



1 **Temporal-dependent effects of rainfall characteristics on**
2 **inter-/intra-event stemflow variability in two xerophytic shrubs**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Stemflow is important for recharging root-zone soil moisture in arid regions. Previous
20 studies have generally focused on stemflow volume, efficiency and influential factors but
21 have failed to depict temporal stemflow processes and quantify their relationships with
22 rainfall characteristics within events, particularly for xerophytic shrubs. Here, we measured
23 the stemflow volume, intensity, duration and time lags to rain events of two xerophytic
24 shrub species (*Caragana korshinskii* and *Salix psammophila*) and rainfall characteristics



25 for 54 events in the Liudaogou catchment of the Loess Plateau, China, during the
26 2014-2015 rainy seasons. The results indicated that stemflow dynamics were well
27 synchronized to rainfall processes. The stemflows of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*
28 had larger average intensities (4.7 ± 1.5 and 4.8 ± 1.6 $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, respectively) than that of rain
29 at the event scale (4.5 ± 1.0 $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$), and the stemflows were even more intense (20.3 ± 10.4
30 and 16.9 ± 8.8 $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$, respectively) than that of rain at 10-min intervals (10.9 ± 2.1 $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$).
31 The average stemflow durations of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* (3.8 ± 0.8 and 3.4 ± 0.9
32 h, respectively) were shorter than the rainfall duration (4.7 ± 0.8 h). Tested by a multiple
33 correspondence analysis and stepwise regression, rainfall amount and duration controlled
34 stemflow volume and duration, respectively, at the event scale by linear relationships
35 ($p<0.01$). Rainfall intensity and raindrop momentum controlled stemflow intensity and time
36 lags for both species at the intra-event scale by linear or power relationships ($p<0.01$).
37 Rainfall intensity was the key factor for the stemflow process of *C. korshinskii*, whereas
38 raindrop momentum had the greatest influence on the stemflow process of *S. psammophila*.
39 Rainfall characteristics had temporal-dependent influences on corresponding stemflow
40 variables, and the influence also depended on specific species.

41

42 **1 Introduction**

43 Stemflow directs intercepted rains from the canopy to the trunk base. The
44 funnel-shaped canopy and underground preferential paths, i.e., roots, worm paths and soil
45 macropores, converge rains to recharge the root-zone moisture (Johnson and Lehmann,
46 2006; Li et al., 2008). Stemflow is important to concentrate water (Levia and Germer,



47 2015), nutrients (Dawoe et al., 2018), pathogens (Garbelotto et al., 2003) and bacteria
48 (Bittar et al., 2018) from the phyllosphere into the pedosphere (Teachey et al., 2018), even
49 though stemflow accounts for only a minimal part of rainfall amount (RA) (6.2%) in
50 contrast to throughfall (69.8%) and interception loss (24.0%) in water-stressed regions
51 (Magliano et al., 2019). Stemflow greatly contributes to the survival of xerophytic plant
52 species (Návar, 2011), the maintenance of patch structures in arid areas (Kéfi et al., 2007),
53 and the normal functioning of rainfed dryland ecosystems (Wang et al., 2011).

54 To quantify the ecohydrological importance of stemflow, numerous studies have been
55 conducted on stemflow production and efficiency from various aspects, including stemflow
56 volume (mL), depth (mm), percentage (%), funnelling ratio (unitless), and productivity
57 ($\text{mL}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$) (Herwitz, 1986; Yuan et al., 2016; Zabret et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019). By
58 applying automatic recording devices, the stemflow process has been gradually determined
59 at 1-h intervals (Spencer and van Meerveld, 2016), 5-min intervals (André et al., 2008;
60 Levia et al., 2010) and 2-min intervals (Dunkerley, 2014). This determination allowed the
61 calculation of stemflow intensity ($\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) (Germer et al., 2010), speed ($\text{mL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) (Yang,
62 2010) and time lag after rain (Cayuela et al., 2018). Differing from an event-based
63 calculation, the stemflow process provided insights into the fluctuation of stemflow
64 production at a high temporal resolution. This process permits a better interpretation of the
65 “hot moment” and “hot spot” effects of many ecohydrological processes (Bundt et al., 2001;
66 McClain et al., 2003). Quantifying short-intensity burst and temporal characteristics of
67 stemflow shed light on the dynamic process and pulse nature of stemflow (Dunkerley,
68 2019).



69 Stemflow cannot be initialled after canopies were saturated by the rains
70 (Martinez-Meza and Whitford, 1996). The minimal RA needed to start stemflow is usually
71 calculated by regressing stemflow volume with RA for different plant species or canopy
72 states (Levia and Germer, 2015). In the leaf period, stemflow starts when rains are greater
73 than 10.9 mm and 2.5-3.4 mm for oak and beech tress, respectively, in Belgium, and in the
74 leafless period, the minimal RA for stemflow generation is 6.0 mm and 1.5-1.9 mm for
75 these two species (André et al., 2008; Staelens et al., 2008). In comparison, a lower amount
76 of rain, 0.4-2.2 mm, can generally initiate stemflow of xerophytic shrubs (Yuan et al., 2017).
77 Stemflow also frequently continues after rains due to the rainwater retained on the canopy
78 surface (Iida et al., 2017). *Salix psammophila* and an open tropical forest start stemflow
79 5-10 min and 15 min later than the beginning of a rain event in the Mu Us desert of China
80 (Yang, 2010) and the Amazon basin of Brazil (Germer et al., 2010), respectively. However,
81 1 h and 1.5 h are needed to start stemflow after the beginning of a rain event for pine and
82 oak trees in north-eastern Spain, respectively (Cayuela et al., 2018). For *S. psammophila*,
83 stemflow is maximized 20-210 min after the beginning of a rain event (Yang, 2010), and
84 stemflow ceased 11 h after rain stopped in an open tropical forest (Germer et al., 2010).
85 Stemflow time lags are critical indicators for depicting the stemflow process and are
86 important for developing process-based hydrological models. However, stemflow time lags
87 have not been systematically studied for xerophytic shrubs.

88 The preferential paths at the underside of branches for delivering stemflow complicates
89 stemflow processes within events (Dunkerley, 2014). The influences of bark microrelief
90 on stemflow are strongly affected by dynamic rain processes, such as rainfall intensity and



91 raindrop striking within events (Van Stan and Levia, 2010). While exceeding the holding
92 capacity of branches, high rainfall intensity can overload and interrupt this preferential path
93 (Carlyle-Mose and Price, 2006). Raindrops hit the canopy surface and create splashes on
94 the surface. This process is conducive to wetting branches at the lower layers and
95 accelerating the establishment of the preferential paths of stemflow transportation (Bassette
96 and Bussière, 2008). Nevertheless, the interaction between the stemflow process and
97 intra-event rainfall characteristics has not been substantially studied.

98 This study was designed at the event and process scales to investigate inter-/intra-event
99 stemflow variability of two xerophytic shrubs. Stemflow volume, intensity and temporal
100 dynamics of *Caragana korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* were recorded during 54 rainfall
101 events in the 2014–2015 rainy seasons on the Loess Plateau of China. Temporal dynamics
102 were expressed as stemflow duration and time lags of stemflow generation, maximization
103 and cessation to the start of rain events. Raindrop momentum was introduced to represent
104 the comprehensive effects of raindrop size, velocity, inclination angle and kinetic energy on
105 the stemflow process. This study specifically aimed to (1) depict the stemflow process in
106 terms of stemflow intensity and temporal dynamics, (2) identify the dominant rainfall
107 characteristics influencing inter-/intra-event stemflow variables, and (3) quantify the
108 relationships between stemflow process variables and rainfall characteristics. Achieving
109 these objectives would advance our knowledge of process-based stemflow production to
110 better understand the pulse nature of stemflow and its interactions with dynamic rain
111 processes.

112 **2 Materials and Methods**



113 2.1 Site description

114 This study was conducted in the Liudaogou catchment (110°21'–110°23'E, 38°46'–
115 38°51'N) in Shenmu city, Shaanxi Province, China, during the 2014–2015 rainy seasons.
116 This catchment is 6.9 km² and 1094–1273 m above sea level (m.a.s.l.). A semiarid
117 continental climate prevails in this area. The mean annual precipitation (MAP) is 414 mm
118 (1971–2013). Most MAP (77%) occurs from July to September (Jia et al., 2013). The mean
119 annual potential evaporation is 1337 mm (Yang et al., 2019). The mean annual temperature
120 is 9.0 °C. The dominant shrubs include *C. korshinskii*, *S. psammophila*, and *Amorpha*
121 *fruticosa*. The dominant grasses are *Artemisia capillaris*, *Artemisia sacrorum*, *Medicago*
122 *sativa*, *Stipa bungeana*, etc.

123 *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* are two representative xerophytic shrub species.
124 They have inverted-cone crowns and no trunks, with multiple branches running obliquely
125 from the base. As modular organisms and multi-stemmed shrub species, their branches live
126 as independent individuals and compete with each other for water and light (Firn, 2004).
127 Two plots were established in the southwestern catchment for these two xerophytic shrubs
128 planted in the 1990s (Fig. 1). *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* plots share similar stand
129 conditions with elevations of 1179 and 1207 m.a.s.l., slopes of 13° and 18°, and sizes of
130 3294 and 4056 m², respectively. The *C. korshinskii* plot has a ground surface of loess and
131 aspect of 224°, while the *S. psammophila* plot has a ground surface of sand and an aspect of
132 113°.

133 2.2 Meteorological measurements and calculations

134 A meteorological station was installed at the experimental plot of *S. psammophila* to



135 record rainfall characteristics and wind speed (WS, $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). The Onset® (Onset Computer
136 Corp., USA) RG3-M tipping-bucket rain gauges (with a diameter of 15.24 cm and a
137 resolution of 0.2 mm) recorded the rain amount and timing of incident rains. Discrete
138 rainfall events were defined by a measurable RA of 0.2 mm (the resolution limit of the
139 RG3-M rain gauge) and the smallest 4-h gap without rains (the analogue period of time to
140 dry canopies from antecedent rains) (Giacomin and Trucchi, 1992; Zhang et al., 2015; Yang
141 et al., 2019). WS was recorded by wind sensors (Model 03002, R. M. Young Company,
142 USA) and logged at 10-min intervals by a datalogger (Model CR1000, Campbell Scientific
143 Inc., USA). For the 0.8-km distance between the two plots, the meteorological data were
144 also applied to the *C. korshinskii* plot.

145 Rainfall characteristics were calculated, including the RA (mm), rainfall duration (RD,
146 h), rainfall interval (RI, h), the average and 10-min maximum rainfall intensity of incident
147 rains (I and I_{10} , respectively, $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$), and the 10-min average rainfall intensity after rain
148 begins (I_{b10} , $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) and before rain ends (I_{e10} , $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$). Raindrop traits include diameter
149 (D , mm) (Herwitz and Slye, 1995), terminal velocity (V , $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) (Carlyle-Moses and
150 Schooling, 2015), and average inclination angle (θ , °) (Herwitz and Slye, 1995; Van Stan et
151 al., 2011). By assuming a perfect sphere of a raindrop (Uijlenhoet and Torres, 2006), the
152 average raindrop momentum in the vertical direction (F , $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) was computed to
153 comprehensively represent the raindrop morphology and energy (Brandt, 1990; Kimble,
154 1996).

$$155 \quad D = 2.23 \times (0.03937 \times I)^{0.102} \quad (1)$$

$$156 \quad V = 3.378 \times \ln(D) + 4.213 \quad (2)$$



157
$$\tan \theta = WS / V \quad (3)$$

158
$$F_0 = M \times V = (1/6 \times \rho \times \pi \times D^3) \times V \quad (4)$$

159
$$F = F_0 \times \cos \theta \quad (5)$$

160 where I is the average rainfall intensity of incident rains ($\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$), M is the average
161 raindrop mass (g), and F_0 is the average raindrop momentum ($\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). ρ is the density of
162 freshwater at standard atmospheric pressure and 20°C ($0.998 \text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$). WS is the average
163 wind speed of incident rains ($\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$). The 10-min maximum raindrop momentum (F_{10} ,
164 $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) and the average raindrop momentum at the first and last 10 min (F_{b10} and F_{e10} ,
165 respectively, $\text{mg}\cdot\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$) could also be calculated with I_{10} , I_{b10} and I_{e10} during incident rains,
166 respectively.

167 **2.3 Experimental branch selection and measurements**

168 This study focused on the branch stemflow of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*. By
169 selecting four 20-year-old shrubs of each species with similar crown areas and heights
170 ($5.1\pm 0.3 \text{ m}^2$ and $2.1\pm 0.2 \text{ m}$ for *C. korshinskii* and $21.4\pm 5.2 \text{ m}^2$ and $3.5\pm 0.2 \text{ m}$ for *S.*
171 *psammophila*, respectively), the variance in canopy traits was neglected. The isolated
172 canopies guaranteed that they were exposed to similar rainfall characteristics. We measured
173 branch morphologies of all 180 and 261 branches of experimental shrubs of *C. korshinskii*
174 and *S. psammophila*, respectively. Branch basal diameter (BD) was measured with a
175 Vernier calliper (Model 7D-01150, Forgestar Inc., Germany). Branch length (BL) and
176 branch angle (BA) were estimated with a measuring tape and pocket geologic compass
177 (Model DQL-8, Harbin Optical Instrument Factory, China), respectively. Then, the
178 branches were grouped into five BD categories of 5–10 mm, 10–15 mm, 15–18 mm, 18–25



179 mm and >25 mm. Two branches with median BDs were selected in each category for
180 stemflow recording. These branches had no intercrossing with neighbouring branches and
181 no turning point in height from branch tip to base. The canopy-skirt locations avoided
182 over-shading by the upper layer branches and permitted convenient measurements. Since
183 there were not sufficient >25-mm branches for the *C. korshinskii* shrubs and the
184 tipping-bucket rain gauges malfunctioned at the 18–25-mm branches of *S. psammophila*,
185 stemflow data were not available in these BD categories. In total, stemflow was
186 automatically recorded at 7 branches for each species (Table 1).

187 **2.4 Stemflow measurements and calculations**

188 We applied aluminium foil collars to trap stemflow. They were fitted around the entire
189 branch circumference and sealed by neutral silicone caulking. The limited external
190 diameter of the foil collars minimized throughfall and rains accessing them. The RG3-M
191 tipping-bucket rain gauges recorded the stemflow production and timing, thus computing
192 the stemflow volume, duration, intensity and time lags to rain. The 0.5-cm-diameter
193 polyvinyl chloride hoses channelled stemflow from the collars to the polyethylene
194 film-covered gauges preventing throughfall and splash (Fig. 1). The hoses hung vertically
195 to minimize the travel time to the rain gauges for an accurate recording of stemflow timing
196 and intensity. These apparatuses were periodically checked to avoid leakages or blockages
197 by insects and fallen leaves.

198 The stemflow variables at the branches of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* were
199 calculated as follows.

200 (1) Stemflow volume (SFV, mL): the stemflow volume of individual branches of *C.*



201 *korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*. This variable was converted from the
202 auto-recordings of branch stemflow via the tipping-bucket rain gauges (mm) by
203 multiplying the base area of the RG3-M rain gauges (182.3 cm²).

204 (2) Stemflow intensity (mm·h⁻¹): the branch stemflow volume in a certain time,
205 including SFI, SFI₁₀ and SFI_i in this study. SFI and SFI₁₀ are the average and
206 10-min maximum stemflow intensities during incident rains, which were
207 computed by the branch stemflow as recorded by the tipping-bucket rain gauges
208 (mm) and rainfall duration (h). SFI_i is the instantaneous stemflow intensity, which
209 was calculated in terms of the tip volume of the RG3-M rain gauge (0.2 mm) and
210 time intervals between neighbouring tips.

211 (3) Stemflow temporal dynamics: stemflow duration and time lags in response to rains.

212 SFD (h): the duration from stemflow beginning to its ending.

213 TLG (min): time lag of stemflow generation to rainfall beginning.

214 TLM (min): time lag of stemflow intensity peak to rainfall beginning.

215 TLE (min): time lag of stemflow ending to rainfall ceasing.

216 (4) Ratio of the intra-event stemflow intensity (RSFI, unitless): the ratio between
217 stemflow intensity and rainfall intensity at 100-s intervals within events. Similar to
218 the funnelling ratio (unitless) at the event scale (Herwitz, 1986; Siegert and Levia,
219 2014), the RSFI quantifies the convergence effect of stemflow by comparing
220 stemflow intensity with rainfall intensity at a high temporal resolution (100 s)
221 within events.

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



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

227 **2.5 Data analysis**

228 The stemflow variables were averaged among different BD categories to analyse the
229 influences of rainfall characteristics on them. The Pearson correlation analyses tested the
230 relationships between rainfall characteristics and stemflow variables. This analysis includes
231 the intra-event rainfall characteristics (I , I_{10} , I_{b10} , I_{e10} , F , F_{10} , F_{b10} and F_{e10}) and stemflow
232 variables (SFI , SFI_{10} , TLG , TLM and TLE), and the inter-event rainfall characteristics (RA ,
233 RD and RI) and stemflow variables (SFV and SFD). The significantly related factors were
234 grouped according to the median value. These factors were then compiled into indicator
235 matrices and standardized for a cross-tabulation check as required by a multiple
236 correspondence analysis (MCA) (Levia et al., 2010; Van Stan et al., 2011, 2016). All
237 qualified data were restructured into orthogonal dimensions (Hair et al., 1995), where
238 distances between row and column points were maximized (Hill and Lewicki, 2007). As
239 shown in the correspondence maps, rainfall feature clustering is tightly related to the
240 centred stemflow variable. The most influential rainfall factor could then be identified with
241 stepwise regression (Carlyle-Moses and Schooling, 2015). We built regression models in
242 terms of the qualified level of significance ($p < 0.05$) and the highest coefficient of
243 determination (R^2). SPSS 21.0 (IBM Corporation, USA), Origin 8.5 (OriginLab
244 Corporation, USA) and Excel 2019 (Microsoft Corporation, USA) were used for data



245 analysis.

246 **3 Results**

247 **3.1 Rainfall characteristics**

248 Stemflow was automatically recorded for 54 rainfall events during the experimental
249 period (Fig. 2). There were 20, 8, 10, 8, 4 and 4 rainfall events in the RA categories of ≤ 2
250 mm, 2–5 mm, 5–10 mm, 10–15 mm, 15–20 mm and >20 mm, respectively. The
251 corresponding total RAs of the above five rainfall categories were 22.1 mm, 26.1 mm, 68.8
252 mm, 93.3 mm, 74.8 mm and 110.0 mm, respectively. The average I , I_{10} , I_{b10} and I_{e10} of the
253 54 rainfall events were $4.6 \pm 1.0 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$, $11.5 \pm 2.1 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$, $5.8 \pm 1.5 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$ and 2.9 ± 0.7
254 $\text{mm} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$, respectively. The average F , F_{10} , F_{b10} and F_{e10} were $16.3 \pm 8.7 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, 25.7 ± 9.6
255 $\text{mg} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, $18.5 \pm 9.9 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ and $15.8 \pm 7.0 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, respectively. RD and RI averaged
256 $4.9 \pm 0.8 \text{ h}$ and $50.9 \pm 6.1 \text{ h}$, respectively.

257 Rainfall events were further categorized in terms of rainfall-intensity peak amount,
258 including Events A, B and C, with single, double and multiple peaks (17, 11 and 15 events,
259 respectively) (Table 2). The remaining 11 events could not be categorized due to less than
260 three intra-event recordings. Compared with Events A and B, Event C possessed
261 significantly different rainfall characteristics, e.g., a larger RA (11.7 vs. 4.1 and 5.2 mm)
262 and RD (10.3 vs. 2.5 and 3.6 h) but a smaller I_{10} (9.5 vs. 15.5 and $12.7 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$), I_{b10} (2.8 vs.
263 7.7 and $9.9 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$), I_{e10} (2.1 vs. 4.3 and $3.6 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$), F_{10} (24.2 vs. 27.8 and $26.6 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$)
264 1), F_{b10} (15.4 vs. 19.7 and $21.7 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) and F_{e10} (13.4 vs. 17.3 and $16.6 \text{ mg} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$,
265 respectively) (Table 2).

266 In general, the events were skewed in their distributions in terms of RA during the



267 experimental period. The occurrences of events with a $RA \leq 2$ mm dominated the
268 experimental period (40.7%), but the events with $RA > 20$ mm were the greatest contributor
269 to the total RA (28.0%). However, a relatively equal distribution was noted during events
270 with single (17 events), double (11 events) and multiple (15 events) rainfall-intensity peaks.
271 In contrast, the multiple-intensity peak events had significantly larger rainfall amounts,
272 durations, intensities and raindrop momentums (Table 2). Therefore, grouping events in
273 terms of rainfall-intensity peak amounts was justified.

274 **3.2 Stemflow volume, intensity and temporal dynamics**

275 The stemflow variables of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* showed great inter-event
276 variations during the experimental period (Fig. 3). *C. korshinskii* had larger SFV, SFI_{10} ,
277 SFD, TLG and TLE (1658.4 ± 320.9 mL, 20.3 ± 10.4 mm \cdot h $^{-1}$, 3.8 ± 0.8 h, 66.2 ± 10.6 min and
278 20.0 ± 5.3 min, respectively) but significantly smaller TLM (109.4 ± 20.5 min) and slightly
279 smaller SFI (4.7 ± 1.5 mm \cdot h $^{-1}$) than those of *S. psammophila* (1014.0 ± 174.5 mL, 16.9 ± 8.8
280 mm \cdot h $^{-1}$, 3.4 ± 0.9 h, 54.8 ± 11.7 min, 13.5 ± 17.2 min, 120.5 ± 22.1 min, 4.8 ± 1.6 mm \cdot h $^{-1}$,
281 respectively) (Table 3). The positive TLG, TLE and TLM indicated that both species
282 generally started, maximized and ceased stemflow later than the rains.

283 As shown in Fig. 4, stemflow was well synchronized to rains with similar intensity
284 peak shapes, amounts and positions for the two species. This result was demonstrated
285 during representative events with different intensity peak amounts, including the rainfall
286 events on July 17, 2015 (20.7 mm, Event A), on July 29, 2015 (7.3 mm, Event B), and on
287 September 10, 2015 (13.3 mm, Event C). For these three events, *C. korshinskii* had larger
288 RSFIs (2, 1.8 and 2.1, respectively) than those of *S. psammophila* (1.4, 0.9 and 1.4,



289 respectively). Comparatively, the RSFI of *S. psammophila* fluctuated more dramatically
290 around the value of 1.

291 Stemflow variables varied between rainfall event categories (Table 3). For Event C in
292 comparison to Events A and B, *S. psammophila* had significantly larger SFV (2469.0 vs.
293 616.5 and 907.0 mL), SFD (8.2 vs. 1.2 and 3.4 h), TLM (235.8 vs. 64.3 and 93.4 min) and
294 TLE (20.8 vs. 17.1 and 8.6 min) but significantly smaller SFI (2.4 vs. 7.2 and 6.0 mm·h⁻¹)
295 and SFI₁₀ (8.8 vs. 24.8 and 24.5 mm·h⁻¹, respectively). For Event C in comparison to
296 Events A and B, *C. korshinskii* shared similar trends for its stemflow variables between
297 event categories with those of *S. psammophila*, except for the slightly smaller TLE (18.5 vs.
298 22.3 and 18.7 min) and SFI (5.1 vs. 5.7 and 6.0 mm·h⁻¹, respectively).

299 **3.3 Relationships between stemflow variables and rainfall characteristics**

300 Correspondence had been established between rainfall characteristics and stemflow
301 variables for *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* (Fig. 5). These two species had similar
302 correspondence patterns. As shown in Fig. 5, one-to-one correspondences were observed
303 for SFV, SFD and TLE. The larger (or smaller) SFV, SFD and TLE corresponded to the
304 larger (or smaller) RA, RD and RI, respectively. This result clearly demonstrated the
305 dominant influences of RA, RD and RI on SFV, SFD and TLE, respectively. Nevertheless,
306 one-to-more correspondences were noted for TLM, TLG, SFI and SFI₁₀. The larger TLM
307 and TLG were, the smaller SFI and SFI₁₀ were, and all corresponded to the smaller rainfall
308 characteristics of I, I₁₀, I_{b10}, I_{e10}, F, F₁₀, F_{b10} and F_{e10}. In contrast, the smaller TLM and TLG
309 were, the larger SFI and SFI₁₀ were, and all corresponded to the larger rainfall
310 characteristics of I, I₁₀, I_{b10}, I_{e10}, F, F₁₀, F_{b10} and F_{e10}. This result indicated that stemflow



311 processes (SFI, SFI₁₀, TLG and TLM) were strongly affected by rainfall intensity and
312 raindrop momentum. The rainfall characteristics influenced the stemflow variables at the
313 corresponding temporal scales. This influence occurred at the inter-event scale between
314 SFV and RA and SFD and RD, while this influence occurred at the intra-event scale for
315 stemflow time lags (TLG and TLM) and intensities (SFI and SFI₁₀) with rainfall intensity (I,
316 I₁₀, I_{b10} and I_{e10}) and raindrop momentum (F, F₁₀, F_{b10} and F_{e10}). The exception of
317 mismatched temporal sales was noted between TLE and RI.

318 To identify the most influential rainfall characteristics affecting stemflow intensities
319 and time lags, stepwise regression was performed and indicated that I₁₀ significantly
320 affected the TLM of both shrub species. For *C. korshinskii*, I, I₁₀ and F were the most
321 influential factors on SFI, SFI₁₀ and TLG, respectively. However, for *S. psammophila*, F,
322 F₁₀ and F_{b10} significantly affected SFI, SFI₁₀ and TLG, respectively. There were linear
323 relationships between SFI and I ($R^2=0.85, p<0.01$) and SFI₁₀ and I₁₀ ($R^2=0.90, p<0.01$) for
324 *C. korshinskii* and between SFD and RD for *C. korshinskii* ($R^2=0.95, p<0.01$) and *S.*
325 *psammophila* ($R^2=0.92, p<0.01$) (Fig. 6). Moreover, power functional relations were found
326 between SFI and F ($R^2=0.82, p<0.01$), SFI₁₀ and F₁₀ ($R^2=0.90, p<0.01$) (Fig. 6), TLG and
327 F_{b10} ($R^2=0.55, p<0.01$) and TLM and I₁₀ ($R^2=0.40, p<0.01$) (Fig. 7) for *S. psammophila*,
328 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.*
329 *korshinskii*. However, there was no significant quantitative relationship between TLE and
330 RI for *C. korshinskii* ($R^2=0.005, p=0.28$) or *S. psammophila* ($R^2=0.002, p=0.78$) (Fig. 7).

331 4 Discussion

332 4.1 Stemflow intensity



333 Stemflow intensity is generally greater than rainfall intensity for different plant life
334 forms. The xerophytic shrubs *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* had larger average
335 stemflow intensities than the average rainfall intensity (4.7 ± 1.5 and 4.8 ± 1.6 $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$,
336 respectively, vs. 4.5 ± 1.0 $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) in this study. Broadleaf and coniferous species (*Quercus*
337 *pubescens* Willd. and *Pinus sylvestris* L., respectively) also have larger average maximum
338 stemflow intensities than the maximum rainfall intensity in north-eastern Spain (Cayuela et
339 al., 2018). The gap between stemflow and rainfall intensity generally increased as the
340 recording time intervals decreased. For *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*, in comparison
341 to I_{10} (10.9 ± 2.1 $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) at 10-min intervals, the SFI_{10} (20.3 ± 10.4 and 16.9 ± 8.8 $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$,
342 respectively) was 1.5-fold greater. When recorded at 5-min intervals, SFI_5 (1232 $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) is
343 as much as 15-fold greater than rainfall intensity in the open tropical rainforest of Brazil
344 (Germer et al., 2010). While calculating the dynamic time interval between neighbouring
345 tips of the tipping-bucket rain gauges, SFI_i (240 $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$) was 3.3-fold greater than the
346 corresponding rainfall intensity (72 $\text{mm}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$). Therefore, stemflow recorded at a higher
347 temporal resolution provided more information into the dynamic nature of stemflow and
348 real-time responses to rainfall characteristics within events.

349 Greater stemflow intensity than rainfall intensity is hydrologically significant in
350 terrestrial ecosystems. This scenario indicates the convergence of the canopy-intercepted
351 rains into the limited area around the trunk or branch bases within a certain time period.
352 The funnelling ratio, which quantifies the efficiency of individual plants in capturing and
353 delivering raindrops at an event scale (Siegert and Levia, 2014), is commonly applied to
354 assess the convergence effect (Herwitz, 1986; Wang et al., 2013; Fan et al., 2015). If the



355 funnelling ratio is greater than 1, then more water is collected at the trunk or branch base
356 than at the clearings during incident rains. However, the process to assess the convergence
357 effect of stemflow within events has still not been adequately studied.

358 RSFI depicted the intra-event convergence effects of stemflow by comparing stemflow
359 and rainfall intensities at 100-s intervals starting from the beginning to the ending of
360 incident rains. We found that RSFI fluctuated around the value of 1 for both shrub species
361 (Fig. 4). The RSFI was generally greater than 1 for *C. korshinskii*, whereas the RSFI for *S.*
362 *psammophila* fluctuated more dramatically. This result indicated that comparatively more
363 rainwater was delivered within a short period to the branch base of *C. korshinskii* during
364 the rain process. This result agreed with the results of reports related to the more efficient
365 stemflow production of *C. korshinskii* at the event scale, as expressed by its larger
366 stemflow productivity ($1.95 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$) and funnelling ratio (173.3) than those of *S.*
367 *psammophila* ($1.19 \text{ mL}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ and 69.3, respectively) (Yuan et al., 2017). Therefore, RSFI
368 demonstrated the process-based estimation of stemflow efficiency. Carlyle-Moses et al.
369 (2018) have addressed the importance of studying stemflow convergence effects by
370 employing the funnelling ratio at the stand scale. We highly recommended that future
371 studies evaluate convergence effects during rain events by combining the results of the
372 funnelling ratio and RSFI.

373 **4.2 Stemflow temporal dynamics**

374 Stemflow was well synchronized to the rains. This result agreed with those of Levia et
375 al. (2010), who demonstrated a marked synchronicity between stemflow volume and RA in
376 5-min intervals for *Fagus. grandifolia*. The duration and time lags to rains were critical to



377 describe stemflow temporal dynamics. Our results indicated that in comparison to *S.*
378 *psammophila*, *C. korshinskii* takes a longer time to initiate (66.2 vs. 54.8 min), end (20.0 vs.
379 13.5 min) and produce stemflow (3.8 vs. 3.4 h) but a shorter time to maximize stemflow
380 (109.4 vs. 120.5 min, respectively). Moreover, the TLMs of both shrub species were in the
381 range of the TLMs for *S. psammophila* (20–210 min) in the Mu Us desert of China (Yang,
382 2010).

383 Varying TLGs were documented for different species. Approximately 15 min, 1 h and
384 1.5 h are needed to initiate the stemflow of palms (Germer, 2010), pine trees and oak trees
385 (Cayuela et al., 2018), respectively. In addition, an almost instantaneous start of stemflow
386 has also observed as rain began for *Quercus rubra* (Durocher, 1990), *Fagus grandifolia* and
387 *Liriodendron tulipifera* (Levia et al., 2010). In contrast to the positive TLE dominating
388 xerophytic shrubs, the TLE greatly varies with tree species. TLE is as much as 48 h for
389 Douglas fir, oak and redwood in California, USA (Reid and Levia, 2009), and almost 11 h
390 for palm trees in Brazil (Germer, 2010). However, for sweet chestnut and oak, almost no
391 stemflow continues when rains cease in Bristol, England (Durocher, 1990). These scenarios
392 might occur due to the sponge effect of the canopy surface (Germer, 2010), which buffers
393 stemflow generation, maximization and cessation before saturation. These conclusions
394 were consistent with the smaller stemflow intensities of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*
395 than the rainfall intensity when rain began, as part of the rains was used to wet canopies
396 (Fig. 4). The hydrophobic bark traits benefit stemflow initiation with limited time lags to
397 rains. In contrast, the hydrophilic bark traits are conducive for continuing stemflow after
398 rain stops, which keep the preferential flow paths wetter for longer time periods (Levia and



399 Germer, 2015). As a result, it takes time to transfer intercepted rains from the leaf, branch
400 and trunk to the base. This process strongly affects the stemflow volume, intensity and loss
401 as evaporation.

402 The dynamics of intra-event rainfall intensity complicates the stemflow time lags to
403 rains. A 1-h lag to begin and stop stemflow with the beginning and ending of rains was
404 observed for ashe juniper trees during high-intensity events, but no stemflow was generated
405 at low-intensity storms (Owens et al., 2006). Rainfall intensity was an important dynamic
406 rainfall characteristic affecting stemflow volume. Owens et al. (2006) found the most
407 significant difference between various rainfall intensities located in the stemflow patterns
408 other than throughfall and interception loss. During events with a front-positioned, single
409 rainfall-intensity peak, *S. psammophila* maximized stemflow in a shorter time than *C.*
410 *korshinskii* did in the Mu Us desert (30 and 50 min) (Yang, 2010). During these events, a
411 smaller SFD (1.5 h) and a larger TLE (55.8 min) and SFI ($11.5 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}$) were also observed
412 for *C. korshinskii* than for *S. psammophila* in this study. This result highlighted the amounts
413 and occurrence time of rainfall-intensity peak affecting the stemflow process, which was
414 consistent with the finding of Dunkerley (2014).

415 Raindrops presented rainfall characteristics at finer temporal-spatial scales. They are
416 usually ignored because rains were generally regarded as a continuum rather than a discrete
417 process consisting of individual raindrops of various sizes, velocities, inclination angles
418 and kinetic energies. Raindrops hit the canopy surface and create splashes at different
419 canopy layers (Bassette and Bussière, 2008; Li et al., 2016). This process accelerates
420 canopy wetting and increases the water supply for stemflow production. Therefore,



421 raindrop momentum was introduced in this study to represent the comprehensive effects of
422 raindrop attributes. Our results indicated that raindrop momentum was sensitive to
423 predicting the variations in stemflow intensity and temporal dynamics with significant
424 linear or power functional relations (Figs. 6 and 7). Compared with the importance of
425 rainfall intensity for *C. korshinskii*, raindrop momentum more significantly affected the
426 stemflow process of *S. psammophila*. This result might be related to the larger canopy size
427 and height of *S. psammophila* (21.4 ± 5.2 m² and 3.5 ± 0.2 m) than that of *C. korshinskii*
428 (5.1 ± 0.3 m² and 2.1 ± 0.2 m, respectively). Thus, more layers are available within canopies
429 to intercept the splashes created by raindrop striking (Bassette and Bussière, 2008; Li et al.,
430 2016), thus shortening the paths and having more water supply for stemflow production.

431 **4.3 Temporal-dependent influence of rainfall characteristics**

432 This study discussed stemflow variables and rainfall characteristics at different
433 temporal scales. Stemflow variables were further categorized into volume, intensity and
434 temporal dynamics. The last two variables depicted the stemflow process with a high
435 temporal resolution. The influences of rainfall characteristics were explored at a fine
436 temporal scale by introducing raindrop momentum, rainfall-intensity peak amounts and
437 intra-event positions. We found that rainfall characteristics affected stemflow variables at
438 the corresponding temporal scales. RA and RD controlled SFV and SFD, respectively, at
439 the inter-event scale. However, stemflow intensity (e.g., SFI and SFI₁₀) and temporal
440 dynamics (e.g., TLG and TLM) were strongly influenced by rainfall intensity (e.g., I, I₁₀
441 and I_{b10}) and raindrop momentum (e.g., F, F₁₀ and F_{b10}) at the intra-event scales. These
442 results were verified by the well-fitting linear or power functional equations among them



443 (Figs. 6 and 7). Furthermore, the influences of rainfall intensity and raindrop momentum on
444 stemflow process were species-specific. In contrast to the significance of rainfall intensity
445 on the stemflow process of *C. korshinskii*, raindrop momentum imposed a greater influence
446 on the stemflow process of *S. psammophila*.

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

458 **5 Conclusions**

459 Stemflow intensity and temporal dynamics are important in depicting the stemflow
460 process and its interactions with rainfall characteristics within events. We categorized
461 stemflow variables into the volume, intensity and temporal dynamics, thus representing the
462 stemflow yield and process at different temporal scales. The influences of rainfall
463 characteristics were quantified at a fine temporal scale by introducing SFI, RSFI, raindrop
464 momentum, rainfall-intensity peak amounts and intra-event positions. The results indicated



465 that rainfall characteristics had temporal-dependent influences on stemflow variables. RA
466 and RD controlled SFV and SFD at the inter-event scale. Rainfall intensity and raindrop
467 momentum significantly affected stemflow intensity and time lags to rains at the intra-event
468 scale except for TLE. Although there was tight correspondence between TLE and RI by
469 MCA, there was no significant quantitative relationship ($R^2 < 0.005$, $p > 0.28$) due to the
470 mismatched temporal scale between them. These findings advance our understanding of the
471 stemflow process and its influential mechanism and help model the critical process-based
472 hydrological fluxes of terrestrial ecosystems.

473

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

475

476 *Author contributions.* GYG and CY set up the research goals and designed field
477 experiments. CY measured and analyzed the data. GYG and BJF provided the financial
478 support for the experiments, and supervised the execution. CY created the figures and
479 wrote the original draft. GYG, BJF, DMH, XWD and XHW reviewed and edited the draft
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481

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

483

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658 **Table 1.** Branch morphologies of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* for stemflow
 659 recording.

| Shrub species | BD categories (mm) | Amount | BD (mm) | BL (cm) | BA (°) |
|-----------------------|--------------------|--------|---------|---------|--------|
| <i>C. korshinskii</i> | 5–10 | 2 | 6.6 | 131 | 61 |
| | 10–15 | 2 | 13.1 | 168 | 43 |
| | 15–18 | 2 | 17.8 | 206 | 72 |
| | 18–25 | 1 | 22.1 | 242 | 50 |
| | >25 | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| <i>S. psammophila</i> | 5–10 | 2 | 7.5 | 248 | 69 |
| | 10–15 | 2 | 13.2 | 343 | 80 |
| | 15–18 | NA | NA | NA | NA |
| | 18–25 | 2 | 21.8 | 286 | 76 |
| | >25 | 1 | 31.3 | 356 | 60 |

660 Notes: BD, BL and BA are branch basal diameter, length and inclination angle, respectively. NA means

661 not applicable.



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

| Indicators | Event A | Event B | Event C | Others | Average |
|--|---------|---------|---------|--------|------------|
| RA (mm) | 4.1 | 5.2 | 11.7 | 0.6 | 5.4 ± 0.9 |
| RD (h) | 2.5 | 3.6 | 10.3 | 2.2 | 4.7 ± 0.8 |
| RI (h) | 48.5 | 70.5 | 57.3 | 26.1 | 50.6 ± 6.1 |
| I (mm·h ⁻¹) | 5.6 | 5.5 | 4.6 | 2.2 | 4.5 ± 1.0 |
| I ₁₀ (mm·h ⁻¹) | 15.5 | 12.7 | 9.5 | 6.0 | 10.9 ± 2.1 |
| I _{b10} (mm·h ⁻¹) | 7.7 | 9.9 | 2.8 | 1.6 | 5.5 ± 1.4 |
| I _{e10} (mm·h ⁻¹) | 4.3 | 3.6 | 2.1 | 1.2 | 2.8 ± 0.7 |
| F (mg·m·s ⁻¹) | 17.1 | 17.6 | 17.2 | 12.5 | 16.1 ± 1.2 |
| F ₁₀ (mg·m·s ⁻¹) | 27.8 | 26.6 | 24.2 | 21 | 24.9 ± 1.4 |
| F _{b10} (mg·m·s ⁻¹) | 19.7 | 21.7 | 15.4 | 16.9 | 18.4 ± 1.4 |
| F _{e10} (mg·m·s ⁻¹) | 17.3 | 16.6 | 13.4 | 16.8 | 16.0 ± 1.0 |

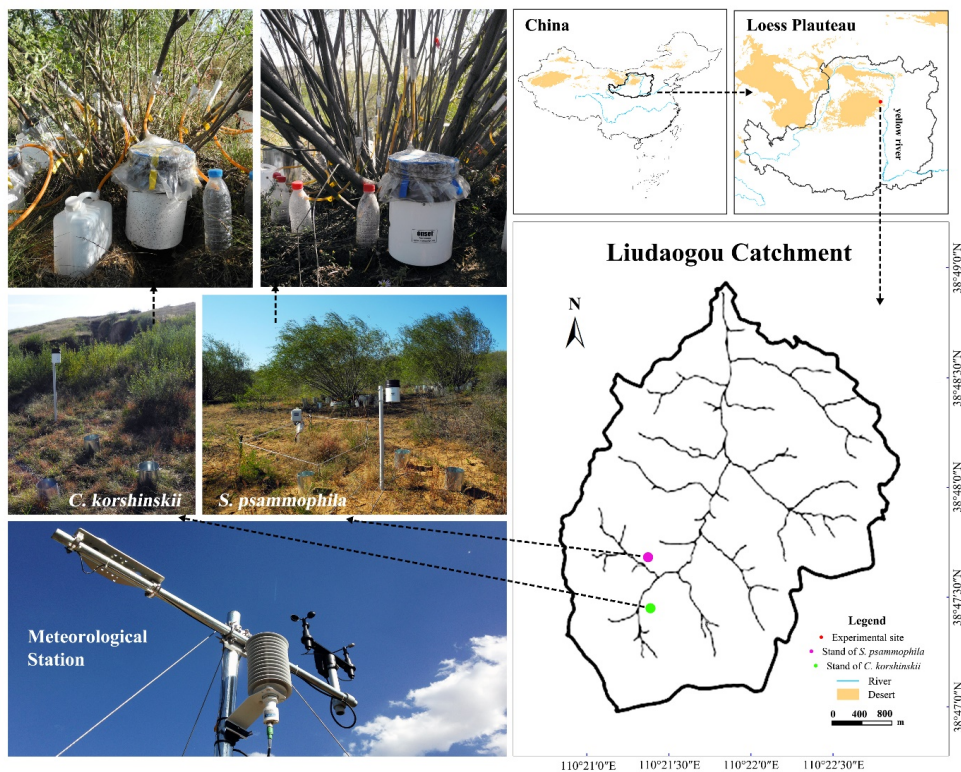
663 Note: Event A, Event B and Event C are events with the single, double and multiple rainfall intensity peaks,
664 respectively, and Others are events excluded from the categorization. RA is the rainfall amount. RD and RI are
665 rainfall duration and interval, respectively. I and I₁₀ are the average and 10-min maximum rainfall intensity,
666 respectively. I_{b10} and I_{e10} are the average rainfall intensity in 10 min after rain beginning and before rain
667 ending, respectively. F and F₁₀ are the average and 10-min maximum raindrop momentum, respectively. F_{b10}
668 and F_{e10} are the average raindrop momentum in 10 min after rain beginning and before rain ending,
669 respectively.



670 **Table 3.** Stemflow variables of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* during rainfall events with
 671 different intensity peak amounts.

| Species | Stemflow variables | Event A | Event B | Event C | Others | Average |
|-----------------------|---|---------|---------|---------|--------|----------------|
| <i>C. korshinskii</i> | SFV (mL) | 934.1 | 1552.5 | 3719.7 | 67.3 | 1658.4 ± 320.9 |
| | SFI (mm·h ⁻¹) | 5.7 | 6.0 | 5.1 | 1.9 | 4.7 ± 1.5 |
| | SFI ₁₀ (mm·h ⁻¹) | 30.2 | 26.4 | 15.3 | 9.1 | 20.3 ± 10.4 |
| | TLG (min) | 67.3 | 56.2 | 67.0 | 74.2 | 66.2 ± 10.6 |
| | TLE (min) | 22.3 | 18.7 | 18.5 | 20.6 | 20.0 ± 5.3 |
| | TLM (min) | 81.1 | 75.5 | 202.1 | 78.8 | 109.4 ± 20.5 |
| | SFD (h) | 1.4 | 3.1 | 9.1 | 1.4 | 3.8 ± 0.8 |
| <i>S. psammophila</i> | SFV (mL) | 616.5 | 907.0 | 2469.0 | 63.4 | 1014.0 ± 174.5 |
| | SFI (mm·h ⁻¹) | 7.2 | 6.0 | 2.4 | 3.4 | 4.8 ± 1.6 |
| | SFI ₁₀ (mm·h ⁻¹) | 24.8 | 24.5 | 8.8 | 9.4 | 16.9 ± 8.8 |
| | TLG (min) | 84.9 | 46.5 | 56.1 | 31.5 | 54.8 ± 11.7 |
| | TLE (min) | 17.1 | 8.6 | 20.8 | 7.3 | 13.5 ± 17.2 |
| | TLM (min) | 64.3 | 93.4 | 235.8 | 88.4 | 120.5 ± 22.1 |
| | SFD (h) | 1.2 | 3.4 | 8.3 | 0.7 | 3.4 ± 0.9 |

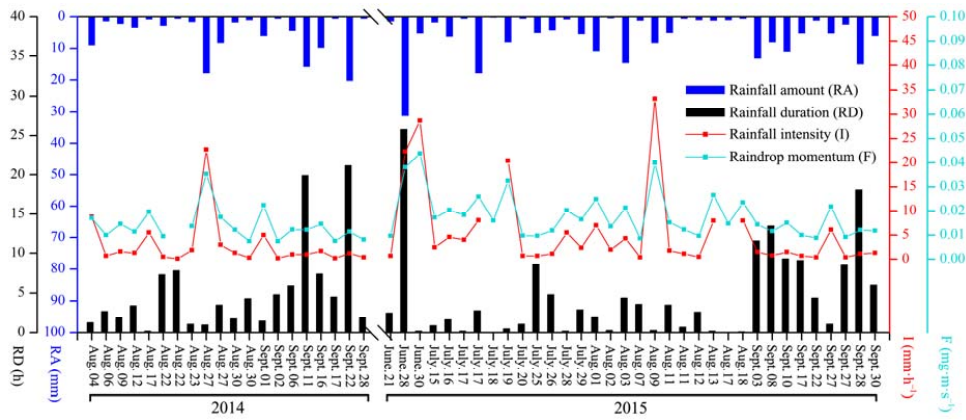
672 Note: Event A, Event B and Event C are events with the single, double and multiple rainfall intensity peaks,
 673 respectively, and Others are events excluded from the categorization. TLG and TLM are the time lags of
 674 stemflow generating and maximizing to begin of rainfall, respectively. TLE is the time lag of stemflow ending
 675 to cease of rainfall. SFD is the stemflow duration. SFV is the stemflow volume. SFI is the average stemflow
 676 intensity. SFI₁₀ is the maximum stemflow intensity in 10 min.



677

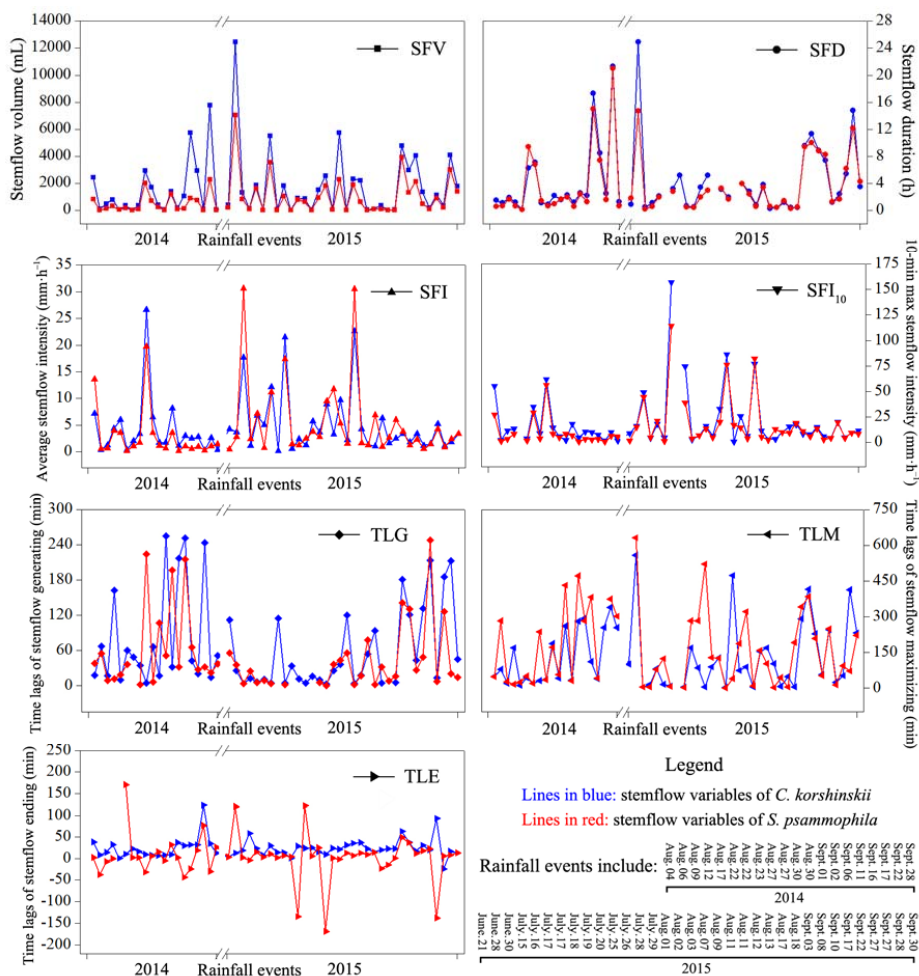
678 **Figure 1.** Locations and experimental settings in the plots of *C. korshinskii* and *S.*

679 *psammophila*.



680

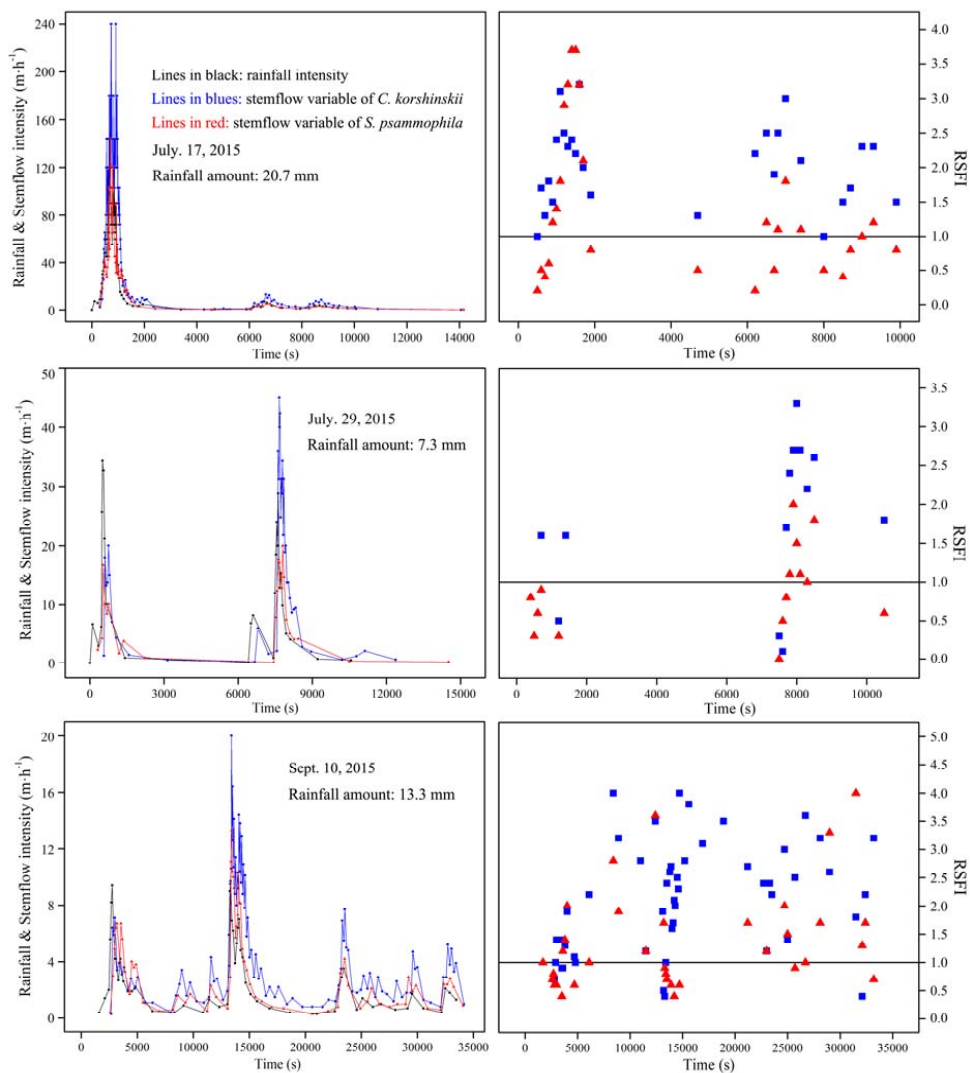
681 **Figure 2.** Inter-event variations in rainfall characteristics during the experimental period.



682

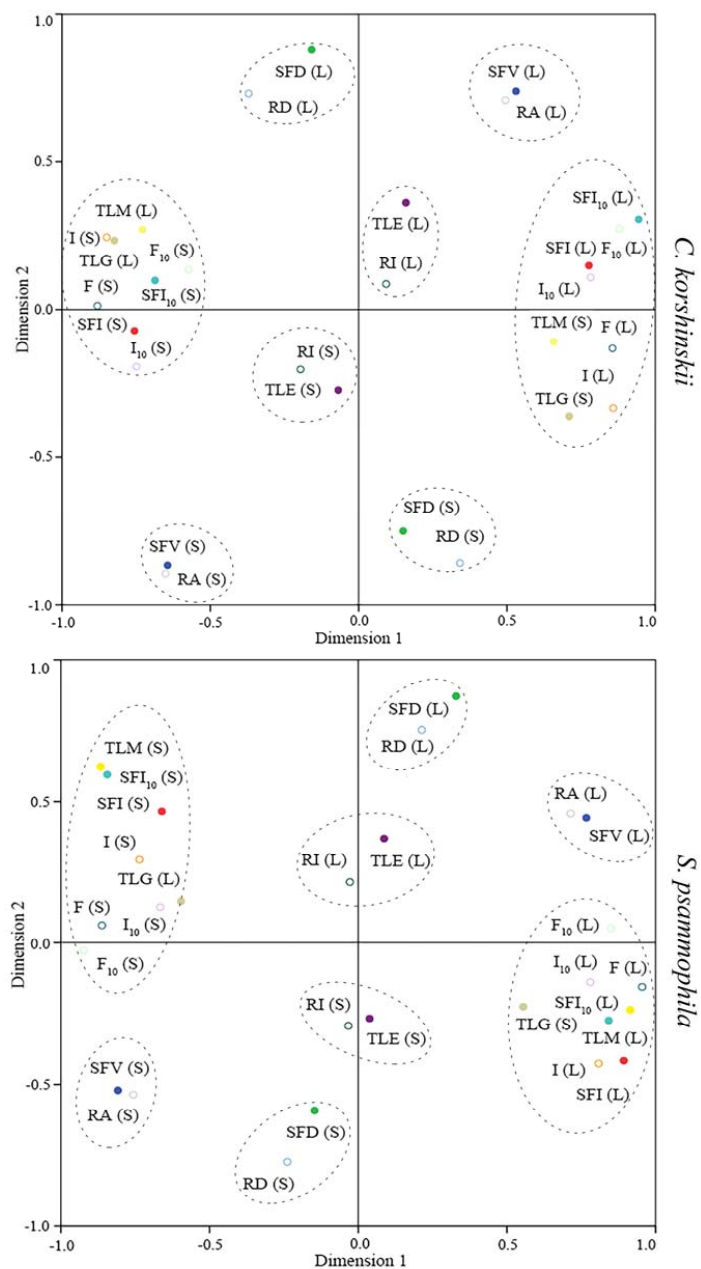
683 **Figure 3.** Inter-event variations in stemflow variables of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*

684 during the experimental period.



685

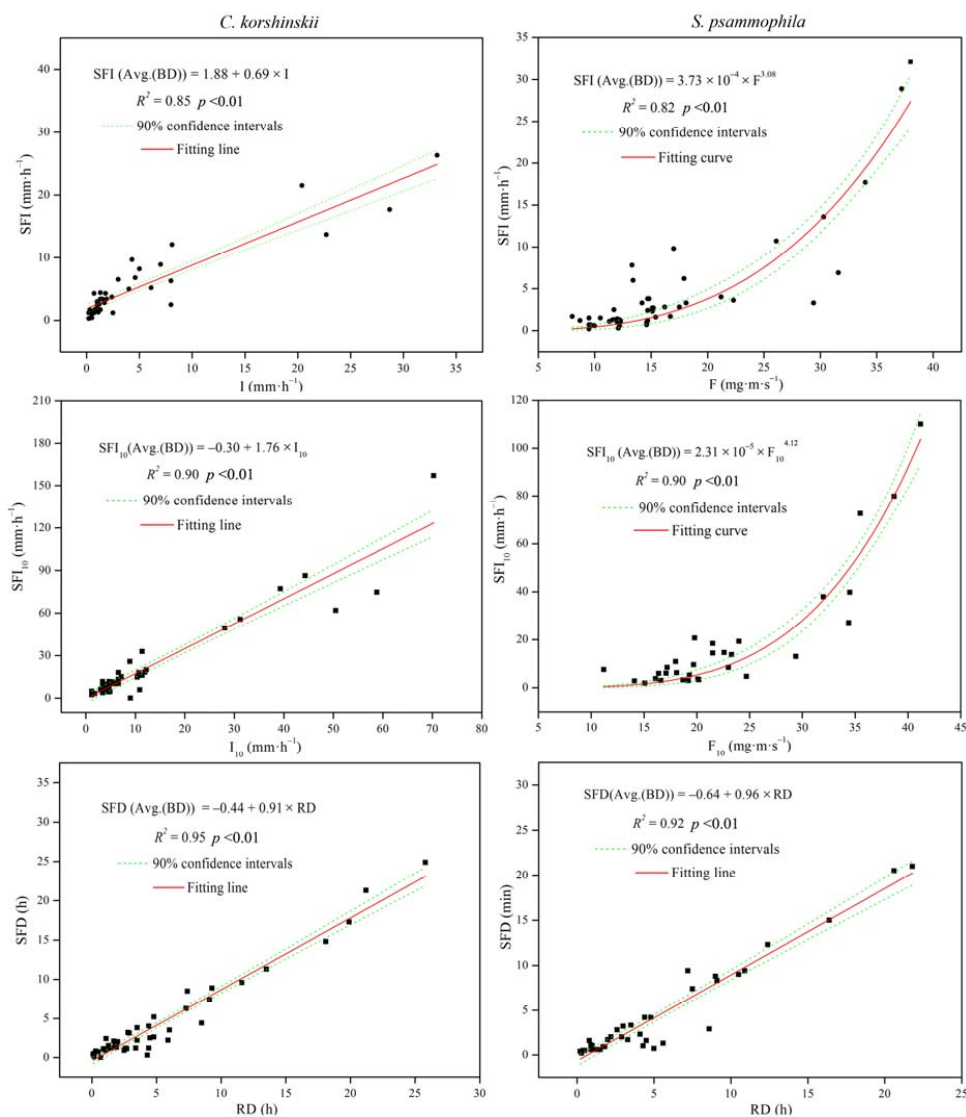
686 **Figure 4.** Stemflow synchronicity of *C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila* to rains during
687 representative events with different rainfall-intensity peaks.



688

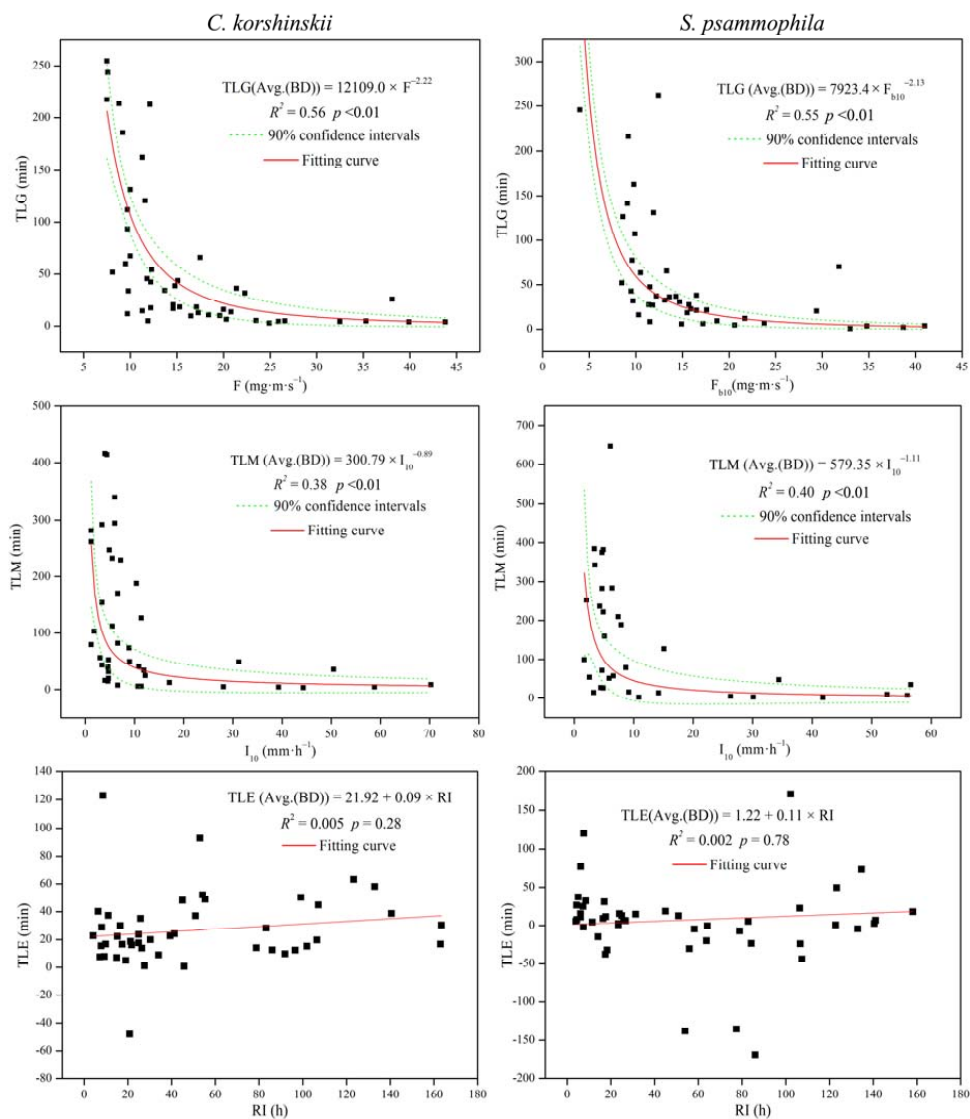
689 **Figure 5.** Correspondence map of stemflow variables with rainfall characteristics for *C.*

690 *korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*.



691

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



693

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