



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:** The water cycle has been hampered by urban development and the changes  
12 it has made to natural surfaces, especially in arid regions with scarce water supplies.  
13 Urbanization has a significant hydrological impact because of the high water demands  
14 of urban populations and economic factors. We set up an observational system close  
15 to Wuwei City, which is situated in the Shiyang River Basin, to research the effects of  
16 urbanization on isotope dynamics within the basin. We sought to clarify any  
17 perceptible changes in isotopic patterns by the methodical collecting and analysis of  
18 water samples from various water sources. According to our research, landscape dams  
19 in urban areas have a substantial impact on the evaporation and penetration of surface  
20 water. We have also observed a weaker connection between precipitation, surface  
21 water, and groundwater in urban areas, as compared to non-urban regions. Also, our  
22 research has demonstrated that metropolitan areas have a quicker catchment cycle and  
23 a quicker conversion of rainfall to runoff. These results have important ramifications



24 for managing water resources and urban planning since they offer important insight  
25 into the hydrological dynamics of urban areas. In dry regions, where care must be  
26 made to the loss of water resources owing to landscape dam evaporation, the barrier  
27 impact of urbanization on water body connection is particularly severe.

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 (United Nations, 2019; UN-Habitat, 2020; Chen et al., 2020). Unlike  
36 other regions, urban regions have a substantial influence on the hydrological system,  
37 resulting in significant consequences on water balance and the water cycle (Gillefalk  
38 and Tetzlaff et al., 2021). To meet the diverse household and industrial requirements  
39 in metropolitan areas, where the population is concentrated and water demands are  
40 high, a complex interplay between natural and manmade components of the water  
41 cycle is required. These components include both natural features such as streams and  
42 groundwater, as well as human-made systems like drinking water and drainage  
43 networks (Gessner et al., 2014). Urbanization has led to a dramatic increase in water  
44 consumption, significantly impacting groundwater quality (Cho et al., 2009), affecting  
45 the environment and water availability (Bhaskar et al., 2015). Rapid urbanization will



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

48 Urbanization's effects on watershed 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 and Bronders et al., 2015). The rise of impervious surfaces in urbanized  
54 regions increases the rate of urban water runoff, which raises the danger of urban  
55 floods (Wing et al., 2018). In addition, high-intensity human activities have led to  
56 increased discharge of domestic sewage and industrial wastewater, deteriorating water  
57 quality and ecological environment (Pickett et al., 2011). Hence, study into how  
58 human activities alter the features of river runoff and the water cycle within a basin is  
59 essential for the prudent use and sustainable development of water resources.

60 Isotopes that are stable of hydrogen and oxygen are very useful tools for  
61 investigating hydrological issues that are connected to surface water and groundwater  
62 sources ( Gat, 1996, Tetzlaff et al., 2007, Šanda et al., 2017). Researchers have been  
63 conducting studies using stable isotopes as tracers over the course of the past few  
64 years in order to explore the impact that urbanization has had on the water cycle.  
65 Urbanization has the potential to trigger and intensify convective activity and  
66 warm-season rainfall in both urban areas and their surrounding regions (Burian and  
67 Shepherd, 2005). Researchers generally agree that urbanization reduces depressions



68 on the underlying surface, weakens water permeability and increases runoff. At the  
69 same time, the lower roughness of the underlying surface shortens the confluence  
70 time (Oudin and Salavati et al., 2018; Guan and Sillanpää et al., 2016). Moreover,  
71 against the backdrop of swift urbanization, the swift proliferation of urban regions has  
72 resulted in a sharp surge in impermeable areas, alterations to regional microclimates,  
73 and the erection of a vast number of infrastructures (including overpasses, subways,  
74 and so on), all of which have significantly impacted the water cycle process in urban  
75 areas (Jacobson, 2011; Westra et al., 2014). The complex connection between the  
76 permeable and impermeable zones influences the surface confluence processes  
77 (Bruwier and Maravat et al., 2020). The construction of urban water conservation  
78 projects, such as rubber dams and pumping stations, also affects the confluence  
79 process of urban areas to a certain extent (Zhu et al., 2021). Limited long-term and  
80 continuous monitoring has hampered accurate depiction of urbanization's  
81 spatiotemporal effects on watershed hydrology. Furthermore, the scientific research  
82 till lacks sufficient research on arid regions that heavily depend on mountain river  
83 runoff for sustenance and development, highlighting a significant knowledge gap.

84 The Shiyang River (SYR) Basin, situated in the parched expanse of Northwest  
85 China, represents a classic case of an inland river system. The urban area of Wuwei  
86 City, where the river flows through, has a population of 1.46 million, and the annual  
87 runoff of the river is 517 million/m<sup>3</sup>. Since 2017, a comprehensive observation system  
88 has been established in the SYR Basin, and stable isotope observations and  
89 hydrometeorological observations have been carried out on surface water, shallow



90 groundwater and rainfall. The following problems are proposed to be solved: (1) An  
91 examination of the mechanisms underlying evaporation and infiltration of surface  
92 water within urban aquatic ecosystems; (2) Assessing the effects of urbanization on  
93 water body connectivity through a comprehensive analysis; (3) The influence of  
94 urbanization on the precipitation-runoff process is analyzed. Isotopes are utilised in  
95 this study to examine the hydrological consequences of urbanization on a localized  
96 scale. This provides us with essential information on how to maintain and manage the  
97 water resources found in inland river basins, which is especially useful in light of the  
98 fact that the rate of urbanization is growing.

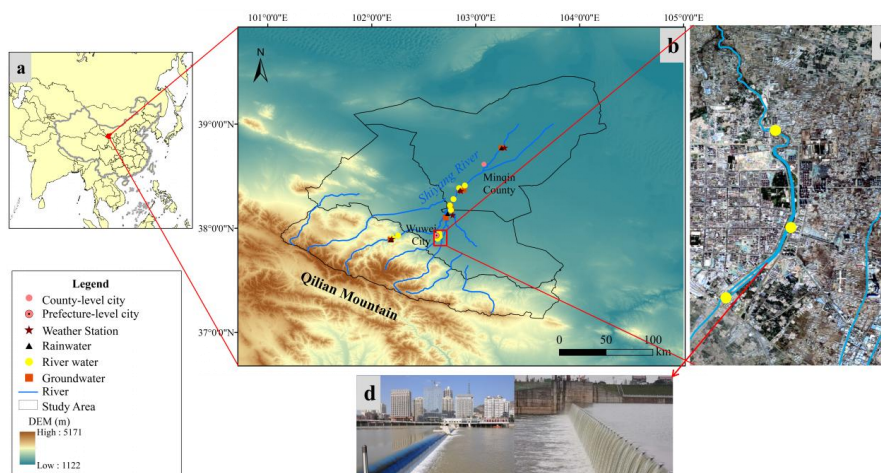
## 99 **2 Systems, Data, and Methods of Observation**

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

111 The Wuwei City is crossed by four important rivers, namely the Xiyang, Zamu,



112 Huangyang and Jinta, which cover a catchment area of 3986 km<sup>2</sup>. As the principal  
113 water source for the entire region, the SYR Basin is one of the most highly utilized  
114 inland river basins in terms of water resource development and consumption  
115 worldwide. The dams in the SYR basin are predominantly situated in close proximity  
116 to the urbanized regions of Liangzhou District, located within Wuwei City. Liangzhou  
117 District, situated in the middle of the basin, boasts of a relatively high population  
118 density and a notable commercial concentration. At the turn of the millennium,  
119 Wuwei City only boasted a paltry five landscape dams positioned on its rivers. As of  
120 2019, this figure has surged dramatically, with a staggering total of 51 urban  
121 landscape dams now gracing both urban and peri-urban areas of the city. These dams  
122 are primarily composed of man-made landscape waterfalls and rubber dams, fulfilling  
123 their core function of creating public landscape water bodies within the urban expanse.  
124 (Zhu et al ., 2021).



125  
126 Figure 1 (a) The location of the study area, (b) Comprehensive observation system for  
127 the study area, (c) Urban surface water sampling points (from © Google Maps), (d)



128 Common urban landscape dams in SYR Basin.

### 129 **3 Sampling and data analysis**

130 Continuous sampling in the SYR Basin was carried out from April 2017 to  
131 March 2020, different water bodies were sampled, and we collected a total of 943  
132 samples from 24 sampling points (Table 1). The sampling location ought to be  
133 selected such that it is physically possible to go as close to the middle of the river as  
134 possible, with the goal of minimizing the impact of areas with standing water and  
135 sewage. Samples of groundwater bodies were obtained at 7 sampling stations around  
136 the basin. The automated weather station was used to measure meteorological factors  
137 such as temperature and relative humidity while collecting precipitation samples.  
138 Water samples were sealed in high-density polyethylene bottles to avoid evaporation  
139 and leakage during transit and storage, precipitation samples were collected using  
140 weather station standard rain gauges. These samples were then frozen and wrapped  
141 with plastic tape.

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

143 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



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

$$152 \quad \delta_{\text{sample}}(\text{‰}) = \left[ \left( \frac{R_s}{R_{v-smow}} \right) - 1 \right] \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

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

### 156 **3 Analysis methods**

#### 157 **3.1 Calculation and indication of deuterium excess (*d-excess*)**

158 Dansgaard (1964) introduced the concept of deuterium excess (*d-excess*) as the  
159 difference in isotopic composition between global precipitation and the Vienna  
160 Standard Mean Ocean Water ( $V_{SMOW}$ ) reference water, which corresponds to a value of  
161 10‰. This parameter reflects the average isotopic composition of air masses  
162 associated with precipitation and is widely used to identify atmospheric source  
163 regions (Deng et al., 2016). *d-excess* was proposed by Dansgaard (Dansgaard, 1964)  
164 and is defined as:

$$165 \quad d\text{-excess} = \delta\text{D} - 8\delta^{18}\text{O} \quad (2)$$





166 3.2 Calculation of evaporation loss of surface water

167 The loss of surface water through evaporation and the resulting fluctuations in  
168 water levels of rivers, lakes, and wetlands are key aspects of the terrestrial water cycle  
169 that merit significant attention (Gammons et al., 2006; Hamilton et al., 2005).  
170 Evaporation is the primary mechanism of water loss in the water cycle. For river  
171 water in dry regions and urban river water that flows slowly due to manmade  
172 constraints, evaporation cannot be ignored. Thus, it is vital to address the alteration of  
173 urban landscape dam water caused by non-equilibrium isotope fractionation during  
174 evaporation. The provided formula (3) can be used to estimate the rate of evaporative  
175 water loss from the body of water in question (Skrzypek et al., 2015):

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

176  
177 The variables in the equation are as follows:  $f$  represents the ratio of water lost to  
178 evaporation,  $\delta$  denotes the measured values of the water body located in the urban  
179 dam area of Wuwei City, situated in the middle reaches of the SYR and  $\delta_0$  represents  
180 the initial value of the hydrogen and oxygen stable isotope of the water body. It is  
181 widely assumed that the point of intersection between the local meteoric water line  
182 (LMWL) and the local evaporation line (LEL) represents the average isotopic  
183 composition of the input water body within the basin (Gibson et al., 2005). In the  
184 current investigation, the intersection point marked by  $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -7.24$  and  $\delta\text{D} = -46.9$   
185 has been designated as the  $\delta_0$  value, while  $\delta^*$  denotes the maximum isotope  
186 enrichment factor and  $m$  corresponds to the enrichment slope. The calculation of the



187 above parameters in this paper is realized in Hydrocalculator software (Skrzypek et al.,  
188 2015) (<http://hydrocalculator.gskrzypek.com>). According to studies (Qian et al., 2007),  
189 it is more accurate to use  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  when calculating the evaporation loss ratio, so this  
190 study calculates the  $f$  value of SYR water using  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  value.

### 191 3.3 Periodic regression analysis and The mean residence time (MRT)

192 Precipitation and surface water samples were collected from a variety of  
193 locations across Slovenia, as well as from Belgrade, Serbia, for the Sava and Danube  
194 rivers. Seasonal fluctuations in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  levels were analyzed using periodic regression  
195 analysis to determine how these levels changed over time. This method entailed  
196 fitting seasonal sine wave curves to annual  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variations using least squares  
197 optimization (Rodgers et al., 2005):

$$198 \quad \delta^{18}O = \delta^{18}O_{ave} + A \cdot [\cos(c \cdot t - \theta)] \quad (4)$$

199 The modelled  $\delta^{18}O$  values and the mean weighted annual measured  $\delta^{18}O_{ave}$   
200 values were both utilized in the analysis of seasonal fluctuations in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  levels.  
201 Additionally, the measured  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  annual amplitude ( $A$ ), the radial frequency of annual  
202 fluctuations ( $c$ ), and the time in days after the start of the sampling period ( $t$ ) were  
203 also considered in this analysis. Furthermore, the phase lag or time of the annual peak  
204  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in radians ( $\theta$ ) was determined through this approach.

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



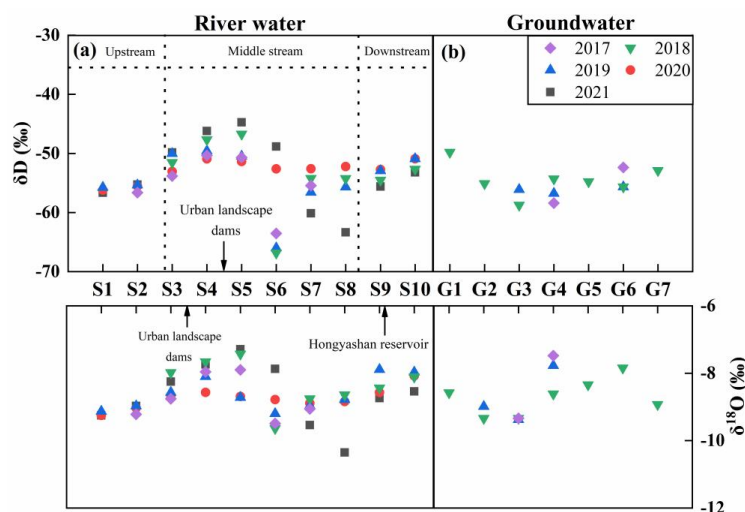


Sampling Point	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$			$\delta\text{D}$			<i>d-excess</i>		
	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mean	Min.	Max.	Mean	Min.	Max.
S1	-9.35	-9.86	-9.06	-57.16	-59.46	-52.47	17.2	12.33	23.91
S2	-9.22	-10.02	-8.78	-56.62	-63.85	-10.02	16.46	15.53	19.28
S3	-7.74	-9.03	-7.75	-49.84	-50.76	-46.66	15.42	13.59	19.48
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

227

228

229 To be more specific, over the course of time, these values shift seasonally from  
230 spring to autumn (Table 2, Fig. 3). There was a range of values from -75.43‰ to  
231 -40.62‰ for the  $\delta\text{D}$  values of surface water, with an average of -53.53‰. The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
232 values display a varied range, from -10.43‰ to -5.53‰, with an average of -8.54‰,  
233 whereas the *d-excess* values demonstrate variability ranging from 10.26‰ to 29.72‰,  
234 with 15.28‰ as the average value. A broad spectrum of  $\delta\text{D}$  values are observed  
235 during the summer season, ranging from -61.27‰ to -31.16‰, with an average  
236 -48.90‰. Meanwhile,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values fluctuate between -9.52‰ and -3.41‰, with an  
237 average -8.12‰. The phenomenon that was observed can be traced back primarily to  
238 the aftereffects of the Hongyashan Reservoir built downstream. Because the reservoir  
239 has such a large capacity for water retention, it causes significant amounts of river  
240 water to evaporate, which ultimately results in a discernible enrichment of the isotopic  
241 composition.



242

243 Figure 2 Longitudinal variation of  $\delta D$  and  $\delta^{18}O$  in river water and groundwater in the  
244 SYR Basin.

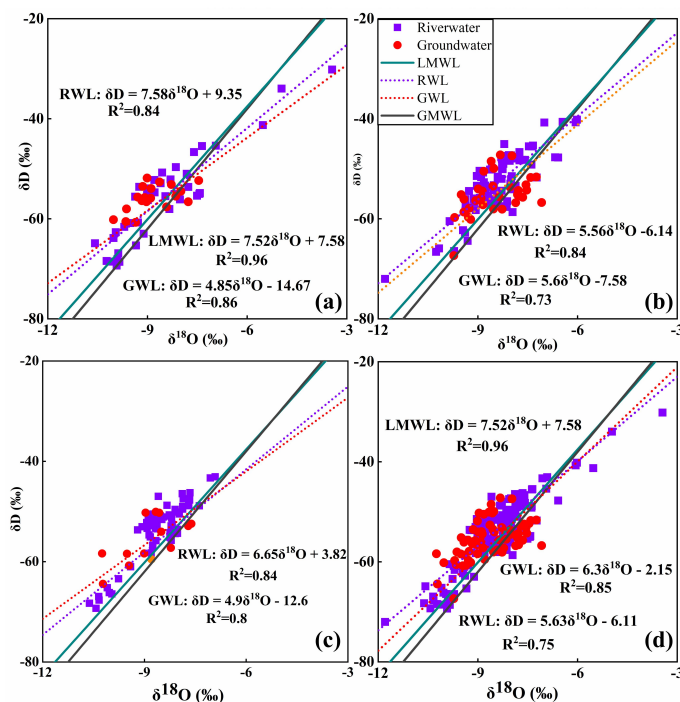
#### 245 4.2 The Relationship between $\delta D$ and $\delta^{18}O$ values

246 As shown by the linear fitting equation  $\delta D = 7.52\delta^{18}O + 7.58$ , there is a significant  
247 linear positive correlation ( $R^2 = 0.96$ ) between  $\delta D$  and  $\delta^{18}O$  in atmospheric  
248 precipitation in the SYR Basin (Fig. 3). It is clear that the slope (7.52) and intercept  
249 (7.58) of the local meteoric water line (LMWL) are smaller than the global meteoric  
250 water line (GMWL), which can be attributed to the basin's location in an inland arid  
251 region, where precipitation disturbances are less frequent and evaporative  
252 fractionation of precipitation is stronger. The majority of surface water and  
253 groundwater sampling points are located close to the local meteoric water line, which  
254 reveals that precipitation is the principal source of surface water replenishment  
255 according to the findings of an analysis of these two types of sample locations. The  
256 SYR Basin surface water samples that were collected exhibited a linear regression of



257  $\delta D=5.63\delta^{18}O-6.11$ , which revealed a spatial variation in isotopic composition from  
258 upstream to downstream. Where the river water line (RWL) intercept and slope show  
259 a trend that is first decreasing and then increasing as one moves from upstream to  
260 downstream. This demonstrated the presence of significant isotopic differences in the  
261 water. Moreover, the groundwater samples analyzed in the study displayed a linear  
262 regression of  $\delta D=6.3\delta^{18}O-2.15$ . The decrease in slope and intercept of the LMWL and  
263 GMWL in the SYR Basin is suggestive of significant evaporative enrichment of the  
264 surface water, with precipitation from the atmosphere serving as the primary source of  
265 recharge. This is supported by the fact that the LMWL and GMWL have decreased.

266 Isotopic analysis of groundwater samples reveals a range of  $\delta D$  and  $\delta^{18}O$  values  
267 spanning from  $-50.7\text{‰}$  to  $-71.9\text{‰}$  and from  $-7.23\text{‰}$  to  $-10.4\text{‰}$ , respectively. Such  
268 values provide insights into groundwater origin, recharge source, transit distance, and  
269 subsurface residence time, and facilitate the identification of potential changes in  
270 recharge patterns or contamination sources. In addition, the distribution of  
271 groundwater line (GWL) exhibits a striking similarity to that of river water line (RWL)  
272 and local meteoric water line (LMWL), as depicted in Fig. 3. This observation  
273 strongly suggests a replenishment relationship among these hydrological components.



274

275 Figure 3 Relationship between  $\delta D$  and  $\delta^{18}O$  in various water bodies in the SYR Basin  
276 during different seasons (a) Spring, (b) Summer, (c) Autumn, (d) The contrast  
277 between RWL, GWL, LMWL and GMWL throughout the sampling period

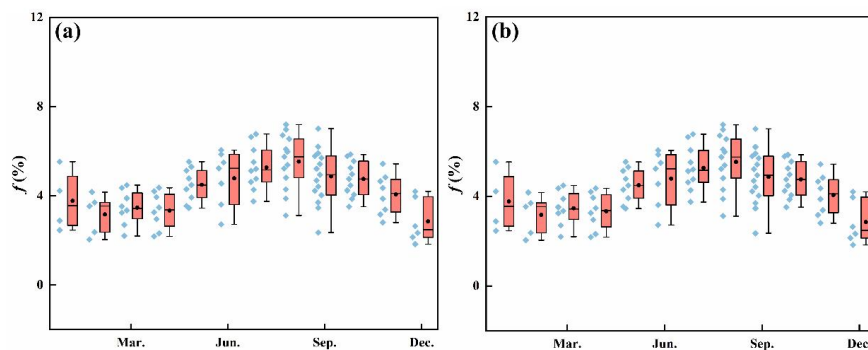
### 278 4.3 Temporal and spatial variation of surface water evaporation loss in the urban 279 area of Wuwei

280 In addition to being an essential part of the hydrological cycle, evaporation is  
281 widely recognized as one of the most significant factors driving climate change in  
282 semi-arid regions and in telluric ecosystems (Gibson et al., 2002; Gibson and Edwards,  
283 2002). An obviously spatial and temporal fluctuation can be seen in the amount of  
284 surface water that is lost to evaporation in the upper mountain area as well as the  
285 intermediate urban area of the SYR basin (Fig. 4). Analyzed from a time-varying



286 perspective, there is significant seasonal variation in surface water evaporation losses  
287 both in the upstream mountainous region and the midstream urban area of Wuwei,  
288 with the highest rates occurring during summer and the lowest during winter (Fig.4).  
289 Additionally, a spatial comparison reveals that surface water evaporation losses in the  
290 midstream urban area of Wuwei are significantly greater than those in the upstream  
291 mountainous area.

292 The discrepancy in evaporation losses between these regions can be attributed to  
293 the presence of numerous urban landscape dams located in the midstream of the SYR,  
294 which have altered the natural state of the river and created a semi-stagnant state of  
295 surface water. Meanwhile, the water bodies in the dams catchment area remain  
296 relatively stable, and their surface water recharge source primarily originates from the  
297 upstream river confluence. Furthermore, the flat and open topography of the area  
298 exacerbates water evaporation losses.  
299 losses.



300  
301 Figure 4 Evaporation losses from surface water in different areas of the SYR (a)

302 Upper reaches mountainous area, (b) Middle reaches urban areas.

## 303 5 Discussion



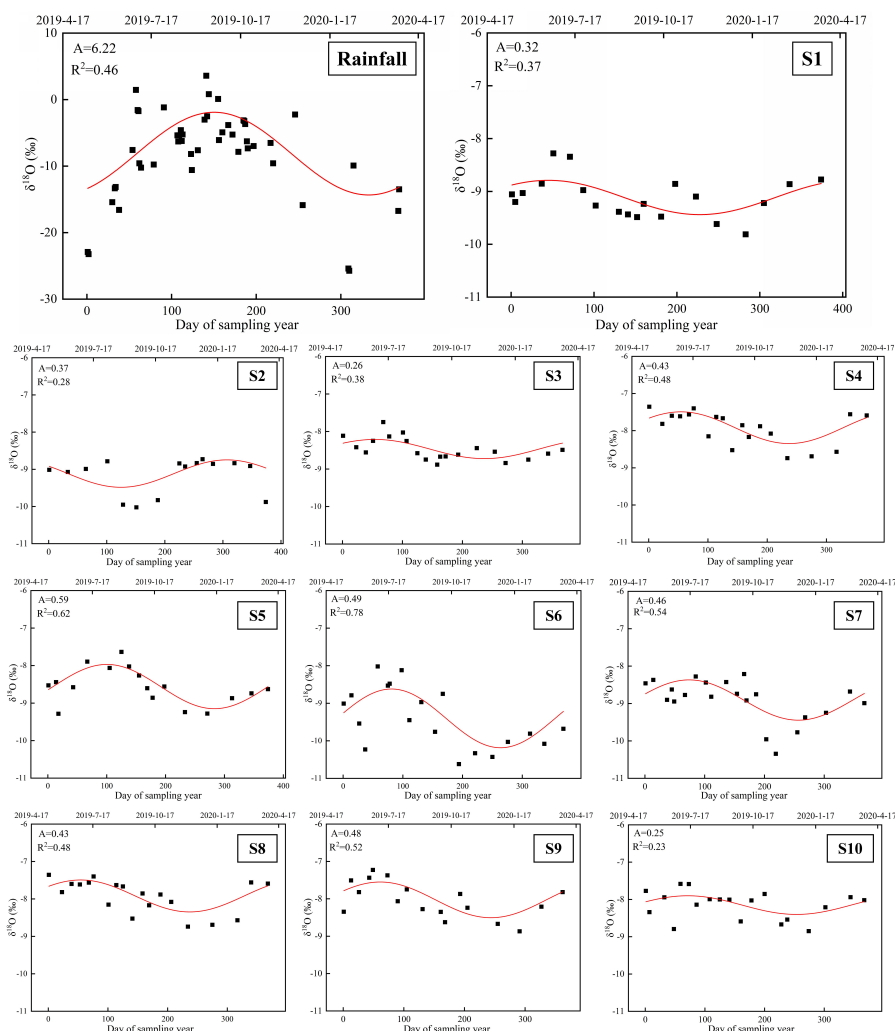


### 304 **5.1 Effects of Urbanization on the Rainfall-Runoff Process**

305 Fig. 5 depicts the regression model of rainfall events in the SYR Basin,  
306 represented by a sine wave, and the fitting of surface water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  across the research  
307 season. The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  levels of precipitation reported in the SYR Basin have an excellent  
308 regularity ( $R^2=0.46$ ) and a seasonal patterns trend that effectively depicts the  
309 influence of the monsoon climate on the local environment. Seasonal variations are  
310 seen in the generally steady  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of the upstream water. These results  
311 indicate that the predominant component of the river water is the baseflow resulting  
312 from recent precipitation runoff. Throughout the duration of the study, the majority of  
313 the lowest  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values in the 10 surface water sample points were recorded during the  
314 winter, whilst the highest values were recorded during the summer. These trends  
315 coincide with both the temporal variation of precipitation isotopes in the SYR Basin,  
316 indicating that precipitation input is the underlying cause of isotope changes in river  
317 water. Nevertheless, variations in the isotopes of river water differ in range across  
318 various regions within the SYR Basin, with significant variation in the degree of fit  
319 for the regression curve. The fitting degree of surface water in the upper and lower  
320 reaches is relatively low ( $R^2=0.37$ ,  $R^2=0.28$ ,  $R^2=0.23$ ), implying limited seasonal  
321 isotopic variability in these regions. The midstream surface water exhibits a notably  
322 higher degree of conformity as compared to its upstream and downstream  
323 counterparts ( $R^2=0.38$ ,  $R^2=0.48$ ,  $R^2=0.32$ ,  $R^2=0.78$ ,  $R^2=0.54$ ,  $R^2=0.48$ ). Moreover, the  
324 isotopic composition of surface water throughout this area exhibits notable cyclic  
325 variations.



326 Possible reasons for the disparity in isotopic periodicity across various regions  
327 could be attributed to local water management systems, topographical characteristics,  
328 and urban development. In the upper SYR Basin, the primary source of surface water  
329 originates from alpine ice and snow melt, characterized by a comparatively stable  
330 isotopic composition with minimal seasonal fluctuations. In the midstream of the SYR  
331 Basin, the expansion of built-up and cultivated areas has led to a significant rise in  
332 surface runoff during the rainy season, causing surface water to exhibit a periodic  
333 trend comparable to that of precipitation. Moreover, the upstream operation of  
334 reservoirs and hydropower stations has resulted in a reduced river speed, increasing  
335 the proportion of rainfall in the runoff constituents as a result of the gradually  
336 increased extent of impermeable surfaces. Conversely, the relatively even topography  
337 of the midstream of the SYR Basin, as opposed to the higher altitude of the upstream,  
338 facilitates the formation of a larger catchment area and consequently, greater runoff  
339 formation in this region.



340

341 Figure 5 Fits the annual regression model of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in SYR Basin precipitation and  
342 river water (time: 2019/4/17—2020/4/23; S1-S10 are surface water sampling points).

343 Brooks et al. (2014) have discovered a significant adverse correlation between  
344 catchment areas and lake water residence time. In the SYR Basin, a gradual reduction  
345 in catchment area from the upstream to the midstream urban areas has been observed,  
346 leading to a progressive shortening of Mean Residence Time (MRT) of water (Fig. 6b).  
347 Urbanization and changes in topography could also account for the observed



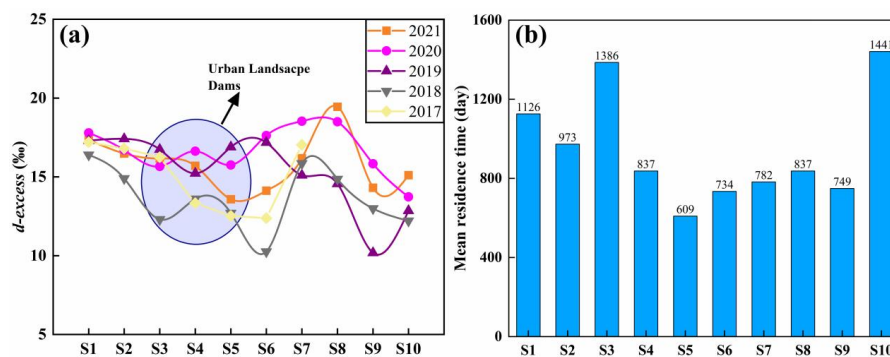
348 phenomenon. Rodgers et al. (2005) found that land cover plays a vital role in  
349 influencing Mean Residence Time (MRT) in a mesoscale watershed. Additionally, soil  
350 permeability displays a strong negative correlation with MRT, as reported by Rodgers  
351 et al. (2005). In the midstream of the SYR Basin, characterized by a higher level of  
352 urbanization, a substantial portion of the land is covered by impervious surfaces. This,  
353 in turn, expedites the conversion of precipitation into runoff, leading to a shorter  
354 Mean Residence Time (MRT) of water. Conversely, the downstream regions, with  
355 relatively lower urbanization levels and primarily used for agriculture, experience a  
356 slower conversion of precipitation to runoff, hence resulting in longer MRTs for water  
357 in these areas.

## 358 **5.2 Effects of Water Conservancy Projects in Urban Areas on Isotope Dynamics**

359 Recent studies have suggested that the development of dam-reservoir systems  
360 may result in river fragmentation and modifications in flow regimes in terms of their  
361 volume, frequency, and duration. Furthermore, chemical-containing nutrient  
362 migration, such as phosphorus, may occur during sediment movement, resulting in  
363 widespread eutrophication problems (Yang et al., 2007; Duan et al., 2019). As of 2019,  
364 a total of 51 urban landscape dams, primarily consisting of artificial landscape  
365 waterfalls and rubber dams, have been constructed in and around Wuwei city (Zhu et  
366 al., 2021). The presence of dams can lengthen the residence period of surface water,  
367 leading in the concentration of heavy isotopes in the water. This damping effect has  
368 been observed in numerous dammed rivers across the globe, including the Rio Grande  
369 in the southwestern United States (Vitvar et al., 2007) and the Orange River in



370 southern South Africa (Talma et al., 2012), as evidenced by isotopic tracers. In the  
371 metropolitan coast of Wuwei, a number of landscape dams have led to the  
372 accumulation of isotopic tracers in the surface water. The results indicate that the  $\delta D$   
373 and  $\delta^{18}O$  levels of the surface water at the outflow of Wuwei City are greater than  
374 those at the inflow. (Fig. 2). Moreover, the influence of evaporation on isotopic  
375 composition should not be overlooked, as it can lead to a decrease in *d-excess* values  
376 (Peng et al., 2012). Consistent with previous studies (Wang et al., 2019), we observed  
377 that the *d-excess* of influent water was higher than that of reservoir water. This  
378 observation further supports the accumulation of heavy H-O isotopes in the surface  
379 waters of the dam areas, as shown in Fig.  
380 6a.



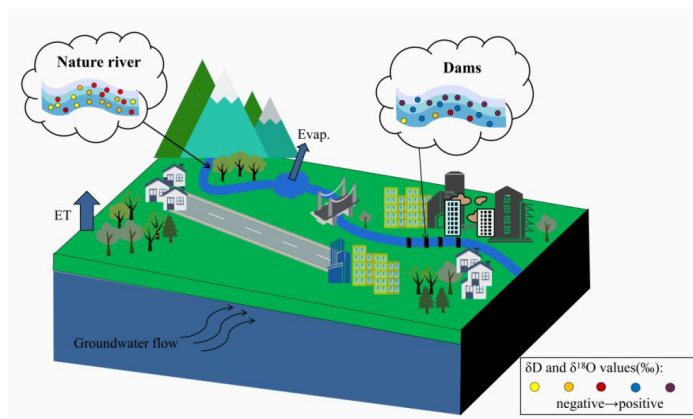
381  
382 Figure 6 (a) The longitudinal variation of the surface water *d-excess* of the SYR, (b)  
383 The longitudinal variation of the surface water MRT of the SYR.

### 384 5.3 Effects of Urbanization on the Water Cycle of Watersheds

385 Alterations in the local microclimate have an effect on the processes of  
386 precipitation and evapotranspiration, and these changes have a significant impact on  
387 the water cycle in urban areas. The underlying surface conditions become even more



388 complicated as a result of urbanization, which then leads to intricate flow generation  
389 and confluence patterning. The infiltration process is hindered in urban areas due to  
390 urbanization, which further exacerbates the runoff generation mechanism.  
391 Urbanization significantly increases the surface's impermeability. A comprehensive  
392 study of rainfall-runoff responses using periodic regression uncovered a significant  
393 periodicity in the SYR Basin's river water across all of its regions. This periodicity  
394 was found in the SYR Basin's river water. The high level of urbanization in the  
395 midstream shortens the average residence time, also known as MRT, and increases the  
396 proportion of precipitation that is carried away as runoff.



397  
398 Figure 7 Schematic diagram of the effect of urbanization on river isotope dynamics.

399 Urbanization has had a profound and swift impact on the water environment of  
400 cities, often causing an array of water-related problems. The development of  
401 impermeable surfaces, such as parking areas, roofs, roads, and sidewalks, has  
402 ultimately results in a surge of runoff and an increase in the number of pathways by  
403 which pollutants are transported from the landscape to water bodies (Wilson and  
404 Weng, 2010). In the alternative, agricultural activities can also make a contribution to



405 the deterioration of water quality through the use of chemical fertilizers, pesticides,  
406 herbicides, and animal waste on farmland to fulfill the dietary demands of a growing  
407 population. This is done in an effort to keep up with the demand for food that is being  
408 generated by the growing population. These contaminants have the potential to make  
409 their way into nearby bodies of water, which, when combined with the direct and  
410 indirect effects of urbanization, can result in a deterioration of water quality (Yu et al.,  
411 2013). The SYR Basin is notable for its innovative water resource management and  
412 highest utilization rate in China. Within the basin, the Liangzhou District is of  
413 particular interest because it is an artificial oasis with a high population density and  
414 substantial water demands. Our research demonstrates that the residence time of water  
415 in urban areas is significantly shorter than in natural settings, resulting in accelerated  
416 river runoff. This may accelerate the river's eutrophication and increase salinity levels.

417 Implementing effective water resource management in the SYR Basin is  
418 essential for furthering the region's sustainable water and environmental development.  
419 This involves the formulation of water-use rules that reduce possible safety,  
420 environmental, and health problems and encourage the ecological expansion of the  
421 region. To guarantee the long-term viability of the region's water resources and  
422 ecology, governments and interested parties must prioritize the execution of these  
423 measures.

## 424 **6 Conclusions**

425 Based on the stable isotope data of different water bodies in the SYR Basin, this  
426 study examined the characteristics and impacting components of stable hydrogen and



427 oxygen isotopes within water bodies. The results indicate that the surface water  
428 isotope values in the SYR basin show a gradual spatial enrichment from upstream to  
429 downstream, with the highest surface water isotope enrichment around the urban area  
430 of Wuwei. This is primarily due to the construction of a large number of landscape  
431 dams in the urban area, which slowed water flow and increased water evaporation.  
432 Moreover, urban landscape dams reduce the flow rate of urban rivers, resulting in the  
433 semi-blockage of surface water bodies. In urban areas, surface water evaporation  
434 losses are greater than in other natural river areas due to the flat and open terrain and  
435 increased water catchment area. Throughout the year, surface water evaporation loss  
436 in the Wuwei urban landscape dam area is greatest in the summer. The approach of  
437 periodic regression analysis was used to evaluate the differences in rainfall-runoff  
438 processes in various places, demonstrating that the periodicity of river water varies  
439 considerably across the basin. The projected average residence period of surface water  
440 falls gradually from the higher to middle portions of a river. The input of precipitation  
441 to river water increases steadily from upstream to downstream, illustrating the  
442 accelerated rainfall-runoff process caused by an increase in impervious surface area  
443 and urban drainage system. The metropolitan landscape's dams and big reservoirs  
444 have a significant impact on the local hydrological system and produce a considerable  
445 evaporation effect.

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449 **Data availability Statement**

450 The isotopic data that support the findings of this study are openly available in  
451 Zhu, Guofeng (2022), “Stable water isotope monitoring network of different water  
452 bodies in SYR Basin, a typical arid river in China”, Mendeley Data, V1, doi:  
453 10.17632/vhm44t74sy.1

454 **Competing Interests**

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

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

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