1	Combining multiple lower-fidelity models for emulating complex model
2	responses for CCS environmental risk assessment
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1 Abstract. Numerical modeling is essential to support natural resource management and 2 environmental policy-making. In the context of CO₂ geological sequestration, these models are 3 indispensible parts of risk assessment tools. However, because of increasing complexity, modern 4 numerical models require a great computational effort, which in some cases may be infeasible. 5 An increasingly popular approach to overcome computational limitations is the use of surrogate 6 models. This paper presents a new surrogate modeling approach to reduce the computational cost 7 of running a complex, high-fidelity model. The approach is based on the simplification the high-8 fidelity model into computationally efficient, lower-fidelity models and on linking them with a 9 mathematical function (linking function) that addresses the discrepancies between outputs from 10 models with different levels of fidelity. The resulting linking function model, which can be 11 developed with small computational effort, can be efficiently used in numerical applications 12 where multiple runs of the original high-fidelity model are required, such as for uncertainty 13 quantification or sensitivity analysis. The proposed approach was then applied to the 14 development of a reduced order model for the prediction of groundwater quality impacts from 15 CO₂ and brine leakage for the National Risk Assessment Partnership (NRAP) project. 16

17 Key Words: Risk assessment; Model; Reduced Order model; Groundwater; surrogate modeling

1 1 Introduction and background

2 Despite the outstanding and consistent progress in computational efficiency, a systematic 3 application of computer simulations to support natural resource management and environmental 4 policy-making is still limited because of the great computational effort required to run modern 5 environmental models. Advances in computational power, together with progresses in scientific 6 knowledge, have in fact pushed for the development of more and more complex models with an 7 increasingly larger number of processes and input parameters. The toll for the improved realism 8 of these modern complex models is paid in terms of execution time, which can easily become 9 practically infeasible when the spatial and/or temporal scale of the natural system is large, or 10 when a large number of model responses needs to be calculated. The latter is typical of important 11 numerical applications such as automatic model calibration, multi-objective optimization, 12 sensitivity analysis, and uncertainty quantification.

13 CO₂ geologic storage is being considered as a possible measure to curb the anthropogenic 14 emissions of greenhouse gases. A careful assessment of the risks associated with CO₂ geologic 15 storage is critical to deployment of large scale CO₂ geological storage. One of the potential risks 16 is the impact of CO₂ leakage from deep subsurface reservoirs into overlying groundwater 17 aquifers. Therefore, contamination of groundwater due to leakage in shallow aquifers is 18 considered one of the major risks considered in risk profiles developed by the National Risk 19 Assessment Partnership (NRAP) project, a program that quantifies the behavior of engineered-20 natural system for CO₂ storage and uses science-based predictions to inform decisions tied to 21 CO₂ geological sequestration. Numerical models for evaluating the impact of CO₂ leakage on 22 groundwater, a process involving multiphase flow and reactive transport with complex chemical

1 reactions, are very complex and also involve large uncertainties. Therefore, more

2 computationally efficient models are needed for the development of risk profiles.

3 An increasingly popular approach to overcome computational limitations is the use of 4 surrogate models (i.e., reduced order models, metamodels, emulators, and lower-fidelity 5 models), which represent simplified and faster-to-run models that mimic (emulate) the output of 6 the original model for a specified set of input parameters. Surrogate modeling has been applied 7 in several scientific and engineering disciplines mainly in support of engineering design 8 optimization and calibration (Simpson et al., 2001, 2008, Jones, 2001, Queipo et al., 2005, Wang 9 and Shan, 2007, Forrester and Keane 2009, Forrester, 2010). In the context of environmental 10 sciences, surrogate models have been used used for performing sensitivity analysis and 11 calibration of complex models (Liong et al., 2001; Mugunthan et al. 2005; Bliznyuk et al., 2008; 12 Matott and Rabideau, 2008; Ratto et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2012), design of groundwater wells 13 and pumping management (Hemker et al., 2008; Kourakos and Mantoglou, 2009; Sreekanth and 14 Datta, 2011), and optimization of groundwater and soil remediation systems (Baú and Mayer, 15 2006; Regis and Shoemaker, 2007, 2009; Fen et al., 2009). In NRAP, reduced order models 16 (ROMs) simulating CO₂ transport in reservoir, wellbore leakage (e.g. Jordan et al., 2015) and groundwater contamination (Dai et al., 2014) were included in a system tool for estimating the 17 18 long-term risks of CO₂ sequestration projects (Pawar, et al., 2014). 19 Surrogate models can be classified into two broad categories [Razavi et al., 2012a]. The first 20 is represented by response surface models based on data-driven functions that empirically emulate the output of the original model (e.g., Dyn et al., 1986; Sacks et al., 1989; McKay, 1991; 21

22 Myers and Montgomery, 1995). These functions are developed by fitting a set of original model

1 runs at specific points or design sites in the input parameter space. For instance, the ROMs 2 developed in NRAP belong to this category. The second category of surrogate models includes 3 simplified, physically-based lower-fidelity models that are used in place of a computationally 4 demanding model. In this context, the original model is usually designated as the "high-fidelity" 5 model and the term "fidelity" is intended as the ability to represent the system of interest. In 6 comparison with response surface surrogates, lower-fidelity surrogates provide more accurate 7 results in those regions of the input parameter space that do not include a large number of design 8 sites (Razavi et al., 2012a). Moreover, this type of surrogate models are not afflicted by the 9 problem of dimensionality, which limits the application of response surface surrogates to 10 problems with a large number of input parameters (e.g., Koch et al., 1999, Simpson et al., 2008). 11 Lower-fidelity surrogate modeling has been mostly applied to reduce the computational load 12 of optimization problems (Alexandrov et al., 2001; Vitali et al., 2002; Eldred et al., 2004; Gano 13 et al., 2006; Robinson et al., 2006; Forrester et al., 2007; Forrester and Keane, 2009; Sun et al., 14 2010; Berci et al., 2011; Koziel and Leifsson, 2012). With this approach, known as "multifidelity" or "variable-fidelity" optimization in the literature, the difference or the ratio between 15 16 outputs from high-fidelity and lower-fidelity models is simulated with a correction function 17 usually represented by a polynomial (Madsen and Langthjem, 2001; Viana et al., 2009; Sun et 18 al., 2010), but also modeled with other approaches such as kriging (Huang et al., 2006; Gano et 19 al., 2006; Forrester et al., 2007; Kleijnen, 2009) and neural networks (Leary et al., 2003; Kim 20 and Koc, 2007; Sun et al., 2010).

Despite the considerable amount of literature about surrogate models and the development
 of several different approaches for coupling lower-fidelity and high-fidelity models, very few

1 studies have considered systems that can be simulated with more than two levels of fidelity. 2 Correction functions used in multi-fidelity optimization are in fact typically designed to model 3 the discrepancies between the high-fidelity model and a single lower-fidelity model. The only 4 exceptions include the co-kriging approach presented by Forrester et al. (2007), and the 5 Bayesian Gaussian process model introduced by Kennedy and O'Hagan (2000), and 6 subsequently extended by Quian et al. (2006, 2008) and by Goh et al. (2012). However, these 7 approaches can be extended to multiple lower-fidelity models by assuming a hierarchical 8 combination of models. In other words, outputs from the model with the highest fidelity can be 9 written as a combination of the functions describing the discrepancies between each pair of 10 lower-fidelity models. Moreover, the majority of surrogate modeling approaches is applicable 11 when the number of input parameters (known as the input parameter space) in the high-fidelity 12 model is the same as in the lower-fidelity model. The development of methods for handling 13 multi-fidelity models with different input parameter spaces has received very little attention in 14 the surrogate modeling literature (Simpson et al., 2008).

15 In this work we propose a surrogate modeling approach to emulate the output of a high-16 fidelity model from the outputs of a number of independent (i.e., not hierarchical), lower-fidelity models or ROMs. This approach, which we refer to as Linking Function Surrogate Modeling 17 18 (LFSM), can be particularly effective to emulate the response of large-scale environmental 19 models considering several physical and chemical processes. These models are commonly used 20 in risk assessment in Carbon Capture and Storage applications. It is in fact common, especially 21 in the simulation of natural systems, that each of these processes can be simulated separately 22 (provided these processes are not tightly coupled), even if the highest level of realism is achieved

1 with a high-fidelity model that couples all the relevant processes in its mathematical formulation. 2 Unfortunately, the use of such a high-fidelity model in computationally expensive numerical 3 analysis (e.g., global sensitivity analysis, uncertainty quantification, optimization, and risk 4 assessment) is often computationally infeasible. The proposed approach can be a valid support to 5 significantly reduce execution time without compromising the realism and the accuracy of the 6 simulation. Even though our focus is on simulations of multiphase flow and solute transport in 7 geological media, the method is general and it can be applied in other scientific and engineering 8 disciplines.

9 1.1 Role of surrogate modelling in NRAP

10 NRAP is adapting and building system platforms for performing integrated assessment 11 modeling of CO₂ storage sites. Surrogate models (i.e., ROMs) that provide reliable results in a 12 small fraction of the time required to run complex process-based numerical simulations are 13 required to assess the risk of CO₂ leakage in shallow groundwater. To overcome the difficulty of 14 deriving such surrogate models from multiple runs of high-fidelity numerical models considering 15 3-D heterogeneous multiphase flow and reactive transport processes, two separate ROMs are 16 used to represent the complex hydrogeological and geochemical conditions in a heterogeneous 17 aquifer. The first ROM was developed from a numerical model that accounts for the 18 heterogeneous flow and transport conditions in the presence of multiple leakage wells. The 19 second ROM was obtained from numerical models that feature greatly simplified flow and 20 transport conditions, but allow for a more complex representation of all relevant geochemical 21 reactions. Clearly, neither ROM can separately provide an accurate prediction of the risk profile, 22 because of the simplifications inherent in these models. The proposed LFSM provides an

alternative approach that allows linking the outputs from two separate ROMs to calculate reliable
predictions of the volume of aquifer impacted by leakage of CO₂/brine from CO₂ geological
storage formations. This paper intends to describe the mathematical basis of the linking function
approach and test its application to a relatively simple hypothetical case study. The application of
LFSM, with chemical scaling function being a particular case, for the evaluation of risk of CO₂
site on shallow groundwater is given in Carroll et al. (2014).

7 2 Method

8 2.1 Assumptions and formulations

9 We consider a deterministic high-fidelity model (HFM) calculating a scalar output $Y_{HFM} = f(\mathbf{x}_{HFM})$ for a set of input parameters $\mathbf{x}_{HFM} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$. We assume that the physical 10 11 system considered by the HFM can also be simulated with lower-fidelity models (LFMs), each 12 of which representing a simplification of the HFM. Differently from previous works (Kennedy 13 and O'Hagan, 2000; Quian et al., 2006 and 2008; Huang et al., 2006; Goh et al., 2012), we do 14 not require a priori ranking of the lower-fidelity models in terms of fidelity, nor do we assume a 15 hierarchical framework. We only assume that the HFM is more computationally demanding than 16 the LFMs because it takes into account a larger number of parameters and processes describing 17 the physical system. On the other hand, the lower-fidelity models provide only a partial 18 representation of the complexity of the system, but their execution times are shorter than the 19 HFM. Different approaches can be taken for simplifying the HFM. For example, the lower-20 fidelity models may have a coarser spatial discretization of the model domain with respect to the 21 HFM, or a lower dimensional representation (i.e., two-dimensional instead of three-

1 dimensional). In other cases, the lower-fidelity models may be less accurate because they do not 2 consider heterogeneity, or because some of the physical or chemical processes that are simulated 3 by the HFM are not taken into account. Furthermore, simplifying assumptions about the 4 conceptual model of the physical system may be made, allowing the use of analytical solutions in 5 the lower-fidelity models rather than complex numerical solutions provided by the HFM. 6 By defining the lower-fidelity as simplifications of the HFM, we made the fundamental 7 assumption that the HFM and the lower-fidelity models share some basic features and therefore 8 are correlated in some way (Kennedy and O'Hagan, 2000). With this assumption, we can 9 identify the input parameters of the lower-fidelity models as subsets of the set of input 10 parameters of the HFM (x_{HFM}). For the case with two lower-fidelity models, we can then write the output from the first lower-fidelity model (LFM-1) as $Y_{LFM-1} = f(\mathbf{x}_{LFM-1})$, where \mathbf{x}_{LFM-1} is a 11 12 subset of x_{HFM} , and the output from the second lower-fidelity model (LFM-2) as $Y_{LFM-2} = f(\mathbf{x}_{LFM-2})$, where \mathbf{x}_{LFM-2} is another subset. We propose that the relationship between the 13 outputs from the HFM and from the two lower-fidelity models can be represented by a 14 15 mathematical function, and therefore the output from the HFM can then be written as: 16

$$Y_{HFM} = g(Y_{LFM-1}, Y_{LFM-2}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) + \varepsilon$$
⁽¹⁾

17

18 where *g* is a mathematical function, hereafter referred to as the "*linking function*", β is a vector of 19 unknown parameters of the linking function, and ε is a regression error term. Equation (1) is the 20 core of the LFSM approach. The linking function represents a surrogate model that "links" 21 outputs from models with different levels of fidelity, and formally addresses their discrepancies.

So far, we considered a case with only three levels of fidelity (HFM, LFM-1 and LFM-2).

2 However, we can easily extend our approach to multiple levels of fidelity. Suppose the HFM can 3 be simplified with a number k of lower-fidelity models Y_{LFM-i} (i = 1, ..., k), each sharing some of 4 the input parameters and simulated processes of the high-fidelity model. Extending Equation (1) 5 to such a case, the output from the HFM can then be defined as follows:

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$$Y_{HFM} = g(Y_{LFM-i}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) + \varepsilon \quad (i = 1, ..., k)$$
⁽²⁾

7

8 A special case is when only two levels of fidelity are considered (i.e., HFM and LFM-1). In this 9 case, the proposed methodology can be seen as similar to another surrogate modeling approach, 10 known as Space Mapping (Bandler et al., 1994, Robinson et al. 2006, 2008).

11 2.2 Shape of the linking function

12 The linking function can assume different forms, which must be defined on a case-by-case 13 basis. In very simple cases, the shape of the linking function might be obvious and be defined on 14 the basis of the physics of the problem. However, for more complex problems where there is no 15 obvious relationship, an empirical relationship must be adopted. In these situations, the 16 implementation of the linking function is analogous to the development of a response surface 17 representing the relationship between lower-fidelity models outputs and the correspondent 18 outputs from the high-fidelity model. In the field of response surface surrogate modeling, 19 different mathematical approaches have been applied to approximate the relationships between 20 input parameters, also known as explanatory variables, and the original model output. The most popular approaches include polynomials, kriging, artificial neural networks, radial basis 21

functions, and multivariate adaptive regression splines. The same mathematical functions can be
used as linking functions, and we refer to several comparative studies (e.g., *Giunta et al.*, 1998; *Simpson et al.*, 2001; *Stander et al.*, 2004; *Fang et al.*, 2005; *Forsberg and Nilsson*, 2005; *Wang and Shan*, 2007; *Zhao and Xue*, 2010; *Razavi et al.*, 2012b) for the details of each method and
discussions on their advantages and disadvantages.
In this work we focus on polynomials, which can be very flexible and take a wide variety of
functional forms. Assuming the linking function g in Equation (2) is a polynomial of degree n,

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then it can be written as:

$$g(Y_{LFM-i}, \mathbf{\beta}) = \beta_0 + \sum_i \beta_i Y_{LMF-i} + \sum_i \sum_{j>i} \beta_{ij} Y_{LFM-i} Y_{LFM-j} + \sum_i \beta_{ii} Y_{LFM-i}^2 + \sum_i \sum_{j>i} \sum_{k>j} \beta_{ijk} Y_{LFM-i} Y_{LFM-j} Y_{LFM-k} + \dots + \sum_i \beta_{ii\dots i} Y_{LFM-i}^n$$
(3)

10

The coefficients β of the polynomial are determined through the least-squares solution of the equation $\mathbf{G}\beta = \mathbf{Y}_{HFM}$, where \mathbf{G} is a matrix operator, and \mathbf{Y}_{HFM} is a vector of outputs determined from a number *m* of runs of the HFM (see Section 2.3). The maximum likelihood estimates of the coefficients are then defined as $\beta = (\mathbf{G}^{T}\mathbf{G})^{-1}\mathbf{G}^{T}\mathbf{Y}_{HFM}$. If we consider for simplicity three levels of fidelity – one high-fidelity model and two lower-fidelity models (LFM-1 and LFM-2) – and we assume that the linking function can be written in the form of a 2nd order polynomial (*n* = 2), the matrix operator \mathbf{G} is defined as:

$$\boldsymbol{G} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & Y_{\text{LFM}-1_{1}} & Y_{\text{LFM}-2_{1}} & Y_{\text{LFM}-1_{1}}Y_{\text{LFM}-2_{1}} & Y_{\text{LFM}-1_{1}}^{2} & Y_{\text{LFM}-2_{1}}^{2} \\ 1 & Y_{\text{LFM}-1_{2}} & Y_{\text{LFM}-2_{2}} & Y_{\text{LFM}-2_{2}} & Y_{\text{LFM}-2_{2}}^{2} & Y_{\text{LFM}-2_{2}}^{2} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 1 & Y_{\text{LFM}-1_{m}} & Y_{\text{LFM}-2_{m}} & Y_{\text{LFM}-1_{m}}Y_{\text{LFM}-2_{m}} & Y_{\text{LFM}-1_{m}}^{2} & Y_{\text{LFM}-2_{m}}^{2} \end{bmatrix}$$
(4)

1

where Y_{LFM-1_t} and Y_{LFM-2_t} , with t = (1, ..., m), are the outputs from the t^{th} -run of the first and 2 second lower-fidelity model, respectively. Since the n^{th} -order polynomial approximation of a 3 4 certain function can be seen as a Taylor Series expansion of the function truncated after n+15 terms (Box and Draper, 1987), higher-order polynomials (more expansion terms) can provide a 6 more accurate approximation. However, since the number of input parameters is usually large in 7 most of the engineering and environmental applications, the use of higher-order polynomials (n > n)8 2) as response surface surrogates is often infeasible [Forrester et al, 2007; Razavi et al., 2012a]. 9 This is because the minimum number of runs (m_{min}) required for the estimation of the 10 coefficients β , which is a function of both the number of parameters and the order *n*, may 11 become prohibitively large for high-dimensional problems. For a D-dimensional parameter input 12 space, m_{min} is given by:

13

$$m_{min} = \frac{(n+D)!}{n!D!} \tag{5}$$

14

For instance, at least 1001 runs of the original model are required to estimate the coefficients of a 4th-order polynomial for a system with ten explanatory variables (D = 10). The issue of dimensionality is not expected to be a factor in the application of polynomials as linking

1 functions. This is because the number of possible lower-fidelity models, which in the proposed 2 LFSM framework represents the variable D in Equation (5), is expected to be much lower than 3 the number of input parameters of the original HFM. For this reason, with respect to the 4 application of polynomials, the LFSM approach has two immediate advantages over traditional 5 response surface modeling approach. The first is that fewer HFM runs are required for estimating 6 the coefficients of the polynomial. The second advantage is that polynomial linking functions of 7 higher order, which may provide a better representation of the relationship between the models 8 outputs, can be adopted with a relatively small number of additional runs of the HFM. In the case 9 of a system with three levels of fidelity, for example, only 9 additional runs are necessary to develop a 4th order polynomial linking function instead of a 2nd order polynomial. Nevertheless, 10 11 we emphasize the use of standard model selection criteria used in regression analysis (e.g., 12 Akaike, 1973; Schwarz, 1978), to avoid the problem of over fitting or the risk of developing an 13 excessively complex model that may yield a poor generalization.

14 2.3 Overview of the procedure

15 The following steps represent a guide through the implementation of the proposed LFSM 16 approach for a general case study. A schematization of the procedure for three models with 17 different levels of fidelity is shown in Figure 1.

Step 1. Implement the high-fidelity model (HFM) that provides the most realistic
representation of the system of interest by taking into account the highest number of processes
and parameters controlling the system.

Step 2. Identify strategies to simplify the HFM, and apply them to the implementation of the
lower-fidelity models (*LFM-i*). Different approaches may be taken for the simplification of the

1	HFM such as simplification of the conceptual model, coarsening of the spatial or temporal
2	discretization, parameter upscaling, and exclusion of certain physical or chemical processes.
3	However, it is important that the HFM and the LFM- <i>i</i> are somehow correlated, meaning that
4	input parameters of the lower-fidelity models correspond to subsets of the input parameters of
5	the HFM. If, for instance, x_i ($i = 1,, n$) is the set of <i>n</i> -input parameters of the HFM, then the
6	subset x_j ($j = r,, p$), where $r \ge 1$ and $p < n$, may represent the input parameters of the lower-
7	fidelity model LFM-1. If a second lower-fidelity model LFM-2 is implemented, which may take
8	into account the processes and parameters omitted in LFM-1, then its input parameters are
9	defined in another subset x_k ($k = s,, n$). If $s < p$, as shown in Figure 1, then the LFM-2 model
10	shares some of the input parameters with both the HFM and the LFM-1. However, the LFSM
11	approach can also be applied when $s \ge p$.

12 Step 3. Generate a sample *m* of input parameters for the HFM. From the generated input 13 parameters sets, extract the subsets corresponding to each LFM-i. Sample generation should be 14 made according to one of the design of experiments (DoE) methods to minimize the number of 15 HFM model evaluations, while maximizing our understanding of the model behavior. There is a 16 large variety of space-filling DoE strategies in the literature, including fractional factorial 17 sampling, Latin hypercube sampling, and different strategies based on sequences of quasi-18 random numbers. Details on DoE methods can be found, for example, in Saltelli et al. [2008]. 19 Step 4. Perform *m* runs of the HFM and the LFM-*i* models with the generated samples of input parameters to calculate the vectors of outputs $Y_{HFM} = (Y_{HFM,1}, \dots, Y_{HFM,m})$ and 20 $Y_{LFM-i} = (Y_{LFM-i,1}, \dots, Y_{LFM-i,m})$, for each of the implemented models. 21

1 Step 5. Use the generated numerical data Y_{HFM} and Y_{LFM-i} to identify a mathematical 2 function (i.e., the linking function), representing the best match between outputs from the 3 different models. In practice, this step consists of a regression analysis in which Y_{HFM} is the 4 dependent variable and the outputs from the lower-fidelity models Y_{LFM-i} are the independent 5 variables. The shape and the coefficients of the linking function can be estimated with the least-6 square-regression method or other methods (see Section 2.2). Once the linking function has been 7 identified, the linking function surrogate model can be used to emulate the output from the HFM 8 by: 1) running the lower-fidelity models with a set of parameters of interest; 2) use lower-fidelity 9 responses as inputs in the linking function and approximate the response of the HFM.

10 Before illustrating the proposed method with a numerical example, we provide a few more 11 comments on the proposed approach. The application of a linking function model can be very 12 advantageous especially for certain types of numerical investigations, such as engineering design 13 optimization or global sensitivity analysis, which require multiple runs of a potentially slow and 14 numerically unstable HFM. By addressing the discrepancies between the HFM and the lower-15 fidelity models, the linking function can retain the level of realism and detailed information 16 associated with the HFM, while at the same time avoiding the long computational times usually associated with running such models. However, an important factor to consider is the numerical 17 18 efficiency of the lower-fidelity models. It is obvious that the LFSM approach is attractive only if 19 the sum of execution times of the lower-fidelity models is appreciably lower than the time 20 required for running the HFM. In this regard, it is noteworthy that with our approach the lower-21 fidelity models can be substituted by other types of surrogate models such as previously 22 developed response surface models or ROMs. With more computational effort, response surface

1 surrogates of the physically-based lower-fidelity models can even be developed at the same time 2 as the linking function. This will translate to an even faster emulation of the HFM response. 3 The LFSM approach is based on the assumption that there is a correlation, represented by 4 the linking function, between the outputs from the lower-fidelity models and those from the 5 HFM. Clearly, if the goodness-of-fit of the linking function is poor, or is acceptable only in 6 selected sectors of the input parameter space, the emulated outputs will not be accurate. Finding 7 an accurate linking function may become an issue when model outputs for a given set of input 8 parameters are very different from the outputs for a slightly different set. To some extent, this 9 issue can be solved by changing the strategy used for simplifying the HFM because it may be the 10 result of the oversimplification of the HFM, which causes the development of lower-fidelity 11 models that are not sufficiently representative of the system of interest. However, increasing the 12 level of fidelity of the lower-fidelity models may have the effect of increasing their execution 13 times, which inevitably reduces the computational efficiency of the approach. 14 Although the development of the linking function requires some computational cost, given 15 by the time to collect the necessary data from the model runs, this cost is expected to be less than 16 that required for the development of a response surface surrogate for the same system of interest. 17 This is because the number of HFM runs required for the development of a robust response

18 surface is a function of the number of input parameters. Conversely, the number of HFM runs

19 required for developing a robust linking function depends on the number of lower-fidelity

20 models considered, which will always be less than the number of input parameters in the HFM.

21 The limitation of the number of HFM runs provides another advantage. It allows the HFM to

consider a higher level of complexity than would be feasible in the development of a response
 surface model.

3	3 Example of application to CO ₂ storage risk assessment
4	The LFSM approach was employed to build the reduced order models (ROM) that predict
5	the impact of a hypothetical CO_2 and brine leakage on groundwater quality in an hypothetical
6	aquifer with hydrological and hydrochemical properties similar to those of the High Plains
7	aquifer (USA). To define the impact of leakage on groundwater quality, we performed numerical
8	simulation of multiphase flow and reactive transport to estimate concentrations of certain
9	chemical species. The impact of leakage was then measured by calculating the following metrics:
10	- Volume of aquifer reaching $pH < 6.5$;
11	- Volume of aquifer reaching $TDS > 500 \text{ mg/L}$.
12	- Volume of aquifer reaching concentrations of $As > 1.33 \times 10^{-7}$ mol/kg;
13	- Volume of aquifer reaching concentrations of $Cd > 4.05 \times 10^{-8} \text{ mol/kg};$
14	- Volume of aquifer reaching concentrations of $Pb > 7.24 \times 10^{-8} \text{ mol/kg};$
15	Statistical analyses were conducted on the groundwater concentration data collected in a
16	2010 U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) groundwater survey of 30 wells within the High Plains
17	aquifer and thresholds for eastimating the volume of impacted aquifer (e.g. 1.33×10^{-7} mol/kg for
18	As) were calculated as the 95%-confidence, 95%-coverage tolerance from the data.
19	3.1 Problem statement and hydrogeological setting
20	We consider a first strategies of an experiment of a first strategies of the strategies of the strategies of the

We consider a two-dimensional cross-section of a hypothetical aquifer of length equal to
10,000 m and thickness equal to 240 m. The lithological characterization of the aquifer is based

1 on the lithological descriptions of 48 wells located in Haskell County, in South West Kansas. 2 The source of these data is the Water Well Completion Records (WWC5) Database (Kansas 3 Geological Survey, 2012). Lithological descriptions of the well logs include different types of 4 unconsolidated sediments with a highly heterogeneous granulometric distribution, typical of a 5 fluvial depositional environment. For simplicity, the original lithological descriptions were 6 classified into two hydrostratigraphic units on the basis of grain size (coarse/fine) and 7 permeability (high/low). The lithologies included in each of these units are provided in Table 1. 8 The aquifer is assumed to be confined, and the mean groundwater flow is from east to west with 9 a hydraulic gradient of 0.003. Aquifer thickness is uniform and equal to 240 m, which 10 corresponds to the average thickness of the High Plain Aquifer in Heskell County. 11 The distribution of the two hydrostratigraphic units was simulated with the T-PROGS 12 approach (Carle and Fogg, 1996 and 1997; Carle et al., 1998; Carle, 1999) based on the 13 transition probabilities between different categories and on a single Markov Chain equation in 14 each direction. Transition probabilities are defined as the probability that a certain category *i* 15 occurs at the location \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{h} conditioned to the occurrence of another category *i* at the location \mathbf{u} . 16 Here **u** and **h** are a location and a movement vector, respectively. One advantage of this 17 methodology is the increased realism of the simulations, making it thereby possible to account 18 for observable geological features such as mean lengths and juxtapositional tendencies. T-19 PROGS simulations of the aquifer heterogeneity were conducted with mean lengths and 20 volumetric proportions for the two different hydrostratigraphic estimated from the analysis of 21 their spatial distributions in the 48 wells. Values for these two parameters are given in Table 1. 22 The spatial distribution of the two hydrostratigraphic units corresponds to one unconditional

realization of the T-PROGS geostatistical model. The interpolation grid is composed of
rectangular cells with constant dimensions equal to 100 m and 5 m in the x-direction and zdirection, respectively (Figure 2). In the implementation of the multiphase and transport models
described in the next sections, different hydrological parameters (i.e., permeability, porosity,
etc.) were assigned to each unit.

6 Leakage of CO₂ and brine from a wellbore is simulated by assuming a point source at the 7 point of coordinates (2200 m, -190 m) and a duration of 200 years with variable leakage rates. 8 The maximum values of these leakage rates are plotted as a function of simulation time in Figure 9 3. These rates represent a hypothetical leakage pathway related to a deep leaky well connecting a 10 deep geologic reservoir for CO₂ storage with a shallow groundwater resource. We assumed that 11 leakage is driven by reservoir over pressure and CO₂ and brine saturations. These parameters 12 were used as input in a wellbore leakage model based on multiphase and non-isothermal flow 13 simulations (Jordan et al., 2013) to calculate the flux into the aquifer and the leakage rate over 14 time. The CO₂ rates sharply increase during the initial 5 years and then oscillate, with variations 15 ranging from 0.039 kg/s to 0.046 kg/s. The brine leakage rates are more stable, with very little 16 variation around an average of 0.012 kg/s.

17 3.2 High and lower fidelity models

Leakage of CO₂ and brine in the hypothetical aquifer was modelled with a 2-D high fidelity
model (HFM) considering a comprehensive set physical and chemical factors, as well as with
two lower-fidelity models (LFM-1 and LFM2), which take into account only some of the

parameters and processes considered by the HFM. For all models, multiphase flow and reactive
 transport were simulated with the finite-volume code TOUGHREACT 2.0 (Xu et al., 2011).

3 The first lower fidelity model (LFM-1) is a simple model considering 1-D flow parallel to 4 the average flow direction in the hypothetical aquifer. The simulation domain is10,000 m in X 5 direction which is discretized into 1000 grid blocks and 1 m in Y and Z direction without 6 discretization. The aquifer is considered homogenous, and a hydraulic gradient equal to 0.003 is 7 applied by fixing the pressure at grid blocks on the left and right boundaries. Chemical reactions 8 are considered in the model including aqueous complexation, mineral dissolution/precipitation, 9 cation exchange and adsorption/desorption via surface complexation. Details of these reactions 10 are given in Bianchi et al. (2013). In this model, the dissolution of calcite and surface protonation 11 reactions are the main pH buffering processes. Surface complexation reactions on goethite, illite, 12 kaolinite and smectite are the dominant reactions that control the release of As, Pb and Cd.

13 The second lower fidelity (LFM-2) model simulates 2-D flow and solute transport and 14 assumes a heterogeneous distribution of permeability in the hypothetical aquifer (Figure 2). The simulation domain is 10,000 m in X direction, 240 m in Z direction and 1000 m in Y direction. 15 16 However, the domain is discretized only in the X and Z directions Unlike LFM-1, LFM-2 does 17 not consider chemical processes i.e. the chemical species are treated as conservative species. 18 Specified hydraulic head boundary conditions were imposed at the left and right boundaries, 19 while no-flow boundary conditions were applied at the top and bottom of the domain. A 20 preliminary gravity equilibration run, without CO₂ and brine injection, was run long enough to 21 establish quasi-steady-state initial conditions, for the CO₂ and brine leakage simulations. These 22 were conducted at constant temperature (17°C). Simulated plumes for the considered chemical

1 species are shown in Figures 4. These results are representative of a base-case run used to 2 understand the system behavior and to manually test the sensitivity of the model to the different 3 input parameters. Input parameters for this base-case scenario are presented in Table 2. After 200 4 years of continuous release of brine and CO₂ from the leakage point, the area with lowered pH 5 values and the plumes of three considered metals (As, Pb, and Cd) moved about 7 km 6 downgradient. As expected, the major role in determining the shape of these plumes is played by 7 the heterogeneous distribution of the two hydrostratigraphic units, with the plume following 8 preferential flow paths according to the distribution of the highest permeable unit.

9 The high fidelity model (HFM) considers multi-phase flow and transport in a heterogeneous 10 system and geochemical reactions. The model setup, hydrogeological parameterization, and 11 leakage functions of CO₂ and brine are the same as in the lower-fidelity model LFM-2. The 12 HFM also incorporates all the chemical reactions considered by LFM-1. Because of its 13 complexity, this HFM is expected to provide the most accurate representation of the natural 14 system, taking into account uncertainties in flow, transport, and chemical processes. Figure 5 15 shows the plumes of pH, As, Pb, and Cd for a base-case simulation similar to that considered for 16 LFM-1 and LFM-2.

17 3.3 Development of the linking function surrogate model and results

Multiple runs of the HFM and of the two lower-fidelity models LFM-1 and LFM-2 were
performed to collect the data required for developing the linking function. Initially, 450 sample
points in the HFM parameter space were generated using a quasi-random sequence algorithm
(LPτ, Sobol et al. 1992). Correspondent input parameters for the lower-fidelity models were

then extracted from the generated sets, according to the previously described procedure. Details
 on the considered input parameters and on their ranges are presented in Table 3.

3 For each set of input parameters, we ran the HFM and the two lower-fidelity models to 4 estimate three different predictions (i.e., one from each model) of the impact of CO2 and brine 5 leakage for 20 simulated time periods (one every 10 years up to 200 years). At the end of these 6 numerical simulations, three vectors of output values were estimated and used in the least-7 squares regression analysis to estimate the coefficients of the polynomial representing the linking 8 function between the HFM and LFM-1 and LFM-2 (Equation 3). For all the output variables and 9 for all the simulation times, a second order polynomial was found to provide a sufficiently 10 accurate match between the simple and complex model outputs. An example of the shape of this 11 polynomial function is shown in Figure 6. The goodness of fit for the developed linking functions was analyzed by calculating the coefficient of determination (R^2) . Taking into account 12 all the linking functions, the calculated R^2 values are between 0.635 and 0.998, with the majority 13 of values higher than 0.800. A better accuracy in terms of R^2 values can be obviously obtained 14 15 by augmenting the order of the polynomial linking functions, but this can also increase the risk 16 of overfitting and, consequentially, compromise the predictability power of the developed LFSM. In general the highest R^2 values, indicating higher accuracy, are calculated for the linking 17 functions that predict the volume of TDS > 500 mg/l (R^2 between 0.970 and 0.987). For the 18 linking functions considering pH, the R² values ranges between 0.822 and 0.944. Relatively less 19 20 accuracy is associated with the linking functions for estimating the volume of aquifer 21 contaminated with As (R² between 0.911 and 0.723), Pb (0.725 - 0.638) and Cd (0.753 -0.635)We also built scatter plots of the responses estimated with the linking function and those 22

of the complex model (Figure 7). In general, the cloud of points is distributed along a y = x line,
 showing the accuracy of the fitting. The highest accuracy is for smaller simulations times.

3 3.4 Application of the linking function surrogate models in NRAP

4 The development of ROMs generally relies on conducting a number of high-fidelity 5 numerical simulations that consider all relevant flow, transport, and chemical processes that 6 could potentially have an impact on CO₂ and brine leakage into groundwater. These high-fidelity 7 simulations are then used to "train" simpler ROMs (e.g., look-up tables, functional relationships) 8 that sufficiently represent their outputs for a wide range of uncertain input parameters. To 9 overcome the problem of running a very complex and extremely computationally demanding 10 model considering all the parameters and processes that are relevant to brine and CO_2 leakage in 11 shallow aquifers, within NRAP we make an attempt to represent the complex hydrogeological 12 and geochemical conditions in a heterogeneous aquifer by using two separate lower-fidelity 13 models. The outputs from these lower-fidelity models are then used as input for the linking 14 functions developed in this work. In particular, one lower-fidelity model is represented by a 15 ROM that estimates the volume impacted by CO₂ and brine leakage by taking into account 16 heterogeneous flow and transport conditions in the presence of multiple leakage wells. This 17 ROM, developed by Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory (Carroll, et al., 2013) and referred 18 to as hydrological ROM, considers uncertainties related to flow, transport, and leakage 19 parameters, but it has a simplified representation of the chemical reactions induced by leakage. 20 Complex chemical reactions are instead considered in detail by a second ROM, which, on the 21 other hand, does not include parameters for a more accurate representation of the hydrological 22 complexity. In particular, the input parameters of this ROM do not include properties defining

1 aquifer heterogeneity. This ROM which was developed by Lawrence Berkeley National 2 Laboratory, and is here referred to as geochemical ROM, allows to define uncertainties related to 3 chemical parameters and reactions. In the context of the previously described linking function 4 development, the geochemical ROM is comparable to the lower-fidelity model LFM-1, while the 5 hydrological ROM is comparable to the lower- fidelity model LFM-2. Moreover, the similarity 6 between the two previously described lower fidelity models and the two ROMs is also 7 determined by the fact that all models were developed on the basis of physical and chemical 8 parameters values that are consistent with the characteristics of the High Plains Aquifer (Becker 9 et al., 2002).

10 Clearly, neither the hydrological ROM nor the geochemical ROM can separately provide an accurate prediction of the risk profile, because of the simplifications inherent in these models. 11 12 Therefore, we used the developed LFSM to link the outputs from the two ROMs as described in 13 the workflow shown in Figure 8. In practice, once the outputs from the hydrological and 14 geochemical ROMs for a particular objective variable (e.g., TDS, pH, As, Cd, or Pb) and 15 simulation time are obtained, these are directly used as input in the corresponding linking 16 functions to estimate the final volume of aquifer impacted by CO_2 and brine leakage. This final 17 volume is expected to represent a reasonable approximation of the output from a time consuming 18 and computationally expensive computer model. In theory, a complex 3-D model should be 19 ideally implemented and run multiple times to estimate the HFM outputs for the development of 20 the linking functions to link the outputs from the two ROMs (Figure 1). However, due to the 21 complexity of the systems considered in NRAP, the development of such high-fidelity numerical 22 model that incorporates 3-D heterogeneous flow and reactive transport is very challenging and

too computationally demanding with the currently available numerical codes. Therefore, for now, we have made the assumption that the linking functions developed to emulate the outputs from a complex 2-D model can be extrapolated in 3-D and provide reliable estimates of impacted aquifer volumes. However, once computational power will be available, future research should dedicate to test the reliability of the 2-D assumption by comparing the outputs from the developed LFSMs with the corresponding outputs from a complex 3-D model.

7 4 Conclusions

8 We present a new surrogate modeling approach, named Linking Function Surrogate 9 Modeling (LFSM), which is based on the simplification of a computationally expensive high-10 fidelity model into computationally less expensive and simpler models, followed by the 11 development of a mathematical function that links their outputsto emulate the output from the 12 high-fidelity model.. When the sum of execution times of the lower-fidelity models is less than 13 the execution time of the high-fidelity model, this approach can significantly reduce the 14 computational cost without jeopardizing the accuracy of the results. In comparison with other 15 surrogate modeling methods, the main advantage of the proposed approach is that it can manage 16 problems where the number of input parameters of lower-fidelity models is different from that in 17 the high-fidelity model.

18 The proposed approach was applied to the development of reduced order models that 19 estimate the impact of CO_2 and brine leakage on groundwater quality in a heterogeneous shallow 20 aquifer. A computationally expensive high-fidelity multiphase flow and reactive transport model 21 (HFM) was simplified into two lower-fidelity models, LFM-1 and LFM-2, each taking into

1 account a subset of the processes simulated in the HFM. In particular, LFM-1 is a simple 1-D 2 model with homogenous flow field, but it takes into account several chemical reactions. On the 3 other hand LFM-2 is 2-D model considering aquifer heterogeneity but no reactions. We showed 4 that outputs from the HFM can be emulated with satisfactory accuracy with the proposed linking 5 function surrogate modelling approach. For all the model responses considered, the linking functions are represented by 2nd order polynomials. These functions were developed with a 6 7 limited computational cost through a least-squares regression analysis in which the outputs from 8 the LFM-1 and LFM-2 are used as independent variables to fit the outputs from HFM. 9 Within NRAP, the developed linking functions are applied to link the output from two 10 ROMs. These two ROMs are in fact similar in terms of input parameters and considered 11 processes to the lower-fidelity models LFM-1 and LFM-2 used for the testing the proposed 12 linking function approach. The first ROM (hydrological ROM) was in fact derived from a low-13 fidelity model that accounts for the heterogeneous flow and transport conditions in the presence 14 of multiple leakage wells, which considered uncertainties related to flow, transport, and leakage 15 parameters, but has a simplified representation of chemical reactions. The second ROM 16 (geochemical ROM) was obtained from models that feature greatly simplified flow and transport conditions, but allow for a more complex representation of relevant geochemical reactions. This 17 18 ROM deals with uncertainties related to chemical parameters and reactions. The proposed 19 linking function approach allows to combine the outputs from these two ROMs to provide 20 estimations of of ivolume of aquifer impacted by CO₂ and brine leakagewithout the need of 21 performing multiple evaluations of a complex and computationally infeasible high-fidelity 22 model.

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1 Tables

3 Table 1: Lithologies associated with the hydrostratigraphic units of the test case.

Hydrostratigraphic unit	Lithologies	Mean length (horizontal direction)	Mean length (vertical direction)	Volumetric proportion
Unit 1	Sand, coarse sand, medium sand, sand with gravel, gravel with sand, medium gravel, gravel, coarse gravel	717.7 m	8.3 m	0.60
Unit 2	Fine sand, very fine sand, silty sand, silt, silty clay, shale, sandstone, caliche, gypsum rock, clay, limestone.	478.5 m	5.6 m	0.40

1 Table 2: Input parameters for the LFM-2 base case run

Parameter	Base case value
Porosity (unit 1)	0.250
Porosity (unit 2)	0.330
Rock density (unit 1)	2400 kg/m^3
Rock density (unit 2)	2400 kg/m^3
Permeability (unit 1)	$3.162 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2$
Permeability (unit 2)	$3.162 \times 10^{-17} \text{ m}^2$
Van Genuchten parameter m (unit 1)	0.655
Van Genuchten parameter m (unit 2)	0.190
Van Genuchten parameter alpha (unit 1)	$5.62 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^{-1}$
Van Genuchten parameter alpha (unit 2)	$1.51 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^{-1}$

1 Table 3: Input parameters ranges for the development of the linking functions for the test case

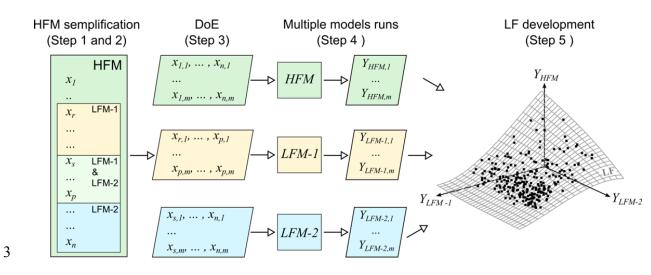
Parameter	Range (min – max)	Model
Porosity (unit 1)	0.25 - 0.50	HFM, LFM-2
Porosity (unit 2)	0.33 - 0.60	HFM, LFM-2
Rock density (unit 1)	2400 - 2800 kg/m ³	HFM, LFM-2
Rock density (unit 2)	2400 - 2800 kg/m ³	HFM, LFM-2
Permeability (unit 1)	$-13.510.5* \log(m^2)$	HFM, LFM-2
Permeability (unit 2)	$-15.018.0 * \log(m^2)$	HFM, LFM-2
Van Genuchten parameter m (unit 1)	0.52 - 0.79	HFM, LFM-2
Van Genuchten parameter m (unit 2)	0.06 - 0.32	HFM, LFM-2
Van Genuchten parameter alpha (unit 1)	$-4.693.81 * \log(m^{-1})$	HFM, LFM-2
Van Genuchten parameter alpha (unit 2)	$-5.504.14* \log(m^{-1})$	HFM, LFM-2
CO_2 leakage rate scaling parameter ¹	0.1 - 1.0	HFM, LFM-2
Brine leakage rate scaling parameter ²	0.1 - 1.0	HFM, LFM-2
Chloride concentration in brine	$-2.0 - 1.0* \log(mol/L)$	HFM, LFM-1
Arsenic concentration in brine	$-9.05.0* \log(mol/L)$	HFM, LFM-1
Calcite initial volume fraction	0-0.2	HFM, LFM-1
Sorption scaling parameter ³	-2.0-2.0*	HFM, LFM-1

2

- 3 *indicates \log_{10} values.
- 4 ¹this factor was applied to the maximum CO₂ leakage rate
- 5 ²this factor was applied to the maximum brine leakage rate
- 6 ³this factor was applied to the adsorption capacity of different mineral phases.

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1 List of Figures



5 Figure 1. Linking function surrogate modeling (LFSM) framework.

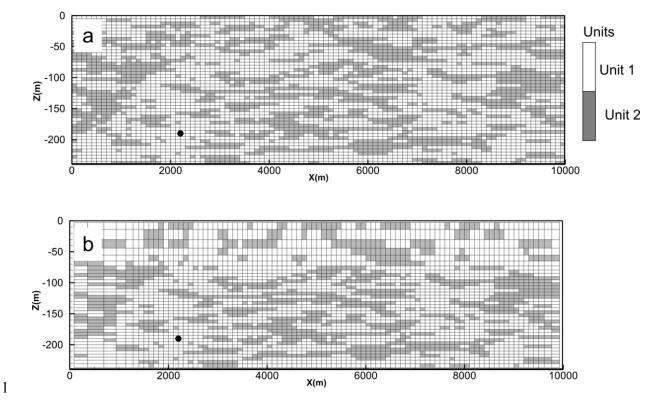
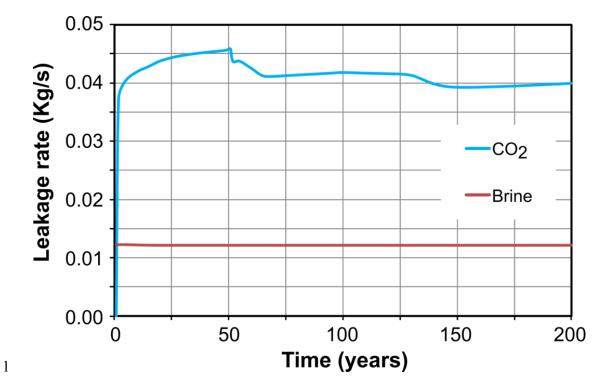


Figure 2: Heterogeneous distribution of two hydrostratigraphic units generated with T-PROGS
(a). Numerical model mesh used for the TOUGHREACT simulations (b). The black circle
indicates the location of the CO₂ and brine leakage point.



2 Figure 3: CO_2 and brine leakage rates over time.

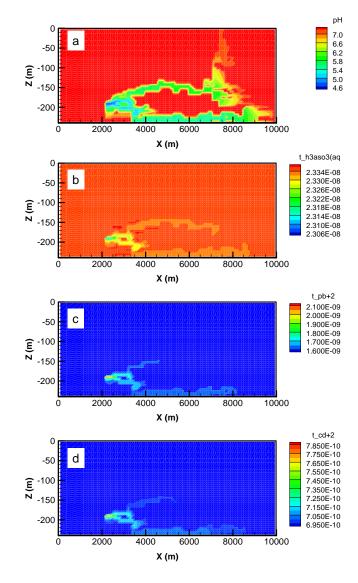


Figure 4: Results of the LFM-2 base-case simulation after 200 years of continuous leakage
(unreactive transport). pH distribution (a), AsO₃ concentration (b), Pb²⁺ concentration (c), Cd²⁺
concentration (d).

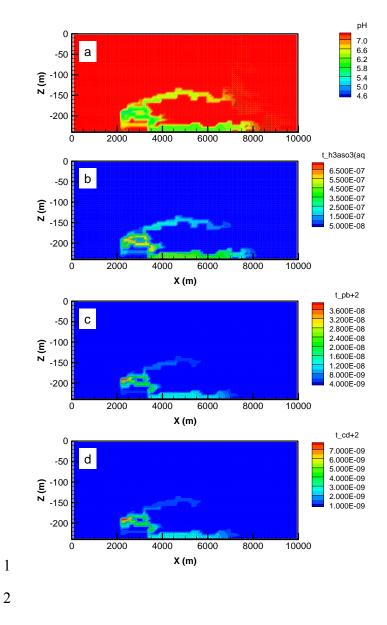


Figure 5: Results of the HFM base-case simulation after 200 years of continuous leakage
(reactive transport). pH distribution (a), AsO₃ concentration (b), Pb²⁺ concentration (c), Cd²⁺
concentration (d).

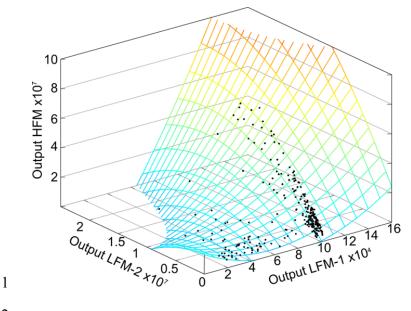


Figure 6. Second order polynomial linking function for estimating the volume of pH < 6.5 (m³)
after 180 days of leakage. Points represent the calculated responses from the two lower fidelity
models (LFM-1 and LFM-2) and those from the high fidelity model (HFM).

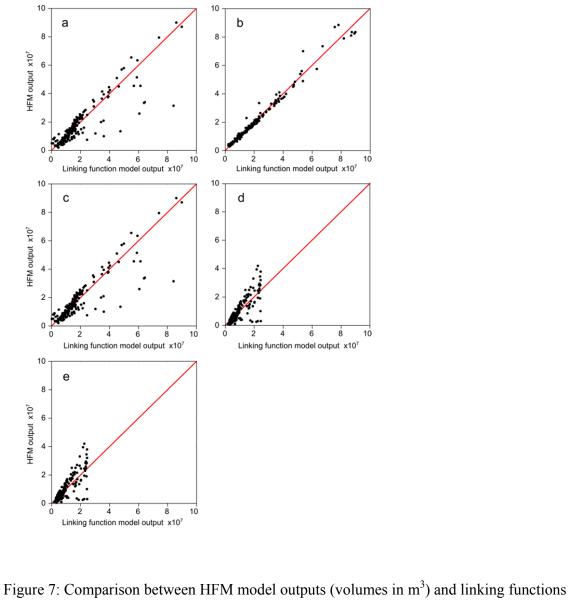


Figure 7: Comparison between HFM model outputs (volumes in m³) and linking functions responses. Simulation time is 200 years. (a) pH ($R^2 = 0.822$); (b) TDS($R^2 = 0.987$); (c) As ($R^2 = 0.723$); Pb ($R^2 = 0.638$); Cd ($R^2 = 0.635$).

