

Basis-constrained Bayesian McMC difference inversion for geoelectrical monitoring of hydrogeological processes

Right Running Head: Basis-driven McMC difference inversion

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ABSTRACT

Bayesian Markov-chain Monte Carlo (McMC) techniques are increasingly being used in geophysical estimation of hydrogeologic processes due to their ability to produce multiple estimates that enable comprehensive assessment of uncertainty. Standard McMC sampling methods can, however, become computationally intractable for spatially distributed, high-dimensional problems. We present a novel basis-constrained Bayesian McMC difference inversion framework for time lapse geophysical imaging. The strategy parameterizes the Bayesian inversion model space in terms of sparse, hydrologic-process-tuned bases, leading to dimensionality reduction while accounting for the physics of the target hydrologic process. We demonstrate the algorithm on cross-borehole electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) field data acquired during a heat-tracer experiment. We validate the ERT-estimated temperatures with direct temperature measurements at two locations on the ERT plane. We also perform the inversions using the conventional smoothness-constrained inversion (SCI). Our approach estimates the heat plumes without excessive smoothing in contrast with the SCI thermograms. We capture most of the validation temperatures within the 90% confidence interval of the mean. Accounting for the physics of the target process allows the detection of small temperature changes that are undetectable by the SCI. Performing the inversion in the reduced-dimensional model space results in significant gains in computational cost.

INTRODUCTION

Understanding subsurface processes is critical to the design and efficient management of groundwater and energy resources. While traditional well-based sampling methods provide valuable insights into subsurface processes (e.g., LeBlanc et al., 1991), they are expensive and provide limited spatiotemporal information. The use of geophysical methods to investigate

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3 47 spatially continuous hydrogeological processes is well documented (e.g., Singha et al., 2015).
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5 48 The inversion of geophysical data is, however, nontrivial due to limited noisy data (ill-
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7 49 posedness) and solution non-uniqueness (Menke, 1984). Typically, regularization is required in
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9 50 order to stabilize the problem and obtain a unique result (Tikhonov and Arsenin, 1977).

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12 51 Traditional regularization constraints impose smoothness and/or force the solution toward
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14 52 some reference model (Menke, 1984) without accounting for our prior understanding of the
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16 53 physics of the target hydrologic process. In solute plume moments' inference from tomograms,
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18 54 Day-Lewis et al. (2007) showed that the choice of regularization strongly influences the solution,
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20 55 often producing smoothed-out plumes with mass under-estimation. The coupled (Hinnel et al.
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22 56 2010) and basis-constrained (Oware et al., 2013) inversion frameworks were developed in order
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24 57 to address the lack of physics-based prior in the traditional regularization constraints.

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27 58 While deterministic methods provide simple and computationally efficient inversion
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29 59 frameworks, stochastic inversion (SI) techniques enable comprehensive interpretation of the
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31 60 estimates (Tarantola, 2005) with the capacity to estimate geologically realistic features (e.g.,
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33 61 Oware, 2016). Bayesian Markov-chain Monte Carlo (McMC) is a commonly used SI strategy in
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35 62 hydrogeophysics (e.g., Irving and Singha, 2010). Standard McMC sampling methods can,
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37 63 however, become computationally expensive when working with spatially distributed (high-
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39 64 dimensional) geophysical parameter fields. In such cases, performing McMC in a reduced-
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41 65 dimensional space may help to render the stochastic inverse problem computationally tractable
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43 66 (e.g., Ruggeri et al, 2015). Multivariate statistical tools for dimensionality reduction (e.g., proper
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45 67 orthogonal decomposition (POD) or singular value decomposition (SVD), eigenvector, and
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47 68 wavelet transformations) typically find an orthogonal set of basis vectors that capture the
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69 maximum amount of variability in a training dataset, thereby enabling a sparse representation of
70 the chosen system.

71 Hermans et al. (2016b) applied a prediction-focused approach (PFA, Satija and Caers, 2015)
72 for direct stochastic prediction of hydrogeological parameters without the need for classic
73 inversion. While PFA circumvents classic inversion of the data, it relies on trained statistical
74 relationship for prediction without the process of actually fitting the data, which limits its ability
75 to reconstruct features that are not well represented in the training data. Furthermore, the
76 dimensionality reduction can also be achieved via frequency-amplitude-based bases and
77 orthogonal moments. Lochbuhler et al. (2014) successfully applied discrete cosine transform
78 (DCT) parameterization of the model space for probabilistic electrical resistivity characterization
79 of a lab-scale CO₂ injection experiment. We contend that, unlike process-tuned, non-parametric
80 bases, the parametric DCT bases are fixed, which will limit their ability to reconstruct complex
81 plume morphologies. In a synthetic example, Laloy et al. (2012b) successfully performed MCMC
82 in the lower-dimensional model space related to Legendre moments. In an attempt to produce
83 realistic plume morphologies with mass conservation, they predefined mass and morphological
84 features, which imposed hard constraints that are typically unknown *a priori* in real-world data.
85 We present a novel basis-constrained Bayesian MCMC (BcB-MCMC) difference inversion
86 framework to improve monitoring of hydrogeological processes. The method constrains the
87 classical Bayesian inversion scheme with hydrologic-process-tuned, non-parametric bases to
88 account for the physics of the target process. The key contributions of the algorithm are: 1) it
89 allows the incorporation of site-specific, hydrologic-process-tuned non-parametric bases, 2) it
90 parameterizes the Bayesian inversion problem in the reduced-dimensional space, and 3) it does
91 not require prior specifications of mass and plume geometric features. It also provides a simple,

92 general framework to incorporate bases constructed from different methods for finding
 93 orthogonal bases. We illustrate the performance of the algorithm on a field-scale geoelectrical
 94 data acquired during a heat-tracer experiment.

95 In spite of the numerous advantages of SI, most of the SI strategies in hydrogeophysics have
 96 focused on characterization of aquifer heterogeneities (e.g., Linde et al. 2006; Oware, 2016) with
 97 limited techniques addressing the important subject of subsurface solute-plume characterization.
 98 This contribution provides a new perspective on SI frameworks for geophysical monitoring of
 99 subsurface solute-plumes.

101 **BASIS-CONSTRAINED BAYESIAN McMC DIFFERENCE INVERSION**

102 Oware *et al.* (2013) presented the basis-constrained inversion wherein a vector of the target
 103 model, σ , is expressed as a linear combination of its basis vectors, \mathbf{B} , and coefficients, \mathbf{c} :

$$104 \quad \sigma = \mathbf{Bc}. \quad (1)$$

105 They implemented equation 1 in a classical Tikhonov deterministic inversion scheme to infer the
 106 optimal set of coefficients from geophysical measurements. Here, we formulate a Bayesian
 107 McMC version of the basis-constrained inversion as:

$$108 \quad \mathbf{c}_{post} = \mathbf{c}_{prior} L(\sigma | \mathbf{d}_{obs}) = \mathbf{c}_{prior} L(\mathbf{B}, \mathbf{c} | \mathbf{d}_{obs}), \quad (2)$$

109 where \mathbf{c}_{post} and \mathbf{c}_{prior} are the posterior and prior coefficients, respectively, and $L(\cdot)$ is the
 110 likelihood function, which evaluates the probability of a proposed model given the observed
 111 data. We implement equation 2 as a difference inversion framework (LaBrecque and Yang,
 112 2001). In addition to its rapid convergence, difference inversion is intuitively appealing for
 113 monitoring hydrogeological processes due to its ability to detect small changes, eliminate
 114 systematic errors, and reduce inversion artifacts. Hence, adopting the Bayesian view of

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3 115 regularization (e.g., MacKay, 1992) for computational stability, we compute the regularized
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5 116 likelihood as:

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$$L(\mathbf{B}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{W}_d, \beta | \mathbf{d}_{obs}) = \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{e}^T * \mathbf{W}_d * \mathbf{e} + \beta \mathbf{c}^T * \mathbf{W}_c * \mathbf{c}) \right], \quad (3)$$

118 where the data misfit expressed in terms of a difference is $\mathbf{e} = [\mathbf{d}_t - \mathbf{d}_0] - [f(\mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}) - f(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_0)]$,
119 with \mathbf{d}_t and \mathbf{d}_0 representing data at the time-step of interest and background, respectively. The
120 terms $f(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_0)$ and $f(\mathbf{B}\mathbf{c})$ are, respectively, the forward simulations from the classical inversion (
121 $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_0$) of the background data and the proposed model. \mathbf{W}_d is the data weight matrix, β , arbitrarily
122 set to 1e-6 here, is a fitting parameter. The value for β can also be determined using the L-curve
123 approach (Hansen and O'Leary, 1993). \mathbf{W}_c denotes the coefficient regularization operator, which
124 contains the inverse of the fractional contributions of the singular values of the basis vectors, to
125 impose prior structural constraints on \mathbf{c} (e.g., Oware and Moysey, 2014).

126 To summarize the workflow of the BcB-McMC, first, we perform Monte Carlo simulations
127 of training images (TIs) tuned to the physics of the target hydrologic process to capture, for
128 instance, multiple rates of advection and multiple scales of dispersion and complexities in the
129 plume morphologies. We pull all the simulated time lapse hydrologic models together into a
130 single robust library of TIs. Second, we construct orthogonal bases, \mathbf{B} , from the TIs. Third, to
131 obtain prior distributions of the coefficients, \mathbf{c}_{prior} , we project the TIs onto \mathbf{B} . Fourth, we propose
132 coefficients from \mathbf{c}_{prior} . We accept or reject the proposed coefficients based on the classical
133 Metropolis-Hastings acceptance rule (Metropolis et al., 1953; Hastings, 1970). The posterior
134 coefficients are then mapped onto the bases to obtain multiple realizations of the target.

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136 APPLICATION TO FIELD DATA

137 *Heat-Tracer and ERT Experiments*

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3 138 We demonstrate the performance of the algorithm on a field-scale heat-tracer experiment
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5 139 conducted in an alluvial aquifer and monitored with cross-borehole electrical resistivity
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7 140 tomography (XBh-ERT). Details of the heat-tracer and XBh-ERT experimental designs are
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9 141 outlined in Hermans et al. (2015). To summarize, water was continuously pumped to induce
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11 142 groundwater flow toward the pumping well. Hot water was then injected continuously in an
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13 143 injection well for 24 hours. Changes in electrical conductivity were monitored in a XBh-ERT
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15 144 panel perpendicular to the flow direction. Here, we focus on the inversion of the first six time-
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17 145 lapse profiles (e.g., Hermans et al., 2018) acquired at 6 h, 12 h, 18 h, 21.5 h, 25 h, and 30 h after
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19 146 the commencement of the heat injection. After data filtering (Hermans et al., 2018), all the
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21 147 inversions involved only 410 quadrupoles for each time-step. During the experiments, direct
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23 148 temperatures were monitored in two piezometers, pz14 and pz15 located along the ERT plane.
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150 *Inversion Procedure*

151 The first step in the inversion involves Monte Carlo simulations of TIs tuned to the physics
152 of the presupposed heat-tracer experiment. We used the same 3,000 (500 models x 6 time-steps)
153 TIs employed by Hermans et al. (2018). The key in the TI simulations is to generate site-specific,
154 physically realistic plume morphologies with uncertainties in the underlying hydrogeological
155 properties consistent with prior knowledge of the site. Here, we considered Gaussian hydraulic
156 conductivity (K) fields with uncertainties in the mean K and variance, anisotropy, and
157 orientation. The heat transport assumes both advection and dispersion and retardation due to the
158 heat capacity of the solids. We refer to Hermans et al. (2018) for more details about the
159 generation of the TIs. We then constructed the basis vectors from the TIs (log of electrical
160 resistivity) using proper orthogonal decomposition (POD). While there are various methods for
161 finding the orthogonal bases, we chose POD/SVD due to its significant model-space

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3 162 compression capability (Castleman, 1996). Figure 1 shows the first 20 principal basis vectors
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5 163 obtained from the 3,000 TIs. As noted by Oware et al. (2018), the ranges of the sampling
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7 164 coefficients are critical to reconstructing physically realistic solute plumes. Hence, parameter
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9 165 bounds must be imposed on the resampling (equation 2) of the coefficients. To obtain physics-
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11 166 based parameter bounds for the prior coefficients, we map the TIs onto \mathbf{B} , i.e.:

$$12 \quad \mathbf{c}_{prior} = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{T}_i \quad (4)$$

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15 167 where \mathbf{T}_i is the set of TIs. There is a unique set of coefficients associated with each TI from the
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17 168 mapping in equation 4. Histogram analyses (not shown) of the 3,000 coefficients associated with
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19 169 each coefficient reveal that most of the coefficients have approximately Gaussian distributions
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21 170 (e.g., Oware et al., 2018), which justifies an assumption of prior Gaussian distribution for the
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23 171 coefficients. Note that we also tested the assumption of prior uniform distribution over the range
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25 172 of each prior coefficient but found the prior Gaussian distribution to be superior.
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29 174 We also inverted all the datasets using the classical smoothness-constrained inversion (SCI).
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31 175 We employed the 2.5D ERT inversion code CRTomo (Kemna, 2000) for all resistivity forward
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33 176 simulations and the SCI. We utilized the following petrophysical relationship to convert the ERT
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35 177 tomograms into thermograms (e.g., Hermans et al., 2015):

$$36 \quad T = \frac{1}{m_f} \left[\frac{\sigma_T}{\sigma_b} \frac{\sigma_{fb}}{\sigma_{f,25}} - 1 \right] + 25, \quad (5)$$

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38 179 where σ_b and σ_T are the inverted bulk electrical conductivity of the background and the time step
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40 180 of interest, respectively; σ_{fb} and $\sigma_{f,25}$ denote, respectively, fluid conductivity of the background
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42 181 and at a reference temperature (25°C); m_f represents fractional change in electrical conductivity
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44 182 per degree Celsius. The parameters $\sigma_{f,25}$, σ_{fb} , m_f were, respectively, set to 0.0791 S/m, 0.061
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46 183 S/m, and 0.0194°C⁻¹ (from Hermans et al., 2015).
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185 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

186 We ran the algorithm for 120,000 iterations using 20 basis vectors (Figure 1) to reconstruct
187 the 1092 full-dimensional space, resulting in over 98% truncation in the dimensionality of the
188 problem. The sampling path of the negative log-likelihood (Equation 3, Figure 2A) shows rapid
189 burn-in of the algorithm, with burn-in occurring at about 2000 iterations. We noted all the
190 inversions burned-in before the 4,000 iteration mark. Hence, burn-in was set to 4,000 resulting in
191 a total of 116,000 posterior samples for all inversions. The rapid burn-in is attributable to the
192 performance of the inversion in the reduced-dimensional space. For instance, consideration of
193 only 20 inversion parameters will reduce the search space significantly compared to sampling in
194 the full dimensional pixel-based model space. Further, while all 20 coefficients can be perturbed
195 at each iteration, it is impractical to do same for all the model parameters of the full-dimensional
196 space.

197 We performed model autocorrelation analysis to determine the number of iterations required
198 to generate statistically independent samples (Figure 2B). The autocorrelation curve intercepts
199 the average correlation level (dashed line) at about 2000 iterations, which marks the correlation
200 length. We repeated the analysis for multiple samples and found the correlation length to occur
201 generally between iterations 2000 and 4000. We, therefore, set the correlation length to 3,500
202 iterations, resulting in a total of 34 statistically independent posterior samples.

203 The difference thermograms recovered from the 12h (t₂), 21.5h (t₄), and 30h (t₆) time-steps
204 based on the classical SCI and our approach are presented in Figure 3. Both strategies estimated
205 similar locations and spatial extents of the heat plumes (Figure 3 Columns 1-4). While
206 smoothing of the heat plume is apparent in the SC tomograms (Figure 3 Column 1), our
207 approach produced plume morphologies without excessive smoothing (Figure 3 Columns 2-4).
208 This is ascribable to the incorporation of physics-based prior information in our approach. The

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3 209 standard deviation panels (Figure 3 Column 5) reveal the variabilities in uncertainty in the
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5 210 estimates. As expected, they show generally low uncertainty near the ERT well locations, a
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7 211 region of high data sensitivity. The ability of our strategy to reconstruct the different
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9 212 morphologies of the heat plume using the same set of basis-constraints (Figure 1), illustrates the
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11 213 flexibility of the strategy to recombine the bases in a manner that honors the ERT measurements.

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13 214 The validation of estimated temperature break-through curves at the two piezometers, pz14
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15 215 and pz15, are presented in Figure 4. Both strategies accurately predicted the general temporal
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17 216 behavior of the heat migration, with SCI out- or under-performing our strategy at certain time-
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19 217 steps. The 90% confidence interval (CI) of the estimates from our approach captured almost all
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21 218 the true temperature measurements. In the data presented, a change of 1°C produced a 2%
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23 219 change in electrical conductivity (Hermans et al., 2018), which is undetectable in deterministic
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25 220 inversions. Hermans et al. (2015) estimated the limit of detection of ERT of this experiment at
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27 221 ~1.5 °C. It appears that accounting for the physics of the target process improves the limit of
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29 222 detection in our approach. Specifically, 6 hours (t1) of heat injection produced a change in
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31 223 temperature of ~0.5 °C at both pz14 and pz15 (Figures 4A and 4B). This small change in
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33 224 temperature was undetected by the SCI since it is well below the ~1.5 °C ERT detection limit.
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35 225 Our approach, in contrast, accurately estimated the small temperature change and captured the
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37 226 true values within 90% CI of the mean, indicating that accounting for the physics of the target
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39 227 process potentially helps improve estimation in poor data-resolution environments.

228 229 **CONCLUSION**

230 The use of geophysical imaging to non-invasively investigate hydrogeological processes is
231 well-proven. While stochastic inversion is preferred for comprehensive interpretation and
232 uncertainty assessment of geophysical estimates, the standard Markov-chain Monte Carlo

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3 233 (McMC) method can become computationally prohibitive and unable to estimate physically
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5 234 realistic plume morphologies. We proposed here a novel basis-constrained Bayesian-McMC
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7 235 difference inversion framework. The strategy employs hydrologic-process tuned non-parametric
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9 236 basis vectors to account for the physics of the target process in a classical difference inversion
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11 237 framework in the reduced dimensionality space. This results in rapid burn-in of the algorithm,
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13 238 meaning small number of geophysical forward simulations prior to burn-in, which can translate
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15 239 into gains in computational costs of stochastic inversion algorithms. We found that incorporating
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17 240 physics-based prior information not only produces physically realistic solute plumes without
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19 241 smoothing, but also helps to improve estimation in poor data-resolution environments. Further
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21 242 research is, however, needed to demonstrate the full potential of physics-based regularization to
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23 243 improve estimation in poor data-sensitivity environments.
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Figure Captions

Figure 1. First 20 principal proper orthogonal decomposition basis (POD heat plumes) constructed from the training images. Note, the colorbars are not on the same scale because of loss of patterns in the bases with small values. The focus is on the patterns captured in each basis since the magnitudes will be scaled by the coefficients during the inversion.

Figure 2. Sampling paths of: (A) negative log-likelihood to determine the burn-in period, and (B) correlation coefficient for autocorrelation analysis.

Figure 3. Difference thermograms recovered from the ERT measurements at three different time-steps: (row 1) 12h, (row 2) 21.5h, and (row 3) 30h. Column 1 shows tomograms from the classical smoothness-constraint (SC) inversion, columns 2, 3, 4, and 5 show, respectively, two posterior realizations, posterior mean and standard deviations from the basis-constraint Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (BcC-McMC) difference inversion. pz14 and pz15 are, respectively, located at (1.125 m, 9 m) and (2.25 m, 8.5 m).

Figure 4. Validation of estimated temperature break-through curves at two validation locations: (A) pz14 and (B) pz15. (Blue lines) direct temperature measurements, and estimated temperature break-through curves from the: (orange lines) classical smoothness-constraint inversion (SCI), (yellow lines) posterior mean of the basis-constraint (BC) Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo inversion. The two black dashed lines define the 90% confidence interval of the BC estimates.

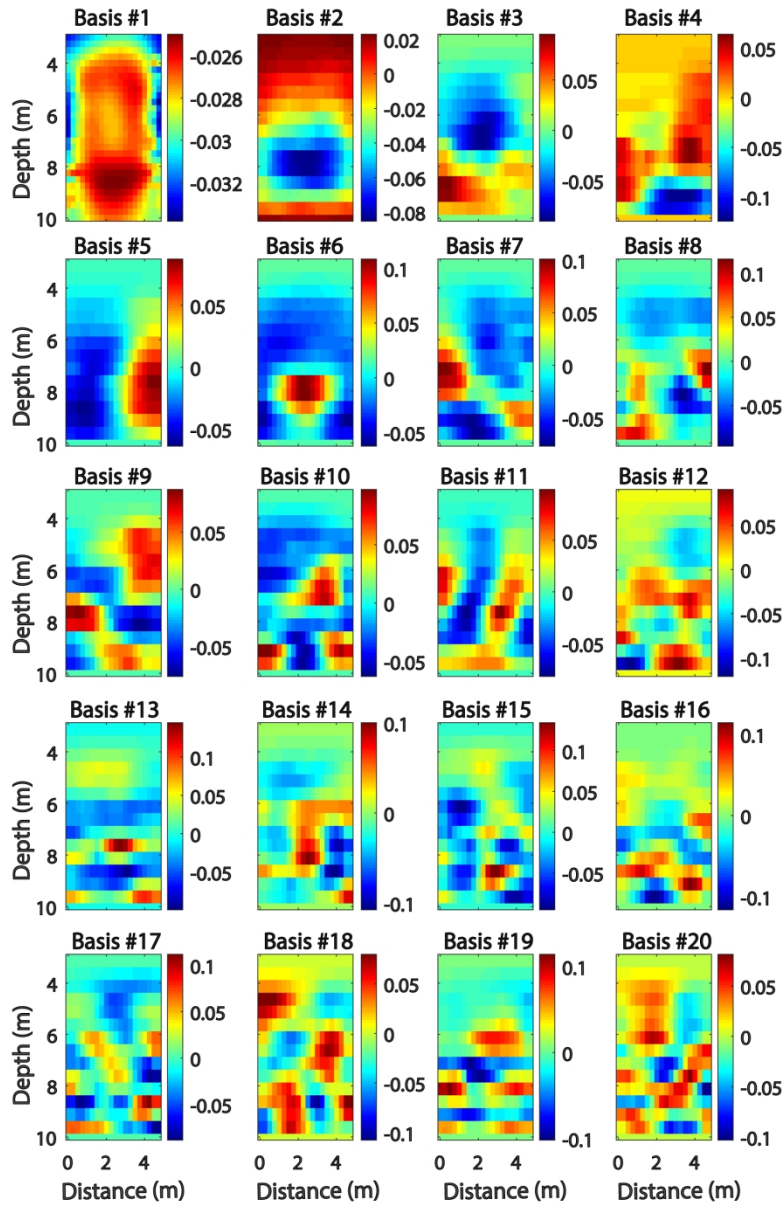


Figure 1. First 20 principal proper orthogonal decomposition basis (POD heat plumes) constructed from the training images. Note, the colorbars are not on the same scale because of loss of patterns in the bases with small values. The focus is on the patterns captured in each basis since the magnitudes will be scaled by the coefficients during the inversion.

161x249mm (300 x 300 DPI)

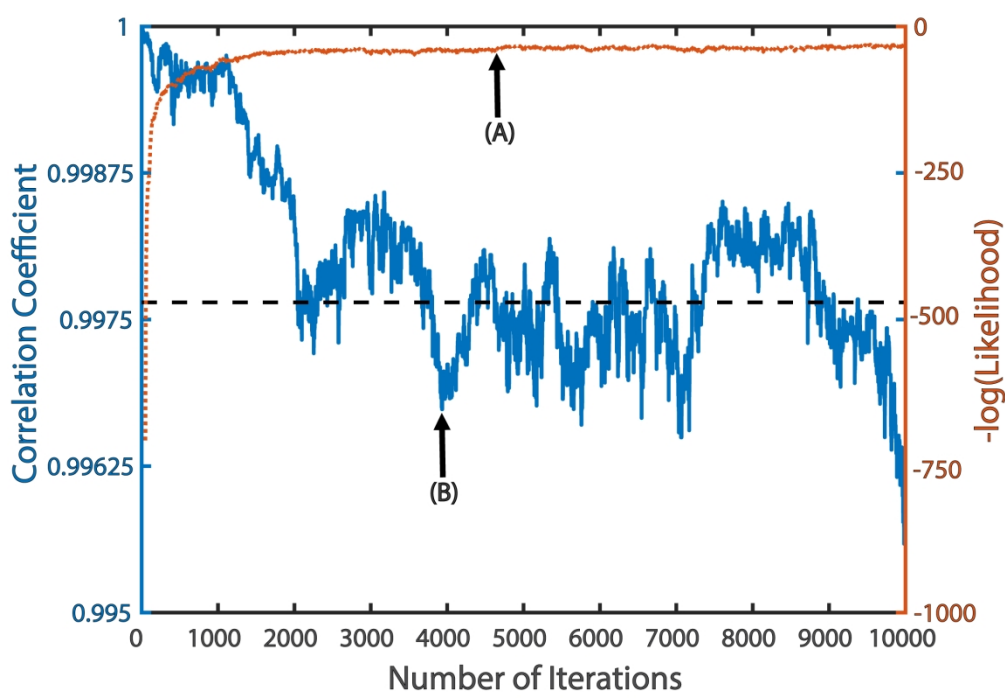


Figure 2. Sampling paths of: (A) negative log-likelihood to determine the burn-in period, and (B) correlation coefficient for autocorrelation analysis.

186x127mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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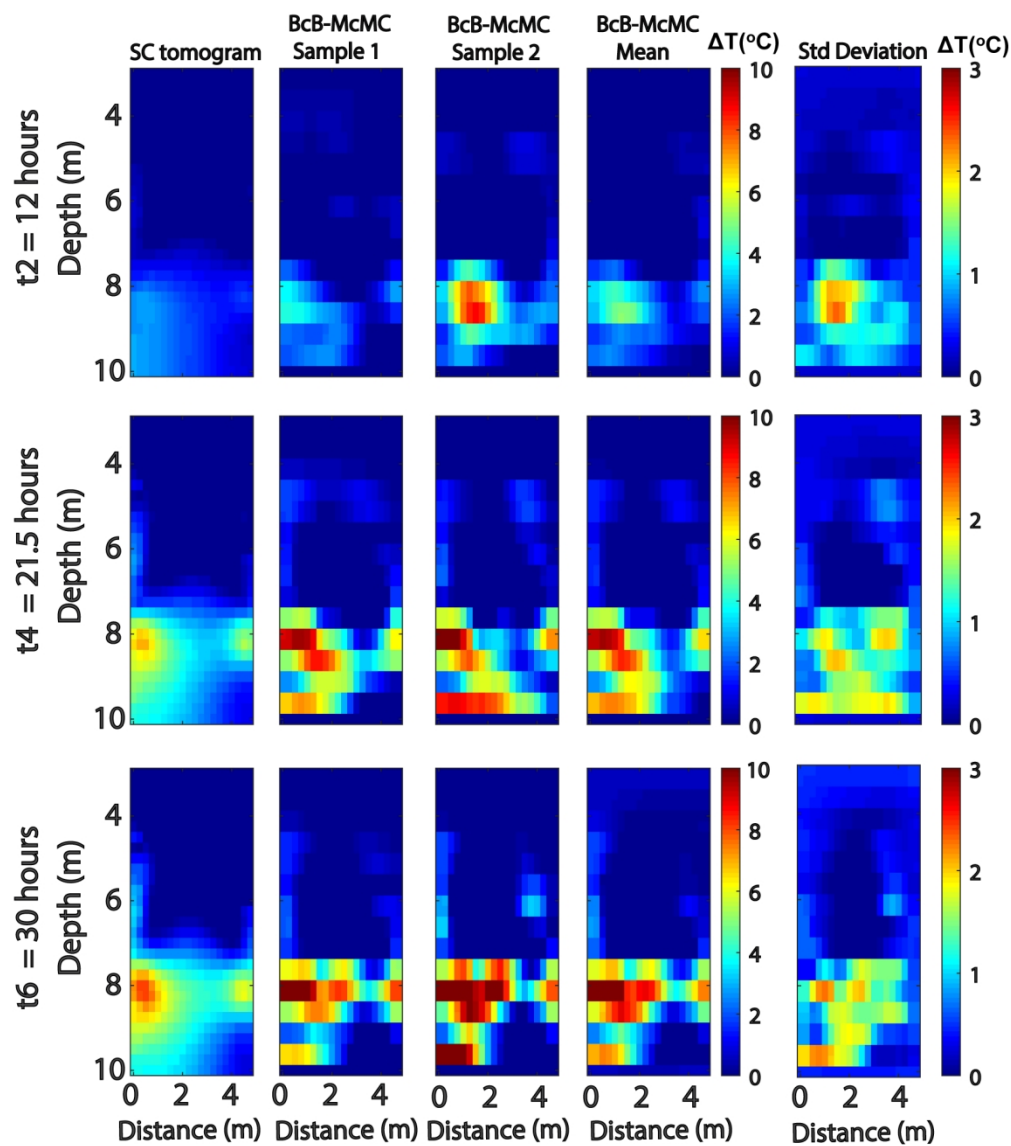


Figure 3. Difference thermograms recovered from the ERT measurements at three different time-steps: (row 1) 12h, (row 2) 21.5h, and (row 3) 30h. Column 1 shows tomograms from the classical smoothness-constraint (SC) inversion, columns 2, 3, 4, and 5 show, respectively, two posterior realizations, posterior mean and standard deviations from the basis-constraint Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo (BcB-McMC) difference inversion. pz14 and pz15 are, respectively, located at (1.125 m, 9 m) and (2.25 m, 8.5 m).

153x174mm (300 x 300 DPI)

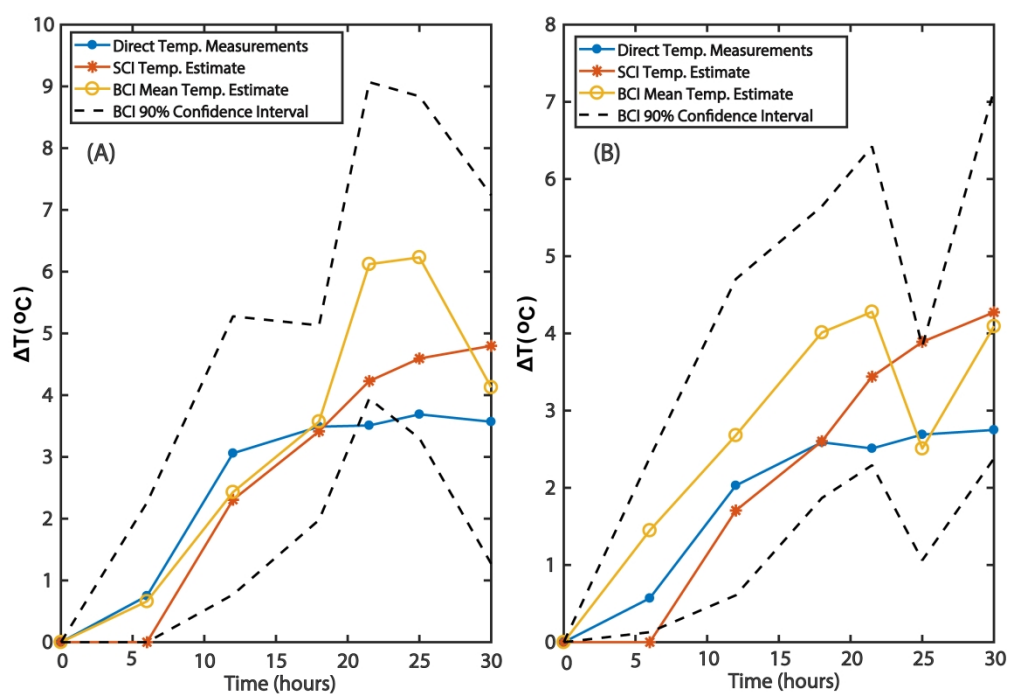


Figure 4. Validation of estimated temperature break-through curves at two validation locations: (A) pz14 and (B) pz15. (Blue lines) direct temperature measurements, and estimated temperature break-through curves from the: (orange lines) classical smoothness-constraint inversion (SCI), (yellow lines) posterior mean of the basis-constraint (BC) Bayesian Markov chain Monte Carlo inversion. The two black dashed lines define the 90% confidence interval of the BC estimates.

296x202mm (300 x 300 DPI)