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August 31, 2019

Memorandum

To: Prof. Lixin Wang, Editor of Hydrology and Earth System Science

Subject: Revised manuscript of hess-2019-254

Dear Prof. Wang,

We have substantially revised our manuscript entitled as "*Temporal-dependent effects of rainfall characteristics on inter-/intra-event branch-scale stemflow variability in two xerophytic shrubs*" after considering all the comments of Prof. David Dunkerley and another two anonymous reviewers, which are of great help to improve this manuscript.

The following are the point-to-point response to all these comments, including (1) Response to the anonymous Reviewer #1, (2) Response to Reviewer #2 (Prof. David Dunkerley), (3) Response to the anonymous Reviewer #3, (4) The revised manuscript, and (5) the revised manuscript with marks in comparation with the previous version, respectively. Please note that the number of lines and pages at Responses to reviewers #1, #2 and #3 correspond to those at the revised manuscript without marks.



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Response to Reviewer #1

<u>General Comments</u>: The paper by Yuan et al mainly aimed to characterize the inter-/intra-event stemflow dynamics of two xerophytic shrubs and to quantify their relationships with the corresponding inter-/intra-event rainfall characteristics. They concluded that rainfall characteristics had temporal-dependent influences on corresponding stemflow variables.

From my point of view, the study has potential to make a contribution to a better understanding of, in particular, the intra-storm stemflow processes and the underlying mechanisms governing its dynamics. The experimental design and data analysis are generally acceptable, while clarity is needed in presenting the design. The figures adequately summarize the results. I recommend this paper for publication in HESS after some moderate revisions had been addressed by the authors.

Reply:

We appreciated the anonymous reviewer for the comments and suggestions, which were of great help to improve the overall quality of this manuscript. The manuscript had been carefully revised, and we tried best to submit a qualified manuscript as required.

<u>R1C2:</u> L 69: Change "initialed" to "initiated". **Reply:** Done (Line 74, Page 4).

<u>R1C3:</u> L 72: I would use "leafed period" instead of "leaf period". **Reply:** Done (Line 78, Page 4).

<u>R1C4</u>: Section 2.2: What is the time interval for recording rainfall and the stemflow in subsequent section? This needs to be clearly stated.

Reply:

We recorded stemflow and rainfall via the Onset® (Onset Computer Corp., USA) RG3-M tipping-bucket rain gauges (hereinafter referred to as "TBRG"). When the bucket (with resolution of 0.2 mm and the equivalent volume of 3.73 mL) was filled and tipped, data of stemflow or rainfall was stored at the dynamic time interval. It depended on rainfall and stemflow intensities. Therefore, the rainfall and stemflow was recorded at dynamics intervals between neighboring tips with the fixed 0.2-mm resolution (Lines 222–223, Pages 10–11).

<u>R1C5:</u> L 184-186: According to Table 1, stemflow data of S. psammophila are not available for branches with a BD of 15-18 mm rather than 18-25 mm. Please verify this. **Reply:** The typo here of "18–25 mm" had been revised to "15–18 mm" at Line 214, Page 10.



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<u>R1C6</u>: Section 2.4: I miss the information about how many rain gauges the authors used in recording stemflow. Did each branch connect to a rain gauge? It seems to be the case from my view of Fig. 1, which makes a total of 14 rain gauges. Please explicitly state to avoid guessing.

Reply:

TBRGs had been applied in this study to automatically record stemflow volume and timing. Each TBRG connected to one experimental branches of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*. Seven branches were selected at different BD categories for each species. Therefore, we had installed 14 TBRGs for stemflow measuring in this study. It had already been clearly described at the revised manuscript as suggested (Line 221, Page 10).

<u>R1C7</u>: L 203: I would change "base area" to "orifice area", which is a more accurate terminology for rain gauge.

Reply: Done (Line 235, Page 11).

<u>R1C8</u>: L 200-210: As for mL of SFV, it should be calculated as: SFV = [mm (branch stemflow recorded by tipping-bucket rain gauges) / 10] cm2 (orifice area of a rain gauge). I thinkthe authors missed a 10. Therefore, for the calculation of stemflow volume and stemflowintensity, I suggest that authors provide the corresponding mathematical equations; it wouldbe concise and easier for readers to follow.

Reply:

At the previous version of this manuscript, we just gave the factors for calculating stemflow volume (SFV, mL), i.e., stemflow depth recorded by TBRG (SF_{RG}, mm) and orifice area (186.3 cm²). The equation for SFV computation had already been described at the revised manuscript (Equation 10) (Lines 236, Page 11). Besides, the definitions and calculations of stemflow intensity (Equation 11–13, Lines 247–249, Page 12), duration (Lines 251–252, Page 12), time lags to rains (Lines 253–258, Page 12) and other meteorological features (Equation 1–9, Lines 159–161, 165 and 185–189 of Pages 8–9) had also been clearly described at *Section 2.2 Meteorological measurements and calculations* and *Section 2.4 Stemflow measurements and calculations*.

<u>R1C9</u>: L 211-215: According to the calculation of TLG, TLM, and TLE, these variables can have either negative or positive values. I encourage the authors to clarify here their respective meanings, i.e., what positive values are suggesting and what negative values are suggesting. Again, it would be easier for readers to better understand their following results. **Reply:**

Associated with the results in this study, the meanings of positive and negative values of TLG, TLE and TLM had been described at the *Section 3.2 Stemflow volume, intensity, funnelling ratio and temporal dynamics* at the revised manuscript. During the 54 events, no



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negative values were observed for TLG and TLM but TLE. It indicated that stemflow generally initiated and maximized after rains started for both species. However, stemflow might be ended before (negative TLE) and after (positive TLE) rains ceased. (Lines 326–329, Page 15).

<u>R1C10:</u> L 258-259: It would be more straightforward to add a row in Table 2 showing how many rainfall events occurred for each category (Event A to C, and others). **Reply:** Done (Line 806, Page 40).

<u>R1C11:</u> L 291-298: If it is possible, I would also expect to see some results about the differences of stemflow variables varied among BD categories.

Reply:

As suggested at this comment, we compared SFI and FR at different BD categories of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*. Shown at Table 4 (Lines 824–828, Page 42), FR of *C. korshinskii* decreased from 163.7 at the 5–10-mm branches to 97.7 at the 18–25-mm branches. The decreasing trend of FR were also noted for *S. psammophila* in the range of 44.2–212.0, as branch size increased. Because funnelling ratio was calculated as the ratio between stemflow and rainfall intensities (Lines 28–29, Page 2; Lines 553–555, Page 26), SFI was also compared at different BD categories. It was negatively related with branch size for both species. As indicated at Equation 14–15 (Lines 264–265, Page 12), the decreasing stemflow intensity with branch size might partly explained the negative relations between funnelling ratio and BD.

However, we did not compare all the stemflow variables at different BD categories. Because of the high expense of TBRGs (Turner et al., 2019), no more than two branches were selected for stemflow recording at each BD category (Table 1, Lines 803–805 of Page 38). The results were much more convincing to analyze the average stemflow variables among BD categories, and compared them at different rainfall amount categories with enough events for meeting the statistical significance.

<u>R1C12</u>: Section 4.1: I would like to discuss with the authors about the use and importance of stemflow intensity and RSFI. I admit that stemflow intensity would be a good variable to show the dynamics of intra-event stemflow, while I am not convinced by authors about the



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importance of comparing the absolute values of stemflow intensity versus rainfall intensity (also demonstrated in L26-30 of Abstract). Their study is based on monitoring branch stemflow, and branch stemflow intensity was a bit higher than rainfall intensity in their study. However, in terms of stemflow's ecological and hydrological importance such as in providing additional soil water and sustaining vegetation growth, we pay more attention to the whole tree/shrub (rather than a single branch). From my understanding this variable is highly dependent on the size of a shrub/tree, because a lager shrub/tree (normally has larger basal diameter or canopy area) would generate substantially higher volume of stemflow, therefore stemflow intensity calculated based on collecting from individual trees/shrubs would be far greater than rainfall intensity, as examples please see Fig. 3 in cayuela et al. (2018, Journal of Hydrology) or Fig. 7 in Germer et al. (2010, Journal of Hydrology). Stemflow and rainfall differs in their paths entering into rain gauges; the orifice area makes sense for rainfall because this area is precisely where rainfall falling into and rainfall depth is then normalized, while stemflow is part of intercepted rainfall by the canopy and then comes down stems, which indicates that infiltrating soil area of stemflow is quite different than that of a rain gauge (i.e., orifice area). Therefore this variable may be prone to underestimate stemflow's eco-hydrological role for small shrubs, as such, in terms of ecological importance this variable seems to be less appropriate to be used for inter-specific comparison or even intra-specific comparison of varying sizes. Moreover, the authors were also recommending a future combination use of funnelling ratio and RSFI in stemflow studies. While I agree with the authors that RSFI is helpful in better understanding of the intra-event convergence effects, funnelling ratio assumes trunk/stem basal area is the true area that stemflow is delivered to the soil, whereas RSFI here is based on stemflow intensity which I have discussed above. RSFI may also be prone to underestimate stemflow's eco-hydrological role for small trees/shrubs while overestimate that of big trees/shrubs. I encourage authors to discuss both the advantages and limitations of stemflow intensity and RSFI as well as their application.

Reply:

Thank you for commenting on the calculation and importance of stemflow intensity and RSFI at this manuscript. It indeed underestimated the eco-hydrological significance of stemflow by ignoring its receiving area of branch base as suggested. Therefore, we had



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revised the calculation of stemflow intensity on basis of basal area (Lines 237–238, Page 11), and introduced funnelling ratio to assess the convergence effect of stemflow at the revised manuscript (Lines 259–260, Page 12). Furthermore, this method had been highly recommended by comparing the calculation of stemflow intensity with or without considering the branch/trunk size at Lines 469–480, Page 22.

Please see the detailed explanations as below.

(1) Stemflow intensity had been re-computed on basis of branch basal area, and quantitatively connected to funneling ratio.

The RG3-M TBRGs had been applied to record stemflow in this study. Stemflow depth (SF_{RG}, mm) could be directly computed with tip amounts and tip resolution of 0.2 mm. Similar with the interpretation for rainfall recording, the 0.2-mm of stemflow per tip represented 200 mL water deposing on the 1-m² ground surface. Based at the same receiving areas, we calculated stemflow intensity as the ratio between SF_{RG} and rainfall duration at the previous manuscript. However, it underestimated the eco-hydrological significance of stemflow by ignoring the limited area of trunk/branch base, over which stemflow was received. As suggested at this comment, stemflow intensity should associate with the area over which the equivalent stemflow depth is evaluated. Therefore, we re-calculated stemflow intensity and followed the definition of stemflow volume per basal area per unit time (Herwitz, 1986; Spencer and Meerveld, 2016). In this study, we calculated stemflow intensity at different time intervals, including the event base (SFI), the 10-min (SFI₁₀) and the dynamic intervals between neighboring tips of TBRG (SFIi) (Equation 11–13) (Lines 247–249, Page 12). Furthermore, we established the quantitative connections of stemflow intensity with funnelling ratio as indicated at Equation 14–15 (Lines 265–266, Pages 12–13). RSFI had been deleted at the revised manuscript. By replacing the event-based volume of rainfall and stemflow with their intensities at the traditional expression (Herwitz, 1986), the new method enabled funnelling ratio to be computed at high temporal resolutions within event.

(2) Stemflow variables and the meteorological influences were analyzed at branch scale.

C. korshinskii and *S. psammophila* are modular organisms with multiple branches. Each branch of them lives as independent individual which seeks its own survival goals and compete with each other for light and water (Firn, 2004; Allaby, 2010). They provide ideal



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experimental objects to measure the branch stemflow volume and production processes. By introducing branch basal diameter (BD, mm) as intermediate variable, stemflow volume, intensity and funnelling ratio could be upscaled from branches to shrubs (Yuan et al., 2016; 2017). Therefore, the study on branch stemflow variables was conducive to explain the meteorological influences on stemflow at shrub scale particularly for the modular organisms. To guarantee the representativeness of experimental shrubs and branches, the thorough plot investigation had been carried out. Please see Point (3) at Reply to R2C3 for describing the determination of standard shrubs at the plots of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*, and see Point (4) at Reply to R2C2 for explaining the determination of standard branches of the two shrubs. To address the branch-scale measurements of stemflow, the title had been revised as "Temporal-dependent effects of rainfall characteristics on inter-/intra-event branch-scale stemflow variability in two xerophytic shrubs" as suggested by Reviewers 2 and 3.

<u>R1C13</u>: L 433-437: These sentences are somewhat redundant (have been mentioned in above sections) and can be simplified or simply deleted. **Reply:** Done.

<u>R1C14</u>: Figure 3: Data points are average values for 7 branches for each event? Since the authors selected 7 branches of varying BD for each species to measure stemflow, a relative larger difference in stemflow would be expected among branches. It would be an option to adding error bars if they won't make the figure blurring too much.

Reply:

Stemflow variables were averaged at seven branches of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*, respectively. Each experimental branch had been carefully selected following the strict criteria. A total of seven branches were selected for automatic recording via TBRGs at different BD categories of each species. To better meeting the statistical significance, we took the average value of stemflow variables at the seven branches at each species, and focused on the comparison of them among different rainfall amount categories. The variation of stemflow variables had been described as the average±standard error at Table 3 (Lines 817–824, Page 41). However, since eight stemflow variables with 54 recording points each



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were shown at the same figure, the error bars were not drawn at Fig.3 just to keep the intra-event variation of stemflow variables clean and tidy (Lines 834–836, Page 45).

R1C15: Figure 4:The unit of rainfall stemflow intensity should be mm h^{-1} rather than m h^{-1} . Also changes should be made in the legend, since both lines and points are included in this figure, it would be misleading by labelling "Lines in blue" or "Lines in red" without mentioning points. Moreover, since 7 branches for each species were selected for monitoring stemflow intra-event dynamics, I am wondering which branches for two species were demonstrated in this figure.

Reply:

Done. The typo unit (m h⁻¹) had been corrected to mm h⁻¹, and the misleading legends had been revised, and the branch size of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* had been added at Fig.4 (Lines 837–839, Page 46).

Reference:

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Firn, R.: Plant Intelligence: an Alternative Point of View, Ann. Bot., 93, 345-351, 2004.

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- Spencer, S. A. and van Meerveld, H. J.: Double funnelling in a mature coastal British Columbia forest: spatial patterns of stemflow after infiltration, Hydrol. Process., 30, 4185–4201, https://doi.org/ 10.1002/hyp.10936, 2016.
- Turner, B., Hill, D.J., Carlyle-Moses, D.E. and Rahman, M.: Low-cost, high-resolution stemflow sensing, J. Hydrol., 570, 62–68, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhydrol.2018.12.072, 2019.
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Response to Reviewer #2: Prof. Dunkerley

<u>General Comments</u>: The authors report on a detailed study of stemflow in two dryland shrub species, and its relationship with rainfall properties. The data come from field observations of selected branches that were equipped with stemflow collecting collars, and exposed to a number of natural rainfall events. Seven branches were instrumented for each of the two shrub species. The stemflow was recorded by directing the flow into tipping-bucket rain gauges having a 0.2 mm sensitivity.

Although the work appears to be generally thorough, there are some significant issues with it that I consider require clarification before the work could be accepted for publication.

Reply:

We would like to extend our sincere gratitude to Prof. Dunkerley for these constructive comments and suggestions. They were of great help to improve this manuscript. We have carefully revised this manuscript as required.

<u>R2C1</u>: The authors are concerned with the relative timing of rainfall and of the resulting stemflow. The difficulty here is that the relative timing is affected by the size of the collecting areas that contribute either rainfall or stemflow to the measuring gauges. The canopy of S. psammophila for instance is reported as 21.4 m2 (line 170), whilst the collecting area of the pluviography TBRG in the open is just 0.018 m2. Thus the canopy area of the shrub is more than 1,000 times larger. Therefore, the tiny tipping bucket (capacity about 3.65 mL, by my estimation) can potentially be filled more rapidly by stemflow than by rainfall in the open. In this way, the time until first tip (regarded by the authors as the onset of stemflow) probably occurs closer to the onset of rainfall as a function of canopy area and its effect in reducing the bucket filling time.

Therefore, among the seven instrumented branches, the timing of stemflow initiation should vary, and it might be possible to relate this to the plant morphology. However, the authors do not report the canopy collecting area for the 7 branches that they monitored for each of the two shrub species. Therefore, calculations of the kind just sketched cannot be made nor the results evaluated properly. This imposes uncertainty in the interpretation of the stemflow timing data. The ideal, of course, would be for the collecting area of foliage and branch to be as close as possible to the collecting area of the open-field rain gauge.

Indeed, the manuscript lacks any detail of the foliar area on the branches that were monitored for stemflow. For instance, leaf area and leaf wettability are not mentioned or reported. Likewise, there are no data on the shrub canopies as a whole, such as leaf area index (LAI) or canopy gap fraction. The lack of such information again makes the results somewhat difficult to interpret or to compare with results from other taxa and environments.



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Reply:

Thank you for this comment. As suggested by Prof. Dunkerley, the initiation of rainfall and stemflow, and the time intervals between them were indeed strongly affected by the corresponding areas to collect them. Therefore, we had carefully discussed the influence of interception area affecting stemflow volume, depth, fraction and funnelling ratio at 53 branches of *C. korshinskii* and 98 branches of *S. psammophila* at Yuan et al. (2016; 2017), including the leaf area of individual branches, branch size, the specific surface area of canopy representing by leaves and stems at both the leafed and leafless states, respectively. By installing TBRGs at 7 branches of each species, this study mainly concentrated on the branch-scaled inter-/intra-event stemflow variabilities and the influence of rainfall characteristics affecting them. The influence of leaf area index (LAI) and crown area were not discussed at the shrub scale.

The reasons were detailedly explained as below.

(1) Stemflow variables and meteorological influences were analyzed at branch scale.

C. korshinskii and *S. psammophila* are modular organisms with multiple branches. Each branch of them lives as independent individual which seeks its own survival goals and compete with each other for light and water (Firn, 2004; Allaby, 2010). They provide ideal experimental objects to measure the branch stemflow volume and production processes, which could be upscaled to stemflow variables of individual shrubs (Yuan et al., 2016; 2017). The branch-scaled study of stemflow process was conducive to better understand stemflow production at shrub scale particularly for the modular organisms. Therefore, this study focused on the branch-scaled stemflow volume, intensity, temporal dynamics and funnelling ratio of the two species, and analyzed the influences of rainfall characteristics affecting them. (2) Stemflow variables were averaged at seven different-sized branches of each species.

Seven branches were selected to automatically record stemflow via TBRGs at different BD categories of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*, respectively. The relatively high expense of TBRGs limited the number of experimental branches that could be measured (Turner et al., 2019). However, each experimental branch was carefully selected following the strict criteria as stated at Point (3) of Reply to R2C3 and Point (4) of Reply to R2C2. Thus, we tried best to guarantee the selected experimental branches to represent the experimental shrubs, and the selected shrubs to represent the *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* plots in this study. That was the comprehensive results by balancing the statistical significance and TBRG expenses.

Average stemflow variables were took at these seven branches to present the branch stemflow variables of the representative shrubs at *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* plots. We mainly compared them at different rainfall amount (RA) categories, and discussed the influence of rainfall characteristics affecting them. Therefore, the variances of branch morphologies within species were not relevant to the average branch-scaled stemflow variables. However, they had been described as important background information at Table 1 (Lines 803–805, Page 39). The canopy traits were also stated at *Section 2.3 Experimental*



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branch selection and measurements (Lines 198–200, Page 9). (3) Recording stemflow process with the tipping bucket rain gauges had been justified.

Tipping bucket rain gauges (TBRGs) provided the intra-event monitoring of stemflow and had been widely applied (Iida et al., 2012), although they underestimated the inflow water with systematic mechanical errors (Turner et al., 2019). It had been widely used for automatic recording of stemflow (Lines 149–151, Page 7). The bigger bucket volume might bring the larger underestimation (Iida et al., 2012). Therefore, RG3-M rain gauges were used in this study with the relatively smaller bucket volume of 0.2 mm (the equivalent volume of 3.73 mL, email-confirmed by the Onset company). Besides, we corrected the TBRG recording via the regressions with manual measurements as per Equation 4 to further mitigate its underestimation (Line 165, Page 8).

TBRGs offered the ability to collect the volume and timing of inflow water throughout an event (Turner et al., 2019). When the bucket was filled by rains and tipped, it was recorded as the beginning of incident rains. Comparatively, stemflow started in a much more complicated manner. Because it could not be initiated until the canopy was saturated. The larger branch leaf area could help to initiate stemflow earlier for trapping more rains, but might also result in a later generation by consuming more rains to wet canopy. Furthermore, stemflow generation also affected by the traveling time from canopy down to branch base, which was strongly affected by the bark roughness. Therefore, compared with the simply positive relation between TBRG orifice area and rains initiation at the clearings, the larger leaf area to intercept rains could not guarantee a quick start of stemflow. Our results indicated *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* averagely initiated stemflow 66.2 and 54.8 min later than rains began during the 2014–2015 rainy seasons. Time lags of stemflow generation to rains was also supported by Germer (2010) and Cayuela et al. (2018). In general, TBRG was not perfect to precisely record stemflow timing, but might be the plausible devices to record stemflow process by far.

R2C2: Data processing is poorly explained. Stemflow intensity, given in mm h-1, requires that the volume of water delivered to the TBRG used to record stemflow (recorded in mL per bucket tip) must be associated with the area over which the equivalent stemflow depth is evaluated. I could not see this explained anywhere in the manuscript, and it needs to be made clear. If it was the cross-sectional area of the branch being monitored (typically about 3 cm2 by my rough estimation) then this needs to be set out in the manuscript. If the authors did use basal branch cross-sectional area, then of course the stemflow intensity can easily exceed the rainfall intensity, as a function of the very small area over which the stemflow is recorded as arriving - far smaller than the collecting area of the rainfall pluviograph. If this area were to be doubled, then the stemflow intensity would be halved (and so on). Therefore, the area used by the authors in their calculation needs to be stated (and justified by some relationship to plant water availability).

Data processing is also poorly explained in terms of the data on stemflow volume presented



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by the authors (e.g. in Table 3). Are the stemflow volumes reported there, and discussed at many places in the paper, the sum of the stemflow on the 7 monitored branches, or the arithmetic mean of the stemflow from the 7 branches, or are the figures scaled-up to estimate the stemflow delivered by the entire test shrub? (The test shrubs had a total of 180 and 261 branches (line 173) only 7 of which were monitored for each shrub species (amounting to a sample of 4% and 2.6% of the branches, the adequacy of which is not discussed by the authors). Whatever the authors did, it is not made clear and this needs to be corrected. Especially in relation to stemflow, all relevant parameters used in data processing must be set out clearly and systematically.

Without knowing the details of the calculation procedure, the relative intensity of the stemflow and the open-field rainfalls are difficult to interpret. No formulae are presented by the authors that would allow this to be checked. My own feeling is that the stemflow flux would be a more useful figure - that is, the flow rate delivered to the base of the branch, expressed for instance in mL/minute or L/hour. If this is accompanied by a clearly-stated area over which the flow is tallied, then a stemflow intensity can be calculated.

Reply:

Thank you for this comment. The poorly-explained data processing has been carefully revised. We have detailedly described the definitions and calculations of stemflow volume, intensity, time lag to rains and other meteorological features at the revised manuscript. The representativeness of the selected branches for stemflow recording had been stated as below.

(1) Stemflow intensity has been computed following the definition as the stemflow volume per basal area per unit of time.

The RG3-M TBRGs had been applied to record stemflow in this study. Stemflow depth (SF_{RG}, mm) was computed with tip amounts within event by multiplying tip resolution of 0.2 mm. Similar with the interpretation for rainfall recording, the 0.2-mm per tip represented 200 mL water deposing on the 1-m² ground surface. Based at the same receiving areas, we calculated stemflow intensity as the ratio between SF_{RG} and rainfall duration at the previous manuscript. However, it underestimated the eco-hydrological significance of stemflow by ignoring the limited area of trunk/branch base, over which stemflow was truly received. Therefore, following the definition of stemflow volume per basal area per unit time (Herwitz, 1986; Spencer and Meerveld, 2016), we re-computed stemflow intensity with the branch base area at different temporal scales, including the event (SFI), the 10-min (SFI₁₀) and the intervals between neighboring tips of TBRG (SFI_i) (Equation 11–13 at Lines 247–249, Page 12). Furthermore, we established the quantitative connections of stemflow intensity with funnelling ratio for the first time (Equation 14 at Line 265, Page 12). By replacing the event-based volume of rainfall and stemflow with their intensities at the traditional expression, this new method enabled to calculate funnelling ratio at both inter-/intra-event scales (Lines 553–555, Page26).

(2) The detailed definition and calculation had been described for stemflow variables and rainfall characteristics.



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The definitions and calculations had been described for stemflow volume (SFV, mL) (Equation 10 at Lines 236, Page 11), stemflow duration (SFD, h) (Lines 251–252, Page 12), time lags stemflow generation (TLG, min), maximization (TLM, min) and ending (TLE, min) at Lines 253–258, Page 12, the regression for rectifying the TBRG recordings with manual measurements (Equation 4) at Line 165, Page 8, evaporation coefficient (E, unitless) (Equation 1–3) at Lines 159–161, Page 8, the allometric equations for estimating leaf area of branches at *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* at Lines 216–219, Page 10. (3) Stemflow variables had been averaged at different BD categories to analyze the most influential rainfall characteristics affecting them.

Stemflow variables were averaged at different-sized branches to present the branch-scale stemflow variables of the representative shrubs at *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* plots. We carefully checked the results of stemflow variables, and listed the average values of seven branches during rainfall events with different intensity peak amounts at Table 3 (Lines 815–823, Page 41). Please see the detailed description at Point (2) of Reply to R2C1.

(4) Seven representative branches were selected for stemflow recording at each species.

This study selected 4 shrubs for measuring stemflow and 1 shrub for establishing allometric equations of biomass and leaf areas at each species (Yuan et al., 2016; 2017). Please see Point (3) at Reply to R2C3 for describing the representativeness of the selected experimental shrubs. The morphological features had been measured for all the 180 and 261 branches at these 5 shrubs of C. korshinskii and S. psammophila, respectively, thus to determining the standard branches for stemflow recording in this study. BD categories were grouped to guarantee the minimum branch amount at each category for meeting the statistical significance. The \leq 5-mm branches were not included in stemflow measurements, because they were too weak to bear the fossil collars for trapping stemflow. Considering the high meteorological sensitivity of stemflow temporal dynamics, we tried best to select the experimental branches at the same shrub, which were most likely exposed to the similar rainfall characteristics. Moreover, the qualified branches should have the outlayer-of-canopy positions, no intercrossing with neighboring ones and no turning point in height from branch tip to base (Lines 210–211, Page 10). Therefore, apart from the \leq 5-mm branches at both species, the >25-mm branches at C. korshinskii for not enough qualified individuals, and 15-18-mm branches at S. psammophila for TBRG malfunctioning, there are averagely 28 and 41 branches available for stemflow recording per shrub of C. korshinskii and S. psammophila, respectively (Table R2-1 as below). Finally, 7 branches were selected at each species, which took 25.0% and 17.1% of the available ones per shrub at C. korshinskii and S. psammophila, respectively. Additionally, the high expense of TBRG was an important reason to limit the number of experimental shrubs and branches for automatic recording of stemflow (Turner et al., 2019).



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Table R2-1. Branch morphological features of the experimental shrubs of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*.

BD categories		C. korshins	skii				S. psammoj	phila	
	BD (mm)	BL (cm)	BA (°)	BN	_	BD (mm)	BL (cm)	BA (°)	BN
≤5	4.1	90.4	64.1	40		4.8	166	66	2
5-10	7.3	124.9	61.8	82		8.0	204	64	53
10–15	12.5	161.1	51.7	36		12.9	253	58	82
15–18	16.3	170.6	48.7	13		16.5	280	52	56
18–25	19.3	192.3	51.3	9		20.3	302	50	59
>25	NA	NA	NA	NA		28.7	366	50	9

Note: BD, BL, BA and BN are the basal diameter, length, angle and number of branches.

R2C3: In summary, what I find to be missing from the manuscript includes

-some discussion of why 7 stems were studied and whether this is a sufficient sample

-some consideration of the filling time of the buckets in the tipping-bucket gauges used for rainfall and stemflow measurement, and the effect of this on the lag time before the start of stemflow (and the cessation of stemflow after rain ends)

-more detail on the shrubs - including the variability of canopy size etc across the population from which the two sample shrubs were drawn, and some information on leaf area and wettability, if available

-a proper accounting of how stemflow flux was calculated and how the area over which the intensity was scaled was selected.

Reply:

- (1) Please see Point (4) at Reply to R2C2 and Point (3) at Reply to R2C3 for explaining the representativeness of the selected 7 branches and 4 shrubs for stemflow recording, respectively.
- (2) Although TBRGs offered the ability to collect stemflow production at high temporal resolution and time lags to rain, they suffered from systematic errors owing to the rate of water delivery to tip buckets (Turner et al., 2019). The TBRGs missed the records of inflow water during tipping intervals, and they consumed water to wet buckets at the beginning (Groisman and Legates, 1994). The calibration was needed to rectify the volume recordings via regressions with the manual measurement results (Lines 151–158, Page 7; Lines 165–167, Page 8). However, it was difficult for rectifying the temporal data currently. Therefore, applying the TBRG with relative high accuracy was necessary. Iida et al. (2012) reported that the tipping time increased with the bucket volume by comparing different models of TBRG, including the RG3-M (3.73±0.01 mL), OW-34 (15.7±0.3 mL), UIZ-TB20 (198.3±3.3 mL), TXQ-200 (188.7±10.3 mL) and TXQ-400 (403.9±6.9 mL). We chose RG3-M with the small bucket volume of 3.73 mL to mitigate the underestimation in this study. Please see Point (3) at Reply to R2C1 to justify the



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feasibility of applying TBRGs.

(3) The plot investigations had been carried out at April of 2014 for the 20-year-old *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*. For *C. korshinskii*, three subplots with the size of 5 m×5 m had been selected along the plot diagonal, including subplot A (5 shrubs) and C (6 shrubs) at the ends and subplot B (6 shrubs) at the middle. As indicated at Table R2-2 as below, the average canopy height and area were 1.9±0.1 m and 4.8±0.6 m², respectively. Because the runoff and sediment plots had already been constructed at the center of *S. psammophila* plot, we selected the subplot (13 shrubs) at northeastern part with the size of 20 m×20 m. The average canopy height and area were 3.5±0.2 m and 19.1±2.2 m², respectively (Table R2-3 as below). Thus, standard shrub could be determined to represent the two plots. Finally, five experimental shrubs of each species had been selected for stemflow measurements and allometric equation establishments of *C. korshinskii* (2.1±0.2 m and 5.1±0.3 m²) and *S. psammophila* (3.5±0.2 m and 21.4±5.2 m²), respectively.

As stated at Point (4) of Reply to R2C2, the standard branches could be determined and seven branches were finally selected for stemflow recording. According to the allometric equations established for estimating leaf area of individual branches (LA, cm²) (Yuan et al., 2016; 2017), LA of experimental shrubs were estimated in the range of 837.7–6394.7 cm² and 626.3–7513.7 cm² at different BD categories for *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*, respectively (Table 1 at Lines 803–805, Page 39). Rainfall intervals, the time intervals between neighboring rains (RI, h), was applied to indirectly represent the branch wettability. The drier barks could be estimated when RI was larger. The results of MCA and stepwise regression indicated that RI tightly corresponded to time lags of stemflow ending, but there was no significant quantitative relationship between them for for *C. korshinskii* (R^2 =0.005, p=0.28) or *S. psammophila* (R^2 =0.002, p=0.78) (Fig.7) (Lines 845–846, Page 49).

Subplots	Shrubs	Canopy heights (m)	Canopy area (m ²)
	1	1.7	4.6
	2	1.2	2.1
А	3	1.9	3.7
	4	1.4	2.5
_	5	2.0	5.7
	6	1.7	5.5
	7	1.8	4.3
В	8	1.8	3.8
D	9	2.1	6.8
	10	2.5	11.6
_	11	2.3	6.7
С	12	1.3	3.4

Table R2-2.	Investigation	of canopy	morphology at	C. korshinskii plot.
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17	2.2	5.5
15 16	1.8 2.0	2.8 4.0
14	1.9	2.7
13	1.9	5.9

Table R2-3.	Investigation of ca	nopy morphology	at S. psammophila plot.

Shrubs	Canopy heights (m)	Canopy area (m ²)
1	3.8	24.0
2	3.8	18.5
3	3.6	21.8
4	3.7	24.0
5	3.2	20.6
6	2.6	13.2
7	2.9	5.8
8	3.3	25.9
9	3.2	8.3
10	4.4	22.5
11	4.4	29.7
12	2.9	7.4
13	3.8	25.7
Average	3.5±0.2	19.1±2.2

(4) Stemflow intensity had been re-calculated on the basis of branch basal area. Please see the detailed description at Point (1) of Reply to R2C2.

R2C4: More detailed comments:

lines 49-50: it is difficult to generalise from these few data to all "water stressed regions" (and need to define what a water-stressed region is)

Reply: Done. We have revised the "water-stressed regions" into "dryland ecosystems with annual mean rainfall ranging in 154–900 mm" (Line 54, Page 3), which was cited from the reporting of Magliano et al. (2019).

R2C5: line 57: mL/g of what? biomass?

Reply: It was the unit of stemflow productivity (Yuan et al., 2016; 2017), which represented the stemflow volume of unit biomass. The description has been added at Lines 61–62, Page 3.

R2C6: line 61: a flow in units of mL/min is a flux, not a speed **Reply:** Done. We change the "speed" into "flux" at Line 67, Page 3.



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R2C7: line 69: should presumably say 'not until AFTER canopies became saturated' **Reply:** Done (Line 74, Page 4).

R2C8: line 70: need to define RA when this contraction is first used. It is used again in line 138 before being defined.

Reply: RA has been firstly used and explained at Line 53, Page 3.

R2C9: line 76: missing a space before 0.4 **Reply:** Done.

R2C10: lines 77-78: need to include branch surfaces also line 83: need to state which measure is maximized

Reply: Done. "branch surfaces" has been included at Line 80 of Page 4, and the "stemflow flux" has been stated at Line 85 of Page 4 at the revised manuscript.

R2C11: line 85: explain why time lags are important: presumably the last stemflow would occur as a very small (negligible) flux, so why is the timing of the last stemflow important? More generally, the authors could say something about why the time variation of stemflow during rainfall is important. Do peaks of stemflow flux exceed soil infiltration capacity, perhaps? Otherwise, why is this important?

Reply: Thank you for this comment. Stemflow might take a minor part of rainfall amount, but it greatly contributes to the survival of xerophytic plant species (Návar, 2011), the maintenance of patch structures in arid areas (Kéfi et al., 2007), and the normal functioning of rainfed dryland ecosystems (Wang et al., 2011) (Lines 52–58, Page 3). Previous studies failed to depict stemflow processes and quantify their relations with rainfall characteristics within events, particularly for xerophytic shrubs (Lines 21–24, Page 1). Time lags of stemflow generation, maximization and ending to rains depicted dynamic stemflow process, and were conducive to better understand the hydrological process occurred at the interface between the intercepted rains and soil moisture (Sprenger et al., 2019). It was important to discuss the temporal persistence in spatial patterns of soil moisture particularly at the intra-event scale (Gao et al., 2019) (Lines 87–93, Pages 4–5).

R2C12: line 100: no need to repeat the number of rainfall events here, and again in line 222 and again in line 248. Once is sufficient.

Reply: Done. The number of rainfall events had been deleted at the end of *Section 1*. *Introduction* (Line 107, Page 5) and *Section 2.4* Stemflow measurements and calculations (Line 268, Page 13), and only kept at *Section 3.1 Rainfall characteristics* (Line 292, Page 14).



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R2C13: line 106: please define 'stemflow intensity' and provide a formula somewhere in the paper

Reply: Done. The definition and formula had been detailedly described at Lines 237–249, Pages 11–12.

R2C14: line 139: please explain what 'analogue' means here

Reply: Done. The "analogue period of time to dry canopies from antecedent rains" had been revise to "same period of time to dry canopies from antecedent rains as that reported by Giacomin and Trucchi (1992), Zhang et al. (2015), Zhang et al., (2017) and Yang et al. (2019)" at Lines 169–171, Page 8.

R2C15: lines 147-148: all these timing data are a function of the tipping-bucket filling time (see discussion earlier in this report). When using a TBRG, it is difficult to tell precisely when rain begins or ends, owing to the time that might be required to fill the first tipping-bucket.

Reply: The better understanding of stemflow temporal variables was conducive to address the eco-hydrological importance of stemflow as stated at Reply to R2C11. TBRG was not perfect to precisely record stemflow timing, but might be the plausible devices to record stemflow process by far. Please see Point (3) at Reply to R2C1 for justifying the usage of TBRGs to record stemflow process.

R2C16: line 153: how is raindrop morphology reflected in this? please explain

Reply: The raindrop momentum was calculated with raindrop size and velocity as indicated at Equation 5–9 (Lines 185–189, Page 9), which represent the comprehensive effects of raindrop morphology (size) and kinetic energy (velocity).

R2C17: line 160: why is mean intensity used here?

Reply: The average rainfall intensity was used here to compute the average raindrop diameter and finally raindrop momentum on event base. The 10-min maximum raindrop momentum $(F_{10}, \text{mg} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1})$ and the average raindrop momentum at the first and last 10 min $(F_{b10} \text{ and } F_{e10}, \text{respectively}, \text{mg} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1})$ could be calculated with I_{10} , I_{b10} and I_{e10} as indicated at Equation 5–9 (Lines 185–189, Page 9), respectively.

R2C18: line 168: since this paper reports a study of branch stemflow only, the title of the paper should be amended to indicate this clearly (i.e., not a study of stemflow on an entire plant)

Reply: Done. We have revised the title to "Temporal-dependent effects of rainfall characteristics on inter-/intra-event branch-scale stemflow variability in two xerophytic shrubs" as suggested as Reviewer 3.



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R2C19: line 171: to what extent were the studied shrubs representative of the wider population? please present some data.

Reply: *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* were the dominant shrub species at the arid and semi-arid regions of northwestern China, including Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, Ningxia Hui Autonomous Region, Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region, Qinghai province, Gansu province, Shaanxi province, Shanxi province (Chao and Gong, 1999). Since both species had good drought tolerance, they were commonly planted for soil and water conservation, sand fixation and wind barrier (Li, 2012; Hu et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018). As the typical xerophytic shrub species at this region, they had extensive distributions particularly in arid and desert steppes (Li et al., 2016) at Lines 130–133, Page 6. Besides, please see Point (3) at Reply to R2C3 for explaining the representativeness of the selected four experimental shrubs at the *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* plots.

R2C20: lie 181: please explain what is meant by 'canopy skirt locations'. The photos suggest that there were many overhanging leaves and branches. Some of the stemflow collars were placed quite high off the ground (as far as can be judged from the photos, as no quantitative information on this is included in the paper). How do the authors know that the stemflow at these heights would actually reach the ground, and not drip off the branches?

Reply: The "canopy-skirt locations" has been revised to "the outlayer-of-canopy" at Line 211, Page 10. The photo shot the lower part of branches to show foil collar and TBRG for stemflow trapping and recording, which might not provide a very clear view of leaves on the upper branches. In contrast to the centered branches, stemflow of branches at the outlayer got less influences from the neighboring ones. We automatically recorded stemflow volume and timing via the RG3-M TBRG with height of 25.7 cm. Therefore, the foil collars were installed at branches nearly 40 cm off the ground (Lines 223–225, Page 11). It might be the minimum height for foil collars so as to keep the hose straight, which channelled stemflow down to TBRGs. The lost by dripping off was believed to be acceptable, compared with the commonly-used method to trap stemflow at breast height (1.2 or 1.3 m off ground) at tress particularly at rainforest, where the stemflow volume was much larger.

R2C21: line 189-190: what was the external diameter? this should be included as the dimensions of the stemflow collars are critical - it does not seem sufficient simply to assert that they caught no rainfall or released drips of throughfall from above.

Reply: The "external diameter" has been revised to "orifice diameter" at Line 235, Page 11. The limited orifice diameter of foil collars minimized the accessing of throughfall and rains into them (Yuan et al., 2017) (Lines 226–228, Page 11).

R2C22: line 270: how were rainfall intensity peaks identified? What makes one peak an intensity peak?

Reply: SFI_i, the instantaneous stemflow intensity, was computed in terms of the tip volume



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(3.73 mL), branch basal area (mm²) and time intervals between neighboring tips recorded by TBRGs as indicated Equation 13 (Line 249, Page 12). The largest SFI_i was defined as the peak intensity at the incident rains.

R2C23: line 292: is the reference to the volume from a single branch or the total from the 7 branches?

Reply: We focused on the average stemflow variables of 7 experimental branches, and analyzed the most influential rainfall characteristics affecting them. Please see the detailed explanation at Point 2 of Reply to R2C1 and Point 3 of Reply to R2C2.

R2C24: lines 300-310: this is difficult to read, owing to the need to recall the meaning of the very many contractions. Some reminders of what these mean would be useful here.

Reply: As indicated at the comment at Line 70 of R2C5, the contraction was only explained when it was firstly used. For an easy reading, the list of symbols had been prepared as appendix at the revised manuscript (Lines 590–591, Pages 27–28).

R2C25: line 342: a stemflow intensity of 1232 mm h-1 is large. What was the flux? I presume that in the case of the authors own work in the present study, the flux was within the capacity of the tipping-bucket gauges (typically a few hundred mm h-1 at maximum) since the rainfall was not very intense. Some comment on this would be worthwhile.

indicated of **Reply:** As the manual RG3-M TBRG at (https://www.onsetcomp.com/products/data-loggers/rg3-m), data could be automatically recorded at rains with the maximum intensity of 127 mm \cdot h⁻¹. The unit depth (mm) of inflow water recorded by TBRG was interpreted to the equivalent 1000 cm³ water on the 1-m² ground surface. However, stemflow intensity was computed with branch basal areas. It approximately ranged in 34-770 mm² for C. korshinskii and S. psammophila in this study, which took less than 0.8‰ of 1 m². Therefore, it could be estimated that the RG3-M TBRG offers the ability to record stemflow with the maximum intensity greater than 15000 mm $\cdot h^{-1}$.

R2C26: lines 383-384: but these fluxes would surely depend on the antecedent leaf and branch wetness, and on meteorological conditions such as wind speed and vapour deficit (the latter is not reported, incidentally).

Reply: The evaporation coefficient (E, unitless) had been included at the revised manuscript. E was computed with air temperature, relative humidity and wind speed as indicated at Equation 1–3 (Lines 159–161, Page 8). It represented the comprehensive influences of these meteorological characteristics. By performing the multiple correspondence analysis (MCA), E and rainfall duration (RD) were tested to closely relate with stemflow duration (Lines 360–362, Page 17). However, the stepwise regression analysis finally confirmed the dominant influence of RD affecting SFD (Lines 381–382, Page 18). Rainfall intervals, the time intervals between neighboring rains (RI, h), was applied to indirectly represent the branch



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wettability. Branch could be assumed to be drier when RI was large. Please see the detailed description at Point (3) at Reply to R2C3.

R2C27: Table 2: why are only 3 rainfall events listed here? More than 40 more are simply lumped under "others" and no details are provided. Why?

Reply: Event A, B and C represented three categories of events with the single, double and multiple intensity peak amounts. It had been described at the note of Table 2 (Lines 807–814, Page 40) and *Section 3.1 Rainfall characteristics* (Lines 301–303, Pages 14). There were 17, 11 and 15 events at Event A, B and C, respectively. Because the remaining 11 events had the average RA of 0.6 mm, no more than three recordings had been observed within event which was limited by 0.2-mm resolution of TBRGs. Therefore, they could not be categorized and grouped as Event others (Lines 304–306, Page 14).

R2C28: Figure 4 shows units of m/h which I presume should be mm/h **Reply:** Done (Lines 837–839, Page 46).

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Response to Reviewer #3

<u>General Comments</u>: After careful review, I think, in many ways, this is a good manuscript. The work has been well done and the manuscript is well organized. The paper has an appropriate length and the topic is of interest to the general readers of HESS...I recommend this manuscript for publication after a minor revision.

Reply:

We appreciated the anonymous reviewer for the comments and suggestions. This manuscript will be carefully revised as suggested prior to being submitted.

<u>R3C1</u>: My major concern is the reasonability of the stemflow variables used in this study. For instance, in Line 207, the authors said that the average (SFI) and 10-min maximum (SFI10) stemflow intensities were calculated by the branch stemflow as recorded by the tipping-bucket rain gauges (mm) and rainfall duration (h). In my opinion, stemflow intensities should be defined as the branch stemflow depth (which can be calculated from branch stemflow volume as divided by branch basal area) in a certain time. In the current form, the authors underestimated stemflow intensities. Also, in Line 216, the ratio of the intra-event stemflow intensity (RSFI, unitless) should be calculated basing on the suggested calculation of stemflow intensity.

Reply:

Thank you for commenting on the calculation of stemflow variables in this study. As suggested at this comment, it indeed underestimated the eco-hydrological significance of stemflow to compute stemflow intensity by ignoring the limited area of branch base, over which stemflow was received (Lines 465–468, Page 22). Therefore, we had re-computed stemflow intensity following the definition as stemflow volume per basal area per unit of time (Lines 237–246, Pages 11–12). It had been calculated at different time intervals, including the event (SFI, mm·h⁻¹), 10-min (SFI₁₀, mm·h⁻¹) and dynamic time interval between neighboring tips (SFI_i, mm·h⁻¹). Besides, RSFI had been deleted, and funnelling ratio had been introduced to assess the convergence effect of stemflow at the revised manuscript (Lines 259–264, Page 12). It had been quantitatively connected with stemflow intensity as indicated at Equations 14–15 (Lines 265–266, Pages 12–13). Please see the detailed explanation at Point (1) of Reply to R1C12, and Point (1) of Reply to R2C2.

<u>R3C2</u>: I also state minor comments as follows. L1: Only seven branches were used to measure stemflow for each shrub species (The studied shrubs had a total of 180 and 261 branches), So the suggested title is: Temporal-dependent effects of rainfall characteristics on inter-/intra-event branch-scale stemflow variability in two xerophytic shrubs. **Reply:** Done.



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<u>R3C3</u>: L220-226: It could be better if the authors provide the formula for each stemflow variables.

Reply:

Done. The detailed descriptions and calculations of stemflow variables had been stated at the revised manuscript, including stemflow volume (SFV, mL) (Equation 10) at Line 236, Page 11, stemflow duration (SFD, h), time lags stemflow generation (TLG, min), maximization and ending (TLE, min) at Lines 251–258, Page 12, stemflow intensities at the event bases (SFI), the 10-min interval (SFI₁₀) and the dynamic intervals between neighboring tips of TBRG (SFI_i) (Equation 11–13) at Lines 237–249, Pages 11–12, funnelling ratio at event base (FR) and the 100-s (FR₁₀₀) intervals (Equation 14–15) at Lines 259–268, Pages 12–13.

R3C4: L658. Table 1: What is the standard for base diameter (BD) categorization? In the current form, the class interval (5-10, 10-15, 15-18, 18-25, >25 mm) is variable. Why not 5-10, 10-15, 15-20, 20-25, and >25 mm? Please explain it. **Reply:**

Based on the plot investigations for *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*, standard shrubs canopies could be determined. Four shrubs and 1 shrub had been selected for stemflow measurements and allometric equations establishments, respectively. By measuring branch morphologies at all the branches at these five shrubs of each species, BD categories was determined to guarantee the minimum branch amount at each category for meeting the statistical significance. There was comparatively smaller amount of the 20–25-mm branches of *C. korshinskii*. Applying the categories interval of 15–18 and 18–25 was aimed to make sure the minimum branches amount between these two neighboring categories for meeting the statistical significance. Please see Point (4) at Reply to R2C2 and Point (3) at Reply to R2C3 for explaining the representativeness of the selected seven branches and four shrubs for stemflow recording, respectively.

R3C5: L662. Table 2: Do the rainfall indicators including RA, RD, RI, I, I10, Ib10 etc differ statically significantly among Event A, Event B, Event C and Others? Please provide the ANVOA results here. L670. Table 3: The comment is the same with the last one. Please provide the statistical results to depict the difference in the stemflow variables among Event A, Event B, Event C and Others.

Reply:

The One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with LSD post hoc test had been performed to determine whether rainfall characteristics and stemflow variables differed significantly among event categories, and whether funnelling ratio and stemflow intensities differed significantly among BD categories for *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*. The level of significance was set at 95% confidence interval (p=0.05) (Lines 283–288, Pages 13–14). The ANOVA results had been stated at Section 3.1 Rainfall characteristics at Lines 307–312, Pages 14–15, Section 3.2 Inter-/Intra-event stemflow variability at Lines 337–342, Page 16, and Table 2–4 (Lines 806–828, Pages 40–42).

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Temporal-dependent
                                     effects
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                                                        rainfall
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                                                                                             on
     inter-/intra-event
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                                                    stemflow
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     xerophytic shrubs
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19
     Abstract
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          Stemflow is important for recharging root-zone soil moisture in arid regions. Previous
     studies have generally focused on stemflow volume, efficiency and influential factors but
22
     have failed to depict stemflow processes and quantify their relations with rainfall
23
     characteristics within events, particularly for xerophytic shrubs. Here, we measured the
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25	stemflow volume, intensity, funnelling ratio, and time lags to rain at two dominant shrub
26	species (Caragana korshinskii and Salix psammophila) and rainfall characteristics during
27	54 events at the semi-arid Liudaogou catchment of the Loess Plateau, China, during the
28	2014–2015 rainy seasons. Funnelling ratio was calculated as the ratio between stemflow
29	and rainfall intensities at the inter-/intra-event scales. Our results indicated that the
30	stemflow of C. korshinskii and S. psammophila were averagely started 66.2 and 54.8 min,
31	maximized 109.4 and 120.5 min after rains began, and ended 20.0 and 13.5 min after rains
32	ceased. The two shrubs had shorter stemflow duration (3.8 and 3.4 h) and significantly
33	larger stemflow intensities (517.5 and 367.3 mm \cdot h ⁻¹) than those of rains (4.7 h and 4.5
34	$mm \cdot h^{-1}$). As branch size increased, both species shared the decreasing funnelling ratios
35	(97.7–163.7 and 44.2–212.0) and stemflow intensities (333.8–716.2 mm $\cdot h^{-1}$ and 197.2–
36	738.7 mm \cdot h ⁻¹). Tested by the multiple correspondence analysis and stepwise regression,
37	rainfall amount and duration controlled stemflow volume and duration, respectively, at
38	event scale by linear relations ($p < 0.01$). Rainfall intensity and raindrop momentum
39	controlled stemflow intensity and time lags to rains for both species within event by linear
40	or power relationships (p <0.01). Rainfall intensity was the key factor affecting stemflow
41	process of C. korshinskii, whereas raindrop momentum had the greatest influence on
42	stemflow process of S. psammophila. Therefore, rainfall characteristics had
43	temporal-dependent influences on corresponding stemflow variables, and the influence also
44	depended on specific species.

1 Introduction

Stemflow directs the intercepted rains from canopy to the trunk base. The 47 funnel-shaped canopy and underground preferential paths, i.e., roots, worm paths and soil 48 49 macropores, converge rains to recharge the root-zone moisture (Johnson and Lehmann, 2006; Li et al., 2008). Stemflow is important to concentrate water (Levia and Germer, 50 2015), nutrients (Dawoe et al., 2018), pathogens (Garbelotto et al., 2003) and bacteria 51 (Bittar et al., 2018) from the phyllosphere into the pedosphere (Teachey et al., 2018), even 52 though stemflow accounts for only a minor part of rainfall amount (RA) (6.2%) in contrast 53 to throughfall (69.8%) and interception loss (24.0%) in dryland ecosystems with annual 54 mean rainfall ranging in 154–900 mm (Magliano et al., 2019). Stemflow greatly contributes 55 to the survival of xerophytic plant species (Návar, 2011), the maintenance of patch 56 structures in arid areas (Kéfi et al., 2007), and the normal functioning of rainfed dryland 57 58 ecosystems (Wang et al., 2011).

To quantify the ecohydrological importance of stemflow, numerous studies have been 59 conducted on stemflow production and efficiency from various aspects, including stemflow 60 volume (mL), depth (mm), percentage (%), funnelling ratio (unitless), and productivity 61 (mL·g⁻¹, the branch stemflow volume of unit biomass) (Herwitz, 1986; Yuan et al., 2016; 62 Zabret et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019). By installing automatic recording devices, the 63 stemflow process has been gradually determined at 1-h intervals (Spencer and van 64 Meerveld, 2016), 5-min intervals (André et al., 2008; Levia et al., 2010) and 2-min 65 intervals (Dunkerley, 2014b). This determination allowed to compute stemflow intensity 66 (mm·h⁻¹) (Germer et al., 2010), flux (mL·min⁻¹) (Yang, 2010) and time lag after rain 67 (Cayuela et al., 2018). Differing from an event-based calculation, the stemflow process 68

69 provided insights into the fluctuation of stemflow production at a high temporal resolution.
70 It permits a better interpretation of the "hot moment" and "hot spot" effects of many
71 ecohydrological processes (Bundt et al., 2001; McClain et al., 2003). Quantifying the
72 short-intensity burst and temporal characteristics shed light on the dynamic process and
73 pulse nature of stemflow (Dunkerley, 2019).

Stemflow cannot be initiated until canopies were saturated by the rains 74 (Martinez-Meza and Whitford, 1996). The minimal RA needed to start stemflow was 75 usually calculated by regressing stemflow volume with RA at different plant species (Levia 76 77 and Germer, 2015). It also varied with canopy states, i.e., 10.9 and 2.5-3.4 mm for the leafed oak and beech tress, and 6.0 mm and 1.5-1.9 mm for them in the leafless period 78 (André et al., 2008; Staelens et al., 2008). Stemflow also frequently continued after rains 79 80 ceased due to the rainwater retained on the canopy/branch surface (Iida et al., 2017). Salix psammophila and an open tropical forest started stemflow 5-10 min and 15 min later than 81 the beginning of a rain event in the Mu Us desert of China (Yang, 2010) and the Amazon 82 83 basin of Brazil (Germer et al., 2010), respectively. However, 1 h and 1.5 h were needed to start stemflow after the beginning of a rain event for pine and oak trees in north-eastern 84 Spain, respectively (Cayuela et al., 2018). For S. psammophila, stemflow flux was 85 maximized 20-210 min after the beginning of a rain event (Yang, 2010), and stemflow 86 ceased 11 h after rains ceased in an open tropical forest (Germer et al., 2010). Time lags of 87 stemflow generation, maximization and ending to rains depicted dynamic stemflow process, 88 and were conducive to better understand the hydrological process occurred at the interface 89 between the intercepted rains and soil moisture (Sprenger et al., 2019). It was important to 90

discuss the temporal persistence in spatial patterns of soil moisture particularly at the
intra-event scale (Gao et al., 2019). However, stemflow time lags have not been
systematically studied for xerophytic shrubs.

The preferential paths at the underside of branches for delivering stemflow complicates 94 stemflow processes within events (Dunkerley, 2014a). The influences of bark microrelief 95 on stemflow are strongly affected by dynamic rain processes, such as rainfall intensity and 96 raindrop striking within events (van Stan and Levia, 2010). While exceeding the holding 97 capacity of branches, high rainfall intensity could overload and interrupt this preferential 98 99 path (Carlyle-Mose and Price, 2006). Raindrops hit the canopy surface and create splashes on the surface. This process is conducive to wetting branches at the lower layers and 100 accelerating the establishment of the preferential paths of stemflow transportation (Bassette 101 102 and Bussière, 2008). Nevertheless, the interaction between the stemflow process and intra-event rainfall characteristics has not been substantially studied. 103

This study was designed at the event and process scales to investigate inter-/intra-event 104 105 stemflow variability of two dominant xerophytic shrubs. Stemflow volume, intensity, funnelling ratio and temporal dynamics of Caragana korshinskii and S. psammophila were 106 recorded during the 2014-2015 rainy seasons on the Loess Plateau of China. Temporal 107 dynamics were expressed as stemflow duration and time lags of stemflow generation, 108 maximization and cessation to rains. Raindrop momentum was introduced to represent the 109 comprehensive effects of raindrop size, velocity, inclination angle and kinetic energy at the 110 stemflow process. Funnelling ratio had been calculated at the event base and the 100-s 111 intervals to assess the convergence effects of stemflow. This study specifically aimed to (1) 112

depict the stemflow process in terms of stemflow intensity and temporal dynamics, (2) identify the dominant rainfall characteristics influencing inter-/intra-event stemflow variables, and (3) quantify the relationships between stemflow process variables and rainfall characteristics. Achieving these objectives would advance our knowledge of the process-based stemflow production to better understand the pulse nature of stemflow and its interactions with dynamic rain processes.

119 2 Materials and Methods

120 **2.1 Site description**

This study was conducted in the Liudaogou catchment (110°21'-110°23'E, 38°46'-121 38°51'N) in Shenmu city, Shaanxi Province, China, during the 2014–2015 rainy seasons. 122 This catchment is 6.9 km² and 1094-1273 m above sea level (m.a.s.l.). A semiarid 123 124 continental climate prevails in this area. The mean annual precipitation (MAP) is 414 mm (1971–2013). Most MAP (77%) occurs from July to September (Jia et al., 2013). The mean 125 annual potential evaporation is 1337 mm (Yang et al., 2019). The mean annual temperature 126 is 9.0 °C. The dominant shrubs include C. korshinskii, S. psammophila, and Amorpha 127 fruticosa. The dominant grasses are Artemisia capillaris, Artemisia sacrorum, Medicago 128 sativa, Stipa bungeana, etc. 129

C. korshinskii and *S. psammophila* are dominant shrub species at the arid and semi-arid regions of northwestern China (Hu et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016). They were commonly planted for soil and water conservation, sand fixation and wind barrier, and had extensive distributions at this region (Li et al., 2016). The both species have inverted-cone crowns and no trunks, with multiple branches running obliquely from the base. As modular organisms and multi-stemmed shrub species, their branches live as independent individuals
and compete with each other for water and light (Firn, 2004). Two plots were established in
the southwestern catchment for these two xerophytic shrubs planted in the 1990s (Fig. 1). *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* plots share similar stand conditions with elevations of 1179
and 1207 m.a.s.l., slopes of 13° and 18°, and sizes of 3294 and 4056 m², respectively. The *korshinskii* plot has a ground surface of loess and aspect of 224°, while the *S. psammophila* plot has a ground surface of sand and an aspect of 113°.

142 **2.2 Meteorological measurements and calculations**

A meteorological station was installed at the experimental plot of S. psammophila to 143 record rainfall characteristics and wind speed (WS, m·s⁻¹) (Model 03002, R. M. Young 144 Company, USA), air temperature (T, °C) and relative humidity (H, %) (Model HMP 155, 145 146 Vaisala, Finland). They were logged at 10-min intervals by a datalogger (Model CR1000, Campbell Scientific Inc., USA). Evaporation coefficient (E, unitless) was calculated to 147 present the evaporation intensity (Equations 1-3) via aerodynamic approaches 148 149 (Carlyle-Mose and Schooling, 2015). Tipping-bucket rain gauges (hereinafter referred to as "TBRG") automatically recorded the volume and timing of rainfall and stemflow (Herwitz, 150 151 1986; Germer et al., 2010; Spencer and Meerveld, 2016; Cayuela et al., 2018). To mitigate the systematic errors for missing the records of inflow during tipping intervals (Groisman 152 and Legates, 1994), we chose the Onset® (Onset Computer Corp., USA) RG3-M TBRG 153 with the relatively smaller underestimation for its smaller bucket volume (3.73±0.01 mL) 154 (Iida et al., 2012). Besides, three 20-cm-diameter standard rain gauges were placed around 155 TBRG with a 0.5-m distance at the 120° separation (Fig. 1). The regression (R^2 =0.98, 156

157 p < 0.01) between manual measurements and automatic recording further mitigated the 158 understanding of inflow water by applying TBRG (Equation 4).

159
$$e_s = 0.611 \times \exp\left(\frac{17.27 \times T}{(237.7 + T)}\right)$$
 (1)

160
$$VPD = e_s \times (1 - H)$$
(2)

161
$$E = WS \times VPD$$
 (3)

where e_s is the saturation vapor pressure (kPa); T is air temperature (°C); H is air relative humidity (%); VPD is the vapor pressure deficit (kPa); and E is the evaporation coefficient (unitless).

165
$$IW_{\rm A} = IW_{\rm R} \times 1.32 + 0.16$$
 (4)

where IW_R is the recording of inflow water (including rainfall and stemflow) via TBRG (mm), and IW_A is the adjusted inflow water (mm).

Discrete rainfall events were defined by a measurable RA of 0.2 mm (the resolution 168 limit of the TBRG) and the smallest 4-h gap without rains. That was the same period of 169 time to dry canopies from antecedent rains as reported by Giacomin and Trucchi (1992), 170 171 Zhang et al. (2015), Zhang et al., (2017) and Yang et al. (2019). Rainfall interval (RI, h) was calculated to indirectly represent the bark wetness. Other rainfall characteristics were 172 also computed, including the RA (mm), rainfall duration (RD, h), the average and 10-min 173 maximum rainfall intensity of incident rains (I and I_{10} , mm \cdot h⁻¹), and the 10-min average 174 rainfall intensity after rain begins (I_{b10} , mm $\cdot h^{-1}$) and before rain ends (I_{e10} , mm $\cdot h^{-1}$). By 175 assuming a perfect sphere of a raindrop (Uijlenhoet and Torres, 2006), raindrop momentum 176 in the vertical direction (F, $mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1}$) (Equation 8–9) was computed to comprehensively 177 represent the effects of raindrop size (D, mm) (Equation 5), terminal velocity (v, $m \cdot s^{-1}$) 178

(Equation 6), average inclination angle (θ , °) (Equation 7) affecting stemflow process (Brandt, 1990; Kimble, 1996; van Stan et al., 2011; Carlyle-Moses and Schooling, 2015). The 10-min maximum raindrop momentum (F₁₀, mg·m·s⁻¹) and the average raindrop momentum at the first and last 10 min (F_{b10} and F_{e10}, respectively, mg·m·s⁻¹) could be calculated with I₁₀, I_{b10} and I_{e10} as indicated at Equation 5–9, respectively. For the 0.8-km distance between the two plots, the meteorological data were used at the *C. korshinskii* plot.

185 $D = 2.23 \times (0.03937 \times I)^{0.102}$ (5)

186
$$v = 3.378 \times \ln(D) + 4.213$$
 (6)

$$\tan \theta = \frac{WS}{V}$$
(7)

188
$$F_0 = m \times v = (\frac{1}{6} \times \rho \times \pi \times D^3) \times v$$
 (8)

189 $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}_0 \times \cos \theta$

(9)

where D is raindrop diameter (mm); I is the average rainfall intensity of incident rains (mm·h⁻¹); v is raindrop velocity (m·s⁻¹); θ is average inclination angle of raindrops (°); WS is the average wind speed of incident rains (m·s⁻¹); F₀ is the average raindrop momentum (mg·m·s⁻¹); m is the average raindrop mass (g); ρ is the density of freshwater at standard atmospheric pressure and 20°C (0.998 g·cm⁻³).

195 **2.3 Experimental branch selection and measurements**

This study focused on the branch-scale stemflow production of the 20-year-old *C*. *korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*. Based on plot investigation, the canopy traits of standard shrubs were determined. Four shrubs were selected accordingly at each species with similar crown areas and heights $(5.1\pm0.3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ and } 2.1\pm0.2 \text{ m} \text{ for } C. korshinskii \text{ and } 21.4\pm5.2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ and}$ $3.5\pm0.2 \text{ m}$ for *S. psammophila*, respectively). The approximately 10-m gap between them

201	guaranteed shrubs exposing to the similar meteorological conditions (Yuan et al., 2016). We
202	measured branch morphologies of all 180 and 261 branches at experimental shrubs of C .
203	korshinskii and S. psammophila, respectively, including BD (Basal diameter, mm) with a
204	Vernier calliper (Model 7D-01150, Forgestar Inc., Germany), branch length (BL, cm) with
205	a measuring tape, and branch angle (BA, °) with pocket geologic compass (Model DQL-8,
206	Harbin Optical Instrument Factory, China), respectively. Thus, BD categories were
207	determined at 5–10 mm, 10–15 mm, 15–18 mm, 18–25 mm and >25 mm to guarantee the
208	appropriate branch amounts within categories for meeting the statistical significance. Two
209	representative branches with median BDs were selected in each category for stemflow
210	recording. The experimental branches had no intercrossing with neighbouring ones and no
211	turning point in height from branch tip to base. The outlayer-of-canopy positions avoided
212	over-shading by the upper layer branches and permitted convenient measurements. Since
213	the qualified branch with the >25-mm size was not enough for C. korshinskii and the
214	TBRG malfunctioned at the 15-18-mm branches of S. psammophila, stemflow data were
215	not available in these BD categories. In total, 7 branches were selected for stemflow
216	measurements at each species (Table 1). As the important interface to intercept rains at the
217	growing season, the well-verified allometric growth equations were performed to estimate
218	the branch leaf area (LA, cm ²) of <i>C korshinskii</i> (LA= $39.37 \times BD^{1.63} R^2=0.98$) (Yuan et al.,
219	2017) and <i>S. psammophila</i> (LA=18.86×BD ^{1.74} <i>R</i> ² =0.90) (Yuan et al., 2016), respectively.

220 2.4 Stemflow measurements and calculations

A total of 14 TBRGs had been applied to automatically record the branch stemflow production of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*. The data of stemflow volume and timing

were automatically recorded at dynamic intervals between neighboring tips. We installed 223 aluminium foil collars to trap stemflow at branches nearly 40 cm off the ground, higher 224 225 than TBRG orifice with height of 25.7 cm (Fig. 1). They were fitted around the entire branch circumference and sealed by neutral silicone caulking. The limited orifice diameter 226 of foil collars minimized the accessing of throughfall and rains into them (Yuan et al., 227 2017). The 0.5-cm-diameter polyvinyl chloride hoses hung vertically and channelled 228 stemflow from the collars to TBRGs with a minimum travel time. TBRGs were covered 229 with the polyethylene films to prevent the accessing of throughfall and splash (Fig. 1). 230 231 These apparatuses were periodically checked against leakages or blockages by insects and fallen leaves. Stemflow variables were computed as follow. 232

(1) Stemflow volume (SFV, mL): the average stemflow volume of individual branches.
 Adjusted with Equation 4 firstly, SFV was computed with the TBRG recordings
 (SF_{RG}, mm) by multiplying its orifice area (186.3 cm²) (Equation 10).

236

$$SFV = SF_{RG} \times 18.63 \tag{10}$$

(2) Stemflow intensity: the branch stemflow volume per branch basal area per unit 237 time. SFI (mm·h⁻¹) is the average stemflow intensity of incident rains, which is 238 computed by the event-based SFV (mL), branch basal area (BBA, mm²) and RD 239 (h) (Equation 11) (Herwitz, 1986; Spencer and Meerveld, 2016). SFI_{10} (mm \cdot h⁻¹) is 240 the 10-min maximum stemflow intensity, which is calculated with the 10-min 241 maximum stemflow volume (SFV₁₀, mL) and BBA (mm²) (Equation 12). SFI_i 242 $(mm \cdot h^{-1})$ is the instantaneous stemflow intensity, which is calculated by the tip 243 volume of TBRG (3.73 mL), BBA (mm²) and time intervals between neighbouring 244

245	tips (t _i , h) (Equation 13). The comparison between SFI_i and the corresponding
246	rainfall intensity depicted the synchronicity of stemflow with rains within event.
247	$SFI = 1000 \times \frac{SFV}{(BBA \times RD)} $ (11)
248	$SFI_{10} = 6000 \times \frac{SFV_{10}}{BBA} $ (12)
249	$SFI_{i} = \frac{3730}{(BBA \times t_{i})} $ (13)
250	(3) Stemflow temporal dynamics: stemflow duration and time lags to rains.
251	SFD (h): stemflow duration. It is computed by different timings between the first-
252	and last-tips of stemflow via TBRG.
253	TLG (min): time lag of stemflow generation after rain begins. It is computed by
254	different first-tip timings between rainfall and stemflow via TBRG.
255	TLM (min): time lag of stemflow maximization after rain begins. It is computed
256	by different timings between the largest-SFI _i and first-rainfall tips via TBRG.
257	TLE (min): time lag of stemflow ending after rain ceases. It is computed by
258	different last-tip timings between rainfall and stemflow via TBRG.
259	(4) Funnelling ratio: the efficiency for capturing and delivering raindrops from the
260	canopies to trunk/branch base (Siegert and Levia, 2014; Cayuela et al., 2018). By
261	introducing RD at both numerator and denominator of the original equation
262	(Herwitz, 1986), FR (unitless) was transformed as the ratio between stemflow and
263	rainfall intensities at the event base (Equation 14). FR_{100} described the
264	within-event funnelling ratio at the 100-s interval after rain began (Equation 15).
	<u>SFV</u>

265
$$FR = 1000 \times \frac{SFV}{BBA \times RA} = 1000 \times \frac{\frac{BI}{BBA}}{RA} = \frac{SFI}{I}$$
(14)

$$FR_{100_{i}} = \frac{SFI_{100_{i}}}{I_{100_{i}}}$$
(15)

266

267

where
$$FR_{100i}$$
, SFI_{100i} and I_{100i} are funnelling ratio, stemflow intensity and rainfall

268

intensity at the internal *i* with 100-s pace after rain begins, respectively.

2.5 Data analysis 269

Stemflow variables were averaged at different BD categories to analyse the most 270 influential rainfall characteristics affecting them. Pearson correlation analyses were firstly 271 performed to test the relationships between rainfall characteristics (RA, RD, RI, I, I₁₀, I_{b10}, 272 Ie10, F, F10, Fb10, Fe10 and E) and stemflow variables (SFV, SFI, SFI10, FR, TLG, TLM, TLE 273 and SFD). The significantly related factors were grouped in terms of median value, and 274 compiled into indicator matrices. They were standardized for a cross-tabulation check as 275 276 required by the multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) (Levia et al., 2010; van Stan et al., 2011, 2016). All qualified data were restructured into orthogonal dimensions (Hair et al., 277 1995), where distances between row and column points were maximized (Hill and Lewicki, 278 2007). As shown at correspondence maps, the clustering rainfall characteristics tightly 279 related to the centred stemflow variable. Finally, stepwise regressions were operated to 280 identify the most influential rainfall characteristics (Carlyle-Moses and Schooling, 2015). 281 The quantitative relations were established in terms of the qualified level of significance (p 282 <0.05) and the highest coefficient of determination (R^2). One-way analysis of variance 283 (ANOVA) with LSD post hoc test was used to determine whether rainfall characteristics, 284 and stemflow variables significantly differed among event categories, and whether 285 286 funnelling ratio and stemflow intensity significantly differed among BD categories for C. korshinskii and S. psammophila. The level of significance was set at 95% confidence 287

interval (*p*=0.05). SPSS 21.0 (IBM Corporation, USA), Origin 8.5 (OriginLab Corporation,

USA) and Excel 2019 (Microsoft Corporation, USA) were used for data analysis.

3 Results

291 **3.1 Rainfall characteristics**

A total of 54 rainfall events had been recorded for stemflow measurements at the 292 2014–2015 rainy seasons (Fig. 2). Thereinto, 20, 8, 10, 8, 4 and 4 events were at the RA 293 categories of ≤ 2 mm, 2–5 mm, 5–10 mm, 10–15 mm, 15–20 mm and ≥ 20 mm, respectively. 294 The total RAs at these categories were 22.1 mm, 26.1 mm, 68.8 mm, 93.3 mm, 74.8 mm 295 and 110.0 mm, respectively. During these events, the average I, I₁₀, I_{b10} and I_{e10} were 296 $4.5\pm1.0 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, $10.9\pm2.1 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, $5.5\pm1.4 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ and $2.8\pm0.7 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, respectively. The 297 average F, F_{10} , F_{b10} and F_{e10} were 16.1±1.2 mg·m·s⁻¹, 24.9±1.4 mg·m·s⁻¹, 18.4±1.4 298 mg·m·s⁻¹ and 16.0±1.0 mg·m·s⁻¹, respectively. RD, RI and E averaged 4.7±0.8 h, 50.6±6.1 299 h, and 0.9±0.2, respectively (Table 2). 300

Rainfall events were further categorized in terms of rainfall-intensity peak amount, 301 including Events A (the single-peak events), B (the double-peak events) and C (the 302 multiple-peak events). There were 17, 11 and 15 events at Event A, B and C, respectively. 303 Because the remaining 11 events had the average RA of 0.6 mm, no more than three 304 recordings had been observed within event which was limited by 0.2-mm resolution of 305 TBRGs. Therefore, they could not be categorized and grouped as Event others (Table 2). 306 Compared with Events A and B, Event C possessed significantly different rainfall 307 characteristics, e.g., the significantly larger RA (11.7 vs. 4.1 and 5.2 mm) and RD (10.3 vs. 308 2.5 and 3.6 h) but the significantly smaller I_{10} (9.5 vs. 15.5 and 12.7 mm·h⁻¹), I_{b10} (2.8 vs. 309

310 7.7 and 9.9 mm·h⁻¹), F_{b10} (15.4 vs. 19.7 and 21.7 mg·m·s⁻¹) and F_{e10} (13.4 vs. 17.3 and 311 16.6 mg·m·s⁻¹), the non-significantly smaller I_{e10} (2.1 vs. 4.3 and 3.6 mm·h⁻¹), F_{10} (24.2 vs. 312 27.8 and 26.6 mg·m·s⁻¹) and E (0.4 vs. 0.9 and 1.0), respectively (Table 2).

In general, rainfall events were skewedly distributed in terms of RA. The occurrences of events with a RA \leq 2 mm dominated the experimental period (40.7%), but the events with RA>20 mm were the greatest contributor to the total RA (28.0%). However, a relatively equal distribution was noted during events with single (17 events), double (11 events) and multiple (15 events) rainfall-intensity peaks. Comparatively, the multiple-peak events had significantly larger rainfall amounts, durations, intensities and raindrop momentums.

319 **3.2 Inter-/intra-event stemflow variability**

Stemflow variables of C. korshinskii and S. psammophila showed great inter-event 320 variations during the experimental period (Fig. 3). C. korshinskii had larger SFV, SFI, SFI10, 321 FR, SFD, TLG and TLE (226.6±46.4 mL, 517.5±82.1 mm·h⁻¹, 2057.6±399.7 mm·h⁻¹, 322 130.7±8.2, 3.8±0.8 h, 66.2±10.6 min and 20.0±5.3 min, respectively) but smaller TLM 323 (109.4±20.5 min) than those of S. psammophila (172.1±34.5 mL, 367.3±91.1 mm·h⁻¹, 324 1132.2±214.3 mm·h⁻¹, 101.6±10.4, 3.4±0.9 h, 54.8±11.7 min, 13.5±17.2 min, and 325 120.5±22.1 min, respectively) (Table 3). During the 54 events, no negative values were 326 observed for TLG and TLM but TLE. It indicated that stemflow generally initiated and 327 maximized after rains started for both species. However, stemflow might be ended before 328 (negative TLE) and after (positive TLE) rains ceased. 329

330 Stemflow well synchronized to rains with similar intensity peak shapes, amounts and 331 positions for both species. These results were vividly demonstrated at representative rains with different intensity peak amounts and RAs, including events on July 17, 2015 (Event A,
20.7 mm), July 29, 2015 (Event B, 7.3 mm), and September 10, 2015 (Event C, 13.3 mm)
(Fig. 4). *C. korshinskii* had larger FR₁₀₀ (91.7, 76.1 and 94.0, respectively) than those of *S. psammophila* (32.8, 26.3 and 43.7, respectively) during representative events. It indicated a
comparatively greater ability of converging rains for *C. korshinskii* within event.

Stemflow variables varied between rainfall event categories. For Event C in 337 comparison to Events A and B, S. psammophila had significantly larger SFV (435.2 vs. 338 102.6 and 145.7 mL), SFD (8.3 vs. 1.2 and 3.4 h), TLM (235.8 vs. 64.3 and 93.4 min), FR 339 (129.1 vs. 77.1 and 91.4), non-significantly larger TLE (20.8 vs. 17.1 and 8.6 min) but 340 significantly smaller SFI (246.6 vs. 648.1 and 421.5 mm \cdot h⁻¹) and SFI₁₀ (888.4 vs. 1672.7 341 and 1582.8 mm·h⁻¹), respectively (Table 3). SFI decreased at events with increasing 342 343 intensity peak amounts as shown at Events A-C. The drop of SFI was offset by the decreasing I to some extent (Table 2), which might partly explain the increasing trend of 344 FR from Event A to C. C. korshinskii shared similar changing trends of stemflow variables 345 between event categories with those of S. psammophila, except for the non-significantly 346 smaller TLE (18.5 min) at Event C in contrast to TLE at Event A and B (22.3 and 18.7 min). 347 Funnelling ratio and stemflow intensity negatively related with branch size. C. 348 korshinskii and S. psammophila had significantly greater FR, SFI, and SFI10 at the 5-10 349 mm branches than those at the larger branches (Table 4). For C. korshinskii, FR decreased 350 from 163.7±12.2 at the 5-10-mm branches to 97.7±9.2 at the 18-25-mm branches, 351 respectively. It was consistent with decreasing SFI (333.8-716.2 mm·h⁻¹) at the 352 corresponding BD categories (Table 4). As branch size increased, S. psammophila shared 353

similar decreasing trends of FR (44.2–212.0) and SFI (197.2–738.7 mm \cdot h⁻¹), respectively.

355 **3.3 Relationships between stemflow variables and rainfall characteristics**

C. korshinskii and S. psammophila had similar correspondence patterns between 356 rainfall characteristics and stemflow variables. As shown in Fig. 5, the one-to-one 357 correspondences were observed for SFV and TLE. The larger (or smaller) SFV and TLE 358 corresponded to the larger (or smaller) RA and RI, respectively. This result demonstrated 359 the dominant influences of RA and RI on SFV and TLE, respectively. The one-to-two 360 correspondences was noted for SFD with RD and E. The larger (or smaller) SFD 361 362 corresponded to the larger (or smaller) RD and smaller (or larger) E. RA had been identified as the dominant rainfall characteristic affecting FR based on the analysis for 53 363 branches of C. korshinskii and 98 branches of S. psammophila at the same plots during the 364 same experimental period (Yuan et al., 2017). It seemed that event-based stemflow 365 production (the volume, duration and efficiency) were strongly influenced by rainfall 366 characteristics at inter-event scale (the rainfall amount and duration). 367

The one-to-more correspondences were observed for TLM, TLG, SFI and SFI₁₀ (Fig. 368 5). The larger (or smaller) TLM corresponded to the smaller (or larger) rainfall 369 characteristics of I, I10, Ib10, Ie10, F, F10, Fb10 and Fe10. The same correspondences were 370 applied to the larger (or smaller) TLG, and the smaller (or larger) SFI and SFI10. It seemed 371 372 that the within-event stemflow processes (SFI, SFI10, TLG and TLM) were strongly affected by rainfall characteristics at intra-event scale (the rainfall intensity and raindrop 373 momentum). Therefore, these results indicated that rainfall characteristics influenced 374 stemflow variables at the corresponding temporal scales. This influence occurred at the 375

inter-event scale between SFV and RA, FR and RA, SFD and RD, and at the intra-event
scale for stemflow time lags (TLG and TLM) and intensities (SFI and SFI₁₀) with rainfall
intensity (I, I₁₀, I_{b10} and I_{e10}) and raindrop momentum (F, F₁₀, F_{b10} and F_{e10}). The only
exception was noted between TLE and RI for the mismatched temporal sales.

Stepwise regression analysis identified the most influential rainfall characteristics 380 affecting stemflow intensities and temporal dynamics. RD was the dominant rainfall 381 characteristics affecting SFD. I₁₀ significantly affected the TLM of the both species. For C. 382 korshinskii, I, I₁₀ and F were the most influential factors on SFI, SFI₁₀ and TLG, 383 respectively. However, for S. psammophila, F, F₁₀ and F_{b10} significantly affected SFI, SFI₁₀ 384 and TLG, respectively. The results of multiple regression analysises indicated that there 385 were linear relationships between SFI and I ($R^2=0.74$, p<0.01) and SFI₁₀ and I₁₀ ($R^2=0.85$, 386 p < 0.01) for C. korshinskii and between SFD and RD for C. korshinskii ($R^2=0.95$, p < 0.01) 387 and S. psammophila ($R^2=0.92$, p<0.01) (Fig. 6). Moreover, power functional relations were 388 found between SFI and F (R²=0.82, p<0.01), SFI₁₀ and F₁₀ (R²=0.90, p<0.01) (Fig. 6), TLG 389 and F_{b10} ($R^2=0.55$, p<0.01) and TLM and I_{10} ($R^2=0.40$, p<0.01) (Fig. 7) for S. psammophila, 390 and TLG and F ($R^2=0.56$, p < 0.01) and TLM and I₁₀ ($R^2=0.38$, p < 0.01) (Fig. 7) for C. 391 korshinskii. However, there was no significant quantitative relationship between TLE and 392 RI for C. korshinskii (R^2 =0.005, p=0.28) or S. psammophila (R^2 =0.002, p=0.78) (Fig. 7). 393

394 **4 Discussion**

395 4.1 Stemflow intensity and funnelling ratio

396 Stemflow intensity is generally greater than rainfall intensity at different plant life 397 forms. The xerophytic shrubs of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* had larger average

stemflow intensities than the average rainfall intensity (517.5 and 367.3 mm \cdot h⁻¹ vs. 4.5 398 mm·h⁻¹). Broadleaf and coniferous species (*Quercus pubescens* Willd. and *Pinus sylvestris* 399 L., respectively) also have larger maximum stemflow intensities than the maximum rainfall 400 intensity in north-eastern Spain (Cayuela et al., 2018). The gap between stemflow and 401 rainfall intensities generally increased as the recording time intervals decreased. While 402 recording at the 1-h intervals, approximately 20-, 17-, 13- and 2.5-fold greater peak 403 stemflow intensities had been observed for trees of Cedar, Birch, Douglas Fir and Hemlock, 404 respectively, at the coastal British Columbia forest (Spencer and Meerveld, 2016). For C. 405 *korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*, in comparison to I_{10} (10.9 mm \cdot h⁻¹) at 10-min intervals, the 406 SFI₁₀ (2057.6 and 1132.2 mm \cdot h⁻¹, respectively) was over 103.9-fold greater. The 407 recordings at 6-min interval indicated a 157-fold larger of stemflow intensity (18840 mm·h⁻ 408 ¹) than rainfall intensity (120 mm \cdot h⁻¹) in the cyclone-prone tropical rainforest with 409 extremely high MAP of 6570 mm (Herwitz, 1986). While calculating the dynamic time 410 interval between neighbouring tips of TBRG, SFIi (10816.2 mm·h⁻¹) was 150.2-fold 411 greater than the corresponding rainfall intensity (72 mm \cdot h⁻¹). Therefore, stemflow recorded 412 at a higher temporal resolution might provide more information into the dynamic nature of 413 stemflow and real-time responses to rainfall characteristics within events. 414

Greater stemflow intensity than rainfall intensity is hydrologically significant at terrestrial ecosystems. This scenario indicates the convergence of the canopy-intercepted rains into the limited area around trunk or branch bases within a certain time period, i.e., 8.0% and 3.5% of rains being directed to the trunk base only accounting for 0.3% and 0.4% of plot area in the open rainforest (Germer et al., 2010) and undisturbed lowland tropical

rainforest (Manfroi et al., 2004), respectively. Besides, FR, which compared SFV with RA 420 that would have been collected at the same area as the basal area at an event scale (Herwitz, 421 422 1986), is commonly applied to assess the convergence effect via stemflow volume, rainfall amount and basal area (Carlyle-Moses et al., 2010; Siegert and Levia, 2014; Fan et al., 423 2015; Yang et al., 2019). If FR is greater than 1, more water is collected at the trunk or 424 branch base than at the clearings. Both methods successfully quantified the convergence 425 effects of stemflow. However, the former provided a possibility to assess it at high temporal 426 resolutions within event. 427

428 This study established the quantitative connection between FR and stemflow intensity. As per Equation 14 and the average stemflow and rainfall intensities listed at Table 2 and 3, 429 FR could be estimated to be 115.0 and 81.6 for C. korshinskii and S. psammophila, 430 431 respectively. Those results approximately agreed with FR of 173.3 and 69.3 (Yuan et al., 2017) and 124.9 and 78.2 (Yang et al., 2019) for the two species by applying the traditional 432 calculation based on SFV and RA (Herwitz, 1986). As branch size increased, FR of C. 433 434 korshinskii decreased from 163.7 at the 5-10-mm branches to 97.7 at the 18-25-branches. The decreasing trend of FR of S. psammophila were also noted in the range of 44.2-212.0 435 with increasing BD. The negative relation between BD and FR agreed with the reports for 436 trees and babassu palms in an open tropical rainforest in Brazil (Germer et al., 2010), the 437 438 mixed-species coastal forest at British Columbia of Canada (Spencer and Meerveld, 2016), for trees (Pinus tabuliformis and Armeniaca vulgaris) and shrubs (C. korshinskii and S. 439 psammophila) on the Loess Plateau of China (Yang et al., 2019). It might be partly 440 explained by the decreasing stemflow intensities with increasing branch size as per 441

Equation 14. Our results found that SFI decreased from 716.2 to 333.8 for C. korshinskii, 442 and 738.7 to 197.2 for S. psammophila as branch size increased (Table 4). It well justified 443 the importance of branch size on stemflow intensity. Associated with the infiltration rate, 444 the stemflow-induced hydrological process might be strongly affected, i.e., soil moisture 445 recharge, Hortonian overland flow (Herwitz, 1986), saturation overland flow (Germer et al., 446 2010), soil erosion (Liang et al., 2011), nutrient leaching (Corti et al., 2019), etc. Therefore, 447 more attention should be paid to tree/branch size and size-related stand age at future studies 448 while modeling the stemflow-induced terrestrial hydrological fluxes. 449

450 The importance had been addressed to study the funnelling ratio at the stand scale (Carlyle-Moses et al., 2018); however, it had not been adequately studied at the intra-event 451 scale. This study calculated the average funnelling ratio at the event base and the 100-s 452 453 intervals after rain began. Thus, the convergence effect of stemflow could be better understood at the inter-/intra-event scales. Our results found that FR100 were over 1.8-fold 454 greater than FR of C. korshinskii (282.7 vs. 130.7) and S. psammophila (203.4 vs. 101.6), 455 respectively. It indicated that funnelling ratio fluctuated dramatically within event. 456 Therefore, computing FR at event and ignoring it at high temporal resolutions within event 457 might underestimate the eco-hydrological significance of stemflow. 458

In general, stemflow intensity highly related to funnelling ratio. For addressing its eco-hydrological importance, stemflow intensity should be precisely defined. It had been expressed as the stemflow volume per basal area of branches/trunks per unit time with the unit of $mm \cdot h^{-1}$ (Herwitz, 1986; Spencer and Meerveld, 2016) and $mm \cdot 5 \min^{-1}$ (Cayuela et al., 2018). However, stemflow intensity had also been described as stemflow volume per 464 unit time with the unit of L·week⁻¹ (Schimmack et al., 1993) and L·h⁻¹ (Liang et al., 2011; 465 Germer et al., 2013). We highly recommended the former definition. Because of its highly 466 spatial-related attribution (Herwitz, 1986; Liang et al., 2011; 2014), the eco-hydrological 467 significance of stemflow would be underestimated by ignoring the basal area, over which 468 stemflow was received. Moreover, as per this definition, stemflow intensity quantitively 469 connected with funnelling ratio via Equation 14. Thus, funnelling ratio could be used to 470 assess the convergence effect of stemflow at both inter- and intra-event scales.

471 **4.2 Stemflow temporal dynamics**

Stemflow well synchronized to the rains. It agreed with the report of Levia et al. 472 (2010), who demonstrated a marked synchronicity between SFV and RA in 5-min intervals 473 for Fagus. grandifolia. The duration and time lags to rains were critical to describe 474 475 stemflow temporal dynamics. Our results indicated that in comparison to S. psammophila, C. korshinskii takes a longer time to initiate (66.2 vs. 54.8 min), end (20.0 vs. 13.5 min) 476 and produce stemflow (3.8 vs. 3.4 h) but a shorter time to maximize stemflow (109.4 vs. 477 120.5 min, respectively). Moreover, the TLMs of both species were in the range of the 478 TLMs for S. psammophila (20–210 min) in the Mu Us desert of China (Yang, 2010). 479

Varying TLGs were documented for different species. Approximately 15 min, 1 h and 1.5 h were needed to initiate the stemflow of palms (Germer, 2010), pine trees and oak trees (Cayuela et al., 2018), respectively. In addition, an almost instantaneous start of stemflow had also been observed as rain began for *Quercus rubra* (Durocher, 1990), *Fagus grandifolia* and *Liriodendron tulipifera* (Levia et al., 2010). Compared to the positive TLE dominating xerophytic shrubs, the TLE greatly varied with tree species. TLE was as much

as 48 h for Douglas fir, oak and redwood in California, USA (Reid and Levia, 2009), and 486 almost 11 h for palm trees in Brazil (Germer, 2010). However, for sweet chestnut and oak, 487 488 almost no stemflow continued when rains ceased in Bristol, England (Durocher, 1990). These scenarios might occur due to the sponge effect of the canopy surface (Germer, 2010), 489 which buffered stemflow generation, maximization and cessation before saturation. These 490 conclusions were consistent with the smaller stemflow intensities of C. korshinskii and S. 491 psammophila than the rainfall intensity when rain began, as part of the rains was used to 492 wet canopies (Fig. 4). The hydrophobic bark traits benefited stemflow initiation with the 493 limited time lags to rains. In contrast, the hydrophilic bark traits were conducive for 494 continuing stemflow after rain ceased, which kept the preferential flow paths wetter for 495 longer time periods (Levia and Germer, 2015). As a result, it took time to transfer 496 497 intercepted rains from the leaf, branch and trunk to the base. This process strongly affects the stemflow volume, intensity and loss as evaporation. 498

The dynamics of intra-event rainfall intensity complicated the stemflow time lags to 499 500 rains. A 1-h lag to begin and stop stemflow with the beginning and ending of rains had been observed for ashe juniper trees during high-intensity events, but no stemflow was generated 501 at low-intensity storms (Owens et al., 2006). Rainfall intensity was an important dynamic 502 rainfall characteristic affecting stemflow volume. Owens et al. (2006) found the most 503 significant difference between various rainfall intensities located in the stemflow patterns 504 other than throughfall and interception loss. During events with a front-positioned, single 505 rainfall-intensity peak, S. psammophila maximized stemflow in a shorter time than C. 506 korshinskii did in the Mu Us desert (30 and 50 min) (Yang, 2010). These results highlighted 507

the amounts and occurrence time of rainfall-intensity peak affecting the stemflow process,
which was consistent with the finding of Dunkerley (2014b).

510 Raindrops presented rainfall characteristics at finer temporal-spatial scales. They were usually ignored because rains were generally regarded as a continuum rather than a discrete 511 512 process consisting of individual raindrops of various sizes, velocities, inclination angles and kinetic energies. Raindrops hit the canopy surface and created splashes at different 513 canopy layers (Bassette and Bussière, 2008; Li et al., 2016). This process accelerated 514 canopy wetting and increased water supply for stemflow production. Therefore, raindrop 515 516 momentum was introduced in this study to represent the comprehensive effects of raindrop attributes. Our results indicated that raindrop momentum was sensitive to predicting the 517 variations in stemflow intensity and temporal dynamics with significant linear or power 518 519 functional relations (Figs. 6 and 7). Compared with the importance of rainfall intensity for C. korshinskii, raindrop momentum more significantly affected the stemflow process of S. 520 psammophila. This result might be related to the larger canopy size and height of S. 521 psammophila (21.4 \pm 5.2 m² and 3.5 \pm 0.2 m) than that of C. korshinskii (5.1 \pm 0.3 m² and 522 2.1±0.2 m, respectively). More layers were available within canopies of S. psammophila to 523 intercept the splashes created by raindrop striking (Bassette and Bussière, 2008; Li et al., 524 2016), thus shortening the paths and having more water supply for stemflow production. 525

526 **4.3 Temporal-dependent influences of rainfall characteristics on stemflow variability**

527 This study discussed stemflow variables and rainfall characteristics at inter-/intra-event 528 scales. We found that rainfall characteristics affected stemflow variables at the 529 corresponding temporal scales. RA and RD controlled SFV, FR and SFD, respectively, at

the inter-event scale. However, stemflow intensity (e.g., SFI and SFI₁₀) and temporal 530 dynamics (e.g., TLG and TLM) were strongly influenced by rainfall intensity (e.g., I, I₁₀ 531 532 and I_{b10}) and raindrop momentum (e.g., F, F_{10} and F_{b10}) at the intra-event scales. These results were verified by the well-fitting linear or power functional equations among them 533 (Figs. 6 and 7). Furthermore, the influences of rainfall intensity and raindrop momentum on 534 stemflow process were species-specific. In contrast to the significance of rainfall intensity 535 on the stemflow process of C. korshinskii, raindrop momentum imposed a greater influence 536 on the stemflow process of S. psammophila. 537

In general, rainfall characteristics had temporal-dependent influences on the 538 corresponding stemflow variables. The only exception was found between TLE and RI. RI 539 tightly corresponded to TLE for both species tested by the MCA, but there was no 540 significant quantitative relationship between them ($R^2=0.005$, p=0.28 for C. korshinskii, 541 and $R^2=0.002$, p=0.78 for S. psammophila). This result might be related to the mismatched 542 temporal scales between TLE and RI. TLE represented stemflow temporal dynamics at the 543 intra-event scale, while RI was the interval times between neighbouring rains at the 544 inter-event scale. The mismatched temporal scales might also partly explain the 545 long-standing debates on the controversial positive, negative and even no significant 546 influences of rainfall intensity (depicting raining process at 5 min, 10 min, 60 min, etc.) on 547 event-based stemflow volume (Owens et al., 2006; André et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2015). 548

549 **5 Conclusions**

550 Stemflow intensity and temporal dynamics are important in depicting the stemflow 551 process and its interactions with rainfall characteristics within events. We categorized

stemflow variables into the volume, intensity, funnelling ratio and temporal dynamics, thus 552 to representing the stemflow yield, efficiency and process. Funnelling ratio had been 553 554 calculated as the ratio between stemflow and rainfall intensities, which enabled to assess the convergence of stemflow at the inter-/intra-event scales. Over 1.8-fold greater FR₁₀₀ 555 were noted than FR at representative events for C. korshinskii and S. psammophila, 556 respectively. FR decreased with increasing branch size of both species. It could be partly 557 explained by the decreasing trends of SFI as branch size increased. The rainfall 558 characteristics had temporal-dependent influences on stemflow variables. RA and RD 559 560 controlled SFV, FR and SFD at the inter-event scale. Rainfall intensity and raindrop momentum significantly affected stemflow intensity and time lags to rains at the intra-event 561 scale except for TLE. The eco-hydrological significance of stemflow might be 562 563 underestimated by ignoring stemflow production at high temporal resolutions within event. These findings advance our understanding of the stemflow process and its influential 564 mechanism and help model the critical process-based hydrological fluxes of terrestrial 565 566 ecosystems.

567

568 *Data availability.* The data collected in this study are available upon request to the authors.

569

570 *Author contributions*. GYG and CY set up the research goals and designed field 571 experiments. CY measured and analyzed the data. GYG and BJF provided the financial 572 support for the experiments, and supervised the execution. CY created the figures and 573 wrote the original draft. GYG, BJF, DMH, XWD and XHW reviewed and edited the draft 574 in serval rounds of revision.

575

576 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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590 Appendix

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T ' /	C	1 1	
List	01	symbols	

Abbreviation	Descriptions	Unit
a.s.l.	above sea level	NA
BA	Branch angle	0
BBA	Branch basal area	mm ²
BD	Branch diameter	mm
BL	Branch length	cm
D	Diameter of rain drop	mm
es	Saturation vapor pressure	kPa
Е	Evaporation coefficient	unitless

F	Average raindrop momentum in the vertical direction of incident event	$mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1}$
F ₀	Average raindrop momentum of incident event	$mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1}$
F ₁₀	The 10-min maximum raindrop momentum	$mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1}$
F _{b10}	Average raindrop momentum at the first 10 min	$mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1}$
Fe10	Average raindrop momentum at the last 10 min	mg⋅m⋅s ⁻¹
FR	Average funnelling ratio of incident event	unitless
FR ₁₀₀	Funnelling ratio at the 100-s intervals after rain begins	unitless
Н	Air relative humidity	%
Ι	Average rainfall intensity of incident event	$\mathbf{mm} \cdot \mathbf{h}^{-1}$
I_{10}	The 10-min maximum rainfall intensity	$\mathbf{mm} \cdot \mathbf{h}^{-1}$
I _{b10}	Average rainfall intensity at the first 10-min of incident event	$\mathbf{mm} \cdot \mathbf{h}^{-1}$
I_{e10}	Average rainfall intensity at the last 10-min of incident event	$\mathbf{mm} \cdot \mathbf{h}^{-1}$
IWA	The adjusted inflow water at TBRG	mm
IW _R	The recorded inflow water at TBRG	mm
LA	Leaf area of individual branch	cm ²
MAP	Mean annual precipitation	mm
MCA	Multiple correspondence analysis	NA
NA	Not applicable	NA
р	Level of significance	NA
R^2	Coefficient of determination	NA
RA	Rainfall amount	mm
RD	Rainfall duration	h
RI	Rainfall interval	h
SE	Standard error	NA
SFD	Stemflow duration from its beginning to ending	h
SFI	Average stemflow intensity of incident event	$\mathrm{mm} \cdot \mathrm{h}^{-1}$
\mathbf{SFI}_{10}	The 10-min maximum stemflow intensity of incident event	$\mathrm{mm} \cdot \mathrm{h}^{-1}$
SFI_i	Instantaneous stemflow intensity	$\mathrm{mm} \cdot \mathrm{h}^{-1}$
SF _{RG}	Stemflow depth recorded by TBRG	mm
SFV	Stemflow volume	mL
ti	Time intervals between neighboring tips	h
Т	Air temperature	°C
TBRG	Tipping bucket rain gauge	NA
TLE	Time lag of stemflow ending to rainfall ceasing	min
TLG	Time lag of stemflow generation to rainfall beginning	min
TLM	Time lag of stemflow maximization to rainfall beginning	min
v	Terminal velocity of rain drop	$m \cdot s^{-1}$
VPD	Vapor pressure deficit	kPa
WS	Wind speed	$m \cdot s^{-1}$
ρ	Density of freshwater at standard atmospheric pressure and 20°C	$g \cdot cm^{-3}$
θ	Inclination angle of rain drop	0

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Shrub species	BD categories (mm)	Branch amount	BD (mm)	BL (cm)	BA (°)	LA (cm ²)
	5–10	2	6.6	131	61	837.1
	10–15	2	13.1	168	43	2577.3
C. korshinskii	15–18	2	17.8	206	72	4243.1
	18–25	1	22.1	242	50	6394.7
	>25	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
	5–10	2	7.5	248	69	626.3
	10–15	2	13.2	343	80	1683.5
S. psammophila	15–18	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
	18–25	2	21.8	286	76	3468.3
	>25	1	31.3	356	60	7513.7

803 Table 1. Branch morphologies of C. korshinskii and S. psammophila for stemflow recording.

804 Notes: BD, BL and BA are branch basal diameter, length and inclination angle, respectively; LA is leaf area

805 of individual branches; NA means not applicable.

Indicators	Event A	Event B	Event C	Others	Average
Event amount	17	11	15	11	13.5±1.5
RA (mm)	4.1 ab	5.2 b	11.7 c	0.6 a	5.4 ± 0.9
RD (h)	2.5 a	3.6 a	10.3 b	2.2 a	4.7 ± 0.8
RI (h)	48.5 ab	70.5 b	57.3 ab	26.1 a	50.6 ± 6.1
I (mm·h ⁻¹)	5.6 a	5.5 a	4.6 a	2.2 b	4.5 ± 1.0
$I_{10} (mm \cdot h^{-1})$	15.5 a	12.7 ab	9.5 b	6.0 c	10.9 ± 2.1
$I_{b10} (mm \cdot h^{-1})$	7.7 a	9.9 a	2.8 b	1.6 b	5.5 ± 1.4
$I_{e10} (mm \cdot h^{-1})$	4.3 a	3.6 a	2.1 ab	1.2 b	2.8 ± 0.7
$F(mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1})$	17.1 a	17.6 a	17.2 a	12.5 b	16.1 ± 1.2
$F_{10} (mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1})$	27.8 a	26.6 a	24.2 ab	21.0 b	24.9 ± 1.4
$F_{b10} (mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1})$	19.7 ab	21.7 a	15.4 b	16.9 b	18.4 ± 1.4
$F_{e10} (mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1})$	17.3 a	16.6 a	13.4 b	16.8 a	16.0 ± 1.0
E (unitless)	0.9 ab	1.0 ab	0.4 a	1.7 b	0.9 ± 0.2

Table 2. Rainfall characteristics during events with different intensity peak amounts.

807 Note: Event A, Event B and Event C are events with the single, double and multiple rainfall intensity peaks, respectively; Others are the events that excluded from the categorization; RA, RD and RI are 808 rainfall amount, duration and interval, respectively; I and I10 are the average and 10-min maximum 809 rainfall intensities, respectively; Ib10 and Ie10 are the average rainfall intensities in 10 min after rain begins 810 811 and before rain ends, respectively; F and F₁₀ are the average and 10-min maximum raindrop momentums, respectively; F_{b10} and F_{e10} are the average raindrop momentums in 10 min after rain begins and before 812 rain ends, respectively; E is evaporation coefficient; Different letters indicate significant differences of 813 814 rainfall characteristics between event categories (p < 0.05) (rows at the table).

Species	Stemflow variables	Event A	Event B	Event C	Others	Average
	SFV (mL)	134.1 a	203.7 a	560.8 b	7.6 c	226.6 ± 46.4
	SFI $(mm \cdot h^{-1})$	672.9 a	552.4 b	527.0 b	317.8 c	517.5 ± 82.1
	$SFI_{10} (mm \cdot h^{-1})$	2849.0 a	2399.3 a	1809.1 b	1173.2 c	2057.6 ± 399.7
C. handling li	FR (unitless)	109.4 a	146.6 b	137.9 b	128.9 ab	130.7 ± 8.2
C. korshinskii	TLG (min)	67.3 ab	56.2 a	67.0 ab	74.2 b	66.2 ± 10.6
	TLM (min)	81.1 a	75.5 a	202.1 b	78.8 a	109.4 ± 20.5
	TLE (min)	22.3 a	18.7 b	18.5 b	20.6 a	20.0 ± 5.3
	SFD (h)	1.4 a	3.1 a	9.1 b	1.4 a	3.8 ± 0.8
	SFV (mL)	102.6 a	145.7 a	435.2 b	4.7 c	172.1 ± 34.5
	SFI (mm·h ⁻¹)	648.1 a	421.5 b	246.6 c	153.2 c	367.3 ± 91.1
	$SFI_{10} (mm \cdot h^{-1})$	1672.7 a	1582.8 a	888.4 b	384.7 c	1132.2 ± 214.3
S. na ammonhila	FR (unitless)	77.1 a	91.4 a	129.1 b	101.6 ab	101.6 ± 10.4
S. psammophila	TLG (min)	84.9 a	46.5 b	56.1 b	31.5 b	54.8 ± 11.7
	TLM (min)	64.3 a	93.4 a	235.8 b	88.4 a	120.5 ± 22.1
	TLE (min)	17.1 a	8.6 b	20.8 a	7.3 b	13.5 ± 17.2
	SFD (h)	1.2 a	3.4 a	8.3 b	0.7 a	3.4 ± 0.9

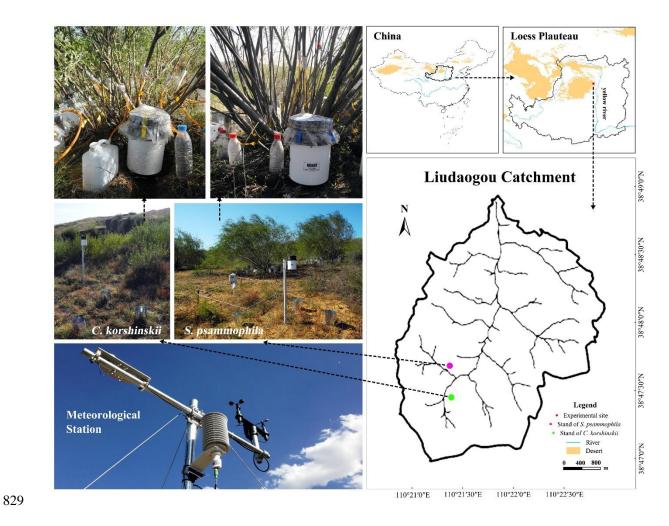
816 with different intensity peak amounts.

Note: Event A, Event B and Event C are events with the single, double and multiple rainfall intensity peaks, respectively; Others are the events that excluded from the categorization; SFV is stemflow volume; SFI and SFI₁₀ are the average and 10-min maximum stemflow intensities at incident rains, respectively; FR is funnelling ratio of stemflow at incident rains; TLG and TLM are time lags of stemflow generating and maximizing after rains begin, respectively; TLE is time lag of stemflow ending after rain ceases; SFD is stemflow duration; Different letters indicate significant differences of stemflow variables between event categories (p<0.05) (rows at the table).

Species and				BD categor	ries (mm)		
stemflow variables		5–10	10–15	15–18	18–25	>25	AVG
С.	FR	163.7±12.2a	136±10.9b	119.5±13.0b	97.7±9.2b	NA	131±8.2
korshinskii	SFI	716.2±118.7a	552.5±90.3b	619±103.3b	333.8±45.8b	NA	553.9±82.1
<i>S</i> .	FR	212±17.4a	84±6.4b	NA	44.2±3.0b	54.9±4.2b	100.6±7.9
psammophila	SFI	738.7±160.9a	360.7±82.7a	NA	197.2±44.9b	209.9±44.5b	372.2±79.4

824 Table 4. Comparisons of stemflow intensity and funnelling ratio at different basal diameter 825 categories.

826 Note: SFI and FR are the average stemflow intensity and funnelling ratio at incident rains, respectively; BD is 827 branch basal diameter (mm); NA means not applicable; Different letters indicate significant differences of 828 stemflow variables between event categories (p<0.05) (rows at the table).



830 Figure 1. Locations and experimental settings in the plots of C. korshinskii and S.

⁸³¹ psammophila.

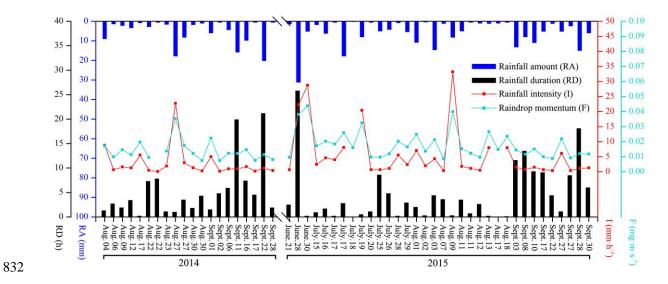


Figure 2. Inter-event variations in rainfall characteristics during the experimental period.

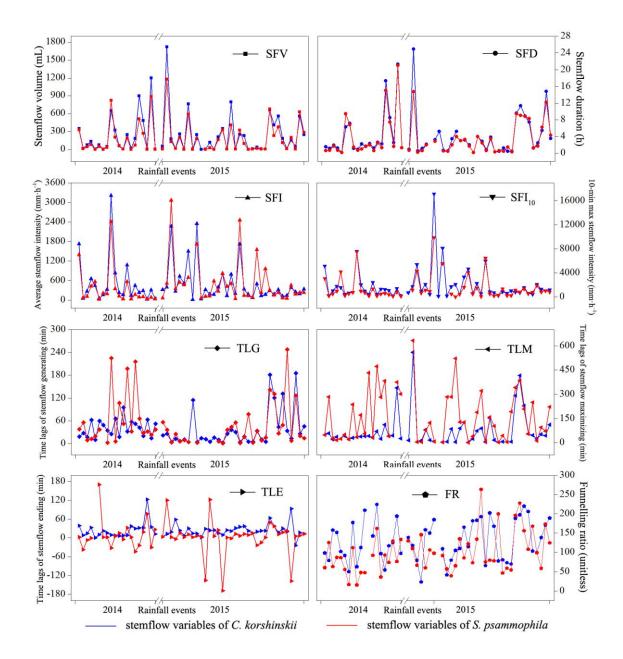


Figure 3. Inter-event variations in stemflow variables of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*

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⁸³⁶ during the experimental period.

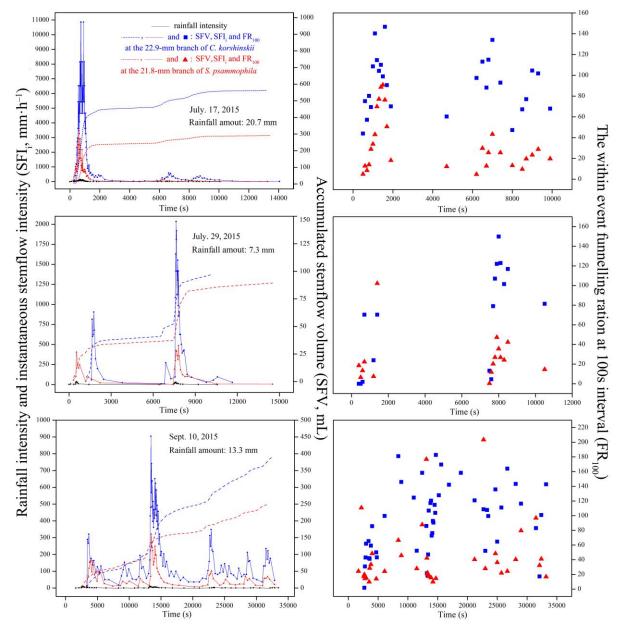
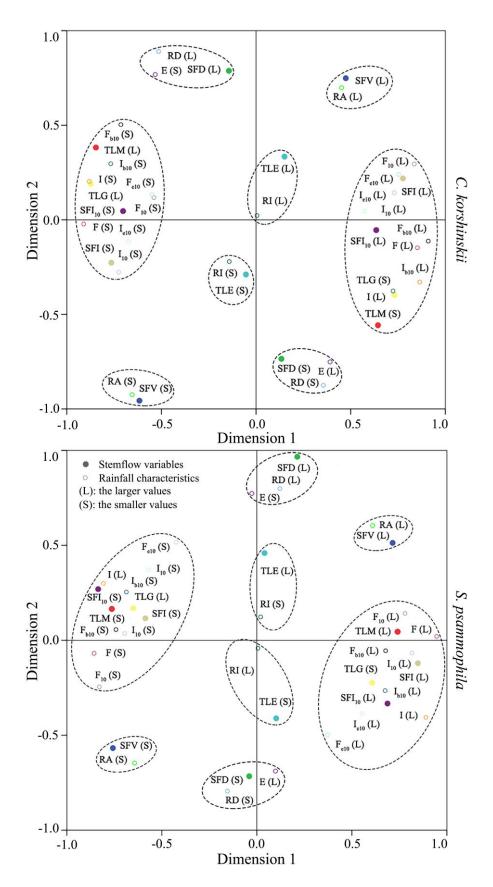


Figure 4. Stemflow synchronicity of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* to rains during
representative events with different rainfall-intensity peak amounts.





841 Figure 5. Correspondence maps of stemflow variables with rainfall characteristics for C.

⁸⁴² korshinskii and S. psammophila.

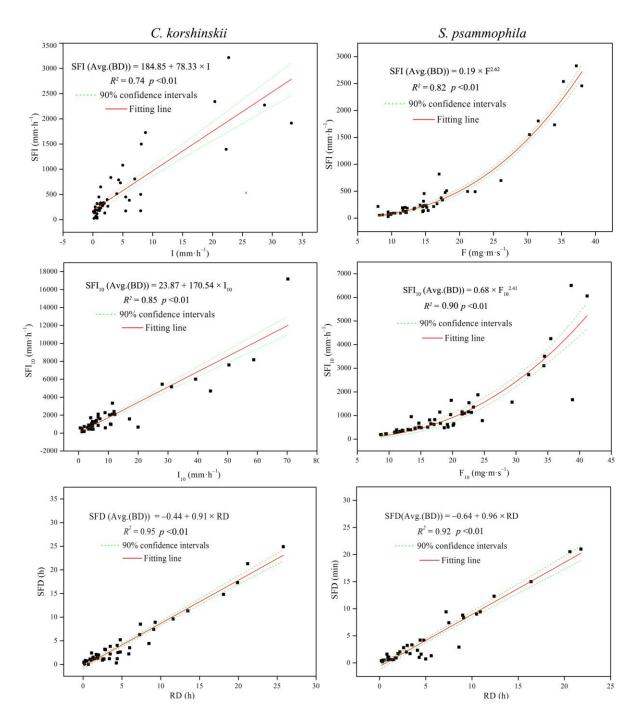


Figure 6. Relationships of stemflow intensity and duration with rainfall characteristics.

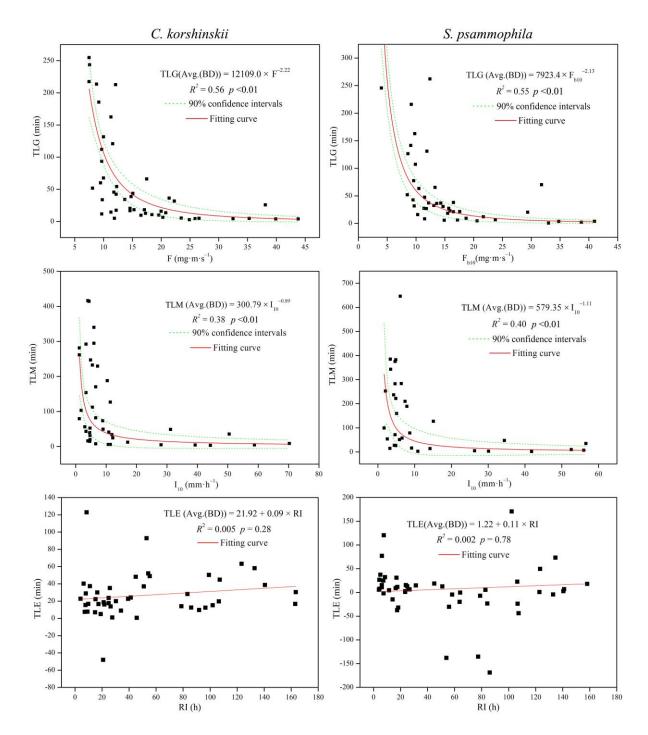


Figure 7. Relationships of stemflow time lags with rainfall characteristics.

Revised manuscript with marks

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Temporal-dependent
                                      effects
                                                  of
                                                         rainfall
                                                                        characteristics
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      inter-/intra-event
                                 branch-scale stemflow
                                                                      variability
                                                                                        in
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                                                                                              two
     xerophytic shrubs
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     Chuan Yuan<sup>1, 2, 34</sup>, Guangyao Gao<sup>2,3</sup>, Bojie Fu<sup>2,3</sup>, Daming He<sup>1, 34</sup>, Xingwu Duan<sup>1, 34</sup>, and
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      China
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      Abstract
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          Stemflow is important for recharging root-zone soil moisture in arid regions. Previous
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      studies have generally focused on stemflow volume, efficiency and influential factors but
22
      have failed to depict temporal stemflow processes and quantify their relationships relations
23
      with rainfall characteristics within events, particularly for xerophytic shrubs. Here, we
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measured the stemflow volume, intensity, duration-funnelling ratio, and time lags to rain 25 events ofat two xerophyticdominant shrub species (Caragana korshinskii and Salix 26 psammophila) and rainfall characteristics forduring 54 events inat the semi-arid Liudaogou 27 catchment of the Loess Plateau, China, during the 2014-2015 rainy seasons. The 28 Funnelling ratio was calculated as the ratio between stemflow and rainfall intensities at the 29 inter-/intra-event scales. Our results indicated that the stemflow dynamics were well 30 synchronized to rainfall processes. The stemflows of C. korshinskii and S. psammophila 31 had-were averagely started 66.2 and 54.8 min, maximized 109.4 and 120.5 min after rains 32 began, and ended 20.0 and 13.5 min after rains ceased. The two shrubs had shorter 33 stemflow duration (3.8 and 3.4 h) and significantly larger averagestemflow intensities 34 (517.5 and 367.3 mm \cdot h⁻¹) than those of rains (4.7±1.5 and 4.8±1.6 mm \cdot h⁻¹, respectively) 35 than that of rain at the event scale $(4.5\pm1.0 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1})$, and the stemflows were even more 36 intense (20.3 \pm 10.4 and 16.9 \pm 8.8 mm· h⁻¹, respectively) than that of rain at 10 min intervals 37 (10.9 ± 2.1) and 4.5 mm·h⁻¹). The average stemflow durations of C. korshinskii and S. 38 39 psammophila (3.8±0.8 and 3.4±0.9 h, respectively) were shorter than the rainfall duration $(4.7\pm0.8 \text{ h})$. As branch size increased, both species shared the decreasing funnelling ratios 40 (97.7-163.7 and 44.2-212.0) and stemflow intensities (333.8-716.2 mm·h⁻¹ and 197.2-41 738.7 mm \cdot h⁻¹). Tested by athe multiple correspondence analysis and stepwise regression, 42 rainfall amount and duration controlled stemflow volume and duration, respectively, at the 43 event scale by linear relationships relations (p < 0.01). Rainfall intensity and raindrop 44 momentum controlled stemflow intensity and time lags to rains for both species at the 45 intra-within event scale by linear or power relationships (p < 0.01). Rainfall intensity was 46

47 the key factor for theaffecting stemflow process of *C. korshinskii*, whereas raindrop 48 momentum had the greatest influence on the stemflow process of *S. psammophila*. 49 Rainfall<u>Therefore, rainfall</u> characteristics had temporal-dependent influences on 50 corresponding stemflow variables, and the influence also depended on specific species.-

51

52 **1 Introduction**

Stemflow directs the intercepted rains from the canopy to the trunk base. The 53 funnel-shaped canopy and underground preferential paths, i.e., roots, worm paths and soil 54 55 macropores, converge rains to recharge the root-zone moisture (Johnson and Lehmann, 2006; Li et al., 2008). Stemflow is important to concentrate water (Levia and Germer, 56 2015), nutrients (Dawoe et al., 2018), pathogens (Garbelotto et al., 2003) and bacteria 57 58 (Bittar et al., 2018) from the phyllosphere into the pedosphere (Teachey et al., 2018), even though stemflow accounts for only a minimal minor part of rainfall amount (RA) (6.2%) in 59 contrast to throughfall (69.8%) and interception loss (24.0%) in water-stressed 60 regionsdryland ecosystems with annual mean rainfall ranging in 154-900 mm (Magliano et 61 al., 2019). Stemflow greatly contributes to the survival of xerophytic plant species (Návar, 62 2011), the maintenance of patch structures in arid areas (Kéfi et al., 2007), and the normal 63 functioning of rainfed dryland ecosystems (Wang et al., 2011). 64

To quantify the ecohydrological importance of stemflow, numerous studies have been conducted on stemflow production and efficiency from various aspects, including stemflow volume (mL), depth (mm), percentage (%), funnelling ratio (unitless), and productivity $(mL \cdot g^{-1}, the branch stemflow volume of unit biomass)$ (Herwitz, 1986; Yuan et al., 2016;

Zabret et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019). By applyinginstalling automatic recording devices, 69 the stemflow process has been gradually determined at 1-h intervals (Spencer and van 70 Meerveld, 2016), 5-min intervals (André et al., 2008; Levia et al., 2010) and 2-min 71 intervals (Dunkerley, 20142014b). This determination allowed the calculation ofto compute 72 stemflow intensity (mm·h⁻¹) (Germer et al., 2010), speedflux (mL·min⁻¹) (Yang, 2010) and 73 time lag after rain (Cayuela et al., 2018). Differing from an event-based calculation, the 74 stemflow process provided insights into the fluctuation of stemflow production at a high 75 temporal resolution. This processIt permits a better interpretation of the "hot moment" and 76 77 "hot spot" effects of many ecohydrological processes (Bundt et al., 2001; McClain et al., 2003). Quantifying the short-intensity burst and temporal characteristics-of stemflow shed 78 light on the dynamic process and pulse nature of stemflow (Dunkerley, 2019). 79 Stemflow cannot be initialled afterinitiated until canopies were saturated by the rains 80 (Martinez-Meza and Whitford, 1996). The minimal RA needed to start stemflow iswas 81 usually calculated by regressing stemflow volume with RA forat different plant species or 82 canopy states (Levia and Germer, 2015). In the leaf period, stemflow starts when rains are 83 greater thanIt also varied with canopy states, i.e., 10.9 mm and 2.5-3.4 mm for the leafed 84 oak and beech tress, respectively, in Belgium, and in the leafless period, the minimal RA 85 for stemflow generation is 6.0 mm and 1.5-1.9 mm for these two species them in the 86 leafless period (André et al., 2008; Staelens et al., 2008). In comparison, a lower amount of 87

89 Stemflow also frequently <u>continues_continued</u> after rains <u>ceased</u> due to the rainwater 90 retained on the canopy/branch surface (Iida et al., 2017). *Salix psammophila* and an open

88

rain,0.4-2.2 mm, can generally initiate stemflow of xerophytic shrubs (Yuan et al., 2017).

91 tropical forest startstarted stemflow 5-10 min and 15 min later than the beginning of a rain event in the Mu Us desert of China (Yang, 2010) and the Amazon basin of Brazil (Germer 92 93 et al., 2010), respectively. However, 1 h and 1.5 h arewere needed to start stemflow after the beginning of a rain event for pine and oak trees in north-eastern Spain, respectively 94 (Cayuela et al., 2018). For S. psammophila, stemflow isflux was maximized 20-210 min 95 after the beginning of a rain event (Yang, 2010), and stemflow ceased 11 h after rain 96 stoppedrains ceased in an open tropical forest (Germer et al., 2010). Stemflow timeTime 97 lags are critical indicators for depicting the of stemflow generation, maximization and 98 99 ending to rains depicted dynamic stemflow process and are important for developing process-based, and were conducive to better understand the hydrological process occurred 100 at the interface between the intercepted rains and soil moisture (Sprenger et al., 2019). 101 102 models. It was important to discuss the temporal persistence in spatial patterns of soil moisture particularly at the intra-event scale (Gao et al., 2019). However, stemflow time 103 lags have not been systematically studied for xerophytic shrubs. 104

105 The preferential paths at the underside of branches for delivering stemflow complicates stemflow processes within events (Dunkerley, 20142014a). The influences of bark 106 microrelief- on stemflow are strongly affected by dynamic rain processes, such as rainfall 107 intensity and raindrop striking within events (Vanvan Stan and Levia, 2010). While 108 exceeding the holding capacity of branches, high rainfall intensity cancould overload and 109 interrupt this preferential path (Carlyle-Mose and Price, 2006). Raindrops hit the canopy 110 surface and create splashes on the surface. This process is conducive to wetting branches at 111 the lower layers and accelerating the establishment of the preferential paths of stemflow 112

transportation (Bassette and Bussière, 2008). Nevertheless, the interaction between the 113 stemflow process and intra-event rainfall characteristics has not been substantially studied. 114 115 This study was designed at the event and process scales to investigate inter-/intra-event stemflow variability of two dominant xerophytic shrubs. Stemflow volume, intensity, 116 funnelling ratio and temporal dynamics of Caragana korshinskii and S. psammophila were 117 recorded during 54 rainfall events in the 2014-2015 rainy seasons on the Loess Plateau of 118 China. Temporal dynamics were expressed as stemflow duration and time lags of stemflow 119 generation, maximization and cessation to the start of rain events. rains. Raindrop 120 121 momentum was introduced to represent the comprehensive effects of raindrop size, velocity, inclination angle and kinetic energy onat the stemflow process. Funnelling ratio had been 122 calculated at the event base and the 100-s intervals to assess the convergence effects of 123 124 stemflow. This study specifically aimed to (1) depict the stemflow process in terms of stemflow intensity and temporal dynamics, (2) identify the dominant rainfall characteristics 125 influencing inter-/intra-event stemflow variables, and (3) quantify the relationships 126 between stemflow process variables and rainfall characteristics. Achieving these objectives 127 would advance our knowledge of the process-based stemflow production to better 128 understand the pulse nature of stemflow and its interactions with dynamic rain processes. 129

130 2 Materials and Methods

131 **2.1 Site description**

This study was conducted in the Liudaogou catchment (110°21′-110°23′E, 38°46′38°51′N) in Shenmu city, Shaanxi Province, China, during the 2014–2015 rainy seasons.
This catchment is 6.9 km² and 1094–1273 m above sea level (m.a.s.l.). A semiarid

continental climate prevails in this area. The mean annual precipitation (MAP) is 414 mm
(1971–2013). Most MAP (77%) occurs from July to September (Jia et al., 2013). The mean
annual potential evaporation is 1337 mm (Yang et al., 2019). The mean annual temperature
is 9.0 °C. The dominant shrubs include *C. korshinskii, S. psammophila*, and *Amorpha fruticosa*. The dominant grasses are *Artemisia capillaris*, *Artemisia sacrorum*, *Medicago sativa*, *Stipa bungeana*, etc.

C. korshinskii and S. psammophila are two representative xerophytic shrub species. 141 Theypsammophila are dominant shrub species at the arid and semi-arid regions of 142 143 northwestern China (Hu et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016). They were commonly planted for soil and water conservation, sand fixation and wind barrier, and had extensive distributions 144 at this region (Li et al., 2016). The both species have inverted-cone crowns and no trunks, 145 146 with multiple branches running obliquely from the base. As modular organisms and multi-stemmed shrub species, their branches live as independent individuals and compete 147 with each other for water and light (Firn, 2004). Two plots were established in the 148 149 southwestern catchment for these two xerophytic shrubs planted in the 1990s (Fig. 1). C. korshinskii and S. psammophila plots share similar stand conditions with elevations of 1179 150 and 1207 m.a.s.l., slopes of 13° and 18°, and sizes of 3294 and 4056 m², respectively. The 151 C. korshinskii plot has a ground surface of loess and aspect of 224°, while the S. 152 psammophila plot has a ground surface of sand and an aspect of 113°. 153

154 **2.2 Meteorological measurements and calculations**

A meteorological station was installed at the experimental plot of *S. psammophila* to record rainfall characteristics and wind speed (WS, $m \cdot s^{-1}$). The Onset® (Onset Computer

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157	Corp., USA) RG3 M tipping bucket rain gauges (with a diameter of 15.24 cm and a
158	resolution of 0.2 mm) recorded the rain amount and timing of incident rains. Discrete
159	rainfall events were defined by a measurable RA of 0.2 mm (the resolution limit of the
160	RG3-M rain gauge) and the smallest 4-h gap without rains (the analogue period of time to
161	dry canopies from antecedent rains) (Giacomin and Trucchi, 1992; Zhang et al., 2015; Yang
162	et al) (Model 03002, R. M. Young Company, USA), air temperature (T, °C) and relative
163	humidity (H, %) (Model HMP 155, Vaisala, Finland). They were logged at 10-min intervals
164	by a datalogger (Model CR1000, Campbell Scientific Inc., USA). Evaporation coefficient
165	(E, unitless) was calculated to present the evaporation intensity (Equations 1-3) via
166	aerodynamic approaches (Carlyle-Mose and Schooling, 2015). Tipping-bucket rain gauges
167	(hereinafter referred to as "TBRG") automatically recorded the volume and timing of
168	rainfall and stemflow (Herwitz, 1986; Germer et al., 2010; Spencer and Meerveld, 2016;
169	Cayuela et al., 2018). To mitigate the systematic errors for missing the records of inflow
170	during tipping intervals (Groisman and Legates, 1994), we chose the Onset® (Onset
171	Computer Corp., USA) RG3-M TBRG with the relatively smaller underestimation for its
172	smaller bucket volume (3.73±0.01 mL) (Iida et al., 2012). Besides, three 20-cm-diameter
173	standard rain gauges were placed around TBRG with a 0.5-m distance at the 120°
174	separation (Fig. 1). The regression (R^2 =0.98, p <0.01) between manual measurements and
175	automatic recording further mitigated the understanding of inflow water by applying TBRG
176	(Equation 4)., 2019)WS was recorded by wind sensors (Model 03002, R. M. Young
177	Company, USA) and logged at 10 min intervals by a datalogger (Model CR1000, Campbell
178	Scientific Inc., USA). For the 0.8 km distance between the two plots, the meteorological
I	

179 data were also applied to the *C. korshinskii* plot.

180
$$e_s = 0.611 \times exp \left(\frac{17.27 \times T}{237.7 + T} \right)$$

$$e_{s} = 0.611 \times \exp\left(\frac{17.27 \times 1}{(237.7 + T)}\right)$$
(1)

181

182

$$VPD = e_s \times (1 - H)$$
(2)

$$E = WS \times VPD$$
(3)

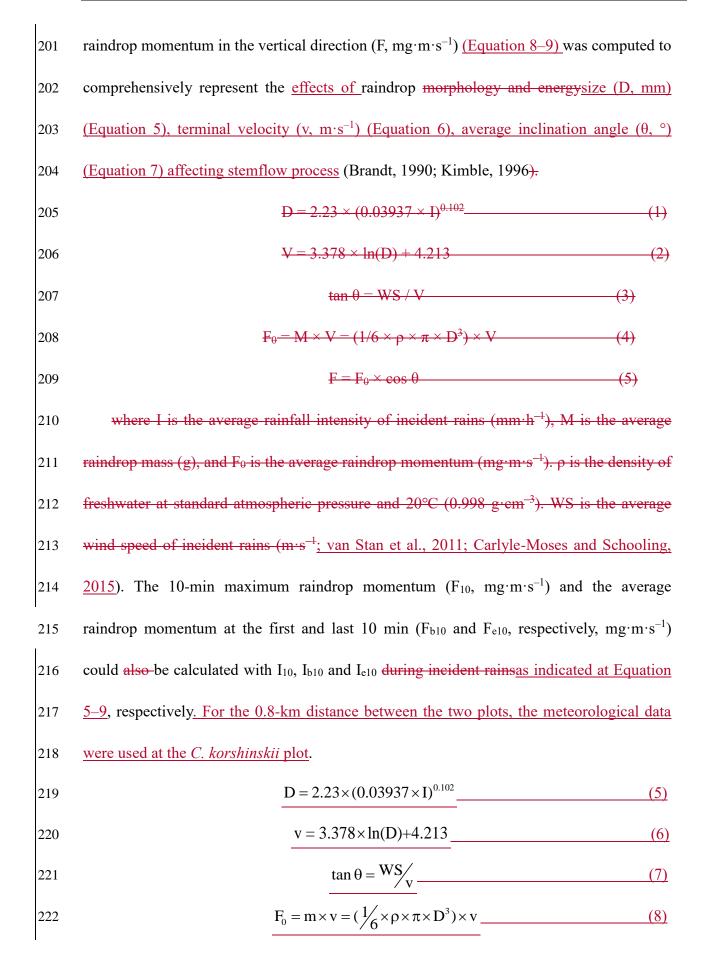
183 where e_s is the saturation vapor pressure (kPa); T is air temperature (°C); H is air relative 184 humidity (%); VPD is the vapor pressure deficit (kPa); and E is the evaporation coefficient 185 (unitless).

186

$$IW_{A} = IW_{R} \times 1.32 + 0.16$$
 (4)

187 where IW_R is the recording of inflow water (including rainfall and stemflow) via TBRG
188 (mm), and IW_A is the adjusted inflow water (mm).

189 Discrete rainfall events were defined by a measurable RA of 0.2 mm (the resolution limit of the TBRG) and the smallest 4-h gap without rains. That was the same period of 190 time to dry canopies from antecedent rains as reported by Giacomin and Trucchi (1992), 191 Zhang et al. (2015), Zhang et al., (2017) and Yang et al. (2019). Rainfall interval (RI, h) 192 was calculated to indirectly represent the bark wetness. Other rainfall characteristics were 193 calculated also computed, including the RA (mm), rainfall duration (RD, h), rainfall interval 194 (RI, h), the average and 10-min maximum rainfall intensity of incident rains (I and I_{107}) 195 respectively, mm h^{-1}), and the 10-min average rainfall intensity after rain begins (I_{b10}, 196 mm·h-1) and before rain ends (Ie10, mm·h-1). Raindrop traits include diameter (D, mm) 197 (Herwitz and Slye, 1995), terminal velocity (V, m·s⁻¹) (Carlyle-Moses and Schooling, 198 199 2015), and average inclination angle (θ, \circ) (Herwitz and Slye, 1995; Van Stan et al., 2011). By assuming a perfect sphere of a raindrop (Uijlenhoet and Torres, 2006), the average 200



223

$\underline{\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}_0 \times \cos \theta} \tag{9}$

where D is raindrop diameter (mm); I is the average rainfall intensity of incident rains 224 (mm·h⁻¹); v is raindrop velocity (m·s⁻¹); θ is average inclination angle of raindrops (°); WS 225 is the average wind speed of incident rains $(m \cdot s^{-1})$; F₀ is the average raindrop momentum 226 $(mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1})$; m is the average raindrop mass (g); ρ is the density of freshwater at standard 227 atmospheric pressure and 20°C (0.998 g·cm⁻³). 228

2.3 Experimental branch selection and measurements 229

This study focused on the branch-scale stemflow production of the 20-year-old C. 230 231 korshinskii and S. psammophila. By selecting four 20-year-old-Based on plot investigation, the canopy traits of standard shrubs of were determined. Four shrubs were selected 232 accordingly at each species with similar crown areas and heights $(5.1\pm0.3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ and } 2.1\pm0.2 \text{ m}^2)$ 233 m for C. korshinskii and 21.4 \pm 5.2 m² and 3.5 \pm 0.2 m for S. psammophila, respectively), the 234 variance in canopy traits was neglected.). The isolated canopies approximately 10-m gap 235 between them guaranteed that they were exposed shrubs exposing to the similar rainfall 236 characteristics.meteorological conditions (Yuan et al., 2016). We measured branch 237 morphologies of all 180 and 261 branches of at experimental shrubs of C. korshinskii and S. 238 psammophila, respectively. Branch basal, including BD (Basal diameter (BD) was 239 measured, mm) with a Vernier calliper (Model 7D-01150, Forgestar Inc., Germany). 240 Branch), branch length (BL) and branch angle (BA) were estimated, cm) with a measuring 241 tape, and branch angle (BA, °) with pocket geologic compass (Model DQL-8, Harbin 242 Optical Instrument Factory, China), respectively. Then, the branches were grouped into 243 244 fiveThus, BD categories of were determined at 5-10 mm, 10-15 mm, 15-18 mm, 18-25

mm and >25 mm. Two to guarantee the appropriate branch amounts within categories for 245 meeting the statistical significance. Two representative branches with median BDs were 246 247 selected in each category for stemflow recording. These The experimental branches had no intercrossing with neighbouring branchesones and no turning point in height from branch 248 tip to base. The outlayer-of-canopy-skirt locations positions avoided over-shading by the 249 upper layer branches and permitted convenient measurements. Since there were not 250 sufficient the qualified branch with the >25-mm branchessize was not enough for the C. 251 korshinskii shrubs and the tipping bucket rain gauges TBRG malfunctioned at the 15-18-252 25-mm branches of S. psammophila, stemflow data were not available in these BD 253 categories. In total, stemflow was automatically recorded at 7 branches for were selected 254 for stemflow measurements at each species (Table 1). As the important interface to 255 intercept rains at the growing season, the well-verified allometric growth equations were 256 performed to estimate the branch leaf area (LA, cm²) of C korshinskii (LA=39.37×BD^{1.63}) 257 $R^2=0.98$) (Yuan et al., 2017) and S. psammophila (LA=18.86×BD^{1.74} $R^2=0.90$) (Yuan et al., 258 2016), respectively. 259

260 2.4 Stemflow measurements and calculations

We <u>A total of 14 TBRGs had been</u> applied <u>to automatically record the branch stemflow</u> production of <u>C. korshinskii and S. psammophila</u>. The data of stemflow volume and timing were automatically recorded at dynamic intervals between neighboring tips. We installed aluminium foil collars to trap stemflow- at branches nearly 40 cm off the ground, higher than TBRG orifice with height of 25.7 cm (Fig. 1). They were fitted around the entire branch circumference and sealed by neutral silicone caulking. The limited <u>externalorifice</u>

267	diameter of the foil collars minimized the accessing of throughfall and rains accessinginto				
268	them. The RG3-M tipping-bucket rain gauges recorded the stemflow production and timing,				
269	thus computing the stemflow volume, duration, intensity and time lags to rain. (Yuan et al.,				
270	2017). The 0.5-cm-diameter polyvinyl chloride hoses hung vertically and channelled				
271	stemflow from the collars to TBRGs with a minimum travel time. TBRGs were covered				
272	with the polyethylene film covered gauges preventing films to prevent the accessing of				
273	throughfall and splash (Fig. 1). The hoses hung vertically to minimize the travel time to the				
274	rain gauges for an accurate recording of stemflow timing and intensity.1). These				
275	apparatuses were periodically checked to avoidagainst leakages or blockages by insects and				
276	fallen leaves.				
277	The stemflow Stemflow variables at the branches of C. were computed korshinskii and				
278	S-psammophila were calculated as followsfollow.				
279	(1) Stemflow volume (SFV, mL): the <u>average</u> stemflow volume of individual branches				
280	of C. Adjusted with Equation 4 firstly, SFV-korshinskii and S. psammophilaThis				
281	variable was converted from computed with the auto-TBRG recordings of branch				
282	stemflow via the tipping-bucket rain gauges ((SFRG, mm) by multiplying the				
283	baseits orifice area of the RG3 M rain gauges (182(186.3 cm ²) (Equation 10).				
284	$SFV = SF_{RG} \times 18.63 $ (10)				
285	(2) Stemflow intensity (mm·h ⁻¹):: the branch stemflow volume in a certain time,				
286	including SFI, SFI ₁₀ -per branch basal area per unit time. SFI (mm·h ⁻¹) is the				
287	average stemflow intensity of incident rains, which is computed by the				
288	event-based SFV (mL), branch basal area (BBA, mm ²) and RD (h) (Equation 11)				

289	(Herwitz, 1986; Spencer and Meerveld, 2016). SFI10 (mm·h-1) is the 10-min
290	maximum stemflow intensity, which is calculated with the 10-min maximum
291	stemflow volume (SFV10, mL) and BBA (mm ²) (Equation 12). SFIi in this study.
292	SFI and SFI ₁₀ are the average and 10-min maximum stemflow intensities during
293	incident rains, which were computed by the branch stemflow as recorded by the
294	tipping bucket rain gauges (mm) and rainfall duration (h). SFI _i (mm \cdot h ⁻¹) is the
295	instantaneous stemflow intensity, which wasis calculated in terms of by the tip
296	volume of the RG3-M rain gauge (0.2 mmTBRG (3.73 mL), BBA (mm ²) and time
297	intervals between neighbouring tips (t _i , h) (Equation 13). The comparison between
298	SFI _i and the corresponding rainfall intensity depicted the synchronicity of
299	stemflow with rains within event.
300	$SFI = 1000 \times \frac{SFV}{(BBA \times RD)} $ (11)
301	$\underline{SFI_{10} = 6000 \times \frac{SFV_{10}}{BBA}}$ (12)
302	$SFI_{i} = \frac{3730}{(BBA \times t_{i})} $ (13)
303	(3) Stemflow temporal dynamics: stemflow duration and time lags in response to rains.
304	SFD (h): the duration from stemflow beginning to its endingduration. It is
305	computed by different timings between the first- and last-tips of stemflow via
306	TBRG.
307	TLG (min): time lag of stemflow generation toafter rain begins. It is computed by
308	different first-tip timings between rainfall beginningand stemflow via TBRG.

309 TLM (min): time lag of stemflow intensity peak to maximization after rain begins.

310 It is computed by different timings between the largest-SFI_i and first-rainfall

beginningtips via TBRG.

- TLE (min): time lag of stemflow ending to rainfall ceasingafter rain ceases. It is
 <u>computed by different last-tip timings between rainfall and stemflow via</u>
 TBRG.
- (4) RatioFunnelling ratio: the efficiency for capturing and delivering raindrops from
 the canopies to trunk/branch base (Siegert and Levia, 2014; Cayuela et al., 2018).
 By introducing RD at both numerator and denominator of the intra-event stemflow
 intensity (RSFI, original equation (Herwitz, 1986), FR (unitless):) was
 transformed as the ratio between stemflow and rainfall intensities at the event base
 (Equation 14). FR₁₀₀ described the within-event funnelling ratio at the 100-s
 interval after rain began (Equation 15).

322
$$FR = 1000 \times \frac{SFV}{BBA \times RA} = 1000 \times \frac{\frac{SFV}{BBA}}{\frac{RD}{RD}} = \frac{SFI}{I}$$
(14)

311

$$FR_{100_{i}} = \frac{SFI_{100_{i}}}{I_{100_{i}}}$$
(15)

where FR_{100i}, SFI_{100i} and I_{100i} are funnelling ratio, stemflow intensity and rainfall
 intensity at 100 s intervals within events. Similar to the funnelling ratio (unitless)
 at the event scale (Herwitz, 1986; Siegert and Levia, 2014), the RSFI quantifies
 the convergence effect of stemflow by comparing stemflow intensitythe internal *i* with rainfall intensity at a high temporal resolution (100-s) within events pace
 after rain begins, respectively.

330 We calculated stemflow volume, intensity and temporal dynamics for 54 rainfall events

during the experimental period. While representative rains had RAs of 5–10 mm, 10–20
 mm and >20 mm, RSFI was compared during events to illustrate the fluctuating
 convergence effects of stemflow. The comparison between SFI_i and rainfall intensity
 depicted the synchronicity between stemflow and rains.

335 **2.5 Data analysis**

The stemflow Stemflow variables were averaged amongat different BD categories to 336 analyse the influences of most influential rainfall characteristics on affecting them. The 337 Pearson correlation analyses tested were firstly performed to test the relationships between 338 rainfall characteristics and stemflow variables. This analysis includes the intra event 339 rainfall characteristics ((RA, RD, RI, I, I10, Ib10, Ie10, F, F10, Fb10 and, Fe10) and stemflow 340 variables (SFI, SFI₁₀, TLG, TLM and TLE), and the inter-event rainfall characteristics (RA, 341 342 RD and RI and E) and stemflow variables (SFV, SFI, SFI10, FR, TLG, TLM, TLE and SFD). The significantly related factors were grouped according to the in terms of median 343 value. These factors were then, and compiled into indicator matrices and. They were 344 345 standardized for a cross-tabulation check as required by athe multiple correspondence analysis (MCA) (Levia et al., 2010; Vanvan Stan et al., 2011, 2016). All qualified data were 346 restructured into orthogonal dimensions (Hair et al., 1995), where distances between row 347 and column points were maximized (Hill and Lewicki, 2007). As shown in theat 348 correspondence maps, rainfall feature the clustering israinfall characteristics tightly related 349 to the centred stemflow variable. The Finally, stepwise regressions were operated to 350 identify the most influential rainfall factor could then be identified with stepwise 351 regressioncharacteristics (Carlyle-Moses and Schooling, 2015). We built regression 352

models The quantitative relations were established in terms of the qualified level of 353 significance (p < 0.05) and the highest coefficient of determination (R^2). One-way analysis 354 of variance (ANOVA) with LSD post hoc test was used to determine whether rainfall 355 characteristics, and stemflow variables significantly differed among event categories, and 356 whether funnelling ratio and stemflow intensity significantly differed among BD categories 357 for C. korshinskii and S. psammophila. The level of significance was set at 95% confidence 358 interval (p=0.05). SPSS 21.0 (IBM Corporation, USA), Origin 8.5 (OriginLab Corporation, 359 USA) and Excel 2019 (Microsoft Corporation, USA) were used for data analysis. 360

361 **3 Results**

362 **3.1 Rainfall characteristics**

Stemflow was automatically recorded for A total of 54 rainfall events duringhad been 363 recorded for stemflow measurements at the experimental period2014-2015 rainy seasons 364 (Fig. 2). There were Thereinto, 20, 8, 10, 8, 4 and 4 rainfall events inwere at the RA 365 categories of ≤ 2 mm, 2–5 mm, 5–10 mm, 10–15 mm, 15–20 mm and ≥ 20 mm, respectively. 366 The corresponding total RAs of the above five rainfallat these categories were 22.1 mm, 367 26.1 mm, 68.8 mm, 93.3 mm, 74.8 mm and 110.0 mm, respectively. The-During these 368 events, the average I, I_{10} , I_{b10} and I_{e10} of the 54 rainfall events were 4.65±1.0 mm h⁻¹, 369 $11.510.9\pm2.1 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, $5.85\pm1.54 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ and $2.98\pm0.7 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, respectively. The average F, 370 F_{10} , F_{b10} and F_{e10} were $16.3\pm8.71\pm1.2$ mg·m·s⁻¹, $25.7\pm24.9.6\pm1.4$ mg·m·s⁻¹, $18.5\pm9.94\pm1.4$ 371 mg·m·s⁻¹ and $\frac{15.8\pm716.0\pm1.0}{10}$ mg·m·s⁻¹, respectively. RD, RI and RIE averaged 4.97 ± 0.8 h 372 and, 50.96±6.1 h, and 0.9±0.2, respectively. (Table 2). 373

374 Rainfall events were further categorized in terms of rainfall-intensity peak amount,

375 including Events A, B and C, with (the single, peak events), B (the double-peak events) and C (the multiple-peaks (-peak events). There were 17, 11 and 15 events at Event A, B 376 and C, respectively) (Table 2). The. Because the remaining 11 events had the average RA of 377 0.6 mm, no more than three recordings had been observed within event which was limited 378 by 0.2-mm resolution of TBRGs. Therefore, they could not be categorized due to less than 379 three intra event recordings.and grouped as Event others (Table 2). Compared with Events 380 A and B, Event C possessed significantly different rainfall characteristics, e.g., athe 381 significantly larger RA (11.7 vs. 4.1 and 5.2 mm) and RD (10.3 vs. 2.5 and 3.6 h) but athe 382 significantly smaller I_{10} (9.5 vs. 15.5 and 12.7 mm·h⁻¹), I_{b10} (2.8 vs. 7.7 and 9.9 mm·h⁻¹), 383 I_{e10} (2.1 vs. 4.3 and 3.6 mm·h⁻¹), F_{10} (24.2 vs. 27.8 and 26.6 mg·m·s⁻¹), F_{b10} (15.4 vs. 19.7 384 and 21.7 mg·m·s⁻¹) and F_{e10} (13.4 vs. 17.3 and 16.6 mg·m·s⁻¹), the non-significantly 385 <u>smaller I_{e10} (2.1 vs. 4.3 and 3.6 mm·h⁻¹), F_{10} (24.2 vs. 27.8 and 26.6 mg·m·s⁻¹, and E (0.4)</u> 386 vs. 0.9 and 1.0), respectively) (Table 2). 387

In general, therainfall events were skewed in their distributionsskewedly distributed in 388 389 terms of RA-during the experimental period. The occurrences of events with a RA <2 mm dominated the experimental period (40.7%), but the events with RAsRA>20 mm were the 390 greatest contributor to the total RA (28.0%). However, a relatively equal distribution was 391 noted during events with single (17 events), double (11 events) and multiple (15 events) 392 rainfall-intensity peaks. In contrastComparatively, the multiple-intensity peak events had 393 significantly larger rainfall amounts, durations, intensities and raindrop momentums (Table 394 2). Therefore, grouping events in terms of rainfall intensity peak amounts was justified. 395

396 **3.2 Stemflow volume, intensity and temporal dynamics**

397 The<u>Inter-/intra-event</u> stemflow variability

Stemflow variables of C. korshinskii and S. psammophila showed great inter-event 398 399 variations during the experimental period (Fig. 3). C. korshinskii had larger SFV, SFI, SFI₁₀, FR, SFD, TLG and TLE ($\frac{1658226.6 \pm 46.4 \pm 320.9}{10.4 \pm 320.9}$ mL, $\frac{20.3 \pm 10.4517.5 \pm 82.1}{10.4 \pm 320.9}$ mL, $\frac{20.3 \pm 10.4517.5 \pm 82.1}{10.4 \pm 320.9}$ mL, $\frac{10.3 \pm 10.4517.5 \pm 82.1}{10.4 \pm 320.9}$ mL, $\frac{10.4517.5 \pm 82.1}{10.4 \pm 320.9}$ 400 2057.6±399.7 mm·h⁻¹, 130.7±8.2, 3.8±0.8 h, 66.2±10.6 min and 20.0±5.3 min, respectively) 401 but significantly smaller TLM (109.4±20.5 min) and slightly smaller SFI (4.7±1.5 mm·h⁻¹) 402 than those of S. psammophila ($\frac{1014.0\pm174172.1\pm34.5}{10.0\pm174172.1\pm34.5}$ mL, $\frac{16.9\pm8.8367.3\pm91.1}{10.0\pm100}$ mm·h⁻¹, 403 <u>1132.2±214.3 mm·h⁻¹, 101.6±10.4, 3.4±0.9 h</u>, 54.8±11.7 min, 13.5±17.2 min, and 404 120.5±22.1 min, 4.8±1.6 mm·h⁻¹, respectively) (Table 3). The positive TLG, TLEDuring 405 the 54 events, no negative values were observed for TLG and TLM but TLE. It indicated 406 that both species stemflow generally started, initiated and maximized and after rains started 407 408 for both species. However, stemflow might be ended before (negative TLE) and after (positive TLE) rains ceased stemflow later than the rains. 409

As shown in Fig. 4, stemflow was Stemflow well synchronized to rains with similar 410 411 intensity peak shapes, amounts and positions for the twoboth species. This result was These results were vividly demonstrated duringat representative events rains with different 412 intensity peak amounts and RAs, including the rainfall events on July 17, 2015 (Event A, 413 20.7 mm, Event A), on), July 29, 2015 (7.3 mm, Event B, 7.3 mm), and on September 10, 414 2015 (Event C, 13.3 mm, Event C). For these three events,) (Fig. 4). C. korshinskii had 415 larger RSFIs (2, FR_{100} (91.7, 76.1.8 and 2.1.94.0, respectively) than those of S. 416 psammophila (1.4, 0.932.8, 26.3 and 1.443.7, respectively). Comparatively, the RSFI) 417 during representative events. It indicated a comparatively greater ability of S. psammophila 418

419 fluctuated more dramatically around the value of 1. converging rains for *C. korshinskii*420 within event.

421 Stemflow variables varied between rainfall event categories (Table 3). For Event C in comparison to Events A and B, S. psammophila had significantly larger SFV (2469.0435.2 422 vs. 616.5102.6 and 907.0145.7 mL), SFD (8.23 vs. 1.2 and 3.4 h), TLM (235.8 vs. 64.3 and 423 93.4 min) and), FR (129.1 vs. 77.1 and 91.4), non-significantly larger TLE (20.8 vs. 17.1 424 and 8.6 min) but significantly smaller SFI ($\frac{2.4246.6}{2.4246.6}$ vs. $\frac{7.2648.1}{2.426.6}$ and $\frac{6.0421.5}{2.421.5}$ mm·h⁻¹) and 425 SFI₁₀ (8.8888.4 vs. 24.81672.7 and 24.51582.8 mm h^{-1}_{-1}), respectively). For Event C in 426 427 comparison to (Table 3). SFI decreased at events with increasing intensity peak amounts as shown at Events A-and B, C. The drop of SFI was offset by the decreasing I to some 428 extent (Table 2), which might partly explain the increasing trend of FR from Event A to C. 429 430 <u>C. korshinskii</u> shared similar <u>changing</u> trends for itsof stemflow variables between event categories with those of S. psammophila, except for the slightlynon-significantly smaller 431 TLE (18.5 vs. min) at Event C in contrast to TLE at Event A and B (22.3 and 18 and 18.7 432 433 min)).

434 Funnelling ratio and SFI (5.1 vs. 5.7 stemflow intensity negatively related with branch 435 size. *C. korshinskii* and 6.0*S. psammophila* had significantly greater FR, SFI, and SFI₁₀ at 436 the 5–10 mm-h⁻¹ branches than those at the larger branches (Table 4). For *C. korshinskii*, 437 FR decreased from 163.7±12.2 at the 5–10-mm branches to 97.7±9.2 at the 18–25-mm 438 branches, respectively). It was consistent with decreasing SFI (333.8–716.2 mm·h⁻¹) at the 439 corresponding BD categories (Table 4). As branch size increased, *S. psammophila* shared 440 similar decreasing trends of FR (44.2–212.0) and SFI (197.2–738.7 mm·h⁻¹), respectively.

441 **3.3 Relationships between stemflow variables and rainfall characteristics**

	-
442	Correspondence had been established between rainfall characteristics and stemflow
443	variables for C. korshinskii and S. psammophila (Fig. 5). These two species had similar
444	correspondence patterns- between rainfall characteristics and stemflow variables. As shown
445	in Fig. 5, <u>the</u> one-to-one correspondences were observed for SFV , SFD and TLE. The larger
446	(or smaller) SFV , SFD and TLE corresponded to the larger (or smaller) RA , RD and RI,
447	respectively. This result clearly demonstrated the dominant influences of RA , RD and RI
448	on SFV , SFD and TLE, respectively. Nevertheless, The one-to-more two correspondences
449	were was noted for TLM, TLG, SFISFD with RD and SFI $_{10}E$. The larger TLM and TLG
450	were, the(or smaller SFI and SFI10 were, and all) SFD corresponded to the larger (or
451	smaller) RD and smaller (or larger) E. RA had been identified as the dominant rainfall
452	characteristic affecting FR based on the analysis for 53 branches of C. korshinskii and 98
453	branches of S. psammophila at the same plots during the same experimental period (Yuan et
454	al., 2017). It seemed that event-based stemflow production (the volume, duration and
455	efficiency) were strongly influenced by rainfall characteristics at inter-event scale (the
456	rainfall amount and duration).
457	The one-to-more correspondences were observed for TLM, TLG, SFI and SFI10 (Fig.
458	5). The larger (or smaller) TLM corresponded to the smaller (or larger) rainfall
459	characteristics of I, I10, Ib10, Ie10, F, F10, Fb10 and Fe10. In contrast, the smaller TLM and

- 460 TLG<u>The same correspondences</u> were, applied to the larger SFI and SFI₁₀ were(or smaller)
- 461 <u>TLG</u>, and all corresponded to the smaller (or larger rainfall characteristics of I, I_{10} , I_{b10} , I_{e10} ,
- 462 F, F_{10} , F_{b10}) SFI and F_{e10} . This result indicated SFI₁₀. It seemed that the within-event

stemflow processes (SFI, SFI10, TLG and TLM) were strongly affected by rainfall 463 characteristics at intra-event scale (the rainfall intensity and raindrop momentum. The). 464 Therefore, these results indicated that rainfall characteristics influenced the stemflow 465 variables at the corresponding temporal scales. This influence occurred at the inter-event 466 scale between SFV and RA, FR and RA, SFD and RD, while this influence occurred and at 467 the intra-event scale for stemflow time lags (TLG and TLM) and intensities (SFI and SFI₁₀) 468 with rainfall intensity (I, I₁₀, I_{b10} and I_{e10}) and raindrop momentum (F, F₁₀, F_{b10} and F_{e10}). 469 470 The only exception of mismatched temporal sales was noted between TLE and RI for the 471 mismatched temporal sales. To identifyStepwise regression analysis identified the most influential rainfall 472 characteristics affecting stemflow intensities and time lags, stepwise regression-temporal 473 474 dynamics. RD was performed and indicated that the dominant rainfall characteristics affecting SFD. I_{10} significantly affected the TLM of the both shrub-species. For C. 475 korshinskii, I, I₁₀ and F were the most influential factors on SFI, SFI₁₀ and TLG, 476 477 respectively. However, for S. psammophila, F, F₁₀ and F_{b10} significantly affected SFI, SFI₁₀ and TLG, respectively. There The results of multiple regression analysises indicated that 478 there were linear relationships between SFI and I ($R^2=0.8574$, p<0.01) and SFI₁₀ and I₁₀ 479 $(R^2=0.9085, p=<0.01)$ for C. korshinskii and between SFD and RD for C. korshinskii 480 (R²=0.95, p<0.01) and S. psammophila (R²=0.92, p<0.01) (Fig. 6). Moreover, power 481 functional relations were found between SFI and F ($R^2=0.82$, p<0.01), SFI₁₀ and F₁₀ 482 $(R^2=0.90, p<0.01)$ (Fig. 6), TLG and F_{b10} ($R^2=0.55, p<0.01$) and TLM and I₁₀ ($R^2=0.40$, 483 p < 0.01) (Fig. 7) for S. psammophila, and TLG and F ($R^2=0.56$, p < 0.01) and TLM and I₁₀ 484

485 $(R^2=0.38, p<0.01)$ (Fig. 7) for *C. korshinskii*. However, there was no significant 486 quantitative relationship between TLE and RI for *C. korshinskii* ($R^2=0.005, p=0.28$) or *S.* 487 *psammophila* ($R^2=0.002, p=0.78$) (Fig. 7).

488 **4 Discussion**

489 **4.1 Stemflow intensity** and funnelling ratio

Stemflow intensity is generally greater than rainfall intensity forat different plant life 490 forms. The xerophytic shrubs of C. korshinskii and S. psammophila had larger average 491 stemflow intensities than the average rainfall intensity $(4.7\pm1517.5 \text{ and } 4.8\pm1.6367.3)$ 492 mm h^{-1} , respectively, vs. 4.5 ± 1.0 mm h^{-1}) in this study.). Broadleaf and coniferous species 493 (Quercus pubescens Willd. and Pinus sylvestris L., respectively) also have larger average 494 495 maximum stemflow intensities than the maximum rainfall intensity in north-eastern Spain 496 (Cayuela et al., 2018). The gap between stemflow and rainfall intensity intensities generally increased as the recording time intervals decreased. While recording at the 1-h intervals, 497 approximately 20-, 17-, 13- and 2.5-fold greater peak stemflow intensities had been 498 observed for trees of Cedar, Birch, Douglas Fir and Hemlock, respectively, at the coastal 499 British Columbia forest (Spencer and Meerveld, 2016). For C. korshinskii and S. 500 *psammophila*, in comparison to I_{10} (10.9±2.1 mm·h⁻¹) at 10-min intervals, the SFI₁₀ 501 $(20.3\pm10.42057.6 \text{ and } \frac{16.9\pm8.8}{132.2} \text{ mm} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}, \text{ respectively}) \text{ was } \frac{1.5 \text{ fold greater. When}}{1.5 \text{ fold greater. When}}$ 502 recorded at 5-min intervals, SFI₅ (1232 mm·h⁻¹) is as much as 15over 103.9-fold greater. 503 The recordings at 6-min interval indicated a 157-fold larger of stemflow intensity (18840 504 $mm \cdot h^{-1}$) than rainfall intensity (120 mm \cdot h^{-1}) in the open cyclone-prone tropical rainforest of 505 Brazil (Germer et al., 2010). with extremely high MAP of 6570 mm (Herwitz, 1986). While 506

calculating the dynamic time interval between neighbouring tips of the tipping bucket rain gauges<u>TBRG</u>, SFI_i (240<u>10816.2</u> mm·h⁻¹) was 3.3<u>150.2</u>-fold greater than the corresponding rainfall intensity (72 mm·h⁻¹). Therefore, stemflow recorded at a higher temporal resolution provided<u>might provide</u> more information into the dynamic nature of stemflow and real-time responses to rainfall characteristics within events.

512 Greater stemflow intensity than rainfall intensity is hydrologically significant inat terrestrial ecosystems. This scenario indicates the convergence of the canopy-intercepted 513 rains into the limited area around the trunk or branch bases within a certain time period. 514 515 The funnelling ratio, i.e., 8.0% and 3.5% of rains being directed to the trunk base only accounting for 0.3% and 0.4% of plot area in the open rainforest (Germer et al., 2010) and 516 undisturbed lowland tropical rainforest (Manfroi et al., 2004), respectively. Besides, FR, 517 518 which quantifies the efficiency of individual plants in capturing and delivering raindrops compared SFV with RA that would have been collected at the same area as the 519 basal area at an event scale (Siegert and Levia, 2014Herwitz, 1986), is commonly applied 520 521 to assess the convergence effect (Herwitz, 1986; Wang et al., 2013via stemflow volume, rainfall amount and basal area (Carlyle-Moses et al., 2010; Siegert and Levia, 2014; Fan et 522 al., 2015).; Yang et al., 2019). If the funnelling ratioFR is greater than 1, then more water is 523 collected at the trunk or branch base than at the clearings during incident rains. Both 524 methods successfully quantified the convergence effects of stemflow. However, the 525 process former provided a possibility to assess the convergence effect of stemflow it at high 526 527 temporal resolutions within events has still not been adequately studied event.

528 RSFI depicted the intra-event convergence effects of stemflow by comparing stemflow

 incident rains. We found that RSFI fluctuated around the value of 1 for both shrub species (Fig. 4). The RSFI was generally greater than 1 for <i>C. korshinskii</i>, whereas the RSFI for <i>S</i> <i>psammophila</i> fluctuated more dramatically. This result indicated that comparatively more rainwater was delivered within a short period to the branch base of <i>C. korshinskii</i> during the rain process. This result agreed with the results of reports related to the more efficien stemflow production of <i>C. korshinskii</i> at the event seale, as expressed by its larged stemflow productivity (1.95-mL-g⁻¹) and funnelling ratio (173.3) than those of <i>S</i> <i>psammophila</i> (1.19 mL-g⁻¹ and 69.3, respectively) (Yuan et al., 2017). Therefore, RSF demonstrated the process-based estimation of stemflow efficiency. Carlyle-Moses et al (2018) have addressed the importance of studying stemflow convergence effects by employing the funnelling ratio-at the stand scale. We highly recommended that future studies evaluate convergence effects during rain events by combining the results of the funnelling ratio and RSFI. This study established the quantitative connection between FR and stemflow intensity As per Equation 14 and the average stemflow and rainfall intensities listed at Table 2 and 3 FR could be estimated to be 115.0 and 81.6 for <i>C. korshinskii</i> and <i>S. psammophila</i> calculation based on SFV and RA (Herwitz, 1986). As branch size increased, FR of C <i>korshinskii</i> decreased from 163.7 at the 5–10-mm branches to 97.7 at the 18–25-branches 		
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549 <i>korshinskii</i> decreased from 163.7 at the 5–10-mm branches to 97.7 at the 18–25-branches	547	2017) and 124.9 and 78.2 (Yang et al., 2019) for the two species by applying the traditional
	548	calculation based on SFV and RA (Herwitz, 1986). As branch size increased, FR of C.
550 <u>The decreasing trend of FR of <i>S. psammophila</i> were also noted in the range of 44.2–212.0</u>	549	korshinskii decreased from 163.7 at the 5-10-mm branches to 97.7 at the 18-25-branches.
	550	The decreasing trend of FR of S. psammophila were also noted in the range of 44.2–212.0

551	with increasing BD. The negative relation between BD and FR agreed with the reports for		
552	trees and babassu palms in an open tropical rainforest in Brazil (Germer et al., 2010), the		
553	mixed-species coastal forest at British Columbia of Canada (Spencer and Meerveld, 2016),		
554	for trees (Pinus tabuliformis and Armeniaca vulgaris) and shrubs (C. korshinskii and S.		
555	psammophila) on the Loess Plateau of China (Yang et al., 2019). It might be partly		
556	explained by the decreasing stemflow intensities with increasing branch size as per		
557	Equation 14. Our results found that SFI decreased from 716.2 to 333.8 for C. korshinskii,		
558	and 738.7 to 197.2 for S. psammophila as branch size increased (Table 4). It well justified		
559	the importance of branch size on stemflow intensity. Associated with the infiltration rate,		
560	the stemflow-induced hydrological process might be strongly affected, i.e., soil moisture		
561	recharge, Hortonian overland flow (Herwitz, 1986), saturation overland flow (Germer et al.,		
562	2010), soil erosion (Liang et al., 2011), nutrient leaching (Corti et al., 2019), etc. Therefore,		
563	more attention should be paid to tree/branch size and size-related stand age at future studies		
564	while modeling the stemflow-induced terrestrial hydrological fluxes.		
565	The importance had been addressed to study the funnelling ratio at the stand scale		
566	(Carlyle-Moses et al., 2018); however, it had not been adequately studied at the intra-event		
567	scale. This study calculated the average funnelling ratio at the event base and the 100-s		
568	intervals after rain began. Thus, the convergence effect of stemflow could be better		
569	understood at the inter-/intra-event scales. Our results found that FR100 were over 1.8-fold		
570	greater than FR of C. korshinskii (282.7 vs. 130.7) and S. psammophila (203.4 vs. 101.6),		
571	respectively. It indicated that funnelling ratio fluctuated dramatically within event.		
572	Therefore, computing FR at event and ignoring it at high temporal resolutions within event		

573 <u>might underestimate the eco-hydrological significance of stemflow.</u>

In general, stemflow intensity highly related to funnelling ratio. For addressing its 574 eco-hydrological importance, stemflow intensity should be precisely defined. It had been 575 expressed as the stemflow volume per basal area of branches/trunks per unit time with the 576 unit of mm·h⁻¹ (Herwitz, 1986; Spencer and Meerveld, 2016) and mm·5 min⁻¹ (Cayuela et 577 al., 2018). However, stemflow intensity had also been described as stemflow volume per 578 unit time with the unit of L·week⁻¹ (Schimmack et al., 1993) and L·h⁻¹ (Liang et al., 2011; 579 Germer et al., 2013). We highly recommended the former definition. Because of its highly 580 581 spatial-related attribution (Herwitz, 1986; Liang et al., 2011; 2014), the eco-hydrological significance of stemflow would be underestimated by ignoring the basal area, over which 582 stemflow was received. Moreover, as per this definition, stemflow intensity quantitively 583 584 connected with funnelling ratio via Equation 14. Thus, funnelling ratio could be used to assess the convergence effect of stemflow at both inter- and intra-event scales. 585

586 **4.2 Stemflow temporal dynamics**

587 Stemflow was well synchronized to the rains. This result It agreed with those the report of Levia et al. (2010), who demonstrated a marked synchronicity between stemflow 588 volumeSFV and RA in 5-min intervals for Fagus. grandifolia. The duration and time lags 589 to rains were critical to describe stemflow temporal dynamics. Our results indicated that in 590 591 comparison to S. psammophila, C. korshinskii takes a longer time to initiate (66.2 vs. 54.8 min), end (20.0 vs. 13.5 min) and produce stemflow (3.8 vs. 3.4 h) but a shorter time to 592 593 maximize stemflow (109.4 vs. 120.5 min, respectively). Moreover, the TLMs of both-shrub species were in the range of the TLMs for S. psammophila (20-210 min) in the Mu Us 594

595 desert of China (Yang, 2010).

Varying TLGs were documented for different species. Approximately 15 min, 1 h and 596 597 1.5 h arewere needed to initiate the stemflow of palms (Germer, 2010), pine trees and oak trees (Cayuela et al., 2018), respectively. In addition, an almost instantaneous start of 598 599 stemflow hashad also been observed as rain began for Quercus rubra (Durocher, 1990), Fagus grandifolia and Liriodendron tulipifera (Levia et al., 2010). In contrastCompared to 600 the positive TLE dominating xerophytic shrubs, the TLE greatly varies with tree 601 species. TLE iswas as much as 48 h for Douglas fir, oak and redwood in California, USA 602 603 (Reid and Levia, 2009), and almost 11 h for palm trees in Brazil (Germer, 2010). However, for sweet chestnut and oak, almost no stemflow continuescontinued when rains 604 ceaseceased in Bristol, England (Durocher, 1990). These scenarios might occur due to the 605 606 sponge effect of the canopy surface (Germer, 2010), which buffersbuffered stemflow generation, maximization and cessation before saturation. These conclusions were 607 consistent with the smaller stemflow intensities of C. korshinskii and S. psammophila than 608 609 the rainfall intensity when rain began, as part of the rains was used to wet canopies (Fig. 4). The hydrophobic bark traits benefitbenefited stemflow initiation with the limited time lags 610 to rains. In contrast, the hydrophilic bark traits arewere conducive for continuing stemflow 611 after rain stopsceased, which keepkept the preferential flow paths wetter for longer time 612 613 periods (Levia and Germer, 2015). As a result, it takestook time to transfer intercepted rains from the leaf, branch and trunk to the base. This process strongly affects the stemflow 614 615 volume, intensity and loss as evaporation.

616

The dynamics of intra-event rainfall intensity complicates complicated the stemflow

time lags to rains. A 1-h lag to begin and stop stemflow with the beginning and ending of 617 rains washad been observed for ashe juniper trees during high-intensity events, but no 618 619 stemflow was generated at low-intensity storms (Owens et al., 2006). Rainfall intensity was an important dynamic rainfall characteristic affecting stemflow volume. Owens et al. (2006) 620 found the most significant difference between various rainfall intensities located in the 621 stemflow patterns other than throughfall and interception loss. During events with a 622 front-positioned, single rainfall-intensity peak, S. psammophila maximized stemflow in a 623 shorter time than C. korshinskii did in the Mu Us desert (30 and 50 min) (Yang, 2010). 624 625 During these events, a smaller SFD (1.5 h) and a larger TLE (55.8 min) and SFI (11.5 mm·h⁻¹) were also observed for C. korshinskii than for S. psammophila in this study. This 626 result These results highlighted the amounts and occurrence time of rainfall-intensity peak 627 628 affecting the stemflow process, which was consistent with the finding of Dunkerley (20142014b). 629

Raindrops presented rainfall characteristics at finer temporal-spatial scales. They 630 631 arewere usually ignored because rains were generally regarded as a continuum rather than a 632 discrete process consisting of individual raindrops of various sizes, velocities, inclination angles and kinetic energies. Raindrops hit the canopy surface and ereatecreated splashes at 633 different canopy layers (Bassette and Bussière, 2008; Li et al., 2016). This process 634 acceleratesaccelerated canopy wetting and increases theincreased water supply for 635 stemflow production. Therefore, raindrop momentum was introduced in this study to 636 represent the comprehensive effects of raindrop attributes. Our results indicated that 637 raindrop momentum was sensitive to predicting the variations in stemflow intensity and 638

temporal dynamics with significant linear or power functional relations (Figs. 6 and 7). 639 Compared with the importance of rainfall intensity for C. korshinskii, raindrop momentum 640 more significantly affected the stemflow process of S. psammophila. This result might be 641 related to the larger canopy size and height of S. psammophila (21.4 ± 5.2 m² and 3.5 ± 0.2 m) 642 than that of C. korshinskii (5.1±0.3 m² and 2.1±0.2 m, respectively). Thus, moreMore 643 layers arewere available within canopies of S. psammophila to intercept the splashes 644 created by raindrop striking (Bassette and Bussière, 2008; Li et al., 2016), thus shortening 645 the paths and having more water supply for stemflow production. 646

647 4.3 Temporal-dependent influenceinfluences of rainfall characteristics on stemflow 648 variability

This study discussed stemflow variables and rainfall characteristics at different 649 650 temporal scales. Stemflow variables were further categorized into volume, intensity and temporal dynamics. The last two variables depicted the stemflow process with a high 651 temporal resolution. The influences of rainfall characteristics were explored at a fine 652 653 temporal scale by introducing raindrop momentum, rainfall-intensity peak amounts and inter-/intra-event positionsscales. We found that rainfall characteristics affected stemflow 654 variables at the corresponding temporal scales. RA and RD controlled SFV, FR and SFD, 655 respectively, at the inter-event scale. However, stemflow intensity (e.g., SFI and SFI₁₀) and 656 temporal dynamics (e.g., TLG and TLM) were strongly influenced by rainfall intensity 657 (e.g., I, I₁₀ and I_{b10}) and raindrop momentum (e.g., F, F₁₀ and F_{b10}) at the intra-event scales. 658 These results were verified by the well-fitting linear or power functional equations among 659 them (Figs. 6 and 7). Furthermore, the influences of rainfall intensity and raindrop 660

661 momentum on stemflow process were species-specific. In contrast to the significance of 662 rainfall intensity on the stemflow process of *C. korshinskii*, raindrop momentum imposed a 663 greater influence on the stemflow process of *S. psammophila.*–

In general, rainfall characteristics had temporal-dependent influences on the 664 corresponding stemflow variables. The only exception was found between TLE and RI. RI 665 tightly corresponded to TLE for both species tested by the MCA, but there was no 666 significant quantitative relationship between them ($R^2=0.005$, p=0.28 for C. korshinskii, 667 and $R^2=0.002$, p=0.78 for S. psammophila). This result might be related to the mismatched 668 temporal scales between TLE and RI. TLE represented stemflow temporal dynamics at the 669 intra-event scale, while RI was the interval times between neighbouring rains at the 670 inter-event scale. The mismatched temporal scales might also partly explain the 671 672 long-standing debates on the controversial positive, negative and even no significant influences of rainfall intensity (depicting raining process at 5 min, 10 min, 60 min, etc.) on 673 event-based stemflow volume (Owens et al., 2006; André et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2015).-674

675 **5 Conclusions**

Stemflow intensity and temporal dynamics are important in depicting the stemflow process and its interactions with rainfall characteristics within events. We categorized stemflow variables into the volume, intensity, funnelling ratio and temporal dynamics, thus to representing the stemflow yield, efficiency and process. Funnelling ratio had been calculated as the ratio between stemflow and rainfall intensities, which enabled to assess the convergence of stemflow at different temporal the inter-/intra-event scales. The influences of rainfall characteristicsOver 1.8-fold greater FR₁₀₀ were quantifiednoted than

FR at a fine temporal scale representative events for C. korshinskii and S. psammophila, 683 respectively. FR decreased with increasing branch size of both species. It could be partly 684 explained by introducing SFI_i, RSFI, raindrop momentum, rainfall-intensity peak amounts 685 and intra-event positions. The results indicated that the decreasing trends of SFI as branch 686 size increased. The rainfall characteristics had temporal-dependent influences on stemflow 687 variables. RA and RD controlled SFV, FR and SFD at the inter-event scale. Rainfall 688 intensity and raindrop momentum significantly affected stemflow intensity and time lags to 689 rains at the intra-event scale except for TLE. Although there was tight correspondence 690 between TLE and RI by MCA, there was no significant quantitative relationship ($R^2 < 0.005$, 691 p>0.28) due to the mismatched temporal scale between them. The eco-hydrological 692 significance of stemflow might be underestimated by ignoring stemflow production at high 693 694 temporal resolutions within event. These findings advance our understanding of the stemflow process and its influential mechanism and help model the critical process-based 695 hydrological fluxes of terrestrial ecosystems. 696

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698 *Data availability.* The data collected in this study are available upon request to the authors.699

Author contributions. GYG and CY set up the research goals and designed field experiments. CY measured and analyzed the data. GYG and BJF provided the financial support for the experiments, and supervised the execution. CY created the figures and wrote the original draft. GYG, BJF, DMH, XWD and XHW reviewed and edited the draft in serval rounds of revision. 705

706 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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720 Appendix

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21		List of symbols	
	Abbreviation	Descriptions	Unit
	<u>a.s.l.</u>	above sea level	<u>NA</u>
	BA	Branch angle	<u> </u>
	<u>BBA</u>	Branch basal area	<u>mm²</u>
	<u>BD</u>	Branch diameter	<u>mm</u>
	<u>BL</u>	Branch length	<u>cm</u>
	<u>D</u>	Diameter of rain drop	<u>mm</u>
	<u>e</u> s	Saturation vapor pressure	<u>kPa</u>
	<u>E</u>	Evaporation coefficient	unitless
	<u>F</u>	Average raindrop momentum in the vertical direction of incident event	$\underline{\mathrm{mg}}\cdot \mathrm{m}\cdot \mathrm{s}^{-1}$
	<u>F</u> 0	Average raindrop momentum of incident event	$\underline{mg} \cdot \underline{m} \cdot \underline{s}^{-1}$

<u>F₁₀</u>	The 10-min maximum raindrop momentum	$\underline{\mathrm{mg}}\cdot\underline{\mathrm{m}}\cdot\mathrm{s}^{-1}$
<u>F_{b10}</u>	Average raindrop momentum at the first 10 min	$\underline{mg} \cdot \underline{m} \cdot \underline{s}^{-1}$
<u>Fe10</u>	Average raindrop momentum at the last 10 min	$\underline{\mathrm{mg}}\cdot \mathrm{m}\cdot \mathrm{s}^{-1}$
<u>FR</u>	Average funnelling ratio of incident event	unitless
<u>FR</u> 100	Funnelling ratio at the 100-s intervals after rain begins	<u>unitless</u>
<u>H</u>	Air relative humidity	<u>%</u>
Ī	Average rainfall intensity of incident event	$\underline{\mathrm{mm}}\cdot \mathrm{h}^{-1}$
<u>I</u> ₁₀	The 10-min maximum rainfall intensity	$\underline{\mathrm{mm}} \cdot \mathrm{h}^{-1}$
<u>I</u> <u>b10</u>	Average rainfall intensity at the first 10-min of incident event	$\underline{\mathrm{mm}}\cdot\mathrm{h}^{-1}$
<u>I_{e10}</u>	Average rainfall intensity at the last 10-min of incident event	$\underline{\mathrm{mm}}\cdot\mathbf{h}^{-1}$
<u>IW</u> A	The adjusted inflow water at TBRG	<u>mm</u>
<u>IW_R</u>	The recorded inflow water at TBRG	<u>mm</u>
LA	Leaf area of individual branch	<u>cm²</u>
MAP	Mean annual precipitation	<u>mm</u>
<u>MCA</u>	Multiple correspondence analysis	<u>NA</u>
NA	Not applicable	NA
<u>p</u>	Level of significance	NA
\underline{R}^2	Coefficient of determination	NA
<u>RA</u>	Rainfall amount	<u>mm</u>
<u>RD</u>	Rainfall duration	<u>h</u>
<u>RI</u>	Rainfall interval	<u>h</u>
<u>SE</u>	Standard error	NA
<u>SFD</u>	Stemflow duration from its beginning to ending	<u>h</u>
<u>SFI</u>	Average stemflow intensity of incident event	$\underline{\mathrm{mm}} \cdot \mathrm{h}^{-1}$
SFI ₁₀	The 10-min maximum stemflow intensity of incident event	$\overline{\mathrm{mm}\cdot\mathrm{h}^{-1}}$
SFIi	Instantaneous stemflow intensity	$\underline{\mathrm{mm}} \cdot \mathrm{h}^{-1}$
<u>SF</u> _{RG}	Stemflow depth recorded by TBRG	mm
SFV	Stemflow volume	mL
<u>t</u> i	Time intervals between neighboring tips	<u>h</u>
T	Air temperature	°C
TBRG	<u>Tipping bucket rain gauge</u>	NA
TLE	Time lag of stemflow ending to rainfall ceasing	min
TLG	Time lag of stemflow generation to rainfall beginning	min
TLM	Time lag of stemflow maximization to rainfall beginning	min
V	Terminal velocity of rain drop	$\underline{\mathbf{m}}\cdot\mathbf{s}^{-1}$
VPD	Vapor pressure deficit	kPa
WS	Wind speed	$\overline{\mathbf{m}}\cdot\mathbf{s}^{-1}$
ρ	Density of freshwater at standard atmospheric pressure and 20°C	g·cm ⁻³
<u>θ</u>	Inclination angle of rain drop	°

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Shrub species	BD categories (mm)	Amount <u>Branch</u> amount	BD (mm)	BL (cm)	BA (°)	LA (cm ²)
	5–10	2	6.6	131	61	837.1
	10–15	2	13.1	168	43	2577.3
C. korshinskii	15–18	2	17.8	206	72	4243.1
	18–25	1	22.1	242	50	6394.7
	>25	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
	5–10	2	7.5	248	69	626.3
	10–15	2	13.2	343	80	1683.5
S. psammophila	15–18	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
	18–25	2	21.8	286	76	3468.3
	>25	1	31.3	356	60	7513.7

942 Table 1. Branch morphologies of C. korshinskii and S. psammophila for stemflow recording.

943 Notes: BD, BL and BA are branch basal diameter, length and inclination angle, respectively-; LA is leaf area

944 of individual branches; NA means not applicable.-

Indicators	Event A	Event B	Event C	Others	Average
Event amount	<u>17</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>15</u>	<u>11</u>	<u>13.5±1.5</u>
RA (mm)	4.1 <u>ab</u>	5.2 <u>b</u>	11.7 <u>c</u>	0.6 <u>a</u>	5.4 ± 0.9
RD (h)	2.5 <u>a</u>	3.6 <u>a</u>	10.3 <u>b</u>	2.2 <u>a</u>	4.7 ± 0.8
RI (h)	48.5 <u>ab</u>	70.5 <u>b</u>	57.3 <u>ab</u>	26.1 <u>a</u>	50.6 ± 6.1
I (mm·h ⁻¹)	5.6 <u>a</u>	5.5 <u>a</u>	4.6 <u>a</u>	2.2 <u>b</u>	4.5 ± 1.0
$I_{10} (mm \cdot h^{-1})$	15.5 <u>a</u>	12.7 <u>ab</u>	9.5 <u>b</u>	6.0 <u>c</u>	10.9 ± 2.1
$I_{b10} (mm \cdot h^{-1})$	7.7 <u>a</u>	9.9 <u>a</u>	2.8 <u>b</u>	1.6 <u>b</u>	5.5 ± 1.4
$I_{e10} (mm \cdot h^{-1})$	4.3 <u>a</u>	3.6 <u>a</u>	2.1 <u>ab</u>	1.2 <u>b</u>	2.8 ± 0.7
$F(mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1})$	17.1 <u>a</u>	17.6 <u>a</u>	17.2 <u>a</u>	12.5 <u>b</u>	16.1 ± 1.2
$F_{10} (mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1})$	27.8 <u>a</u>	26.6 <u>a</u>	24.2 <u>ab</u>	21 <u>.0 b</u>	24.9 ± 1.4
$F_{b10} (mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1})$	19.7 <u>ab</u>	21.7 <u>a</u>	15.4 <u>b</u>	16.9 <u>b</u>	18.4 ± 1.4
$F_{e10} (mg \cdot m \cdot s^{-1})$	17.3 <u>a</u>	16.6 <u>a</u>	13.4 <u>b</u>	16.8 <u>a</u>	16.0 ± 1.0
<u>E (unitless)</u>	<u>0.9 ab</u>	<u>1.0 ab</u>	<u>0.4 a</u>	<u>1.7 b</u>	$\underline{0.9\pm0.2}$

945 **Table 2.** Rainfall characteristics during events with different intensity peak amounts.

946 Note: Event A, Event B and Event C are events with the single, double and multiple rainfall intensity 947 peaks, respectively, and; Others are the events that excluded from the categorization-; RA-is the rainfall 948 amount., RD and RI are rainfall amount, duration and interval, respectively-; I and I10 are the average and 949 10-min maximum rainfall intensity intensities, respectively: Ib10 and Ie10 are the average rainfall 950 intensity intensities in 10 min after rain beginning begins and before rain endingends, respectively.; F and F₁₀ are the average and 10-min maximum raindrop momentum momentums, respectively.; F_{b10} and F_{e10} 951 952 are the average raindrop momentummomentums in 10 min after rain beginningbegins and before rain 953 endingends, respectively ..; E is evaporation coefficient; Different letters indicate significant differences 954 of rainfall characteristics between event categories ($p \le 0.05$) (rows at the table).

955 Table 3. Stemflow variables of C. korshinskii and S. psammophila during rainfall events

Species	Stemflow	Event A	Event B	Event C	Others	Average
	SFV (mL)	93 4 <u>134</u> .1_	<u>1552.5</u> 203.	3719.7<u>560.</u>	<u>67.37.6</u>	<u>1658226.6 ±</u>
	SFI (mm \cdot h ⁻¹)	<u>5.7672.9</u>	6.0<u>552.4 b</u>	<u>5.1527.0 b</u>	1.9<u>317.8</u>	4.7 ± 1 <u>517</u> .5_
	$SFI_{10} (mm \cdot h^{-1})$	30.2 2849.	26.4 2399.3	<u>15.31809.1</u>	9.1<u>1173.</u>	20.3 ±
	FR (unitless)	<u>109.4 a</u>	<u>146.6 b</u>	<u>137.9 b</u>	<u>128.9 ab</u>	$\underline{130.7\pm8.2}$
C. korshinskii	TLG (min)	67.3 <u>ab</u>	56.2 <u>a</u>	67.0 <u>ab</u>	74.2 <u>b</u>	66.2 ± 10.6
	TLM (min)	<u>81.1 a</u>	<u>75.5 a</u>	<u>202.1 b</u>	<u>78.8 a</u>	$\underline{109.4\pm20.5}$
	TLE (min)	22.3 <u>a</u>	18.7 <u>b</u>	18.5 <u>b</u>	20.6 <u>a</u>	20.0 ± 5.3
	TLM (min)	81.1	75.5	202.1	78.8	$\frac{109.4 \pm 20.5}{20.5}$
	SFD (h)	1.4 <u>a</u>	3.1 <u>a</u>	9.1 <u>b</u>	1.4 <u>a</u>	3.8 ± 0.8
	SFV (mL)	616.5<u>102.</u>	907.0<u>145.7</u>	2469.0<u>435.</u>	63. 4 <u>.7 с</u>	$\frac{1014.0 \pm}{1014.0 \pm}$
	SFI (mm \cdot h ⁻¹)	7.2<u>648.1</u>	6.0<u>421.5 b</u>	2.4 246.6 с	3.4<u>153.2</u>	4.8 ± 367.3 ±
	$SFI_{10} (mm \cdot h^{-1})$	24.8<u>1672.</u>	24.5<u>1582.8</u>	8.8<u>888.4 b</u>	9.4<u>384.7</u>	16.9 ±
G	FR (unitless)	<u>77.1 a</u>	<u>91.4 a</u>	<u>129.1 b</u>	<u>101.6 ab</u>	$\underline{101.6\pm10.4}$
<i>S</i> .	TLG (min)	84.9 <u>a</u>	46.5 <u>b</u>	56.1 <u>b</u>	31.5 <u>b</u>	54.8 ± 11.7
psammophila	TLE (min)	17.1	8.6	20.8	7.3	$\frac{13.5 \pm 17.2}{17.2}$
	TLM (min)	64.3 <u>a</u>	93.4 <u>a</u>	235.8 <u>b</u>	88.4 <u>a</u>	120.5 ± 22.1
	TLE (min)	<u>17.1 a</u>	<u>8.6 b</u>	<u>20.8 a</u>	<u>7.3 b</u>	13.5 ± 17.2
	SFD (h)	1.2 <u>a</u>	3.4 <u>a</u>	8.3 <u>b</u>	0.7 <u>a</u>	3.4 ± 0.9

956 with different intensity peak amounts.

957 Note: Event A, Event B and Event C are events with the single, double and multiple rainfall intensity 958 peaks, respectively, and; Others are the events that excluded from the categorization-; SFV is stemflow volume; SFI and SFI10 are the average and 10-min maximum stemflow intensities at incident rains, 959 respectively; FR is funnelling ratio of stemflow at incident rains; TLG and TLM are the-time lags of 960 stemflow generating and maximizing toafter rains begin of rainfall, respectively .; TLE is the time lag of 961 962 stemflow ending to cease of rainfall.after rain ceases; SFD is the stemflow duration. SFV is the stemflow volume. SFI is the average ; Different letters indicate significant differences of stemflow variables 963 964 between event categories (p < 0.05) (rows at the table).

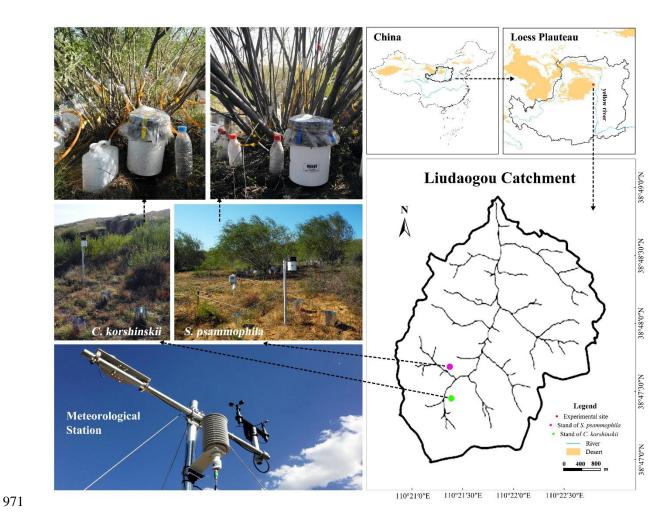
965 Table 4. Comparisons of stemflow intensity. SFI10 is and funnelling ratio at different basal

AVG

966 diameter categories. Species and BD categories (mm) stemflow variables 5-10 10-15 15-18 18-25 <u>>25</u> NA <u>C.</u> <u>FR</u> <u>163.7±12.2a</u> 136±10.9b 119.5±13.0b <u>97.7±9.2b</u> <u>131±8.2</u> <u>SFI</u> <u>korshinskii</u> <u>716.2±118.7a</u> 552.5±90.3b 619±103.3b 333.8±45.8b <u>NA</u> 553.9±82.1 <u>S.</u> <u>FR</u> <u>54.9±4.2b</u> <u>212±17.4a</u> <u>84±6.4b</u> <u>NA</u> 44.2±3.0b 100.6±7.9 <u>psammophila</u> <u>372.2±79.4</u> <u>SFI</u> <u>738.7±160.9a</u> <u>360.7±82.7a</u> NA <u>197.2±44.9b</u> 209.9±44.5b

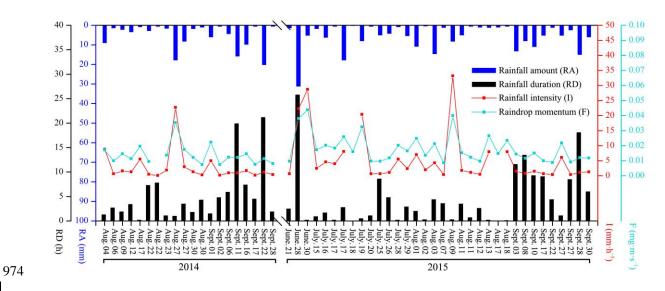
967 Note: SFI and FR are the maximumaverage stemflow intensity in 10 min.

968 and funnelling ratio at incident rains, respectively; BD is branch basal diameter (mm); NA means not applicable;
969 Different letters indicate significant differences of stemflow variables between event categories (p<0.05) (rows
970 at the table).

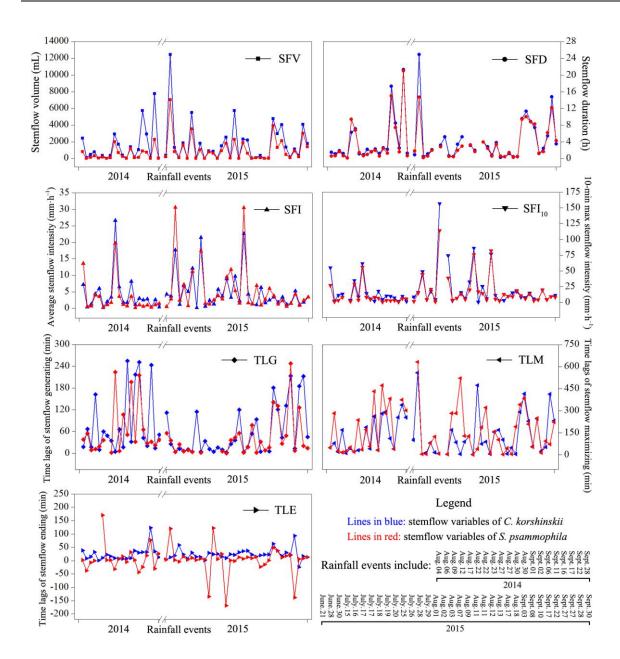


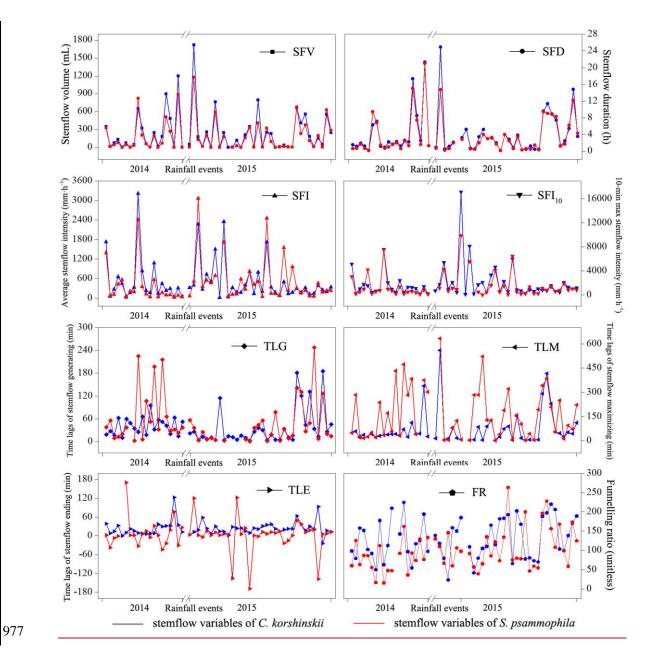
972 Figure 1. Locations and experimental settings in the plots of C. korshinskii and S.

973 psammophila.-

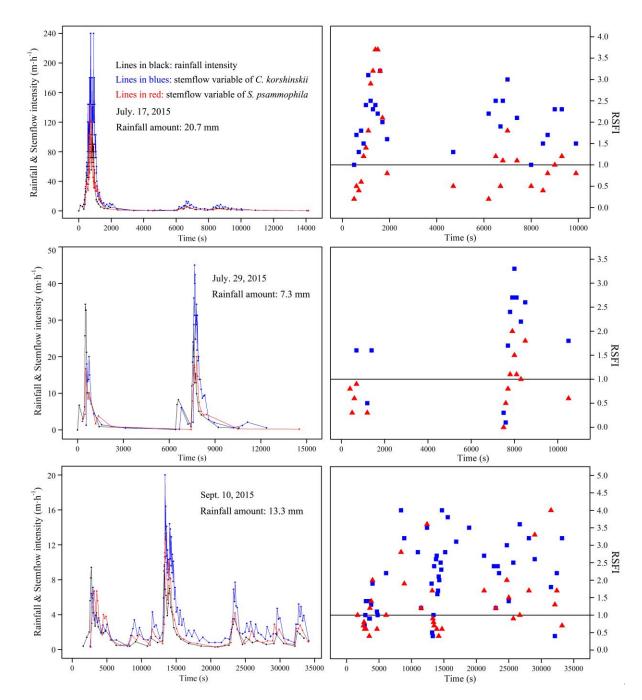


975 Figure 2. Inter-event variations in rainfall characteristics during the experimental period.-





978 Figure 3. Inter-event variations in stemflow variables of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*979 during the experimental period.-



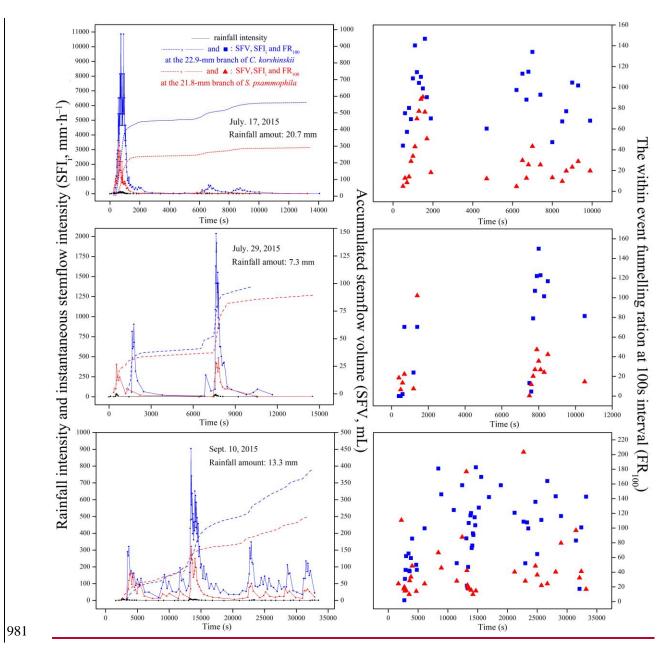
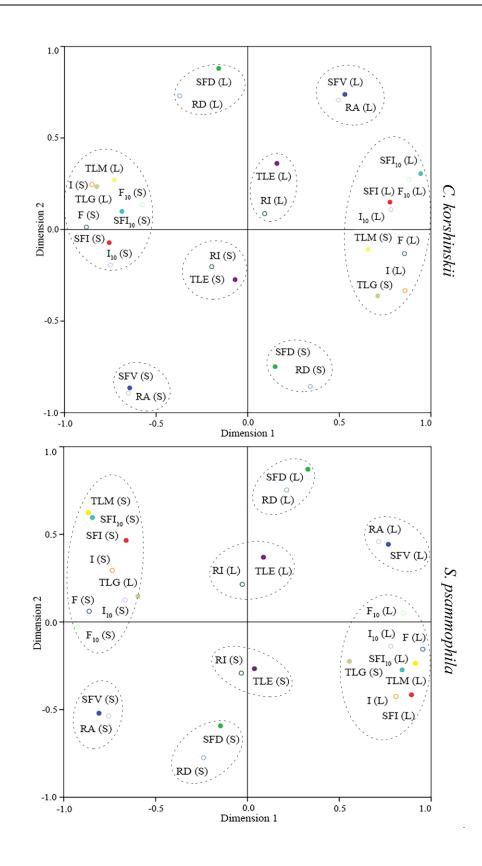


Figure 4. Stemflow synchronicity of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* to rains during
representative events with different rainfall-intensity peaks. peak amounts.



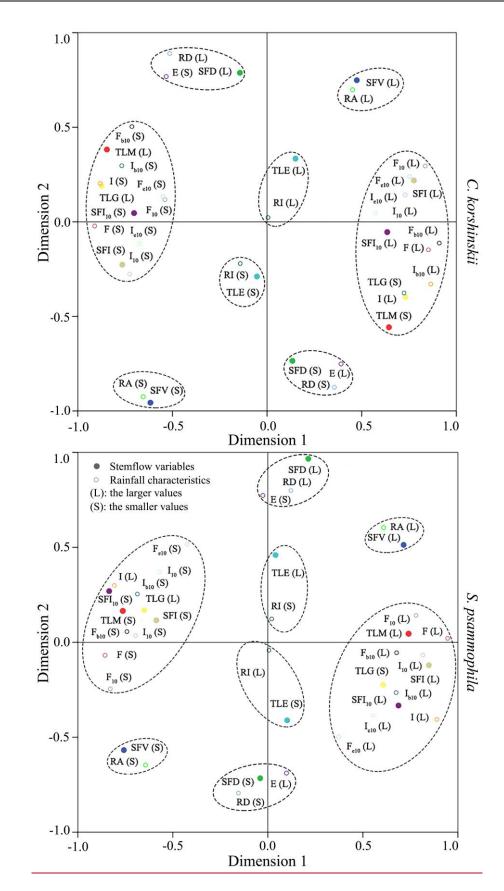
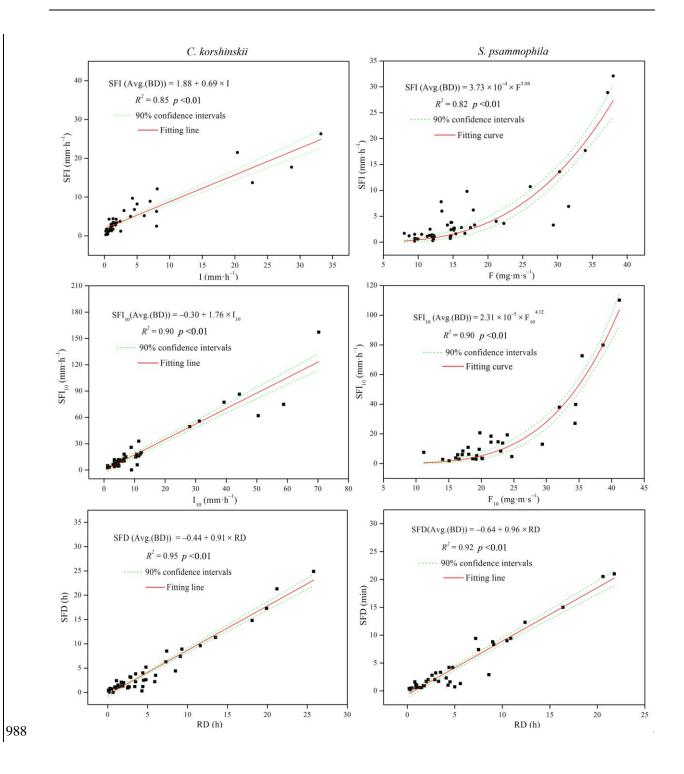
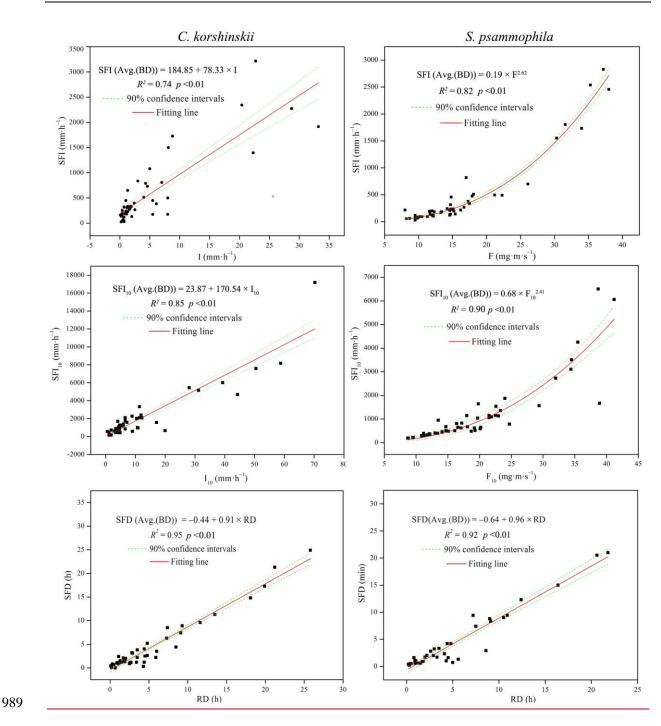


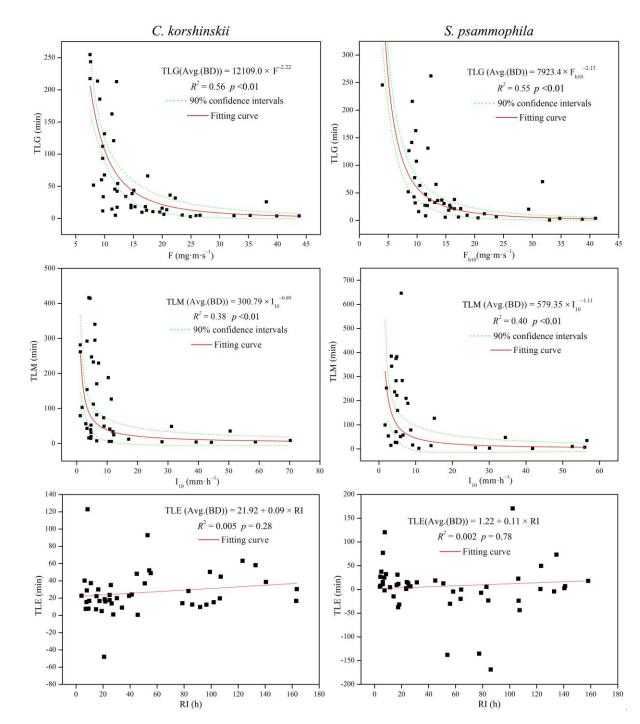
Figure 5. Correspondence <u>mapmaps</u> of stemflow variables with rainfall characteristics for

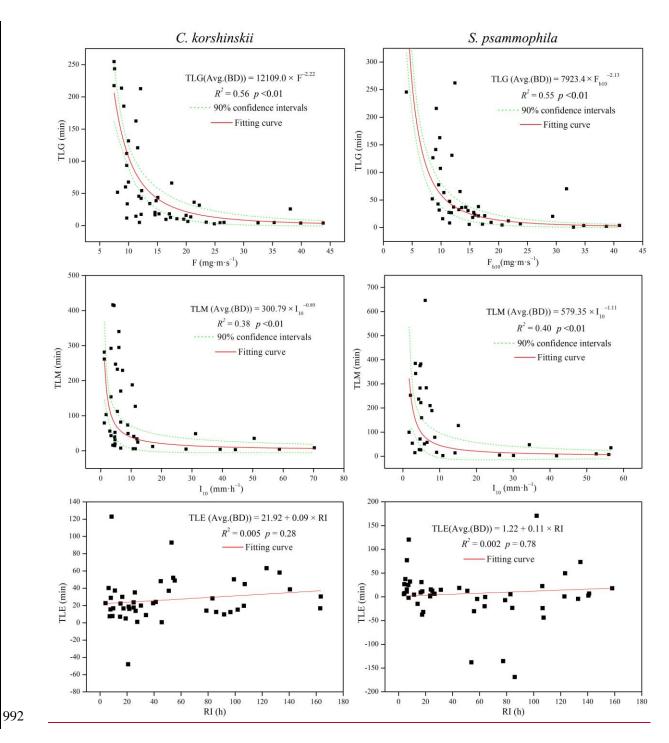
⁹⁸⁷ C. korshinskii and S. psammophila.-





990 Figure 6. Relationships of stemflow intensity and duration with rainfall characteristics.-





993 Figure 7. Relationships of stemflow time lags with rainfall characteristics.