



1 Recognition of spatial framework for water quality and its relation

2 with land use/cover types from a new perspective: A case study of

3 Jinghe Oasis in Xinjiang, China

4 Fei ZHANG^{1,2,3*} Juan WANG⁴ Xiaoping WANG^{1,2,3}

- 6 2. Key Laboratory of Oasis Ecology, Xinjiang University, Urumqi, Xinjiang 830046
- 7 3. Key Laboratory of Xinjiang wisdom city and environment modeling, Urumqi, Xinjiang 830046
- 8 4. College of Geography and Remote Sensing Science, Beijing Normal University, 100875, Beijing
- 9

10 Abstract: Quality evaluation for surface water is an important issue in water resource management and protection. To 11 understand the relation between the spatial framework of water quality in Jinghe Oasis and the change in land use/cover type, 12 we first divide 47 water sampling sites measured in May and October 2015 into 6 cluster layers using the self-organizing 13 map (SOM) method based on non-hierarchical k-means classification, and then determine the distribution characteristics of 14 water quality from the time sequence. Water quality indices include chemical oxygen demand (COD), biological oxygen 15 demand (BOD), suspended solids (SS), total phosphorus (TP), total nitrogen (TN), ammonia nitrogen (NH₃-N), 16 chromaticity (SD), and turbidity (NUT). On the basis of the results, we collect data regarding changes in farmland land, 17 forest-grass land, water body, salinized land, and other land types during the wet and dry seasons and combine these data 18 with the classification results of the GF-1 remote sensing satellite obtained in May and October 2015. We then discuss the 19 influences of land use/cover type on water quality at different layers and seasons. The results indicate that Clusters 1 to 3 20 provide monitoring samples for the wet season (May 2015), whereas Clusters 4 to 6 provide monitoring samples for the dry 21 season (October 2015). In general, the COD, SS, NUT, TN, and NH₃-N contents are high in Clusters 1and 2. The SD values 22 for Clusters 1, 4, and 6 are high. Moreover, high BOD and TP values are mainly concentrated in Clusters 4 and 6. Through 23 the discussion on the relation between different layers of water quality and land use/cover type change, we determine that the 24 influences of farmland land, forest-grassland, and salinized land are significant on the water quality parameters in Jinghe 25 Oasis. In Clusters 1, 2, and 6, the size of the water area also influences the change in water quality parameters to a certain 26 extent. In addition, the influences of various land use/cover types on the water quality parameters in the research zone during 27 different seasons exhibit the following order: farmland land \rightarrow forest-grass land \rightarrow salinized land \rightarrow water body \rightarrow others. 28 Moreover, influence is less during the wet season than during the dry season. In conclusion, developing research on the 29 relation between the spatial framework of water quality in Jinghe Oasis and land use/cover type change will be significant 30 for the time sequence distribution of water quality in arid regions from both theoretical and practical perspectives. 31 Key words: SOM; Water quality spatial distribution; Land use/cover; Correlation analysis; GIS

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33 **0 Introduction**

Water quality is of great importance to the study of water resources in arid regions. Accurate information on the spatial distribution of surface water quality is imperative for assessment of environmental monitoring, land surface water management as well as watershed changes (NRC, 2008; Sun et al., 2012). Land use/cover change in drainage basins significantly influences water quality in rivers, lakes, river mouths, and coastal areas (Huang et al.,2013a; Bu et al.,2014; Hur et al.,2014). Surface water

^{5 1.} College of Resources and Environment Science, Xinjiang University, Urumqi, Xinjiang 830046

^{*} Corresponding author: Zhangfei Tel: +86 13579925126 E-mail address: zhangfei3s@163.com





39 resources, through runoff or infiltration, will always carry a huge amount of pollutants (Swaney et 40 al.,2012). Therefore, the spatial allocation of land use and land cover change in drainage basins frequently 41 influences or even poses dangers to water quality through non-point source pollution (Swaney et al., 2012). 42 However, the regional difference and complexity of land use/cover type result in various corresponding 43 relations between land use/cover and water quality in different regions (Yang et al., 2016). Therefore, 44 Therefore, it is very important to explore the relationship between land use/cover types and water quality 45 for development and management of the basin. (Uuemaa et al., 2005; Xiao et al., 2007; Wan et al., 2014). 46 At present, numerous scholars have extensively applied statistical methods to indicate mutual relation 47 between land use/cover change and water quality in various research zones (Céréghino et al., 2009; 48 Bierman et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2013b). These methods include correlation analysis (Lee et al., 2009; Li et 49 al.,2015), multiple regression (Park et al.,2014), and redundancy analysis (De et al.,2008; Shen et 50 al.,2015).

51 A self-organizing map (SOM) is one of the branches of artificial neural network algorithms; it is a 52 self-organizing and self-learning network visual method that can express multi-dimensional spatial data in 53 low-dimensional points through non-linear mapping (Kohonen, 2001). SOM is an all-purpose classification 54 tool that can connect samples with variables (Kohonen, 2013; Zhou et al., 2016). In recent years, SOM has 55 become increasingly popular in environmental research because of its capacity to deal with non-linear 56 relations. Kalteh(2008) and Céréghino(2009) discussed the application of the SOM method in 57 environmental science, particularly in water resource classification. Chon (2011) evaluated the application 58 of SOM technology in ecology. The high-dimensional, non-linear, and uncertain features of water quality 59 monitoring data result in certain complexity during the analysis and evaluation of surface water quality 60 data. Therefore, data mining and the modern mode recognition method have been introduced to analyze 61 and explain water quality monitoring data, which can offset the deficiency of the traditional method to a 62 certain extent(Li et al., 2013). Jinghe Oasis has an oasis and desert, which is a typical mountainous zone in 63 an arid region and an important part of the northern slope of Tianshan Mountains. Under the influences of 64 drainage basin climate and human activities, the pollution of the regional ecological environment, which 65 results from the surrounding agricultural and domestic wastewater around Jinghe Oasis that is directly discharged or discharged through the river, has become an urgent problem related to sustainable 66 67 socioeconomic development in Xinjiang. Therefore, a typical section of Jinghe Oasis in the plain area of 68 the arid region is selected as the research object. The SOM method is applied to recognize the spatial 69 distribution of water quality in Jinghe Oasis. On the basis of the result, tentative exploration the relation 70 between water quality and land use/cover change in different clusters and provide new insights into 71 controlling, managing, and protecting the ecological environment in the Jinghe Oasis.

In the present study, the main objectives of this study were to (1) to analysis the spatial framework of water quality using the self-organizing map (SOM) method based on non-hierarchical k-means classification (2) to explore the relationship between water quality parameters and land use/cover types in different clusters; and (3) to analysis the relationship between water quality parameters and land use/cover types in different stages.

77 1 Materials and methods

78 1.1 Study area

The Jinghe Oasis, is located in the center of Eurasia in the northwest Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region at $44^{\circ}02' \sim 45^{\circ}10'$ N and $81^{\circ}46' \sim 83^{\circ}51'$ E. Jinghe Oasis is composed of wetland, desert oasis





81 vegetation and wildlife, is the national desert ecological reserve. The study area has unique wetland 82 ecological environment, has been listed as the xinjiang uygur autonomous region "wetland nature reserve". 83 The region has 385 kinds of desert plants, about 64% of China's vast desert plants. The Jinghe Oasis is 84 once fed by 12 branch rivers belonging to three major river systems and the major rivers are: Bortala River, 85 Jing River and Kuytun River, which are mainly rivers connected with the Ebinur Lake. Owing to natural 86 environmental changes and human activities (i.e., modern oasis agricultural development), many rivers 87 gradually lost their hydraulic connections with the Ebinur Lake, only Bortala River and Jing River now 88 supply water to the Ebinur Lake. The climate in the Jinghe Oasis is of typical continental arid climate, 89 which annual average temperature is 7.36 °C, average precipitation is 100~200mm, and average 90 evaporation is 1500~2000mm (Zhang et al., 2015). In recent years, under the dual drive of the natural and 91 human factors, Jinghe oasis water resources degraded seriously, outstanding performance in natural oasis 92 area and water area shrinking, land desertification, salinization of farmland, grassland degradation of 93 serious, salinization of water quality (Jilil et al., 2002). At the same time, under the effect of strong wind in Alashankou, the region has become the main source of dust; affect the ecological environment of the area 94 95 of northern Xinjiang. This research through the distribution of actual mining spotting, establish research 96 scope as shown in figure 1.

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Fig.1 Location of the study area

100 **1.2 Data acquisition and processing**

(1) We applied GF-1 remote sensing images obtained in May and October 2015 as data sources (see http://www.cresda.com/CN/). These images were not influenced by cloud, fog, and snow cover, and their quality was good. We conducted radiation and orthographic corrections for the remote sensing image data combined with 1:50,000 digital elevation model (DEM) data. We established five land use/cover types by Environment for Visualizing Images software (ENVI Version 5.0), namely, farmland land, forest-grassland, water body, salinized land, and others, based on the actual conditions of the research zone. Finally, we generated a vector data map of land use/cover for two stages of the research zones.

108 (2) The pillar industries in Jinghe Oasis include salt production and Artemia breeding. No heavy 109 industry is present, and thus, point-source pollution from industrial wastewater is not considered in the 110 research zone. Research samples were collected from the agricultural land in Jinghe County and Tuotuo 111 Village, which surround Ebinur Lake, a national ecological zone in Ebinur Lake Bird Isle, and the Ganjia 112 Lake Haloxylon natural conservation area. We collected 47 water samples, 23 in May and 24 in October 113 2015. The monitoring indices used included chemical oxygen demand (COD), five-day biological oxygen 114 demand (BOD₅), suspended solids (SS), total phosphorus (TP), total nitrogen (TN), ammonia nitrogen 115 (NH₃-N), chromaticity (SD), and turbidity (NUT). All polyethylene bottles were used to store the samples. 116 The bottle was cleaned, dried, and sealed with deionized water before sampling. The sample was taken to 117 the laboratory for measurement and analysis after collection. We applied dichromate titration, dilution and 118 inoculation, gravimetry, ammonium molybdate spectrophotometry, alkaline potassium persulfate 119 decomposition and UV spectrophotometry, and Nessler reagent spectrophotometry to measure COD, BOD5, 120 SS, TP, TN, and NH₃-N, respectively. The analyses of all the samples were entrusted to and completed by 121 Urumqi Jincheng Measurement Technology Co., Ltd.

1.3 Recognition of water quality spatial characteristics based on the SOM method with non-hierarchical *k*-means classification





124 At present, classification based on the SOM neural network is mainly unsupervised and applied to 125 fault analysis, text clustering, and water quality evaluation. The method, which does not require consistent 126 data distribution, is simple and can better address detailed information without the influence of minor local 127 problems. The results are still distribution features for input mode and topological structure (Li et al., 2010). 128 A typical SOM network generally consists of input and output clusters. All the nerve cells in the input 129 cluster and the weight vectors in the output cluster are connected and classified as typed data using SOM 130 via a learning process. Accordingly, the k-means algorithm is applied to keep each cluster itself compact 131 and separate between each cluster as much as possible. The number of clusters is formed according to the 132 Davies-Bouldin index. The lower value the Davies-Bouldin index is, the better those clusters are 133 differentiated. Through the K-means cluster analysis combined with the Davies-Bouldin index (DBI) to 134 select clustering number. The lower value the Davies-Bouldin index is, the better those clusters are 135 differentiated (Zhou et al., 2016).

136 The SOM method based on non-hierarchical k-means classification was applied to the spatial 137 framework of water quality in the research zone by implementing the following steps. (1) We typed the 138 water sample data for clustering from May and October 2015 to the SOM network. We applied the 139 topological values for calculating network size to select the quantity of nerve cells and determine the 140 output results based on the minimum values of the Quantity Error (QE) and the Topology Error (TE). QE 141 was used to determine the capacity of the established neural network in distinguishing the original input 142 data, whereas TE was used to measure the quality of a neural network, i.e., to evaluate whether the network 143 would be applicable for training (Kohonen, 2001). After determining network size, we conducted network 144 training and obtained a set of weight values. (2) The weight value obtained from the SOM cluster results 145 was considered the initial cluster center, and the k-means algorithm was initialized to execute this 146 algorithm and combined with the DBI index to select clustering number. Such clustering combination 147 algorithm maintains the self-organizing features of the SOM network, inherits the high efficiency of the 148 k-means algorithm, and offsets the poor clustering effects that result from the excessive convergence time 149 of the SOM network and the inappropriate selection of the initial clustering center for the k-means 150 algorithm. The SOM requires SOM toolbox and some basic functions to achieve its function in Matrix 151 Laboratory (MATLAB)(Zhang, 2015). In this study, the calculation platform used was MATLAB 2013a.

152 **1.4 Spatial analysis of the influences of land use/cover change on water quality**

153 As an artificial system disturbance, land use/cover type is the second major boundary condition that 154 directly or indirectly influences the hydrologic process and exerts a considerable effect on drainage water 155 environment. First, we obtained information regarding land use/cover within the scope of the 1km buffer 156 zone of the water quality sampling point in the research zone using the spatial analysis function of ArcGIS 157 9.3. On the basis of the result, we then discussed and analyzed the correlation between water quality and 158 land use/cover type change at different levels and periods. For different levels, we established the 159 correlation between water quality and land use/cover type in each layer and discussed the influence of land 160 use/cover type change on water quality. For different periods, we conducted related analysis for land 161 use/cover information and eight types of water quality indices during the dry and wet seasons. The land 162 use/cover information and eight types of water quality indices were imported into Canoco4.5 (Ter Braak and Smilauer, 2002) to test the DCA gradient axis. The results showed that the DCA gradient shaft length 163 164 was less than 3. Therefore, the redundancy analysis (RDA) method was applied to determine the influence 165 trend of land use/cover change within the buffer area in Ebinur Lake on water quality. Such method would 166 indicate the contribution rate of a single variable of land use/cover on water quality and would directly

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167 demonstrate the correlation between land use/cover type and water quality parameters via a 2D ordination

168 graph. The methodology is explained in the following section and a conceptual flow chart describing the 169 methodology is shown in (Fig.2).

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Fig.2 Conceptual model for the methodology

172 2 Results and analysis

173 2.1 Spatial framework of water quality in Jinghe Oasis

With regard to network structure selection, the neural network with a more complicated structure will generally have better capability to deal with complicated non-linear problems, but will require a longer training time (Kohonen, 2013). Using more water quality indices can provide more abundant information; however, the correlation among indices will increase. The topological values are selected to determine grid size in this study, and the *k*-means clustering method is adopted to obtain results. Overall, after the standard processing of water quality data, the best network training effect is obtained from 35 (7×5) nerve cells; and the QE and TE values are 1.033 and 0.001, respectively.

When the values of average variance are less than 5% in different clusters, the DBI is the lowest, so the corresponding number of clustering can be regarded as the best clustering results. Therefore, this study input trained weights of neuron node, through the K-means cluster analysis combined with the DBI to select clustering number, the results shown in figure 3a. Figure 3a show that six clusters was formed according to the DBI, where minimal value is at six clusters.

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Fig.3 (a) Davies–Bouldin index plot. (b) The results of SOM clustering of the cells on the map plane (Distribution of sampling sites on the SOM according to the eight water quality parameters, and clustering of the trained SOM.)

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190 Figure 3b presents results of SOM clustering of the cells on the map plane, which exhibits similarity 191 among different monitoring stations. In particular, Cluster 1 includes the sampling points around the Ganjia 192 Lake Haloxylon natural conservation area in southern Ebinur Lake, east of Ebinur Lake and around 193 Kuitun River during the wet season. Cluster 2 includes the monitoring stations in Jing River and around the 194 agricultural ditch in western Ebinur Lake. Cluster 3 comprises the sampling points of water from melted 195 ice in the southern-western corner of the research zone, which have been grouped into only one type. 196 Cluster 4 includes the sampling points within the Ganjia Lake Haloxylon natural conservation area during 197 the dry season. Cluster 5 includes the sampling points in Jing River, the agricultural ditch and around the 198 Ebinur Lake. Cluster 6 is located around Kuitun River and Ebinur Lake Bird Isle, which have more pools. 199 In general, although individual points may interfere with the explanation of the results, the classification 200 results can better identify time sequence features in the research zone. Clusters 1 to 3 provide 100% 201 samples from the wet season (May 2015), whereas Clusters 4 to 6 provides monitoring samples from the 202 dry season (October 2015). To further observe information regarding water quality parameters in Jinghe 203 Oasis through the response of different nerve cells, water quality information from various cluster groups 204 is visualized. The results are shown in Figure 4.

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Fig.4 The patterning results for water quality parameters on the SOM plane

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Figure 4 shows the distribution relation among different classifications of various variables and





208 similar distribution methods among water quality parameters. For example, high COD, TN, NH₃-N, and 209 SD are recorded in the right corner of the SOM network, thereby indicating a declining trend in the 210 southern Ebinur Lake and the surrounding Kuitun River. The values during the wet season are higher than 211 those during the dry season. High values of SS and NUT are observed in the left corner of the SOM 212 network, which indicates the location within the scope of the agricultural ditch and Jing River during the 213 dry season. This region is mainly distributed around the agricultural land area and is significantly 214 influenced by human activities. High TP values are observed within the scope of the lower left corner, 215 which mainly focuses on the agricultural ditch and Jing River during the dry season. The crops are mature 216 during the dry season, and farmland area is increased, thereby increasing TP value. By contrast, the 217 distribution of BOD₅ is different, which indicates a declining trend from the center to the surrounding area. 218 High BOD₅ values are mainly observed downstream of the Ganjia Lake Haloxylon natural conservation 219 zone, which is surrounded by a salt field, thereby exerting a certain influence on surrounding water quality. 220 The regional change of water quality in Jinghe Oasis is reflected clearly and directly through SOM. To 221 observe the distribution of water quality parameters directly, we collect different values of water quality 222 parameters at various layers (Figure 5).

223 224 Fig.5 Average values for the water quality parameters

225 Figure 5 shows that the distribution of water quality parameters varies in different clustering layers. 226 Among the six clusters, water quality is generally relatively better in Cluster 3. However, Cluster 3 only 227 has one sampling point, which comprises ice and snow water. Therefore, its water quality is not considered. 228 In addition, COD, SS, NUT, TN, and NH_3^+ -N contents are high in Clusters 1 and 2, which indicates a 229 relatively lower water quality compared with the water downstream of the Ganjia Lake Haloxylon natural 230 conservation zone, surrounding Ebinur Lake, and the agricultural land. The SD values are high in Clusters 231 1, 4, and 6. Meanwhile, high BOD₅ values are mainly concentrated in Clusters 4 and 6, around the Ganjia 232 Lake Haloxylon natural conservation zone and Ebinur Lake Bird Isle. Many pools in these clusters are 233 influenced by the water area to a certain extent. The concentration difference of TP in each layer is 234 minimal and is considerably influenced by human activities, particularly changes in the agricultural land 235 area. On the basis of these results and the surface water environment quality standard of China 236 (GB3838-2002), we evaluate the grades of water quality parameters, including COD, BOD₅, TN, NH₃-N, 237 and TP, at different layers (Table 1).

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Table 1 The classes of water quality parameter in each cluster

As shown in Table 1, combined with Chinese Environmental Quality Standard for Surface Water (GB 3838-2002), clusters 1 to 6 do not satisfy potable water level. Clusters 1 and 2 have identical water quality classification level, and their COD and TN contents are higher than the standard values. In particular, the COD content exceeds level V. Meanwhile, BOD₅ and COD contents are excessive in Clusters 4 and 5, respectively. In Cluster 6, both COD and BOD₅ contents are excessive, but COD content is higher.

244 2.2 Analysis of land use/cover type and its relation to water quality at different layers

From the classification results obtained in May and October 2015 (Figure 6), precision has increased to 89.9750% and 86.2848%, and the kappa coefficients are 0.8681and 0.8184, respectively, which indicate an accurate classification result that satisfies the research requirements. Accordingly, ArcGIS is applied as the water sampling point to establish a 1km buffer zone. The composition of land use/cover at different layers is analyzed according to the hierarchical results of the water quality parameters, and the results are





250 presented in Figure 7.

Fig.6 The change of land use/cover in the Ebinur Lake area during the rainy (May) and dry (October) seasons in 2015(a:
 May;b: October)

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Fig.7 The area of land use/cover for each cluster

254 Figure 7 shows land use/cover mode at different layers. In general, the salinization phenomenon is 255 serious in the entire research zone. Among the six clusters, Cluster 1 mainly includes the sampling points 256 around the Ganjia Lake Haloxylon natural conservation area, eastern Ebinur Lake, and Kuitun River. The 257 major land types in this cluster are forest-grass land. The monitoring site in Cluster 2 is located in the 258 irrigation ditch of Jinghe Oasis and in Jing River. Crops do not grow abundantly in May in the research 259 zone, and the major land types in this cluster are forest-grass land. Cluster 4 mainly includes the Ganjia 260 Lake Haloxylon natural conservation area and the sampling points in Tuotuo Village during dry season, 261 which are farmland, forest-grassland. The sampling points in Cluster 5 are located in the agricultural ditch, 262 Jing River, and the surrounding Ebinur Lake. The land types mainly include forest-grassland and farmland, 263 which is larger than the other land type. Cluster 6 is mainly located in Kuitun River and the surrounding 264 Ebinur Lake Bird Isle. A considerable number of plants, such as reed, grow in some pools. The percentages 265 of forest-grass land and salinized land within the 1km scope are large based on the actual conditions in the 266 research zone and the distribution conditions of the sampling points. On the basis of these results, the 267 correlation between land use/cover type and water quality parameters from Clusters 1 to 6 is analyzed. The 268 results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 The correlation coefficients between land use/cover and water quality parameters in each cluster

270 In Cluster 1, forest-grass land exhibit a negative correlation with SS and NUT under the significance 271 level of 0.01, with coefficients reaching up to -0.710 and -0.724, respectively. At a significance level of 272 0.05, water body exhibits an obvious positive correlation with COD and a negative correlation with TN, 273 with coefficients of 0.986 and -0.721 respectively. At a confidence level of 0.01, salinized land 274 demonstrates a positive correlation with NUT, with a coefficient of 0.756. In Cluster 2, farmland presents a 275 negative correlation with COD and a positive correlation with NUT at a confidence level of 0.05, and the 276 coefficients are -0.581 and 0.639, respectively. Under the same condition, forest-grass land exhibit a 277 positive correlation with COD, and the coefficient is 0.613. At a confidence level of 0.01, the water body 278 exhibits an evident negative correlation with SS and NUT, and the correlation coefficients are -0.983 and 279 -0.990, respectively. In Cluster 4, several water quality parameters are mainly influenced by farmland, 280 forest-grass land, and salinized land. At a confidence level of 0.05, the farmland exhibits a negative 281 correlation with COD, and with a coefficient of -0.652. At a confidence level of 0.01, farmland 282 demonstrates an evident positive correlation with TP, and the coefficient is 0.872. At a confidence level of 283 0.05, salinized land shows a clear negative correlation with TP and NUT, and the coefficients are -0.791284 and -0.819, respectively. In this layer, others land type exhibit a positive correlation with TP with a 285 coefficient of 0.868. The sampling point in this layer is mainly located around Tuotuo Village, where the influences of human activities are considerable; therefore, the correlation percentage of others land type in 286 287 Cluster 4 with TP is high. In Cluster 5, farmland demonstrates an evident negative correlation with BOD₅ 288 at a 0.01 confidence level, with a correlation coefficient reaching up to -0.881. At a confidence level of 289 0.05, salinized land shows a positive correlation with BOD₅, with a correlation coefficient of 0.774. In 290 Cluster 6, forest-grass land show a clear negative correlation at a confidence level of 0.01, and the 291 correlation coefficient reaches -0.884. At a confidence level of 0.05, the water area exhibits a positive 292 correlation with a correlation coefficient of 0.980.





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293 From the results of the comprehensive analysis, the influences of farmland, forest-grass land, and 294 salinized land are considerable on the water quality parameters in Jinghe Oasis. In Clusters 1, 2, and 6, the 295 size of the water area also influences change in water quality parameters to a certain extent. Given the 296 unbalanced distribution of sampling points at different layers, the effect of land use/cover composition on 297 water quality in the research zone varies, and can indicate influence only to a certain extent. Therefore, 298 considering the actual conditions in Ebinur Lake, different land use/cover types and water quality 299 influences are understood as a whole, and the correlation between land use/cover type and water quality in 300 Jinghe Oasis at different periods is further discussed.

301 2.3 Analysis of land use/cover change in Jinghe Oasis and its correlation with water 302 quality at different seasons

The constituents of land use/cover type at different seasons exert diverse influences on water quality.
 Therefore, analyze the influences of land use/cover type change on water quality. The results are presented
 in Figure 8.

Fig.8 RDA analyses of comprehensive Land use/cover and water quality (a: Wet season; b: Dry season)

307 As shown in Figure 8, farmland exhibits a negative correlation with COD at a confidence level of 308 0.01 during the wet season, and the correlation coefficient is -0.543. By contrast, it shows a positive 309 correlation with NUT, and with a correlation coefficient of 0.555. At a confidence level of 0.05, farmland 310 demonstrates a negative correlation with NH₃-N, and the correlation coefficient is -0.461. At a confidence 311 level of 0.05, forest-grass land show a positive correlation with BOD_5 and TP, with correlation coefficients 312 of 0.470 and 0.518, respectively. They exhibit a negative correlation with SS and NUT, with correlation 313 coefficients of -0.529 and -0.498, respectively. At a confidence level of 0.05, salinized land demonstrates 314 a positive correlation with BOD₅ and TP, with correlation coefficients of -0.503 and 0.518, respectively. 315 By contrast, it presents a negative correlation with SS and NUT, with correlation coefficients of 0.449 and 316 0.449, respectively. During the dry season, the influence of farmland on various water quality parameters 317 evidently increases because of crop growth. At a confidence level of 0.01, farmland presents a clear 318 negative correlation with COD and an evident positive correlation with TP, with correlation coefficients of 319 -0.620 and 0.616, respectively. At a confidence level of 0.05, farmland shows a positive correlation with 320 TN and a negative correlation with BOD₅, NH₃-N and SD, with correlation coefficients of 0.543, -0.495, 321 -0.522, and -0.526, respectively. At a confidence level of 0.01, salinized land demonstrates a negative correlation with NUT and TP, and the correlation coefficients are -0.543 and -0.603, respectively. By 322 323 contrast, it presents a positive correlation with BOD₅ at a confidence level of 0.05, and the correlation 324 coefficient is 0.522. Similarly, during the wet and dry seasons, the correlation of the water body and others 325 land type with water quality parameters is small. From the results, the influences of various land use/cover 326 types in the research zone on water quality parameters exhibit the following order: farmland \rightarrow 327 forest-grass land \rightarrow salinized land \rightarrow water body \rightarrow others. Moreover, the influence is less during the wet 328 season than during the dry season.

329 **3 Discussion and conclusions**

330 3.1 Discussion

Given seasonal differences, the unbalanced distribution of precipitation amount results in an apparent
 variation in surface runoff and further imbalance in the spatial distribution of water quality in the research





333 zone(Fan et al., 2012; Prathumratana et al., 2008; Li et al., 2015). During the wet season (May) in Jinghe 334 Oasis, melted water from mountain ice and snow is collected, which promotes flow in Jing River, thereby 335 resulting in a significant increase in surface runoff and lead to the water quality in rainy season is better 336 than dry season. During the dry season, the aquatic plants in rivers and lakes are growing with the 337 temperature rises, which can absorb and purify part of the water quality parameters in a certain degree. 338 Therefore, a significant change in surface runoff and seasonal change in the research zone are important 339 factors that result in noticeable differences in the spatial distribution characteristics of water quality during 340 the wet and dry seasons. Another major factor that results in differences in the spatial distribution of water 341 quality is land use/cover change, especially the farmland. During the dry season, farmland have great 342 influenced on more water quality variables than during the rainy season because of intensive fertilization 343 and agricultural runoff from soil erosion (Ngoye et al, 2004; ;Li et al., 2009; Tran et al., 2010). Multiple 344 factors threaten the ecological safety of the Jinghe Oasis system. Especially, in recent years, the lakeside 345 desertification zone has rapidly expanded because of the decrease in the area of Ebinur Lake as well as the 346 degradation of lakeside vegetation under the deflection of strong winds in Alashankou. In the current 347 overall situation, the influences of human activities on land use/cover are directly related to the 348 development of a vulnerable ecological area that surrounds Ebinur Lake.

349 Recent statistics indicate that the annual growth rate of the population in Jinghe Oasis is 350 approximately 2.49%, which is slightly higher compared with the previous growth rates (Li, 2006). Under 351 the stress of a large population, common inappropriate phenomena that occur with land use/cover in Jinghe 352 Oasis will increase. For the last 30 years, cotton has been the major crop in Jinghe Oasis. The results of the 353 current study indicate that the research zone is distributed across a farmland, where water quality in the 354 surrounding sampling points is lower than those in other regions. The primary sources of living of urban 355 residents around the Ebinur Lake area are agriculture and animal husbandry. Pollutants that result in high 356 TP and NH₃-N contents in water include excessively applied chemical fertilizers in farmland, livestock 357 manure in rural villages, randomly stocked garbage, and domestic wastewater. In particular, a vast area 358 with improperly applied chemical fertilizers and pesticides leads to high nitrogen and phosphorus contents 359 in water, which result in the spread of algae in some sections of a river. Consequently, the amount of 360 dissolved oxygen in water is decreased, water quality deteriorates, and eutrophication occurs. Furthermore, 361 a serious salinization phenomenon exists. Certain measures have been implemented for the ecological 362 protection of Ebinur Lake, such as returning farmland to forest, cultivating ecological forest, promoting 363 efficient irrigation and water-saving technology. However, these measures promote the gradual expansion of the lake area and also results in different degrees of negative consequences. The most apparent result is 364 365 the rise of the underground water level, which has aggravated land salinization in lowland areas and has 366 resulted in vast expanses of uncultivated former agricultural lands. Statistics indicate that soil salinization 367 in the Ebinur Lake area mainly occur in Bortala River, Jing River, the surrounding villages and towns of 368 Ebinur Lake, downstream of Daheyanzi River, and north of Bole City (Mi et al., 2010). Severe soil 369 salinization has seriously affected the farming of crops; therefore, some farmers increase the amount of 370 chemical fertilizer to increase yield, which increased the pollution of water and soil. Others even abandon 371 the land, thereby resulting in land use/cover change.

Most rivers in Xinjiang are characterized by low water yield, short flow, small water environmental capacity, poor self-cleaning capability, and low tolerance to pollution. Hence, an artificial change in land use and exploration for resources in lake regions lead to an evident correlation between land use/cover type and water quality. In addition, scientifically utilizing and protecting the water resources of Ebinur Lake, as





376 well as scientifically applying chemical fertilizers and improving their application rates, are important

377 issues that should be addressed to achieve sustainable development in the agricultural irrigation zones in

378 Jinghe Oasis and rivers in Xinjiang.

379 3.2 Conclusions

380 The spatial distribution characteristics of water quality in Jinghe Oasis and their correlation with land 381 use/cover type are analyzed, and the following conclusions are drawn.

382 (1) Through the SOM method based on non-hierarchical k-means classification, 47 sampling points of 383 water quality are divided into 6 types, and time sequence characteristics in the research zone are better 384 recognized in the classification results. Clusters 1 to 3 comprise samples from the wet season (May 2015), 385 whereas Clusters 4 to 6 comprise monitoring samples from the dry season (October 2015). In general, 386 COD, SS, NUT, TN, and NH₃-N contents are high. The SD value is high in Clusters 1, 4, and 6. In addition, the high BOD and TP values are mainly concentrated in Clusters 4 and 6. On the basis of these 387 388 findings, water quality at different layers of the research zone is further evaluated. The results show that 389 Clusters 1 to 6 do not satisfy potable water level.

(2) The correlation between land use/cover type and water quality parameters from Clusters 1 to 6 is analyzed according to the hierarchical results of the water quality parameters. The comprehensive analysis indicates that the influences of arable land, forest and grassland, and salt lick are significant on the water quality parameters in Jinghe Oasis. In Clusters 1, 2, and 6, the size of the water area also influences changes in water quality parameters to a certain extent.

395 (3) During the wet and dry seasons, the influences of various land use/cover types in the research zone 396 on water quality parameters exhibits the following order: arable land \rightarrow forest and grassland \rightarrow salt lick \rightarrow 397 water area \rightarrow others. Moreover, influence is less during the wet season than during the dry season.

In general, land use/cover type, area percentage, and water quality in Jinghe Oasis demonstrate an apparent correlation. The research results can tentative exploration the relationship between water quality and land use/cover types in different clusters by SOM. It provides a new insight for further studies on the correlation between land use/cover and water quality in Jinghe Oasis, as well as a scientific reference for formulating regulation and control policies for the spatial development and water environment protection of the Jinghe Oasis.

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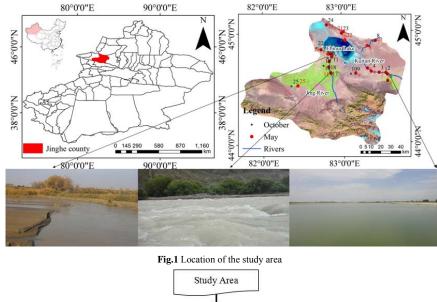


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Figures caption



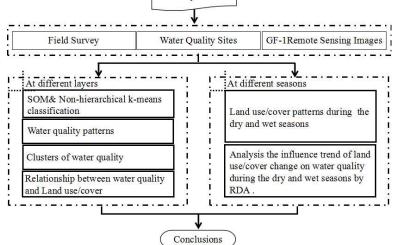


Fig.2 Conceptual model for the methodology





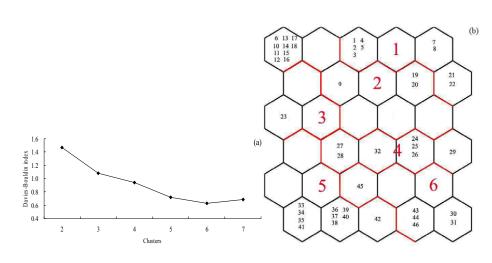


Fig.3 (a) Davies–Bouldin index plot. (b) The results of SOM clustering of the cells on the map plane (Distribution of sampling sites on the SOM according to the eight water quality parameters, and clustering of the trained SOM.)

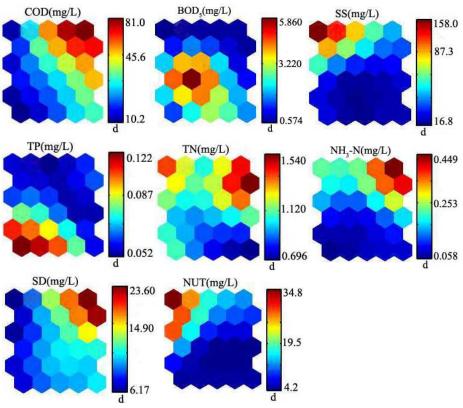
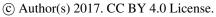


Fig.4 The patterning results for water quality parameters on the SOM plane







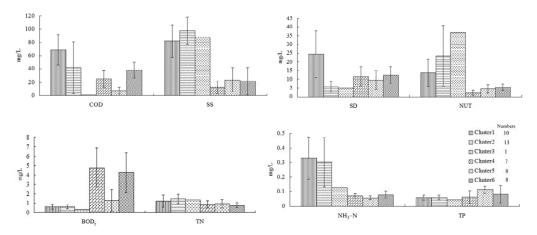


Fig.5 Average values for the water quality parameters

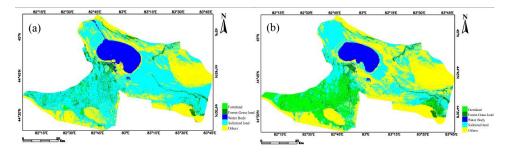


Fig.6 The change of land use/cover in the Ebinur Lake area during the rainy (May) and dry (October) seasons in 2015(a: May;b:

October)

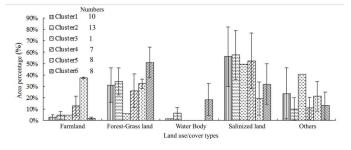


Fig.7 The area of land use/cover for each cluster





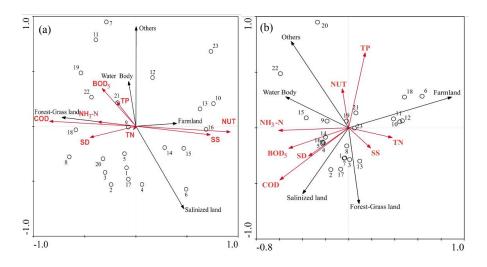


Fig.8 RDA analyses of comprehensive Land use/cover and water quality (a: Wet season; b: Dry season)





Tables caption

Table 1 The classes of water quality parameter in each cluster						
	Cluster1	Cluster2	Cluster4	Cluster5	Cluster6	
COD	$\operatorname{Exceed} V$	$\operatorname{Exceed} V$	Ι	IV	V	
BOD_5	Ι	Ι	IV	Ι	IV	
TN	IV	IV	III	III	III	
$\mathrm{NH_3}^+$ -N	II	II	Ι	Ι	Ι	
ТР	II	II	II	III	II	

Table 2 The correlation coefficients between land use/cover and water quality parameters in each cluster

	Parameters	Farmland	Forest-Grass land	Water Body	Salinized land	Others
	COD	-0.161	0.240	0.986*	-0.110	-0.361
	BOD_5	0.074	0.492	-0.439	-0.613	0.552
	SS	-0.271	-0.710***	0.801	0.619	-0.384
Cluster1	TP	-0.195	0.453	0.371	0.444	0.623
	TN	0.464	0.524	-0.721 *	-0.224	0.121
	NH ₃ -N	-0.491	0.039	0.071	-0.066	0.291
	SD	-0.296	0.448	0.415	-0.426	0.396
	NUT	-0.261	-0.724**	0.550	0.756**	-0.612
	COD	-0.581*	0.613*	0.916	-0.693**	0.442
	BOD_5	-0.004	0.455	0.055	-0.545	0.242
	SS	0.493	-0.512	-0.983**	0.386	0.047
	ТР	-0.222	0.531	0.850	-0.129	0.382
Cluster2	TN	0.351	0.415	-0.867	-0.356	-0.311
	NH ₃ -N	-0.467	0.121	0.122	-0.269	0.284
	SD	-0.226	-0.073	-0.051	-0.217	0.473
	NUT	0.639*	-0.446	-0.990**	0.513	-0.236
	COD	-0.652*	0.484	/	0.375	-0.048
	BOD ₅	-0.482	-0.402	/	0.505	0.688
	SS	-0.155	0.658	/	-0.179	-0.167
	TP	0.872**	-0.398	/	-0.791 [*]	0.868^{*}
Cluster4	TN	0.336	0.468	/	-0.571	-0.124
	NH3-N	-0.202	-0.540	/	0.398	0.352
	SD	-0.543	0.825*	/	0.214	-0.549
	NUT	0.578	0.469	/	-0.819 [*]	-0.129
	COD	0.094	-0.372	/	0.325	-0.400
Cluster5	BOD ₅	-0.881**	0.503	/	0.774^{*}	-0.044
	SS	0.621	-0.533	/	-0.284	-0.380
	ТР	0.587	-0.702	/	-0.565	0.136
	TN	0.735	-0.588	/	-0.184	-0.604
	NH3-N	-0.675	0.108	/	0.487	0.308
	SD	-0.632	0.330	/	0.208	0.576
	NUT	0.311	0.076	/	-0.459	0.154
Cluster6	COD	0.489	0.401	0.980^{*}	-0.454	0.289
	BOD ₅	-0.256	-0.884**	-0.660	0.367	0.327

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 SS	-0.481	0.194	0.341	-0.150	-0.062
ТР	-0.545	-0.656	0.269	-0.060	0.206
TN	-0.158	-0.364	-0.022	0.516	0.313
NH ₃ -N	-0.553	-0.366	0.517	-0.090	0.603
SD	0.811	-0.037	-0.857	0.249	-0.282
NUT	0.450	0.165	0.764	-0.497	0.636

*p<0.05(2-tailed) ** p<0.01(2-tailed)