

1 **Isotopic differences of soil-plant-atmosphere continuum**
2 **composition and control factors of different vegetation zones**
3 **in north slope of Qilian Mountains**

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11 **Abstract:** Understanding the differences and controlling factors of stable water isotopes in the
12 soil-plant-atmosphere continuum (SPAC) of different vegetation zones is of great guiding significance
13 for revealing hydrological processes and regional water cycle mechanisms. From April 2018 to October
14 2019, we collected 1281 samples in the Shiyang River Basin. In this study, we **investigated** the changes
15 of stable water isotopes in the **SPAC** in three different vegetation zones (alpine meadow, forest, and
16 arid foothills) in the Shiyang River Basin. The results show that: (1) In SPAC, precipitation isotope has
17 the main controlling effect. From alpine meadows to arid foothills, **the temperature effect of**
18 **precipitation isotopes increases with the decrease of altitude.** (2) **The soil water isotope is gradually**
19 **enriched from the alpine meadow to the arid foothills.** (3) Alpine meadow plants are mainly supplied
20 by precipitation in the rainy season, and forest plants mainly utilize soil water in the dry season and
21 precipitation in the rainy season. **The soil water in the arid foothills is primarily recharged by**
22 **groundwater, and the evaporation of plant isotopes is strong.** (4) Temperature and altitude are potential
23 factors that control the isotope composition of SPAC. This research will help understand the SPAC
24 system's water cycle at different altitudes and climates in high mountains.

25 **Keywords:** Shiyang River Basin; Stable isotope; Precipitation; Soil water; Plant water

26 **1 Introduction**

27 **The relative abundance changes of oxygen and hydrogen isotopes in water can indicate the water**

28 cycle and the water use mechanism in plants, so isotope technology has become an increasingly
29 important method for studying the water cycle (Gao et al., 2009; Song et al., 2002; Coplen, 2013; Shou
30 et al., 2013). The stable isotope composition of water is considered to be the “fingerprint” of water,
31 which records a large amount of environmental information that comprehensively reflects the
32 geochemical process of each system, and links the composition characteristics of each link (Darling et
33 al., 2003; Raco et al., 2013; Nlend et al., 2020). As an effective tool, stable isotope technology is
34 widely applied in studying the relationship between environmental factors and the water cycle
35 (Araguás-Araguás et al., 1998; Christopher et al., 2009), water transportation, and distribution
36 mechanisms (Gao et al., 2011), and ways of tracing water use by plants (Detjen et al., 2015). The
37 understanding of the relationship between the influence of plant characteristics, water use efficiency
38 and water sources (Ehleringer, 1991; Sun et al., 2005; Li et al., 2019) provides a new observation
39 method for revealing the water cycle mechanism of the hydrological ecosystem (Nie et al., 2014; Yu et
40 al., 2007; Wang et al., 2019)

41 Although the isotope ratio in soil water varies with depth, it remains stable when transferred from
42 plant roots to stems, leaves or young unbolted branches (Porporato, 2001; Meissner et al., 2014).
43 Combined the isotopic composition changes of surface water, soil water and groundwater, precipitation
44 infiltration and runoff generation process (Bam and Ireso, 2018; Hou et al., 2008), groundwater
45 recharge and regeneration capacity (Smith et al., 1992; Cortes and Farvolden, 1989) can be determined.
46 Regional meteorological and hydrological conditions and the contribution of various environmental
47 factors can be evaluated (Hua et al., 2019) by comparing different waterline equations and analyzing
48 changes in various water bodies. Furthermore, it has laid a foundation for studying the deep mechanism
49 of the water cycle (Gao et al., 2009). As an important component of the global water cycle, plants
50 control 50-90% of transpiration (Jasechko et al., 2013; Coenders-Gerrits et al., 2014; Schlesinger and
51 Jasechko, 2014). The roots of plants have no isotope fractionation when absorbing water (White et al.,
52 1985; Song et al., 2013), so the water isotope composition of plant roots and stems reflects the isotope
53 composition of water available for plants (Dawson et al., 1991).

54 The research of the water cycle based on SPAC plays a vital role in the study of water in arid areas
55 and the sources of plant water use (Price et al., 2012; Shou et al., 2013). Hydrogen and oxygen isotopes
56 have been used to study the water cycle at the interface of "soil-root", "soil-plant", and
57 "soil-atmosphere", but only a few parameters play an important role in the complex interactions

58 between various surfaces (Durand et al., 2007; Li et al., 2006; West et al., 2010). Previous studies have
59 shown that local factors, especially temperature, mainly control stable isotope precipitation changes in
60 mid-latitudes (Dai et al., 2020). Through the research on the composition of hydrogen and oxygen
61 isotopes in different water bodies, we can further understand the mechanism of water use by vegetation
62 (Yang et al., 2015) and provide a scientific basis for vegetation restoration in arid and semi-arid areas.
63 In the existing research, how to extend the results of the small-scale SPAC water cycle research to the
64 large-scale area has become a hot spot and difficulty. In inland arid areas, due to the lack of water
65 resources, the exchange of energy and water with the outside world is small, and the water cycle is
66 mainly the vertical circulation of groundwater-soil-atmospheric water. Therefore, studying the changes
67 in SPAC isotopic composition in arid regions is significant for ecological restoration.

68 The Shiyang River Basin has the greatest ecological pressure and the most severe water shortage
69 in China. The purpose of this study is to: (1) analyze the SPAC water cycle process in different
70 vegetation areas and (2) identify the potential factors that control the SPAC water cycle. The research is
71 helpful to clarify the water resource utilization mechanism and the local water cycle mechanism of
72 different vegetation areas in high mountainous areas and provides a specific theoretical basis and
73 guiding suggestions for the practical and reasonable use of water resources in arid areas.

74 **2 Materials and methods**

75 **2.1 Study area**

76 The Shiyang River Basin is located at the northern foot of the Qilian Mountains, east of the Hexi
77 Region, Gansu Province (Zhu et al., 2018) (Fig. 1). The Shiyang River originates from the
78 snow-capped mountains on the north side of the Lenglongling in the eastern section of the Qilian
79 Mountains. The river's total length is about 250 km, with a basin area of 4.16×10^4 km², and the annual
80 average runoff is about 1.58×10^8 km³. River supplies come from meteoric mountain precipitation and
81 alpine ice and snow melt water. The runoff area is about 1.10×10^4 km², and the drought index is 1 to 4
82 (Zhou et al., 2020). The soil is classified as grey brown desert soil, aeolian sandy soil, saline soil, and
83 meadow soil. The Shiyang River Basin has a continental temperate arid climate with strong sunlight.
84 The annual average sunshine hours are 2604.8-3081.8 hours, the annual average temperature is

85 -8.2-10.5°C, the temperature difference between day and night is 25.2°C, the annual average
86 precipitation is 222 mm, and the annual average evaporation is 700-2000 mm. The vegetation coverage
87 in the upper and middle alpine regions is better than that of the lower reaches, with trees, shrubs, and
88 grass covered (Wan et al., 2019). The downstream vegetation coverage is poor under the strong
89 influence of long-term human production and life, mainly desert vegetation.

90 **Fig 1** about here

91 **2.2 Sample collection**

92 From April 2018 to October 2019, samples were collected at Lenglong (alpine meadow), Hulin
93 (forest), and Xiyang (arid foothills) in the Shiyang River Basin (Table 1). We collected 1281 samples in
94 the Shiyang River Basin, including 472 precipitation samples, 570 soil samples, 119 plant samples, and
95 120 groundwater samples.

96 **Table 1** about here

97 The precipitation samples are collected with a rain bucket. The rain measuring cylinder consists of
98 a funnel and a storage part. After each precipitation event, the collected liquid precipitation is
99 immediately transferred to a 100 ml high-density sample bottle. The sample bottle is sealed with a
100 sealing film and stored at low temperature. Simultaneously, the polyethylene bottle sample is labeled
101 with the date and type of precipitation (rain, snow, hail, and rain).

102 The soil samples are collected at intervals of 10 cm at a depth of 100 cm with a soil drill. Part of
103 the soil sample were put into a 50 ml glass bottle. The bottle's mouth was sealed with parafilm and
104 transported to the observation station for cryopreservation within 10 hours after sampling. The
105 remaining soil sample was placed in a 50 ml aluminum box and used the drying method to measure the
106 soil water content (swc).

107 The vegetation samples are collected with a sampling shear. First, we peel off the bark and put the
108 stem into a 50 ml glass bottle. After that, we sealed the bottle mouth and keep it frozen before the
109 experimental analysis.

110 The groundwater was collected with polyethylene bottles, and the samples were brought back to

111 the refrigerator at the test station for cryogenic preservation within 10 hours.

112 2.3 Sample treatment

113 All water samples are tested using a liquid water analyzer (DLT-100, Los Gatos Research Center,
114 USA) in the Northwest Normal University laboratory. Each sample and isotope standard was analyzed
115 by six consecutive injections. To eliminate the memory effect of the analyzer, we discarded the values
116 of the first two injections and used the average of the last four injections as the final result value.

117 Isotopic measurements are given with the symbol "δ" and are expressed as a difference of thousandths
118 relative to Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water:

$$119 \quad \delta (\text{‰}) = [(\delta/\delta_{v-smow}) - 1] \times 1000 \quad (1-1)$$

120 Where, δ is the ratio of ¹⁸O/¹⁶O or ^D/¹H in the collected sample, δ_{v-smow} is the ratio of ¹⁸O/¹⁶O or
121 ^D/¹H in the Vienna standard sample.

122 Due to the existence of methanol and ethanol in plant water samples, it is necessary to calibrate
123 the original data of plant samples. Using different concentrations of pure methanol and ethanol mixed
124 deionized water, combined with Los Gatos' LWIA-spectral pollutant identification instrument V1.0
125 spectral analysis software, the establishment of δD and δ¹⁸O spectral pollutant correction method,
126 determine methanol (NB) and ethanol (BB) pollution degree (Meng et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2015). For
127 the broadband metric value NB metric of the methanol calibration result, its logarithm has a significant
128 quadratic curve relationship with ΔδD and Δδ¹⁸O, and the formulas are respectively:

$$129 \quad \Delta\delta D = 0.018 (\ln NB)^3 + 0.092 (\ln NB)^2 + 0.388 \ln NB + 0.785 \quad (R^2 = 0.991, p < 0.0001) \quad (2-1)$$

$$130 \quad \Delta\delta^{18}O = 0.017 (\ln NB)^3 - 0.017 (\ln NB)^2 + 0.545 \ln NB + 1.358 \quad (R^2 = 0.998, p < 0.0001) \quad (2-2)$$

131 For ethanol calibration results, the broadband metric value BB metric has a quadratic curve and a
132 linear relationship with ΔδD and Δδ¹⁸O, and the formulas are respectively:

$$133 \quad \Delta\delta D = -85.67 BB + 93.664 \quad (R^2 = 0.747, p = 0.026) \quad (BB < 1.2) \quad (2-3)$$

$$134 \quad \Delta\delta^{18}O = -21.421 BB^2 + 39.9356 \quad (R^2 = 0.769, p < 0.012) \quad (2-4)$$

135 2.4 Data analysis

136 Since the isotopic data are generally normally distributed according to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov
137 (KS) test, we use Pearson correlation to describe the various correlations between different water types
138 (precipitation, soil water, plant water, and groundwater) and the control factors in different vegetation

139 **zones**. The significance level for all statistical tests was set to the 95% confidence interval. All
140 statistical analyses were performed using SPSS software.

141 **3. Results**

142 **3.1 Changes in meteorological parameters over time**

143 **Figure 2 shows the changes in daily precipitation, relative humidity, temperature, and swc from**
144 **April 2018 to October 2019. Meteorological data are obtained from the meteorological station in the**
145 **Shiyang River Basin.** During the summer monsoon (April to September), the accumulated precipitation
146 accounts for 90.4% of the total precipitation, and the average daily precipitation was 3.98 mm. During
147 the winter monsoon (October to March), the accumulated precipitation accounts for 9.60% of the total
148 precipitation, with an average daily precipitation of 0.13 mm. During the summer monsoon, the relative
149 humidity in the Shiyang River Basin was 43.78%, while **during the winter monsoon it was 35.78%.**
150 During the observation period, the temperature between -16.2°C and 32°C, and the average temperature
151 of summer monsoon and winter monsoon were 20.20°C and -0.69°C, respectively. The average SWC
152 value of 0-100cm soil layer varies from 2.58% to 89.96 %, and the low SWC value usually appears in
153 summer, **which relates to the strong soil evaporation.**
154

Fig 2 about here

155 **3.2 The relationship between water stable isotopes in different vegetation zones**

156 According to the definition of the global meteoric water line (GMWL) (Craig, 1961), the linear
157 relationship of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD in local precipitation, soil water, plant water, and groundwater is defined as
158 LMWL, SWL, PWL, and GWL, respectively.

159 As shown in Fig. 3, there are some differences in the atmospheric waterline equations of different
160 vegetation zones. The **slope of** LMWL of alpine meadows (7.88), forests (7.82), and arid foothills (7.72)
161 is all smaller than that of GMWL (8.00), this is because the study area is located in northwestern
162 China's arid area, the climate is dry, and the isotopes have undergone strong fractionation. The slope of
163 the SWL in the alpine meadow is the largest (6.07), and the slope of the SWL in the forest (5.10) is
164 greater than the slope of the SWL in the arid foothills (3.94), the intercept has the same characteristics,
165 indicating that the arid foothills' soil evaporation is the largest. According to the Natural Resources
166 Survey Report of the Shiyang River Basin in 2020, the vegetation coverage rate of the alpine meadow
167 is 25.95%, and that of the arid foothills is 8.48%. The vegetation coverage rate of the alpine meadow is

168 higher than that of the arid foothills, with better water retention ability and less evaporation of soil
169 water (Wan et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2019). The slope of the PWL in the arid foothills is the largest
170 (2.45), and the slope of the PWL in the alpine meadow (1.90) is greater than that of the forest (1.69).

171 According to the weighted average value of stable oxygen isotopes of various water bodies (Table
172 2), alpine meadows' soil water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is -9.16‰, the most depleted and the closest to the precipitation
173 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (-9.44‰). The average $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of groundwater is -8.84‰, which is between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of plant (-1.68‰)
174 and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of precipitation (-9.44‰), indicating that precipitation is the primary source of alpine
175 meadows replenishment. The precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the forest (-7.50‰) is the most depleted, and the
176 average $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of groundwater (-8.56‰) is between soil water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (-7.01‰) and precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
177 (-8.63‰), but it is close to precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, indicating that forest groundwater is replenished by soil
178 water and precipitation. The mean $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of soil water (-8.23‰) in the arid foothills are between
179 precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (-7.50‰) and groundwater $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (-8.88‰) but closer to groundwater $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, indicating
180 that the soil water in the arid foothills is mainly supplied by groundwater.

181

Fig 3 about here

182

Table 2 about here

183 3.3 Relationship between soil water and plant water isotope in different vegetation zones

184 By analyzing the isotopic composition of soil and plant xylem, it is possible to preliminarily
185 determine whether there is an overlap between soil moisture and plant moisture at different depths
186 (Javaux et al., 2016; Dawson et al., 1993; Rothfuss et al., 2017; Tetzlaff et al., 2017; McCole et al.,
187 2007; Zhou et al., 2015; Schwendenmann et al., 2015). Soil water may evaporate before it is absorbed
188 by plants, which leads to the increase of δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of soil water (Chen et al., 2014). Therefore,
189 it can be well explained that the surface soil water isotope in Fig. 4 is more enriched than the deep soil
190 water isotope.

191 According to the study area's precipitation, the current experiment is divided into the dry season
192 (October-April of the following year) and the rainy season (May-September) for analysis (Fig. 4). In
193 the dry season, alpine meadow plants have the highest value of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (-2.84‰), and there is no overlap
194 between soil and plant water. In the rainy season, the plant water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (-6.04‰) and precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$

195 (-6.40‰) are close, **the groundwater and soil water's surface and deep layers intersect**, indicating that
196 plant water is mainly supplied by precipitation in the rainy season, while the groundwater is supplied
197 by soil water. In the dry season, due to the low temperature (average temperature 0.30°C), there is a lot
198 of ice and snow in alpine meadows, and plants do not directly use soil water. As the increase of
199 temperature (average temperature 8.72°C), precipitation and surface runoff increases, **and water**
200 **infiltrate into groundwater from soil**. Forest plant water intersects with deep soil during the dry season
201 and intersects with the soil surface during the rainy season, indicating that forest plants mainly use deep
202 soil water during the dry season and shallow soil water during the rainy season. In the rainy season, the
203 surface layer of soil water intersects with plant water, **the groundwater and soil water's surface and**
204 **deep layers intersect**, showing that the plant water preferentially uses the surface layer water of the soil
205 **in the arid foothills**. In the dry season, plant water **oxygen is the most enriched**, and the isotopic values
206 of groundwater and soil water are close, **indicating** that the soil water is mainly recharged by the
207 groundwater. According to the natural resources survey report of the Shiyang River Basin, the buried
208 groundwater level **in the arid foothills** is 2.5-15 m, and the groundwater **table** is relatively shallow,
209 making the soil water in the arid foothills mainly recharged by groundwater in the dry season.

210

Fig 4 about here

211 **4. Discussion**

212 **4.1 Variation of soil **water** isotope and SWC between different vegetation zones**

213 **In Fig. 5**, along the three vegetation zones of alpine meadow-forest-arid foothills, soil water
214 isotope is gradually enriched. **The coefficient of variation of the arid foothills is the largest (-0.15),**
215 **while that of the forest is the smallest (-0.25), indicating that from forest to arid foothills, the closer to**
216 **arid regions, the greater the coefficient of variation and that the greater the instability of stable isotope**
217 **soil water**. The soil water isotopes of different vegetation zones showed the same characteristics as the
218 soil depth changed, that is, they were all depleted in May and August and enriched in October.

219 The **swc** of alpine meadows (average θ of 42.21 %) is higher than that of forests (average θ of
220 26.98 %) and arid foothills (average θ of 17.05 %), and the **swc** of alpine meadows increases with the
221 increase of soil depth (from 43.78 % to 49.27 %), while that of forests the **swc** decreases with the soil
222 depth (from 26.10 % to 25.41 %). Compared with forests, plants in alpine meadows have shallower root
223 systems and smaller canopies, so transpiration and water consumption are lower, and **swc** is higher
224 (Csilla et al., 2014; Li et al., 2009; Western et al., 1998). On the one hand, with the improvement of
225 vegetation restoration, the ability to retain **soil** water in the alpine meadows has increased, and the
226 amount of soil water evaporation has reduced. **On the other hand, Lenglong, a representative of alpine**
227 **meadows, has an average annual precipitation of 595.10 mm, and a low temperature (average annual**
228 **temperature of -0.20°C), makes the soil water evaporation intensity weak.** The **swc** of the alpine
229 meadows (86.95 %) and forests (53.45 %) is the largest in August, while the arid foothills' **swc**
230 (11.13 %) is the smallest in August, this is because the northern slope of the Qilian Mountains is a
231 windward slope. **In August, a lot of precipitation falls on the high-altitude alpine meadows and forests,**
232 **the arid foothills have little precipitation and low swc.**
233

Fig 5 about here

234 4.2 Control factors of SPAC in different vegetation zones

235 4.2.1 The influence of temperature on SPAC

236

As shown in Fig. 6, with the changes in the water cycle of precipitation-soil water-plant water, the
237 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of forests gradually accumulates, while the soil water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of arid foothills and alpine meadows
238 are the most depleted in summer. In other seasons, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is gradually enriched along with
239 precipitation-soil water-plant water. In summer, there is much precipitation and large **swc** in alpine
240 meadows, but due to low temperature (average temperature in summer is 9.80°C), the soil water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
241 of alpine meadows is relatively depleted. In the arid foothills, in summer, especially in August,
242 although the temperature is relatively high (the average temperature is 23.92°C), the **swc** is low,
243 evaporation is weak, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ are relatively depleted. This phenomenon shows that precipitation plays
244 a major control role in the water cycle of precipitation-soil-plants. **When** the temperature is below 0°C,

245 the air will expand adiabatically, and the water vapor will change adiabatic cooling (Rozanski, 1992).
246 When the temperature is between 0°C and 8°C, the influence of local water vapor circulation is greater.
247 When the temperature is below 8°C, the below-cloud evaporation is very strong (Zhu et al., 2021).
248 Therefore, we divided the temperature into three gradients (below 0°C, between 0°C and 8°C and
249 above 8°C) for analysis. From the alpine meadow to arid foothills, the correlations between
250 temperature and soil $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ are 0.41, 0.30, and 0.19, respectively, and the correlations with plant $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ are
251 0.24, 0.27, and 0.25, respectively, and the temperature effect is not significant compared with
252 precipitation. As shown in Table 3, from the alpine meadow to the arid foothills, the temperature effect
253 of the precipitation isotope is enhanced, and there is a significant positive correlation with temperature,
254 and all have passed the significance test. With the increase of temperature, the temperature effect and
255 the linear relationship of precipitation isotope in each vegetation area weakened. When the temperature
256 is lower than 0°C, the correlation between precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and the temperature in the arid foothills
257 fails the significance test. The relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and temperature in alpine meadows, forests,
258 and arid foothills are $\delta^{18}\text{O}=0.62T-10.84$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}=1.58T-12.14$, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}=1.29T-11.78$, respectively. When
259 the temperature is between 0°C and 8°C, as the temperature increases, the temperature effect of
260 precipitation weakens, which may be related to the weakening of the local water cycle and the
261 enrichment of precipitation isotopes. The relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and temperature in alpine
262 meadows, forests, and arid foothills are $\delta^{18}\text{O}=0.51T-11.41$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}=2.46T-22.84$, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}=2.27T-22.78$,
263 respectively. When the temperature is above 8°C, there is no correlation between the precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
264 and the temperature, but the precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is the most enriched, which may be related to the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
265 enrichment caused by the below-cloud evaporation. The relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and temperature in

266 alpine meadows, forests, and arid foothills are $\delta^{18}\text{O}=0.48T-10.82$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}=0.13T-7.76$, and
267 $\delta^{18}\text{O}=0.27T-10.13$, respectively.

268 **Fig 6** about here

269 **Table 3** about here

270 4.2.2 The influence of altitude on SPAC

271 In Fig.7, the altitude effect of precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is the strongest, and the relationship between
272 plant water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and altitude is weakest, showing that in SPAC, precipitation isotope is most affected
273 by altitude, and plant water isotope is least affected by altitude. From the arid foothills to alpine
274 meadows, the elevation rises from 2097m to 3647m, and the change rate of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD were -0.11%
275 $(100\text{m})^{-1}$ and -0.41% $(100\text{m})^{-1}$. As the water vapor quality rises along the hillside, the temperature
276 continues to decline, and the isotopic values of precipitation continue to consume. In the rainy season,
277 the squares of the correlation coefficients between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD of precipitation and altitude are 0.79
278 and 0.98, the change rate of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD are -0.12% $(100\text{m})^{-1}$ and -1.05% $(100\text{m})^{-1}$, respectively. In
279 the dry season, the correlation coefficient squares of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD with altitude are 0.88 and 0.90,
280 respectively, and the rate of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and δD change is -0.18% $(100\text{m})^{-1}$ and -0.79% $(100\text{m})^{-1}$, respectively.
281 We can see that the altitude effect of precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is stronger in the dry season ($R^2=0.88$) than in
282 the rainy season ($R^2=0.79$). The results showed that as the temperature increase, the temperature effect
283 of precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ masks the altitude effect, which leads to the weakening of the altitude effect of
284 precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. The relationship between soil water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and altitude is stronger in the dry season
285 ($R^2=0.26$) than in the rain season ($R^2=0.28$). The relationship between plant water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and altitude is
286 stronger in the dry season ($R^2=0.11$) than in the rainy season ($R^2=0.10$), this is consistent with the
287 changes in the altitude effect of precipitation isotope which is related to precipitation playing a major

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controlling role in SPAC.

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Fig 7 about here

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4.2.3 The influence of relative humidity and precipitation on SPAC

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To find out the potential factors that control the isotope composition of SPAC in different vegetation zones, we also analyzed the influence of relative humidity and precipitation on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of

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SPAC. It can be seen from Fig. 8 and Table 4 that the greatest impact of relative humidity on the

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isotope composition of SPAC appears in the arid foothills in the dry season, with a correlation

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coefficient of 0.38. In the dry season, the square of the correlation coefficient between forest

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precipitation isotope and relative humidity Although it is 0.78, there is an inverse humidity relationship

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between the two, which may be related to the lack of precipitation samples in the dry season. The

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largest impact of precipitation on the isotopic composition of SPAC occurs in the arid foothills in the

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rainy season, and the square of the correlation coefficient is 0.14. It can also be seen from Figure 8 that

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the influence of relative humidity and precipitation have a greater influence on precipitation isotope

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than that of plant water isotope and soil water isotope. The influence of relative humidity and

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precipitation on the isotopic composition of SPAC in alpine meadows is greater than that of arid

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foothills and greater than that of forests. In general, the SPAC isotopic composition of alpine meadows,

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forests, and arid foothills has a weak precipitation effect, and the correlation with relative humidity is

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also weak.

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By comparing the correlation of temperature, altitude, relative humidity and precipitation with

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SPAC isotope composition in different vegetation zones, we can see that the correlation between

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temperature and altitude and SPAC isotope composition is stronger than relative humidity and

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precipitation. Temperature and altitude are potential factors that control the isotope composition of

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SPAC. However, in the dry season, there is a phenomenon that the temperature effect conceals the altitude effect.

312

Fig 8 about here

313

Table 4 about here

314 **5. Conclusion**

315 This paper uses the hydrogen and oxygen isotope method to study the differences and control
316 factors of SPAC in different vegetation zones. Temperature and altitude are the main controlling factors
317 for the isotope composition of SPAC. From alpine meadows to forests to arid foothills, as the decreases
318 of altitude, the temperature effect of precipitation isotope increases, and the influence of temperature
319 also increases. When the temperature is lower than 0°C, the temperature effect of the vegetation zone is
320 the strongest. In the dry season, there is a phenomenon that the temperature effect masks the altitude
321 effect. With the increase of the soil depth, the soil water isotopes are gradually depleted. The soil water
322 content of alpine meadows is the largest and increases with the soil depth, while the soil water content
323 in forest decreases with the soil depth, and the soil water content of the arid foothills is the least in
324 August. In the rainy season, plants mainly use precipitation, while in the dry season, forest plants
325 mainly use soil water, while alpine meadow plants do not directly use soil water because of the
326 abundant precipitation and melt water in the growing season. Exposure to the groundwater table in the
327 arid foothills can provide water for plants in the dry season. Because forests and grasslands affect
328 intercepting rainfall, they delay or hinder the formation of surface runoff and convert part of the surface
329 runoff into soil flow and groundwater, which can provide part of water resources for plants. To better
330 understand the water cycle of SPAC at different temperatures and altitudes in high mountain areas,
331 long-term observations of different plants are needed to provide a theoretical basis for the rational and
332 practical use of water resources in arid mountainous areas.

333 **Data Availability**

334 The data that support the findings of this study are openly available in Zhu (2021), "Stable
335 water isotope monitoring network of different water bodies in Shiyang River Basin, a typical arid
336 river in China (Supplemental Edition 20210808)", Mendeley Data, V1, doi:
337 10.17632/d5kzm92nn3.1.

338 **Author contribution**

339 Guofeng Zhu and Yuwei Liu conceived the idea of the study; Zhuaxia Zhang analyzed the data;
340 Zhigang Sun and Leilei Yong were responsible for field sampling; Liyuan Sang participated in the
341 experiment; Kailiang Zhao participated in the drawing; Yuwei Liu wrote the paper; Liyuan Sang and
342 Lei Wang checked and edited language. All authors discussed the results and revised the manuscript.

343 **Competing interests**

344 The authors declare no competing interests

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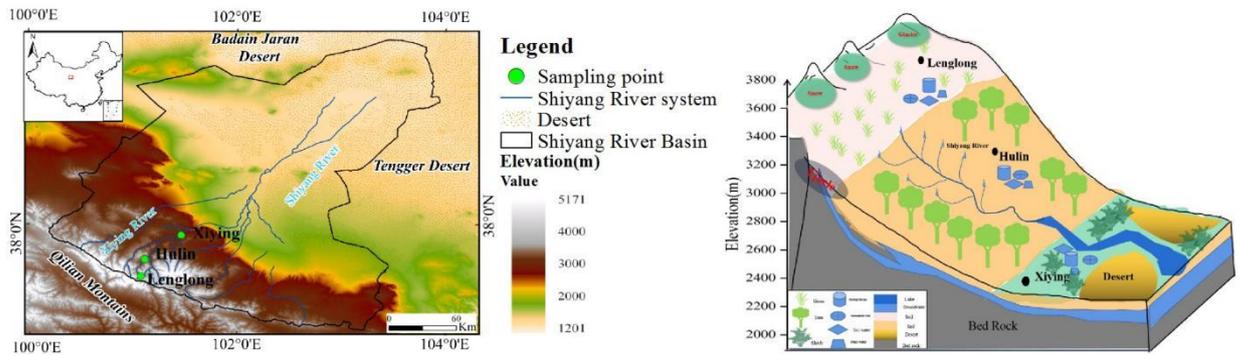


Fig. 1 Study area and observation system

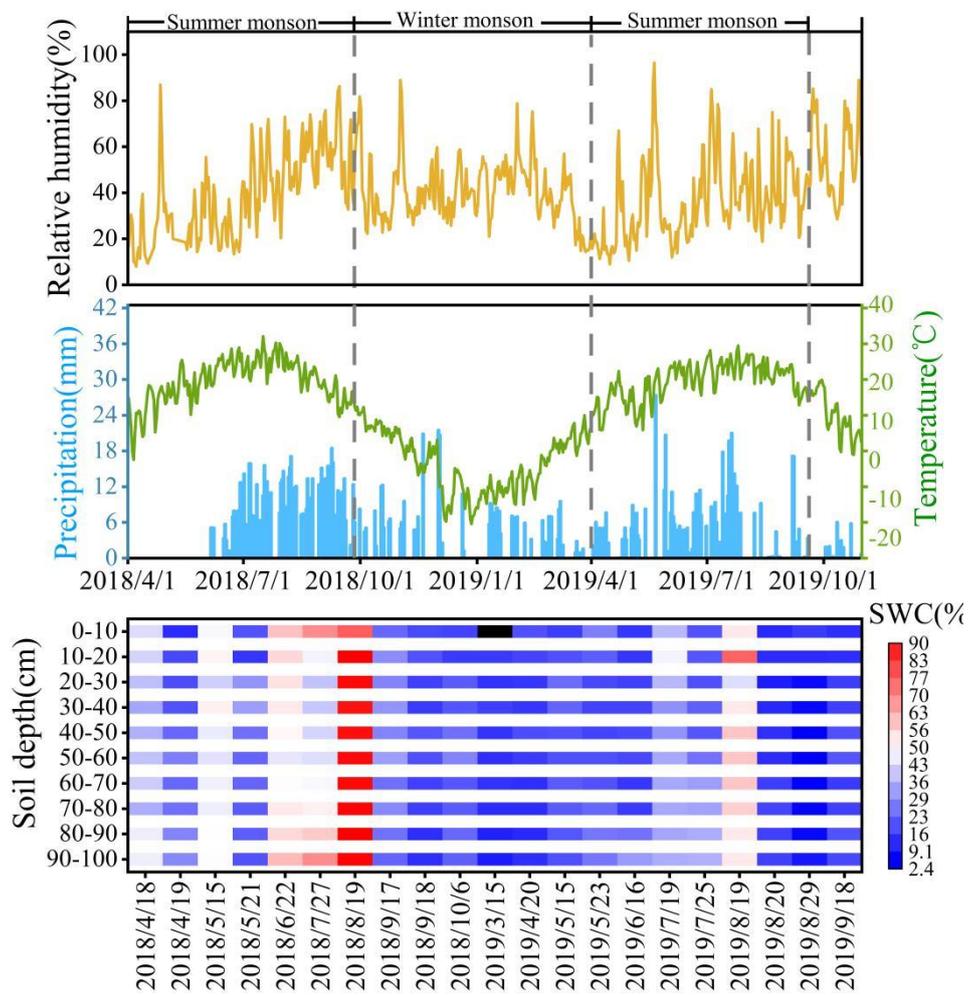


Fig. 2 Diurnal variation of relative humidity, precipitation, temperature, and swc (%) from April 2018 to October 2019

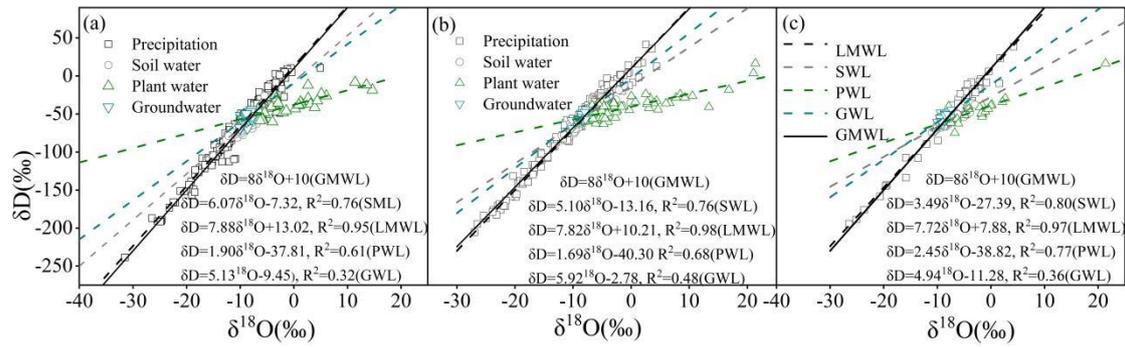


Fig.3 Relationship of stable isotopes in different water bodies in alpine meadow (a), forest (b) and arid foothills (c)

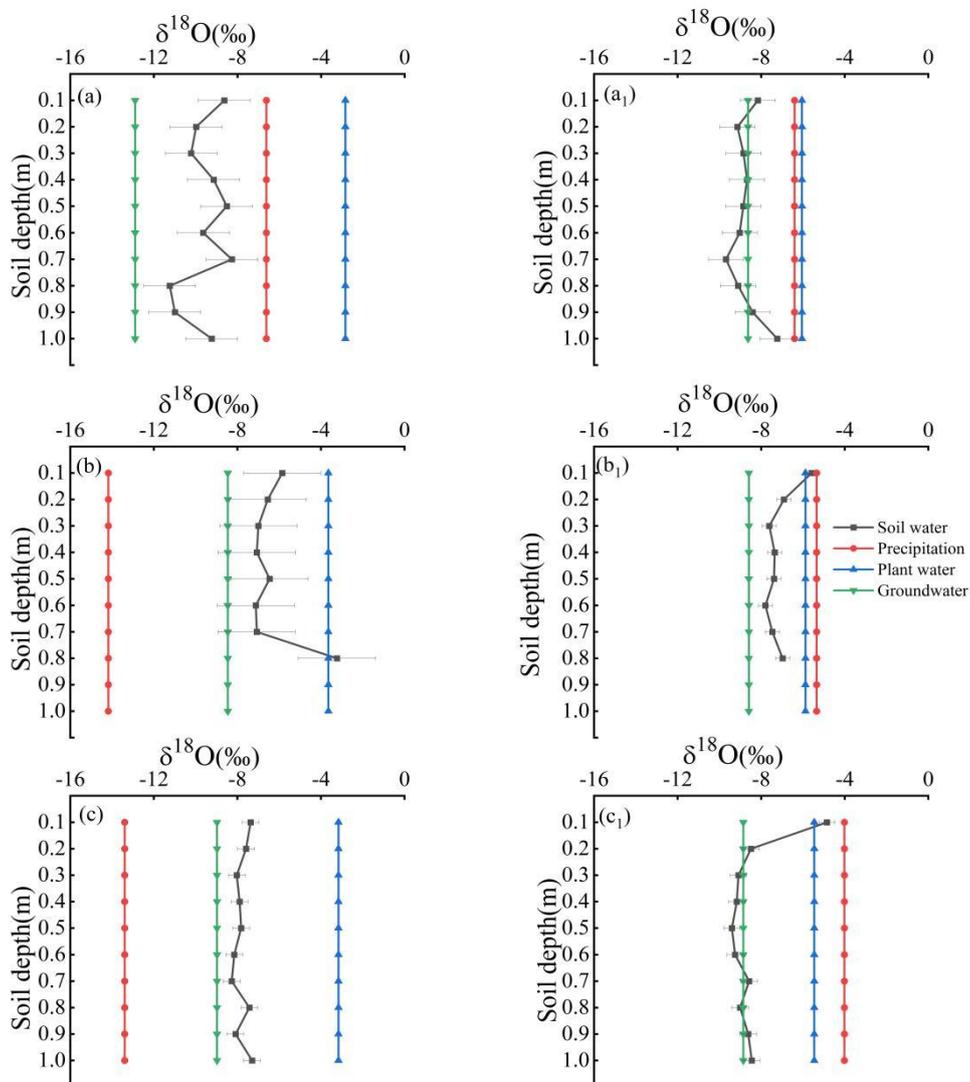


Fig. 4 (a)-(c) represents the variation of $\delta^{18}O$ of soil, plant, precipitation and groundwater with soil depth in the alpine meadow, forests and arid foothills in the dry season, and (a₁)-(d₁) represents the variation of $\delta^{18}O$ of soil, plant, precipitation and groundwater in the alpine meadow, forests and arid foothills in the rainy season

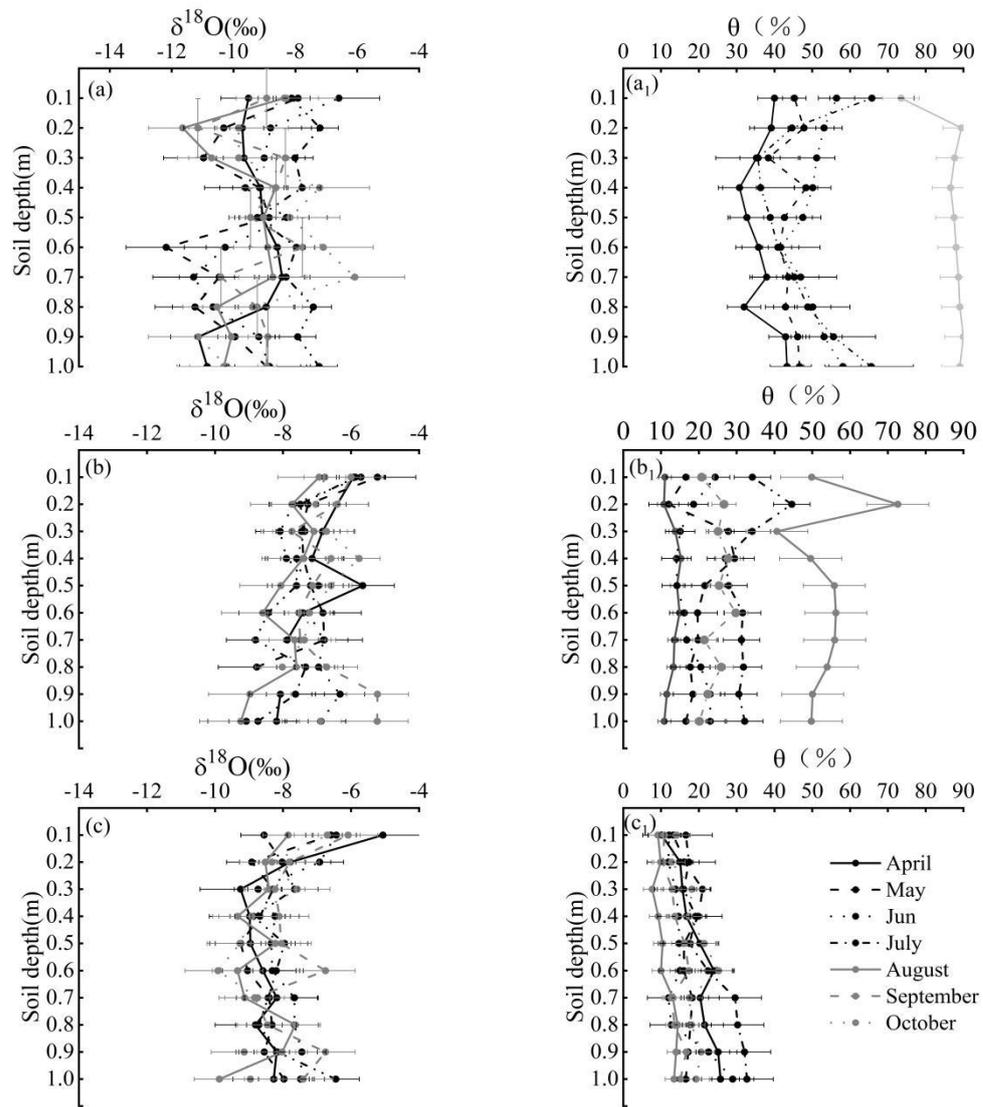


Fig.5 The variation of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and soil water content (θ , %) with soil depth. (a)-(c) represent alpine meadow, forests and arid foothills, respectively

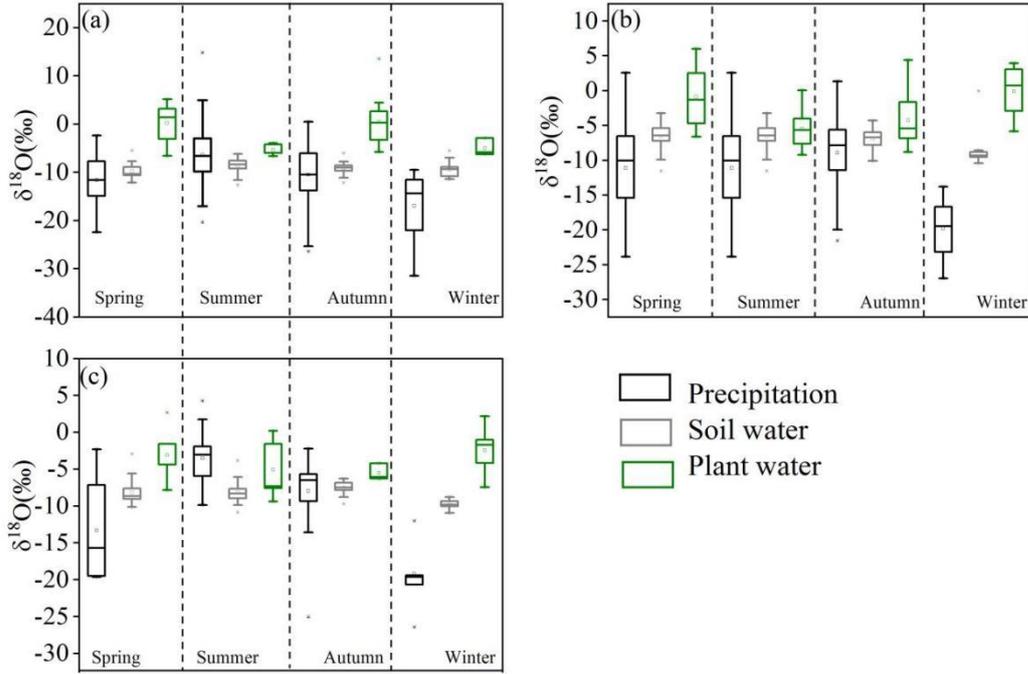


Fig. 6 Seasonal variations of different water isotopes in alpine meadow (a), forests (b) and arid foothills (c)

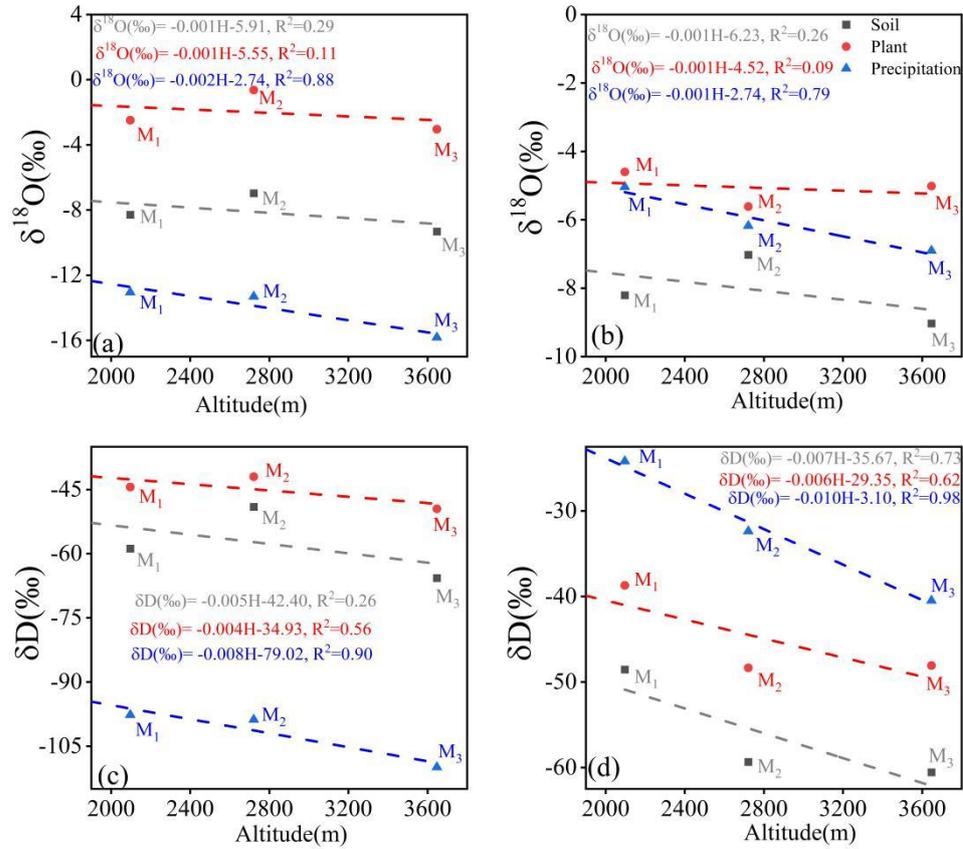


Fig. 7 Relationship between different isotope and altitude in the dry season (a, c) and in the rain season (b, d), M₁ stands for alpine meadows, M₂ stands for forests, and M₃ stands for arid foothills

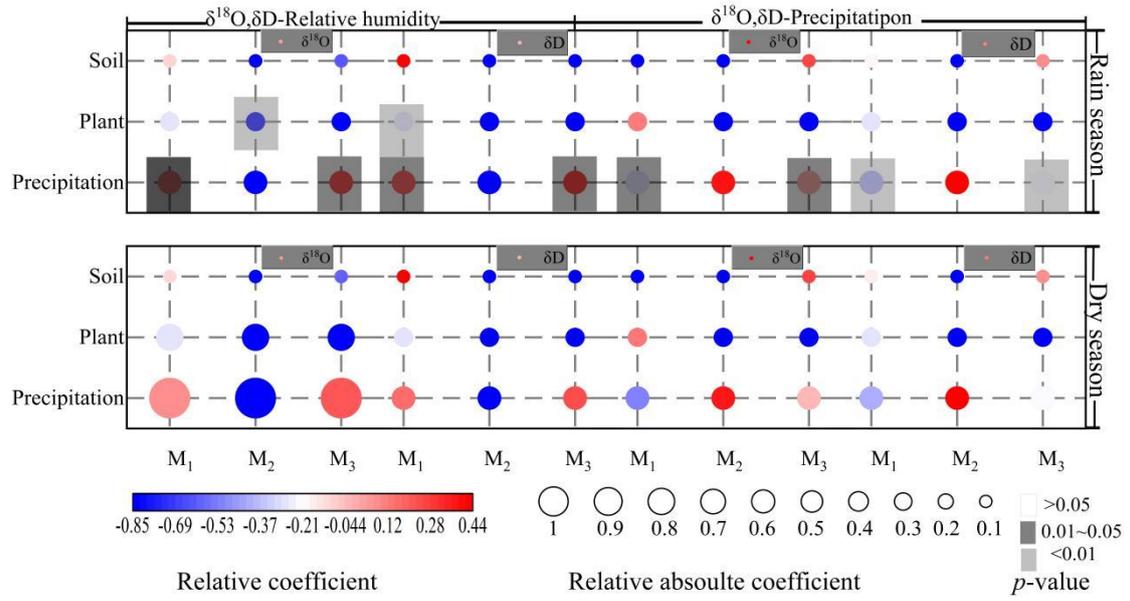


Fig. 8 Relationship between different isotope and relative humidity and precipitation, M₁ stands for alpine meadows, M₂ stands for forests, and M₃ stands for arid foothills

Table 1 Basic information table of sampling points

Sampling Station		Geographical Parameters			Meteorological Parameters	
		Longitude (E)	Latitude (N)	Altitude (m)	Average annual temperature (°C)	Average annual precipitation (mm)
M1	Lenglong	101°50'	37°33'	3647	-0.20	595.10
M2	Hulin	101°53'	37°41'	2721	3.24	469.44
M3	Xiying	102°18'	38°29'	2097	7.99	194.67

Table 2 Comparison of stable isotope of water in different vegetation zones

Vegetation zone types	Water types	$\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{‰})$			Coefficient of Variation	$\delta\text{D}(\text{‰})$			Coefficient of Variation
		Min	Max	Average		Min	Max	Average	
Alpine meadow	Precipitation	-31.49	14.79	-9.44	-0.70	-238.62	63.43	-59.43	-0.84
	Soil water	-12.62	-5.46	-9.16	-0.16	-83.86	-26.13	-62.92	-0.16
	Plant water	-6.68	5.12	-1.68	-2.18	-60.22	-12.14	-41.14	-0.28
	Groundwater	-10.07	-7.71	-8.84	-0.07	-68.55	43.72	-54.85	-0.10
Forest	Precipitation	-26.96	4.38	-8.63	-0.74	-205.40	41.35	-60.24	-0.87
	Soil water	-11.96	-0.07	-7.01	-0.25	-78.43	-18.48	-48.68	-0.21
	Plant water	-9.24	5.98	-5.44	-1.31	-63.29	-23.77	-45.12	-0.24
	Groundwater	-10.25	-7.43	-8.56	-0.09	-68.80	-43.75	-53.46	-0.12
Arid foothills	Precipitation	-26.47	4.24	-7.50	-0.87	-194.34	38.62	-48.62	-1.04
	Soil water	-10.98	-2.96	-8.23	-0.15	-74.22	-8.79	-59.17	-0.12
	Plant water	-9.41	2.67	-3.61	-0.88	-74.90	-29.39	-48.79	-0.23
	Groundwater	-10.34	-7.43	-8.88	-0.07	-71.67	-44.26	-55.12	-0.09

Table 3 Correlation between precipitation isotopes and different temperatures in different vegetation zones

Vegetation zone type	Correlation below	Correlation between	Correlation above	Correlation during the study period
	0°C	0°C-8°C	8°C	
	$(\delta^{18}\text{O} / \delta\text{D})$	$(\delta^{18}\text{O} / \delta\text{D})$	$(\delta^{18}\text{O} / \delta\text{D})$	
Alpine meadow	0.51*/0.59*	0.30*/0.24*	0.15/0.12	0.59*/0.61*
Forest	0.95*/0.94*	0.66*/0.69*	0.14/0.10	0.69*/0.65*
Arid foothills	0.47/0.51	0.79*/0.71*	0.31/0.14	0.83*/0.81*

Table 4 Correlation between different isotopes' $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and relative humidity and precipitation in different vegetation zones

Meteorological parameters	Isotope types	Rain season			Dry season		
		Alpine meadow	Forest	Arid foothills	Alpine meadow	Forest	Arid foothills
Relative Humidity	Soil	$y = -0.001x - 8.89$, $R^2 = 0.001$	$y = -0.03x - 5.21$, $R^2 = 0.13$	$y = -0.002x - 8.01$, $R^2 = 0.002$	$y = -0.01x - 8.39$, $R^2 = 0.03$	$y = 0.01x - 7.21$, $R^2 = 0.07$	$y = -0.04x - 6.38$, $R^2 = 0.38$
		$y = -0.11x + 6.11$, $R^2 = 0.11$	$y = 0.08x - 10.53$, $R^2 = 0.13$	$y = 0.05x - 7.68$, $R^2 = 0.04$	$y = -0.09x + 3.78$, $R^2 = 0.10$	$y = -0.02x - 0.28$, $R^2 = 0.004$	-
	Precipitation	$y = -0.22x + 9.45$, $R^2 = 0.28$	$y = 0.02x - 9.50$, $R^2 = 0.002$	$y = 0.13x + 3.57$, $R^2 = 0.29$	$y = 0.02x - 16.47$, $R^2 = 0.002$	$y = 0.16x + 4.33$, $R^2 = 0.72$	$y = 0.08x - 20.23$, $R^2 = 0.02$
		Soil	$y = 0.04x - 9.55$, $R^2 = 0.15$	$y = 0.02x - 7.36$, $R^2 = 0.01$	-	$y = -0.13x - 8.94$, $R^2 = 0.18$	-
	Plant		$y = -0.07x - 1.09$, $R^2 = 0.002$	$y = -0.06x - 5.01$, $R^2 = 0.01$	$y = 0.18x - 6.00$, $R^2 = 0.05$	$y = 0.07x - 2.75$, $R^2 = 0.03$	$y = -0.41x - 0.32$, $R^2 = 0.06$
		precipitation	$y = -0.30x - 5.21$, $R^2 = 0.09$	$y = -0.17x - 6.17$, $R^2 = 0.05$	$y = -0.28x - 2.84$, $R^2 = 0.14$	$y = -0.14x - 14.24$, $R^2 = 0.002$	$y = 0.17x - 9.41$, $R^2 = 0.11$