#### 22 Abstract

Optimum performance of irrigated crops in regions with shallow saline groundwater 23 24 requires a careful balance between application of irrigation water and upward movement of salinity from the groundwater. Few field validated surrogate models are 25 26 available to aid in the management of irrigation water under shallow groundwater 27 conditions. The objective of this research is to develop a model that can aid in the 28 management using a minimum of input data that is field validated. In this paper a 29 2-year field experiment was carried out in the Hetao irrigation district in Inner 30 Mongolia, China and a physically based integrated surrogate model for arid irrigated 31 areas with shallow groundwater was developed and validated with the collected field data. The integrated model that links crop growth with available water and salinity in 32 33 the vadose zone is called Evaluation of the Performance of Irrigated Crops and Soils (EPICS). EPICS recognizes that field capacity is reached when the matric potential is 34 35 equal to the height above the groundwater table and thus not by a limiting hydraulic 36 conductivity. In the field experiment, soil moisture contents and soil salt conductivity 37 at 5 depths in the top 100 cm, groundwater depth, crop height, and leaf area index were measured in 2017 and 2018. The field results were used for calibration and 38 39 validation of EPICS. Simulated and observed data fitted generally well during both 40 calibration and validation. The EPICS model that can predict crop growth, soil water, groundwater depth and soil salinity can aid in optimizing water management in 41 42 irrigation districts with shallow aquifers.

43 **Key words:** Surrogate hydrological model, irrigated crops, shallow aquifer

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In light of the many uses for the word performance, perhaps "optimum managaement of irrigated crops" would be more straightforward.

Nomenclature								
FT.		р	Fraction of readily avaiable soil water					
		relative to the total avaiable soil water						
$ET_P$	Potential evapotranspiration (mm)	S	Salt stress coefficient ()					
$E_p$	Potential evaporation (mm)	В	Crop specific parameter (%)					
Tp	Potential transpiration (mm)	ky	Factor that affects crop yeild					
F	Actual exportation (mm)	E <sub>Ce</sub>	Electrical conductivity of the soil saturation					
∟a	Actual evpolation filmin)	extract (mS cm-1)						
	Actual transpiration (mm)	$EC_{ethreshold}$	Threshold of the electrical conductivity of					
Ta		the soil saturation extract when the crop yield becomes						
		affected by salt (mS cm <sup>-1</sup> )						
		EC <sub>1:5</sub>	Electrical conductivity of the soil extract					
Kc	Crop coefficient()	that soil samples mixed with distilled water in a						
		proportion of 1:5 (mS cm <sup>-1</sup> )						
-	Development stage of the loof epopy()	θs	Soil mositure content at saturation (cm <sup>-3</sup>					
I	Development stage of the leaf canopy()	cm⁻³)						
r <sub>T</sub>	Root function for transpiration ()	φ <sub>b</sub>	Bubbling pressure (cm)					
r <sub>E</sub>	Root function for transpiration ()	φm	Matric potential (cm)					
j	Number of soil layer()	λ	Pore size distribution index					
LAI	Leaf area index()	h	Groundwater depth (cm)					
т	Mean daily temperature (°C)	z	Depth of the point below the soil surface					
I mean		(cm)						
-	Maximum daily temperature ( $^\circ\!\mathbb{C}$ )	Wfc(h)	Total water content at field capacity of the					
I mx		soil profile over a prescribed depth (cm)						
$T_{mn}$	Minimum daily temperature (°C)	L(j)	Height of layer j (cm)					
LAI <sub>mx</sub>	Maximum leaf area index	μ	Drainable porosity					
$RD_{mx}$	Maximum root depth (cm)	Р	Precipitation (mm)					
Κb	Dimensionless canopy extinction coefficient	I	Irrigation (mm)					
PHU	Total potential heat units required for crop	n	Number of coll layers					
matura	ation (°C)	11	Number of son layers					
$Z_{1j}$	Depth of the upper boundaries of soil layer j	Б	Percelation to groundwater (mm)					
(cm)		Кgw	Percolation to groundwater (mm)					
$Z_{2j}$	Depth of the lower boundaries of the soil layer	P (i_1 t)	Porcelation rate to layer i from layer i.1 at					
for $rE(j,t)$ ; root depth or the lower boundaries of the soil		$d_{W}(f^{-1},t)$						
layer for r <sub>T</sub> (j,t) (cm)								
δ	Water use distribution parameter	C(j,t)	Salt concentration of layer j at day t (g L <sup>-1</sup> )					
k <sub>E</sub>	Water stress coefficient for evaporation	Cı	Salt conctration of irrigation water (g L <sup>-1</sup> )					
$\mathbf{k}_{T}$	Water stress coefficient for transpiration	$C_{gw}$	Salt contration of groundwater (g L-1)					
θ	Soil moisture content (cm <sup>-3</sup> cm <sup>-3</sup> )	$U_{gw}$	Actual upward flux of groundwater (mm)					
$\theta_{fc}$	Soil moisture content at field capacity (cm <sup>-3</sup>	U <sub>gw,max</sub>	Maximun upward flux of groundwater					
cm⁻³)		(mm)						
θr	Soil moisture content at wilting point (cm <sup>-3</sup> cm- <sup>3</sup> )	а	Constant used for calcualtion of $U_{gw,max}$ ()					
<b>f</b> shape	Shape factor of kT curve ()	b	Constant used for calcualtion of Ugw,max()					

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#### 45 **1. Introduction**

Irrigation water is a scarce resource, especially in arid and semi-arid areas of the 46 world. Irrigation improves quality and quantity of food production; however, excess 47 irrigation and salinization remain one of the key challenges. Almost 20% of the 48 irrigated land in the world is affected by salinization and this percentage is still on the 49 rise (Li et al., 2014). Salinity affects agricultural production (Williams, 1999). Soil 50 51 salinization and water shortages, especially associated with surface irrigated 52 agriculture in arid to semi-arid areas, is a threat to the well-being of local communities in these areas (Dehaan and Taylor, 2002; Rengasamy, 2006). 53

In arid and semi-arid surface irrigation with flood irrigation and districts without a 54 drainage infrastructure, the groundwater table is close to the surface because more 55 water has been applied than crop evapotranspiration. Capillary rise of the shallow 56 57 groundwater can be used to supplement irrigation and thereby, in closed basins, can 58 possibly save water for irrigating additional areas downstream (Gao et al., 2015; Yeh 59 and Famiglietti, 2009; Luo and Sophocleous, 2010.). However, at the same time, capillary upward moving water carries salt from the groundwater increasing the salt in 60 the upper layers of the soil leading to soil degradation and possibly decreasing yields 61 and change of crop patterns to more salt tolerant crops (Guo et al., 2018; Huang et al., 62 2018). The leaching of salts with irrigation water is necessary and useful for irrigated 63 agriculture (Letey et al., 2011). In north China, the fields are commonly irrigated in the 64 autumn before soil freezing to leach salts and provide water for first growth after 65 deeding in the following year (Feng et al., 2005; Pereira et al., 2007). 66

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This is repetitive of the previous sentence.

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In my previous comments, I mentioned that it would help some readers if surface irrigation was distinguished from irrigation supplied from surface water sources (as opposed to groundwater sources). Although the authors have clarified that this research was conducted in flood irrigated fields, I think this is still pertinent in this introduction to differentiate the irrigation methods from the source water when using the term "surface irrigation". This is especially relevant here because saline groundwater complicate the management salinity, regardless of irrigation technique (flood/surface, sprinkler, sub, or drip).

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These integrated models require input data that are usually not available when applied over extended areas (Liu et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2016; Hu et al., 2019). The EPIC crop growth model is often preferred in integrated crop growth hydrology models because it requires relatively few input data and is accurate (Wang et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2019).

94 There is a tendency with the advancement of computer technology to include 95 more physical processes in these models (Asher et al., 2015; Doherty and Simmons, 2013; Leube et al., 2012). Detailed spatially input of soil hydrological properties and 96 crop growth are required to take advantage of the model complexity (Flint et al., 2002; 97 Rosa et al., 2012). This greater model complexity, both in space and time, requires 98 longer model run times, especially for the time-dependent models (Leube et al., 2012). 99 These models are useful for research purposes but for actual field applications, the 100 required input data are not available and expensive to obtain. In such cases, simpler 101 102 surrogate models are a good alternative (Blanning, 1975; Willcox and Peraire, 2002; 103 Regis and Shoemaker, 2005). Surrogate models run faster and are as accurate as 104 the complex models for a specific problem (shallow groundwater here) but not as versatile as the more complex models that can be applied over a wide range of 105 conditions (Asher et al., 2015). 106

Simple surrogate models are abundant in China for areas where the groundwater
is deeper than approximately 10 m (Kendy et al., 2003; Chen et al., 2010; Ma et al.,
2013; Li et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2016), but are limited and relatively scarce for areas
where the groundwater is near the surface in the arid to semi-arid areas (Xue et al.,

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133 model less useful for practical application.

134 Because of the shortcomings in the above complex models, we avoided the use of a constant drainable porosity and considered the crop growth and thus improved 135 the surrogate model in our last study (Liu et al., 2019). The objective of this research 136 was to develop a field validated surrogate model that could be used to simulate the 137 138 water and salt movement and crop growth in irrigated areas with shallow groundwater 139 and salinized soil with a minimum of input parameters. To validate the surrogate 140 model, we performed a 2-year field experiment in the Hetao irrigation district that investigated the change in soil salinity, moisture content, groundwater depth and 141 142 maize and sunflower growth during the growing season.

In the following section we present first the theoretical background of the surrogate model. The model consists of crop growth module and a vadose zone module. This is followed by detailed description of the two-year field experiments staring in 2017 in the Hetao irrigation district where maize and sunflower were irrigated by flooding the field. The experimental results consisting of climate data, irrigation application, crop growth parameters, moisture and salt content and groundwater depth are used to calibrate and validate the model.

- 150 **2. Model description**
- 151 2.1 Introduction of the model

In a recent study, we presented a surrogate model for the vadose zone with shallow groundwater using the novel concept that the moisture content at field capacity is a unique function of the groundwater depth after irrigation or precipitation that wets up

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the entire soil profile. The model, called the Shallow Vadose Groundwater model, applies directly to surface irrigated districts where the groundwater is within 3.3 m from the soil surface (Liu et al. 2019). The model was a proof of concept with calibrated values for evapotranspiration and soil salinity and was not simulated.

To make the Shallow Vadose Groundwater model more physically realistic, we added a crop growth model and included the effect of salinity and moisture content on evaporation and transpiration directly in this study. The new model that combines parts of the Environmental Policy Integrated Climate 2(EPIC) with Shallow Vadose Groundwater model is called the *Evaluation of the Performance of Irrigated Crops and Soils* (EPICS).

165 2.2 Structure of the EPICS model

In the EPICS model, the soil profile is divided into five layers of 20 cm (from the soil
 surface down) and a sixth layer that stretches from the 100 cm depth to the water
 table below (Fig. 1).



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This acronym is applied inconsistently throughout the text. See lines 219-220. Since your model acronym (EPICS) is very similar, I suggest that you ensure that this is correct and consistent to help the reader keep it all straight.

upward flux is less than the actual evapotranspiration.

Finally, the link between the VADOSE and the CROP modules is achieved by calculating the actual evapotranspiration with parameters of both modules consisting of the moisture content and the salt content simulated in the VADOSE module and root distribution and potential evapotranspiration in the CROP module (Fig. 2).

204 2.3 Theoretical background of the EPICS model

205 In the next section, the equations of the CROP in the VADOSE modules are presented. The calculations are carried out sequentially on a daily time step. This 206 model predicts field daily soil water, salt content and crop growth, which are critical 207 208 parameters for irrigation water management. For field and regional water management and irrigation policy development, resolution of daily time step is 209 210 sufficient. Finer resolution is not needed for managing water and salt content for 211 irrigation. In the first step, the actual evaporation and transpiration are calculated for 212 each layer in the model. Next, the moisture content and salt content are adjusted for the various fluxes. Since the equations for the downward movement on days of 213 214 rainfall and/or irrigation are different than for upward movement from the groundwater 215 on the remaining days, we present upward and downward movement in separate sections. The code was written in Matlab 2014Ra and Microsoft Excel was used for 216 217 data input and output.

218 2.3.1 CROP module

The crop module uses functions of EPIC (Erosion Productivity Impact Calculator,

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This acronym is defined inconsistently here and above. This is the correct attribution from Williams et al., 1989. See line 162.

$$k_T(j,t) = 1 - \frac{\exp\left[\left(1 - \frac{\theta(j,t) - \theta_r(j)}{(1-p)\left[\theta_{fc}(j) - \theta_r(j)\right]}\right) f_{shape}\right] - 1}{\exp(f_{shape}) - 1} \quad \theta \le \theta_{fc} \quad (5a)$$

$$k_T(j,t) = 1 \qquad \qquad \theta > \theta_{fc} \quad (5b)$$

where  $f_{shape}$  is the shape factor of  $k_T(j,t)$  curve, p is the fraction of readily available soil water relative to the total available soil water. Finally, the salt stress coefficient S(j,t) for each layer in Eq 3b can be calculated as (Allen et al., 1998; Xue et al., 2018):

$$S(j,t) = 1 - \frac{B}{100 k_{\gamma}} (EC_e(j,t) - EC_{ethreshold})$$
(6)

where  $k_y$  is the factor that affects the yield,  $EC_e$  is the electrical conductivity of the soil saturation extract (mS cm<sup>-1</sup>),  $EC_{ethreshold}$  is the calibrated threshold of the electrical conductivity of the soil saturation extract when the crop yield becomes affected by salt (mS cm<sup>-1</sup>), and *B* is the calibrated crop specific parameter that describes the decrease rate of crop yield when  $EC_e$  increases per unit below the threshold. The electrical conductivity of the soil saturation extract can be calculated as (Rhoades et al., 1989):

$$EC_e = 1.33 + 5.88 \times EC_{1:5} \tag{7}$$

where  $EC_{1:5}$  is the electrical conductivity of the soil extract that soil samples mixed with distilled water in a proportion of 1:5.

270 2.3.2 VADOSE Module

For modeling the daily soil moisture content and groundwater depth, first we need 1 calculate the soil moisture content at field capacity and the drainable porosity based on the soil moisture characteristic curve. Besides, considering the water and salt

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274 movement is different when there have irrigation and/or precipitation, we simulate the

275 daily soil moisture content and salt with downward flux or upward flux.

276 2.3.2.1 Parameters based on soil moisture characteristic curve for modeling

277 Moisture content at field capacity

Field capacity with a shallow groundwater is different than in soils with deep 278 groundwater where water stops moving when the hydraulic conductivity becomes 279 limiting at -33 kPa. When the groundwater is shallow, the hydraulic conductivity is not 280 281 limiting and the water stops moving when the hydraulic potential is constant and thus the matric potential is equal to the height above the water table (Gardner 1958; 282 Gardner et al., 1970a, b; Steenhuis et al. 1988; Liu et al., 2019). Assuming a unique 283 relationship between moisture content at field capacity and matric potential (i.e. soil 284 285 characteristic curve), the moisture content at field capacity at any point above the water table is a unique function of the water table depth. Thus, any water added 286 above field capacity will drain downward. When the groundwater is recharged, the 287 water table will rise and increase the moisture contents at field capacity throughout 288 289 the profile.

The moisture contents at field capacity were found by Liu et al. (2019) using the simplified Brooks and Corey soil characteristic curve (Brooks and Corey, 1964)

$$\theta = \theta_s \left[ \frac{\varphi_m}{\varphi_b} \right]^{-\lambda} \quad for \ |\varphi_m| > |\varphi_b| \tag{8a}$$

$$\theta = \theta_s \qquad for \ |\varphi_m| \le |\varphi_b| \qquad (8b)$$

in which  $\theta$  is the soil moisture content (cm<sup>3</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>),  $\theta_s$  is the saturated moisture

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Lines 271-275: Both of these sentences have multiple grammatical errors, and should be reviewed to ensure that the authors' intented meaning is correctly stated.

The drainable porosity is a crucial parameter in modelling the groundwater depth and soil moisture content. According to the soil water characteristic curve at field capacity, the drainable porosity can be expressed as a function of the depth. The drainable porosity is obtained by calculating the field capacity,  $W_{fc}(h)$  (cm) for each layer at all groundwater depths. The total water content at field capacity of the soil profile over a prescribed depth with a water table at depth *h* can be expressed as:

$$W_{fc}(h) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} [L(j) \ \theta_{fc}(j,h)]$$
(10)

where  $\theta_{fc}(j,h)$  is the average moisture content at field capacity of layer j that can be found by integrating Eq. 8 from the upper to the lower boundary of the layer and dividing by the length L(j) which is the height of layer *j*. The matric potential at the boundary is equal to the height above the water table. The drainable porosity,  $\mu(h)$ , which is a function of the groundwater depth *h*, can simply be found as the difference in water content when the water table is lowered over a distance of  $2\Delta h$ .

$$\mu(h) = \frac{W_{fc}(h + \Delta h) - W_{fc}(h - \Delta h)}{2\Delta h}$$
(11)

324 where  $\Delta h = 0.5L(j)$  (cm).

2.3.2.2 Downward flux (at times of irrigation and/or precipitation) and model output At this situation, the model can simulate the daily soil moisture content of different layer, the percolation from the upper layer to the next layer, the recharge to the groundwater, the soil salt concentration of different layer and the salt concentration of groundwater and the groundwater depth.

330 **Water** 

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This sentence has multiple grammatical errors.

2018),  $C_{gw}(t)$  is the soluble salt concentration of groundwater at day t (g L<sup>-1</sup>).

#### 368 2.3.2.3 Upward flux and model output

For the upward flux period, the downward water flux to groundwater is zero. The 369 370 evapotranspiration leads to the decrease of soil moisture content in the vadose zone 371 and lowers the groundwater table due to the upward movement of groundwater to crop root zone and soil surface. The soil moisture content is calculated by taking the 372 373 difference of equilibrium moisture content associated with the change of groundwater depth. At this situation, the model can output the daily soil moisture content of 374 different layer, the upward groundwater flux, the groundwater depth, the soil salt 375 376 concentration of different layer and the salt concentration of groundwater.

#### 377 Water

The groundwater upward flux,  $U_{gw}(h, t)$ , is limited by either the maximum upward flux of groundwater,  $U_{gw,max}(h)$ , or the actual evapotranspiration, formally stated as:

$$U_{gw}(h,t) = min\left[ [E_a(t) + T_a(t)], U_{gw,max}(h) \right]$$
(20)

$$E_{a}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} E_{a}(j,t)$$
(21)

$$T_{a}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} T_{a}(j,t)$$
(22)

where  $U_{gw,max}(h)$  is the actual upward flux from groundwater (mm),  $E_a(t)$  is the actual evaporation at day t (mm),  $T_a(t)$  is the actual transpiration at day t (mm),  $E_a(j,t)$  is the actual evaporation at day t of layer j (mm) and  $T_a(j,t)$  is the actual transpiration at day t of layer j(mm).

The maximum upward flux can be expressed as (Liu et al., 2019; Gardner et al.,

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As in the section above, please fix grammatical errors in this sentence.

the moisture content is updated with the difference between the two fluxes,  $U_{gw,max}(h)$  and  $[E_a(t) + T_a(t)]$ , according to a predetermined distribution extraction of water out of the root zone

$$\theta(j,t) = \theta(j,t-\Delta t) + \theta_{fc}(j,h(t)) - \theta_{fc}(j,h(t-\Delta t)) - \frac{r(j)[E_a(t) + T_a(t) - U_{gw,max}(h)]}{L(j)}$$
(27)

The upward flux of water can be found by summing the differences in moisture content above the layer *j* similar to Eq 14, but starting the summation at the groundwater.

408 Salinity

The salt from groundwater is added to the soil layers according to the root function.

410 The soil salinity concentration in layer *j* at day *t* can be expressed as

$$C(j,t) = \frac{\theta(j,t - \Delta t) C(j,t - \Delta t) L(j) + r(j,t) U_g(h,t) C_{gw}(t)}{\theta(j,t - \Delta t) L(j) + (\theta_{fc}(j,h(t)) - \theta_{fc}(j,h(t - \Delta t)) L(j) - r(j,t) (E_a(t) + T_a(t) - U_{gw,max}(h))} (28)$$

Since water is extracted from the reservoir that has the same concentration as in the reservoir, the concentration will not change, hence the equation used to estimate the groundwater salt concentration can be expressed as

414

$$C_{gw}(t) = C_{gw}(t - \Delta t) \tag{29}$$

#### 415 **3. Data collection**

#### 416 3.1 Study area

Field experiments were conducted in 2017 and 2018 in Shahaoqu experimental station in Jiefangzha sub-district, Heato irrigation district in Inner Mongolia, China (Fig. 3). Irrigation water originates from the Yellow River 1 the area has an arid continental climate. Mean annual precipitation is 155 mm a<sup>-1</sup> of which 70% falls from June to September. Pan evaporation is 2000 mm a<sup>-1</sup> (Xu et al., 2010). The mean annual

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Does salinity of this source water change seasonally?

437	planted with gourds and were therefore not monitored in 2018. Fields B and C were
438	seeded with sunflower in both 2017 and 2018. The sunflower was planted on June 1,
439	2017 and June 5, 2018. Harvest was on September 15 in both years. The fields were
440	irrigated by flooding the field $r_{r}$ anging from two to five times during the growing season
441	(Table 1). A well was installed in each experimental field to monitor the groundwater
442	depth.

	443	Table 1 Irrigation scheduling for the Shahaoqu experimental fields in 2017 and 2018
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Field	Year	Irrigation events	Date	Irrigation depth (mm)
	2017	1	5/30	100
А		2	6/25	162
(maize)		3	7/14	275
		4	8/6	199
	2017	1	6/26	140
		2	7/23	121
- -		1	6/20	134
D (cunflowor)		2	6/24	60
(Sumower)	2018	3	7/15	114
		4	7/22	40
		5	8/31	130
	2017	1	6/19	80
С		2	6/30	80
(sunflower)	2018	1	6/20	140
		2	7/14	100
	2017	1	6/13	150
D		2	6/26	94
D (maiza)		3	7/6	50
(maize)		4	7/14	174
		5	8/6	120

Daily meteorological data, including air temperature, precipitation, relative humidity, wind speed, and sunshine duration, originated from the weather station at the Shahaoqu experimental station. The soil moisture content for the four 

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Was the salinity of the irrigation source water measured? Was the actual salinity of the irrigation water used in the mass balance (equation 18 of the model)?

557 60-80 cm depth (Table 2, Fig.5). Only after the last irrigation and during harvest of the 558 crop did the moisture content in the top 0-40 cm for maize and 0-60 cm for sunflower 559 decrease below the moisture content at -33kPa. During the growing season, the 560 variation of moisture content was greater in the top 60 cm with the majority of the 561 roots than in the lower depths where, after the first irrigation, it remained nearly 562 constant close to saturation.



563

Fig. 5 1Observed (blue dots) and simulated soil moisture content of the Shahaoqu experimental fields during model calibration (a,b,c) and validation (d,e,f)

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As noted in the previous revision, it is difficult to distinguish between the blue dot markers that are in the legend from those that represent data. In five of these panels above (Figure 5), the legend lies within the data range. Possibly it would be better to use only one legend for all six panels and have it located outside the domain of the data. The same probelm is observable in figure 6.

812 numerically with an implicit backward scheme and is combined by Xu et al. (2015) 813 with the EPIC model. The accuracy of our simulation results, despite the difference in complexity, are very similar. The moisture contents were simulated slightly better with 814 EPICS, the groundwater depth was nearly the same, and the LAI values were 815 predicted more accurately in the SWAP-EPIC model. Xue et al. (2015) did not 816 817 simulate the salt content of the soil. Compared to less data and computational 818 intensive models that are applied in the Yellow River, the soil moisture content were 819 simulated more accurately by EPICS than in the North China Plain with 30 m deep groundwater by surrogate models of Kendy et al. (2003) and Yang et al. (2015 a,b) 820 and in the Hetao irrigation district by Gao et al. (2017b) and Xue et al. (2018) during 821 822 the crop growth period.

To obtain more accurate results in the future 1 the upward capillary flux from groundwater needs to be improved. In addition, the evapotranspiration measured independently, using Eddy covariance (Zhang et al., 2012; Armstrong et al., 2008) and Bowen ratio-energy balance method (Zhang et al., 2007) should be further used to test performance of the model in the future study.

The limitation of the EPICS model is it can only be applied in areas where groundwater is generally less than 3.3 m deep. When the groundwater is deeper than 3.3 m, the field capacity of the surface soil is determined by the moisture content when the hydraulic conductivity becomes limiting and not by the depth of the groundwater.

833 Overall, the present model has the advantage that it greatly simplifies the

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Although dilution of salinity during irrigation events seems evident in the observed data, I would still recommend adding that future refinement of the model would be served by measuring the salinity of irrigation source water. This would be more important if this model was implemented for irrigation that depends on groundwater sources, especially hydrologically closed basins.