

1 Calibration of the AquaCrop model for winter wheat using MODIS LAI images

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6 Abstract

7 In semi-arid environments vegetation density and distribution is of considerable importance for the hydrological water
8 balance. A number of hydrological models exploit Leaf Area Index (LAI) maps retrieved by remote sensing as a
9 measure of the vegetation cover, in order to enhance the evaluation of evapotranspiration and interception losses.
10 On the other hand, actual evapotranspiration and vegetation development can be derived through crop growth
11 models, such as AquaCrop, developed by FAO (Food and Agricultural Organization), which allows the simulation of the
12 canopy development of the main field crops. We used MODIS LAI images to calibrate AquaCrop according to the
13 canopy cover development of winter wheat. With this aim we exploited an empirical relationship between LAI and
14 canopy cover. In detail Aquacrop was calibrated with MODIS LAI maps collected between 2008 and 2011, and
15 validated with reference to MODIS LAI maps of 2013-2014 in Rocchetta Sant'Antonio and Sant'Agata, two test sites in
16 the Carapelle watershed, Southern Italy. Results, in terms of evaluation of canopy cover, provided improvements. For
17 example, for Rocchetta Sant'Antonio, the statistical indexes vary from $r = 0.40$, $ER = 0.22$, $RMSE = 17.28$ and $KGE = 0.31$
18 (using the model without calibration), to $r = 0.86$, $ER = 0.08$, $RMSE = 6.01$ and $KGE = 0.85$ (after calibration).

19 1. Introduction

20 Hydrological processes within the Mediterranean area are highly variable both in space and time due to rainy regime,
21 topography, soil conditions and land use (Moussa et al., 2007). In this context, hydrologic distributed models play a
22 key role due to the increasing use of physical information provided by remote sensed data (e.g. Iacobellis et al. 2013).
23 Particularly variables that quantify the development of vegetation cover are useful to estimate evapotranspiration and
24 interception losses as well as in the assessment of soil erosion (van der Knijff et al., 2000; Kamaludin et al., 2013).
25 In this field, the use of crop growth models is crucial in order to optimize agricultural practices and, even more
26 important, in order to model the vegetal cover variations at a yearly scale. Nevertheless their use at regional scale is
27 limited by the need of intensive ground-based datasets that are necessary for calibration and testing. Among many

28 growth models available in literature, that present a large number of variables not easily to compute (**Raes et al.,**
29 **2012**), in this study we used the FAO AquaCrop model. With its reduced number of parameters AquaCrop is
30 characterized by a better balance between simplicity, accuracy and robustness, than other crop models (**Steduto et**
31 **al., 2008**). AquaCrop has been extensively tested across different regions in the world and different crops (e.g.
32 **Ahmadi et al. 2015**). Nevertheless, without specific calibration of main parameters it still shows large uncertainties in
33 the evaluation of important outputs such as actual evapotranspiration, soil moisture and crop yield. In this work we
34 try to enhance the use of AquaCrop at regional scale exploiting the availability of a well established remote sensing
35 product such as the MODIS-LAI images.

36 Remote or proximal sensing techniques that use spectral approaches can provide a rapid identification of water stress
37 through many vegetation indices (**Rinaldi et al, 2014**). Particularly, Leaf Area Index (LAI) and Canopy Cover (CC)
38 assume considerable relevance in the definition of crop development models and ecological processes analysis (**Griffin**
39 **et.al., 2008**).

40 LAI is a dimensionless variable defined as the ratio between the total leaf surface and the leaf surface projected on the
41 ground (**Ross, 1981**). This dynamic index is related to photosynthesis, transpiration surface of forest cover
42 (**Jonckheere et al., 2004**), rainfall interception and energy exchange between vegetation and the atmosphere
43 (**Leuschner et al., 2006**). Accordingly, LAI was also implemented in hydrological modelling, e.g. DREAM model
44 (**Manfreda et al., 2005**). Remote sensing provides the only reliable option for mapping LAI continuously over the globe
45 (Tarantino et al., 2015). LAI retrieval from passive remotely sensed data has been evaluated through semi empirical-
46 statistical approach or with Radiative Transfer Model (RTM) inversion of leaf canopy reflected energy (**Zheng and**
47 **Moskal, 2009**). In the first mentioned approach LAI is estimated through vegetation indices (e.g. **Clevers, 1989; Rouse**
48 **et al., 1974; Stenberg et al., 2004**) while the second one require an inversion of physical based models (e.g.
49 **Darvishzadeh et al., 2008; Fei et al., 2012; Houborg et al., 2015**).

50 In this study LAI maps derived from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS), particularly the
51 MCD15A2 level-4 product were used. The MODIS instrument was designed and developed following the science
52 community objective to collect high temporal resolution global data useful for short/long term environmental studies
53 (**Xiong and Barnes, 2006**). Modis is part of the payload of the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA)
54 Terra and Aqua satellites respectively known also as Earth Observation System (EOS) AM-1 and EOS PM-1. The
55 MCD15A2 level-4 product is available at 1 km spatial resolution and at time-steps of 8-16 days. The algorithm
56 implements a land cover classification where six biome types (respectively grasslands and cereals, shrubs, arable

57 broadleaf, wooded meadows, broadleaf forest and coniferous woodland) are distinguished (**Altobelli et al., 2007**).

58 Each biome represents a pattern of the architecture of an individual tree and the entire canopy as well as patterns of

59 spectral reflectance and transmittance of vegetation elements (**Knyazikhin et al., 1998; Weiss et al., 2000**).

60 CC is defined as the ground fraction covered by the vertical projection of the trees (**Nilson and Kuusk, 2004**), and is

61 commonly expressed in percentage terms (canopy cover percentage, or its inverse, canopy openness percentage). CC

62 is a parameter useful in forest ecology and is used to study the potential risk of fire, watershed, erosion and illegal

63 logging (**Chopping et al., 2008; Ozdemir, 2014**). Both the United Nation of Food and Agriculture (FAO) and the

64 National Land Cover Database (NLCD) used CC to identify tree covered areas (**FAO, 2010; Homer et al., 2007**).

65 LAI and CC are estimated also by growth models. Particularly interesting is the integration of remote sensing data into

66 crop growth models with the aim of improving the accuracy of model simulation (**Dente et al., 2008; Huang et al.,**

67 **2015; Jongschaap, 2006; Mo et al., 2005**). **Maas, 1993** compared the results of calibrating a crop simulation model on

68 winter wheat using LAI observation from field and remote sensing. **Moulin et al., 1998** in a review paper described the

69 relations between crop state variables and satellite observations. **Weiss et al., 2001** described the process of coupling

70 the STICS model (**Brisson et al., 1998**) with the SAIL RTM (**Verhoef, 1984**) and then performed a sensitivity analysis to

71 select crop model parameters that mostly influenced the radiometric signal. **Bach et al., 2001** combined the PROMET-

72 V (**Schneider and Mauser, 2001**) and the SAIL with good results in the estimation of LAI, canopy height and dry

73 biomass. **Doraiswamy et al., 2004** investigated the usefulness of MODIS data both to assess crop condition and in

74 crop simulation model. LAI maps derived both from active and passive sensor were assimilated in **Dente et al., 2008** in

75 order to improve the wheat yield prediction accuracy using the CERES-Wheat model. **Fang et al., 2008** developed a

76 procedure to predict regional crop yield estimation from MODIS data. **Xu et al., 2011** implemented the phenology

77 information derived from the MODIS LAI product in the SWAP model (**Van Dam et al., 1997**) for winter wheat

78 estimation at regional scale. The MODIS LAI product was also used by **Fang et al., 2011** to estimate the corn yield with

79 the CSM-CERES-Maize model model coupled with the MCRM model (**Kuusk, 1998**). **Huang et al., 2015** implemented

80 within the WOFOST model LAI derived from MODIS and LANDSAT TM data to predict winter wheat yield at regional

81 scale.

82 The aim of this paper is to assess the AquaCrop model performances by exploiting the LAI - CC variability of winter

83 durum wheat, which is the predominant type of vegetation in a study area within the Carapelle's catchment, in

84 Southern Italy, using the MODIS images for model calibration and validation. For this purpose, the LAI - CC empirical

85 relationship found by **Nielsen et al. (2012)** was used.

86 Calibration and validation were carried out separately using MODIS low-resolution images: the calibration was
87 developed in 2009-2010 in Rocchetta and between 2008 and 2010 in Sant'Agata, while the validation was carried out
88 in 2013-2014 for both sites.

89 **2. Materials and methods**

90 *2.1 Study area*

91 The test sites are close to the towns of Rocchetta Sant'Antonio and Sant'Agata di Puglia respectively, both in the
92 Carapelle river-basin. Furthermore the Lacedonia weather station, located close to the previous ones, was considered
93 in case of missing data. The main stream of Carapelle originates in the Campanian Apennine, from La Forma
94 Mountain, and flows into the Adriatic Sea. The catchment has a watershed area of 982.6 km² (table 1, figure 1 and
95 figure 2).

96

97 **Fig. 1.** Study area: the Carapelle watershed.

98 **Table 1.** Main characteristics of the Carapelle watershed

99 The river regime is torrential, with streamflow generally high in November and December, dry in July and August. The
100 climate is typically Mediterranean with moderately rainy winters, warm and dry summers. The rainfall range is from
101 477 to 815 mm/year and the average temperatures range from 10 to 16 °C/year. The main cultivations are durum
102 wheat (85% of total basin area), different types of vegetables and olives groves, localized in low hilly and plain areas,
103 while forests and pasture are present in the higher slopes (**Milella et al., 2012**). The size of the two study sites is
104 approximately 1 km² (figure 2).

105

106 **Fig. 2** Position of two work field and LAI-MODIS image of 05/01/2014.

107 *2.2 Model description*

108 AquaCrop (<http://www.fao.org/nr/water/aquacrop.html>) is a software system developed by the Land and Water
109 Division of FAO in order to increase water efficiency practices in agricultural production (**Araya et al. 2010**). AquaCrop
110 uses the first **Doorenbos and Kassam** (1979) equation for the biomass calculation and, finally, the crop yield,
111 proportional to the biomass according to a "harvestable part". The software simulates Biomass B and Yields Y

112 production of agricultural crops, focusing on water stress conditions (**Steduto et al., 2009**). The model is based on the
113 water resource used in transpiration, which results in biomass using a crop-specific conservative parameter (**Geerts et**
114 **al., 2009**).

115 The Stress Coefficients play a key role in the model. They describe the different stress conditions, detected in the crop
116 biomass production (wheat, vegetables). These coefficients “continuously adjust” the computed quantities in each
117 calculation step. They vary between 1 (no stress) and 0 (max stress) (figure 3).

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119 **Fig. 3.** The stress coefficient (Ks) for various degrees of stress and
120 for different shapes of the Ks curve (Raes et al., 2012).

121 The stress coefficients account for soil water, air temperature, soil fertility and salinity. They affect the canopy
122 expansion processes, stomata control of transpiration, canopy senescence and Harvest Index HI.

123 The soil water balance, the green canopy cover, the crop transpiration, the above ground biomass and yield form the
124 software calculation scheme. In the calculation scheme, different parameters operate among the variables above:
125 crop coefficient (kc), Water Productivity (WP) and, finally, Harvest Index (HI). Among these parameters HI plays a key
126 role by partitioning Biomass (B) into Yield (Y). HI grows up linearly in time after a lag phase, up to physiological
127 maturity (**Raes et al., 2012**).

128 The canopy cover is a crucial feature in AquaCrop, because through its expansion, ageing, conductance and
129 senescence, it determines the amount of water transpired (Tr), which in turns determines the amount of biomass
130 produced (B) and the final yield (Y) (**Raes et al., 2012**).

131 Reference Evapotranspiration is preliminarily evaluated to calculate Transpiration using the FAO ET₀ calculator. The
132 Penman-Monteith formula is used (equation 1):

$$133 \quad ET_0 = \frac{0.408\Delta(R_n - G) + \gamma \frac{900}{T + 273} u_2 (e_s - e_a)}{\Delta + \gamma(1 + 0.34u_2)} \quad 1$$

134 where ET₀ is the reference evapotranspiration [mm day⁻¹], R_n net radiation at the crop surface [MJ m⁻² day⁻¹], G soil
135 heat flux density [MJ m⁻² day⁻¹], T mean daily air temperature at 2 m height [°C], u₂ wind speed at 2 m height [m s⁻¹], e_s
136 saturation vapour pressure [kPa], e_a actual vapour pressure [kPa], e_s-e_a saturation vapour pressure deficit [kPa], D
137 slope vapour pressure curve [kPa °C⁻¹], γ psychrometric constant [kPa °C⁻¹]. ET₀ is related to the actual vegetation

138 cover through the crop coefficient k_c , which depends on crop type, sowing or planting period, duration of crop
139 development stages and growing period under prevailing climatic conditions (**Semaika and Rady, 1987**).

140 The software comprises four separate workplaces: Environment and Crop, Simulation, Project, Field Data. The data
141 are contained in specific files, including climate, crop, soil and management (irrigation), initial soil water condition
142 (**Raes et al., 2009**). The basic measurement unit for simulations follows a thermal approach in °C at temporal daily
143 scale, the GDD (Growing Degree Days).

144 AquaCrop uses a relatively small number of explicit and very intuitive parameters trying to balance simplicity, accuracy
145 and robustness (**Andarzian et al, 2011**). **Raes et al. (2009)** describe the software operation in detail. Moreover a
146 complete model description is provided by **Steduto et al. (2009)**.

147 *2.3 Data acquisition*

148 The Aquacrop crop growth software requires detailed physical, land use and climate data. GeoEye high-resolution
149 (2m) (**Aquilino et al., 2014**) and MODIS low resolution (1km) remote sensing data were used to calibrate and validate
150 the model.

151 The climate inputs are rainfall, air temperature and wind speed. Time series of rainfall, temperature and wind speed,
152 recorded by the Civil Protection Agency of Regione Puglia, are available. For this study, daily data on rainfall, minimum
153 and maximum temperature from Sant'Agata and Rocchetta stations, and mean daily wind speed from anemometric
154 Biccari station were used. The use of thermometer and rain gauge stations was assessed by using the Thiessen
155 weighting procedure.

156 In case of missing data, regression formulas between the main station of Rocchetta and that of Lacedonia, located
157 very close one to the other, were used. The results showed a strong correlation in terms of rainfall and minimum and
158 maximum temperature of the two sites (figure 4 a, b, c). Good correlation exists also between Sant'Agata and
159 Lacedonia for rainfall (figure 4 d).

160

161 **Fig. 4.** Rocchetta-Lacedonia a), b), c), Sant'Agata-Lacedonia regression d).

162 The reference evapotranspiration was estimated by the Penman-Monteith equation, which requires the measures of
163 temperature, humidity of air, solar radiation and wind speed. These climatic quantities, not directly available, were
164 derived from temperature and wind speed, as described in **Allen et al.(1998)**.

165 Land use and vegetal coverage were obtained from the Puglia Information System SIT, at the website
166 http://www.sit.puglia.it/portal/portale_cartografie_tecniche_tematiche/Download/Cartografie, at 1:5000 scale.

167 Soil parameters such as the textural classes, saturated hydraulic conductivity, soil depths and porosity were extracted
168 from the ACLA2 project (scale 1:100,000), a research program funded by the Puglia region and aimed at agro-
169 ecological characterization of the region on the basis of laboratory tests, field observation and photo interpretation of
170 aerial photograph and satellite images (**Caliandro et al., 2005**).

171 The texture classes were found using the USDA textural triangle. The hydraulic soil properties (the volumetric soil
172 moisture contents at saturation (θ_{max}), wilting point (θ_{wp}) and field capacity (θ_{FC}), hydraulic conductivity at saturation
173 (k_s)) were estimated using the Saxton and Rawls (**Saxton and Rawls, 1986, 2006**) pedotransfer functions, which are
174 implemented in a calculator at the website <http://hrsl.ba.ars.usda.gov/soilwater/Index.htm>. The second level Saxton
175 and Rawls algorithm (according to the classification of **Ungaro and Calzolari, 2001**) starts from clay (C) and sand (S)
176 weight percentages, and from organic matter (OM), which is related to organic carbon content (OC) when direct
177 measurements are not available. These quantities are freely available on the website
178 http://eusoils.jrc.ec.europa.eu/ESDB_Archive/octop/octop_data.html, at a resolution of 1 km.

179 The Organic Matter is related to Organic Carbon with equation (2)

$$180 \quad OM = OC \cdot 1.724 \quad 2$$

181 The MODIS images (MODerate resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) are freely available on the NASA website
182 (https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/products/modis_products_table). The MODIS images (hdf-eos format) are processed by the
183 Reprojection MODIS tool, freely available on the USGS EROS Data Center website
184 (https://lpdaac.usgs.gov/tools/modis_reprojection_tool).

185 High-resolution GeoEye images were acquired for the 13/05/2009 scene in Sant'Agata and for the 29/04/2010 scene
186 for both Rocchetta and Sant'Agata. Previous studies demonstrated the compatibility of LAI retrieved through very high
187 spatial resolution satellite data with MODIS LAI data (**Aquilino et al., 2014; Tarantino et al., 2015**).

188 *2.4 LAI-Canopy Cover relationships*

189 The leaf area index (LAI) and the canopy cover percentage are two expressions of the vegetation cover and become
190 relevant in the crop development models and the ecological processes analysis (**Griffin et.al., 2008**).

191 LAI is a positive variable and its values depend on several factors, such as climate, water availability and development
192 stages. A LAI value equal to zero represents the bare soil, while high values account for a dense vegetation cover.

193 LAI values are obtained by MODIS and GeoEye images while AquaCrop evaluates the Green Canopy Cover.
194 For this reason, a relationship between these two variables which depend on the crop/vegetation types, the water
195 supply type (irrigation or not), the crop density and the management practices, the seasonal and inter-annual
196 variability, is needed.

197 Many authors proposed several conversion equations for specific crop/vegetation and relative canopy architecture,
198 **(Buckley et al., 1999,; Wang et al., 2005; Hsiao et al., 2009, Nielsen et al., 2012)**

199 In this study, the empirical relationship (3) proposed by **Nielsen et al., (2012)** was applied as it is referred to a winter
200 wheat crop:

$$201 \quad CC = 94.00 * [1 - \exp(-0.43 * LAI)]^{0.52}$$

3

202 with $R^2=0.957$

203 *2.5 Calibration/Validation process*

204 Any model should be carefully parameterized, calibrated and validated before its practical use **(Addiscott et al., 1995;**
205 **Nain and Kerebaum, 2007, Biondi et al., 2012)**. During parameterization and calibration, the model's parameters and
206 even the code may be changed in order to obtain accurate simulated values versus the observed data. In contrast,
207 during validation, the model is run without any modification of the model's parameters or code, which is compared to
208 independent experimental data **(Nain and Kersebaum, 2007; Salazar et al., 2009)**.

209 AquaCrop is designed to be widely applied under different climatic and soil conditions, without particular crop
210 parameterizations **(Hsiao et al., 2012)**. The parameters used in the model are subdivided into conservative
211 parameters, constant according to the boundary conditions, and parameters based on location, crop cultivars and
212 management practices. However many of the conservative parameters are obtained from modern high-yielding
213 cultivars grown with optimal soil fertility without limitations from any mineral nutrient, particularly nitrogen **(Hsiao et**
214 **al., 2012)**. Moreover, there are also parameters of cultivar-specific type, i.e. parameters similar to the conservative
215 ones, which present slight variations within the same crop species, due to different cultivar classes. During calibration
216 the available calibrated parameters are used as a starting point and are adjusted by means of local measurements.

217 The Canopy Cover time series is used to calibrate the model. By its expansion, development and senescence, the
218 transpired water quantity is obtained, which subsequently determines the Biomass production.

219 Hence the simulated CCs are compared to the corresponding observed values. The parameters affecting the CC
220 development are: plant density, initial canopy cover (CCo), time from sowing to emergence, time from sowing to

221 senescence, time from sowing to maturity, maximum canopy cover (CC_x), canopy growth coefficient (CGC), canopy
222 decline coefficient (CDC) and maximum effective rooting depth (Z_x).

223 Canopy development is simulated by two equations:

224 Equation 1 (exponential growth) is valid when $CC \leq CC_x/2$

$$225 \quad CC = CC_0 e^{tCGC} \quad 4$$

226 Equation 2 (exponential decay) is valid when $CC > CC_x/2$

$$227 \quad CC = CC_x - 0.25 \frac{(CC_x)^2}{CC_0} e^{-tCGC} \quad 5$$

228 where t is the time, (**Raes et al., 2012**).

229 We started from the parameter values available in scientific literature about the wheat grown in the Carapelle basin
230 to determine the phenological phases, while with regard to the other parameters the default values of the crop
231 calibrated within the software were used as the starting point. The calibration was carried out following a trial and
232 error technique, varying the calibration parameters and evaluating the differences between simulation and MODIS-
233 observation data.

234 The soil water content at the beginning of the simulation was chosen as the minimum value reached after the summer
235 dry season and was assumed to be equal to the permanent wilting point, PWP.

236 *2.6 Performance metrics*

237 We used several statistical indices for model calibration and validation, such as the root mean square error (RMSE),
238 relative error (ER), linear correlation coefficient (r), relative variability, relative bias and Kling-Gupta Efficiency (KGE).

239 The root mean square error is given by (6):

$$240 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(P_i - O_i)^2}{n}} \quad 6$$

241 where O_i and P_i are the observed and predicted values (MODIS measures and simulated respectively), and n the
242 number of observations. A disadvantage of RMSE lies in that the residual errors are calculated as squared values,
243 which means that higher values in a time series are given greater weight than lower values (**Legates and McCabe,**
244 **1999**).

245 The relative error (ER%) (equation 7):

$$246 \quad ER = \frac{P_i - O_i}{O_i} \quad 7$$

247 **Gupta et al. (2009)** highlighted some critical points related to the performance metrics most used in hydrology, i.e.
248 the NSE and RMSE. They showed that NSE (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970) can be broken down into three distinctive
249 components and namely: the linear correlation (r) between simulations and observations, the bias normalized by the
250 standard deviation in the observed values and a measure of relative variability in the simulated and observed values
251 (α). Gupta et al. (2009) proposed the Kling–Gupta efficiency defined as (8, 9, 10):

$$252 \quad \alpha = \sigma_s / \sigma_o \quad 8$$

$$253 \quad \beta = \mu_s / \mu_o \quad 9$$

$$254 \quad KGE = 1 - \sqrt{(r - 1)^2 + (\alpha - 1)^2 + (\beta - 1)^2} \quad 10$$

255 where σ is the standard deviation and μ is the mean value (with subscript “s” for simulations and “o” for
256 observations), α is the relative variability and β is the relative bias.

257 **3 Results and discussion**

258 *3.1 Calibration*

259 In the table 2 the the soil properties and the hydraulic soil properties_used to run the model are reported for
260 Rocchetta Sant'Antonio and Sant'Agata di Puglia.

261 Table 2. **Soil properties of Rocchetta Sant'Antonio and Sant'Agata di Puglia.**

262 In table 3 the values assigned to specific model parameters are reported both for Rocchetta Sant'Antonio and
263 Sant'Agata di Puglia.

264 **Table 3** Values assigned to specific model parameters to simulate the responses of winter wheat in Rocchetta Sant'Antonio and Sant'Agata di Puglia.
265 L means that the value has been taken as default or from literature; C if it comes from calibration.

266 Figure 5 shows the CC values simulated by Aquacrop after calibration and those obtained from the MODIS images in
267 2009-2010 where the model simulates accurately the CC behavior.

268 The calibration of Sant'Agata was more accurate inasmuch as there are two years of observations. Moreover, in 2008-
269 2009 the CC values are lower than in 2009-2010 as shown in Figure 6 and 7, where both the CC simulated values and
270 those obtained from the MODIS images are reported. In the same figures the data obtained from the high resolution
271 GeoEye sensor data are reported. These images refer to April 29 2010 both for Rocchetta and Sant'Agata and to May

272 13 2009 for Sant'Agata. The model seems to provide an almost systematic overestimation in 2008-2009 simulations
273 and is more in line for the years 2009-2010.

274 In the entire investigation period, the average CC values of Rocchetta were found to be higher than those in
275 Sant'Agata, probably due to the different topographical exposure conditions of the two sites.

276 A good fit was observed in all the simulations, but after the flowering stage we noticed that senescence was slightly
277 faster compared to simulations, in agreement with the comments by **Andarzian et al., 2011**. The reason for this
278 behaviour may be due to the effect of high-temperature stress on CC, which is not considered in the model
279 (**Andarzian et al.,2011**).

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283 **Fig. 5.** Simulated and Observed CC of winter wheat in Rocchetta Sant'Antonio 2009-2010.

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285 **Fig. 6.** Simulated and Observed CC of winter wheat in Sant'Agata di Puglia 2008-2009.

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287 **Fig. 7.** Simulated and Observed CC of winter wheat in Sant'Agata di Puglia 2009-2010.

288 The statistical indices are reported in table 4:

289 **Table 4.** Statistical parameters of calibrated and validated points.

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291 The production of Biomass (B) and Yield (Y) seems overestimated with respect to the amounts usually obtained in
292 these areas (table 5), which, according to local producers, range between 3.5 and 5 ton/ha (**Quaranta et al.2015**).

293 **Table 5.** Biomass and Yield of calibrated and validated points.

294 Statistical indexes are good in all simulations, particularly for Sant'Agata 2009-2010, in which all the efficiency indices
295 achieve excellent values, as for example, RMSE which achieves the average value of 9 % (table 4 and figures 8, 9, and
296 10). In figures 8, 9 and 10 the relative error referred to each MODIS image is reported, while table 4 shows the mean
297 relative error referred to all the simulation.

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Fig. 8. Relative Error in calibration Rocchetta Sant'Antonio 2009-2010.

Fig. 9. Relative Error in calibration Sant'Agata di Puglia 2008-2009.

Fig. 10. Relative Error in calibration Sant'Agata di Puglia 2009-2010.

3.2 Validation

The validation step was carried out with reference to the period 2013-2014. In order to assess the improvements made through the previous calibration phase, the model results were compared with those obtained with model runs in which default values for the winter wheat in AquaCrop were used. The simulation runs with default values for Rocchetta are indicated with ValenzanoP1 while those for Sant'Agata with ValenzanoP2. The results are shown in Figures 11 and 12.

By analyzing time series graphics and statistical indices (table 4) we observe that significant improvements are provided by calibration in both sites. The relative error decreases from 0.22 to 0.08 for Rocchetta and from 0.38 to 0.19 for Sant'Agata. The RMSE also shows a decrement from 17.28 to 6.01 for Rocchetta, and from 30.29 to 12.27 for Sant'Agata. A better performance was noticed even when looking at α and β values.

Fig. 11. Comparison between Simulated and Observed CC of winter wheat of Rocchetta Sant'Antonio a), b) and ValenzanoP1 c), d) in 2014 (validation).

Fig. 12. Comparison between Simulated and Observed CC of winter wheat of Sant'Agata di Puglia a), b) and ValenzanoP2 c), d) in 2014 (validation).

When observing the relative error time series, average improvements of about 20% are recorded for both study sites (figures 13a), b)).

The default winter wheat within AquaCrop leads to an overestimation of the CC performance (Figure 13 c), d)) in agreement with Hsiao et al., 2012.

324 **Fig. 13.** Simulated, Measured, Valenzano for Rocchetta Sant'Antonio a) and Sant'Agata di Puglia b). Comparison of Relative Error in validation
325 between Rocchetta c) and Sant'Agata d) with ValenzanoP1 and ValenzanoP2.

326 Finally, Biomass and Yield (table 5) show lower values using calibration than the default AquaCrop cultivation, so they
327 are closer to the quantities obtained for the 2014 yield, which is approximately 4.5 ton/ha based on information
328 collected in the areas under study and according to what reported by **Quaranta et al.(2015)**. Also in this case the
329 highest yields are due to the **Hsiao et al. 2012** conditions and the highest trends of CC, which are reflected firstly in B
330 and secondly in Y (equations 11, 12):

$$331 \quad B = K_S WP \sum (T_r / ET_0) \quad 11$$

$$332 \quad Y = f_{HI} HI_0 B \quad 12$$

333 where the Transpiration T_r is directly proportional to CC development.

334 **4 Conclusions**

335 Remote sensing images are a useful support to model applications, as they allow qualitative and quantitative
336 investigation of objects placed on the earth. In this study the satellite images were used as a support tool for crop
337 phenological cycle calibration. In detail, satellite LAI MODIS data, converted into canopy cover, were compared both in
338 calibration and in validation with AquaCrop model outputs. It is worth mentioning that such comparison involves the
339 use of a relationship between LAI and CC. With this purpose we used an empirical LAI-CC relationship and noticed that
340 few studies are available on this field which deserves further investigation.

341 The results show that the AquaCrop model gives good estimations of the canopy cover development of winter wheat
342 in two locations in Southern Italy. Remote sensing has provided an important tool to perform calibration, and the
343 convergence of LAI values from high-resolution GeoEye images with the low resolution MODIS images effectively
344 checked the reliability of information obtained by MODIS images.

345 A local calibration of the parameters within the model, which is possible and made easier by the low number of
346 parameters required in the model, is therefore recommended.

347 Furthermore a model calibrated based on CC, shows also yield results consistent with real winter wheat productivity
348 in the study area.

349 Finally, as positive feedback, the use of calibration techniques based on remote sensing may improve the integrated
350 use of models like AquaCrop together with distributed models at basin scale.

351 Such an integrated approach may lead to important improvements in the evaluation of wheat yield at the regional
352 scale. Also, a combined use of crop growth models with hydrological distributed models could be useful in order to
353 improve the phenomenology description and to obtain acceptable estimates of each hydrologic balance component,
354 such as, for example, a space and temporal variability of soil moisture.

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