



1 **A Unique Vadose Zone Model for Shallow Aquifers: the Hetao**
2 **Irrigation District, China**

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35 **Abstract**

36 Rapid population growth is increasing pressure on the world water resources. Agriculture will require crops to be
37 grown with less water. This is especially the case for the closed Yellow River basin necessitating a better
38 understanding of the fate of irrigation water in the soil. In this manuscript, we report on a field experiment and
39 develop a physical based model for the shallow groundwater in the Hetao irrigation district in Inner Mongolia, in the
40 arid middle reaches of the Yellow River. Unlike other approaches, this model recognizes that field capacity is
41 reached when the matric potential is equal to the height above the groundwater table and not by a limiting soil
42 conductivity. The field experiment was carried out in 2016 and 2017. Daily moisture contents at 5 depths in the top
43 90 cm and groundwater table depths were measured in two fields with a corn crop. The data collected were used for
44 model calibration and validation. The calibration and validation results show that the model-simulated soil moisture
45 and groundwater depth fitted well. The model can be used in areas with shallow groundwater to optimize irrigation
46 water use and minimize tailwater losses.

47 **Key words:** Hydrological model, Shallow aquifer, Equilibrium state, Soil characteristic curve

48 **1 Introduction**

49 With global climate change and increasing human population, water scarcity in many parts of the world cannot be
50 ignored anymore (Guo and Shen, 2016) and has caused widespread concern among public governmental officials
51 and scientists (Alcamo et al., 2007; Guo and Shen, 2016; Oki and Kanae, 2006). Years of rapid population growth
52 have diminished the world water resources and the global per capita availability of fresh water will be 5100 m³ by
53 the year 2025, which according to Gardner-Outlaw and Engelman (Gardner-Outlaw and Engelman, 1997), indicates
54 water scarcity and consequently insufficient water for economic development.

55 In China, which has 22% of the world population and only 7% of the fresh water resources, the amount of
56 water available per capita is only 1700 m³a⁻¹, when averaged over the whole country (Hinrichsen, 2002). The water
57 shortage in the Yellow River basin is especially severe. The Yellow River produces 33% of the total agricultural
58 production in China, mainly with irrigation from surface and groundwater to overcome the limited rainfall. This
59 irrigation has directly changed the hydrology of the basin. Fifty years ago, the semi-arid North China Plain had
60 springs, shallow groundwater and rivers feeding the Yellow River. Currently, the rivers and springs have dried up
61 and in the last 20 years, groundwater has continuously decreased at rates above 1 m per year (Yang et al., 2015a). At



62 the same time, in the arid Inner Mongolia, along the Yellow River, the once deep groundwater is now within 3 m of
63 the soil surface in the large irrigation projects such as the Hetao irrigation district because of downward percolation
64 of the excess irrigation water that has been applied.

65 Crop irrigation in the Yellow River basin accounts for 96% of the total water use (Li et al., 2004). Due to
66 increased demands for irrigation, annually the river has stopped flowing downstream for an average of 70 days for
67 the last 10 years (Hinrichsen, 2002). Consequently, during this time, the basin is “closed” and water used in one part
68 cannot be used elsewhere in the basin. Thus, saving water upstream in Inner Mongolia means that more water is
69 available downstream (Gao et al., 2015). Efficient water use can be achieved by field trials measuring the fluxes.
70 This is time consuming, expensive and only a limited set of water management practices can be investigated.
71 Therefore, models have been deployed that can test many management practices, but often are not accurate because
72 they have not been tested under local field conditions. A combination of field experiments, together with physical
73 based models, have the benefits of both approaches with few of the negative effects.

74 Soil moisture plays a critical role in the growth of crops/vegetation (Rodriguez-Iturbe, 2000), partitioning of
75 rainfall into runoff and infiltration (Merz and Plate, 1997), groundwater recharge and upward movement of water to
76 the rootzone in areas where the groundwater is shallow (Gleeson et al., 2016; Jasechko and Taylor, 2015; Venkatesh
77 et al., 2011).

78 Simulations of soil moisture content can be roughly grouped into two groups: models that are based on full
79 Darcy’s law and those that simplify and regionalize Darcy’s law. Both groups use the conservation of mass
80 principles. The full Darcy’s law application numerically solves a set of differential equations with a relatively small
81 time-step and areal resolution. These models need, therefore, detailed landscape and soil physical properties and are
82 time consuming to run (Flint et al., 2002). Examples of these models are SHE (Système Hydrologique Européen,
83 Abbott et al., 1986), HYDRUS (Du et al., 2018; Karimov et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018), SWAP (Soil, Water,
84 Atmosphere and Plant, Su et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2016), and MODFLOW (McDonald and Harbaugh, 2003).
85 Simplified and regionalized applications are based on self-organization of the hydrological processes in the
86 landscape. They allow for averaging of the hydrological processes for relatively large landscape units. The main
87 advantages of these models are that generally available data can be used and they can be applied in similar
88 landscapes without the need to collect additional data (Hoang et al., 2017). The disadvantage is that each landscape



89 type has a different set of regionalized landscape parameters. Examples of models using the regionalized Darcy's
90 law are TOPMODEL (Beven and Kirkby, 1979) and SWAT (Soil & Water Assessment Tool) (Neitsch et al., 2000).

91 In the Yellow River basin, various models were developed to simulate the soil water moisture content,
92 groundwater depth and water fluxes. Finite element or finite difference models that use both Darcy's law and
93 conservation of mass are the Hydrus-1D model (Ren et al., 2016) and Finite Difference Model application (Moiwo
94 et al., 2010). These types of models are valid for any groundwater depth. Simplified and regionalized models are
95 either valid for deep (>3.3m) or shallow groundwater (<3.3m) areas. Models used in the North China Plain with
96 groundwater over 30 m deep were developed by the following researchers: Wang et al. (2001); Kendy et al. (2003);
97 Chen et al. (2010); Ma et al. (2013); Yang et al. (Chen et al., 2010; Kendy et al., 2003; Ma et al., 2013; Wang et al.,
98 2001; Yang et al., 2015a; Yang et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2015b). Usually a unit hydraulic gradient is assumed, and
99 water stops moving when the soil reaches field capacity at 3.3 m (33 kPa) when the hydraulic conductivity becomes
100 limiting.

101 These models are not valid for irrigation projects along the Yellow River with shallow groundwater because
102 water moves upward from the groundwater to the root zone under a matric potential gradient opposite the gravity
103 potential. Two regionalized models developed for shallow groundwater in the Yellow River basin are by Xue et al.
104 (2018) and Gao et al. (2017). The two models do not consider the dynamics of groundwater depth and matric
105 potential. By including these dynamics, more realistic predictions of moisture contents and upward flow can be
106 obtained and would give better results when extended outside the area where they are developed (Wang and Smith,
107 2004).

108 For areas with shallow groundwater, evaporation sets up hydraulic gradient that causes the upward capillary
109 water movement to sustain the evapotranspiration demands and crop water use (Kahlow et al., 2005; Liu et al.,
110 2016; Luo and Sophocleous, 2010; Yeh and Famiglietti, 2009). Water stops moving when the hydraulic potential
111 gradient is zero and thus the matric potential is equal to the height above the water table (in depth units). The
112 moisture content at field capacity (which we call equilibrium moisture content in this manuscript) is thus a function
113 of the groundwater depth and can be found with aid of the soil characteristic curve.

114 The objective of this study is to develop a novel physical-based model using information of soil characteristic
115 curve and validating this approach using experimental data collected in a field with shallow groundwater. The
116 experimental field is located in the Hetao Irrigation District (HID), Inner Mongolia, China, where on two maize



117 fields, moisture content and the groundwater table depth were measured over a two-year period. The model can be
118 used once validated for saving irrigation water by fine tuning the application amounts.

119 **2 Materials and Methods**

120 **2.1 Study Area**

121 The Hetao Irrigation District (HID) is the third largest irrigation district of China. It covers an area of 1.12×10^6
122 ha of which half is irrigated (Xu et al., 2015). About 5 billion m^3 water are diverted from the Yellow River each year
123 (Xu et al., 2010). The primary irrigation method used is surface flood irrigation (Sun et al., 2013). The groundwater
124 table is very shallow ranging between 0.5 m to 3 m. The overall hydraulic gradient is 0.1-0.25 ‰ (Ren et al., 2018).
125 Soil salinization is serious and the main chemical composition of groundwater salinity mainly consists of NaCl, KCl,
126 $CaSO_4$. The Hetao District has a typical arid continental climate with high evaporation and low rainfall. The average
127 annual precipitation is 180 mm a^{-1} and the potential evaporation is 2225 mm a^{-1} (Luan et al., 2018). The soil is
128 mainly alluvial deposits with a silty loam texture. It is frozen 5 to 6 months per year from late November to the
129 middle of May. There are about 135-150 frost-free days and an average of 3100-3300 h of sunshine per year (Feng
130 et al., 2005). Maize and wheat are the main food crops and sunflower is the main cash crop.

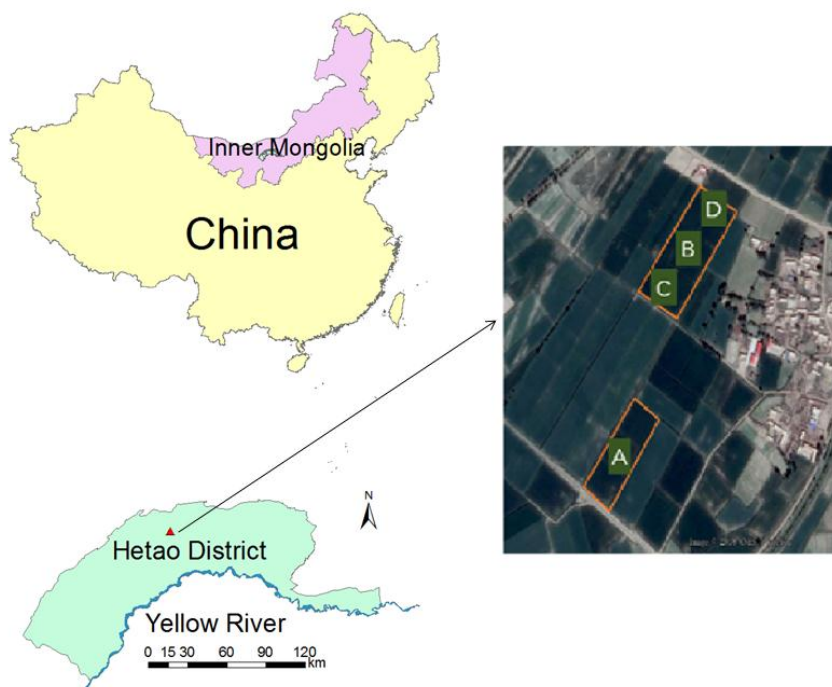
131 **2.2 Field experiment and data collection**

132 The experiment was carried out in Fenzidi, Bayannur city ($41^{\circ}9'N$, $107^{\circ}39'E$) in the Hetao District in 2016 and
133 2017 (Fig.1). In 2016, the experiment was carried out separately in site A (about 3100 m^2) and site B (about 7000 m^2)
134 (Fig.1). In 2017, Field B was split into Fields C and D and experiments were carried out in these two fields. Field C
135 was about 3400 m^2 and D about 3600 m^2 . Experimental fields were planted both years with maize. The sowing date
136 was April 24, 2016 and May 13, 2017. The harvest date was October 1st in both 2016 and 2017. The plant growth
137 stages are given in Table 1. The fields were flood irrigated three or four times during the heading and filling stages
138 starting in late June or early July (Table 2).

139 Precipitation, air temperature, relative humidity, sunshine duration and wind speed were collected from the
140 weather station on the experimental station. The reference evapotranspiration (ET_0) was calculated based on the
141 FAO-Penman-Monteith equation with the daily meteorological data (Allen et al., 1998). Precipitation and ET_0
142 during crop growth stage were showed in Fig. 2. The soil moisture was monitored daily in the top 90 cm using
143 Hydra Probe Soil Sensors (Stevens Water Monitoring System Inc., Portland, OR, USA) installed in both experiment



144 fields. Soil moisture was measured at 5 depths: 0-10 cm, 10-30 cm, 30-50 cm, 50-70 cm, and 70-90 cm. The sensors
145 were connected to data loggers and downloaded via wireless transmission. Calibration was conducted by oven
146 drying soil samples (Wang et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2017a). The groundwater depth was measured by piezometers
147 (HOBO Water Level Logger-U20, Onset, Cape Cod, MA, USA) recorded at 30 min intervals.



148
149 Figure. 1 Location of the field experiment in Hetao irrigation district. The blue line is the Yellow River.

150 Table 1

151 *Crop growth stage in 2016 and 2017 for corn growth on the Fenzidi experimental fields in the Hetao district*

Year\Growth stage	seeding	jointing	heading	filling	maturing	harvesting
2016	24-Apr	25-May	16-Jul	6-Aug	3-Sep	1-Oct
2017	13-May	11-Jun	18-Jul	8-Aug	5-Sep	1-Oct

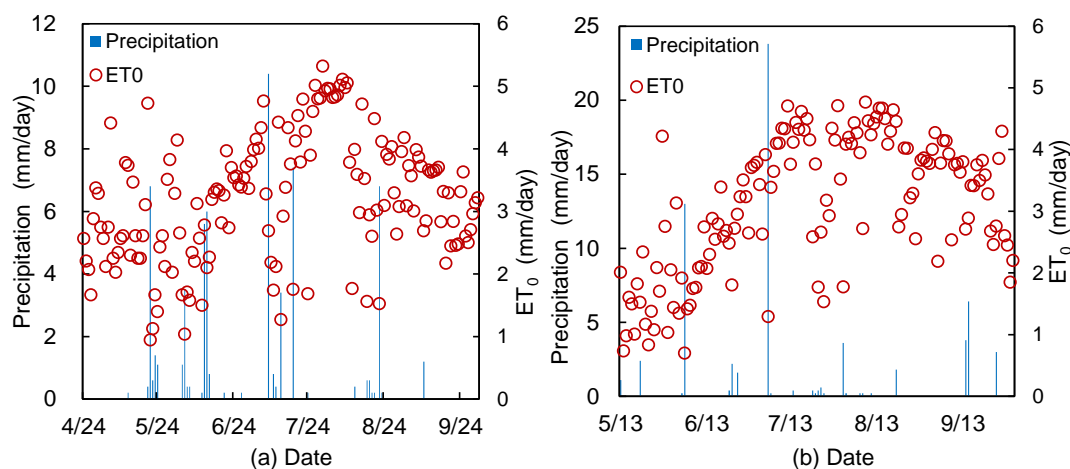
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156 Table 2

157 *Irrigation scheduling carried out at Fenzidi experimental fields in 2016 and 2017*

Year	Field	Irrigation events	Date	Irrigation depth(mm)
2016	A	First	July 13	115
		Second	July 26	86
		Third	August 8	122
	B	First	June 23	57
		Second	July 13	119
		Third	July 26	86
2017	C	First	July 13	153
		Second	July 23	104
		Third	August 9	134
	D	First	July 13	165
		Second	July 23	107
		Third	August 9	128



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159 Figure. 2 Daily reference evaporation, ET₀, and precipitation during crop growth period in (a) 2016 and (b) 2017

160 Soil samples were collected in rings from the same five layers where moisture contents were measured and
 161 used for determining soil physical properties including field capacity (θ_{fc}), saturated soil moisture (θ_s), dry bulk
 162 density (ρ), and saturated hydraulic conductivity (K_s) (Table 3). For Fields A, B, C and D, the saturated hydraulic
 163 conductivity was measured by the constant head method. Field capacity was measured at 33 kPa and bulk density



164 was determined by oven drying and dividing by the volume of the ring. Soil texture of Fields A and B were analyzed
165 with the laser particle size analyzer (Mastersizer 2000, Malvern Instruments Ltd. United Kingdom) in the laboratory
166 and are shown in Table 4. The soils vary from silty loam to silty clay loam.

167 Table 3

168 *Hydrological characteristic parameters of the Fenzidi experimental fields*

Year	Field	Soil depth (cm)	θ_{fc} (cm ³ /cm ³)	θ_s (cm ³ /cm ³)	K_s (cm/d)	ρ (g/cm ³)
2016	A	0-10	0.31	0.47	11.65	1.47
		10-30	0.31	0.47	11.65	1.47
		30-50	0.32	0.51	48.71	1.36
		50-70	0.39	0.44	17.48	1.39
		70-100	0.41	0.44	40.54	1.45
	B	0-10	0.31	0.49	11.39	1.52
		10-30	0.31	0.49	11.39	1.52
		30-50	0.35	0.48	48.68	1.40
		50-70	0.40	0.49	11.06	1.42
		70-100	0.40	0.43	46.68	1.42
2017	C	0-10	0.36	0.42	5.18	1.52
		10-30	0.36	0.46	5.18	1.52
		30-50	0.35	0.47	11.92	1.38
		50-70	0.42	0.48	4.41	1.37
		70-100	0.21	0.47	6.23	1.69
	D	0-10	0.37	0.41	4.69	1.44
		10-30	0.37	0.45	4.69	1.44
		30-50	0.39	0.45	6.81	1.42
		50-70	0.42	0.46	10.86	1.42
		70-100	0.29	0.42	10.86	1.76

169 Note: θ_{fc} is the soil water content at 33 kPa, θ_s is the saturated soil water content, K_s is the saturated hydraulic
170 conductivity, ρ is the bulk density, ψ_h is the bubbling pressure.

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179 Table 4
 180 *Soil texture of the Field A and B*

Site	Depth (cm)	Soil type	Sand (50-2000 μ m)	Silt (2-50 μ m)	Clay (0.01-2 μ m)
A	0-30	silty clay loam	0.05	0.75	0.2
	30-50	silty loam	0.22	0.7	0.08
	50-70	silty clay loam	0.03	0.8	0.17
	70-100	silty loam	0.39	0.57	0.04
B	0-30	silty loam	0.15	0.67	0.18
	30-50	silty loam	0.35	0.6	0.05
	50-70	silty clay loam	0.03	0.74	0.23
	70-100	silty clay loam	0.08	0.69	0.23

181 2.3 The Shallow Aquifer - Vadose Zone model

182 For shallow groundwater (less than 3.3 m deep), the matric potential is a function of depth under equilibrium
 183 conditions. Since the soil characteristic curve for each soil is the relationship of moisture content and matric
 184 potential, the moisture content is also a function of the depth of the water table under equilibrium conditions.

185 *Soil characteristic curve*

186 There are several formulations describing the soil characteristic curve (Bauters et al., 2000; Brooks and Corey,
 187 1964; Gupta and Larson, 1979; Haverkamp and Parlange, 1986; van Genuchten, 1980); the van Genuchten and
 188 Brooks & Corey models are widely used in the hydrological and soil studies. Here, we selected the Brooks and
 189 Corey model for its simplicity.

190 The Brooks-Corey model can be expressed as (Gardner et al., 1970a; Gardner et al., 1970b; Mccuen et al., 1981;
 191 Williams et al., 1983).

$$S_e = \left(\frac{\varphi_m}{\varphi_b}\right)^{-\lambda} \quad \text{for } |\varphi_m| > |\varphi_b| \quad (1a)$$

$$S_e = 1 \quad \text{for } |\varphi_m| \leq |\varphi_b| \quad (1b)$$

192 in which S_e is the effective saturation θ is the volumetric moisture content, θ_s is the volumetric saturated moisture
 193 content, φ_b is the bubbling pressure (cm), φ_m is matric potential (cm), and λ is the pore size distribution index. The
 194 effective saturation is defined as



$$S_e = \frac{\theta - \theta_d}{\theta_s - \theta_d} \quad (2)$$

195 in which θ is the volumetric moisture content, θ_s is the volumetric saturated moisture content, θ_d is the residual
 196 moisture content (all in cm^3/cm^3). Equation 2 can be simplified to the form by setting $\theta_d = 0$

$$S_e = \frac{\theta}{\theta_s} \quad (3)$$

197 For cases when the groundwater is close to the surface, under equilibrium conditions when the flow of water has
 198 stopped, the matric potential can be expressed as height above the water table. For our field experiment the
 199 bubbling pressure, φ_b , and the pore size distribution index, λ , in the Brooks and Corey model can be obtained
 200 through a trial and error procedure by using the measured moisture content and matric potential derived from the
 201 ground water depth after the field after an irrigation and equilibrium was reached.

202 2.3.1 Parameters based on soil characteristic curve

203 The soil of the crop root zone is divided into several soil layers and each soil layer has its specific soil
 204 characteristic curve. After a sufficiently large irrigation and rainfall event, the moisture content is at the equilibrium
 205 after the drainage stops. After such an event, the groundwater stays at the equilibrium moisture content as long as
 206 the evapotranspiration is less than upward flux from the groundwater.

207 *Equilibrium moisture content*

208 The equilibrium soil moisture content, θ_{equ} , in a layer can be determined by first replacing the matric potential
 209 in Eq (1a) by the matric potential of the layer $\varphi_m^{z,h}$ that is dependent of the depth of the groundwater and depth of the
 210 soil layer, z , e.g.

$$\varphi_m^{z,h} = h - z \quad (4)$$

211 where $\varphi_m^{z,h}$ is the matric potential under equilibrium moisture content at a depth z below the surface and h is the
 212 depth of the ground water below the surface

$$\theta_{eq}^{z,h} = \theta_s^z \left(\frac{h - z}{\varphi_b^z} \right)^{-\lambda} \quad \text{for } [h - z] > |\varphi_b^z| \quad (5a)$$

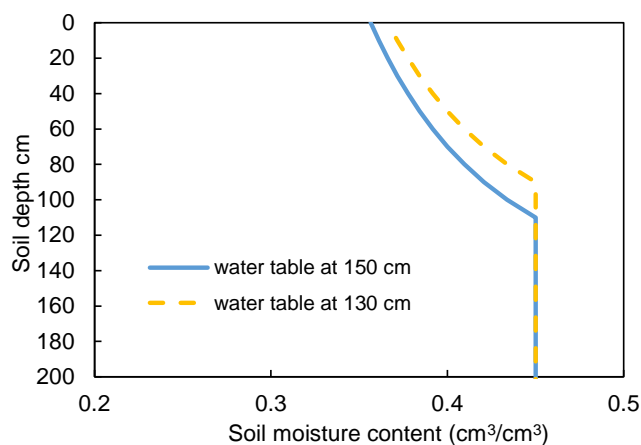
$$\theta_{eq}^{z,h} = \theta_s^z \quad \text{for } [h - z] \leq |\varphi_b^z| \quad (5b)$$



213 where $\theta_{eq}^{z,h}$ is the equilibrium soil moisture at the depth z below the surface while the groundwater depth is h . Note
 214 that the superscripts z and h indicate the dependence on the distance from the soil surface, z , and the depth, h , of the
 215 groundwater table.

216 **Drainable porosity**

217 The drainable porosity, or specific yield, is defined as the amount of water drained from the soil for a unit
 218 decrease of the groundwater table when the soil moisture is at equilibrium. Thus, by subtracting the total moisture
 219 content at equilibrium in the profile at the initial water table depth and at the new position one unit lower, we obtain
 220 the drainable porosity. For example, the area between the orange and blue curve is the amount of water drained for a
 221 decrease in the water table from 130cm to 150cm (Fig.3).



222
 223 Figure. 3 Illustration of drainable porosity. The yellow and the blue line are the equilibrium moisture contents for
 224 the ground water depth at 130 and 150 cm, respectively. The area between the two lines represents the drained
 225 amount of water for the decrease of groundwater table drained from the profile when the ground water decreases
 226 from 130 to 150 cm.

227 The total water content amount of the soil over a prescribed depth with a water table at depth h can be
 228 expressed as

$$W_{eq}^h = \sum_{j=1}^n L_j \overline{(\theta_{eq}^{z,h})_j} \quad (6)$$



229 where $\overline{\theta_{eq}^{z,h}}$ is the average equilibrium moisture content of layer j for h taken at the midpoint of the layer, n is the
 230 number of layers in the profile, L_j is the height of soil layer j . And the drainable porosity, μ^h , with the groundwater
 231 at depth h , can simply be found as

$$\mu^h = \frac{W_{eq}^{h-\Delta h} - W_{eq}^{h+\Delta h}}{2\Delta h} \quad (7)$$

232 where $\Delta h = 0.5L_j$.

233 2.3.2 Calculating fluxes in the soil

234 The model accounts for the downward flux due to the irrigation and rainfall, evapotranspiration by plants and
 235 soil, and upward flux from the groundwater to satisfy some or all the evapotranspiration demand by the crop and soil.
 236 There are sets of rules implemented in an Excel spreadsheet to calculate the fluxes.

237 *Evaporation*

- 238 1. Evaporation is always at the maximum rate when the plant canopy is closed. The maximum rate is less than
 239 the potential rate because the soil water is saline. In addition, the evaporation is further reduced when the
 240 canopy is not closed.
- 241 2. (a) On days without rain or irrigation, the evaporation lowers the water table and the moisture content in the
 242 soil decreases due to upward movement of water to the plant roots and soil surface.
 243 (b) On days with rain or irrigation, the potential evaporation is subtracted from the irrigation and/or rainfall
 244 and water moves downward.

245 *Upward flux from groundwater*

- 246 3. The upward flux from the groundwater, U_g^h , is either limited by the potential evaporation or the maximum
 247 flux of groundwater. The maximum flux, $U_{g,max}^h$, depends on the depth of the groundwater, the type of soil
 248 characteristic curve, and the condition at the surface (Gardner, 1958). These equations have an exponential
 249 form (Gardner, 1958; Yang et al., 2011; Zammouri, 2001),

$$U_{g,max}^h = \frac{a}{e^{bh} - 1} \quad \text{for } U_g^h \leq ET_p \quad (8)$$

250 where a and b are constants and ET_p is the potential evapotranspiration. The upward flux from the
 251 groundwater can be written as:

$$U_g^h = \min(ET_p, U_{g,max}^h) \quad (9)$$



252 On days without rain or irrigation, the soil moisture content is calculated by taking the difference of
 253 the equilibrium moisture content associated with the change in depth of groundwater. If in addition the
 254 upward flux is less than and evapotranspiration, the difference between the upward and the
 255 evapotranspiration is extracted out of the root zone according to a predetermined distribution, r_j , e.g.,

$$\overline{(\theta^{z,h,t})}_j = \overline{(\theta^{z,h,t-\Delta t})}_j + \overline{(\theta_{eq}^{z,h,t})}_j - \overline{(\theta_{eq}^{z,h,t-\Delta t})}_j - \frac{r_j(K_c ET_p - U_g^h)}{L_j} \quad (10)$$

256 Where $\overline{(\theta^{z,h,t})}_j$ is the average soil moisture content at time t of layer j , $\overline{(\theta_{eq}^{z,h,t})}_j$ is the average equilibrium
 257 soil moisture content of layer j when the groundwater depth is h at time t , K_c is a reduction factor of the
 258 potential evaporation for saline soil water and canopy and r_j is the root function that determines the portion
 259 of the evaporation is taken up by the roots in layer j . The value z is taken at the midpoint of layer j . The
 260 time t is expressed in days and time, $t-\Delta t$, is the previous day.

261 **The downward flux**

262 4. The rules for downward flux on days with the effective rain and/or irrigation are relatively simple. If the net
 263 flux at the surface (irrigation plus rainfall minus actual evaporation) is greater than needed to bring the soil
 264 up to equilibrium moisture content, the groundwater will be recharged and increase in depth and the
 265 moisture content will be equal to the equilibrium moisture content at the new depth.
 266 5. When the groundwater is not recharged, the following water balance will be calculated: the rainfall and the
 267 irrigation are added to first layer. This layer will be brought up to the equilibrium moisture content and the
 268 remaining water fills up the next layer to the equilibrium moisture content and so on. The calculations can
 269 be expressed as follows:

$$\overline{(\theta^{z,h,t})}_j = \min \left[\overline{(\theta_{eq}^{z,h,t})}_j, \overline{(\theta^{z,h,t-\Delta t})}_j + \frac{R_{j-1}\Delta t}{L_j} \right] \quad (11)$$

270 where for $j \geq 2$, R_{j-1} is the flux from the layer above and equals

$$R_{j+1} = R_j - \frac{\left(\overline{(\theta_{eq}^{z,h,t})}_j - \overline{(\theta^{z,h,t-\Delta t})}_j \right) L_j}{\Delta t} \quad (12)$$

271 For $j=1$, R_1 is equal to the rainfall plus the irrigation amounts minus potential evaporation

272 **Groundwater table depth**

273 6. The net change in groundwater depth, Δh , can be calculated on days without rainfall or irrigation as



$$\Delta h = \frac{U_g^h}{\mu^h} \quad (13a)$$

274 and days with rain or irrigation as

$$\Delta h = -\frac{R_5}{\mu^h} \quad (13b)$$

275 where the upward flux, U_g^h , is calculated with Eq 9, the percolation of the bottom layer R_5 with Eq 12 and the
 276 drainable porosity, μ^h with Eq 7. When the groundwater is close to the surface, the drainable porosity is zero. This
 277 would make the change in groundwater infinite. Thus, we limited the maximum decrease in groundwater after the
 278 irrigation event to be 10-20 cm based on field observations.

279 2.3.3 Model calibration and validation

280 The soil moisture contents were measured from May 30th to September 25th in 2016 and 2017. Groundwater
 281 depth was observed from June 13th to September 26th in 2016 and 2017. For the convenience of simulation, the
 282 period of June 13th to September 25th was set as the simulation period. Model calibration and validation were carried
 283 out with data collected during the 2016 and 2017 growing seasons, respectively. Soil moisture content of the top 90
 284 cm (0-10 cm, 10-30 cm, 30-50 cm, 50-70 cm, 70-90 cm) and the groundwater depth were simulated for model
 285 calibration and validation.

286 The statistical indicators including the mean relative error (*MRE*), the root mean square error (*RMSE*), the
 287 regression coefficient (*b*), the determination coefficient (R^2), and the regression slope were used to qualify the model
 288 fitting performance during the model calibration and validation. These indicators were defined as follows (Ren et al.,
 289 2016):

$$290 \quad MRE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(P_i - O_i)}{O_i} * 100\% \quad (14)$$

$$291 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (P_i - O_i)^2} \quad (15)$$

$$292 \quad b = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N O_i * P_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N O_i^2} \quad (16)$$



$$R^2 = \left[\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - \bar{O})(P_i - \bar{P})}{\left[\sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - \bar{O})^2 \right]^{0.5} \left[\sum_{i=1}^N (P_i - \bar{P})^2 \right]^{0.5}} \right]^2 \quad (17)$$

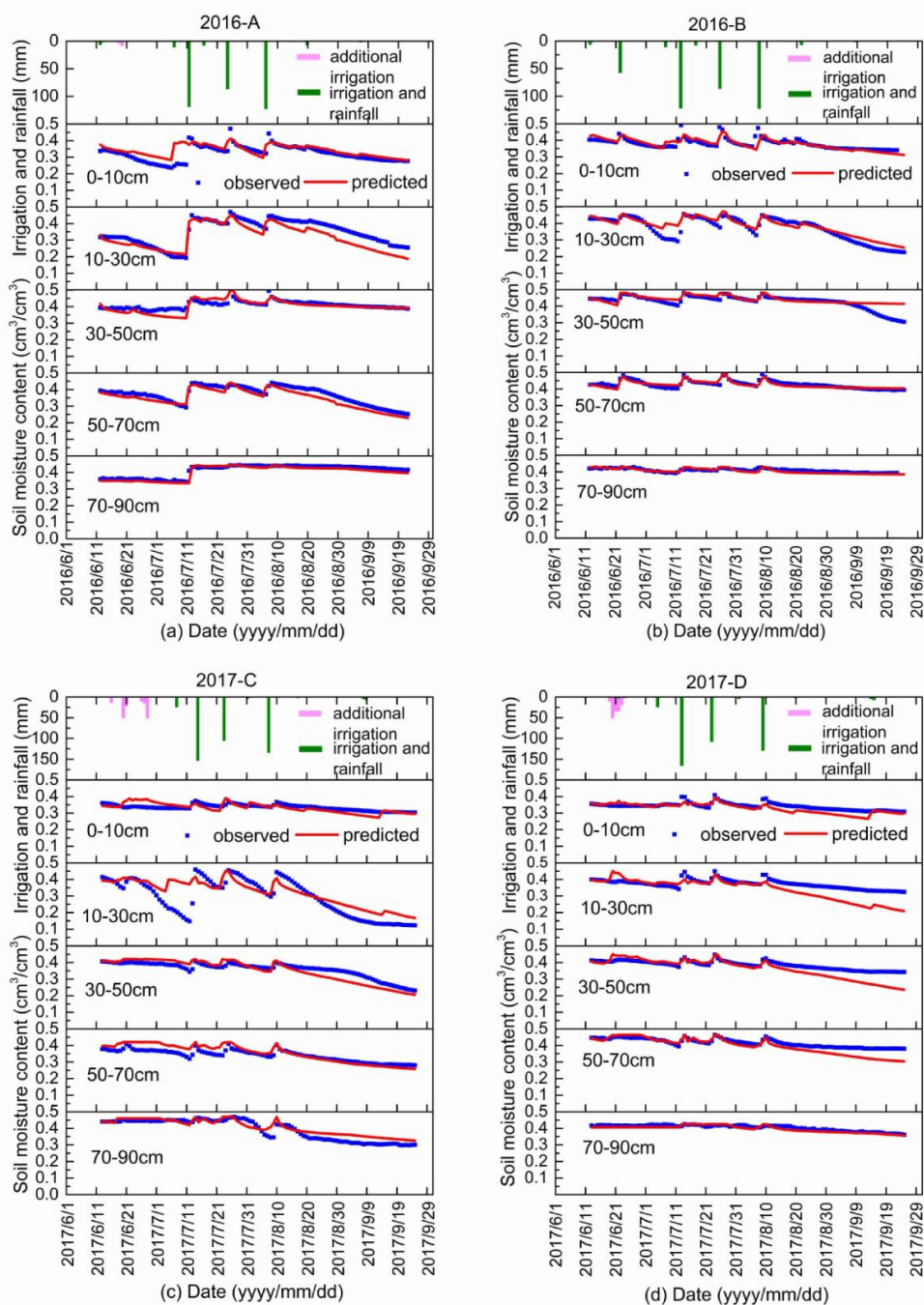
where N is the total number of observations, O_i and P_i are the i^{th} observed and predicted values ($i=1, 2, \dots, N$), and \bar{O} and \bar{P} are the mean observed values and mean predicted values, respectively. For *MRE* and *RMSE*, the values closest to 0 indicates good model predictions. For b and R^2 , the values closest to 1 indicates good model predictions.

3 Results

In this section, we present first the 2016 and 2017 experimental observations of the Fenzidi experimental fields in the Hetao irrigation district (Fig.1). This is followed by the calibration and validation of the Shallow Aquifer-Vadose Zone Model of moisture content in each of the five layers and the groundwater table depth.

3.1 Results of the field experiment

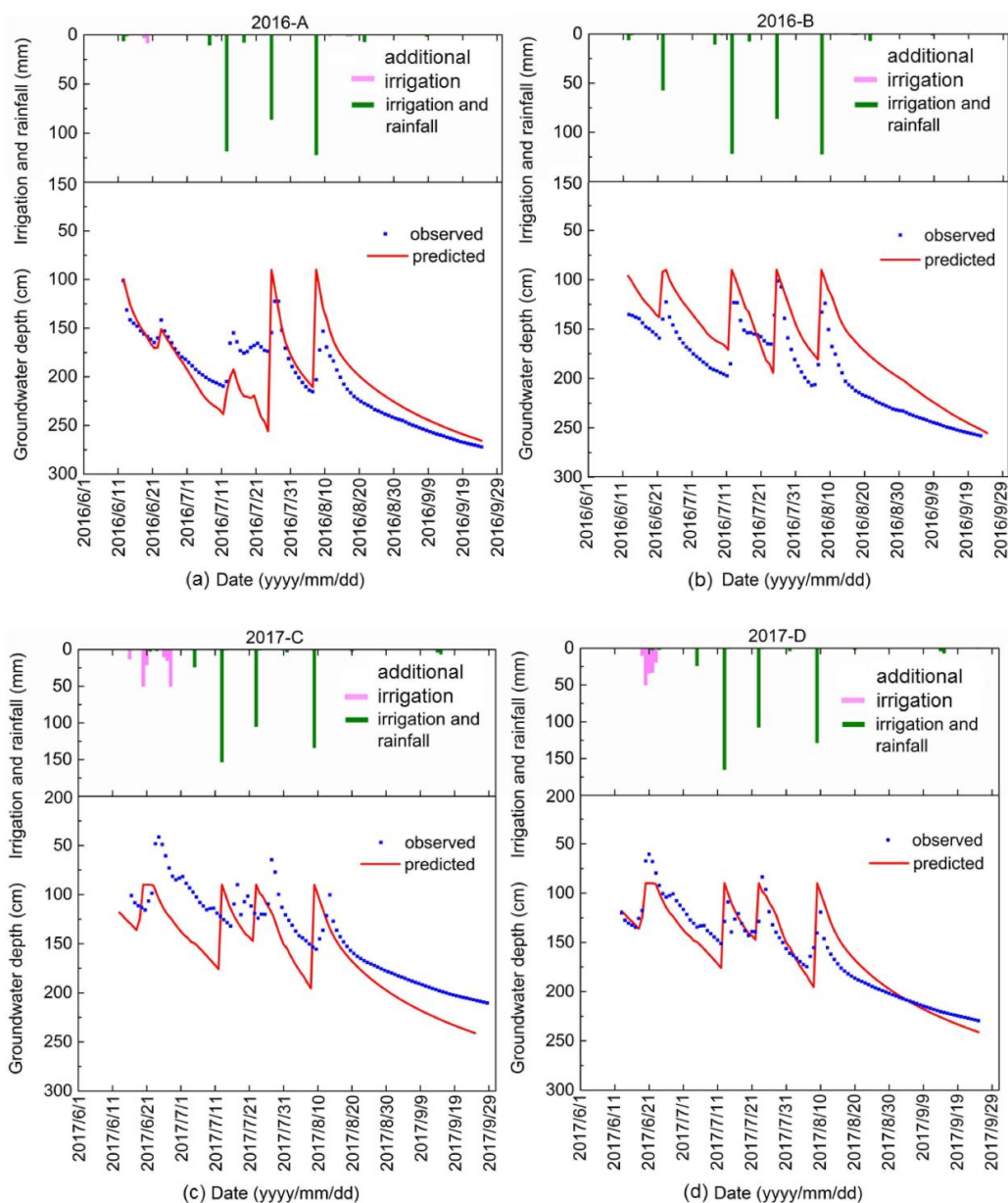
The total precipitation at the experimental field during growing season was 62 mm in 2016 and 67 mm in 2017. The maximum daily rainfall was 23 mm in July 2017 (Fig. 2). The reference evapotranspiration varied between 1 mm/day to 5.5 mm/day and the total ET_0 was 517 mm and 442 mm in the growing seasons during 2016 and 2017, respectively (Fig.2). Daily observation consisted of soil moisture content at five soil depths up to 90 cm (blue spheres, Fig.4) and groundwater depth (blue spheres, Fig.5) for Fields A and B in 2016 and Fields C and D in 2017.



316

317 Figure. 4 Simulated and observed soil moisture content for five soil depths during the growing period for the Fenzidi

318 experimental fields in the Hetao irrigation district: (a, b) calibration in 2016 and (c, d) validation in 2017.



319

320 Figure.5 Simulated and observed groundwater depth during the growing period for the Fenzidi experimental fields
 321 in the Hetao irrigation district: (a,b) calibration in 2016 and (c,d) validation in 2017. (Notes: Additional irrigation
 322 means the irrigation recharge from the adjacent field which leads to the water table rise and was not planned).

323 **3.1.1 Groundwater observations**



324 In 2016, the groundwater depth was generally more than 100 cm except during the last two irrigation events on
325 Field B when it reached a depth of 72 cm for one or two days (Fig. 5). In 2017, groundwater tables were slightly
326 closer to the surface than in 2016, especially in Field D. The minimum groundwater depth was 61 cm on June 21,
327 2017 in Field D after an irrigation event.

328 In general, groundwater rose during an irrigation event and then decreased slowly due to upward movement of
329 water to the plant roots to meet the transpiration demand. However, in the beginning of the growing season, we can
330 see that the water table increased without an irrigation event. This occurred on Field A on June 24, 2016 and Fields
331 C and D on June 20, 2017 (Fig. 5). This is curious and could be due to water originating from irrigation in a nearby
332 field.

333 The water table at the end of the period of observation on September 25, 2016 is approximately 2 m deep,
334 while on June 15, 2017, the depth decreased to around 125 cm. This is due to an irrigation application after the crops
335 were harvested to leach the salt from the surface to deeper in the profile bringing the water table up to near the
336 surface. Evaporation during the winter is small but sufficient to bring the water table down. There was also a rainfall
337 event on June 5, 2017 of 13 mm (Fig. 2) before the water table was measured, increasing the water level.

338 3.1.2 Soil Moisture

339 Moisture contents are shown for the five layers and the two fields for 2016 and 2017 in Fig. 4. The moisture
340 contents were near saturation when irrigation water was added and subsequently decreased (Fig. 4). For example,
341 the soil moisture content changed in the 0-10 cm layer from $0.26 \text{ cm}^3/\text{cm}^3$ to $0.42 \text{ cm}^3/\text{cm}^3$ after the irrigation on
342 July 13, 2016 in Field A and then gradually decreased to $0.34 \text{ cm}^3/\text{cm}^3$. The moisture content decreased faster in the
343 10-30 cm depth than at any other depth for Fields A, B and C but not for Field D. The moisture content in Field A
344 also showed a decrease at the 50-70 cm depth. For all plots, the moisture content at the 70-90 cm depth stayed nearly
345 constant and only decreased at the growing season when the water table decreased below the 150 cm depth (Fig. 5).
346 In Field A, the initial moisture content when the observation started was less than saturation and then after the first
347 irrigation, remained close to the saturated moisture content.

348 It is interesting that while the soil profile was saturated (Fig. 4), the groundwater table was between 75-100 cm
349 (Fig. 5). Before equilibrium moisture content was reached the water table was likely near the surface during the
350 irrigation event. Because the drainable porosity was extremely small, even a minimum amount of evaporation or



351 drainage would cause the water table to decrease to roughly the height of the capillary fringe equal to the bubble
352 pressure, φ_b , in Eq. 5.

353 3.1.3 Soil characteristic curve

354 In 2016 and 2017, the observed reduced moisture contents were plotted versus the height above the water table
355 for the five soil layers of the two field sites in Fig. 6. These plots were used to define the soil characteristic curves
356 which were of critical importance in simulating the moisture contents.

357 To define the soil characteristic curve, the Brooks-Corey equation (Eq. 1) was fitted through the points
358 closest to saturation at each matric potential representing the equilibrium conditions after an irrigation event. The
359 fitted parameter values are shown in Table 5. Points to the left of the soil characteristic curve are a result of
360 evaporation drying out the soil when the upward movement of water was insufficient to replenish the moisture
361 content in these layers and thus matric potential and ground water depth were not in equilibrium. In addition, the few
362 points to the right indicate the soil moisture was greater than the equilibrium moisture content. Many of the outlier
363 soil moisture contents occurred in the layer from 0-10 cm indicating that the soil was still draining after a rainfall
364 event shortly before the measurements. Thus, the soil was not at the equilibrium moisture content.

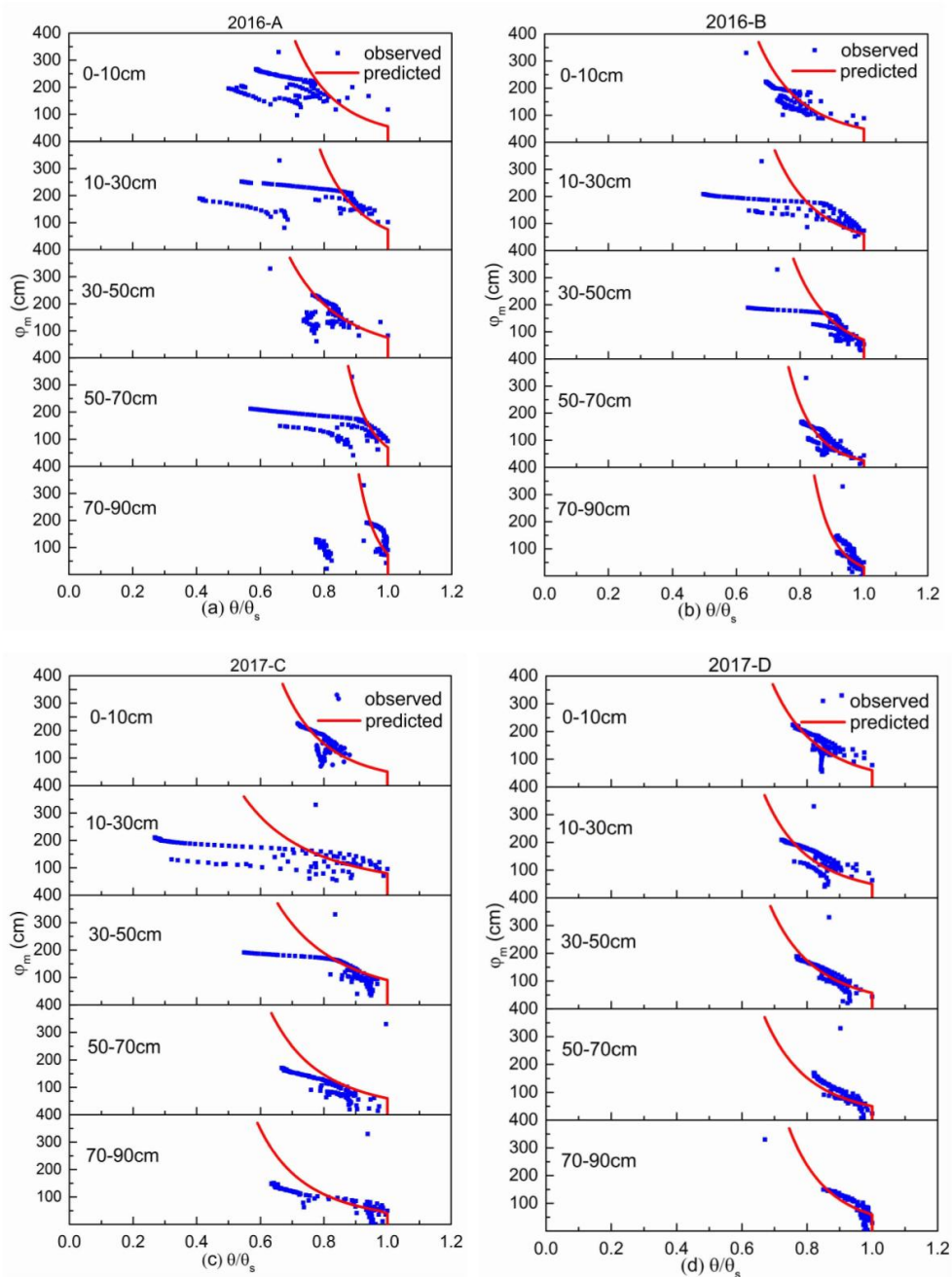
365 The saturated moisture contents in Table 5 agree in general with the one measured in Table 1 but are not exact.
366 This is not a surprise as the alluvial soil deposited by the rivers with layers vary over short distances. The variation
367 within the field was also obvious from the soil's physical measurements. Fields C and D are within Field B. The
368 soil's physical properties of the various layers (Table 4) were not the same for the three sites, clearly showing the
369 variability within the field.

370 Generally, large values of pore size index coefficient λ are for sandy soils and lower values are for clay soils
371 (Bahmani and Bayram, 2018). We find this to be true for our site: for example, in Field A, the $\lambda=0.23$ corresponds to
372 a sandy layer with only 8% clay in the 30-50 cm layer (Tables 4 and 5). In the 70-90 cm layer of Field B, the $\lambda=0.07$
373 corresponds with the clay layer of 23% clay. In addition, bubbling pressure, φ_b , are greater for soils with a large
374 clay content (Bahmani and Bayram, 2018). This is demonstrated for Field A in the 10-30 cm layer where the
375 bubbling pressure of 75 cm corresponded with the clay layer of 20% clay. However, the correspondence between
376 Tables 4 and 5 is not always perfect. This is especially obvious for the layer of 70-90 cm in Field A where the values
377 in Table 5 clearly indicates that the soil has a dense clay layer; however, the soil description in Table 4 shows that



378 the soil is 39% sand. This is due to the alluvial deposition patterns with changes in soil texture over short distances

379 as mentioned before.



380



381 Figure.6 Soil characteristic curve of the four experiment fields for the Fenzidi experimental fields. The red line is the
 382 fit with the Brooks and Corey equation.

383 Table 5

384 *Fitted Brooks and Corey parameters for the soil characteristic curve*

Soil depth	Lamda(λ)				bubbling pressure (φ_b)cm				saturated moisture content (cm^3/cm^3)			
	Field	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D	A	B	C
0-10	0.18	0.2	0.2	0.2	55	50	50	60	0.47	0.49	0.42	0.41
10-30	0.15	0.18	0.17	0.2	75	60	70	50	0.47	0.48	0.46	0.45
30-50	0.23	0.15	0.25	0.2	75	70	50	57	0.51	0.48	0.47	0.45
50-70	0.08	0.1	0.25	0.2	70	25	30	50	0.44	0.49	0.48	0.46
70-90	0.06	0.07	0.3	0.16	75	33	45	59	0.44	0.43	0.47	0.42

385 3.2 Modeling results

386 Relatively few parameters can be calibrated in the Shallow Aquifer-Vadose Zone Model. These are the crop
 387 coefficients K_c value, the two groundwater parameters and the root function.

388 3.2.1 Calibration of the parameters related to moisture content

389 The first step in the calibration was to fit the K_c value from the water balance. From the moisture contents and
 390 the groundwater depth, we can calculate approximately the amount of water lost to evaporation. By comparing these
 391 values to the reference evaporation calculated with the Penman-Monteith equation, we found that initially during the
 392 early stages the crop coefficient was 0.3 until the filling stage and then increased to 0.7 during the filling stage to
 393 maturing stage (Table 6). These values are in accordance with the findings of (Katerji et al., 2003) that salinity
 394 reduces the evaporation. Moreover, according to FAO (1998), K_c values for early growth stages are 0.3 and $K_c=0.7$
 395 for soils with median salinity (Allen et al., 1998).

396 The second step was calibrating the moisture content by adapting the root function indicating from what layers
 397 the water was taken up. Calibration was done manually by trial and error. We found that we could use the same root
 398 function for Fields A, B, C, and D (Table 6). The calibrated soil moisture contents of the five soil layers for the two
 399 fields are in general in agreement with the measured values in 2016 (Fig 4a, b) with coefficient of determination R^2
 400 ranging between 0.48 to 0.94 with slopes of around one; the mean relative error (MRE) between -0.09 and 0.07 and
 401 the root mean square error ($RMSE$) varied from 0.01 to 0.04 cm^3/cm^3 for the five layers (Table 7-1). Finally, the



402 parameters behaved physically realistic as water was extracted from shallow layers when the groundwater was close

403 to the surface and from the deeper layers when the groundwater and the associated capillary fringe went down.

404 Table 6

405 *Calibrated parameter values of the Vadose Zone Shallow Aquifer model*

Items	Date	Calibrated value	
Crop parameter, K_c	June 13-July 14	0.3	
	July 15-September 25	0.7	
Root function, r_j	June 13-August 7	0.2	
	0-10cm	August 8-September 3	0.1
		September 4-October 1	0.1
	10-30cm	June 13-August 7	0.4
		August 8-September 3	0.4
		September 4-October 1	0.4
	30-50cm	June 13-August 7	0.3
		August 8-September 3	0.3
		September 4-October 1	0.3
	50-70cm	June 13-August 7	0.1
		August 8-September 3	0.2
		September 4-October 1	0.1
70-90cm	June 13-August 7	0	
	August 8-September 3	0	
	September 4-October 1	0.1	
a	Field A	80	
b		0.021	
a	Field B, C, D	110	
B		0.025	

406 3.2.2. Validation of the parameters related to moisture content

407 The moisture contents predicted by the Shallow Aquifer-Vadose Zone Model were validated with the 2017 data

408 on Fields C and D. Although the validation statistics of the five layers were slightly less good than for calibration in

409 Table 7, the overall fit was still good as shown in Fig. 4c, d. The determination coefficient varied between 0.39 and

410 0.90. The *MRE* varied between -0.09 and 0.19, and the mean *RMSE* range was from 0.01 to 0.07 cm^3/cm^3 for the

411 five soil layers (Table 7-2).



412 3.2.3 Calibration of the parameters related groundwater depth

413 The final step was to calibrate the groundwater table coefficients with the 2016 data for both fields. We found
 414 that for fields not in the same location (e.g., A, B) the subsurface was sufficiently different so that the same set of
 415 parameters could not be used (Table 6). The difference between the calibrated parameters for the two fields was
 416 small (Table 6). The measured and simulated groundwater depth were in good agreement with the chosen set of
 417 parameters (Fig. 5a, b) with coefficient of determination R^2 being 0.67 for Field A and 0.85 for Field B with most
 418 slopes of the regression line of around 1 (Table 7-1). Only from July 15 to July 25 did the observed water table on
 419 Field B decrease slower than the simulated water table. This is likely related to the drainable porosity of the soil that
 420 was not known below 90 cm for which the soil characteristic curve was not measured. Other statistics showed the
 421 good fit as well (Table 7-1) with the mean relative error (*MRE*) is 0 for Field A and 0.02 for Field B; the root mean
 422 square error (*RMSE*) is 27 cm for Field A and 18 cm for Field B; the regression coefficient *b* is 0.98 for Field A and
 423 1 for Field B.

424 Table 7-1

 425 *Model statistics for calibration of the Shallow Aquifer model in 2016 Mean relative error, MRE; root mean square*
 426 *error, RMSE; Regression slope; Coefficient of determination, R²; Regression coefficient, b.*

Calibration (2016)							
		Soil moisture content					Groundwater depth
		0-10cm	10-30cm	30-50cm	50-70cm	70-90cm	
A	MRE(%)	0.07	-0.09	-0.02	-0.06	-0.02	0.00
	RMSE	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.01	27
	Regression Slope	0.51	0.94	1.34	1.01	1.05	0.94
	R^2	0.49	0.84	0.72	0.92	0.94	0.67
	<i>b</i>	1.05	0.91	0.99	0.94	0.98	0.98
B	MRE(%)	-0.01	0.05	0.04	0.00	-0.01	0.02
	RMSE	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.01	0.01	18
	Regression Slope	0.93	0.72	0.37	0.76	1.14	0.82
	R^2	0.73	0.85	0.48	0.74	0.69	0.85
	<i>b</i>	0.99	1.03	1.03	0.99	0.99	1.0

427



428 3.2.4 Validation of the parameters related groundwater depth

429 Since Fields C and D are in the same location as Field B, we used the same set of groundwater parameters for
 430 the three fields (Table 6). The resulting fit between observed and predicted daily groundwater depths for Fields C
 431 and D in 2017 was better than for the calibration in 2016 (Fig. 5c, d) with R^2 values of 0.84 for Field C and 0.86 for
 432 Field D (Table 7-2). In both cases, the slope of the regression line was close to 1. The other statistics indicated a
 433 good fit as well (Table 7-2) with the mean relative error (*MRE*) being -0.05 for Field C and -0.02 for Field D; the
 434 root mean square error (*RMSE*) is 19 cm for Field C and 17 cm for Field D; the regression coefficient *b* is 0.94 and 1
 435 for Fields C and D, respectively. The general agreement between the measured and simulated groundwater depth
 436 suggests that the two parameters are adequate, and the model can be used as a tool to simulate the change of the
 437 groundwater depth.

438 Table 7-2

439 *Model statistics for validation of the Shallow Aquifer model in 2017- Mean relative error, MRE; root mean square*
 440 *error, RMSE; Regression slope; Coefficient of determination, R²; Regression coefficient, b.*

Validation (2017)							
		Soil moisture content					Groundwater depth
		0-10cm	10-30cm	30-50cm	50-70cm	70-90cm	
C	MRE(%)	-0.01	0.19	-0.03	0.04	0.05	-0.05
	RMSE	0.02	0.07	0.03	0.03	0.03	19
	Regression Slope	1.03	0.57	1.38	1.49	0.70	1.0
	R^2	0.39	0.65	0.87	0.88	0.88	0.84
	<i>b</i>	0.99	1.03	0.99	1.05	1.03	0.94
D	MRE(%)	-0.04	-0.09	-0.06	-0.05	-0.02	0.01
	RMSE	0.02	0.05	0.04	0.03	0.01	17
	Regression Slope	1.11	1.92	2.24	1.89	1.02	1.1
	R^2	0.62	0.68	0.90	0.90	0.83	0.86
	<i>b</i>	0.96	0.92	0.95	0.96	0.98	1.0

441



442 **4 Discussion**

443 In this manuscript, a novel model was developed for irrigation systems where the groundwater is close to the
444 surface. The model uses the soil characteristic curve to derive the drainable porosity and to predict the moisture
445 contents in the soil. It is based on a less often used definition of field capacity (or equilibrium moisture content as it
446 is called in this manuscript) based on the observation that the flow stops when the hydraulic gradient is zero. In other
447 words, the system is in equilibrium when the sum of the matric potential and the gravity potential is constant. Thus,
448 when we chose the groundwater level as the reference point for the gravity potential, the matric potential is equal to
449 the height above the groundwater. This is different from other application of Darcy's law where the groundwater is
450 below 3.3 m. In these cases, groundwater movement stops when the conductivity becomes negligible at 33 kPa or
451 3.3 m in head units.

452 In general, this model simulated the soil moisture content in each soil layer well, certainly when compared to
453 other models that attempted the soil moisture contents in the Yellow River basin such as North China Plain (Kendy
454 et al., 2003) and the Hetao Irrigation District by Gao et al (2017b). Our simulation results suggest that the reduction
455 factor of the potential evaporation for soil saline K_c and root function parameters, together with the information of
456 the soil characteristic curves, can be used to adequately predict the soil moisture content. To predict the groundwater
457 depth, two additional parameters are needed for the exponential function that defines the upward movement of
458 groundwater.

459 The simulations, together with the observed data, indicates that information about the soil is very important to
460 obtain the exact moisture content in the soil. However, generalized soil characteristic curves for each soil type can
461 be used in the simulation and will not result in great differences in water use by plants since percolation to deeper
462 layers was negligible and thus the only loss of water was by evaporation independent of the soil moisture content.

463 Finally, in the simulations we did not consider the influence of crop type and the influence of crop growth on
464 soil moisture and groundwater depth. It would be of interest to investigate in future work whether the simulations
465 would be improved by considering the dynamic crop characteristics during the growing season (Singh et al., 2018;
466 Talebizadeh et al., 2018). A mature crop model, such as the EPIC model (Williams et al., 1989) that needs relative
467 few parameters, will certainly help to predict the crop yield but might not change the water use predictions.



468 **5 Conclusions**

469 A novel vadose zone model for an irrigated area with a shallow aquifer was developed to simulate the
470 fluctuation of groundwater depth and soil moisture during the crop growth stage in the shallow groundwater district.
471 The model was calibrated and validated using two years of experimental field data. Using meteorological data and
472 few soil hydraulic parameters related to the soil characteristic curve and upward capillary movement, the soil water
473 content and groundwater can be simulated on daily time step. This model is simplified, so it can be used for
474 management purposes.

475 **Data availability:** The observed data used in this study are not publicly accessible. These data have been collected
476 by personnel the College of Water Resources and Civil Engineering, China Agricultural University, with fund from
477 various cooperative sources. If anyone would like to use these data, they should contact Zhongyi Liu, Xingwang
478 Wang and Zailin Huo to obtain permission.

479 **Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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