	-20.7	3.3	-8.1	9.9	35
TX		2011	-25.3	5.3	-11.0	10.4	14
TX		2012	-26.2	5.8	-6.8	10.3	48
TX		2013	-17.4	9.9	-7.7	8.3	34
TX		2014	-19.1	6.8	0.8	11.8	32
BLK	2008.1~ 2014.11	2008	-22.3	2.6	-6.6	4.6	31
BLK		2009	-18.2	4.3	-7.3	3.4	31
BLK		2010	-28.8	0.1	-11.1	4.6	86
BLK		2011	-28.6	1.4	-12.5	0.3	44
BLK		2012	-26.0	1.1	-8.3	1.4	49
BLK		2013	-24.2	-2.3	-11.6	-0.2	56
BLK		2014	-25.1	3.3	-12.2	5.3	66
LL	2007.1~ 2013.12	2007	-27.8	0.9	-16.0	7.8	119
LL		2008	-28.3	1.8	-14.0	8.1	141
LL		2009	-19.0	3.5	-10.6	8.0	104
LL		2010	-24.0	0.0	-13.0	7.5	121



LL	2011	-20.9	3.5	-12.8	9.2	53
LL	2012	-25.7	3.2	-13.5	8.0	85
LL	2013	-22.6	0.6	-13.1	6.3	88

174

175 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ at BLK is generally more depleted than that at TX, with the lowest values occurring during
 176 November-March, while the highest values occur irregularly over the year (Fig. 3b). The most
 177 precipitation days (86 days) were observed in 2010 while the least precipitation days (31 days)
 178 occurred in 2008 and 2009. The lowest value of the annually amount weighted $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ occurred in 2011,
 179 and the highest value occurred in 2008. Similar to TX, monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ at BLK varies closely with
 180 temperature (Fig. 3b).

181 Precipitation is more frequent at LL than the two stations in northwestern TP. About 36% of all
 182 precipitation days experienced daily amounts surpassing the daily average. Most precipitation during
 183 November-February (i.e., winter) falls as snow, with 2009 showing 36% of all snowy days during the
 184 seven-year period. The most enriched daily $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ during the study period occurred in spring
 185 (April-May), and the most depleted values appear in spring (March-May) (Fig. 3c). $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ at LL
 186 demonstrates the most depleted annual weighted average (-16.0‰) in 2007 while the most enriched
 187 one (-10.6‰) in 2009, with Year 2008 in between witnessing the largest variation range of daily $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$
 188 during the 7-year period.

189 The 7-year monthly averages show clear seasonality of monthly temperature, precipitation amount
 190 and amount-weighted $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$. Precipitation amount during summer (June-September) is high in both the
 191 southeastern and northwestern TP, with seasonal precipitation amount taking up ~83.5% at BLK,
 192 61.3% at LL, and ~44.3% at TX of the annual total. Amount-weighted $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ at both TX and BLK
 193 shows high values with summer warmth during June-September and low values in other months (Fig.
 194 3d, e), while that at LL shows dramatic depletion at high temperature and precipitation amount during
 195 summer (Fig. 3f), thus demonstrating remarkable inter-station and intra-seasonal differences.

196 3.2 variation of *d* excess

197 Deuterium-excess (*d*) is calculated as $d = \delta\text{D} - 8 \times \delta^{18}\text{O}$. It is indicative of moisture sources and
 198 transport processes (Froehlich et al., 2008), and is closely affected by moisture source humidity, wind
 199 speed and sea surface temperature (Clark and Fritz, 1997). The monthly *d*-excess at the northwestern TP
 200 stations has much larger amplitude than that at the southeastern TP station (Fig. 4). In the northwestern
 201 TP, *d* excesses are generally high during June-September, while low during January-April (Fig. 4a, b).



202 This is consistent with temperature variation in the northern hemisphere. In comparison, a noticeable
203 decrease of d -excess values is observed at LL during June-September (Fig. 4c), when both temperature
204 and precipitation amount are high, indicating humidity increases over the BOB with the monsoon
205 evolution in summer.

206 3.3 Seasonal variation of isotopes in precipitation

207 Daily $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ shows a strong linear correlation with δD_p at all three stations, though with distinct
208 seasonality for each station (Fig 5). The δD - $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ slope surpasses 8 at TX only during winter (DJF),
209 while at BLK only during summer (JJA). In comparison, The δD - $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ regression at LL shows slopes
210 all above 8 during the four seasons (Fig. 5a), with autumn particularly demonstrating a slope (8.17)
211 close to the Global Meteorological Water Line (8.2; Rozanski et al. 1992), and a y -intercept (12.89)
212 similar to that for the event-based data in Northeast India (12.34 \pm 1.33, Breitenbach et al., 2010) and to
213 the monthly data at Lhasa (12.37; calculated from the GNIP Database accessible at:
214 <http://www.iaea.org/water>).

215 The climatic controls over $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ also exhibit varying seasonality with stations. In the
216 northwestern TP, local control is significant at TX only during winter, when $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ shows significant
217 negative correlation with precipitation amount (slope: -0.57, $R=-0.78$, $p<0.05$) (Fig. 5 a, c and d). At
218 BLK, local control is prominent only during autumn, demonstrated by significant temperature effect
219 with a $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ - T slope (0.43%/°C) falling within the range observed in most continental mid-latitude
220 stations (0.38-0.56%/°C; Clark and Fritz, 1997; Pearson et al., 1991). The climatic control over $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$
221 in the southeastern TP is also seasonally sensitive, with autumn as the only season at LL with
222 significant amount effect in this monsoon domain and featuring a $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ - P ratio as -0.06%/mm (Fig.
223 5d).

224 The d excess shows significant correlation with $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ at both BLK and LL during winter (DJF),
225 featuring a significant negative $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ - d correlation at BLK (Fig. 5b) whereas a significant positive
226 correlation at LL (Fig. 5a). Such diversity indicates distinct precipitation formation mechanisms at
227 those stations during winter, which will be discussed in the following section.

228 Despite the different climatic controls in the different seasons at these northwestern TP stations, d
229 excess values at TX and BLK in the northwestern TP show similar intra-seasonal variations (Fig. 4a, b),
230 which form a contrast with that at LL in the southeastern TP (Fig. 4c). With d excess suggestive of
231 moisture source conditions, the contrast probably indicates distinct atmospheric circulations over the



232 respective region. To better represent the large-scale atmospheric circulations over such distinct
233 geographical locations, the monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and *d*-excess at TX and BLK are composited for the
234 observation period to highlight the common isotopic features in the northwestern TP. Its regional
235 characteristics would form a comparison with those in the southeastern TP. The following discussions
236 for the northwestern TP are based on regional composites.

237 **4. Discussion**

238 **4.1 Local versus large scale circulation control over monthly variation of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$**

239 Isotope-equipped general circulation models offer insight into the isotopic composition of various
240 water bodies in nature, which can help shed light on contributions of different water components to
241 regional precipitation isotopes. To ensure the comparability between model data and observations, we
242 refer to Stable Water Isotope Intercomparison Group, Phase 2 (SWING2) models (Risi et al., 2012)
243 whose outputs contain over three overlapping years with our observation. Output by the nudged
244 LMDZ4 (Laboratoire de Meteorologie Dynamique-Zoom version 4) (Risi et al., 2012) contains
245 monthly data during 2007-2010, and that by the nudged IsoGSM (Yoshimura et al., 2008) contains
246 monthly data during 2007-2009 (Fig. 6). Though both models underestimate the depletion extent of
247 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ in the southeastern TP, they simulate the variation amplitude of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ in the northwestern TP and
248 the intra-seasonal variation in both regions fairly well (Fig. 6a, b). The correlation coefficients of our
249 observed $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ with simulations suggest a better performance of the nudged IsoGSM over the
250 southeastern region (Fig. 5a), while a slightly higher sensitivity of the nudged LMDZ4 over the
251 northwestern TP (Fig. 5b).

252 Besides $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ in total precipitation, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in other water bodies in respective models are also
253 available. Similar correlation approach, i.e., least-square linear regression, is therefore applied to
254 analyzing contributions of various water bodies to regional precipitation by comparing and correlating
255 the observed $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ with isotopic compositions in various water bodies simulated. Those water bodies
256 include, in the IsoGSM, evaporate, river runoff, large-scale and convection precipitation, and total
257 column water vapor (Fig. 6c). In addition, the LMDZ4 model simulation also produces $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in snow,
258 soil and surface flux (Fig. 6d). The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ integrated through the atmospheric water vapor column is
259 regarded as representative of large-scale atmospheric circulation, leaving single-level $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in other
260 water media as representative of local processes (Risi et al., 2010). Least-square linear regression of
261 observed $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ versus simulated $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in various waters in both models points to significant influence



262 of large-scale atmospheric circulation on $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ in the monsoon domain, as the most robust correlation
263 is found between water vapor isotopes and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ in the southeastern TP ($R=0.60$, $n=43$ for the
264 correlation with LMDZ4 simulations; and $R=0.56$, $n=32$ with the IsoGSM ones). Similarly, moisture
265 transport at large scales is suggested as the dominant control over monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ over the northwestern
266 TP, as the best correlation of observed $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ established by LMDZ4 is with water vapor isotopic
267 composition ($R=0.6$, $n=37$). Thus according to the comparatively more genuine model for respective
268 region, the large-scale atmospheric circulation generally dominates the moisture supply to precipitation
269 in both TP regions on a monthly scale.

270 **4.2 Water vapor transport and correlation of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ with large-scale atmospheric circulation**

271 The water vapor loaded by the westerly wind split into two branches to the west of the TP in all
272 seasons but summer (Fig. 7). In summer (JJA), the prevailing westerly moisture supply dramatically
273 weakens over the southern TP (Fig. 7 a3 and b3). This is accompanied by a clear intensification of the
274 southwesterly originating from the Indian Ocean (IO), and a noticeable change in the large-scale water
275 vapor transport to the northwestern TP, featured by a significant northward shift of water vapor
276 transport over central Asia and formation of a northwesterly trajectory to the northwestern TP (Fig.
277 7a3).

278 The correlation of vertically integrated water vapor flux with $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ anomalies in the northwestern
279 TP shows seasonally distinct features that are not clearly coincident with the water vapor flux over the
280 region (Fig. 7 a1-4). Winter shows significant positive correlation of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ anomalies in the
281 northwestern TP with water vapor along the moisture trajectory, i.e. from the eastern Atlantic,
282 overpassing the Mediterranean Sea and over the northwestern TP. This implies the dominance of
283 westerly over winter precipitation in the region (Fig. 7 a1). In other seasons, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ anomalies in the
284 northwest show significant positive correlation with water vapor flux over the equatorial IO and/or the
285 BOB (Fig. 7 a2-4). As contemporary water vapor transport fails to show any southerly supply to the
286 region, this suggests possible tele-connection between the westerly jet and the tropical forcing, which is
287 associated with the northward retreat of the westerly jet with the SASM intensification. With the
288 northward propagation of the SASM influence, the large-scale circulation imposed by the mid-latitude
289 westerly over the northwestern region yields to local evaporation and continental recycling.

290 The spatial distribution of the correlation map of vertically integrated water vapor divergence with
291 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ anomalies over the southeastern TP closely follows the prevailing moisture flux (Fig. 7 b1-4).



292 The strongly positively correlated area shifts from the southwestern TP during DJF (Fig.7 b1) to the
293 Arabian Sea (AS) during MAM (Fig. 7 b2), which might be associated with the prevalence of
294 mid-latitude westerly during winter while the southward shift of the westerly over and contemporary
295 increase of the oceanic evaporation from the AS during spring. The evolution of the SASM results in
296 shifting of the most closely correlated area from the western region to the equatorial IO during JJA (Fig.
297 7 b3), and from the far western IO to the nearby central and eastern IO during SON (Fig. 7 b4). The
298 integrated study of correlation map with large-scale atmospheric water vapor flux thus suggests the
299 southeastern TP as mainly supplied by convective precipitation from local processes during DJF and
300 MAM, while by large-scale precipitation from tropical oceans during JJA and SON.

301 **4.3 Isotopic signal of large-scale atmospheric circulation effect**

302 As aforementioned, both the southeastern and northwestern TP are influenced by the
303 southwesterly, which is consistent with the prevalence of the NAM in the mid-latitude in the northern
304 hemisphere. Under the global climate change scenario, changes of the circulation trajectory and
305 intensity associated with NAM evolution affect moisture supply in different parts of the TP, thus likely
306 to leave “footprints” in the isotopic ratio in precipitation in those regions. Moisture borne by the
307 southwesterly originates mainly from the eastern Atlantic and Eurasia for the northwestern TP, while
308 from the tropical oceanic area for the southeastern TP, which explains the general lower d excess values
309 in the northwestern TP than the southeastern TP (Table 2), as sub-cloud evaporation is frequent in arid
310 and/or semi-arid environment and decreases d -excesses (Froehlich et al., 2008). Besides, studies have
311 confirmed the impacts of ENSO on rainfall in Europe upwind of the northwestern TP (Zanchettin et al.,
312 2008), leaving possible impact of ENSO on the TP inconclusive. Despite the relatively short time span,
313 our data allows a preliminary study of possible ENSO influence on the region, as its sampling period
314 includes 12 months with ENSO warm phase, and 30 months with ENSO cold phase.

315 Modeling after the division in the ENSO influence study using Niño 3 SST anomalies and a
316 threshold of ± 0.5 , the study period is also divided into highly positive (referred to as high NAM) and
317 negative phases (referred to as low NAM) using the AO index and a threshold of ± 1 . Study of
318 composites shows distinct meteorological water lines and climatic controls during various NAM and
319 ENSO phases (Table 2). The δD - $\delta^{18}O$ slopes are generally lower in the northwestern (slope < 8) than the
320 southeastern TP (slope > 8). A δD - $\delta^{18}O$ slope below 8 is usually associated with evaporation during
321 precipitation, which is common for precipitation in the continental semi-arid region (Clark and Fritz,



1997), as is the case in the northwestern TP. The dramatic decrease of the δD - $\delta^{18}O$ slope in the southeastern TP during high NAM period (7.52), likewise, may be attributed to weakening of the precipitation intensity. The decrease in precipitation implies intensifying evaporation during precipitation, resulted in evaporative enrichment and exceptionally high $\delta^{18}O$ values in corresponding precipitation during the composite period. Two major atmospheric circulation features associated with the high NAM phase may be responsible for the decrease precipitation and increase evaporation, i.e., 1) intensified westerly jet and 2) weakened meridional wind stream from the south. Feature I implies overlaying of the cold air on top of the comparatively warm air within this subtropical region, considering the mid- and high-tropospheric nature of the mid-latitude westerly. This, on one hand, causes instability of the air in vertical motions, resulting in local convection; while on the other, lowers the cloud condensation height (due to the dominant descent of the cold air), thus minimizing secondary evaporation with the reduced distance between the cloud and ground. Feature II indicates lack of moisture supply from the southern ocean, leading to reduced relative humidity within the region, and thus enhancing the likelihood for evaporation during precipitation. Correspondingly, the isotopic response to these features is the highest d excess value (10.1‰) in the southeastern TP during the high NAM composite of all periods (Table 2), as evaporation increases the d excess (Froehlich et al., 2008). This d value is similar to the global average (10‰; Rozanski et al., 1992; Dansgaard, 1964) that is suggestive of equilibrium fractionation, thereby implying the water vapor as mainly originated from within the region and precipitation formed in a closed cloud system.

Another noticeable composite period is the ENSO warm phase, when the northwestern TP shows dramatic decrease of the d -excess (-5.2‰) from its average value (4.2‰), in addition to the significant decrease of both the δD - $\delta^{18}O$ slope (7.35) and intercept from the average status (Table 2). This highlights the strong El Nino signal in d excess over the northwestern TP, implying potential effect of ENSO on moisture source condition and precipitation status (i.e., evaporation during precipitation and/or precipitation temperature) to the northwestern TP. Also note the simultaneous variation gradient of monthly $\delta^{18}O_p$ with temperature in the northwestern TP, which is small (0.39‰/°C) and constitutes a stark contrast with the gradients during low NAM (0.77‰/°C) or ENSO cold periods (0.72‰/°C). This implies that a 1‰ decrease in monthly $\delta^{18}O_p$ could correspond to a decrease of about 1.3°C to 2.6°C in the surface temperature depending on dominant atmospheric circulation pattern, thus highlighting



351 the significance in verifying large-scale atmospheric circulation in temperature reconstruction using
352 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$.

353 In comparison, similarity is observed for $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ in both regions during low NAM and ENSO cold
354 phases, demonstrated by identical $\delta\text{D}-\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ slopes, and lower intercept during the low NAM than the
355 ENSO cold phase (Table 2). The stable variation of the $\delta\text{D}-\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ slopes suggests similarity in
356 atmospheric circulation and precipitation processes during those phases in both TP regions. This has
357 been introduced in a cursory analysis of NAM-related statistics for December and March which
358 suggests analogous structure in the seasonal evolution of the NAM in many respects to the changes
359 observed in association with the ENSO cycle (Quadrelli and Wallace, 2002). Accordingly, the
360 noticeable decrease of the $\delta\text{D}-\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ intercept from Low NAM to ENSO cold phase is believed to be
361 associated with changes at the moisture sources as from warmer (more humid) to cooler (less humid)
362 locations from low NAM to ENSO cold period (Fig 7). This, together with water vapor transport and
363 difference from long-term average, will be discussed in the next section.



364

365 **Table 2** Meteorological water lines, amount-weighted $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and d-excesses for the northwestern and southeastern TP regions during different composite periods, including
 366 high NAM (AO monthly index>1), low NAM (AO monthly index<-1), ENSO cold (Nino3.4 SST anomalies<-0.5) and warm (Nino3.4 SST anomalies >0.5) phases.
 367 Correlations surpassing the 0.1 significance level are shown as italics, and those surpassing the 0.05 significance level bolded.

Location	Climate domain	periods	$\delta\text{D}-\delta^{18}\text{O}$		d excess (%)	$\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ (‰)	$\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{T}$		$\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{P}$	
			slope	intercept			slope	R	slope	R
		Average	7.85	-0.64	4.2	-6.5	0.46	0.70	-0.01	-0.06
		High NAM	7.86	-1.70	3.2	-20.3	0.51	0.77	-0.03	-0.02
		Low NAM	7.56	-6.74	-1.6	-12.7	0.77	0.61	-0.06	-0.38
		ENSO Warm	7.35	-10.13	-5.2	-7.1	0.39	0.62	0.00	0.01
		ENSO cold	7.54	-10.45	-0.5	-2.7	0.72	0.73	0.56	0.24
		Average	8.34	10.27	6.2	-10.4	-0.28	-0.32	-0.04	-0.30
		High NAM	7.52	0.22	10.1	-7.9	0.16	0.18	-0.01	-0.04
		Low NAM	8.29	13.40	2.0	-9.4	-0.09	-0.10	-0.07	-0.31
		ENSO Warm	8.59	13.51	4.3	-11.0	-0.28	-0.34	-0.05	-0.37
		ENSO cold	8.23	8.13	6.2	-9.0	-0.27	-0.42	-0.02	-0.17
	South Asian summer monsoon									

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369 **4.4 Large-scale atmospheric circulation modulates moisture supplies to the southeastern and**
370 **northwestern TP**

371 The monthly average status during the past 8 years (Jan 2007-Dec 2014) shows northwestern and
372 southeastern TP as both affected by noticeable water vapor convergence, with a wider coverage and
373 more intensity over the southeastern part (Fig. 8a). This coincides with the much higher humidity in the
374 southeastern than the northwestern TP. The difference of vertically integrated water vapor flux and
375 divergence during selected ENSO and NAM phases from average is more noticeable in the
376 southeastern TP than the northwestern region, suggesting more sensitive response of the southeastern
377 than the northwestern region to ENSO and/or NAM evolutions (Fig 8 b-e).

378 Over the southeastern TP, water vapor convergence increases during ENSO warm phases,
379 accompanied by intensification of the southwesterly moisture supply (Fig. 8b), and implying
380 convection as water vapor accumulates by pooling oceanic vapor from the south. It diverges during
381 other phases, with the water vapor divergence reaching the maximum during the high NAM period (Fig.
382 8c-e). Correspondingly, $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ during ENSO warm phase shows noticeable depletion, both the slope
383 and intercept of the $\delta\text{D}-\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ reaches the highest values, and the amount effect appears significant out
384 of all other composite periods (Table 1). During high NAM phase, otherwise, water vapor strongly
385 diverges over the region, losing moisture to its south. The overwhelming northwesterly moisture supply
386 indicates a transition of the regional climate from a SASM domain to a mid-latitude westerly domain.

387 The northwestern TP is prevailed by westerly moisture supply in average status (Fig 8a). During
388 ENSO warm phase, there is little change in the water vapor flux and divergence (Fig. 8b), suggesting
389 little effect of the El Niño occurrences on the water vapor availability and transport to the region.
390 During composite periods other than ENSO warm, otherwise, water vapor flux and divergence to its
391 west shows noticeable variation featuring intensified southwesterly moisture supplies and convergence
392 (Fig. 8c-e). The intensification of the southwesterly to the northwestern TP is particularly strong during
393 high NAM (Fig. 8d). This would enhance the water vapor availability to the northwestern TP.
394 Significant cooling of the SST is noticeable in the eastern Atlantic (Fig. 8g), implying low temperature
395 at the moisture source. Both factors thus jointly contribute to the extremely depleted $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ in the
396 northwestern TP during high NAM (Table 2).

397 During both the ENSO cold and low NAM phases, otherwise, deviation of the water vapor



398 transport from the average status shows increase in water vapor divergence over the southeastern TP
399 (Fig. 8c, e), suggesting the analogous effect of both circulation scenarios on the atmospheric circulation
400 over the region. A detailed investigation reveals slightly weaker increase in divergence and a stronger
401 easterly moisture supply during ENSO cold period (Fig. 8e). Correspondingly, the negative SST
402 anomalies span a wider range during the ENSO cold period than the low NAM period, covering both
403 the mid-latitude eastern Atlantic and the equatorial IO (Fig. 8f, i). The resultant lower temperature at
404 respective moisture source region during ENSO cold period thus might be responsible for a lower
405 δD - $\delta^{18}O$ intercept.

406 The comparatively stronger roles of high NAM and/or ENSO warm phases to atmospheric
407 circulation over both TP regions can also be appreciated from corresponding SST field and
408 mid-troposphere wind circulation (equivalent to the surface of the TP), as both phases feature distinct
409 patterns from other periods. During the high NAM phase, the SST features strong cooling in the eastern
410 Atlantic to the north of 5° N and in the Mediterranean, while warming in the AS and western equatorial
411 IO (Fig. 8g). The SST contrast thus formed to the immediate south of the TP implies pressure
412 difference, which drives the oceanic water vapor to transport from the south to north. Such a southerly
413 moisture transport, once encountering the prevailing westerly, turns northeastward and contributes to
414 stronger NAM signal than that of tropical forcing in isotopic variation in both regions. Otherwise, the
415 SST during ENSO warm period shows positive anomalies on equal scales in both the northern Atlantic
416 and equatorial IO (Fig. 8h). This could weaken the temperature gradient between the north and south,
417 and slacken the mid-latitude westerly jet, leaving the southeastern TP to SASM dominance and the
418 northwestern TP to local processes.

419 **5 Conclusions**

420 As suggested by output from isotope equipped general circulation models, which perform fairly
421 consistent with our observation data, large-scale atmospheric circulation plays a dominant role in the
422 intra-seasonal variation of $\delta^{18}O_p$ obtained from both the southeastern and northwestern TP.

423 There are clear but heterogeneous isotopic signals of ENSO and/or NAM involved large-scale
424 atmospheric circulations in both TP regions, highlighting two noteworthy periods for both regions, i.e.,
425 the strongly positive NAM and ENSO warm periods. In the northwestern TP, strong positive NAM
426 phase (i.e., high NAM) witnesses extremely low $\delta^{18}O_p$ with little deviation in the slope of the LWML,
427 while ENSO warm phase corresponds to extremely low d-excess, noticeable decrease in δD - $\delta^{18}O$ slope



428 and intercept, and the lowest $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ -T variation ratio of all composite periods. In the southeastern TP, on
429 the other hand, the strongly positive NAM phase corresponds to below-8 a slope and exceptionally low
430 intercept of δD - $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ regression, while ENSO warm periods witnesses the highest δD - $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ slope and
431 intercept, the lowest $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and only significant amount effect of all composite periods.

432 Water vapor flux and divergence suggest opposite effects of strong positive NAM and/or ENSO
433 warm events on $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ in the southeastern and northwestern TP. Specifically, ENSO warm phase
434 suppresses the water vapor availability to the northwestern TP, while contributes to the water vapor
435 availability to the southeastern TP. Otherwise, strong positive NAM phase increases the water vapor
436 availability in the northwestern TP by increasing the convergence to the west of the region, while
437 subjects the water vapor transport in the southeastern TP to local processes, thus inducing active
438 evaporation during precipitation over the region. Concomitant variation of SST field and 500 hPa wind
439 demonstrates increasing SST gradient between eastern Atlantic and IO during high NAM, which
440 contributes to the intensification of the large-scale westerly flow. Consequently, the westerly flow
441 overwhelms the SASM in the southeastern TP, which might be responsible for the clearly more
442 depleted $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$. While the weakened temperature contrast between the north and south northern Atlantic
443 Ocean during ENSO warm period slackens the westerly jet, yielding large-scale westerly dominance
444 over the northwestern TP to regional processes, resulting in comparatively more enriched $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$.

445 Our study offers the first insight into the linkage between the westerly winds and SASM and
446 proposed the potential role of ENSO in modulating the westerly winds and SASM influences over
447 different parts on the TP. More observations and sampling over the Tibetan Plateau are under way and
448 will help better elucidate large-scale atmospheric circulations and their interactions with the TP.


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Figure files

Figure Captions:

Figure 1 Spatial distribution of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ based on GNIP, superimposed on the long-term climatological wind circulation in January (upper) and July (lower). The climatological isotope map is adapted from www-naweb.iaea.org/naweb/ih/documents/user-update/waterloo/index.html, with ‘weighted $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ ’ meaning $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ values weighted by precipitation amount. The wind circulation is plotted from the long-term mean zonal and meridional wind (1981-2010) from the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis.

Figure 2 Location of our sampling sites (black triangles) on a digital elevation map (DEM). Also shown are reference sites (black dots) mentioned in this study. Colored map on the lower left corner depicts the detailed topographic status over the northwestern TP. The DEM is based on Processed SRTM Data v4.1, which are derived from the USGS/NASA SRTM data, but are processed to provide seamless continuous topography surfaces.

Figure 3 Monthly and long-term seasonality of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ (black dots), temperature (red dots), and precipitation (vertical bar), together with monthly d excess (open dots) in (a) and (d) TX, (b) and (e) BLK and (c) and (f) LL. Climatology and error bars for long-term seasonal $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ means are calculated from available data record during covered periods shown in Table 1.

Figure 4 Box-whisker plot of monthly d excesses at the three stations: (a) TX, (b) BLK and (c) LL. On each box, the central mark is the median, the edges of the box are the 25th and 75th percentiles, the whiskers extend to the most extreme data points the algorithm considers to be not outliers, and the outliers are plotted individually.

Figure 5 Seasonality of slopes and intercepts of the linear correlations for (a) monthly $\delta\text{D}-\delta^{18}\text{O}$, (b) monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{d}$ excess, (c) monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{T}$, and (d) monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}-\text{P}$. Blue dots in (b)-(d) highlight those correlations significant at 0.05 confidence level.



Figure 6 Comparison of time-series variation of observed $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in various water bodies simulated by models in SWING2. (a) comparison of observed versus modeled $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ for the southeastern TP; (b) same as (a), but for the northwestern TP; (c) comparison of observed $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ in the southeastern (upper) and northwestern (lower) TP versus $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in various water bodies simulated by nudged IsoGSM; (d) same as (c), but with $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in various water bodies simulated by nudged LMDZ4. Variation ratios explainable by simulated $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ are listed in the upright corner in (a) and (b). $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ integral in the atmospheric water vapor column is used to represent large-scale atmospheric transport. Full names for abbreviations used in (c) and (d) are listed as follows: O_ob: $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of our station data, wv: water vapor $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, evp: evaporation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, CP: $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in convective precipitation, LP: $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in large-scale precipitation, and surfx: $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in surface flux.

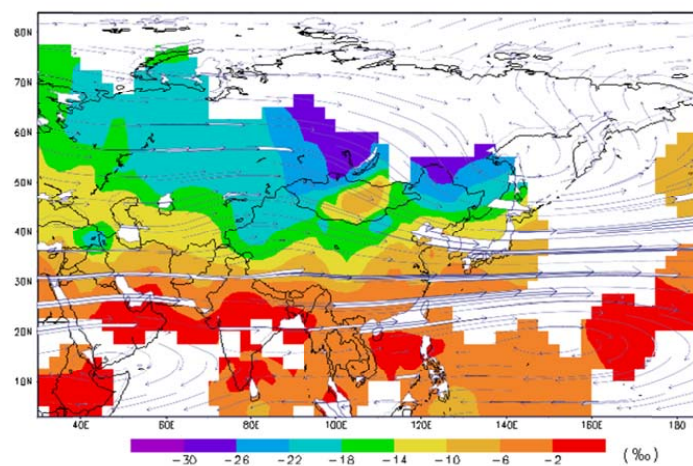
Figure 7 Water vapor transport and spatial correlation map of monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ anomalies with vertically integrated water vapor flux for December-February (DJF) (a1, b1), March-May (MAM) (a2, b2), June-August (JJA) (a3, b3) and September-November (SON) (a4, b4). Among them, a1-4 are for the correlation for the northwestern TP, while b1-4 for the southeastern TP. Correlations exceeding the 0.1 significance level are shown (red/positive; blue/negative). “nw” and “se” in the upper left of each panel refer to, respectively, northwestern and southeastern TP. “Oa” means $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ anomalies calculated as the difference between monthly $\delta^{18}\text{O}_p$ and 8-year monthly mean values. Vertically integrated water vapor flux and divergence are downloaded from ERA-interim reanalysis data.

Figure 8 (a)-(e) average status of water vapor transport and flux, and difference between different periodical composite and the average status: (a) average status of water vapor flux and transport to the TP, (b) difference between ENSO warm period and the average; (c) difference between ENSO cold period and the average, (d) difference between high NAM period and the average, and (e) difference between low NAM period and the average. Vertical integral of water vapor flux (shaded) and divergence (vector) are plotted from ERA-interim monthly reanalysis data. (f)-(i) SST anomalies and 500 hPa wind circulation composited for: (f) low NAM, (g) high NAM, (h) ENSO warm, and (i) ENSO cold periods. SST data are from HadISST monthly data. Anomalies are calculated with 1981-2010 as the base period. Zonal and meridional wind is from ERA-interim reanalysis dataset.



Figure 1

Weighted Jan. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$



Weighted July $\delta^{18}\text{O}$

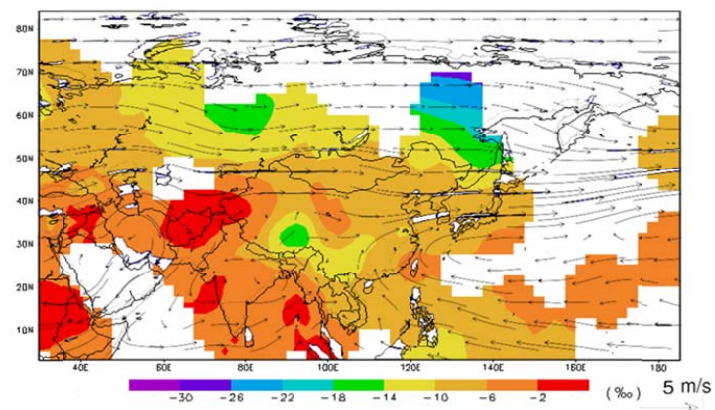




Figure 2

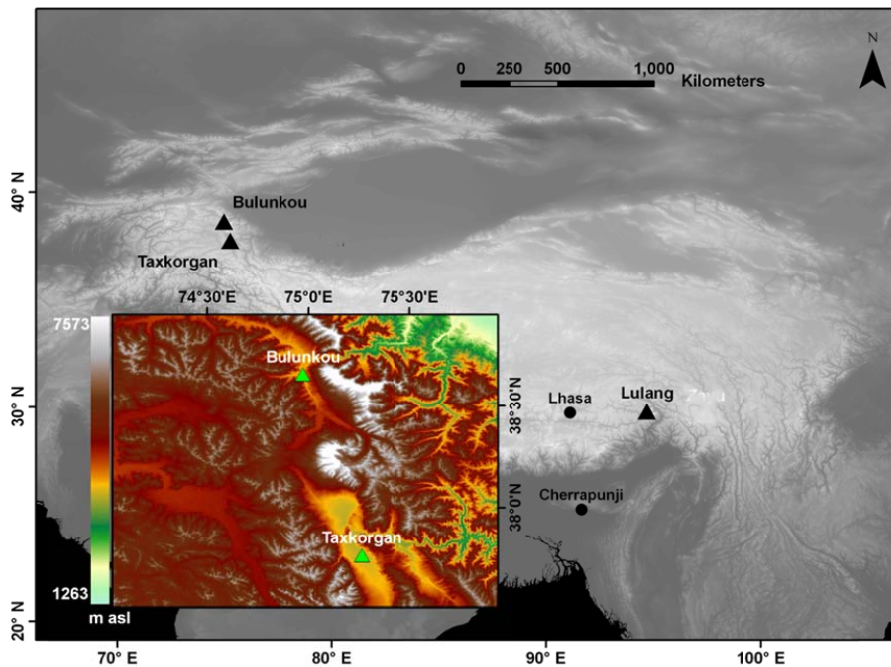




Figure 3

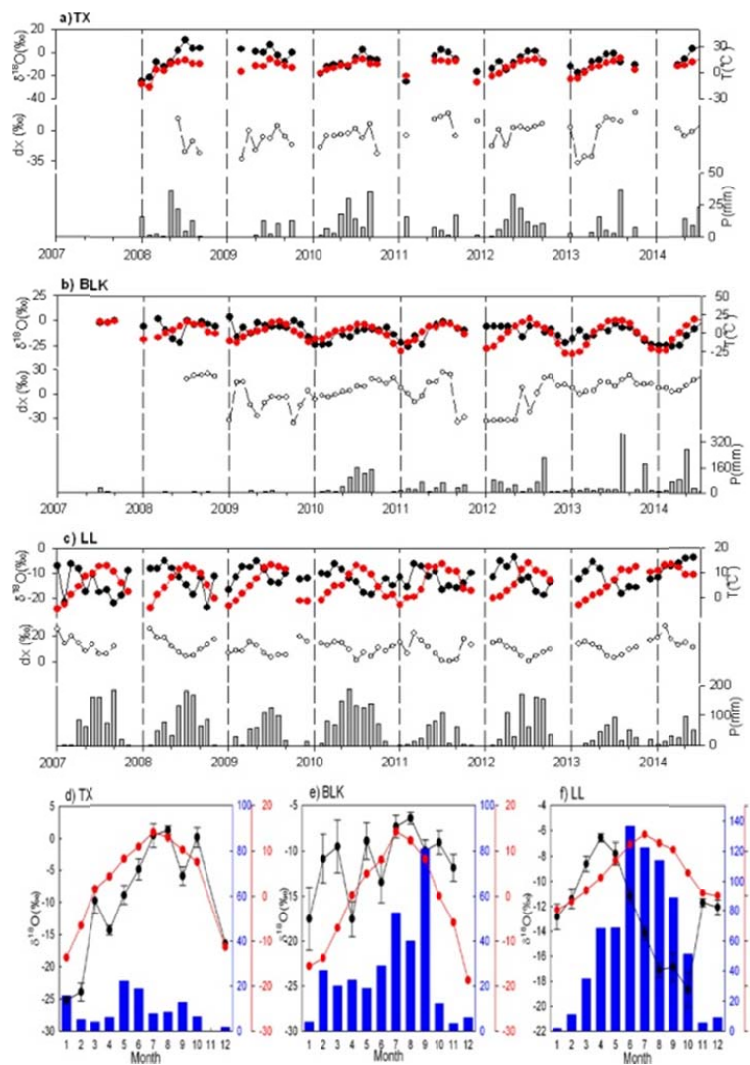




Figure 4

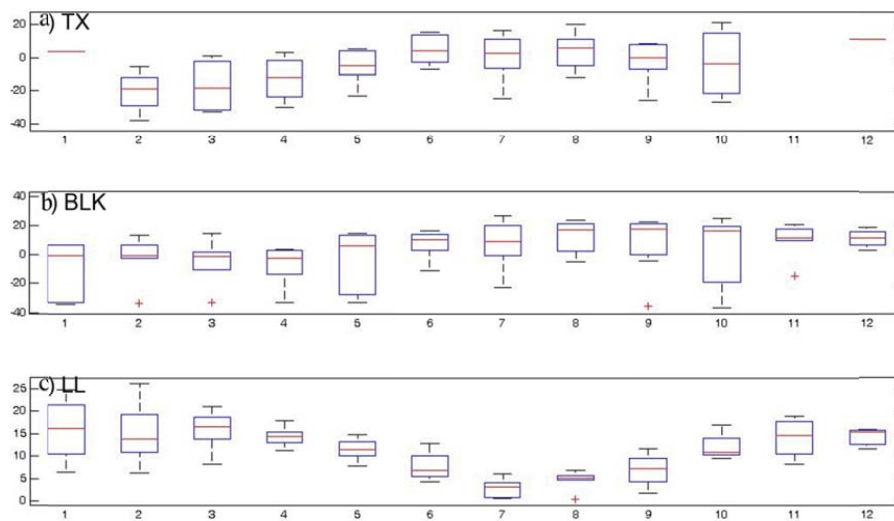




Figure 5

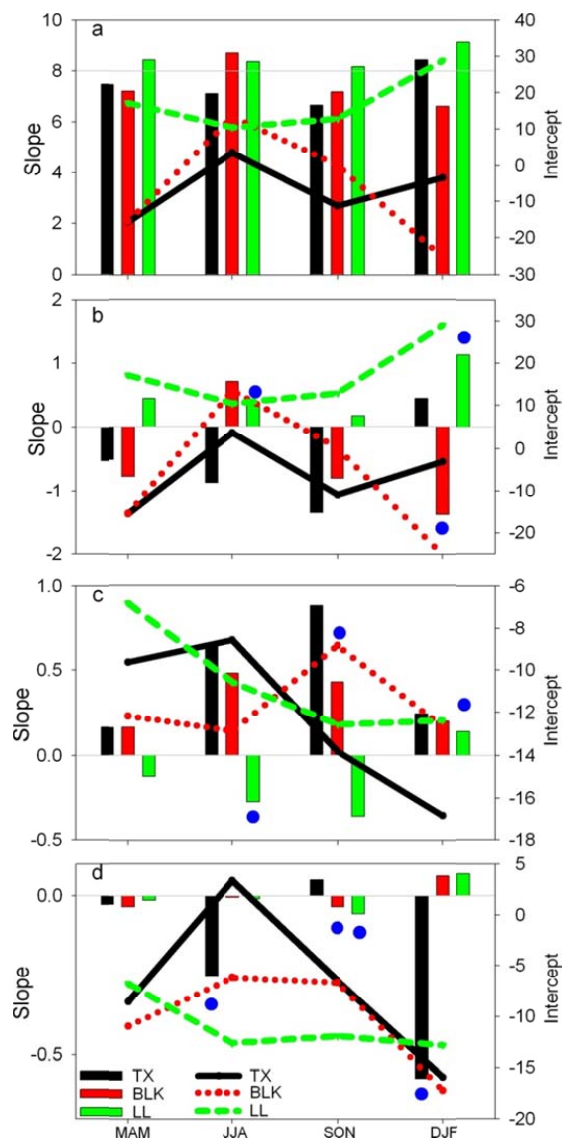




Figure 6

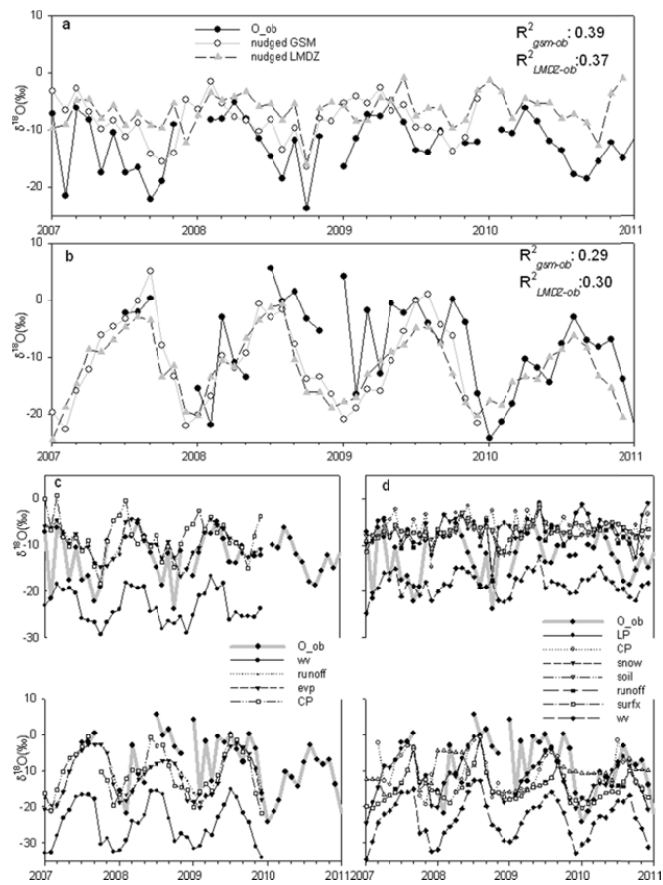




Figure 7

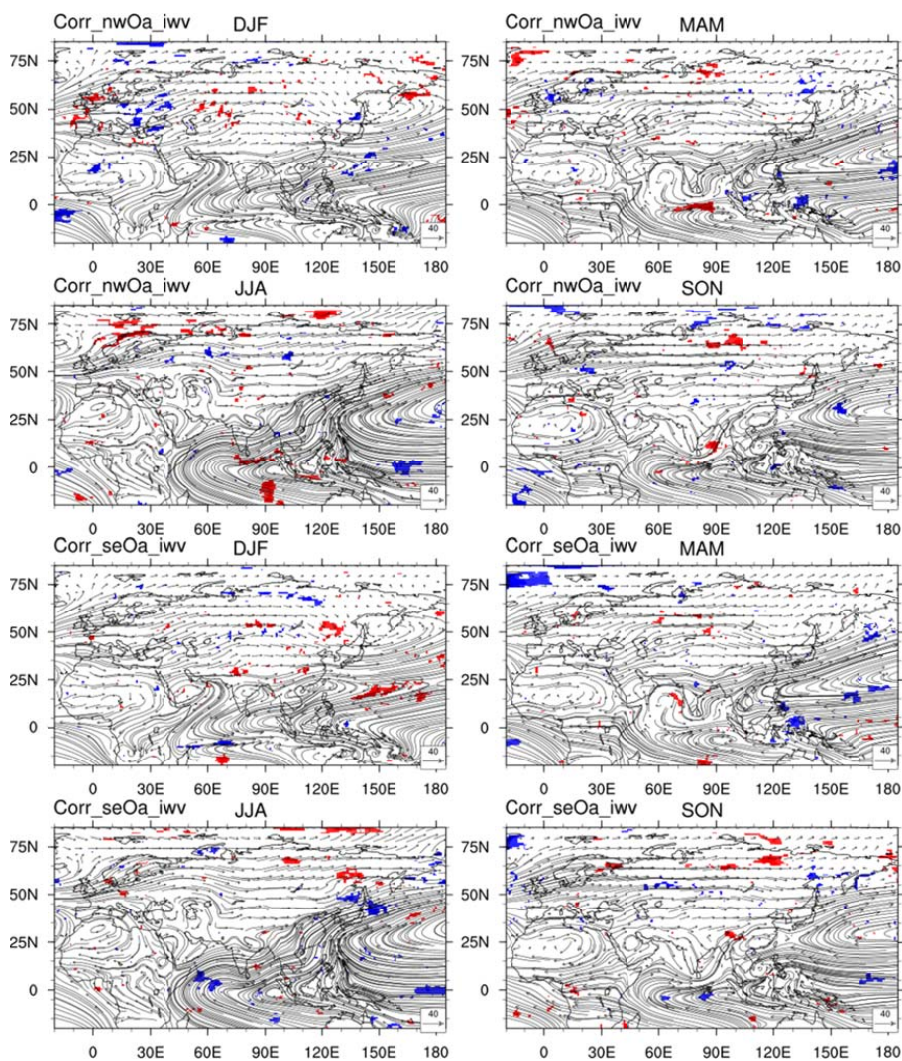




Figure 8

