

# Precipitation measurement intercomparison in the Qilian Mountains, Northeastern Tibetan Plateau

R. Chen<sup>\*</sup>, J. Liu, E. Kang, Y. Yang, C. Han, Z. Liu, Y. Song, W. Qing, P. Zhu

Qilian Alpine Ecology and Hydrology Research Station, Key Laboratory of Inland River Ecohydrology, Cold and Arid Regions  
Environmental and Engineering Research Institute, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Lanzhou 730000, China

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**Abstract:** An experimental field study of wind-induced bias in precipitation measurements was conducted from September 2010 to April 2015 at a grassland site (99°52.9', 38°16.1', 2980 m) in the Hulu watershed in the Qilian Mountains, on the north-eastern Tibetan Plateau, in China. The experiment included (1) an unshielded Chinese standard precipitation gauge (CSPG<sub>UN</sub>; orifice diameter=20 cm, height=70 cm), (2) a single Alter shield around a CSPG (CSPG<sub>SA</sub>), (3) a CSPG in a pit (CSPG<sub>PIT</sub>) and (4) a Double-Fence International Reference (DFIR) with a Tretyakov-shielded CSPG (CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub>). The catch ratio (CR) used the CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> as a reference (CR=CSPG<sub>X</sub>/CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub>, %; X denotes UN, SA or PIT). The results show that the CSPG<sub>SA</sub>, CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> and CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> caught 0.9%, 4.5% and 3.4% more rainfall, 7.7%, 15.6% and 14.2% more mixed precipitation (snow with rain, rain with snow), 11.1%, 16.0% and 20.6% more snowfall, and 2.0%, 6.0% and 5.3% more precipitation (of all types), respectively, than the CSPG<sub>UN</sub> from September 2012 to April 2015. The CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> and CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> caught 3.6% and 2.5% more rainfall, 7.3% and 6.0% more mixed precipitation, 4.4% and 8.5% more snowfall and 3.9% and 3.2% more total precipitation, respectively, than the CSPG<sub>SA</sub>. However, the CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> caught 1.0% less rainfall, 1.2% less mixed precipitation, 3.9% more snowfall and 0.6% less total precipitation than the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub>. From most to least precipitation measured, the instruments ranked as follows: for rain and mixed precipitation, CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> > CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> > CSPG<sub>SA</sub> > CSPG<sub>UN</sub>; for snowfall, CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> > CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> > CSPG<sub>SA</sub> > CSPG<sub>UN</sub>. The CR vs. 10 m wind speed for the period of precipitation indicated that with increasing wind speed from 0 to 8.0m/s, the CR<sub>UN/DFIR</sub> and CR<sub>SA/DFIR</sub> for rainfall decreased slightly. For mixed precipitation, the wind speed showed no significant effect on CR<sub>UN/DFIR</sub> and CR<sub>SA/DFIR</sub> below 3.5m/s. For snowfall, the CR<sub>UN/DFIR</sub> and CR<sub>SA/DFIR</sub> vs. wind speed showed that CR decreased with increasing wind speed. The precipitation measured by the shielded gauges increased linearly relative to that of the unshielded gauges. However, the increase in the ratio of the linear correlation should depend on specific environmental conditions. A comparison of the wind-induced bias indicates

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<sup>\*</sup>Corresponding author. E-mail address:[crs2008@lzb.ac.cn](mailto:crs2008@lzb.ac.cn) (R. Chen)

1 that the  $CSPG_{PIT}$  could be used as a reference gauge for rain, mixed and snow precipitation events at the  
2 experimental site. As both the PIT and DFIR effectively prevented wind from influencing the catch of the  
3 precipitation gauge, the  $CR_{PIT/DFIR}$  had no relationship with wind speed. Cubic polynomials and exponential  
4 functions were used to quantify the relationship between catch ratio and wind speed. For snow, for both event and  
5 daily scales, the  $CR_{UN/DFIR}$  and  $CR_{SA/DFIR}$  were significantly related to wind speed; while for rain and mixed  
6 precipitation, only the event scale showed a significant relationship.

7 **Keywords:** Precipitation, Gauge catch ratio, Wind-induced undercatch, Field observation, Qilian Mountains

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## 9 **1 Introduction**

10 In western China, mountainous watersheds are the source areas of runoff generation and water resources, and  
11 accurate precipitation measurements are extremely important for calculating the water balance and understanding  
12 the water cycle processes in these high mountains. It is widely recognised that precipitation gauge measurements  
13 contain systematic errors caused mainly by wetting, evaporation loss and wind-induced undercatch, and that  
14 snowfall observation errors are very large under high wind (Sugiura et al., 2003). These errors affect the  
15 evaluation of available water in a large number of economic and environmental applications (Tian et al., 2007; Ye  
16 et al., 2012).

17 For decades, all knowledge of precipitation measurement errors has relied on field experiments. Back in 1955,  
18 the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) conducted the first precipitation measurement intercomparisons  
19 (Rodda, 1973). The reference standard was a British Meteorological Office gauge of the Snowdon type (Mk2)  
20 elevated 1 m above the ground and equipped with the Alter wind shield, which did not accurately reflect the  
21 precipitation level (Struzer, 1971). Rodda (1967) compared the catch of a UK 5" manual gauge, exposed  
22 normally at the standard height of 30.5 cm above ground, with a Koschmieder-type gauge exposed in a pit. The  
23 gauge in the pit caught 6% more precipitation than the normally exposed gauge. In the second WMO precipitation  
24 measurement intercomparison (Rain, 1972–1976), a pit with an anti-splash grid was designated the reference  
25 standard shield for rain gauges (Sevruk and Hamon, 1984). In the third WMO precipitation measurement  
26 intercomparison (Snow, 1986–1993), the Double Fence International Reference (DFIR) with a Tretyakov shield  
27 was designated the reference standard snow gauge configuration (Goodison et al., 1998). In the fourth WMO  
28 precipitation measurement intercomparison (Rain Intensity, 2004–2008), different principles were tested to  
29 measure rainfall intensity and define a standardised adjustment procedure (Lanza et al., 2005). Because

1 automation of precipitation measurements was widespread, the WMO Commission for Instruments and Methods  
2 of Observation (CIMO) organised the WMO Solid Precipitation Intercomparison Experiment (WMO-SPICE;  
3 Wolff et al., 2014) to define and validate automatic field instruments as references for gauge intercomparison, and  
4 to assess the automatic systems and operational networks for precipitation observations. The experiments and  
5 investigations are ongoing, and the WMO-SPICE project confirms the DFIR shield to be a part of the reference  
6 configurations.

7 The DFIR shield has been operated at 25 stations in 13 countries around the world (Golubev, 1985; Sevruk et  
8 al., 2009), but deviations from the DFIR measurements vary by gauge type and precipitation type (Goodison et al.,  
9 1998). In China, the Chinese standard precipitation gauge (CSPG) and the Hellmann gauge were first compared  
10 using the DFIR shield as a reference configuration at the Tianshan site (43°7' N, 86°49' E, 3720 m), during the  
11 third WMO precipitation measurement intercomparison experiment from 1985 to 1987 (Yang, 1988; Yang et al.,  
12 1991). The wetting loss, evaporation loss, wind-induced undercatch and trace precipitation of the CSPGs were  
13 well quantified based on the large volume of observation data at the Tianshan site (Yang et al., 1991). For  
14 wind-induced undercatch, the derived CSPG catch ratio equations were based on the 10 m height wind speed at  
15 the Daxigou Meteorological Station (43.06°, 86.5°E, 3540 m) and at several other standard meteorological  
16 stations near the measurement site (Yang, 1988; Yang et al., 1991). This intensive experimental field study created  
17 a basis for later work on the correction of systematic bias in precipitation measurements in China. From 1992 to  
18 1998, Ren and Li (2007) conducted an intercomparison experiment at 30 sites (the altitude ranged from about 4.8  
19 to 3837 m) using the pit as a reference across China, and a total of 29, 276 precipitation events were observed.  
20 Yang et al. (1999) emphasised that among all known systematic errors in precipitation observation, wind-induced  
21 gauge undercatch was the greatest source of bias, particularly in cold regions, and recommended testing for the  
22 application of adjustment techniques in regional observation networks. In the mountainous watersheds of western  
23 China, the complex high mountain topography and underlying surfaces with inhomogeneous glaciers, permafrost  
24 and alpine vegetation make the wind vector field in the lower boundary layer extremely complex, causing equally  
25 complex wind field deformations over the gauge orifice. At present, our investigation of wind-induced error in  
26 precipitation measurements is based on the horizontal time-averaged wind speed. Thus it is reasonable to  
27 investigate the regional average characteristics of wind fields and the interaction between wind fields and the  
28 precipitation gauges at our present research level. In addition to Yang's experimental field work on systematic  
29 error adjustments for precipitation measurements in eastern Tianshan from 1985 to 1987 (Yang, 1988), it is  
30 necessary to carry out field experiments on precipitation measurement in the other mountainous regions of

1 western China.

2 Adjustment procedures and reference measurements were developed during several WMO international  
3 precipitation measurement intercomparisons (Goodison et al., 1998; Sevruk et al., 2009; Yang, 2014). The  
4 application of all of these adjustment procedures and methods depends on both environmental factors and  
5 precipitation features, and among the factors considered, wind speed and temperature have been found to have the  
6 most important effect on gauge catch (Yang et al., 1999). Ye et al. (2004) developed a bias-error adjustment  
7 method for CSPGs based on observation data from 1985 to 1997 at the Tianshan site (Yang et al., 1991), and  
8 found a new precipitation trend in the adjusted precipitation data for the past 50 years in China (Ding et al., 2007).  
9 The new precipitation adjustment has improved the precipitation estimation in water balance computation for  
10 many basins in China (Ye et al., 2004; Tian et al., 2007; Ye et al., 2012). Ma et al. (2014) used the adjusted  
11 equations from neighbouring countries in addition to the experimental results from eastern Tianshan in China  
12 (Yang et al., 1991) to correct for wind-induced errors on the Tibetan Plateau. However, the precipitation gauges  
13 used in the neighbouring countries were the Tretyakov, MK2, Nepal203, Indian standard and US 8". As the  
14 world's third polar region, the Tibetan Plateau and its surrounding mountain ranges are ecologically fragile and  
15 the source of several large rivers in China and neighbouring countries, and accurate precipitation data are urgently  
16 needed for water resource exploitation and environmental protection. The problem is how to apply and test the  
17 already established principal adjustment procedures and methods to correct for precipitation measurement errors  
18 in the vast plateau and high mountains of western China, where climatic and environmental conditions are highly  
19 complex and variable, both spatially and temporally. To quantify and understand the specific influences of  
20 climatic and environmental factors on wind-induced bias in precipitation measurements in a mountain watershed,  
21 and then test and parameterise the adjustment equations, an intercomparison experiment was carried out for nearly  
22 five years on both unshielded and shielded CSPGs in a watershed in the Qilian Mountains on the north-eastern  
23 Tibetan Plateau in China.

24 The CSPG is the standard manual precipitation gauge that has been used by the China Meteorological  
25 Administration (CMA) in more than 700 stations since the 1950s. The Alter shield (Struzer, 1971) was used by  
26 the CMA to enhance catch of automatic gauges (Yang, 2014), and the pit and DFIR were used to provide true  
27 rainfall and snowfall values for the WMO intercomparison project, respectively (Yang et al., 1999). Therefore, an  
28 unshielded CSPG, a single Alter shield CSPG (SA), a DFIR with a Tretyakov-shielded CSPG and a CSPG in a pit  
29 were selected as the field experiment of wind-induced bias study. This paper presents the intercomparison  
30 experiments and their relevant data, introduces the adjustment methods, discusses wind-induced bias in

1 precipitation measurements by CSPGs for different precipitation phases, analyses the correlations between  
2 shielded and unshielded CSPGs and quantifies the relationships between catch ratio and wind speed. The results  
3 of the present study are also compared with other studies. In addition, the pit gauge is evaluated for solid  
4 precipitation under these climatic conditions. The limitations of the present study are then discussed.

## 5 **2 Experiments and methods**

### 6 **2.1 Intercomparisons and data**

7 Precipitation intercomparison experiments (Fig.1, Table 1) were conducted at a grassland site (99°52.9',  
8 38°16.1', 2980 m) in the Hulu watershed in the Qilian Mountains, on the north-eastern edge of the Tibetan Plateau,  
9 in China. A meteorological cryosphere-hydrology observation system (Chen et al., 2014) was established in 2008  
10 in the Hulu watershed. The mean annual precipitation was 447.2 mm during 2010-2012 and was concentrated  
11 during the warm season from May to September. The annual mean temperature was 1.1 °C, with a July mean  
12 ( $T_{mean}$ ) of 12.5 °C and a January mean of -12.4°C over the years (Table 1). The annual potential evaporation ( $E_0$ )  
13 was 1102 mm (Table 1).

14 The intercomparative experiments included (1) an unshielded CSPG (CSPG<sub>UN</sub>; orifice diameter=20 cm,  
15 height=70 cm), (2) a single Alter shield around a CSPG (CSPG<sub>SA</sub>), (3) a CSPG in a pit (CSPG<sub>PIT</sub>), and (4) a DFIR  
16 with a Tretyakov-shielded CSPG (CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub>) (Fig.1, Table 2). The CSPG<sub>UN</sub>, CSPG<sub>SA</sub> and CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> were installed  
17 before September 2010, whereas the CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> was installed in September 2012 (Table 2). In the cold season  
18 (October to April), snowfalls dominated the precipitation events, and in the warm season (May to September),  
19 rainfall was dominate. The precipitation was measured manually twice a day at 08:00 and 20:00 local time  
20 (Beijing time) according to the CMA's standard (CMA, 2007a). In the warm season, precipitation was measured  
21 by volume. Whereas in the cold season, the funnel and glass bottle were removed from the CSPG and  
22 precipitation was weighed under a windproof box. Any frost on the outside surface of the collector was wiped off  
23 using a dry hand towel. In rare cases where snow had accumulated on the rim of the collector, this was removed  
24 before weighing.

25 The precipitation phases (snow, rain and mixed) were distinguished using the CMA's standard (CMA, 2007b).  
26 Meteorological elements, including maximum air temperature  $T_{max}$  and minimum  $T_{min}$ , have been measured in  
27 conformation with the meteorological observation manual at the site since June, 2009. A meteorological tower  
28 was used to measure wind speed (Lisa/Rita, SG GmbH;  $W_s$ ), air temperature (HMP45D, Vaisala) and relative  
29 humidity (HMP45D, Vaisala) at 1.5m and 2.5m heights in association with precipitation measurements (Chen et

1 al., 2014). The time step of the observations of the tower was 30 seconds and half-hourly values were obtained.  
2 The specific meteorological conditions at the site are summarised in Table 1.

3  
4 **Fig.1 about here**

5 **Table 1 and Table 2 about here**

## 6 **2.2 Adjustment methods**

7 This field experiment focused on two key aspects. One was a comparison of the CSPG<sub>UN</sub>, CSPG<sub>SA</sub>, CSPG<sub>PIT</sub>  
8 and CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> gauges. The other was the establishment of adjustment equations for the CSPG<sub>UN</sub> and CSPG<sub>SA</sub>  
9 using the CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> as a reference. To adjust gauge-measured precipitation, Sevruk and Hamon (1984) provided  
10 the general formula as:

$$11 \quad P_c = KP_g + \Delta P_w + \Delta P_e + \Delta P_t = P_{DFIR} + \Delta P_w + \Delta P_e + \Delta P_t \quad (1)$$

12 where  $P_c$  is the adjusted precipitation,  $K$  is the wind-induced coefficient,  $P_g$  is the gauge-measured precipitation.  
13  $P_w$  is the wetting loss,  $P_e$  is the evaporation loss,  $P_t$  is trace precipitation and  $P_{DFIR}$  is the DFIR-shielded  
14 precipitation. For loss by the CSPG per observation,  $P_w$  is 0.23 mm for rainfall measurements, 0.30 mm for snow  
15 and 0.29 mm for mixed precipitation (snow with rain, rain with snow), based on the measurements at the Tianshan  
16 site (Yang, 1988; Yang et al., 1991). Ren and Li (2007) reported a mean  $P_w$  of about 0.19 mm for the total  
17 precipitation over eastern China. The CSPG design reduces  $P_e$  to a near-zero value smaller than other losses in the  
18 warm, rainy season (Ye et al., 2004; Ren and Li, 2007). In winter,  $P_e$  is already small (0.10–0.20 mm/day)  
19 according to the results from Finland (Aaltonen et al., 1993) and Mongolia (Zhang et al., 2004). To prevent  
20 evaporation loss in Chinese operational observations on particular days, e.g., hot, dry days or days of snow,  
21 precipitation is measured as soon as the precipitation event stops (CMA, 2007a; Ren and Li, 2007). A  
22 precipitation event of less than 0.10 mm is beyond the resolution of the CSPG and is recorded as trace  
23 precipitation ( $P_t$ ). Ye et al. (2004) recommended assigning a value of 0.1 mm, regardless of the number of trace  
24 observations per day. The present study focused on wind-induced bias in precipitation measurement by CSPGs,  
25 specifically in high mountain environments, therefore the above mentioned  $P_w$ ,  $P_e$  and  $P_t$  values were assumed to  
26 be constant in the computation equations.

27 The WMO proposed Eqs.(2)–(4) to compute the catch ratio of unshielded over shielded Tretyakov gauges on a  
28 daily time step for three precipitation types, and the independent variables were wind speed ( $W_s$ ,  $\text{ms}^{-1}$ ) at the  
29 gauge height and the daily maximum and minimum temperatures ( $T_{max}$ ,  $T_{min}$ , °C) (Yang et al., 1995; Goodison et  
30 al., 1998). These equations are used over a great range of environmental conditions (Goodison et al., 1998).

$$CR_{snow} = 103.1 - 8.67W_s + 0.3T_{max} \quad (2)$$

$$CR_{mix} = 96.99 - 4.46W_s + 0.88T_{max} + 0.22T_{min} \quad (3)$$

$$CR_{rain} = 100.0 - 4.77W_s^{0.56} \quad (4)$$

2

3 where  $CR_{snow}$  (%),  $CR_{mix}$  (%) and  $CR_{rain}$  (%) are the catch ratios for snow, mixed precipitation and rain,  
4 respectively.

5 As the CMA stations usually observe wind speed at a height of 10m, Eqs.(5)–(7) were used for the CSPG catch  
6 ratio versus the daily mean wind speed  $W_s$  ( $ms^{-1}$ ) at 10m (Yang et al., 1991). These equations are based on the  
7 large volume of experimental precipitation gauge intercomparison data at the Tianshan site and the wind speed  
8 data at the Daxigou station:

$$CR_{snow} = 100 \exp(-0.056W_{s10}) \quad (0 < W_s < 6.2) \quad (5)$$

$$CR_{rain} = 100 \exp(-0.04W_{s10}) \quad (0 < W_s < 7.3) \quad (6)$$

$$CR_{mix} = CR_{snow} - (CR_{snow} - CR_{rain})(T_{mean} + 2) / 4 \quad (7)$$

10 where  $T_{mean}$  is the daily mean air temperature ( $^{\circ}C$ ).

11 Referring to Eqs.(2)–(7), two types of equation were used. One is for easy application using the 10m height  
12 wind speed during the period of precipitation in China. These are similar to a revised version of Eqs.(5)–(7). The  
13 other type is similar to Eqs.(2)–(4), which use the daily mean wind speed at gauge height. For the CSPGs, the  
14 gauge height was 70cm (Table 2). The catch ratio uses  $CSPG_{DFIR}$  as the reference ( $CR=CSPG_X/CSPG_{DFIR}$ , %; X  
15 denotes UN, SA or PIT). The equations were fitted using SPSS software version 19.0 (IBM, 2010) and Microsoft  
16 Excel 2007 based on the mathematical least squares method (Charnes et al., 1976). The significance of the  
17 equations was evaluated using the F-test method (Snedecor and Cochran, 1989). If the significance level ( $\alpha$ ) of the  
18 F-test is below 0.05, the fitted equation is significant. The lower the  $\alpha$  value, the greater the significance.

19 Wind speeds at gauge height ( $W_{s0.7}$ ) and at the 10 m height ( $W_{s10}$ ) were calculated using half-hourly wind speed  
20 data at 1.5 m ( $W_{s1.5}$ ) and 2.5 m ( $W_{s2.5}$ ) according to the Monin-Obukhov theory and the gradient method (Bagnold,  
21 1941; Dyer and Bradley, 1982):

$$W_{sZ} = \frac{\ln Z - \ln Z_0}{\ln 1.5 - \ln Z_0} W_{s1.5} \quad (8)$$

$$\ln Z_0 = \frac{W_{s2.5} \ln 1.5 - W_{s1.5} \ln 2.5}{W_{s2.5} - W_{s1.5}} \quad (9)$$

24 where  $Z$  denotes the height referred to.

### 25 3 Results

1 From September 2010 to April 2015, a total of 608 precipitation events were recorded at the intercomparison  
2 site for CSPG<sub>UN</sub>, CSPG<sub>SA</sub> and CSPG<sub>PIT</sub>, respectively (Table 3). Snow occurred 84 times, mixed precipitation 44  
3 times and rain 480 times during this period. From September 2012 to April 2015, a subset of 283 precipitation  
4 events was recorded for the CSPG<sub>UN</sub>, CSPG<sub>SA</sub>, CSPG<sub>PIT</sub>, and CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> gauges, respectively (Table 3). During  
5 this period, snow occurred 43 times, mixed precipitation 29 times and rainfall 211 times.

6  
7 **Table 3 about here**

8  
9 **3.1 Linear correlation of gauge precipitation**

10 At the 14 WMO intercomparison sites, a strong linear relationship was found between Alter-shielded and  
11 unshielded Belfort gauges, Alter-shielded and unshielded NWS 8-inch gauges, and shielded and unshielded  
12 Tretyakov gauges for all types of precipitation, with a higher correlation for rain than for snow (Yang et al., 1999).  
13 In the present study in the Qilian Mountains, which experiences different environmental conditions compared to  
14 the other 14 sites, the same strong linear correlation was found among the four CSPG instalments for rainfall,  
15 mixed precipitation and snowfall, with a higher correlation for rain than for mixed precipitation, successively  
16 more than for snow (Figures 2–4). It is therefore considered that in general the precipitation measured by shielded  
17 gauges increases linearly with that of unshielded gauges. However, the relative increase in linear correlation  
18 should depend on the specific environmental conditions. For solid precipitation, some non-linear factors interfered  
19 with the linear relationship to reduce the correlation coefficient.

20  
21 **Fig.2 about here**

22 **Fig.3 about here**

23 **Fig.4 about here**

24  
25 **3.2 Comparisons of wind-induced bias**

26 From September 2010 to April 2015, the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> caught 4.7% and 3.4% more rainfall than the CSPG<sub>UN</sub> and  
27 the CSPG<sub>SA</sub> respectively ( $(\text{CSPG}_{\text{PIT}} - \text{CSPG}_{\text{UN}}) / \text{CSPG}_{\text{UN}} * 100$ ; similarly hereinafter). The CSPG<sub>SA</sub> caught 1.3%  
28 more rainfall than the CSPG<sub>UN</sub> (Table 3). During the period from September 2012 to April 2015, the CSPG<sub>SA</sub>,  
29 CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> and CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> caught 0.9%, 4.5% and 3.4% more rainfall, respectively, than the CSPG<sub>UN</sub>, and the



1 CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> and CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> caught 3.6% and 2.5% more rainfall, respectively, than the CSPG<sub>SA</sub>. However, the  
2 CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> caught 1.0% less rainfall than the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> (Table 3, Fig.2). These comparative results indicate that the  
3 CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> caught more rainfall and total precipitation compared to the CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> and other gauges at the  
4 experimental site (Table 3, Fig.2).

5 A total of 29 mixed precipitation events were observed from September 2012 to April 2015. As shown in Table  
6 3, the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> caught the most mixed precipitation among the gauges, capturing 82.2 mm of mixed precipitation  
7 in 29 events, but only 1.1 mm more than the CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub>. The linear relationship between the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> and  
8 CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> is statistically significant with an  $R^2$  value of about 0.98 (Fig.3f). Thus for mixed precipitation, in  
9 addition to the CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub>, the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> could also be selected as a reference gauge for the CSPG<sub>UN</sub> and CSPG<sub>SA</sub> at  
10 the experimental site.

11 From September 2012 to April 2015, the CSPG<sub>SA</sub>, CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> and CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> caught 11.1%, 16.0% and 20.6%  
12 more snowfall, respectively, than the CSPG<sub>UN</sub>, and the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> and CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> caught 4.4% and 8.5% more  
13 snowfall, respectively, than the CSPG<sub>SA</sub> (Table 3). Although the CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> caught 3.9% more snowfall compared  
14 to the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> (Table 3), the difference in total snowfall (43 events) between the CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> and CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> was  
15 only about 3.4 mm (Table 3). Their linear correlation was highly significant with an  $R^2$  value of 0.994 (Fig.4f).  
16 Blowing snow and thick snow cover have traditionally limited the pit's use as a reference for snowfall and mixed  
17 precipitation. At the experimental site, blowing snow was rarely observed and the snow cover was usually shallow.  
18 This suggests that the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> could be used as a reference gauge for snow precipitation events at the site with  
19 shallow snow cover and rare blowing snow event.

20 To sum up the comparisons of wind-induced bias, from most to least rainfall and mixed precipitation measured,  
21 the instruments ranked as follows: CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> > CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> > CSPG<sub>SA</sub> > CSPG<sub>UN</sub>, while for snowfall their ranking was  
22 CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> > CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> > CSPG<sub>SA</sub> > CSPG<sub>UN</sub>.

### 23 3.3 Catch ratio vs. wind speed

24 Previous studies have shown that wind speed during the precipitation period is the most significant variable  
25 affecting gauge catch efficiency (Metcalf and Goodison, 1993; Yang et al., 1995; Goodison et al., 1998). Because  
26 the CMA stations observe wind speeds at the 10m height, the CSPG<sub>UN</sub> and CSPG<sub>SA</sub> adjustment equations for a  
27 single precipitation event were obtained for 10m height wind speeds. On the daily scale, adjustment equations  
28 similar to Eqs.(2)–(4) were also obtained, based on the daily mean wind speed converted to gauge height (0.7m  
29 for the CSPGs) and air temperature.

30 To minimise ratio scatter for the different gauges, precipitation events greater than 3.0 mm are normally

1 selected for the CR vs. wind analysis (Yang et al. 1995; Yang et al., 2014). However, in the Hulu watershed, most  
 2 snowfall and mixed precipitation events were less than 3.0 mm, thus the limit was reduced and single or daily  
 3 snowfall and mixed precipitation events greater than 1.0 mm were selected, while rainfall events greater than 3.0  
 4 mm were selected. The numbers of selected precipitation events are shown in Table 4. The CR vs. wind speed  
 5 relationships for different precipitation types were determined using cubic polynomials and exponential functions  
 6 and were summarised in Table 4. The  $CR_{UN/DFIR}$  and  $CR_{SA/DFIR}$  vs. wind speed relationships are statistically  
 7 significant, but the  $CR_{PIT/DFIR}$  vs.  $W_{s0.7}$  or  $W_{s10}$  relationships do not pass the F-test with  $\alpha=0.10$ . This phenomenon  
 8 indicates that both PIT and DFIR are effective in preventing wind from influencing the gauge catch of  
 9 precipitation, therefore the  $CR_{PIT/DFIR}$  is not related to wind speed.

11 **Table 4 about here**

13 Fig.5 presents scatter plots for the  $CR_{UN/DFIR}$  and  $CR_{SA/DFIR}$  vs. wind speed for rainfall. The CRs vary from 80%  
 14 to 110%. With increasing wind speed, the CRs decrease slightly. Only Eq. (10) shown in Fig.5 and Table 4 could  
 15 be used to adjust the rainfall event data from the  $CSPG_{SA}$ . It is significant at 0.03 level (Table 4). As described in  
 16 section 2.2, Eq.(10) was fitted using the NONLINEAR function in SPSS software  
 17 (Analyze\Regression\Nonlinear). The F-value was then calculated using regression and the residual sum of  
 18 squares from SPSS (Snedecor and Cochran, 1989). Based on the F-value and the degrees of freedom (Df), the  
 19 significance level ( $\alpha$ ) was obtained using the FDIST function in Microsoft Excel. Other forms such as the  
 20 exponential expression were treated in a similar way.

$$21 \quad CR_{SA/DFIR,Rain} = 0.188W_{s10}^3 - 0.719W_{s10}^2 + 0.551W_{s10} + 100 \quad 0 < W_{s10} < 7.4 \quad (10)$$

22 where  $CR_{SA/DFIR,Rain}$  is the rainfall catch ratio (%) per observation of the  $CSPG_{SA}$  and  $W_{s10}$  is the wind speed at  
 23 10m during the rainfall period ( $m s^{-1}$ ).

25 **Fig.5 about here**

27 On the daily scale, the relationships between rainfall CR and wind speed at gauge height ( $W_{s0.7}$ ) are also cubic  
 28 functions, but they do not pass the F-test with  $\alpha=0.25$  (Table 4).

29 For the mixed precipitation events, the CR vs.  $W_{s10}$  relationships are exponential (Table 4, Fig.6). The CRs vary  
 30 greatly from about 60% to 120%. For the  $CSPG_{UN}$ , the exponential relationship Eq. (11) passes the F-test with

1  $\alpha=0.07$ , whereas for the CSPG<sub>SA</sub>, the Eq.(12)  $\alpha$  value is about 0.16 (Table 4).

2  
3 **Fig.6 about here**

4  
5 
$$CR_{UN/DFIR,Mixed} = 100e^{-0.06W_{s10}} \quad 0 < W_{s10} < 5.9 \quad (11)$$

6 
$$CR_{SA/DFIR,Mixed} = 100e^{-0.04W_{s10}} \quad 0 < W_{s10} < 5.9 \quad (12)$$

7 On the daily scale, the relationships between mixed precipitation CR and wind speed at gauge height ( $W_{s0.7}$ ) are  
8 also exponential expressions (Table 4, Fig.6). Similarly, for the CSPG<sub>UN</sub>, Eq. (13) passes the F-test with  $\alpha < 0.10$ ,  
9 whereas Eq.(14) with an  $\alpha$  value of about 0.18 doesn't (Table 4).

10 
$$CR_{UN/DFIR,Mixed} = 100e^{-0.12W_{s0.7}} \quad 0 < W_{s0.7} < 2.9 \quad (13)$$

11 
$$CR_{SA/DFIR,Mixed} = 100e^{-0.07W_{s0.7}} \quad 0 < W_{s0.7} < 2.9 \quad (14)$$

12 From Eq. (3), air temperature may also affect the mixed precipitation CRs on the daily scale. Eqs. (15)–(16) are  
13 obtained as follows. However, these two new equations do not pass the F-test with  $\alpha < 0.20$ .

14 
$$CR_{UN/DFIR,Mixed} = 13.83W_{s0.7}^{-4.91} + 1.25T_{max} - 0.88T_{min} + 62.21 \quad \alpha=0.20 \quad (15)$$

15 
$$CR_{SA/DFIR,Mixed} = 10.74W_{s0.7}^{-4.74} + 0.85T_{max} - 0.18T_{min} + 76.20 \quad \alpha=0.29 \quad (16)$$

16 where  $T_{max}$  and  $T_{min}$  are the daily maximum and minimum air temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), respectively.

17 For the snowfall events, the  $CR_{UN/DFIR,Snow}$  and  $CR_{SA/DFIR,Snow}$  vs.  $W_{s10}$  relationships are significant (Table 4,  
18 Fig.7). For the CSPG<sub>UN</sub>, the exponential relationship Eq.(17) passes the F-test with  $\alpha < 0.001$ . Eq.(17) is similar to  
19 Eq.(5) suggested by Yang et al. (1991). For the CSPG<sub>SA</sub>, its exponential expression in Eq.(18) passes the F-test at  
20  $\alpha=0.07$  (Table 4).

21  
22 **Fig.7 about here**

23  
24  
25 
$$CR_{UN/DFIR,Snow} = 100e^{-0.08W_{s10}} \quad 0 < W_{s10} < 4.8 \quad (17)$$

26 
$$CR_{SA/DFIR,Snow} = 100e^{-0.02W_{s10}} \quad 0 < W_{s10} < 4.8 \quad (18)$$

27 On the daily scale, the relationships between snowfall CRs and wind speed at gauge height ( $W_{s0.7}$ ) are also  
28 exponential expressions (Table 4, Fig.7). For the CSPG<sub>UN</sub> and CSPG<sub>SA</sub>, the Eqs.(19)–(20) pass the F-test with  
29  $\alpha < 0.001$  and  $\alpha=0.14$ , respectively (Table 4). Eqs. (17)–(19) could therefore be directly used to calibrate the

1 wind-induced snowfall measurement errors for the  $CSPG_{UN}$  and  $CSPG_{SA}$ .

$$2 \quad CR_{UN/DFIR,Snow} = 100e^{-0.11W_{s0.7}} \quad 0 < W_{s0.7} < 3.1 \quad (19)$$

$$3 \quad CR_{SA/DFIR,Snow} = 100e^{-0.03W_{s0.7}} \quad 0 < W_{s0.7} < 3.1 \quad (20)$$

4 Air temperature may also affect the snowfall CR on the daily scale as shown in Eq.(2). Eqs. (21)–(22) are the  
5 new equations associated with daily maximum air temperature. However, these two new equations are not better  
6 than Eqs. (19) –(20) according to their F-test  $\alpha$  values.

$$7 \quad CR_{UN/DFIR,Snow} = 42.29W_{s0.7}^{-1.06} - 1.06T_{max} + 55.91 \quad \alpha=4.2E-5 \quad (21)$$

$$8 \quad CR_{SA/DFIR,Snow} = -9.46\ln(W_{s0.7}) - 0.31T_{max} + 98.76 \quad \alpha=0.17 \quad (22)$$

9 From the above mentioned relationships of  $CR_{UN/DFIR}$  and  $CR_{SA/DFIR}$  vs. wind speed, the following points can be  
10 drawn for our understanding. For daily rain and mixed precipitation, the relationships are not statistically  
11 significant. The use of daily mean wind speed may lead to uncertainties in gauge comparisons. Data collections  
12 and analyses on shorter time scales, such as hourly or 6-hourly, are expected to produce more reliable results,  
13 because wind speed may vary throughout the day and daily mean wind speeds may not be representative of the  
14 wind conditions over the precipitation period (Yang and Simonenko, 2014). Daily maximum and minimum  
15 temperatures should reflect the atmospheric conditions of radiation and convection to some degree, and their  
16 function in the CR vs. wind speed relationship needs further investigation in a mountain environment.

## 17 **4 Discussion**

### 18 **4.1 Comparison with other studies**

19 Yang et al. (1991) carried out a precipitation intercomparison experiment from 1985 to 1987 at the Tianshan  
20 site. Their results indicated that the  $CSPG_{DFIR}/CSPG_{UN}$  ratios for snowfall and mixed precipitation were 1.222 and  
21 1.160, respectively. In the Hulu watershed, these ratios were 1.165 (Fig.4c ) and 1.072 (Fig.3c), while those for  
22  $CSPG_{PIT}/CSPG_{UN}$  were 1.162 (Fig.4b) and 1.082 (Fig.3b), respectively. Similar topographic features and shading  
23 induced similar lower wind speeds and led to similar catch ratios at both sites. For the Tianshan study site, wind  
24 speed ( $W_{s10}$ ) on rainfall or snowfall days never exceeded  $6 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , and 88% of the total annual precipitation took  
25 place with wind speeds below  $3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . At the Hulu watershed site, daily mean wind speeds ( $W_{s10}$ ) on precipitation  
26 days never exceeded  $6.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , and over 55.2% of the precipitation events occurred with daily mean wind speeds  
27 below  $3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . During the periods of precipitation, the highest wind speed at the 10m height was about  $8.8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ,  
28 and over 54.2% of the precipitation events occurred with wind speeds below  $3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ .

29 As Ren et al. (2003) reported, across 30 comparison stations in China, the  $CSPG_{PIT}$  caught 3.2% (1.1~7.9%)

1 more rainfall and 11.0% (2.2~24.8%) more snowfall than the CSPG<sub>UN</sub>. Large wind-induced differences were often  
2 observed at the mountainous western stations and in north-eastern China. At the Gangcha station (100°08', 37°20',  
3 3015 m), which also lies in the Qilian Mountains at a similar elevation about 200 km from the Hulu watershed site,  
4 the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> caught 7.9% more rainfall and 16.8% more snowfall than the CSPG<sub>UN</sub> from 1992 to 1998. In our  
5 study, the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> captured 4.7% more rainfall, 21.0% more snowfall and 12.1% more mixed precipitation than  
6 the CSPG<sub>UN</sub> from September 2010 to April 2015 (Table 3). The outcome presented in this study is somewhat  
7 different from that reported by Ren et al. (2003) due to differences in the wind regime. At the Gangcha station,  
8 daily mean wind speeds ( $W_{s10}$ ) on precipitation days during the experimental period from 1992 to 1998 never  
9 exceeded  $8.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , and over 35.1% of the precipitation events occurred with daily mean wind speeds below  $3 \text{ m}$   
10  $\text{s}^{-1}$ . The average daily mean  $W_{s10}$  was about  $3.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  on precipitation days from 1992 to 1998 at the Gangcha  
11 station, whereas at the Hulu watershed site from 2010 to 2015, the average value was about  $2.9 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  on  
12 precipitation days.

13 It is recognised that in western China, climatic and environmental conditions in the mountains vary both  
14 spatially and temporally. To understand the similarities and differences in wind-induced bias in precipitation  
15 measurements for different mountain watersheds, field experiments need to be carried out continuously. Further  
16 investigation is also necessary to consider the influence of micrometeorology on gauge observations, particularly  
17 wind distribution and turbulence across this site (Yang and Simonenko, 2014).

#### 18 **4.2 CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> as a reference for solid precipitation**

19 The pit is the WMO reference configuration for liquid precipitation measurements and the DFIR is the  
20 reference configuration for solid precipitation measurements (Sevruk et al., 2009). In this study, the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub>  
21 measured more rainfall and mixed precipitation than the CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub>. For snowfall, the catch ratio for CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> was  
22 0.96, close to that of the CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> measurement. The difference in total snowfall (43 events) between the  
23 CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> and CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> was only about 3.4 mm from September 2012 to April 2015 at the Hulu watershed site.  
24 The snowfall for autumn and spring was greater than for winter during the observation period at the  
25 intercomparison site (Fig.8). The snowfall is wetter in autumn and spring than in winter, and wetter snowfall  
26 means less blowing or drifting snow. Thus the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> could serve as a reference for liquid and solid  
27 precipitation in environments similar to that of the Hulu watershed site. Precipitation collected by the CSPG<sub>PIT</sub>  
28 would be most affected by blowing or drifting snow, inducing a faulty precipitation value (Goodison et al., 1998;  
29 Ren and Li, 2007). Previous studies have indicated, however, that for most of China the maximum snow depth in

1 the past 30 years has been less than 20 cm (Li, 1999), with average snow depths below 3 cm (Li et al., 2008; Che  
2 et al., 2008). Fig.9 shows annual snowfall amounts and annual snowfall proportion distributions for 644  
3 meteorological stations in China from 1960 to 1979, indicating that snowfall is concentrated in the middle and  
4 south-western Tibetan Plateau, northern Xinjiang province and north-eastern China. Statistical analysis indicates  
5 that for more than 94% of stations, solid precipitation comprises less than 15% of the annual precipitation. Ren et  
6 al. (2003) reported, that among the 2286 snowfall events, only 54 were blowing or drifting snow events  
7 accounting for about 2.4% for 26 stations across China. Based on the regionalisation of snow drift in China,  
8 blowing or drifting snow events occur mostly on the central and south-western Tibetan Plateau, in the northern  
9 Xinjiang province and in north-eastern China (Wang and Zhang, 1999). In these regions, the  $CSPG_{DFIR}$  should be  
10 used as a reference gauge. In other regions, the  $CSPG_{PIT}$  may be applicable. Based on the CMA snowfall and  
11 snow depth data, and the regionalisation of snow drift in China, the applicable regions for the  $CSPG_{PIT}$  and  
12  $CSPG_{DFIR}$  as reference gauges are shown in Fig.10.

13 **Fig.8 about here**

14 **Fig.9 about here**

15 **Fig.10 about here**

#### 16 **4.3 Limitations of this experiment**

17 Although the measurement procedures were based on the CMA's standard, manual observations were  
18 infrequent, and as a result, some precipitation events were summarised as single events, especially in the evenings.  
19 The automatic meteorological tower could observe precipitation and wind speeds half-hourly during the  
20 precipitation period, but the  $CSPG_{UN}$ ,  $CSPG_{SA}$ ,  $CSPG_{PIT}$  and  $CSPG_{DFIR}$  were observed only twice per day. In this  
21 field experiment, the precipitation phases were also distinguished by observers. This method is somewhat  
22 imprecise although this has remained the traditional method since the 1950s at the CMA stations (CMA, 2007b).  
23 Automatic sensors will also be important to detect precipitation types at operational and research networks (Yang  
24 and Simonenko, 2014).

25 The wind speeds at gauge height and the 10 m height were not observed directly but rather calculated from the  
26 observed data at 1.5 m and 2.5m heights according to the Monin-Obukhov theory and the gradient method  
27 (Eq.(8)). Although this method is widely used, it is effective only under neutral atmospheric conditions. For the  
28 precipitation period from September 2012 to April 2015, the  $Z_0$  was calculated using Eq. (9). The results showed  
29 the  $Z_0$  to be about 0.06m on average but it varied from nearly zero to 0.67m. As shown in Fig.11, in about 68.9%

1 and 95.1% of instances, the  $Z_0$  was lower than 0.05 m and 0.25 m, respectively. In rare cases when the  $Z_0$  was very  
2 large, as shown in Fig.11, the  $Z_0$  was arbitrarily assigned 1/2 of the grass height ( $h$ ) at the site based on the  
3 equation  $Z_0=0.5hL_e$  provided by Lettau (1969). The very large  $Z_0$  values usually appeared in late August and early  
4 September when the vegetation coverage ( $L_e$ ) was close to 100% at the Hulu watershed site.

5

6

**Fig. 11 about here**

## 7 **5 Conclusions**

8 This study focused on wind-induced bias in precipitation measurements by CSPGs specifically in a high  
9 mountain environment. The precipitation intercomparison experiment in the Hulu watershed of the Qilian  
10 Mountains indicated that the  $CSPG_{PIT}$  caught more rainfall, mixed precipitation and total precipitation but less  
11 snowfall than the  $CSPG_{DFIR}$ . From most to least rainfall and mixed precipitation measured, their ranking was  
12  $CSPG_{PIT} > CSPG_{DFIR} > CSPG_{SA} > CSPG_{UN}$ , whereas in the snowy season, better wind shielding increased the snow  
13 catch, leading to  $CSPG_{DFIR} > CSPG_{PIT} > CSPG_{SA} > CSPG_{UN}$ . The measured daily precipitation by shielded gauges  
14 increases linearly with that of unshielded gauges. For solid precipitation, some non-linear factors interfere with  
15 the linear relationship to reduce the linear correlation coefficient.

16 In regions with lower snowfall, such as the southern and central parts of China (Zhang and Zhong, 2014), and  
17 in regions with a similar climate and environment to that of the Hulu watershed site, the  $CSPG_{PIT}$  could be used as  
18 a reference gauge because of its high catch ratio, simplicity and lower maintenance requirements. In north-eastern  
19 China, northern Xinjiang province and the central and south-western Tibetan Plateau where snowfall often occurs,  
20 the best choice of reference gauge would be the  $CSPG_{PIT}$  for rainfall and the  $CSPG_{DFIR}$  for snowfall observations.

21 The catch ratio vs. wind speed relationship for different precipitation types is simulated by cubic polynomials  
22 and exponential functions. The  $CR_{PIT/DFIR}$  does not have a significant relationship to wind speed, indicating that  
23 both PIT and DFIR are effective in preventing wind from influencing the precipitation gauge catch. For daily rain  
24 and mixed precipitation, the relationships are not statistically significant. Daily maximum and minimum  
25 temperatures should reflect the atmospheric conditions of radiation and convection to some degree, and their  
26 function in the CR vs. wind speed relationship needs further investigation in mountain environments. It is  
27 recognised that in western China, the climatic and environmental conditions in the mountains vary both spatially  
28 and temporally. To understand the similarities and differences among wind-induced biases in precipitation  
29 measurements for the different mountain watersheds in western China, field experiments and modelling of wind

1 field need to be carried out continuously.

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**Table 1.** Monthly climate values at the experimental site (2010-2012).

Element	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Yearly
Monthly precipitation (mm)	3.5	2.5	11.0	8.8	67.7	69.6	87.1	111.6	57.7	24.0	2.7	1.0	447.2
Monthly mean air temperature (°C)	-12.4	-7.7	-4.4	2.2	7.0	11.2	12.5	12.1	8.0	1.4	-5.6	-11.3	1.1
Monthly mean daily maximum air temperature (°C)	-4.0	0.7	3.5	10.3	14.3	18.2	19.5	19.7	15.4	10.2	3.6	-1.9	9.1
Monthly mean daily minimum air temperature (°C)	-19.0	-14.8	-11.6	-5.2	0.6	4.9	6.8	5.8	1.8	-5.5	-12.7	-18.2	-5.6
Monthly mean wind speed at the 1.5m height (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	1.79	1.96	2.30	2.55	2.42	1.98	1.82	1.81	1.93	1.81	2.08	1.96	2.03
Monthly mean wind speed at the 2.5m height (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	1.79	2.02	2.43	2.77	2.65	2.16	2.04	2.02	2.16	1.99	2.19	2.01	2.18
Monthly potential evaporation (mm)	31.6	47.0	79.4	124.4	140.9	155.0	141.7	127.0	101.6	75.2	47.3	31.0	1102.2

**Table 2.** The precipitation measurement intercomparison experiment in the Qilian Mountains.

Gauge	Abbreviation	Size( $\varphi$ denotes orifice diameter and $h$ is observation height)	Start date	End date	Observation time
Unshielded China standard precipitation gauge (CMA, 2007a)	CSPG <sub>UN</sub>	$\varphi=20\text{cm}, h=70\text{cm}$	Jun 2009	Apr, 2015	20:00 and 08:00, Local time
Single Alter shield (Struzer, 1971) around a CSPG	CSPG <sub>SA</sub>	$\varphi=20\text{cm}, h=70\text{cm}$	Jun 2009	Apr, 2015	20:00 and 08:00, Local time
A CSPG in a Pit (Sevruk and Hamon, 1984)	CSPG <sub>PIT</sub>	$\varphi=20\text{cm}, h=0\text{cm}$	Sep 2010	Apr, 2015	20:00 and 08:00, Local time
DFIR shield(Goodison et al., 1998) around a CSPG	CSPG <sub>DFIR</sub>	$\varphi=20\text{cm}, h=3.0\text{m}$	Sep 2012	Apr, 2015	20:00 and 08:00, Local time

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**Table 3.** Summary of precipitation observations at the Hulu watershed intercomparison site, 2010-2015.

Date	Phase	No. of events	Total precipitation and catch ratio (CR, %)													
			CSPG <sub>UN</sub> (mm)	CR	$100\left(\frac{\text{CSPG}_{\text{SA}}}{\text{CSPG}_{\text{UN}}} - 1\right)$	$100\left(\frac{\text{CSPG}_{\text{PIT}}}{\text{CSPG}_{\text{UN}}} - 1\right)$	$100\left(\frac{\text{CSPG}_{\text{DFIR}}}{\text{CSPG}_{\text{UN}}} - 1\right)$	CSPG <sub>SA</sub> (mm)	CR	$100\left(\frac{\text{CSPG}_{\text{PIT}}}{\text{CSPG}_{\text{SA}}} - 1\right)$	$100\left(\frac{\text{CSPG}_{\text{DFIR}}}{\text{CSPG}_{\text{SA}}} - 1\right)$	CSPG <sub>PIT</sub> (mm)	CR	$100\left(\frac{\text{CSPG}_{\text{DFIR}}}{\text{CSPG}_{\text{PIT}}} - 1\right)$	CSPG <sub>DFIR</sub> (mm)	CR
Sep 2010-	All	608	1986.8		2.6	6.5		2038.1		3.8		2115.1				
	rain	480	1700.7		1.3	4.7		1723.4		3.4		1781.4				
Apr 2015	mixed	44	139.9		6.1	12.1		148.5		5.6		156.8				
	snow	84	146.2		13.7	21.0		166.2		6.4		176.9				
Sep 2012-	All	283	1066.7	94.9	2.0	6.0	5.3	1088.4	96.9	3.9	3.2	1130.9	100.6	-0.6	1123.7	100
	rain	211	920.7	96.7	0.9	4.5	3.4	928.6	97.5	3.6	2.5	961.8	101.0	-1.0	952.2	100
Apr 2015	mixed	29	71.1	87.6	7.7	15.6	14.2	76.6	94.3	7.3	6.0	82.2	101.2	-1.2	81.2	100
	snow	43	74.9	82.9	11.1	16.0	20.6	83.2	92.1	4.4	8.5	86.9	96.2	3.9	90.3	100

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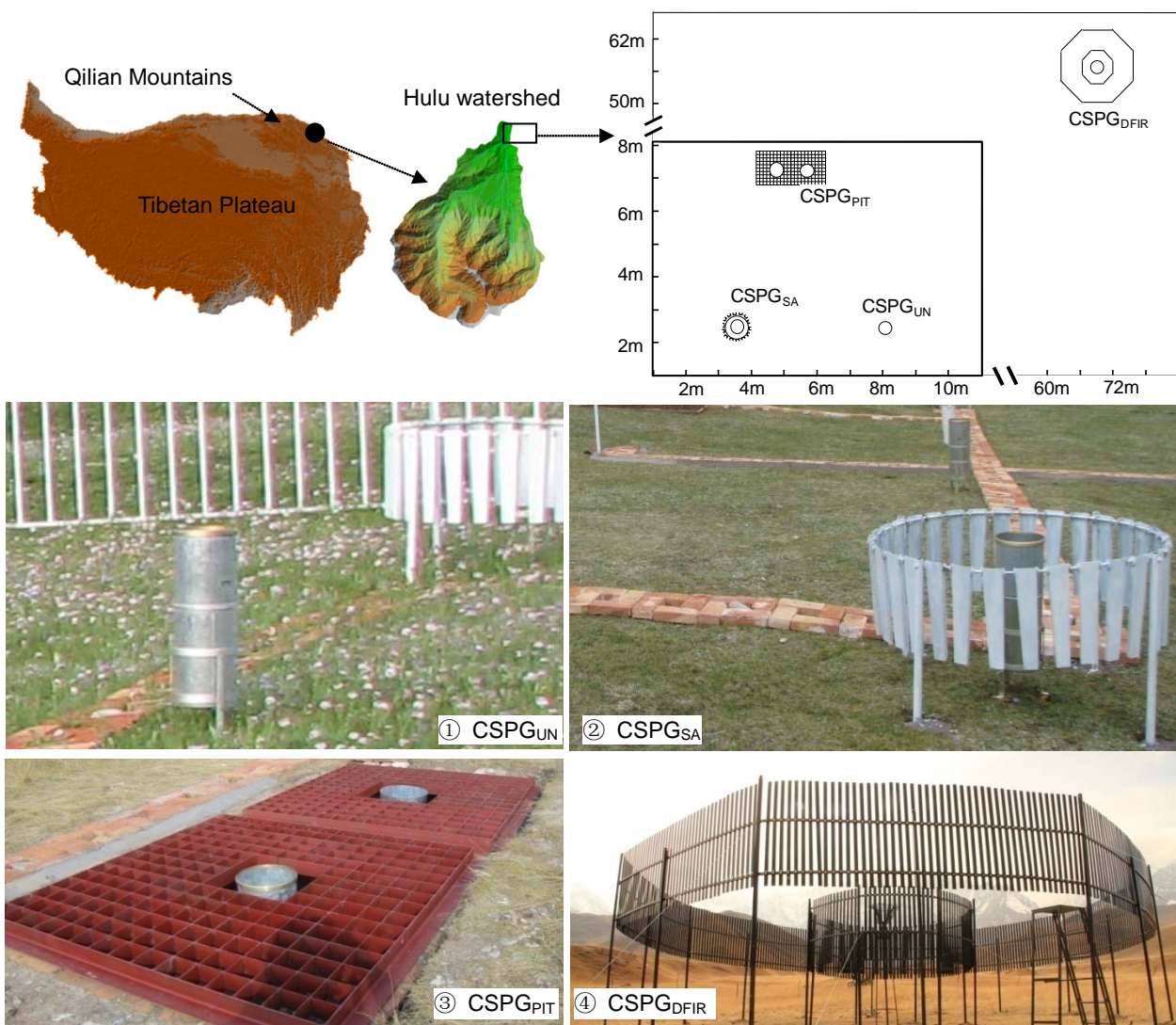
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**Table 4.** Catch ratio (CR) vs. wind speed relationships at the Hulu watershed intercomparison site, 2012-2015.

Temporal scale	Phase	Gauges	Catch ratio (CR) vs. wind speed relationships*	<i>P</i> (mm)	No. of events	F-test
Precipitation event	Rain	CSPG <sub>UN</sub>	$CR_{UN/DFIR,Rain} = 0.181W_{s10}^3 - 0.256W_{s10}^2 - 0.795W_{s10} + 100$ $R^2=0.042$	<i>P</i> >3.0	103	$\alpha=0.23$
		CSPG <sub>SA</sub>	$CR_{SA/DFIR,Rain} = 0.188W_{s10}^3 - 0.719W_{s10}^2 + 0.551W_{s10} + 100$ $R^2=0.083$			$\alpha=0.03$
		CSPG <sub>PIT</sub>	$CR_{PIT/DFIR,Rain} = 0.150W_{s10}^3 - 0.425W_{s10}^2 + 1.119W_{s10} + 100$ $R^2=0.008$			$\alpha=0.83$
	Mixed	CSPG <sub>UN</sub>	$CR_{UN/DFIR,Mixed} = 100e^{-0.06W_{s10}}$ $R^2=0.194$	<i>P</i> >1.0	24	$\alpha=0.07$
		CSPG <sub>SA</sub>	$CR_{SA/DFIR,Mixed} = 100e^{-0.04W_{s10}}$ $R^2=0.100$			$\alpha=0.16$
		CSPG <sub>PIT</sub>	$CR_{PIT/DFIR,Mixed} = 100e^{-7E-0W_{s10}}$ $R^2=0.000$			$\alpha=no\ data$
	Snow	CSPG <sub>UN</sub>	$CR_{UN/DFIR,Snow} = 100e^{-0.08W_{s10}}$ $R^2=0.412$	<i>P</i> >1.0	34	$\alpha=6.4E-05$
		CSPG <sub>SA</sub>	$CR_{SA/DFIR,Snow} = 100W_{s10}^{-0.02}$ $R^2=0.090$			$\alpha=0.07$
		CSPG <sub>PIT</sub>	$CR_{PIT/DFIR,Snow} = 100e^{-0.01W_{s10}}$ $R^2=0.024$			$\alpha=0.35$
Daily precipitation	Rain	CSPG <sub>UN</sub>	$CR_{UN/DFIR,Rain} = -1.400W_{s0.7}^3 + 2.987W_{s0.7}^2 - 6.116W_{s0.7} + 100$ $R^2=0.032$	<i>P</i> >3.0	90	$\alpha=0.37$
		CSPG <sub>SA</sub>	$CR_{SA/DFIR,Rain} = -0.924W_{s0.7}^3 + 1.158W_{s0.7}^2 - 3.338W_{s0.7} + 100$ $R^2=0.021$			$\alpha=0.55$
		CSPG <sub>PIT</sub>	$CR_{PIT/DFIR,Rain} = -0.952W_{s0.7}^3 - 1.503W_{s0.7}^2 + 2.237W_{s0.7} + 100$ $R^2=-0.00$			$\alpha=no\ data$
	Mixed	CSPG <sub>UN</sub>	$CR_{UN/DFIR,Mixed} = 100e^{-0.12W_{s0.7}}$ $R^2=0.144$	<i>P</i> >1.0	21	$\alpha=0.09$
		CSPG <sub>SA</sub>	$CR_{SA/DFIR,Mixed} = 100e^{-0.07W_{s0.7}}$ $R^2=0.094$			$\alpha=0.18$
		CSPG <sub>PIT</sub>	$CR_{PIT/DFIR,Mixed} = 100e^{-0.001W_{s0.7}}$ $R^2=0.003$			$\alpha=no\ data$
	Snow	CSPG <sub>UN</sub>	$CR_{UN/DFIR,Snow} = 100e^{-0.11W_{s0.7}}$ $R^2=0.477$	<i>P</i> >1.0	27	$\alpha=1.8E-04$
		CSPG <sub>SA</sub>	$CR_{SA/DFIR,Snow} = 100e^{-0.03W_{s0.7}}$ $R^2=0.087$			$\alpha=0.14$
		CSPG <sub>PIT</sub>	$CR_{PIT/DFIR,Snow} = 100e^{-0.01W_{s0.7}}$ $R^2=-0.00$			$\alpha=no\ data$

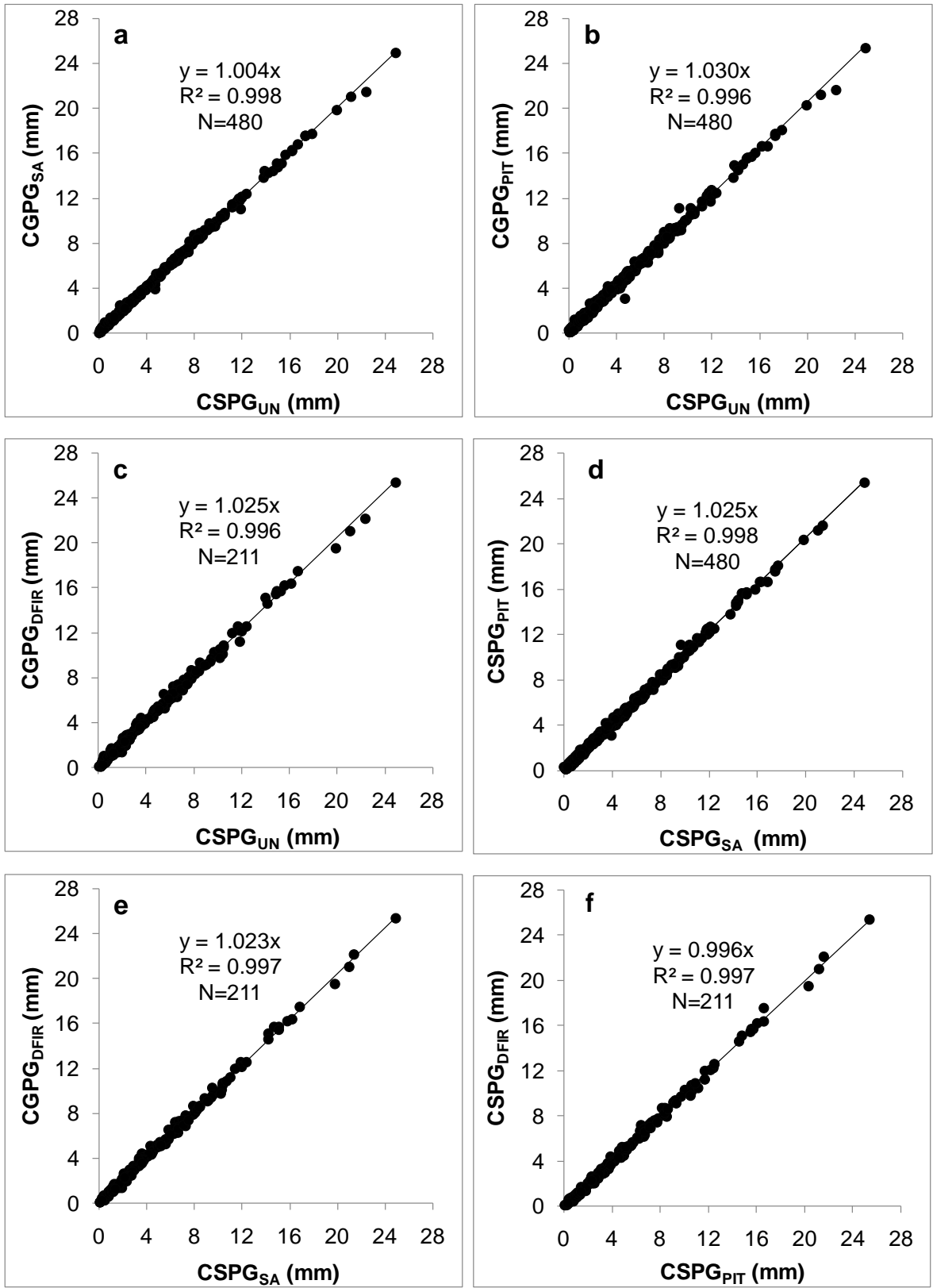
\*:  $W_{s10}$ -Wind speed during period of precipitation at 10 m height;  $W_{s0.7}$ -Daily mean wind speed at gauge height (0.7 m for CSPG).

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**Figure 1.** Precipitation gauge intercomparison experiment in the Qilian Mountains, Tibetan Plateau.

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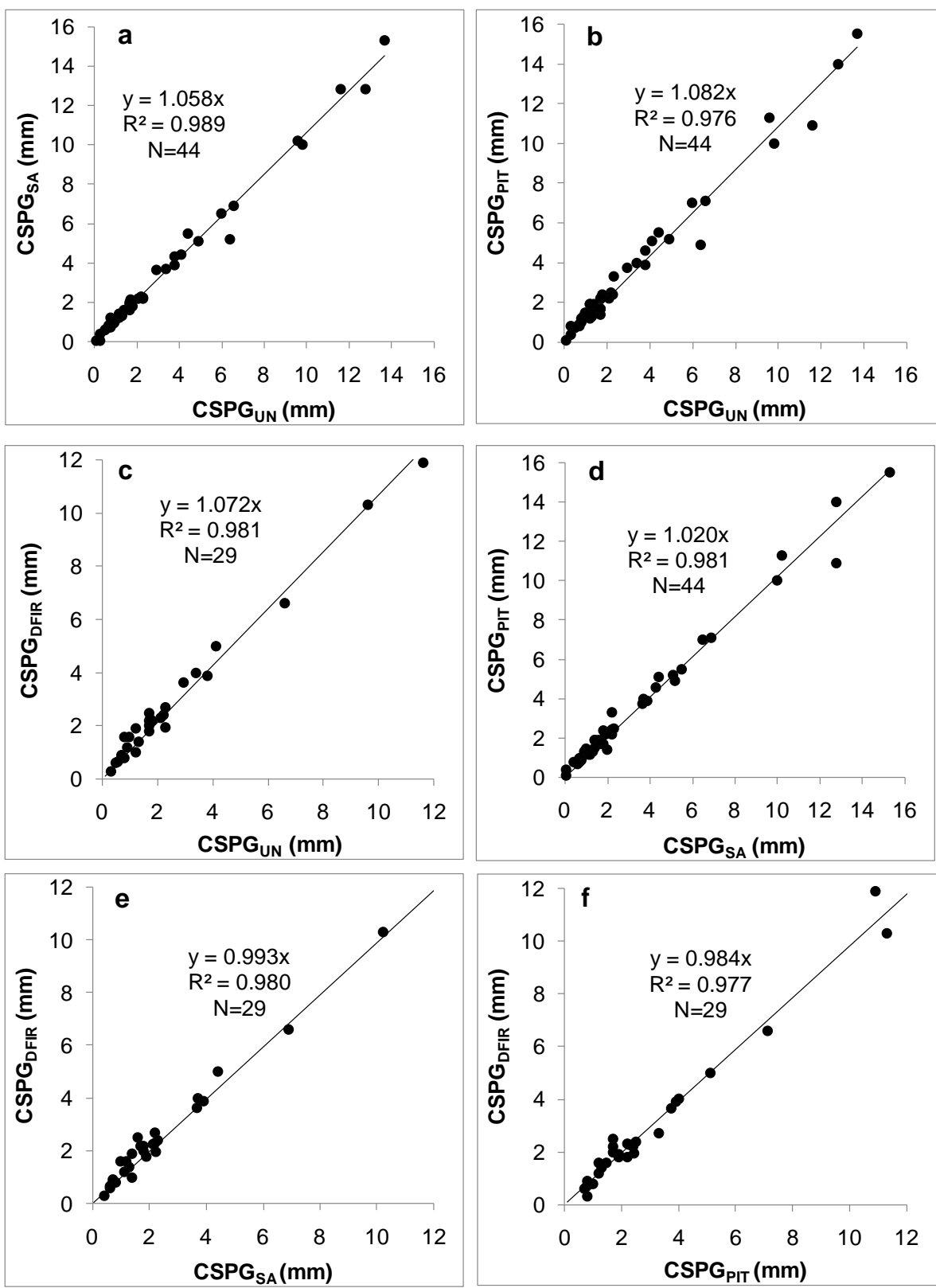


28 **Figure 2.** Intercomparison plots among CSPG<sub>UN</sub>, CSPG<sub>SA</sub>, CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> and CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> for the rainfall events from  
29 September 2010 (a, b and d) and September 2012 (c, e and f) to April 2015.

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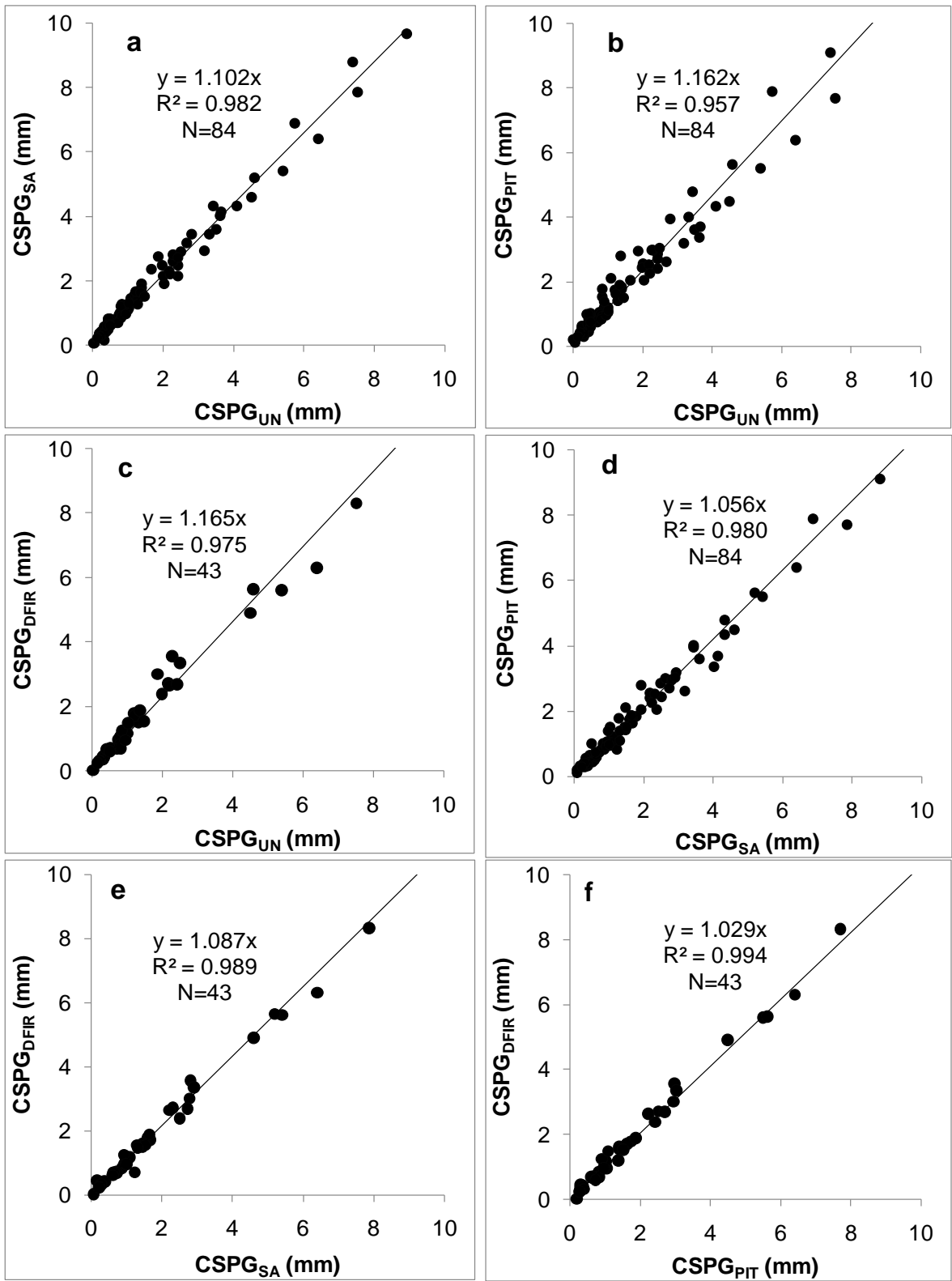


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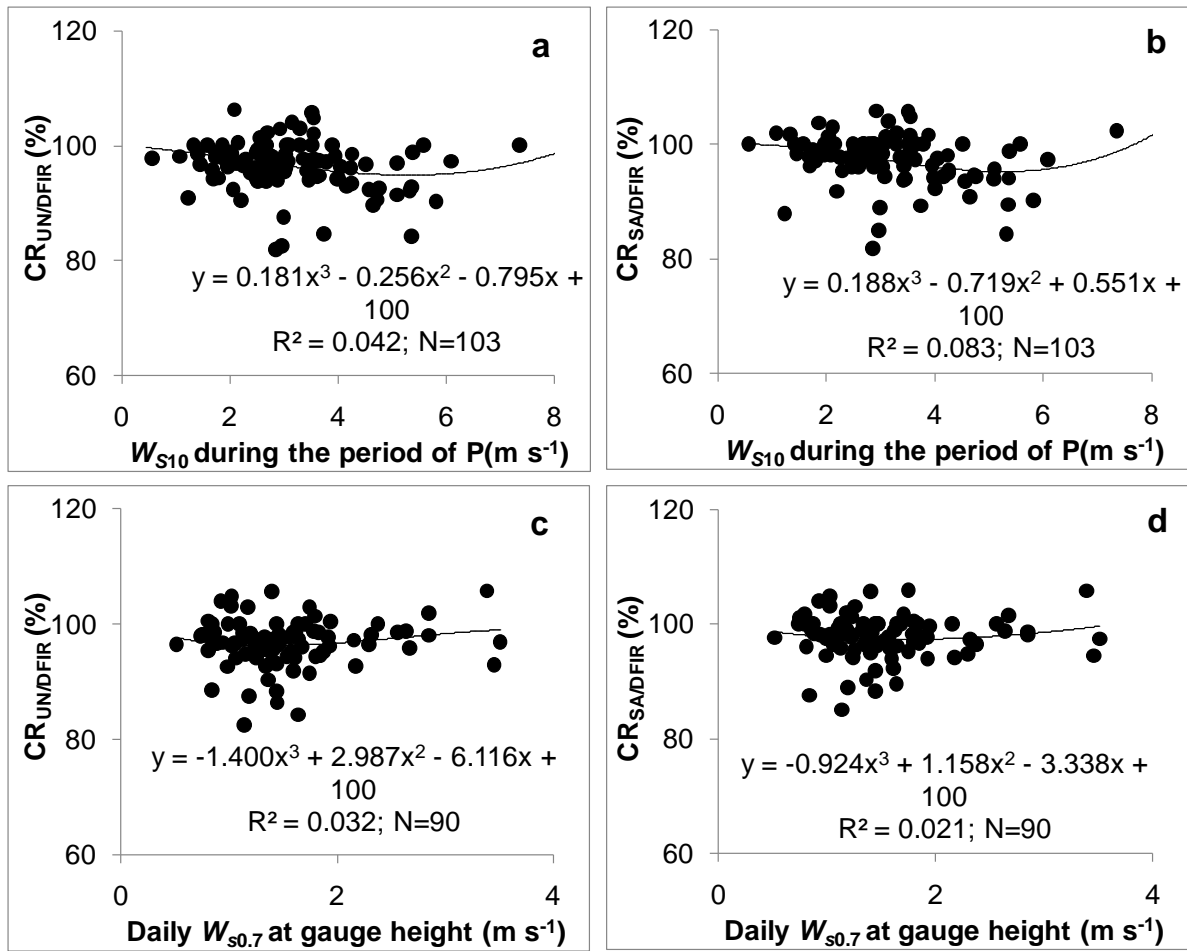
**Figure 3.** Intercomparison plots among CSPG<sub>UN</sub>, CSPG<sub>SA</sub>, CSPG<sub>PIT</sub> and CSPG<sub>DFIR</sub> for the mixed precipitation events from September 2010 (a, b and d) and September 2012 (c, e and f) to April 2015.

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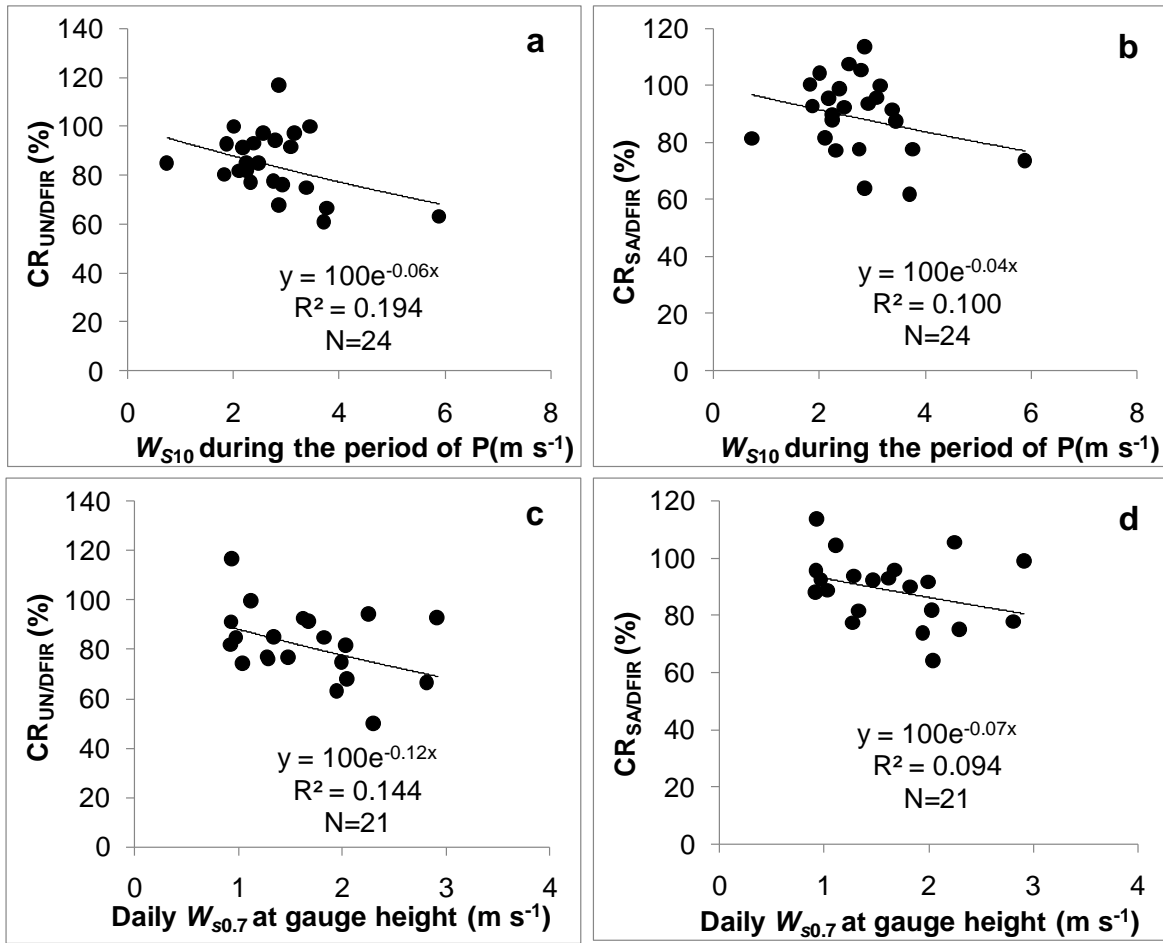
23 **Figure 4.** Intercomparison plots among  $CSPG_{UN}$ ,  $CSPG_{SA}$ ,  $CSPG_{PIT}$  and  $CSPG_{DFIR}$  for the snowfall events from  
24 September 2010 (**a**, **b** and **d**) and September 2012 (**c**, **e** and **f**) to April 2015.

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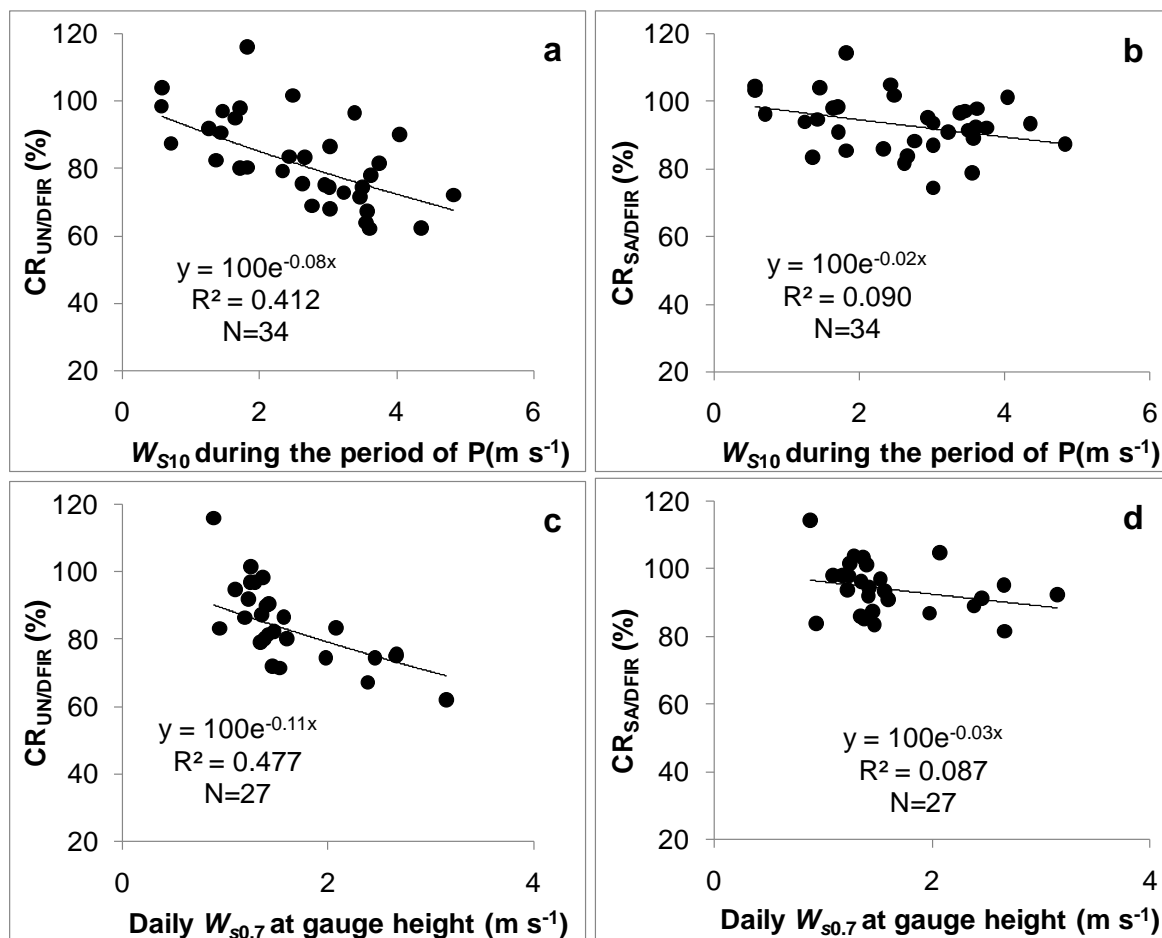
**Figure 5.** Catch ratios (CRs) vs. wind speed for rainfall events (a and b) and daily rainfall (c and d) greater than 3.0 mm.

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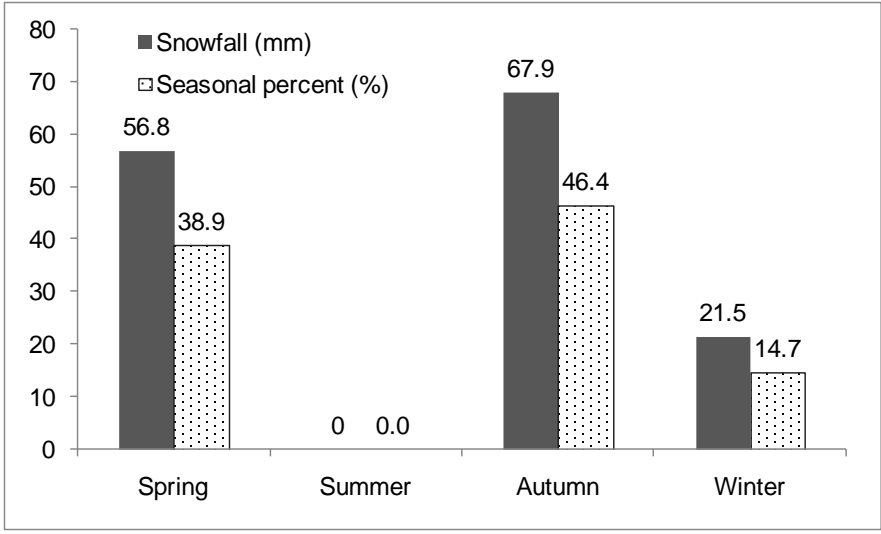
**Figure 6.** Catch ratios (CRs) vs. wind speed for mixed precipitation events (a and b) and daily mixed precipitation (c and d) greater than 1.0 mm.

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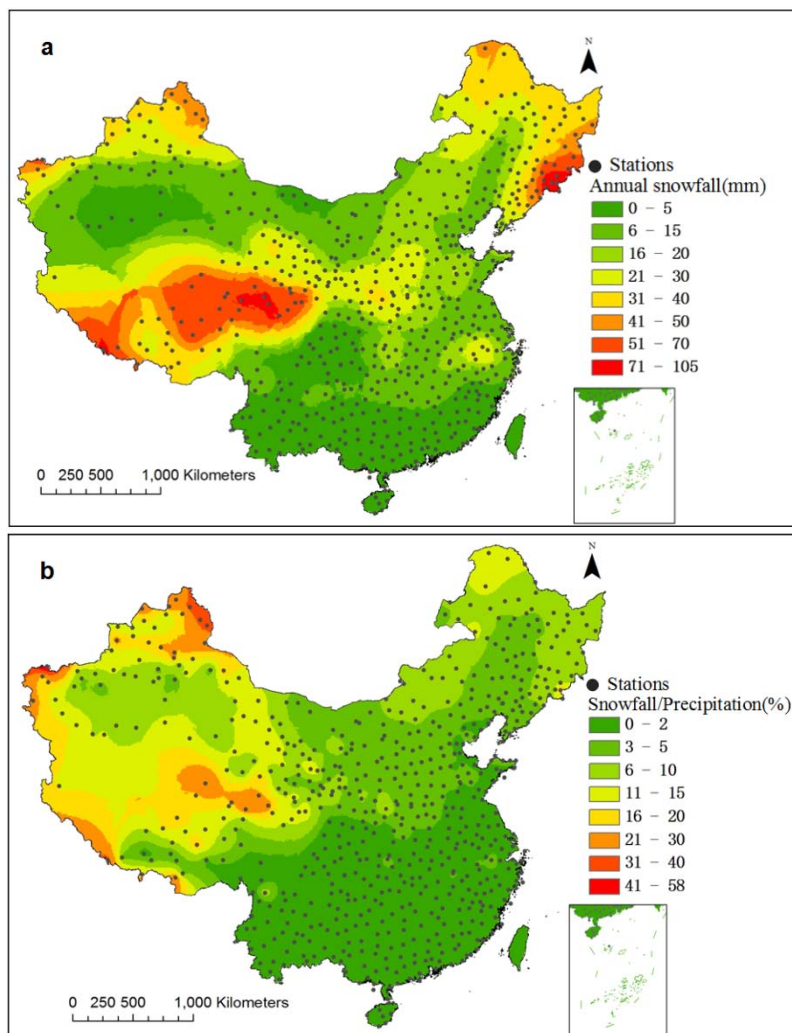
**Figure 7.** Catch ratios (CRs) vs. wind speed for the snowfall event (a and b) and the daily (c and d) snowfall greater than 1.0 mm.

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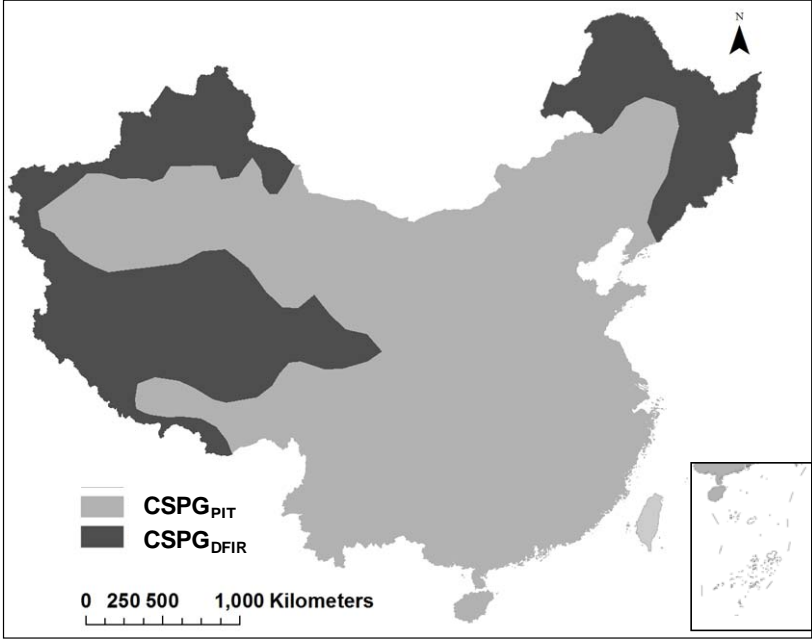
**Figure 8.** Seasonal snowfall and its percentage from September 2010 to April 2015 at the Hulu watershed site.

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**Figure 9. (a)** Annual snowfall (mm) and **(b)** ratio of annual snowfall to total precipitation in China.

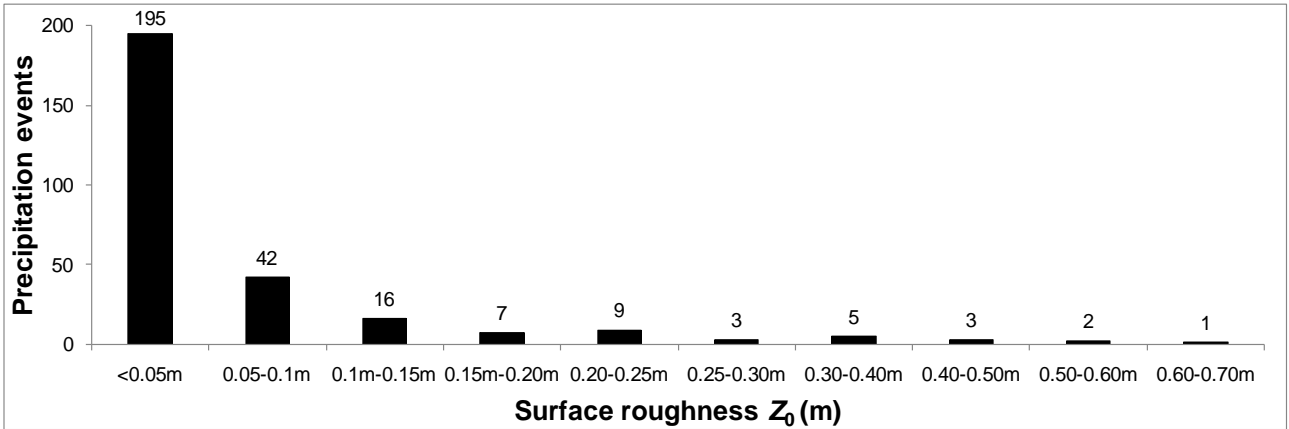
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**Figure 10.** Applicable regions in China for the  $CSPG_{PIT}$  and  $CSPG_{DFIR}$  as reference gauges.



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**Figure 11.** Surface roughness during the precipitation period from September 2012 to April 2015.