

# Global Stable Isotope Dataset for Surface Water

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**Abstract:** Hydrogen and oxygen-stable isotopes are widely used as tracers of the water cycle, and surface water is an integral part of the water cycle. Compared with other water bodies, surface water is more susceptible to different natural and anthropogenic factors, and an accurate understanding of surface water changes is of great significance in ensuring regional water security, maintaining ecological balance, and promoting sustainable economic and social development. The spatial and temporal distribution of global surface water stable isotope data is extremely uneven on a global scale due to factors such as observation conditions and instrumental analysis. For this reason, we have compiled and analyzed the stable hydrogen and oxygen isotope data in surface water from 22,389 sampling stations worldwide from 1956 to 2023, with 102,511 data records. The results found: (1) global surface water stable isotopes are gradually depleted from the equator to the poles and from the coast to the interior. However, there are significant differences in the spatial and temporal distributions of surface water isotopes in different regions. (2) The variation of stable isotopes in surface water is controlled by geographic location, topographic conditions, and meteorological factors (especially temperature), and its heterogeneity is considerable. The global stable isotope dataset of surface water provides vital information for an in-depth understanding of the water cycle and climate change. It can provide essential data references for global water resource management and researches. The Global Surface Water Stable Isotope

30 Dataset is available at <https://doi.org/10.17632/fs7rwp7fpr.2> (Zhu, 2024).

31 **Keywords:** Stable isotopes; Surface Water; Global Dataset

## 32 **1.Introduction**

33 Water resources are an essential material basis for human survival and indispensable for  
34 maintaining sustainable local socio-economic development, preserving ecological health, and  
35 maintaining ecosystem stability (Immerzeel et al., 2020; Mehta et al., 2024). Due to human  
36 activity and climate change, global hydrological systems have changed in recent decades,  
37 increasing ecological vulnerability and sensitivity to climate change (Chahine, 1992; Liu et al.,  
38 2021; Satoh et al., 2022). Hydrogen and oxygen isotopes, as a kind of stable isotopes widely  
39 present in the water column (Reckerth et al., 2017; Sprenger et al., 2016), are an important method  
40 for conducting water cycle studies and have an essential indicative role in the study of the water  
41 cycle (Aggarwal et al., 2007; Joussaume et al., 1984; Vystavna et al., 2021). However, due to  
42 restrictions imposed by their conditions in various regions of the world, there are a number of  
43 difficulties and constraints in the gathering, integrating, and analysing of current stable isotope  
44 data for surface water (Chen et al., 2020; Penna et al., 2018).

45 Since 1960, the Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation (GNIP) was created by the  
46 International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) and the World Meteorological Organization (WMO),  
47 with the aim of constructing a worldwide monitoring network focusing on the in-depth study of  
48 hydrogen and oxygen isotopes in precipitation (Aggarwal et al., 2012). Compared to global stable  
49 isotope monitoring of precipitation, global surface water monitoring is lagging behind. In 2002,  
50 the IAEA started building the Global Network of Isotopes in Rivers (GNIR), which aims to study  
51 the interactions between surface water and groundwater using stable isotopes in runoff and to  
52 identify the effects of climate change on river runoff and the effects of human activity on riverine  
53 variability (Halder et al., 2015). Many academics worldwide have studied the stable isotope  
54 composition of surface water, Scholars around the world for surface water stable isotope research  
55 has achieved many results, a researcher using the U.S. river water stable isotope data, mapped the  
56 isotope distribution of U.S. river water, and use the model to analyze the U.S. river water isotope  
57 changes (Bowen et al., 2011; Dutton et al., 2005). In addition, the stable isotope composition of  
58 surface water is affected by a variety of hydrological processes such as precipitation, evaporation,

59 surface runoff, etc., and can therefore provide valuable information on water cycle processes,  
60 water resource management, and the impacts of climate change (Bowen et al., 2019; Darling, 2004;  
61 Schulte et al., 2011). The source, flow, accumulation, and change rule of surface water can be  
62 thoroughly understood by analysing and interpreting stable isotope data, which can offer a  
63 scientific foundation for water resource management, water resource assessment, and ecological  
64 and environmental protection (Dudley et al., 2022). In addition, surface water, as a "link" between  
65 groundwater and precipitation (Cooley et al., 2021), offers fresh scientific perspectives on a  
66 variety of hydrogeological phenomena, including the hydrogeologic evolution of the basin  
67 (Bershaw et al., 2016), groundwater-surface water interactions (Autio et al., 2023), groundwater  
68 recharge (Jameel et al., 2023), and precipitation processes (Reckerth et al., 2017).

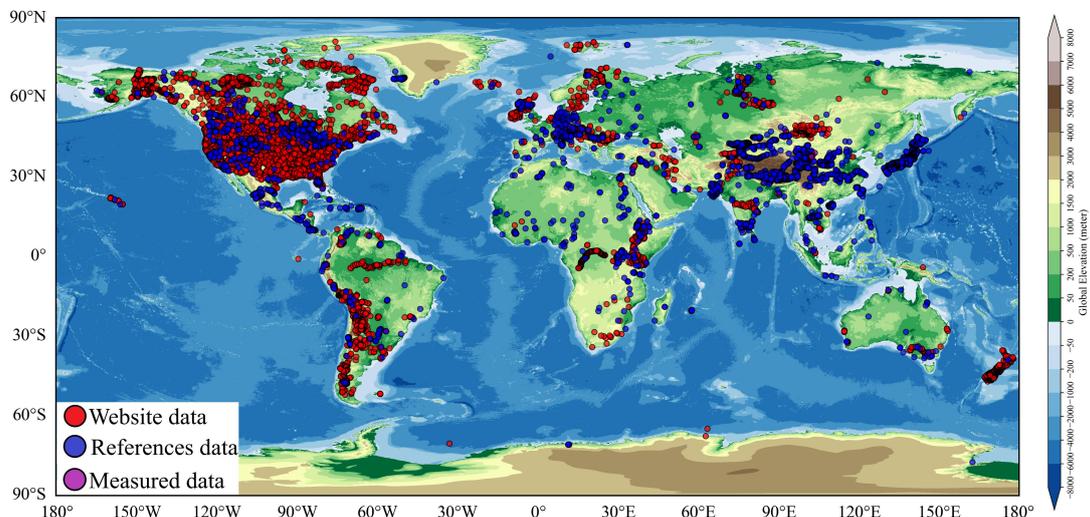
69 The establishment of a global stable isotope dataset for surface water is of great significance  
70 in the current context of global climate change and water scarcity. The dataset will help integrate  
71 and utilize surface water stable isotope data from various regions, improve the accessibility and  
72 usability of stable isotope data, and provide more abundant and reliable data support for  
73 researchers to carry out global-scale hydrological and environmental studies. In addition, based on  
74 the global surface water stable isotope dataset, the analysis of the driving force of meteorological  
75 factors on the global surface water stable isotope changes can provide a data basis for research on  
76 water resources assessment, climate change adaptation, and optimization of agricultural irrigation.  
77 In this work, we present the first global surface water stable isotope dataset, comprising measured,  
78 website, and references data. Our goals are as follows: (1) to compile and gather surface water  
79 stable isotope data globally; (2) to construct a global surface water stable isotope dataset, and to  
80 promote the application of global surface water stable isotope dataset in the hydrological,  
81 meteorological, ecological, and other fields.

## 82 **2. Data and methods**

### 83 **2.1 Compositions of the dataset**

84 The Dataset consists of three main elements: website data (GNIR,  
85 <http://nucleus.iaea.org/wiser/explore>, water isotopes website,  
86 <http://wateriso.utah.edu/waterisotopes>), measured data and references data. The dataset  
87 encompasses 22,432 surface water sampling sites across seven continents (Fig.1). Since 2015, an

88 ecohydrological observation system has been implemented in the Shiyang River Basin in the arid  
89 zone of Northwest China to systematically gather surface water stable isotope data (Fig. S1),  
90 serving as the primary source of measured data.



91  
92 **Figure 1** Distribution of sample sites in the global stable isotope dataset for surface water.

93 Measured data: Surface water sampling sites are chosen whenever feasible at places where  
94 the water is moving quickly because stagnant water is frequently impacted by pollution and  
95 evaporation. After the sampling bottle was rinsed three times prior to sampling using water from  
96 the sampling site, the bottle was placed below the surface of the water with the mouth facing up  
97 and filled to a position approximately three-quarters of the bottle's volume. Following the  
98 completion of the water sample collection process, the bottles are promptly sealed tightly, their  
99 mouths are taped with waterproof tape, and labels bearing the name of the sampling location, the  
100 sampling date, and additional information are affixed to the bottles. Every collected water sample  
101 was kept in a refrigerator to be frozen in order to avoid data errors caused by evaporation.

102 References data: We added more information to the database by searching for the terms  
103 "isotope," "surface water," and "river" in published papers on Web-of-Science. We chose scholarly  
104 articles containing isotope data in textual, tabular, and graphical formats as the primary source of  
105 data to enhance the precision of our data. The aforementioned papers explicitly identified the  
106 water body type as "surface water." Alongside isotope data, we gathered spatial and temporal  
107 informations, including the latitude and longitude of the sampling sites and the exact time of  
108 sampling.

109 Moreover, the meteorological data utilized in this study were sourced from the NCEP-

110 NCAR reanalysis dataset (<https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis.html>) and the  
111 CRUTS v. 4.07 dataset (<https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data>). The data utilized for the global  
112 climate division are derived from Köppen's global climate classification (Peel et al., 2007)  
113 (Fig. S2).

## 114 **2.2 Data processing**

### 115 2.2.1 Experiment

116 Prior to the experiment commencing, removing the samples to be analysed from the  
117 refrigerator and transferring them to standard 1.5 mL glass sample bottles once they had melted in  
118 the room. A filter with a pore size of 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  and a diameter of 13 mm was then applied to  
119 eliminate any contaminants, such as silt and dust, that may have been carried in with the samples  
120 during the transfer. All water samples were analyzed for stable isotope values using a liquid water  
121 isotope analyzer (DLT-100, Los Gatos Research, USA). During the determination process, each  
122 water sample was measured six consecutive times. To prevent residual contamination from  
123 affecting the results, the first two measurements were discarded, and the stable isotope value was  
124 calculated as the average of the last four measurements. The test results obtained are expressed as  
125 thousandths deviation from the Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (V-SMOW):

$$\delta_{\text{sample}}(\text{‰}) = \left[ \left( \frac{R_s}{R_v} \right) - 1 \right] \times 1000$$

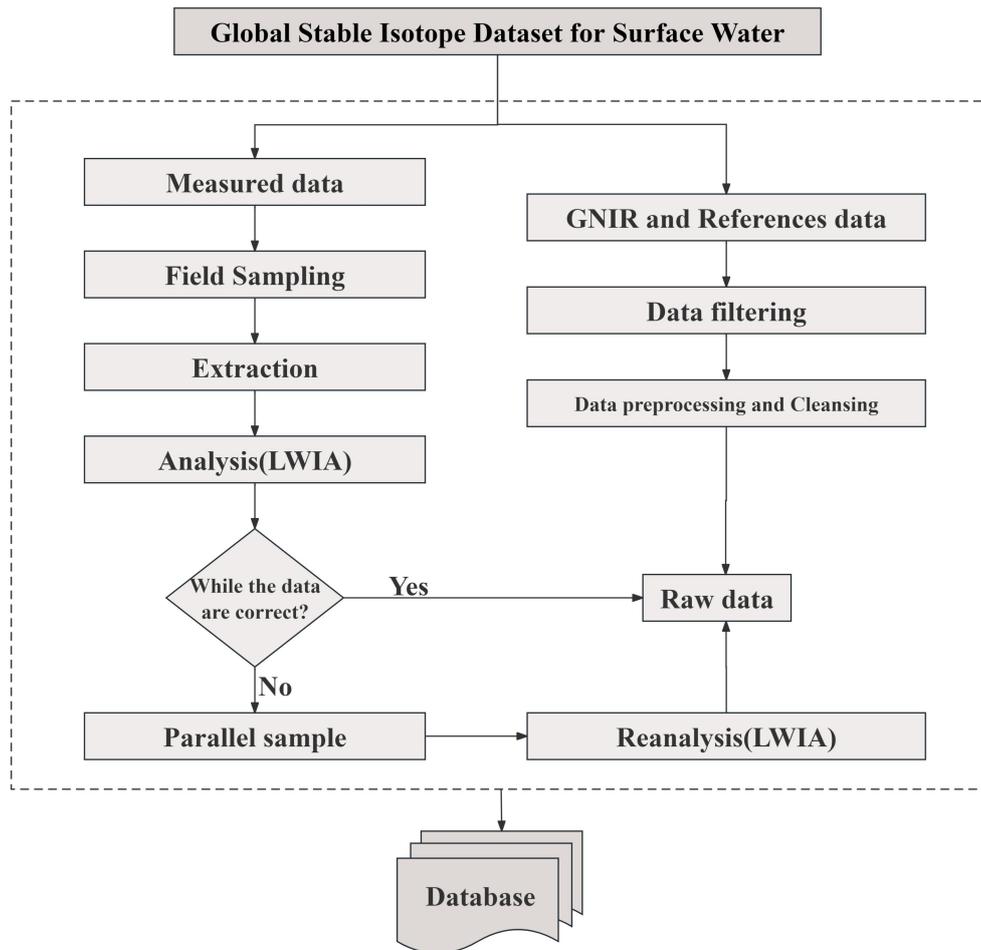
126 Here,  $R_s$  represents the ratio of  $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$  or  $^2\text{H}/^1\text{H}$  in the collected sample, and  $R_v$  is the ratio of  
127  $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$  or  $^2\text{H}/^1\text{H}$  in the Vienna standard sample. The analytical accuracy for  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  is  
128  $\pm 0.6\text{‰}$  and  $\pm 0.2\text{‰}$ , respectively.

### 129 2.2.2 Data quality

130 Since the collected data included various problems such as missing values, outliers and  
131 obvious duplicate entries as well as sampling date gaps and missing or incorrect latitude and  
132 longitude information. Therefore, the collected raw data were pre-processed and data screened to  
133 eliminate erroneous data.

134 In addition, We use the Liquid Water Isotope Analyzer (LWIA) post-analysis software to  
135 examine the measured raw isotope data. LGR recommends our customized Post-Processing  
136 Software to analyze the data. This software uploads the data files, performs all required  
137 normalization and processing, and saves the processed data as readable TXT files. In addition, the

138 LWIA automatically checks for instrumental fault indications, provides a selection of data filters,  
 139 displays a variety of graphical displays, and can be configured by the user. With LWIA, we can  
 140 know which raw data values of the sample are wrong and need to be tested again, and we can see  
 141 the reasons for the data errors. Additionally, all isotope data were thoroughly examined to ensure  
 142 each entry included clear "longitude," "latitude," "sampling time," and "isotope" data. Outliers and  
 143 duplicates were removed (Fig. 2).



144  
 145 **Figure 2** Flow of data processing and construction of global surface water stable isotope dataset.

146 **2.3 Methods**

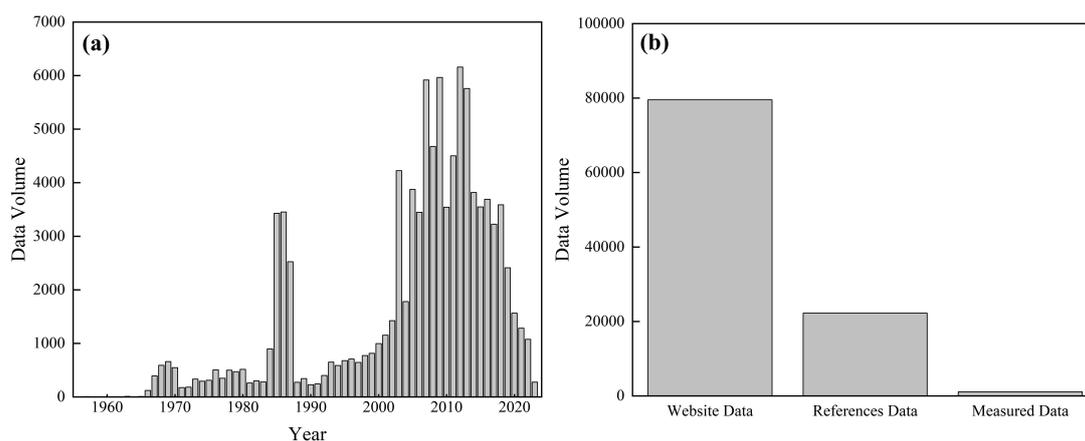
147 Based on previous studies, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine  
 148 the significance ( $p < 0.05$  at a 95% confidence level) of the slopes and intercepts of the linear  
 149 regression fits for surface water stable isotopes  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  across different climatic regions  
 150 (Vystavna et al., 2021). Furthermore, the Random Forest (RF) model can assess the importance of  
 151 variables. In this study, we employed the RF model to evaluate the impact of various  
 152 meteorological factors on the stable isotopes of surface water globally. The RF algorithm

153 integrates multiple decision trees to generate a cumulative effect. It predicts regression outcomes  
154 based on the average results of these randomized decision trees, employing bootstrapping to  
155 minimize the risk of overfitting (Breiman, 2001; Hu et al., 2017). Both root mean square error  
156 (RMSE) and mean absolute error (MAE) were utilized to estimate the model's error (Kartal, 2024).  
157 The detailed calculation process for RMSE and MAE is described in Text S1 in the Supporting  
158 Information.

### 159 3. Results and discussions

#### 160 3.1 Volume, geographic distribution and temporal coverage of datasets

161 As shown in Fig. 3, a total of 102,561 measurements of stable isotopes of hydrogen and  
162 oxygen in surface water were collected for this dataset. This includes 79,525 website data,  
163 1040 measured data, and 21,946 references data. Most of GNIR data are primarily concentrated in  
164 a few regions, such as the United States and Eastern Europe, and are sparsely distributed globally.  
165 To expand our dataset, we incorporated data from published literature. This expanded dataset now  
166 covers nearly the entire world with a relatively even distribution, including regions traditionally  
167 difficult to access data from, such as Greenland, Antarctica, western Australia, and high-altitude  
168 mountainous areas (Fig. 1). In terms of time range, the dataset covers the period from 1956 to  
169 2023, and most of the data are distributed since 1990, which also suggests that the dataset can  
170 better characterize the global distribution of stable isotopes in surface water over the past decades.

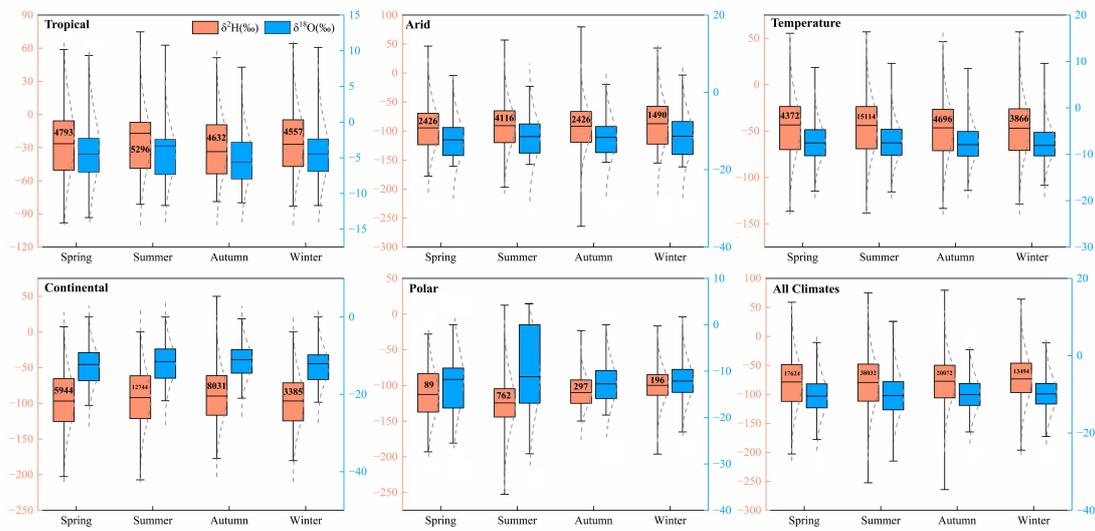


171  
172 **Figure 3** Distribution of global surface water stable isotope dataset. (a) time series distribution; (b)  
173 category distribution.

#### 174 3.2 Spatial and temporal variations of stable isotopes in global surface waters

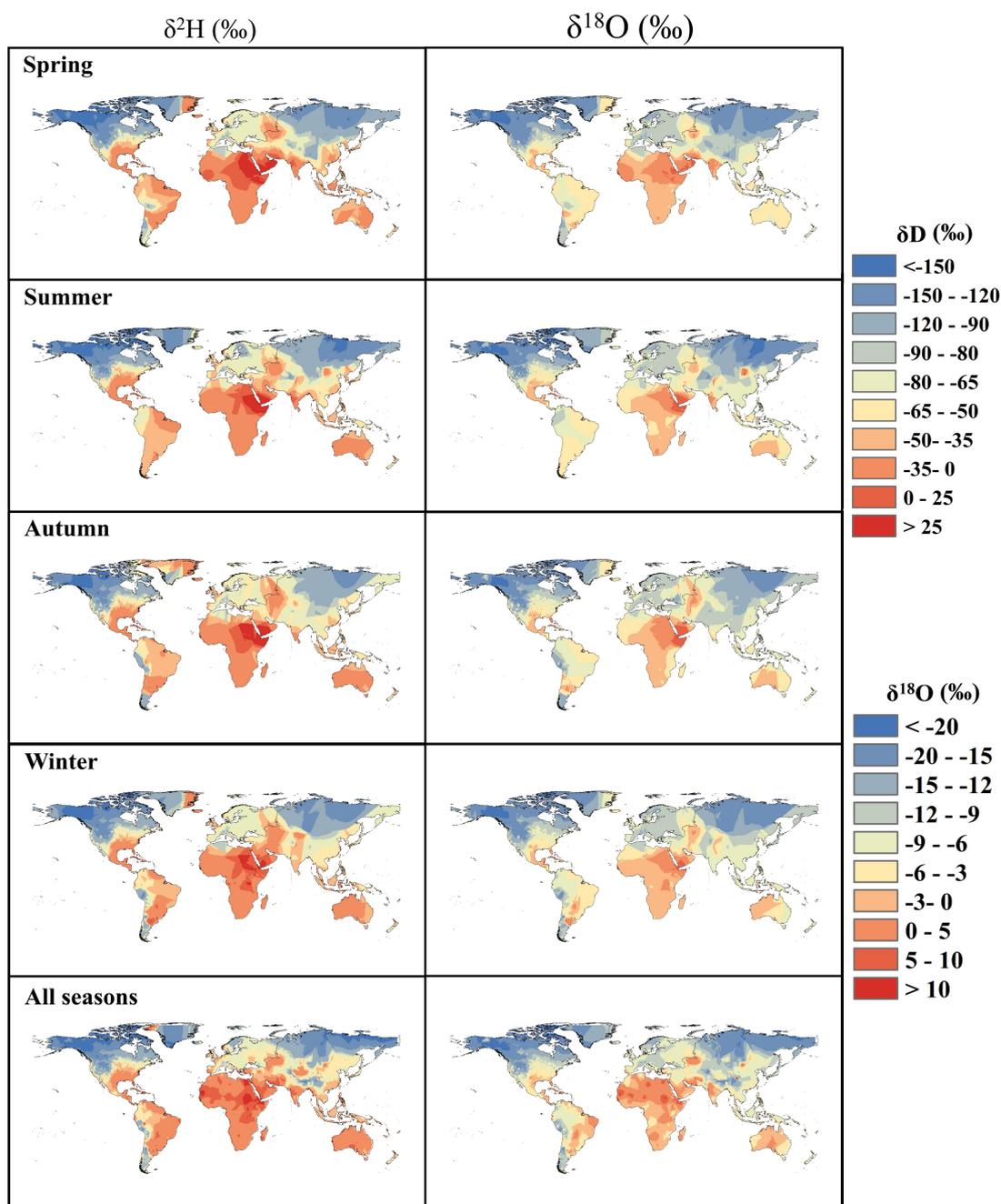
175 The variation of  $\delta^2\text{H}$  ranged from -252.48‰ to 79.01‰, and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  ranged from -26.30‰ to

176 15.41‰ over the whole dataset. On a seasonal scale, global surface water stable isotopes typically  
 177 exhibit pronounced variations, characterized by higher values in summer and lower values in  
 178 winter (Fig.4). To better observe these variations across different regions, we classified the globe  
 179 into five climatic zones—tropical, temperate, arid, continental, and polar, based on the "Köppen  
 180 climate zones" classification. Across the six climatic zones, stable isotopes of surface water  
 181 exhibit seasonal variations with higher values in summer and lower values in winter, except in  
 182 polar climatic zones. The most pronounced variations occur in arid zones, underscoring the  
 183 influence of meteorological factors on stable isotopes of surface water.



184  
 185 **Figure 4** Seasonal variation of  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in surface water in different climatic zones (Numbers  
 186 indicates amount of stable isotope data).

187 Meanwhile, to better describe the spatial distribution of stable isotopes in global surface  
 188 water, we conducted interpolation to map their spatial distribution globally (Fig. 5). Generally,  $\delta^2\text{H}$   
 189 and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  exhibit a consistent trend of gradually decreasing values from equatorial regions to high  
 190 latitudes and from coastal regions to inland areas of continents such as Eurasia and North America.  
 191 This trend is especially pronounced in high-latitude and high-altitude regions, where the values are  
 192 significantly lower. However, some areas do not exhibit a clear pattern in the distribution of  $\delta^2\text{H}$   
 193 and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values. This irregularity primarily results from the complex factors influencing runoff  
 194 generation and water flow concentration processes in various regions. Additionally, the presence  
 195 of open water bodies, such as lakes and reservoirs, exacerbates this irregular distribution  
 196 phenomenon.



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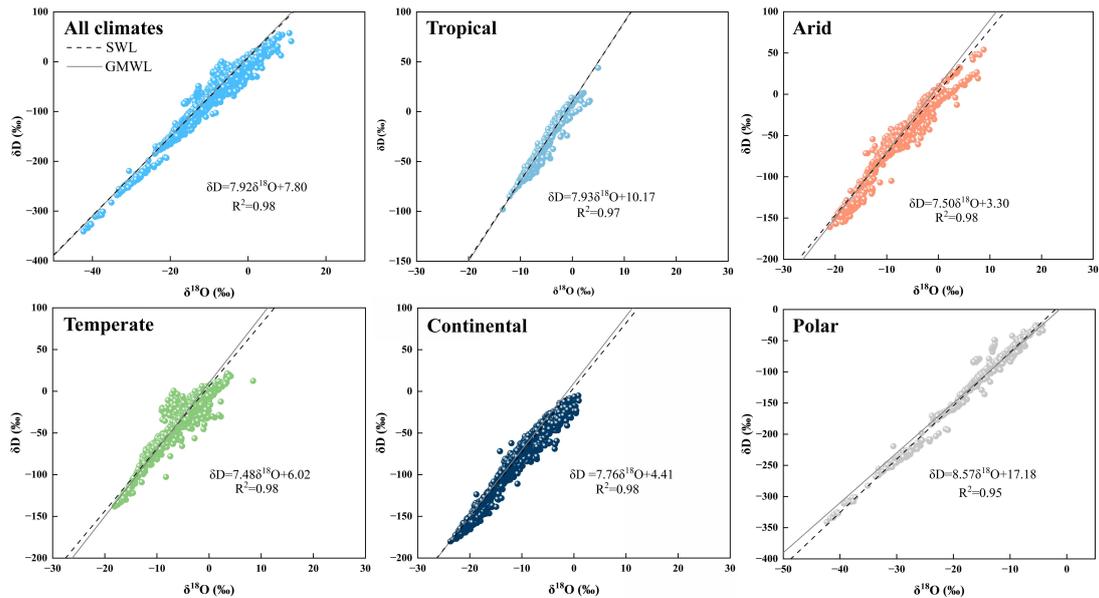
198 **Figure 5** Spatial distribution of global surface water  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in different seasons  
 199 (Unweighted data, using kriging grid methods).

200 To better understand the relationship between surface water and precipitation, we compared  
 201 the spatial interpolation results of surface water isotopes with those of global precipitation  
 202 isotopes. We found that the isotope distribution in surface water is largely consistent with the  
 203 isotope distribution in precipitation across most areas (Fig. S3). This consistency primarily arises  
 204 because surface water is predominantly recharged by precipitation. Moreover, the spatial variation  
 205 in the isotopic composition of surface water serves as a valuable indicator of its recharge

206 relationship with groundwater and precipitation (Kendall and Coplen, 2001). This is particularly  
207 evident in the tropics and at high altitudes, where precipitation serves as the primary source of  
208 surface water recharge. In these regions, the spatial distributions of surface water isotopes and  
209 precipitation isotopes exhibit a high degree of similarity (Fig. S3).

### 210 **3.3 Global surface water $\delta^2\text{H}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ correlations**

211 Here, we fit  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  to surface waters in six climatic zones, the results indicated a  
212 strong correlation between  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  across six various climate zones (Fig. 6). The relationship  
213 between  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  for global surface water is  $\delta^2\text{H} = 7.92\delta^{18}\text{O} + 7.80$  ( $R^2 = 0.98$ ), which is  
214 closer to the intercept and slope of the global meteoric water line (GMWL:  $\delta^2\text{H} = 8\delta^{18}\text{O} + 10$ ), and  
215 this confirms once again that the source of recharge of global surface water is precipitation.  
216 However, the fitted lines of  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  for surface water were significantly different in different  
217 climatic zones (Fig. 6), and the fitted lines of  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  exhibited the lowest intercept and  
218 slope under arid climate ( $\delta^2\text{H} = 7.50\delta^{18}\text{O} + 3.30$ ,  $R^2 = 0.98$ ), which also suggests that under arid  
219 climate, the surface water experienced significant evapotranspiration, which led to the isotopic  
220 enrichment of surface water,  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values were higher compared to other climatic zones.  
221 In the coldest polar climate zone, the fitted line of  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  is  $\delta^2\text{H} = 5.57\delta^{18}\text{O} + 17.18$  ( $R^2 = 0.95$ ),  
222 and the higher slope and intercept indicate that under the influence of the cold climate, the surface  
223 water undergoes little evaporation, and the presence of surface water may be in the form of snow  
224 and ice, resulting in significantly lower values of  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  compared to the other climate  
225 zones.



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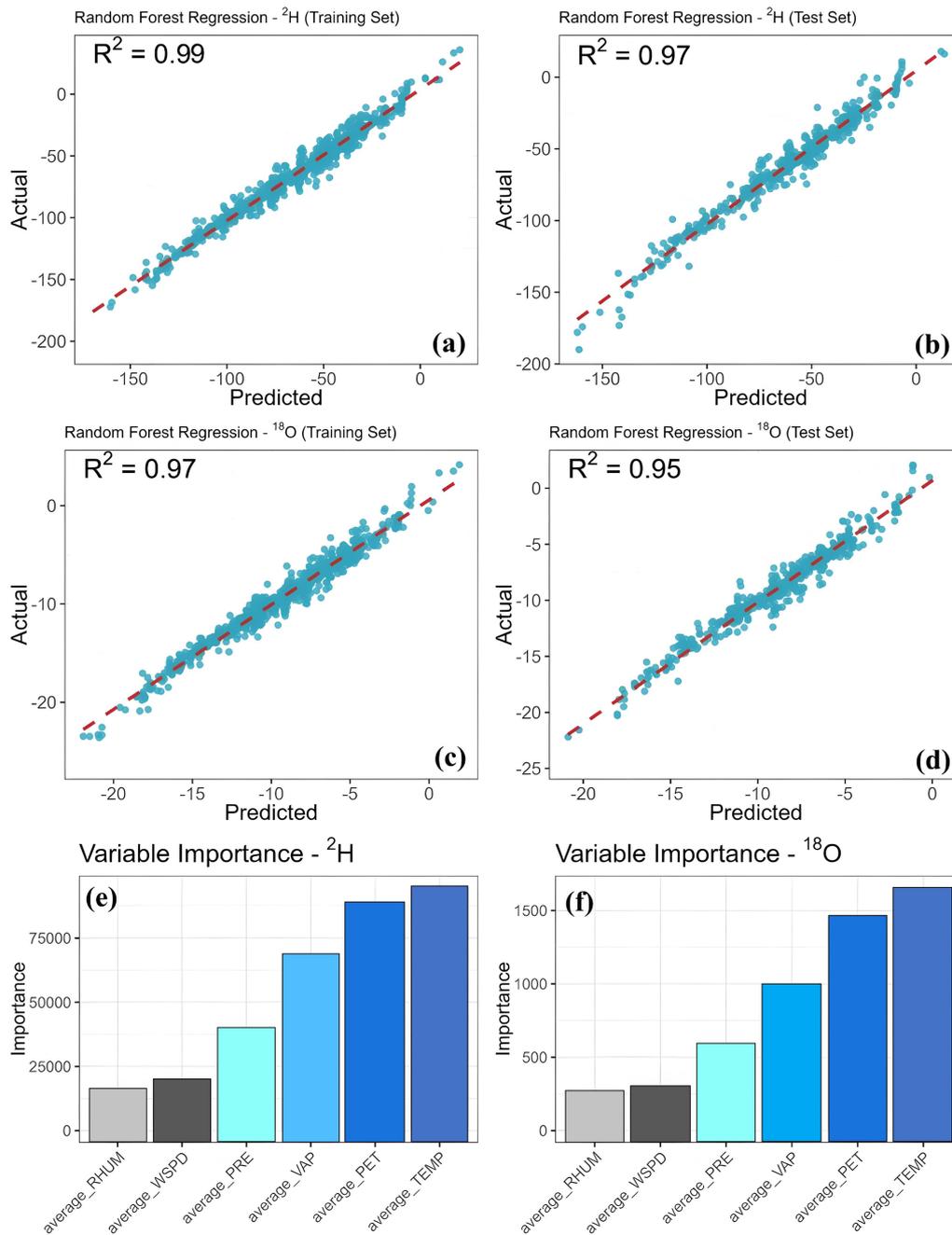
227 **Figure 6** Relationship between  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in different climatic zones.

228 **3.4 Controlling factors for stable isotopes in surface water**

229 For precipitation stable isotopes, there is a significant "latitude effect" and "continent effect  
 230 (Dansgaard, 1964)," this pattern of variation is also observed in the stable isotopes of surface  
 231 water, characterized by a gradual decrease in stable isotope values from low to high latitudes and  
 232 from coastal to arid inland areas. However, in low-latitude regions near the equator, where surface  
 233 water is primarily recharged by precipitation and climatic factors do not vary significantly along  
 234 latitude, there is no significant spatial variation in the stable isotopes of surface water.

235 Additionally, numerous studies have demonstrated that the stable isotope composition of  
 236 surface water is predominantly influenced by climatic factors (Araguás-Araguás et al., 1998;  
 237 Dansgaard, 1964; Wang et al., 2017). To assess the importance of various meteorological variables  
 238 on the stable isotopes of surface water globally, we employed a RF model. The RF regression  
 239 analysis fitted to the stable isotopes of surface water indicated a strong model fit for both the  
 240 training and test sets. This suggests that variables such as temperature, precipitation, potential  
 241 evapotranspiration, vapor pressure, wind speed, and relative humidity possess significant  
 242 explanatory power for the stable isotopes of surface water (Fig. 7). The validation results of the  
 243 RF model demonstrate excellent prediction performance for both  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$ , with  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
 244 showing better prediction accuracy than  $\delta^2\text{H}$ , as indicated by smaller RMSE and MAE values  
 245 (Table S1). Among the six meteorological factors considered, temperature exerts the strongest  
 246 influence on surface water stable isotopes. Potential evapotranspiration also exhibits a strong

247 controlling effect, suggesting that temperature and evapotranspiration are the primary factors  
248 governing changes in global surface water stable isotopes. Additionally, relative humidity and  
249 wind speed demonstrate high explanatory power for variations in surface water stable isotopes.  
250 Previous studies have indicated that wind speed and relative humidity significantly influence  
251 evaporation from water bodies (Gallart et al., 2024; Skrzypek et al., 2015), which can  
252 subsequently impact surface water stable isotopes. While vapor pressure and precipitation offer  
253 weaker explanations for variations in surface water stable isotopes, these factors can largely be  
254 attributed to the residence time of surface water and the local hydrological cycle. The residence  
255 time of surface water and the characteristics of the local hydrological cycle vary significantly  
256 across different regions. Large open water bodies typically have longer residence times and slower  
257 hydrological cycles, resulting in a more enriched isotopic composition of surface water (Feng et  
258 al., 2016). In contrast, water bodies with faster hydrological cycles, such as rivers, may exhibit  
259 different isotopic compositions (Ala-aho et al., 2018). However, interpreting these patterns on a  
260 large scale requires further investigation and validation.



261

262 **Figure 7** The relationship between  $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and meteorological factors was analyzed using  
 263 RF model. (a)  $\delta^2\text{H}$  regression results for the training set. (b)  $\delta^2\text{H}$  regression results of the test set.  
 264 (c)  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  regression results of the training set. (d)  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  regression results of the test set. (e) Effect  
 265 of meteorological factors on  $\delta^2\text{H}$ . (f) Effect of meteorological factors on  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ .

266 Simultaneously, for lakes, reservoirs, and other large open water bodies, the controls on  
 267 surface water stable isotopes can be more complex. Studies have demonstrated that global stable  
 268 isotope variations in lakes result from the combined effects of solar radiation, evapotranspiration,  
 269 catchment area size, and other factors (Vystavna et al., 2021). These controls vary across different

270 regions, contributing to diverse stable isotopic compositions in surface waters worldwide. For  
271 instance, in arid zones, solar radiation primarily controls stable isotopic variations in lakes,  
272 whereas in temperate climatic zones, evaporation and transpiration play a dominant role.  
273 Consequently, the controlling factors for surface water stable isotopes vary significantly across  
274 different regions. However, overarching patterns suggest that geographic and meteorological  
275 factors collectively govern the stable isotopic changes in surface water within a region.

### 276 **3.5 Challenges and limitations in the construction of surface water isotope** 277 **datasets and future research directions**

278 At present, due to the limitations of sampling techniques and methods, there may be  
279 significant differences in sampling methods and frequencies across various geological  
280 environments and hydrogeological conditions. These differences can affect the comparison and  
281 analysis of the data. Constructing a comprehensive isotope dataset for surface water requires  
282 careful consideration of spatial and temporal coverage to ensure data accuracy and comparability  
283 (Ankor et al., 2019). However, due to cost, labor, and equipment constraints, as well as the harsh  
284 natural conditions in sampling areas, it is challenging to achieve continuous observation of  
285 different watersheds over long time series. This limitation results in some incompleteness of the  
286 data in terms of spatial and temporal scales (Penna et al., 2014). In addition, the accuracy of  
287 current stable isotope data has yet to be harmonized due to issues such as sample preservation,  
288 analytical techniques, and instrumental accuracy. These challenges may lead to problems in the  
289 comparability and overall reliability of the data.

290 In the future, establishing harmonized standards for data collection, storage, and sharing will  
291 be essential for creating a global isotope database for surface water. Additionally, integrating data  
292 from different sources, times, and locations will be necessary to develop a more comprehensive  
293 global isotope database for surface water (Chen et al., 2024). With advances in artificial  
294 intelligence, there is a growing trend towards integrating isotope data with hydrologic modeling  
295 (Gierz et al., 2017; Nelson et al., 2021). This integration promises to enhance our understanding of  
296 hydrologic processes and improve water resource management practices. Furthermore, it  
297 facilitates improvements in the spatial and temporal coverage of data, offering more robust  
298 insights into water dynamics and interactions within ecosystems. Meanwhile, within the context of  
299 global change, climate change, and isotopes are becoming increasingly integrated and

300 interdisciplinary. In the longer term, there is potential to develop a comprehensive understanding  
301 and application of isotope datasets for surface water. This development will rely on integrating  
302 expertise from disciplines such as geology, hydrology, meteorology, and others, fostering a holistic  
303 approach to studying and managing water resources in a changing climate.

#### 304 **4. Data availability**

305 The Global Surface Water Stable Isotope Dataset is now publicly available and the data can  
306 be found at [10.17632/fs7rwp7fpr.2](https://doi.org/10.17632/fs7rwp7fpr.2) (Zhu, 2024).

#### 307 **5. Conclusion**

308 The global surface water stable isotope dataset provides crucial information for advancing  
309 our understanding of the water cycle, climate change, and environmental monitoring. In this study,  
310 we established a global surface water stable isotope dataset by combining measured data and  
311 reference data from existing station data. This approach enriched the dataset and enabled  
312 comprehensive analysis across different regions and climatic zones. The results reveal pronounced  
313 spatial and temporal variations in the stable isotope composition of global surface water, with  
314 significant differences observed in the isotopic composition of surface water across different  
315 climates. The variations in global surface water isotopes are influenced by a combination of  
316 geographic and meteorological factors, with temperature and evapotranspiration among the  
317 climatic factors exhibiting strong explanatory power for the isotopic composition of surface water.  
318 Observations of stable isotopes in global surface water play a crucial role in enhancing our  
319 understanding of the global water cycle, climate change, and water resource management. They  
320 provide essential data support for interdisciplinary research, helping to uncover connections  
321 between hydrological processes, climate variability, and environmental changes worldwide.  
322 Although we have enriched this dataset as much as possible, there are still regions with sparse data,  
323 such as Siberia and Eastern Europe. In the future, efforts should focus on strengthening  
324 observations in these challenging areas where data availability is limited. Improving the resolution  
325 of global surface water stable isotope data can be achieved by integrating interdisciplinary  
326 approaches and leveraging artificial intelligence methods. This approach will help fill data gaps,  
327 enhance accuracy, and provide more comprehensive insights into global water dynamics and  
328 environmental changes.

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## 339 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

340 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

## 341 **Author contributions statement**

342 Guofeng Zhu and Rui Li: Writing-Original draft preparation. Siyu Lu and Longhu Chen:  
343 Data curation. Xiaoyu Qi: Writing-Reviewing and Editing. Gaojia Meng and Yuhao Wang:  
344 Methodology. Wenmin Li: Investigation. Zhijie Zheng, Jiangwei Yang and Yani Gun: Software

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