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2 **Disparate Seasonal Nitrate Export from Nested Heterogeneous Subcatchments**
3 **Revealed with StorAge Selection Functions**
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16 **Key Points:**

- 17
- 18 • We introduce a novel spatially varying SAS-based model to explore nitrate export from
19 nested subcatchments with heterogeneous settings
 - 20 • Age selection preference for discharge, transit times of discharge, and nitrate export
21 dynamics varied spatially among subcatchments
 - 22 • Contrasting SAS functions between subcatchments seasonally shift the dominant source
23 contributions to overall catchment nitrate export

24 **Abstract**

25 Understanding catchment controls on catchment solute export is a prerequisite for water
26 quality management. StorAge Selection (SAS) functions encapsulate essential information about
27 catchment functioning in terms of discharge selection preference and solute export dynamics.
28 However, they lack information on the spatial origin of solutes when applied at the catchment
29 scale, thereby limiting our understanding of the internal (subcatchment) functioning. Here, we
30 parameterized SAS functions in a spatially explicit way to understand the internal catchment
31 responses and transport dynamics of reactive dissolved nitrate (N-NO₃). The model was applied
32 in a nested mesoscale catchment (457 km²), consisting of a mountainous partly forested, partly
33 agricultural subcatchment, a middle-reach forested subcatchment, and a lowland agricultural
34 subcatchment. The model captured flow and nitrate concentration dynamics not only at the
35 catchment outlet but also at internal gauging stations. Results reveal disparate subsurface mixing
36 dynamics and nitrate export among headwater and lowland subcatchments. The headwater
37 subcatchment has high seasonal variation in subsurface mixing schemes and younger water in
38 discharge, while the lowland subcatchment has less pronounced seasonality in subsurface mixing
39 and much older water in discharge. Consequently, nitrate concentration in discharge from the
40 headwater subcatchment shows strong seasonality, whereas that from the lowland subcatchment
41 is stable in time. The temporally varying responses of headwater and lowland subcatchments
42 alternates the dominant contribution to nitrate export in high and low-flow periods between
43 subcatchments. Overall, our results demonstrate that the spatially explicit SAS modeling
44 provides useful information about internal catchment functioning, helping to develop or evaluate
45 spatial management practices.

46 **1 Introduction**

47 Agricultural practices have been identified as the main cause of poor water quality in
48 many areas worldwide. High nitrate (N-NO₃) concentrations are commonly found in
49 groundwater and surface water in areas with intensive agriculture (Randall & Mulla, 2001;
50 Thorburn et al., 2003). Groundwater and surface water with high nitrate concentrations can
51 negatively affect human health and the ecosystem (Boeykens et al., 2017; Knobeloch et al.,
52 2000). In Europe, despite implemented regulations on agricultural practices (e.g., Council
53 Directive 91/676/EEC), high nitrate concentrations in groundwater and surface water in many
54 areas have persisted for several decades (European Commission, 2018; Knoll et al., 2019). To
55 further develop and evaluate such regulations, understanding how catchments retain and release
56 water and solutes (e.g., nitrate) plays an important role, especially for mesoscale catchments (10¹
57 – 10⁴ km², Breuer et al., 2008) since management is often implemented at this scale (European
58 Environment Agency, 2012).

59 At the mesoscale, catchments characteristics (e.g., land use, management practices, soil,
60 topography, geological settings, and climatic conditions) are often heterogeneous (Dupas et al.,
61 2020; Ebeling et al., 2021; Wollschläger et al., 2017). These characteristics were found to be
62 linked to archetypal catchment solute export regimes (Ebeling et al., 2021; Musolff et al., 2015,
63 2017). However, in highly heterogeneous catchments, the internal (subcatchment) responses
64 could be significantly different from the integrated catchment response, such that the integrated
65 catchment response cannot be used to infer subcatchment behavior (Ehrhardt et al., 2019;
66 Lassaletta et al., 2009; Scanlon et al., 2010; Winter et al., 2021). Therefore, effective spatial
67 management of nutrient export in mesoscale catchments calls for an understanding of
68 subcatchment functioning and its spatial integration.

69 In recent years, the StorAge Selection (SAS) functions concept has emerged as a useful
70 tool to improve our mechanistic understanding of catchment functioning (Botter et al., 2011;
71 Harman, 2019; Hrachowitz et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2021; Rinaldo et al., 2015; J. Yang et al.,
72 2018). SAS functions describe catchment mixing and release of water and dissolved solutes of
73 different ages, thus regulating the transit time distributions (TTDs) and solute composition of
74 outflows (Botter et al., 2011; Harman, 2015; van der Velde et al., 2012). It is noted that the term
75 “catchment mixing” (hereafter also called subsurface mixing) within the SAS function concept
76 refers to the mixing at the catchment outlet, where water and solutes from different flow
77 paths/ages eventually exit the catchment. SAS functions are typically incorporated into
78 catchment-scale transport models in a lumped approach and rarely used in a distributed
79 approach. The lumped approach (catchment-scale SAS functions) represents the integrated
80 response of the catchment (Benettin et al., 2013; Nguyen et al., 2021), tracing the temporal
81 dynamics of dissolved solutes in discharge at the catchment outlet, but not their explicit spatial
82 origin. It remains unclear, to what extent parameters obtained from the spatially lumped
83 approach are transferable to the subcatchment scale given potentially different subcatchment
84 responses, as previously mentioned.

85 A spatially distributed SAS approach accounts for spatial heterogeneity in mesoscale
86 catchments and can thus provide insights into subcatchment functioning and the spatiotemporal
87 origin of solutes in outflows. In the distributed approach, SAS functions are applied for each
88 model grid cell. Different implementations of the distributed SAS approach have been proposed.
89 For example, Nguyen et al. (2021) used the non-well mixed SAS functions for for each
90 individual grid cell. Remondi et al. (2018) used several well-mixed SAS functions for different

91 vertical storage compartments within a grid cell. Although the well-mixed assumption is applied
92 for each vertical storage compartment, the overall response of the grid cell could be far from
93 well-mixed (Benettin et al., 2017; Remondi et al., 2018). These approaches could reasonably
94 represent solute export at the catchment outlet (Nguyen et al., 2021) as well as the internal
95 gauging stations (Remondi et al., 2018). The aforementioned applications of the distributed
96 approach are limited to either catchment with homogeneous geological settings (Nguyen et al.,
97 2021) or to transport of conservative solutes (Remondi et al., 2018), while applications of these
98 approaches for catchments with heterogeneous geological settings and non-conservative solutes
99 (e.g., nitrate) are still lacking. While numerical studies have been able to provide insights into the
100 functional forms of SAS functions (which represent subsurface mixing dynamics) at the
101 catchment scale (e.g., J. Yang et al., 2018), the functional forms and spatial variability of SAS
102 functions at the grid-scale largely remain unknown. Furthermore, direct verification of the
103 functional forms of SAS functions for each grid cell (e.g., using numerical groundwater models
104 with particle tracking) would be technically/computationally very demanding if at all feasible.
105 Therefore, a semi-distributed SAS approach, in which a few SAS compartments represent
106 distinct subcatchments, may represent a reasonably sized modeling unit for which we can
107 establish sufficient process understanding to verify SAS functions and solute concentrations.

108 We hypothesize that a semi-distributed SAS approach can capture the spatial
109 heterogeneity of the catchment at an intermediate level and provide an understanding of
110 subcatchment functioning. With the semi-distributed SAS approach, SAS functions at the
111 subcatchment level can be validated (1) indirectly using instream solute/tracer concentrations at
112 the internal gauging stations or (2) directly using numerical groundwater models (if necessary).
113 Despite the potential benefits of the semi-distributed approach as mentioned above or elsewhere
114 (Hrachowitz et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2021), an application or implementation of this concept
115 has not yet been attempted. In addition, the temporal dynamics of SAS functions in large
116 catchments have not been given enough attention with SAS-based models. Previous studies have
117 restricted the temporal changes of SAS functions between (1) young (2) old, or (3) both young
118 and old water selection preference schemes (Nguyen et al., 2021; van der Velde et al., 2015),
119 while more selection preference schemes could exist (J. Yang et al., 2018).

120 Considering the aforementioned issues, the main objective of this research is to provide a
121 mechanistic understanding of nitrate export dynamics from a nested mesoscale catchment using
122 the SAS approach. For this purpose, we modified the mHM-SAS model (Nguyen et al., 2021) to
123 enable its application in a semi-distributed manner and to improve the representation of the
124 temporal dynamics of SAS functions. The modified model is used to explore subcatchment
125 functioning in terms of nitrate export dynamics in a mesoscale catchment with three nested
126 subcatchments located in Central Europe with a total area of 457 km². We also evaluate if a
127 spatially lumped SAS approach could be used for understanding subcatchment functioning,
128 especially in terms of nitrate export. Through this study, we aim at advancing the application of
129 spatially explicit SAS-based models for mesoscale heterogeneous catchments, thereby informing
130 the design of management strategies that tackle nitrate-related issues at both local and regional
131 scales.

132 2 Methodology

133 2.1 The mHM-SAS model

134 The mHM-SAS model (Nguyen et al., 2021) consists of a spatially distributed soil
 135 nitrogen model and a spatially lumped or distributed nitrate transport model for the subsurface
 136 below the soil/root zone (Figure 1). The mHM-SAS model uses the hydrological model of the
 137 mesoscale Hydrologic Model (mHM, Kumar et al., 2013; Samaniego et al., 2010), the soil
 138 nitrogen model of the HYdrological Predictions for the Environment model (HYPE; Lindström
 139 et al., 2010; X. Yang et al., 2018), and the subsurface transport model with SAS functions (van
 140 der Velde et al., 2012). The mHM-SAS model allows applying SAS functions for (1) the
 141 subsurface (representing the saturated and unsaturated zones below the soil/root zone) over the
 142 entire catchment (lumped SAS approach) or (2) the subsurface of each model grid cell
 143 (distributed SAS approach).

144 Within the soil zone, the mHM-SAS model considers the transformation of nitrogen (N)
 145 between different N pools (dissolved inorganic nitrogen - DIN, dissolved organic nitrogen -
 146 DON, active organic nitrogen - SON_A, and inactive organic nitrogen - SON_I) via mineralization,
 147 dissolution, and degradation. DIN is assumed to be exclusively composed of nitrate (N-NO₃) (X.
 148 Yang et al., 2018). Nitrate is transported with water from the soil zone to the subsurface (below
 149 the soil zone) and eventually to the stream. In this study, we focus on the transport of nitrate in
 150 the subsurface. Using a first-order reaction for subsurface denitrification, the nitrate
 151 concentration in discharge is calculated as follows:

$$152 \quad C_Q(t) = \int_0^{+\infty} C_J(t-T, T) \cdot \exp(-k \cdot T) \cdot p_Q(t, T) \cdot dT \quad (1)$$

153 where $C_J(t-T, T)$ [ML⁻³] is the nitrate concentration in percolating water $J(t-T)$ [L³T⁻¹] to the
 154 SAS compartment at time $(t-T)$ [T], k [T⁻¹] is the first-order denitrification rate constant,
 155 $p_Q(t, T)$ [T⁻¹] is the transit time distribution (TTD) at time t , and T [T] is the age of water since
 156 its entry to the SAS compartment. The TTD, $p_Q(t, T)$ [T⁻¹], is related to the residence time
 157 distribution (in form of the normalized age-ranked storage, P_S [-]; (Benettin & Bertuzzo, 2018))
 158 via the SAS functions $\omega_Q(P_S, t)$ [-] as follows:

$$159 \quad p_Q(t, T) = \omega_Q(P_S, t) \cdot \frac{\partial P_S}{\partial T} \quad (2)$$

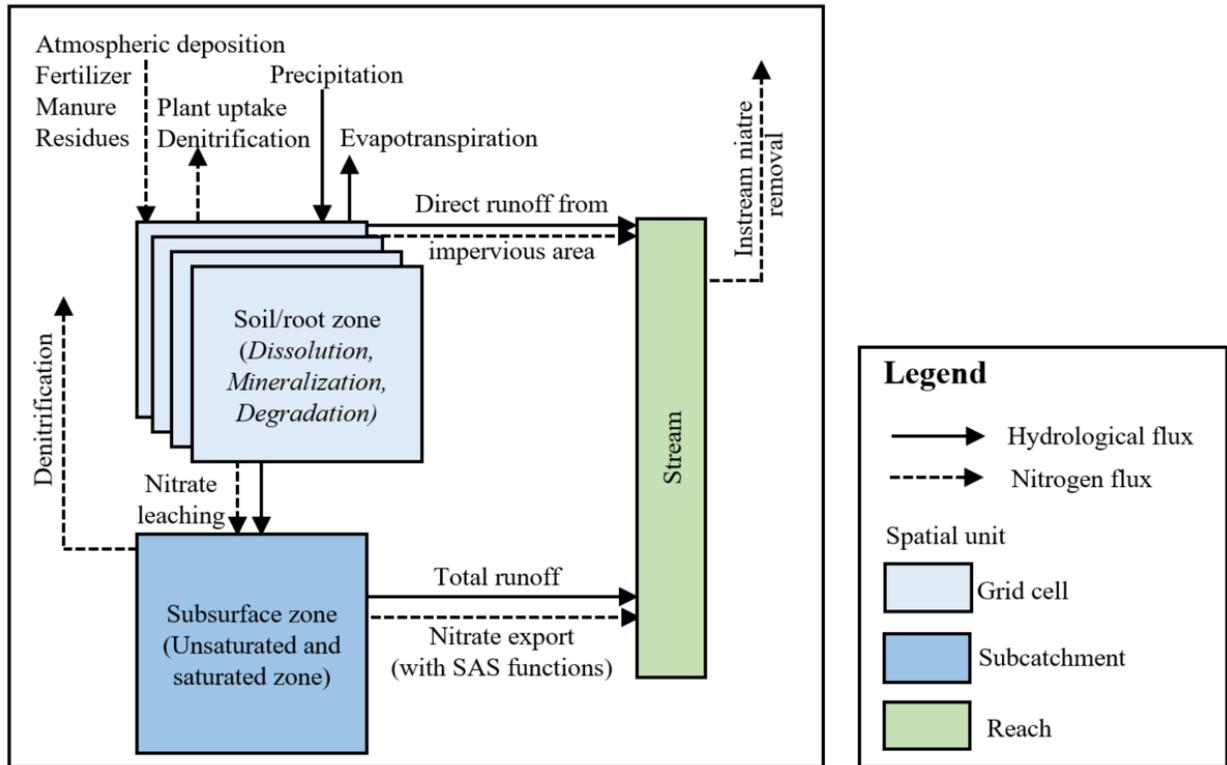
160 2.2. The modified mHM-SAS model

161 In this study, we modified the mHM-SAS model to enable a semi-distributed SAS
 162 approach. The subcatchments were used as the spatial units for which the SAS functions are
 163 applied. This is in line with the common idea that SAS functions are catchment-scale descriptors
 164 (Botter et al., 2011; van der Velde et al., 2012). Subcatchment delineation should not only be
 165 based on the surface or subsurface drainage area but also ensure a certain uniformity in
 166 topography, land use, and geological settings. Therefore, there is no unique way to define the
 167 subcatchment size, which is further discussed in detail in the case study (Section 2.3).

168 In the semi-distributed SAS approach, incoming fluxes to the SAS compartment from the
 169 grid cells need to be aggregated following the subcatchment delineation. Further modifications
 170 were added to account for instream processes as instream nitrate removal could be significant
 171 (e.g., Alexander et al., 2000) and instream nitrate dynamics are different from subsurface solute
 172 dynamics. For streamflow routing, we adopted the Muskingum-Cunge method (Cunge, 1969),

173 which was implemented in the Soil and Water Assessment Tool (SWAT, Neitsch et al., 2011). In
 174 this study, instream nitrate removal via denitrification and uptake are lumped into the instream
 175 denitrification as described by Lindström et al., (2010) and X. Yang et al. (2018).

176



177

178 **Figure 1.** The modified mHM-SAS model (Nguyen et al., 2021) with added instream processes.

179 Furthermore, we modified the parameterization of SAS functions in the mHM-SAS
 180 model. In this study, we focus on the two-parameter beta function (Equation 3) because of its
 181 flexibility in representing different types of selection preferences for outflows and its practical
 182 use (Buzacott et al., 2020; Nguyen et al., 2021; van der Velde et al., 2015; J. Yang et al., 2018).
 183 In previous studies, the temporal variability of the beta function parameters was restricted to
 184 certain limited types of selection preferences. For example, van der Velde et al., (2012) fixed one
 185 parameter of the beta function as a constant, limiting the selection preference to either (1) young
 186 or (2) old water preferences according to catchment storage. Nguyen et al. (2021) used a step
 187 function to represent the temporal changes of the selection preference scheme (the beta function)
 188 for young or old (or both young and old) water in storage based on changes in the antecedent
 189 hydrologic conditions (the ratio between the accumulated inflow and outflow over previous time
 190 steps). In this study, we generalized the concept proposed by Nguyen et al. (2021) by allowing
 191 the selection preference scheme to change continuously based on antecedent hydrologic
 192 conditions (Equation 5). The temporal changes in the parameters of the beta function are
 193 expressed as follows:

$$194 \quad \text{beta}(P_S, a, b) = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \cdot P_S^{a-1} \cdot (1 - P_S)^{b-1} \quad (3)$$

$$195 \quad r(t) = \frac{\int_{t-n}^t J(t) \cdot dt}{\int_{t-n}^t Q(t) \cdot dt} \quad (4)$$

$$196 \quad a = \frac{\alpha}{r(t)} \quad (5)$$

$$197 \quad b = \beta \cdot r(t) \quad (6)$$

198 where $\text{beta}(P_s, a, b)$ is the beta function with two positive shape parameters a [-] and b [-], Γ is
 199 the gamma function, $r(t)$ [-] is the ratio between inflow and outflow to the SAS compartment
 200 during the time $[t - n, t]$, n [T] is the time window to account for antecedent hydrologic
 201 conditions, $Q(t)$ [L^3T^{-1}] is the outflow from the SAS compartment at time t , and α [-] and β [-]
 202 are time-invariant parameters that control the rate of change of a and b with $r(t)$. In this
 203 approach, α , β , and n are model parameters ($\alpha, \beta, n > 0$). Equations (4-6) show that an increase
 204 in $r(t)$ will result in a decrease in a and an increase in b , indicating a stronger preference for
 205 younger water. This reflects that an increase in $r(t)$ represents an increase in catchment storage
 206 (or wetness), leading to the selection of younger water from storage. Compared to previous
 207 approaches (Nguyen et al., 2021; van der Velde et al., 2015), this approach does not restrict the
 208 parameter range of the beta function, allowing for all selection preference schemes that the beta
 209 function could represent.

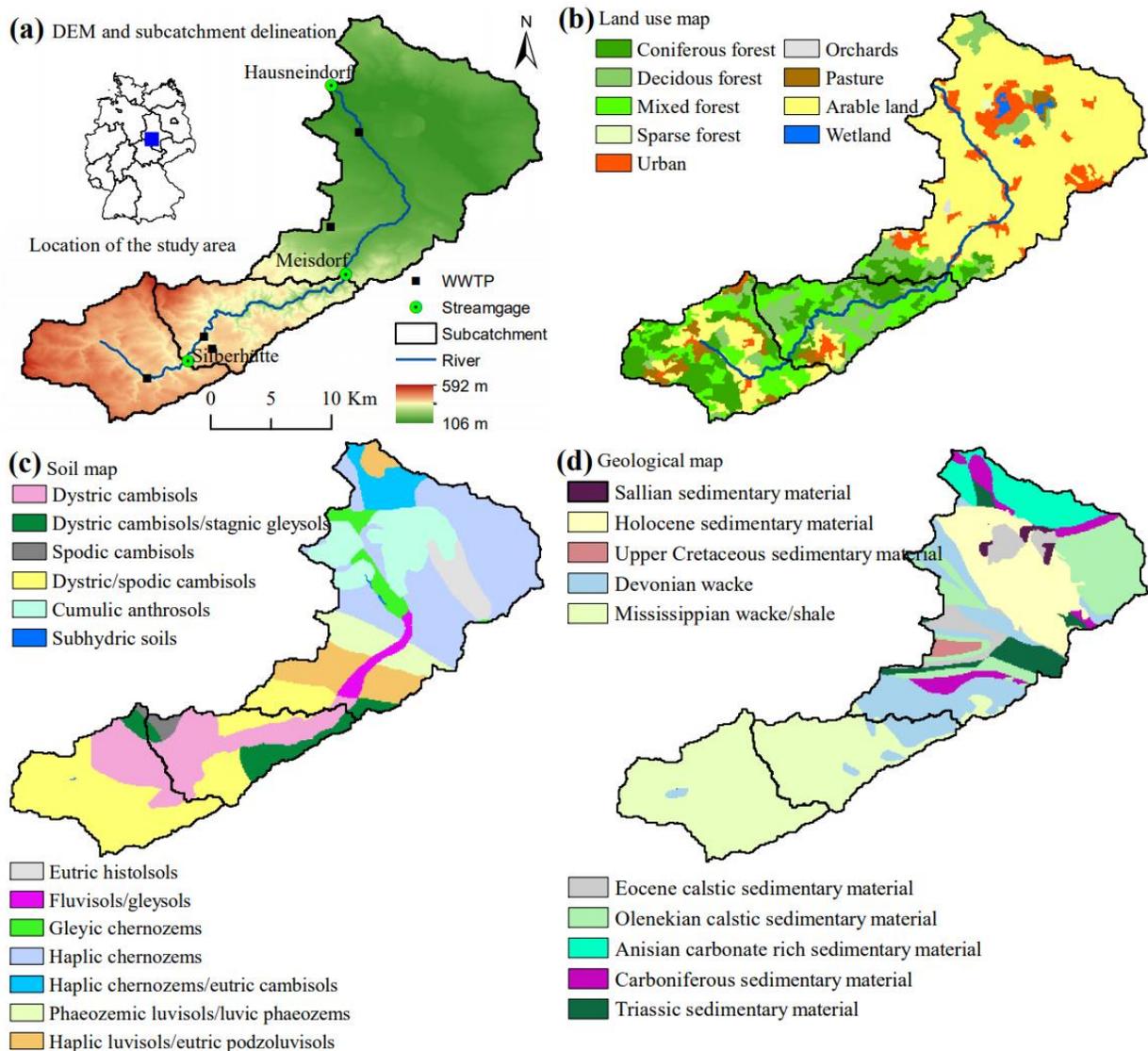
210 2.3. Study area and data

211 The study area is the Selke catchment located in the northeastern Harz Mountains,
 212 Germany. The Selke catchment has an area of about 457 km² with diverse landscapes and
 213 hydrogeological settings (Figure 2a-d). The catchment consists of both lowland and mountainous
 214 areas with elevation ranging between 106 m and 592 m above mean sea level (a.m.s.l) (Figure
 215 2a). In the mountainous part, agricultural lands are patchy. The lowland areas are characterized
 216 by extensive agricultural land use (Figure 2b). Both soil and geological maps show that the
 217 mountainous areas are less heterogeneous than the lowland areas (Figure 2c-d). In the
 218 mountainous areas (steeper slope), cambisols with high permeability overlaying low permeable
 219 schist and claystone layers result in predominantly shallow flow paths (Jiang et al., 2014). In the
 220 lowland areas (mild slope), chernozems with low permeability overlaying sedimentary deposit
 221 layers allow for the development of deeper flow paths. The mountainous areas have shallower
 222 aquifers compared to the lowland areas with deeper aquifers.

223 Table 1. Information about the upper, middle, and lower Selke subcatchments.

Subcatchment	upper Selke	middle Selke	lower Selke
Outlet gauge	Silberhütte	Meisdorf	Hausneindorf
Area (km ² and % catchment area)	100.9 (22.1%)	78.9 (17.2%)	277.6 (60.7%)
Forest (% subcatchment area)	61.5	87.5	12.1
Agriculture (% subcatchment area)	36.0	10.2	75.8
Average elevation (m a.m.s.l)	448.9	370.0	164.8
Average slope (%)	6.8	11.5	2.6
Dominant soil types	Dystric/spodic cambisols		Haplic chernozems
Dominant geological units	Mississippian wacke/shale		Sedimentary material
Annual average precipitation (mm/year) (data from 2012-2019)	515.6	457.5	432.5
Average annual contribution to total catchment discharge (%)	50	25	25

224 Based on the distinct catchment characteristics and to make use of the observed data from
 225 the three gauging stations (Silberhütte, Meisdorf, and Hausneindorf) for model evaluation, we
 226 delineated the Selke catchment into three subcatchments, namely the upper, middle, and lower
 227 Selke (Figure 2). The upper Selke is a mixed agriculture-forest subcatchment with high altitude,
 228 high average annual rainfall, steep slope, shallow aquifer, and shallow flow paths. The middle
 229 Selke is a forest-dominated subcatchment with hydrogeological settings similar to the upper
 230 Selke. The lower Selke is an agriculturally-dominated subcatchment with gentle topography
 231 (mild slopes), deeper aquifers, and deep subsurface flow paths. Detailed information about these
 232 subcatchments is presented in Table 1 (see also Figure 2 for the spatial arrangement of different
 233 landscape attributes).



234
 235 **Figure 2.** Location of the study area and subcatchment delineation with (a) elevation, (b) land
 236 use, (c) soil types, and (d) geological units.

237 In this study, model input and evaluation data were combined from different sources.
 238 Daily precipitation, temperature, and potential evapotranspiration were provided by the German

239 Weather Service (DWD). Daily streamflow and instream nitrate concentration were obtained
240 from the State Office of Flood Protection and Water Management of Saxony-Anhalt (LHW) and
241 Helmholtz Center for Environmental Research (UFZ), respectively. Estimated nitrate load from
242 wastewater treatment plants (WWTP) as well as their locations were taken from X. Yang et al.,
243 (2018). Land use management practices (fertilizer, manure application, and crop rotation) are
244 based on field surveys and interviews (Yang et al., 2018). Other data (digital elevation model
245 (DEM), land use, soil, and geological map) were provided by the Federal Institute for
246 Geosciences and Natural Resources, Germany. Meteorological forcing constitutes of daily total
247 precipitation and average air temperature were acquired from the German Weather Service
248 (DWD). The point station data were gridded at a spatial resolution of $1 \times 1 \text{ km}^2$ using the external
249 drift kriging interpolation approach with terrain elevation as an external variable (X. Yang et al.,
250 2018; Zink et al., 2017). The potential evapotranspiration was estimated with the Hargreaves &
251 Samani (1985) method.

252 2.4. Parameter sensitivity analysis

253 The objective of parameter sensitivity analysis is to identify the parameters (or processes)
254 that contribute most to the variability of streamflow and instream nitrate concentrations. This
255 information is further used to select parameters for optimization. The Elementary Effect Test
256 (EET, Campolongo et al., 2007; Morris, 1991) implemented in the Sensitivity Analysis For
257 Everybody (SAFE, Pianosi et al., 2015) toolbox was used for parameter sensitivity analysis. The
258 EET is an effective tool for screening non-influential parameters for models with a high number
259 of parameters (Campolongo et al., 2007; Pianosi et al., 2016). A further description of the EET is
260 presented in the supporting information (Text S1).

261 In this study, all global (catchment) and local (subcatchment-specific) parameters ($M =$
262 75 parameters) were selected for sensitivity analysis (Table S1). Global parameters are
263 catchment-scale parameters, while local parameters are SAS-related parameters that are defined
264 for each subcatchment. The parameter ranges were selected based on previous studies (Neitsch et
265 al., 2011; Nguyen et al., 2021; J. Yang et al., 2018; X. Yang et al., 2018) and parameter
266 distributions were assumed to be uniform. Parameter sensitivity analysis was carried out for the
267 period 2012-2019. All model runs were performed at a daily time step with a spatial resolution of
268 1 km^2 . Detailed results of the parameter sensitivity analysis are shown in the supporting
269 information (Text S2 and Figure S1).

270 2.5. Parameter estimation and uncertainty analysis

271 In this study, parameters were optimized for the period 2012-2015 and validated for the
272 period 2015-2019 using observed streamflow and instream nitrate concentrations at the
273 Silberhütte, Meisdorf, and Hausneindorf gauging stations (Figure 2). Based on the results of
274 parameter sensitivity analysis, we selected the 21 most sensitive parameters (8 hydrological
275 parameters and 13 nitrate parameters) for optimization (Table 3, Text S2, and Figure S1). These
276 selected parameters include the different SAS-related parameters of all subcatchments, allowing
277 for the quantification of the uncertainty in the subsurface mixing and TTs.

278 For parameter optimization, we generated 400,000 parameter sets using the Latin
279 Hypercube Sampling (LHS) technique. LHS is an efficient approach for searching an ensemble
280 of optimal solutions, accounting for parameter uncertainties (Abbaspour et al., 2004; Sarrazin et
281 al., 2018). The same initial ranges of subsurface transport parameters (α , β , and k) in the three
282 subcatchments were used (Section 3.2). This means that we did not impose any prior knowledge

283 on subsurface mixing, water age, and denitrification conditions in these subcatchments. The
 284 model prediction uncertainty was characterized by the 95 percent prediction uncertainty (95PPU)
 285 band of behavioral simulations (Abbaspour et al., 2004). The lower and upper limits of the
 286 95PPU band correspond to the 2.5% and 97.5% percentiles of the output variable at the
 287 respective time step. The 95PPU band was evaluated by the p factor [0, 1] (the percentage of
 288 measured data bracketed by the 95PPU band) and r factor [0, ∞) (the average thickness of the
 289 95PPU band divided by the standard deviation of the measured data) (Abbaspour et al., 2004). In
 290 general, higher p and lower r factors indicate lower prediction uncertainty.

291 The model performance was evaluated using the Nash–Sutcliffe Efficiency (NSE , Nash &
 292 Sutcliffe, 1970), its logarithmic transformation ($\ln NSE$), and the bias ($BIAS$) (Text S3).
 293 Behavioral simulations were selected using “soft rules” (e.g., Choi & Beven, 2007; Hartmann et
 294 al., 2017; Sarrazin et al., 2018) by defining different threshold values for NSE , $\ln NSE$, and $BIAS$
 295 for streamflow (Q) and instream nitrate concentrations (C). This ensures that the simulated
 296 results for both Q and C at all gauging stations meet a certain quality. The threshold values for
 297 NSE , $\ln NSE$, and $BIAS$ were defined based on the simulated results, in a way that allows
 298 uncertainty to be quantified (Hartmann et al., 2017), and are presented in the supporting
 299 information (Text S3).

300 2.6. Evaluating the spatial model structure

301 Besides the aforementioned simulations (hereinafter referred to as simulation scenario 1:
 302 base case), we performed additional simulation scenarios (SC 2 and SC 3; Table 2) to evaluate
 303 the spatial model structure (semi-distributed and lumped SAS). Specifically, we determined
 304 whether the subsurface transport parameters obtained from the lumped SAS approach
 305 (catchment-scale SAS functions, SC 2) are applicable for the subcatchments, providing a similar
 306 understanding of the subcatchment functioning as the semi-distributed SAS-based approach (SC
 307 3). In the lumped SAS approach (SC 2), we conceptualized the entire subsurface of the Selke
 308 catchment as a single storage compartment and applied the SAS concept to model nitrate export
 309 from this compartment. For this evaluation, the lumped SAS model was calibrated at the
 310 catchment outlet (Hausneindorf gauging station). The parameters selected for optimization were
 311 based on the result of sensitivity analysis from the semi-distributed SAS model (SC 1, Table S2).
 312 Then, the calibrated model parameters from the lumped approach (SC 2) were used for the
 313 subcatchments (SC 3) to validate their applicability. In both semi-distributed (SC 1) and lumped
 314 (SC2) SAS approaches, the same criteria were applied to select behavioral simulations.

315 Table 2. List of simulation scenarios. All simulation scenarios use the conceptual model as
 316 shown in Figure 1 with the number of subcatchments varies from 1 to 3, depending on the
 317 simulation scenario.

Simulation scenario (SC)	SAS approach (number of subcatchments)	Calibrated gauging station
SC1: base case	semi-distributed (3)	Silberhütte, Meisdorf, Hausneindorf
SC2: lumped SAS	lumped (1)	Hausneindorf
SC3: semi-distributed SAS	semi-distributed (3)	using calibrated parameters from SC 2

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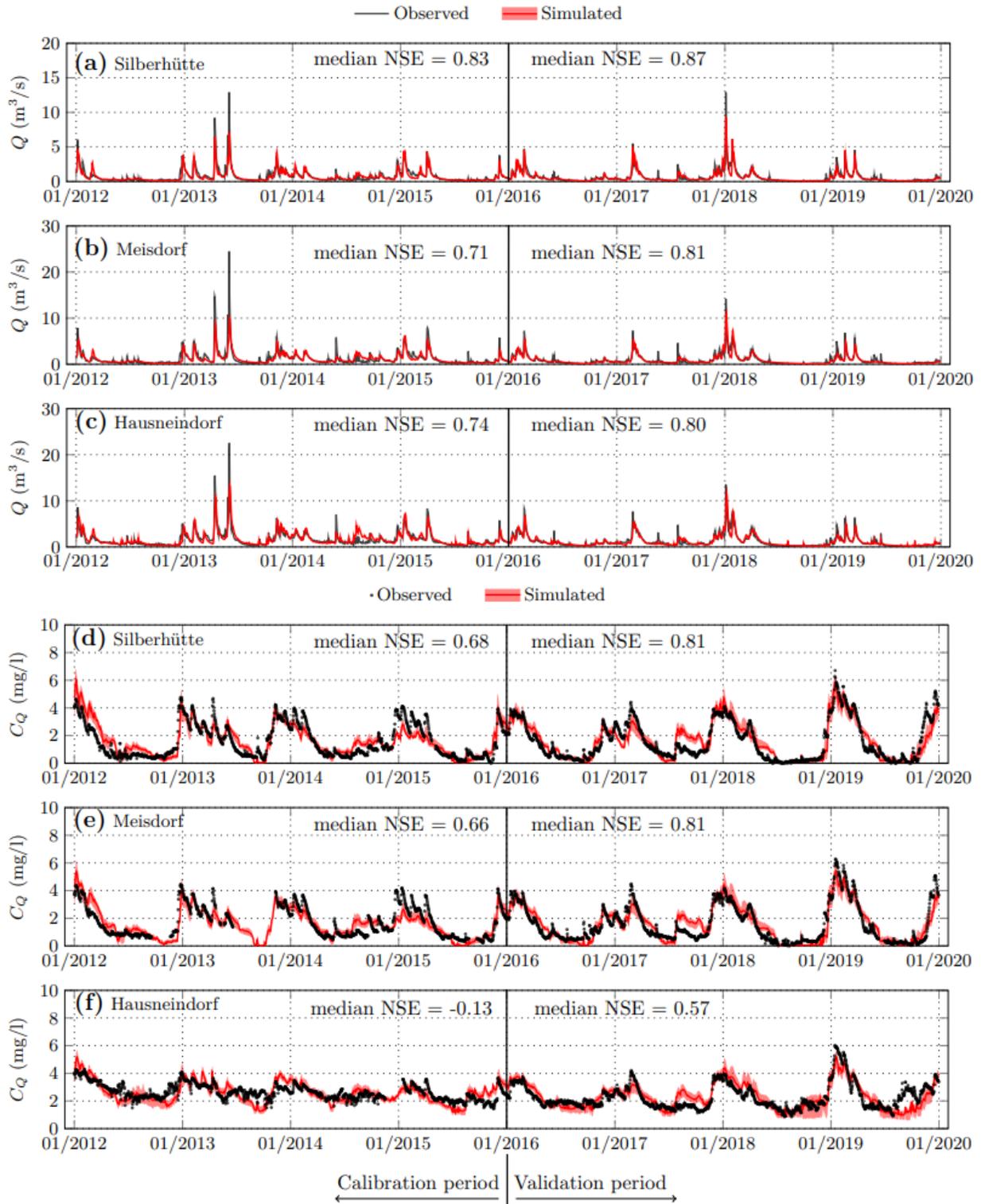
319 3 Results and Discussion

320 3.1. Streamflow, instream nitrate concentrations, and instream nitrate removal

321 Figure 3 shows the simulated streamflow and instream nitrate concentrations at the three
322 gauging stations from the base case scenario SC1 (Table 3). It can be seen that the model could
323 well capture the seasonality of streamflow and instream nitrate concentrations at the internal
324 gauging stations (Silberhütte and Meisdorf) as well as at the catchment outlet (Hausneindorf).
325 The model could represent high instream nitrate concentrations during the exceptional drought
326 years 2018 and 2019 (Hari et al., 2020), which were not part of the model calibration. However,
327 high flows are consistently underestimated by the model, which is a common issue with
328 hydrological models driven by daily meteorological forcing (e.g., Mizukami et al., 2019).

329 Statistical indices (the median *NSE*, *lnNSE*, and *BIAS*) show that the model performance
330 can be considered satisfactory (Figure S3a). In general, the model performance for the validation
331 period is slightly better than for the calibration period (except for instream nitrate concentrations
332 at the catchment outlet), indicating a slight underfitting in the calibration period. Considering
333 differences in hydrological conditions between the calibration and validation periods, in which
334 the validation period is drier with a multi-year drought period, the slight underfitting in the
335 calibration period is acceptable. The *NSE* for instream nitrate concentrations at the catchment
336 outlet during the calibration period is low due to the low seasonality of the observed data (Figure
337 3f or S3a). In this case, the *NSE* is high only if it can explain the short time-scale (e.g., daily)
338 fluctuations in the observed data (Schaeffli & Gupta, 2007). Such short time-scale fluctuations
339 may be interpreted as noise in the data due to measurement/observational errors. Nevertheless,
340 other statistical indices, for example, the Kling-Gupta efficiency (*KGE*, Gupta et al., 2009) and
341 the correlation coefficient, indicate good model performance for instream nitrate concentrations
342 at the catchment outlet (Figure S3a). The *r* factors for instream nitrate concentrations (*C*) tend to
343 be higher than the *r* factors for streamflow (*Q*), indicating higher uncertainty for modeling
344 instream nitrate concentrations (Figure S3b). This is expected because the nitrate submodel is
345 affected by additional uncertainties in model structure and input data related to the agricultural
346 management practices. The *p* factors for both *C* and *Q* show that less than 60% of the observed
347 values are inside the 95PPU band. This is acceptable considering the narrow width of the 95PPU
348 band (reflected in small *r* factors) and strict criteria for *NSE*, *lnNSE*, and *BIAS* for behavioral
349 solutions (Text S3).

350 The results show that the instream nitrate removal rate is highly seasonal, namely high
351 during summer and low during winter (Figure S4). This is consistent with findings from previous
352 studies in the area (X. Yang et al., 2018). High instream nitrate removal rates during the drought
353 periods in 2018 and 2019 could be due to unusually high air/stream temperature and low-flow
354 conditions in these periods. Although the fraction of instream nitrate removal could be up to
355 about 50% during dry periods, the maximum cumulative instream nitrate removal among all
356 behavioral simulations for the entire simulation period (2012-2019) accounts for a maximum of
357 3% of the total nitrate export. The overall instream nitrate removal, however, could be significant
358 for other areas (e.g., Alexander et al., 2000).



359

360 **Figure 3.** Simulated streamflow and in-stream nitrate concentrations at (a, d) the Silberhütte, (b,
 361 e) the Meisdorf, and (c, f) the Hausneindorf gauging stations in the base case scenario SC1. Solid
 362 lines indicate the median values, while bands indicate the 95PPU bands.

363

364 3.2. Behavioral parameter ranges

365 Statistical information about the behavioral parameter sets are shown in Table 3. Among
 366 the calibrated parameters, only local parameters provide information about subcatchment
 367 functioning. It is seen that the calibrated subsurface mixing parameters for upper (α_{up} , β_{up}) and
 368 middle (α_{mid} , β_{mid}) Selke are in a similar and much narrower range, while those for the lower
 369 Selke cover a wider ranges (Table 3). The denitrification rates in the upper (k_{up}) and middle
 370 (k_{mid}) Selke are at least an order of magnitude higher compared to the denitrification rate in the
 371 lower (k_{low}) Selke. Geochemical evidence from groundwater well data about subsurface
 372 denitrification potential was reported for the upper and middle Selke; however, little to no sign of
 373 subsurface denitrification in the lower Selke was found (Hannappel et al., 2018). Our model
 374 results indicate similar subsurface mixing dynamics and reaction rates between the upper and
 375 middle Selke, but different values for the lower Selke. This reflects similar hydrogeological
 376 settings in the upper and middle Selke and the distinct hydrogeological setup of the lower Selke
 377 (Figure 2). The behavioral ranges of α_{low} and β_{low} parameters in the lower Selke are not
 378 significantly reduced compared to their initial ranges, indicating a relatively high uncertainty of
 379 these parameters. Similar to previous works in the study area (Nguyen et al., 2021) and
 380 elsewhere (Benettin et al., 2015, 2017), we found that using the observed streamflow and
 381 instream solute concentrations is not sufficient to constrain the initial subsurface storage (Table
 382 3).

383 Table 3. List of the selected parameters for optimization and the statistical characteristics of
 384 behavioral parameter sets of the base case scenario SC1.

Parameter	Description	Initial range		Calibrated
		min	max	median [min, max]
Global (catchment-scale) parameter				
$soil_4$	Pedotransfer function parameters for soil hydrology routines of mHM	0.65	0.95	0.78 [0.65, 0.95]
$soil_6$		-0.37	-0.18	-0.32 [-0.37, -0.26]
$soil_7$		0.54	1.12	0.81 [0.57, 1.08]
$soil_9$		-0.55	-0.09	-0.27 [-0.55, -0.11]
$soil_{14}$	Fraction of roots in forest areas	0.90	0.99	0.98 [0.96, 0.99]
$soil_{17}$	Shape factor for calculating infiltration	1.00	4.00	2.49 [1.69, 3.23]
$runoff$	Direct surface runoff parameter	0.00	5.00	3.42 [0.08, 5.00]
pet_1	Correction factor for potential evapotranspiration	0.70	1.30	0.96 [0.92, 1.00]
k_{na}	Denitrification rate in nonagricultural soil (day ⁻¹)	1.00e-8	1.00e-1	1.00e-2 [4.13e-3, 2.42e-2]
k_a	Denitrification rate in agricultural soil (day ⁻¹)	1.00e-8	1.00e-1	2.18e-2 [5.68e-3, 4.11e-2]
k_{str}	Denitrification rate in the stream network (day ⁻¹)	1.00e-8	1.00e-3	2.72e-6 [3.07e-8, 2.76e-4]
C_0	Initial nitrate concentration in the subsurface (mg/L)	0.5	10.0	7.86 [4.43, 8.85]
Local (subcatchment-specific) parameter				
α_{up}	Parameters of the SAS function (upper Selke)	0.01	5.00	0.36 [0.10, 0.97]
β_{up}		0.01	5.00	4.28 [0.77, 4.84]
S_{0_up}	Initial subsurface storage of the upper Selke (mm)	500.00	5000.00	798.0 [565.0, 4959.9]

k_{up}	Subsurface denitrification rate in the upper Selke (day^{-1})	1.00e-8	1.00e-2	9.06e-3 [3.42e-3, 9.60e-3]
α_{mid}	Parameters of the SAS function (middle Selke)	0.01	5.00	0.44 [0.10, 1.29]
β_{mid}		0.01	5.00	3.29 [1.06, 4.00]
k_{mid}	Subsurface denitrification rate in the middle Selke (day^{-1})	1.00e-8	1.00e-2	1.05e-3 [3.01e-4, 7.87e-3]
α_{low}	Parameters of the SAS function (lower Selke)	0.01	5.00	1.84 [0.22, 4.78]
β_{low}		0.01	5.00	1.95 [0.12, 4.71]
k_{low}	Subsurface denitrification rate in the lower Selke (day^{-1})	1.00e-8	1.00e-2	4.96e-6 [3.43e-7, 8.40e-5]

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3.3. Subcatchment discharge and nitrate export

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Figure 4a shows the contribution of discharge from each subcatchment to the total catchment discharge. Overall, the simulated results show that a dominant fraction of catchment discharge (about 48-51% considering the 95PPU band) originates from the upper Selke although it only accounts for 22.1% of the catchment area. The middle and lower Selke contribute a comparable amount of discharge (23-25% and 24-29% of catchment discharge, respectively) despite having significantly different areal percentages (17.2% and 61.7%, respectively). These results are comparable with those obtained from observed data (Table 1). Although the fraction of total discharge from the upper and middle Selke varies seasonally in a wide range, it remains mostly above 50%, and thus constitutes a dominant source of catchment discharge even during low-flow periods (Figure 4a).

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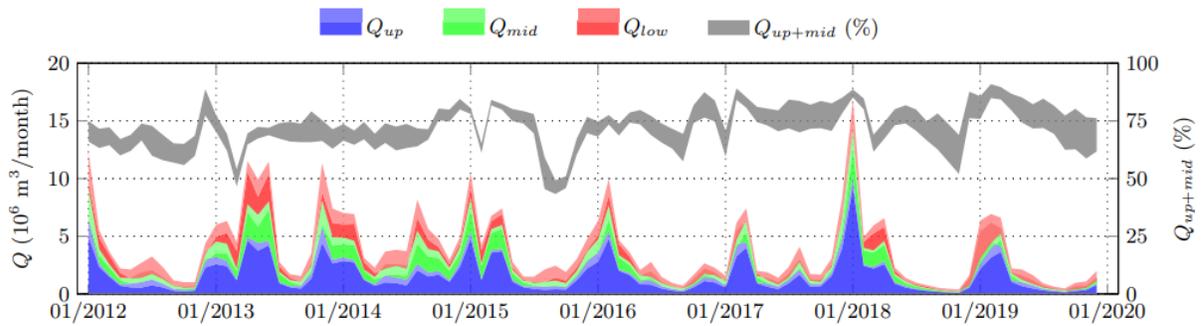
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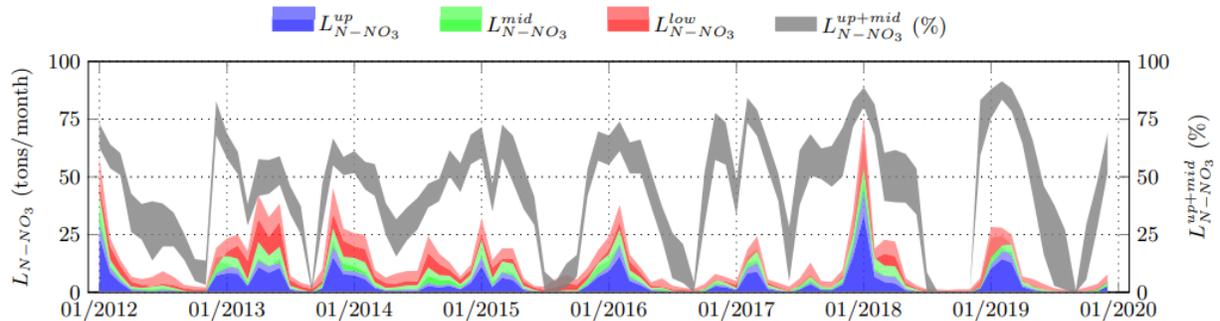
414

In terms of exported nitrate load, the lower Selke contributes a substantial portion of nitrate load (about 44-55%) despite its relatively low discharge contribution (Figure 4a-b). The exported nitrate loads from the upper and middle Selke account for 31-38% and 13-18% of the catchment nitrate export, respectively. During high-flow periods, the exported nitrate load from the upper and middle Selke (predominantly the upper Selke) is much higher than that from the lower Selke (Figure 4b). During low-flow periods, however, the lower Selke contributes the major fraction of the catchment nitrate export. This is because during low-flow periods (1) instream nitrate concentrations in discharge from the lower Selke are much higher than that from the upper and middle Selke (Figure 4c), and (2) discharge contribution from the lower Selke could increase up to 50%. The results also show that instream nitrate concentrations from the upper and middle Selke have a clear seasonal pattern (high during high-flow and low during low-flow periods), while that from the lower Selke is relatively stable (Figure 4c). This is related to the differences in the subsurface mixing, transport time, and denitrification timescale (Section 3.4). The uncertainty in the simulated nitrate concentrations in discharge from the lower Selke is relatively large during low-flow periods in 2012, 2016, and 2018 compared to other periods (Figure 4c). This is due to the uncertainty in the estimated nitrate concentrations in the oldest water pool (or initial nitrate concentration C_0) and the interplay between denitrification and transport timescales (Section 3.4)

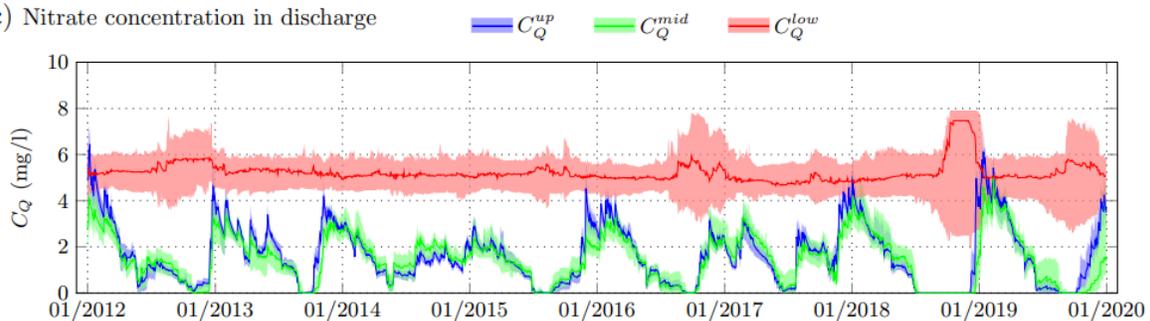
(a) Subcatchment discharge



(b) Subcatchment nitrate export (load)



(c) Nitrate concentration in discharge



415

416 **Figure 4.** Contribution of (a) discharge Q , (b) exported nitrate load L_{N-NO_3} , and (c) nitrate
 417 concentrations in discharge C_Q from individual subcatchments (scenario SC1). The superscripts
 418 “*up*”, “*mid*”, and “*low*” indicate the upper, middle, and lower Selke, respectively. Discharge and
 419 exported nitrate load were aggregated from daily to monthly for better visualization. Light (blue,
 420 red, and green) color bands in (a)-(c) and grey band in (a)-(b) indicate the 95PPU bands from
 421 behavioral simulations, darker (blue, red, green) color bands in (a)-(c) indicate the area (volume
 422 of discharge, and mass of nitrate) under the 95PPU bands, and solid lines in (a)-(c) indicate the
 423 median values.

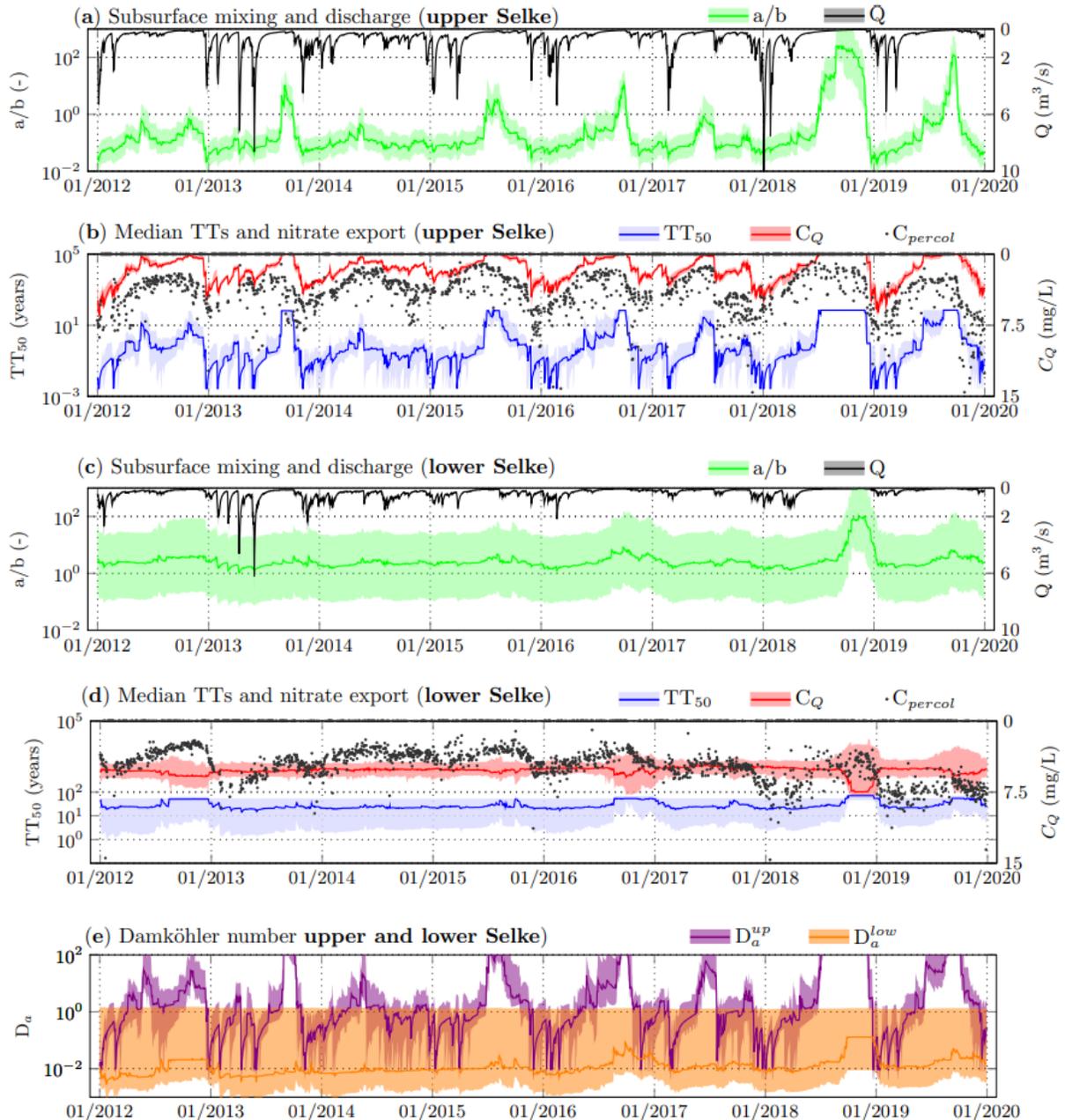
424 The reliability of the simulated nitrate concentrations in discharge from the middle Selke
 425 (Figure 4c) is lower compared to that from the upper Selke. This is because most of the nitrate at
 426 the Meisdorf gauging station originates from the upper Selke, so the nitrate concentration data at
 427 the Meisdorf gauge do not contain much additional information for the model calibration.
 428 Considering the aforementioned reason and the comparable instream dynamics (Figure 4c) as
 429 well as the behavioral subsurface parameter ranges (Table S2) between the upper and middle

430 Selke, those subcatchments could be considered as one subcatchment for future studies.

431 3.4. Linking subsurface mixing with water age and nitrate export

432 Figure 5 shows the relation between subsurface mixing and the TTs of discharge as well
433 as nitrate export from the three subcatchments. The upper Selke tends to select young water (a/b
434 < 1 in Eqs. 4-7) for discharge, apart from low-flow periods ($a/b > 1$; Figure 5a). The catchment
435 progressively shifts from young (or old) to old (or young) water selection preference with
436 decreasing wetness. The selection preference for young water during high-flow periods is
437 consistent with our understanding that fast shallow flow paths dominate under these flow
438 conditions. These flow paths can be activated due to a combination of 1) high precipitation, 2)
439 high permeability of the uppermost cambisols layer, and 3) low percolation rate of the lower
440 schist and claystone layers (Section 2.3 and Figure 2c). During low-flow periods, we found a
441 dominance of old water in the simulated discharge, causing a strong difference in the TTs of
442 discharge between high and low-flow periods (Figure 5b). This can be explained by the fact that
443 the relative contribution of discharge from deeper and longer flow paths to streamflow becomes
444 more pronounced in low-flow periods, because less flow from the shallower zone with shorter
445 flow paths is generated when those shallow flow paths increasingly cease. It should be noted that
446 the maximum TT is rather restricted by the time frame of the simulation rather than the actual
447 age of the oldest water, which is unknown (Figure 5b). Discharge with older water has less
448 nitrate compared to discharge with younger age due to longer time for denitrification, creating a
449 pronounced seasonality in instream nitrate concentrations (Figure 5b). In addition, the
450 seasonality in instream nitrate concentrations is also due to the seasonality of nitrate
451 concentrations in the percolation water (Figure 5b). However, due to denitrification and
452 subsurface mixing, the range of nitrate concentrations in discharge is buffered compared to that
453 in the percolating water.

454 The middle Selke shows a similar behavior to the upper Selke in terms of subsurface
455 mixing and nitrate export dynamics (Figure S5). In addition, the subsurface denitrification rates
456 in the upper and middle Selke are comparable (Table 3). This is expected because the upper and
457 middle Selke have similar hydrogeological settings (Table 1 and Figure 2). Visual assessment
458 shows that the model prediction uncertainties (the 95PPU of a/b , TT_{50} , and C_Q) for the middle
459 Selke tend to be higher than that for the upper Selke (Figures S4) for the reason mentioned
460 earlier (Section 3.3).



461
 462 **Figure 5.** Relation between subsurface mixing dynamics (characterized by the a/b ratio of the
 463 beta function), TTs (characterized by the median transit time TT_{50}), and nitrate concentration
 464 dynamics in discharge (C_Q) from (a-b) the upper Selke and (c-d) the lower Selke, and (e) the
 465 interplay between transport time and denitrification timescale (characterized by the Damköhler
 466 number, D_a) in the upper and lower Selke. Solid lines indicate the median values, while bands
 467 indicate the 95PPU band. The superscripts “*up*” and “*low*” mean the upper and lower Selke,
 468 respectively. C_{percol} is the nitrate concentration in percolated water. The Damköhler number is the
 469 ratio between TT_{50} of discharge and the reaction time (l/k). Results are from individual
 470 subcatchments.

471 Compared to the upper and middle Selke, the selection preference for discharge (a/b

ratio) in the lower Selke varies over a smaller range (Figures 5a,c and S5b). This is to be expected considering that the lower Selke has smaller topographic gradients (flatter terrain) and a deeper aquifer system with more steady, less dynamic subsurface flow field (Nixdorf & Trauth, 2018; J. Yang et al., 2018). The median a/b ratio shows that subsurface mixing in the lower Selke varies around the complete mixing ratio ($a/b = 1$) except during the very dry periods in which the system discharges only old water. As a result, the TTs of discharge from the lower Selke are much higher than those from the upper and middle Selke, which preferably discharge young water most of the time (Figures 5a,c and S5b). The relation between nitrate concentrations in discharge and TTs of discharge from the lower Selke is unclear, as nitrate concentrations in discharge from the lower Selke seem to be relatively steady throughout the years (Figure 5d). This is because subsurface mixing in the lower Selke (Figure 5c) is relatively stable around an a/b ratio of 1, which describes complete mixing behavior. Interestingly, the median subsurface transport time in the lower Selke subcatchment is faster compared to the denitrification timescale defined by the very low denitrification rate (Figure 5e, Table 3). During low-flow periods, the initial nitrate concentration in the oldest water pool has negligible impacts on the nitrate export from the upper Selke compared to that from the lower Selke (Figure 5b,d). This is because the upper Selke during those periods is characterized by relatively long subsurface transport times compared to the denitrification timescale so that denitrification is controlled by the high denitrification rates and most nitrate is removed along the deeper flow paths. In contrast, in the lower Selke subsurface transport times, although generally longer than in the upper Selke, are short relative to the very long reaction time scales caused by the very low denitrification rates, making the system transport-controlled as indicated by the D_a numbers during low-flow periods (Figure 5e). In general, subsurface transport in the upper Selke is characterized by a strong variability of transport time-scales over the denitrification timescale (shown by the D_a numbers, Figure 5e), while subsurface transport in the lower Selke is more steady and characterized by transport time scales that are shorter than the respective reaction time scales.

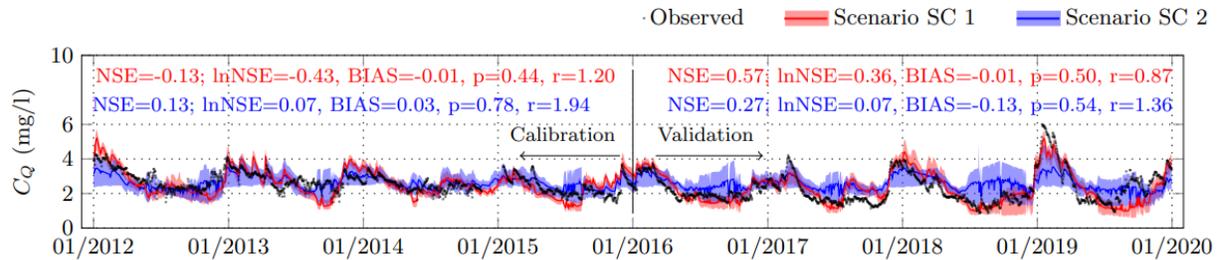
3.5. Semi-distributed versus lumped SAS approach

Comparing results from the semi-distributed (SC 1) and lumped (SC 2) SAS approaches show that model performances for instream nitrate concentrations at the catchment outlet are somewhat different (Figure 6a). The median statistical indices (NSE and $\ln NSE$) indicate that the lumped approach calibrated with data from the catchment outlet only has a better model performance than the semi-distributed approach in the calibration period (Figure 6a). The slightly poorer model performance of the semi-distributed model, despite having higher degrees of freedom, is because the semi-distributed SAS model is constrained with streamflow and instream nitrate concentration data not only from the catchment outlet, but also from the internal gauging stations (Table 2). In the validation period, however, it can be seen clearly that the semi-distributed approach performs significantly better than the lumped approach. This suggests that the dynamics of age selection for discharge and the associated turnover of nitrate are indeed distinctly different between the three sub-catchments and cannot be adequately represented with the simpler lumped approach. A better model performance in the calibration period with the lumped approach could be an artifact of the optimization. In fact, a misrepresentation of three SAS functions by one SAS function can be compensated by other non-SAS-related parameters in the calibration period but not in the validation period. The results further suggest that for model applications beyond the calibration period (e.g., climate change and land-use change impact studies), the semi-distributed approach should be preferred over the lumped approach. For streamflow simulation, the two approaches have comparable results with median NSE values

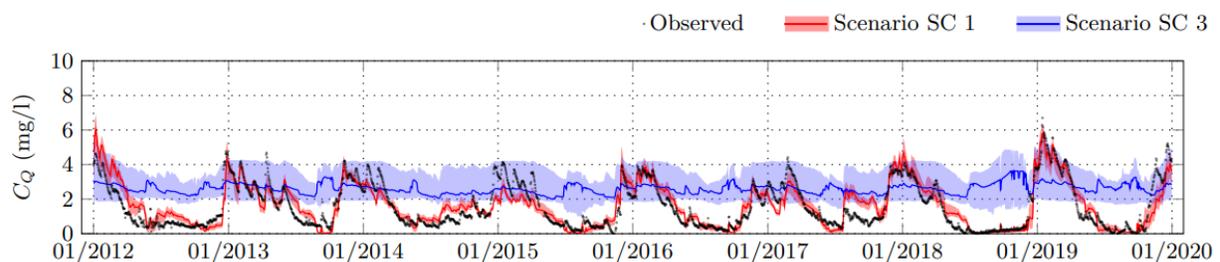
518 from both approaches being within the range [0.73, 0.89] for both calibration and validation
 519 periods (not shown).

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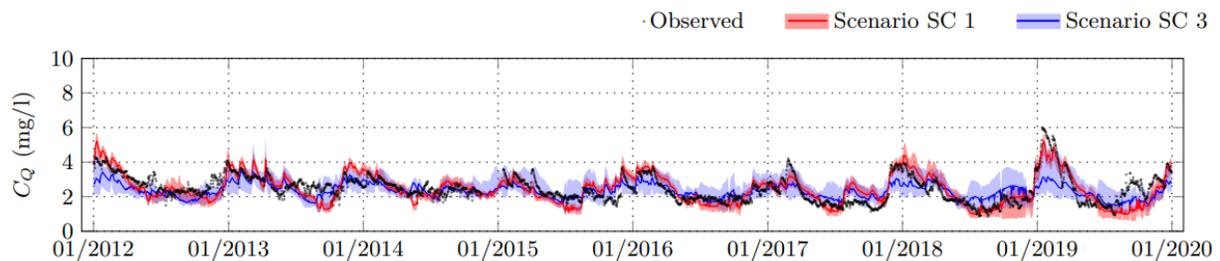
(a) Instream nitrate concentration (C_Q) at the catchment outlet (Scenarios S1 and S2)



(b) Instream nitrate concentration (C_Q) at the Silberhütte gauging station (Scenarios S1 and S3)



(c) Instream nitrate concentration (C_Q) at the catchment outlet (Scenarios S1 and S3)



521

522 **Figure 6.** Observed and simulated (a, c) instream nitrate concentrations at the catchment outlet
 523 (Hausneindorf) and (b) the internal gauging station (Silberhütte) from different simulation
 524 scenarios (Table 2). Solid lines indicate the median values, while bands indicate the 95PPU
 525 band.

526 Next, we compared the simulations of nitrate dynamics based on the semi-distributed and
 527 lumped SAS approaches to understand how well the internal catchment functioning can be
 528 represented with spatially lumped SAS functions. Figure 6b-c shows the simulated instream
 529 nitrate concentrations at the internal gauging station (e.g., Silberhütte) and the catchment outlet
 530 (Hausneindorf) using the calibrated catchment-scale subsurface parameters (α, β, n, S_0) obtained
 531 from the lumped approach for all subcatchments (SC 3). It is clearly visible that these parameters
 532 cannot be used for the subcatchments as they provide a false understanding of the subcatchment
 533 functioning (Figure 6b). For example, the simulated nitrate concentrations in discharge from the
 534 upper Selke (SC 3) are relatively high and steady throughout the years, while those from the
 535 observed data and the semi-distributed SAS approach (SC 1) show a strong seasonality (Figures
 536 6b). The relatively steady simulated nitrate concentrations in discharge (SC 3) are due to (1)

537 faster TTs and higher nitrate concentrations in young water (percolated water) during high-flow
538 periods and (2) longer TTs and high nitrate concentration in the old water pool due to the very
539 low denitrification rate during low-flow periods (Figure S6 and Table S2). In the dry periods, the
540 simulated nitrate concentrations (SC 3) are even slightly higher than those in the high-flow
541 periods (e.g., during 2018-2019; Figure 6b), suggesting contrasting catchment functioning
542 compared to observed data and results from the semi-distributed approach (SC 1). The simulated
543 subsurface mixing and TT dynamics from the upper Selke (SC 3) indicate that using parameters
544 from the lumped approach (SC 2) will shift the selection preference for discharge to much older
545 water compared to the semi-distributed approach (SC 1) (Figure S6).

546 Despite a clear mismatch at the internal gauging station, the simulated instream nitrate
547 concentrations at the catchment outlet match quite well the observations (Figure 6c). This
548 indicates that taking the same subsurface transport parameters for all subcatchments in a highly
549 heterogeneous catchment could provide the right results at the catchment outlet for the wrong
550 reasons. For spatially explicit SAS models, this means that a parameter regionalization technique
551 could be needed to parameterize the subsurface transport parameters of each spatial modeling
552 unit (e.g., sub-catchments or HRUs or grid-cells) to be applicable in heterogeneous catchments,
553 thus assisting (land use) management decisions.

554 Results from the lumped and semi-distributed models also imply that if the lower Selke is
555 further divided into smaller modeling units, individual responses from these modeling units can
556 be different from the integrated response of the lower Selke. This is because the geological
557 setting of the lower Selke is highly heterogeneous (Figure 2d). In this case, additional data
558 (internal gauging stations) are required for further understanding the internal functioning of
559 different modeling units within the lower Selke. However, further discretization of the upper and
560 middle Selke into smaller modeling units might not change our understanding of the internal
561 subcatchment functioning, as the soil and geological conditions in these areas are quite
562 homogeneous. Therefore, the responses of these smaller modeling units are expected to be
563 similar (as shown by the similar responses of the upper and lower Selke; Section 3.4).

564 **4 Model capabilities, implications for management practices, and limitations**

565 This study demonstrated that the spatially explicit (e.g., semi-distributed) SAS approach
566 can provide valuable additional insights into the functioning of each subcatchment with
567 internally consistent process descriptions, while at the same time it does not compromise the
568 quality of the model fit at the integral point of the main catchment outlet. In contrast, the lumped
569 SAS approach could only yield robust results at the main catchment outlet and yielded
570 inadequate results at internal points in the model domain. Our application of the semi-distributed
571 SAS model in a nested mesoscale heterogeneous catchment has demonstrated the model's ability
572 to capture nitrate dynamics at internal gauging stations as well as at the main catchment outlet.
573 Applying SAS functions in a semi-distributed framework as presented here, helps to overcome
574 some of the limitations of the spatially lumped characteristics of the general SAS concept.
575 Results from a semi-distributed model can provide not only additional spatial information, such
576 as subcatchment nitrate export, but also temporal information on the age of water and potentially
577 nitrate, which is related to the source and origin of the exported nitrate.

578 The spatially explicit SAS approach is especially relevant for planning and evaluating
579 spatial management practices as (1) parameters infer from the lumped approach could fail to
580 represent the subcatchment functioning, (2) the lumped approach is less robust than the semi-

581 distributed approach, and (3) the lumped approach does not provide information about both
582 spatial and temporal origins of nitrate in discharge for effective management. Results from the
583 Selke with the semi-distributed SAS approach show that the lowland catchments (lower Selke)
584 should have different management practices compared to the mountainous headwater catchments
585 (middle and upper Selke). Agricultural management practices that aim to quickly reduce nitrate
586 export during high-flow periods should be implemented in the mountainous headwater
587 catchments rather than in the lowland catchment. This is because of the short TTs and transport-
588 limited characteristics of these catchments during high-flow periods. However, management
589 practices that aim to reduce exported nitrate loads (1) during low-flow periods or (2) in the
590 coming decade(s) should be implemented in the lowland catchments with longer TTs and
591 transport-limited characteristics. Due to the short median TTs in the mountainous catchments (~
592 1 year), the effectiveness of management practices in these catchments can be evaluated in the
593 following years. In contrast, long median TTs in the lowland catchment would require decades
594 for the effects of a certain management practice to become effective and visible.

595 Despite the advantages of the semi-distributed SAS approach, the application of this
596 approach in larger catchments with more diverse hydrogeological settings could face several
597 challenges. In such catchments, the number of subsurface parameters could be high due to a high
598 number of subcatchments. In this case, understanding the linkage between key catchment
599 characteristics (e.g., topography, geology, land use, and meteorological conditions) with
600 subcatchment functioning (parameters of the SAS function) could avoid unnecessary small
601 spatial resolution and model overparameterization. This can provide useful insights into the
602 optimal spatial modeling resolution, in which the number of modeling units is at a minimum
603 while the spatial heterogeneity of subcatchment responses is adequately captured. For such
604 understanding, applications of the semi-distributed SAS approach in much larger catchments
605 with diverse settings are required.

606

607 **5 Conclusions**

608 In this study, we developed a semi-distributed SAS-based model, in which SAS functions
609 are applied at the subcatchment level. The proposed model was applied in a mesoscale nested
610 catchment, namely the Selke catchment located in Germany. The catchment was delineated into
611 three subcatchments for application of SAS functions, consisting of (1) a upper mountainous
612 headwater subcatchment (upper Selke) with a mixture of forest and agricultural land, (2) a
613 middle mountainous subcatchment (middle Selke) dominated by forest land, and (3) a lowland
614 subcatchment (lower Selke) dominated by agricultural land. The main results from this study are
615 as follows:

- 616 • The semi-distributed SAS approach could represent instream nitrate concentration
617 dynamics not only at the catchment outlet but also at the internal gauging stations.
- 618 • The headwater subcatchment has high seasonal variations in the subsurface mixing
619 schemes, while that in the lowland catchment is less pronounced. Nitrate concentrations
620 in discharge from the headwater subcatchment show a strong seasonality, while those
621 from the lowland subcatchment are relatively steady over different seasons.
- 622 • Instream denitrification only removes a minor part of the exported nitrate loads.
- 623 • The median age of water in discharge (TT_{50}) from the headwater subcatchment is much

624 younger than that from the lowland subcatchment.

625 • The headwater and lowland subcatchments take turns at dominating catchment nitrate
626 export in high and low-flow periods.

627 • Parameters infer from the lumped approach fail to represent the subcatchment
628 functioning and the lumped approach is less robust than the semi-distributed approach

629 Results from this study have demonstrated that the proposed model can provide useful
630 insights into the functioning of each subcatchment, unlike the lumped SAS approach. The
631 proposed model concept in combination with an appropriate regional parameterization approach
632 could help to extend the application of the SAS concept in larger catchments. Results from such
633 model applications could help understand both spatial and temporal origins of nitrate in rivers,
634 contributing towards efforts to reduce nitrate pollution.

635 **Acknowledgments, Samples, and Data**

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640 management practices data, and high-frequency nitrate data for model calibration. FS, RK and
641 SA acknowledge the Advanced Earth Modelling Capacity (ESM) project funded by the
642 Helmholtz Association. Source codes of the mHM-SAS model and relevant data for reproducing
643 the work are available online at <https://git.ufz.de/nguyenta/mhm-sas> ('development' branch, last
644 commit on 9 July, 2021).

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