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UNCERTAINTY, SENSITIVITY AND GEOSTATISTICAL STUDIES OF FLOW

AND CONTAMINANT TRANSPORT IN HETEROGENEOUS

UNSATURATED ZONE

by

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Bachelor of Engineering Sichuan University, China 2000

Master of Science University of Nevada Las Vegas 2005

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Geoscience Department of Geoscience College of Sciences

> Graduate College University of Nevada Las Vegas May 2009

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Uncertainty, Sensitivity and Geostatistical Studies of Flow

and Contaminant Transport in Heterogeneous Unsaturated Zone

is approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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ABSTRACT

Uncertainty, Sensitivity and Geostatistical Studies of Flow and Contaminant Transport in Heterogeneous Unsaturated Zone

by

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The objectives of this study are: (1) to develop a methodology of estimating probability density functions (PDFs) of unsaturated hydraulic parameters when field samples are sparse, (2) to evaluate the predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport due to parameter uncertainties in the layer- and local-scale heterogeneities of hydraulic parameters in unsaturated zone (UZ), (3) to investigate the contributions of the parameter uncertainties to the flow and transport uncertainties, and (4) to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters by incorporating prior information and site measurements.

At layer scale, the uncertainty assessment of flow and contaminant transport in UZ entails PDFs of the hydraulic parameters. A non-conventional maximum likelihood (ML) approach is used in this study to estimate the PDFs of water retention parameters

(e.g., van Genuchten α and n) for situations common in field scale applications where core samples are sparse and prior PDFs of the parameters are unknown. This study also investigates the effects of the uncertainties in the water retention parameters on the predictive uncertainties in flow and transport in UZ. By comparing the predictive uncertainties with and without incorporating the random water retention parameters, it is found that the random water retention parameters have limited effects on the mean predictions of the state variables including percolation flux, normalized cumulative mass arrival, and contaminant travel time. However, incorporating the uncertainties in the water retention parameters significantly increases the magnitude and spatial extent of predictive uncertainties of the state variables.

The layer-scale uncertainty is specific to hydrogeologic layers, while the localscale heterogeneity refers to the spatial variation of hydraulic properties within a layer. The local-scale heterogeneity is important in predicting flow path, velocity, and travel time of contaminants, but it is often neglected in modeling practices. This study incorporates the local-scale heterogeneity and examines its relative effects to the layerscale uncertainty on flow and transport uncertainties in UZ. Results illustrate that localscale heterogeneity significantly increases predictive uncertainties in the percolation fluxes and contaminant plumes, whereas the mean predictions are only slightly affected by the local-scale heterogeneity. Layer-scale uncertainty is more important than localscale heterogeneity for simulating overall contaminant travel time, suggesting that it would be more cost-effective to reduce the layer-scale parameter uncertainty in order to reduce predictive uncertainty in contaminant transport.

The sensitivity analysis is an important tool to direct the future field characterizations to reduce the predictive uncertainties in unsaturated flow and transport modeling. This study presents an integrated approach to evaluate the contributions of the uncertainties in input parameters to the predictive uncertainties in unsaturated flow and contaminant transport with and without the consideration of parameter correlations. This study also investigates the effects of parameter correlations on the sensitivity of flow and transport. When the input parameters are independent, the parameter uncertainty in permeability has the largest contributions to the uncertainties in percolation flux and mass arrival of the reactive contaminants. The sorption coefficient of the reactive contaminant becomes the dominant parameter in contributing to the uncertainty in overall contaminant transport at late stage. When the input parameters are correlated, the uncertainties in van Genuchten n and porosity have more contributions to the percolation flux and tracer transport uncertainties due to their correlations with the van Genuchten α and permeability, respectively. The rankings of parameter importance also change if the parameter correlations are taken into account, indicating that the significant effects of parameter correlations on the sensitivity of flow and contaminant transport in UZ.

Improving the heterogeneity characterizations of hydraulic parameters is critical to reduce the predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport. This study presents a coupled method of Bayesian updating and the adjoint state maximum likelihood cross validation (ASMLCV) to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters with the incorporation of prior information and site measurements. The prior distribution is updated to yield the posterior distribution by the likelihood function estimated from the on-site measurements and ASMLCV. The mean of posterior

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probability distribution for spatial correlation scales can then be used for subsequent heterogeneous field generations by kriging. The good agreement between measured and kriged hydraulic data indicates that the coupled approach may improve the estimation of spatial correlation structure with sparse measurements and known prior information in the heterogeneous UZ.

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ABBREVIATIONS

- 1-D one-dimensional
- 3-D three-dimensional
- ANOVA Analysis of variance
- ASMLCV Adjoint state maximum likelihood cross validation
- CDF Cumulative distribution function
- CFu Crater Flat undifferentiated unit
- CHn Calico Hills nonwelded unit
- FEP Feature, event and process
- GSLIB Geostatistical software library
- K-S Kolmogorov-Smirnov
- LHS Latin Hypercube Sampling
- LS Least square
- LSE Least square estimate
- ML Maximum likelihood
- MLE Maximum likelihood estimate
- NLL Negative log likelihood
- RML Restricted maximum likelihood
- PDF Probability density function
- PTn Paintbrush nonwelded unit
- R² Coefficient of determination

RETC Retention curve

RDD Random domain decomposition

S Sensitivity index

S&L Sisson and Lu

SGSIM Sequential Gaussian Simulation

SRC Standardized regression coefficient

SRRC Standardized rank regression coefficient

TCw Tiva Canyon welded unit

TSw Topopah Spring welded unit

USDOE U.S. Department of Engery

UZ Unsaturated zone

YM Yucca Mountain

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Understanding flow and contaminant transport in unsaturated zone (UZ) is important to evaluate and monitor possible effects of the remediation sites on the groundwater water and environmental systems, since UZ acts as a critical natural barrier to delay the arrival of the contaminants to groundwater table (BSC, 2004a; Haukwa et al., 2003; Illman and Hughson, 2005; Lu and Zhang, 2004; Nichols and Freshley, 1993; Pan, 2005; Ye et al., 2007b; Zhang et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2003). Many three-dimensional (3-D) site-scale numerical models have been developed to incorporate various physical processes in UZ for specific sites (Ahlers et al., 1999; Viswanathan et al., 1998; Wu et al., 1999). The flow and contaminant predictions simulated by these site-scale models are acceptable based on the model calibrations in UZ (Bardurraga and Bardvarsson, 1999; BSC, 2004a, b; Ji et al., 2008; Vrugt et al., 2004; Wu et al., 1999). Because most UZ consists of complex hydrogeologic units with systematic and spatial variability of hydraulic properties at multiple scales, it is difficult to predict the flow and contaminant transport under such uncertain conditions (Flint, 2003; Nichols and Freshley, 1993; Pan, 2005; Ye et al., 2007b). The uncertainties in the model predicted unsaturated flow and contaminant transport can be quantified using stochastic methods (Dagan, 1989; Dagan and Neuman, 1997; Gelhar, 1989; Rubin, 2003; Ye et al., 2004a; Zhang, 2002).

Generally, uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport at UZ could come from various types of uncertainties such as parameter uncertainty, measurement uncertainty, scenario uncertainty in climate, conceptual model uncertainty in hydrogeological models etc. (BSC, 2004a; Flint, 1998, 2003; Flint et al., 2006; Holt et al., 2002, 2003; Wu et al., 2002, 2004). The measurement errors could lead to biased predictions of flow and contaminant transport (Holt et al., 2002, 2003). The conceptual model uncertainty in hydrogeologic models such as steady-state flow approximation, geological layering, lateral flow, and fast-flow pathways could cause significant uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in UZ (BSC, 2004a; Flint et al., 2001). The scenario uncertainty in surface infiltration such as due to climate change is another important source of uncertainty in UZ modeling (BSC, 2004a; Wu et al., 2002). The flow and contaminant transport uncertainties due to measurement uncertainty, conceptual model uncertainty and scenario uncertainty are beyond the scope of this study, although these uncertainties can be evaluated by the numerical simulations and the Maximum Likelihood Bayesian Model Averaging method (Neuman, 2003; Ye et al., 2004b). This study is focused on the uncertainty assessments of flow and contaminant transport due to parameter uncertainties in heterogeneous UZ. The parameter uncertainties due to the spatial variability of hydraulic parameters can be quantified using the measurements from core samples according to the ergodicity assumption, which assumes that any realization of a stochastic process in space has the same probability distributions as the ensemble of possible realizations (Li and Yeh, 1999; Ye et al., 2007b).

The hydraulic properties controlling water movement in UZ mainly include parameters such as hydraulic conductivity, porosity, water content, and water retention

parameters (Hillel, 1998). The van Genuchten α and *n* parameters from van Genuchten equation (van Genuchten, 1980) are widely used as water retention parameters to describe the water retention characteristics. The contaminant transport in UZ is largely controlled by three important processes such as advection, diffusion, and dispersion for conservative contaminants. Additional processes such as adsorption and radionuclide decay should also be considered for reactive contaminants (Domenico and Schwartz, 1990; Fetter, 1994). The transport parameters controlling the transport processes mainly include molecular diffusion, hydrodynamic dispersion, grain density, tortuosity, adsorption, and radionuclide half-time. The parameter uncertainties in the hydraulic and transport parameters due to the multi-scale spatial variability from core samples to layer structures and lithofacies would cause uncertain model predictions of flow and contaminant transport in UZ (Nichols and Freshley, 1993; Pan, 2005; Pan et al., 2009a, b; Ye et al., 2007b). Quantification of parameter uncertainty and its propagation in hydrogeological models has been studied for decades using stochastic methods, as reviewed in several books (e.g., Dagan, 1989; Dagan and Neuman, 1997; Gelhar, 1989; Rubin, 2003; Zhang, 2002). Quantifying uncertainty at the field scale is of particular importance because decisions are often based on the field-scale predictions. However, field-scale models for representing complex hydrogeologic environments are complicated, making it difficult to evaluate the propagation of parameter uncertainty through the complicated models.

In field-scale modeling, it is common practice to separate a large field domain into hydrogeologic layers (or lithofacies and hydrofacies) based on available data such as site geology, hydrogeology, and geophysics (Flint, 1998, 2003; Flint et al., 2006).

Hydraulic and transport parameters of each layer often are treated as homogeneous variables and are calibrated to match the field observations of state variables (BSC, 2003b, 2004a; Wu et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2006). The layer scale refers to the hydrogeologic layers with layerwise average properties, while the local scale refers to the spatial variation in hydraulic properties within a layer. Layer-scale heterogeneity, especially after layerwise parameters are calibrated, is important in simulating the overall flow and transport trend and pattern. The local-scale heterogeneity within the layers is important in predicting flow path, velocity, and travel time of contaminants (Bodvarsson et al., 2001; Haukwa et al., 2003; Illman and Hughson, 2005; Nichols and Freshley, 1993; Viswanathan et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2003). Therefore, this dissertation is focused on the characterizations of both layer- and local-scale heterogeneities in the hydraulic and transport parameters and the assessments of associated predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in heterogeneous UZ.

For layer-scale uncertainty characterizations, the hydraulic and transport parameters are often treated as homogeneous random variables (Nichols and Freshley, 1993; Pan, 2005; Pan et al., 2009b; Ye et al., 2007b). Probability density functions (PDFs) of the parameters are required for evaluating the parameter uncertainty and its propagation through unsaturated flow and contaminant transport models (Avanidou and Paleologos, 2002; Boateng, 2007; Chen et al., 2005; Christiaens and Feyen, 2001; Lu and Zhang, 2004; Zhou et al., 2003). The PDFs of hydraulic and transport parameters can be rigorously identified based on a large data set of core samples (e.g., Pan, 2005; Ye et al., 2007b). However, it is difficult to estimate the PDFs of hydraulic parameters with sparse measurements and unknown prior PDFs, especially for water retention parameters (i.e.,

van Genuchten α and *n* in this study). Although many methods (e.g., Least-Square (LS), Maximum Likelihood (ML), pedotransfer method with bootstrap) have been used to estimate the water retention parameters and the associated estimation uncertainties (Hollenbeck and Jensen, 1998; Schaap and Leij, 1998; van Genuchten et al., 1991), these methods do not explicitly yield the parameter PDFs. The Bayesian methods can give the parameter PDFs but it requires the prior PDFs from subjective estimation (Meyer et al., 1997). To resolve this problem, this study presents a direct method of estimating the PDFs for measuring uncertainties in the water retention parameters with unknown prior PDFs and sparse measurements. The PDFs of the water retention parameters are estimated using a Bayesian framework based on a non-conventional ML method introduced by Berger (1985) in statistical literature. The associated predictive uncertainties in unsaturated flow and contaminant transport due to hydraulic parameter uncertainties are then examined by Monte Carlo simulations using a 3-D flow and transport model.

For local-scale heterogeneity characterizations, the hydraulic parameters are treated as heterogeneous random variables (Pan et al., 2009a; Zhou et al., 2003). Parameter uncertainty and sensitivity analysis for contaminant transport in UZ has been conducted mainly at the layer scale (Illman and Hughson, 2005; Nichols and Freshley, 1993; Pan et al., 2009b; Ye et al., 2007b; Zhang et al., 2006). Local-scale heterogeneity in the model parameters within a layer is also important since it affects the flow path, velocity, and travel time of contaminants (Bodvarsson et al., 2001; Haukwa et al., 2003; Illman and Hughson, 2005; Viswanathan et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2003). This study incorporates the layer- and local-scale heterogeneities in hydraulic parameters into the

uncertainty assessments of flow and transport to investigate relative effects of layer- and local-scale heterogeneities on the uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in heterogeneous UZ.

The parameter uncertainties due to layer- and local-scale heterogeneities in hydraulic parameters could cause significant predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in UZ (Bodvarsson et al., 2001; Haukwa et al., 2003; Illman and Hughson, 2005; Nichols and Freshley, 1993; Viswanathan et al., 2003; Pan, 2005; Pan et al., 2009a, b; Ye et al., 2007b; Zhou et al., 2003). The sensitivity analysis is an important tool to help design future data collection to reduce the parameter uncertainties, which also reduce the associated predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in UZ. The local sensitivity analysis with only one varied parameter within one standard deviation at a time was conducted by Zhang et al. (2006). Parameter correlations have not been considered in previous sensitivity analysis (Arnold et al., 2008; Boateng and Cawlfield, 1999; Mertens, et al, 2005; Sallaberry et al., 2008). Therefore, this study seeks to conduct global sensitivity analysis of hydraulic and transport parameters on flow and contaminant transport uncertainties using the sampling-based method and to investigate the effects of parameter correlations on sensitivity of flow and transport in UZ.

Improving the heterogeneity characterizations of hydraulic parameters is also critical to reduce the predictive uncertainties in flow and transport in UZ (Kitanidis and Lane, 1985), due to that the accuracy of flow and contaminant transport predictions largely depends on the heterogeneity characterizations of hydraulic parameter fields, especially spatial variability of the parameters. Because of the paucity of hydraulic parameter field measurements, it is difficult to accurately estimate their spatial

variability, which is typically estimated by the traditional geostatistical approach such as sample variogram. The variogram models are often used in the heterogeneity characterizations to measure the extent of spatial variability for the hydraulic parameters. However, it is difficult, if not impossible, to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters from the empirical and fitted variograms because of sparse data in most cases, especially for saturated hydraulic conductivity, and water retention parameters. Therefore, there are needs for methods to improve the estimation of spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters when the field measurements are sparse. Many parameter estimation approaches have been proposed to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters such as LS, ML estimation, restricted maximum likelihood (RML) estimation, and adjoint state maximum likelihood cross validation (ASMLCV) (Dietrich and Osborne, 1991; Kitanidis an Lane, 1985; Samper and Neuman, 1989a, b, c; Pardo-Igúzquiz, 1998). However, the prior information is not included in the ML approaches and it may produce unreliable results with only several measurements available (Pardo-Igúzquiz, 1999). Although the Bayesian updating method can update the moments of prior PDFs to yield the posterior PDFs with sparse field data (Meyer et al., 1997), it cannot change the type of prior PDF and its accuracy largely depends on the accuracy of prior PDF assumption. In order to incorporate the prior information and available site measurements for improving the heterogeneity characterizations of hydraulic parameters, this study tries to couple the ASMLCV with Bayesian updating to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters and to improve the local-scale heterogeneity characterizations of hydraulic parameters.

The UZ of Yucca Mountain (YM) in Nevada, U.S., is selected as a case study to illustrate the applications of layer- and local-scale heterogeneity characterizations, predictive uncertainty and sensitivity analysis of flow and contaminant transport. The UZ of YM is proposed by the U.S. Department of Energy (USDOE) as the nation's first permanent geologic repository for spent nuclear fuel and high-level radioactive waste (BSC, 2003a). The UZ of YM is a complex system in geology and hydrogeology with significant parameter uncertainty and associated contaminant transport uncertainty. The UZ consists of various complex hydrogeologic units, and spatial variability of hydraulic properties in each unit can be viewed as deterministic and/or random processes of multiple scales. Yet, only limited data are available to characterize multi-scale heterogeneities, which results in uncertainties in model parameters and, subsequently, model predictions. The site also provides a good setting for illustrating and testing the non-conventional ML approach to estimate the PDFs of water retention parameters with only several samples available for each layer. A conservative tracer, technetium (⁹⁹Tc), and a reactive tracer, neptunium (²³⁷Np) are selected as synthetic tracers for the contaminant transport simulations in the UZ of YM. The hydraulic and transport parameters (e.g., permeability, porosity, van Genuchten α and n, and sorption coefficient of the reactive tracer) are treated as the random variables. Other parameters (e.g., residual saturation, molecular distribution, and hydrodynamic dispersion) are treated as the deterministic variables because the parameters are less variable based on the sensitivity analysis of Zhang et al. (2006). The uncertainties in fracture properties are also assumed to be deterministic due to their limited significance to the flow and transport simulations (BSC, 2004a; Zhang et al., 2006).

The Sisson and Lu (S&L) injection site, designed for infiltration experiments within the Hanford Site, Washington State (Sisson and Lu, 1984), is selected as a case study to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters. The site provides a good setting for illustrating and testing the coupling of Bayesian updating and ASMLCV approach to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters. 70 data sets of soil hydraulic parameters are available from six boreholes with 53 of these data from three close boreholes in the study site (Ye et al., 2007a). It is very difficult to determine the spatial correlation structures based on the traditional geostatistical approach (i.e., sample variogram), especially for the horizontal correlation scale.

1.2 Objectives

In summary, the objectives of this dissertation are as follows:

- (1) Develop a methodology of estimating PDFs of the unsaturated hydraulic parameters when field samples are sparse;
- (2) Characterize the layer- and local-scale heterogeneities of hydraulic parameters and evaluate the associated predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in UZ;
- (3) Investigate the contributions of individual parameter uncertainties to predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in UZ by the global sensitivity analysis;
- (4) Estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters to improve the heterogeneity characterizations by a coupled method of Bayesian updating and ASMLCV.

Thus, this dissertation is comprised of four individual but related parts. The first part (Chapter 2) is to present a direct method to estimate the PDFs of the water retention parameters using a Bayesian framework based on a non-conventional ML method when the core samples are sparse and prior PDFs of the parameters are unknown. The layerscale uncertainties in hydraulic parameters can be characterized and the associated uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in UZ are also evaluated. The second part (Chapter 3) is to incorporate the layer- and local-scale heterogeneities in hydraulic parameters (only permeability and porosity in this part) to investigate relative importance to the propagation of parameter uncertainty to flow and contaminant transport. The third part (Chapter 4) is to evaluate the relative importance of individual hydraulic parameters on flow and transport uncertainties using the sampling-based sensitivity analysis method. In addition, the effects of parameter correlations on the sensitivity analysis results are also investigated by comparing the sensitivity results with and without considering parameter correlations. The fourth part (Chapter 5) is to present a coupled method of Bayesian updating and ASMLCV to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters and to improve the heterogeneity characterizations of the hydraulic parameters.

1.3 Study Site, Conceptual Model and Numerical Model

1.3.1 Study Site

The study site, UZ of YM, is applied in first three parts of this dissertation and is briefly described here. The study site, S&L injection site, is only employed in the study of spatial correlation structure estimation and is introduced in Chapter 5.

The UZ of YM is between 500 and 700 meters thick and is a complex geologic formation with heterogeneous layered and anisotropic fractured tuffs (BSC, 2003a). The UZ consists of five major geologic units: Tiva Canyon welded unit (TCw), Paintbrush nonwelded unit (PTn), Topopah Spring welded unit (TSw), Calico Hills nonwelded unit (CHn), and Crater Flat undifferentiated unit (CFu) (Figure 1.1). Each unit is further divided into multiple hydrogeologic layers, which results in a total of 30 layers. A 3-D numerical grid of the UZ encompassing approximately 40 km² was developed, which consisted of 980 mesh columns and 45 numerical layers (BSC, 2004a). Figure 1.2 shows the plane-view of the numerical grid with the model domain, with proposed repository layout being highlighted in blue dots, borehole locations and faults.



Figure 1.1 Schematic illustration of the conceptualized flow processes and effects of capillary barriers, major faults, and perched-water zones within a typical east-west cross section of the UZ flow model domain (modified from BSC, 2004a).



Figure 1.2 Plan view of the 3-D UZ numerical model grid showing the model domain, faults, proposed repository layout, and locations of several boreholes (modified from BSC, 2004a).

A total of 5,320 rock core samples from 33 boreholes were collected to analyze the spatial variability of hydrologic properties in the UZ of YM (BSC, 2003b; Flint, 1998, 2003). There are 546 matrix saturated hydraulic conductivity samples (converted into permeability in this study) and 5,257 porosity samples measured from the cores at several clusters of shallow boreholes and 7 deep boreholes (BSC, 2003b; Flint, 1998). Matrix porosity was calculated based on the saturated weight, volume, and dry weight of the sample, which was obtained from the dried sample in 105°C for at least 48 hours (Flint, 1998). The matrix saturated hydraulic conductivity was calculated by Darcy's law after measuring the outflow over time using the permeameter (Flint, 1998). The water retention curves (water potential vs. saturation) of samples were obtained using the laboratory equipment of chilled-mirror psychrometer (Flint, 1998). The van Genuchten α and *n* parameters used in this study are derived by fitting the measured water retention curves (BSC, 2003b; Flint, 1998). Over 700 sample data of sorption coefficient (Kd) of the reactive tracer (²³⁷Np) was experimented for three types of rocks (devitrified, vitric, and zeolitc tuffs) (BSC, 2004b).

1.3.2 Conceptual Model

Since 1980s, conceptual models have been developed by many researchers to simulate the physical processes in the UZ of YM (Flint et al., 2001). The recently developed conceptual model is consistent with the measured data and observations reflecting the hydrologic processes in the UZ of YM (BSC, 2004a; Flint et al., 2001).

The infiltration pulses with spatial and temporal variability from precipitation are major sources of percolation fluxes through the highly fractured TCw unit on the top. The PTn unit with high porosity and low fracture intensity has a large capacity to store the groundwater penetrated through TCw as rapid fracture flow and to form more uniform flux at the base of PTn. The capillary barriers exists within the PTn unit at the upper and lower interfaces with TCw and TSw units due to large contrasts in rock properties across the interfaces (Montazer and Wilson, 1984). The perched water affecting flow paths in the UZ can be found on the top of low-permeability zeolites in CHn unit or the densely welded basal vitrophyre of the TSw unit in several boreholes (e.g., UZ-14, SD-7, SD-9, and SD-12 shown in Figure 1.2). In addition, faults with high permeability can play an

important role in percolation flux of UZ. More descriptions of flow conceptual model are referred to BSC (2004a) and Wu et al. (2007).

The contaminants can transport through the UZ as dissolved molecular species or in colloidal form, involving the physical processes of advection, molecular diffusion, sorption for reactive tracers, and radioactive decay. The mechanical dispersion through the fracture-matrix system is ignored, since sensitivity studies indicated that the mechanical dispersion has insignificant effect on the cumulative breakthrough curves of tracers at the water table (BSC, 2004a). The sorption processes involve three basic rock types (devitrified tuffs, vitric tuffs, and zeolitic tuffs). The contaminant transport in the TSw unit mostly occurs in the fractures. The transport occurs in both matrix and fractures with longer contact times between the tracers and the media leading to the increase of sorption and retardation when tracers travel to the vitric layers in CHn unit. However, for those zeolitic layers in CHn unit, fast transport dominated by fractures occurs due to the high disparity in permeability between matrix and fractures in those layers. When tracers move through the devitrified layers in CHn unit, the transport has similar behaviors to the vitric layers. More descriptions of the conceptual model of tracer transport are referred to BSC (2004b).

For the steady-state flow model, the ground surface and the water table are treated as the top and bottom model boundaries, where the pressure and saturation are specified as boundary conditions. The no-flux boundary condition is specified for the lateral boundaries. A present-day net infiltration estimate (Figure 1.3) is applied to the fracture blocks within the second grid layer from the top of the domain, as the first layer is treated as a Dirichlet boundary to represent average atmospheric conditions on the land surface. The transient-state transport simulation was carried out for 1,000,000 years. At the starting time of simulation, constant concentration source is instantaneously released from the fracture continuum blocks (blue points in Figure 1.2) representing the proposed repository (BSC, 2004a). The transport model shares the same boundaries as the flow model, with zero concentration at the top and bottom boundaries and no-flux lateral boundary conditions. More descriptions of the boundary conditions are referred to BSC (2004a, b).



Figure 1.3 Plan view of present-day net infiltration distributed over the 3-D unsaturated zone flow model grid.

Several approximations and assumptions have been used in the conceptual model, numerical model approaches and model boundary conditions such as vertical faults, quasi-steady-state flow approximations, and no flow at lateral boundaries (BSC, 2004a). Although these assumptions may limit the applications in estimating the gradients of pressures, and concentrations, the present conceptual and numerical models can better understand the flow and contaminant transport processes in the UZ of YM than previous models (BSC, 2004a; Flint et al., 2001). The details of assumptions for conceptual and numerical models are referred to BSC (2004a) and Flint et al. (2001).

1.3.3 Numerical Model

A 3-D site-scale numerical model (TOUGH2 code) has been developed to simulate the flow and transport of three mass components (air, water, and tracer) in the UZ of YM (BSC, 2004a; Pruess et al., 1999; Wu et al., 1996). The site-scale numerical model can integrate the hydrologic processes in multiple temporal and spatial scales and provide consistent simulations with the available measurements and observations in the UZ of YM (BSC, 2004a; Flint et al., 2001). Since the dual-continuum approach, primarily the dual-permeability concept, is used, a doublet of governing equations of flow and transport are used to simulate fluid flow, chemical transport, and heat transfer processes in the two-phase (air and water) system of fractured rock for fracture and matrix, respectively. The governing equations for either continuum are in the same form as those for a single porous medium. The details of the governing equations of the unsaturated flow and tracer transport are described in Appendix A. The integral finitedifference method is used to solve the governing equations numerically. The 3-D numerical model grid representing the UZ system consists of 980 mesh columns of both fracture and matrix continua along a horizon grid layer, and each column includes an average of 45 model layers representing the hydrogeologic layers. Refined mesh is used near the proposed repository and natural faults. More details of the numerical model can be found at Wu et al. (1999, 2002, 2004, 2007) and BSC (2004 a, b).

Because of the dual-continuum approach, two sets of hydraulic and transport properties and other intrinsic properties are needed for the fractured and matrix continua. The basic parameters used for each model layer include (a) fracture properties (frequency, spacing, porosity, permeability, van Genuchten α and n parameters, residual saturation, and fracture-matrix interface area); (b) matrix properties (porosity, permeability, van Genuchten α and n parameters, and residual saturation); (c) transport properties (grain density, diffusion, adsorption, and tortuosity coefficients); and (d) fault properties (porosity, matrix and fracture permeability, and active fracture-matrix interface area).

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CHAPTER 2

LAYER-SCALE UNCERTAINTY CHARACTERIZATION OF WATER RETENTION PARAMETERS AND PREDICTIVE UNCERTAINTY ASSESSMENT OF FLOW AND CONTAMINANT TRANSPORT IN UNSATURATED ZONE

This chapter characterizes the layer-scale uncertainties in the hydraulic parameters and evaluates the predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in UZ. The hydraulic and transport parameters (i.e., permeability, porosity, water retention parameters, and sorption coefficient of the reactive tracer in this study) are treated as homogeneous random variables to evaluate the parameter uncertainties in the layer-scale uncertainties. The PDFs of the parameters are required for the layer-scale uncertainty characterizations and associated predictive uncertainty assessment in unsaturated flow and contaminant transport. The PDFs of permeability, porosity, and sorption coefficient of the reactive have been rigorously identified based on a large data set of core samples in Pan (2005) and Ye et al. (2007b). This study aims to estimate the PDFs of water retention parameters (i.e., van Genuchten α and n in this study) with only sparse measurements and unknown prior PDFs based on a non-conventional ML method and evaluate the predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in UZ due to uncertainties in the water retention parameters.

2.1 Introduction

Numerical simulations of flow and contaminant transport in UZ require relationships describing water retention characteristics. The van Genuchten (1980) equation is one of the most widely used relationships,

$$S_e(h) = \frac{\theta(h) - \theta_r}{\theta_s - \theta_r} = (1 + |\alpha h|^n)^{-m}$$
(2.1)

where S_e is effective saturation, h is pressure head, θ is volumetric water content, θ_s and θ_r are saturated and residual volumetric water contents, respectively, α and m (n=1-1/m) are water retention parameters related to water entry pressure and soil pore size distribution, respectively. The water retention parameters are usually estimated from water retention data obtained from core samples, and how to more accurately estimate these parameter values has been an active research field for many years (Chirico et al., 2007; Christiaens and Feyen, 2001; Yates et al., 1992). Due to their spatial variability, the water retention parameters are treated as random variables in stochastic subsurface hydrology. PDFs of the parameters are required for evaluating uncertainty of the parameters and its propagation through unsaturated flow and contaminant transport models (Avanidou and Paleologos, 2002; Boateng, 2007; Chen et al., 2005; Christiaens and Feyen, 2001; Lu and Zhang, 2004; Ye et al., 2008b; Zhou et al., 2003). The parameter estimates and the PDFs can be obtained in two ways: direct methods of fitting water retention data (e.g., Børgesen and Schaap, 2005; Chirico et al., 2007; Christiaens and Feyen, 2000, 2001; Hollenbeck and Jensen, 1998; Meyer et al., 1997; Schaap and Leij, 1998; Vrugt and Bouten, 2002; Ye et al., 2007a) and indirect methods of calibrating the Richards' equation (Abbaspour et al., 2004; Hughson and Yeh, 2000; Minasny and Field, 2005; Wang et al., 2003; Yeh and Zhang, 1996). This study presents a direct

method of estimating the PDFs for measuring uncertainties in the water retention parameters and for evaluating effects of the uncertain parameters on predictive uncertainties in unsaturated flow and contaminant transport.

Many methods have been developed for estimating the water retention parameters and the associated estimation uncertainties. Among them, LS method is the most widely used due to its simplicity and flexibility. The LS method has been implemented in the RETC (Retention Curve) software (van Genuchten et al., 1991; Yates et al., 1992), and accuracy of the LS estimates is measured by a covariance matrix. The ML method incorporates measurement errors in a rigorous manner and can evaluate adequacy of model fit (Hollenbeck and Jensen, 1998). In addition, the ML method gives the Cramér-Rao lower bound for describing the parameter estimation uncertainty. The pedotransfer method (Børgesen and Schaap, 2005; Chirico et al., 2007; Christiaens and Feyen, 2000, 2001; Schaap and Leij, 1998; Ye et al., 2007a) is another type of parameter estimation method, and it uses the bootstrap method (Efron and Tibshirani, 1993) to measure accuracy of the estimates (Børgesen and Schaap, 2005; Schaap and Leij, 1998). These methods do not explicitly yield the parameter PDFs and this renders these methods insufficient for uncertainty assessments of unsaturated flow and contaminant transport. While the Bayesian methods (e.g., Meyer et al., 1997; Minasny and Field, 2005; Vrugt and Bouten, 2002) give the parameter PDFs, they require estimating the prior PDFs from published datasets of the soil hydraulic parameters. Although estimating the prior PDFs of hydraulic parameters is not difficult for soils, it may be difficult, if not impossible, for other types of unsaturated media such as fractured rock in this study.

This study estimates the PDFs of the water retention parameters in a Bayesian framework based on a non-conventional ML method introduced by Berger (1985, p223) in statistical literature. In particular, the PDFs are estimated for a situation common in field-scale modeling where core samples are sparse and prior PDFs of the parameters are unknown. When core samples are sparse, conventional statistical methods (e.g., Carsel and Parrish, 1988; Mallants et al., 1996; Russo and Bouton, 1992; Russo et al., 2008) of estimating the PDFs based on a large database become inappropriate. When prior PDFs are unknown, regular Bayesian methods cannot be applied. The non-conventional ML approach used in this study resolves the problems of sparse core sample measurements and unknown prior PDFs, since it shows in a Bayesian framework that the PDFs can be approximated as multivariate Gaussian for unknown prior PDF regardless of the number of measurements (Berger, 1985, p223). This is the major advantage of this approach over conventional ML methods, which give only ML parameter estimates and estimation uncertainty bounds, not the PDFs. Another feature of this approach is that it explicitly considers correlation between the water retention parameters through the multivariate Gaussian PDF, instead of ignoring the correlation (e.g., Zhou et al., 2003) or assuming a perfect correlation (e.g., Avanidou and Paleologos, 2002). The ML approach gives only mathematical expression of the multivariate Gaussian PDF, but not the way of estimating its mean and covariance. This study shows that the mean of the multivariate normal distribution is the same as the LS parameter estimates and that the covariance can be estimated using the sensitivity matrix. This provides a practical way of using the nonconventional ML approach, since the LS parameter estimates and the sensitivity matrix can be easily obtained.

Although the non-conventional ML approach was introduced decades ago, it has not received attention from vadose zone hydrologists for estimating the PDFs of the water retention parameters. The UZ of YM, the proposed geologic repository for spent nuclear fuel or high-level radioactive waste (BSC, 2003a), is selected as a cause study. The site provides a good setting for illustrating and testing the ML approach. In each hydrogeologic layer of the UZ, there are only several available measurements of the water retention parameters, insufficient for estimating the PDFs using conventional statistical methods. On the other hand, regular Bayesian methods cannot be applied because the prior parameter PDFs are unknown for the fractured porous medium. Due to these obstacles, uncertainties in the water retention parameters has not been fully assessed, despite its importance to the unsaturated flow and tracer transport uncertainties as shown in previous studies (e.g., Paleologos et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2006).

Necessity of assessing uncertainties in the water retention parameters at the site is illustrated in Figure 2.1. The solid line represents the van Genuchten model fitted using the LS method from water retention data (symbols) of three core samples in the hydrogeologic layer TMN (details of the parameter fitting are referred to BSC, 2003b). Uncertainties in the parameter estimates are quantified by the 95% confidence intervals of the parameters, and the corresponding van Genuchten models are plotted in the dashed lines of Figure 2.1. However, when the PDFs of the parameters are unknown, using the 95% confidence intervals for quantifying the uncertainties is empirical. Knowing the parameter PDFs would better quantify the parameter uncertainties. It is also expected that incorporating the parameter uncertainties into numerical modeling will better simulate the variability of the simulated state variables (e.g., saturation and concentration). However,

the extent of improvement is yet to be examined at the site, which partly motivates this study.



Figure 2.1 The van Genuchten model fitted to the water retention data of three samples for the hydrogeologic layer TMN of the UZ model of YM. Symbols denote the water retention data of three samples, and the solid and dashed lines are the fitted van Genuchten model and their 95% confidence intervals. The water retention data are adopted from BSC (2003b).

Another focus of this study is to investigate the effects of uncertainties in the water retention parameters on the predictive uncertainties in unsaturated flow and contaminant transport. We are particularly interested in the effects relative to that of permeability and porosity, since understanding the relative effects is important for directing future efforts of data collection for uncertainty reduction. The relative effects have not been examined in previous uncertainty analyses (e.g., Avanidou and Paleologos, 2002; Haukwa et al., 2003; Illman and Hughson, 2005; Nichols and Freshley, 1993; Oliveira et al., 2006; Paleologos et al., 2006; Ye et al., 2007b; Zhou et al., 2003). This study investigates the relative effects by incorporating the uncertainties in the water retention parameters into the numerical modeling of Ye et al. (2007b). Since Ye et al. (2007b) already assessed the predictive uncertainties due to the uncertainties in the permeability and porosity, the relative effects will be revealed by comparing the predictive uncertainties of this study with that of Ye et al. (2007b).

2.2 ML Method of Estimating the PDFs

This study determines the PDFs of the water retention parameters based on the ML theory of Berger (1985, p224): "Suppose that $X_1, X_2, ..., X_N$ are i.i.d. from the density $f_0(x_i|\boldsymbol{\beta}), \boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_1, \beta_2, ..., \beta_p)^T$ being an unknown vector of parameters. (We will write $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_N)^T$ and $f(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \prod_{i=1}^N f_0(x_i|\boldsymbol{\beta})$, as usual.) Suppose $\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta})$ is a prior density, and that $\pi(\boldsymbol{\beta})$ and $f(x_i|\boldsymbol{\beta})$ are positive and twice differential near $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$, the (assumed to exist) maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$. Based on the Bayes' theorem, the posterior density of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$

$$p(\mathbf{\beta} \mid \mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{\beta}) \pi(\mathbf{\beta}) / m(\mathbf{x})$$
(2.2)

 $(m(\mathbf{x})$ being a normalizing factor), can be approximated by a multivariate normal distribution, $N_p(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}, [\hat{\mathbf{I}}(\mathbf{x})]^{-1})$, where $\hat{\mathbf{I}}$ is the observed (or conditional) Fisher information matrix, having (i, j) element

$$\hat{I}_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) = -\left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \beta_i \partial \beta_j} \ln f(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\beta})\right]_{\boldsymbol{\beta} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}} = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \beta_i \partial \beta_j} \ln f(x_i \mid \boldsymbol{\beta})\right]_{\boldsymbol{\beta} = \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}} ...$$
(2.3)

Taking x as the retention data and β as the water retention parameters (or their transforms such as logarithm), this ML approach provides a method of estimating the PDFs of the water retention parameters. Without having large number of measurements of the water retention parameters and knowing the prior PDF, the posterior PDF is approximated as multivariate Gaussian. This feature renders the ML theory the only way of identifying the PDFs of the retention parameters for the UZ and other site of the similar situation.

The ML approach only gives the expression of the Gaussian PDF, $N_p(\hat{\beta}, [\hat{\mathbf{I}}(\mathbf{x})]^{-1})$; this study shows that its mean (the MLE) is the same as the least square estimates (LSE) and that its covariance can be estimated from the sensitivity matrix at the fitted parameter values. Assuming that residuals, $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{\theta} - \hat{\mathbf{\theta}}(\mathbf{\beta})$, between observed water saturation data ($\mathbf{\theta}$) and estimated data ($\hat{\mathbf{\theta}}$) using the van Genuchten model, follow normal distribution with mean of zero and covariance matrix of $\sigma^2 \omega^{-1}$ (where σ^2 is unknown and the same for all x_i and ω is weight matrix of the residuals related to measurement error and model quality) (Carrera and Neuman, 1986), the likelihood function is

$$f(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^N | \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{\omega}^{-1} |}} \exp(\frac{-\mathbf{r}^T \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{r}}{2\sigma^2})$$
(2.4)

Taking its natural logarithm and multiplying it by -1 on both sides gives

$$-\ln f(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) = \frac{N}{2} \ln(2\pi) + \frac{N}{2} \ln(\sigma^2) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ln | \boldsymbol{\omega}^{-i} | + \frac{\mathbf{r}^T \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{r}}{2\sigma^2}$$
(2.5)

One of the difference between the ML and LS methods is that the ML estimates both β and σ^2 , while the LS only estimates β . Considering that β and σ^2 are independent, the ML estimate $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ can be obtained by setting $-\partial \ln \left[f(\mathbf{x} | \boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) \right] / \partial \boldsymbol{\beta} = 0$ without knowing σ^2 . Since $N_z \ln(2\pi)$, $N_z \ln \sigma^2$ and $\ln |\omega^{-1}|$ in Eq. (2.5) are independent of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$, this is equivalent to minimizing the LS objective function

$$O(\mathbf{\beta}) = \mathbf{r}^{T} \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{r} = [\boldsymbol{\theta} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{\beta})]^{T} \boldsymbol{\omega} [\boldsymbol{\theta} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{\beta})]$$
(2.6)

Therefore, the ML estimate $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$ is the same as the LS estimates. The equivalence between the MLE and LSE is achieved based on the assumption that the residuals, \mathbf{r} , are Gaussian, a reasonable assumption according to Press et al. (1992) and Carrera and Neuman (1986). General comparison between the ML and LS methods can be found in Hollenbeck and Jensen (1998), Hill and Tiedeman (2007), and Ye et al. (2008a). One can then estimate σ^2 , *a posteriori*, by setting $-\partial \ln \left[f(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}, \sigma^2 | \mathbf{x}) \right] / \partial \sigma^2 = 0$, which results in the ML estimate (Carrera and Neuman, 1986; Seber and Wild, 1989; Seber and Lee, 2003)

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{\mathbf{r}^T \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{r}}{N}\Big|_{\boldsymbol{\beta}=\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}}$$
(2.7)

To estimate the Fisher information matrix in Eq. (2.3), taking the second order derivative of Eq. (2.5) with respect to the water retention parameters gives

$$\hat{I}_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \frac{\partial^2 (\mathbf{r}^T \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{r})}{\partial \beta_i \partial \beta_j} = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \frac{\partial^2 ((\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}})^T \boldsymbol{\omega} (\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}))}{\partial \beta_i \partial \beta_j}$$
(2.8)

which can be approximated by (Nelles, 2001)

$$\hat{\mathbf{I}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\hat{\sigma}^2} \mathbf{J}^T \boldsymbol{\omega} \mathbf{J}$$
(2.9)

where **J** is the Jacobian matrix with element $J_{ij} = \partial \hat{x}_i / \partial \beta_j$ evaluated at $\hat{\beta}$. The covariance matrix explicitly measures the correlation between the water retention parameters. The

expression of Eq. (2.9) can also be found in Carrera and Neuman (1986), Hill and Tiedeman (2007), and Ye et al. (2008a). The ML approach is applied to the hydrogeologic layers of the UZ, and the approximated Gaussian PDFs are evaluated in two ways described below.

2.3 Uncertainty Assessments of Water Retention Parameters, Unsaturated Flow and Contaminant Transport

In addition to the numerical evaluation of approximated Gaussian PDF, this section also discusses the effects of the uncertainties in the water retention parameters on the predictive uncertainties in the unsaturated flow and contaminant transport. Random parameters in this study include not only the water retention parameters but also matrix permeability, porosity, and sorption coefficient. Uncertainties of the latter three parameters have been addressed in Pan (2005) and Ye et al. (2007b). By comparing the statistics in this study with those of Ye et al. (2007b), the relative (to permeability and porosity) effects of the uncertainties in the water retention parameters on the predictive uncertainties of unsaturated flow and tracer transport at the UZ of YM are investigated.

2.3.1 Uncertainty in Matrix van Genuchten α and *m*

Following the tradition of fitting water retention data, the $\log \alpha$ and *m* are fitted from water retention data for each hydrogeologic layer of the UZ, and the fitted mean and standard deviation of the two parameters are listed in Table 2.1. Values of the mean and standard deviation are significantly different for different layers, reflecting the layering structure of the UZ. Uncertainty in $\log \alpha$ is particularly large, resulting in uncertain flow path in matrix and between the matrix and fracture. Figure 2.2 shows the cumulative distribution functions (CDFs) of the two parameters together with the five parameters fitted from core samples using the RETC software for the TLL layer. The CDF is estimated based on 200 random numbers of the retention parameters generated using the Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS) method (McKay et al., 1979). It is well known that the LHS is more efficient for sampling the parameter space than random sampling methods. The parameter correlation is measured using the Spearman rank correlation coefficient, which can measure nonlinear correlation and is thus superior to the commonly used Pearson correlation coefficient (Helton and Davis, 2003; Iman and Conover, 1982). In order to obtain the rank correlation from the covariance matrix, the statistic software MINITAB (http://www.minitab.com/) is used to generate 2,000 realizations based on the 2,000 realizations. Figure 2.2 shows that the fitted parameter values are within the range of their respective CDFs, indicating that the approximated Gaussian distribution is able to describe the uncertainties in the water retention parameters.

2.3.2 Predictive Uncertainty in Unsaturated Flow

Figure 2.3 shows the mean and uncertainty bounds of the simulated matrix saturation and corresponding observations at borehole SD-12 (its location is shown in Figure 1.2). The uncertainty bounds are the 5th and 95th percentiles of the simulated state variables (e.g., saturation and percolation fluxes) based on 200 Monte Carlo realizations. Both the variance and uncertainty bounds are used to measure the predictive uncertainty. Since the uncertainty bounds correspond to the 5th and 95th percentiles and directly reveal variability of the simulated variables, they are considered more informative than the variance. The mean predictions capture the observed variation trend reasonably well,

and the uncertainty bounds bracket a large portion of the observations. It suggests that the approximated Gaussian PDFs of the water retention parameters result in reasonable simulations of the observed state variables.

Layer Name	Core sample number	$\mu_{\log(lpha)}$	$\sigma_{\log(lpha)}$	μ_m	$\sigma_{_m}$
CCR&CUC	3	0.004	0.244	0.388	0.081
CUL&CW	10	-0.509	0.199	0.280	0.046
CMW	6	-0.488	0.192	0.259	0.044
CNW	8	1.207	0.269	0.245	0.038
BT4	8	1.164	0.169	0.219	0.019
TPY	2	0.391	0.728	0.247	0.104
BT3	3	1.897	0.375	0.182	0.028
TPP	3	1.015	0.189	0.300	0.039
BT2	11	1.992	0.335	0.126	0.017
TC	4	0.939	0.544	0.218	0.068
TR	5	0.055	0.118	0.290	0.025
TUL	4	-0.210	0.114	0.283	0.025
TMN	3	-0.074	0.776	0.317	0.122
TLL	5	0.032	0.447	0.216	0.058
TM2&TM1	3	-0.081	0.934	0.442	0.173
PV3	5	-0.206	0.446	0.286	0.092
PV2a	1	-0.337	0.156	0.059	0.007
PV2v	1	0.686	0.043	0.293	0.011
BT1a	3	-1.678	0.183	0.349	0.073
BT1v	3	0.940	0.050	0.240	0.008
CHV	5	1.413	0.092	0.158	0.008
CHZ	4	-0.648	0.094	0.257	0.022
BTa	1	-1.807	0.043	0.499	0.036
BTv	1	0.196	0.253	0.147	0.025
PP4	3	-1.349	0.513	0.474	0.200
PP3	5	-0.055	0.094	0.407	0.033
PP2	3	-0.622	0.168	0.309	0.044
PP1	3	-1.036	0.442	0.272	0.116
BF3	2	0.098	0.940	0.193	0.077
BF2	1	-1.921	0.032	0.617	0.070

Table 2.1 The estimation of mean and standard deviation of van Genuchten α and *m* parameters.



Figure 2.2 CDFs of the matrix van Genuchten α and *m* in the layer of TLL. Fitted parameter values of five core samples in the layer are also plotted as solid triangles on the x-axis.

Figure 2.3 also includes the same statistics obtained in Ye et al. (2007b), in which the uncertainties in the water retention parameters were not considered. The mean predictions of the both cases (with and without considering uncertainties in the water retention parameters) capture the observed variation trend reasonably well. In unit TSw where the potential repository will be located, .75% of observations are covered by the uncertainty bounds (solid lines) of this study, while the uncertainty bounds (dashed lines) of Ye et al. (2007b) cover only 65% of observations. The reason is that the uncertainties in the water retention parameters were not incorporated in Ye et al. (2007b).

The percolation flux through the UZ is a key variable in evaluating the potential repository site because percolation flux and its spatial variations could affect the amount of water flowing into the waste emplacement drifts, potential tracer release and migration from the UZ to the groundwater table. Percolation flux is defined as the total vertical liquid mass flux through both fractures and matrices (BSC, 2004a; Wu et al. 2004). For better presentation, it is converted to millimeters per year using a constant water density.

Figures 2.4a and b show the mean and variance of the simulated percolation fluxes at the water table, and Figures 2.4c and d are those of Ye et al. (2007b) in which the water retention parameters were treated as deterministic. Comparison of the mean values (Figures 2.4a and 2.4c) shows that the magnitude and spatial pattern are similar over the entire domain, suggesting limited effects of the uncertainties in the water retention parameters on the mean predictions. However, comparing Figures 2.4b and 2.4d reveals that variance of the percolation flux increases significantly after the uncertainties in water retention parameters is incorporated. On average over the simulation domain, the variance increases by about 38%; the number of blocks at the water table with variance larger than 10 (mm^2/yr^2) is almost doubled.



Figure 2.3 Comparison of the observed and simulated matrix liquid saturation with (solid line) and without (dash line) considering the water retention parameter uncertainty for borehole SD-12.



Figure 2.4 Mean and variance of the simulated percolation fluxes at water table with (a and b) and without (c and d) considering the water retention parameter uncertainty.

2.3.3 Predictive Uncertainty in Unsaturated Tracer Transport

Transport of a conservative tracer, technetium (⁹⁹Tc), and a reactive tracer, neptunium (²³⁷Np) is simulated for a scenario that a constant concentration source is released instantaneously from the fracture continuum locks representing the potential repository (Figure 1.2). Predictive uncertainty of the tracer transport is quantified in terms of plume and breakthrough of the tracers at the water table. Spatial distribution of the normalized cumulative mass arrival at the water table is an important variable in

investigating transport patterns and in estimating the potential locations of high tracer concentrations. The normalized cumulative mass arrival, as defined in BSC (2004b), is the cumulative mass arriving at each cell of the water table over time, normalized by the total mass of the initially released tracer from the potential repository horizon. Figures 2.5a and b show the mean and variance of the normalized cumulative mass arrival contours of ²³⁷Np at the water table after 1,000,000 years. The mean and variance are large in the area directly below the footprint of the proposed repository. Spatial pattern of the variance (Figure 2.5b) is similar to that of the flow variance contour shown in Figure 2.4b, indicative of correlation between the uncertainties in flow and tracer transport. Figures 2.5c and d depict the same mean and variance of normalized cumulative mass without considering the uncertainties in the water retention parameters (Pan, 2005; Ye et al., 2007b). Comparing contours of the mean predictions in Figures 2.5a and 2.5c suggests limited effects of the uncertainties in the water retention parameters on the mean predictions of the tracer transport. However, the variance shown in Figure 2.5b is significantly larger than that of Figure 2.5d, almost doubled on average over the whole domain. In addition, the area with variance lager than 0.01 in Figure 2.5b also increases by about 3% relative to that shown in Figure 2.5d.



Figure 2.5 Mean and variance of the normalized cumulative mass arrival contours of the reactive tracer (²³⁷Np) at the water table after 1,000,000 years with (a and b) and without (c and d) considering the water retention parameter uncertainty.

Tracer travel time from the potential repository to the water table is another important variable for performance assessment of the proposed repository to measure the overall tracer transport. Different from calculating the normalized cumulative mass arrival, the tracer travel time is obtained by summing the cumulative mass arriving at water table over all blocks at a given time. Figure 2.6 shows the simulated breakthrough curves as fractional cumulative mass arriving at the water table for the ⁹⁹Tc and ²³⁷Np. The uncertainty bounds of breakthrough curves in Figure 2.6 show that fractional mass

arrival is significantly uncertain. Figure 2.6 also includes the same statistics without considering the uncertainties in the water retention parameters (Ye et al., 2007b). Due to the large time scale used in Figure 2.6, Table 2.2 lists the 5th and 95th percentiles at the 10%, 25%, 50%, 75%, and 90% mass fractional breakthrough for both cases for better evaluation of the travel time uncertainty. Similar to what has been observed from the contours, the mean breakthrough is affected only slightly by considering the uncertaint water retention parameters, while the uncertainty bounds increases more significantly. For example, with the random water retention parameters, the 5th and 95th percentiles of simulated travel time of ⁹⁹Tc are 8.05×10^3 and 9.43×10^2 years when 50% of the tracer arrives at the water table. With the deterministic water retention parameters, the corresponding travel times are 7.17×10^3 and 8.22×10^2 years. The uncertainty range increases from 6,348 to 7,107 years if the uncertainties in water retention parameters are considered. Similarly, for 50% of the reactive tracer (²³⁷Np) arriving at the water table, the uncertainty range increases from 255,000 to 278,100 years.

2.4 Conclusions

This study addressed two problems in numerical simulations of unsaturated flow and contaminant transport. The first is how to estimate the PDFs of the water retention parameters when measurements of the parameters are sparse and the prior PDFs are unknown; the other is whether the uncertainties in the water retention parameters is important in the predictive uncertainties of unsaturated flow and contaminant transport. The first problem was resolved using the non-conventional ML approach (Berger, 1985), which approximates the PDFs as multivariate Gaussian without requiring the prior PDFs

and large number of parameter measurements. This study provided the method of estimating the mean and covariance of PDFs based on the least-square fitting results, which can be easily estimated from existing software such as RETC. For the case study of YM UZ, water retention parameter ranges obtained from the Gaussian distributions encompass the parameter values of individual samples, and are significantly larger than the ranges of the measured parameter values. This indicates that uncertainties in the water retention parameters should not be ignored.

The relative effects of the uncertainties in the water retention parameters on the predictive uncertainties in flow and transport were evaluated using the Monte Carlo method. After the random water retention parameters are considered, variability of the observed matrix saturations is better represented in that 10% more observations are bracketed by the uncertainty bounds. Predictive variance of the percolation flux increases if the random water retention parameters are taken into account, while the uncertain water retention parameters have limited effects on the mean prediction of percolation fluxes. The similar conclusion is also true for the magnitude and spatial pattern of the simulated plume of both conservative and reactive tracers. The travel time of the two types of tracers also becomes more uncertain after incorporating the uncertain water retention parameters, signified by the result that uncertainty bounds of the tracer travel time increase by tens of thousands of years.



Figure 2.6 Simulated breakthrough curves of the cumulative mass arriving at water table for (a) the conservative tracer (⁹⁹Tc) and (b) reactive tracer (²³⁷Np) with (this study) and without (Ye et al, 2007b) considering the water retention parameter uncertainty.

Table 2.2 Comparison of mean, 5th, and 95th percentiles of simulated travel time of the conservative (⁹⁹Tc) and reactive (²³⁷Np) tracers arriving at water table at 10%, 25%, 50%, 75% and 90% mass fraction breakthrough with (this study) and without (Ye et al., 2007b) considering the water retention parameter uncertainty.

Breakthrough curves	Mass fraction	Travel Time of this study		Travel Time of Ye et al. (2007b)		
	-	⁹⁹ Tc	²³⁷ Np	⁹⁹ Tc	²³⁷ Np	
5th	10%	4.97×10^{1}	1.43×10^{4}	1.87×10^{1}	1.99×10^{4}	
percentile	25%	7.53×10^{2}	1.05×10^{5}	1.08×10^{3}	9.40×10^4	
	50%	8.05×10^{3}	3.03×10^{5}	7.17×10^{3}	2.75×10^{5}	
	75%	2.55×10^4	9.42×10^{5}	2.32×10^4	8.38×10^{5}	
	90% ·	1.23×10^{5}	>1.00×10 ⁶	1.17×10^{5}	>1.00×10 ⁶	
95th	10%	3.72	5.91	3.86	5.34	
percentile	25%	1.08×10^{1}	3.00×10^{3}	1.03×10^{1}	1.98×10^{3}	
	50%	9.43×10^{2}	2.49×10^{4}	8.22×10^{2}	2.00×10^4	
	75%	8.66×10^3	1.33×10^{5}	9.00×10^{3}	1.29×10^{5}	
	90%	4.19×10 ⁴	4.01×10 ⁵	4.70×10^4	5.80×10 ⁵	

2.5 References

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CHAPTER 3

INCORPORATING LAYER- AND LOCAL-SCALE HETEROGENEITIES IN NUMERICAL SIMULATION OF UNSATURATED FLOW AND CONTAMINANT TRANSPORT

This chapter incorporates the layer- and local-scale heterogeneities in hydraulic parameters into the uncertainty assessments of flow and transport and investigates the relative effects of layer- and local-scale heterogeneities on the uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in heterogeneous UZ. The hydraulic parameters (i.e. permeability and porosity in this chapter) are treated as heterogeneous random variables to characterize the local-scale heterogeneities of the parameters. Due to only several available measurements for van Genuchten α and n parameters for each hydrogeologic layer and no spatial experiment data for sorption coefficient of the reactive tracer, the local-scale heterogeneities in these parameters cannot be characterized and they are treated as deterministic variables.

3.1 Introduction

Hydrogeologic environments consist of natural soils and rocks that exhibit multiscale spatial variability, or heterogeneity, in hydraulic and transport parameters from core samples to layer structures and lithofacies. Although the parameters are intrinsically

deterministic (i.e., they exist and are potentially measurable at all scales), knowledge of these parameters usually is limited, especially at field scales. Parameter uncertainty thus arises and renders the predictions of contaminant transport uncertain. Quantifying uncertainty at the field scale is of particular importance because decisions are often based on the field-scale predictions. It is common in field-scale modeling to separate a large field domain into hydrogeologic layers (layer-scale). Layer-scale uncertainty is important in simulating the overall flow and transport trend and pattern. While local-scale heterogeneity within the layers is critical in predicting flow path, velocity, and travel time of contaminants, it is often neglected in modeling practices. This study aims to characterize both layer- and local-scale heterogeneities and evaluate their relative effects on the predictive uncertainties in unsaturated flow and contaminant transport.

The study site is the UZ of YM, which consists of various complex hydrogeologic units, and spatial variability of hydraulic properties in each unit can be viewed as deterministic and/or random processes of multiple scales. Heterogeneities in the hydraulic properties in the UZ have been investigated by many researchers. Based on the degree of welding, rock properties, and hydraulic properties, the UZ is separated into 5 major geologic units and 30 hydrogeologic layers (BSC, 2003b; Flint, 1998, 2003; Flint et al., 2006). Zhou et al. (2003) categorized the heterogeneity for site, layer, and local scales. Typically, in studies of YM, *site scale* refers to the UZ model domain of numerical modeling studies; *layer scale* refers to the spatial variation in hydraulic properties within a layer. In the last decade, layer-scale uncertainty has been characterized and incorporated into the 3-D site-scale numerical model (e.g., BSC, 2004a; Wu et al., 1999,

2004, 2007). Parameter uncertainty and sensitivity analysis for tracer transport in the YM UZ has been conducted mainly at the layer scale (Illman and Hughson, 2005; Nichols and Freshley, 1993; Pan, 2005; Ye et al., 2007b; Zhang et al., 2006). Local-scale heterogeneity in the model parameters within a layer is also important since it affects the flow path, velocity, and travel time of tracers (Bodvarsson et al., 2001; Haukwa et al., 2003; Illman and Hughson, 2005; Viswanathan et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2003). This study incorporates the layer- and local-scale heterogeneities and conducts a Monte Carlo simulation to investigate their relative importance to the propagation of parameter uncertainty. Based on a-priori knowledge of the UZ described in Chapter 1, the model parameters of particular importance in our local-scale heterogeneity characterizations include matrix permeability and porosity. Since the uncertainties of these two parameters have been characterized at the layer scale in Pan (2005) and Ye et al. (2007b), selecting them for the uncertainty analysis enables us to distinguish between the effects of local-scale and layer-scale heterogeneities on uncertainties in unsaturated flow and tracer transport.

This study is focused on investigating the relative effects of layer- and local-scale heterogeneities on predictive uncertainty, but not on jointly assessing the predictive uncertainties due to heterogeneities of the two scales. However, this study can be extended for a joint assessment of multi-scale heterogeneity using, for example, the Random Domain Decomposition (RDD) approach (Guadagnini et al., 2004; Winter and Tartakovsky, 2000, 2002; Winter et al., 2002, 2003, 2006; Xiu and Tartakovsky, 2004). The RDD also separates a field-scale geologic system into a number of geologic units (e.g., hydrogeologic layers and lithofacies), but treats boundaries of the geologic units as

uncertain (the units being random composites). The key input of the RDD is the probability of boundary locations, used for averaging local-scale uncertainty to incorporate uncertainties in the unit boundaries. While estimating the probability is still in its development stage (Winter et al., 2006), the problem may be resolved using geostatistical methods (e.g., Guadagnini et al., 2004). When the boundary locations are fixed (e.g., Winter et al., 2006), some results of the RDD can also be obtained by conventional stochastic methods as observed in this study. In terms of separating a highly heterogeneous domain into less heterogeneous hydrogeological layers, this study is conceptually analogous to the RDD. If uncertainty in the layer boundary locations can be statistically quantified for the UZ, which will be very difficult for the complicated geological system with the limited characterization data, this study can be extended to incorporate this uncertainty using the RDD.

3.2 Characterization of Parameter Heterogeneity

There are two types of available data for matrix permeability and porosity: core measurements at the local scale and calibrated values at the layer scale. From 33 boreholes, 5,320 rock core samples were collected (Flint, 1998, 2003; BSC, 2003b) yielding 546 measurements of saturated hydraulic conductivity (which can be converted to permeability in our simulations) and 5,257 measurements of porosity. Figure 3.1 shows the locations of the measurements. Particularly, more porosity measurements are available in shallow boreholes than permeability measurements (Figure 3.1) and the borehole locations are also shown in Figure 1.2. The other type of parameter data is the layer-scale values of permeability obtained from calibrating the 3-D model (BSC, 2004a;

Wu et al., 2004, 2007). Calibration of the 3-D model is based on calibration of the earlier one-dimensional (1-D) model (BSC, 2004c), which resulted in adjustment of the matrix permeability values for the layers BT3, BT2, CHV, and PP3. Since the calibrated permeability values in these layers represent the optimum estimate of layer-scale UZ heterogeneity, the calibrated permeability values for these layers need to be retained in the generated heterogeneous field.

For each hydrogeologic layer, sequential Gaussian simulation (SGSIM) of GSLIB (Geostatistical Software Library) (Deutsch and Journel, 1998) is used to generate the conditional heterogeneous parameter realizations to characterize local-scale heterogeneity and associated uncertainties. Since the SGSIM does not consider correlations between random variables, the random fields of the matrix permeability and porosity are generated separately. To satisfy the SGSIM requirement for conditional data to be Gaussian (many studies simply assume that the conditioning data are Gaussian), the transform method of Ye et al. (2007b) is adopted in this study. At each layer, measurements are transformed to be Gaussian by one of the three Johnson transformations (Carsel and Parrish, 1988; Johnson and Kotz, 1970) and four classical re-expressions (Mallants et al., 1996). The random fields incorporating local-scale heterogeneity are first generated with the transformed data and then back-transformed to their real values.



Figure 3.1 The locations of measurements in matrix hydraulic conductivity (blue circle) and porosity (green square) in the UZ of YM.

The correlation lengths of the parameters are determined based on variogram analysis (e.g., Ye et al., 2005b, 2007a). Since the porosity measurements are abundant and widely spread in shallow boreholes, horizontal and vertical correlation lengths of porosity in each hydrogeologic layer of the TCw, PTn, and TSw units are estimated by calculating and fitting the sample variograms. While the vertical variogram of porosity in each hydrogeologic layer of the two deep units of CHn and CFu can be calculated, it is not possible to calculate the horizontal variogram in each layer due to the lack of measurements in the two units. However, we note that, for three shallow units of TCw, PTn, and TSw, the horizontal correlation length in each layer is similar to that of the unit where the layer belongs. Consequently, horizontal correlation lengths for the layers within the CHn unit are assumed constant and assigned the value of the CHn unit, given that the horizontal variogram of the CHn unit can be calculated from measurements. Since only one borehole was drilled in the CFu unit (below the CHn unit), the horizontal correlation lengths for the two layers in this unit are assumed to be the same as those for the CHn unit. Permeability measurements are sufficient only for estimating the vertical correlation lengths for 14 layers, where there appears to be a tendency for permeability and porosity to have similar vertical correlation lengths. The similarity may be attributed to the strong correlation between permeability and porosity shown in Flint (2003) and to the fact that the permeability and porosity measurements were taken from the same boreholes. It is thus assumed that, for layers where plotting variograms is impossible due to lack of data, the permeability and porosity have the same correlation lengths.

To honor the layer-scale permeability values obtained from the 3-D model calibrations, we first calculate for each numerical block the sample mean (over the realizations) of permeability and then average them over each layer. The resulting layeraveraged values are close to the calibrated values for most model layers, except for layers BT3, BT2, CHV, and PP3, where layer-scale permeability is increased during the model calibration (BSC, 2004a). To ensure that the mean permeability of each realization equals the calibrated value, the layer-averaged permeability is adjusted for the four layers, after which, the generated permeability values are no longer conditioned on the local-scale core measurements. As a result, the generated values of permeability and porosity in each layer randomly fluctuate around a mean value that is the same as calibrated layer-scale values or close to them. This procedure omits uncertainties in the calibrated layer-scale parameter values. The ideal way is to compare the PDFs of the layer- and local-scale parameter values. However, estimating the PDFs of the layer-scale variables will require additional field investigation and recalibrating the UZ models, which is beyond the scope of this study.

Figure 3.2 shows the sample mean of the 200-realization log-permeability at the east-west and north-south cross-sections through borehole UZ-14 located in the proposed repository area (the two cross-sections are marked in Figure 1.2). Layer-scale uncertainty is apparent, since the mean log-permeability is significantly different in the various layers. At the bottom layers, Figure 3.2b shows that the mean log-permeability in the northern part of the domain is significantly smaller than that in the south, reflecting the fact that the CHn-unit zeolitic tuffs (with low permeability) are located in the north, while the vitric tuffs (with high permeability) are located in the south. Figure 3.2 also illustrates the local-scale heterogeneity within each layer. Sample variance (figures not shown) of the log-permeability over the 200 realizations varies significantly, from 0.5 to 8.0 in different layers, depending on the density of measurements in each layer. In general, the variance is smaller for thinner layers with more measurements. The spatial variability of porosity is similar to that of log permeability but with a smaller magnitude of variation.

3.3 Uncertainty Assessment

Monte Carlo simulations are conducted to investigate the propagation of uncertainties in matrix permeability and porosity into the uncertainties in flow and tracer transport at UZ. The mean, variance, and 5th, 50th, and 95th percentiles of the simulated state variables (e.g., saturation, percolation fluxes, and concentration) are evaluated from 200 realizations. In addition to the variance, the 5th and 95th percentiles (also known as uncertainty bounds) are used to quantify predictive uncertainty. The deterministic simulation results of BSC (2004a) are treated in this study as a baseline case for the stochastic simulations. Note that only layer-scale uncertainty was considered in the



Figure 3.2 Mean of generated random log permeability at east-west (a) and north-south (b) cross section through borehole UZ-14 (TCw, PTn, TSw, and CHn are four major units in the UZ of YM; TLL is the proposed repository layer in TSw unit).

deterministic simulation. Convergence of the Monte Carlo simulations is investigated in a similar manner to Ballio and Guadagnini (2004) and Ye et al. (2004a). Results indicate that the statistics reach stabilization after 150 realizations, and therefore, 200 realizations are regarded sufficient for meaningful statistics for the uncertainty assessments.

3.3.1 Uncertainty Assessment of Unsaturated Flow

3.3.1.1 Comparison of Simulated and Measured Saturation and Water Potential

Simulated matrix liquid saturation and water potential are verified by comparing their statistics with field observations. Figure 3.3 compares the observed and simulated matrix water saturation along borehole SD-12. The simulated mean saturation (as well as the 50th percentile) is close to the corresponding result for the deterministic case (Wu et al., 2004; BSC, 2004a), indicating that layer-scale uncertainty in model parameters dominates local-scale heterogeneity in simulating the mean behavior of the unsaturated flow. The mean matrix liquid saturation is in reasonable agreement with the observed profiles, especially the matched variation patterns. The 5th and 95th percentiles of simulated results bracket a large portion of the observations, indicating that observed state variability could be explained partially by parameter uncertainties in the matrix permeability and porosity. Unbracketed measurements may be attributed to uncertainty not considered in this study, such as uncertainties in other model parameters, measurement error, conceptual model incompleteness, and different scales between the model inputs and the field and laboratory parameter measurements. The simulated and observed matrix liquid saturation along other boreholes is also compared, and the comparison results are similar to those shown in Figure 3.3. The comparison of simulated

and observed water potential along borehole shows similar features as the liquid saturation (figure not shown).



Figure 3.3 Comparison of observed and 3-D model simulated matrix liquid saturation for borehole SD-12.

3.3.1.2 Flow Pattern and Uncertainty Assessment

Figure 3.4 depicts the mean, variance, and 5th and 95th percentiles of simulated percolation fluxes at the proposed repository horizon, while Figure 3.5a and 3.5b show the mean and variance at the water table. The pattern of mean percolation fluxes at the proposed repository layer (Figure 3.4a) is similar to the surface infiltration pattern

(Figure 1.3), indicating dominant vertical flow and negligible lateral movement from the land surface to the proposed repository level. At the water table (Figure 3.5a), the high percolation flux zone moves eastward, indicating significant lateral flow from the proposed repository level to the water table. This is mainly attributed to the dipping slope (around 5 to 10 degrees) and the presence of the CHn unit between the proposed repository and the water table (Figure 3.2). Variance in percolation fluxes at the proposed repository level (Figure 3.4b) is larger in the western part of the model domain associated with the high infiltration rate. In comparison to Figure 3.4b, Figure 3.5b shows that a large variance at the water table also occurs at the western side of the domain but covers a wider area that extends southward. This may be due to the larger spatial variation of matrix permeability at the bottom than at the top of the simulation domain (Figure 3.2) and the accumulated effects of parameter uncertainty propagation downward to the water table. In Figures 3.4c and 3.4d, the 5th and 95th percentiles of percolation fluxes are significantly different, indicating large uncertainty in the percolation fluxes caused by the uncertainty in matrix permeability.

3.3.1.3 Comparison of Flow Uncertainty Assessment

In Pan (2005) and Ye et al. (2007b), the uncertainty in unsaturated flow caused by parameter uncertainty was assessed only at the layer scale. Multiple correlated realizations of matrix permeability and porosity were generated using the LHS method for each layer where the parameters were treated as homogeneous. This is referred to as the *homogeneous case*, as opposed to the *heterogeneous case* in this study, where randomly heterogeneous parameter fields are generated for each layer based on the procedure described in Section 3.2. Figure 3.5 shows the mean and variance of the

percolation fluxes at the water table for the heterogeneous (Figure 3.5a and 3.5b) and homogeneous (Figure 3.5c and 3.5d) cases. While the mean predictions have a similar pattern and magnitude, the variance in the heterogeneous case (Figure 3.5b) is significantly larger than that in the homogeneous case (Figure 3.5d), especially under the footprint of the proposed repository area shown in Figure 1.2. This indicates that the local-scale heterogeneity of matrix permeability results in larger predictive uncertainty in the percolation fluxes because the local-scale heterogeneity creates more complicated flow paths.



Figure 3.4 (a) Mean, (b) variance, (c) 5th percentile, and (d) 95th percentile of simulated percolation fluxes at the proposed repository horizon.



Figure 3.5 Mean and variance of simulated percolation fluxes at the water table for the heterogeneous case (a,b) and homogeneous case (c,d).

3.3.2 Uncertainty Assessment of Tracer Transport

The uncertainty in tracer transport is evaluated for two representative tracers: conservative (⁹⁹Tc) and reactive (²³⁷Np) tracers. Sorption coefficient of ²³⁷Np is treated as a random variable, and multiple realizations are generated in the same manner of Ye et al. (2007b). Although other transport and geochemical parameters may be also important for the uncertainty assessment, this study treats them deterministically and uses the parameter values of BSC (2004a, b).

3.3.2.1 Uncertainty Assessment of Spatial Distribution in Tracer Plumes

Figure 3.6a and 3.6b depict the mean and variance of the normalized cumulative mass-arrival contours of the reactive tracer (²³⁷Np) at 1,000,000 years (extended standard of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency). The mean of mass arrival covers virtually the entire area with higher values directly below the footprint of the proposed repository shown in Figure 1.2. While the contour spreads widely to the east of the model domain, high values appear restricted to the west of Ghost Dance Fault (Figure 1.2, eastern boundary of the repository footprint), indicative of the dominant vertical movement for tracers. The variance contour (Figure 3.6b) has a similar pattern to the mean contour (Figure 3.6a) with higher values of variance below the repository footprint. In addition, the area of higher variance corresponds to the area of high mean, except at the northern end of the Drillhole Wash Fault (Figure 1.2). The spatial pattern of variance (Figure 3.6b) is correlated with the spatial pattern of percolation flux variance (Figure 3.5b), indicating that the larger uncertainty in the percolation flux results in the significant uncertainty in the cumulative mass arrival.

3.3.2.2 Uncertainty Assessment of Cumulative Mass Travel Time

Figure 3.7 shows the mean and the 5th and 95th percentiles of the simulated fractional breakthrough curves of cumulative mass arriving at the water table for the two tracers in both heterogeneous and homogeneous cases. For the heterogeneous case, the 5th and 95th percentiles indicate significant uncertainty in travel time. For example, 50% of the total mass of ²³⁷Np may take from 31,600 to 295,000 years to arrive at the water table. Owing to the sorption effects of the reactive tracer, the reactive tracer (²³⁷Np) travels about two orders of magnitude slower than the conservative tracer (⁹⁹Tc). For

example, the mean travel times of the 50% mass fraction breakthrough is 4,760 years for ⁹⁹Tc, but 109,000 years for ²³⁷Np. In comparison to ⁹⁹Tc, ²³⁷Np has greater uncertainty in the fractional mass travel time due to its uncertain sorption coefficient.



Figure 3.6 Contours of mean and variance in normalized cumulative-mass-arrival (%) for the reactive tracer (²³⁷Np) at the water table after 1,000,000 years for the heterogeneous case (a,b) and homogeneous case (c,d).

3.3.2.3 Comparison of Transport Uncertainty Assessment

Figure 3.6 shows the mean and variance of normalized cumulative mass arrival of ²³⁷Np at 1,000,000 years for the heterogeneous (Figures 3.6a and 3.6b) and homogeneous (Figures 3.6c and 3.6d) cases. While spatial patterns and magnitudes of the mean predictions are similar for the two cases, the variance in the heterogeneous case is much greater than that in the homogeneous case. This comparison suggests that incorporating local-scale heterogeneity of permeability and porosity results in higher uncertainty for tracer transport. In other words, it becomes more difficult to estimate potential locations of high-tracer concentration after the local-scale heterogeneity is considered.

Figure 3.7 shows the simulated fractional breakthrough curves of cumulative mass arriving at the water table in both heterogeneous and homogeneous cases. The mean travel time for the heterogeneous case increases relative to the homogeneous case for both tracers at the early stage. This observation implies that the simulated flow path becomes more tortuous, and simulated tracer transport between matrix and fracture becomes more complicated after the local-scale heterogeneity is considered. With the downward movement of the tracers, since flow paths may develop along the fractures with high permeability, the effect of local-scale heterogeneity in the matrix properties on tracer transport gradually decreases with time. As a result, the travel time in the two cases becomes similar after approximately 20,000 years, with 78% fractional mass breakthrough for ⁹⁹Tc, and 100,000 years, with 48% fractional mass breakthrough for ²³⁷Np. Similar breakthrough behavior was observed in Zhou et al. (2003). Figure 3.7 also shows that, for both tracers, the 5th and 95th percentile bound for the travel time prediction is much smaller in the heterogeneous case than in the homogeneous case,

indicating the reduced uncertainty in travel time. For example, when 75% of the ⁹⁹Tc mass flows out of the UZ, the variation in travel time is between 9,000 and 23,400 years in the homogeneous case, whereas the variation is between 14,200 and 18,900 years in the heterogeneous case. This difference suggests the importance of layer-scale uncertainty on controlling the overall pattern of tracer transport measured by travel time of cumulative mass. In the homogeneous case, the layer-scale parameter values vary randomly, rendering significant change in the overall pattern of tracer transport over different realizations. In the heterogeneous case, the layer-scale parameter values are the same or close to the calibrated values over different realizations, despite that the local-scale parameter values vary randomly. Therefore, the overall pattern of tracer transport varies less significantly than in the homogeneous case. This indicates that, if one wants to reduce overall predictive uncertainty in tracer travel time, an effort should be dedicated to reducing uncertainty in layer-scale values by improving the 3-D model calibration of BSC (2004a), recalling that layer-scale values are obtained from inverse modeling.

3.4 Discussions

At a complicated field site such as the proposed YM geological repository, there are two other major sources of uncertainties: uncertainty in conceptual models of the tracer transport and uncertainty in model scenarios capturing all applicable features, events, and processes (FEPs) at the geological repository (BSC, 2003a). Recently, a multi-model averaging method has been advocated to assess the conceptual model uncertainty (Beven and Binley, 1992; Neuman 2003; Ye et al., 2004b, 2005a, 2008a, b; Poeter and Anderson, 2005; Beven, 2006; Refsgaard et al., 2006; Meyer et al., 2007). The

study of model scenarios mainly is focused on infiltration (Wu et al., 2002, 2004; Faybishenko, 2007), the major driving force of tracer transport to the groundwater. If the conceptual model uncertainty and model scenario uncertainty are considered, the predictive uncertainty will be significantly larger than that caused only by the parameter uncertainty.

Similarly, if additional random parameters are considered, the predictive uncertainty also will increase. As described in Chapter 1, the random parameters are selected mainly based on the sensitivity analysis of Zhang et al. (2006). It would be more rigorous to conduct a comprehensive sensitivity analysis to determine which parameters are influential to predictive uncertainty. In addition, given that the modeling domain is delineated into multiple hydrogeologic layers, and local-scale heterogeneity contributes more to predictive uncertainty than layer-scale uncertainty, it will be interesting to use sensitivity analysis in determining the layers where local-scale heterogeneity should be considered and the layers where layer-scale uncertainty would be sufficient. The sensitivity analysis will be useful in optimizing limited computing resources and site characterization to reduce uncertainty.

This research follows the traditional modeling scheme of separating a field-scale modeling domain into less heterogeneous hydrogeologic layers with fixed layer boundaries. Uncertainty in the layer boundaries is not considered in this study. If the uncertainty can be quantified statistically, it can be assessed using the framework of RDD, whereas it will be difficult to obtain reliable quantification of the uncertainty in layer boundaries for the complicated geological systems at the UZ of YM. Although this type of uncertainty is not considered, certain findings of this study (e.g., the relative

importance of layer-scale versus local-scale heterogeneities) are similar to those of the RDD method obtained from simulating saturated flow problems.



Figure 3.7 Simulated breakthrough curves of cumulative mass arriving at the water table for (a) conservative tracer (⁹⁹Tc) and (b) reactive tracer (²³⁷Np) (Hete represents the heterogeneous case and Homo represents the homogeneous case).

3.5 Conclusions

This study leads to the following major conclusions:

- (1) Layer-scale uncertainty is more important than local-scale heterogeneity in simulating the trend and pattern of field observations of flow. Therefore, when simulating the unsaturated flow, layer-scale uncertainty should be honored by using the calibrated values obtained from the 3-D inverse modeling.
- (2) While local-scale heterogeneity slightly affects the mean predictions of percolation fluxes and tracer plumes, it significantly increases predictive uncertainty in these quantities, implying that more random and complicated flow paths are created by the local-scale heterogeneity. This is also true for the spatial distribution of the normalized cumulative mass arrival.
- (3) Local-scale heterogeneity increases mean travel time for the reactive and conservative tracers in early stage, but the effect gradually decreases over time.
- (4) Layer-scale uncertainty is also more important than local-scale heterogeneity in simulating the travel time of cumulative mass to the water table. If one wants to reduce overall predictive uncertainty in tracer travel time, an effort should be made to reduce the uncertainty in layer-scale values by improving the 3-D model calibration, recalling that layer-scale values are obtained from inverse modeling.

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CHAPTER 4

SENSITIVITY OF UNSATRUATED FLOW AND CONTAMINANT TRANSPORT AND EFFECTS OF INPUT PARAMETER CORRELATIONS

The predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport due to the parameter uncertainties in layer- and local-scale heterogeneities of hydraulic and transport parameters have been assessed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. The sensitivity analysis is an important tool to direct future field characterizations to reduce the parameter uncertainties, which also reduce the associated predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in UZ. This study presents an integrated sensitivity analysis approach to investigate the contributions of input parameter uncertainties to the flow and contaminant transport uncertainties with and without the consideration of parameter correlations in each layer and spatial variability within a layer in UZ. In addition, this study also examines the effects of parameter correlations on sensitivity of flow and contaminant transport in UZ by comparing the results with and without considering the parameter correlations.

4.1 Introduction

Uncertainty and sensitivity analysis of flow and contaminant transport due to parameter uncertainty in UZ is important for evaluating the possible effects of contaminant sources on the groundwater and environmental systems. The uncertainty

analysis is to determine how uncertainty in flow and contaminant transport is derived from the independent parameter uncertainty (Pan, 2005; Pan et al., 2009b; Ye et al., 2007b; Zhou et al., 2003). The sensitivity analysis is to determine the contributions of individual parameter uncertainties to the flow and contaminant transport uncertainties (Helton, 1993; Saltelli et al., 1999). The sensitivity analysis is indispensable in (1) reducing computational burden of 3-D flow and transport modeling by disregarding insignificant parameters, (2) enabling one to utilize limited resources more efficiently on characterizing the most influential parameters in order to better understand the predictive uncertainties in flow and transport, and (3) helping design more effective sampling and monitoring network by improving the accuracy of flow and transport predictions.

When only limited data are available to characterize the spatial variability of hydraulic parameters in UZ, it may affect the accuracy of parameter uncertainty characterization and cause the incorrect estimation of predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport (Ye et al., 2007a). Due to the limited resources, it becomes critical to obtain the information about the relative importance of hydraulic parameters in particular layers and the specific locations within the layer in a complex hydrogeologic system. In this study, layer-scale sensitivity analysis refers to the assessment of relative importance of hydraulic parameters for each hydrogeologic layer; local-scale sensitivity analysis refers to the assessment in spatial variability within a layer. This study aims to obtain the relative importance of hydraulic parameters often exhibit correlations for typical field conditions, however, the assumption of parameter independence was adopted in most existing sensitivity analysis methods (Arnold et al., 2008; Fang et al., 2004; Sallaberry et al.,

2008). Therefore, another purpose of this study is to incorporate the parameter correlations into the sensitivity analysis and investigate their effects on sensitivity results.

Many methods of sensitivity analysis have been developed such as samplingbased method, variance-based method, differential analysis, fast probability integration, response surface methodology, analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Helton, 1993; Helton, et al., 2005, 2006; Saltelli et al., 1999, 2000; Winter et al., 2006). Among them, the sampling-based (i.e., Monte Carlo) method has been widely applied due to its conceptual simplicity, full range coverage of parameter measurements, direct uncertainty results without using surrogate models, easy mapping between uncertainty inputs and analysis results (Helton, 1993). The sampling-based sensitivity analysis can be implemented using scatterplots, regression analysis, correlation and partial correlation between inputs and results, and stepwise regression analysis (Helton et al., 2005, 2006; Saltelli et al., 2000). Because the sampling-based method employs linear regression techniques, the rank transformation is a preferred way when the relationship between the parameter inputs and analysis results is nonlinear (Saltelli and Sobol, 1995). Comparison of those samplingbased methods in a design of disposal facility example indicated that the standardized rank regression coefficient (SRRC) is the most robust and reliable estimator (Helton and Davis, 2002; Saltelli and Marivoet, 1990). The SRRC from regression analysis provides a measure of parameter importance on output uncertainty. When the input parameters are correlated, however, SRRC may give unreliable results on parameter importance (Helton et al, 2006). Given the fact that hydraulic parameters often exhibit correlations for typical field conditions, it is desirable to incorporate the parameter correlations into the sensitivity analysis and investigate the effects of parameter correlations on the results of

sensitivity analysis. Several studies have been conducted for sensitivity analysis with correlated input parameters (Fang et al., 2004; Helton et al., 1995, Jacques et al., 2006). Recently, Xu and Gertner (2008) proposed a regression-based method to divide the contributions of individual parameter uncertainties into the correlated and uncorrelated parts to the output uncertainties. The contributions of input parameter uncertainties to flow and transport uncertainties can be estimated by the total partial variances of the output results.

The study site is the UZ of YM, which has been proposed as the high-level radioactive waste repository (BSC, 2004a). The UZ of YM is a complex system in geology and hydrogeology subject to significant parameter uncertainty and other uncertainties (Pan et al., 2009a, b; Ye et al., 2007b; Zhang et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2003). The available measurements of hydraulic parameters are limited in each hydrogeologic layer of the UZ, especially for permeability and water retention parameters.

The sensitivity of the flow and tracer transport at YM has been investigated by several studies. Zhang et al. (2006) examined the sensitivity of unsaturated flow and tracer transport with only one varied input parameter within one standard deviation at a time in the UZ of $\tilde{Y}M$. The sensitivity analysis has been conducted using the sampling-based method in saturated zone processes with the assumption of parameter independence (Sallaberry et al., 2008; Arnold et al., 2008). This study is focused on the global sensitivity analysis of individual parameter uncertainties on the predictive uncertainties of flow and tracer transport in the UZ of YM. Although the parameter correlations exist in a real field, capturing the correlations is difficult when the site measurements are sparse. This study employs an integrated approach to evaluate the

contributions of individual parameters to flow and transport uncertainties with and without parameter correlations at layer- and local- scales. The results can provide useful information in these two scales in directing future data sampling for uncertainty reductions. The sensitivity analysis in this study is evaluated based on the results of uncertainty assessment due to the uncertainties of hydraulic and transport parameters (i.e., permeability, porosity, van Genuchten α and n, and sorption coefficient of the reactive tracer) in the UZ of YM in Pan et al. (2009b) (i.e., Chapter 2).

Another objective of this study is to evaluate the relative importance of hydraulic parameters on predictive uncertainty with correlated input parameters using regression-based method proposed by Xu and Gertner (2008) and to investigate the effects of parameter correlations on the sensitivity analysis results. Understanding the effects of parameter correlations is also important for directing further data collection and predictive uncertainty reductions. The parameter correlation effects have not been examined in previous sensitivity analysis of flow and transport (e.g., Arnold et al., 2008; Boateng and Cawlfield, 1999; Mertens, et al., 2005; Sallaberry et al., 2008). The effects of parameter correlations on sensitivity of flow and transport in the UZ of YM can be evaluated by comparing sensitivity results with and without consideration of parameter correlations.

4.2 Sampling-based Sensitivity Analysis

This study presents an integrated approach to conduct the sensitivity of flow and contaminant transport with and without considering the input parameter correlations. The approach is based on the sampling-based approach (i.e, regression analysis for

independent parameters, and regression-based method proposed by Xu and Gertner (2008) for correlated parameters). The procedures of sampling-based approach can be described as follows (Helton, 1993; Helton et al., 2005):

- Determine the distributions and ranges of individual parameters based on the site measurements;
- (2) Generate the random field of each parameter based on the specified distributions and ranges estimated in step (1);
- (3) Solve the flow and transport models using Monte Carlo simulations for multiple realizations;
- (4) Evaluate the uncertainties of output parameters (e.g., saturation, water potential, percolation flux, mass fraction and travel time of tracer transport etc.);
- (5) Conduct the sensitivity analysis to rank the relative importance of the individual parameters to the uncertainties of output variables.

4.2.1 Regression Analysis

The regression analysis is an effective method to measure the contributions of individual input parameters to the output uncertainties when the input parameters are independent.

The regression model between the output results (e.g., percolation flux and cumulative mass arriving at water table; m = 200, number of realizations) and input parameters (i.e., permeability, porosity, van Genuchten α and n, and sorption coefficient of the reactive tracer; k = 5, number of input parameters) for each block can be constructed as (Helton, 1993):

$$\hat{y}_i = b_0 + \sum_j b_j x_{ij} + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots m, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots k$$
 (4.1)

where: \hat{y}_i is the estimation of output y_i from regression model; b_0, b_j are the regression coefficients of parameter j; ε_i is the error term.

The total variance (V) of output results can be calculated as:

$$V = \operatorname{var}(y) = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (y_i - \overline{y})^2$$
(4.2)

where: \overline{y} is the mean of output results.

The estimated variance (\hat{V}) of output results by regression model can be written as (Helton et al., 2006; Xu and Gertner, 2008):

$$\hat{V} = \operatorname{var}(\hat{y}) = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\hat{y}_i - \overline{y})^2$$
(4.3)

If the input parameters are independent, Eq. (4.3) can be formulated by taking the variance on both sides of Eq. (4.1):

$$\hat{V} = \operatorname{var}(\hat{y}) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} b_j^2 \operatorname{var}(x_j)$$
 (4.4)

The coefficient of determination (R^2) is usually applied to measure the extent of regression model successfully accounting for the output uncertainty. It can be expressed as (Helton, 1993; Helton, et al., 2006; Saltelli et al., 2000):

$$R^2 = \frac{\hat{V}}{V} \tag{4.5}$$

The regression coefficients (b_j) in Eq. (4.1) are unknown and fixed for all realizations and can be solved using the LS regression method (Helton, 1993; Saltelli et al., 2000). Due to the different units of input parameters and output results, the regression coefficient (b_j) is not suitable to measure the parameter importance in output

uncertainties. The standardized regression model can be reformulated as (Helton et al., 2006; Saltelli et al., 2000):

$$(\hat{y} - \bar{y})/\hat{s} = \sum_{j=1}^{k} (b_j \hat{s}_j / \hat{s})(x_j - \bar{x}_j) / \hat{s}_j$$
 (4.6)

where \bar{x}_j , \hat{s}_j are the mean and standard deviation of the input parameter x_j ; \bar{y} , \hat{s} are the mean and standard deviation of the output results. The coefficient $b_j \hat{s}_j / \hat{s}$, called standardized regression coefficient (SRC), is used as a measure of parameter importance. The parameter with largest SRC contributes the most to the output uncertainties. By combining Eqs. (4.4), (4.5), and (4.6), the R² can be expressed as:

$$R^{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{k} SRC_{j}^{2} \quad (4.7)$$

The SRC_i^2 represents the fractional contributions of parameter *j* to the output variances.

If the relationships between the input parameters and output results are nonlinear, the regression analysis discussed above may not provide accurate estimations because it is based on the linear relationships between the input parameters and the output variables. The problem can be solved using the rank regression, which is a method similar to the regression analysis. The only difference is that the data used in the usual regression are transformed to their corresponding ranks. Correspondingly, the resulting regression coefficients are called the standardized rank regression coefficients (SRRC).

4.2.2 Regression-based Method with Correlated Parameters

As pointed out by Saltelli et al. (2000) and Helton et al. (2006), the SRC and SRRC may be misleading in measuring the parameter importance if the input parameters are correlated. A regression-based approach was proposed by Xu and Gertner (2008) to
decompose the output variances into the partial variances contributed by the correlated and uncorrelated portions when the input parameters are correlated. Because the regression-based method proposed by Xu and Gartner (2008) is also based on the linear relationships between the input parameters and the output variables, the original values are also transformed to their corresponding ranks in this study.

The partial variance (V_j) contributed by parameter x_j is divided into partial variance contributed by uncorrelated and correlated variances of parameter x_j , respectively. The partial variance by parameter x_j can be written as (Xu and Gertner, 2008):

$$V_j = V_j^U + V_j^C \tag{4.8}$$

where: V_j^U is partial variance contributed by uncorrelated variance of parameter x_j ; V_j^C is partial variance contributed by correlated variance of parameter x_j .

The partial variance of y contributed by x_j can be estimated by the regression analysis (Xu and Gertner, 2008):

$$\hat{y} = \theta_0 + \theta_j x_j + \varepsilon$$
 and $\hat{V}_j = \frac{1}{m-1} \sum_{i=1}^m (\hat{y}_i - \overline{y})^2$ (4.9)

The partial variance contributed by the uncorrelated variance of x_j can be derived from the following regression models (Xu and Gertner, 2008):

$$\hat{y}^{U} = r_{0} + r_{j}\hat{z}_{j} + \varepsilon$$
 and $\hat{V}_{j}^{U} = \frac{1}{m-1}\sum_{i=1}^{m}(\hat{y}_{i}^{U} - \overline{y})^{2}$ (4.10)

where: $\hat{z}_{j} = x_{j} - \hat{x}_{j}$ and $\hat{x}_{j} = c_{0} + \sum_{\substack{p=1 \ p \neq j}}^{k} c_{p} x_{p}$.

The partial variance contributed by the variation of x_j correlated with other parameters can be calculated using Eq. (4.8):

$$\hat{V}_{j}^{c} = \hat{V}_{j} - \hat{V}_{j}^{U}$$
(4.11)

The sensitivity indices (ratios of partial variance and total variance, \hat{V}) of each parameter can be described as:

$$S_{j} = \frac{\hat{V}_{j}}{\hat{V}}; \quad S_{j}^{U} = \frac{\hat{V}_{j}^{U}}{\hat{V}}; \quad S_{j}^{C} = \frac{\hat{V}_{j}^{C}}{\hat{V}}$$
 (4.12)

where: S_j , S_j^U , and S_j^C are total, uncorrelated, and correlated partial sensitivity indices of parameter x_j .

If the relationship between the input parameters and output results is linear, V_j^U can be represented as the conditional variance of one parameter given another parameter:

$$V_j^U = (1 - r^2) b_j^2 \operatorname{var}(x_j)$$
(4.13)

where: r is the parameter correlation between two the input parameters.

Combine Eq. (4.7) with Eq. (4.12), the relationship between the SRRC and uncorrelated S of parameter x_i can be described as:

$$S_{i}^{U} = (1 - r^{2}) SRRC_{i}^{2}$$
(4.14)

4.3 Sensitivity Analysis of Flow and Contaminant Transport

The permeability and water retention parameters (van Genuchten α and *n*) are treated as homogenous random parameters in flow simulation and two other uncertain parameters (porosity and Kd of ²³⁷Np) are incorporated into transport simulation. The

regression models are constructed to estimate the sensitivity coefficients (i.e., $SRRC^2$ for independent parameters, and S for correlated parameters) for each block. Then, the mean of $SRRC^2$ or S over all blocks within a layer is calculated as the measure of parameter importance to the flow and transport uncertainties for the layer. The standard deviation of $SRRC^2$ or S is used to measure the spatial variation of sensitivity coefficients within a layer.

4.3.1 Sensitivity of Unsaturated Flow

4.3.1.1 Sensitivity of Unsaturated Flow with Independent Parameters

The R^2 is firstly used to examine the reliability of the regression analysis. The R^2 has the values larger than 0.8 in more than 80% blocks of the domain (Figures 4.1a and 4.2d), indicating that the regression analysis is generally reliable.

Figure 4.1 shows the mean and standard deviation of SRRC² for the permeability, van Genuchten α , and *n* parameters to the percolation flux uncertainty for each hydrogeologic layer. Note that SRRC² value for a parameter represents the relative fractional contribution to the output variance from this parameter's uncertainty. The R² value for each layer is equal to the summation of SRRC² values for the three hydraulic parameters, validating Eq. (4.7). From the comparison of mean SRRC² values for the three hydraulic states at each layer, the mean SRRC² values for the permeability are the largest for most layers, indicating the parameter uncertainty in permeability has the largest contribution to the percolation flux uncertainty for those layers. The contributions of parameter uncertainty in permeability to the flux uncertainty vary with the layers from 20% to 80%. The mean SRRC² values of van Genuchten α are the second largest in most layers in the range of 0 – 40% contributions to the flux uncertainty for different layers.

The mean of SRRC² for van Genuchten *n* parameter is close to zero for all layers, indicating the limited contributions of its uncertainty to the flux uncertainty. The order of parameter importance to flux uncertainty is generally permeability, van Genchten α and *n* from the most to least important parameters for most layers. This is partly caused by the values of parameter uncertainties in these parameters (Figure 5 in Ye et al. (2007b) for permeability and Table 2.1 for water retention parameters). The standard deviation of SRRC² values for each layer (Figure 4.1b) shows the large standard deviation of SRRC² values for permeability and van Genuchten α , indicating the high variability of SRRC² values within the layers. This is partly due to the percolation flux uncertainty is related to not only the input parameter uncertainty at its location but also the parameters at other locations, especially those above it. Therefore, it is also necessary to investigate the spatial distribution of the sensitivity coefficients on unsaturated flow uncertainty within each layer.

Figure 4.2 describes the spatial distribution of SRRC² values for the permeability, van Genuchten α , and *n* parameters on the percolation flux uncertainty and R² of regression analysis at the proposed repository horizon. Figure 4.3 does the same at the water table. The large R² values (Figure 4.2d) indicate reliable regression analysis in general. The SRRC² values for the permeability are largest in the east and west parts of model domain and are approximately equal or smaller than the ones for van Genuchten α in the repository area (blue dots in Figure 1.2). The SRRC² values of van Genuchten *n* are close to zero in the entire domain. It indicates the flux uncertainty at the repository horizon is largely contributed by the parameter uncertainties in permeability and van Genuchten α which is consistent with the results of layer-scale results (Figure 4.1a). The



Figure 4.1 The mean and standard deviation of $SRRC^2$ values of permeability, van Genuchten α , and *n* parameters on percolation flux uncertainty for each layer.

similar observation can also be made for the water table but the SRRC² values for the permeability are much larger than the ones for the van Genuchten α except in the southwest corner of model domain, indicating the dominant contributions of permeability to the flux uncertainty at the water table. The R² values at the water table are relatively smaller than the ones at the repository horizon in the central-west and south of the model domain. The reason is that the flux uncertainty at the water table is partly from the

uncertainty of those blocks above the water table and the regression analysis only considers the uncertainty at local locations. The observations of sensitivity analysis in spatial distribution show the similar results with the ones obtained for each layer. While the layer-scale results can point out the parameter importance at each layer, the localscale results can provide local signature of parameter importance within a layer for directing future field characterizations.



Figure 4.2 The SRRC² values of permeability (a), van Genuchten α (b) and *n* (c) parameters on percolation flux uncertainty and R² values of regression analysis (d) at repository horizon.



Figure 4.3 The SRRC² values of permeability (a), van Genuchten α (b) and *n* (c) parameters on percolation flux uncertainty and R² of the regression analysis (d) at the water table.

4.3.1.2 Sensitivity of Unsaturated Flow with Correlated Parameters

As discussed in Section 4.2, the total, uncorrelated, and correlated S can be estimated to measure the contributions of input parameter uncertainties to the output uncertainties. Two pairs of parameter correlations are applied in this study: 1) the correlation between the permeability and porosity, and 2) the correlation between the van Genuchten α and n. Due to the paucity of measurements, the correlations among other parameters are not considered. The Spearman rank correlation was used to estimate the parameter correlations for each hydrogeologic layer (Pan, 2005; Ye et al., 2007b; Pan et al. 2009b). The range of the absolute rank correlations between permeability and porosity for all layers is from 0.03 to 0.71 (Figure 4.9b). The absolute rank correlations between van Genuchten α and *n* are large than 0.8 for most layers (Figure 4.4b).

Figure 4.4 shows the mean of uncorrelated, correlated, total S, and uncorrelated S estimated by Eq. (4.14) for the permeability, van Genuchten α and n parameters on percolation flux uncertainty for each layer. The correlation between van Genuchten α and *n* parameters for each layer is also plotted in Figure 4.4b. The partial variance contributed by uncorrelated variance of permeability is dominant for all layers except the TLL layer of TSw unit and BF2 layer of CFu unit due to the close to zero correlations between van Genuchten α and *n* in the two layers and the large correlations in other layers (Figure 4.4b). Based on Eq. (4.14), the uncorrelated S (Figure 4.4d) can be estimated from the values of SRRC² and parameter correlations if the relationship between the input parameters and output results is linear. The comparison of Figure 4.4a and 4.4d shows that the mean uncorrelated S values are approximately same for some layers, indicating the relationship between the input parameter and output results is approximately linear in the layers. But they are quite different in several layers where the correlations between van Genuchten α and *n* are small, indicating that the sensitivity analysis with independent parameters cannot be as a special case of the one with correlated parameters. The mean correlated S values for van Genuchten α is almost the same as the ones for van Genuchten n (Figure 4.4b) due to the correlations between the parameters. The permeability has the smallest correlated S (close to zero) due to the assumption of no correlations between permeability and van Gencuten α or *n* parameters. The mean total S

(Figure 4.4c) is used to rank the relative importance of parameter uncertainty to the flux uncertainty when the input parameters are correlated. Figure 4.4c shows the permeability still is the most important parameter for most layers and the van Genuchten α and n have more contributions to the flux uncertainty in several layers, indicating the increased contributions of van Genuchten n to the flux uncertainty due to the consideration of parameter correlations.



Figure 4.4 The S of permeability, van Genuchten α , and *n* parameters for each layer. (a) mean of uncorrelated S, (b) mean of correlated S.



Figure 4.4 (Cont.) The S of permeability, van Genuchten α , and *n* parameters for each layer. (c) mean of total S, and (d) mean of uncorrelated S estimated by Eq. (4.14).

Figure 4.5 depicts the spatial distribution of total S for the permeability, van Genucten α and n on percolation flux uncertainty at the water table. The total partial variance of permeability is the largest for almost the entire domain but the west portion, where the van Genuchten α has more contribution to the flux uncertainty. The van Genuchten n has relatively large contributions in the south part of Solitario Canyon Fault (Figure 1.2) with large total S for van Genuchten α in the area, due to the correlations between the two parameters.



Figure 4.5 The total S of permeability (a), van Genuchten α (b), and *n* (c) parameters on percolation flux uncertainty at the water table.

4.3.1.3 Effect of Parameter Correlation on Sensitivity of Unsaturated Flow

The effects of parameter correlations on sensitivity analysis are examined by comparing the sensitivity results with and without the consideration of parameter correlations at both layer and local scales discussed above.

The mean values of correlated S for van Genuchten α and *n* have the same trend as the absolute values of the correlations between van Genuchten α and *n* for all layers (Figure 4.4b), indicating that the partial variances contributed by the correlated input parameters largely depend the parameter correlations. The comparison of the mean $SRRC^2$ (Figure 4.1a) and mean total S (Figure 4.4c) shows the $SRRC^2$ values are less than the total S for the permeability in most layers but reverse is true for the van Genuchten *n* parameter, indicating that the importance of permeability decreases and the van Genuchten *n* becomes more important when the parameter correlations are considered.

4.3.2 Sensitivity of Contaminant Transport

Two variables are the focus of contaminant transport sensitivity analysis in this study: normalized cumulative mass arrival at each block and cumulative mass travel time. The normalized cumulative mass arrival at each block is an important variable in evaluating the potential locations of high-radionuclide concentration and migration. The cumulative mass travel time is the radionuclide travel time from the proposed repository horizon to the water table, which represents a measure of the overall tracer transport. The five random parameters (permeability, porosity, van Genuchten α and *n*, and Kd of ²³⁷Np) are used in investigating their contributions to the contaminant transport uncertainty.

4.3.2.1 Sensitivity of Contaminant Transport with Independent Parameters

Figure 4.6 depicts the mean and standard deviation of SRRC² values for the five random parameters on the normalized cumulative mass arrival uncertainty of ²³⁷Np after 1,000,000 years in the layers below the repository horizon. The mean SRRC² values for the permeability are larger than the ones for other parameters in most layers. As noted earlier that the permeability also contributes the most to flow uncertainty, the results illustrate that the flow uncertainty also translates to uncertainty in tracer transport. The Kd of ²³⁷Np has the second largest contributions to the tracer transport uncertainties in the layers with zeolitic and devitrified tuffs but is the smallest in the layers with vitric tuff,

due to the relatively small parameter uncertainty in Kd for vitric tuff and large parameter uncertainty for zeolitic and devitrified tuffs (BSC, 2004b). In general, the parameter uncertainty in permeability contributes about 30% to the tracer transport uncertainties for each layer and the contributions of other parameters vary with layers from close to zero to about 20%, due to the varied parameter uncertainties for different layers. Figure 4.6b shows the relative large standard deviation of SRRC² values for the parameters, indicating the large variability of SRRC² within a layer.



Figure 4.6 The mean and standard deviation of $SRRC^2$ values of permeability, porosity, van Genuchten α , and *n*, and sorption coefficient (Kd) on normalized cumulative mass arrival uncertainty of ²³⁷Np after 1,000,000 years in the layers below the repository.

Figure 4.7 shows the spatial distribution of SRRC² values for the five random parameters on the normalized cumulative mass arrival uncertainty of ²³⁷Np at all blocks of the water table after 1,000,000 years. The SRRC² values for the permeability is the largest in the footprint of the potential repository and east of model domain and the van Genuchten α has more contributions than others in the south of model domain. This is consistent with the sensitivity results of flow, indicating the tracer transport uncertainty largely comes from the flow uncertainty. The SRRC² values for the Kd parameter are the largest only in the corner and the contributions of the van Genuchten *n* and porosity to the transport uncertainty are small in the entire model domain. The results can clearly give the spatial distribution of parameter importance to provide the detail information for the future data sampling within a layer. For example, the data collection for permeability should be taken in the footprint of potential repository and east of model domain to reduce its parameter uncertainty and associated predictive uncertainty in tracer transport in UZ.

Figure 4.8 shows the SRRC² values of the five uncertain parameters for travel time uncertainty of ²³⁷Np. At early stage, the permeability and van Genuchten α have more contributions to the uncertainty in overall tracer transport, similar to the flow scenario. This observation may be explained in part by the fact that for tracer's early arrival at the water table is mainly along the flow paths with large permeability. As time evolves, the porosity starts to make impact on the uncertainty in the overall tracer transport. After 10,000 years, the SRRC² values for the sorption coefficient are larger than other parameters. This is because 80% of mass has arrived at the water table if the tracer is conservative without sorption at 10,000 years (Pan et al., 2009b) and the sorption





coefficient is the most important parameter on the overall tracer transport uncertainty after 10,000 years. Because the travel time uncertainty (Figure 4.8) is calculated by the summation of the normalized mass arrival over all blocks at the water table, on average, its uncertainty is one to two orders of magnitude smaller than that of the normalized cumulative mass arrival at each block (Figure 4.7). Therefore, the sensitivity analysis results for travel time uncertainty (Figure 4.8) are quite different from the ones for mass arrival uncertainty at each block (Figure 4.7).



Figure 4.8 The SRRC² values of permeability, porosity, van Genuchten α and *n*, and Kd on travel time uncertainty of ²³⁷Np.

4.3.2.2 Sensitivity of Contaminant Transport with Correlated Parameters

Figure 4.9 shows the mean of (a) uncorrelated, (b) correlated, and (c) total S, and (d) uncorrelated S estimated by Eq. (4.14) for permeability, porosity, van Genuchten α and n, and Kd in the layers below the proposed repository horizon. The correlation between permeability and porosity for each layer is also plotted in Figure 4.9b. The mean values of uncorrelated S (Figure 4.9a) show that the permeability has the largest contributions on transport uncertainty in most layers, which is similar to the results with the independent parameters. The significant differences between the uncorrelated S in Figure 4.9a and Figure 4.9d indicate that the regression model estimated from independent input parameters cannot represent the relationship when the parameters are correlated. Figure 4.9b shows the mean of correlated S for permeability and van Genuchten α are almost the same as the ones of porosity and van Genuchten n, respectively. The partial variances contributed by the correlated parameters to transport uncertainty have the same trends as the values of the parameter correlations. The mean of correlated S is zero for Kd in all layers, due to no correlations considered between the Kd and other parameters in this study. The mean of total S (Figure 4.9c) can be used to rank the relative importance of the parameters for each layer. The permeability is the most important parameter with around 20% contributions to the transport uncertainty for most layers. The relative importance for other parameters varies largely with a range of 0 - 120% contributions to transport uncertainty for different layers. The parameter uncertainty in Kd has the second largest contributions to transport uncertainty in the layers of devitrified and zeolitic tuffs and the smallest ones in the layers of vitric tuff, which is the same as the results without considering parameter correlations.

Figure 4.10 describes the spatial distribution of total S of the five uncertain parameters for the normalized cumulative mass arrival uncertainty of ²³⁷Np at all blocks of the water table after 1,000,000 years. The parameter uncertainties in permeability, van Genuchten α , and Kd parameters show the similar contributions to the transport uncertainty with the independent parameters. The van Genuchten α and *n* parameters are the most importance parameters in the southern portion. The porosity has relatively large contributions to transport uncertainty in the north part of Ghost Dance Fault (Figure 1.2).

Figure 4.11 shows the total (solid line), uncorrelated (dash line), and correlated (dashdot line) S for the five uncertain parameters on the travel time uncertainty of 237 Np. At the early stage, the van Genuchten α and n parameters have the largest total S on overall tracer uncertainty due to their large contributions from the correlated partial variances of the parameters. As time evolves, the porosity and permeability become the most important parameters and the van Genuchten α and n parameters become insignificant. The sorption coefficient becomes the dominant parameter on the uncertainty of overall tracer transport at the water table after 10,000 years.

4.3.2.3 Effect of Parameter Correlation on Sensitivity of Contaminant Transport

Figure 4.9b shows the relatively large mean values of correlated S for the parameters in several layers, due to the high parameter correlations in these layers (Figure 4.4b and 4.9b). It indicates the partial variances contributed by the correlated parameters largely depend on the values of their correlations. The comparison of parameter contributions to the transport uncertainties with (Figure 4.9c) and without (Figure 4.6a) parameter correlations shows the parameter Kd has the same contributions for both case because the Kd is not correlated with other parameters in this study. The contributions of

van Genuchten *n* significantly increase with the decreased importance of van Genuchten α after the parameter correlation are taken into account, while the importance of porosity slightly increases with the slightly decreased contributions of permeability to the transport uncertainty. This is due to the large correlations between van Genuchten α and *n* (Figure 4.4b) and relatively small ones between permeability and porosity (Figure 4.9b) in most layers. The parameter correlations could have significant effects on the sensitivity results and extent of the effects largely depends on the values of the parameter correlations. Comparison of the spatial distribution of total S with (Figure 4.10) and without (Figure 4.8) parameter correlations shows that the van Genuchten *n* parameter has significant contributions in the south part and the porosity becomes more important in the north part of the fault after incorporating the parameter correlations, which is consistent with conclusions for the layer-scale results.

The permeability and van Genuchten α are the two most important parameters on the travel time uncertainty at the water table at early stage when the parameter correlations are not considered. However, the van Genuchten *n* parameter becomes more important than the other parameters when the parameter correlations are considered due to large contributions from the correlated partial variances (Figure 4.10). The parameter importance on the overall tracer transport uncertainty has the same rankings at the early stage. However, the correlated contributions for permeability and porosity account for large portions of their total partial variances when the parameter correlations are considered, indicating the effect of parameter correlations is an important factor on sensitivity results and should be considered.



Figure 4.9 The S values of permeability, porosity, van Genuchten α , and *n*, and Kd in the layers below the repository horizon.



Figure 4.10 The S of permeability (a), porosity (b), van Genuchten α (c) and *n* (d), and Kd (e) on normalized cumulative mass arrival uncertainty of ²³⁷Np at each block of water table after 1,000,000 years.



Figure 4.11 The total (solid line), uncorrelated (dash line), and correlated (dashdot line) S of permeability, porosity, van Genuchten α and n, and Kd on travel time uncertainty of ²³⁷Np.

4.4 Conclusions

This study presented an integrated approach to evaluate the sensitivity of the unsaturated flow and contaminant transport uncertainties with and without considering parameter correlations. The contributions of input parameter uncertainties to the flow and transport uncertainties were investigated at both layer and local scales. The obtained insights can provide meaningful information on the sampling and monitoring network to reduce the parameter uncertainties and associated predictive uncertainties in flow and contaminant transport in UZ.

With the independent input parameters, the uncertainty in the permeability has the largest contributions to the percolation flux uncertainty. The van Genuchten α is the second important parameter with the limited contributions from the van Genuchten *n* to the flux uncertainty. The permeability is also the most important parameter to the uncertainty in the normalized cumulative mass arrival at each block of the water table. The sorption coefficient of the reactive tracer is the second important parameter in the layers of devitrified and zeolitic tuffs and has the smallest contributions in the layers of vitric tuff. For the overall tracer transport uncertainty, the uncertainty in total cumulative mass arrival at the water table at the early stage. As time evolves, the uncertainty in porosity becomes more important. As the transport progresses further, the sorption coefficient of the reactive tracer becomes the dominant parameter in contributing to the uncertainty in overall tracer transport.

When the input parameters are correlated, the uncertainty in van Genuchten n has more contributions to the percolation flux uncertainty, mainly due to its high correlation with the van Genuchten α . The van Genuchten n and porosity also become more important on the transport uncertainty when the parameter correlations are considered due to their correlations with the van Genuchten α and permeability, respectively. The importance of sorption coefficient to the tracer transport uncertainty has not changed when the parameter correlations are considered, due to the assumption of zero correlations between the sorption coefficient and other hydraulic parameters. The results illustrate that parameter correlations may have significant effects on the sensitivity of unsaturated flow and contaminant transport, which should be included in the uncertainty and sensitivity analysis of flow and transport in the UZ.

4.5 References

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CHAPTER 5

AN ESTIMATION OF SPATIAL CORRELATION STRUCTURES OF HYDRAULIC PARAMETERS IN HETEROGENEOUS POROUS MEDIA

Improving the heterogeneity characterizations is critical to reduce the predictive uncertainties in flow and transport in heterogeneous UZ (Kitanidis and Lane, 1985). Because of the paucity of hydraulic parameter field measurements, it is difficult to accurately estimate their spatial variability, which is typically estimated by a traditional geostatistical approach such as a sample variogram. Therefore, there exist needs for methods to improve the estimation of spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters when the field measurements are sparse. This study tries to couple the ASMLCV with a Bayesian updating method to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters to improve the local-scale heterogeneity characterizations of hydraulic parameters.

5.1 Introduction

Accuracy of flow and transport predictions depends, in part, on the closeness between the generated hydraulic parameter fields and the real fields. The heterogeneity and spatial variability of the hydraulic parameters in heterogeneous media

play an important role in generating the heterogeneous fields representing the variability of real parameter fields (Pan et al., 2009a, b; Zhou et al., 2003). The spatial correlation structures of variogram models characterize the extent of spatial variability and heterogeneities of hydraulic parameters. However, it is difficult, if not impossible, to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters from the empirical and fitted variograms because of sparse data in most cases, especially for saturated hydraulic conductivity and water retention parameters. Therefore, it is often desirable to estimate spatial correlation structure of hydraulic parameters based on sparse field measurements. The study of spatial correlation structure estimation for hydraulic parameters can improve the accuracy of heterogeneous parameter fields, facilitate the design of data sampling and monitoring networks, and better understand the effects of spatial correlation structures on the flow and contaminant transport predictions in heterogeneous media (Kitanidis and Lane, 1985).

The traditional geostatistical approach (i.e., sample variogram) is widely used to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters (Bárdossy and Lehmann, 1998; Kennedy and Woodbury, 2002; Pan et al., 2009a; Ritzi et al., 1994; Sminchak et al., 1996; Viswanathan et al., 2003; Yates and Warrick, 1987; Ye et al., 2005b, 2007a; Zhou et al., 2003). Fitting a sample variogram using variogram models is a powerful tool for spatial correlation structure estimation with a large set of field measurements. However, it is difficult to obtain the correlation structure using a sample variogram, especially for horizontal correlation scale, when the field data are sparse. Many previous studies assumed that the horizontal correlation scales of hydraulic parameters were the same as those of other parameters (e.g., soil texture parameters,

initial moisture content, and porosity) with enough field measurements, whose horizontal correlation structures can be directly obtained from sample variogram based on the field data (Viswanathan et al., 2003; Ye et al., 2005b, 2007a; Zhou et al., 2003). Pan et al. (2009a) assumed that the horizontal correlation scales in one layer were the same as those of other layers in the same geologic unit. Other studies did not consider the anisotropy of spatial data and only the correlation scales in omni direction were determined from sample variogram (Kennedy and Woodbury, 2002; Yates and Warrick, 1987).

Many approaches have been proposed to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters such as LS, ML estimation, RML estimation, ASMLCV, and a Bayesian inference approach (Dietrich and Osborne, 1991; Kitanidis an Lane, 1985; Kitanidis, 1986; Pardo-Igúzquiz, 1998; 1999; Samper and Neuman, 1989a, b, c). Among them, the ML method is widely applied in the parameter estimation. The ML parameter estimates are unbiased and minimum-variance with the assumption of data following multivariate Gaussian distribution (Kitanidis and Lane, 1985). The computational cost of ML estimation can be reduced via RML method (Dietrich and Osborne, 1991). Samper and Neuman (1989a) proposed the ASMLCV method to estimate the spatial covariance structure based on a ML approach with the cross-validation errors following Gaussian distribution. The ASMLCV approach can not only provide the quality information of the parameter estimation but also select the best covariance function by model structure identification criteria (Samper and Neuman, 1989a). However, the prior information is not included in the ML approaches and it may produce unreliable results with only few data available (Pardo-Igúzquiz, 1999). The Bayesian inference approach was proposed to

infer the posterior probability of spatial correlation structure from its prior probability through the likelihood function estimated by the ML approach (Pardo-Igúzquiz, 1999).

This study proposes a method to couple the ASMLCV with the Bayesian updating method to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters when the field measurements are sparse. The Bayesian updating methods were introduced to update the statistics of the prior PDFs of hydraulic parameters based on the Bayes' theorem (Meyer et al., 1997; Vrugt and Bouthen, 2002; Ye et al., 2005a). The Bayesian updating method cannot change the types of prior PDFs and can only update the moments of prior PDF to yield the posterior PDF with the same type of distribution as the prior PDF. The ASMLCV approach was based on the ML estimation with the assumption of cross-validation errors following a Gaussian distribution without the requirement of prior information (Samper and Neuman, 1989a, b). The ASMLCV approach not only measures the quality of parameter estimation but also can easily deal with noisy data (Samper and Neuman, 1989a). However, the prior information is not included in the ASMLCV approach. It may produce better results to incorporate all available prior information. This study seeks to couple the Bayesian updating method with ASMLCV to incorporate the available prior information and the site measurements of hydraulic parameters. The ASMLCV approach is used to estimate the likelihood function based on site measurements, while ML estimation is applied in the Bayesian inference approach (Pardo-Igúzquiz, 1999). The advantages of ASMLCV approach over ML estimation are highly efficient optimization, reduced computational cost, easily dealing with noisy data, and easy implementation via kriging.

Although the Bayesian updating method and ASMLCV approach were introduced decades ago, this study presents the first application of the coupled method of Bayesian updating and ASMLCV in vadose zone hydrology to estimate the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters in heterogeneous media. The Sisson and Lu (S&L) injection site at Hanford Site in Washington State is selected as a case study to illustrate the approach. The site provides a good setting for illustrating and testing the coupling of Bayesian updating and ASMLCV. 70 data sets of soil hydraulic parameters are available from six boreholes with 53 of these data sets from three close boreholes in the study site. It is difficult to determine the spatial correlation structures of soil hydraulic parameters, especially in horizontal direction.

This study is focused on the estimation of horizontal and vertical correlation scales because the correlation scale is the most important quantity in characterizing the spatial variability of hydraulic parameters (Bárdossy and Lehmann, 1998). The field data of the soil hydraulic parameters (saturated hydraulic conductivity, van Genuchten α and n, saturated and residual water content) are firstly transformed and standardized to follow a standard normal distribution based on the results of normality test so that the sill of variogram model is 1.0. The prior probability of horizontal and vertical correlation scales are assumed to follow a triangular distribution and the minimum, most likely, and maximum values are inferred from literature, expert judgment, and previous studies in the study site or similar sites. Based on the transformed field data, the likelihood functions of horizontal and vertical correlation scales for each hydraulic parameter can be obtained using the ASMLCV approach. The prior probability is updated to yield posterior probability of the correlation scales through the likelihood functions. The means of the

posterior probability for horizontal and vertical correlation scales can be obtained and used as the inputs of subsequent heterogeneous parameter field generation via kriging.

5.2 Study Site

The S&L injection site originally designed by Sisson and Lu (1984) is within the 200 east area of the USDOE Hanford Site in southeastern Washington State (Ward et al., 2000). The plan view of the S&L injection site with well numbering scheme is plotted in Figure 5.1. The upper portion of the study site was formed during catastrophic glacial flooding and a thick sequence of flood sediments known as the Hanford formation were deposited during Pleistocene flooding (Ye et al., 2005b). The sediments are about 60 m deep in S&L injection site and mainly consist of sand with interstitial silt and silt beds (Ye et al., 2005b, 2007a). The lithostratigraphic cross section (B-B' in Figure 5.1) through the southeastern portion of the injection site is plotted in Figure 5.2. The study site mainly consists of sandy deposits with the stratified slightly silty in the middle of sand beds (Ye et al., 2005b) based on the cross section in Figure 5.2.

Two field infiltration injection experiments were conducted in 1980 and 2000 to measure the moisture content distribution and about 1,376 measurements of initial moisture content were collect to surrogate the site heterogeneity (Ye et al., 2007a). In addition, there are 70 data sets of measurements for the soil hydraulic properties (saturated hydraulic conductivity, saturated and residual water content, van Genuchten α and *n*) from core samples in six boreholes (S-1, S-2, S-3, E-7, E-1, and A-7 in Figure 5.1). The locations of 70 measurements plotted in Figure 5.3 show that 53 data are from 3 close boreholes S-1, S-2, and S-3 with vertical distances less than 1 m. The descriptive

statistics of the data are tabulated in Table 5.1. The saturated hydraulic conductivities for four samples of silt are larger than 70 m/d and the van Genuchten n is 11.95 for one sample of silt, which are unrealistically high for silt. Therefore, the five values are identified as outliers and removed from the data sets. The sample sizes for saturated hydraulic conductivity and van Genuchten n parameter are 66, and 69 shown in Table 5.1. The large standard deviations of the hydraulic data indicate the significant spatial variability of soil hydraulic parameters at the study site.



Figure 5.1 Plan view of the Sisson and Lu (1984) injection site and well numbering scheme (modified from Ye et al., 2005b).



Figure 5.2 Lithostratigraphic corss section (B-B' shown in Figure 5.1) through the southeastern portion of the injection site (modified from Ye et al., 2005b).



Figure 5.3 Locations of field measurements at boreholes S-1, S-2, S-3, A-7, E-1, and E-7 in the S&L injection site.

Ta	bl	e :	5.1	E	Descripti	ive	statistic	s for	soil	h	yd	rau	lic	parameters	5.
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Hydraulic Parameters	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Sample Size (N)
Ks (m/d)	13.704	13.863	0.12	51.05	66
van Genuchten α (1/cm)	9.814	11.111	0.43	62.81	70
van Genuchten <i>n</i>	2.379	1.177	1.34	6.05	69
θs (%)	34.745	5.404	21.78	47.42	70
θr (%)	3.091	1.337	0.00	6.72	70
5.3 Bayesian Updating and ASMLCV Approach

The Bayesian updating approach can estimate the spatial correlation scale without conducting sample variogram analysis, especially for horizontal correlation scale estimation with insufficient measurements. The spatial correlation scale is estimated using the Bayesian updating approach through the likelihood function of the correlation scale and known prior information. The prior distributions of the horizontal and vertical correlation scales are updated to yield the posterior distribution based on Bayes' theorem (Pardo-Igúzquiza, 1999):

$$f(\lambda \mid x) = \frac{L(\lambda \mid x)f(\lambda)}{f(x)} = \frac{L(\lambda \mid x)f(\lambda)}{\int L(\lambda \mid x)f(\lambda)d\lambda}$$
(5.1)

where: λ is the spatial correlation scale; x are site measurements; $f(\lambda)$ is prior probability of λ ; $L(\lambda | x)$ is the likelihood function of λ ; and $f(\lambda | x)$ is the posterior probability of λ .

5.3.1 Identification of Parameter Distribution

The field measurements are seldom adequate to describe the corresponding parameter distribution without appropriate transforms (Carsel and Parrish, 1988). Three distribution types of transformations (lognormal, log ratio, and hyperbolic arcsine) from Johnson system (Johnson and Lotz, 1970) and four classical re-expressions $(1/X, X^{1/2}, X^{1/3}, X^2)$ (Mallants et al., 1996) are selected to transform the parameter measurements. The lognormal (LN), log ratio (SB), and hyperbolic arcsine (SU) transforms are given as (Carsel and Parrish, 1988):

$$LN: \quad Y = \ln(X) \tag{5.2}$$

SB:
$$Y = \ln(\frac{X-A}{B-X})$$
 (5.3)

SU:
$$Y = \sinh^{-1}(U) = \ln(U + \sqrt{1 + U^2})$$
 (5.4)

where X are untransformed field measurements with limits of variation from A to B (A < X < B) and U = (X-A)/(B-A). Another distribution is Gaussian distribution denoted by NO, meaning no transform. The best among the eight transformations (NO, LN, SB, SU, 1/X, $X^{1/2}$, $X^{1/3}$, and X^2) is selected using the Lilliefors goodness-of-fit test for normality, which is a variant of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test. Different from the K-S test, the Lilliefors test does not require a hypothesized distribution with mean and variance (or, more rigorously, cumulative distribution function) to be specified *a priori*. Instead, mean and variance can be estimated from measurements and the required minimum number of data points is only 4 for Lilliefors Test. (Bowen and Bennett, 1988). Once the normality test is accepted, the transformed field measurements using the selected transformations are considered to follow a normal distribution.

5.3.2 Prior Probability of Spatial Correlation Scale

Due to insufficient field measurements to estimate the spatial correlation scale, especially the horizontal correlation scale, the prior probability of spatial correlation scale is estimated subjectively based on literature, expert judgment, and study of similar conditions, etc. The prior probability distribution of spatial correlation scale could have significant effect on the posterior distribution and subsequent heterogeneous parameter field generation. The prior distribution could be proper priors, truncation of the parameter space, vague proper priors, transformation of the correlation scale, the Jeffereys prior, and the inference prior (Berger et al., 2001). The uniform, trapezoidal, triangular, left rectangular triangular, and right rectangular triangular distributions were proposed as prior probability distributions to update the posterior probability through the likelihood function (Pardo-Igúzquiza, 1999). The results from Pardo-Igúzquiza (1999) indicated the triangular and trapezoidal distributions as priors could better estimate the posterior distributions. This study adopts the triangular distribution as the prior probability distribution of spatial correlation scale due to its easy implementation, which is defined as:

$$f(\lambda) = \begin{cases} \frac{2(\lambda - a)}{(c - a)(b - a)} & a \le \lambda \le b\\ \frac{2(c - \lambda)}{(c - a)(c - b)} & b \le \lambda \le c \end{cases}$$
(5.5)

where $a \le b \le c$, a, b, and c are the minimum, most likely, and maximum values of the spatial correlation scale. The subjective estimation from literature, expert judgments, and study of similar conditions are used to determine the values of a, b, and c. After determining the prior probability, multiple realizations of the correlation scale can be generated to update the posterior probability through the likelihood function.

5.3.3 ML Function of Spatial Correlation Scale

The ASMLCV approach was proposed to estimate the likelihood function (Samper and Neuman, 1989a). In geostatistical study, the cross-validation approach is a traditional method to validate variogram models via kriging estimation. In this study, the errors estimated using cross-validation method are assumed to follow a Gaussian distribution with a mean of zero and a covariance matrix of $C(\lambda)$. The likelihood function can be written as (Carrera and Neuman, 1986):

$$L(\lambda \mid x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^{N} C(\lambda)}} \exp(\frac{-e'C^{-1}e}{2})$$
(5.6)

where N is the number of field measurements; e are the estimation errors; $C(\lambda)$ is the covariance function.

The negative natural log likelihood (NLL) function can be obtained by taking the natural logarithm and multiplying it by -1 on both sides of Eq. (5.6):

$$NLL = -\ln L(\lambda \mid x) = \frac{N}{2} \ln 2\pi + \frac{1}{2} \ln |C(\lambda)| + \frac{1}{2} e'C^{-1}e$$
(5.7)

The covariance function $C(\lambda)$ could be one type of exponential model, spherical model, Gaussian model, power model, or hole effect model (Deutsch and Journal, 1998). The exponential model is adopted in this study due to its simple form and wide applications:

$$C(\lambda) = \sigma^2 \exp(-\frac{h_{ij}}{\lambda})$$
 (5.8)

where σ^2 is variance of hydraulic parameters; h_{ij} is the distance between two field measurements *i*, and *j*.

If the covariance function is validated using the cross-validation method via kriging, the NLL can be approximated to a simpler form (Samper and Neuman, 1989a):

$$NLL = -\ln L(\lambda \mid x) = \frac{N}{2}\ln 2\pi + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\ln\sigma_{i}^{2} + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\frac{e_{i}^{2}}{\sigma_{i}^{2}}$$
(5.9)

where σ_i is the estimation variance of measurement *i*; e_i is the estimation error of measurement *i*.

5.3.4 Posterior Probability of Spatial Correlation Scale

The multiple-realization values of the correlation scales are generated based on the prior probability distribution discussed in Section 5.3.2. The likelihood function of the correlation scale for each realization can be estimated by performing cross validation of field measurements via kriging using Eq. (5.9). The posterior probability of correlation scale for each realization can be calculated using Eq. (5.1) based on estimated prior probability and the likelihood function of each correlation scale.

The mean of posterior probability of the multiple-realization correlation scale is used as the input of the heterogeneous parameter field generation for the soil hydraulic parameters. It is defined as:

$$E(\lambda \mid x) = \int \lambda f(\lambda \mid x) d\lambda$$
(5.10)

5.3.5 Heterogeneous Parameter Field Generation via Kriging

Kriging is used to interpolate the heterogeneous fields of hydraulic parameters based on the known variogram model and spatial correlation scales. Kriging is an approach to estimate the unknown values using a weighted linear combination of the available data with the characterizations of the best linear unbiased estimator (Isaaks and Srivastava, 1989). Since the standardized transformed data appear to follow the standard normal distribution, the interpolated parameter fields by kriging must be transformed back to original scale using the following equations (Ye et al., 2007b):

$$LN: X = \exp(Y) \tag{5.11}$$

SB:
$$X = [B \exp(Y) + A] / [1 + \exp(Y)]$$
 (5.12)

SU:
$$X = A + (B - A)[\exp(Y) - \exp(-Y)]/2$$
 (5.13)

$$X = 1/Y; X = Y^{2}; X = Y^{3}; X = Y^{1/2}$$
 (5.14)

where Y is the transformed value generated by kriging and X is the parameter value in its original scale.

5.4 Estimation of Spatial Correlation Structure

This section discusses the results of spatial correlation structure estimation by the coupled method of Bayesian updating and ASMLCV.

5.4.1 Distribution Identification of Soil Hydraulic Data

For the soil hydraulic parameters, Table 5.2 lists the values of A and B needed for the SB and SU transforms, the selected best transformations based on Lilliefors Test, mean and variance of the transformed data, maximum absolute distribution difference (T), and Lilliefors criteria (T^{*}) for significance levels of 0.01, 0.05, and 0.1. The selected best distributions are determined at the significance level of 0.1 in Lilliefors normality test for the saturated hydraulic conductivity, van Genuchten α , saturated and residual water content, indicating the transformed data of the parameters follow a normal distribution. Only the normality assumption for the van Genuchten n is rejected at all significant levels but its T value is close to the critical value at the significant level of 0.01.

Figure 5.4 shows the empirical and theoretical CDFs for transformed soil hydraulic parameters and the selected best transformations. The empirical CDFs of the parameters agree well with the theoretical CDFs shown in Figure 5.4, indicating the selected transformations are appropriate. The selected best transformations are SB, LN, 1/X, and SU for the saturated hydraulic conductivity, van Genuchten α , saturated and residual water content. Although the normality test for van Gneuchten *n* is rejected, its best transformation (1/X) is still selected to transform the field data used in the future simulations.

Hydraulic Parameters	Limits of Variation		Trans -form	Estimated Distribution			Critical Values (T [*])		
	A	В	•	Mean	Variance	Т	α =0.10	α =0.05	α =0.01
Ks (m/d)	0.11	51.06	SB	-1.675	6.056	0.080	0.0991	0.1091	0.1269
van Genuchten α (1/cm) van Genuchten <i>n</i>	0.42 1.33	62.82 6.06	LN 1/X	1.83 0.494	0.959 0.026	0.079 0.144	0.0962 0.0969	0.1059 0.1059	0.1232 0.1232
θs (%)	21.77	47.43	1/X	0.0295	2.19E-05	0.051	0.0962	0.1059	0.1232
θr (%)	0.01	6.73	SU	0.437	0.032	0.083	0.0962	0.1059	0.1232

Table 5.2 Statistical parameters of soil hydraulic properties for distribution approximation.



Figure 5.4 Empirical (dashed) and theoretical (solid) cumulative distribution functions (CDFs) for transformed soil hydraulic parameters in the S&L site. The selected best transformations are listed in the figures.

5.4.2 Prior Probability Determination for Spatial Correlation Scale

The triangular distribution is adopted as prior probability distribution of the spatial correlation scale in this study due to its wide applications (Pardo-Igúzquiza, 1999). The a, b, c values of the triangular distribution could be estimated subjectively from literature, expert judgments, and studies under similar conditions.

For the vertical correlation scale, the sample variograms of soil texture parameters (bulk density, gravel, coarse sand, fine sand, silt, and clay percentages) are fitted to an exponential model with a vertical range of around 1.5 m at the study site in Ye et al. (2007a). The vertical correlation scale of 1.72 m was estimated from the sample variogram fitting of initial moisture content at the S&L injection site (Ye et al., 2005b). Therefore, the value of 1.5 m is selected as the most likely vertical correlation scale of the triangular distribution. The vertical correlation scale could be as small as the sampling interval (0.305 m) of initial moisture content (Ye et al., 2005b) and the minimum value (a) is assumed to be a very small value, 0.05 m. The study site is classified into five sediment layers with the depths of $2 \sim 3$ m, and the conclusions that the vertical correlation scales of initial moisture content are smaller than the average layer thickness were drawn in Ye et al. (2005b). 50-realization correlation scales are generated with an interval of 0.05m with the minimum value of 0.05m in this study. Thus, the maximum vertical correlation scale (c value) is set to 2.55 m in this study. The prior probability distribution of vertical correlation scale is determined as a triangular distribution with a = 0.05 m, b =1.50 m, and c = 2.55 m.

The horizontal correlation scale of the initial moisture content is greater than the domain's horizontal dimension since the horizontal variogram cannot reach a sill within the maximum lag distance of sampling domain (Ye et al., 2005b). However, the likelihood function is based on the field measurements, and extreme large horizontal correlation scales may lead to unreliable updated results. Thus, the mostly like horizontal correlation scale (*b* value) is set to 7.0 m at half of largest distance among the six boreholes. The maximum horizontal scale (*c* value) is assumed to be 25.5 m because the simulation domain has a size of $18m \times 18m \times 15m$. The smallest distance between the boreholes shown in Figure 5.3 is 0.85 m. Therefore, it is reasonable to set a small value of 0.5 m as the minimum horizontal correlation scale. The prior probability distribution of the horizontal correlation scale is then described as a triangular distribution with *a* = 0.5 m, *b* = 7.0 m, and *c* = 25.5 m.

The prior probability distributions of horizontal and vertical correlation scales are assumed to be the same for all soil hydraulic parameters in this study. The 50 realizations of horizontal and vertical correlation scales are generated for all parameters with a limitation of $\sum_{i=1}^{50} f(\lambda_i) = 1.0$. The PDFs of prior triangular distributions are plotted in Figure 5.5 in solid line. Figure 5.5 shows the maximum probability of 0.04 for the most likely values of correlation scales and zero probability for the minimum and maximum correlation scales.

5.4.3 Spatial Correlation Scale Updating

The procedures of spatial correlation scale updating for each parameter could be described as follows:

 Generate 50 realizations of horizontal correlation scales in Section 5.4.2 and a fixed vertical correlation scale at most likely value 1.5 m as the inputs of the exponential model in cross validation;

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- (2) Estimate the likelihood functions using Eq. (5.9) based on 50-realization crossvalidation results;
- (3) Obtain the posterior probability for 50-realization horizontal correlation scales;
- (4) Estimate the mean of the posterior probability of multiple-realization horizontal correlation scales as the updated horizontal correlation scale for subsequent heterogeneous field generation;
- (5) Generate 50-realization vertical correlation scales in Section 5.4.2 and a fixed horizontal correlation scale estimated in Step 4;

(6) Repeat steps 2, 3, and 4 to obtain the updated vertical correlation scale.

Figure 5.5 shows the prior probability, posterior probability, and NLL values of horizontal and vertical correlation scales for the soil hydraulic parameters. The posterior probability distributions for the correlation scales have inversely proportional relationships with the NLL values shown in Figure 5.5. One can also see from Figure 5.5 that the shapes of posterior probability distributions for the correlation scales look normally distributed and are significantly different from the prior triangular distributions, indicating that the updated posterior probability depends largely on the likelihood function estimation based on field measurements. The vertical correlation scales for the soil hydraulic parameters have their maximum posterior probability around 1.0 m or smaller than 1.0 m. Table 5.3 lists the means of updated posterior probability distributions for the vertical and horizontal correlations scales. The mean updated vertical correlation scales for the saturated hydraulic conductivity, van Genuchten α and n, saturated and residual water content are 1.1m, 0.6m, 0.5m, 1.0m, and 0.4m, respectively.

1.5 m and the initial moisture content of 1.72 m using sample variogram fitting in Ye et al. (2007a). The updated vertical correlation scales in this study are reasonable because the layer thickness of this study site is around 2~3 m and the sampling interval in boreholes S-1, S-2, and S-3 is very small (0.305 m).

The updated posterior horizontal correlation scales at maximum posterior probability are around 5.0 m for van Genuchten n, and residual water content; $3 \sim 4$ m for saturated hydraulic conductivity and saturated water content; 12.8 m for van Genuchten a, indicating the significant different horizontal correlation scales among the soil hydraulic parameters. Figure 5.5 shows that the sharp posterior probability distributions have the smaller horizontal scales at maximum posterior probability. The shapes of posterior probability distributions are largely related to the ones of likelihood functions. If the NLL values decrease or increase dramatically, the posterior probability distributions are much narrower. On the other hand, the wide posterior probability distribution is a result of slow change in the NLL values. This illustrates that the contributions to the posterior probability distributions are largely from the likelihood functions. The means of posterior probability for the horizontal correlation scales listed in Table 5.3 are 4.3, 12.8, 4.9, 3.0, and 5.0 for the five soil hydraulic parameters. The small horizontal correlation scales may be caused by the close boreholes (S-1, S-2, and S-3) shown in Figure 5.3. The updated horizontal and vertical correlation scales can then be investigated by the comparing the field measurements with the estimated data using kriging based on the results of spatial correlation scale updating.



Figure 5.5 Prior probability distribution (solid), posterior probability distribution (dashed), and negative natural log likelihood (NLL, dashdotted) values for the soil hydraulic parameters.



Figure 5.5 (Cont.) Prior probability distribution (solid), posterior probability distribution (dashed), and negative natural log likelihood (NLL, dashdotted) values for the soil hydraulic parameters.

Hydraulic Parameters	Mean of posterior probability for horizontal correlation scale	Mean of posterior probability for vertical correlation scale
Ks (m/d)	4.3	1.1
van Genuchten α (1/cm)	12.8	0.6
van Genuchten <i>n</i>	4.9	0.5
θs (%)	3.0	1.0
θr (%)	5.0	0.4

Table 5.3 The means of posterior probability distributions for horizontal and vertical correlation scales of soil hydraulic parameters.

5.4.4 Heterogeneous Field Generation of Soil Hydraulic Parameters

The simulation domain of the S&L injection site is $18m \times 18m \times 15m$ with a grid size of 0.25 m \times 0.25 m \times 0.3048 m. The 3-D heterogeneous parameter fields are generated by kriging based on the estimated horizontal and vertical correlation scales and the site measurements.

Figure 5.6 shows the spatial variability of the hydraulic parameters and the kriged estimation at borehole S-1. The comparison of field measurements and kriged results in Figure 5.6 shows that kriged estimation data of the hydraulic parameters agree well with the field measurements, indicating the kriging results are reliable to represent the S&L site heterogeneity. Therefore, the updated spatial correlation scales by the coupled method may improve the estimation of spatial correlation scales and the simulations of heterogeneous fields for the soil hydraulic parameters via kriging.

Figure 5.7 shows the 3-D heterogeneous fields of the five soil hydraulic parameters via kriging. The S&L site heterogeneity is apparent due to the significant differences of hydraulic parameters in the different locations and layers. The imperfectly stratified layering structure can be found for the soil hydraulic parameters in Figure 5.7, especially for saturated hydraulic conductivity. The simulated saturated hydraulic conductivity is less than 10 m/d in most area of the model domain and is around 25 m/d in the area with depth between 5 m and 10 m and width between 0 m and 10 m. The layering structure is not apparent in the heterogeneous fields of the soil hydraulic parameters, especially saturated hydraulic conductivity, indicating that the interpolated parameter fields do not represent well the real parameter fields. The interpolated heterogeneous field of saturated water content also has the imperfectly stratified layering

structure similar to the saturated hydraulic conductivity. The reasons could be that the most site measurements are clustered in three close boreholes, and small horizontal correlation scales are used in kriging. The generated fields of van Genuchten α and n, and residual water content have better results than the saturated hydraulic conductivity and saturated water content and the layering structure can be found due to the relatively large horizontal correlation scales. However, the results still could be improved due to the sparse clustered sampling data for the soil hydraulic parameters in the study site. This could be achieved by incorporating the secondary information (e.g., initial moisture content) with a large set of samples into the heterogeneous field interpolation by cokriging approaches.

5.5 Conclusions

This study presented a method to couple the Bayesian updating with ASMLCV to estimate the spatial correlation structures of the soil hydraulic parameters. The prior probability of the correlation scales for the hydraulic parameters was updated to yield the corresponding posterior probability distributions through the likelihood function estimated by ASMLCV approach based on site measurements. The heterogeneous fields of the soil hydraulic parameters can then be interpolated by kriging based on the estimated mean values of the horizontal and vertical correlation scales from the updated posterior probability.

The posterior probability distributions for the correlation scales have inversely proportional relationships with the NLL values and are significant different from the prior triangular distributions, indicating the updated posterior probability depends largely on

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Figure 5.6 Comparison of kriged and measured soil hydraulic data at borehole S-1 shown in Figure 5.1.



Figure 5.7 Generated heterogeneous fields of soil hydraulic parameters using kriging.

the likelihood function estimated based on field measurements. The means of posterior probability distributions for vertical correlations scales of the parameters are around or smaller than 1.0 m. The estimates are reasonable because the layer thickness of this study site is around $2\sim3$ m and the sampling interval in boreholes S-1, S-2, and S-3 is very small (0.305 m). The means of posterior probability distributions for horizontal correlation scales of the parameters vary from 3 m ~ 12.5 m, indicating the significant different horizontal correlation scales among the soil hydraulic parameters.

The good agreement of field measurements and kriged parameter fields at borehole S-1 indicate that the kriging results are reliable to represent the S&L site heterogeneity. Therefore, the updated spatial correlation scales may improve the estimation of spatial correlation scales and the simulations of heterogeneous fields for the soil hydraulic parameters. The imperfectly stratified layering structure is apparent in the interpolated 3-D heterogeneous fields of the soil hydraulic parameters. The results could be further improved by incorporating the secondary information (e.g., initial moisture content) with a large set of samples into the heterogeneous field generation using cokriging approaches.

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CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

Four research topics were presented in this dissertation related to characterizations of heterogeneous hydraulic properties, predictive uncertainty and sensitivity analysis of flow and contaminant transport in the unsaturated zone. In general, this study addressed the problems of characterizing the layer- and local-scale heterogeneities in hydraulic parameters using geostatistical methods when the core samples are sparse, evaluating the predictive uncertainties in flow and tracer transport due to layer- and local-scale heterogeneities in hydraulic parameters in the UZ, investigating the contributions of individual parameter uncertainties to the flow and transport uncertainties, and estimating the spatial correlation structures of hydraulic parameters using a coupled method of Bayesian updating and ASMLCV in heterogeneous media.

More specifically, the first study (Chapter 2) addressed two problems in numerical simulations of unsaturated flow and contaminant transport. The first is how to estimate the PDFs of the water retention parameters when measurements of the parameters are sparse and the prior PDFs are unknown; the other is how to evaluate the effects of the uncertainties in water retention parameters on the predictive uncertainties in unsaturated flow and contaminant transport. The first problem was resolved using the non-conventional ML approach, which approximates the PDFs as multivariate Gaussian without requiring the prior PDFs and large number of parameter measurements. This study provided a method of estimating the mean and covariance of PDFs based on the least-square fitting results, which can be easily estimated from existing software such as RETC. This study also evaluated the relative effects of the uncertainties in the water retention parameters (to those in permeability and porosity) on the predictive uncertainties of flow and transport using the Monte Carlo method. Predictive variance of the percolation flux increases if the random water retention parameters are taken into account, while the uncertain water retention parameters have limited effects on the mean predictions of percolation fluxes. The similar conclusion is also true for the magnitude and spatial pattern of the simulated plume of both conservative and reactive tracers. The travel time of the two types of tracers also becomes more uncertain after incorporating the uncertain water retention parameters.

The second study (Chapter 3) incorporated the layer- and local-scale heterogeneities of hydraulic parameters and investigated the relative effects of the two types of heterogeneities on predictive uncertainties of flow and tracer transport in the UZ. The layer-scale uncertainty is more important than local-scale heterogeneity in simulating the field observed flow patterns and trends. While the local-scale heterogeneity only slightly affects the mean predictions of percolation fluxes and tracer plumes, it significantly increases predictive uncertainties in these quantities, implying that more random and complicated flow paths are created by the local-scale heterogeneity. This is also true for the spatial distribution of the normalized cumulative mass arrival. The localscale heterogeneity increases the mean travel time of the reactive and conservative tracers at early stage, but the effects gradually decrease over time. The layer-scale uncertainty is also more important than local-scale heterogeneity in simulating the travel time of cumulative mass to the water table. If one wants to reduce overall predictive uncertainty in tracer travel time, an effort should be made to reduce the uncertainty in layer-scale values by improving the 3-D model calibration, recalling that layer-scale values were obtained from inverse modeling.

The third study (Chapter 4) was the global sensitivity analysis to investigate the contributions of individual parameter uncertainties to the flow and transport uncertainties in the UZ. The relative effects of parameter correlations on the sensitivity analysis were also investigated by comparing the sensitivity results with and without considering the parameter correlations. The obtained insights provided meaningful information on how to reduce the uncertainties in unsaturated flow and contaminant transport predictions through targeted layer- and local-scale characterizations. When the input parameters are independent, the uncertainty in permeability has the largest contributions to the uncertainties in percolation flux and the normalized cumulative mass arrival at each block of the water table. The sorption coefficient of the reactive tracer is the second important parameter in the layers of devitrified and zeolitic tuffs and has the smallest contributions in the layers of vitric tuff. For the overall tracer transport uncertainty, the uncertainties in the permeability and van Genuchten α have more contributions to the uncertainties in total cumulative mass arrival at the water table at the early stage. As time evolves, the uncertainty in porosity becomes more important. As the transport progresses further, the sorption coefficient of the reactive tracer becomes the dominant parameter in contributing to the uncertainties in overall tracer transport. When the input parameters are correlated, the uncertainty in van Genuchten n becomes important to the percolation flux uncertainty, mainly due to its high correlation with the van Genuchten α . The importance of sorption coefficient to the tracer transport uncertainty has not changed when the parameter correlations are considered, due to the assumption of zero correlations between the sorption coefficient and other hydraulic parameters. The rankings of parameter importance also change if the parameter correlations are taken into account, indicating that the significant effects of parameter correlations on the sensitivity of unsaturated flow and contaminant transport.

The fourth study (Chapter 5) addressed the problem of how to improve the heterogeneity characterizations of hydraulic parameters through incorporation of prior information and available sparse field data using geostatistical approaches. This study presented a method to couple the Bayesian updating with ASMLCV approach to estimate the spatial correlation structures of the soil hydraulic parameters. The posterior probability distributions for the correlation scales have the inverse proportional relationships with the NLL values and are significantly different from the prior triangular distributions, indicating the updated posterior probability depends largely on the likelihood function estimated based on the available field measurements. The good agreement of field measurements and kriged parameter fields at borehole S-1 indicate that the kriging results are reliable to represent the S&L site heterogeneity. Therefore, the updated spatial correlation scales may improve the heterogeneity characterizations of hydraulic parameters representing the spatial variability of the parameters in the study site. The results could be improved by incorporating secondary information (e.g., initial moisture content) with a large data set of samples into the heterogeneous parameter field generation using cokriging approaches.

In summary, the four research topics presented in this dissertation incorporated the geostatistical methods and numerical simulations to characterize the heterogeneities of hydraulic parameters and evaluate the uncertainty and sensitivity of flow and contaminant transport in heterogeneous UZ. The non-conventional ML approach provided an effective way of estimating the parameter PDFs of the hydraulic parameters when the site measurements are sparse and the prior parameter PDFs are unknown. The findings of relative importance of layer- and local-scale heterogeneities and individual hydraulic parameters to flow and tracer transport uncertainties can point to the most influential locations and parameters in directing possible future field characterizations in order to reduce the overall and/or spatial predictive uncertainties of flow and contaminant transport modeling. The coupled method of Bayesian updating and ASMLCV can improve the spatial correlation structure estimation with the incorporation of available site measurements and prior information.

Based on the results of this dissertation work, future efforts can focus on the improvement of heterogeneity characterizations in hydraulic parameters by incorporating the available information related to the parameters such as soil texture properties, lithologic and topographical data etc. The future work can also be extended to uncertainty assessments in flow and contaminant transport due to conceptual model uncertainty in order to better understand the physical processes of unsaturated flow and contaminant transport.

APPENDIX A

MATHEMATICAL MODEL OF THE UZ FLOW AND TRACER TRANSPORT A.1 Flow Governing Equations

The dual-continuum approach is applied to separate the physical processes of flow and transport into fracture and matrix systems and to handle the fracture-matrix interaction in a fractured porous media (Wu et al., 1999; Wu and Pruess, 2000). The physical processes of unsaturated flow in fracture and matrix are governed by Richard's equation, conservation of mass, and Darcy's law (BSC, 2004a, Wu and Pruess, 2000). The basic mass and energy equations for fracture or matrix in the dual-continuum system are (BSC, 2004a):

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{V_n} M^k dV_n = \int_{\Gamma_n} F^k \cdot n \cdot d\Gamma_n + \int_{V_n} q^k dV_n$$
(A.1)

where: M^{k} is mass or energy per volume; F^{κ} is mass or heat flux; q^{κ} is sinks and sources; κ is the mass components (air, water, and tracer etc.); Γ_{n} is the closed surface; and V_{n} is an arbitrary subdomain.

The mass accumulation of water and air components (M^{k} in Eq. (A.1)) for matrix or fracture can be written as (BSC, 2004a; Wu and Pruess, 2000):

$$M^{k} = \sum_{\beta} (\phi \rho_{\beta} S_{\beta} X_{\beta}^{k}) \tag{A.2}$$

where: β is fluid phase (liquid (L) or gas (G)); ϕ is porosity; ρ_{β} is the density of phase β ; S_{β} is the saturation of phase β ; X_{β}^{k} is mass fraction of component k in phase β .

The mass flux in matrix or fracture (F^k in Eq. (A.1)) can be calculated by Darcy's law (BSC, 2004a; Wu and Pruess, 2000):

$$F^{k} = \sum_{\beta} X^{k}_{\beta} F_{\beta}; \quad F_{\beta} = \rho_{\beta} v_{\beta} = -k \frac{k_{r\beta} \rho_{\beta}}{\mu_{\beta}} (\nabla P_{\beta} - \rho_{\beta} g)$$
(A.3)

where: F_{β} is mass flux in phase β ; v_{β} is the Darcy velocity; k is absolute permeability; $k_{r\beta}$ is relative permeability; μ_{β} is viscosity; g is gravity acceleration constant; and P_{β} is capillary pressure.

Equations A.1 – A.3 lead to the Richards' equation as (BSC, 2004a):

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\theta_{\beta} = div \Big[K_{\beta} \nabla \psi_{\beta} \Big] + q_{\beta}$$
(A.4)

where: $\theta_{\beta} = \phi S_{\beta}$ is specific volumetric moisture content for fracture or matrix, $K_{\beta} = kk_{r\beta}\rho_{\beta}g/\mu_{\beta}$ is hydraulic conductivity with $k_{r\beta}$ being the relative permeability, $\psi_{\beta} = z + P_{\beta}/(\rho_{\beta}g)$ is the total water potential with z being elevation, and q_{β} is sinks and sources. The van Genuchten model is used to calculated water capillary pressure and relative permeability for matrix and fracture continuums.

A.2 Transport Governing Equations

The processes of tracer transport in UZ are advection, diffusion, and dispersion in heterogeneous porous media, which are governed by Fick's law and conservation of mass (BSC, 2004b; Wu and Pruess, 2000). The general term of mass accumulation (M^k in Eq.

(A.1)) for tracer transport through matrix or fracture can be descried by (Wu and Pruess, 2000):

$$M^{k} = \sum_{\beta} (\phi \rho_{\beta} S_{\beta} X_{\beta}^{k}) + (1 - \phi) \rho_{s} \rho_{L} X_{L}^{k} K_{d}^{k} \quad (k \text{ being tracer only}) \quad (A.5)$$

where: ρ_s is the density of rock grains; ρ_L is the density in liquid phase; X_L^k is mass fraction of tracer in the liquid phase; K_d^k is the distribution coefficient of tracer between the liquid phase and rock solids.

The mass flux (F^k in Eq. (A.1)) is the summation of mass flux by advection, F_A^k , and mass flux by diffusion and dispersion, F_D^k , i.e., (Wu and Pruess, 2000)

$$F^{k} = F_{A}^{k} + F_{D}^{k} \tag{A.6}$$

and F_A^k and F_D^k are calculated via

$$F_{A}^{\kappa} = \sum_{\beta} (X_{\beta}^{\kappa} \rho_{\beta} v_{\beta})$$
(A.7)

$$F_{D}^{\kappa} = -\sum_{\beta} \left(\rho_{\beta} \underline{D}_{\beta}^{k} \cdot \nabla X_{\beta}^{k} \right)$$
(A.8)

where $\underline{D}_{\beta}^{k}$ is diffusion-dispersion tensor for both molecular diffusion and hydraulic dispersion for component k in phase β . It can be expressed as (Wu and Pruess, 2000).

In fracture:
$$\underline{D}_{\beta,f} = \alpha_{T,f} \left| v_{\beta,f} \right| \delta_{ij} + (\alpha_{L,f} - \alpha_{T,f}) \frac{v_{\beta,f} v_{\beta,f}}{\left| v_{\beta,f} \right|} + \phi_f S_{\beta,f} \tau_f d_f \delta_{ij}$$
(A.9)

In matrix:
$$\underline{D}_{\beta,m} = \alpha_{T,m} \left| v_{\beta,m} \right| \delta_{ij} + (\alpha_{L,m} - \alpha_{T,m}) \frac{v_{\beta,m} v_{\beta,m}}{\left| v_{\beta,m} \right|} + \phi_m S_{\beta,m} \tau_m d_m \delta_{ij}$$
(A.10)

Between fracture and matrix or inside matrix: $\underline{D}_{\beta,fm} = \alpha_{fm} |v_{\beta,fm}| + \phi_m S_{\beta,m} \tau_m d_m$ (A.11)

where $\underline{D}_{\beta,p}$ is diffusion-dispersion tensors for transport through fractures (p = f), matrix (p = m), and between fractures and matrix or inside matrix (p = fm); $\alpha_{T,p}, \alpha_{L,p}$ are transverse and longitudinal dispersivities of fractures and matrix respectively; α_{fm} is longitudinal dispersivity along fracture-matrix or inner matrix-matrix connections; τ_p is the tortuosity of fracture or matrix continuum; d_p is the molecular diffusion coefficient in phase β ; and δ_{ij} is Kroneker delta function.

When tracer k undergoes radioactive decay, the rate of mass change can be described by the first-order decay law:

$$\frac{dM_k}{dt} = -\lambda_k M_k \tag{A.12}$$

where λ_k is radioactive decay constant of radionuclide tracer k defined as

$$\lambda_{k} = \frac{\ln 2}{(T_{1/2})_{k}}$$
(A.13)

 $(T_{1/2})_k$ being the half life of tracer k. Therefore, the transport equation of each component k within the fracture or matrix continuum can be obtained by substituting Eqs. A.5, A.7, A.8, and A.12 into A.1 (Wu and Pruess, 2000):

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \{ \phi \sum_{\beta} \rho_{\beta} S_{\beta} X_{\beta}^{k} \} + (1 - \phi) \rho_{s} \rho_{L} X_{L}^{k} K_{d}^{k} \} + \lambda_{k} \{ \phi \sum_{\beta} \rho_{\beta} S_{\beta} X_{\beta}^{k} \} + (1 - \phi) \rho_{s} \rho_{L} X_{L}^{k} K_{d}^{k} \} = -\sum_{\beta} \nabla \cdot (\rho_{\beta} X_{\beta}^{k} v_{\beta}) + \sum_{\beta} \nabla \cdot (\rho_{\beta} \underline{D}_{\beta}^{k} \cdot \nabla X_{\beta}^{k}) + q^{k}$$
(A.14)

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