

Characterization of hydrological response of the Dawen River Basin under land use change

Yanling Luo

Shandong Agricultural University

Xinhe Qiao

Shandong Agricultural University

Yunlong Dong

Shandong Agricultural University

Zhonglun Feng

Shandong Agricultural University

Jie Zhang

Shandong Agricultural University

Gang Wang

gwang@sdau.edu.cn

Shandong Agricultural University

Article

Keywords:

Posted Date: June 28th, 2024

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-4568222/v1>

License:  This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

Additional Declarations: No competing interests reported.

1 Characterization of hydrological response of the Dawen River Basin under land 2 use change

3 Yanling Luo 1, Xinhe Qiao 1, Yunlong Dong 1, Zhonglun Feng 1, Jie Zhang 1,
4 and Gang Wang 1, *

5 ¹ College of Water Conservancy and Civil Engineering, Shandong Agricultural University , Tai'an,
6 271018, China

7 * gwang@sdau.edu.cn

8

9 Abstract

10 Land use change is one of the dominant drivers of hydrological change in the basin. Assessing the
11 hydrological responses to land use changes is crucial for sustainable water resource management. We
12 focused on the Dawen River Basin to analyze land use dynamics from 1985 to 2021. Using the SWAT
13 model, we assessed hydrological responses under various land use scenarios, quantified impacts on
14 hydrological elements, and employed the Random Forest Method to evaluate the impact of different land
15 use types on runoff. Results show that from 1985 to 2021, cropland and grassland in the watershed
16 decreased by 11.57% and 52.04%, respectively, while forest land and construction land increased by
17 11.45% and 103.85%, respectively; other land types showed no significant changes. These land use
18 changes resulted in an increase in watershed evapotranspiration by 26.53 mm, a decrease in groundwater
19 recharge by 19.64 mm, and an increase in surface runoff depth by 18.94 mm. Cultivated land, forest land,
20 and grassland were identified as the major influencers on watershed runoff, with importance weights of
21 1.0729, 0.9607, and 0.8305, respectively. The variations in hydrological elements within the Dawen River
22 watershed during the study period were primarily associated with the reduction in cultivated land and
23 grassland area, coupled with an increase in constructed land area.

24

25 Introduction

26 The acceleration of global climate change and urbanization has led to significant changes in hydrological
27 elements such as basin precipitation, runoff, and evapotranspiration. These changes have increased the
28 variability and diversity of basin hydrological processes, posing challenges to the management of water
29 resources and sustainable development efforts¹. The scientific identification of the impacts of various
30 driving factors on basin hydrology has been a key focus of the International Association of Hydrological
31 Sciences (IAHS) initiative 'Panta Rhei - everything flows' from 2013 to 2022^{2,3}. Among these factors,
32 land use change has emerged as a critical area of study within the broader field of global environmental
33 change⁴⁻⁶.

34 Land use change encompasses alterations in the ways and types of land use, including the transformation
35 of natural landscapes for human purposes and changes in managed land practices⁷. These changes, by
36 modifying conditions such as surface roughness, vegetation cover, and soil infiltration characteristics,
37 trigger alterations in climate, soil, hydrology, and geomorphology within a watershed. Such modifications
38 influence the mechanisms of runoff generation, convergence, and water distribution⁸⁻¹⁰. Furthermore,
39 changes in surface conditions can lead to short-term hydrological changes, while long-term activities like
40 urbanization and deforestation may result in weakened evapotranspiration and alterations in water cycle

41 dynamics. Land use change is a complex and spatiotemporally variable process that has enduring impacts
42 on watershed hydrology¹¹⁻¹⁴.

43 The primary methods for quantitatively analyzing the impact of land use change on watershed hydrology
44 are the paired watershed method, time series analysis, and hydrological modeling¹⁵⁻¹⁷. Implementing the
45 paired watershed method is challenging due to difficulties in finding two similar medium or large-sized
46 watersheds, which may also undergo significant changes at different stages, thereby limiting its practical
47 application¹⁸. Time series analysis allows for the examination of trends in hydrological and climatic data
48 of watersheds; however, the spatial heterogeneity of watersheds and the interactions between land
49 use/land cover changes and climate change effects on the water cycle remain uncertain. Since the 1970s,
50 advancements in computer science, geographic information systems, and remote sensing technology have
51 enhanced hydrological models as effective tools for assessing hydrological responses to environmental
52 changes. Among these, the SWAT model stands out for its suitability and effectiveness in simulating
53 hydrological responses to land use/land cover changes^{19,20}. SWAT provides detailed simulations of
54 hydrological processes²¹ and exhibits superior runoff simulation capabilities compared to other models²².
55 It is extensively used across Europe, North America, Australia, Africa, and other regions²³⁻²⁵. Zhang et al²⁶
56 utilized an improved SWAT model to simulate the hydrological processes in the North Johnstone River
57 Basin, finding that urbanization increased surface runoff while decreasing lateral flow and groundwater
58 recharge. Additionally, afforestation was shown to decrease surface runoff and soil moisture, while
59 increasing evapotranspiration. In another study, Zhang et al²⁷ employed the SWAT model to explore the
60 effects of land use changes on runoff mechanisms and rainfall infiltration coefficients in the Beijing-Su-
61 Mi-Huai region. They integrated MODFLOW to analyze the water balance of the area during typical
62 hydrological years. The results showed that between 2000 and 2015, the transformation of plain farmland
63 into construction land increased runoff by 7×10^6 m³ and raised the runoff coefficient by 17.9%.
64 Furthermore, Hu et al²⁸ examined spatiotemporal land use changes in the Weihe River Basin from 1980 to
65 2010, across four regions and three landform types. They quantified the spatial heterogeneity of
66 hydrological responses to different land use changes based on their analysis.

67 The Dawen River, the largest tributary of the Yellow River within Shandong Province, China, is
68 characterized by its relatively abundant natural water resources compared to the rest of the region. This
69 study focuses on the Dawen River Basin, employing hydrological modeling to quantitatively analyze the
70 impacts of land use changes on watershed hydrological elements from 1985 to 2021. The objective is to
71 provide a scientific basis for the development and management of water and soil resources in the basin.
72 The main research topics include: (1) analyzing and compiling statistics on the spatial characteristics of
73 land use types in the Dawen River Basin, along with changes in land use types from 1985 to 2021; (2)
74 constructing a SWAT model to quantitatively assess the impact of these changes on hydrological
75 elements; (3) investigating the causes of variability in surface runoff and quantifying how different land
76 use types influence it.

77

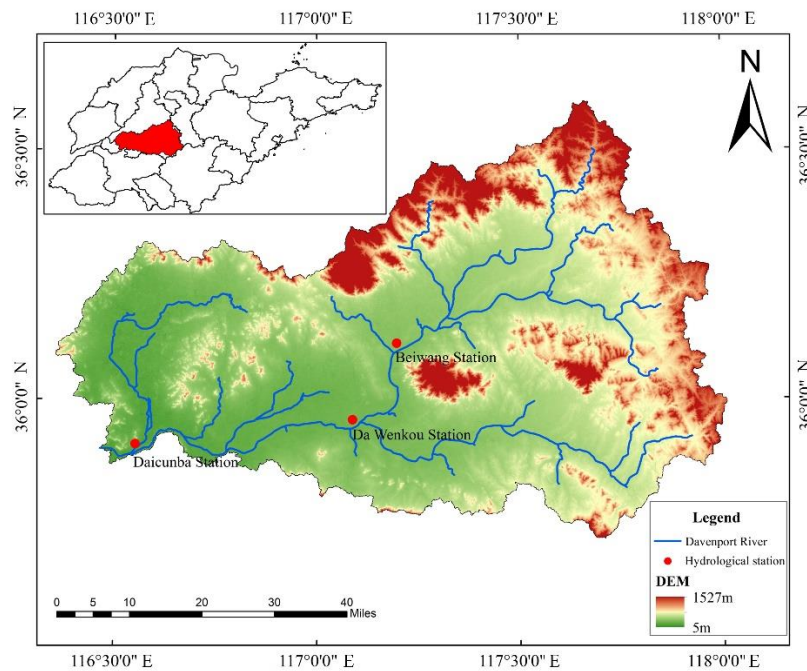
78 Methods

79 Study Area

80 Located in the central part of Shandong Province, China, the Dawen River Basin forms part of the Yellow
81 River Basin (refer to Figure 1). The basin's topography gradually declines from east to west and from
82 north to south, broadening in the east and narrowing in the west. It is bounded to the north by Mount Tai
83 and flanked to the east by the Lushan and Mengshan Mountains, with hills and plains characterizing the

84 western and southern regions. The basin's diverse terrain includes 31% mountainous areas, 37% hilly
85 regions, and hills that rise above 300 meters making up one-sixth of its total area. The soil types within
86 the basin are varied, comprising brown soil, alluvial soil, sandy soil, loamy black soil, and mountain
87 grassland soil, with the latter primarily found at elevations above 1200 meters in the Mount Tai area.
88 Additional sandy soil patches are located west of Dongping Lake. The region is classified within the
89 warm temperate broad-leaved forest zone, with its natural vegetation being relatively sparse in the
90 mountainous areas, which contributes to severe soil erosion. The predominant flora includes pine and
91 cypress in the uplands, while shrubs dominate the lower hilly areas. The plains host plantations of
92 phoenix trees and willows. The basin supports a substantial amount of arable land, mainly cultivated with
93 wheat and corn, alongside extensive orchards and vegetable gardens. A smaller portion of the land
94 supports the cultivation of cash crops like cotton, garlic, and ginger.

95 The Dawen River exhibits an average annual runoff of approximately 1.82 billion cubic meters, with the
96 majority, about 64%, occurring in July and August. The historical peak of annual runoff reached 6.07
97 billion cubic meters in 1964, contrasting sharply with a record low of 500 million cubic meters in 1968.
98 The climate within the basin is characterized by mild temperatures and plentiful rainfall, although
99 precipitation distribution is notably uneven. The bulk of the rainfall, accounting for 75% of the annual
100 total, occurs between June and September.



101
102 **Figure 1.** Location Map of the Dawen River Basin (Upper Dawen River at Daicun Dam)

103 **Data and Sources**

104 Hydrological model establishment requires the following data: DEM (Digital Elevation Model) data; Land
105 use data; Soil type distribution and attribute data; Meteorological data and Streamflow data

106 Soil textures vary in their permeability and absorption rates, significantly influencing the capabilities for
107 rainfall infiltration and runoff generation. For modeling purposes, detailed soil maps and a database
108 containing characteristics of different soil layers—such as hydrological groups, maximum rooting depths,
109 and bulk densities—are essential. In this study, the Harmonized World Soil Database (HWSD) was

110 utilized to extract relevant soil data for the basin. Soil types within the study area were reclassified, and
111 soil parameters recalculated. Cambisol, the predominant soil type, covers 51.58% of the area and is
112 crucial for agricultural production. The next most prevalent soil types, Regosol and Lithosol, collectively
113 constitute about 40% of the study area.

114 Precipitation and temperature are fundamental variables in the global water cycle and surface
115 hydrological processes, serving as key factors in hydrological, meteorological, and ecological studies.
116 These elements are crucial for influencing runoff, as noted in recent research^{29,30}. For this study, the China
117 Meteorological Assimilation Driving Datasets for the SWAT Model (CMADS) were chosen due to their
118 extensive coverage and high resolution, making them a popular tool among researchers for hydrological
119 model simulations. We utilized CMADS to establish the meteorological database for our model, selecting
120 data from 24 meteorological stations within and around the study area. The data, spanning from 2008 to
121 2018, were processed and formatted to be compatible with the SWAT model.

122 Runoff data for this study were sourced from three key hydrological stations within the basin: Daicun
123 Dam Station, Dawenkou Station, and Beiwang Station, as depicted in Figure 1. We utilized monthly
124 runoff data spanning from 2008 to 2013 to calibrate and validate the model.

125 Construction of the SWAT Model

126 The SWAT model, developed by Dr. Jeff Arnold^{31,32} of the United States Department of Agriculture
127 Agricultural Research Service is a distributed hydrological model used to simulate various physical
128 processes occurring within a watershed. These processes are driven by water balance. The model mainly
129 consists of hydrological process sub-models, soil erosion sub-models, and pollution loading sub-models.
130 When simulating surface runoff in the watershed, SWAT often adopts the SCS runoff curve method. The
131 SCS curve number method is a research result concerning the precipitation-runoff relationship. It provides
132 a basis for estimating runoff under various soil and land use types. The specific equation is as follows:

$$133 \quad Q_{surf} = \frac{(R_{day} - I_a)^2}{(R_{day} - I_a + S)} \quad (1)$$

134 Q_{surf} represents the cumulative surface runoff, measured in millimeters (mm); R_{day} represents the
135 rainfall depth on a certain day, measured in millimeters (mm); I_a represents the initial loss, which
136 includes depression storage, interception by vegetation, and infiltration, measured in millimeters (mm); S
137 represents the curve number.

138 The water balance is the foundation of model operation. The water balance equation used in the model is
139 as follows:

$$140 \quad SW_t = SW_0 + \sum_{i=1}^t (R_{day} - Q_{surf} - E_a - W_{seep} - Q_{gw}) \quad (2)$$

141 SW_t represents the final soil moisture content on day i , measured in millimeters (mm); SW_0 represents the
142 initial soil moisture content on day i , measured in millimeters (mm); t represents time; R_{day} represents the
143 precipitation on day i , measured in millimeters (mm); Q_{surf} represents the surface runoff on day i ,
144 measured in millimeters (mm); E_a represents the evapotranspiration on day i , measured in millimeters
145 (mm); W_{seep} represents the percolation and lateral flow of soil layers on day i , measured in millimeters
146 (mm); Q_{gw} represents the groundwater content on day i , measured in millimeters (mm).

147 The SWAT model calculates by dividing the watershed into sub-basins and introducing Hydrological
148 Response Units (HRUs) to replace grids. Sub-basins are formed when the cumulative flow accumulation

149 into the river grid unit exceeds the threshold of the watershed area. HRUs are one of the distinguishing
 150 features of the SWAT model and represent the smallest units for flow routing and water balance
 151 calculations. They refer to homogeneous areas with uniform underlying surfaces, reflecting spatial
 152 heterogeneity in terms of different land use types, soil types, and slope combinations. In this study, based
 153 on watershed DEM data, a watershed area threshold of 8500 hm² was set, dividing the study area into 67
 154 sub-basins and 528 HRUs. To accurately analyze the response of watershed hydrological elements to land
 155 use changes, the thresholds for land use type units were set to 0, while those for soil type and slope were
 156 set to 10% and 5%, respectively.

157 Model Calibration and Validation

158 SWAT-CUP is an independent computer program developed for the calibration, validation, and
 159 uncertainty analysis of SWAT. It is used to optimize SWAT model parameters³³. SWAT-CUP links five
 160 different calibration procedures, which are Sequential Uncertainty Fitting Ver. 2 (SUFI-2)³⁴, Generalized
 161 Likelihood Uncertainty Estimation (GLUE)³⁵, Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO)³⁶, Parameter Solution
 162 (ParaSol)³⁷, and Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)³⁸. The SUFI-2 program is highly effective for
 163 large-scale models that are time-consuming³⁹. Therefore, in this study, the SUFI-2 program was chosen
 164 for model calibration and validation. Global sensitivity analysis was conducted to obtain parameter value
 165 ranges and sensitivity rankings, as shown in Table 1.

166 **Table 1.** Parameter sensitivity analysis

Typology	Sensitivity parameters	Hidden meaning	Range of values	Sensitivity ranking
Runoff	CN2	SCS runoff curve number	-0.2~0.2	1
	SURLAG	Surface runoff lag time	0.05~24	7
Evaporation	ESCO	Soil evaporation compensation factor	0.1~1	6
Soil	SOL_AWC	Soil available water capacity	0~1	9
Main river channel	CH_N2	The Manning coefficient for the main channel	-0.01~0.3	3
	CH_K2	The effective hydraulic conductivity of the main channel bed	-0.01~500	5
Baseflow	ALPHA_BF	Baseflow recession coefficient	0~1	2
	GW_DELAY	Groundwater delay coefficient	30~450	8
	GWQMN	Parameters for shallow groundwater runoff	0~5000	4

167 The simulated runoff results were compared and validated using measured runoff data from three
 168 hydrological stations: Daicun Dam, Dawenkou, and Beiwang. The measured runoff data for the Daicun
 169 Dam station are available from 2008 to 2016. However, all three stations experienced varying degrees of
 170 data loss from 2014 to 2016. Due to these limitations in runoff data, the period from 2008 to 2011 was
 171 selected as the calibration period for the model simulations, while the period from 2012 to 2013 was
 172 chosen for validation. Consistency was maintained between the calibration and validation periods for all
 173 three hydrological stations.

174 The coefficient of determination, R^2 , is a metric used to evaluate the correlation between simulated and
 175 observed values in a model. It represents the consistency of the simulated values with the observed
 176 values. The closer the value of R^2 is to 1, the more closely the simulated values match the observed
 177 values. Typically, an R^2 value greater than 0.6 is considered as the standard for the correlation between
 178 observed and simulated values.

$$R^2 = \frac{\left[\sum_{t=1}^n (Q_{m,i} - \overline{Q_m})(Q_{s,i} - \overline{Q_s}) \right]^2}{\sum_{t=1}^n (Q_{m,i} - \overline{Q_m})^2 \sum_{t=1}^n (Q_{s,i} - \overline{Q_s})^2} \quad (3)$$

179

180 $Q_{m,i}$ represents the observed runoff values, $\overline{Q_m}$ represents the mean of observed runoff values, $Q_{s,i}$
 181 represents the modeled runoff values, $\overline{Q_s}$ represents the mean of modeled runoff values, and n represents
 182 the length of the observed time series.

183 The Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) is a normalized statistical index that determines the variance of
 184 residuals between observed and modeled values. It indicates the deviation between observed and modeled
 185 values and is one of the most commonly used standards for comparing hydrological model simulations
 186 with observed data. The closer its value is to 1, the smaller the deviation between the simulated and
 187 observed values, indicating higher reliability. When $NSE \leq 0.36$, the simulation performance is considered
 188 poor. When $0.36 < NSE < 0.75$ the simulation performance is considered satisfactory. When $NSE \geq 0.75$,
 189 the simulation results are considered good⁴⁰. The formula for calculating the Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency is
 190 as follows:

$$E_{NS} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{t=1}^n (Q_m - Q_0)^2}{\sum_{t=1}^n (Q_m - \overline{Q_m})^2} \quad (4)$$

191

192 Q_m represents the observed flow, Q_0 represents the simulated flow, and $\overline{Q_m}$ represents the multi-year
 193 average observed flow.

194 Random Forest Algorithm

195 The Random Forest algorithm is a fusion algorithm based on decision tree classifiers. Random Forest
 196 regression, on the other hand, is an algorithm based on ensemble learning, which performs the regression
 197 task by constructing multiple decision trees and integrating their predictions⁴¹. In a random forest, each
 198 decision tree is independent and trained on a randomly selected subsample, which effectively reduces the
 199 risk of overfitting. Random forests obtain the final regression results by averaging or weighted averaging
 200 the predictions of multiple decision trees. This ensemble approach helps to improve prediction accuracy
 201 and generalization.

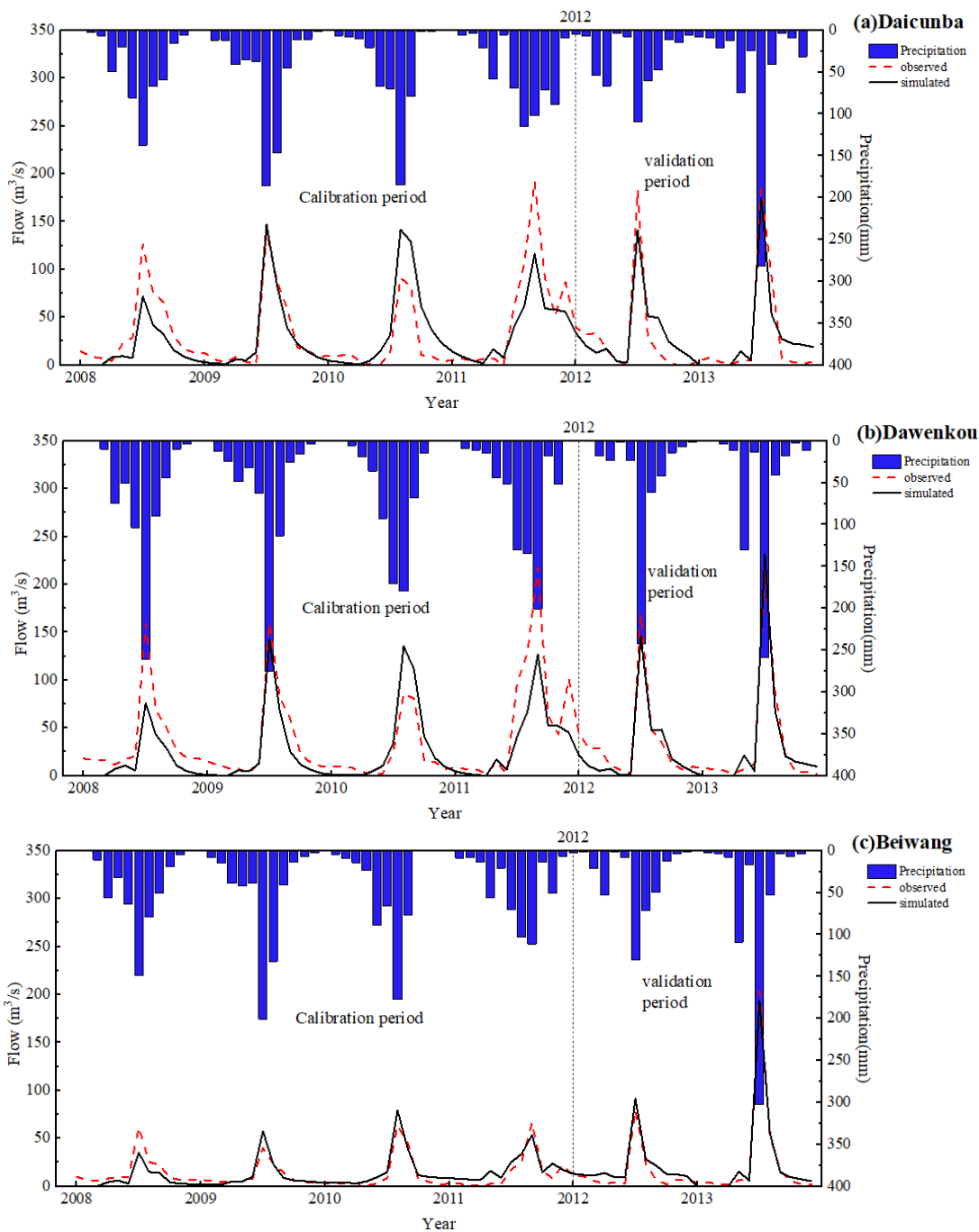
202

203 Results

204 Model Applicability Analysis

205 Figure 2 illustrates the monthly-scale simulated runoff results for the calibration and validation periods at
 206 the Daicun Dam, Dawenkou, and Beiwang stations. It can be observed from the figure that runoff in the
 207 watershed is positively correlated with precipitation. During both the calibration and validation periods,
 208 the simulated monthly-scale runoff values at each hydrological station closely match the observed values,
 209 showing consistent trends. Based on the model evaluation results, the coefficient of determination (R^2)
 210 and Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE) for each station during the calibration period are both greater than

211 0.7. During the validation period, both R^2 and NSE values exceed 0.9, meeting the accuracy requirements
212 of the model.



216 **Figure 2.** Measured and modelled monthly runoff values at hydrological stations
217

218 Analysis of Land Use Change

219 Figure 3 depicts the spatial distribution of land use types in the Dawen River Basin in 1985, 2005, and
220 2021. It can be observed that the overall spatial distribution of land use in the Dawen River Basin from

1985 to 2021 did not change significantly. Arable land, forest land, and grassland are widespread, with arable land being the predominant type, evenly distributed and extending across all parts of the study area. Arable land and urban construction land are mainly concentrated in the plain areas in the western and central parts of the basin, adjacent to rivers, lakes, and other water bodies. Forests and grasslands are primarily located in the northeastern hilly and mountainous areas, with grasslands mostly found at the edges of forested areas. Unutilized land types are scattered in the mountainous areas where the land is not cleared.

Table 2 presents the changes in land use in the Da Wen River Basin during the period from 1985 to 2021. From 1985 to 2021, the area of cropland and grassland decreased by 11.57% and 11.04% respectively, while the area of forestland, water bodies, and built-up areas increased by 11.45%, 111.5%, and 103.85% respectively. Although the area of forestland decreased between 1985 and 2005, it showed an overall increasing trend.

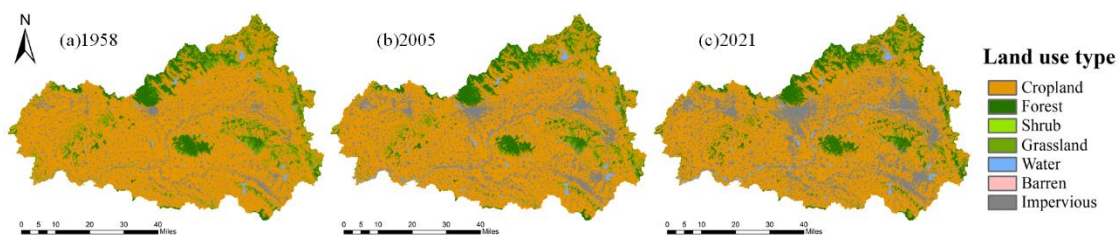


Figure 3. The land use type distribution in the Da Wen River Basin in 1985, 2005, and 2021

Table 2. Changes in land use types over different periods

Land use type	Area (km ²)			Rate of change in area(%)		
	1985	2005	2021	1985-2005	2005-2021	1985-2021
Cropland	5988.81	5652.60	5296.02	-5.61	-6.31	-11.57
Forest	705.59	699.76	786.35	-0.83	12.37	11.45
Shrub	1.25	0.16	0.26	-87.05	60.60	-79.20
Grassland	696.72	495.26	334.17	-28.92	-32.53	-52.04
Water	59.20	115.43	125.21	94.98	8.47	111.50
Barren	2.66	0.39	0.26	-85.35	-32.85	-90.16
Impervious	841.08	1300.68	1714.53	54.64	31.82	103.85

Figure 4 illustrate the structure of land use and transfers over time. Against the backdrop of accelerated urban economic development and urbanization, cropland has become the main source of new expanded built-up areas. Under the policy of returning farmland to forest and grassland, some cropland has been converted into forestland and grassland. However, at the same time, the conversion of grassland to cropland has been significantly stronger than the progress of returning farmland to grassland and returning forestland to grassland projects, leading to a continuous decrease in grassland area and serious degradation of grasslands. Overall, from 1985 to 2021, there have been no significant changes in the overall proportion of land use types in the basin, with cropland remaining the dominant land use type.

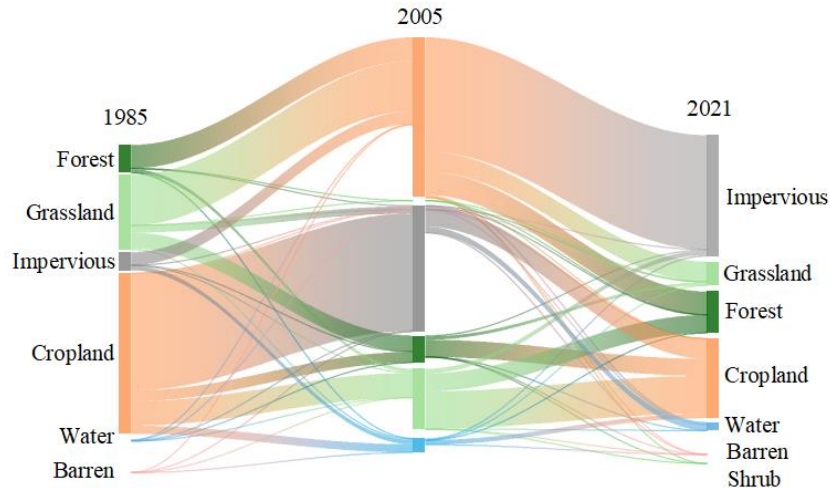
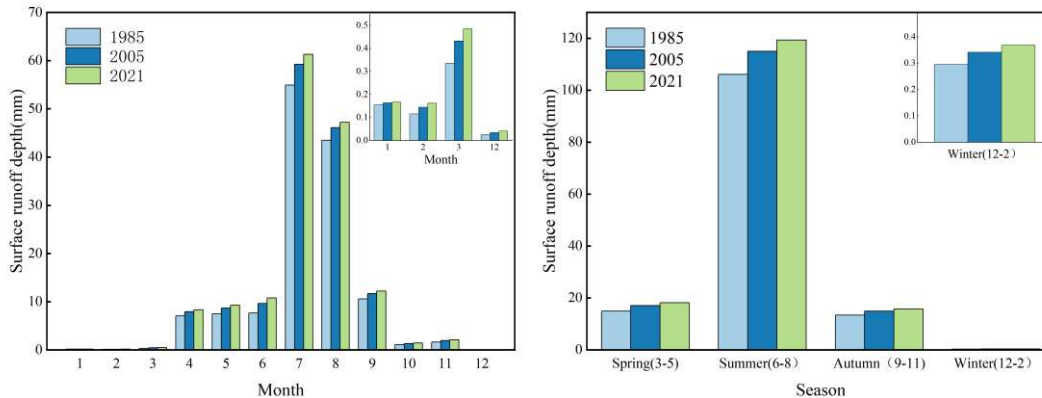


Figure 4. Transitions of land use types over different periods

245
246
247

Analysis of the response of hydrological elements to land use changes

248
249 After inputting land use data from 1985, 2005, and 2021 into the SWAT model, we calculated the average
250 monthly and seasonal surface runoff depths for the basin across various land use scenarios, as illustrated
251 in Figure 5. Under different land use scenarios, the temporal variation of surface runoff depth in the basin
252 exhibits consistency, characterized by uneven distribution throughout the year, distinct boundaries
253 between wet and dry seasons, and significant seasonal differences. The average monthly runoff depth was
254 11.21 mm under the 1985 land use scenario and increased to 12.79 mm by the 2021 scenario, reflecting
255 an increase of 1.58 mm or 14.09%. Among various months, March exhibited the largest variation in
256 runoff, whereas January had the least. Considering the monthly distribution of runoff and seasonal
257 differences, it is evident that land use has a stronger regulatory effect on runoff during the wet season
258 compared to the dry season.



259
260

Figure 5. Average monthly and seasonal surface runoff depth over different periods

261 The results for the annual average evapotranspiration, groundwater recharge, surface runoff depth, and
262 soil moisture under different land use scenarios across the entire basin are presented in Table 3. The

263 trends in hydrological elements are consistent across the three periods. From 1985 to 2005, groundwater
 264 recharge decreased by 13.25 mm, while surface runoff depth increased by 12.69 mm. During this period,
 265 the changes in land use were mainly characterized by a reduction in cropland, grassland, and forestland
 266 areas. The decrease in vegetation cover limited the vegetation's water retention and conservation
 267 functions, resulting in inhibited surface water infiltration, decreased groundwater recharge, and increased
 268 surface runoff. Additionally, the increase in built-up areas led to an increase in impervious surfaces,
 269 further inhibiting surface water infiltration and promoting surface runoff. From 2005 to 2021,
 270 evapotranspiration increased by 7.88 mm, primarily due to an increase in forestland area. Although the
 271 areas of cropland and grassland decreased compared to 2005, forests have higher transpiration rates than
 272 other vegetation types. Moreover, the increase in water bodies also contributed to the promotion of
 273 evapotranspiration. Based on the water balance, with increased evapotranspiration, decreased
 274 groundwater recharge, and increased surface runoff, soil moisture is expected to decrease, consistent with
 275 the model simulation results.

276 **Table 3.** Changes in various hydrological elements across different periods in the basin

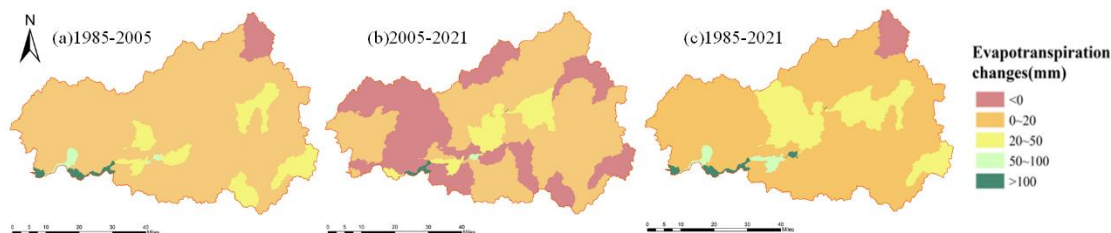
Hydrological elements	Annual mean(mm)			Change(mm)		
	1985	2005	2021	1985-2005	2005-2021	1985-2021
ETmm	260.89	279.54	287.42	18.65	7.88	26.53
GW_Qmm	162.98	149.73	143.34	-13.25	-6.40	-19.64
SURQmm	134.56	147.26	153.50	12.69	6.25	18.94
SWmm	799.63	789.47	777.02	-10.16	-12.45	-22.62

277
 278 Overall, during the study period, changes in land use types in the Da Wen River Basin resulted in an
 279 increase of 26.53 mm in evapotranspiration, a decrease of 19.64 mm in groundwater recharge, an increase
 280 of 18.94 mm in surface runoff depth, and a decrease of 22.62 mm in soil moisture. The main reasons for
 281 these changes are the reduction in cropland and grassland areas and the increase in forestland and built-up
 282 area.

283 Figures 6 to 8 illustrate the changes in evapotranspiration, groundwater recharge, and surface runoff depth
 284 under different land use scenarios at the spatial scale. As shown in Figure 6, from 1985 to 2005, changes
 285 in land use types in the Da Wen River Basin resulted in increased evapotranspiration in most sub-basins,
 286 with only a small area in the northeast showing a decrease in evapotranspiration. From 2005 to 2021, a
 287 decrease in evapotranspiration was observed in the western and marginal areas of the basin, accounting
 288 for approximately 30% of the basin area. The overall increase in evapotranspiration during the entire
 289 study period was mainly influenced by the period from 1985 to 2005.

290 From Figures 7 and 8, it can be observed that from 1985 to 2021, changes in land use in the basin resulted
 291 in a decrease in groundwater recharge in all sub-basins, with an increase in surface runoff depth in all
 292 sub-basins except for a small area in the northeast. There is a consistent and negative correlation between
 293 the changes in groundwater recharge and surface runoff depth across the spatial distribution. The sub-
 294 basins with the greatest decrease in groundwater recharge are also the ones with the greatest increase in
 295 surface runoff depth. In this basin during the study period, there was a continuous reduction in arable land
 296 area and a significant expansion of built-up land, with an increase of up to 215%. In Figure 7(b), there is
 297 an increase in groundwater recharge in some sub-basins in the central and southwestern marginal areas of
 298 the basin, mainly due to an increase in water body area in these regions. In Figure 8, a decrease in surface
 299 runoff depth is observed in a small area in the northeast, primarily due to an increase in forest area in this

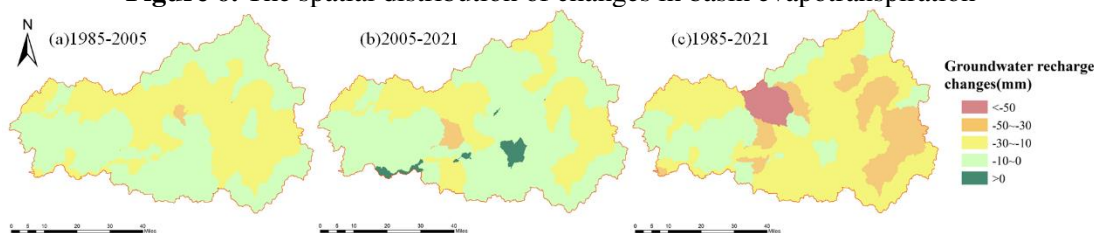
300 region, which increases surface roughness and prolongs the duration of surface water infiltration, thereby
301 reducing surface runoff.



302

303

Figure 6. The spatial distribution of changes in basin evapotranspiration

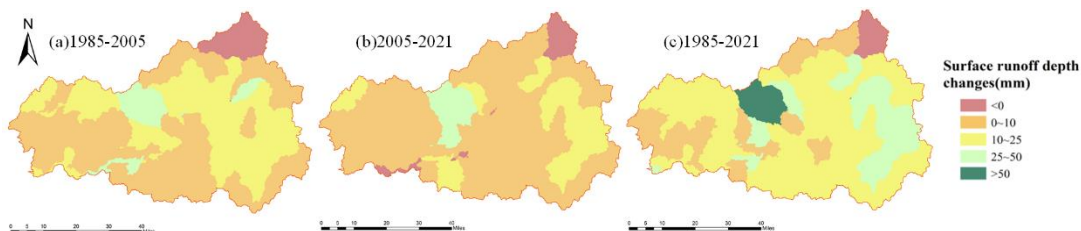


304

305

306

Figure 7. The spatial distribution of changes in basin groundwater recharge



307

308

309

Figure 8 The spatial distribution of changes in basin surface runoff depth

310 Multi-objective decision tree analysis in the Random Forest algorithm quantifies the effects of different
311 land use types on surface runoff depth to analyze the correlation between the two. Using the watershed
312 land use type as the independent variable, considering the hydrological response unit and sub-watershed
313 division, inputting the random forest regression model, the top three land use types that affect the surface
314 runoff depth were calculated to be cropland, forest land, and grassland, with relative importance weight
315 coefficients of 1.0729, 0.9607, and 0.8305, respectively.

316

317 Discussion

318 From the results of the analysis in section 3.1 of this paper, it can be seen that the SWAT model has good
319 applicability in the Dawen River Basin, but there is a large gap between the simulation results and the
320 measured values during the peak summer runoff period, as shown in Figure 2. Most of the peak flows
321 appear to be underestimated, which is similar to the results of many other studies on the application of the
322 SWAT model⁴². This error is acceptable due to the complexity of hydrologic modeling principles and the
323 inherent uncertainty in model calibration. It is important to note that the SWAT model is not calibrated
324 for single-event high flow conditions. Therefore, some discrepancies between simulated and measured
325 values, particularly during peak summer runoff periods, are expected and can be considered reasonable.

326 ⁴³. However, limitations in the model's ability to capture peak flows and low flows can affect the extreme
327 values of surface runoff ⁴⁴, if this hydrologic model is used to quantify the impacts of different land use
328 scenarios on surface runoff, the magnitude of the impacts may be misestimated. But the effect of the
329 model's ability to capture peak flows on the surface runoff LUCC response was not considered in this
330 study and will be further explored in future studies.

331 Drivers of land use change mainly include natural drivers (e.g., geomorphology, natural disasters) and
332 socio-economic drivers (e.g., population growth, industrial development, government behavior)^{45,46}.
333 Natural drivers are relatively stable and have a cumulative effect, while socio-economic drivers are
334 relatively dynamic and have a direct impact on land use change ^{47,48}.

335 In the process of human development, to meet the needs of production and life, people's development and
336 utilization of land have changed the type and distribution of local land use. The total population of Tai'an
337 City was 4.733 million in 1985, and by 2021, the city's total population is projected to reach 5.435
338 million, with a population increase of 702,000 over 37 years. The increase in population in the watershed
339 has caused changes in the land use pattern of the Dawen River Basin, with the area of built-up land
340 expanding. Policy factors are one of the key drivers of changes in land use types in the short term. The
341 1987 "Tai'an Forestry Zoning" stipulates that the construction of mountainous areas should focus on
342 water-sourcing and nutrient forests, leading to an increase in the planting area of forested land. The 2006
343 "Laiwu Municipal Land Use Overall Planning" emphasizes optimizing the spatial pattern of land use,
344 strengthening control over land use in the central urban area, protecting agricultural land, promoting the
345 construction of basic agricultural land, and encouraging the conservation and intensive use of built-up
346 land. These policies have played a significant role in controlling land use changes.

347 The land use data from 1985 and 2021 were applied to the Land Expansion Analysis Strategy (LEAS)
348 module of the PLUS model to simulate and calculate the contribution of driving factors to land use
349 changes in each land use type in the Dawen River Basin. The results are shown in Figure 8. From the
350 figure, it can be observed that the main drivers of cropland expansion in the Dawen River Basin are GDP,
351 temperature, and precipitation. Woodland expansion is mainly driven by GDP, temperature, and slope.
352 Grassland expansion is primarily influenced by slope and distance from roads. Watershed expansion is
353 driven by distance from watershed and precipitation, while impervious surface expansion is influenced by
354 distance from watershed, population, and slope.

355 Evapotranspiration is an essential component of the water cycle and serves as the link between the water
356 and energy cycles. ^{49,50}. In this study, during the analysis of the response of hydrologic elements to
357 changes in land use types, a significant trend of increasing evapotranspiration in the watershed was
358 observed. Since the 1980s, China's climate and subsurface elements have undergone significant changes,
359 most notably characterized by a sustained rise in temperature and widespread greening of vegetation⁵¹.
360 Under the influence of climate and subsurface elements, many studies have shown that terrestrial
361 evapotranspiration in China is increasing significantly^{14,52}. This is consistent with the findings of this
362 paper. However, the reduction of vegetation due to the decrease in the area of cultivated land and
363 grassland, and the increase in the area of impervious surface due to the expansion of construction land in
364 the Dawen River Basin from 1985 to 2021 are factors that inhibit evapotranspiration from the basin,
365 which is inconsistent with the simulation results. Controversy still exists about the impact of land use
366 changes on hydrological processes.

367 The regulatory role of the same land use varies from one watershed to another due to prevailing spatial
368 heterogeneity in climate and subsurface conditions. For example, it has been argued that increased
369 woodland and grassland cover can effectively reduce flood peaks and flood volumes, some scholars have

370 argued that an increase in woodland will lead to an increase in flooding. Chen et al⁵³ argued that the effect
371 of vegetation cover on soil moisture content is still highly controversial due to the strong transpiration and
372 interception of vegetation. Under dense vegetation, soil moisture may be reduced. Conversely, an increase
373 in canopy vegetation shades the soil surface, reducing direct radiation uptake, which leads to a decrease in
374 soil temperatures and evaporation rates, gradually increasing soil moisture. Li et al⁵⁴ found that compared
375 to cropland, forests have a greater capacity for rainfall harvesting and water absorption, and therefore
376 produce lower water yields, which is in line with previous findings by Yang⁵⁵. However, Li et al.⁴⁶
377 showed that the shrinking of the woodland would lead to a gradual decrease in soil moisture, contributing
378 to a slight increase in runoff during the dry period. Therefore, the effect of vegetation cover on soil
379 moisture is complex, with both positive and negative effects, and requires in-depth investigation of the
380 mechanisms of its influence.

381 The hydrological processes in the region are influenced by the combination of climatic and subsurface
382 elements, resulting in a high degree of spatial and temporal heterogeneity. The trends in hydrological
383 processes and the results of attribution of dominant factors obtained from different studies vary widely.
384 Due to the limitations of data and model structure, this study only considered the land use change
385 scenarios, without fully excluding the impacts of climate change and human activities on hydrological
386 elements. This approach has certain limitations. It is important to comprehensively consider the impacts
387 of hydrological elements, including climatic conditions, human activities, and spatial heterogeneity of the
388 watershed, in order to conduct a more comprehensive study on the changes of hydrological elements in
389 the watershed and the attribution of the evolution of hydrological processes. This will be the focus of
390 subsequent work.

391

392 References

393 .

- 394 1 Tsihrintzis, V. A. & Vangelis, H. Water Resources and Environment. *Water Resources*
395 *Management* **32**, 4813-4817 (2018).
- 396 2 Montanari, A. *et al.* "Panta Rhei—Everything Flows": Change in hydrology and society—The
397 IAHS Scientific Decade 2013–2022. *International Association of Scientific Hydrology Bulletin*.
- 398 3 Blschl, G., Bierkens, M. F. P., Chambel, A., Cudennec, C. & Zhang, Y. Twenty-three unsolved
399 problems in hydrology (UPH) – a community perspective. *Hydrological Sciences*
400 *Journal/Journal des Sciences Hydrologiques* **64**, 1141-1158 (2019).
- 401 4 Moran-Tejeda, E., Ceballos-Barbancho, A. & Llorente-Pinto, J. M. Hydrological response of
402 Mediterranean headwaters to climate oscillations and land-cover changes: The mountains of
403 Duero River basin (Central Spain). *Global & Planetary Change* **72**, 39-49 (2010).
- 404 5 Yang, Q. *et al.* Hydrological Responses to Climate and Land-Use Changes along the North
405 American East Coast: A 110-Year Historical Reconstruction. *Jawra Journal of the American*
406 *Water Resources Association* **51**, 47-67 (2015).
- 407 6 Yao, T. *et al.* Third Pole Environment (TPE). *Environmental Development* (2012).
- 408 7 Fan, M. & Shibata, H. Simulation of watershed hydrology and stream water quality under land
409 use and climate change scenarios in Teshio River watershed, northern Japan. *Ecological*
410 *Indicators* **50**, 79-89 (2015).
- 411 8 Geng, L. J. Soil resistance to runoff on steep croplands in Eastern China. *Catena: An*
412 *Interdisciplinary Journal of Soil Science Hydrology-Geomorphology Focusing on Geoecology*
413 *and Landscape Evolution* **152** (2017).

414 9 Lin, J. *et al.* Flow-driven soil erosion processes and the size selectivity of eroded sediment on
415 steep slopes using colluvial deposits in a permanent gully. *Catena* **157**, 47-57 (2017).

416 10 Keesstra, S., Nunes, J., Novara, A., Finger, D. & Cerdà, A. The superior effect of nature based
417 solutions in land management for enhancing ecosystem services. *Science of the Total*
418 *Environment* **610-611**, 997 (2017).

419 11 Gashaw, T., Tulu, T., Argaw, M. & Worqlul, A. W. Modeling the hydrological impacts of land
420 use/land cover changes in the Andassa watershed, Blue Nile Basin, Ethiopia. *Science of The Total*
421 *Environment* **619**, 1394 (2018).

422 12 Marhaento, H., Booi, M. J., Rientjes, T. H. M. & Hoekstra, A. Y. Attribution of changes in the
423 water balance of a tropical catchment to land use change using the SWAT model. *Hydrological*
424 *Processes* **31**, 2029-2040 (2017).

425 13 Warburton, M. L., Schulze, R. E. & Jewitt, G. P. W. Hydrological impacts of land use change in
426 three diverse South African catchments. *Journal of Hydrology* **414**, 118-135 (2012).

427 14 Shujiang, P., Xiaoyan, W., Melching, C. S. & Feger, K. H. Development and testing of a
428 modified SWAT model based on slope condition and precipitation intensity. *Journal of*
429 *Hydrology* **588**, 125098 (2020).

430 15 Bosch, J. M. & Hewlett, J. D. A review of catchment experiments to determine the effect of
431 vegetation changes on water yield and evapotranspiration. *Journal of Hydrology* **55**, 3-23 (1982).

432 16 Li, H., Zhang, Y., Vaze, J. & Wang, B. Separating effects of vegetation change and climate
433 variability using hydrological modelling and sensitivity-based approaches. *Journal of Hydrology*
434 **420**, 403-418 (2012).

435 17 Mwangi, H. M., Julich, S., Patil, S. D., Mcdonald, M. A. & Feger, K. H. Modelling the impact of
436 agroforestry on hydrology of Mara River Basin in East Africa. *Hydrological Processes* **30**, 3139-
437 3155 (2016).

438 18 Li, Z., Liu, W., Zhang, X. & Zheng, F. Impacts of land use change and climate variability on
439 hydrology in an agricultural catchment on the Loess Plateau of China. *Journal of Hydrology* **377**,
440 35-42 (2009).

441 19 Devi, G. K., Ganasri, B. P. & Dwarakish, G. S. in *International Conference on Water Resources,*
442 *Coastal and Ocean Engineering.*

443 20 Wang, G., Yang, H., Wang, L., Xu, Z. & Xue, B. Using the SWAT model to assess impacts of
444 land use changes on runoff generation in headwaters. *Hydrological Processes* **28**, 1032-1042
445 (2014).

446 21 Waseem, M., Kachholz, F., Jens, T. R. & NCKNER. Suitability of common models to estimate
447 hydrology and diffuse water pollution in North-eastern German lowland catchments with
448 intensive agricultural land use. *Frontiers of Agricultural Science and Engineering* **5** (2018).

449 22 Gassman, P. W., Sadeghi, A. M. & Srinivasan, R. Applications of the SWAT Model Special
450 Section: Overview and Insights. *Journal of Environmental Quality* **43** (2014).

451 23 SWAT: model use, calibration, and validation. (Special Issue: Model use, calibration, and
452 validation.). *Transactions of the ASABE* (2012).

453 24 Manoj *et al.* Assessing SWAT models based on single and multi-site calibration for the
454 simulation of flow and nutrient loads in the semi-arid Onkaparinga catchment in South Australia.
455 *Agricultural Water Management* (2016).

456 25 Baker, T. J. & Miller, S. N. Using the Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT) to assess land
457 use impact on water resources in an East African watershed. *Journal of Hydrology* **486**, 100-111
458 (2013).

459 26 Zhang, H. *et al.* Using an improved SWAT model to simulate hydrological responses to land use
460 change: A case study of a catchment in tropical Australia. *Journal of Hydrology* **585** (2020).

461 27 Zhang, Q. Influence of Land Use Change on Hydrological Cycle: Application of SWAT to Su-
462 Mi-Huai Area in Beijing, China. *Water* **12** (2020).

463 28 Hu, J., YipingWang, LijingSun, PengchengZhao, FuboJin, ZhangdongWang, YunqiangQiu,
464 LinjingLian, Yanqing. Impacts of land-use conversions on the water cycle in a typical watershed
465 in the southern Chinese Loess Plateau. *Journal of Hydrology* **593** (2021).

466 29 Li, M. & Shao, Q. An improved statistical approach to merge satellite rainfall estimates and
467 raingauge data. *Journal of Hydrology* **385**, 51-64 (2010).

468 30 Tran, A. P., Bogaert, P., Wiaux, F. O., Vanclooster, M. & Lambot, S. High-resolution space-time
469 quantification of soil moisture along a hillslope using joint analysis of ground penetrating radar
470 and frequency domain reflectometry data. *Journal of Hydrology* **523**, 252-261 (2015).

471 31 Arnold, J. G. & Allen, P. M. AUTOMATED METHODS FOR ESTIMATING BASEFLOW
472 AND GROUND WATER RECHARGE FROM STREAMFLOW RECORDS1. *JAWRA Journal*
473 *of the American Water Resources Association* **35**, 411-424 (1999).

474 32 Arnold, J. G. & Fohrer, N. SWAT2000: current capabilities and research opportunities in applied
475 watershed modelling. *Hydrological Processes* (2005).

476 33 Abbaspour. SWAT-CUP 2012: SWAT Calibration and Uncertainty Programs - A User Manual.
477 (2014).

478 34 Abbaspour, K. C. *et al.* Modelling hydrology and water quality in the pre-alpine/alpine Thur
479 watershed using SWAT. *Elsevier* (2007).

480 35 Beven, K. J. The future of distributed models : Model calibration and uncertainty prediction.
481 *Hydrol. Processes* **6** (1992).

482 36 Zhang, J., Li, Q., Guo, B. & Gong, H. The comparative study of multi-site uncertainty evaluation
483 method based on SWAT model. *Hydrological Processes* **29**, 2994-3009 (2015).

484 37 Van Griensven, A. & Bauwens, W. Multiobjective autocalibration for semidistributed water
485 quality models. *Water Resources Research* **39**, - (2003).

486 38 Marshall, L., Nott, D. & Sharma, A. A comparative study of Markov chain Monte Carlo methods
487 for conceptual rainfall-runoff modeling. *Water Resources Research* **40**, 183-188 (2004).

488 39 Yang, J., Reichert, P., Abbaspour, K., Xia, J. & Yang, H. Comparing uncertainty analysis
489 techniques for a SWAT application to the Chaohe Basin in China. *Journal of Hydrology* **358**, 1-
490 23 (2008).

491 40 Geza, M. & Mccray, J. E. Effects of soil data resolution on SWAT model stream flow and water
492 quality predictions. *Journal of Environmental Management* **88**, 393-406 (2008).

493 41 Dongwen, C. & Rong, G. Random Forest Prediction Model and Its Application to Hydrology
494 Based on Random Drift Particle Swarm Optimization. *Journal of China Three Gorges*
495 *University(Natural Sciences)* (2019).

496 42 Saha, P. P., Zeleke, K. & Hafeez, M. Streamflow modeling in a fluctuant climate using SWAT:
497 Yass River catchment in south eastern Australia. *Environmental Earth Sciences* **71**, 5241-5254
498 (2014).

499 43 Zhang, H., BinLiu, De LiZhang, MingxiFeng, PuyuCheng, LeiYu, QiangEamus, Derek. Impacts
500 of future climate change on water resource availability of eastern Australia: A case study of the
501 Manning River basin. *Journal of Hydrology* **573** (2019).

502 44 Tessema, S. M., Lyon, S. W., Setegn, S. G. & Mrtberg, U. Effects of Different Retention
503 Parameter Estimation Methods on the Prediction of Surface Runoff Using the SCS Curve
504 Number Method. *Water Resources Management* **28**, 3241-3254 (2014).

505 45 Dang, A. N. & Kawasaki, A. Integrating biophysical and socio-economic factors for land-use and
506 land-cover change projection in agricultural economic regions. *Ecological Modelling* **344**, 29-37
507 (2017).

508 46 Li, Y. *et al.* Spatiotemporal impacts of land use land cover changes on hydrology from the
509 mechanism perspective using SWAT model with time-varying parameters. *Nordic Hydrology*
510 (2019).

511 47 Hualin, X., Qu, L. & Guiying, L. Evolution characteristics and driving forces of wetland changes
512 in the Poyang Lake eco-economic zone of China. *Scientific Research & Essays* **9**, 24-34 (2014).

513 48 P. *et al.* Land-cover and land-use change in a Mediterranean landscape: A spatial analysis of
514 driving forces integrating biophysical and human factors. *Applied Geography* **28**, 189-209 (2008).
515 49 Jung, M. *et al.* Recent decline in the global land evapotranspiration trend due to limited moisture
516 supply. *Nature*.
517 50 Fisher, J. B. *et al.* The future of evapotranspiration: Global requirements for ecosystem
518 functioning, carbon and climate feedbacks, agricultural management, and water resources. *Water*
519 *Resources Research* **53** (2017).
520 51 Zhu, Z. *et al.* Greening of the Earth and its drivers. *Nature Climate Change* (2016).
521 52 Bai, P., Liu, X., Zhang, Y. & Liu, C. Assessing the Impacts of Vegetation Greenness Change on
522 Evapotranspiration and Water Yield in China. *Water Resources Research* **56** (2020).
523 53 Chen, X., Zhang, Z., Chen, X. & Shi, P. The impact of land use and land cover changes on soil
524 moisture and hydraulic conductivity along the karst hillslopes of southwest China. *Environmental*
525 *Earth Sciences* **59**, 811-820 (2009).
526 54 Li, L. *et al.* Responses of LAI to rainfall explain contrasting sensitivities to carbon uptake
527 between forest and non-forest ecosystems in Australia. *Scientific Reports* **7**, 11720 (2017).
528 55 Yang, K. & Lu, C. Evaluation of land-use change effects on runoff and soil erosion of a hilly
529 basin — the Yanhe River in the Chinese Loess Plateau. *Land Degradation & Development*
530 (2018).

531 Data availability

532 The ASTER GDEM data set is available at <http://www.gscloud.cn>. Shandong Land Use Current Remote
533 Sensing Monitoring Data is available at <http://www.resdc.cn>. Chinese Soil Type Spatial Distribution Data
534 is available at <http://dx.doi.org/10.3334/ORNLDAAAC/1247>. Chinese Meteorological Assimilation Drive
535 Dataset is available at <https://doi.org/10.3972/westdc.002.2016.db>.
536 <https://cstr.cn/18406.11.westdc.002.2016.db>.

537 Hydrological Station Monthly Scale Runoff Data is available from the corresponding author on
538 reasonable request.

539 Funding

540 This research was funded by Natural Science Foundation of Shandong Province, grant numbers
541 ZR202102220203.

542 Author contributions statements

543 G.W. planned and supervised the project. Y.D., Z.F., J.Z., Y.L. and X.Q. analyzed the data and performed
544 simulations. Y.L. wrote the main manuscript text. All authors reviewed the manuscript

545 Competing interests

546 The authors declare no competing interests.