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Title: Identifying seawater intrusion in coastal areas by means of 1D and quasi-2D joint inversion of TDEM and VES data

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Abstract: Seawater intrusion is an increasingly widespread problem in coastal aquifers caused by climate changes -sea-level rise, extreme phenomena like flooding and droughts- and groundwater depletion near to the coastline. To evaluate and mitigate the environmental risks of this phenomenon it is necessary to characterize the coastal aquifer and the salt intrusion. Geophysical methods are the most appropriate tool to address these researches. Among all geophysical techniques, electrical methods are able to detect seawater intrusions due to the high resistivity contrast between saltwater, freshwater and geological layers. The combination of two or more geophysical methods is recommended and they are more efficient when both data are inverted jointly because the final model encompasses the physical properties measured for each methods. In this investigation, joint inversion of vertical electric and time domain soundings has been performed to examine seawater intrusion in an area within the Ferragudo-Albufeira aquifer system (Algarve, South of Portugal). For this purpose two profiles combining electrical resistivity tomography (ERT) and time domain electromagnetic (TDEM) methods were measured and the results were compared with the information obtained from exploration drilling. Three different inversions have been carried out: single inversion of the ERT and TDEM data, 1D joint inversion and quasi-2D joint inversion. Single inversion results identify seawater intrusion, although the sedimentary layers detected in exploration drilling were not well differentiated. The models obtained with 1D joint inversion improve the previous inversion due to better detection of sedimentary layer and the seawater intrusion appear to be better defined. Finally, the quasi-2D joint inversion reveals a more realistic shape of the seawater intrusion and it is able to distinguish more sedimentary layers recognised in the exploration drilling. This study demonstrates that the quasi-2D joint inversion improves the previous inversions methods making it a powerful tool applicable to different research areas.

Response to Reviewers:

# Identifying seawater intrusion in coastal areas by means of 1D and quasi–2D joint inversion of TDEM and VES data

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## 1 ABSTRACT

2 Seawater intrusion is an increasingly widespread problem in coastal aquifers caused by climate  
3 changes –sea-level rise, extreme phenomena like flooding and droughts– and groundwater  
4 depletion near to the coastline. To evaluate and mitigate the environmental risks of this  
5 phenomenon it is necessary to characterize the coastal aquifer and the salt intrusion.  
6 Geophysical methods are the most appropriate tool to address these researches. Among all  
7 geophysical techniques, electrical methods are able to detect seawater intrusions due to the high  
8 resistivity contrast between saltwater, freshwater and geological layers. The combination of two  
9 or more geophysical methods is recommended and they are more efficient when both data are  
10 inverted jointly because the final model encompasses the physical properties measured for each  
11 methods. In this investigation, joint inversion of vertical electric and time domain soundings has  
12 been performed to examine seawater intrusion in an area within the Ferragudo-Albufeira aquifer  
13 system (Algarve, South of Portugal). For this purpose two profiles combining electrical  
14 resistivity tomography (ERT) and time domain electromagnetic (TDEM) methods were  
15 measured and the results were compared with the information obtained from exploration  
16 drilling. Three different inversions have been carried out: single inversion of the ERT and  
17 TDEM data, 1D joint inversion and quasi-2D joint inversion. Single inversion results identify  
18 seawater intrusion, although the sedimentary layers detected in exploration drilling were not

19 well differentiated. The models obtained with 1D joint inversion improve the previous inversion  
20 due to better detection of sedimentary layer and the seawater intrusion appear to be better  
21 defined. Finally, the quasi-2D joint inversion reveals a more realistic shape of the seawater  
22 intrusion and it is able to distinguish more sedimentary layers recognised in the exploration  
23 drilling. This study demonstrates that the quasi-2D joint inversion improves the previous  
24 inversions methods making it a powerful tool applicable to different research areas.

25 **Keywords:** coastal aquifers, seawater intrusion, joint inversion, lateral constrained,  
26 drilling exploration.

### 27 **Highlights**

- 28 - Seawater intrusion is an increasingly problem in coastal aquifers.
- 29 - Electrical and electromagnetic methods are combined to detect seawater intrusion.
- 30 - Traditional single data inversion detects such intrusion with uncertainties.
- 31 - 1D joint inversion improves the single data inversion and distinguish more layers.
- 32 - Quasi–2D inversion better defines geology and seawater intrusion.

## 33 **1. Introduction**

34 Coastal aquifers constitute the major water reservoir for freshwater supply in many  
35 countries, mainly in arid and semiarid zones (Bear *et al.*, 1999). However, freshwater  
36 belonging to these type of aquifers is susceptible to be degraded due to its proximity to  
37 seawater. Together with the high intensive water demands caused by higher population  
38 densities in coastal areas (Werner *et al.*, 2013), this can lead to the process known as  
39 ‘Seawater Intrusion’ (Werner and Gallagher, 2006). This phenomenon is defined as  
40 landward incursion of seawater caused by both natural and anthropogenic processes.  
41 Sea-level rise associated with climate changes –changes of atmospheric pressure,  
42 melting of ice sheets and glaciers, expansions of oceans and seas as they warm, etc.–  
43 (Sherif and Singh 1999) and anthropogenic influences such as groundwater depletion  
44 near to the coastal line or land uses changes, among others (Custodio, 1987) are the  
45 main causes of seawater intrusions and, therefore, reduction in the available freshwater  
46 storage volume and aquifer contamination.

47 Detecting seawater intrusion in local areas is the first stage for the problem  
48 remediation (Duque *et al.*, 2008; Nguyen *et al.*, 2009). Direct observation made into  
49 drill-holes allow to evaluate the seawater intrusion in an area (Calvache and Pulido-  
50 Bosch, 1994), however it depends on a suitable drilling holes distribution to obtain  
51 accurate results. Otherwise, this procedure only provides partial information about the  
52 seawater intrusion. Geophysical methods provide a more general approach to the  
53 problem (Abdul Nassir *et al.*, 2000) where electrical resistivity techniques are the most  
54 appropriate due to the high resistivity contrast between fresh and salt water (Khalil *et*  
55 *al.*, 2013; El-Kaliouby and Abdalla, 2015).

56 Time Domain Electromagnetic (TDEM) provides 1D underground resistivity  
57 variation and it is able to determine groundwater distribution in a specific area

58 (Martinez-Moreno *et al.*, 2016). The presence of fresh or salt water produces a sudden  
59 change in resistivity from high values (in unsaturated rocks) to low (freshwater) or very  
60 low (saltwater) values. Geoelectrical methods such as electrical resistivity tomography  
61 (ERT) offers a 2D pseudosection underlining the resistivity distribution underground  
62 (Kazakis *et al.*, 2016). For example, Sherif *et al.* (2006) compare ERT results with  
63 hydrochemical parameters to evaluate seawater intrusion. Classical methods as Vertical  
64 Electrical Soundings (VES) have been widely used for detection of saltwater intrusion  
65 (Song *et al.*, 2007; Adepelumi *et al.*, 2009). The VES is useful to determine saltwater  
66 intrusion accurately in predominant layered media.

67 The application of both techniques combined (TDEM and ERT) is widely used in  
68 mining, geotechnical, hydrogeological and environmental studies (Meju, 2002; Nicaise  
69 *et al.*, 2013). The TDEM method can accurately indicates conductive structures and it  
70 can easily have a major depth of investigation. In turn, the resistivity profiles defines  
71 better resistive areas and it better underlines shallow structures (Monteiro Santos and  
72 El-Kaliouby, 2011). Thus, both methods are complementary and can offer more  
73 accurately results.

74 While the ERT method is usually interpreted in 2D or 3D arrays, interpretation of  
75 TDEM data generally is done assuming 1D models due to its computation is difficult  
76 and time-consuming even in forward modelling (Monteiro-Santos and El-Kaliouby,  
77 2011). A joint inversion of DRC and TDEM data can help reduce uncertainties and  
78 ambiguities to interpret the obtained results. Vozoff and Jupp (1975) were pioneers in  
79 joint inversion of magnetotelluric (MT) and vertical electrical soundings (VES)  
80 methods. Since then, joint inversion applied to different geophysical techniques has  
81 been employed: Monteiro Santos *et al.*, 1997; Schmutz *et al.*, 2000; Monteiro-Santos  
82 and El-Kaliouby, 2010.

83 Classical joint inversions of TDEM and resistivity data use a single 1D geophysical  
84 model for each sounding and finally obtain an interpolated 2D-pseudosection (Schmutz  
85 *et al.*, 2000; Monteiro-Santos and El-Kaliouby, 2011). However, this approach can  
86 produce models with abrupt lateral variations due to noise, equivalence problems and  
87 2D-3D effects (Viezolli *et al.*, 2008). Such effects can be reduced using a laterally  
88 constrained inversion (LCI) (Auken and Christiansen, 2004; Monteiro-Santos, 2004;  
89 Auken *et al.*, 2005). This algorithm allows constraining parameters during the inversion  
90 in order to obtain a model with a smooth lateral variation.

91 This research aims to detect seawater intrusion by comparing the results obtained in  
92 electrical resistivity and TDEM techniques in different situations: single inversion, 1D  
93 and quasi-2D joint inversions. The obtained models for each inversion will be compared  
94 to the information obtained in the exploration drilling performed in the study area.

## 95 **2. Geological framework**

96 The study area is located in Algarve region (South of Portugal, Fig. 1) between the  
97 towns of Ferragudo and Albufeira. From the standpoint of regional geological context,  
98 the area fits in Meso-Cenozoic Basin, a major tectonostratigraphic zone of the Iberian  
99 Peninsula, at the southern portion of the South Portuguese zone (Simancas, 2004).

100 The onshore Meso-Cenozoic Algarve Basin consists in an E-W trending sedimentary  
101 basin filled by more than 4000 m of sediment deposited on Carboniferous schists and  
102 greywackes (Lopes *et al.*, 2006). Sandstones and conglomerates belonging to the  
103 ‘*Arenitos de Silves*’ are deposited discordantly on the paleozoic substratum during the  
104 middle to upper Triassic, followed by the ‘*Complexo Pelítico Carbonatado-*  
105 *Evaporítico*’ (Francés *et al.*, 2014). A volcanic-sedimentary complex related to the first  
106 rifting phase (Manuppella, 1992) composes the top of the sequence. This sequence

107 includes the carboniferous formations that constitute an impermeable substratum.

108 The sedimentary sequence regarding to the study area is composed, from bottom to  
109 top, by: limestones at the base (Middle Jurassic); a multilayer sequence of silicate sands,  
110 limestones and silts (*'Arenitos de Sobral'* formation from Cretaceous; Rey, 1983);  
111 followed by alternation of limestones and marls (*'Palorbitolina'*, Cretaceous; Rey,  
112 1983); up to this formations were deposited carbonates from Lagos-Portimão carbonate  
113 formation (Miocene; Antunes and Pais, 1992) composed, from bottom to top by:  
114 biocalcarenites, limestones, calcareous sandstones and clays. The Faro-Quarteira  
115 formation –feldespathic sands, sandstones and clays (Quaternary) – constitutes the top  
116 of the sedimentary sequence.

117 From a hydrogeological point of view, the study area is located within the aquifer  
118 system of Ferragudo-Albufeira, which has an area of ~117 km<sup>2</sup> (Almeida *et al.*, 2000).  
119 This is a multiaquifer groundwater system where the Cretaceous and Miocene  
120 formations make up the main aquifer systems. The carbonate formation from  
121 Cretaceous (Fig. 1) creates a small karstic aquifer with high groundwater storage and  
122 quality. However, the water resource potential is low due to limited aquifer recharge by  
123 rainwater.

124 The Miocene aquifer is also recharged by rainwater and perhaps from the Cretaceous  
125 and Jurassic formation (see Fig. 1). At the final sections of the main streams, near the  
126 sea, there are permanent wetlands as a result of surface and groundwater discharge  
127 along these drainage axis.

### 128 **3. Survey setting and method**

#### 129 *3.1 Geophysical Profiles*

130 In the study area (Fig. 1), electrical resistivity and Time Domain Electromagnetic  
131 (TDEM) soundings were measured along two profiles. Both geophysical methods match  
132 in space and N-S direction (Fig. 2). Profile 1 is located at the E side of the study area  
133 from the coastal line. The profile is 350 m long and it includes 6 TDEM sites slightly  
134 displaced toward the W with respect to the resistivity profile. Profile 2 is located on the  
135 W side of the study area. It is composed by a resistivity profile of 350 m long and 12  
136 TDEM sites that exceed the extension of the resistivity profile.

137 At the centre of the profile 2, the exploration drilling found 16 m of sands and clays  
138 from the Quaternary, followed by 40 m of biocalcarenites, marly limestones and clays,  
139 karstified limestone and calcareous marls and clays from Miocene. At ~25 m depth  
140 were detected marly limestones and clays, in a transition zone, with a probably  
141 interstitial filling of mixed saltwater. Saltwater is located from ~30 m in depth. The  
142 electrical conductivity (EC) measured into the drill-hole were 50.1 mS/cm, whereas the  
143 seawater in the area has an EC of 55.6 mS/cm.

### 144 *3.2 Resistivity profiles*

145 Resistivity profiles were measured using the Syscal Pro 10-channels equipment (Iris,  
146 Inc.) with 4 cables segments and a maximum of 72 electrodes registering data in the  
147 same profile. The equipment introduces current in the terrain by means of a pair of steel  
148 electrodes while measuring potential differences in another pair of steel electrodes. The  
149 survey were performed using Schlumberger electrode configuration with a minimum  
150 electrode spacing of 5 m.

151 Several filters were applied to the raw data prior to the data inversion to exclude the  
152 noisy data: extermination of bad datum points and RMS error statistics (discarding data  
153 above 60% error, following Loke, 2016). Inverse calculation of the apparent resistivity



154 data was carried out with the same parameters under software Res2Dinv (v. 3.59,  
155 Geotomo Inc.): least-square inversion and model refinement constraint, mesh made up  
156 of model cells and 4-nodes per unit electrode spacing.

157 A few vertical electrical soundings (VES) matching with the TDEM sites have been  
158 extracted from the ERT profiles in order to perform joint inversion. For that purpose,  
159 resistivity data with the appropriate AB/2 (current electrodes) and MN/2 (potential  
160 electrodes) centred at the position of the transient soundings have been selected.

### 161 *3.3 Time Domain Electromagnetic*

162 The TDEM is an inductive method based on the induction generated in the  
163 subsurface by the fast variation of the magnetic field (the primary field) originated when  
164 the current passing in a loop on the surface of the earth is cut off. A secondary magnetic  
165 field is formed by the induced currents and the receiver coil (Nabighian, 1988; Ward et  
166 al., 1990; Everett, 2013) measures its decay (dBz/dt). The apparent resistivity for late  
167 times, is calculated by,

$$168 \quad \rho_a(t) = 0.125221 \left( \frac{I}{u(t)} \right)^2 \mu_0^{\frac{5}{3}} t^{-\frac{5}{3}} a^{\frac{8}{3}} \quad (1)$$

169 Where  $u(t)$  is the electromotive force (*emf*) in the receiver,  $\mu_0$  the free space magnetic  
170 permeability and  $a$  is the current loop radius.

171 TDEM data was measured using the TEM-Fast48 equipment from Applied  
172 Electromagnetic Research (AEMR Inc.; Fainberg, 1999). The data was acquired in a  
173 coincident square loop configuration combining transmitter and receiver functions, with  
174 a loop of 50×50 m, a current applied of 1.9 A (profile 1) and 3.5A (profile 2). The data  
175 was processed with TEM-RES v.7.0 software from AEMR, which allows 1D modelling  
176 and inversion of the TDEM data. Prior to modelling, data spikes were removed as well

177 as noisy early time gates due to the effects of transmitter-current contamination, and  
178 excessively noisy late time gates. The response curve of the model (relating apparent  
179 resistivity in ohm·m and time in  $\mu\text{sec}$ ) was fitted to the observed data applying trial-  
180 error methods and automatic inversion.

### 181 *3.4 Static shift and depth of investigation*

182 Before the joint inversion, the resistivity measurements should be corrected from the  
183 static effect. The approach proposed by Meju (2005) was followed in this work; the  
184 time values of TDEM data were converted in equivalent VES AB/2 distance using the  
185 equation,

$$186 \quad L = 711.8 \sqrt{t\rho} \quad (2)$$

187 where  $\rho$  is the apparent resistivity for the instant  $t$ .

188 The correction of the static shift is performed by applying a multiplicative factor to  
189 the whole resistivity curve in order to overlap both (ERT and TDEM) apparent  
190 resistivity curves (Fig. 3).

191 The depth of investigation (DOI) defines the limits in depth to which the results are  
192 trusted. The evaluation of the DOI and model resolution is calculated using the DOI  
193 index proposed by Oldenburg and Li (1999), which provides a model resolution  
194 including all parameters of the inverse problem, such as data and modelling error. For  
195 that purpose, two inversions were carried out applying two different initial models with  
196 resistivity values ten times higher:

$$197 \quad R_{1,2}(x, z) = \frac{m_1(x,z) - m_2(x,z)}{m_{1r} - m_{2r}} \quad (3)$$

198 where  $m_{1r}$  and  $m_{2r}$  are the resistivity of the first and second reference models, and  $m_1$

199  $(x,z)$  and  $m_2(x,z)$  are the resistivity of each cell of these models. The DOI index ( $R$ ) is  
200 close to zero when the two inversions produce similar resistivity values, regardless of  
201 the reference model value. In this work it was used a cut-off value of 0.3.

### 202 3.5 1D Joint inversion

203 The apparent resistivity values from VES and TDEM soundings were jointly inverted  
204 assuming a 1D model and using an iterative approach based on the Levenberg-  
205 Marquardt method and Singular Value Decomposition (SVD) technique. This procedure  
206 can be seen as an optimization one where an initial model is modified until an expected  
207 misfit between data and model response is reached. The modification of the model ( $\Delta m$ )  
208 at iteration  $k$  is calculated by,

$$209 \quad \left( J(\mathbf{m}^k)^T J(\mathbf{m}^k) \right) \Delta \mathbf{m} = -J(\mathbf{m}^k)^T F(\mathbf{m}^k) \quad (4)$$

210 where  $J$  indicates the Jacobian matrix,  $F$  represents the difference between data and  
211 model response in the logarithmic domain. The system of equation is solved using the  
212 SVD technique and the Levenberg-Marquardt stabilization algorithm.

213 For data inversion, a software developed in FORTRAN language (Monteiro Santos  
214 and El-Kaliouby, 2010) has been used applying the method explained above. The  
215 program uses an initial model created according to the results obtained in the single  
216 inversion. Therefore, in profile 1 the initial model has 4 layers (Resistivity in  
217 ohm·m/thickness in m): 30/4, 4/10, 3.5/7, 2.5/10. In profile 2 has also been used 4  
218 layers: 25/4, 18/12, 4/15, 3.2/4. Later, the software performs a maximum of 50  
219 iterations for each sounding to adjust the initial model to the acquired data. Finally, it is  
220 selected the model with the lowest error.

221 The fitting between the curves of the model and acquired data defines the quality of  
222 the results. The selection of the best model is based on the minimum number of layers

223 for the same adjustment quality.

### 224 3.6 Quasi-2D joint inversion

225 Monteiro Santos (2004) calculates 1D inversion with lateral constrained of TDEM  
226 and VES data measured with a modification of the nonlinear smoothness constrained  
227 inversion algorithm. In the inversion process, a 2D mesh of blocks is distributed  
228 according to the locations of the data (Monteiro Santos and El-Kaliouby, 2011).  
229 Calculations of VES and TDEM model responses are based on 1D forward modelling  
230 (Knight and Raiche, 1982; Raiche *et al.*, 1985).

231 VES and TEM calculation is performed through the convolution integral using  
232 appropriate filters. Otherwise, forward TDEM algorithm takes into account the ramp  
233 time (time the current in the transmitter takes to vanish) to calculate accurately the early  
234 time response (see more details in Monteiro Santos and El-Kaliouby, 2011).

235 The inverse problem requires an iterative procedure as it involves a nonlinear  
236 relationship between model response and model parameters. Logarithm of the block  
237 resistivity and apparent resistivity is used as model parameter and data set respectively.  
238 Minimization of a fitting objective function allows to estimate the correction of the  
239 model parameters for each iteration.

240 The objective function used in these inversions is:

$$241 \quad \mathbf{Q} = \|\mathbf{W}_d(\delta\mathbf{d} - \mathbf{J}\delta\mathbf{p})\|^2 + \lambda\|\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}_0)\|^2 \quad (7)$$

242 where  $\|\dots\|$  means the  $L_2$  norm,  $\mathbf{W}_d$  is a diagonal matrix, consisting of the reciprocal of  
243 data standard deviations,  $\delta\mathbf{p}$  is the vector containing the corrections to the model  
244 parameters, and  $\mathbf{p}_0$  is a priori defined model. The expression  $\delta\mathbf{d} = \ln(\rho_a^c) - \ln(\rho_a^o)$  is the  
245 vector that represents the differences between apparent resistivity of the calculated  
246 model response ( $\rho_a^c$ ) and the measured data ( $\rho_a^o$ ).  $\mathbf{J}$  is the derivative Jacobian matrix and

247  $\lambda$  is a Lagrange multiplier (damping factor) used to control the balance between data fit  
248 and initial model.

249 The element of the matrix  $C$  are the roughness coefficients for each parameter  
250 defined for the four neighbours (upper, lower, east and west blocks). The elements of  $C$   
251 are  $-4\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$  or  $0$  for the sites into the profile, and  $-3\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$  or  $0$  for the beginning and end  
252 sites of the profile. The coefficient  $\alpha$  compensates the resolution decrease in depth of  
253 DRC and TDEM methods. Minimization of  $Q$  yields the normal equation:

$$254 \quad (\mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{W}_d^T \mathbf{W}_d \mathbf{J} + \lambda \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{C}) \delta \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{W}_d^T \mathbf{W}_d \delta \mathbf{d} + \lambda \mathbf{C}^T \mathbf{C} (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}_o) \quad (8)$$

255 Once this normal equation is solved, the model parameters are updated by adding the  
256 vector  $\delta \mathbf{p}$ . The iteration process continues until the misfit is reduced to an acceptable  
257 level previously defined.

258 As in 1D joint inversion, a software developed in FORTRAN language (Monteiro-  
259 Santos and El-Kaliouby, 2010) has been used. A maximum of 50 iterations for each  
260 profile have been applied where it is selected the one with the lowest error. The  
261 resistivity and thickness of the initial model has been selected according to the  
262 resistivity results obtained in the TDEM and ERT profiles. The initial model for these  
263 profiles include 20 layers with thicknesses of 10 m and resistivity values ranging from  
264 1.5 to 15 ohm.m.

## 265 **4. Geophysical results**

### 266 *4.1 ERT and TDEM profiles*

267 The obtained results through single inversion are shown in Fig. 4. Profile 1 of ERT  
268 (Fig. 4a) presents a shallow very resistive zone at the beginning of the profile (~1000  
269 ohm·m ( $\Omega \cdot m$ ), from 0 to 90 m long and 5 m thickness) representing the sands dunes of

270 the study area. Beneath the resistive layer and down to 30 m depth, there are mainly  
271 sands, clays and limestones. The resistivity varies significantly in this area, revealing  
272 zones with very low resistivity (20-80 m, 120-150 m, 170-210 and 240-260 m long) less  
273 than  $1 \Omega \cdot m$ . We anticipate that the low resistivity belonging this zone corresponds to  
274 the saltwater intrusion by means of preferential areas favouring this intrusion. In  
275 addition, there are zones with intermediate resistivity ( $\sim 10 \Omega \cdot m$ ) that is attributed to  
276 sands and clays with fresh or salty water, and finally, pointed areas (under 160 and 210  
277 m long) with higher resistivity ( $\sim 100 \Omega \cdot m$ ) that represents limestones.

278 At the TDEM results (Fig. 4b) are differentiated 3 layers as follow: a shallow low  
279 resistive layer ( $\sim 10 \Omega \cdot m$  and 10 m thickness) detecting the shallow sands, over a very  
280 low resistive layer ( $< 2 \Omega \cdot m$  and 10 m thickness) and a layer at the bottom with a  
281 resistivity about  $5 \Omega \cdot m$ . Comparing ERT and TDEM models, it is summarized that the  
282 saltwater is detected at  $\sim 10$  m depth in a non-homogeneous layer regarding to DRC  
283 pseudosection.

284 The results obtained in profile 2 can be compared with the borehole information. The  
285 ERT profile (Fig. 4c) has a shallow layer with high resistivity ( $\sim 1000 \Omega \cdot m$ ) from 180 m  
286 length to the end, which highlights the sand dunes from the study area. Below this layer  
287 is detected an intermediate resistivity ( $\sim 10 \Omega \cdot m$ ) belonging to sands, clays, limestones  
288 and biocalcarenes. There are two zones with low resistivity under 170 ( $< 1 \Omega \cdot m$ ) and  
289 250 m ( $\sim 5 \Omega \cdot m$ ) length. The area at 170 m length and 25-30 m depth highlights a very  
290 low resistivity that is attributed to clays and saltwater intrusion.

291 The TDEM profile (Fig. 4d) presents a 3 layers model: a shallow resistive area (500-  
292  $1000 \Omega \cdot m$  and  $\sim 20$  m thickness) that covers the whole profile belonging to the shallow  
293 sands dunes (from 180 m to the end) and clayed sands from Quaternary cover (up to  
294 180 m long). The second layer has wedge shape from the S and a resistivity of  $\sim 5 \Omega \cdot m$ ,

295 and it represents the freshwater and/or a mix with salt water. At the bottom of the  
296 profile (from ~27 m depth), a low resistivity zone (below 1  $\Omega\cdot\text{m}$ ) was detected,  
297 corresponding to saltwater.

298 Comparing the profile 2 results with the drill-hole data it is verified that, in spite of  
299 the sediment sequence is not clearly differentiated, the saltwater is located within the  
300 karstified limestone at ~30 m depth.

#### 301 *4.2 1D Joint inversion*

302 The fitting between measured and calculated data is displayed in Fig. 5. In both cases  
303 it is observed a good data adjustment between the observed and calculated data. The  
304 VES data present an error below 8% whilst the fit in TDEM data is below 3%.

305 Figure 6 shows the models resulting from 1D joint inversion for the two profiles.  
306 Comparing these models with the single inversion in Fig. 4, the models show an  
307 improvement where more layers are differentiated and new details are recognised. Note  
308 that the resistivity values in these models are closer to TDEM data than VES one from  
309 the single inversion due to the static shift applied to the electrical measurements.

310 At the resistive shallow layer in profile 1 (Fig. 6) –that presents an homogeneous  
311 resistivity of ~10  $\Omega\cdot\text{m}$  in the single inversion in Fig. 4– it is also differentiated into two high  
312 resistivity areas at the beginning and middle of the profile, with resistivity upper than 40  
313  $\Omega\cdot\text{m}$ . The second layer presents a better defined morphology and thickness, with a  
314 resistivity value lower than 2  $\Omega\cdot\text{m}$ , and it is shallower at 100 m length. Finally, this  
315 profile highlights middle-high resistivity at the bottom (10-30  $\Omega\cdot\text{m}$ ) where sands, clays  
316 and limestones are located.

317 Profile 2 has also enhanced the morphology and the number of layers, and it presents  
318 a better fit with the drilling information. The joint inversion shows a shallow high

319 resistive layer matching with sands and clays at a 6 m depth that represents the sand  
320 dune area. Below, there is an area with a resistivity of  $\sim 10 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$  belonging to sands,  
321 clays, limestones and biocalcarenes which probably highlights the fresh water saturated  
322 area. Then the third layer matching with clays, limestones and biocalcarenes has a  
323 resistivity of  $\sim 2 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$  representing saltwater. The bottom of the profile is marked with a  
324 resistivity lower than  $2 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$ .

#### 325 *4.3 Quasi-2D joint inversion*

326 As in the previous 1D joint inversion, this process includes lateral constraint and it  
327 has been obtained by the fitting between measured and calculated model data (Fig. 7).  
328 In this case, profile 1 presents a minor adjustment between observed data and calculated  
329 curve, and the errors are higher than in the previous inversion. However, profile 2 has a  
330 more reliable and strict data fit with lower errors.

331 For profile 1 (Fig. 8), results of the quasi-2D joint inversion show the same number  
332 of layers as in previous inversions: a shallow high resistive layer (upper than  $20 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$ )  
333 over an intermediate resistive one ( $5-7 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$ ), and the saltwater intrusion area is located  
334 at 10-15 m depth with a resistivity value close to  $1 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$ . At the deeper part of the  
335 profile, below 15 m depth, it is detected a resistivity of  $5-8 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$ . In this profile, the  
336 depth of investigation (DOI) index has been calculated to test the reliability of the  
337 results, and it is demonstrated that the whole profile has a DOI index under 0.3 –the  
338 selected cut-off value– and the model only has a not trusted area in the deeper part from  
339 the middle to the end of the profile.

340 Profile 2 (Fig. 8) presents more fitting and reliable results comparing with the drill-  
341 hole information. The whole profile presents a DOI index lower than 0.3 and a standard  
342 error of 6.3 %. Analysing in detail the calculated model at the drill-hole position, it is



343 noticeable that most of the layers are well differentiated. The shallow resistive layer of  
344 dunes sands and clays is defined with a resistivity higher than  $30 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$  at 6 m depth. The  
345 second resistivity layer ( $\sim 10 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$ ) represents sands, clays and the top of biocalcarenites  
346 with a thickness of 13 m. Below, the bottom of biocalcarenites is represented with a  
347 resistivity of  $\sim 5 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$ . Finally, from 25 to 40 m depth it is detected a very low resistive  
348 layer ( $\sim 1 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$ ) that is assigned to the saltwater presence and clays at the top. The  
349 bottom of the profile has a resistivity of  $\sim 3 \Omega \cdot \text{m}$  belonging to karstified limestones,  
350 calcareous marl and clays from Miocene.

## 351 **5. Discussion**

### 352 *5.1 Strengths and weaknesses of resistivity and TDEM geophysical methods and joint* 353 *inversion*

354 To better characterize an area, the combination of geophysical methods has become  
355 increasingly necessary (Garambois *et al.*, 2002; Martínez-Moreno *et al.*, 2013). This is  
356 because each geophysical method determines different physical properties underground.  
357 The use of a single geophysical method provides partial information (Bauer-Gottwein *et*  
358 *al.*, 2010; Martínez-Moreno *et al.*, 2016), whilst the combination of two or more  
359 techniques offers a more complete solution (Meric *et al.*, 2005; Martínez-Moreno *et al.*,  
360 2014). Within the different geophysical methods, based on electrical and  
361 electromagnetic methods (both obtain apparent resistivity underground), different  
362 results are found depending on the characteristics of each method (Schmutz *et al.*, 2000;  
363 Monteiro Santos and El-Kaliouby, 2010). Since resistivity better defines the shallowest  
364 areas and is more sensitive to resistive structures, time domain electromagnetic is  
365 focused in deeper parts with great sensitivity to conductors (Monteiro Santos *et al.*,  
366 2011; Bortolozzo *et al.*, 2015). Both methods are ideally combinable to apply them

367 together (Godio and Bottino, 2001; Schiavone and Valenza, 2010).

368 Regarding the results of the current study, single inversion of the geophysical  
369 methods applied (Fig. 4) provides approximate results of the problem, however some  
370 details may be hidden precisely due to the properties measured on each method. In  
371 addition, this single inversion of two methods give rise to separate models that must be  
372 analysed by comparison in contrast to joint inversion that obtain a single model  
373 (Monteiro Santos *et al.*, 2006).

374 The use of the joint inversion provides a unique model that encompasses physical  
375 properties measured on each method. The combination creates a more reliable and fitted  
376 results allowing to determine a more robust distribution of the resistivity and, therefore,  
377 to better define the subsurface structure and groundwater conditions.

#### 378 *5.2 Advances in 1D joint inversion of DRC and TDEM data*

379 The first inconvenience found when performing joint inversion has been the static  
380 shift between VES and TDEM data (Meju, 2005; Bortolozo *et al.*, 2015). There is a  
381 phase shift in the curves of the applied methods that should be corrected (Fig. 3). Since  
382 the transient method provides more realistic apparent resistivity distribution  
383 underground (Srigutomo *et al.*, 2008), the VES curves have been multiplied by a factor  
384 to fit with the TDEM curves. The observed phase shift between both methods is usual  
385 due to the resistivity method is affected by ground heterogeneities, as well as the  
386 measuring electrodes in direct contact with the ground generates perturbations  
387 (Bortolozo *et al.*, 2015).

388 Comparing both the 1D and quasi-2D joint inversion results it has been  
389 demonstrated that quasi-2D joint inversion improves the models when compared with  
390 the 1D joint inversion. The analysis is based on drill-hole information in profile 2 (Figs.

391 6 and 8). Whilst in the 1D joint inversion it is only considered each individualised site  
392 (Monteiro Santos and El-Kaliouby, 2010) in the quasi-2D joint inversion the data  
393 surrounding each cell is taken into account (Monteiro Santos and El-Kaliouby, 2011). If  
394 it is assumed that electrical methods are affected by the resistivity of the neighbouring  
395 structures, the joint inversion seems to provide more fitted models of resistivity  
396 distribution underground due to it make allowances for the data around them.

397 The quasi-2D joint inversion may also have higher errors than single approaches due  
398 to the use of more data in the second inversion uses more data quantity. In addition,  
399 resistivity variation in two direction causes more influence in the data causing higher  
400 errors. However, both have a standard error around 10% and 6% in profile 1 and 2  
401 respectively, and the calculated DOI index (Oldenburg and Li, 1999; Marescot *et al.*,  
402 2003) indicates that they are trusted. This calculation demonstrates that the profiles are  
403 not restricted to the initial model but they are subject to the data.

404 The applied joint inversion both 1D and quasi-2D have improved the results obtained  
405 by the single inversion. In addition, the quasi-2D joint inversion highlights the  
406 sedimentary layers revealed in the exploration drilling.

## 407 **6. Conclusions**

408 Seawater intrusions is a widespread problem detected in coastal aquifers. The actions  
409 to mitigate or remediate this problem goes through detect the intrusion. The combined  
410 use of resistivity and TDEM methods have been applied to study the seawater intrusion  
411 in a coastal area at the S of the Algarve Basin. The study zone has an exploration  
412 drilling located at the centre of the profile 2 where different sedimentary layers have  
413 been recognised in the geophysical results.

414 Three different manners of inversion data has been carried out. First, a single

415 inversion of the data in a traditional manner has been performed and the obtained results  
416 do not exactly match with the drilling information. However, the areas with saltwater  
417 intrusion are highlighted. Secondly, 1D joint inversion of the data was calculated for  
418 each profile and the models have improved markedly. The seawater intrusion areas are  
419 better defined in this inversion and the surface areas are better delineated. More layers  
420 with resistivity contrast are differentiated with respect to the previous inversion  
421 regarding to drilling information, however they still do not adjust. Finally, it was  
422 performed a quasi-2D joint inversion obtaining better results. These models can  
423 differentiate each sedimentary layer registered in the drill-hole (better than single and  
424 1D joint inversion), including morphology and depth.

425 The models calculated with quasi-2D joint inversion has notably improved the  
426 previous data inversions. The location of seawater intrusion is better defined through the  
427 quasi-2D joint inversion respect to single and 1D joint inversions. This kind of  
428 inversion has multiple applications: minning, hydrogeology or engineering among  
429 others. Therefore, it is concluded that the combination of geoelectrical methods  
430 improves the results analysis regarding to resistivity distribution underground. Of the  
431 three proposed methods the quasi-2D joint inversion offers the most reliable results.

#### 432 **Acknowledgements**

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434 **Figure captions**

435 Figure 1: Simplified geological scheme of the aquifer system Ferragudo-Albufeira. The  
436 delimitation of the study area is indicated (Modified from Almeida *et al.*,  
437 [2004](#)).

438 Figure 2: Detailed location and distribution of the resistivity profiles and time domain  
439 electromagnetic (TDEM) soundings. Drill-hole position and sedimentary  
440 sequence are indicated.

441 Figure 3: Static shift correction of the vertical electrical soundings (VES) curves with  
442 regard to time domain electromagnetic (TDEM) ones.

443 Figure 4: 2D-pseudosection models for single inversion of VES (a, c) and TDEM (b, d)  
444 data. Drilling information is displayed over the pseudosection in profile 2.

445 Figure 5: Curves adjustment for VES and TDEM data obtained from 1D joint inversion.

446 Figure 6: 2D-pseudosection models obtained from 1D joint inversion of VES and  
447 TDEM data. Drilling information is displayed over the pseudosection in  
448 profile 2.

449 Figure 7: Curves adjustment for VES and TDEM data obtained from quasi-2D joint  
450 inversion.

451 Figure 8: 2D-pseudosection models obtained from quasi-2D of VES and TDEM data.  
452 DOI index cut-off value is indicated in profile 1, whereas that profile 2 is  
453 below that the selected cut-off value. Drilling information is displayed over  
454 the pseudosection in profile 2.

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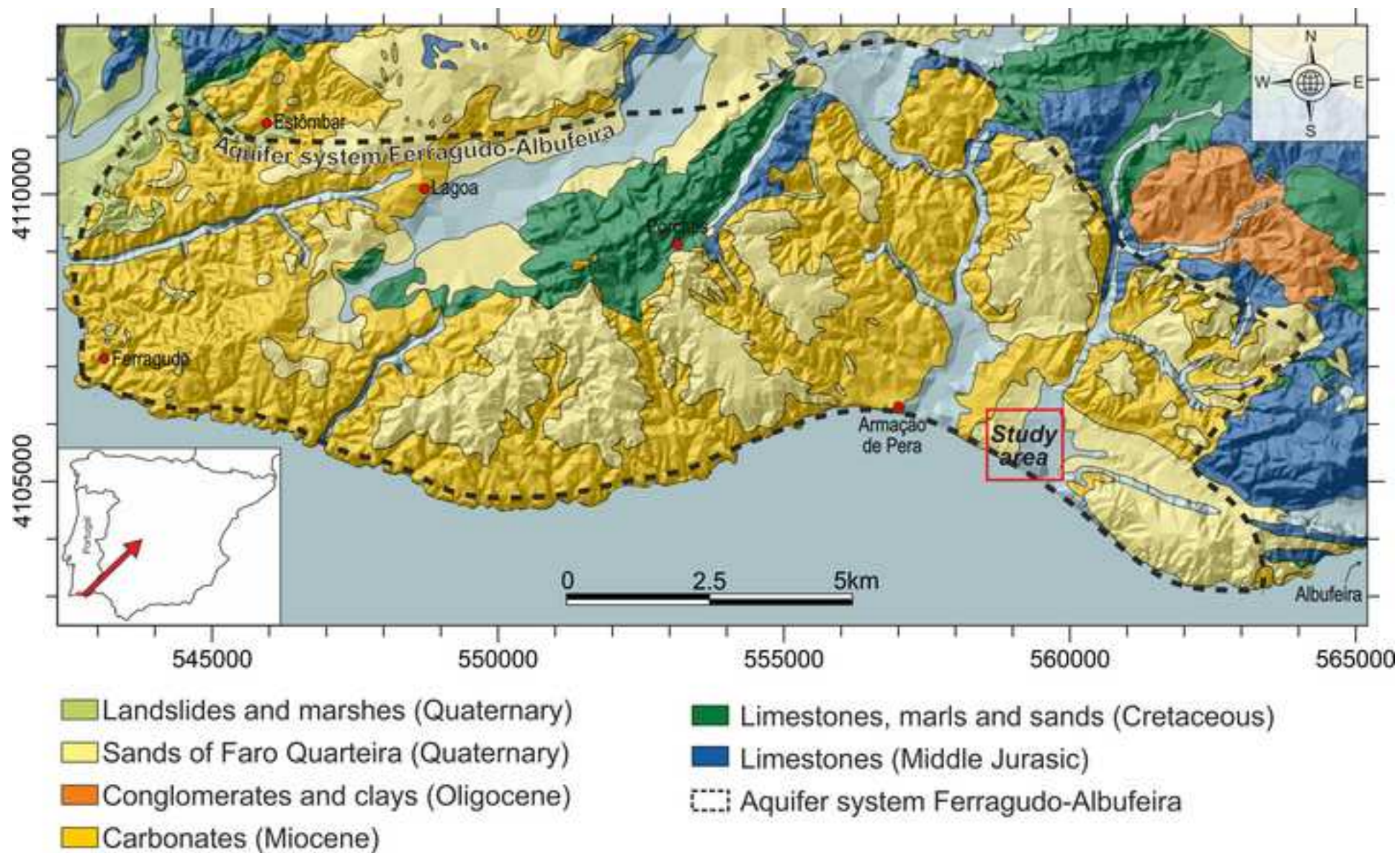
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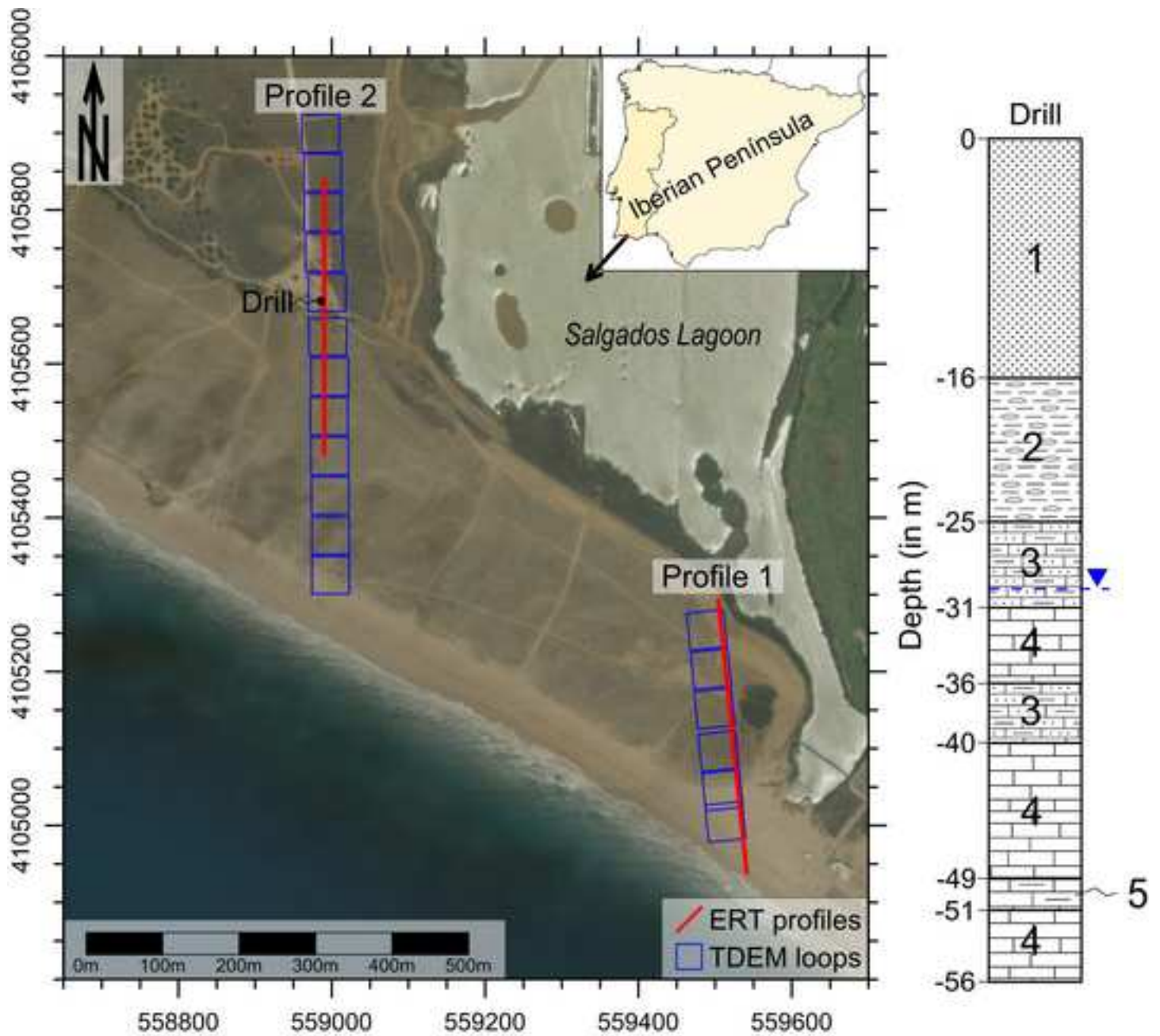
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Figure\_1

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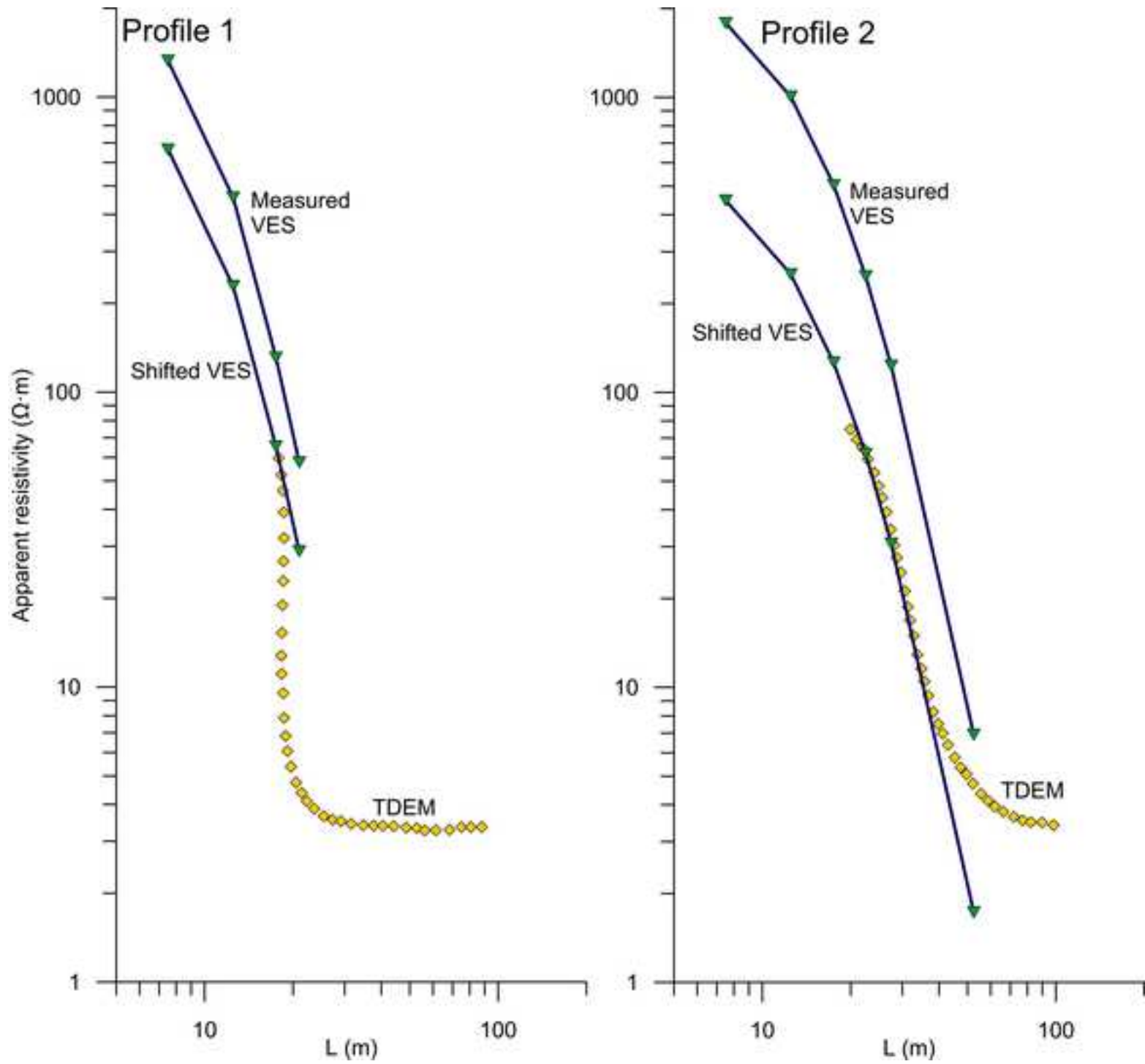
Figure\_2  
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- 1 - Sands and clays (Quaternary)
- 2 - Biocalcarenites (Miocene)
- 3 - Marly limestones and clays (Miocene)
- 4 - Karstified limestones (Miocene)
- 5 - Calcareous marl and clays (Miocene)

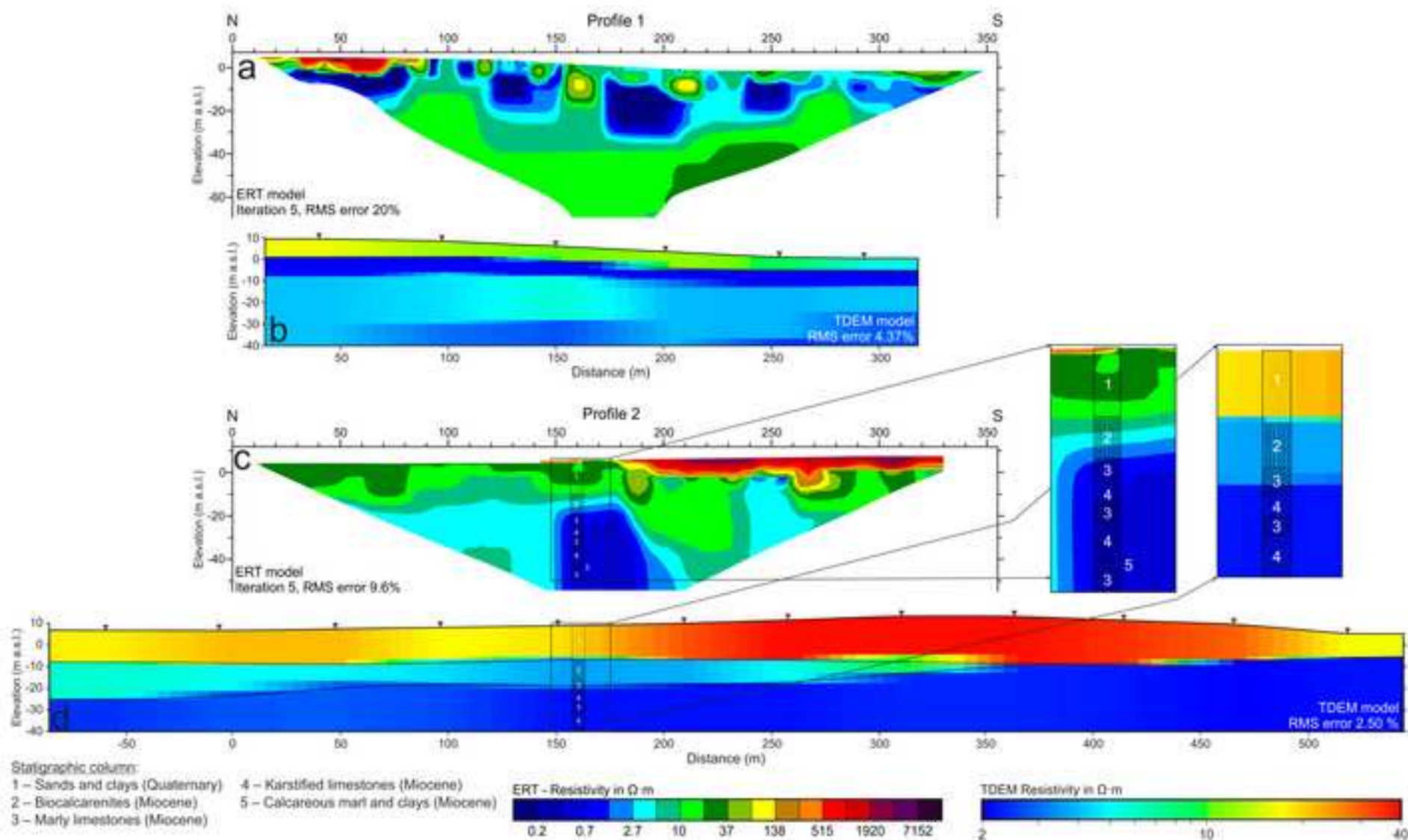


Figure\_3  
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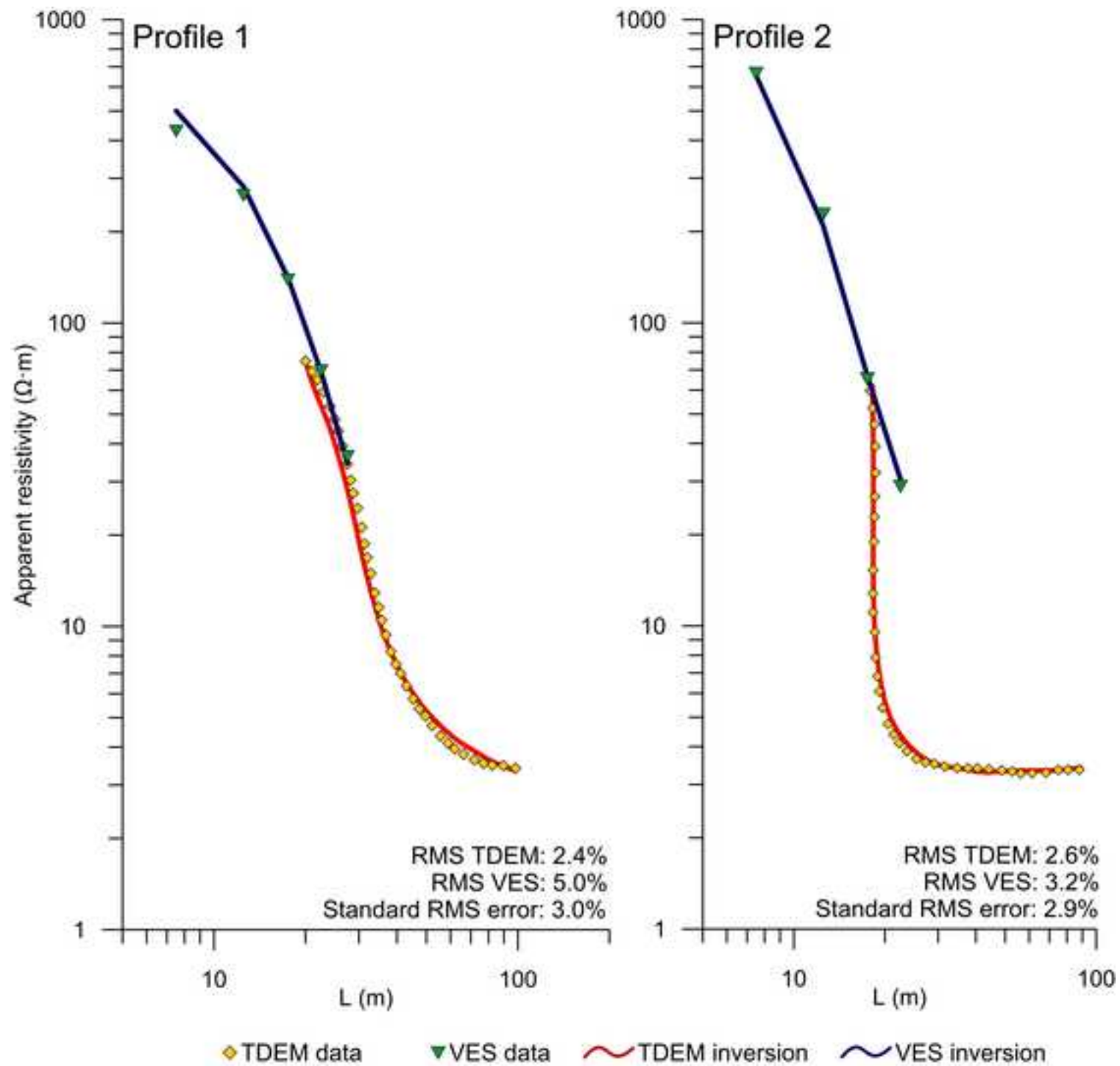
Figure\_4

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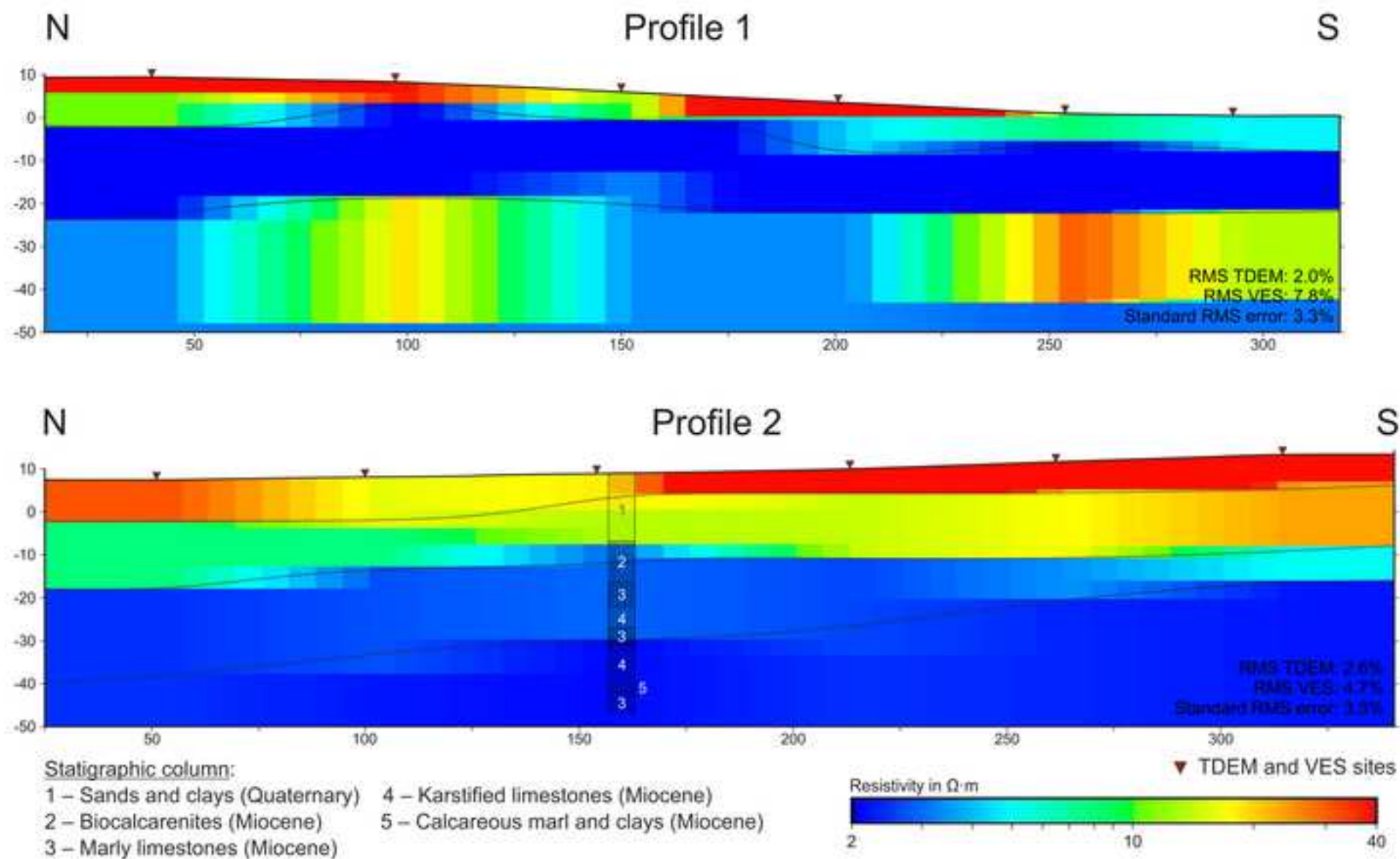
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Figure\_6

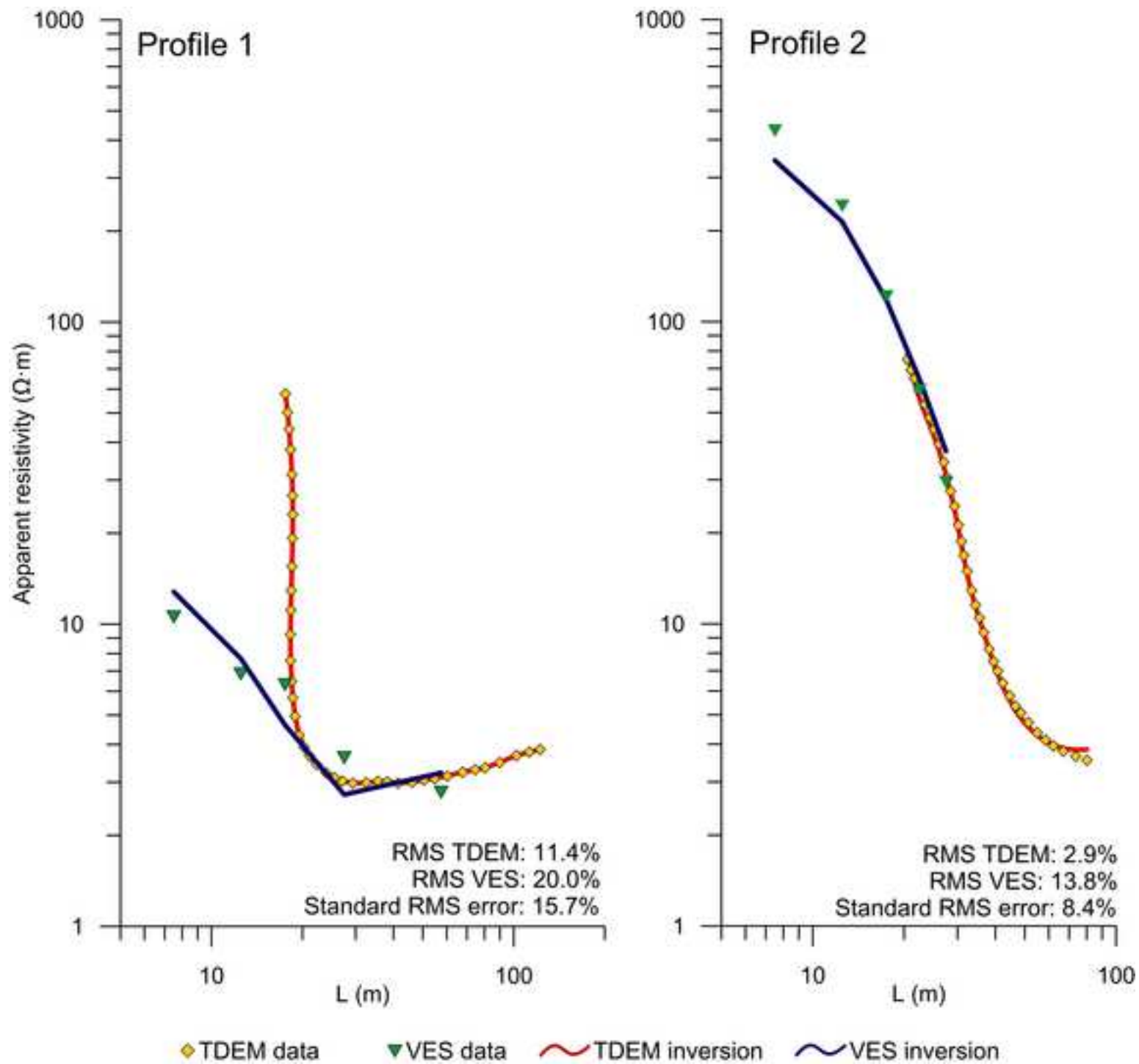
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Figure\_7

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Figure\_8  
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