**Review comments**

**Anonymous Referee #21**

Drought is the most severe natural disaster in the northwestern inland area of China. The research on drought is essential for scientific disciplines from geography to ecology. Drought research has traditionally focused on the regional features. However, there are new demands for more attentions to the local features due to the rapid changes in land cover and land use.

This study addresses the demand by examining the capacity of drought indices in identifying the local climate regimes in a mountain region the northwestern China. It should provide valuable information for the research of other scientific disciplines in the dry area.

I have a couple of suggestions that may improve this manuscript. First, a multiple-disciplinary comprehensive research project has been conducted in the Heihe River basin. Please discuss the implications of the findings for the research of other scientific disciplines in the study area. Secondly, there are many drought indices available. Please provide a brief review on these indices.

**Anonymous Referee #2**

Received and published: 8 June 2018

In the manuscript entitled “Identifying a Transition Climate Zone in an Arid River Basin using a Hydrological Drought Index”, Zhang et. al., analyzed meteorological and hydrological drought indices to identify transitional climate zone in a Heihe River Basin (HRB) in the arid northwestern China. The authors used simulations from a Regional Integrated Environmental Model System (RIEMS 2.0). Based on their analyses, the authors found the hydrologic based drought index being more suitable for the characterizing the transitional climate zone in the study basin, compared to meteorological based drought index. While the study might fall within the scope of this Journal, there are several limitations, in my opinion the work performed here is not adequate for the publication in this Journal. Major issues with this study is detailed below.
1. I find the narration as authors put up that drought indices are used for climate classification a bit strange. The aridity index as used by the authors as drought index is also strange as this is generally used as climate characteristics (starting from the Budyko’s classical work). Also what I have hard time to understand is that the authors are using the full range of aridity index – which considers both wet and dry phase – in their analyses. So where is the perspective of droughts here? In order to consider droughts the authors must focus of one end of the drought indices (drier parts) and not the entire range. The similar is the case with the author’s analyses for the hydrological drought index. So, if I did not get it wrong – the whole perspective of the author’s analyses revolving around the drought indices are misleading.

2. The authors must provide argument and reasoning for the choice of selected drought indices. Why do not authors choose conventional and commonly used drought index – Standardized precipitation index (SPI) or the Standardized Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI) for meteorological droughts; and runoff based drought index for hydrological droughts.

3. Related to the above one, why are the drought indices analyzed at annual time scale and not monthly or moving average estimates as commonly used in drought studies?

4. To a certain degree I understand the choice of using the regional climate model in their analyses, but what I miss is the thorough comparison of the RIEMS model to observations – in the sense that it could provide meaning conclusion for drought analysis. The authors must demonstrate that the selected model is able to capture the observed behavior of meteorological and hydrological droughts (say SPI or standardized runoff index). Here I mean skill of the model for drought index and not the variable itself.

5. To my understanding the RIEMS model provide estimates of net radiation (Rn) through their numerical parameterization of the mass, momentum and energy conservations.
schemes – so why do not the authors use Rn variable instead of PET – which
is just the proxy of available energy? Please elaborate. bance” affecting the
hydrological drought conditions. Do these statements are supported
by their analyses or this is just the speculation? Do the selected model (RIEMS)
considers the process affected by human disturbances (irrigation, farming,
urbanization,
grazing activities) and in which way those disturbances affect the hydrological
processes? Please consider elaborating on the RIEMS parameterization and provide
some modeling results in this direction.
7. All you describe in Section 3.2 is hydro-climatic characteristics and not the spatial
pattern of drought indices – as the section heading indicates and explained in text. See
the point 1 of my comment.
8. The starting paragraph in the Introduction section does not flow - instead of
making
a case (motivation) for the current study, it starts with describing the study catchment
(Heihe river) and then jumping to other region (Colorado river in US). Please
reformulate.
9. The results section starts with detailing supplement plots – I would have expected
to see first the main plots and then the supporting plots and not other way around.
10. Figure 1: Quality is too poor – I could not read any of the subplot’s legend.
11. Figures 2-7: What is the point of making these figures up to 43oN, when the
study area ends at 42oN? Also please consider improving these figures and limit them
to just show the study basin region.
Interactive comment on Nat. Hazards Earth Syst
Responses to comments from Reviewer 1

(Note: Responses are provided in italic font)

I have a couple of suggestions that may improve this manuscript. First, a multiple-disciplinary comprehensive research project has been conducted in the Heihe River basin. Please discuss the implications of the findings for the research of other scientific disciplines in the study area. Secondly, there are many drought indices available. Please provide a brief review on these indices.

Thanks for the valuable and insightful comments and suggestions. Revisions are made accordingly.

(1) A paragraph is added to discuss the significance of this study for the research on the Heihe River Basin (L420-439). Several existing studies on comprehensive monitoring, modeling and data manipulation, land cover and land use changes, streamflow, and vegetation are described. Supporting evidence and/or different interpretations from our study are provided. The discussion is focused on the relationships and interactions between the transitional middle HRB and other regions.

(2) A description of drought indices is added in the introduction section (L 80-111). The meteorological and hydrological droughts are defined. Several major drought indices for each of the two types of droughts are briefly described. Comparisons are made to indicate the circumstances for each index.

Responses to comments from Reviewer 2

In the manuscript entitled “Identifying a Transition Climate Zone in an Arid River Basin using a Hydrological Drought Index”, Zhang et. al., analyzed meteorological and hydrological drought indices to identify transitional climate zone in a Heihe River Basin (HRB) in the arid northwestern China. The authors used simulations from a Regional Integrated Environmental Model System (RIEMS 2.0). Based on their analyses, the authors found the hydrologic based drought index being more suitable for the characterizing the transitional climate zone in the study basin, compared to meteorological based drought index. While the study might fall within the scope of this Journal, there are several limitations, in my opinion the work performed here is not adequate for the publication in this Journal. Major issues with this study is detailed below.

Thanks for reviewing our manuscript and providing many constructive and valuable comments and suggestions. We agree with the major concerns and confusions raised by the reviewer. We think that they are caused by our misuse of the drought index terms rather than by using inappropriate indices. In fact, we actually used correct indicators of aridity indices for this climate classification study. For this reason, we think we are able to address the comments 1-3 and 7 and by using aridity indices to replace drought indices and providing clarification. As suggested, SPI analysis and a brief description
of model parameterization are provided. They should address the comments 4-6. Some writings of contexts or the way to present them are changed to address the comments 6-9. Figures are improved to address the comments 10-11.

Please see below for detailed responses.

2. I find the narration as authors put up that drought indices are used for climate classification a bit strange. The aridity index as used by the authors as drought index is also strange as this is generally used as climate characteristics (starting from the Budyko’s classical work). Also what I have hard time to understand is that the authors are using the full range of aridity index – which considers both wet and dry phase – in their analyses. So where is the perspective of droughts here? In order to consider droughts the authors must focus of one end of the drought indices (drier parts) and not the entire range. The similar is the case with the author’s analyses for the hydrological drought index. So, if I did not get it wrong – the whole perspective of the author’s analyses revolving around the drought indices are misleading.

It is a very valuable and helpful comment. This study is to classify climate regimes in the Heihe River watershed of the arid northwestern China. As pointed by the reviewer and also indicated in other literatures (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Climate_classification), aridity indices are one of the indicators used in climate classification. One of the two indices used in this study, the Budyko-type Aridity Index (AI), is apparently an aridity index. The difference between potential (PET) and actual evaporation (AET) is often used to measure aridity (https://www.springer.com/us/book/9783642291036, P 21-39). Thus, the other index used in this study, the Evaporative Stress Index (ESI), is also an aridity index, though it appears as a ratio of AET to PET instead of a difference between PET and AET. However, we misused terms by calling the two aridity indices as drought indices and therefore caused the confusions. In the revision, the terms are changed from meteorological and hydrological drought indices to meteorological and hydrological aridity indices throughout the paper.

As clarified above, this study is to classify climate regimes rather than analyze droughts. Besides the arid lower Heihe River reach, this region also includes the humid upper reach in the mountain area and a transition zone in between the arid and humid regions. Thus, the full range of aridity indices was used with lower and higher values indicating arid and humid climates, respectively.

2. The authors must provide argument and reasoning for the choice of selected drought indices. Why do not authors choose conventional and commonly used drought index – Standardized precipitation index (SPI) or the Standardized Precipitation-Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI) for meteorological droughts; and runoff based drought index for hydrological droughts.

As indicated above, this study actually used aridity indices rather than drought indices for climate classification. Considering many similarities between aridity and drought indices, we describe and compare with some popular meteorological and hydrological drought indices.
in the Introduction section. As suggested, SPI is analyzed in the revision (see the response to comment 4).

3. Related to the above one, why are the drought indices analyzed at annual time scale and not monthly or moving average estimates as commonly used in drought studies?

Due to the limitation with PET calculation in the upper basin, where no values are available during much of the winter time when temperature is below 0°C, we did not analyze the aridity indices at monthly time scale. However, we compared averages over the analysis period for each of the spring, summer and fall seasons (Figure 8). Same as the annual values, noticeable differences are found in ESI but not in AI between the middle and upper basins for each of the three seasons.

4. To a certain degree I understand the choice of using the regional climate model in their analyses, but what I miss is the thorough comparison of the RIEMS model to observations – in the sense that it could provide meaningful conclusion for drought analysis. The authors must demonstrate that the selected model is able to capture the observed behavior of meteorological and hydrological droughts (say SPI or standardized runoff index). Here I mean skill of the model for drought index and not the variable itself. As suggested, SPI is analyzed (Figure 5). The results show general agreement between the simulated and observed precipitation variability at basin reach scale. The results are described in the revision (Lines 257-263).

5. To my understanding the RIEMS model provide estimates of net radiation (Rn) through their numerical parameterization of the mass, momentum and energy conservations schemes – so why do not the authors use Rn variable instead of PET – which is just the proxy of available energy? Please elaborate. PET is used because it is an item in the formulas to calculate the meteorological and hydrological aridity indices AI (Line 151) and ESI (Line 163). It is true the Rn is produced by the RIEMS model. Rn is used in calculating PET with the Penman-Monteith method (Eq.1).

6. As stated by the Abstract and Discussion sections point towards “human disturbance” affecting the hydrological drought conditions. Do these statements are supported by their analyses or this is just the speculation? Do the selected model (RIEMS) considers the process affected by human disturbances (irrigation, farming, urbanization, grazing activities) and in which way those disturbances affect the hydrological processes? Please consider elaborating on the RIEMS parameterization and provide some modeling results in this direction.

This study did not provide direct results on the effects of the land-surface processes and human disturbance on hydrological aridity conditions. Thus, the statements are just speculations. For this reason, this statement is removed from the abstract.

The RIEMS model used the Biosphere and Atmosphere Transfer Scheme (BATS) to simulate the land-surface hydrological processes. These processes depend on vegetation and soil
properties, which change over time due to the human and natural disturbances. The
vegetation and soil properties measured in the HRB in 2000 were used to replace the
universal BATS specifications, but the disturbances were not included in the simulation that
provided the data for this study. In the revision, we add discussion in section 4.2 about the
land-surface parameterization used in the model and the ways in which the disturbances
affect hydrological processes (Lines 477-486).

7. All you describe in Section 3.2 is hydro-climatic characteristics and not the spatial
pattern of drought indices – as the section heading indicates and explained in text. See
the point 1 of my comment.

Following the change described in the response to the comment 1, the term in heading is
changed from drought to aridity (Lines 150 and 282).

8. The starting paragraph in the Introduction section does not flow - instead of making
a case (motivation) for the current study, it starts with describing the study catchment
(Heihe river) and then jumping to other region (Colorado river in US). Please reformulate.

As suggested, the study catchment is presented later in the Introduction section, following the
descriptions of aridity indices and climate classification.

9. The results section starts with detailing supplement plots – I would have expected
to see first the main plots and then the supporting plots and not other way around.

These figures provide the climate background in the study region as well as simulation
validation, which we think is useful to understand the aridity results and validate model
performance. The concern with the comment may be partially due to the fact that we put
these figures in the supplement. In the revision, we remove the supplement and present all
figures in the main context. Some figures are combined to limit the number of figures.

10. Figure 1: Quality is too poor – I could not read any of the subplot’s legend.
The first and second subplots of this figure are removed and the remaining subplot is more
readable.

11. Figures 2-7: What is the point of making these figures up to 43oN, when the whole
study area ends at 42oN? Also please consider improving these figures and limit them
to just show the study basin region.

As suggested, the upper portion of these figures is removed.
Major changes

1. A paragraph is added to discuss the significance of this study for the research on the Heihe River Basin.
2. We use aridity indices to replace drought indices and clarification is provided.
3. SPI analysis and a brief description of model parameterization are provided.
4. Some writings of contexts or the way to present them are changed
5. Figures are improved.
6. Author order is changed and a co-corresponding author is added. Both corresponding authors have made major contributions to research and manuscript writing and will contribute to meeting the production requirements if the paper is eventually accepted for publication.
Identifying a Transition Climate Zone in an Arid River Basin using a Hydrological Drought Evaporative Stress Index

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Abstract. Drought Aridity indices have been widely used in climate classification. However, there is not enough evidence for their ability in identifying the multiple climate types in areas with complex topography and landscape, especially in those areas with a transition climate. This study compares a traditional meteorological drought aridity index, the aridity index (AI), defined as the ratio of precipitation (P) to potential evapotranspiration (PET), with a hydrological drought aridity index, the Evaporative Stress Index (ESI) defined as the ratio of actual evapotranspiration (AET) to PET. We conducted this study using modeled high resolution climate data for the period of 1980-2010 in the Heihe River Basin (HRB) in the arid northwestern China. PET was estimated using the Penman-Monteith and Hamon methods. The aridity indices were calculated using the high resolution climate data simulated with a regional climate model for the period of 1980-2010. The climate classified by AI shows two distinct climate types for the upper basin and a second type for the middle and lower basin reaches, while three different climate types were found using ESI, each for one river basin if ESI was used. This difference indicates that only ESI is able to identify a transition climate zone in the middle basin. This contrast between the two indices is also seen in the inter-annual variability and extreme dry / wet events. The magnitude of variability in the middle basin is
close to that in the lower basin for \textit{AI}, but different for \textit{ESI}. \textit{AI} had larger magnitude of the relative inter-annual variability and greater decreasing rate from 1980-2010 than \textit{ESI}, suggesting the role of local hydrological processes in moderating extreme climate events. Thus, the hydrological \textit{drought- aridity} index is better than the meteorological \textit{drought- aridity} index for climate classification in the arid Heihe River Basin—where local climate is largely determined by topography and landscape. We conclude that the land-surface processes and human disturbances play an important role in altering hydrological drought conditions and their spatial and temporal variability.

1 Introduction

Large river basins at continental and sub-continental scales usually encompass multiple climate types related to complex topography and landscape. Climate is more humid in the upper basin near the river origins with high elevations and forest and/or permanent snow cover than the lower basin with low elevations and less vegetated lands. Climate could be extremely dry in parts of a watershed under a prevailing atmospheric high pressure system. The sub-continental Colorado River watershed, for example, is dominated by cold and humid continental climate in the upper basin of the Rocky Mountains and cold semi-arid or warm desert climate in the lower basin of the southern intermountains.

This feature of multiple climate types is also seen in some smaller basins. The Heihe River Basin (HRB) in northwestern China, for example, has an area of 130,000 km$^2$ with annual precipitation varying dramatically from about 500 mm in the upper basin of the Qilian Mountains with forest meadow-ice covers in the south to less than 100 mm in the lower basin of the Alxa High Plain with Gobi and sandy lands in the north. Climate types change from cold and humid continental to arid desert, accordingly.

The relative high precipitation in the humid upper basin supports forests and meadows and provides source water lower reaches of the Heihe River. In contrast, water is a major limitation factor in arid lower basin. In addition, more extreme weather conditions, especially droughts, occur in arid lower basin. In the Colorado River basins, the reconstructed data show decadal periods of persistently low flows during the past centuries (Woodhouse et al., 2010). The drought severity in the new millennia has been the most extreme over a century (Cayan et al., 2010). The reconstructed precipitation series in the HRB indicates that droughts were much
more frequent and lasted longer than floods in the past two centuries (Ren et al., 2010). Droughts occurred more often in the dry lower basin than the humid upper basin (Li, 2012).

The watersheds with varied topography and landscape may have a transition climate zone between the two zones. In the HRB, for example, the Koppen climate classification (Peel et al., 2007) shows polar tundra or boreal climate in the upper basin of the mountain regions in the south, arid desert climate in the lower basin in the north, and a transition zone of steppe climate in the middle. Identifying this transition zone and understanding its unique climate features are of both scientific and management significance. The complex topography in upper basin and harsh climate in lower basin make both regions unsuitable for human living. The transition zone however is relatively flat in comparison with the mountain region and less arid in comparison with the dryland region. It therefore provides a favorable condition for industrial and agricultural development. Also, the environmental conditions in this region are more dynamical and localized because of human induced rapid and fragmental landscape changes. The Koppen climate classification, one of the most widely used climate classification techniques at large geographic scales and constructed based on the properties of ecosystems, latitude, and average and seasonal precipitation and temperature, is often used for a large region with static environmental conditions.

In addition to the Koppen climate classification system (Peel et al., 2007), aridity
indices are another useful tool to classify and monitor aridity and drought of a region (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Climate_classification). In contrast to drought indices that measure water deficit over short periods (such as months, seasons, and years), aridity indices measure water deficit over long periods (e.g., 30 years or longer). There are however many similarities between aridity and drought indices. Same as drought indices, aridity indices quantitative measures of drought levels by combining one or several variables (indicators) into a single numerical value (Wilhite and Glantz, 1985, Zargar et al., 2011). Drought indices are usually They can be categorized into different types such as meteorological and hydrological indices, agricultural, and social droughts (Wilhite and Glantz, 1985), which Different definitions can be found. The first two types of droughts investigated in this study were are simply considered as a lack of water due to anomalous atmospheric and land-surface conditions, respectively. in this study.
Precipitation, temperature and humidity are atmospheric conditions often used to estimate meteorological drought indices. Among various drought indices, Percent of Normal (PN) and Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) (McKee et al., 1993) are simply based on precipitation and can be used to measure anomalies of a period over various lengths. Palmer Drought Severity Index (PDSI) (Palmer, 1965) and Keetch-Byram Index model (Keetch and Byram, 1968) are based on water supply and demand estimated mainly using precipitation and temperature (Guttman, 1999). Both indices depend on precedent daily or monthly values, making them specifically useful for a persistent event like drought. Among various aridity indices, The Bydyko-type aridity index (AI) (Budyko, 1974) uses annual averages of precipitation and potential evapotranspiration (PET), which is mainly determined by temperature. AI is also used as an essential element in many other indices to describe actual drought conditions (Arora, 2002). Different from the above four indices, which are often used to indicate the dry spells of temporal humidity variability, AI is often used to indicate a climatic humidity condition of a region.

Land-surface conditions are streamflow, runoff, actual evapotranspiration, etc. Among various hydrological drought indices, Streamflow Drought Index (SDI) (Nalbantis and Tsakiris, 2009) and Surface Water Supply Index (SWSI) (Shafer and Dezma, 1982) use streamflow as well as reservoir storage and precipitation to monitor abnormal surface water (Narasimhan and Srinivasan, 2005). Standardize Runoff Index (SRI) (Shukla and Wood, 2008) is standard normal deviate associated with runoff accumulated over a specific duration. The Evaporative Stress Index (ESI) defines dryness degree based on the ratio of actual evapotranspiration (AET) to PET. A relatively low ESI indicates water limitation to plants and the actual rate is way below the PET. In contrast, a relatively high ESI indicates freely available water with the AET rate approaching or close to the PET. The ESI has been long used to evaluate the irrigation need for crop growth and land classification (Yao, 1974). The ESI has been used recently to evaluate water stress using remotely sensed hydrological and ecological properties (Anderson et al., 2016). AET is one of the hydrological properties used in aridity analysis (Maliva and Missimer, 2012). However, ESI applications for climate classification have yet been conducted. ESI can also be used for drought monitoring. Many studies have compared various types of drought indices of drought indices in different climatic environments. Otkin et al. (2013) compared the ESI with drought classification used by the U.S. Drought Monitor.
and found that the ESI anomalies led the USDM drought depiction by several weeks and large ESI anomalies therefore were indicative of rapidly drying conditions. This finding was coincident with the droughts occurred across the United States in recent years. Choi et al. (2013) compared the ESI with the Palmer drought severity index (PDSI) in a watershed of the Savannah River branch in southeastern United States during 2000-2008. They found that the ability of the ESI to capture shorter term droughts was equal or superior to the PDSI when characterizing droughts for the watershed with a relatively flat topography dominated by a single land cover type. However, the differences between the meteorological and hydrological drought indices in capturing the spatial patterns and temporal variations under complex topography and environments, especially with a transition zone, are not well characterized and understood. It should be valuable to further compare the roles of ESI with meteorological aridity indices in climate classification.

Large river basins at continental and sub-continental scales usually encompass multiple climate types related to complex topography and landscape. Climate is more humid in the upper basin near the river origins with high elevations and forest and/or permanent snow cover than the lower basin with low elevations and less vegetated lands. Climate could be extremely dry in parts of a watershed under a prevailing atmospheric high pressure system. The sub-continental Colorado River watershed, for example, is dominated by cold and humid continental climate in the upper basin of the Rocky Mountains and cold semi-arid or warm desert climate in the lower basin of the southern inter-mountains. This feature of multiple climate types is also seen in some smaller basins. The Heihe River Basin (HRB) in northwestern China, for example, has an area of 130,000 km² with annual precipitation varying dramatically from about 500 mm in the upper basin of the Qilian Mountains with forest-meadow-ice covers in the south to less than 100 mm in the lower basin of the Alxa High Plain with Gobi and sandy lands in the north. Climate types change from cold and humid continental to arid desert, accordingly.

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This study is to understand the capacity of the meteorological drought-aridity index, AI, and the hydrological drought-aridity index, ESI, in identifying the transition climate zone in the HRB. It was made mainly by comparing the spatial patterns and regional averages. Their temporal variations were also analyzed to understand the differences in the seasonal and inter-annual variability and long-term between the meteorological and hydrological drought-aridity indices. The data from a high-resolution regional climate modeling were used.

2 Methods

2.1 Study region

The study region was the HRB and the adjacent areas (Fig. 1). The Heihe River originates from the Qilian Mountains in the northern edge of the Tibet Plateau and flows northward to the China-Russian border. The HRB spans between 98°~101°30'E and 38°~42°N. The upper HRB is within the mountains elevated 2300~3200m mainly covered with forests and mountain meadows. The middle HRB is along the Hexi Corridor elevated 1600~2300m mainly covered
with piedmont steppe grass, crops, and residence and commercial uses. The lower HRB is in the Alxa High-Plain elevated below 1600m mainly covered with Gobi and desert sands.

Annual precipitation is over 400mm in the upper basin, with the maximum of 800mm at extremely high elevations, about 100-250mm in the middle basin, and below 50mm in many lower basin areas. The annual precipitation in the upper basin has high seasonal variability, and nearly 70% of the total annual rainfall occurs from May to September (Gao et al., 2016). The upper basin generates nearly 70% of the total river runoff, which supplies agricultural irrigation and benefits the social economy development in the middle and lower basin reaches (Yang et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2005). Annual mean temperature is about ~4°C in the upper basin, 7°C in the middle basin, and nearly 9°C in the lower basin.

2.2 Drought indices

The meteorological drought aridity index is defined as \( AI = P / PET \), where \( P \) and \( PET \) are daily precipitation and potential evapotranspiration, respectively. \( AI \) is a variant of the index originally defined by Budyko (1974), which is the ratio of annual \( PET \) to \( P \). The average \( AI \) values were used to classify the arid, semi-arid, semi-humid (sub-humid), and humid climate with the ranges of \( AI \leq 0.2 \), \( 0.2 < AI \leq 0.5 \), \( 0.5 < AI \leq 1.3 \), and \( AI > 1.3 \), respectively (Ponce et al., 2000).
The study region of the Heihe River Basin (red box) in China, with landscape (upper left) and elevation (meter) and three provinces (upper right) (data source: Wang et al., 2014). The triangles signs in upper left are meteorological observation sites. The bottom panel shows the location of the study region in China and the Koppen climate classification (from Peel et al., 2007).

The hydrological drought aridity index is defined as $ESI = \frac{AET}{PET}$, where $AET$ is daily actual evapotranspiration. The ranges of average ESI values of $ESI \leq 0.1$, $0.1 < ESI \leq 0.3$, $0.3 < ESI \leq 0.6$, and $ESI > 0.6$ were used to classify the arid, semi-arid, semi-humid, and humid climate, respectively (Yang, 2007). This approach agrees with Anderson (2011), which showed that the $ESI$ values varying gradually from 0 to 1 correspond to several USDM drought levels from exceptional to no drought for each month from April to September across the continental U.S.

Two methods were used to estimate $PET$ (mm/d). One was the energy balance based FAO-Penman-Monteith Equation (Allen et al. 1998):

$$PET_p = \frac{0.408\Delta(R_n - G) + 900}{\Delta + 0.34u^2_e} \frac{Y}{\sum_{i=0}^{12}(c_i - \varepsilon)}$$

(1)
where $R_n$ and $G$ are net radiation and soil flux on the ground (MJ m$^{-2}$ d$^{-1}$); $T$ is air temperature ($^\circ$C); $e_s$ and $e$ are saturation and actual water vapor pressure (kPa); $u_2$ is wind speed at 2m above the ground (ms$^{-1}$); $\Delta$ is the rate of change of $e$ with respect to $T$ (kPa$^\circ$C); $\gamma$ is the psychrometric constant (kPa$^\circ$C). The other method is the temperature based on Hamon formula (Hamon, 1963):

$$PET_h = \frac{k \times 0.165 \times 216.7 \times N \times e_s}{T + 273.3}$$

(2)

where $k$ is proportionality coefficient = 1; $N$ is daytime length. $e_s$ is in 100 Pa here.

Monthly $PET$, precipitation and actual evapotranspiration, obtained based on daily values, were used to calculate the drought-aridity indices. It was assumed that daily $PET$=0 if daily $T$<0$^\circ$C. Their monthly $PET$ was not used if $PET$=0 for more than 10 days in a month. In this case, no drought-aridity indices were calculated for the month. It was also assumed that daily ground energy was in balance, so $R_n - G = H + L \times AET$, where $H$ and $L$ are sensible heat flux and potential heat constant.

The data used in calculation and evaluation of the drought-aridity indices are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. The data used in calculation and evaluation of the drought-aridity indices. H, AET, P, T, and e (RH) are sensible heat flux, actual evapotranspiration, precipitation, temperature, wind speed, and water vapor pressure (relative humidity). HRB stands for Heihe River Basin.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Time Period</th>
<th>Space</th>
<th>Reference</th>
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<tr>
<td>Simulation</td>
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<td>1980-2010,</td>
<td>HRB, 3 km</td>
<td>Xiong and Yan (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P, T, u, e</td>
<td>daily</td>
<td>resolution</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>daily</td>
<td>HRB</td>
<td>Infrastructure (data.cma.cn)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3 Regional climate modeling

The climatic and hydrological data used to calculate the drought-aridity indices were created from a regional climate modeling using the Regional Integrated Environmental Model System (RIEMS 2.0) (Xiong and Yan, 2013). The simulation was conducted over the period of 1980-2010. The horizontal spatial resolution was 3km. A unique feature with this simulation was
that the model’s parameters, including soil hydrological properties, were recalibrated based on observations and remote sensing data over the HRB that greatly improved the model’s performance. The model evaluation indicated that the model was able to reproduce the spatial pattern and seasonal cycle of precipitation and surface \( T \). The correlation coefficients between the simulated and observed pentad \( P \) were 0.81, 0.51, and 0.7 in the upper, middle, and lower HRB regions, respectively (\( p<0.01 \)).

The historical \( T \) and \( P \) observations during the simulation period at Yeilangou of the upper basin (38.25°N, 99.35°E, 3300m above the sea level), Zhangye of the middle basin (38.11°N, 100.15°E, 1484m), and Dingqing of the lower basin (40.3°N, 99.52°E, 1177m) (Fig. 1) were used to compare with the simulations.

3 Results

3.1 Simulated climate and hydrology

The spatial pattern of the simulated annual \( T \) averaged over the simulation period is featured by the large changes between basin reaches, increasing from about -15°C in the tall mountains of the upper basin to over 10°C in the deserts of the lower basin (Fig. S1). The simulated average annual \( P \) shows an opposite gradient, decreasing from about 2.5 mm/d in the mountains to less than 0.25 mm/d in the deserts (Fig. S2). The simulated average annual \( AET \) has a similar pattern to precipitation (Fig. S3). The spatial variability is much larger within the upper basin than the lower basin.

An interesting feature is that both \( T \) and \( P \) in the middle basin are very close to their corresponding values in the lower basin but much different from those in the upper basin; the \( AET \) difference between the middle and upper basin reaches however is much small.
As expected, the regional AET values averaged over the simulation period are higher in summer than in winter (Fig. S43). In the upper basin, for example, $T$ increases from about -15°C in winter to 10°C in summer, $P$ increased from about 0.25 to 4 mm/d, and AET from about 0.25 to 2.5 mm/d. Again, $T$ and $P$ are close between the middle and lower basin reaches all seasons, and AET is close between the middle and upper basin reaches during winter and spring. While AET is close between the middle and lower basin reaches during summer and fall, the differences between the middle and upper basin reaches are much smaller than the differences in $T$ or $P$. 

Figure 3. Seasonal variations of simulated air temperature ($T$, °C), precipitation ($P$, mm/d), and actual evapotranspiration (AET, mm/d) in three basin reaches averaged over 1980-2010.
The inter-annual variability of regional $T$ and $P$ is similar between the middle and lower basin reaches (Fig. S5). A few dry years (e.g., 1990, 2001, and 2008) and wet years (e.g., 1981, 1989, 2002, and 2007) can be found. The amplitude of variability is larger for $P$ than $T$, especially in the upper basin. The variability of $AET$ is also similar between the lower and middle basin reaches, but it differs from that in the upper basin during some periods (e.g., around 1985). The differences in $AET$ between the middle and upper basins are much smaller in the magnitude than those for the meteorological properties.

The above features of close values and similar inter-annual variability in the simulated $T$ and $P$ between the middle and lower basin reaches are also seen in the observations (Fig. S6). The simulated $T$ in all basin regions and $P$ in the middle and lower basin reaches are close to the observed ones. However, the simulated $P$ is about 0.4 mm/d higher (about 1.6 mm/d for simulation vs. 1.2 mm/d for observation). The weather site in the upper basin is located in relatively flat and low valley, while the simulation grids have many points at high elevations where $P$ is larger than at the valley locations.
Figure 4. Inter-annual variations of simulated air temperature ($T$, °C), precipitation ($P$, mm/d) and actual evapotranspiration ($AET$, mm/d), and observed air temperature ($T$, °C) and precipitation ($P$, mm/d) in three basin reaches over 1980-2010.

The SPI for 12-month timescale also shows generally similar inter-annual variations over the analysis period between the simulated and observed precipitation in the three basins (Fig. 5). In the upper basin, for example, the observed wet spells occurred around 30, 50, 120, 230,
290, 340, and 360 months, while the dry spells occurred around 20, 30, 70, 100, 180, 200, 260, and 300 months. The simulation reproduces most of the wet and dry spells. However, the simulation is too wet during about 40-80 months and largely misses the dry events during 240-260 months.

Figure 5. The Standardized Precipitation Index (SPI) for 12-month timescale over the analysis period. The left and right are observation and simulation. From top to bottom are the upper, middle, and lower basins, respectively. The horizontal number is month from the beginning of the analysis period.

The simulated $P$ increases around 50% over the simulation period, statistically significant at $p<0.01$ in all basin reaches (Table S12). The simulated $AET$ also increases, but at a smaller degree of around 20% and $p<0.01$ only in the upper basin. The simulated $T$ shows increasing trends, but insignificant in all reaches. The simulated $P$ trends are close to the observed ones in the middle and lower basin reaches, but opposite to that in the upper basin. The simulated $T$ underestimates the observed warming, which was about 2°C at $p<0.01$. 
Table 2. Mann-Kendall trends from 1980 to 2010 of simulated temperature ($T$), precipitation ($P$), and actual evapotranspiration ($AET$) and observed temperature ($T_{obs}$), precipitation ($P_{obs}$). The bold and italic numbers are significant at $p<0.01$ and $p<0.05$, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Upper</th>
<th>Middle</th>
<th>Lower</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$T$ ($^\circ$C)</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P$ (%)</td>
<td>53.0</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td>47.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$AET$ (%)</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_{obs}$ ($^\circ$C)</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P_{obs}$ (%)</td>
<td>-10.7</td>
<td>74.6</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 Spatial patterns of drought-aridity indices

$PET$ calculated using the Penman-Monteith method is mostly 1.7-2.25 mm/d in the upper basin (Fig. 26). It increases to above 3 mm/d in the middle and lower basins. There is little difference between the two regions. The meteorological drought-aridity index, $AI$, shows a similar pattern but opposite gradient (Fig. 26). It is as large as 1.4 in the upper basin, but reduced to less than 0.2 in two other basin regions, indicating increasing aridity from the upper to lower basin. The hydrological drought-aridity index, $ESI$, has the same gradient as $AI$, but with different spatial pattern (Fig. 46). It is as high as 0.9 in the upper basin and reduced to mostly below 0.1 in the lower basin. However, the values in the middle basin is as high as 0.6, much larger than that in the lower basin.

$P$ and $AET$ are the highest in the upper basin and the lowest in the lower basin, while $T$ and $PET$ have an opposite seasonal cycle. This explains why $AI$ and $ESI$ are larger in the upper basin than the middle or lower basin.
Figure 2. Spatial distributions of potential evapotranspiration (PET, mm/d) estimated using the Penman-Monteith method.

Figure 3. Spatial distributions of aridity index with potential evapotranspiration estimated using the Penman-Monteith method.
Figure 64. Spatial distributions of potential evaporation (PET, mm/d), Aridity index (AI) and Evaporative Stress Index (ESI) with PET potential evapotranspiration estimated using the Penman-Monteith method. Averaged over 1980-2010. The Heihe River basins are shown in the left panel.

PET calculated using the Hamon method has the same pattern as the one using the Penman-Monteith method, but with smaller magnitude (Fig. 57). PET is mostly about 1 mm/d in the upper basin and increases to about 1.5-1.75 mm/d in the middle basin, and further to 1.75-2.25 mm/d in the lower basin.
The different spatial patterns between *AI* and *ESI* seen above are also found for the Homan method. *AI* is mostly above 0.6 in the upper basin (Fig. 6). It is below 0.2 in the middle and lower basins without apparent differences between the two regions. In contrast, while *ESI* remains large values of mostly above 0.9 in the upper basin and low values of below 0.2 in the lower basin, the values in many areas of the middle basin are 0.4-0.9, much different from those in the lower basin (Fig. 7).

---

**Figure 5.** Spatial distributions of potential evapotranspiration (*PET*, mm/d) estimated using the Homan method.
Figure 6. Spatial distributions of aridity index with potential evapotranspiration estimated using the Hamon method.
Figure 7. Spatial distributions of potential evaporation (PET, mm/d), Aridity index (AI) and Evaporative Stress Index (ESI) with PET estimated using the Hamon method. Averaged over 1980-2010. The Heihe River basins are shown in the left panel.

Spatial distributions of evaporative stress index with potential evapotranspiration estimated using the Hamon method.

3.3 Climate classification

The annual PET averages over 1980-2010 calculated using the Penman method are 2.12, 3.91, and 4.76 (Table 2-3 and Fig. 8). The corresponding AI values are about 0.9, 0.12, and 0.04, falling into semi-humid, arid, and arid climate. The corresponding ESI values are 0.63, 0.22, and 0.07, falling into humid, semi-arid, and arid climate. The annual PET averaged over 1980-2010 calculated using the Homan method are 1.25, 2.33, and 2.65 mm/d for the upper, middle, and lower basin reaches. The corresponding AI values are about 1.3, 0.18, and 0.07, falling into humid, arid, and arid climate. The corresponding ESI values are 0.78, 0.31, and 0.13, falling into humid, semi-humid, and semi-arid climate.

Thus, the climate across the HRB classified using AI has two types of semi-humid (the Penman method for PET) or humid (the Homan method) in the upper basin, and arid in both middle and lower basin reaches. In contrast, the climate classified using ESI has three types of humid in the upper basin, semi-arid (the Penman method) or semi-humid (the Homan method) in the middle basin, and arid (the Penman method) or semi-arid (the Homan method) in the lower basin. This indicates that only the hydrological drought-aridity index is able to identify the transition climate zone in the middle basin.
The difference between AI and ESI in classifying climate is related to the similar feature with the meteorological variables. Annual $P$ is 555 mm in the upper basin, which is substantially different from 69-139 mm in the middle and lower basins. The mean $T$ is -4.0°C in the upper basin, which is well below 6.9-8.7°C in the middle and lower basin reaches. The corresponding PET values fall into two groups, 299 mm in the upper basin and 672-767 mm in the middle and lower basin reaches. This explains why the AI falls into two groups. In contrast, AET is 226, 161, and 80 mm, substantially different not only between the middle and upper reaches but also between the middle and lower reaches. This explains why the ESI falls into three groups.

Figure 8. Seasonal variations of simulated potential evapotranspiration (PET, mm/d), Aridity Index (AI), and Evaporative Stress Index (ESI) (from left to right). The top and bottom panels are for the Penman-Monteith and Hamon method, respectively.
Table 2. Regional average (AVE), standard deviation (SD), and coefficient of variation (CV) for potential evapotranspiration ($PET$, mm/d), aridity index ($AI$), and evaporative stress index ($ESI$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Basin</th>
<th>PET AV</th>
<th>PET SD</th>
<th>PET CV</th>
<th>AI AVE</th>
<th>AI SD</th>
<th>AI CV</th>
<th>ESI AVE</th>
<th>ESI SD</th>
<th>ESI CV</th>
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<td>0.90</td>
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<td>0.35</td>
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<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.11</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.26</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>4.76</td>
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<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hamon</td>
<td>Upper</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.43</td>
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<td>Lower</td>
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<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4 Temporal variations of drought-aridity indices

3.4.1 Seasonal cycle

For the Penman-Monteith method, $PET$ is the highest in summer and smallest in winter (Fig. 8). Note that winter $PET$ in the upper basin is not shown because $T$ is below zero in too many days. The amplitude in the middle basin is close to that in the lower basin, but much larger than that in the upper basin. Different from the upper basin where $AI$ and $ESI$ are also the largest in summer, $AI$ is the largest in fall, while $ESI$ is the largest in winter in the middle basin (as well as lower basin). The seasonal variations of $PET$, $AI$ and $ESI$ estimated using the Homan method are similar to those using the Penman method.

The seasonal $AI$ and $ESI$ cycles are related to those of the meteorological and hydrological conditions. $T$, $P$ and $AET$ (Fig. 843), and $PET$ (Fig. 8) all increase from winter to summer. In the upper basin, the increases in $P$ and $AET$ from spring / fall to summer are larger than the corresponding increases in $PET$, leading to larger $AI$ and $ESI$ values in summer. In the middle as well as lower basin, however, $PET$ increases substantially from spring / fall, leading to smaller $AI$ and $ESI$ in summer than in spring / fall.
Figure 8. Seasonal variations of simulated potential evapotranspiration (PET, mm/d), aridity index (AI), and evaporative stress index (ESI) (from left to right). The top and bottom panels are for the Penman-Monteith and Hamon method, respectively.

3.4.2 Inter-annual variability

*PET* in the middle basin calculated using the Penman-Monteith method shows similar inter-annual variability over the period of 1980-2010 to that in the lower basin, but much different from that in the upper basin (Fig. 9). The standard deviation (SD) increases from the upper (0.12) to middle (0.21) and to lower basin (0.29) (Table 2). The coefficient of variation (CV) (the ratio of the standard deviation to the average), a statistical property often used to measure relative variability intensity, however, is comparative among the reaches.
Figure 9. Inter-annual variations of potential evapotranspiration (PET, mm/d), Aridity Index (AI), and Evaporative Stress Index (ESI). P and H indicates the Penman-Monteith and Hamon method, respectively.

The SD values of both AI and ESI decrease from the upper to middle and to lower basin. However, SD of AI (ESI) in the middle basin is much closer to that in the lower (upper) basin. The CV values have opposite gradient to SD, increasing from the upper to middle and to lower basin. In addition, CV differs mainly not between the basin reaches but between drought aridity indices: AI is larger than ESI.

3.4.3 Long-term trends
PET shows little trends over the simulation period (Table 4). In contrast, drought‐aridity indices increased dramatically, by 60% or more for AI and 15‐50% for ESI. The trends are significant at p<0.01 in the upper and middle basin reaches and p<0.05 in the lower basin. The results indicate a less dryness condition in the HRB, which is the more remarkable in the middle than upper basin and in the meteorological than hydrological drought‐aridity index. Increase in precipitation is a major contributor.

Table 4. Mann‐Kendall trends from 1980 to 2010 of potential evapotranspiration (PET), Aridity index (AI), and Evaporative Stress index (ESI) (in %). P(H) indicates the Penman‐Monteith (Hamon) method. The bold and italic numbers are significant at p<0.01 and p<0.05, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index</th>
<th>Upper</th>
<th>Middle</th>
<th>Lower</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PET-P</td>
<td>-7.3</td>
<td>-2.7</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AI-P</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>98.6</td>
<td>80.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESI-P</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>47.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PET-H</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AI-H</td>
<td>62.6</td>
<td>84.3</td>
<td>66.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESI-H</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>40.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.5 Extreme events

The drought‐aridity indices for 4 simulated dry years (1982, 1990, 2001, and 2008) and 4 wet years (1981, 1989, 2002, and 2007) (Figs. S7–S10–S11) and the averages over the dry or wet years (Fig. 120) were analyzed. The annual AI values using the Penman-Monteith method are 0.4–0.5 for the first two dry years and 0.7–1.0 for the last two years in the upper valley (Fig. 120). The average over the 4 years is about 0.65. In comparison, the average is about 0.9 over 1980–2010 and 1.4 over the 4 wet years. The values are very small in spring (except in 1982) and occasionally in fall (1990). The annual AI values in the middle and lower basin reaches are below 0.2 for individual dry years and average. The small values are found for individual seasons except falls of the last two years in the middle basin. In compassion, the annual values are 0.4 or above in 3 falls of the 4 wet years.

The annual ESI values using the Penman-Monteith method are 0.5 or larger in the upper valley. The average over the 4 years are nearly 0.6. In comparison, the average is about 0.62
over 1980-2010 and 0.7 over the 4 wet years. The values are comparable from spring to fall, though relatively smaller in spring. This is different from AI. The annual ESI values are about 0.2 in the middle and below 0.1 in the lower basin for individual dry years and average. Thus, the values are apparently different between the middle and lower basin reaches. This is another difference from AI. The lowest values mostly occur in summer in both basin reaches. In compassion, the annual values are 0.25-0.35 in the middle basin and 0.1 or larger in 3 of the 4 wet years in the lower basin.

Same results, that is, substantially smaller AI than normal, especially in spring but no much ESI changes from normal and between seasons in the upper basin, and no much AI change from normal and wet events (small in all cases) in the middle and lower basin reaches but much smaller ESI than wet events and different between the two basin reaches, can be found for the Hamon method, though slightly larger AI and ESI values. The results suggest that ESI is better representative of extreme dry conditions in the middle basin, but less sensitive to drought aridity in the upper basin.
Figure 10. Seasonal variations of simulated Aridity Index (AI), and Evaporative Stress Index (ESI) using the Penman-Monteith and Hamon methods (left to right) for the dry years of 1982, 1990, 2001, and 2008 (from top to bottom).
Figure 11. Seasonal variations of simulated Aridity Index (AI), and Evaporative Stress Index (ESI) using the Penman-Monteith and Hamon methods (left to right) for the wet years of 1981, 1989, 2002, and 2007 (from top to bottom).
4 Discussion

4.1 Supports to the integrated water–ecosystem–economy study in the HRB

The HRB is a typical inland river basin with a strong contrast in topography, landscape, climate, and human activities from the headwater to end point along its drainage system. Comprehensive monitoring, modeling, and data manipulation studies have been conducted for several decades to understand the hydrological and ecological processes and interactions in the HRB (Cheng et al., 2014). The middle HRB is a special region with dynamic land cover and use changes due to human activity. Different from the upper HRB regions where climate change has been the controlling factor for hydrological and ecological processes, surface water condition is extremely important in the middle HRB where irrigated farmland is the largest land use and natural oases have been gradually replaced by artificial oases (Li et al., 2001, Cheng et al., 2014). According to our study, hydrological drought indices should be a better indicator than the meteorological drought indices for water supply and demand conditions in the middle HRB. Zhang et al. (2014) found that the streamflow from the upper to middle HRB has risen due to climate change, but the streamflow
from middle to lower HRB has reduced. They attributed this reduction to increasing water consumption by human activities in the middle HRB. Our study indicates less dryness trend in the middle HRB and therefore supports the analysis that climate change was not a major factor for the reduction. Sun et al. (2015) found an increasing trend in vegetation growth in the middle HRB and attributed it to irrigation. Our study shows less drought-drying trend in this region, suggesting that more net water was another contributor to the increasing vegetation growth.

4.2 Importance of land-surface processes

The water shortage and frequent droughts are the biggest environmental threat to the ecosystems and human activities in the HRB as well as entire northwestern China. This comparison study provides evidence for the importance of water and energy interactions between land process and the atmosphere and between upstreams and downstreams in determining climate types in an arid climate. Because the $ESI$ values are related to $AET$ that is controlled by land-surface properties and management practices (e.g., rainfall-fed crops vs irrigated crops; natural wetlands vs cultivated drained croplands), our results suggest the land-surface processes play an important role in affecting drought-aridity conditions and their variability. The landscape in the HRB, especially its transition zone, has changed remarkably in the past several decades due to urbanization, farming, and grazing activities (Hu et al., 2015). The irrigation may have caused the lower basin more water stressed (higher $ESI$ than $AI$) since stream water from Heihe is intercepted and rivers go dry downstreams. The $ESI$ should reflect this change since it is calculated partially based on the land-surface hydrological conditions.

Urbanization, farming, and grazing would reduce vegetation coverage. This would further reduce evapotranspiration and increase runoff. Irrigation would play opposite roles. The RIEMS model uses the Biosphere and Atmosphere Transfer Scheme (BATS) (Dickinson and Henderson-Sellers, 1993) to simulate the land-surface hydrological processes. The vegetation and soil properties measured in the HRB in 2000 were used to replace the universal BATS specifications, which improved precipitation simulation (Xiong and Yan, 2013). However, the above disturbance over time were not included in the simulation that provided the data for this study. Numerical experiments with this model are needed to provide quantitative evidence for the hydrological effects of the disturbances. The regional land-atmosphere coupled models...
would provide proofs for this hypothesis through modeling the impacts of land cover change, which is a driver of local land-atmosphere interactions.

4.3 Role in moderating climate

The magnitude of AI (ESI) inter-annual variability in the middle basin is (in/is not) very close to that in the lower basin, another evidence for the unique capacity of ESI in separating the climate zones between the middle and lower basin reaches. The magnitude of the relative inter-annual variability differs mainly between AI and ESI, larger with AI. In addition, both AI and ESI in the HRB decreased dramatically from 1980 to 2010, at greater rate with AI. Thus, the drought-aridity conditions described using ESI is less variable, suggesting the role of local hydrological processes in moderating extreme climate events.

4.4 Future trends

One of the hydrological consequences from the projected climate change due to the greenhouse gas increase is more frequent and intense droughts in watersheds of dry regions. In the Colorado River Basin, global warming may lead to substantial water supply shortages (McCabe and Wolock, 2007), and the climate models projected considerably more drought activities in the 21st century (Cayan et al., 2010). In the HRB, the climate of the upper HRB will likely become warmer and wetter in the near future (Zhang et al., 2016), consistent with the historical records. Correspondingly the basin-wide evapotranspiration, snowmelt, and runoff are projected to increase over the same period. Many drought-aridity indices, including the AI, have been used to project future drought-aridity trends (Paulo et al., 2012). However, most of the recent ESI studies are based on historical remote sensing for monitoring short-term drought development, which limits the application of this drought-index to climate change and drought-impact research. Due to the unique ability with the ESI in identifying the transition climate zone as shown in this study, it would be valuable to explore its potential for future drought-aridity projection study and compare with that of the AI.

4.5 Uncertainty and future research

The regional climate simulation which generated data for this analysis has many uncertainties (Xiong and Yan, 2013). One of the contributing factors is the very limited number of
meteorological, hydrological, and ecological measurement sites. A large-scale, multiple-year field experiment project has been conducted in the HRB, which have been generating extensive datasets (Wang et al., 2014). These data are being used to improve the regional climate modeling, which will in turn generate new high-resolution data for further drought-aridity analysis. Furthermore, the regional climate modeling has been expanded into the middle 21st century, providing data for calculating the drought-aridity indices and comparing their future trends. Comparisons of other meteorological and hydrological drought-aridity indices are also a future research issue.

5 Conclusions

This study has found that the ESI climate classification agrees with the Koppen climate classification (Peel et al., 2007). By this system, we found that the climate types are different among the upper, middle, and lower HRB. In contrast, there would be no difference between the middle and lower HRB regions when the AI was used. The comparison results from this study therefore suggest that only ESI is able to identify a transition climate zone between the relatively humid climate in the mountains and the arid climate in the Gobi desert region. We conclude that the hydrological drought-aridity index ESI is a better index than the meteorological drought-aridity index AI for aridity classification in the HRB with a complex topography and land cover. Selection of the most appropriate drought-aridity index facilitates drought-climate characterization, drought-assessment, and risk mitigation, and water resources management in the arid region.

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