



Carbon–Water Flux Coupling Characteristics and Driving Factors at Multi-temporal Scales in an Alpine Meadow Ecosystem on the Tibetan Plateau

Yerong Gao^{1, 2, 3}, Suosuo Li^{1, 2}, Haipeng Yu¹, Shaoying Wang¹, Yongjie Pan^{1, 2},
5 Zongming Li^{1, 2, 3}

¹Northwest Institute of Ecological Environment and Resources, Chinese Academy of Sciences/ Key Laboratory of Cryospheric Science and Frozen Soil Engineering, Lanzhou, 730000, Gansu, China

²Comprehensive Observation and Research Station for Qinghai Lake, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Gangcha, 812300, Qinhai, China

10 ³University of Chinese Academy of Science, Beijing, 100049, China

Correspondence to: Suosuo Li (liss@lzb.ac.cn)

Abstract. Alpine meadow ecosystems play a crucial role in the global carbon and water cycles, with water use efficiency (WUE) serving as a key indicator of carbon–water coupling. Investigating the characteristics of carbon and water fluxes and WUE in alpine meadows on the Tibetan Plateau (TP) is
15 essential for accurately assessing carbon budget, water cycling, and carbon–water interactions under climate change. This study utilized eddy covariance observations from 2012 to 2017 in an alpine meadow of the eastern TP to analyze the temporal dynamics of carbon fluxes (net ecosystem carbon exchange, NEE; ecosystem respiration, Re; gross primary productivity, GPP), water flux (evapotranspiration, ET), and WUE across daily, monthly to seasonal, and inter-annual timescales. Ridge regression was applied
20 to identify the main drivers of carbon and water fluxes and WUE at different time-scale. The results indicate that: (1) the alpine meadow acted as a carbon sink, with a multi-year average NEE of 109.7 gC m⁻²y⁻¹, and carbon and water fluxes as well as WUE exhibited pronounced temporal variations across daily, monthly to seasonal, and inter-annual timescales; (2) daily and monthly to seasonal variations of carbon fluxes were primarily driven by soil temperature (Ts), while ET was mainly controlled by
25 radiation. At the inter-annual timescale, precipitation (PRE) and leaf area index (LAI) were the dominant factors influencing carbon and water fluxes; (3) Ts regulated WUE at daily, monthly to seasonal scales, whereas PRE was the key factor controlling carbon–water coupling at the inter-annual timescale. These findings enhance our understanding of the coupling characteristics and driving mechanisms of carbon



and water fluxes in alpine meadows, providing a scientific basis for predicting the responses of grassland
30 ecosystems on the TP to future climate change.

Key Words: Tibetan Plateau, Alpine meadow ecosystem, Carbon and water fluxes, Water use efficiency
(WUE), Environmental drivers

1 Introduction

The carbon and water cycles of terrestrial ecosystems are two fundamental biogeochemical processes at
35 the land surface and serve as key pathways for energy transfer and water movement (Baldocchi et al.,
2004; Luo, 2007; Melillo et al., 2017; IPCC, 2023). Under the ongoing context of global warming, these
cycles exert significant impacts on regional and global climate (Zhou et al., 2004). Carbon and water
cycles are closely linked and often vary synchronously, being tightly coupled through a series of
transformations along the soil–vegetation–atmosphere continuum (Monson et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2013).
40 Understanding the mechanisms of this coupling is therefore essential for advancing research on the
carbon cycle (Hu et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2018).

Grassland ecosystems are an important component of terrestrial ecosystems and play a key role in the
carbon and water cycles of the land surface, serving as significant ecological carbon reservoirs (Liang et
al., 2017; Schuman et al., 2002). Compared with other terrestrial ecosystems, grasslands exhibit higher
45 sensitivity and vulnerability to climate change and human activities (Ahlstrom et al., 2015; Campos et
al., 2013). The Tibetan Plateau (TP), known as the “Asian Water Tower” and the “Roof of the World,”
not only plays a critical role in regional carbon and water cycling but also is highly sensitive to climate
change. Grasslands cover more than 60% of the TP, with alpine steppe and alpine meadow being the
dominant vegetation types, accounting for 34% and 27% of the total area, respectively (Liu et al., 2018;
50 Miede et al., 2019). The study area is an alpine meadow ecosystem, and investigating its carbon and
water cycles and their coupling processes is of great significance for understanding carbon dynamics in
terrestrial ecosystems.

A large number of studies have investigated the temporal dynamics of grassland carbon fluxes on the TP
(Sun et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020, 2021; Li et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022; Tao et al.,
55 2023), and the mechanisms driving carbon fluxes have been comprehensively explored. Research across



ten alpine grassland sites on the TP indicates that soil temperature (Ts), soil moisture (SW), and vapor pressure deficit (VPD) jointly regulate the intensity of seasonal and inter-annual carbon flux variations (Wang et al., 2021). Studies at seven sites in the Inner Mongolian grasslands have shown that growing-season precipitation (PRE) and leaf area index (LAI) are the most important drivers of inter-annual carbon fluxes. Eddy covariance measurements demonstrate that water availability significantly influences gross primary productivity (GPP) and can potentially shift ecosystems from carbon sinks to carbon sources in North American prairies (Fischer et al., 2012). European grassland studies emphasize that the same environmental factors can affect GPP at both daily and inter-annual timescale (Bahn et al., 2008). Analyses of the daily variation of net ecosystem carbon exchange (NEE) reveal that aridity and temperature regulate carbon fluxes at daily and seasonal scales in the sandy grasslands of Inner Mongolia (Niu et al., 2020). While the dominant drivers differ among grasslands in various climatic regions of the TP, most studies indicate that water availability and temperature condition are the primary factors influencing carbon flux dynamics. Although these studies have characterized carbon fluxes at the grassland surface and explored their driving mechanisms, most have focused on single time-scale. Comparative studies of carbon fluxes across multiple temporal scales in alpine grasslands remain limited, and research on the drivers and mechanisms of carbon flux variations across multiple timescales is still relatively scarce.

Evapotranspiration (ET) exhibits strong spatial and temporal heterogeneity and pronounced seasonality on the TP (Han et al., 2021), with higher ET in humid regions such as wetlands and alpine meadows, and lower ET in arid, high-elevation desert areas. The main factors driving ET include net radiation and energy supply, air and soil temperature, VPD, soil moisture, PRE and groundwater levels, vegetation cover and phenology, as well as freeze-thaw and ice-phase dynamics (Shen et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2020; Chang et al., 2023). Studies based on remote sensing, reanalysis data, and eddy covariance observations have gradually revealed that ET over the past decade has shown an increasing or initially rising and then stabilizing trend in most humid regions of the eastern and central TP (Chen et al., 2024), with enhanced radiation and vegetation recovery contributing to increased ET. In some arid areas, water limitations also significantly affect ET variability. Most existing studies have focused on large-scale regional trends, and when exploring driving mechanisms, analyses are often restricted to a single



temporal scale or the inter-annual timescale. Consequently, a systematic understanding of ET variations
85 and their coupling with driving factors across multiple time-scale remains limited.

Water use efficiency (WUE) typically defined as the ratio of ecosystem carbon assimilation to water
consumption and is a key parameter for investigating carbon–water coupling processes and a core
indicator for understanding ecosystem metabolism and climate response mechanisms (Cai et al., 2021;
Hu et al., 2024). In recent years, researchers have examined the temporal dynamics and controlling
90 factors of carbon and water fluxes and WUE on the TP, highlighting the synergistic effects of vegetation,
soil, and atmospheric factors in regulating the carbon–water coupling of terrestrial ecosystems (Chen et
al., 2004; Hu et al., 2009; Zhao and Yu, 2008). The high spatial heterogeneity of multiple environmental
variables also contributes to differences in flux exchanges across regions (Sun et al., 2019). At the daily
scale, VPD has been identified as the dominant factor influencing WUE across all seasons (Wu et al.,
95 2019). At monthly to seasonal scales, soil water content (SWC) has been shown to be a key determinant
of WUE in the Mongolian grasslands (Li et al., 2008). Seasonal dynamics studies across typical Chinese
ecosystems indicate that temperature and LAI regulate WUE mainly by affecting the proportion of
transpiration in ET (T/ET) (Zhu et al., 2014). At the inter-annual timescale, NDVI, temperature, and
atmospheric CO_2 concentration are important drivers of WUE variability across mainland China (Sun et
100 al., 2021). These findings suggest that the dominant drivers of WUE differ across time-scale, and that
single-timescale studies limit both intra-regional comparisons across scales and inter-regional
comparisons.

Based on observational data, this study analyzed the temporal dynamics of carbon and water fluxes and
WUE in an alpine meadow ecosystem at daily, monthly to seasonal, and inter-annual timescales. Ridge
105 regression was applied to identify the key drivers of carbon and water fluxes and WUE across these time-
scale. The results provide insights into the carbon–water cycling and its controlling mechanisms in alpine
meadow ecosystems of the TP.



2 Materials and methods

2.1 Study area

110 This study was conducted in an alpine meadow at Maqu observation site (33.89°N, 102.14°E, 3423 m
 a.s.l.) on the Zoige Plateau, located in the upper reaches of the Yellow River on the eastern Tibet Plateau
 (Figure 1). The site lies in a seasonally frozen ground region within the sub-frigid humid zone and is
 characterized by a typical continental climate. The underlying surface is a representative alpine meadow
 dominated by *Kobresia tibetica*, *Potentilla anserina*, and *Kobresia humilis*, with a vegetation cover of
 115 approximately 92% (Wang et al., 2012).

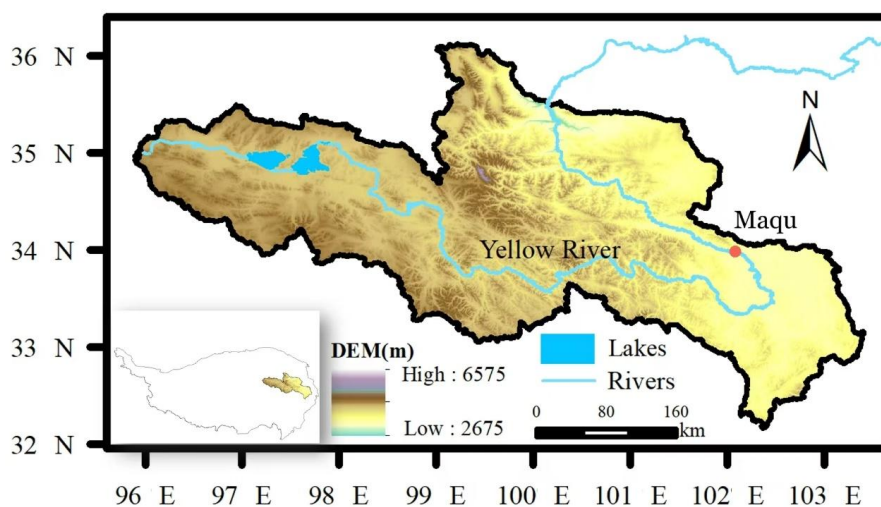


Figure 1: The location of the study area on the source of the Yellow River on the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau

2.2 Data collection and processing

At the Maqu observation site, an eddy covariance system and a micrometeorological observation system
 120 were currently installed. In this study, we used six years of continuous observations from 1 January 2012
 to 31 December 2017. The variables analyzed include evapotranspiration (ET) (calculated from the latent
 heat flux), NEE, air temperature (T_a), relative humidity (RH), photosynthetically active radiation (PAR),
 T_s at four depths (5, 10, 20, and 40 cm), and SWC at the same depths as T_s . All data were recorded at a
 30 min temporal resolution.



125 LE and NEE were derived from 10 Hz raw turbulence data using EddyPro 6.1 (<https://www.licor.com>).
 The processing steps included spike removal, coordinate rotation, air density correction, virtual
 temperature correction, and frequency response correction. In addition, since daytime NEE values
 occasionally indicated unrealistically negative fluxes (i.e., apparent CO₂ uptake) during the non-growing
 season, these data were excluded (S. Wang et al., 2020).

130 VPD was calculated using standard formulas (Seager et al., 2015). Leaf area index (LAI) was obtained
 from the MODIS Land Product, Collection 6 (MOD15A2H; [https://modis.ornl.gov/cgi-
 bin/MODIS/global/subset.pl](https://modis.ornl.gov/cgi-bin/MODIS/global/subset.pl)), with a spatial resolution of 500 m and a temporal resolution of 8 days.
 PRE data were derived from the Maqu National Meteorological Station.

The carbon fluxes analyzed in this study included net ecosystem CO₂ exchange (NEE), ecosystem
 135 respiration (Re), and GPP. NEE was directly obtained from eddy covariance observations, whereas Re
 was modeled as a function of Ts and SWC using a composite model. GPP was then calculated as the
 difference between NEE and Re (Guan et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2008):

$$R_e = R_{10} e^{\frac{E_0}{T_{ref}-T_0} - \frac{1}{T-T_0}} e^{(d \cdot SWC + f \cdot SWC^2)} \quad (1)$$

GPP was then calculated as the difference between NEE and Re:

$$140 \quad GPP = -(NEE - Re) \quad (2)$$

Evapotranspiration (ET) was estimated from the latent heat flux (LE, W m⁻²) obtained by the eddy
 covariance measurements:

$$ET = LE/\lambda \quad (3)$$

Where λ is the latent heat of vaporization (J·kg⁻¹). In the Maqu alpine meadow on the eastern Qinghai–
 145 Tibet Plateau, λ was assigned an empirical value of 2.501*10⁶ J kg⁻¹.

The calculation methods of ecosystem WUE (gC kg⁻¹) at daily, monthly, and inter-annual timescales
 were as follows:

$$\begin{cases} WUE_d = \frac{GPP_d}{ET_d} \\ WUE_m = \frac{GPP_m}{ET_m} \\ WUE_y = \frac{GPP_y}{ET_y} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

The growing and non-growing seasons were defined based on NEE dynamics (Körner et al., 2023). At
 150 the daily timescale, the onset and end of the growing season were determined by the net daily NEE. At



the monthly to seasonal scale, the growing and non-growing seasons were simply defined as May–October and April–November, respectively. Carbon fluxes and environmental variables at different time-scale were aggregated either by summation or averaging, depending on the variable.

2.3 Method

155 In this study, carbon fluxes (NEE, Re, and GPP), water flux (ET), and WUE were treated as dependent variables, while environmental factors including Ta, soil temperature at 5 cm depth (Ts), PRE, SWC, VPD, PAR and LAI were considered as independent variables to identify the major drivers of the dependent variables.

Ridge regression was employed as the primary regression method. As an improved linear regression
160 technique, ridge regression introduces an L2 regularization term into the loss function, which effectively addresses multicollinearity problems (Walker and Birch, 1988). Its mathematical expression is as follows:

$$Y = XB + \varepsilon \quad (5)$$

Here, Y represents the response variable, X is the matrix of independent variables, B denotes the regression coefficients, and ε is the error term. The objective of ridge regression is to minimize the
165 following loss function:

$$\text{Loss}(\beta) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - X_i \beta)^2 + \alpha \sum_{j=1}^p \beta_j^2 \quad (6)$$

The first summation term represents the ordinary least squares loss function, while the second summation term introduces the ridge regression regularization (L2 regularization). α is the regularization parameter, and β_j is the regression coefficient of feature j . The regularization term is added to prevent overfitting by
170 penalizing large coefficients, thereby reducing model complexity, lowering the risk of overfitting, and improving model stability. In this study, the ridge regression coefficients are interpreted as the relative contributions of the independent variables to the dependent variable.

When the sample size is limited, Pearson correlation coefficients were used to quantify the linear relationships between variables. The coefficient of determination (R^2) was employed to describe the
175 strength and direction of these relationships. Pearson correlation coefficients range from -1 to 1, where -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation, 0 indicates no correlation, and 1 indicates a perfect positive correlation. Confidence interval (CI) bands were included in the correlation plots to indicate the



uncertainty of the estimates. Significance testing was performed for the correlations, with different approaches depending on the sample size. For small samples, a t-distribution test was applied.

180 3 Result

3.1 Variations of biometeorological factors

Meteorological observations from the Maqu County Meteorological Station recorded that the annual T_a and PRE from 1967 to 2020 were 1.84 ± 0.78 °C and 611.9 ± 89.2 mm, respectively (Figure 2). A significant warming trend was observed during this period, with the annual mean temperature rising at a rate of approximately 0.06 °C per year. From 1967 to 1997, temperature generally fluctuated between 0.4 °C and 2.1 °C, whereas between 2012 and 2017, it consistently exceeded 2.5 °C and, in certain years, approached 3.5 °C, indicating a considerable increase. In contrast, annual PRE displayed substantial inter-annual variability, exhibiting a long-term pattern of initial decline followed by partial recovery. The lowest annual PRE was recorded in 1996 (448.4 mm), while the highest occurred in 2020 (821.2 mm).
 185 During the period 2012–2017, PRE levels fluctuated markedly, with an average of 627.1 ± 83.9 mm, slightly above the long-term mean. In summary, the climate of the Maqu region from 2012 to 2017 was characterized by warmer temperature and increased PRE than before, reflecting a distinct warming trend.

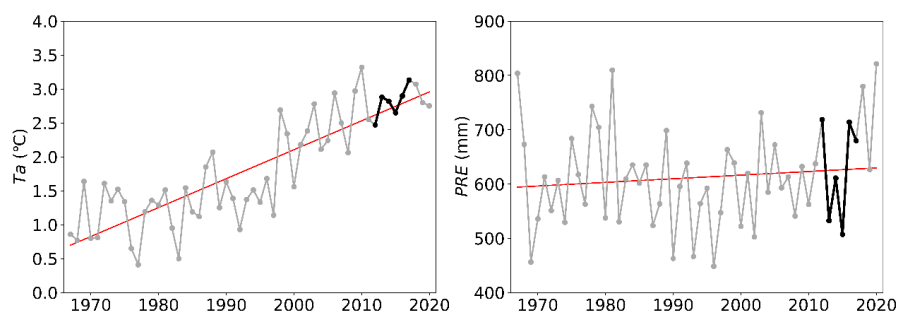


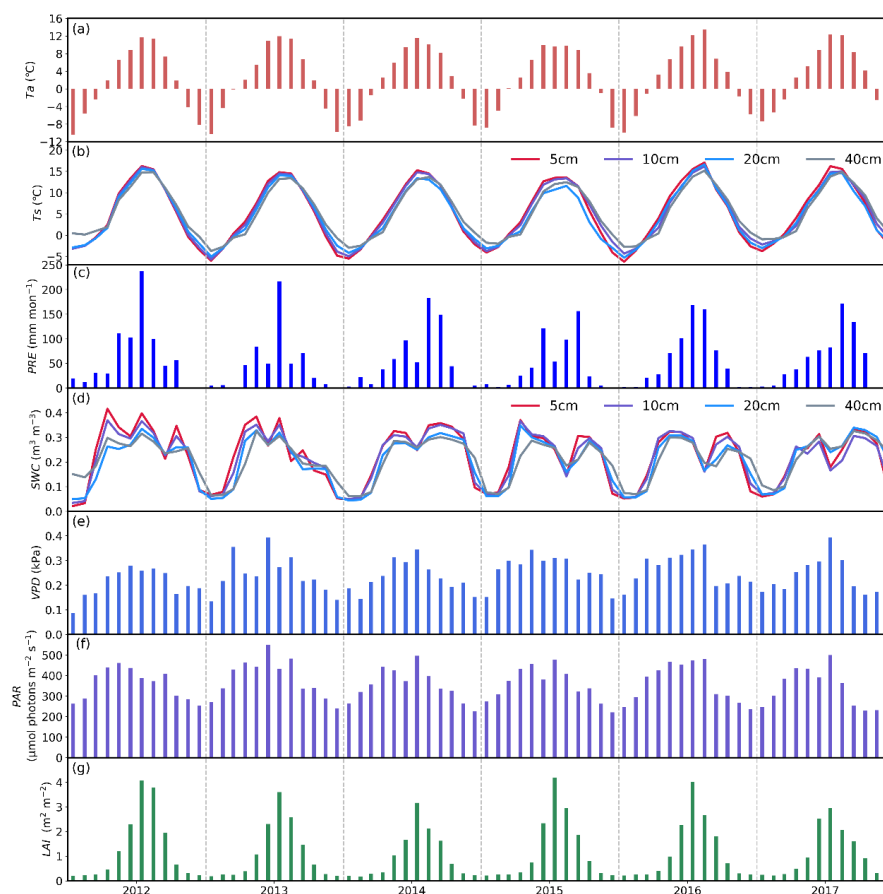
Figure 2: Annual average temperature and annual cumulative precipitation at Maqu Station from 1967 to 2020.

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From 2012 to 2017, the dynamics of monthly mean (or accumulated) environmental factors in the Maqu alpine meadow ecosystem are shown in Figure 3. T_a peaked in July and August and reached its minimum in January. Over the six years, the mean monthly T_a ranged from -10.5 °C to 13.5 °C. (Figure 3 (a)). The annual variation pattern of monthly mean T_s at multiple depths was similar to that of T_a (Figure 3 (b)).



200 Differences in monthly mean T_s across depths were relatively small, with the highest annual mean
observed at 40 cm (5.3 °C), followed by 10 cm and 5 cm (5.13 °C and 5.11 °C, respectively), while the
lowest occurred at 20 cm (4.7 °C). Among all depths, the 5 cm T_s exhibited the greatest variability,
ranging from -6.3 °C to 17.1 °C. PRE was largely concentrated in summer, with the highest monthly
mean occurring in July (135.0 mm) (Figure 3 (c)). For the 5–40 cm soil layers, SWC increased during
205 the spring thaw following the winter freezing period and remained at approximately $0.3 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ (Figure
3 (d)). The monthly mean VPD ranged from 0.08 to 0.39 kPa, with the maximum occurring in July (0.32
kPa) and the minimum in January (0.15 kPa). (Figure 3 (e)). PAR reached its annual maximum during
spring and summer but exhibited a declining trend during the growing season, particularly in August,
which may be associated with variations in atmospheric water vapor and cloud cover during the rainy
210 season (Tao et al., 2023). At Maqu, PAR ranged from 220.3 to 548.2 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ across the year,
with an annual mean of 357.1 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$, indicating generally favorable light conditions (Figure
3 (f)). During the growing season, the monthly LAI was 2.0, with the highest values observed in July and
August, averaging 3.7 and 2.7 $\text{m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$, respectively. (Figure 3 (g)).



215 **Figure 3: Seasonal variation characteristics of environmental factors. (a) Air temperature; (b) Soil temperature; (c) Precipitation; (d) Soil water content; (e) Vapor pressure deficit; (f) Photosynthetically active radiation; (g) Leaf area index.**

3.2 Characteristics of carbon flux variation

The daily variations of carbon fluxes in the alpine meadow ecosystem varied significantly across seasons
 220 (Figure 4). The amplitude of daily variation was greatest in summer. NEE reached its minimum around
 12:00 in summer (approximately $-0.25 \text{ gC m}^{-2} 30\text{min}^{-1}$), indicating the strongest carbon uptake at midday.
 GPP peaked at about 13:00, exceeding $0.33 \text{ gC m}^{-2} 30\text{min}^{-1}$, reflecting the highest photosynthetic activity.
 The peak of GPP occurred later than that of NEE, likely due to differences in the optimum temperatures
 for photosynthesis and respiration. Re was generally higher in summer, as elevated temperatures



225 enhanced respiratory processes; however, the increase in GPP was greater, resulting in an overall enhancement of carbon uptake.

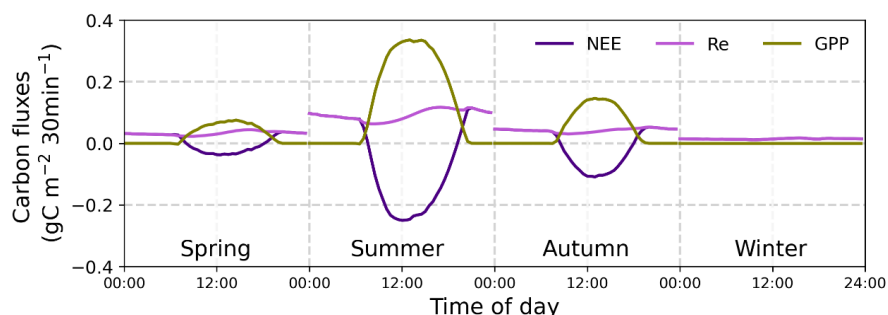
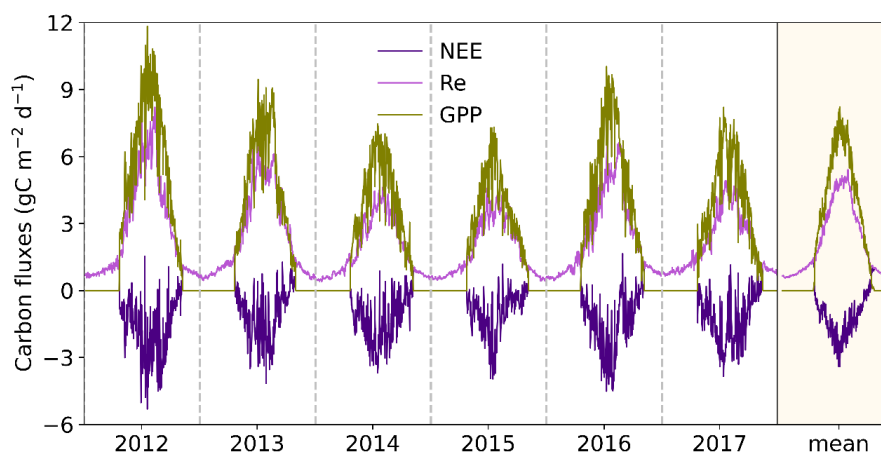


Figure 4: Daily variation characteristics of carbon fluxes in different seasons.

On a multi-year average, NEE exhibited a seasonal peak during the growing season, with a bimodal
 230 variations observed in 2012, 2016, and 2017, indicating pronounced seasonal variability. At the daily
 scale, the ecosystem did not consistently function as a carbon sink; on certain days, NEE values were
 positive, suggesting net carbon release, likely influenced by meteorological factors such as cloud cover
 fluctuations or precipitation events. GPP showed clear seasonal dynamics, with a unimodal variations
 each year. Re displayed smaller daily fluctuations but pronounced seasonal variability, with annual peaks
 235 occurring close to those of GPP, although slightly lagging, due to the temperature regulation of
 respiration rates. Across the six years, the minimum NEE was recorded on 19 July 2012 ($-5.31 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$), while the maximum Re occurred on 12 August 2012 ($8.21 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$), and the maximum GPP
 appeared on 19 July 2012 ($11.83 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$).



240 **Figure 5: Seasonal variation characteristics of carbon flux from 2012 to 2017.**

Summer represented the peak period of carbon uptake, with the cumulative NEE from May to October. The largest monthly carbon uptake generally occurred in July 2012, August accounted for the greatest proportion of annual carbon accumulation, reaching $-63.54 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ mon}^{-1}$, exceeding the long-term mean for August ($-51.36 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ mon}^{-1}$). Re peaked in July and August, showing a strong and regular annual trend. GPP also reached its maximum in July or August, with monthly mean cumulative values up to 210 $\text{gC m}^{-2} \text{ mon}^{-1}$, reflecting intense photosynthetic activity. During the non-growing season, low temperature almost completely inhibited photosynthesis, with GPP approaching zero and Re declining to its minimum, averaging approximately $26.6 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ mon}^{-1}$, making the ecosystem a weak carbon source.

Multi-year monthly averages showed that the extreme NEE occurred in July ($-75.96 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ mon}^{-1}$), the maximum Re also in July ($147.96 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ mon}^{-1}$), and the peak GPP in July ($223.87 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ mon}^{-1}$).

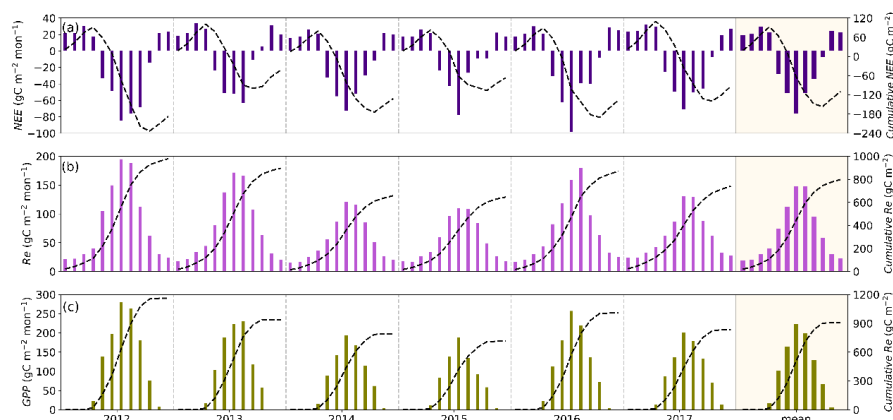
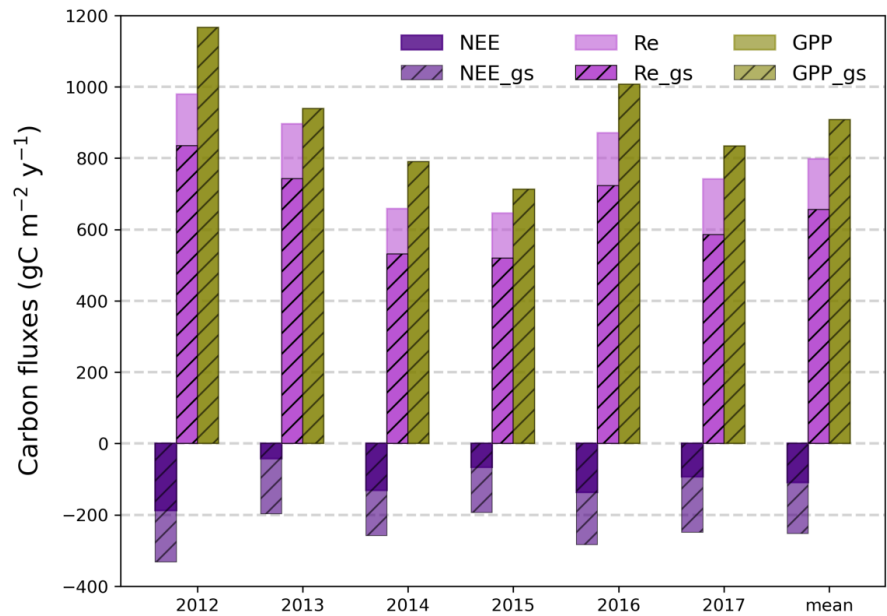


Figure 6: Seasonal variation and annual accumulation characteristics of carbon flux from 2012 to 2017.

The inter-annual variations of carbon fluxes in the Maqu alpine meadow from 2012 to 2017 are shown in Figure 6. Over the six years, NEE fluctuated, with a six-year mean of $-109.69 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, indicating that the ecosystem acted as a carbon sink. The annual cumulative NEE in 2012 was $-187.48 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, markedly higher than in other years. Re decreased initially and then increased over the six years, with a six-year mean of $798.62 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$. The highest Re occurred in 2012 ($979.39 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$), while the lowest was in 2015 ($646.13 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$). During the growing season, the six-year average Re was $656.30 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, accounting for 82% of the annual total, indicating that the majority of Re occurred during the growing season.

Annual GPP showed a declining trend from 2012 to 2015, followed by an increase trend over the rest of two years. Over the six years, annual GPP ranged from 789.71 to $1166.87 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, with a mean of $908.31 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$. The ratio of annual Re to GPP varied between 83.3% and 95.5%, with the highest ratio observed in 2013, indicating that most of the carbon fixed by the ecosystem was lost through ecosystem respiration.

During the growing season, the mean NEE was $-252.01 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, while net carbon release during the non-growing season averaged $142.32 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, resulting in a growing-to-non-growing season carbon flux ratio of approximately 5:3. The six-year mean NEE was $-109.69 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$.



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Figure 7: Inter-annual variation characteristics of carbon flux from 2012 to 2017.

3.3 Characteristics of ET variation

Seasonal averages of daily ET showed the highest values in summer, with spring and autumn exhibiting similar variations, while winter only displayed weak evaporation around noon. The ET peak occurred
275 around 14:00, reaching $0.15 \text{ kg m}^{-2} 30\text{min}^{-1}$ in summer, $0.07 \text{ kg m}^{-2} 30\text{min}^{-1}$ in both spring and autumn, and approximately $0.02 \text{ kg m}^{-2} 30\text{min}^{-1}$ in winter. During nighttime (21:00–07:30), ET was minimal and approaching zero in winter.

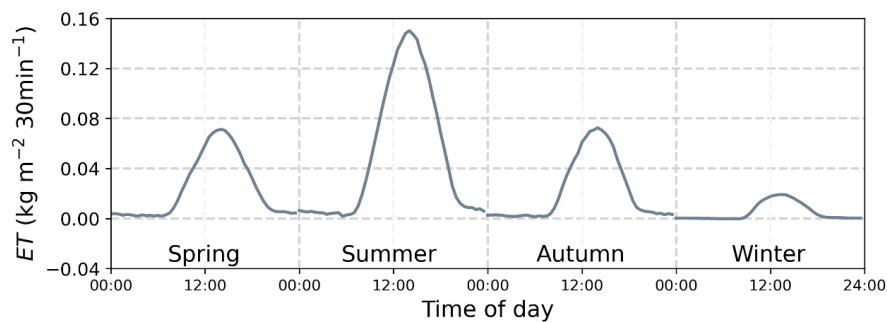


Figure 8: Daily variability of ET in different seasons.



280 The seasonal variations of ET in the Maqu alpine meadow from 2012 to 2017 showed pronounced inter-
 annual differences (Figure 9), with high ET in summer and low ET in winter. Summer ET typically
 peaked in early August, with daily ET reaching up to $4.2 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$. During this period, vegetation
 photosynthesis was at its maximum, contributing to the annual peak in ET, while sufficient PRE provided
 ample water for evapotranspiration. In winter, daily mean ET generally ranged from 0 to $0.5 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$.
 285 Low temperature and vegetation dormancy limited transpiration, and evaporation was further reduced by
 cold conditions and snow cover. Inter-annual differences in ET peaks and cumulative ET were observed.
 For instance, summer ET was slightly higher in 2013 and 2015 than the multi-year average, likely due to
 greater PRE and sufficient soil water availability, whereas summer ET peaks in 2014 and 2016 were
 relatively lower, potentially associated with drought or abnormal temperatures. Winter ET showed
 290 relatively small variations, remaining consistently low.

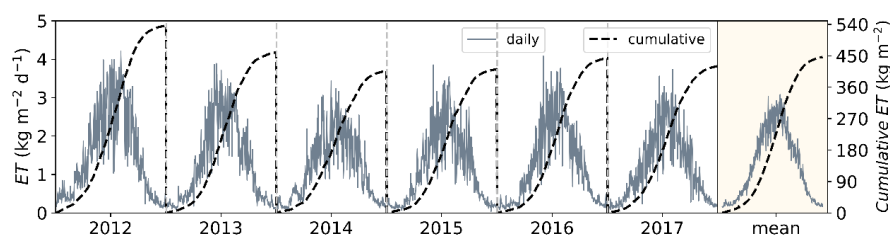


Figure 9: Seasonal variation and annual accumulation characteristics of ET daily from 2012 to 2017.

At the monthly and seasonal scales, the growing season from April to October contributed the majority
 of annual ET, with June to August being the three months with the highest ET. July typically exhibited
 295 the maximum monthly ET of the year, averaging approximately $80.59 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ mon}^{-1}$. Over the six years,
 the highest monthly ET occurred in July 2012, exceeding the long-term average, with a monthly
 cumulative value of $88.03 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ mon}^{-1}$.

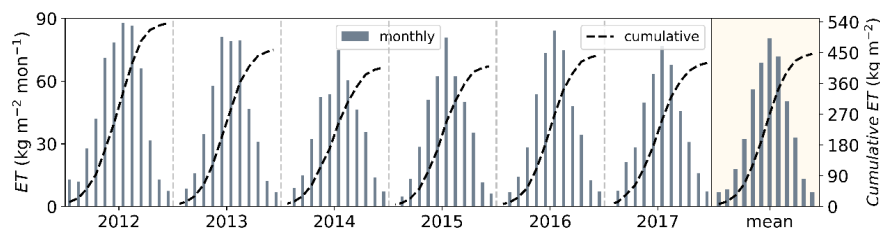
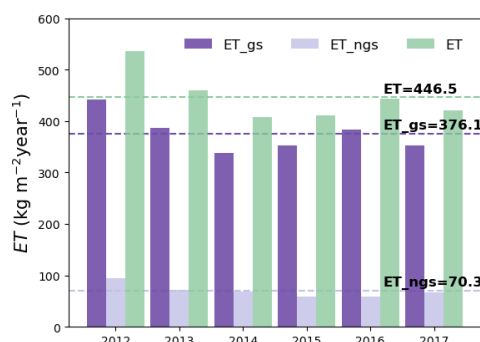


Figure 10: Seasonal variation and annual accumulation characteristics of ET monthly from 2012 to 2017.



300 The inter-annual variations of ET showed a decreasing trend firstly, followed by a slight increasing trend. The mean annual ET was $446.5 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, with relatively higher values in 2012 and 2013, reaching 536.9 and $459.5 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, respectively. The six-year average ET during the growing season was $376.1 \text{ kg m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, accounting for 84% of the annual total. Annual ET represented 69.6% of annual PRE, indicating that approximately 70% of PRE may be lost through evapotranspiration.



305 **Figure 11: Inter-annual variation characteristics of ET from 2012 to 2017.**

3.4 Characteristics of WUE variation

The seasonal averages of daily WUE (Figure 12) exhibited an asymmetric “U”-shaped variation, being highest in summer, intermediate in autumn, and lowest in spring, with peak morning values around 08:00 driven by elevated CO_2 concentrations that enhanced photosynthesis ($5.82 \text{ gC kg}^{-1} \text{ H}_2\text{O}$ in summer, 3.71 in autumn, and 2.65 in spring). WUE declined to its daily minimum as GPP decreased while ET peaked at noon, before partially recovering when both GPP and ET decreased but ET declined more rapidly. Overall, WUE was higher in the morning than in the afternoon (Wang et al., 2020), as high afternoon temperatures and low humidity enhanced ET, particularly soil water evaporation, leading to increased total ecosystem water loss and lower WUE.

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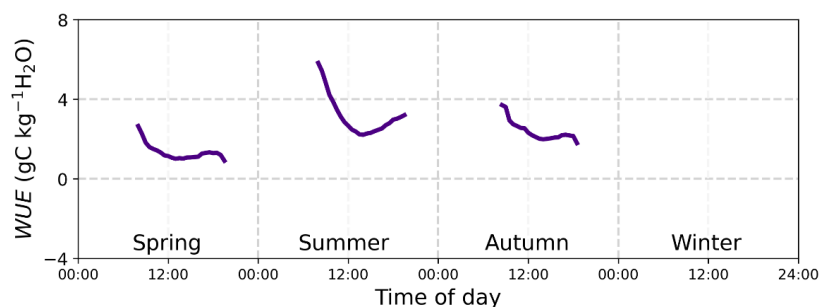


Figure 12: Daily variability of WUE in different seasons.

WUE exhibited pronounced seasonal variability. During the growing season, daily WUE values were mostly concentrated between 1 and 5 gC kg⁻¹H₂O. The annual variations of daily WUE showed a first increase followed by a decline, reaching its peak in July. WUE exceeded 3 gC kg⁻¹H₂O for approximately 41 days each year, primarily from June to September, when high temperature, favorable light conditions, and elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations enhanced plant WUE.

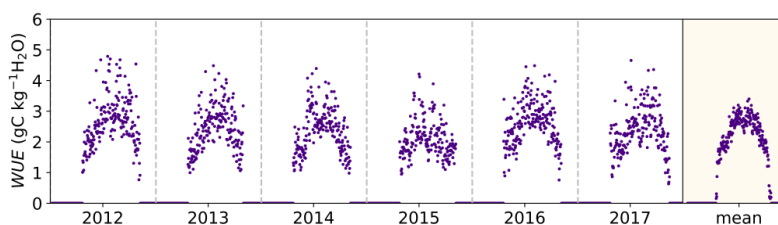


Figure 13: Seasonal variation characteristics of daily WUE from 2012 to 2017.

The month of maximum WUE varied among years. In 2012, 2015, and 2016, WUE peaked in July, whereas in 2013 and 2014, the peak occurred in August. In 2017, the highest WUE was observed in September. The overall maximum monthly WUE during the study period occurred in July 2012, reaching 3.17 gC kg⁻¹H₂O. Multi-year average results indicated that WUE peaked in July at 2.77 gC kg⁻¹H₂O, followed by August at 2.74 gC kg⁻¹H₂O. Inter-annual variations in meteorological conditions, vegetation growth, and soil water availability were likely the main factors driving differences in the timing of WUE peaks across years.

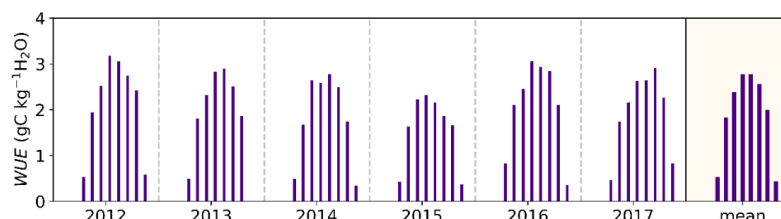


Figure 14: Seasonal variation characteristics of monthly WUE from 2012 to 2017.

335 The inter-annual variation of WUE during 2012–2017 exhibited a variations of first decline followed by
 a slight increase, with a mean value of 2.02 gC kg⁻¹H₂O. This level was notably higher than that observed
 at the Haibei site (0.40 gC kg⁻¹H₂O), as well as the regional average across the TP (1.17 gC kg⁻¹H₂O). It
 also exceeded the mean values reported in the Chinese grassland ecosystems (1.10 gC kg⁻¹H₂O) and
 alpine meadows specifically (0.90 gC kg⁻¹H₂O), suggesting that WUE is relatively higher in Maqu both
 340 within the Plateau and across Chinese grassland ecosystems. During the research periods, WUE was
 comparatively higher in 2012, 2013, and 2016, with values of 2.17, 2.04, and 2.27 gC kg⁻¹H₂O,
 respectively.

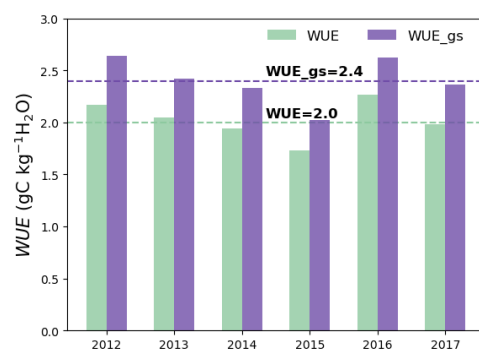


Figure 15: Inter-annual variation characteristics of WUE from 2012 to 2017.

345 3.5 Relationships between carbon and water fluxes, WUE, and environmental drivers at different time-scale

To further examine the effects of environmental factors on carbon and water fluxes as well as WUE,
 ridge regression was employed to quantify the relative contributions of different variables at both daily
 and monthly to seasonal scales. At the daily scale, Ts and LAI emerged as the dominant factors regulating
 350 carbon fluxes during the growing season. Specifically, LAI was identified as the primary determinant of



NEE, followed by PAR, whereas Ts was the leading control on both Re and GPP, with LAI playing a secondary role (Figure 16 (a–c)). Given that LAI itself was strongly correlated with Ts ($R^2 = 0.85$), Ts can be considered the overarching driver of carbon fluxes during the growing season. Moreover, the results suggest that when temperature increases or soil moisture declines, the enhancement of Re exceeds that of GPP. During the non-growing season, Ts remained the dominant factor influencing both NEE and Re.

Both in the growing and non-growing seasons, ET at the daily scale was primarily controlled by PAR (Figure 16 (d)), indicating the dominant role of solar radiation in regulating evapotranspiration. During the growing season, Ts and PAR jointly influenced WUE (Figure 16 (e)), with PAR exerting a negative effect. Since PAR positively affected both GPP and ET, higher radiation enhanced photosynthesis and transpiration simultaneously, but reduced WUE.

Throughout the year (including both growing and non-growing seasons), LAI was identified as the most influential factor for carbon fluxes, followed by Ts. Given that Ts was also strongly correlated with LAI ($R^2 = 0.88$), Ts can be regarded as the overarching driver of carbon flux dynamics. Ts further emerged as the most critical determinant of WUE, whereas both PAR and Ts exerted substantial impacts on ET, reflecting the respective roles of radiation in controlling transpiration and temperature in driving surface evaporation. Therefore, at the daily scale, Ts is considered the primary factor governing carbon and water fluxes as well as WUE.

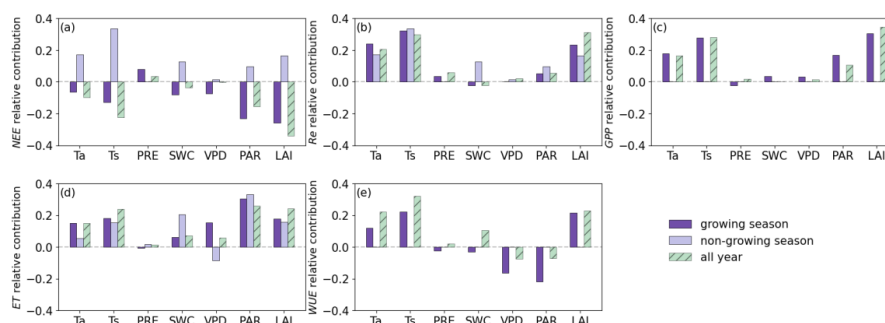


Figure 16: Relative contributions of environmental factors to daily scale carbon, water flux, and WUE.

Based on ridge regression, LAI was identified as the strongest contributor to NEE at the monthly scale during the growing season, while both Ts and LAI exerted substantial influences on Re and GPP. ET was



jointly regulated by PAR and LAI, whereas Ts dominated the control of WUE. During the non-growing
 season and at the transitional periods at the beginning (late April) and end (early November) of the
 375 growing season, Ts emerged as the dominant factor controlling NEE and Re, while GPP was primarily
 influenced by LAI, followed by SWC. In contrast, ET was largely determined by PRE and SWC, and
 WUE was regulated by LAI and SWC. These results indicate that compared with the growing season the
 relative contributions of water-related factors particularly precipitation and surface soil moisture
 increased during the non-growing season and became the primary drivers of ET. Throughout the year,
 380 LAI was the most important determinant of carbon fluxes and ET, followed by Ts, while WUE was
 primarily controlled by Ts and secondarily by LAI. Overall, carbon and water fluxes at the monthly scale
 were strongly regulated by temperature.

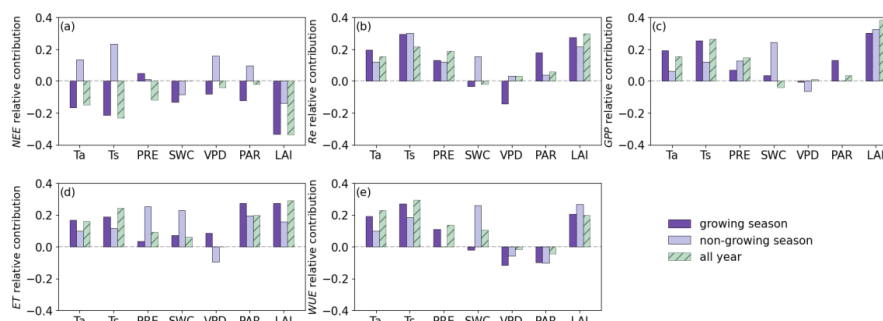
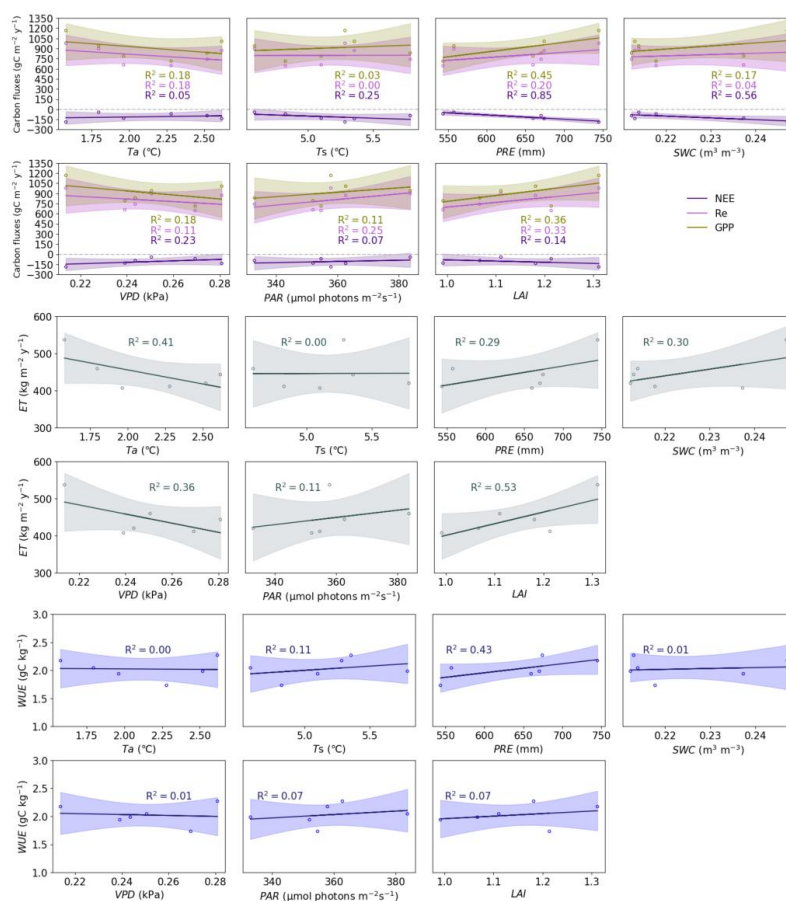


Figure 17: Relative contributions of environmental factors to monthly scale carbon, water flux, and WUE.

385 At the inter-annual timescale, the linear regression analysis of carbon and water fluxes, WUE, and
 environmental factors is shown in Figure 18, with the shaded area representing the 95% confidence
 interval. During the 2012 to 2017, annual NEE exhibited strong correlations with annual PRE and SWC
 ($R^2 = 0.85$ and 0.56 , respectively), indicating that water-related variables exert a significant influence on
 NEE at the inter-annual timescale. Ecosystem Re was more strongly correlated with PAR and LAI at the
 390 inter-annual timescale, whereas it was more closely associated with temperature at daily and monthly
 scales. Annual GPP showed stronger correlations with PRE and LAI, suggesting that both water
 availability and vegetation exert greater control over GPP at the inter-annual timescale. ET displayed
 significant inter-annual timescale correlations with LAI and Ta. WUE was more strongly correlated with
 PRE at the inter-annual timescale, highlighting the dominant role of PRE in regulating WUE.



395 Temperature variations directly determine the rate and duration of photosynthesis. During the daytime,
 higher temperature enhances photosynthetic activity, whereas at night, lower temperature intensifies
 plant respiration. Consequently, at shorter time-scale (e.g., daily or monthly), plant physiological
 processes and carbon sequestration in terrestrial ecosystems are more sensitive to shorter time-scales
 temperature fluctuations. At longer inter-annual timescales, however, ecosystem carbon fluxes represent
 400 a slower cumulative process that depends more on vegetation growth status, LAI, and related factors. In
 our study region, although inter-annual temperature fluctuations exist, their variation magnitude is
 relatively small compared with the large inter-annual variability of PRE (Figure 2). Therefore, water
 availability exerts a longer-term influence throughout the growing season, ultimately driving the inter-
 annual variability of carbon fluxes.



405



Figure 18: Correlation analysis between WUE and environmental factors (The shaded area is the 95% confidence interval).

4 Discussion

4.1 Carbon and water flux

410 At the daily scale, carbon fluxes in alpine meadows of humid regions generally exhibit a carbon sink during the daytime and a carbon source at night, with a unimodal variations over the course of the day. This phenomenon has been confirmed by multiple grassland studies on the TP (Gu et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2017). Around noon, under conditions of elevated temperature, radiation, and VPD, plants experience transient photoinhibition, stomatal closure, or intensified soil-vegetation water

415 stress, leading to a decline in GPP. As a result, NEE peaks at midday and shows a “midday depression” (Mengoli et al., 2022; Tang et al., 2024). In humid meadows, relatively high soil moisture often buffers this midday depression; however, when temperature rises or soil moisture decreases, the increase in R_e exceeds the enhancement of GPP (Figure 16), thereby weakening the carbon sink strength (Wei et al., 2022).

420 At the monthly to seasonal time scale, alpine meadow ecosystems function as carbon sinks from May to October. In the northeastern TP, NEE is negative in June, reaches its maximum uptake in July, and shifts to a carbon source in September-October. In the Maqu meadow, the peak of R_e occurs later than that of GPP. A similar phenomenon was also observed in the Zoige alpine wetland grassland (Zhao et al., 2010). This lag arises because soluble carbon produced by photosynthesis must be transported downward

425 through the plant body and subsequently utilized by roots and rhizosphere microorganisms. The transport and metabolic processes of these substrates typically span from several hours to several days, causing R_e to lag behind photosynthetic peaks at both daily and seasonal scales (Kuzyakov and Gavrichkova, 2010). Temperature can modulate the translocation of photosynthetic products (Plain et al., 2009), thereby influencing both the timing of the peak and the magnitude of the lag.

430 At the inter-annual timescale, alpine meadow carbon fluxes exhibit substantial year-to-year variability, but overall act as carbon sinks, with marked regional differences across different underlying surfaces of the TP. Alpine marsh ecosystems show the highest annual net carbon uptake, such as at the Dashedalong



site ($NEE = -284.1 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$). This is followed by alpine meadow ecosystems (Heihe River Basin, northeastern TP), where the mean annual GPP, Re, and NEE are 504.8, 317.2, and $-187.6 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ (Sun et al., 2019). Alpine meadows, such as those in Maqu (this study, $NEE = -109.7 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) and Arou, rank next. By contrast, alpine desert steppe ecosystems have the lowest carbon uptake, and the NamCo site even acts as a carbon source (NEE is $31.1 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$) (Wang et al., 2021). Even for the same land underlying surface type, carbon source-sink capacity varies due to the combined effects of topography, climate, and other factors. For example, in the Heihe River Basin, all three observation sites are alpine meadow ecosystems, yet their carbon sink capacities differ (Sun et al., 2019). For the same vegetation type, carbon sequestration capacity is closely related to the ratio of Re to GPP. At the Arou, Dashalong, and Yakou sites, the Re/GPP ratios are 75.7%, 44.6%, and 53.9%, respectively. Although Arou has the highest annual GPP among the three sites, its annual NEE is lower than that of Dashalong. In the Maqu alpine meadow ecosystem, the multi-year mean GPP is $908.31 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ and Re is $798.62 \text{ gC m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$, with the Re/GPP ratio ranging from 83.3% to 95.5% over six years. This indicates that more than 80% of photosynthetically fixed carbon is consumed by respiration. Despite higher GPP in Maqu than in Arou, the annual net carbon uptake in Maqu is lower.

4.2 Different drivers of carbon and water fluxes at different time-scale

Results from the ridge regression analysis indicate that Ts and LAI are the primary environmental factors controlling the daily and monthly to seasonal variations of carbon fluxes (NEE, Re, and GPP) in the Maqu station. In particular, during the growing season, the promotive effects of Ts on GPP and Re are most pronounced. Because higher Ts accelerates root activity and nutrient uptake, it enhances photosynthesis and carbon allocation to shoots, and therefore increases the aboveground biomass of grassland ecosystems (Chen et al., 2016; Duo, 2023). Higher LAI typically corresponds to greater leaf area and chlorophyll content (Lichtenthaler et al., 1981), which enhances photosynthetic capacity and consequently increases both CO_2 uptake and release. Therefore, this study suggests that Ts is the primary factor driving carbon flux variations at daily and monthly timescales. Wei et al. (2022) indicated that daily variations in humid meadows are more constrained by energy availability than by water deficit



(Wei et al., 2022). Previous studies have also confirmed the promotive effects of temperature on GPP
 460 and Re during the growing season (Wang et al., 2020, 2021).

At the inter-annual timescale, ecosystem carbon fluxes, particularly NEE, show a significant correlation
 with PRE. This is because moderate increases in PRE over longer timescales enhance SWC, which
 directly promotes photosynthesis, while Re often responds with a lag-making the short-term increase in
 GPP more pronounced and thereby enhancing net carbon sink capacity. In addition, higher SWC
 465 maintains root and microbial activity, preventing a sharp increase in Re due to drought and thus
 stabilizing ecosystem carbon uptake. Previous studies have also confirmed the significant influence of
 water availability on annual (Wang et al., 2021; Li et al., 2021). Shang et al. (2016) reported that annual
 PRE is the main driver of inter-annual NEE in eastern TP alpine meadows (Shang et al., 2016). Likewise,
 Chen et al. (2019) showed that PRE exerts a stronger influence than temperature on carbon flux
 470 variability in cold, humid alpine grasslands (Chen et al., 2019). Consistent with these findings, our results
 indicate that at the inter-annual timescale, PRE enhances water availability, promotes GPP, and delays
 Re responses, thereby increasing net ecosystem carbon uptake.

Previous studies on the relationship between carbon fluxes and environmental factors have mostly
 focused on a single timescale (Sun et al., 2019; Tao et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2020c), lacking systematic
 475 investigations of the drivers of carbon flux variations across multiple timescales. This study demonstrates
 that the dominant drivers differ at daily, seasonal, and inter-annual timescales, and the relative
 importance of climatic factors for a variable changes with timescale. At short timescales, carbon fluxes
 are mainly regulated by immediate climatic conditions, with Ts exerting a strong influence on
 photosynthesis, whereas at seasonal to inter-annual timescales, the correlation with temperature weakens
 480 and responses are increasingly shaped by cumulative factors such as heat accumulation and total PRE
 (Chen and Wei, 2025; Liu et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2017). Moreover, climatic influences often involve
 both lagged and cumulative effects (Cheng et al., 2024). Therefore, multi-scale analysis is essential for
 understanding the climatic drivers of carbon flux dynamics.

This study also examined the environmental drivers of ET across different timescales, and the results
 485 show that ET is regulated primarily by PAR at both daily and seasonal scales in alpine meadows. Previous
 research has demonstrated that daily variations in ET are dominated by net radiation in the northeastern

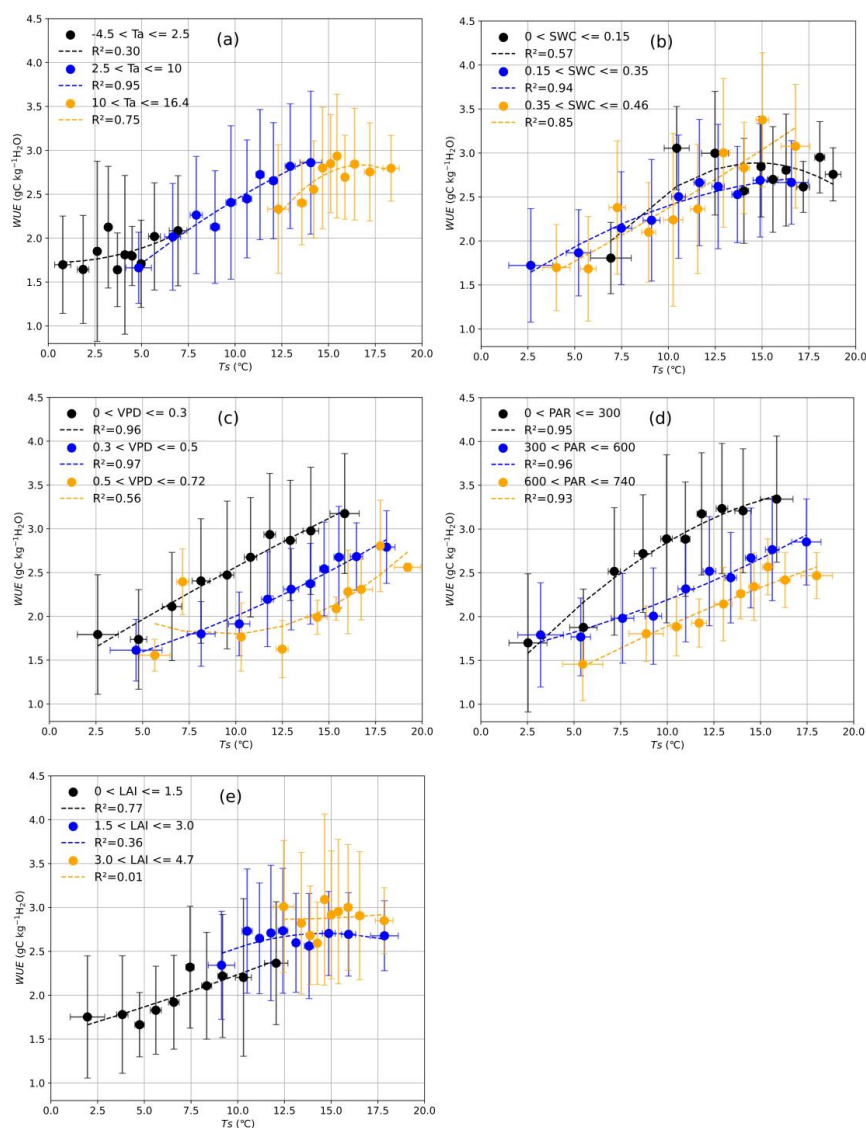


TP (Zhang et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2019), the effectiveness of radiative energy, and VPD (Li et al., 2019; McFadden et al., 2003; Y. Wang et al., 2020). These findings collectively support the conclusion that radiation plays a critical role in regulating ET on relatively short daily and monthly timescales.

490 At the inter-annual timescale, ET exhibited the strongest correlation with LAI ($R^2 = 0.53$), while water-related factors (SWC and PRE) also exerted certain influences. Studies on grasslands in the U.S. The Great Plains have shown that PRE enhances vegetation ET by promoting plant productivity (Chen et al., 2019). Research in the northeastern TP indicated that PRE and vegetation greening jointly drive the increase in ET (Yang et al., 2021). Similarly, findings from African savannas demonstrated that PRE is
 495 the primary driver of inter-annual ET variability in humid grasslands (Räsänen et al., 2022). Collectively, these studies confirm that vegetation and water availability play significant roles in regulating ET at the inter-annual scale.

4.3 Temperature is the primary control of WUE and be modulated by other environmental factors

500 At the daily timescale, T_s exerted a significant positive effect on WUE, although its influence was jointly constrained by other environmental factors. To further assess this relationship, nonlinear fittings between WUE and T_s were conducted under different levels of environmental factors (Figure 19). The results revealed that under three levels of T_a , WUE exhibited variations of “slow increase”, “rapid increase”, and “inhibited increase” with rising T_s (Figure 19 (a)). Under varying levels of VPD, WUE consistently
 505 increased significantly with T_s (Figure 19 (c)), these findings suggest that in the Maqu region, VPD is not a limiting factor for WUE, which differs from contrasts with previous studies in alpine meadows of the northeastern TP, where daily WUE dynamics were reported to be mainly regulated by VPD (Wu et al., 2019). At the low LAI, T_s exerted a strong promoting effect on WUE, whereas under high vegetation conditions, the correlation between T_s and WUE was weak (Figure 19 (e)), indicating that vegetation
 510 also influenced WUE. In summary, WUE increased rapidly with T_s under conditions of moderate temperature, sufficient atmospheric moisture, and low LAI; however, in environments characterized by high temperature, dryness, or higher LAI, the positive effect of temperature on WUE weakened and could even turn into a negative effect.



515 **Figure 19: Relationship between WUE and T_s under different environmental conditions.**

At the seasonal timescale, temperature is the key controlling factor of WUE, as it simultaneously regulates photosynthesis and transpiration. Research on humid grasslands in Europe demonstrated that variations in WUE largely result from the regulation of transpiration by temperature and VPD, as well as from stomatal adaptive adjustments (Poppe Ter $\acute{\text{a}}$ n et al., 2023). In Chinese meadow ecosystems, it was

520 shown that temperature and LAI affect the proportion of transpiration in total evapotranspiration (T/ET),



thereby driving seasonal WUE dynamics (Zhu et al., 2014). Model and remote sensing results from the TP further revealed that temperature (and its effect on evapotranspiration) is one of the primary drivers of spatiotemporal variations in regional WUE (Jia et al., 2023). In addition, modeling studies also indicated that temperature is a crucial driver of both spatial and temporal variability in WUE at the seasonal timescale on the TP (Lin et al., 2020). Collectively, these studies suggest that the mechanism by which temperature influences WUE at the seasonal timescale lies mainly in its integrative regulation of the coupled carbon-water flux processes.

At the inter-annual timescale, PRE is the dominant environmental factor influencing WUE (Figure 18). In the alpine grasslands, inter-annual PRE variability alters soil water content and groundwater recharge, thereby directly affecting leaf stomatal conductance, community leaf area, and growing-season GPP, which in turn determine the strength of carbon-water coupling at the inter-annual timescale (Zhang et al., 2020; Ji et al., 2022). Modeling studies have shown that increased PRE enhances growing-season carbon uptake and improves WUE (Zhang et al., 2023), whereas reduced PRE suppresses GPP and may increase the relative contribution of ET, leading to lower WUE (Song et al., 2016). Moreover, Hou et al. (2025) reported that in humid regions, the area where GPP dominates extreme WUE variability expands, while the area dominated by ET decreases, underscoring the critical role of GPP in shaping inter-annual WUE variation. (Hou et al., 2025). Taken together, these findings highlight the pivotal role of PRE in regulating inter-annual variations of ecosystem carbon-water coupling.

5 Conclusions

Used eddy covariance observation data, the daily, monthly to seasonal, and inter-annual variations of carbon fluxes (NEE, Re, GPP), water fluxes (ET), and WUE were analyzed. Furthermore, ridge regression was applied to identify the main drivers of carbon and water fluxes and WUE across different time-scale. Results show that carbon and water fluxes exhibit pronounced temporal variability in alpine meadow ecosystems. The Maqu alpine meadow functions as an important carbon sink on the TP, acting as a strong carbon sink during the growing season and a weak carbon source during the non-growing season. The dominant drivers of carbon fluxes vary with timescales: at daily and seasonal timescales, T_s is the primary control, whereas PRE exerts a stronger influence at the inter-annual timescale. ET is mainly



regulated by radiation at daily and seasonal timescales, but by LAI at the inter-annual timescale. WUE
 is controlled by Ts at daily and seasonal timescales, while PRE becomes the key factor regulating carbon-
 550 water coupling at the inter-annual timescale.

Based on site-level observations, this study examined the carbon and water fluxes of alpine meadow
 ecosystems in the eastern TP, and investigated their coupling characteristics, and the dominant drivers
 across multi time scale. Future research should incorporate long-term observations from multiple sites
 across the Plateau to extend the analysis to the regional scale, thereby providing a theoretical basis and
 555 technical support for a more comprehensive understanding of the functional dynamics and adaptive
 mechanisms of alpine meadow ecosystems.

Code and Data availability. All remote sensing data are publicly available from the respective supplier.
 Post-processed data and code used in this paper are available from the authors upon request
 (gaoverong@nieer.ac.cn).

560 *Author contributions.* **Yerong Gao:** Writing - original draft, Investigation, Conceptual ization,
 Methodology, Formal analysis. **Suosuo Li:** Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Methodology, Project
 administration, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **Haipeng Yu:** Funding acquisition, Supervision,
 Writing - review & editing. **Shaoying Wang:** Data curation, Supervision, Writing - review&editing.
Yongjie Pan: Investigation, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. **Zongming Li:** Writing -
 565 review&editing.

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