

**Solute concentration at a well in non-Gaussian aquifers under constant and time-varying
pumping schedule**

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Abstract

Our study is keyed to the analysis of the interplay between engineering factors (i.e., transient pumping rates versus less realistic but commonly analyzed uniform extraction rates) and the heterogeneous structure of the aquifer (as expressed by the probability distribution characterizing transmissivity) on contaminant transport. We explore the joint influence of diverse (a) groundwater pumping schedules (constant and variable in time) and (b) representations of the stochastic heterogeneous transmissivity (T) field on temporal histories of solute concentrations observed at an extraction well. The stochastic nature of T is rendered by modeling its natural logarithm, $Y = \ln T$, through a typical Gaussian representation and the recently introduced Generalized sub-Gaussian (GSG) model. The latter has the unique property to embed scale-dependent non-Gaussian features of the main statistics of Y and its (spatial) increments, which have been documented in a variety of studies. We rely on numerical Monte Carlo simulations and compute the temporal evolution at the well of low order moments of the solute concentration (C), as well as statistics of the peak concentration (C_p), identified as the environmental performance metric of interest in this study. We show that the pumping schedule strongly affects the pattern of the temporal evolution of the first two statistical moments of C , regardless the nature (Gaussian or non-Gaussian) of the underlying Y field, whereas the latter quantitatively influences their magnitude. Our results show that uncertainty associated with C and C_p estimates is larger when operating under a transient extraction scheme than under the action of a uniform withdrawal schedule. The probability density function (PDF) of C_p displays a long positive tail in the presence of time-varying pumping schedule. All these aspects are magnified in the presence of non-Gaussian Y fields. Additionally, the PDF of C_p displays a bimodal shape for all types of pumping schemes analyzed, independent of the type of heterogeneity considered.

1 **Abstract**

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24 **1. Introduction**

25 Probabilistic characterizations of subsurface contaminant transport within well fields under
26 practical operational conditions are cornerstones of modern groundwater management and risk
27 analysis best practices. Modeling set-up and results rely on an appropriate assessment of multiple
28 factors, including the spatial variability of hydrogeological variables and the adopted engineering
29 controls (e.g., groundwater pumping and/or injection operations). In this study, we aim at
30 exploring the feedback between transient versus uniform pumping schedules and Gaussian or non-
31 Gaussian nature of the heterogeneous transmissivity (T) field in influencing contaminant
32 concentration and its uncertainty at extraction wells. Therefore, our work analyzes the combined
33 effects of (a) structural heterogeneity of properties characterizing geological media and (b)
34 planned sequences of pumping cycles on solute concentrations recovered at pumping wells,
35 including an appraisal of the corresponding uncertainties.

36 A sequence of predefined pumping intervals is typically scheduled by water management
37 agencies to achieve a trade-off between maximization of the benefits to anthropogenic activities
38 and minimization of the environmental footprint of the groundwater withdrawal process.
39 Nonetheless, most studies focusing on probabilistic analyses of subsurface contaminant transport
40 within well fields are limited to scenarios associated with constant extraction practices. For
41 example, a number of studies (e.g., *Varljen and Shafer, 1991; Franzetti and Guadagnini, 1996;*
42 *Cole and Silliman, 1997; Vassolo et al., 1998; Guadagnini and Franzetti, 1999; Riva et al., 1999;*
43 *van Leeuwen et al., 2000; Feyen et al., 2001*) employ numerical Monte Carlo simulations to
44 quantify the uncertainty in the extension of well protection areas within randomly heterogeneous
45 aquifers, under steady-state background groundwater flow and in the presence of a single or
46 multiple wells operating at a constant rate. Additional examples of studies that consider the way

47 solute transport is driven by one or more wells pumping at a constant extraction/injection rate
48 include *Indelman and Dagan* (1999), *Riva et al.* (2006), *Siirila and Maxwell* (2012), *de Barros et*
49 *al.* (2013b), *Pedretti and Fiori* (2013), *Pedretti et al.* (2013; 2014).

50 Despite its importance, the impact of transient pumping on solute transport has received
51 much less attention (e.g., *Chang et al.*, 1992; *Vesselinov*, 2007; *Chen et al.*, 2012; *Leray et al.*,
52 2014). *Libera et al.* (2017) systematically investigate the effects of scheduling of pumping
53 operations (i.e., considering transient vs. constant in time pumping) on contaminant solute
54 breakthrough curves (BTCs) detected at the pumping well in a spatially heterogeneous multi-
55 Gaussian log-conductivity field. These authors show that a transient pumping strategy can
56 markedly affect the temporal pattern of BTCs. The results of this study elucidate the importance
57 of the pumping sequence on uncertainty quantification of solute transport, risk analysis and
58 contaminated site management. Transient flow effects on the delineation of wellhead protection
59 areas (WHPA) or capture zones have been considered in a series of works. For instance,
60 *Ramanarayanan et al.* (1995) highlight the importance of considering seasonal variations in
61 pumping operations for WHPA delineation. *Reilly and Pullock* (1996) observe that transient flow
62 conditions should be considered to properly characterize transport of solutes released near the
63 boundary of the well. *Festger and Walter* (2002) and *Jacobson et al.* (2002) evaluate the effects
64 on capture zones of temporal variations in the direction of the hydraulic gradient. *Jacobson et al.*
65 (2002) illustrate how the uncertainty in the magnitude and direction of the mean regional flow
66 influences the extent of time-dependent capture zones. *Neupauer et al.* (2014) study chaotic
67 advection of a solute in an aquifer where a transient flow field is induced by injection and
68 extraction sequences (see also *Piscopo et al.*, 2016).

69 In addition to pumping activities, the ubiquitous heterogeneity of hydraulic conductivity, K ,
70 or transmissivity T , is known to affect solute transport (e.g., *Dagan and Neuman*, 1997). High
71 costs associated with site characterization contribute to hamper exhaustive reproductions of K -
72 fields. This contributes to uncertainty associated with the quantitative description of transport
73 scenarios. A common procedure adopted in stochastic hydrogeology is to assume a multivariate
74 Gaussian distribution for the spatial field of log-conductivity, $Y = \ln K$. Spatial variability of
75 hydrogeological attributes is, however, known to be more complex than described by a Gaussian
76 model (e.g., *Gómez-Hernández and Wen*, 1998; *Wen and Gómez-Hernández*, 1998; *Willman et al.*
77 *2008*; *Fu and Gómez-Hernández*, 2009; *Mariethoz et al.*, 2010; *Haslauer et al.*, 2012; *Hu et al.*,
78 *2013*; *Xu and Gómez-Hernández*, 2015). In this context, high-resolution data analysis performed
79 at the Macrodispersion Experiment (MADE) site, at the Columbus Air Force Base (Mississippi,
80 USA), indicate that highly heterogeneous aquifers could be characterized in terms of non-Gaussian
81 Y fields (*Meerschaert et al.*, 2013). *Fogg et al.* (1998) study alluvial heterogeneity in the Livermore
82 Valley (California, USA) and question the ability of the multi-Gaussian assumption for Y to render
83 an adequate description of the investigated area. *Rubin and Journal* (1991) point out that multi-
84 Gaussian models can potentially fail in representing connected paths of extreme permeability
85 values which might take place in the subsurface. This is also observed in other studies (e.g., *Journal*
86 *and Deutsch*, 1993; *Sánchez-Vila et al.*, 1996; *Renard and Allard*, 2013) and the influence of such
87 features on contaminant transport, risk assessment and groundwater remediation strategies has
88 been highlighted in several works (e.g., *Silliman and Wright*, 1988; *Journal and Alabert*, 1989; *de*
89 *Barros et al.*, 2013a; *de Barros et al.*, 2016 and references therein). Methods to generate synthetic
90 random fields that reflect aspects of hydrogeologic structure and/or architecture, some of which

91 may render such fields non-Gaussian, have been proposed (e.g., *Falivene et al.* 2006 and references
92 therein).

93 A critical element which is emerging from a variety of studies is that the assumption of
94 Gaussianity for Y is not consistent with features displayed by the sample probability distribution
95 (and main statistical moments) of increments $\Delta Y(\mathbf{s}) = Y(\mathbf{x}) - Y(\mathbf{y})$ between two vector locations
96 \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} ($\mathbf{s} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}$, denoting separation scale or lag). A common manifestation of this
97 phenomenon is that while frequency distributions of Y often exhibit mild peaks and light tails,
98 those of increments $\Delta Y(\mathbf{s})$ are typically symmetric with peaks that grow sharper, and tails that
99 become heavier, as $s = \|\mathbf{s}\|$ decreases (e.g., *Liu and Molz*, 1997; *Painter*, 1996; *Meerschaert et*
100 *al.*, 2004; *Riva et al.*, 2013a,b). Hydrogeologic variables that have been shown to exhibit such
101 behaviors include log-permeabilities of porous and fractured geologic media (*Painter*, 1996; *Liu*
102 *and Molz*, 1997; *Siena et al.*, 2012; *Riva et al.*, 2013a,b), neutron porosities in deep boreholes
103 (*Guadagnini et al.*, 2015), and soil composition data and hydraulic parameter estimates
104 (*Guadagnini et al.*, 2013, 2014) in a deep vadose zone. Manifestations of similar statistical scaling
105 of a variety of Earth, environmental, ecological, biological, physical, astrophysical, and financial
106 variables are reported, among others, by *Neuman et al.* (2013). As stated above, these features are
107 clearly non compatible with a description of Y which is based on a Gaussian distribution model.
108 *Painter* (1996) proposes to adopt Lévy-stable distributions to characterize permeability
109 heterogeneity. *Strebelle* (2002) proposes an algorithm that utilizes multiple-point statistics inferred
110 from training images to model conductivity fields. *Linde et al.* (2015) tackle the same problem
111 through the use of training images based on hydrogeological facies mapping of nearby outcrops.
112 *Haslauer et al.* (2012) employ non-Gaussian copula-based K models to study solute
113 macrodispersion. A statistical framework that captures the disparate, scale-dependent distributions

114 of Y and ΔY in a unified and consistent manner is offered by relying on the Generalized sub-
115 Gaussian (GSG) model introduced by *Riva et al. (2015a,b)*. In this context, *Riva et al. (2017)*
116 explore analytically lead-order effects that non-Gaussian heterogeneity described by the GSG
117 model has on the stochastic description of flow and transport under mean uniform steady-state
118 flow in an unbounded, two-dimensional domain.

119 In light of the above, it is relevant to ask the following question: what is the feedback
120 between transient pumping operations and the non-Gaussian nature of Y in influencing solute
121 concentration and its uncertainty at the extraction well? Key research and operational questions
122 driving our study are the following: how important are non-Gaussian conductivity features of the
123 kind revealed when considering consistency between distributions of Y and its increments in
124 transport when pumping is in operation? Does the pumping scheme overshadow the significance
125 of non-Gaussian Y fields on statistics of solute concentration? Through a suite of computational
126 studies, this work also enables to analyze the relative impact of the conductivity structure (i.e.,
127 Gaussian vs. non-Gaussian) on the solute concentration observed at the operating well in the
128 presence of constant and time-varying pumping rates.

129

130 **2. Problem Formulation**

131 We consider a fully saturated two-dimensional (2D) confined porous formation identified
132 by a Cartesian coordinate system, with vector location indicated by $\mathbf{x} = (x, y)$. A uniform-in-the-
133 mean base flow q_0 takes place along the x -direction, and the transmissivity field, T , is spatially
134 heterogeneous. The porous formation porosity and storativity, respectively denoted as ϕ and S , are
135 considered to be constant. A pumping well is operating with an extraction rate $Q_w(t)$, with t

136 indicating time, at location $\mathbf{x}_w = (x_w, y_w)$. Figure 1 illustrates a sketch of the setting analyzed.

137 Flow within the hydrogeological system is governed by:

$$S \frac{\partial h(\mathbf{x}, t)}{\partial t} = \nabla \cdot [T(\mathbf{x}) \nabla h(\mathbf{x}, t)] + Q_w(t) \delta(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_w), \quad (1)$$

138

139 where h denotes hydraulic head and δ represents the Dirac delta function. West (left) and east
140 (right) boundaries of the porous formation (see Figure 1) are characterized by fixed hydraulic head
141 values and no-flow boundary conditions are prescribed on the north and south boundaries of the
142 domain.

143 A hazardous non-reactive solute is instantaneously released at time t_0 within an area A_0
144 (see Figure 1) with constant concentration c_0 . The spatio-temporal evolution of the solute plume
145 is assumed to be governed by the advection-dispersion equation:

$$\frac{\partial C(\mathbf{x}, t)}{\partial t} - \nabla \cdot [\mathbf{D} \nabla C(\mathbf{x}, t) - \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}, t) C(\mathbf{x}, t)] = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$C(\mathbf{x}, t_0) = c_0 \text{ for } \mathbf{x} \in A_0,$$

146 where C indicates solute concentration and \mathbf{v} is the Darcy-scale velocity (i.e., $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{q}/\phi$, \mathbf{q}
147 indicating specific discharge). Local-scale dispersion is given by the tensor \mathbf{D} , with components
148 D_x and D_y , respectively along the x and y -direction (Figure 1). Note that Q_w in (1) is negative if
149 extraction occurs and positive in case of injection. In our analysis, the prescribed head and flow
150 boundary conditions are located sufficiently far away from the solute transport area to avoid
151 boundary effects (*Rubin and Dagan, 1989*).

152 In the following, we investigate the way concentration breakthrough curves (BTCs) are
153 affected by constant and transient pumping conditions. This analysis is carried out for Gaussian
154 and/or non-Gaussian spatially random log-transmissivity fields as described in Section 3.

155 3. Methodology

156 3.1 Domain configuration and numerical implementation

157 We solve (1) and (2) within a 2D system of size of $\Omega = L_{sx} \times L_{sy}$, where $L_{sx} = 170 \text{ m}$,
158 $L_{sy} = 150 \text{ m}$ (see Figure 1). Values of the main parameters adopted in this study are listed in
159 Table 1. The values listed in Table 1 were selected for the purpose of illustration, all computational
160 results being presented in dimensionless form. In agreement with the main results of previous
161 works (*Leube et al.*, 2013; *Moslehi et al.*, 2015), the domain is discretized by a uniform grid formed
162 of square elements of size $\Delta x = \Delta y = 1/8 I$, with I being the characteristic integral scale of the
163 random log-transmissivity, $Y = \ln T$, field. Details of the models adopted to describe the random
164 nature of Y are provided in Section 3.2. The solute is instantaneously released over an aerial source
165 zone A_0 of size $L_{sx} \times L_{sy}$ (see Figure 1). The barycenter of A_0 is located at distance L (measured
166 along the x -direction) from an operating pumping well.

167 Following the work of *Libera et al.* (2017), which was based on an analysis of pumping
168 strategies employed by groundwater management to satisfy diverse societal needs (e.g., drinking
169 and irrigation), we adopt the pumping operation shown in Figure 2. A constant in time extraction
170 strategy, here denoted by S_I , is depicted in Figure 2a. Figure 2b depicts the pattern of a withdrawal
171 strategy that varies in time according to a predefined sequence, indicated by S_{II} . Note that, as
172 explained in Section 1, most available studies refer to constant in time pumping scenarios that may
173 not accurately represent realistic operations. The selected strategies (i.e., S_I and S_{II}) are
174 characterized by the extraction of the same volume of groundwater across the simulation time.

175 For a given Y field, we employ the well-tested codes MODFLOW (*Harbaugh*, 2005) and
176 MT3DMS (*Zheng and Wang*, 1999), respectively to solve the transient groundwater flow equation
177 (1) and the advection-dispersion equation (2). Note that the groundwater flow equation (1) and the

178 numerical model (i.e., MODFLOW) adopted do not consider possible additional effects (e.g., non-
179 Darcian flow, skin effects, or storage) at the well. Solute transport is computed through the Method
180 of Characteristics. To quantify uncertainty in the concentration C at the well, we employ a
181 numerical Monte Carlo (MC) framework. Our analysis is based on a set of 10,000 MC simulations
182 for each of the investigated scenarios. The choice of the size of the MC sample is based on a
183 statistical convergence analysis (details not shown).

184

185 *3.2 Random Y Model*

186 As mentioned in Section 1, a variety of works emphasize the importance of adopting non-
187 Gaussian Y fields in solute transport studies. In our analysis, we employ the GSG model introduced
188 by *Riva et al. (2015a,b)* to generate multiple realizations of Y . As stated in the Introduction, this
189 model has the key ability to embed in a unique theoretical framework the scale-dependent non-
190 Gaussian features of the main statistics of Y and its increments taken at diverse lags, which have
191 been documented in a variety of studies. The GSG model is here only briefly summarized for the
192 sake of completeness, additional details being provided by *Riva et al. (2015a,b)*.

193 We write zero-mean random fluctuations, $Y'(\mathbf{x}) = Y(\mathbf{x}) - \langle Y \rangle$, as

$$Y'(\mathbf{x}) = U(\mathbf{x})G(\mathbf{x}), \quad (3)$$

194 where $\langle \rangle$ denotes ensemble mean (expectation), $G(\mathbf{x})$ is a single- or multi-scale Gaussian
195 random field and $U(\mathbf{x})$ is a non-negative subordinator independent of $G(\mathbf{x})$. The subordinator U
196 consists of statistically independent identically distributed (iid) non-negative random values at all
197 points \mathbf{x} . We consider the subordinator U to be log-normally distributed (other choices being
198 possible) according to $U \equiv \mathcal{LN}[0, (2 - \alpha)^2]$, where $\alpha < 2$. Note that in this case the PDF of Y' in

199 (3) coincides with the classical normal-lognormal model (see, e.g., *Guadagnini et al.*, 2015 and
 200 references therein).

201 To investigate the effects of Gaussian versus non-Gaussian Y fields on solute transport we
 202 consider two forms of Y : sub-Gaussian (see (3)), Y_{SG} , and Gaussian, Y_G . The latter is obtained from
 203 the former when $\alpha \rightarrow 2$. For the purpose of comparison, we consider these two forms of the Y field
 204 to have equal mean values, i.e. $\langle Y \rangle = \langle Y_{SG} \rangle = \langle Y_G \rangle = 0$, variances $\sigma_Y^2 = \sigma_{Y_{SG}}^2 = \sigma_{Y_G}^2$ and integral
 205 scales $I = I_{Y_{SG}} = I_{Y_G}$. The Gaussian random function, $G(\mathbf{x})$, in (3) constitutes a truncated
 206 fractional Brownian motion (tfBm) with truncated power variogram (*Di Federico and Neuman*,
 207 1997):

$$\gamma_G^2(s) = \gamma^2(s; \lambda_u) - \gamma^2(s; \lambda_l), \quad (4)$$

208 where

$$\gamma^2(s, \lambda_m) = \frac{\mathcal{A}\lambda_m^{2H}}{2H} \left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{s}{\lambda_m}\right) + \left(\frac{s}{\lambda_m}\right)^{2H} \Gamma\left(1 - 2H, \frac{s}{\lambda_m}\right) \right], \quad m = l, u. \quad (5)$$

209 Quantities λ_u and λ_l in equations (4)-(5) are the lower and upper cutoff scales of the
 210 variogram model, respectively proportional to the length scales of data support and domain size;
 211 H is the Hurst coefficient and \mathcal{A} is a constant. This choice of variogram model is consistent with
 212 documented scaling phenomena, including power-law scaling of sample structure functions
 213 (including the variogram of Y) in midranges of lags and nonlinear scaling of power-law exponent
 214 with order of sample structure function (e.g., *Guadagnini et al.*, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015; *Panzeri*
 215 *et al.*, 2016; *Riva et al.*, 2013a, 2013b; *Siena et al.*, 2012; *Siena et al.* 2014). As such, equation (4)
 216 allows bridging across scales by analyzing jointly data characterized by diverse
 217 support/measurement scales across windows (observation domains) of diverse size at a site
 218 (*Neuman et al.*, 2008).

219 We simulate three diverse collections (ensembles) of non-Gaussian Y_{SG} fields (each
220 constituted by 10,000 realizations) distinguished by three values of the parameter α ($= 1.2, 1.5,$
221 1.8 , representing strong to relatively mild departure from a Gaussian behavior) and one set of
222 Gaussian Y_G fields (also with 10,000 realizations). Input parameters used to generate Y_G and Y_{SG}
223 fields are listed in Table 2 (input values employed to generate Y_G are listed in the column labeled
224 $\alpha \rightarrow 2$). Each Gaussian and non-Gaussian collection/ensemble of log-transmissivity realizations
225 is coupled with both pumping strategies adopted (S_I and S_{II} , see Figure 2) within the numerical
226 MC framework. Therefore, we perform a total number of 80,000 MC simulations.

227 **4. Results and discussion**

228 This section is structured as follows: we start by presenting the temporal evolution of the low order
229 statistics (mean and variance) of the contaminant concentration, C , recovered at an observation
230 well placed, for simplicity, at the same location of the pumping well. Then, we focus on the analysis
231 of the peak concentration, C_p , observed at the well. The latter represents an important quantity for
232 the management and remediation of polluted areas and can be used as proxy for dilution (*Fiori,*
233 *2001*). All analyses are performed for the two pumping strategies, namely S_I (constant in time)
234 and S_{II} (variable in time), illustrated in Figure 2. Diverse values of the parameter α are considered
235 (see Section 3.2) for each pumping scenario. We present all results in dimensionless form. The
236 concentration is normalized by C^* , which represents a contaminant concentration threshold, as
237 established, for instance, by environmental protection agencies (e.g., EPA). Here we set, without
238 loss of generality to our methodological approach, $C^* = 10 \text{ g/m}^3$. The selected value of the
239 critical concentration is in line with the EPA's Maximum Contaminant Level (MCL) for nitrate
240 (see *US EPA, 2009*), and is employed for the purpose of illustration in our study.

241 Time is normalized by I/v_0 , with $v_0 = q_0/\varphi$, $q_0 = T_G J$ and $T_G = \exp(\langle Y \rangle)$. The pumping
242 rate Q_w is normalized by Q_0 , where $Q_0 = q_0 L_y$ represents the uniform-in-the-average water flow
243 discharge. The longitudinal Péclet number, $P_e = I v_0 / D_x$, is set to 800 (see Table 1). Parameter
244 values employed in this synthetic analysis allow illustrating the interplay between pumping well
245 operations and natural heterogeneity of the porous formation.

246 4.1 Temporal evolution of low-order moments of solute concentration at the well

247 Figure 3 depicts the temporal Monte Carlo based pattern of the dimensionless mean of the
248 solute concentration, $\langle C \rangle / C^*$, observed at the well location. Results depicted in Figure 3a, b
249 respectively refer to the pumping scheme S_I (constant withdrawal) and S_{II} (time-dependent
250 withdrawal). Each mean concentration BTC presented in Figures 3a and 3b refers to a given value
251 of α . Regardless the value of α , the mean concentration BTC displays a unimodal behavior under
252 conditions associated with S_I and a multimodal pattern when the scheme S_{II} is active. The
253 multimodal pattern observed in Figure 3b descends from the observation that a time-dependent
254 pumping rate (S_{II}) induces temporal oscillations of the mean contaminant BTC. The impact of
255 variable pumping rate on concentration statistics was analyzed by *Libera et al. (2017)* for Gaussian
256 Y fields. Figure 3b suggests that solute dilution is induced during the time periods when pumping
257 is active. Increased pumping rates would lead to an enlargement of the catchment region (e.g.,
258 *Bear, 1979*). Hence, an increased volume of clean water would be captured (on average) at the
259 well together with the solute plume. Therefore, the mean concentration decreases within these
260 intervals because of the mixing of polluted water with clean water. We also note that the largest
261 values of $\langle C \rangle$ occur within the strongly non-Gaussian Y field characterized by $\alpha = 1.2$ for both
262 scenarios S_I and S_{II} . As shown in Figure 3, the maximum value of $\langle C \rangle$ decreases as α increases
263 towards 2, i.e. as the Y field tends to be Gaussian. We note that the differences in $\langle C \rangle$ between the

264 Gaussian case ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$) and the GSG setting characterized by $\alpha = 1.8$ are negligible. Based on the
265 results of Figure 3, we conclude that the pumping regime (S_I or S_{II}) controls the pattern of the
266 temporal evolution of the mean contaminant BTC, regardless of the value of α . The general shape
267 of the temporal evolution of $\langle C \rangle$ is, in fact, very similar for all values of α considered, as observed
268 in both Figures 3a and 3b.

269 Figures 4a and 4b depict the dimensionless variance of the solute concentration,
270 $Var[C]/C^{*2}$, versus dimensionless time for all values of α analyzed, respectively for S_I and S_{II} .
271 The pumping strategy clearly controls the general pattern of the temporal evolution of $Var[C]$,
272 regardless the value of α , i.e., a unimodal pattern of $Var[C]$ is identified for constant pumping
273 (Figure 4a) while a multimodal behavior of $Var[C]$ is induced by temporal variability in the
274 pumping rate (Figure 4b). We note that $Var[C]$ in Figure 4b decreases when pumping is active,
275 indicating that the variability across the MC ensemble is smaller when the solute is attracted to the
276 well by the start of pumping. In this situation, the likelihood that the solute plume is captured by
277 the well increases and the variability of concentration values at the well decreases. We then observe
278 that $Var[C]$ increases approximately by an order of magnitude under regime S_{II} (compare Figure
279 4b and Figure 4a), these results being in line with the conclusions of *Libera et al. (2017)*. On these
280 bases, one can see that the choice of the pumping extraction operation (e.g., constant in time S_I , as
281 considered in most literature works, versus transient S_{II} , which is more realistic) has a key role on
282 quantification of the uncertainty associated with the concentration at the well. Amongst other
283 factors, this is also related to the observation that a constant pumping scheme always controls the
284 same portion of the flow field at all times. Otherwise, a transient pumping schedule enables to
285 extend the influence of the well to diverse portions of the heterogeneous system, depending on
286 time. As such, the effect of the aquifer heterogeneous structure plays an enhanced role under

287 pumping scenario S_{II} than in the presence of S_I , resulting in an overall increase of $Var[C]$ at the
288 well. We then observe that the increase of the concentration variance is magnified for the lowest
289 values of α , i.e., as the departure of the GSG fields from Gaussianity increases. We remark that
290 the differences in $Var[C]$ between the Gaussian case ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$) and the setting characterized by $\alpha =$
291 1.8 are negligible, similar to what we observed for $\langle C \rangle$.

292 In summary, the analysis of Figures 3 and 4 lead to the conclusion that the pumping scheme
293 selection (S_I or S_{II}) clearly influences the temporal pattern (unimodal or multimodal) of the
294 pollutant BTCs lead-order statistics (as expressed by mean and variance). The actual magnitude of
295 the first and second moment of C is controlled by both the pumping scheme and the structural
296 representation (Gaussian or non-Gaussian) of Y .

297

298 *4.2 Statistical analysis of the peak concentration*

299 Here we analyze key statistical features of the peak value of the solute concentration, C_p ,
300 observed at the well. This quantity is an important environmental performance metric (EPM) for
301 risk analysis (*de Barros et al.*, 2012) and, as previously stated, can also be used as a proxy for
302 dilution (*Fiori*, 2001).

303

304 *4.2.1 Outliers in the peak concentration distribution*

305 We present the box plots of C_p in Figure 5 for pumping operational setting S_I and for the
306 diverse values of α analyzed. Figure 6 depicts corresponding results for scenario S_{II} . We recall
307 that the thickness of the box plots corresponds to the lag between the first and third quartiles of the
308 probability distribution. Close inspection of Figures 5 and 6 evidences a considerable number of
309 outside values (or outliers), identified in red and corresponding to the observations that fall outside

310 the whiskers (represented by horizontal segments connected through dashed lines to the boxplots
311 of Figures 5 and 6) under the action of both extraction schemes. Note that the upper whisker
312 corresponds to the largest value observed given that the length of the dashed lines is 1.5 times the
313 interquartile range, the same criteria applies to the lower whisker. Comparing Figures 5 and 6
314 suggests that the range of C_p values is broadest when S_{II} is active. In this case the largest values
315 of normalized C_p are roughly three times larger than the corresponding extreme values of C_p
316 computed under scheme S_I . We also note that the number of such high values generally tends to
317 decrease as the nature of the underlying log-transmissivity field tends to Gaussian (i.e., increasing
318 α) for both pumping scenarios. This evidence suggests that the nature of the heterogeneous
319 structure of Y influences the distribution of C_p . These observations are consistent with the fact that
320 a non-Gaussian Y structure increases the likelihood of the occurrence of well-connected zones of
321 low and high conductivity (as manifested through high peaks of increment PDFs at short lags,
322 whose effects are increasingly pronounced with departure from the Gaussian behavior). This
323 specific feature is allowed to emerge in a stronger way in the presence of transient pumping than
324 for constant extraction as already noticed in section 4.1 for the mean and variance of C .

325

326

327 *4.2.2 Probability density function of the maximum concentration*

328 Figure 7 depicts the sample PDF, $p(C_p)$, of the peak concentration detected at the well for
329 pumping scenario S_I and all values of α investigated. For completeness, the sample cumulative
330 distribution function (CDF) of C_p , $P(C_p)$, is also depicted. Corresponding plots for scenario S_{II}
331 are included in Figure 8. The action of the transient pumping regime S_{II} contributes to distribute
332 the observed values of C_p across a wider range than that documented for S_I (compare Figures 7

333 and 8). As such, the PDF of C_p for S_{II} generally encompasses a broader range of values and is
334 characterized by longer positive tails than the PDF of C_p resulting from S_I . These observations are
335 consistent with the results depicted in the inset plots of Figures 5 and 6. The positive tails of the
336 PDFs are quantitatively affected by the parameter α . Non-Gaussian Y fields are characterized by
337 an increased probability of observing higher C_p at the well, when compared to Gaussian Y fields
338 ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$), thus yielding enhanced tailing for $p(C_p)$. This behavior is consistent with our earlier
339 observations according to which the GSG nature of the Y field leads to an increased likelihood that
340 solute can be conveyed through connected paths of high conductivity, thus yielding an increased
341 tailing in the PDFs of C_p (i.e., higher C_p values). Similar to what observed in Section 4.1, results
342 for the Gaussian Y field virtually coincide with those obtained for $\alpha = 1.8$. This result further
343 emphasizes the challenges of distinguishing between these types of fields (for relatively large
344 values of α) solely on the basis of system responses (e.g., in this cases, concentrations detected at
345 the well).

346 One can note a bimodal shape for $p(C_p)$ in both Figures 7 and 8. This feature can be
347 attributed to the observation that very low or no concentration signals are observed at the pumping
348 well (i.e., the solute plume does not hit the well) across some MC realizations, a significant portion
349 of the plume being captured in other MC realizations (e.g., *Bellin and Tonina, 2007*). Note that
350 while the observation that $p(C_p)$ tends to be bimodal in the presence of pumping wells is a
351 significant result, this bimodal pattern in the PDF can change in the presence of other factors,
352 including, e.g., increased travel distance between contaminant source and operating well and
353 change of Péclet number. While of definite interest, these analyses are outside the scope of our
354 current contribution.

355

356 4.2.3 Average of the maximum concentration

357 We quantify here the impact of the pumping operation schedule and of the Y field structure
358 on the average value of the peak concentration $\langle C_p \rangle$. We do so by computing the relative change
359 of $\langle C_p \rangle$ obtained across the collection of Y_{SG} MC realizations with respect to the corresponding
360 result associated with a Gaussian (Y_G) field as:

361

$$\eta = \left| \frac{\langle C_p(t; \alpha, S_i) \rangle - \langle C_p(t; \alpha \rightarrow 2, S_i) \rangle}{\langle C_p(t; \alpha \rightarrow 2, S_i) \rangle} \right|, \quad i = I, II \quad (6)$$

362

363 Figure 9 depicts η versus α for scenario S_I (light grey) and S_{II} (dark grey). These results
364 suggest that $\langle C_p \rangle$ is more sensitive to the value of α when the spatially heterogeneous flow field is
365 stressed according to scheme S_{II} than it does for S_I . As shown in Figure 9, the magnitude of η is
366 larger for scenario S_{II} (dark grey) and decreases as α increases, i.e. transitioning from a GSG to a
367 Gaussian Y field. The response of the system due to a Gaussian Y field ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$) is virtually
368 indistinguishable from that associated with values of $\alpha \geq 1.8$.

369

370 **5. Conclusions**

371 This study investigates the impact of the model employed to describe the random spatial
372 heterogeneity of the aquifer log-transmissivity field (Y) on the statistics of the solute concentration
373 (C) at a pumping well in the presence of two distinct pumping regimes. We consider a Gaussian
374 and a Generalized sub-Gaussian (GSG, see equation (3)) model to describe the randomly
375 heterogeneous Y field. In the following, we briefly summarize the key conclusions emerged from
376 the analysis.

377 The pumping scheme influences the shape of the temporal evolution of mean, $\langle C \rangle$, and
378 variance, $Var[C]$, of C whereas the choice of the Y structural representation, as quantified by the
379 value of α in this study, controls their magnitude. Transient pumping produces a multimodal
380 behavior (whereas constant pumping results in a unimodal pattern) of $\langle C \rangle$ and $Var[C]$. The
381 multimodal behavior of $\langle C \rangle$ is characterized by its lowest values taking place during stress periods
382 of water pumping, the decrease in $\langle C \rangle$ being due to contaminant dilution with fresh water. We also
383 observe that $Var[C]$ tends to decrease during pumping time intervals. This behavior is related to
384 the effect of the well operation which increases the likelihood that the plume is captured by
385 attracting water and hence results in a decreased variability of C at the well. Values of $Var[C]$ are
386 roughly one order of magnitude larger under transient pumping than in the presence of constant
387 extraction. As such, engineering control (as manifested through selected pumping schedules) plays
388 a marked role in the uncertainty associated with C .

389 The highest values of solute peak concentration, C_p , are prone to be observed at a well
390 operating according to a time-varying schedule. This feature is amplified in the presence of values
391 of α associated with an increased departure of the GSG Y field from a Gaussian behavior. The
392 PDF of C_p , $p(C_p)$, is characterized by a bimodal shape for all cases analyzed in this study.

393 Our analysis shows that statistical moments (and PDFs) of C and C_p obtained within a GSG
394 Y field identified by relatively large α values, i.e. $\alpha = 1.8$, and a Gaussian Y field are virtually
395 indistinguishable. This result is consistent with the recent findings of *Riva et al. (2017)*. These
396 authors explore analytically lead-order effects that non-Gaussian heterogeneity described by the
397 GSG model have on the stochastic description of flow and transport under uniform in the mean
398 flow in two-dimensional unbounded randomly heterogeneous media. Their results indicate that
399 differences between lead-order flow and transport moments associated with GSG and Gaussian

400 Y fields tend to diminish as α approaches 2, becoming virtually unnoticeable for $\alpha \geq 1.8$. Similar
401 to these authors, our results indicate the existence of a threshold value for α above which the effects
402 associated with the non-Gaussian nature of the heterogeneous conductivity structure are virtually
403 undetectable in the concentration BTCs recorded at the well. A value of $\alpha = 1.8$ can be considered
404 as a threshold above which the impact of the Y distribution (i.e. Gaussian vs non-Gaussian) is
405 shadowed when compared to the influence of the engineering control (i.e., groundwater pumping
406 rate) selected. Note that while these results appear to indicate that commonly employed Gaussian
407 models could reproduce key transport features even in the presence of non-Gaussian Y fields, they
408 also suggest that it would be difficult to differentiate between Gaussian and non-Gaussian Y fields
409 on the basis of such moments when α is close but not equal to 2. Such a distinction can be validly
410 drawn only by analyzing Y data and their increments jointly, as suggested by *Riva et al. (2015a)*.

411 The outcomes of our work associated with the feedback between engineering factors (i.e.,
412 transient versus uniform pumping rates) and efforts aimed at the characterization of aquifer
413 heterogeneous structure (through Gaussian or Sub-Gaussian models) on the behavior of
414 contaminant BTCs are of potential interest to direct technical and economical efforts towards an
415 optimal management of groundwater resources. For example, costs linked to an increase of the
416 well pumping rate could be justified by the production of water characterized by low contaminant
417 concentrations, which in turn leads to decreased water treatment costs. Our results also suggest
418 that pumping operations can control the temporal patterns of risk and might overshadow the impact
419 of the type of aquifer heterogeneity (as embedded in the functional format of the probability
420 density function characterizing hydraulic conductivity) on BTCs at pumping wells. In this
421 framework, there could be circumstances in which enhanced efforts should be allocated towards
422 an improved optimal planning of the pumping regime as opposed to a detailed characterization of

423 some features of the heterogeneous properties of an aquifer. Such allocation of resources is key to
424 reduce the uncertainty in risk metrics and is well aligned with goal-oriented site characterization
425 frameworks (*de Barros et al.*, 2012 and references therein). As a future research outlook, it would
426 be of interest to extend our analysis to investigate transport in realistic systems of increased level
427 of complexity that incorporate stochastic fluctuations for water demand.

428 Additionally, extending the findings of our work to three dimensional aquifers'
429 configurations in the presence of pumping wells operating with transient rates is focus of future
430 research. We believe that increasing the dimensionality of the system, i.e. from a 2D to a 3D
431 configuration, would enable to capture more realistic flow paths that would potentially enhance
432 solute mixing. As shown in *Dentz and de Barros (2013)*, the uncertainty of the overall solute
433 dispersive behavior and its self-averaging properties are affected by the dimensionality of the flow
434 field. The dilution enhancement induced by the additional degree of freedom within a three-
435 dimensional setting would yield a decrease of the solute concentration variability across Monte
436 Carlo realizations with an ensuing decrease of the associated variance. Varying the dimensionality
437 of the flow field (i.e., considering a three-dimensional system) might also affect the scaling
438 behavior of the contaminant BTCs observed at the operating well (e.g., *Pedretti et al.*, 2013, 2014)
439 due to increased connectivity of the permeability field (*Di Dato et al.*, 2017).

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Tables

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Symbol	Significance	Units	Values
L_{sx}, L_{sy}	Aquifer Size	m	170, 150
$\Delta x, \Delta y$	Grid size	m	1/8 I, 1/8 I
J	Mean head gradient	-	0.59%
φ	Porosity	-	0.2
α_x	Longitudinal dispersivity	m	0.01
α_y	Transversal dispersivity	m	0.0001
x_w, y_w	Location of pumping well	m	114.5, 74.5
Q_w	Constant well pumping rate	m ³ /d	0.3
Q_w	Variable well pumping rate	m ³ /d	0.8/0/0.4/0/0.8/0/0.4/0/0.8/0/0.4/0/0.8/0/0.4/0
V_w	Volume of pumped water	m ³	1440
C^*	Concentration threshold	g/m ³	10
P_e	Péclet number	-	800

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Table 1. Main parameters employed in the study.

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Symbol	Significance	Units	Values			
			$\alpha = 1.2$	$\alpha = 1.5$	$\alpha = 1.8$	$\alpha \rightarrow 2$
I	Integral scale of Y	m	8.00	8.00	8.00	8.00
σ_Y^2	Variance of Y	-	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
\mathcal{A}	Constant	-	5.87×10^{-2}	17.53×10^{-2}	31.85×10^{-2}	35.75×10^{-2}
H	Hurst coefficient	-	0.33	0.33	0.33	0.33
λ_u	Upper cutoff scale	m	34.58	22.67	17.98	17.20
λ_l	Lower cutoff scale	m	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

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Table 2. Parameters characterizing the transmissivity field.

Figures Captions

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Fig. 1. Sketch of the problem analyzed.

Fig. 2. Pumping strategies (a) constant flow rate S_I and (b) variable flow rate S_{II} .

Fig. 3. Temporal evolution of the normalized mean concentration $\langle C \rangle$ observed at the pumping well for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$ and for a Gaussian Y field ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$). Results for pumping strategy (a) S_I and (b) S_{II} .

Fig. 4. Temporal evolution of the normalized concentration variance $Var[C]$ observed at the pumping well for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$ and for a Gaussian Y field ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$). Results for pumping strategy (a) S_I and (b) S_{II} .

Fig. 5. Pumping strategy S_I : Box plots of C_p for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$ and for a Gaussian Y field ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$).

Fig. 6. Pumping strategy S_{II} : Box plots of C_p for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$ and for a Gaussian Y field ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$).

Fig. 7. Pumping strategy S_I : Peak concentration PDF $p(C_p)$ for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$ and for a Gaussian Y field ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$). See inset for peak concentration CDF $P(C_p)$.

706 **Fig. 8.** Pumping strategy S_{II} : Peak concentration PDF $p(C_p)$ for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$
707 and for a Gaussian Y field ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$). See inset for peak concentration CDF $P(C_p)$.

708

709 **Fig. 9.** Relative impact of non-Gaussianity on the mean peak concentration C_p measured
710 through η , see equation (6), for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$ and pumping strategy S_I (light
711 grey) and S_{II} (dark grey).

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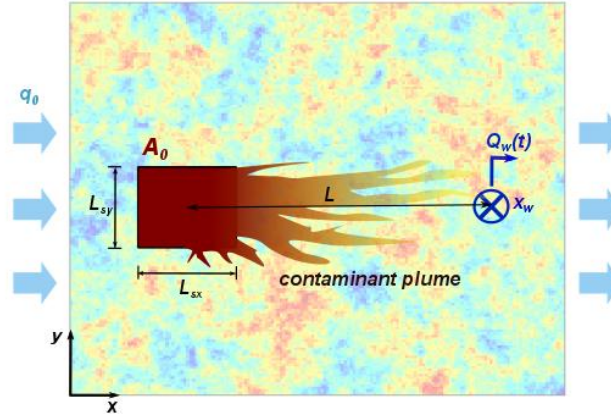
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Figures

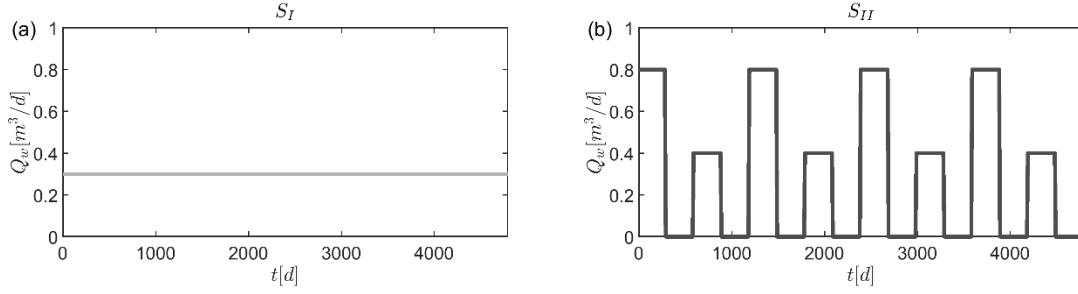


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718 **Fig. 1.** Sketch of the problem analyzed.

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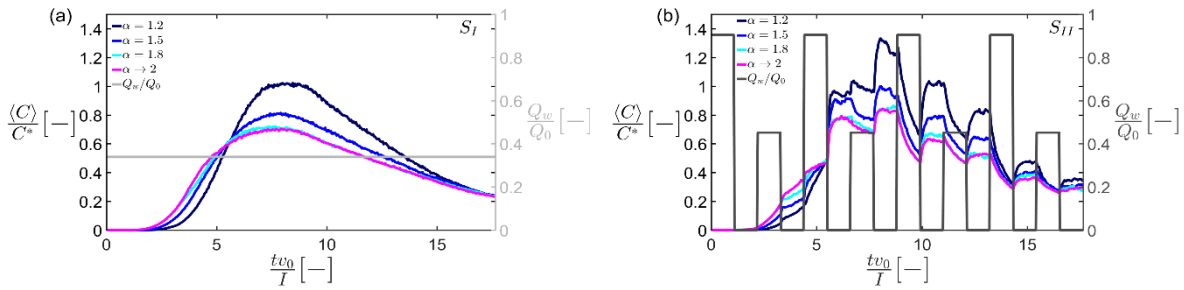
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Fig. 2. Pumping strategies (a) constant flow rate S_I and (b) variable flow rate S_{II} .

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Fig. 3. Temporal evolution of the normalized mean concentration $\langle C \rangle$ observed at the pumping

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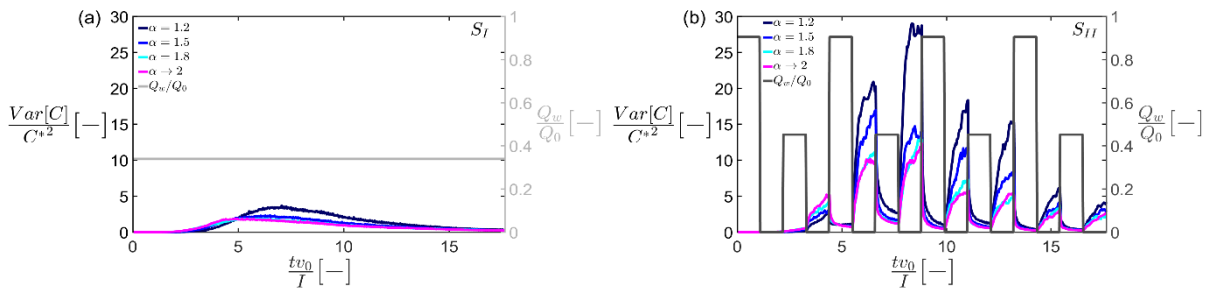
well for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$ and for a Gaussian Y field ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$). Results for pumping

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strategy (a) S_I and (b) S_{II} .

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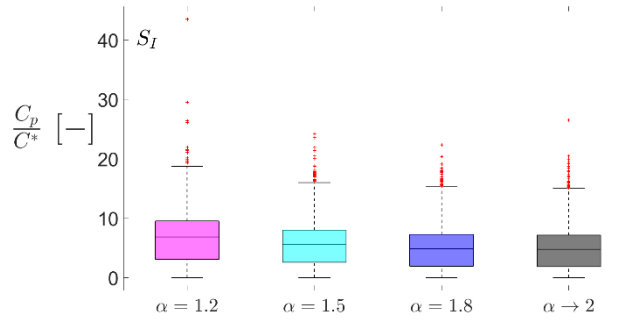
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pumping strategy (a) S_I and (b) S_{II} .



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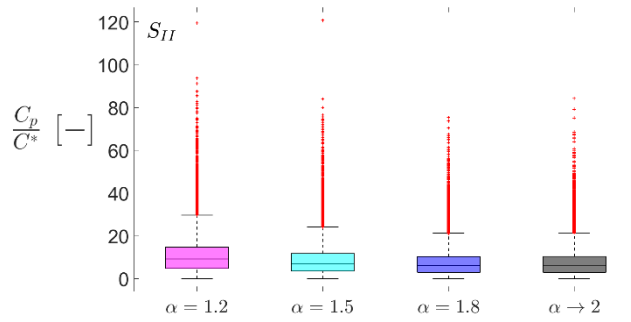
Fig. 5. Pumping strategy S_I : Box plots of C_p for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$ and for a

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Gaussian Y field ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$).

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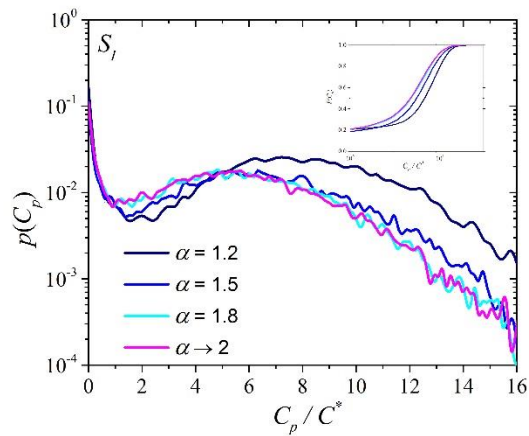
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Fig. 6. Pumping strategy S_{II} : Box plots of C_p for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$ and for a

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Gaussian Y field ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$).

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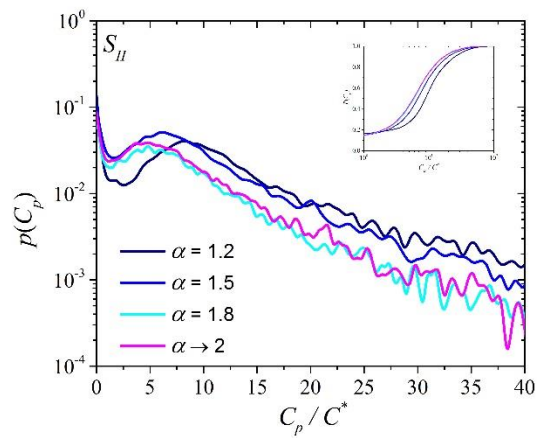


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745 **Fig. 7.** Pumping strategy S_I : Peak concentration PDF $p(C_p)$ for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$

746 and for a Gaussian Y field ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$). See inset for peak concentration CDF $P(C_p)$.

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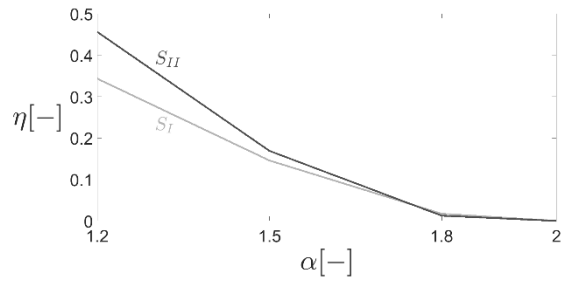


748

749 **Fig. 8.** Pumping strategy S_{II} : Peak concentration PDF $p(C_p)$ for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$

750 and for a Gaussian Y field ($\alpha \rightarrow 2$). See inset for peak concentration CDF $P(C_p)$.

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Fig. 9. Relative impact of non-Gaussianity on the mean peak concentration C_p measured through η , see equation (6), for three values of $\alpha = 1.2, 1.5, 1.8$ and pumping strategy S_I (light grey) and S_{II} (dark grey).