



23 **Abstract**

24 Elevated nitrate concentrations in German water bodies are a widespread problem,  
25 potentially resulting from a long history of excess nitrogen (N) inputs. Here, we investigated  
26 long-term (1950-2014) N dynamics across 89 German catchments using a process-based model.  
27 Results showed that the mean fractions of N surplus (excess) exported to the river, removed by  
28 denitrification, accumulated in the soil zone, and accumulated in groundwater across all  
29 catchments are 27%, 58%, 14%, and 1%, respectively. Dissolved inorganic N in groundwater  
30 could affect the stream N levels over decades as indicated by long groundwater transit times. A  
31 cluster identified four catchment groups with distinct archetypal long-term N transport and  
32 retention dynamics, which can be partly linked to the catchments' topographic and geological  
33 conditions. This hints at underlying mechanisms that explain spatial differences in the fate of  
34 diffuse N inputs to catchments and opens the possibility for better-targeted management.

35 **Plain language summary**

36 High nitrate concentrations in German water bodies are a widespread problem,  
37 potentially linked to a long history of excess nitrogen (N) inputs on agricultural fields. In this  
38 study, we analyzed the long-term N transport and accumulation in various catchments across  
39 Germany from 1950 to 2014 using a process-based model. We further clustered these catchments  
40 into different types according to their long-term N patterns and linked these groups with their  
41 catchment characteristics. Our results show that only a small part of the net N input was exported  
42 to rivers while most of the net N input was lost to the atmosphere (denitrified). The majority of  
43 the remaining N surplus was stored in the soil zone. The age of N in discharge was found to be  
44 years to decades, suggesting that past N inputs will still have an impact on the future stream  
45 water quality status. A cluster identified four catchment groups, which can be partly explained by  
46 the catchment's topographic and geological conditions. This hints at underlying mechanisms that  
47 explain spatial differences in the fate of diffuse N inputs to catchments and opens the possibility  
48 for better-targeted management.

## 49 **1 Introduction**

50 Human activities, especially agricultural management practices, have drastically changed  
51 the Earth's landscape and disturbed the global nitrogen (N) cycle (Foley, 2017; Vitousek et al.,  
52 1997). N surplus (excess of N inputs to the soil that were not taken up by crops) from global  
53 croplands increased more than fivefold from 16 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 1961 to 86 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2010  
54 (Zhang et al., 2021) and it is likely to continue increasing until at least 2050 (Bouwman et al.,  
55 2013). In many areas, excess use of N fertilizers for crop production was identified as one of the  
56 main causes of surface water and groundwater deterioration, resulting in negative impacts on  
57 human health and aquatic ecosystems (Evans et al., 2019). Regulations at the national and  
58 international levels, e.g., the Clean Water Act in the United States (EPA, 1972), the Nitrates  
59 Directive in Europe (CEC, 1991), and the Action Plan for the Zero Increase of Fertilizer Use in  
60 China (Ju et al., 2016), have been introduced to reduce excess N inputs to agricultural lands and  
61 to protect water quality. However, the implementation of such mitigation regulations does not  
62 always lead to immediate or clear responses of surface water and groundwater quality (Brown &  
63 Froemke, 2012; EEA, 2021; Smith et al., 1987). This requires a sound understanding of long-  
64 term N transport and retention.

65 The lag times from changes in N management practices and changes in groundwater or  
66 surface water quality vary from years to decades (Chen et al., 2014, 2018; Meals et al., 2010).  
67 The reason for these lag times was discussed to be the accumulation of N in the soil (mainly soil  
68 organic nitrogen - SON) as biogeochemical legacy and in the subsurface (unsaturated and  
69 groundwater, mainly dissolved inorganic nitrogen - DIN) as hydrological legacy (e.g., Basu et  
70 al., 2022; Chen et al., 2018; Van Meter et al., 2016, 2017). SON and groundwater DIN  
71 accumulations are controlled by the soil mineralization rate in the soil and groundwater transit  
72 times, respectively. Several studies suggest that most of the N surplus in the catchment is stored  
73 as SON while groundwater DIN is comparatively small (Ascott et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2018;  
74 Galloway et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2021; Van Meter et al., 2016). Nevertheless, groundwater DIN  
75 storage could affect stream water quality status over decades due to long transit times (Chen et  
76 al., 2018). There have been several studies explored the biogeochemical and hydrological lag  
77 times, for example, in the Mississippi River basin (Van Meter et al., 2016, 2017), the  
78 Susquehanna River basin (Van Meter et al., 2017), the Weser River basin (Sarrazin et al., 2022),  
79 and in other basins (Chen et al., 2018). The aforementioned studies, however, were conducted in  
80 individual or only a few catchments. Understanding and predicting long-term N transport and  
81 retention across a variety of landscape characteristics, hydroclimatic drivers, and anthropogenic  
82 impacts rather requires studies with a large sample of catchments.

83 In recent years, some studies have linked long-term N transport and retention with  
84 catchment attributes using a large sample of catchments to discuss underlying processes  
85 controlling the build-up of N legacies. However, only a few studies have explicitly separated the  
86 soil (biogeochemical legacy) and groundwater (hydrological legacy) N dynamics. For example,  
87 McDowell et al. (2021) found that lag times between soil N leaching and riverine N export in 34  
88 catchments in New Zealand varied from 1 to 12 years with higher lag times in catchments with  
89 higher altitudes, less steep slope, higher stream order, and higher evapotranspiration. In 14  
90 nested catchments located in the Grand River Watershed, Liu et al. (2021) reported that about  
91 82-96% of the catchment N was stored in the soil and the remaining was stored in groundwater.  
92 The mean transit times in groundwater in these catchments ranged from 5 to 34 years with longer  
93 transit times found in catchments with higher tile drainage density.

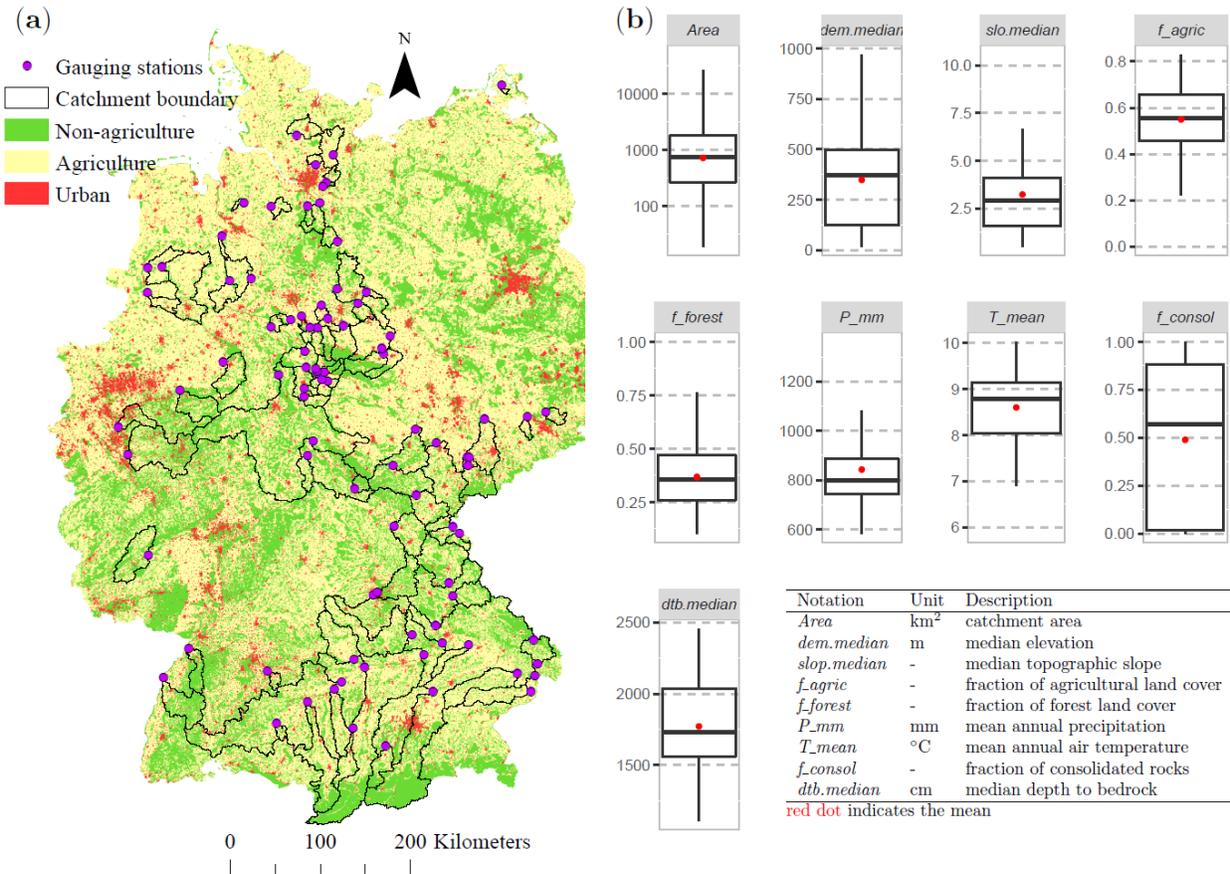
94 Some recent studies have directly linked N surplus to riverine N export without an  
95 explicit separation between the soil zone and groundwater (e.g., Dupas et al., 2020; Ehrhardt et  
96 al., 2021). In these studies, ‘missing N’ is often used to refer to the amount of N that can be  
97 either stored in the catchment or be permanently removed via denitrification. For example, lag  
98 times between N surplus and the peak riverine N export (mode of the N transport time  
99 distribution) in 16 catchments located in Western France were found to vary from 2 to 14 years,  
100 depending on catchment lithology (Dupas et al., 2020). In these catchments, about 45-88% of N  
101 surplus was missing N. At a larger scale spanning over 238 catchments in Western Europe, the  
102 mode of N transport times were reported to be around 5 years, on average with a higher mode of  
103 N transport times in catchments with higher potential evapotranspiration and lower precipitation  
104 seasonality (Ehrhardt et al., 2021). They also found that catchments with thicker unconsolidated  
105 aquifers have a larger amount of missing N while a higher fraction of consolidated and porous  
106 aquifers show a smaller amount of missing N. While these studies provided empirical (data-  
107 based) evidence on the fate of missing N, there is generally a lack of understanding of the  
108 different components of the missing N (e.g., soil N storage, groundwater N storage, soil and  
109 groundwater N denitrification) and their relation to catchment characteristics, especially in  
110 German landscape. This knowledge gap is important for a more mechanistic understanding of  
111 long-term N characteristics in catchments and allows better-targeted management strategies for  
112 abating N pollution.

113 The aims of this study are (1) to provide quantitative estimations of different components  
114 of the ‘missing N’ across German catchments and (2) to discuss the linkages between long-term  
115 N transport and retention, and catchment characteristics. To this end, we investigated long-term  
116 N transport and retention in different terrestrial components (soil and groundwater) across 89  
117 catchments in Germany with diverse settings. We used a parsimonious, process-based model that  
118 allows for an explicit characterization of biogeochemical and hydrological legacies. Moreover,  
119 we discussed how our findings could be used for management purposes and provide potential  
120 implications for other catchments.

## 121 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 122 **2.1 Study area and data**

123 The study uses data from 89 catchments (out of which 70 are non-nested catchments)  
124 located in Germany (Figure 1a). In total, the study area has a non-overlapping area of 120,596  
125 km<sup>2</sup>, which is about one-third of the German territory. The catchment area varies between 19 and  
126 49,760 km<sup>2</sup> with a median area of 742 km<sup>2</sup>, covering both German lowlands and mountainous  
127 areas. Agriculture is the dominant land use in most of the study catchments, accounting for  
128 (median value) 56% of the catchment area. Consolidated rock was found to be the dominant  
129 aquifer material in more than half of the selected catchments. The distribution of precipitation,  
130 air temperature, topographic gradient (slope), aquifer depth (Figure 1b), and other catchment  
131 characteristics (Figure S4) indicate that the selected catchments have diverse settings.



132

133 **Figure 1.** Overview of the selected catchments, represented by (a) the land use map (EEA, 2019)  
 134 and location of the study catchments, and (b) the boxplots of some catchment attributes (Ebeling  
 135 et al., 2022). For better visualization, the boxplots only show the values within 1.5 times  
 136 interquartile range below and above the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75 percentiles.

137 The catchment-scale annual N-surplus from 1950 to 2014 was calculated from the  
 138 fractional contribution from agricultural and non-agricultural land uses (forest, buildup, and  
 139 other vegetated and non-vegetated lands), based on their relative areas. Land uses were  
 140 constructed by combining the Corine Land Cover dataset (EEA, 2019), the History Database of  
 141 the Global Environment dataset (HYDE dataset, Goldewijk et al., 2017), and statistical  
 142 agricultural area data of Germany (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2021) similar to Sarrazin et al.  
 143 (2022). The N surplus for agricultural areas is available at the county level for the period 1995-  
 144 2014 (Häußermann et al., 2020) and at the state level for the period 1950-1998 (Behrendt et al.,  
 145 2003). The two datasets were harmonized to create consistent time series of N surplus for the  
 146 period 1950-2014 following Ehrhardt et al. (2021) and Ebeling et al. (2022). The N surplus for  
 147 non-agricultural areas was estimated as the sum of atmospheric N deposition (Lamarque et al.,  
 148 2012; Tilmes et al., 2016) and biological N fixation. Biological N fixation rates of 16 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>  
 149 for forest and 2.7 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> for the other vegetated land were taken based on the mean rates  
 150 reported in Cleveland et al., (1999) for temperate forest and natural grassland, respectively  
 151 (Sarrazin et al., 2022). The catchment-scale annual N point sources for the period 1950-2014  
 152 were constructed using the methodology of Morée et al. (2013) and information on population  
 153 counts (HYDE dataset), protein supply (FAO, 1951, 2021a, 2021b), and population connection

154 to sewer and wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs; Eurostat, 2016, 2021; Seeger, 1999) (for  
155 further details see Sarrazin et al., 2022). The reconstructed N loading from WWTPs was  
156 constrained to follow the N loading reported by the authority for the period 2012-2016 (Büttner,  
157 2020; Yang et al., 2019), following Sarrazin et al. (2022).

158 Daily instream nitrate concentrations were reconstructed from irregularly observed  
159 instream  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  data using Weighted Regression on Time, Discharge and Season (WRTDS,  
160 Hirsch et al., 2010) and were aggregated (discharge-weighted mean) to yearly estimates.  
161 Simulated daily discharges from the mesoscale Hydrologic Model (mHM, Kumar et al., 2013;  
162 Samaniego et al., 2010) were bias-corrected using piece-wise linear regression and used for gap  
163 filling if observed discharges were not available for WRTDS (Ehrhardt et al., 2021). Further  
164 details on instream nitrate ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ) concentrations and discharge data at outlets of selected  
165 catchments can be obtained from Ebeling et al. (2022). For all of the selected gauging stations,  
166 the minimum time series length of instream  $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$  concentrations was 20 years and the median  
167 number of observations was 426 [min = 154, max = 1294]. In general, the performance of the  
168 WRTDS is acceptable (Figure S3) with a median  $R^2$  of 0.63 (interquartile range = [0.49, 0.73]).

## 169 **2.2 Representation of N transport in the catchment**

170 In this study, we used a parsimonious representation of soil N dynamics and a  
171 mechanistic representation of N transport in groundwater using the concept of StorAge Selection  
172 (SAS) function (Botter et al., 2011; Nguyen et al., 2021, 2022; Van der Velde et al., 2010). The  
173 model, called the StorAge Selection function for Nitrate (SAS-N, Figure S1), consists of two  
174 dominant N storages representing the soil zone and groundwater (e.g., Nguyen et al., 2021; Van  
175 Meter et al., 2017). The SAS-N model (1) can be considered as an improved version of the  
176 catchment-scale lumped transfer function approach (Ehrhardt et al., 2021) with an explicit  
177 representation of the soil and groundwater compartments, and (2) has a more realistic  
178 representation of groundwater transport with dynamics groundwater transit times compared to  
179 other models (e.g., Van Meter et al., 2017). The SAS-N model operates at a yearly time step and  
180 is driven by N surplus and effective precipitation (the difference between precipitation and actual  
181 evapotranspiration). N surplus can be accumulated in the soil zone as soil organic nitrogen  
182 (SON), denitrified, or leached to the groundwater as dissolved inorganic nitrogen (DIN, nitrate).  
183 Leached N to the groundwater can be further denitrified and exported to the stream using the  
184 SAS approach (Benettin et al., 2013; Nguyen et al., 2022). N point sources (e.g., from WWTPs)  
185 are added to the riverine N export and routed to the catchment outlet taking into account instream  
186 removal (Sarrazin et al., 2022). A detailed description of the SAS-N model is given in the  
187 supporting information (Text S1).

188 The SAS-N model contains six calibration parameters (Text S1 and Table S1). These  
189 parameters were identified by running the model for each catchment with 50,000 parameter sets  
190 generated by uniform Latin Hypercube Sampling within their pre-defined ranges (Table S1). The  
191 model performance was evaluated against instream nitrate concentrations at the corresponding  
192 catchment outlet with the root mean square error. The model was run from 1800 to 2014 with  
193 1800-1949 taken as the warm-up period. Results from the 30 best simulations from each  
194 catchment were used for all of the following analyses (see Text S2 for more detail on the model  
195 performance).

## 196 **2.3 Cluster analysis**

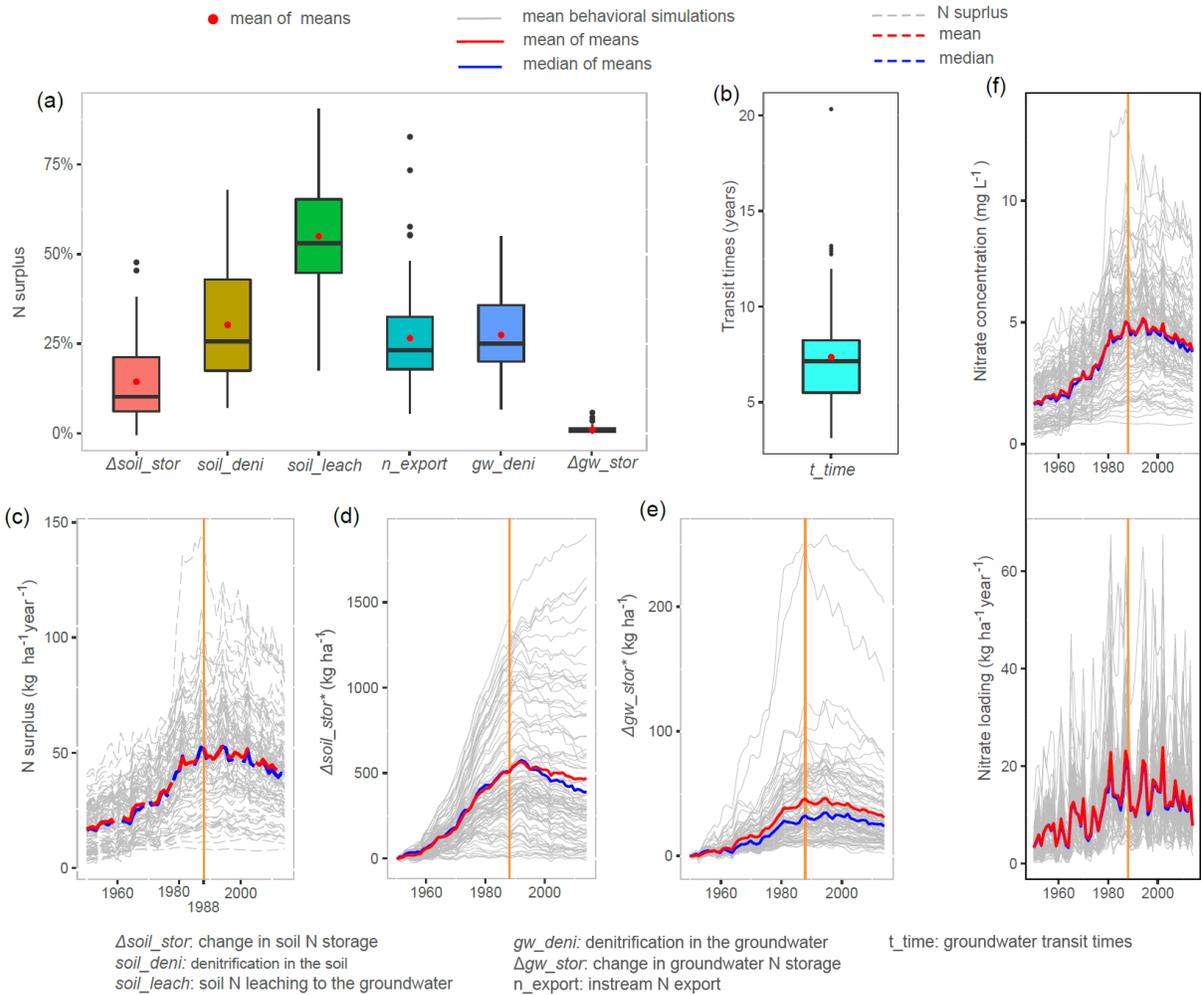
197 The objectives of the cluster analysis were to find distinct archetypes of long-term N  
198 transport and retention and to characterize their relationships with catchment attributes. In water  
199 quality studies, the k-means clustering algorithm (Hartigan & Wong, 1979) has been used, e.g.,  
200 to understand patterns and controls of catchment-scale nitrate storage (Ascott et al., 2017),  
201 groundwater geochemistry (Frapporti et al., 1993), and aquifer vulnerability (Javadi et al., 2017).  
202 As an unsupervised machine learning approach, k-means clustering does not require prior  
203 knowledge about the underlying patterns of the datasets. The modelled long-term (1950-2014)  
204 mean behavioral N fluxes and stores characterizing transport and retention processes, including  
205 the transit times, from the 30 best model simulations (behavioral simulations) for each catchment  
206 were used for the clustering (Text S3). Then, statistical properties of various catchment attributes  
207 (Figure 1b and S4) within each cluster were calculated to identify differences in the catchment  
208 attributes among clusters. The tuning parameter of the k-means is the number of clusters that we  
209 optimized using a combination of the silhouette (Rousseeuw, 1987), elbow (Kodinariya &  
210 Makwana, 2013), and gap statistic (Tibshirani et al., 2001) methods to have a robust estimation  
211 (Figure S5).

## 212 **3 Results and discussion**

### 213 **3.1 Long-term N transport and retention**

214 The simulated long-term (1950-2014) N fluxes and stores across all catchments (Figure  
215 3a and Text S3) shows that only 27 (mean of mean behavioral simulations)  $\pm$  (standard deviation  
216 of mean behavioral simulations) 13% of N surplus was exported to the stream, in other words,  
217 the ‘missing N’ accounts for  $73 \pm 13\%$  of N surplus (equivalent to  $35 \pm 6 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ ). These  
218 estimated values are well within the range reported by Ehrhardt et al. (2021) for Western  
219 European catchments. Results from our study suggest that the majority of N surplus was  
220 removed by denitrification in the soil zone ( $30 \pm 15\%$ ) and groundwater ( $27 \pm 11\%$ ). This is in  
221 line with the findings from Sarrazin et al. (2022), who showed that more than half of the N  
222 surplus in the Weser catchment in Germany was removed via denitrification. Seitzinger et al.  
223 (2006) also found that denitrification in the soil was generally higher than in groundwater at a  
224 global scale. About  $14 \pm 11\%$  of N surplus that entered the catchments between 1950 and 2014  
225 was accumulated in the soil zone while only  $1 \pm 0.9\%$  in the groundwater with an average  
226 groundwater N storage of nearly  $33 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$  in 2014 across all catchments. A dominance of soil N  
227 accumulation over groundwater N accumulation in catchments has been confirmed in earlier  
228 studies across western France (Dupas et al., 2020), the Danube (Malagó et al., 2017), the Weser  
229 (Sarrazin et al., 2022), and the Mississippi (Van Meter et al., 2016) river basins. An independent  
230 estimation based on groundwater N-stocks and maximum increase in groundwater nitrate  
231 concentration also showed that only around 1% of N surplus was accumulated in the European  
232 groundwater zone (Howarth et al., 1996). Although groundwater N accumulation during the  
233 study period (1950-2014) was found to be low compared to soil N storage, groundwater N  
234 storage predominantly consists of dissolved inorganic N in the form of nitrate, which could  
235 affect stream water quality status over decades in catchments with very long transit times. For  
236 example, we found that the mean transit times of discharge (and dissolved N), the time elapsed  
237 since a water parcel enters the groundwater to the time it leaves the catchment via discharge,  
238 varied between 3.2 and 20.3 years with a median value of 7.1 years (Figure 2b). It should be  
239 noted that there is also a variability in the simulated long-term N fluxes and stores among

240 behavioral simulations within a catchment. In general, higher simulated fluxes or storages have  
 241 higher standard deviations, except the instream N export because it is the calibrated variable  
 242 (Figure S6).



243

244 **Figure 2.** Long-term (1950-2014) N transport and retention in the study catchments (Text S3),  
 245 represented by (a) boxplots of the long-term mean behavioral N fluxes and stores and (b) mean  
 246 behavioral groundwater transit times, and the simulated time series of (c) N surplus, (d, e)  
 247 changes in the mean behavioral soil ( $\Delta soil\_stor^*$ ) and groundwater ( $\Delta gw\_stor^*$ ) N storages,  
 248 respectively, since 1950, and (f) riverine N export in terms of the mean behavioral concentration  
 249 and loading. Vertical lines in orange in panels (c-f) depict the year 1988.

250 The time series of N fluxes and stores among different catchments show a wide range of  
 251 variations in levels but also similarities in patterns (Figure 2c-f). The N surplus, mean behavioral  
 252 soil N and groundwater N accumulations from all catchments show a significant increasing trend  
 253 (Mann-Kendall trend test (MK, Mann, 1945; Kendall, 1975) with  $p$ -value < 0.001) during the  
 254 1950-1988 period (Figure 2c-e). After 1988, N surplus declined significantly (MK,  $p$ -value <  
 255 0.05, mean slope = -0.93) in 74 catchments, out of which 13 and 3 catchments nevertheless  
 256 showed an increasing trend in soil N and groundwater N accumulation (MK,  $p$ -value < 0.05,  
 257 mean slope < -0.77), respectively. While the median N surplus across all 89 catchments in 2014

258 was reduced by 57% compared to that of 1988, the median of the mean behavioral soil,  
 259 groundwater N accumulation, instream N concentrations and loadings decreased only by 15%  
 260 and 16%, 23%, and 49%, respectively (Figure 2c-f, blue lines). The small reduction of  
 261 groundwater N storage since 1988 found in this study is also in line with a slight decline in  
 262 observed groundwater nitrate concentrations in recent decades across Germany (Van Grinsven et  
 263 al., 2012).

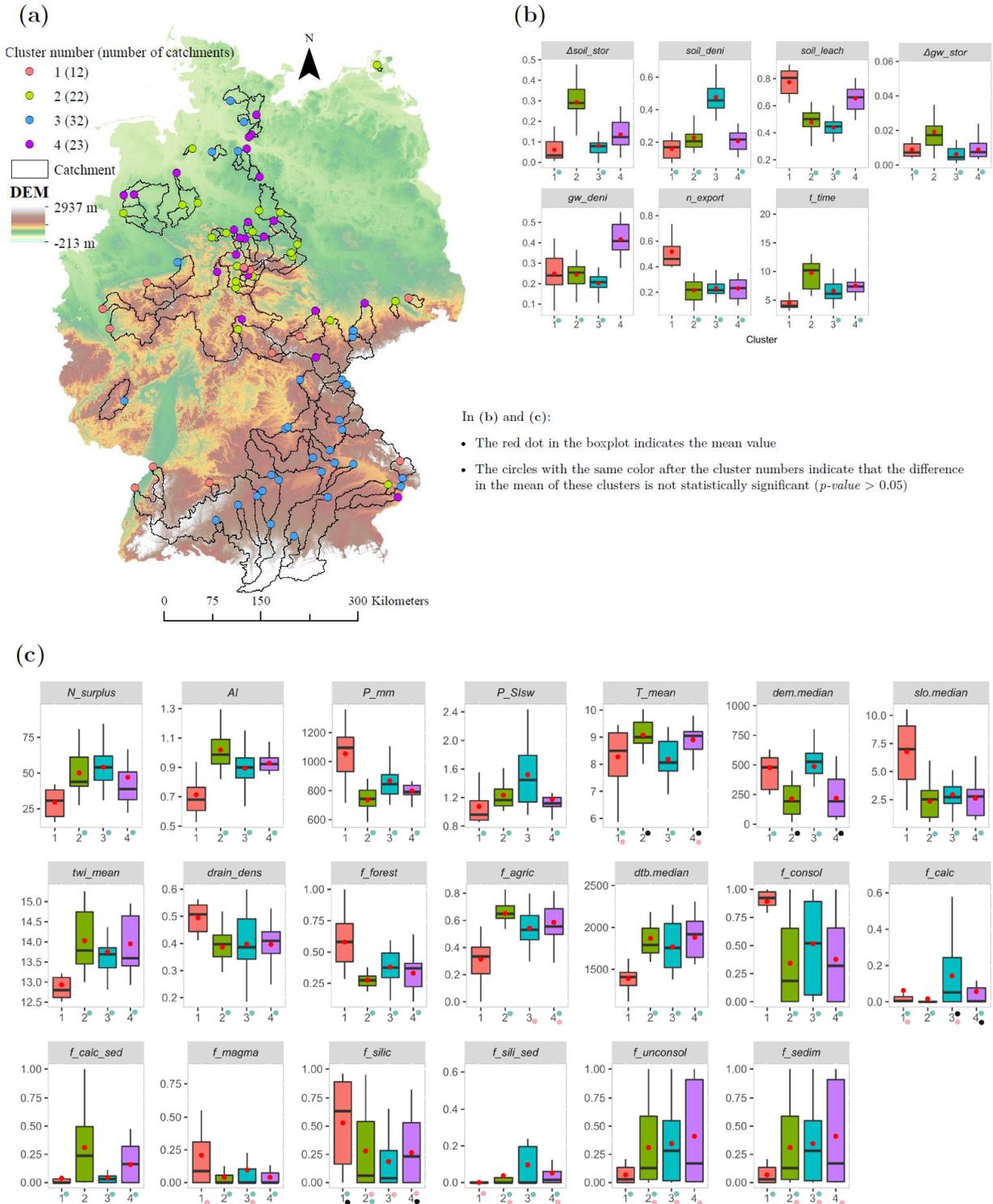
### 264 **3.2 Linking N characteristics to landscape attributes**

265 Results from the k-means analysis indicate that the study catchments can be grouped into  
 266 four clusters based on their underlying N export and retention dynamics (Figures 3a-b and S5).  
 267 In general, catchments in the same cluster are located closer to each other (Figure 3a). This is  
 268 expected as spatial similarity in neighborhood exists for many hydrological and water quality  
 269 processes (Detenbeck et al., 1996; Western et al., 2004). The number of catchments within each  
 270 cluster varies from 12 to 32 and each catchment cluster shows distinct long-term N dynamics  
 271 (Figures 3a-b). The salient features of the four clusters can be summarized as: catchment cluster  
 272 one has high soil N leaching (*soil\_leach*) and riverine N export (*n\_export*), and short  
 273 groundwater transit times (*t\_time*), catchment cluster two is characterized by high soil  
 274 ( $\Delta$ *soil\_stor*) and groundwater ( $\Delta$ *gw\_stor*) N accumulation and long groundwater transit times  
 275 (*t\_time*), catchment cluster three shows high soil denitrification (*soil\_deni*), and catchment  
 276 cluster four has high groundwater denitrification (*gw\_deni*).

277 Regarding the catchment attributes, catchments in **cluster one** are characterized by high  
 278 altitude (*dem.median*), high precipitation (*P\_mm*), high topographic slopes (*slo.median*), low  
 279 topographic wetness index (*twi\_mean*) (Figure 3c). We argue that these conditions lead to a  
 280 dominance of fast shallow flow paths with short transit times in both soil and groundwater,  
 281 resulting in low soil and groundwater N storage, high soil N leaching, low denitrification, and  
 282 high riverine N export relatively to N surplus (Figure 3a). In addition, shallow aquifers and high  
 283 fraction of consolidated rocks (*f\_consol*) in catchment cluster one are also factors that may lead  
 284 to low N storage and short transit times in groundwater (Figure 3b-c). The catchments in cluster  
 285 one are also minimally disturbed mountainous forested catchments with low N surplus (Figure  
 286 3c). In contrast, catchments in **cluster two** can be interpreted as managed lowland catchments  
 287 (low altitudes and slopes) with agriculture-dominated landscapes and high N surplus (Figure 3c).  
 288 Lower precipitation and higher aridity (*AI*) in these catchments could cause lower soil moisture  
 289 that restricts soil denitrification and flushing (leaching) of soil N, leading to higher soil N  
 290 storage. Lower topographic slopes and deeper aquifers observed in these catchments facilitate  
 291 deeper flow paths with longer transit times. Long transit times in combination with low aquifer  
 292 denitrification rate could be an explanation for the relatively high fraction of groundwater N  
 293 accumulation compared to the other clusters. High N accumulation in the catchments leads to  
 294 low riverine N export.

295 Catchment **cluster three** is located in a comparable range of altitudes to catchment  
 296 cluster one but with lower slopes and higher fractions of agriculture, lower precipitation, higher  
 297 precipitation seasonality, and lower mean temperature. Soil denitrification in the catchment  
 298 cluster three was found to be the highest among the four catchment clusters. The precipitation  
 299 seasonality (*P\_SIs<sub>w</sub>*) with higher summer precipitation causes higher soil moisture during the  
 300 warm and biologically active season and could thus enhance soil denitrification. Additionally,  
 301 high soil pH might cause high soil denitrification in the cluster three, as shown for southern

302 Germany (Müller et al., 2022). Groundwater denitrification in the catchment cluster three is  
303 relatively low compared to the others due to low soil N leaching. Catchment **cluster four** is  
304 located in the lowland areas as is catchment cluster two, but with slightly higher precipitation,  
305 causing higher soil N leaching and lower soil N storage (Figure 3a, c). The mean fraction of  
306 sedimentary aquifers ( $f_{sedim}$ ) in catchment cluster four is the highest among the four  
307 catchment clusters with deep aquifer. This could indicate long transit times, high anoxic  
308 conditions and abundance of electron donors (Ebeling et al., 2021; Knoll et al., 2019), resulting  
309 in high groundwater denitrification in the catchment cluster four.  
310



311 **Figure 3.** Clustering of catchment functioning based on long-term N characteristics (a) spatial  
 312 distribution of catchment clusters, (b) boxplots of long-term mean N characteristics (Text S3) in  
 313 four clusters, and (c) boxplots of catchment attributes (Table S3) of the corresponding clusters.  
 314 The *aov* (Analysis of Variance Model) and *TukeyHSD* (Tukey Honest Significant Differences)  
 315 R (R Core Team, 2021) functions were used for comparing the means among clusters.

316 Catchment attributes that are not statistically different at least in one cluster are not shown here.  
317 For better visualization, the boxplots only show the values within 1.5 times interquartile range  
318 below and above the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75 percentiles.

#### 319 **4 Summary and implication**

320 In this modeling study, we were able to shed new light on the fate of the ‘missing N’  
321 across German catchments from 1950 to 2014 and their linkage with catchment characteristics.  
322 The results found in this study, however, are subjected to uncertainty due to, for example, data  
323 and parameter uncertainties that have not been fully explored (Sarrazin et al., 2022).  
324 Nevertheless, our findings are quantitatively in line with existing studies within the study area or  
325 elsewhere (Section 3.1) and the cluster analysis gave plausible results regarding existing process  
326 understanding (Section 3.2). Our results suggest that there is in general a large amount of  
327 accumulated N in the soil zone as biogeochemical legacy while the magnitude of groundwater N  
328 (in form of dissolved inorganic N) accumulation is low. Still, both biogeochemical and  
329 hydrological N legacies could have a significant impact on instream water quality for the next  
330 few decades as shown by the mean transit time of discharge could be up to 20.3 years. The k-  
331 means clustering identified four catchment clusters with different N transport and retention  
332 characteristics, which are further explained by some of the selected landscape attributes (e.g.,  
333 climatic, topographic, and aquifer properties).

334 We propose that results from the cluster analysis can be used for a qualitative assessment  
335 of long-term N characteristics in other catchments within and beyond the physical boundaries of  
336 our study area. In particular, our results have shown that catchments located in close spatial  
337 proximity tend to behave more similarly than catchments located at more distant from each  
338 other. Therefore, long-term N characteristics in ungauged catchments can possibly be inferred  
339 from their neighboring catchments. On the other hand, knowing the catchment attributes could  
340 help to identify the catchment archetype of N transport (cluster) as demonstrated in this study  
341 (Section 3). The linkage between catchment characteristics and dominant N transport, storage  
342 and removal processes could inform the development of robust parameter regionalization  
343 techniques in future modelling studies (e.g., Kumar et al., 2013; Samaniego et al., 2010).

344 This study highlights the importance of considering N legacy effects in water quality  
345 modeling, management, evaluation programs, and having catchment-specific N management  
346 approaches as catchment responses to N surplus are highly heterogeneous. Neglecting N legacies  
347 in catchment water quality modeling could provide “the right results for the wrong reasons”,  
348 leading to false conclusions for management practices. In catchments with a high accumulation  
349 of N in the soil zone, a long-term effort could be needed to achieve good chemical status for the  
350 groundwater bodies as N in the soil zone will continue to leach to the groundwater, potentially  
351 causing elevated groundwater N concentrations over a long period. This, together with long  
352 transit times in groundwater, could delay the effects of current management practice and  
353 improvement in surface water quality, which should be taken into account for evaluation  
354 programs. To have effective, locally adapted management and evaluation programs, it is  
355 necessary to answer questions about the expected timing and magnitude of improvements in  
356 surface water and groundwater quality after new mitigation measures have been introduced.

357

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361

## 362 **Open research**

363 The model code and model results are available at  
364 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6788552>. All catchment attributes can be obtained from  
365 <https://www.hydroshare.org/resource/88254bd930d1466c85992a7dea6947a4/>

366

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