

1 Title: Using stable isotopes to estimate young water fractions in a heavily-  
2 regulated, tropical lowland river basin

3 Short Title: Young water fraction in tropical lowland basin

---

4 **Keywords:**

5 Day River, Vietnam, discharge sensitivity, water isotopes, sine wave fitting

6 **Authors:**

7 Trinh Anh Duc<sup>1\*</sup>, Do Thu Nga<sup>1,2</sup>, Virginia N Panizzo<sup>3</sup>, Suzanne McGowan<sup>3</sup>, Melanie J Leng<sup>4</sup>

8 <sup>1</sup>Nuclear Training Center, Vietnam Atomic Energy Institute, 140 Nguyen Tuan, Thanh Xuan,

9 Hanoi, Vietnam

10 <sup>2</sup>Graduate University of Science and Technology, Vietnam Academy of Science and Technology

11 <sup>3</sup>Centre for Environmental Geochemistry, School of Geography, University of Nottingham,

12 University Park, Nottingham, NG7 2RD, UK.

13 <sup>4</sup>Centre for Environmental Geochemistry, British Geological Survey, Nicker Hill, Keyworth,

14 Nottingham, NG12 5GG, UK and School of Biosciences, University of Nottingham,

15 Loughborough, UK

16 **Acknowledgement:**

17 This work was supported by the RCUK-NAFOSTED [grant numbers NE/P014577/1]. Stable

18 isotope analysis was performed as part of the IAEA-CRP program 'Isotopes to Study Nitrogen

19 Pollution and Eutrophication of Rivers and Lakes – F32007'. This paper is written within a

20 research framework between Ministry of Science and Technology of Vietnam (MOST) and  
21 Austrian agency for international mobility and cooperation in education, science and research  
22 (OeAD) – “Ứng dụng kỹ thuật đồng vị trong nghiên cứu quá trình thủy văn trong sông Hồng và  
23 các chi lưu”. Special thanks are sent to Dr. Leonard I Wassenaar, IAEA, for his precious  
24 assistance in water stable isotope analysis.

25 **Key findings:**

26 +  $F_{yw}$  is on average more than 0.5, implying more than a half of rainwater reaches the river  
27 mainstream within the first 3 months, faster than global average.

28 + Unweighted and flow-weighted  $F_{yw}$  are indifferent.

29 +  $F_{yw}$  is insensitive to river discharge and rainfall, resulting from severely anthropogenic  
30 activities.

31 + Urbanization appears to reduce  $F_{yw}$ .

32 **Data Availability Statement:**

33 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author  
34 upon reasonable request

35

36 **Abstract**

37 The young water fraction of streamflow ( $F_{yw}$ ), an important hydrological variable, has been  
38 calculated for the first time, for a monsoon-fed coastal catchment in northern Vietnam. Oxygen  
39 stable isotopes ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) from 6 river sites in the Day River Basin (DRB) were analysed monthly,  
40 between January 2015 and December 2018. River  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signatures showed sine wave variability,  
41 reflecting the amount effect and tropical (dry-rainy) seasonality of the region. The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
42 composition of precipitation ranged from -12.67 to +1.68‰, with a mean value of -5.14‰, and  
43 in-streamflow signatures ranged from -11.63 to -1.37‰ with a mean of -5.02‰. Fractions of  
44 young water ( $F_{yw}$ ) were calculated from the unweighted and flow-weighted  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition  
45 of samples. Unweighted  $F_{yw}$  ranged between 29±8% and 82±21% with a mean value of  
46 51±19%, and was not significantly different from flow-weighted  $F_{yw}$  (range between 33±25%  
47 and 92±73%, mean 52±36%). Both unweighted and flow-weighted  $F_{yw}$  were highest in the  
48 middle of stream and lowest in downstream sites, capturing the impacts of landuse changes,  
49 hydrology, and human activities in the catchment. Our calculations imply that more than a half  
50 of rainwater reaches the DRB river mainstream within the first 3 months. The  $F_{yw}$  is much  
51 higher than the global average (of one third) and insensitive to discharge due to the  
52 combination of a humid catchment with high rainfall, low storage capacity, flat landscape and  
53 an intensive drainage system in the DRB. Also the low discharge sensitivity of  $F_{yw}$  in the DRB  
54 implies that the regional hydrology is severely altered by humans.

## 55        **1. Introduction**

56        Lowland catchments in the tropics such as the Day River Basin (DRB) in Vietnam are populous  
57        and concentrated with human activities such as agriculture, aquaculture, urbanization and  
58        industrialization. Water resources are extensively used for an array of purposes and therefore  
59        are heavily modified compared with their once pristine state. Simultaneously, climate change  
60        has profoundly altered the hydrological regimes in these areas (Smajgl et al., 2015; Dang et al.,  
61        2016). According to Chadwick et al. (2016), precipitation over tropical land areas (30°S to 30°N)  
62        has increased over the last decade reversing the drying trend that occurred from the mid-1970s  
63        to mid-1990s. Safeguarding the livelihoods of communities living in lowland river catchments  
64        requires effective characterization of catchment/basin hydrologies, including knowledge of  
65        water transit time and flow paths. The time taken for water to travel from precipitation,  
66        through a catchment and to its outlet, is an important descriptor of the catchment's  
67        susceptibility to pollutant contamination and hydrological functioning. Such measurements are  
68        challenging in heavily modified basins with complex hydrology.

69        Within a catchment, water derived from precipitation will take both slow and fast flow paths  
70        towards the outlet, where it becomes defined as streamwater (Tsuboyama et al., 1994). Slow  
71        flow paths include saturated and unsaturated flow through the soil matrix (Gannon et al.,  
72        2017), while fast flow paths include preferential flow (Wiekenkamp et al., 2016) and overland  
73        flow (Miyata et al., 2009). However, in a flat plain where irrigation-drainage networks (e.g.  
74        dykes, weirs, and pumps) are dense, the natural hydrological characteristics (flow rate, flow  
75        paths, transit/retention time) have been anthropogenically altered. As such, both the fast and  
76        slow flows cannot be easily estimated with the use of conventional hydrological approaches. To

77 overcome this, there should be a reliable and simple alternative approach to characterize the  
78 essence of catchment hydrology.

79 The stable isotopes of water ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$ ) are widely applied in the study of catchment flow  
80 paths and transit times of precipitation through a catchment (McGuire & McDonnell, 2006).

81 Recently, one method that utilizes the stable isotopes of water for investigating fast flow paths  
82 - the fraction of young water ( $F_{yw}$ ) - was developed and evaluated (Kirchner 2016a; 2016b).

83 This method estimates  $F_{yw}$ , as the streamflow fraction that is roughly younger than three  
84 months after entering the catchment as meteoric water (e.g. precipitation). This is done by  
85 comparing the amplitudes of sine waves, fitted to the seasonally-varying isotope tracer signal in  
86 precipitation and streamflow. The isotope signal (e.g.  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) in precipitation in tropical regions is  
87 typically higher in dry seasons and lower during rainy periods (Dansgaard, 1964). As rain water  
88 passes through a catchment to reach the outlet, its  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signature is attenuated and shifted in  
89 time, leading to a much smoother but still seasonally-varying isotope signal in the streamflow.

90 The ratio of the fitted streamflow sine wave's amplitude ( $A_s$ ), divided by the fitted precipitation  
91 sine wave's amplitude ( $A_p$ ) can be used to estimate the percentage of water in streamflow  
92 which is younger than three months. Kirchner (2016a; 2016b) showed that  $F_{yw}$  calculations  
93 were robust against spatial catchment heterogeneities (aggregation bias error), where previous  
94 methods of transit time estimation by sine wave fitting produced highly uncertain results. To  
95 date, this method has only been applied to theoretical data sets and smaller catchments in  
96 temperate areas (Kirchner, 2016a; 2016b; von Freyberg et al., 2018; Stockinger et al., 2019). It  
97 remains to be tested if  $F_{yw}$  can also be estimated in monsoon-impacted river basins.

98 This paper represents the first application of the *Fyw* estimation for the DRB, a tropical lowland  
99 catchment, which has undergone intensive human alteration. The objectives of this paper are  
100 to estimate the DRB's *Fyw* based on  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  compositions from an extensive four year river  
101 dataset, and assess the (*Fyw*) spatio-temporal variability as function of the catchment's meteo-  
102 hydrological and landuse conditions. The broader aim is that the use of *Fyw* will help inform  
103 stakeholders and policy makers in better water resource management practices. The outcomes  
104 of this study are applicable within and beyond the DRB, and provide a potentially low-cost  
105 method for understanding other highly impacted, tropical lowland catchments around the  
106 world.

## 107 **2. Materials and methods**

### 108 **Description of the Day River Basin (DRB)**

109 The DRB covers 7,665 km<sup>2</sup> (MONRE, 2006) with a total population of approximately 11.7 million  
110 (GSO, 2016). Located on the Red River Delta, the study area lies in a longitudinal direction. From  
111 West to East, the topography of the study area can be divided into the mountainous and delta  
112 areas respectively. The mountainous area in the west and southwest of the basin accounts for  
113 about 30% of the area and is mostly low mountain ranges (average elevation of 400 - 600 m)  
114 composed of terrigenous, carbonate sedimentary rocks. The whole DRB can be sub-divided in  
115 to 5 catchments named after the rivers Bui, Boi, Nhue, and Chau-Sat, and sub-basin estuary  
116 area (Luu et al., 2010).

117 The upstream reaches of the river system are meandering, winding, narrow and sloping, with  
118 many rapids and fast flowing waters, which trigger the risk of erosion and flash floods.

119 However, the middle and lower river channels are wide, with slow river flow, and poor drainage  
120 which leads to flooding during high rainfall events. The delta area accounts for about 60% of  
121 the DRB, the terrain of which is quite flat with elevations <20 m, descending from the  
122 Northwest to the Southeast. The plains are composed mainly of alluvial soils, clay and sand  
123 mixed with fine sand layers. From top down, the delta consists of (1) a 2 - 16 m layer of mixed  
124 clay and clay with sand; (2) a 1.3 - 6 m (10 m) layer of organic mud sediment and (3) a 50 - 90 m  
125 layer of sandy gravel and gravel. The plain surface is divided by intermittent river and canal  
126 systems.

127 Agriculture is a vital activity in this basin, with approximately 50% of land in the DRB being used  
128 for farming and animal production. Rice paddies occupy 2,414 km<sup>2</sup>, while planted and natural  
129 forests are developed mostly in hilly areas and cover c. 1,264 km<sup>2</sup> (16% of the basin). Urbanized  
130 and industrial areas have expanded over recent decades to more than 1,000 km<sup>2</sup> (about 14%)  
131 of the basin, while open water including lakes, reservoirs, and waterways covers c. 400 km<sup>2</sup>  
132 (5.3%) of the basin.

133 At present, the DRB river system is under considerable pressure from socioeconomic  
134 developmental activities and urbanization, and the basin is experiencing an annual population  
135 increase of about 5% (MONRE, 2006). However, the region's infrastructure (irrigation, drainage,  
136 traffic systems and urban planning) has not expanded at the same rate as population increase  
137 and so is unable to cope with such rapid development (Do & Nishida, 2014). Given the existing  
138 infrastructure resources, water regimes in upstream part of Day River, are largely controlled by  
139 a system of sluice gates and pumping stations, to allocate and redirect water for different  
140 purposes (e.g. irrigation and drainage or preventing urbanized areas from seasonal inundation).

141 <Fig. 1 close to here>

## 142 **Sampling and analysis**

143 Water isotope sampling locations between January 2015 and December 2018 are shown in

144 Table 1.

145 Table 1: Sampling sites in the DRB. Note that the sites are in strategic locations; upstream and  
146 downstream of confluences between the main river flow and tributaries.

Station name	River reach	Longitude (°E)	Latitude (°N)	Altitude (m)	Distance to the next downstream point
Ba Tha (D1)	Confluence between Bui River and Day River	105.70722	20.80583	10	25 km to D2
Te Tieu (D2)	Downstream Bui River's confluence	105.74710	20.68646	9	35 km to D3
Que (D3)	Upstream Nhue River's confluence	105.87263	20.57451	8	9 km to D4
Do (D4)	Downstream Nhue River's confluence	105.91151	20.51578	7	20 km to D5
Doan Vi (D5)	Upstream Boi River's	105.92081	20.36240	3	20 km to D6



	confluence				
Non Nuoc (D6)	Downstream Boi River's confluence and upstream Chau-Sat River's confluence	105.98071	20.26526	3	60 km to the Sea

147

148 River waters were sampled monthly at a distance of approximately 10 m from riverbanks. They  
149 were filtered immediately with Sartorius technical filter papers (8  $\mu\text{m}$  pore size) and collected in  
150 30 ml HDPE plastic bottles. They were then kept at 20°C before being sent to the Isotope  
151 Hydrology Laboratory of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), Vienna, Austria for  
152 analysis. All samples were pipetted into 2 mL laser vials, and high-precision measurement using  
153 a Los Gatos Research liquid water isotope analyzer model 912-0032 (Los Gatos Research  
154 ([www.lgrinc.com](http://www.lgrinc.com), California, USA). The method consisted of 9 injections per vial, excluding the  
155 first 4, with data processing procedures correcting for between-sample memory and  
156 instrumental drift, and normalization to the VSMOW-SLAP scale using LIMS for Lasers 2015 as  
157 fully described elsewhere (Wassenaar et al., 2014; Coplen & Wassenaar, 2015). A 2-point  
158 normalization used IAEA laboratory standards W-34 (low standard) and W-39 (high standard) to  
159 bracket the isotopic composition of the samples. IAEA laboratory standards were calibrated  
160 using VSMOW2 and SLAP2 primary reference materials with their assigned values of  $0 \pm 0.3$ ,  
161  $0 \pm 0.02\text{‰}$  and  $-427.5 \pm 0.3\text{‰}$ ,  $-55.5 \pm 0.02\text{‰}$  for  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , respectively. The assigned values  
162 for the laboratory calibration standards W-39, W-34 and control W-31 were  $+25.4 \pm 0.8\text{‰}$  and

163 +3.634±0.04‰; -189.5±0.9‰ and -24.778±0.02‰; -61.04±0.6‰ and -8.6±0.09‰ for δ<sup>2</sup>H and  
164 δ<sup>18</sup>O relative to VSMOW, respectively. The control W-31 long-term (1-yr running average)  
165 analytical reproducibility (±SD) was ±0.11‰ and ±0.7‰ for δ<sup>18</sup>O and δ<sup>2</sup>H, respectively. It should  
166 be noted that in this paper, only δ<sup>18</sup>O was used for the calculation of *F<sub>yw</sub>*, as required by the  
167 method.

### 168 **Supplementary data collection**

169 Supplementary information from this catchment, including δ<sup>18</sup>O and δ<sup>2</sup>H compositions of  
170 rainwater and groundwater was taken from the IAEA archive (IAEA, 2016). Monthly rainwater  
171 stable isotope data from Hanoi's GNIP station (21.045347°N, 105.798668°E) during 2015-2018  
172 was obtained from the IAEA's NUCLEAUS information resources. Groundwater isotope data  
173 were collected earlier in the 2004-2007 period. Hydrological data was collected daily between  
174 2015 and 2018, at the main gauging stations of Ba Tha and Phu Ly in Day River (Fig. 1), and was  
175 acquired from the Vietnam National Hydro-Meteorological Station network. Landuse and  
176 elevation data of 2015 was acquired from the Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment.  
177 The GIS software ArcGIS 10.3 was used to generate DEM for catchment and subcatchment  
178 calculations (Do et al., 2019). Five groups of landuse with distinctive characteristics are  
179 categorized here: (1) Open water (soil submerged with water all around); (2) Urban and built-up  
180 (concrete and sewer networks); (3) Rice paddy (half of the time submerged with water, water  
181 well drained and irrigated); (4) Forest (sloping and untouched soil covered with trees); and (5)  
182 Grass+orchard+crop: vegetable planting (soil regularly kept from submerged with water).

183 **Estimation method of fraction of young water (*F<sub>yw</sub>*)**

184 *F<sub>yw</sub>* was calculated by fitting a sine wave to both the seasonal-varying precipitation and  
185 streamflow  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  isotope signals. These are calculated, respectively, as:

186 
$$C_p(t) = A_p \sin(2\pi ft - \varphi_p) + k_p \quad [1]$$

187 
$$C_s(t) = A_s \sin(2\pi ft - \varphi_s) + k_s \quad [2]$$

188 where  $C_p(t)$  is simulated precipitation and  $C_s(t)$  is streamflow,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  isotope values of time  $t$   
189 (decimal years),  $A$  is the amplitude (‰),  $\varphi$  is the phase of the seasonal cycle (in radians, with  $2\pi$   
190 rad equaling 1 year),  $f$  is the frequency ( $\text{yr}^{-1}$ ), and  $k$  (‰) is a constant describing the vertical  
191 offset of the isotope signal. After fitting these multiple regression equations, the *F<sub>yw</sub>* can be  
192 calculated as:

193 
$$F_{yw} = \frac{A_s}{A_p} \quad [3]$$

194 For the flow-weighted *F<sub>yw</sub>* computation, von Freyberg et al. (2018) considered flow as an  
195 independent variable weighing the cycle amplitude. They simplified that the seasonal cycle  
196 amplitude of the stable water isotope signal in stream water ( $A_s$ ) varies linearly with discharge  
197 ( $Q$ ) ( $A_s = ns + ms*Q$ ), but the corresponding cycle amplitude in precipitation ( $A_p$ ) does not, such  
198 that *F<sub>yw</sub>* varies with  $Q$ . However, in tropical coastal areas, precipitation water isotopes are  
199 known to be a function of precipitation amount ( $P$ ) – “amount effect” and should not be  
200 neglected, especially for the uncertainty due to discharge/precipitation variability. Therefore, in  
201 this study, different to von Freyberg et al. (2018), we assess the *F<sub>yw</sub>* as function of both  $A_s(Q)$   
202 and  $A_p(P)$ .

203 
$$F_{yw} = \frac{n_S + m_S Q}{n_P + m_P P} \quad [4]$$

204  $n_P, m_P, n_S, m_S$  are determined via multi variable regression analysis of the 2 equations

205 
$$C_P(t) = (n_P + m_P P) \sin(2\pi f t - \varphi_P) + k_P \quad [5]$$

206 
$$C_S(t) = (n_S + m_S Q) \sin(2\pi f t - \varphi_S) + k_S \quad [6]$$

207 Each equation has 2 independent variables (time and flow), 1 dependent variable (isotopic  
208 values), 4 coefficients ( $n, m, \varphi$  and  $k$ )

209 The OriginPro 2019 software providing the user defined function/model was used for this  
210 regression analysis to obtain the coefficients  $A, \varphi, k_P, n$  and  $m$  in Eq. 1, 2, 5, and 6. The  
211 Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm was used to solve this generic curve-fitting problem.

212 Single sine wave fitting for the whole 2015-2018 period versus individual sine wave fitting for 1-  
213 year time window was applied. We used a moving one-year time window which was moved in 1  
214 month steps to calculate 37  $F_{yw}$  estimates over the 2015-2018 time series. A minimum time  
215 window length of one year was chosen to fully capture the annual isotope signal (Stockinger et  
216 al., 2019).

217 Uncertainties in the calculated unweighted and flow-weighted  $F_{yw}$  are expressed as standard  
218 errors (SEs) and are estimated using Gaussian error propagation.

219 Theoretically, the stream flow amplitude ( $A_S$ ) should be smaller than the precipitation  
220 amplitude ( $A_P$ ), resulting a  $F_{yw}$  in the range of 0 and 1. In which, 0 (1) is equivalent to 0%  
221 (100%) of water in streamflow younger than three months after entering the catchment as  
222 meteoric water. Further description of the method can be found in von Freyberg et al. (2018).

223 Correlation analysis was used to assess the impact of land use changes on the *Fyw* over the  
224 monitoring sites. Land use data included percentage cover of open water, urbanization and  
225 built-up areas, rice paddy, grass land+orchard+crop, and forest. The DEM separates the DRB  
226 into 27 sub-catchments and land use at each site was classed as the sum of all sub-catchment  
227 land use that contributes water to that site. Forward selection was used to assess the  
228 significance of correlations between individual land use classes and the *Fyw* data which were  
229 analysed as separate years. The analysis was performed using OriginPro 2019 (9.65).

### 230 **3. Results**

#### 231 **Isotopic and hydrometric data**

232 Between January 2015 and December 2018, minimum, maximum, and mean of precipitation  
233 recorded in Ha Noi was 4.2, 534.5, and 138.3 (mm month<sup>-1</sup>) respectively (Fig. 2a). The  
234 corresponding values of discharge measured at Ba Tha and Phu Ly were respectively 14, 374,  
235 113 and 14, 364, 122 (mm month<sup>-1</sup>) (Fig. 2a). Low (high) precipitation was in January-March  
236 (July-September). Low (high) discharge occurs around the same period as (or occasionally 1  
237 month later than) precipitation (Fig. 2a). The precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values ranged from -12.67 to  
238 +1.68‰, spanning a range of 14.65‰ (Fig. 2b). By comparison, over the same period,  
239 streamflow  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values ranged from -11.63 to -1.37‰ with a range of 10.26‰ or about 72% of  
240 the precipitation values (Fig. 2b). In general, isotope profiles were sinusoidal, with maximum  
241  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values occurring between January-May (the regional dry season) and minimum  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
242 values between July –October (the regional rainy season). Peaks of river water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  isotope  
243 profiles occurred 1-2 months after the rainwater profile (Fig. 2b).

244 <Fig. 2 close to here>

245 <Fig. 3 close to here>

246 Precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition was negatively correlated with the amount of monthly  
247 precipitation ( $r = -0.77$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). There were also similar tendencies between the river water  
248  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and river discharge, with more negative  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  during strong flow periods (Fig. 3).

### 249 **Sine wave fitting and fraction of young water estimation**

250 The single sine waves for the whole study period fitted the 48 precipitation and 288 streamflow  
251  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values well ( $\text{Prob} > |t| \ll 0.05$ ). The precipitation amplitude ( $A_p$ ) was  $4.37 \pm 0.42\text{‰}$  and the  
252 streamflow amplitude ( $A_s$ ) was in the range of  $2.15 \pm 0.24$  (Non Nuoc Site) and  $2.61 \pm 0.26\text{‰}$  (Que  
253 Site), which results in an unweighted  $F_{yw}$  ranging between  $49.3 \pm 7.3$  and  $59.7 \pm 8.2\%$ . The  
254 corresponding values of flow-weighted  $F_{yw}$  were  $50.0 \pm 16.9$  (Non Nuoc Site) and  $60.3 \pm 18.7\%$   
255 (Que Site). The sine wave profile of unweighted  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  precipitation data fitted better (worse)  
256 than the flow-weighted  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  precipitation data as assessed by the smaller error of fit (chi-  
257 square values) (Table 2 and Fig. 4-5).

258 <Fig. 4 close to here>

259 The individually-fitted sine waves for a period of 12 consecutive months showed some inter-  
260 annual variability in amplitude and phase shifts, leading to small deviations from the single sine  
261 wave fitted to the whole time series (Fig. 4). Overall, the mean of the individually-fitted sine  
262 waves was similar to the value of the single sine wave fitting. The amplitudes of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in  
263 precipitation ranged between  $3.22 \pm 0.52\text{‰}$  and  $5.84 \pm 0.97\text{‰}$ , with a mean value of  $4.59 \pm 0.78\text{‰}$   
264 (Fig. 4), while streamflow amplitudes ranged between  $1.44 \pm 0.28\text{‰}$  and  $3.18 \pm 0.80\text{‰}$  with a

265 mean value of  $2.34 \pm 0.54\%$  (data not shown). The mean of all streamflow amplitudes was  
266 closer to the single sine wave amplitude ( $2.34 \pm 0.54\%$  vs.  $2.34 \pm 0.26\%$ ) than the precipitation  
267 amplitudes ( $4.59 \pm 0.78\%$  vs.  $4.37 \pm 0.42\%$ ). Thus, using the average of the individually-fitted  
268 sine wave amplitudes to calculate  $F_{yw}$ , gives a result of 51.0% compared with 53.7% for the  
269 single sine wave.

270 The range of unweighted  $F_{yw}$  obtained from individual sine wave fitting in the period 2015-  
271 2018 at our 6 study sites was  $0.29 \pm 0.08$  to  $0.82 \pm 0.21$ , with a mean value of  $0.51 \pm 0.19$ . In  
272 comparison, the range of volume(flow)-weighted  $F_{yw}$  resulting from the individual sine wave  
273 fittings was  $0.33 \pm 0.24$  to  $0.92 \pm 0.73$  with mean value of  $0.52 \pm 0.36$ . As shown in Fig. 5, both  
274 unweighted and weighted  $F_{yw}$  values are very similar, reaching higher (lower) values at Que  
275 Site (Non Nuoc site). The weighted values have a larger error resulting from flow coefficient ( $m_s$   
276 and  $m_p$ ) estimating uncertainty, and river discharge variability.

277 Chi-square values of unweighted fitting is always higher than volume-weighted fitting, showing  
278 that volume-weighted fitting mimics better the isotopic profiles than unweighted fitting.

279 Single sine wave fitting led to a discharge sensitivity (DS) range of  $0.053 \pm 0.024$  (Te Tieu Site)  
280 and  $0.072 \pm 0.026$  (Que Site) ( $d \text{ mm}^{-1}$ ). Individual, DS values are small and positive. Taking into  
281 account their large uncertainty, we conclude that  $F_{yw}$  is insignificantly influenced by discharge.

282 That is also explained by the fact that unweighted and weighted  $F_{yw}$  are relatively similar.

283 Error propagated from river discharge uncertainty accumulates to the error of  $F_{yw}$  and DS.

284 <Fig. 6 close to here>

285 <Fig. 7 close to here>

286 Pearson correlation calculation revealed that single sine wave fitted  $F_{yw}$  and DS did not  
287 significantly correlate with any dominant landuse along the main stream (all  $p$ -values are higher  
288 than 0.05). On the other hand, mean $\pm$ standard deviation of correlation coefficients between  
289 individual sine wave fitted  $F_{yw}$  (and its DS) and landuse (Fig. 8) shows a consistently weak but  
290 positive correlation between  $F_{yw}$  and Grass+orchard+crops and negative correlations between  
291  $F_{yw}$  and Area (and Urban and built-up).

292 <Fig. 8 close to here>

293 Overall, correlation analysis indicated that  $F_{yw}$  was consistently - insignificantly, positively  
294 correlated with the proportion of Grass + orchard + crop in the catchment, and negatively  
295 correlated with the catchment area, the urban and built-up area (Fig. 8). Thus,  $F_{yw}$  tends to  
296 increase if a catchment is dominated by grass+orchard+crop and decrease downstream or if a  
297 catchment is dominated by urban areas. In addition, the rice paddy and forest landscapes  
298 appear (insignificantly and inconsistently) to decrease  $F_{yw}$ .

299 The analysis shows no correlation between DS and any landuse activities or catchment  
300 characteristics in the DRB.

#### 301 **4. Discussion**

##### 302 **Water isotopes (rainwater, groundwater, and surface water isotopes) in the DRB**

303  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  isotopes and monthly rainfall were negatively correlated (Fig. 3), indicating that the  
304 amount effect dominates in this tropical precipitation regime (Trinh et al., 2017). Dansgaard  
305 (1964) defined the amount effect as a low latitude anticorrelation between the isotopic  
306 compositions and the amount of rain (based on monthly means). Since the tropical climate here



307 is characterized with a two season pattern (rainy and dry) this anticorrelation helps to create a  
308 sine wave seasonality of precipitation and river water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ . Approximately six monthly intervals  
309 between min and max isotopic values ensure the rate of increase equals the rate of decrease  
310 (Fig. 2). We assume that open water and paddy fields accounted for about half of the delta  
311 plain create a massive water buffering area, helping to smooth the variability in river flow and  
312 isotopic values. Differences between the mean and median of the isotopic data (in both rain  
313 and river water) are less than 10% of their absolute values. This bimodal seasonal pattern  
314 permits the successful application of the stream flow fraction estimation method, based on  
315 water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  isotope data (Kirchner, 2016a).

316 Previous studies on  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signatures in the Red River Delta, which includes the DRB, report a  
317 mean, minimum, and maximum groundwater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of -7.60‰, -10.21‰, and -3.8‰ (Trinh, et  
318 al., 2017). Based on the current isotope dataset, we infer that groundwater is recharged locally  
319 from precipitation because the long-term  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of precipitation (ca. -7.75‰) is close to the  
320 quasi-constant  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of groundwater reported in Trinh et al. (2017) (-7.60‰  $\pm$  1.28‰). On the  
321 other hand, streamflow was substantially enriched with the heavier isotope, with a mean value  
322 equal to or higher than -6.51‰, implying strong evapotranspiration in the DRB which increases  
323 in the lowland delta where there are many standing waters including ponds, lakes, wetlands,  
324 and paddy fields (susceptible to strong evaporation under this tropical climate). Trinh et al.  
325 (2017) came to the same conclusion using hydrograph separation/and d-excess computation  
326 for the same catchment. This relative comparison between ground, river, and precipitation  
327 water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  isotopes also implies that the contribution of groundwater to river water is minimal.  
328 Because the groundwater (subsurface) discharge to stream flow is slow, a large contribution of

329 surface runoff as a fast flow path, (i.e. a high  $F_{yw}$ ) to streamwater would be expected in the  
 330 DRB.

331 **Fraction of young water**

332 Young water fractions are estimated from the amplitude ratio of the seasonal cycles in stable  
 333 water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  isotope signatures of precipitation and streamwater. These amplitudes can be  
 334 estimated directly from the isotope measurements themselves, or by volume-weighting these  
 335 measurements by the corresponding precipitation or discharge rates. While precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
 336 isotopes should generally be volume-weighted to prevent the influence of short-lived  
 337 precipitation events from creating anomalous isotope values, streamwater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  isotope values  
 338 can be flow-weighted (using stream discharges as weights) or unweighted. Here, the use of  
 339 monthly data, instead of daily or hourly data, decreases the influence of anomalous events, but  
 340 may miss capturing some important hydrological characteristics of the catchment. So,  
 341 comparisons between unweighted and weighted  $F_{yw}$  are useful for assessing the suitability of  
 342 the approaches.

343 Table 2: Fraction of young water ( $F_{yw}$ ) and its discharge sensitivity (DS) (exclusively for flow-  
 344 weighted calculation) at the different sites over the 2015-2018 period (Mean $\pm$ SE)

Sine wave fitted	Individual			Single		
	Weighted	DS (d mm <sup>-1</sup> )	Unweighted	Weighted	DS (d mm <sup>-1</sup> )	Unweighted

Ba Tha	0.55±0.36	0.045±0.054	0.53±0.15	0.55±0.18	0.061±0.025	0.55±0.08
Te Tieu	0.49±0.34	0.039±0.056	0.48±0.14	0.52±0.17	0.053±0.024	0.52±0.08
Que	0.57±0.38	0.060±0.057	0.57±0.15	0.60±0.19	0.072±0.026	0.60±0.08
Do	0.50±0.37	0.053±0.059	0.49±0.15	0.53±0.18	0.060±0.025	0.53±0.08
Doan Vi	0.51±0.37	0.065±0.063	0.50±0.15	0.54±0.18	0.063±0.025	0.53±0.08
Non Nuoc	0.48±0.35	0.058±0.056	0.47±0.14	0.50±0.17	0.063±0.025	0.49±0.07

345

346 Weighted *Fyw* values are generally higher than the unweighted *Fyw* values, but differences  
347 between them are not significant (Table 2 and Fig. 5, 6). This is not surprising, since the effect of  
348 flow-weighting on *Fyw* is large at sites with relatively large variation of daily discharge (von  
349 Freyberg et al., 2018). In the DRB, daily discharge in the mainstream does not vary too much  
350 because it drains an area of 7665 km<sup>2</sup> and is located in a humid climate. In addition, our  
351 monthly sampling does not capture daily variability well. Therefore, our calculation for the DRB  
352 shows no significant difference between unweighted and weighted *Fyw*. Based on our *Fyw*  
353 calculations, more than a half of the rainwater reaches the DRB river mainstream within the  
354 first 3 months (Fig. 6, 7). This is much higher than other published studies (von Freyberg et al.,  
355 2018; Stockinger et al., 2019) (Table 2), and an analysis of 254 catchments which found that  
356 young streamflow accounts for about a third of river discharge globally (Jasechko et al., 2016).  
357 Of more relevance to the DRB, this large-scale analysis surprisingly concluded that steeper  
358 catchments tend to have smaller *Fyw* (Jasechko et al., 2016). In other word, catchments with

359 flat landscapes tend to have higher *Fyw*. It appears to be true in the DRB since it is composed of  
360 more than 80% of flat and submerged land, with limited capacity to retain water within the  
361 catchment, and therefore can transmit water and its associated solutes (e.g. dissolved  
362 contaminants) into streams at a much faster rate than the global average. For hundreds of  
363 years, hydrology in the DRB has been strictly regulated for agricultural and urban purposes (Luu  
364 et al., 2010; Do et al., 2019). Half of delta plain is open water and paddy fields which are  
365 constantly submerged in the rainy season. Water during and after intense rainfall events is  
366 pumped and/or drained from alluvial plains to the river to avoid unexpected inundation. In  
367 combination, the natural climate of the region (i.e. high humidity and intense precipitation (von  
368 Freyberg et al., 2018)), flat landscape, and the high level of human modification has led to high  
369 *Fyw* in the DRB.

370 There is no straightforward gradient of *Fyw* between upstream and downstream areas.  
371 Instead, *Fyw* was highest at Que (a middle section site) and lowest at Non Nuoc (the most  
372 downstream site) (Table 2). The correlation analysis shows an insignificantly but consistently  
373 negative correlation between *Fyw* and Area (Fig. 8) which means the overall tendency of  
374 decreasing *Fyw* downstream (downstream sites represent the larger catchment area).  
375 Physically, recording the lowest *Fyw* at the most downstream site could be explained by several  
376 factors. First, further downstream a greater proportion of water is derived from the upstream  
377 reaches of the river, which has a dilution effect on the young water proportion of the DRB  
378 streamwater. This is reinforced by the elongated shape of the DRB (Fig. 1). Secondly, the  
379 downstream reaches of the DRB are influenced by tidal effects, which can slow down flow and  
380 increase water stagnation in some downstream areas. Finally, there is a greater proportion of

381 groundwater exchange and interaction with streamwaters in the downstream (delta) reaches of  
382 the DRB, than in the more upland upstream reaches (Bui et al., 2011). Trinh et al. ( 2017)  
383 further support this account of groundwater levels being sufficiently high that they occasionally  
384 discharge into the stream during the dry period, when water level in the main river channels is  
385 low.

### 386 **Topography, land use, hydro-climatic characteristics and *Fyw***

387 Relationships among *Fyw*, topography, land use and hydro-climatic characteristics (e.g. rainfall  
388 and discharge) can help to identify the dominant controls on the hydrological behavior of a  
389 basin. In this section, we examine how *Fyw* varies relative to changes in stream discharge and  
390 precipitation on annual timescales, as well as to changes in topography and land use among  
391 different sampling sites.

392 On an individual catchment basis, the sensitivity of *Fyw* (and thus seasonal  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  isotope cycles)  
393 to annual variability in precipitation and river discharge has important hydrological implications  
394 (von Freyberg et al. 2018). Low discharge sensitivities imply greater persistence in the  
395 proportion of fast and slow runoff flow paths, as catchment wetness changes. Conversely, high  
396 discharge sensitivities imply that different dominant fast flow paths become activated during  
397 precipitation events, such as when the subsurface water table rises into more permeable layers  
398 and/or the river network expands further into the landscape (Godsey & Kirchner, 2014). A full  
399 assessment of the *Fyw* - discharge relationship should be based not only on hydro-climate and  
400 catchment characteristics, but also on different sampling periods and sampling strategies of the  
401 studies (Lutz et al., 2018).

402 As shown in Fig. 7c,d, DS is generally positive, indicating an activation of fast flow paths during  
403 high discharge. Nevertheless, due to its large standard errors (especially for individual fitted;  
404 Table 2), we conclude that  $F_{yw}$  in the DRB is characterized as having low and positive DS.  
405 According to von Freyberg et al. (2018), catchments with low DS of  $F_{yw}$  are characterized by  
406 dense river networks and/or generally humid conditions (e.g. large proportion of paddy fields  
407 and open water). These catchment properties are generally associated with predominantly  
408 shallow runoff flow paths during both large and small precipitation events, when  $F_{yw}$  remains  
409 relatively high under widely varying flow regimes. In contrast, in catchments characterized by  
410 lower drainage density and less humid conditions, larger or higher-intensity storms are likely to  
411 strongly alter the proportions of different dominant flow paths, leading to larger variations in  
412  $F_{yw}$  (i.e. higher DS). For example, the dynamic extension of the stream network (e.g. Godsey  
413 and Kirchner, 2014; Jensen et al., 2017) and/or the increase in hydrological connectivity  
414 between the stream network and the surrounding landscape (e.g. Detty and McGuire, 2010;  
415 von Freyberg et al., 2015) should more strongly influence the relative proportion of young  
416 streamflow in catchments where drainage density is not already high. Likewise, the activation  
417 of shallow flow paths during larger storm events will have a bigger influence on  $F_{yw}$  in drier  
418 catchments than in wetter ones, where shallow flow paths are likely to be activated during both  
419 large and small events. The low DS therefore arises in the DRB definitely because it is  
420 characterized by dense river networks, located in a tropical climate (high humidity) and the  
421 intensive agricultural practices and urbanization have made shallow runoff flow paths  
422 predominant during both large and small precipitation events. In addition, an array of robust  
423 dams, dikes, and complex drainage networks in the DRB maintain the surface/fast flow paths

424 and prevent them from expanding by changing their courses into the landscape (Trinh et al.,  
425 2017).

426 Correlation analysis confirmed that *Fyw* in the DRB has low DS (Fig. 7, 8) with no significant  
427 correlations ( $p$ -value  $< 0.05$ ) between *Fyw* (its DS) and precipitation (discharge) – hydro-climatic  
428 forcing, or and landuse variability. The most likely explanations for the lack of correlation are  
429 the catchment characteristics described above (humid lowland with concentrated river  
430 drainage/irrigation networks) where there is low dependence catchment wetness conditions or  
431 hydro-climatic forcing. As the DS is low its error accumulates with the monthly isotopic - daily  
432 discharge uncertainty, it is not surprising that DS is not a function of particular forcing factors.  
433 In addition, anthropogenic activities such as agricultural practices and urban expansion (nearly  
434 20% in the central section of the catchment), which function independently from natural and  
435 climate conditions lower the DS in the DRB. Low and non-significant ( $p$ -value  $> 0.05$ )  
436 correlations between *Fyw* (DS) and other catchment characteristics (Fig. 7, 8) implies that  
437 linking *Fyw* to catchment wetness conditions and hydro-climatic forcing may be difficult in  
438 catchments with streamflow regimes are discontinuous or strongly affected by water  
439 management (e.g. groundwater pumping, artificial groundwater recharge, irrigation, or water  
440 diversion) or land-use change (e.g. urban development, soil degradation, or forest clear cutting)  
441 (von Freyberg et al., 2018).

442 Based on the correlation analysis, we found that *Fyw* varies positively in areas more dominated  
443 by grass+orchard+crops (Fig. 8). The explanation is that usually, this landuse type should be  
444 kept dry. During storms or extreme rainfall, the agricultural practice in those areas is to drain  
445 water as fast as possible. Therefore, in this landuse, there are few persistent fast and slow flow

446 paths. The relative proportions of the fast and slow flow path vary greatly between dry and wet  
447 seasons, with an increase (decrease) in  $F_{yw}$  during wet (dry) periods. Combined with the fact  
448 that the DRB is located in a tropical monsoon region,  $F_{yw}$  in grass+crop+orchard areas is high  
449 and sensitive to (precipitation) discharge. This contrasts with urban and built up areas which  
450 have lower  $F_{yw}$ . For the flow paths going through urban and built up areas, we did expect some  
451 fast flows (high  $F_{yw}$ ) because of the need for rapid rainwater drainage, but instead we  
452 observed that  $F_{yw}$  is lower in the urban and built up proportions of the DRB. This may be  
453 because domestic water used in the DRB is pumped mostly from groundwater, and so the  
454 isotopic signatures of water flow from urban and built up area are blended with old water  
455 signals.

## 456 **5. Conclusion**

457 This study presents the first calculation of  $F_{yw}$  for the DRB which represents, to our knowledge,  
458 its first application in a tropical, lowland catchment. Our study focuses on the spatio-temporal  
459 variability of  $F_{yw}$  in the DRB. The fraction of young waters obtained from either unweighted or  
460 volume-weighted, fitted over 12 month windows or for the whole dataset were quite similar,  
461 indicating the credibility of the approach. Compared with the global mean of one-third, the  $F_{yw}$   
462 proportion in the DRB is higher (more than a half), reflecting a catchment that is predominantly  
463 wet and where water is quickly drained during intense rainfall events to alleviate inundation in  
464 its large lowland areas. This study supports the application of  $F_{yw}$  to assess the flushing of  
465 solute contaminants in lowland, plain catchments which are highly controlled by dikes and  
466 dams, and where hydrological models therefore fail to best capture flow patterns and  
467 processes.



468 Based on our analysis, we applied a generalized conceptual description that relates *Fyw* and its  
469 DS to dominant streamflow generation mechanisms (von Freyberg et al., 2018) for analyzing  
470 the effects of future climate change on catchment hydrological behavior. The DRB belongs to  
471 the category of a humid catchment, with frequent precipitation, low storage capacity, and  
472 dense river networks. This catchment is characterized with high *Fyw* and low DS, of which both  
473 variables are insensitive to landscape and hydro-climate forcing factors. Anthropogenic  
474 activities such as dams, dikes, and drainage networks have decoupled the relationship between  
475 discharge and *Fyw* (low DS) and suggest that overall the hydrology in DRB will not be strongly  
476 impacted by climate change, due to the overwhelming influence of human modifications.

477

478

479 **References**

480 Bui, D. D. et al., 2011. Identification of aquifer system in the whole Red River Delta, Vietnam.

481 *Geosciences Journal*, 15(3), pp. 323-338.

482 Chadwick, R., Good, P., Martin, G. & Rowell, D. P., 2016. Large rainfall changes consistently

483 projected over substantial areas of tropical land. *Nature Climate Change*, Volume 6, p. 177–181.

484 Coplen, T. B. & Wassenaar, L. I., 2015. LIMS for Lasers 2015 for achieving long-term accuracy

485 and precision of  $\delta^2\text{H}$ ,  $\delta^{17}\text{O}$ , and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of waters using laser absorption spectrometry. *Rapid*

486 *Communications in Mass Spectrometry*, Volume 29 , pp. 2122-2130.

487 Dang, D., Cochrane, A., Arias, E. & Van, P. D. T. D.-V. T., 2016. Hydrological alterations from

488 water infrastructure development in the Mekong floodplains.. *Hydrological Processes*, 30(21),

489 pp. 3824-3838.

490 Dansgaard, W., 1964. Stable isotopes in precipitation. *Tellus A* , Volume 16, p. 436–468.

491 Detty, J. M. & McGuire, K. J., 2010. Topographic controls on shallow groundwater dynamics:

492 implications of hydrologic connectivity between hillslopes and riparian zones in a till mantled

493 catchment. *Hydrological Processes* , Volume 24, p. 2222–2236.

494 Do, T. N. & Nishida, K., 2014. A nitrogen cycle model in paddy fields to improve material flow

495 analysis: the Day-Nhue River Basin case study. *Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems*, Volume 100,

496 pp. 215-226.

497 Do, T. N., Tran, B. V., Trinh, A. D. & Kei, K. N., 2019. Quantification of nitrogen load in a  
498 regulated river system in Vietnam by material flow analysis. *Journal of Material Cycles and*  
499 *Waste Management*, 21(4), p. 974–98.

500 Gannon, J. P. et al., 2017. Lateral water flux in the unsaturated zone: A mechanism for the  
501 formation of spatial soil heterogeneity in a headwater catchment. *Hydrological process*, 31(20),  
502 pp. 3568-3579.

503 Godsey, S. E. & Kirchner, J. W., 2014. Dynamic, discontinuous stream networks: hydrologically  
504 driven variations in active drainage density, flowing channels, and stream order. *Hydrological*  
505 *Processes*, 28(23), p. 5791–5803.

506 GSO, 2016. *Report on the census of rural, agriculture and aquaculture*, Hanoi, Vietnam: Vietnam  
507 General Statistics Office.

508 IAEA, 2016. *Water Isotope System for data analysis, visualization and Electronic Retrieval*.  
509 [Online]  
510 Available at: <https://nucleus.iaea.org/wiser/>  
511 [Accessed 30 April 2016].

512 Jasechko, S., Kirchner, J. W., Welker, J. M. & McDonnell, J., 2016. Substantial proportion of  
513 global streamflow less than three months old. *Nature Geoscience*, 9(2), pp. 126-129.

514 Jensen, C. K., McGuire, K. J. & Prince, P. S., 2017. Headwater stream length dynamics across  
515 four physiographic provinces of the Appalachian Highlands. *Hydrological Processes*, Volume 31 ,  
516 pp. 3350-3363.

517 Kirchner, J. W., 2016a. Aggregation in environmental systems - Part 1: Seasonal tracer cycles  
518 quantify young water fractions, but not mean transit times, in spatially heterogeneous  
519 catchments. *Hydrology and Earth System Sciences*, 20(1), pp. 279-297.

520 Kirchner, J. W., 2016b. Aggregation in environmental systems - Part 2: Catchment mean transit  
521 times and young water fractions under hydrologic nonstationarity. *Hydrology and Earth System*  
522 *Sciences*, 20(1), p. 299–328.

523 Lutz, S. R. et al., 2018. Spatial patterns of water age: Using young water fractions to improve the  
524 characterization of transit times in contrasting catchments. *Water Resources Research*, 54(7),  
525 pp. 4767-4784.

526 Luu, T. N. M. et al., 2010. Hydrological regime and water budget of the Red River Delta  
527 (Northern Vietnam). *Journal of Asian Earth Sciences*, 37(3), pp. 219-228.

528 McGuire, K. J. & McDonnell, J. J., 2006. A review and evaluation of catchment transit time  
529 modeling. *Journal of hydrology*, 330(3–4), p. 543–563.

530 Miyata, S., Kosugi, K., Gomi, T. & Mizuyama, T., 2009. Effects of forest floor coverage on  
531 overland flow and soil erosion on hillslopes in Japanese cypress plantation forests. *Water*  
532 *resources research*, 45(6), p. doi.org/10.1029/2008WR007270.

533 MONRE, 2006. *State of Environment in Vietnam*, Hanoi, Vietnam: Ministry of Natural Resources  
534 and Environment.

535 Smajgl, A. et al., 2015. Responding to rising sea-levels in Vietnam's Mekong Delta. *Nature*  
536 *Climate Change*, Volume 5 , pp. 167 - 174).

537 Stockinger, M. P. et al., 2019. Time-variability of the fraction of young water in a small  
538 headwater catchment. *Hydrology and Earth System Sciences*, pp. Discuss.,  
539 <https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-2018-604>.

540 Trinh, A. D., Luu, T. N. M. & Le, T. P. Q., 2017. . Use of stable isotopes to understand run-off  
541 generation processes in the Red River Delta. *Hydrological Processes*, Volume 31, pp. 3827-3843.

542 Tsuboyama, Y., Sidle, R. C., Noguchi, S. & Hosoda, I., 1994. Flow and solute transport through  
543 the soil matrix and macropores of a hillslope segment. *water resources research*, 30(4), pp. 879-  
544 890.

545 von Freyberg, J. et al., 2018. Sensitivity of young water fractions to hydro-climatic forcing and  
546 landscape properties across 22 Swiss catchments. *hydrology and earth system sciences*, Volume  
547 22, p. 3841–3861.

548 von Freyberg, J., Rao, P. S. C., Radny, D. & Schirmer, M., 2015. The impact of hillslope  
549 groundwater dynamics and landscape functioning in event-flow generation: a field study in the  
550 Rietholzbach catchment, Switzerland. *Hydrogeological Journal* , Volume 23, pp. 935-948.

551 Wassenaar, L., Coplen, I. & Aggarwal, P. K., 2014. Approaches for Achieving Long-Term Accuracy  
552 and Precision of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  for Waters Analyzed using Laser Absorption Spectrometers.  
553 *Environmental Science and Technology*, Volume 48, pp. 1123-1131.

554 Wiekenkamp, I. et al., 2016. Spatial and temporal occurrence of preferential flow in a forested  
555 headwater catchment. *Journal of Hydrology*, Volume 534, pp. 139-149.

556

557 **Figure captions**

558 Fig. 1: Topography and land use map of the Day River Basin

559 Fig. 2: (a) precipitation and discharge and (b)  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in rain- and river-water in DRB.

560 Fig. 3: (a) Monthly rain  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signatures vs rainfall (mm) and (b) river  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  signatures vs river  
561 water discharge ( $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ ) at the Do site (D4), the most central site in DRB. Data cover the period  
562 of January 2015 to December 2018.

563 Fig. 4: Phase shift and amplitude of the 12 month sine waves of the rain water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  isotope  
564 signatures (straight lines are vertical phase shifts and amplitudes of single sine wave fitting for  
565 the whole period January 2015 to December 2018); error bars are SEs

566 Fig. 5: Fraction of young water ( $F_{yw}$ ) results from individual sine wave fitting at different  
567 sampling sites over 12 consecutive months starting from January to December 2015 to January  
568 to December 2018; error bars are SEs

569 Fig. 6: (a) Flow-weighted  $F_{yw}$  vs Unweighted  $F_{yw}$  and (b) discharge sensitivity (DS) vs flow-  
570 weighted  $F_{yw}$ ; error bars are SEs

571 Fig. 7: (a) Flow-weighted fraction of young water (weighted  $F_{yw}$ ) versus precipitation, (b)  
572 weighted  $F_{yw}$  versus discharge, - (c) discharge sensitivity (DS) versus precipitation, and (d) DS  
573 versus discharge; error bars are SEs

574 Fig. 8: Correlation analysis; (a) correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) between  $F_{yw}$  and the landuse and  
575 catchment characteristics and (b) correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) between DS and the landuse and  
576 catchment characteristics; error bars are SDs from mean values