

# One-Dimensional Steady State Infiltration in Heterogeneous Soils

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The effects of heterogeneity on one-dimensional, steady state infiltration are studied using numerical simulations where the soil hydrologic properties are assumed to be spatial stochastic processes. Analytical solutions to one-dimensional, steady state infiltration in heterogeneous soils are developed and applied to the stochastic random fields. The effects of spatial variability of parameters of an exponential unsaturated hydraulic conductivity model on the soil-water pressure profiles are examined. The amount of variation in pressure heads is found to vary with infiltration rates and mean pressure heads, while the cross-correlation between parameters is shown to have important influences on the value of the head variance. An inverse procedure is developed to determine the effective hydraulic conductivity parameters. The effective parameter is found to vary with mean pressures. Effective hydraulic conductivities and pressure head variances estimated from the numerical simulations were compared with those obtained from a spectral method by Yeh et al. (1985a, b, c). A unit mean gradient approach was used to estimate the effective unsaturated hydraulic conductivity, and the result shows that this approach is adequate for heterogeneous soils.

## INTRODUCTION

The spatial variability of soil hydrologic parameters has been recognized for years. *Nielsen et al.* [1973] and *Stockton and Warrick* [1971] showed that there is a large variation in hydraulic conductivity, moisture content, and other hydrologic property values in the field. Moreover, recent field studies of the spatial variability of soil properties by *Sisson and Wierenga* [1981], *Vieira et al.* [1981], *Russo and Bresler* [1980], *Byers and Stephens* [1983], *Yeh et al.* [1986b], and *Greenholtz et al.* [1988] demonstrated that spatial variations are not entirely random but are spatially correlated. The effects of spatial variability on flow and transport in unsaturated zones have recently been explored by many theoretical works [e.g., *Warrick et al.*, 1977; *Jury*, 1982; *Dagan and Bresler*, 1980; *Andersen and Shapiro*, 1983]. Studies by *Yeh et al.* [1985a, b, c] used the two-parameter exponential conductivity function introduced by *Gardner* [1958] to investigate the spatial variability of unsaturated flow. They treated the spatially varying hydraulic properties of unsaturated media as stochastic processes and used a spectral technique to derive the variance of soil-water pressure head and the effective hydraulic conductivity of stochastic random media under steady state infiltration conditions. The result of their studies showed that the head variance was mean-dependent and increased with mean soil-water pressure head (i.e., the drier the soil, the larger the head variance). The effective hydraulic conductivity was shown to be a second-rank tensor and anisotropic. The anisotropy is, however, moisture-dependent (i.e., the ratio of the horizontal to the vertical hydraulic conductivity depends on the soil water saturation). Such a moisture-dependent anisotropy is different from classic infiltration theories which generally assume the soil to be either isotropic or anisotropic with a constant ratio. They also emphasized the importance of the spatial variability of the "pore size distribution parameter" of the exponential model in the analysis of unsaturated flow in heterogeneous soils. *Mantoglou and Gelhar* [1987a, b, c] analyzed unsteady unsaturated flow in

heterogeneous porous media. The results of their studies indicated that moisture-dependent anisotropy shows significant hysteresis, depending on the mean flow conditions (wetting or drying). Furthermore, both *Yeh et al.* [1985a, b, c] and *Mantoglou and Gelhar* [1987a, b, c] concluded that the moisture-dependent anisotropy due to heterogeneities can cause significant lateral migration of water and pollutants in heterogeneous unsaturated zones.

Field soil-water pressure data collected by *Yeh et al.* [1986b] and *Greenholtz et al.* [1988] support the mean-dependent head variance concept. Additionally, results of laboratory experiments [*Mathieu and Yeh*, 1988; *Stephens and Heermann*, 1988] and field observations [*Crosby et al.*, 1968, 1971a, b; *Murphy et al.*, 1988] indicated large lateral migrations of pollutants and moisture in heterogeneous unsaturated soils.

Although these laboratory and field results support the moisture-dependent head variance and anisotropy concepts, a quantitative verification of these concepts is needed. The analyses by *Yeh et al.* [1985a, b, c] and *Mantoglou and Gelhar* [1987a, b, c] are approximations which used the assumption that perturbations in flow equations for heterogeneous media were small so that mathematics in the analysis could be simplified. The small perturbation assumption has been shown to be robust in saturated media [*Gutjahr*, 1984; *Ababou et al.*, 1988]. This assumption in unsaturated media is, however, subject to debate because the perturbation grows with the mean. For instance, the head variance increases as the soil becomes dry. Therefore it is necessary to assess the validity of the results derived from the perturbation analysis. Observations from many carefully designed field experiments are most appropriate, but these field experiments are generally rare. Numerical experiments are a possible alternative.

*Ababou et al.* [1988] conducted numerical simulations of three-dimensional steady state infiltration in media of random unsaturated hydraulic conductivity fields. They concluded that simulated head variance and effective conductivity compared well with the steady state spectral solution obtained by *Mantoglou and Gelhar* [1987b]. However, since a large number of nodes (300,000 nodes) were used in the simulation, their analysis was restricted to cases with a

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single realization of random unsaturated hydraulic conductivity fields with a specific infiltration rate. Monte Carlo simulations of two-dimensional, steady state unsaturated flow through autocorrelated random fields were conducted by *Hopmans et al.* [1988]. Only thin unsaturated zones (0.6–1.0 m) above the water table were considered; the simulation results may thus be influenced by the capillary fringe. Strictly speaking, their results cannot be compared with those by spectral methods which assume unit gradient situations. However, the results of their simulations support the general conclusions by *Yeh et al.* [1985a].

The purposes of this paper are to study the effects of heterogeneities on pressure profiles resulting from one-dimensional, steady state infiltration, to analyze the effective unsaturated hydraulic conductivity in heterogeneous soils, and to compare the head variance and the effective hydraulic conductivity estimated from the simulations to stochastic results developed by *Yeh et al.* [1985a, b, c]. Because of difficulties in solving two- and three-dimensional unsaturated flow equations, this study is limited to one-dimensional, steady state infiltration. Although one-dimensional, steady state infiltration may not closely represent field situations, it is, however, the first step to quantitatively test those stochastic results.

## METHODS

### Hydraulic Conductivity

Knowledge of the hydraulic conductivity and soil-water pressure head relationship of a porous medium is required to study unsaturated flow in the medium. In this study an exponential model [*Gardner, 1958*] was used for this relationship, that is,

$$K(\psi) = K_s \exp(\alpha \psi) \quad (1)$$

where  $K(\psi)$  is the hydraulic conductivity, a function of the soil-water pressure head  $\psi$  (negative), and hysteresis is ignored.  $K_s$  is the hydraulic conductivity of the medium at  $\psi = 0$ , and  $\alpha$  is the pore size distribution parameter which characterizes the rate of reduction in hydraulic conductivity as  $\psi$  becomes more negative.

For mathematical convenience, a log transform of (1) gives

$$\ln K(\psi) = \ln K_s + \alpha \psi \quad (2)$$

Equation (2) defines a linear relationship between  $\ln K$  and  $\alpha$  in which  $\alpha$  is the slope and  $\ln K_s$  is the intercept at  $\psi = 0$ . Since the assumed exponential model may or may not apply to a given soil type for the full range of soil-water pressure, the  $K_s$  value may or may not represent the saturated hydraulic conductivity of the medium. The appropriate definition of the parameters for a given soil may depend upon the range of the hydraulic conductivity pressure head data to which the model, (2), is applied. Generally, large values of  $K_s$  and  $\alpha$  correspond to coarse materials such as sand and gravel, and small values represent fine-textured materials. Thus characterizing the hydraulic conductivity behavior of a porous medium under any soil-water pressure requires the knowledge of the values of these two parameters.

### Generation of Random $\ln K_s$ and $\alpha$ Fields

Because of the heterogeneous nature of soil formations and the lack of complete knowledge of the spatial distribu-

tion of hydrologic properties of soil formations, it is appropriate to represent the parameters  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  as stochastic processes in space. Many field data [*Greenholtz et al., 1988; Bakr, 1976; Russo and Bresler, 1980, Byers and Stephens, 1983*] showed that these parameters are not entirely random but spatially correlated. Therefore statistical properties such as joint probability distributions, means, variances, and correlation functions of the two parameters are required to characterize their spatial variability. This statistical information, however, does not specify any single spatial arrangement of these two parameter values. That is, for a given set of the statistical information there are many possible realizations of spatial arrangement of the  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  values. Therefore in order to produce a specific spatial arrangement of the soil hydrologic parameter values for the given statistics a one-dimensional random field generator was employed in this study.

The random field generator used here, capable of generating random fields with any given covariance function, is based on an algorithm formulated by *Albano* [1981]. This algorithm uses the spectral representation theorem [*Lumley and Panofsky, 1964*] which states that if  $Y(x)$  is a second-order stationary stochastic process with zero mean and covariance  $C(s)$ , then there exists a unique complex stochastic process  $dZ(\omega)$ , such that

$$Y(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(i\omega x) dZ(\omega) \quad (3)$$

where  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ , and  $\omega$  is the wave number. In addition, there exists a unique distribution function  $F$  such that

$$C(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(i\omega s) dF(\omega) \quad (4)$$

$$E[dZ(\omega_1) dZ^*(\omega_2)] = dF(\omega) \quad \omega_1 = \omega_2$$

$$E[dZ(\omega_1) dZ^*(\omega_2)] = 0 \quad \omega_1 \neq \omega_2$$

where  $dZ^*(\omega)$  is the complex conjugate of  $dZ$ .

To use this theorem to generate a real-valued stochastic process,  $Y(x)$ , requires the knowledge of the covariance function  $C(s)$  of the process. In this analysis, an exponential covariance function,  $C(s) = \sigma^2 \exp(-|s|/l)$ , was used, where  $\sigma^2$  is the variance,  $s$  is the separation distance, and  $l$  is the integral scale. The spectral density corresponding to this function, which is the Fourier transform of the covariance, is

$$dF(\omega) = \frac{l}{\pi(1 + l^2\omega^2)} \quad (5)$$

and the spectral distribution function

$$F(\omega) = \frac{1}{\pi} (\tan^{-1} l\omega) + \frac{1}{2} \quad (6)$$

To generate the  $dZ$ , two independent, uniform, mean 0, variance 0.5, univariate random variables  $U$  and  $V$  are generated to represent the real part and imaginary part of the complex  $dZ$  process, respectively. This value is then multiplied by  $(dF(\omega))^{1/2}$ . The entire process is repeated for all  $\omega$ , yielding a complex random vector  $dZ$  which satisfies both (3) and (4). The Fourier transform of the  $dZ$  process then produces the  $Y(x)$  random field possessing the specified covariance function. The Fourier transform was carried out

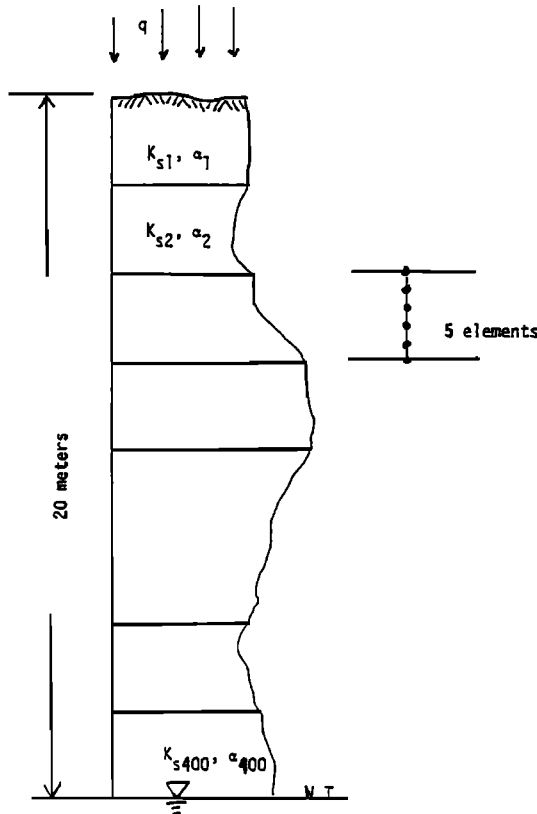


Fig. 1. The hypothetical soil profile and boundary conditions examined in this study.

by the fast Fourier transform algorithm in the work by Press *et al.* [1986].

The physical situation examined in this study was steady state infiltration into a 20-m-thick unsaturated soil formation. The formation consisted of 400 layers. Each layer was assigned a pair of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  values and was discretized into five homogeneous soil blocks. The flow regime was assumed to be one-dimensional. The upper boundary was set to be a prescribed flux boundary condition, and the lower boundary was a stationary water table (Figure 1).

The parameters  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  were assumed to be second-order stationary stochastic processes with means  $F$  and  $A$  and perturbations  $f$  and  $a$ , respectively. Both  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  processes were synthesized using the procedure discussed above. Since two random processes were considered, the relationship between these two random processes must be specified. However, field data pertaining to the relationship between the two parameters are rare. In this study, two extreme cases were analyzed: case I, where  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  are perfectly correlated random fields, and case II, where  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  are treated as uncorrelated processes. In both cases the autocorrelation functions of the  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  processes were assumed to be exponential functions with identical integral scales.

A rigorous test of the stochastic results by Yeh *et al.* [1985a, b, c] requires conducting a Monte Carlo simulation which involves generating many realizations of random  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  fields. To avoid such a computation intensive and therefore time-consuming task, the ergodicity assumption was used. That is, the probability distribution of a single

spatial realization can be viewed as that of the ensemble. The 400 pairs of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  parameters (one value of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  for each layer) were considered a large enough sample size for the ergodicity theorem to apply. Since data collected in a field represent a single realization of a stochastic process, the analysis based on a single realization of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  processes in this study thus, in a sense, serves the purpose of testing the applicability of the stochastic results to field situations.

*Analytical Solution*

To determine the pressure head distribution in the generated random fields, an analytical solution was developed. For one-dimensional, steady state, vertical infiltration in a unsaturated homogeneous soil the specific discharge is given by

$$q = -K(\psi) \left[ \frac{d\psi}{dz} + 1 \right] \tag{7}$$

where a negative  $q$  represents infiltration. If the hydraulic conductivity and pressure head relationship is assumed to be described by (1), by integrating (7) [Bear, 1972] the soil-water pressure head becomes

$$\psi = \frac{1}{\alpha} \ln \left\{ \exp [-\alpha(z - \psi_0)] + \frac{q}{K_s} \exp (-\alpha z) - \frac{q}{K_s} \right\} \tag{8}$$

where  $z$  is the elevation,  $\psi_0$  is the prescribed head at  $z = 0$ , and  $q$  is the flux at the land surface. Equation (8) is valid only if

$$0 < \left\{ \exp [-\alpha(z - \psi_0)] + \frac{q}{K_s} \exp (-\alpha z) - \frac{q}{K_s} \right\} \leq 1 \tag{9}$$

in other words,  $\psi \leq 0$ .

For layered soils, (8) can be applied to the lowest layer first to obtain the pressure head at the interface between this layer and the overlying layer. Since flow is steady, continuity requires that the pressure head in the lower layer equals that in the upper layer at the interface. The pressure head distribution in the overlying layer can thus be evaluated by using (8) and the pressure head at the interface as the prescribed head  $\psi_0$  at the lower boundary of the overlying layer. Therefore using this procedure recursively, one can easily obtain the pressure profile distribution in a formation containing any number of layers.

*Inverse Procedure*

The effective hydraulic conductivity of the synthesized heterogeneous soil formation was derived by conceptualizing the soil formation as an equivalent homogenous medium. Under the same boundary conditions the equivalent homogeneous medium will discharge the same amount of flux as the heterogeneous one. It follows then that the  $K$ - $\psi$  relationship of this equivalent homogeneous medium is the effective  $K$ - $\psi$  relationship of the heterogeneous medium. For simplicity, this effective hydraulic conductivity and pressure relationship is assumed to be exponential, as in equation (1). Thus the effective parameters for characterizing the medium are  $\hat{K}_s$  and  $\hat{\alpha}$ , where the circumflex denotes an effective parameter. If these two parameter values are known, (8)

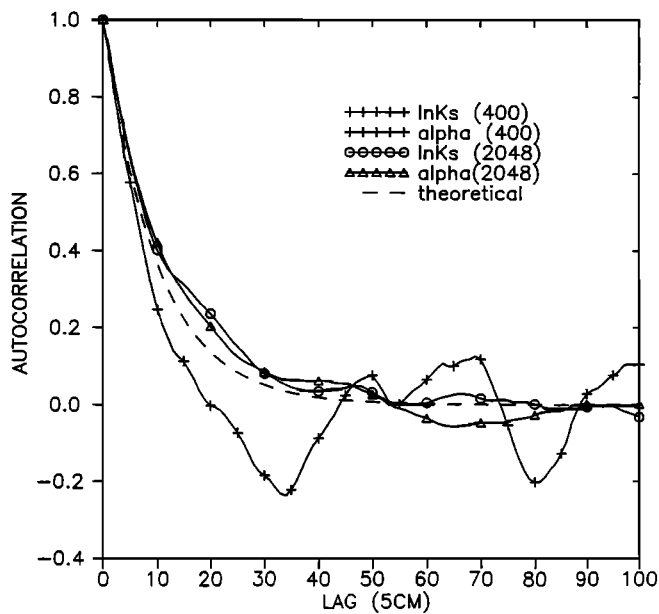


Fig. 2. Autocorrelation functions of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  processes, estimated from 400 and 2048 generated values.

describes the pressure head distribution in the equivalent homogenous medium. Further, if the infiltration rate is specified, substitution of the effective parameters in (8) will produce the mean pressure head distribution in the heterogeneous soil such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (H_i - \psi_i)^2 = \text{minimum} \quad (10)$$

where  $H_i$  is the pressure head value at  $i$ th depth calculated by (8) with the effective parameters,  $\psi_i$  is the pressure head in the heterogeneous soil at  $i$ th depth, and  $n$  is the total number of depths. Inasmuch as the effective parameters  $\hat{K}_s$  and  $\hat{\alpha}$  are unknown, (8) was regressed against  $\psi$  values with the aid of the Levenberg-Marquardt method [Press et al., 1986] to reach the condition (10). The parameter values providing the best fit were considered as the effective parameter values.

## RESULTS

For case I ( $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  are perfectly correlated) the mean and the variance of  $\ln K_s$  were specified to be 3.0 and 1.2, respectively, while the mean and the variance of  $\alpha$  were  $0.07 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $0.0001 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ , respectively. These values correspond to silty clay loam [Yeh et al., 1985c]. An exponential covariance function with an integral scale of 50 cm (10 layers) was assumed. Since  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  are assumed to be perfectly correlated, the same seed was used. Two thousand forty-eight pairs of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  values were generated by the spectral method discussed previously. The sample mean and variance of the  $\ln K_s$  process from the generated data were 2.91 and 1.31, respectively. The sample mean of the  $\alpha$  process was  $0.069 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , and the variance was  $0.00011 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ . The estimated autocorrelation functions for  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  processes are shown in Figure 2. However, only the first 400 pairs of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  values were assigned to the 400

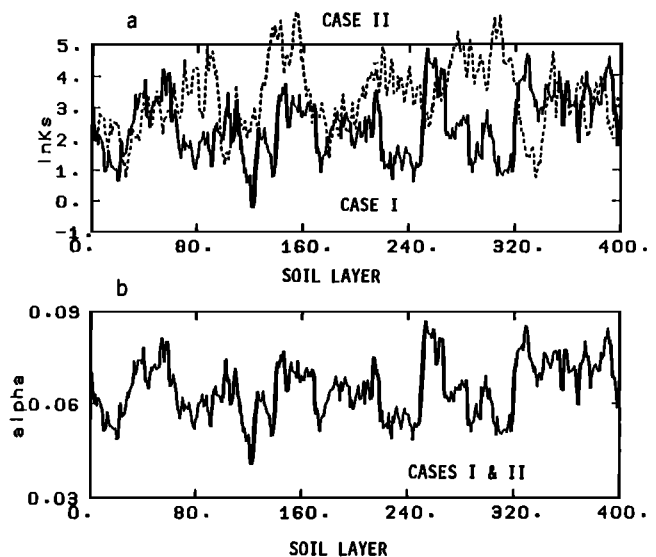


Fig. 3. (a) Spatial distributions of the  $\ln K_s$  and (b)  $\alpha$  values in cases I and II.

layers of the soil formation. Figures 3a and 3b show the spatial distribution of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  values along the vertical. The correlation between  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  processes was checked graphically by plotting  $\ln K_s$  versus  $\alpha$ . A perfect linear relationship between these processes with a slope of  $-109 \text{ cm}$  was found, indicating a perfect correlation between the two process. The estimated autocorrelation functions from the 400 data values are also shown in Figure 2.

For case II where  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  are uncorrelated, 2048  $\ln K_s$  values were regenerated with the same mean and variance as in case I but with a seed value different from that in case I. The same covariance function as in case I was used. The estimated mean and variance of the  $\ln K_s$  process were 2.97 and 1.36, respectively. For the  $\alpha$  random field the same realization generated in case I was used. The estimated autocorrelation function for the new  $\ln K_s$  process is identical to that of case I. Again, the first 400 pairs of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  values were assigned to the layers of the soil formation (Figures 3a and 3b). The independence of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  was checked by plotting  $\ln K_s$  versus  $\alpha$  values. No noticeable relationship between  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  was found, indicating independence of  $\ln K_s$  from  $\alpha$ .

Since the analytical solution (8) is valid for unsaturated situations only, it was then applied to the synthesized heterogeneous soil to obtain soil-water pressure head profiles under six different infiltration rates (i.e.,  $q = -1.0, -0.1, -0.006, -0.002, -0.0005, \text{ and } -0.0001 \text{ cm/d}$ ). These infiltration rates were used to ensure unsaturated conditions along the entire profiles. These calculated pressure head profiles for both cases are illustrated in Figures 4 and 5 as a function of depth.

## ANALYSIS OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### Pressure Head Variance

Figure 4 shows the simulated pressure head distribution with depth in case I ( $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  perfectly correlated). Pressure head values fluctuated significantly with depth. To objectively determine the mean pressure head profile at each

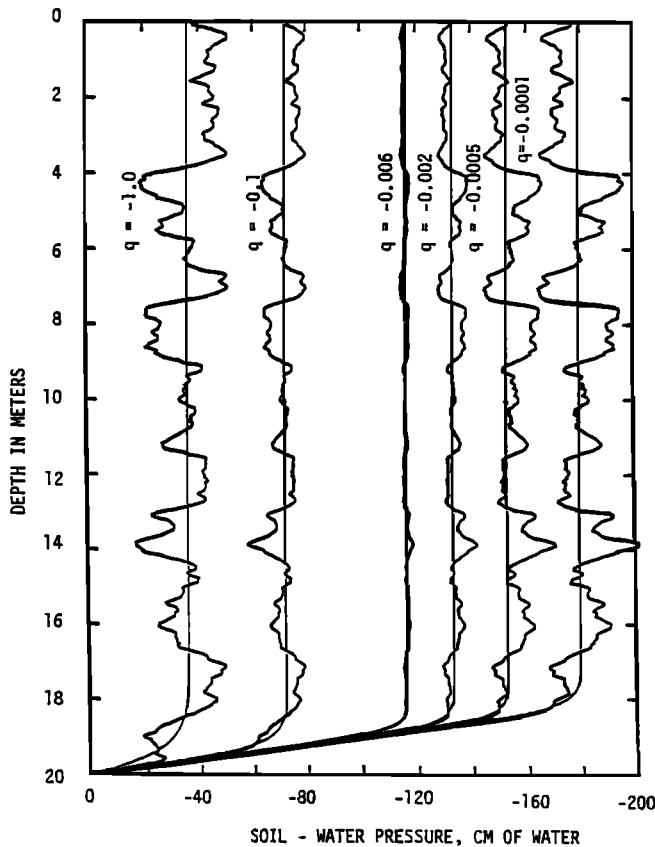


Fig. 4. Simulated soil-water pressure head distributions for perfectly correlated  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  (case I) under six infiltration rates.

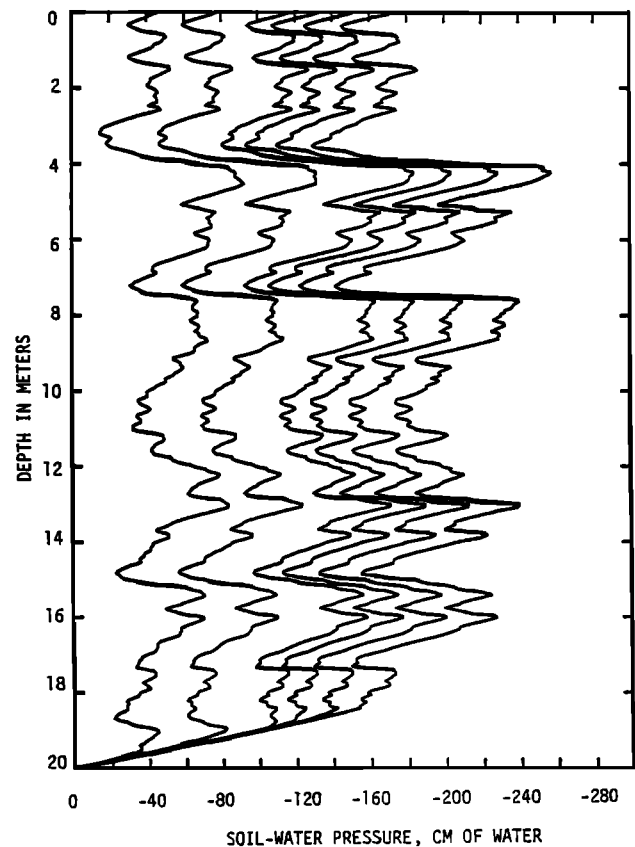


Fig. 5. Simulated soil-water pressure head distributions for uncorrelated  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  (case II) under six infiltration rates.

infiltration rate the inverse procedure was employed. The solid smooth curves in Figure 4 are the resultant mean pressure head profiles under different infiltration rates. These smooth mean pressure head profiles show that for a large portion of the soil formation, mean pressure head values reach a unit gradient situation. It is seen that the variability of head values as shown in the figure tends to decrease as the infiltration rate decreases. A nearly uniform head distribution was obtained as the infiltration rate approached 0.006 cm/d. However, the pressure head variation increased again after the infiltration rate became less than 0.006 cm/d. Figure 4 also shows that the wet regions at large infiltration rates became dry regions after the infiltration rate decreased from 0.006 cm/d and vice versa. The profiles appear to be symmetrical about the profile, resulting from a infiltration rate of 0.006 cm/d (a mirror image effect).

The pressure head profiles for six different infiltration rates in case II, where  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  are uncorrelated, are illustrated in Figure 5. The profiles are significantly different from those in case I. The variation in pressure head values grew as the infiltration rate decreased.

Note that variability in head is minimal near the water table in both cases. This can be attributed to the capillary fringe effect. It is also found that the pressure head in both cases tends to be normally distributed.

Before explaining the results of the pressure head profiles in cases I and II, it is necessary to examine the physical situation that cases I and II represent. Figure 6a illustrates the  $\ln K$  and  $\psi$  relationships for the case where  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  are correlated. Because of the perfect correlation between  $\ln K_s$

and  $\alpha$  processes (i.e., soil with a large value of  $\ln K_s$  has a large value of  $\alpha$  or slope of the  $\ln K-\psi$  relationship and vice versa), all the  $\ln K-\psi$  curves intersect at the soil-water pressure head equal to the constant of proportionality between  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$ , which is about  $-109$  cm. This constant represents the ratio of the standard deviation of  $\ln K_s$  to that of  $\alpha$ . On the other hand, the  $\ln K-\psi$  relationships for the uncorrelated case do not exhibit this unique property (Figure 6b), since all the  $\ln K-\psi$  curves tend to diverge as  $\psi$  becomes more negative.

By examining Figures 6a and 6b, one should be able to explain the differences between the results of case I and case II. In case I, at the infiltration rate of 1.0 cm/d, the mean pressure head was about  $-35$  cm at the portion of the soil formation where unit mean gradient existed. Since the mean profile approached a constant value, the infiltration rate was equal to the hydraulic conductivity at that mean pressure head value. If one draws a line parallel to the pressure head axis in Figure 6a at  $K = 1$  cm/d, this line will intersect with all the  $\ln K-\psi$  curves. If one assumes that a unit gradient condition exists over the large portion of each layer, the length of the line segment A-B bounded by two outermost  $\ln K-\psi$  curves (one with the largest  $\alpha$  value and the other the smallest) represents the variation in pressure head. It is evident from the figure that as the  $K$  values decrease, the length of the segment will decrease. The length of the segment approaches zero as  $K$  becomes close to 0.006 cm/d because all the  $\ln K-\psi$  curves cross at that infiltration rate or a mean pressure value of  $-109$  cm. As a result, the variation in  $\psi$  becomes minimal. Once the infiltration rate drops

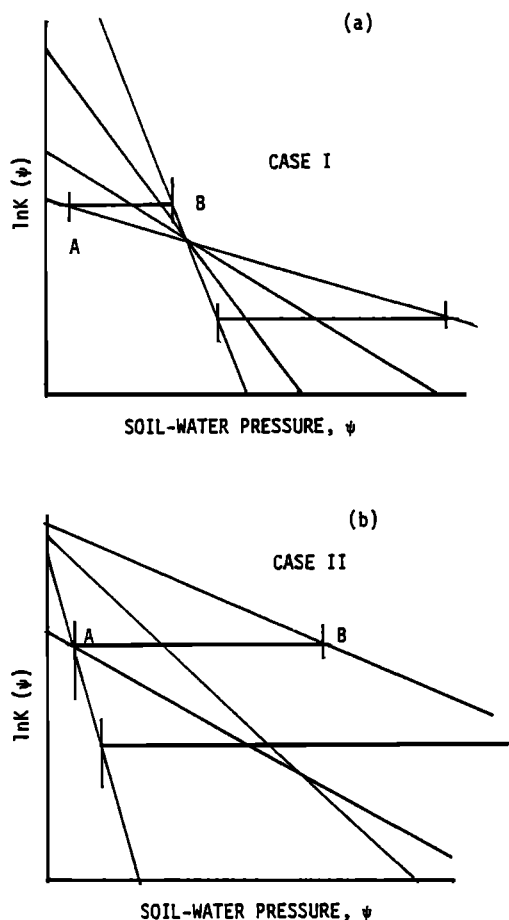


Fig. 6. A schematic illustration of  $\ln K$ - $\psi$  relationships in (a) case I and (b) case II.

beyond this rate, the length of the segment or the variability in  $\psi$  begins to grow again.

The symmetrical nature of the profiles is also related to the perfect correlation between  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$ . At pressures less than  $-109$  cm, as shown in Figure 6a, the layers with smaller  $\alpha$  values (fine-textured materials) are more conductive than those with large  $\alpha$  values. Therefore in order to maintain the same flux to satisfy the steady state condition the pressure values in fine-textured materials have to be much greater than those of coarse-textured materials. This explains the mirror image effect of pressure head profiles in case I under six different infiltration rates.

On the other hand, the length of the segment A-B in Figure 6b grows as the infiltrate rate or  $\ln K$  value decreases. This is due to the fact that the  $\ln K$ - $\psi$  curves in this case tend to diverge as the pressure head becomes more negative. The increasing variability in pressure head in case II as infiltration rate decreases may thus become clear.

The pressure head profiles in cases I and II, calculated by the analytical solution, are exact. They provide a means to quantitatively test the stochastic result by Yeh et al. [1985b]. The comparison was carried out by using equations (5.2.14) and (5.2.19) in the work by Yeh [1983]. That is, for the case where  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  are perfectly correlated, the head variance is given as

$$\sigma_{\psi}^2 = \frac{\sigma_f^2 l^2 (1 + H\xi)^2}{Al(1 + Al)} \tag{11}$$

For uncorrelated  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$ , the head variance is

$$\sigma_{\psi}^2 = \frac{(\sigma_f^2 + \sigma_{\alpha}^2 H^2) l^2}{Al(1 + Al)} \tag{12}$$

where  $H$  is the mean soil-water pressure head (negative), and  $l$  is the integral scale of the  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  parameters. The constant of proportionality between  $\alpha$  and  $\ln K_s$  is  $\xi$  while  $\sigma_f^2$  and  $\sigma_{\alpha}^2$  are the variance of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$ , respectively. The "A" denotes the mean of  $\alpha$ . Note that (11) and (12) were derived with the assumption that the mean hydraulic gradient equals to unity.

To calculate the head variance using (11) and (12), the values of the means and variances of the  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  processes estimated from the 400 and the 2048 generated values were used. For the 400  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  values, the estimated  $F$  (the mean of  $\ln K_s$ ) and  $\sigma_f^2$  are 2.406 and 0.965, and 3.314 and 1.184 for case I and case II, respectively. The estimated  $A$  and  $\sigma_{\alpha}^2$  for both cases are  $0.0646 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $0.00008 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ . These statistical parameters for the 2048  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  values were reported earlier. Since (11) and (12) are limited to unit gradient situations, the mean head values in (11) are those at the portion of the simulated profiles where unit mean gradient exists. The mean head values in both cases were taken to be the arithmetic mean of the head values at sections of the soil profile where the mean gradient was visually considered as unity, excluding those head values near the water table. These mean head values agreed with those obtained by the inverse procedure. The remaining parameters to be determined are the integral scales  $l$  of the  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  parameters. The integral scales of both parameters were assumed to be the same, and they were estimated from their sample autocorrelation functions as the separation distance at which the autocorrelation value drops to  $e^{-1}$  level. Although autocorrelation function calculated from 400 generated values oscillated significantly, a relatively smooth autocorrelation function was obtained from all of the 2048 values (Figure 2). The integral scale estimated from 400 data points and 2048 data points, was 42 and 60 cm, respectively. These values are comparable with the integral scale, 50 cm, specified in the random field generation. Using the means, variances, and integral scales estimated from both the 400 and the 2048  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  data, head variances at the six mean head values corresponding to the six infiltration rates were calculated using (11) for case I and (12) for case II. As shown in Figure 7, the head variances calculated by using (11) and (12) agreed with those obtained from the simulation. Overall, head variances determined using means, variances, and integral scales estimated from the 2048 series tend to match the simulated results better.

*Effective Hydraulic Conductivity*

The effective hydraulic conductivity in case I was first estimated by using the inverse procedure, with the assumption that the exponential hydraulic conductivity model (1) is valid for the effective hydraulic conductivity of the equivalent homogeneous porous medium. The inverse procedure then determined the effective  $\hat{K}$  and  $\hat{\alpha}$  values. These values are listed in Table 1 along with the six infiltration rates.

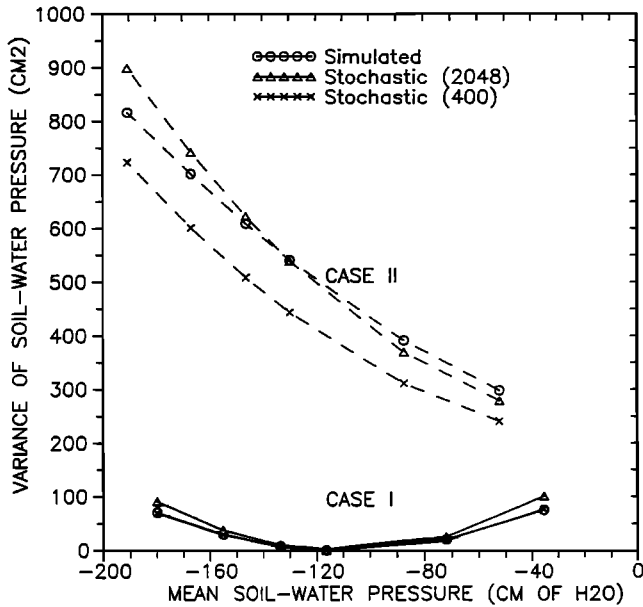


Fig. 7. Comparison of head variances simulated and those by Yeh *et al.* [1985a, b, c], with parameter values estimated from 400 and 2048 series for both case I and case II (dashed curve).

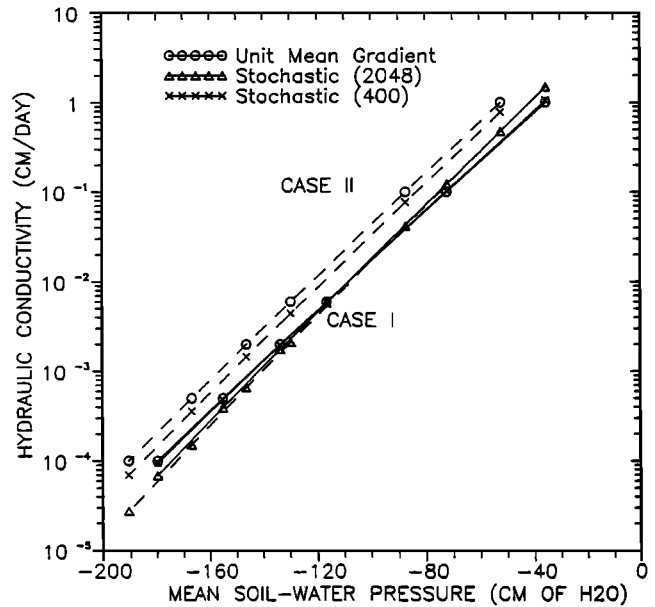


Fig. 8. Comparison of effective hydraulic conductivities derived from the unit mean gradient approach and those by the stochastic formula with parameter values estimated from 400 and 2048 series for case I and case II (dashed curve).

Values of these effective parameters tend to vary with infiltration rates without any noticeable pattern. Furthermore, the estimated  $\hat{K}_s$  values are much smaller than the  $K_s$  values generated. This result can be attributed to the trade-off between the effective  $\hat{K}_s$  and  $\hat{\alpha}$  values in the inverse process. Apparently, there is no unique combination of  $\hat{K}_s$  and  $\hat{\alpha}$  for the effective hydraulic conductivity.

An alternative of the inverse procedure for determining the effective  $\ln K-\psi$  relationship is a unit mean gradient approach. This approach can be applied here because the mean head profiles in the large part of the soil formation were close to the unit gradient condition (Figures 4 and 5). Under the unit gradient assumption the hydraulic conductivity equals the infiltration rate at the corresponding mean pressure head. These pairs of hydraulic conductivity and mean pressure head values thus define the effective  $\ln K-\psi$  relationships for both cases, and they are plotted in Figure 8. The effective hydraulic conductivity and pressure head relationships of both cases behave as an exponential function as the mean pressure head changes. For case I the estimated effective  $\alpha$  and  $\ln K_s$  are 0.063 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 2.27, respectively. The effective  $K_s$  value is less than the geometric mean of  $K_s$ , and the effective  $\alpha$  value is in agreement with the arithmetic mean of the 400  $\alpha$  values. Mean head profiles produced by the six infiltration rates in case I were also

calculated using the analytical solution (8) with the effective parameters. Figure 9 illustrates the comparison of these profiles with those obtained by the inverse procedure. Overall, the head profiles calculated with the effective parameters agree with those obtained by the inverse procedure.

The effective  $\ln K-\psi$  relationships derived by the unit mean gradient approach were also compared to the formula derived on the basis of the results from Yeh [1983] and [Yeh *et al.*, 1986a]. For case I, where  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  are perfectly correlated, the formula for the effective unsaturated hydraulic conductivity  $K_e(H)$  is

$$K_e(H) = \hat{K}_s \exp(\hat{\alpha}H) \tag{13}$$

where

$$\hat{K}_s = \exp \left[ F - \frac{\sigma_f^2}{2(1 + Al)} \right] \tag{14}$$

representing the hydraulic conductivity of the medium at zero mean soil-water pressure head,  $H = 0$ , and

$$\hat{\alpha} = \left\{ A - \frac{[\sigma_f^2(H^2\xi^2 + 2H\xi) + 2\sigma_\alpha^2(H\xi + 1)l\xi]}{2(1 + Al)H} \right\} \tag{15}$$

where  $\xi^2 = \sigma_\alpha^2/\sigma_f^2$  and  $H < 0$ . Similarly, for case II where  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  are uncorrelated, the effective hydraulic conductivity can be expressed as (13) with  $\hat{K}_s$  identical to (14), but with

$$\hat{\alpha} = A - \frac{\sigma_\alpha^2(2l + H)}{2(1 + Al)} \tag{16}$$

TABLE 1. Effective Hydraulic Conductivity Parameters for Case I, Estimated by the Inverse Procedure

Infiltration Rate, cm/d	$\hat{K}_s$ , cm/d	$\hat{\alpha}$ , cm <sup>-1</sup>
1.0	2.096	0.0206
0.1	1.639	0.0386
0.006	4.480	0.0568
0.002	2.404	0.0531
0.0005	2.217	0.0542
0.0001	0.518	0.0476

The parameter values used to evaluate the effective hydraulic conductivities for both cases (equations (13)–(16)) were the same as those in the head variance analysis. Figure 8 shows that the predicted effective hydraulic conductivity curves using (13)–(16) are in close agreement with those

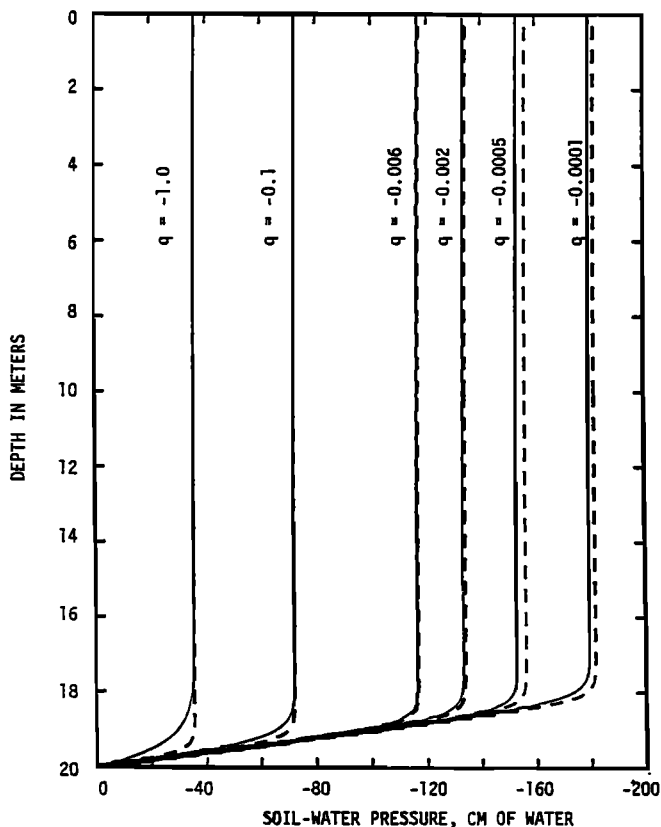


Fig. 9. Comparison of mean head profiles obtained by the inverse approach and those simulated with the effective hydraulic conductivity obtained by the unit mean gradient approach (dashed lines).

obtained from the unit mean gradient approach. For case II the effective hydraulic conductivity determined by the stochastic formula and the parameters estimated from the 2048 series, however, deviates substantially from that determined by the unit mean gradient approach. Interestingly, as shown previously, the parameter values estimated from the 2048 series gives a better result in terms of head variances. The discrepancy can be attributed to the fact that the head variances in case II are much greater than those in case I. The exponential generalization used in the spectral method [Yeh et al., 1985a] to derive the effective hydraulic conductivity may fail at these large variances [Poley, 1988].

As mentioned earlier, the effective  $\hat{K}_s$  and  $\hat{\alpha}$  values estimated by the inverse procedure in case I at different infiltration rates tend to behave randomly. This indicates a compensation effect between the two parameters during the optimization process and no unique optimal values. However, according to the stochastic result (14),  $\hat{K}_s$  values for both case I and case II can be expressed in terms of  $F$ ,  $\sigma_f^2$ ,  $A$ , and  $l$ . This implies that the  $\hat{K}_s$  value depends on the properties of porous media only. Therefore it is reasonable to hold  $\hat{K}_s$  constant while the inverse procedure is used to search for the effective parameter,  $\hat{\alpha}$ . On the basis of this assumption the  $\hat{K}_s$  values were calculated using (14) and parameter values estimated from the 400 series as 9.73 and 23.41 cm/d for case I and case II, respectively. Since  $\hat{K}_s$  is fixed, and  $\hat{\alpha}$  is the only parameter to be searched, the trade-off between  $\hat{K}_s$  and  $\hat{\alpha}$  is thus eliminated. Table 2 tabulates the estimated  $\hat{\alpha}$  values for the six infiltration rates

TABLE 2. Comparisons of the Effective Parameter  $\hat{\alpha}$  Values Obtained by the Inverse Procedure and Stochastic Results

Infiltration Rate, cm/d	$\hat{\alpha}$ (Inverse), $\text{cm}^{-1}$	$\hat{\alpha}$ (Stochastic), $\text{cm}^{-1}$
<i>Case I</i>		
1.0	0.06411	0.06447
0.1	0.06336	0.06344
0.006	0.06345	0.06340
0.002	0.06357	0.06348
0.0005	0.06375	0.06361
0.0001	0.06395	0.06379
<i>Case II</i>		
1.0	0.06284	0.06424
0.1	0.06384	0.06463
0.006	0.06459	0.06509
0.002	0.06481	0.06527
0.0005	0.06506	0.06550
0.0001	0.06530	0.06576

in both case I and case II. These values were also compared to those obtained by using (15) and (16) (Figure 10). The stochastic results agree reasonably well with those obtained by the inverse procedure. Again, the discrepancy in case II is larger than in case I. This is again due to the larger head variance in case II than in case I. Errors due to extrapolating the hydraulic conductivity to large variances using the exponential approach in the spectral analysis thus become large.

It is also interesting to note that both (15) and (16), and the simulation results, indicate that the effective  $\hat{\alpha}$  parameter value is not constant for a given heterogeneous porous medium but varies with mean pressure head. However, the dependence of  $\hat{\alpha}$  on the mean pressure head does not seem to have significant effect on the overall effective hydraulic conductivity-pressure relationship, as shown in Figure 8.

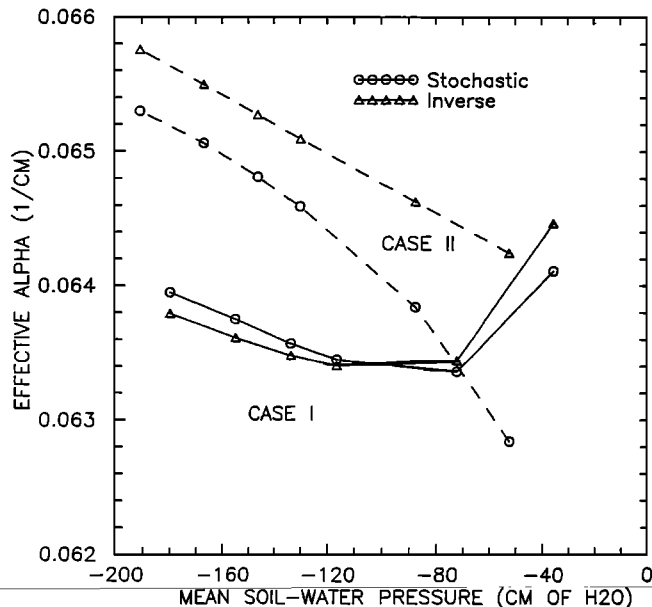


Fig. 10. Comparison of effective parameter  $\hat{\alpha}$  derived from the inverse procedure and stochastic results, with the parameter values estimated from the 400 series for case I and case II (dashed lines).



## CONCLUSIONS

In this study, pressure head profiles for one-dimensional steady state infiltration in unsaturated heterogeneous soils were calculated using analytical solutions. The analytical approach provides an easy way to demonstrate the effect of spatial variability in unsaturated hydraulic conductivity on unsaturated flow and to test the stochastic results developed by Yeh *et al.* [1985a, b, c]. Since the solution is exact, no iteration is required and no convergence problems exist, as in most numerical methods.

The results of the simulations illustrate the importance of considering the spatial variability of the  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  parameters in the analysis of unsaturated flow. The change in the variance of the pressure head with different infiltration rates seems to be largely related to the variance of the slope of  $K-\psi$  relationships or  $\alpha$  parameters. In addition, the cross-correlation between  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  parameters can significantly affect the flow behaviors.

Effective unsaturated hydraulic conductivity of heterogeneous media with random  $K_s$  and  $\alpha$  fields may not be represented by the exponential model. If the exponential model is used to describe the effective hydraulic conductivity and mean pressure head relationship, the effective  $\alpha$  parameter may vary with mean pressure head and variability of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  at local scales.

The results of this study also indicate that the unit mean gradient approach is suitable for determining effective unsaturated hydraulic conductivities of heterogeneous porous media under steady state infiltration conditions. However, many soil-water pressure measurements are required in order to properly define the mean pressure.

The results of the study are in good agreement with the stochastic results obtained by Yeh *et al.* [1985a, b, c]. However, to fully test the robustness of their results may require a more rigorous analysis in which large values of the variances of  $\ln K_s$  and  $\alpha$  should be used, and many more realizations should be considered. Before a rigorous analysis is conducted, there is a need to quantify the range of the variability of the parameters (such as  $K_s$  and  $\alpha$ ) of unsaturated hydraulic conductivity models in various geologic environments. Finally, many carefully controlled field experiments will serve as the ultimate test of their hypotheses.

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