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Global estimates of groundwater withdrawal trends and uncertainties

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7 **Abstract**

8 Groundwater, Earth's largest source of liquid freshwater, is essential for sustaining ecosystems
9 and meeting societal demands. However, accurately quantifying global groundwater
10 withdrawals remains a significant challenge due to inherent uncertainties in input data, sectoral
11 allocation assumptions, and model parameterization. In this study, we analyze global
12 groundwater withdrawals from 2001 to 2020 using a newly developed data-driven Global
13 Groundwater Withdrawal (GGW) model and quantify uncertainties through Monte Carlo
14 simulations. The GGW model integrates reported country-level data with global grid-based
15 datasets to estimate annual withdrawals across domestic, industrial, and agricultural sectors at
16 a 0.1° resolution. Our results indicate an average global groundwater withdrawal of 648 km³
17 a⁻¹, with an uncertainty range of 465-881 km³ a⁻¹. Agriculture accounts for 50% of total
18 withdrawals, followed by domestic use at 34.5% and industrial use at 15.5%. Temporal analysis
19 shows increasing groundwater withdrawal in 66% of the IPCC WGI reference regions over the
20 20 years, with a global average annual increase of 0.5% (varying regionally from 6.5% annual
21 increase to 9% annual decrease). Comparison with previous studies highlights the impact of
22 methodological choices and assumptions about groundwater withdrawal on the resulting global
23 estimates. Our findings underscore the need for comprehensive uncertainty assessments and
24 improved datasets. Expanding spatial coverage in underrepresented regions and enhancing
25 temporal resolution, particularly for dynamic variables like irrigated areas, are crucial for more

26 accurate groundwater withdrawal assessments. These improvements will enable better
27 management and conservation of this vital resource in the face of growing global demands and
28 climate change impacts.

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Groundwater, a critical component of the global water cycle, sustains both natural ecosystems
31 and human societies. It supports biodiversity directly as a habitat for subterranean life forms
32 and indirectly by providing water to groundwater dependent ecosystems across various
33 hydrogeological and climatic settings [1-3]. It provides essential social and economic needs for
34 human populations through its reliable supply of freshwater. However, growing dependence
35 on this resource, expected to peak around 2050 [4], presents challenges for sustainable
36 management, particularly regarding quantification of groundwater withdrawals. Despite its
37 importance, global groundwater withdrawal patterns and their associated uncertainties remain
38 poorly understood due to inconsistent data availability, methodological differences, and limited
39 direct observations.

40 Groundwater provides domestic freshwater for almost half of the world's population [5],
41 particularly benefiting rural populations with limited access to other water sources. In the
42 industrial sector, groundwater accounts for approximately 27% of total withdrawals [6],
43 especially in areas where surface water is scarce. Agriculture, however, is the main consumer
44 of groundwater, responsible for about 70% of global groundwater withdrawals [5, 7]. This
45 agricultural dependence is particularly pronounced in countries like China, India, Iran,
46 Pakistan, and the United States, which collectively account for a significant portion of global
47 groundwater use for irrigation [8, 9].

48 In global-scale assessments, Global Hydrological Models (GHMs) and Land Surface Models
49 (LSMs) are commonly used to simulate groundwater withdrawal across various sectors [10-
50 14]. These models estimate domestic and industrial groundwater demand by calculating water

51 use intensities based on national reference-year withdrawal data. The temporal evolution of
52 these demands is adjusted using factors such as technological advancements, infrastructure
53 changes, population growth, Gross Domestic Product (GDP), and electricity production [6, 15,
54 14]. Agricultural groundwater demand is usually modeled as a function of irrigation efficiency,
55 crop calendars, irrigated area, crop types, and climatic conditions [16-18].

56 Existing global models often rely on complex methodologies and extensive data requirements,
57 which can amplify uncertainties. Typically, these models estimate total water demand for each
58 sector and calculate groundwater demand by either assessing the gap between total demand
59 and available surface water resources [9] or applying fixed, sector- and cell-specific fractions
60 of groundwater use to total demand [6]. In addition, methods such as estimating irrigation
61 demand based on crop water requirements or using proxy indicators for economic activities
62 add layers of complexity and increase the potential for propagated errors. In contrast, simpler
63 models can achieve comparable results while offering clearer assessments of uncertainties [19,
64 20].

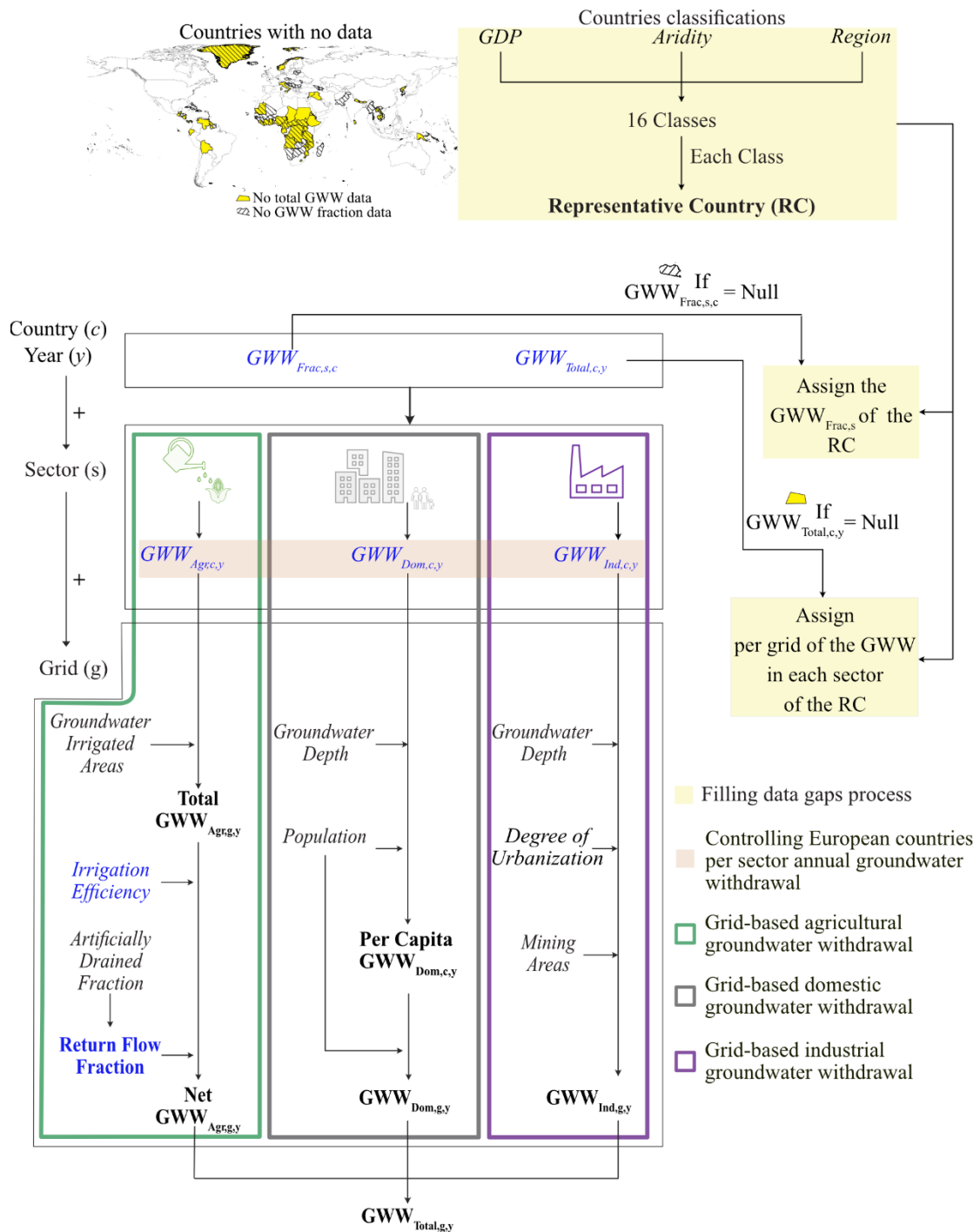
65 To address the challenges of data-intensive methodologies, propagated uncertainties, and
66 computational complexity in existing global models, we developed a data-driven approach that
67 provides a more transparent estimation of groundwater withdrawals across domestic, industrial,
68 and agricultural sectors. By leveraging existing global datasets, our model directly estimates
69 groundwater withdrawals at a grid level while simultaneously evaluating associated
70 uncertainties.

71 The objectives of this study are threefold: first, to provide estimates of annual groundwater
72 withdrawals for each sector over a 20-year period (2001-2020), identifying dominant
73 groundwater users across different regions; second, to assess the temporal variability of
74 groundwater withdrawals and pinpoint regions with increasing withdrawal rates; and third, to
75 evaluate the uncertainties on the resulting groundwater withdrawal estimates.

76 **2. Methods**

77 The newly developed Global Groundwater Withdrawal (GGW) model is a data-driven
78 framework developed to estimate annual groundwater withdrawal (GWW) across three main
79 sectors: domestic, industrial, and agricultural. Implemented in Python, the model operates at a
80 spatial resolution of 0.1° and is used here to estimate annual withdrawal from 2001 to 2020.
81 Using nationally reported statistics, it calculates annual GWW for each country (c) and year (y)
82 across the domestic ($GWW_{Dom,c,y}$), industrial ($GWW_{Ind,c,y}$), and agricultural ($GWW_{Agr,c,y}$) sectors.
83 For countries lacking reported data, the model estimates withdrawals based on climatic and
84 socioeconomic similarities to other countries (Supplementary, Section 1.1). These country-
85 level estimates are subsequently downscaled to grid-level values for more detailed spatial
86 analysis (Figure 1).

87 The primary input datasets include the country-level annual total groundwater withdrawal
88 ($GWW_{Total,c,y}$) sourced from FAO AQUASTAT [21], and the sector-specific (s) fractions of
89 groundwater withdrawal ($GWW_{Frac,s,c}$) derived from International Groundwater Resources
90 Assessment Centre (IGRAC) [22]. We cross-referenced and updated the annual sector-specific
91 groundwater withdrawal data for European countries using Eurostat sources [23].



92

93 Figure. 1. Schematic representation of the data-driven Global Groundwater Withdrawal
 94 (GGW) Model. This diagram illustrates the methodology used to calculate annual groundwater
 95 withdrawal per domestic (*Dom*), industrial (*Ind*), and agricultural (*Agr*) sectors grid, including
 96 country classification and gap-filling techniques ($GWW_{total,c,y}$: Annual country groundwater
 97 withdrawals, $GWW_{Frac,s,c}$: per-sector country fraction of groundwater withdrawal). Inputs are
 98 presented in italic font, and elements considered in the uncertainty assessment are marked in
 99 blue.

100 2.1. Domestic groundwater withdrawal

101 Using nationally reported statistics [21, 22], the GGW model takes domestic groundwater
102 withdrawals at the country level as its base input and calculates annual withdrawals at the grid
103 level by integrating two key datasets: population and water table depth (*WTD*). Population and
104 *WTD* are used to proportionally distribute country-level domestic groundwater withdrawal,
105 reflecting both human demand and groundwater availability.

106 Population data are taken from the Gridded Population of the World, version 4 (GPWv4)
107 dataset [24]. Here we assume that people do not use groundwater occurring more than 100 m
108 below ground, as analyses reveal that most global wells are shallow, with only 10% exceeding
109 this threshold. Thus, this study focuses on grids with *WTD* up to 100 meters to represent
110 exploitable groundwater. The *WTD* data [25] are derived from the mean ensemble of four
111 global groundwater models [26-29] that estimate global steady-state *WTD* (see Supplementary,
112 Section 1.2).

113 2.2. Industrial groundwater withdrawal

114 To estimate global industrial groundwater withdrawal at the grid level, the model integrates
115 three key datasets: degree of urbanization, mining locations, and *WTD*. Given the diversity of
116 industries and the lack of global datasets identifying their exact locations, the degree of
117 urbanization [30] is used as a proxy to identify areas likely to host water-demanding industries
118 such as food processing, beverage production, paper manufacturing, and textiles [31, 32]. As
119 in the domestic sector, only grids where *WTD* is up to 100 meters are considered
120 (Supplementary, Section 1.3). Additionally, recognizing the substantial water requirements of
121 mining activities, which are often located in remote regions [33], the model incorporates global
122 mining locations [34].

123 2.3. Agricultural groundwater withdrawal

124 The agricultural groundwater withdrawal per grid is calculated by first estimating the total
125 agricultural groundwater withdrawal ($Total\ GWW_{Agr,g,y}$) and then determining the net
126 agricultural groundwater withdrawal ($Net\ GWW_{Agr,g,y}$). Unlike the domestic and industrial
127 sectors, the agricultural sector calculation accounts for return flows to groundwater from
128 irrigation activities. To estimate the total agricultural groundwater withdrawal, the model uses
129 a global map of groundwater-irrigated areas [35], distributing each country's agricultural
130 groundwater withdrawal ($GWW_{Agr,c,y}$) proportionally to its irrigated areas, resulting in
131 $Total\ GWW_{Agr,g,y}$ for each grid.

132 The net agricultural groundwater withdrawal per groundwater-irrigated areas grid is then
133 calculated using two key factors: irrigation efficiency (IE_c), a country-specific dataset [36]
134 developed considering irrigation methods, management system, and conveyance system losses,
135 and the return flow fraction to groundwater ($F_{r,gw}$). Irrigation efficiency is employed to
136 calculate groundwater consumption in the agricultural sector per grid ($GWC_{Agr,g,y}$), derived as
137 the product of IE_c and $Total\ GWW_{Agr,g,y}$. To account for higher return flows to surface water
138 due to artificial drainage, the model incorporates the artificially drained fraction ($F_{d,irr}$) [37]
139 and adopts a methodology similar to the WaterGAP global hydrological model [6]. The return
140 flow fraction to groundwater is calculated as $F_{r,gw} = 0.8 - 0.6 * F_{d,irr}$. Finally, $Net\ GWW_{Agr,g,y}$ is
141 determined as:

$$142\ Net\ GWW_{Agr,g,y} = Total\ GWW_{Agr,g,y} - F_{r,gw}(Total\ GWW_{Agr,g,y} - GWC_{Agr,g,y}) \quad (1)$$

143 2.4. Temporal trend and uncertainty assessment

144 To assess the temporal dynamics of global groundwater withdrawal (2001–2020), this study
145 applies the pre-whitening Mann-Kendall (MK) test [38, 39] at the grid level, with results

146 aggregated using the IPCC WGI reference regions (version 4) [40] (see Supplementary Section
147 1.4).

148 In addition, this study assesses epistemic and parametric uncertainties associated with model
149 development and input data, primarily due to imbalances in data availability, quality, and gaps
150 in system understanding. A major challenge for global groundwater models is the substantial
151 regional variation in data coverage and quality, as well as measurement uncertainties. In
152 addition, limited understanding of groundwater withdrawal processes - particularly the fraction
153 of water withdrawn that returns to the source - introduces further uncertainty.

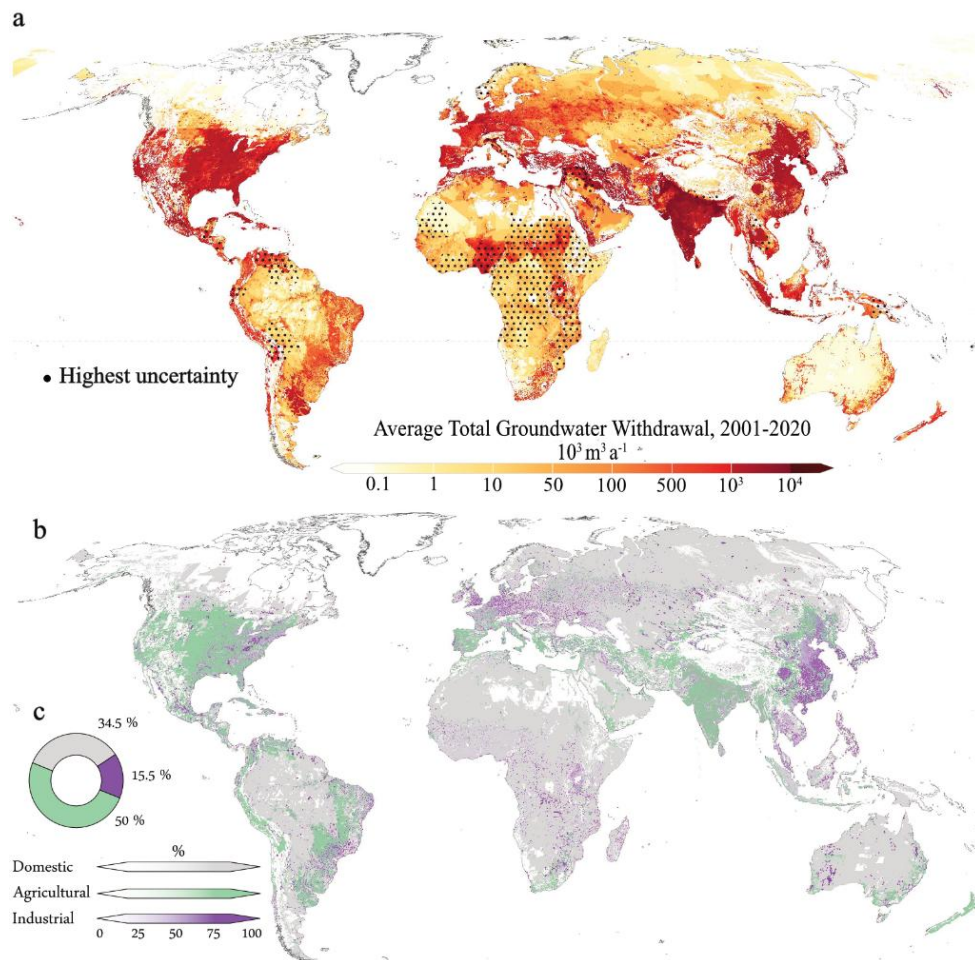
154 To address these uncertainties, we evaluate key input variables influencing sectoral
155 withdrawals, including country-level annual total withdrawals, sector-specific fractions,
156 European sectoral data, irrigation efficiency, and return flow fractions (blue variables in Figure
157 1). The uncertainty analysis employs Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS) [41, 42], with 1000
158 model iterations, systematically varying key input parameters (Supplementary Sections 1.5 and
159 1.6). To assess spatial uncertainty distribution, relative uncertainty (RU) is used, defined as the
160 ratio of the 90% confidence interval to the mean for each grid.

161 **3. Results**

162 3.1. Global distribution of groundwater withdrawal

163 The GW model estimates an average global groundwater withdrawal of $648 \text{ km}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$ for the
164 period 2001 to 2020 (Figure 2(a)). Groundwater withdrawal of individual grid cells ranges from
165 zero to $0.29 \text{ km}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$. Half of the world's grid cells extract less than $5 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ km}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$, typically in
166 sparsely populated areas like central Australia and western China, or regions less reliant on
167 groundwater. The top 25% of grid cells withdraw more than $1.35 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ km}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$, highlighting
168 regions with dense population centers, such as Indonesia, India, and eastern China, or regions
169 heavily dependent on groundwater, including the Middle East, southern Europe, and part of the
170 United States.

171 Based on the GW model, agriculture accounts for 50% (324 km³ a⁻¹) of the total global
172 groundwater withdrawals. This dominance is particularly pronounced in countries such as
173 India, Iran, Pakistan, the United States, and southern Europe (Figure 2(b) and (c)). Domestic
174 use contributes 34.5% (224 km³ a⁻¹) of total withdrawals, with a widespread global distribution
175 and notable prominence in Southeast Asia. For instance, in Indonesia, 93% of total
176 groundwater withdrawal supports domestic water supply. Industrial use accounts for a smaller
177 share of withdrawals at 15.5% (100 km³ a⁻¹) but is the predominant sector in specific regions.
178 In parts of Europe, industrial demand outweighs other sectors; for example, 80% and 72% of
179 total withdrawals in Estonia and Norway, respectively, are dedicated to industrial activities.



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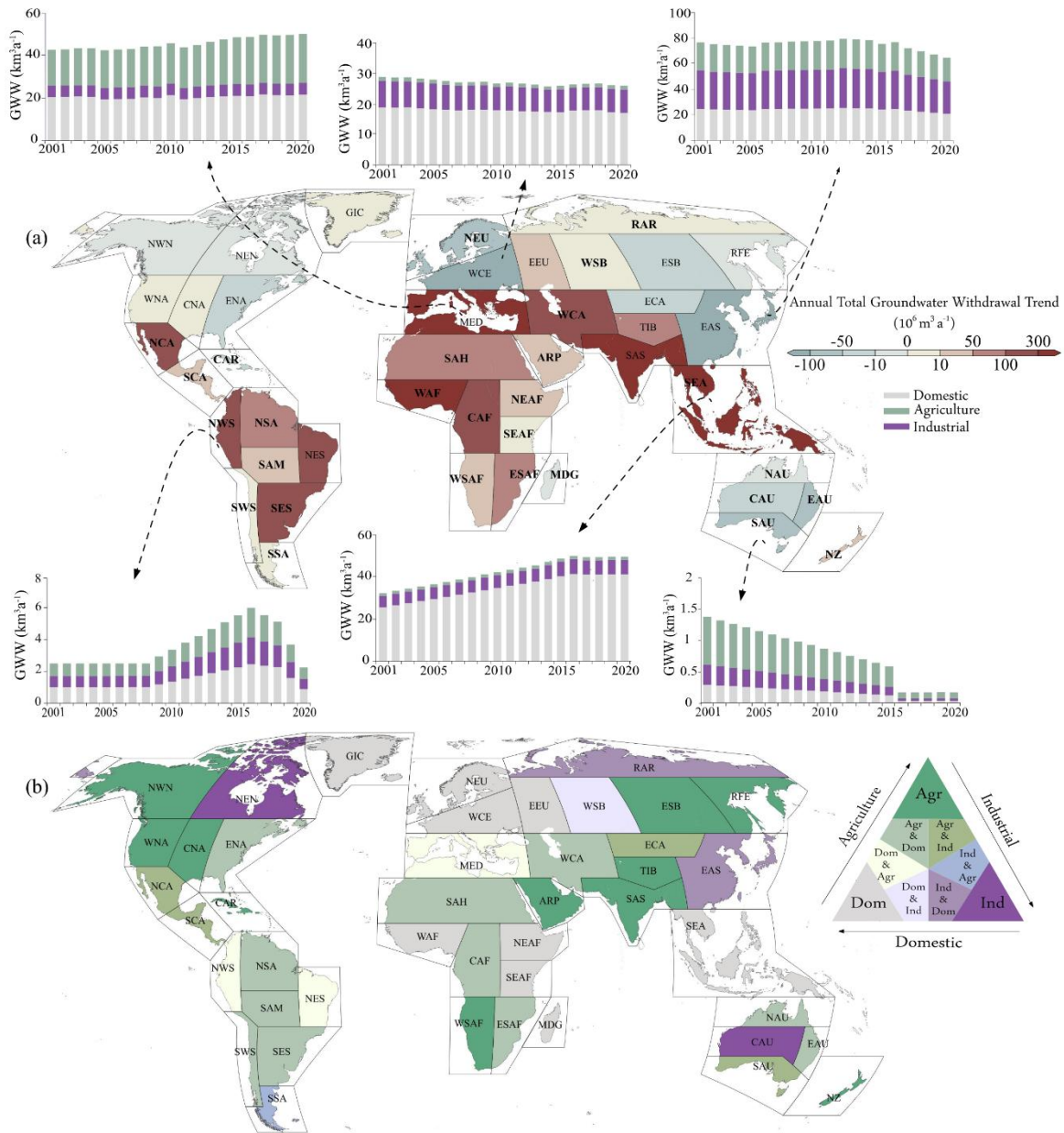
181 Figure. 2. Global distribution of groundwater withdrawal and dominant sectoral users (2001–
 182 2020): (a) Average total groundwater withdrawal, highlighting regions with the highest
 183 uncertainty with black dots, corresponding to countries with no reported data on annual total
 184 groundwater withdrawal (section 2.5 and Supplementary section 1.5). (b) Sectoral distribution
 185 of groundwater withdrawal percentages (domestic, industrial, and agricultural), where white
 186 indicates no groundwater withdrawal. (c) Pie chart illustrating the proportional contribution of
 187 each sector - domestic, industrial, and agricultural - to total groundwater withdrawal over the
 188 20-year period.

189 3.2. Temporal dynamics of global groundwater withdrawal

190 An analysis of the temporal dynamics of total groundwater withdrawal reveals an average
 191 annual increase of $2.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ km}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$ per grid. The temporal dynamic is calculated for the IPCC
 192 WGI reference regions and shows a range of declining withdrawal from -0.31 to increasing up
 193 to $1.11 \text{ km}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$ (Figure 3(a) and Table SP1). Notably, 63% of regions exhibited statistically
 194 significant changes, with nearly two-thirds showing increased withdrawal.

195 Groundwater withdrawals have declined primarily in regions located in Australia and Europe.
196 The largest absolute annual decreases were observed in East Asia (EAS) and Western and
197 Central Europe (WCE), with decreases of 0.31 and 0.15 km³ a⁻¹, respectively. Similarly, South
198 Australia (SAU) and Northern Europe (NEU) showed a significant decrease of 0.07 km³ a⁻¹.
199 Conversely, groundwater withdrawals increased in 66% of the regions, spanning diverse
200 climatic zones. These include tropical regions such as South Asia (SAS) and Southeast Asia
201 (SEA), as well as arid and semi-arid areas like West Central Asia (WCA) and the Sahara
202 (SAH). Southeast Asia (SEA) recorded the highest annual increase, with domestic groundwater
203 use rising by 1 km³. In South Asia (SAS), the world's largest agricultural groundwater
204 consumer (126 km³ a⁻¹), growth was primarily driven by increasing agricultural withdrawals,
205 which rose by 0.6 km³ a⁻¹ per year.

206 When considering relative rates of change (calculated as the ratio of the annual trend to the 20-
207 year average usage in each region), total withdrawal has increased globally at an average annual
208 rate of 0.5%. The highest relative increase, 6.5% annually, was observed in Northeast South
209 America (NES), while the most pronounced decline, 9% annually, occurred in Central, East,
210 and South Australia (CAU, EAU, SAU). These relative rates highlight how regions with
211 smaller baseline withdrawals can experience rapid growth, while high-usage areas may show
212 smaller relative changes despite substantial absolute increases (for further details see Figure
213 SP1 and Table SP1).



214

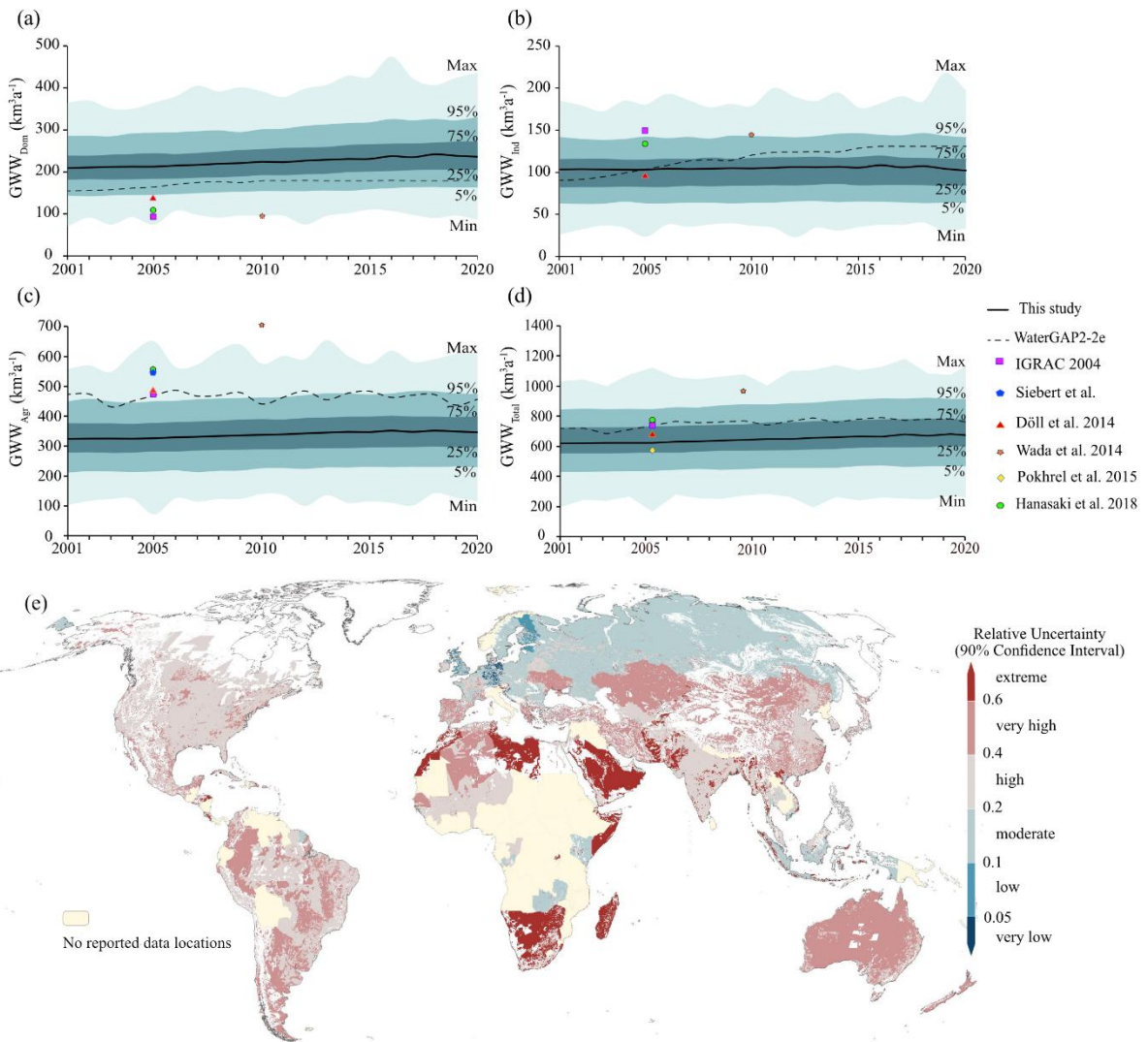
215 Figure 3. (a) The annual total groundwater withdrawal trend ($10^6 \text{ m}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$) from 2001 to 2020
 216 across IPCC WGI reference regions (version 4) based on the Mann-Kendall test. Each bar chart
 217 displays the annual groundwater withdrawals for domestic, agricultural, and industrial sectors.
 218 Regions with statistically significant trends are highlighted in bold text. (b) Regional
 219 classification of dominant groundwater withdrawal users. Regions are categorized into nine
 220 groups, based on the dominance of specific sectors. Single-sector dominance (agriculture,
 221 domestic, or industrial) is defined when a sector accounts for more than 60% of the total
 222 groundwater use. For IPCC WGI reference regions without single-sector dominance, the two
 223 most significant users are indicated in descending order of contribution, as shown in the ternary
 224 legend.

225 3.3. Assessing uncertainty in global groundwater withdrawal

226 The 20-year uncertainty assessment indicates that, on average, the total simulated withdrawal
227 ranges between $465 \text{ km}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$ and $881 \text{ km}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$ (5th to 95th percentile range; Figure 4(d)).

228 Sector-specific analyses reveal distinct ranges of uncertainty: domestic groundwater
229 withdrawal spans $154\text{-}306 \text{ km}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$, industrial withdrawal ranges from $65\text{-}142 \text{ km}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$, and
230 agricultural withdrawal varies between $225\text{-}463 \text{ km}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$ (Figure 4(a)-(c)). Among these, the
231 agricultural sector demonstrates the largest uncertainty, reflecting the combined influence of
232 variability in country-level input data - common to all sectors - and additional factors specific
233 to agriculture, such as irrigation efficiency and return flow fractions. This is consistent with
234 agriculture's role as the dominant global groundwater user, which amplifies the effect of small
235 changes in input parameters on overall uncertainty.

236 Excluding regions where no data on total groundwater withdrawal were reported - classified as
237 areas of highest uncertainty - we assessed the global spatial distribution of relative uncertainty
238 (RU) (Figure 4(e)). We found that only 0.5% of the global area exhibits very low ($RU < 0.05$)
239 or low uncertainty ($0.05 \leq RU \leq 0.1$). In contrast, 9% of the global area falls under extreme
240 uncertainty, and 29% is classified as having very high uncertainty.



241

242 Figure 4. Temporal and spatial assessment of global groundwater withdrawal uncertainty
 243 (2001–2020) using the GGW model. Panels (a), (b), (c), and (d) depict the temporal uncertainty
 244 ranges for domestic (GWW_{Dom}), industrial (GWW_{Ind}), agricultural (GWW_{Agr}), and total
 245 (GWW_{Total}) groundwater withdrawals, respectively, with a comparison to estimates from
 246 previous studies (See Section 2.4 for details) [8, 43, 44, 13, 18, 22, 45]. Panel (e) illustrates the
 247 spatial distribution of relative uncertainty, categorized into six uncertainty levels ranging from
 248 very low to extreme.

249 **4. Discussion**

250 4.1. Regional dominant groundwater users

251 Determining the dominant groundwater user in each IPCC WGI reference region extends
252 beyond factors like population or irrigated area density. Our findings show that groundwater
253 use is influenced by sector-specific withdrawal fractions, population distribution, groundwater-
254 irrigated areas, urbanization, and mining activities. Agriculture dominates in 27% of IPCC
255 regions (Figure 3(b)), accounting for over 60% of total withdrawals, while domestic use leads
256 in 20%. Although the industrial sector has the smallest global share, it is dominant in specific
257 regions, such as Central Australia (CAU) and Eastern Asia (EAS), where mining and industrial
258 demand are substantial. These results indicate that while agriculture remains the dominant
259 groundwater consumer globally, domestic and industrial withdrawals can be significant in
260 specific regions.

261 Beyond identifying IPCC regional dominant users, our analysis reveals the combination of
262 factors also drives temporal variations in groundwater withdrawal patterns. Population growth
263 and the changes in groundwater demand are decoupled (Figure SP2). This counterintuitive
264 discovery challenges the common assumption that increasing populations inevitably lead to
265 greater groundwater extraction. Instead, it points to a more nuanced reality where multiple
266 factors - social, economic, technological, and environmental - converge to influence
267 groundwater use patterns.

268 For instance, in Australia, groundwater withdrawal has declined despite population growth.
269 This decline has been attributed to reduced reliance on groundwater, driven by increased
270 surface water availability, and regulatory changes introduced in 2016, including volumetric
271 limits on groundwater withdrawal, water trading mechanisms, and adaptive management
272 strategies [46-48]. Conversely, in regions like Southeast Asia (SEA) and Western Africa
273 (WAF), population growth continues to drive increases in groundwater withdrawal. For

274 example, in Indonesia and Nigeria, rising domestic demand is closely tied to expanding
275 populations.

276 Understanding the interplay between these regional groundwater withdrawal dynamics and
277 variations in groundwater recharge is essential for crafting tailored water management
278 strategies that safeguard groundwater resources while unlocking their potential to meet
279 growing freshwater demands [49]. For example, in Africa - home to 13.6% of the world's
280 population – contributes only 3.5% to global groundwater withdrawals (Supplementary Table
281 SP3 and Figure SP3). This disparity underscores the untapped potential of groundwater
282 resources in Africa, warranting further exploration [7]. In addition, the literature suggests that
283 traditional groundwater management methods, such as improving irrigation efficiency or
284 changing cropping patterns [50], should be complemented by innovative, region-specific
285 measures, including incentive-based policies [51, 52], water markets [53], and awareness
286 campaigns [4].

287 4.2. Methodological impacts on groundwater withdrawal estimates

288 Methodological choices and assumptions in the sectoral withdrawal calculations have a
289 substantial impact on the estimates. The evaluated uncertainties are compared with previous
290 global estimates [8, 43, 44, 13, 18, 22, 45] for each sector (Figure 4(a)-(b), Table SP2). While
291 most previous studies fall within the uncertainty ranges determined here, there are notable
292 differences in annual sectoral withdrawals due to differences in methodologies and data gap
293 filling approaches (Supplementary Section 2.2 and 2.4 and Figure SP4).

294 For the domestic sector, the methodology for estimating groundwater demand varies across
295 studies. Previous studies typically model domestic groundwater demand by incorporating
296 socioeconomic indicators (e.g., GDP) alongside population data and adjustments for daily
297 temperature variations [44, 45]. In contrast, the GGW model uses country-level reported data
298 and addresses data gaps by employing a representative country approach (Supplementary,

299 Section 1.1). This method, especially for countries with missing data like Nigeria, where large
300 populations rely heavily on groundwater [7], influences the estimated values for domestic
301 groundwater withdrawals.

302 The methodology employed in different studies also influences the temporal dynamics of
303 estimations. This is evident when comparing industrial withdrawal of the GGW model and
304 WaterGAP2.2e [45]. While both models report similar ranges for 2005, their simulations
305 diverge over time. In the GGW model, the annual industrial groundwater withdrawal estimates
306 remain relatively stable. In contrast, WaterGAP2.2e introduces temporal variability by
307 incorporating factors such as manufacturing gross value added (GVA) and dynamically
308 adjusting industrial groundwater estimates. This approach accounts for technological
309 advancements and economic trends, using 2005 as a base year but the values are inconsistent
310 with reported groundwater withdrawal.

311 In the agricultural sector, the impact of methodological differences is even more pronounced.
312 Compared to previous studies, the GGW model consistently reports lower agricultural
313 groundwater withdrawals (Figure 4(c)). In previous estimations, total agricultural water
314 demand was estimated and allocated to groundwater based on surface water availability [44]
315 or sectoral groundwater fractions [43, 45]. The GGW model, however, restricts groundwater
316 use to explicitly groundwater-irrigated areas, leveraging the well-established linear correlation
317 between irrigated areas and water withdrawals [54]. Furthermore, prior models incorporate
318 factors such as climatic variables, cropping patterns, growing season lengths, and dynamically
319 calculated surface water availability to estimate agricultural water demand - elements not
320 included in the data-driven GGW modeling approach.

321 These comparisons highlight the influence of methodological choices on global groundwater
322 withdrawal estimates and the uncertainties still associated with it. The variability among studies
323 underscores the need to report uncertainty ranges rather than relying solely on point estimates.

324 Providing these ranges is essential for robust science and for identifying areas where data
325 availability and methodologies require improvement.

326 4.3. Spatial variability and drivers of uncertainty

327 The highest uncertainty levels are mainly observed in areas with significant variability in
328 reported total withdrawals or near river networks where the return flow fraction to groundwater
329 shows substantial spatial variation (Figure 4(e)). These annual variations in reported
330 groundwater withdrawals are due to a combination of factors, including changes in surface
331 water availability, population dynamics, economic or technological developments, and climate
332 change [7]. These areas of high variability indicate where future projections are likely to have
333 greater uncertainty and should be considered in groundwater withdrawal projections, as
334 historical variability often has greater uncertainty in projected trends.

335 4.4. Limitations

336 The GGW model provides an alternative for global-scale assessment of groundwater
337 withdrawals by focusing on simplicity and transparency. However, its exclusive focus on
338 groundwater without considering the potential contribution of surface water may be a
339 limitation. The focus is consistent with the primary objective of the study, which is to estimate
340 groundwater withdrawal directly, rather than inferring it as a fraction of total demand, which
341 is a common approach in other global estimates. Notably, the availability of surface water does
342 not necessarily translate into its prioritization for use. For instance, in Germany, despite
343 abundant surface water resources, 71% of domestic freshwater demand is met by groundwater,
344 highlighting a strong reliance on groundwater even in water-rich regions [55]. To enhance the
345 plausibility of groundwater withdrawal estimates, proxies such as water table depth were used
346 to ensure resource availability before allocation.

347 The GGW model is reliant on the applied methodology and the quality of input datasets. This
348 dependence can lead to overestimations in densely populated urban regions, where domestic
349 and industrial water use may primarily rely on surface water. Similarly, in the agricultural
350 sector, the reliance on irrigated-area data may not fully capture regional differences, resulting
351 in a more uniform distribution of agricultural groundwater withdrawals across the country,
352 overlooking localized variability. To further illustrate the impact of these assumptions, we
353 compared the GGW model results with the national data sets of the example countries
354 (Supplementary Section 2.5 and Figures SP5-SP6). By incorporating uncertainty evaluations,
355 the GGW model enables a cautious and uncertainty-aware interpretation of its outputs, striking
356 a balance between computational feasibility and practical utility.

357 **5. Conclusion**

358 Based on combining per-country reported water usage values with data representing the
359 groundwater fraction, this study presents a global groundwater withdrawal estimate from 2001
360 to 2020. The study highlights regional usage patterns and temporal variations, while also
361 illuminating the complexities of estimating groundwater withdrawals and the uncertainties
362 inherent in global groundwater assessments.

363 Uncertainty of model results varies widely among regions. The spatial variability of the
364 calculated uncertainty indicates that regions with greater variability in historical withdrawal
365 patterns have higher relative uncertainty. This variability is due to factors such as fluctuations
366 in surface water availability, regulatory changes (e.g., Australia), population dynamics (e.g.,
367 Nigeria and Indonesia), and economic or technological developments. In addition, comparisons
368 with previous studies show that the choice of methods used to calculate sectoral demand, to
369 adjust for temporal dynamics, and to allocate groundwater within total water use have a direct
370 impact on the results.

371 The identified uncertainty and its spatial variability can serve as a reference for groundwater
372 withdrawal studies focusing on future developments, as regions with historically inconsistent
373 patterns are more likely to have greater uncertainty in future estimates. Additionally, the
374 compiled input datasets, sectoral grid-based groundwater withdrawal estimates, and calculated
375 uncertainty ranges from this study provide training data to support machine learning
376 applications in global groundwater withdrawal assessments.

377 Based on our findings, research on groundwater withdrawal should advance in two key data-
378 related areas: First, improving data availability in regions with no reported groundwater
379 withdrawal is essential. Uncertainty is highest in these areas due to reliance on assumptions
380 without validation. Second, availability of temporally resolved datasets regarding irrigated
381 areas with groundwater, irrigation efficiency, and groundwater withdrawal fractions - would
382 enhance model estimations. Uncertainty assessments of global grid-based input datasets,
383 including irrigated areas, population density, and mining locations would improve the
384 uncertainty assessment of the withdrawal estimates substantially.

385 Our findings indicate that global groundwater withdrawals over the past 20 years range
386 between 465-881 km³ a⁻¹. Despite uncertainties, our results show an average annual global
387 increase of 0.5%, regionally rising up to 6.5% per year in 66% of the IPCC regions. These
388 trends are shaped by a complex interplay of factors that also determine the dominant
389 groundwater users in each region, extending beyond demographic trends to sector-specific
390 demands. While agriculture remains the largest user of groundwater globally, our results
391 highlight that it is not always the primary user since domestic and industrial sectors play a
392 dominant role in certain regions. These findings emphasize the importance of context-specific
393 groundwater management strategies tailored to regional needs.

394 **Code availability**

395 The source code of the GGW model is available under the GNU General Public License v3.0
396 at Zenodo (now it's available here, [https://github.com/Global-Groundwater-](https://github.com/Global-Groundwater-Model/Global_Groundwater-Withdrawal_Model)
397 [Model/Global_Groundwater-Withdrawal_Model](https://github.com/Global-Groundwater-Model/Global_Groundwater-Withdrawal_Model), later it will be submitted to Zenodo).

398 **Data availability statement**

399 All input datasets used in the development of the GGW model are available from the sources
400 cited in this study. The primary outputs, including grid-based long-term average annual global
401 groundwater withdrawal estimates for domestic, industrial, and agricultural uses, along with
402 associated uncertainty ranges (5th and 95th percentile values), are available in the PANGAEA
403 database (data is submitted, the DOI will be provided).

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409 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

410 **S. Nazari:** Writing – original draft, Visualization, Software, Methodology, Formal analysis,
411 Data curation, Conceptualization. **R. Reinecke:** Co-supervision, Writing – review & editing,
412 Methodology, Conceptualization. **N. Moosdorf:** Supervision, Writing – review & editing,
413 Methodology, Conceptualization.

414 **Declaration of Generative AI and AI-Assisted Technologies in the Writing Process**

415 During the preparation of this work, the authors used ChatGPT, an AI language model
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417 authors reviewed and edited the content as needed and take full responsibility for the content
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