1 **Integrated ecohydrological hydrometric and stable water isotope data**
2 **of a drought-sensitive mixed land use lowland catchment**
3

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14 Abstract

15 Data from long-term experimental catchments are the foundation of hydrological sciences and
16 are crucial to benchmark process understanding, observe trends and natural cycles, and are
17 prerequisites for testing predictive models. Integrated data sets which capture all compartments
18 of our landscapes are particularly important in times of land use and climate change. Here, we
19 present ecohydrological data measured at multiple spatial scales which allows differentiation of
20 "blue" water fluxes (which maintain streamflow generation and groundwater recharge) and
21 "green" water fluxes (which sustain vegetation growth). There are two particular unique aspects
22 to this data set: a) we measured water stable isotopes in the different landscape compartments
23 (that is in precipitation, surface water, soil, ground- and plant water); and b) we conducted this
24 monitoring during the extreme drought of 2018 in Central Europe. Stable water isotopes are so
25 useful in hydrology as they provide "fingerprints" of the pathways water took when moving
26 through a catchment. Thus, isotopes allow to evaluate the dynamic relationships between water
27 storage changes and fluxes, which is fundamental to understanding how catchments respond to
28 hydroclimate perturbations or abrupt land use conversion. Second, as we provide the data until
29 2020 one can also investigate recovery of water stores and fluxes after extreme droughts. Last
30 but not least: lowland headwaters are often understudied systems despite them providing
31 important ecosystem services such as groundwater and drinking water provision and
32 management for forestry and agriculture. The data are available under the DOI 10.18728/igb-
33 fred-826.3 (Dämpfling, 2023).
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1. Introduction

Progress in scientific hydrology and provision of an evidence base for sustainable land and water management are only possible due to detailed, long-term observational data collected from experimental watersheds (Hewlett et al., 1969; Robinson et al., 2013). Such experimental "outdoor laboratories" are invaluable scientific resources given the complexity of increasing pressures on water supplies (e.g. Cosgrove and Loucks, 2015), land use change (Neill et al., 2021) and the uncertain effects and non-stationarity of projected climate change (Milly et al., 2015).

Ecohydrology adopts an interdisciplinary approach to investigate links between the structure and function of ecological systems and the partitioning, flux and storage of fresh water (Guswa et al., 2020). Recent advances in monitoring and modeling have created manifold opportunities to address urgent ecohydrological questions on the importance of links between processes across the critical zone (CZ) - the dynamic, life-sustaining near-surface of the terrestrial earth that extends between the top of vegetation canopies, through the soil and into groundwater (Grant & Dietrich, 2017). Within the CZ concept, vegetation plays a central and dynamic role in partitioning incoming precipitation into "blue water" fluxes (streamflow generation and groundwater recharge) and "green water" fluxes which maintain vegetation growth (Evaristo et al., 2015).

To enhance ecohydrological process understanding in catchment systems, robust, multi-scale integrated data sets are required (Tetzlaff et al., 2021). In this regard, water stable isotopes and other tracers can help identify sources and pathways of water in the landscape and across the CZ to elucidate how different land use affects water partitioning between green and blue water fluxes (Dubbert and Werner, 2019; Tetzlaff et al., 2015). Importantly, water stable isotopes have enhanced the characterization of the celerity of hydrological fluxes in different CZ compartments, as well as quantifying the velocity of water particles and associated mixing relationships in the subsurface (Benettin et al., 2015; Birkel et al., 2011). Evaluating the dynamic relationships between water storage changes and fluxes is fundamental to understanding how catchments respond to hydroclimate perturbations, such as anomalous dry or wet periods, or abrupt land use conversion. This provides a more nuanced and integrated understanding of how key ecohydrological couplings may be at risk during long-term changes in blue and green water partitioning resulting from climate and land use change (Orth and Destouni, 2018). Such integrated understanding is important in the context of projected increases in air temperature, aridity, and in precipitation patterns, which may cause more variability in water availability threatening the sustainability of important ecosystem services (Okruszko et al., 2011). As an increase in drought frequency and severity is expected across Europe as the 21st century progresses, the development of effective and evidence-based amelioration measures to underpin sustainable and integrated land and water management policies for changing climatic conditions is urgently needed (Samaniego et al., 2018).

73 Consequently, integrated ecohydrological and stable isotope data sets targeted at understanding
74 the effects of different types of environmental change have outstanding potential, not least
75 because interdisciplinary environmental research tends to give unanticipated insights (Burt,
76 1994). Such integrated data streams allow identification and quantification of the linkages
77 between rainfall, soil moisture, groundwater and runoff generation, facilitating deeper
78 understanding of flood and drought risk in different types of landscapes and under different land
79 use management (Huntingford et al., 2014).
80 Water resources in the extensive, glacially formed, lowland landscape of northern Europe,
81 including the North German Plain sustain food production (Gutzler et al., 2015; Barkmann et al.,
82 2017) and water supplies to large cities like Berlin. Interestingly, such lowland catchments are still
83 relatively understudied compared to more upland headwater landscapes with stronger
84 topographic controls on drainage of surface and subsurface water (Devito et al., 2005). In low
85 elevation catchments across the North German Plain, streams are usually groundwater-
86 dominated, but the temporal and spatial heterogeneities in the hydrological functioning of these
87 catchments are still not fully understood (Boulton and Hancock, 2006). For example, there is still
88 a limited evidence base for quantifying how drought affects groundwater recharge and stream
89 flow generation in lowland areas in Central Europe, including the cessation of flow during the
90 summer (Germer et al., 2011).
91 To help address these knowledge gaps, here, we present a comprehensive set of ecohydrological
92 hydrometric and stable water isotope data of two years for the Demnitzer Mill Creek catchment,
93 Northeast Germany. The data set is unique in its integrative characteristics; that the different
94 compartments of the CZ were sampled across a mesoscale catchment in terms of their isotopic
95 signature and supporting ecohydrological data. By coincidence, these first two years, of what will
96 be a long-term study, captured the changing impacts of a prolonged drought period (2018-2020)
97 with a strong negative rainfall anomaly that became the most severe regional drought so far in
98 the 21st century (Kleine et al., 2021a). The data allow the effects of droughts (and their
99 persistence) on water storage, fluxes and age dynamics in the CZ to be investigated (Smith et al.,
100 2022). Our objective here is to provide this high spatio-temporal resolution ecohydrological
101 dataset to improve understanding of the storages and flow pathways of both blue and green water
102 across processes at the larger catchment scale in lowland catchments. We are continuing these
103 observations to assess long-term climatic trends at this drought sensitive region of Northeast
104 Germany, which is characterized by high water losses due to evapotranspiration and poor water
105 retention in the widespread sandy soils (Smith et al., 2021). Further, these data can potentially be
106 used to understand the hydrologic functioning of other drought sensitive regions beyond northeast
107 Germany.
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2. Site description
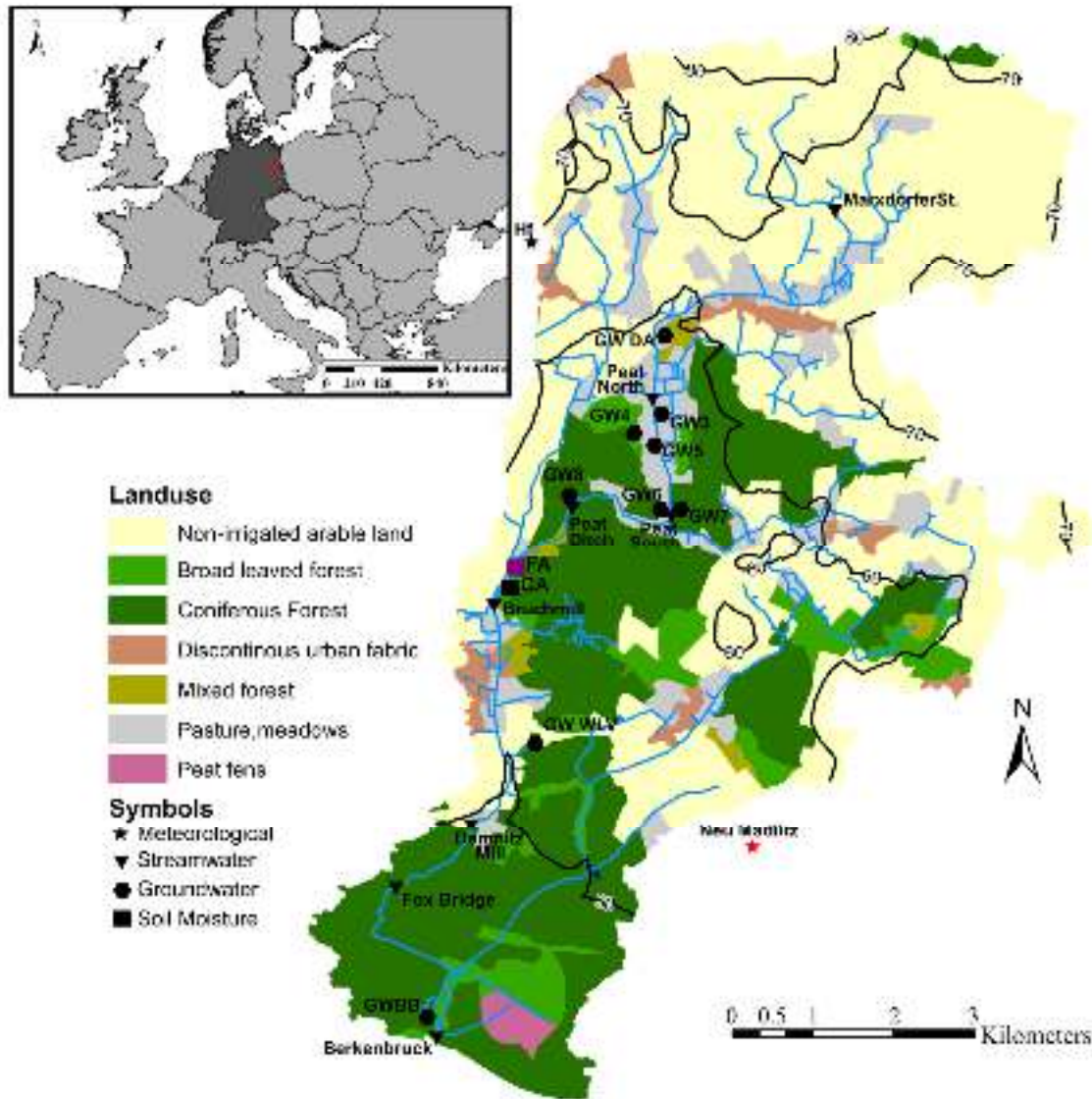
Figure 1: The Demnitzer Mill Creek catchment and its location within Europe and Germany. Measurement types are indicated in the legend, with red indicating no isotope measurements, black and purple indicating isotope measurements, and purple additionally indicating sap flow and xylem isotope measurements. Meteorological measurements at Neu Madlitz were conducted by the German Weather service (DWD Deutscher Wetterdienst).

121 **Table 1** - Overview of the properties of the Demnitzer Millcreek catchment at the catchment
122 outlet. Overview includes physiological characteristics, landuse, and geology.

Area (km2)	66.39	Topographic Relief (m)	50.23
Runoff Ratio	0.10	Mean Slope (%)	1.98
Landuse (%)		Geology (%)	
Mixed Forest	1.0	Base moraine	35.5
Conifer Forest	29.2	End moraine	2.3
Broadleaf Forest	6.0	Deposits of glacial valleys	6.9
Peat	0.7	Peat Fen	5.9
Pasture	10.2	Periglacial/fluvial deposits	16.3
Agricultural/arable land	50.4	Glacial/fluvial deposits	31.1
Urban	2.5	Sandy peat fen	2.0

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124 The data presented here were monitored in the Demnitzer Millcreek catchment (DMC) located in
125 NE Germany (52°23′N, 14°15′E; Figure 1, Table 1). The DMC is a lowland drought-sensitive area
126 south east of Berlin, the German capital, and situated in the North German Plain. The region has
127 high socio-economic significance through the provision of numerous ecosystem services;
128 including food security, timber production, groundwater recharge and river flow generation which
129 sustains drinking water supplies for Berlin (Kleine et al., 2021a). The original motivation behind
130 establishing DMC as an observatory in 1990 was to investigate the impact of agricultural
131 pollutants on surface water quality (Gelbrecht et al., 2000, 2005).
132 The hydroclimate is temperate with warm, humid summers (Kottek et al., 2006). Mean annual
133 precipitation and air temperature are 567 mm yr^{-1} and 9.6°C, respectively (DWD, 2020, for 2006-
134 2015). Seasonal contrasts are characterized by higher summer precipitation, mainly from high
135 intensity, convective events; and slightly lower precipitation during frequent, frontal rainfall events
136 in winter. The landscape was shaped by the last glaciation (Weichselian); soils are predominantly
137 sandy and formed on glacial and fluvial deposits (Kleine et al., 2021b). The catchment is
138 dominated by groundwater and likely had little surface runoff before human intervention.
139 Previously, numerous peat fens and freshwater lakes in hollows existed, but these were drained
140 during a long history of anthropogenic management (Nützmann et al., 2011). Land use is currently
141 dominated by farming and forestry (Kleine et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2020c). The catchment is also
142 relatively sparsely populated, and has recently experienced recolonization of beaver (Smith et al.,
143 2020a), wolf (Vogel, 2014) and even sporadic sighting of elk (Martin, 2014).
144 Maintenance of crucial ecosystem services in the landscape is dependent on sufficient seasonal
145 precipitation input to sustain adequate soil moisture levels in the rooting zone to support crop and
146 tree growth (Drastig et al., 2011); and acceptable groundwater recharge to sustain groundwater-
147 surface water exchanges. However, high water losses due to evapotranspiration (~ 90 % of total
148 precipitation), particularly from forested areas and poor water retention in the widespread sandy
149 soils (Smith et al., 2021), result in catchment drought sensitivity (Kleine et al., 2020). Further,
150 increased flow disconnections and fragmentation of the stream network occurs during droughts
151 (Kleine et al., 2021a; Smith et al., 2021).
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3. Data and instrumentation overview

3.1 Instrumentation overview

A fully automatic weather station (AWS) was installed and has been operated in Hasenfelde (Hf, Figure 1, Table 2) since April 2018, including net radiation, air temperature, relative humidity, precipitation and ground heat flux every 15-minutes. Weekly cumulative precipitation was additionally collected at four locations nested from north to south in the catchment: Marxdorfer St., Demnitz Mill, Bruchmill, and Berkenbruck (Figure 1&2, Table 2) from July 2018 to April 2020. Throughfall was collected under the canopy at Forest A at five locations (Forest A1-5) within a 10 m square fenced area. Throughfall was collected using standard rain gauges (Rain gauge kit, S. Brannan & Sons, Cleator Moor, UK)

Soil moisture and temperature profiles were established at Forest A (FA) and Grass A (GA) in June 2018 with 18 sensors per site (SMT-100, Umwelt-Geräte-Technik GmbH, Müncheberg, Germany, Table 2). The sensors were distributed equally at soil depths of 20, 60, and 100cm at each site (i.e. three sensors per depth), measuring every 15-minutes with a precision of +/-3% for volumetric soil water content and +/-0.2 °C for soil temperature

Sap flow measurements (Table 2) were established in 12 trees at Forest A including Scots Pine (*Pinus sylvestris*), European Oak (*Quercus robur*), common hazel (*Corylus avellana*), and Red Oak (*Quercus rubra*). Measurements were conducted using 2-4 radially installed thermal dissipation-based sap flow sensors (TDP probes, Dynamix Inc., Houston, TX, USA, precision 0.001°C). Sap flow measurements were recorded every 15 minutes. Sensors were installed at approximately 1.3 m above ground. The tree diameter was also measured at this height (DBH; mean: 76 cm; SD: 35 cm). All sensors consisted of two thermometers installed in the sapwood in 4 cm vertical distance from each other and were shielded from external sources of temperature change (e.g. radiation). The upper thermometer was heated and differences in temperature were collected hourly with a CR1000 data logger (Campbell Scientific, USA). The temperature difference was used to calculate flux velocity and combined with the sapwood area to calculate a flux rate. Conditions of zero transpiration were determined from daily maximum temperature differences. The resulting flux rate per unit sapwood area was adjusted to the plot using a ratio of sapwood area to forest area that was established with ten trees. More details can be found in Kleine et al. (2020).

Stream water level was measured at Demnitz Mill (beginning in 1986). Water level measurements were established by IGB Leibniz Institute of Freshwater Ecology and Inland Fisheries and recorded with divers (Micro 10m and Baro divers, Van Essen Instruments; accuracy +/- 0.5cm). The diver set up includes an internal atmospheric pressure correction. Water level has been also recorded since 1982 at Berkenbruck using pressure transducers and is collected by the Landesamt fur Umwelt, Brandenburg (all discharge data can be acquired there). Channel stability at Demnitz Mill has permitted rating curve development to translate water level measurements to discharge at this location (which is provided in the data sheet).

191   Groundwater level divers were installed at five locations throughout the catchment in 2001 (GW3,
192   GW4, GW5, GW7, and GW8) (Figure 1&2). Groundwater level at each site was measured every
193   four hours with an AquiLite ATP-10 diver (accuracy >0.1%; AquiTronic Umweltmeßtechnik GmbH,
194   Kirchheim/Teck, Germany) with internal correction for atmospheric pressure.
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196   **3.2 Isotope sampling overview**
197   A modified autosampler (ISCO 3700, Teledyne Isco, Lincoln, USA) was installed nearby the AWS
198   Hasenfelde to collect daily samples of precipitation for water stable isotope analysis (all isotope
199   samples are listed in table 2 with subscript $_{iso}$). Daily stream water samples for stable water isotope
200   analysis were collected at Bruchmill from an autosampler (ISCO 3700, Teledyne Isco, Lincoln,
201   USA), which was established in December 2018. Manual sampling from different locations and
202   different water cycle / landscape compartments supplemented the autosamplers. Samples were
203   taken from the weekly cumulative precipitation at 4 locations (Marxdorfer Str, Bruchmill, Demnitz
204   Mill, Berkenbureck) and throughfall (Forest A, 5 locations there) (Figure 2). Further, monthly
205   samples of soil water isotopes were taken at 6 depths (2.5, 7.5, 15, 30, 60, 90 cm) in triplicate for
206   Forest A and Grass A. This was complemented by synoptic, spatially distributed sampling of the
207   upper 30cm in 2019. Samples were placed in a sterile zip-lock bag (CB400-420siZ, Weber
208   Packaging GmbH, Güglingen, Germany) and analyzed using the direct water vapour equilibrium
209   method (Wassenaar et al., 2008). Weekly grab samples of stream water were taken at all nested
210   stream water locations (eight locations; Fig 1.). Groundwater isotopes were sampled at five
211   groundwater wells (GW4, GW8, GW DA, GW BB, GW WLV). Vegetation isotopic sampling was
212   conducted by taking twig samples from different vegetation in Forest A and samples of the non-
213   green stem of the grass at site Grass A. Vegetation samples were stored at -20°C after sampling
214   until analysis. Reference for all isotope samples is.
215   A layer of paraffin was added to the bottom of all autosampler containers to prevent evaporation
216   and fractionation from collected water. Autosamplers are emptied each week. Collected weekly
217   precipitation, throughfall, stream water, and groundwater were sealed and refrigerated until
218   isotopic analysis (usually within one week).
219   All liquid water samples (isotopes in precipiptation P_{iso}, in throughfall THR_{iso}, in streamwater Q_{iso},
220   in groundwater GW_{iso}) were filtered (0.2 μm, cellulose acetate, Lab Logistics Group GmbH,
221   Meckenheim, Germany) and cooled before being analyzed using Cavity Ring-Down
222   Spectroscopy (CRDS, L2130-i, Picarro, Inc., CA, USA). Additionally, the CRDS was used for the
223   analysis of soil water extracted via the direct liquid water equilibrium method. Vegetation samples
224   were extracted in January 2020 using the cryogenic extraction method given in Dubbert et al.
225   (2013, 2014) and analyzed with the CRDS. For all CRDS analysis, we used four standards for a
226   linear correction function and standards of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) for
227   calibration. After quality-checking and averaging multiple analyses for each sample, the results
228   were expressed in δ-notation with Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW). Analytical
229   precision was 0.05 ‰ standard deviation (SD) for $\delta^{18}O$ and 0.14 ‰ SD for δD. To screen for

230 interference from organics, the ChemCorrect Software (Picarro, Inc.) was applied and
231 contaminated samples discarded. Liquid samples were injected six times and the first three
232 injections discarded. As an index for instrument uncertainty, standard deviations of all isotope
233 samples are given in the accompanying data sheet.
234
235 **Table 2 – Overview of site locations in DMC, including site name, coordinates, data**
236 **collected, start and end dates, and resolution. P is precipitation, GW is groundwater**
237 **level, THR is throughfall, Ts is soil temperature, va is wind speed/direction, Ta is air**
238 **temperature, Pa is air pressure, RH is relative humidity, NR is net radiation, Sap is sap**
239 **flow. Veg is vegetation samples. Subscript '$_{iso}$' indicates isotope samples.**

Site Name [and ID]	Latitude, Longitude (UTM 33N)	Data Types	Start Date	End Date	Temporal Resolution	Filename
Hasenfelde [Hf]	5809705, 446068	P, v_a, T_a, P_a, RH, NR	Mar 17, 2018	Sep 30, 2021	hourly	Meteo_Hasenfelde.csv
		P_{iso}	Jul 12, 2018	Jul 16, 2021	daily	Isotopes.csv
Marxdorfer St.	5810076, 449773	P, P_{iso}	Jul 11, 2018	Jun 2, 2020	weekly	Isotopes.csv
		Q_{iso}	Jan 10, 2018	Dec 29, 2020	weekly	Isotopes.csv
Demnitz Mill	5802298, 445188	Q	Feb 22, 2001	Dec 31, 2020	daily	Discharge.csv
		P, P_{iso}	Jul 11, 2018	Jun 2, 2020	weekly	Isotopes.csv
		Q_{iso}	Jan 10, 2018	Dec 29, 2020	weekly	Isotopes.csv
Bruchmill	5805088, 445459	P, P_{iso}	Jul 11, 2018	Jul 20, 2021	weekly	Isotopes.csv
		Q_{iso}	Dec 28, 2018	Dec 31, 2020	daily	Isotopes.csv
Berkenbruck	5799604, 444737	Q_{iso}	Jan 10, 2018	Dec 29, 2020	weekly	Isotopes.csv
		P, P_{iso}	Jul 11, 2018	Jun 2, 2020	weekly	Isotopes.csv
Forest A [FA]	5805520, 445731	THR, THR_{iso}	Jul 11, 2018	May 19, 2020	weekly	Isotopes.csv
		Sap	Apr 21, 2018	Nov 1, 2018	hourly	Forest_Sapflow.csv
		SM, T_s	Jun 15, 2018	Mar 1, 2021	hourly	Forest_Soil_Moisture.csv
		SM_{iso}	Oct 18, 2018	Jul 16, 2019	monthly	Forest_Grass_Isotopes.csv
		Veg_{iso}	Sep 21, 2018	Oct 15, 2019	monthly	Vegetation_Isotopes.csv
Grass A [GA]	5805125, 445495	SM, T_s	Jun 15, 2018	Jan 7, 2020	hourly	Grass_Soil_Moisture.csv
		SM_{iso}	Oct 18, 2018	Jul 16, 2019	monthly	Forest_Grass_Isotopes.csv
		Veg_{iso}	Oct 18, 2018	Oct 15, 2019	monthly	Vegetation_Isotopes.csv
Peat North [PN]	5807703, 447474	Q_{iso}	Jan 10, 2018	Dec 29, 2020	weekly	Isotopes.csv

Peat South	5806262, 447712	Q_{iso}	Jan 10, 2018	Dec 29, 2020	weekly	Isotopes.csv
Peat Ditch	5806364, 446487	Q_{iso}	Mar 21, 2018	Dec 29, 2020	weekly	Isotopes.csv
Groundwater 3 [GW3]	5807499, 447582	GW	Jan 1, 2018	Oct 19, 2021	daily	Groundwater.csv
Groundwater Ringwall [GW4]	5807247, 447233	GW	Jan 1, 2018	Oct 19, 2021	daily	Groundwater.csv
		GW_{iso}	Sep 11, 2018	Dec 8, 2020	monthly	Isotopes.csv
Groundwater 5 [GW5]	5807099, 447490	GW	Jan 1, 2018	Oct 19, 2021	daily	Groundwater.csv
Groundwater 7 [GW7]	5806307, 447747	GW	Jan 1, 2018	Oct 19, 2021	daily	Groundwater.csv
Groundwater Peat Ditch [GW8]	5806320, 446488	GW	Jan 1, 2018	Oct 19, 2021	daily	Groundwater.csv
		GW_{iso}	Aug 15, 2018	Dec 8, 2020	monthly	Isotopes.csv
Groundwater Berkenbruck [GW BB]	5799862, 444611	GW_{iso}	Jan 21, 2019	Dec 8, 2020	monthly	Isotopes.csv
Groundwater DA [GW DA]	5808335, 447527	GW_{iso}	Apr 16, 2019	Dec 8, 2020	monthly	Isotopes.csv
Groundwater WLV [GW WLV]	5803322, 445982	GW_{iso}	Sep 20, 2018	Dec 8, 2020	monthly	Isotopes.csv

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247 **Figure 2: Measurement period and temporal resolution (colour code) for each parameter**
248 **at each site within the Demnitzer Millcreek Catchment including meteorological, soil,**
249 **vegetation, stream, and groundwater hydrological and isotope data sets.**

4. Precipitation and throughfall data

Monitoring for precipitation commenced in the 2018 summer drought when low rainfall inputs continued through the following winter (Figure 3a). Large rainfall events (>20 mm/d) were relatively rare and mostly summer convectional storms. Even by summer 2020, most months had below average rainfall. Throughfall at the Forest A site typically was 70-90 % of incident rainfall (measured as open precipitation at Bruchmill nearby), with higher interception losses in low intensity summer storms and lowest in winter or high intensity summer storms. Heterogeneity in throughfall was marked (Figure 3b), emphasizing the importance of the forest canopy in redistributing net rainfall to the forest floor.
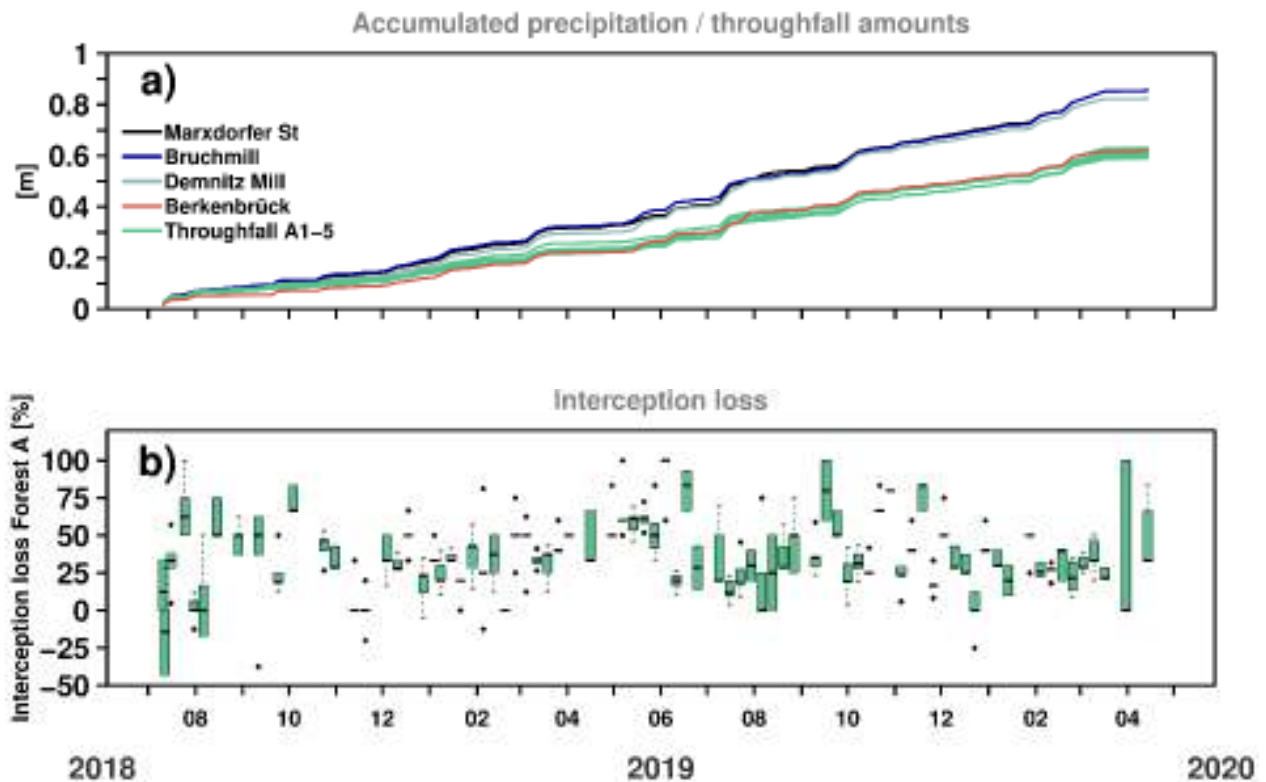
Figure 3: (a) Cumulative precipitation and throughfall at multiple (nested) locations throughout the catchment. Throughfall was collected weekly at Forest A with (b) five samplers (1-5) distributed throughout a 10m square fenced area. Open area precipitation at Bruchmill (nearby Forest A) was used to calculate weekly interception loss.

5. Catchment hydrological data

Rainfall fluxes mostly drove short term soil moisture variations (Figure 4a, c); which were more responsive in the upper soil layers (at 20 cm) than deeper layers. There was higher variability in volumetric soil moisture under forested land cover, where soils are sandier, more structured and effective rainfall is lower due to interception losses. Seasonality in evapotranspiration (usefully indexed by sapflow in Figure 4b) modulated the effects of rainfall on soil moisture storage. Seasonal soil moisture dynamics also governed groundwater recharge and variation in groundwater levels, which had an annual range of ~1.5 m at well G3 and ~1m at the peat ditch well (Figure 4d). Despite clear winter recharge and spring drawdown in each well, peak winter and summer levels were lower in 2019 and still in 2020 despite a slight recovery compared to 2018 indicating the cumulative "memory effects" of the drought. This was also evident in the stream hydrograph with very low discharge peaks in 2019 and 2020, which also had prolonged periods where flow ceased in the summer. Thus, winter soil moisture replenishment was insufficient to match long-term groundwater recharge. These different correlations underline the added value of simultaneous data from long-term study sites on transpiration, soil water, groundwater and stream flow as droughts develop (Smith et al., 2022).
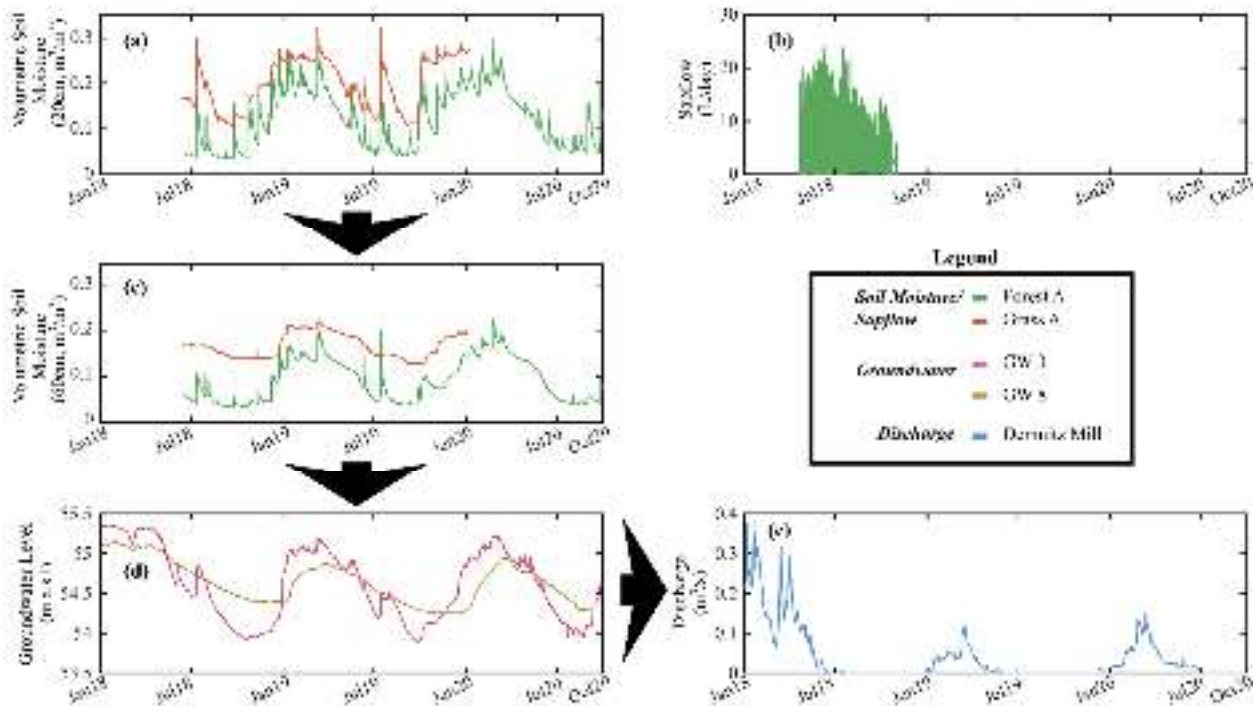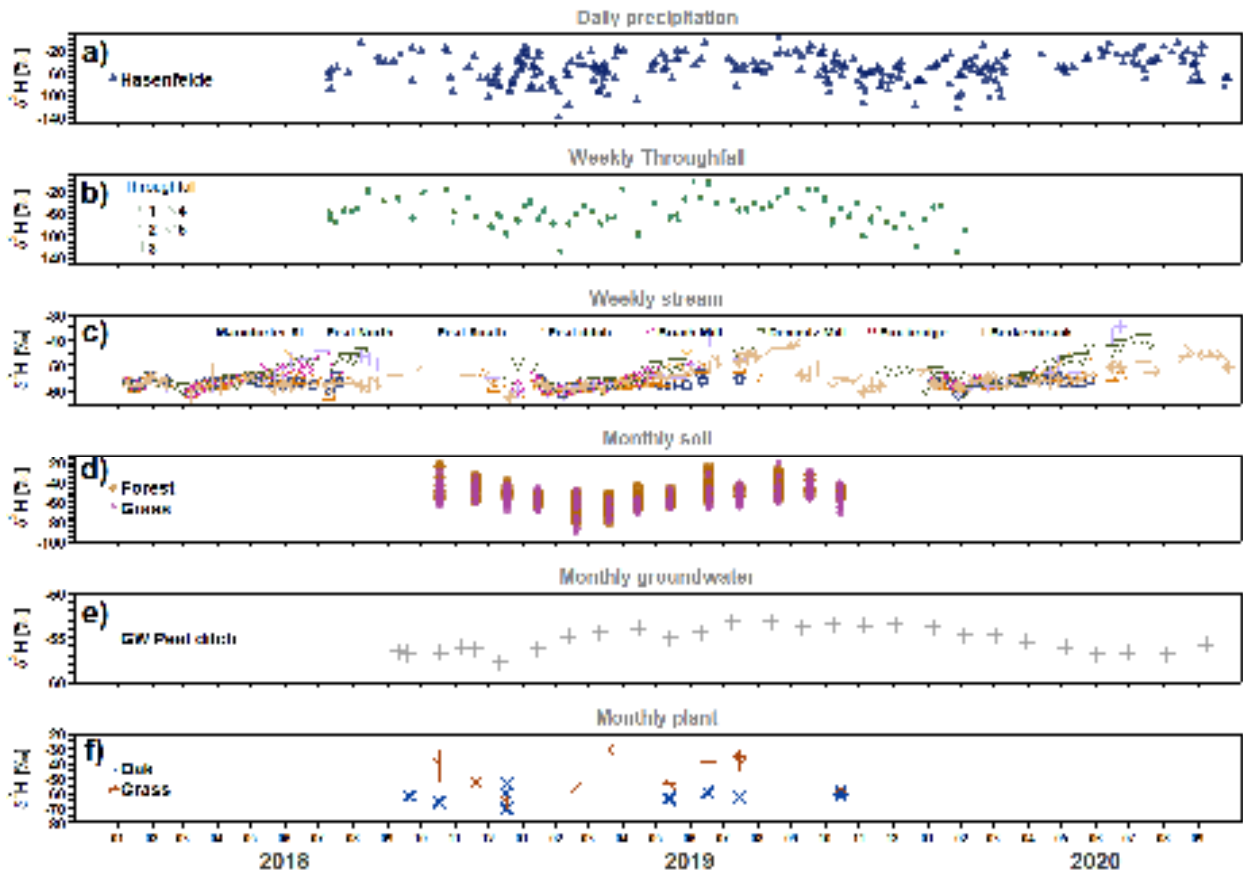

Figure 4: (a) Shallow soil moisture, (b) sapflow, (c) deep soil moisture, (d) groundwater levels from 2 wells and (e) discharge from Demnitz Mill station. Arrows show connections between layers and fluxes. *Groundwater 3 is within the wetland and Groundwater 8 is outside the wetland (near areas of Forest A and Grass A, see Fig. 1).

6. Stable water isotopes

Stable water isotope signatures in precipitation showed high day-to-day variability superimposed on strong seasonality; with more depleted values in winter and more enriched values in summer (Fig 5a). Interestingly, weekly throughfall signatures were very similar to the (weekly and daily) precipitation signal showing no strong signs of evaporative fractionation during canopy storage (Fig 5b). This likely reflects the high intensity nature of most summer rainfall, which affords limited opportunity for canopy evaporation. Streamwater signatures at all nested sites showed similar seasonality but much more damping in the signal (Fig. 5c). Groundwater was most damped, and similar in composition to streamflow during winter (Fig 5d). In summer, sites downstream of Marxdorfer Strasse showed evidence of evaporative fractionation from either the channel network or riparian soils and plotted below the meteoric water line before stream flow ceased. Monthly soil water samples showed higher variability in isotopic composition under forest than under grass, mainly reflecting soil characteristics with more retentive, loamy and wetter soils at the grassland site buffering the effects of rainfall inputs. At both vegetation sites, seasonal variation in isotopic composition tracked precipitation, though in deeper soil, the isotopic signal was more damped. Vegetation samples from the oaks showed higher variation than from grass.

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Figure 5: Time series of deuterium (δ²H) in (a) daily precipitation at Hasenfelde, (b) weekly throughfall (in Forest A), (c) stream water (daily at Bruchmill and weekly at other sampling locations), (d) soil water under forest and grass, (e) groundwater at well GW 8/ peat ditch and (f) plant samples at various locations (from oaks in Forest A, and grass in Grass A) in the catchment.

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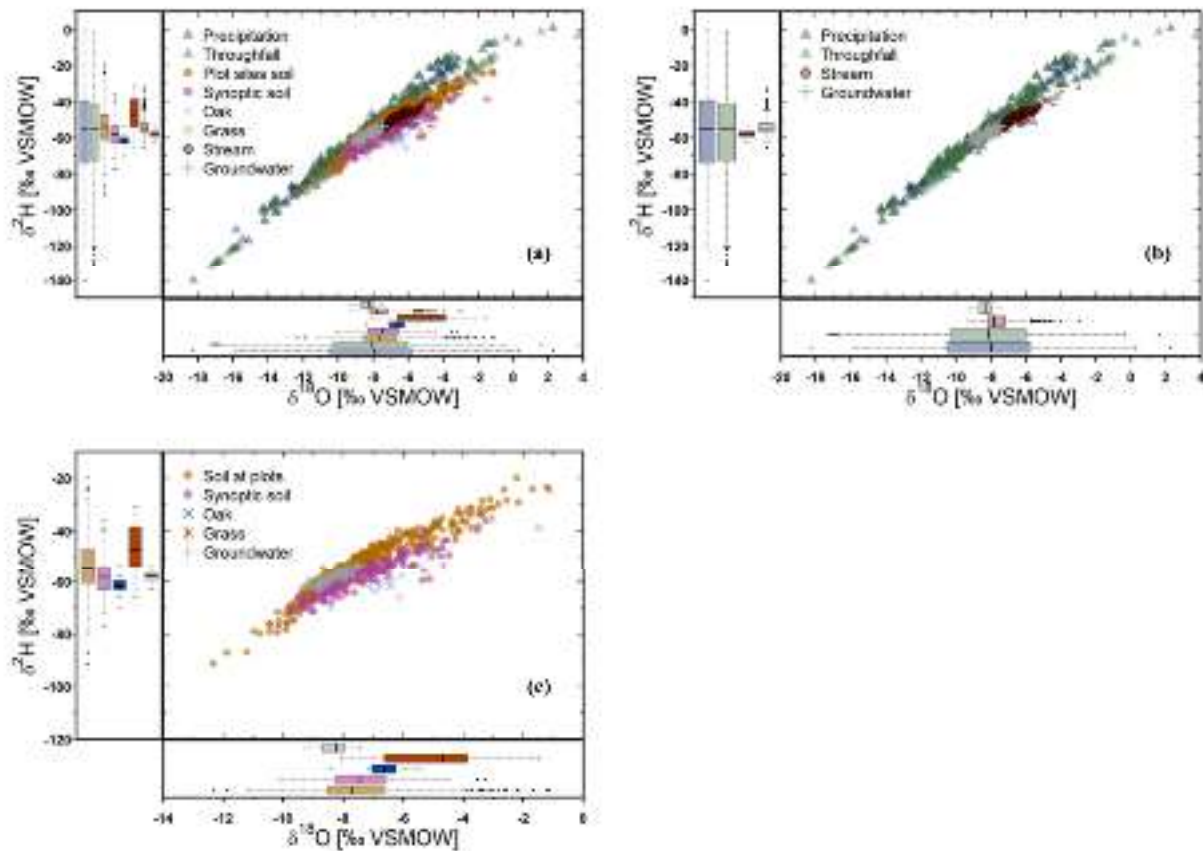
Figure 6: Dual isotope space (δ²H-δ¹⁸O) plots for (a) all measured isotopic datasets (for all locations), (b) precipitation, throughfall, streamwater, and groundwater, and (c) soil (multiple depths), synoptic soil survey (upper 30cm), vegetation, and groundwater.

Differences in the isotope dynamics of different critical zone compartments are shown in dual isotope space in Figure 6a. The damping of precipitation in groundwater and streamflow is apparent, as is the fractionation of more enriched summer stream flow samples (Figure 6b). The role of the soil in partitioning water is apparent from the overlap between deeper soil horizons and groundwater which were both more weighted to winter precipitation – when recharge is greatest (Fig 6c). Xylem water in oaks and grass (measured at Forest A) tended to show the effects of fractionation, which was most marked in the oaks and may point to different soil water sources of root uptake.

7. Data availability

All data presented in this paper are available from the IGB open data repository FRED ~~with detailed metadata~~ (~~DOI:~~https://doi.org/10.18728/igb-fred-826.3) ~~;~~under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International Public License (CC BY 4.0)~~)~~ ~~and~~ including detailed metadata and contact information for any further questions. ~~There is a readme section per each dataset. We also included a digital elevation model, shapefile of the catchment boundary and the station locations.~~

8. Summary

The integrated data set presented in this paper is unique because: (1) it captures complicated ecohydrological dynamics over two years during an exceptional drought (in 2018/2019) in Central Europe; (2) the different compartments of the critical zone were monitored through stable water isotope data and complimentary ecohydrological data for contrasting land use and (3) multi-scale, nested catchment time series were derived. In total, 11 CSV files with over 100k rows of data from 18 different geographic locations s are available. The data are quality controlled. We included meteorological data and precipitation and throughfall amount. Catchment response data include stream discharge at the catchment outlet and another nested site, and stream level data at two further sites; soil moisture from multiple depths at two locations (two different landuses), groundwater level data at five locations and sapflow measurements from one forest location. Stable water isotope data include precipitation water, throughfall, streamwater at eight sites, soil water isotopes from two sites plus spatially distributed samples of upper soils, vegetation samples at two locations and groundwater at six locations. Data continue to be collected and updated data sets will be published based on available resources.

As such, these data provide an excellent, integrated ecohydrological perspective on the drought response of a lowland agricultural landscape. Such data are of course important in their own right, but are equally invaluable for challenging environmental models as constraints on internal model function that can be used to increase confidence in the use of models in projecting the impacts of future change. Integrated data like the ones summarised here are also important for a range of scientific questions that are growing in importance as the effects of climate change become more apparent. These include understanding how do droughts develop and propagate through components of hydrological systems and compartments of the critical zone? What are the effects of land cover on this propagation and how does it affect water cycling in vegetation? How long does recovery of different system components take once rainfall anomalies become positive? How resilient are different critical zone compartments or entire landscapes against climate extremes such as droughts? Hopefully, this data set will be used by scientists to increase understanding on critical issues such as what are the water footprints of alternative land uses and how can these be reduced whilst maintaining societal needs. This will help to contribute to the development of more sustainable and resilient land and water management policies that will be needed in the face of increased longevity and frequency of droughts.

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