

1 # RC2

2

3 We sincerely thank you for taking the time to review our manuscript and for providing valuable,
4 professional, and rigorous feedback. Your constructive comments have been crucial in improving
5 the quality of our manuscript. **Based on the comments from reviewers #RC1 and #CC1, we have**
6 **addressed all your comments and, after careful reflection and multiple discussions, made**
7 **comprehensive revisions, along with a detailed response to the revisions.** In response to your
8 feedback, your comments are presented in red font, our responses in black, and the revisions to the
9 manuscript in blue.

10

11 This manuscript addresses groundwater recharge processes in a gully system and aims to quantify
12 recharge rates and pathways using hydrometric, isotopic, and geochemical approaches. While the
13 topic is potentially interesting and relevant to HESS, the manuscript in its current form is poorly
14 written, excessively long, and lacks a clear narrative structure. Moreover, the presentation of the
15 results makes it difficult to assess whether the data adequately support the authors' conclusions.
16 Interpretations are frequently motivated by background knowledge or earlier studies, yet the
17 manuscript does not clearly distinguish between new insights derived from this work and those that
18 primarily serve as contextual or corroborative information. This lack of separation between novelty
19 and background substantially weakens the scientific message. I think substantial revision is required
20 before the scientific contribution can be properly evaluated.

21 **Response:** We agree with your comments regarding the manuscript's structure and expression and
22 have systematically revised it based on your general and specific comments to enhance its
23 readability and academic rigor. The manuscript has been reorganized, redundant sections
24 streamlined, and the logical flow between the Introduction, Methods, Results, and Discussion
25 strengthened. The data analysis and interpretation in the Results section have been clarified to more
26 effectively demonstrate the evidence supporting the conclusions. Additionally, the background
27 information has been refined, with a clearer distinction made between existing research and new
28 insights to highlight the uniqueness and contribution of our work. Below are the specific changes
29 we have made, along with our point-by-point responses to your comments.

30

31

32 **General comments:**

33

34 1. A major issue is that Sections 1-3 contain extensive redundant descriptions, particularly regarding
35 landscape characteristics, hill–gully contrasts, and background motivation. These sections mix site
36 description, conceptual motivation, and literature background in a way that dilutes the main research
37 questions and obscures the novelty of the study. As written, it is often unclear what information is
38 background context, what is specific to the study site, and what directly supports the research
39 objectives.

40 If I understand correctly, Sections 2-3 are primarily intended to function as a Materials / Study Site
41 section, describing landscape structure and hydrological setting. However, the current version
42 repeatedly interweaves general motivation (e.g., importance of gullies vs. hill) with sitespecific
43 descriptions. This mixing weakens the paper's focus and makes the manuscript unnecessarily long.

44 I would suggest the following structural changes:

- 45 • Condense Sections 1–3 substantially, removing repetitive explanations of hill vs. gully processes.
- 46 • Move most general motivation and background discussion to the Introduction.
- 47 • End the Introduction with a clear and concise paragraph that explicitly states why this study site
48 was chosen, what relevant previous work has been conducted here, why this site is particularly
49 suitable for addressing the stated research questions, and what the specific research questions or
50 hypotheses are.

51 Response: Based on your valuable comments regarding the manuscript's structure, we have
52 systematically revised and streamlined Sections 1 to 3 as follows:

- 53 ➤ The original Section 2 has been removed, with its key points integrated into Sections 1
54 and 3.
- 55 ➤ Redundant descriptions have been significantly condensed, especially in the comparison
56 of hilly and gully processes.
- 57 ➤ We have avoided the overlap between general research motivation and specific regional
58 information, improving the coherence and clarity of the manuscript.

59 Additionally, we have explicitly added the scientific rationale for selecting the study area at the
60 end of the Introduction, further clarifying the research questions and goals. These revisions aim to

61 enhance the manuscript's logical focus and narrative clarity, while highlighting the novelty of the
62 study. The specific revisions are as follows:

63 **“1. Introduction”**

64 Groundwater recharge is a critical yet poorly understood component of hydrological cycles in
65 dryland catchments (Li et al., 2024a). It is shaped by the precipitation regime, surface landcover
66 heterogeneity, integrity of the subsurface regolith, characteristics of the underlying bedrock, and
67 human interventions (Vries and Simmers, 2002; Owuor et al., 2016; Salek et al., 2018; Xu and
68 Beekman, 2019; Zhang et al., 2020; Li et al., 2024b; Medici et al., 2024). While favorable subsurface
69 flow pathways can locally enhance recharge, dryland regions are highly sensitive to even slight
70 changes in precipitation, soil moisture, or runoff generation. This heightened sensitivity reflects
71 their position along climatic ecotones and the influence of complex land–atmosphere–biosphere
72 feedbacks (Kuang et al., 2019; Al-Oqaili et al., 2020; He et al., 2020; Jin et al., 2019; Jia et al., 2024).
73 Small changes in these processes can cascade across catchments at various scales, amplifying
74 existing vulnerabilities to ecological and social systems (Nicholson, 2011; Huang et al., 2017; Berg
75 et al., 2016). In these fragile landscapes, understanding groundwater replenishment processes is
76 crucial for sustaining ecosystems, securing water, and guiding restoration and management
77 (Gleeson et al., 2016; Jasechko and Perrone, 2021; Scanlon et al., 2006).

78 Despite a growing body of research on groundwater recharge in (semi-) arid regions, significant
79 knowledge gaps remain in landscapes with pronounced spatial heterogeneity, such as slopes, hilltops,
80 and gully systems, where infiltration pathways and recharge processes can diverge sharply over
81 short distances (Tooth, 2012; Manna et al., 2018; Letz et al., 2021). Gully systems, often seen as
82 signs of land degradation, may beneficially act as recharge zones, capturing and infiltrating surface
83 runoff during episodic rainfall (Tan et al., 2017; Li et al., 2024a; Xue et al., 2025). This same
84 topographic focusing enables the rapid downslope transport of contaminants, including agricultural
85 nutrients, sediments, and associated pollutants (Lian et al., 2025; Qu et al., 2025). However, the role
86 of gullies in promoting vertical infiltration into groundwater is highly dependent on local subsurface
87 connectivity and permeability conditions. Moreover, their broader hydrological functions remain
88 poorly quantified, especially under the influence of widespread human interventions such as check
89 dams and artificial ponds. While these structures are typically designed to arrest land surface
90 degradation, they can substantially alter surface–subsurface connectivity and reshape recharge

91 dynamics in uncertain ways (Lamontagne et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2023).

92 Worldwide, loess covers approximately 6% of the land surface area, forming discontinuous
93 east–west belts in the mid-latitude forest-steppe, steppe, and desert-steppe zones of both
94 hemispheres (Liu, 1985; Pécsi, 1990; Li et al., 2020). Among these, the Chinese Loess Plateau, the
95 focus of our study accounts for approximately 7.4% of the global loess area (635,280 km²; Li et al.,
96 2020). It serves as a globally important natural laboratory for studying soil erosion and groundwater
97 recharge processes, due to its exceptionally thick loess deposits (Li et al., 2021), highly erodible
98 soils, intense summer rainstorms, and long history of agricultural activity, which collectively make
99 it one of the most severely eroded regions worldwide (Shi and Shao, 2000; Fu et al., 2011). Its
100 distinctive stratigraphic structure, characterized by thick, low-permeability loess layers,
101 fundamentally governs groundwater behavior (Qiao et al., 2017). Meanwhile, extensive human
102 interventions aimed at erosion control, including large-scale afforestation and gully engineering
103 projects, have profoundly altered regional hydrological processes and the spatial redistribution of
104 water (Wang et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2024).

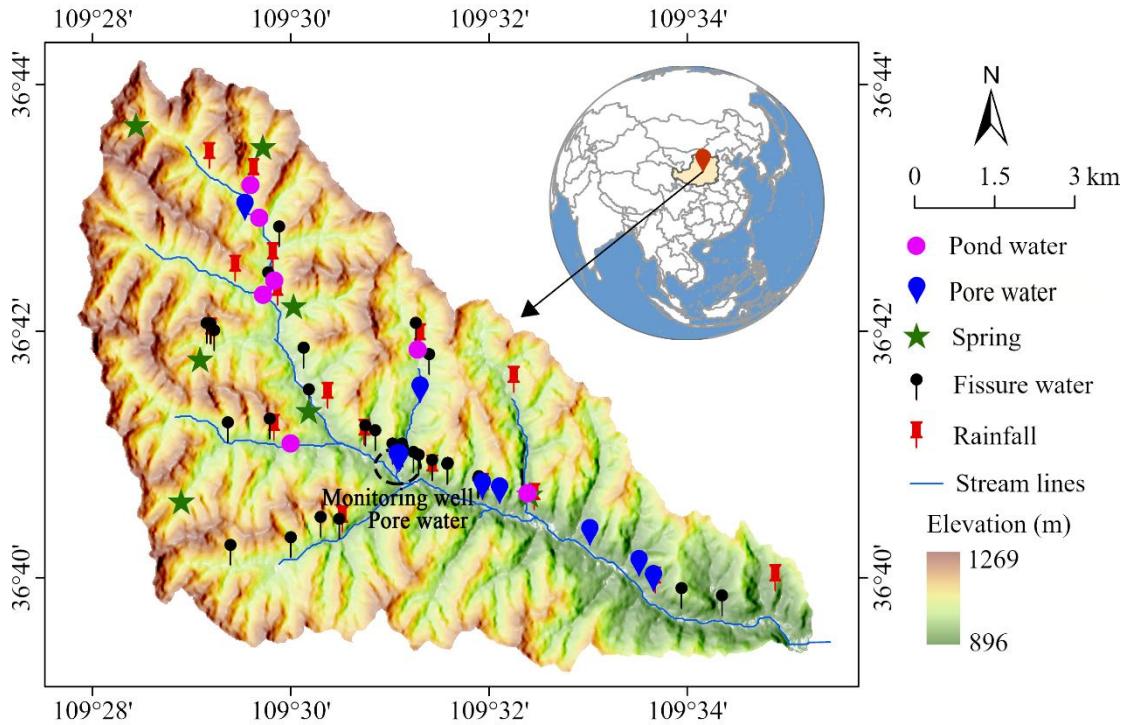
105 The setting for our investigation is a semi-arid landscape that has been shaped by severe soil
106 erosion, extensively modified by engineered landforms; and it is now characterized by chronic water
107 scarcity (Fu et al., 1999; Liu et al., 2017; Liu and Li, 2017; Li et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2024).
108 Water scarcity manifests as declining groundwater levels, reduced streamflow, dried-up wells and
109 springs, and limited irrigation capacity (Yu et al., 2025). In such vulnerable environments,
110 understanding the sources and sustainability of groundwater recharge is critical for long-term water
111 resource management (Ajjur and Baalousha, 2021; Meles et al., 2024). Groundwater, for example,
112 is a lifeline for rural communities in the hilly–gully region, yet scientific attention has largely
113 bypassed the gullies themselves. Most previous studies have focused on recharge processes in
114 tablelands and loess-covered hills, highlighting slow “piston flow” as the dominant mechanism
115 (Huang et al., 2011, 2013; Li et al., 2017; Lu, 2020; Wang et al., 2024). However, the deep-profile
116 recharge mechanisms observed in these areas may not apply to the gully-dominated landscapes of
117 the Loess Plateau (Wang et al., 2024; Qiao et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2018). Moreover, the hydrological
118 functions of widely distributed gully systems, especially under the influence of engineering
119 structures such as check dams, remain insufficiently quantified, and their underlying processes have
120 long remained in the research shadow (Liu et al., 2011).

121 Therefore, this study selects the Nianzhuang Catchment, a typical gully area on the Loess
122 Plateau impacted by check dams, to establish a multi-method framework for assessing groundwater
123 recharge by integrating stable isotope analysis ($\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$), chloride concentrations, water table
124 fluctuations, and hydro-statistical modeling. Specifically, our goals are to: (1) characterize the
125 isotopic and hydrochemical signatures of precipitation, surface water (ponds), shallow pore water,
126 and deeper fissure water; (2) identify and trace hydraulic connections and flow paths of different
127 water bodies; and (3) quantitatively estimate pore-water recharge rates. This integrated approach
128 aims to advance understanding of groundwater dynamics in complex dryland terrains, reframes
129 engineered gully systems as critical recharge zones in engineered dryland landscapes, providing
130 actionable insights for sustainable groundwater management and ecological restoration in the Loess
131 Plateau and similar semi-arid regions worldwide.

132

133 **2. Sampling site**

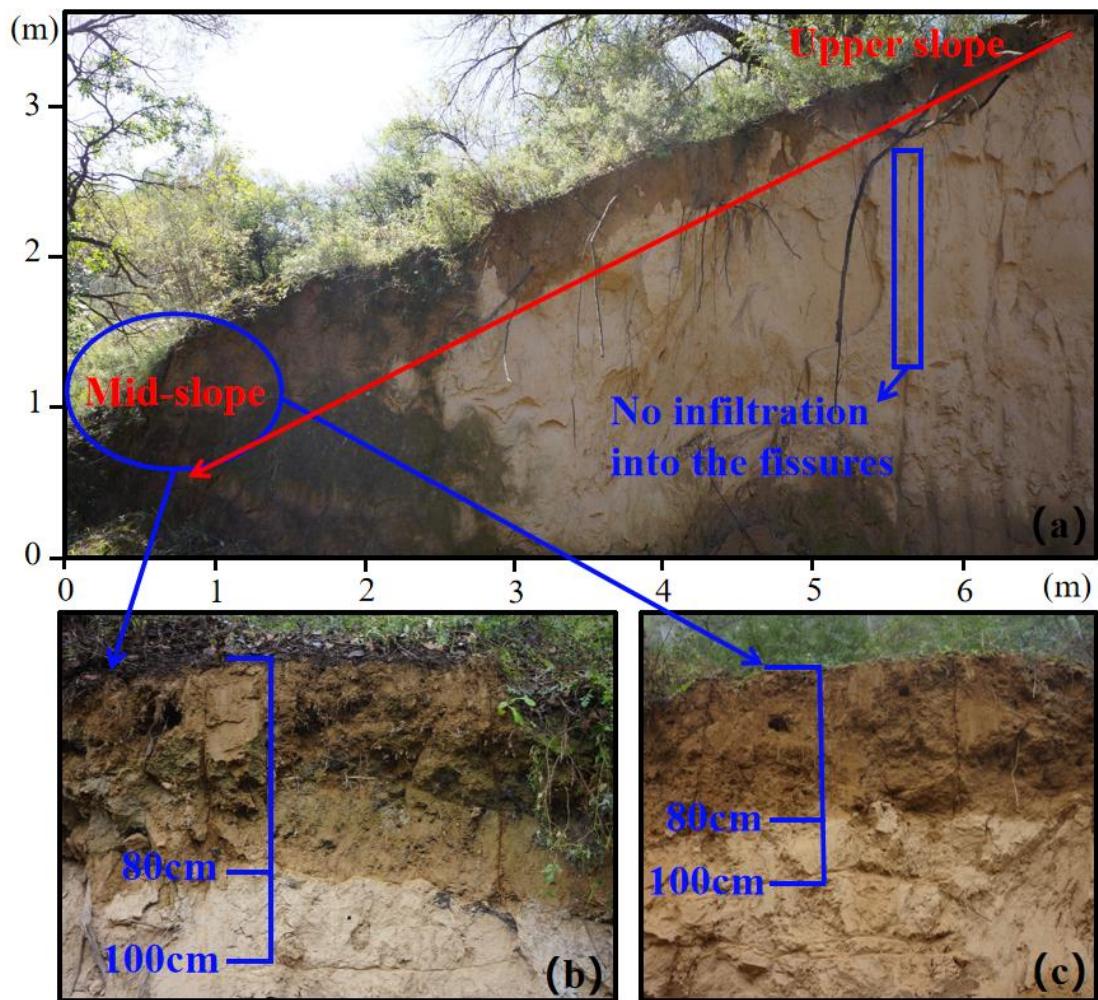
134 The Nianzhuang Catchment is located northwest of Yan'an City in Shaanxi Province, China
135 (approximately $36^{\circ}42'\text{N}$, $109^{\circ}31'\text{E}$). As a tributary of the Yan River, which ultimately flows into the
136 Yellow River, the catchment spans 53.94 km^2 and includes the well-studied Yangjuangou sub-
137 catchment (3.11 km^2 ; $\sim 36^{\circ}35'\text{N}$, $\sim 109^{\circ}32'\text{E}$), previously investigated in numerous hydrological and
138 ecological studies (Fu et al., 1999; Fu et al., 2011; Fu et al., 2017; Liu and Li, 2017). Elevation
139 ranges from 896 to 1,269 m, with terrain gradually sloping from northwest to southeast (Fig. 1). The
140 region experiences a semi-arid continental monsoon climate, with a mean annual precipitation of
141 approximately $550 \pm 100\text{ mm}$, concentrated between July and September (Liu et al., 2017).



142 Fig. 1. The geographical location and sampling sites for rainfall, pond water, pore water, spring
 143 water, and fissure water in the Nianzhuang Catchment. The Nianzhuang Catchment is located in the
 144 hilly and gully region of the central Loess Plateau, with elevations ranging from 896 to 1269 m. The
 145 average depth of pore water wells is 8.0 ± 1.5 m (range: 4–10 m), while that of fissure water wells
 146 is 57.6 ± 29.2 m (range: 25–170 m). These sampling sites represent locations where both rainy and
 147 dry season samples were collected, and are all situated within the gully areas of the catchment.
 148

149
 150 The catchment features highly dissected loess terrain, with characteristic soils and landforms
 151 such as Loess Liang (ridges), Loess Mao (mounds), and steep loess slopes (Cai et al., 2019). Gullies,
 152 often “V”- or “U”-shaped, dominate the lower-lying regions and serve as important recharge zones.
 153 These landforms, together with ancient landslides, minor collapses, and sinkholes, highlight the
 154 geomorphic instability of the Loess Plateau landscape (Li et al., 2021). From May to October 2023,
 155 total rainfall reached 420 mm, with 115 mm in September alone. Despite this substantial
 156 precipitation, field observations revealed shallow infiltration depths on loess slopes even after heavy
 157 rainfall events of up to 41 mm. Infiltration was limited to 20–30 cm at hilltops and about 80 cm at
 158 mid-slope, with no distinct preferential flow and largely unsaturated soil profiles (Fig. 2). These
 159 observations suggest that groundwater recharge occurs mainly through surface or near-surface
 160 runoff converging into engineered gully systems, underscoring their critical role as focused zones

161 of groundwater recharge and key sites for studying these processes.



162

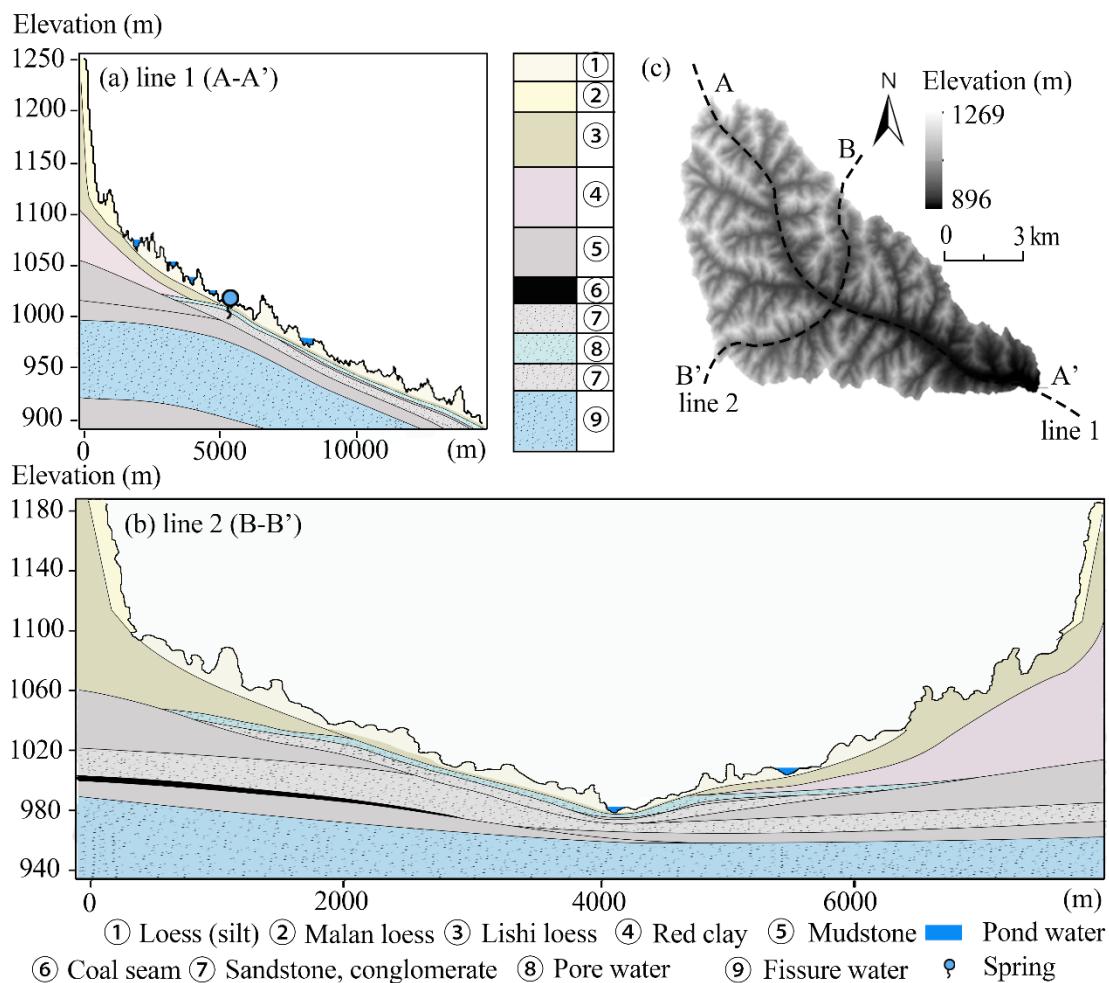
163 Fig. 2. The topographic profile of the Nianzhuang Catchment in the hilly region of the Loess Plateau.
164 Full profile from the top to mid-slope (a); two repeated mid-slope profiles (b, c). The photo was
165 taken after a 41 mm rainfall event over four days. Subsequent measurements showed that infiltration
166 depths reached only 20–30 cm at the top of the slope, compared to approximately 80 cm at the mid-
167 slope positions.

168

169 The stratigraphy of the catchment reflects the typical layered structure of the Loess Plateau,
170 which plays a key role in controlling groundwater recharge. In upland hilly areas, thick loess
171 deposits overlie bedrock, with the Upper Pleistocene Malan Loess, a light grayish-yellow, loosely
172 textured, and silt-rich unit (>60%), characterized by well-developed vertical joints and abundant
173 hematite and goethite. Beneath it lies the Middle Pleistocene Lishi Loess, a grayish-yellow to light
174 brown unit with prominent jointing and higher iron mineral content. Below the loess, the Neogene

175 Red Clay appears as a distinctly reddish, calcareous nodule-bearing aquitard due to its low
 176 permeability. The entire sequence rests on Jurassic sandstone-conglomerate bedrock, composed
 177 mainly of quartz-rich fluvial-lacustrine deposits.

178 Loess thickness in the Liang and Mao regions often exceeds 150 meters, resulting in deep water
 179 tables and limited groundwater accessibility. In contrast, gully zones exhibit distinctly different
 180 hydrogeological characteristics. Here, thinner loess layers overlie Neogene and Jurassic formations,
 181 sometimes interbedded with coal seams up to 5 meters thick (Fig. 3a-c). The significant reduction
 182 in loess thickness, combined with the relatively high permeability of Neogene coarse sandstone and
 183 conglomerate (0.07–0.31 m/d), creates favorable conditions for infiltration and focused recharge.
 184 These dynamics are especially evident at gully heads, where surface runoff from adjacent uplands
 185 converges and infiltrates, forming efficient recharge zones. As a result, gully areas tend to have
 186 shallower water tables and more rapid water renewal, making them more suitable for domestic
 187 groundwater use. Springs frequently emerge at gully bottoms where lateral flow is facilitated at the
 188 loess–bedrock interface. Streams in this dry environment are largely intermittent.



190 Fig. 3. Hydrogeologic cross-section of the study area. Cross-section along Line 1 (Northwest-
191 Southeast) (a); cross-section along Line 2 (Southwest-Northeast) (b); location map of Line 1 and
192 Line 2 within the study area (c). The Malan Loess (11.7–12.6 Ka BP) and Lishi Loess (12.6–78.1
193 Ka BP) are two major Quaternary loess stratigraphic units in China. Based on hydrogeological
194 research, the stratigraphy of the hilly region features a multi-layer structure from top to bottom:
195 Upper Pleistocene Malan Loess, Middle Pleistocene Lishi Loess, Neogene Red Clay and Mudstone
196 (2.58–23.03 Ma BP), and Jurassic Sandstone and Conglomerate (145–201.3 Ma BP). In the gully
197 region, the stratigraphy includes Holocene loess (silt, 11.7 ka BP–present), Middle Pleistocene Lishi
198 Loess, Neogene sandstone and mudstone, and Jurassic sandstone and conglomerate, with some areas
199 containing coal seams up to 5 meters thick.

200

201 Groundwater in the catchment can be broadly categorized into three types: pore water, spring
202 water, and fissure water. Pore water is stored in permeable sandstone and conglomerate aquifers
203 beneath loess and above mudstone or red clay. These aquifers are approximately 2–3 m thick, exhibit
204 a sheet-like distribution, and have low water yield. Conceptually, “pore water” here refers to
205 groundwater in a saturated aquifer, not to soil moisture. Fissure water occurs in fractured bedrock
206 aquifers, which are spatially discontinuous due to irregular fracture development. The main water-
207 bearing zones include cavities and jointed fissure networks, with an average aquifer thickness of
208 about 6 m and moderate water yield. Hydraulic conductivity in these sandstone and conglomerate
209 aquifers ranges from 0 to 0.47 m/d (Cai et al., 2019). Spring water emerges primarily at gully bases,
210 especially in upper catchments, and originates from both pore and fissure sources, possibly
211 supplemented by surface or pond water. Springs fed by pore water typically have low discharge
212 rates (0–0.1 L/s) and low water yield, while those fed by fissure water exhibit moderate discharge
213 rates (0.5–1.0 L/s) and moderate water yield.

214 Over recent decades, landscape rehabilitation through the Grain for Green Project and land
215 reshaping under the Gully Land Consolidation Project have significantly altered the hydrological
216 regime (Fu et al., 1999; Liu et al., 2017). Historically, surface runoff in the degraded catchment was
217 flashy and episodic due to sparse vegetation. However, ecological restoration and small-scale
218 engineering interventions, such as check dams, terraces, roads, and ponds, have moderated surface
219 hydrology. Surface runoff, generated primarily during storm events, now contributes alongside

220 delayed baseflow from groundwater recharge and interflow. The latter is often limited by the thick
221 unsaturated zone in upland loess areas but may be enhanced in gully regions, where stratigraphy
222 and land use favor infiltration (Wang et al., 2024; Gates et al., 2011). Gully areas also contain
223 numerous check dams and ponds, with most water sourced from Hortonian overland flow of slope
224 lands and direct rainfall. These small water bodies, often constructed for erosion control and water
225 retention, influence local hydrological dynamics and may play a role in enhancing infiltration and
226 recharge.”

227

228 2. Interpretation and use of chloride concentrations. The role of chloride as supporting evidence for
229 recharge pathways is repeatedly mentioned but remains vague and weakly justified. And I only
230 found one figure in SI about chloride information, which is also not that informative as the author
231 stated.

232 **Response:** To clarify, stable isotopes ($\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and chloride ions (Cl^-) are distinct tracers, each
233 influenced by hydrological processes through different mechanisms. Stable isotopes are highly
234 sensitive to evaporative fractionation, making them direct indicators for identifying water sources
235 and evaporation history. In contrast, chloride ions generally exhibit conservative behavior during
236 hydrological transport, with concentration changes primarily driven by physical mixing and
237 evaporative concentration, without involvement in isotopic fractionation. This difference allows
238 their combined use to provide more robust and comprehensive information for tracing water sources.
239 In this study, chloride concentrations primarily support the isotope analysis, helping to validate
240 water source mixing and groundwater recharge processes, and confirming that pore water is
241 influenced by both precipitation and the mixing of precipitation with pond water.

242 Since chloride ions are not affected by fractionation during hydrological processes, their
243 concentration changes are primarily driven by water source mixing and evaporation (water loss).
244 Therefore, chloride plays a key role in resolving the “isotopic ambiguity” impacted by evaporation
245 fractionation (open water). Our observational data show that the chloride concentration in pore
246 water falls between that of low-concentration precipitation and high-concentration pond water.
247 Additionally, the correlation between chloride concentration and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ follows a conservative mixing
248 model between precipitation and pond water. This evidence suggests that pore water chemistry
249 changes are influenced by the mixing of chloride-rich pond water, reinforcing the mechanism of

250 pore water recharge through the mixing of precipitation and surface water in the valley system.

251 Following your comments, we have moved the chloride concentration plot to the main text and
252 added the correlation between chloride concentration and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. This presents the key argument more
253 clearly and comprehensively, thereby further enhancing the rigor and persuasiveness of our
254 conclusions.

255

256 For example,

257 • Line 536: The statement that “multiple lines of observational evidence, including isotopic
258 composition, chloride concentrations, and water age (ITTP)” support the identified pathways is too
259 general. The manuscript does not clearly explain how chloride independently supports these
260 conclusions.

261 **Response:** In the original manuscript, line 536 referred to observational evidence such as chloride
262 concentrations and isotopic composition, aiming to provide multi-faceted support for the flow
263 pathways identified by the SEM. To avoid presenting an oversimplified argument and to ensure that
264 the discussion remains focused on the core results and interpretation of the SEM, we have removed
265 this supplementary explanation in the revised manuscript, maintaining both coherence and academic
266 rigor.

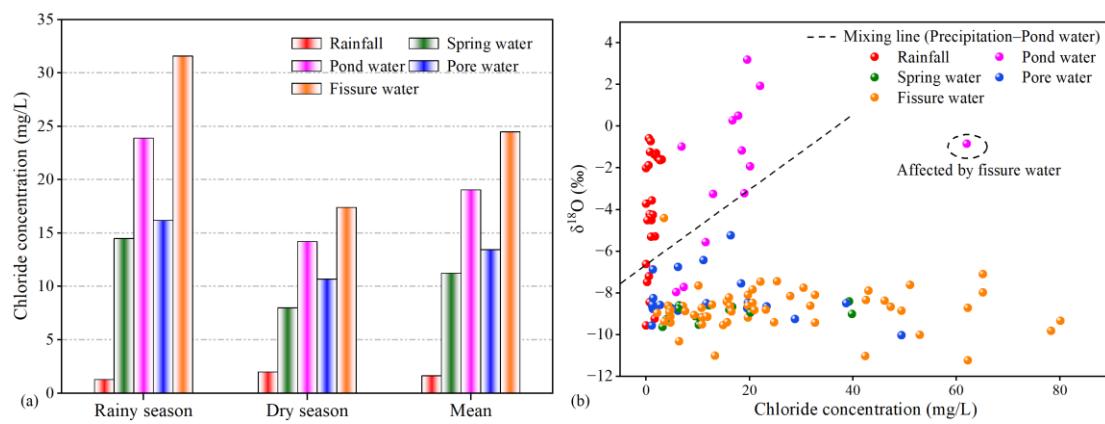
267

268 • Lines 547–552: The argument that similarities in chloride concentrations between pond water and
269 pore water indicate mixed recharge is not logically developed. Chloride patterns alone do not
270 necessarily imply source mixing without additional constraints (e.g., conservative behavior, spatial
271 gradients, mass balance, or exclusion of evaporative concentration effects). The logic linking
272 chloride distributions to the stated conclusions should be clarified and strengthened, or the claims
273 should be toned down.

274 **Response:** Based on your comments, to strengthen the logical rigor of the conclusion regarding the
275 similarity in chloride concentrations between pond water and pore water, we first confirmed the
276 differences in chloride concentrations among various water sources. We then introduced the spatial
277 relationship between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and chloride concentrations to further compare concentration variations
278 across different water bodies at distinct locations. The results indicate a correlation between the
279 distribution patterns of chloride concentrations and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, providing additional support for the

280 hypothesis of potential mixed recharge between pond water and pore water. The specific additions
281 to the manuscript are detailed as follows:

282 "Complementing the isotope data, Cl^- levels in pore water consistently fall between those of
283 precipitation and pond water across both seasons (Fig. 7a), and the correlation pattern between
284 chloride concentration and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ supports a mixed recharge origin for pore water (Fig. 7b). This trend
285 aligns with the isotopic evidence from the rainy season and supports the interpretation that pond
286 water contributes to pore water recharge via vertical percolation through the vadose zone,
287 particularly during high-rainfall periods when infiltration capacity is exceeded.



288 Fig. 7. Chloride concentration of various water sources in the rainy and dry seasons (a), and the
289 spatial relationship between chloride concentration and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for different water sources (b)."

290
291
292 • Line 856-858: The conclusion states "While isotopic evidence for recharge from pond water is
293 obscured by evaporative fractionation, chloride concentrations provide a clear signal of subsurface
294 connectivity." It is not supported by any direct or quantitative results presented in the manuscript. I
295 do not find clear evidence demonstrating such connectivity based on chloride data alone. Moreover,
296 if chloride concentrations are intended to provide critical supporting information for the main
297 conclusions, the relevant figure should be moved from the Supplementary Information to the main
298 text, accompanied by a clearer and more rigorous explanation of how chloride constrains recharge
299 pathways.

300 **Response:** Following your comment, we have provided further evidence of connectivity between
301 pond water and pore water in the main text through both textual explanation and supplementary
302 figures. Additionally, to ensure the conclusions are detailed and well-supported, we have revised the

303 relevant section, with the specific revision as follows:

304 “Through integrated analysis of stable isotopes, chloride concentrations, water-table fluctuations,
305 and inverse transit time proxies, this study provides multiple, convergent lines of evidence that
306 engineered gully reaches on the Loess Plateau function as hydrologically significant recharge zones,
307 rather than solely as products of accelerated erosion and degradation. Precipitation-driven runoff
308 supports substantial recharge to shallow pore aquifers, with site-scale recharge magnitudes
309 equivalent to approximately 43% of mean annual precipitation at the monitored gully reach.
310 Although evaporative fractionation limits the ability of stable isotopes alone to resolve direct
311 recharge from ponded surface water, chloride concentrations provide independent evidence
312 consistent with mixing between pond water and pore water, complementing the isotopic patterns.
313 Together, these indicators indicate likely hydraulic connectivity, while not constituting a mass-
314 balanced quantification of recharge sources. Recharge within shallow gully-zone aquifers is
315 spatially concentrated and temporally selective, governed by topographic convergence, loess
316 stratigraphy, and ecological engineering structures, particularly check dams and ponds, which
317 increase surface-water residence time and promote focused infiltration.”

318

319 **3. Role of surface water.** The Discussion contains extensive statements regarding the large
320 contribution of surface water to gully recharge. However, much of this discussion appears to rely
321 on previous studies rather than direct analyses presented in this manuscript. The authors should
322 clearly distinguish between conclusions derived from their own results, and contextual information
323 drawn from earlier work.

324 **Response:** Thank you for this thoughtful comment regarding the role of surface water. One of the
325 primary objectives of this study is to evaluate the contribution of surface water—represented mainly
326 by pond water—to groundwater recharge in gully systems. Using stable isotope data ($\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$)
327 together with chloride concentrations, we provide direct evidence in the Results section for
328 hydraulic linkage between pond water and pore water. This linkage is further quantified using the
329 structural equation model (SEM), which explicitly evaluates recharge pathways and their relative
330 strengths. The SEM results indicate that the direct effect of pond water on pore water is significantly
331 stronger than that of precipitation, suggesting that pond water acts as an important intermediary in
332 the recharge process within the study catchment.

333 At the same time, we recognize that parts of the Discussion refer to broader hydrological
334 processes that have been documented in previous studies. Following your suggestion, we have
335 carefully revised the Results and Discussion sections to clearly distinguish between conclusions that
336 are directly supported by our data and analyses, and contextual interpretations that are informed by
337 earlier work. Conclusions derived from this study are now explicitly attributed to our observations
338 and modeling results, whereas references to more general gully hydrological functions or the
339 impacts of engineering measures are clearly framed as supporting background. These revisions help
340 clarify the evidentiary basis of our conclusions and strengthen the overall rigor of the manuscript.

341 The main revisions are as follows:

342 “In recent years, discussions of groundwater recharge sources on the Loess Plateau have largely
343 focused on tableland and hilly areas characterized by thick loess deposits, whereas gully regions
344 have received comparatively limited attention (Li et al., 2017; Xiang, 2020; Lu, 2020). For instance,
345 Liu et al. (2011) demonstrated that groundwater near valley bottoms in hilly loess areas can be
346 replenished by a combination of precipitation, runoff, and surface water. Our results are broadly
347 consistent with these earlier findings, but extend them by providing multiple lines of site-specific
348 evidence. Based on stable isotope signatures and chloride concentrations, we independently identify
349 precipitation and surface water as the primary sources of groundwater recharge in gully systems.
350 Furthermore, by applying a structural equation model (SEM), we quantitatively evaluate the relative
351 importance of different recharge pathways, demonstrating that surface water (particularly pond
352 water) plays a key mediating role in transferring precipitation inputs to subsurface pore water.
353 Building on these results, we classify groundwater in the study area into three functional types,
354 spring water, pore water, and fissure water, and propose a progressive, multi-stage recharge
355 framework: (1) direct recharge of pond water by precipitation and indirect recharge of pore water
356 by precipitation; (2) focused recharge from pond water to pore water; and (3) downward percolation
357 from pore water to fissure water. This framework highlights the complexity of groundwater flow
358 and recharge processes in gully-dominated landscapes and underscores the significant influence of
359 human interventions, such as ponds and check dams, on modifying hydrological connectivity and
360 recharge dynamics.”

361 “This conceptual reframing is grounded in the stark hydrological contrasts between hilly uplands
362 and gully systems and directly addresses a critical knowledge gap in understanding the hydrological

363 functioning of managed gully environments. In the hilly uplands, previous studies have shown that
364 thick loess deposits, often exceeding 90 m (including low-permeability aquifers), combined with
365 steep slopes ($>15^\circ$) severely restrict vertical infiltration (Zhu et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2019; Huang
366 et al., 2024). Compounded by short-duration, high-intensity rainfall events that provide insufficient
367 moisture for deep profile wetting, this results in the rapid conversion of rainfall into surface runoff
368 (Li et al., 2021). This study further clarifies that the runoff is systematically funneled downslope
369 into gully systems as a consequence of ecological engineering interventions, such as check dams
370 and retention ponds that intercept and concentrate overland flow. Most infiltration occurs after
371 surface water accumulates in engineered gullies, particularly within perched water bodies like ponds,
372 which subsequently serve as localized recharge foci, a conclusion supported by the isotopic and
373 hydrochemical evidence presented in this study.”

374

375 4. Hill versus gully. The results presented in this study are derived exclusively from the gully system,
376 and the manuscript does not include a direct comparison of recharge behavior between hill and gully
377 settings at the same site and during the same period. As such, the authors should be very cautious in
378 how they frame both the Introduction and the Conclusions, particularly where broader contrasts
379 between hill and gully recharge processes are implied. Given the absence of contemporaneous
380 hillslope observations, statements suggesting relative differences in recharge magnitude or
381 pathways between hill and gullies should be clearly identified as inferences based on previous
382 studies, rather than findings derived from the present work. This distinction is especially important
383 in the conceptual framework and schematic figures, where hill processes appear alongside gully
384 processes without sufficiently clear attribution. One example is the conceptual figure (Fig. 10). I
385 recommend that the authors:

- 386 • Explicitly state which components or pathways are supported by results from this study and which
387 are drawn from previous literature;
- 388 • Redraw the figure to include quantitative or semi-quantitative information (e.g., relative
389 magnitudes, ranges, or percentages of pathways) where supported by data.

390 In its current form, the conceptual figure does not clearly highlight new insights generated by this
391 study, and instead risks reinforcing a narrative largely based on prior work.

392 **Response:** Thank you very much for your constructive comment. In response to your General

393 comment #1, we have thoroughly revised the Introduction section, emphasizing the novelty and
394 scientific significance of groundwater recharge processes in gully areas under engineering
395 interventions. This study specifically focuses on hydrological processes within the valley zone and
396 does not directly address hillslope hydrology. When referring to the hilly area, we have positioned
397 the hillslope solely as a contributing source of runoff into the valley, drawing on previous study
398 findings and our own field observations. The core framework of this study can be summarized as
399 follows: surface runoff from the upland hillslope converges into the gully, where it is intercepted by
400 check dams, forming pond storage that subsequently recharges groundwater.

401 Following your comment, we have redrawn Fig. 10 (in the original manuscript, and now Fig.
402 11 in the revised manuscript) to clearly define the spatial scope of this study as the gully area, with
403 specific annotations for clarity. Accordingly, we have systematically reviewed and revised the
404 Discussion section to ensure that all analyses, inferences, and conclusions are tightly focused on the
405 hydrological processes within the gully area. The revisions are as follows:

406 **“5.4. Revised conceptual model”**

407 To convey our evolving understanding of the spatial structure and dynamics in the Gully
408 Region, we developed a conceptual model that reframes engineered gully systems not simply as
409 erosion features but as hydrologically active conduits for groundwater recharge (Fig. 11). This
410 framework traces precipitation's transformation into subsurface water, from runoff capture and
411 surface ponding in dammed gully reaches, through infiltration in the unsaturated zone, to recharge
412 in both shallow porous aquifer and deeper bedrock fissure systems.

413 This conceptual reframing is grounded in the stark hydrological contrasts between hilly
414 uplands and gully systems and directly addresses a critical knowledge gap in understanding the
415 hydrological functioning of managed gully environments. In the hilly uplands, previous studies have
416 shown that thick loess deposits, often exceeding 90 m (including low-permeability aquifers),
417 combined with steep slopes ($>15^\circ$) severely restrict vertical infiltration (Zhu et al., 2018; Huang et
418 al., 2019; Huang et al., 2024). Compounded by short-duration, high-intensity rainfall events that
419 provide insufficient moisture for deep profile wetting, this results in the rapid conversion of rainfall
420 into surface runoff (Li et al., 2021). This study further clarifies that the runoff is systematically
421 funneled downslope into gully systems as a consequence of ecological engineering interventions,
422 such as check dams and retention ponds that intercept and concentrate overland flow. Most

423 infiltration occurs after surface water accumulates in engineered gullies, particularly within perched
424 water bodies like ponds, which subsequently serve as localized recharge foci, a conclusion
425 supported by the isotopic and hydrochemical evidence presented in this study.

426 Crucially, gully systems possess distinct hydrogeological characteristics: the loess mantle is
427 much thinner (typically < 25 m), and the soils are dominated by silt loam textures with moderate
428 specific yield (0.02–0.05) and high field capacity (21–28%). These properties promote transient
429 water storage and enable temporally delayed and depth-partitioned infiltration. Based on our
430 integrated analyses of stable isotopes, chloride concentrations, and inverse transit time proxies, we
431 find that engineered gullies function not as passive erosional features but as active, managed
432 recharge conduits. This conceptualization captures a critical spatial transition, from runoff
433 generation in the hilly uplands to focused recharge in gully zones, emphasizing the pivotal role of
434 gully systems in regulating groundwater recharge across the Loess Plateau landscape.

435 Combined hydrological monitoring and multi-indicator analysis further reveal that following
436 the rainy season, infiltration depths on hilly slopes are typically shallow (less than 1 m), while
437 groundwater levels in gully areas exhibit pronounced rises exceeding 2 m (Fig. 11). Recharge
438 estimates based on the water table fluctuations reach up to approximately 240 mm at the monitored
439 gully reach, far surpassing values observed in deep unsaturated zones of tablelands and hills (Huang
440 et al., 2011; Li et al., 2017; Lu, 2020; Wang et al., 2024). The results of this study reinforce the role
441 of engineered gully reaches as focal points for groundwater recharge and further quantify site-scale
442 pore-water recharge equivalent to ~43% of mean annual precipitation, a finding that highlights the
443 efficiency of focused infiltration under managed conditions.

444 Liu et al. (2011) found that groundwater near valleys in the hilly loess area is replenished by
445 precipitation, runoff, and surface water. Moreover, fissure water exhibits more depleted isotopic
446 signatures and higher chloride concentrations, indicating deeper percolation of pore water or mixing
447 with older recharge sources (Fig. 11). These patterns, supported by ITTPs and statistical (SEM-
448 based) connectivity indicators, reveal a hierarchical recharge sequence: event-driven infiltration
449 enters a porous shallow aquifer, some of which slowly percolates into deeper fissure zones. This
450 hierarchical mechanism is facilitated by the combination of thin loess mantles, engineered
451 interventions (e.g., check dams and ponds), and delayed hydrological responses.

452 By integrating multiple lines of evidence, this conceptual model redefines engineered gullies

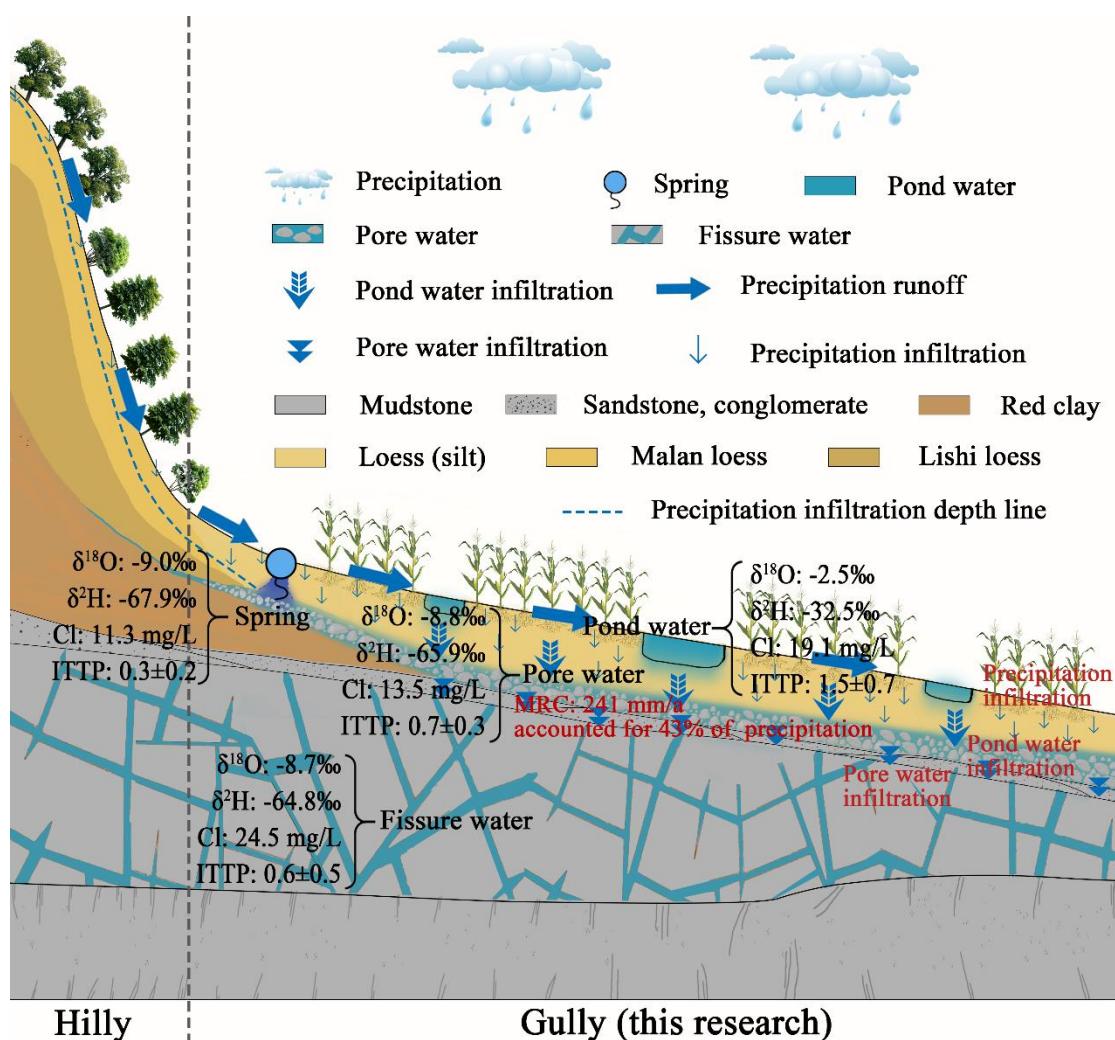
453 as selective recharge corridors whose hydrological function emerges from the interaction between
454 geomorphic structure and human intervention. It challenges the traditional view of gullies as purely
455 erosional landforms and emphasizes their dual hydrological function: acting both as runoff
456 conveyance channels and as transient reservoirs that store and redistribute water across space and
457 time. This recharge capacity is jointly governed by topographic convergence, reduced loess
458 thickness, and the presence of engineered structures such as check dams and retention ponds that
459 increase residence time.

460 Crucially, the model offers insight into the multifunctionality of ecological engineering,
461 particularly check dams and ponds, in enhancing groundwater recharge, and supporting ecosystem
462 restoration across the Loess Plateau. This study proposes a cascade-type recharge framework for
463 engineered gully systems, highlighting the role of engineered gullies as convergence pathways that
464 locally focus infiltration and groundwater recharge. Rather than invoking preferential flow within
465 the soil matrix, this framework emphasizes topographic convergence, stratigraphic thinning, and
466 engineered ponding as the dominant mechanisms that promote spatially concentrated recharge
467 within gully zones. While this process is demonstrated using site-specific tracer and water-table
468 observations, its broader relevance at the catchment scale remains conceptual and warrants further
469 investigation. Furthermore, water movement within the silted loess layer of the gully system remains
470 dominated by a piston flow pattern (Yu et al., 2025). By identifying the pivotal role of gully systems
471 in stormwater detention, delayed infiltration, and depth-partitioned recharge, this study establishes
472 a mechanistically grounded conceptual basis improving water resource allocation, infrastructure
473 planning, and groundwater sustainability in arid and semi-arid regions.

474 However, with the reconstruction of gully systems and ecological restoration, attention must
475 also be given to the potential risks of pollutant migration (Yu et al., 2020). The hydrological
476 functions of gullies may enhance the movement of pollutants into groundwater, especially in areas
477 with intensive human activities, where pollutants can enter engineered gullies through surface runoff
478 and subsequently infiltrate the groundwater system. During ecological restoration, excessive human
479 intervention or soil improvement measures may lead to the accumulation and dispersion of
480 pollutants, which may compromise groundwater security (Liu et al., 2017). Therefore, the protection
481 and rational reconstruction of gully systems should not only focus on their hydrological functions
482 but also consider potential environmental risks, particularly the pathways of pollutant migration.

483 These findings therefore underscore the need to evaluate gully-based restoration strategies within
 484 an integrated water-quality and groundwater-protection framework.

485 The study confirms that hydrologically arrested gully systems can function as critical “recharge
 486 windows” for groundwater in arid areas. This underscores the importance of strategically identifying
 487 and managing gully networks in watershed management, while avoiding excessive filling or
 488 hardening to preserve their hydrological functions. In ecological restoration projects, directing
 489 surface runoff toward engineered gullies under controlled conditions can efficiently convert limited
 490 precipitation into groundwater storage, thereby enhancing regional water retention capacity. Beyond
 491 advancing theoretical understanding of regional hydrological processes, this conceptual model
 492 provides a process-based foundation for developing spatially targeted models of groundwater
 493 recharge in managed dryland landscapes.



497 from top to bottom is Malan loess, Lishi loess, red clay, sandstone, and mudstone. Rainfall infiltration
498 within the Malan loess is less than 1 m, and the area is mainly covered by vegetation. In the gully area,
499 the stratigraphy from top to bottom includes loess (silt), sandstone and conglomerate, and mudstone.
500 Pore water is found within the sandstone and conglomerate, while fissure water occurs in bedrock
501 fractures (mudstone). Numerous check dams or ponds are distributed throughout the gully area. The
502 vertical separation between the pore water and pond water ranges from 3 to 5 m. Corn is the main crop
503 cultivated in this region. Most springs in the study area are located at the junction of the hilly and gully
504 regions and are discharged from pore water.”

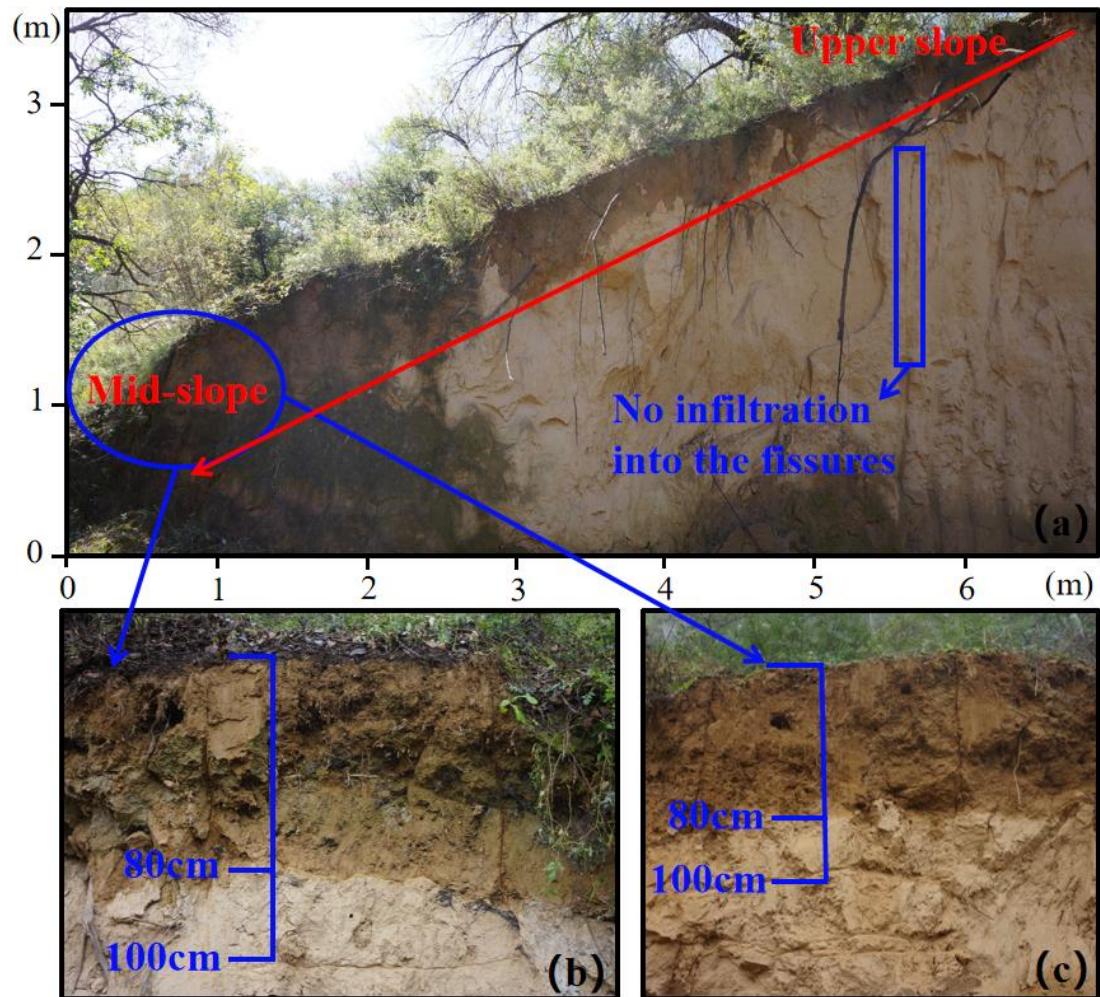
505

506 **Specific comments:**

507

508 1. Fig. 1: Please label the horizontal and vertical scale of the hillslope profile. Without scale
509 information, the geomorphic interpretation is unclear. And consider to switch the order of Fig. 1 and
510 2.

511 **Response:** Following your comment, we have added clear scale information to the hillslope profile.
512 Specifically, both horizontal and vertical scale bars have been included to ensure a clear and accurate
513 interpretation of the geomorphological features. The revised Fig. 2 (in the revised manuscript) is as
514 follows:



515

516 Fig. 2. The topographic profile of the Nianzhuang Catchment in the hilly region of the Loess Plateau.
 517 Full profile from the top to mid-slope (a); two repeated mid-slope profiles (b, c). The photo was
 518 taken after a 41 mm rainfall event over four days. Subsequent measurements showed that infiltration
 519 depths reached only 20–30 cm at the top of the slope, compared to approximately 80 cm at the mid-
 520 slope positions.

521 In response to General comment #1, we have relocated Fig. 1 to the “2. Sampling Sites” section
 522 and swapped the order of Fig. 1 and 2. This adjustment ensures that the figures are arranged logically
 523 to align with the structure of the section content.

524

525 2. Lines 272–273: The relationship between groundwater level and water pressure is introduced
 526 without sufficient justification. Why were these parameters selected over others? Please clarify the
 527 physical reasoning.

528 **Response:** According to the principles of hydrostatics, the hydrostatic pressure P at the sensor is

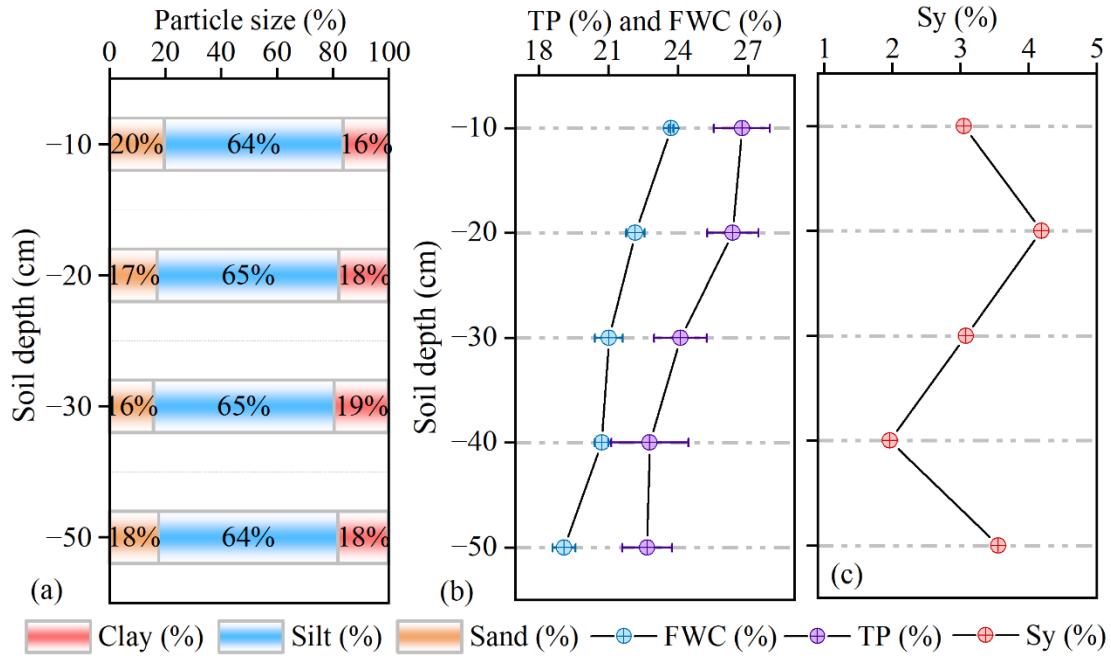
529 related to the height h of the overlying water column by $P=\rho gh$, where ρ is the water density and g
530 is the gravitational acceleration. In an unconfined aquifer, the pressure measured by the sensor
531 corresponds to the hydrostatic pressure exerted by the overlying water column. This allows for the
532 calculation of the water column height h , and, combined with the sensor's elevation, the depth to
533 the groundwater table can be determined. This method, based on the classical hydrostatic
534 equilibrium principle, is a standard hydrological monitoring technique with a solid physical
535 foundation and reliable measurement accuracy. Relevant content has been added to the manuscript,
536 as detailed below:

537 “Precipitation was collected from October 24, 2023, to October 24, 2024, using a weather station
538 situated in an open field within the catchment. Continuous groundwater level data were recorded
539 from September 24, 2023, to December 20, 2024. **Groundwater pressure and temperature were**
540 **monitored using Onset HOBO U20-001-03 sensors (20 m range), with a pressure accuracy of**
541 **$\pm 0.3\% \text{ FS}$ ($\pm 2.55 \text{ kPa}$) and a resolution of $<0.085 \text{ kPa}$, and a temperature accuracy of $\pm 0.44^\circ\text{C}$**
542 **with a resolution of 0.1°C . The sensor was calibrated to atmospheric pressure before**
543 **installation to ensure accurate measurement of absolute static water pressure, and water table**
544 **levels were calculated based on the measured pressure data.** The conversion relationship
545 between water pressure and groundwater level is given by $Y = 0.86 \times X - 22.1$ where Y
546 represents the groundwater level and X represents the water pressure. **The conversion between**
547 **water pressure and groundwater level is based on the principle of hydrostatics.** The
548 **hydrostatic pressure P at the sensor is related to the height of the overlying water column h**
549 **by $P=\rho gh$, where ρ is the water density and g is the gravitational acceleration.** In unconfined
550 **aquifer, the pressure measured by the sensor corresponds directly to the static pressure**
551 **exerted by the overlying water column. From this, the water column height h can be calculated,**
552 **and combined with the sensor's installation elevation, the depth to the groundwater table can**
553 **be determined.** Notably, the monitoring well is located in the pore water layer of the gully region.
554 The well is hand-dug (1.1 m wide, 10 m deep) and is unaffected by human activities.”

555
556 3. Lines 428–430 / Fig. 4c: Fig. 4c does not show a consistently decreasing trend of specific yield
557 with depth. The statement that “Specific yield (Sy) peaks at -20 cm (4.5%) but decreases with depth”
558 is not convincingly supported by the figure. The interpretation that deeper layers “store water with

559 minimal drainage" therefore appears overstated and should be revised or better supported.

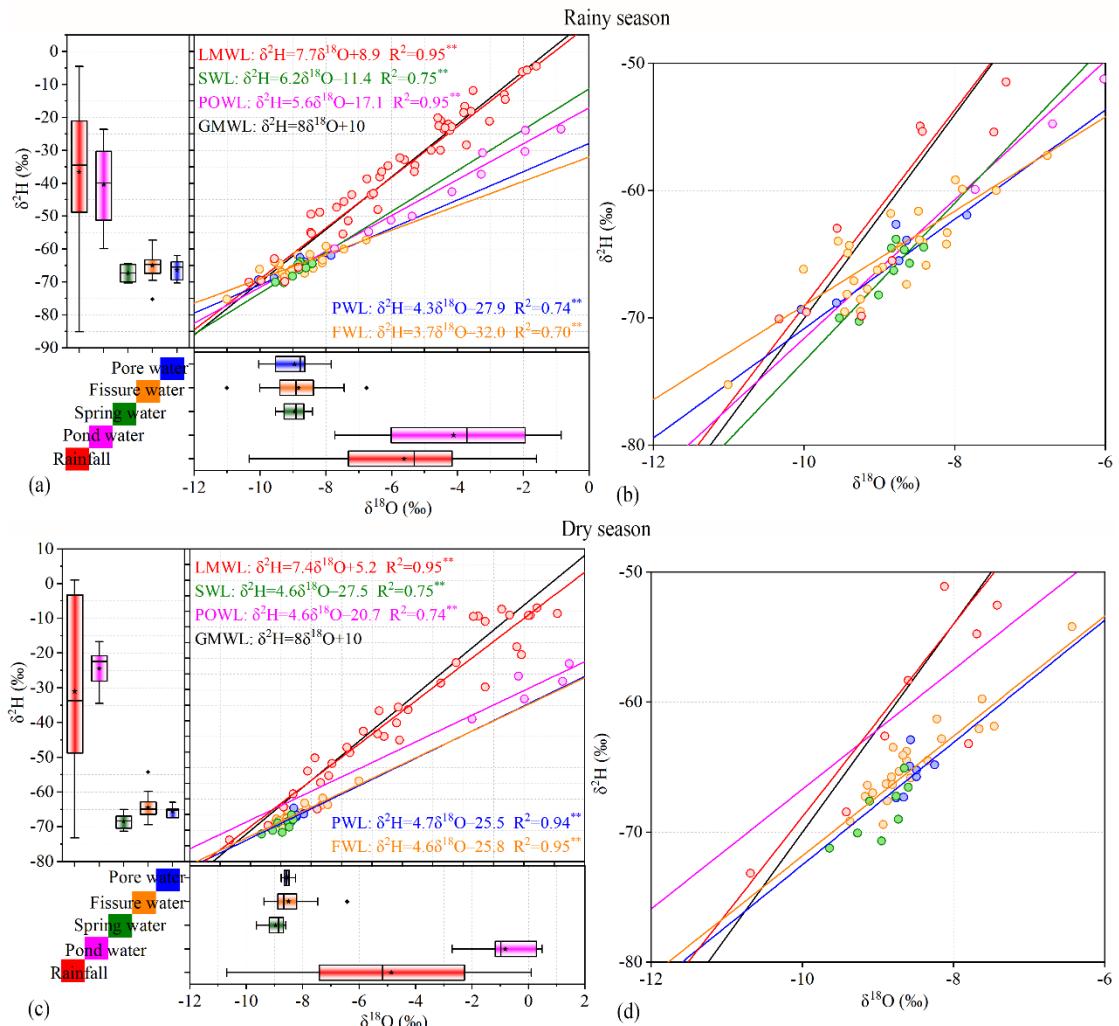
560 **Response:** Following your comment, we have revised the figure captions. The specific revisions
561 are as follows:



571
572
573
574 4. Fig. 5: The current representation of rainy versus dry seasons is unclear. The figure does not
575 effectively illustrate isotopic differences between seasons, making the associated text difficult to
576 support. Presenting seasonal mean values (or distributions) for each water type would likely convey
577 the message more clearly.

578 **Response:** We agree with your comment that Fig. 5 provides relatively limited information on

579 isotopic data for the wet and dry seasons. To more systematically and comprehensively present the
 580 seasonal characteristics of isotopic values across various water bodies, we have supplemented the
 581 data in Fig. 6 and Table A2 in the original manuscript. Specifically, the box plots in Fig. 6 visually
 582 display the distribution range, median, and variability of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$ for each water source during
 583 both wet and dry seasons, facilitating comparison of overall seasonal differences and variation
 584 patterns. Table A2 provides statistical metrics, such as mean values and standard deviations, for each
 585 water type's isotopes during both seasons, enabling a quantitative comparison. The specific details
 586 are as follows:



587
 588 Fig. 6. Dual stable isotopic compositions of rainfall, pond water, spring water, pore water, and
 589 fissure water during the rainy season and dry season in the gully region of the Loess Plateau. The
 590 black line represents the global meteoric water line (GMWL, $\delta^2\text{H}=10 + 8\delta^{18}\text{O}$). GMWL is the global
 591 meteoric water line of Craig, LMWL is the local meteoric water line, SWL is the spring water line,
 592 POWL is the pond water line, FWL is the fissure water line, and PWL is the pore water line. Panels

593 (b) and (d) are magnified views of (a) and (c), respectively, highlighting the isotopic compositions
594 of pore water, fissure water, and spring water (x-axis: -12 to -6‰; y-axis: -80 to -50‰).

595

596 Table A2. Isotopic composition ($\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$) of various water sources in the rainy and dry seasons

	Rainy season		Dry season	
	$\delta^2\text{H}$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	$\delta^2\text{H}$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$
Rainfall	-36.6±20.4‰	-5.6±2.3‰	-31.0±23.2‰	-4.9±3.0‰
Pond water	-40.5±13.1‰	-4.1±2.3‰	-24.5±6.9‰	-0.8±1.3‰
Spring water	-67.3±2.6‰	-9.0±0.4‰	-68.4±2.2‰	-9.0±0.4‰
Pore water	-66.3±3.1‰	-9.0±0.6‰	-65.4±3.8‰	-8.5±0.6‰
Fissure water	-65.0±3.8‰	-8.8±0.9‰	-64.5±5.5‰	-8.5±0.9‰

597

598 5. Fig. 8: The meaning of “direct effects” and “total effects” is not clearly explained. Please clarify
599 these terms explicitly in the caption and main text.

600 **Response:** Following your comment, we have added explanations of “direct effects” and “total
601 effects” in the figure caption and methods section of the manuscript.

602 “Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) has been widely applied in water science to evaluate complex
603 relationships among hydrological, geological, and anthropogenic variables, particularly in studies
604 of groundwater contamination and water quality degradation (Wu, 2010; Lupi et al., 2019; Xie et
605 al., 2025). In this study, SEM is used explicitly as an exploratory, hypothesis-generating tool to
606 assess potential hydrological connectivity among water sources based on dual-isotope ($\delta^2\text{H}$ - $\delta^{18}\text{O}$)
607 data from rainfall, pond water, spring water, pore water, and fissure water. SEM is not a mass-
608 conserving or process-based flow model, nor is it used here to infer volumetric fluxes, recharge
609 rates, or source apportionment. Instead, it serves as a statistical consistency check on hypothesized
610 connectivity, identifying direct and indirect associations among water bodies that are evaluated in
611 conjunction with tracer evidence and hydrometric observations.

612 Within the SEM framework, path relationships are primarily explained through two types of
613 effects: The direct effect refers to the immediate impact of one variable on another through a single
614 path, typically quantified as a standardized regression coefficient. Total effect represents the overall

615 impact of one variable on another through all possible paths (including both direct and indirect),
616 calculated as the sum of the direct effect and all indirect effects. Comparing direct and total effects
617 allows identification of intermediary linkages and dominant association structures within the
618 hypothesized connectivity network.”

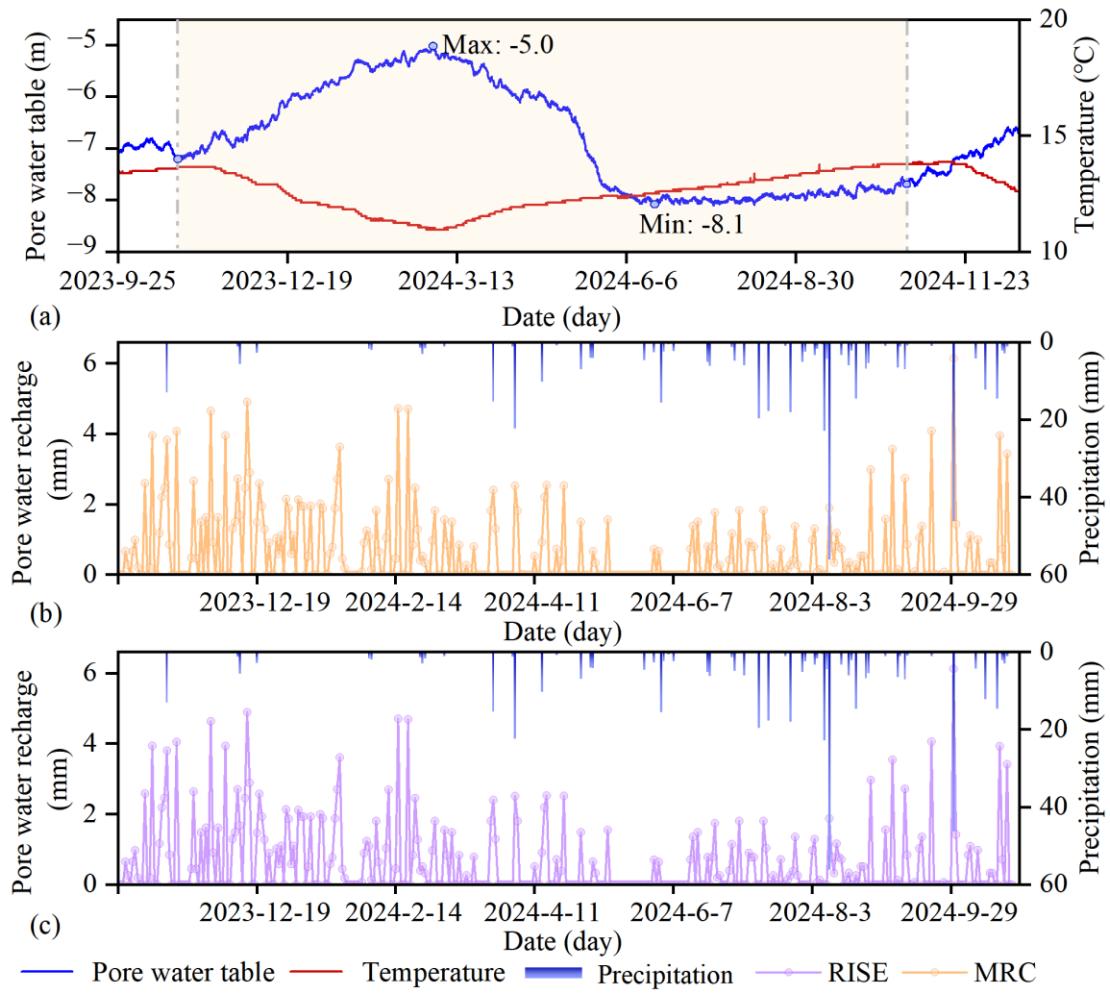
619 “Fig. 9. Structural equation modeling (SEM) and variance partitioning results illustrating hydraulic
620 connectivity among water sources in the gully region of the Loess Plateau. Panels (a) and (b) show
621 the standardized direct (a) and total effects (b) among rainfall, pond water, pore water, spring water,
622 and fissure water, based on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^2\text{H}$ data. **In SEM, the total effect includes both direct**
623 **pathways (a; e.g., rainfall → pore water) and indirect pathways mediated by other variables**
624 **(b; e.g., rainfall → pond water → pore water).** Arrows indicate hypothesized water flow pathways,
625 with line thickness proportional to effect size. Asterisks denote statistical significance (* $P < 0.05$,
626 ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$). The model fit is excellent ($\chi^2 = 0.3$, $df = 2$, $RMSEA = 0.009$, $CFI = 1.0$,
627 $NFI = 0.994$), supporting the robustness of these inferred connections. Panels (c) and (d) present
628 variance partitioning results showing the relative contributions of source waters to pore water and
629 fissure water during the rainy and dry seasons, respectively. In panel (c), rainfall (red) and pond
630 water (pink) explain a large portion of pore water variability, with some shared explanatory power
631 and modest residuals. In panel (d), fissure water reflects a more complex origin, with contributions
632 from rainfall (red), pond water (pink), and pore water (blue), and greater overlap and residuals,
633 especially during the dry season.”

634

635 6. Fig. 9: The lines representing the “RISE” and “MRC” methods are not clearly distinguishable in
636 the figure.

637 **Response:** In the original manuscript, the “RISE” and “MRC” curves were plotted on the same axis
638 to facilitate a direct comparison of their results. As you rightly observed, the close similarity between
639 the two methods made the lines difficult to distinguish, which compromised the clarity and
640 effectiveness of the information presented.

641 Based on your comment, we have redrawn and optimized Fig. 9 (in the original manuscript,
642 and now Fig. 10 in the revised manuscript) and revised its caption accordingly. The specific
643 revisions are as follows:



644
645 Fig. 10. Temporal dynamics of pore water table depth, temperature, precipitation, and recharge in
646 the gully region of the Loess Plateau. (a) Daily time series of pore water table depth (blue line) and
647 surface temperature (red line) from September 2023 to November 2024. The water table fluctuates
648 seasonally, rising from \sim 8.1 m in late summer to a maximum of \sim 5.0 m in early spring (March
649 2024), indicating delayed infiltration and cool-season recharge. (b) Daily precipitation (blue bars)
650 and modeled pore water recharge estimates using the MRC methods. (c) Daily precipitation
651 (blue bars) and modeled pore water recharge estimates using the RISE methods. Most recharge
652 events occur from October to April, even when rainfall is not especially high, while warm-season
653 precipitation contributes little to recharge, likely due to increased evaporative losses and shallow
654 soil retention. Together, these patterns suggest strong seasonal control on recharge processes, with
655 effective infiltration primarily occurring during cooler, low-evaporation periods.