

Correspondence Authors:

Name: Guofeng Zhu ^{a,b,*}

Institution:

^a *College of Geography and Environment Science, Northwest Normal University,
Lanzhou 730070, Gansu, China*

^b *Shiyang River Ecological Environment Observation Station, Northwest Normal
University, Lanzhou 730070, Gansu, China*

Address:

College of Geography and Environment Science of Northwest Normal
University, No.967 East Anning Road, Lanzhou, Gansu, China 730070.

Tel: +86-13909310867

E-mail: zhugf@nwnu.edu.cn

1 Evaporation, infiltration and storage of soil water in 2 different vegetation zones in the Qilian Mountains: A 3 stable isotope perspective

4 Guofeng Zhu ^{a,b*}, Leilei Yong ^{a,b}, Zhao Xi ^{a,b}, Yuwei Liu ^{a,b}, Zhuanxia Zhang ^{a,b}, Yuanxiao Xu ^{a,b},
5 Zhigang Sun ^{a,b}, Liyuan Sang ^{a,b}, Lei Wang ^{a,b}

6 ^a *College of Geography and Environment Science, Northwest Normal University, Lanzhou*
7 *730070, China*

8 ^b *Shiyang River Ecological Environment Observation Station, Northwest Normal University,*
9 *Lanzhou 730070, Gansu, China*

10 **Abstract:** The processes of water storage and runoff generation have not been fully
11 understood in different vegetation zones in mountainous areas, which is the main
12 obstacle to further understanding hydrological processes and improving water
13 resource assessments. To further understand the process of soil water movement and
14 runoff generation in different vegetation zones (alpine meadow, coniferous forest,
15 mountain grassland, and deciduous forest) in mountainous areas, this study monitored
16 the temporal and spatial dynamics of hydrogen and oxygen stable isotopes in the
17 precipitation and soil water of the Xiyang River Basin. The results show that the
18 evaporation intensities of the four vegetation zones followed the order of mountain
19 grassland > deciduous forest > coniferous forest > alpine meadow. The soil water in
20 the alpine meadows and coniferous forests evaporated from only the topsoil, and the
21 rainfall input was fully mixed with each layer of soil. The evaporation signals of the
22 mountain grasslands and deciduous forests could penetrate deep into the middle and
23 lower layers of the soil as precipitation quickly flowed into the deep soil through the
24 soil matrix. Each vegetation zone's soil water storage capacity followed the order of
25 alpine meadow > deciduous forest > coniferous forest > mountain grassland. In
26 addition, the water storage capacity of shallow soils in different types of vegetation
27 areas was weaker than that of deep soils. This work will provide a new reference for
28 understanding soil hydrology in arid headwater areas.

29 **Key words:** Xiyang River; Stable isotope; Drought; Soil water storage

30 **1. Introduction**

31 In arid inland river basins, changes in climate and vegetation will affect the
32 hydrological cycle (Tetzlaff et al., 2013; Sharma et al., 2021). As an important
33 part of the water cycle, soil water in the unsaturated zone can be converted from
34 precipitation to stream or groundwater recharge. Determining soil water's evaporation,
35 infiltration, and storage properties is critical for understanding the regional
36 hydrological cycle and water balance under the background of climate and vegetation
37 changes (Brooks et al., 2010; Grant and Dietrich, 2017).

38 Isotopes, as "fingerprints" of water, have been used to track ecohydrological
39 characteristics, such as evaporation (Barnes and Allison, 1988; Zhu et al., 2021b),
40 groundwater recharge (Koeniger et al., 2016), infiltration paths (Tang and Feng,
41 2004; Duvert et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2021a), evapotranspiration distribution
42 (Xiao et al., 2018; Gibson et al., 2021) and water absorption by plants (Rothfuss
43 and Javaux, 2017).

44 Water seepage in the unsaturated soil zone and the water evaporation at the air–
45 soil interface are the main forms of soil water transport. Seasonal variations in
46 precipitation isotopes are often used to track the process of soil water leakage
47 (Stumpp et al., 2012). During the piston infiltration process, precipitation with
48 different $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ peaks are retained in the soil profile and gradually disappears
49 as the infiltration depth increases (Sprenger et al., 2016a), while the preferential flow
50 will keep these peaks until reaching the deep soil layer (Peralta-Tapia et al., 2015).
51 During a precipitation event, the response of the water isotopes in the surface soil to
52 precipitation is more obvious, changing to nearly that of the stable isotopes of the
53 precipitation. With the deepening of the soil layer, the seasonal variation in
54 precipitation isotope signals rapidly attenuates, and the influence of precipitation on
55 soil water gradually weakens (Sprenger et al., 2017). Evapotranspiration is the main
56 form of soil water dissipation. Because the mass of hydrogen and oxygen atoms that
57 make up water molecules are related to their thermodynamic properties, isotope
58 fractionation of water will occur in the process of the water cycle. The evaporation of

59 liquid water produces water vapor enriched in ^1H and ^{16}O , while the remaining water
60 is enriched in ^2H and ^{18}O (Ferretti et al., 2003). Dansgaard (1964) proposed the
61 concept of d-excess ($\text{d-excess}=\delta^2\text{H}-8\delta^{18}\text{O}$) to illustrate the intensity of evaporative
62 fractionation. In the state of isotopic equilibrium, the d-excess is 10. Compared with
63 d-excess, lc-excess can better explain the evaporative fractionation process. The main
64 reason is that lc-excess of precipitation and soil water changes smoothly and has
65 relatively small seasonal changes (Landwehr et al., 2014). The dynamic changes in
66 isotopes record the signal of soil water evaporation. This enrichment from dynamic
67 fractionation exists in soil water isotopes in different climatic regions. Compared with
68 temperate regions, the signals of evaporation in arid and Mediterranean environments
69 penetrate deeper into the soil (Sprenger et al., 2016b). Some water is stored in the soil
70 after evaporation and seepage. The water storage capacity of humid areas is higher
71 than that of arid areas, the water storage capacity of forests is higher than that of
72 grasslands, and the water storage capacity of the surface soil layer is lower than that
73 of deeper soil layers with higher clay content (Heinrich et al., 2019; Sprenger et
74 al., 2019; Kleine et al., 2020; Snelgrove et al., 2021).

75 In alpine mountains, climate warming accelerates the melting of glaciers and
76 frozen soil, and the dynamic interaction between water bodies stored in different
77 media becomes the main influence on the water cycle (Penna et al., 2018). Previous
78 studies on the evaporation, infiltration, and storage of soil water have mostly focused
79 on different climatic regions or vegetation types in the same climatic region.
80 Understanding the climatic and hydrological conditions of different vertical
81 vegetation zones and clarifying the regulating role of vegetation in the water cycle can
82 help better adapt to climate change's influences on the hydrological cycle in source
83 areas. This study monitored the stable isotope composition of precipitation and soil
84 water and the spatiotemporal dynamics of soil water storage in four vegetation zones
85 (alpine meadow, coniferous forest, mountain grassland, and deciduous forest) with
86 different hydrothermal conditions in the Xiyang River Basin. To explore the
87 differences in soil water evaporation, infiltration, and storage processes in these four
88 different climates, vegetation types, and terrain types, the following research

89 objectives were proposed: (1) to explore the evolution of isotope evaporation signals
90 and the "memory effects" of precipitation input, mixing and rewetting; and (2) to
91 understand the soil water storage capacity and influencing factors of four vegetation
92 areas in mountainous areas.

93 **2. Study area**

94 The Xiyang River originates from Lenglongling and Kawazhang in the eastern
95 Qilian Mountains ($101^{\circ}40'47''\sim 102^{\circ}23'5''E$, $37^{\circ}28'22''\sim 38^{\circ}1'42''N$) (Fig. 1). As
96 the largest tributary of the Shiyang River, it is formed by the Shuiguan River,
97 Ningchang River, Xiangshui River, and Tatu River converging from southwest to
98 northeast and ultimately flows into the Xiyang Reservoir. The average annual runoff
99 of the Xiyang River is 388 million m^3 , which is mainly replenished by mountain
100 precipitation and melting water of ice and snow. The runoff is mainly concentrated in
101 summer. The basin elevation is between 2000 m and 5000 m, corresponding to a
102 temperate semiarid climate with strong solar radiation, a long sunshine time, and a
103 large temperature difference between day and night. The average annual temperature
104 of the basin is $6^{\circ}C$, the annual average evaporation is 1133 mm, the annual average
105 precipitation is 400 mm, and the precipitation from June to September accounts for
106 69% of the annual precipitation. Precipitation increases with elevation, while
107 temperature decreases with elevation in this area, (Table 1) (Ma et al., 2018). The
108 zonal differentiation of vegetation in the basin is dominated by deciduous forest,
109 mountain grassland, cold temperate coniferous forest, and alpine meadow. The soils
110 mainly include lime, chestnut, alpine shrub meadow, and desert soil (Fig. 1).

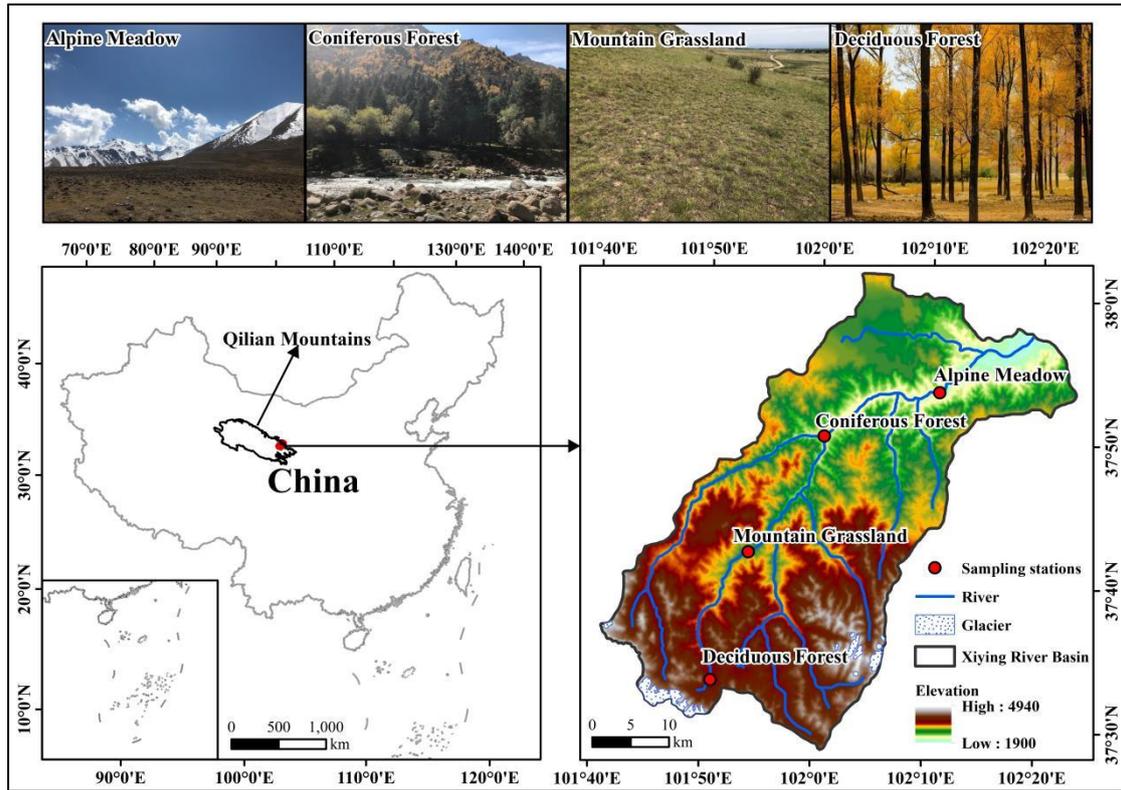


Fig. 1 Study area and location of sampling points

3. Data and methods

3.1 Sample collection

In this study, soil water and precipitation samples were collected from four vegetation zones in the Xiyi River Basin from April to October in 2017 (plant growing season). In 2017, the precipitation in the alpine meadows, coniferous forests, mountain grasslands and deciduous forests was 595.1 mm, 431.9 mm, 363.5 mm and 262.5 mm, respectively. The average daily temperatures in the alpine meadows, coniferous forests, mountain grasslands and deciduous forests were -0.19°C , 3.34°C , 6.6°C and 7.9°C , respectively (Table 1).

Collection of soil samples: Soil samples were collected once a month at depths of 0-10, 10-20, 20-30, 30-40, 40-50, 50-60, 60-70, 70-80, 80-90, and 90-100 cm from the soil layers in the four vegetation zones. Three duplicate samples were collected for each soil layer. A collected soil sample was placed into a 50 mL glass bottle, and the bottle mouth was sealed with Parafilm marked with the sampling date; the sample was then frozen for storage until experimental analysis. Each sample was collected separately in an aluminum box.

129 Collection of precipitation samples: The precipitation samples were collected by
 130 a plastic funnel bottle device. After each precipitation event, the collected
 131 precipitation samples were immediately transferred to an 80 mL high-density
 132 polyethylene bottle, and the bottle mouth of the samples was sealed with Parafilm;
 133 these samples were also frozen and stored until experimental analysis.

134 Meteorological data: During the sampling period, the local meteorological data
 135 were obtained and recorded by automatic weather stations (Watchdog 2000 series
 136 weather stations) set up near the sample plot.

137 **Table 1** Basic data of each Vegetation zone from April to October 2017 (*Long*-Longitude,
 138 *Lat*-Latitude, *Alt*-Altitude, *T*-Air Temperature (daily mean temperature), *P*-Precipitation (total
 139 precipitation during the observation period), *h*-Relative Humidity (daily mean relative humidity))

Vegetation zone	Geographical parameter			Meteorological parameters			Number of samples	
	<i>Long</i> (°E)	<i>Lat</i> (°N)	<i>Alt</i> (m)	<i>T</i> (°C)	<i>P</i> (mm)	<i>h</i> (%)	Precipitation	Soil
Alpine Meadow	101°51'16"	37°33'28"	3637	-0.19	595.1	69.2	72	47
Coniferous Forest	101°53'23"	37°41'50"	2721	3.34	431.9	66.6	42	41
Mountain Grassland	102°00'25"	37°50'23"	2390	6.6	363.5	60.4	37	54
Deciduous Forest	102°10'56"	37°53'27"	2097	7.9	262.5	59.8	40	53

140 3.2 Sample determination

141 The analysis of $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of all the above water samples was
 142 completed using a liquid water isotope analyzer (DLT-100, Los Gatos Research, USA)
 143 in the stable isotope laboratory of Northwest Normal University. Before analyzing the
 144 isotope values of soil water, the soil water was extracted from the collected soil
 145 samples by a low-temperature vacuum condensation system (LI-2100, LICA United
 146 Technology Limited, China). Both the water and isotope standard samples were
 147 injected 6 times during the analysis. To avoid the “memory effect” of isotope analysis,
 148 we discarded the first two injection values and used the average value of the last four
 149 injections as the final result (Penna et al., 2012; Qu et al., 2020). The analysis results
 150 were relative to VSMOW (Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water):

$$\delta = \left(\frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right) \times 1000\text{‰} \quad (1)$$

151 where R_{sample} is the ratio of $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ or $^2\text{H}/^1\text{H}$ in the sample and R_{standard} is the ratio of
 152 $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ or $^2\text{H}/^1\text{H}$ in the VSMOW. The test error of the $\delta^2\text{H}$ value does not exceed
 153 $\pm 0.6\text{‰}$, and the test error of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value does not exceed $\pm 0.2\text{‰}$.

154 **3.3 Analysis method**

155 **3.3.1 Lc-excess**

156 The linear relationship between $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in precipitation and soil water is
 157 defined as the LMWL (local meteoric water line) and SWL (soil waterline),
 158 respectively, are of great significance for studying the evaporative fractionation of
 159 stable isotopes during the water cycle. We further calculated the line-conditioned
 160 excess for each soil water and precipitation sample. The lc-excess in different water
 161 bodies can characterize the evaporation index of different water bodies relative to the
 162 local precipitation (Landwehr and Coplen, 2006).

$$\text{lc-excess} = \delta^2\text{H} - a \times \delta^{18}\text{O} - b \quad (2)$$

163 where a and b are the slope and intercept of the LMWL, respectively, and $\delta^2\text{H}$ and
 164 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ are the isotopic values of hydrogen and oxygen in the sample. The physical
 165 meaning of lc-excess is expressed as the degree of deviation of the isotope value in
 166 the sample from the LMWL, indicating the nonequilibrium dynamic fractionation
 167 process caused by evaporation. Generally, the change in lc-excess in local
 168 precipitation is mainly affected by different water vapor sources, and the annual
 169 average is 0. Since the stable isotopes in soil water are enriched by evaporation, the
 170 average lc-excess is usually negative (Landwehr et al., 2014; Sprenger et al., 2017).

171 **3.3.2 Potential evapotranspiration**

172 The potential evapotranspiration was calculated based on the Penman-Monteath
 173 equation (Allen et al., 1998):

$$\text{PET} = \frac{0.408\Delta(R_n - G) + \gamma \frac{900}{T + 273} u^2 (e_s - e_a)}{\Delta + \gamma(1 + 0.34u^2)} \quad (3)$$

174 where PET is the daily potential evapotranspiration (mm day^{-1}), R_n is the net radiation
175 ($\text{MJ m}^2 \text{ day}^{-1}$), G is the soil heat flux density ($\text{MJ m}^2 \text{ day}^{-1}$), γ is the psychrometric
176 constant ($\text{kPa}^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$), u_2 is the wind speed at 2 m height (m s^{-1}), T is the mean daily air
177 temperature at 2 m height ($^\circ\text{C}$), Δ is the slope of the vapor pressure curve ($\text{kPa}^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$), e_a
178 is the actual vapor pressure (kPa) and e_s is the saturated vapor pressure (kPa). These
179 data come from nearby weather stations.

180 3.3.3 Soil water storage

181 Soil water storage is the thickness of the water layer formed by all the water in a
182 certain soil layer (Milly, 1994) and is expressed by the following formula:

$$S = R \times W \times H \times 10 \quad (4)$$

183 where S is the soil water storage in a certain thickness layer (mm), R is the soil bulk
184 density (g cm^{-3}), and H is the soil thickness (cm). W is the gravimetric water content,
185 which is expressed by the following formula:

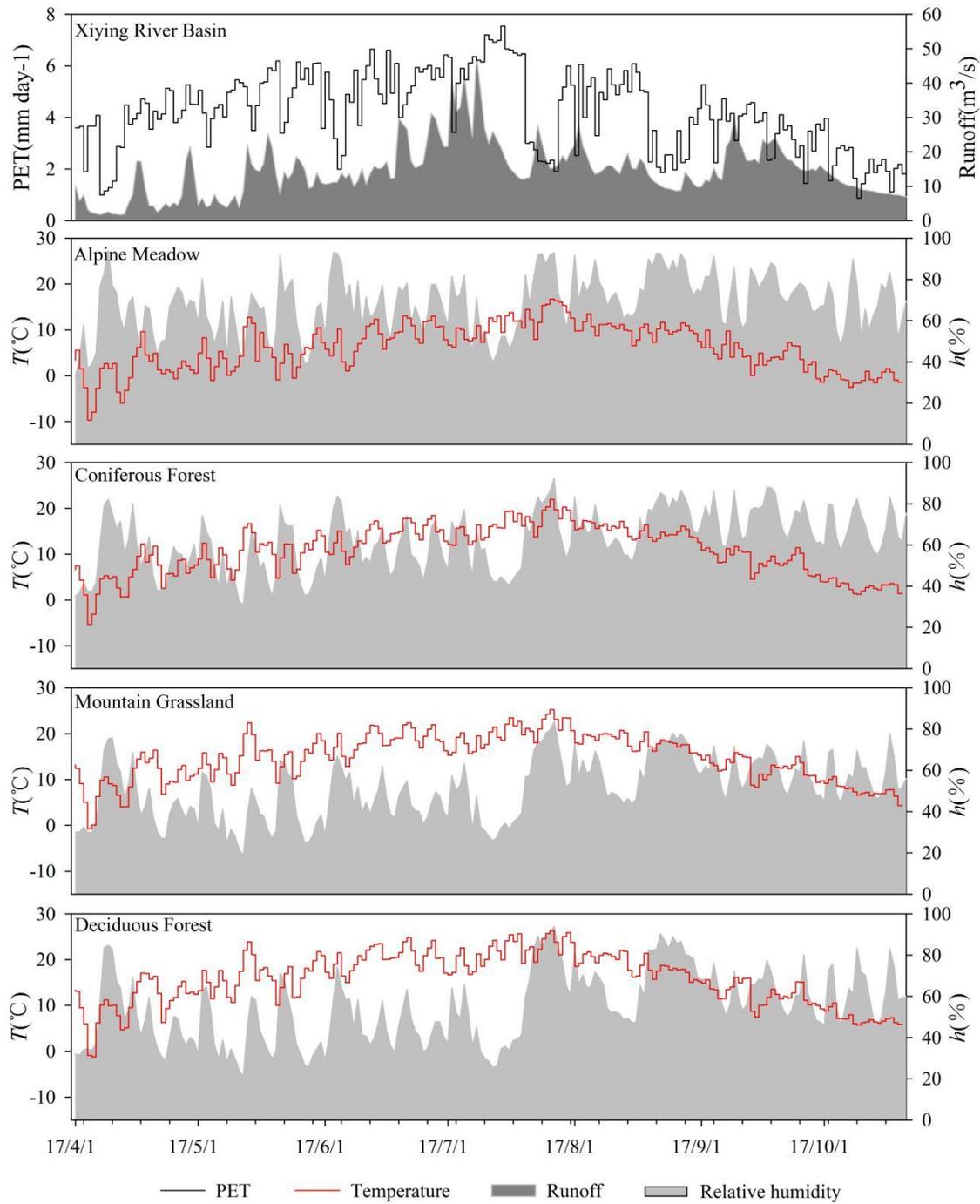
$$W = \frac{M_1 - M_2}{M_2} \times 100\% \quad (5)$$

186 in the formula, M_1 is the gravimetric value of wet soil (g), and M_2 is the gravimetric
187 value of dry soil (g).

188 4. Results and analysis

189 4.1 Hydrological climate

190 PET and runoff are important indicators that reflect the dry-wet conditions of
191 river basins. During the study period (April-October 2017), in the Xiying River Basin,
192 the potential evapotranspiration was 872.8 mm, the daily evapotranspiration ranged
193 from 7.5 mm (July 14) to 0.9 mm (October 9), showing a fluctuating trend around
194 July, and the PET value in April-July was higher than that in August-October. The
195 input of summer precipitation and ice/snow meltwater increased runoff, resulting in a
196 trend similar to PET. During the observation period, the total runoff was 3.1×10^9 m,
197 accounting for 89% of the annual runoff. The variation range of the daily runoff was
198 286848 m^3 (April 17) to 6125760 m^3 (July 13). The basin before July was drier than
199 that after July (Fig. 2).



200

201 **Fig. 2** Climatic and hydrological conditions of Xiyang River basin and its vegetation
 202 zones

203 To explore the differences in the natural environment in different vegetation
 204 zones, air temperature, atmospheric humidity, and precipitation were used to indicate
 205 each research site's temperature and moisture conditions. The hilltop is a typical
 206 alpine meadow zone, with a daily average temperature of 6.1°C, ranging from -9.7°C

207 (April 5) to 16.8°C (July 27). The daily average humidity was 68.2%, with little
208 difference in different periods. During the observation period, there were 72
209 precipitation events in the alpine meadow zone, and the total precipitation was 534.3
210 mm, which was relatively evenly distributed each month. In the coniferous forest zone,
211 the daily average temperature during the study period was 10.9°C, ranging from
212 -5.4°C (April 5) to 22.0°C (July 27). The daily average humidity was 62.5%, and the
213 precipitation was 400.6 mm, mainly concentrated from early August to late September.
214 Close to the foothills is the mountain grassland zone, with a daily average temperature
215 of 14.9°C, ranging from -0.7°C (April 5) to 25.3°C (July 27). The average daily
216 humidity was 51.1%, and the precipitation of the vegetation zone during the
217 observation period was 327.2 mm, mainly from late July to mid-August. During the
218 observation period, the daily average temperature in the deciduous forest zone was
219 15.8°C, ranging from -1.2°C (April 6) to 26.3°C (July 27). The daily average
220 humidity was 54.7%, and the total precipitation was 250.6 mm, which was
221 concentrated in the month from late July to late August. The temperatures of the
222 studied regions were ordered as follows: AM (alpine meadow) < CF (coniferous
223 forest) < MG (mountain grassland) < DF (deciduous forest). The humidities of the
224 studied regions were ordered as follows: AM > CF > MG > DF (Fig. 2).

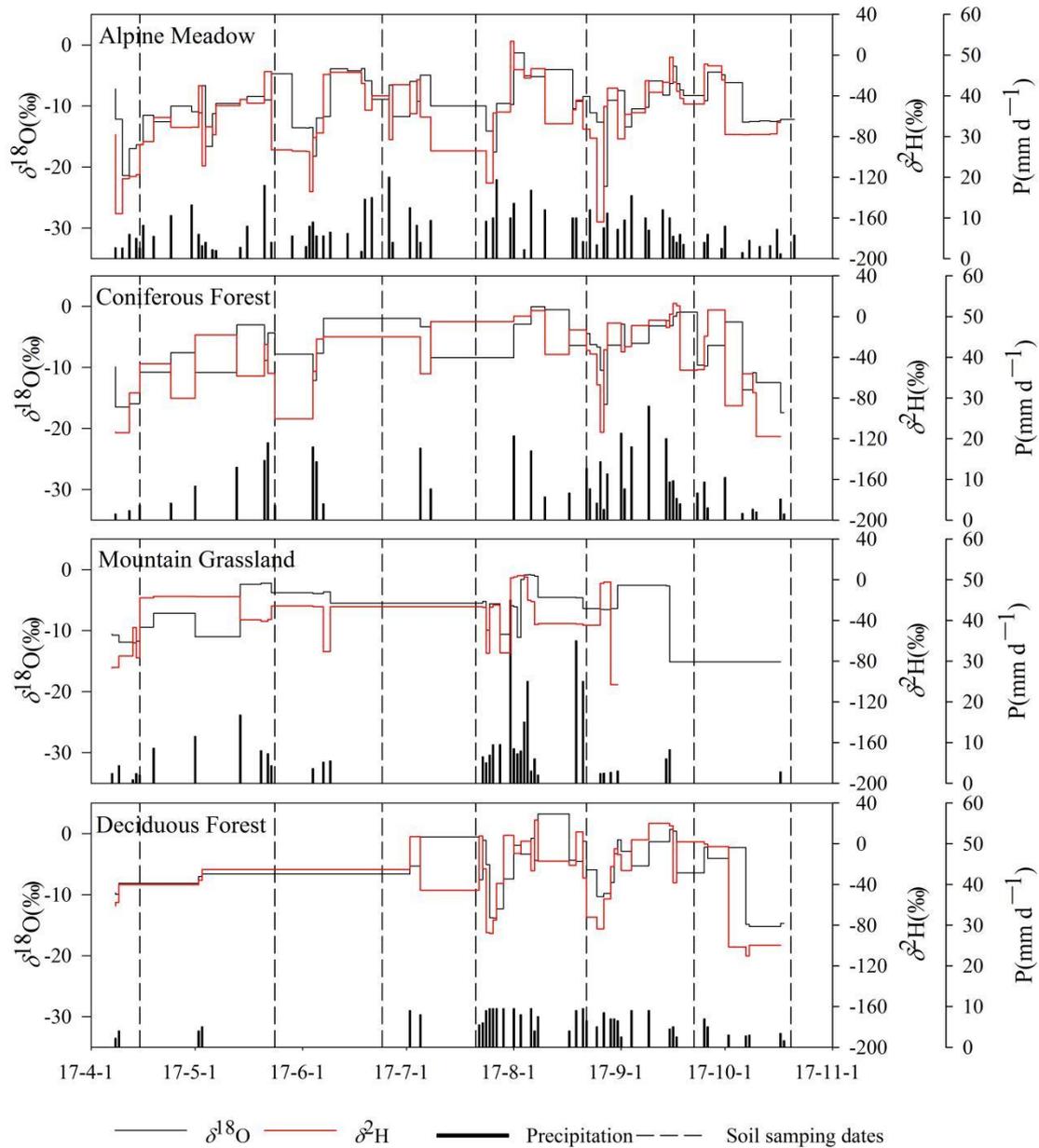
225 **4.2 Temporal variation in water stable isotopes in different vegetation zones**

226 Influenced by different water sources and complex weather conditions in the
227 precipitation process, the isotopic compositions of precipitation in the four vegetation
228 zones were different during the study period. The mean values of $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in the
229 alpine meadow zone (number of samples: 72) were $-73.1\text{‰}\pm 36.3\text{‰}$ ($-163.9\sim 13.7\text{‰}$)
230 and $-10.0\text{‰}\pm 4.3\text{‰}$ ($-23.1\sim -1.3\text{‰}$), respectively. The average $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of
231 the coniferous forest zone (number of samples: 42) were $-42.0\text{‰}\pm 37.2\text{‰}$
232 ($-117.8\sim 13.0\text{‰}$) and $-7.1\text{‰}\pm 4.7\text{‰}$ ($-17.4\sim -0.1\text{‰}$), respectively. The average $\delta^2\text{H}$ and
233 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the mountain grassland zone (number of samples: 37) were
234 $-37.4\text{‰}\pm 30.5\text{‰}$ ($-103.1\sim 4.2\text{‰}$) and $-5.9\text{‰}\pm 3.9\text{‰}$ ($-15.1\sim -0.9\text{‰}$), respectively. The
235 average $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the deciduous forest zone (number of samples: 40)
236 were $-31.8\text{‰}\pm 42.8\text{‰}$ ($-110.2\sim 23.2\text{‰}$) and $-5.8\text{‰}\pm 5.5\text{‰}$ ($-15.2\sim 3.2\text{‰}$), respectively

237 (Table 2). The maximum isotopic values of the four vegetation zones appeared on
 238 August 4 (AM: 13.7‰, $\delta^2\text{H}$; -1.3‰, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$), August 10 (CF: 13.0‰, $\delta^2\text{H}$; -0.1‰,
 239 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$), August 7 (MG: 4.2‰, $\delta^2\text{H}$; -0.9‰, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and August 13 (DF: 23.2‰, $\delta^2\text{H}$;
 240 3.2‰, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$). The highest temperature in each vegetation zone appeared on July 27.
 241 The high temperature caused the precipitation to undergo strong below-cloud
 242 evaporation during the fall, leading to the enrichment of isotopes. In addition, the
 243 atmospheric precipitation isotopes of the four vegetation zones had similar temporal
 244 variations: from April to August, the fluctuations in $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ increased, reached
 245 the maximum in mid-August, and then gradually decreased (Fig. 3).

246 **Table 2** General characteristics of precipitation $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in different vegetation areas
 247 from April to October 2017

Vegetation zone	$\delta^2\text{H}/\text{‰}$				$\delta^{18}\text{O}/\text{‰}$			
	Max	Min	mean	SD	Max	Min	mean	SD
AM	13.7	-163.9	-73.1	36.3	-1.3	-23.1	-10.0	4.3
CF	13.0	-117.8	-42.0	37.2	-0.1	-17.4	-7.1	4.7
MG	4.2	-103.1	-37.4	30.5	-0.9	-15.1	-5.9	3.9
DF	23.2	-110.2	-31.8	42.8	3.2	-15.2	-5.8	5.5



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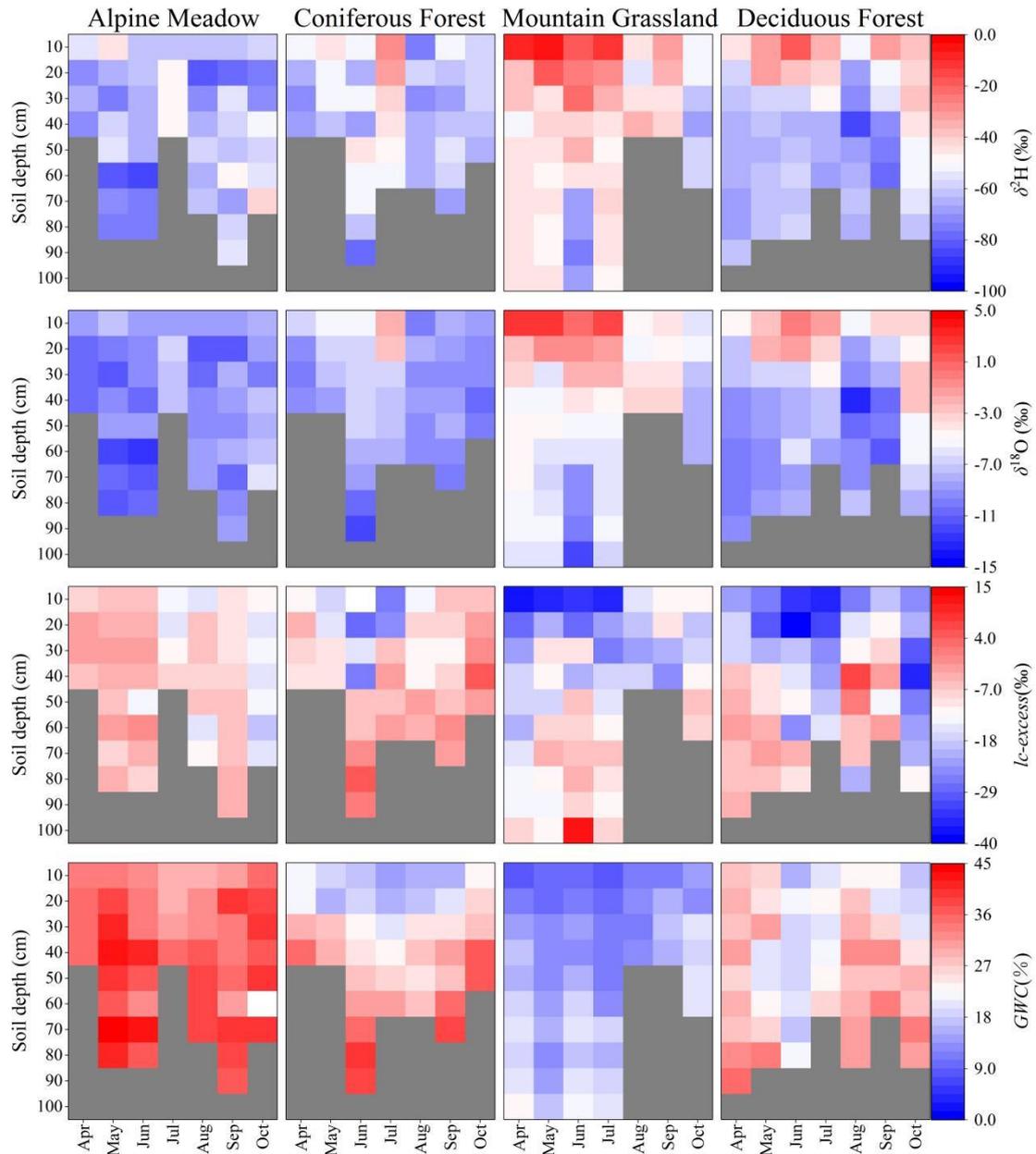
249 **Fig. 3** Time series of rainfall and isotope characteristics in different vegetation
 250 zones in Xiying River Basin, with dotted lines indicating the date of soil water
 251 sampling

252 The monthly variation in soil water isotopes records the signal of precipitation
 253 input and evaporation. The low-temperature environment and abundant precipitation
 254 events in the alpine meadows make the monthly average $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of soil water
 255 more depleted than other vegetation zones ($-69.4\sim-51.6\text{‰}$, $\delta^2\text{H}$; $-7.5\sim-10.3\text{‰}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$).
 256 Despite this, the SWlc-excess of most samples at this station was still negative, and
 257 there were different degrees of evaporation in the process of precipitation penetrating

258 the soil and mixing with original pore water, among which evaporation fractionation
259 was stronger in July (-11.9‰ lc-excess) and October (-14.5‰ lc-excess). The soil
260 water isotopes of the coniferous forests gradually changed seasonally. From April to
261 July, precipitation was scarce, the temperature rose, and the isotopes of soil water
262 were gradually enriched on the surface (-52.7~-29.5‰, $\delta^2\text{H}$; -7.0~-2.1‰, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$),
263 reaching the peak value of the observation period in July (-29.5‰, $\delta^2\text{H}$; -2.1‰, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$),
264 and continuous rainfall input from late July to mid-August resulted in soil water
265 isotope depletion (-57.0‰, $\delta^2\text{H}$; -8.1‰, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$). SWlc-excess was an obvious
266 fractionation signal opposite to the trend of isotope change, reaching the lowest value
267 (-26.3‰) in the sampling period in July, and the change in air temperature and
268 precipitation controlled the evaporation intensity. From April to July, the isotopic
269 value of surface soil water in the mountain grasslands was higher ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$ was greater
270 than zero), and SWlc-excess was lower than -30‰. During this period, the
271 evaporation and fractionation of shallow soil water were intense. Similar to in the
272 coniferous forests, in the mountain grasslands, the input of heavy precipitation from
273 late July to mid-August led to the depletion of soil water isotopes. There was only
274 sporadic rainfall in the deciduous forests from April to July, and the soil water
275 isotopes were gradually enriched on the surface (-46.1~-18.2‰, $\delta^2\text{H}$; -4.7~0.2‰,
276 $\delta^2\text{H}$), reached a peak in June when there was no rainfall event (-18.2‰, $\delta^2\text{H}$; 0.2‰,
277 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$), and then became depleted (-53.2‰, $\delta^2\text{H}$; -5.2‰, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$). In addition, due to the
278 influence of the Xiyang Reservoir and vegetation coverage, the isotopic enrichment
279 degree of soil water in this vegetation zone was lower than that in the mountain
280 grasslands. As the most intuitive form of water change, the gravimetric water content
281 was always at a low value in July (AM: 21.0; CF: 14.8; MG: 11.9; DF: 14.9), when
282 the evaporation was the strongest, and it was most obvious in shallow soil (Table 3)
283 (Fig. 4).

284
285
286

Month	Vegetation zone	$\delta^2\text{H}/\text{‰}$			$\delta^{18}\text{O}/\text{‰}$			lc-excess/ ‰			GWC/ ‰		
		Max	Min	Mean	Max	Min	Mean	Max	Min	Mean	Max	Min	Mean
4	AM	-55.2	-70.7	-65.6	-8.5	-10.8	-10.1	-2.7	-7.1	-4.7	25.9	23.0.0.	24.7
	CF	-52.7	-72.2	-63.9	-7.0	-9.9	-8.9	-4.0	-12.0	-8.4	27.6	14.9	20.0
	MG	-7.32	-50.6	-41.0	2.8	-5.8	-3.9	-8.8	-36.8	-19.4	21.7	6.5	14.7
	DF	-46.1	-69.4	-62.1	-4.7	-9.9	-8.5	-2.5	-23.2	-9.7	27.7	19.4	21.8
5	AM	-46.1	-76.5	-66.4	-7.4	-12.2	-10.1	-2.6	-7.7	-4.9	32.6	23.2	28.9
	CF	-45.8	-61.9	-53.5	-5.3	-8.4	-7.0	-9.3	-17.7	-13.0	22.6	9.0	16.1
	MG	-6.7	-47.3	-39.2	2.9	-6.5	-4.3	-4.5	-36.2	-14.4	15.7	7.6	11.2
	DF	-30.8	-63.5	-53.8	-1.9	-9.4	-6.9	-3.2	-30.1	-13.6	26.0	11.7	17.7
6	AM	-62.5	-83.9	-69.4	-8.9	-12.6	-10.3	-1.5	-8.4	-5.8	33.3	21.9	26.0
	CF	-45.8	-78.4	-58.7	-5.1	-12.0	-7.8	5.5	-26.6	-8.5	32.1	10.0	21.3
	MG	-19.7	-74.9	-46.9	0.8	-11.8	-5.8	13.0	-33.7	-11.0	19.3	7.5	14.2
	DF	-18.2	-64.9	-51.7	0.2	-9.0	-5.9	-4.6	-38.2	-19.4	13.5	8.4	11.1
7	AM	-47.3	-60.1	-51.6	-6.9	-8.4	-7.5	-8.8	-14.8	-11.9	25.4	19.0	21.0
	CF	-29.5	-51.4	-41.6	-2.1	-7.9	-5.6	-2.6	-26.3	-11.2	24.3	7.2	14.8
	MG	-10.6	-48.4	-39.2	2.3	-6.4	-4.1	-5.8	-35.8	-16.1	18.7	6.3	11.9
	DF	-35.1	-69.0	-54.1	-1.7	-8.7	-5.5	-14.8	-35.3	-24.5	18.2	11.8	14.4
8	AM	-58.5	-80.3	-66.6	-8.4	-11.6	-9.6	-6.1	-15.4	-9.7	28.1	19.5	25.1
	CF	-57.0	-75.5	-66.4	-8.1	-9.8	-9.2	-2.5	-13.1	-8.3	21.4	8.7	16.3
	MG	-34.2	-53.8	-44.0	-3.2	-5.5	-4.4	-14.7	-22.6	-18.7	11.3	9.5	10.4
	DF	-53.2	-84.3	-67.6	-5.2	-13.5	-9.2	6.8	-26.1	-9.6	23.6	14.7	20.6
9	AM	-48.0	-79.2	-61.0	-7.8	-11.1	-9.2	-4.3	-10.4	-7.2	29.9	20.3	25.3
	CF	-52.5	-67.7	-60.7	-7.8	-10.1	-8.8	-0.1	-11.3	-6.0	31.3	9.3	20.5
	MG	-32.3	-45.3	-38.8	-3.5	-4.4	-4.0	-9.1	-23.8	-16.5	15.3	9.1	13.0
	DF	-30.5	-77.0	-59.8	-3.1	-11.4	-8.2	-1.8	-19.3	-9.3	25.8	14.7	19.1
10	AM	-42.4	-73.5	-58.9	-6.1	-9.8	-7.9	-12.2	-18.2	-14.5	36.2	25.4	29.5
	CF	-59.1	-66.3	-61.7	-8.8	-10.5	-9.5	5.1	-5.3	-1.5	30.0	16.8	23.1
	MG	-50.3	-66.7	-58.3	-5.6	-8.3	-7.1	-5.5	-18.4	-11.9	18.3	11.4	15.8
	DF	-38.0	-61.8	-48.3	-2.7	-8.2	-4.9	-11.9	-34.8	-23.9	25.5	8.9	17.2



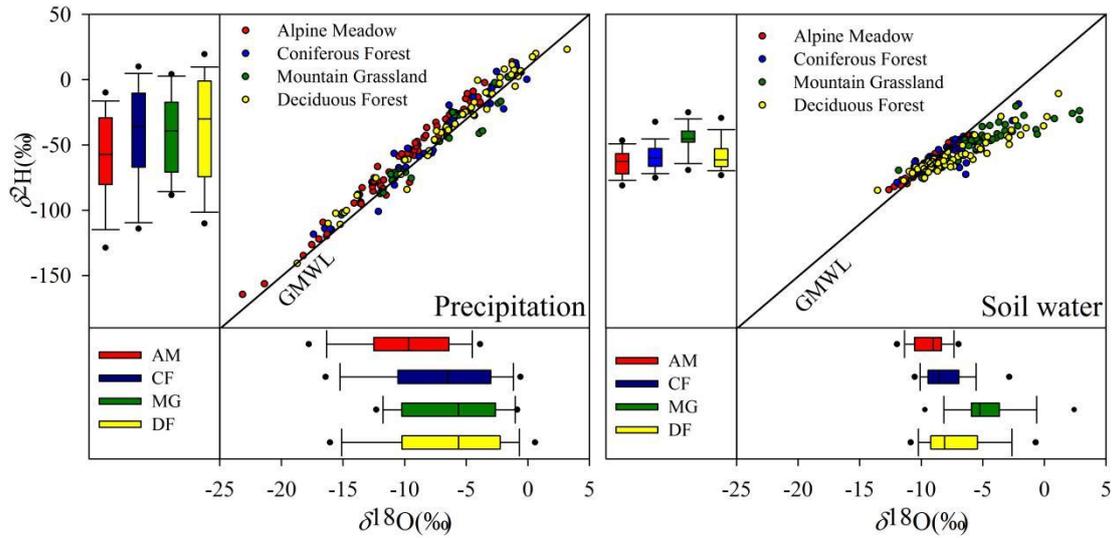
289

290 **Fig. 4** Heat map of the soil depth profile of $\delta^2\text{H}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, lc-excess and GWC in
 291 different vegetation zones, and the layer lacking measurement is indicated by grey
 292 color

293 **4.3 Spatial variation in water stable isotopes in different vegetation zones**

294 Isotope data of precipitation and soil water obtained from different vegetation
 295 zones are shown in dual-isotope space in Fig. 5. At the alpine meadow observation
 296 station, the slope (8.4) and intercept (23) of the LMWL were higher than those of the
 297 GMWL. The slope of the LMWL in the other three vegetation zones was lower than
 298 that of the GMWL and gradually decreased with decreasing altitude. With the

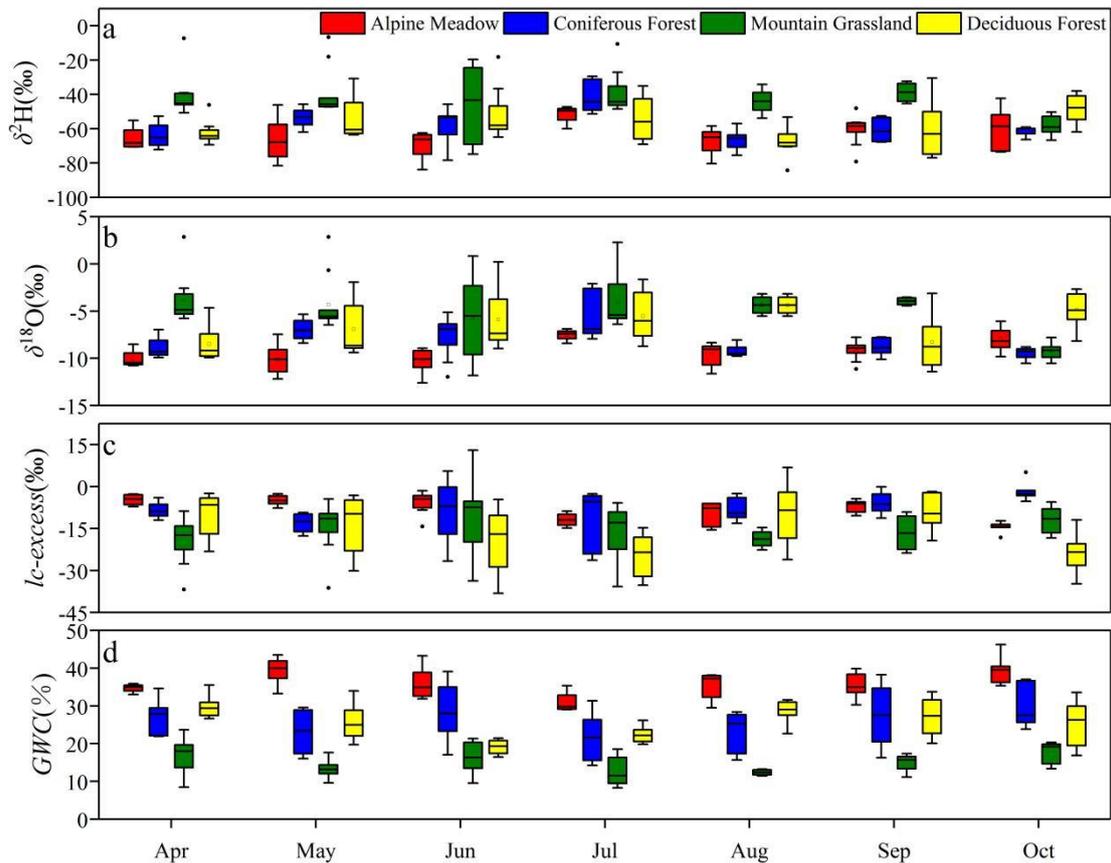
299 decrease in altitude, the slope of the SWL in all vegetation zones except for the
 300 deciduous forest SWL decreased (AM: 6.4; CF: 4.7; MG: 3.4; DF: 4.1), indicating
 301 that the evaporation of soil moisture increased. On the one hand, the vegetation
 302 coverage of the deciduous forest site was higher. On the other hand, the Xiying
 303 Reservoir enhanced the regional air humidity and decreased the local water vapor
 304 circulation driving force.



305
 306 **Fig. 5** Dual-isotope space of precipitation (left) and soil water (right) isotope data of
 307 four vegetation zones. In the box plots, the box represents 25%-75% percentile, the
 308 line in the box represents median (50th percentile), the required line indicates 90th
 309 and 10th percentile, and the point indicates the 95th and 5th percentile.

310 During the study period, compared with that in other vegetation belts, the surface
 311 isotopic value of the soil water in the mountain grasslands was relatively enriched
 312 (-24.3‰, $\delta^2\text{H}$; -0.8‰, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$), the lc-excess was smaller and deeper into the middle
 313 and lower soil layers (-25.8‰), and the gravimetric water content was relatively low
 314 (8.4%). Due to the difference in vegetation types and the influence of reservoirs, this
 315 change did not have an obvious elevation effect. Although the elevation was low, the
 316 soil water of the deciduous forests had more depleted isotopic characteristics and
 317 higher soil moisture than those of the mountain grasslands in most samples. Soil
 318 profiles obtained from different vegetation zones can reflect the evaporation signals of
 319 water. The low-temperature natural environment made alpine meadow soil less

320 affected by evaporation ($lc\text{-excess} > -20\%$), and the gravimetric water content was
 321 high (gravimetric water content $> 20\%$) during the whole study period. The surface
 322 soil water of the coniferous forests was easily affected by climate and had a higher
 323 isotopic composition (-29.5% , δ^2H ; -2.1% , $\delta^{18}O$) and lower $lc\text{-excess}$ (-26.3%).
 324 Due to evaporation, soil water isotopes in the mountain grassland and deciduous
 325 forest areas were enriched in the surface soil layer. In particular, in the mountain
 326 grasslands, the average values of δ^2H and $\delta^{18}O$ in the 0-10 cm soil layer were as high
 327 as -24.4% and -1.2% , respectively, and $SWlc\text{-excess}$ was lower than -25% , even
 328 close to -40% in some samples. In this case, the evaporation signals can easily
 329 penetrate the deep soil, making the gravimetric water content values at all the
 330 sampling sites lower than 20% (Fig. 4; Fig. 6).

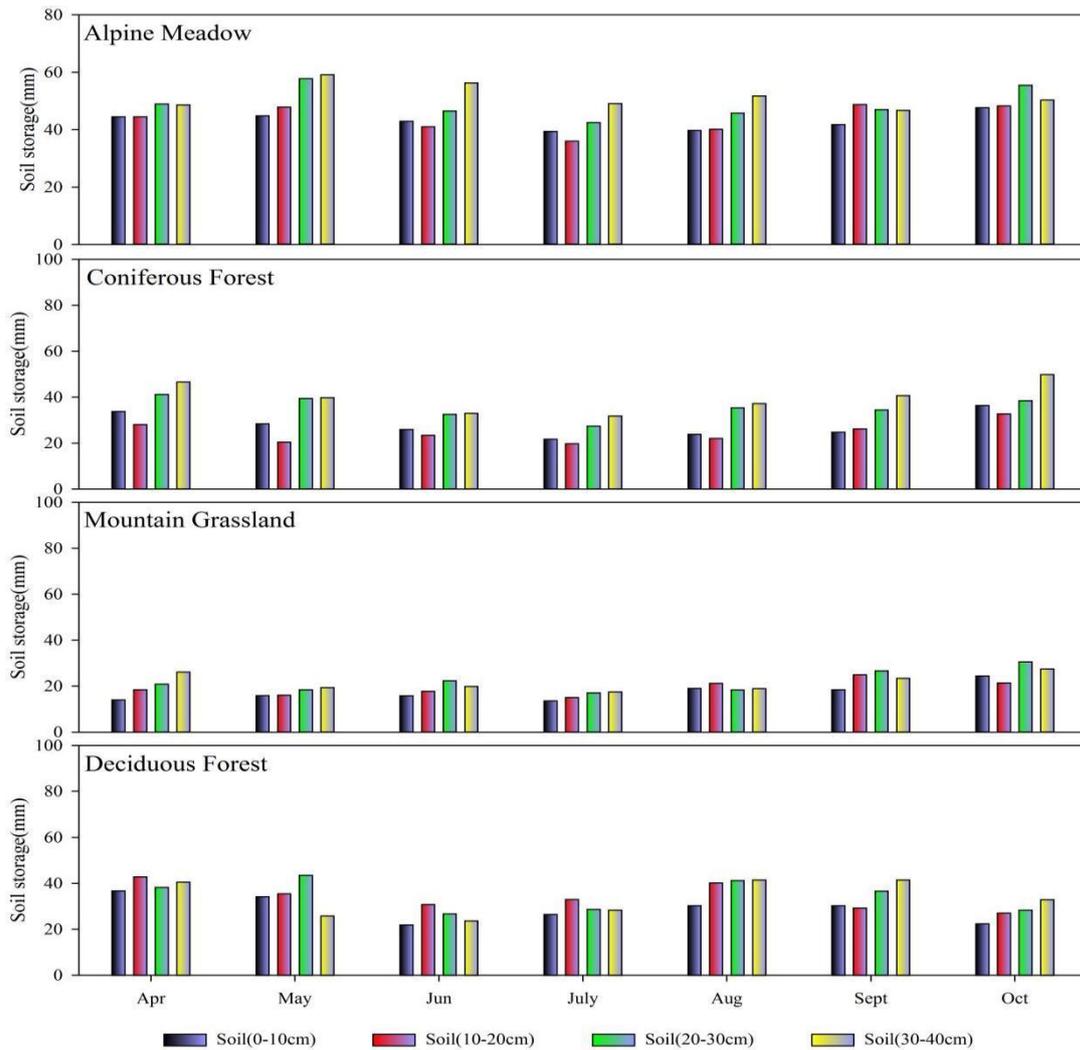


331
 332 **Fig. 6** the variation of δ^2H , $\delta^{18}O$, $lc\text{-excess}$ and GWC in different vegetation zones in
 333 each sampling

334 **4.4 Variations in the water storage capacity of the 0-40 cm soil layer in different**
 335 **vegetation areas**

336 This study used soil water to calculate the water storage of the 0-40 cm soil layer

337 in the four vegetation zones during the observation period (Fig 7). The water storage
338 capacity of the alpine meadow gradually decreased from April to July (209.7~167.2
339 mm), and the water storage capacity increased after July (167.2~201.8 mm). The
340 monthly average water storage capacity was the lowest at 0-10 cm (43.0 mm) and the
341 highest at 30-40 cm (51.7 mm). The water storage capacity of the coniferous forest
342 gradually decreased from April to July (150.1~101.2 mm), and the water storage
343 capacity increased after July (101.2~160.0 mm). The monthly average water storage
344 capacity was the lowest at 0-10 cm (28.0 mm) and the highest at 30-40 cm (40.0 mm).
345 The water storage capacity of the mountain grassland gradually decreased from April
346 to July (80.3~64.0 mm), and the water storage capacity increased after July
347 (64.0~104.6 mm). The monthly average water storage capacity was the lowest at 0-10
348 cm (17.5 mm) and the highest at 20-30 cm (22.0 mm). The water storage capacity of
349 the deciduous forest gradually decreased from April to June (159.3~104.0 mm), the
350 water storage capacity increased from June to August (104.0~154.0 mm), and there
351 was a decrease from August to October (154.0~111.8 mm). The monthly average
352 water storage capacity was the lowest at 0-10 cm (29.1 mm) and the highest at 20-30
353 cm (35.0 mm). In general, the soil water storage capacity of the 0-10 cm soil layer
354 was less than that of the other soil layers. The order of the water storage capacity of
355 the 0-40 cm soil layer in the four vegetation zones is AM > DF > CF > MG.



356

357 **Fig. 7** Monthly variation of soil water storage in 0-40cm soil layer of different
 358 vegetation zones

359 **5. Discussion**

360 **5.1 Evaporation of soil moisture in different vegetation zones**

361 In the arid river source area, the replenishment of soil moisture mainly comes
 362 from precipitation. The slope of the regional atmospheric precipitation line can reflect
 363 the strength of local evaporation. Due to a low atmospheric temperature, low cloud
 364 base height, and low air-saturated water vapor loss, the alpine meadow zone was
 365 weakly affected by secondary evaporation during precipitation. There, the slope of the
 366 LMWL (8.4) was even higher than that of the GMWL (Zhang et al., 2012). As the
 367 altitude decreased, the secondary evaporation under clouds strengthened, and the

368 slope of the LMWL of each vegetation zone decreased (Pang et al., 2011) (Fig 5). The
369 dynamic changes in lc-excess of soil profiles in different vegetation areas reflect the
370 process of soil water evaporation caused by drought during the study period. The
371 monthly average value of SWlc-excess in the alpine meadow zone was less than 0,
372 and the minimum value was -11.9‰ (July). Although the vegetation belt was subject
373 to different degrees of evaporation each month, it was less affected by drought, and it
374 was difficult for evaporation to penetrate into the middle and lower soil layers. The
375 SWlc-excess of the coniferous forest belt was greater than that of the alpine meadow
376 from April to June. The evaporation was the strongest in July (-11.2‰ lc-excess).
377 Similar to in the alpine meadows, in the coniferous forest belt, evaporation mainly
378 occurred in the topsoil. The vegetation coverage of the mountain grassland zone was
379 low, and the arid environment made the isotopes of the surface soil produce strong
380 evaporation signals (lc-excess was close to -40‰). In most samples, the SWlc-excess
381 of the 60-80 cm soil layer was negative. The evaporation signal shifted to the lower
382 layer of the soil (Zimmermann et al., 1966; Barnes and Allison, 1988). Similar
383 evaporation signals have been found in the Mediterranean and arid climate regions
384 (Sprenger et al., 2016b; McCutcheon et al., 2017). Evaporation signals exist in only
385 the surface soil in humid areas, and there is no difference between lc-excess and 0 in
386 the soil layer below 20 cm (Sprenger et al., 2017). The monthly surface soil
387 evaporation of deciduous forests was less than that of mountain grasslands from April
388 to June, and it was greater than that of mountain grasslands after July, mainly due to
389 the influence of the vegetation and reservoirs. There were commonalities in the soil
390 moisture changes in different vegetation zones characterized by more enriched
391 isotopes, stronger evaporation signals, and lower moisture content in the shallow soil.
392 With increasing soil depth, the isotope gradually became depleted, and the
393 evaporation signal was gradually weakened until it disappeared. The evolution of the
394 investigated isotopes, lc-excess, and gravimetric water content in the unsaturated soil
395 showed differences among different vegetation zones. From a high altitude to a low
396 altitude, the isotopic value of the surface gradually increased, and the evaporation
397 signal increased (Fig 4; Fig 6).

398 **5.2 Memory effects of precipitation input, mixing and rewetting**

399 The changes in soil water isotopes and soil moisture can evaluate the input,
400 mixing, and rewetting process of precipitation in different vegetation areas. The main
401 methods of precipitation input are plug flow and preferential flow. Plug flow is the
402 complete mixing of water through the soil matrix with shallow free water. Under the
403 action of plug flow, precipitation infiltrates along the hydraulic gradient, pushing the
404 original soil water downward. Preferential flow means that precipitation uses soil
405 macropores to quickly penetrate shallow soil to form deep leakage (Tang and Feng,
406 2001). After precipitation, the variability of isotope signals at a certain soil depth can
407 identify the seepage method of water (Peralta-Tapia et al., 2015). During the study
408 period, the soils of the alpine meadow and coniferous forest areas were seasonally
409 frozen and thawed year-round, and the difference in the soil isotope profile was small.
410 The soil moisture profile showed a trend of water increasing from top to bottom,
411 indicating the influence of the previous precipitation. The soil was humid, so the
412 replenishment of soil water by precipitation had the characteristics of top-down piston
413 replenishment. Preferential infiltration showed high variability in isotopic signals
414 (Brodersen et al., 2000), and the rainwater in mountain grasslands and deciduous
415 forests flowed into the deep soil rapidly through the soil matrix via exposed soil
416 fissures and roots. This resulted in the sudden depletion of soil isotopes at a depth of
417 60-100 cm. This may be due to the more recent depleted precipitation that quickly
418 reached this depth and the preferential infiltration into the soil. Water movement and
419 mixing in the unsaturated zone can be observed in the spatiotemporal variation in
420 isotopes within 1 m of the soil profile, and the alpine meadow and coniferous forest
421 zones underwent considerable rainfall. After a short period of weak evaporation, the
422 soil was rewetted by the next rainfall. In the alpine meadow, the soil moisture
423 remained above 20% each month. The mountain grassland and deciduous forest zones
424 had only sporadic precipitation from mid-May to late July, and the soil moisture
425 evaporated rapidly. With the decrease in air temperature and the occurrence of
426 continuous precipitation after July, the soil was rewetted after two months of drought,
427 and both vegetation zones showed the replacement and mixing of soil water isotopes

428 and precipitation. The results showed that the soil water storage capacity of the alpine
429 grassland was seriously insufficient, reflecting the incomplete rewetting of the soil by
430 precipitation at the end of the study. In addition, low soil water storage capacity will
431 enrich the remaining soil water isotopes (Zimmermann et al., 1966; Barnes and
432 Allison, 1988). We observed the memory effect of soil rewetting caused by
433 precipitation input and the mixing of different vegetation areas during the entire study
434 period. The changes in soil moisture in each vegetation area reflect different climatic
435 and hydrological characteristics (Fig. 4; Fig. 6).

436 **5.3 Influencing factors of soil water storage capacity in arid headwater areas**

437 As the temperature decreased rapidly with increasing height, precipitation and
438 humidity increased to a certain extent, and the vegetation showed a strip-like
439 alternation approximately parallel to the contour line, forming zonal vegetation with
440 obvious differentiation (Yin et al., 2020). The dry-wet conditions of different
441 vegetation zones restricted the soil water storage capacity in the basin. In the process
442 of low-altitude vegetation zone replacement, the precipitation decreased, the
443 temperature rose, the groundwater level dropped, and the soil water storage capacity
444 was weak (Coussement et al., 2018; Kleine et al., 2020). The soil water storage
445 capacity of the alpine meadow zone with low-temperature and rainy weather was
446 higher than that of other vegetation zones (results of the 0-40 cm soil layers from
447 April to October: AM: 187.8 mm; CF: 128.4 mm; MG: 81.2 mm; DF: 132.1 mm).
448 During the study period, the soil water storage capacity (0-40 cm) exceeded 165 mm
449 each month. With the decrease in altitude, the monthly difference in dry-wet
450 conditions in each vegetation zone gradually became obvious. With the increase in
451 temperature in summer, the environment became dry, and the soil water storage
452 capacity weakened (Sprenger et al., 2017). The soil water storage capacity of the
453 coniferous forest zone began to decrease in April, and the water storage capacity of
454 the 0-40 cm layer reached the minimum value (101.2 mm) in July. The variation in
455 temperature and precipitation was the main reason for the monthly difference
456 (Dubber and Werner, 2019). Although there was a certain water storage capacity in
457 the coniferous forests with some transpiration loss, the soil water storage capacity in

458 this vegetation zone was not strong. The water storage capacity of mountain grassland
459 soil was lower than that of other vegetation zones. The continuous dry and warm
460 weather in spring and summer led to the water storage capacity of 0-40 cm soil being
461 lower than that of 100 mm every month. In particular, drought stress leads to
462 insufficient soil moisture, making it difficult to maintain plant demand, resulting in
463 sparse vegetation and large-scale exposed surface soil, which further accelerates
464 surface water loss. The continuous precipitation from the end of July prevented
465 further drought development, and the water input gradually restored the soil water
466 storage capacity (Kleine et al., 2020). The deciduous forests had hydrothermal
467 conditions similar to those of the mountain grasslands, but the soil porosity of the
468 forest zone was obviously larger than that of the barren land, and its permeability was
469 higher than that of the barren land. Precipitation infiltrated the ground through roots
470 and turned into groundwater. The forest acted as a reservoir due to its strong water
471 storage and soil conservation capacity (Sprenger et al., 2019). The water storage
472 capacity of the 0-40 cm soil layer in the deciduous forest was higher than 100 mm at
473 each sampling time. In addition, the water content of the 0-40 cm soil layer in each
474 vegetation zone increased with the deepening of the soil layer, and the water storage
475 capacity of the surface soil was weak. The difference in soil properties also led to
476 more water storage in the middle and lower soil layers with higher clay contents
477 (Heinrich et al., 2019) (Fig. 7). Climate warming and the spatiotemporal imbalance
478 of water resources have disturbed the ecological-water balance of different vegetation
479 zones in inland river source areas (Liu et al., 2015). Plant growth mainly depends on
480 the water stored in shallow soil layers (Amin et al., 2020). Drought reduces soil water
481 storage and inhibits plant growth (Li et al., 2020). To effectively improve and manage
482 water resources in arid water source areas, exploring the heterogeneity among
483 different vegetation zones is necessary. According to the basin's current climate,
484 hydrology, and social economy, scientific and reasonable management policies should
485 be formulated according to local conditions for different ecological-hydrological
486 contradictions and extended to more areas.

487 **6. Conclusion**

488 This work provides further insights into the movement and mixing of soil water
489 in different vegetation zones in arid source regions. During the study period, the
490 dynamic changes in I_c -excess in the soil profiles of different vegetation zones
491 reflected the evaporation signals caused by drought. Soil water evaporation in spring
492 and summer and insufficient precipitation during the drought period were the main
493 driving forces of isotopic enrichment in the surface soil. The evaporation intensity
494 results of the four vegetation zones followed the order of mountain grassland >
495 deciduous forest > coniferous forest > alpine meadow. In the mountain grassland and
496 deciduous forest zones, drought caused the evaporation signal to penetrate deep into
497 the middle and lower soil layers. The SW I_c -excess below 70 cm of the ground surface
498 remained negative. Soil water isotopes and gravimetric water content record the
499 process of soil rewetting caused by precipitation input and mixing. The alpine
500 meadow and coniferous forest zones were enriched in precipitation. After a short
501 period of weak evaporation, the soil was rewetted by the next precipitation event.
502 There was only sporadic precipitation in the mountainous grassland and deciduous
503 forest belt from mid-May to late July. After July, the temperature dropped, and
504 continuous precipitation wet the soil again after two months of drought. The mountain
505 grassland and deciduous forest zones had only sporadic precipitation from mid-May
506 to late July. With the decrease in air temperature and continuous precipitation after
507 July, the soil was rewetted after two months of drought. Moisture and temperature
508 conditions were the key factors that restricted the soil water storage capacity in the
509 different vegetation zones. The soil water storage capacity results followed the order
510 of alpine meadow > deciduous forest > coniferous forest > mountainous grassland.
511 The water storage capacity of the surface soil in each vegetation zone was weak, and
512 more water was stored in the middle and lower soil layers with higher clay contents.
513 This research is helpful to understand the hydrological cycle in different vegetation
514 areas and can provide theoretical support for obtaining a regional ecological
515 hydrological balance.

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648 **Author Contribution statement**

649 Guofeng Zhu and Leilei Yong conceived the idea of the study; Yuanxiao Xu and
650 Qiaozhuo Wan analyzed the data; Zhigang Sun and Leilei Yong were responsible for
651 field sampling; Zhuanxia Zhang participated in the experiment; Lei Wang participated
652 in the drawing; Leilei Yong wrote the paper; Liyuan Sang and Yuwei Liu checked and
653 edited language. All authors discussed the results and revised the manuscript.

654 **Additional Information**

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