

What drives fluid flow in the crust?

Part 1: Topography-driven flow



M.Geo.239
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Lectures so far:

- Fluid volumes in the crust
- Diffusion and transport of fluid, heat and solutes in the crust
- Permeability of the crust
- Temperatures and heat flow in the crust

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Lectures on driving forces:

- Today: Driving forces of fluid flow: Topography-driven flow
- 18 Dec: Flow driven by density gradients (convection)
- 8 Jan: Flow driven by compaction

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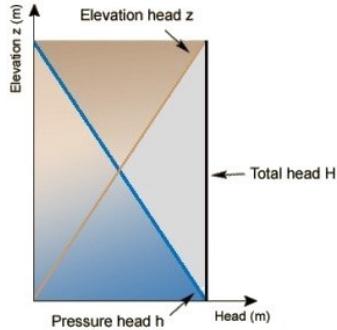
What drives fluid flow: the energy potential of a fluid

- Fluid potential = gravitational potential + elastic energy + kinetic energy:
$$E_t = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + mgz + \frac{mp}{\rho}$$
- Fluid energy potential per unit volume (note mass/volume = density (ρ)):
$$E_t = \frac{1}{2}\rho v^2 + \rho gz + p$$
- Fluid potential per unit weight = hydraulic head (m)
$$\frac{E_t}{g} = z + \frac{p}{\rho g} = h$$
- h = elevation + pressure head

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Hydraulic head & fluid flow

$$h = z + \frac{p}{\rho g}$$

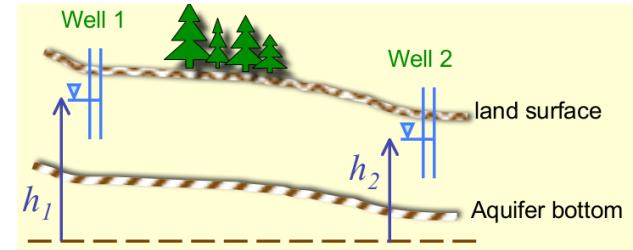


source: C. Harvey, MIT

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Hydraulic head & fluid flow

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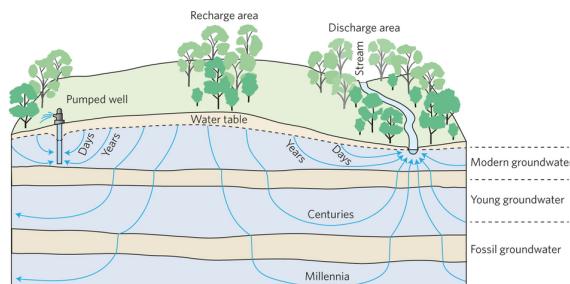


Hydraulic head an aquifer, source: J.L. Wilson, NMT

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Topography-driven flow

- Fluid flow is driven by the hydraulic gradient:
- The gradient is typically relatively low, 1% on average
- Typical flow velocities are m/yr



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Aquifer types

- Differences in permeability give rise to a broad classification of geological units into:
 - aquifers: permeable units
 - aquitards: impermeable units
- Aquifers can be confined or unconfined
- Confined conditions can give rise to artesian wells: wells where the hydraulic head is above the surface (no pump required)

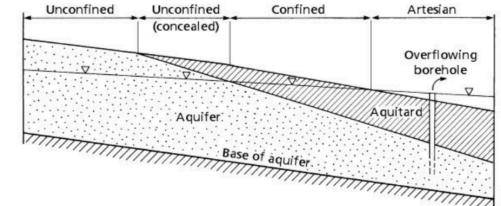


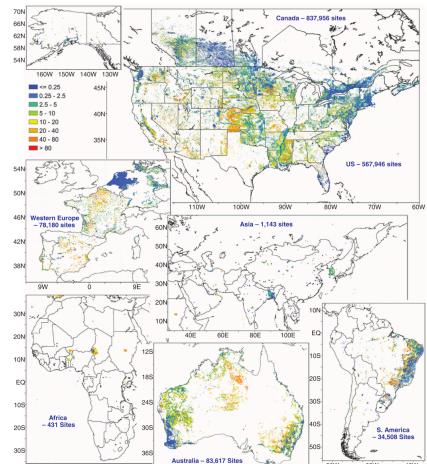
Fig. 2.26 Cross-section showing four types of groundwater conditions. A water table is developed where the aquifer is unconfined or concealed and a potentiometric surface is present where the aquifer experiences confined or artesian conditions.

Hiscock and Bense (2014)

Hydraulic gradients

- Hydraulic gradients are typically relatively low, the estimated global average is 1%
- This is slightly lower than the topographic gradient
- -> the groundwater table is a subdued replica of the surface

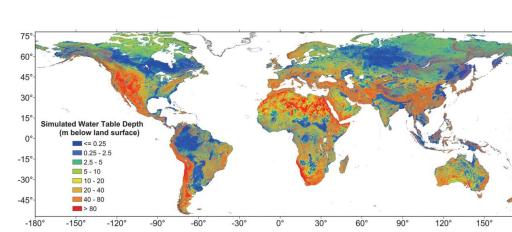
Global depth of the watertable.
Combination of data compilation and
model interpretation
Fan et al. (2013) Science



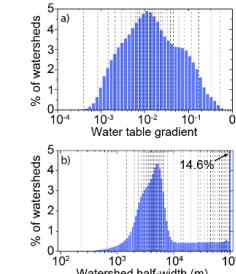
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Global depth of the watertable, combination of data
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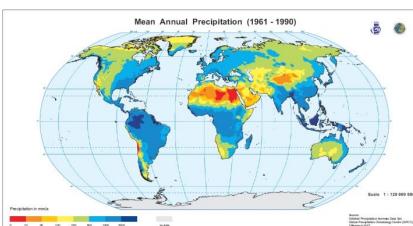


Global average watertable gradients (top) and
distance to the nearest stream (bottom)
Gleeson et al. (2016) Nature Geosc.

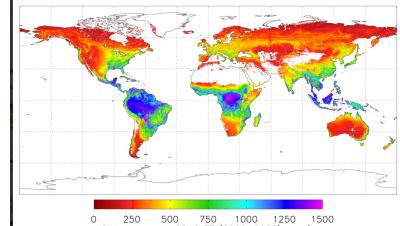
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Groundwater recharge

- Groundwater recharge = precipitation - runoff - evaporation - transpiration
- Runoff: depends on slope and soil properties, typically <5% of precipitation
- Evapotranspiration (ET): can reach values > 1 m/yr in semi-arid and arid regions
- Humid regions: recharge is relatively predictable using models of precipitation, runoff and evapotranspiration
- Semi-arid and arid regions: ET is much higher than precipitation. Recharge depends on infrequent high precipitation events, and favourable recharge flow paths for fluids to escape evapotranspiration



Global average precipitation
(<http://www.whymap.org>)

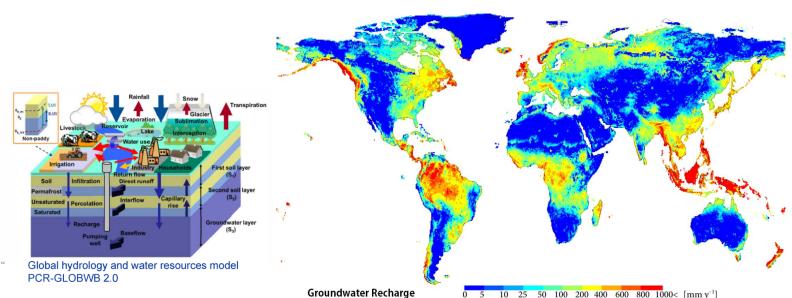


Global ET, source NASA/Univ Montana
(www.ntsg.umt.edu/project/mod16)

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Groundwater recharge

- Global models of groundwater recharge exist, but perform much better in humid areas than in semi-arid regions
- Typically models of groundwater recharge consist of a 1D water budget model that combines precipitation, surface runoff, evaporation/transpiration. Remaining budget term=groundwater recharge



Global model of groundwater recharge
De Graaf et al. (2015) HESS

Recharge and precipitation

- There is a rough correlation of recharge with precipitation, but large variation that depends on topography, soil conditions and geology. Recharge is especially variable in semi-arid regions

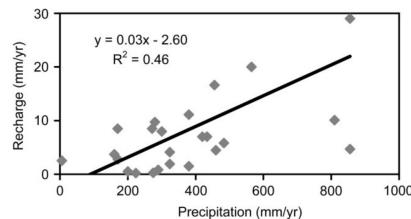


Figure 12. Relationship between recharge and precipitation from studies of large natural areas ($40\text{--}374\text{--}200\text{ km}^2$) using methods that reflect regional recharge rates (modelling, saturated zone CMB, micro-gravity, and water-table fluctuations) (Leane and Allison, 1986; Edmunds et al., 1988; Bazuhair and Wood, 1996; Sami and Hughes, 1996; Vries et al., 2000; Love et al., 2000; Anderholm, 2001; Leduc et al., 2001; Flint et al., 2002, 2004; Favreau et al., 2002b; Harrington et al., 2002; Hevesi et al., 2003; Goodrich et al., 2004; Sanford et al., 2004; Heilweil et al., 2006; Kees et al., 2005)

Compilation of regional groundwater recharge estimates.
Scanlon et al. (2006) Hydrol. Proc.

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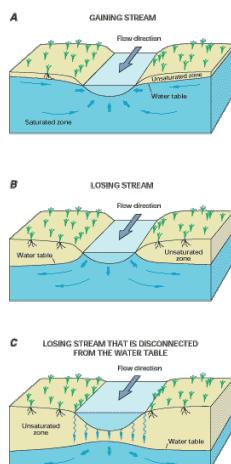
Groundwater discharge

- Groundwater discharges at low elevations where hydraulic head (h) is higher or close to the surface level or the elevation of water bodies
 - $h >$ surface level: seepage, ponding, springs, surface runoff
 - $h >$ water level: discharge to rivers, lakes or oceans
 - $h >$ surface level - $\sim 2\text{m}$: direct evapotranspiration of groundwater and capillary rise

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Groundwater discharge

- Groundwater is important in sustaining the baseflow of rivers, ie the steady background flow rate outside of temporal peaks following rainfall events
- Most streams gain water. In arid regions streams can become sources of groundwater when the watertable is located below the level of the stream



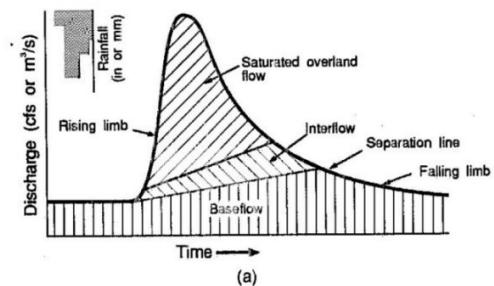
Source: USGS

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Groundwater discharge

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River discharge over time, and the contribution of groundwater (baseflow) (Maidment 1992)



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Topography-driven flow

- What kind of flow systems do we get as a result of recharge and discharge of meteoric water?
- M.K. Hubbert (1940) analytical solution of groundwater flow in a simple topography-driven flow system:

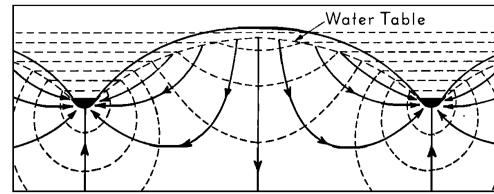


Fig. 4. Approximate flow pattern in uniformly permeable material between the sources tributary over the air-water interface and the valley sinks. (After Hubbert [1940].)

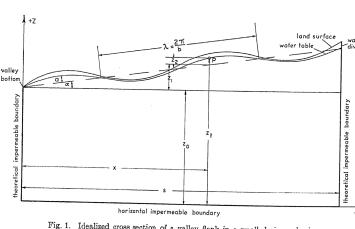
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Topography-driven flow

- Josef Toth expanded on the work by Hubbert in the 1960s by looking at the response of flow systems to variations in topography in 2D
- Analytical solution to groundwater flow in a system with a sinusoidal watertable



$$\phi = g\left\{ z_0 + \frac{c's}{2} + \frac{a'}{sb'}(1 - \cos b's) \right. \\ \left. + 2 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \left[\frac{a'b'(1 - \cos b's \cos m\pi)}{b'^2 - m^2\pi^2/s^2} \right. \right. \\ \left. \left. + \frac{c's^2}{m^2\pi^2} (\cos m\pi - 1) \right] \right. \\ \left. \frac{\cos(m\pi x/s) \cosh(m\pi z_0/s)}{s \cdot \cosh(m\pi z_0/s)} \right\} \quad (6)$$



Toth (1963) JGR

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Topography-driven flow

- Results: High relief: local flow systems only, all recharge discharges in the nearest stream

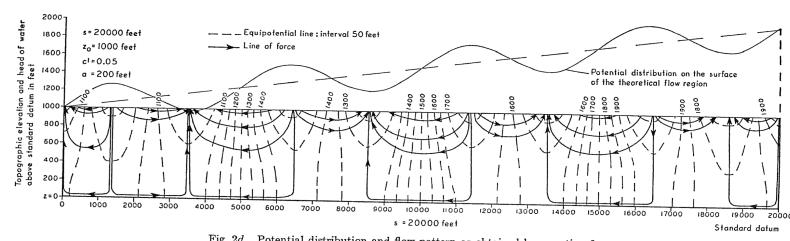


Fig. 2d. Potential distribution and flow pattern as obtained by equation 6.

Toth (1963)

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Topography-driven flow

- Moderate relief: Some of the groundwater flow is regional, it does not discharge into the nearest river but instead flow to the lowest surface water body in the system
- ie, most groundwater flow systems are a combination of local and regional groundwater flow

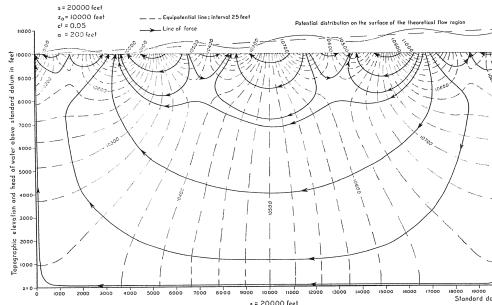


Fig. 2e. Potential distribution and flow pattern as obtained by equation 6.

Toth (1963)

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Local vs regional flow

- Conceptual model based on Toth's work:

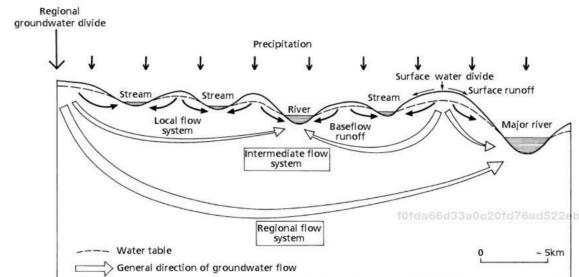


Fig. 2.45 Diagram showing the influence of hummocky topography in producing local, intermediate and regional groundwater flow systems. (Adapted from Toth 1963. Reproduced with permission of John Wiley & Sons.)

Hiscock and Bense (2014)

Topography-driven flow and relief

- How does topography-driven flow react to variations in relief and hydraulic conductivity
- First numerical models develop in the 1970s by Freeze and Witherspoon
- Results for a homogeneous basin with different values of relief:

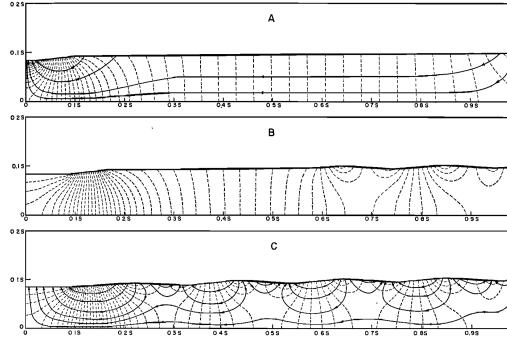
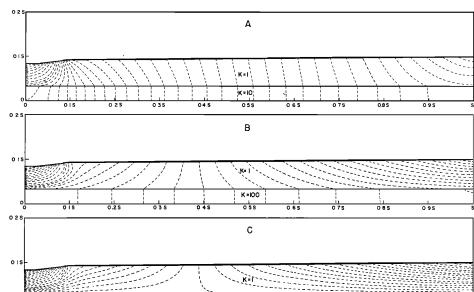


Fig. 1. Effect of water-table configuration on regional groundwater flow through homogeneous isotropic media.

22 Freeze & Witherspoon (1967) Water Res. Research

Topography-driven flow and conductivity

- Topography-driven flow and hydraulic conductivity
- Slow vertical flow through layers with a low hydraulic conductivity, fast horizontal flow through layers with a high conductivity:



- Flow for two layer system with higher conductivity at the bottom by a factor of 10 (panel A), 100 (B) and 1000 (C)
- Note that the figure shows the equipotential lines only (lines of equal h)
- Flow is always perpendicular to the equipotential lines.
- The wider the equipotential lines are apart, the faster the flow.

Freeze & Witherspoon (1967)
Water Res. Research

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Topography-driven flow and conductivity

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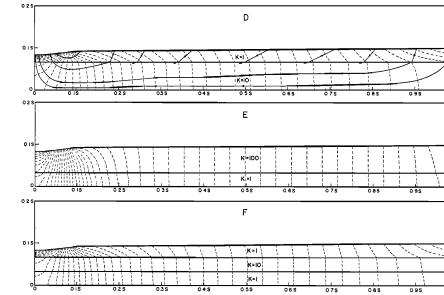
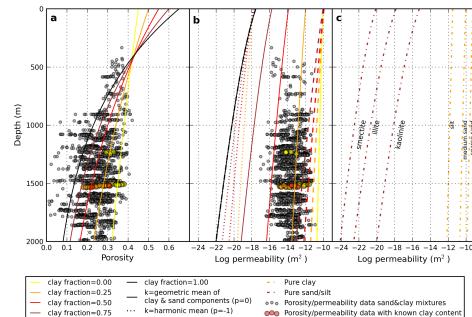


Fig. 2. Regional groundwater flow through layered media with a simple water-table configuration.

24 Freeze & Witherspoon (1967) Water Res. Research

Topography-driven flow and conductivity

- Permeability & hydraulic conductivity tend to decrease with depth
- -> flow decreases with depth, most groundwater flow is relatively shallow, and local
- True for sedimentary rocks:

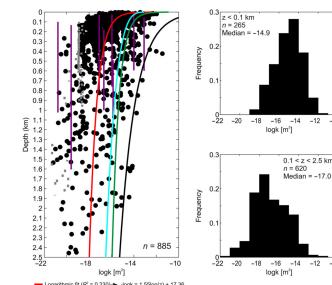


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Permeability decrease with depth for siliciclastic sediments, Luijendijk & Gleeson (2015) Geofluids

Topography-driven flow and conductivity

- Permeability & hydraulic conductivity tend to decrease with depth
- -> flow decreases with depth, most groundwater flow is relatively shallow, and local
- And for crystalline rocks:

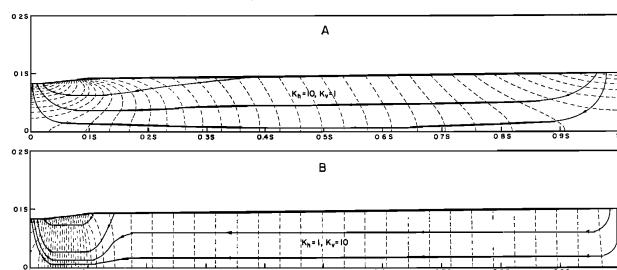


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Permeability decrease with depth for crystalline rocks, Ranjram et al. (2015) Geofluids

Topography-driven flow and anisotropy

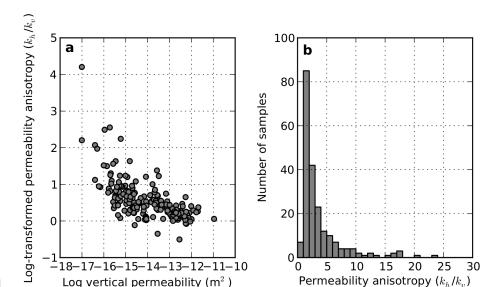
- Effects of anisotropic hydraulic conductivity: higher horizontal / bedding-parallel permeability keeps flow shallower and more local



27 Freeze & Witherspoon (1967) Water Res. Research

Topography-driven flow and anisotropy

- Most sedimentary rocks are strongly anisotropic
- Small scale: $K_h/K_v = 1$ to 10
- At larger scales K_h/K_v increases to >100
- Consequence: stronger horizontal than vertical flow
- This keeps groundwater flow systems relatively shallow and local



Permeability anisotropy of ~10 cm size samples of sedimentary rocks Luijendijk & Gleeson (2015) Geofluids

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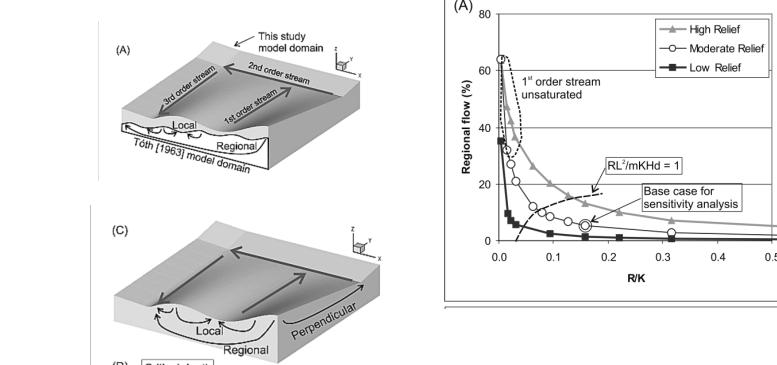
Local vs regional flow

- How important is regional groundwater flow?
- In Toth's models: up to ~20% is regional flow, the remainder is local. This may be an overestimate, because in permeability was constant in these models
- The ratio of local and regional flow depends on watertable gradient, which (in general) is a subdued version of the topographic gradient
- More recent models with realistic topography and permeability: up to 50% regional flow in mountainous settings, much less in most cases

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Local vs regional flow

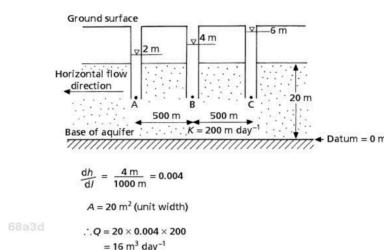
- More recent models with realistic topography and permeability: up to 50% regional flow in mountainous settings, much less in most cases



Gleeson & Manning (2008) WRR
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Mapping groundwater flow

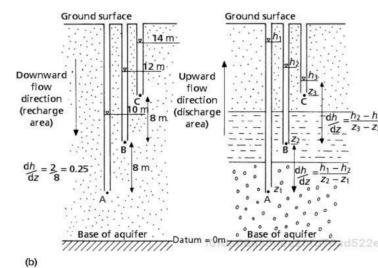
- Data on groundwater levels & hydraulic head can be used to quantify flow direction and rates
- In this case flow can be calculated using the depth integrated version of Darcy's law: $Q = K b dh/dx$ (units of $Q = m^2/s$)
- Or if we assume we know the width of the aquifer too: $Q = K A dh/dx$ (units of $Q = m^3/s$)



Hiscock and Bense (2014)

Mapping groundwater flow

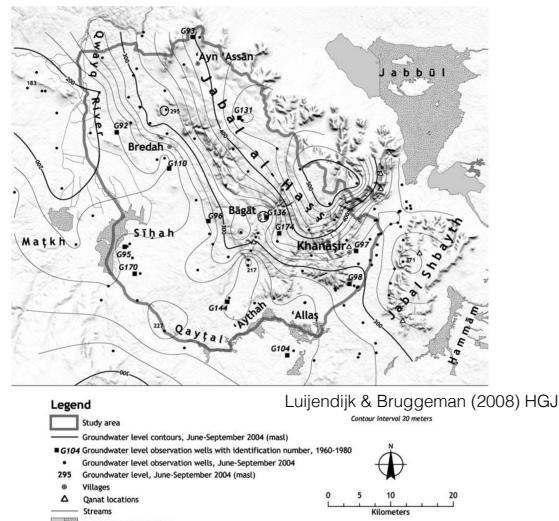
- One can also map vertical groundwater flow directions in single locations by measuring hydraulic head at different depths
- This can provide important information on the locations of recharge and discharge areas and recharge and discharge rates



Hiscock and Bense (2014)

Mapping groundwater flow

- Map of hydraulic head in a shallow aquifer in semi-arid syria
 - Try to locate groundwater flow directions, recharge and discharge areas
 - Note that groundwater flow always follows the steepest hydraulic gradient -> perpendicular to the lines of equal hydraulic head



Summary

- Fluid flow in the subsurface is the result of gravitational force and fluid pressure
 - Energy potential of a fluid: $E_t = gz + \frac{p}{\rho}$
 - Hydraulic head (potential per unit weight): $h = z + \frac{p}{\rho g}$
 - Topography-driven flow: the result of recharge and groundwater discharge to rivers, lakes, oceans or direct evapotranspiration
 - Relief segments flow into local and regional flow systems
 - Theoretical depth of topography-driven flow = equal to average length scale of watersheds (~10 km)
 - However, flow decreases with depth due to layered permeability structure, permeability anisotropy and permeability decrease with depth.
 - Hydraulic head measured in boreholes can be used to map flow directions, recharge and discharge areas, and to quantify groundwater flow rates in combination with depth-integrated versions of Darcy's law

$$E_t = gz + \frac{p}{\rho} \quad h = z + \frac{p}{\rho g}$$

(weight):

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Next week (18 Dec):

- Examples of basin-scale flow systems
 - More driving forces: Convection, flow driven by density gradients
 - Reading material: Garven (1995)

