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1	Evapotranspiration of a willow cultivar (Salix miyabeana SX67)
2	grown in a full-scale treatment wetland
3	
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23 Abstract

Since woody plants like willow are used increasingly in treatment wetlands, there is a 24 growing need to characterize their ecophysiology in these specific growing conditions. For 25 instance, potential evapotranspiration (ET) can be greatly increased in wetlands, due to 26 27 factors like high water availability as well as oasis and clothesline effects. Few studies 28 report willow ET rates measured in full-scale constructed wetland conditions, and fewer still in a temperate North-American climate. The objective of this study was to measure and 29 30 model evapotranspiration of a commonly used willow cultivar, Salix mivabeana (SX67), to 31 provide the ET rates and crop coefficient for this species. During two growing seasons, we studied a 48 m² horizontal subsurface flow willow wetland located in eastern Canada, 32 33 irrigated with pretreated wood preservative leachate. We found a mean monthly evapotranspiration rate of 15 mm/day, for a seasonal cumulative ET value of 2785 mm and 34 a mean crop coefficient of 4.1. Both the evapotranspiration results and leaf area index 35 (LAI) were greater than most results reported for open field willow plantations. Maximal 36 stomatal conductance (\bar{G}_s) was higher than that expected for deciduous trees and even for 37 wetland plants, and mean values correlated well with temperature, solar radiation, relative 38 humidity and day of the year. We demonstrated that an ET model using \bar{G}_s , LAI and water 39 vapor pressure deficit (VPD) as parameters could predict the evapotranspiration rate of our 40 wetland. This simplification of traditional ET models illustrates the absence of 41 evapotranspiration limitations in wetlands. Furthermore, this study also highlights some 42 factors that can enhance ET in treatment wetlands. Our results should both improve the 43 44 design of treatment wetlands using fast growing willows, and provide a simple ET predictive model based on major evapotranspiration drivers in wetlands. 45

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46 Keywords: willow crop coefficient, wetland evapotranspiration, stomatal conductance,

47 willow leaf parameters, evapotranspiration modelling, zero-discharge wetlands

48

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Treatment wetlands, or vegetation filters, are now commonly used for treatment of various 51 types of wastewater (Valipour and Ahn, 2017). "Artificial" wetlands are generally planted with herbaceous plants like Phragmites, Typha, graminoids or other aquatic and semi-52 53 aquatic species (Kadlec and Wallace, 2008). More recently, woody species of the Salix 54 genus (willows), generally studied for biomass production, are being tested and used for 55 wastewater treatment purposes. *Salix* species are mostly hydrophilic and tolerate hypoxic 56 conditions and great water fluctuations well, have a high growth rate and develop a vigorous root system (Kuzovkina et al., 2008), making them good candidates for treatment 57 wetland purposes. Another advantage of using woody plants for water treatment is the 58 59 added value of biomass production that can be used for bioenergy and biofuel processes (Duggan et al., 2005). Consequently, there is growing interest in willow for use in 60 treatment of landfill leachate, domestic wastewater or other nitrogen rich wastewaters 61 (Białowiec et al., 2003; Dimitriou and Aronsson, 2011; Guidi et al., 2014). Fast growing 62 willows are also known for their great evapotranspiration (ET), which led to the 63 development of a new specific type of treatment wetlands called "zero-discharge wetlands" 64 (ZDWs; Dotro et al., 2017). The design of ZDWs is based mainly on the ET capacity of the 65 plant selected. They operate without liquid effluent, immobilizing contaminants in the 66 67 wetland substrate and preventing any release of residual contamination in the environment. Depending on the type of water contamination, ZDWs can function as the final step of a 68

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69	treatment plant or as a secondary treatment. Such wetlands are now well implanted in
70	Scandinavian countries, mainly in Denmark, where the concept was first developed
71	(Gregersen and Brix, 2001; Brix and Arias, 2011), and Ireland (Curneen and Gill, 2014).
72	Conclusive tests have also been performed in Mongolia, under very cold climatic
73	conditions (Khurelbataar et al., 2017), and zero-discharge wetlands are currently being
74	tested in other locations.
75	Sound scientific knowledge of the ET rate of the species used is an essential tool to design
76	a treatment wetland because of the direct impact it will have on the wetland hydraulics
77	(Kadlec and Wallace, 2008) and its removal performance (Białowiec et al., 2014). It is even
78	more important for zero-discharge wetlands, where ET is the main "treatment" process,
79	ensuring that no liquid waste will flow out of the wetland. While many studies have been
80	published on willow ET, very few concern willows growing in full-scale treatment wetland
81	conditions. However, ET in artificial wetlands can differ greatly from ET measured in a
82	plantation, and can significantly surpass potential ET (Dotro et al., 2017).
83	The willow species most studied for ET is Salix viminalis, its hybrids and their numerous
84	cultivars (Frédette et al. 2018). Although widely used in Europe, some long-term studies
85	have pointed out that, in North America, cultivars of S. viminalis are more prone to diseases
86	and insect attacks than other cultivars (Labrecque and Teodorescu, 2005; Nissim et al.,
87	2013). Instead, other cultivars from species like Salix eriocephala, S. purpurea, S. nigra
88	and S. miyabeana are frequently used (Smart and Cameron, 2008). In eastern Canada,
89	Nissim et al. (2013) concluded that S. miyabeana and some indigenous species were more
90	suited for plantation than S. viminalis. Salix miyabeana has also shown the highest biomass
91	production among cultivars (Labrecque and Teodorescu, 2005; Pitre et al., 2010), good

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92	phytoremediation capacity and high stress tolerance (Grenier et al., 2015; Nissim et al.,
93	2014). Considering that this species and its cultivars have been proven to be well suited for
94	some regions of North America, there is now interest in using S. miyabeana for treatment
95	wetlands (Lévesque et al., 2017, Grebenshchykova et al., 2017), ET cover (Mirck and
96	Volk, 2009) and zero-discharge wetlands (Frédette et al., 2017). However, we found a
97	single study that reported ET rates for this species, based on cultivars grown on a
98	contaminated site for leachate minimization in the north-eastern United States (Mirck and
99	Volk, 2009). For all species of willow combined, we found four studies reporting ET rates
100	in treatment wetland conditions, most of them conducted in Europe and none in the
101	Americas. There is thus a clear lack of knowledge regarding the ET capacity of
102	economically important North American willow cultivars, like S. miyabeana, growing in
103	treatment wetlands conditions.
104	The first objective of our study was to measure the ET rate and provide a crop coefficient
105	(K_{ET}) for Salix miyabeana (SX67) grown in treatment wetland conditions in a sub-boreal
106	temperate climate. The second objective was to propose a predictive ET model, based on
107	simple meteorological and leaf parameters, which would be coherent with the wetland
108	growing conditions and physiology of fast growing willow species like S. miyabeana.
109	While the first objective would serve as a practical tool for development of a better
110	treatment wetland design and add to our knowledge of the ET of North American willow
111	cultivars, the predictive model would enable the transfer of our results to different climatic
112	scenarios and to other willow species that are physiologically similar but have different leaf
113	and phenological parameters.

114 **2. Material and methods**

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115 *2.1 Study site*

The wetland studied is located in an industrial part of the city of Laval, Québec, where 116 mean annual precipitation and temperature are 1000 mm and 6.8 °C, respectively, elevation 117 is 91 m and the growing season is about 170 days. This willow wetland was established in 118 119 2012 and serves as a final polishing step connected to a series of other constructed wetlands 120 treating leachate contaminated with utility wood pole preservatives (chromated copper arsenate and pentachlorophenol). The treatment system is operated only during the growing 121 122 season and when there is no risk of water freezing in the system, generally from May to 123 December. More details about the experimental treatment project are provided in Levesque 124 et al. (2017). The willow wetland is a horizontal subsurface flow wetland 8 m wide by 6 m 125 long (Figure 1), lined with a waterproof membrane and filled with a mix of black peat (20%) and sand (80%) with a general porosity of 50%. 126



128 Figure 1. Section view of the horizontal subsurface flow wetland used to measure and model

129 evapotranspiration of *S. miyabeana* in treatment wetland conditions.

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- 130 Throughout this study, the average hydraulic loading rate of the willow wetland was about
- 131 55 L m⁻² d⁻¹ during the operating season, and the affluent contained a low concentration of

132 contaminants (Table 1).

Table 1. Daily volume and general physical and chemical properties of the willow wetland influent, reported as the average value based on the entire growing season, in 2016 and 2017. Absence of values means that measured parameters were below detection limit in all samples.

Parameter	Unit	2016	2017	
Daily volume	m ³	3.0	2.3	
Hydraulic loading rate	L m ⁻² d ⁻¹	63	48	
рН		7.64 ± 0.06	7.73 ± 0.12	
DCO	mg/L	40 ± 1	-	
PCCD/F	pg TEQ/L	0.32 ± 0.1	1.57 ± 0.46	
Chlorinated phenols	µg/L	-	1.4 ±1.4	
As	µg/L	82 ± 16	160 ± 82	
Cr	µg/L	11 ± 3	12 ± 6	
Cu	µg/L	17 ± 7	22 ± 12	

133 The wetland was fertilized in 2014, and again at the beginning of 2017 with a slow-acting

maintain a juvenile state and high productivity (Nyland, 2016; Abrahamson *et al.*, 2002). A

- 136 monitoring station (Campbell Scientific, various sensors) was present on site for basic
- 137 meteorological data measurement (rainfall, temperature, relative humidity, solar radiation

and wind speed).

139 *2.2 Plant material*

¹³⁴ fertilizer in (Acer 21-7-14). The shoots were cut back at the end of the 2014 season to

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140	The wetland was planted with 112 stools of <i>S. miyabeana</i> SX67 at a planting density of 2.3
141	plants/m ² . Salix miyabeana is native to Asia and the cultivar SX67 was developed at the
142	University of Toronto, in Canada (Cameron et al., 2007). It is usually grown from dormant
143	cuttings, and only male clones with no seed production are produced (Cameron et al.,
144	2007). Although it can reproduce vegetatively, it does not propagate laterally (e.g. stolon),
145	so the planting density does not change over time. However, the stools produce new stems
146	when they are cut back. They produce 6 stems on average (Tharakan et al., 2005), ranging
147	from 2 to 12 (Fontana et al., 2016). Tharakan et al. (2016) reported a mean leaf area index
148	of 4.9 for this cultivar at the end of a three-year rotation cycle. SX67 present stomata on
149	both abaxial and adaxial sides of leaves (amphistomatic) at the early development stage,
150	and adaxial stomatal density decreases as the leaves mature (Fontana et al., 2017).
151	2.3 Physiological measurements
152	To model transpiration of S. miyabeana, we measured two main physiological parameters,
153	<i>i.e.</i> stomatal conductance and leaf area index.
154	2.3.1 Stomatal conductance
155	Instant stomatal conductance (\bar{g}_s) , representing the exchange rate of vapor water from leaf
156	to the boundary layer (mmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$), was sampled on the abaxial side of leaves using a
157	steady state porometer (Decagon, SC-1). In 2016, we sampled \bar{g}_s on 34 days from May 15

to October 11, with measurements in the lower, middle and upper parts of the canopy, both

- inside and at the border of the wetland, and from 6 AM to 9 PM, for a total of 4003 159
- measurements. Data from 2016 allowed us to optimize sampling for the 2017 campaign, 160
- with measurements performed from 10 AM to 2 PM, where mean values of \bar{g}_s were 161
- observed, and only in middle and upper part of the canopy, because of the low influence of 162

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the lower part in the general stomatal conductance (\bar{G}_s) of the wetland. In 2017, sampling 163 took place on 43 days from May 11 to October 27, for a total of 3579 measurements. Also, 164 because S. miyabeana presents amphistomatic characteristics (Fontana & al., 2017), 150 165 measurements were made on both adaxial and abaxial sides of the leaves (75 pairs of 166 167 measurements, taken on four days from May to August 2017) to establish a ratio of 168 transpiration occurring on the upper versus the lower side of the leaf. 169 2.3.2 Leaf area index Leaf area index (LAI), which expresses the leaf area covering a given ground area (m^2) 170 leaf/m² ground), was estimated once a month, in the middle of the month, from May to 171 172 November and for both growing seasons. We calculated the LAI of the entire wetland 173 based on extrapolation of individual willow leaf area and considering that there could be significant difference between leaf area of willows growing on the border and those 174 175 growing in the center of the wetland:

176
$$LAI = (N_{border}IA_{border} + N_{center}IA_{center})/A_{wetland}$$
(Eq. 1)

177 Where *N* is the number of willows growing either on the border or in the center, and their 178 respective mean individual leaf area (*IA*), and $A_{wetland}$ is the wetland area. *IA* was estimated 179 for fifteen individual willows, seven growing on the border of the wetland and eight 180 growing in the center, as follows:

181
$$IA = A_{leaf}(S_{<1m}N_{leaf} + S_{1-3m}N_{leaf} + S_{>3m}N_{leaf})$$
(Eq. 2)

182 A_{leaf} is the average single leaf area and is measured each month based on 30 to 40 randomly 183 collected leaves and using the software, Mesurim Pro v3.4.4.0. The number of stems (*S*) 184 were counted on the individuals and divided in 3 height classes (<1m, 1-3m, >3m). Finally,

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the average number of leaves (N_{leaf}) present on stems was estimated by direct counting on 5 random stems of each class. Afterwards, we examined the spatial variation of the leaf area by comparing individual area of stools on the edge and stools in the center of the wetland. Because the leaf cover seemed to exceed the actual area of the wetland, we also calculated and adjusted value of LAI based on the projected canopy area (Allen *et al.*, 2011).

190

2.4 Wetland evapotranspiration calculation

191 To estimate actual ET of the willows, we used the water balance method, based on the

192 following mathematical equation (Kadlec & Wallace, 2008):

193
$$ET = \frac{Q_i + IQ_p + Q_r - Q_d - Q_o - \frac{dV}{dt}}{A}$$
(Eq. 3)

Where ET is the ET rate, Q_i the inflow flowrate, Q_p the precipitation adjusted by a canopy 194 interception factor (I), Q_r the flowrate of runoff entering the wetland, Q_d the underground 195 drainage flowrate, Q_o the effluent flowrate, $\frac{dV}{dt}$ the variation of the volume of water 196 contained in the wetland and A the wetland area. We considered an interception factor of 197 25%, determined with an equation provided by Martin and Stephen (2005) and based on 198 leaf area index (see section 2.2.2; I = 3.01LAI + 1.12), meaning that only 75% of the 199 rainfall reaches the wetland substrate, the rest being evaporated directly from the leaf and 200 thus not considered as tree ET per se. As we will demonstrate below, rapid closure of the 201 wetland canopy makes this high interception factor very suitable. Because of the 202 203 waterproof membrane and the highly permeable soil surrounding the wetland, it is assumed that Q_r and Q_d are equal to zero. The water volume variation in the wetland is calculated 204 according to the water level and a measured soil porosity of 50%: 205

206
$$\frac{dV}{dt} = \Theta \cdot A \cdot \Delta L_{(t;t-1)}$$
(Eq. 4)

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207	Where Θ represents the substrate porosity, A the wetland area and $\Delta L_{(t-1;t)}$ the water level
208	variation for a given period. Water level was measured hourly with two probes (Levelogger
209	Junior Edge, Solinst) placed at two points in the wetland, from May 27 to December 9 in
210	2016 and from April 21 to November 29 in 2017. Both influent and effluent volume of the
211	willow wetland were monitored with pulse meters (Omega, FTB8000B) throughout the
212	operating season (the system was completely shut down in winter) which represent 214 and
213	220 days for 2016 and 2017 respectively. Due to a malfunction of the flow meters, 2016
214	results are overestimated and late season results for both years (October and November
215	2016 and November 2017) are not presented. Finally, reference ET was calculated
216	according to the modified Penman-Monteith method (Allen & al., 1998), and open water
217	evaporation estimated by pan evaporation.

218

2.5 Evapotranspiration modelling

In a treatment wetland, there are few limitations on ET. Available energy is greater than 219 direct solar radiation because of both "oasis" and "clothesline" effects (Dotro et al., 2017; 220 221 Kadlec and Wallace, 2008) that increase ET potential (Allen et al., 1998). Oasis effect provides a vertical energy transfer in the form of sensible heat from the air surrounding the 222 wetland because its moist condition and transpiration make it cooler than the ambient air. 223 224 The clothesline effect, resulting from the tall wetland plants being surrounded by smaller vegetation, provides a horizontal energy transfer due to wind (Kirkham, 2014). Wind effect 225 is enhanced due to the small size of the wetland and constantly disturbs the boundary layer 226 of plant leaves (Kadlec and Wallace, 2008), meaning that water vapor excreted by the 227 leaves is automatically replaced with fresh air and transpiration potential increases. 228

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Frequent and high irrigation combined with a saturating water level in the wetland also 229 ensure high water availability and prevent limitation of ET due to water stress. 230 Based on these non-limited conditions, we hypothesized that transpiration of willows in a 231 treatment wetland should be highly correlated to stomatal conductance (*i.e.* water vapor 232 exchange rate between leaf and air; \bar{G}_s). \bar{G}_s is generally measured in a volume of water per 233 surface of leaf per time unit (*e.g.* mmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$), meaning that leaf area capable of 234 transpiring (LAI_{active}) is also required for ET calculation. Because of the relatively constant 235 236 disturbance of the boundary layer by wind, transpiration rate should also be driven mainly 237 by water vapor pressure deficit (VPD) in the ambient air. Otherwise, the irrigation of the 238 wetland being below the surface, there is no open contact between water and the 239 atmosphere. According Shuttleworth and Wallace's energy partitioning model (1985), the high average LAI of S. miyabeana (> 4 m²; Tharakan et al., 2016) implies that most of the 240 241 energy available for ET is intercepted by the willows, reducing soil evaporation potential to 242 close to zero. Therefore, in this study, we assume that soil evaporation can be ignored and that willow transpiration can be treated as ET. Daily ET of S. miyabeana grown in a 243 treatment wetland (mm/d) could then be estimated with the following leaf parameter based 244 245 equation:

246

$$ET_{SX67} = G_s \cdot LAI_{active} \cdot VPD \tag{Eq. 5}$$

Active leaf area can be calculated throughout the season according to the seasonal leaf development curve and the abaxial/adaxial ratio established by measurements presented in section 2.3, and the vapor pressure deficit can be calculated with daily temperature and relative humidity data. To estimate stomatal conductance, we chose an empirical approach based on environmental parameters known to influence stomata openings (Buckley and

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Mott, 2013). We wanted those parameters to be easily accessible, to allow the transpiration rate to be predicted with minimal resources. Through linear regressions, we tested the statistical relation between mean daily stomatal conductance measured on site and the following daily parameters: solar radiation, average and maximal air temperature, average and minimal relative humidity, wind speed and day of the year. Parameters presenting a significant relation with stomatal conductance (p<0.05) were combined to predict canopy general conductance as follows:

 $\bar{G}_s = \sum \alpha \bar{g}_s^{\chi}$ (Eq. 6)

Where partial stomatal conductance (\bar{g}_s) was calculated according to previously selected parameters (*x*) having their own relative influence (α) on the general stomatal conductance of the wetland canopy (\bar{G}_s). Finally, crop coefficient was calculated as follows (Kadlec and Wallace, 2008):

264

$$K_{SX67} = ET_{SX67} / ET_0$$
 (Eq. 7.)

265 Where K_{SX67} is the crop, or plant, coefficient, ET_{SX67} is the modelled ET rate of the willow 266 stand and ET_0 the reference crop ET.

267 **2.6 Statistical analysis**

268 The relation between meteorological parameters and \bar{G}_s was tested with either linear,

269 quadratic and power regressions. The influence of parameters on a given variable (*e.g.*

influence of leaf face on \bar{G}_s variation) was tested with two-way ANOVAs analysis with a

- 271 0.05 significance threshold ($\alpha = 0.05$). Tukey's post-hoc statistical test was used when
- necessary to better interpret the results of the analysis of variance ($\alpha = 0.05$). All statistical
- analysis were done using R 3.5.1 software.

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274 **3. Results**

The summer of 2016 was hot and dry, with a mean temperature of 18.0 °C (\pm 6.0) and 569

- 276 mm of rainfall from May to October. Mean temperature was similar in 2017 (17.9 °C
- \pm 4.8), but with less days on which maximum temperature rose above 30 °C. Also, 2017
- saw much higher rainfall, with 819 mm for the same period. A summary of solar radiation,
- rainfall and daily mean temperature for both growing seasons is shown in Figure 2.



Figure 2. Summary of the meteorological conditions at the experimental site for the 2016 and 2017growing seasons.

Average reference crop ET was 4.5 mm/d in 2016 and 3.2 mm/d in 2017, for a total of 808 mm and 750 mm respectively, from May to November. Pan evaporation measured in 2017 represented 81% of reference ET. For the willow wetland, we calculated a mean daily ET

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294

Figure 3. Adaxial/abaxial stomatal conductance ratio of *S. miyabeana* growing in treatment wetland
conditions for the 2017 summer season. Different letters represent statistically different values.

297 Thus, overall seasonal transpiration occurring on the upper part (adaxial) of the leaf

represents about 20% of the lower side (abaxial) transpiration, and actual stomatal

conductance equals approximately 120% of the values measured on the abaxial side of the

leaf only. In both the 2016 and 2017 seasons, leaf cover established rapidly, attaining its

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highest value in July, with 10.4 and 11.4 m² of leaves per m² of soil respectively. The canopy extended beyond the wetland borders by about 50 cm meter on each side, for a projected canopy area of 63 m² compared to the actual wetland area of 48 m². Peak LAI measured using the projected canopy area was 7.9 in 2016 and 8.7 in 2017. In 2017, the global leaf area was a little higher than in 2016, attained its maximal value earlier and retained active foliage later in the season (Figure 4).



Figure 4. Evolution of the leaf area index of a 48 m² wetland (solid line) planted with *S*. *miyabeana* throughout 2 successive growing seasons, and the corresponding values
adjusted for a 63 m² projected canopy area (dashed line).

Trees on the edge of the wetland had up to three times more leaf area than those in the

```
center (Figure 5).
```

307



313

Figure 5. Leaf area, measured in the month of July, of 15 individuals of *S. miyabeana* growing
 either at the border or in the center of a 48 m² constructed wetland. Different letters represent
 statistically different values.

317 *3.3 Evapotranspiration modelling*

318 We found a significant effect of temperature, solar radiation, relative humidity and day of

the year on stomatal conductance (Table 2), but no effect of wind speed.

Table 2. Parameters of the relations found between stomatal conductance of *S*. *miyabeana* and temperature (T), day of year (DOY), solar radiation (Rad) and relative humidity (RH). Parameter importance (α) and predictive equations used for stomatal conductance modelling are presented.

Parameter	Type of relation	p _{value}	R ²	α	Equation
Т	Power	<0.001	0.21	0.48	$88.4x^{0.5}$
DOY	Quadratic	0.002	0.13	0.30	$-0.02x^2 + 9x - 572$
Rad	Quadratic	0.05	0.05	0.11	$-0.005x^2 + 2x - 177$
RH	Linear	0.03	0.05	0.11	2.9x + 168

- 320 For temperature and relative humidity, mean daily values were better predictors than
- 321 maximum and minimum values respectively. Correlation between \bar{G}_s and each factor

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separately was relatively weak (r² from 0.05 to 0.21), but together they explained half of
stomatal conductance variation throughout the season (Figure 6.), which can be considered
satisfying due to the many other factors driving this parameter but not measured here
(Buckley and Mott, 2013).





Figure 6. Results of \bar{G}_s modelling, based on temperature, solar radiation, relative humidity and day of year, over \bar{G}_s measured on the field under the same parameters.

The model was good at predicting mean \bar{G}_s , with a predicted mean seasonal value of 428 mmol m⁻² s⁻¹ over 418 mmol m⁻² s⁻¹ measured in 2016, and 329 mmol m⁻² s⁻¹ predicted over 309 mmol m⁻² s⁻¹ measured in 2017. Daily variation was captured more accurately in 2017 than in 2016 (Figure 7). 333



Figure 7. Stomatal conductance (Gs) field measurements (solid line) and modelling results
(dashed line) over the 2016 and 2017 growing seasons.

Using the general stomatal conductance predicted with this model and the previously

established leaf area parameters, we calculated the ET rate (Eq. 5) and the corresponding

crop coefficient (Eq. 7; Table 3). Willow ET was higher in 2016, as was reference ET, with

a mean daily rate of 17.1 mm/d compared to 12.9 mm/d in 2017 (Table 3). Calculated

seasonal ET was 3170 mm in 2016 and 2400 mm in 2017. Crop coefficients were constant

in both years, with an average of 4.1, and values slightly above 5 times the reference ET for

the months of July, August and September (Table 3). Highest ET rates were calculated in

August 2016 (44.8 mm/d on August 13) and in July 2017 (34.3 mm/d). Modelled crop

coefficients are very close to those calculated with the water balance for most of the 2017

season, but lower than water balance ET in 2016, probably due to the overestimation of

actual ET for this season (section 2.4).

Table 3. Mean daily Penman-Monteith reference evapotranspiration (ET₀), estimated active leaf area index of

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	2016			2017				
	ET ₀	LAIactive	ET _{SX67}	K _(SX67)	ET ₀	LAIactive	ET _{SX67}	K _(SX67)
May	5.2 ± 0.9	3.3 ± 1.3	4.3 ± 5.1	0.8 ± 0.7	4.0 ± 2.0	3.4 ± 1.9	3.9 ± 3.5	1.0 ± 0.7
June	5.5 ± 0.9	8.2 ± 1.4	15.5 ± 10.4	2.8 ± 1.0	3.9 ± 1.9	12.1 ± 2.0	16.5 ± 8.7	4.3 ± 1.1
July	5.4 ± 0.6	11.6 ± 0.5	26.8 ± 9.5	5.0 ± 0.9	3.8 ± 1.4	13.3 ± 0.5	19.4 ± 5.6	5.1 ± 1.1
August	5.0 ± 0.5	10.1 ± 0.3	27.4 ± 9.8	5.5 ± 0.9	3.5 ± 1.1	10.7 ± 0.7	17.8 ± 4.3	5.1 ± 0.7
Sept.	3.9 ± 0.6	9.5 ± 0.9	20.0 ± 5.8	5.2 ± 1.2	2.6 ± 1.1	9.1 ± 0.8	13.4 ± 4.6	5.1 ± 1.1
October	1.8 ± 0.5	4.5 ± 1.9	8.7 ± 3.8	4.8 ± 1.3	1.4 ± 0.9	4.8 ± 1.4	6.4 ± 2.3	4.4 ± 0.8
Average	4.5 ± 2.0	7.9 ± 3.2	17.1 ± 12.0	4.0 ± 1.9	3.2 ± 1.8	8.9 ± 3.9	12.9 ± 8.6	4.2 ± 1.6

the 48 m² treatment wetland (LAI), modelled willow evapotranspiration (ET_{SX67}) and crop coefficient (K_{SX67}) presented as monthly and seasonal averages, for the 2016 and 2017 growing seasons.

347 **4. Discussion**

348 The mean monthly ET rate measured for Salix miyabeana in treatment wetland conditions 349 ranged from 3.9 to 27.4 mm/d, with a mean seasonal cumulative ET of 2785 mm. Although ET was greater in 2016 than in 2017, crop coefficients were similar for both years, ranging 350 351 from 0.8 to 5.5 with a mean value of 4.1 times the Penman-Monteith reference ET. These 352 ET results differ from those reported in the very few studies conducted in comparable conditions (Curneen and Gill, 2014; Gregersen and Brix, 2001; Brix and Arias, 2005; 353 Kučerová et al., 2001), although crop coefficients are similar (Table 4). On the other hand, 354 LAI is very high compared to the only study we found for another cultivar of S. mivabeana 355 (SX64; Mirck and Volk, 2009; Table 4), grown in open field plantation, with low water 356 input and soil contamination. 357

		Seasonal	Peak	Seasonal	Annual	
Species (cultivar)	Country	ET	K _{ET}	K _{ET}	K _{ET}	Ref.
S. miyabeana (SX67)	Canada	2785 mm	5.5	4.1	2.5	1
S. viminalis (Bjorn, Tora,	Denmark	1113 mm	-	-	2.5	2
Jorr)						
S. viminalis	Ireland	669 mm	5.1	3.0	-	3
S. cinereal	Belgium	-	6.7	-	-	4
S. miyabeana (9882-34,	USA	515 mm	1.4	1.2	_	5
9870-23, SX61, SX64)						

Table 4. Evapotranspiration results obtained for fast growth willow cultivars in treatment wetland conditions (A) compared to results obtained for a plantation of Japanese willow (B)

Note: 1: present article; 2: Gregersen & Brix, 2001; 3: Curneen & Gill, 2014, 4: Kučerová et al., 2001; 5: Mirck & Volk, 2009.

358 Average seasonal ET rates reported for other fast growing willow cultivars grown in field

plantation are also generally much lower than our results (1.4 mm/d, Linderson et al., 2007;

360 3.0 mm/d, Lindroth et al., 1994; 2.9 mm/d, Personn, 1995; 1.0 mm/d, Mata-Gonzalez; 3.1

361 mm/d, Budny and Benscoter, 2012). In comparison, similar rates (from 10 to 23 mm/d)

362 were measured for young *S. babylonica* grown in water saturated conditions in the north-

eastern United States (Pauliukonis *et al.*, 2001). Such high ET rates can be explained by

both enhancing factors linked to the treatment wetland itself (*i.e.* oasis and clothesline

effect, high water availability, important border effect) and by *S. miyabeana* ecophysiology

366 (*i.e.* high stomatal conductance and leaf area index).

367 In this study, a simple model based mainly on two leaf parameters was sufficient to model

- ET. As expected, the model ET results were lower than the water balance results in 2016
- 369 (see section 2.4). However, 2017 simulation results closely resembled water balance
- 370 results. The fact that our simplified ET model yielded conclusive results supports our

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371	premise that typical ET limiting factors are greatly attenuated in small wetlands. Other
372	studies presenting ET modelling methods for willows often include several limiting factors
373	(Irmak et al., 2013, Iritz et al., 2001), ignore heat advection effect (Přibáň and Ondok,
374	1986) or focus on soil hydrology (Personn, 1995, Hartwich et al., 2016; Borek et al., 2010)
375	or complex physiological processes (Tallis et al., 2013). Although based on sound scientific
376	assumptions, those models hardly apply in treatment wetland conditions where water level
377	is constant, limitations are attenuated and heat advection effect is very important. The few
378	input parameters required for the operation of the model also represent an opportunity for
379	managers working with treatment wetlands to easily include ET estimation in their planning
380	activities. However, to be used for other taxa, a basic knowledge of the LAI dynamic and
381	general stomatal conductance for the species is needed, and could require additional \bar{g}_{s}
382	measurement in the field to adjust the model.
383	Regarding ET related characteristics specific to S. miyabeana, we found that mean stomatal
384	conductance (0.4 mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹) was consistent with published results for other willows (0.4
385	mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹ , Budny and Benscoter, 2016; 0.2-0.7 mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹ , Hall <i>et al.</i> , 1998) or higher
386	(0.2 mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹ , Kučerová <i>et al.</i> , 2001). Leaf area index values were higher than those
387	reported in the literature for other willow cultivars, even when using the projected canopy
388	area for the calculation (Figure 8).

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389



Figure 8. Maximal leaf area index (LAI) reported for willow stands (different cultivars) in various
 studies including the present results, and the corresponding value adjusted with projected canopy
 area.

As for stomatal conductance, it is also interesting to note that the highest mean daily value 393 measured (661 mmol $m^{-2} s^{-1}$) is much higher than the values proposed for deciduous trees 394 and even plants from wet habitats (Jones, 2013). The ratio between the conductance of the 395 upper and lower side of the leaf is consistent with the literature predicting higher adaxial 396 activity or adaxial stomatal density in younger leaves (Fontana et al., 2017). Meteorological 397 factors could only explain about half of the stomatal conductance values and variability. 398 Stomatal aperture is also driven by many biochemical and environmental factors (Buckley 399 and Mott, 2013) that were not studied here. Aging of the willows, or negative effects of 400 contaminant accumulation in the substrate are also factors affecting long term variability of 401 \overline{G}_s in a wetland that should be considered. A sampling campaign (data not shown) 402 conducted in June of 2017 in Denmark on S. viminalis clones used for zero-discharge 403 wetlands showed significantly greater stomatal conductance in willows recently coppiced, 404 compared to older individuals growing in the exact same conditions, which supports the 405 aging hypothesis. Those factors should be investigated thoroughly in the future. Leaf area 406

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of the willow wetland attained its maximal value (complete canopy closure) with two-year-407 old shoots, peaking in July at around 12 m^2 of leaves per m² of ground. Planting density 408 and methodological differences could partially explain why LAI of our wetland was very 409 high compared to findings reported in the literature. Furthermore, all results presented in 410 411 Figure 8 are based on field plantation or natural river bands of much greater size than our 412 wetland and the effect of increased leaf area at the border is negligible. Our finding comparing individual leaf area at the edges versus in the center of the wetland is also 413 414 interesting because it means we could modulate ET rate directly in the wetland design. 415 Indeed, if ET is directly related to LAI as demonstrated here, adjusting the edge or aspect 416 ratio of the surface area of a wetland could enhance (higher ratio) or limit (lower ratio) ET 417 per ground unit, according to management objectives. Fertilization applied at the beginning 418 of 2017 seemed to have accelerated the establishment of the leaf cover but did not 419 significantly increase maximal LAI. Since the fertilizer used consisted of solid granules applied directly on the soil, with degradation regulated by rainfall and temperature, it is 420 possible that rapid closure of the canopy and high rain interception by willows prevented 421 422 the fertilizer from appropriately degrading and penetrating the substrate. This hypothesis is supported by the absence of nitrogen in the wetland effluent throughout the season (result 423 not shown). In 2016, the canopy already seemed completely closed by mid-season and it is 424 possible that maximum leaf area index was already attained. Indeed, in 2017, stems grew 425 higher but there was little or no leaf development at the bottom of the stems (as was 426 observed in 2016), probably because canopy closure was achieved and all available light 427 428 was intercepted in the upper part of the trees. Therefore, we conclude that maximal LAI

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was achieved with two-year-old shoots, without a need for fertilization, and that coppicingshould be scheduled on a two-year basis.

431 **5.** Conclusions

S. miyabeana ET in treatment wetland condition was very high throughout this study. We 432 433 highlighted several factors related to treatment wetlands that can significantly increase 434 potential ET. Because there are few limitations on ET in wetlands, a model exclusively based on leaf parameters successfully predicted ET values and calculated crop coefficients 435 436 for the studied willow wetland. Because these results are based on a full-scale wetland, they 437 can be used as design parameters for treatment wetlands using S. miyabeana, and the 438 equation presented for ET calculation can be adjusted for other fast-growing willow species 439 used in similar growing conditions. We also presented a strategy to optimize ET per ground area by changing the aspect ratio of the wetland, and consequently its leaf area index, as 440 well as regularly coppicing the stems. In the future, other parameters possibly affecting ET 441 in treatment wetlands such as tree aging, substrate type and contaminant toxicity could be 442 investigated. This study is a first step towards better ecophysiological characterization of 443 woody plants used in treatment wetlands. 444

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