

26 for humid airflows. (4) During localized precipitation events, the influence of dynamic and
27 thermodynamic factors is more complex than during regional precipitation, with precipitation
28 characteristics of the four airflows closely related to their water vapor content, air temperature and
29 humidity attributes, and orographic lifting. (5) Compared to regional precipitation, the influence of
30 topography is more prominent in localized precipitation processes.

31 **Key words:** Regional precipitation, Localized precipitation, Airflow transport, Water vapor flux,
32 Instability energy, Topographic influence

33

34 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00376-024-3162-6>

35

36 **Article Highlights:**

- 37 ● The precipitation amounts under the influence of WMA, CMA, WDA, and CDA air flows in the
38 LM rainy season account for 68%, 12%, 10%, and 9.8% of the total precipitation, respectively.
- 39 ● The regional precipitation intensity generated by WMA is greater than that of the other three types
40 of airflows, exhibiting characteristics of high water vapor flux and low instability energy.
- 41 ● During the regional precipitation process, dynamic and thermodynamic factors are notably evident
42 in the precipitation of dry airflows, with CDA demonstrating the most significant manifestation in
43 strong nighttime precipitation events.
- 44 ● Under the influence of topography, the dynamic and thermodynamic factors have a more
45 significant impact on localized precipitation than on regional precipitation.

46 **1 Introduction**

47 The water vapor resources for heavy rainfall in China during summer are primarily influenced by
48 the southwesterly water vapor transport from the Bay of Bengal and the South China Sea (Tao and
49 Chen, 1987; Simmonds et al., 1999; Zhou and Yu, 2005; Huang et al., 2017). For one of the regions
50 with the scarcest water resources in China, the northwest area, its water vapor transport mainly relies

51 on two circulation systems: the monsoon and the westerlies (Feng and Zhou, 2012; Li et al., 2015; Li
52 et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2020). However, as of now, there are few reports on the exact
53 impact that airflows of different directions and characteristics have on precipitation in this region.

54 Many studies have indicated that the efficiency of water vapor conversion to precipitation is low
55 in this region (Wang et al., 2005; Cheng et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2020). Other
56 research has pointed out that the aerial water resources in this area mainly follow the distribution along
57 mountainous regions (Chen et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020; Qi et al., 2022), suggesting
58 that both different characteristics of air mass transport and mountainous terrain play significant roles
59 in precipitation in the region. It is necessary to connect the two to study the characteristics of regional
60 precipitation. Compared with other major mountain ranges in the northwest region, Liupan Mountains
61 (LM) are situated against the complex terrain backdrop of the eastern edges of the Tibetan Plateau and
62 the northwestern edges of the Loess Plateau. Here, a higher proportion of hydrometeors remains
63 untransformed into precipitation (Zhang et al., 2020). Studying the precipitation characteristics under
64 different air mass transport pathways in this region will have important implications for regional rain
65 enhancement, drought resistance, and ecological and environmental protection.

66 Under the influence of favorable weather systems, mountainous terrain significantly alters the
67 dynamic and thermodynamic characteristics of moisture transport through convergence and orographic
68 lifting, thereby affecting regional clouds and precipitation weather (Banta, 1990; Barros et al., 1994;
69 Neiman et al., 2002; Seity et al., 2003; Houze and Medina, 2005; Giovannettone and Barros, 2009;
70 Houze, 2012). There is also a notable difference in cloud water resources and precipitation weather
71 between the windward and leeward slopes (Sevruk and Neveni, 1998; Scholl et al., 2007; Houze, 2012;
72 Gao, 2020; Deng et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2023). Many studies have focused on the impact of the Qilian
73 Mountains (QM) terrain, located on the northwest side of the LM, on cloud water resources. They
74 pinpoint that orographic uplift has a crucial effect on the intensity of stratocumulus precipitation and
75 the amount of cloud coverage. The annual precipitation is closely related to stratiform clouds and

76 summertime cumulus clouds, with the distribution of atmospheric moisture and precipitation being
77 closely linked to elevation, slope aspect, and circulation (Zhang et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2018; Gui et
78 al., 2022; Qi et al., 2022).

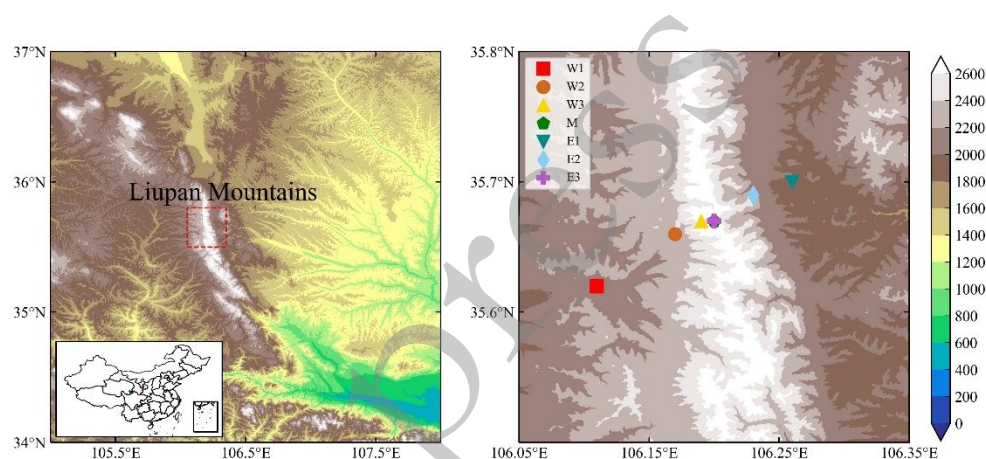
79 Compared to the QM, the LM are situated in the southeastern part of the northwest region and are
80 comparatively smaller in scale, yet have an annual precipitation amount close to that of the QM (Zhang
81 et al., 2020). Gao (2020) conducted a study using 30 years of daily precipitation data from six national
82 meteorological stations in the LM region, indicating that the precipitation on the eastern side is more
83 than that on the western side. Deng et al. (2021) used 30-year reanalysis data from the European Centre
84 for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) along with meteorological station precipitation
85 observations, pointing out that the eastern side of the LM exhibits higher amounts of precipitable water
86 in the atmosphere, water vapor flux, specific humidity, and actual precipitation compared to the
87 western side. Xu et al. (2023) identified that both the cloud water content and precipitation of the LM
88 decrease gradually from south to north along a southwestward latitude, with the eastern side having 15%
89 and 18% more, respectively, than the western side. The studies suggest that the interplay between
90 upper and lower level weather systems, combined with the barrier effect of the LM, are the primary
91 reasons for the higher precipitation amounts and atmospheric water vapor on the eastern slopes
92 compared to the western slopes.

93 Based on the current state of research and considering the close relationship between mountain
94 precipitation and factors such as elevation, slope aspect, and circulation, this paper utilizes three
95 consecutive years of observational data from gradient stations on the eastern and western slopes of the
96 LM. Combined with cluster analysis using the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory
97 (HYSPLIT) model, this study meticulously analyzes the precipitation characteristics under the
98 influence of airflows with different attributes. The results of this research have significant scientific
99 guidance for the development and utilization of precipitation resources in the LM, as well as for aspects
100 like anthropogenic operations.

101 2. Data and methodology

102 2.1 Study area introduction

103 LM is located on the edge of the Asian monsoon influence zone, situated in the southern part of
104 the Ningxia Hui Autonomous Region in China. It is one of the few continuous mountain ranges in
105 the country with an approximate north-south orientation (at an angle of about 30 degrees). The
106 regional range is between 34.7-36.5°N latitude and 105.2-107°E longitude. The mountain ridge
107 exceeds an altitude of 2500 meters, with the highest peak reaching 2942 meters, and the lowest point
108 at 1599 meters. The western slope of the mountain body is gentle, while the eastern slope is steep,
109 with the southwest being the predominant slope direction (See Figure 1).



110
111 Figure 1: Geographical location and terrain of the LM, and the distribution of seven observation sites.
112 The sites located on the western slope, with elevations increasing from low to high, are W1, W2, and
113 W3. The sites on the eastern slope, also with elevations increasing from low to high, are E1, E2, and
114 E3. The site at the mountain's peak is labeled as M. Among them, E3 and M are close in latitude and
115 longitude, with an altitude difference of 220 meters.

116 2.2 Data Description

117 Since September 2019, meteorological observation stations have been established at six different
118 altitudes on the east and west slopes of the research area. The stations on the west slope are arranged

119 in ascending order of altitude and are sequentially denoted as W1, W2, and W3. Corresponding to the
 120 heights of the west slope stations, the east slope stations are denoted as E1, E2, and E3, respectively.
 121 In addition, there is the highest-altitude summit station M, which is a national benchmark climate
 122 station. These seven stations are collectively referred to as ground gradient stations. The latitude,
 123 longitude, and elevation details of each station are presented in Table 1.

124

125 Table 1: Latitude, Longitude, and Elevation of the Seven Ground Observation Stations in the LM

Station	name	Longitude(°)	Latitude(°)	Altitude (km)
W1	Fengtailinchang	106.11°	35.62°	2.223
W2	Yangjiadian	106.17°	35.66°	2.323
W3	Liupanshan	106.19°	35.67°	2.599
M	NRCS	106.20°	35.67°	2.822
E1	Dawansubao	106.26°	35.70°	1.957
E2	Liupanshan Town	106.23°	35.69°	2.347
E3	Heshangpuling	106.20°	35.67°	2.602

126

127 The ground gradient stations have accumulated three years of observational data since their
 128 establishment. This paper utilizes atmospheric pressure, temperature, wind speed, relative humidity,
 129 and hourly precipitation data observed from July to September of each year from 2020 to 2022.

130 Additionally, the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) data released by the National
 131 Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) in the United States was also employed to analyze the
 132 pathways of air mass transport. The timing of this data is consistent with the observational records
 133 from the ground gradient stations.

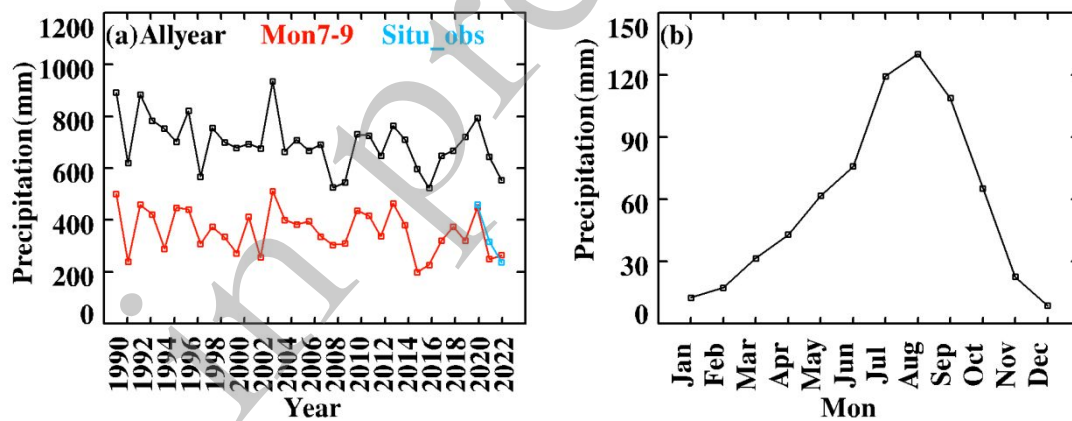
134 This study also utilized precipitation data from the 5th generation global atmospheric reanalysis
 135 (ERA5), released by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF). The
 136 data covers a period of 33 years, from January 1, 1990, to December 31, 2022, to provide a regional
 137 average level of precipitation for the LM area.

138 **2.3 Methodology**

139 **2.3.1 Selection of the rainy season**

140 The precipitation trend of the seven ground gradient stations in the LM from July to September
141 during 2020-2022 is consistent with the ERA5 precipitation trend (see Figure 2a). The average
142 observed ground precipitation is only 5.2% higher than the ERA5 precipitation values, indicating the
143 ERA5 data reflect the precipitation capacity of the LM accurately. Consequently, this study utilizes
144 ERA5 precipitation data to select the months of the rainy season for the LM. The total precipitation
145 from July to September in the LM region accounts for 52% of the annual total precipitation (see Figure
146 2b). A study by Gao (2020) also used nearly 30 years of daily precipitation data from six national
147 meteorological stations in the LM area, noting that precipitation is mainly concentrated between July
148 and September, accounting for 50%-60% of the annual total. Therefore, this paper identifies July to
149 September as the representative months for the rainy season in this region.

150



151

152 Figure 2: Precipitation in the LM region based on ERA5 from 1990 to 2022, (a) annual total
153 precipitation series, (b) monthly total precipitation series for 1-12 months. In (a), the black dotted
154 line represents the total precipitation for each month of the year, the red dotted line represents the
155 total precipitation for July to September each year, and the blue dotted line represents the mean total
156 precipitation for July to September at the 7 ground gradient stations.

157

158 2.3.2 Water vapor flux and instability energy

159 Water vapor flux (W_v) refers to the amount of water vapor transported through a unit area in a unit
160 time and can characterize the strength of water vapor transport. In this study, we have calculated the
161 W_q within the vertical atmospheric column between adjacent stations on either the west or east slope
162 using data observed at ground gradient sites, with the calculation method described in equation (1).

$$163 \quad W_v = -\frac{1}{g} \int_{p_1}^{p_2} v q dp \quad (1)$$

164 The unit for W_v is mm/min. Here, 'g' stands for gravitational acceleration, 'q' represents specific
165 humidity, 'p' denotes atmospheric pressure, 'p1' is the pressure at Site 1, and 'p2' is the pressure at
166 Site 2, which is adjacent to and higher than Site 1, with the unit in hPa. The term 'v' signifies the wind
167 speed at the site, with the unit in m/s.

168 The unstable energy (U_e) refers to the energy within an atmospheric layer that can cause a unit
169 mass air parcel to rise. In this paper, we have calculated the U_e for a unit mass air parcel ascending
170 from the isobaric surface at pressure p1 at Site 1 to the isobaric surface at pressure p2 at Site 2. The
171 calculation method is shown in equation (2).

$$172 \quad U_e = R_d \int_{p_1}^{p_2} (T_v - T_{ve}) d(-\ln P) \quad (2)$$

173 The unit of U_e is J/kg·m. R_d represents the specific gas constant for dry air and is 287.0 J/K·kg. T_v is
174 the virtual temperature of the rising air parcel, and T_{ve} is the virtual temperature of the surrounding
175 environment of the rising air parcel. The difference between T_v and T_{ve} is approximated using the
176 difference between the site temperature and the environmental air temperature assuming a dry
177 adiabatic lapse rate.

178 2.3.3 Classification of Airflow Transport Pathways

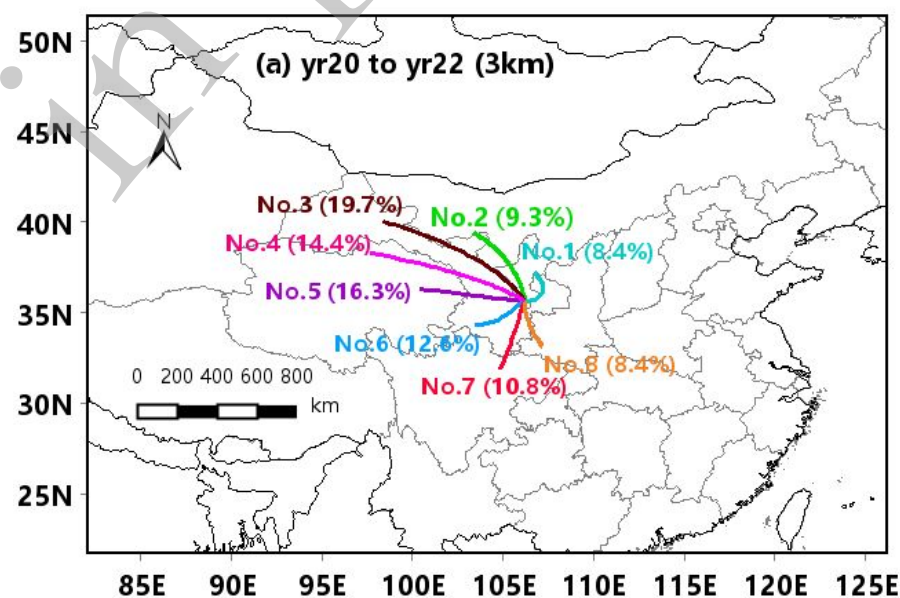
179 In this paper, we have used the backward trajectory clustering method of HYSPLIT (Hybrid
180 Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory Model) to categorize the moisture transport pathways
181 over LM from July to September for the years 2020 to 2022. This method, jointly developed by the
182 National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and other agencies, is a model capable of

183 handling different meteorological element inputs and tracing the origins of airflows. Referring to the
184 summit station as the reference location, the angle method is employed to group a large number of
185 trajectories according to the closest angle principle after conducting a 24-hour backward tracking of
186 the transport airflows at the 3km height layer. The HYSPLIT model uses data from the NCEP Global
187 Data Assimilation System (GDAS).

188 3. Results and Analysis

189 3.1 Types of transporting airflow and characteristics of precipitation

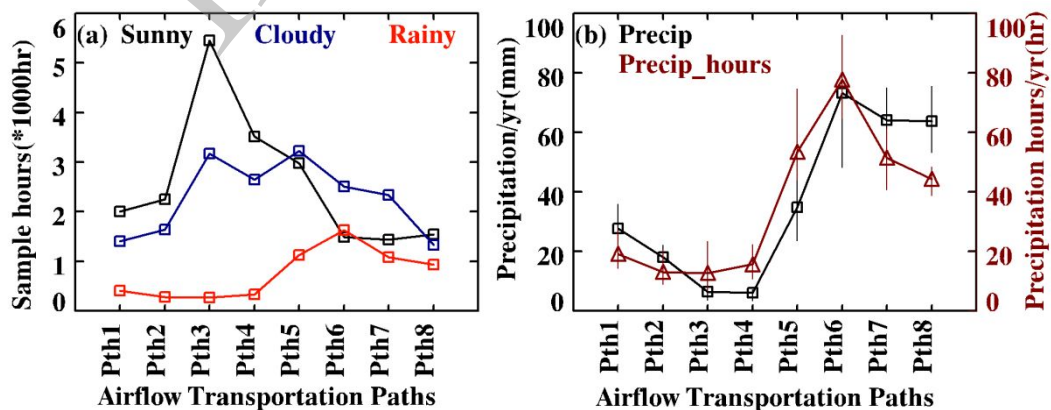
190 LM is located in the northwest of China and is significantly influenced by the mid-latitude
191 westerly belt. In summer, the zonal moisture transport is more pronounced compared to the
192 meridional transport (Huang and Chen, 2010). Figure 3, obtained from the backward trajectory
193 clustering, reflects this transport characteristic through eight distinct air mass transport pathways.
194 From pathway 3 (Pth3) to pathway 5 (Pth5), these three pathways are all within the range of zonal
195 moisture transport and together account for 50.4% of the total air mass transport pathways. Pathways
196 Pth6 to Pth8 lie within the range influenced by the oblique southerly monsoon transport and together
197 constitute 31.8% of the total transport pathways.



199 Figure 3: Clustering of airflow transport trajectories and the percentage at a height of about
 200 200m above the mountaintop (3km above sea level) with the mountaintop station as the reference
 201 position during the rainy season (July-September) from 2020 to 2022.

203 Comparing the precipitation amounts under different air mass transport pathways (as shown in
 204 Figure 4b), it is observed that the annual average precipitation and cumulative precipitation duration
 205 at the site under different air mass transport pathways are not correlated with the percentage numbers
 206 of the airflow transport pathways. The majority of the precipitation during the rainy season in LM is
 207 concentrated along pathways Pth6- Pth8, accounting for 68.3% of the total precipitation. As depicted
 208 in Figure 3, the directions of these three air mass transport pathways point towards the Indian Ocean
 209 and the South China Sea, which is associated with the monsoonal moisture transport in a warm and
 210 humid environment. In terms of cumulative precipitation duration, the zonal transport pathway Pth5
 211 is also significant. The duration of precipitation under this pathway is comparable to the meridional
 212 transport pathway Pth7, but the former has a significantly lower amount of precipitation, only 54%
 213 of the latter.

214



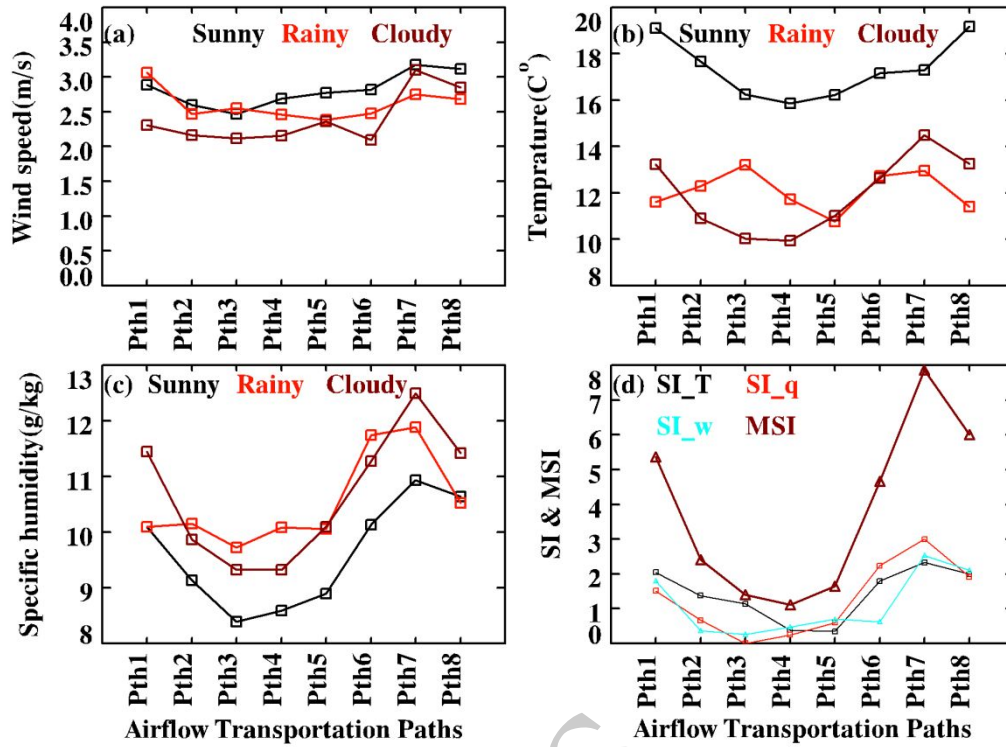
215

216 Figure 4: Comparisons in different airflow transport paths in LM from 2020 to 2022 during July

217 to September, (a) cumulative hours of clear days/cloudy days/precipitation (b) annual average
218 precipitation and cumulative precipitation hours.

219

220 To further investigate the reasons for the precipitation differences under different air mass
221 transport pathways, a comparison was made for wind speed, temperature, and specific humidity
222 under conditions of clear skies (relative humidity $< 80\%$, precipitation amount 0 mm), overcast skies
223 (relative humidity $\geq 80\%$, precipitation amount 0 mm), and rainy conditions (precipitation
224 amount $> 0 \text{ mm}$) for each pathway, with the results shown in Figures 5a-5c. Compared to overcast
225 and rainy conditions, the conditions for each pathway under clear skies show higher wind speeds,
226 higher temperatures, and lower specific humidity. To enable a direct numerical comparison of
227 different pathways and meteorological elements, the values for wind speed, temperature, and specific
228 humidity were standardized (ranging between 0 and 1), resulting in a standardized index (SI) for
229 each meteorological element. By adding the wind speed SI, temperature SI, and specific humidity SI
230 for each pathway, a Meteorological Standardized Index (MSI) corresponding to each pathway is
231 obtained, as shown in Figure 5d.



232

233 Figure 5: Comparisons of the wind speed, temperature, specific humidity, standardized index
 234 (SI), and meteorological standardized index (MSI) of the eight airflow transport paths in the LM
 235 during the rainy season (July-September) from 2020 to 2022 under precipitation, cloud, and clear sky
 236 conditions. (a) Wind Speed, (b) Temperature, (c) Specific Humidity, (d) Standardized Index (SI) and
 237 Meteorological Standardized Index (MSI)

238

239 From Figure 5d, it can be seen that the Meteorological Standardized Index (MSI) for Pth1, Pth6-
 240 Pth8 is significantly higher than that of the other pathways. This does not entirely coincide with the
 241 distribution of the precipitation values across the pathways. In an effort to further understand the
 242 reasons behind this, a comparison was made of the wind speed SI, temperature SI, specific humidity
 243 SI, and MSI values across the pathways (as shown in Table 2). The temperature SI is used to determine
 244 the thermal characteristics of the airflow; a pathway's airflow is classified as warm when its
 245 temperature SI is higher than the average value of all pathways, and as cold when a pathway's

246 temperature SI is below the average. Within the warm airflows, Pth1 and Pth6-8 exhibit differences;
 247 the former has a temperature SI greater than humidity SI, whereas for the latter, it is the opposite. To
 248 distinguish between these two situations, Pth1 is characterized as a warm-dry airflow (WDA) , and
 249 Pth6-8 as a warm-moist airflow (WMA) . Similarly, among the cold airflows, Pth2-4 and Pth5 have
 250 different characteristics; the former has a temperature SI greater than humidity SI, and for the latter,
 251 the opposite is true, leading to Pth2-4 being characterized as a cold-dry airflow (CDA) , and Pth5 as
 252 a cold-moist airflow (CMA) .

253

254 Table 2 Comparisons of SI of different meteorological elements, MSI, and warm/cold-dry/humid
 255 properties of airflow on different transport paths in the LM during July-September from 2020 to
 256 2022. The suffix ‘_Wd’, ‘_T’ and ‘_Hd’ represent the wind speed, temperature and humidity,
 257 respectively.

Transport path (Tr)	Wind speed SI_W	Temperature SI_T	Humidity SI_H	MSI characterization	Warm/cold/moist /dry properties
Tr 1	>ave.	>ave.	>ave.	Large SI_W, SI_T>SI_H, large MSI	Warm-dry
Tr 2-4	<ave.	<ave.	<ave.	Little SI_W, SI_T>SI_H, little MSI	Cold-dry
Tr 5	<ave.	<ave.	<ave.	Little SI_W, SI_T<SI_H, little MSI	Cold-moist
Tr 6	<ave.	>ave.	>ave.	Little SI_W, SI_T<SI_H, large MSI	Warm-moist
Tr 7-8	>ave.	>ave.	>ave.	Large SI_W, SI_T≤SI_H, large MSI	Warm-moist

258 A comparison of the cumulative hours of clear and overcast rainy weather under each air mass
 259 transport pathway (as detailed in Figure 4a) reveals that the pathways characterized by WMA and
 260 CMA (Pth5-Pth8) experience more overcast rainy hours than clear hours, with the former being 1.9
 261 times that of the latter, and accounting for 80.2% of the total pathway precipitation. Pathways with
 262 WDA and CDA (Pth1-Pth4) exhibit more clear weather hours than overcast rainy hours, with the

263 former being 1.3 times that of the latter. The characteristics of the cumulative overcast rainy hours
264 along these air mass transport pathways are closely related to the distribution of precipitation, as seen
265 in Figures 4b and 5d. The amount of precipitation along the air mass transport pathways is closely
266 related to the warm-moist attributes of the airflow, with the precipitation pattern distributed in the
267 following order: WMA >CMA> WDA> CDA.

268 Feng and Zhou (2012) investigated the sources of water vapor transport in the large
269 geomorphology located southwest of the LM - the southeastern part of the Tibetan Plateau. They noted
270 that the main sources of water vapor transport in this region are the Indian summer monsoon from the
271 Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal. The transport direction of the WMA (Western Moisture Area)
272 points towards the Indian Ocean, the Bay of Bengal, and southeast. Precipitation along these paths is
273 often closely related to warm and moist airflows from a more southerly direction. Meanwhile, the
274 CMA points towards the zonal flow of the westerlies. During the airflow transport process, the air
275 mass is lifted by the terrain as it passes over the Tibetan Plateau, and subsides over the low-level moist
276 air of the rainy season when it crosses the region, converging with the low-level terrain uplift airflow
277 of the LM area to facilitate precipitation. Although the WDA (Western Dry Area) accounts for a
278 smaller proportion of the total transport path, the precipitation amount is comparable to that of the
279 CDA (Central Dry Area). The airflow for WDA is transported from the northwest to the eastern side
280 of the LM, where it is deflected northeastward due to obstruction by the terrain of QM remnants.

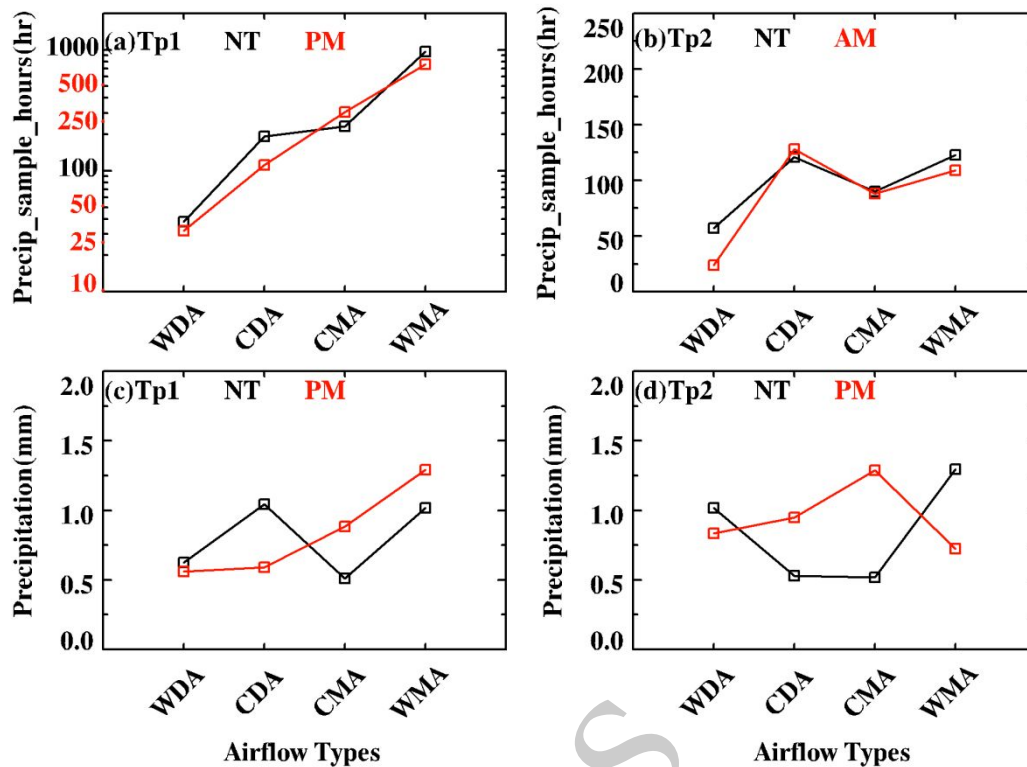
281 **3.2 Precipitation intensity characteristics**

282 Based on precipitation data from observation sites, it has been found that single precipitation
283 events can last from just 1 hour of brief rainfall to more than 48 hours of continuous rain events.
284 Typically, regional precipitation caused by large-scale weather systems has a longer duration and

285 wider coverage. In contrast, localized precipitation, influenced by topography and local dynamic and
286 thermodynamic effects, occurs within specific periods and tends to have a shorter duration and smaller
287 coverage. We differentiated between these two types of precipitation using the following criteria:
288 instances where precipitation occurred at all 7 stations, and at least 4 stations experienced precipitation
289 lasting more than 6 hours, were classified as regional precipitation samples (Tp1). Among the
290 remaining precipitation events, those where each station had precipitation lasting less than 6 hours
291 were classified as localized precipitation samples (Tp2). Considering the significant diurnal
292 distribution of cloud water resources in the LM area (as detailed by Tian et al., 2019; Zhang et al.,
293 2020; Xu et al., 2023), as well as the marked differences between night and afternoon cloud water
294 resources (Xu et al., 2023), we focused on comparing and analyzing the hourly precipitation intensity
295 during nighttime (20:00 to 06:00 the following day) and afternoon (12:00 to 19:00) periods influenced
296 by four different types of airflow (see Figure 6).

297

in press



298

299 Figure 6 In LM during the rainy seasons (July to September) from 2020 to 2022 under different
 300 air mass transport pathways: (a) the sample size for regional precipitation, (b) the sample size for
 301 localized precipitation, (c) and (d) represent the average hourly precipitation for regional and localized
 302 precipitation events, respectively. The black dotted line and the red dotted line correspond to the
 303 nighttime and afternoon periods, respectively.

304

305 The amount and duration of precipitation under the influence of WMA and CMA are primarily
 306 concentrated in regional precipitation events, indicating that humid airflows are more likely to produce
 307 regional precipitation. For dry airflows, the duration and amount of regional precipitation are
 308 comparable to those of localized precipitation. With regard to regional precipitation (see Figure 6(c),
 309 the precipitation intensity generated by WMA during both the nighttime and afternoon periods is
 310 higher than that of the other three types of airflows, with average hourly precipitation values of 1.0

311 mm and 1.3 mm, respectively. It should be noted that the nighttime precipitation intensity under CDA
312 is comparable to that of WMA, and is 1.8 times higher than during the afternoon period. This indicates
313 that air temperature and humidity levels have complex effects on precipitation intensity. This might be
314 due to the differing amplitudes of air temperature changes, dew point temperatures, and the height of
315 lifting condensation level at night and in the afternoon for airflows with different properties of warmth
316 and moisture.

317 For localized precipitation (see Figure 6(d)), the average hourly precipitation amount for cold
318 airflows at night is 0.5 millimeters, which is only 45% of that for warm airflows. The situation is
319 reversed during the afternoon, with cold airflows producing a greater precipitation intensity compared
320 to warm airflows. This could be due to more intense convective activity in the afternoon compared to
321 at night, as well as a more pronounced difference in temperature and humidity between the cold
322 airflows and the surface transport air streams during the afternoon than at night. This difference is also
323 more significant compared to airflows of other properties, leading to greater precipitation intensity
324 from cold airflows during the afternoon period.

325 In summary, during regional precipitation events, WMA have a higher precipitation intensity both
326 at night and in the afternoon compared to the other three types of airflows, while cold airflows show
327 significant variations in precipitation intensity between nighttime and afternoon periods. During
328 localized precipitation events, warm airflows produce higher precipitation intensity at night than cold
329 airflows, but this trend reverses during the afternoon period.

330 **3.3 The Mechanisms of Precipitation Influenced by Different Types of Airflows**

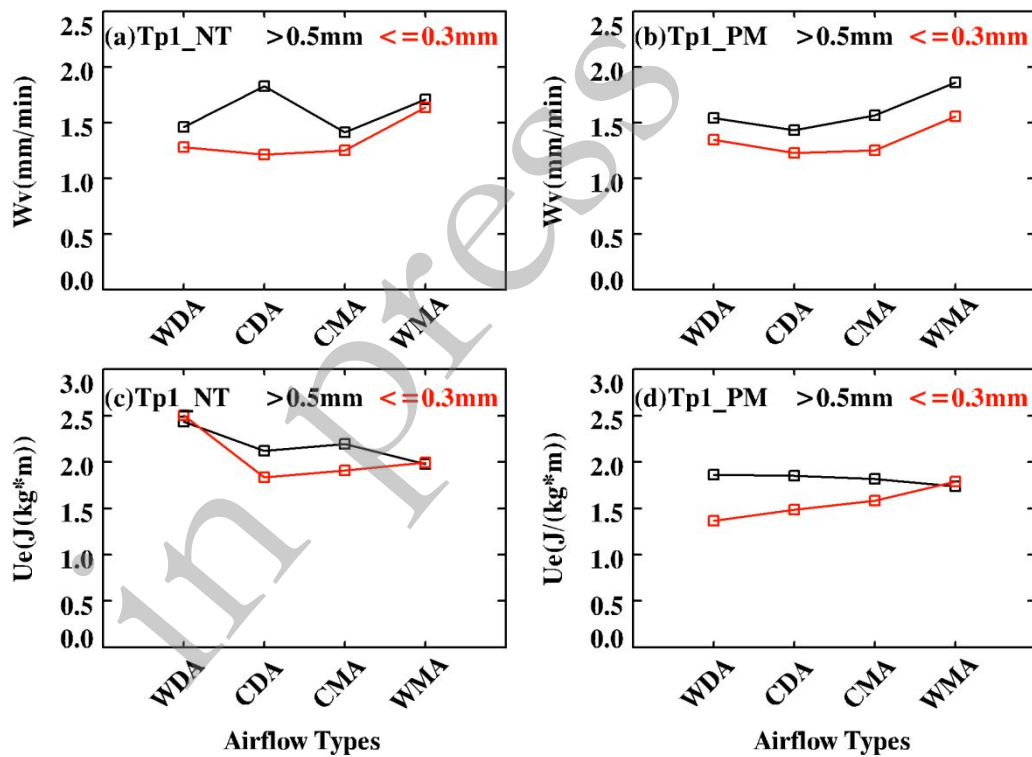
331 Section 3.2 illustrates that precipitation intensity is closely related to the temperature and
332 humidity characteristics of the transporting airflow. Moist air masses increase the release of latent heat

333 in the rising air currents during the pseudo-adiabatic ascent process after saturation, thereby affecting
334 the dynamic characteristics of the precipitation process. The underlying surface conditions, such as
335 mountainous terrain, can also affect the stability of airflow, resulting in the vertical transport of water
336 vapor. Hence, we examined the near-surface water vapor flux and unstable energy under the influence
337 of airflows with different attributes. Moreover, we differentiated between the intensities of regional
338 and localized precipitation. In accordance with the precipitation intensity gradation standards issued
339 by the National Meteorological Administration (2012), precipitation exceeding 0.5mm per hour is
340 defined as heavy precipitation, while precipitation of 0.3mm per hour or less is classified as light
341 precipitation.

342 **3.3.1 Regional Precipitation Mechanism**

343 Part 3.2 indicates that under the influence of WMA, both the amount and intensity of precipitation
344 are higher than those under three other types of air currents. This is closely related to the greater near-
345 surface water vapor flux associated with this type of airflow, which has an average water vapor flux
346 of 1.7 mm/min, compared to an approximately similar average of 1.4 mm/min for the other three types.
347 Additionally, the water vapor flux from WMA during intense precipitation events is higher in the
348 afternoon (1.9 mm/min) than at night (1.7 mm/min), consistent with the pattern of stronger
349 precipitation in the afternoon compared to the nighttime under this type of airflow. On the other hand,
350 Figure 7 (c) and (d) indicate that the unstable energy of WMA is approximately equal during both
351 heavy and light precipitation events at different times of the day, suggesting that the main reason
352 affecting the intensity of precipitation for this type of airflow is its level of moisture content. The
353 direction of transport for this type of airflow aligns with terrain features that run approximately on a
354 north-south axis, like an LP. Such terrain is conducive to the uplift of moisture-laden WMA, thereby

355 causing more precipitation. The unstable energy is 2.0 and 1.8 J/(kg•m) at night and in the afternoon,
 356 respectively, both below that of the other three types of air currents during the same time frames,
 357 suggesting that the temperature difference between this type of airflow and the near-surface air is
 358 relatively small, resulting in relatively stable near-surface conditions. The distribution features of water
 359 vapor flux and unstable energy therefore indicate that the main reasons for the higher regional
 360 precipitation amounts and the stronger precipitation intensity with WMA are due to their higher water
 361 content when compared to the other three types of air currents, and that vertical transport of moisture
 362 has a limited impact on it.



363

364

365

366

367

Figure 7 Near-surface water vapor flux and instability energy during regional precipitation events in the Liupan Mountains during the rainy seasons (July to September) from 2020 to 2022 influenced by different types of air mass transport, (a) nocturnal water vapor flux, (b) afternoon water vapor flux, (c) nocturnal instability energy, (d) afternoon instability energy. The black dotted

368 lines indicate intense precipitation events, while the red dotted lines indicate weak precipitation
369 events.

370 The CMA exhibits stronger precipitation in the afternoon compared to nighttime, aligning with
371 its average water vapor flux of 1.6 mm/min in the afternoon being higher than the nighttime average
372 of 1.4 mm/min during heavy precipitation. Additionally, the pattern of higher unstable energy at night
373 compared to the afternoon is consistent with that of the WMA. However, both the intensity of the
374 precipitation and the water vapor flux values for CMA are less than those for WMA, indicating that
375 CMA carry less moisture. The greater unstable energy of CMA at night may be related to the larger
376 temperature differences caused by nocturnal radiative cooling near the ground, while the higher
377 temperatures and greater evaporation during the afternoon period are the main reasons for the higher
378 water vapor flux and, consequently, a greater precipitation intensity during this time. Under the
379 influence of CMA, unstable energy is higher during intense precipitation events and lower during weak
380 precipitation events as compared to WMA. This means that the stability of near-surface airflows varies
381 greatly when it rains under CMA. This could be influenced on one hand by the significant temperature
382 difference due to the lower temperatures of CMA compared to the warmer near-surface air, and on the
383 other hand, by the meridional transport from the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau towards the east by CMA. As
384 this airflow descends over the high-altitude regions in the west, momentum is transferred downwards,
385 affecting the instability near the surface.

386 Dry airflows have a lower average water vapor flux compared to warm airflows, and carry less
387 moisture content, which is consistent with their lower vapor fluxes. It is important to note that Figure
388 6(c) shows that the precipitation intensity of CDA at night is comparable to that of WMA. Similarly,
389 in Figure 7(a), the water vapor flux during intense nighttime precipitation events for CDA is also on

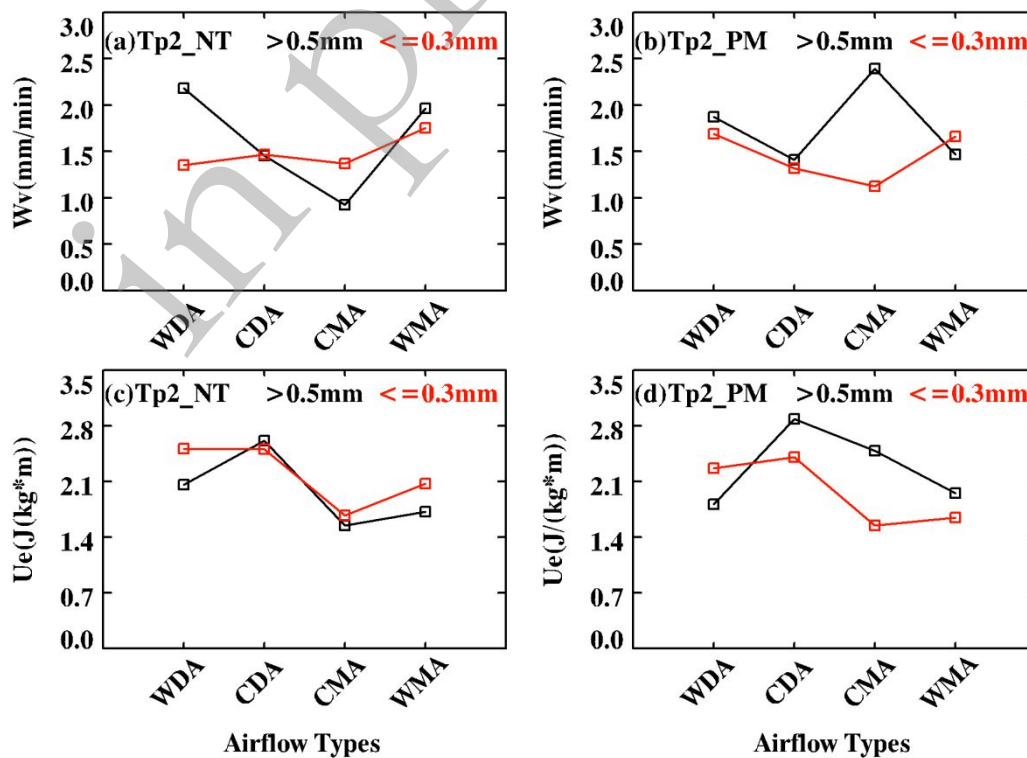
390 par with WMA. However, this characteristic does not extend to weak nighttime precipitation or to
391 strong and weak precipitation processes during the afternoon. This could be due to the lower
392 temperature and humidity of CDA compared to the other three types of airflows, creating a greater
393 temperature-and-moisture gradient with the ground during the nighttime heavy precipitation events,
394 leading to more unstable near-ground airflows and thereby enhancing vertical moisture transport. The
395 precipitation intensity of CDA in the afternoon is similar to that of WDA and less than that of moist
396 airflows, which is consistent with its water vapor flux being not much different from warm dry airflows
397 but less than moist airflows. This suggests that the main factor influencing regional precipitation under
398 different types of airflows is the degree of moisture enrichment.

399 During precipitation events, the near-surface water vapor flux values of WDA are not much
400 different from those of CDA. What sets them apart from the other three types of airflows is that the
401 values of unstable energy during both strong and weak nighttime precipitation, as well as during
402 intense afternoon precipitation, are generally higher, with the unstable energy values during nighttime
403 precipitation being significantly higher than the other three types of airflows, averaging $2.5 \text{ J}/(\text{kg}\cdot\text{m})$.
404 On the other hand, the difference in unstable energy between strong and weak afternoon precipitation
405 is the greatest among the four types of airflows, while the difference in water vapor flux is smaller
406 compared to moist airflows, indicating that thermodynamic and dynamic factors play a significant role
407 in the precipitation process under WDA. The high unstable energy under WDA could be associated
408 with the blocking effect of the steep terrain of the eastern LM. Gao (2020) pointed out in a simulation
409 study of two precipitation cases over the LM that the terrain blocked the low-level easterly flows,
410 causing airflow convergence and ascent on the eastern slope, thus enhancing precipitation on that side
411 of the mountains.

412 In summary, water vapor content is the primary factor affecting the production of regional
 413 precipitation by airflows, with high moisture content in humid airflows being the main reason for their
 414 regional precipitation characteristics. Thermodynamic and dynamic factors are significantly reflected
 415 in the precipitation of dry airflows, with WDA having the least stability among the four types of
 416 airflow-related precipitation.

417 3.3.2 Localized precipitation mechanism

418 Localized precipitation is often closely associated with small-scale meteorological phenomena,
 419 such as local moisture convergence or the interaction of unstable energy causing upward motion. A
 420 comparison of localized and regional precipitation (see Figures 7 and 8) reveals that the near-surface
 421 water vapor flux and unstable energy changes during localized precipitation processes are more
 422 complex, which relates to the various factors that influence localized precipitation, such as local
 423 topography, surface conditions, atmospheric stability, and so on.



425 Figure 8 Near-surface water vapor flux and instability energy during localized precipitation
426 events in the Liupan Mountains during the rainy seasons (July to September) from 2020 to 2022
427 under the influence of different types of air mass transport, (a) nocturnal water vapor flux, (b)
428 afternoon water vapor flux, (c) nocturnal instability energy, (d) afternoon instability energy. The
429 black dotted lines represent intense precipitation events, while the red dotted lines represent weak
430 precipitation events.

431

432 As depicted in Figure 6(d), the intense nocturnal precipitation is primarily observed during heavy
433 rainfall events with the WMA and WDA, which is consistent with the high moisture flux values during
434 these events. The warm air flow is more dominant than the cold air flow, exceeding the regional
435 precipitation by 15% and 50%, respectively. Compared to the WDA, the WMA has higher moisture
436 flux but lower unstable energy, meaning that the WMA is more stable. However, due to its higher
437 moisture content, it is capable of more vertical moisture transport. Although the WDA has relatively
438 less moisture content, the more unstable stratification enhances the vertical transport of near-surface
439 moisture, resulting in higher moisture flux. This indicates that the WDA is greatly influenced by local
440 dynamic and thermodynamic factors during the localized precipitation process. The higher instability
441 energy of the WDA, as compared to the WMA, is also associated with its interaction with the steep
442 orographic barrier when transporting in the easterly direction, which causes the air flow to converge
443 and rise, facilitating the vertical transport of more abundant near-surface moisture (Gao, 2020).

444 The unstable energy of the WDA during intense rainfall events is lower than that during weak
445 rainfall events, indicating that dynamic factors produced by topographic influences play a significant
446 role during the weak precipitation processes. In comparison with the similarly CDA, the WDA exhibits

447 higher moisture flux and lower unstable energy during intense nocturnal precipitation and during both
448 strong and weak precipitation in the afternoon. For warm air flows, their moisture carrying capacity is
449 greater than that of cold air flows, not only because thermal conditions allow them to carry more
450 moisture but also because they inherently contain more moisture, hence the higher moisture flux values
451 of the WDA. On the other hand, the WDA has smaller temperature and humidity differences with the
452 near-surface air flow compared to the CDA, resulting in smaller temperature and humidity gradients
453 and consequently lower near-surface unstable energy than that of the CDA.

454 The weak nocturnal precipitation associated with the CMA aligns with its lower moisture flux.
455 More specifically, during intense nocturnal rainfall, the moisture flux of the CMA decreases by 34%
456 compared to regional precipitation, with an average unstable energy value of only 1.5 J(kg • m), the
457 lowest among the four types of air flows. This suggests that at night, without the influence of major
458 weather systems, the CMA has limited capacity for carrying moisture during localized precipitation
459 processes. This is further evidenced by the small temperature differences with the near-surface layer
460 at night, resulting in relative stability of the air flow and exhibiting characteristics of low moisture flux
461 and low unstable energy. Additionally, the intensity of the CMA during intense afternoon rainfall
462 exceeds the other three air flow types, consistent with its significantly higher moisture flux during this
463 period. Compared to regional precipitation, its moisture flux increases by 53%, and unstable energy
464 also increases by 37%. This might be due to the flow being colder and generating a larger temperature
465 difference with the ground-heated air flow in the afternoon, enhancing the ground's thermal convection
466 activity during this period. Furthermore, the air flow's trajectory toward the west is easily lifted by the
467 topographic barrier of the LM running south to north, thus resulting in lower stability and intense
468 vertical mixing of moisture. In conclusion, the variation in strength of localized precipitation

469 associated with the CMA is consistent with changes in moisture flux and stability during intense
470 precipitation, heavily influenced by thermodynamic and dynamic factors.

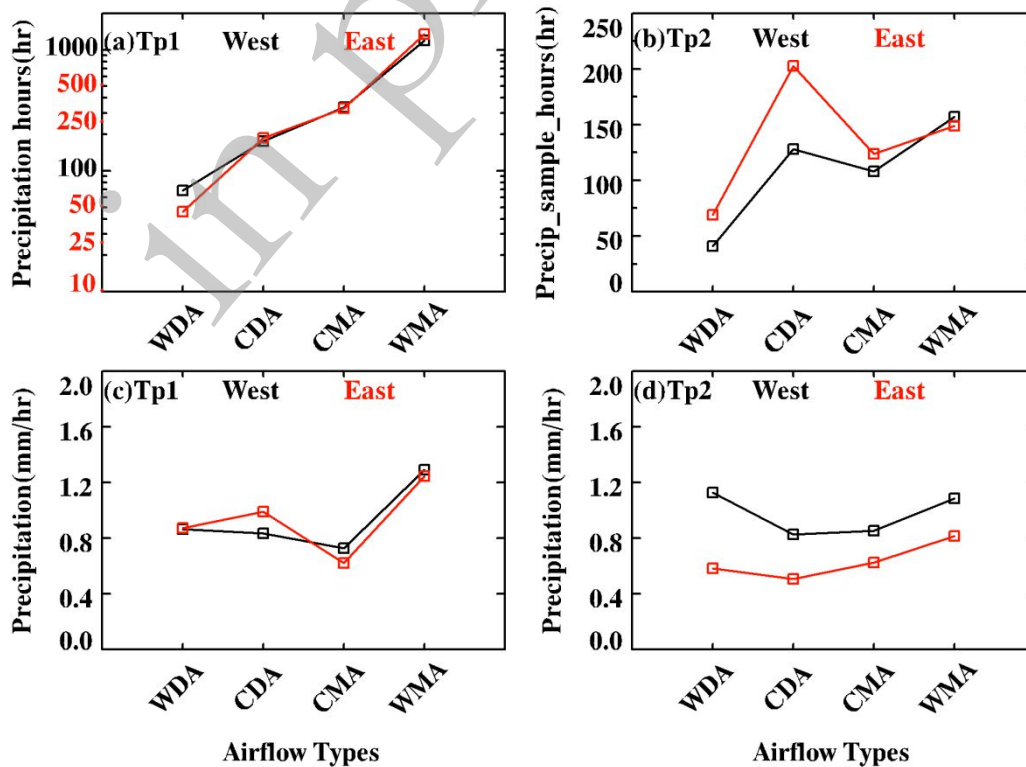
471 The CDA exhibits lower precipitation intensity at night, which is consistent with its lower
472 moisture flux during intense rainfall events. This contrasts with regional precipitation, which has
473 greater intensity and higher moisture flux values, indicating that under the influence of larger weather
474 systems, the CDA has a higher moisture carrying capacity than under localized thermodynamic and
475 dynamic conditions. The difference between regional and localized precipitation for the CDA is similar
476 to that of the CMA. Moreover, the CDA has higher unstable energy than the other three air flow types
477 during both strong and weak precipitation processes. In comparison with regional precipitation,
478 unstable energy is 23% higher during intense rainfall and 37% higher during weak rainfall, with
479 respective increases of 56% and 62% in the afternoon. This may be due to its low temperatures and
480 low moisture content, which create larger humidity gradient differences when compared to the near-
481 surface warm and moist air, leading to a more unstable atmosphere. On the other hand, the high
482 unstable energy of the CDA might also be related to topographic influences. The flow's direction of
483 transport and its approximation to the south-north orientation of the LM range promotes lifting of the
484 near-surface warm moist air by the terrain, hence increasing the air flow's instability. In summary,
485 during both night and afternoon periods, the CDA is characterized by low moisture flux and high
486 unstable energy.

487 In summary, the variation of near-surface moisture flux and unstable energy during localized
488 precipitation processes is more complex than in regional precipitation. Precipitation from different
489 types of air flows is affected differently by their moisture content, differences in temperature and
490 humidity characteristics, and thermodynamic and dynamic factors resulting from topographic

491 influences.

492 4 Discussion

493 Mountainous terrain has a significant impact on the dynamic and thermodynamic processes of
494 transporting airflows (Houze, 2012). On the windward slopes of mountains, airflow can be forced to
495 lift, triggering convection (Seity et al., 2003), and can also cause blockage and accumulation of the
496 transportation airflow. When the obstructed airflow is sufficiently moist, it can lead to the formation
497 of clouds and precipitation (Neiman et al., 2002; Houze & Medina, 2005). The LM range generally
498 extends in a north-south direction with a total length of about 240 kilometers, with steep eastern slopes
499 and relatively gentle western slopes. Transporting airflows under different weather backgrounds will
500 have complex interactions with the LM terrain, thereby affecting the precipitation processes in this
501 region. As shown in Figure 9, the difference in regional precipitation sample size and average hourly
502 precipitation between the east and western slopes under the influence of four types of airflows is not
503 significant; however, there are larger differences during localized precipitation processes, with the
504 disparity being more pronounced for dry airflows than for moist airflows.

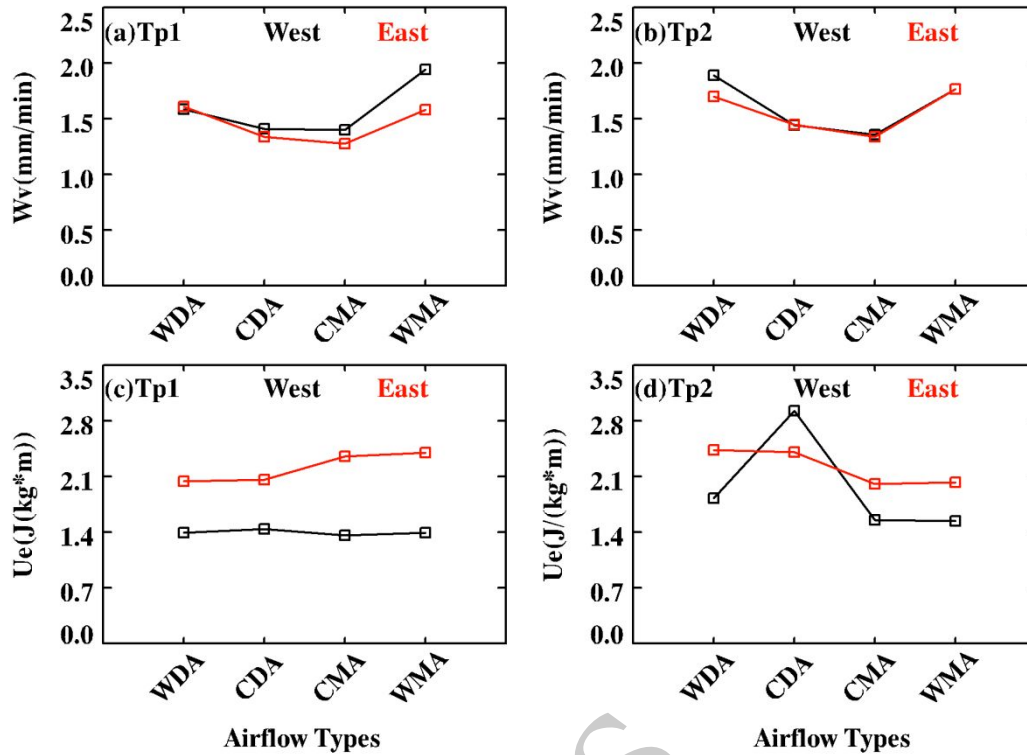


505

506 Figure 9 Comparison of precipitation intensity on the eastern and western slopes of the Liupan
507 Mountains during the rainy seasons (July to September) from 2020 to 2022 under the influence of
508 different types of airflows, (a) the sample size for regional precipitation events, (b) the sample size
509 for localized precipitation events, (c) and (d) represent the average hourly precipitation for regional
510 and localized precipitation events, respectively.

511

512 Airflow transport passing through mountainous terrain is subject to topographical influences,
513 which induce alterations in the temperature and humidity distribution, and thus affect the precipitation
514 process. During regional precipitation events, there is a characteristic pattern of higher near-surface
515 moisture flux on the western slopes and lower on the eastern slopes, with unstable energy being lower
516 on the western slopes and higher on the eastern slopes (as seen in Figure 10). This means that during
517 precipitation on the eastern slopes, the near-surface airflow is more unstable and has less moisture
518 content compared to the western slopes, which is related to the steeper terrain of the eastern slopes.
519 Therefore, the airflow on the eastern slopes has stronger vertical dynamic transport, making it more
520 prone to precipitation. On the other hand, under the influence of moist airflows, the differences in
521 moisture flux and unstable energy between the eastern and western slopes are greater than those under
522 dry airflows, which is the result of the combined influence of thermodynamic and dynamic processes
523 due to the terrain. This indicates that terrain also has a significant effect on the regional precipitation
524 process, but as seen in Figure 9(c), topography does not have a significant impact on regional
525 precipitation intensity—the moisture content remains the main influencing factor.



526

527 Figure 10 Comparison of precipitation intensity on the eastern and western slopes of the Liupan
 528 Mountains during the rainy season (July - September) from 2020 to 2022 under the influence of
 529 different types of airflows, (a) sample size of regional precipitation, (b) sample size of localized
 530 precipitation, (c) and (d) represent the average hourly precipitation of regional and localized
 531 precipitation, respectively.

532 When airflow encounters terrain, if buoyant instability occurs only within a shallow layer of air
 533 at low altitudes, terrain lifting may only trigger small cloud clusters on the windward side of the
 534 mountain. As small cloud clusters ascend along the slope, they may burst into small cumulonimbus
 535 clouds on the windward slopes. The difference in moisture flux between the eastern and western slopes
 536 during localized precipitation processes is relatively small, with the main difference reflected in
 537 unstable energy. Except for the CDA, where the unstable energy is higher on the western slope than
 538 on the eastern slope, the unstable energy for the other three types of airflows is higher on the eastern
 539 slope compared to the western slope. This is clearly related to the topographical differences between
 540 the eastern and western slopes, where the steep terrain of the eastern slope makes it more likely to

541 precipitate than the western slope. This is evidenced by the greater number of precipitation hours on
542 the eastern slope than on the western slope (as shown in Figure 9(b)), which also leads to a lower
543 average hourly precipitation amount on the eastern slope compared to the western slope (as seen in
544 Figure 9(d)). The higher unstable energy on the western slope under the influence of CDA may be
545 related to the orientation of the LM range. The transport direction, which aligns with the LM
546 orientation, facilitates the lifting of CDA by the terrain. Moreover, the temperature and humidity
547 gradients of this type of airflow are more significant compared to the other three types, making it
548 subject to more notable dynamic and thermodynamic influences, resulting in greater instability of the
549 airflow. In conclusion, mountainous terrain has a significant impact on localized precipitation
550 processes.

551 **5. Conclusions and summary**

552 The article utilizes three years of cumulative observational data from the LM gradient station
553 since its establishment, combined with backward trajectory clustering analysis of transport airflows,
554 to study the precipitation characteristics and their influencing mechanisms under different types of
555 airflows during the rainy season in LM. The main conclusions are summarized as follows.

556 (1) Rainy and overcast weather in LM is mainly influenced by the transport of CMA and WMA.

557 The cumulative hours of overcast and rainy weather under the transport of CMA and WMA are
558 1.5 and 2.2 times that of clear weather, respectively, while the cumulative hours of clear weather
559 under CDA and WDA transport are 1.3 and 1.1 times that of overcast and rainy weather. The
560 precipitation amounts from WMA, CMA, WDA and CDA transport paths account for 68%, 12%,
561 10%, and 9.8% of the total precipitation, respectively.

562 (2) The intensity of precipitation from WMA is higher during nighttime and afternoon periods than
563 the other three types of airflows, while precipitation from WDA is relatively weak. The intensity

564 variation of the four types of airflows during localized precipitation events is more significant
565 than in regional precipitation. The intensity of precipitation from cold airflows at night is only 45%
566 of that from warm airflows, but during the afternoon, precipitation from cold airflows is actually
567 stronger than from warm airflows.

568 (3) The primary reason for the distinctive regional precipitation characteristics of WMA is their
569 higher water content compared to the other three types of airflows, with the stability of the airflow
570 having a minor influence. The precipitation characteristics of CMA are not only affected by the
571 moisture content but also more evidently influenced by thermodynamic and dynamic factors
572 compared to warm, moist airflows. Thermodynamic and dynamic factors have a more significant
573 impact on regional precipitation from dry-leaning airflows than from those that are moisture-
574 leaning.

575 (4) In localized precipitation, moisture content is the main factor influencing the precipitation
576 characteristics of WMA. Thermodynamic and dynamic factors significantly affect both CMA and
577 dry airflows. This is particularly evident in the strong precipitation events occurring in the
578 afternoon with CMA and the weak precipitation processes associated with WDA. The stability of
579 CDA during precipitation processes is generally weak.

580 (5) Terrain has varying degrees of influence on the regional and localized precipitation produced by
581 the four types of airflows, with a more significant impact on localized precipitation than on
582 regional precipitation.

583

584 **Acknowledgments.** We appreciate the data provided by the Key Laboratory of Monitoring, Early
585 Warning and Risk Management of Agricultural Meteorological Disasters with Special
586 Characteristics in Dry Areas of the China Meteorological Administration (CMA) and the Key

587 Laboratory of Meteorological Disaster Prevention and Mitigation in Ningxia, ERA5 data provided
588 by ECMWF (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu>), the GDAS data provided by NOAA
589 (<https://www.ready.noaa.gov/archives.php>). The work was supported by the National Natural
590 Sciences Foundation of China (42075073, 42075077).

591

592

REFERENCES

593 Banta, R. M., 1990: The role of mountain flows in making cloud. *Meteorological Monographs*, 23(45):
594 229-283.

595 Barros, A. P., and Lettenmaier, D. P., 1994: Dynamic modeling of orographically induced precipitation.
596 *Reviews of geophysics*, 32(3): 265-284.

597 Chen, Y., Huang, J., Wang, T., Jin, H., Ge, J., 2005: Temporal and spatial distribution of the different
598 clouds over northwestern China with the relation to precipitation. *Journal of Applied*
599 *Meteorological Science (in Chinese)*, 16(6):717-727+862.

600 Cheng, G., and Wang, G., 2006: Changing trend of drought and drought disaster in northwest China
601 and counter measures. *Earth Science Frontiers (in Chinese)*, 13(1):3-14.
602 DOI:10.3321/j.issn:1005-2321.2006.01.002.

603 Deng, P., Sang, J., Yang, M., Mu, J., Chang, Z., Cao, N., 2021: Analysis of difference characteristics
604 of precipitation and air water vapor conditions over east and west slopes of Liupan Mountain in
605 recent 30 years. *Mete. Sci. Tech.*, 49(1):77-85. DOI:10.19517/j.1671-6345.20200061.

606 Feng, L., and Zhou, T., 2012: Water vapor transport for summer precipitation over the Tibetan Plateau:
607 Multidata set analysis, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 117, D20114, doi:10.1029/2011JD017012.

608 Gao, L., 2020: Numerical study on orographic summertime cloud structure and precipitation
609 mechanism over the Liupan Mountain area [D]. *Chinese Academy of Meteorological Sciences*,
610 19-21. DOI:10.27631/d.cnki.gzqky.2020.000041

611 General Administration of Quality Supervision, Inspection and Quarantine of PRC, & Standardization

612 Administration of PRC. (2012). GB/T 28592-2012: Grading of precipitation. Beijing: Standards
613 Press of China.

614 Giovannettone, J. P., and Barros, A. P., 2009: Probing Regional Orographic Controls of Precipitation
615 and Cloudiness. *Journal of Hydrometeorology*, 10(1):167-182.

616 Gui, J., Li, Z., Feng, Q., Zhang, B., Xue, J., Gao, W., Li, Y., Liang, P., and Nan, F., 2022: Water
617 resources significance of moisture recycling in the transition zone between Tibetan Plateau and
618 arid region by stable isotope tracing. *Journal of Hydrology*, 605: 127350.

619 Houze, R. A., 2012: Orographic effects on precipitating clouds. *Rev. Geophys.*, 50(1):1-47. RG1001.
620 DOI:10.1029/2011rg000365.

621 Houze, R. A., and Medina, S., 2005: Turbulence as a Mechanism for Orographic Precipitation
622 Enhancement. *J. Atmos. Sci.*, 62, 3599-3623. <https://doi.org/10.1175/JAS3555.1>.

623 Huang, R. H., Liu, Y., Du, Z. C., Chen, J. L. and Huang, J. L., 2017: Differences and links between
624 the East Asian and South Asian summer monsoon systems: Characteristics and variability. *Adv.*
625 *Atmos. Sci.*, 34(10): 1204-1218, doi: 10.1007/s00376-017-7008-3.

626 Huang, R., and Chen, J., 2010: Characteristics of the summertime water vapor transports over the
627 eastern part of China and those over the western part of China and their difference. *Chinese*
628 *Journal of Atmospheric Sciences (in Chinese)*, 34(06):1035-1045.

629 Li, Y., Zhang, C., and Wang, Y., 2016: The verification of millennial-scale monsoon water vapor
630 transport channel in northwest China. *Journal of Hydrology*, 536: 273-283.

631 Li, Z., Gao, Y., Wang, Y., Pan, Y., Li, J., Chen, A., Wang, T., Han, C., Song, Y., and Theakstone,
632 W.H., 2015: Can monsoon moisture arrive in the Qilian Mountains in summer?. *Quaternary*
633 *international*, 358: 113-125.

634 Liu, Y, Chang, S., Hua, S., and Huang, J., 2018: A review of the research on atmospheric water
635 resources over arid and semi-arid regions of East Asia. *Acta Meteorologica Sinica (in Chinese)*,
636 76(03):485-492.

637 Neiman, P. J., Ralph, F. M., White, A. B., and Kingsmaill, D., 2002: The Statistical Relationship
638 between Upslope Flow and Rainfall in California's Coastal Mountains: Observations during
639 CALJET. *Mon Weather Rev.*, 130(6):1468-1492. DOI:10.1175/1520-0493(2002)1302.0.CO;2.

640 Qi, P., Guo, X., Chang, Y., Tang, J., and Li, S., 2022: Cloud water path, precipitation amount, and
641 precipitation efficiency derived from multiple datasets on the Qilian Mountains, Northeastern
642 Tibetan Plateau. *Atmospheric Research*, 274: 106204.

643 Scholl, M. A., Giambelluca, T., W., Gingerich, S., B., Nullet, M., A., and Loope, L., L., 2007: Cloud
644 water in windward and leeward mountain forests: The stable isotope signature of orographic cloud
645 water. *Water Resources Research*, 43(12):1-13.

646 Seity, Y., Soula, S., Tabary, P., and Scialom, G., 2003: The convective storm system during IOP 2a of
647 MAP: Cloud-to-ground lightning flash production in relation to dynamics and microphysics, *Q.*
648 *J. R. Meteorol. Soc.*, 129: 523-542, doi:10.1256/qj.02.03.

649 Sevruck, B., and Nevenic, M., 1998: The geography and topography effects on the areal pattern of
650 precipitation in a small prealpine basin. *Water Science and Technology*, 37(11): 163-170.

651 Simmonds, I., Bi, D., and Hope, P., 1999: Atmospheric water vapor flux and its association with
652 rainfall over china in summer. *Journal of Climate*, 12(5): 1353-1367.

653 Tao, S. Chen, Y., and L. X., 1987: A review of recent research on the East Asian summer monsoon in
654 China [M]//Chang C P, Krishnamurti T N. *Monsoon Meteorology. Oxford: Oxford University*
655 *Press*, 60-92.

656 Tian Lei, Sang Jianren, Yao Zhanyu, Chang Zhuolin, Dan Xinlan, Cao Ning, Sun Yanqiao, 2019:
657 Characteristics of atmosphereic water vapor and liquid water in Liupan Mountain area in summer
658 and autumn. *Journal of Meteorology and Environment*, 35(6): 28-37.

659 Wang, G., Li, T., Li, J., Wei, J., and Zhong, D., 2016: Analysis of sky water resources in the source
660 region and the upper-middle region of the Yellow River basin. *Yellow River (in Chinese)*,
661 38(10):79-82. DOI:10.3969/j.issn.1000-1379.2016.10.016.

- 662 Wang, K., Jiang, H., and Zhao, H., 2005: Atmospheric water vapor transport from westerly and
663 monsoon over the Northwest China. *Advances in Water Science (in Chinese)*, 16(3):432-438.
664 DOI:10.3321/j.issn:1001-6791.2005.03.021.
- 665 Wang, X., Pang, G., Yang, M., Wan, Guoning, and Liu, Z., 2018: Precipitation changes in the Qilian
666 Mountains associated with the shifts of regional atmospheric water vapour during 1960–2014.
667 *International Journal of Climatology*, 38(12): 4355-4368.
- 668 Xu, K., Zhong, L., Ma, Y., Zou, M., and Huang, Z., 2020: A study on the water vapor transport trend
669 and water vapor source of the Tibetan Plateau. *Theoretical and Applied Climatology*, 140: 1031-
670 1042.
- 671 Xu, R., and Qiu, Y., 2023: The Difference in Cloud Water Resources and Precipitation on the Eastern
672 and Western Sides of the Liupan Mountains Caused by Topographic Effects. *Atmosphere*, 14:
673 1502. <https://doi.org/10.3390/atmos14101502>.
- 674 Zhang, P., Yao, Z., Jia, S., Chang, Z., Sang, J., Gao, L., Zhao, W., Wang, W., and Zhu, X., 2020: Study
675 of the Characteristics of Atmospheric Water Resources and Hydrometeor Precipitation Efficiency
676 over the Liupan Shan Area. *Chinese Journal of Atmospheric Sciences (in Chinese)*, 44(2): 421-
677 434. doi:10.3878/j.issn.1006-9895.1904.19104
- 678 Zhang, Q., Zhang, J., Sun, G., and Di X., 2008: Research on water-vapor distribution in the air over
679 Qilian Mountains. *Acta Meteorologica Sinica English edition*, 22(1): 107.
- 680 Zhou, T. J., and Yu, R. C., 2005: Atmospheric water vapor transport associated with typical anomalous
681 summer rainfall patterns in China. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 110, D08104, doi:10.1029/2004JD005413.

682

683