

1 **Effects of Urbanization on the water cycle in the Shiyang River**
2 **Basin: Based on stable isotope method**

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11 **Abstract:** In water-scarce arid areas, the water cycle is affected by urban
12 development and natural surface changes, and urbanization has a profound impact on
13 the hydrological system of the basin. Through an ecohydrological observation system
14 established in the Shiyang River basin in the inland arid zone, we studied the impact
15 of urbanization on the water cycle of the basin using isotope methods. The results
16 showed that urbanization significantly changed the water cycle process in the basin,
17 and accelerated the rainfall-runoff process due to the increase of urban land area, and
18 the mean residence time (MRT) of river water showed a fluctuating downward trend
19 from upstream to downstream, and was shortest in the urban area in the middle
20 reaches, and the MRT was mainly controlled by the landscape characteristics of the
21 basin. In addition, our study showed that river water and groundwater isotope data
22 were progressively enriched from upstream to downstream due to the construction of
23 metropolitan landscape dams, which exacerbated evaporative losses of river water,

24 and also strengthened the hydraulic connection between groundwater and river water
25 around the city. Our findings have important implications for local water resource
26 management and urban planning and provide important insights into the hydrologic
27 dynamics of urban areas.

28 **Keywords:** Urbanization; Water cycle; Stable isotopes; River Connectivity

29 **1 Introduction**

30 According to the "2020 Global Cities Report," urban areas are currently home to
31 more than half of the worldwide people, which amounts to 56.2%. This pattern is
32 expected to continue over the course of the next decade, culminating in an
33 urbanization rate of 60.4% by the year 2030. In addition, the study forecasts that by
34 the year 2050, approximately seventy percent of the world's population would reside
35 in urban areas (Chen et al., 2020; UN, 2019; UN-Habitat, 2020). Unlike other regions,
36 urban regions have a substantial influence on the hydrological system, resulting in
37 significant consequences on water balance and the water cycle (Gillefalk et al., 2021).
38 To meet the diverse household and industrial requirements in metropolitan areas,
39 where the population is concentrated and water demands are high, a complex
40 interplay between natural and manmade components of the water cycle is required.
41 These components include both natural features such as streams and groundwater, as
42 well as human-made systems like drinking water and drainage networks (Gessner et
43 al., 2014). Urbanization exacerbates water depletion and has far-reaching impacts on
44 groundwater (Flörke et al., 2018; McDonough et al., 2020), affecting the environment
45 and water availability (Bhaskar and Welty, 2015). Rapid urbanization will seriously

46 pressure the structure, function and water quality degradation of basin ecosystems
47 (Grimm et al., 2008; Sun and Lockaby, 2012; Sun et al., 2015).

48 Urbanization's effects on basin hydrology and the related processes have
49 complex and varying consequences (Caldwell et al., 2012; Martin et al., 2017). In the
50 past few decades, with the continuous acceleration of urbanization, human activities
51 in urban areas have become more frequent, and the hydrological effects of
52 urbanization have become more intense, attracting widespread attention worldwide
53 (Salvadore et al., 2015). The rise of impervious surfaces in urbanized regions
54 increases the rate of urban water runoff, which raises the danger of urban floods
55 (Wing et al., 2018). In addition, high-intensity human activities have led to increased
56 discharge of domestic sewage and industrial wastewater, deteriorating water quality
57 and ecological environment (Pickett et al., 2011). Meanwhile, basin water cycle
58 processes are influenced by a combination of meteorological and subsurface factors. It
59 has been found that urbanization has led to significant increases in runoff and peak
60 flows in rivers (Liu et al., 2018; Han et al., 2022) and has resulted in shorter runoff
61 response times (Anderson et al., 2022), which also exacerbates the intensity and
62 frequency of flooding in basins (De Niel and Willems, 2019; Blum et al., 2020). On
63 the other hand, the urbanization process leads to an increase in the amount of rainfall
64 in the basin as well as an increase in the frequency of extreme rainfall events (Shastri
65 et al., 2015; Fu et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2021), whereas in dryland inland river basins
66 in arid zones that are dependent on water resources for development, the impacts of
67 urbanization on the water cycle processes of the basins are still not clear, and they

68 need to be explored in depth the effects of urbanization on basin water cycle processes.
69 Hence, study into how human activities alter the features of river runoff and the water
70 cycle within a basin is essential for the prudent use and sustainable development of
71 water resources.

72 Isotopes that are stable of hydrogen and oxygen are very useful tools for
73 investigating hydrological issues that are connected to surface water and groundwater
74 sources (Fekete et al., 2006; Förstel and Hützen, 1983; Vystavna et al., 2021).
75 Researchers have been conducting studies using stable isotopes as tracers over the
76 course of the past few years in order to explore the impact that urbanization has had
77 on the water cycle. Urbanization has the potential to trigger and intensify convective
78 activity and warm-season rainfall in both urban areas and their surrounding regions
79 (Burian and Shepherd, 2005). Researchers generally agree that urbanization reduces
80 depressions on the underlying surface, weakens water permeability and increases
81 runoff. At the same time, the lower roughness of the underlying surface shortens the
82 confluence time (Guan et al., 2015; Oudin et al., 2018). Moreover, against the
83 backdrop of swift urbanization, the swift proliferation of urban regions has resulted in
84 a sharp surge in impermeable areas, alterations to regional microclimates, and the
85 erection of a vast number of infrastructures (including overpasses, subways, and so
86 on), all of which have significantly impacted the water cycle process in urban areas
87 (Jacobson, 2011; Westra et al., 2014). The complex connection between the permeable
88 and impermeable zones influences the surface confluence processes (Bruwier et al.,
89 2020). The construction of urban water conservation projects, such as rubber dams

90 and pumping stations, also affects the confluence process of urban areas to a certain
91 extent (Zhu et al., 2021). Limited long-term and continuous monitoring has hampered
92 accurate depiction of urbanization's spatiotemporal effects on basin hydrology.
93 Furthermore, the scientific research till lacks sufficient research on arid regions that
94 heavily depend on mountain river runoff for sustenance and development.

95 Against the background of increasing urbanization, it is particularly important to
96 study the hydrological impacts of urbanization on basins and their corresponding
97 countermeasures, especially in arid inland river basins, where the impacts of human
98 activities in urban areas on rivers may be more prominent. Therefore, the Shiyang
99 River Basin (SYR), located in the inland arid zone of Northwest China, was used as
100 an example to study the impact of urbanization on the hydrology of the basin using
101 the stable isotope method. The following problems are proposed to be solved: (1) An
102 examination of the mechanisms underlying evaporation and infiltration of surface
103 water within urban aquatic ecosystems; (2) Assessing the effects of urbanization on
104 water body connectivity through a comprehensive analysis; (3) The influence of
105 urbanization on the precipitation-runoff process is analyzed. This provides us with
106 essential information on how to maintain and manage the water resources found in
107 inland river basins, which is especially useful in light of the fact that the rate of
108 urbanization is growing.

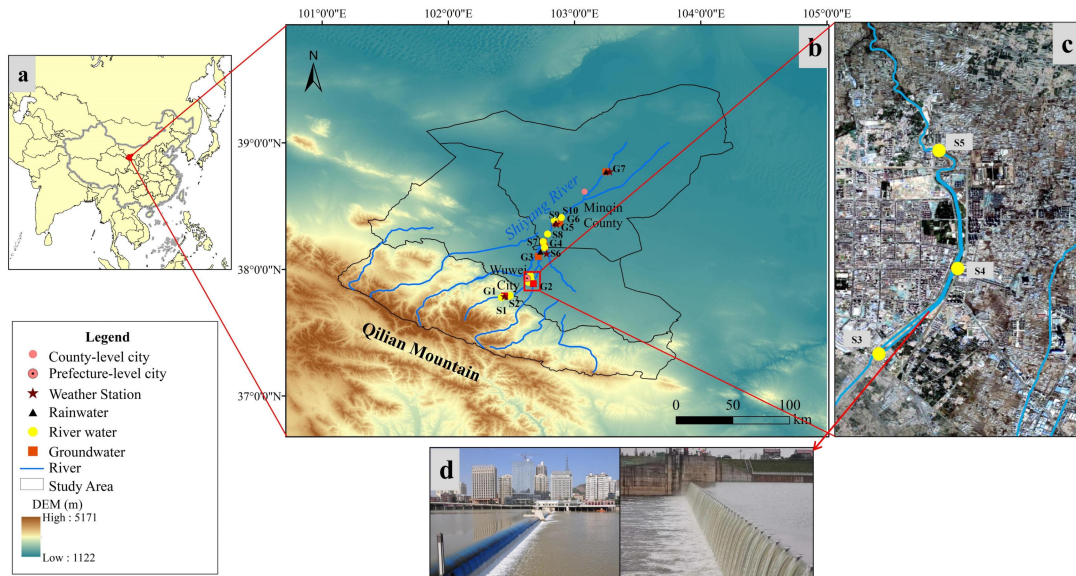
109 **2 Observation Systems and Data**

110 **2.1 Study Area**

111 The SYR Basin is located in Gansu Province, China, to the east of the He-xi
112 Corridor. Its coordinates are 101°22' ~ 104°16' E and 36°29' ~ 39°27' N. The SYR
113 Basin is bounded to the west by the Wushaoling Mountain and to the north by the
114 foothills of the Qilian Mountain (Zhu et al., 2019). The basin in question is situated
115 within the continental temperate belt, characterized by a parched climate and diverse
116 topography. Annual precipitation hovers within the range of 100 to 600 mm, while
117 pan evaporation levels exhibit greater variability, ranging from 700 to 2600 mm
118 annually. The majesty of the Qilian Mountains is where the SYR begins its journey,
119 and the Qilian Mountains are the source of its eight main tributaries. The SYR is
120 principally supported by the convergence of precipitation, snowmelt, and glacier
121 runoff (Wei et al., 2013).

122 The Wuwei City is crossed by four important rivers, namely the Xiyang, Zamu,
123 Huangyang and Jinta, which cover a catchment area of 3986 km². As the principal
124 water source for the entire region, the SYR Basin is one of the most highly utilized
125 inland river basins in terms of water resource development and consumption
126 worldwide. The dams in the SYR basin are predominantly situated in close proximity
127 to the urbanized regions of Liangzhou District, located within Wuwei City. Liangzhou
128 District, situated in the middle of the basin, boasts of a relatively high population
129 density and a notable commercial concentration. At the turn of the millennium,
130 Wuwei City only boasted a paltry five landscape dams positioned on its rivers. As of
131 2019, this figure has surged dramatically, with a staggering total of 51 urban
132 landscape dams now gracing both urban and peri-urban areas of the city. These dams

133 are primarily composed of man-made landscape waterfalls and rubber dams, fulfilling
134 their core function of creating public landscape water bodies within the urban expanse.
135 (Zhu et al ., 2021).



136
137 Figure 1 (a) The location of the study area, (b) Comprehensive observation system for the study
138 area, (c) Urban surface water sampling points (from Google Maps), (d) Common urban landscape
139 dams in SYR Basin.

140 2.2 Sampling and data analysis

141 Since 2017, a comprehensive observation system has been established in the
142 SYR Basin, and stable isotope observations and hydrometeorological observations
143 have been carried out on surface water, shallow groundwater and rainfall. Continuous
144 sampling in the SYR Basin was carried out from April 2017 to March 2021, different
145 water bodies were sampled, and we collected a total of 943 samples from 24 sampling
146 points (Table 1). The river sampling location ought to be selected such that it is
147 physically possible to go as close to the middle of the river as possible, with the goal
148 of minimizing the impact of areas with standing water and sewage. Artesian well

149 water was collected as groundwater samples at 7 sampling locations around the basin.
 150 The automated weather station was used to measure meteorological factors such as
 151 temperature and relative humidity while collecting precipitation samples. Water
 152 samples were sealed in high-density polyethylene bottles to avoid evaporation and
 153 leakage during transit and storage, precipitation samples were collected using weather
 154 station standard rain gauges. These samples were then frozen and wrapped with
 155 plastic tape.

156 Table 1 Basic information on precipitation, surface water and groundwater sampling sites

Parameter	Sampling Point	Number	Sampling period	Collection Channels
Precipitation	P1, P2, P3, P4, P5,P6, P7,	387	Precipitation events	Rain tube collection
Surface Water	S1,S2,S3,S4,S5,S6, S7, S8, S9, S10	270	Monthly	Sampling in river water
Groundwater	G1, G2, G3, G4, G5, G6, G7	189	Monthly	Sampling from wells

157 Analysis of the water samples is conducted through liquid water isotope analysis
 158 utilizing the DLT-100 (Los Gatos Research) in the Stable Isotope Laboratory at
 159 Northwest Normal University. Each water sample and isotope standard are injected
 160 six times in succession to assure reliable findings, with the first two injection values
 161 eliminated and the average of the last four injections used for final analysis, thereby
 162 avoiding any potential isotope analysis memory effect. The isotope measurements
 163 were denoted by the symbol " δ ," which indicates the deviation in thousandths from
 164 the Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water:

165
$$\delta_{\text{sample}}(\text{‰}) = \left[\left(\frac{R_s}{R_{v\text{-}smow}} \right) - 1 \right] \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

166 where R_s is the ratio of $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ or $^2\text{H}/^1\text{H}$ in the collected sample, $R_{v\text{-}smow}$ is the
167 ratio of $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ or $^2\text{H}/^1\text{H}$ of the Vienna standard sample, and the analytical accuracy
168 of δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is $\pm 0.6\text{‰}$ and $\pm 0.2\text{‰}$, respectively.

169 **3 Methods**

170 **3.1 Calculation and indication of *d-excess***

171 Dansgaard (1964) introduced the concept of deuterium excess (*d-excess*) as the
172 difference in isotopic composition between global precipitation and the Vienna
173 Standard Mean Ocean Water (V_{SMOW}) reference water, which corresponds to a value of
174 10‰. This parameter reflects the average isotopic composition of air masses
175 associated with precipitation and is widely used to identify atmospheric source
176 regions (Deng et al., 2016). *d-excess* was proposed by Dansgaard (Dansgaard, 1964)
177 and is defined as:

178
$$d\text{-excess} = \delta\text{D} - 8\delta^{18}\text{O} \quad (2)$$

179 **3.2 Calculation of evaporation losses of surface water**

180 The losses of surface water through evaporation and the resulting fluctuations in
181 water levels of rivers, lakes, and wetlands are key aspects of the terrestrial water cycle
182 that merit significant attention (Gammons et al., 2006; Hamilton et al., 2005).
183 Evaporation is the primary mechanism of water losses in the water cycle. For river
184 water in dry regions and urban river water that flows slowly due to manmade
185 constraints, evaporation cannot be ignored. Thus, it is vital to address the alteration of
186 urban landscape dam water caused by non-equilibrium isotope fractionation during

187 evaporation. The provided formula (3) can be used to estimate the rate of evaporative
188 water losses from the body of water in question (Skrzypek et al., 2015):

$$f = 1 - \left[\frac{(\delta - \delta^*)}{(\delta_0 - \delta^*)} \right]^{\frac{1}{m}} \quad (3)$$

189
190 The variables in the equation are as follows: f represents the ratio of water lost to
191 evaporation, δ denotes the measured values of the water body located in the urban
192 dam area of Wuwei City, situated in the middle reaches of the SYR and δ_0 represents
193 the initial value of the hydrogen and oxygen stable isotope of the water body. It is
194 widely assumed that the point of intersection between the local meteoric water line
195 (LMWL) and the local evaporation line (LEL) represents the average isotopic
196 composition of the input water body within the basin (Gibson et al., 2005). In the
197 current investigation, the intersection point marked by $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -7.24\text{‰}$ and $\delta\text{D} =$
198 -46.9‰ has been designated as the δ_0 value, while δ^* denotes the maximum isotope
199 enrichment factor and m corresponds to the enrichment slope. The calculation of the
200 above parameters in this paper is realized in Hydrocalculator software (Skrzypek et al.,
201 2015) (<http://hydrocalculator.gskrzypek.com>). According to studies (Qian et al., 2007),
202 it is more accurate to use $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ when calculating the evaporation losses ratio, so this
203 study calculates the f value of SYR water using $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value.

204 **3.3 Periodic regression analysis and the mean residence time (MRT)**

205 Seasonal fluctuations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values were analyzed using periodic regression
206 analysis to determine how these values changed over time. This method entailed
207 fitting seasonal sine wave curves to annual $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ variations using least squares

208 optimization (Rodgers et al.,2005):

$$209 \quad \delta^{18}O = \delta^{18}O_{ave} + A \cdot [\cos(c \cdot t - \theta)] \quad (4)$$

210 The modelled $\delta^{18}O$ values and the mean weighted annual measured $\delta^{18}O_{ave}$
211 values were both utilized in the analysis of seasonal fluctuations in $\delta^{18}O$ levels.
212 Additionally, the measured $\delta^{18}O$ annual amplitude (A), the radial frequency of annual
213 fluctuations (c), and the time in days after the start of the sampling period (t) were
214 also considered in this analysis. Furthermore, the phase lag or time of the annual peak
215 $\delta^{18}O$ in radians (θ) was determined through this approach.

216 An exponential model was used for the purpose of estimating the mean residence
217 time (MRT). This model operates on the presumption that precipitation inputs quickly
218 mix with resident water. In order to do this, the following equation was used
219 (Maloszewski et al., 1983; Rodgers et al., 2005):

$$220 \quad MRT = c^{-1} \cdot [(A_{Z2} / A_{Z1})^{-2} - 1]^{0.5} \quad (5)$$

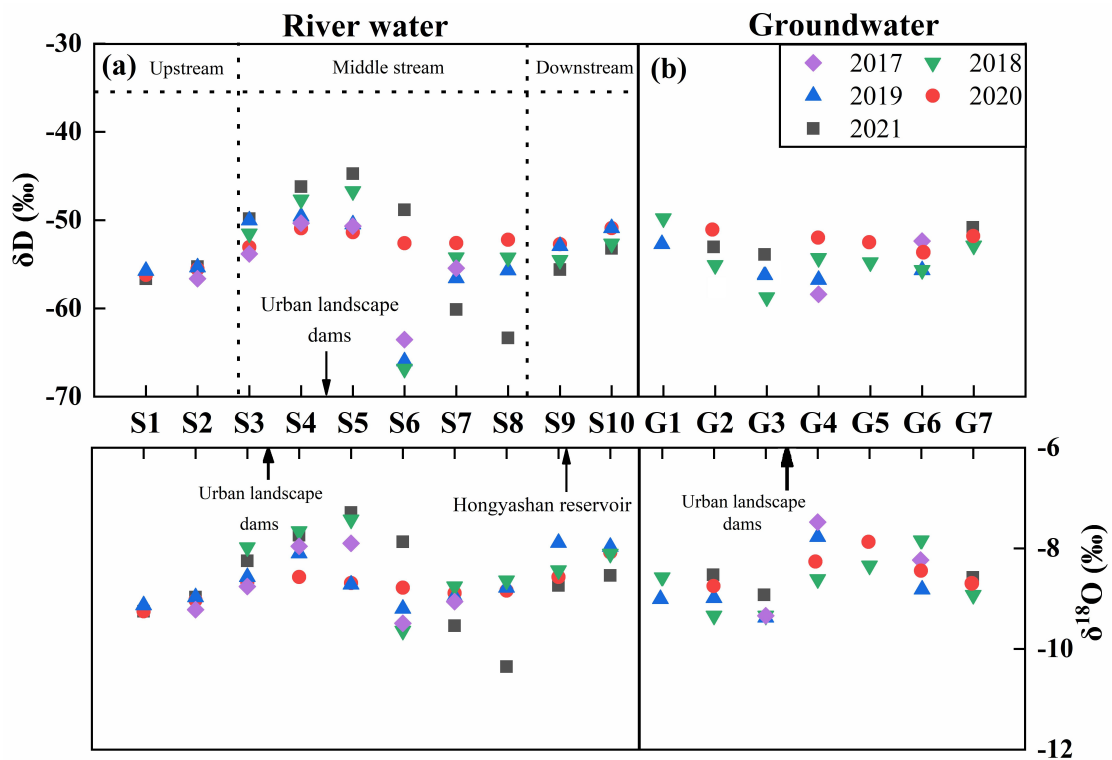
221 The amplitude of precipitation (A_{Z1}), the amplitude of the surface water outputs
222 (A_{Z2}), and the radial frequency of the annual fluctuation (c) as defined in Eq. (4) were
223 taken into consideration to estimate the mean residence time (MRT).

224 **4 Results**

225 **4.1 Spatiotemporal distribution of isotopes in different water bodies**

226 The isotopes values of the surface water in the SYR Basin show a clear
227 enrichment from upstream to downstream when viewed from space. It is worth noting
228 that landscape dams and reservoirs in urban areas alter this pattern significantly,
229 producing markedly higher isotopic compositions of surface water around such
230 structures (Fig. 2). To be more specific, the surface water throughout the entire basin

231 had average isotope values that were lower than those of the sampling points in the
 232 dams region, which had values that were greater (Table 2). In addition, the dams
 233 slowed the flow of the river, this resulted in isotope enrichment of the river water.
 234 Notably, these values exhibit spatial and temporal variability, with the largest δD and
 235 $\delta^{18}O$ values observed in river water, and the lowest in groundwater.



236
 237 Figure 2 Longitudinal variation of δD and $\delta^{18}O$ in river water and groundwater in the SYR Basin.

238 To be more specific, over the course of time, these values shift seasonally from
 239 spring to autumn (Table 2, Fig. 3). There was a range of values from -75.43‰ to
 240 -40.62‰ for the δD values of surface water, with an average of -53.53‰. The $\delta^{18}O$
 241 values display a varied range, from -10.43‰ to -5.53‰, with an average of -8.54‰,
 242 whereas the *d-excess* values demonstrate variability ranging from 10.26‰ to 29.72‰,
 243 with 15.28‰ as the average value. A broad spectrum of δD values are observed
 244 during the summer season, ranging from -61.27‰ to -31.16‰, with an average

245 -48.90‰. Meanwhile, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values fluctuate between -9.52‰ and -3.41‰, with an
 246 average -8.12‰. The phenomenon that was observed can be traced back primarily to
 247 the aftereffects of the Hongyashan Reservoir built downstream. Because the reservoir
 248 has such a large capacity for water retention, it causes significant amounts of river
 249 water to evaporate in summer, which ultimately results in a discernible enrichment of
 250 the isotopic composition. In both surface water and groundwater, δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ showed
 251 significant seasonal variations (Fig. 3). Seasonal variations were more pronounced in
 252 surface water than in groundwater, with surface water showing the largest amplitude
 253 in spring and the smallest amplitude in fall, while groundwater showed closer
 254 amplitudes in all seasons, which also indicates that groundwater is less disturbed.

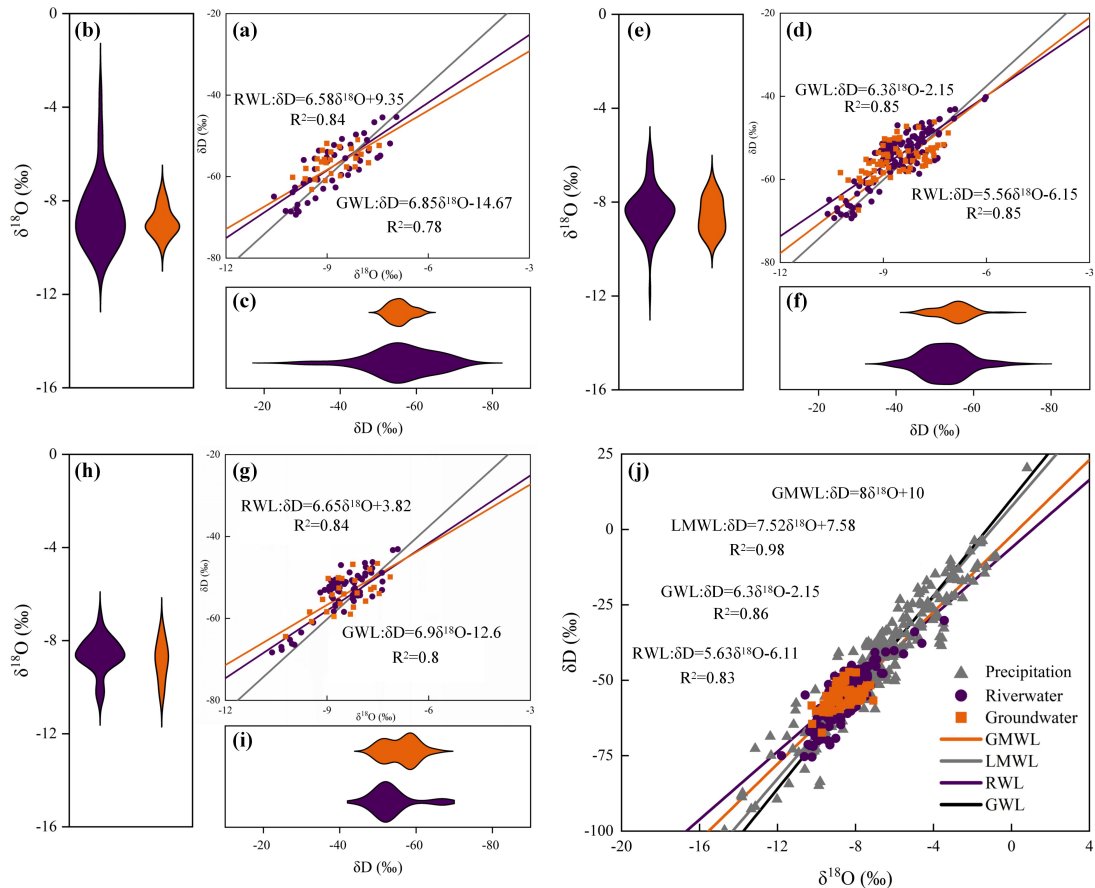
255 Table 2 Isotopic composition statistics of surface water in SYR Basin

Sampling Point	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$			δD			<i>d-excess</i>		
	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mean	Min.	Max.
S1	-9.35	-9.86	-9.06	-57.16	-59.46	-52.47	17.2	12.33	23.91
S2	-9.22	-10.02	-8.78	-56.62	-63.85	-10.02	16.46	15.53	19.28
S3	-7.74	-9.03	-7.75	-49.84	-50.76	-46.66	15.42	13.59	19.48
S4	-7.29	-8.79	-7.65	-46.22	-53.29	-46.26	14.9	11.01	18.03
S5	-7.43	-9.11	-5.53	-48.84	-56.66	-40.62	14.29	14.21	29.72
S6	-9.54	-10.43	-8.29	-60.14	-75.43	-54.40	14.31	10.26	17.62
S7	-9.04	-9.54	-8.21	-54.23	-70.04	-48.03	16.54	12.81	21.16
S8	-9.15	-10.35	-8.64	-56.37	-63.35	-52.22	16.84	14.56	19.54
S9	-8.41	-9.70	-6.02	-53.95	-65.33	-45.54	13.33	12.31	19.50
S10	-8.18	-8.84	-6.58	-51.92	-58.05	-45.39	13.48	12.21	21.72

257 4.2 The Relationship between δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values

258 As shown by the linear fitting equation $\delta\text{D} = 7.52\delta^{18}\text{O} + 7.58$, there is a significant
 259 linear positive correlation ($R^2 = 0.96$) between δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in atmospheric
 260 precipitation in the SYR Basin (Fig. 3). It is clear that the slope (7.52) and intercept
 261 (7.58) of the local meteoric water line (LMWL) are smaller than the global meteoric

262 water line (GMWL), which can be attributed to the basin's location in an inland arid
263 region, where precipitation disturbances are less frequent and evaporative
264 fractionation of precipitation is stronger. On the other hand, compared with the slopes
265 of the LMWL, the slopes of the surface water line (SWL) and the groundwater line
266 (GWL) are relatively close (Fig. 3), indicating that there is a strong hydraulic
267 connection between groundwater and river water in the SYR basin, and the slopes of
268 GWL and RWL show $GWL > RWL$ in all seasons, suggesting that the river water is
269 most affected by evaporation and groundwater is less affected by evaporation. In
270 addition, both surface water and groundwater sampling points were distributed near
271 the LMWL, indicating that both river water and groundwater receive recharge from
272 precipitation. Overall, the H-O isotopic composition of surface water samples from
273 the SYR showed a linear regression of $\delta D = 5.63\delta^{18}O - 6.11$, and the slope of RWL
274 was the largest in the autumn (slope = 6.65) and the smallest in the summer (slope =
275 5.56), which indicated that the river water evaporated the weakest in the autumn and
276 the strongest in the summer.



277

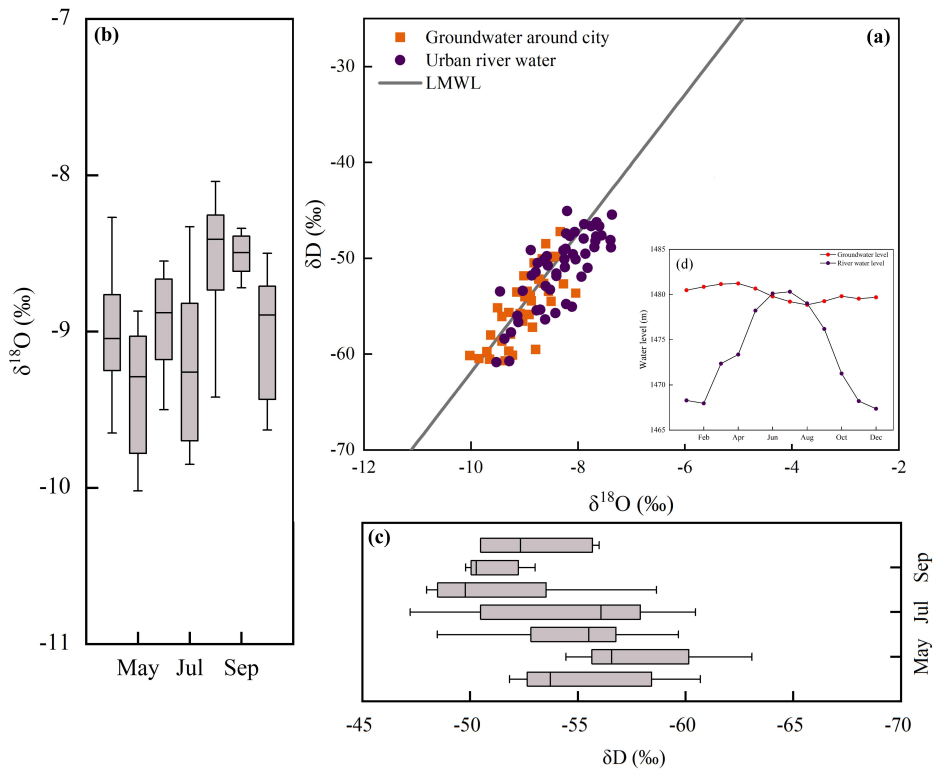
278 Figure 3 Relationship between δD and $\delta^{18}O$ in various water bodies in the SYR Basin during
 279 different seasons (a,d,g represent spring, summer, autumn; j represent the comparison of RWL,
 280 GWL, LMWL and GMWL during the entire sampling period;b-c, e-f, h-i represent the
 281 distribution of δD and $\delta^{18}O$ in river water and groundwater in spring, summer and autumn).

282 Isotopic analysis of groundwater samples reveals a range of δD and $\delta^{18}O$ values
 283 spanning from -50.7‰ to -71.9‰ and from -7.23‰ to -10.4‰ , respectively.
 284 Moreover, the groundwater samples analyzed in the study displayed a linear
 285 regression of $\delta D = 6.3\delta^{18}O - 2.15$ ($R^2 = 0.86$). And it is interesting to note that
 286 groundwater also shows significant enrichment near the urban landscape dams (Fig.
 287 2), indicating that groundwater is also affected by evapotranspiration, mainly because
 288 the Wuwei urban area is in the region of a large alluvial fan in front of the mountains,
 289 the sand and gravel aquifers are very permeable, and the depth of groundwater burial

290 is shallow, making the groundwater more susceptible to the effects of evaporation.

291 **4.3 Impact of urbanization on groundwater**

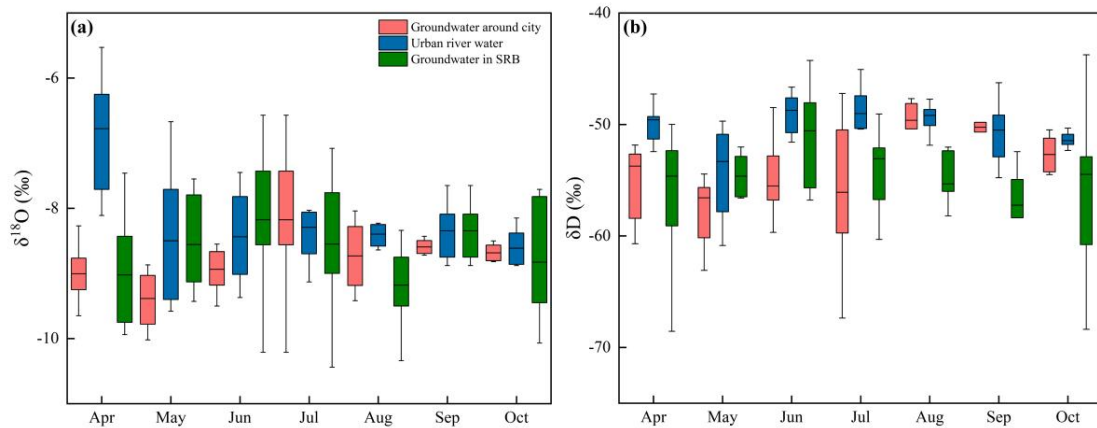
292 We compared monthly variations in isotopic values of groundwater near the city
293 with monthly variations in river water from a landscaped dam and found that the
294 monthly variations in groundwater near the city were closely related to river water
295 from a landscaped dam. The concentration of groundwater sampling sites near the city
296 near the sampling sites of the dam water indicates that the groundwater around the
297 city has similar isotopic signatures to the dam and river water (Fig. 4). This suggests
298 that groundwater near the city is recharged by river water during the summer months.
299 In addition, we demonstrated this by comparing the data of the dam river water with
300 the groundwater level. In addition, a portion of the groundwater sampling sites around
301 the city are located in the lower right corner of the LMWL, which suggests that the
302 groundwater around the city may also experience some degree of evaporation.



303
 304 Figure 4 (a) Relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD of groundwater around city and urban river water;
 305 (b) Monthly variations of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in groundwater around city; (c) Monthly variations of δD in
 306 groundwater around city.

307 In addition, we also compared and analyzed the changes of groundwater isotope
 308 values with those of groundwater around the city in the whole basin, and found that
 309 there was a close correlation between the changes of groundwater around the city and
 310 those of the river, while the other groundwater isotope values did not have a strong
 311 correlation with the river (Fig. 5). In the urban area, the mean values of δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
 312 of the dammed river water were -8.26‰ and -49.88‰ , respectively, while the mean
 313 values of δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the groundwater around the city were -8.44‰ and -50.36‰ ,
 314 respectively, which indicated that the δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the groundwater around
 315 the city were similar to those of the river water in the dammed city. In addition, the
 316 isotopic mean values of δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of groundwater throughout the SYR basin were

317 -8.73‰ and -54.78‰, which are significantly different from the isotopic values of
318 river water in the urban dam.

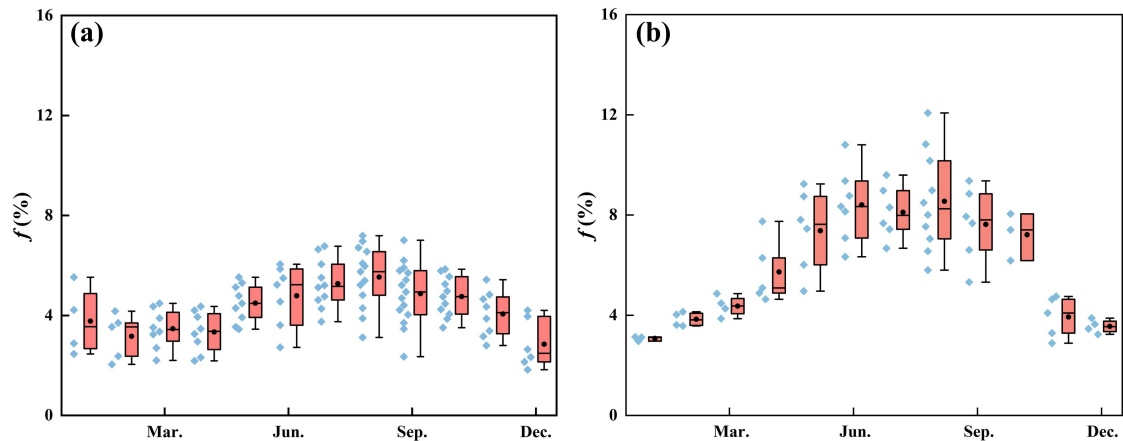


319
320 Figure 5 (a) Monthly variations of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in urban river water and groundwater around city, (b)
321 Monthly variations of δD in urban river water and groundwater around city.

322 4.4 Temporal and spatial variation of surface water evaporation losses in the 323 urban area of Wuwei

324 In addition to being an essential part of the hydrological cycle, evaporation is
325 widely recognized as one of the most significant factors driving climate change in
326 semi-arid regions and in telluric ecosystems (Gibson et al., 2002; Gibson and Edwards,
327 2002). An obviously spatial and temporal fluctuation can be seen in the amount of
328 surface water that is lost to evaporation in the upper mountain area as well as the
329 intermediate urban area of the SYR basin (Fig. 6). Analyzed from a time-varying
330 perspective, there is significant seasonal variation in surface water evaporation losses
331 both in the upstream mountainous region and the midstream urban area of Wuwei,
332 with the highest rates occurring during summer and the lowest during winter (Fig.6).
333 Additionally, a spatial comparison reveals that surface water evaporation losses in the
334 midstream urban area of Wuwei are significantly greater than those in the upstream

335 mountainous area.



336

337 Figure 6 Evaporation losses from surface water in different areas of the SYR (a) Upper reaches

338 mountainous area, (b) Middle reaches urban areas.

339 Differences contributing to evaporation losses from the river in the upstream and

340 midstream urban areas can be explained mainly by the landscape characteristics of the

341 basin. In the upstream of the Shiyang River, higher vegetation cover and atmospheric

342 humidity in the mountainous areas result in weaker evaporation losses, while the

343 midstream are dominated by urban land, and urban landscapes increase the watershed

344 area and slow down the river, exacerbating evaporation losses from the river.

345 5 Discussion

346 5.1 Effects of Urbanization on the Rainfall-Runoff Process

347 Fig. 7 depicts the regression model of rainfall events in the SYR Basin,

348 represented by a sine wave, and the fitting of surface water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ across the research

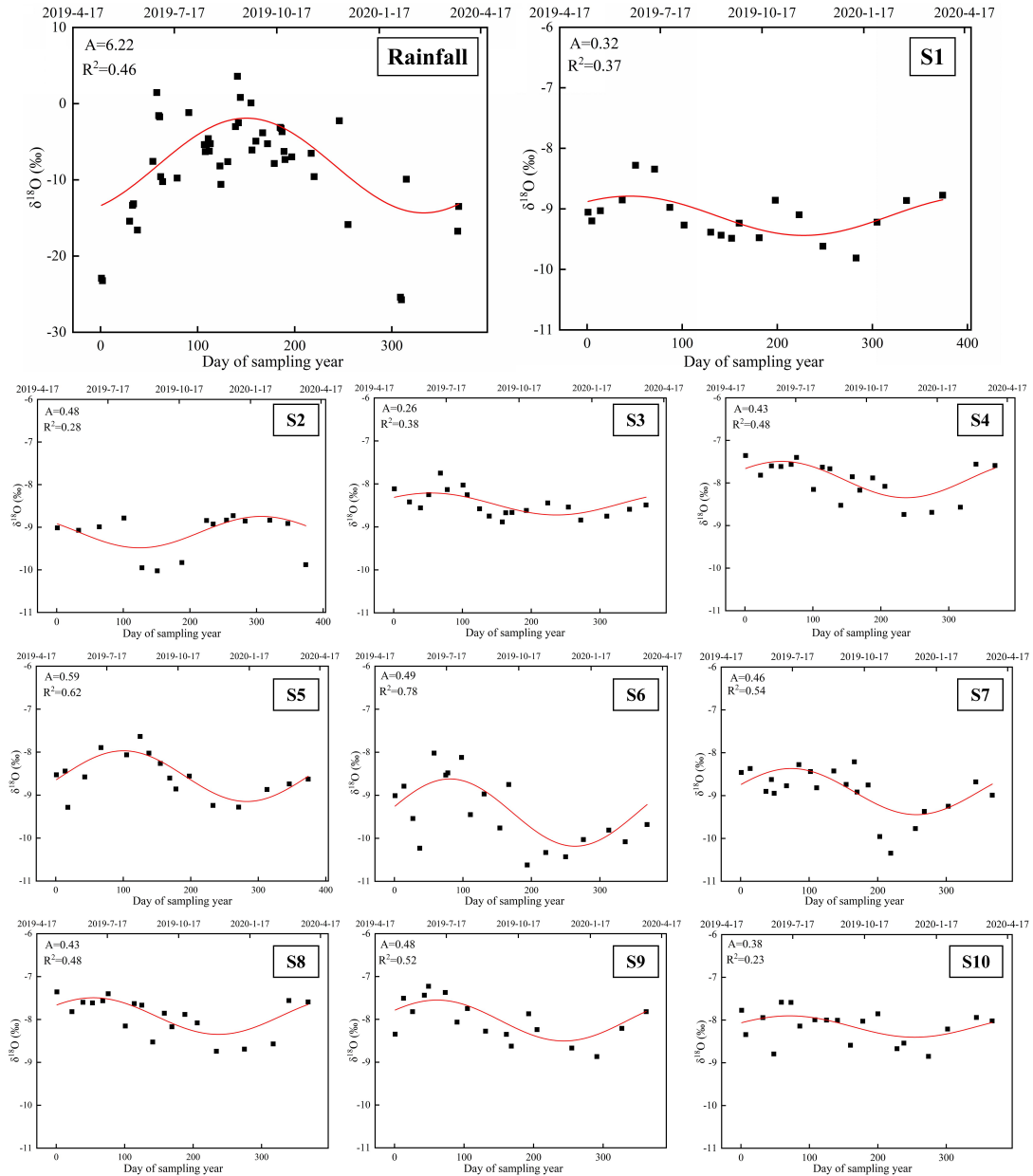
349 season. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ levels of precipitation reported in the SYR Basin have an excellent

350 regularity ($R^2=0.46$) and a seasonal patterns trend that effectively depicts the nfluence

351 of the monsoon climate on the local environment (Zhu et al., 2019). Seasonal

352 variations are seen in the generally steady $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the upstream water.

353 These results indicate that the predominant component of the river water is the
354 baseflow resulting from recent precipitation runoff. Throughout the duration of the
355 study, the majority of the lowest $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in the 10 surface water sample points
356 were recorded during the winter, whilst the highest values were recorded during the
357 summer. These trends coincide with both the temporal variation of precipitation
358 isotopes in the SYR Basin, indicating that precipitation input is the underlying cause
359 of isotope changes in river water. Nevertheless, variations in the isotopes of river
360 water differ in range across various regions within the SYR Basin, with significant
361 variation in the degree of fit for the regression curve. The fitting degree of surface
362 water in the upper and lower reaches is relatively low ($R^2=0.37$, $R^2=0.28$, $R^2=0.23$),
363 implying limited seasonal isotopic variability in these regions. The midstream surface
364 water exhibits a notably higher degree of conformity as compared to its upstream and
365 downstream counterparts ($R^2=0.38$, $R^2=0.48$, $R^2=0.62$, $R^2=0.78$, $R^2=0.54$, $R^2=0.48$,
366 $R^2=0.52$). Moreover, the isotopic composition of surface water throughout this area
367 exhibits notable cyclic variations.



368

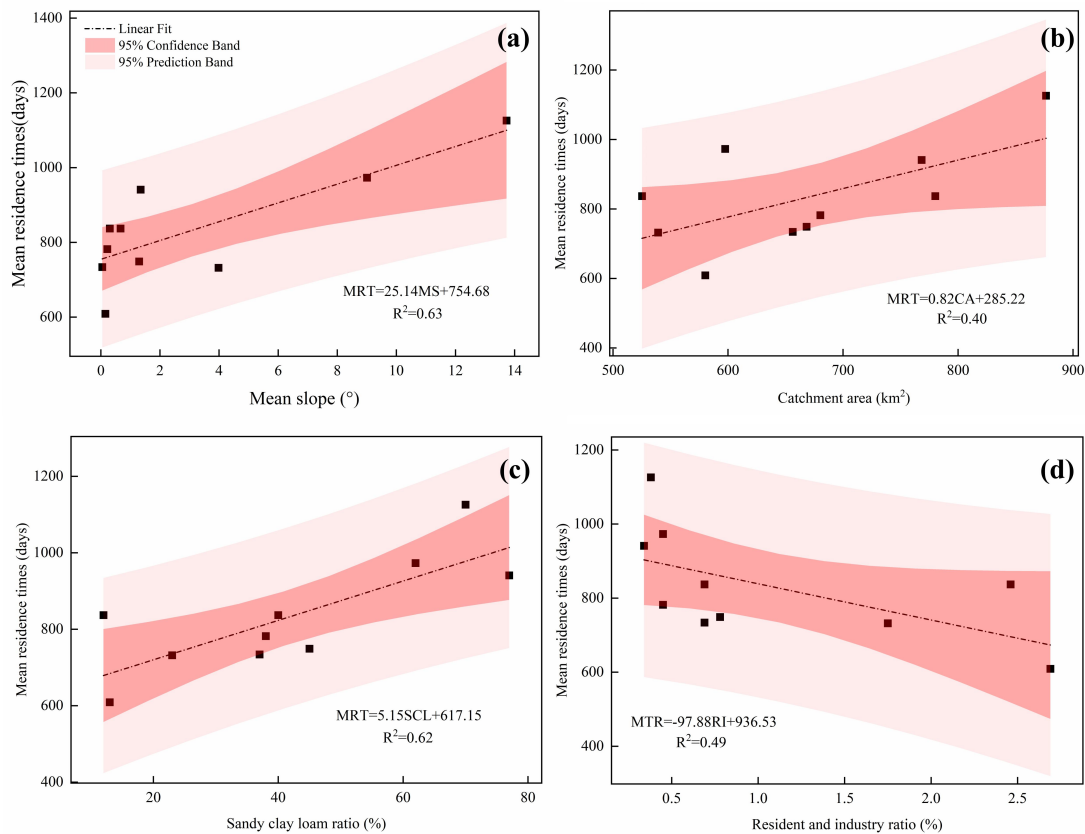
369 Figure 7 Fits the annual regression model of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in SYR Basin precipitation and river water (time:
 370 2019/4/17—2020/4/23; S1-S10 are surface water sampling points).

371 The reasons for differences in isotope periodicity in different regions may be
 372 attributed to local water management systems, topographic features and urban
 373 development. At points S1, S2, and S10, the correlation of model simulations was low,
 374 which could be attributed to the presence of Xiyang Reservoir in the upstream as well
 375 as Hongyashan Reservoir in the downstream (Sang et al., 2023), where seasonal

376 variations in the isotope values of the river water are interfered by the reservoir
377 dispatching activities. At points S3 to S5, the correlation of the model simulation is
378 higher, which is because in the middle reaches of the SYR basin, the expansion of
379 urban built-up areas leads to a significant increase in surface runoff during the rainy
380 season, and according to the land use data, the land area of the towns in Wuwei City
381 has continued to increase by 134.38 km² from 2010 to 2018, resulting in the surface
382 water showing a cyclical trend comparable to that of the precipitation. Since the 1950s,
383 in order to better utilize water resources, 13 small and medium-sized reservoirs with a
384 total storage capacity of 900,000 m³ were constructed during this period (Ma et al.,
385 2010), increasing the proportion of rainfall in the runoff constituents as a result of The
386 correlation of the model simulation is at a high level at points S6~S9, where, in
387 contrast to the high-elevation areas in the upper reaches, the terrain in the middle and
388 lower reaches of the SYR basin is relatively flat, mainly with cultivated land and
389 deserts, and is less disturbed by human activities (Sun et al., 2021), which further
390 reflects the responsiveness to recent precipitation inputs.

391 The Dunnett's test revealed a significant difference ($P < 0.05$) between the MRT
392 of the river and the annual magnitude of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the river. We further investigated the
393 relationship between the estimated mean residence time and basin landscape features
394 such as topography (Fig. 8). Using the digital elevation model (DEM) to calculate the
395 mean slope of the SYR basin, we found that the mean residence time was also
396 strongly correlated with the mean basin slope ($R^2 = 0.63$), and that the upper reaches
397 of the Shiyang River basin are mainly high-elevation mountainous areas, where the

398 topography is sloped, but where the vegetation cover is high and dominated by alpine
 399 meadows, subalpine scrub and Qinghai spruce (Zhang et al. 2023), the greater slope
 400 leads to a higher gravitational potential, which tends to result in a negative correlation
 401 with mean residence time (McGuire et al., 2005), which also contributes to the
 402 potentially higher MRT values in the upstream mountains. In our study, catchment
 403 area (CA) had a low correlation with MRT ($R^2 = 0.40$), and a weak relationship
 404 between catchment area and MRT has been observed in other studies (McGlynn et al.,
 405 2003; McGuire et al., 2005).



406
 407 Figure 8 Correlation between MRT and (a) mean slope of the basin, (b) catchment area, (c) sand
 408 clay loam ratio, and (d) percentage area of residential and industrial use in the basin, with 95%
 409 Confidence and Prediction bands.

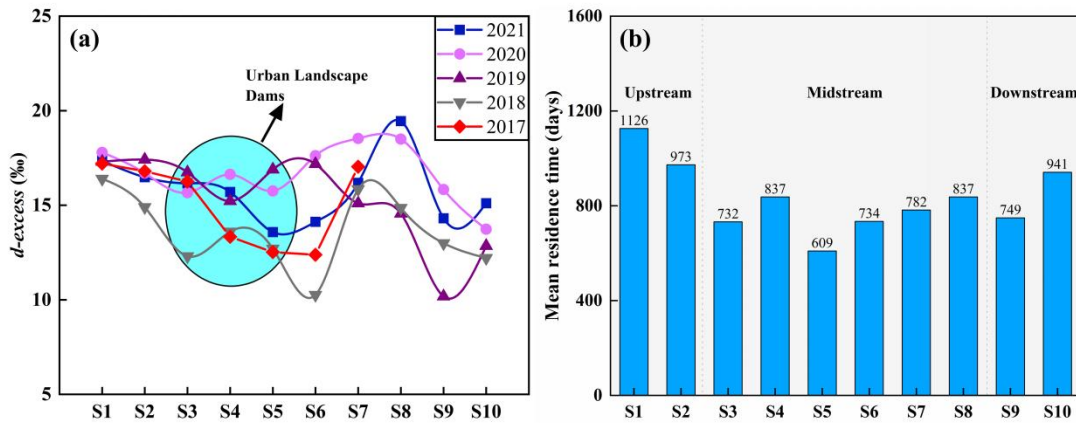
410 Soil is an important component of basin hydrology, and the physical properties

411 of soil, such as water-holding capacity and pore space distribution, have an important
412 influence on the response to precipitation in the basin and the sand-clay-loam soil
413 ratio is used here to investigate the possible relationship with MRT. The results
414 showed that the content of sand clay loam ratio showed a strong positive correlation
415 with MRT ($R^2=0.62$). Wuwei City is located in the pre-mountain flood-fan belt, and
416 the soil is dominated by sandy soil (Zhang et al., 2023), which is loose in texture, has
417 good permeability and good water retention properties, and is mainly used for
418 agricultural cultivation. Its good permeability increases the vertical movement of
419 water and the length of flow paths, leading to a longer MRT. There is a strong
420 negative correlation between the MRT and the ratios of resident and industrial areas
421 (RI) ($R^2=0.49$), which also indicates that as urbanization progresses, with the increase
422 of urban land, this undoubtedly leads to a significant shortening of the MRT. However,
423 the MRT in the mid-river urban area is not much shorter as compared to the
424 downstream, which may be attributed to the fact that the mid-river The large number
425 of landscape dams constructed in the urban areas, currently 51 urban landscape dams
426 have been built in the peri-urban areas of Wuwei City, and the considerable number of
427 landscape dams may have counteracted the impact of the urban land use, resulting in a
428 lengthening of the MRT in the middle reaches as well.

429 **5.2 Effects of Water Conservancy Projects in Urban Areas on Isotope Dynamics**

430 Recent studies have suggested that the development of dam-reservoir systems
431 may result in river fragmentation and modifications in flow regimes in terms of their
432 volume, frequency, and duration (Négrel et al., 2016; Murgulet et al., 2016; Peñas and

433 Barquín, 2019; Maavara et al., 2020). Furthermore, chemical-containing nutrient
434 migration, such as phosphorus, may occur during sediment movement, resulting in
435 widespread eutrophication problems (Yang et al., 2007; Duan et al., 2019). As of 2019,
436 a total of 51 urban landscape dams, primarily consisting of artificial landscape
437 waterfalls and rubber dams, have been constructed in and around Wuwei city (Zhu et
438 al., 2021). In the metropolitan coast of Wuwei, many landscape dams have led to
439 isotopic enrichment in surface water. This damping effect has been observed in
440 numerous dammed rivers across the globe, including the Rio Grande in the
441 southwestern United States (Vitvar et al., 2007) and the Ebro River in Spain (Négre
442 et al., 2016), as evidenced by isotopic tracers. In the metropolitan coast of Wuwei, a
443 number of landscape dams have led to the enrichment of isotopic tracers in the surface
444 water. The results indicate that the δD and $\delta^{18}O$ levels of the surface water at the
445 outflow of Wuwei City are greater than those at the inflow (Fig. 2). Moreover, the
446 influence of evaporation on isotopic composition should not be overlooked, as it can
447 lead to a decrease in *d-excess* values (Peng et al., 2012). Consistent with previous
448 studies (Wang et al., 2019), we observed that the *d-excess* of influent water was higher
449 than that of urban river water (Fig. 9). This observation further supports the
450 accumulation of heavy H-O isotopes in the surface waters of the dam areas, as shown
451 in Fig. 9a. In contrast, due to the confluence of tributaries prior to the S7 sampling
452 point, the river water has lower isotopic values, resulting in elevated *d-excess* values
453 between S6 and S8.



454

455 Figure 9 (a) The longitudinal variation of the surface water *d-excess* of the SYR, (b) The

456 longitudinal variation of the surface water MRT of the SYR.

457 5.3 Effects of Urbanization on the Water Cycle of basins

458 Localized microclimates in urban areas allow for changes in precipitation and

459 evapotranspiration processes, while urbanization alters the pristine subsurface,

460 complicating water cycle processes in the basin (Jacobson, 2011; Westra et al., 2014;

461 Oudin et al., 2018). In terms of the impact on runoff, it is mainly reflected in the

462 increase of surface impermeability due to urbanization, the land use area of Wuwei

463 urban land increased by about 134.38 km² from 2010 to 2018, which greatly

464 weakened the infiltration process in urban areas, and the rainfall runoff process

465 simulated by sinusoidal cyclic regression method showed that there were significant

466 differences in the river metro in different parts of the Shiyang River Basin, and that

467 the middle reaches of the river had the highest degree of urbanization, and the time of

468 the metro was the shortest, which further increases the contribution of rainfall to

469 runoff. Regarding the effect of urbanization on evapotranspiration, a large number of

470 dams were constructed on the Shiyang River and flowed through the urban area of

471 Wuwei, causing significant evapotranspiration losses, in addition, these landscape

472 dams also led to hydrogen and oxygen isotope enrichment, and the numerous
473 reservoirs that were constructed for the construction and development of the city (Ma
474 et al., 2010), and these reservoirs also contributed to a significant evapotranspiration
475 loss effect, which has been previously confirmed in our study was also confirmed
476 (Sang et al., 2023). On the other hand, our study found that the isotopic compositions
477 and trends of urban nearshore groundwater were similar to those of surface water,
478 which suggests that there is a close correlation between urban nearshore groundwater
479 and river water, and that the difference in water levels between river water and
480 groundwater may be the main reason for river recharge of urban nearshore
481 groundwater (Fig. 4). In the rainy season, the river level gradually rises, which
482 decreases the difference between the water levels of urban nearshore groundwater and
483 river water, and the river water recharges the groundwater, and in the dry season, the
484 river level decreases, and the urban nearshore groundwater, which is buried at a
485 shallow depth, in turn recharges the river.

486 In addition, the growth of urbanization has had a dramatic impact on the water
487 environment in cities, where water problems occur frequently (Giri and Qiu, 2016;
488 Ma et al., 2022). Urbanization has increased impervious surfaces such as parking lots,
489 rooftops, roads, and sidewalks, leading to increased runoff, which creates additional
490 pathways for pollutants to be transported from landscapes to water bodies (Ren et al.,
491 2014; Wilson and Weng, 2010; Nolan et al., 2023). On the other hand, agricultural
492 activities have increased some of the fertilizers, pesticides, herbicides and dairy
493 manure in the farmland into the nearest water bodies, which can directly and

494 indirectly affect will reduce water quality (Yu et al., 2013). The Shiyang River Basin
495 in the Northwest Arid Zone is an inland river basin with the highest development
496 intensity and the sharpest conflict between water supply and demand in the region.
497 The Liangzhou district in the central part of the Shiyang River basin is the most
498 densely populated artificial oasis with the largest scale of water demand in the entire
499 basin. Our previous study found that direct discharge of industrial and community
500 domestic wastewater into the river led to deterioration of surface water quality around
501 the Shiyang River basin (Ma et al., 2021). In addition agricultural activities have less
502 impact on the upper reaches of the Shiyang River and relatively more impact on the
503 middle and lower reaches , and the application of nitrogen-based fertilizers during
504 agricultural cultivation is the main cause of high NH_4^+ and NO_3^- concentrations in the
505 area (Ma et al., 2021), which may also lead to increased salinity and accelerated
506 eutrophication of the river, threatening the safety of the basin's water environment.
507 Overall, human activities (urbanization) may alter the water cycle processes inherent
508 in inland river basins, and the implications of such changes need to be further
509 explored.

510 **6 Conclusions**

511 In this study, we investigated the hydrometeorological and isotopic data of the
512 Shiyang River Basin from 2017 to 2021, and our investigations showed that
513 urbanization had a significant impact on the water cycle of the basin. The results
514 showed that the isotopic values of the river water showed a significant enrichment
515 from upstream to downstream, but facilities such as landscape dams and reservoirs in

516 the urban area significantly altered this natural pattern, and the isotopic values of the
517 river water in the urban area ($\delta D=-48.31\text{‰}$; $\delta^{18}O=-7.49\text{‰}$) were higher than those of
518 the natural river water ($\delta D=-55.77\text{‰}$; $\delta^{18}O=-8.98\text{‰}$), and landscape dams aggravated
519 the evaporation losses of river water, due to the increase of urban land area, which
520 accelerated the rainfall-runoff conversion process, the residence time of surface water
521 in different regions of the Shiyang River Basin had obvious differences, and the MRT
522 from the upstream to the downstream showed a fluctuating downward process, which
523 was shortened from 1,126 days in the upstream to 941 days in the downstream, and
524 the MRT was mainly controlled by the basin's landscape features. In addition, there
525 was a strong relationship between the isotopic composition of the reservoir and the
526 surrounding groundwater. Overall, urbanization has a profound impact on the
527 hydrological system of the basin, and the results of this study can provide some
528 references for future research on urbanization and the water cycle, and improve our
529 understanding of the hydrological processes of basin in arid zones.

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533 **Author contributions statement**

534 Rui Li: Writing-Original draft preparation; Guofeng Zhu: Writing-Reviewing and
535 Editing; Siyu Lu: Methodology; Liyuan Sang and Gaojia Meng: Data processing and
536 Experiment; Longhu Chen and Yinying Jiao: Methodology and visualization;
537 Qinqin Wang : Visualization;

538 **Data availability Statement**

539 The isotopic data that support the findings of this study are openly available in
540 Zhu, Guofeng (2022), “Stable water isotope monitoring network of different water
541 bodies in SYR Basin, a typical arid river in China”, Mendeley Data, V1, doi:
542 10.17632/vhm44t74sy.1. The source of soil data comes from the Harmonized World
543 Soil Database (HWSD) constructed by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the
544 United Nations (FAO) and the International Institute for Applied Systems (IIASA) on
545 2009. The land-use and land-cover change data of the Shiyang River Basin were
546 obtained from Chinese Academy of Sciences, the data centre of resources and
547 environmental science (<http://www.resdc.cn>).

548 **Competing Interests**

549 We undersigned declare that this manuscript entitled “Effects of Urbanization on
550 the water cycle in the SYR Basin: Based on stable isotope method” is original, has not
551 been published before and is not currently being considered for publication elsewhere.

552 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
553 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this
554 paper.

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