



1 Long-Term Assessment of Groundwater Recharge in
2 the Amalie Lany Aquifer, the Czech Republic, from
3 1990 to 2089

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5 **Abstract**

6 The influence of climate change on groundwater levels and recharge re-
7 mains insufficiently quantified, particularly in low-precipitation regions where
8 groundwater is a critical water-supply source. In the Czech Republic, ground-
9 water abstraction for public supply reached 366 million m³ between 1990 and
10 2020. Over the same period, the Amálie Lány site in Central Bohemia experi-
11 enced warming, with maximum air temperature increasing by 1.1–1.5 °C and
12 minimum air temperature by approximately 1 °C, accompanied by a slight
13 decrease in mean annual precipitation of about 50 mm. These hydroclimatic
14 shifts can intensify drought by increasing atmospheric water demand and
15 altering soil moisture, infiltration, groundwater recharge, and water-table
16 dynamics.

17
18 This research estimates long-term groundwater recharge (1990–2089) us-
19 ing a physically based framework that couples the Richards equation with
20 heat transport and an energy-balance top boundary to represent liquid,
21 vapour, and heat fluxes, including phase change. The analysis targets an
22 unconfined carbonate aquifer system in western Central Bohemia, where in-
23 filtration is the dominant recharge mechanism. Forcing data combine ERA5
24 hourly meteorology and local observations (1990–2020) with climate pro-
25 jections (1990–2089) under four Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSP1-2.6,
26 SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, SSP5-8.5) using precipitation, temperature, wind speed,
27 cloud cover, solar radiation, and relative humidity.

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28

29 Recharge was simulated with the Richards equation in the open-source
30 DRUtES platform using coupled liquid, vapour, and heat transport. The
31 model represents two observation boreholes within compacted sedimentary
32 layers underlain by fractured formations and incorporates key hydraulic and
33 thermal parameters (van Genuchten properties, anisotropy, thermal conduc-
34 tivity, and root-zone characteristics). Results are reported per decade aver-
35 ages across observation points in the soil profile.

36

Recharge trajectories diverge markedly between scenarios. Under SSP1-
2.6, recharge remains relatively stable, whereas higher-emission pathways
produce a sustained decline, reaching reductions of up to 50% by late cen-
tury under SSP5-8.5. The findings highlight precipitation and atmospheric
demand as dominant controls on recharge and underscore risks to water se-
curity under continued warming.

37 *Keywords:* Groundwater, Climate change, Evaporation, Precipitation,
38 Temperature, Eras5

39 1. Introduction

40 Groundwater is a crucial natural resource that sustains many life forms
41 and has significantly contributed to advancing human civilisation Simlandy
42 (2015). As a primary source of freshwater, it meets the needs of a large por-
43 tion of the global population, alongside supporting industries and ecosystems
44 Al Atawneh et al. (2021). Groundwater recharge (GWR) plays a vital role
45 in maintaining the sustainability and hydrological equilibrium of subsurface
46 water systems Al Atawneh et al. (2021); Döll and Fiedler (2008); Thampi
47 and Raneesh (2012). GWR is the process through which surface water in-
48 filtrates the soil and percolates into aquifers, replenishing subsurface water
49 reserves. This recharge occurs either via direct infiltration of precipitation
50 or through the seepage of water from nearby surface water bodies, such as
51 lakes and rivers Al Atawneh et al. (2021).

52

53 Groundwater comprises approximately 96% of the unfrozen freshwater
54 reserves on the Earth Amanambu et al. (2020); Taylor et al. (2013); Wada
55 (2016) and contributes to 33% of global total water withdrawals Famiglietti
56 (2014); Siebert et al. (2010). Consequently, there is increasing concern and



57 focused research on the effects of climate change on groundwater resources
 58 Green et al. (2011); Kundzewicz and Doell (2009); Taylor et al. (2013), as
 59 changes in precipitation, temperature, evaporation, and other climatic vari-
 60 ables pose significant challenges to groundwater sustainability. The rate and
 61 extent of GWR are largely governed by atmospheric conditions, including
 62 precipitation, temperature, and evaporation rates, as well as soil properties
 63 that influence water movement through pore spaces. Consequently, changes
 64 in global climate patterns can substantially affect groundwater availability
 65 and quality, as variations in precipitation or heightened evaporation rates
 66 may alter recharge rates, potentially threatening groundwater sustainability
 67 Chambel (2015); Sowers et al. (2011). A thorough understanding of these
 68 processes is essential for effective groundwater management in the context of
 69 climate change.

70
 71 According to Cárdenas Castillero et al. (2021), reductions in aquifer
 72 recharge due to climate change's effects, with projected future decreases have
 73 been estimated by authors such as Orehova and Bojilova (2001), Candela
 74 et al. (2009), Guardiola-Albert and Jackson (2011), Stigter et al. (2014),
 75 Touhami et al. (2015), Moutahir et al. (2017), Chavarría and Vargas (2018),
 76 Lauffenburger et al. (2018), Moutahir et al. (2019), Haidu and Nistor (2020),
 77 Costa et al. (2021), and Swain et al. (2022) have highlighted this diminishing
 78 recharge trend. In contrast, some regions—particularly those dominated by
 79 winter snow—may experience aquifer overcharge due to increased melting,
 80 as shown by Uribe et al. (2003), Scibek and Allen (2006), Jyrkama and Sykes
 81 (2007), Newcomer et al. (2014), Serur (2020), and Wöhling et al. (2020). This
 82 variability underscores climate change's complex and region-specific impacts
 83 on groundwater recharge patterns.

84
 85 Due to the impacts of climate variability and climate change on hydrogeo-
 86 logical resources, there is a need to improve our understanding of groundwater
 87 vulnerability and to develop appropriate water management and adaptation
 88 strategies. In this context, the main objective of this study is to quantify the
 89 impact of climate change on long-term groundwater recharge in the Amalia
 90 Lány watershed, located near the village of Lány in Central Bohemia, Czech
 91 Republic. The working hypothesis is that, under ongoing climate change,
 92 evaporation in the Amalia Lány watershed will increase, while groundwater
 93 recharge will decline as a result of higher atmospheric demand and altered
 94 precipitation patterns. The magnitude of these changes is quantified by cou-



95 pling a soil–hydrodynamic model with boundary conditions from the climate
96 model.

97

98 The Amalia Lány watershed was selected because it has been the focus
99 of several field research projects conducted by the Czech University of Life
100 Sciences Prague (CZU), particularly those measuring soil properties that are
101 essential for groundwater modelling and analysis. To estimate groundwater
102 recharge in Lány, two soil profiles of different depths were defined. Physical
103 soil data were obtained from multiple sources: volumetric water content in
104 the upper 20 cm was measured in situ by researchers from the Department
105 of Environmental Modelling, while hydraulic and textural properties for the
106 deeper layers were compiled from bibliographic and database sources.

107

108 Climate data used as input to the model were provided by the Czech
109 Hydrometeorological Institute and were employed to construct a baseline
110 of climatic conditions and to model the groundwater recharge for the period
111 1990–2019. Subsequently, output from global climate models was downscaled
112 to the Lány region and used as a boundary condition to model recharge over
113 100 years. To characterise the variability and impact of climate change,
114 recharge and evaporation anomalies were computed relative to the historical
115 baseline and compared with findings from other studies in Central Europe,
116 where groundwater is known to be highly sensitive to future climate variabil-
117 ity.

118

119 This paper is organized as follows. Section 1 reviews the current state of
120 knowledge on groundwater recharge under climate change and summarises
121 key findings from previous studies. Then the study area (section 2) described
122 the location, soil profiles and Amalie Lany geology. The Methodology section
123 3 describes the sources of physical, historical and synthetic climate data; the
124 global climate models used; the DRUtES model and its constitutive relations
125 following Saito et al. (2006) and Sakai et al. (2011); the numerical setup for
126 recharge simulations; and the estimation of soil parameters. The Results and
127 discussion section 4 presents, in turn, groundwater recharge for 1990–2020,
128 the projected impact of climate change on recharge up to 2090, and long-term
129 evaporation. Finally, the Conclusions 5 synthesise the main insights on how
130 climate variability and change affect groundwater recharge in this watershed.



2. Study Area

The study area is in Amalie Lány, an agricultural region of Central Bohemia, western Czech Republic (Figure 1). The area is 7.72 km² and is characterised by a gentle topography with elevations ranging from sea level from 345 to 475 m a.s.l. The region encompasses the mountainous sub-catchments draining into the reservoir of Udolhi Nadrz Kicova. Soils within the study area are classified as loam-clay and clay. The natural availability of water resources is dominated by the prevailing temperate continental climate/humid continental climate according to the Köppen classification. Figure 1 shows the location of the Amalia Lány watershed.

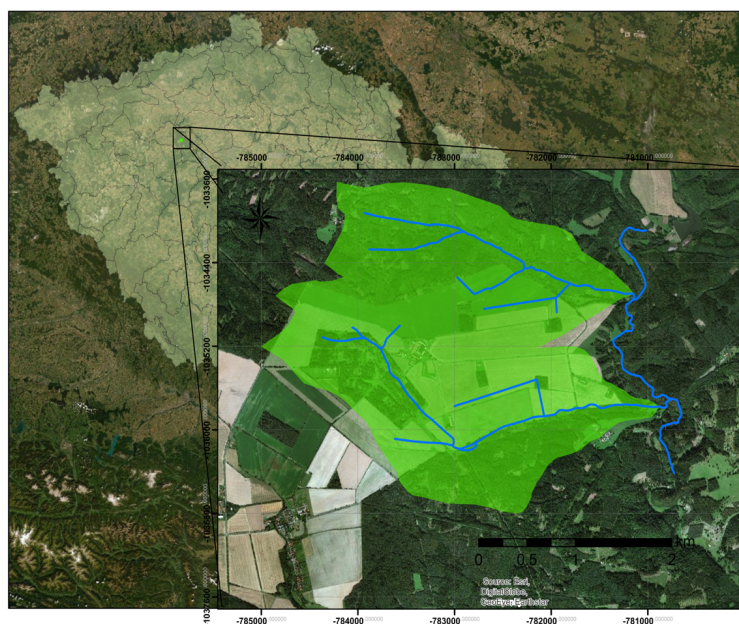


Figure 1: Location of Amalia Lány Watershed. Sources: Esri, Maxar, Earthstar Geographics, and the GIS User Community | Powered by Esri.

The Amalia Lány aquifer consists of 25-metre-thick fractured permo-carbon sedimentary rock sequences belonging to the Berounka basin. The groundwater flow is related to a fissured system of the Algonkian age, which is



144 integrated by weathering, tectonic faults, and material deposits. The aquifer
145 layer is also based on Permocarbon and Mesozoic layers. These layers form
146 a structure within the system with a significant water supply Kahuda (2021).
147
148 The area comprises over twenty study and observation boreholes (see
149 Figure 2). Two boreholes (since now soil profile) have been selected for this
150 investigation. The selected soil profile are wells BP-I/1 and wells BP-I/3.
151 For the soil infiltration model, the piezometric level is assumed to be 4 meters
152 deep for the soil profile BP-I/1 and at -2 meters for the soil profile BP-I/3.
153 It is important to note that the rainfall transformation into the groundwater
154 recharge by the evapotranspiration loss (surface and subsurface evaporation
155 and root after uptake), which takes place continuously over the entire soil
156 profile and is governed by the meteorological events represented here as a
157 time-dependent surface boundary condition. Figure 2 shows the selected soil
158 profiles (boreholes).

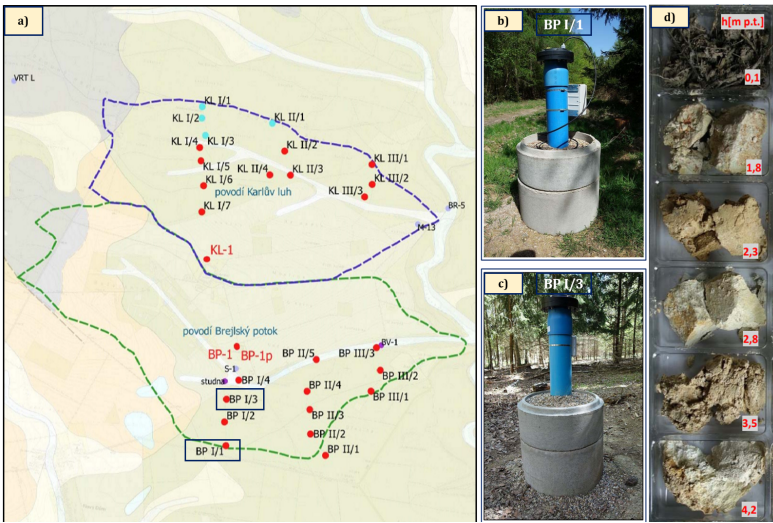


Figure 2: Location of boreholes selected for study. a) Shows all boreholes (soil profile) on the Amalia Lány watershed, b) Photo of sensors and location of soil profile BP-I/1, c) Photo of sensors and location of soil profile BP-I/3, d) Soil profile samples. From top to bottom, the soil profile is comprised of organic material, clay-sand, loam to marl, clayey; hard-clay, and angular fragments of argillaceous rocks. Sources: Esri | Powered by Esri



159 2.1. Geological Description

160 Amalia's geological surface is based on the slate Neoproterozoic. These
161 slates are composed of the Blovice Formation, which is composed of fine and
162 medium-sized debris, slate, and siltstones [WNP^{bl}], delicate and medium-
163 grained offal with clastic mica [$W^{sl}NP_{bl}$], and coarse-grained offal [W^hNP_{bl}].
164 The Neoproterozoic belongs to the geological scale of the last era of the Pre-
165 cambrian Supereon and the Proterozoic Eon. The Holocene and Pleistocene
166 deposits form the deepest part of the basin (where the streams Karl and
167 Brejl flow). The banks of the streams are covered by flush clayey and sandy
168 loam, places with rock fragments [Q^h], fluvial clays, sands, scraps [fQh], and
169 sediments of water reservoirs [nQ]. Pleistocene deposits on river banks consist
170 of clay and fragmented rocks [$_{hj}^sQ$]. A fault crosses the north section of the
171 basin from the west to the northeast. The entire west part of the study area
172 presents well-identified faults, which separate the Palaeozoic Carboniferous
173 Pennsylvania group from the Proterozoic Neoproterozoic Cryogenian group.

174
175 Toward the northwest, the geology belongs to the Palaeozoic Carbonif-
176 erous Pennsylvania group, composed of sandstones, siltstones, clay-stones,
177 conglomerates, volcanoclastics, and coal seams [Cr_2] belonging to the Kladno
178 formation. In the basin's centre, Quaternary-Holocene denudation [aQ] (an-
179 thropogenic deposits like heaps, landfills, and loops) are located. On the
180 northeast limits, deposits from the upper Pleistocene are identified; these de-
181 posits consist of sandy clay and clay with rock fragments [$^e_sQp^3$]. Toward the
182 southwest, spilitized basalt [βNP_{bl}] belonging to the Neoproterozoic group
183 predominates. To the south, in the upper topographic limits of the basin,
184 a classified formation of the Neogene period is identified. This geological
185 structure is formed by rocks of silicon and quartz [sN].

186 3. Methodology

187 In this section, the methods used to simulate soil–water dynamics and to
188 assess the impacts of climate change on groundwater recharge and evapora-
189 tion are described. The methodological framework combines a one-dimensional
190 soil hydrodynamic model with historical and climate model boundary con-
191 ditions to quantify long-term trends and assess the validity of the working
192 hypotheses.

193



194 The Methodology section is structured as follows. Section 3.1 presents the
195 hydrodynamical model, including its formulation, boundary conditions and
196 initial conditions. Section 3.2 describes the simulation periods considered,
197 distinguishing the historical baseline from the future climate projections.
198 Section 3.3 defines the indicators used to analyse changes in groundwater
199 recharge and evaporation and to evaluate the hypotheses formulated in sec-
200 tion 1.

201 3.1. Hydrodynamical Models

202 Recharge simulations have been performed with DRUtES open software
203 Kuráží and Mayer (2013). DRUtES solves the governing equations in 1/2/3
204 spatial dimensions using the finite element method. In this contribution, the
205 model for movement of water in variably saturated conditions was described
206 by Saito et al. (2006); Sakai et al. (2011) model that couples the transport of
207 water in the liquid and vapour phases with the transport of heat. DRUtES
208 integrates meteorological conditions as boundary conditions, root water up-
209 take using Feddes et al. (1978). In this research, the soil hydraulics properties
210 (SHP) are parametrised with the frequently used Mualem-van Genuchten
211 model van Genuchten (1980); Mualem (1976). The presence of snow and
212 freezing was neglected for this model infiltration. Figure 3 shows a compre-
213 hensive modelling system for estimating groundwater recharge by integrating
214 climate dynamics, soil properties, and advanced numerical simulations.

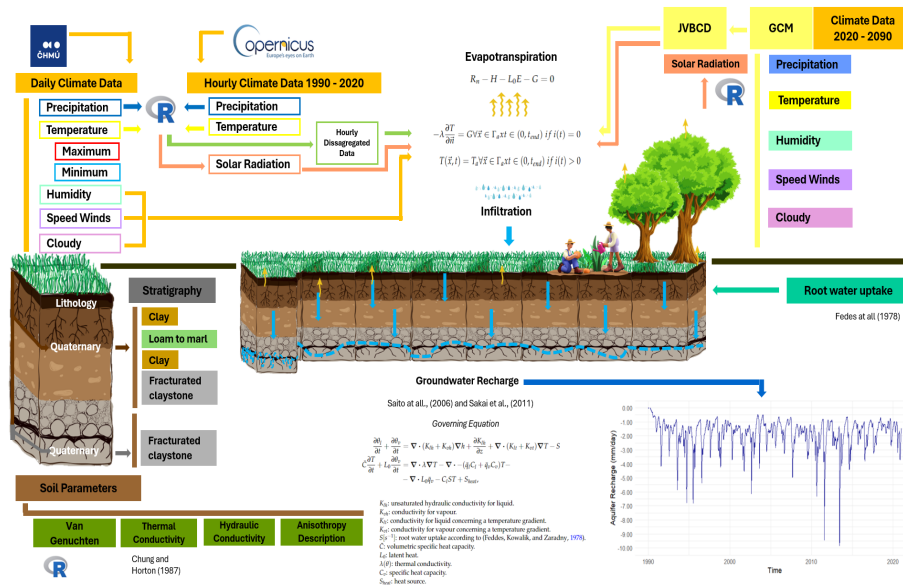


Figure 3: Integrated Modelling Framework for Groundwater Recharge Using Climate Data, Soil Properties, and Energy Balance Dynamics. Own elaboration.

Figure 3 illustrates a conceptual framework for modelling groundwater recharge, integrating climate data, soil properties, and governing equations. The input of climate data incorporates historical and future climate data. Hourly climate data from 1990 to 2020 are sourced from Copernicus and disaggregated from daily measurements, covering variables such as precipitation, temperature (maximum and minimum), humidity, wind speed, cloud cover, and solar radiation. Future projections for 2020 to 2090 are derived from GCMs under various scenarios, including the same variables to assess climate-driven impacts.

The Saito et al. (2006); Sakai et al. (2011) model (see equations below) is a coupled model; the solution is constituted by two independent variables, pressure head h [L] and temperature T . It further defines constitutive relations for the liquid and vapour water contents, and using derived flux equations, it further describes water, vapour and heat fluxes. The top boundary condition is defined by the surface energy balance equation. The Saito et al.



(2006); Sakai et al. (2011) are represented in the equations below:

$$\frac{\partial \theta_l}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \theta_v}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot [(K_{lh} + K_{vh}) \nabla h] + \frac{\partial K_{lh}}{\partial z} + \nabla \cdot [(K_{lt} + K_{vt}) \nabla T] - S, \quad (1)$$

$$C \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + L_0 \frac{\partial \theta_v}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot (\lambda \nabla T) - \nabla \cdot [(\bar{q}_l C_l + \bar{q}_v C_v) T] - \nabla \cdot (L_0 \bar{q}_v) - C_l S T + S_{\text{heat}}. \quad (2)$$

where:

- K_{lh} : unsaturated hydraulic conductivity of the liquid phase;
- K_{vh} : vapour-phase conductivity;
- K_{lt} : liquid-phase thermal coupling coefficient (flow driven by a temperature gradient);
- K_{vt} : vapour-phase thermal coupling coefficient;
- S : root water uptake sink term;
- C : volumetric heat capacity;
- L_0 : latent heat of vaporization;
- $\lambda(\theta)$: thermal conductivity;
- C_l : specific heat capacity of liquid water;
- S_{heat} : external heat source.

3.1.1. Domain setup

The rainfall/evaporation transformation into groundwater recharge is represented here by two soil profiles. We employ here one-dimensional modeling. The depth of the first soil profile (BP-1-1) was 4 m, and the depth of second soil profile (BP-1-3) was 2 m. The domain was nonuniformly discretized with a step size of 1 mm near the surface and 10 cm near the bottom boundary. The time-step was adaptively changing between fractions of seconds to 200 s following the methodology proposed by Kuráň et al. (2010). The governing equations were integrated using the linear finite element method, details in Kuráň and Mayer (2013); Kuraz et al. (2013). Figure 4 represents the domain setup for both soil profiles.

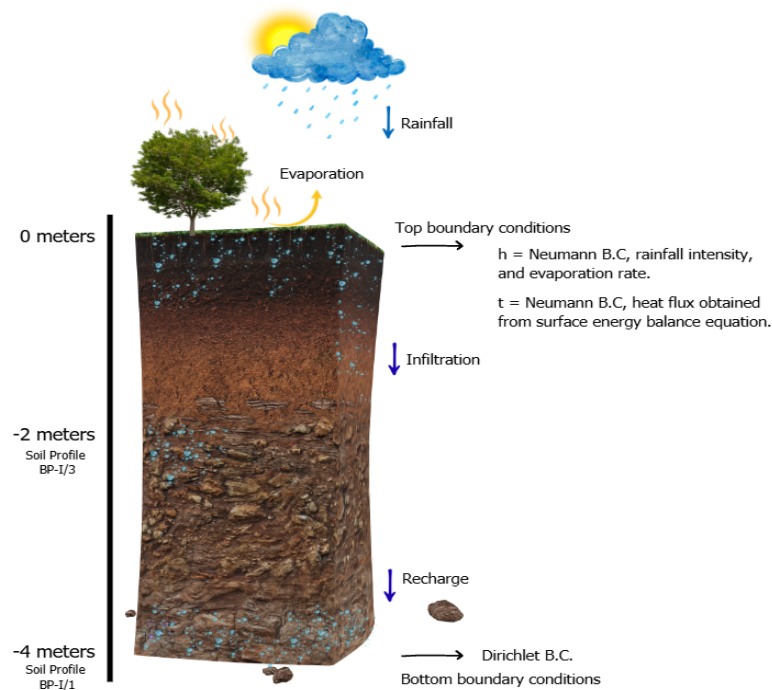


Figure 4: Schematic representation of the modelled soil column (0 to 4 m) and the main vertical fluxes (rainfall, evaporation, infiltration, and recharge). The top boundary is defined by Neumann boundary conditions for pressure head (as a function of rainfall intensity and evaporation rate) and for temperature T (heat flux derived from the surface energy balance), while the bottom boundary is prescribed as a Dirichlet condition. Own elaboration.

3.1.2. Boundary Conditions

Bottom boundary conditions. To ensure numerical stability, the model imposes Dirichlet boundary conditions for both pressure head (h) and temperature (T) at the bottom boundary. Although a free-drainage condition is commonly applied at the base of soil profiles, using it in this case would lead to a Neumann-only boundary formulation, which is often more susceptible to numerical instabilities. The lower boundary is located sufficiently deep relative to the land surface and the groundwater-recharge reference depth; therefore, prescribing constant boundary values (set to the mean h and T)



265 has a negligible influence on the simulated solution at the reference point.
266 The prescribed Dirichlet values are $h = 0$ and $T = 7^\circ \text{C}$, which means
267 groundwater table and average annual temperature for the study region.

268 *Top boundary conditions.* The top boundary conditions are based on Saito
269 et al. (2006); Sakai et al. (2011) model formulation. For the water flow
270 equation, the top boundary condition was given by time-dependent rainfall
271 and actual evaporation rate; for the heat equation, it was time-dependent soil
272 heat flux obtained from the surface energy balance equation. Both conditions
273 were Neumann-type conditions.

274 *Groundwater recharge reference point.* The groundwater recharge reference
275 point was defined at the mid-depth of the computational domain for both pro-
276 files. This location was selected to ensure sufficient separation from the lower
277 Dirichlet boundary and from the upper boundary representing atmospheric
278 forcing. At the same time, it is deep enough for all relevant vadose-zone
279 processes—such as root water uptake and vadose-zone transformations—to
280 fully develop above this point.

281 3.1.3. Initial Conditions

282 Since the initial conditions of the soil groundwater system are often im-
283 possible to achieve and since we presume that, for our long-term simulation,
284 the effect of the initial condition is negligible, we considered here a constant
285 and average distribution of soil temperature and water content.

286 *Soil layers distribution, and material properties.* The van Genuchten param-
287 eters describe the soil's water retention and hydraulic conductivity, which are
288 essential for modelling water movement through the soil. These values are
289 part of the van Genuchten model, widely used to simulate the relationship
290 between soil moisture, pressure head, and hydraulic conductivity, particu-
291 larly in unsaturated soils.

292
293 For Amalie Lany, the model was constructed with seven layers, each with
294 seven van Genuchten parameters, for the soil profile BP-I/1, and with five
295 layers, each with five van Genuchten parameters, for the soil profile BP-I/3.
296 The data used on van Genuchten came from 2 different sources. The first
297 source is data in situ, samples taken in the Amalia Lány watershed. This



298 data was taken directly on two borehole profiles, considering only the first
 299 20cm, and then the saturated volume, water content (θ_s) was estimated in a
 300 laboratory. For the lower soil horizons, this research handled soil type spec-
 301 ifications (see Figure 3).

302
 303 The hydraulic properties of the lower soil horizons were defined using
 304 parameter values reported by some authors as Carsel and Parrish (1988),
 305 Hilberts et al. (2005), Ghanbarian-Alavijeh et al. (2010) as a reference. The
 306 vegetation cover at the study site was taken from the publication of Chytrý
 307 (2012) and the uptake of root water was described according to the stress
 308 response function Feddes et al. (1978). The corresponding root water uptake
 309 parameters were adopted as reference from Schreel (2019), Rabbel et al.
 310 (2018). All soil hydraulic and vegetation-related parameters used in the
 311 simulations are listed in Tables 1 and 2.

Layer	Vertical Depth [m]	α [cm ⁻¹]	n	m	θ_r	θ_s	K_s [cm s ⁻¹]
1	0.00–0.04	0.543	3.047	1.330	0.090	0.627	1.61×10^{-6}
2	0.04–0.10	0.717	3.160	1.317	0.220	0.460	1.52×10^{-6}
3	0.10–0.20	0.503	2.900	1.390	0.000	0.437	1.42×10^{-6}
4	0.20–1.00	1.860	1.450	0.310	0.015	0.480	1.00×10^{-6}
5	1.00–2.00	0.990	1.430	0.300	0.020	0.500	7.86×10^{-6}
6	2.00–3.00	1.860	1.450	0.310	0.015	0.480	1.50×10^{-5}
7	3.00–4.00	0.430	1.360	0.260	0.030	0.520	1.50×10^{-5}

Table 1: Van Genuchten soil hydraulic parameters for soil profile BP-I/1

Layer	Vertical Depth [m]	α [cm ⁻¹]	n	m	θ_r	θ_s	K_s [cm s ⁻¹]
1	0.00–0.04	0.553	3.473	1.287	0.163	0.703	1.56×10^{-6}
2	0.04–0.10	0.583	3.253	1.307	0.210	0.453	1.53×10^{-6}
3	0.10–0.20	0.403	2.823	1.360	0.000	0.407	1.51×10^{-6}
4	0.20–1.00	0.586	3.254	0.692	0.210	0.455	7.86×10^{-5}
5	1.00–2.00	0.586	3.254	0.692	0.210	0.455	7.86×10^{-5}

Table 2: Van Genuchten soil hydraulic parameters for soil profile BP-I/3



312 3.2. Simulation Period

313 3.2.1. Historical Simulation

314 The climatic data (from 1990 to 2020) were obtained by the Czech Hy-
 315 drometeorological Institute (CHMI) from the meteorological stations closest
 316 to the study area. The Lany meteorological station was selected to analyse
 317 the climatic variability in the Amalia Lány area, which holds the longest cli-
 318 mate records available for this area. The dataset from 1990 to 2020 included
 319 precipitation, maximum and minimum air temperature, relative humidity,
 320 wind speed, and cloud cover. As solar radiation measurements were un-
 321 available, hourly clear-sky global horizontal irradiance (GHI) was estimated
 322 in RStudio R Core Team (2024). Solar altitude was calculated using the
 323 `getSunlightPosition()` function from the `suncalc` package (Thieurmél and
 324 Elmarhraoui, 2026), and GHI was subsequently estimated using the Haur-
 325 witz clear-sky model (Haurwitz, 1945; Reno et al., 2012).

326
 327 This synthetic data was disaggregated from daily to hourly scale using
 328 data from The Fifth Generation ECMWF Reanalysis (ERA5), which oper-
 329 ates on an hourly time scale. ERA5 Hersbach et al. (2018) is a comprehensive
 330 reanalysis dataset, available since 1959, that assimilates a wide range of atmo-
 331 spheric and surface-level observations. ([https://cds.climate.copernicus.](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/)
 332 [eu/](https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/)).

334 *Reanalysis Dataset Disaggregation. Precipitation an temperature disag-* 335 *gregation*

336
 337 Precipitation and temperature disaggregation was used to adjust ERA5
 338 hourly data to locally observed conditions. For precipitation, observed daily
 339 totals were used to correct potential biases in ERA5 estimates by proportion-
 340 ally redistributing hourly precipitation according to the model's temporal
 341 pattern. For temperature, ERA5 hourly values were adjusted using locally
 342 recorded daily maximum and minimum temperatures, ensuring that diurnal
 343 variability and temperature extremes more realistically represented the con-
 344 ditions observed at the station. This procedure provided more consistent and
 345 representative hourly series for subsequent hydrological and climate analyses.



3.2.2. Climate Model Projections

The evaluation and assessment of climate models have been largely guided by the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP), which has dominated the field of climate change attribution and future projections for the past two decades Kelley et al. (2020). This international project involves extensive collaboration between climate modelling groups worldwide. The last phase, CMIP6, began accepting data in 2018 in preparation for the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) 6th Assessment Report (AR6) Eyring et al. (2016). These models provide critical information to understand regional climate impacts and develop strategies for climate adaptation. The climate models used in this research are described below.

Modelling Centre	Model	Country	Resolution	Ensemble	Scenarios
Australian Community Climate and Earth System Simulator	ACCESS-CM2	Australia	$\sim 1.25^\circ \times 1.875^\circ$	r1ilp1f1	SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, SSP5-8.5
The Canadian Earth System Model	CanESM5	Canada	$\sim 2.81^\circ \times 2.81^\circ$	r1ilp1f1	
Centre National de Recherches Météorologiques – Earth System Model	CNRM-ESM2-1	France	$\sim 1.40^\circ \times 1.40^\circ$	r1ilp1f2	
Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory Earth System Model	GFDL-ESM4	USA	$1.0^\circ \times 1.0^\circ$	r1ilp1f1	
Institute for Numerical Mathematics	INM-CM5	Russia	$1.5^\circ \times 2.0^\circ$	r1ilp1f1	
Institut Pierre-Simon Laplace	IPSL-CM6A-LR	France	$\sim 1.3^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$	r1ilp1f1	
Max Planck Institute Earth System Model	MPI-LR	Germany	$\sim 1.875^\circ \times 1.875^\circ$	r1ilp1f1	
The Meteorological Research Institute Earth System Model Version 2.0	MRI-ESM2-0	Japan	$1.125^\circ \times 1.125^\circ$	r1ilp1f1	

Table 3: Overview of the CMIP6 Earth System Models used in long term groundwater recharge.

Shared Socio-economic Pathways (SSPs). Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs) are forward-looking development pathways used to explore possible futures of socioeconomic development throughout the 21st century. The SSPs consist of five scenarios, each characterised by different socio-economic conditions, including sustainable development, regional rivalry, inequality, fossil-fueled development, and middle-of-the-road development Riahi et al. (2017). These scenarios provide an essential framework for assessing the potential impacts of different socio-economic trends on climate change. The Radiative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) provide a set of greenhouse gas concentration trajectories that define the level of radiative forcing by the end of the century. The RCPs are used with SSPs to determine the level of climate



change mitigation required to meet specific targets. In this study, four SSP-based scenarios are used, categorized along two axes: challenges to mitigation and adaptation.

1. SSP1 (Sustainability): Low challenges for mitigation and adaptation Riahi et al. (2017).
2. SSP2 (Middle of the Road): Medium challenges to mitigation and adaptation Riahi et al. (2017); Van Vuuren et al. (2017).
3. SSP3 (Regional Rivalry): High challenges to mitigation and adaptation. Riahi et al. (2017)
4. SSP5 (Fossil-fueled Development): High challenges to mitigation, low challenges to adaptation Riahi et al. (2017); Kriegler et al. (2017)

Joint Variable Bias Correction and downscaling (JVBCD). The methodology employed in this research is called Joint Variable Bias Correction and Downscaling (JVBCD), whose mathematical foundation of JVBCD lies in its ability to address joint probability distributions and the preservation of inter-variable dependencies. This method is designed to correct statistical biases in the projections of the General Circulation Model (GCM) while maintaining significant spatial and temporal relationships between climate variables, such as the correlation between temperature and precipitation Zhang and Georgakakos (2012), El Sharif and Georgakakos (2023b), El Sharif and Georgakakos (2023a).

3.3. Definition of indicators for hypotheses evaluation

To evaluate the working hypothesis that, under ongoing climate change, evaporation in the Amalia Lány watershed will increase while groundwater recharge will decline due to higher atmospheric demand and altered precipitation patterns (see Section 1), a set of quantitative indicators was defined for both groundwater recharge and evapotranspiration. These indicators were derived from the simulation of Richards and the heat flow equation using the setup from 3.1 Saito et al. (2006) and Sakai et al. (2011), for the two soil profiles (BP-I/1 and BP-I/3) and were computed consistently for the historical baseline and all future climate periods. Groundwater recharge was represented by the simulated deep percolation at the lower boundary of the soil column, i.e. the downward water flux across the groundwater table prescribed by the Dirichlet condition (Section 3). Actual evaporation was defined as the sum of simulated soil evaporation at the upper boundary of



403 the soil profile.

404

405 In order to reduce the influence of interannual variability and to highlight
 406 long-term behaviour, annual recharge and evapotranspiration series were fur-
 407 ther averaged over decadal periods for the historical baseline (1990–2019) and
 408 for each future scenario considered: SSPs1-2.6, SSPs2-4.5, SSPs3-7.0, and
 409 SSPs4-8.5. For each climate model and scenario combination, loess trends
 410 in decadal were estimated. To quantify the magnitude of climate-driven
 411 changes, anomalies of recharge and evaporation were computed for each pe-
 412 riod as differences relative to the historical baseline means.

413

414 Taken together, these indicators allow a direct test of the hypothesis that
 415 (i) actual and future evaporation increases in response to enhanced atmo-
 416 spheric demand, and (ii) groundwater recharge declines under the combined
 417 effects of warming and modified precipitation regimes in the Amalia Lány
 418 watershed. The sign, magnitude and significance of the simulated trends,
 419 as well as the relative changes between periods, are therefore used as the
 420 primary criteria for accepting or rejecting the working hypothesis.

421

422 Model simulations were performed using the disaggregated hourly mete-
 423 orological forcing derived from ERA5 and local observations. Each climate
 424 scenario was computed independently using a single CPU core. Considering
 425 two soil profiles and 32 climate combinations, corresponding to eight climate
 426 models and four emission scenarios, a total of 64 CPU cores were used. The
 427 simulations were run on a workstation equipped with an Intel(R) Core(TM)
 428 i9-14900K CPU architecture. The total simulation runtime was 25.6 days for
 429 profile BP-I-1 and 12.1 days for profile BP-I-3.

430

431 The number of simulation time levels corresponded to the number of
 432 records available in the observation files, with each record representing one
 433 hourly input step. In total, 21,039,779 time levels were simulated, requiring
 434 21,287,360 calls to the linear equation solver, with an average of 1.011767
 435 solver iterations per time level. For each iteration, the BP-I-1 profile in-
 436 cluded 322 unknowns, corresponding to 171 nodes with two unknowns per
 437 node: temperature, T , and pressure head, h . For the BP-I-3 profile, the
 438 numerical problem included 152 unknowns, corresponding to 71 nodes.

439

440 Model outputs were subsequently aggregated according to the variable an-



441 alyzed. Flux-related variables, such as precipitation, infiltration, and ground-
 442 water recharge, were accumulated over daily periods, whereas state variables,
 443 such as temperature, soil moisture, and pressure head, were summarized us-
 444 ing mean values. This aggregation allowed the hourly simulations to be
 445 interpreted at hydrologically meaningful temporal scales and compared with
 446 observed and scenario-based climate indicators.

447 **4. Results and Discussion**

448 *4.1. Groundwater Recharge 1990-2020*

449 Groundwater recharge during 1990–2020 exhibits clear interannual vari-
 450 ability driven primarily by precipitation dynamics and moderated by at-
 451 mospheric demand. In general, recharge increases during wetter years and
 452 decreases during extended dry spells, reflecting the dependence of infiltration-
 453 driven recharge on rainfall intensity, event sequencing, and antecedent soil
 454 moisture. Results for the section 4.1 are presented in 2 soils profiles: Soil
 455 Profile BP-I/1 (section 4.1.1) and Soil Profile BP-I/3 (section 4.1.2).

456 *4.1.1. Soil Profile BP-I/1*

457 Infiltration analysis for the BP-I/1 was conducted at the lower point. Fig-
 458 ure 5 illustrates the correlation between precipitation and aquifer recharge at
 459 -4 meters. The correlation between precipitation and aquifer recharge from
 460 1990 to 1999 was relatively stable, with recharge rates generally fluctuating
 461 between 1 mm/day and 3 mm/day in response to varying precipitation levels.
 462 There are instances of minor recharge spikes following significant precipita-
 463 tion events, indicating a steady but moderate recharge process. The period
 464 from 2000 to 2010 marks a phase of increased variability in both precipitation
 465 and aquifer recharge. Notable negative recharge events were observed around
 466 2000/2001, corresponding to periods of high precipitation followed by rapid
 467 declines in recharge. This suggests potential saturation or runoff effects, in
 468 which excess rainfall could not be effectively absorbed by the aquifer, leading
 469 to temporary drops in recharge rates.

470

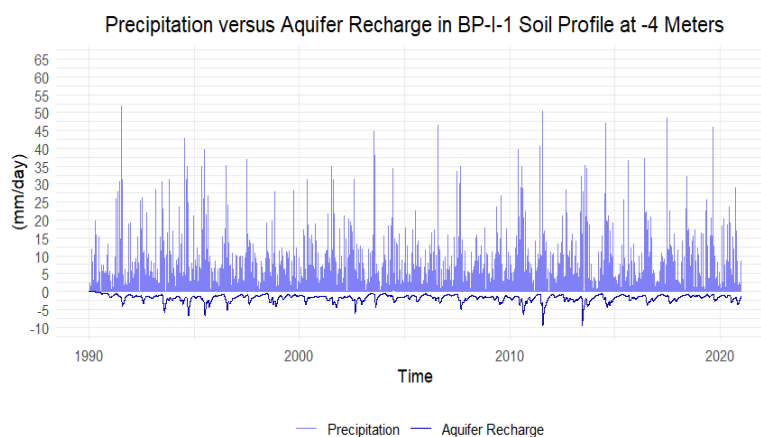


Figure 5: Precipitation versus aquifer recharge at -4 meters soil profile BP-I/1

471 In the last decade of Figure 5, the recharge behaviour gradually returns
 472 to a more stable pattern, despite some negative recharge spikes still evident
 473 around the early 2010s. The frequency and intensity of precipitation events
 474 influence the overall recharge rates. Still, there appears to be a slight negative
 475 trend in stabilisation towards the end of this period, indicating a potential
 476 decline in aquifer recharge.

477
 478 Regarding the data variability, in autumn, recharge shows an initial pos-
 479 itive trend, a decline around 1997–2002/03, recovery through 2012/13, and
 480 a renewed decrease toward 2020. Spring increases by ≈ 0.5 mm during 1990–
 481 1998, followed by a sustained negative trend through 2020 (a cumulative
 482 decline of about 0.2–0.3 mm), consistent with declining precipitation, higher
 483 maximum temperatures, increased evapotranspiration, and altered soil-moisture
 484 dynamics. Summer showed a modest rise in 1990–1995 ($\sim +0.3$ mm) is fol-
 485 lowed by a decline in 1998–2002/03 (≈ -0.3 mm), a rebound peaking near 2010
 486 ($\approx +0.5$ mm), and then a sharp drop by 2020 (≈ -0.7 to -0.8 mm). Winter
 487 exhibits subtler variability, with a small rise in the early 1990s ($\approx +0.3$ mm),
 488 a mild dip around 2000–2005, recovery during 2005–2015, and a gradual shift
 489 toward negative trends after 2015.



4.1.2. Soil Profile BP-I/3

Figure 6 illustrates that while precipitation events are frequent and exhibit significant peaks, the corresponding aquifer recharge shows less variability and lower magnitude changes in response to these events. This pattern suggests an effect of soil and geological properties on water infiltration, where only a fraction of the precipitation effectively contributes to groundwater recharge.

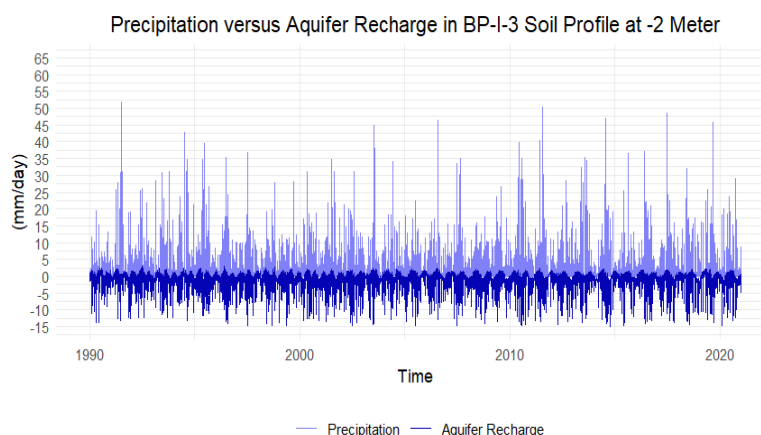


Figure 6: Precipitation versus aquifer recharge at -2m, soil profile BP-I/3

Notable peaks in precipitation, particularly those exceeding 20 mm/day, do not always directly correspond to significant increases in recharge rates, indicating that other factors such as soil saturation, antecedent moisture conditions, and evapotranspiration could play a crucial role in limiting the amount of water that reaches the aquifer. The relatively stable but lower magnitude of recharge compared to precipitation highlights the delayed and diffuse nature of groundwater replenishment at this depth, which could be due to slow percolation rates and the buffering capacity of the soil layers.



4.2. Long-Term Assessment of Groundwater Recharge in the Amalie Lany Aquifer

4.2.1. Soil Profile BP-I/1

The figure 7 illustrates the long-term anomalies of groundwater recharge in the Amalie Lany Aquifer for the BP-I/1 soil profile under four climate scenarios (SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5) and five soil depths (-0.10 m, -0.50 m, -1.00 m, -2.00 m, and -3.00 m). Overall, the results show that recharge anomalies are generally small during the early decades but become increasingly negative under the more severe emissions pathways, particularly after mid-century. This indicates a progressive reduction in groundwater recharge relative to the reference period, with the strongest declines occurring under higher greenhouse gas forcing.

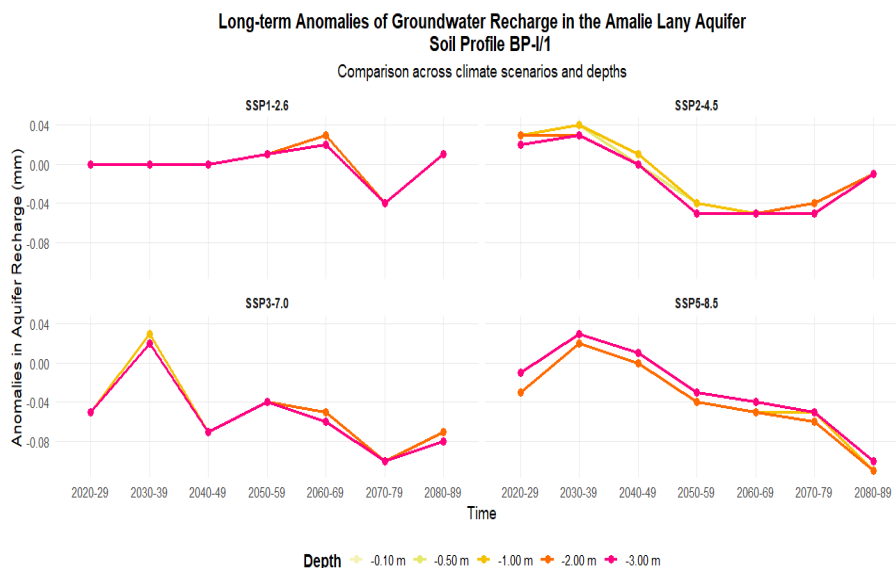


Figure 7: Long-Term Anomalies of Groundwater Recharge in the Amalie Lany Aquifer, Soil Profile BP-I/1.

- **SSP1-2.6:** Under SSP1-2.6, recharge anomalies remain modest throughout the century: near-zero at all depths in 2020–2049, a mid-century increase peaking around +0.03 mm that is most pronounced in the shallow layers (−0.10 and −0.50 m), and a late-century decline, especially



at depth (-2.00 and -3.00 m), reaching about -0.04 mm. The shallow layers show more consistent, slightly positive anomalies, whereas the deeper layers are more variable and exhibit the strongest late-century reductions. Overall, the anomaly range is narrow (≈ -0.04 to $+0.03$ mm), indicating only minor changes in groundwater recharge.

- **SSP2-4.5:** Under SSP2-4.5, recharge anomalies are initially slightly positive across all depths, peaking at about $+0.03$ – 0.04 mm in 2030–2039 (most pronounced in the shallow layers), before declining to near zero by 2040–2049. From 2050 onward, negative anomalies dominate, reaching around -0.05 mm in the deeper layers (-2.00 to -3.00 m) during the 2060s–2070s, suggesting reduced recharge under changing climatic conditions. By 2080–2089, anomalies stabilize near -0.01 mm, with deeper layers remaining more adversely affected than shallow ones.
- **SSP3-7.0:** Under high emissions, recharge anomalies shift from slightly positive in 2020–2039 ($+0.02$ to $+0.04$ mm, strongest in the shallow layers) to negative in 2040–2069 (≈ -0.05 to -0.07 mm, particularly at depth), and remain predominantly negative by 2070–2089. By late century, the deepest layer (-3.00 m) approaches -0.08 mm, while the shallow layers are around -0.07 mm, indicating a sustained, depth-amplified decline in groundwater recharge.
- **SSP5-8.5:** Under an extreme-emissions scenario, recharge anomalies are slightly positive in 2020–2039 (up to $\sim +0.03$ mm at -0.10 m), turn negative by 2040–2049, and worsen after 2050, particularly at depth (-2.00 to -3.00 m; ~ -0.06 mm). By 2080–2089, declines are substantial across all depths, with the deepest layer (-3.00 m) exhibiting the largest deficits (~ -0.10 to -0.11 mm). Overall, deeper aquifer zones are most affected, underscoring heightened vulnerability and the need for proactive groundwater management.

4.2.2. Soil Profile BP-I/3

The figure 8 presents the long-term anomalies of groundwater recharge in the Amalie Lany Aquifer for the BP-1/3 soil profile under four climate scenarios (SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5) and three depths within the soil profile (-0.10 m, -0.50 m, and -1.00 m). Overall, the results indicate that groundwater recharge anomalies are predominantly negative



across most decades, suggesting a long-term reduction in recharge relative to the reference period.

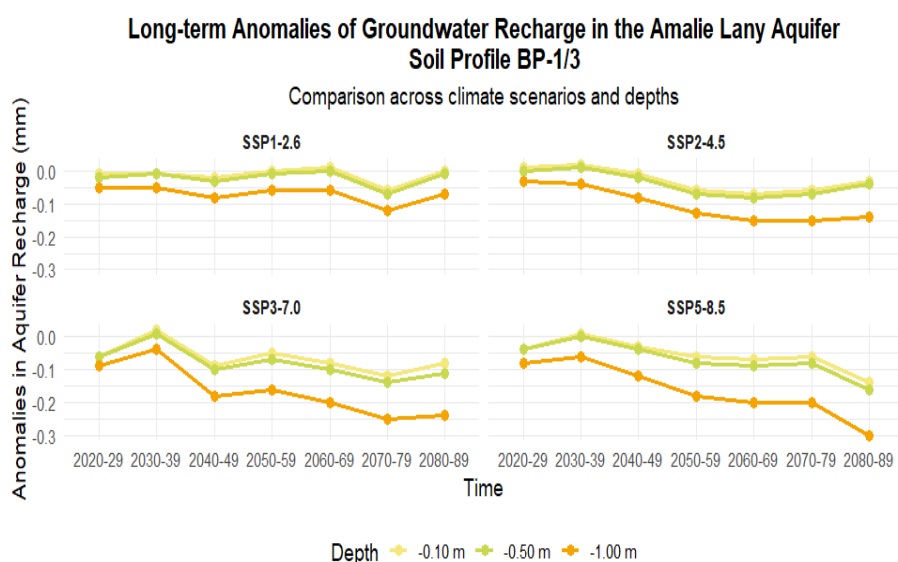


Figure 8: Long-Term Anomalies of Groundwater Recharge in the Amalie Lany Aquifer, Soil Profile BP-I/3.

- **Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSP1-2.6):** Groundwater recharge anomalies grow as groundwater levels drop, revealing higher system sensitivity with depth. Shallow levels (-0.10 m) stay near zero (≈ 0 to -0.01 mm), indicating resilience; mid-depth (-0.50 m) shows moderate, steadily worsening deficits (≈ -0.01 mm in 2020–2029 to ≈ -0.07 mm by 2080–2089); and deeper levels (-1.00 m) experience the largest declines (≈ -0.05 mm early, reaching ≈ -0.12 mm by century's end). Anomalies intensify after ~ 2040 , making 2040–2089 a critical window, especially at -1.00 m, underscoring the need for timely, adaptive groundwater-management measures to mitigate worsening recharge deficits.
- **Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSP2-4.5):** Recharge declines over time, with relatively favourable levels in 1990–2009 and widening



571 scenario differences from mid-century onward. Shallow groundwater
 572 (-0.10 m) is the most stable, averaging about 0.70–0.80 mm early in
 573 the record and settling near ~0.60 mm later, whereas mid-depth (-
 574 0.50 m) decreases from ~0.70 mm to ~0.50–0.55 mm by century’s end.
 575 The deepest level (-1.00 m) exhibits the steepest losses, falling from
 576 ~0.65 mm to below 0.50 mm, highlighting the greater sensitivity of
 577 deeper zones to combined climatic and hydrological pressures. Shal-
 578 low water tables (-0.10 meters) show minimal anomalies throughout
 579 the century, with values ranging from 0.00 to -0.03 mm, indicating low
 580 variability to climatic stress. Moderate water tables (-0.50 meters) ex-
 581 hibit slightly larger anomalies, reaching a peak at -0.07 mm between
 582 2060 and 2069, suggesting a progressive sensitivity to emissions and
 583 hydrological changes. However, deeper point observation (-1.00 me-
 584 ters) experienced the most pronounced declines, with anomalies wors-
 585 ening significantly after 2040 and reaching critical values of -0.15 mm
 586 in 2070–2079 and -0.14 mm in 2080–2089.

587 • ***Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSP3-7.0)***: For the SSP3-7.0,
 588 the shallow groundwater (-0.10 m) maintains the highest and most sta-
 589 ble recharge over time, showing the lowest impact from climate and hy-
 590 drological changes. Intermediate depth (-0.50 m) experiences a moder-
 591 ate but progressive decline. The deepest level (-1.00 m) is the most vul-
 592 nerable, with the recharge dropping the fastest and the most, especially
 593 after 2040, and stabilizing at values below 0.40 mm by 2080–2089. The
 594 problems in recharge are small for shallow water tables (-0.10 m). Mod-
 595 erate depths (-0.50 m) show a gradual worsening, reaching around -0.14
 596 mm by 2080–2089. The deepest level (-1.00 m) experiences the largest
 597 anomalies, dropping to about -0.25 mm around 2070–2079 and remain-
 598 ing strongly negative afterwards. The period 2040–2089 is a turning
 599 point: anomalies increase dramatically in all cases, but especially for
 600 -1.00 m, revealing that deeper aquifers are much more vulnerable to
 601 combined climate change and groundwater stress.

602 • ***Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSP5-8.5)***: Shallow water ta-
 603 bles (-0.10 m) remain largely resilient, with recharge anomalies remain-
 604 ing very small throughout the century. Moderate depths (-0.50 m) show
 605 a steady but limited decline, reaching about -0.14 mm by 2080–2089.
 606 In contrast, deep water tables (-1.00 m) experience the strongest im-



607 pact: anomalies intensify after 2040, reaching around -0.25 mm before
608 slightly stabilising, revealing high vulnerability to climate and ground-
609 water stress. The period 2040–2089 is a critical turning point, when
610 anomalies grow sharply, and the contrast between shallow, moderate,
611 and deep water tables becomes much more pronounced as greenhouse
612 gas emissions increase.

613 4.3. Long-term evaporation

614 Figure 9 displays long-term anomalies in evaporation for the topsoil layer
615 in the Amalie Lany region under the greenhouse gas emissions scenarios. The
616 anomalies are presented as deviations (mm/day) across different decades, re-
617 flecting shifts in evaporation patterns over time. The figure illustrates the
618 long-term evolution of evaporation anomalies in the Amalie Lany topsoil layer
619 under four Shared Socioeconomic Pathway (SSP) climate scenarios from the
620 2020s to the 2080s. Overall, all scenarios show positive anomalies through-
621 out the study period, indicating a persistent increase in evaporation relative
622 to the reference baseline. However, the magnitude and temporal progres-
623 sion of these anomalies differ substantially among scenarios, with stronger
624 greenhouse gas emission pathways generally producing larger increases in
625 evaporation over time.

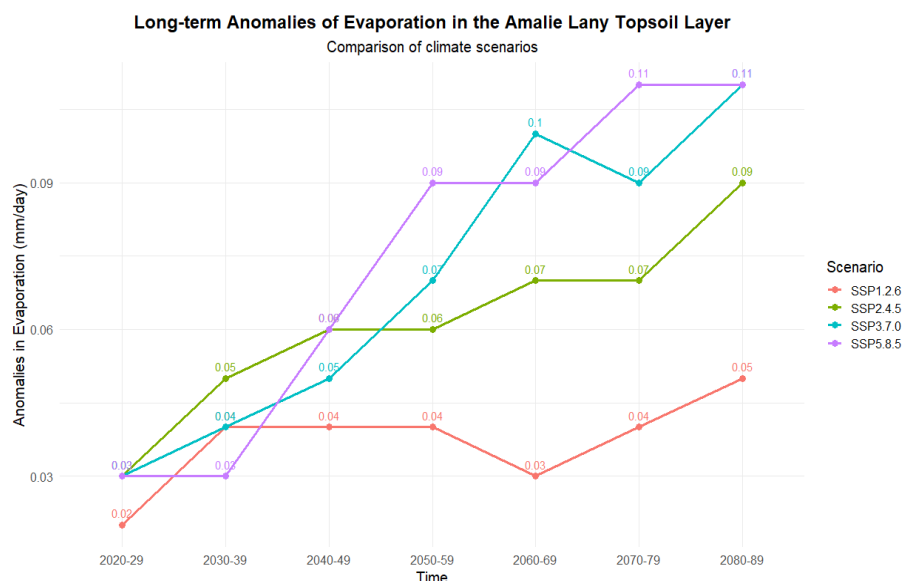


Figure 9: Long-term Anomalies of Evaporation in the Amalie Lany Topsoil Layer

- **Low Greenhouse Gas Emissions (SSP1-2.6):** the data for this scenario reveal a gradual increase in evaporation anomalies from 2020 to 2089, highlighting a consistent upward trend over time. Starting at 0.02 mm/day during 2020–2029, the anomalies increase steadily, reaching 0.05 mm/day in 2080–2089. This progression suggests a warming climate, even under a low-GHG scenario, with rising temperatures and shifting atmospheric conditions likely driving higher evaporation rates. Despite the overall increase, the anomalies exhibit minor fluctuations between decades. From 2030–2039 to 2050–2059, the anomalies remain stable at 0.04 mm/day. However, during 2060–2069, a slight decline was observed to 0.03 mm/day before it rose again to 0.05 mm/day in the 1980s.
- **Intermediate Greenhouse Gas Emissions (SSP2-4.5):** The Anomalies start at 0.03 mm/day during the 2020–2029 period and increase incrementally over time, reaching 0.09 mm/day in the 2080–2089 period. This upward trend reflects the influence of moderate greenhouse gas emissions on atmospheric and soil dynamics, leading to enhanced



643 evaporation rates. From 2030 to 2049, the anomalies climb from 0.05
 644 mm/day to 0.06 mm/day, while the 2050s and 2060s exhibit similar
 645 rates. By the 2020s and 2080s, the anomalies escalated further to 0.07
 646 mm/day, eventually reaching 0.09 mm/day.

647 • **High Greenhouse Gas Emissions (SSP3-7.0):** Evaporation shows
 648 a consistent incremental increase across the decades, with several no-
 649 table milestones. During the 2020–2029 period, it rises gradually from
 650 0.66 mm/day to 0.70 mm/day, marking the early phase of warming
 651 effects under a high-emissions pathway. A sharper increase is ob-
 652 served between 2030 and 2059, when evaporation rates climb from 0.72
 653 mm/day to 0.75 mm/day, likely reflecting the influence of stronger
 654 mid-century temperature increases. This upward trend continues dur-
 655 ing 2060–2089, with evaporation reaching 0.77 mm/day and finally 0.78
 656 mm/day in the last decade, highlighting the cumulative and compound-
 657 ing effects of sustained greenhouse gas emissions.

658 • **Very High Greenhouse Gas Emissions (SSP5-8.5):** Long-term
 659 anomalies of evaporation in the Amalie Lany under the very high
 660 greenhouse gas emission highlight a progressive increase in evaporation
 661 anomalies over the studied period. Beginning at 0.03 mm/day in the
 662 2020–2029 decade, the anomalies double to 0.06 mm/day by 2040–2049
 663 and continue to increase steadily to 0.11 mm/day by the 2080–2089
 664 period. Distinct milestones mark the growth in anomalies. A notable
 665 increase occurs between 2040–2059, with anomalies rising sharply from
 666 0.06 mm/day to 0.09 mm/day, and this level is maintained through
 667 2060–2069. By the final two decades, 2070–2089, anomalies peak at
 668 0.11 mm/day, indicating a consistent trajectory toward greater evapo-
 669 ration under extreme emissions scenarios.

670 4.4. *Effects of Precipitation and Temperature in Lany Groundwater Recharge*

671 The results from the Lány site reveal a central hydroclimatic message:
 672 groundwater recharge is not controlled by precipitation alone, but by the
 673 interaction between rainfall, temperature, evaporation, soil hydraulic prop-
 674 erties, and the timing and intensity of meteorological events. This finding is
 675 consistent with previous studies showing that recharge dynamics in Central
 676 European hydrogeological systems are highly sensitive to rainfall variabil-
 677 ity (Haidu and Nistor (2020); Nistor (2019)). Because precipitation governs



678 the volume of water available for infiltration, fluctuations in its amount and
 679 timing directly affect subsurface recharge processes and, ultimately, the long-
 680 term sustainability of groundwater resources (Grinevskiy et al. (2021), and
 681 Szűcs et al. (2020)). This confirms that groundwater recharge in Central
 682 Bohemia is highly climate-sensitive and that even modest changes in hydro-
 683 climatic balance can alter subsurface replenishment.

684
 685 When observing the historical basis in the study area, the dry years of
 686 2015, 2018, and 2019 clearly illustrate this sensitivity. During these years,
 687 reduced precipitation produced marked declines in recharge at Amalie Lány,
 688 supporting the conclusion that recharge in this hydrogeological setting is
 689 highly vulnerable to rainfall deficits. The pronounced rainfall deficit in 2015
 690 caused soil desiccation and affected vegetation health in Central Europe, as
 691 observed in the Czech Republic, Poland, and Slovakia Orth et al. (2016).
 692 However, the recharge signal is not simply a linear response to annual pre-
 693 cipitation totals. Rather, the results suggest that persistent precipitation
 694 deficits, when combined with warmer conditions, amplify recharge decline by
 695 reducing soil moisture availability and increasing atmospheric water demand,
 696 thereby weakening the effective transfer of water into deeper subsurface lay-
 697 ers. This is particularly important in the lower layer, where the correlation
 698 between rainfall deficits and recharge reduction appears stronger, indicating
 699 greater sensitivity to long-term hydroclimatic stress.

700
 701 These findings are consistent with broader evidence from the Czech Re-
 702 public and Central Europe, where severe droughts have repeatedly affected
 703 water resources during the last decades (Potopová et al. (2018); Trnka et al.
 704 (2016); Brazdil et al. (2015); Hlavinka et al. (2015); Dubrovsky et al. (2009)).
 705 In Lány, the influence of drought is especially apparent during spring, when
 706 reduced rainfall, positive temperature anomalies, lower cloud cover, and en-
 707 hanced potential evapotranspiration collectively suppress recharge. The pro-
 708 longed dry phase between 2014 and 2019, therefore, should not be interpreted
 709 as a sequence of isolated anomalies, but rather as part of a larger regional
 710 pattern of hydroclimatic deterioration affecting groundwater systems. In this
 711 context, Lány acts as a representative local-scale observatory of broader en-
 712 vironmental change in Central Europe.

713
 714 The period between 2014 and 2019, characterised by prolonged dry con-
 715 ditions, resulted in a significant reduction in groundwater levels, as corrobo-



716 rated by data from the Czech Hydrometeorological Institute (CHMI) moni-
 717 toring network Kašpárek et al. (2022). These droughts were exacerbated by
 718 positive temperature anomalies, reduced cloud cover, and increased poten-
 719 tial evapotranspiration (PET), conditions that severely limited soil moisture
 720 availability, further stressing groundwater resources Potop et al. (2014). A
 721 key contribution of this study is that it demonstrates a critical paradox of
 722 climate change impacts on groundwater: stable or near-stable mean precipi-
 723 tation does not necessarily imply stable groundwater recharge.

724 4.4.1. Longterm Groundwater Recharge

725 Projected warming in the Lány area under all SSP pathways represents
 726 a major constraint on future groundwater recharge. In particular, the high-
 727 emission scenarios SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 indicate a progressively less favourable
 728 recharge regime, as rising temperatures are expected to intensify evaporative
 729 losses and reduce the fraction of precipitation that effectively infiltrates into
 730 the aquifer. This is not a marginal adjustment in the water balance, but a
 731 structural shift in recharge efficiency under climate forcing. In this regard,
 732 Kašpárek (2007) reported an increase in evaporation of approximately 5 mm
 733 in Central Europe, a trend that is fully consistent with the projected warming
 734 for Amalie Lány. If this thermal trajectory persists through 2089, the hydro-
 735 logical consequence is clear: even in the absence of large declines in annual
 736 precipitation, aquifer replenishment may become increasingly constrained by
 737 climate-driven atmospheric demand.

739 A key finding of this study is the identification of a critical hydrocli-
 740 matic paradox: stable or near-stable mean precipitation does not necessarily
 741 translate into stable groundwater recharge. During the short-term period
 742 (2020–2034), projected precipitation remains nearly constant, averaging 1.58
 743 mm/year, while temperature variability across SSP scenarios is relatively lim-
 744 ited, ranging from 9.35°C to 9.49°C. Under these apparently stable climatic
 745 conditions, simulated recharge remains broadly similar across most scenarios,
 746 with SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, and SSP5-8.5 yielding values close to 1.20 mm/day
 747 and SSP3-7.0 showing a slightly lower recharge rate of 1.16 mm/day. How-
 748 ever, this apparent short-term stability should not be interpreted as evidence
 749 of hydrological resilience. Rather, it may reflect a transient balance in which
 750 the effects of warming are still modest enough to avoid a pronounced disrup-
 751 tion of recharge processes, even though the system may already be moving



753 toward a less efficient rainfall–recharge relationship.

754

755 In the mid-term period (2035–2059), all SSP scenarios project contin-
 756 ued warming, with mean annual temperatures increasing from 9.73°C under
 757 SSP1-2.6 to 10.27°C under SSP5-8.5. This sustained thermal rise is likely to
 758 impose increasing constraints on groundwater recharge, even though mean
 759 annual precipitation remains broadly stable at around 1.60 mm/day. Under
 760 these conditions, higher temperatures are expected to enhance evaporation
 761 and evapotranspiration, thereby reducing the fraction of precipitation that
 762 effectively infiltrates into the aquifer. The progressive decline in simulated
 763 recharge across most scenarios reflects this emerging imbalance, with recharge
 764 decreasing to 1.18 mm/day under SSP1-2.6, 1.16 mm/day under SSP2-4.5,
 765 and 1.14 mm/day under SSP3-7.0. The hydrological significance of this result
 766 is substantial: climate warming can reduce net recharge even in the absence
 767 of major declines in annual precipitation. This decoupling between rainfall
 768 totals and recharge is one of the most important implications of the study,
 769 as it indicates that groundwater vulnerability may intensify under climate
 770 change even where precipitation projections appear relatively neutral. In
 771 this sense, the mid-century projections suggest that groundwater systems in
 772 Lány may become increasingly vulnerable not because of precipitation vari-
 773 ability, but because warming progressively makes precipitation less effective
 774 as a recharge source.

775

776 Interestingly, the SSP5-8.5 scenario yields a slightly higher recharge rate
 777 (1.19 mm/day) despite being associated with the highest projected mean
 778 temperature (10.27°C). Rather than indicating improved groundwater con-
 779 ditions, this apparent anomaly likely reflects the increasing contribution of
 780 extreme precipitation events under high-emission forcing. Although such
 781 events can temporarily enhance water input and generate short-term recharge
 782 pulses, they do not necessarily support sustained aquifer replenishment. In
 783 fact, intense rainfall is often hydrologically inefficient, as a substantial frac-
 784 tion of the water may be rapidly lost through surface runoff and flash flooding
 785 before effective infiltration can occur. Consequently, the modest recharge in-
 786 crease projected under SSP5-8.5 should be interpreted with caution: it may
 787 represent greater hydrological variability rather than greater groundwater
 788 resilience. This distinction is critical, because the combination of rising tem-
 789 peratures, intensified evaporative demand, and more erratic precipitation
 790 regimes may ultimately compromise the long-term sustainability of ground-



791 water resources, even where modeled recharge appears superficially stable or
 792 slightly enhanced Ionita et al. (2020); Lobanova et al. (2018); Roudier et al.
 793 (2016); Stagl et al. (2014).

794

795 In the long-term period (2060–2089), recharge in Lány appears numer-
 796 ically stable but becomes increasingly fragile in physical terms. Although
 797 mean annual precipitation remains close to 1.60 mm/year, all SSP scenar-
 798 ios project substantial warming (Lu et al. (2026), Kumar et al. (2025), Zarei
 799 et al. (2025)), with mean annual temperature rising from 9.88°C under SSP1-
 800 2.6 to 11.22°C under SSP5-8.5. Recharge values remain within a narrow
 801 range (1.16–1.19 mm/day) under SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, and SSP3-7.0, but this
 802 should not be interpreted as long-term hydrogeological stability. Rather, it
 803 suggests that warming progressively alters recharge processes without neces-
 804 sarily producing an immediate decline in modeled totals. The slightly higher
 805 recharge projected under SSP5-8.5 (1.22 mm/day), despite the strongest
 806 warming, likely reflects the growing influence of extreme rainfall events that
 807 may increase short-term water input without improving sustained aquifer re-
 808 plenishment. Thus, the long-term response points to a more unstable and
 809 potentially less reliable recharge regime, even where average recharge appears
 810 superficially unchanged.

811

812 Although seemingly positive, the projected increase in aquifer recharge
 813 under the SSP5-8.5 scenario must be critically assessed in light of geological
 814 and soil parameters that significantly affect water infiltration and recharge.
 815 In Lány, as in many regions, soil permeability and geological formation play
 816 crucial roles in determining the efficiency and rate of groundwater recharge
 817 Li et al. (2020); Nicolas et al. (2019); Singhal and Gupta (2010). The slow
 818 permeability observed in the soil profiles studied suggests that, despite an
 819 increase in precipitation and the occurrence of extreme rainfall events, the
 820 actual infiltration of water into the aquifers could be limited. This reduced
 821 infiltration can be attributed to the difficulty with which water is encoun-
 822 tered in percolating through the soil, especially during intense precipitation
 823 events, where water may not have sufficient time to infiltrate before being
 824 lost as runoff.

825

826 Under high-emission scenarios such as SSP5-8.5, extreme precipitation
 827 events may increase modeled recharge, but this response should be inter-
 828 preted cautiously. Heavy rainfall concentrated over short periods is often



hydrologically inefficient for long-term aquifer replenishment, because a large fraction of the incoming water may be lost through rapid surface runoff and flash flooding rather than effective infiltration. As a result, these events can amplify recharge variability and generate short-term recharge pulses without necessarily improving sustained groundwater storage. This interpretation is consistent with previous studies showing that intensified precipitation under warming scenarios often increases hydrological extremes rather than enhancing reliable recharge processes Nazarenko et al. (2025); Khoirunisa (2022); Mukherji (2023).

A further concern is that recharge effectiveness under such conditions is strongly constrained by subsurface properties. Even where total precipitation increases, the actual contribution to groundwater storage may remain limited by soil permeability, stratigraphy, and geological structure, all of which regulate water transmission into deeper layers. In this sense, recharge quantity alone is not a sufficient indicator of groundwater resilience. Several studies have emphasized that geological controls must be explicitly incorporated into recharge assessments, particularly under climate-change scenarios Pandey and Purohit (2022); Letz et al. (2021); Mogaji and Lim (2020). Without this integration, projected recharge may overestimate the effective and sustainable contribution of climate inputs to aquifer replenishment, especially in settings characterised by low-permeability soils or complex geological conditions.

At Amalie Lany, a small location in central Bohemia, the impact of climate change on aquifer recharge shows a decrease in groundwater recharge over 100 years. Significant reduction in aquifer recharge has also been noted in other European latitudes, specifically in the Mediterranean regions. In these regions, groundwater is an important resource due to climate conditions and high water consumption. In addition to these factors, Jyrkama and Sykes (2007) and Santoni et al. (2018) showed that projections and scenarios present the worst future yet: a decrease in precipitation, variability in the recharge potential and changes in interannual climate variability. This situation can be seen in Portugal, where Ferreria (2007) estimated a recharge decrease of 45% in 2007. In Spain also, as described Aguilera and Murillo (2007), the percentage of recharge obtained from precipitation progressively decreased throughout the twentieth century, which may indicate a significant decrease in the available underground resources, as Cárdenas Castillero et al.



(2021) already had demonstrated in a previous review research.

5. Conclusion

The impact of climate change on long-term groundwater recharge, recharge rates decline significantly as greenhouse gas emissions intensify. Under SSP1-2.6, recharge for BP-I/1 increases slightly (+0.02 mm), indicating some resilience under low emissions. However, as emissions rise, the recharge decreases progressively: SSP2-4.5: -0.07 mm, SSP3-7.0: -0.09 mm, SSP5-8.5: -0.13 mm. The decline is even more severe for BP-I/3, with reductions ranging from -0.10 mm (SSP1-2.6) to -0.34 mm (SSP5-8.5), indicating that deeper aquifer layers are more vulnerable.

The results of long-term evaporation anomalies in the Amalie Lany top-soil layer from 1990 to 2090 (first 30 years were analyzed using real physical data and the rest is based on analyses of climate models under different greenhouse gas (GHG) emission scenarios). These results indicate a clear upward trend in evaporation rates. The data show a direct correlation between increased emissions and intensified evaporation, significantly affecting soil moisture retention of groundwater recharge. In low-emission scenarios (SSP1-2.6), evaporation increases modestly from 0.02 mm/day (2020-29) to 0.05 mm/day (2080-89), indicating that even with strong mitigation measures, climate-induced evaporation is still expected to increase. Similarly, in intermediate emissions (SSP2-4.5), the trend intensifies, reaching 0.09 mm/day by 2080-89, showing that moderate emissions lead to a nearly twofold increase in evaporation compared to early-century levels.

In scenarios with high (SSP3-7.0) and very high (SSP5-8.5) emissions, the escalation in evaporation is much more pronounced. Under SSP3-7.0, evaporation anomalies reach 0.11 mm/day by 2080-89, nearly three times the anomaly seen in 2020-29. The most extreme increases are observed in SSP5-8.5, where evaporation anomalies remain persistently high beyond 2050, peaking at 0.11 mm/day from 2070-89, highlighting the severe consequences of uncontrolled emissions.

In particular, the 2060-2069 period appears to be a turning point, particularly in the high- and very-high-emission scenarios, where evaporation spikes significantly. This suggests that increasing global temperatures can



903 lead to a threshold beyond which soil moisture loss becomes more rapid and
 904 sustained. This research confirms that climate change due to the increase
 905 in greenhouse gas emissions produces higher evaporation anomalies, reduc-
 906 ing groundwater recharge by intensifying moisture loss from the soil before it
 907 can infiltrate aquifers. This correlation can be observed on the following lines:
 908

- 909 • Under the lowest emissions scenario (SSP1-2.6), evaporation increased
 910 by 0.06 mm/day, while groundwater recharge declined by 0.10 mm
 911 (15%) over the study period.
- 912 • In the intermediate scenario (SSP2-4.5), evaporation increased to 0.09
 913 mm/day, and recharge decreased by 0.17 mm (26%), showing a more
 914 pronounced impact.
- 915 • For high emissions (SSP3-7.0), evaporation increased to 0.12 mm/day,
 916 corresponding to a significant 0.28 mm (44%) decline in recharge.
- 917 • Under very high emissions (SSP5-8.5), the effects were the most severe,
 918 with evaporation reaching 0.13 mm/day, contributing to a 0.34 mm
 919 (54%) reduction in recharge, the most dramatic decline observed.

920 The turning point for significant groundwater depletion appears to oc-
 921 cur post-2040, when evaporation rates increase sharply, particularly under
 922 high- and very-high-emission scenarios. If these trends persist, groundwater
 923 resources will be under severe stress, particularly in high-emission scenarios.
 924 The loss of recharge 54% under SSP5-8.5 suggests that aquifers may become
 925 unsustainable within the next century, leading to potential water shortages,
 926 degradation of the ecosystem, and increased reliance on alternative water
 927 sources. The consistent increase in evaporation across all scenarios indi-
 928 cates that, even with emissions mitigation, some groundwater depletion is
 929 inevitable. However, the extent of damage depends on future climate action.

930
 931 In general, the findings underscore the critical dependence of aquifer
 932 recharge on greenhouse gas emission pathways. Deeper aquifer layers are
 933 particularly vulnerable, experiencing the largest deficits in all scenarios. The
 934 compounded impacts of reduced recharge and increased variability pose se-
 935 rious challenges for sustainable groundwater management. Increasing evap-
 936 oration and decreasing groundwater recharge underscore the urgent need for



937 climate adaptation and mitigation measures. Reducing emissions can signif-
938 ically slow the rate of groundwater depletion, as seen in SSP1-2.6, where
939 recharge loss remains relatively low compared to high-emission pathways.
940 Sustainable water management strategies, such as improved land use plan-
941 ning, rainwater harvesting, and groundwater conservation policies, will be
942 essential to counteract rising evaporation rates and maintain long-term wa-
943 ter security in the Amalie Lany region.

944 6. Code and data availability

945 The datasets, model input files, and code used to generate the results
946 presented in this study are available from the corresponding author upon
947 reasonable request.

948 7. Author contribution

949 This research work was prepared by Gustavo Cárdenas Castillero as the
950 first author and Michal Kuraz as the second author. The first author was
951 responsible for developing the research proposal, conducting the literature re-
952 view, designing and implementing the methodology, selecting and calibrating
953 the climate data, interpreting the results, preparing the illustrations, figures,
954 and tables, drafting the manuscript, and carrying out the required revisions.
955 The second author was responsible for editing the manuscript, reviewing and
956 correcting the methodology, preparing the software, and collecting the soil
957 data.

958 8. Acknowledgement

959 The financial support from the European Union's Horizon EUSPA-2022-
960 SPACE Research and innovation actions project Comunidad under the grant
961 agreement No 101131859 is gratefully acknowledged. Likewise, we acknowl-
962 edge the data support and technical advice provided by the Czech Geological
963 Survey and the Czech Hydrometeorological Institute. We would also like to
964 acknowledge the support of the Georgia Water Resources Institute team for
965 their contribution to the climate scenario downscaling methodology and for
966 their valuable recommendations, particularly Dr. Aris Georgakakos and Dr.
967 El Shariff Husayn.



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