

Assessment of rock glaciers and their water storage in Guokalariju, Tibetan Plateau

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Abstract. Rock glaciers are important hydrological reserves in arid and semi-arid regions. ~~Rock glaciers' Their~~ activity states can indicate the existence of permafrost. To help explore further the development mechanisms of rock glaciers in semi-arid and humid transition regions, this paper provides a detailed rock glacier inventory of the Guokalariju ~~_(GKLRJ)~~-area of the Tibetan Plateau (TP) using a manual visual interpretation of Google Earth Pro remote sensing imagery. We also estimated the water volume equivalent (WVEQ) in the ~~GKLRJ study~~ area for the first time. Approximately 5,057 rock glaciers were identified, covering a total area of ~404.69 km². Rock glaciers are unevenly distributed within the three sub-regions ~~R1, R2 and R3~~ from westeast to eastwest, with 80% of them concentrated in the central regionR2, where climatic and topographic conditions are most favorable. Under the same ground temperature conditions, increases in precipitation are conducive to rock glaciers forming at lower altitudes. Indeed, the lower limit of rock glaciers' mean altitude decreased eastward, with increasing precipitation. Estimates of the water storage capacity of rock glaciers obtained by applying different methods varied considerably, but all showed the potential hydrological value of rock glaciers. The ~~maximum~~ possible water storage in the subsurface ice of rock glacier permafrost was 1.31-3.043-04 km³, which is atwhich a ratio of 1:1.86is about 33% of to the surface ice in local glacier storage. In ~~R1~~ the west region, where the climate is the driest, the water storage capacity of rock glaciers was estimated to be up to twice as large as that of the sub-region's glaciers. Changes in water resources and permafrost stability in the area where rock glaciers occur will have implications for regional water resource management, disaster prevention, and sustainable development strategies.

1 Introduction

25 Rock glaciers are periglacial landforms often observed above the timberline in alpine mountains. They are formed by rocks and ice that move down a slope, driven by gravity (French, 2007; RGIK, 2022a). As striking features of viscous flow in perennially frozen materials, they can reflect permafrost conditions in mountainous areas. Their lowest altitudes are often considered to represent the lower limit of discontinuous regional permafrost occurrence (Giardino and Vitek, 1988; Barsch, 1992, 1996; Käab *et al.*, 1997; Schmid *et al.*, 2015; Selley *et al.*, 2018; Baral *et al.*, 2019; Hassan *et al.*, 2021); their states (active or relict) can be used in Permafrost Zonation Index (PZI) models to predict the probability of permafrost occurrence where field observation data are scarce (Cao *et al.*, 2021; Boeckli *et al.*, 2012a). The large-scale distribution of active rock glaciers is influenced by the complex interaction of climatic and topographic factors (Schrott, 1996; Millar and Westfall, 2008; Pandey, 2019). Global climate change may result in permafrost thawing and ice melting in rock glaciers, thus impacting slope stability, runoff patterns, and water quality, with possible consequences for

periodic landslides, debris flows, floods, and other geological disasters (Barsch, 1996; Schoeneich *et al.*, 2015; Blöthe *et al.*, 2019; Hassan *et al.*, 2021; Yao *et al.*, 2022). Exploring their spatial distribution and evolution is therefore significant for paleoclimatic modeling, disaster risk assessment, and infrastructure maintenance (Arenson and Jakob, 2010; Colucci *et al.*, 2016; Selley *et al.*, 2018; Alcalá-Reygosa, 2019). Furthermore, the slow thawing process through heat diffusion with latent heat exchange at depth, combined with the cooling effect of the ventilated coarse blocks at the surface of rock glaciers, make them a long-term hydrological reserve in high mountain systems (Bolch and Marchenko, 2009; Berthling, 2011; Bonnaventure and Lamoureux, 2013; Millar and Westfall, 2013). The presence and abundance of rock glaciers can therefore affect the quantities and properties of runoff from high mountain watersheds over extended time periods (Jones *et al.*, 2019b).

The Tibetan Plateau (TP) is among the key high-altitude areas of periglacial landform worldwide and is a region highly sensitive to climate change (Cui *et al.*, 2019; Yao *et al.*, 2019). Detailed rock glacier inventories have previously been constructed for the Gangdise Mountains (Zhang *et al.*, 2022), the Daxue Mountains (Ran and Liu, 2018), the Nyainqêntanglha Range (Reinosch *et al.*, 2021), and the Nepalese Himalaya (Jones *et al.*, 2018b). The Yarlung Zangbo River Basin (YZRB) is one of the regions with the highest concentrations of modern glaciers on the TP; it is experiencing rapid geomorphic evolution today (Ji *et al.*, 1999; Korup and Montgomery, 2008; Yu *et al.*, 2011; Long *et al.*, 2022). Although Guo (2019) characterized the spatial distribution of rock glaciers in the YZRB using manual visual interpretation, there remains a lack of any systematic and detailed rock glacier inventory, and the regional occurrence characteristics and indicative environmental significance of these rock glaciers are still unclear. Even though ground-penetrating radar (GPR), seismic refraction tomography (SRT), electrical resistivity tomography (ERT), and other geophysical techniques are widely used today and can provide new insights into understanding the ice volumes of rock glaciers and permafrost (Janke *et al.*, 2015; Emmert and Kneisel, 2017; Bolch *et al.*, 2019; Buckel *et al.*, 2021; Halla *et al.*, 2021; Mathys *et al.*, 2022), it remains difficult to apply such methods to large-scale field-based research on the TP. The distribution of permafrost and the hydrological contributions made by rock glaciers on the TP need more research.

To address this, our study aims to: (i) compile a more comprehensive and systematic inventory of rock glaciers in the [GLKRJGuokalariju](#); (ii) explore the regional occurrence characteristics and indicative environmental significance of these rock glaciers; (iii) assess the regional hydrological significance of rock glaciers and glaciers; and (iv) compare the distribution of the [GuokalarijuLKRJ](#)'s rock glaciers to the regional permafrost maps.

2 Study area

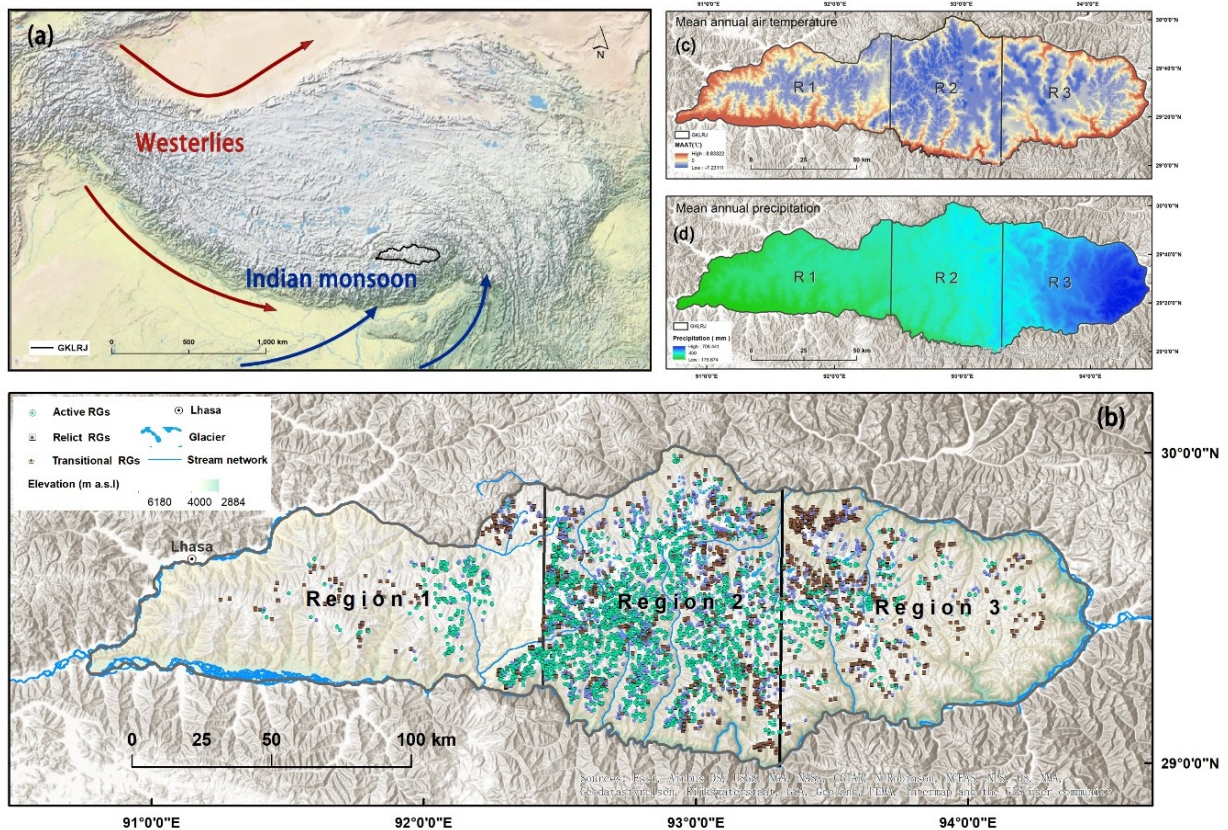


Figure 1: (a) The location of **Guokalariju** the **GKLRJ** on the TP; (b) The three sub-regions and the spatial distribution of streams. Rock glaciers are categorized as green (active rock glaciers), purple (transitional rock glaciers), **and** brown (relict rock glaciers), and glaciers are shown in light blue and white; (c) Mean annual air temperature map for the **GKLRJ**/**Guokalariju** (Du and Yi, 2019); (d) Mean annual precipitation map for the **GKLRJ**/**Guokalariju** (Du and Yi, 2019). Maps were created using ArcGIS® software by Esri.

The **GKLRJ**/**Guokalariju** region is located between 92.916°N–93.276°N and 29.287°E–29.438°E, on the southeastern TP, adjacent to the Himalayas to the south and the Nyainqentanglha Range to the north (Fig. 1a). It forms the eastern extension of the Gangdise Mountains as well as the watershed of the Yarlung Zangbo River and its tributary, the Niyang-Lhasa River, and belongs to the high mountain plateau-lake basin-wide valley area of the middle and upper reaches of the Yarlung Zangbo and Nujiang rivers (Xiang *et al.*, 2013). The region is also within the world's largest irrigated agricultural area and has a dense population (Yao *et al.*, 2022).

Tectonically, the **GKLRJ** study area is located in the eastern part of the Ladakh-Kailas-Xiachayu magmatic arc of the Gangdise-Himalayan collisional orogen; from the Late Paleozoic to the Mesozoic, it has experienced the same evolutionary tectonic processes as the Gangdise-Himalayan archipelagic arc-basin systems, *i.e.*, back-arc spreading, arc-arc collision and arc-continental collision (Pan *et al.*, 2013). The **GKLRJ**'s main rock types **in the study area** include Late Cretaceous quartz monzonite, Eocene monzonite, and Eocene biotite granite. It is located in the transition belt between the TP's semi-arid and humid regions (Zheng *et al.*, 2010), mainly dominated by the Indian Summer Monsoon (ISM). The middle and western parts of the **GKLRJ** study area belong to the TP's temperate, semi-arid zone, while the eastern part belongs to the plateau's temperate humid region (Zheng *et al.*, 2010). The mean annual air temperature (MAAT) reaches from -7.2 to 8.8°C (Du and Yi, 2019) (Table 1 and Fig. 1c), and the mean annual ground temperature (MAGT) reaches from -3.2 to 4.3°C (Ran *et al.*, 2020) (Table 1). The mean annual precipitation (MAP) is 177–708 mm, decreasing from east to west

90 across the study area (Du and Yi, 2019) (Table 1 and Fig.1d). Changes in the imbalance between glaciers, permafrost, lakes, and rivers in this region under the influence of climate change may lead to spatial and temporal changes in local ecosystems and changes in water resources in downstream areas (Yao *et al.*, 2022).

Table 1: MAAT (Du and Yi, 2019), MAGT (Ran *et al.*, 2020), MAP (Du and Yi, 2019), mean altitude (ASTER GDEM v3) and mean glacier ELA (RGI Consortium Liu *et al.*, 2017) for the GKLRJGuokalariju and its three sub-regions.

Region	MAAT (°C)	MAGT (°C)	MAP (mm)	Mean altitude (m asl)	Mean glacier ELA (m asl)
All	0.69	0.53	469	4,623	5,433 ¹
<u>R1Western</u>	1.78	1.65	385	4,589	5,527 ⁴ 84
<u>CentralR2</u>	-0.63	-0.06	489	4,893	5,478 ⁶ 62
<u>EasternR3</u>	0.91	0.01	534	4,398	5,265 ⁹ 2

95 MAGT: mean annual ground temperature

MAAT: mean annual air temperature

MAP: mean annual precipitation

We divided the study areas into GKLRJ into the western, central, and eastern sub-region^{three sub-regions: R1(east); R2 (central); and R3(west)}. These divisions were geospatially based (Fig.1b), where the westernR1 and central regionsR2 are bounded by the eastern marginal rift valley of the Oiga Basin, and the centralR2 and eastern regionsR3 are bounded by Niang River, a tributary of the Niyang River. Each sub-region displays unique characteristics in terms of its topography and climate (Table 1). The whole of the western regionR1 is a semi-arid region, and the terrain is more complex here. The western side of the western regionR1 is composed of a deep alpine valley landscape formed by glacial-fluvial erosion cutting through the undulating terrain, while the eastern-east side is a basin formed by paleo-glacial and fluvial erosion and cutting through less undulating mountainous hills with relatively gentle tops (Wu *et al.*, 2010). R2-The central region is a semi-arid and semi-humid transition zone where the dividing line is located in its northeastern part; the mean altitude here is higher than in the other regions. The main peaks of glacier-carved mountains occur mostly above 5,500 m asl. The east regionR3 is located in a semi-humid zone where precipitation is more abundant and the terrain is on average ~500 m lower than that of the central regionR2.

3 Material and methods

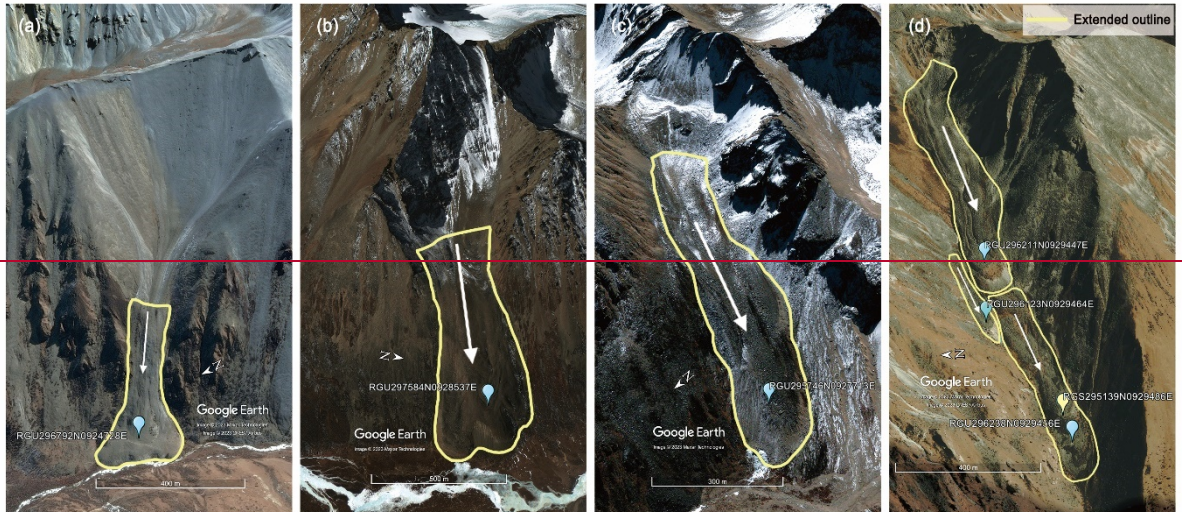
3.1 Rock glacier inventory, classification, and database

We used high-resolution ©Google Earth Pro remote sensing images from March 2004 to August 2020 to manually and visually interpret and compile a rock glaciers inventory for the GKLRJstudy area –(Selley *et al.*, 2018; Magori *et al.*, 2020; Hassan *et al.*, 2021). The inventorying strategy follows the RGI_PCv2.0 (RGIK, 2022b). According to the technical definition of rock glaciers, we conducted the detection of rock glacier landforms in the study area and confirmed the relevant landforms (system/unit). For areas with missing clear imagery and those covered by snow, we simultaneously used the ©Map World for comparison and verification, ensuring that all outline segments can be labeled with certainty. Each cataloged rock glacier system/unit was assigned a primary ID and delineated according to the extended standards, with the outline encompassing the entire rock glacier up to the rooting zone, including its external parts such as the front and lateral margins (RGIK, 2022b). We followed as closely as possible the specific rules for delineating the upper boundaries of the rock glacier. Following the baseline concepts, the rock glacier without any (significant) headwall is classified as the “debris-mantled slope-connected” (Fig. 2a), the rock glacier unit subjacent and connected to a talus slope unit is classified as the “talus-connected” (Fig. 2b), and the rock glacier developed within or from a (formerly)

glaciated area is classified as the “glacier forefield-connected” (RGIK, 2022a) (Fig. 2c). In addition, any landform consisting of a single rock glacier unit or multiple spatially connected units is classified as a rock glacier system (RGIK, 2022a) (Fig. 2d). We also provided information on their morphological system and units as well as their upslope connection type in the attribute table (RGIK, 2022a, 2022b). Due to the limited availability of accurate field observations and related data on rock glacier dynamics, their activity states were determined solely based on geomorphological criteria (RGIK, 2022a). In general, the “active” rock glacier has a steep front and freshly exposed material on top, indicating current movement (Fig.2e), the “transitional” rock glacier has less distinct evidence of current movement compared to active ones in the same region (Fig.2f), while the “relict” rock glacier shows no recent movement and has a subdued topography, smooth lateral and frontal slopes/margins, and may have developed vegetation and soil cover (RGIK, 2022a) (Fig. 2g). The activity type of each rock glacier was recorded in the attribute table. Furthermore, we applied One Way ANOVA in SPSS27® software based on the F-test method to analyze the differences between groups of different types of rock glaciers in terms of mean altitude, mean area, and mean slope. The significance was evaluated at the level $p < 0.05$.



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Figure 2: Example images of different upslope boundary types of rock glaciers in Guokalarijute-GKLRJ. (a) a debris-mantled slope-connected rock glacier; (b) a talus-connected rock glacier; (c) a glacier forefield-connected rock glacier; (d) a rock glacier system; (e) an active rock glacier; (f) a transitional rock glacier; (g) a relict rock glacier. Images from ©Google Earth.

3.2 Estimating the hydrological storageEstimating hydrological stores

To calculate more accurately the water content (water volume equivalent, WVEQ [km³]) of the perennially

frozen rock glaciers ~~(including active and transitional rock glaciers)~~ and ~~of~~ surface ice in glaciers in the ~~GKLRJ~~ study area (Jones *et al.*, 2018b), we chose two different methods derived from Brenning *et al.* (2005a) and Cicoira *et al.* (2021). The previous studies mostly treated active and transitional rock glaciers collectively as intact rock glaciers with the same ice content to calculate the water storage. We have similarly chosen this approach to facilitate comparison of results. Meanwhile, we also provided calculations based on the Janke *et al.* (2015) proposal in the Supplement (Table S1).

The method for calculating the subsurface ice volumes of rock glaciers permafrost provided by Brenning *et al.* (2005a) requires multiplying the mean thickness, surface area, and ice content of each rock glacier as in Eq. (1), then converting them to the WVEQ by assuming an ice density conversion factor of 0.9 g cm^{-3} ($\equiv 900 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) (Paterson, 1994; Jones *et al.*, 2018b), thus:

$$V_{\text{RG}} = \text{Area} \times \text{Mean thickness} \times \text{Ice Content} \quad (1)$$

Based on field data from Brenning *et al.* (2005a) and a rule-of-thumb given by Barsch (1977c) for the Swiss Alps, the rock glacier thickness was modeled empirically as Eq. (2), thus:

$$\text{Mean thickness [m]} = 50 \times (\text{Area [km}^2\text{)})^{0.2} \quad (2)$$

The method provided by Cicoira *et al.* (2021), based on the analysis of a dataset of 28 rock glaciers from the Alps (23) and the Andes (5), estimated rock glacier thickness using a perfectly plastic model arrived at by solving Eq. (4) for H , assuming a yield stress of $\tau = 92 \text{ kPa}$ (taking the mean driving stress from the dataset as a given), thus:

$$H = \frac{\tau}{\rho g \sin \alpha} \pm 3.4 \text{ m} \quad (3)$$

where τ is the shear stress ($\tau = 92 \text{ kPa}$), g is the gravitational acceleration, H is the thickness of the moving rock glacier, α is the angle of the surface slope and ρ is the density of the creeping material, which is given by the contribution of volumetric debris w_d and ice content w_i and the relative densities ($\rho_i = 910 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ and $\rho_d = 2700 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$), thus:

$$\rho = \rho_d w_d + \rho_i w_i \quad (4)$$

The ice content in rock glacier permafrost is spatially variable. We therefore used global estimates of ice content within rock glacier ~~glaciers~~ to further calculate their lower (40%), mean (50%) and upper (60%) ice volumes (Hausmann *et al.*, 2012; Krainer and Ribis, 2012; Rangecroft *et al.*, 2015; Jones *et al.*, 2018b; Wagner *et al.*, 2021). In this study, the results of the calculations that used a 50% ice content were used for subsequent comparisons with the surface ice in glaciers.

The ice volume of the glacier was calculated using Eq. (5), thus:

$$V = A \times H \quad (5)$$

where V represents ice volume, A is the glacier surface area derived from the Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGI) version 6.0 (RGI Consortium, 2017) the second Chinese glacier inventory (version 1.0) (2006-2011) (Liu *et al.*, 2012), and H is the ice thickness. We chose to apply GlatTop2 to calculate ice thickness in the study area because it is more sensitive to the accuracy of both elevation and slope of the TP DEM data (Frey *et al.*, 2014; Chen *et al.*, 2022), and we also provide statistical values of the ice thickness results based on the Open Global Glacier Model (OGGM; Maussion *et al.*, 2018) and the result provided by Farinotti *et al.* (2019) in the Supplement (Table S2). ~~calculated using GlatTop2 in Python 3.10 (Linsbauer *et al.*, 2009).~~ We assumed a 100% ice content by volume and applied the above ice density conversion factor to calculate the water equivalent

volume of the surface ice in glaciers.

To mitigate the additional impact caused by the uneven spatial distribution of glaciers and rock glaciers in the **GKLRJ study area**, we calculated a ratio of rock glaciers (including active and transitional rock glaciers)' to glaciers' water volume equivalence (WVEQ) by using the weighted average method that employs the following equation:

$$\text{WVEQ ratio}_{\text{Rg: Glacier}} = \frac{\text{WVEQ}_{\text{R1Rg}} \times \frac{\text{R1Rg}}{\text{AllRg}} + \text{WVEQ}_{\text{R2Rg}} \times \frac{\text{R2Rg}}{\text{AllRg}} + \text{WVEQ}_{\text{R3Rg}} \times \frac{\text{R3Rg}}{\text{AllRg}}}{\text{WVEQ}_{\text{R1Glacier}} \times \frac{\text{R1Glacier}}{\text{AllGlacier}} + \text{WVEQ}_{\text{R2Glacier}} \times \frac{\text{R2Glacier}}{\text{AllGlacier}} + \text{WVEQ}_{\text{R3Glacier}} \times \frac{\text{R3Glacier}}{\text{AllGlacier}}} \quad (6)$$

where $\text{WVEQ ratio}_{\text{Rg: Glacier}}$ is the ratio of rock glaciers' to glaciers' WEVQ; $\text{WVEQ}_{\text{RnRg}}$ ($n = 1, 2, 3$) are the WVEQ values for rock glaciers in **the western R1, central R2 and eastern regions R3**, respectively; RnRg ($n = 1, 2, 3$) are the numbers of rock glaciers in **the three subregions R1, R2 and R3**, respectively; AllRg is the number of rock glaciers in the whole **GKLRJ study area**; $\text{WVEQ}_{\text{RnGlacier}}$ ($n = 1, 2, 3$) are the WVEQ values for glaciers in **R1, R2 and R3 the three subregions**, respectively; RnGlacier ($n = 1, 2, 3$) are the number of glaciers in **the three sub-regions respectively R1, R2 and R3, respectively**; and AllGlacier is the number of glaciers in the whole **GKLRJ study area**.

4 Results

4.1 Rock glacier inventory analysis

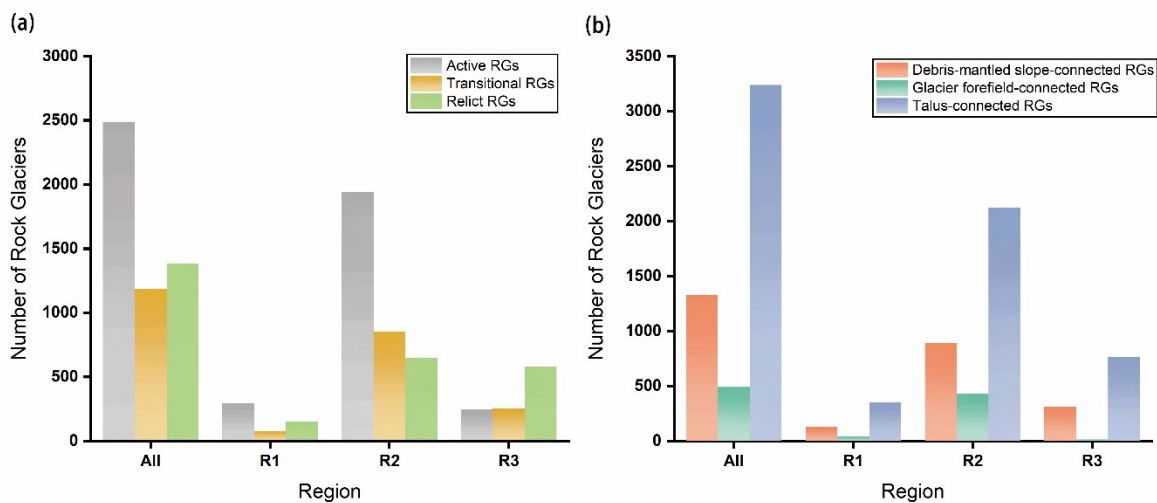


Figure 3: The number of rock glaciers categorized by different (a) activity types and (b) upper slope connection types in the entire study region GKLRJ and its sub-regions.

We identified a total of 5,057 rock glaciers in the Guokalariju, including 2,484 active rock glaciers (49.1%), 1,189 transitional rock glaciers (23.5%), 1,384 relict rock glaciers (27.3%). Active rock glaciers are predominant in the whole study area, except the eastern region where a higher proportion of relict rock glaciers can be found (Fig. 3a). Among the total rock glaciers observed, ~64% of them ($n = 3,239$) were classified as talus-connected, ~26% ($n = 1,327$) as debris-mantled slope-connected, and ~10% ($n = 491$) as glacier forefield-connected, this order of proportions is consistent across three subregions (Fig. 3b). On the whole, rock glaciers are unevenly distributed in three sub-regions, with nearly 70% of rock glaciers ($n = 3,447$) distributed in the central region (Table 2).

215 **Table 2: Mean characteristics for rock glaciers in three sub-regions.**

	<u>RG type</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>Total area (km³)</u>	<u>Mean altitude (m asl)</u>	<u>Mean MEF (m asl)</u>	<u>Mean area (km³)</u>	<u>Mean slope range (°)</u>	<u>Mean MAGT (°C)</u>	<u>Mean MAAT (°C)</u>	<u>Mean MAP (mm)</u>
<u>Western Region</u>	<u>Active</u>	<u>296</u>	<u>18.89</u>	<u>5166</u>	<u>5118</u>	<u>0.06</u>	<u>20.11</u>	<u>-0.1</u>	<u>-1.87</u>	<u>341</u>
	<u>Transitional</u>	<u>78</u>	<u>6.54</u>	<u>5127</u>	<u>5069</u>	<u>0.08</u>	<u>19.85</u>	<u>-0.04</u>	<u>-1.64</u>	<u>350</u>
	<u>Relict</u>	<u>150</u>	<u>8.69</u>	<u>5067</u>	<u>5021</u>	<u>0.06</u>	<u>19.33</u>	<u>0.12</u>	<u>-1.34</u>	<u>341</u>
	<u>Talus-connected</u>	<u>354</u>	<u>19.42</u>	<u>5152</u>	<u>5109</u>	<u>0.05</u>	<u>19.83</u>	<u>-0.06</u>	<u>-1.8</u>	<u>345</u>
	<u>Debris mantled slope-connected</u>	<u>127</u>	<u>6.66</u>	<u>5101</u>	<u>5050</u>	<u>0.05</u>	<u>20.79</u>	<u>0.14</u>	<u>-1.36</u>	<u>338</u>
	<u>Glacier forefield -connected</u>	<u>43</u>	<u>8.05</u>	<u>5064</u>	<u>4968</u>	<u>0.19</u>	<u>17.23</u>	<u>-0.22</u>	<u>-1.7</u>	<u>337</u>
	<u>All</u>	<u>524</u>	<u>34.13</u>	<u>5132</u>	<u>5083</u>	<u>0.06</u>	<u>19.85</u>	<u>-0.02</u>	<u>-1.68</u>	<u>343</u>
<u>Central Region</u>	<u>Active</u>	<u>1,941</u>	<u>155.14</u>	<u>5160</u>	<u>5102</u>	<u>0.08</u>	<u>19.31</u>	<u>-0.59</u>	<u>-2.1</u>	<u>389</u>
	<u>Transitional</u>	<u>856</u>	<u>78.78</u>	<u>5090</u>	<u>5026</u>	<u>0.09</u>	<u>19.07</u>	<u>-0.67</u>	<u>-1.84</u>	<u>394</u>
	<u>Relict</u>	<u>650</u>	<u>57.57</u>	<u>4995</u>	<u>4929</u>	<u>0.09</u>	<u>19.23</u>	<u>-0.58</u>	<u>-1.62</u>	<u>400</u>
	<u>Talus-connected</u>	<u>2,123</u>	<u>181.58</u>	<u>5096</u>	<u>5037</u>	<u>0.09</u>	<u>19.22</u>	<u>-0.61</u>	<u>-1.89</u>	<u>395</u>
	<u>Debris mantled slope-connected</u>	<u>890</u>	<u>59.84</u>	<u>5104</u>	<u>5046</u>	<u>0.07</u>	<u>19.99</u>	<u>-0.47</u>	<u>-1.76</u>	<u>386</u>
	<u>Glacier forefield -connected</u>	<u>434</u>	<u>50.07</u>	<u>5201</u>	<u>5128</u>	<u>0.12</u>	<u>17.73</u>	<u>-0.87</u>	<u>-2.54</u>	<u>393</u>
	<u>All</u>	<u>3,447</u>	<u>291.49</u>	<u>5117</u>	<u>5051</u>	<u>0.08</u>	<u>19.23</u>	<u>-0.6</u>	<u>-1.94</u>	<u>392</u>
<u>Eastern Region</u>	<u>Active</u>	<u>248</u>	<u>13.85</u>	<u>4965</u>	<u>4906</u>	<u>0.06</u>	<u>23.79</u>	<u>-0.96</u>	<u>-1.31</u>	<u>496</u>
	<u>Transitional</u>	<u>255</u>	<u>18.41</u>	<u>4964</u>	<u>4897</u>	<u>0.07</u>	<u>21.99</u>	<u>-0.96</u>	<u>-1.69</u>	<u>495</u>
	<u>Relict</u>	<u>583</u>	<u>46.82</u>	<u>4861</u>	<u>4796</u>	<u>0.08</u>	<u>20.19</u>	<u>-0.86</u>	<u>-1.57</u>	<u>495</u>
	<u>Talus-connected</u>	<u>762</u>	<u>58.81</u>	<u>4930</u>	<u>4867</u>	<u>0.08</u>	<u>20.63</u>	<u>-0.92</u>	<u>-1.75</u>	<u>489</u>
	<u>Debris mantled slope-connected</u>	<u>310</u>	<u>18.58</u>	<u>4850</u>	<u>4785</u>	<u>0.06</u>	<u>23.49</u>	<u>-0.86</u>	<u>-0.99</u>	<u>511</u>
	<u>Glacier forefield -connected</u>	<u>14</u>	<u>1.69</u>	<u>5047</u>	<u>4971</u>	<u>0.12</u>	<u>19.86</u>	<u>-1.15</u>	<u>-2.45</u>	<u>503</u>
	<u>All</u>	<u>1,086</u>	<u>79.08</u>	<u>4909</u>	<u>4845</u>	<u>0.07</u>	<u>21.43</u>	<u>-0.9</u>	<u>-1.54</u>	<u>495</u>
	<u>Type</u>			<u>R1</u>		<u>R2</u>		<u>R3</u>		
	<u>Number</u>			<u>524</u>		<u>3,447</u>		<u>1,086</u>		
	<u>Mean altitude (m asl)</u>			<u>5,132</u>		<u>5,117</u>		<u>4,909</u>		
	<u>Mean MEF (m asl)</u>			<u>5,083</u>		<u>5,051</u>		<u>4,845</u>		
	<u>Mean area (km³)</u>			<u>0.06</u>		<u>0.08</u>		<u>0.07</u>		
	<u>Mean slope range (°)</u>			<u>19.85</u>		<u>19.23</u>		<u>21.43</u>		
	<u>Mean MAGT (°C)</u>			<u>-0.02</u>		<u>-0.6</u>		<u>-0.9</u>		
	<u>Mean MAAT (°C)</u>			<u>-1.68</u>		<u>-1.94</u>		<u>-1.54</u>		
	<u>Mean MAP (mm)</u>			<u>343</u>		<u>392</u>		<u>495</u>		

MEF: minimum altitude at the rock glacier front_

MAGT: mean annual ground temperature

MAAT: mean annual air temperature

MAP: mean annual precipitation

We identified a total of 5,057 rock glaciers in the GKLRJ, including 2,484 active rock glaciers (49.1%), 1,189 transitional rock glaciers (23.5%), 1,384 relict rock glaciers (27.3%). Active rock glaciers are predominant in the whole GKLRJ, with the exception of R3 where a higher proportion of relict rock glaciers can be found (Fig. 3a). Among the total rock glaciers observed, ~64% of them (n = 3,239) were classified as talus-connected, ~26% (n = 1,327) as debris mantled slope-connected, and ~10% (n = 491) as glacier forefield-connected, this

order of proportions is consistent across three subregions (Fig. 3b). On the whole, rock glaciers are unevenly distributed in R1, R2 and R3, with nearly 70% of rock glaciers ($n = 3,447$) distributed in R2 (Table 2).

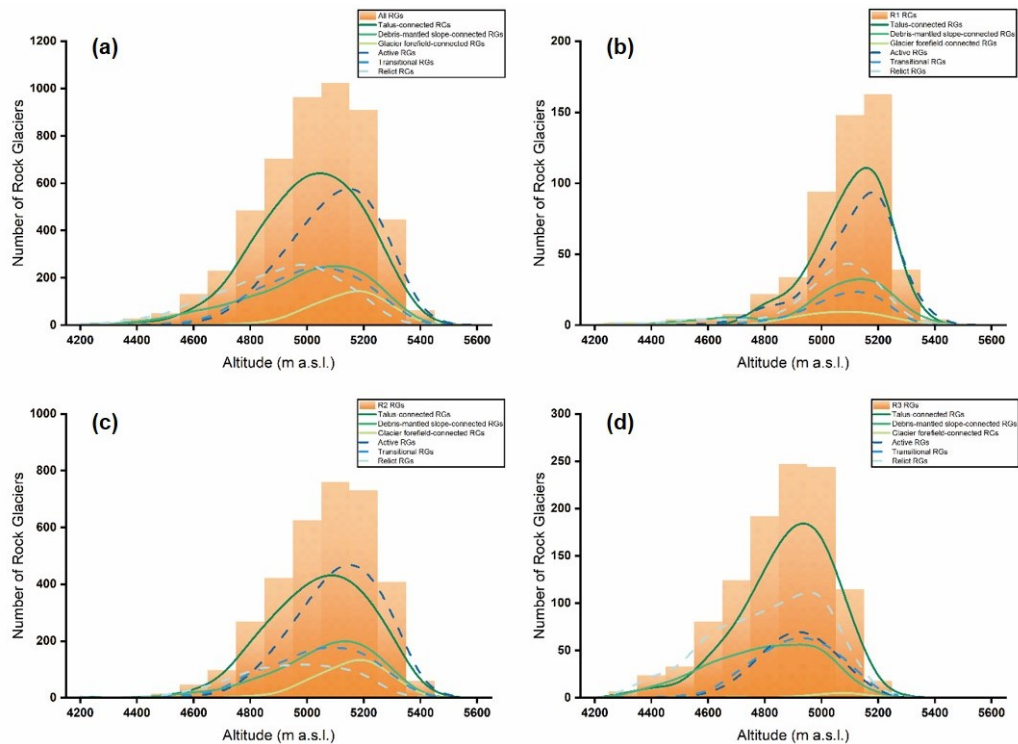


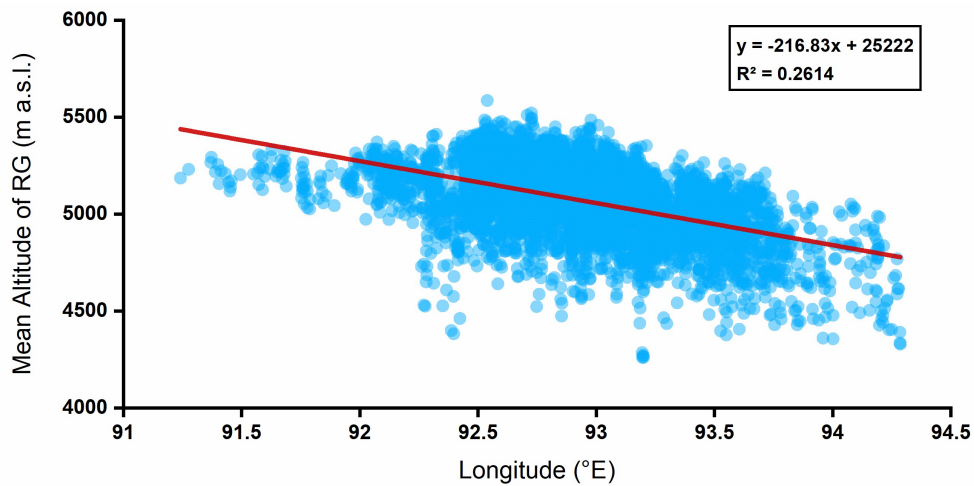
Figure 4: The mean occurrence altitude of rock glaciers categorized by different activity and upper slope connection types in (a) the Guokalarijuwahle-GKLRJ and (b) the western region R1, (c) the central region, R2 and (d) the western region R3.

~90% of the rock glaciers are located between 4,800 and 5,400 m asl, with a mean altitude of ~5,070 m asl.

Active rock glaciers are statistically distributed at higher altitudes than transitional and relict rock glaciers (Table 3), at ~76 m and ~195 m higher (Fig. 4a). The mean altitude of rock glaciers varies significantly depending on the type of spatial connection to the upper slope (Table 3). Compared to talus-connected (~5,063 m asl) and debris-mantled slope-connected rock glaciers (~5,044 m asl), glacier forefield-connected rock glaciers (~5,185 m asl) are more commonly found at higher elevations (Fig. 4a). The mean altitude of rock glaciers in R1 the western region (~5,132 m asl) is higher than for those in the central R2 (~5,112 m asl) and eastern region R3 (~4,909 m asl) by ~20 m and ~223 m, respectively (Table 2 and Fig. 4b, 4c, 4d). The lower altitudinal limit of rock glaciers declines as longitude increases eastward (Fig. 5).

Table 3: The results of the One Way ANOVA.

Independent variable	Dependent variable	<i>df</i> between groups	<i>df</i> within groups	<i>F</i> -value	<i>p</i>
activity types	mean altitude	2	5,054	544.749	0.000
upper slope connection	mean altitude	2	5,054	102.9	0.000
upper slope connection	mean area	2	5,054	89.814	0.000
sub-regions	mean slope range	2	4,680	81.175	0.000

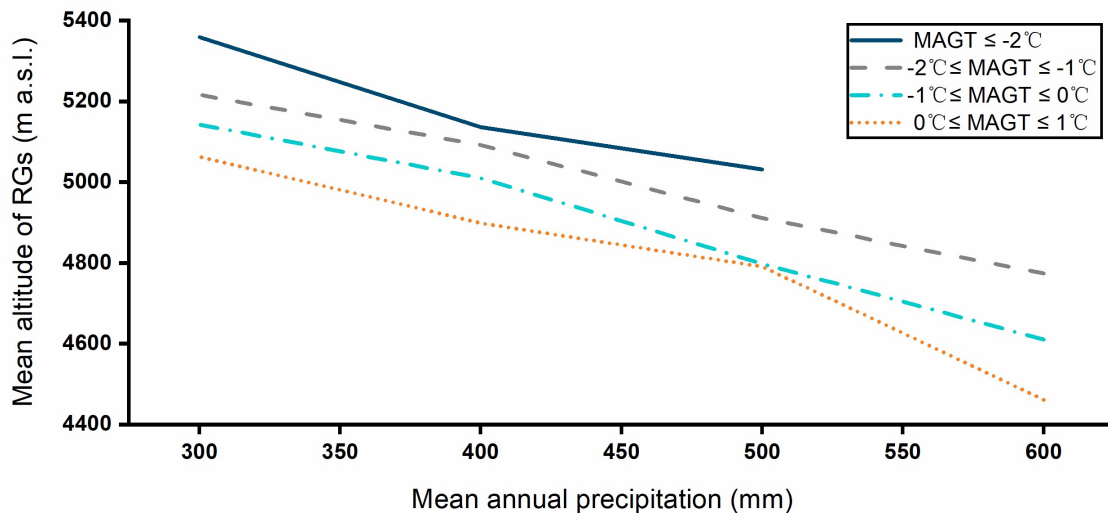


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Figure 5: Scatterplots and fitted curves of the mean altitudinal distribution of rock glaciers versus longitude.

In Guokalariju, the total area of rock glaciers is 404.69 km², with active rock glaciers covering 187.88 km², transitional rock glaciers covering 103.73 km², and relict rock glaciers covering 113.09 km², respectively. In the GKLRJ, rock glaciers cover an area of 404.69 km², with the mean area of each rock glacier being 0.08 km², the mean area of three different activity types of rock glaciers remain consistent with this value, but there are notable variations in the mean area of rock glaciers depending on their specific type of upper slope connection (Table 3). Glacier forefield-connected rock glaciers (0.12 km²) generally have a larger mean area than the talus-connected ones (0.08 km²) and the debris-mantled slope-connected ones (0.06 km²). The mean area of most types of rock glaciers is the biggest in the central region R2 and smallest in R1 the western region (Table 2). Furthermore, the mean slope range of rock glaciers in the eastern region R3 is significantly steeper compared to that in other sub-regions R1 and R2 (Table 3).

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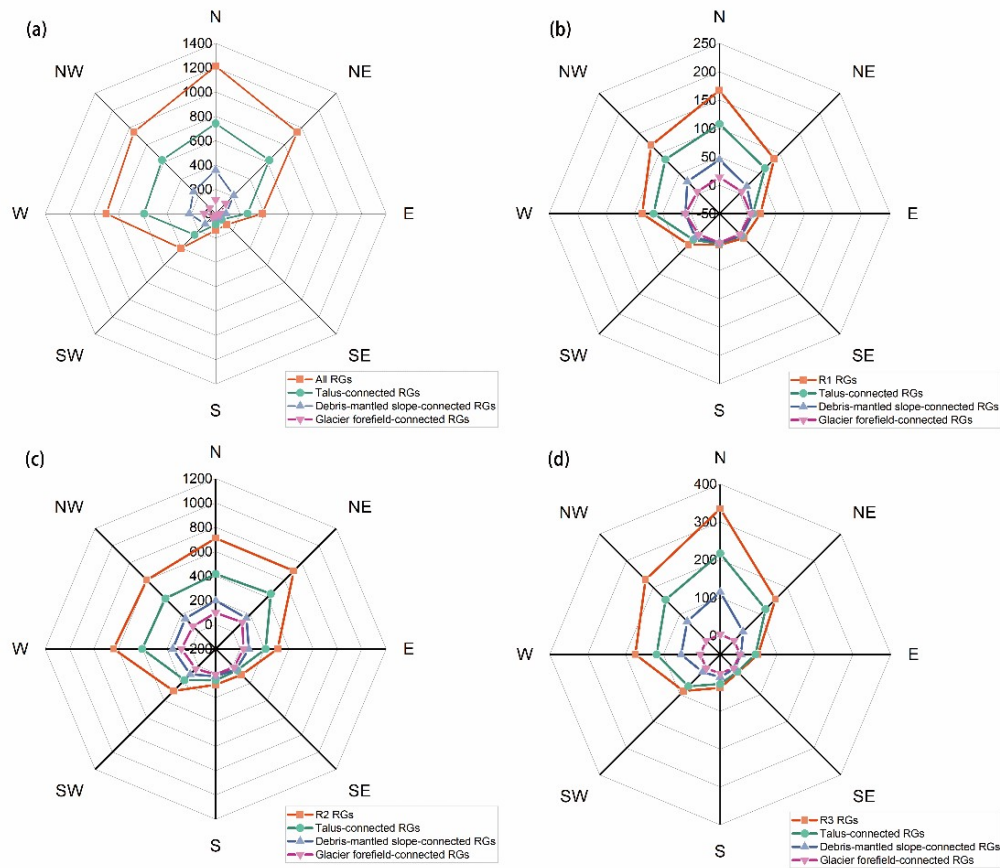


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Figure 6: The variation in mean altitude of rock glacier distribution with changes in mean annual precipitation for different mean MAGT states.

Around 90% of the rock glaciers in GKLRJGuokalariju are found in the region where the MAGT ranges from -2°C to 0°C. Additionally, the MAGT, MAAT, and MAP of the rock glaciers vary among the three sub-regions (Table 2). Specifically, the mean MAGT decreases gradually from R1 the west to the east of the study area to R3, while the mean MAP increases gradually. The mean MAAT follows the same order as the

265 regional mean MAAT values listed in Table 1. With the same MAGT, the mean altitude of rock glacier distribution decreases with increasing MAP. Moreover, with the same MAP, the altitude of rock glacier distribution increases with decreasing MAGT (Fig. 6).



270 **Figure 7: Analysis of abundances of rock glaciers categorized by different upper slope connection types in (a) the GKLRJGuokalariju, (b) R1-western region, (c) R2-central region, and (d) eastern region R3. The numbers of rock glaciers for each aspect on the four radar plots are shown as percentages (%).**

Rock glaciers predominantly occur on north-facing slopes (N, 23.9%; NW, 18.7%; NE, 18.7%), with some distributed on the west-facing aspects (W, 17.7%), and fewest on south-facing aspects (S, 2.7%; SE, 2.5%, SW, 7.9%) (Fig. 7a). Compared with the obvious characteristics of the concentrated distribution of rock glaciers in R1-the western and eastern region R3 on the N aspect (Fig. 7b, 7d), rock glaciers in the central region R2 are more evenly distributed on the N, NE, W and NW aspects (Fig. 7c).

4.2 Water equivalent volumes

280 Based on the Randolph Glacier Inventory (RGI) version 6.0the second Chinese glacier inventory (RGI ConsortiumLiu et al., 20172), glaciers in the GKLRJGuokalariju cover an area of ~372.32183.96 km². GlabTop2 provided estimated clean ice glacier thicknesses ranging between ~1 and ~20863 m (mean = ~18 23.87 m) (Frey et al., 2014). We estimated the total WVEQ of the region's glaciers to be ~9.293.95 km³.

Table 4: Ice volumes (km³) and corresponding WVEQs (km³) calculated using the empirical area-thickness formula (Brenning, 2005a) for sub-regions and Guokalariju-wideGKLRJ-wide (All).

Brenning, 2005a					
Region	Glacier - WVEQ (km ³)	RG - WVEQ (km ³)			RG: Glacier WVEQ ratio
		40%	50%	60%	
All	3.959.29	3.45	4.32	5.18	1.1:1.4:2.28

<u>Western</u> +	<u>0.060-19</u>	0.30	0.38	0.45	<u>6.33:12-1</u>
<u>Central</u> <u>2</u>	<u>2.656-60</u>	2.78	3.47	4.17	<u>1.31:14-1-9</u>
<u>Eastern</u> <u>3</u>	<u>1.242-51</u>	0.36	0.46	0.55	<u>1:2.71-5.5</u>

WVEQ = water volume equivalent

285 The mean thickness of rock glaciers in the GKLRJGuokalariju estimated using the empirical area-thickness formula (Brenning, 2005a) is ~28.35 m. The WVEQ storage lies between 3.45 and 5.18 km³, of which the central regionR2 stores ~80% of the water in the GKLRJstudy area (i.e., 2.78 – 4.17 km³). The western regionR1 stores 0.30 – 0.45 km³ of water (9% of the whole GKLRJGuokalariju's reserve). The eastern regionR3 stores ~11% of the water, or 0.36 – 0.55 km³ (Table 4). Compared to the WVEQ of glaciers, the result calculated using the weighted method showed that the ratio was 1.1:12.28, indicating that rock glaciers stored ~2.281.1 times more water than ~~rock~~ glaciers.

Table 5: Ice volumes (km³) and corresponding WVEQs (km³) calculated using the perfectly plastic model (Cicoira *et al.*, 2021) for sub-regions and GKLRJGuokalariju-wide (All).

Cicoira <i>et al.</i> , 2021					
Region	Glacier - WVEQ (km ³)	RG - WVEQ (km ³)			RG: Glacier WVEQ ratio
		40%	50%	60%	
All	<u>3.959-29</u>	1.31 – 2.02	1.64 – 2.53	1.97 – 3.04	<u>1:1.861-4.66</u>
<u>Western</u> +	<u>0.060-19</u>	0.11 – 0.17	0.14 – 0.22	0.17 – 0.26	<u>3:11-1.06</u>
<u>Central</u> <u>2</u>	<u>2.656-60</u>	1.08 – 1.65	1.35 – 2.06	1.62 – 2.48	<u>1:1.551-3.86</u>
<u>Eastern</u> <u>3</u>	<u>1.242-51</u>	0.11 – 0.19	0.14 – 0.24	0.17 – 0.29	<u>1:6.531-13.21</u>

WVEQ = water volume equivalent

295 The range of results in RG - WVEQ (km³) (Cicoira *et al.*, 2021) corresponds to $H \pm 3.4$ m. The mean thickness of rock glaciers calculated using a perfectly plastic model (Cicoira *et al.*, 2021) is 16.39±3.4 m, 11.96 m thinner than that estimated using the empirical area-thickness formula. The mean value of the WVEQ estimated using this method is 41 – 49% of the mean value obtained using the 'Brenning' method. As the estimated WVEQ of rock glaciers decreases, the ratio of rock glaciers' to glaciers' WVEQ is also lower than that obtained using the 'Brenning' method (Brenning, 2005a), indicating that the WVEQ of glaciers is ~4.661.86 times that of rock glaciers (Table 5). However, the results obtained based on both methods reflect clear differences in the water storage of the three sub-regions ~~of GKLRJ~~ (ANOVA: F -value = 27.930, df within groups = 2, between groups = 3,671, $p \leq 0.001$).

5 Discussion

305 5.1 Factors controlling rock glaciers

310 Rock glaciers are distributed heterogeneously throughout the GKLRJGuokalariju, with most concentrated within R2the central region. The GKLRJstudy area spans a large area from east to west, with variations in topography and climatic conditions between the three sub-regions, thereby providing the basis for a spatially differentiated distribution of rock glaciers. The development of rock glaciers is a complex function of responses to air temperature, insolation, wind, and seasonal precipitation over a considerable time periodperiod (Humlum, 1998), with the MAAT = -2°C isotherm and the equilibrium line altitude (ELA) for local glaciers forming the lower and upper boundaries of the cryogenic belt where they have developed, respectively (Humlum, 1988; Brenning, 2005a; Rangecroft *et al.*, 2015, 2016; Jones, 2018b). Topographically, the higher terrain in the central

315 regionR2 has accommodated the development of more rock glaciers in the area above 4,500 m asl. The central
regionR2 is located in the transition zone between the TP's semi-arid and sub-humid regions, with a mean
ELA of ~5,462–478 m asl. Compared with R3the eastern region, which has a lower ELA (mean ELA = 5,292
265 m asl), and R4the western region, which has a higher MAAT, R2-the central region exhibits a broader range
of the cryogenic belt to meet the development and distribution of more rock glaciers. Additionally, the
widespread glacial remains in R2-the central region and the predominance of more easily weathered granite as
320 bedrock in this area could also provide a richer source of material for rock glacier development (Wahrhaftig and
Cox, 1959; Haeberli *et al.*, 2006).

The mean and lower altitudinal limits of the rock glacier distribution in the GKLRJwhole study area
decrease from west to east, from ~5,200 m asl to ~4,900 m asl. In the Gangdise Mountains, located in the same
latitudinal range on the western side of the study area, rock glaciers show a similar trend of gradually decreasing
325 altitude in line with increased moisture; indeed, the characteristics of the changes in the two regions show an
overall continuity (Zhang *et al.*, 2022). Limited by the range of the ISM, MAP gradually decreases from west to
east from the Gangdise Mountains to the GKLRJGuokalariju. In the alpine tundra of this region, annual
precipitation is dominated by snowfall in summer and autumn. Increases in snowfall in summer and autumn
could help to preserve permafrost, allowing permafrost to develop at lower altitudes under similar climatic
330 conditions (Zhou *et al.*, 2000). Additionally, annual regional precipitation values may reflect reductions in
short-wave insolation arising from cloud cover, at least to some extent (Boeckli *et al.*, 2012a). Relatively
favorable hydrological conditions will be more conducive to freeze-thaw weathering, thereby increasing the
generation rate of rock debris, which in turn is conducive to the development of rock glaciers (Hallet *et al.*, 1991;
Haeberli *et al.*, 2006; Zhang *et al.*, 2022). Increases in MAP are therefore likely to be conducive to the
335 expansion of the range in the distribution of rock glaciers in semi-arid to sub-humid areas, meaning that the
lower altitudinal limit of rock glacier distribution decreases with increases in annual precipitation.

Glacier forefield-connected rock glaciers may have a more abundant source of materials compared to other
types of rock glaciers. They occur in regions where glaciers have previously existed, and both glacial moraines
and surrounding rock walls can provide debris as their materials. Therefore, they have a more diverse range of
340 material sources, which may contribute to the development of larger-scale rock glaciers. However,
debris-mantled slope-connected rock glaciers lack significant headwall, and their debris is primarily produced
by in-situ bedrock weathering (RGIK, 2022a). This results in their relatively limited and homogeneous material
sources, leading to slower development and smaller scale compared to other types of rock glaciers.

Rock glaciers in the GKLRJstudy area areare primarily distributed on north-facing and west-facing aspects,
345 which is remarkably similar to the distribution pattern of rock glaciers in the Himalayas (Jones *et al.*, 2018b),
Gangdise Mountains (Zhang *et al.*, 2022), Tianshan Mountains (Liu *et al.*, 1995; Bolch and Marchenko, 2009)
and the European Alps (Scotti *et al.*, 2013). This is mainly ~~due to the fact that~~because north-facing slopes
receive less solar radiation as they are shaded, providing favorable conditions for the development and
preservation of rock glaciers (Barsch, 1996). Additionally, the ample space and lower potential incoming solar
350 radiation (PISR) on west-facing slopes, influenced by regional topographic conditions, also contribute to the
development of rock glaciers here. This is evident in the central regionR2 where rock glaciers are more evenly
distributed in the W, NW, N, and NE aspects compared to the distinct concentration of rock glaciers on the N
aspect in the westernR4 and eastern regionsR3.

5.2 Hydrological significance of rock glaciers

355 In comparison, we found that the thicknesses of rock glaciers calculated using the flow plasticity model
(Cicoira *et al.*, 2021) are significantly lower than the corresponding results calculated using the empirical
area-thickness formula (Brenning, 2005a). By comparing the thickness of the rock glaciers calculated by both
methods with the height of the rock glacier front measured in ©Google Earth, the thickness of the rock glaciers
360 calculated by the ‘Cicoira’ method (Cicoira *et al.*, 2021) seems to be closer to the real value. Therefore, we
speculate that the thickness calculated based on the ‘Brenning’ method (Brenning, 2005a) may be overestimated
to a certain extent due to the following reasons. The applicability of different estimation methods may be
different across the study area. The mean thickness of the sample rock glaciers in the study of Brenning (2005a)
is about 30-50 m, which is higher than the sample of rock glaciers selected in the study of Cicoira *et al.* (2021)
(15-30 m). We selected two rock glacier samples from Cicoira *et al.*’s (2021) research and used the ‘Brenning’
365 method (Brenning, 2005a) to calculate their thickness (Müller *et al.*, 2016). We observed that the calculated
thickness (H=27 m) closely matched the actual thickness for the rock glacier with an area of 45,931 m² and a
real thickness of 30 m. However, there was a significant discrepancy with the other rock glacier sample (H=25
m), which had an area of 32,356 m² and an actual thickness of 12 m. Therefore, the applicability of empirical
formulas based on various samples may vary for estimating the thickness of rock glaciers in different areas. As
370 the thickness of rock glaciers in [GKLRJour study area](#) is relatively close to the sample selected by Cicoira *et al.*
(2021), the application of the ‘Brenning’ method (Brenning, 2005a) may lead to an overestimation of rock
glacier thickness [in GKLRJ-in this region](#).

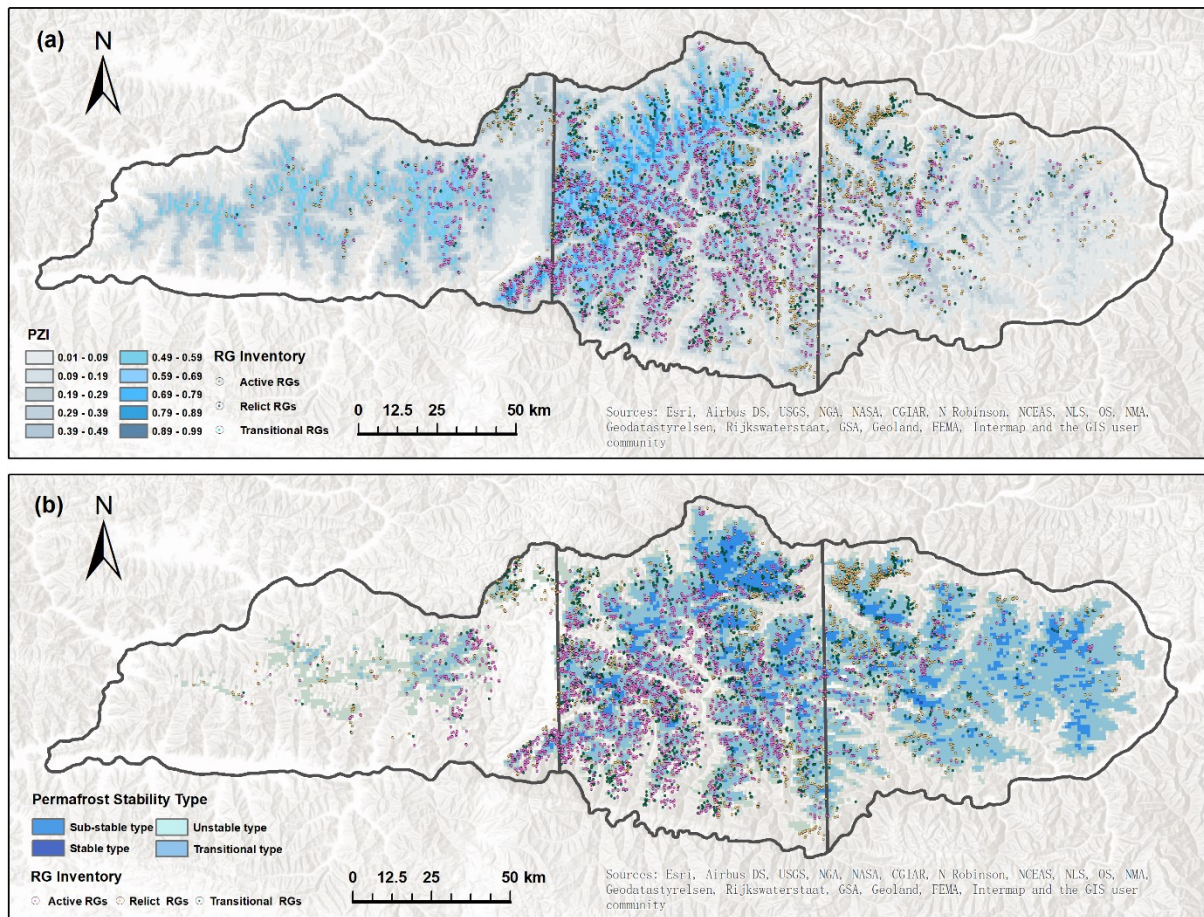
Based on the above discussion, we choose to use the results calculated based on the ‘Cicoira’ method
(Cicoira *et al.*, 2021), which may be closer to the actual water reserves in [GKLRJour study area](#) for further
375 comparison and discussion. These estimates indicate that the amount of water stored in rock glaciers in the
[GKLRJstudy area](#) is ~~is~~ $\sim 2.21\%$ of the total ~~previously identified~~ [previously identified](#) rock glacier water reserves
globally (95.49 ± 12.40 Gt~~94.66 Gt~~) (Jones *et al.*, 2018a; Jones *et al.*, 2018b; Millar and Westfall, 2019; Jones *et*
al., 2021a; Jones *et al.*, 2021b; Wagner *et al.*, 2021), and $\sim 3.54\%$ of the existing water reserves in rock glaciers
on the TP (5850.83 ± 10.17 Gt~~05 Gt~~) (Jones *et al.*, 2018a; Jones *et al.*, 2018b; Jones *et al.*, 2021a). The rock
380 glacier to glacier storage ratio in the [GKLRJ-uokalariju](#) of $1:4.661.86$ is ~ 245.133 times bigger than the global
ratio ($1:618456$, excluding the Antarctic and Subantarctic and Greenland Periphery Randolph Glacier Inventory)
(~~Randolf Glaeier Inventory~~ (RGI); Pfeffer *et al.*, 2014; Jones *et al.*, 2021b~~018a~~), ~ 5.4 times bigger than that of
the Himalayas to its south (1:25) (Jones *et al.*, 2021a), and much closer to that of the Andes in South America
(1:3) (Azócar and Brenning, 2010), where glacier presence is also limited/absent (Brenning, 2005b; Azócar and
385 Brenning, 2010; Jones *et al.*, 2019b; Schaffer *et al.*, 2019).

In the [GKLRJGuokalariju](#), ~~along with the continuous melting of glaciers in the study area, the area of~~
~~active rock glaciers now exceeds the glacier area, and the estimated water storage of rock glaciers is about 54%~~
~~of the glacier water storage, which shows the indispensable hydrological significance of rock glaciers in the~~
~~study area. Meanwhile,~~ regional differences in the hydrological significance of rock glaciers under different
390 climatic conditions also exist. In [the central regionR2](#), which is located in the transition zone between the
semi-arid and semi-humid zones, the higher topography and suitable hydrothermal conditions lead to the highest
concentration of glaciers and rock glaciers in this area, with rock glaciers accounting for 82% of the rock glacier
water storage in the entire study area, and glaciers accounting for $\sim 74.67\%$ of the study area’s glacial water

395 storage, with a ratio of $\sim 1:3.861.55$ between them. However, in terms of the ratio of rock glaciers to glacial water storage alone, rock glaciers are of greater hydrological significance in the western region which is warmer and drier R1, despite storing only 8.7% of the total water volume of all rock glaciers. In the context of drought and climate warming, rock glaciers store about three times as large as more than twice the water storage of the glaciers in R1 the western region. This partly explains why rock glaciers have a greater hydrological significance and refuge potential as long-term reservoirs in arid regions with small and rapidly vanishing glaciers.

400 Furthermore, the relationship between the proportion of the water cycle occupied by rock glaciers and the water requirements of regional populations should be considered in more detail. More research is needed into the hydrochemical composition of the stored water in rock glaciers and whether it can be used for irrigation and drinking.

5.3 Rock glaciers and permafrost presence



405 **Figure 8: Spatial distribution of rock glaciers vs. (a) Gruber's (2012) Permafrost Zonation Index (PZI) in GKLRJGuokalariju and (b) Map of the thermal stability of permafrost in GKLRJGuokalariju (Ran *et al.*, 2020).**

The MAGT in GKLRJGuokalariju is relatively high (Ran *et al.*, 2020; Ni *et al.*, 2020). Approximately 90% of the rock glaciers are distributed within the MAGT range of -2°C to 0°C , which belong to the regions of sub-stable type ($-3^{\circ}\text{C} < \text{MAGT} < -1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$), transitional type ($-1.5^{\circ}\text{C} < \text{MAGT} < -0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$), and unstable type permafrost ($-0.5^{\circ}\text{C} < \text{MAGT} < 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$) (Cheng *et al.*, 2019). About 7% of the rock glaciers occur in the seasonal frozen ground area with $\text{MAGT} > 0^{\circ}\text{C}$. Furthermore, we compared the spatial distribution of rock glaciers in GKLRJthe study area to the Permafrost Zonation Index (PZI) which is based on the model of permafrost extent

and mainly related to the MAAT (Gruber, 2012). At the same time, we also compared it to the thermal stability
415 of permafrost which mainly depends on the accumulation of the MAGT measurement data and remote sensing
big data (Ran et al., 2020). Overall, it aligns well with the regions of $PZI \geq 0.49$ (Fig. 8a) and the map of the
thermal stability of permafrost (Fig. 8b), especially in the central region R2 and the eastern region's western part
of R3.

In R1the western region, the range of permafrost distribution provided by Ran *et al.* (2020) is significantly
420 smaller than the region with $PZI \geq 0.49$ in Gruber (2012), while the difference is larger in the eastern part of R3
the eastern region is larger (Fig. 8). We speculate that these differences may be attributed to variations in the
data period used in these studies. When making detailed comparisons between the mean MAAT data from 1961
to 1990 used in the study of Gruber (2012) and MAAT data for the TP in 2015 provided by Du and Yi (2019),
we found that, except for a few areas in the eastern part of the eastern region R3, the mean MAATs of R1the
425 western and central region R2 increased by $\sim 2^\circ\text{C}$. Although there may have been some errors in the data, the
effect of temperature on the predicted permafrost distribution for the model based on the relationship between
air temperature and the occurrence of permafrost may nonetheless be somewhat magnified.

Under the background of global warming, the warming rate of permafrost in the eastern part of the TP is
significantly faster than that in the western part (Cheng *et al.*, 2019). This could result in rapid changes in the
430 movement speed and surface morphology of rock glaciers in GKLRJthe study area over a short period-of
timeperiod (Krainer and Mostler, 2006; Ikeda *et al.*, 2008; Janke and Bolch, 2021). However, research has
shown that despite the relatively rapid increase in ground temperatures in the deep layers of permafrost, the
degradation of permafrost on the Tibetan Plateau occurs at a slow pace with full consideration of deep ground
temperatures, subterranean ice and geothermal gradients in permafrost (Cheng *et al.*, 2019). It may take
435 centuries, if not millennia, for the frozen material and corresponding subsurface ice in rock glaciers and
permafrost to completely thaw and melt (Krainer *et al.*, 2015).

6 Conclusions

We constructed an inventory of rock glaciers in the GKLRJGuokalariju and illustrated their regional
distribution characteristics and environmental indications. We employed two methods to estimate and compare
440 the water storage capacity of the region's rock glaciers. The results show that there are 5,057 rock glaciers in
the study area, covering an area of about 404.69 km² in totaland map the GKLRJ's permafrost probability
distribution using the logistic regression model. The results show that there are 5,057 rock glaciers in the
GKLRJ, covering an area of 404.69 km². Among them, the area of active rock glaciers is about 187.88 km²,
which exceeds the area of glaciers in the study area. Over 80% of these rock glaciers are located within R2the
445 central region. The high altitude ($\sim 4,900$ m asl), low temperatures ($\text{MAAT} \leq -2^\circ\text{C}$), and suitable precipitation
(MAP ~ 400 mm) in the semi-arid and semi-humid transition zone provide the widest cryogenic belt range for
rock glacier distribution in the region. The lower altitudinal limit of the distribution of rock glaciers decreases
gradually with increasing longitude from the western side of the study area, from the Gangdise Mountains to the
interior of the GKLRJGuokalariju, indicating the positive effect of increased precipitation on the preservation of
450 permafrost. We used two methods to estimate the thickness of rock glaciers and found that the results calculated
based on the perfect plasticity model were more consistent with the actual situation in the GKLRJstudy area.

Based on the result, we calculated that about 1.31–3.04 km³ of water is stored in the subsurface ice of rock glacier permafrost, or ~5433% of the water presently stored in the surface ice of glaciers. Despite –these differences from the two methods, both of these–their results reveal the previously neglected and important hydrological value of rock glaciers in the GKLRJstudy area, particularly in R+the western region, which is the drier sub-region. The WVEQ in rock glaciers and the ratio of subsurface ice in rock glacier permafrost to surface ice in glaciers may continue to increase with global warming and as glaciers retreat in the future. And the stability of permafrost in the area of rock glacier distribution is likely to further decline.

Data availability. The data associated with this article can be found in the Supplementary Materials. These data include the Google maps of the most important areas described in this article, as well as a tabulation of the parameters of the rock glaciers found in the GKLRJGuokalariju.

Author contributions. ML and GL designed the research. ML performed the analysis and wrote the paper. YY and ZP provided overall supervision and contributed to the writing.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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