

1 **Efficient probabilistic hydrogeophysical prediction using maximum covariance analysis**  
2 **based metamodel of the forward problem**

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5 Erasmus K. Oware<sup>1</sup>,

6 Jef Caers<sup>2</sup>

7 Thomas Hermans<sup>3</sup>

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9 *<sup>1</sup>Department of Earth Sciences, SUNY at Buffalo, 126 Cooke Hall, Buffalo, NY 14260.*

10 *<sup>2</sup>Department of Geological Sciences, Stanford University, California, USA.*

11 *<sup>3</sup>Department of Geology, Ghent University, Belgium.*

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16 **Key points**

- 17 • Improving computational efficiency of Bayesian inversion and sensitivity analysis  
18 problems in hydrogeology and hydrogeophysics.
- 19 • Finding coupled patterns between two space-time domains using maximum covariance  
20 analysis (MCA).
- 21 • First MCA-based metamodeling in hydrogeology and hydrogeophysics.

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26 **Abstract**

27 Bayesian inverse modeling (BIM) provides a framework for uncertainty assessment in estimation  
28 of earth models from multiple sources of limited, noisy, and incomplete data. BIM, however,  
29 requires repeated solutions of computationally expensive full-physics forward (FPF) runs,  
30 rendering BIM overwhelmingly computationally prohibitive and intractable in high-dimensional  
31 problems. We present a novel maximum covariance analysis (MCA)-based metamodel to  
32 approximate the FPF problem by capturing coupled patterns from small number of mutual  
33 observations between the parameter and data fields. We implement the strategy as a difference  
34 MCA prediction-focused approach (DMCA-PFA) and test it on electrical resistivity tomography  
35 (ERT) field data acquired during a heat-tracer experiment. We also invert the data using the  
36 conventional smoothness-constrained inversion (SCI). The DMCA-PFA outperformed SCI in  
37 estimation of realistic plume morphologies and direct temperature validations. We show an  
38 excellent MCA-based approximations of the FPF simulated resistances, with the potential to  
39 reduce CPU-time of BIM by over 99%.

40

41 **Plain Language Summary**

42 Mathematical modeling is essential for efficient management of groundwater and energy  
43 resources. Such mathematical procedures require input parameters of some earth properties.  
44 Since the earth cannot be sampled exhaustively to obtain the input parameters at all locations,  
45 inverse modeling is performed to derive the input parameters at unsampled locations from  
46 observations at limited sampled locations. The inverse modeling procedure also requires forward  
47 modeling, which involves mathematical modeling of a process response given the input earth  
48 properties. The severally repeated forward modeling task, however, can become overwhelming  
49 computationally expensive, especially when the modeling involves several spatially distributed

50 parameters, which limits our inverse modeling capabilities. We present a novel maximum  
51 covariance analysis (MCA)-based strategy to approximate the forward problem in order to  
52 circumvent the tremendous computational costs of computing several forward solutions. We test  
53 the strategy on electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) field data acquired during a heat-tracer  
54 experiment. We also invert the data using the conventional smoothness-constrained inversion  
55 (SCI). Our strategy outperformed SCI in estimation of realistic plume morphologies and direct  
56 temperature validations. We show an excellent MCA-based approximations of the forward  
57 problem, with the potential to reduce CPU-time of inverse modeling by over 99%.

58

## 59 **1. Introduction**

60 Inverse modeling in hydrogeology [e.g., *Zhou et al.*, 2014] and hydrogeophysics [e.g., *Binley*  
61 *et al.*, 2015] involves estimating some earth physical properties and processes from observational  
62 data. Such observations are typically noisy and limited in number and resolution coupled with  
63 incomplete understanding of coupled processes occurring at multiple spatio-temporal scales.  
64 Bayesian inversion [*Tarantola*, 2005] provides a framework to infer earth models from multiple  
65 sources of information, including noisy and incomplete data while allowing incorporation of  
66 prior information. It also allows uncertainty quantification, thereby enabling comprehensive  
67 interrogation of the estimates. Due to the usually high-dimensional and complex non-linear  
68 models, the solution necessitates Markov chain Monte Carlo (McMC) sampling [*Hansen et al.*,  
69 2016]. Bayesian McMC, however, requires repeated solutions of computationally expensive full-  
70 physics forward runs, which renders them computationally prohibitive and intractable in high-  
71 dimensional problems.

72 There is growing interest in the use of proxy-models of the forward solution in applications  
73 that demand several computationally expensive forward runs, such as Bayesian McMC and

74 sensitivity analysis. There are two broad categories of proxy-models, the lower-fidelity models  
75 (LF-models) and metamodels [Linde *et al.*, 2017]. The LF-models are usually physics-based and  
76 rely on model simplifications to speed-up the forward runs. The simplification can be achieved  
77 by approximating some aspects of the physics or by ignoring them completely [e.g., Josset *et al.*,  
78 2015], or by performing the forward runs on a coarser grid [Arridge *et al.*, 2015]. While LF-  
79 models speed-up the forward runs, they are less accurate. The metamodels, in contrast, are data-  
80 driven proxies involving Monte Carlo simulations of relatively small number of ensembles  
81 obtained from the full-physics (high-fidelity) forward simulations. There are several methods for  
82 developing the proxy-models from the small number of high-fidelity ensembles [e.g., Khu and  
83 Werner, 2003; Myers *et al.*, 2016]. In the context of metamodeling in hydrogeology, the  
84 polynomial chaos expansion (PCE) [Beck *et al.*, 2014] and reduced-order models (ROM) [e.g.,  
85 Liu *et al.*, 2013] are commonly applied. In the PCE metamodeling, polynomial approximations  
86 of the forward problem are constructed over the support of the prior distributions [e.g., Marzouk  
87 and Xiu, 2009]. PCE, however, suffers in high-dimensional parameter spaces since the number  
88 of PCE terms increases dramatically with increased number of input parameters. PCE also  
89 underperforms when the input random field is highly heterogeneous. The ROM approach  
90 constructs orthogonal bases from the small number of high-fidelity ensembles (snapshots) and  
91 then employs the orthogonal bases as projection matrices to map the high-dimensional target  
92 system into a low-dimensional subspace. Unlike the current ROM techniques that consider  
93 orthogonal bases of a single state space, such as hydraulic heads [e.g., Liu *et al.*, 2013] or solute  
94 concentrations [e.g., Oware *et al.*, 2013; Oware and Moysey, 2014], our metamodeling relies on  
95 coupled (joint) patterns between the model parameter and data domains, making the strategy  
96 particularly well suited for metamodeling in model-data integration and sensitivity analysis

97 applications. *Linde et al.* [2017] provides an excellent review of proxy-modeling in  
98 hydrogeology and hydrogeophysics.

99 Furthermore, to avoid the overwhelmingly computationally expensive Bayesian inversion,  
100 *Scheidt et al.* [2015] proposed the prediction-focused approach (PFA) to predict hydrologic  
101 variables directly from geophysical measurements without the full inversion of the data nor post-  
102 inversion petrophysical transform. The PFA uses surrogate models to derive a linearized,  
103 statistical relationship between the data and the target parameters [e.g., *Hermans et al.*, 2016b].  
104 While PFA shows a lot of promise, it predicts the target hydrologic models directly from the  
105 geophysical data without iteratively fitting the data, which might limit its robustness to  
106 reconstruct complex hydrologic features that are not well represented in the prior samples  
107 [*Oware et al.*, in-press]. The current PFA framework [e.g., *Satija and Caers*, 2015], moreover,  
108 uses canonical correlation analysis (CCA) to capture the coupled relationship between the two  
109 (model-data) space-time domains. The use of multivariate statistical tools, such as maximum  
110 covariance analysis (MCA) to capture coupled patterns between two space-time parameter fields  
111 for the purpose of forecasting is widely used in climate science [e.g., *von Storch and Zwiers*,  
112 1999]. MCA is simply singular value decomposition (SVD) of the cross-covariance between the  
113 two space-time domains. *Bretherton et al.* [1992], for instance, found CCA to be uncompetitive  
114 compared to MCA due to high sampling variability unless the coupled signal was highly  
115 localized.

116 We propose here a difference MCA-PFA (DMCA-PFA) scheme to advance the PFA  
117 framework with two key contributions: 1) implement PFA in the MCA coupled space by actually  
118 fitting the data in a Bayesian sense, and 2) develop an MCA-based metamodel of the geophysical  
119 forward problem. We also outline a strategy to calibrate and account for metamodel-discrepancy

120 in the proxy-approximation. We illustrate the performance of the DMCA-PFA on a field-scale  
 121 geoelectrical data acquired during a heat-tracer experiment. We intend to show that the MCA-  
 122 based metamodel presents a key contribution toward improving the computational efficiency of  
 123 stochastic inversion and sensitivity analysis procedures in hydrogeology and hydrogeophysics.

124

## 125 **2. Methods**

### 126 2.1 Overview of Maximum Covariance Regression

127 Consider two parameter fields, a geophysical data field,  $\mathbf{d} \in \mathbf{R}^q$  and a hydrologic model  
 128 parameter space,  $\mathbf{h} \in \mathbf{R}^p$ , where  $q$  and  $p$  are the number of geophysical data points and  
 129 hydrologic model parameters, respectively. A linear multivariate regression between the two

130 domains can be expressed as:  $\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{h}$ , (1)

131 where  $\mathbf{A}$  is a regression matrix. The mapping in Equation 1 usually involves complex, non-linear  
 132 relationships including spatially dependent petrophysical transformation between the  $\mathbf{d}$  and  $\mathbf{h}$ . To  
 133 linearize such complex relationships, we propose to use maximum covariance analysis (MCA).

134 A good treatment of MCA is provided by *von Storch and Zwiers* [1999]. To accomplish this, we  
 135 construct the data matrix  $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbf{R}^{q \times n}$  and the model parameter matrix  $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbf{R}^{p \times n}$  from Monte

136 Carlo simulations of  $n$  number of mutual observations (snapshots) between  $\mathbf{d}$  and  $\mathbf{h}$ . If  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^T$  is  
 137 invertible, then  $\mathbf{A}$  in Equation 1 can be factorized in terms of MCA projections [e.g., *Tippett et*

138 *al.*, 2008]:  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}^T(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^T)^{-1}$ , (2)

139 where  $T$  denotes transpose,  $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}^T$  is the SVD of  $\mathbf{D}\mathbf{H}^T$ ,  $\mathbf{\Lambda} \in \mathbf{R}^{p \times p}$  is a diagonal matrix of singular  
 140 values, and  $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbf{R}^{q \times p}$  and  $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbf{R}^{p \times p}$  are the left (data) and right (hydrologic model) coupled  
 141 patterns, respectively. From Equations 1 and 2, we recast  $\mathbf{d}$  as:

142  $\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{V}^T(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^T)^{-1}\mathbf{h} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ , (3)

143 where  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$  is the metamodel-discrepancy that accounts for the inexactness of the MCA-based  
 144 approximation of the high-fidelity  $\mathbf{d}$ . A consequence of Equation 3 is that if we learn the mutual  
 145 behavior between  $\mathbf{d}$  and  $\mathbf{h}$  and the metamodel-discrepancy structure from training surrogates  $\mathbf{D}$   
 146 and  $\mathbf{H}$ , then we can directly predict  $\mathbf{d}$  associated with any given  $\mathbf{h}$  without the need for the  
 147 typically computationally expensive geophysical forward simulations. We only need to run the  
 148 high-fidelity forward simulations only  $n$  number of times.

149 In the event that  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^T$  is not invertible directly, an inverted version can be approximated via  
 150 SVD [e.g., *Castleman, 1996*]:

$$151 \quad (\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^T)^{-1} = (\mathbf{U}_h \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_h \mathbf{V}_h^T)^{-1} \approx \mathbf{V}_h \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_h^{-1} \mathbf{U}_h^T \quad (4)$$

152 where  $\mathbf{U}_h \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_h \mathbf{V}_h^T$  is SVD of  $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^T$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_h^{-1}$  is a diagonal matrix with its diagonal elements equal to  
 153  $1/\Lambda_{ij}$  and  $\Lambda_{ij}$  are the diagonal elements of  $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_h$ .

154

## 155 2.2 Difference Maximum Covariance Analysis Prediction-Focused Approach

156 Difference inversion [*LeBrecque and Yang, 2001*] has become increasingly appealing for  
 157 geophysical monitoring of hydrogeological processes because inverting on the background  
 158 differenced data results in rapid convergence, ability to detect small changes, eliminate  
 159 systematic errors, and reduce inversion artifacts. Hence, we test the strategy as a difference  
 160 maximum covariance analysis prediction-focused approach (DMCA-PFA). We apply Bayes'  
 161 rule for the problem of estimating the posterior distribution of  $\mathbf{h}$  from observed data,  $\mathbf{d}_{obs}$ .

162 Specifically, 
$$\mathbf{h}_{post} = \mathbf{h}_{prior} L(\mathbf{h}|\mathbf{d}_{obs}) \quad (5)$$

163 where  $\mathbf{h}_{post}$  and  $\mathbf{h}_{prior}$  are the posterior and prior distributions of  $\mathbf{h}$ , respectively, and  $L(\cdot)$  is the  
 164 likelihood, which evaluates the probability of a proposed  $\mathbf{h}$  given  $\mathbf{d}_{obs}$ . We compute the  
 165 likelihood as a multivariate Gaussian error distribution, i.e.,

166 
$$L(\mathbf{h}|\mathbf{d}_{obs}, \mathbf{W}_d) = \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{e}^T * \mathbf{W}_d * \mathbf{e})\right], \quad (6)$$

167 where  $\mathbf{W}_d$  is the data weight matrix and  $\mathbf{e}$  is the data misfit. To implement Equation 6 in a  
 168 difference inversion framework, we express  $\mathbf{e}$  as:

169 
$$\mathbf{e} = [\mathbf{d}_t - \mathbf{d}_0] - [f(\mathbf{h}_t) - f(\mathbf{h}_0)], \quad (7)$$

170 where  $\mathbf{d}_t$  and  $\mathbf{d}_0$  represent the data at the time-step of interest and background, respectively. The  
 171 terms  $f(\mathbf{h}_t)$  and  $f(\mathbf{h}_0)$  are, respectively, the predicted data associated with a proposed model  
 172 and the model obtained from the classical inversion of the background data. To advance the PFA  
 173 framework by actually fitting the observed data in a computationally efficient manner, we  
 174 circumvent the high-fidelity geophysical forward runs in Equation 7 by directly predicting the  
 175 data for any given  $\mathbf{h}$  according to Equation 3. Hence,

176 
$$\mathbf{e} = [\mathbf{d}_t - \mathbf{d}_0] - [\mathbf{U}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^T(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^T)^{-1}\mathbf{h}_t - \mathbf{U}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^T(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^T)^{-1}\mathbf{h}_0 + (\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t - \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_0)]. \quad (8)$$

177 Similar to *Hermans et al.* [2016b], Equation 8 predicts the hydrologic model directly from the  
 178 geophysical data, thereby avoiding post-inversion petrophysical transformation. There is  
 179 growing popularity in estimation algorithms that proceed in the reduced-dimensional space due  
 180 to their computational stability and efficiency [e.g., *Banks et al.*, 2000]. Hence, we express the  
 181 target parameters,  $\mathbf{h}_t$ , as a linear combination of its basis vectors,  $\mathbf{B}$ , and expansion coefficients,  
 182  $\mathbf{c}$ , i.e.,  $\mathbf{h}_t = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}_t$  [e.g., *Oware et al.*, 2013]. Therefore,

183 
$$\mathbf{e} = [\mathbf{d}_t - \mathbf{d}_0] - \mathbf{U}\Lambda\mathbf{V}^T(\mathbf{H}\mathbf{H}^T)^{-1}[\mathbf{B}\mathbf{c}_t - \mathbf{h}_0] - [\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t - \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_0]. \quad (9)$$

184 It should be emphasized that the basis,  $\mathbf{B}$ , is constructed from SVD of  $\mathbf{H}$  and, therefore,  $\mathbf{B}$  is not  
 185 the same as  $\mathbf{V}$ . While  $\mathbf{V}$  captures the MCA coupled patterns between  $\mathbf{H}$  and  $\mathbf{D}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$  represents  
 186 orthogonal bases of  $\mathbf{H}$  only.

187 To obtain prior distributions for the metamodel-discrepancy,  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$ , in Equation 9, we perform  
 188 MCA-based approximations (Equation 3) of the geophysical data associated with the  $n$  number

189 of training samples ( $\mathbf{H}$ ), to construct the data matrix  $\mathbf{D}_{mca} \in \mathbf{R}^{q \times n}$ . We then compute the prior  
 190 error,  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{prior} \in \mathbf{R}^{q \times n}$ , as the discrepancies between the predicted data of the high-fidelity  
 191 geophysical forward runs and those of the MCA-based approximations, i.e.,

$$192 \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{prior} = \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{D}_{mca}. \quad (10)$$

193 This implies that there are  $n$  realizations of the approximation errors for each geophysical data  
 194 point, which defines prior distributions for sampling the metamodel-discrepancy,  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$ , for each  
 195 geophysical data point. We compute  $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_0$  in Equation 9 as the residuals between the predicted data  
 196 of the high-fidelity geophysical forward run and that of the MCA-based approximation obtained  
 197 from the inverted background geophysical model.

198

### 199 2.3 Complete Overview of DMCA-PFA

200 We now present the full workflow of the sampling of the posterior distribution of  $\mathbf{h}$  (Figure  
 201 1):

202 1) Perform Monte Carlo simulations to generate training set (TS) of multiple realizations of the  
 203 physics of the target hydrologic process (e.g., captures outcomes of multiple rates of advection  
 204 and multiple scales of dispersion and plume morphologies). Collect all simulated time-lapse  
 205 models into a single library of hydrologic (space-time) TS ( $\mathbf{H}$ ).

206 2) To obtain mutual observations between  $\mathbf{h}$  and  $\mathbf{d}$ , perform petrophysical transformation of each  
 207  $\mathbf{h}$  into geophysical properties and run geophysical forward simulations to predict  $\mathbf{d}$  associated  
 208 with each  $\mathbf{h}$ . Collect all simulated  $\mathbf{d}$  into a matrix of geophysical TS,  $\mathbf{D}$ . Now,  $\mathbf{D}$  and  $\mathbf{H}$  constitute  
 209 mutual observations between the two parameter fields,  $\mathbf{h}$  and  $\mathbf{d}$ .

210 3) Perform MCA of  $\mathbf{D}$  and  $\mathbf{H}$  to obtain coupled patterns between the two fields. Also, SVD of  $\mathbf{H}$   
 211 produces orthogonal bases,  $\mathbf{B}$ .

212 4) To obtain prior distributions for sampling the expansion coefficients,  $\mathbf{c}$ , project  $\mathbf{H}$  onto  $\mathbf{B}$ , i.e.,  
213  $\mathbf{c}_{prior} = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{H}$ . Obtaining the prior coefficients from the physics-based TS imposes physics-  
214 based parameter bounds for the coefficients in an attempt to produce physically realistic plume  
215 morphologies [Oware *et al.*, 2018].  
216 5) Propose coefficients from  $\mathbf{c}_{prior}$ . We accept or reject the proposed coefficients based on the  
217 classical Metropolis-Hastings acceptance rule [Metropolis *et al.*, 1953; Hastings, 1970]. The  
218 posterior coefficients are then mapped onto  $\mathbf{B}$  to obtain multiple realizations of the target, i.e.,  
219  $\mathbf{h}_{post} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{c}_{post}$ . Note, Step 5 is simply the standard MCMC sampling parameterized in the  
220 reduced-dimensional space. It also uses the MCA-based metamodel without performing the  
221 typically computationally expensive geophysical forward runs.

222

### 223 **3. Application to Field Data**

224 We demonstrate the efficacy and efficiency of the DMCA-PFA algorithm on a field-scale  
225 heat-tracer experiment conducted in an alluvial aquifer and monitored with cross-well ERT  
226 (XBh-ERT). Details of the heat-tracer and XBh-ERT surveys are outlined in *Hermans et al.*  
227 [2015]. To summarize, water was continuously pumped to induce GW flow toward the pumping  
228 well. Hot water was then injected continuously in an injection well for 24 hours. Changes in  
229 electrical conductivity were monitored in a XBh-ERT panel across the GW flow direction. We  
230 invert the first six time-lapse resistances acquired at 6 h, 12 h, 18 h, 21.5 h, 25 h, and 30 h after  
231 the commencement of the heat injection. Each time-step inversion involves only 410  
232 quadrupoles. Direct temperatures were also monitored in two piezometers, pz14 and pz15, for  
233 validation of the ERT predicted temperatures.

234 We first performed Monte Carlo simulations to obtain a training set (TS) tuned to the physics  
235 of the presupposed heat-tracer test. We used the same 3,000 (500 hydrologic models x 6 time-  
236 steps) temperature TS ( $\mathbf{H}$ ) employed by *Hermans et al.* [2018]. The TS was obtained via Monte  
237 Carlo simulations of the heat tracing experiment for 500 different GW models, considering  
238 uncertainties in the underlying hydrogeologic and transport properties. Through petrophysical  
239 transformations, we converted each temperature distribution,  $\mathbf{h}$ , into resistivity models and ran  
240 resistivity forward simulations to obtain resistance data,  $\mathbf{d}$ , associated with each  $\mathbf{h}$ . A collection  
241 of all  $\mathbf{d}$  comprise the geophysical training data ( $\mathbf{D}$ ). We then performed MCA of  $\mathbf{D}$  and  $\mathbf{H}$  to  
242 construct the coupled patterns between the two fields. Figure 2 shows the first 5 dominant MCA  
243 coupled patterns between the hydrological ( $\log(\mathbf{h})$ ) and geophysical data ( $\mathbf{d}$ ) spaces constructed  
244 from the 3,000 mutual observations between the two fields. Figure 2, essentially, depicts how the  
245 two fields covary such that given any resistance measurements,  $\mathbf{d}$ , we should be able to leverage  
246 the prior coupled behavior to predict its associated temperature distributions,  $\mathbf{h}$ . For comparison,  
247 we also inverted all the datasets using the classical smoothness-constrained inversion (SCI). We  
248 applied the 2.5D ERT inversion code CRTomo [*Kemna, 2000*] for all resistivity forward  
249 simulations and the SCI. We utilized the petrophysical relationship presented by *Hermans et al.*  
250 [2015] and the parameters presented therein for all conversions of ERT into thermograms.

251

## 252 **4. Results and Discussion**

### 253 *4.1 MCA-based metamodeling*

254 For the inversion of  $\mathbf{HH}^T$  in Equation 3, we used Equation 4 since  $\mathbf{HH}^T$  was not invertible in  
255 the case study presented here. Histogram analyses (not shown) of the metamodel-discrepancies  
256 of the individual data points (Equation 10) reveal that the errors are not normally distributed.  
257 Hence, we assumed no knowledge of the prior error distributions and sampled uniformly over

258 the interval of the prior errors of each data point for  $\epsilon$  in Equation 3. To assess the performance  
259 of the MCA-based metamodel, we applied the high-fidelity resistivity forward simulation and  
260 MCA-based approximation to estimate resistances from resistivity tomograms obtained from  
261 smoothness-constrained inversion of the observed resistance data at three time steps, 12 hours  
262 ( $t_2$ ), 21.5 hours ( $t_4$ ), and 30 hours ( $t_6$ ).

263 Figure 3 shows the scatter plots of the full resistivity forward simulated resistances against  
264 those of the MCA-based metamodel for the three time steps. The coefficients of determination  
265 ( $R^2$ ) for the MCA-based metamodel for  $t_2$ ,  $t_4$ , and  $t_6$  are 0.9996, 0.9990, and 0.9988,  
266 respectively. The  $R^2$ s indicate marginal deterioration of the MCA metamodel with increasing  
267 time-steps. Nevertheless, there is almost a perfect one-to-one MCA proxy-approximations of all  
268 the high-fidelity forward simulated resistances, indicating high approximation accuracy of the  
269 MCA metamodeling in the examples considered here. It takes  $\sim 2.64$  seconds of CPU-time to  
270 complete each high-fidelity resistivity forward simulation. This implies that Bayesian inversion  
271 involving about 300,000 iterations, for instance, will require  $\sim 13,200$  minutes of CPU-time. The  
272 Bayesian inversion with the MCA-based metamodel (DMCA-PFA) presented in the next section  
273 takes  $\sim 35$  minutes to complete 300,000 iterations. This represents a significant reduction in the  
274 computational time of  $\sim 99\%$ , considering the 3,000 high-fidelity forward runs needed to calibrate  
275 the MCA-based metamodel and the  $\sim 35$  minutes needed to complete the inversion.

276

#### 277 *4.2 Posterior Prediction*

278 We ran the algorithm for 300,000 iterations for all of the six time-lapse profiles. We applied  
279 20 bases,  $\mathbf{B}$ , to reconstruct the 1092 full-dimensional space, resulting in over 98% truncation in  
280 the dimensionality of the problem. The 20 selected basis vectors represented 99.8% of the total

281 variance in the TIs. The difference thermograms recovered for the 12h (t2), 21.5h (t4), and 30h  
282 (t6) time-steps based on the SCI and the DMCA-PFA are presented in Figure 3. While both  
283 strategies captured similar evolution (locations and spatial extents) of the heat plume (Figure 3  
284 Columns 1-4), smoothing of the heat plume is less severe in our approach in contrast to  
285 smoothing in the SC thermograms. The estimation of physically realistic plume morphologies  
286 without excessive smoothing in our approach (Figure 3 Columns 2-4) is attributable to the use of  
287 physics-based prior constraints as compared to the use of a generalized smoothness spatial filter  
288 in the SCI. The standard deviation panels (Figure 3 Column 5) reveal the spatial variabilities of  
289 uncertainty in the estimates. While uncertainty is expected to be low near the borehole locations  
290 (extreme vertical ends) due to high cross-borehole resistivity data sensitivity near the ERT wells,  
291 there appears to be generally high uncertainty in the recovered temperatures around 8-9 m  
292 depths, especially near the left borehole corresponding to high amplitudes. This trend in the  
293 estimated uncertainty reveal increasing difficulty of the algorithm to estimate high temperature  
294 deviations from the background values. The ability of our strategy to accurately capture the  
295 migration of the heat plume (different locations and morphologies) using the same set of basis-  
296 constraints demonstrates the flexibility of the algorithm to recombine the bases in a manner that  
297 honors each time-step ERT measurements.

298

#### 299 *4.3 Model Validation with Direct Temperature Measurements*

300 Figure 5 outlines the validation of estimated temperature breakthrough curves at the two  
301 piezometers, pz14 and pz15, respectively, located at (1.125 m, 9 m) and (2.25 m, 8.5 m) from the  
302 left borehole. The temporal behavior of the validation breakthrough curves were accurately  
303 captured by both methods. Comparisons of the estimated temperatures with the direct

304 temperatures, however, indicate that DMCA-PFA outperformed SCI on almost all the direct  
305 temperature measurements. The 90% confidence interval (CI) of the DMCA-PFA estimates  
306 captured all the true temperatures with the true values seemingly well centered within the range  
307 of the 90% CI. *Hermans et al.* [2018] concluded that a change of 1°C produced only 2% change  
308 in electrical conductivity for the data presented here. Such small changes are undetectable in  
309 deterministic inversions [e.g., *Doetsch et al.*, 2012). *Hermans et al.* [2015] estimated the limit of  
310 detection of ERT of this experiment at ~1.5 °C given the estimated noise level. Accounting for  
311 the physics of the target process seems to improve the limit of detection in the DMCA-PFA.  
312 Particularly, the direct temperature measurements at both pz14 and pz15 (Figures 5A and 5B)  
313 show that 6 hours (t1) of heat injection resulted in a change of ~0.5 °C, which was undetected by  
314 the SCI since it is well below the ~1.5 °C ERT detection limit. Our approach, in contrast,  
315 accurately estimated the small temperature change and captured the true values within 90% CI.

316

## 317 **5. Conclusion**

318 Inverse modeling is the foremost strategy for inferring earth properties and processes from  
319 observational data in hydrogeology and hydrogeophysics. In spite of the numerous benefits of  
320 stochastic inversion, deterministic inverse methods remain widely used due to their simplicity  
321 and computational efficiency. We propose here a novel maximum covariance analysis (MCA)-  
322 based metamodel to reduce the overwhelming computational costs of repeatedly computing the  
323 full-physics of the forward problem in stochastic inversions. We construct the MCA-based  
324 metamodel from coupled patterns captured from small number of ensembles of the joint  
325 evolution of the parameter and data fields. Hence, the strategy accounts for the physics of the  
326 target system on two fronts, the physics of the parameter and data acquisition systems. We  
327 conclude that incorporating the physics of the target process improves estimation and produces

328 physically realistic target plumes without excessive smoothing in contrast to results obtained  
329 from the conventional smoothness-constrained inversion. We found an excellent MCA-based  
330 proxy-approximations of the full-physics forward simulated data, with the potential to reduce  
331 CPU-time of Bayesian inverse procedures by over 99%. The MCA-based metamodel presents a  
332 promising general framework to speed-up the computational efforts of hydrogeological and  
333 geophysical applications that necessitate repeated computations of the full-physics of the forward  
334 problem, such as high-dimensional Bayesian inversion and sensitivity analysis problems.

335

### 336 **Acknowledgements.**

337 The data and code required to reproduce the results are available from the first author upon  
338 request.

339

### 340 **References**

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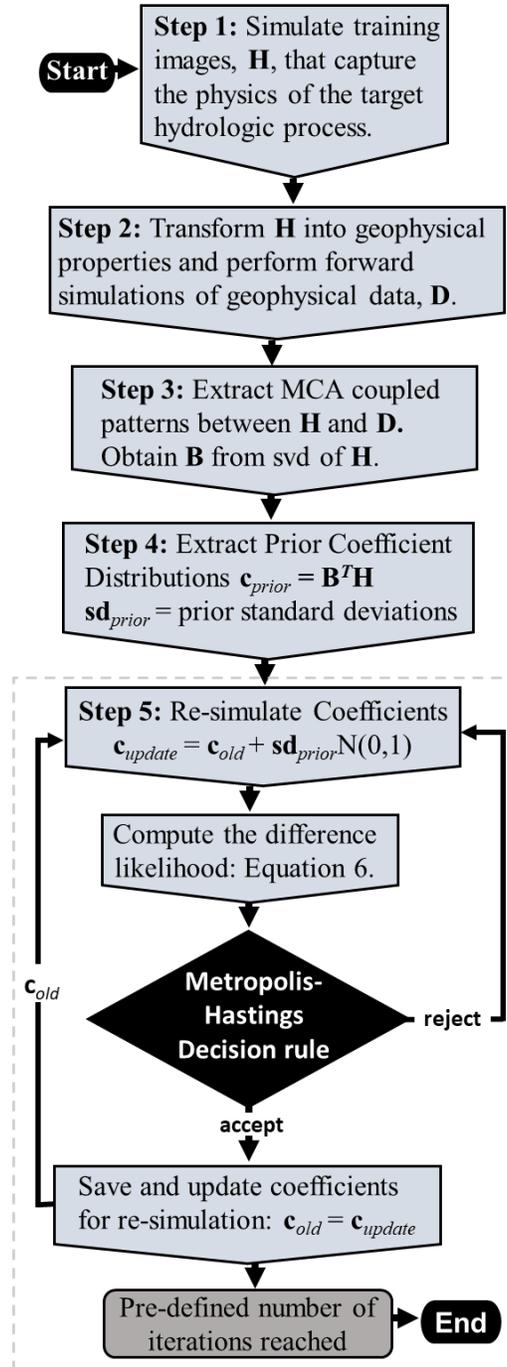
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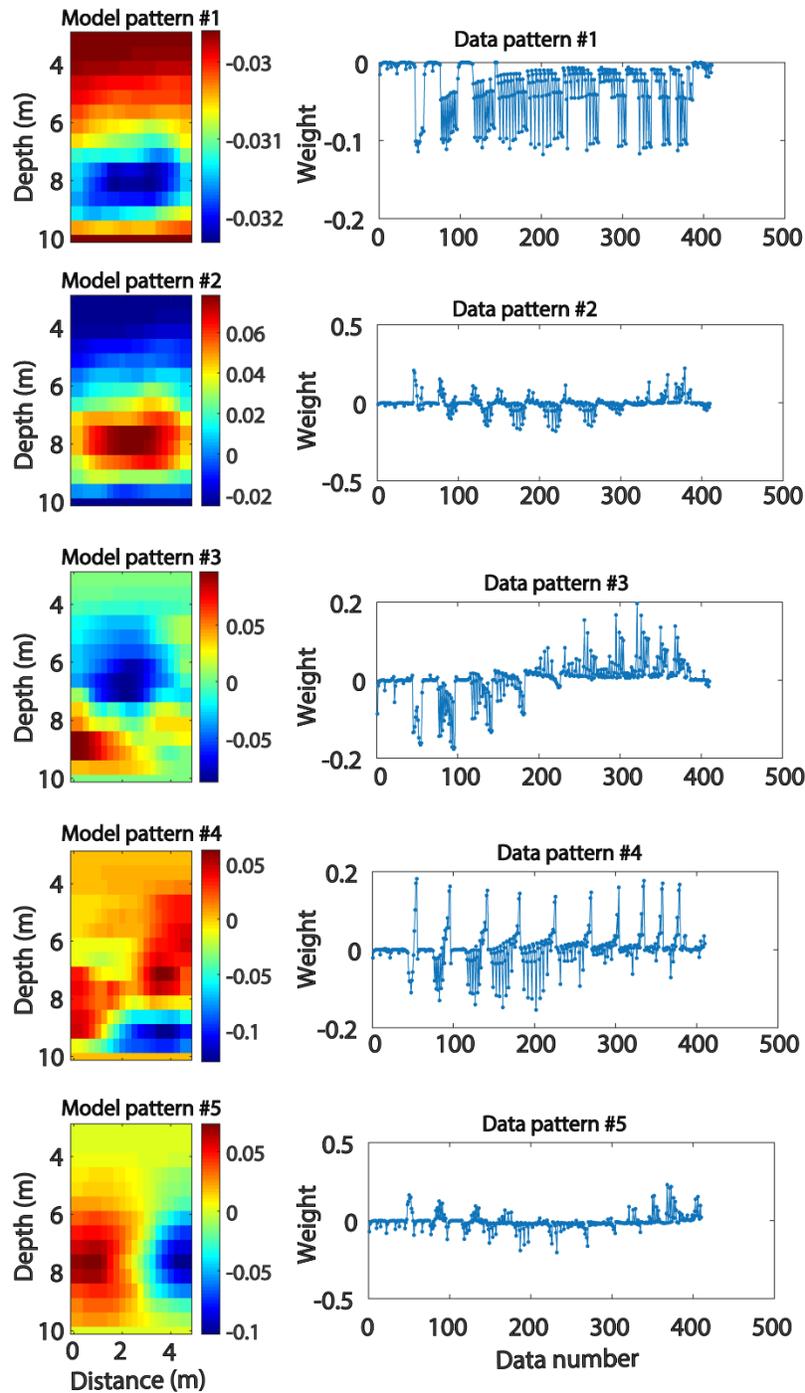
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425 Figure 1: Flowchart for posterior sampling of the difference maximum covariance analysis

426 prediction-focused approach (DMCA-PFA).

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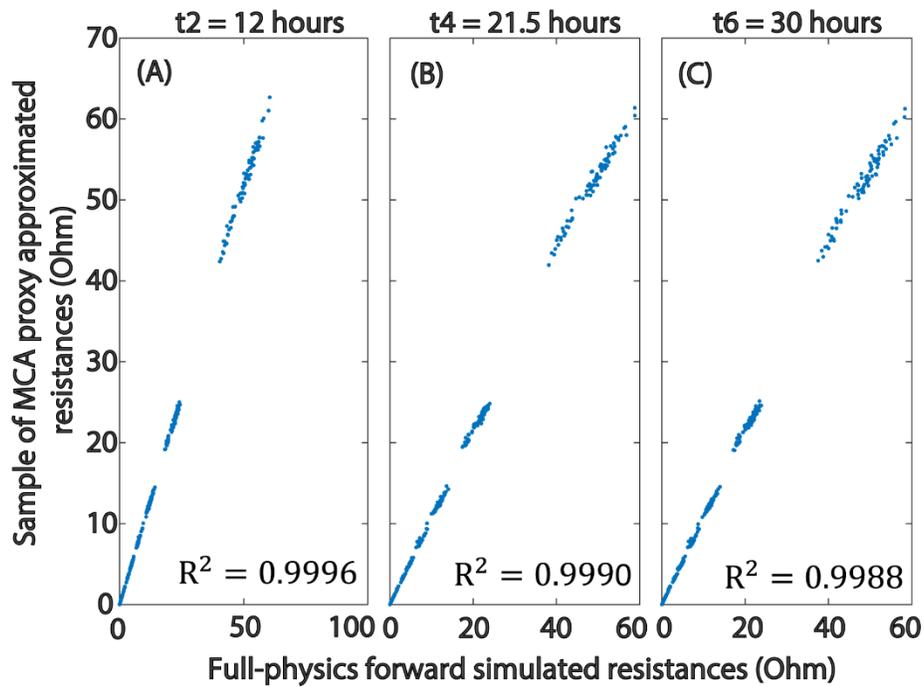


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429 Figure 2: First 5 dominant maximum covariance analysis (MCA) coupled patterns between the  
 430 hydrological parameter ( $\log(\text{temperature})$ ; column 1) and geophysical data (resistivity; column  
 431 2) fields constructed from training images of 3000 mutual observations between the two fields.

432 The rows represent corresponding coupled patterns.

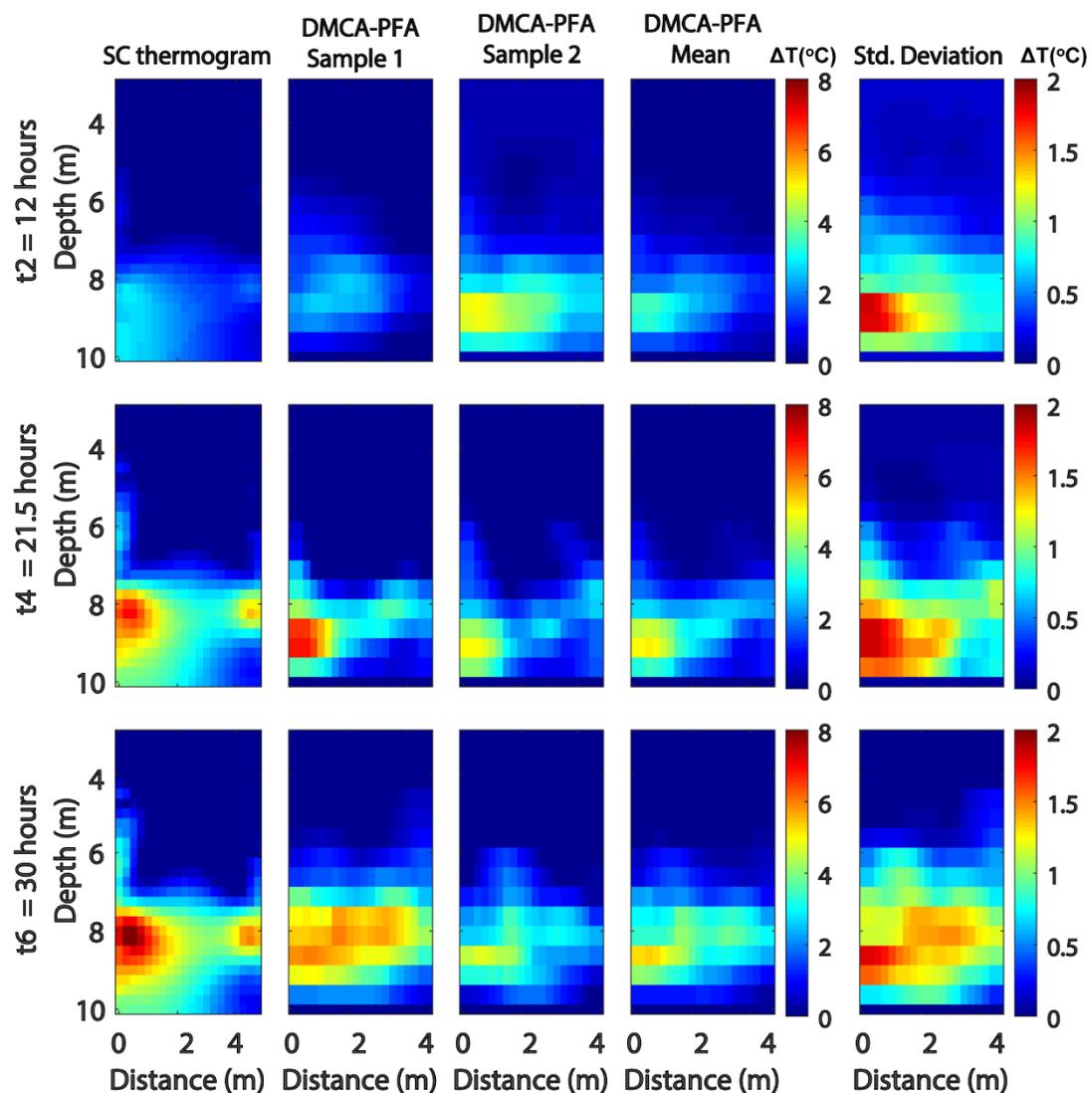
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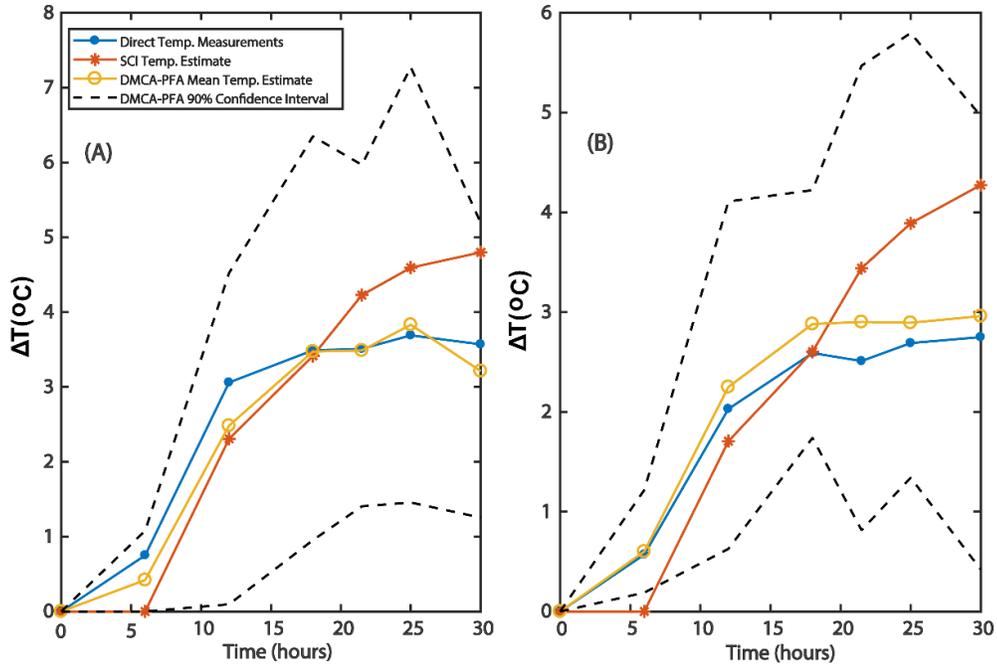
435 Figure 3: Scatter plots of high-fidelity resistivity forward simulated resistances vs sample of  
 436 maximum covariance analysis (MCA) approximated resistances obtained from smoothness-  
 437 constrained resistivity tomograms for time-step data at: (A) t2 (12 hours), (B) t4 (21.5 hours),  
 438 and (C) t6 (30 hours). The coefficients of determination ( $R^2$ ) indicate almost a perfect one-to-one  
 439 MCA proxy-approximation of the high-fidelity forward simulated resistances.

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444 Figure 4: Difference thermograms recovered directly from the ERT measurements at three  
445 different time steps: (row 1) 12h, (row 2) 21.5h, and (row 3) 30h. Column 1 shows thermograms  
446 from the classical smoothness-constrained (SC) inversion, columns 2, 3, 4, and 5 show,  
447 respectively, two realizations, posterior mean and standard deviations estimated from the  
448 difference maximum covariance analysis prediction-focused approach (DMCA-PFA).  
449 Piezometers pz14 and pz15 are, respectively, located at (1.125 m, 9 m) and (2.25 m, 8.5 m).



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451 Figure 5: Validation of estimated temperature break-through curves at two validation locations:  
 452 (A) pz14 and (B) pz15. (Blue lines) direct temperature measurements, and estimated temperature  
 453 break-through curves from the: (orange lines) classical smoothness-constrained inversion (SCI),  
 454 (yellow lines) posterior mean of the difference maximum covariance analysis prediction-focused  
 455 approach (DMCA-PFA) estimates. The two black dashed lines define the 90% confidence  
 456 interval of the DMCA-PFA predictions.

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