Response to the referee reveiew by Prof.Dr. Cirpka

February 2018

We thank Prof.Dr. Cirpka very much for his efforts devoted in reviewing our manuscript. His deep thoughts and constructive comments really benefit us a lot. We have revised the manuscript carefully according to the two reviews. We replied (in black) every single question (in blue) raised by the reviewers and itemized them in below.

1 Major Remarks

1. The English of the paper needs severe polishing. I have attached a corrected version, suggesting chances in almost every sentence. I highly recommend that the authors address a native speaker who surely must be available in an institution the size of UFZ before submitting a revision.

Response: We thank you for your efforts in correcting our language mistakes. We also checked the English carefully with native English speakers. Please feel free to check the revised manuscript.

2. Unfortunately, I must say that the coupling scheme is not described very clearly. In other schemes, like the USGS-based modeling framework GS-FLOW, a conceptual hydrological model is used to represent surface and soil processes, while the entire groundwater component is handled by the Darcy-based groundwater model. This is not what the authors do. The conceptual hydrological model mHm has its own groundwater storage (denote x_{-6}) that remains untouched by the coupling. While the authors describe to some extent how mHm-based groundwater recharge is transferred to nodal loads in the groundwater model, it is not clear how groundwater leaves the OpenGeoSys domain. The authors somehow mention that OpenGeoSys and mHm have different representations of streams so that I somehow speculate that the OpenGeoSys model assumes fixed hydraulic heads along rivers, but it is not explained how river stages are calculated within or for OpenGeoSys. And it is also not clear whether any comparisons between the baseflow computed by mHm and the groundwater flux leaving the OpenGeoSys domain via river nodes are performed.

Response: These comments are very important for us to improve the description of coupling scheme. As pointed out by the reviewer, the key difference between our coupling methods and the others, is that we use OpenGeoSys as a post-processor to realize groundwater head, meanwhile we use mHM to determine component-wise water budget. The reviewer raised two important questions: (1) How does OGS calculate the river stages? (2) How to make sure the river discharge from groundwater calculated by OGS is the same with that from mHM?

For the first question, we simply do not calculate the river stage explicitly. Most coupled surface-subsurface hydrological models characterize river-groundwater interaction based on either first-order flow exchange or boundary condition switching [2]. These methods inevitably rely on a parameter set describing geometric, topographic, and hydraulic properties of the stream channel (e.g., river bed conductance, river bed and drain elevations, channel width). Unfortunately, these parameters are essentially unknown at large scale due to the lack of data and the subgrid-scale topography. Due to these limitations, we use an alternative approach which is based on the step-wise routed baseflow estimated by mHM.

Streams in mHM are implicitly defined based on pre-processing of DEM data and a routing scheme, while OGS uses an explicit predefined river geometry. In OGS, each reach of the stream network is defined by a polyline in a geometry file. To coordinate the two different conceptualizations, we developed a model interface RIV2FEM to convert the routed baseflow estimated by mHM to Neumann boundary conditions assigned at stream nodes at the OGS mesh. The illustration of RIV2FEM scheme can be found in Figure 2 of the revised manuscript. Specifically, the step-wise routed baseflow estimated by mHM is transferred to the uniformly disaggregated discharges by distributing it uniformly along the predefined stream network in OGS:

$$\overline{q}_4(t) = \frac{Q_4(t)}{N} \tag{1}$$

where $\bar{q}_4(t)$ denotes the disaggregated discharge assigned at every stream node in OGS at time t [L³T⁻¹], $Q_4(t)$ denotes the routed baseflow at the outlet of catchment at time t [L³T⁻¹], N denotes the total number of stream nodes in OGS. The uniformly disaggregated discharges are then assigned to every stream node in OGS to serve as Neumann boundary condition. This approach significantly reduces the number of parameters, avoids the uncertainty caused by the unknown river properties, and is suitable for many real-world applications with scarce data. Moreover, as recharge and baseflow are directly taken from mHM, the mass conservation criteria is naturally satisfied in this approach.

The above statements are also included in the revised manuscript (please refer to P8, L28 - P9, L8).

3. I see the advantages that the authors want to gain by their scheme, but

I do not understand why they don't explicitly write what they are really doing and why. My understanding is that OpenGeoSys is mainly used as a postprocessor of mHm to obtain groundwater tables, whereas the water budget is calculated by mHm alone. The advantage is pretty clear as the entire stochastic calibration procedure of mHm remains intact and the quality of discharge calculations is not hampered by using a computationally expensive groundwater model for baseflow that requires spatially distributed parameters, which are difficult to obtain. Of course, the Darcybased groundwater model needs to be calibrated to match heads, but that does not affect the water balance. I assess that using the groundwater model as postprocessor has its intellectual elegance, but then I suggest selling the scheme this way. Otherwise the authors run into the problem why they double-account for groundwater in their two model components.

Response: Thank you for your insightful comments. We totally agree with the reviewer on the description of "OpenGeoSys is mainly used as a postprocessor of mHm to obtain groundwater tables, whereas the water budget is calculated by mHm alone". This is a good summary of our coupling approach. In order to better convey what we are doing and why, we modified the paragraph describing the modeling motivation as follows:

"The coupling initiative aims to add additional predictive capability of groundwater heads, which is achieved by OGS, to the existing predictive capability of discharge achieved by mHM. On one hand, mHM is used to estimate step-wise and component-wise water budget through model calibration against discharge. On the other hand, OGS serves as a post-processor of mHM to obtain groundwater heads by using driving forces obtained from mHM. Two model interfaces, namely GIS2FEM and RIV2FEM, have been developed to link the two models by transferring recharge and baseflow from mHM to Neumann boundary conditions in OGS."

The above statements are also included in the revised manuscript (please refer to P8, L3-10).

4. It is also clear that the presented coupled framework cannot overcome difficulties of mHm, or any other similar model, in representing feedbacks of shallow groundwater tables on evapotranspiration, if the shallowness of the groundwater table is caused by lateral groundwater flows. This would require two-way coupling, replacing the groundwater storage of mHm by the Darcy simulator, and joint calibration. Whether the authors will ever implement the two-way coupling, as announced in the outlook of the paper, is doubtful as the modeling and calibration philosophies of the two model components are not particularly compatible.

Response: We agree with the reviewer that our current coupled model can not overcome the difficulties of typical bucket-type hydrological models. This limitation has been stated in the manuscript (Page 23, Line 25-28): "The main limitation of one-way coupling is that the effects of a shallow depth to groundwater on actual ET, maintained by lateral groundwater flow, cannot be explicitly addressed."

In terms of the possibility of a two-way coupling, we have observed a successful example, in which a bucket-type hydrological model PCR-GLOBWB is fully coupled to the groundwater simulator MODFLOW [1]. I agree with the reviewer that the two-way coupling is super challenging because of the distinct model concepts. mHM is a "top-down" model which has a strong predictive capability but poor interpretability while OGS is a "bottom-up" model. We still believe that it is feasible to realize the two-way coupling in the future, although it requires restructuring mHM source code. We stated this point in a conservative way in the manuscript: " However, in a future work, we will devote to incorporate a full, two-way coupling using the next version of mHM#OGS model." (P22, L28-29)

5. I am not quite happing with the scheme used to map mHm-based groundwater recharge to OpenGeoSys. In the example application, it seems to be no problem, as apparently the groundwater model simply uses a rectangular grid with finer resolution. (At least the authors don't state otherwise.) In the more general case of mapping gridded fluxes to an unstructured FEM grid, checking for element centroids could be dangerous, and would definitely not ne consistent with the FEM formulation. The consistent formulation would use the weighting functions of the FEM scheme:

$$Q_i^{in} = -\int_{\partial\Omega} W_i(\mathbf{x}) q_{mHm}^{ex}(\mathbf{x}) d(\mathbf{x})$$

in which Q_i^{in} is the nodal load of node i, $\partial\Omega$ is the surface boundary of the FEM domain, W_i is the weighting function of node i, \mathbf{x} is the spatial coordinate on the surface, and q_{mHm}^{ex} is the exchange rate provided by mHm.

Response: Thank you for your insightful comments. However, the mapping method in GIS2FEM is exactly the same one that the reviewer raised. In the manuscript, we stated that GIS2FEM checks the centroid of element, which is not true and will mislead the readers. We apologize for this unclear description. Actually, we checked the nodes in each elements. GIS2FEM searches for the mHM grid cell that the node is located in, and assigns the recharge value of this grid cell to the corresponding node (marked as C^m). After all top surface elements have been processed, GIS2FEM takes subsequently the face integration calculation, by which the specific recharge C^m [LT⁻¹] calculated by mHM is converted into volumetric recharge C^{in} [L³T⁻¹] and assigned to the corresponding OGS mesh nodes. Specifically, the specific recharge C in a certain element is calculated as:

$$C(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} W_j(\mathbf{x}) C_j^m,$$
(2)

where **x** is the spatial coordinate on the surface, N is the total number of nodes in a surface element, W_j is the weighting function of node j, C_j^m is the specific recharge at node j calculated by mHM [LT⁻¹]. Then the volumetric recharge C_i^{in} at node i (i is the global node index) is calculated by the face integration calculation:

$$C_i^{in} = -\int_{\partial\Omega} W_i(\mathbf{x}) C(\mathbf{x}) d(\mathbf{x}), \qquad (3)$$

where C_i^{in} is the volumetric recharge of node $i [L^3T^{-1}]$, $\partial\Omega$ is the surface boundary of the FEM domain, W_i is the weighting function of node i. This method is clearly shown in line 10434-10510 in file rf_pcs.cpp at https://github.com/UFZ-MJ/OGS_mHM/blob/master/FEM/rf_pcs.cpp

The above statements are also included in the revised manuscript (please refer to P9, L13-27).

6. How does OpenGeoSys calculate river stages? This is completely missing, and knowing discharge along the streams is not sufficient for the groundwater model.

Response: Thank you for your question. We did not calculate river stages. Please find the detailed description of boundary conditions in rivers in the response to question 2.

7. The example application takes place in a karstified aquifer. Muschelkalk is a limestone formation with all features of a karst system. This must not remain unmentioned, as the calibrated hydraulic-conductivity values only hold under the assumption of an equivalent porous medium. Of course, the karst features also hamper the calculation of travel times.

Response: Thank you again for this important information. A research by Kohlhepp et al. (2017) found that the karstification only occurs at the base of the upper Muschelkalk formation [3]: "Although it is of a karst-fracture type with partially solution enlarged fractures, the karstification and the development of conduits are limited and concentrated at the formations' very base" [3]. He concluded that karstification is not a dominant factor to the permeability as it is limited at the base of upper Muschelkalk [3].

Nevetheless, we agree that the treatment of karst formation should be mentioned in the manuscript. Accordingly, we have modified the manuscript as follows: "The mo formation has been widely considered as a karstified formation. In this study area, a recent research by [3] has revealed that in the Hainich critical zone, the intense karstification and the conduit are limited at the base of the mo formation. Accordingly, we use the equivalent porous medium approach to characterize the insignificant karst formation. "(P11, L31 - P12, L3).

8. I am very astonished that the Lower Keuper ("Lettenkeuper") has such high conductivity values given the fact that this formation contains thick clay layers and acts as an aquitard.

Response: Thank you for the question. We use the automatic-calibration code PEST to calibrate the steady state groundwater model by setting a reasonable range of adjustable parameters (in this case, hydraulic conductivity). We set the upper and lower bound of parameters on the basis of the literature [4]. We found that there is a certain degree of parameter uncertainty, which means a range of possible values are compatible with the prediction. Since the Lower Keuper contains confining clay layers that often acts as aquitard, we re-calibrated the model by setting a narrow range of ku. The updated hydraulic conductivity of ku is 2.848e-5. We use the updated parameter values in the revised manuscript. Please check the updated Table 1 (P17) in the revised manuscript.

9. Assuming no-flow boundary-conditions all around the model domain is not reasonable. There must be a lateral groundwater flux leaving the domain in the lowland-part of the aquifer in the Muschelkalk aquifer.

Response: Thank you for your insights. The outer boundary is generally treated as no-flow boundary except for the northwestern and northeastern edges. We set Dirichlet boundary conditions at the northwestern and northeastern edges on the basis of Sommer et al. [4]. Accordingly, we modified the description of boundary conditions in the manuscript as follows:

"In general, no-flow boundaries are set at the outer perimeters surrounding the basin as well as at the lower aquitard. On the basis of the measurements, a Dirichlet boundary condition is assumed at the northwestern and northeastern edges." (P12, L6-8)

I agree with you that there must be a lateral groundwater flux leaving the domain in the lowland area in the Muschelkalk aquifer. Several studies have revealed that this portion of water is small compared to the portion of baseflow in the study area.

Based on Toth [6], groundwater flow system in a catchment can be divided into local system, intermediate system and regional system. Our study revealed that the dominating flow systems in the study area are local and intermediate systems. The regional system in which the recharge area occupies the water divide and discharge area lies at the bottom of the basin, is negligible. The reason is that the ratio of the depth to impermeable lower boundary to the half-width of the catchment is small (about (0.008) and the general relief of the catchment is small (about (0.01)), which means regional flow is almost impossible [6]. In the local and intermediate flow systems in lowland area, the outflow from Muschelkalk formations is negligible compared to the amount of baseflow. The reason is that first, Wechsung [4] and Seidel [5] have demonstrated that the Muschelkalk formations in lowland have significantly lower permeabilities than those in upland. This observation has also been included in our manuscript in Page 11, Line 28-32. The Muschelkalk in lowland acts as aquitard which partly blocks the movement of groundwater from upland to the outlet of the catchment. Second, the head gradients are directed from southwestern (or southeastern) uplands to the central lowlands. The flow direction is parallel to the direction of bottom of the catchment, which indicates only a small portion of water can flow out at the bottom. Based on above proofs, we can reasonably assume that the outflow in Muschelkalk formations in the vicinity of catchment outlet is less important, and therefore negligible.

2 Minor Remarks

1. See my very extended list of remarks (621 comments, not all of them editorial in nature) in the attachment.

Response: Thank you again for your detailed review of our manuscript and the insightful comments you raised. We revised the manuscript thoroughly according to each items in the extended list of remarks.

2. I would not use an incomprehensible acronym in the title. My suggestion is: Improved groundwater representation at regional scale by coupling of the mesosclale Hydrological model (mHm) to the groundwater model OpenGeoSys (OGS)

Response: Thank you very much for this kind suggestion. We have changed the title to "Improved regional scale groundwater representation by the coupling of the mesoscale Hydrologic Model (mHM v5.7) to the groundwater model OpenGeoSys (OGS)".

3. I would not report on version numbers in the abstract.

Response: We have been informed that the journal GMD requires the specific version number:

"If the model development relates to a single model then the model name and the version number must be included in the title of the paper. If the main intention of an article is to make a general (i.e. model independent) statement about the usefulness of a new development, but the usefulness is shown with the help of one specific model, the model name and version number must be stated in the title. The title could have a form such as, "Title outlining amazing generic advance: a case study with Model XXX (version Y)"."

4. I know that OpenGeoSys can be used to compute saturate-unsaturated flow, solute transport, heat transport, and geomechanics. However, in the given context, the THMC capabilities are reduced to groundwater hydraulics alone.

Response: We agree that the THMC capability of OGS does not show up in the manuscript. In the field of hydrogeology, there are nevertheless some important multi-physical processes such as density-dependent flow and thermo-haline flow. OGS is suitable in addressing these problems, and can be easily plugged in current coupling framework in the manuscript. Nevertheless, we followed the reviewer's suggestion and modified the statement of THMC coupling as follows: "Additionally, OGS demonstrates its capability in addressing thermo-hydro-mechanical-chemical (THMC) coupling processes in large-scale hydrologic cycles (not reflected in this study)" (P22, L4-5).

5. Well identification numbers made of ten digits are totally incomprehensible.

Response: Thank you. We have removed all those long-digit numbers. Instead, we use numbers with only two digits. Please check Figure 2, 10, and 11 in the revised manuscript.

References

- [1] Sutanudjaja, E. H., Van Beek, L. P. H., De Jong, S. M., Van Geer, F. C., & Bierkens, M. F. P. (2014). Calibrating a large-extent high-resolution coupled groundwater-land surface model using soil moisture and discharge data. Water Resources Research, 50(1), 687–705. http://doi.org/10.1002/2013WR013807
- [2] Paniconi, Claudio, and Mario Putti. "Physically based modeling in catchment hydrology at 50: Survey and outlook." Water Resources Research 51.9 (2015): 7090-7129.
- [3] Kohlhepp, B., Lehmann, R., Seeber, P., Küsel, K., Trumbore, S. E., and Totsche, K. U.: Aquifer configuration and geostructural links control the groundwater quality in thin-bedded carbonate-siliciclastic alternations of the Hainich CZE, central Germany, Hydrol. Earth Syst. Sci., 21, 6091-6116, https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-21-6091-2017, 2017.
- [4] Sommer T, Feige H, Klöcking B, Knoblauch S, Maier U, Müller M, Pfützner B, Wechsung F, Clausing T. Die Wirkung des Globalen Wandels im Unstrut-Einzugsgebiet.
- [5] Seidel, G., 2004. Geologie von Thüringen. Erdkunde, 58(1).
- [6] Toth J. A theoretical analysis of groundwater flow in small drainage basins. Journal of geophysical research. 1963 Aug 15;68(16):4795-812.

Response to comments raised by Edwin Sutanudjaja

We thank Dr. Sutanudjaja very much for his excellent reviews. Below you could find the original comments (marked in blue color) and point-by-point response (marked in black color).

I appreciate that the authors have carefully addressed all the concerns I raised in my review. The writing has been improved. Yet, I still have some minor comments and questions that should be considered:

Page 2 Line 17 (P2L17): ... Finally ...

P2L24-30: This part, starting from the sentence "For example, models …", does not flow with the previous sentences. Please consider to rephrase it, Here you may want to consider to discuss several limitations in groundwater model packages (e.g. river, evapotranspiration packages in MODFLOW) for simulating surface water and unsaturated zones.

Response: We have modified the manuscript accordingly. Please check P2, L23-29 in the revised manuscript.

P3L7: What's wrong with "kinematic wave approximation" for surface flow process? Could you please elaborate? And what did you mean by "1D riil flow"?

Response: The kinematic-wave approximation neglects the dynamic components of flow that are represented by the derivative terms in the more complete form of the momentum equation referred to as the Saint-Venant equations. 1D rill flow means the surface flow problem is simplified from a full 3-D problem to 1-D problem via some assumptions.

P3L27-28: "The process uncertainty decreases as one goes depper into the subsurface storage. In the subsurface storage, hydrological process are relatively well understood ..." I am not sure that I can agree with this statement. Please include some references to support this statement.

Response: The process uncertainty in subsurface hydrology has been well demonstrated by the theory of porous media flow [1].

P4L2: "OGS has been demonstrated its ability of dealing with data uncertainty in groundwater aquifers." Please give references.

Reference: We have added a reference accordingly.

Figure 1: What is K that leaves donward from the groundwater part? How do you include it in your coupling strategy?

Reference: the K in Figure 1 represents the original scheme characterizing Karst process in mHM. This feature of mHM is irrelevant to our study. In the case study, we do not consider the Karst process in mHM, thus K is always zero.

P6L22, Equation 22: For clarity, could you please expand the source/sink term qs? I believe that this should consist at least, the recharge C and the baseflow q4.

Section 2.3: While explaining the coupling mechanism, I suggest to include the variable symbols as given in Sections 2.1 and 2.2. An example is given as follows:

Response: thank you for your comments. We have modified the manuscript accordingly.

P7L4: The basic idea is to feed fluxes generated by mHM, e.g. distributed groundwater recharge C and baseflow q4 ...

P8L14-21, step 3: Please clarify that your OGS mesh actually has a regular shape: square 250 m x 250 m (not an irregular ones as suggested in Fig. 2c).

Response: thank you for your comments. We have modified the manuscript accordingly.

P9L1: Did you consider groundwater abstraction in your modelling experiment? Please clarify.

Response: in this case study, we do not consider the groundwater abstraction. Please refer to Section 3.4.

P9L7: So, your OGS mesh is rectangular grid: 250 m x 250 m? (not an irregular ones as suggested in Fig. 2c).

Response: yes, we use a structural 3-D mesh in this study. The resolution of mHM grid cells is 500 m \times 500 m. OGS uses a structured, hexahedral 3-D mesh, with a spatial resolution of 250 m \times 250 m in horizontal direction and 10 m in vertical direction over the whole domain. Please refer to P11, L3-6.

P10, Section 3.2: Please include the number of aquifer layers in the OGS model. 11?

Response: thank you for your comments. We have modified the manuscript accordingly.

P11, Section 3.3: Please clarify to which OGS aquifer layer you force the recharge and baseflow. To the uppermost one only?

Response: yes, we force the recharge and baseflow to the uppermost layer.

P11L21: 1500 mm/month is a very high threshold. Please check.

Response: thank you for pointing out this error. We have modified the statement to: "Only streams with a runoff rate higher than the threshold (in this case study, 0.145 m3/s) are delineated as valid streams." Please refer to P13, L1-3 in the revised manuscript.

P12L23: What are K values? Hydraulic conductivities? Or K values in Fig. 1? Please clarify.

P13L26: What is K? The calibrated K values?

Response: thank you for this suggestion. For sake of consistency, we have removed all the expression of "K values". Instead, we use the alternative expression of "hydraulic conductivities" throughout the manuscript.

P14L8, Figure 8: Please use the same maximum and minimum values on the color scales for all sub-figures in Fig. 8 (page 15) so that they can easily be compared among each other.

Response: we totally agree with this comment. We have re-generated Figure 9 and Figure 10 using the same color scheme with Figure 11. Please refer to the revised manuscript.

Reference:

[1] Darcy, Henry. *Les fontaines publiques de la ville de Dijon: exposition et application...* Victor Dalmont, 1856.

Improved groundwater representation at regional scale (mHM#OGS v1.0) – groundwater representation by the coupling of the mesoscale Hydrologic Model (mHM v5.7) with to the groundwater model OpenGeoSys (OGS)

Miao Jing¹, Falk Heße¹, Rohini Kumar¹, Wenqing Wang², Thomas Fischer², Marc Walther^{2,3}, Matthias Zink¹, Alraune Zech¹, Luis Samaniego¹, Olaf Kolditz^{2,4}, and Sabine Attinger^{1,5}

¹Department of Computational Hydrosystems, UFZ – Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research, Permoserstr. 15, 04318 Leipzig, Germany

²Department of Environmental Informatics, UFZ – Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research, Permoserstr. 15, 04318 Leipzig, Germany

³Institute of Groundwater Management, Technische Universität Dresden, Bergstr. 66, 01069 Dresden, Germany ⁴Applied Environmental Systems Analysis, Technische Universität Dresden, Dresden, Germany

⁵Institute of Earth and Environmental Sciences, University of Potsdam, Karl-Liebknecht-Str. 24–25, 14476 Potsdam, Germany

Abstract.

Most of the current large scale large-scale hydrologic models fall short in reproducing groundwater head dynamics due to their over-simplified representation of groundwater flow. In this study, we aim to extend the applicability of the Mesoscale mesoscale Hydrologic Model (mHM v5.7) to subsurface hydrology through the coupling with a thermo-hydro-mechanical-chemical

- 5 (THMC) by coupling it with the porous media simulator OpenGeoSys (OGS). The two models are one-way coupled through a model interface model interfaces GIS2FEM and RIV2FEM, by which grid-based vertical fluxes generated by vertical layered reservoirs within mHMrepresenting near-surface hydrological processesmHM, are converted into upper surface-upper-surface boundary conditions of the groundwater model in OGS. Specifically, the grid-based vertical reservoirs in mHM are completely preserved for land surface fluxes estimation the estimation of land-surface fluxes, while OGS acts as a plug-in to the original
- 10 mHM modeling framework for groundwater flow and transport modeling. The applicability of the coupled model (mHM#OGS v1.0) is evaluated by a case study in a the central European meso-scale river basin , Nägelstedt. Different time steps, i.e., daily in mHM and monthly in OGS, are used to account for fast surface flow and slow groundwater flow. Model calibration is conducted following a two-step procedure using discharge and long-term mean of groundwater head measurements, respectively. Based on the model summary statistics, such as namely the Nash–Sutcliffe model efficiency (NSE), Pearson correlation the
- 15 Pearson correlation coefficient R_{cor} , and inter-quantile the inter-quartile range error QRE, the coupled model is able to satisfactorily represent the dynamics of discharge and groundwater heads at several locations across the study basin. Our exemplary calculations show that the coupled model mHM#OGS v1.0 can take advantage of the spatially explicit modeling capabilities of surface and groundwater hydrologic models, and provide us with adequate representation of the spatio-temporal behaviors of

groundwater storages storage and heads, and thus making it the a valuable tool for addressing water resources and management problems.

1 Introduction

Historically, large scale large scale hydrologic models are commonly developed to predict river discharge. Most of these
models use simple bucket-type expressions combined with several vertical water storage layers to describe near-surface water
flow (Refsgaard and Storm, 1995; Wood et al., 1997; Koren et al., 2004; Samaniego et al., 2010; Niu et al., 2011). Due
Moreover, due to the limitation in computational capability, all traditional hydrologic models simplify water flow processes by
ignoring lateral groundwater flow. Thus, such models inevitably fall short of characterizing subsurface groundwater dynamics (Beven et al., 1984; Liang et al., 1994; Clark et al., 2015).

- 10 The implicit groundwater representations in traditional hydrologic models show inadequacy are inadequate in many aspects. Water table depth Depth to groundwater has a strong influence on near-surface water processes such as evapotranspiration (Chen and Hu, 2004; Yeh and Eltahir, 2005; Koirala et al., 2014). Moreover, water table fluctuations fluctuations in the water table are known as a factor affecting that affects runoff generation and thus impacting the prediction skill their adequate representation in hydrologic models influences the prediction ability of catchment runoff (Liang et al., 2003; Chen and Hu,
- 15 2004; Koirala et al., 2014). Typical hydrologic models also show inadequacy in are also demonstrably inadequate at simulating solute transport and retention at the catchment scale. For example, Van Meter et al. (2017) found that current nitrogen fluxes in rivers can be dominated by groundwater legacies. An over-simplified groundwater representation is inadequate for understand-ing travel time travel-time distributions (TTDs) at a catchment scale and is therefore incapable of describing such legacy behavior (Benettin et al., 2015; Botter et al., 2010; Benettin et al., 2017) (Botter et al., 2010; Benettin et al., 2015, 2017). Moreover,
- 20 stream-subsurface water interactions may be significant in modulating the human and environmental effects of nitrogen pollution (Azizian et al., 2017). FianllyFinally, to assess the response of groundwater to climate change, a more accurate groundwater representation including lateral subsurface flow is urgently needed (Scibek and Allen, 2006; Green et al., 2011; Ferguson et al., 2016).

Parallel to that In parallel, numerous groundwater models have been developed, which allow for both steady-state and tran-25 sient groundwater flow in three dimensions, with complex boundaries and a complex representation of sources and sinks. A variety of numerical codes are available such as MODFLOW (Harbaugh et al., 2000), FEFLOW (Diersch, 2013), and OpenGeoSys (Kolditz et al., 2012). Groundwater models usually contain a mechanistic or physically-based representation of subsurface physicsrepresent subsurface flow by Darcy's law substituted into the continuity equation, but fall short in providing good representation of surface and shallow soil processes. For example, models for predicting groundwater storage

30 change changes under either climate change (e.g., global warming) or human-induced scenarios (e.g., agricultural pumping) always often use a constant or linear expression to represent spatially distributed recharge (Danskin, 1999; Selle et al., 2013). The groundwater numerical models may contain some packages or interfaces to simulate surface water or unsaturated zone processes (Harbaugh et al., 2000; Kalbacher et al., 2012; Delfs et al., 2012). Moreover, parameterization of topographical and geological parameters is a big challenge due to the strong spatial and temporal heterogeneity and lack of data (Moore and Doherty, 2006; Arnold et al., 2009).

In recent years, many integrated surface/subsurface hydrologic models (ISSHMs) have been developed. ISSHMs commonly focus on the comprehensive treatment of both the surface flow processes (e.g., 1D or 2D-1-D or 2-D overland flow) and the

- 5 subsurface flow processes (e.g., 1D or 3D 1-D or 3-D Richards flow) using a two-way coupling procedure (Paniconi and Putti, 2015). Some of the highly-well- recognized ISSHMs are InHM (Smerdon et al., 2007; VanderKwaak and Loague, 2001)(VanderKwaak and Parflow (Maxwell and Miller, 2005; Maxwell et al., 2015), OpenGeoSys (Kolditz et al., 2012; Delfs et al., 2012)(Delfs et al., 2012; Kolditz tRIBS (Ivano et al., 2004), CATHY (Camporese et al., 2010), GSFLOW (Hunt et al., 2013; Markstrom et al., 2008), HydroGeoSphere (Hwang et al., 2014; Therrien et al., 2010)(Markstrom et al., 2008; Hunt et al., 2013), HydroGeoSphere (Therrien et al., 2010; Hwang et al., 2018; Constant et al., 2019)
- 10 MIKE SHE (Graham and Butts, 2005), MODHMS (Panday and Huyakorn, 2004; Phi et al., 2013), GEOtop (Rigon et al., 2006), IRENE (Spanoudaki et al., 2009), CAST3M (Weill et al., 2009), PIHM (Kumar et al., 2009; Qu and Duffy, 2007), and PAWS (Shen and Phanikumar, 2010). Although the methods for subsurface flow in ISSHMs are commonly based on saturated/unsaturated groundwater flow equations, the approaches for surface flow are inevitably based on some approximations and conceptualizations (e.g., kinematic wave approximation, 1D rill flow, etc). Besides, the modeling skill of reproducing
- 15 distributed groundwater head dynamics at regional scale is always neglected and seldom assessed by the data (e.g., groundwater head, tracer, etc). diffusive-wave approximation, 1-D rill flow). The applications of these ISSHMs in the literature are mainly focusing on the field and small watershed scale, while the assessment mainly focus on the field- and small watershed-scale, while assessments of modeled groundwater heads head dynamics at larger scales can only be found in very few publications (Goderniaux et al., 2009; Sutanudjaja et al., 2011). At this largerscale, i.e., regionalscale, scale most of the ISSHMs
- 20 are based on a continuity of pressure and flux on the surface water/groundwater (SW/GW) interface, while the momentum balance condition is always missing (Paniconi and Putti, 2015). Some of ISSHMs apply a storage-excess runoff generation concept, whereby the runoffs are normalized as storage-excess runoff through solving Richards equation combined with a boundary condition switching method. Then, the generated runoffs are routed into streams by a routing algorithm. These models can simulate neglected (Paniconi and Putti, 2015). ISSHMs relying on shallow-water and the Richards equation assumptions
- 25 often encounter problems in simulating quick flow dependent on essentially unknown sub-grid-scale topographic variability and subsurface structure (Paniconi and Putti, 2015). Nevertheless, these models are capable of simulating the dynamic interaction of different processes within SW/GW components, e.g., the interaction of soil moisture and groundwater head (Cuthbert et al., 2013; Maxwell et al., 2015; Rihani et al., 2010; Sutanudjaja et al., 2014) (Rihani et al., 2010; Cuthbert et al., 2013; Sutan well as the storage-runoff correlation (VanderKwaak and Loague, 2001; Liang et al., 2003; Huntington and Niswonger, 2012;
- 30 Koirala et al., 2014; Fang and Shen, 2017), etc.

Typical hydrologic models, like such as mHM (Samaniego et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2013b), VIC (Liang et al., 1994), and HBV (Lindström et al., 1997), are good at predicting quantities like, such as discharge but, as mentioned above, are highly conceptualized and there suffering from interpretability of conceptual and their model results are difficult to interpret with respect to certain processes (e.g., groundwater storage and heads). More The output of more mechanistic ISSHMs, like

35 such as Parflow, CATHY, and HydroGeoSphere, are highly interpretable but show consistently worse performance than typ-

ical hydrologic models when predicting runoff (Gulden et al., 2007; Paniconi and Putti, 2015). These different abilities The differing capabilities of typical hydrologic models vs. in contrast to the more mechanistic ISSHMs are eaused by a result of the different challenges that are posed by the different various compartments of the terrestrial water cycle. One of the main challenges in the modeling surface and near-surface storage is process uncertainty, with processes like since processes such as

- 5 evapotranspiration, land use, land cover, snow pack , are extremely complex and dynamic. The process uncertainty decreases as one goes deeper into the subsurface storage. In the subsurface storage, hydrological processes are relatively well understood well-understood and therefore conceptually simpler (Dagan, 2012). Meanwhile, the data uncertainty becomes more significant in the deep subsurface storage compared to the in comparison to shallow storage. Moreover, a recent study reveals the strong spatial and temporal heterogeneity of processes and properties on at the SW/GW interface, and underlines the importance of
- 10 quantifying variability across several scales on-at the SW/GW interface and its significance to water resources management (McLachlan et al., 2017).

In this study, we therefore coupled the <u>Mesoscale mesoscale</u> Hydrologic Model (mHM v5.7) (Samaniego et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2013b) with <u>a thermo-hydro-mechanical-chemical (THMC) the porous media</u> simulator OpenGeoSys (OGS) (Kolditz et al., 2012, 2016) with <u>an the</u> overall aim of modelling <u>regional scale regional-scale</u> groundwater flow dynam-

- 15 ics. mHM has been demonstrated its preeminence demonstrated its pre-eminence in coping with process uncertainty in the near-surface zone while providing excellent discharge prediction (Huang et al., 2017). On the other hand, OGS has been demonstrated its ability demonstrated its capability of dealing with data uncertainty in groundwater aquifers. With aquifers (Sun et al., 2011; Walther et al., 2012; Selle et al., 2013). Using these two well-tested modeling codesavailablecodes, we want to answer the following scientific questions: First, can (1) Can spatially distributed groundwater heads and their dynamics be
- 20 reasonably captured by expanding the abilities capabilities of a surface hydrologic modellike, such as mHM at the regional scale, all regional-scale, while conserving its excellence in predicting discharge? Second, can (2) Can spatially resolved ground-water recharge estimates, provided by mHM, improve the prediction of head measurements of groundwater models like such as OGS? To answer these questions, we applied the coupled model mHM#OGS v1.0 in a central German meso-scale catchment (850 km²), and evaluated the model skills using measurements of streamflow and groundwater heads from several wells located
- 25 in the study area. The , herein, illustrated coupled (surface) hydrologic and groundwater model (mHM#OGS v1.0) presented in this paper is our first attempt toward the development of a large-scale coupled modeling system with the aim to analyze the spatio-temporal variability of groundwater flow dynamics at a regional scale.

The paper is structured as follows. In the next section, we describe the model concept, model structureas well as coupling schemeter, and the coupling scheme. In Section 3.1, the study area and model setup used <u>for illustration</u> in this study are

30 comprehensively illustrated described. In Section 4, we present the simulation results of mHM#OGS v1.0 in a catchment in central Germanythe application. In the Section 5, we discuss the model results as well as advantages and limitations of current modeling approach.

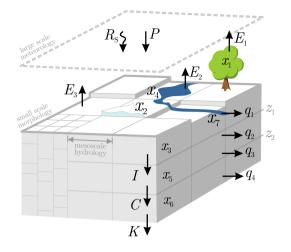


Figure 1. The concept of the mesoscale hydrologic model, mHM.

2 Model description

2.1 mesoscale Hydrologic Model (mHMv5.7)

The mesoscale Hydrologic Model (mHM, www.ufz.de/mhm) is a spatially explicit distributed hydrologic model that uses grid cells as a primary modeling unit, and accounts for the following processes: canopy interception, snow accumulation and melt-

- 5 ing, soil moisture dynamics, infiltration and surface runoff, evapotranspiration, subsurface storage and discharge generation, deep percolation, baseflow, discharge attenuation, as well as flood routing (Figure 1). The runoff generation applies a robust scheme which routes runoff in upstream cells along river network networks using the Muskingum-Cunge algorithm. The model is driven by daily meteorological forcings (e.g., precipitation, temperature), and it utilizes observable basin utilizes observable physical properties or signals of the basin (e.g., soil textural, vegetation, and geological properties) to infer the spatial variabil-
- 10 ity of the required parameters. mHM is an open-source project written in Fortran 2008. Parallel versions of mHM are available based on OpenMP concepts using OpenMP concepts are available.

A unique feature of mHM is the application of Multiscale Parameter Regionalization (MPR). The MPR method accounts for subgrid variabilities of catchment physical characteristics variability in physical characteristics of the catchment such as topography, terrain, soil and vegetation. The model is flexible MPR methodology facilitates the flexibility of the model for hydrologi-

- 15 cal simulations at various spatial scales due to by applying the MPR methodology (Samaniego et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2013a, b; Rakovee Within mHM, three levels are differentiated (Samaniego et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2013a, b; Rakovec et al., 2016a, b; Samaniego et al., 2010; mHM differentiates three levels to better represent the spatial variability of state and inputs input variables. The effective parameters in at different spatial scales are dynamically linked by a physically-based upscaling scheme. Detailed A detailed description of MPR, as well as the formulations governing hydrological processes could be referred to in, are given by Samaniego
- 20 et al. (2010) and Kumar et al. (2013b).

Below, we listed the formulas-list the equations that describe near-surface processes in the deep soil layer and groundwater layer and groundwater layers. The comprehensive equation system of system of equations of mHM can be found in Samaniego et al. (2010). Here, we only listed the equations relevant to this study for the coupling to OpenGeoSys. In the subsurface reservoir, which is the second layer of the vertical layer vertical layer (x_5 in Figure 1), interflow is partitioned into fast interflow (q_2) and slow interflow (q_3):

$$q_2(t) = \max\{I_-^2(t) + x_5(t-1) - \beta_1(z_2 - z_1), 0\}\beta_2$$
⁽¹⁾

$$q_3(t) = \beta_3 (x_5(t-1))^{\beta_4} \tag{2}$$

where $q_2(t)$ is fast interflow at time $t \pmod{1}$, I is the infiltration capacity $[mmd^{-1}]$, x_5 is the water depth of water storage in the deep soil reservoir [mm], β_1 is the maximum holding capacity of the deep soil reservoir, z_i is depth of subsurface layer i, β_2 is the fast recession constant, $q_3(t)$ is slow interflow at time $t [mmd^{-1}]$, β_3 is the slow concession constant, and β_4 is the exponent that quantifies the degree of non-linearity of the cell response.

The groundwater recharge is equivalent to the percolation to the groundwater reservoir (the third of the vertical layers vertical layer, see x_6 in Figure 1). The groundwater recharge C(t) can be expressed by

$$C(t) = \beta_5 x_5(t-1)$$
(3)

15 where C(t) is groundwater recharge at cell i the groundwater recharge in cell i [mm d⁻¹], and β_5 is the effective percolation rate.

In the groundwater reservoir, baseflow is generated following a linear relationship between storage and runoff:

$$q_4(t) = \beta_6 x_6(t-1) \tag{4}$$

where $q_4(t)$ is the baseflow [mm d⁻¹], β_6 is the baseflow recession rate, and x_6 is depth of groundwater reservoir [mm].

20 The runoff from upstream grid and internal runoff at cells and the internal runoff in cell *i* are routed into streams using the Muskingum algorithm:

$$Q_i^1(t) = Q_i^1(t-1) + c_1(Q_i^0(t-1) - Q_i^1(t-1)) + c_2(Q_i^0(t) - Q_i^0(t-1))$$
(5)

with

25

5

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$$Q_i^0(t) = Q_{i'}(t) + Q_{i'}^1(t)$$
(6)

$$c_1 = \frac{\Delta t}{\kappa (1 - \xi) + \frac{\Delta t}{2}} \tag{7}$$

$$c_2 = \frac{\frac{\Delta t}{2} - \kappa \xi}{\kappa (1 - \xi) + \frac{\Delta t}{2}} \tag{8}$$

where Q_i^0 and Q_i^1 denote the runoff entering and leaving the river reach located on in cell *i*, respectively [mm d⁻¹], $Q_{i'}$ is the contribution from the upstream cell i' i' [mm d⁻¹], κ is the Muskingum travel time parameter, ξ is the Muskingum attenuation parameter, Δt is time interval in hours-the time step-size [hrh], and *t* is the time index for each Δt interval.

2.2 OpenGeoSys (OGS)

OpenGeoSys (OGS) is an open-source project with the aim of developing robust numerical methods for the simulation of Thermo-Hydro-Mechanical-Chemical (THMC) processes in porous and fractured media. OGS is written in C++ with a focus on the finite element analysis of coupled multi-field problems. Parallel versions of OGS are available based on both MPI and

5 OpenMP concepts are available (Wang et al., 2009; Kolditz et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2017). To date, two OGS versions are available for use. These are: OGS5 (https://github.com/ufz/ogs5) and OGS6 (https://github.com/ufz/ogs). In this study, the term "OpenGeoSys (OGS)" represents OGS5 if there is no special instructionnot stated otherwise.

OGS has been successfully applied in different fields, such as water resources management, hydrology, geothermal energy, energy storage, CO₂ storage, and waste <u>deposition_disposal</u> (Kolditz et al., 2012; Shao et al., 2013; Gräbe et al., 2013; Wang

10 et al., 2017). In the field of hydrology / hydrogeology, OGS has been applied to various topics such as regional groundwater flow and transport (Sun et al., 2011; Selle et al., 2013), contaminant hydrology (Beyer et al., 2006; Walther et al., 2014), reactive transport (Shao et al., 2009; He et al., 2015), and sea water intrusion (Walther et al., 2012), etcamong others.

Here we list the governing equations of saturated groundwater flow, which are relevant in this study. They can be expressed asSaturated groundwater flow follows the continuity equation and Darcy's law:

15
$$S \frac{\partial \psi_p}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{q} + q_s$$
 (9)

$$\boldsymbol{q} = -K_s \nabla(\psi_p - \boldsymbol{z}) \tag{10}$$

where S is specific storage for confined aquifer and specific yield for unconfined aquifer coefficient in confined aquifers, and the specific yield in unconfined aquifers [1/L], ψ_p is the pressure head in porous media the porous media. (LT-1), t is time[T], q is the Darcy flux (LT-1)specific discharge or Darcy velocity [LT-1], q_s is a the volumetric source/sink term (T-1)[T-1], K_s is the saturated hydraulic conductivity tensor [LT-1], $\frac{1}{z}$ and z is the vertical coordinate [L].

The stream network is normally represented by a set of polylines in the geometry file of OGS. In the case of a 3-D model, a common way to set up the polyline system is to utilize the mapping tool embedded in OGS source code, by which the shape file obtained from GIS software representing streams can be easily mapped onto the upper surface of OGS mesh and converted into a set of polylines. Each reach of the stream network can be represented by one polyline or several continuous polylines.

25 depending on the demand of the user. Each polyline consists of a set of continuous mesh nodes, upon which Dirichlet, Neumann or Robin boundary conditions can be applied.

2.3 Coupling mechanism

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The coupled model mHM#OGS v1.0 is developed to simulate SW/GW flow in one or more catchments by simultaneously calculating flow across the land surface and within subsurface materialsthe groundwater. mHM#OGS v1.0 simulates flow

30 within three hydrological regions. The first region is limited by the upper bound of boundary of the plant canopy and the lower bound-boundary of the soil zone bottom. The second region includes open-channel water, such as streams. The third region is

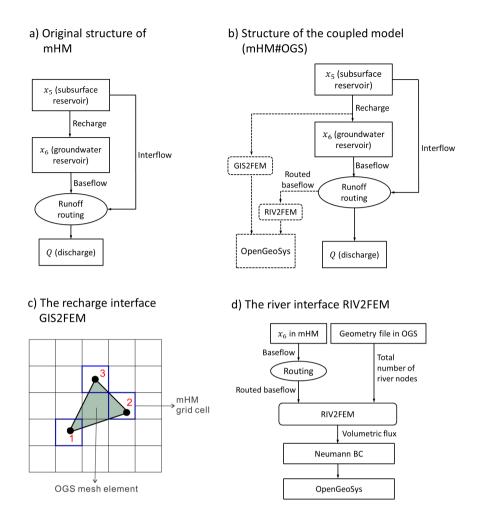


Figure 2. The schematic Schematic of the coupled model mHM#OGS v1.0. a) the original Original structure of vertical the vertically layered reservoir of mHM;. b) the structure of the coupled model (mHM#OGS v1.0). c) Illustration of data interpolation and transformation through the coupling interface GIS2FEM. d) Scheme of the river interface RIV2FEM. For the sake of simplicity, the figure only displays mHM layers relevant to this study , and neglect neglects the other mHM layers (i.e. g., $x_1 - x_4$). Grid-based In Figure 2c, the grid-based mHM fluxes (e.g., GW-rechargeand baseflow) are linear-linearly interpolated to the top surface of the OGS mesh, and further transferred into volumetric values by face integration calculation, which are and directly assigned to OGS the surface mesh nodes of the OGS grid.

the saturated groundwater water saturated aquifer. mHM is used to simulate the processes in the first and second regions, while OGS is used to simulate the hydrological processes in the third region.

The basic idea is to feed fluxes generated by mHM(e.g., distributed groundwater coupling initiative aims to add additional predictive capability of groundwater heads, which is achieved by OGS, to the existing capability of predicting discharges that is

5 achieved by mHM. mHM is used to estimate step-wise and component-wise a water budget through model calibration against discharge. In contrast, OGS serves as a post-processor to obtain groundwater heads by using mHM simulated recharge and

baseflow) to the OGS mesh surface as outer forcings through a coupling interface as driving forces. Two model interfaces, namely GIS2FEM (Figure 2), and RIV2FEM, have been developed to link the two models by transferring recharge and baseflow from mHM to Neumann boundary conditions in OGS. The two models are performed executed separately and sequentially with usually, typically with different temporal (e.g., daily in mHM and weekly or monthly in OGS) and spatial

- 5 resolutions (e.g., larger grid cell size rectangular, structured grids with coarse resolution in mHM and smallerelement size, potentially unstructured grids with fine resolution in OGS). The original vertical vertical vertically layered reservoirs in mHM, e.g., namely the soil-zone reservoir, subsurface reservoir and groundwater reservoir and the subsurface reservoir are preserved, implying that all well-tested well-tested features of mHM (e.g., MPR, infiltration-runoff partitioning) are fully preserved retained in the coupled model.
- 10 To illustrate the coupling mechanism in detail, we itemized the coupling workflow in below.
 - 1. mHM is run independent independently of OGS to calculate land surface fluxes.

Using a gridded observations of gridded meteorological forcings (precipitation, temperature, and potential evapotranspiration), the grid-based distributed-infiltration rates (e.g., groundwater recharge) and runoff components (e.g., interflow, baseflow) are thereby estimated and saved as mHM output files. The original linear groundwater reservoir (depth x_6 in Figure 1) is used to estimate baseflow. Moreover, MPR is used in the calibration process such that subgrid variabilities can be validly calculated. The details of physical basis and parameterization scheme in mHM can be found in Section 2.1. The spatially distributed groundwater recharge and total routed baseflow are written into raster files for later use.

- 2. After mHM run was the mHM run has finished, the step-wise routed baseflow estimated by mHM are is transformed to distributed baseflow along OGS stream networkriver discharges along streams as represented in OGS.
- 20 The stream conceptions within mHM and OGS are slightly different, in terms that the stream in mHM is Most physically-based ISSHMs characterize river-groundwater interaction based on either first-order flow exchange or boundary condition switching (Paniconi and Putti, 2015). However, this approach inevitably relies on a parameter-set describing geometric, topographic, and hydraulic properties of the stream channel (e.g., river bed conductance, river bed and drain elevations, channel width). Unfortunately, these parameters are essentially unknown at a large scale due to the lack of data and the subgrid-scale variability of these parameters. Due to these limitations, we use an alternative approach which is based on 25 the routed baseflow estimated by mHM.

mHM and OGS conceptualize streams differently: streams in mHM are implicitly defined based on pre-processing of **DEM**-digital elevation model (DEM) data and a routing scheme, while in OGS by OGS uses an explicit predefined river geometry. In OGS, each reach of the stream network is defined by a polyline in an-the OGS geometry file. To coordinate the two different conceptions, we transfer the total routed baseflow (approaches, we developed a model interface, RIV2FEM, to convert the routed baseflow estimated by mHM) to distributed baseflow along OGS streams by to Neumann boundary conditions assigned at stream nodes of the OGS mesh (Figure 2d). Via RIV2FEM, the routed baseflow estimated by mHM is transferred to the uniformly disaggregated discharges by distributing it uniformly along

15



the predefined stream network in OGS . The detailed description of stream network in OGScan be found in Section 3.4(Figure 2d):

$$\overline{q}_4(t) = \frac{Q_4(t)}{N} \tag{11}$$

5

10

where $\bar{q}_4(t)$ denotes the disaggregated discharge assigned at every stream node in OGS at time $t [L^3T^{-1}]$, $Q_4(t)$ denotes the routed baseflow at the outlet of catchment at time $t [L^3T^{-1}]$, N denotes the total number of stream nodes in OGS. The uniformly disaggregated discharges are then assigned to every stream node in OGS to serve as the Neumann boundary condition (Figure 2d). This approach is based on the fact that due to lack of data (e.g., river bed conductance, tracer tracking, etc), the spatial pattern of baseflow along streams is uncertain. Based on the mass conservation criteria, we made the assumption that baseflow is uniformly distributed along streams such that the step-wise water balance is guaranteedsignificantly reduces the number of parameters, avoids the uncertainty caused by the unknown river properties, and is suitable for many real-world applications that suffer from scarce data. Moreover, as recharge and baseflow are directly taken from mHM, the mass conservation criterion is naturally satisfied in this approach.

- 3. The distributed groundwater recharge generated from mHM are by mHM is fed to the coupling interface GIS2FEM, and further then transferred to the upper surface boundary conditions of the OGS model.
- 15 The coupling interface GIS2FEM is used to interpolate and transfer mHM grid-based fluxes recharge to OGS nodal flux values. After reading a raster file of mHM generated fluxes, the interface recharge values. GIS2FEM interpolates the flux value to the top surface elements of the OGS mesh. For each surface element, if its centroid is within the range of The detailed workflow is:
 - GIS2FEM reads the raster file generated by mHM and the mesh file of OGS.
 - In the case of a 3-D mesh, GIS2FEM extracts the upper surface of the OGS mesh. For each of the nodes on this surface, GIS2FEM searches for the mHM grid cell, the flux that the node is located in, and assigns the recharge value of this grid cell is assigned to the corresponding surface element in OGS mesh, node (marked as C^m).
 - After all top surface elements being have been processed, GIS2FEM will take undertakes the face integration calculation, by which the recharge data and baseflow are converted into nodal source terms specific recharge C^m [LT⁻¹] calculated by mHM is converted into volumetric recharge C^{in} [L³T⁻¹] and assigned to the corresponding OGS mesh nodes (Figure 2c). Specifically, the specific recharge C in a certain element is calculated as:

$$C(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} W_j(\mathbf{x}) C_j^m,$$
(12)

where x is the spatial coordinate on the surface, N is the total number of nodes in a surface element, W_j is the weighting function of node j, C_i^m is the specific recharge at node j calculated by mHM [LT⁻¹]. Then the volumetric

20

recharge C_i^{in} at node *i* (*i* is the global node index) is calculated by the face integration calculation:

$$C_i^{in} = -\int\limits_{\partial\Omega} W_i(\mathbf{x})C(\mathbf{x})d(\mathbf{x}),\tag{13}$$

where C_i^{in} is the volumetric recharge of node i [L³T⁻¹], $\partial\Omega$ is the surface boundary of the FEM domain, W_i is the weighting function of node i.

5 4. After mHM generated the mHM-generated recharge and baseflow were successfully transferred to boundary conditions on upper-surface of have been transferred into boundary conditions at the upper surface of the OGS mesh, the groundwater model will run subsequently to simulate is run to simulate the groundwater flow and transportprocesses.

3 Study area and model setupExample application

3.1 Study area and model setup

- 10 We use a meso-scale catchment (about 850 km²) upstream of the Nägelstedt gauge located in central Germany to establish and assess our test our coupled model (Figure 3). The Nägelstedt catchment comprises the headwaters of the Unstrut river basin. The Unstrut river basin is a sedimentary basin of Unstrut river, a left River, a tributary of the Saale. It is selected in this study because there are many River Saale. We selected this study area because many of the groundwater monitoring wells operated by Thuringian State office in the area are operated by the Thuringian State Office for the Environment and Geology (TLUG)
- 15 and the Collaborative Research Center AquaDiva (Küsel et al., 2016). Morphologically, the terrain The elevation within the catchment is in a range of ranges between 164 m and 516 m, whereby the higher regions are in the west and south as part of and belong to the forested hill chain of the Hainich (Figure 3). The Nägelstedt catchment is one of the most intensively used agricultural regions in Germany. In terms of drinking water supply, about 70% of the water requirement is satisfied by groundwater (Wechsung, 2005). About 17% of the land in this region is forested area, 78% is covered by crop and grassland, and 4% is housing urban and transport area. The mean annual precipitation in this area is about 660 mm.
- In this study, mHM runs are-were executed for a time period of 35 years (from January 1, 1970 to December 30, 2004), with the period 1970 1974 being used as a for spin-upperiod. OGS is QGS was run for the period from January 1, 1975 to December 30, 2005. mHM is was run with a daily time step, while OGS is was run with a monthly time step. The resolution of mHM grid cells is 500 m \times 500 m. The QGS uses a structured, hexahedral 3-D mesh, with a spatial resolution of OGS mesh
- 25 is set to 250 m × 250 m in the horizontal direction and 10 m in the vertical direction over the whole domain. The fluxes are interpolated from coarser mHM grid to finer OGS surface element through GIS2FEM (Figure 2e). The detailed input data and parameter set parameter set to run both models are detailed in the following sections.

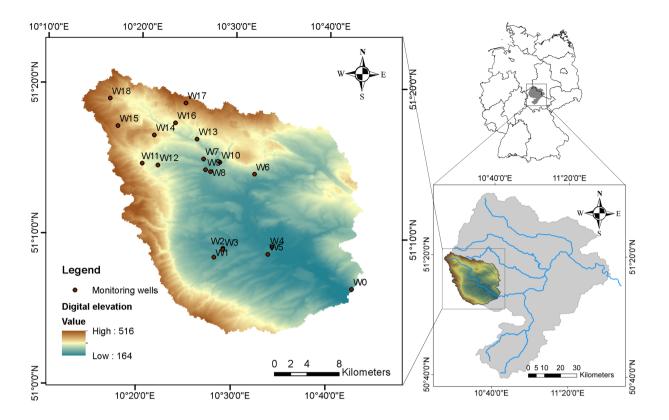
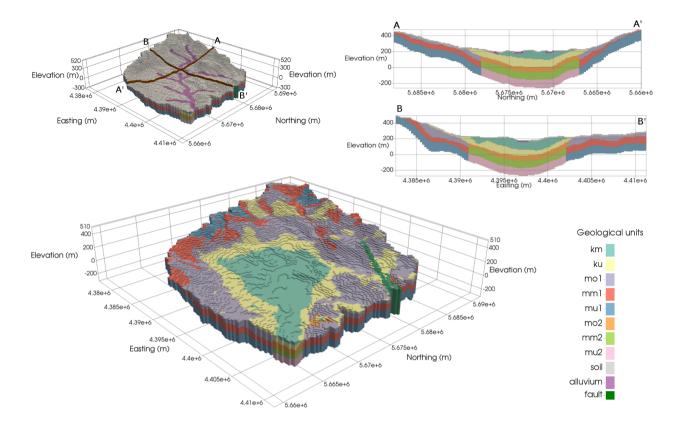


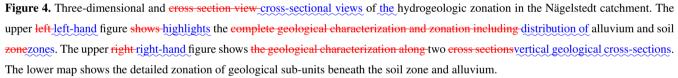
Figure 3. The Nägelstedt catchment used as the test catchment for this modelstudy. The left-left-hand map shows elevation and locations of monitoring wells used in this study. The lower right-right-hand map shows the relative location of Nägelstedt catchment in the Unstrut basinBasin. The upper right-right-hand map shows the location of the Unstrut basin Basin in Germany.

3.2 Meteorological forcings and morphological properties

We started the modeling by performing the daily simulation of mHM to calculate near-surface hydrological processes. The mHM model is forced by daily meteorological forcings conditions, including distributed precipitation and atmosphere atmospheric temperature. The spatial patterns of precipitation and atmosphere atmospheric temperature were based on point measurements

- ⁵ of precipitation and atmosphere atmospheric temperature at weather stations from the German Meteorological Service (DWD). The point data at weather stations were subsequently krigged krigged into a 4 km precipitation fieldsfield, and then downscaled to mHM grid cells. Moreover, the potential ET was quantified based on the method from Hargreaves and Samani (1985). Other datasets used in mHM are the digital elevation model (DEM) DEM data, which is the basis for deriving properties like such as slope, river beds, and flow direction; soil and geological maps, and meta-data such as sand and clay contents, bulk density,
- 10 and dominant geological types; CORINE land-cover information (in the years 1990, 2000 and 2005); and discharge data at the outlet of the catchment.





3.3 Aquifer properties

We used a stratified aquifer model to explicitly present represent the heterogeneous distribution of hydraulic properties (e.g., K-value, hydraulic conductivity, specific yield, and specific storage). The stratified aquifer model is based on well log data and geophysical data from Thuringian State office obtained from the Thuringian State Office for the Environment and Geology

5 (TLUG). To convert the data format, we We used the workflow developed by Fischer et al. (2015) to convert the data format, by which the complex 3D geological model were converted into 3-D geological model was converted into the open-source VTK format file that can be directly read by OGS.

The dominant sediments major stratigraphic units in the study site are the Muschelkalk (Middle Triassic) and Keuper (Middle and Late the Keuper (Upper Triassic). Younger deposits from Tertiary and Quaternary deposits are less important for the large

10 seale-large-scale hydrogeology of the basin. The Keuper deposits mainly lie in the center of the Unstrut basin Basin and act as permeable shallow aquifers. In the Nägelstedt catchment, the Keuper deposits are further classified subdivided into

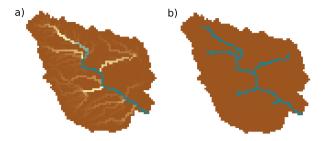


Figure 5. Illustration of the stream network used in this study. a) Original stream network based on the streamflow routing algorithm of mHM; b) Processed stream network that are was used in this study. The small tributaries where the runoff rates are below 1500 mm/month the threshold have been cut out removed from the original stream network.

two geological sub-units: Middle Keuper (km) and <u>low Lower</u> Keuper (ku) (see Figure 4). The Muschelkalk is marked by a prevailing marine environment and is subdivided into three sub-units the Upper Muschelkalk (mo), Middle Muschelkalk (mm) and low-, dolomites and residues of eroded salt layers) and Lower Muschelkalk (mu, limestones). According to previous geological survey (Seidel, 2004), even the same sub-unit of Muschelkalk have a diverse surveys (Seidel, 2004), the sub-units of

- 5 the Muschelkalk have varying hydraulic properties depending on their positions and depths. They are further divided into subunits with higher permeabilities , which are (mo1, mm1 and mu1(Figure 4),) and sub-units with lower permeabilities , which are (mo2, mm2 and mu2) (Figure 4). The Upper Muschelkalk (mo) has been widely considered as a karstified formation. Recent research by Kohlhepp et al. (2017) has revealed that in the Hainich Critical Zone, the intense karstification and the conduit are limited at the base of the mo formation. Accordingly, we use the equivalent porous medium approach to characterize the Upper
- 10 <u>Muschelkalk. The uppermost layer with a depth of 10 m is set as a soil layer (Figure 4). A high-permeability alluvium layer is set along the mainstream and major tributaries representing to represent granite and stream deposits (Figure 4).</u>

3.4 Boundary conditions

Based on the steep topography along the watershed divides, groundwater is assumed to be naturally separated and not able unable to pass across the boundaries of the watershed. No-flow boundaries are imposed. In general, no-flow boundaries are set

15 at the outer perimeters surrounding the basin as well as at the lower aquitard. <u>On the basis of the measurements, a Dirichlet</u> boundary condition is assumed at the northwestern and northeastern edges.

20 small intermittent tributaries by setting a threshold value of long-term averaged routed runoff. Only streams with a runoff rate higher than the threshold (in this case study, 1500 mm0.145 m³/months) are delineated as valid streams. In other words, we neglect neglected the intermittent streams to the upper stream reaches (Figure 5). The preprocessed stream network consists of a main stream and four tributaries (Figure 5b). Each-The reach of each stream is defined as a polyline in OGS geometry

fileand comprises many consecutive nodes in OGS mesh. As mentioned in Section **??**, uniformly distributed baseflow rates were subsequently a geometry file. As illustrated in Section 2.3, uniformly disaggregated groundwater discharges processed by the interface RIV2FEM were assigned to every OGS mesh nodes node within the stream network.

3.5 Calibration procedure

5 The calibration of the coupled model mHM#OGS v1.0 follows a two-step procedure.

For In the first step, mHM is was calibrated independent of OGS for the period from 1970 to 2005 by matching the observed runoff at the outlet of the catchment. The first 5 years are used as "were used as spin-up" period to set up initial conditions in the near-surface soil zone. The calibration workflow is a consecutive workflow where the parameters which affect the potential evapotranspiration, soil moisture, runoff and shallow subsurface flow were first calibrated until convergence criteria

10 was matched. The calibration goodness is handled by means of calculating The calibration quality is quantified by the Nash-Sutcliffe efficient coefficiency (NSE):

$$NSE = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |(h_m - h_s)|_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |(h_m - \bar{h}_m)|_i^2} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |(q_m - q_s)|_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |(q_m - \bar{q}_m)|_i^2}$$
(14)

where $h_s q_s$ is the simulated groundwater head discharge $[mL^3T^{-1}]$, \bar{h}_m is the q_m is the measured discharge $[L^3T^{-1}]$, and \bar{q}_m is the mean of measured groundwater head discharge $[mL^3T^{-1}]$.

- 15 For In the second step, the steady state groundwater model is steady-state groundwater model in OGS was calibrated to match the long-term mean of groundwater observations. The long term observed groundwater levels. The long-term mean of recharge and baseflow estimated by mHM are-were fed to the steady-state groundwater model as <u>Neumann</u> boundary conditions. <u>Meanwhile, the groundwater levels obtained from a couple of monitoring wells are averaged over the whole simulation period.</u> The calibration of the steady-state groundwater model aims for the most plausible distribution of hydraulic conductivities. The
- 20 intervals (i.e., upper and lower bounds) of adjustable parameters are taken from the literature (Wechsung, 2005; Seidel, 2004). Model-to-measurement matching is implemented by minimizing the The calibration was performed using the software package PEST (Doherty et al., 1994). The model parameters were adjusted within a fixed interval until the value of objective function, which is the sum of weighted squared residuals of long-term mean of modeled groundwater heads modeled and observed groundwater heads in this case. Goodness of fit between the simulated and observed long-term average groundwater levels, was
- 25 minimized. Specifically, the intervals of adjustable parameters were taken from the literature (Wechsung, 2005; Seidel, 2004), and the weights assigned to each observation were set uniformly to 1. The calibration result is assessed by the root-mean-square error (RMSE).

3.6 Model evaluation and sensitivity analysis

Besides the observed discharge at the catchment outlet, we also used observed groundwater head time series. We used the

30 time series of groundwater levels in 19 monitoring wells distributed over the catchment to evaluate model performance. The K values are set to the optimized values from the steady state modelcalibration to evaluate the predictive capability of the transient

model. In the transient model, hydraulic conductivities are obtained from the calibrated steady-state model. Meanwhile, the initial condition of the groundwater head is directly taken from the result of steady-state groundwater hydrographs are used as the initial condition for the transient groundwater model. For evaluating the predictive ability in terms of groundwater heads, the model. The Pearson correlation coefficient R_{cor} and the inter-quantile inter-quartile range error QRE are used as two

5 summary statistics to evaluate the predictive capability. The (relative) inter-quantile inter-quartile range error QRE is defined by:

$$QRE = \frac{IQ_{7525}^{md} - IQ_{7525}^{dt}}{IQ_{7525}^{dt}}$$
(15)

where IQ_{7525}^{md} and IQ_{7525}^{dt} are the inter-quantile ranges of the time-series of modeling result inter-quartile ranges of simulations and observations, respectively.

- 10 We also sought to quantify the effect of a spatially-distributed recharge on the simulated groundwater headssensitivity of groundwater flows to the different spatial pattern of recharge. For this purpose, we set up a reference scenario by spatially homogenizing mHM generated recharge . To distinguish the two recharge scenarios, we use the abbreviation "RR" to represent reference recharge scenario, and "mR" to represent mHM recharge scenario. a uniform recharge scenario was established as the reference scenario. The sensitivity analysis follows a two-step workflow. First, we calibrated the steady-state groundwater mod-
- 15 els in for the two recharge scenarios independently. Second, we conducted transient simulations by assigning the same values of storage parametersand compared, and then observed their corresponding performances in two recharge scenarios. Despite the different spatial pattern of recharge and K With the exception of recharge scenario and hydraulic-conductivity values, all model parameters (e.g., specific yields, yield and specific storage) and model inputs in the two scenarios are identical inputs are set to be identical in both scenarios. The R_{cor} and Pearson correlation coefficient R_{cor}, and the inter-quartile range error QRE
- 20 are used as two summary skill scores to assess model performances in the two respective simulations recharge scenarios.

4 Results

4.1 Calibration

As the first steppart of calibration, mHM is calibrated independent of OGS. Monthly dischargedata from January 1975 to December 2004 are used for model calibrationagainst discharge. The calibration results indicate that mHM is capable to

- 25 reasonably reproduce demonstrate the predictive capability of mHM in reproducing the time series of catchment discharge (Figure 6). The Nash–Sutcliffe model efficiency coefficient (NSE) is 0.88, while the Pearson correlation coefficient is 0.96(Figure 6). Other fluxeslike evaportransporation, such as evapotranspiration measured at eddy-covariance stations inside this area, also shows quite reasonable correspondence to the modeled estimation estimate (Heße et al., 2017).
- Subsequently, steady state In the second step, the steady-state groundwater model is calibrated against long term the
 long-term mean of groundwater headsusing PEST (Doherty et al., 1994). Table 1 shows the calibrated hydraulic conductivities of each in each of the geological units. The upper and lower limit of each parameter are defined according to literature (Seidel, 2004; Weehsung, 2005). The calibrated conductivities in each geological zone are displayed in Table 1. The objective

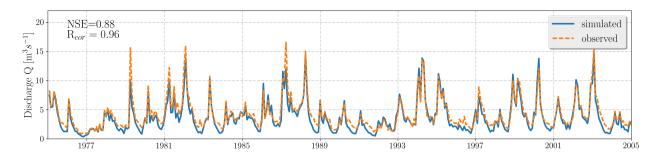


Figure 6. Observed and simulated monthly discharge at the outlet of Nagelstedt the Nägelstedt catchment.

function of calibration, which is the sum of squared weighted residuals, converged from the an initial value of 8625 m² to 464.74 m² after $\frac{114 \text{ total}}{114 \text{ total}}$ a total of 114 model runs.

Broadly speaking, the calibration results suggest that the groundwater steady-state model can plausibly reproduce the finite numbers of observed groundwater heads within in the catchment. Figure 7 shows the 1-to-1-one-to-one plot of simulated and

- observed groundwater heads (locations of those wells are shown in Figure 3). It can be observed that In general, the model is capable of reproducing spatially-distributed groundwater heads in over a wide range, with an overall RMSE value of 6.33 m. The errors in simulated heads (Figure 7b) show that most of simulated head errors are within an interval of ±of 6.45 m. Most of the discrepancies between individual observations and simulations are within a reasonable range (i.e., less than 6 m). Nevertheless, there are some monitoring wells where the predictions are biased from observations show larger discrepancies
- 10 <u>between observations and simulations (i.e., greater than 6 m)</u>, which is due to the complex local geological formations around monitoring wells. No unknown local geological properties and subgrid-scale topographies. For the sake of simplicity, no further attempt was made to add more model complexity to improve model-to-measurement match the model fit.

Simulated water table depth The simulated depth to groundwater over the whole catchment using the calibrated K-hydraulic-conductivity values is shown in Figure 7c. Broadly speaking, the calibrated model reasonably reproduces the spatial ground-

15 water table distribution. Groundwater table depth is as large as above depth varies between greater than 40 m in the higher southwestern and northern mountainous areas, whereas to less than 5 m in the central lowlandsfrom simulation results. The plausibility of steady-state simulation results can further be assessed through regionalized observations of groundwater heads (Wechsung, 2005).

4.2 Spatio-temporal patterns of recharge and baseflow

20 Groundwater recharge has an arbitrary behaviour a spatially variable and dynamic behavior depending on the sporadic, irregular, and complex features of storm rainfall occurrences precipitation, geological structure, and morphological features. The temporal and spatial variability of groundwater recharge and baseflow is estimated by mHM ealeulation with over a period of 30 years from 1975 to 2005.

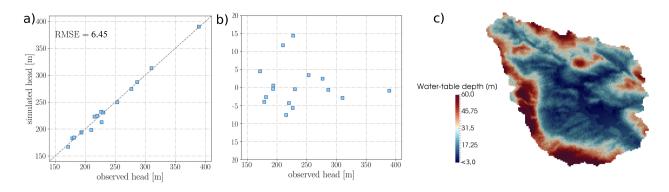


Figure 7. Illustration of steady-state groundwater model calibration and <u>simulated simulated heads</u>. (a) Observed and simulated groundwater head (including RMSE); (b) Difference between simulated and observed head related to the <u>observed observed head</u> values; c) Simulated long term mean water table depth <u>over across the</u> Nägelstedt catchment.

Figure 8 shows the spatial variability of groundwater recharge in three months: the early spring (March) March (Figure 8a), late spring (May) May (Figure 8b), and winter (January) January (Figure 8c). The results indicate that the largest groundwater recharge may occur at mountainous areas. Largest recharge occurs location of highest recharge rate is in the upstream bedrock areas where dominant sedimentary is Muschelkalk with a relatively low hydraulic conductivity. The largest

- 5 point-wise mountainous areas where the Muschelkalk aquifer outcrops, but varies in different seasons. The maximum value of monthly groundwater recharge varies from 26 mm in early springMarch, to 51 mm in late spring May and 14 mm in winter. Besides, we January. We also evaluated the plausibility of groundwater recharge simulated by mHM with through comparison to other reference datasets. At the large scale, the simulated groundwater recharge from large-scale, the groundwater recharge simulated by mHM agrees quite well with estimates from the Hydrological Atlas of Germany (Zink et al., 2017).
- 10 The boxplot (Figure 9a) shows the degree of spread and skewness of the distributions of the shows the distribution of monthly groundwater recharge and groundwater discharge. It reveals the long-term mean of groundwater inflow and outflow are balanced with the same monthly monthly baseflow. Over the entire year, groundwater inflow (recharge) and outflow (baseflow) are balanced, exhibiting a mean value of 8 mm/month. Due to the numerical error, a tiny difference of The difference between the two values is merely 2% between groundwater recharge and baseflow is observed in the boxplot. Nevertheless, we consider
- 15 this bias to be within an acceptable interval. Figure 9b shows the distribution of monthly groundwater recharge and monthly baseflow. The figure, however, indicates that the distribution of monthly groundwater recharge is skewed to the right, whereas the distribution of monthly baseflow is unimodalmore peaked. Figure 9e b depicts the time series of groundwater recharge and baseflow, which further demonstrates that the deviation of monthly groundwater recharge is larger than the baseflow. This phenomenon further reveals the significant buffering effect of the linear groundwater storage in mHM.

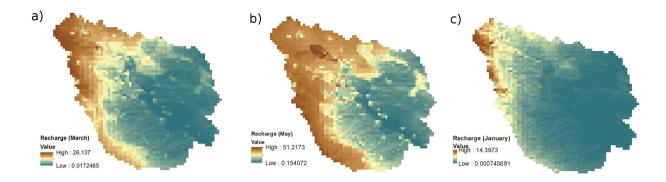


Figure 8. Spatial distributions of groundwater recharge in the Nägelstedt catchment (unit: mm/month) (a) during early spring, in March (b) late spring in May, and (c) winter of year-in January 2005.

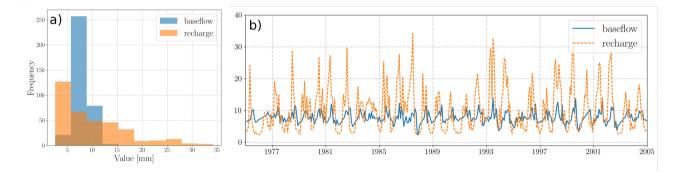


Figure 9. Analysis of groundwater inflow (recharge) and outflow (baseflow) over the Nägelstedt catchment. a) **Boxplot indicates spread**, **skewness**, and **outliers**-Distribution of groundwater recharge and baseflow. b) Histogram indicates the distribution of groundwater balance components. **eb**) Monthly time series of groundwater recharge and baseflow.

4.3 Model evaluation against dynamic groundwater heads

In this subsection, the head observations at of several monitoring wells at in the catchment were used to evaluate the model performance. We analyze the analyzed discrepancies between the modeled groundwater heads and their corresponding observed values in their anomalies by removing and observed groundwater heads by subtracting long-term mean values, \bar{h}_{mod} and \bar{h}_{obs} .

5 Four model skill model-skill scores including the mean value, the median value, the Pearson correlation coefficient R_{cor}, and the inter-quantile range error QRE are used to judge evaluate the model performance.

Five Six wells with different geological and morphological properties were randomly chosen as samples to test the effectiveness of our model exhibit the model performance (Figure 10). Specifically, well 4728230786 is located at northern upland and near the mainstream W10 is located in the northern uplands and is near the main stream, whereas well 4828230754 is located at the

10 southwestern lowland W1 is located in the southwestern lowlands. As can be observed from Figure 10, they provide good fits between simulated heads and observed heads with the , with a R_{cor} of 0.87 and 0.76, and the QRE of -23.34% and -1.65%,

Geological units		Hydraulic conductivity [1	- Specific yield [-]	Specific storage $[m^{-1}]$	
6	Lower limit	Upper limit	Calibrated value [m/s]	1	1 0
km	1.0×10^{-6}	5.5×10^{-3}	$\frac{1.493 \times 10^{-5}}{1.844 \times 10^{-5}}$	-	1×10^{-6}
ku	1.0×10^{-7}	3.4×10^{-3} 3.4×10^{-4}	$\frac{5.164 \times 10^{-4}}{2.848 \times 10^{-5}}$	-	1×10^{-6}
mo1	8.0×10^{-8}	2.0×10 ⁻³	$4.030 \times 10^{-5} 3.570 \times 10^{-5}$	0.10	1×10^{-6}
mm1	1.0×10^{-7}	9.0×10 ⁻⁴	$9.372 \times 10^{-6} \ 3.594 \times 10^{-5}$	-	1×10^{-6}
mu1	5.0×10 ⁻⁹	2.0×10^{-4}	$\frac{2.297 \times 10^{-6}}{6.202 \times 10^{-6}}$	-	1×10^{-6}
mo2	1.0×10^{-8}	5.0×10 ⁻⁴	$\underline{4.030 \times 10^{-6}}_{3.570 \times 10^{-6}}$	-	1×10^{-6}
mm2	3.0×10 ⁻⁸	9.0×10 ⁻⁵	$9.372 \times 10^{-7} \underbrace{3.594 \times 10^{-6}}_{-6}$	-	1×10^{-6}
mu2	5.0×10 ⁻¹⁰	2.0×10 ⁻⁵	$\frac{2.297 \times 10^{-7}}{6.202 \times 10^{-7}}$	-	1×10^{-6}
soil	5.0×10^{-5}	1.0×10^{-2}	$\frac{3.068 \times 10^{-4}}{6.617 \times 10^{-5}}$	0.10	-
alluvium	$4.0 \times 10^{-4} 4.0 \times 10^{-5}$	1.0×10^{-2} 1.0×10^{-2}	$\frac{1.026 \times 10^{-3}}{3.219 \times 10^{-4}}$	0.18	-

Table 1. Main hydraulic properties used for mHM#OGS v1.0 in the case study under the default mHM-generated recharge scenario.

Table 2. Hydraulic properties used in the uniform-recharge scenario (RR).

Geological units	km	ku	mol	mm1	<u>mu1</u>	mo2	mm2	mu2	soil	alluvium
Hydraulic conductivity	5.023	$\underbrace{6.216}_{\overbrace{}}$	8.608	2.990	5.316	$\underbrace{8.604}_{\infty}$	2.997	5.317	5.239	7.302
[<u>m/s]</u>	$\times 10^{-5}$	$\times 10^{-5}$	$\times 10^{-5}$	$\times 10^{-5}$	$\times 10^{-6}$	$\times 10^{-6}$	$\times 10^{-6}$	$\times 10^{-7}$	$\times 10^{-5}$	$\times 10^{-4}$

respectively. Well 4628230773-W17 is located in lower Keuper sediment the Lower Keuper unit, while well 4728230781 is located at upper Muschelkalk sediment. For those W16 is located in the upper Muschelkalk formation. In these two monitoring wells, simulation results the simulations are highly correlated with the observations with the R_{cor} of observations with high values of R_{cor} (0.71 and 0.81-0.82), in spite of their different geological properties (Figure 10). The simulation result at

5 monitoring well 4728230783 located at W13 (located in the northern mountainous areaalso has) also exhibits a high correlation with the observation with a R_{cor} of 0.85 (Figure 10). In general, the model is capable of capturing the historical trends of groundwater dynamics, even though the mean values of simulation and observation may mismatch simulations and observations may deviate to some extent. Due to the limited spatial resolution and complex hydrogeological localitystructure, this degree of discrepancy is acceptable.

10 4.4 Model sensitivity to different recharge scenarios

As described in Section 3.6, we set up a reference recharge scenario (RR)in which the recharge is homogeneously distributed in space, i.e., a spatially uniform recharge scenario, is set up to assess the effect of spatial recharge pattern towards groundwater hydrographs. patterns of recharge on groundwater heads. In this uniform recharge scenario, RR, the steady-state groundwater model, was re-calibrated using the long-term mean of spatially uniform recharge (Table 2). For the purpose of showing dis-

crepancies of model results between two recharge scenarios, we compared the values of R_{cor} and |QRE| at each monitoring well between mR and the spatially distributed recharge, mR, and the uniform recharge, RR (Figure 11). The mean value and the median value of R_{cor} and QRE are were also calculated and are shown in Figure 11. Figure 11a indicates that the correlation between observations and simulations using the spatially distributed recharge mR is higher than that using the uniform recharge

- 5 RR, with the averaged vale mean values of 0.704 and 0.677, respectively. The standard deviations are nearly the same in both scenarios. Considering that the only difference between mR and RR is the spatial pattern of recharge , we do conclude that the inclusion of the two recharge scenarios is their spatial patterns, we conclude that accounting for spatially-distributed recharge provides a solid improvement. The individual discrepancies of R_{cor} at well levels between the two scenarios are moderate. moderate improvement in the model.
- Figure 11b shows the absolute values of inter-quantile inter-quartile range error (IQREI) in simulations under using the two recharge scenarios (mR and RR), respectively. We found that the uncertainty deviation of IQREI is higher significantly larger than R_{cor}, e.g. i.e., the IQREI in two wells are abnormally higher than the other wells. The higher values of wells 4728230789 and 4627230764 IQREI at W8 and W18 may be caused by the their proximity to model boundsboundaries, as the two wells locate near either river or outer bound. This phenomenon reveals the are located either near a river or near the catchment
- 15 perimeter. This deviation indicates that accurate quantification of fluctuation amplitude in certain locations are difficult, the amplitude of head fluctuations at certain locations is difficult, which may be due to the complex hydrogeological locality of individual wellsproximity of boundaries or complex local topography and geology. Nevertheless, 16 out of 19 wells have low inter-quantile exhibit low inter-quartile range errors, with the values of IQREI values within an interval in a range of $\pm 40\%$ in the spatially distributed mR scenario. We also observe a smaller mean value of IQREI in mR than in RR. The and standard
- 20 deviation of lQREl in mR is also slightly smaller than RR. Those the spatially distributed mR than in the uniform scenario, <u>RR</u>. The 19 chosen monitoring wells cover geological zones of the geological units of the alluvium, Keuper, and Muschelkalk, and range from high mountains to lowlands all over across the catchment. These results point towards demonstrate the promising modeling capability of the model and highlight the moderately better simulation-to-observation match in mRhistorical matching when using a spatially distributed pattern of groundwater recharge.
- Figure 12 displays illustrates the seasonality of groundwater heads over the whole catchment by means of calculating the long-term mean groundwater heads in by showing the spatial distribution of groundwater heads averaged over the spring, summer, autumnand winter, and winter seasons, respectively. It indicates that in general, the possibility of groundwater flood event in spring and summer are higher than in autumn and winter. However, there can be observed a A strong spatial variability over different morphological classes and within different geological groupscan be observed. For example, the fluctuation
- 30 amplitudes of groundwater heads in the northern, eastern, and southeastern mountainous areas are larger than the central plain areas. Considering the need for predicting groundwater flood and drought in in the central plains area. In order to illustrate predicted groundwater levels and droughts caused by extreme climate events, we select selected a meteorologically wet month (August 2002) and a meteorologically dry month (August 2003), and show the groundwater heads variation in these months. Figure corresponding variations of groundwater heads in Figures 12e and Figure12fshow two scenes of groundwater heads
- 35 variations in wet season and dry season, respectively 12f. In general, the groundwater heads in the wet season are higher than

the long term mean values (Figure 12e). The variation of groundwater heads in the dry season, however, shows a strong spatial variability. Such a strong spatial variability of groundwater heads variation has also been reported , e.g., by Kumar et al. (2016).

5 Discussion and conclusions

Our simulation results demonstrate that the coupled model mHM#OGS v1.0 can reproduce groundwater heads generally reproduce groundwater-head dynamics very wellin general. It is also able to reasonably reproduce fluctuation amplitudes of groundwater heads, although with less accuracy. Compared to the good predictive capability of capturing the general trend behavior, the amplitude of head time series is hard to reproduce. This might be due to the fact that the because local geological formations in the vicinity of monitoring wells (e.g, small apertures and rock cracks) may significantly alter local groundwater flow behavior, and thus further affect groundwater head fluctuations.

- 10 The results of this study demonstrate the successful application of the well-established mHM in estimating spatial hydrologic model, mHM, in estimating spatially heterogeneous groundwater recharge and baseflow at a regional scale. In the At a spatial scale of 10³ km² (the scale in this study), the distributed recharge estimated by mHM shows its priority over the reference is clearly superior to using homogeneous recharge. The mHM has been successfully applied at a larger scale over Europe (Thober et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2013b; Zink et al., 2017; Rakovee et al., 2016b)the continental scale covering entire Europe
- 15 (Thober et al., 2015; Kumar et al., 2013b; Rakovec et al., 2016b; Zink et al., 2017). The successful application of the coupled model in this study suggests a huge potential of for extending the applicability of mHM#OGS v1.0 to a larger scale larger-scale (e.g., 10⁴ 10⁶ km²) or even a global scale.

The results of this study demonstrate a viable strategy for improving classic meso- to large-scale distributed hydrologic models, such as the current version of mHM (Samaniego et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2013b) (Samaniego et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2013b)

- 20 VIC (Liang et al., 1994), PCR-GLOBWB (Van Beek and Bierkens, 2009), WASMOD-M (Widén-Nilsson et al., 2007). Those These distributed hydrologic models do not include the possibility of calculating calculate spatio-temporal groundwater heads and are therefore not able unable to represent groundwater head and storage dynamics in their groundwater compartment. The physical representation of groundwater flow is, however, relevant in future regional-scale and possibly global hydrologic models to accurately determine travel times, solute export from catchments, and water quality in rivers (Botter et al., 2010; Benettin
- et al., 2015; Van Meter et al., 2017). The coupled model mHM#OGS v1.0 also provides a potential in predicting groundwater flood and offers the potential for predicting groundwater drought in analyzing the dynamic behavior of groundwater heads. Thus, it could be a useful tool for understanding groundwater anomalies under extreme climate conditions (Kumar et al., 2016; Marx et al., 2017).

For example, building on previous work by of Heße et al. (2017), who calculated Travel Time Distributions (TTDs) using
mHM, we can now expand the range of their work to the complete hydrologic cycle beneath atmospherecritical zone, which is important for comprehensively understanding particle (e.g., pollutant) transport behavior and the historical legacy in soil zone and groundwater storage (Beniston et al., 2014; Basu et al., 2010). (Basu et al., 2010; Beniston et al., 2014), mHM#OGS v1.0 fits well with the long-term simulation of nitrogen transport in the terrestrial water cyclebased on the high-reputation

of two modeling codes in each other's fields. The coupled model is also able to evaluate surface water and groundwater storage <u>changes</u> under different meteorological <u>forcings</u> <u>forcing</u> <u>conditions</u>, which allows the comprehensive evaluation of hydrologic response to climate <u>change changes</u> (e.g., global warming). <u>Besides</u>, the versatility of OGS also offers the possibility to address Thermo-Hydro-Mechanical-Chemical-Additionally, OGS demonstrates its capability in addressing

5 thermo-hydro-mechanical-chemical (THMC) coupling processes in large-scale hydrologic cycles (not reflected in this study), which is significant for a wide range of real-world applications, including land subsidence, agricultural irrigation, nutrient circulation, salt water intrusion, drought, and heavy metal transport (Kalbacher et al., 2012; Selle et al., 2013; Walther et al., 2014, 2017).

In addition to improving the predictive abilities of mHM, we could can also demonstrate some improvements for the ground-

- 10 water model OGS. Our results showed a modest improvement using mHM generated recharge compared to a simpler, uniform recharge rate. We currently gain a strong advantage for the description of the top boundary condition, i.e. the recharge, which is temporal and spatially variable through the input of mHM. Even more, the recharge fluxes provided are based on mHM²'s phenomenological process description, which significantly better describes the surface level recharge fluxes than common approaches through recharge rates derived by empirical relations derived recharge rates. In the future, we will additionally advance
- 15 in the description of water fluxes between surface and groundwater compartments through the coupled feedback between both simulation tools.

For In this study, we focused our efforts on extending the mHM applicability in applicability of mHM from surface hydrology to subsurface hydrology in by a simple one-way coupling. Consequently, we do not account for any feedback between river and groundwater head fluctuations. While being a simplification of reality, this approach has certain advantages.

- 20 First, the one-way coupling can be regarded as a conservative approach, such that the parametrization process, which is one of the most salient significant features of mHM, remains fully intact. That intact. In this way, we do not compromise any of its well-established features, such as the calibration of model parameters at different scales and good runoff predictionability, while getting accurate runoff prediction, while obtaining in addition very good estimates of groundwater storageheads, flow paths, and travel times. The lack inability of mHM to provide good estimates for these quantities has been noted in the past
- 25 (see, e.g., Heße et al. (2017); Rakovec et al. (2016b)) and extends therefore Rakovec et al. (2016b); Heße et al. (2017)) and our work therefore extends the predictive abilities of mHM. Second, using such a one-way coupling will allow users of mHM to simply extend currently established catchment models and extend enhance their abilities in the aforementioned way. Using a more sophisticated two-way coupling, would mean that user would have to re-establish these models almost from scratchentail users having to rebuild their models almost entirely. Third, even in the future, a one-way coupling would allow to easily
- 30 expand-allows for ready future expansion of the predictive power of a an mHM catchment modelif the practitioners later decide to do so, therefore leaving the option open, should the need arise. Finally, one-way coupling takes less computational consumption and achieves better numerical stability than two-way coupling. In short, unlike a two-way coupling, the one-way coupling described here allows the user to expand the abilities of mHM without sacrificing any of its well-known and well-established properties. However, in a next step, we will try devote to incorporate a full, two-way coupling using the
- 35 next version of the mHM#OGS model. Via such a full coupling scheme, The main limitation of one-way coupling is that the

effects of a shallow depth to groundwater on actual ET, maintained by lateral groundwater flow, cannot be explicitly addressed. However, the dynamic interactions between overland flow and groundwater flow, as well as between soil moisture dynamics and groundwater dynamics can be explicitly modeled and investigated using a full coupling scheme. This approach is open to a broader spectrum of calibration options, such as calibration using by remotely sensed soil moisture data.

- 5 In conclusion, we can state that the coupled model mHM#OGS v1.0 fully preserves retains the predictive capability of discharge of mHM_mHM for discharge volumes. In addition, it proves to be is capable of reproducing groundwater head dynamics. The simulation results show a promising prediction abilityvia indicate a promising predictive ability, confirmed by calibration and comparison to observed discharge and groundwater heads. Based on the historical match of discharge and groundwater heads in the case study, we would conclude that the coupled model mHM#OGS v1.0 is a valuable tool in coping
- 10 with for addressing many challenging problems in the field of water management, including pollutant transport and legacy, climate change, and groundwater flood and drought.

Code and data availability. The mesoscale Hydrologic Model mHM (current release: 5.7) is an open-source community software and can be accessed from several mirrored repositories: SVN: http://www.ufz.de/index.php?en=40114; GitLab: https://git.ufz.de/mhm; GitHub: https://github.com/mhm-ufz. The modified source code of OGS5 can be freely acquired via the following link: https://github.com/UFZ-MJ/OGS_

15 mHM.git. The model interface GIS2FEM and RIV2FEM can be freely acquired via the following link: https://github.com/UFZ-MJ/OGS_ mHM/tree/master/UTL/GIS2FEM and https://github.com/UFZ-MJ/OGS_mHM/tree/master/RIV2FEM.

The input files of the case study in Nägelstedt catchment can be found in the Github repository: https://github.com/UFZ-MJ/OGS_mHM/ tree/master/test_case. The dataset used in the case study can be found in the Github repository: https://github.com/UFZ-MJ/OGS_mHM/ tree/master/data.

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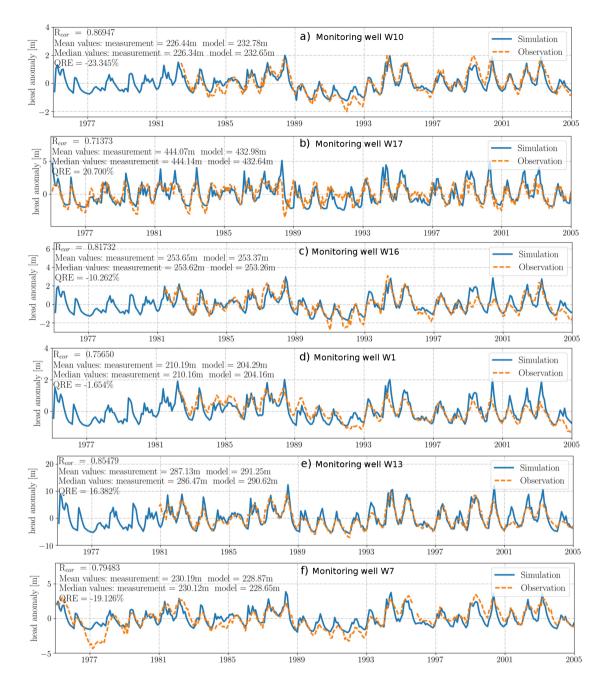


Figure 10. The comparison Comparison between measurement data measured (green dashed line) and model output of simulated groundwater head anomaly anomalies (blue solid line). (a) Monitoring well 4728230786 W10 is located at upland in uplands, near a stream. (b) Monitoring well 4628230773 W17 is located at in a mountainous area. (c) Monitoring well 4728230781 W16 is located at a hillslope at in the northern uplanduplands. (d) Monitoring well 4828230754 W1 is located at lowlandin the lowlands. (e) Monitoring well 4728230783 W13 is located at in the northern mountainmountains. (f) W7 is located in the uplands.

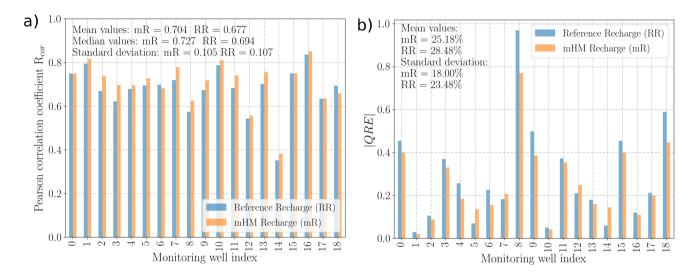


Figure 11. Barplots of a) the Pearson correlation coefficient R_{cor} and b) absolute <u>inter-quantile_inter-quartile</u> range error |QRE| in all monitoring wells in two recharge scenarios. Each bar corresponds to an individual monitoring well in the following order: 0 - 4830230779, 1 - 4828230754, 2 - 4828230752, 3 - 4828230753, 4 - 4829230761, 5 - 4829230762, 6 - 4729230719, 7 - 4728230785, 8 - 4728230789, 9 - 4728230788, 10 - 4728230786, 11 - 4728230795, 12 - 4728230797, 13 - 4728230783, 14 - 4728230796, 15 - 4727230764, 16 - 4728230781, 17 - 4628230773, 18 - 4627230764.

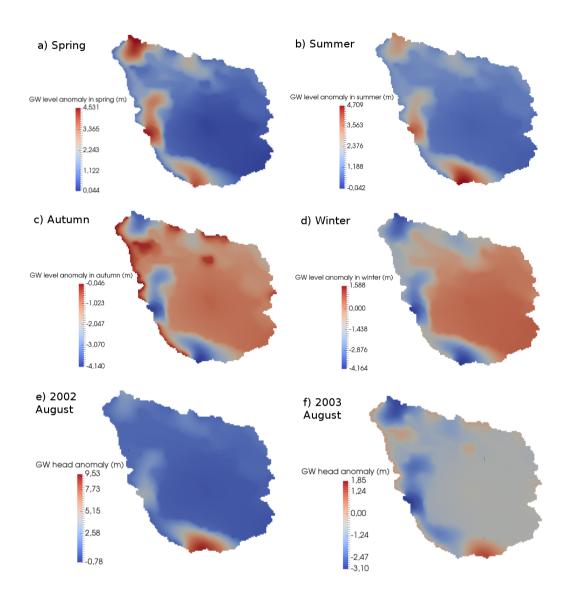


Figure 12. Seasonal variation of spatially-distributed groundwater heads by their anomalies after removing the long-term mean groundwater heads (unit: m). a) Long-term mean groundwater head distribution in spring; b) Long-term mean groundwater head distribution in summer; c) Long-term mean groundwater head distribution in autumn; d) Long-term mean groundwater head distribution in winter; e) Monthly mean groundwater head distribution in the wet season (August 2002); f) Monthly mean groundwater head distribution in the dry season (August 2003).