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3	Dynamic hydrological niche segregation: how plants compete for water in a
4	semiarid ecosystem
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25 Abstract

Hydrological niche segregation (HNS), which refers to differences in root water uptake 26 depth and physiological traits among coexisting species, remains poorly understood 27 especially with respect to moisture changes and diverse water use strategies. This is 28 particularly the case in regions with a seasonally dry climate where plants must 29 constantly adapt to water stress. Over a 2-year period, we analyzed the isotopic 30 compositions of xylem and soil water (δ^2 H, δ^{18} O) and foliar δ^{13} C to identify the water 31 sources and intrinsic water use efficiency (WUEi), respectively, of four coexisting plant 32 species. These species include Populus simonii (a type of tree), Caragana korshinskii 33 34 and Salix psammophila (both types of shrub), and Artemisia ordosica (a semi-shrub). This study was conducted in a semi-arid ecosystem in China's Loess Plateau (CLP). To 35 quantify HNS defined by δ^2 H, δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C, we used a model called nicheROVER. 36 Our results show that these four co-existing species had distinct position on a 37 hydrological niche axis defined by their water sources and WUEi. P. simonii depended 38 on deep soil water and demonstrated a high WUEi. Both shrubs, C. korshinskii and S. 39 psammophila, utilized deep and intermediate soil water, respectively, and had 40 comparable WUEi. The semi-shrub A. ordosica relied on shallow soil water and 41 showed a low WUEi. These differences in water sources and WUEi led to HNS between 42 A. ordosica and the other three species during the wet year. However, in a dry year, 43 HNS reduced as the shrubs and semi-shrub increased their use of deep soil water and 44

45	improved WUEi. Overall, these results demonstrate that HNS is a dynamic process that					
46	varies on at least an annual basis. It expands and contracts as plants regulate their water					
47	uptake and loss in response to changing soil moisture conditions.					
48						
49	Keywords: hydrological niche segregation; plant water uptake; water stress					
50	management; Loess Plateau; stable isotopes; nicheROVER					
51						
52	1. Introduction					
53	Water is the most limiting resource for plant survival and growth in arid and semi-					
54	arid ecosystems. Coexisting plant species usually adopt diverse water use strategies					
55	(e.g., root biomass adjustment, shift in root water uptake depth, stomatal regulation) to					
56	compete for or apportion this limited resource (Granda et al., 2022; Kulmatiski et al.,					
57	2020b; Rodríguez-Robles et al., 2020). Silvertown et al. (2015) introduced the concept					
58	of hydrological niche segregation (HNS) concerning the apportionment of soil water					
59	resources in a plant community. HNS comprises three aspects: (a) partitioning of space					
60	along fine-scale moisture gradients; (b) partitioning of water as a resource; and/or (c)					
61	partitioning of recruitment opportunities due to species specializing in certain patterns					

62 of temporal water supply or storage variance.

HNS theory has found applications in a plethora of environments such as wet
meadows, coastal dune slacks, tropical rainforests, savannas, and Mediterranean
climates (Araya et al., 2011; Bartelheimer et al., 2010; Camarero et al., 2018; Case et
al., 2020; Dwyer et al., 2021; Holdo & Nippert, 2022; Kulmatiski et al., 2020a; Matos

et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2022). A common thread in these studies is that root distributions 67 in the soil can cause variability in soil water resources available to different plants. 68 Walter's two-layer hypothesis (1939) posits that trees and grasses coexist by exploiting 69 different soil water depths: trees access deep soil water with their deep roots while 70 grasses, with their shallow roots, utilize near-surface soil water (Ward et al., 2013). A 71 recent study on a savanna ecosystem corroborates this by demonstrating how grasses' 72 shallow roots provide rapid access to sufficient soil water, enabling constant grass cover, 73 while trees' slightly deeper roots access more water throughout the soil profile under 74 75 most conditions (Kulmatiski & Beard, 2022).

HNS among coexisting species, influenced by differences in root distribution, is evident not only in spatially segregated deep and shallow water sources but also in temporal segregation due to differences in soil water age. This is known as "root-niche separation", where deep-rooted vegetation uses water stored from wet-season precipitation during the dry season, while more shallow-rooted species directly access dry-season precipitation (Ivanov et al., 2012).

Another significant aspect of HNS is the differentiation of physiological traits related to water loss management through the stomata of coexisting species (Camarero et al., 2018; Rodríguez-Robles et al., 2020). Stomate play a critical role in managing the trade-off between water conservation and carbon assimilation (hence growth) as they close to reduce water loss during transpiration, simultaneously limiting CO₂ uptake (Seibt et al., 2008). This trade-off between carbon acquisition and water conservation along fine-scale ecophysiological gradients likely contributes to HNS among coexisting species (Silvertown et al., 2015). For example, Moreno-Gutiérrez et al. (2012) found that 10 co-existing plant species in a Mediterranean ecosystem exhibited diverse stomatal regulation and water use strategies. Some were "opportunistic" with high stomatal conductance and low WUEi; others "conservative", having low stomatal conductance and high WUEi. The ecophysiological niche segregation was observable in foliar δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C data.

Previous studies have used root depth, access to light, tolerance of low water 95 potential (Brum et al., 2019), or radial growth and WUEi (Camarero et al., 2018) to 96 97 define hydrological niche axes of co-existing species. Overall, HNS pertains to the capacity of different species to coordinate water uptake from the soil profile and 98 management of water loss through stomata. HNS has been widely evaluated through a 99 100 wide spectrum of stomatal behaviours and contrasting water use strategies among coexisting plant species, but these studies tend to assess HNS qualitatively based on 101 differences in root water uptake depth or physiological characteristics (Guderle et al., 102 2018; Rodríguez-Robles et al., 2020). To our knowledge, research to date has not 103 generally been able to quantify the dynamics of HNS between species under the dual 104 control of water acquisition via roots and water loss through stomata, which is the focus 105 of our study for a semiarid ecosystem. 106

In this study, we aim to characterize the water use strategies and HNS of four
coexisting plant species (*Populus simonii* (tree), *Caragana korshinskii* (shrub), *Salix psammophila* (shrub), and *Artemisia ordosica* (semi-shrub)) in a semiarid ecosystem in
CLP. We used traditional, isotopic, and modelling approaches to identify water sources,

calculate WUEi and water stress, and confirm HNS in both wet and dry years. We
formulated three hypotheses: (1) the four target plant species have distinct water uptake
depths and physiological regulations; (2) there is clear HNS among the species; and (3)
HNS is dynamic as plants adjust their water use based on changing soil moisture
patterns annually.

116

117 **2.** Materials and methods

118 *2.1. Study area*

The study was conducted in the Liudaogou Catchment (38°47'-38°49'N, 110°21'-119 110°23'E), which is located on the southern edge of the Mu Us Sandy Land, in Shaanxi 120 province of China (Fig. 1a). The catchment is part of the Grain for Green project, which 121 122 was launched in 1999 to combat erosion on the Loess Plateau and sediment buildup in the Yellow River (Chen et al., 2015). The Liudaogou Catchment is about 6.89 km² and 123 ranges in altitude from 1094 m to 1274 m. The regional climate is classified as semi-124 arid due to low annual rainfall and strong seasonal variations in moisture (Fu et al., 125 2017; Tsunekawa et al., 2014). The average annual precipitation is 464 ± 121 mm based 126 on data from 2003 to 2019 (Zhao et al., 2022). Most of the annual precipitation, 70-127 80%, falls from June to August, while winter snowfall (December-February) is only 128 about 10 mm on average based on data from 2003 to 2019. 129

Surficial soil in the study area has evolved from material transported by strong
storms from distant northwest locations throughout the Quaternary (Fu et al., 2017; Liu,
1985). The relief of the underlying parent material is relatively flat, but details are

masked by the deposition of both ancient (Pleistocene) and contemporary eolian sands 133 (Zhang et al., 1993). Our experimental plot was located in flat sandy areas and the soil 134 is sand (USDA classification): the material in the 0-300 cm layer is composed of 95.7% 135 sand, 3.2% silt, and 1.1% clay (Fig. 1b). Relatively uniform particle composition 136 greatly reduces the potential impact of spatial heterogeneity of soil water on this study. 137 Native plants are scarce at the site, except for a few surviving shrub species such 138 as Artemisia ordosica Krasch, Xanthoceras sorbifolium Bunge, and Ulmus macrocarpa 139 Hance (Yuan et al., 2017). Vegetation coverage has increased significantly due to the 140 141 Three-North Shelter Forest and the Grain for Green programs (Lu et al., 2018). Common species used in the reforestation include Populus simonii Carr., Salix 142 matsudana Koidz., Salix psammophila, and Caragana korshinskii Kom. Initial 143 144 afforestation activities mainly involved replanting forest species (Cao, 2008). These restored forests then evolved into tree-shrub complex ecosystems (Cao et al., 2010, 145 2011). 146

147 Apricot plum trees (*P. simonii*, also known as Simon plum) were planted in our study location about 40 years ago over an area of 40 hectares. Over time, three 148 understory species - Korshinsk pea (C. korshinskii), xerophytic shrub (S. 149 psammophila), and a dwarf, sand-binding semi-shrub (A. ordosica) - have emerged due 150 to seed dispersal by wind and birds (Fig. 1c). Vegetation characteristics for the four 151 species were determined within a one-hectare (100 m \times 100 m) survey plot. The plot 152 was divided into twenty-five 20 m \times 20 m square quadrats, inside which we established 153 nine 400-m² tree sub-plots, located at all locations of the diagonals of the one-hectare 154

plot (Kang et al., 2007). Every 400-m² quadrat was evenly divided into twenty-five 4 155 $m \times 4$ m sub-quadrats. As before with the trees, we then investigated nine shrub sub-156 squares located diagonally of the quadrats. A total of nine tree quadrats and eighty-one 157 shrub sub-quadrats were used to analyze the morphological characteristics of trees and 158 three shrubs, respectively. A. ordosica is the most abundant, with 3356 individuals per 159 hectare. The densities of P. simonii, C. korshinskii, and S. psammophila are much 160 lower, at 519, 494, and 301 individuals per hectare, respectively. P. simonii is the tallest 161 of these species, with a mean height of about 5.2 m, while C. korshinskii, S. 162 163 psammophila, and A. ordosica have mean heights of 1.36 m, 1.43 m, and 0.52 m, respectively (Table 1). 164

165 2.2. Meteorological Data

Precipitation and air temperature (with 30-min resolution) data were obtained from a weather station located about 1500 m from the sampling plot. Precipitation was measured using TE525 rain gauges (Campbell Scientific Inc.), which has an accuracy of \pm 1 percent. The air temperature was measured using HMP45D probes, which have \pm 0.2 °C accuracy (Vaisala Inc.).

171 2.3. Root excavations and measurements

In September 2019, we collected samples of fine roots ($\leq 2 \text{ mm diameter}$) from four plant species (*P. simonii*, *S. psammophila*, *C. korshinskii* and *A. ordosica*) to identify their root distributions. We first dug the roots of each species in the locations where only single plants grow to identify their root characteristics (e.g., size, colour, odour, orientation, etc) which we later used to distinguish species in mixed plots. According to our investigation, the roots of *A. ordosica* have a pungent odour and the roots of *S. psammophila* are dark-red. The roots of *P. simonii* and *C. korshinskii* are yellow-brown, while the former is hard and has many branches, while the latter is more flexible, and has relatively a few branches.

We then selected a sampling plot where all four plants coexist. At 0.5 m from the 181 center of the plot, we established three soil cuboids that were 200 cm long (closest to 182 the sampling plant), 140 cm deep, and 120 cm wide. Specifically, these three soil 183 cuboids are at an included angle of about 120° to each other, surrounding the sampled 184 185 plants in the center. Each cuboid was excavated at 20-cm intervals for a depth interval of 0-140 cm. The cuboid at each interval was evenly divided into 3 rows and 5 columns, 186 for a total of 15 sub-cuboids (length, 40 cm; width, 40 cm; height, 20 cm, Fig. 1d-e). 187 188 The sub-cuboids were excavated individually and the fine roots of all four species were collected. These fine-root samples were rinsed, dried to constant weights at 60 °C for 189 24 h and weighted fine-root weight of each plant species in each sub-cuboid. 190

191 2.4. Collections and measurements of water and foliar isotopes

Three fixed sites within the plot were selected to collect samples of xylem and soil water once a month from May to September 2018-2019. At each site, two mature plants for each species similar to the mean height and basal diameter of the species measured in the ecological sample survey were fixedly selected to conduct xylem samples. Bark and phloem were peeled from fully suberized branches to avoid perturbance of xylem water isotopic composition by fractionation. Pieces of the debarked and de-leaved twigs, 30 mm long, were then immediately placed in 10-mL vials.

The vials were then sealed with caps and wrapped in Parafilm. These samples were kept 199 in a cool box until storage in the lab at -20°C. Three soil profiles were collected 200 201 simultaneously with the xylem samples in a randomised direction 100 cm from the center of sampled plants using a soil auger (diameter in 50 mm). Soil samples for each 202 soil profile were obtained at 20 depths (at 10-cm intervals for a depth interval of 0-100 203 cm and at 20-cm intervals for a depth interval of 100-300 cm). The samples from each 204 layer were separated into two parts: one part was used for determining gravimetric SWC 205 using the oven-drying method (105 °C for 12 h); the other part was used for isotopic 206 207 determination. Soil samples for isotopic determination were immediately placed in 10mL vials that were sealed in the same manner as the xylem samples. In addition, we 208 collected disturbed soil samples at 0-300 cm depths with 20-cm intervals using a soil 209 210 auger for determination of particle size using a MS 2000 Laser Particle Size Analyzer (Malvern Instruments, Malvern, UK). 211

We collected approximately 250 g of fresh leaves from branches of four plants of 212 each species on the south-facing part of the crown monthly from May to September, 213 2018-2019. The foliar samples were rinsed, dried to a constant mass at 60 °C for 72 h, 214 and then ground to fine a powder that would pass through a 180-µm mesh sieve (#80). 215 The samples were analyzed for $\delta^{13}C$ with a stable isotope ratio mass spectrometer 216 (Isoprime 100, Isoprime Limited Inc., Cheadle, UK) that has a precision analysis of 217 0.1‰. δ^{13} C indicates the content of 13 C in a foliar sample relative to the Pee Dee 218 Belemnite standard using standard per mil (‰) notation. 219

220 The δ^2 H and δ^{18} O isotopic compositions of soil water from various depths (N=60

for each month) and xylem water (N=6 for each species each month) were determined 221 with a stable isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Isoprime 100, Isoprime Limited Inc., 222 223 Cheadle, UK). The precision of the analyses of H and O isotopes was 0.5 and 0.1‰, respectively. All H and O isotope ratios are expressed relative to Vienna Standard Mean 224 Ocean Water (V-SMOW) using standard per mil (‰) notation. Prior to analysis, water 225 was extracted from the soil and xylem (twig) samples with a LI-2100 automated 226 vacuum distillation system (LICA Inc., Beijing, China), which is similar to cryogenic 227 vacuum distillation systems except that it uses a compressor refrigeration unit and not 228 liquid nitrogen (Dai et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2021). The extraction required 180 min 229 with a maximum allowed vacuum pressure of 1500 Pa. Soil and xylem samples were 230 weighed immediately prior to (M_{prior}) and after extraction (M_{post}). They were again 231 232 weighed after oven drying at 105 °C for 12 h (Moven) to calculate the water recovery efficiency of each sample $\left(\frac{M_{prior}-M_{oven}}{M_{prior}-M_{post}} \times 100\%\right)$. The mean water recovery efficiency 233

was more than 99% for all samples.

235 2.5. Measurements of ψ_{md}

The ψ_{md} for four plant species (N=5 for each species each month) was determined once a month for May-September, 2018-2019. Specifically, the ψ_{md} was measured at 12:30-13:30 using a Scholander-type pressure chamber (PMS 1000, PMS Instruments Inc., Corvalis, USA).

240 2.6. Quantification of HNS based on $\delta^2 H$, $\delta^{18} O$ and $\delta^{13} C$ values

241 We used δ^2 H, δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values as input to the nicheROVER package to

242 determine HNS. nicheROVER is a probabilistic method for determining niche region

and pairwise niche overlaps (Swanson et al., 2015). The program produces a pairwise 243 probability the niche of one species overlaps with that of another (Swanson et al., 2015). 244 245 The nicheROVER calculates the extent of overlap between two species using niche regions (N_R), which are defined as specific locations where a species has a 95% 246 probability of being found. Uncertainty in overlap estimates was calculated using a 247 Bayesian framework (Jackson et al., 2011; Swanson et al., 2015). This overlap is 248 bidirectional but asymmetric. The niche overlap of species A onto species B is 249 determined as the fraction of the intersection area between niche A and niche B over 250 251 the total niche area of B, and vice versa for species B. The higher the overlap, the lower the HNS. The original application presented by Swanson et al. (2015) used three-252 dimensional isotope data. In our application of nicheROVER we substitute species 253 254 locations with locations where plants access water in three-dimensional space in the soil profile, based on isotopic signatures. 255

256 *2.7. Determining the sources of plant water*

We identified three distinct soil layers (0-30 cm, 30-70 cm and 70-300 cm) based 257 on similarities in δ^{18} O values in 2018-2019 as well as consideration of inter-month 258 variability (see discussion in Fig. S1). We then quantified the relative contributions of 259 potential water sources for the four plant species based on δ^{18} O and δ^{2} H values using 260 the simmr package in R (Parnell et al., 2013). The model is fitted with a Monte Carlo 261 Markov Chain algorithm that produces plausible solutions for each source's 262 contribution to the content of xylem water in each sample. The mean and standard 263 deviation of each source isotopic composition (δ^2 H and δ^{18} O) and xylem water 264

composition were input into the model. The simmr package also incorporates
uncertainty in trophic enrichment factors into the likelihoods of source contributions.
As there is no isotope fractionation during root water uptake, the trophic enrichment
factors were set to 0 (Evaristo et al., 2016).

269 *2.8. Data analysis*

Significant differences (p<0.05) in water sources at different soil layers, foliar δ^{13} C 270 and ψ_{md} among the four coexisting plant species in both wet and dry years, as well as 271 the yearly variations of the above indicators for each species were identified using the 272 273 bootstrap package in R. The method employed herein does not require assumptions (e.g., normal distributions, equal variances), and provides robust results in many 274 conditions that allow it to stand as a reliable alternative to standard parametric, 275 276 nonparametric, and permutation tests in small sample size studies (Dwivedi et al., 2017; Hesterberg, 2011). 277

278

279 **3. Results**

280 *3.1. Meteorological Conditions*

During the two years of study precipitation was 708 mm (2018) and 424 mm (2019), representing a wet year followed by a dry year. During the experimentation periods (May-September of both years), the seasonal distribution of precipitation was uneven, mostly concentrated in July-August: 540 mm (76%) in 2018; 220 mm (52%) in 2019 (Fig. 2a). The mean temperature ranged from 16.7 °C in May to 22.3 °C in July during the two study years. In response to variable precipitation depths, the gravimetric soil water contents (SWC) showed seasonal and yearly variation (Fig. 2b1, c1, d1). The
mean SWC values of shallow, intermediate, and deep layers in 2018 (3.1%, 3.6% and
3.7%, respectively) were higher than in 2019 (2.1%, 2.5% and 2.7%, respectively, Fig.
2b2, c2, d2).

291 *3.2. Root distributions*

The total fine-root mass of *P. simonii* (344.3 g, the mean from the three cubes) in 292 the 3.36 m³ sampling cube (a total of 105 sub-cuboids) was much larger than the masses 293 of the other three species: C. korshinskii (86.1 g), S. psammophila (113.0 g) and A. 294 295 ordosica (60.1 g). The proportion of cumulative fine-root masses within 0-80 cm soil layer for P. simonii, C. korshinskii, S. psammophila, and A. ordosica accounted for 83%, 296 83%, 94%, 97%, respectively, of the total fine-root mass (Fig. 3). The differences in 297 298 fine-root mass and distribution of fine-root in soil layers imply the various plants utilize somewhat different water sources. 299

300 *3.3. Water sources and physiological characteristics*

301 The simmr model results indicate the following (Fig. 4a) for the May to September period of the wet year (2018): (a) P. simonii mainly used water from deep layer (70-300 302 cm; mean of 41%), with less from shallow (0-30 cm; 24%) and intermediate (30-70 cm; 303 35%) layers; (b) C. korshinskii used more water from deep layer (39%) and similar 304 fractions of shallow water (30%) and intermediate water (31%); (c) S. psammophila 305 used more water from intermediate layer (38%) and similar fractions of shallow water 306 (33%) and deep water (29%); and (d) A. ordosica generally relied on shallow soil water 307 (57%), with limited use of water from intermediate (24%) and deep (19%) layers. The 308

utilization of shallow water by P. simonii, C. korshinskii and S. psammophila was 309 significantly lower than that of A. ordosica; and P. simonii had a significantly higher 310 311 utilization of deep soil water (bootstrapping test). During the dry year (2019), the utilization of deep soil water increased relative to the wet year for all species (Fig. 4a): 312 P. simonii (54%), C. korshinskii (54%), S. psammophila (53%) and A. ordosica (37%). 313 The increases of S. psammophila and A. ordosica were significant (bootstrapping test). 314 The ranges of ψ_{md} values for the four species were quite different and 315 demonstrated yearly variability for A. ordosica (Fig. 4b). The ψ_{md} for A. ordosica 316 significantly decreased (bootstrapping test) from the wet year to the dry year, 317 suggesting that this sand-binding semi-shrub may manage water stress by stomatal 318 control. Regarding inter-species differences, C. korshinskii showed consistently lower 319 320 ψ_{md} (minimum value of -2.3MPa) than the other three species in both years (bootstrapping test). In fact, it was the only species where the median ψ_{md} was higher 321 in the dry year than the wet year, although this response was not significant. 322

Foliar δ^{13} C for C. korshinskii, S. psammophila and A. ordosica, increased 323 significantly (became less negative) from the wet year to the dry year, whereas that for 324 P. simonii generally remained stable (bootstrapping test, Fig. 4c). A. orodosia showed 325 consistently lower $\delta^{13}C$ than the other three species; $\delta^{13}C$ for *C. korshinskii* and *S.* 326 psammophila were intermediate; and $\delta^{13}C$ for *P. simonii* was the highest recorded 327 among the four species in both years (bootstrapping test). These patterns imply 328 differentiation of physiological characteristics related to water use strategies between 329 species. 330

331 *3.4. Hydrological Niche Separation*

Based on the nicheROVER package, we find that in the wet year (Fig. 5, Table 2) 332 A. ordosica individuals were largely absent from the niche regions of P. simonii (0% 333 probability), C. korshinskii (3%), and S. psammophila (0%). These three species also 334 had a relatively low probability of being found in the niche region of A. ordosica, 335 suggesting HNS occurred between A. ordosica and the other three species. We also find 336 an asymmetric overlap in isotope distributions between P. simonii and C. korshinskii. 337 Further, P. simonii and S. psammophila. P. simonii had a high probability of utilizing 338 339 water in niche regions of C. korshinskii and S. psammophila (68% and 45%, respectively), while C. korshinskii and S. psammophila had low probabilities of water 340 use from the *P. simonii* niche region (20% and 18%, respectively). The probabilities of 341 342 S. psammophila and C. korshinskii using water from each other's niche regions were also high: 66% (S. psammophila in C. korshinskii's niche region); and 60% (C. 343 korshinskii in S. psammophila's niche region). 344

In the dry year, the trends of HNS between species were consistent with those in the wet year but the degree of separation decreased slightly (Fig. 6, Table 3). *A. ordosica* individuals still had the lowest probability of water usage from the niche regions of *P. simonii* (4%), *C. korshinskii* (32%), and *S. psammophila* (16%). *P. simonii* individuals had the highest probability of water usage from the niche regions of *C. korshinskii* (84%) and *S. psammophila* (74%); the probabilities were lower for *C. korshinskii* (42%) and *S. psammophila* (32%).

353 **4. Discussion**

The four plants exhibited diverse water sources and physiological regulation 354 strategies, resulting in different degrees of HNS between the species (Fig. 7). P. simonii 355 relied on consistently deep soil water in both years – a result that is intuitive for an 356 environment that dries from the surface downward during periods of low rainfall, 357 guaranteeing high WUEi and stable ψ_{md} . The two shrubs similarly increased the use of 358 deep soil water, and improved WUEi through stomatal regulation to cope with drought 359 stress from the wet year to the dry year. Nevertheless, the response of ψ_{md} to these 360 361 strategies was different. Both C. korshinskii and S. psammophila kept stable ψ_{md} . The ψ_{md} of the former was significantly lower than the latter, indicating that S. psammophila 362 may have stricter stomatal control. This characteristic is in line with that reported by 363 364 Zhao et al. (2021) regarding S. psammophila being an isohydric plant while C. korshinskii is an anisohydric plant. The regulation of stomata and the increase of WUEi 365 and the contribution of deep soil water did not effectively curb the significant decrease 366 of ψ_{md} for the semi-shrub A. ordosica from the wet year to the dry year. This finding 367 was related to its shallow root depths and the limited ability to obtain deep water source 368 compared with other three species. 369

The difference in WUEi and water sources within the soil profile resulted in HNS between *A. ordosica* and the other three species in the wet year. The hydrological niche overlap increased in the dry year as precipitation decreased. Collectively the differences in root water uptake depth and differentiations of physiological traits of coexisting species support the occurrence of HNS. Importantly, the shifts in water sources and physiological characteristics from the wet year to the dry year indicate HNS is dynamic
on at least an annual time scale in response to fluctuating soil moisture patterns,
supporting our original hypothesis.

378 *4.1. Water use strategies*

The root distribution data and the simmr model outputs indicate different water-379 use strategies. For example, the tree (*P. simonii*) extracted proportionally more water 380 from deeper layers than shallow layers in both wet and dry years, likely in association 381 with the presence of its fine-root masses and overall root distributions. Within the 3.36 382 m^3 sampling cube, we observed a higher mass and proportion of fine roots in the deep 383 layer for *P. simonii* compared with the other three species (note: we did not measure 384 root mass changes from year to year). Therefore, P. simonii had a greater ability to 385 386 obtain deep soil water than the three shrub species.

One shrub (*C. korshinskii*) relied on deep soil water, while the other shrub (*S. psammophila*) relied on intermediate soil water in the wet year, which is also supported by the root data showing that the proportion of fine-root at 80-140 cm soil layer for *C. korshinskii* (17%) is higher than that for *S. psammophila* (6%). As the semi-shrub *A. ordosica* had few fine roots deeper than 100 cm it mostly used water from the shallow soil in the wet year, which is generally expected.

Notably, water acquisition strategies for the four species shifted dynamically in response to moisture differences in the two years. All species increased their utilization of deep soil water and decreased their utilization of shallow water in the dry year that followed the wet year. Such a modification is considered an efficient strategy for drought avoidance for most vegetation (Christina et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2020; Yang
et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2021).

Changes in soil water status not only resulted in shifts in the utilization of water 399 sources but they also affected the expression of plant physiological characteristics. The 400 similar ψ_{md} in both the wet and dry years does not support the notion that *P. simonii* 401 experienced significant water stress in the dry year, despite other research indicating 402 the lack of suitability for this species to cope with the dry conditions in CLP (Liang et 403 al., 2006; Wang et al., 2019). Compared with the other three species, *P. simonii* had the 404 highest foliar δ^{13} C, which may be related to the high utilization of deep soil water. We 405 find a negative correlation between the contribution of shallow soil water and foliar 406 δ^{13} C (R²=0.37, p<0.001; Fig. S3a), as well as a positive correlation between the 407 contribution of deep soil water and foliar $\delta^{13}C$ (R²=0.38, p<0.001; Fig. S3c). 408 Unfortunately, our limited number of samples does not allow us to explore this 409 relationship in more detail for individual species. 410

 ψ_{md} for the two shrubs (*C. korshinskii* and *S. psammophila*) remained stable during 411 both years, but their foliar δ^{13} C increased significantly, a trait that may allow them to 412 cope against water stress. A decline in water availability causes plants to close their 413 stomata and decrease their discrimination against ¹³C during photosynthesis, resulting 414 in higher δ^{13} C values and increased water-use efficiency (Camarero et al., 2018; 415 Francey & Farquhar, 1982). Similarly, the δ^{13} C values in *A. ordosica* increased during 416 the dry year. However, its ψ_{md} decreased significantly, indicating substantial water 417 stress, probably because of its inability to access more deep soil water owing to limited 418

419 root mass.

420 4.2. Dynamic Hydrological Niche Segregation

421 The magnitude of the observed HNS varied with water availability, indicating that the hydrological niches were dynamic. The hydrological niche of A. ordosica was 422 clearly separated from those of the other three species in the wet year when there was 423 a very low probability (0-3%) of it using water from the hydrological niches of the other 424 species. However, that probability increased to 4-32% in the dry period, reducing the 425 degree of separation (Table 2). In general, the probability of overlap in hydrological 426 427 niches among all species increased during the dry year, with the exception being the overlap between S. psammophila and C. korshinskii. In most cases, the HNS was 428 highest in the wet year. 429

430 A decrease in the HNS and an increase in competition for water among the four species in arid ecosystems can be expected as precipitation decreases. The four plants 431 utilized diverse water sources in the wet year, while in the dry year, they used deeper 432 433 soil water more frequently (Fig. 7). The higher usage of deep soil water in the dry year resulted in a higher overlap in their hydrological niches. Similar trends were observed 434 in the Taihang Mountains of China, where Vitex negundo L. var. heterophylla had a high 435 hydrological niche overlap with Robinia pseudoacacia L and Ziziphus jujuba Mill var. 436 spinosa during the dry season (Zhu et al., 2021). However, during the rainy season, 437 these species had a greater HNS. 438

439 Nevertheless, we need to clarify that HNS relates to differences in root water440 uptake depths as well as differentiation of physiological traits. The assessment of HNS

in our study was based on comparisons of isotopes in the xylem water and the water within the soil profile, as well as WUEi (foliar δ^{13} C). Thus, the magnitude of HNS does not depend entirely on the shift in plant water sources. For example, although *A. ordosica* utilized the water throughout the soil profile, its main water source differed from the other three species in the wet year, implying that there could be weak water competition between them.

The hydrological niche overlap between A. ordosica and the other three species 447 ranged from 6 to 22%, using δ^2 H and δ^{18} O (Table S1), which aligns with the expected 448 results of lower water competition. However, the values ranged from 0 to 3%, using 449 δ^2 H, δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C, suggesting that the hydrological niche of *A. ordosica* was clearly 450 separated from those of the other three species. We surmise that, in addition to 451 452 difference in water sources, differentiation in physiological traits between A. ordosica and the other three species contributes to a higher HNS between them. The difference 453 in physiological regulation between species is also indicated by the lower δ^{13} C in A. 454 455 ordosica than in the other three species in the wet year.

It has been widely recognized that species adopt different root water use depths and physiological regulations in response to drought stress and/or water competition (Araya et al., 2011; Brum et al., 2019; Dwyer et al., 2021; Granda et al., 2022; Palacio et al., 2017). Discussion above in 4.1 similarly suggests differences in water use strategies of the four species. Thus, a single consideration of water acquisition for species may not systematically indicate how plants respond to water competition. In this context, our study is the first to assess the HNS under the dual control of water 463 acquisition via roots and water loss through stomata. These comparisons allow for a
464 more complete understanding of the water relationship between species.

465 *4.3. Limitations and future considerations*

Our research adds to the understanding of dynamic HNS, but we acknowledge that 466 our methods may not have captured the full range of hydrological niche widths. We 467 only compared overlap between species in two years, using plant samples from May to 468 September 2018 and 2019, which correspond with wet and dry years, respectively. 469 While we collected data for five months, a longer time frame may have shown more 470 471 seasonal variation and a broader hydrological niche. In our study area, most of the precipitation occurred from July to September, with May to June being relatively dry. 472 This uneven annual precipitation distribution led to large differences in the dual space 473 of $\delta^{18}O/\delta^2H$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values in the wet year (2018) for *A. ordosica*, as seen in the two 474 isotope clusters in Figs. 5g-h. In this case, it seems that using a single ellipsoid obtained 475 by nicheROVER to fit these two segmented isotope clusters may not be ideal as it may 476 477 influence the estimation of niche region and overlap. Additionally, data from an additional very dry year would have allowed us to assess the water stress of all plants 478 and potentially greater HNS. 479

Recently, the use of cryogenic vacuum distillation techniques in hydrogen isotopic fractionation has been questioned as a possible cause of conflicting results in various studies (Chen et al., 2020). While some research supports this view (e.g., Millar et al., 2019), other studies provide evidence to the contrary (Allen & Kirchner, 2022; Amin et al., 2021; Evaristo et al., 2021; Newberry et al., 2017). Evaristo et al. (2017) found that using both δ^2 H and δ^{18} O in a Bayesian inference framework improved estimates of plant water sources. Therefore, we used both δ^2 H and δ^{18} O to evaluate plant water sources and combined them with δ^{13} C values to measure HNS among species. While the results are plausible, we cannot confidently say that combining stable isotope tracers with the nicheROVER model fully captures the extent of hydrological niches. More data is needed from a variety of wetness conditions and other species.

Our approach also only allowed us to estimate the proportions of water use from 491 three soil layers, but not the volumes of water use. This information would have been 492 493 useful in understanding how plants in the community manage water stress in general. It would also have been helpful to track changes in root mass and distribution over time 494 to better interpret our findings. Additionally, we only considered water as a limiting 495 496 factor on community structure, but light and nutrient availability also play important roles in vegetation dynamics (Brum et al., 2019; Stark et al., 2012, 2015). Future 497 research should focus on quantifying the potential trade-offs between plant water 498 uptake and light availability at the community level and modeling water dynamics at 499 the rhizosphere scale (Daly et al., 2017). 500

501

502 5. Conclusion

503 Our results indicate that the four coexisting plant species (*P. simonii*, *C. korshinskii*, 504 *S. psammophila* and *A. ordosica*) in this dry ecosystem segregate along a hydrological 505 niche axis defined by water sources and WUEi, which is reflected in their xylem water 506 isotopes (δ^2 H and δ^{18} O) and foliar δ^{13} C. The extent of HNS among species decreased

507	from the wet year to the dry year because of changes in access to water sources and
508	WUEi. P. simonii readily used water in the deeper soil layers during both wet and dry
509	years, meanwhile WUEi remained stable. While three of the shrub and semi-shrub
510	species (C. korshinskii, S. psammophila and A. ordosica) not only increased the deep
511	soil water use in the dry year, they also increased WUEi through stomatal regulation,
512	leading to greater competition for water in the dry year versus the wet year. This study
513	shows that in dry ecosystems, HNS changes throughout the year as plant adjust water
514	resource acquisition and alter WUEi in response to variable soil moisture levels. A
515	better understanding of the dynamics of HNS of coexisting species will help researchers
516	to make more informed predictions about future changes in the abundance and structure
517	of plant communities in arid and semi-arid regions in response to climatic variability
518	and forecasted climate changes.

520

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530	Author contributions					
531	The experiment was designed and planned by YZ, LW and JE. The field work and					
532	sample collection were performed by YZ and LW. Data were analyzed and the					
533	manuscript was drafted by YZ and ADZ with assistance from JE, KPC and LW. All					
534	authors contributed to the final manuscript.					
535						
536	Competing interests					
537	The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.					
538						
539	Data availability					
540	The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding					
541	author upon reasonable request.					
542						
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728 Figures





Fig. 1 Geographical location of the study area (a). Soil particle composition at 0-300
cm depths (b), photographs of four coexisting plant species (*P. simonii, S. psammophila, C. korshinskii* and *A. ordosica*) (c), and root excavations (not all depths
are shown for clarity, d), and schematic of root excavations from one cuboid in one
direction in our study area (e).



Fig. 2 Daily time series of precipitation and temperature (a), and boxplots of monthly
and yearly variations in gravimetric soil water content (SWC) at shallow layer (b1-2,
N=9 per month), intermediate layer (c1-2, N=12 per month) and deep layer (d1-2, N=39
per month) for 2018 in olive green and 2019 in dark green. Boxplots show the median
(horizontal line), first to third quartiles (box), maximum and minimum values (whiskers)
and outliers (points).





Fig. 3 Distributions of fine-root mass (bar) and the proportion of cumulative fine-root
masses (scatter point) of *P. simonii*, *C. korshinskii*, *S. psammophila* and *A. ordosica*.



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Fig. 4 Contributions of potential water sources (a), boxplots of ψ_{md} (b) and foliar δ^{13} C (c) for PS (*P. simonii*), CK (*C. korshinskii*), SP (*S. psammophila*) and AO (*A. ordosica*) in the wet (2018) and dry (2019) years. Boxplots show the median (horizontal solid line), mean (horizontal grey dash line), first to third quartiles (box), maximum and minimum values (whiskers). Data was collected monthly from May to September, 2018-2019 (N=5 for each boxplot).





Fig. 5 Density distributions (probability of the random variable to fall within the range 757 of observed values; a, δ^{18} O; e, δ^{2} H; i, δ^{13} C), hydrological niche overlap plots (ten 758 random elliptical projections of niche region for each species; b-c, f), and scatterplots 759 (d, g-h) of four species (black, CK, C. korshinskii; red, AO, A.ordosica; blue, SP, 760 S.psammophila; yellow, PS, P. simonii, N=30 per species) in the wet year (2018). Ten 761 random elliptical projections of niche region were obtained by drawing 10 random pairs 762 (mean, variance) for each species from their posterior distribution (Fig. S2a). The larger 763 the ellipse overlap area between the two species, the higher the hydrological niche 764 overlap. 765





Fig. 6 Density distributions (probability of the random variable to fall within the range 768 of observed values; a, δ^{18} O; e, δ^{2} H; i, δ^{13} C), isotopic niche overlap plots (ten random 769 elliptical projections of niche region for each species; b-c, f), and scatterplots (d, g-h) 770 of four species (black, CK, C. korshinskii; red, AO, A.ordosica; blue, SP, 771 S.psammophila; yellow, PS, P. simonii, N=30 per species) in the dry year (2019). Ten 772 random elliptical projections of niche region were obtained by drawing 10 random pairs 773 (mean, variance) for each species from their posterior distribution (Fig. S2b). The larger 774 the ellipse overlap area between the two species, the higher the hydrological niche 775 overlap. 776

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Tables

Table 1 Morphological parameters (mean ± 1 s.d.) of the four plant species measured in

	P. simonii	C. korshinskii	S. psammophila	A. ordosica	
Growth form	Tree	Shrub	Shrub	Semi-shrub	
Family	Salicaceae	Leguminosae	Salicaceae	Compositae	
Leaf phenology	Deciduous	Deciduous	Deciduous	Deciduous	
Average height in plots (m)	5.2±1.6	1.4±0.4	1.4±0.4	0.5±0.2	
Average height of sampled plants	5 2 1 0 9	1.2+0.4	1 4 0 4	0 () 0 2	
(m)	5.2±0.8	1.3±0.4	1.4±0.4	0.6±0.3	
Average basal diameter in plots	0.1+5.0	16106	1 8 1 0 5	0.8+0.7	
(cm)	9.1±3.9	1.0±0.0	1.8±0.5	0.8±0.7	
Average basal diameter of	0.5+1.0	15105	1 7 0 5	0.0+0.7	
sampled plants (cm)	9.3±1.0	1.3±0.5	1./±0.5	0.9±0.7	
Density (individuals/ha)	519	494	301	3356	
Root density (shallow, g m ⁻³)	247.7	45.0	102.9	54.0	
Root density (intermediate, g m ⁻³)	144.0	42.3	50.0	29.2	
Root density (deep, g m ⁻³)	45.4	12.4	8.1	3.2	
Number of plants in plots	187	64	39	435	

797 the ecological sample survey.

Table 2 Mean probabilistic niche overlap (%) among the four plant species in the wet
year (2018).

	A. ordosica	C. korshinskii	P. simonii	S. psammophila
A. ordosica	NA	3	0	0
C. korshinskii	4	NA	20	60
P. simonii	0	68	NA	45
S. psammophila	1	66	18	NA

803 Note: the numbers indicate the probability that an individual from the species indicated by the

row will be found within	the niche of the species	indicated by the column header.
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- 806

Table 3 Mean probabilistic niche overlap (%) among the four plant species in the dry

808 year (2019).

	A. ordosica	C. korshinskii	P. simonii	S. psammophila
A. ordosica	NA	32	4	16
C. korshinskii	42	NA	42	51
P. simonii	29	84	NA	74
S. psammophila	42	49	32	NA

809 Note: the numbers indicate the probability that an individual from the species indicated by the

row will be found within the niche of the species indicated by the column header.

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814	Supplementary material for
815	
816	Dynamic hydrological niche segregation: how plants compete for water in a
817	semiarid ecosystem
818	
819	Ying Zhao ^{1,2,5} , Li Wang ^{1,2*} , Kwok P. Chun ³ , Alan D. Ziegler ⁴ , Jaivime Evaristo ^{5*}
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832	
833	Contents of this file:
834	Figs. S1 to S3
835	Table S1



836

Fig. S1 Soil cluster analysis using 0-300 cm soil water δ^{18} O values (a) and δ^{2} H values (b), respectively, in 2018-2019. The numbers ① - ③ represented that soil water was divided into 3 groups, 0-30 cm, 30-70 cm and 70-300 cm using δ^{18} O values, and 0-30 cm, 30-60 cm and 60-300 cm using δ^{2} H values.



842	Fig. S2 Posterior distribution of the probabilistic niche overlap metric (%) for a
843	specified N_R of 95% in 2018 (a) and 2019 (b). The posterior means and 95% credible
844	intervals are displayed in green. The numbers in the plots indicate the mean probability
845	that an individual from the species indicated by row will be found within the niche of
846	the species indicated by the column header. The four species displayed are C.
847	korshinskii (CK), A.ordosica (AO), S.psammophila (SP) and P. simonii (PS).



Fig. S3 Relationships between contribution of shallow soil water (a), intermediate soil water (b), deep soil water (c) and foliar δ^{13} C of four species (CK, *C. korshinskii*; AO, *A.ordosica*; SP, *S.psammophila*; PS, *P. simonii*, N=10 per species).

Table S1 Mean probabilistic niche overlap (%) among the four plant species in the wet year (2018) using δ^2 H and δ^{18} O.

	A. ordosica	C. korshinskii	P. simonii	S. psammophila
A. ordosica	NA	7	6	22
C. korshinskii	26	NA	74	79
P. simonii	42	91	NA	95
S. psammophila	63	73	67	NA

856 Note: the numbers indicate the probability that an individual from the species indicated by row

857 will be found within the niche of the species indicated by the column header.