

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

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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. All data presented in this paper are available from the  
33 IGB open data repository FRED with detailed metadata (<https://doi.org/10.18728/igb-fred-813.1>;  
34 Tetzlaff et al., 2023).

## 36 1. Introduction

37

38 Progress in scientific hydrology and provision of an evidence base for sustainable land and water  
39 management are only possible due to detailed, long-term observational data collected from  
40 experimental watersheds (Hewlett et al., 1969; Robinson et al., 2013). Such experimental  
41 “outdoor laboratories” are invaluable scientific resources given the complexity of increasing  
42 pressures on water supplies (e.g. Cosgrove and Loucks, 2015), land use change (Neill et al.,  
43 2021) and the uncertain effects and non-stationarity of projected climate change (Milly et al.,  
44 2015).

45 Ecohydrology adopts an interdisciplinary approach to investigate links between the structure and  
46 function of ecological systems and the partitioning, flux and storage of fresh water (Guswa et al.,  
47 2020). Recent advances in monitoring and modeling have created manifold opportunities to  
48 address urgent ecohydrological questions on the importance of links between processes across  
49 the critical zone (CZ) - the dynamic, life-sustaining near-surface of the terrestrial earth that  
50 extends between the top of vegetation canopies, through the soil and into groundwater (Grant &  
51 Dietrich, 2017). Within the CZ concept, vegetation plays a central and dynamic role in partitioning  
52 incoming precipitation into “blue water” fluxes (streamflow generation and groundwater recharge)  
53 and “green water” fluxes which maintain vegetation growth (Evaristo et al., 2015).

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

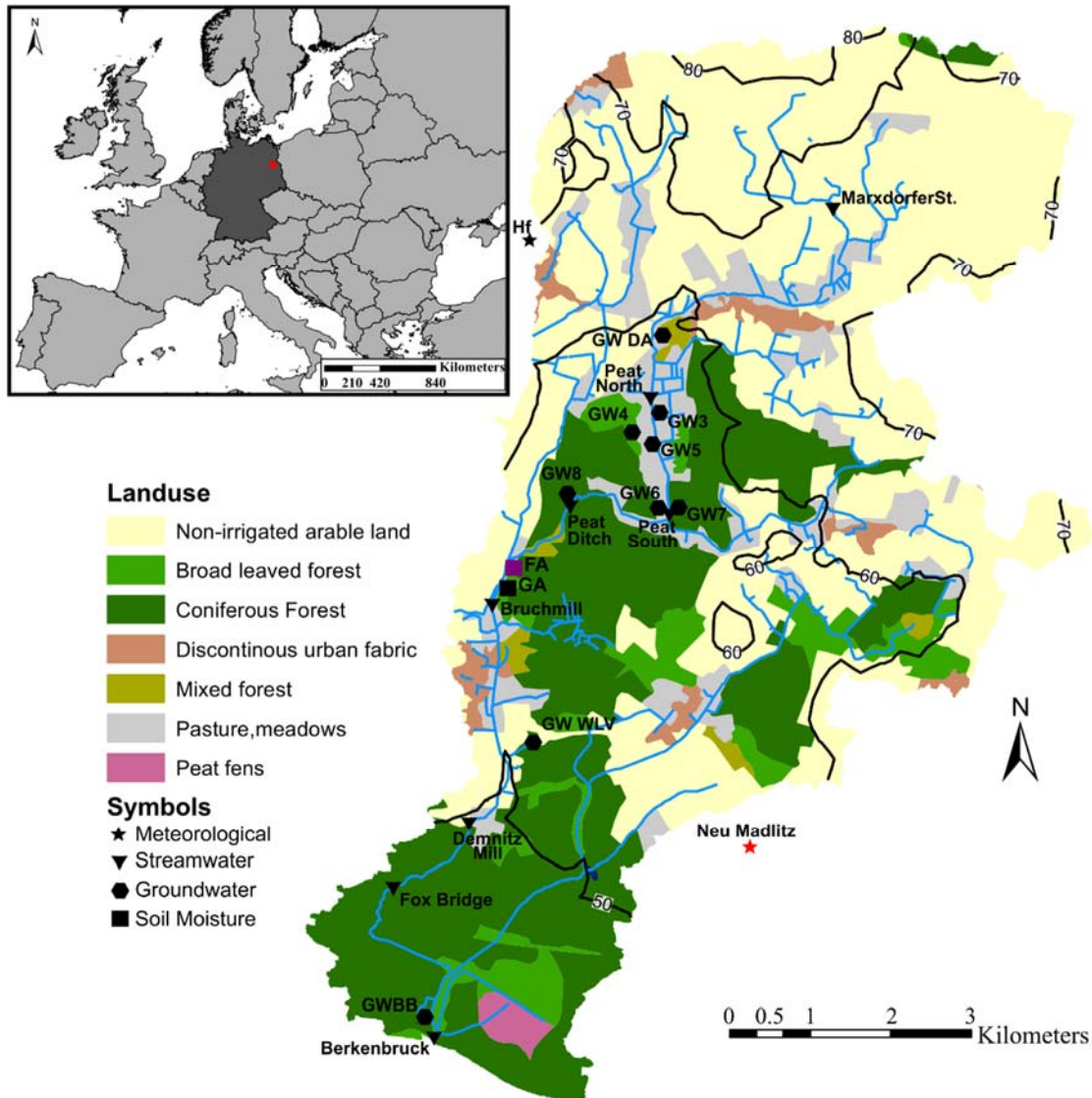
74 Consequently, integrated ecohydrological and stable isotope data sets targeted at understanding  
75 the effects of different types of environmental change have outstanding potential, not least  
76 because interdisciplinary environmental research tends to give unanticipated insights (Burt,  
77 1994). Such integrated data streams allow identification and quantification of the linkages  
78 between rainfall, soil moisture, groundwater and runoff generation, facilitating deeper  
79 understanding of flood and drought risk in different types of landscapes and under different land  
80 use management (Huntingford et al., 2014).

81 Water resources in the extensive, glacially formed, lowland landscape of northern Europe,  
82 including the North German Plain sustain food production (Gutzler et al., 2015; Barkmann et al.,  
83 2017) and water supplies to large cities like Berlin. Interestingly, such lowland catchments are still  
84 relatively understudied compared to more upland headwater landscapes with stronger  
85 topographic controls on drainage of surface and subsurface water (Devito et al., 2005). In low  
86 elevation catchments across the North German Plain, streams are usually groundwater-  
87 dominated, but the temporal and spatial heterogeneities in the hydrological functioning of these  
88 catchments are still not fully understood (Boulton and Hancock, 2006). For example, there is still  
89 a limited evidence base for quantifying how drought affects groundwater recharge and stream  
90 flow generation in lowland areas in Central Europe, including the cessation of flow during the  
91 summer (Germer et al., 2011).

92 To help address these knowledge gaps, here, we present a comprehensive set of ecohydrological  
93 hydrometric and stable water isotope data of two years for the Demnitzer Mill Creek catchment,  
94 Northeast Germany. The data set is unique in its integrative characteristics; that the different  
95 compartments of the CZ were sampled across a mesoscale catchment in terms of their isotopic  
96 signature and supporting ecohydrological data. By coincidence, these first two years, of what will  
97 be a long-term study, captured the changing impacts of a prolonged drought period (2018-2020)  
98 with a strong negative rainfall anomaly that became the most severe regional drought so far in  
99 the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Kleine et al., 2021a). The data allow the effects of droughts (and their  
100 persistence) on water storage, fluxes and age dynamics in the CZ to be investigated (Smith et al.,  
101 2022). Our objective here is to provide this high spatio-temporal resolution ecohydrological  
102 dataset to improve understanding of the storages and flow pathways of both blue and green water  
103 across processes at the larger catchment scale in lowland catchments. We are continuing these  
104 observations to assess long-term climatic trends at this drought sensitive region of Northeast  
105 Germany, which is characterized by high water losses due to evapotranspiration and poor water  
106 retention in the widespread sandy soils (Smith et al., 2021). Further, these data can potentially be  
107 used to understand the hydrologic functioning of other drought sensitive regions beyond northeast  
108 Germany.

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111 2. Site description  
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 116 **Figure 1: The Demnitzer Mill Creek catchment and its location within Europe and**  
 117 **Germany. Measurement types are indicated in the legend, with red indicating no isotope**  
 118 **measurements, black and purple indicating isotope measurements, and purple**  
 119 **additionally indicating sap flow and sap isotope measurements. Meteorological**  
 120 **measurements at Neu Madlitz were conducted by the German Weather service (DWD**  
 121 **Deutscher Wetterdienst).**  
 122  
 123

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

<b>Area (km<sup>2</sup>)</b>	66.39	<b>Topographic Relief (m)</b>	50.23
<b>Runoff Ratio</b>	0.10	<b>Mean Slope (%)</b>	1.98
<b>Landuse (%)</b>		<b>Geology (%)</b>	
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/fluviol deposits	16.3
Agricultural/arable land	50.4	Glacial/fluviol deposits	31.1
Urban	2.5	Sandy peat fen	2.0

126  
 127 The data presented here were monitored in the Demnitzer Millcreek catchment (DMC) located in  
 128 NE Germany (52°23'N, 14°15'E; Figure 1). The DMC is a lowland drought-sensitive area south  
 129 east of Berlin, the German capital, and situated in the North German Plain. The region has high  
 130 socio-economic significance through the provision of numerous ecosystem services; including  
 131 food security, timber production, groundwater recharge and river flow generation which sustains  
 132 drinking water supplies for Berlin (Kleine et al., 2021a). The original motivation behind establishing  
 133 DMC as an observatory in 1990 was to investigate the impact of agricultural pollutants on surface  
 134 water quality (Gelbrecht et al., 2000, 2005).

135 The hydroclimate is temperate with warm, humid summers (Kottek et al., 2006). Mean annual  
 136 precipitation and air temperature are 567 mm yr<sup>-1</sup> and 9.6°C, respectively (DWD, 2020, for 2006-  
 137 2015). Seasonal contrasts are characterized by higher summer precipitation, mainly from high  
 138 intensity, convective events; and slightly lower precipitation during frequent, frontal rainfall events  
 139 in winter. The landscape was shaped by the last glaciation (Weichselian); soils are predominantly  
 140 sandy and formed on glacial and fluvial deposits (Kleine et al., 2021b). The catchment is  
 141 dominated by groundwater and likely had little surface runoff before human intervention.  
 142 Previously, numerous peat fens and freshwater lakes in hollows existed, but these were drained  
 143 during a long history of anthropogenic management (Nützmänn et al., 2011). Land use is currently  
 144 dominated by farming and forestry (Kleine et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2020c). The catchment is also  
 145 relatively sparsely populated, and has recently experienced recolonization of beaver (Smith et al.,  
 146 2020a), wolf (Vogel, 2014) and even sporadic sighting of elk (Martin, 2014).

147 Maintenance of crucial ecosystem services in the landscape is dependent on sufficient seasonal  
 148 precipitation input to sustain adequate soil moisture levels in the rooting zone to support crop and  
 149 tree growth (Drastig et al., 2011); and acceptable groundwater recharge to sustain groundwater-  
 150 surface water exchanges. However, high water losses due to evapotranspiration (~ 90 % of total  
 151 precipitation), particularly from forested areas and poor water retention in the widespread sandy  
 152 soils (Smith et al., 2021), result in catchment drought sensitivity (Kleine et al., 2020). Further,  
 153 increased flow disconnections and fragmentation of the stream network occurs during droughts  
 154 (Kleine et al., 2021a; Smith et al., 2021).

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156 **3. Data and instrumentation overview**

157 **3.1 Instrumentation overview**

158 A fully automatic weather station (AWS) was installed and has been operated in Hasenfelde (Hf,  
159 Figure 1) since April 2018, including net radiation, air temperature, relative humidity, precipitation  
160 and ground heat flux every 15-minutes. Weekly cumulative precipitation was additionally collected  
161 at four locations nested from north to south in the catchment: Marxdorfer St., Demnitz Mill,  
162 Bruchmill, and Berkenbruck (Figure 1&2) from July 2018 to April 2020. Throughfall was collected  
163 under the canopy at Forest A at five locations (Forest A1-5) within a 10 m square fenced area.  
164 Throughfall was collected using standard rain gauges (Rain gauge kit, S. Brannan & Sons, Cleator  
165 Moor, UK; <https://doi.org/10.18728/igb-fred-813.1>)

166 Soil moisture and temperature profiles were established at Forest A (FA) and Grass A (GA) in  
167 June 2018 with 18 sensors per site (SMT-100, Umwelt-Geräte-Technik GmbH, Müncheberg,  
168 Germany). The sensors were distributed equally at soil depths of 20, 60, and 100cm at each site  
169 (i.e. three sensors per depth), measuring every 15-minutes (<https://doi.org/10.18728/igb-fred-813.1>).  
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171 Sap flow measurements were established in 12 trees at Forest A including Scots Pine (*Pinus*  
172 *sylvestris*), European Oak (*Quercus robur*), common hazel (*Corylus avellana*), and Red Oak  
173 (*Quercus rubra*). Measurements were conducted using 2-4 radially installed thermal dissipation-  
174 based sap flow sensors (TDP probes, Dynamix Inc., Houston, TX, USA). Sap flow measurements  
175 were recorded every 15 minutes (<https://doi.org/10.18728/igb-fred-813.1>). Sensors were installed  
176 at approximately 1.3 m above ground. The tree diameter was also measured at this height (DBH;  
177 mean: 76 cm; SD: 35 cm). All sensors consisted of two thermometers installed in the sapwood in  
178 4 cm vertical distance from each other and were shielded from external sources of temperature  
179 change (e.g. radiation). The upper thermometer was heated and differences in temperature were  
180 collected hourly with a CR1000 data logger (Campbell Scientific, USA). The temperature  
181 difference was used to calculate flux velocity and combined with the sapwood area to calculate a  
182 flux rate. Conditions of zero transpiration were determined from daily maximum temperature  
183 differences. The resulting flux rate per unit sapwood area was adjusted to the plot using a ratio of  
184 sapwood area to forest area that was established with ten trees. More details can be found in  
185 Kleine et al., (2020).

186 Stream water level was established at four locations within the catchment; Peat North, Bruchmill,  
187 Demnitz Mill, and Berkenbruck (<https://doi.org/10.18728/igb-fred-813.1>). Water level  
188 measurements were established by IGB Leibniz Institute of Freshwater Ecology and Inland  
189 Fisheries and recorded with divers at Peat North, Demnitz Mill, and at Bruchmill ((Micro 10m and  
190 Baro divers, Van Essen Instruments). The divers utilized at each site include an internal  
191 atmospheric pressure correction. Water level measurements began at Demnitz Mill in 1986, and  
192 in January and June 2018 for Peat North and Bruchmill, respectively. Water level has been  
193 recorded since 1982 at Berkenbruck using pressure transducers and was established and

194 collected by the Landesamt für Umwelt. Channel stability at Demnitz Mill and Berkenbruck has  
195 permitted rating curve development to translate water level measurements to discharge.  
196 Groundwater level divers were installed at five locations throughout the catchment in 2001 (GW3,  
197 GW4, GW5, GW7, and GW8) (Figure 1&2). Groundwater level at each site was measured every  
198 four hours with an AquiLite ATP-10 diver (AquiTronic Umweltmeßtechnik GmbH, Kirchheim/Teck,  
199 Germany) with internal correction for atmospheric pressure ([https://doi.org/10.18728/igb-fred-](https://doi.org/10.18728/igb-fred-813.1)  
200 [813.1](https://doi.org/10.18728/igb-fred-813.1)).

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### 202 **3.2 Isotope sampling overview**

203 A modified autosampler (ISCO 3700, Teledyne Isco, Lincoln, USA) was installed nearby the AWS  
204 to collect daily samples of precipitation for water stable isotope analysis. Daily stream water  
205 samples for stable water isotope analysis were collected at Bruchmill from an autosampler (ISCO  
206 3700, Teledyne Isco, Lincoln, USA), which was established in December 2018  
207 (<https://doi.org/10.18728/igb-fred-813.1>). Manual sampling from different locations and different  
208 water cycle / landscape compartments supplemented the autosamplers installed for precipitation  
209 at Hasenfelde and for stream water at Bruchmill. Samples were taken from the weekly cumulative  
210 precipitation and throughfall (Forest A) for each location (Figure 2). Further, monthly samples of  
211 soil water were taken at 6 depths (2.5, 7.5, 15, 30, 60, 90 cm) in triplicate for Forest A and Grass  
212 A. This was complemented by synoptic, spatially distributed sampling of the upper 30cm in 2019.  
213 Samples were placed in a sterile zip-lock bag (CB400-420siZ, Weber Packaging GmbH,  
214 Güglingen, Germany) and analyzed using the direct water vapour equilibrium method (Wassenaar  
215 et al., 2008). Weekly grab samples of stream water were taken at all nested stream water  
216 locations (eight locations; Fig 1.). Groundwater isotopes were sampled at six groundwater wells  
217 (GW3, GW8, GW DA, GW6, GW WLV, GW BB). Vegetation isotopic sampling was conducted by  
218 taking twig samples from different vegetation in Forest A and samples of the non-green stem of  
219 the grass at site Grass A. Vegetation samples were stored at -20°C after sampling until analysis.  
220 Reference for all isotope samples is <https://doi.org/10.18728/igb-fred-813.1>.

221 A layer of paraffin was added to the bottom of all autosampler containers to prevent evaporation  
222 and fractionation from collected water. Autosamplers are emptied each week. Collected weekly  
223 precipitation, throughfall, stream water, and groundwater were sealed and refrigerated until  
224 isotopic analysis (usually within one week).

225 All liquid water samples (isotopes in precipitation  $P_{iso}$ , in throughfall  $THR_{iso}$ , in streamwater  $Q_{iso}$ ,  
226 in groundwater  $GW_{iso}$ ) were filtered (0.2  $\mu$ m, cellulose acetate, Lab Logistics Group GmbH,  
227 Meckenheim, Germany) and cooled before being analyzed using Cavity Ring-Down  
228 Spectroscopy (CRDS, L2130-i, Picarro, Inc., CA, USA). Additionally, the CRDS was used for the  
229 analysis of soil water extracted via the direct liquid water equilibrium method. Vegetation samples  
230 were extracted in January 2020 using the cryogenic extraction method given in Dubbert et al.  
231 (2013, 2014) and analyzed with the CRDS. For all CRDS analysis, we used four standards for a  
232 linear correction function and standards of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) for

233 calibration. After quality-checking and averaging multiple analyses for each sample, the results  
234 were expressed in  $\delta$ -notation with Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW). Analytical  
235 precision was 0.05 ‰ standard deviation (SD) for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and 0.14 ‰ SD for  $\delta\text{D}$ . To screen for  
236 interference from organics, the ChemCorrect Software (Picarro, Inc.) was applied and  
237 contaminated samples discarded. Liquid samples were injected six times and the first three  
238 injections discarded.  
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241 **Table 2 – Overview of site locations in DMC, including site name, coordinates, data**  
 242 **collected, start and end dates, and resolution. N/A indicates not applicable, P is**  
 243 **precipitation, GW is groundwater level, THR is throughfall, Ts is soil temperature, va is**  
 244 **wind speed/direction, Ta is air temperature, Pa is air pressure, RH is relative humidity,**  
 245 **NR is net radiation, Sap is sap flow, and subscript iso indicates isotopic sampling. AWS**  
 246 **indicates measurements of P, va, Ta, Pa, RH, and NR**

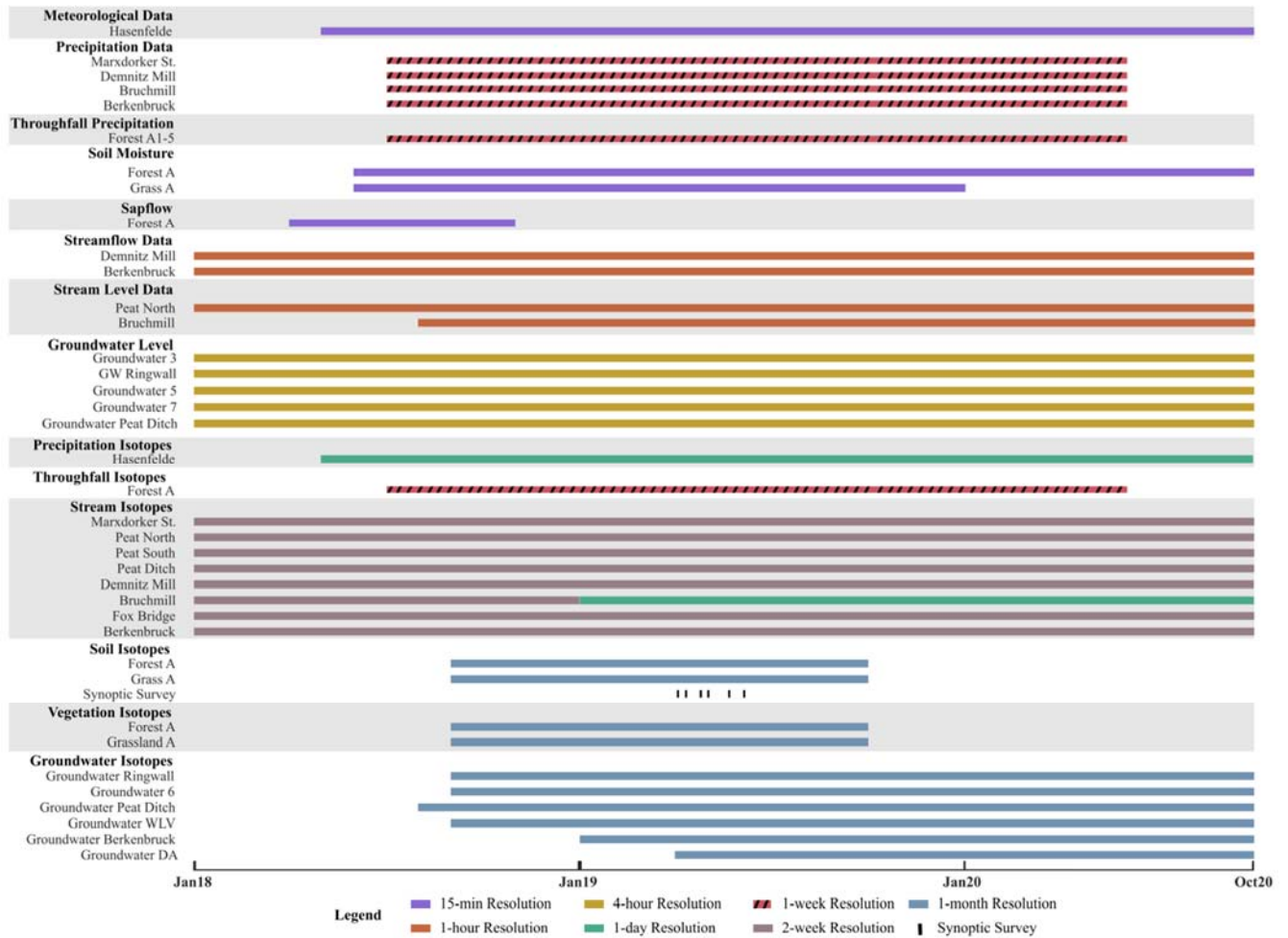
Site Name	ID	Location (UTM 33N)		Data Type	Installation/Start Date	Discontinued/End Date	Resolution	
		Latitude	Longitude				Temporal	Spatial
Marxdo rfer St.	Marxdo rfer St.	5810076	449773	P	Jul 9, 2018	Jun 2, 2020	Weekly	N/A
				P <sub>iso</sub>				
				Q <sub>iso</sub>	Jan 10, 2018	N/A		
				T <sub>s</sub>	Aug 16, 2019	Jul 11, 2020	15-min	5cm
Hasenf elde	Hf	5809705	446068	P	Mar 17, 2018	N/A	15-min	2m
				P <sub>iso</sub>	Jul 12, 2018		Daily	N/A
				V <sub>a</sub>	Mar 17, 2018		15-min	2m
				T <sub>a</sub>				
				P <sub>a</sub>				
				RH				
				NR				
T <sub>s</sub>	Aug 16, 2019	Jul 11, 2020	5cm					
Ground water DA	GW DA	5808335	447527	GW <sub>iso</sub>	Apr 16, 2019	N/A	Monthly	N/A
Peat North	PN	5807703	447474	Q <sub>iso</sub>	Jan 10, 2018		Weekly	
Ground water 3	GW3	5807499	447582	GW	Jan 10, 2001		4-hour	
Ground water Ringwa ll	GW4	5807247	447233	GW	Feb 22, 2001		4-hour	
				GW <sub>iso</sub>	Sep 11, 2018		Monthly	
Ground water 5	GW5	5807099	447490	GW	Jan 10, 2001		4-hour	
Peat Ditch	Peat Ditch	5806364	446487	Q <sub>iso</sub>	Mar 21, 2018		Weekly	
Ground water Peat Ditch	GW8	5806320	446488	GW	Jan 10, 2001		4-hour	
				GW <sub>iso</sub>	Aug 15, 2018		Monthly	
Ground water 7	GW7	5806307	447726	GW	Feb 22, 2001		4-hour	
Ground water 6	GW6	5806274	447678	GW <sub>iso</sub>	Sep 11, 2018	Monthly		
Peat South	Peat South	5806262	447712	Q <sub>iso</sub>	Jan 10, 2018	N/A	Weekly	N/A
				T <sub>s</sub>	Aug 16, 2019	Jul 11, 2020	15-min	5cm
Forest A	FA	5805520	445731	Sap	Apr 21, 2018	Nov 1, 2018	15-min	12 Trees
				SM	Jun 15, 2018	N/A		6 sites, 20, 60, 100cm depths

				SM <sub>iso</sub>	Oct 18, 2018	Jul 16, 2019	Monthly	N/A
				THR	Jul 11, 2018	May 19, 2020	Weekly	5 sites
				THR <sub>iso</sub>				
				T <sub>s</sub>	Jun 15, 2018	N/A	15-min	6 sites, 20, 60, 100cm depths
Grass A	GA	5805125	445495	SM	Jun 15, 2018	Jan 7, 2020	15-min	6 sites, 20, 60, 100cm depths
				SM <sub>iso</sub>	Oct 18, 2018	Jul 16, 2019	Monthly	N/A
				T <sub>s</sub>	Jun 15, 2018	Jan 7, 2020	15-min	6 sites, 20, 60, 100cm depths
Bruchmill	Bruchmill	5805088	445459	P	Jul 9, 2018	Jun 2, 2020	Weekly	N/A
				P <sub>iso</sub>				
				Q <sub>iso</sub>	Jan 10, 2018 (weekly) Dec 28, 2018 (daily)	Dec 28, 2018 (weekly)	Weekly / Daily	
Ground water WLW	GW WLW	5803322	445982	GW <sub>iso</sub>	Sep 20, 2018	N/A	Monthly	
Demnitz Mill	Demnitz Mill	5802298	445188	P	Jul 9, 2018	Jun 2, 2020	Weekly	
				P <sub>iso</sub>				
				Q	Feb 22, 2011	N/A	4-hour	
Q <sub>iso</sub>	Jan 10, 2018	Weekly						
Fox Bridge	Fox Bridge	5801469	444189	Q <sub>iso</sub>	Jan 10, 2018	N/A	Weekly	
Ground water Berkenbruck	GW BB	5799862	444611	GW <sub>iso</sub>	Jan 21, 2019		Monthly	
Berkenbruck	Berkenbruck	5799604	444737	P	Jul 9, 2018	Jun 2, 2020	Weekly	N/A
				P <sub>iso</sub>				
				Q	Nov 1, 1982	N/A	Daily	
				Q <sub>iso</sub>	Jan 10, 2018		Weekly	
T <sub>s</sub>	Aug 16, 2019	Jul 11, 2020	15-min	5cm				

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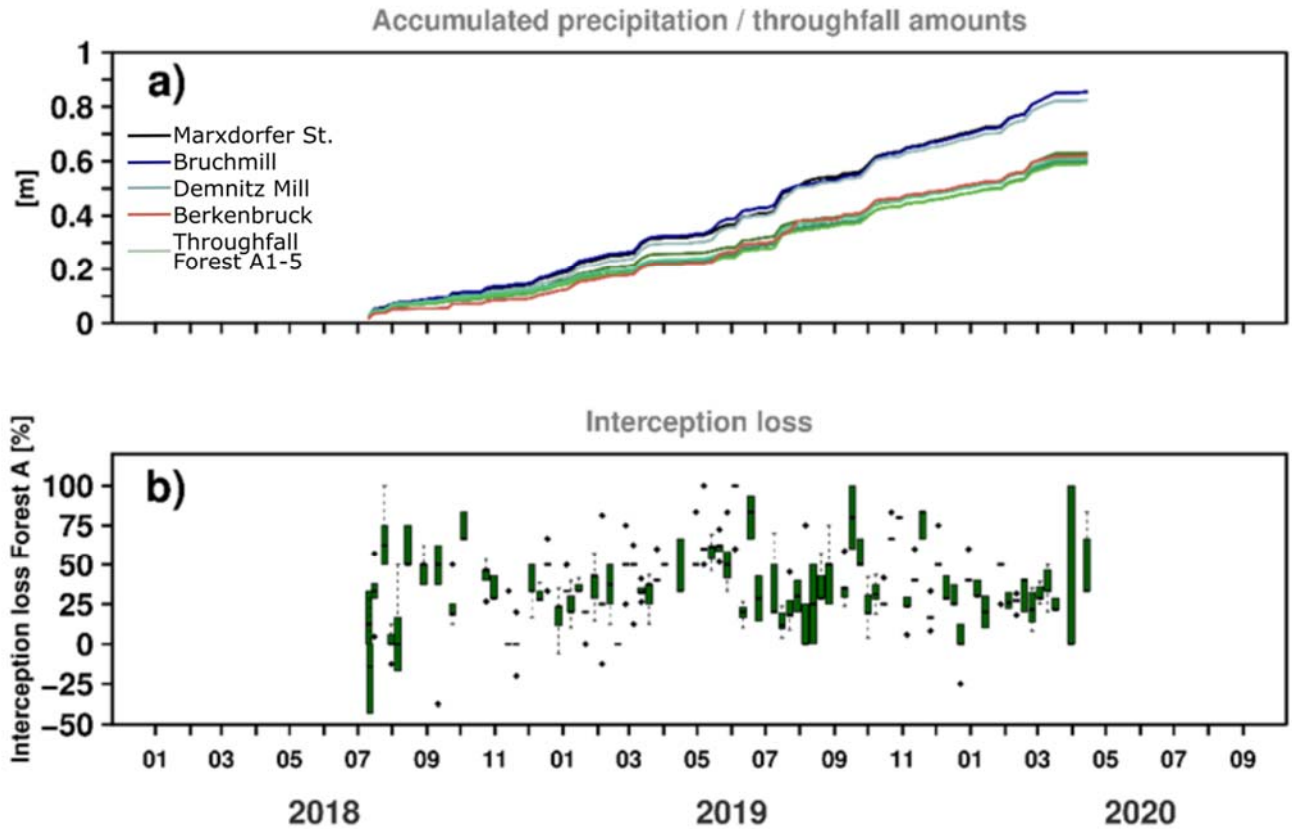
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**Figure 2: Measurement period for each parameter at each site and temporal resolution (colour code) of the measurements within the Demnitzer Millcreek Catchment including meteorological, soil, vegetation, stream, and groundwater hydrological and isotope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

255 **4. Precipitation and throughfall data**

256

257 Monitoring for precipitation commenced in the 2018 summer drought when low rainfall inputs  
258 continued through the following winter (Figure 3a). Large rainfall events (>20 mm/d) were  
259 relatively rare and mostly summer convective storms. Even by summer 2020, most months had  
260 below average rainfall. Throughfall at the Forest A site typically was 70-90 % of incident rainfall,  
261 with higher interception losses in low intensity summer storms and lowest in winter or high  
262 intensity summer storms. Heterogeneity in throughfall was marked (Figure 3b), emphasizing the  
263 importance of the forest canopy in redistributing net rainfall to the forest floor.

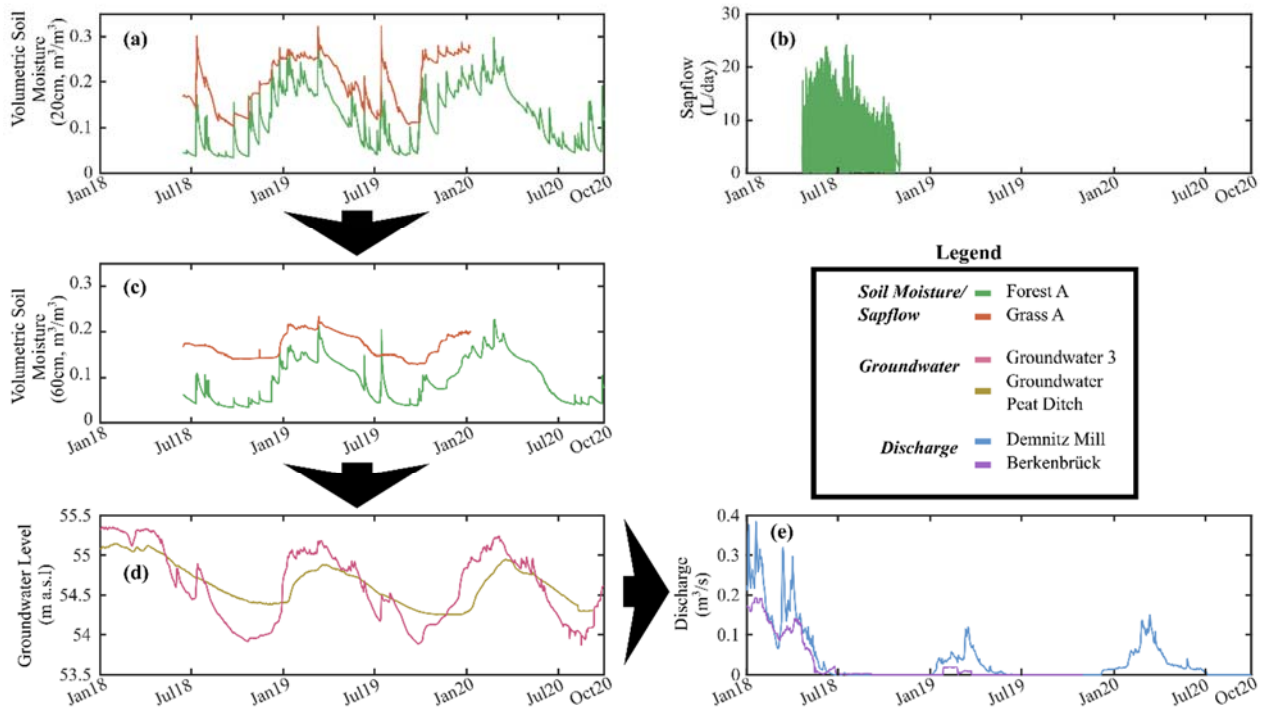


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265 **Figure 3: (a) Cumulative precipitation and throughfall at multiple locations throughout**  
266 **the catchment. Throughfall was collected weekly at Forest A with (b) five samplers (1-5)**  
267 **distributed throughout the 10m square fenced region. Precipitation at Bruchmill (nearby)**  
268 **was used as to calculate weekly interception loss.**

269 **5. Catchment hydrological data**

270 Rainfall fluxes mostly drove short term soil moisture variations (Figure 4a, c); which were more  
271 responsive in the upper soil layers (at 20 cm) than deeper layers. There was higher variability in  
272 volumetric soil moisture under forested land cover, where soils are sandier, more structured and  
273 effective rainfall is lower due to interception losses. Seasonality in evapotranspiration (usefully  
274 indexed by sapflow in Figure 4b) modulated the effects of rainfall on soil moisture storage.  
275 Seasonal soil moisture dynamics also governed groundwater recharge and variation in  
276 groundwater levels, which had an annual range of ~1.5 m at well G3 and ~1m at the peat ditch  
277 well (Figure 4d). Despite clear winter recharge and spring drawdown in each well, peak winter  
278 and summer levels were lower in 2019 and still in 2020 despite a slight recovery compared to  
279 2018 indicating the cumulative “memory effects” of the drought. This was also evident in the  
280 stream hydrograph with very low discharge peaks in 2019 and 2020, which also had prolonged  
281 periods where flow ceased in the summer, particularly at Berkenbrück. Thus, winter soil moisture  
282 replenishment was insufficient to match long-term groundwater recharge. These different  
283 correlations underline the added value of simultaneous data from long-term study sites on  
284 transpiration, soil water, groundwater and stream flow as droughts develop (Smith et al., 2022).  
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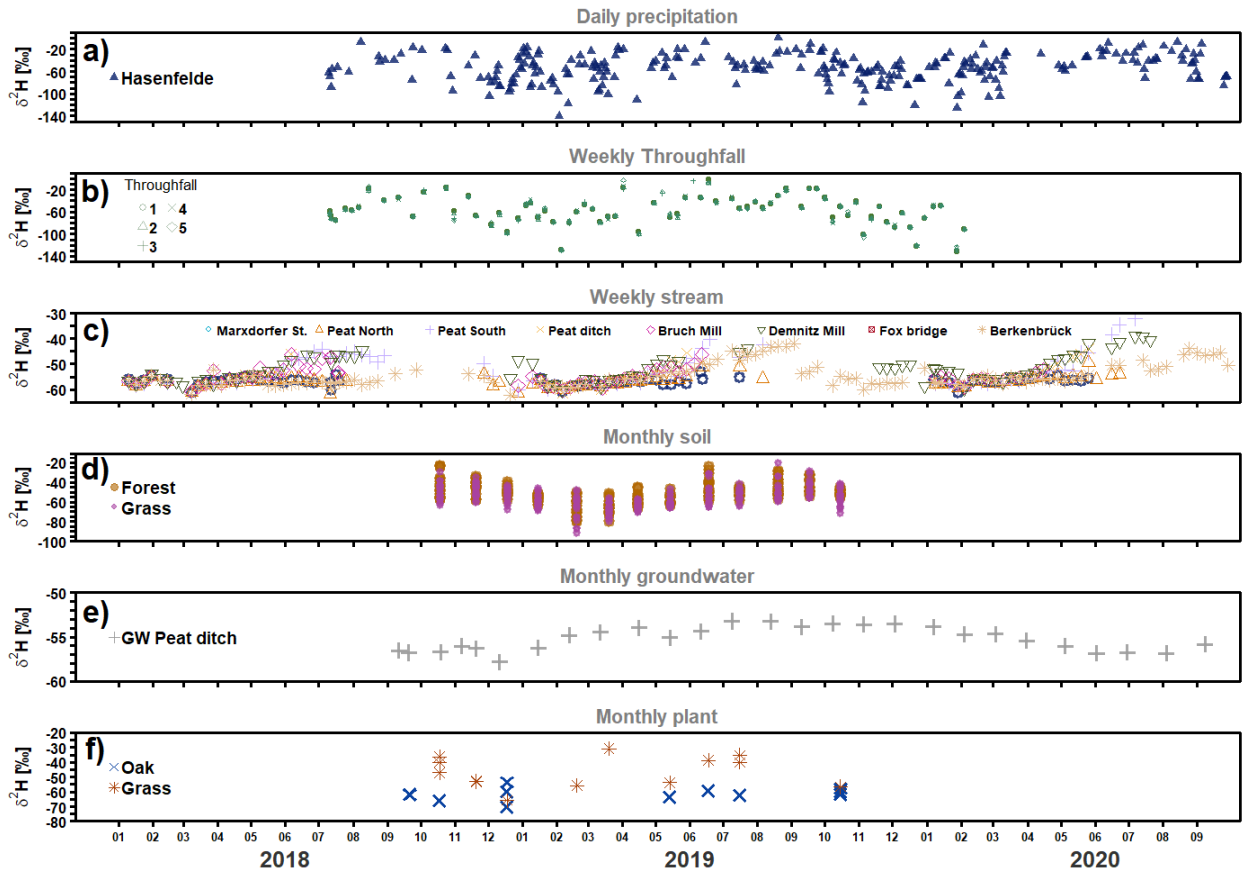
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288 **Figure 4: (a) Shallow soil moisture, (b) sapflow, (c) deep soil moisture, (d) groundwater**  
289 **levels and (e) discharge within the Demnitzer Millcreek catchment. Arrows show**  
290 **connections between layers and fluxes. \*Groundwater 3 is within the wetland and**  
291 **Groundwater Peat Ditch is outside the wetland (near Forest A and Grass A, Fig. 1).**

292 **6. Stable water isotopes**

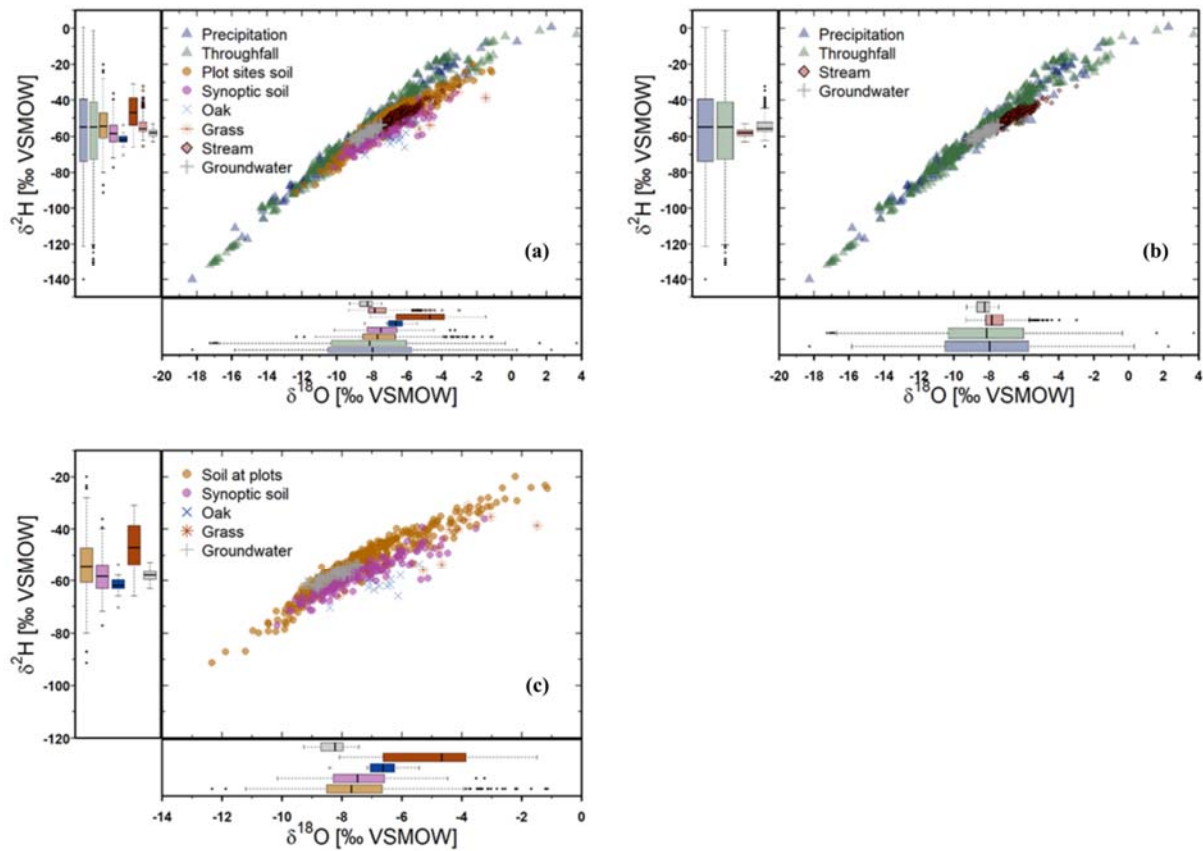
293 Stable water isotope signatures in precipitation showed high day-to-day variability superimposed  
294 on strong seasonality; with more depleted values in winter and more enriched values in summer  
295 (Fig 5a). Interestingly, weekly throughfall signatures were very similar to the (weekly and daily)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

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**Figure 5: Time series of deuterium ( $\delta^2\text{H}$ ) in (a) precipitation, (b) throughfall (Forest A), (c) stream water, (d) soil water, (e) groundwater and (f) plant samples at various locations in the catchment.**



316  
 317 **Figure 6: Dual isotope space ( $\delta^2\text{H}-\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) plots for (a) all measured isotopic datasets, (b)**  
 318 **precipitation, throughfall, stream, and groundwater, and (c) soil (multiple depths),**  
 319 **synoptic soil survey (upper 30cm), vegetation, and groundwater.**

320  
 321 Differences in the isotope dynamics of different critical zone compartments are shown in dual  
 322 isotope space in Figure 6a. The damping of precipitation in groundwater and streamflow is  
 323 apparent, as is the fractionation of more enriched summer stream flow samples (Figure 6b). The  
 324 role of the soil in partitioning water is apparent from the overlap between deeper soil horizons and  
 325 groundwater which were both more weighted to winter precipitation – when recharge is greatest  
 326 (Fig 6c). Xylem water in oaks and grass tended to show the effects of fractionation, which was  
 327 most marked in the oaks and may point to different soil water sources of root uptake.



328 **7. Data availability**

329 All data presented in this paper are available from the IGB open data repository FRED with  
330 detailed metadata (<https://doi.org/10.18728/igb-fred-813.1>; Tetzlaff et al., 2023 ) and contact  
331 information for any further questions. There is a readme section per each dataset. We also  
332 included a digital elevation model, shapefile of the catchment boundary and the station locations.  
333

334 **8. Summary**

335 The integrated data set presented in this paper is unique because: (1) it captures complicated  
336 ecohydrological dynamics over two years during an exceptional drought (in 2018/2019) in Central  
337 Europe; (2) the different compartments of the critical zone were monitored through stable water  
338 isotope data and complimentary ecohydrological data for contrasting land use and (3) multi-scale,  
339 nested catchment time series were derived. In total data from 49 time series / data sets are  
340 available. The data are quality controlled. We included meteorological data and precipitation and  
341 throughfall amount. Catchment response data include stream discharge at the catchment outlet  
342 and another nested site, and stream level data at two further sites; soil moisture from multiple  
343 depths at two locations (two different landuses), groundwater level data at five locations and  
344 sapflow measurements from one forest location. Stable water isotope data include precipitation  
345 water, throughfall, streamwater at eight sites, soil water isotopes from two sites plus spatially  
346 distributed samples of upper soils, vegetation samples at two locations and groundwater at six  
347 locations. Data continue to be collected and updated data sets will be published based on  
348 available resources.

349 As such, these data provide an excellent, integrated ecohydrological perspective on the drought  
350 response of a lowland agricultural landscape. Such data are of course important in their own right,  
351 but are equally invaluable for challenging environmental models as constraints on internal model  
352 function that can be used to increase confidence in the use of models in projecting the impacts of  
353 future change. Integrated data like the ones summarised here are also important for a range of  
354 scientific questions that are growing in importance as the effects of climate change become more  
355 apparent. These include understanding how do droughts develop and propagate through  
356 components of hydrological systems and compartments of the critical zone? What are the effects  
357 of land cover on this propagation and how does it affect water cycling in vegetation? How long  
358 does recovery of different system components take once rainfall anomalies become positive?  
359 How resilient are different critical zone compartments or entire landscapes against climate  
360 extremes such as droughts? Hopefully, this data set will be used by scientists to increase  
361 understanding on critical issues such as what are the water footprints of alternative land uses and  
362 how can these be reduced whilst maintaining societal needs. This will help to contribute to the  
363 development of more sustainable and resilient land and water management policies that will be  
364 needed in the face of increased longevity and frequency of droughts.  
365

366 **Author contributions:** AS and LK prepared the data sets. Datasets were collected by LK and  
367 JF. Isotope data were analysed by DD. DT, CS, AS prepared the manuscript with contributions  
368 from all co-authors.

369

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

371

372 **Disclaimer:** any reference to specific equipment types or manufacturers is for informational  
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374

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382

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