



17 **Abstract**

18 Understanding how subsurface water storage regulates ecosystem responses to hydroclimatic
19 variability is central to ecohydrology, but the extent to which lithology mediates seasonal
20 sensitivity of forests to climatic water deficit (CWD) through soil–regolith water storage
21 remains poorly understood. Using four satellite vegetation metrics and meteorological
22 reanalysis (2000–2023), we quantify seasonal sensitivity to CWD across the hydro-lithological
23 regions of the Qinling Mountains. Results show that forest functional responses to CWD were
24 more pronounced than structural greenness, implying that greenness-based metrics may
25 overlook substantial drought impacts on forest ecosystems. Temperature and precipitation
26 affected drought sensitivity in different ways across seasons and regions. Higher temperatures
27 generally reduced drought sensitivity in spring and summer, especially where soils and bedrock
28 can store more water, but increased sensitivity in autumn. More precipitation increased
29 sensitivity to CWD in summer and autumn, although this effect differed across regions.
30 Bedrock-stored water exerts a dual effect. In summer, it helped reduce drought stress by
31 providing extra water during the growing season. In spring, however, it could increase
32 vegetation sensitivity because it encouraged canopy development, which raised water demand.
33 In regions where access to bedrock water was limited, even a small amount of bedrock-water
34 access was associated with higher sensitivity to CWD. Our findings demonstrate that drought
35 assessment and forest management should account for hydro-lithological properties and
36 bedrock water dynamics.

37 **Keywords:** Bedrock water storage; Climatic water deficit; Hydro-lithological properties;
38 Forest drought sensitivity; Qinling Mountains



39 **1. Introduction**

40 Hydroclimatic extremes driven by climate change increasingly challenge terrestrial
41 ecosystems (Piao et al., 2019), but observed global greening does not necessarily translate
42 resilience (Wu et al., 2025). Crucially, increasing water stress is decoupling ecosystem function
43 from canopy greenness (Jiao et al., 2021), with evidence showing widespread losses of
44 resilience to climatic water deficit (CWD) even amid biomass gains (Wang et al., 2023; Wu et
45 al., 2025). Therefore, identifying the properties that influence vegetation sensitivity to water
46 deficits is critical for predicting future carbon–water feedback (Dong et al., 2023; McDowell et
47 al., 2020).

48 Conventionally, soil moisture has been evaluated as the primary water source for
49 vegetation responses to climate variability because it supplies water for transpiration and
50 buffers atmospheric evaporative demand (Miguez-Macho & Fan, 2021; Sun et al., 2025).
51 However, emerging evidence shows that plants routinely retrieve water from weathered
52 bedrock underlying the soil layer (McCormick et al., 2021). These deep reservoirs effectively
53 buffer vegetation against short-term water deficits (Fan et al., 2017; Hahm et al., 2020; Y. Liu
54 et al., 2025; Luo et al., 2024; Rempe & Dietrich, 2018; Schmidt & Rempe, 2020). However,
55 bedrock-water access does not fundamentally enhance ecosystem resilience. In some
56 landscapes, favourable subsurface moisture can promote vegetation expansion beyond a
57 sustainable water supply, which increases transpiration demand and accelerates depletion of
58 accessible storage; ultimately, sensitivity to subsequent deficits is amplified (Callahan et al.,
59 2022; Hahm et al., 2019; Hahm et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2024). This dual effect reflects
60 lithology-driven contrasts in subsurface storage, recharge and hydraulic connectivity, which



61 regulate the trade-off between buffering and vulnerability.

62 Despite growing recognition that subsurface hydrology exerts bottom-up control on
63 drought responses, two gaps persist. Firstly, vegetation sensitivity to water deficit is inherently
64 phenology dependent because water demand and physiological regulation shift across the
65 growing season (Wu et al., 2022). As a result, the same subsurface properties may buffer stress
66 in one period but intensify vulnerability in another. However, many studies aggregate responses
67 across the growing season, which potentially obscures intra-seasonal shifts driven by
68 phenology–lithology interactions. Secondly, much of the evidence for bedrock-water
69 dependence comes from Mediterranean-type climates, where precipitation and peak
70 temperature are asynchronous, which makes reliance on deep reservoirs more apparent (Hahm
71 et al., 2020; Leite et al., 2025). In monsoon-dominated montane regions, hydrothermal
72 synchrony can support dense canopies and high transpiration demand, but intermittent rainfall
73 and subsurface hydraulic constraints may lead to the demand–supply mismatch (Lian et al.,
74 2024). Moreover, drought impacts are often inferred from canopy greenness, even though
75 canopy-scale functioning varies substantially while structural greenness changes slightly. This
76 misalignment motivates an explicit comparison of structural and functional responses under the
77 same hydroclimatic forcing.

78 Here, we combine an ensemble of remotely sensed vegetation indicators with
79 meteorological reanalysis (2000–2023) to examine the regulating effect of lithology–climate
80 interactions on seasonal sensitivity to CWD in the Qinling Mountains, China’s ‘Central Water
81 Tower’. We classify the region into three hydro-lithological domains (HS-HR, LS-HR and LS-
82 LR) based on plant-available water capacity in soil and regolith (see in Method; H/L denotes



83 high/low, S/R denotes soil/regolith). We also quantify the variation in seasonal vegetation
84 sensitivity to CWD across these regions. Using statistical analyses and scenario-based
85 modelling, we further disentangle the interaction mechanism between bedrock-water access
86 and seasonal climate variability to shape vegetation sensitivity to CWD across the growing
87 season. The assessment uses structural greenness (NDVI and EVI) and functional activity (GPP
88 and SIF). We demonstrate that the effect of bedrock water depends jointly on seasonal
89 hydroclimate and lithology-driven hydraulic properties. This insight provides a mechanistic
90 basis for assessing ecosystem stability under increasingly variable monsoon hydroclimate.



91 **2. Methods**

92 **2.1 Study area**

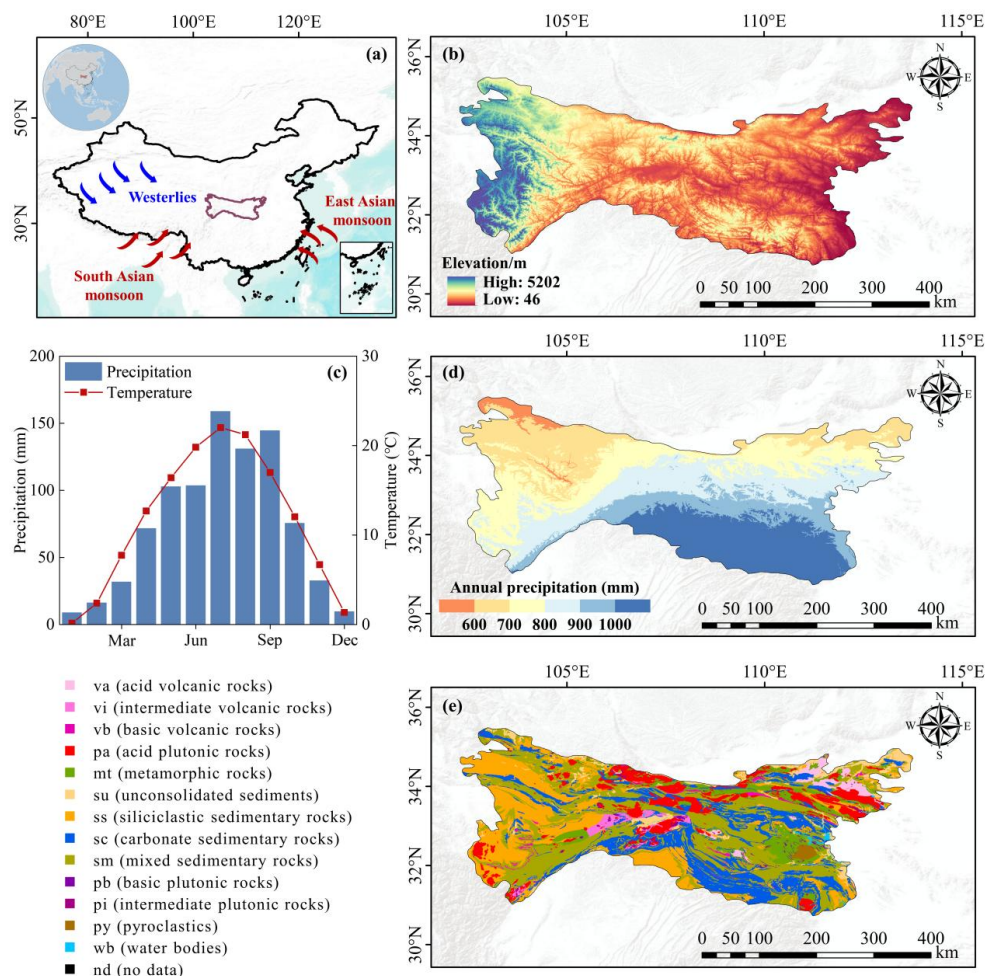
93 This study focuses on the Qinling Mountains in central China (30–36°N, 102–115°E;
94 Figure 1a). The Qinling Mountains lie along China’s north–south climate transition, which
95 broadly separates humid from semi-humid climates. Moreover, the Qinling Mountains function
96 as the China’s central water tower, which supplies runoff that supports major inter-basin water
97 transfers, including the Middle Route of the South-to-North Water Diversion Project.

98 Land cover includes forests (needleleaf and broadleaf) and non-forest types (e.g. grassland
99 and shrubland; Figure 5a). Within the study area, needleleaf and broadleaf forests cover 12.3%
100 and 23.7% of the land area, respectively. Climate is dominated by the monsoon system, in which
101 summer moisture is delivered mainly by the South Asian and East Asian monsoons, and winter
102 is influenced by the mid-latitude westerlies (Figure 1a). Annual precipitation ranges from 600
103 to 1000 mm (Figure 1d), with the majority occurring between June and September (Figure 1c),
104 thereby creating a strong seasonal coupling between water supply and energy availability.

105 The geological context of Qinling Mountains is highly heterogeneous, with elevations
106 ranging from low foothills below 46 m to high mountain ridges exceeding 5,202m (Figure 1b).
107 Geologically, the Qinling Mountains originated from the prolonged collision and amalgamation
108 of the North China Craton and the Yangtze Craton (Chen et al., 2025; Liu et al., 2023), and
109 subsequent tectonic activity further enhanced spatial variability in altitude and bedrock
110 composition (Figure 1e). This complex geology determines the hydraulic properties of soil and
111 regolith layers, which influence vegetation root distribution, water uptake strategies and
112 drought responses (Fan et al., 2017; Miguez-Macho & Fan, 2021; Ott, 2020; Stocker et al.,



113 2023).



114

115 Figure 1 Distribution map of study units. (a) Location of the Qinling Mountains in China and

116 the dominant circulation systems influencing the region; (b) Elevation of the Qinling Mountains;

117 (c) Monthly mean precipitation (bars; mm) and temperature (line; °C) averaged over the period

118 of 2000–2023; (d) Spatial distribution of annual precipitation; (e) Spatial distribution of

119 lithologic units in the Qinling Mountains based on the Global Lithological Map database (GLiM)

120 (Hartmann & Moosdorf, 2012)



121 **2.2 Dataset**

122 We obtained the Normalised Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI; 250 m resolution)
123 dataset (Gao et al., 2023) in the period of 2000–2023 from the National Tibetan Plateau Data
124 Centre. Solar-induced chlorophyll fluorescence (SIF; 0.05° resolution) data were derived from
125 the LHSIF dataset (Zou et al., 2025). Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS)
126 products (Running et al., 2021), including the Enhanced Vegetation Index (EVI; 500 m) and
127 Gross Primary Productivity (GPP; 500 m), were sourced from the National Aeronautics and
128 Space Administration. To systematically contrast canopy structural and functional responses to
129 CWD, we categorised NDVI and EVI as structural indicators, while GPP and SIF were
130 classified as functional indicators.

131 Monthly climatic variables for the period of 2000–2023, including precipitation (P), mean
132 temperature (T) and potential evapotranspiration (PET) at 1 km resolution, alongside actual
133 evapotranspiration (ET) at 500 m resolution, were obtained from established meteorological
134 datasets (Ding & Peng, 2020, 2021; Peng et al., 2017, 2018, 2019). Monthly CWD was
135 calculated as the difference between PET and ET (i.e., $PET - ET$).

136 Spatial distribution of vegetation types was extracted from the 1:1,000,000 scale
137 Vegetation Map of China, which was provided by the Resources and Environmental Science
138 Data Center. To estimate plant-available soil water storage, we utilised soil hydraulic properties
139 and soil thickness data. Soil hydraulic properties were obtained from HiHydroSoil v2.0, a global
140 gridded database of soil hydraulic properties at 250 m resolution (Simons et al., 2020). Soil
141 thickness was obtained from the China High-resolution National Soil Information Grids, which
142 provide high-resolution gridded soil property information for China, including soil thickness



143 and other basic soil attributes (Liu et al., 2022). Soil texture information was also based on the
144 high-resolution three-dimensional soil texture mapping of China developed by Liu et al. (2020).
145 Within the upper 2 m soil profile, available water content for each of the six standard depths
146 (0–5, 5–15, 15–30, 30–60, 60–100, 100–200 cm) was determined by the difference between
147 field capacity and the permanent wilting point. These interval values were weighted by layer
148 thickness and integrated over the soil profile to compute the total plant-available water capacity
149 (AWC) for each grid cell.

150 To ensure spatial alignment across all datasets, we resampled continuous variables (NDVI,
151 EVI, GPP, SIF, AWC and climate fields) to a uniform $0.01^\circ \times 0.01^\circ$ grid using bilinear
152 interpolation. Categorical variables, including vegetation types and lithological units, were
153 concurrently resampled to the identical resolution using a nearest-neighbour approach.

154 **2.3 Masking procedures**

155 To isolate forest ecosystems and ensure the fidelity of hydrological flux estimations, we
156 implemented three successive masking criteria. Firstly, forest-dominated landscapes,
157 comprising needleleaf and broadleaf taxa, were delineated based on resampled vegetation
158 datasets (Figure 5a). Secondly, we narrowed the analysis to regions where cumulative
159 evapotranspiration (ET) remained below cumulative precipitation (P) over the study period of
160 2000–2023. This criterion excludes areas exhibiting an unphysical long-term water deficit,
161 which may stem from unquantified hydrological subsidies, such as occult precipitation (fog and
162 dew), irrigation or lateral subsurface flow, that would otherwise confound the interpretation of
163 the water balance. Furthermore, we excluded regions classified as unconsolidated sediments
164 (su) and pyroclastic (py) to mitigate potential biases arising from extreme hydrological



165 heterogeneity and atypical subsurface storage dynamics.

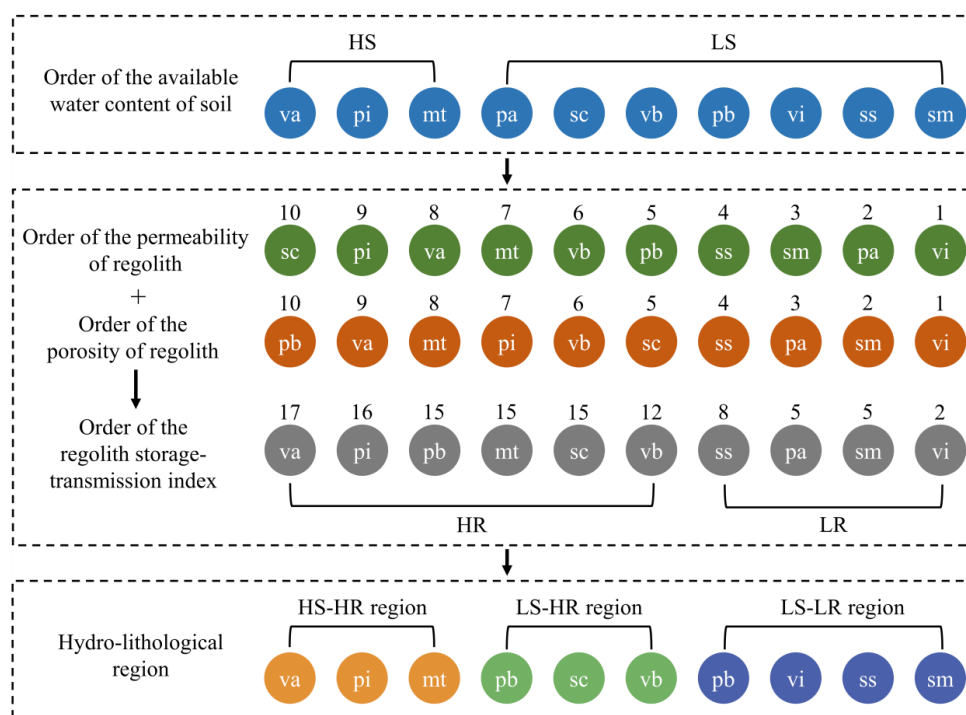
166 **2.4 Identification of the hydro-lithological regions**

167 To assess the influence of the hydrologic properties of soil and regolith on vegetation
168 sensitivity to climatic water deficit (CWD), we delineated the hydro-lithological regions across
169 the study area. These regions represent (i) soil plant-available water capacity and (ii) regolith
170 water storage and transmission potential. Following the main analysis, soil water availability
171 was quantified as available water capacity (AWC). Regolith properties were represented by
172 porosity (n) and permeability (K) from the Global Hydrogeology Maps (GLHYMPS) 2.0
173 dataset (Gleeson et al., 2014). All continuous layers (AWC, K and n) were resampled to a 0.01°
174 grid prior to classification to ensure spatial consistency with the subsequent regression analyses.

175 Firstly, we classified each lithological unit as high (HS) or low (LS) soil water capacity
176 using the domain-mean AWC as the threshold. Given that porosity and permeability vary
177 strongly among lithological units, we constructed a rank-based composite index to represent
178 regolith water storage and transmission potential (Figure 2). For each lithological unit, we
179 calculated mean porosity (n) and permeability (K) across all grid cells within that unit. We
180 converted n and K to ordinal scores by ranking the 12 lithological classes from highest to lowest
181 for each property (scores 12–1). We then defined the regolith storage–transmission index (RSTI)
182 as the sum of the porosity and permeability scores for each class. This unit-free index assumes
183 that higher porosity (storage) and higher permeability (connectivity) jointly indicate a greater
184 potential for plant-accessible water storage in the regolith. Lastly, we classified lithological
185 units as high (HR) or low (LR) regolith storage–transmission potential using the mean RSTI as
186 the threshold.



187 We combined soil (HS/LS) and regolith (HR/LR) classes to delineate three coupled
 188 hydro-lithological regions: HS–HR (mt, pi, va), LS–HR (vb, pb, sc) and LS–LR (vi, pa, ss, sm).
 189 After the masking procedure (Methods) was applied, no HS–LR combination occurred;
 190 therefore, the classification comprised three region types. This co-occurrence suggests that, in
 191 the Qinling Mountains, high soil AWC is often associated with regolith characterised by
 192 relatively high porosity and permeability.



193

194 Figure 2 Schematic for identifying the hydro-lithological region.

195 **2.5 Statistical analysis of vegetation sensitivity to CWD**

196 To assess the impacts of CWD and hydroclimatic factors on vegetation structure, we
 197 employed a multiple linear regression model with interaction terms to disentangle the effects of
 198 precipitation (P) and temperature (T) on vegetation responses to water deficit. The model is



199 defined as follows:

$$200 \quad y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 CWD + \beta_2 P + \beta_3 T + \gamma_1 (CWD \times P) + \gamma_2 (CWD \times T) + at + \epsilon \quad (1)$$

201 where y represents a vegetation indicator (NDVI, EVI, GPP, SIF, ensemble structural indicator
202 or functional indicator).

203 To ensure comparability of regression coefficients across predictors and pixels, we first
204 applied differencing, which removes the intercept term (β_0) from the model. After differencing,
205 all variables (responses and predictors) were standardised to zero mean and unit variance after
206 differencing. Thus, the coefficients represent changes in standard deviations of the vegetation
207 indicator corresponding to a one-standard-deviation change in hydroclimatic drivers. Given the
208 multicollinearity among CWD, climatic factors and their interaction terms, we employed ridge
209 regression to estimate sensitivity parameters, as it constrains coefficient magnitudes to reduce
210 variance and prevent overfitting. In the ridge regression, the coefficient β_1 reflects the
211 ecosystem sensitivity at mean precipitation and temperature anomalies ($P = 0, T = 0$), which is
212 defined as the change in a vegetation indicator per unit increases in CWD. Larger absolute
213 values of sensitivity represent stronger vegetation response to water deficits. Notably, negative
214 sensitivities indicate declines in vegetation activity under higher CWD, and positive
215 sensitivities indicate increases. $\beta_2, \beta_3, \gamma_1$ and γ_2 denote the direct effects of precipitation and
216 temperature on vegetation growth, and their marginal effects on vegetation sensitivity to CWD.
217 The regressor t is an augment term to account for potential spurious regression due to trends in
218 variables, which is preferred over explicit detrending methods for handling stochastic trends.
219 We employed differencing to eliminate the constant β_0 . Although monthly data were processed
220 from 2000 to 2023, statistical analyses were limited to the growing season (March to



221 November).

222 **2.6 Contributions of bedrock water storage to vegetation sensitivity**

223 To estimate the contribution of bedrock-stored water to vegetation evapotranspiration, we
224 applied a monthly storage-deficit water-balance framework for 2000–2023, following recent
225 applications that infer below-soil water use from the mismatch between evapotranspiration
226 demand and water supplied by precipitation and soil water storage (Ehlert et al., 2024; Qiu et
227 al., 2026). This approach simulates plant-available soil water dynamics (S_{soil}), whereby any
228 monthly ET demand exceeding precipitation and soil storage is attributed to bedrock water
229 uptake ($S_{bedrock}$). We assumed preferential vegetation reliance on soil water and prioritised
230 refilling of the soil reservoir by precipitation before any runoff or deep drainage occurs. The
231 model operates continuously (non-resetting), which allows soil water deficits or surpluses to
232 accumulate across monthly and inter-annual timescales. This continuous accounting captures
233 the legacy effects of multi-year droughts and provides a conservative estimate of bedrock water
234 use, as deeper sources are only accessed once soil water is exhausted.

235 For each grid cell, S_{soil} was initialised at AWC in January 2000. At each time step t , the
236 model updated these stores as follows: precipitation (P_t) was added to the soil reservoir until
237 AWC was reached, and water was removed from the soil to satisfy the monthly actual
238 evapotranspiration (ET_t). If ET demand exceeded the sum of precipitation and the available soil
239 water from the previous month, then the shortfall was met by bedrock water use ($S_{bedrock,t}$).

$$240 \quad S_{bedrock,t} = \max[0, ET_t - \min(S_{soil}, S_{soil,t-1} + P_t)] \quad (2)$$

241 The soil water for the subsequent month ($t+1$) was then determined by the residual soil
242 moisture following ET plus the surplus precipitation, with the total value bounded between zero



243 and the AWC:

$$244 \quad S_{soil,t} = \max[0, \min(AWC, S_{soil,t-1} + P_t - ET_t)] \quad (3)$$

245 Lastly, we summed the monthly bedrock water ($S_{bedrock,t}$) over the period of 2000–2023 to
246 obtain the cumulative plant available water capacity in bedrock for each grid cell ($S_{bedrock,cum}$).
247 This iterative accounting captures the temporal propagation of moisture deficits during
248 prolonged dry spells, which quantifies the magnitude of deep-seated water subsidies required
249 to sustain transpirational demand when soil reserves are exhausted. This approach provides a
250 conservative estimate of bedrock-water contribution because bedrock water is invoked only
251 after shallow-soil water is depleted. In some ecosystems, however, plants can access bedrock
252 water before shallow-soil water is exhausted (Qiu et al., 2026). Our estimates therefore probably
253 represent a lower bound on the contribution of bedrock water to ET.

254 To evaluate the regulating effect of bedrock-water access on vegetation sensitivity to
255 drought, we defined a counterfactual CWD without bedrock subsidy (CWD_e) as the
256 atmospheric water demand that would remain unmet in the absence of inferred bedrock-stored
257 water. In this framework, the conventional CWD underestimates potential ecological water
258 stress when part of transpiration is sustained by bedrock water:

$$259 \quad CWD_{e,y} = CWD_y + S_{bedrock,y} \quad (4)$$

260 We then re-estimated vegetation sensitivity by substituting CWD_e for CWD as the primary
261 predictor in our regression framework. By comparing the sensitivity coefficient derived from
262 CWD_e (β_{1e}) against the original CWD baseline (β_1), we quantified the extent to which bedrock
263 water buffers ecosystem responses to moisture deficits.



264 **3. Results and discussion**

265 **3.1 Seasonal decoupling between canopy structure and function**

266 We partition the Qinling Mountains into three hydro-lithological regions based on plant-
267 available water capacity in soil and regolith, and the data are inferred from available water
268 content of soil and porosity/permeability of regolith (Gleeson et al., 2014). We define the HS-
269 HR (high soil water availability, high regolith water availability), the LS-HR (low soil, high
270 regolith) and the LS-LR (low soil, low regolith), which account for 13.6%, 18.8% and 67.6%
271 of the study area, respectively (Figure 3a).

272 Across all hydro-lithological regions, functional activity showed generally stronger
273 sensitivity to CWD than structural greenness, which reveals a pervasive functional–structural
274 decoupling. During the growing season, functional indicator was positively sensitive to CWD
275 in all regions and was highest in the LS-HR (0.11 to 0.14; Figure 3c), compared with the HS-
276 HR region (0.04 to 0.10; Figure 3b) and the LS-LR region (0.00 to 0.09; Figure 3d). By contrast,
277 structural sensitivity was weak (near zero) and generally negative across regions (−0.10 to 0.10).
278 This difference likely arises because photosynthesis responds rapidly through stomatal and
279 photochemical regulation, whereas canopy greenness exhibits slower processes such as carbon
280 allocation and phenological development (Li et al., 2023; Nadal-Sala et al., 2021; Vicca et al.,
281 2016; Xu et al., 2024). Consequently, changes in structural greenness under-represent
282 concurrent shifts in canopy function under fluctuating water deficits. Furthermore, in these
283 monsoon mountain ecosystems, the generally positive functional sensitivity suggests that
284 moderate increases in CWD coincide with clearer skies and higher incoming radiation
285 (Sreeparvathy et al., 2025; Yang et al., 2024). This radiative boost can transiently enhance



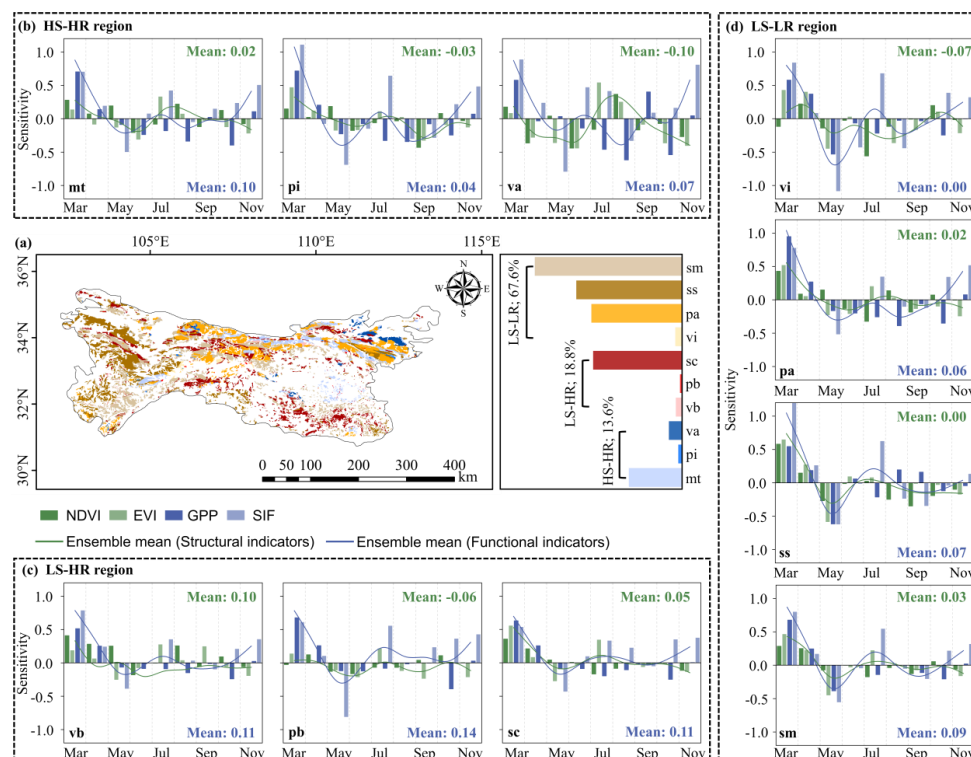
286 photosynthetic activity even when canopy greenness remains largely unchanged.

287 This functional–structural decoupling was strongly seasonal. Functional sensitivity to
288 CWD decreases from 0.21 in spring to -0.03 in summer, before recovering to 0.06 in autumn
289 (Figure 4). Among the functional indicators, the sign weakened in summer and autumn was
290 driven mainly by GPP, which became negative in summer and persisted into autumn, whereas
291 SIF maintained positive responses across seasons (Figure 4). By contrast, structural sensitivity
292 remained feeble for most of the growing season, which shifted from 0.09 in spring to -0.09 in
293 autumn. This observation is consistent with the view that structural greenness tracks slower
294 phenological dynamics, whereas SIF- and GPP-based indicators capture faster physiological
295 regulation (Zeng et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2025). Structural sensitivity was positive in spring
296 across all three regions. However, in LS-HR and LS-LR regions, where soil water availability
297 is low, structural sensitivity became negative in summer, signalling a shift from energy
298 limitation to water limitation during peak growth. This observation suggests that springtime
299 greening can increase canopy evapotranspiration, which potentially makes vegetation in areas
300 with low soil water availability more susceptible to water stress in summer (Lian et al., 2020;
301 Zhang et al., 2025).

302 These divergent seasonal trajectories between structural greenness and functional activity
303 are further supported by contrasting responses across forest types. Across all hydro-lithological
304 regions, needleleaf and broadleaf forests show strong functional sensitivity to CWD, which
305 peaks in the LS-HR region and declines as the season progresses (Figure 5). Compared with
306 needleleaf forests, broadleaf forests show more negative structural sensitivity in summer and
307 autumn, unveiling that greenness tracks water limitation more closely in broadleaf stands (Jin

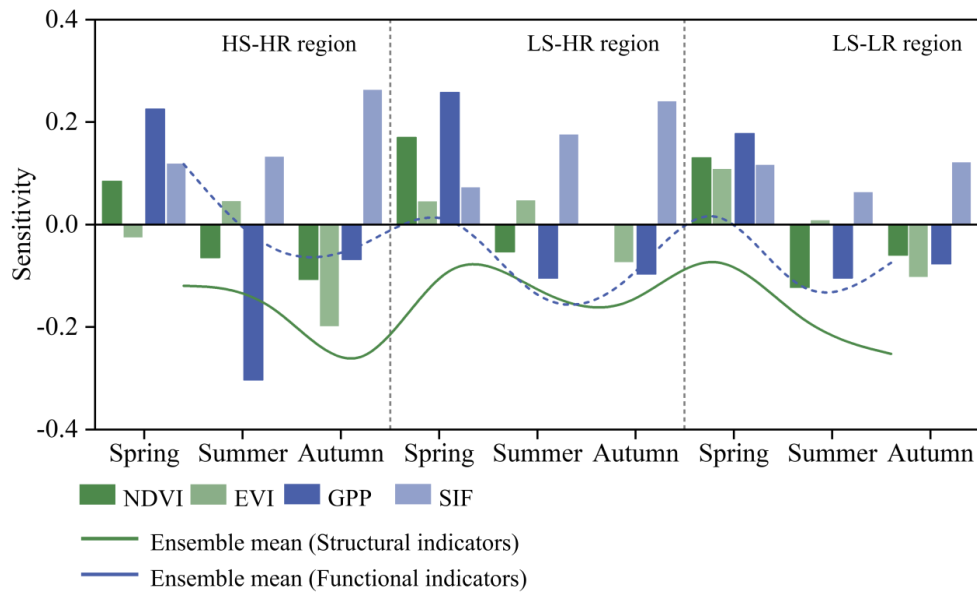


308 et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2024). Overall, the strong functional sensitivity to CWD but weak (and
309 often negative) structural sensitivity, especially in broadleaf stands in summer and autumn,
310 reinforces that greenness alone is insufficient to diagnose functional responses to drought.



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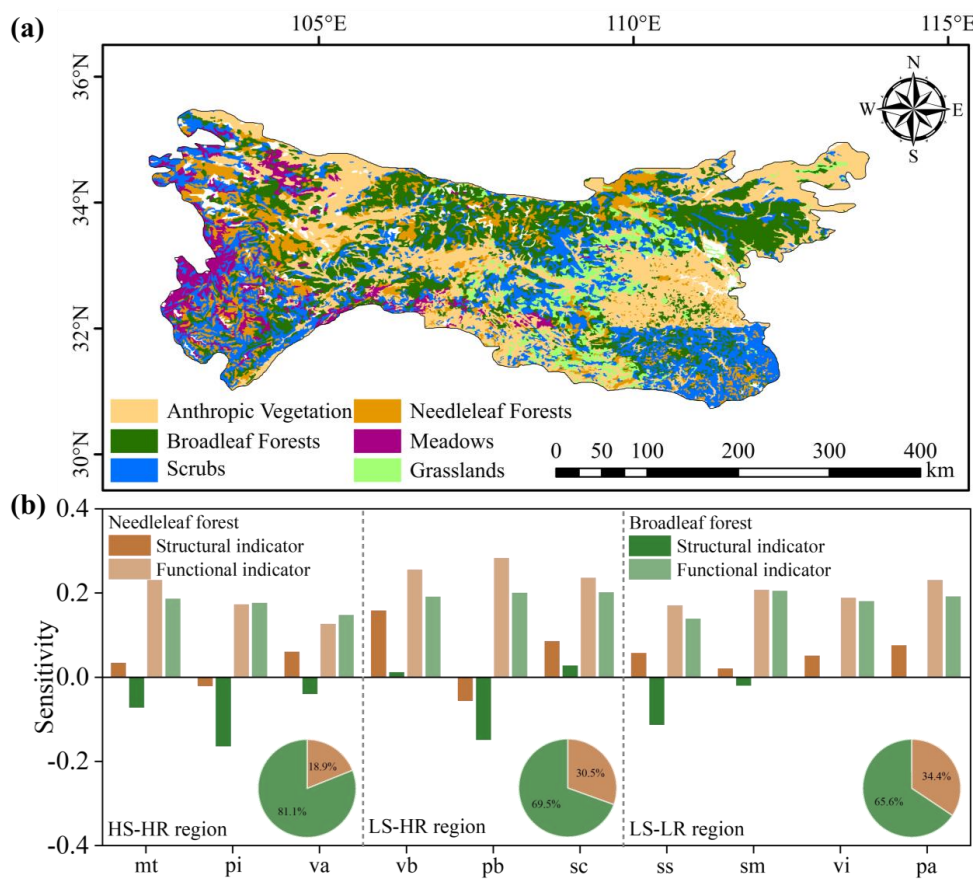
312 Figure 3 Hydro-lithological regions of the Qinling Mountains and monthly sensitivity of
 313 vegetation indicators to CWD. (a) Map of hydro-lithological regions in the Qinling Mountains.
 314 The bar chart shows the area fraction of each hydro-lithologic region. (b–d), Monthly sensitivity
 315 of vegetation indicators to CWD in the HS-HR (b), LS-HR (c) and LS-LR (d) regions. Bars
 316 show sensitivities of the four indicators (NDVI, EVI, GPP and SIF) to CWD for each lithologic
 317 class. Solid lines show the ensemble-mean sensitivities of structural indicators (NDVI and EVI)
 318 and functional indicators (GPP and SIF).



319

320 Figure 4 Seasonal sensitivity of vegetation indicators to CWD across three hydro-lithological

321 regions



322

323 Figure 5 Vegetation patterns and forest sensitivity to climatic water deficit across hydro-
 324 lithological regions in the Qinling Mountains. (a) spatial distribution of vegetation types in the
 325 Qinling Mountains based on the 1:1,000,000 Vegetation Map of China from the National
 326 Cryosphere Desert Data Center; (b) mean sensitivity of needleleaf and broadleaf forests to
 327 climatic water deficit (CWD) across three hydro-lithological regions.



328 **3.2 Seasonal climate regulation and marginal effects on CWD sensitivity**

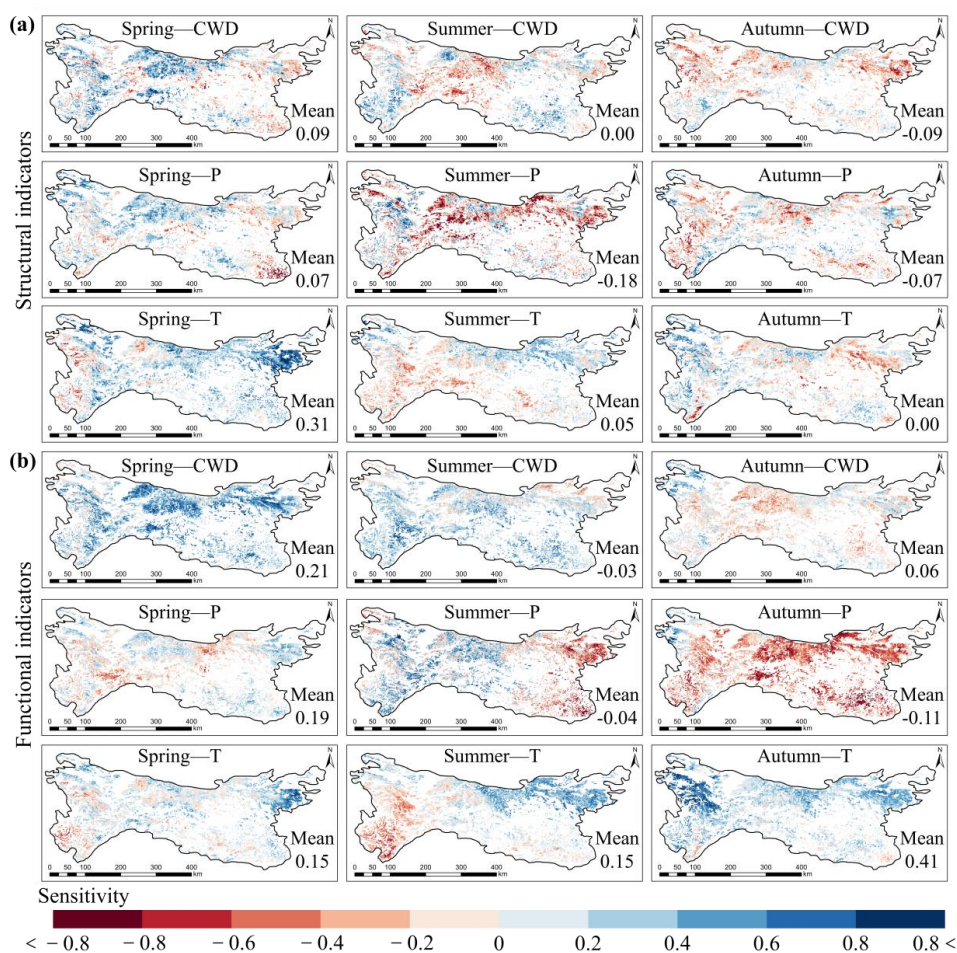
329 Temperature and precipitation influenced functional activity and structural greenness
330 differently in magnitude and seasonality. In spring, structural greenness increased with
331 temperature (mean effect = 0.31; Figure 6), which is consistent with earlier leaf-out and faster
332 canopy development under warming (Jiang et al., 2024). This spring temperature signal was
333 strongest in the HS-HR region, where higher soil and regolith water availability likely alleviate
334 water limitation. By summer and autumn, this temperature effect on structural greenness waned.
335 By contrast, temperature effects on functional indicators remained evident in all seasons and
336 were strongest in autumn (mean effect = 0.46; Figure 6). In water-unlimited conditions,
337 warming enhances photosynthetic rates; as a result, functional indicators show a clearer
338 temperature response than structural greenness.

339 Precipitation exerted more complex control on vegetation growth than temperature
340 (Figures 6 and 7). In spring, precipitation had a minuscule effect on canopy greenness (mean
341 effect = 0.01–0.08). Nevertheless, precipitation can recharge shallow water stores during leaf-
342 out, which eases plant water stress and supports turgor-driven growth (Tian et al., 2019; Zhang
343 et al., 2025). Contrary to typical expectations, precipitation during the summer and autumn
344 negatively correlates with vegetation greenness and functional activity, which suggests that
345 excess precipitation fails to increase plant-available water. Prolonged wetness may induce
346 transient anoxia, enhance nutrient leaching and reduce incoming radiation, which jointly
347 constrain canopy greenness and functional activity (Dossa et al., 2019; Mokhtar et al., 2020).
348 Consistent with this mechanism, precipitation suppressed summer functional activity in the
349 water-rich HS-HR region, whereas its influence became weakly positive in the drier LS-HR



350 and LS-LR regions.

351 Precipitation and temperature not only affect vegetation growth directly but also regulate
352 the structural and functional sensitivities to CWD. Across the growing season, functional and
353 structural sensitivities increased with precipitation (marginal effects: 0.07–0.25 for functional
354 indicator and 0.12–0.18 for structural indicator; Table 1). This finding suggests that additional
355 precipitation further increased functional and structural sensitivity to CWD throughout the
356 growing season. One explanation is that energy limitation in the Qinling Mountains (incoming
357 radiation and temperature) constrains photosynthesis and evapotranspiration, such that
358 additional water inputs do not fully translate into canopy growth (Condon et al., 2020; Fu et al.,
359 2024). By contrast, temperature had generally negative marginal effects on functional and
360 structural indicators during the early and peak growing-season periods, with the strongest
361 effects in the water-sufficient HS–HR region (marginal effects: –0.09 to –0.03 for functional
362 indicator and –0.32 to –0.07 for structural indicator; Table 1). Therefore, in areas with high
363 water availability in regolith, the marginal effect of temperature on sensitivity to CWD
364 diminished towards zero. However, the temperature marginal effect became positive in autumn,
365 which implies that the availability of subsurface water allows higher temperatures to extend the
366 window for photosynthesis (Keenan et al., 2014; Li et al., 2025). These marginal effect patterns
367 are broadly consistent between individual indicators and ensemble indicators. On the contrary,
368 the temperature marginal effect on SIF sensitivity remains positive in spring, summer and
369 autumn (Table 1).



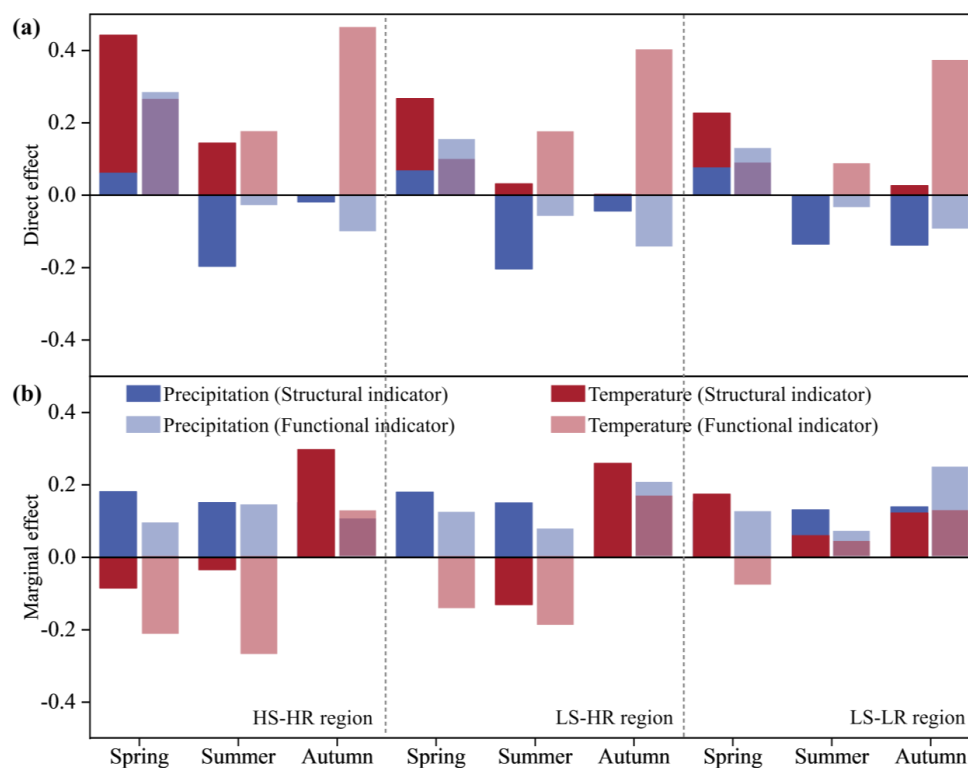
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371 Figure 6 Spatial distribution and regional means of ridge-regression coefficients for climate

372 drivers. (a) Ridge-regression coefficients for structural indicators showing the sensitivities to

373 climatic water deficit (CWD; β_1), precipitation (P; β_2) and temperature (T; β_3) in spring, summer

374 and autumn; (b) Ridge-regression coefficients for functional vegetation indicators, as in (a)



375

376 Figure 7 Seasonal direct and marginal effects of precipitation and temperature on vegetation

377 metrics across hydro-lithological regions. (a) Direct effects of precipitation and temperature on

378 structural and functional indicators across spring, summer and autumn in the HS-HR, LS-HR

379 and LS-LR regions; (b) Marginal effects of precipitation and temperature on the CWD

380 sensitivity of structural and functional indicators in each season and hydro-lithological region.



381 Table 1. Marginal effects of precipitation and temperature on the four vegetation indicators to CWD in each growth season and hydro-lithological

382 region.

Interaction effect between climatic factor and climatic water deficit	Regions	Season	Structural indicators				Functional indicators		
			NDVI	EVI	Ensemble mean	GPP	SIF	Ensemble mean	
Precipitation	HS-HR	Spring	0.21	0.08	0.18	0.20	-0.08	0.09	
		Summer	0.04	0.16	0.15	0.31	-0.06	0.14	
	LS-LR	Autumn	0.17	0.04	0.15	-0.06	0.23	0.10	
		Spring	0.19	0.09	0.18	0.24	-0.07	0.12	
	LS-HR	Summer	0.04	0.15	0.15	0.16	-0.01	0.08	
		Autumn	0.13	0.06	0.12	0.01	0.34	0.21	
Temperature	HS-HR	Spring	0.07	0.16	0.15	0.26	-0.08	0.13	
		Summer	0.11	0.10	0.13	0.15	0.00	0.07	
	LS-LR	Autumn	0.16	0.07	0.14	0.05	0.35	0.25	
		Spring	-0.31	-0.26	-0.32	-0.25	0.20	-0.09	
	LS-HR	Summer	0.01	-0.08	-0.07	-0.27	0.22	-0.03	
		Autumn	-0.23	0.17	-0.04	0.06	0.33	0.30	
Precipitation	HS-HR	Spring	-0.19	-0.11	-0.16	-0.18	0.27	-0.01	
		Summer	0.03	-0.04	-0.01	-0.27	0.12	-0.13	
	LS-LR	Autumn	-0.27	0.11	-0.09	0.16	0.21	0.26	
		Spring	-0.03	-0.01	-0.01	-0.06	0.41	0.17	
	LS-HR	Summer	0.13	0.01	0.07	-0.14	0.26	0.06	
		Autumn	-0.15	0.04	-0.07	0.12	0.03	0.12	

383



384 **3.3 Available bedrock water storage and a seasonal trade-off: buffering in summer,**
385 **amplifying in transitional seasons**

386 Available bedrock water storage ($S_{bedrock,cum}$) exhibited strong spatial variation across the
387 Qinling Mountains (Figure 8). From 2000 to 2023, central and northern Qinling mountains
388 steadily showed low $S_{bedrock,cum}$ (50–150 mm), while areas in the west and east had higher values
389 (200–800 mm), which indicates greater reliance on bedrock water (Figure 8a). These spatial
390 patterns in bedrock water storage corresponded to variations in hydro-lithological properties
391 (Figure 8a). In particular, the mean $S_{bedrock,cum}$ varied from a peak of 379.1 mm in the LS-HR
392 region to a low of 310.7 mm in the LS-LR region, with the HS-HR region characterised by a
393 mean value of 348.6 mm. Such spatial divergence implies that the LS-HR region, which
394 exhibits the highest $S_{bedrock,cum}$, functions as a key hydrological reservoir that supports greater
395 canopy development than in the LS-LR region; it also yields vegetation development (such as
396 NDVI, EVI and GPP) comparable to that in the water-rich HS-HR region (Figure 9).

397 Comparing the observed CWD sensitivity (β_1) with a counterfactual scenario excluding
398 bedrock water showed distinct seasonal effects of bedrock water. In summer, structural
399 sensitivity decreased from 0.026 to 0.022 in the HS-HR region and from 0.016 to 0.012 in the
400 LS-HR region (Figure 8b), which suggests that bedrock-water access buffers increased canopy
401 water demand during peak growth and thus attenuates sensitivity to CWD. This buffering is
402 particularly amplified in the LS-HR region due to its limited soil water storage compared with
403 the HS-HR region, which indicates that bedrock water serves as an indispensable resource for
404 vegetation when surface water availability is restricted. By contrast, in the LS-LR region, where
405 soil and regolith have limited water storage capacity, bedrock-water access decreased structural



406 sensitivity (-0.038 to -0.046). Although persistent water limitation likely constrains biomass
407 accumulation in this region, even modest additional bedrock water can enhance greenness,
408 which amplifies drought responses. This bedrock water-driven enhancement of greenness
409 suggests a ‘structural overshoot’ mechanism, where vegetation develops canopy capacity
410 beyond the sustainable water supply (Callahan et al., 2022; Chai et al., 2025; Li et al., 2023;
411 Zhang et al., 2024). In addition, bedrock-water access made functional sensitivity more
412 negative in the HS-HR and LS-LR regions (by 1.9% and 17.2%, respectively), but it dampened
413 the positive functional sensitivity in the LS-HR region (by 3.4%). Therefore, in the HS-HR
414 region, canopy development supported by bedrock-water access remains energy-limited in
415 terms of structural greenness, whereas canopy functional activity has already shifted to water
416 limitation ahead of structural greenness. Accordingly, in water-rich settings, even modest
417 bedrock-water access can shift the dominant constraint on peak-season canopy development
418 from energy limitation to water limitation. By contrast, in spring, bedrock-water access
419 increased structural and functional sensitivities across all hydroclimatic regions (by 0.7% to
420 24.2%), underlining that bedrock water acts as an additional source that promotes early-season
421 vegetation growth (McCormick et al., 2021; Stocker et al., 2023). However, it also heightened
422 the responses of structural greenness and functional activity to water deficit. By the late growing
423 season, vegetation dynamics were dominated by phenological progression, and the effect of
424 bedrock-water access on functional and structural sensitivities was minimal ($< 0.5\%$).

425 Overall, these results highlight lithology-driven bedrock water storage, along with the
426 hydrological properties of soil–regolith, as the key mediators of vegetation–climate coupling.
427 While bedrock water can buffer forests against drought in summer, it may also increase drought

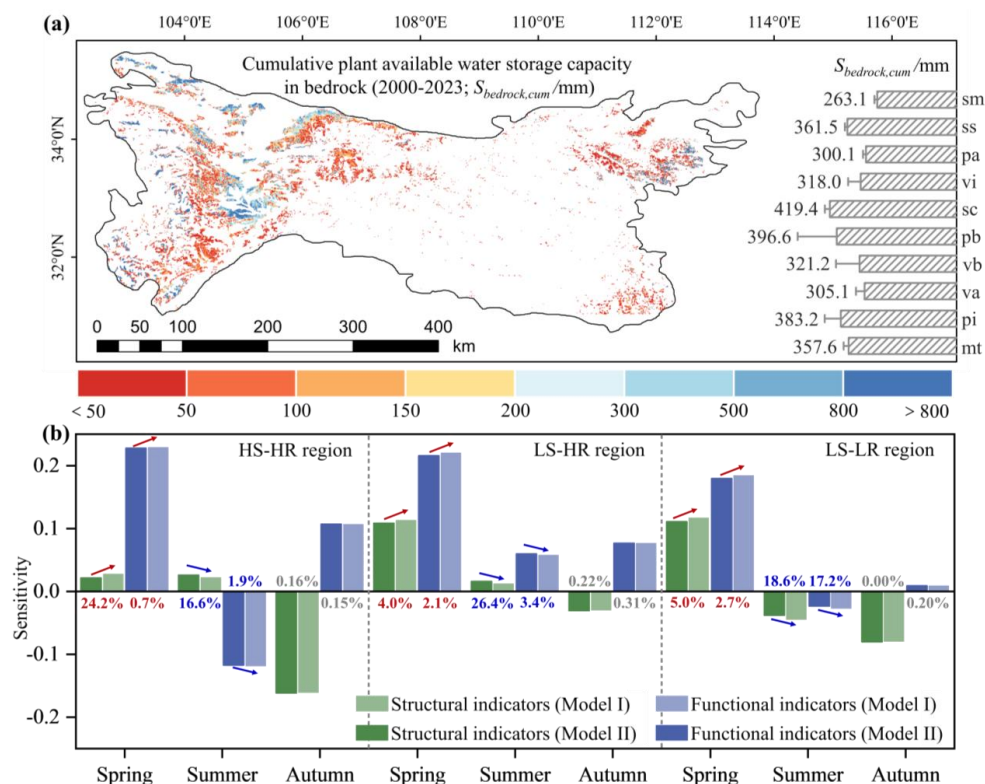


428 sensitivity in spring and autumn by driving canopy ‘structural overshoot’. This phenomenon
429 demonstrates a seasonal trade-off between buffering and amplification across hydro-
430 lithological settings, which explains the contrasting seasonal resilience and vulnerability of the
431 monsoon Qinling mountains to CWD.

432 The hydro-lithological controls on seasonal drought responses were by no means confined
433 to the Qinling Mountains. During the 2011–2017 drought in California’s Sierra Nevada,
434 spatially varied forest impacts and pronounced patchiness in stand structure and vulnerability
435 were linked to variations in bedrock properties (Callahan et al., 2022). Accumulating evidence
436 shows that woody plants can rely on bedrock water to sustain transpiration and carbon storage,
437 which highlights regolith as a component of ecosystem water supply (Hahm et al., 2019, 2020,
438 2024; Liu et al., 2025; McCormick et al., 2021). Consistent with the mechanism identified here,
439 bedrock composition and regolith properties also regulate ecosystem productivity sensitivity to
440 hydroclimatic variability at global scales (Dong et al., 2023). This growing evidence highlights
441 the necessity to incorporate subsurface hydrological heterogeneity, beyond the soil profile, in
442 models predicting forest function under increasing hydroclimatic variability. From a
443 management perspective, strategies should be tailored to specific hydro-lithological regions.
444 For instance, in the HS-HR region with abundant water resources, promoting structural
445 diversity may enhance carbon storage capacity while avoiding structural overshoot. In the LS-
446 HR region, limiting vegetation cover could reduce the risk of widespread mortality during
447 sudden drought events. In the LS-LR region, management should focus on drought-tolerant
448 species and stand compositions due to the limited water supply. Incorporating hydro-
449 lithological regionalisation and the dynamic role of bedrock water into management planning



450 may therefore mitigate drought impacts associated with unsustainable water use.



451

452 Figure 8 Spatial patterns of plant-available bedrock water storage and its influence on

453 vegetation sensitivity to CWD. (a) Spatial distribution of cumulative plant-available bedrock

454 water storage capacity in the Qinling Mountains (2000–2023; $S_{bedrock,cum}$). The bar chart shows

455 mean $S_{bedrock,cum}$ for each lithological class; (b) Seasonal sensitivities of structural and functional

456 indicators to CWD in the HS-HR, LS-HR and LS-LR regions. Sensitivities are estimated using

457 two models: Model I, which includes bedrock-water access (Equation 1), and Model II, which

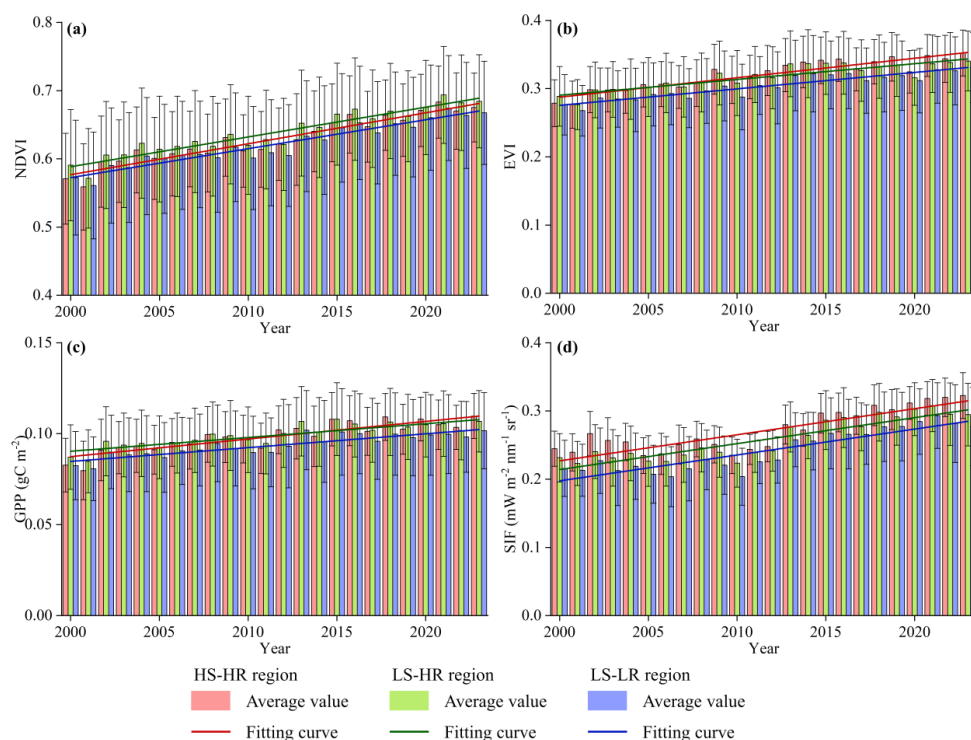
458 excludes bedrock-water storage (Equation 4). Bars show structural and functional sensitivities

459 in spring, summer and autumn for each model. Arrows and percentages denote the relative

460 change in sensitivity in Model I compared with Model II, which is calculated as $2(\beta_1-$



461 $\beta_{1s}/(\beta_1+\beta_{1s})$, where β represents the estimated sensitivity coefficients.



462

463 Figure 9 Temporal variations of vegetation indicators across the three hydro-lithological regions
 464 (HS-HR, LS-HR and LS-LR). (a) NDVI; (b) EVI; (c) GPP; (d) SIF.

465 3.4 Uncertainty and limitations

466 Several uncertainties and limitations should be considered when interpreting the results of
 467 this study. Firstly, the bedrock-water contribution estimated here is not a direct observation of
 468 water stored in fractured bedrock, but an inferred subsidy derived from a water-balance
 469 framework. In this framework, when monthly evapotranspiration demand exceeds the
 470 combined supply from contemporaneous precipitation and antecedent soil water storage, the
 471 resulting shortfall is attributed to plant-accessible deep subsurface water. Importantly, previous
 472 studies have shown that bedrock-stored water can also be utilized even when precipitation and



473 soil moisture are sufficient, particularly in regions characterized by shallow soils or deep-rooted
474 plant species (Ding et al., 2021; Qiu et al., 2026). Accordingly, the inferred bedrock-water
475 subsidy should be interpreted as a conservative estimate.

476 Secondly, the hydro-lithological regionalisation is based on a threshold classification of
477 soil available water capacity and a rank-based regolith storage–transmission index derived from
478 porosity and permeability. This classification is intended to capture the major contrasts in water
479 storage and transmission potential across the Qinling Mountains, rather than to fully resolve the
480 continuous heterogeneity of subsurface hydraulic properties within each lithological class. This
481 framework is primarily designed to reveal spatial and seasonal contrasts in the role of inferred
482 bedrock-water subsidy in modulating vegetation sensitivity to climatic water deficit (CWD).

483 Finally, the results are best interpreted as regional-scale ecohydrological patterns
484 consistent with lithologically mediated subsurface water regulation, rather than as direct
485 evidence of bedrock-water use at individual grid cells. Nevertheless, the spatial and seasonal
486 patterns observed across hydro-lithological regions strongly indicate that subsurface water
487 storage and accessibility play a critical role in modulating forest sensitivity to climatic water
488 deficit—effects that extend well beyond the Qinling Mountains. Future work integrating flux
489 observations, isotopic tracing, bedrock-moisture monitoring, and process-based modelling will
490 help to better constrain the underlying mechanisms.

491 **4. Conclusion**

492 This study demonstrates that lithology exerts a strong seasonal control on forest sensitivity
493 to climatic water deficit in the Qinling Mountains by regulating the storage, accessibility, and
494 ecological consequences of bedrock water. Forest functional activity was more responsive to



495 CWD than canopy greenness, revealing a pervasive functional–structural decoupling and
496 indicating that greenness-based assessments alone may underestimate hydrological stress. The
497 climatic effect on the vegetation sensitivity to CWD was strongly season dependent:
498 precipitation generally enhanced CWD sensitivity in summer and autumn, whereas warming
499 reduced sensitivity in spring and summer, especially where soils and bedrock can store more
500 water, but increased it in autumn. Most importantly, bedrock-stored water showed a dual effect.
501 It buffered drought stress during peak summer growth by supplementing shallow water deficits,
502 but it also increased sensitivity in spring by promoting canopy development and water demand.
503 Thus, bedrock water does not simply increase resilience; it can also intensify later vulnerability
504 through seasonal demand amplification. Overall, our results suggest that drought response in
505 mountain forests is governed by a seasonal trade-off between hydrological buffering and
506 ecological amplification, and that this trade-off is fundamentally conditioned by hydro-
507 lithological properties of the soil–regolith system. These findings highlight the need to move
508 beyond soil-only perspectives of plant-available water and to explicitly incorporate bedrock
509 water and lithological heterogeneity into hydrological models, drought assessments, and forest
510 management in mountain water-tower regions

511 **Data Availability Statement**

512 Monthly precipitation (<https://www.tpdac.ac.cn/zh-hans/data/faae7605-a0f2-4d18-b28f-5cee413766a2>), temperature (<https://www.tpdac.ac.cn/zh-hans/data/71ab4677-b66c-4fd1-a004-b2a541c4d5bf/>), potential evapotranspiration (<https://www.tpdac.ac.cn/zh-hans/data/8b11da09-1a40-4014-bd3d-2b86e6dccc4/>) and normalized difference vegetation index (<https://www.tpdac.ac.cn/zh-hans/data/10535b0b-8502-4465-bc53-78bcf24387b3>) for 2000-



517 2023 were obtained from the National Tibetan Plateau Data Centre. Monthly ET, GPP and EVI
518 were obtained from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) EarthData
519 portal (<https://search.earthdata.nasa.gov/search>). The LHSIF dataset was from Zenodo
520 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.16394372>; Zou et al., 2025). The 1:1,000,000 Vegetation Map
521 of China was obtained from the Resource and Environmental Science Data Center
522 (<https://www.resdc.cn/data.aspx?DATAID=122>). Available water content data were obtained
523 from the global HiHydroSoil v2.0 database
524 (<https://www.dropbox.com/scl/fo/nf2jgaz4mvd0c8zcedla/AGzoL2LXMtktzJ93Y7ETjP8?rlk>
525 [ey=yhpw01sq62wp62zb59qh7mknn&e=1&dl=0](https://www.dropbox.com/scl/fo/nf2jgaz4mvd0c8zcedla/AGzoL2LXMtktzJ93Y7ETjP8?rlk)). Soil thickness data were obtained from the
526 National Earth System Science Data Center (<http://soil.geodata.cn/ztsj.html>), as described by
527 Liu et al. (2022) and Liu et al. (2020). Lithological classes were obtained from the high-
528 resolution Global Lithological Map database (GLiM; [https://www.geo.uni-](https://www.geo.uni-hamburg.de/en/geologie/forschung/aquatische-geochemie/glim.html)
529 [hamburg.de/en/geologie/forschung/aquatische-geochemie/glim.html](https://www.geo.uni-hamburg.de/en/geologie/forschung/aquatische-geochemie/glim.html)). Regolith porosity and
530 permeability were obtained from the Global HYdrogeology MaPS (GLHYMPS;
531 https://emf.creaf.cat/external_data/glhymps/).

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535 **Author contribution**

536 TQS: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Software,
537 Validation, Visualization, Writing – original draft; QYM: Conceptualization, Methodology,
538 Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition, Resources, Writing – review &



539 editing; JLL: Methodology, Formal analysis, Validation, Writing – review & editing; YZ: Data
540 curation, Resources, Investigation, Writing – review & editing; XYS: Data curation, Software,
541 Validation, Visualization, Writing – review & editing; HQ: Resources, Investigation, Writing –
542 review & editing; DH: Supervision, Project administration, Resources, Writing – review &
543 editing; JBP: Conceptualization, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Project administration,
544 Writing – review & editing.

545 **Competing interests**

546 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

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