# Improvement of the KarstMod modeling platform for a better assessment of karst groundwater resources

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## 15 Abstract

16 Hydrological models are fundamental tools for the characterization and management of karst systems. 17 We propose an updated version of KarstMod, software dedicated to lumped parameter rainfall-discharge 18 modeling of karst aquifers. KarstMod provides a modular, user-friendly modeling environment for 19 educational, research, and operational purposes. It also includes numerical tools for time series analysis, 20 model evaluation, and sensitivity analysis. The modularity of the platform facilitates common operations 21 related to lumped parameter rainfall-discharge modeling, such as (i) setup and parameter estimation of 22 a relevant model structure, and (ii) evaluation of internal consistency, parameter sensitivity, and 23 hydrograph characteristics. The updated version now includes (i) external routines to better consider the 24 input data and their related uncertainties, i.e. evapotranspiration and solid precipitation, (ii) enlargement 25 of multi-objective calibration possibilities, allowing more flexibility in terms of objective functions as 26 well as observation type and (iii) additional tools for model performance evaluation including further 27 performance criteria and tools for model errors representation.

## 28 1 Introduction

29 Karst aquifers constitute an essential source of drinking water for about 9.2% of the world population

- 30 (Stevanović, 2019) and it is estimated that one-quarter of the world population depends on freshwater
- from karst aquifers (Ford and Williams, 2013). Karst aquifers contain an important volume of freshwater

32 while only 1% of its annually renewable water is used for drinking water supply (Stevanović, 2019). 33 Understanding the functioning of karst aquifers and developing operational tools to predict the evolution 34 of freshwater resources is therefore a major challenge for the hydrological science community (Blöschl 35 et al., 2019). To this day, the number of tools dedicated to karst hydrogeology is limited and is mostly 36 developed for academic purposes and not user-friendly. Nonetheless, such tools are required for a better 37 assessment of groundwater vulnerability as well as sustainable management of the groundwater 38 resources (Elshall et al., 2020) and should be handled by the stakeholders without programming skills 39 requirements.

KarstMod is an adjustable modeling platform (Mazzilli et al., 2019) dedicated to lumped parameter 40 41 rainfall-discharge modeling allowing for (i) simulation of spring discharge, piezometric head and 42 surface water discharge (Bailly-Comte et al., 2010; Cousquer and Jourde, 2022; Sophocleous, 2002), 43 (ii) analysis of the internal fluxes considered in the model, (iii) model performance evaluation and 44 parametric sensitivity analysis. In this paper, we present the new features incorporated in KarstMod: (i) 45 external routines to better consider the input data and their related uncertainties, i.e. evapotranspiration 46 and solid precipitation, (ii) enlargement of multi-objective calibration possibilities, allowing more 47 flexibility in terms of objective functions as well as observation type with the possibility to include 48 surface water discharge in the calibration procedure and (iii) model performance evaluation, including 49 additional performance criteria as well as additional tools for model errors representation such as the 50 diagnostic efficiency plot (Schwemmle et al., 2021). Also, we present two case studies to illustrate how 51 KarstMod is useful in the framework of the assessment of karst groundwater resources and its sensitivity 52 to groundwater abstraction. Section 2 is devoted to the presentation of the background and motivations 53 to improve the functionalities of the platform while Sect. 3 presents the key features of KarstMod. 54 Section 4 illustrates the application of rainfall-discharge modeling using KarstMod within the Touvre 55 (western France) and the Lez (southern France) karst systems, which both constitute strategic freshwater 56 resources and ensure drinking water supply.

# 57 2 Background and motivations

# 58 2.1 Challenges in karst groundwater resources

59 Karst aquifers are affected by the combination of different components of global change such as (i) 60 effects of climate change which are particularly pronounced in the Mediterranean area (Dubois et al., 61 2020; Nerantzaki and Nikolaidis, 2020), (ii) increasing groundwater abstraction (Labat et al., 2022), as 62 well as (iii) changes in land cover land use (Bittner et al., 2018; Sarrazin et al., 2018). Therefore, the 63 assessment of karst groundwater resources sensitivity, in terms of quantity, requires operational tools 64 for estimating the sustainable yield of karst aquifers but also to predict the impacts of climatic or 65 anthropogenic forcing on groundwater resources in the long term (Sivelle et al., 2021). To address these 66 issues, different modeling approaches have been developed (Jeannin et al., 2021) such as, among others, 67 fully-distributed models (Chen and Goldscheider, 2014), semi-distributed models (Doummar et al.,

68 2012; Dubois et al., 2020; Ollivier et al., 2020), and lumped parameter models (Mazzilli et al., 2019)

69 including semi-distributed recharge (Bittner et al., 2018; Sivelle et al., 2022b). Among these, lumped

parameter models are recognized as major tools to explore the ability of conceptual representations to

- rexplain observations in karst systems (Duran et al., 2020; Frank et al., 2021; Poulain et al., 2018; Sivelle
- et al., 2019) and for managing karst groundwater resources (Cousquer and Jourde, 2022; Labat et al.,
- 73 2022; Sivelle et al., 2021; Sivelle and Jourde, 2020).

# 74 2.2 Challenges in lumped parameters modeling in karst hydrology

75 Lumped parameter models consist of a functional approach that analyzes a hydrogeological system at 76 the catchment scale and describes the transformation from rainfall into discharge using empirical or 77 conceptual relationships. Therefore, parameter values or distributions cannot be determined directly 78 from catchment physical characteristics or in-situ measurements, except the discharge coefficient to the 79 spring that can be estimated based on recession curve analysis. Instead, model parameter values must 80 be estimated by history-matching. In a general way, rainfall-discharge models in karst hydrology are 81 calibrated considering spring discharge measurements. Former studies have shown in interest in 82 considering hydrochemical observations (Chang et al., 2021; Hartmann et al., 2013; Sivelle et al., 2022a) 83 but such an approach requires further methodological development before being included in KarstMod. 84 To date, KarstMod allows considering complementary observations only with piezometric head and 85 surface water discharge (Cousquer and Jourde, 2022).

86 Another challenge concerns the evaluation of the water fluxes within the soil-vegetation-atmosphere 87 continuum. Bittner et al. (2021) computed several models to evaluate the fluxes related to interception, 88 evapotranspiration, and snow process. The results show significant uncertainties related to input data as 89 well as potential compensation between the various uncertain processes. In some cases, snow melt is a 90 controlling factor in the water balance (Doummar et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2021), thus a suitable snowmelt 91 estimation is required to improve hydrological model performance (Call1 et al., 2022). Therefore, two 92 meteorological modules have been added to KarstMod: (i) a "Snow routine" and (ii) a routine to compute the potential evapotranspiration *PET* (mm day<sup>-1</sup>), denoted "PET routine". The two additional modules 93 94 allow us to better account for snow and evapotranspiration processes.

# 95 **3 Implementation**

The updated version of KarstMod implements additional features to enhance the rainfall-discharge modeling practices. First, we describe the additional modules (snow and PET routines) for a better meteorological forcing estimation. Then, we introduce the additional tools proposed for (i) the setup and calibration of the model structure, (ii) model performance evaluation as well as (iii) uncertainties

100 consideration. Fig. 1 shows a screenshot of the KarstMod software.



graphs.

# 101 **3.1 Meteorological modules**

#### 102 **3.1.1 Snow routine**

103 KarstMod allows using either observation-based precipitation time series P (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) or estimated 104 precipitation time series  $P_{sr}$  (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) using a snow routine. The latter is similar to the one used by 105 Chen et al. (2018) – without the radiation components – which has been successfully used for improving 106 the simulation of karst spring discharge in snow-covered karst systems (Chen et al., 2018; Cinkus et al., 107 2023a). It consists of a modified HBV-snow routine (Bergström, 1992) for simulating snow 108 accumulation and melt over different sub-catchments based on altitude ranges. Each sub-catchment is 109 defined by two values that the user must input: (i) the proportion among the whole catchment (sum must be equal to 1) and (ii) the temperature shift, related to the altitude gradient. The different estimated 110 precipitation  $P_{sr}^*$  (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) associated with the subcatchments are calculated and summed to produce 111 the estimated precipitation time series  $P_{sr}$ , which corresponds to a single variable representative of the 112 catchment.  $P_{sr}$  thus gives the water leaving the snow routine and is equivalent to the recharge into the 113 114 first compartment of the model (compartment E in KarstMod). The snow routine workflow requires 115 both air temperature T (°C) and precipitation P (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) time series. P is considered as snow when T in the sub-catchment is lower than the temperature threshold  $T_s$  (°C). Snow melts when the temperature 116 exceeds the threshold according to a degree-day expression. The snow melt is a function of the melt 117 coefficient MF (mm °C<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>), and the degrees above the temperature threshold. Runoff starts when 118 119 the water level exceeds the liquid water holding capacity of snow CWH (-). The refreezing coefficient 120 *CFR* (-) stands for refreezing liquid water in the snow when snow melt is interrupted (Bergström, 1992). 121 The output of the snow routine consists of a redistributed precipitation time series  $P_{sr}$ . The four 122 parameters of the snow routine (i.e.,  $T_s$ , *MF*, *CWH*, and *CFR*) can be considered in the parameter 123 estimation procedure as well as sensitivity analysis. The snow routine features can be activated from the 124 model structure area (Fig. 1 a). Fig. 2 shows the general workflow implemented in the snow routine.  $P_{sr}^*$ 125 is estimated for each time step t based on the precipitation *P* and air temperature *T* time series for each 126 sub-catchment *i*. The total snow routine output  $P_{sr}$  is calculated as a weighted sum of  $P_{sr}^*$  time series:

$$P_{sr} = \sum_{i}^{N} P_{sr_i}^* \times p_i$$
 Eq. 1

127 where  $p_i$  is the proportion of the sub-catchment *i* regarding the complete catchment area such as  $\sum p_i =$ 

128 1, and N is total number of sub-catchments. The snow routine allows estimating  $P_{sr}^*$  according to the





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# Algorithm A1 Estimating $P_{sr}^*$ in sub-catchment

With  $P_{sr}^*$  = water leaving the routine/recharge to the soil (mm day<sup>-1</sup>),  $T_a$  = active temperature for snowmelt (°C),  $T_n$  = active temperature for refreezing (°C), m = snow melt (mm day<sup>-1</sup>), rfz = refreezing (mm day<sup>-1</sup>), v = solid component of snowpack depth (mm), vl = liquid component of snowpack depth (mm), and dt = temporal resolution.

#### for t in time do :

$$m[t] = \min(MF \times T_a [t], v[t]) \text{ with } T_a [t] = T[t] - T_s$$
  

$$rfz[t] = \min(CFR \times MF \times T_n [t], vl[t]) \text{ with } T_n [t] = T_s - T[t]$$
  

$$v[t+dt] = v[t] - m[t] + snow[t] + rfz[t]$$
  

$$if vl[t+dt] > CWH \times v[t+dt] \text{ then}$$

 $P_{sr}^{*} [t] = vl[t+dt] - CWH \times v[t+dt]$  $vl[t+dt] = CWH \times v[t+dt]$ else $P_{sr}^{*} [t] = 0$ end

# 131 **3.1.2 Potential Evapotranspiration routine**

An additional module allows to compute the potential evapotranspiration *PET* (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) based on the 132 133 Oudin's formula (Oudin et al., 2005). The PET routine can be activated from the model structure area 134 (Fig. 1 a). The PET routine affects only compartment E. The latter stands for soil and epikarst storage 135 zone, where the water is available for actual evapotranspiration AET (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) and flows toward 136 infiltration or surface discharge. Infiltration occurs when the water level in the compartment is greater 137 than a given threshold Emin, otherwise, the compartment is considered under-saturated and does not 138 produce infiltration. In this case, the water in compartment E is still available for evapotranspiration. 139 KarstMod allows us to consider evapotranspiration in four separate ways (Fig. 3):

140(a) The water transfer in the soil-atmosphere continuum can be pre-processed by the user. In this case,141the given precipitation time series consists of the effective precipitation  $P_{eff}$  (mm day<sup>-1</sup>), derived142from precipitation P (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) and actual evapotranspiration AET (mm day<sup>-1</sup>) with Eq. 2. The143evapotranspiration flux is not activated in the model structure selection panel in KarstMod (Fig. 1144a).

$$P_{eff} = P - AET$$

Eq. 2

(b) User-defined *PET* can be given as input in KarstMod for the evapotranspiration time series. Using
Emin, the user can simulate water holding capacity and non-linear behavior of karst recharge.

(c) User-defined *AET* can be given as input data in KarstMod for evapotranspiration time series instead
of *PET*. Then, KarstMod computes an estimation of effective precipitation by limiting the
evapotranspiration to water content available in compartment E. The simulated *AET* can then be
lower than the user defined *AET*. Such configuration may help identifying potential inaccuracy of
user defined *AET* for the modeling purpose but is not recommended for model set-up and parameter
estimation.

153 (d) The new feature in KarstMod consists of the PET routine which estimates the *PET* with the Oudin's

154 formula (Oudin et al., 2005) (Eq. 3). It needs a *T* time series and two parameters to be estimated,

155 which can be considered in the parameter estimation procedure as well as sensitivity analysis.

$$PET = \left(\frac{R_e}{\lambda \times \rho}\right) \times \left(\frac{T + K2}{K1}\right) \text{ if } T + K2 > 0 \text{ else } PET = 0$$
Eq. 3

where  $R_e$  is the extraterrestrial radiation (MJ m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>) depending only on the latitude and the Julian day,  $\lambda$  is the latent heat flux (taken equal to 2.45 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup>),  $\rho$  is the density of water (taken equal to 1000 kg m<sup>-3</sup>) and *T* is the mean daily air temperature (°C). *K*1 (°C) and *K*2 (°C) are constants to adjust over the catchment for rainfall-discharge model (Oudin et al., 2005). In KarstMod, both *K*1 and *K*2 can be considered in the parameter estimation procedure as well as sensitivity analysis.



Fig. 3 The four ways to account for evapotranspiration in KarstMod. The user can provide either (a) a self-computed effective precipitation (P - AET) as a single input time series, (b) both P and PET time series, (c) both P and AET and (d) both P and T time series.

#### 161 **3.2** Set-up and calibration of the model structure

162 The modular structure proposed in KarstMod is based on a widely used conceptual model which 163 separates karst aquifers into an infiltration zone and a saturated zone, or low and quick flows through 164 the unsaturated and saturated zones (Fleury et al., 2007, 2009; Guinot et al., 2015; Mazzilli et al., 2019; Sivelle et al., 2019). Based on this conceptual representation, the platform offers four compartments 165 organized as a two-level structure: (i) compartment E (higher level) and (ii) compartments L, M and C 166 167 (lower level). A priori, the higher level represents the infiltration zone or the soil and epikarst. At the 168 lower level, compartments L, M, and C stand for the different sub-systems of the saturated zone or low 169 and quick flows of the whole hydro system. The various model structures and their governing equations 170 are presented in Mazzilli et al. (2022; 2019). Also, KarstMod allows to performance of hydrological 171 modeling on both daily and hourly temporal resolutions (Sivelle et al., 2019).

- 172 The user can activate (or deactivate) the various compartments (E, L, M, and C) within the "model 173 structure" panel (Fig. 1 a). The solid and faded colors represent the activated and the inactivated features, 174 respectively. The fluxes and their activation thresholds as well as the exponent of the discharge law  $\alpha$ 175 (in case of non-linear discharge law such  $\alpha \neq 1$ ) are managed from the "model parameters" panel (Fig. 176 1 c). The user can account for pumping  $Q_{pump}$  (water coming out of the compartment) as well as sinking 177 stream  $Q_{sink}$  (water coming into the compartment). Such an option is available only if the user provides
- 178 the required time series (Fig. 1 b).

179 The user must provide warm-up, calibration, and validation periods (Fig. 1 d). The warm-up period must 180 be set to be independent of initial conditions to avoid bias in the parameter estimation procedure 181 (Mazzilli et al., 2012). Then, a calibration period (i.e. the period in which the parameters are estimated 182 to reduce the predictive errors) and a validation period (i.e. period separated from the calibration period) 183 can be defined to run the split sample test procedure (Klemeš, 1986). For calibration purpose, KarstMod 184 proposes several widely used performance criteria  $\phi$ : the Pearson's correlation coefficient  $R_p$ (Freedman et al., 2007), the Spearman rank correlation coefficient  $R_s$  (Freedman et al., 2007), the Nash-185 Sutcliffe Efficiency NSE (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970), the volumetric error VE (Criss and Winston, 2008), 186 187 the modified balance error BE (Perrin et al., 2001), the Kling-Gupta Efficiency KGE (Gupta et al., 2009) and a non-parametric variant of the Kling-Gupta Efficiency KGENP (Pool et al., 2018). To compute a 188 189 multi-objective calibration procedure the user can create his objective function  $\Phi$  as a weighted sum of 190 several objective functions:

$$\Phi = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \omega_i \times \phi_i(U)$$
 Eq. 4

where  $\omega_i$  is the weight affected to the objective function  $\phi_i(U)$  with  $\sum_{i=1}^N \omega_i = 1$  and U a general 191 notation for the observations used for parameter estimation purposes. In the KarstMod modeling 192 193 platform, U corresponds to either spring discharge  $Q_s$ , piezometric head measurements  $Z_{obs}$  (available for compartments E, L, M, and C), or surface water discharge  $Q_{loss}$  from compartment E. Also, the 194 195 objective function  $\phi$  can be computed on transformed U to avoid high water level bias on quadratic error. The following transformations are available in KarstMod: 1/U,  $\sqrt{U}$ ,  $1/\sqrt{U}$ . Therefore, the user 196 can use any combination of the objective function  $\phi$ , observations U, and variable transformations. 197 198 Depending on the modeling purpose, the user must refer to the literature to define the suitable objective 199 function (Bennett et al., 2013; Ferreira et al., 2020; Hauduc et al., 2015; Jackson et al., 2019).

The model is calibrated using a quasi-Monte-Carlo sampling procedure with a Sobol sequence sampling of the parameter space (Sobol, 1998). The procedure involves finding an ensemble of parameter sets providing an objective function  $\Phi$  greater than the user-defined value. The calibration procedure stopped when either the user-defined maximum duration of the sampling procedure  $t_{max}$  is reached or the user-defined number of parameter sets  $n_{obj}$  are collected. KarstMod offers a "run" option allowing the model to run for a user-defined parameter set, without calibration procedure, and so allows it to investigate "by-hand" the parameter space and the sensitivity of the model to specific parameters.

#### 207 **3.3 Model evaluation**

The model performance can be evaluated for both the calibration and validation periods. It allows (i) to ensure the robustness of model predictions, even under changing conditions (which is a key point for the assessment of climate change impact) and (ii) to avoid model over-fitting within a specific range of hydro-climatic conditions observed during the calibration period. KarstMod allows the computation of the above-mentioned performance criteria for both calibration and validation periods. Even though the notation "validation" is disputable such a procedure is required to evaluate both explanatory and predictive dimensions of the model structure (Andréassian, 2023). Then, KarstMod offers an ensemble of numerical tools devoted to (i) checking the model consistency, i.e. explanatory dimension of the model (Beven, 2001; Shmueli, 2010), (ii) evaluating the model performance, i.e. predictive dimension of the model structure.

To check the model consistency, the simulation based on the parameter set that provides the highest objective function value can be analyzed through an ensemble of graphs such as (i) internal and external fluxes as a function of time, (ii) cumulative volumes for both observed and simulated time series for spring discharge  $Q_s$  and surface water discharge  $Q_{loss}$ , (iii) simulated mass-balance as a function of time, (iv) comparison of observations and simulations for either  $Q_s$  or  $Q_{loss}$  with probability function plots, auto-correlogram of the spring discharge time series, cross-correlogram of precipitation-discharge time series.

To evaluate the model performance, KarstMod offers a "Model evaluation" panel available from the graphs panel (Fig. 1 g) that includes several sub-panels, from the left to the right:

- 227 The diagnostic efficiency DE (Schwemmle et al., 2021) which consists of a diagnostic polar plot 228 that facilitates the model evaluation process as well as the comparison of multiple simulations. The 229 DE accounts for constant, dynamics, and timing errors, and their relative contribution to the model 230 errors. Also, the decomposition of the errors between the periods of high flows and low flows allows 231 us to better investigate the model bias, as well as to provide critical evaluation for impact studies, 232 particularly for the assessment of climate change impacts. Indeed, the accurate evaluation of low flow periods (in terms of frequency, intensity, and duration) becomes increasingly crucial for 233 234 groundwater resource variability assessment.
- The available objective functions  $\Phi$  are presented as a radar chart which consists of a polygon where the position of each point from the center gives the value of the performance criteria. The closer the point is to the outside of the radar chart, the better the model performs. The radar chart is made for both calibration and validation periods and each of the calibration variables considered in the modeling ( $Q_s$ ,  $Z_{obsA}$  with A for either E, M, C or L compartments and  $Q_{loss}$ ).
- The KGE (Gupta et al., 2009) consists of a diagonal decomposition of the NSE (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970) to separate Pearson's correlation coefficient  $R_p$ , representation of bias  $\beta_{KGE}$ , and variability  $\alpha_{KGE}$ . Thus, the *KGE* is comparable to multi-objective criteria for calibration purposes (Pechlivanidis et al., 2013). The sub-panel offers (i) a bi-plot of the three *KGE*'s components and (ii) a radar plot visualization of the *KGE*'s components, allowing the identify potential counterbalancing errors according to these different components (Cinkus et al., 2023b). The two

246 above-mentioned plots also include the decomposition of the *KGENP* (Pool et al., 2018) in terms of 247 Spearman's rank correlation coefficient  $R_s$ , representation of bias  $\beta_{KGENP}$  and non-parametric 248 variability  $\alpha_{KGENP}$ .

## 249 **3.4 Dealing with uncertainties**

250 Moges et al. (2021) summarize the various sources of uncertainties in hydrological models including 251 structural and parametric uncertainties as well as uncertainties related to input data and observations. 252 The latter concerns both the input (i.e., precipitation and evapotranspiration) and the output (i.e., 253 discharge) of the modeled systems. Many references are devoted to the uncertainties related to input 254 data and observations. As an example, Westerberg et al. (2020) include information about the discharge 255 uncertainty distribution in the objective function and perform better discharge simulation. Also, the 256 precipitation error can be dependent on the data time step (McMillan et al., 2011) and could impact the 257 hydrological model performance (Ficchì et al., 2016). Lumped parameter hydrological models consider 258 meteorological time series representative of a whole catchment, which may require some pre-processing, 259 particularly for snow processes since it can have a strong influence on flow dynamics. Thus, KarstMod 260 includes variables related to both the snow routine (i.e., the redistributed precipitation time series  $P_{sr}$ ) and the PET routine (i.e., estimated potential evapotranspiration PET) in the parameter estimation 261 262 procedure. This allows us to investigate the sensitivity of the flow simulation to these input data when 263 using snow and PET routines. Nonetheless, KarstMod does not include features to investigate the impact 264 of observation uncertainties on parameter estimation.

265 As with many environmental problems, parameter estimation in rainfall-discharge modeling consists 266 generally of ill-posed problems, i.e. the modeling encounters issues about the unicity, identifiability, and 267 stability of the problem solution (Ebel and Loague, 2006). As a consequence, several representations of 268 the modeled catchment may be considered equally acceptable (Beven, 2006). Knoben et al. (2020) evaluate the performance of 36 daily lumped parameter models over 559 catchments and show that 269 270 between 1 and up to 28 models can show performance close to the model structure with the highest 271 performance criteria. Such results are widely covered in catchment hydrology (Dakhlaoui and Djebbi, 272 2021; Darbandsari and Coulibaly, 2020; Gupta and Govindaraju, 2019; Pandi et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 273 2021) but still poorly investigated in karst hydrology. Indeed, the structural uncertainty impacts on 274 rainfall-discharge modeling in karst hydrology is not properly evaluated whereas many studies consider 275 several hydrological model structures to include structural uncertainty in flow simulation (Hartmann et 276 al., 2012; Jiang et al., 2007; Jones et al., 2006; Sivelle et al., 2021). KarstMod includes more than fifty 277 combinations of the various compartments as well as various compartments model (i.e., compartment 278 with linear or non-linear discharge law and compartment with infinite characteristic time) and allows a 279 quick implementation of the various model structures. The user can easily manage to start the modeling 280 with one single compartment and gradually move to a more complex model structure with up to four compartments, five fluxes connected to the spring, four internal fluxes, and 1 flux running out of thesystem.

Considering each model structure, parametric equifinality can be investigated using (i) dotty plots of the values of the objective function against the parameter values, (ii) dotty plots of the values of the performance criteria used to define the aggregated objective function, and (iii) the variance-based, firstorder  $S_i$  and total  $ST_i$  sensitivity indexes for the model parameters. Details concerning the computation of sensitivity indexes within KarstMod are given in Mazzilli et al. (2022; 2019).

#### 288 **4** Examples of application

To illustrate the KarstMod application and the use of the above-presented functionalities for the assessment of karst groundwater resources, we propose two case studies: (i) the Touvre karst system and (ii) the Lez karst system. Both karst systems consist of strategic freshwater resources for drinking water supply (DWS), for the city of Angouleme (western France) and Montpellier (southern France) respectively.

## **4.1** The Touvre karst system (La Rochefoucauld)

295 The Touvre is a karst system where the infiltration consists of (i) a delayed infiltration of effective 296 precipitation on the karstic recharge area and (ii) a direct infiltration of surface water from the Tardoire, 297 Bandiat, and Bonnieure rivers. The latter are surface streams flowing on metamorphic rocks that partly 298 infiltrate to subterranean at the contact with carbonate formations, mainly composed of Middle to Upper 299 Jurassic limestones. The springs of the Touvre, located 7 km east of Angoulême (western France), counts 300 four outlets, namely the Bouillant, the Dormant, the Font de Lussac, and the Lèche (Labat et al., 2022). 301 In the following, the Touvre Spring discharge designates the accumulated discharge of the four 302 mentioned outlets.

303 The Touvre karst system constitutes a strategic freshwater resource for the DWS of Angoulême, with 304 around 110,000 inhabitants, but also contributes to the water supply for industry and agriculture. In 305 2015, there were eighty-four pumping wells over the karstic impluvium of the Touvre karst system, and 306 around one hundred more in the Tardoire, Bandiat, and Bonnieure rivers catchment. Based on the data 307 provided by the Adour-Garonne Water Agency, the annual groundwater abstraction for agriculture 308 represents 4.6 Mm<sup>3</sup> whereas annual groundwater abstraction for DWS represents 1.1 Mm<sup>3</sup> over the 309 karstic impluvium of the Touvre karst system. On the three rivers catchment (out of the karstic 310 impluvium), the annual groundwater abstraction represents 2.5 Mm<sup>3</sup> for agriculture and 3.3 Mm<sup>3</sup> for 311 DWS, through river intakes or alluvial groundwater abstraction. The total annual volume of abstracted 312 groundwater in the area represents around 5 % of the annual volume of transit at the Touvre Spring. 313 This is quite low compared with karst aquifers in France exploited for their groundwater resources, such 314 as the Lez spring (Jourde et al., 2014) and the Oeillal's spring karst catchment (Sivelle et al., 2021), 315 where the annual groundwater abstraction volume represents respectively 50 % and 15 % of the annual

- 316 volume of transit at the spring. Therefore, the Touvre karst system seems not to be over-exploited at the 317 moment, but the impact of groundwater abstraction should be addressed in the context of global change
- 318 to ensure sustainable management of this strategic freshwater resource.
- The area is characterized by an ocean-influenced climate with a mean annual precipitation of around 800 mm year<sup>-1</sup> distributed over an average of 255 rainy days. The estimation is performed with Thiessen polygon methods based on eleven meteorological stations over the area (Labat et al., 2022). The mean annual potential evapotranspiration is around 770 mm year<sup>-1</sup> according to the Penman-Monteith estimation provided by the French meteorological survey (Météo-France). The Touvre daily spring discharge shows a significant variability ranging from 3 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> to 49 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> with a coefficient of variation around 0.46 (Fig. 5 b).
- 326 The surface stream flow rates for the Bonnieure, Bandiat, and Tardoire rivers are concentrated within
- the autumn and winter periods. During the summer period, the discharge in the three rivers is very low
  (Fig. 5 c). The more significant groundwater abstraction is performed during the summer period, while
- 329 the Touvre spring discharge reaches its lowest values within the late summer and early autumn periods
- and routie spring discharge reaches its rottest tardes thank the face summer and early addamic periods
- 330 (Fig. 5, c and d).
- 331 Fig. 4 shows the model structure for the Touvre karst system that consists of three compartments 332 organized in two levels (Labat et al., 2022). The upper level corresponds to reservoir E and represents both the unsaturated part of the system and a temporary aquifer. This reservoir relates to the two 333 334 reservoirs of the lower level: C (Conduit) and M (Matrix) representative of quick and slow flow 335 dynamics, respectively. The upper level of the model structure is affected by P and ET while the lower 336 level of the model structure is affected by (i) groundwater abstraction and (ii) sinking river streamflow 337 from the surface to underground. Fig. 4 shows the various time series required for the hydrological 338 modeling of the Touvre karst system. The methodology for daily time series preparation given in Labat 339 et al. (2022) allows us to account for the influence of groundwater abstraction on the transmissive or 340 capacitive part of the karst aquifer as well as the influence of concentrated and diffuse infiltration of the 341 surface river streamflow.



Fig. 4 Screenshot of KarstMod with a focus on the panel "Model structure" for the Touvre karst system. The solid lines correspond to the activated fluxes whereas the faded color lines are not activated.  $Q_{p.}^{M}$  and  $Q_{p.}^{C}$  stand for groundwater abstraction that affects compartments M and C respectively while  $Q_{s.}^{M}$  and  $Q_{s.}^{C}$ . stand for sinking flow that affects compartments M and C, respectively.

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Fig. 5 Daily time series for the Touvre system: a) precipitation (P) and potential evapotranspiration (PET), b) observed and simulated karst spring discharge ( $Q_{Touvre}$  obs and  $Q_{Touvre}$  sim), c)

observed river streamflow discharge ( $Q_{Bonnieur}$ ,  $Q_{Bandiat}$ ,  $Q_{Tardoire}$ ), d) and e) groundwater abstraction discharge ( $Q_{p.}^{aggriculture}$ ,  $Q_{p.}^{domestic}$ ).

343 The objective of the hydrological modeling is to assess the impact of groundwater abstraction on spring 344 discharge, more particularly during low flow periods (Labat et al., 2022). So, the calibration is performed according to the KGENP that improves the simulations during mean and low-flow conditions using the 345 Spearman rank correlation due to its insensitivity to extreme values (Pool et al., 2018). The sampling 346 347 procedure is set up to find  $n_{obi} = 5000$  simulations with *KGENP* greater than 0.9. Afterwards, the model 348 is evaluated using the various features proposed in KarstMod (Fig. 6). The diagnostic efficiency plot 349 (Fig. 6 a) testifies of several elements: (i) the model seems to slightly overestimate high flow and 350 underestimate low flow, (ii) the timing error is about 0.9, testifying of suitable flow dynamics in the 351 model, (iii) low flow periods contribute more to the model errors, and (iv) there is no offset in the 352 simulated spring hydrograph. The radar chart (Fig. 6 b) shows a good equilibrium between the various 353 objective functions whose values are greater than 0.8, except for the NSE criteria (NSE = 0.75). It is the 354 consequence of the design of these criteria that tends to outweigh the errors during floods. Here the NSE value is still greater than 0.7 and testifies to a "very good" fit according to Moriasi et al. (2007). Finally, 355 the decomposition of the KGE (Fig. 6 c and d) shows  $R_n = 0.91$ ,  $\alpha = 1.15$  and  $\beta = 1.02$  testifying of 356 357 accurate dynamics and low bias, but slightly too high variability.



Fig. 6 Screenshot of KarstMod with a focus on the sub-panel "Model evaluation". Application for the model evaluation on the Touvre system: (a) diagnostic efficiency plot (Schwemmle et al., 2021), (b) radar chart of the objective functions, (c) bi-plot of the KGE's (square) and KGENP's (triangle) components, and (d) radar chart of the KGE's components.

# 358 4.2 The Lez Spring

The Lez Spring (southern France) consists of the main outlet of a karst system encompassed in the North Montpellieran Garrigue hydrogeological unit delimited to the west by the Herault River, and to the north and east by the Vidourle River. The geology in the area corresponds to the Upper Jurassic layers separated by the Corconne-Matelle fault (oriented N30°), leading to two main compartments in the aquifer (Bérard, 1983; Clauzon et al., 2020). The karst aquifer is unconfined in the western compartment and is locally confined in the eastern compartment. The Lez Spring is located about 15 km north of Montpellier. It is of Vauclusian-type with an overflow level at 65 m a.s.l and a maximum daily discharge

of approximately 15 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. The area is characterized by a typical Mediterranean climate with dry 366 367 summers and rainy autumns. Over the 2009-2019 period, the mean annual precipitation is around 900 368 mm year-1 distributed over an average of 133 rainy days (estimation with Thiessen polygon methods 369 based on four meteorological stations over the area: Prades-le-Lez, Saint-Martin-de-Londres, 370 Sauteyrargues, and Valflaunès), a mean annual potential evapotranspiration is around 900 mm year<sup>-1</sup> 371 according to the estimation based on Oudin's formula with the temperature measured at Prades le Lez 372 station while the real annual evapotranspiration is around 450 mm year<sup>-1</sup> (eddy covariance flux-station 373 of Puéchabon).

374 Since 1854, the Lez Spring supplies the drinking water to Montpellier city and the surroundings. It 375 currently constitutes the main freshwater resource for around 350,000 people in the area. The present 376 water management scheme allows pumping at higher rates than the natural spring discharge during low flow periods, while supplying a minimum discharge rate (around 0.23 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) into the Lez River to ensure 377 378 ecological flow downstream, and reducing flood hazards via rainfall storage in autumn (Avias, 1995; 379 Jourde et al., 2014). The pumping plant was built in 1982 with four deep wells drilled to intercept the 380 karst conduit feeding the spring, 48 m below the overflow level of the spring. Pumping in these wells allows up to 0.18 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> to be withdrawn under low flow periods (with an authorized maximum 381 drawdown of 30 m), while the average annual pumping flow rate is about 0.10 m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (over the 2008-382 383 2019 period). Due to the pumping management of the aquifer, which supplies about 30 to 35  $Mm^3$  of 384 water per year to the metropolitan area of Montpellier, the discharge at the Lez Spring is often low or 385 nil. Discharge is also measured downstream (Lavalette gauging station) where the measured discharge corresponds to the Lez Spring discharge and the main tributaries (Lirou and Terrieu streams) which flow 386 387 essentially after intense Mediterranean rainfall events. As suggested in Cousquer and Jourde (2022), the 388 surface water discharge, denoted  $Q_{loss}$ , can be estimated as the difference between the total discharge in Lavalette and the Lez spring discharge. 389

390 In the present context of global change, Mediterranean karst systems already show significant decrease 391 in spring discharge (Doummar et al., 2018; Dubois et al., 2020; Fiorillo et al., 2021; Hartmann et al., 392 2012; Nerantzaki and Nikolaidis, 2020; Smiatek et al., 2013) which could be aggravated with 393 groundwater abstraction (Sivelle et al., 2021). The Lez spring is strongly exposed to global change 394 impact: (i) the Mediterranean area is identified as a climate change hot-spot (Diffenbaugh and Giorgi, 395 2012) where the projected warming spans 1.8-8.4°C according to CMIP6 and 1.2-6.6°C according to 396 CMIP5 during the summer period (Cos et al., 2022), and (ii) the water management scheme will have 397 to adapt to the future need in drinking water for the growing population in the area as well as changes 398 in the freshwater consumption practice (e.g. water use restriction order). Therefore, a sustainable water 399 management plan for the Lez Spring requires a good appreciation of the hydrological functioning as 400 well as the operational hydrological model to properly address impact studies. In this framework, 401 KarstMod allows for choosing and calibrating a suitable model structure. This constitutes the first step for a global change impact study that requires prediction tools to simulate the aquifer response to variousexternal forces.

- 404 Fig. 7 shows the model structure for the Lez karst catchment (Mazzilli et al., 2011) that consists of three 405 compartments organized in two levels. The upper level corresponds to compartment E and represents 406 the unsaturated part of the system, including a soil water holding capacity Emin and a discharge lost 407 from the compartment  $Q_{loss}$ . Compartment E is exposed to P and ET and discharge towards the lower 408 level of the model structure starts when the water level exceeds Emin. The lower level consists of two 409 inter-connected compartments M and C allowing to reproduction of the lateral exchanges, denoted  $Q_{MC}$ , between the transmissive function (compartment C) and the capacitive function (compartment M) of the 410 411 karst aquifer. Both M and C compartments are considered bottomless, allowing to reproduce periods of 412 non-overflow at the Lez Spring when the mean water level in the aquifer stands below 65 m a.s.l., mainly
- 413 during summer periods due to pumping in the karst conduit. Fig. 8 a and b show the various daily time
- 414 series required for the hydrological modeling of the Lez karst system (i.e., P, ET and  $Q_{pump}$ ).



Fig. 7 Screenshot of KarstMod with a focus on the panel "Model structure" for the Lez karst system. The solid lines correspond to the activated fluxes whereas the faded color lines are not activated.  $Q_{loss}$  stands for the surface water discharge from the epikarst compartment,  $Q_p^C$  stands for groundwater abstraction that affects compartments C while  $Z_c$  stands for piezometric head measurements considered as representative of compartment C.

415



Fig. 8 Daily time series for the Lez system: a) precipitations (P) and evapotranspiration (ET), b) groundwater abstraction,  $Q_{pump}$ , c) observed and simulated karst spring discharge ( $Q_{Lez}$  obs and  $Q_{Lez}$  sim), d) observed and simulated piezometric head ( $Z_{Lez}$  obs and  $Z_{Lez}$  sim), e) surface water discharge ( $Q_{loss}$ ) and f) simulated exchanges fluxes between compartment M and C,  $Q_{MC}$ .

416 The available hydrological observations for model calibration consist of spring discharge  $Q_s$ , 417 piezometric head measurement  $Z_c$  at the Lez spring, and surface water discharge from secondary outlets 418 and intermittent springs  $Q_{loss}$  (Fig. 8 c, d, and e).

419 The surface water discharge is estimated as the difference in discharge measured at the Lavalette station 420 (15 km downstream of the Lez spring) and the discharge measured at the Lez spring, as proposed by Cousquer and Jourde (2022). Therefore,  $Q_{loss}$  includes all the water loss from the epikarst within several 421 422 seasonal overflowing springs (i.e., Lirou spring, Restinclière spring, and Fleurette spring). KarstMod 423 allows for easy handling of the various parameter estimations depending on the considered hydrological 424 observations (i.e., spring discharge, piezometric head measurement, and surface discharge from the 425 epikarst). The sampling procedure is set up to find  $n_{obj} = 5000$  simulations with an aggregated objective 426 function  $\Phi$  greater than 0.6. As suggested by Cousquer and Jourde (2022), using complementary 427 hydrological observations in addition to the spring discharge allows for to reduce the parametric uncertainties in the modeling of the Lez spring discharge. Therefore, using a multi-objective calibration 428 429 procedure implemented in KarstMod, the objective function is built such as:

$$\Phi = \frac{1}{3} \times NSE(Q_s) + \frac{1}{3} \times NSE(Z_c) + \frac{1}{3} \times NSE(Q_{loss})$$
Eq. 5

430 The calibration procedure leads to an optimal  $\Phi = 0.65$  decomposed such as  $\phi Q_s = 0.70$ ,  $\phi Z_c = 0.57$ and  $\phi Q_{loss} = 0.70$  within the calibration period. Model performance evaluation on the validation period 431 shows suitable model performance for both spring discharge and piezometric with  $\phi Q_s = 0.54$  and  $\phi Z_c$ 432 433 = 0.79, but poor model performance according to the surface water discharge with  $\phi Q_{loss} = 0.36$ . 434 Afterwards, the results can be evaluated using the various features proposed in KarstMod (Fig. 9). The 435 results show higher model performances for  $Q_s$  and  $Z_c$  than for  $Q_{loss}$ . The model performance appears quite satisfactory concerning the variable of interest to assess the impact of the water management 436 437 scheme on the groundwater resources within the Lez aquifer.

438 The simulated exchange fluxes between compartments M and C (Fig. 8 f) show consistent dynamics 439 with the observations. Indeed, during periods of high flow, the exchange fluxes are oriented from 440 compartment C to compartment M (i.e.,  $Q_{MC} < 0$ ). Significant precipitation events lead to rapid rises in 441 the piezometric head, saturation of the transmissive part of the aquifer, and finally the establishment of 442 overflow at the Lez spring (i.e.  $Q_s > 0$ ) as well as the overflowing springs (i.e.  $Q_{loss} > 0$ ). Conversely, 443 during the periods of low piezometric head (i.e., both  $Q_s$  and  $Q_{loss}$  are nil), the simulated exchange 444 fluxes are oriented from compartment M to compartment C (i.e.  $Q_{MC} > 0$ ). Such flow exchanges between 445 capacitive and transmissive parts of karst aquifers have been evidenced using KarstMod on other karst 446 environment (Duran et al., 2020; Frank et al., 2021; Labat et al., 2022; Sivelle et al., 2019).



Fig. 9 Screenshot of KarstMod with a focus on the sub-panel "Model evaluation". Application for the model evaluation on the Lez system. The panel is composed such as (i) each row corresponds to the variable for calibration (QS, Qloss and PiezoC) and (ii) each column corresponds to (a) diagnostic efficiency plot, (b) radar plots, one should note that VE and BE are not computed according to the piezometric time series, (c) decomposition of KGE (square) and KGENP (triangle) and (d) radar plot of the KGE decomposition.

#### 447 **5** Conclusion

448 KarstMod consists of a useful tool for the assessment of karst groundwater variability and sensitivity to anthropogenic pressures (e.g., groundwater abstraction). This tool is devoted to promoting good 449 450 practices in hydrological modeling for learning and occasional users. KarstMod requires no 451 programming skills and offers a user-friendly interface allowing any user to easily manage hydrological 452 modeling. As a first step, KarstMod can be used to explore the ability of conceptual representations to 453 explain observations such as discharge or piezometric heads in karst systems. More advanced use of 454 KarstMod is also possible as it provides a complete framework for (i) primary analysis of the data, (ii) 455 comparison of various model structures, (iii) evaluation of the hydrological model performance as well 456 as (iv) first assessment of parametric uncertainties. The research community increasingly uses KarstMod 457 to address various challenges in karst hydrology, from understanding hydrological processes to practical 458 applications such as evaluation of groundwater management plans, or even assessment of the impact of 459 groundwater abstraction and climate changes on karst groundwater resources.

460 Future developments of KarstMod might include (i) the consideration of the spatial heterogeneity in 461 recharge processes which is essential when considering snowmelt as well as land cover (Sivelle et al., 462 2022a), (ii) the simulation of electrical conductivity (Chang et al., 2021), major ions concentration 463 (Hartmann et al., 2013) or natural tracer such as air excess (Sivelle et al., 2022a), and (iii) the assessment 464 of structural uncertainty (Cousquer et al., 2022). KarstMod should tend toward an open source research 465 software to avoid duplication of efforts in karst hydrological modeling. Also, a Python version is required for a better connection with an additional framework for sensitivity analysis such as SAFE 466 toolbox (Pianosi et al., 2015) and for model calibration procedures such as particle swarm optimization 467 468 (Eberhart and Kennedy, 1995; Lee, 2014). Finally, the development of the KarstMod modeling platform 469 will benefit better transparency and repeatability with an open-source approach, as observed on other numerical tools (Pianosi et al., 2020). 470

# 471 <u>Nomenclature.</u>

AET	actual evapotranspiration (mm day <sup>-1</sup> )
CFR	refreezing coefficient (-)
CWH	liquid water holding capacity of snow (-)
DE	diagnostic efficiency DE (Schwemmle et al., 2021)
ET	evapotranspiration (mm day <sup>-1</sup> )
KGE	Kling-Gupta Efficiency (Gupta et al., 2009)
KGENP	non-parametric Kling-Gupta Efficiency (Pool et al., 2018)
MF	melt coefficient (mm °C <sup>-1</sup> day <sup>-1</sup> )
Р	precipitation (mm day <sup>-1</sup> )
P <sub>eff</sub>	effective precipitation (mm day <sup>-1</sup> )

P <sub>sr</sub>	precipitation computed with the Snow Routine (mm day <sup>-1</sup> )
$P_{sr}^*$	precipitation for a single sub-catchment computed with the Snow Routine (mm day <sup>-1</sup> )
PET	potential evapotranspiration (mm day <sup>-1</sup> )
$R_p$	Pearson's correlation coefficient
R <sub>s</sub>	Spearman rank correlation coefficient
NSE	Nash-Sutcliffe Efficiency (Nash and Sutcliffe, 1970)
n <sub>obj</sub>	targeted number of parameter sets
$Q_A$	water discharge considered for the flow component A (m <sup>3</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )
Т	air temperature (°C)
$T_a$	active temperature for snowmelt (°C)
$T_n$	active temperature for refreezing (°C)
$t_{max}$	maximum duration for sampling the parameter space (seconds)
$T_s$	temperature threshold (°C)
U	observations considered for parameter estimation
VE	volumetric error (Criss and Winston, 2008)
$Z_A$	water level considered for element A (m a.sl.)
$\phi$	performance criteria
Φ	objective function

472 *Code availability.* The KarstMod modeling platform is developed and made freely accessible within the

473 framework of the KARST observatory network (SNO KARST) initiative from the INSU/CNRS. The
474 platform can be downloaded here: <u>https://sokarst.org/en/softwares-en/karstmod-en/</u>

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