

An integrated framework to model nitrate contaminants with interactions of agriculture, groundwater, and surface water at regional scales: The STICS–EauDyssée coupled models applied over the Seine River Basin

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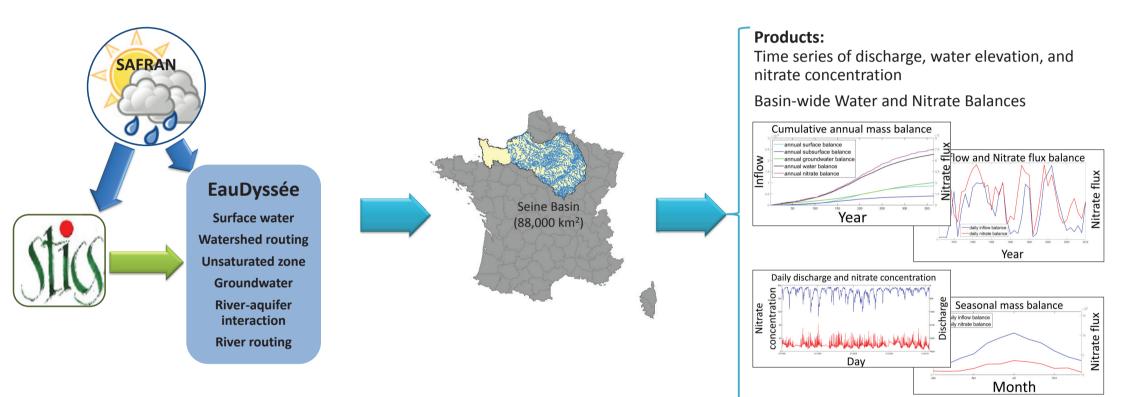
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An Integrated Framework to Model Nitrate Contaminants with Interactions of Agriculture, Groundwater, and Surface Water at Regional Scales: The STICS–EauDyssée Coupled Models Applied over the Seine River Basin

*Graphical Abstract



Highlights

- Agronomic and distributed hydrologic models were coupled considering aquifer and river interaction
- Daily nitrate flux and riverine concentration were simulated for 39 years
- Simulated nitrate flux depends on the inflow produced by surface and subsurface
- Regional hydrologic modeling improves estimation of nitrate concentration
- Nitrate load to rivers increased during wet season and decreased during dry season

1 An Integrated Framework to Model Nitrate Contaminants

- 2 with Interactions of Agriculture, Groundwater, and Surface
- 3 Water at Regional Scales: The STICS–EauDyssée Coupled
- 4 Models Applied over the Seine River Basin
- 5
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36 Abstract

Nutrient enrichment from natural and anthropogenic activities is one of the major 37 environmental pollution stressors. Nitrogen is one of the main reasons for failure to achieve a 38 good quality for the groundwater bodies in river basins. This study presents an integrated 39 framework that couples an agronomic model (STICS) and a distributed hydro(geo)logic model 40 (EauDyssée) to estimate nitrogen fluxes in the hydrosystem at the regional scale. The EauDyssée 41 42 modeling framework was enhanced to include nitrate transport from soils to rivers via surface runoff and the onwards transport from aquifers to rivers. Furthermore, an in-stream nitrate model 43 to simulate nitrate concentration in the river network was implemented in the framework. The 44 utility of the integrated framework was demonstrated on the Seine River Basin with an area of 45 88.000 km², a complex hydrosystem with multiple aquifers, and one of the most productive 46 agricultural areas in France that encompasses the megalopolis of Paris. The STICS-EauDyssée 47 framework was implemented for a long-term simulation covering 39 years (1971-2010). 48 Comparison of groundwater nitrate concentrations with observations showed an overall absolute 49 bias of less than 10 mg/l. Model results showed that simulated nitrate fluxes to rivers highly 50 depend on the inflow produced by surface and subsurface waters. Simulated in-stream nitrate 51 concentration also compared well with observations, particularly in the eastern region of the 52 53 Seine River Basin. In general, results showed that a long-term simulation of nitrate contaminant 54 with the combined STICS-EauDyssée system was satisfactory at the regional scale. This work can benefit decision makers to formulate management strategies and Agri-environmental 55 measures to mitigate pollution from agricultural activities to the river system. 56

- **Keywords:** Nitrate flux; Surface-aquifer interactions; Regional scale modeling; Seine River
- 59 Basin; Distributed hydrologic modeling; STICS

61 **1-Introduction**

62 Increasing nitrate concentration in surface water and groundwater is a major concern of water quality protection and consequently water resources management (Hooda et al., 1997; 63 Kampas and White, 2003; Vitousek et al., 1997). Anthropogenic activities including food and 64 energy productions have greatly increased nitrogen creation by over a factor of 10 compared to 65 the late-19th century (Galloway et al. 2004). The excess nitrate causes eutrophication and 66 adverse environmental effects such as harmful algal blooms (growth of phytoplankton in a water 67 body), hypoxia (oxygen depletion), and reduction of fish and shellfish production (Oehler et al., 68 69 2009; Sebilo et al., 2003; Spalding and Exner, 1993; Wade et al., 2005; Zhang and Schilling, 2005). Climate change also has impacts on water quality. Changes in water discharge, velocity 70 which controls the residence time, water temperature, and precipitation are climate change 71 factors which can enhance nutrients (Ducharne et al., 2007; Sinha et al., 2017). Increasing of 72 73 water temperature can intensify biological activity and consequently nutrients (Ducharne 2008). 74 Using 21 different CMIP5 (Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5, Taylor et al., 2012) 75 models, Sinha et al., (2017) showed that the amount of riverine total nitrogen load will be increased by $19 \pm 14\%$ in the United States based on the precipitation changes. Therefore, 76 developing a predictive capability of modeling nutrients transport is imperative to understand the 77 effect of climate change, and human activities on nitrogen changes at regional and global scales. 78 79 Before releasing nitrogen to the surface water, soil and groundwater have capacity of nitrogen retention (nitrogen removal, Grizzetti et al., 2015). Nitrogen retention can occur in the 80 81 soil through denitrification process at the water saturated condition. Nitrogen denitrification and 82 accumulation can also take place in aquifers at the anoxic condition (dissolved oxygen is depleted in groundwater). Aquifer permeability may also affect residence time of nitrogen and 83

attenuation in groundwater. Accordingly, sustainable development and comprehensive water 84 management require the need for the full representation of nitrate contamination from the soil 85 surface to the unsaturated zone, groundwater, and rivers for the entire basin. In terms of nutrient 86 modeling at the reginal scales, a few models are introduced. Soil and Water Assessment Tool 87 (SWAT) is a commonly-used semi-distributed, continuous-time watershed model that predicts 88 the impact of land management on water, sediment, and chemical yields in ungagged watersheds 89 90 (Arnold et al. 1999). The model has a limitation to account for all sources of nitrogen such as 91 atmosphere (Alexander et al. 2002) and to determine point sources of N-inputs (Kunkel et al., 2017). STONE uses one-dimensional physicaly based model to simulate N and P fluxes in 92 93 surufuce and groundwater and vertical trasnport of N between saturated and unsaturated top-soil layers (Wolf et al., 2005). This model was used to analyze the impcat of farming practices and to 94 evaluate environmental policies on nutrient emission over the Netherlands. MIKE SHE is a fully 95 96 distributed model and uses numerical solutions while solving the flow equations. As a consequence, the model is computationally expensive and hence not adequate for large 97 watersheds (Borah and Bera 2003; Daniel et al. 2011). Other models such as the GROWA-98 DENUZ-WEKU model system uses six diffuse input pathways (erosion, drainage system, 99 100 interflow, groundwater, wash-off, and atmospheric deposition) to determine the N input into groundwater and surface water (Kunkel et al., 2004). This model is the most common model 101 system used in Germany at the level of river basins and Federal States (Kunkel et al. 2017; 102 Kunkel and Wendland 1997, 2002). The GROWA component of this model system uses 103 empirical approach to calculate long-term availability of water resources. To reduce the 104 computational cost, the GROWA model uses coarse temporal resolution (≥ 1 year) for climatic 105 input data (Kunkel and Wendland 2002). 106

107 Considering the interactions of surface water and groundwater is vital to understand nitrate changes in the hydrosystem (Baratelli et al., 2016). Flipo et al., 2014 conducted an extensive 108 literature review of distributed physically based models. According to their study, only 19 of 183 109 publications were at the regional scale (> $10,000 \text{ km}^2$) where two of them considered stream-110 aquifer exchanges (Monteli, 2011 and Pryet etal., 2015). Moreover, Baratelli et al., (2016) 111 showed that considering the river stage fluctuations improve the accuracy of the discharge 112 113 modeling and the assumption of constant river stage can result to a significant underestimation of 114 total infiltration and exfiltration at the regional scale. The sensitivity study was conducted using the EauDyssée platform (Pryet et al., 2015; Saleh et al., 2011) in their study. This platform 115 116 includes in-stream water level fluctuations and an explicit quantification of the stream-aquifer 117 exchanges.

The research proposed herein incorporates hydrological modeling system and agronomic 118 model to improve understating of the nutrient dynamics in surface water and groundwater 119 120 interaction and in streams over large scale river networks and long-term time periods. For this purpose, the EauDyssée platform with its unique aforementioned capabilities was applied and 121 developed to simulate nitrate contaminants. Coupling of the EauDyssée model and the 122 agronomic model STICS (Simulateur mulTIdisciplinaire pour les Cultures Standard, Beaudoin et 123 al., 2016; Brisson et al., 1998, 2002), to obtain the infiltrating nitrate flux leaving the root zones 124 is presented. Furthermore, this study shows the application of streamflow results from a large 125 scale river routing model to simulation nitrate at the reginal scale. The modeling system was 126 implemented over the Seine River Basin in France. Due to increasing nitrate concentrations over 127 time, the Seine River Basin represents an ideal test bed of river nutrient chemistry in a regional 128 ecosystem. In 2013, most of the surface and groundwater bodies of the Seine River Basin did not 129

130	have such a desirable status, mostly due to nutrients in the groundwater bodies (AESN, 2013).
131	Nutrient enrichment and eutrophication are major environmental phenomena in the French
132	coastal zone. Many studies have investigated the nitrogen cycle of the Seine River Basin with
133	different purposes. Some studies focused on the nutrient transfers for a portion of or the entire
134	Seine River Basin, but did not explicitly include stream-aquifer interaction (Billen et al., 2007;
135	Cugier et al., 2005; Even et al., 2007; Garnier et al., 2005; Passy et al., 2012; Sebilo et al., 2003;
136	Sferratore et al., 2005; Thieu et al., 2009, 2010). Other studies only considered the aquifers
137	(Bourgois et al., 2016; Ledoux et al., 2007; Philippe et al., 2011; Viennot, 2009), and some
138	complete studies only encompassed smaller parts of the Seine River Basin (Flipo et al., 2007a;
139	2007b), which can support the understanding of nutrient transformations.
140	This study describes simulation of nitrate flux leaching into the river network and
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141 142 143 144	This study describes simulation of nitrate flux leaching into the river network and consequently to compute in-stream nitrate concentration for the entire Seine River Basin, including several layers of aquifers over 39 years (1971-2010). Transport of nitrate from land to rivers and from aquifers to surface water and rivers were added to the EauDyssée platform. Taking the leaching nitrate from EauDyssée and streamflow simulations, first order solute

148 **2- Materials and Methods**

149 2-1-Study Area

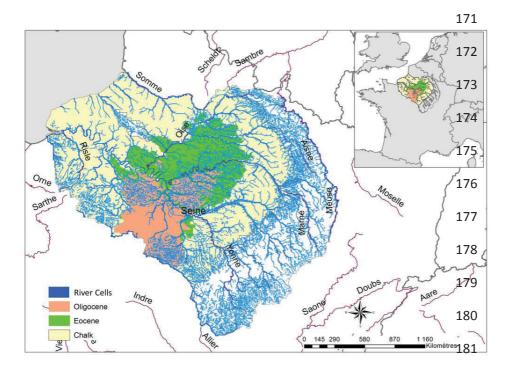
The Seine River Basin covers an area of approximately 88,000 km² in northern France
(Figure 1). The Seine River is 776 km long and has 25,000 km of tributaries (Table 1). It begins

152	at an elevation of 446 m at Source-Seine in the department of Côte-d'Or in Burgundy and
153	discharges into the English Channel near the city of Le Havre. Table 1 shows that the stream
154	gradients are not extremely varied; although elevation ranges from 0 to 856 m above sea level,
155	with 90% of the basin is below 300 m. The hydrological regime of the Seine River Basin is
156	considered to be pluvial oceanic, with varied seasonal flows (high flows in winter and low flows
157	in summer) that reflect rainfall distribution throughout the year. The Seine River Basin also has
158	several aquifers that play an important role in sustaining base flow (Rousset et al., 2004).
159	Interactions of three major aquifers with the river network were considered in this study. These
160	aquifers are from top to bottom: 1) Oligocene; 2) Middle and lower Eocene; and 3) Upper-
161	Cretaceous chalk (Gomez et al., 2003b). The aquifers are relatively permeable (from medium to
162	high), and are relatively vulnerable (from medium to high). The middle and lower Eocene is
163	composed of coarse limestones of Lutetian and sands. The total transmissivity varies from 5 to
164	10^{-4} m ² /s. The Upper-Cretaceous chalk aquifer has a porosity between 37 and 45% and a
165	transmissivity less than 10^{-2} m ² /s. A full description of the Seine aquifers is available at

166 http://sigessn.brgm.fr/spip.php?rubrique5.

167	Table 1: Mean and total morphological characteristics of the Seine River Basin from the river
168	network Carthage.

Stream		Mean		Total	
Stream Order	Number	Width (m)	Slope (m/m)	Length (km)	Catchment area (km ²)
1	2,887	2.5	0.0151	11,714	42,234
2	1,440	5.9	0.0062	5,591	17,190
3	848	12.6	0.0034	3,801	12,493
4	354	23.0	0.0022	1,932	6,982
5	186	50.2	0.0014	1,102	4,497
6	115	88.9	0.0013	601	2,416
7	36	200.9	0.0011	383	2,113
Entire Seine River Network	5,866	10.5	0.0097	25,124	87,926



182 Figure 1: The Seine River Basin including the river network and its main aquifers.183

The Seine River Basin is predominantly covered by an intensive agricultural industry with 184 up to 57% of the land surface allocated to agriculture (Mignolet et al., 2007), which is the main 185 source of nutrients entering rivers in Europe (De Wit et al., 2002). The rest of the basin is 186 covered by forest (25%), grassland (13%), and urban (5%). The center of the basin dominantly 187 covered by cereal, oilseed, and sugar beet croplands. The outer limit of the basin is mostly 188 covered by forest and grassland (Garnier et al., 2009; Sferratore et al., 2005). The Seine River 189 Basin is home to approximately 20 million inhabitants, including 10 million people in the region 190 of Paris. Agricultural activity, pollution sources, and population density lead to water quality 191 192 degradation and nutrient enrichment of the Seine River Basin. Furthermore, this basin includes a major aquifer system made by a series of connected aquifer layers that interact with surface 193

water resources and are key components of the hydrological and biogeochemical processes of thearea (Contoux et al., 2013; Gomez et al., 2003b).

196

2-2-Descriptions of Models

This research is based on the coupling of an agronomic model, STICS, and a regional
hydrological model, EauDyssée over the entire Seine River Basin. The meteorological forcing
data for EauDyssée includes precipitation and potential evapotranspiration which are produced
by a mesoscale atmospheric analysis system, Météo-France SAFRAN (Durand et al., 1993;
Quintana-Seguí et al., 2008), at a daily time step over a regular 8-km grid.

202 2-2-1-The STICS Crop Model

STICS (Brisson et al., 2003) is a process-based daily time step crop model that simulates 203 (a) crop yields in terms of quantity and quality and (b) the environment in terms of drainage and 204 nitrate leaching. STICS is able to: adapt to various crops using the same set of equations and 205 206 specific parameters, simulate various climate and soil conditions, add new modules, and 207 communicate externally with other models and developers. The input variables are related to climate, soil, and the crop system (Schnebelen et al., 2004). The upper boundary corresponds to 208 climatic variables including solar radiation, daily minimum and maximum temperatures, 209 precipitation, and reference evapotranspiration. The lower boundary corresponds to the soil/sub-210 211 soil interface. The core of the STICS model includes four primary sets of modules. The first set of modules includes phenology, shoot growth, and yield formation. This set considers the 212 ecophysiology of aerial plant parts. The second set contains four modules (root growth, water 213 balance, nitrogen balance, and soil transfer) that simulate the interaction between underground 214 plant parts and soil functions. The third module is crop management, which accounts for water 215 transfer through the canopy, the status of water and heat balances in the soil-crop system, and 216

217 fertilizers. The fourth module is the microclimate, which calculates temperature and air humidity218 through the canopy.

Three principal databases are used in the STICS model to characterize the pedology, 219 meteorology, and agriculture of the Seine River Basin. The three databases are: soil, agriculture, 220 and meteorological; each has a different spatial resolution (Beaudoin et al., 2016; Ledoux et al., 221 2007). The intersection of these databases generates spatial units called General Simulation Units 222 223 (GSU) that share the same spatial, pedological, agricultural, and meteorological characteristics. STICS was made up of 9596 units with an average unit area of 12 km² over the Seine River 224 Basin. The dominate nitrogen process in the Seine Basin is nitrate due to the majority covering 225 226 of the landscape with clear-cut forest and agricultural system (Billen et al., 2007). Consequently. The STICS model has been extensively used as an agronomical model in this basin. The nitrogen 227 flux estimated by STICS on the Seine River Basin was recently assessed by Beaudoin et al., 228

229 2016.

230 2-2-2-The EauDyssée Platform

The EauDyssée modeling platform is a hydrometeorological and biogeochemical model based on the existing models and databases of the PIREN-Seine program. The hydrogeological component of the model uses the same principles as the MODCOU model (Habets et al., 2008; Ledoux et al., 1989). EauDyssée couples existing specialized modules to simulate water resources (quantity and quality) at regional scales (Figure 2): the surface component, the river routing component, the unsaturated component, and the groundwater dynamic or saturated component (Philippe et al., 2011; Pryet et al., 2015; Saleh et al, 2011).

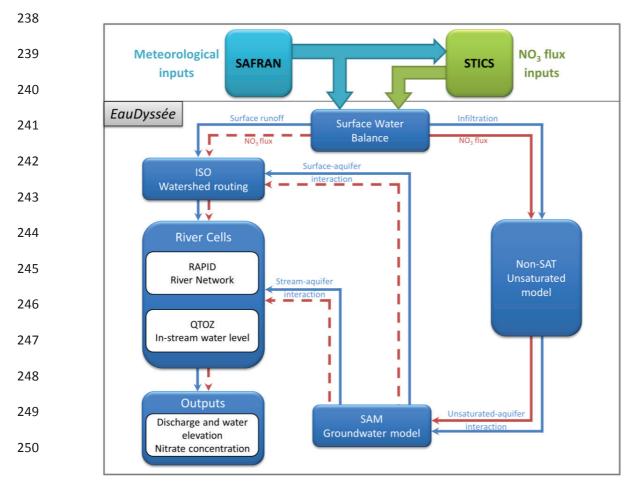


Figure 2: Schematic representation of coupling among SAFRAN, STICS, and EauDyssée. The solid
blue line represents an existing coupling system between modules for flow simulations in the
EauDyssée platform. The solid red line shows an existing NO₃ flux simulation from surface to NonSAT and from Non-SAT to the SAM groundwater model prior to this study. The dashed red line
represents NO₃ flux simulation added in this study.

256 The surface component of EauDyssée uses a seven-parameter conceptual model to

- compute water mass balance at a daily time step for each cell of the surface mesh (Deschesnes et
- al., 1985). In this module, the domain is divided into units called production functions that are
- generated based on the interaction of land-use and geological units (Golaz-Cavazzi et al., 2001;
- Gomez et al., 2003a). Inputs to the surface component are precipitation and potential
- evapotranspiration with a daily time step provided by SAFRAN. The outputs are actual
- evapotranspiration (AET), surface runoff, infiltration, and soil storage. The total number of

surface cells covering the Seine River Basin is 35,698 with an average resolution of one square
kilometer. The ISO module is used to route surface runoff to the river network. A number of
isochronal zones, representative of the number of travel time steps, are defined in the ISO
module to determine the delay between runoff generation and the time that runoff reaches the
nearest river cell.

EauDyssée incorporates a river network model called Routing Application for Parallel 268 269 ComputatIon of Discharge (RAPID) in the river network component (David et al., 2011b) and a 270 module to estimate river water level fluctuation called QtoZ (Saleh et al., 2011). Inclusion of RAPID allows a direct computation of flow for each river cell of the quad tree river network and 271 272 flexibility in the number and location of river gages. The QtoZ module improves river-aquifer interaction by taking into account river water level fluctuations. Application of the RAPID model 273 in the SIM-France model was discussed by David et al. (2011a). The RAPID model has been 274 extensively applied in the United States (e.g. David et al., 2013; Follum et al., 2016; Tavakoly et 275 al., 2012, 2016a, 2016b). Inputs to RAPID are surface and subsurface runoff generated by the 276 ISO module, and outputs are streamflow in each cell of the grid river network. Discharge 277 computed by RAPID is used by the QtoZ module to calculate water levels at a given river cell in 278 279 the EauDyssée platform. At each time step QtoZ computes a water level that is sent to the groundwater model (SAM) to simulate stream-aquifer interactions. QtoZ has three options for 280 calculating water levels: (a) fixed water level, (b) rating curve, and (c) the Manning equation. 281 Taking streamflow simulated by the RAPID model, the Manning equation option was modified 282 in this project to estimate flow velocity and cross-sectional area for each river cell at every time 283 284 step.

Infiltration is vertically portioned by the production function transferred to groundwater within the unsaturated zone. The unsaturated zone component, NONSAT (Ledoux et al., 1989), consists of Nash reservoir cascade (Nash, 1960). The number of reservoirs depends on the distance between soil horizons and the saturated zone, which is initially calculated on the basis of hydraulic head distribution. Prior to this study, NONSAT was adapted to transfer solute components (Gomez et al., 2003a; Philippe et al., 2011).

291 The groundwater component SAM (Simulation of Multilayer Aquifers) is a regional spatially-distributed model that applies the diffusivity equation to compute both the temporal 292 distribution of hydraulic heads and the flow in multilayer aquifer units (Ledoux et al., 1989; 293 294 Marsily, 1986). SAM computes the water flux exchanged between aquifer and stream grid-cells using water levels calculated by the QtoZ module and river volumes calculated by RAPID. SAM 295 also simulates the diffusive transfer of passive solute (Bourgeois et al., 2016; Ledoux et al., 296 297 2007; Philippe et al., 2011). The three aquifers version of the EauDyssée platform was first established by Gomez et al., (2003b). The model was previously used to study climate change 298 impact on the rivers and groundwater (Habets et al., 2013). Assessment was based on over 130 299 wells, with a bias lower than 1m for fifty percent of them. In this study, the EauDyssée platform 300 was enhanced so that contaminants such as nitrate can be routed to the river. Improvements are 301 explained in the following section. 302

303 2-2-3-Developments in the EauDyssée Platform to Simulate Surface and Stream-Aquifer Nitrate
 304 Exchange

305 Developments of the nitrate simulation in this study are illustrated with dashed red in 306 Figure 2. The solute transport was added to watershed routing within the surface component of 307 the EauDyssée platform. The ISO module (Figure 2) routes runoff to the river network with the 308 association of the isochronal zones. The ISO module is modified to accumulate the mass of

solute constituents and define the total mass transferred to river cells. A new module called "ISO 309 solute", was added to the EauDyssée platform to model watershed solute transport and to provide 310 nitrate flux leaching to river cells. The ISO solute module has the advantage of including the 311 solute flux received from the aquifer in addition to the solute transport from surface runoff. The 312 solute transport with the stream-aquifer interaction was developed based on the approach used to 313 simulate stream-aquifer exchange flow in the EauDyssée platform. The flow exchange between 314 the stream and the aquifer is computed based on the difference of hydraulic heads for river cells 315 and associated aquifer cells (Rushton, 2007): 316

$$317 \qquad Q_r = R_C \times (h_r - h_p) \tag{1}$$

where Q_r is the stream-aquifer flow (L^3T^{-1}) ; R_c is the hydraulic conductance of the streamaquifer interconnection (L^2T^{-1}) ; h_r is the water elevation of the stream(L); and h_p is the piezometric head in aquifer (L).

Two different directions for stream-aquifer exchange flow are considered for each river 321 cell at each time step: flow from the *aquifer to river* $(Q_{A \to R})$ and flow from *river to aquifer* (322 $Q_{R \rightarrow A}$). The majority of streams in the Seine River network are gaining streams with the net 323 aquifer-to-stream flow values between 0 and $+0.1 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, which means the aquifer system supplies 324 the river network and only few river reaches are losing flow to the aquifer (Pryet et al. 2015). 325 Based on this fact, the assumption was that the transfer of constituent to the aquifer from river is 326 negligible. Therefore, $Q_{A \rightarrow R}$ is used in the stream-aquifer solute modeling. Nitrate load 327 transported by aquifer is calculated by multiplying both sides of equation (1) by a nitrate 328 concentration: 329

$$L_{A \to R} = C_x \times R_C \times (h_r - h_p) \tag{2}$$

where $L_{A \to R}$ is the nitrate load transported by *aquifer to river* flow (MT⁻¹); and C_x is the nitrate concentration (ML⁻³), which is provided based on the coupling of EauDyssée and STICS.

As a final model outputs of the modeling framework, the in-stream nitrate concentration (with the unit of mg/l) was simulated by the first order decay rate for entire river network. This approach has been extensively applied to study nutrient study at the basin scale (e. g. Liu et al., 2008, Runkel 2007; Smith et al., 1997; Tavakoly et al., 2016a). The decay rate (k) was determined based on the uptake length and the stream velocity:

$$k = \frac{V}{S_w}$$
(3)

339 where: V is the stream velocity (LT⁻¹) and S_w is the uptake length (L).

Using the RAPID streamflow simulations, time series of the stream velocity for all river cells was computed by the QtoZ module. The range of S_w is defined based on the stream order. Using the predefined range in Table 2 (Ensign and Doyle, 2006), the uptake length is determined for river cells through the calibration procedure. The *k* coefficient was then calculated for all river cell and time steps.

345 2-2-4-Limitation of Modeling Framework

In terms of framework limitations, STICS model computes the full nitrogen cycle within the upper soil, and the amount of leaching nitrogen (Brisson et al., 2003). Once leached, only the convection is taken into account, both in the unsaturated and saturated zones, with time transfer varying according to the characteristics of each grid cell. Therefore, there is no nitrification, denitrification nor mineralization once the nitrogen has left the soil column. This is the reason why a decay rate is considered. The decay rate is varied according to the stream order of the river cell, which is explained in the following section. Additionally, the modeling chain include drainage (downward flux in the soil associated to gravity). However, it doesn't include a special
treatment for those agricultural area that are drained using artificial pipe, because the data to
account for it at the basin scale are not available.

356 2-2-5-Calibration Process

Calibration of the nitrate concentration in the river network was conducted manually using 357 daily nitrate concentration over the period 1995-2000. The uptake length (S_w) was optimized 358 using three objective functions: Root Mean Square Error (*RMSE*), Correlation Coefficient (ρ), 359 and Kling–Gupta Efficiency (KGE, Gupta et al., 2009). The strength of KGE is to optimize 360 solution from the three-dimensional criteria space considering correlation, variability, and bias, 361 which is an explicit component in this performance metric (Bennett et al., 2013; Haas et al., 362 2016). The parameter S_w was adjusted within the defined range in Table 2 by trial and error to 363 obtain maximum ρ and KGE and minimum RMSE. Once the optimized S_w is obtained, the 364 decay rate (k) was calculated using equation (3). This method allows determination of a 365 temporal variation of k (daily scale), since the velocity varies with time in equation (3). The 366 optimized S_w was then assigned to river cells around each station. Moreover, lower and upper 367 bands, $4x10^{-5}$ and $1x10^{-3}$ (s⁻¹) for k, were contemplated in this study (Faulkner and Campana, 368 2007; Runkel, 1998). The optimized S_w and temporal averages of k for different stream orders 369 are shown in Table 2. 370

371

372

373

Stream Order	Range Mean		Mean
	S_w (m)	S_w (m)	$k (s^{-1})$
≤ 3	84-996	610	0.000912
4-5	119-1006	930	0.000530
≥6	170-4915	1961	0.000270

Table 2: Range of S_w and summary of calibration results for S_w and k.

The magnitude of the obtained S_w and k values in this study is in the same order of published values ($S_w = 671$ m and $k = 1.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$) by Klocher et al., (2009), which was a study on rivers with stream order less than three.

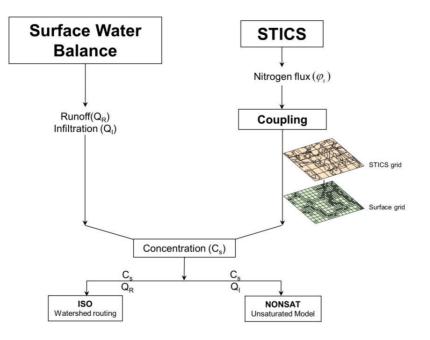
2-3-Modeling Framework Applied to the Seine River Basin

Following the same methodology as in Beaudoin et al., 2016, the EauDyssée and STICS 380 models were coupled for nitrogen transport simulation in the Seine River Basin for a long-term 381 382 period (from August 1, 1971, to July 31, 2010). The schematic framework for the spatial coupling of EauDyssée and STICS was displayed in Figure 3. The first step in superimposing 383 EauDyssée was to calculate nitrate flux for each surface cell. GIS was utilized to determine the 384 spatial contribution of nitrate flux to surface cells. The intersect tool in ArcGIS is applied to 385 correlate corresponding GSUs to the surface cells and to compute the areal proportion of the 386 GSU that overlaps with the surface cells. In the second step, nitrate flux (STICS output) was 387 diluted by runoff and infiltration for each surface cell with the assumption of both having the 388 same concentration: 389

$$C_s = \frac{\varphi_s}{Q_R + Q_I} \tag{4}$$

391 where C_s and φ_s are the nitrate concentration (ML⁻³) and nitrate flux (M) at each surface cell;

392 Q_R and Q_I are daily runoff and infiltration (L³).



393

394 Figure 3: Schematic representation of the spatial coupling of EauDyssée and STICS.

Runoff and infiltration are calculated by the surface water balance component of 395 EauDyssée. Once the nitrate concentration was calculated for all 35,698 surface cells at all time 396 steps in the study period, the solutes were transferred through the unsaturated zone, groundwater 397 and routed by EauDyssée to river cells at a daily time steps. The results for the hydrologic and 398 hydrogeological components of the framework builds on previous results carried out by Philippe 399 et al., (2011), Pryet et al., (2015), Saleh et al., (2011). In their work, the EauDyssée streamflow 400 401 results were calibrated and validated by comparing simulations to measurements at 118 gages within the Seine River Basin (Pryet et al., 2015). The simulated flows were then used to compute 402 daily nitrate concentration for 6,481 river cell covering the Seine River Basin in this study. Using 403 the first order uptake, the daily nitrate concentration was then computed by routing the mass 404

from upstream to downstream in the river network from 1971 and 2010. Daily riverine nitrate
concentration was simulated for 6,481 river grid-cells of which 3,519 interacted with aquifers
(Figure 4).

408 *2-3-1-Groundwater initialization*

409 To compare observed and simulated groundwater nitrogen concentrations, special attention was paid to the setting of the initial condition. Indeed, the time transfer in the unsaturated zone 410 can last more than 30 years (Philippe et al., 2011). To set the initial concentration, three periods 411 412 with different nitrogen leaching concentration were considered with the EauDyssée runs: the first period is pre-industrial (before 1935), and considered that the lixiviated nitrogen can be similar 413 to the one from current organic farming. According to Thieu et al., (2010), a homogeneous 414 concentration of 26mg/L was used. Such forcing data was repeated long enough and the 415 EauDyssée was run to reach a stable groundwater concentration. The results were then 416 comparable to the data collected by Landreau and Roux (1984) in 1930. The second period lasts 417 from 1935 to 1970. For this period, the nitrogen lixiviation was considered to increase linearly 418 419 between the pre-industrial value and the value estimated by STICS for the period of 1970-1971. 420 For the last period, the nitrogen leaching is estimated by STICS.

421 **2-4-Observation Data**

More than 6,000 wells monitoring the groundwater quality in the Seine River Basin are
available from the Accès aux Données sur les Eaux Souterraines (ADES) database
(http://www.ades.eaufrance.fr/). However, they cover different time periods and are not all
available for a given date. Observed river nitrate data were also used to evaluate and compare
modeling results. In total, 72 stations with more than 150 sampling dates were available between
1985 and 2010 (Figure 4). The selected water quality stations cover wide range of drainage area,

O(100-10,000) km². Five of the water quality stations were selected to discuss comparison 428 between daily time series of observed and simulated streamflow and nitrate concentration. 429 Selected stations are shown with green colored dots in Figure 4. The Poses station, located 430 downstream of Paris before the tidal influence, was used to assess the overall performance of the 431 Seine River Basin model with the drainage area of 64,820 km² (Figure 4). The Aronde at 432 Clairoix station is located in the northern part of the Seine River Basin with high agricultural 433 activity. The Torcy station is located on the downstream of the Marne River, an eastern tributary 434 435 of the Seine River Basin. The Montereau-Fault-Yonne station is on the Seine River which is located downstream of Troyes. The Saint-Aubin-Sur-Yonne station is located on the Yonne 436 River, the southeast tributary of the Seine River. 437

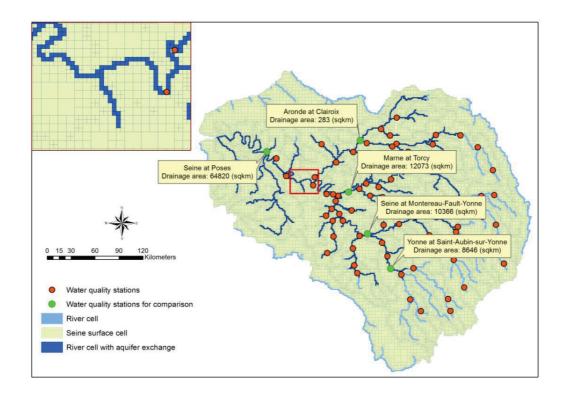


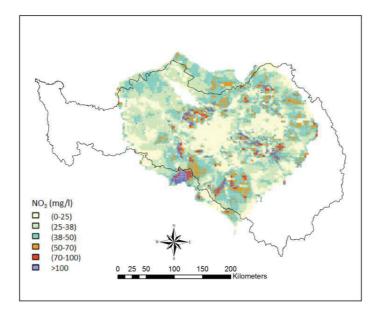
Figure 4: The EauDyssée river network and water quality stations used in this study with their
 respective drainage areas.

441 **3-Results and Discussion**

This section covers three topics: evaluation of the nitrate concentration in groundwater, comparison of the annual inflow and nitrate flux, and evaluation of the in-stream nitrate concentration. The EauDyssée platform was run at a daily time step for the groundwater modeling and at the 30-minute time step for the streamflow modeling to simulate daily nitrate flux over 39 years (1971-2010).

447 **3-1-Comparison of Simulated and Observed Nitrate Flux in Groundwater**

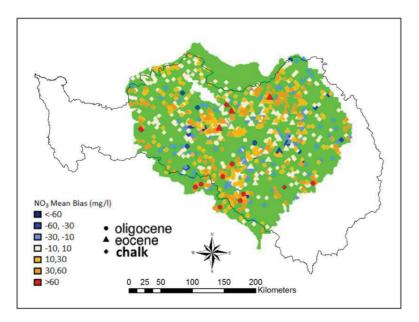
Following the method described in the section 2-3-1, the evolution of the groundwater 448 concentration compared quite well with the observations (Figure 5). The map shows that the 449 concentration is above the 50 mg/L target threshold in many parts of the aquifers. Figure 6 450 presents the mean bias between the observed and simulated concentration during the period 451 1970-2010 (Bias = $\overline{C_{simulated} - C_{observed}}$). It appears that the absolute bias is less than 10mg/L 452 on average. The large bias (bias > 30 mg/l) was found in the northern tributary of the Seine River 453 (Oise River). This could be explained by the fact that the hydrogeology model is less 454 representative in this part of the Seine River Basin (Pryet et al., 2015). Beaudoin et al., 2016 455 showed that the overestimation of lixiviated nitrogen could occur in this area due to an 456 underestimation of the yield by the STICS model. Figure 7 presents the temporal evolution of the 457 observed and simulated nitrogen concentration on average on the 3 aquifer layers. The method 458 used to initialize the nitrogen concentration in groundwater is able to provide a nitrate 459 concentration compareble to the observations at the beginning of the simulated period (1970), 460 except for the Oligocene. From 1970 to 2010, the simulation reproduces quite well the increase 461 462 in nitrate concentration in Chalk, the largest aquifer, underestimates in the Eocene and ends with a concentration close to observations in the Oligocene 463





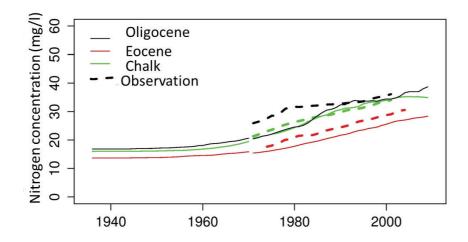
465 Figure 5: Average concentration of groundwater nitrate in 2010.

466





- 468 Figure 6: Spatial distribution of the mean bias between observed and simulated nitrate
- 469 concentration, with the distinction of the 3 aquifer layers (note that the gage can be in a confined
 470 part of the aquifer).



473 Figure 7 Temporal evolution of the mean observed and simulated nitrogen concentration in the
474 three aquifer layers.

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476 **3-2-Comparison of Annual Average for the Simulated Inflow and Nitrate Flux**

477 Nitrate fluxes leaching to rivers are carried by surface runoff and groundwater. To better understand nitrate delivery, the annual average of nitrate flux was compared with annual average 478 of inflow to river cells (Figure 8). Results show that the amount of nitrate delivered to river cells 479 is highly dependent on inflow. The amount of leaching nitrate is low during the dry years, and 480 increases during the wet years, which is consistent with having more leaching in the wet years 481 than the dry years. For example, the lowest amount of nitrate was delivered in 1996 and 1997 at 482 the Poses station, while the annual average of inflow in these years was 173 and 382 m^3/s , 483 respectively. In contrast, in wet years, the annual average is significantly increased. The model 484 outputs show that 2000 and 2001 were characterized by very high discharge rates. The delivered 485 nitrate was also increased for these years. In general, low nitrate load was delivered to rivers in 486 1976, 1985, 1990-91, 1996, and 2005-06, which were characterized as dry years. On the other 487 hand, high amount of nitrate was delivered to rivers in 1988, 1993, 2000, and 2001. These years 488 489 had a high discharge and were categorized as wet years. The increasing of nitrate during wet

years can be explained by the effect of rainfall. During wet years, the heavy rain causes 490 accumulation of rainfall and raising the water table which will increase the storage of nitrogen in 491 the shallow soil layers and subsequently, more nitrate is transported to rivers. During the dry 492 year, the amount of nitrate inclines to develop, due to the low uptake rate by plants, and it will 493 flow to river network during the following wet years. Unlike other stations, the nitrate load 494 leaching to the river cells failed to follow the inflow variation at the Saint-Aubin-sur-Yonne 495 496 station (Figure 8). This is likely due to the negligible effect of the groundwater in this area where 497 the nitrate load is primarily the surface load.

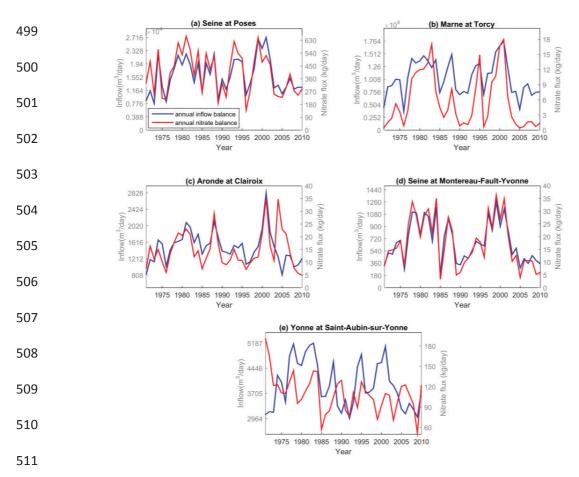
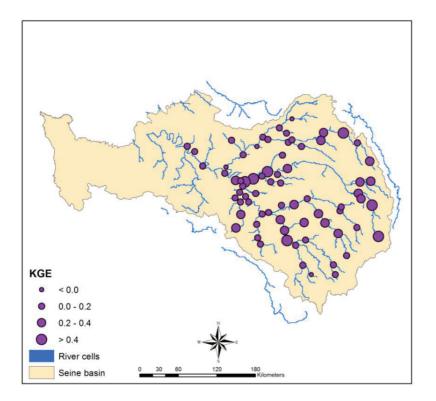


Figure 8: Simulated annual average nitrate flux and inflow for the selected stations: (a) Seine at 512 Poses; (b) Marne at Torcy; (c) Aronde at Clairox; (d) Seine at Montereau-Fault-Yonne; and (e)

⁵¹³ 514 Yonne at Saint-Aubin-sur-Yonne.

515 **3-3-Simulation of In-stream Nitrate Concentration**

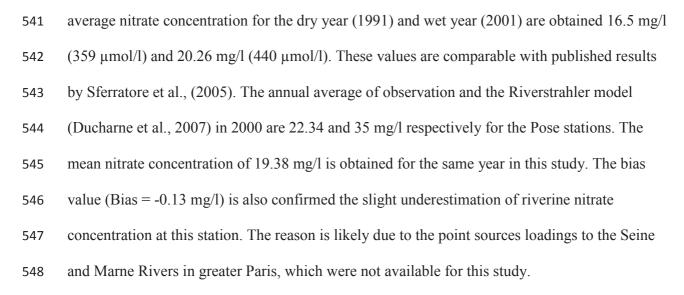
Figure 9 shows the KGE values of in-stream nitrate simulations for all stations in this 516 517 study. The daily *KGE* was calculated using point-by-point concurrently comparison of observed 518 and simulated values. Observed nitrate concentrations are available from 1985 to 2010 for most stations. The spatial distribution of KGE values demonstrated an overall satisfactory model 519 performance in terms of simulating long-term daily nitrate concentration. The KGE results 520 (Figure 9) indicate that the model performed relatively better in eastern regions of the Seine 521 River Basin compared to the west part of the basin. Clearly, Nitrate concentration strongly 522 depends on the hydrological simulation, which confirms findings from literature (Thieu et al., 523 524 2009). A relatively poor performance of EauDyssée with regard to the hydrological simulation in the western part of the basin can explain the reason (Pryet et al., 2015). Additionally, the 525 comparison of nitrate concentration in groundwater (Figure 6) shows relatively large bias in the 526 northwestern tributary of the Seine River Basin (Oise River). 527







Figures 10 and 11 present the comparison between daily observed and simulated nitrate 530 concentrations at the five selected stations between January 1, 1990 and July 31, 2010. The 531 model results illustrate that simulated nitrate concentrations tend to follow the inter-annual 532 variation of observations and hydrographs for the outlet of the basin (the Poses station), Torcy, 533 534 Montereau-Fault-Yonne, and Saint-Aubin-sur-Yonne. For those stations, the dynamic simulation 535 of the nitrate concentration is consistent with the observation (Figures 10 and 11). More urbanized area can export more nitrate at high flows compared to the low-density suburban area 536 (Klocher et al., 2009). This case can explain high nitrate concentration at the Poses station which 537 is downstream of the greater Paris area. Furthermore, this station is downstream of the Seine 538 River Network with more than fifty percent of agricultural land coverage. The model results for 539 the Poses station in this study are generally in a good agreement with previous studies. The 540



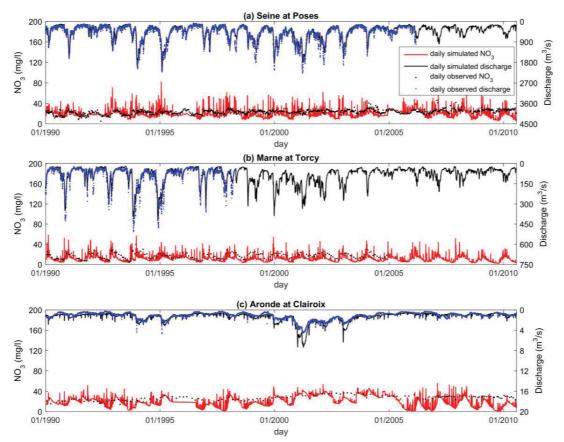




Figure 10: Comparison of daily simulated and observed nitrate concentration and river discharge:
(a) Seine at Poses; (b) Marne at Torcy; and (c) Aronde at Clairox. Observed discharge data was not

- available from March 2006 to July 2010 and from July 1998 to July 2010 for Seine at Poses and
- 553 Marne at Torcy stations, respectively. Observed nitrate data was not available from January 2006 554 to July 2010 for the Marne at Torcy station.

Less accurate nitrate simulations are observed at the Aronde at Clairoix station that has a 555 relatively small drainage area of 285 km² (KGE = 0.13 and correlation = 0.42). For the Clairoix 556 station, the model simulated numerous peaks in 2008 (Figure 9c). The summer of 2008 was quite 557 rainy, which explain such peaks. However, the peaks did not appear in the observations, which 558 might be due to the low frequency of the sample analysis. The nitrate concentrations were 559 measured almost monthly (one or two samples per month). This indicates the need for higher 560 561 spatial resolution modeling to resolve the complex physics at the local scale of the basin, which 562 is an active subject for future research and continuous observation (based on samples conditioned to the river flow). The nitrate concertation at the Aronde at Clairoix station shows 563 564 high average values. The upstream region of this station is heavily dominated with cropland, thus the emission of the nitrate to river network from this part of the basin is high. Long-term nitrate 565 simulation at Torcy and Saint-Aubin-sur-Yonne stations were simulated with a good accuracy. 566 For the Torcy station KGE = 0.6 and correlation = 0.70 were obtained. Similarly, KGE = 0.45567 and correlation = 0.60 were calculated at the Saint-Aubin-sur-Yonne station. 568 569

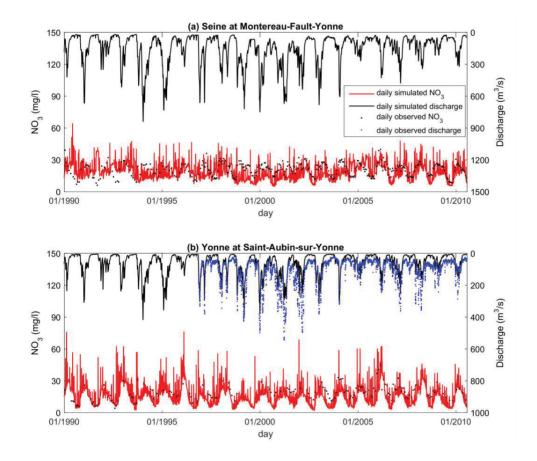


Figure 11: Comparison of daily simulated and observed nitrate concentration and river discharge:
(a) Seine at Montereau-Fault-Yonne; and (b) Yonne at Saint-Aubin-Sur-Yonne. Observed
discharge data was not available for the Seine at Montereau-Fault-Yonne for study time period.
Observed nitrate data was not available from January 1990 to October 1996 for the Yonne at Saint-Aubin-sur-Yonne station.

570

Changes in the nitrate concentration are highly affected by the hydrologic simulations. To 576 have a better representation of variation in nitrate and flow simulations, the seasonal simulations 577 are also calculated. For this purpose, the daily model results were averaged monthly and the 578 579 seasonal comparison was conducted (Figures 12 and 13). A general trend between riverine and flow simulations can be clearly seen in these figures. Results show that the model captured most 580 581 of the seasonal variation of nitrate concentration. Major underestimations of the simulated nitrate 582 are found during dry season (summer). Such an underestimated simulation is likely due to the complexity of nitrate attenuation pathways in the groundwater. The discrepancy between 583

observation and simulation can be seen at the the Aronde at Clairoix station. As mentioned
before, this station has less frequent measurements compare to other stations and higher
resolution model for this part of the basin could provide more details.

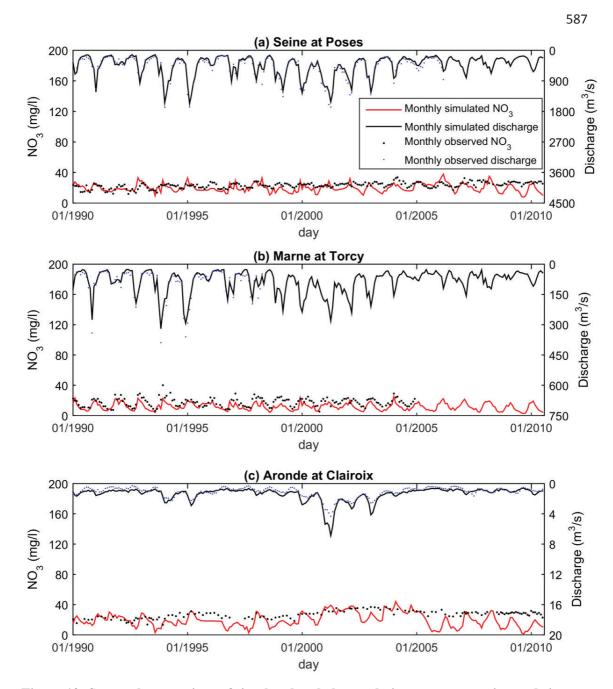
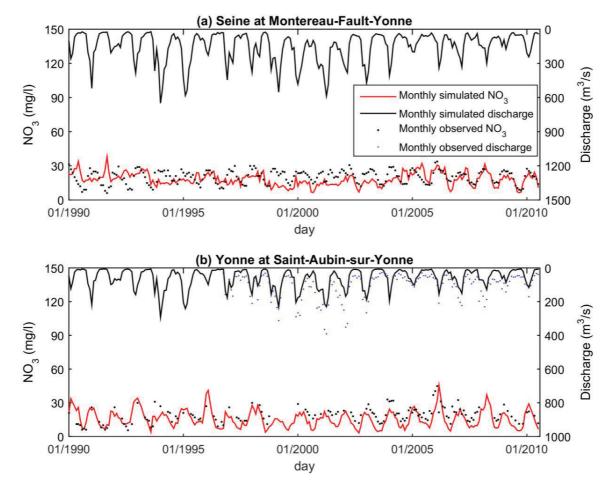


Figure 12: Seasonal comparison of simulated and observed nitrate concentration and river
discharge: (a) Seine at Poses; (b) Marne at Torcy; and (c) Aronde at Clairox.



590

Figure 13: Seasonal comparison of simulated and observed nitrate concentration and simulated
river discharge: (a) Seine at Montereau-Fault-Yonne; and (b) Yonne at Saint-Aubin-Sur-Yonne.

593 Figure 14 displays the spatial distribution of riverine nitrate concentration in 1990 (dry

year) and 2001 (wet year). From this figure, the change in nitrate concentration can be

595 qualitatively assessed for each river cell, which may provide useful information for the regional-

scale nitrate management. For example, comparison of the simulate nitrate concentration

between 1990 and 2001 show that nitrate concentration increases in the south part of the Seine

598 River Basin (Loing River). The maximum annual nitrate concentration also displays

approximately 60% difference (an increase) comparing a wet year (2001) and a dry year (1990).

600 Different in-stream nitrate concentration for these years is largely driven by differences in river

water discharge. Annual water yield in 2001 was roughly double as much as in 1990.

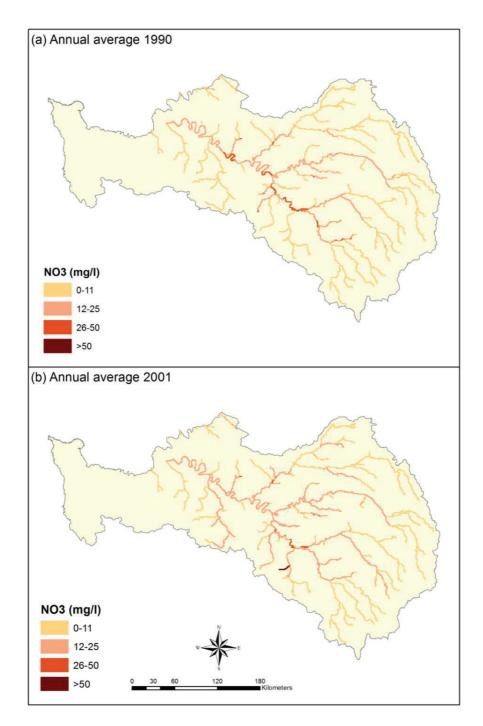


Figure 14: Spatial variation in nitrate concentration for the Seine River Basin in (a) 1990 and (b)2001.

606 **4-Summary and Perspective**

This study describes the implementation of coupled EauDyssée and STICS models to the 607 entire Seine River Basin with total area of 88.000 km². The EauDyssée modeling platform was 608 enhanced to simulate long-term (1971-2010) daily nitrate transport in addition to water transport 609 from surface to rivers and aquifers. The surface and river interactions with aquifers were also 610 considered for the nitrate transport process. The hydraulic variables of river cells such as river 611 612 flow velocity were computed for the entire basin for the study period. Using the EauDyssée hydrological results, the first order solute transport was developed to simulate riverine nitrate 613 concentration. The spatiotemporal variation of the decay rate was calculated based on the stream 614 order and daily river velocity for river cells. The in-stream nitrate concentration was then 615 simulated for the grid river network (6,481 river cells), which is the backbone of the river routing 616 617 module of EauDyssée. The simulated in-stream nitrate concentration was calibrated with observations for the selected stations. Simulated groundwater nitrate concentration is comparable 618 to the observation with a bias lower than 10 mg/l in most part of the basin. Comparison of nitrate 619 flux and inflow showed that simulated nitrate is highly dependent on the inflow produced by 620 621 surface and subsurface waters. Variation of mean annual nitrate from year to year can be explained by the hydrologic regime of that year. Large amount of nitrate flux transports during 622 623 wet years and less transports during dry years. The long-term simulated nitrate concentration compares favorably to the measured data on a daily basis, especially in the eastern part of the 624 Seine River Basin. 625

The EauDyssée platform has been used by stakeholders and decision makers for more than 30 years since its initial MODCOU implementation by Ledoux et al. (1984). The robustness of the EauDyssée platform to simulate complex hydrologic systems with representation of the

stream-aquifer exchanges supports the success of the solute transport modeling with the first 629 order approach for riverine nitrate simulation. Hence, this study offers enhanced capabilities for 630 better quantifying water resources and environmental management of Seine River Basin. Long-631 term computation of flow and nitrate flux may provide a basin-wide comprehensive hydrology 632 and water quality system to study the integration of climate and land surface models with the 633 consideration of rive-aquifer interaction. The outcomes of this study are a good basis for 634 635 answering needed scientific questions. For instance, this work can provide important 636 perspectives for decision makers focused on the effects of Agri-environment measures and the integration of environmental impacts into the common agricultural policies (Baylis et al., 2008). 637 638 In addition, this work demonstrates a feasible methodology to quantify the overall variability of the nitrate fluxes in a regional basin stressed by agricultural activities. Furthermore, this coupled 639 framework can be used to project long term climate change effects on nitrate leaching over large-640 641 scale basins and to provide stakeholders with tools that quantify the long-term loads and concentration of nitrate (Dirnböck et al., 2016). 642

This study focused on the non-point source pollution and did not include point source pollution sources such as waste water treatment because of data non-availability. Including such data in the modeling framework can improve the estimation of nitrate and the overall bias. Future work can address uncertainty from input data (Thorsen et al., 2001) and model structure using stochastic–deterministic approaches or generalized likelihood uncertainty estimation (GLUE) methodologies (Beven and Binley, 1992).

649 The modeling framework in this study has the flexibility to add or remove nitrate constituents 650 without excessive programming effort. Due to the modeling features and capabilities of the 651 framework presented in this study, this framework can be applied over other basins for water

- resources and contaminant studies. It offers important perspectives for future large scale
- applications coupled with existing hydrologic models such as the Soil and Water Assessment
- Tool (SWAT) (Abbaspour et al., 2015) and the Weather Research and Forecasting-Hydrological
- 655 (WRF-Hydro) modeling system (Gochis et al, 2015).

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