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22 (DOC) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in runoff seasonally fluctuate at a temporal scale. On average, the
23 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ from silicate rock weathering was 31–32%, contributing the largest amount of
24 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in the different watersheds. Moreover, the contribution of isotopic composition
25 from atmospheric deposition to the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ fraction increased as watershed size
26 increased, while the corresponding contribution from soil organic matter (SOM)
27 decomposition decreased. On the other hand, anthropogenic activities play a dominant
28 role in the isotopic composition of large watersheds. In addition, the correlation
29 coefficient between C transport via runoff and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value in rainfall increased as
30 watershed size increased. This indicated that as a source rainfall had an obvious
31 influence on C transport in runoff according to proportional values measured in event
32 and pre-event water.

33 **Keywords:** C transport; ^{13}C ; watershed; scale effect; hydrological process

34

35 1. Introduction

36 Land-use change causes soil disturbances, which specifically impacts terrestrial
37 ecosystem carbon (C) cycling and C turnover rates (Friend et al., 2014; Ahlström et
38 al., 2015; Atwood et al., 2017). This multiscale disturbance effect on C decomposition
39 and transport remains highly uncertain. In global C cycling, rivers play an important
40 role in transporting C from terrestrial to coastal ecosystems (Gao et al., 2016). This is
41 because biogeochemical cycling, chemical weathering and substance transport are
42 ultimately regulated by the specific runoff processes of different landscapes under the
43 influence of precipitation before reaching stream systems (Segura et al., 2012;

44 [Jasechko et al., 2016](#)). However, the effect that anthropogenic activities have on
45 watershed characteristics that sequentially impact C cycling is still not fully
46 understood due to the complex multiscale nature of C dynamics resulting from
47 hydrological processes.

48 Watershed runoff is composed of both event water and pre-event water. Thus,
49 runoff-derived C isotope export is dominated by two hydrological processes: water
50 that is stored in a watershed prior to the occurrence of runoff that mainly derives from
51 pre-precipitation events, which is referred to as pre-event water or old water, and
52 water that is input into a watershed from a given precipitation event, which is referred
53 to as event water or young water ([Buttle, 1994](#); [Laudon et al., 2007](#); [Klaus and
54 McDonnell, 2013](#)). Influencing factors on isotopic composition in stream water that
55 derive from various hydrological pathways under different watershed sizes are
56 determined by topography, land-use type or landscape pattern ([Shanley et al., 2002](#);
57 [Didszun and Uhlenbrook, 2008](#); [James and Roulet, 2009](#)). Therefore, ways in which
58 watershed characteristics impact isotopic composition in runoff can be evaluated by
59 understanding the proportional changes in pre-event and event water that reaches
60 stream systems ([Sun et al., 2019](#)).

61 The sensitivity of annual runoff to forest cover change is significant at multiple
62 spatial scales and tends to decrease as watershed size increases ([Zhang et al., 2017](#);
63 [Miao et al., 2016 and 2019](#)). The impact on watershed runoff at multiple spatial scales
64 differs; moreover, the watershed scale in itself can produce the opposite effect on
65 proportional event and pre-event runoff ([Zhang et al., 2017](#); [Su et al., 2019](#)). For

66 example, at a large scale, hydrologic watershed processes are dominated by climate
67 change and anthropogenic activities, such as afforestation, deforestation, land-use
68 type and urbanization (Frank et al., 2015; Gao et al., 2020). Klaus and McDonnell
69 (2013) reported that the contribution of pre-event water in small watersheds (i.e.,
70 $<0.05 \text{ km}^2$) increased as watershed size increased; however, Shanley et al. (2002)
71 hypothesized that pre-event water would in fact decrease with an increase in
72 watershed size. Some studies, such as McGlynn et al. (2004), Laudon et al. (2007)
73 and James and Roulet (2009), also reported that no watershed size effect would occur
74 under a watershed scale range from 0.03 km^2 to 10^4 km^2 .

75 Sun et al. (2019) confirmed the existence of land-use type and spatial pattern scale
76 effects on the isotopic composition of stream water; however, the impact of watershed
77 characteristics on isotopes in stormflow over multiple spatial scales is still unclear.
78 For example, Drake et al. (2019) found that dissolved organic carbon (DOC)
79 transported by river systems under 100% watershed forest cover was in fact event
80 water, whereas DOC transported under watershed deforestation was pre-event water.
81 Sources of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) in stream water are mainly determined
82 by the carbon dioxide (CO_2) in soil (through groundwater), chemical weathering,
83 carbonate (rock) dissolution, atmospheric CO_2 exchange and deposition and
84 planktonic respiration (Hao et al., 2019). Therefore, compared to organic and
85 particulate fractions, DIC concentrations and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DIC values can provide a better
86 understanding of the C sources and processes involved in watershed C cycling
87 (Brunet et al., 2009; Li et al., 2010; Hao et al., 2019).

88 In this study, we hypothesized that land-use types and landscape patterns linked
89 to changes in watershed size at multiple scales could potentially have a greater effect
90 in regulating differential C isotopic characteristics during runoff processes. The
91 primary aim of this study was to investigate changes in the export of C composition
92 and its isotopic characteristics at multiple scales in a subtropical cascading watershed
93 in China. We focused on two specific objectives: 1) determining how multiscale
94 watersheds regulate C composition and its isotopic characteristics; 2) identifying
95 dominant C sources and associated changes in export processes with respect to
96 watershed size in a cascading watershed.

97

98 **2. Materials and Methods**

99 **2.1 Study area**

100 The cascading watershed selected for this study is in Jiangxi Province, China,
101 located in the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River (115°4'13" E~116°24'6"
102 E, 26°44'48" N~29°44'40" N) (Fig. 1a). Three different watershed scales were
103 selected as study sites, namely, the Poyang Lake watershed (1.67×10^5 km²), the
104 Ganjiang (Gan) River watershed (8.3×10^4 km²) and the Jiazhu River watershed (121
105 km²) (Fig. 1b). Water from Poyang Lake flows into the middle and lower reaches of
106 the Yangtze River from south to north near Hukou County, Jiujiang City, China. The
107 Ganjiang River is the largest tributary of Poyang Lake, and its runoff volume accounts
108 for 46.6% of the total runoff in the Poyang Lake watershed (Li et al., 2018; Wang et
109 al., 2015). The Jiazhu River is the secondary tributary of the Ganjiang River

110 watershed, which is connected to the Qianyanzhou Ecology Station under the
111 authority of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS).

112 Poyang Lake influenced by a warm and humid subtropical climate, with an
113 annual mean precipitation of approximately 1622 mm, a mean annual air temperature
114 of 16~20 °C and an annual average relative humidity of 84% (Hao et al., 2018; Gao et
115 al., 2019a). Poyang Lake is typical lake of a water conveyance-type that continuously
116 receive and discharge water, which fed through water conveyance from Yangtze River.
117 Therefore, the complex hydrological processes of the Poyang Lake make it difficult to
118 clearly understand the specific biogeochemical process. The Poyang Lake connected
119 to five major rivers, receiving its water supply from them, wherein the Ganjiang River
120 being the largest tributary of Poyang Lake, contribute 58.4% of runoff to the Poyang
121 Lake.

122 The Poyang Lake watershed is emblematic of the subtropical, hilly red soil
123 terrain typical of much of Jiangxi Province, China, which is characterized by low hills,
124 hill terraces and valley floodplains. Red soil is the typical soil type found in the study
125 area, which is classified as a mix of oxisols, clay, fine loam, hyperthermic and acidic
126 Udic Cambisols as classified under the United States Department of Agriculture
127 (USDA) soil taxonomy standard (Gao et al., 2014). This study subdivided the Poyang
128 Lake watershed into four land-use types according to the different anthropogenic
129 activities in its surrounding area: cropland, grassland, woodland and water area (Fig.
130 1b).

131 2.2 Sample and laboratory analysis

132 According to the different geomorphic units and spatial distributions, a total of
133 15, 12 and 3 long-term monitoring points were distributed throughout Poyang Lake,
134 the Ganjiang River and the Jiazhu River, respectively (Jia et al., 2019) (Fig. 1b).
135 Sampling took place from June 2017 to July 2019 at an interim of approximately three
136 months wherein we collected 200 ml of baseflow at a 0~30- cm depth of mixed water
137 samples for laboratory analysis. There were 56 rainfall events collected for C, O, H
138 analysis and 240 runoff sample from Jiazhu River to the Poyang Lake in this study.
139 Water samples were used to determine dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), dissolved
140 organic carbon (DOC) and dissolved total carbon (DTC) using the TOC Analyzer II
141 (vario EL III, Germany), and $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{DIC}}$ was determined using the Finnigan MAT-252
142 mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Darmstadt, Hesse, Germany). Stable
143 isotopic composition is an ideal index capable of two-component (δD and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$)
144 separation (Penna et al., 2014).

145 2.3 Data analysis

146 2.3.1 ^{13}C , δD and ^{18}O isotope calculation

147 The C, D and O isotopic ratios expressed as delta values are as follows:

$$148 \delta^{yX} (\text{‰}) = \left(\frac{R_{\text{sample}}}{R_{\text{ref.std.}}} - 1 \right) \times 1000 \quad (1)$$

149 where X represents the target isotope; y represents the number of atoms; R_{sample}
150 and R_{standard} represent the ratio of heavy to light isotopes in the samples and the
151 standard references. For isotopic O measurements, we used the Vienna Standard Mean
152 Ocean Water (VSMOW) standard, distributed by the International Atomic Energy
153 Agency (IAEA) in Vienna, Austria, for which uncertainty was no greater than $\pm 0.1\text{‰}$

154 and was only $\pm 2\%$ for δD measurements; C isotope data were reported on the Vienna
155 Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) (‰) scale, with a standard deviation (1σ) of 0.15‰
156 (Zhao et al., 2019).

157 2.3.2 Isotopic mixing model

158 Under one isotope system and three sources, we used the following system for mass
159 balance equations to determine the proportions (f_A , f_B and f_C) of isotopic source
160 signatures (δ_A , δ_B and δ_C), coinciding with the observed signature of the mixture (δ_M):

$$161 \delta_M = f_A \delta_A + f_B \delta_B + f_C \delta_C \dots$$

$$162 1 = f_A + f_B + f_C \dots$$

163 However, under n (A, B, C...) isotope systems and $> n+1$ sources, we were still
164 able to use the requirement for mass balance conservation to determine multiple
165 combinations of source proportions, which is a feasible solution. IsoSource, a
166 multi-source mixing model (freely available at
167 <http://www.epa.gov/wed/pages/models.htm>), was used to calculate the contribution of
168 each water source under consideration to the recorded C pools (Phillips and Gregg,
169 2003; Phillips et al., 2005).

170

171 3. Results

172 3.1 C dynamic change in rainfall

173 As shown in Fig. 2a, C concentrations in rainfall fluctuated, wherein high DTC,
174 DIC and DOC concentrations in rainwater were observed during the dry season (from
175 winter to spring), yielding two peak values during this period that reached 10~30

176 mg/L. Greater than 70% of DTC in rainwater ranged from 2.5 to 9 mg/L, whereas
177 80% of the DIC concentration in rainwater was below 5 mg/L and most of the DOC
178 concentration in rainwater was evenly distributed (from 0.29 to 10 mg/L) (Fig. 2b).
179 From June 2017 to July 2019, the DTC concentration in rainwater was 7.13 ± 5.25
180 mg/L, the DIC concentration in rainwater was 3.04 ± 2.49 mg/L and the DOC
181 concentration in rainwater was 4.09 ± 3.15 mg/L. From June 2017 to July 2019, most
182 rainfall in the study area was concentrated in spring and summer, namely, $442.9 \pm$
183 164.7 mm and 619.5 ± 62.1 mm, respectively (Fig. 2c).

184 3.2 C Spatiotemporal change in runoff

185 As shown in Fig. 3a, In the Jiazhu River, fluctuations in DTC concentrations
186 ranged from 4.9 to 7.1 mg/L from upstream to downstream, whereas the Ganjiang
187 River exhibited irregular fluctuations under seasonal change. Specifically, fluctuations
188 in DTC concentrations in the downstream area of this river (i.e., into Poyang Lake)
189 increased to 7.4 mg/L. For Poyang Lake, fluctuations in DTC concentrations also
190 exhibited regional change, wherein the northern section on the lake (from P9 to P14,
191 i.e., into Yangtze River) only ranged from 1.9 to 4.2 mg/L, which was significantly
192 less than that measured at other sample points. On a spatial scale, DTC concentrations
193 gradually increased from the Jiazhu River (13.7 ± 6.1 mg/L) to Poyang Lake (14.4 ± 5.0
194 mg/L) (Fig. 3a).

195 Seasonal changes in DIC concentrations showed an irregular trend, which
196 differed from changes in DTC concentrations. Moreover, DTC concentrations during
197 the rainy season (from July to September) also yielded high values (Fig. 3b). From the

198 Jiazhu River to Poyang Lake, fluctuations in DTC concentrations mainly ranged from
199 1.3 to 4.7 mg/L, with an average of 2.4 ± 0.8 mg/L. Moreover, DTC concentrations
200 (with an average of 8.7 ± 2.2 mg/L) were higher in the Ganjiang River compared to the
201 Jiazhu River and Poyang Lake, with an average of 7.7 ± 2.6 mg/L and 8.0 ± 2.5 mg/L,
202 respectively.

203 Specifically, fluctuations in DOC concentrations in the Jiazhu River were
204 higher than the Ganjiang River and Poyang Lake, with an average of 4.7 ± 1.1 mg/L
205 (Fig. 3c). Moreover, DOC concentrations exhibited differing spatial distribution
206 characteristics, wherein DOC concentrations in Poyang Lake were far higher than
207 those in either the Jiazhu and Ganjiang rivers, reaching 6.4 ± 3.1 mg/L. The DOC
208 concentration of the Ganjiang River (5.5 ± 3.4 mg/L) was less than that of the Jiazhu
209 River (6.0 ± 4.7 mg/L), particularly from the midstream sampling points of the
210 Ganjiang River (from G3 to G10; only 4.2 to 5.7 mg/L, respectively).

211 3.3 Seasonal changes in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values from rainfall to runoff

212 As shown in Fig. 4a, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in runoff from June 2017 to July 2019
213 showed seasonal differences, and on the whole, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values exhibited significant
214 seasonal fluctuation, reaching $-13.0\pm 5.1\text{‰}$. wherein the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values on May 19 and
215 September 18 were $-8.8\pm 1.0\text{‰}$ and $-11.6\pm 0.9\text{‰}$, respectively; however, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
216 values on January 19 and July 19 were $-13.9\pm 1.4\text{‰}$ and $-15.4\pm 1.7\text{‰}$, respectively.
217 From the Jiazhu River to Poyang Lake, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values exhibited a gradual decreasing
218 trend. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value in the Jiazhu River was $-13.5\pm 3.2\text{‰}$, but the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value in the
219 Ganjiang River was only $-12.2\pm 3.1\text{‰}$. Moreover, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in water flow entering

220 into Poyang Lake reached $-12.6 \pm 3.1\text{‰}$. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in rainfall also exhibited
221 seasonal variation, ranging from -5.1‰ on April 18 to -10‰ on August 18; however,
222 the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in rainfall ranged from -11.8‰ on September 19 to -27.1‰ on March
223 19 (Fig. 4b).

224 4. Discussion

225 4.1 C source analysis on a spatiotemporal scale

226 According to the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values measured from rainfall to runoff, we further
227 analyzed differences in C sources from the Jiazhu River to Poyang Lake using an
228 isotopic mixing model (Fig. 5). Many environmental and internal factors can impact
229 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in watersheds, such as carbonate mineral dissolution, atmospheric
230 precipitation, soil organic matter (SOM) and groundwater inputs (Shin et al., 2011;
231 Hao et al., 2019). In this study, we focused on the four main sources, including
232 silicate rock weathering, carbonate rock weathering, SOM decomposition and
233 atmospheric deposition. This can be explained by the fact that silicate rock and
234 carbonate rock are two main minerals that comprise red soil (Gao et al., 2014).

235 As Fig.5a shown, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ that derived from silicate rock weathering, with an
236 average contribution of 31–32%, is the largest source for DTC in these three
237 cascading watersheds; however, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ that derived from atmospheric deposition as
238 well as from a certain amount of SOM decomposition are the second largest sources
239 of these three cascading watersheds, with an average contribution of 24–29%. The
240 contribution of atmospheric deposition to the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ fraction increased with an increase
241 in watershed size, while the contribution of SOM decomposition decreased. The

242 contribution of carbonate rock weathering to the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ fraction exhibited the largest
243 fluctuation from summer to autumn (Fig. 5b). This is because the percentage of
244 subsurface runoff will supplement and subsequently increase carbonate reactions to
245 occur in streamflow in autumn when streamflow typically decreases (Yan et al., 2014;
246 Zhao et al., 2010). Therefore, pre-event (old) water in matrix pores comes into play,
247 which is more enriched in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ due to the longer time required for calcium carbonate
248 (CaCO_3) dissolution.

249 In addition, from winter to spring, atmospheric deposition is the main source of
250 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, contributing 33–35%; however, during the rainy season, rock weathering and
251 SOM decomposition are the main $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ sources under heightened rainfall conditions
252 (Fig. 5b). The isotopic results from this study correspond well with recent research on
253 controlling mechanisms associated with SOM decomposition, wherein environmental
254 changes and landscape disturbances have resulted in the export of aged, aliphatic,
255 protein-like and microbial dissolved organic matter (DOM) content (Wilson and
256 Xenopoulos, 2008; Wagner et al., 2015; Creed et al., 2018). As report by Wang et al
257 (2014), the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ -DIC C values in the sediment in Poyang Lake area were $-22.48 \pm$
258 4.10‰ , being close to the average SOM value with 24‰ in China, so in present study,
259 the lake sediment and SOM under different watershed size derived from the same
260 source.

261 The interactions between land use change at different scale and runoff have
262 always been studied nearly a century. In this study, the runoff is also main driving
263 factor for C and its isotopic transformation in cascading multiscale watershed. We

264 also get a general conclusion from this research that at small size of watershed like
265 Jiazhuhe River and Ganjiang watershed, human activities, such as deforestation,
266 harvesting, urbanization and land cover change, would increase annual mean runoff
267 but afforestation decrease streamflow in the opposite way, with [Zhang et al \(2015\)](#),
268 [Carvalho-Santos et al \(2016\)](#) and [Buendia et al \(2016\)](#). However, at large scale like
269 whole the Poyang Lake, the hydrological regime and precipitation would be more
270 sensitive factors on runoff ([Zhang et al., 2017](#)), but the increase of the vegetation
271 impact on C by runoff at both large and small scale of watershed. Therefore, we think
272 as change of watershed size, land use and related vegetation pattern play a
273 predominant role in regulating the isotopic C compositions in runoff in watersheds
274 within areas ranging from 100 km² to 10000 km².

275 **4.2 Hydrological processes associated with C transport**

276 In this study, we compared the Global Meteoric Water Line (GMWL) and the
277 Local Meteoric Water Line (LMWL) for the entire Poyang Lake watershed (i.e., all
278 three cascading watersheds) based on measured D and O isotopes in precipitation
279 from June 2017 to July 2019 using the least squares method. The GMWL ($\delta D =$
280 $8\delta^{18}O+10$) was taken from [Hao et al. \(2018\)](#), which is the black line shown in [Fig. 6a](#).
281 The intercept of the correlation line can reflect the unbalanced status of evaporation in
282 water vapor formation ([Hao et al., 2018](#)). The slope and the interception of the
283 LMWL were close to the GMWL, which confirmed the same humid and moist origin
284 ([Fig. 6a](#)).

285 In comparison to the LMWL, the lower slope and the intercept of the Local

286 Runoff Water Line (LRWL) implied the absorption of evaporated water, which can be
287 explained by that found in the low latitude area; thus, the watershed undergoes higher
288 and more intensive evaporation due to the overall high temperature and the strong
289 solar radiation. The LRWL slopes of the Jiazhu River, the Ganjiang River and Poyang
290 Lake watersheds were similar, suggesting that the relative air humidity was the same
291 for all three watersheds, but the interception for Poyang Lake was different from the
292 other two. This is because the Jiazhu River and the Ganjiang River watersheds are
293 representative of an unbalanced status in water vapor evaporation formation, while the
294 Poyang Lake is representative of a relatively balanced status under increased water
295 area and runoff input sources. Moreover, this also reflects the differences in
296 precipitation sources for the LRWL between the rivers and the lake.

297 The range of slopes was extensive in stream water isotopic composition for all
298 three watersheds, which was determined using the composition of event and pre-event
299 water samples and their respective proportions (Tetzlaff et al., 2011; Klaus and
300 McDonnell, 2013). As watershed size changes, the isotopic composition of small
301 scale watersheds will be more easily influenced by complex runoff processes, such as
302 translatory flow, piston-like flow, preferential flow and subsurface storage (Sun et al.,
303 2019); whereas in large watersheds, like Poyang Lake, anthropogenic activities, such
304 as aquaculture, fishing, algaculture and land reclamation, will dominate the isotopic
305 composition.

306 **4.3 Coupled C–H₂O watershed processes**

307 The varying isotopic composition of the watersheds could be attributable to the

308 diversity in the extent of assimilation of event water isotopes and/or the delivery of
309 stored water isotopes in different runoff pathways for the different sized watersheds
310 (Sun et al., 2019). Moreover, rainfall events can activate and connect hydraulically
311 disconnected preferential pathways (Spence et al., 2010; Sayama et al., 2011). In this
312 study, C transport under different land-use types and associated land-use patterns was
313 partly driven by rainfall events across multiple scales. As shown in Fig.7a, the
314 correlation coefficient between DTC in runoff and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value in rainfall, ranging
315 from 18% to 28%, was approaching that of the atmospheric deposition contribution
316 for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in the watersheds, ranging from 26% to 28% as shown in Fig. 6a. In addition,
317 the correlation coefficient increased with increasing watershed size. These results also
318 indicated that rainfall had an obvious influence on the DTC transport source via
319 runoff generation according to proportional values measured in event and pre-event
320 water. The correlation between DIC changes in the watersheds and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value in
321 rainfall was unbalanced, and watershed size effects were not observed (Fig.7b). This
322 can be explained by the fact that DIC changes are dominated by silicate rock and
323 carbonate rock weathering, making precipitation an important driving factor.

324 There was a significant correlation between changes in DOC in runoff with an
325 increase in watershed size ($R^2=0.48$) to changes in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in rainfall (Fig.7c). This is
326 because the rainfall event water fraction could potentially increase during SOM
327 decomposition that would in turn drive DOC transport via rainfall. In addition, an
328 increase in anthropogenic activities with an increase in watershed size will alter
329 aboveground and belowground DOC pathways (Oshun et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2018).

330 Moreover, the DOC characteristics mobilized in large watersheds are also higher than
331 DOC exported from small watersheds, indicating potential vulnerability in microbial
332 degradation (Drake et al., 2019). The chemodiversity of DOC, defined as the presence
333 and proportion of C, O and hydrogen (H), is an important indicator of both DOC
334 sources and DOC quality (Wagner et al., 2015). Our research has shown that
335 anthropogenic activities impact DOC export in these watersheds by inducing a greater
336 relative abundance in isotopic O and H composition (D'Andrilli et al., 2015; Riedel et
337 al., 2016).

338 The lower correlation found between $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ compared to that of DOC and
339 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is assumed to be attributable to rock weathering being the main source of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in
340 runoff, while rainfall is assumed to enhance the proportion of event and pre-event
341 water (Fig. 7d). In addition, the correlation between $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ was shown to
342 decrease with an increase in watershed size, which could be partly explained by the
343 fact that more complex land-use types and anthropogenic activities cause variation in
344 the proportion of event and pre-event water in runoff and isotopic composition.

345 **4.4 Isotopic C characteristics in C runoff export**

346 Further analysis of the correlation between C and its associated isotopes only
347 showed an approaching correlation coefficient between different forms of C and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
348 in runoff with an R^2 range of 0.15~0.18 (Fig. 8). This is because the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in
349 runoff were mostly higher than the average photosynthetic pathway value of C3 plants,
350 ranging from -21‰ to -35‰, and approaching that of C4 plants, ranging from -10‰
351 to -14‰ (Rouw et al., 2015). These results also implied that stable water cycles and

352 isotopic flow mainly impact differential characteristics of C export via the watershed
353 size effect. It has been suggested that the lower contribution of vegetation to $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in
354 runoff and ^{13}C tends to concentrate in root systems followed by twigs and leaves, but
355 lighter ^{12}C isotopes are released from plants through transpiration (Hao et al., 2019).
356 Future research should therefore focus more on hydrological or hydrochemical C
357 processes at multiple scales as well as associated water sources, pathways and
358 residence times and the impact of land-use types and patterns and anthropogenic
359 activities on isotopic C cycle processes.

360 As shown in Fig.9, the surface water with the pH values ranged from 6.0 to 8.2.
361 The pH for the Jiazhu River and the Ganjiang River were slightly higher than that of
362 Poyang Lake. In general, the correlations between dissolved carbon and pH, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and
363 pH in surface water were low, and the correlation coefficients decreased with
364 increasing watershed size (Fig. 9), which could be partly explained by the fact that
365 more complex land-use types and anthropogenic activities diluted the effect of pH on
366 dissolved carbon. In addition, we observed a significant negative correlation between
367 DOC and pH value in the runoff of the Jiazhu river ($R^2=0.36$, $P<0.05$), but no such
368 trend in the larger watersheds, which might be related to the input of hydrophilic acid
369 organic matter in the farmland of the Jiazhu River Basin.

370 5. Conclusions

371 This study set out to confirm whether the watershed size effect has an influence on
372 C and differential C isotopic characteristics via runoff. Results showed that the
373 contribution of atmospheric deposition to the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ fraction increased with an increase

374 in watershed size, while the contribution of SOM decomposition decreased. As the
375 size of the watershed increases, land-use patterns and related vegetation pattern under
376 anthropogenic activities play a predominant role in regulating the isotopic C
377 compositions in runoff in watersheds . The correlation coefficient between C transport
378 via runoff and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ value in rainfall increased with increasing watershed size,
379 particularly for DOC, which was significantly correlated. Owing to the fact that
380 watershed ecosystems will be the main field of C cycling research in future studies,
381 more focus must be paid to effects associated with land-use patterns and
382 anthropogenic activities on C flow and isotopic composition regulation at multiple
383 watershed scales.

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388

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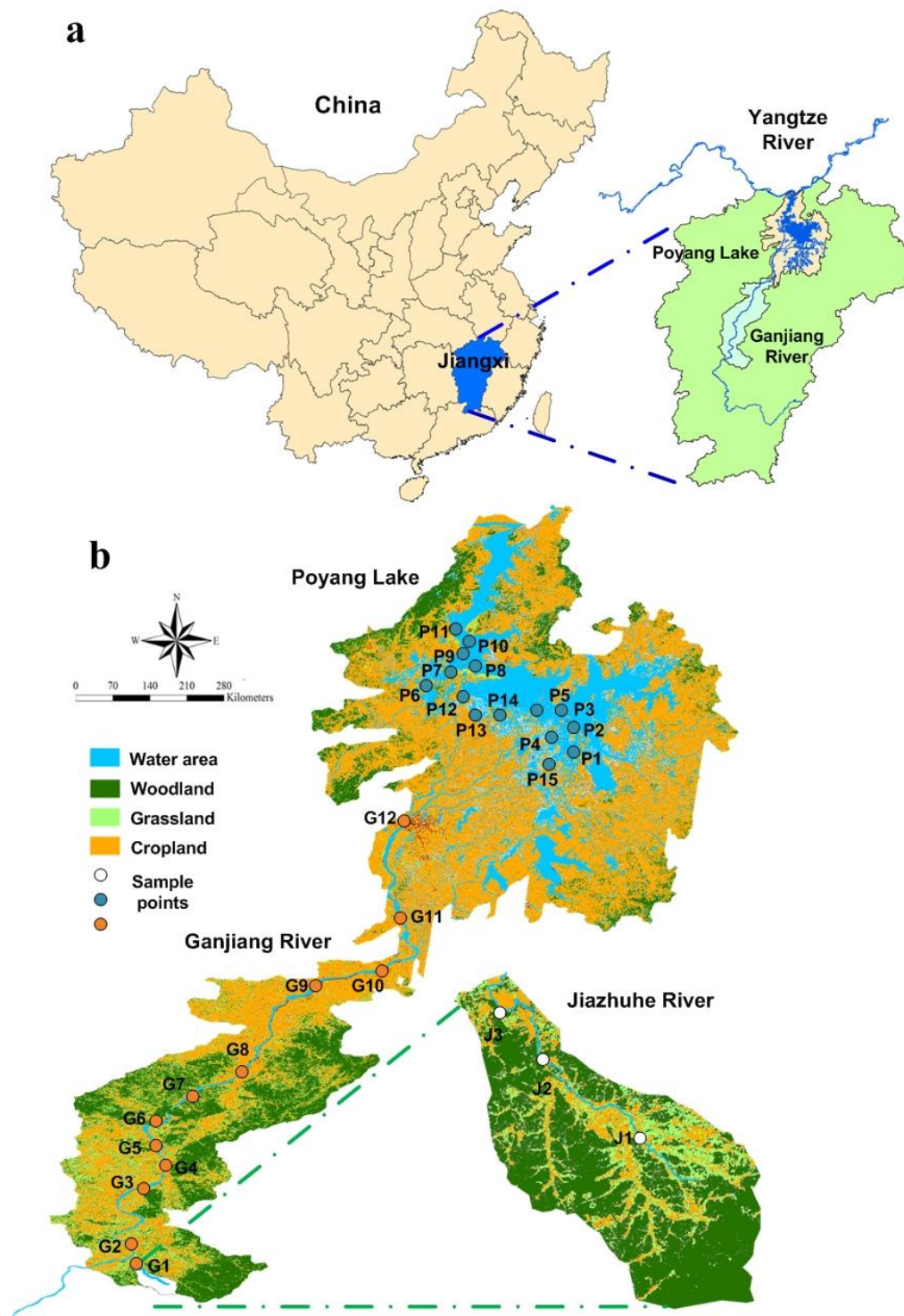
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Fig. 1 Location of the Poyang Lake and the Ganjiang River watersheds (a) and

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sample points and their land-use patterns (b).

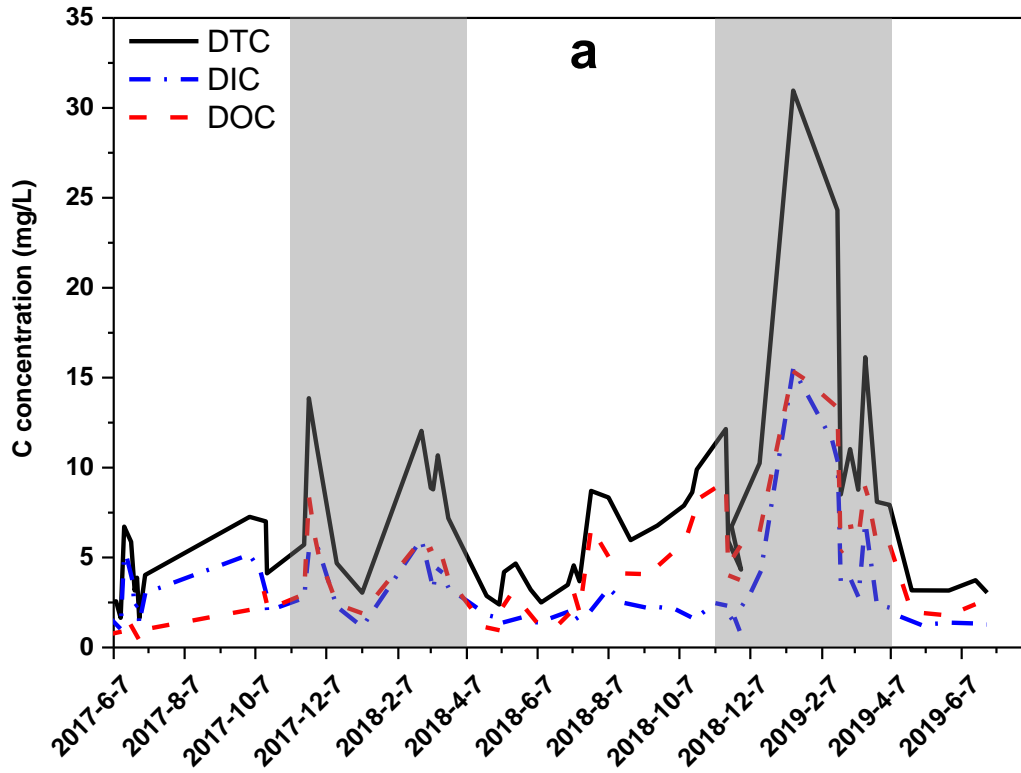
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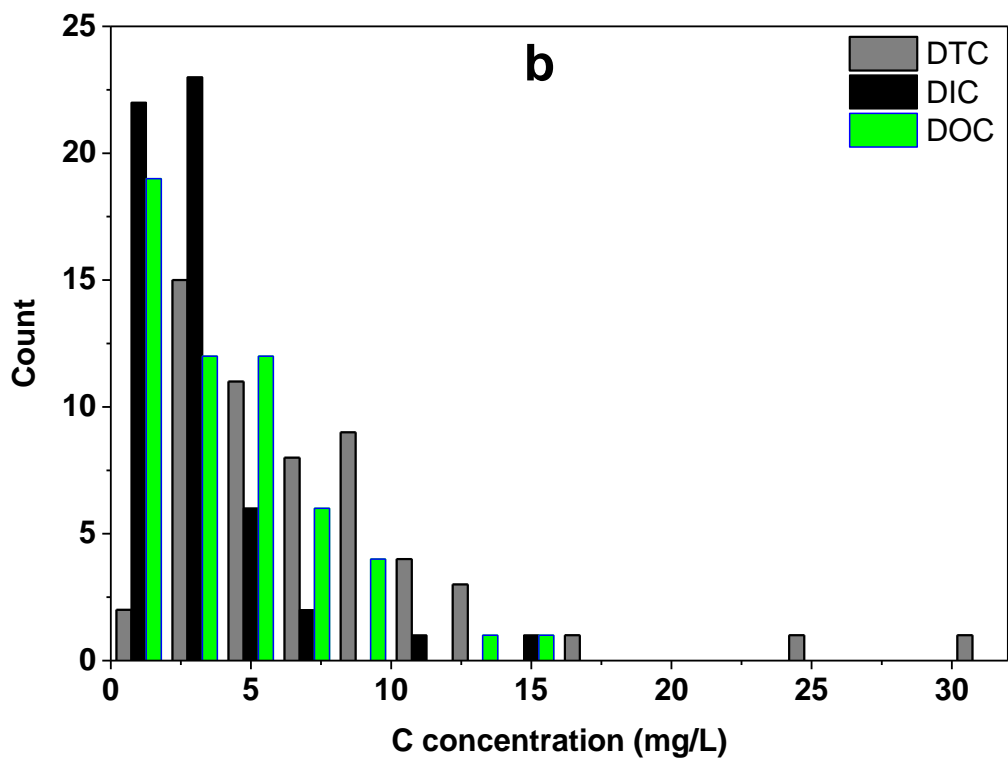
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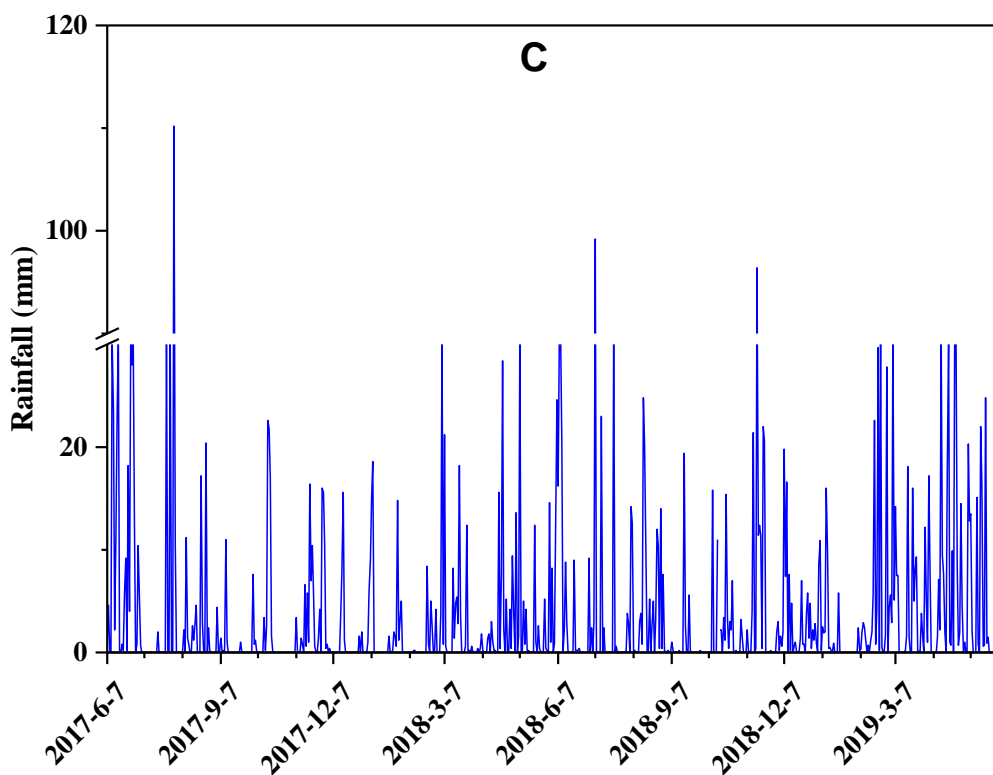


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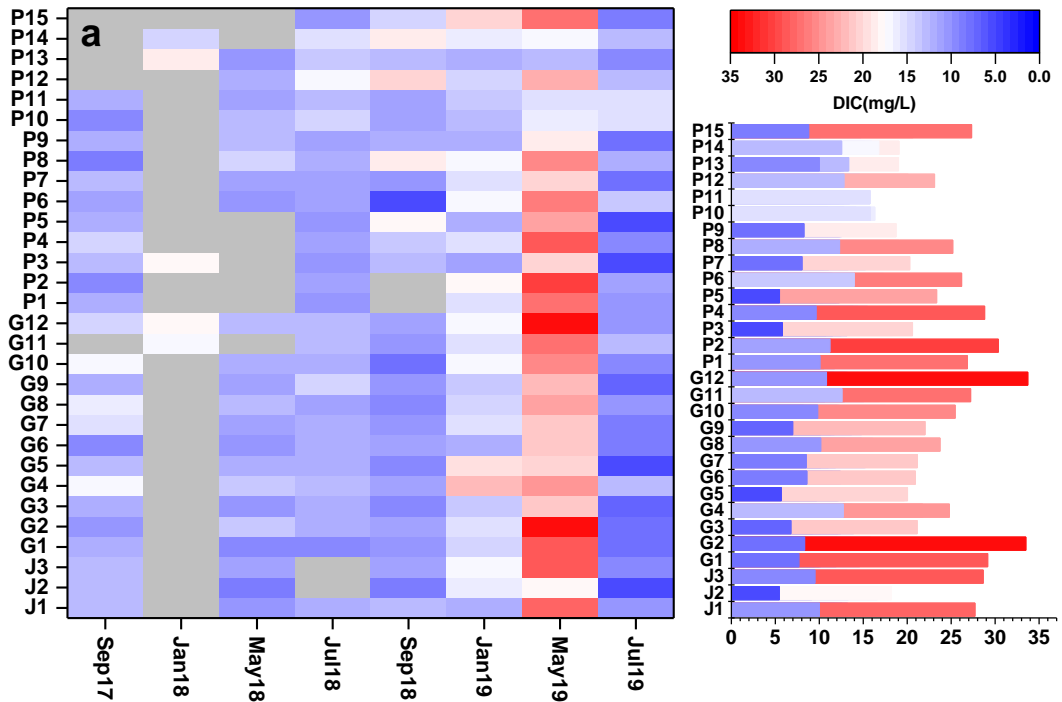
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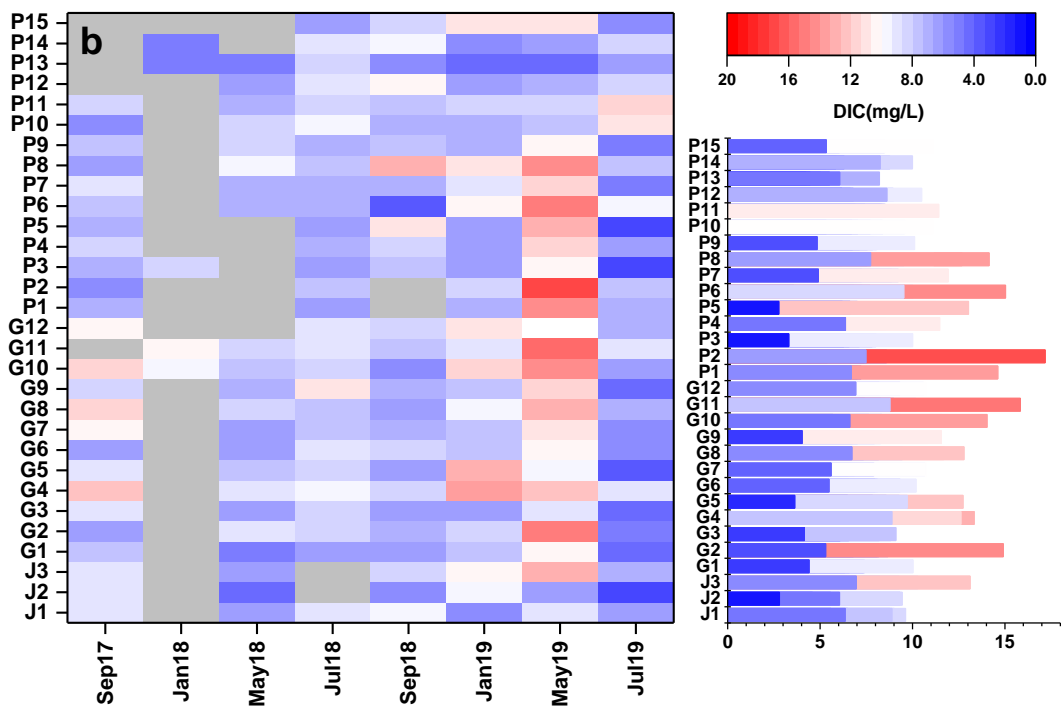
Fig. 2 Changes in carbon concentrations in rainfall (a), and statistics on

582 changes in C concentrations in rainfall (b) and rainfall fluctuation throughout
583 2017~2019.

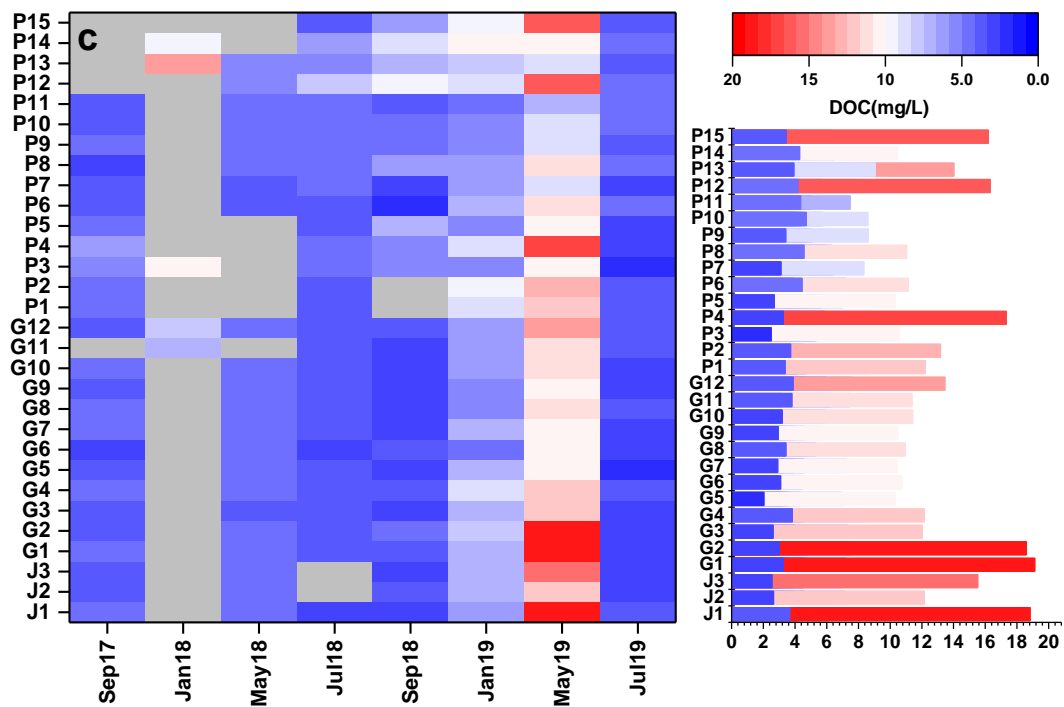
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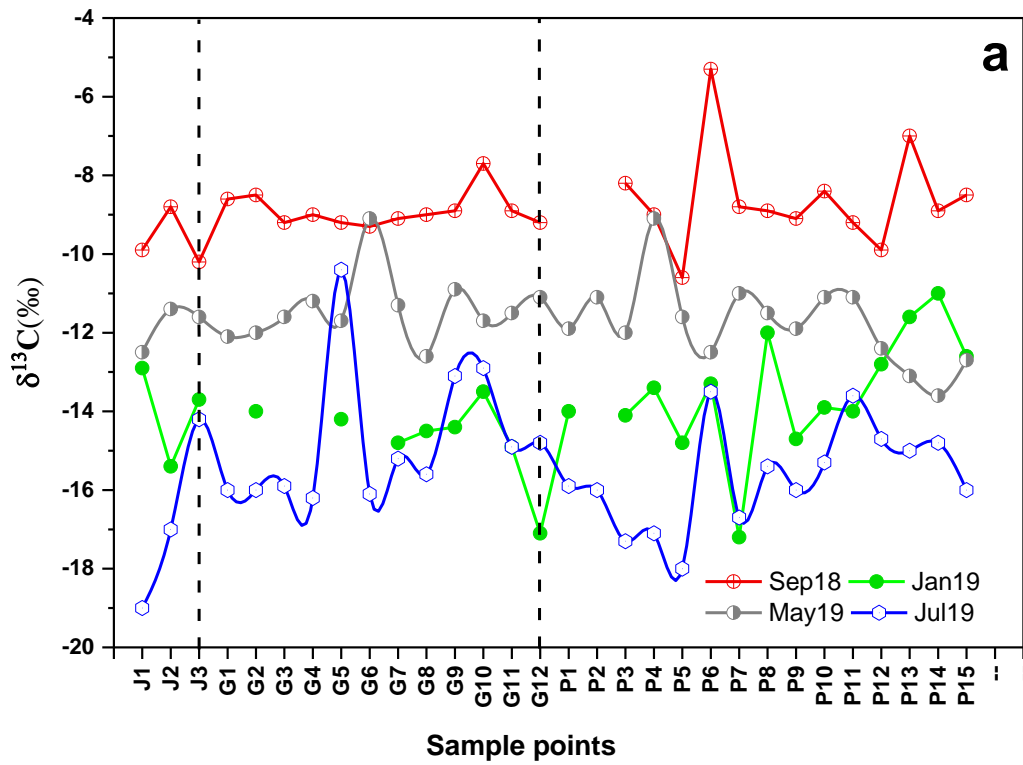


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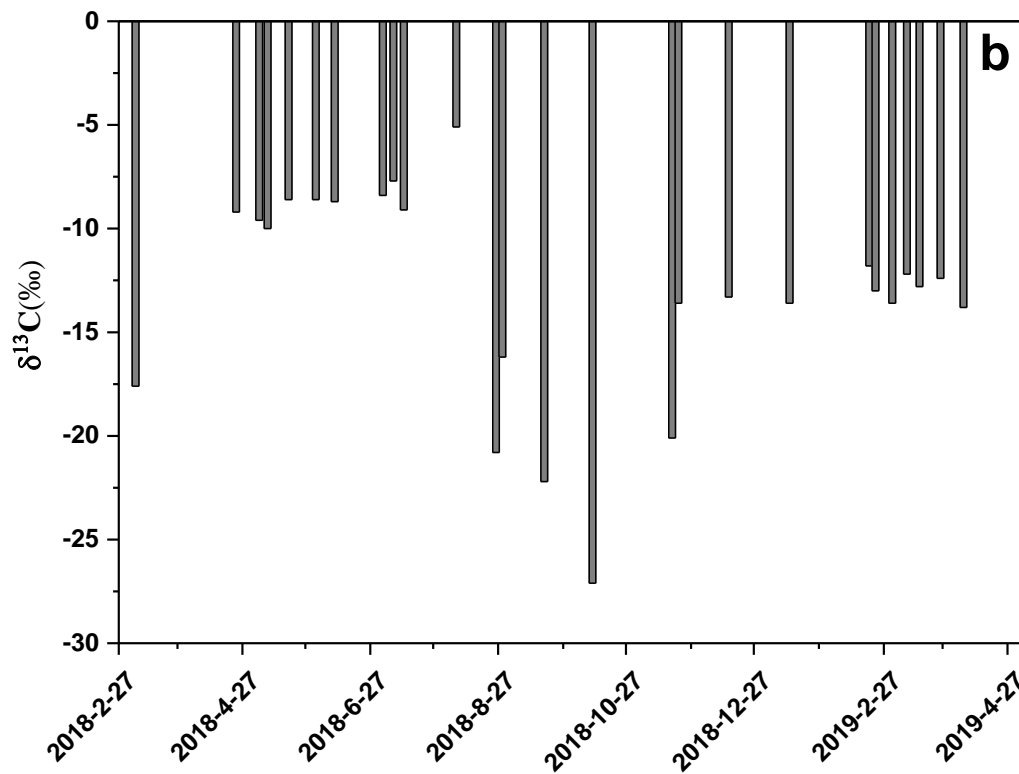
588 **Fig. 3 Dynamic spatiotemporal changes of different carbon forms from the**
 589 **Jiazhu River to Poyang Lake between 2017 and 2019 wherein gray squares**
 590 **represent default values.**

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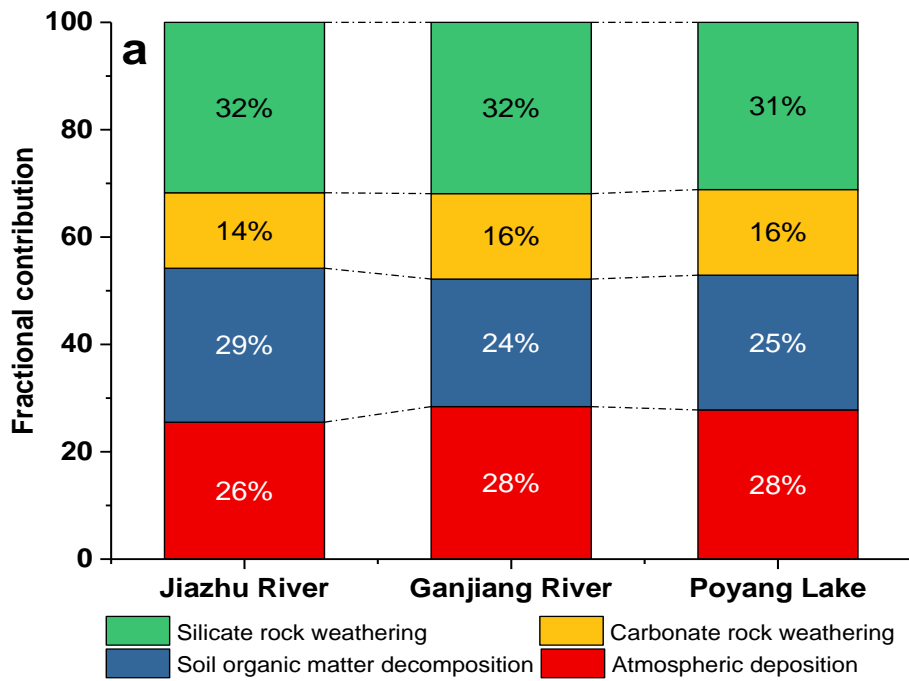


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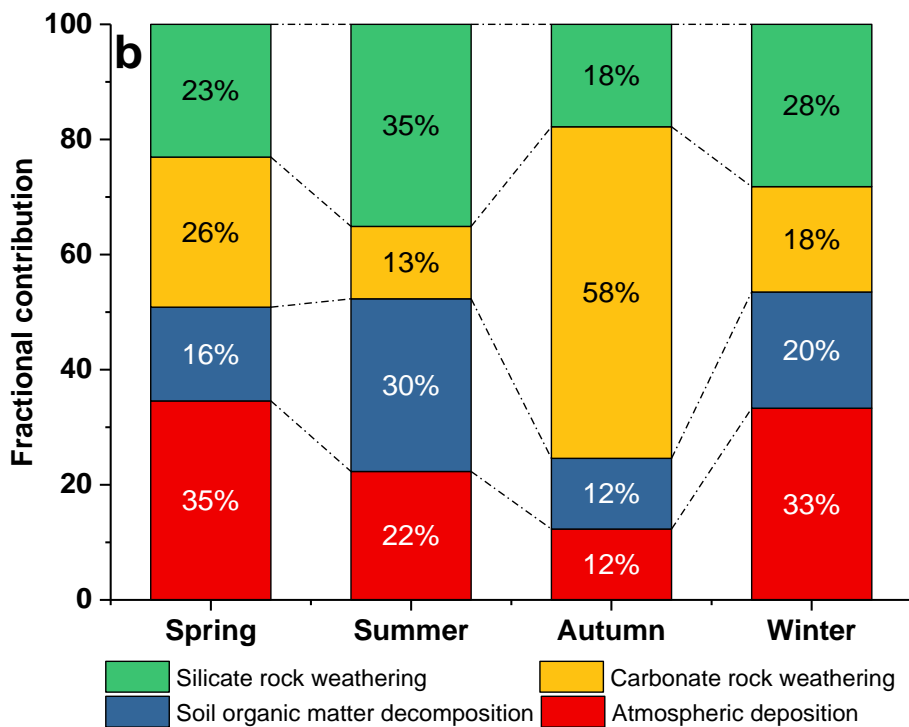


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595 **Fig. 4 Seasonal changes in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values from the Jiazhu River to Poyang**596 **Lake (a) and in rainfall throughout 2018~2019.**

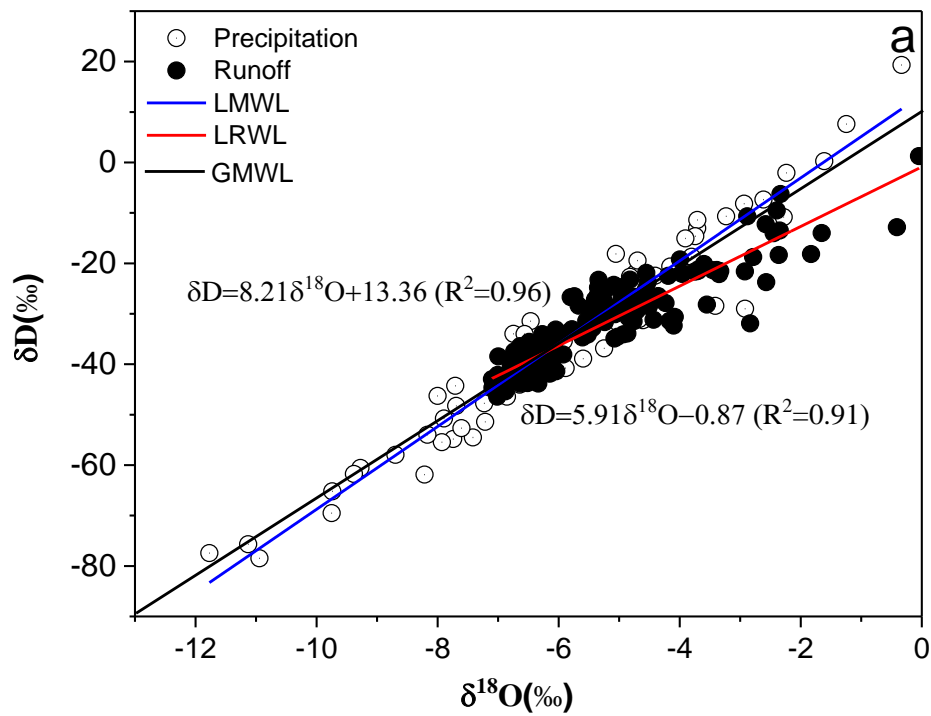


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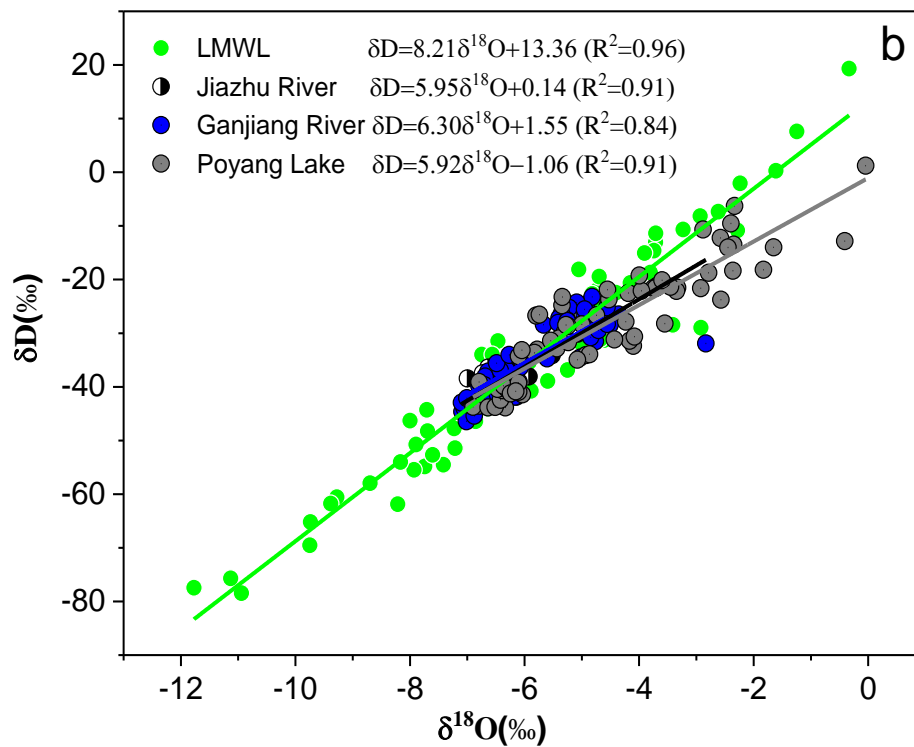


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599 **Fig. 5 Carbon source analysis during the rainy and dry seasons for the three**
600 **different cascading watersheds (a) and a seasonal comparison of carbon source**
601 **contributions throughout the entire Poyang Lake watershed (i.e., all three**
602 **cascading watersheds).**



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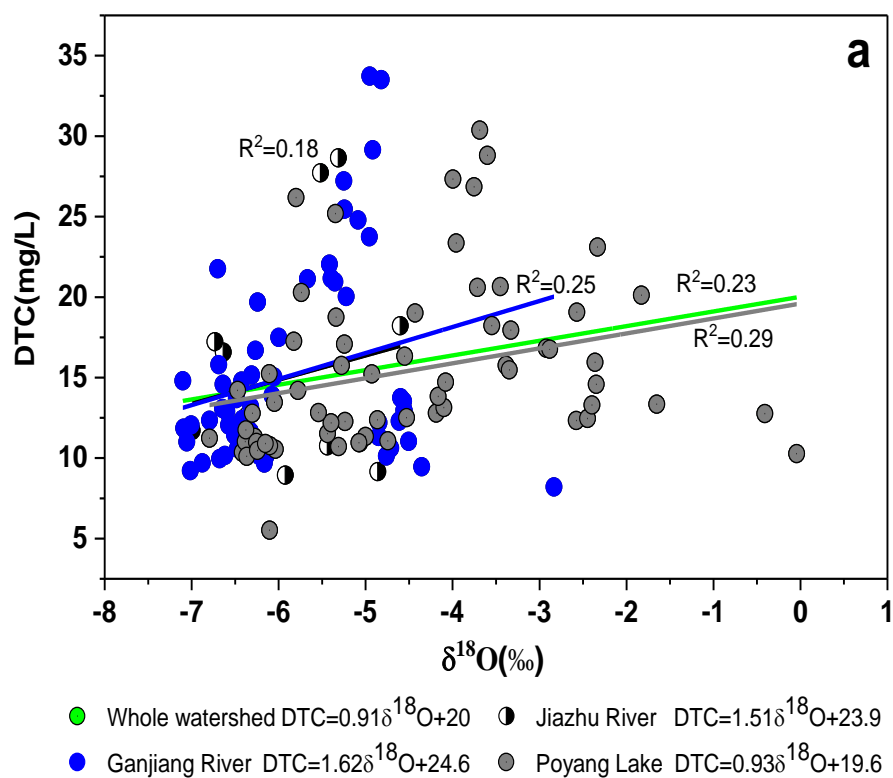
Fig. 6 The Global Meteoric Water Line (GMWL), the Local Meteoric

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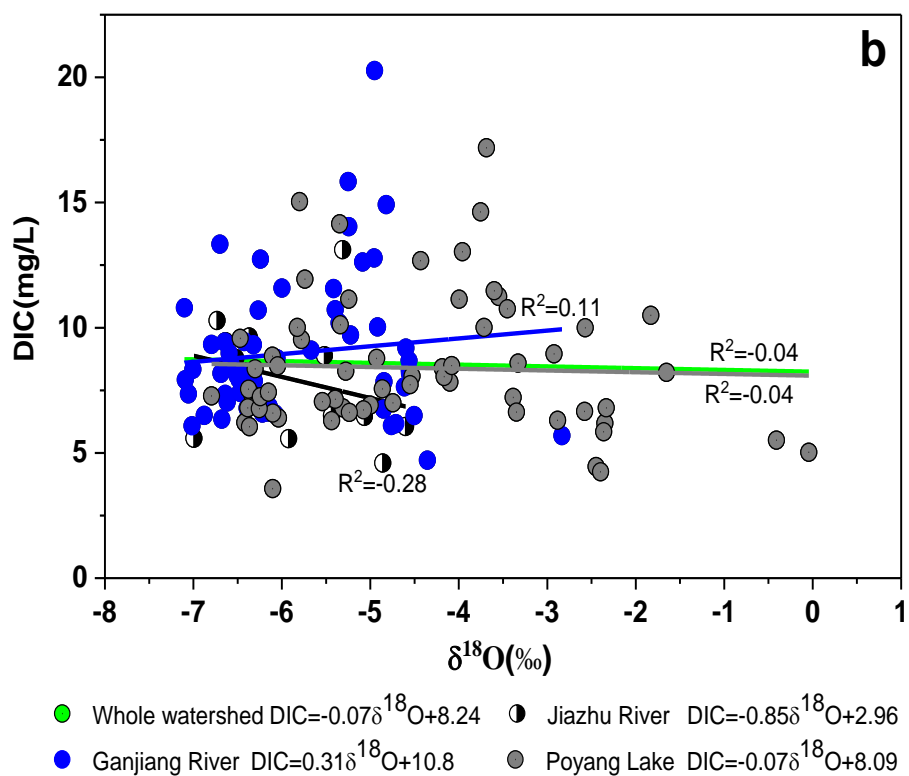
Water Line (LMWL) and the Local Runoff Water Line (LRWL) (a) and the

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LRWL for the three different watershed sizes (b).



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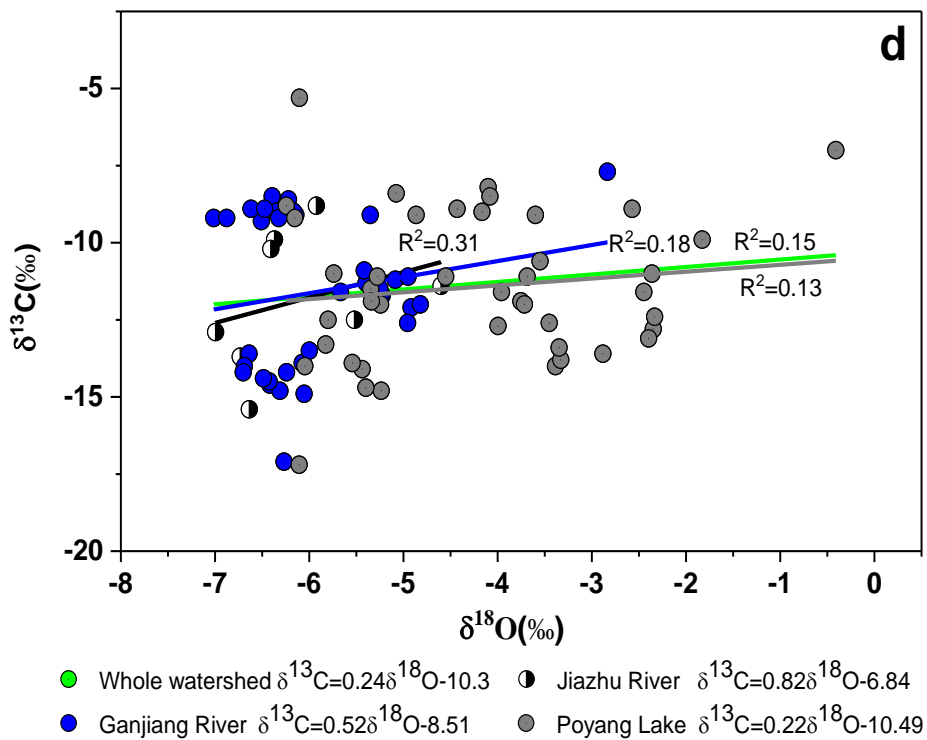
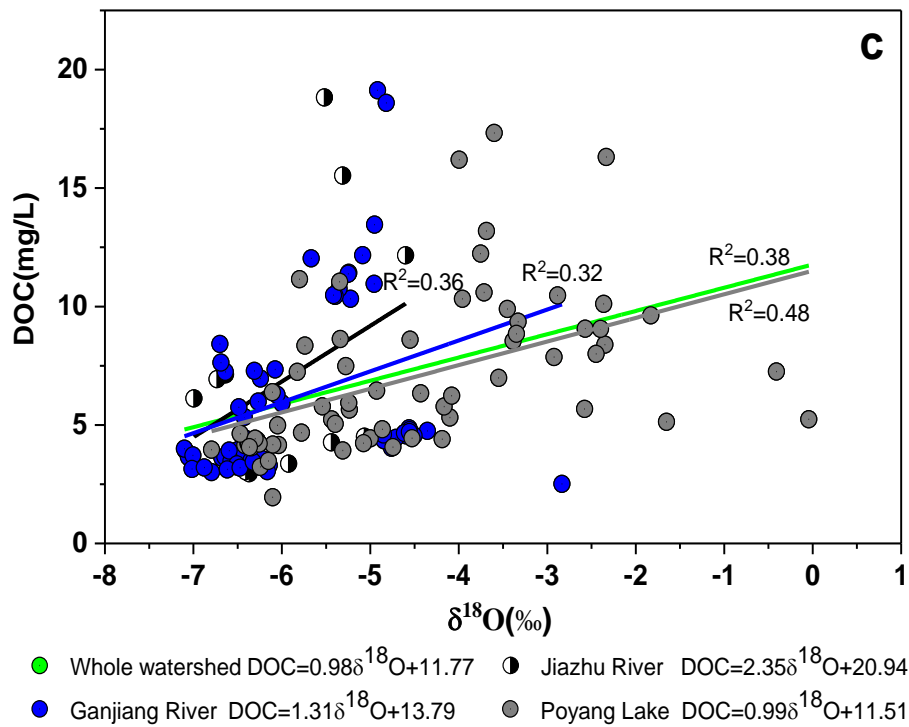
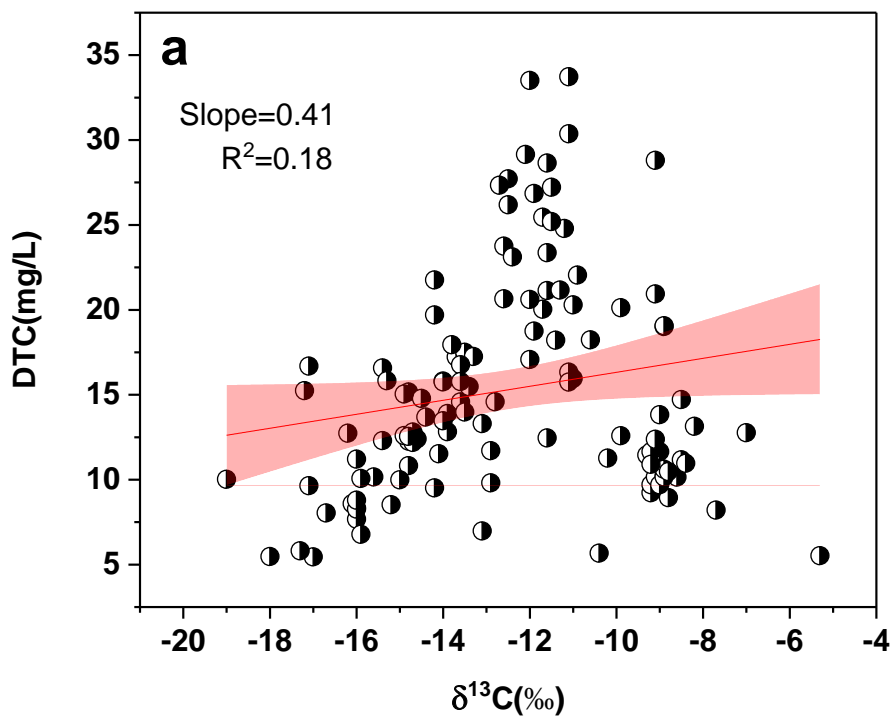
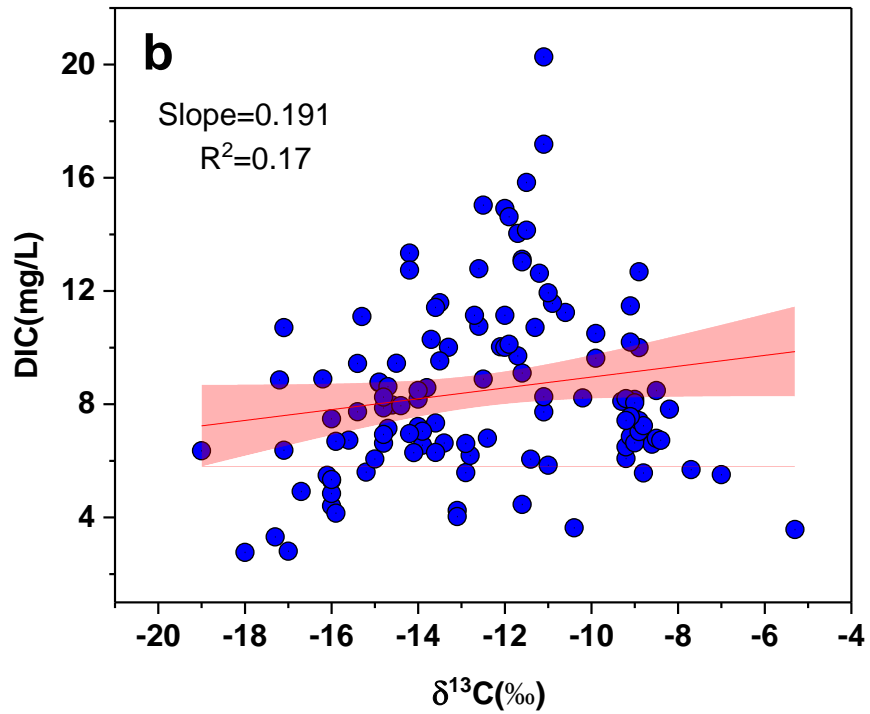


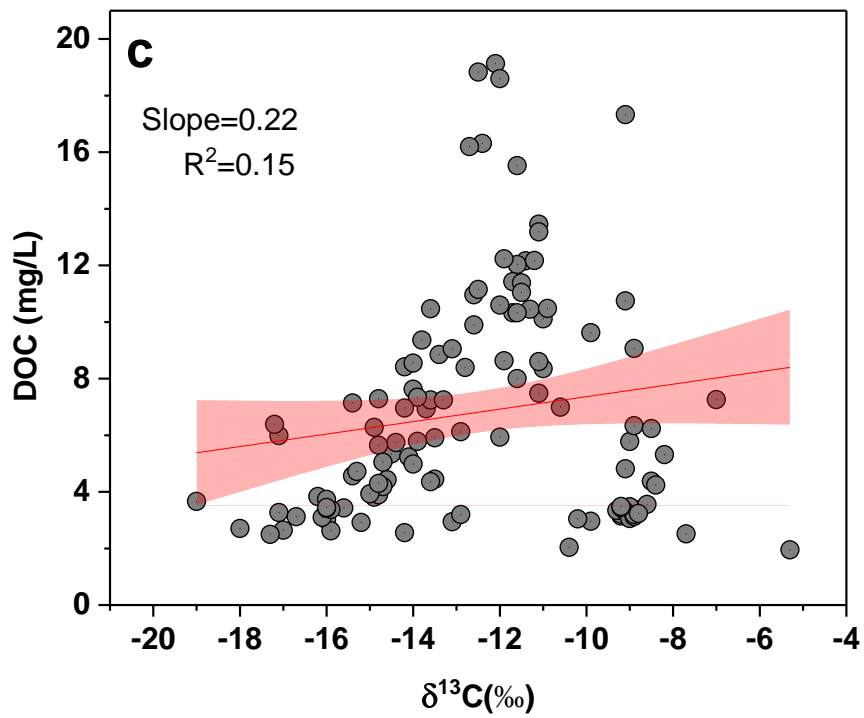
Fig. 7 Correlation analysis values between different carbon sources via runoff at multiple scales and rainfall events: DTC and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (a), DIC and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (b), DOC and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (c) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (d).



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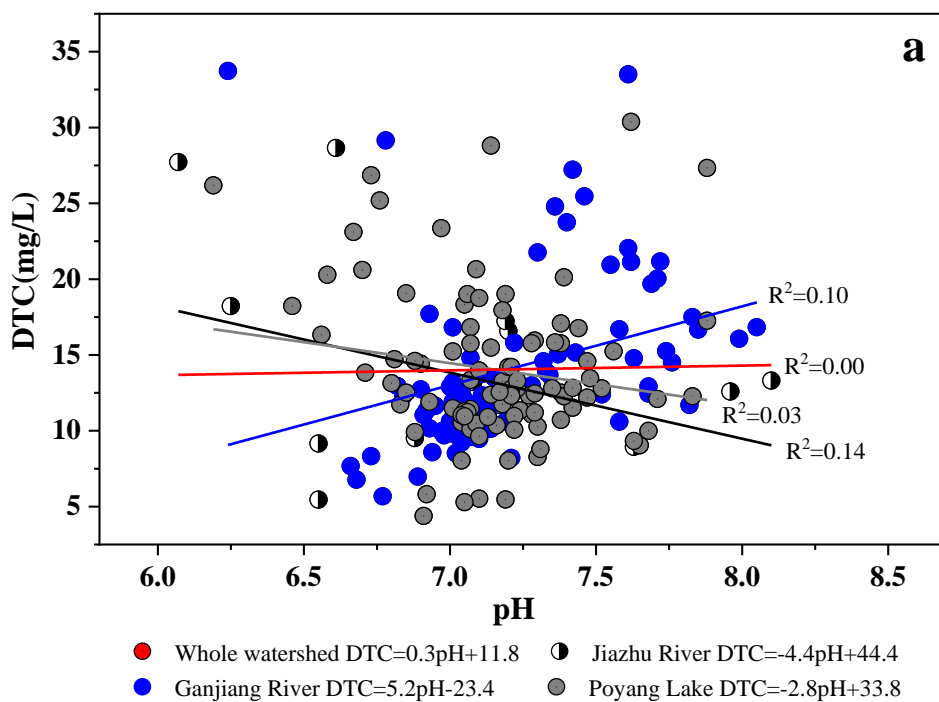
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618 **Fig. 8 Correlation analysis values between different carbon forms (DTC (a),**619 **DIC (b) and DOC (c)) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in runoff.**

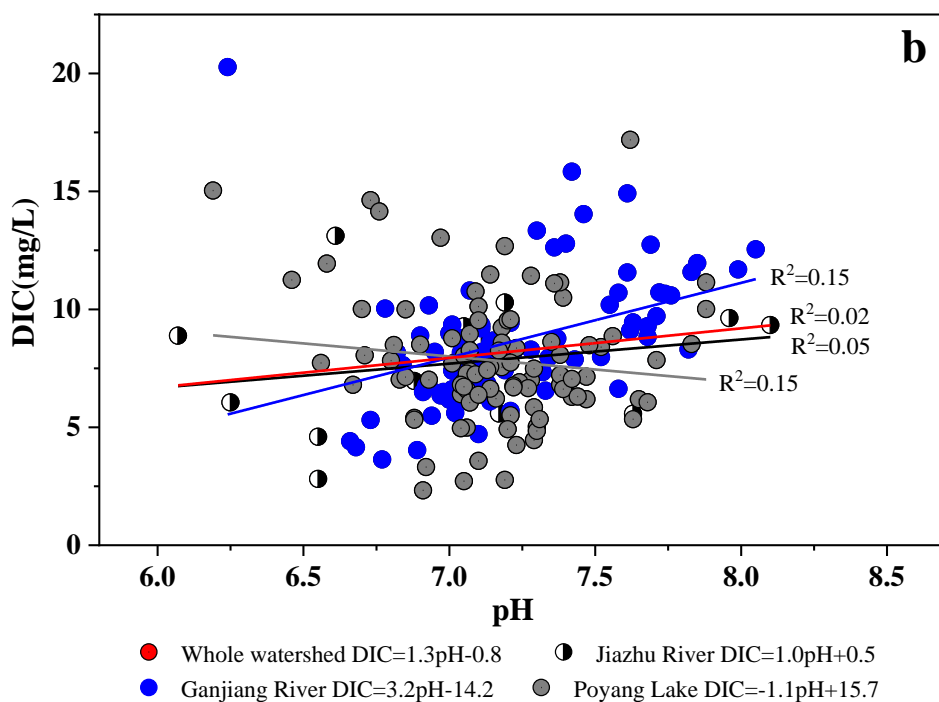
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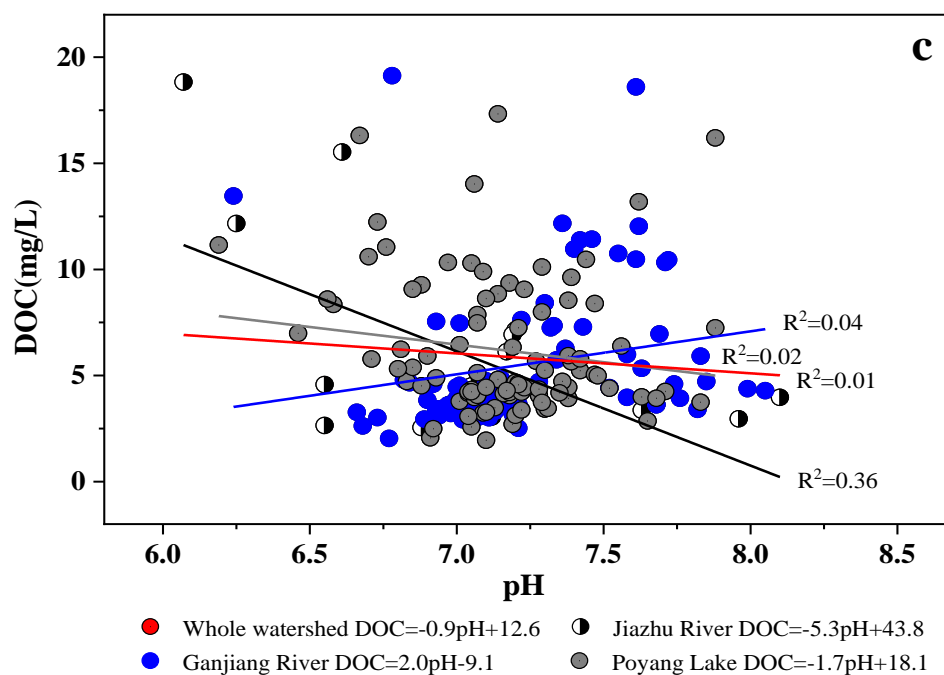
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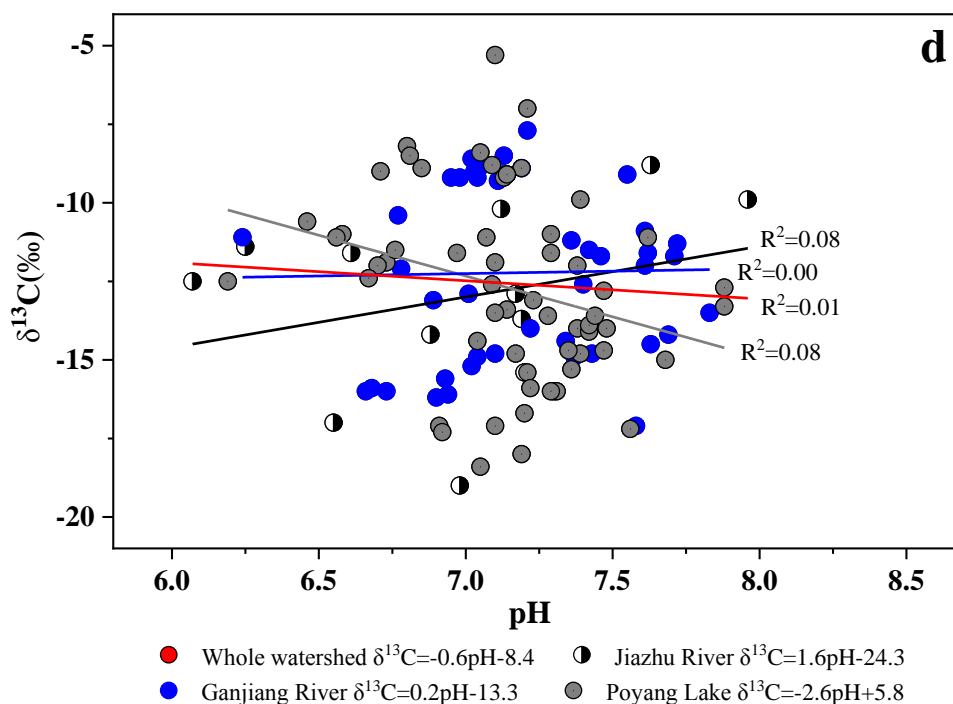
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627 **Fig. 9 Correlation analysis of pH and dissolved carbon in rainfall and runoff at**628 **multiple scales: DTC and pH (a), DIC and pH (b), DOC and pH (c) and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and**629 **pH (d).**