1	Global sensitivity analyses of multiple conceptual models with uncertain parameters			
2	driving groundwater flow in a regional-scale sedimentary aquifer			
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12	Keywords: Groundwater flow; Conceptual model uncertainty; Parameter Uncertainty; Global			
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14				
15	Highlights:			
16	• Comparison of Global Sensitivity Analysis (GSA) approaches in a large-scale aquifer			
17	• Impacts of uncertain parameters of diverse conceptual models are evaluated via GSA			
18	• Moment-based indices inform how parameters influence statistics of model outputs			
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Abstract

22 We rely on various Global Sensitivity Analysis (GSA) approaches to detect the way 23 uncertain parameters linked to diverse conceptual geological models influence spatial 24 distributions of hydraulic heads in a three-dimensional complex groundwater system. We 25 showcase our analyses by considering a highly heterogeneous, large scale aquifer system 26 located in Northern Italy. Groundwater flow is simulated considering alternative conceptual 27 models employed to reconstruct the spatial arrangement of the geomaterials forming the 28 internal makeup of the domain and characterizing the distribution of hydraulic conductivities. 29 For each conceptual model, uncertain factors include the values of hydraulic conductivity 30 associated with the geomaterials composing the aquifer as well as the system boundary 31 conditions. We explore the relative influence of parametric uncertainties to steady-state 32 hydraulic head distributions across the set of conceptual models considered by way of three 33 GSA methodologies, i.e., (a) a derivative-based approach, which rests on the Morris indices; (b) the classical variance-based approach, grounded on the evaluation of the Sobol' indices; 34 35 and (c) a moment-based GSA, which takes into account the influence of uncertain parameters 36 on multiple (statistical) moments of a given model output. Due to computational costs, Sobol' 37 and moment-based indices are obtained numerically through the use of a model-order reduction 38 technique based on the polynomial chaos expansion approach. We find that the sensitivity 39 measures considered convey different yet complementary information. The choice of the 40 conceptual model employed to characterize the lithological reconstruction of the aquifer affects 41 the degree of influence that uncertain parameters can have on modeling results.

43

1. INTRODUCTION

44 Modeling flow and transport processes in complex aquifers is prone to uncertainty, due the (unknown) spatial distribution of medium properties (e.g., hydraulic conductivity) and the 45 46 conceptual and mathematical model adopted to describe the behavior of the system. Global 47 Sensitivity Analysis, GSA, is a powerful tool to enable quantification of the influence of 48 uncertain model inputs on an output of interest, y (Razavi and Gupta, 2015; Song et al., 2015; 49 Pianosi et al., 2016, and references therein). As compared to local sensitivity analysis (Saltelli 50 et al., 2005), GSA measures the relative contribution of uncertain model factors (as well as 51 their combined effects) to a global metric representing the variability of model output y. 52 Common purposes of GSA techniques comprise (i) screening of model parameters, i.e., 53 identification of input variables having limited influence on y; (ii) ranking of model parameters, 54 i.e., ordering model input parameters according to their relative influence on y; and (iii) 55 providing information to drive probabilistic risk analyses and/or parameter estimation through 56 model calibration.

57 A variety of approaches has been proposed to perform GSA. These comprise derivative-58 based (Morris, 1991; Malaguerra et al., 2013; Campolongo et al., 2007), variance-based (Sobol, 59 1993, 2001; Sudret, 2008; Fajraoui et al., 2011; Sochala and Le Maître, 2013), regression-based (Box and Draper, 1987; Sudret, 2008) and moment-independent (Borgonovo et al., 2011; 60 61 Pianosi and Wagener, 2015) techniques. Dell'Oca et al. (2017) proposed a moment-based 62 approach to GSA. These authors rely on new metrics, termed AMA indices, that quantify the 63 relative contribution of each uncertain model parameter to the main features (as rendered by 64 the statistical moments) of the probability density function of model output y. One of their main findings is that relying on classical variance-based GSA methods, with the implicit assumption 65 66 that the uncertainty of y is fully characterized by its variance, can lead at best to an incomplete 67 picture of the system response to model parameter uncertainties. The proposed methodology is 68 illustrated by Dell'Oca et al. (2017) and Maina and Guadagnini (2018) on relatively simple test
69 cases.

70 Local and global (mainly variance-based) sensitivity analyses have been performed to 71 assess the degree of influence of uncertain parameters on groundwater flow and transport 72 models at the field/regional scale (Laloy et al., 2013; Rajabi et al., 2015; Deman et al., 2015; 73 Kerrou et al., 2017; Rajabi and Ketabchi, 2017; Chen et al., 2018). All of these studies consider 74 the presence of a unique conceptual/mathematical model describing the behavior of the system. 75 Dai et al. (2017) apply a variance-based GSA approach to assess the relationship between 76 uncertainties arising from several alternative conceptual models and their corresponding input 77 parameters and boundary conditions.

78 An exhaustive analysis of the ability, efficiency and practical applicability of diverse GSA 79 procedures to identify the most relevant inputs in complex heterogeneous three-dimensional 80 systems whose hydrogeological make-up is reconstructed through differing conceptual 81 modeling strategies is still lacking. This is precisely the objective of this study. We do so by 82 comparing sensitivity analysis results obtained through (a) a derivative-based approach, 83 grounded on the widely used Morris indices; (b) the classical variance-based approach which 84 rests on the evaluation of the Sobol' indices; and (c) the novel moment-based GSA of Dell'Oca et al. (2017), which can provide information on multiple statistics of the probability distribution 85 86 of the output variable of interest. As a test bed, we consider a large scale aquifer system located 87 in Northern Italy (see Section 2). The area is highly heterogeneous and is characterized by the 88 presence of high-quality water springs interacting with the groundwater system. The spatial 89 distribution of geomaterials forming the internal makeup of the subsurface and of the associated hydraulic attributes, as well as boundary conditions are highly uncertain. In this context, we 90 91 investigate the way the joint analysis of multiple GSA metrics can contribute to ranking the 92 importance of uncertain factors of multiple origins on the response of the aquifer system, as

93 given by the steady-state distribution of hydraulic heads. As an additional distinctive element, 94 we also explore the way parametric uncertainties are influential to hydraulic head distributions 95 across the set of alternative conceptual models that can be employed to characterize the 96 lithological reconstruction of the aquifer (and ultimately the spatial distribution of aquifer 97 hydraulic conductivity).

98

2. STUDY AREA

99 The study area (see Fig. 1) is part of the high-medium Alluvial Po Plain in Northern Italy and encompasses a planar surface of about 785 km². It is located in the area comprised between 100 101 the two main rivers (Adda and Serio) in the region and hosts activities linked to agricultural 102 (84%) and urban (16%) sectors. A main feature of the area is the presence of high-quality water 103 springs. These natural springs are key environmental drivers and constitute treasures around 104 which local economies thrive, forming a unique ecosystem with remarkable appeal for tourism 105 and leisure activities. They also constitute the main water supply for agriculture, which is an 106 important anthropogenic activity in the area. Figure 1b depicts the major hydrogeological 107 features of the area, together with the general pattern of the ground surface elevation and the 108 location of the springs.

109 Groundwater resources within the Po plain are mostly located in the continental and 110 marine layers of Plio-Pleistocene age. The quaternary sedimentary sequence is overall 111 regressive and is formed by (from bottom to top) (i) basal turbiditic sands and clays, (ii) a prograding fluvio-deltaic sedimentary wedge, and (iii) continental sediments (Regione Emilia-112 113 Romagna, ENI-AGIP, 1998; Regione Lombardia, ENI-AGIP, 2002). In Section 3 we propose 114 three alternative models for the reconstruction of the hydrogeological architecture of the study 115 area on the basis of geological-stratigraphic data collected at 189 locations (available at 116 http://www.geoportale.regione.lombardia.it/download-dati) and hydro-geological sections 117 available from previous studies (Maione et al., 1991; Beretta et al., 1992; Regione Lombardia, 118 ENI-AGIP, 2002). As an example, Figure 2 depicts a North-South (SECT 1) and an East-West 119 (SECT 2) vertical cross-section whose planar location is indicated in Fig. 1. The system has an 120 average thickness of about 120 m (with stratigraphic data available up to a depth of about 300 121 m in some areas) and comprises a surface (locally semi-confined) and a deep (confined-122 semiconfined) aquifer. The surface aquifer has a thickness of about 60 m and is mainly formed 123 by compact/fractured conglomerate (fluvio-glacial Mindel) deposits in the Northern area and 124 by fluvio-glacial gravels and sands (Riss-Wurm) intercalated by lenses of clay with variable planar/lateral extent in the Southern zone. The deep aquifer is formed by alternating coarse 125 126 clastic (fractured conglomerates in the Northern area) sediments and clays whose degree of 127 continuity and relative thickness vary in space. In the median portion of the plain, the thickness of the modeled system is characterized by a significant reduction controlled by the subsurface 128 129 geological structure (e.g., Maione et al., 1991).

Additional available data include: precipitation and temperature collected at 5 meteorological stations, rivers' water level monitored at 3 hydrometric stations, as well as pumping rates and piezometric levels recorded at 120 pumping/monitoring wells (see Fig. 1b). Average groundwater flow is from North to South, the Adda river generally draining water from the aquifers and the Serio river recharging and draining the aquifer in the Northern and Southern sectors, respectively.

136

3. METHODOLOGY

137 **3.1 Spatial distribution of Geomaterials and associated hydraulic conductivities**

138 The analysis of available sedimentological information allows identifying a set of $n_f =$ 139 5 main geomaterials (facies/classes) which constitute the geological makeup of the system. 140 Each geomaterial, denoted as M_i (i = 1, ..., 5), is listed in Table 1 together with the 141 corresponding volumetric fraction, f_i , encountered within the study area. The experimental 142 directional (indicator) variogram, $\gamma_{\alpha}^i(s_{\alpha})$ (s_{α} being spatial separation distance, $\alpha = h$, or v 143 indicating horizontal or vertical direction, respectively) has been evaluated for each facies and 144 interpreted through a maximum likelihood (ML) approach with an exponential model, i.e., $\gamma^{i}_{\alpha}(s_{\alpha}) = \sigma^{i} \left[1 - \exp\left(-3 s_{\alpha}/r_{\alpha}^{i}\right) \right], \sigma^{i}$ and r^{i}_{α} respectively representing variogram sill and 145 directional range of sedimentological class *i*. ML estimates of the variogram sill σ^i (not shown) 146 virtually coincide with their theoretical counterparts $f_i(1-f_i)$. ML estimates (\hat{r}^i_{α}) of r^i_{α} are 147 148 listed in Table 1 for all facies. The degree of correlation along the horizontal direction, as quantified by \hat{r}_{h}^{i} , attains its largest values for classes 3 and 4, suggesting the occurrence of 149 150 horizontally elongated features where gravel and compact conglomerates are dominant. Class 151 4 and 5 are highly correlated along the vertical direction, showing that the compact and 152 fractured conglomerates tend to form relatively thick layers.

To reconstruct the three-dimensional distribution of geomaterials, we discretize the aquifer system of extent 23 km (East-West direction) × 48 km (North-South direction) × 475 m (depth) through blocks of uniform size 100 m × 200 m × 5 m, according to the information and computational resources available, for a total of $N_c = 5.2$ millions voxels. Conditional Indicator Kriging (e.g., Isaaks and Srivastava, 1990) yields $n_f \times N_c$ values of $I_{i,j}$ (with $\sum_{i=1}^{n_f} I_{i,j} = 1, \forall j$), corresponding to the estimated probability that a given geomaterial class M_i resides within block *j* (i.e., the volumetric percentage of M_i within block *j*).

Here, we propose a further elaboration of the multiple continua concept, hereafter called *Overlapping Continua (OC)* model to evaluate hydraulic conductivity at each voxel of the domain. The *OC* model is grounded on the concept that the system can be viewed as formed by a collection of media of differing properties coexisting in space. The idea is that each voxel *j* of the numerical grid represents a finite volume within which all geomaterials (or facies) can coexist, each associated with a given volumetric fraction. Hydraulic conductivity at block *j* is evaluated as a weighted mean of facies conductivities, k_i . In Section 4 we analyze the impact on hydraulic head patterns of two variants of *OC*, according to which hydraulic conductivity is computed as a weighted arithmetic ($K_j^{OC_A}$) or geometric ($K_j^{OC_G}$) mean of k_i as

169
$$K_{j}^{OC_{-A}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{f}} I_{i,j} k_{i};$$
 $K_{j}^{OC_{-G}} = \prod_{i=1}^{n_{f}} k_{i}^{I_{i,j}}$ (1)

170 Outcomes of this model are compared against corresponding results obtained with a 171 Composite Medium (CM) approach (e.g., Winter et al., 2003; Guadagnini et al., 2004 and 172 references therein) where each block of the numerical model is considered to be formed by a single geomaterial with conductivity $K_{j}^{CM} = k_{i}$ (index *i* identifying the facies attributed to cell 173 *i*). The spatial distribution of geomaterials is estimated according to the procedure described 174 175 by Guadagnini et al. (2004) and based on conditional indicator Kriging. These authors start by considering facies M_1 , assigning indicator I = 1 to locations where M_1 is observed and I = 0176 otherwise. The region occupied by M_1 is delineated by imposing to the kriged field a threshold 177 corresponding to the value of f_1 , to reconstruct a spatial distribution of M_1 which is consistent 178 with the observed volumetric fraction. This procedure is repeated for $(n_f - 1)$ facies, 179 180 progressively removing at each iteration the portion of the aquifer already assigned to a given 181 class in the previous step.

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3.2 Groundwater flow model

The widely tested numerical code MODFLOW-2005 (Harbaugh, 2005) is employed to simulate steady-state groundwater flow within the domain described in Section 3.1. Inactive cells are inserted to reconstruct the topographic surface of the area and the bottom of the system, resulting in about one million active cells. Recharge terms included in the study comprise infiltration from precipitation, irrigation and percolation from channels in the nonurban zones, or aqueduct and sewage system losses in the urban sector. Since exhaustive and 189 up-to-date records detailing the exact location of the pumping wells are not available, for the 190 illustration of our approach we assign the total water withdrawal within a given municipality 191 to a system of wells located at the center of the municipality itself. Springs are simulated as 192 drains so that their outflow-rate is proportional to the difference between hydraulic head and 193 elevation of ground level. Dirichlet boundary conditions are set along the rivers, this choice 194 relying on results of previous studies, showing that both rivers have a direct hydraulic 195 connection with the groundwater system (Maione et al., 1991). Neumann boundary conditions 196 are set along the Northern boundary of the model (see Fig. 3) on the basis of the hydrological 197 study of the Serio basin (located North of the study area) performed by Rametta (2008), as also 198 discussed in Session 3.3.

199

3.3 Sensitivity analysis

200 In Section 4 we analyze the impact of the uncertainty in the conceptual model (the two 201 variants of OC versus CM), boundary conditions and hydraulic parameters on the groundwater 202 system response, as quantified in terms of steady-state hydraulic heads obtained at a sub-set of 203 39 wells, whose locations are depicted in Fig. 3, covering the full investigated area. We place 204 our GSA before model calibration. As such, each conceptual model is characterized by the 205 same weight and the interval of variability of model parameters is possibly largest. As such, 206 the GSA here performed is mainly keyed to (i) improving our understanding of the behavior of 207 each of the candidate models, in terms of the relevance of each model parameter on the target 208 model output, and (ii) identifying parameters which might be of limited influence in the context 209 of a subsequent model calibration (e.g., Liu et al., 2006; Hutcheson and McAdams, 2010). The uncertain model inputs associated with (a) hydraulic conductivity values (k_i , with i = 1, ..., 5) 210 211 of the five geomaterials composing the subsurface, (b) the total flow rate entering the domain 212 from the Northern boundary, and (c) the Dirichlet boundary conditions set along the rivers are 213 collected in a N-dimensional vector **p**. Entries of the latter are independent and identically

distributed (i.i.d.) random variables, p_i (with i = 1, ..., N; N = 7), each characterized by a 214 215 uniform probability density function, pdf. This modeling choice rests on the idea of assigning 216 equal weight to each value of the distribution. The (random) parameter space is then defined as $\Gamma = [\mathbf{p}^{\min}, \mathbf{p}^{\max}]$ where \mathbf{p}^{\min} and \mathbf{p}^{\max} indicate vectors respectively containing lower (p_i^{\min}) 217) and upper (p_i^{max}) bounds of parameter variability intervals, as listed in Table 2. The choice of 218 p_i^{\min} and p_i^{\max} (*i* = 1,...,5) is based on typical hydraulic characteristics of each geomaterial 219 class. With reference to boundary conditions, Rametta (2008) estimated a total incoming flow 220 rate in the area of interest equal to $\overline{p}_6 = 9.65 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$. Since this estimated value is affected by 221 uncertainty and the spatial distribution of \overline{p}_6 is unknown, we consider the incoming flow rate 222 as uniformly distributed along the Northern domain boundary and set $p_6^{\min} = 0.5 \times \overline{p}_6$ and 223 $p_6^{\text{max}} = 1.5 \times \overline{p}_6$ (resulting in a coefficient of variation of about 30%). The support of the 224 225 Dirichlet boundary condition (p_7) has been defined considering that the river stage may vary 226 between the river bottom and the banks' elevation.

We applied three methodologies, characterized by differing degrees of complexity, to quantify the impact of uncertainty in **p** on model-based hydraulic heads.

The Morris indices (Morris, 1991; Campolongo et al., 2007) rely on the evaluation of incremental ratios, denoted as elementary effects, and are computed for each uncertain quantity p_i along *r* trajectories in the parameter space Γ . The elementary effect of p_i computed along trajectory *m*, $EE_{p_i}(m)$, is defined as

233
$$EE_{p_i}(m) = \frac{f(p_1, \dots, p_i + \Delta, \dots, p_N) - f(\mathbf{p})}{\Delta}$$
(2)

Here, $f(\mathbf{p})$ is the model output, and Δ is a fixed increment evaluated as described by Campolongo et al. (2007). To avoid effects of the starting point in the parameter space on the 236 sensitivity analysis (Morris, 1991), we evaluate EE_{p_i} for *r* trajectories, and compute the Morris 237 index as

238
$$\mu_{p_i}^* = \frac{1}{r} \sum_{j=1}^{r} \left| EE_{p_i}(j) \right|$$
(3)

This methodology is computationally efficient because it requires a relative low number of forward model simulations, i.e., r(N+1). In our application we obtain stable results with r= 30 (i.e., 240 model runs). Note that $\mu_{p_i}^*$ cannot quantify the joint effect of uncertainty of model inputs on the uncertainty of $f(\mathbf{p})$. This type of information can be obtained by relying on the Sobol' (Sobol, 1993, 2001; Sudret, 2008; Formaggia et al., 2013 and references therein) and AMA (Dell'Oca et al., 2017; Ceriotti et al., 2018) indices.

It can be shown (Sobol, 1993) that if the model response $f(\mathbf{p})$ belongs to the space of square integrable functions, then the following expansion holds

247
$$f(\mathbf{p}) = f_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} f_{p_i}(p_i) + \sum_{1 \le i < j \le N} f_{p_i, p_j}(p_i, p_j) + \dots + f_{p_1, \dots, p_N}(p_1, \dots, p_N)$$
(4)

where f_0 is the expected value of $f(\mathbf{p})$ and $f_{p_1,...,p_s}(\{p_1,...,p_s\} \subseteq \{1,...,N\})$ are orthogonal functions with respect to a probability measure. The total variance, V[f], of $f(\mathbf{p})$ can then be decomposed as

251
$$V[f] = \sum_{i=1}^{N} V_{p_i} + \sum_{1 \le i < j \le N} V_{p_i, p_j} + \dots + V_{p_1, \dots, p_N}$$
 (5)

where V_{p_i} is the contribution to V[f] due solely to the effect of p_i , and $V_{p_1,...,p_s}$ is its counterpart due to interaction of model parameters belonging to the subset $\{p_1,...,p_s\}$. The Sobol' indices, S_{p_i} and $S_{p_1,...,p_s}$ are defined as

255
$$S_{p_i} = \frac{V_{p_i}}{V[f]};$$
 $S_{p_1,\dots,p_s} = \frac{V_{p_1,\dots,p_s}}{V[f]}$ (6)

respectively quantifying the contribution of only p_i and the joint effect of $\{p_1, ..., p_s\}$ on V[f]. The total contribution of p_i to V[f] is quantified by the total Sobol' index

258
$$S_{p_i}^T = S_{p_i} + \sum_j S_{p_i, p_j} + \sum_{j, k} S_{p_i, p_j, p_k} + \dots + S_{p_i, \dots, p_N}$$
(7)

The AMA indices (introduced by Dell'Oca et al., 2017) allow quantifying the expected variation of a given statistical *moment* M[f] of the pdf of $f(\mathbf{p})$ due to conditioning on parameter values. These are defined as

262
$$\operatorname{AMAM}_{p_{i}} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{|M[f]|} \int_{\Gamma_{p_{i}}} |M[f] - M[f | p_{i}]| \rho_{\Gamma_{p_{i}}} dp_{i} & \text{if } M[f] \neq 0\\ \int_{\Gamma_{p_{i}}} |M[f] - M[f | p_{i}]| \rho_{\Gamma_{p_{i}}} dp_{i} & \text{if } M[f] = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$(8a)$$

263
$$\operatorname{AMAM}_{p_{1}},...,p_{s} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{|M[f]|} \int_{\Gamma_{p_{1},...,p_{s}}} |M[f] - M[f | p_{1},...,p_{s}]| \rho_{\Gamma p_{1},...,p_{s}} dp_{1}...dp_{s} & \text{if } M[f] \neq 0 \\ \int_{\Gamma_{p_{1},...,p_{s}}} |M[f | p_{1},...,p_{s}]| \rho_{\Gamma p_{1},...,p_{s}} dp_{1}...dp_{s} & \text{if } M[f] = 0 \end{cases}$$

264

Here, AMAM p_i (8a) and AMAM $p_1, ..., p_s$ (8b) correspond to the AMA indices associated 265 with a given statistical moment M and related to variations of only p_i or considering the joint 266 variation of $\{p_1, ..., p_s\}$, respectively; $\rho_{\Gamma_{p_i}}$ is the marginal pdf of p_i , $\rho_{\Gamma p_1, ..., p_s}$ being the joint 267 pdf of $\{p_1,...,p_s\}$; and $M[f | p_1,...,p_s]$ indicates conditioning of the (statistical) moment M 268 on known values of parameters $p_1, ..., p_s$. Note that AMA V_{p_i} , i.e., the AMA index related to 269 the variance (M = V) of $f(\mathbf{p})$, coincides with the principal Sobol' index S_{p_i} only if the 270 conditional variance, $V[f | p_i]$ is always (i.e., for each value of p_i) smaller than (or equal to) 271 its unconditional counterpart V[f]. If $V[f | p_i]$ can undertake values that are larger than 272

(8b)

273 V[f] while varying p_i , then $AMAV_{p_i} > S_{p_i}$. Note also that, in this latter case, $AMAV_{p_i}$ can 274 be either smaller or larger than $S_{p_i}^T$, depending on the relative impact of the interaction terms 275 f_{p_1,\dots,p_s} . In Section 4 we further analyze the difference amongst $AMAV_{p_i}$ and the Sobol' 276 indices by means of the considered test scenario.

The numerical evaluation of Sobol' and AMA indices can be time consuming and can become unfeasible in complex settings, such as the one here assessed. These metrics are evaluated in Section 4 relying on a surrogate model based on the generalized Polynomial Chaos Expansion (gPCE) (Ghanem and Spanos, 1991; Xiu and Karniadakis, 2002; Le Maître and Knio, 2010). This technique consists in approximating $f(\mathbf{p})$ by a linear combination of multivariate orthonormal Legendre polynomials, i.e., $\psi_x(\mathbf{p})$

283
$$f(\boldsymbol{p}) \cong f_0 + \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathfrak{I}_i} \beta_{\boldsymbol{x}} \psi_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\boldsymbol{p}) + \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j>i} \sum_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathfrak{I}_{i,j}} \beta_{\boldsymbol{x}} \psi_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\boldsymbol{p}) + \dots;$$

$$\psi_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\boldsymbol{p}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N_p} \psi_{i,x_i}(p_i); \quad \beta_{\boldsymbol{x}} = \int_{\Gamma} f(\boldsymbol{p}) \psi_{\boldsymbol{x}}(\boldsymbol{p}) \rho_{\Gamma \boldsymbol{p}} \, d\boldsymbol{p},$$
(9)

where $\mathbf{x} = \{x_1, ..., x_N\} \in \mathbb{N}^N$ is a multi-index expressing the degree of each univariate polynomial, $\psi_{i,x_i}(p_i)$; β_x are the gPCE coefficients; $\rho_{\Gamma p}$ is the pdf of **p**; \mathfrak{I}_i contains all indices such that only the *i*-th component does not vanish; $\mathfrak{I}_{i,j}$ contains all indices such that only the *i*-th and *j*-th components are not zero, and so on.

Coefficients β_x in Eq. (9) are calculated through an approach based on a regression method (Sudret, 2008). The latter requires evaluating the full model and its gPCE approximation at a number of points in the parameter space, Γ , and then minimizing the sum of the square of the differences between these two solutions. Here, accurate results have been obtained truncating the gPCE at order 4 (not shown), requiring 2437 simulations performed using a quasi- Monte Carlo sampling technique (see e.g., Feil et al., 2009; Fajraoui et al., 2012; Maina and Guadagnini, 2018, and references therein). In this study we use Legendre polynomials in Eq. (9). These are orthonormal with respect to the uniform pdf $\rho_{\Gamma p} = \prod_{i=1}^{N} \left(p_i^{\text{max}} - p_i^{\text{min}} \right)^{-1}$. Note that, if prior information on uncertain parameters are available,

297 the approach can still be employed upon relying on different parameter distributions. For 298 instance, Jacobi and Hermite polynomials are associated with beta and Gaussian pdfs, 299 respectively (Xiu and Karniadakis, 2002; Sudret, 2008).

300

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As an example of the main features of the conductivity fields obtained with the three conceptual models described in Section 3, Fig. 4 depicts the spatial distribution of the natural logarithm of hydraulic conductivity, *Y*, along a longitudinal cross section obtained by setting $k_1 = 10^{-7}$ m/s, $k_2 = 10^{-6}$ m/s, $k_3 = 10^{-3}$ m/s, $k_4 = 10^{-5}$ m/s, and $k_5 = 10^{-2}$ m/s, corresponding to the mean values of log k_i associated with the intervals of variability listed in Table 2.

306 As already discussed in Section 3, in CM (Fig. 4a) only one geomaterial resides in each cell. Therefore, this modeling concept may lead to the occurrence of blocks characterized by 307 308 very different Y values that can be close (or contiguous) across the system. The adoption of OC 309 leads to a smoother spatial distribution of Y. We further note that the two diverse averaging 310 strategies described in Section 3.1 can significantly affect the spatial distribution of Y. The 311 domain is (on average) more permeable and less heterogeneous when the arithmetic rather than 312 the geometric mean operator is employed. This aspect is further elucidated by Fig. 5 where the sample pdfs of $Y^{OC_A} = \ln K^{OC_A}$ and $Y^{OC_G} = \ln K^{OC_G}$ (corresponding to the fields related to the 313 314 cross-sections depicted in Figs. 4b and 4c, respectively) are plotted in natural (Fig. 5a) and 315 semi logarithmic (Fig. 5b) scale. Also shown for comparison are (i) Gaussian distributions 316 having the same mean and variance as the sample pdfs and (ii) the sample pdf of Y evaluated 317 for CM (and related to the field linked to the cross-section in Fig. 4a). As expected, the mean of Y^{OC_A} is larger than the mean of Y^{OC_G} , because the arithmetic mean operator tends to assign increased weight to large k_i values as compared to the geometric mean operator. We note that Y^{OC_G} values are associated with a larger variance than their Y^{OC_A} counterparts. This notwithstanding, the tails of the Y^{OC_G} distribution decay following a (nearly) Gaussian pdf, while the distribution of Y^{OC_A} displays a long left tail. In other words, even as the Y^{OC_A} field is (overall) less heterogeneous than Y^{OC_G} , it is characterized by a significant occurrence of low values.

Figure 6 depicts (*i*) the Morris indices
$$\mu_{p_i}^*$$
 (Fig. 6a); (*ii*) the normalized Morris indices
(Fig. 6b), defined as $\overline{\mu}_{p_i}^* = \mu_{p_i}^* / \sum_{i=1}^N \mu_{p_i}^*$; (*iii*) the principal, S_{p_i} (Fig. 6c) and total, $S_{p_i}^T$ (Fig. 6d),
Sobol' indices, as well as (*v*) the AMA indices linked to the mean, AMA E_{p_i} (Fig. 6e), variance,
AMA V_{p_i} (Fig. 6f), and skewness, AMA γ_{p_i} (Fig. 6g), computed at all 39 target locations for
CM and considering all seven uncertain model inputs p_i . Note that each well is associated
with an Identification Number (ID) that increases from North to South to facilitate the
interpretation of the results (see also Fig. 3). Corresponding results for settings associated with
the *OC* modeling strategies (termed as *OC_A* and *OC_G*, when considering the arithmetic or
geometric averaging operator, respectively) are depicted in Figs. 7 and 8.

334 The diverse GSA metrics considered yield different yet complementary information.

For all conceptual models, $\mu_{p_i}^*$ and $AMAE_{p_i}$ tend to decrease from North to South, suggesting that the mean behavior of the groundwater levels is more affected by uncertainty in model parameters in the Northern than in the Southern investigated area. Values of $AMAE_{p_i}$, quantifying the impact (on average) of uncertain inputs on hydraulic heads are in general quite low for *OC A* and *CM* while they can be significant (> 20%) for *OC G*.

All considered indices indicate that k_2 and k_4 have a limited (and in some cases 340 negligible, as further discussed below) influence in any of the conceptual models analyzed. 341 342 This result is consistent with the observation that these parameters correspond to geomaterials 343 that respectively constitute only about 5% and 15% of the system and are characterized by 344 intermediate conductivity values. Otherwise, k_3 and k_5 , which are linked to the most permeable 345 facies, affect all metrics computed in most observation points even as facies 5 constitutes only about 10% of the domain. In particular, amongst facies conductivities, k_5 is identified as the 346 most relevant parameter for OC_A , k_3 being most influential for OC_G and CM. Moreover, 347 348 uncertainty associated with k_1 , corresponding to the less permeable facies, significantly affects 349 model outcomes for OC G and CM while its effect is negligible in OC A, despite the high 350 volumetric percentage ($\approx 37\%$) of facies 1. All these results are consistent with the conceptual 351 models adopted, OC A being conducive to a reduction of the importance of the low 352 conductivity facies while enhancing the effect of highly permeable textures. The effect of the Adda and Serio river stage (as embedded in p_7) increases from North to South and is 353 354 particularly significant for OC A. Boundary conditions at the Northern boundary (as embedded in p_6) affect mainly the Northern sector of the domain for OC_A , their influence extending 355 356 also within the Southern sector for OC G. The latter result is associated with the combined 357 effects of the model boundary conditions and the tendency of OC G to be overall characterized 358 by relatively low Y values that enhance hydraulic head variations due to inflow changes. With 359 reference to CM, the impact of p_6 on model outputs significantly varies with the considered 360 metrics. This aspect is investigated in the following.

361 As highlighted above, albeit traditional (Morris and Sobol') and AMA indices provide 362 overall similar results, outcomes of the diverse metrics not always appear to be mutually 363 consistent. For example, considering *CM* one can see that while the analysis of S_{p_i} (Fig. 6c) would suggest a negligible impact of k_2 and a very limited impact of k_4 and p_6 on model outputs localized in the Northern area of the system, indices $S_{p_1}^T$, AMA V_{p_1} and AMA γ_{p_1} (Figs. 6d, f, g) suggest that the impact of k_2 , k_4 , p_6 is (albeit to a limited extent for k_2 and k_4) not negligible in most of the considered target locations. A qualitatively similar observation can be made for model OC_G with reference to parameters k_2 and k_4 (compare Fig. 8c and Figs. 8d, f, g).

In order to explain this behavior, we recall that Sobol' and $AMAV_{p_i}$ indices are based 370 on diverse perspectives. Principal, S_{p_i} , and total, $S_{p_i}^T$, Sobol' indices rely on the decomposition 371 of the output variance, V[f], as given by Eq. (5) and allow quantifying the expected reduction 372 of V[f] due the knowledge of p_i . The AMA V_{p_i} metric evaluates (on average) the distance 373 between V[f] and the variance conditional to the knowledge of p_i , i.e., $V[f | p_i]$. Therefore, 374 differences among S_{p_i} , $S_{p_i}^T$ and AMA V_{p_i} are mostly related to the behavior of the conditional 375 variance $V[f|p_i]$, as we already mention in Section 3.3. As an example, Figs. 9a-c depicts 376 the conditional variance $V[f|p_i]$ versus p_i at a selected observation well (ID 32), together 377 378 with its unconditional counterpart. Here, the interval of variation of each model parameter has 379 been normalized to span the range [0, 1] for graphical representation purposes. Conditional moments are obtained via 2×10^6 runs of the gPCE-based surrogate model. We note that 380 $V[f|k_2]$, $V[f|k_4]$ and $V[f|p_6]$ for CM (Fig. 9a) can be either smaller or higher than their 381 unconditional counterparts, depending on the conditioning value p_i . This behavior is consistent 382 with inability of the principal Sobol' index to detect the effect of k_2 , k_4 and p_6 on the model 383 384 output variance at this observation well (see Fig. 6c), integration of the conditional variance over k_2 , k_4 and p_6 being close to zero. A similar conclusion can be drawn from Figs. 8c,f and 385

Fig. 9c, with reference to parameters k_2 and k_4 for model OC_G . Conversely, $V[f|k_3] < V[f]$ for most (or all) values of k_3 in both CM and OC_G models. Thus, S_{k_3} and AMA V_{k_3} yield very similar results. For the same reason S_{p_i} (Fig. 7c) and AMA V_{p_i} (Fig. 7f) exhibit very consistent features for OC_A , identifying k_5 and p_7 as the most influential parameters, $V[f|k_5]$ and $V[f|p_7]$ being always smaller than the unconditional variance, as revealed by Fig. 9b.

392 The impact of the interaction among parameters on the total output variance, as identified by the total Sobol' and AMAV indices and corresponding to settings where $S_{p_i}^T > S_{p_i}$, AMAV 393 > S_{p_i} and $\sum_{i=1}^{N} S_{p_i}^{T} > 1$, is in our case mainly relevant for *CM* and *OC_G* in the Southern area (see 394 Figs. 6d and 8d), while being generally limited for OC A where it is detectable only at a few 395 target points in the Northern zone (see Fig. 7d). The scatterplot of $S_{p_i}^T$ versus S_{p_i} is depicted 396 in Figs. 10a-c for all target points, parameters and models investigated. Interactions are mostly 397 detected for k_3 and k_5 for all models. Scatterplots of AMA V_{p_i} versus $S_{p_i}^T$ (Figs. 10 d-f) reveal 398 that $S_{p_i}^T$ can be smaller or larger than $AMAV_{p_i}$, depending on the target point and parameter 399 400 considered. This latter behavior is associated with the relative impact of the interaction terms 401 that can vary for differing model conceptualizations and from one target point to another.

The degree of symmetry of the pdfs of hydraulic heads, as driven by the skewness, strongly depends on the considered conceptual model and on the selected observation well. In most of the observation wells the unconditional pdf is right-skewed for *CM* and *OC_G* while being left-skewed or symmetric for *OC_A* (not shown). As an example, the unconditional and conditional skewness obtained for the three considered models are depicted in Fig. 9d-f at 407 observation well (ID 32). Conditioning on model parameters affects the shape of the pdf, whose 408 degree of symmetry can markedly depend on the conditioning value of p_i .

409 In order to provide an overall assessment of model parameter impacts on hydraulic heads 410 across the domain, we compute the average of each sensitivity index across all 39 locations considered (the averaging operator is hereafter denoted with symbol $\langle \rangle$). Figure 11a depicts 411 $\langle S_{p_i}^{^T}
angle$ versus $\langle \overline{\mu}_{p_i}^*
angle$ for all model conceptualizations analyzed. These two traditional sensitivity 412 measures display the following consistent trends (only a few minor differences in term of 413 414 ranking of parameter importance can be detected): (i) hydraulic head for all conceptual models are significantly affected by the uncertainty of k_3 and k_5 , while the effects of k_2 and k_4 are 415 negligible; (ii) the strength of the influence of the uncertainty of k_1 depends on the conceptual 416 417 geological model adopted, in particular it is negligible in OC A; (iii) CM and OC A are more affected by the uncertainty in the Dirichlet (as quantified by p_7) than in the Neumann (i.e., p_6 418) boundary condition, the opposite behavior being observed for OC_G . 419

The scatterplot of $\langle AMAV_{p_i} \rangle$ versus $\langle AMAE_{p_i} \rangle$ values is depicted in Fig. 11b. We note 420 that mean values of hydraulic heads in OC G are more affected by uncertainty in a few selected 421 parameters (k_1 , k_3 , k_5 , and p_6) with respect to what can be observed for the other models (note 422 the isolated cluster of green symbols, i.e., diamonds, in Fig. 10b). Conversely, hydraulic head 423 424 variance is influenced (on average) in a similar way for all considered models by the input parameters which are evaluated as most influential (i.e., k_3 for CM and OC_G; and k_5 and p_7 425 for OC_A). Comparing $\langle AMAV_{p_i} \rangle$ and $\langle S_{p_i}^T \rangle$ (Fig. 11c) enables us to further support our 426 427 previous observation that both sensitivity measures are able to identify interactions among 428 parameters, albeit in a different way. Interactions are generally limited for OC A, these two 429 averaged metrics displaying a linear trend with unit slope. For CM and OC G, where 430 interaction terms are more relevant, $\langle AMAV_{p_i} \rangle$ tends to be slightly higher than $\langle S_{p_i}^T \rangle$ for all 431 input parameters, with the exception of k_3 .

Figure 10d depicts $\langle AMAV_{p_i} \rangle$ versus $\langle AMA\gamma_{p_i} \rangle$. We note that all points tend to follow a linear trend with unit slope for *CM* and *OC_A*, suggesting that uncertainty on model parameters affect variance and skewness of outputs in a similar way. Otherwise, considering *OC_G* we note that the influence of model parameters decreases for increasing order of the (statistical) moment of the output distribution, p_7 being an exception to this behavior.

437 5 Conclusions

This study compares a set of Global Sensitivity Analysis (GSA) approaches to evaluate the impact of conceptual geological model and parametric uncertainty on groundwater flow features in a three-dimensional large scale groundwater system. We document that the joint use of multiple sensitivity indices, each providing a particular insight to a given aspect of sensitivity, yields a comprehensive depiction of the model responses. In this sense, one minimizes the risk of classifying as unimportant some parameters which might have a nonnegligible impact on selected features of the output of interest.

445 Our work leads to the following major conclusions.

Albeit being based on differing metrics and concepts, the three GSA approaches
analyzed lead to similar and (generally) consistent rankings of parameters which are
influential to the target model outcomes at the set of investigated locations. Otherwise,
the choice of the conceptual model employed to characterize the lithological
reconstruction of the system affects the degree of influence that uncertain parameters
can have on modeling results.

When considering the overall behavior of model responses across the set of observation
 points, all GSA indices suggest that geomaterials constituting a relatively modest

454 fraction of the aquifer ($\sim 10 \div 15\%$) are influential to hydraulic heads only if they are 455 associated with large conductivities. Otherwise (i.e., if their conductivity has a low to 456 intermediate value), these geomaterials are not influential in any of the geological 457 models considered.

458 3. The impact of very low conductivity geomaterials (such as those associated with facies 459 1 in Table 1) depends on the conceptual model adopted even when their volumetric 460 fraction is significant ($\sim 30\%$). These geomaterials do not influence the variability of 461 hydraulic heads computed through the OC A model (Overlapping Continuum scheme 462 associated with arithmetic averaging of geomaterial conductivities). Otherwise, they 463 are seen to be remarkably influential for the CM (Composite Medium) model and the 464 OC G (Overlapping Continuum scheme associated with geometric averaging of 465 geomaterial conductivities) model.

466 4. Uncertainty in the Neumann boundary condition plays only a minor role with respect 467 to the Dirichlet boundary condition, which strongly controls variability of hydraulic 468 head, in the *CM* and *OC_A* models. The opposite behavior is observed for the *OC_G* 469 approach.

470 5. The moment-based indices AMAE, AMAV, and AMAy (which quantify the impact of 471 model parameters on the mean, variance, and skewness of the pdf of model outputs, 472 respectively) suggest that input parameters which are evaluated as most influential 473 affect in a similar way mean, variance and skewness of hydraulic heads for the CM and 474 OC A approaches. When considering the OC G conceptualization, we note that the most influential parameters (i.e., the largest/smallest geomaterial conductivities, and 475 476 Neumann boundary conditions) affects the mean of hydraulic heads more strongly than 477 its variance or skewness.

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6. The degree of symmetry of the pdf of hydraulic heads, as quantified by the skewness,
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depends on the considered conceptual model and varies across the domain.
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482 Our results form the basis for future developments tied to efficient parameter estimation 483 and uncertainty quantification in three ways: (i) parameters which have been identified as 484 noninfluential to model outcomes (as expressed through their statistical moments of interest) 485 can be neglected in a stochastic model calibration process and fixed to given values, (ii) 486 quantification of differing impacts of model parameters on various (statistical) moments of 487 model outputs can guide stochastic inverse modeling to identify posterior distribution of model 488 parameters; and (iii) quantification of the way contributions to multiple statistical moments of model outputs are apportioned amongst diverse conceptual models and their parameters can be 489 490 employed in a multimodel context. All of these topics are subject of current theoretical 491 developments and analyses and will be explored in future studies.

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628 **TABLES** 629 **Table 1.** List of the $n_f = 5$ facies (or geomaterial, classes) identified in the area, together 630 with their volumetric fraction (f_i) ; ML estimates of indicator variogram range along the 631 horizontal (\hat{r}_{h}^{i}) and vertical (\hat{r}_{v}^{i}) directions. f_i (%) \hat{r}_{h}^{i} (m) \hat{r}_{v}^{i} (m) Description M_i 467.4 17.1 1 36.77 Clay and silt 2 234.6 14.5 Fine and silty sand 4.73 3835.2 17.5 3 Gravel, sand and gravel 32.92 4 2526.2 26.4 Compact conglomerate, sandstone 14.94 877.8 28.1 5 Fractured conglomerate 10.64

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Table 2. Selected uncertain model inputs and associated intervals of variability, as defined by 634 their lower (p_i^{\min}) and upper (p_i^{\max}) boundaries.

Parameter	Description	p_i^{\min}	p_i^{\max}
<i>p</i> ₁ (m/s)	Conductivity of class 1, k_1	10-8	10-5
$p_2 (m/s)$	Conductivity of class 2, k_2	10-7	10-4
<i>p</i> ₃ (m/s)	Conductivity of class 3, k_3	10-4	10-2
$p_4 (m/s)$	Conductivity of class 4, k_4	10-6	10-3
$p_5 ({ m m/s})$	Conductivity of class 5, k_5	10-3	10-1
$p_{6} ({\rm m^{3/s}})$	Neumann boundary condition*	4.83	14.47
p_7 (m)	Dirichlet boundary condition	0.0	3.0

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*In terms of total flow rate imposed along the Northern domain boundary

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Fig. 1. Location of (a) the study area (shaded zone) within the Po Plain (Northern Italy) and (b) hydrometric and meteorological stations, pumping/monitoring wells, available geological stratigraphies and springs.



Fig. 2. Geological cross-sections (a) SECT 1 (North-South direction), and (b) SECT 2 (West-East direction), modified from Maione et al. (1991); see Fig. 1 for the location of the cross-sections.



Fig. 3. Locations at which GSA metrics are evaluated and boundary conditions of the numerical model.



Fig. 4. Spatial distribution of the natural logarithm of hydraulic conductivity along longitudinal cross-section A'A' (see Fig. 3) for modeling strategies (a) CM, (b) OC_A and (c) OC_G . A vertical exaggeration factor of 50 is employed.



Fig. 5. Sample pdfs of Y for OC_A and OC_G on (a) natural and (b) semi logarithmic scales. Also shown for comparison are Gaussian distributions having the same mean and variance as the sample pdfs and (*ii*) the sample pdf evaluated for the *CM* model. Results correspond to the fields associated with the cross-sections depicted in Fig. 4.



Fig. 6. *CM* approach. (a) Morris $\mu_{p_i}^*$, (b) Morris scaled $\overline{\mu}_{p_i}^*$, (c) principal Sobol' S_{p_i} , (d) total Sobol' $S_{p_i}^T$ (e) AMA E_{p_i} , (f) AMA V_{p_i} and (g) AMA γ_{p_i} indices evaluated at the 39 locations depicted in Fig. 3.



Fig. 7. *OC_A* approach. (a) Morris $\mu_{p_i}^*$, (b) Morris scaled $\overline{\mu}_{p_i}^*$, (c) principal Sobol' S_{p_i} , (d) total Sobol' $S_{p_i}^T$ (e) AMA E_{p_i} , (f) AMA V_{p_i} and (g) AMA γ_{p_i} indices evaluated at the 39 locations depicted in Fig. 3.



Fig. 8. OC_G approach. (a) Morris $\mu_{p_i}^*$, (b) Morris scaled $\overline{\mu}_{p_i}^*$, (c) principal Sobol' S_{p_i} , (d) total Sobol' $S_{p_i}^T$ (e) $AMAE_{p_i}$, (f) $AMAV_{p_i}$ and (g) $AMA\gamma_{p_i}$ indices evaluated at the 39 locations depicted in Fig. 3.



Fig. 9. Conditional (a-c) variance $V[f|p_i]$ and (d-e) skewness $\gamma[f|p_i]$ versus normalized p_i at a selected observation well (ID 32; see Fig. 3) for the conceptual models considered. The corresponding unconditional moments (horizontal black lines) are also shown.



Fig. 10. Scatterplots of $S_{p_i}^T$ versus S_{p_i} (a-c) and AMA V_{p_i} versus $S_{p_i}^T$ (d-f) at all 39 target locations for the conceptual models considered.



Fig. 11. Scatterplots of sensitivity indices averaged across all 39 target locations. (a) averaged total Sobol indices $\langle S_i^T \rangle$ versus averaged scaled Morris Index $\langle \overline{\mu}_i^* \rangle$; (b) averaged AMA V_{p_i} indices, $\langle AMAV_{p_i} \rangle$ versus averaged AMA E_{p_i} indices, $\langle AMAE_{p_i} \rangle$; (c) $\langle AMAV_{p_i} \rangle$ versus $\langle S_i^T \rangle$; (d) $\langle AMAV_{p_i} \rangle$ versus averaged AMA γ_{p_i} indices, $\langle AMA\gamma_{p_i} \rangle$. Blue circles, red triangles, and green diamonds correspond to results obtained via the *CM*, *OC_A* and *OC_G* conceptual models, respectively.