

1 **Prediction of regional scale groundwater recharge and nitrate storage in the vadose**
2 **zone: A comparison between a global model and a regional model**

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4 **Running title: Global model application for regional vadose zone studies**

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20 **Keywords**

21 Global model; Regional model; Vadose zone; Nitrate storage; Groundwater recharge; Nitrate
22 travel times

23

24 **Data availability**

25 The global model outputs are published online and can be download through the following
26 link: [https://www.bgs.ac.uk/services/ngdc/citedData/catalogue/800dd09b-5848-4803-a70c-](https://www.bgs.ac.uk/services/ngdc/citedData/catalogue/800dd09b-5848-4803-a70c-cd15d5590f16.html)
27 [cd15d5590f16.html](https://www.bgs.ac.uk/services/ngdc/citedData/catalogue/800dd09b-5848-4803-a70c-cd15d5590f16.html). The regional model is available for public download through the
28 following link: [10.17635/lancaster/researchdata/316](https://doi.org/10.17635/lancaster/researchdata/316).

29 **Abstract**

30 Extensive nitrogen loads at the soil surface exceed plant uptake and soil biochemical capacity,
31 and therefore lead to nitrogen accumulation in the deep vadose zone. Studies have shown that
32 stored nitrogen in the vadose zone can eventually reach the water table and affect the quality
33 of groundwater resources. Recently, global scale models have been implemented to quantify
34 nitrate storage and nitrate travel time in the vadose zone. These global models are simplistic
35 and relatively easy to implement and therefore facilitate analysis of the considered transport
36 processes at a regional scale with no further requirements. However, the suitability of applying
37 these models at a regional scale has not been tested. Here we evaluate, for the first time, the
38 performance and utility of global scale models at the regional scale. Applied to the Loess
39 Plateau of China, we compare estimates of groundwater recharge and nitrate storage derived
40 from global scale models with results from a regional scale approach utilizing the Richards and
41 advection-dispersion equations. The estimated nitrate storage was compared to nitrate
42 observations collected in the deep vadose zone (> 50 m) at five sites across the Loess Plateau.
43 Although both models predict similar spatial patterns of nitrate storage, the recharge fluxes
44 were three times smaller and the nitrate storage were two times higher compared with the
45 regional model. The results suggest that global scale models are a potentially useful screening
46 tool, but require refinement for local scale applications.

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57 **1. | Introduction**

58 Anthropogenic activities such as food and energy production have perturbed the water and
59 nitrogen cycles (Smil, 2002; Van Beek, Wada, & Bierkens, 2011). Moreover, perturbation of
60 the nitrogen cycle affects water availability and water quality (Spalding & Exner, 1993). To
61 quantify potential anthropogenic influences on water and nutrient cycles, various global-scale
62 models have been developed with a range of varying complexity (e.g. Ascott et al., 2017;
63 Beusen, Van Beek, Bouwman, Mogollón, & Middelburg, 2015; Haddeland et al., 2011; Leip
64 et al., 2011; Oenema, Kros, & de Vries, 2003; Van Beek et al., 2011). Uncertainties in
65 predictions derived from global scale hydrological models are attributed to the coarse-
66 resolution of the data that underpins these models (López, Wanders, Schellekens, Renzullo,
67 Sutanudjaja, & Bierkens, 2016). Sources of uncertainties in nutrient transport models are
68 associated with lack of data, gaps in databases, or inconsistency of the data (Johnes &
69 Butterfield, 2002; Leip et al., 2011; Oenema et al., 2003). Consequently, previous research
70 has identified that comparing outputs from models of different complexities and at various
71 scales is a major research need (Haddeland et al., 2011; Johnes & Butterfield, 2002; Koch et
72 al., 2016; López et al., 2016).

73 The vadose zone has an essential role in partitioning between the precipitation, infiltration,
74 runoff, evapotranspiration and groundwater recharge (e.g. Rempe, & Dietrich, 2018).
75 Despite this, biogeochemical processes in the vadose zone remain poorly understood (Rempe
76 & Dietrich, 2018), and there is a dearth of quantitative information of how this compartment
77 affects legacy nutrient dynamics (Chen, Shen, Hu, Wang, Zhang, & Dahlgren, 2018; Marçais
78 et al., 2018). In the past, global and regional water and nutrient transport models considered
79 the vadose zone as a dimensionless system and represented it through lumped parameter
80 models (Harter & Hopmans, 2004; Ronen & Sorek, 2005). Soil physicists, on the other hand,
81 have applied non-linear models, such as the Richards equation, to model flow in the vadose
82 zone at small scales (e.g. lab or field scales). Recently, global and regional hydrological
83 models have been developed to quantify water cycle components employing distributed
84 models of varying complexity, some of which include the Richards equation and the
85 advection-dispersion equation (Ascott et al., 2017; Beusen et al., 2015; Castillo, Castelli, &
86 Entekhabi, 2015; Keese, Scanlon, & Reedy, 2005; Koch et al., 2016; López et al., 2016;
87 Turkeltaub, Jia, Zhu, Shao, & Binley, 2018). A commonly used global approach is the PCR-
88 GLOBWB model (Van Beek et al., 2011) that calculates, for each time step and map cell, the

89 water storage and water exchange in the soil in a simplistic manner, while considering the
90 variations of elevation, land cover, vegetation, and climate. Ascott et al. (2017) utilized the
91 PCR-GLOBWB model for estimation of recharge to derive patterns in global storage of
92 nitrate in the vadose zone.

93 The accessibility of global models has resulted in extensive application in hydrological
94 studies at different scales (e.g. Lehner, Döll, Alcamo, Henrichs, & Kaspar, 2013; Emerton et
95 al., 2016; Hoch, Haag, van Dam, Winsemius, van Beek, & Bierkens, 2017; Straatsma et al.,
96 2020). Recently, a special issue elaborated the challenges and opportunities in the
97 development of global scale models (Hofstra, Kroeze, Flörke, & van Vliet, 2019). In the
98 same issue, a study presented an analysis regarding the missing linkages between global and
99 basin/local-scale water quality models (Tang et al., 2019). It was illustrated that global model
100 development would benefit from understanding processes that occur at the basin/local-scale.
101 Furthermore, van Vliet et al. (2019) suggested a design for water quality model inter-
102 comparison projects. They recommended the harmonization of ensemble model outputs of
103 water quality, e.g. the use of similar output variables and units, to facilitate the identification
104 of areas for model improvements.

105 Despite these recent analyses, no studies have evaluated global scale models of water flow
106 and nitrate transport in the unsaturated zone. Nevertheless, the examination of the global
107 models to simulate unsaturated processes is not trivial, because there are no measurements or
108 observations at global scales. Unsaturated zone regional scale models are more detailed and
109 based on intensive local data, which yield high credibility to their outputs (Assefa &
110 Woodbury, 2013; Keese et al., 2005; Turkeltaub et al., 2018). In addition, the regional
111 models cover large areas that overlap with the global model scales. Therefore, a regional
112 model could be applied for examining unsaturated global models outputs. The objective of
113 this study is to evaluate groundwater recharge fluxes and nitrate storage predicted by global
114 and regional models. For this analysis, we compare regional recharge and nitrate storage in
115 the Loess Plateau of China (LPC) calculated by a regional model based on well-established
116 approaches utilizing the Richards and advection-dispersion (ADE) equations (Turkeltaub et
117 al., 2018) and a global modeling approach (Ascott et al., 2017). Simulations from the models
118 are compared to local soil sampling investigations. Following the inferences of this
119 comparison, we assess the suitability of applying this global model for estimating processes
120 at a regional scale.

121

122 **2. | Methodology**

123 **2.1 | The Loess deposit and the Loess Plateau of China**

124 Loess is an aeolian deposit that evolved mainly during the Quaternary and covers 10% of the
125 Earth's surface (Pye, 1995; Smalley, Marković, & Svirčev, 2011, Figure 1). The loess
126 sediments are dominated by silt grain size, often resulting in a limited spatial variability of
127 the soil properties (Smalley & Marković, 2014). The abundance in silt particles facilitates
128 exceptional conditions for agriculture cultivation, which place the loess sediments among the
129 most fertile and productive soils (Catt, 2001). Unconfined groundwater systems can be found
130 under the loess sediments or the loess sediment could be divided to saturated (groundwater)
131 and unsaturated zones (El Etreiby & Laudelout, 1988). Therefore, the loess is also an
132 important recharge source for most of these groundwater resources. Intensive agricultural
133 cultivation of the loess sediments has raised concern about degradation of groundwater
134 quality due to nitrate and other agrochemical sources in different parts of the world (Baran,
135 Richert, & Mouvet, 2007; El Etreiby & Laudelout, 1988; Huang, Pang, & Yuan, 2013a; Isla,
136 Londoño, & Cortizo, 2018; Keller, Butcher, Smith, & Allen-King, 2008; Wagner & Roberts,
137 1998).

138 The LPC is the thickest and largest loess deposit in the world (Kukla, 1987). Groundwater
139 supplies 22% of the total water supply in the LPC, which accommodates more than 100
140 million people (Li & Qian, 2018; Zhao, Mu, Wen, Wang, & Gao, 2013). The LPC is
141 comprised of arid, semiarid and semi-humid regions in the north of China. Most precipitation
142 occurs in the rainy season from June to September (55–78%) in the form of high intensity
143 rainstorms, ranging, per annum, from 226 mm in the northwest to 683 mm in the southeast
144 (Xin, Yu, Li, & Lu, 2011). The annual estimated evaporation is 650–1200 mm and the mean
145 annual temperature ranges from 3.6⁰C in the northwest to 14.3⁰C in the southeast. An
146 unconfined aquifer is embedded within the loess sediments and the water table is located on
147 average at 52 m depth, but can vary between 0 and 233 m according to the model suggested
148 by Fan and Miguez-Macho (2013). This groundwater resource has been overexploited, and
149 the regional water table is in rapid decline (Huang & Pang, 2011; Li et al., 2014).

150 Additionally, for soil stabilization reasons, many soil conservation measures were applied
151 across the LPC, which included significant land use changes (Jia, Shao, Yu, Zhang, & Binley,
152 2019; Zhang, Zhang, Zhao, Rustomji, & Hairsine, 2008). The land use/cover distribution over

153 the outcrops of the LPC aquifer are shown in Figure 1. Irrigated agriculture is mainly in the
154 south outcrops of the aquifer, while rainfed agriculture covers the western parts and the
155 northern parts of the outcrops. Forest and grassland coverage dominates the central and east
156 of the aquifer's outcrops. The LPC is a unique environment given the relatively insignificant
157 soil texture variability. Large databases of soil properties and climate variables exist, making
158 the LPC an ideal focus for comparing modeling approaches.

159 In order to characterize the potential accumulation of nitrate in the deep loess vadose zone
160 across the LPC, loess samples were collected at five sites from land surface to bedrock
161 (Figure 1, Jia et al., 2018). The observed nitrate storage profiles are used to evaluate the
162 performances of the global and regional models' predictions. These profiles were not used to
163 calibrate either model, and thus serve as independent data.

164

165 **2.2 | Regional and global model approaches**

166 Two approaches, a global approach and a regional approach were implemented to calculate
167 groundwater recharge and nitrate storage in the vadose zone across the LPC. The local
168 approach is based on a large database of local soil properties, climate variables, vadose zone
169 thickness and land use/land cover (Turkeltaub et al., 2018). These data are prepared in
170 gridded format (raster maps), and the daily climate data are interpolated with the inverse
171 distance weighting method from local meteorological stations to the specific cell on the
172 gridded map. Note that for the current study, the maps are reconstructed to a $48 \text{ km} \times 48 \text{ km}$
173 pixel size; such significant coarsening (upscaling) of the grid was implemented in order to
174 use a comparable grid scale to that in the global model: a much $16\times$ finer grid ($3 \text{ km} \times 3 \text{ km}$
175 pixel size) was implemented in Turkeltaub et al. (2018). The region being investigated is
176 discretized into multiple 1D columns, with no exchange between columns. Groundwater
177 recharge fluxes in the vadose zone of a column are calculated using the Richards equation,
178 which is coupled with the ADE to simulate ammonium and nitrate transport throughout the
179 vertical profile of the column. These equations are solved with the Hydrus 1D code (Šimůnek
180 et al., 2005). The nitrogen processes that are included in the multicolumn model are as
181 follows: ammonium volatilization; adsorption and nitrification; nitrate denitrification and
182 nitrate passive root uptake. Nitrogen inputs are wet nitrogen deposition, which was assumed
183 to follow mean values reported by Zhu et al. (2015) and anthropogenic nitrogen fertilizer.
184 Earlier studies indicated that the anthropogenic nitrogen input (fertilizers) did not exceed

185 plant uptake until the 1980s, and since then, nitrogen fertilizer consumption in China has
186 increased substantially (Huang et al., 2013a; Zhang, Tian, Zhang, & Li, 1996). Therefore, as
187 nitrogen applications before the 1980s were insignificant, fertilization application was added
188 from the 1980s to the model simulations. The average pore water velocities were calculated
189 by dividing the yearly recharge with the yearly mean water content for each cell.
190 Subsequently, the vadose zone thickness was divided by the average pore water velocities to
191 derive the yearly average nitrate travel times in the vadose zone.

192 For the global modeling approach used by Ascott et al. (2017), a number of existing models
193 are integrated to estimate nitrate stored in the vadose zone. The PCR-GLOBWB model,
194 which is a 'leaky bucket' type of model, is used to estimate the regional groundwater
195 recharge distribution across the LPC aquifer's outcrops for each grid cell ($0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$
196 discretization) (Wada, van Beek, van Kempen, Reckman, Vasak, and Bierkens, 2010). PCR-
197 GLOBWB calculates the water storage in two vertically stacked soil layers, as well as the
198 water exchange between the layers and between the top layer and the atmosphere
199 (precipitation, evaporation, and snow melt). Additionally, short vegetation extracts water
200 from the upper layer only, while tall vegetation extracts water from both soil layers. Using a
201 piston-flow assumption, recharge estimates are then combined with depth to water table data
202 estimated by Fan and Miguez-Macho (2013) and near-surface porosity estimates by Gleeson,
203 Moosdorf, Hartmann, and van Beek, (2014) to derive an estimate of the travel time for nitrate
204 in the vadose zone. Nitrate leaching from the base of the soil zone was derived from the
205 IMAGE model (Beusen et al., 2015) on an annual basis on a 0.5° grid. The nitrogen input of
206 the IMAGE model is based on nutrient data covering the period 1900–2000 presented by
207 Bouwman et al. (2013). This study illustrated, by subdividing the 20th century to two periods,
208 that between 1900 and 1950, soil N surplus almost doubled compared to the period before
209 1900, and between 1950 and 2000, soil N surplus was nearly 8 times more than before 1900.

210 For each grid cell, nitrate leaching estimates were combined with the derived travel times to
211 calculate nitrate stored in the vadose zone, considering a simulation period of 1958 to 2000.
212 In Tables 1 and 2 there are additional details regarding the different parameters and
213 components of the regional and global models. For further description of the regional and the
214 global approaches, the reader is referred to the publications by Turkeltaub et al. (2018) and
215 Ascott et al. (2017). The models' performances are evaluated by comparing between models'
216 predictions and local observations (Figure 1b). We recognize that a significant contrast in
217 spatial scale between observation and model state, for both models. However, there is an

218 information scarcity regarding vadose zone nitrate storage beyond 4 meter depth in the LPC
219 (Jia et al., 2018). In addition, an earlier regional (km scale) study indicated that soils in the
220 LPC exhibit limited textural variation horizontally and vertically, which allows such
221 observations to be effective data for comparison between nitrate vadose zone storage
222 predictions that were estimated by the two models (Zhao, Shao, Jia, & Zhang, 2016). An
223 additional comparison was conducted to evaluate the differences between the model inputs,
224 local data of climate and soil parameters were compared with the PCR-GLOBWB model
225 inputs (see Supplementary Information). The meteorological data includes the mean monthly
226 temperature, monthly Penman-Monteith potential evapotranspiration (PET), which is
227 implemented in both model approaches, and monthly precipitation. The soil data includes the
228 saturated water content and the saturated hydraulic conductivity at different depths.
229

230 **3. | Results**

231 **3.1 | Groundwater recharge**

232 Figure 2 shows the long-term average annual groundwater recharge for both the global (PCR-
233 GLOBWB) and regional approaches. There are significant differences in the simulated
234 recharge spatial variability and magnitude between the two methods (Figure 2). According to
235 the PCR-GLOBWB model predictions, the perennial average recharge flux is about 12
236 mm/year (Figure 2c). Additionally, the intensive recharge rates occur mainly in the southern
237 part of the LPC outcrops (concentrated with agriculture activity) and very low recharge
238 fluxes elsewhere (Figure 2a). The perennial average recharge flux calculated by the regional
239 approach is about three times larger (38 mm/year) than that from the PCR-GLOBWB model
240 (Figure 2c). Moreover, the predicted recharge fluxes from the regional model exhibit high
241 fluxes in the central-north of the LPC outcrops, which according to the land use map (Figure
242 1), is covered mainly with grass (Figure 2b). Wu, Si, He, & Wu, (2019) reported average
243 annual groundwater recharge rates of 39.9 ± 26.5 mm/year and 48.3 ± 12.5 mm/year
244 according to local investigations and satellite information, respectively. Both the satellite data
245 and local methods indicate similar recharge rates to the recharge rates predicted by the
246 regional approach here. It appears, therefore, that the PCR-GLOBWB model, when applied at
247 a regional scale, underestimates the recharge rates in the LPC.

248 Groundwater recharge is controlled by climate, soil properties and vegetation. These
249 variables effect the groundwater spatial and temporal distribution. Therefore, it is challenging
250 to determine a dominant factor that causes the differences between the regional model
251 estimations and the PCR-GLOBWB model estimations. To elucidate the similarities and
252 differences between the models, the meteorological and soil parameters inputs of the PCR-
253 GLOBWB model were compared to local observations, which are the inputs for the regional
254 approach (see Supplementary Information). The analysis indicates that the monthly mean
255 temperature of the PCR-GLOBWB model inputs are very similar or almost identical to the
256 observed monthly mean temperature values ($r = 0.99$). Relatively high correlations ($r = 0.96$)
257 were calculated between the PET inputs of the PCR-GLOBWB model and local observations.
258 However, the PET inputs of the PCR-GLOBWB model are generally 20% lower than the
259 measured values. Moderate correlation ($r = 0.75$) was calculated between local precipitation
260 measurements and the precipitations inputs of the PCR-GLOBWB model. In addition, the
261 precipitation inputs are 10% higher than the local observations. This is an unexpected result
262 considering that higher recharge rates should be calculated under conditions of smaller PET
263 and higher precipitation. Nevertheless, the comparison between the soil parameters of the two
264 models show very poor correlations, where the PCR-GLOBWB model inputs do not capture
265 the LPC regional soil variability (see Supplementary Information). Generally, the saturated
266 hydraulic conductivity (K_{sat}) values of the PCR-GLOBWB model inputs are lower than
267 those observed. It is possible that the low K_{sat} values in the PCR-GLOBWB model might
268 encourage higher runoff and evaporation rates compared with the regional approach. Note
269 that other parameters and factors in both models are incomparable due to the differences in
270 assumptions, structure and equations that construct the models.

271

272 3.2 | Nitrate storage in the vadose zone

273 ~~To compare the regional and global model predictions~~ To illustrate the consequences of the
274 regional and global model predictions on nitrate storage, maps of the total nitrate storage in
275 the vadose zone were produced (Figure 3). For further validation of the models' outputs,
276 subject to the scale limitations mentioned earlier, the total nitrate storage observations
277 obtained at five study sites across the LPC (Jia et al., 2018, Figure 4) are compared with
278 extracted values from the total nitrate storage maps. Note that the modeled nitrate storage
279 maps are for the year 2000 and the observed nitrate storage were obtained during 2016.

280 In general, the outputs of both approaches give similar spatial distributions of estimated
281 nitrate storage (Figure 3). Large nitrate inventories in the vadose zone occur in the south
282 central parts of the aquifer's outcrops and reduced nitrate storage occurs towards the north of
283 the LPC (Figure 3). Note that the similar trend is exhibited by the local scale investigation
284 across the LPC (Figure 4). Intensive agriculture activity in the southern part of the LPC is
285 likely to be the dominant cause of such high nitrate storage (Figure 1). This trend was
286 previously reported by Liu, Shao, and Wang (2013), who produced a map of the spatial
287 distribution of the soil total nitrogen (STN) in the LPC based on intensive soil sampling of
288 382 sites across the LPC. They concluded that the higher masses of STN occur under
289 croplands and in regions with higher precipitation and temperatures. These conditions are
290 mainly located in the south central parts of the aquifer's outcrops (Figure 1). Hence, the
291 predictions by the global approach and the regional approach agree with these regional
292 investigations.

293 The discrepancies between the two approaches are illustrated by the wider spatial distribution
294 of nitrate storage and larger magnitude computed from the global approach, in comparison
295 with the regional model output (Figure 3 and 4). According to the global model output, an
296 intensive nitrate accumulation started in the 1950s and showed a rapid increase in the mid-
297 1960s (Figure 3). In contrast, the predictions calculated with the regional approach indicate
298 intensive nitrate accumulation started at the beginning of the 1980s (Figure 3). Further
299 comparison between the simulated nitrate storage of the global and regional approaches and
300 local observations indicates that the global approach overestimates the nitrate storage, while
301 the regional model simulations are comparable to the nitrate storage field-based observations
302 (Figure 4). This is an indication that **the** intensive nitrogen input in the global approach starts
303 too early, well before it actually started in the LPC region, and in China (Huang et al., 2013a;
304 Zhang et al., 1996).

305

306 **3.3 | Nitrate travel time in the vadose zone**

307 An additional issue from a groundwater protection and management perspective is nitrate
308 travel time in the vadose zone. Studies have shown that, in many cases, once the nitrate has
309 leached beyond the topsoil to the deeper parts of the vadose zone and situated considerably
310 above the water table, it can be considered as conservative (e.g. Dann, Thomas, Waterland,
311 Flintoft, & Close, 2013; Green et al., 2008; Kurtzman, Shapira, Bar-Tal, Fine, & Russo,

312 2013; Turkeltaub, Kurtzman, Russak, & Dahan, 2015; Turkeltaub, Kurtzman, & Dahan,
313 2016). In the case of the LPC, due to the significant thickness of the vadose zone, which
314 ranges between 0 and 233 meters, the global and the regional approaches indicate long nitrate
315 travel times for most locations: median values of 1,118 years and 274 years, respectively.
316 Only very specific locations show short travel times and are not part of the general trend
317 (Figure 5). The travel times estimated by the global approach are 4 times larger than the
318 estimated travel times of the regional approach. This is to be expected since the recharge
319 fluxes calculated by the global model are 3 times smaller than the estimated recharge fluxes
320 by the regional approach.

321 The magnitude of travel times shown in Figure 5 reveal that the nitrate storage maps in
322 Figure 4, on the whole, represent an accumulation of nitrate over the complete simulation
323 period, since very little will have reached the regional groundwater body. Therefore, the
324 storage maps in Figure 4 should be reasonably similar. However, given the contrast between
325 travel times estimations obtained by the global model and the regional model (Figure 5),
326 simulating for a longer time period (centuries) would lead to a greater contrast in nitrate
327 storage and, perhaps more importantly, leaching to groundwater. To carry out such long term
328 simulations one would need to consider future land management and climatic scenarios.

329

330 **4. | Discussion**

331 An investigation of groundwater recharge and nitrate storage in the vadose zone at a regional
332 scale is necessary for appropriate management of unconfined aquifers. This study provides a
333 first test of a global scale model at the regional scale for investigation of vadose zone flow
334 and transport processes. Various studies that were conducted over loess sediments under
335 different climate conditions across the world have reported similar recharge and nitrate
336 leaching fluxes magnitude (e.g. O'Geen, McDaniel & Boll, 2002, Baran et al., 2007; Green,
337 Fisher, & Bekins, 2008; Sophocleous, 2005; Wu et al. 2019). Moreover, O'Geen, McDaniel,
338 Boll & Keller (2005) illustrated that the level of heterogeneity of loess will control the
339 recharge rates. Higher recharge rates were estimated for locations with homogeneous loess.
340 This might suggest that the water and nitrate fluxes in loess sediments are largely controlled
341 by the loess physical properties. Furthermore, as is indicated in this study, the discrepancies
342 of the groundwater recharge predictions of the PCR-GLOBWB model is an outcome of a
343 combination of factors that might be not well represented because of the coarse resolution,

344 especially with regards to the soil parameters. Therefore, global models should be adjusted
345 according to the findings of this study (i.e. input of detailed soil properties and climate),
346 before being applied to other loess regions in the world. Notably, similar methods to the one
347 presented in the current study, are implemented to improve global soil maps. A ‘bottom-up’
348 approach that involves the collection of soil profile data is combined with a ‘top-down’
349 approach to produce gridded maps by using global modeling (Arrouays et al., 2017). Here as
350 well, the ‘bottom-up’ approach (local modelling) provides better results than global
351 modelling, due to generalization of different relations between co-variates and soil properties.
352 Nevertheless, there is no doubt regarding the benefit of using top-down products: they
353 provide early proof of concept (a screening tool), can be updateable according to local data,
354 and combined with lower scale methods using ensemble approaches (Arrouays et al., 2017).

355 van Vliet et al. (2019) suggested the use of consistent spatial/temporal resolutions of the
356 inputs and output when comparing between models for uncertainty analysis. However, in the
357 current study, the harmonization of the input and output datasets of the models was limited by
358 the differences in the structure of the models. These distinctions between the models
359 challenged the search for a dominant process that leads to the uncertainties in the outputs of
360 the global model. Although mechanistic models might improve our understanding of the
361 processes occur at the basin/local scales (Tang et al., 2019), it is still unclear how to integrate
362 these inferences to the global approaches.

363 Despite the discrepancies between the models’ inputs, due to relatively low recharge rates in
364 the loess vadose zone, the impact of the variability of vegetation and soil properties on nitrate
365 transport might be less significant in the LPC. In addition, the combination of a thick
366 unsaturated zone and low rates of downward movement in the LPC results in long nitrate
367 travel times. Nevertheless, previous studies indicated intensive water fluxes in locations with
368 coarser soil types or vegetation with shallow root systems, which facilitated nitrate leaching
369 (e.g. Green et al., 2008; Turkeltaub et al., 2015). For environments with soil type other than
370 loess, and with larger soil and vegetation variability, the nitrate leaching predictions
371 presented in this paper cannot be directly replicated.

372 ~~An additional challenge is the implementation of preferential water flow in the vadose zone.~~
373 ~~Simplistic models, where the water flow is assumed to occur in piston flow, cannot account~~
374 ~~for the contribution of preferential flow to recharge fluxes and nitrate transport. In more~~
375 ~~complex models such as the Richards equation and the ADE, there are various components~~

376 ~~that could be implemented or adjusted in order to account for preferential flow. Furthermore,~~
377 ~~the Richards equation and ADE could be solved in two and three dimensions and can~~
378 ~~describe lateral flows in the vadose zone, which were not included in the current study.~~
379 ~~Nevertheless, our current understanding, observations and number of studies regarding~~
380 ~~preferential flow are limited.~~

381 Clearly, the global model used here could be improved by local calibrations, although this
382 could be argued as undermining a key value of such approaches. As a first step to improve
383 global nitrogen prediction, finer temporal (of decades) subdivisions of the anthropogenic
384 nitrogen application should be implemented, instead of the coarse subdivision of the 20th
385 century for two periods. Moreover, previous studies that presented different calibration
386 procedures for nutrient and hydrological global models relied on observations that were
387 obtained at catchment, watershed and regional scales (e.g. Beusen et al., 2015; López et al.,
388 2016). Mostly, these observations are obtained from surface water resources, e.g. river
389 discharge, temperature and nutrient concentrations or databases obtained from topsoil.
390 Currently, the deep vadose zone database, especially with regards to nutrient inventories, is
391 limited and fragmented. The establishment of a global dataset of local groundwater recharge
392 fluxes and borehole information could contribute to the improvement of the vadose transport
393 simulations by global models.

394

395 **5. | Conclusion**

396 This study is the first to evaluate the performance and utility of a global scale model of
397 vadose zone nitrate storage and transport at the regional scale. Relatively large differences in
398 predicted recharge rates between the approaches are related to over/under estimation of the
399 meteorological conditions, mainly PET and rainfall, and inadequate representation of the soil
400 parameters (Ksat and saturated water content). This is probably a consequence of the coarse
401 resolution in the global scale model. In our application to the Loess Plateau of China, the total
402 nitrate storage in the vadose zone is over-predicted by the global approach. However, the
403 nitrate storage maps produced by the global and the regional approaches show similar spatial
404 patterns: large nitrate inventories in the south central parts of the aquifer's outcrops and a
405 decreasing trend in nitrate storage from south to north.

406 The results obtained in this study could be implemented for other loess environments
407 worldwide. In regions with larger soil and vegetation variability, detailed information
408 regarding these variables is required and as well as investigations that includes sensitivity
409 analysis of the possible impact of the soil and vegetation variability on the predicted fluxes.
410 Other issues such as the contribution of preferential flow to recharge and nitrate fluxes at the
411 regional scale should get more attention. Further work should include the implementation of
412 local scale data in the global model for better representation of the vadose zone processes.
413 Ultimately, this study benefitted from an extensive database of observations. In an absence of
414 these type of data, global models could be used only as a primary step, in decision of
415 recognizing locations where investigations of plot, field and regional scales are required.

416

417

418 **Acknowledgments**

419 This work was supported by the UK Natural Environment Research Council (grant ref
420 NE/N007409/1 awarded to Lancaster), the National Capability resources devolved to the
421 British Geological Survey, the National Natural Science Foundation of China (41571130081)
422 and the Youth Innovation Promotion Association of the Chinese Academy of Sciences
423 (2017076). MJA and DCG with permission of the Director, British Geological Survey
424 (NERC). The global model outputs are published online and can be download through the
425 following link: <https://www.bgs.ac.uk/services/ngdc/citedData/catalogue/800dd09b-5848-4803-a70c-cd15d5590f16.html>. The regional model is available for public download through
426 the following link: [10.17635/lancaster/researchdata/316](https://doi.org/10.17635/lancaster/researchdata/316).

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685 **Figures**

686 **Figure 1.** Global loess distribution (a) derived from the Global Unconsolidated Sediments
687 Map database (GUM) as was reported by Börker, Hartmann, Amann, and Romero-Mujalli
688 (2018) source: <https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.884822>). USGS Land Use/Land Cover (b)
689 for the Loess Plateau of China (https://lta.cr.usgs.gov/glcc/eadoc2_0), the approximate
690 location of the unconfined groundwater system modified from Huang, Pang, & Edmunds
691 (2013b) Pixel size 1000 m × 1000 m. The black circles represent the locations of five study
692 sites where the nitrate storage of deep vadose zone profiles was assessed and investigated.

693 **Figure 2.** The groundwater recharge maps of the Loess Plateau of China predicted with the
694 (a) global approach (PCR-GLOBWB model), (b) the regional approach with daily climate
695 inputs (pixel size 48 km × 48 km) and (c) boxplot of the groundwater recharge. The
696 horizontal line shows the median groundwater recharge, the box shows the 2nd and 3rd
697 quartile range and the whiskers show the 1st and 4th quartiles.

698 **Figure 3.** N-NO₃ storage maps, for the year 2000, of the Loess Plateau of China predicted
699 with the (a) global approach, (b) the regional approach with (pixel size 48 km × 48 km) and
700 (c) the yearly rain in the Loess Plateau of China (right axis) and the estimated nitrate
701 accumulation by the regional approach and the global approach for the period 1958 to 2000.

702 **Figure 4.** The reported deep vadose zone N-NO₃ storage across the LPC (Jia et al., 2018,
703 Figure 1), the predicted N-NO₃ storage by the regional approach and the predicted N-NO₃
704 storage by the global approach. The simulated N-NO₃ storage were extracted from the raster
705 maps (Figure 3) to the sites' coordinates. Note the decline in of N-NO₃ storage from south to
706 north.

707 **Figure 5.** N-NO₃ travel time maps in the Loess Plateau of China as predicted by (a) the
708 global approach and (b) the regional approach with daily climate inputs (pixel size 48 km ×
709 48 km).

710 **Table**

711 Table 1. Summary of the water flow parameters as integrated to the global and regional models

Model	Spatial resolution	Temporal resolution / simulation time step	Potential Evapo-transpiration	Reservoirs	Irrigation	Crop/vegetation model	Soil layers	Soil hydraulic functions	Climate dataset	Govern equations
PCRGLOBWB	0.5 ⁰	Daily / day	Penman-Monteith	Yes	No	Natural vegetation, rainfed crops and irrigated crops; these are further subdivided into tall and short vegetation. The transpiration is drawn from both soil layers in proportion to the relative root volume present.	3 layers: 2 upper soil layers and one groundwater layer	Clapp and Hornberger, (1978). Parameters were derived based on the digital soil map of the world (FAO, 1998)	The climate data obtained from the CRU TS 2.1 (New et al. (2000, 2002) time series between 1901 to 2002) and the CRU CLIM 1.0 (New et al.,1999).	Leaky bucket
Regional model	0.5 ⁰	Daily / day	Penman-Monteith	No	Yes	Wheat and corn rotation; conifer forests; natural grass; bare soil. Root water uptake according to Feddes et al. (1978).	2 layers	Van Genuchten (1980). Parameters were derived from local soil sampling and Rosetta.	The climate data obtained at a daily resolution from local meteorological stations.	Richards equation

713 Table 2. Summary of the nitrogen fate parameters as integrated to the global model and regional model

Model	Nitrogen root uptake	Nitrification	Volatilization	Denitrification	Atmospheric nitrogen deposition	Biological nitrogen fixation	Govern equations
IMAGE	Represented as factor	All reduced nitrogen compounds not taken up by plant roots will be nitrified in soils	Empirical model	The denitrification occurs in the root zone and groundwater transport. Based on an empirical model.	Number of sources	Yes	Nitrogen mass balance approach
Regional model	Passive root solute uptake	First order rate	First-order rate	The denitrification occurs only in the root zone (First-order rate).	Represented as a constant concentration in the rain	No	The advection-dispersion equation (ADE)