

Responses to Editor and Reviewers:

Responses to Editor

Editor Decision: Publish subject to minor revisions (Editor review) (20 Jun 2016) by Prof. Nadia Ursino

Editor comments: according to the reviewers' reports, your manuscript may be accepted for publication after revision. Try to address Referee#5 comments, and if you can, shorten your manuscript and upload the revised version.

Authors: Dear Prof. Nadia Ursino, thank you so much for your decision and suggestion. We have carefully amended our manuscript based on the suggestions and comments, and tried our best to shorten the manuscript. The detailed responses are provided below.

Responses to Reviewer #1:

Reviewer: The quality of presentation has rooms to improve. For example, the numbers in the several tables have two decimal points. Are they really meaningful to have two, why not one?

Authors: We agree that two decimal points are not meaningful in some tables. Thus, following the reviewer's suggestion, we have revised these tables (Table 2 on pages 8-9, Table 4 on page 18, Table 8 on pages 23-24).

Reviewer: I feel the tables are too excessive and it can be more concise to tell a story.

Authors: Following the reviewer's suggestion, we adjusted some tables and moved some tables to supplement (Table 4 on page 18, Table 5-7 on pages 20-22, Table 8 on pages 23-24, Table S1-S3 in supplement).

Reviewer: The scale of Fig 2 in 0.01. This makes the fig rather busy. Does 0.01 really make a big difference?

Authors: We agree that Fig. 2 looks a little busy due to the scale issue, and coarser-scale does not make a big difference. Therefore we adjusted the scale of Fig. 2 (Figure 2 on page 12).

Response to reviewer #4:

Reviewer: The manuscript HESS-2016-22 was improved and reached a good quality level. The authors gave a complete and detailed answer to all the comments to the previous version. At the end, my suggestion is to accept the paper for publication.

Authors: Thank you very much for your positive comments to our work on the revision of this manuscript.

Response to reviewer #5:

Reviewer: This paper described the variations and controlling factors in deep soil moisture in the Ansai watershed in Yanan in Shanxi, China. The authors found that species-specific root system (vertical root distribution is a key factor in comparison with plant growth conditions, planting density and litter water holding traits controlling the variation in deep soil moisture. Generally, the paper is well written and address relevant scientific questions within the scope of HESS. However, I think the findings are not novel, but of more general known knowledge. The results presented are not robust. Therefore, I don't think the paper can be published in this form.

Authors: Thank you so much for this comment. This comment drives us to think the manuscript over carefully. In our opinion, measuring deep soil moisture at depths of 0-500 cm is a very challenging and valuable task, there are several novel and interesting findings in the manuscript: (1) the main innovation of this study is to explore the variation of DSM and its influencing factors at a moderate watershed scale which is of great practical values for the ecological restoration policy in the Loess Plateau of China; (2) we clearly defined DSM based on our data analysis while we cannot find clear definition of DSM exists in previous studies; (3) we stratified the DSM based on its hydrology traits while almost all previous studies stratified the DSM subjectively; and (4) we found there existed significant difference in DSM under different introduced vegetation and identified the dominant influencing factors of DSM under different vegetation types. Therefore, we think our findings are not just known knowledge, and worth of publishing. We have further emphasized the above mentioned points.

Reviewer: I would suggest to present CV of soil moistures along the depths vertically for each species. This analysis may help you understand the effect of species on deep soil moistures, and partition the effects of topography and species.

Authors: We thank reviewer for this useful comments. We agree that the CV of DSM along the depths can really help us understand the effect of species on DSM, and partition the effects of topography. Thus, we have added the CV of DSM along the depths vertically in the revised manuscript (see lines 8-16 on page 17 and Figure S4 in

supplement).

Reviewer: *The paper is not concisely written, but lengthy. Therefore, the paper needs to be shorten largely.*

Authors: Thank you so much for this comment. In order to make the manuscript more concise, we deleted some unnecessary contents throughout the manuscript and moved some tables to the supplement document (see lines 8-13 on page4, Table 5-7 on pages 20-22, lines 8-12 on page27, lines 20-22 on page27, lines 26-29 on page27, lines 15-18 on page28, lines 2-4 on page29, lines15-19 on page 29,lines19-20 on page31, lines 24-28 on page 31,lines 1-5 on page 32, lines 8-9 on page32, lines16-23 on page32).

Reviewer: *Conclusions is too long, need to be summarized.*

Authors: As suggested by the reviewer, we have shortened the conclusion section (see conclusion section on page 31-32).

Variations of deep soil moisture under different vegetation types and influencing factors in a watershed of the Loess Plateau, China

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1 **Abstract:**

2 Soil moisture in deep soil layers is a relatively stable water resource for
3 vegetation growth in the semi-arid Loess Plateau of China. Characterizing the
4 variations in deep soil moisture and its influencing factors at a moderate watershed
5 scale is important to ensure the sustainability of vegetation restoration efforts. In this
6 study, we focus on analyzing the variations and factors that influence the deep soil
7 moisture (DSM) in 80-500 cm soil layers based on a soil moisture survey of the Ansai
8 watershed in Yanan in Shanxi Province. Our results can be divided into four main
9 findings. (1) At the watershed scale, higher variations in the DSM occurred at
10 120-140 cm and 480-500 cm in the vertical direction. At the comparable depths, the
11 variation in the DSM under native vegetation was much lower than that in
12 human-managed vegetation and introduced vegetation. (2) The DSM in native
13 vegetation and human-managed vegetation was significantly higher than that in
14 introduced vegetation, and different degrees of soil desiccation occurred under all the
15 introduced vegetation types. *Caragana korshinskii* and black locust caused the most
16 serious desiccation. (3) Taking the DSM conditions of native vegetation as a reference,
17 the DSM in this watershed could be divided into three layers: (I) a rainfall
18 transpiration layer (80-220 cm); (II) a transition layer (220-400 cm); and (III) a stable
19 layer (400-500 cm). (4) The factors influencing DSM at the watershed scale varied
20 with vegetation types. The main local controls of the DSM variations were the soil
21 particle composition and mean annual rainfall; human agricultural management
22 measures can alter the soil bulk density, which contributes to higher DSM in farmland
23 and apple orchards. The plant growth conditions, planting density, and litter water
24 holding traits of introduced vegetation showed significant relationships with the DSM.
25 The results of this study are of practical significance for vegetation restoration
26 strategies, especially for the choice of vegetation types, planting zones, and proper
27 human management measures.

28

1 **1 Introduction**

2 Soil moisture is an indispensable component of terrestrial systems and plays a
3 critical role in surface hydrological processes, especially runoff generation, soil
4 evaporation and plant transpiration (Cheema et al., 2011; Legates et al., 2011; Wang et
5 al., 2012a; Zhao et al., 2013). The soil moisture in different soil layers is usually
6 related to different hydrological processes and ecological functions (Yang et al.,
7 2012a). Surface or shallow layer soil moisture is usually greatly influenced by rainfall
8 infiltration or evapotranspiration and is a regular water source for vegetation growth,
9 while the moisture in deep soil layers functions as a reservoir for soil. During rainy
10 years, DSM can be replenished by rainfall infiltration; during drought years, DSM can
11 also provide necessary water for plant growth and is thus important for plant growth
12 during dry seasons (Yang et al., 2012c; Jia and Shao, 2014). This relationship is
13 particularly true in semi-arid areas, such as the Loess Plateau of China, where water
14 resources are incredibly scarce. In such regions, DSM even becomes the main
15 constraining factor of plant productivity and ecosystem sustainability (Wang et al.,
16 2010c; Wang et al., 2011a). In this study, we define the deep soil layer as the layer
17 whose soil moisture is not sensitive to daily evapotranspiration and regular rainfall
18 events.

19 The Loess Plateau of China is located in a semi-arid area. The average annual
20 rainfall in this region ranges from 150 to 800 mm, which is far lower than the average
21 annual pan evaporation (1400–2000 mm) (Wang et al., 2010b). Low precipitation and
22 high evaporation results in lower soil moisture content in this region. The shallow soil
23 moisture is not sufficient to meet the growth needs of introduced vegetation (Yang et
24 al., 2014b). Moreover, the loess soil's thickness in this area ranges from 30 to 80 m; at
25 these depths, groundwater is not available for plants (Wang et al., 2013). Therefore,
26 DSM that is stored in unsaturated soil becomes an important water resource for plant
27 growth (Yang et al., 2012c). However, the vegetation that has been introduced by the
28 national Grain for Green project tends to have strong water consumption. Large-scale
29 afforestation has resulted in the excessive consumption of DSM, and a large range of

1 soil desiccation has been reported (Wang et al., 2008b; Wang et al., 2010b; Wang et al.,
2 2010c; Wang et al., 2011b). Soil desiccation greatly reduces the capability of a “soil
3 reservoir” to supply water to deep soil layers for plant growth in the Loess Plateau
4 (Chen et al., 2008a). Introduced vegetation in desiccated land is easily degraded with
5 low productivity, and “small aged trees” with heights of 3–5 m have widely appeared.
6 Therefore, the sustainability of the restored ecosystem is being challenged. Moreover,
7 traditional soil moisture studies, which have mainly focused on shallow depth layers
8 (Gómez-Plaza et al., 2001; Bi et al., 2009; Baroni et al., 2013), cannot clearly reveal
9 the sustainability needs for vegetation restoration.

10 ~~Studies on DSM have gradually attracted attention from many scientists in recent~~
11 ~~years. For example, DSM was found to be excessively consumed by almost all the~~
12 ~~introduced vegetation, and a high planting density was the main reason for the severe~~
13 ~~deficits in soil moisture (Yang et al., 2012c). Additionally, introduced vegetation~~
14 ~~diminished the spatial heterogeneity of DSM at the small catchment scale (Jia and~~
15 ~~Shao, 2014; Yang et al., 2014b).~~ In recent years, several studies have been conducted
16 on the variation in and factors influencing DSM in the Loess Plateau (Liu et al., 2010;
17 Wang et al., 2012b; Wang et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2014a; Jia and Shao, 2014; Sun et
18 al., 2014). Deep soil moisture is an indispensable water source for vegetation growth
19 in the semi-arid Loess Plateau; understanding the variations and influencing factors of
20 DSM is important for “timely, suitable, and moderate” vegetation restoration and can
21 also help in developing proper measures to control soil desiccation. In fact, DSM is a
22 result of long-term biophysical processes that are controlled by multiple factors
23 (Vereecken et al., 2007). Several factors may impact DSM variations, such as
24 vegetation traits, soil properties, topographical factors, climate factors, and human
25 landscape management measures (Qiu et al., 2001; Lu et al., 2007; Lu et al., 2008;
26 Vivoni et al., 2008; Zhu and Lin, 2011; Montenegro and Ragab, 2012). The dominant
27 factors that affect DSM variations depend on the research scale (Entin et al., 2000).
28 For instance, DSM variations are mainly dominated by the type of vegetation at the
29 slope scale (0.1-1 km²) (Jia et al., 2013). Additionally, vegetation and topography are

1 key factors that contribute to DSM variations at the small catchment scale (1-100 km²)
2 (Yang et al., 2012a). Meanwhile, Wang et al. (2012b) reported that DSM variations at
3 the regional scale (i.e., the Loess Plateau, covering 640,000 km²) are mainly
4 determined by plant types and climatic conditions. Vegetation factors play an
5 important role in spatial variations in DSM at all scales (Western et al., 2004).

6 While all spatial scales, from slopes and small catchments to regions, are relevant
7 to understanding DSM variations, some scales are more operational and meaningful
8 than others. For example, slope- and small catchment-based studies tend to be too
9 small in spatial extent to incorporate all environmental factors and human-managed
10 measures (the soil traits, climate characteristics, and human-managed measures in one
11 slope or small catchment are usually homogeneous), which are the most relevant to
12 DSM variations (Gómez-Plaza et al., 2000; BI et al., 2009; Zhu et al., 2014a; Zhu et
13 al., 2014b). At the regional scale, assessing the essential mechanistic details (high
14 variations in rainfall and temperature can cover the influencing effects of other factors)
15 of DSM variations to guide local policies is often impossible (Wang et al., 2010a;
16 Wang et al., 2010d; Wang et al., 2012c). A moderate scale that covers an area of
17 approximately 100-1000 km² over a watershed or a geopolitically-defined area
18 represents a pivotal scale domain for research on DSM variation mechanisms. In
19 particular, people and nature mesh and interact most acutely at this scale (Zhao and
20 Fang, 2014; Fang et al., 2015), which is a more operational scale for sustainable
21 vegetation restoration policy making. To date, however, minimal research on DSM
22 variations has centered on such a moderate scale, and the variation mechanisms of
23 DSM at this scale are still unclear.

24 In this study, we aim to reveal the variations in DSM and its influencing factors at
25 a moderate watershed scale. This study includes shallow root system vegetation and
26 deep root system vegetation, covering eight specific vegetation types. We first identify
27 the deep soil layer in the Ansai watershed, whose soil moisture is not sensitive to
28 regular rainfall and daily evapotranspiration. Then, we explore the overall variation in
29 DSM in this area, compare the DSM of these root system vegetation types, and

1 identify variations in their profiles. Finally, the influence of various environmental
2 factors on the DSM under different vegetation types is discussed. The objectives of
3 this study are to (1) quantify the variation characteristics of DSM, (2) explore the
4 mechanisms for controlling DSM variability among different vegetation types at the
5 watershed scale, and (3) develop recommendations for land use management and the
6 sustainability of vegetation recovery for the Loess Plateau.

7 **2 Materials and Methods**

8 **2.1 Study area**

9 The Yanhe watershed lies in the middle of the Loess Plateau in northern Shaanxi
10 Province. The Ansai watershed (108°47'-109°25'E, 36°52'-37°19'N) (Fig. 1) is
11 located in the upstream section of the Yanhe river and covers an area of approximately
12 1334 km². This watershed has a highly fragmented terrain, and the elevation here
13 ranges from 1057 to 1743 m above sea level. This typical semi-arid loess hilly region
14 has a mean annual temperature of 8.8 °C, and the average annual precipitation ranges
15 from 375 to 546 mm across the watershed (Fig. S1). Most rainfall occurs in the form
16 of thunderstorms during the summer months from June to September. The soil types
17 in this study area include loess soil with low fertility and vulnerability to soil erosion
18 (Zhao et al., 2012). The soil texture is different across the watershed, with the sand
19 content ranging from 24% to 57%, the silt content ranging from 40% to 65%, and the
20 clay content ranging from 6% to 10% (Fig. S2).

21 The predominant land use types in the Ansai watershed are rain-fed farmland,
22 orchard land, sparse native grassland, pasture grassland, shrub land, and forest (Feng
23 et al., 2013). The native vegetation in the study area consists of sparse grasses with
24 shallow roots that are dominated by species such as bunge needlegrass, common
25 leymus, and Altai heter pappus. Non-native species, such as alfalfa, black locust,
26 David peach, sea buckthorn, and *Caragana korshinskii*, were predominantly used in
27 the study area under the national Grain for Green project. The cultivated crops are
28 predominantly maize, millet and broom corn millet. Because this region is located in a
29 semi-arid climatic zone, water resources represent the major constraint of vegetation

1 growth and agricultural crop production.

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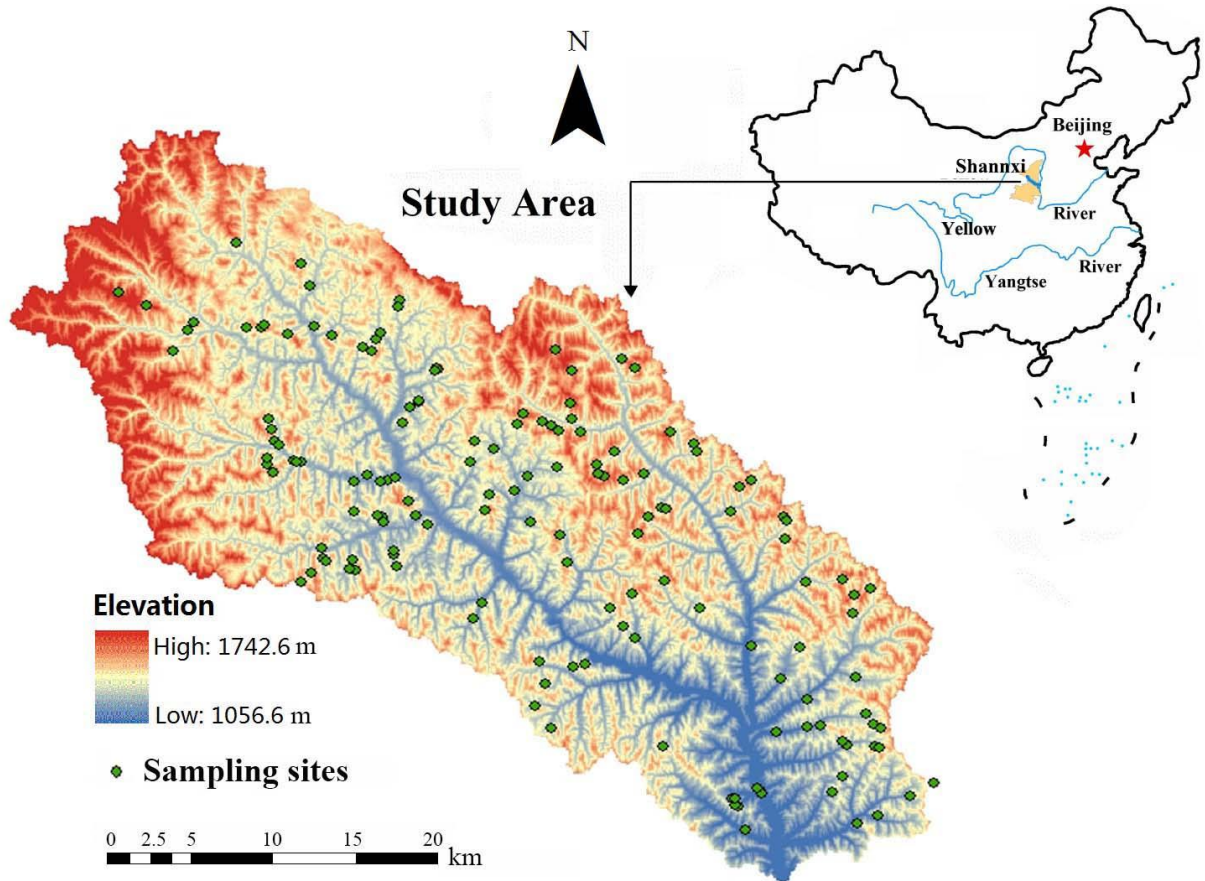
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16 Figure 1. Location of the study area and sampling sites.

17 2.2 Sampling locations and description

18 Two vegetation groups with different root systems were selected: (1) shallow root
19 system vegetation, including native grasses (NG) and farmland (FL) with human
20 agricultural measures; and (2) deep root system vegetation, including pasture grasses
21 (PG), sea buckthorn (SB), *Caragana korshinskii* (CK), David peach (DP), black
22 locust (BL) and apple orchard (AO) with human agricultural measures. Descriptions
23 of the root distribution of the selected vegetation types are provided in Table 1.

24 Table 1. Descriptions of the root distributions of the selected vegetation species.

Vegetation type	Root distribution traits	Source
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NG	The roots of native grasses are usually distributed at depths of 0-50 cm.	(Han et al., 2009)
PG	The fibrous roots of pasture grasses are mainly distributed at depths of 0-50 cm, while taproot systems can extend to 3 m.	(Wei et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2010d)
FL	The roots of farmland are mainly distributed at depths of 0-40 cm.	(Feng et al., 2007)
AO	Ninety percent of apple tree roots are distributed at depths of 0-120 cm, while deep roots can reach 160 cm.	(Lei et al., 2013)
CK	The fibrous roots of <i>Caragana korshinskii</i> are mainly distributed at depths of 0-100 cm, while taproot systems can extend to 6.4 m.	(Wang et al., 2010d)
SB	The fibrous roots of sea buckthorn are mainly distributed at soil depths of 0-160 cm, while deep roots can reach 200-300 cm.	(Chong and Liang, 1990)
DP	Ninety percent of David peach roots are distributed within depths of 100 cm, while deep roots can reach 150 cm.	(Shi et al., 1989)
BL	Coarse roots are mainly distributed within depths of 260 cm, while fine roots can reach 350 cm.	(Zhang and Xu, 2011)

1 To fully explore the influencing factors of deep soil moisture, we examined
2 topographic factors, surface soil properties, vegetation traits, and climate factors.
3 These factors further included 23 independent variables: average annual rainfall
4 (AAR), altitude (Al), slope position (SP), slope aspect (SA), slope gradient (SG), clay
5 (Cl), silt (Sl), sand (Sa), organic matter (OM), capillary porosity (CP), soil bulk
6 density (SBD), vegetation coverage (VC), grass biomass (GB), grass height (GH),
7 planting density (PD), plant height (PH), diameter at breast height (DBH), crown
8 width (CW), basal diameter (BD), litter max water holding (LMWH), litter biomass
9 (LB), and clear bole height (CBH). The distance between each vegetation sampling
10 site was at least 2 km. The sampling locations are shown in Fig. 1. The main
11 characteristics and sampling numbers for each vegetation type are shown in Table 2.

12 Table 2. Main characteristics and sampling numbers for different vegetation types.

<u>Vegetation conditions</u>	<u>Shallow root vegetation</u>			<u>Deep root vegetation</u>				
	<u>NG^a</u>	<u>FL</u>	<u>AO</u>	<u>PG</u>	<u>CK</u>	<u>SB</u>	<u>DP</u>	<u>BL</u>

<u>Sampling number</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>22</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>18</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>12</u>	<u>38</u>
<u>Altitude (m)</u>	<u>1392.6</u>	<u>1380.1</u>	<u>1370.1</u>	<u>1401.0</u>	<u>1350.6</u>	<u>1435.7</u>	<u>1377.6</u>	<u>1326.5</u>
<u>Slope aspect (°)</u>	<u>170.7</u>	<u>200.6</u>	<u>173.5</u>	<u>195.4</u>	<u>161.8</u>	<u>195.8</u>	<u>128.1</u>	<u>156.4</u>
<u>Slope gradient (°)</u>	<u>16.7</u>	<u>6.3</u>	<u>19.9</u>	<u>13.1</u>	<u>17.6</u>	<u>16.4</u>	<u>24.2</u>	<u>27.2</u>
<u>Sand (%)</u>	<u>44.9</u>	<u>39.4</u>	<u>38.2</u>	<u>55.3</u>	<u>46.4</u>	<u>46.2</u>	<u>52.7</u>	<u>40.0</u>
<u>Silt (%)</u>	<u>47.1</u>	<u>52.6</u>	<u>53.6</u>	<u>38.2</u>	<u>46.6</u>	<u>46.9</u>	<u>47.3</u>	<u>51.8</u>
<u>Clay (%)</u>	<u>8.1</u>	<u>7.9</u>	<u>8.2</u>	<u>6.5</u>	<u>7.0</u>	<u>7.0</u>	<u>7.4</u>	<u>8.3</u>
<u>Organic matter (g/kg)</u>	<u>7.0</u>	<u>5.3</u>	<u>5.8</u>	<u>6.3</u>	<u>13.3</u>	<u>8.9</u>	<u>6.0</u>	<u>8.1</u>
<u>Soil bulk density (g/cm³)</u>	<u>1.3</u>	<u>1.3</u>	<u>1.3</u>	<u>1.3</u>	<u>1.3</u>	<u>1.2</u>	<u>1.3</u>	<u>1.2</u>
<u>Capillary porosity (%)</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>46</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>47</u>	<u>49</u>	<u>48</u>	<u>49</u>	<u>49</u>
<u>Mean canopy coverage (%)</u>	<u>57.4</u>	<u>53.3</u>	<u>39.7</u>	<u>67.8</u>	<u>45.6</u>	<u>66.1</u>	<u>33.8</u>	<u>59.6</u>
<u>Mean canopy height (m)</u>	<u>0.6</u>	<u>1.8</u>	<u>3.6</u>	<u>0.7</u>	<u>1.7</u>	<u>1.9</u>	<u>3.0</u>	<u>11.8</u>
<u>Mean tree DBH (cm)</u>	-	-	<u>6.3</u>	-	-	-	<u>5.0</u>	<u>10.4</u>
<u>Mean crown (cm)</u>	-	-	<u>398.4</u>	-	<u>199.7</u>	<u>184.9</u>	<u>293.4</u>	<u>455.3</u>
<u>Basal diameter (cm)</u>	-	-	<u>10.2</u>	-	<u>1.3</u>	<u>3.8</u>	<u>8.1</u>	<u>12.9</u>
<u>Planting density (/m²)</u>	-	-	<u>30.5</u>	-	<u>129.7</u>	<u>262.4</u>	<u>36.2</u>	<u>58.7</u>

1 ^a NG, FL, AO, PG, CK, SB, DP and BL refer to native grasses, farmland, apple
2 orchard, pasture grasses, *Caragana korshinskii*, sea buckthorn, David peach and black
3 locust, respectively.

4 **2.3 Data collection and analysis**

5 Soil samples were collected from depths of 0–500 cm using a soil drill (5 cm in
6 diameter) with 20-cm increments within 28 days (from July 10 to August 6, 2014).
7 The soil samples were sealed and taken to the laboratory, and the gravimetric soil
8 moisture content was determined via oven drying at 105 °C to a constant weight.
9 Three sampling profiles were randomly chosen to obtain the average soil moisture
10 content for each sampling site. Native grasses and *Caragana korshinskii* were selected
11 as representatives of shallow root vegetation and deep root vegetation, respectively.
12 Soil moisture dynamic data (0-200 cm) of these vegetation types were monitored by
13 EM50 (109°19'23"E, 36°51'26"N) from the same time period in 2015. The average
14 annual rainfall (2006-2013) was provided by 29 rain gauges in or around the Ansai

1 watershed, and the Inverse Distance Weighted (IDW) interpolation method was
2 performed in ArcGIS10.0 to obtain the average annual rainfall at each sampling site
3 (Fig. S1).

4 The longitude, latitude and altitude were collected for each experimental site by
5 using a Garmin GPS (version eTrex 30). The slope gradients and slope aspects were
6 determined by using the compass method in field investigations; the slope gradients
7 were transformed into tan (slope), and the slope aspects (clockwise from north) were
8 transformed into cos (aspect). At each sampling site, six undisturbed soil cores were
9 collected from the soil surface in metal cylinders (diameter of 5 cm, length of 5 cm) to
10 measure the bulk density and capillary porosity (Wang et al., 2008a). The bulk density
11 was determined from the volume–mass relationship for each core sample, and the
12 capillary porosity was measured by the “cylinder soak method”. Soil samples were
13 also collected at each sampling site. The soil particle size distributions were measured
14 by using a laser scattering particle size distribution analyzer (BT-9300H, Dandong,
15 China). The proportions of clay (<0.002 mm), silt (0.002-0.02 mm), and sand (>0.02
16 mm) content were then calculated. The soil organic matter content was determined by
17 using the dichromate oxidation method (Hu et al., 2010). A vegetation investigation
18 was also conducted at each sampling site. The stand density (plants/ha), tree height
19 (m), diameter at breast height (DHB, cm), basal diameter (cm), under branch height
20 (m), canopy width in a 20 m×20 m quadrat, and total canopy or coverage of each
21 quadrat were recorded at the forest sites. The stand density (plants/ha), plant height
22 (m), basal diameter (cm), and canopy width in a 10 m×10 m quadrat were measured at
23 the shrub sites. The species composition, total herbaceous coverage, grass height (m),
24 litters and grass biomass were measured in each herbaceous quadrat. The canopy
25 cover was measured by visual estimation, and the litter maximum water holdup was
26 measured by using the immersion method.

27 **2.4 Statistical methods**

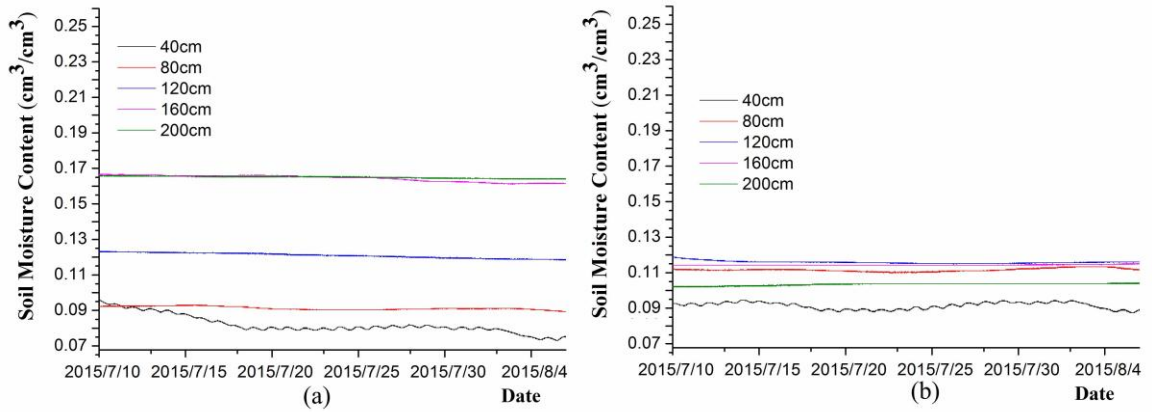
28 The DSM from each layer was pooled together for the 151 sampling locations to
29 conduct a descriptive analysis. Basic population statistics, such as minimum values

1 (Min), maximum values (Max), mean values (Mean), standard deviations (SD), and
2 coefficients of variation (CV), were reported for both the overall soil moisture
3 datasets and for each vegetation type. The SD and CV values were employed to
4 reflect the degree of variability of the DSM in different layers and for different
5 vegetation types (Ruan and Li, 2002). One-way ANOVA was used to assess the
6 contribution of different vegetation cover types to the overall variation in the DSM.
7 Multiple comparisons were made by using the least significant difference (LSD)
8 method. First, Spearman correlation analysis was used to examine the relationships
9 between the DSM and environmental variables to determine the factors contributing
10 to the DSM dynamics. Then, principle component analysis was performed to reduce
11 the linear correlation that may exist among selected environmental variables and to
12 further identify a minimum data set (MDS) of environmental variables for each
13 vegetation type. All the statistical analyses were performed by using SPSS (Version
14 20.0).

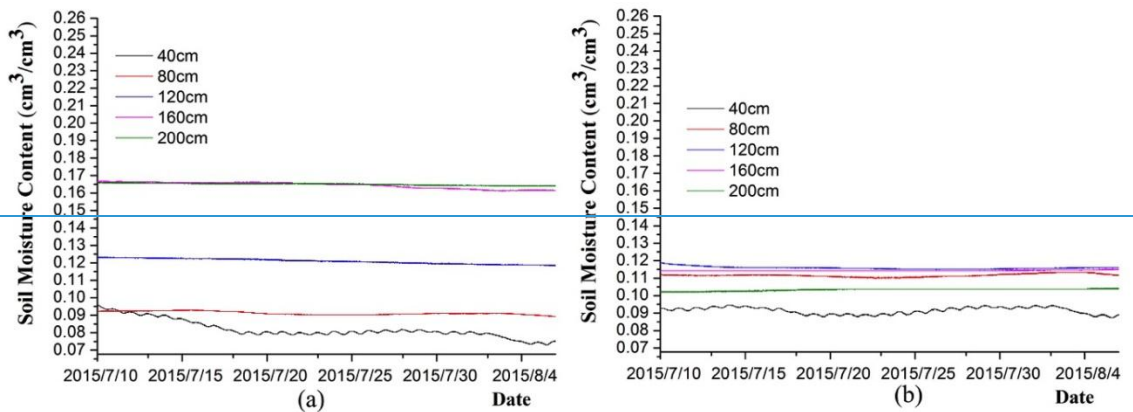
15 **3 Results**

16 **3.1 Deep soil moisture identification**

17 The soil moisture dynamics at 0-200 cm during the sampling period are reported
18 in Fig. 2. The soil moisture in the two types of root system vegetation fluctuated daily
19 at a depth of 40 cm, while the soil moisture at 80-200 cm remained constant with time.
20 Thus, the evapotranspiration during the sampling period influences the soil moisture
21 no deeper than 80 cm in both shallow and deep root system vegetation. According to
22 both Fig. 2 and Fig. S3, the soil moisture at 40 cm did not change obviously with
23 rainfall events, which indicates that rainfall during the monitoring period influenced
24 the soil moisture no deeper than 40 cm.



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3 Figure 2. Soil moisture (0-200 cm) dynamic monitoring during the sampling period.
 4 Note: (a) native grasses with a shallow root system, and (b) *Caragana korshinskii*
 5 with a deep root system.

6 According to Fig. S3, the mean air temperature and rainfall of the dynamic
 7 monitoring period in 2015 were similar to those observed during the sampling time
 8 period in 2014; thus, rainfall and evapotranspiration during the sampling time period
 9 influenced the soil moisture no deeper than 80 cm. In this study, we consider soil
 10 moisture at depths of 80-500 cm as deep soil moisture.

11 3.2 Summary statistics of deep soil moisture

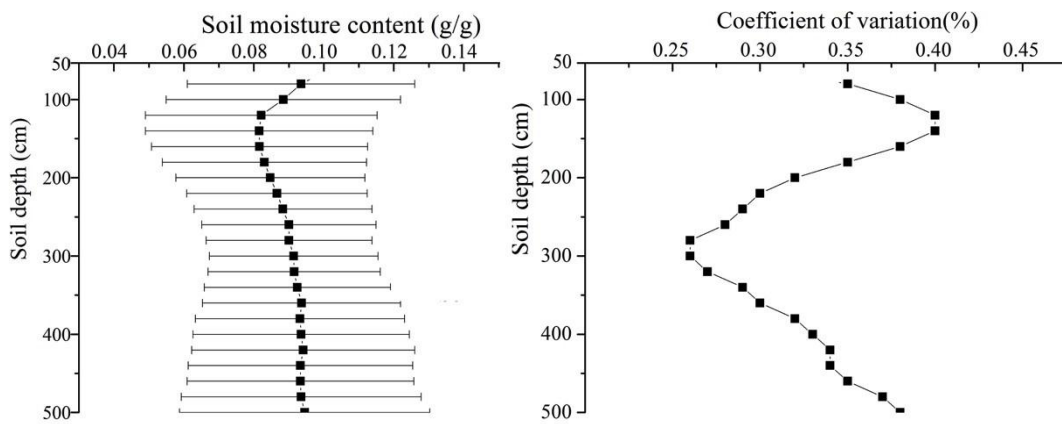
12 The summary statistics of the DSM at various depths are listed in Table 3. In
 13 general, the mean soil moisture, SD, and CV highly depended on the depth. The
 14 profile distributions of the mean DSM, SD, and CV are listed in Table 3 and Fig. 3.
 15 The highest mean value (9.45%) was observed at depths of 400-500 cm, the lowest
 16 (8.15%) was observed at depths of 120-140 cm, and the mean DSM below 300 cm

1 was almost constant. However, both the SD and CV showed varying trends with
 2 increasing depth (Fig. 3). The profile distributions of the SD and CV were consistent.
 3 The highest values of both factors occurred at 100-120 cm and 480-500 cm (Table 3),
 4 which indicated that the DSM at these depth ranges had relatively higher variability.
 5 Meanwhile, the lowest values occurred at 260-300 cm, which indicated lower
 6 variability of DSM at these depth ranges. Most of the kurtosis (except for 80-120 cm)
 7 and skewness values were positive, and the highest values of both factors occurred at
 8 depths of 200-240 cm. The Kolmogorov–Smirnov test indicated that the soil moisture
 9 data sets were normally distributed. Thus, statistical analysis could be performed
 10 without data transformation.

11 Table 3. Summary statistics of the deep soil moisture at various depths in the Ansai
 12 watershed.

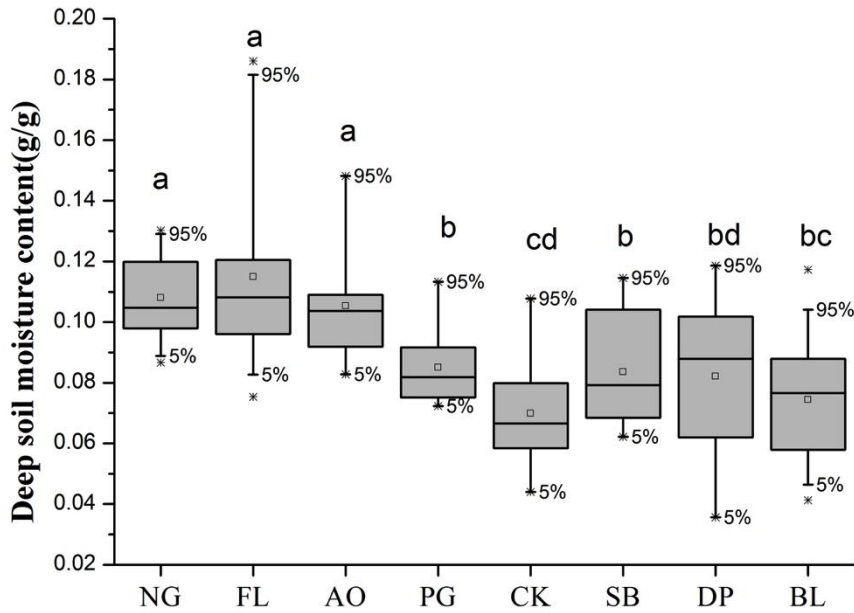
Depth (cm)	n ^a	Mean (%)	SD ^b (%)	Minimum (%)	Maximum (%)	CV ^c	K ^d	S	K-S
80-100	151	8.84	3.35	2.60	18.29	0.38	-0.45	0.28	N(0.95)
100-120	151	8.21	3.31	3.29	18.23	0.40	-0.27	0.57	N(1.36)
120-140	151	8.15	3.25	3.22	18.95	0.40	0.30	0.75	N(0.93)
140-160	151	8.16	3.09	3.37	18.56	0.38	0.40	0.80	N(0.99)
160-180	151	8.30	2.92	3.14	17.85	0.35	0.70	0.85	N(1.06)
180-200	151	8.47	2.70	3.22	17.89	0.32	1.48	1.01	N(1.13)
200-220	151	8.66	2.58	3.47	19.19	0.30	2.35	1.06	N(1.23)
220-240	151	8.83	2.54	3.59	19.72	0.29	2.99	1.05	N(1.02)
240-260	151	9.00	2.49	3.92	19.47	0.28	2.33	0.88	N(0.94)
260-280	151	9.00	2.37	4.08	18.46	0.26	1.94	0.74	N(1.11)
280-300	151	9.14	2.41	3.56	18.72	0.26	1.35	0.53	N(0.65)
300-320	151	9.15	2.46	3.26	18.08	0.27	1.45	0.54	N(0.73)
320-340	151	9.24	2.66	3.09	19.56	0.29	1.92	0.67	N(0.81)
340-360	151	9.36	2.83	2.98	19.38	0.30	1.31	0.59	N(0.91)
360-380	151	9.32	2.99	3.13	19.88	0.32	1.49	0.61	N(0.91)
380-400	151	9.35	3.09	2.81	20.85	0.33	1.99	0.60	N(1.00)
400-420	151	9.41	3.19	2.68	21.92	0.34	2.09	0.60	N(0.80)
420-440	151	9.33	3.21	2.70	20.97	0.34	1.43	0.55	N(0.57)
440-460	151	9.33	3.24	2.65	19.63	0.35	0.20	0.23	N(0.73)
460-480	151	9.35	3.43	2.67	19.88	0.37	-0.08	0.26	N(0.84)
480-500	151	9.45	3.58	2.43	19.98	0.38	-0.22	0.23	N(0.87)

1 Notes: ^a n refers to the number of sampling points. ^b SD refers to the standard
 2 deviation. ^c CV refers to the coefficient of variation. ^d K, S, and K-S refer to the
 3 kurtosis, skewness, and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test values, respectively. ^e N refers to
 4 the normal distribution (significance level is 0.05, Kolmogorov-Smirnov value is in
 5 parentheses).
 6



7
 8 Figure 3. Profile distribution of the deep soil moisture contents and coefficients of
 9 variation. The error bars indicate the standard deviation.

10 Moreover, different vegetation types greatly determined the variation in the DSM;
 11 the DSM statistics of various vegetation types under different vegetation types are
 12 reported in Fig. 4. The results showed that the depth-averaged DSM of native grasses
 13 and human-managed vegetation (farmland and apple orchard) were significantly
 14 higher than that of introduced deep root vegetation. In general, the mean DSM of
 15 different vegetation covers could be organized as follows:
 16 FL>NG>AO>DP>SB>PG>BL>CK. The highest DSM existed in farmland and the
 17 lowest in *Caragana korshinskii*. This result indicated that human agricultural
 18 management measures can significantly improve DSM conditions and that *Caragana*
 19 *korshinskii* showed the greatest water consumption among the selected introduced
 20 vegetation types.

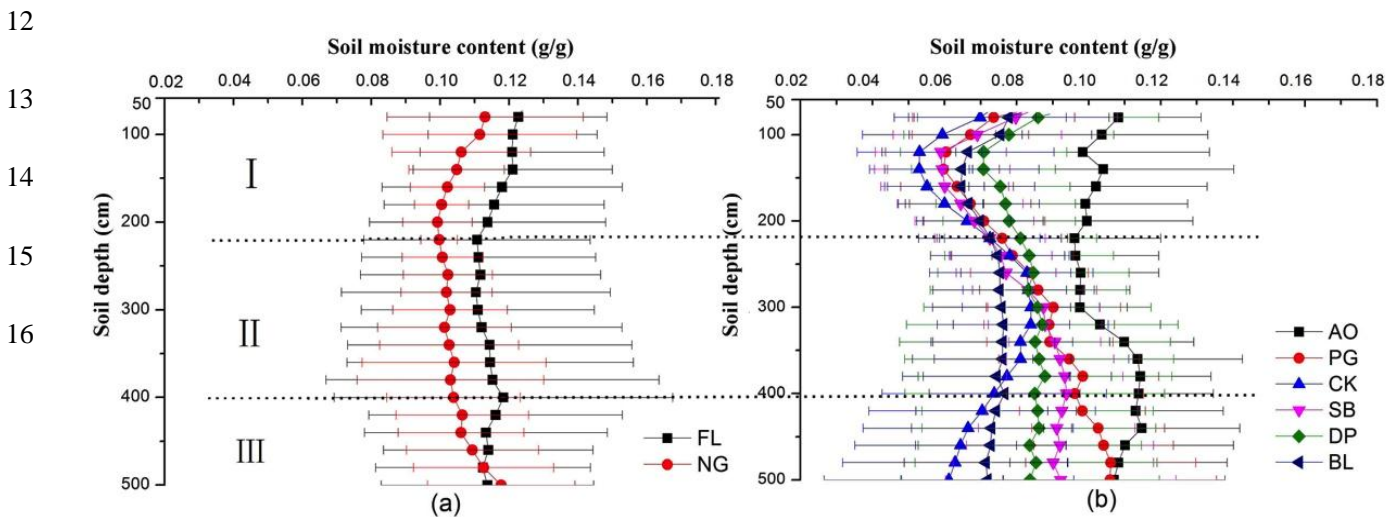


1

2 Figure 4. Deep soil moisture statistics for different vegetation types. Means with the
 3 same letter above the box are not significantly different at the 0.05 significance level
 4 (LSD test); NG, FL, AO, PG, CK, SB, DP and BL refer to native grasses, farmland,
 5 apple orchard, pasture grasses, *Caragana korshinskii*, sea buckthorn, David peach and
 6 black locust, respectively.

7 **3.3 Profile distribution of deep soil moisture by vegetation type**

8 According to a previous study, the soil moisture profile characteristics in
 9 vegetation covering zones are usually complex (Jia et al., 2013). Thus, soil moisture
 10 profiles for each vegetation type were chosen for analysis. As expected, the profile
 11 distribution characteristics of the DSM varied with the vegetation type (Fig. 5).



12

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1 Figure 5. Profile distribution of DSM for different vegetation types. Notes: (a)
2 shallow root system vegetation (NG-native grass; FL-farmland), and (b) deep root
3 system vegetation (PG-pasture grasses; CK-*Caragana korshinskii*; SB-sea buckthorn;
4 DP-David peach; BL-black locust; AO-apple orchard). The error bars indicate the
5 standard deviation. I-III: DSM at different soil layer depth ranges (I: 80-220 cm, II:
6 220-400 cm, and III: 400-500 cm). The dashed lines are the boundaries of different
7 soil layer depth ranges.

8 The DSM in native grassland zones is seldom affected by vegetation because of
9 shallow root systems; thus, the DSM in native grasslands can be regarded as a
10 reference for local control (Yang et al., 2012c). The 80-500 cm soil moisture profile of
11 native grasslands can be divided into 3 layers based on the inflection point of the
12 DSM and the changes in the SD: (1) 80-220 cm; in this layer, both the DSM and SD
13 decreased as the soil depth increased, which indicates that this layer may be a main
14 rainfall infiltration layer. Furthermore, the level of rainfall infiltration decreased as the
15 depth increased; (2) 220-400 cm; the DSM in this layer remained relatively constant
16 as the soil depth increased, but its SD increased with soil depth, which indicates that
17 this layer is unstable. We characterize this layer as a transition layer; (3) 400-500 cm;
18 this section is a relatively stable layer whose SD is constant as the soil depth increases,
19 despite the increasing DSM with soil depth. In this layer, the DSM is seldom
20 influenced by rainfall infiltration. The profile distribution characteristics of farmland
21 and apple orchards were similar to those of native grasslands, except for the
22 300-500-cm layer, possibly because management measures increased the ranges of the
23 rainfall infiltration layer. The DSM of all the introduced vegetation types reached a
24 minimum at depths of 80-220 cm. The DSM of different introduced vegetation at
25 220-500 cm could be generally divided into three categories: (1) the DSM increased
26 as the soil depth increased (such as PG and SB), (2) the DSM remained relatively
27 stable as the soil depth increased (such as DP and BL), and (3) the DSM increased
28 first before decreasing as the soil depth increased (such as CK).

1 We generally divided the DSM in this watershed into three layers based on the
2 above analysis: (I) a rainfall transpiration layer (80-220 cm), which is a main rainfall
3 infiltration layer and can be greatly influenced by vegetation transpiration; (II) a
4 transition layer (220-400 cm), which can be recharged by rainfall infiltration during
5 rainy years and can supply ordinary deep root vegetation with DSM during drought
6 years; and (III) a stable layer (400-500 cm), which has a DSM that is seldom
7 influenced by rainfall infiltration during regular years but can be influenced by
8 extreme deep root vegetation such as CK and BL.

9 The profile variation of DSM under different vegetation types displayed different
10 characteristics as well (Fig. S4). The vertical variation of native grassland was clearly
11 less than that in human-managed farmland, orchard and introduced vegetation, and
12 the variation was relatively stable as depth increased. In human-managed vegetation
13 (farmland and orchard), the variation was relatively higher and had a complex profile
14 distribution due to different management measures. However, the variation in
15 introduced vegetation was, to some extent, consistent with the overall variation
16 characteristics in this area (Fig. 3), which indicates that introduced vegetation plays an
17 important role in the vertical variation of DSM in this area.

18 **3.4 Comparison of deep soil moisture contents under different vegetation** 19 **types**

20 Generally, the DSM at comparable soil depths was lower in introduced deep root
21 vegetation (pasture grassland, shrub land and forestland) compared to native grassland
22 and human-managed vegetation (farmland and orchard). Farmland (11.07-11.79%)
23 had the highest DSM, followed by native grasses (10.52-11.19%). The LSD test
24 indicated that the DSM in native grasses and farmland was significantly higher than
25 that in introduced vegetation ($P < 0.05$, Table 4) at almost every soil depth. The DSM
26 varied from 6.81% to 10.4% in pasture grassland, 6.85-9.75% in sea buckthorn,
27 6.10-8.07% in *Caragana korshinskii*, 7.19-7.66% in black locust, and 7.71-8.51% in
28 David peach at depths of 80-500 cm. The LSD test indicated significant differences in

1 the DSM at depths of 400-500 cm between different introduced vegetation types. For
 2 example, *Caragana korshinskii* was significantly different from pasture grassland, sea
 3 buckthorn, and David peach, while black locust was significantly different from
 4 pasture grassland and sea buckthorn ($P < 0.05$, Table 4).

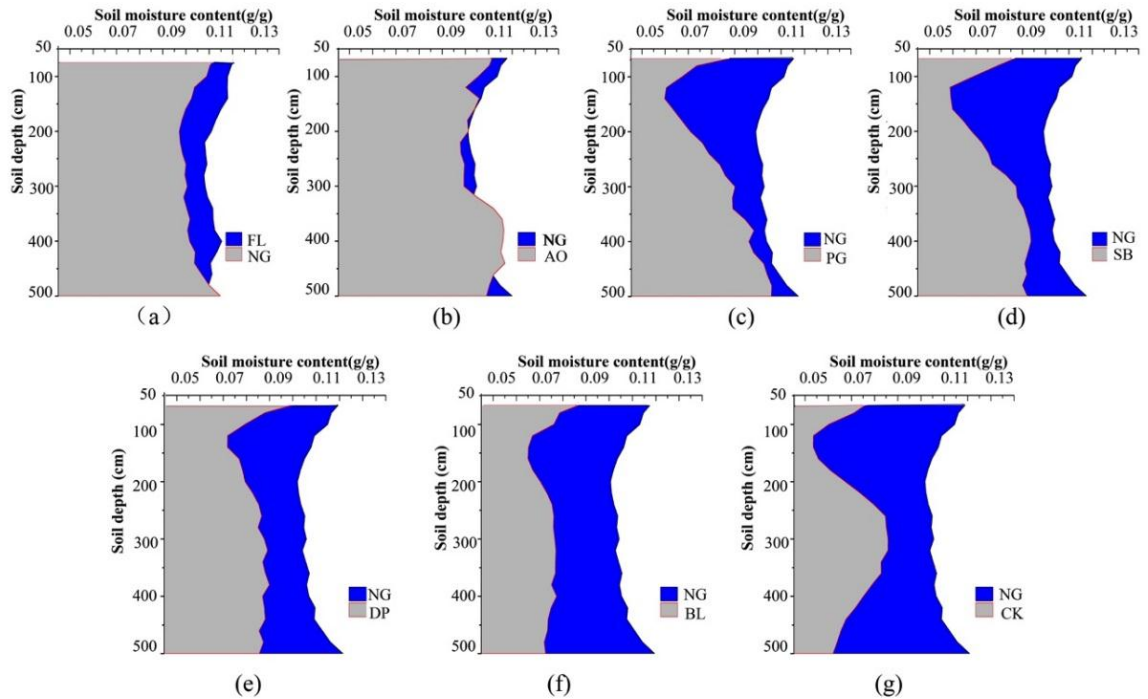
5 Table 4. Deep soil moisture of the 80-500 cm soil layers for different vegetation types.

Root types	Vegetation types	80-220 cm				220-400 cm				400-500 cm			
		Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Shallow root vegetation	NG ^a	8.4	13.8	10.9a	1.5	8.4	12.8	10.5ab	1.6	8.2	14.7	11.2ab	2.0
	FL	7.3	17.9	11.8a	2.8	7.8	18.6	11.1a	3.2	7.5	20.0	11.8a	3.6
	AO	6.9	15.4	10.1ab	2.7	7.7	14.1	10.5abc	1.7	7.4	15.3	11.4ab	2.3
	PG	4.8	8.9	6.8c	1.3	7.7	13.1	9.0bcd	1.6	8.5	14.3	10.4abc	1.9
Deep root vegetation	SB	4.9	11.3	6.9c	1.8	7.1	12.1	8.9cd	1.6	5.1	14.7	9.8bc	2.6
	CK	4.2	8.8	6.1c	1.4	4.9	11.6	8.1d	2.1	2.6	12.5	6.5e	2.9
	BL	3.8	12.8	7.2c	2.1	4.2	10.9	7.7d	1.8	4.0	13.3	7.5de	2.5
	DP	3.7	10.7	7.7bc	2.1	3.8	14.0	8.5d	3.2	3.2	13.1	8.5cd	3.2

6 Notes: ^a NG, FL, AO, PG, CK, SB, DP, and BL refer to native grasses, farmland, apple
 7 orchard, pasture grasses, *Caragana korshinskii*, sea buckthorn, David peach and black
 8 locust, respectively. Means with the same letter in the same column are not
 9 significantly different at the 0.05 significance level (LSD).

10 As shown in Fig. 6, the DSM in farmland was higher than that in native grassland,
 11 and soil desiccation occurred in all the introduced vegetation. However, soil
 12 desiccation varied among the vegetation types. In general, the DSM in layer I (80-220
 13 cm) was heavily consumed in almost all the introduced vegetation types. PG and SB
 14 consumed less DSM in layers II-III (220-500 cm) compared to the three other
 15 introduced vegetation types, while the DSM in layers II-III (220-500 cm) of DP and
 16 BL was consumed more consistently. Double-layer soil desiccation occurred in CK,
 17 which indicates that the DSM in layers I and III of CK was heavily consumed, while
 18 the DSM in layer II was less consumed. Despite the deep root system of the apple
 19 orchards, soil desiccation did not occur across the soil profile from 80-500 cm; even

1 in the 320-450 cm layer, the DSM in the apple orchards was higher than that in native
 2 grasses.



3
 4 Figure 6. Comparison of deep soil moisture among human-managed vegetation,
 5 introduced vegetation and native grasslands. Notes: (a) farmland (FL) and native
 6 grasslands (NG), (b) apple orchard (AO) and native grasslands (NG), (c) pasture
 7 grasslands (PG) and native grasslands (NG), (d) sea buckthorn (SB) and native
 8 grasslands (NG), (e) David peach (DP) and native grasslands (NG), (f) black locust
 9 (BL) and native grasslands (NG), (g) *Caragana korshinskii* (CK) and native
 10 grasslands (NG).

11 3.5 Spearman correlation coefficients between deep soil moisture and 12 selected environmental variables

13 Although the DSM data were normally distributed, significant correlations
 14 existed between the soil moisture contents at different soil depth ranges. Thus,
 15 non-parametric correlation tests (Spearman) were used to determine the strength of
 16 possible relationships between the DSM and selected variables. The correlation
 17 analysis results are presented in Tables [5S1](#), [6S2](#), and [7S3](#). The correlation between

1 the DSM and environmental variations changed with the soil depth and vegetation
 2 type. The DSM in native grassland showed significant correlations with the altitude
 3 (80-500 cm), slope gradient (220-500 cm), soil particle composition (80-500 cm),
 4 and average annual rainfall (220-400 cm). The DSM in farmland (80-220 cm) was
 5 only influenced by the bulk density. The DSM in areas of introduced vegetation,
 6 apart from the significant correlations with the topography, soil properties, and
 7 average annual rainfall, showed different correlations with vegetation growth traits.
 8 For instance, the DSM of BL showed significant negative correlations with the plant
 9 height (80-220 cm) and diameter at breast height (400-500 cm), and the DSM of SB
 10 showed a significant negative correlation with the plant density (80-500 cm). A
 11 significant correlation was found between the aspect and DSM in some introduced
 12 vegetation in PG (400-500 cm) and BL (80-400 cm). Moreover, positive correlations
 13 existed between the DSM and soil surface conditions; for instance, the DSM of DP
 14 showed significant correlations with the grass biomass (400-500 cm), the DSM of
 15 AO showed significant correlations with the litter biomass (400-500 cm), and the
 16 DSM of CK showed significant correlations with the litter max water holding
 17 (220-500 cm). Furthermore, both the soil bulk density (80-400 cm) and capillary
 18 porosity (80-220 cm) in the apple orchards showed significant correlations with the
 19 DSM.

20 ~~Table 5. Spearman correlation coefficients between deep soil moisture (grassland,~~
 21 ~~farmland and pasture grassland) and selected environmental variables.~~

	Native grasses			Farmland			Pasture grassland		
	80-220 cm	220-400 cm	400-500 cm	80-220 cm	220-400 cm	400-500 cm	80-220 cm	220-400 cm	400-500 cm
Altitude	-0.52	-0.56	-0.53	-0.27	-0.30	-0.19	-0.14	-0.06	-0.08
Slope position	-0.13	-0.11	-0.07	-0.25	-0.28	-0.41	-0.15	-0.32	-0.02
Cos (Aspect)	-0.32	-0.35	-0.44	-0.16	-0.03	-0.21	-0.07	0.64	-0.86
Tan (Slope)	-0.46	-0.67	-0.59	-0.22	-0.07	-0.21	-0.32	0.09	-0.34
Clay	-0.62	-0.56	-0.43	-0.35	-0.37	-0.22	-0.23	0.54	-0.46
Slit	-0.59	-0.37	-0.27	-0.26	-0.38	-0.38	-0.15	0.66	-0.59
Sand	-0.68	-0.42	-0.32	-0.23	-0.35	-0.35	-0.16	-0.58	-0.47
Organic matter	-0.14	-0.30	-0.19	-0.18	-0.13	-0.23	-0.07	-0.28	-0.64
Soil bulk density	-0.16	-0.07	-0.04	-0.55	-0.31	-0.34	-0.12	-0.01	-0.16

Capillary porosity	0.09	0.06	0.05	-0.34	-0.26	-0.20	-0.33	-0.26	-0.12
Annual average rainfall	-0.03	0.46	0.37	-0.15	-0.11	-0.23	-0.39	0.15	-0.36
Vegetation coverage	-0.21	-0.08	-0.02	-0.18	-0.11	-0.26	-0.30	0.37	-0.11
Grass biomass	-0.11	0.20	0.08	-0.06	-0.06	-0.06	-0.02	-0.28	-0.10
Grass height	-0.30	-0.01	-0.00	-0.04	-0.06	-0.15	-0.15	-0.46	-0.32

1 Notes: Significant correlations ($P < 0.05$) are shown in bold, and very significant
2 correlations ($P < 0.01$) are shown in bold with underlines.

3 Table 6. Spearman correlation coefficients between deep soil moisture (shrub land)
4 and selected environmental variables.

	<i>Caragana korshinskii</i> Kom			Sea buckthorn		
	80-220-	220-400-cm	400-500-cm	80-220-	220-400-cm	400-500-cm
	cm			cm		
Altitude	-0.31	<u>-0.70</u>	<u>-0.59</u>	<u>-0.64</u>	<u>-0.56</u>	-0.33
Slope position	0.29	-0.08	-0.11	-0.22	-0.25	-0.35
Cos (Aspect)	0.32	0.34	0.32	0.23	0.34	0.07
Tan (Slope)	0.15	-0.10	-0.05	-0.45	-0.19	0.00
Clay	0.11	-0.24	-0.09	0.27	0.22	-0.02
Silt	0.16	0.32	0.53	0.58	0.51	0.41
Sand	-0.17	-0.23	-0.45	-0.59	-0.48	-0.37
Organic matter	0.08	0.47	0.49	0.25	0.28	-0.20
Soil bulk density	0.17	-0.23	-0.24	0.16	-0.28	-0.18
Capillary porosity	-0.02	0.13	0.14	-0.17	0.20	0.02
Annual average rainfall	0.59	0.23	0.19	0.17	0.22	0.18
Litter biomass	-0.14	-0.04	0.10	-0.29	-0.33	-0.39
Litter max water holding	0.32	0.59	0.60	-0.15	0.09	0.08
Vegetation coverage	-0.08	0.06	-0.03	-0.05	-0.14	-0.16
Grass biomass	0.27	0.42	0.45	0.35	0.26	0.31
Grass height	0.25	0.35	0.43	0.15	0.06	0.18
Plant height	0.26	0.24	0.23	-0.13	0.25	0.09
Crown width	0.27	0.24	0.30	-0.23	0.12	0.07
Basal diameter	-0.22	0.31	0.40	-0.25	0.06	-0.01
Plant density	-0.31	0.08	-0.09	<u>-0.66</u>	<u>-0.57</u>	<u>-0.56</u>

5 Notes: Significant correlations ($P < 0.05$) are shown in bold, and very significant
6 correlations ($P < 0.01$) are shown in bold with underlines.

7 Table 7. Spearman correlation coefficients between deep soil moisture (orchard land
8 and forest) and selected environmental variables.

Apple orchard

Black locust

David peach

	80-220-em	220-400-em	400-500-em	80-220-em	220-400-em	400-500-em	80-220-em	220-400-em	400-500-em
Altitude	-0.58	-0.25	-0.16	-0.09	-0.07	0.20	-0.16	0.05	0.06
Slope position	0.13	0.34	0.14	-0.21	-0.22	-0.21	-0.32	-0.50	-0.55
Cos (Aspect)	0.04	-0.01	0.35	0.44	0.34	0.22	0.06	0.13	0.30
Tan (Slope)	-0.25	0.26	0.33	-0.17	-0.17	-0.41	-0.16	0.19	0.07
Clay	<u>0.88</u>	0.42	-0.25	0.20	0.13	-0.09	0.33	0.15	0.06
Silt	<u>0.85</u>	0.67	0.08	0.23	0.14	-0.15	0.42	0.42	0.27
Sand	<u>-0.83</u>	-0.67	-0.08	-0.25	-0.14	0.13	-0.46	-0.42	-0.27
Organic matter	0.69	0.38	0.13	0.01	0.02	-0.22	-0.13	-0.12	-0.35
Soil bulk density	-0.64	<u>-0.82</u>	-0.32	-0.23	-0.08	-0.06	-0.27	-0.43	-0.41
Capillary porosity	<u>0.89</u>	0.49	-0.06	0.21	0.14	0.00	0.35	0.52	0.30
Annual average rainfall	0.31	-0.07	-0.38	-0.12	0.26	-0.12	0.16	-0.11	-0.42
Litter biomass	0.24	0.47	0.72	-0.08	0.13	-0.03	0.11	0.08	0.08
Litter max water holding	0.31	0.08	0.33	0.22	0.21	0.20	0.35	0.13	0.27
Vegetation coverage	-0.51	0.10	-0.01	-0.14	0.11	-0.03	-0.35	-0.47	-0.41
Grass biomass	-0.23	0.03	0.39	0.11	0.07	0.30	0.44	<u>0.80</u>	0.55
Grass height	-0.13	-0.17	-0.62	-0.05	0.02	0.08	-0.42	-0.01	-0.01
Plant height	0.23	-0.09	-0.49	-0.42	0.11	0.05	-0.32	-0.11	-0.01
Diameter at breast height	0.64	0.31	0.04	-0.23	-0.03	-0.34	-0.33	-0.24	-0.15
Crown width	0.43	0.29	0.15	-0.25	0.07	-0.07	-0.56	-0.36	-0.29
Basal diameter	0.51	0.22	0.07	-0.27	0.03	-0.25	-0.43	-0.20	-0.07
Plant density	-0.52	-0.20	-0.15	0.09	0.03	0.18	0.04	0.05	-0.08

1 ~~Notes: Significant correlations ($P < 0.05$) are shown in bold, and very significant~~
2 ~~correlations ($P < 0.01$) are shown in bold with underlines.~~

3 **3.6 Principal component analysis (PCA)**

4 Only the environmental variables that showed significant correlations ($P < 0.05$)
5 with the DSM were retained for Spearman correlation analysis, including 9
6 environmental variables for grassland and farmland (Group 1), 7 environmental
7 variables for shrub land (Group 2), and 15 environmental variables for forestland and
8 orchards (Group 3). Some of these variables were linearly correlated, so the
9 dimensionality of these data sets could be reduced. Principal component analysis was
10 performed following Hu et al. (2010) and Xu et al. (2008) to obtain an MDS of the
11 environmental variables; the results are listed in Table ~~85~~. Only principal components
12 (PCs) with eigenvalues $N > 1.0$ and only variables with highly weighted factor loading
13 (i.e., those with absolute values for factor loading within 10% of the highest value)
14 were retained for the MDS (Mandal et al., 2008; Shi et al., 2014). For Group 1, the

1 PCA identified four PCs that comprised 80% of the variance, of which the first three
 2 PCs comprised most of this variance (68%). For Group 2, four PCs comprised 84% of
 3 the variance. For Group 3, five PCs comprised 75% of the variance. In grassland and
 4 farmland, PC#1 included 3 variables that had highly weighted factor loadings,
 5 including clay, silt, and sand, which indicates that the soil particle composition was
 6 the most important factor that influenced variations in the DSM. For PC#2, PC#3, and
 7 PC#4, only one variable for each principal component had a high factor loading: the
 8 slope aspect, annual average rainfall, and soil bulk density, respectively. In shrub land,
 9 the highly weighted factor loadings of PC#1 were silt and sand, while the altitude and
 10 plant density were the highly weighted factor loadings for PC#2. For PC#3, only
 11 organic matter had a high factor loading. In forest and orchard land, the diameter at
 12 breast height, basal diameter, and sand content comprised the highly weighted factor
 13 loadings of PC#1. The capillary porosity was the only variation that constituted the
 14 highly weighted factor loadings of PC#2. Four variations for PC#3 were highly
 15 weighted: clay, silt, soil bulk density, and litter max water holding. For PC#4 and
 16 PC#5, only one variable had a high factor loading: the slope aspect and slope gradient,
 17 respectively.

18 Table 85. Principle component analysis (PCA) of environmental attributes.

Principal component	Group 1: Grassland and farmland				Group 2: Shrub land			Group 3: Orchard and forest				
	PC#1	PC# 2	PC# 3	PC #4	PC# 1	PC#2	PC#3	PC#1	PC#2	PC#3	PC#4	PC#5
Eigenvalue	3.6	1.5	1.1	1.1	2.2	1.9	1.0	4.5	2.6	1.8	1.2	1.1
% of variance	39.8	16.1	12.5	11.7	31.5	26.9	14.5	30.1	17.5	12.0	7.8	7.2
Cumulative %	39.8	55.8	68.3	80.0	31.5	58.9	72.9	30.1	47.6	59.5	67.3	74.5
Factor												
Annual average rainfall	0.21	-0.50	0.71	0.06	-0.39	-0.59	-0.39					
Altitude	-0.46	0.23	0.53	0.51	0.24	0.83	0.05					
Slope aspect	-0.16	0.81	0.24	-0.07				-0.06	-0.05	0.21	0.64	-0.10
Slope gradient	0.64	-0.43	-0.04	-0.23				0.55	0.22	0.07	0.01	-0.70
Clay	0.86	0.25	-0.13	0.15				0.64	-0.44	-0.50	-0.03	-0.04
Silt	0.93	0.27	0.05	0.09	-0.94	0.16	0.27	0.68	-0.44	-0.45	0.28	0.08
Sand	-0.94	-0.27	-0.02	-0.11	0.95	-0.16	-0.24	-0.77	0.39	0.37	-0.23	-0.17
Organic matter	-0.48	-0.03	-0.50	0.49	0.15	-0.53	0.70	0.54	-0.23	0.28	-0.16	-0.12
Soil bulk density	-0.41	0.31	0.07	-0.67				-0.25	0.61	-0.49	0.29	-0.05

Capillary porosity					0.38	-0.74	0.22	-0.37	-0.13
Litter biomass					0.54	0.43	-0.29	-0.04	0.20
Litter max water holding	0.42	-0.27	0.45		-0.24	-0.48	0.46	0.31	0.50
Grass biomass					0.27	0.49	-0.17	-0.37	0.39
Plant height					0.69	0.31	0.34	-0.22	0.24
Diameter at breast height					0.80	0.34	0.31	0.14	0.05
Crown width					0.39	0.20	0.43	0.22	-0.09
Basal diameter					0.75	0.37	0.26	0.18	0.07
Plant density	0.10	0.77	0.22						

1

Principal-component	Group 1: Grassland and farmland				Group 2: Shrub land			Group 3: Orchard and forest				
	PC #1	PC #2	PC #3	PC #4	PC #1	PC #2	PC #3	PC #1	PC #2	PC #3	PC #4	PC #5
Eigenvalue	3.58	1.45	1.13	1.05	2.20	1.88	1.01	4.51	2.62	1.80	1.17	1.08
% of variance	39.75	16.07	12.50	11.71	31.47	26.91	14.48	30.09	17.49	11.97	7.78	7.23
Cumulative %	39.75	55.82	68.32	80.04	31.47	58.38	72.85	30.09	47.57	59.54	67.32	74.54
Factor loading/eigenvector												
Annual average rainfall	0.21	-0.50	0.71	0.06	-0.39	-0.59	-0.39					
Altitude	-0.46	0.23	0.53	0.51	0.24	0.83	0.05					
Slope aspect	-0.16	0.81	0.24	-0.07				-0.06	-0.05	0.21	0.64	-0.10
Slope gradient	0.64	-0.43	-0.04	-0.23				0.55	0.22	0.07	0.01	-0.70
Clay	0.86	0.25	-0.13	0.15				0.64	-0.44	-0.50	-0.03	-0.04
Silt	0.93	0.27	0.05	0.09	-0.94	0.16	0.27	0.68	-0.44	-0.45	0.28	0.08
Sand	-0.94	-0.27	-0.02	-0.11	0.95	-0.16	-0.24	-0.77	0.39	0.37	-0.23	-0.17
Organic matter	-0.48	-0.03	-0.50	0.49	0.15	-0.53	0.70	0.54	-0.23	0.28	-0.16	-0.12
Soil bulk density	-0.41	0.31	0.07	-0.67				-0.25	0.61	-0.49	0.29	-0.05
Capillary porosity								0.38	-0.74	0.22	-0.37	-0.13
Litter biomass								0.54	0.43	-0.29	-0.04	0.20
Litter max water holding					0.42	-0.27	0.45	-0.24	-0.48	0.46	0.31	0.50
Grass biomass								0.27	0.49	-0.17	-0.37	0.39
Plant height								0.69	0.31	0.34	-0.22	0.24
Diameter at breast height								0.80	0.34	0.31	0.14	0.05
Crown width								0.39	0.20	0.43	0.22	-0.09
Basal diameter								0.75	0.37	0.26	0.18	0.07
Plant density					0.10	0.77	0.22					

2 Notes: ^a PC refers to principal components. Significant correlations (P<0.05) are
3 shown in italics, and very significant correlations (P<0.01) are shown in bold. The
4 factor loadings in bold are considered highly weighted when within 10% of the
5 variation of the absolute values of the highest factor loading in each PC.

6 In total, 6 out of 9 environmental variables for grassland and farmland (group 1),
7 5 out 7 for shrubs (group 2), and 10 out of 15 for forests and apple orchards (group 3)

1 were selected as MDS variables. Moreover, the MDS variables for each vegetation
 2 type were selected (Table 96). At the watershed scale, the main influencing factors of
 3 variations in the DSM under native grasslands were the soil particle composition (clay,
 4 silt, and clay content) and average annual rainfall. In farmland, the dominant
 5 influencing factors were the clay content and soil bulk density. The main influencing
 6 factors for introduced vegetation types were more complex; apart from the soil texture
 7 and physical characteristics, topographical factors and vegetation traits also strongly
 8 affected variations in the DSM. Moreover, the main influencing depth ranges of
 9 different environmental factors varied with vegetation types. For example, the soil
 10 particle size composition in native grasslands and apple orchard land mainly
 11 influenced the DSM at 80-220 cm, while the most significant influencing depths in
 12 pasture grassland were 220-400 cm. These results indicate that vegetation coverage or
 13 human management measures can alter the depths of the environmental factors that
 14 influence the DSM.

15 Table 96. Minimum data set of environmental variables.

Vegetation types	Influencing variables
Native grasses	Cl ^a , Sl, Sa, AAR
Farmland	Cl, SBD
Apple orchard	SG, Cl, Sl, Sa, SBD, CP
Pasture grasses	SA, Sl
Sea buckthorn	Al, Sl, Sa, PD
<i>Caragana korshinskii</i>	Al, Sl, OM
Black locust	SA, SG, DBH
David peach	Cl, Sa, BD, LMWH

16 Note: ^a Cl, SA, SG, Sl, Sa, OM, CP, SBD, DBH, BD, and LMWH refer to clay, slope
 17 aspect, slope gradient, silt, sand, organic matter, capillary porosity, soil bulk density,
 18 diameter at breast height, basal diameter, and litter max water holding, respectively.

1 **4 Discussion**

2 **4.1 Variation characteristics of deep soil moisture at the watershed scale**

3 The variations in the DSM at the watershed scale varied with the soil depth (Fig.
4 3 and Fig. 5). At a soil depth of 80-220 cm, the influence of soil evaporation was
5 relatively weak; rainfall infiltration could be stored in soil without strong
6 consumption from vegetation, and rainfall infiltration decreased as the soil depth
7 increased. Meanwhile, the soil layer at 220-400 cm was less influenced by rainfall
8 infiltration; thus, the DSM remained constant as the soil depth increased. Soil depths
9 below 400 cm comprised a deep stable DSM storage layer (Fig. 5). However, the
10 existence of deep rooted vegetation and human agricultural management measures
11 altered the vertical DSM distribution rules, resulting in more complex variations (Fig.
12 3). The highest variations in the DSM at this watershed occurred at 100-120 cm and
13 480-500 cm. However, the DSM was lowest in the 120-140 cm layer and had high
14 variation. This result is inconsistent with previous studies, which reported that high
15 variations usually appear with higher DSM and decrease when the DSM decreases
16 (Ibrahim and Huggins, 2011). This result likely occurred because the most serious soil
17 desiccation occurred in this layer for all the introduced vegetation types (Fig. 6),
18 increasing their difference with native grasses and human management vegetation
19 types and eventually resulting in high variation. While the high variation at 400-500
20 cm may have been caused by the different water consuming capacities of different
21 vegetation types, this depth range is rarely influenced by rainfall event infiltration and
22 soil evaporation (Chen et al., 2008b; Wang et al., 2009).

23 The DSM variation traits also varied with the vegetation types. The DSM
24 variations in native grassland were relatively low and stable. Usually, the roots of
25 native grasses are distributed at depths of 0-50 cm (Han et al., 2009). Thus, the DSM
26 below this depth is seldom influenced by vegetation transpiration, and local controls,
27 such as topographic factors, soil factors, and climate conditions, may contribute to
28 variations in the DSM. The DSM and its variation in farmland were higher than those
29 in native grassland, which indicates that human agricultural measures can greatly

1 increase DSM and its variation. The DSM for introduced vegetation was significantly
2 lower than that in native grassland, which indicates that soil desiccation occurred for
3 all the introduced vegetation. Moreover, different introduced vegetation showed
4 different soil desiccation traits (Fig. 6). This result is different from that of a previous
5 study (Yang et al., 2012c), which reported that no significant differences existed
6 among different introduced vegetation. This difference was probably caused by
7 differences in the annual precipitation; the mean annual precipitation of Yang's study
8 area was 386 mm, which is far less than that in our study area (505 mm). This lower
9 annual precipitation resulted in plants not receiving enough water, eventually leading
10 to more homogeneous soil desiccation among the different introduced vegetation.
11 ~~Among the selected introduced vegetation types, *Caragana korshinskii* consumed the~~
12 ~~most water (Fig. 4), partially disagreeing with most previous studies (Wang et al.,~~
13 ~~2009; Wang et al., 2010c; Wang et al., 2011b; Yang et al., 2012c), which reported that~~
14 ~~forest consumes more DSM than shrub land. This discrepancy may have been related~~
15 ~~to the higher planting density of CK in our study area.~~ Moreover, the main difference
16 in soil desiccation under introduced vegetation occurred at 80-220 cm and 400-500
17 cm (Table 4, Fig. 6), which contributed to the higher variations in DSM in these two
18 layers (Fig. 4).

19 **4.2 Mechanisms of deep soil moisture variability**

20 Variations in DSM are the combined result of topographic factors, soil factors,
21 vegetation factors, and climate conditions. In this study, the vegetation coverage was
22 an important factor that influenced variations in the DSM. The effect of vegetation on
23 the DSM is shown in many aspects. First, ~~the DSM consumption in vegetation~~
24 ~~coverage zones is usually higher than that in zones that lack vegetation coverage~~
25 ~~because of the existence of a root system (Savva et al., 2013), and~~ different root
26 systems determine different DSM consumption traits for various vegetation types (Fig.
27 6). Introduced vegetation with a deep root system consumes more and deeper DSM
28 than farmland and native grasses (Table 4). Individual vegetation growth conditions
29 and planting density can also influence variations in the DSM. ~~For example, the DSM~~

1 ~~in BL showed negative correlations with the plant height and diameter at breast height,~~
2 ~~while SB showed negative correlations with the plant density (Tables 6 and 7). This~~
3 ~~phenomenon indicates that the~~ The individual growth conditions in the deeper root
4 systems of forests mainly explain the DSM consumption, while the planting density
5 mainly accounts for the DSM consumption in the shallower root systems of shrubs
6 (Tables S2 and S3). In addition to DSM consumption, canopy interception and surface
7 coverage systems can positively affect the DSM (Mart ínez-Fern ández and Ceballos,
8 2003; Starks et al., 2006). In this study, the litter biomass, water holding capacity, and
9 forest grasses all showed different degrees of significant positive correlations with the
10 DSM for different vegetation types (Tables 5S1, 6S2, and 7S3), probably because
11 thick litter, humus layers and forest grasses can reduce surface runoff, which may help
12 retain more rainfall for infiltration into deep soil layers. Additionally, these factors can
13 reduce soil evaporation, which may decrease DSM consumption (Vivoni et al., 2008).

14 Climate factors that affect DSM are mainly determined by differences in rainfall
15 infiltration and solar radiation (Savva et al., 2013). According to previous studies,
16 DSM is relatively stable compared to the shallow layer, especially at depths below
17 200 cm, and soil moisture in deeper layers is seldom influenced by rainfall events.
18 (Wang et al., 2009). ~~For example, Chen et al. (2008b) found that rainfall only affects~~
19 ~~depths of 0–200 cm during drought years. According to six years of observation in this~~
20 ~~region (Wang et al., 2009), no significant changes in soil moisture occurred below 200~~
21 ~~cm. Thus, soil moisture in deeper layers is seldom influenced by rainfall events.~~
22 However, the DSM in this study (80-220 cm in *Caragana korshinskii* and 220-400 cm
23 in native grasslands) showed significant positive correlations with the six-year
24 average annual rainfall, which indicates that DSM may be a long-term result of a
25 water budget surplus.

26 Topography is another important factor that greatly affects the redistribution and
27 consumption of DSM (Qiu et al., 2001; Zhu et al., 2014b). The slope position, altitude,
28 and slope gradient mainly affect the lateral flow of soil moisture. Lower positions or
29 latitudes usually have higher soil moisture contents (He et al., 2003; Zhu et al., 2014a),

1 while the slope gradient usually shows a negative correlation with the soil moisture
2 content; thus, a steep slope usually has a lower soil moisture content than a gentle
3 slope (Kim et al., 2007). Different slope aspects are usually caused by changes in
4 solar radiation (Yang et al., 2012b; Zhao et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2008a), resulting in
5 different rates of soil moisture evaporation. ~~Thus, the soil moisture content on a sunny~~
6 ~~slope is usually lower than that on a shady slope (Zhao et al., 2007; Wang et al.,~~
7 ~~2008a).~~In this study, the altitude had a negative correlation with the DSM; the slope
8 gradient showed significant positive correlations with the DSM in grasslands (220
9 cm-500 cm), while significant negative correlations were found in black locust
10 (400-500 cm). These results indicate that introduced vegetation can alter the
11 topographic factors' influence on DSM variations. This result was also verified by
12 Yang et al. (2012b), who found that introduced vegetation can lead to homogeneity in
13 the DSM. This relationship was true for the slope aspect, which only showed a
14 positive correlation with the DSM in pasture grasses (400-500 cm) and black locust
15 (80-400 cm).

16 Moreover, different soil traits determine different water transmission and
17 conservancy characteristics, which may greatly influence the flow or storage of water
18 in soil (Western et al., 2004). ~~For example, Gómez-Plaza et al. (2001) found that the~~
19 ~~soil capillary porosity has a significant relationship with the soil moisture in wet areas.~~
20 ~~Meanwhile, Vachaud et al. (1985) found that the soil texture, especially clay content,~~
21 ~~is an important factor influencing soil moisture variation. Additionally, soil layers~~
22 ~~with higher clay content usually have higher soil moisture (Ojha et al., 2014).~~ The
23 DSM in the Loess Plateau is mainly determined by land surface rainfall infiltration
24 and evapotranspiration. Surface soil properties usually have a greater influence on
25 surface rainfall infiltration and evaporation compared to deep soil properties; thus, we
26 mainly analyzed the influence of surface soil properties on DSM. The result indicated
27 that the soil particle composition was an important factor influencing variations in
28 DSM at the watershed scale. Both the clay and silt content showed significantly
29 positive correlations with the DSM, and the sand content showed a negative

1 correlation with the DSM for most vegetation types. However, the soil bulk density
2 and capillary porosity only showed significant correlations with the DSM in farmland
3 (80-220 cm) and apple orchards (80-400 cm). This result indicates that human
4 agricultural management measures or other factors that result in lower soil bulk
5 density and higher capillary porosity conditions can significantly improve the
6 infiltration capacity and thus increase the DSM.

7 **4.3 Implications for land use management and vegetation recovery**

8 A balance between soil water availability and water utilization by plants is crucial
9 to maintaining ecosystem health, particularly in the arid and semi-arid regions of the
10 Loess Plateau. The implementation of the “Grain to Green Program” has effectively
11 controlled soil erosion (Chen et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2015). However, according to
12 this study, soil desiccation occurred in almost all the introduced vegetation, while
13 higher soil moisture contents were found in native grassland and farmland (Fig. 6).
14 These phenomena indicate that the improper selection of vegetation type is a
15 dominant reason for soil desiccation in this area. Thus, more attention should be paid
16 to the selection of vegetation types based on the interactions between soil moisture
17 and vegetation. Among these selected vegetation types, CK and BL caused the most
18 serious soil desiccation (Figs. 4 and 6); thus, these two types are especially unsuitable
19 for large-scale plants in the study area, while SB, PG, and DP can be properly planted
20 under good soil moisture conditions with suitable planting density and human
21 management measures.

22 Furthermore, proper planting locations should also be considered based on DSM
23 conditions. Annual average rainfall spatial variations can significantly influence DSM
24 conditions (Tables [5-S1](#) and [6S2](#)). Thus, the annual average rainfall is another
25 important factor for determining planting locations. Vegetation enclosure and natural
26 restoration may be good choices in lower rainfall zones, while shrubs and forests
27 could be rationally arranged in higher rainfall zones. DSM was not evenly distributed
28 even within the same rainfall regions: lower altitudes (such as a gully bottom or lower
29 slope) usually had higher DSM (Tables [5-S1](#) and [6S2](#)), while the DSM of native

1 grasslands along steeper slopes was higher than that along gentle slopes (Table [5S1](#)).
2 Thus, shrubs or trees with high water consumption capacities can be arranged at these
3 locations. Native grass and low-moisture-consuming shrubs can be arranged at higher
4 altitudes or upper slopes, where the DSM is lower.

5 The results of this study also indicate that human agricultural management
6 measures can effectively improve DSM conditions. The DSM of farmland was the
7 highest among the selected vegetation types (Fig. 4); even though introduced
8 vegetation has deep root systems, no soil desiccation was found in apple orchards (Fig.
9 6). Most of the farmlands that we surveyed were level terraces and back-slope level
10 benches with cultivation practices, while apple orchards were equipped with artificial
11 rainwater gathering measures. All these agricultural measures can significantly
12 increase rainwater infiltration, eventually resulting in higher DSM in these vegetation
13 zones. Moreover, forest grasses, litter biomass, and litter max water holding showed
14 significant correlations with the DSM in this study (Tables [6-S2](#) and [7S3](#)). Thus,
15 increasing the land surface cover (such as crop straw coverage and mix-sowing shrubs
16 and grass) can be another effective measure to improve DSM recharge. Likewise,
17 vegetation control (when artificial forests and shrubs are mature, the density should be
18 reduced according to deep soil water conditions) may be an effective measure to
19 reduce soil desiccation because the plant density has a significantly negative
20 correlation with the DSM.

21 **5 Conclusions**

22 ~~An analysis of the mean, SD, and CV values of the DSM at the At watershed~~
23 ~~scale indicated that the~~ variations in the DSM changed with the soil depth and
24 vegetation types. Higher variations in DSM occurred at two depth ranges, namely,
25 120-140 cm and 480-500 cm, while variations in native grasses in the horizontal
26 direction were far lower than those of farmland, apple orchards, and introduced
27 vegetation at comparable depths. ~~The DSM profile of local control natural grassland~~
28 ~~could be divided into three layers based on the DSM profile distribution and its~~
29 ~~variation characteristics, namely, (I) a rainfall transpiration layer (80-220 cm), (II) a~~

1 ~~transition layer (220–400 cm), and (III) a stable layer (400–500 cm), which can reflect~~
2 ~~the influencing depths of rainfall infiltration and evapotranspiration for DSM.~~ Soil
3 desiccation occurred for almost all the vegetation types; among them, CK and BL
4 were the most serious, ~~which indicated that these plants were not suitable for~~
5 ~~large-scale planting in this area.~~ Moreover, ~~rainfall transpiration layer 180–220cm soil~~
6 ~~depth~~ had the most serious desiccation layer. The high DSM in farmland and apple
7 orchards indicated that human management measures could greatly improve DSM,
8 ~~even for deep-rooted apple orchards, in which no soil desiccation was found.~~
9 Although the vegetation type was a dominant factor, the variations in the DSM in this
10 area were actually the combined result of the climate, vegetation, topography, soil,
11 and human management measures. The DSM in native grassland, ~~which could reflect~~
12 ~~local DSM conditions without human disturbance or soil moisture overconsumption,~~
13 was found to be significantly related to the topography, soil traits and annual average
14 rainfall. The plant growth conditions, planting density, and litter water holding traits
15 showed significant relationships with the DSM for introduced vegetation. Human
16 management measures greatly increased the influence of soil traits on the DSM in
17 farmland and orchards, which increased rainfall infiltration and improved the DSM.
18 Proper selection of the vegetation type, planting locations, and landscape management
19 measures can be suggested based on the results of this study, ~~considering the high~~
20 ~~DSM consumption capacity, CK and BL are unsuitable for large-scale planting in the~~
21 ~~study area, while SB, PG, and DP can be properly planted under good soil moisture~~
22 ~~conditions with suitable planting density and human management measures. Areas~~
23 ~~with good DSM conditions usually include higher rainfall zones and lower altitudes,~~
24 ~~while human management measures, such as macro-terrain reconstruction, artificial~~
25 ~~rainwater gathering, increased land surface cover and vegetation density control, are~~
26 ~~effective methods to control soil desiccation.~~ The results of this study are of practical
27 significance for vegetation restoration strategies and the sustainability of restored
28 ecosystems.

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