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Irrigation Demand for Urban Street Trees

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# Supporting Decision-makers in Estimating Irrigation Demand for Urban Street Trees

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## Abstract

Greening cities is of considerable significance to creating sustainable cities. Cost-benefit analyses have shown that urban green is not only ecologically and socially desirable but also economically advantageous. However, maintaining this urban green is becoming challenging due to changing climatic conditions. With frequent heat-waves, droughts and increasing water scarcity in many regions, it is crucial to establish systematic approaches to economise the available water used for irrigation. Currently, cities rely on rough approximations to assess irrigation demand. To address this gap, a linear time series model was developed based on soil water balance and Water Use Classifications of Landscape Species approach. The model uses publicly available data regarding trees, soil, and current and forecasted weather to estimate the irrigation demand of urban street trees on a weekly time scale. The developed model is applied in a case study of a metropolis in a moderate continental climate. The results show more distributed irrigation demand than the currently implemented soil moisture based model of the case study city. Accordingly, the model can support the decision-makers to not only assess the irrigation demand of existing trees but also help in water budgeting of new plantation under varying climatic conditions.

*Keywords:* Urban green, irrigation water demand, water budgeting, linear time series, green space management, sustainable cities

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## 1. Introduction

2 The World Health Organization (WHO) defines urban green spaces (UGS)  
3 as “all urban land covered by vegetation of any kind” [1]. This includes trees  
4 along streets, parks, play grounds, private gardens, urban forests, green roofs  
5 or walls, and farms within city boundaries. Access to sufficient UGS provides  
6 exposure to nature and enhances the quality of living in cities, as acknowl-  
7 edged by the United Nations’ Sustainable Development Goals Target 11.7,

8 which aims to provide access to safe green spaces for everyone living in cities  
9 by 2030 [2].

10 In response, city administrators have formulated goals for the conserva-  
11 tion and development of new UGS. However, increasing green spaces also  
12 introduces competing interests with the use of scarce water resources and  
13 limited budgets to maintain them. While UGS contribute positively to wa-  
14 ter storage through reduced runoff and increased infiltration, supplementary  
15 irrigation needs are likely to increase the pressure on limited water resources  
16 in cities. Practitioners have often cited the availability of water supply as  
17 one of the significant challenges in maintaining urban trees [3]. The problem  
18 is expected to further exacerbate due to more frequent and extended drier  
19 periods with increasing effects of climate change. For example, in summer  
20 2022 some districts in California had to declare a water emergency state,  
21 allowing outer watering only once a week [4]. Similarly, some regions in  
22 northern Italy, Portugal, and Spain also announced emergency measures and  
23 requested their residents to economise their water usage [5, 6]. Mandatory  
24 water restrictions targeting the irrigation of both public and private open  
25 spaces are also frequently observed in Canberra, Sydney, and Melbourne in  
26 Australia [7].

27 The type of tree species and local micro-climatic conditions are the factors  
28 that can significantly affect irrigation demand. This stipulates the need to  
29 optimise the watering supply to the UGS such that, water is solely supplied  
30 when and where it is actually required and in a judicious quantity. However,  
31 the current practice of watering through tankers or watering bags lacks the  
32 flexibility to consider these factors. Nevertheless, these parameters have been  
33 included in this study, expecting the implementation of smart drip irrigation  
34 or water network systems in future. Thus, by optimising the operational  
35 management of an irrigation system for UGS, cities can simultaneously meet  
36 the objectives of the EU Strategy on Adaptation to Climate Change as well  
37 as the EU Water Framework Directive, which aims to prepare cities for the  
38 challenges associated with climate change such as urban heat island and  
39 droughts [8, 9].

40 However, predicting the dynamic water demand of trees is an arduous  
41 task. Water consumption by trees can be divided into two categories: The  
42 *blue* water from irrigation or groundwater, and the *green* water from rainwa-  
43 ter. Accordingly, the focus of this study is to estimate the required quantity  
44 of blue water to be supplied externally for managing UGS in optimal condi-  
45 tions, after accounting for the green water available through the rain. Most

46 of the existing irrigation scheduling models are developed for the agricultural  
47 sector because of the higher economic implications [10, 11, 12]. These are  
48 further discussed in subsection 1.1. However, distinct conditions in cities,  
49 such as local micro-climatic conditions, sealed and compacted soil, shading,  
50 and anthropogenic disturbances, make the irrigation models developed for  
51 rural conditions inapplicable for urban areas [13]. Existing models for ur-  
52 ban conditions, such as [14, 15, 16], are limited in estimating the irrigation  
53 demand at a single tree or park level. Additionally, in some studies the esti-  
54 mates are generated at monthly or annual time scales, which is not enough  
55 for operational irrigation management [17, 18].

56 This demands further research on estimating irrigation demand for UGS.  
57 As described earlier, UGS includes a variety of green spaces, however, the  
58 scope of this research is focused on estimating the irrigation needs of ur-  
59 ban street trees. Moreover, since for street trees weekly watering by tankers  
60 is the commonly applied method, the current study adopts a weekly time  
61 scale for the estimation to support practical usage. Unlike existing models  
62 that focus on a smaller spatial scale, this work is focused on city level and  
63 therefore, includes trees from a variety of species. Furthermore, with the  
64 increasing availability of data under open data initiatives of various cities,  
65 our approach particularly uses available public datasets without relying on  
66 sensors or remote sensing data, which might not be accessible to every mun-  
67 icipality. Accordingly, this study aims to address the following two research  
68 questions:

- 69 • Can the irrigation demand of street trees be determined on a weekly  
70 time scale using available public datasets?
- 71 • Can the future water demand for new street tree plantations be assessed  
72 under varying climatic conditions?

73 Accordingly, the scope of the research includes (1) identifying a suitable  
74 approach for estimating irrigation demand in urban context; (2) considering  
75 the necessary adaptations required for applying it at street tree level; (3)  
76 identifying the relevant public datasets and assimilation procedures to obtain  
77 the required model parameters; (4) comparing the model performance with  
78 the existing models; and (5) evaluating the change in irrigation demand under  
79 varied scenario conditions.

80 The research approach is based on identifying the suitable method for  
81 irrigation demand estimation based on the comprehensiveness, adaptability,

82 and feasibility of the method. Accordingly, the proposed model is an imple-  
83 mentation of the water-balance model wherein the individual parameters are  
84 derived from different published datasets or values reported in the literature.  
85 This model is further compared with an existing Plant Factors (PF) based  
86 method used for irrigating urban landscapes as well as the model currently  
87 adopted by the city chosen in our case study. In summary, the research aims  
88 for two outcomes: First, a model that estimates weekly irrigation demand for  
89 street trees that is easily adaptable for changes in input parameters depend-  
90 ing on the availability of data, that uses nominal quantity of data without  
91 requiring special field measurements, that takes into account current and  
92 forecasted weather data, and that is applicable under varying climatic condi-  
93 tions. The second outcome includes insights for city administrators to make  
94 informed decisions regarding water budgeting of existing and new plantations  
95 of street trees.

96 The paper is organised as follows: first, a literature review describes the  
97 state-of-the-art irrigation models for agricultural and urban applications and  
98 the research gap. Based on this, a water balance model is selected as the  
99 basis and its parameters are detailed in the background section, followed by  
100 the modeling approach section discussing its implementation in a python-  
101 based model. In the case-study section, the results from applying the model  
102 to data from Berlin city are discussed. The final two sections present the  
103 discussion and conclusions.

104

#### 105 **List of abbreviations**

106 UGS Urban Green Spaces  
107 WUCOLS Water Use Classifications of Landscape Species  
108 SLIDE Simplified Landscape Irrigation Demand Estimation

109

#### 110 **List of Symbols**

111 CR capillary rise	117 PF plant factor
112 D Deep percolation	118 r root depth
113 ET evapotranspiration	119 RAW readily available water
114 $ET_0$ reference evapotranspiration	120 RO runoff
115 I irrigation	121 $\Delta S$ soil moisture change
116 P precipitation	122 TAW total available water

123 *1.1. Models for agricultural areas*

124 Different studies have presented irrigation scheduling approaches for the  
125 agricultural sector [19, 20]. In addition, the Food and Agriculture Organiza-  
126 tion of the United Nations (FAO) also offers two models based on soil water  
127 balance approach: CropWat and AquaCrop. CropWat provides an irriga-  
128 tion schedule for crops using daily or monthly, weather, crop and soil data  
129 [21]. Similarly, AquaCrop model was developed for single, and uniform crop  
130 fields applications [22]. Delgoda et al. [23] used the AquaCrop model to test  
131 an irrigation control model that estimates root zone soil moisture deficits  
132 to determine irrigation demand. However, the approach was tested only for  
133 crops and not for urban environments. The authors also presented an ap-  
134 proach based on model predictive control that aims to achieve the desired  
135 soil moisture level while considering limitations on available water [24].

136 The limitation of the aforementioned irrigation scheduling models is their  
137 total focus on crops and crop yield, which also applies to the respective sub-  
138 models. Hence, it is difficult to directly apply them to the urban vegetation  
139 with its peculiar characteristics. In addition, literature regarding the nec-  
140 essary adjustments required for applying these models to UGS is missing.  
141 Other shortcomings of the presented models include the missing dynamics of  
142 parameters D and RO in the model of Delgoda et al. [23], and the granularity  
143 of data in the FAO models that uses average monthly climatic data.

144 *1.2. Models for urban areas*

145 UGS is quite diverse in its configuration compared to agricultural fields. It  
146 is planted in various species combinations, with spatial distributions and den-  
147 sities that are in high contrast to organised, uniform crop lines on a field [13].  
148 Especially for street trees, the micro-climate effects due to nearby buildings,  
149 road and other sealed surfaces, as well as compacted and restricted tree  
150 trenches, significantly affects their water demand [25]. In addition, UGS is  
151 also highly influenced by human activities such as construction works causing  
152 root damage or soil compaction, pollutant emission from traffic or heating,  
153 or urine and salt contamination [26]. Therefore, the stress factor for urban  
154 trees is usually high and leads to a lower survival rate than in rural areas  
155 [27, 18]. Besides, it is also more challenging to gather field data in the urban  
156 environment due to large variations within a city. When focusing on one  
157 particular crop field, it is relatively easy to deploy low-cost sensor networks  
158 or measuring devices such as lysimeters for direct measurements. However,  
159 cities would require the installation and calibration of large numbers of such



160 measuring devices. Thus, verifying the quality of irrigation models for UGS  
161 is more complicated than for the agricultural sector. Hence, for most of the  
162 models discussed in this section for UGS, there exist no substantial perfor-  
163 mance evaluations.

164 Until now, most research on UGS irrigation needs has relied on the soil  
165 water balance or remote sensing approach [13, 28]. The majority of existing  
166 research focuses on either residential irrigation demand [29, 30], urban vege-  
167 tation evapotranspiration (ET) [31, 20], or turf grass water demand [32, 33]  
168 with a goal of reducing demand. Vico et al. [14] present a method for deter-  
169 mining and reducing the daily irrigation demand of isolated street trees using  
170 soil, plant, and climate data. The authors propose a probabilistic model that  
171 takes into account the species, tree size, tree trench design, rainfall patterns,  
172 and irrigation systems used. They limit their model to circular tree trenches  
173 and ignore the possibility of capillary rise (CR).

174 This model was further enhanced by Revelli and Porporato [34] by fur-  
175 ther quantifying nutrients retention in soil. On a greater spatial scale, Volo  
176 et al. [15] investigate the irrigation demand and optimal irrigation schedule  
177 for mesic conditions and xeric conditions in Phoenix, USA. They provide rec-  
178 ommendations for optimal daily irrigation scheduling based on the targeted  
179 level of plant stress after calibrating the model with soil moisture data from  
180 two sensors and past meteorological information. Because their model is lim-  
181 ited to two types of neighborhoods and is based on sensor data, it cannot be  
182 easily adapted to more diverse districts or entire city areas. Orusa et al. [35]  
183 calculated ET values using a remote sensing dataset from MODIS to derive  
184 ET values, but at a coarse spatial resolution of 500m.

185 The Simplified Landscape Irrigation Demand Estimation (SLIDE) pro-  
186 vides an estimation method for the irrigation requirement of urban land-  
187 scapes [36]. Based on adjusted literature values, it defines a plant factor  
188 (PF) for five different combinations of UGS type (turf/woody/desert) and  
189 climate (cool/warm/dry/humid). To calculate the water demand, the PF  
190 value is multiplied with reference ET ( $ET_0$ ) and transpiring leaf/landscape  
191 area. Hereby, the authors assert that in a mixed zone, the water demand  
192 should be coordinated with the plant type yielding the highest PF. However,  
193 SLIDE does not consider precipitation events or soil properties, therefore it  
194 is only suitable to determine the ET of UGS but not the irrigation demand.

195 Finally, some cities offer examples for estimating the irrigation demand  
196 for street trees. For example, the Department for Plant Protection in Berlin  
197 estimates the need for irrigation based on the available soil moisture calcu-

198 lated for one tree species (*Tilia cordata*) located on the street Tempelhofer  
199 Weg in Berlin-Neukölln [37]. The soil moisture is defined relative to the to-  
200 tal available water (TAW), and is categorised in a colour coded system, with  
201 green indicating above 50% moisture, yellow indicating below 50%, and red  
202 indicating below 30%. Whenever moisture reaches the red zone on the chart,  
203 the department recommends applying irrigation to all the street trees. On  
204 one side, this approach is easy to understand, includes current and predicted  
205 weather data, and also includes an irrigation forecast for the following week.  
206 But on the other side, the calculations are only valid for a single tree at  
207 one location, and are extended to the entire city without any adaptations.  
208 Moreover, while the method provides information about irrigation timing, it  
209 does not give any details on how much water quantity should be irrigated for  
210 different species. In South Australia, the water provider SA Water collabo-  
211 rated with the local councils to improve the irrigation of the public parks [38].  
212 However, their approach requires the installation of numerous sensors which  
213 might not be feasible for all the municipalities. Moreover, since the algorithm  
214 to generate irrigation schedule is proprietary it is not available for scientific  
215 review.

216 Table 1 presents a comparative analysis made between the aforementioned  
217 approaches based on the estimation method, scope of application, spatial and  
218 temporal scale, and the input data. Most of these methods cover limited spa-  
219 tial scale such as grass, parks or single trees. Few of the studies are based  
220 on the soil moisture approach in which irrigation demand gets concentrated  
221 during summer months, increasing the water scarcity risk. In some stud-  
222 ies, methodology is data intensive requiring extensive field measurements or  
223 deployment of large number of sensors.

224 The review indicates a lack of ET-based models for estimating the irriga-  
225 tion demand for urban street trees at daily or weekly time scale using public  
226 datasets. Nouri et al. [13] reviewed various techniques available to determine  
227 the ET demand for urban landscapes including lysimeter, Sap flow, WU-  
228 COLS, Eddy covariance, and remote sensing, and concluded that WUCOLS  
229 is the most suitable approach to implement for practical applications. Since  
230 other studies on urban landscapes also came to the same conclusion, this  
231 method was also used for this study [39].

232 The existing literature covers the irrigation models for crops and agri-  
233 cultural land extensively but it has only been implemented for limited cases  
234 for UGS so far. So, the proposed model of this paper aims to fill the gap  
235 and to be practically implementable by the cities for estimating the weekly

236 irrigation demand using the available open datasets. The proposed method-  
237 ology extends the current literature by suggesting the necessary adaptations  
238 required for implementing the water balance approach on the street trees on  
239 city level. Moreover, the methodology accounts for the tree's ET demand,  
240 incoming water from rainfall, and available water in the soil.

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Table 1: Comparative analysis of available irrigation models and approaches.

Study	Year	ET measurement	Soil moisture change	Agriculture	Urban	Tree	Park	City	Daily/Weekly	Monthly/Annual	Field measurements	Remote Sensing	Other Public datasets	Rainfall
Gober et al.	2010			✓			✓			✓		✓		✓
Contreras et al.	2011		✓	✓		✓			✓	✓			✓	✓
Vico et al.	2014		✓	✓			✓		✓				✓	✓
Volo et al. (a)	2014			✓					✓					
Delgoda et al.	2016	✓		✓			✓		✓		✓		✓	
Kjelgren et al.	2016	✓		✓			✓		✓				✓	
(SLIDE)														
Shi et al.	2017			✓			✓		✓				✓	✓
Adeyemi et al.	2018		✓	✓			✓		✓				✓	
Revelli & Porporato	2018		✓	✓			✓		✓				✓	
Nouri et al.	2019	✓		✓			✓		✓				✓	
Reyes-Paecke et al.	2019			✓			✓		✓				✓	
Khan et al.	2020			✓					✓				✓	✓
Henrich et al.	2021	✓		✓					✓				✓	✓
Wessolek & Kluge	2021	✓		✓					✓				✓	✓
Berlin City	2021			✓					✓				✓	✓
AquaCrop, FAO		✓		✓					✓				✓	
CropWat, FAO		✓		✓					✓				✓	
Karlsruhe City		-							-					-
SA Water		?	?	✓			✓		✓					✓
Time Series Model		✓		✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓

## 241 2. Background

242 Overall, the aim of efficient irrigation systems is to deliver the minimum  
243 amount of water that is required to ensure the survival, functioning and  
244 aesthetically pleasing appearance of the UGS. A large number of existing  
245 models are based on the soil water balance approach (see Equation 1). The  
246 approach is based on a closed water cycle system, where at any moment the  
247 outflow should be equal to the inflow.

The inflow consists of the sum of precipitation (P), irrigation (I) and capillary rise (CR). The outflow is composed of Evapotranspiration (ET), Runoff (RO), drainage or deep percolation (D), and change in soil moisture ( $\Delta S$ ). As any errors in measuring or estimating the individual parameter values add up to the cumulative error, the soil water balance approach is generally less accurate than direct measurements. However, it is still useful for practical applications as direct measurements are quite expensive and, hence, generally lacking.

$$P + I + CR = ET + RO + D + \Delta S \quad (1)$$

248 In the subsequent paragraphs, an approach for determining individual pa-  
249 rameters of soil water balance (see Equation 1) followed by the steps to  
250 design a computational model are presented.

### 251 2.1. Estimating Evapotranspiration (ET)

252 One of the critical parameters that highly influences the irrigation demand  
253 is ET. ET depends on vegetation characteristics such as species type, canopy  
254 size, age, root type, and micro-climatic conditions. For canopy size, usually  
255 the bigger the canopy size, the higher is the ET and the water demand. This  
256 is due to a greater number of leaves leading to higher water demand for  
257 photosynthesis as well as higher loss of water through stomata. However, in  
258 case of age, usually, the demand for external irrigation reduces as the tree  
259 matures. This is because of the development of root systems that makes the  
260 tree self-reliant. Depending on the depth and spread of the root system, a  
261 tree can access the available water in the soil layers and groundwater. Lastly,  
262 climatic conditions like temperature, humidity, wind, precipitation, and solar  
263 radiation will affect the ET demand of the trees. This is further influenced by  
264 local anthropogenic conditions such as presence of buildings and roads nearby  
265 that can either directly influence through shading or indirectly by altering

266 the micro-climate. Hence, the location and immediate neighbourhood of the  
267 UGS are of considerable importance while calculating the ET.

268 For the purpose of this study, the Penman-Monteith equation is used  
269 to theoretically estimate the potential ET, based on hydrometeorological  
270 parameters [40], since we assume no sensor data from the field. This method  
271 is also a recommended approach by the FAO for ET estimation. However,  
272 the derived potential ET is based on grass of uniform height, and therefore,  
273 it requires adaption for street trees. The WUCOLS approach estimates the  
274 water requirements of UGS to meet acceptable aesthetic expectations, health  
275 and reasonable growth for all available tree species [41]. As this provides the  
276 desired quantity for irrigation, it is best suited for scarce water resource  
277 conditions.

278 The WUCOLS method uses a landscape vegetation coefficient  $K_L$  to ac-  
279 count for the landscape characteristics as shown in Equation 2 [42].  $K_L$  itself  
280 is composed of a species factor ( $K_s$ ), a density factor for UGS ( $K_d$ ), and  
281 a microclimate factor ( $K_{mc}$ ), as shown in Equation 3. The values of these  
282 coefficients are chosen according to the categories shown in Table 2 based  
283 on prevailing conditions. WUCOLS also provides an extensive database that  
284 categorises the tree water demand into high, medium, low, and very low ac-  
285 cording to species type and the climatic region. The database includes 778  
286 types of tree species and covers six different climatic regions of the State of  
287 California [43].

$$ET_L = K_L \times ET_0 \quad (2)$$

$$K_L = K_s \times K_d \times K_{mc} \quad (3)$$

## 288 2.2. Estimating Effective Precipitation ( $P_{eff}$ )

To improve the accuracy of the irrigation demand estimation and to avoid over-watering the trees during a rain event, it is essential to account for the actual and expected precipitation during the time period. Precipitation data is often available through weather departments at the state or national level. In Germany, for example, the German Weather Service (DWD) operates weather stations throughout the country and provides weather and climate data, including the precipitation at daily time scale. However, for the purpose of irrigation, it needs to be converted into effective precipitation ( $P_{eff}$ ).  $P_{eff}$

Table 2: Coefficients for WUCOLS approach (Costello et al.)

Coefficient	Categories	Value	Group
Species Factor ( $K_s$ )	Very low	<10 % of $ET_0$	Based on species type such as bamboo, bulb, grass, ground-cover, perennial, palm and cycad, shrub, succulent, tree, vine, natives
	Low	10-30 % of $ET_0$	
	Medium	40-60 % of $ET_0$	
	High	70-90 % of $ET_0$	
Density factor ( $K_d$ )	Low	0.5 - 0.9	Immature and sparsely populated vegetation
	Average	1	Single vegetation type
	High	1.1 - 1.3	Mixed vegetation with trees, shrubs, and ground cover
Microclimate factor ( $K_{mc}$ )	Low	0.5 -0.9	Vegetation under building overhangs or shade
	Average	1	Open area and not influenced by urban features
	High	1.1 - 1.4	In the vicinity of buildings or sealed area

is defined as the fraction of the rainwater that is not intercepted by vegetation. The fraction is represented as the interception coefficient ( $c_{inc}$ ). Rainfall (amount, intensity, direction, consecutive rain days) and other meteorological conditions such as wind speed and direction all have an impact on interception [44]. However, there is no standard approach available for its depiction, and hence, it requires field experiments for its adjustment. As field experiments involve high personnel and equipment costs, they might not be feasible for smaller cities. Therefore, for this study,  $P_{eff}$  is determined according to Equation 4. Because  $c_{inc}$  varies depending on the species, literature values are required for implementation [45, 46, 47].

$$P_{eff} = (1 - c_{inc}) \times P \quad (4)$$

289

where,  $c_{inc}$  is the interception coefficient.

290 *2.3. Estimating Capillary Rise (CR)*

291 Capillary Rise (CR) describes the water made available to vegetation by  
 292 the movement of groundwater from the groundwater table into the root zone.

293 It depends on the groundwater table, the type of soil, and its characteristics.  
 294 However, as the ET derived with the WUCOLS approach is only suitable in  
 295 situations without CR as a water source, for this study it is assumed that  
 296 there is no CR in the root zone. This is possible when the groundwater  
 297 table is low enough to disable CR. Previous studies by Delgoda et al. [24],  
 298 Revelli and Porporato [34], and Vico et al. [14] used the same reasoning.  
 299 This assumption should be reasonable in the context of street trees, as the  
 300 compact tree trench and highly dense soil in cities would restrict the growth  
 301 of the root system, making them unable to access the groundwater.

#### 302 2.4. Estimating Runoff (RO)

The accurate way of determining the Runoff (RO) would be by conducting field experiments. However, in the absence of field data, RO can be indirectly calculated through the infiltration rate. The RO is then defined as the remaining water from  $P_{\text{eff}}$  after the infiltration ( $P_{\text{inf}}$ ) has taken place. The maximum amount of water that can enter a particular soil in a time unit is represented using the infiltration rate ( $c_{\text{inf}}$ ). The intensity of  $P_{\text{eff}}$  is determined as  $P_{\text{eff}}/h$ , where  $h$  describes the duration of the precipitation event in hours. As shown in Equation 5, RO will occur whenever the intensity of  $P_{\text{eff}}$  exceeds the  $c_{\text{inf}}$  of the soil. The infiltration rates for different types of soil are available in published literature. The Minnesota Stormwater Manual, for example, specifies infiltration rates for gravel to clay [48]. Depending on the soil type of the region, a suitable rate can be used. Additionally, the manual recommends using a reduced rate by one level in the case of compacted soils in urban areas.

$$RO = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } c_{\text{inf}} \geq P_{\text{eff}}/h \\ P_{\text{eff}} - (c_{\text{inf}} \times h) & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

303 where,  $h$ = duration of precipitation event (hours)

#### 304 2.5. Estimating Drainage (D) and the Soil Moisture Change ( $\Delta S$ )

Drainage refers to the quantity of water that directly percolates below the root zone and, hence, is unavailable for the trees to use. It depends on soil characteristics, rainfall intensity and duration, and the distribution of roots. Accordingly, this parameter can be calculated as the difference between the amount of infiltrated water and the water holding capacity of the soil, as shown in Equation 6. To calculate this, first, total available



water (TAW) is calculated as the difference between field capacity and the wilting point of the soil [49]. The FAO provides a range of TAW values for undisturbed soil types [50]. However, with vegetation, TAW will increase as root systems hold more water in the root zone. The Department of Primary Industries and Regional Development of the Western Australian government provides information about TAW for different soils [51]. The root depth for this system is defined as 0.5m (broad), 1m (oblique), 2m (deep) [52]. After the determination of TAW, the effective root depth is multiplied with the TAW value, resulting in readily available water (RAW) (see Equation 7). A coefficient  $c_s$  is defined as the portion of the infiltrated water available for trees. If  $P_{\text{inf}}$  is higher,  $c_s$  equals  $\text{RAW}/P_{\text{inf}}$  because, after drainage, only RAW will be available for the tree. Second, if both values are equal or if  $P_{\text{inf}}$  is smaller than RAW, there will be no deep percolation and  $c_s$  will be one.

$$D = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } P_{\text{inf}} \leq TAW \\ P_{\text{inf}} - TAW & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

$$RAW = r \cdot TAW \quad (7)$$

where,  $r$  = root zone depth (m)

$$RAW = \begin{cases} c_s \cdot P_{\text{inf}} & \text{if } P_{\text{inf}} \geq RAW \\ P_{\text{inf}} & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

### 305 **3. Modeling approach**

#### 306 *3.1. Time-series model*

307 Based on the theoretical approach described in the previous section, a  
 308 novel time series model for estimating the weekly irrigation demand of urban  
 309 street trees is developed as given in Equation 9. It calculates the water avail-  
 310 able for the tree uptake as a portion of infiltrated precipitation remaining  
 311 after canopy interception, drainage, and runoff. Table 3 describes the list  
 312 of parameters used in the model along with the respective data source used  
 313 for the subsequent case study (see section 4). The interaction between the  
 314 parameters is illustrated for a single tree in Figure 1. The Equation 10 cal-  
 315 culates the total  $\text{ET}_L$  demand for all the tree species, as explained in subsec-  
 316 tion 2.1. In the Equation 11, water reaching the soil surface is determined by

317 reducing the water lost through interception, as explained in subsection 2.2.  
 318 The Equation 12 is used to compute the amount of water that penetrates  
 319 into the soil, depending on whether the rainfall intensity is lower than  $c_{\text{inf}}$  as  
 320 explained in subsection 2.4. Lastly, Equation 13 and Equation 14 calculate  
 321 the portion of the infiltrated water that is available to the tree depending on  
 322 the soil type and root depth, as explained in subsection 2.5.

$$I_t = \sum ET_{L,t} - ET_{L,t-1} + I_{t-1} + (c_{s,t} \cdot P_{\text{inf},t}) - (c_{s,t+1} \cdot P_{\text{inf},t+1}) \quad (9)$$

such that,

$$ET_{L,t} = \sum_{s \in S} (K_{L,s} \cdot ET_{0,t}) \quad (10)$$

$$P_{\text{eff},t} = (1 - c_{\text{inc}}) \cdot P_t \quad (11)$$

$$P_{\text{inf},t} = \begin{cases} P_{\text{eff},t}, & \text{if } c_{\text{inf}} \geq P_{\text{eff},t}/h \\ c_{\text{inf}} \cdot h, & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

$$RAW_t = \sum_{s \in S} r_s \cdot TAW \quad (13)$$

$$c_{s,t} = \begin{cases} RAW/P_{\text{inf},t}, & \text{if } P_{\text{inf},t} > RAW \\ 1, & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

$$(15)$$

323 where subscript,  $s$  = tree species ( $s \in S$ ),  $t$  = unit time (daily/weekly).

324 The computational steps followed by the model are as follows: In Step  
 325 1, the sum of the precipitation for the past week is calculated from the  
 326 precipitation data source (daily). In Step 2, the sum of the precipitation  
 327 forecast for next week is calculated from the precipitation forecast data source  
 328 (daily). In Step 3, the sum of the  $ET_0$  is calculated, according to the FAO  
 329 method, for the prior week from the reference ET data source (daily).

330 In Step 4, using the tree species information from the tree inventory,  $ET_L$   
 331 is calculated for each tree by matching its botanical name (in Latin) with the  
 332 WUCOLS dataset. Due to certain differences in spellings of species in tree  
 333 inventories and the WUCOLS database, a fuzzy matching algorithm [54] is  
 334 used to identify the highest matching keywords based on the botanical name.  
 335 Therefore, if a specific species type is missing from the WUCOLS database,

Table 3: Summary of parameters defined in the python corresponding to the designed model

Symbol	Type <sup>a</sup>	Description	Data Source
s	I	Name of the species	Latin name
c <sub>inc</sub>	I	Interception coefficient	Literature values (0.17/0.227/0.3058)
c <sub>inf</sub>	I	Infiltration rate	Minnesota Pollution Control Agency [48]
r	I	Depth of roots	0.5m/1m/2m depending on root system
TAW	I	Total available water	Newman [51]
ET <sub>0</sub>	I	Reference ET	Weather data [53]
ET <sub>L</sub>	C	Landscape ET	Using WUCOLS database [43]
P <sub>eff</sub>	C	Effective precipitation	Difference of Precipitation and Interception
P <sub>inf</sub>	C	Infiltration amount	Depending on soil type and compactness
RAW	C	Available water	Depending on TAW and rootdepth
I <sub>t</sub>	C	Irrigation demand	According to Equation 9

<sup>a</sup>Type: I = Input, C = Calculated

336 the most similar tree name from the same botanic family will be assigned  
 337 to it. If no match is found, a medium water demand value is assumed by  
 338 default. Since WUCOLS was originally composed for California, the region  
 339 type with the most similar climate to the study area needs to be selected. The  
 340 description of the six available climatic zones is published on the WUCOLS  
 341 and the Sunset website [43].

342 In Step 5, a species factor ( $K_s$ ) is defined according to Table 2. By default,  
 343 the factor is set to the middle of the given range (see Table 2). However, a  
 344 user can modify the value within the respective range. A similar procedure is  
 345 applied to select the density factor ( $K_d$ ) and the micro-climate factor ( $K_{mc}$ )  
 346 according to the category obtained in Step 4. Again, the default value is set  
 347 at the middle of the range; however, the user can manually adjust the values  
 348 in the case, for example, of newly planted trees or completely shaded areas.  
 349 Then, a landscape factor ( $K_L$ ) is calculated by multiplying all three factors  
 350 as per Equation 3.

351 In Step 6, the weekly  $ET_0$  obtained in Step 3 is multiplied with  $K_L$  to  
 352 obtain the weekly  $ET_L$ . This is further multiplied with the species-wise tree  
 353 count to obtain the  $ET_L$  demand for each species (Equation 10). In Step  
 354 7, to determine  $P_{eff}$  according to Equation 11. Based on the available data  
 355 from the literature,  $c_{inc}$  for *Quercus* and *Aesculus* trees was set as 0.17  
 356 and 0.3058, respectively [45, 47], while for the remaining species for which  
 357 data was unavailable, it was set to 0.227 as the default [46]. In Step 8,

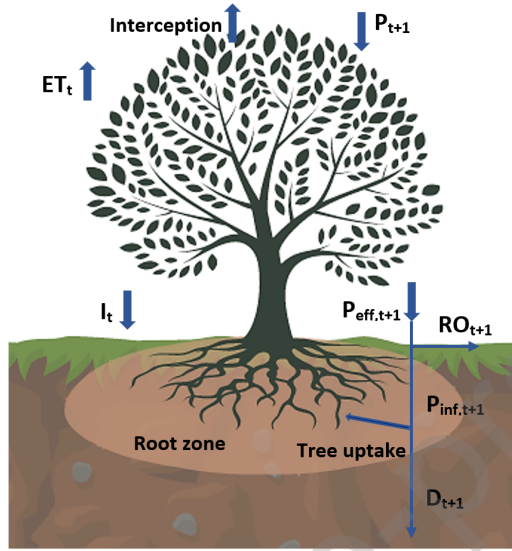


Figure 1: The parameters in the water balance approach considered in the time series model.

358 the amount of water infiltrating into the soil is calculated using infiltration  
 359 rate  $c_{inf}$  according to Equation 12. If there are no field data, the Minnesota  
 360 Pollution Control Agency provides design infiltration rates for different soil  
 361 types in the Minnesota Stormwater Manual [48]. In Step 9, the available  
 362 RAW is calculated by multiplying the root depth given in Table 3. In Step  
 363 10, weekly irrigation demand  $I_t$  is calculated as the difference of  $ET_L$  and the  
 364 available infiltrated water in the root zone according to Equation 9.

365 The aforementioned model was implemented in Python language (version  
 366 3.10) using the Google Colab service [55]. The program initialises by down-  
 367 loading and storing all of the listed datasets from their respective servers,  
 368 using the requests library. Additionally, the matplotlib library was used for the  
 369 purpose of plotting. The total run-time with a tree inventory of around 0.5  
 370 million trees is about 15 minutes.

#### 371 4. Case Study: Berlin City

372 The described model is applied to a case study on the City of Berlin.  
 373 Berlin is the capital and largest city of Germany, with around 3.6 million  
 374 inhabitants and a city area of 891 km<sup>2</sup>. The mean population density in the

375 city is about 4200 residents/km<sup>2</sup> which is considered as high-density cluster  
376 according to the degree of urbanisation classification of Eurostat. The city  
377 is mainly flat in topography and located on the Spree River, surrounded by  
378 numerous lakes and woodlands. Berlin has an average of around 80 trees per  
379 kilometre of the city's streets, totalling about 431,000 trees in the entire city.  
380 They consist of trees from over 50 different species. The most common tree  
381 genus include lime (*Tilia*), maple (*Acer*), oak (*Quercus*), plane (*Platanus*),  
382 and chestnut (*Aesculus*), which account for over 75% of the total number of  
383 street trees. Currently, the city spends around 37 million euros/year on the  
384 maintenance of existing street trees and around 2500 euros/tree to take care  
385 of newly planted trees for the first three years [56].

#### 386 *4.1. Data used and Inputs*

387 In Germany, the German weather service DWD offers data from 5,980  
388 meteorological stations spread across the whole country [53]. From this set  
389 of meteorological stations, 11 are located in the Berlin city region. As a result,  
390 meteorological data from all 11 stations is averaged to obtain a mean value  
391 for different parameters. The dataset includes the  $ET_0$ , as well as past and  
392 future precipitation data. For the calculation of  $ET_L$ , the WUCOLS dataset  
393 provided by the University of California is used [43]. For Berlin, climate  
394 region two was the appropriate choice, which was used to determine the  
395 relevant coefficients from Table 2. The city tree inventory available from the  
396 open-data initiative of Berlin was used for obtaining tree specific information  
397 such as type of tree, species type, and distribution [57]. Information regarding  
398 the soil type in Berlin was obtained from the Federal Institute for Geosciences  
399 and Natural Resources [58]. Using this, sandy loam soil was selected for  
400 Berlin. Subsequently, the default value for  $c_{inf}$  should be 20.3 mm/h for  
401 normal soil, but for the case of street trees, it is set one level below at 11.4  
402 mm/h due to compacted soils near the tree trench. Additionally, the default  
403 TAW value for sandy loam soil was used at 70 mm based on the literature  
404 [51].

405 For a more precise irrigation recommendation, the forecast for precipita-  
406 tion and  $ET_0$  is necessary. The DWD [53] makes predictions about future  
407 rain events, but  $ET_0$  forecasts are not available. Hence, in this case, the  
408 average  $ET_0$  of the prior week is used as a forecast, considering that the  $ET_0$   
409 should not change substantially in the short run. Moreover, the available soil  
410 moisture from the previous seven days is taken into account as the available  
411 water.

412 Figure 2 presents a snapshot of the tree inventory dataset of the City of  
 413 Berlin, wherein the colour of the marker indicates the species type. This  
 414 dataset includes information on the tree's location, botanical name, and  
 415 species family. Moreover, for a share of trees ( 75%) it also includes year  
 416 of plantation, crown size, trunk size, and tree height information. Although  
 417 this additional tree maturity information was not considered in the current  
 418 study, it should be further investigated to improve the estimations.

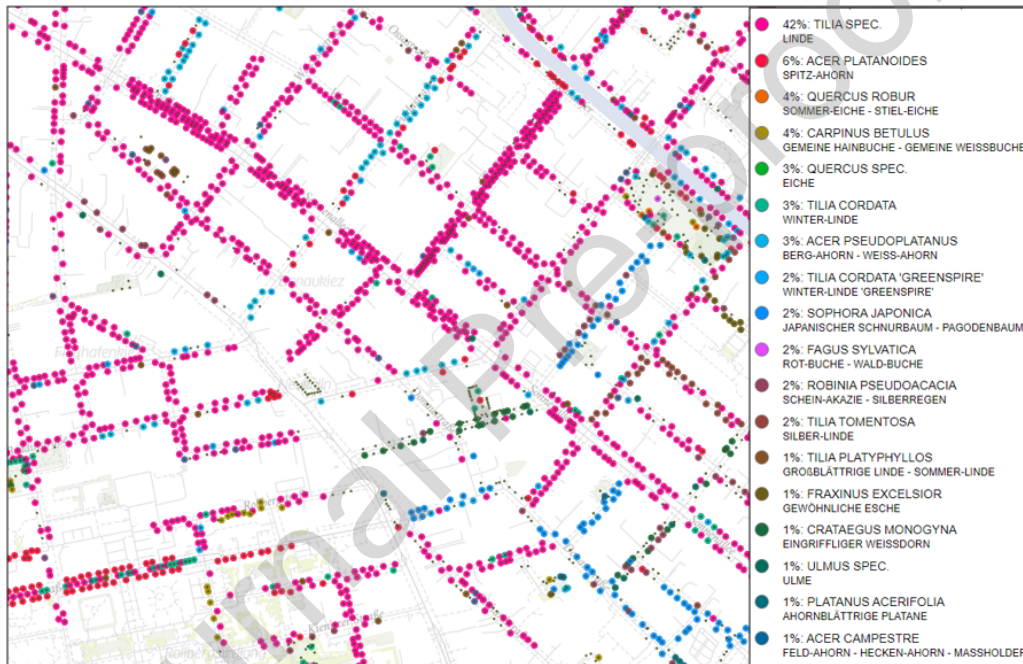


Figure 2: Snapshot of the street trees in Berlin with the colour of the marker indicating the species type (Source: <http://opentrees.org/>).

#### 419 4.2. Results for the street trees in Berlin

420 Figure 3a presents the species-wise distribution of trees in Berlin. It can  
 421 be observed that Tilia (Lime) is the most dominant species, followed by Acer  
 422 (Maple) and Quercus (Oak). First, an analysis was performed for a single  
 423 week of 2021 (41<sup>st</sup> week). Figure 3b presents the species-wise  $ET_L$  demand  
 424 for street trees in Berlin for this particular week. It can also be observed that  
 425 Salix (Willows) and Betula (Birch) have the highest  $ET_L$  demand whereas

426 Aesculus (Chestnut horse) has the lowest  $ET_L$  demand, of all tree species in  
 427 Berlin. In the following step, irrigation is recommended if the precipitation  
 428 forecast for the next seven days is lower than the sum of the current irri-  
 429 gation demand and the forecasted  $ET_L$  for the next seven days. Depending  
 430 on the irrigation system, municipalities might also be interested in apply-  
 431 ing additional water to meet future irrigation demands. In such a case, the  
 432 maximum demand is supplied according to the assessed irrigation demand  
 433 for the next seven days. The bar plots in Figure 4a and Figure 4b depict  
 434 the species-wise current and maximum irrigation recommendation (mm) for  
 435 a single tree. This information can be further used by the decision-makers to  
 436 assess the future increase in water demand in the case of new plantations of  
 437 trees. Although several factors such as nativity, climate resilience, full-grown  
 438 canopy size, aesthetics, and cost need to be considered while selecting the  
 439 species type for a new plantation, watering demand can be a significant de-  
 440 termining factor, especially, for drought-prone cities. Furthermore, Figure 4c  
 441 and Figure 4d show the species-wise total current and maximum irrigation  
 442 recommendation for all the city's street trees. Again, Tilia has the highest  
 443 total irrigation demand, followed by Acer and Quercus. Since the chosen  
 444 week occurs during the peak of the summer season in Berlin, the irrigation  
 445 demand observed in this case was particularly high.

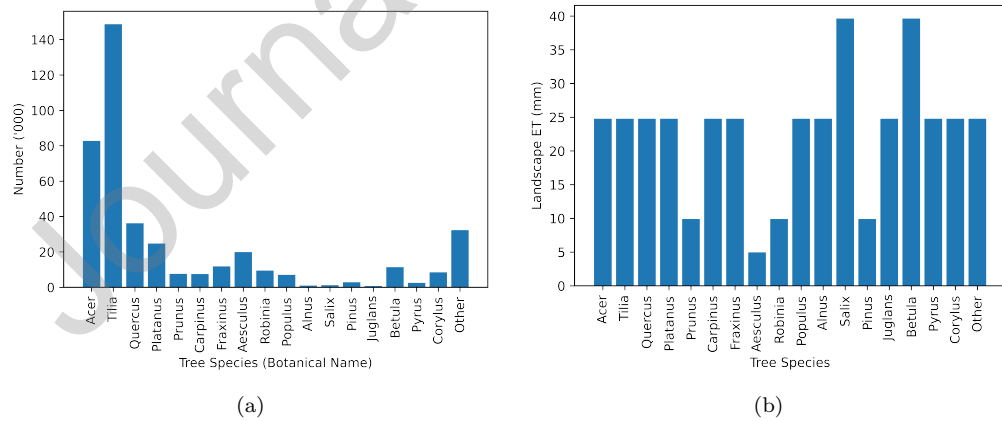


Figure 3: Bar plots showing (a) Species-wise distribution of street trees in Berlin. (b) Species-wise Landscape ET demand (mm) of street trees in Berlin.

446 Based on this, the total irrigation requirement for this particular week

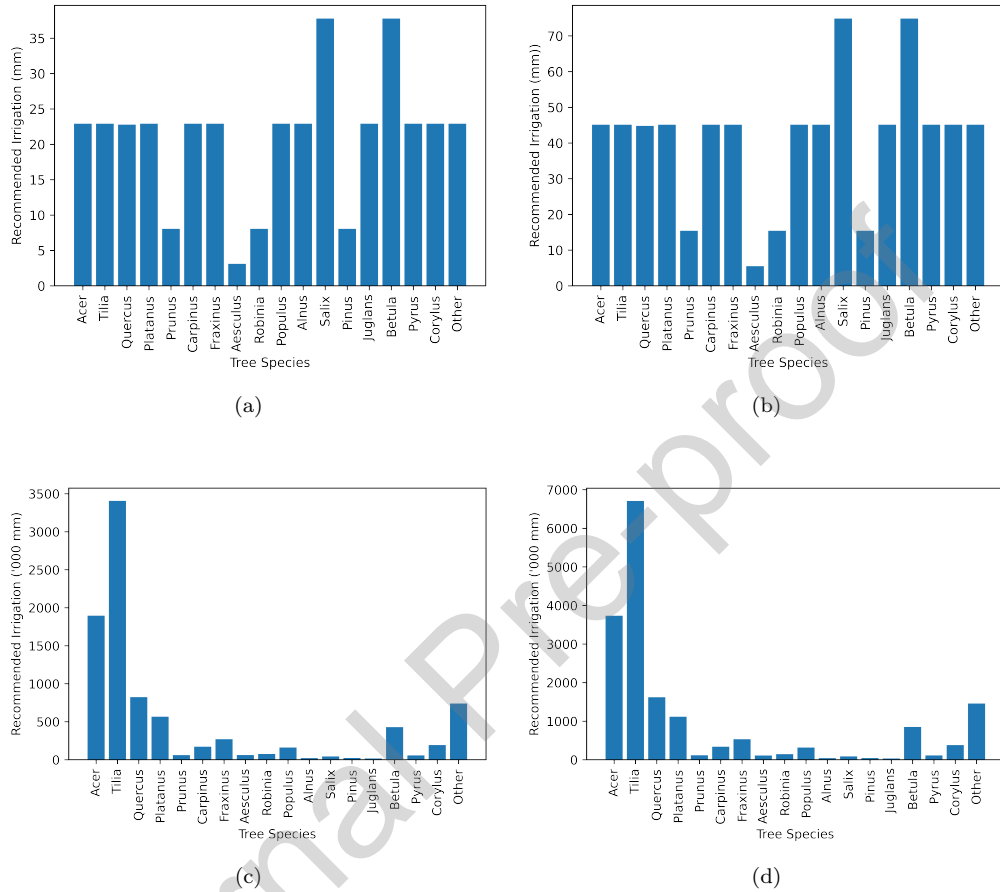


Figure 4: Bar plots showing species-wise current (a) and maximal (b) irrigation demand for a single tree, and species-wise current (c) and maximal (d) irrigation demand for all street trees (in mm) in Berlin.

447 is computed for all the street trees and is presented in Figure 5. If the  
 448 watering is done through drip irrigation, the water height figures in mm  
 449 should be converted into  $m^3$  or liters by multiplying the height with the tree  
 450 area (taken as  $6 m^2$  in this study) to calculate the volume of water to be  
 451 supplied. However, in the case of watering tankers, the estimates in water  
 452 height should be used directly for uniformly applying it over the tree trench.

453 Next, the time series model is run for all the weeks of 2021 to obtain the  
 454 weekly irrigation demand. Figure 6 (left) presents the species-wise weekly  
 455 irrigation demand of the most commonly found tree species in Berlin. This  
 456 is particularly useful for the road and garden department's day-to-day op-



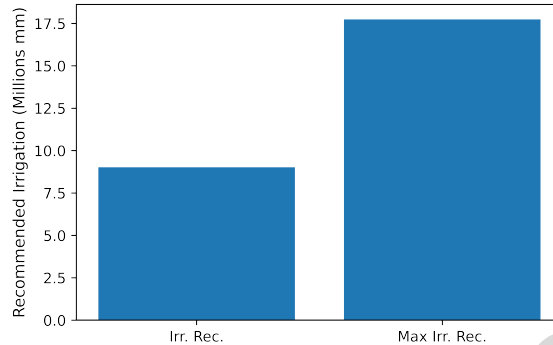


Figure 5: A bar plot showing the one week (41<sup>st</sup> week of 2021) total current and maximum irrigation recommendation (in mm) for all street trees in Berlin.

457 erations of supplying the water only in the required quantity. The total  
 458 irrigation demand for all the street trees in the cities is given in Figure 6  
 459 (right). This is particularly useful for the city administrators to make long-  
 460 term plans in terms of water budgeting for existing and newly planted trees.  
 461 The seasonal variations are quite evident in the result, wherein during the  
 462 winter weeks the irrigation demand is significantly lower in comparison to the  
 463 summer months. This further reinforces the need for applying such a model  
 464 in practice so that cities can plan and prepare their water budgets in ad-  
 465 vance. Furthermore, besides watering schedules, city administrators can also  
 466 use this to make management decisions regarding the required water storage  
 467 capacity, rainwater collection, irrigation scheduling, logistics, and the feasible  
 468 amount of new trees that can be supported in the future.

469 To illustrate an application for scenario analysis, the irrigation demand  
 470 considering a drought scenario is computed. For this, the model was run  
 471 with the input precipitation data reduced by 50%, while keeping all other  
 472 parameters identical to the baseline scenario. This resulted in an increase  
 473 of around 8.5 % in the external irrigation demand. Figure 7 presents the  
 474 weekly increment in water demand in this case. Here, too, the effect is  
 475 stronger during the summer weeks compared to winter. In actual conditions,  
 476 this impact is likely to be even higher, since the reduced rainfall will also  
 477 cause the depletion of groundwater resources.

478 We also compared our model with the existing SLIDE method, which  
 479 is based on assigning PF values to adjust the  $ET_0$  based on urban context.  
 480 Street trees can be classified under woody plants, so a PF value of 0.5 was

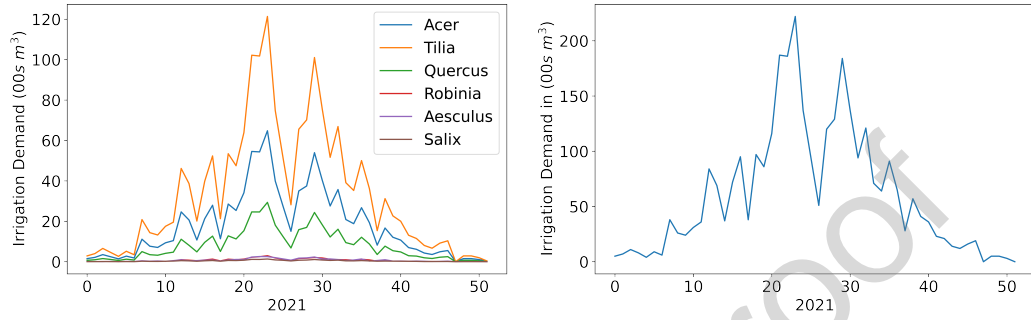


Figure 6: A plot showing estimation of weekly irrigation demand (in  $m^3$ ) for the most commonly found street tree species (on left) and for all the street trees in Berlin combined (on right).

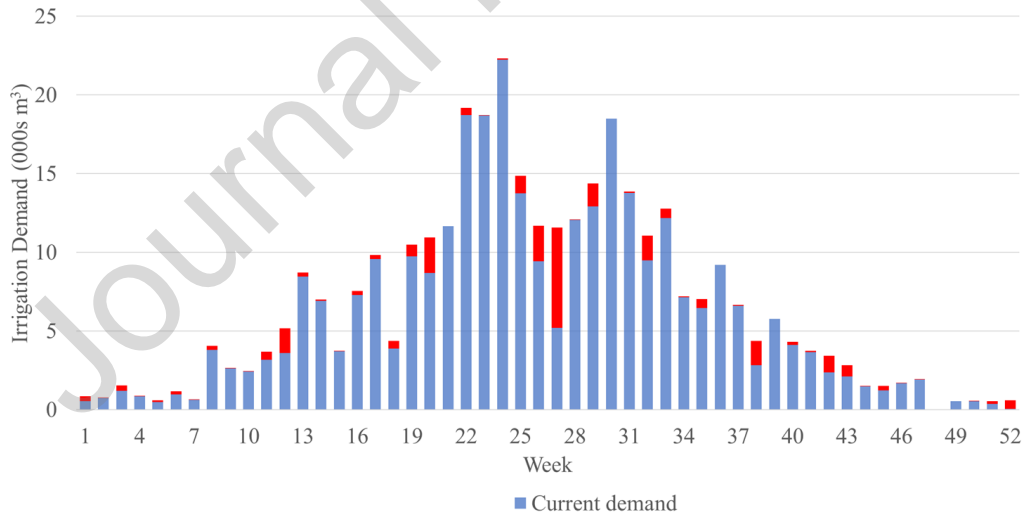


Figure 7: A plot showing the change in irrigation demand in case only 50 % of rainfall occurs.

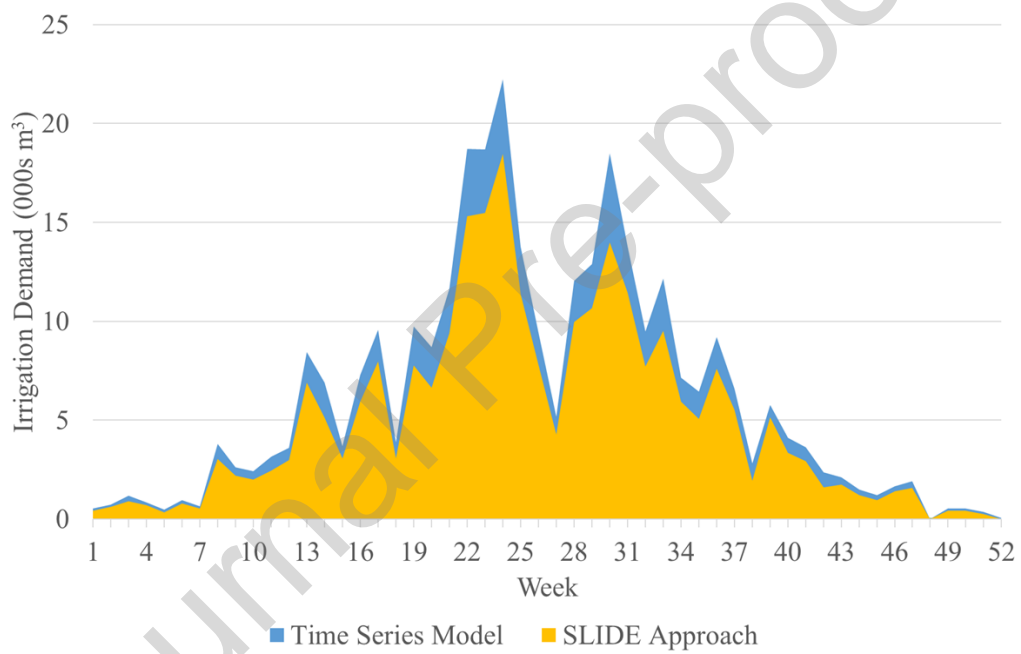


Figure 8: A plot showing estimated irrigation demand ( $m^3$ ) for the Berlin city in 2021 by the time series and SLIDE model.

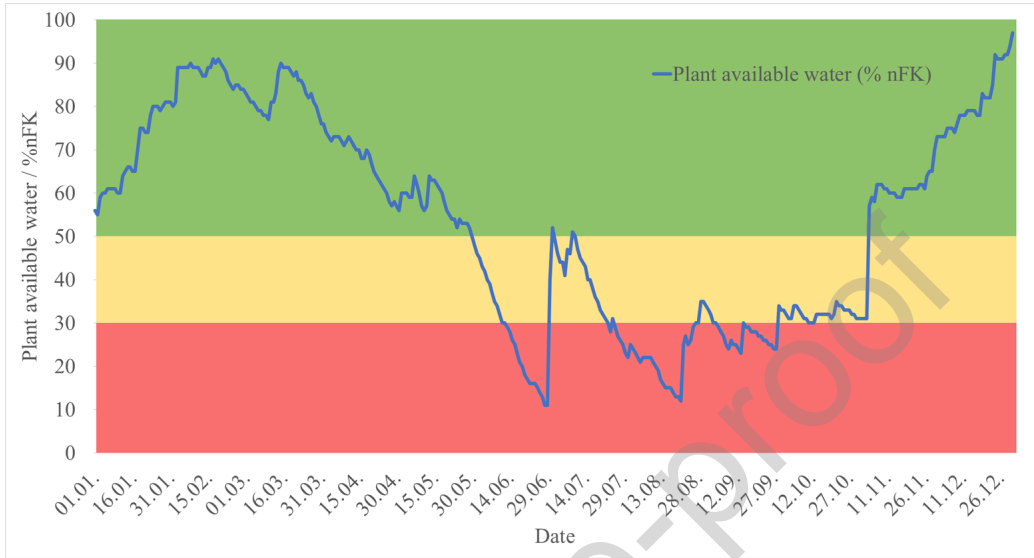


Figure 9: A plot showing estimated soil moisture available to plants at the example site Tempelhofer Weg in Berlin-Neukölln for the year 2021 (data source: [37]).

481 applied here. Accordingly, only the coefficient ( $K_s \cdot K_d \cdot K_{mc}$ ) of Equation 10  
 482 was replaced by PF, while everything else remained the same. The calculated  
 483 irrigation demand by both methods is presented in Figure 8. As visible, the  
 484 SLIDE approach estimates a lower demand compared to our model. Overall,  
 485 a 19 % reduction in the total annual irrigation demand was seen. This can be  
 486 potentially attributed to the comprehensiveness of the WUCOLS approach,  
 487 which includes three separate coefficients to incorporate the impact of ur-  
 488 ban conditions, therefore leading to higher  $ET_L$  demand and, subsequently,  
 489 recommending higher irrigation.

490 Moreover, Figure 9 presents a plot from the currently implemented model  
 491 in Berlin that estimates the soil moisture available to plants for a single tree  
 492 (*Tilia cordata*) at the Tempelhofer Weg in Berlin-Neukölln for the year 2021.  
 493 According to this system, irrigation will only take place when the plant's  
 494 available water in the soil falls below 30%. So, in this case, this would  
 495 be from the beginning of June to the end of September. This is distinctly  
 496 different than in the time series model, where irrigation is recommended  
 497 almost throughout the year.

498 **5. Discussion**

499 The developed time series model is suitable for estimating an irrigation  
500 schedule for all street trees in a city on daily or weekly time scales. Since it  
501 is based on the soil water balance principle and incorporates the WUCOLS  
502 approach for the estimation of ET demand, it can adapt irrigation recom-  
503 mendations according to urban conditions. Moreover, it is not dependent on  
504 any sensor data to measure soil moisture change. However, if field measure-  
505 ments are available, they can be integrated into the same model for greater  
506 accuracy.

507 The estimations from the developed time series model suggest an im-  
508 provement over the currently implemented forecasting model in Berlin. The  
509 currently applied model extends the calculation made for one tree species  
510 to the entire city without any adjustments. Furthermore, a high concentra-  
511 tion of irrigation demand during the summer months can aggravate already  
512 stressed water systems during droughts or drier summers. Additionally, the  
513 soil moisture approach informs about the necessity to irrigate but does not  
514 provide any information on the quantity of water to be irrigated. These  
515 limitations are addressed by the time series model, which uses an ET-based  
516 approach for estimating the irrigation demand.

517 Furthermore, to obtain the irrigation demand estimation, the time series  
518 approach should be preferred when compared to available alternative ap-  
519 proaches such as SLIDE, which basically assumes one average PF for all tree  
520 plantings and therefore ignores the species type or density as an important  
521 driver of the  $ET_L$ . In addition to that, in the SLIDE method, the forecasted  
522 rainfall is not incorporated within the estimation and, therefore, is missing  
523 out on the potential water savings. WUCOLS, on the other hand, considers  
524 more aspects of the study site through its species, density and micro-climate  
525 factor. Nouri et al. [59], in their study of Adelaide, also found that WU-  
526 COLS leads to more realistic results than the PF approach. As WUCOLS  
527 offers more scope for adaptation according to the site peculiarities, it was  
528 the chosen method for calculating  $ET_L$  in this time series model. Compara-  
529 tive analysis shows a lower irrigation demand with the SLIDE approach than  
530 with the time series model. Due to the lack of other data sources concerning  
531 the ET and the irrigation demand, only a qualitative comparison of the two  
532 approaches is possible.

533 The accuracy of the proposed model can be further improved by calibrat-  
534 ing it using field data and including the uncertainty in the weather data.

535 The limitations of the model include obtaining the infiltration coefficients  
536 and root depths from literature, since in reality, those actually depend on  
537 the individual tree and site-specific characteristics. Nevertheless, in the fu-  
538 ture, when accurate data is available, e.g., via sensors or field data regarding  
539 the interception or infiltration rates, it could be easily incorporated into the  
540 proposed model to incorporate the localisation and thus improve model per-  
541 formance. Additionally, the impact of omitting CR from the model needs  
542 further investigation, especially, for the cities with high groundwater tables.  
543 For the calculation of the annual irrigation demand, the climatic data on a  
544 daily time scale has been used. For  $ET_0$  this time resolution is suitable; how-  
545 ever, for the precipitation, a higher temporal resolution would be ideal. Since  
546 the infiltration rate is used to determine the actual water quantity from effec-  
547 tive precipitation percolating into the root zone, detailed information about  
548 the intensity of the rain event would lead to more precise estimations. Fur-  
549 thermore, the weather data originated from the DWD stations, which are  
550 spread around the entire city, and were averaged to obtain the input data.  
551 However, depending on the placement of the measuring instruments, the data  
552 might not have incorporated the full effect of the urban conditions on the  
553 weather data. Also, rain could have fallen erratically over the investigated  
554 area. The model, however, assumes regular or constant rainfall in the inves-  
555 tigated region. Considering the above factors and the uncertainties involved  
556 with the estimation, the final results should be used as a guideline for the  
557 administrators on a relative scale rather than at an absolute level. Moreover,  
558 in this study, the results are calculated for the year 2021. Historic data are  
559 not used yet but could be used for computing the potential variability of  
560 irrigation demand due to changing weather and long-term climate change  
561 effects.

## 562 **6. Conclusion and Future Research**

563 In order to safeguard the benefits attainable from UGS, it is crucial that  
564 the city trees survive dry and hot periods, receive enough water to fulfill  
565 the ET demand, moderate the climate, and remain aesthetically pleasing.  
566 Hence, quantifiable information about the irrigation demand of UGS is of  
567 high interest to municipalities.

568 The proposed time series model based on soil water balance and the  
569 WUCOLS approach present a unique solution for determining an irrigation  
570 schedule for city street trees at a finer (daily or weekly) temporal resolution.

571 The model requires limited input data that is readily available from open-  
572 access datasets, and no additional installation of sensors is required. The  
573 proposed model provides a feasible solution for a large number of cities, es-  
574 pecially in developing regions where access to reliable data is limited. With  
575 more frequent and extreme weather events caused by global warming and the  
576 resulting water scarcity, the time series model can provide reasonable accu-  
577 racy for the water demand of street trees, allowing the garden and forestry  
578 departments to avoid relying on historic or speculative values.

579 However, it is crucial to understand the drivers of the input parameters  
580 and the approach adopted for their estimation. Furthermore, the input data  
581 and conditions can be varied to generate irrigation estimations for different  
582 scenarios, such as an increase in trees, longer and drier summers, or the  
583 depletion of groundwater. The results from this model can be further com-  
584 bined with the benefit estimation of each UGS to make an informed decision  
585 regarding the future planning of newer green areas and efficient resource  
586 management. For instance, depending on the availability of stored water  
587 resources and the UGS' specific water demand, an evidence based decision  
588 regarding the allocation of the available water can be made. Likewise, if  
589 the water deficit is known in advance, the necessary rainwater collection and  
590 storage systems can be designed accordingly.

591 To increase the model's applicability, performance should be evaluated  
592 through controlled experiments or field trials. Furthermore, the model can  
593 be improved by integrating forecast uncertainties as well as higher spatial  
594 and temporal resolutions of the relevant input data and design parameters.  
595 For instance, precise hourly rainfall intensity and the actual ET at sub-city  
596 spatial scale could improve the irrigation schedule estimation.

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## **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

**Mihir Rambhia:** Conceptualisation, Methodology, Software, Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data curation, Writing Draft, Review & Editing, Visualisation. **Rebekka Volk:** Review & Editing, Project administration, Supervision **Behzad Rismanchi:** Review & Editing, Supervision **Stephan Winter:** Review & Editing, Supervision **Frank Schultmann:** Review & Editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition.

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**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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