



# 1 **Modeling water balance using the Budyko framework over variable** 2 **timescales under diverse climates**

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## 10 **Abstract**

11 Understanding the effects of climate and catchment characteristics on overall water balance at different temporal scales  
12 remains a challenging task due to the large spatial heterogeneity and temporal variability. Based on a long-term (1960–2008)  
13 land surface hydrologic dataset over China, this study presented a systematic examination of the applicability of the Budyko  
14 model (BM) under various climatic conditions at long-term mean annual, annual, seasonal and monthly temporal scales. The  
15 roles of water storage change ( $WSC$ ,  $dS/dt$ ) in water balance modeling and the dominant climate control factors on modeling  
16 errors of BM are investigated. The results indicate that BM performs well at mean annual scale and the performance in arid  
17 climates is better than humid climates. At other smaller timescales, BM is generally accurate in arid climates, but fails to  
18 capture dominant controls on water balance in humid climates due to the effects of  $WSC$  not included in BM. The accuracy  
19 of BM can be ranked from high to low as: dry seasonal, annual, monthly, and wet seasonal timescales. When  $WSC$  is  
20 incorporated into BM by replacing precipitation ( $P$ ) with effective precipitation (i.e.,  $P$  minus  $WSC$ ), significant  
21 improvements are found in arid climates, but to a lesser extent in humid climates. The ratio of the standard deviation of  $WSC$   
22 to that of evapotranspiration ( $E$ ), which increases from arid to humid climates, is found to be the key indicator of the BM  
23 simulation errors due to the omission of the effect of  $WSC$ . The modeling errors of BM are positively correlated with the  
24 temporal variability of  $WSC$  and hence larger in humid climates, and also found to be proportional to the ratio of potential  
25 evapotranspiration ( $PET$ ) to  $E$ . More sophisticated models than the BM which explicitly incorporate the effect of  $WSC$  are  
26 required to improve water balance modeling in humid climates particularly at all the annual, seasonal, and monthly  
27 timescales.



28 **Key words:** water balance; Budyko framework; evapotranspiration; water storage change; China

## 29 **1 Introduction**

30 Precipitation ( $P$ ) partitioning into evapotranspiration ( $E$ ), runoff ( $R$ ) and soil water storage is controlled by climate and  
31 catchment characteristics, such as soil, topography, and vegetation (Zhang et al., 2008). Quantifying the effects of climate  
32 and catchment characteristics on water balance is a major scientific challenge for hydrologists. Budyko (1958) postulated  
33 that the first-order control on the partitioning of  $P$  is the balance between available water ( $P$ ) and energy (represented by  
34 potential evapotranspiration,  $PET$ ). The empirical relationship proposed, widely known as the Budyko's curve, has shown  
35 good agreement with long-term water balance data for numerous watersheds globally (Budyko, 1974). Based on the Budyko  
36 hypothesis, various functional forms associated with the relation between the evaporation ratio ( $E/P$ ) and climate aridity  
37 index ( $PET/P$ ) have been developed for quantifying long-term water balance (Pike, 1964; Fu, 1981; Choudhury, 1999; Zhang  
38 et al., 2001, 2004; Porporato et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2008; Gerrits et al., 2009). The parameters of the analytically derived  
39 Budyko-type equations (e.g., Fu, 1981; Zhang et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2008) well account for the effects of rainfall  
40 seasonality and soil water storage capacity (Milly, 1994a, 1994b; Potter et al., 2005; Hickel and Zhang, 2006; Yokoo et al.,  
41 2008; Gerrits et al., 2009; Feng et al., 2012) and vegetation dynamics (Zhang et al., 2001; Donohue et al., 2007; Oudin et al.,  
42 2008; Yang et al., 2009; Peel et al., 2010; Li et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2016) on the long-term mean water-energy balance.  
43 The Budyko framework has been considered as a useful tool to investigate the interaction between climate, the hydrologic  
44 cycle, and catchment characteristics under the steady state at the catchment scale (Donohue et al., 2007, 2010, 2011; Yang et  
45 al., 2009; Roderick and Farquhar, 2011; Wang and Hejazi, 2011; Yang and Yang, 2011; Li et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2016).

46  
47 Recently numerous research efforts have been directed to extend the applicability of the original Budyko framework to  
48 smaller temporal scales than the long-term average, such as annual (Koster and Suarez, 1999; Sankarasubramanian and  
49 Vogel, 2002; Zhang et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2007, 2009; Potter and Zhang, 2009; Cheng et al., 2011; Tekleab et al., 2011;  
50 Carmona et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2013), seasonal (Chen et al., 2013), monthly (Zhang et al., 2008; Tekleab et al., 2011; Du et  
51 al., 2016), and daily (Zhang et al., 2008) timescales. For example, Koster and Suarez (1999) proposed an analytical



52 framework based on the Budyko equation to quantify the interannual variability of  $E$ , and compared the theoretical  
53 framework with the global climate model simulations. Zhang et al. (2008) extended the Budyko framework to predict water  
54 balance at the mean annual, annual, monthly, and daily timescales in Australia. The results indicated that the models perform  
55 well in most catchments in Australia at the mean annual and annual timescales, but more complicated models are required at  
56 the shorter timescales primarily due to the importance of water storage change ( $WSC$ ,  $dS/dt$ ) at these smaller timescales.  
57 Yang et al. (2009) incorporated the impact of vegetation coverage into the Budyko framework to improve parameter  
58 estimation in the coupled water-energy balance equation. Chen et al. (2013) extended the Budyko framework to the seasonal  
59 timescale and also developed a model for incorporating interannual variability of  $E$  and  $WSC$ . The  $WSC$  has been found to be  
60 a significant component on water balance variability at annual or smaller timescales in many regions around the world  
61 (Eltahir and Yeh, 1999; Yeh and Famiglietti, 2008; Yokoo et al., 2008; Istanbuluoglu et al., 2012; Wang and Alimohammadi,  
62 2012; Wang, 2012; Chen et al., 2013; Du et al., 2016). Wu et al. (2017) investigated the effects of climate and  $WSC$  on the  
63 temporal variability of  $E$  over China. They found that the effect of  $WSC$  in accommodating climatic fluctuations is larger at  
64 monthly timescale than at annual timescale, and even becomes the dominant controlling factor on the temporal variability of  
65  $E$  in some extremely arid regions. Therefore, when applying to smaller timescales, the Budyko framework should be  
66 extended to incorporate the effect of  $WSC$  (Zhang et al., 2008; Zeng and Cai, 2015). Wang (2012) suggested that the  
67 effective precipitation (i.e.,  $P$  minus  $WSC$ ) can be used in Budyko's framework to account for the storage change and satisfy  
68 the water balance under the non-steady-state condition.

69  
70 Although advances have been made in water balance simulations over variable timescales within the Budyko framework, our  
71 knowledge about the effects of climate and catchment characteristics on the water balance is still limited due to its spatial  
72 heterogeneity and temporal variability. The research question asked in this study is whether the Budyko framework is  
73 applicable for water balance modeling at smaller timescales when  $WSC$  becomes increasingly significant, and under various  
74 hydroclimate conditions particularly for the extremely humid or arid climates. On the basis of a long-term (1960–2008)  
75 gridded land surface dataset over China, the objectives here are: (1) to test the Budyko framework under various climatic  
76 conditions over four different timescales (mean annual, annual, seasonal, and monthly) at both the basin and the grid scales;



77 (2) to investigate the role of *WSC* in water balance modeling at various timescales and under different climate conditions;  
78 and (3) to identify the dominant climatic controlling factors on the modeling errors of the Budyko framework. It is  
79 anticipated that the knowledge obtained from this study would enhance understanding of the controls of climatic and  
80 catchment characteristics on the water balances from arid to humid climates and across a variety of timescales.

## 81 **2 Methodology**

### 82 **2.1 Data sources**

83 A long-term (1960–2008) meteorological and hydrologic gridded dataset, covering the entire China with a  $0.25^\circ$  spatial  
84 resolution, is provided by Zhang et al. (2014). The observed meteorological data, including  $P$ , maximum temperature  $T_{\max}$ ,  
85 minimum temperature  $T_{\min}$  and wind speed  $WS$ , are derived from the total 756 monitoring stations maintained by the Chinese  
86 Meteorological Administration (CMA). The hydrologic flux data including  $E$ , surface runoff ( $R_s$ ) and baseflow ( $B_s$ ), are  
87 obtained from the Variable Infiltration Capacity (VIC) model simulation forced by daily observed climate forcing data of  $P$ ,  
88  $T_{\max}$ ,  $T_{\min}$ , and  $WS$ . The dataset used here provides a more reliable estimate of  $R$ ,  $E$  and other hydrologic variables over China  
89 compared with the global products of a similar nature (e.g., Nijssen et al., 2001; Adam et al., 2006; Rodell et al., 2004;  
90 Sheffield et al., 2006; Sheffield and Wood, 2007; Pan et al., 2012), and hence it will be treated and termed as the “observed  
91 data” in this paper, particularly in contrast to the “predicted data” from the Budyko models. This dataset has been  
92 successfully used for the quantitative assessment of effects of climate and *WSC* on the temporal variability of actual  
93 evapotranspiration in China (Wu et al., 2017). The *PET* data spanning the period 1960–2008 with a  $1^\circ$  resolution is provided  
94 by the Hydroclimatology Group of Princeton University (Sheffield et al., 2006, 2012). The *PET* is estimated based on the  
95 Penman equation (Penman, 1948; Shuttleworth, 1993) using the updated meteorological dataset obtained from Sheffield et al.  
96 (2006, 2012).

97  
98 All the data used are disaggregated into  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  grids over China (for a total of 3814 grids) using the linear interpolation.  
99 Gridded *WSC* at the time interval  $dt_i$  is computed using the water balance equation:

$$100 \quad dS_i / dt_i = P_i - E_i - R_{si} - B_{si} \quad (1)$$



101 A total of 14 large river basins in China under a large diversity of climates, are chosen for analysis (Figure 1(a)). The  
102 monthly and annual  $P$ ,  $E$ ,  $R_s$ ,  $B_s$  and  $PET$  for each of the 14 basins are estimated from the grid data within the basin boundary.  
103 The basic and detailed information of the 14 basins and their long-term (1960–2008) mean water balances are given in Table  
104 1. As seen, the mean annual aridity index ( $PET/P$ ) is less than 1.0 in the Southeast Drainage, Pearl and Yangtze River basins  
105 belonging to humid climates, and in the range of 1.19–8.63 for the other eleven basins belonging to arid climates.

106  
107 The net primary productivity (NPP) is an important component of the global carbon budget directly reflecting the production  
108 capacity of vegetation, and it is the basis of organic material and energy cycles in the global ecosystem (Field et al. 1998;  
109 Houghton et al. 1999; Field, 2001). The formation of NPP can effectively indicate the ecological response of catchment  
110 characteristics. In this study, the 1-km NPP data set in 2010 covering the entire China as obtained from the Research Center  
111 for Natural resources and Environment Science Data of the Chinese Academy of Science, is used to represent the vegetation  
112 characteristics of catchments over China. Figure 1(b) show the spatial distribution of NPP over China. The value of NPP  
113 generally decreases from southern to northwest China, which is generally opposite to the pattern of mean annual aridity  
114 index. Scatterplot of NPP versus the mean annual aridity index for the 3814 grids of China is shown in Figure 1(c). As seen,  
115 the NPP decreases rapidly with the increasing aridity index for all regions with the aridity index smaller than 3. However,  
116 under the extremely dry conditions (the aridity index  $> 3$ ) the NPP falls within a narrow range fluctuating around zero. NPP  
117 is negligible in the extremely dry regions such as some regions of Xinjiang.

## 118 2.2 Dry and wet seasons

119 For a given catchment, the dry and wet months among the twelve months of a year are identified based on the mean monthly  
120 aridity index expressed as (Chen et al., 2013)

$$121 \quad A_m = \frac{\overline{PET_m}}{\overline{P_m} - \frac{dS_m}{dt_m}} \quad (2)$$

122 where  $\overline{PET_m}$ ,  $\overline{P_m}$  and  $\frac{dS_m}{dt_m}$  are the 1960–2008 monthly climatology of potential evaporation, precipitation and storage



123 change, respectively. The classification between dry and wet months are based upon the criterion of  $A_m \geq 1$  (dry) or  
124  $A_m < 1$  (wet) for each month from January through December, and this classification remains the same for all years. Based  
125 on the identified dry and wet months, the dry and wet seasonal precipitation, potential evaporation, and storage changes are  
126 calculated by summing up the dry- and wet-months values for each year during 1960–2008. For example, the dry seasonal  
127  $PET$  ( $PET_d$ ) and the wet seasonal  $PET$  ( $PET_w$ ) are computed as

$$\begin{aligned} PET_d &= \sum_{i=1}^{N_d} PET_{d,i} \\ PET_w &= \sum_{i=1}^{N_w} PET_{w,i} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

129 where  $N_d$  and  $N_w$  represent the numbers of dry and wet months within a year (i.e.  $N_d + N_w = 12$ ).

### 130 2.3 The Budyko model (BM)

131 The Budyko curves are the equations coupling the concepts of water and energy balances which usually contain one or more  
132 parameters to be estimated (Turc, 1954; Pike, 1964; Fu, 1981; Choudhury, 1999, Zhang et al., 2001, 2004; Porporato et al.,  
133 2004; Yang et al., 2008; Gerrits et al., 2009). One of the commonly used functional forms is the Fu's equation (Fu, 1981;  
134 Zhang et al., 2004) expressed as follows:

$$\frac{E}{P} = 1 + \frac{PET}{P} - \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{PET}{P} \right)^\omega \right]^{1/\omega} \quad (4)$$

136 where the parameter  $\omega$  represents the effects of land surface characteristics and climate seasonality on the water-energy  
137 balance (Li et al., 2013). The Fu's equation with a clear physical basis is considered to be more applicable for estimating  
138 mean annual evapotranspiration than other empirical formulas (Zhang et al., 2004).

139  
140 As the timescale becomes finer,  $WSC$  becomes more significant in closing water budget since it controls the supply and  
141 demand of water fluxes with a delayed effect (Chen et al. 2013). Therefore, the effect of  $WSC$  has to be incorporated into  
142 BM particularly when applied to smaller timescales. Following Wang (2012), the water availability is defined as the effective



143 precipitation  $P_e$  (i.e.,  $P_e = P - dS / dt$ ), thus Equation (4) becomes (Zeng and Cai, 2015)

$$144 \quad \frac{E}{P_e} = 1 + \frac{PET}{P_e} - \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{PET}{P_e} \right)^\omega \right]^{1/\omega} \quad (5)$$

145 In this study, both equations (4) and (5) will be applied to the smaller timescales (i.e. annual, seasonal and monthly). The  
 146 parameter  $\omega$  is estimated by using the least-square method.

## 147 2.4 Model performance evaluation

148 The model performance is evaluated by using the Nash-Sutcliffe Coefficient of Efficiency ( $CE$ ) and the Relative Error ( $RE$ ).

149 The  $CE$  is calculated as

$$150 \quad CE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (E_{o,i} - E_{s,i})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (E_{o,i} - \bar{E}_{o,i})^2} \quad (6)$$

151 where  $E_{o,i}$  and  $E_{s,i}$  are the observed and simulated  $E$  at the  $i$ th time step, respectively.  $N$  is the number of the time steps.

152  $CE$  ranges from  $-\infty$  to 1. A positive  $CE$  value indicates acceptable model performance, and a  $CE$  closer to 1 indicates more  
 153 efficient model performance (Moriasi et al., 2007).

154

155 The  $RE$  is a percentage measurement of mean bias of model simulations relative to observations, defined as

$$156 \quad RE = \frac{\bar{E}_{s,i} - \bar{E}_{o,i}}{\bar{E}_{o,i}} \times 100\% \quad (7)$$

157 where  $\bar{E}_{o,i}$  and  $\bar{E}_{s,i}$  represent the mean observed and simulated  $E$  over the  $N$  time steps.

## 158 3 Results

### 159 3.1 Mean annual water balance

#### 160 3.1.1 Basin scale

161 Figure 2 (a) shows the mean annual  $E/P$  versus  $PET/P$  over the 14 river basins in China. As seen, the BM (equation (4)) with



162 a fitted parameter  $\omega$  of 1.92 adequately captures the variations in long-term water and energy balances of these basins  
163 (Figure 2a). Figure 2(c) shows the comparison between the “observed” and the BM-predicted mean annual  $E$  in the 14 river  
164 basins. Results indicate that the estimated  $E$  using the Fu’s equation agrees well with observations at the long-term mean  
165 annual timescale with the correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) of 0.97 and the  $RE$  of -2.9%. In addition, the estimated mean annual  $E$   
166 under dry climates is more accurate than that under humid climates.

### 167 3.1.2 Grid scale

168 Figure 2(b) plots the mean annual  $E/P$  versus  $PET/P$  along with the distribution of NPP, while Figure 2(d) shows the  
169 comparison between observed and BM-simulated mean annual  $E$ . Both subplots include all the total 3814 grids in China. It  
170 is clear that most of grids follow the Budyko curve reasonably well with a fitted  $\omega$  of 1.97, and the aridity index increases  
171 with the decreasing NPP. The high  $r$  (~0.94, Figure 2(d)) indicates that the BM can be calibrated and simulates mean annual  
172 water balance well for most grids. Consistent with the above, it is found that the model performs more accurately in the grids  
173 with a larger aridity index (i.e. smaller NPP) than more humid grids.

## 174 3.2 Annual water balance

### 175 3.2.1 Basin scale

176 The BM is also applied to annual water balance modeling at the basin scale. The comparison of observed and BM-simulated  
177 annual  $E$  in the 14 river basins is shown in Figure 3. It demonstrates that the dynamic BM model generally produces a  
178 reasonably good fit to annual  $E$  for most of basins. The majority of arid basins with the aridity index  $> 1.0$  (e.g. Inner  
179 Mongolia, Qiangtang, Qinghai, Xinjiang, Hexi) have a high  $CE$  ranging between 0.70 and 0.97, and a small  $RE$  ranging  
180 between -0.11% and 0.58%, indicating the performance of BM is rather reliable in arid basins at the annual scale. In contrast,  
181 for humid basins with the aridity index  $< 1.0$  (e.g. Southeast Drainage and Pearl, and Yangtze), although  $RE$  is generally  
182 small, the model fails to capture the significant interannual variability of  $E$  and results in a negative  $CE$  in Southeast  
183 Drainage and Pearl River basin.

185 As  $WSC$  can play a significant role in affecting annual  $E$ , the extended BM (equation (5)), which incorporates the effect of





186 WSC is also used to model annual water balance. The improvement relative to the original BM in the simulated annual  $E$  can  
187 be observed from Figure 3 for the arid basins (with the aridity index  $> 1.0$ ): the  $CE$  ( $RE$ ) in these arid basins is ranging from  
188 0.4–0.98 (–0.17% – 0.06%). However, virtually no improvement can be seen for the humid basins (Southeast Drainage, Pearl,  
189 and Yangtze basins) in which the performance ( $CE$ ) becomes worse than the BM. Therefore, the extended BM may not  
190 provide significant improvement over the BM when applied to humid basins at the annual scale.

### 191 3.2.2 Grid scale

192 Similar to the basin scale, the BM for annual water balance modeling is applied to the 3814 grids over the entire China  
193 (Figure 4). As seen from Figure 4a, there are 81%, 63.7% and 37.3% of grids with  $CE$  greater than 0, 0.5, and 0.8,  
194 respectively. The  $RE$  for all grids ranges between –16.1% and 8.2% (Figure 4b). For the grids with the aridity index  $\leq 3$ ,  $CE$   
195 is considerably small under humid conditions and increases rapidly toward nearly 1.0 with the increasing aridity index  
196 (Figure 4c). Similarly,  $RE$  is relatively large (small) under the humid (extremely dry) conditions (Figure 4e). Figure 4g  
197 compares the observed and simulated interannual variability of  $E$  (as quantified by the standard deviation of annual  $E$ ) for  
198 the 3814 grids with the mean annual aridity index also given in the color bar. All the grids have the interannual variability of  
199  $E$  less than 120 mm. The correlation coefficient between observed and simulated interannual variability of  $E$  for all grids is  
200 0.819, but the simulated  $E$  interannual variability is generally higher than observations (Figure 4g). Although performing  
201 well for most grids in dry regions, the BM performs rather poorly for a large portion of grids in humid regions mainly due to  
202 the impacts of interannual variability of WSC which have not been included in the BM.

203  
204 The validation of the extended BM against the observed  $E$  (red line in Figure 4a) indicates that 83.5%, 70.1% and 48.1% of  
205 grids with the  $CE > 0, 0.5$  and 0.8, respectively. The  $RE$  ranges between –16.1% to 6.9% (Figure 4b) rather close to the  
206 performance of BM. The correlation coefficient between observed and simulated interannual variability of  $E$  is 0.835,  
207 slightly larger than 0.819 of the BM. However, the overestimated interannual variability of  $E$  in BM in humid grids is  
208 significantly improved by the extended BM (Figure 4h). Overall the extended BM provides potential improvements of  
209 annual water balance at the grid scale mainly in correcting the overestimated interannual variability of  $E$ , but the  
210 improvement is limited for the grids with the underestimated interannual variability (Figures 4g and 4h).



### 211 3.3 Seasonal water balance

#### 212 3.3.1 Basin scale

213 Following the definition of the wet- and dry-season (equations (2) and (3)), the wet and dry seasonal  $PET/P$ ,  $PET/P_e$ ,  $E/P$ ,  
214 and  $E/P_e$  are calculated respectively in each basin. For some extremely humid (arid) basins, the mean monthly aridity indices  
215 can be all smaller (larger) than 1.0 for all twelve months so that there is only wet (dry) season without any dry (wet) season.  
216 Figure 5 shows the validation of the BM and extended BM against observed  $E$  at the dry seasonal scale for all 13 basins  
217 except the Southeast Drainage basin which does not have any dry season. As seen, the BM performs poorly in capturing the  
218 peaks and troughs of  $E$  in the Pearl, Yangtze, Southwest Drainage and Huaihe basins, with the  $CE$  all below 0.4. For the  
219 other 9 less humid basins in Figure 5, the simulated  $E$  by the BM agrees well with observed  $E$  with the  $CE$  ( $RE$ ) ranging  
220 from 0.52 to 0.97 (0.02% and 0.24%). Significant improvements in the extended BM simulations are found for all basins,  
221 particularly notable in the Pearl, Southwest Drainage, Huaihe and Liaohe basins. The  $CE$  of the extended BM ranges  
222 between 0.44–0.98, and there are seven out of 13 basins with  $CE > 0.9$ , indicating that the extended BM simulation is  
223 generally accurate in the dry seasonal scale.

224  
225 The validations of the BM and extended BM against observed  $E$  in the wet seasonal scale are shown in Figure 6 for the only  
226 8 out of the 14 basins with the wet season. As seen, the BM is unable to simulate  $E$  accurately with all  $CE$  less than 0.5.  
227 Similar to that found in the BM simulation, the extended BM simulations still show large discrepancy in reproducing the  
228 observed interannual variability of  $E$  at the wet seasonal scale. Particularly for the Huaihe basin, both the BM and the  
229 extended BM significantly underestimate the long-term mean  $E$ , with the  $RE$   $-10.93\%$  and  $-10.33\%$  respectively. The  
230 simulated  $E$  cannot well capture the sharp rises and falls of interannual variability of  $E$ , likely due to the strong variability of  
231 water balance at the wet seasonal scale.

#### 232 3.3.2 Grid scale

233 Similar to the basin scale, the  $PET/P$ ,  $PET/P_e$ ,  $E/P$  and  $E/P_e$  are calculated separately for wet- and dry-season at the grid  
234 scale. The validation of the BM and extended BM against observed  $E$  in dry season for the selected grids is shown in Figure  
235 7. There are 3538 out of the total 3814 grids (92.8%) with dry season identified within twelve months. For the performance



236 of BM, the  $CE$  is larger than 0, 0.5 and 0.8 for 83.1%, 64.5% and 39.9% of grids, respectively. The  $CE$  is small in humid  
237 grids and increases as the aridity index increases. When moving toward increasingly drier climates, the  $CE$  gradually  
238 becomes insensitive to the aridity index ( $> 20$ ) and approaches to the upper limit of 1.0. Strong correlation ( $\sim 0.94$ ) is found  
239 between the observed and simulated interannual variability of  $E$  in dry season (Figure 7g). However, the BM tends to  
240 overestimate the interannual variability of  $E$  particularly for the humid basins with the  $RE$  as large as 124.3% (Figure 7e).  
241 The results suggest that the BM is more applicable to arid than humid climates, similar to that found in analyzing annual  
242 water balance. The validation of the extended BM performance against observed  $E$  indicates a significant improvement over  
243 the BM. There are more than 96.3%, 85.4%, and 60% of grids with  $CE > 0$ , 0.5 and 0.8, respectively. The  $RE$  in humid  
244 climates is reduced from  $>100\%$  in BM to only about 10–20% in the extended BM (Figure 7f), also the overestimated  
245 variability of simulated  $E$  in humid climates is largely corrected by the extended BM (Figure 7h) to achieve excellent  
246 performance in water balance modeling in dry season.

247  
248 The validation of the BM and extended BM against observed  $E$  in the wet season at the grid scale is shown in Figure 8.  
249 There are in total 1982 out of 3814 grids (52%) with the wet season identified within twelve months. For these 1982 grids,  
250 the  $CE$  of the BM simulation are all  $< 0.73$ , and only 41.3% of grids with  $CE > 0$ . The  $RE$  of the BM simulation is negative  
251 for 83.4% of grids, and it tends to perform even worse in more arid climates (Figure 8e). Based on these results, it can be  
252 concluded that the BM performance is not satisfactory in the wet season at the grid scale, similar to that found at the basin  
253 scale. The performance of the extended BM in the wet season is similarly poor as the BM for most grids. Therefore, more  
254 sophisticated water balance models with the capability of simulating important mechanisms in wet season are required to  
255 model the interannual variability of water balance more accurately for all basins and grids under diverse climates.

## 256 **3.4 Monthly water balance**

### 257 **3.4.1 Basin scale**

258 The BM and the extended BM are applied to model monthly water balance for the 14 river basins. The comparisons between  
259 the observed and simulated monthly  $E$  from both models are presented in Figure 9. Overall, the BM performs well in all  
260 basins with the  $RE$  ( $CE$ ) between  $-16.6\%$  and  $9.5\%$  (0.69 and 0.98). However, the BM tends to underestimate the peaks of  $E$



261 in some basins (Southeast Drainage, Pearl, Yangtze, Southwest Drainage and Huaihe). In contrast, the extended BM  
262 performs poorly for most basins (particularly in humid basins), with 8 out of 14 basins having  $CE$  lower than the BM and 11  
263 out of 14 basins having the absolute value of  $RE$  larger than the BM. Improvements caused by using the extended BM can  
264 only be found in several dry basins (e.g., Qinghai, Xinjiang, and Hexi).

### 265 3.4.2 Grid scale

266 The validation of the BM and the extended BM against observed  $E$  at the monthly scale is presented in Figure 10. For the  
267 BM, there are 97.1% and 57.2% of the 3814 grids with the  $CE > 0$  and 0.8, respectively. For the extended BM, almost all the  
268 grids have  $CE > 0$  and 68.1 % of grids have  $CE > 0.8$ . The  $RE$  in the BM (the extended BM) ranges between  $-40.8\%$  and  
269  $449.5\%$  ( $-49.6\%$  and  $72.2\%$ ). The BM tends to be more accurate in arid climates, consistent with the findings at the annual  
270 and seasonal timescales. However, the extended BM performs poorly in arid climates, significantly underestimating the  
271 intra-annual variability of  $E$  in humid climates (Figure 10h). Comparisons between Figure 10c and 10d reveal that the BM  
272 performs better performance (with larger  $CE$ ) than the extended BM mainly in the grids with the aridity index  $> 20$ , while  
273 the extended BM performs better than BM mainly in the grids with a smaller aridity index ( $< 10$ ).

## 274 4. Discussion

### 275 4.1 The role of water storage change ( $WSC$ ) in water balance modeling

276 In general, the influence of  $WSC$  is more significant in the annual and smaller timescales (Wu et al., 2017), and this has been  
277 recognized to have an impact on the water balance modeling of BM (Zhang et al., 2008; Donohue et al., 2010; Chen et al.,  
278 2013). Figure 11 plots the mean variability (i.e. standard deviation) of the modeling errors of BM (the simulated minus the  
279 observed  $E$ ) versus the mean variability (i.e. standard deviation) of  $WSC$  from the annual, dry season, wet season and  
280 monthly timescales. As seen, both the variability of the modeling errors in  $E$  and the variability of  $WSC$  are larger under  
281 more humid climates. The variability of modeling errors in  $E$  shows a strong positive correlation (ranging from 0.6 to 0.8)  
282 with that of  $WSC$  for all the four timescales examined. In addition, the correlation tends to be stronger in dry season (Figure  
283 11b) than in wet season (Figure 11c).

284



285 Figure 12 shows the relations between  $CE$  and  $\sigma_{WSC}/\sigma_E$  (the ratio between the standard deviations of observed  $WSC$  and  $E$ ) at  
286 four different timescales. As shown,  $WSC$  is significant on the variability of water balance at annual and smaller timescales  
287 (particularly at the seasonal timescale) and the variability of  $WSC$  tends to be more significant than that of  $E$  in humid  
288 climates. The correlation coefficients of  $CE$  and  $\sigma_{WSC}/\sigma_E$  range between  $-0.67$  and  $-0.44$  at four timescales, indicating that a  
289 larger  $\sigma_{WSC}/\sigma_E$  would lead to low accuracy in the BM simulations particularly in humid climates. These results suggest that  
290 the BM is not suitable for water balance modeling in humid climates at the smaller timescales when the temporal variability  
291 of  $WSC$  is significant.

#### 292 4.2 Primary controlling factors in the modeling errors of BM in humid climates

293 As mentioned before, the BM performs poorly in humid climates with large modeling errors over the long-term mean annual,  
294 annual, seasonal, and monthly timescales. In humid climates, the partitioning of  $P$  into  $E$  and runoff is mainly controlled by  
295  $PET$ , which is commonly termed as the energy-limited condition (Zhang et al., 2004, 2008; Yang et al., 2009, Zeng and Cai,  
296 2015). Therefore, the performance of the BM in modeling  $E$  should be dependent on both  $PET$  and  $E$  under the  
297 energy-limited condition.

298  
299 According to McVicar et al. (2012), the climate conditions can be classified into three cases: the energy-limited areas (mean  
300 annual aridity index  $< 0.76$ ), the ‘equitant’ areas ( $0.76 < \text{mean annual aridity index} < 1.35$ ), and the water-limited areas  
301 (mean annual aridity index  $> 1.35$ ). In this study, a total of 622 grids categorized as the energy-limited condition with mean  
302 annual aridity index  $< 0.76$  are identified from the total 3814 grids in China. The  $RE$  of the BM simulations for each of the  
303 622 grids at mean annual, annual, seasonal, and monthly timescales are compared with the mean ratio of  $PET/E$  in Figure 13.  
304 As seen, the mean  $RE$  is generally smaller than zero at all mean annual, annual, seasonal, and monthly timescales when the  
305 mean  $PET/E < 1.5$ . It is clear that the mean  $RE$  is positively correlated with the mean  $PET/E$ , particularly at the mean annual  
306 scale with a large correlation coefficient of 0.976. The pattern of the scatterplot at the annual scale is similar to that at the wet  
307 seasonal scale. When the mean  $PET/E < 1.5$ , the mean  $RE$  is sensitive to the mean  $PET/E$ . However, when the mean  $PET/E >$   
308 1.5, the mean  $RE$  becomes insensitive to the mean  $PET/E$  and falls within a narrow range fluctuating around zero. As the  
309 timescale decreases to the month scale, the mean  $RE$  tends to become large with the increasing mean  $PET/E$  when the mean



310  $PET/E > 1.5$ . Overall the mean  $RE$  is strongly correlated with the mean  $PET/E$  at the monthly timescale, and this is likely  
311 due to the in-phase seasonality between  $PET$  and  $E$  under the energy-limited condition. The results suggest that the  $PET/E$   
312 (especially for the condition  $PET/E < 1.5$ ) can be one of the main factors controlling the errors of the BM simulation under  
313 the energy-limited condition.

## 314 **5 Summary and future work**

315 On the basis of a long-term (1960–2008) land surface hydrologic data, this paper presents a systematic examination of the  
316 applicability of the Budyko framework at four temporal scales (long-term mean annual, annual, seasonal, and monthly)  
317 under a wide variety of climatic conditions in China. The original Budyko model and the extended Budyko model (which  
318 incorporates the effect of  $WSC$  by using the effective precipitation  $P-WSC$  to replace  $P$ ) are validated at both the 14 river  
319 basins and the total 3814  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$  grid scales for the entire China. The role of  $WSC$  in modeling water balance and the  
320 dominant climate factors controlling the modeling errors of  $E$  by the original Budyko model are emphasized.

321  
322 At the long-term mean annual scale which the effect of  $WSC$  is negligible, the Budyko model generally performs well in  
323 terms of simulated  $E$ , and the performance in arid climates is better than that in humid climates. The effect of  $WSC$  becomes  
324 significant in modeling  $E$  at the smaller temporal scales particularly in humid climates. Under such circumstances, the  
325 original BM is generally accurate for modeling water balance under arid climates, but it fails to capture the dominant  
326 controls of  $WSC$  on water balance partitioning under humid climates. Overall the accuracy of the original Budyko model can  
327 be ranked from high to low as follows: dry seasonal, annual, monthly, and wet seasonal scales. As the effective precipitation  
328 is used as a substitute for precipitation in the extended Budyko model, an improvement of water balance modeling can be  
329 found in arid climates, but to a much lesser extent in humid climates. The performance of the extended Budyko model is  
330 generally better than the original Budyko model at the dry seasonal timescale, but tends to be worse at both the wet seasonal  
331 and monthly timescales. More sophisticated models explicitly accounting for the effect of  $WSC$  are required to improve  
332 water balance modeling particularly in humid climates and at smaller timescales.

333  
334 The  $WSC$  and the modeling errors in  $E$  both show larger temporal variability in humid climates. The temporal variability of



335 modeling errors in  $E$  shows a strong positive correlation with that of  $WSC$  at all annual, seasonal and monthly timescales (the  
336 correlation coefficient between 0.6–0.8, Figure 11). The accuracy of the Budyko model simulations decrease with the  
337 increased ratio between the standard deviations of  $WSC$  and  $E$  particularly in humid climates. In addition, under the  
338 energy-limited condition (mainly in humid climates), the mean relative errors of the Budyko model show a strong positive  
339 correlation with the mean ratio of  $PET/E$  at the long-term mean annual timescale. However, at the annual and seasonal  
340 timescales, the mean relative errors are sensitive to the mean ratio of  $PET/E$  only under the condition  $PET/E < 1.5$ . Future  
341 research will be focused on the identification and quantifications of controlling factors in the modeling errors of the Budyko  
342 model from the arid to humid climates over variable timescales, particularly when  $PET/E$  is greater than 1.5.

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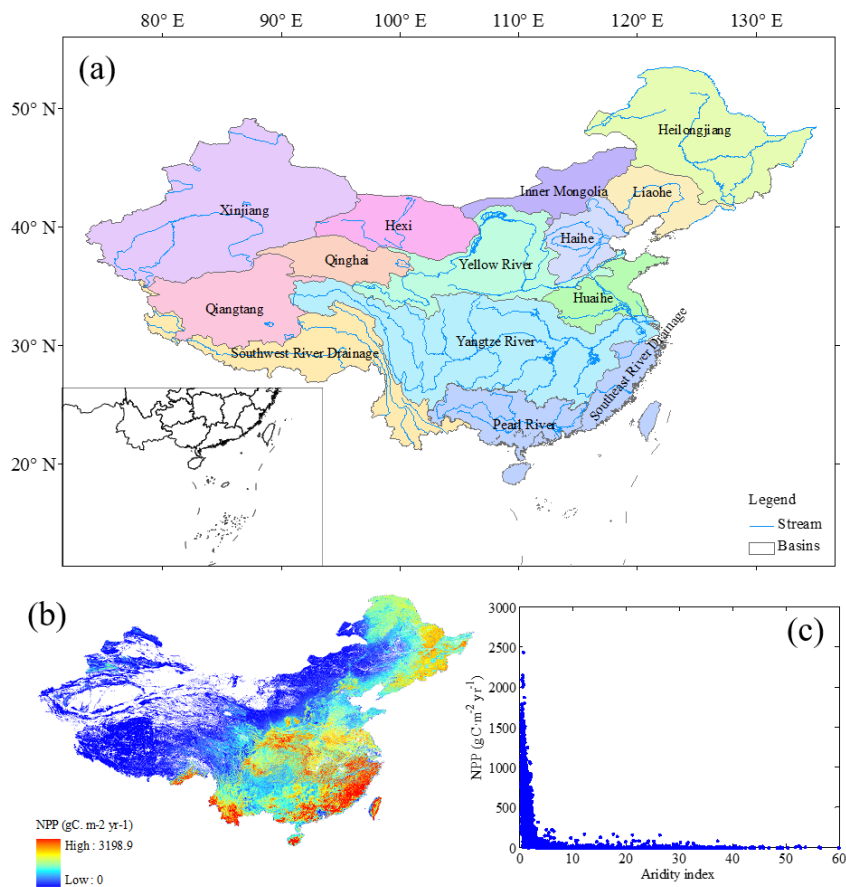


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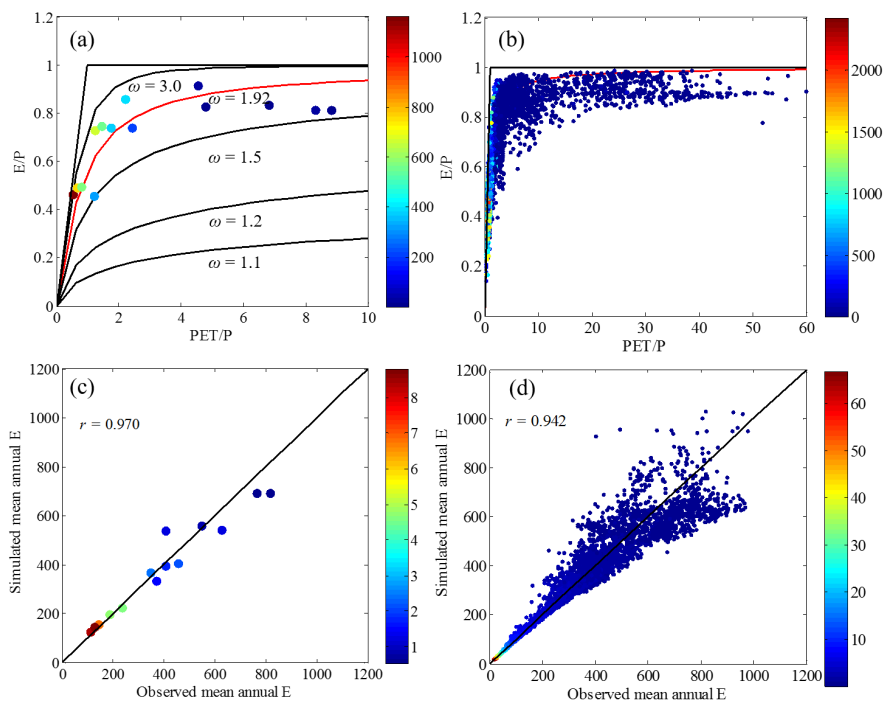


**Table 1.** Basin characteristics and long-term (1960–2008) mean water balances in the 14 river basins. *P*: precipitation, *PET*: potential evapotranspiration, *E*: evapotranspiration, *R*: streamflow, *WSC*: water storage change, *PET/P*: climate aridity index, *E/P*: evaporative efficiency

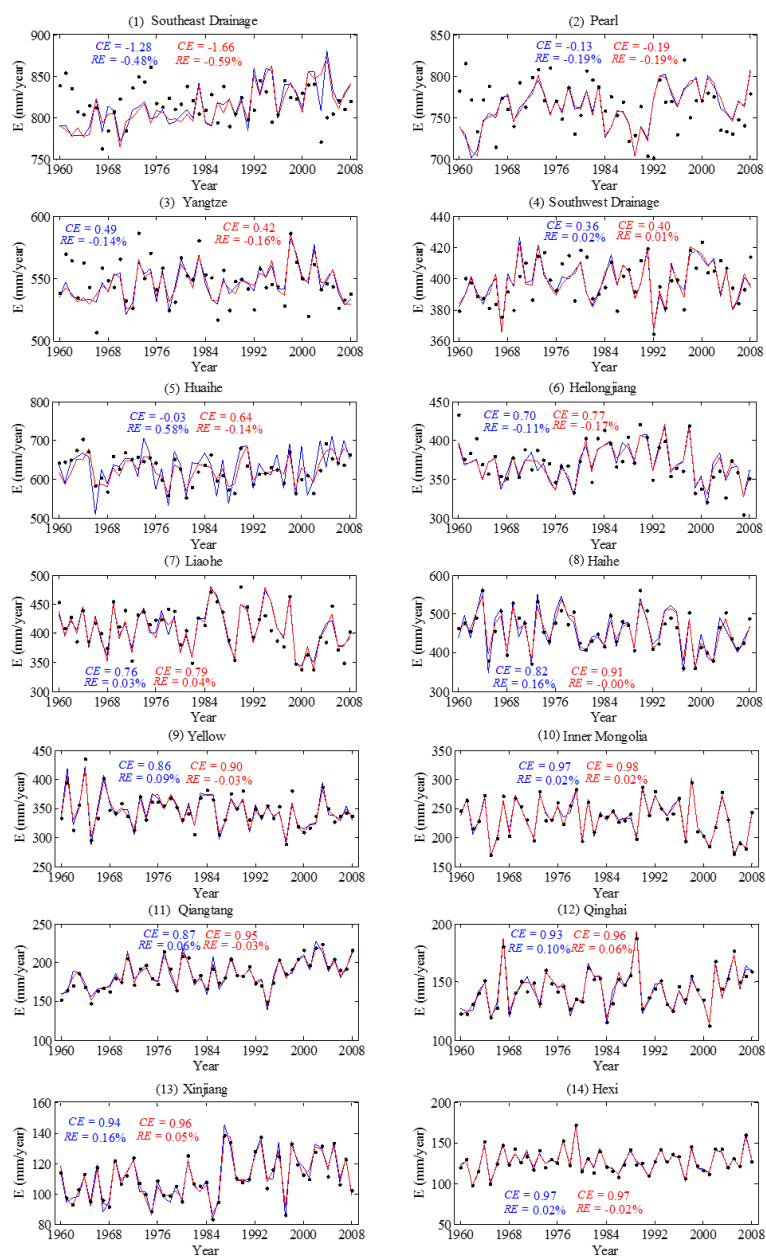
Climate type	Basin No.	Basins	<i>PET/P</i>	<i>E/P</i>	<i>P</i> (mm/year)	<i>PET</i> (mm/year)	<i>E</i> (mm/year)	<i>R</i> (mm/year)	<i>WSC</i> (mm/year)
Humid climates	1	Southeast Drainage	0.52	0.46	1790.1	936.6	817.6	973.8	-1.3
	2	Pearl	0.64	0.49	1568.1	1010.0	764.3	803.9	-0.1
	3	Yangtze	0.81	0.49	1108.3	893.1	547.0	560.9	0.4
Dry climates	4	Southwest Drainage	1.19	0.45	876.2	1040.8	398.0	471.3	6.9
	5	Huaihe	1.19	0.72	874.3	1037.7	626.2	247.5	0.6
	6	Heilongjiang	1.43	0.74	499.4	716.0	370.7	128.9	-0.2
	7	Liaohe	1.71	0.73	556.1	953.4	407.9	148.6	-0.4
	8	Haihe	2.14	0.85	535.2	1143.0	455.6	80.8	-1.2
	9	Yellow	2.38	0.74	471.0	1120.7	346.8	124.2	0.0
	10	Inner Mongolia	4.41	0.91	256.6	1132.4	233.8	22.8	0.0
	11	Qiangtang	4.70	0.82	224.9	1057.0	185.4	39.6	-0.1
	12	Qinghai	6.68	0.83	172.4	1152.2	143.5	30.7	-1.8
	13	Xinjiang	8.09	0.81	136.2	1101.7	110.4	26.9	-1.1
	14	Hexi	8.63	0.81	157.8	1362.4	128.1	31.2	-1.5



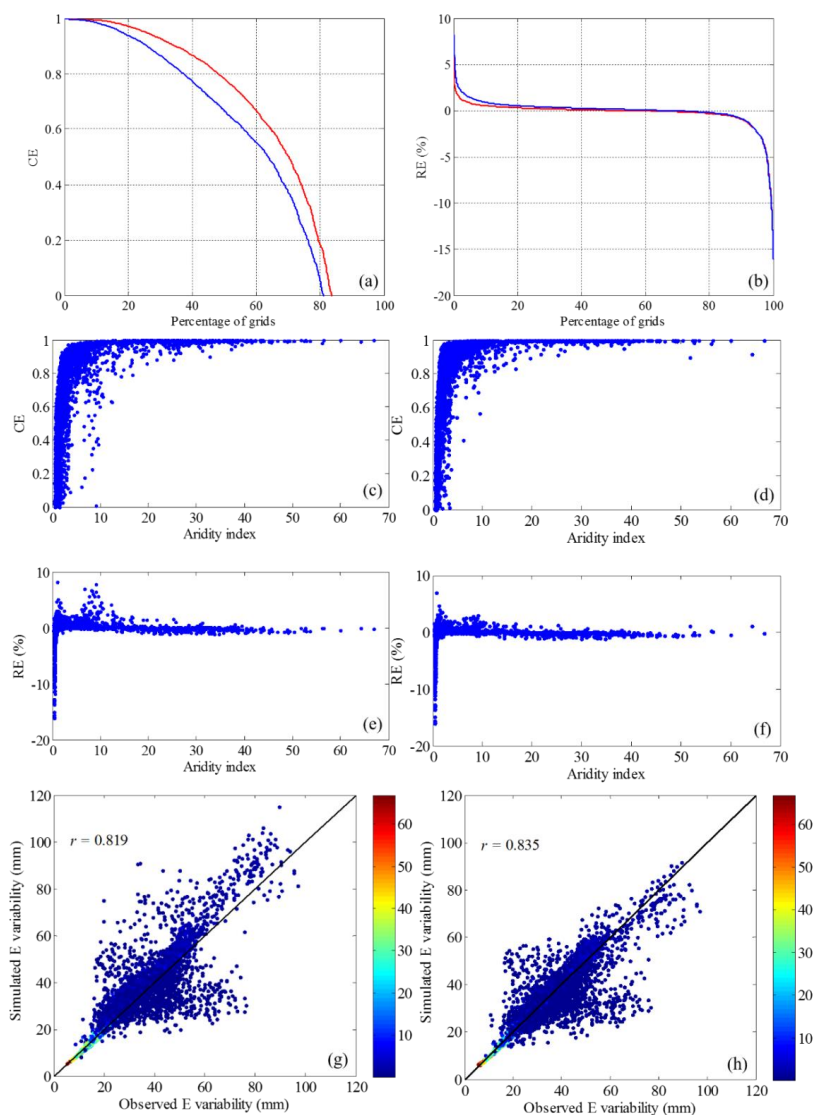
**Figure 1.** (a) Location of the 14 river basins in China, (b) the spatial distribution of the NPP over China, and (c) the relationship between the NPP and the aridity index for the 3814 grids over China.



**Figure 2.** The mean annual evaporation ratios as a function of the mean annual aridity indices for (a) the 14 river basins and (b) the 3814 grids over China with the color bar of NPP ( $\text{gC} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{yr}^{-1}$ ) for the 14 river basins and 3814 grids. The comparison of observed and simulated mean annual  $E$  for (c) the 14 river basins and (d) the 3814 grids over China with the color bar of the mean annual aridity index for the 14 river basins and 3814 grids. The red-lines in subplots (a) and (b) are fit by using the long-term mean data points of the 14 basins and 3814 grids, respectively.

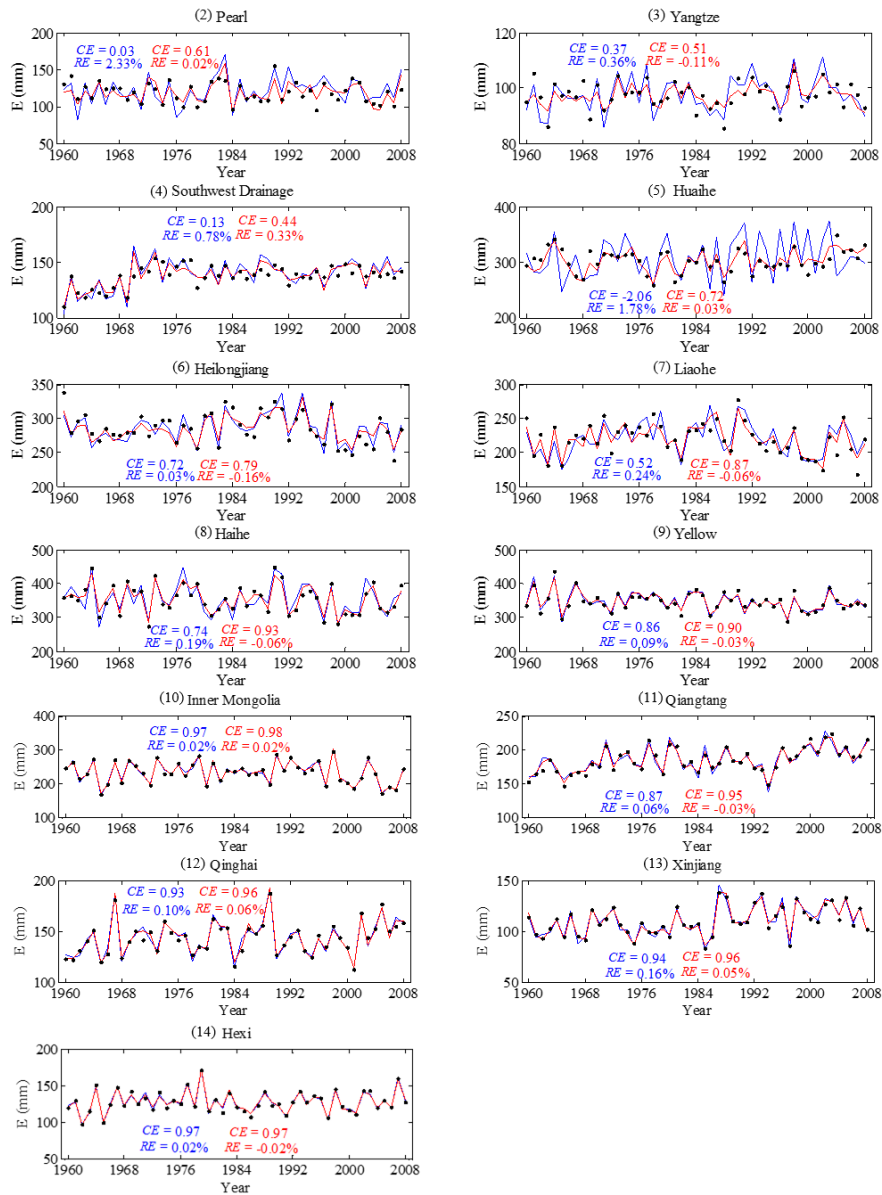


**Figure 3.** Comparison of annual time series of observed  $E$  (black dots) with that predicted by the BM (blue line) and that predicted by the extended BM (red line) for each of the 14 basins. The number in the parentheses is consistent with that given in Table 1.

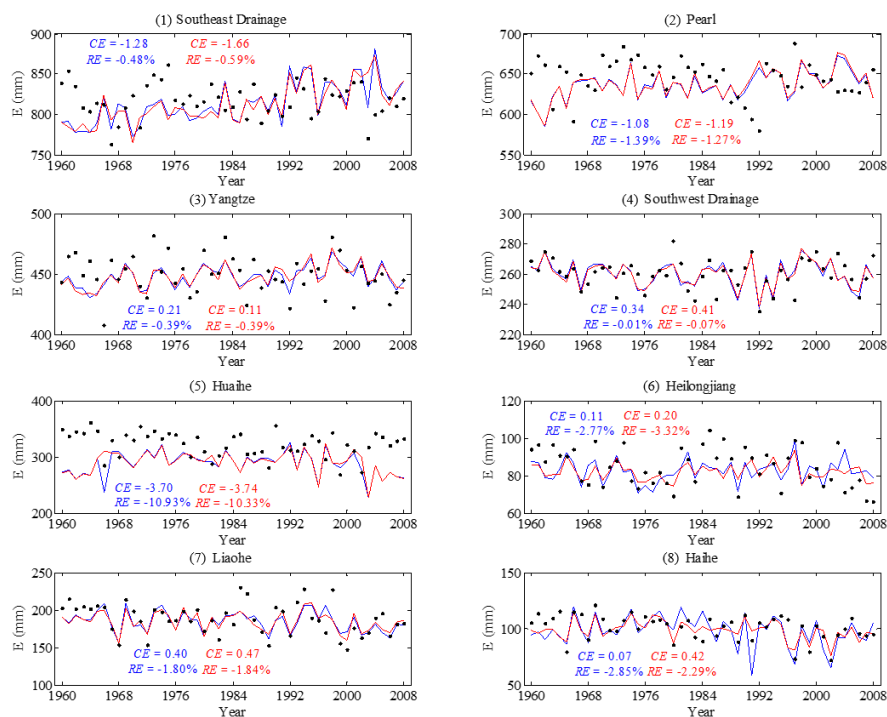


**Figure 4.** Model validation at the annual timescale: (a) the cumulative distribution of the percentage of grids with the  $CE$  larger than or equal to a specific value for the BM (blue line) and the extended BM (red line); (b) same as (a), but for  $RE$ . The relationship between  $CE$  and the aridity index for (c) the BM and (d) the extended BM for the total 3814 grids over China. The relationship between  $RE$  and aridity index for (e) the BM and (f) the extended BM. Comparison of observed and simulated  $E$  variability for (g) the BM and (h) the extended BM. The color bar indicates the mean annual aridity index for the total 3814 grids over China.

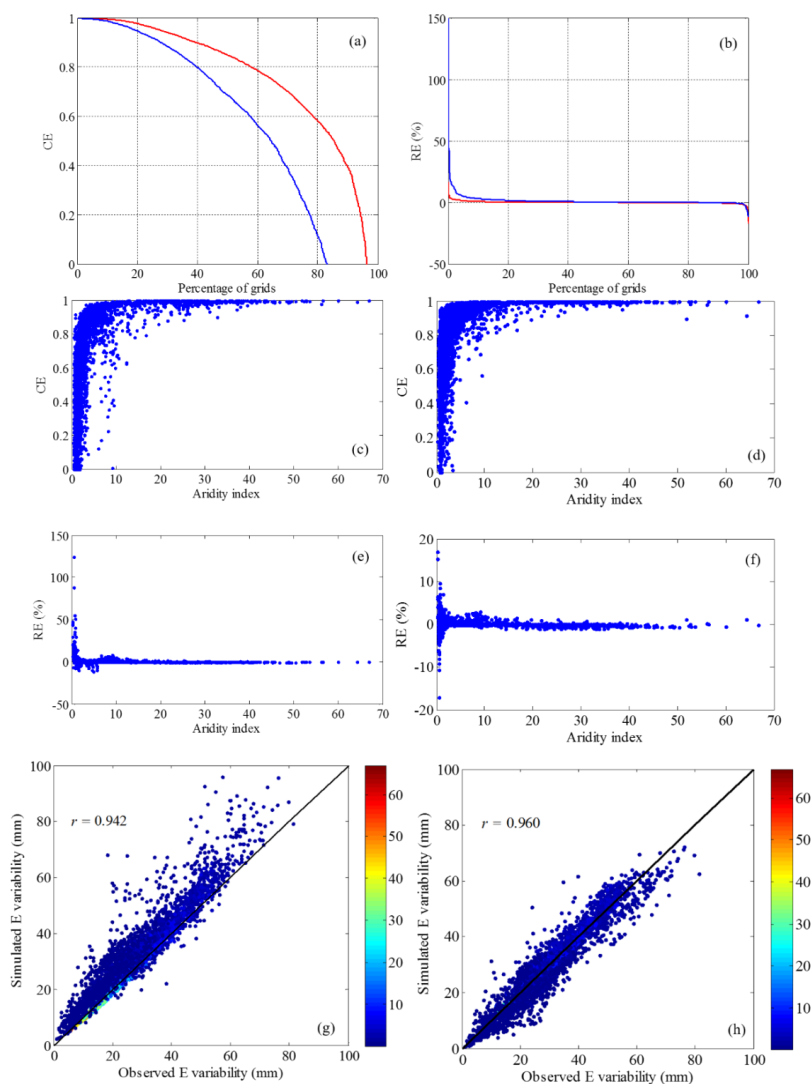




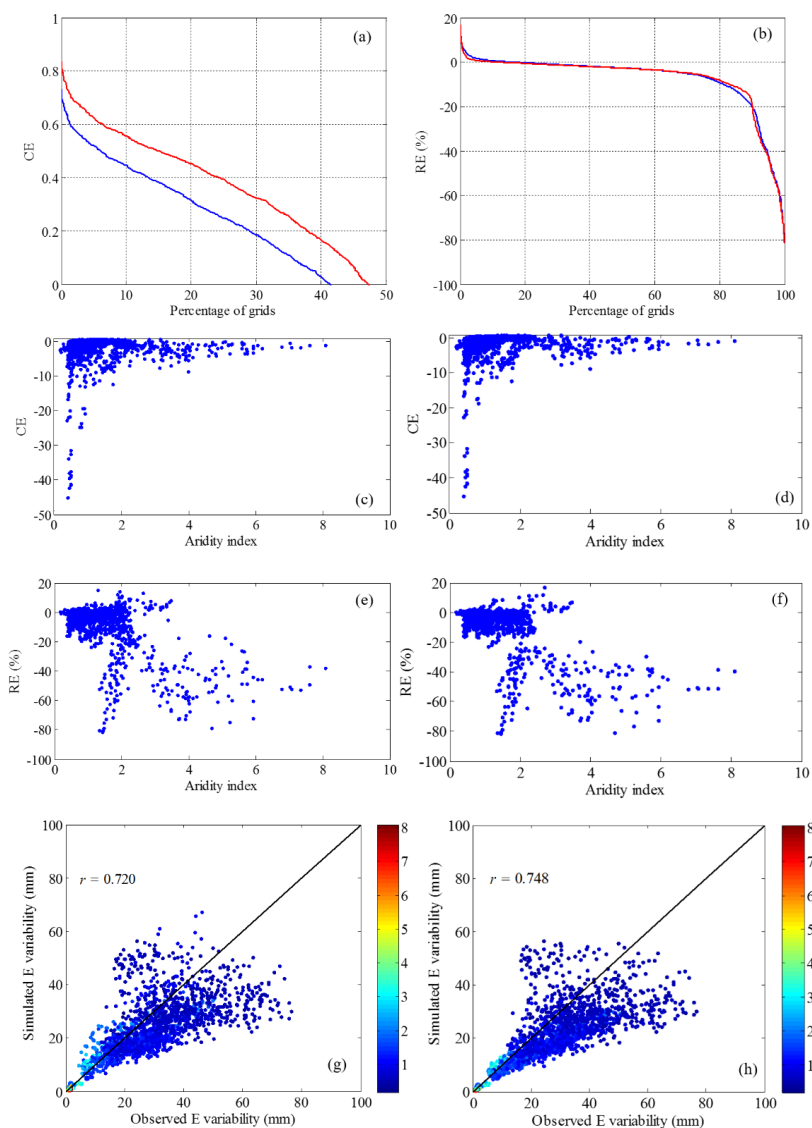
**Figure 5.** Comparison of dry season time series of observed  $E$  (black dots) with that predicted by the BM (blue line) and that predicted by the extended BM (red line) for each of the 13 basins. The number in the parentheses is consistent with that given in Table 1.



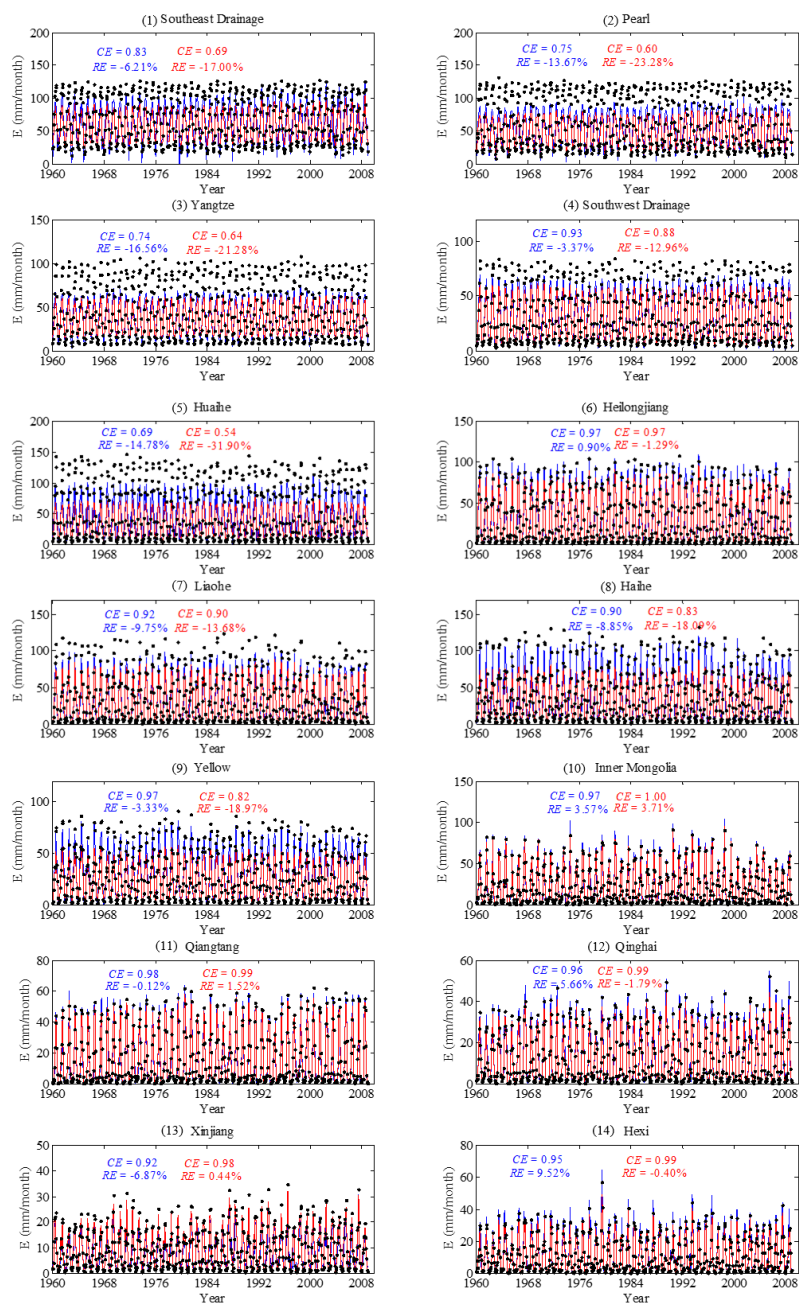
**Figure 6.** Comparison of wet season time series of observed  $E$  (black dots) with that predicted by the BM (blue line) and that predicted by the extended BM (red line) for each of the 8 basins. The number in the parentheses is consistent with that given in Table 1.



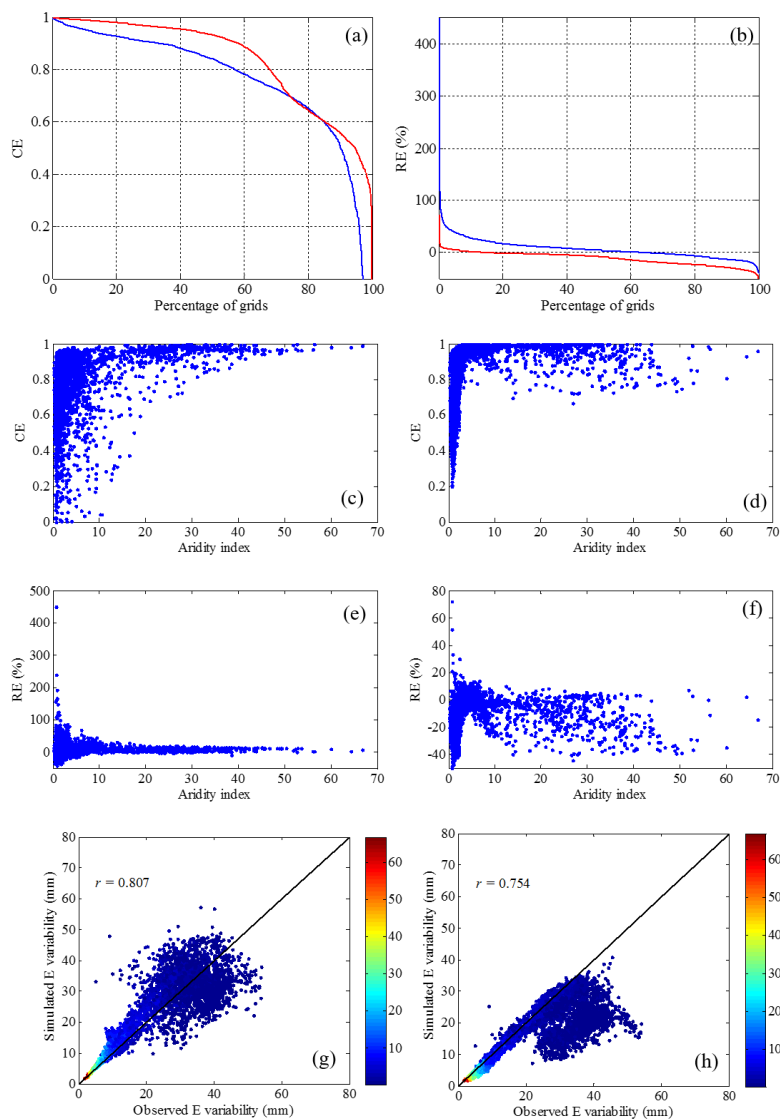
**Figure 7.** Model validation at the dry seasonal timescale: (a) the cumulative distribution of the percentage of grids with the  $CE$  larger than or equal to a specific value for the BM (blue line) and the extended BM (red line); (b) same as (a), but for  $RE$ . The relationship between  $CE$  and the aridity index for (c) the BM and (d) the extended BM for the total 3538 grids over China identified with the dry season. The relationship between  $RE$  and aridity index for (e) the BM and (f) the extended BM. Comparison of observed and simulated  $E$  variability for (g) the BM and (h) the extended BM. The color bar indicates the mean annual aridity index for the total 3538 grids over China.



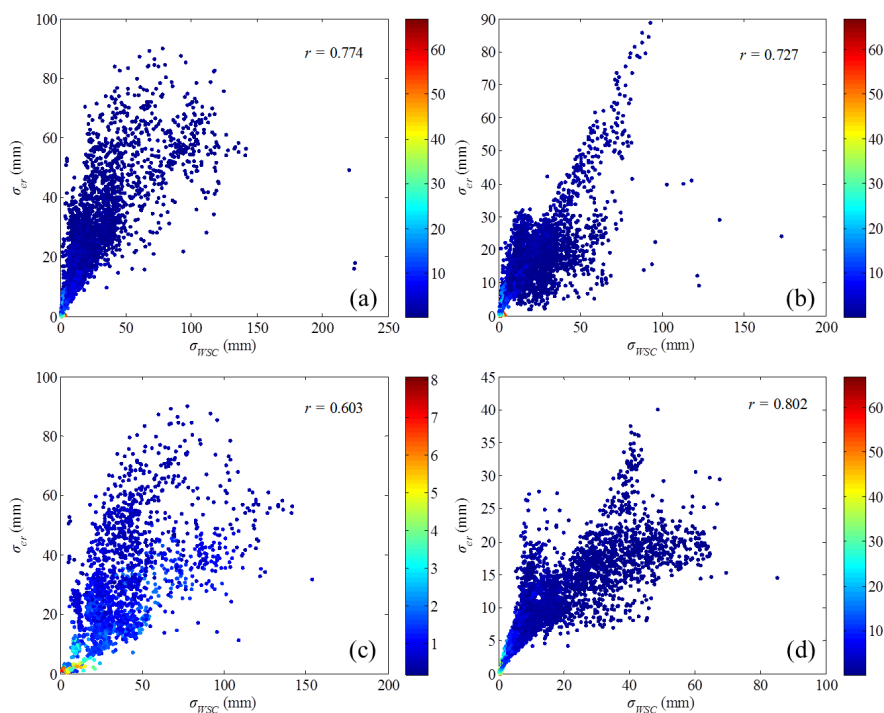
**Figure 8.** Model validation at the wet seasonal timescale: (a) the cumulative distribution of the percentage of grids with the *CE* larger than or equal to a specific value for the BM (blue line) and the extended BM (red line); (b) same as (a), but for *RE*. The relationship between *CE* and the aridity index for (c) the BM and (d) the extended BM for the total 1982 grids over China identified with the wet season. The relationship between *RE* and aridity index for (e) the BM and (f) the extended BM. Comparison of observed and simulated *E* variability for (g) the BM and (h) the extended BM. The color bar indicates the mean annual aridity index for the total 1982 grids over China.



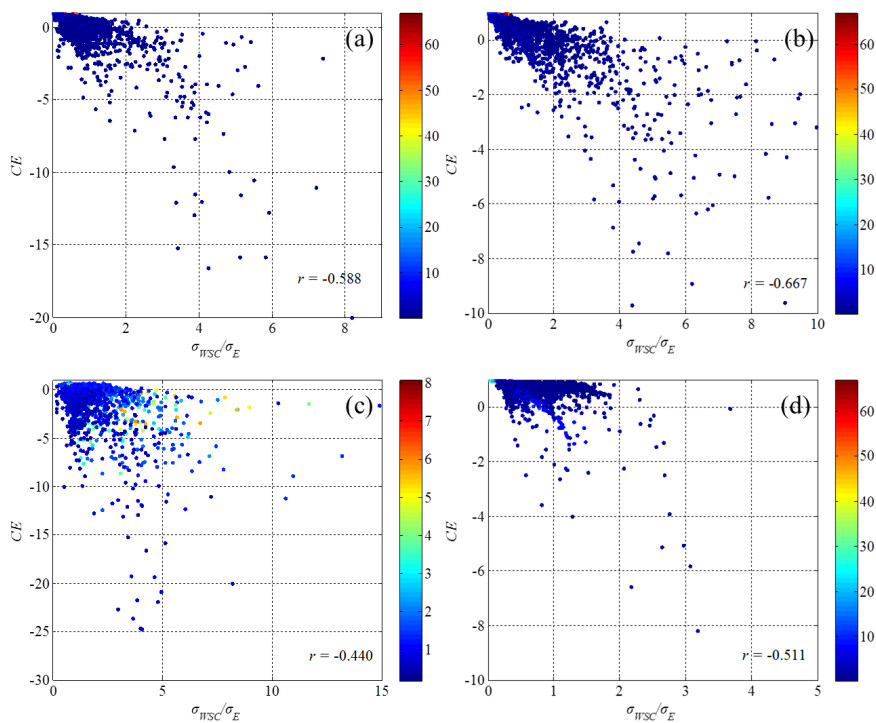
**Figure 9.** Comparison of monthly time series of observed  $E$  (black dots) with that predicted by the BM (blue line) and that predicted by the extended BM (red line) for each of the 14 basins. The number in the parentheses is consistent with that given in Table 1.



**Figure 10.** Model validation at the monthly timescale: (a) the cumulative distribution of the percentage of grids with the *CE* larger than or equal to a specific value for the BM (blue line) and the extended BM (red line); (b) same as (a), but for *RE*. The relationship between *CE* and the aridity index for (c) the BM and (d) the extended BM for the total 3814 grids over China. The relationship between *RE* and aridity index for (e) the BM and (f) the extended BM. Comparison of observed and simulated *E* variability for (g) the BM and (h) the extended BM. The color bar indicates the mean annual aridity index for the total 3814 grids over China.

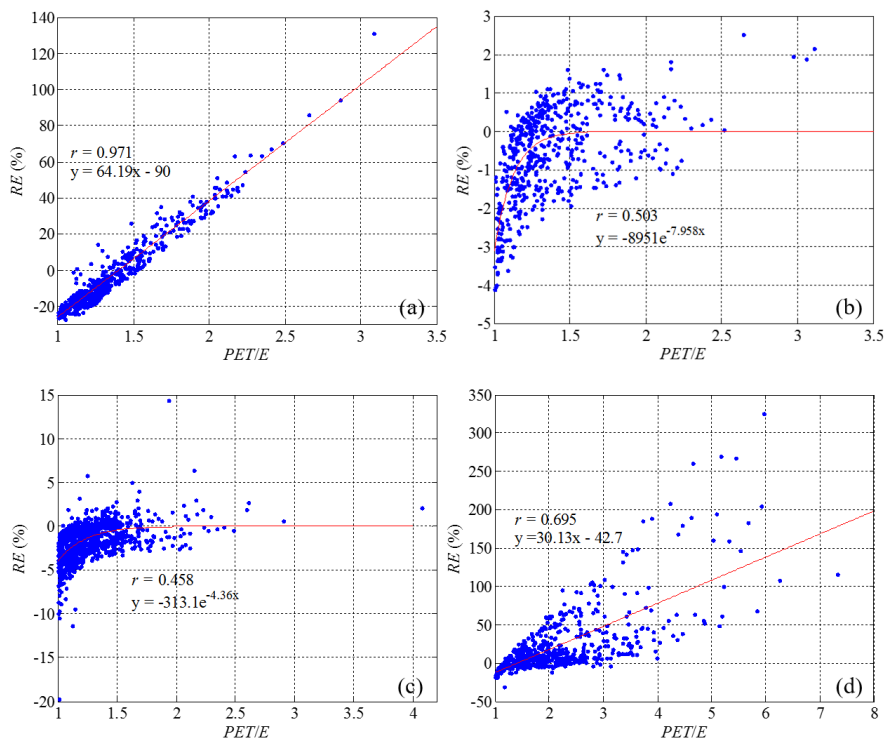


**Figure 11.** The temporal variability (i.e., standard deviation) of the modeling errors in  $E$  (i.e., the simulated  $E$  of the BM minus the observed  $E$ ) versus that of  $WSC$  at the (a) annual, (b) dry season, (c) wet season, and (d) monthly timescales. The color bar indicates the mean annual aridity index of the selected grids.



**Figure 12.** The ratio of the standard deviation of WSC to that of E versus the CE of the BM simulations at the (a) annual, (b) dry season, (c) wet season, and (d) monthly timescales. The color bar indicates the mean annual aridity index of the selected grids.





**Figure 13.** The relationship between the mean RE of E and the mean ratio of PET/E for the 622 grids under the energy-limited condition with (a) mean annual, (b) annual, (c) wet seasonal, and (d) monthly timescales.