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1 Introducing and expanding cover crops at the watershed scale:
2 impact on water flows

3

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9

10 **Keywords:** ecosystem services, green water, blue water, water deficit, modelling, water
11 withdrawals, irrigation

12

13 **Abstract**

14 Cover crops have multiple benefits, such as improving water quality, providing a green manure effect,
15 and storing carbon in the soil. They can, however, reduce drainage significantly during key periods of
16 hydrosystem recharge, especially in winter. The objective of this study was to evaluate the influence
17 of cover crops and/or crop diversification at the watershed scale on water in the downstream
18 watershed of the Aveyron River, based on three scenarios with different management practices. It is
19 an illustrative case study of situations of water imbalance involving 1150 farms, with agricultural fields
20 covering 40,000 ha, of which ca. 40% may be irrigated. The MAELIA model was used to simulate 10
21 years (2007-2016) of dynamics to estimate the influence of cover crops on water flows. Simulations
22 showed that short-duration cover crops terminated in autumn generally had little influence on water:
23 they decreased drainage slightly in autumn, but the recharge in winter compensated for this decrease

24 and thus did not influence the water dynamics or yields of the succeeding cash crops. Although long-
25 duration cover crops grow for a longer period and are sown more frequently in fields, they also had
26 relatively little influence on water in the region, except for decreasing drainage. A scenario with long-
27 duration cover crops and diversification of rotations was a good compromise for quantitative water
28 management. Diversifying rotations, notably by replacing maize with crops that required less water,
29 compensated for potential negative effects of long-duration cover crops. Although this scenario
30 increased variability depending on the weather year and reduced autumn drainage, it influenced
31 irrigation withdrawals and river flows little over the 10-year period. However, greater variability
32 occurred at the field scale, where cover crops can have more influence. Thus, it is important to adapt
33 the management practices for cover crops in rotations to decrease negative effects, particularly on
34 water availability, which could increase withdrawals in an area that already has a water deficit, and
35 not to decrease yields and thus farmers' profits. Our results are valid for the study area, but these
36 scenarios should be extrapolated to other soil and climate conditions and other rotations and
37 management systems.

38

39 1. Introduction

40 Cover crops are commonly grown during the fallow period between two main cash crops to provide
41 ecosystem services, such as i) water quality regulation by reducing nitrate leaching (Abdalla et al.,
42 2019; Ascott et al., 2017; Justes et al., 2012), ii) nitrogen supply through the “green manure” effect
43 (Thorup-Kristensen et al., 2003; Tonitto et al., 2006), iii) climate change regulation by storing soil
44 carbon (Launay et al., 2021; Poeplau and Don, 2015) and reducing greenhouse gas emissions (Kaye and
45 Quemada, 2017; Plaza-Bonilla et al., 2017; Tribouillois et al., 2018a), v) erosion regulation due to
46 continuous protection of soil in winter (Dabney et al., 2001; Langdale et al., 1991; Ryder and Fares,
47 2008), and vi) pest, disease, and weed regulation and biodiversity maintenance (Schipanski et al.,

48 2014). However, Meyer et al. (2019) highlighted that the influence of these multiple services of cover
49 crops on water-balance components remains little studied.

50 Water resources in ecosystems are usually classified into two categories: blue water (from lakes, rivers,
51 oceans, and groundwater) and green water (precipitation stored in the soil and returned to the
52 atmosphere through evapotranspiration) (Falkenmark and Rockström, 2006). Rainfed agriculture uses
53 only green water, while irrigated agriculture uses both green and blue water (Liu et al., 2009). The
54 review of Meyer et al. (2019) highlighted that cover crops may have reduced drainage compared to
55 that under bare soil in 90% of the cases studied (by a mean of 27 mm), but with high variability among
56 soils, climates, and cropping systems. Accordingly, introducing cover crops during the fallow period
57 can create an antagonism between the increase in evapotranspiration (green water) due to the cover
58 crops and a decrease in drainage and groundwater recharge (blue water). An intrinsic biophysical
59 relation exists between evapotranspiration and drainage: when the amount of water evapotranspired
60 by plants increases, the amount of water drained decreases. Cover crops can also reduce the water
61 content of the soil and thus the water available for the succeeding crop (Meyer et al., 2019). Thus,
62 even though cover crops provide multiple services, introducing them in a watershed that has a strong
63 water deficit could negatively impact water resources and the water available for succeeding cash
64 crops, and potentially increase irrigation withdrawals, thus placing more strain on water management
65 in the watershed. Thus, introducing cover crops could yield serious disservices for water cycles at the
66 watershed scale, particularly if applied to a large area. To our knowledge, no study has focused on the
67 influence of cover crops on water cycles at the watershed scale, even though it is the relevant scale at
68 which to assess their interactions with water resources. Due to the difficulty in performing experiments
69 at such a large scale, model-based assessment is the main way to investigate the complexity of these
70 interactions (e.g. Alcamo et al., 2003; Letcher et al., 2006; Murgue et al., 2014b; Zhang and Guo, 2016).
71 The present study combined scenarios and an integrated modelling approach to evaluate the influence
72 of introducing cover crops on drainage, irrigation of cash crops, river water flows, and cash crop yields
73 at the watershed scale. Our case study was the downstream Aveyron watershed, located in south-

74 western France. The watershed experiences strong, recurring water deficits (Martin et al. 2016) that
75 are due in particular to large withdrawals to irrigate maize, a predominant crop in the watershed. We
76 used MAELIA (Therond et al., 2014), an integrated assessment and modelling platform that can
77 represent fine-scale spatiotemporal interactions among crop management, the hydrology of different
78 water resources, and water-resource management (i.e. dam releases and regulations) within
79 watersheds (Gaudou et al., 2014; Murgue et al., 2014). The model represents daily water withdrawals
80 and crop management at the field scale. We used MAELIA to assess three contrasting scenarios:
81 introducing short-duration cover crops, long-duration cover crops, or long-duration cover crops
82 combined with diversified rotations.

83 The overall objective of this work is to assess the impact of the introduction of cover crops on the main
84 water flows in the investigated watershed: water withdrawals for irrigation, drainage and river flows.
85 Our hypothesis is that the introduction of long-cover crops with spring termination should have a
86 greater effect on these variables than the scenario with short-cover crop and autumn termination.
87 Another objective of this study is to assess effects of a scenario integrating more agroecological
88 practices i.e. the combination of long-cover crops and diversified rotations.

89

90

91 2. Materials and methods

92 2.1 Case study overview

93 The downstream Aveyron watershed is an illustrative case study of situations of water imbalance in
94 which low water inputs combine with high agricultural demand for irrigation water. The watershed is
95 located in the Adour-Garonne basin, which has the largest structural deficit of water in France (7
96 $\text{hm}^3\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$, on average). The study watershed area is part of this basin; it covers ca. 800 km^2 and contains
97 many irrigated farming systems, which account for up to 80% of total water consumption during the
98 low-flow period (June-September) (Mazzega et al., 2014). For Aveyron withdrawal, annual irrigation

99 withdrawals are observed in the order of $13 \text{ hm}^3.\text{yr}^{-1}$. The watershed contains 1150 farms, with
100 agricultural fields covering 40,000 ha, of which ca. 40% is irrigated (according to the French Land Parcel
101 Identification System, 2014). The main cash crops are maize (*Zea mays* L.) (six cultivars, from very early
102 to very late precocity), wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.), oilseeds with mainly sunflower (*Helianthus*
103 *annuus* L.), and a few protein crops as pea (*Pisum sativum* L.). The watershed also contains fields of
104 fruit crops and seed maize, which has a high added value. Two main rivers cross the watershed: the
105 Aveyron and Lère. They have a measured annual flow of $35 \text{ m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}$ and $2 \text{ m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}$ respectively, falling to
106 around $7 \text{ m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}$ and $0.7 \text{ m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}$ in average during the low-flow period. Moreover, their flow rates
107 frequently drop below the target regulatory thresholds (4.0 and $0.1 \text{ m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}$, respectively) established to
108 ensure aquatic ecosystem health. Irrigation demand and the resulting withdrawals strongly influence
109 river flow dynamics. When a flow rate drops below the threshold, water managers use two main
110 mechanisms: restrictions on irrigation withdrawals and flow-support releases from large collective
111 reservoirs (Murgue et al., 2015). The number of days with flow rates below the low-flow target thus
112 indicates the degree of potential restriction of irrigation.

113 We studied a 10-year period (2007-2016) using daily SAFRAN climate data ($8 \times 8 \text{ km}$ grid) (Vidal et al.,
114 2010) that covered the entire watershed. Over the study period, mean cumulative annual precipitation
115 and potential evapotranspiration were 757 and 849 mm, respectively, with a mean annual water deficit
116 of 91 mm. The daily mean minimum and maximum temperatures were 9.0 and 17.2°C , respectively.
117 The years 2011 and 2015 were the driest (547 and 673 mm of precipitation, respectively), with an
118 annual water deficit of more than 300 mm. For the low-flow period from June to September, 2009,
119 2012, and 2016 were the driest, with a water deficit of more than 300 mm.

120

121 2.2 MAELIA model overview

122 MAELIA was developed to study environmental and socioeconomic impacts of water-management
123 strategies (Martin et al., 2016; Murgue et al., 2015, 2014). It was developed in an open-source generic

124 modelling and simulation environment: GAMA[®] (Grignard et al., 2013). MAELIA simulates, at a daily
125 time step, multi-scale interactions among the following:

- 126 1) agriculture, i.e. soil-crop dynamics (crop growth, yield, irrigation, and soil water dynamics), at
127 the field scale using the AqYield model (Constantin et al., 2015; Tribouillois et al., 2018b), and
128 farmer behaviour using a farmer-as-agent model to represent crop management (Murgue et
129 al., 2014)
- 130 2) hydrology of rivers, reservoirs, and groundwater using SWAT (Arnold et al., 2010) algorithms
131 (Martin et al., 2016)
- 132 3) domestic and industrial water uses using econometric equations (Therond et al., 2014)
- 133 4) water-management practices such as withdrawal restrictions and water-release decisions
134 (Mazzege et al., 2014; Olivier Therond et al., 2014)

135 In the agriculture module, AqYield simulates crop growth based on cumulative mean daily effective
136 temperature, and soil water content is predicted daily as the balance of water inputs and outputs. All
137 cash crops currently in the study watershed have been calibrated in AqYield, which is considered
138 sufficiently accurate to represent the dynamics of soil water content and evapotranspiration well for
139 a wide range of situations (Constantin et al., 2015; Tribouillois et al., 2018b). Detailed description and
140 equations of AqYield can be found in previous studies (Constantin et al., 2015; Tribouillois et al.,
141 2018b). Five cover crop species were simulated in MAELIA to construct alternative scenarios: vetch
142 (*Vicia sativa* L.), faba bean (*Vicia faba* L.), rapeseed (*Brassica napus* L.), white mustard (*Sinapis alba* L.),
143 and Italian ryegrass (*Lolium multiflorum* Lam.). These cover crop species were calibrated in AqYield
144 based on several experimental databases for sites with contrasting soil and climate across France. The
145 calibration ensured that AqYield accurately predicted soil water dynamics under the five cover crops
146 for different soils and climates.

147 In MAELIA, AqYield simulates interactions between soil water content and crop growth in each field by
148 considering the crop rotation identified in the French Land Parcel Identification System (Murgue et al.,
149 2016; Martin et al., 2016). The farmer's behaviour for each field of each farm is represented through

150 IF-THEN decision rules that describe the conditions that trigger tillage, seeding, irrigation, and harvest.
151 In addition, a temporal window that defines early and late dates for triggers is defined for each
152 technical operation. Irrigation decision rules, based on the climate, soil type, irrigation equipment, and
153 available workforce, determine the amounts and dates of water supplied to each irrigated field on
154 each irrigated farm. The decision rules for this case study were collected in a previous study using a
155 dedicated farm survey (Murgue et al., 2015). Based on local databases, expert knowledge, and
156 geographic information system analysis, each irrigated field is connected to one or more water sources
157 (i.e. river(s) or reservoir(s)) (Murgue et al., 2015).

158 The hydrology of the watershed's surface water and groundwater was simulated using the soil and
159 routing phases of SWAT (Arnold et al., 2010), which have been recoded in MAELIA. In the water-
160 management module, IF-THEN decision rules are used to simulate daily management of dam releases
161 and withdrawal restrictions (Mayor et al., 2012; Mazzega et al., 2014). These decision rules were
162 determined using information from regional authorities about current practices. Four dams are
163 available in the watershed to increase river flow rates during the low-flow period. More information
164 about MAELIA can be found in previous studies (Martin et al., 2016; Murgue et al., 2016; Therond et
165 al., 2014).

166

167 2.3 The reference scenario

168 The current situation was considered the reference scenario. Specific modules of MAELIA, as well as
169 the entire model, were calibrated and validated in previous studies of the Aveyron watershed, using
170 quantitative and qualitative expert-based approaches (Constantin et al., 2015; Martin et al., 2016;
171 Murgue et al., 2016; Tribouillois et al., 2018b; Tribouillois et al., 2022). Results of these studies
172 highlighted the model's ability to simulate water-related variables accurately at the field scale (i.e. soil
173 water content, evapotranspiration, and drainage) and the watershed scale (i.e. irrigation withdrawals
174 and river flows) as a function of the climate. More specifically, the predictive quality of MAELIA was
175 previously assessed from measured data as satisfactory for estimating the volume of irrigation

176 withdrawals and the flow of the two rivers of the same watershed (Tribouillois et al., 2022). Local
 177 experts also validated the results of simulated crop-management practices (e.g. sowing dates, first and
 178 last dates of irrigation) (Murgue et al., 2016).

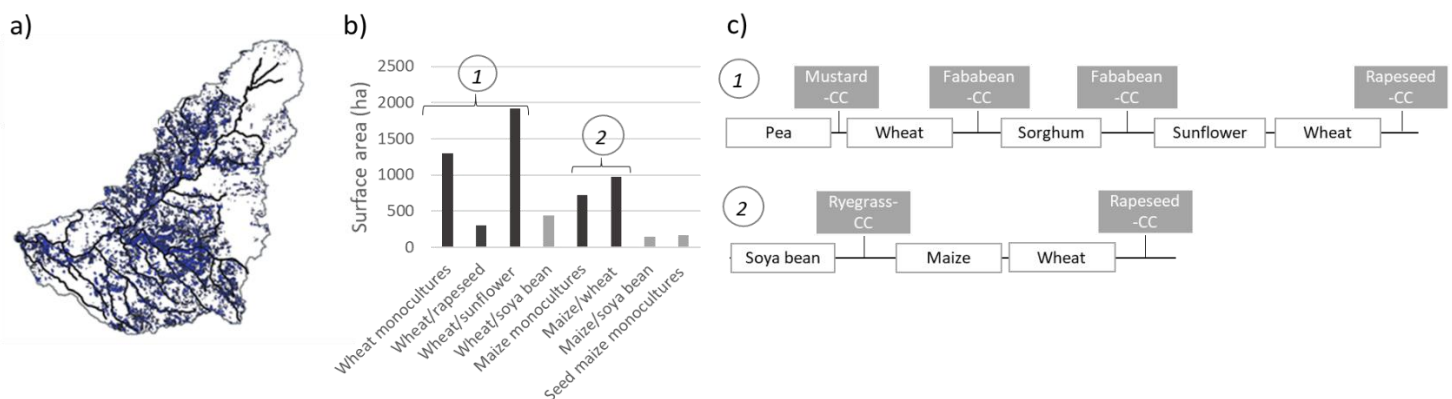
179

180 2.4 Alternative scenarios

181 We developed three alternative scenarios at the watershed scale to investigate the influence of cover
 182 crops on water cycles (Fig. 1). Some management rules for cover crops were applied to all three
 183 scenarios:

- 184 1) Cover crops were sown as early as possible beginning from 1 August to promote emergence
 185 and development (due to the potential for thunderstorms in August) or from 7 days after
 186 harvesting the previous crop.
- 187 2) Cover crops were terminated three days before beginning tillage or, at the latest, 14 days
 188 before beginning sowing of the succeeding cash crop in order to avoid a pre-emptive effect on
 189 water, as recommended by Justes et al. (2012) and Meyer et al. (2022).
- 190 3) Cover crops were not irrigated or fertilised.

191



192 Figure 1. Graphic description of the alternative scenario with long-duration cover crops and diversified rotations
 193 (Long-CC&Div) with a) map of the watershed with the affected fields identified, b) areas of the reference
 194 rotations affected by the scenario and timelines of new crop rotations replacing some of the reference rotations.

195 *Note: The fields identified on the map are the same as those involved in the long-CC scenario, and include those*
196 *involved in the short-CC scenario (fewer parcels).*

197

198 **2.4.1 *Short duration cover crop scenario***

199 In the short-duration cover crop scenario (Short-CC), all cover crops grew for at least two months and
200 were terminated before winter. The objective was to reproduce the current regulatory situation in
201 nitrate vulnerable zones, where the main objective is to reduce nitrate leaching to aquifers. Like under
202 current management practices, only non-leguminous cover crops were sown in order to maximise
203 nitrate capture before winter and reduce the risk of leaching during the drainage period (especially in
204 winter). Nearly 90% of the cover crops sown were white mustard, as it develops rapidly, which makes
205 it suitable for a short growing period. The other ca. 10% of cover crops were Italian ryegrass, which
206 was sown after rapeseed cash crops to avoid a cruciferous cover crop and its associated risk of diseases
207 or pests. Cover crops were sown only after rapeseed, wheat, and winter pea, and only before spring
208 cash crops and winter pea. Cover crops were not sown after cash crops with a late harvest (i.e.
209 sunflower, maize, or soya bean) because the interval between this harvest and the tillage and/or
210 sowing of the succeeding cash crop (< 2 months) was too short. In this scenario, 8000 ha of the 19,300
211 ha of agricultural land in the watershed (i.e. ca. 41%) was sown with a cover crop each year.

212

213 **2.4.2 *Long-duration cover crop scenario***

214 In the long-duration cover crop scenario (Long-CC), the objective was to maximise the influence of the
215 multiple services provided by cover crops. Accordingly, cover crops were sown in every fallow period
216 possible, with termination at the end of winter or in spring, as close as possible to the sowing of the
217 succeeding cash crop to provide the cover crops with a longer growing period and promote their
218 development. At the field scale, leguminous cover crops were introduced before non-leguminous cash
219 crops, and vice-versa. For non-leguminous cover crops, rapeseed was sown instead of white mustard
220 when possible because it maintains its cover during the winter under the study conditions and

221 continues to grow in spring before termination. Due to these allocation rules, at the watershed scale
222 the main cover crops were rapeseed, faba bean, and vetch (ca. 30% each), followed by white mustard
223 and Italian ryegrass. In total, 13,300 ha of agricultural land in the watershed (i.e. ca. 69%) was sown
224 with a cover crop each year.

225

226 *2.4.3 Scenario with long-duration cover crops and diversified rotations*

227 Cover crops and diversification of rotations are two key pillars of an agroecological transition (Duru et
228 al., 2015), and the latter has been studied as one way to limit the water deficit in the Aveyron
229 watershed (Allain et al., 2018). Consequently, we developed a third alternative scenario (Long-CC&div)
230 to explore potential effects of combining long-duration cover crops with diversification of the main
231 crop rotations in the watershed (Figure 1a). It was designed in two steps: 1) legumes were introduced
232 to diversify the crop rotations, and then 2) cover crops were introduced. We chose diversified crop
233 rotations from those recommended by Tribouillois et al. (2018b) to diversify the main cropping systems
234 in south-western France, developed in consultation with experts in the region. Because rotations that
235 already included a legume (soya bean) every two years (wheat/soya bean or maize/soya bean)
236 benefitted from its presence, they were not modified. Seed maize monocultures were not modified
237 either due to their high added value for the region. The other rotations were modified as follows
238 (Figure 1 b-c):

- 239 - Maize monocultures and maize/wheat rotations were replaced with a soya bean/maize/wheat
240 rotation.
- 241 - Cereal monocultures, wheat/rapeseed, and wheat/sunflower rotations were replaced with a
242 pea/wheat/sorghum/sunflower/wheat rotation.

243 The beginning of the new rotations was established in a spatially homogeneous way between the
244 different crops. This means that for a given year, there was a homogeneous distribution between the
245 different crops, and not a single crop. In the new rotations, maize was always a mid-late cultivar to
246 ensure that it could be harvested before sowing the succeeding crop. The rotations were modified by

247 alternating the first species in the rotation in order to distribute all species evenly over the watershed
248 each year. Thus, diversification of the rotations reduced the area of maize by ca. 2500 ha (from 6000
249 to 3500 ha), wheat by ca. 1200 ha (from 9000 to 7800 ha), sunflower by ca. 700 ha (from 3100 to 2400
250 ha), rapeseed by ca. 500 ha (from 560 to 60 ha), temporary grassland by ca. 400 ha (from 7600 to 7200
251 ha), and fallow land by ca. 300 ha (from 2300 to 2000 ha). Conversely, it increased the area of sorghum
252 by ca. 1900 ha (from 0 to 1900 ha), pea by ca. 1900 ha (from 100 to 2,000 ha), and soya bean by ca.
253 1700 ha (700 to 2400 ha). Thus, the area of leguminous crops in the watershed increased greatly, which
254 resulted in more equal crop areas in the watershed.

255 Next, cover crops were introduced into the new rotations, following the rules applied in the Long-CC
256 scenario. The cover crop species were rapeseed (35%), faba bean (30%), Italian ryegrass (16%), white
257 mustard (14%), and vetch (5%). Similar to the Long-CC scenario, 13,400 ha of agricultural land in the
258 watershed (ca. 70%) was sown with a cover crop each year.

259

260 *2.4.4 Modifying crop-management practices to introduce cover crops*

261 To attempt to maximise the development of the new cover crops as a farmer might, the management
262 practices used in the reference scenario were modified in the alternative scenarios. The latest possible
263 maize harvest date was advanced by 10 days so that the succeeding cover crop could be sown earlier.
264 In the Long-CC and Long-CC&div scenarios, tillage on clay soils (hillsides) was moved from autumn to
265 spring to terminate the cover crop later. This spring tillage often delayed the sowing of spring crops by
266 a few days to a few weeks.

267

268 **2.5 Data analysis**

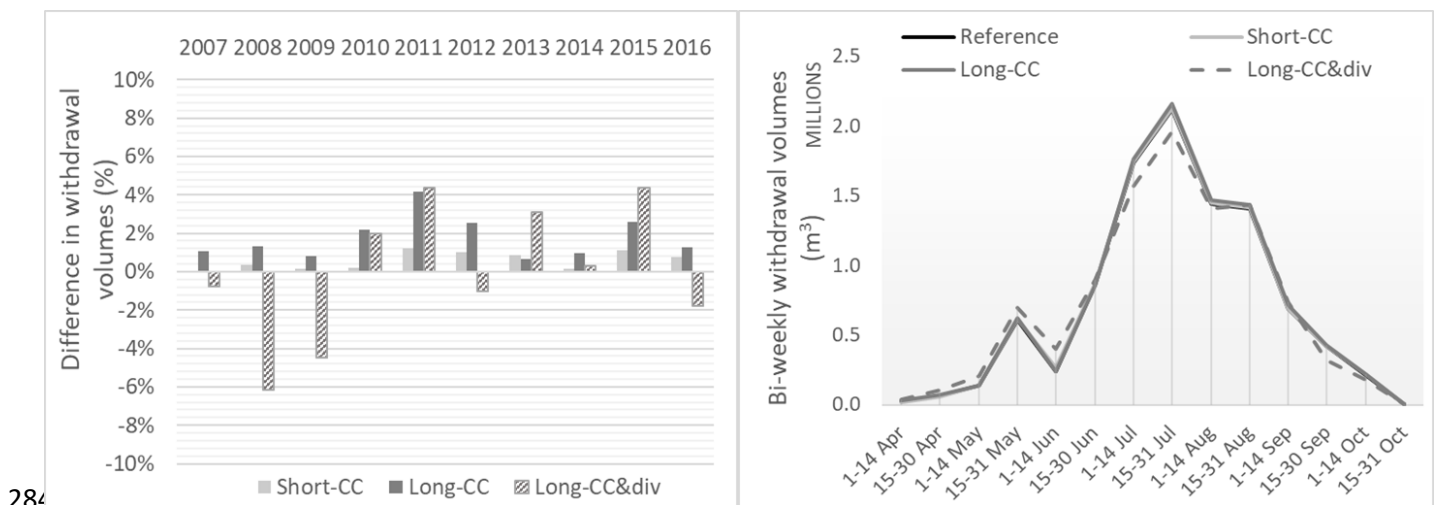
269 As MAELIA had already been largely validated for this study area (Allain et al., 2018; Martin et al., 2016;
270 Murgue et al., 2016; Tribouillois et al., 2018b), we calculated most results as a difference of the
271 alternative scenarios from the reference scenario in order to highlight the influence of cover crops. We
272 focused on irrigation withdrawals, drainage, river flow, and yields at the watershed scale. For irrigation

273 withdrawals and drainage, we calculated totals for each of the 10 years simulated, as well as mean
 274 annual dynamics (i.e. mean of the 10 years simulated). For yields, we excluded the Long-CC&div
 275 scenario because its diversification of crop rotations changed the relative areas of cash crops in the
 276 watershed, which would have biased mean yields of all fields in the watershed.

277 3. Results

278 3.1 Little influence of cover crops on irrigation withdrawals

279 The mean annual irrigation withdrawals simulated for the reference scenario were 10.5 hm³ (range:
 280 9.6 hm³ in 2014 to 11.5 hm³ in 2009). Compared to the reference scenario, the Short-CC scenario had
 281 little influence on mean annual irrigation withdrawals, which increased by only 0.6% (i.e. 0.06 hm³)
 282 (range: 0.0% to +1.2%) (Figure 2a) over the study period. The Long-CC scenario had more influence on
 283 mean annual irrigation withdrawals, which increased by 1.8% (i.e. 0.18 hm³) (range: +0.7% to +4.2%).



285 Figure 2. Relative difference in irrigation withdrawals from the reference scenario simulated for the three
 286 alternative scenarios with cover crops (CC) from 2007-2016: a) annual withdrawals and b) mean biweekly
 287 withdrawals during the irrigation period simulated over the 10-year period.

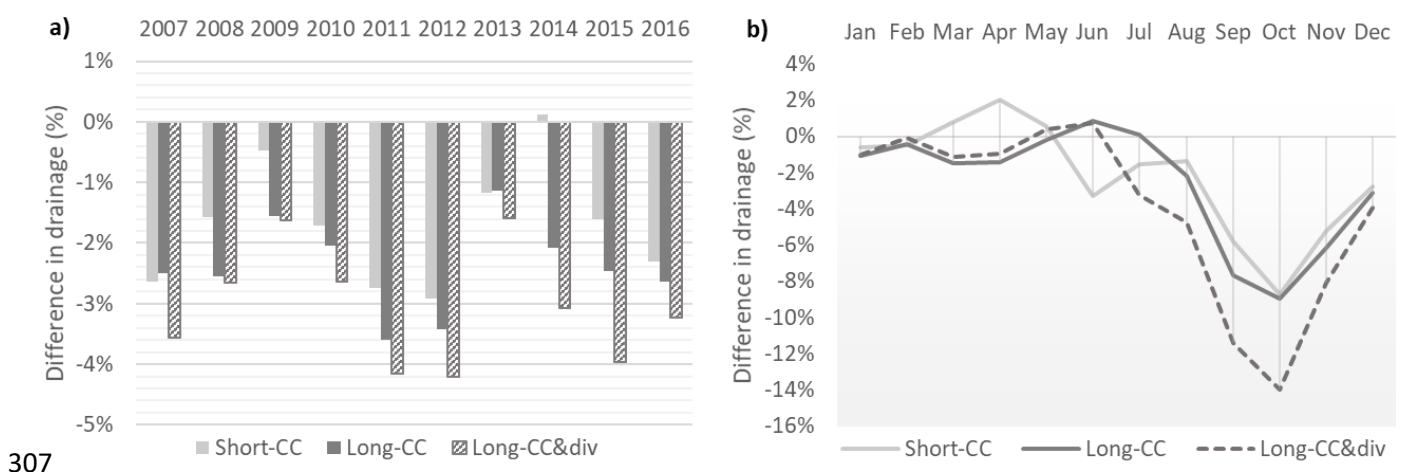
288
 289 For both scenarios, withdrawals increased the most in 2011, which had a particularly dry spring. The
 290 influence of cover crops on withdrawals in the Long-CC&div scenario varied much more among years,

291 ranging from a large decrease (-6.2%, i.e. -0.65 hm^3) in 2008 to a relatively large increase (+4.4%, i.e.
 292 $+0.46 \text{ hm}^3$) in 2011. However, mean withdrawals over the study period did not differ from those in
 293 reference scenario (0.0%). Withdrawals decreased during years with the smallest water deficit,
 294 especially outside of summer. Conversely, withdrawals increased the most in 2011 and 2015, which
 295 had the largest annual water deficits. Compared to the Short-CC and Long-CC scenarios, withdrawal
 296 dynamics differed in the Long-CC&div scenario: withdrawals were higher at the beginning of summer
 297 and then lower in July, early August, and, to a lesser extent, autumn (Figure 2b).

298

299 3.2 Decrease in drainage due to cover crops

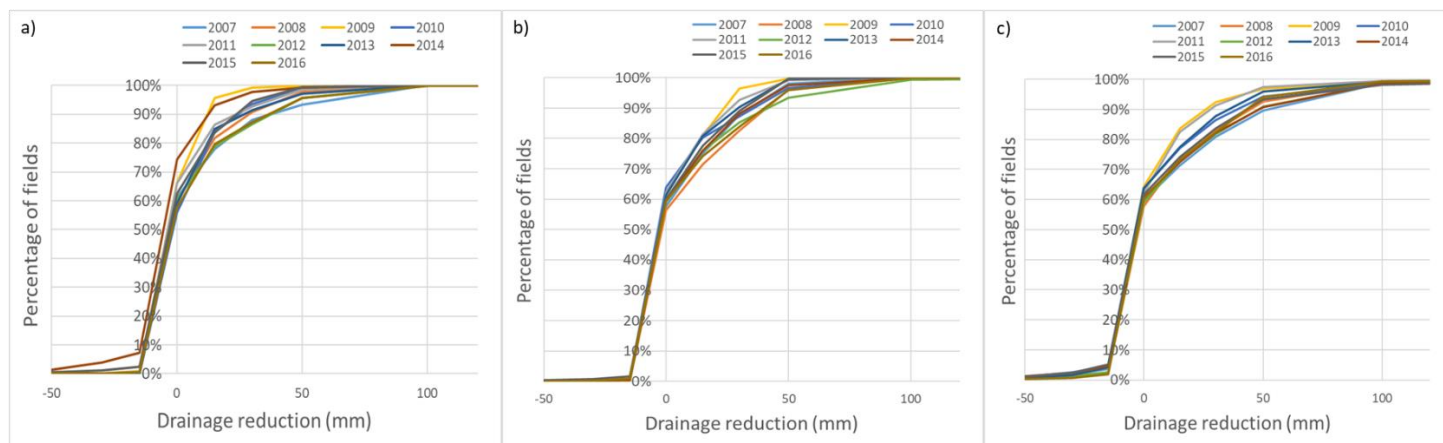
300 Over the study period, mean annual drainage of the reference scenario was 368 mm.yr^{-1} (range: 176
 301 mm.yr^{-1} in 2011 to 580 mm.yr^{-1} in 2013). Cover crops in the three alternative scenarios decreased
 302 annual drainage (Figure 3a) due to higher evapotranspiration during the fallow period. Compared to
 303 the reference scenario, mean annual drainage in the Short-CC scenario decreased less (-1.7%, i.e. -5.8
 304 mm.yr^{-1} ; range: -2.9% to 0.1%) than that in the Long-CC scenario (-2.4%, i.e. -8.3 mm.yr^{-1} ; range: -3.6%
 305 to -1.1%) (Figure 3a). The Long-CC&div scenario decreased mean annual drainage the most (3.1%, i.e.
 306 11 mm.yr^{-1} ; range: -4.2% to -1.6%).



307

308 Figure 3. Relative differences in drainage (%) from the reference scenario for the three alternative scenarios with
 309 cover crops (CC) calculated from the mean of all agricultural fields in the lower Aveyron watershed in a) annual
 310 drainage and b) mean monthly drainage simulated over the 10-year period.

311 Monthly drainage decreased mainly in autumn, reaching -8.7% and -9.0% in October in the Short-CC
 312 and Long-CC scenarios, respectively (i.e. -1.4 mm in both) (Figure 3b). This decrease was due to the
 313 cover crop being sown in late summer and growing in autumn. The Long-CC&div scenario decreased
 314 drainage even more in autumn (-14.0%, i.e. -2.2 mm in October) because the maize area decreased;
 315 consequently, less irrigation was used in late summer, which resulted in drier soil at the end of summer
 316 and thus less drainage in autumn. The Short-CC scenario increased drainage slightly in March and April.
 317
 318 Overall, annual drainage did not change or barely decreased in ca. 60% of the fields in each of the
 319 alternative scenarios (Figure 4). In comparison, annual drainage decreased by 0-30 mm.yr⁻¹ in 24-30%
 320 of the fields, depending on the alternative scenario. Thus, drainage at the watershed scale decreased
 321 slightly overall. This decrease in drainage varied slightly among years, but remained relatively small.
 322 Drainage decreased the most in 2012 and 2007 and the least in 2009 and to a lesser extent, 2011 and,
 323 for Short-CC, 2014.

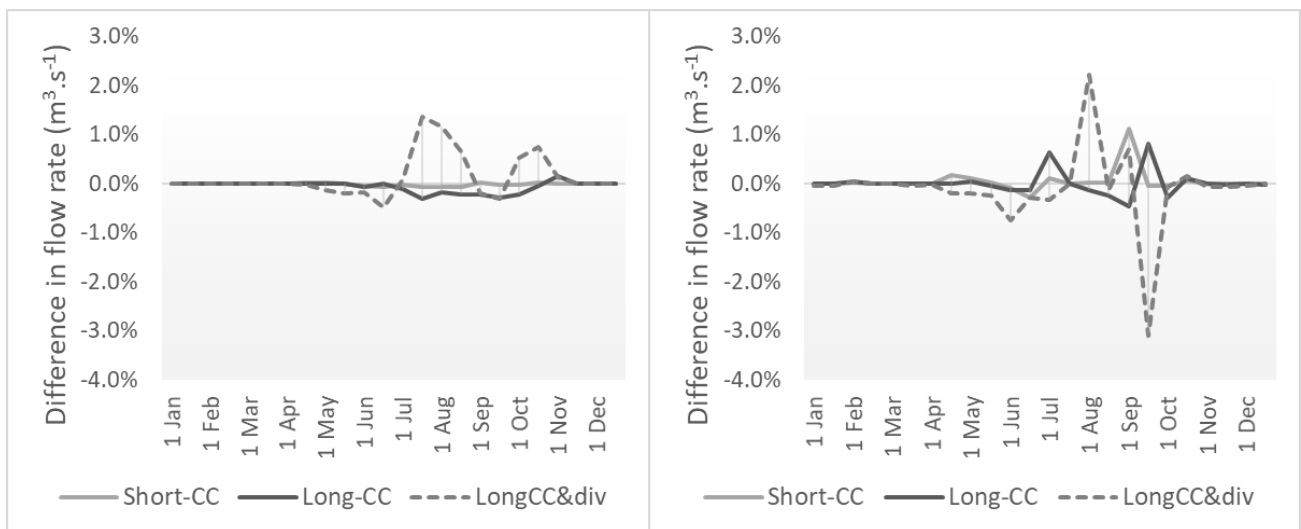


325 Figure 4. Cumulative frequencies of the simulated decrease in annual drainage each year from 2007-2016,
 326 calculated in comparison to the reference scenario, in the lower Aveyron watershed for the scenarios with a)
 327 short-duration cover crops (CC), b) long-duration CC or c) long-duration CC plus more diversified rotations.

328

329 **3.3 Little influence of cover crops on river flows**

330 In the Aveyron River, the mean annual flow was 30.6 m.s⁻¹ (range: 15.1-45.1 m.s⁻¹), and the mean flow
331 during the low-flow period (June-September) was 12.2 m.s⁻¹ (range: 4.6-24.1 m.s⁻¹). The flow was much
332 lower in the Lère River, with a mean annual flow of 0.95 m.s⁻¹ (range: 0.57-1.25 m.s⁻¹) and mean flow
333 during the low-flow period of 0.73 m.s⁻¹ (range: 0.43-1.25 m.s⁻¹). Cover crops in the alternative
334 scenarios did not influence mean river flows during the low-flow period: 12.2 m.s⁻¹ in the Aveyron and
335 0.73 m.s⁻¹ in the Lère. Flow during the low-flow period varied among months, although the differences
336 were negligible for the Aveyron and small for the Lère (Figure 5). Flow decreased slightly from July-
337 September in both rivers in the Long-CC scenario. Monthly flows changed the most in the Long-CC&div
338 scenario, either increasing or decreasing depending on the month, especially in the Lère. Flows tended
339 to decrease slightly in spring, increase in summer, and then decrease again in late summer (by up to -
340 3.1% in the Lère).



341
342 Figure 5. Relative differences in simulated biweekly flow rates between the reference scenario and each
343 alternative scenario for the a) Aveyron River and b) Lère River.

344
345 As introducing cover crops had little influence on flows, it also had little influence on the number of
346 days with flow rates below the low-flow target from 15 June to 15 September: no more than 4 days
347 per year (Table 1). The Long-CC&div scenario had slightly more influence on the number of days per

348 year: from -22% to +11% for the Aveyron (mean: -3%) and from -6% to +18% for the Lère (mean: +3%),
 349 depending on the year. Thus, introducing cover crops would have little influence on summer irrigation
 350 restrictions.

351 Table 1. Number of days from 15 June to 15 September with simulated flow rates below the low-flow target, for
 352 the two rivers of the downstream Aveyron watershed, for the reference scenario and the three alternative
 353 scenarios with short-duration cover crops (Short-CC), long-duration (Long-CC), or long-duration plus diversified
 354 rotations (Long-CC&div). The values shown for the alternative scenarios are differences from the reference
 355 scenario.

Year	Aveyron				Lère			
	Reference	Short-CC	Long-CC	Long-CC&div	Reference	Short-CC	Long-CC	Long-CC&div
2007	0	0	0	0	35	0	0	-2
2008	18	0	0	-2	23	0	2	2
2009	50	0	0	-3	53	0	0	3
2010	54	0	1	2	46	1	0	-2
2011	59	0	0	0	38	0	0	1
2012	55	0	1	-3	43	0	0	1
2013	9	-1	0	-2	26	0	1	0
2014	1	0	0	0	11	1	1	2
2015	37	0	0	4	26	0	1	1
2016	25	0	0	0	46	0	0	-1
Total	308	-1	2	-4	347	2	5	5

356

357

358 3.4 Little influence of cover crops on crop yields

359 In Short-CC, introducing cover crops had relatively little influence on cash crop yields: the mean
 360 difference from the reference scenario was -0.02 t.ha⁻¹ (i.e. -0.3%) for all species combined (Table 2),
 361 ranging from -0.09 t.ha⁻¹ (i.e. -2.0%) for early maize to +0.05 t.ha⁻¹ (i.e. +0.6%) for very late maize. In
 362 Long-CC, mean crop yields decreased by 0.10 t.ha⁻¹ (i.e. 1.7%) for all species combined (Table 2),
 363 ranging from -0.2 t.ha⁻¹ (i.e. -6.6%) for sunflower to +0.07 t (i.e. +0.8%) for very late maize. Along with
 364 sunflower, yields of the earlier maize cultivars (very to mid-early) decreased the most (-0.3 t ha⁻¹, i.e. -
 365 5.2%). The mean decrease in yield varied greatly among years, mainly for earlier maize cultivars,
 366 especially during the 3 driest years of the 10 years simulated (i.e. 2009, 2012, and 2015 with -23% to -

367 41% for early maize in the Long-CC scenario). The impact of cover crops on the following crops led to
 368 a slight decrease in the total production at the watershed scale by 1 900 to 2 500 t yr⁻¹, corresponding
 369 to 1.5 and 2.0% in the Short-CC and Long-CC respectively. In accordance with yield impacts, the highest
 370 decrease in total production were found in sunflower (-10%), mid-early and early maize (5.9 and 5.0%)
 371 and soybean (-4.8%) in Long-CC.

372 Table 2. Yield, area and production estimated for all crops of the downstream Aveyron watershed, for the
 373 reference scenario (Ref.) and the three alternative scenarios with short-duration cover crops (Short-CC), long-
 374 duration (Long-CC) or long-duration plus diversified rotations (Long-CC&div).

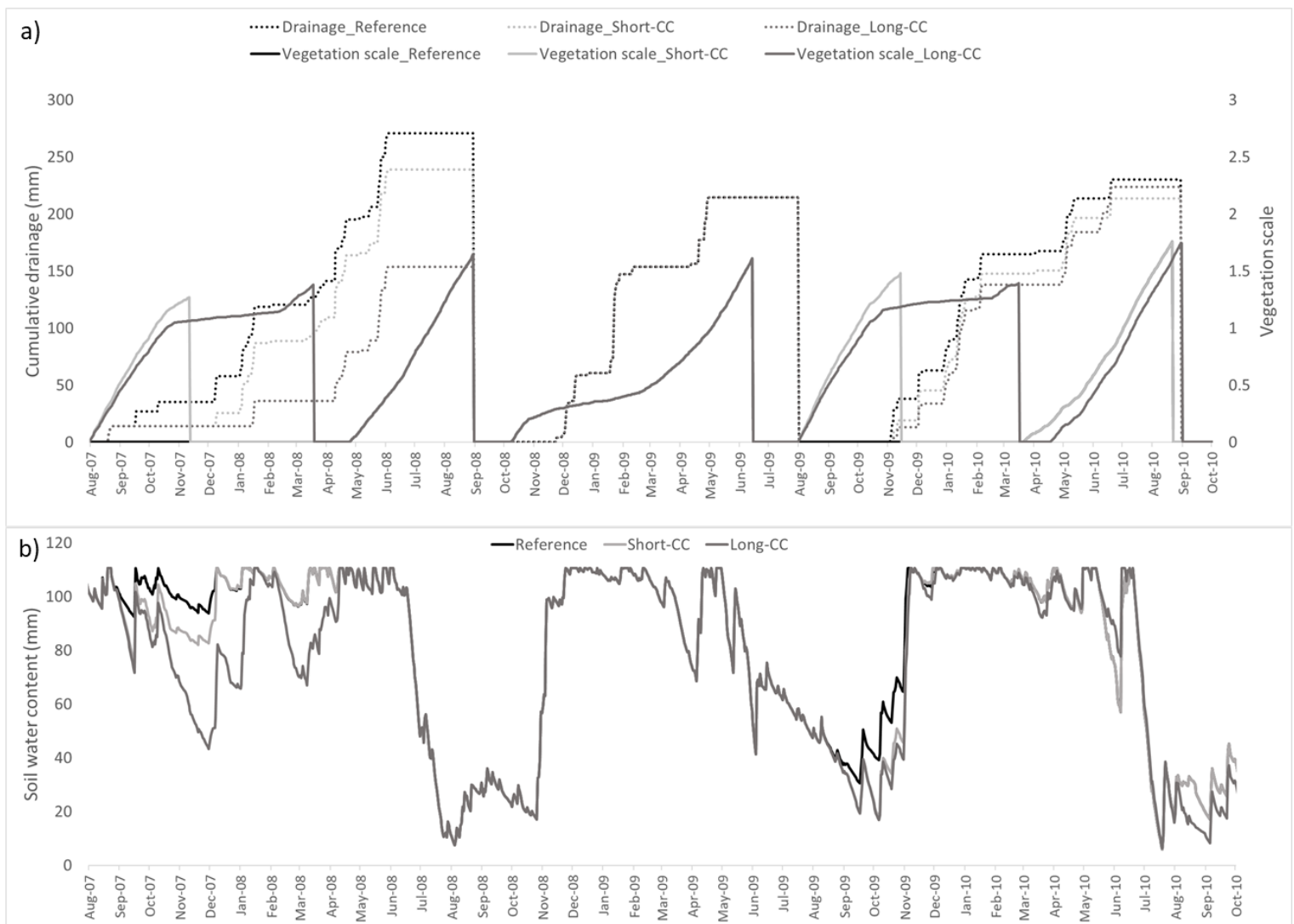
	Yield (t/ha/year)				Area (ha/year)				Production (10 ³ t/year)			
	Ref.	Short-CC	Long-CC	Long-CC&div	Ref.	Short-CC	Long-CC	Long-CC&div	Ref.	Short-CC	Long-CC	Long-CC&div
Wheat	7.0	7.0	7.0	7.1	9 043	8 925	8 915	7 787	63.7	62.3	62.8	54.9
Very early maize	6.1	6.0	5.8	0.0	53	53	53	0	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.0
Early maize	4.5	4.4	4.3	0.0	170	170	170	0	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.0
Mid-early maize	5.3	5.2	5.0	0.0	297	297	297	0	1.6	1.5	1.5	0.0
Mid-late maize	7.0	7.0	6.9	7.4	1 374	1 373	1 373	1 239	9.5	9.5	9.4	9.0
Late maize	9.7	9.7	9.7	8.5	1 052	1 051	1 051	75	10.2	10.2	10.2	0.7
Very late maize	9.1	9.1	9.1	7.5	324	324	324	28	2.9	3.0	3.0	0.2
Silage maize	12.2	12.1	11.9	11.5	1 441	1 439	1 439	1 064	17.7	17.6	17.3	12.5
Seed maize	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.6	1 322	1 319	1 319	1 095	4.5	4.5	4.5	3.9
Sunflower	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.6	3 157	3 053	3 046	2 437	8.8	8.5	8.0	6.3
Soybean	2.8	2.7	2.6	2.8	681	680	679	2 428	1.9	1.9	1.8	6.9
Rapeseed	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	557	552	538	61	2.1	2.1	2.1	0.2
Pea	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	125	124	124	1 968	0.5	0.5	0.5	7.5
Sorghum	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.0	0	0	0	1 926	0.0	0.0	0.0	9.6

375
 376 The div-CC modified deeply the crop acreages at the regional scale, leading to a difference in total
 377 production of 12 800 t yr⁻¹, corresponding to 10% of the total production in the reference scenario.
 378 Among the three main annual crops in the reference scenario, wheat production was decreased by 8
 379 800 t yr⁻¹, grain maize by 15 350 t yr⁻¹ and sunflower by 2 600 t yr⁻¹. On the contrary, legume production,
 380 including pea and soybean was increased by 12 000 t yr⁻¹ and sorghum, the new crop introduced in the
 381 rotation, produced 9 600 t yr⁻¹.

382

383 3.5 Processes' illustration at the field scale

384 At the field scale, we illustrate the influence of cover crops on simulated drainage and soil water
385 content of a specific field over ca. 3 years to better understand the results and changes in the
386 processes. In this field with a wheat/sunflower rotation, white mustard or rapeseed was sown in the
387 Short-CC and Long-CC scenario, respectively, between wheat harvest and sunflower sowing (Figure 6).
388



390 Figure 6. Simulated water-balance dynamics of an example field in the lower Aveyron watershed without
391 irrigation sown with a sunflower/wheat rotation in the reference scenario and, in alternative scenarios, also with
392 a short-duration cover crop (CC) or long-duration CC (i.e. white mustard or rapeseed, respectively) sown after

393 wheat. a) Cumulative drainage and the vegetation scale (level of crop development based on phenology, 1 is
394 flowering) from sowing to harvest of crops and CC and b) soil water content.

395
396 Compared to the reference scenario, the cover crop in the Long-CC scenario decreased drainage more
397 (-116 mm from cover crop sowing to sunflower harvest in 2008 and -17 mm in 2010) than it did in the
398 Short-CC scenario with termination in the autumn (-31 mm in 2008 and -6 mm in 2010), due to having
399 more time to grow. The soil water content under the cover crop was thus lower in the Long-CC scenario
400 than the Short-CC scenario. For example, on 1 December 2007 (maximum effect), soil water content
401 decreased by 11 mm in Short-CC and 51 mm in Long-CC compared to that in the reference scenario.
402 Despite the decrease in drainage in both alternative scenarios, cover crops were terminated long
403 enough before sunflower to allow the soil water content to recharge before sowing. In the Long-CC
404 scenario, however, sunflower sowing was delayed by nearly four weeks due to soil tillage management
405 before sowing. This delay in the sowing date of spring crops, which was frequently observed in other
406 fields, resulted in different crop water requirements and soil water dynamics than those in the
407 reference and Short-CC scenarios. In this example, compared to the reference scenario, drainage
408 decreased greatly in 2007-2008 (-12% in Short-CC and -43% in Long-CC) but decreased less in 2009-
409 2010 (-3% in Short-CC and -7% in Long-CC), which illustrates the high variability in soil water and
410 drainage dynamics among years. Water dynamics under the wheat crop in 2008-2009 differed little
411 among the three scenarios, as they simulated the same crop growing conditions.

412

413 4. Discussion

414 4.1 Cover crops have little influence on water withdrawals and water resources at the 415 watershed scale

416 The simulations of the downstream Aveyron watershed indicated that widespread introduction of
417 cover crops with autumn termination would have little influence on water withdrawals, river flows, or

418 water-resource management. Even though cover crops decrease autumn drainage, terminating them
419 before winter provides sufficient time for soil water to recharge during winter and thus has no
420 influence on water availability for the succeeding cash crop or its yield, and thus little influence on
421 irrigation withdrawals.

422 The simulations indicated slightly more influence when cover crops are sown over a larger area and
423 for longer durations to maximise their production of ecosystem services. Mean irrigation withdrawals
424 over the 10 years increased by only 2%. The influence on decreasing drainage was larger, however,
425 which is consistent with many studies (Meyer et al., 2019, 2022). Although river flows decreased
426 sharply during the summer in the reference scenario, cover crops in the Short-CC and Long-CC
427 scenarios did not decrease river flows because they had little influence on withdrawals, and they
428 influenced drainage especially in winter.

429 Finally, combining long-duration cover crops with crop diversification seems to be a good compromise
430 for quantitative water management. Diversifying crops, notably by replacing maize with crops that
431 require less water, reduces the total water demand and compensates for potential negative effects of
432 cover crops with late termination. Diversifying the crop rotation increased withdrawals in early
433 summer due to more crops with greater water requirements in early summer (especially wheat), which
434 increased irrigation. However, irrigation withdrawals decreased in July, early August, and the autumn,
435 due to less area with maize, which requires more water than the crops introduced in the diversified
436 rotations (i.e. wheat, soya bean, and sorghum). Cover crops had little influence on mean withdrawals,
437 river flows, or the number of days with flow below the low-flow target over the 10 years simulated.
438 However, the Long-CC&div scenario increased variability among years, with some dry years having a
439 stronger influence, which can become a problem for water management in these years. Finally,
440 drainage decreased mainly in autumn because irrigation of the crops introduced into the rotations
441 stopped earlier in the summer than it had for maize, resulting in drier soil at the end of summer and
442 thus less drainage in autumn.

443

444 4.2 Adapting management to limit the negative influence of cover crops

445 Although cover crops have little influence at the watershed scale, their influence does depend on the
446 production situation (i.e. soil, climate, and cropping system). At the field scale, cover crops before non-
447 irrigated maize on shallow soils (hillsides) tends to have more influence on maize's yield. In the Aveyron
448 watershed, these earlier maize cultivars are sown in shallow soils on hillsides and are irrigated less
449 than later maize cultivars sown along the rivers because irrigation water is more difficult to obtain. In
450 the Aveyron watershed, approximately 55% of fields of earlier maize cultivars (1-3) are irrigated,
451 compared to 70-80% of those of later maize cultivars (4-6). However, the early cultivars cover less area
452 in the watershed: 50, 170, and 300 ha for maize 1, 2, and 3, respectively, compared to 1400, 1000, and
453 100 ha for maize 4, 5, and 6, respectively. Thus, for most of the years simulated, introducing cover
454 crops during fallow periods decreased yields only slightly. Thus, the negative influence on yields
455 occurred mainly in particularly dry years for non-irrigated maize on shallow soils, which covers a
456 relatively small area of the watershed. From an economic viewpoint, as shown by Bergtold et al. (2019)
457 and Cai et al. (2019), the costs of cover crops need to be balanced against the benefits to properly
458 assess their economic interest. Accordingly, the benefits (e.g. green manure effect) and costs of
459 introducing cover crops (e.g. purchase of seeds, additional tillage) must be considered for complete
460 evaluation of the influence of cover crops at the regional scale. Also, for more integrated assessment
461 of the influence of cover crops, indicators related to nitrogen cycles, carbon cycles, and greenhouse
462 gas emissions should also be assessed. A version of MAELIA that simulates water, nitrogen, carbon,
463 and economic indicators at the watershed scale is under development to perform this kind of multi-
464 criteria evaluation.

465 A previous study highlighted that cover crops with late termination are strongly discouraged in dry
466 regions to avoid the risk of water (and nitrogen) pre-emption, which could decrease the yield of the
467 succeeding cash crop (Alonso-Ayuso et al., 2014). As recommended in the literature (Ewing et al., 1991;
468 Justes et al., 2012), care was taken in the Long-CC scenario to select a termination date long enough
469 before the sowing date of the succeeding cash crop to avoid influencing soil water availability at

470 sowing. Analysis at the watershed scale indicated that, given the trend for rainy springs in this region,
471 the mean termination date was early enough to allow soil water to recharge before sowing the spring
472 crop. However, for non-irrigated maize on shallow soils, the termination dates chosen did not seem
473 conservative enough to ensure adequate yields. Shorter-duration cover crops should be planted in
474 these production situations.

475 In the Long-CC scenario, late termination of cover crops required changing management practices,
476 notably by delaying tillage (i.e. autumn ploughing postponed to spring) for clay soils. Doing so can be
477 difficult due to the positive influence of frost on soil structure after tillage in some soils (Leuther and
478 Schlüter, 2021), however the beneficial effects of cover crops on the soil and the reduction of erosion
479 (Blanco-Canqui and Ruis, 2020) can counterbalance this effect. More generally, terminating cover
480 crops in late winter delayed spring tillage dates slightly, which then delayed the sowing of spring crops,
481 sometimes by several weeks, particularly on shallow soils. Indeed, in MAELIA, the termination of cover
482 crops in late winter implies additional technical management to be carried out at this time, and which
483 are also conditioned by a sufficient bearing capacity of the ground (IF-THEN decision rules). Thus, some
484 years, the bearing capacity may not be sufficient and thus delay the technical managements (cover
485 crop termination, soil tillage and/or sowing of spring crop), in addition to the time also necessary for
486 their realization. This later sowing of spring crops often shifted crop growth and its associated water
487 requirements to a period with less precipitation (e.g. August), which explains the increased irrigation
488 withdrawals, slightly decreased river flows, and decreased yields, especially for early cultivars in dry
489 years.

490 Long-duration cover crops tend to influence management practices by delaying sowing of spring crops
491 and decreasing yields locally. In our scenarios, management practices were assumed to be the same
492 for the entire watershed, but they should be adapted for each farm to limit potential negative effects
493 of long-duration cover crops on irrigation withdrawals and yield for succeeding cash crops. Delayed
494 sowing is common in conservation agriculture and remains compatible with crop temperature
495 requirements. A compromise exists to be found among a cover crop's duration, the ecosystem services

496 it provides (e.g. carbon storage), and optimal dates for the succeeding cash crop, knowing that the
497 final weeks of a cover crop strongly influence the amount of biomass it produces.

498

499 **4.3 Integrated assessment of the influence of cover crops**

500 Well-managed cover crops (i.e. with the species and sowing and termination dates adapted to the
501 location) could be an effective way to provide many ecosystem services such as reducing nitrate
502 leaching, green manure effect, increasing carbon storage in soil or decreasing erosion risks... Our
503 results show that long-duration cover crops have little influence on water at the watershed scale, but
504 a more negative influence in certain production situations. However, given the many services that
505 cover crops can provide in these situations, multi-criteria assessment could be useful for assessing
506 costs and benefits of introducing them. From an economic viewpoint, the benefits of ecosystem
507 services for farmers (e.g. green manure effect) could outweigh potential negative effects. Accordingly,
508 economic impacts on cash crop yields and the additional costs of introducing cover crops (e.g. purchase
509 of seeds, additional tractor passes) must be considered for complete evaluation of the influence of
510 cover crops at the regional scale. Also, for more integrated assessment of the influence of cover crops,
511 indicators related to nitrogen cycles, carbon cycles, and greenhouse gas emissions should also be
512 assessed. A version of MAELIA that simulate water, nitrogen, carbon, and economic indicators at the
513 watershed scale is under development to perform this kind of multi-criteria evaluation.

514

515 **4.4 Additional scenarios**

516 Allain et al. (2018) and Tribouillois et al. (in revision) highlight that optimising irrigation has the most
517 influence on decreasing irrigation withdrawals. Accordingly, simultaneously introducing long-duration
518 cover crops, diversifying rotations, and optimising irrigation could be a promising way to meet
519 objectives for ecosystem services, yields, and conservation of water resources. As Obiang Ndong et al.
520 (2020) suggested, it would be interesting to define and simulate new scenarios of cover crop
521 management that could reduce their negative impacts on water drainage (blue water) and available

522 water for succeeding crops, such as harvesting cover crop biomass before the termination date. As a
523 step further, Therond et al. (2017) recommended designing scenarios that combine optimisation,
524 diversification, and management-based mechanisms to explore the ability to maximise the supply a
525 balanced bundle of ecosystem services under current and future climate conditions.

526 Finally, our results and conclusions are valid under the specific conditions of the downstream Aveyron
527 watershed: climate (e.g. precipitation, evapotranspiration), soil types, cropping systems, and
528 management practices. The conclusions could differ for regions with different soils and climate,
529 farming systems, and/or specific constraints (e.g. little or no access to water). It would be interesting
530 to investigate these scenarios for contrasting sites to see how the influence of cover crops, diversified
531 rotations, and other key mechanisms differ among regions.

532

533 5. Conclusion

534 The MAELIA model showed that cover crops, even with late termination, generally had relatively few
535 negative effects on water at the watershed scale. Even introducing long-duration cover crops to
536 maximise ecosystem services had little influence on mean irrigation withdrawals (+2%) or irrigation
537 restrictions, and decreases in yields were generally small and occurred only in dry years. However, soil
538 water availability for non-irrigated maize on shallow soils can be more sensitive to cover crops. In these
539 situations, it is important to adapt the management practices of long-duration cover crops to avoid
540 impacting succeeding cash crops.

541 Finally, simultaneously introducing long-duration cover crops and diversifying crop rotations, as a
542 stronger pathway of agroecological transition, can compensate for the potentially negative influence
543 of long-duration cover crops on water flows. The results of the associated scenario illustrate that an
544 agroecological transition can generate solutions that improve water resource conservation in regions
545 with a strong water imbalance due to irrigation. This integrated assessment and modelling study can

546 be extended by exploring more ambitious scenarios based on combining optimisation, management,
547 and agroecological changes to develop a balanced bundle of ecosystem services to farmers and society.
548

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554

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