

1 **How to predict hydrological effects of local land use**
2 **change: how the vegetation parameterisation for short**
3 **rotation coppices influences model results**

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15
16 **Abstract**

17 Among the different bioenergy sources, short rotation coppices (SRC) with poplar and willow
18 trees are one of the promising options in Europe. SRC not only provide woody biomass, but
19 often additional ecosystem services. However, a known shortcoming is the potentially lower
20 groundwater recharge caused by the potentially higher evapotranspiration demand compared
21 to annual crops. The complex feedbacks between vegetation cover and water cycle can be
22 only correctly assessed by application of well parameterized and calibrated numerical models.
23 In the present study the hydrological model system WaSim is implemented for assessment of
24 the water balance. The focus is the analysis of simulation uncertainties caused by the use of
25 guidelines or transferred parameter sets from scientific literature compared to ‘actual’
26 parameterisations derived from local measurements of leaf area index (LAI), stomatal
27 resistance (Rsc) and date of leaf unfolding (LU). The analysis showed that uncertainties in
28 parameterisation of vegetation lead to implausible model results. LAI, Rsc and LU are the

1 most sensitive plant physiological parameters concerning the effects of enhanced SRC
2 cultivation on water budget or groundwater recharge. Particularly sensitive is the beginning of
3 the growing season, i.e. LU. When this estimation is wrong, the accuracy of LAI and Rsc
4 description plays a minor role. Our analyses illustrates that the use of locally measured
5 vegetation parameters, like maximal LAI, and meteorological variables, like air temperature,
6 to estimate LU give better results than literature data or data from remote network stations.
7 However, the direct implementation of locally measured data is not always advisable or
8 possible. Regarding Rsc, the adjustment of local measurements gives the best model
9 evaluation. For local and accurate studies, measurements of model sensitive parameters like
10 LAI, Rsc and LU are valuable information. The derivation of these model parameters based
11 on local measurements show the best model fit. Additionally, the adjusted seasonal course of
12 LAI and Rsc is less sensitive to different estimates for LU. Different parametrisations, as they
13 are all eligible either from local measurements or scientific literature, can result in modelled
14 ground water recharge to be present or completely absent in certain years under poplar SRC.

15 **1 Introduction**

16 In the context of climate change mitigation and reduction of greenhouse gases (GHGs)
17 emissions, bioenergy is one of the possible alternatives for fossil fuels. Among the different
18 bioenergy sources, short rotation coppices (SRC) with mainly poplar and willow trees are
19 promising options in Europe (Djomo et al., 2011). SRC provide woody biomass as well as
20 additional ecosystem services. Seepage water quality is enhanced due to lower fertilizer
21 requirements and higher nutrient use efficiency (Aronsson et al., 2000; Schmidt-Walter and
22 Lamersdorf, 2012). Compared to conventional annual crops SRC sequester more carbon and
23 emit less N₂O (Don et al., 2012), which is one of the most important GHGs. As structural
24 landscape elements in rural areas SRC might also contribute positively to biodiversity (Baum
25 et al., 2012).

26 However, SRC are not without disadvantages. The most quantitatively assessable
27 disadvantage is the potentially lower groundwater recharge (GWR) being caused by higher
28 evapotranspiration of poplar and willow plantations in comparison to annual crops (Lasch et
29 al., 2010; Schmidt-Walter and Lamersdorf, 2012). An assessment using hydrological models
30 can help to minimize negative and maximize positive ecological effects caused by land use
31 change from arable land to SRC at regional and local scales, e.g. to regional climate and/or to
32 adjacent ecosystems. To adequately quantify the effects of this land use change, the

1 hydrological models must correctly reproduce the hydrological feedback effects of vegetation
2 and land use management. Beside the choice of proper modelling approach, a careful
3 parameterization of land use and vegetation is needed to obtain reliable simulation results.
4 The aim of present study is to assess the effect of parameter uncertainties of the land use type
5 poplar SRC on modelling results.

6 The planting of SRC causes the occurrence of new factors and complex factor interactions
7 influencing site water fluxes. One factor is the perennial vegetation cover with higher leaf
8 area index (LAI, $m^2 m^{-2}$) combined with a longer growing season compared to annual crops
9 (Petzold et al., 2010).

10 LAI directly affects canopy interception due to an almost linear correlation between LAI and
11 canopy storage (Rutter et al., 1971). Outside the growing season LAI, more precisely plant
12 area index, additionally provides canopy storage by woody biomass - i.e. stems and branches.
13 Furthermore, the transpiration is positively correlated with LAI - i.e. higher LAI causes higher
14 transpiration rates. However, LAI is negatively correlated with soil evaporation as higher LAI
15 results in more shadowing, less solar radiation input, and consequently less evaporation below
16 the vegetation cover. Other important parameters controlling the water balance are the
17 stomatal resistance (Rsc), rooting depth and root distribution. The structural and biophysical
18 parameters do not remain constant during the year, but have a seasonal or even annual
19 variability. The largest variations occur during the growing period. Thus, the beginning and
20 length of the growing season should be known for an adequate description of the seasonal
21 dynamic of vegetation parameters.

22 The smaller the scale of interest, the more time-resolved parameterisation of land use and
23 vegetation is necessary to capture the spatial and temporal variability of effects. There are two
24 possibilities to obtain the required information: the first one is to measure the parameters like
25 LAI or Rsc directly at the investigated site, which is labour- and time-consuming. A second
26 possibility is to use parameters from scientific literature. This information is quite rare for
27 SRC, because this land use scarcely came into focus of investigation as a part of the
28 renewable energy discussion during the last years (Surendran Nair et al., 2012). Typically
29 only one value, rather than the annual course, is given in literature, e.g. the maximum value
30 for LAI, or the minimum value for Rsc, which are related to the maximum transpiration. In
31 such cases the annual course for these parameters has to be estimated for hydrological
32 modelling. Hence, the question on transferability of published results obtained in a certain

1 area and in a specific year to other regions and years has to be solved in each study separately.
2 However, it is well known that neither literature values nor direct measurements provide the
3 true values of model parameters, but more or less representative approximations, because of
4 spatial and temporal heterogeneity of vegetation stands including SRC.

5 The overarching aim of our research was the evaluation of land use change effects. However,
6 this study does not focus on land use change effects in any way but rather on the evaluation of
7 a suitable tool. In this study we used the results of our own measurements of LAI, Rsc and the
8 estimation of leaf unfolding date (LU), determining the beginning of growing season, for a
9 poplar SRC to parameterise the hydrological model system WaSim (Schulla and Jasper,
10 2013). The aim of the present study is to assess the effect of parameterisation uncertainties of
11 the land use type poplar SRC on modelling results. The hypothesis that the parameterisation
12 of LAI, Rsc and LU based on measurements shows a better model fit than the use of values
13 reported in literature in combination with approximation about the annual course should be
14 proofed. Our specific objectives: 1) to quantify the WaSim response (sensitivity) to variations
15 of following parameters: LAI, Rsc and LU, caused by different measurement methods and
16 modelling approaches; 2) to estimate the most sensitive parameter; and 3) to evaluate
17 quantitatively whether it is advisable to implement locally point-measured values of sensitive
18 parameters directly. We used GWR and plant available water as indicators.

19 **2 Material and methods**

20 **2.1 Study site**

21 The study site Reiffenhausen (51.67 °N, 10.65°E, 325 m a.s.l.) is located south of Göttingen,
22 central Germany. According to the meteorological data provided by the German Weather
23 Service (Deutscher Wetterdienst, DWD), for the station Göttingen (DWD Station-ID: 01691),
24 nearest to the study site, the climate is characterized by an average temperature of 9.1 °C (\pm
25 0.7 °C) and a mean annual precipitation sum of 635 mm (\pm 122 mm) for the period 1971-
26 2010. The site Reiffenhausen was established as part of the interdisciplinary investigations of
27 SRC by the joint integrated project BEST ("Bioenergie-Regionen stärken" - Boosting
28 Bioenergy Regions), which ran from 2010 until 2014 and was funded by the German Ministry
29 of Education and Research (BMBF). The aim of BEST was to develop regionally appropriate
30 concepts and innovative solutions for the production of biomass, with focus on SRC, and to
31 evaluate ecological and economic impacts.

1 The soil in Reiffenhausen is characterized by a sedimentary deposits of Middle and Upper
2 Buntsandstein, like sandstone, siltstone and clay stone. The main soil types present at the field
3 level are stagnic cambisol and haplic stagnosol with a soil quality (Ackerzahl) of
4 approximately 45 points. The maximum available points are 100 for very good agriculture
5 fields (Blume et al., 2010). The soil texture is dominated by loamy sand or silty clay.

6 The plantation Reiffenhausen was established at a former arable field in March 2011 with the
7 poplar clone *Populus nigra* x *Populus maximowiczii*, hereafter Max1. The poplar SRC were
8 planted with 0.2 m long cuttings on 0.4 ha in a double row system with alternating inter-row
9 distances of 0.75 m and 1.50 m, and a spacing of 1.0 m within the rows, yielding an overall
10 planting density of 8800 cuttings per hectare. A detailed site description, including soil
11 chemistry and biomass information is given by Hartmann et al. (2014). In 2011 the weather
12 conditions at Reiffenhausen were unfavourably dry for the initial growth after planting.
13 During the first months in 2011, from February to May, the precipitation sum was unusually
14 low: only 42 % of the long term (1971-2010) precipitation (78 mm of 188 mm for the long
15 term mean value of the same period of the year). This led to dry soil conditions, especially in
16 the upper soil, and resulting in a survival rate of only 63 % for the mono-stem cycle of the
17 poplar SRC. In 2013, when the most measurements and investigations took place the poplar
18 SRC reached a height of 5-6 m, indicating that the unfavourable initial conditions were
19 somewhat improved. All parameters influencing the hydrology in the model are in the order
20 of a fully developed SRC, although it is in mono-stem cycle. The development of the rooting
21 system was eventually enforced by the dry conditions during the initial phase (Broeckx et al.,
22 2013). Rooting depth was more than 1 m in the second year after planting, exploiting the main
23 part of soil layer above the bedrock (Kalberlah, 2013). The LAI reached 5 in 2012 and 6-7 in
24 2013, which is typical for a fully grown poplar SRC (Schmidt-Walter et al., 2014).

25 Observations for LU are also used from the site Großfahner, which is also part of the BEST-
26 research project. Großfahner is located near Erfurt, Thuringia, Germany and was also
27 established in 2011 with the poplar clone Max1 (Hartmann et al., 2014).

28 **2.2 Measurements**

29 **2.2.1 Meteorological and local soil measurements**

30 In Reiffenhausen, the micrometeorological measurements were carried out in the centre of the
31 SRC stand; the instruments were installed above the vegetation on a 10 m mast. The air

1 temperature and humidity were measured using Hmp45C (Campbell Sci.; Loughborough,
2 UK); wind speed and wind direction (wind sensor compact and wind direction sensor
3 compact, both ThiesClima; Göttingen, Germany), atmospheric pressure (pressure sensor,
4 Theodor Friedrichs& Co.; Schenefeld, Germany) and solar radiation (CMP3, Kipp&Zonen,
5 Delft, The Netherlands) were measured continuously with 1 Hz frequency and averaged over
6 15 minutes. 5 minutes precipitation sums were obtained using an ombrometer (Precipitation
7 Transmitter, ThiesClima; Göttingen, Germany). The values were averaged and stored by a
8 CR1000 data logger (Campbell Sci.; Loughborough, UK). Additionally to the meteorological
9 measurements in the centre of the poplar SRC, a reference station was similarly equipped and
10 installed approximately 500 m to the north from the stand in the open place (short-grass
11 meadow) to measure the climate variables unaffected by the poplar SRC.

12 The soil moisture was measured continuously every 15 minutes using tensiometers and soil
13 water content probes at 20, 60 and 120 cm depth, by six (tensiometers) and three (probes)
14 sensors at every depth. Tensiometers were constructed in the Department of Soil Science for
15 the study using the PCFA6D pressure sensor (Honeywell; Morristown, NJ, USA) and a P-80
16 ceramic (CeramTec AG; Marktredwitz, Germany). Volumetric soil water content and soil
17 temperature were measured using SM-300 probes (Delta-T Devices Ltd; Cambridge, UK).
18 Additionally, descriptions of soil horizons and soil texture were assessed using a soil pit near
19 the SRC.

20 In addition to the data of Reiffenhausen, meteorological and phenological data are used from
21 region of Tharandter Wald (Tharandt Forest) being located in the federal state Saxony
22 (Germany), 15 km southwest of city of Dresden. As climate characteristic of this region is
23 comparable with Reiffenhausen, a proper set of comparison data are provided. Detailed
24 information about measurement programs of Tharandter Wald can be found, i.a. in Bernhofer
25 (2002) and Spank et al. (2013). In the frame of this study, phenological observation data from
26 the International phenological garden (IPG) Tharandt-Hartha and meteorological
27 measurement data (air temperature, air humidity and precipitation) from climate stations
28 Grillenburg and Wildacker have special importance. Grillenburg and Wildacker are the
29 nearest meteorological long-term measurements sites from IPG and are situated about 3 km
30 away. Both stations provide meteorological and climatological information since 1958.
31 Grillenburg represents a standard meteorological station fulfilling all guidelines and standards
32 of World Meteorological Organisation (WMO) for large-scale representativeness of

1 climatological observations. However, measurements on this site sometimes does not describe
2 local climatic characteristic of the region, particularly related to daily minimum and
3 maximum of air temperature. In contrary, climate station Wildacker, being not fulfil WMO
4 standards of fetch and horizon heightening, better represent local climatic situation.

5 2.2.2 Leaf area index

6 For the present study we use the definition of leaf area index by Watson (1947) cited in Breda
7 (2003) as the total one-sided area of leaf tissue per unit ground surface area with the
8 dimension of $\text{m}^2 \text{m}^{-2}$ (or dimensionless). There are numerous ground-based as well as remote
9 sensing-based techniques to estimate LAI. An extensive overview of ground-based methods is
10 given by Breda (2003). Direct methods, such as allometric, litter collection and harvesting,
11 are based on statistically significant sampling of phytoelements and phytoelement
12 dimensions. Among these method, only the harvesting can provide the information on the
13 seasonal dynamic of LAI for the whole season or year. The obvious disadvantages of
14 harvesting as destructive method, however, are that it is very time- and labour-consuming,
15 that the canopy is irreversibly damaged and further statistically representative LAI-
16 measurements for seasonal dynamics are affected.

17 Indirect ground-based methods are non-destructive and based on the inversion of the Beer-
18 Lambert law, i.e. on measurements of the extinction of short-wave solar radiation by the
19 canopy. The extinction is related to the vegetation structure parameters including LAI (Eq. 1).

$$20 \text{ LAI} = \frac{\ln(I_0/I)}{k} \text{ with, } k = \frac{G(\theta, \alpha)}{\cos \theta} \quad (1)$$

21 where LAI is the leaf area index for the vegetation layer, I_0 is the radiation intensity incident
22 to the vegetation layer, I – radiation intensity at the lower bound of vegetation layer and k is
23 the extinction coefficient (Breda, 2003). The function G is the projection of unit foliage area
24 on the plane normal to the direction θ , θ – zenith angle and α is the leaf angle distribution. It
25 should be also noted that indirect methods estimate not LAI but Plant Area Index (PAI) as the
26 light attenuation is caused not only by leaves but by branches and tree stems as well. To
27 derive LAI, either the share of woody material is subtracted from PAI, or it is assumed that
28 the attenuation is caused for the most part by leaves (especially for dense canopies). The
29 underlying assumptions, e.g. on stand homogeneity and small black opaque phytoelements
30 that have to be considered to ensure the applicability of indirect methods, as well as

1 advantages and disadvantages of various methods are presented, e.g. in LAI-2000 Manual
2 (LI-COR INC, 1992), in Breda (2003) and (Jonckheere et al., 2004).

3 For the present study the data of one direct and two indirect methods for the estimation of
4 LAI of the poplar SRC in Reiffenhausen were used. For the indirect method we used two
5 different types of instruments. First - two LI-191 SA Line Quantum Sensors (LI-COR Inc.,
6 USA) were used to measure incident ($I_{0,PAR}$) and within-stand photosynthetic active radiation
7 (I_{PAR}) to calculate the LAI using Eq. (1). The $k = 0.5$ for mixed broadleaved species was
8 accepted in our study (Breda, 2003). Second - two plant canopy analysers LAI-2000 (LI-COR
9 Inc., USA) were implemented in Two-Sensor mode (LI-COR INC, 1992) to obtain LAI and k .
10 Measurements were performed weekly whenever possible from May till November 2013
11 under homogenous illumination, i.e. at days with overcast conditions or during morning or
12 evening hours. Sensor pairs were cross-validated at the beginning of each measurement day.

13 In the homogeneous poplar SRC ten evenly distributed plots were selected. To account for the
14 double row planting of the SRC 3 m x 3 m square grids with 1 m distance between grid points
15 were marked at every plot so that 16 grid points per plot were obtained for measurements. At
16 each grid point two measurements were performed with instrument oriented along and
17 perpendicularly to SRC rows. Thus 32 measurements were performed at each of ten plots
18 during every measurement day. The LAI-2000 was used in two-instrument mode with 25 %
19 view restriction caps to eliminate the influence of operator. The measurements with line
20 quantum sensors LI-191SA were also carried out in two-instrument mode; the measurement
21 design was identical to LAI-2000.

22 To obtain the reference values for leaf area the direct destructive sampling – harvesting were
23 carried out. All phytoelements within the square column of 1 m² surface area were collected
24 and measured with leaf area meter (LI-3100; LI-COR Inc., USA). The sampling was carried
25 at 26 August 2013 at three plots within the investigated stand.

26 2.2.3 Stomatal resistance

27 The dominant factor controlling both the water loss from plant leaves and the uptake of CO₂
28 for photosynthesis is the resistance of stomata, regulated by the plant in response to
29 environmental conditions. Stomatal resistance, or the reciprocal stomatal conductance, is an
30 important parameter in hydrological modelling, as it controls the transpiration rate for
31 different vegetation types. The version of WaSim applied in present study uses the Penman-

1 Monteith approach for calculating evapotranspiration and requires a parameter of minimal
2 surface resistance for a state when plants are fully supplied with water (Schulla, 1997; Schulla
3 and Jasper, 2013). The real transpiration modelled is further influenced by meteorological
4 boundary conditions and the available soil water.

5 For the Rsc measurements in poplar SRC we used the SC-1 leaf porometer (Decagon Devices
6 Inc.; Pullman, WA, USA). The measurements took place in Reiffenhausen in 2013 and were
7 carried out weekly or fortnightly from May till September only under favourable weather
8 conditions promising minimal resistances: preferable sunny, but at least without rain and with
9 dry leaves. The same 10 plots in the poplar SRC as for the LAI measurements were used,
10 where 3 sun-leaves were marked to be measured at different times. All 10 locations were
11 measured during one hour to minimize the effects of changing weather conditions.
12 Measurements were started in the morning and when leaves are dry and continued till
13 afternoon, or as long as weather conditions were appropriate.

14 2.2.4 Phenology – start of growing season

15 The phenological phases of plants, e.g., leaf unfolding, leaf colouring and fall of leaves, are
16 controlled by environmental conditions and internal genetic characteristics of plants. Thus,
17 the site and species specific phenological state is a result of complex interference between
18 length of day, meteorological drivers (mainly temperature and radiation), soil properties, plant
19 provenance, age and height (Menzel, 2000).

20 Within WaSim a modified approach for estimating LU according to Cannell and Smith (1983)
21 is implemented and used here. A detailed description of this model as presented in Eq. (2-5),
22 as well as parameterisation examples (Tab. 1) is given by Menzel (1997).

23 The model has four parameters: T_0 , T_1 , a and b which are the threshold temperatures for
24 chilling units and for forcing units and two tree specific regression parameters, respectively.
25 The starting day for leaves unfolding is calculated according to Eq. (2), (3), (4) and (5).

$$26 \quad T_S = \sum_{i=0}^n \begin{cases} T(t_1 + i\Delta t) - T_1 & T(t_1 + i\Delta t) \geq T_1 \\ 0 & T(t_1 + i\Delta t) < T_1 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

27 Here T_S is the temperature sum, T is the daily mean temperature for a day $t_1 + i\Delta t$, t_1 is set as 1
28 February in present study and time step, Δt , as one day. The daily mean temperature is
29 calculated according to Eq. (3).

$$T = \frac{T_{\min} + T_{\max}}{2} \quad (3)$$

Here T_{\min} is the daily minimum temperature and T_{\max} the daily maximum temperature. The LU occurs when T_s reaches the critical value $T_{S,\text{crit}}$ (Eq. 4 and 5).

$$T_{S,\text{crit}} = a + b \ln(CD_n), \text{ with} \quad (4)$$

$$CD_n = \sum_{i=0}^n \begin{cases} 1 & T(t_0 + i\Delta t) \leq T_0 \\ 0 & T(t_0 + i\Delta t) > T_0. \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

CD is the number of chilling days, i.e. when $T < T_0$, between days t_0 and t_1 . The date t_0 was set as 1 November in present study. Values for T_0 , T_1 , a and b for *Populus tremula* (IPG235) are given by Menzel (1997) (Tab. 1).

Using these numbers as initial values we fitted the parameters T_0 , T_1 , a and b to observed LU for the poplar clone Max1 in Reiffenhausen for the years 2012 and 2013 using least squares method. Finally we evaluated the obtained model parameters against the independent observations in Reiffenhausen (for 2014), and observation in Großfahner for the years 2012 and 2013 (Lorenz and Müller, 2013) and 2014 (Lorenz, 2014). The observed LU in Reiffenhausen and Großfahner is comparable to the recommendations according to Volkert and Schnelle (1966). Because the estimation of LU, as used in this study is based on meteorological measures, the parameterisation should hold true for the same poplar clone in the same age, if other environmental factors are of minor importance. The results will confirm this.

For a long term comparison, the data from the international phenological observation networks (IPG) are used (Chmielewski et al., 2013), namely LU of *Populus tremula* (IPG235) at the IPG station Tharandt-Hartha. For poplar clone Max1 we could not find parameter sets in literature, so we used for comparison the IPG235 parameters of Menzel (1997) for *Populus tremula*, which has been more extensively investigated. The IPG-data are used for long term comparison, because there were no long term investigations of LU available on the research plots of the BEST project or nearby. IPG235 is the acronym of the parameterisation for *Populus tremula* used by (Menzel, 1997). We decided to retain this acronym to make it comparable to published results, and also because it is an acronym used in the data provided by the phenological garden network. The phenological phase of leaf unfolding is defined as the stage UL, according to the IPG webpage (International Phenological Gardens of Europe, 2014) and is obtained by daily observations of plant's development state. The IPG station

1 Tharandt-Hartha is located at the eastern border of the Tharandter Wald. It is the nearest IPG
2 station to the site Reiffenhausen, and comparable in climate and altitude. Modeling approach
3 For simulation, the deterministic spatially distributed hydrological catchment model system
4 WaSim (version 9.05.04) was used. Complete and comprehensive descriptions of this model
5 and its internal structure can be found inter alia in (Schulla, 1997; Schulla and Jasper, 2013).
6 The setup of physically based parameters, such as LAI and Rsc as well as phenological state
7 (date of leaf unfolding - LU here), are predicated on direct measurements and observations.
8 Thus, physical nexus between model image and reality is reproduced as best as possible. The
9 SRC described with these measurements and observations represents a poplar SRC in the 3rd
10 growing season of its mono-stem cycle, which can be seen as a hydrological fully developed
11 canopy, concerning LAI, Rsc and root development. The simulated local soil water contents
12 were compared and evaluated to the measurements.

13 Different model simulations are done to show the suitability of the direct use of specific plant
14 physiological measurements, as well as the effects of an approximated parameter description
15 in the model, i.e. the annual course and the quantity of LAI, Rsc and phenology.

16 All these model approaches were done on a plot model domain, which are 3x3 raster cells
17 based on a digital elevation model with a spatial resolution of 12.5 m (LGLN - Landesbetrieb
18 Landesvermessung und Geobasisinformation, 2013), provided by the project partner NW-
19 FVA¹. All topographic information, needed by the model is derived by the model itself. The
20 research site, providing the measured soil water contents for model calibration is located in
21 the centre of the domain. A retention curve required in hydrological modelling for the
22 description of soil physical properties was taken from Van Genuchten (1980). The Van
23 Genuchten retention parameters from Blume et al. (2010) were accepted based on a
24 characterization of soil texture and soil horizons in Reiffenhausen.

25 The meteorological forcing data were taken from own measurements for the period 2011-
26 2013, whereas the first two years were used for the model spin up. Analyses and the
27 comparison to measured local soil water contents were done just for the year 2013. To show
28 the effects of different parameterisations under various climate conditions, the simulations
29 were performed for the period from 1969 to 2013 using the forcing meteorological data from

¹ Nordwestdeutsche Forstliche Versuchsanstalt (NW-FVA), Northwest German Forest Research Station

1 DWD station Göttingen. The period was chosen as the longest period without missing values.
2 The parameterisation of land use is kept constant for the whole period. A WaSim control file
3 including all information about parameterization and model setup is provided as
4 supplementary material.

5 **2.3 Data analysis**

6 All measured and applied meteorological, soil physical and eco physiological parameters have
7 been checked for plausibility and measurement errors.

8 The data have been numerically analysed and graphically presented with the free software
9 package GNU Octave, version 3.6.2 (Octave community, 2012). Parts of the statistical
10 analysis were performed using the hydroGOF package (Mauricio Zambrano-Bigiarini, 2014)
11 within the R software environment (R-Studio under Windows, version 0.98.501) for statistical
12 computing and graphics (R Development Core Team, 2011).

13 The evaluation of model performance was done according to the objective criteria of Moriasi
14 et al. (2007). Important quality criterions of simulation runs are the Nash-Sutcliffe model
15 efficiency criterion (NSC), the percent bias (PBIAS), and the ratio of the root mean square
16 error to the standard deviation of measured data (RSR).

17 **3 Results**

18 **3.1 Measurements**

19 **3.1.1 Leaf area index**

20 Figure 1 shows the annual course of LAI as derived from two different indirect optical
21 methods and one direct destructive method. LU started shortly before the first measurement at
22 the 1 May 2013. Until the 1 August there was almost a linear increase of LAI up to 7.3 and
23 5.5 for the LI191SA and the LAI2000 measurements, respectively. After that LAI started to
24 decrease, with a more rapid decline toward the end of August 2013. Leaf fall was almost
25 finished at the 25 October.

26 Differences between devices, i.e. LI191SA vs. LAI2000, are large. The LAI values obtained
27 with the LI191SA are systematically higher ($\approx 2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$). The values obtained by direct
28 destructive sampling at the 26 August are rather on the level of the LAI2000 estimates.

1 3.1.2 Stomatal resistance

2 Figure 2 shows the stomatal resistance (R_{sc}) as measured on well illuminated leaves in 2013.
3 The values ranged from 100 s m^{-1} to 300 s m^{-1} until August 2013. On the June 18 R_{sc} was
4 higher with larger standard deviations as the previous measurement on the June 14. Soil water
5 supply was sufficient on both days. The two days significantly differ in temperature, although
6 June 14 was relatively colder with a daily maximum temperature of approximately $17 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$,
7 while June 18 was quite hot, reaching a maximum temperature of $33 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. This shows the effect
8 of local environmental conditions to measurements, possibly influencing derived model
9 parameters. From August on, both mean R_{sc} and standard deviation steadily increased. This
10 period was characterized by decreasing soil water availability leading to severe drought stress
11 conditions. Due to higher R_{sc} the trees counteracting the drought stress to avoid water loss
12 and xylem damage, e.g. embolism of xylem vessels. The increase of standard deviation is an
13 expression of stand heterogeneity, single trees still have access to water, and other may
14 already be limited or stressed. In September 2013 we stopped measurements because leaves
15 were visibly affected by the drought stress event. The correlation of plant available soil water
16 and plant regulation via stomata seems to be consistent, increasing confidence in the distinct
17 measurements. The minimum observed stomatal resistance is 80 s m^{-1} .

18 3.1.3 Phenology – start of growing season

19 We used in situ phenological observations of the two years 2012 and 2013 in Reiffenhausen
20 to calibrate the modified approach for estimating LU according to Cannell and Smith (1983),
21 which is used in WaSim. In 2012 LU for Max1 in Reiffenhausen started at day of year (DOY)
22 88, i.e. the March 28 2012 (Tab. 2). In 2013 LU was delayed by approximately 4 weeks due
23 to low temperatures in spring and started at DOY 115 (April 25 2013). Our calibration
24 resulted in values of $10 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and $2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for T_0 and T_1 . The regression parameters a and b are 2200
25 and -403, respectively (Tab. 1). Estimates of LU using these values for T_0 , T_1 , a and b show
26 deviations from the observed dates of +3 and -3 days for Reiffenhausen in 2012 and 2013,
27 respectively (Tab. 2). Then the phenological model results with the obtained parameter set
28 and local temperatures were compared to phenological observations in Reiffenhausen in 2014
29 and in Großfahner in 2012 and 2013. Observed LU in Großfahner were almost equal to that in
30 Reiffenhausen, also showing the delay of about 4 weeks in 2013 compared to 2012. The
31 phenological model using the Max1 parameters results in differences of -1 day for
32 Reiffenhausen in 2014 and of +1 and -1 days for Großfahner in 2012 and 2013 compared to

1 observations. Tab. 2 also shows the application of the IPG235 parameter set provided by
2 Menzel (1997) for *Populus tremula*. Parameters of a and b for IPG235 are both smaller in
3 magnitude and threshold temperatures for chilling and forcing units, T_0 and T_l show smaller
4 differences. Due to this wider spread between T_0 and T_l the Max1-model is able to describe
5 extreme values and therefore a higher variability of LU, which was observed in 2012 and
6 2013. The model estimations of LU with Max1 and with the IPG235 parameters differ
7 considerably. The IPG235 set produces systematically later dates. Differences to observations
8 are +31 (2012), +10 (2013) and +28 (2014) days for Reiffenhausen and +23 (2012) and +7
9 (2103) days for Großfahner using the local temperatures (Tab. 2, column: local).

10 To assess the effects of non-local micrometeorological data sources, the model was driven by
11 temperature measurements from the nearest DWD stations, namely Göttingen for
12 Reiffenhausen and Dachwig for Großfahner. As expected, the use of DWD data instead of the
13 local measurements produces mostly larger estimation errors for both the Max1 and the
14 IPG235 parameter set (Tab. 2, column: nearest DWD).

15 We used the varying parameter sets, i.e. our Max1 model and the IPG235 parameter set (Tab.
16 1) to analyse the effect for hydrological modelling for the year 2013, where soil hydrological
17 measurements are available to evaluate the hydrological model results.

18 To analyse the species-dependence of LU estimations the model with Max1 and IPG235
19 parameters was also driven by temperature measurements during 2012-2014 at the
20 phenological station Tharandt. Figure 3 (a-d) illustrates that the parameter sets better fit with
21 the observations at species for which they were calibrated: Max1 parameters to Reiffenhausen
22 and the IPG235 parameters to Tharandt observations, which were part of its calibration
23 dataset. The differences between estimated and observed DOY of LU are smaller when local
24 temperature measurements are used (Fig. 3a vs. 3b and Fig. 3c vs. 3d).

25 Figure 3 (e-f) shows the long term courses of estimated DOY of LU for Reiffenhausen and
26 Tharandt using the temperatures of the nearest DWD stations (Göttingen and Wildacker,
27 respectively). The model with IPG235 is systematically later and shows less variability than
28 with Max1 parameters. For Reiffenhausen no long term phenological observations are
29 available. However, the average DOY of LU in Reiffenhausen is DOY 97 ± 9 using Max1
30 and DOY 124 ± 5 for IPG235. The long term phenological observations in Tharandt fit well
31 with the IPG235 estimates, but showing less variability than observed. The average DOY of
32 LU in Tharandt as observed is DOY 123 ± 10 days, estimated using Max1 DOY 101 ± 9 days

1 and with IPG235 DOY 124 ± 7 days. In general, the estimations fit best to observations when
2 the corresponding parameters are used, i.e. Max1 for Reiffenhausen and IPG235 for Tharandt.
3 But variability is underestimated by IPG235 compared to observations.

4 **3.2 Hydrological model simulations**

5 Several model simulations were performed with different parameterisations of LAI, Rsc and
6 LU. Table 3 summarizes the eight performed model simulations and introduces their
7 abbreviations. The detailed descriptions of model simulations are given in text.

8 First the measured values of LAI, Rsc and LU are implemented for hydrological modelling
9 (LAI2000 Rsc80 and LI191SA Rsc80). Starting from here we changed the parameter sets: i)
10 to improve the model fit; ii) to adjust the suitability of applied parameterisations; and iii) to
11 show the effects of different parameterisations on hydrological model results.

12 **3.2.1 Simulation using observed parameters and adaptation of stomatal** 13 **resistance**

14 First we used the measured annual courses of LAI for hydrological modelling. Rsc is set to
15 the measured minimum of 80 s m^{-1} when LAI is larger than 1. LU is not calculated for
16 measured LAI from air temperature using the approach of Cannell and Smith (1983), because
17 this information is already imprinted in LAI measurements and therefore fixed for the year
18 2013.

19 Figure 4 shows the applied model parameterisations for LAI and Rsc, as well as the plant
20 available water (PAW), calculated for 1 m soil depth from measured and modelled soil water
21 contents.

22 For all simulations using the measured value for Rsc (i.e. 80 s m^{-1}), the modelled soil water
23 contents were higher than measured values, resulting in larger PAW-values than observed.
24 This is also reflected by the Nash-Sutcliffe criterion (NSC) calculated from PAW (Tab. 4).
25 The annual course of PAW is captured quite well by the model, but the drying up in summer
26 is not sufficient, neither for LI191SA, nor for LAI2000 measurements. The NSC is better for
27 the experiments with LAI measured by LI191SA (0.69) than with LAI2000 (0.44) because of
28 the higher LAI values (Tab. 4).

29 As the maximum LAI measurements using LAI2000 showed better agreement with direct
30 destructive measurements, we halved the value of Rsc from 80 s m^{-1} to 40 s m^{-1} to reach the

1 low PAW values observed. This decision is justified by two reasons: first, it can be assumed
2 that the measured Rsc is always higher than the minimum value needed for parameterisation,
3 because the conditions by measuring Rsc are not satisfying the requirements for the parameter
4 to be used in the model - i.e. optimal conditions for transpiration and no water stress. Another
5 way to get lower PAW values would be to increase the LAI, as can be seen by comparing the
6 results for LI191SA and LAI2000. However, in our experiment LAI has to be increased to
7 unrealistically high values to minimize the differences to observed PAW. Additionally LAI is
8 also affecting other processes in hydrological models, like interception evaporation and soil
9 evaporation. Together the decrease of Rsc is a consistent way to minimize the deviations to
10 observations and to improve the model fit.

11 The reduction of Rsc, from 80 s m^{-1} to 40 s m^{-1} , improved the NSC from 0.69 and 0.44 to 0.89
12 and 0.87 for LI191SA and LAI2000, respectively (Tab. 4).

13 3.2.2 Approximation and adaptation of annual course of leaf area and 14 stomatal resistance

15 In many cases when hydrological models should be applied for analyses involving vegetation
16 there are no locally measured data on LAI and/or Rsc. Often only the literature data for the
17 maximum and minimum values of LAI and Rsc are available. Then the annual course for
18 these parameters has to be derived or approximated for modelling. The simplest
19 approximation is a stepwise function, where the increase from minimum to maximum or
20 decrease from maximum to minimum occurs within one time step. We applied this form to
21 the LAI and Rsc as shown in Fig. 5. Here the maximum of LAI is set to $6 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$, which is the
22 observed maximum plus standard deviation of LAI2000 measurements. The minimum of Rsc
23 is set to 40 s m^{-1} . For this kind of approximation the start and length of the growing season
24 become important, because the maximum transpiration rate occurs immediately after LU. In
25 Fig. 5 we compare two different parameterisations for dynamical estimating LU, i.e. the
26 Max1 and the IPG235 parameter set (Tab. 1).

27 The NSCs for both simulations are 0.89 (Tab. 4), which is slightly better than for applying the
28 direct LAI measurements. However, PBIAS values are negative for the step function
29 simulations, where they are positive for the simulations using LAI measurements. Negative
30 PBIAS values indicate a stronger drying signal.

1 Differences in PAW are only visible in the period when parameterisation is different (Fig. 5).
2 The year 2013 shows no drought event in spring, where effects would be more obvious. There
3 are small differences in May, where the step function simulation using the Max1 parameters
4 are closer to observations.

5 However, the abrupt increase to the maximum transpirations rate immediately after LU is
6 rather unrealistic as already shown by the LAI measurements. Unfolding of leaves in nature
7 can happen very quickly, as everybody can observe when spring comes late in the year
8 followed by favourable growth conditions. When spring starts early the full leaf development
9 can take much longer. To account for this and to further improve our model fit, we changed
10 the annual development of LAI and Rsc by using these parameters for manual model
11 calibration, guided by the course of LAI measurements mainly (Fig. 6). Major changes are
12 higher LAI and lower Rsc values at the date of leaf unfolding, i.e. $2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$ and 150 s m^{-1} ,
13 respectively. LU is estimated with the dynamic approach like in the step function simulations.
14 This resulted in modelled higher transpiration rates in spring. Besides the annual course of
15 LAI and Rsc is described more detailed and more similar to the observed LAI dynamics - the
16 LAI increase and decline is smoother but also starts a bit earlier in the year and last a bit
17 longer in autumn. Due to that smoother increase in spring the sensitivity to deviations in
18 estimating LU is reduced.

19 Due to these changes the NSC increased to 0.90 for both Max1 and IPG235 parameter sets.
20 This is the best fit obtained in manual calibration procedure (Tab. 4). PBIAS values are
21 positive for the adjusted models, which is a slightly too small drying signal. However, the
22 magnitudes of PBIAS and RSR values are smaller than for the step function simulations,
23 indicating better agreement with observations and lower root mean square errors or residual
24 variations (Moriassi et al., 2007).

25 3.2.3 Long term simulations

26 In all simulations shown for the year 2013, the effects on PAW caused by changes in
27 estimated LU are quiet low due to the high soil water contents in spring 2013. Therefore, we
28 applied all simulations for the years 1969-2013, which was the longest meteorological period
29 without missing data. A focus is set to the year 2012, which was characterized by an early
30 drought event in May. Because of missing data there is no complete set of soil water content
31 information available for this year and there is no information about LAI and Rsc for 2012

1 that can be used to parameterise the hydrological model. So no evaluation of model fit is
2 possible for 2012 or the other years of the period 1969-2013, like it is done for 2013.

3 To illustrate the effects for the different courses of LAI and Rsc development as well as the
4 estimation of LU, Fig. 7 shows the precipitation, the plant available water and the GWR for
5 the step function and for the adjusted simulations combined with the estimates of LU, i.e. the
6 Max1 and IPG235 parameter set, respectively. Results in Fig. 7 show the last two years from
7 the long term simulations 1969-2013, mean values for ETR and GWR for the whole period
8 1969-2013 are presented in Tab. 5. In 2012 and 2013 as well as for both estimations of LU,
9 the adjusted simulation shows the highest GWR and the step function simulations result in the
10 lowest GWR. The reason is the change in transpiration in spring, as described due to the
11 different parameterisations of the step function and adjusted course for LAI and Rsc.
12 However, the largest effects on GWR are caused by the different estimation of LU (Fig. 7). In
13 the step function experiments GWR is zero in 2012 with both the Max1 and the IPG235
14 parameterisations of LU. Plant available water is reduced more strongly for the Max1
15 parameterisation, due to the early start of the growing season. However, this early LU fits
16 better to the observations in Reiffenhausen. For the adjusted simulations GWR in 2012 is only
17 zero for the Max1 parameterisation. For the year 2012 data of the matrix potential
18 (tensiometer measurements) in 20 cm, 60 cm and 120 cm soil depth are available. These data
19 show a drought period in May 2012, where the tensiometers in 20 cm soil depth run out the
20 measuring range, i.e. a matrix potential was lower than about -800 hPa. Starting from May
21 2012 the tensiometers in 60 cm and 120 cm soil depth indicated a consistent drying signal
22 (not shown). Additionally the poplar SRC in 2012 is younger and therefore less water
23 demanding than the poplar SRC parameterised in the model, applied for these analyses. This
24 indicates that GWR after May 2012 is very unlikely in these simulations.

25 The parameterisation using the adjusted course for LAI and Rsc, based on the measured
26 course of LAI, in combination with the Max1 parameterisation for LU, calibrated at local
27 observations, seems to be the most realistic model simulation (LAIadjusted Rsc40 Max1). By
28 comparing all four model parameter combinations shown in Fig. 7, one can switch completely
29 from GWR present in 2012 to absent.

30 Table 5 summarizes the evapotranspiration (ETR) and GWR for all simulations, averaged
31 over all years for the period 1969-2013, as well as for the 5 driest and 5 wettest years of this
32 period. GWR averaged over all years varies from 80 mm year⁻¹ to 145 mm year⁻¹ depending

1 on the approximation of the annual course of LAI and Rsc and the estimation of LU. The ratio
2 of maximum and minimum of the all year averages of GWR for the different simulations is
3 approx. 1.8. This factor is approx. 3 for the 5 driest years and approx. 1.7 for the 5 wettest
4 years, showing that especially the model results for dry years are sensitive to the
5 parameterisations used.

6 **4 Discussion**

7 Not all necessary model parameters for WaSim could be measured in detail. One example is
8 the implemented assumption on rooting depth which was measured in 2012, and was set to 1
9 m, which is comparable to the commonly used values presented in Raissi et al. (2009).

10 Measuring Rsc in the field is rather challenging. For hydrological modelling we are interested
11 in more theoretically minimum values, indicating optimal transpiration. These conditions are
12 hardly found in reality. In addition, the measurements are affected by soil water availability
13 and rapidly changing atmospheric conditions. Breuer et al. (2003) summarised values for
14 minimal stomatal resistance for various plants. Values for Populus clones (Populus
15 grandidenata, P. tremula and P. tremuloides) range from 102 s m⁻¹ to 400 s m⁻¹. Our measured
16 minimum of Rsc for poplar clone Max1 (Populus nigra x Populus maximowiczii) is lower: 80
17 s m⁻¹. Yet we needed to further reduce Rsc to 40 s m⁻¹ for matching the observed soil water
18 contents. On the one hand the low observed minimum of 80 s m⁻¹ shows that specific
19 measurements of Rsc are helpful. On the other hand the measurements of Rsc were still too
20 high to produce plausible results with WaSim. One might interpret the reduction of Rsc from
21 80 s m⁻¹ to 40 s m⁻¹ as a shift from the often reported isohydric behaviour of poplar clones
22 (Tardieu and Simonneau, 1998) to a more anisohydric behaviour. But the diurnal or seasonal
23 variations of leaf water potential that are characteristic for anisohydric plants are not
24 expressed by the Rsc value in WaSim, which represents the minimal resistance for a state
25 when plants are fully supplied with water. The reduction of transpiration in drought stress
26 situations is done in a different way in WaSim. Furthermore, there are also more drought-
27 tolerant, anisohydric water use strategies reported from greenhouse experiments for poplar
28 clones (Ceulemans et al., 1988; Larchevêque et al., 2011). Schmidt-Walter et al. (2014)
29 reported also a poor stomatal control of water loss estimated from field measurements of a
30 poplar SRC.

31 LAI measurements show a systematic difference between the two measurement devices,
32 whereas LI191SA seems to overestimate LAI taking the destructive method as a reference. In

1 situ measurements of LAI are helpful to determine the maximum value, but differences due to
2 the different estimation methods including underlying assumptions should be considered. The
3 annual development of LAI is an indispensable information to adjust and improve the model
4 parameterisation of annual course. The measured LAI development represents local
5 conditions and is therefore valid for the measurement site and time period only.
6 Approximations of seasonal course are advisable to enable the transferability to other sites
7 and years. A crucial factor is LU, which determines the start of LAI increase. Determination
8 of this date requires the definition of phenological stages. Various models are available to
9 describe LU, some are based on air temperature, soil temperature, photoperiod, day length or
10 radiation. All models have to be calibrated for the specific plant species. There is also
11 evidence that local conditions like latitude or altitude of observations are influencing the
12 calibration of the phenological model. Furthermore the derivation of parameters for the
13 phenological model will depend on the observed data, e.g. the detection of extremely early or
14 late LU as well as the climate data, which has to be appropriate for the observed site. For
15 poplar clone Max1 we could not find parameter sets in literature, so we used for comparison
16 the IPG235 parameters of Menzel (1997) for *Populus tremula*, which is better investigated.
17 The period of parameter adjustment used by Menzel (1997) is 1959-1993 and it is based on
18 several phenological stations, whereas our derived parameters are based on 2 years at one site.
19 However, these two years show a wide variability in LU. The parameters from Menzel (1997)
20 should be generally more valid, because of the higher number of observations. Yet the use of
21 IPG235 parameters resulted in an underestimation of observed variability, compared to the
22 observations for *Populus tremula* in Tharandt. Differences between IPG235 and Max1 also
23 show the importance of parameterisations for local site conditions and specific species.
24 Comparing the parameter sets presented in Tab. 1 these effects become evident.

25 Especially threshold temperatures for chilling and forcing units, T_0 and T_I , vary more widely
26 between IPG235 and Max1. Due to this wider range the model is able to describe extreme
27 values and therefore a higher variability of LU, which was observed in our calibration years
28 2012 and 2013. We evaluated our parameter set to observations of the poplar SRC
29 Reiffenhausen in 2014 and the poplar SRC Großfahner (2012-2014), which was planted with
30 the same clone and in the same year like Reiffenhausen. The differences for LU between
31 observations and the Max1 model setup are low and within the observed variability. The use
32 of IPG235 parameters for the Max1 clone, which is a common procedure when specific

1 values are missing, can result in large deviations as shown for ground water recharge (GWR),
2 especially in the year 2012 with the drought period in spring.

3 The source of temperature data also influences the parameters derived for phenological
4 models as well as the results obtained by applying these parameter sets. We compared the
5 estimated DOY of LU derived with local temperature measurements with estimated DOY
6 derived with temperatures of the nearest DWD stations. For Reiffenhausen, with the nearest
7 DWD station Göttingen, we additionally tested an altitude correction using the vertical
8 temperature gradient of $-0.0065 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C m}^{-1}$ to account for 158 m altitude difference between
9 Göttingen (167 m a.s.l.) and Reiffenhausen (325 m a.s.l.). Deviations in DOY of LU are small
10 when using the DWD temperature instead of the local measurements. Interestingly, the
11 altitude correction of temperature increases differences in DOY of LU comparing to
12 observations. The reason could be the often occurring thermal inversion, when the air
13 temperature in Reiffenhausen is higher than in Göttingen, so that implemented altitude
14 reduction of temperature increases the differences even more, due to that also the differences
15 of the estimated DOY of LU increase. The effects of the altitude correction are larger for the
16 Max1 than for the IPG235 parameter set, because our model is more sensitive to extreme
17 values due to higher T_0 and lower T_l temperatures. This shows the importance of applying the
18 local temperatures, associated to the phenological observations, to calibrate and use the
19 temperature-dependent phenological models. The use of local temperatures improves the
20 estimation of LU and better represents inter annual variability.

21 According to the criteria of Moriasi et al. (2007), the hydrological model results, using
22 measured values of LAI and Rsc (start and development of LU is implemented), are
23 satisfactory only for the simulation LI191SA with $Rsc = 80 \text{ s m}^{-1}$. The simulation using the
24 LAI values from the LAI2000 does not satisfy the recommended criteria (Tab. 4). However
25 the model produces better agreement with observations when Rsc minima of 40 s m^{-1} are used
26 with any LAI data. The reduction of Rsc is a suitable way to simulate the observed soil water
27 conditions. An increase of LAI could lead to lower soil water contents as well, but it is also
28 affecting soil evaporation and interception evaporation. Additionally, larger values for LAI,
29 necessary to minimize the model deviations to measurements, have to be unrealistically high
30 for the poplar SRC investigated here. When using a Rsc minimum of 40 s m^{-1} together with
31 measured LAI the model evaluation is good for the year 2013, reaching NSC values of 0.87
32 and 0.89 for the LAI2000 and LI191SA simulations.

1 Data of such intense measurement campaigns are not available for all sites were hydrological
2 modelling should be done. Therefore literature values, typically providing just maximum or
3 minimum values for LAI and Rsc, are used and the annual course has to be modelled. The
4 question of transferability of these values to different sites, years or even species has to be
5 solved. The applied step function is the simplest approximation of the annual course for LAI
6 and Rsc. These simulations also pass the recommended criteria for a satisfactory model
7 performance (Tab. 4).

8 For the year 2013 the best model fit could be obtained by the adjusted annual courses for LAI
9 and Rsc. They are based on the observed course and maximum values of LAI measurements.

10 The weather regime and therefore the development of soil water conditions are not suitable in
11 2013 to show the effects of different estimates for the start of LU in spring. Drought
12 conditions started after July 2013. Therefore we performed scenario simulation by
13 transferring the vegetation parameterisation for 2013 to the weather regime of 2012. This year
14 was characterized by a drought period in spring. In consequence the effects of different
15 estimates of DOY of LU are pronounced. The adjusted simulations using the IPG235
16 parameters to estimate LU, i.e. later LU by approx. 30 days in 2012 show GWR in 2012. Due
17 to the delayed start of the growing season the drought stress in spring is not reproduced by the
18 model, leading to wetter soil conditions which favours percolation and rewetting and finally
19 enlarges GWR (Fig. 7). The tensiometer measurements available for 2012 suggest that GWR
20 is rather unlikely for this year. The step function simulation using the IPG235 parameters for
21 LU and both adjusted simulations (Max1 and IPG235) result in zero GWR for the year 2012.
22 However, the strongest simplification of the course of LAI and Rsc, i.e. the step function,
23 shows the lowest GWR for 2013 and for the long term simulations (Tab. 5).

24 In Fig. 7 the effects of the different simulations on GWR are presented for the years 2012 and
25 2013, which are characterized by rather different weather regimes. Whereas a realistic
26 description of LAI and Rsc seems to be less important in 2013, it is even more essential in
27 2012, showing the importance of distinct spatial and temporal characteristics for local
28 modelling.

29 We performed a long term simulation, by keeping the parameterisation for the vegetation
30 constant for the period 1969-2013 to account for the effects of climate variability. This is a
31 more theoretical scenario, because it accounts for changes in climate forcing only. In reality
32 also the vegetation characteristics are changing over the years, as well as soil properties on a

1 longer time scale, especially for SRC, whereas rotation cultivation is applied, e.g. harvesting
2 and resprouting. Particularly the rotation cultivation can reduce extreme drought conditions,
3 when dry years coincide with rotation stages that have a lower water demand. The vegetation
4 parameterised here can be seen as fully developed in hydrological terms, characterized by a
5 large water demand. The simulations here are rather artificial, especially by succeeding dry
6 years when soil water storage is not refilled completely in winter and drought conditions are
7 influencing the following growing season. Nevertheless the effects caused by different
8 descriptions of vegetation parameterisations are quite large (Tab. 5). Especially on a local
9 scale such differences can be important by evaluating effects of land use change, particularly
10 in dry years.

11 Taking into account that the best model evaluation for 2013 is achieved with the adjusted
12 course of LAI and Rsc, the adjusted simulation using the Max1 phenology parameters seems
13 to be the most reasonable parameterisation. It gives the best fit to the evaluation in 2013.

14 **5 Conclusions**

15 In the context of hydrological analysis of sites with focus on land use change or climate
16 change, an adequate parameterisation of the vegetation cover is important to determine
17 processes like soil evaporation, interception evaporation and transpiration. Sources of model
18 parameters for the vegetation cover are local measurements or scientific literature. The
19 analysis shows simulation uncertainties evolving from the use of model parameters that are
20 derived from i) non-local measurements or ii) some appropriate literature values.

21 Regarding the objective 1 of our study, we showed that LAI, Rsc as well as the beginning and
22 length of growing season are very sensitive parameters when effects of an enhanced
23 cultivation of SRC on local water budget are investigated. In particular, our analysis reveals
24 that correct information about the beginning of the growing season is highly important to
25 obtain correct and acceptable simulation results of evapotranspiration components and GWR.
26 If the start of the growing season is inappropriate, such as shown for the different species as in
27 the IPG235 and Max1 parameterisation (Tab. 1), the accuracy of other parameters (like LAI
28 and Rsc) plays a minor role. Concerning GWR, LU is the most sensitive parameter. Its
29 parameterisation is particularly important when inter-annual variations and hydrological
30 extreme conditions are on focus.

31 The implementation of locally measured vegetation parameters for hydrological modelling
32 has both advantages and drawbacks. Measurements are expensive, time consuming and also

1 not always feasible. In such cases the use of appropriate literature values and transposition of
2 adjacent observations is necessary and common practice.

3 The present study displays that locally measured LAI are suitable information for
4 hydrological simulations. The comparisons between locally measured and adjusted parameter
5 sets reveal that simulation results are less affected by other model parameters, like Rsc or LU,
6 when using adjusted parameters of LAI.

7 Opposite results appear for Rsc. Simulation results differ significantly when site specific
8 values of Rsc are available. However, for Rsc the benefit of direct use of local measurements
9 is arguable: minimum has to be reduced within WaSim to produce model results comparable
10 with soil water measurements. In consequence the implementation of Rsc values from
11 literature for hydrological modelling without accompanying measurement data for model
12 evaluation can produce very uncertain results. The analyses illustrate that the locally adjusted
13 vegetation parameterisation gives the best model fit. Additionally, the adjusted course of LAI
14 and Rsc is less sensitive to different estimates for LU, due to a slower increase in spring
15 compared to a step functional annual course. However, the adjusted courses are also
16 approximations and not a distinct measurement, and are therefore more generally valid for
17 different sites and years, than a direct use of measured parameters.

18 For the land use poplar SRC there are certain years where the modelled GWR is reduced to
19 zero, like in the year 2012 (Fig. 7). Different parameterisations for vegetation characteristics
20 are influencing modelled GWR for those years producing a wide range from GWR present or
21 completely absent.

22 Hydrological models are often used to analyse effects of climate and land use changes on
23 spatial and temporal scale becoming smaller and smaller. Approximations in the description
24 of vegetation, a lack of local information (also soil and climate description), the transfer of
25 inappropriate parameters and lacks in model formulation can cause large differences in
26 simulation results. To account for small-scale and local effects of land use change more
27 detailed descriptions of sites and processes are necessary to capture the spatial and temporal
28 variability of effects. In particular, the extremes are often underestimated when the
29 description of site and processes are insufficient.

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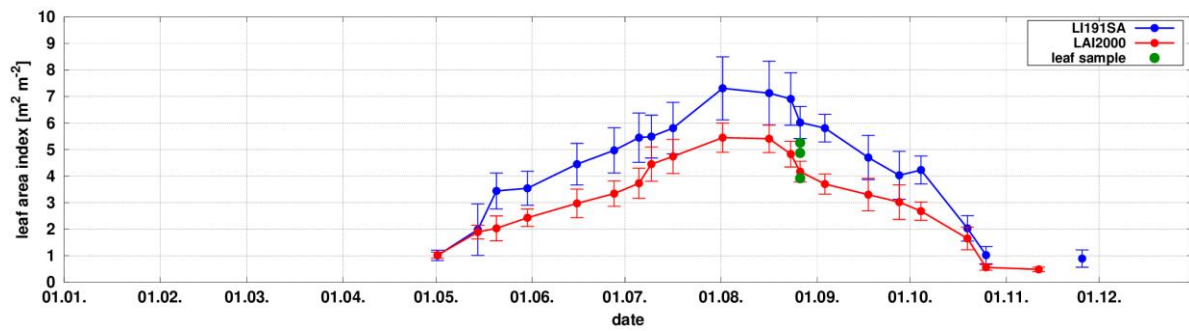
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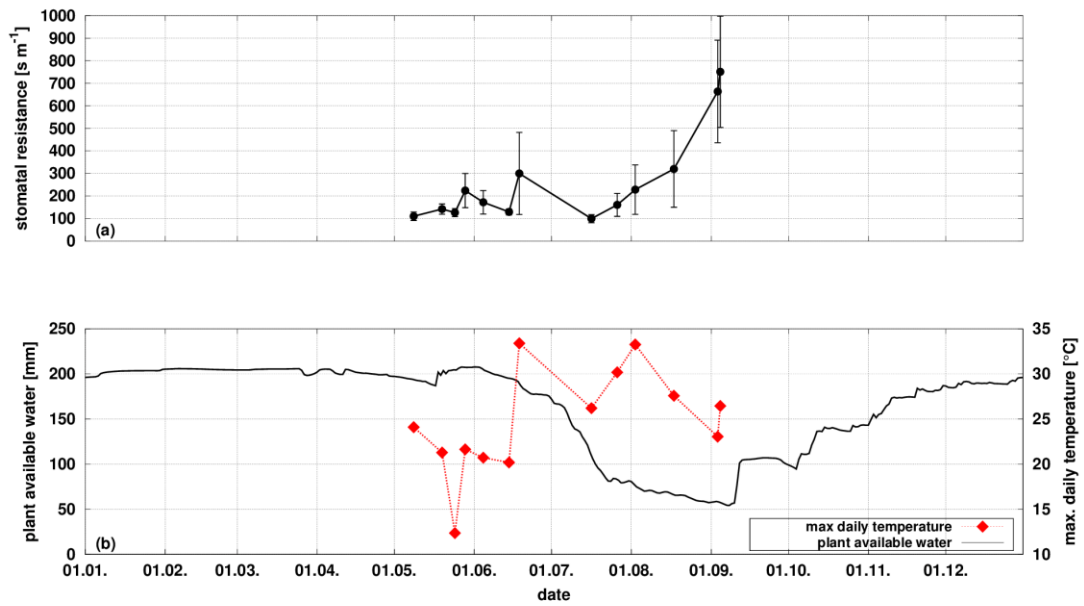
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1
 2 Figure 1. Means and standard deviations of leaf area index of the poplar SRC Reiffenhausen
 3 in 2013. Measurements of two optical devices: LI191SA calculated with constant extinction
 4 coefficient $k = 0.5$ and LAI2000 are shown. LAI values obtained by destructive harvesting at
 5 the 26 August on three plots are shown as green dots.



1

2 Figure 2. (a) means and standard deviations of stomatal resistance of sun leaves derived from
 3 10 to 11 repetitions every day at 10 measurement plots and (b) the plant available water,
 4 calculated from soil water content measurements until 1 m soil depth and daily maximum
 5 temperature at the poplar SRC Reiffenhausen in 2013. High temperatures affecting stomatal
 6 resistance (18 June); starting from August drought stress occurred, increasing the stomatal
 7 resistances.

1 Table 1. Parameters of the modified approach for estimating leaf unfolding (LU) according to
 2 Cannell and Smith (1983), which is used in WaSim. Estimated day of years (DOY) of LU for
 3 Reiffenhausen (2012 and 2013) are used to calibrate the Max1 parameters T_0 , T_1 , a and b , i.e.
 4 threshold temperature for chilling units and forcing units and regression parameters of two
 5 poplars, i.e. Max1 and IPG235 (*Populus tremula*), respectively. Additionally the parameter set
 6 for IPG235 according to (Menzel, 1997, appendix A7) is shown.

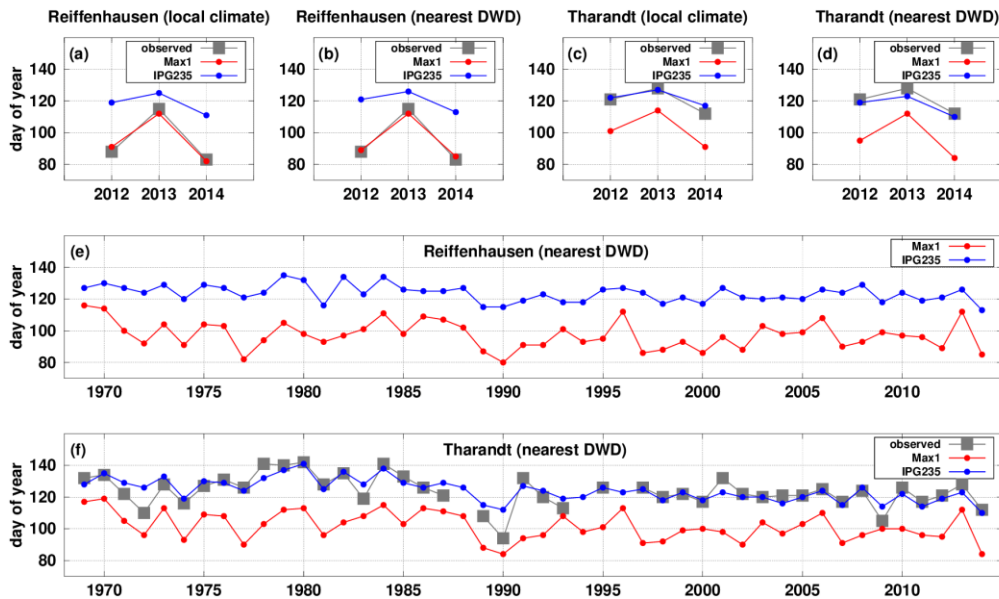
Parameter	Max1 (present study)	IPG235 (Menzel, 1997)
T0 [°C]	10	8
T1 [°C]	2	5
a	2200	1693.4161
b	-403	-301.9361

7

1 Table 2. Observed and estimated day of years (DOY) of leaf unfolding (LU) for
 2 Reiffenhausen and Großfahner. The Max1 parameters are calibrated at the observations in
 3 Reiffenhausen using local temperatures (2012 and 2013) and evaluated with Reiffenhausen
 4 (2014) and Großfahner (2012 – 2014). Additionally the DOY of LU is compared to estimates
 5 using the IPG235 parameter set as well as the temperatures of the nearest DWD climate
 6 station (Göttingen for Reiffenhausen, distance approx. 17 km; Dachwig for Großfahner,
 7 distance approx. 3.5 km) are presented.

	observed	Max1	Max1	IPG235	IPG235
temperature data		local	nearest DWD	local	nearest DWD
Reiffenhausen DOY 2012	88	91	89	119	121
Reiffenhausen DOY 2013	115	112	112	125	126
Reiffenhausen DOY 2014	83	82	85	111	113
Großfahner DOY 2012	88	89	88	111	112
Großfahner DOY 2013	114	113	112	121	121
Großfahner DOY 2014	89	-	86	-	103

8

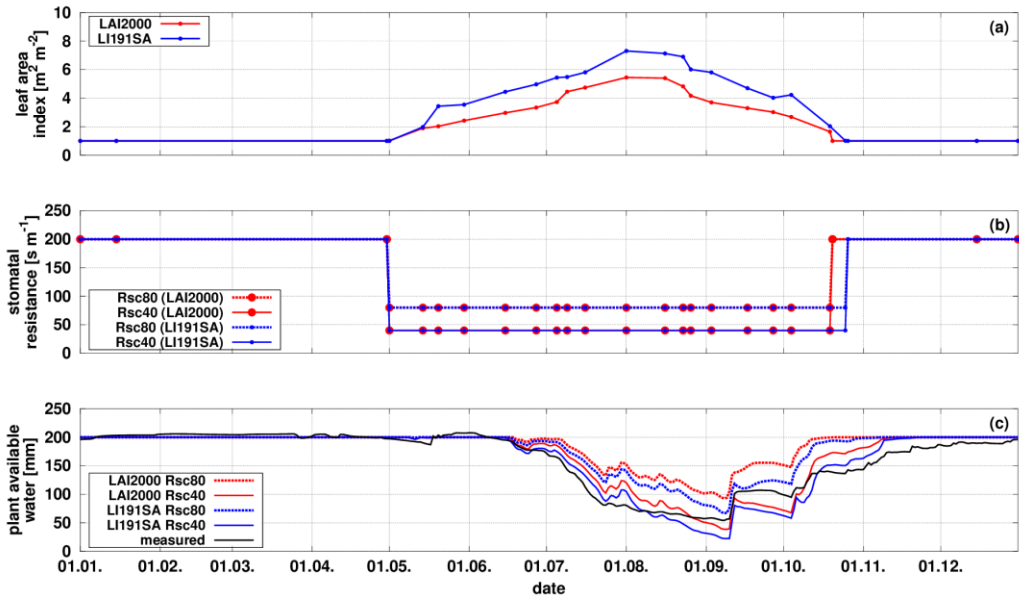


1
 2 Figure 3. Estimated day of year (DOY) of leaf unfolding (LU) using the Max1 and IPG235
 3 parameters for the site Reiffenhausen with local temperature measurements (a) and
 4 temperatures from the nearest DWD station Göttingen (b) for the years 2012 to 2014; same
 5 for Tharandt, local temperatures (c) and nearest climate station Wildacker (d); with
 6 observations. The lower subplots show long term estimates for DOY of LU using the DWD
 7 temperatures for Reiffenhausen (e) and for Tharandt (f), where also long term observations
 8 are available.

1 Table 3. Description of the eight performed model simulations. All model parameters are
 2 constant, except leaf area index (LAI), stomatal resistance (Rsc) and the date of leaf unfolding
 3 (LU) for the two parameter sets Max1 and IPG235.

version	LAI	Rsc	LU
LAI2000 Rsc80	LAI-2000 measurements	minimum 80 s m ⁻¹ (LAI > 1)	defined by measured LAI
LAI2000 Rsc40	LAI-2000 measurements	minimum 40 s m ⁻¹ (LAI > 1)	defined by measured LAI
LI191SA Rsc80	LI-191 SA measurements	minimum 80 s m ⁻¹ (LAI > 1)	defined by measured LAI
LI191SA Rsc40	LI-191 SA measurements	minimum 40 s m ⁻¹ (LAI > 1)	defined by measured LAI
LAIstep Rsc40 Max1	step function (6 in growing season; else 1)	minimum 40 s m ⁻¹ (LAI > 1)	Max1 model
LAIstep Rsc40 IPG235	step function (6 in growing season; else 1)	minimum 40 s m ⁻¹ (LAI > 1)	IPG235 model
LAIadjusted Rsc40adjusted Max1	course calibrated to improve model fit (max. = 6)	minimum 40 s m ⁻¹ (LAI > 1)	Max1 model
LAIadjusted Rsc40adjusted IPG235	course calibrated to improve model fit (max. = 6)	minimum 40 s m ⁻¹ (LAI > 1)	IPG235 model

4

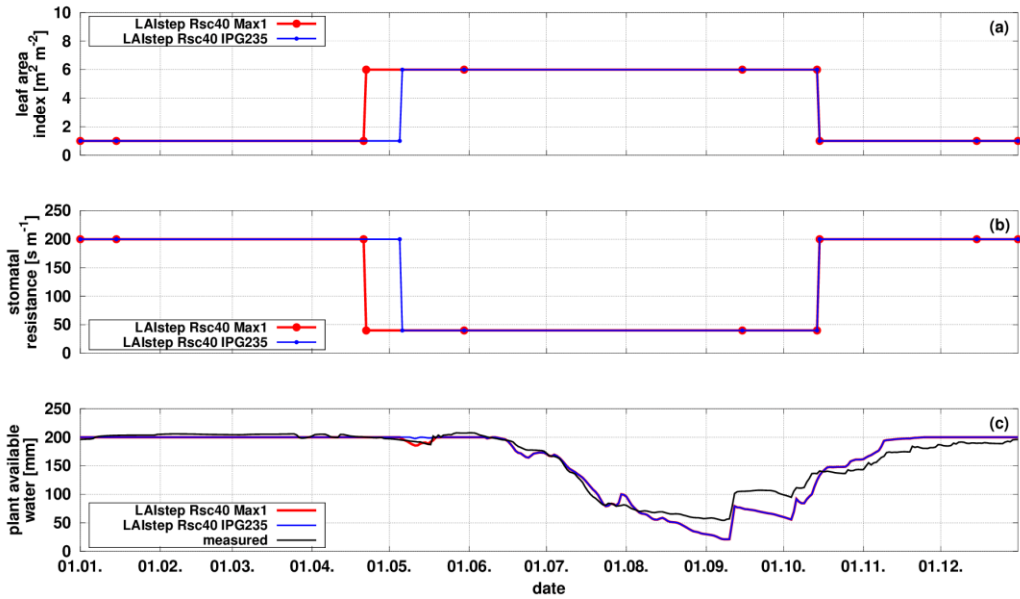


1
 2 Figure 4. Leaf area index and stomatal resistance as parameterised from measurements. Leaf
 3 area index is used as measured, LAI2000 (red) and LI191SA (blue). Stomatal resistance is set
 4 to the measured minimum, i.e. 80 s m^{-1} (dashed line) and to 40 s m^{-1} (solid line) as leaf area
 5 index is larger than 1. Length of growing season is determined by the leaf area observations.
 6 Simulation results using the four combinations of leaf area index and stomatal resistance are
 7 shown as plant available soil water, calculated until 1 m soil depth and compared to values
 8 based on soil water content measurements.

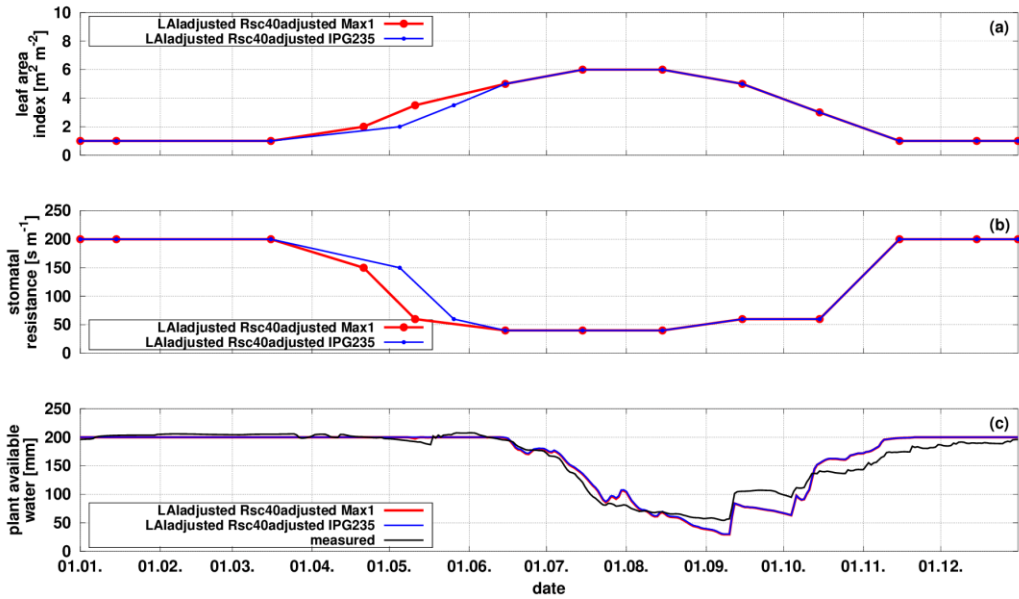
1 Table 4. Statistical parameters for model evaluation in terms of the accuracy of simulated data
 2 compared to measured values. Nash-Sutcliffe efficiency criterion (NSC), percent bias
 3 (PBIAS), and ratio of the root mean square error to the standard deviation of measured data
 4 (RSR) are calculated from plant available soil water till 1 m soil depth as derived from model
 5 simulations and soil water content measurements for the period from April till December
 6 2013, to cover the period of most variability.

	NSC	RSR	PBIAS [%]
Recommended as satisfactory by (Moriiasi et al., 2007)	> 0.5	≤ 0.7	± 25
LAI2000 Rsc80	0.44	0.75	19.2
LAI2000 Rsc40	0.87	0.37	5.5
LI191SA Rsc80	0.69	0.56	13.9
LI191SA Rsc40	0.89	0.33	0.0
LAIstep Rsc40 Max1	0.89	0.33	-2.0
LAIstep Rsc40 IPG235	0.89	0.33	-1.7
LAIadjusted Rsc40adjusted Max1	0.90	0.31	1.3
LAIadjusted Rsc40adjusted IPG235	0.90	0.31	1.6

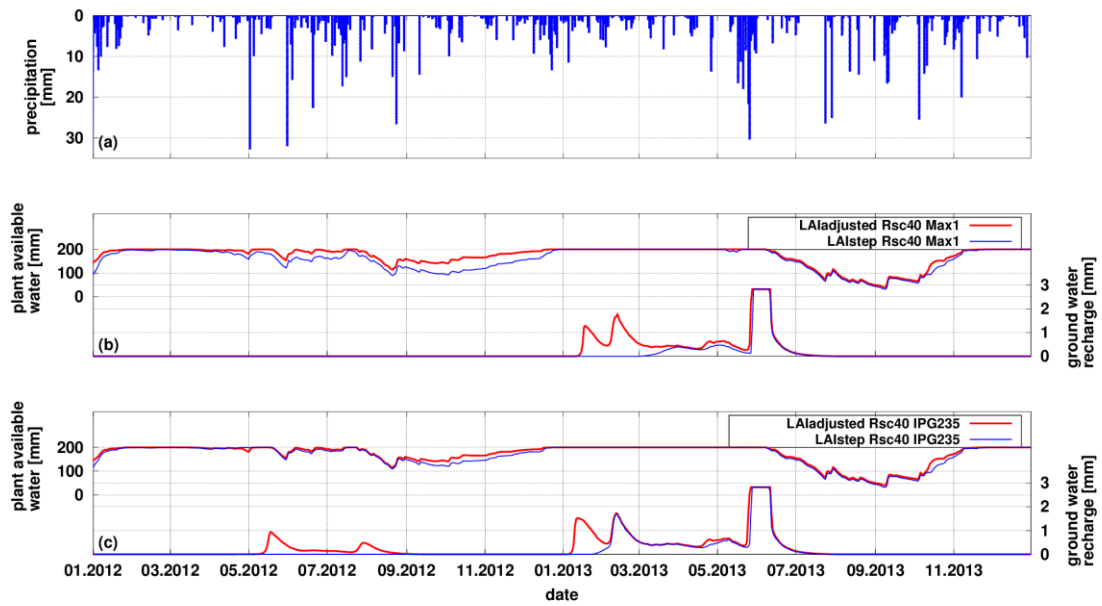
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1
 2 Figure 5. Leaf area index and stomatal resistance parameterised as step function, using
 3 maximum and minimum values in the growing season 2013, respectively. LAI is set to 6,
 4 stomatal resistance is set to 40 s m⁻¹ when LAI is larger than 1. Leaf unfolding (LU) is
 5 determined by the dynamic phenology approach implemented in WaSim, using the Max1
 6 parameterisation and IPG235. Simulations results using the two combinations of LAI and
 7 stomatal resistance are shown as plant available soil water, calculated till 1 m soil depth and
 8 compared to values based on soil water content measurements.



1
 2 Figure 6. Leaf area index and stomatal resistance as parameterised from adjusted values for
 3 2013. Maximum of leaf area index is set to 6, minimum of stomatal resistance is set to 40 s m⁻¹.
 4 Leaf unfolding (LU) is determined by the dynamic phenology approach implemented in
 5 WaSim, using the Max1 and IPG235 parameterisation. The annual course of leaf area index
 6 and stomatal resistance is orientated on measurements for leaf area and used as calibration
 7 parameter for stomatal resistance. Simulations results using the two combinations of leaf area
 8 index and stomatal resistance are shown as plant available soil water, calculated till 1 m soil
 9 depth and compared to values based on soil water content measurements.



1
 2 Figure 7. Measured daily precipitation (a). Plant available water and ground water recharge as
 3 simulated for the step-function and adjusted course for leaf area index and stomatal resistance,
 4 using the leaf unfolding (LU) parameters Max1 (b) and IPG235 (c) for simulating LU. The
 5 parameterisation for poplar is equal for 2012 and 2013, i.e. the same vegetation hydrological
 6 modelled driven by different weather conditions, i.e. a drier year 2012 with an earlier dry
 7 period in May.

1 Table 5. Precipitation (mm year⁻¹), total evapotranspiration (ETR) and ground water recharge
 2 (GWR) for the period 1969-2013. Simulations are shown for the step-function simulation and
 3 the adjusted course for leaf area index and stomatal resistance, using the leaf unfolding (LU)
 4 according to the Max1 and IPG235 parameter set for simulating LU. The parameterisation for
 5 poplar is equal to that derived for 2013 for the whole period, i.e. the same vegetation
 6 hydrological modelled driven by different weather conditions. Values are summed up for all
 7 years (1969-2013) of the period and for the 5 driest and 5 wettest years, respectively.

	ETR	ETR	ETR	GWR	GWR	GWR
	(all years)	(5 driest)	(5 wettest)	(all years)	(5 driest)	(5 wettest)
precipitation	676.7	500.4	896.6	676.7	500.4	896.6
LAIstep						
Rsc40	527.8	487.1	533.6	79.7	23.2	140.2
Max1						
LAIstep						
Rsc40	488.5	463.0	482.6	105.0	37.9	170.4
IPG235						
LAIadjusted						
Rsc40adjusted	484.1	460.8	477.9	107.1	41.3	173.9
Max1						
LAIadjusted						
Rsc40adjusted	425.9	424.4	411.7	144.7	68.1	232.9
IPG235						

8