

1 **Grid Refinement in Cartesian Coordinates for Groundwater Flow Models Using the**  
2 **Divergence Theorem and Taylor's series.**

3

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5

6 **Abstract**

7

8 Grid refinement is introduced in a numerical groundwater model to increase the accuracy of  
9 the solution over local areas without compromising the run time of the model. Numerical  
10 methods developed for grid refinement suffered certain drawbacks, for example deficiencies in  
11 the implemented interpolation technique; the non-reciprocity in head calculations or flow  
12 calculations; lack of accuracy resulting from high truncation errors, and numerical problems  
13 resulting from the construction of elongated meshes. A refinement scheme based on the  
14 divergence theorem and Taylor's expansions is presented here. This scheme is based on the  
15 work of De Marsily (1986) but includes more terms of the Taylor's series to improve the  
16 numerical solution. In this scheme flow reciprocity is maintained and high order of refinement  
17 was achievable. The new numerical method, investigated by modelling flows in homogeneous  
18 confined aquifers, produced results with acceptable degrees of accuracy. It converges and  
19 reproduces the desired solution in heterogeneous aquifers. This method also shows the  
20 potential for application to solving groundwater heads over nested meshes with irregular  
21 shapes.

22

23 **Introduction**

24

25 The finite difference technique is a numerical method that is used to solve the differential  
26 equation representing the spatial and temporal variations of the groundwater heads of  
27 groundwater systems. Like other numerical techniques, for example, the subsurface flow finite  
28 element models FEHM (Zyvoloski et al., 1997) and FEFLOW (Diersch, 2005), the continuous  
29 aquifer domain is discretised into a set of sub-domains or nodes, where groundwater heads are  
30 calculated. The increased number of nodes both improves the accuracy of the numerical  
31 solution and improves the processing time required to produce the solution. In the early days  
32 of finite difference applications, computational resources were limited in terms of both storage  
33 capacity and computational speed. This made the efficiency of a numerical method an  
34 important feature and most often the resolution of the numerical grids holding nodes was  
35 compromised to benefit run time. Today, storage capacity imposes few restrictions and  
36 computer speed is ever-increasing allowing more complicated and accurate numerical methods  
37 to be applied. However, the complexity of groundwater applications is increasing in parallel  
38 with the development of computer abilities and this has led researchers, for example Szekely  
39 (1998), Hayes(1999), Jackson (2000), Mehl and Hill (2004), Mehl et al. (2006), Dickinson et al.  
40 (2007), Szekely (2008) to continue to work on the development of numerical applications that  
41 satisfy both speed and accuracy.

42  
43 The speed of solving a groundwater problem is mainly controlled by the power of the  
44 processor and by the number of nodes included in the numerical model. The accuracy of the  
45 solution, on the other hand, depends on many factors. A major factor is the spacing between  
46 adjacent nodes of the numerical grid. This affects the truncation error introduced into the  
47 numerical approximations and the accuracy of the representation of the rate of change of  
48 groundwater head over distance. A smooth change in the hydraulic gradient, as is the case in  
49 regional aquifers, for example, allows the use of a large interval without affecting the accuracy

50 of the solution. In radial flow modelling, for example Rushton and Redshaw (1979) or Mansour  
51 et al. (2011), the use of a logarithmic radial mesh increases the node density in the region  
52 around the well where steep hydraulic gradients occur and reduces the node density in the  
53 more distant parts of the aquifer. However, steep hydraulic gradients may occur in a regional  
54 aquifer due to the existence of special features, such as rivers, wells, faults, and changes in the  
55 aquifer properties. This requires the use of a small space interval over these limited areas.  
56 Mesh refinement is a useful technique that increases the accuracy of the model without  
57 limiting its run-time efficiency or increasing computer memory.

58  
59 Mesh refinement techniques were investigated as early as 1946 (Southwell, 1946) and  
60 different mesh refinement schemes have been developed over the years. For example  
61 telescopic refinement schemes with multiple scale models are used by Ward et al. (1987),  
62 Bravo et al. (1996) and Miller and Voss (1987), adaptive mesh refinement schemes are used by  
63 Berger and Oliger (1984), Arney and Flaherty (1989) and De Lange and De Goey (1994) and  
64 local grid refinement schemes are used by Szekeley (1998), Bennet and Smooke (1999), Hayes  
65 (1999), Jackson (2000) and Mehl et al. (2006). These methods successfully served the needs of  
66 their users giving acceptable accuracy for the type of problem investigated. However, each of  
67 these methods suffers from certain drawbacks, for example deficiencies in the implemented  
68 interpolation technique, lack of accuracy resulting from high truncation errors, and numerical  
69 problems resulting from the construction of elongated meshes. Other methods do not  
70 maintain grid reciprocity, which specifies that if point A is included in the finite difference  
71 approximation at point B, then point B must be included in the approximation at point A. If  
72 reciprocity exists then the approximation of flux leaving A and entering B can be formulated in  
73 exactly the same way as the approximation of the flux leaving B and entering A (Jackson, 2000;  
74 Mehl et al., 2006). De Marsily et al. (1978) present a refinement scheme based on integrated

75 finite differences that has certain attractions. This scheme uses the Green Theorem to  
76 calculate the groundwater flows at the sides of the nodes located at the coarse-fine grid  
77 interfaces. It fits, therefore, neatly within the conventional finite differences and maintains a  
78 flow balance. However, the one drawback of the method as presented by De Marsily (1986) is  
79 its limited accuracy.

80  
81 Jackson (2000) developed equations that are more accurate than De Marsily et al. (1978) and  
82 De Marsily (1986) although they do not maintain flow reciprocity. The lack of accuracy in the  
83 scheme developed by De Marsily (1986) originates from limiting the number of terms in the  
84 Taylor's series used to develop the numerical equations to just three, i.e. the heads and first  
85 gradients of heads.

86  
87 This paper presents a refinement scheme based on the refinement scheme developed by De  
88 Marsily (1986) but improved by including more terms of the Taylor's series to derive the  
89 necessary numerical equations. The challenges of this are first to produce numerical equations  
90 that have the desired groundwater equation forms as the product of head differences  
91 multiplied by conductance parameters and second that the developed numerical technique is  
92 stable and converges to the required solution with an acceptable degree of accuracy. This  
93 paper discusses the steps required to derive the numerical equations and presents the grid  
94 discretisation scheme that reduces the effort required to derive these equations. The  
95 convergence of the numerical scheme is demonstrated by simulating groundwater flows in one  
96 and two dimensional homogeneous aquifers under steady state conditions. The convergence  
97 of the numerical scheme in transient problems is demonstrated by comparing the numerical  
98 results to the Theis solution. Finally the limitations of the method and recommendation for  
99 future development are discussed.

100

## 101 **Description of the Methods**

### 102 **Integrated Finite Differences.**

103 The basic flow equation in an anisotropic and heterogeneous aquifer is given by:

$$104 \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( T_x \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( T_y \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} \right) = S \frac{\partial h}{\partial t} - q \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

105 De Marsily et al. (1978) introduced the integrated finite difference technique based on the

106 Divergence Theorem, or Green's Theorem. In two dimensions, the Divergence Theorem states

107 that for any continuous vector function  $\mathbf{V}$  with continuous first partial derivatives, the double

108 integral of the divergence of this function over a closed area A can be transformed into a

109 contour integral of the scalar product of the vector function with the unit outward normal

110 evaluated along the perimeter C of the area A. This is expressed by, for example Boas (1983),

111 De Marsily et al. (1978):

$$112 \quad \iint_A \text{div}(\mathbf{V}) dA = \oint_C \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{n} ds \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

113

114 To generalise the method, De Marsily (1986) considered an anisotropic aquifer and constructed

115 a mesh where the grid elements have a polygonal shape with nodes located within them. In a

116 conventional finite difference approximation, Equation 1 would be written at each of the

117 nodes. In integrated finite differences, the integral of the flow equation over the area  $A_i$

118 surrounding each node is formed. This leads to:

$$119 \quad \iint_A \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( T_x \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( T_y \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} \right) \right] da = \iint_A \left( S \frac{dh}{dt} - q \right) da \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

120 and by recognising that the left hand side is a divergence term Equation 3 can be written as:

$$121 \quad \iint_A \text{div}(T \text{ grad } h) da = \iint_A \left( S \frac{dh}{dt} - q \right) da \quad \text{Equation 4}$$

122 Finally the divergence theorem allows the left-hand side to be replaced by a line integral:

123 
$$\oint_{\tau_i} \left( T_x \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} n_x + T_y \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} n_y \right) ds = \iint_A \left( S \frac{dh}{dt} - q \right) da$$
 Equation 5

124 Where  $n_x$  and  $n_y$  are the direction cosines of the unit vector  $\mathbf{n}$  perpendicular to the boundary,  
 125 and  $ds$  is an element of  $\tau_i$ , the boundary of the element surrounding the node. As a result of  
 126 this transformation, numerical approximations to  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial y}$  are required rather than to  $\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x^2}$   
 127 and  $\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial y^2}$ .

128  
 129 To evaluate the hydraulic gradients  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial y}$  at an arbitrary point (m) moving along line AB  
 130 (Figure 1), De Marsily (1986) wrote three Taylor's series expansions for the head values at I, J  
 131 and K. Only three terms of the Taylor's series are retained, as shown in Equation 6, allowing the  
 132 gradients  $\left. \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right|_m$  and  $\left. \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} \right|_m$  at the point m to be calculated in terms of the heads at the  
 133 surrounding nodes and their positions.

134 
$$h_I = h_m + (x_I - x_m) \left. \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right|_m + (y_I - y_m) \left. \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} \right|_m$$
 Equation 6

135 De Marsily (1986) showed that the gradients are independent of the location of point m and  
 136 that they are constant along AB. This allows the rearrangement of the left-hand side of  
 137 Equation 5 by writing the head gradients outside the integrals. This greatly reduces the  
 138 mathematical procedure required to carry out the integration and yields a relatively simple  
 139 form as given in Equation 7.

140 
$$\int_{AB} \left( T_x \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} n_x + T_y \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} n_y \right) ds = C_{IJ} (H_J - H_I) + C_{IK} (H_K - H_I)$$
 Equation 7

141  $C_{IJ}$  and  $C_{IK}$  are constants that depend on the aquifer characteristics, specifically the  
 142 transmissivity and the dimensions of the mesh. Equation 7 shows that integrated finite

143 differences lead to an expression for flow in the form of head differences multiplied by  
144 constants. This is similar to the structure in conventional finite difference formulae. In  
145 addition, the method maintains both a flow balance and the reciprocity requirement.  
146 However, it also generates a high truncation error.

147  
148 In conventional finite differences, the truncation error resulting from the calculation of  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}$   
149 or  $\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x^2}$ , using the central difference scheme, is in the order of  $O(\Delta x^2)$ . The approach used by

150 De Marsily results in an error in the order of  $O(\Delta x)$  for the calculation of  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}$  or  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial y}$ . De Marsily  
151 et al. (1978) recognised that a model based on this approach does not represent the system  
152 accurately and De Marsily (1986) restricted the refinement by halving the mesh interval to  
153 maintain accuracy. This makes other refinement approaches such as the one developed by  
154 Jackson (2000) more desirable, even without maintaining reciprocity, since they produce better  
155 quality results.

156

## 157 **The New Formulation**

158

159 De Marsily et al. (1978) described their work as having a “logical synthesis” and as being  
160 “hydrogeologically plausible”. Indeed, integrated finite differences fit neatly with conventional  
161 finite differences and keep important features such as providing clear discretised aquifer units,  
162 maintaining a flow balance, and dealing with heterogeneous aquifers. However, the major  
163 problem with the method, as represented by De Marsily et al (1978) and De Marsily (1986), is  
164 the limited accuracy. To overcome this difficulty, a new formulation for the head gradients  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}$

165 and  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial y}$  is developed. Like De Marsily et al. (1978) it is based on using Taylor's series at  
166 selected grid nodes but it includes additional terms in the expansion.

167  
168 There are three main challenges to this approach. The first is that the approximations become  
169 large and a tidy outcome where the fluxes consist of expressions composed of head differences  
170 multiplied by constants is not guaranteed. Second, the head gradients depend on the position  
171 of the point  $m$  as it moves along the interface and this complicates the integration to  
172 determine the flow. Finally, the equations must produce an accurate solution.

173  
174 To increase the accuracy of the head gradient approximation to the order of  $O(\Delta x^2)$  three extra  
175 terms of Taylor's series involving the terms  $\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x^2}$ ,  $\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial y^2}$  and  $\frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x \partial y}$  are included in the head  
176 equation at a given node in addition to the three used by De Marsily et al. (1978) and shown in  
177 Equation 6. The calculation of the values of these six terms necessitates the application of  
178 Taylor's series at six nodes. However, the locations of these nodes define the structure of the  
179 equations. It is, therefore, preferable to arrange the nodes carefully in a definite geometrical  
180 layout so the mathematical manipulation is reduced. Two possible grid layouts for the  
181 refinement scheme are presented here. The first is similar to the one implemented by Jackson  
182 (2000) and is illustrated in Figure 2. This layout consists of a coarse grid with a refined region  
183 giving elongated rectangular flow interaction areas at the mesh interface.

184  
185 For a typical node,  $I$ , on the fine-coarse interface, there are three sides of the flow interaction  
186 area,  $AB$ ,  $BC$  and  $AD$  that require a new formulation of the head gradient,  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}$  or  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial y}$ , while on  
187 the fourth side,  $CD$ , the conventional finite difference expression can be applied. Many

188 problems arise in this case, especially along the sides BC and AD. Along segment BC for  
189 example, the determination of the hydraulic gradient  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial y}$  requires two different evaluations,  
190 one along BE and the other along EC. The same is true for the determination of  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial y}$  along AD.  
191 A second more serious problem concerns the water balance. Line AF, for example, represents  
192 a common boundary between nodes K and I. For the flow balance at node K, the expression  
193 for  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial y}$  is based on head values at points L, I, K, R and J. When considering node I, the gradient  
194 is based on head values at points L, N, I, K, and J. In theory the two expressions should  
195 produce the same results, but because of the truncation errors this is not guaranteed. In  
196 general, the use of different combinations of head values will lead to inconsistent estimates of  
197 flow across a common boundary.

198  
199 The second layout divides the coarse grid into a number of discrete areas for which flow  
200 balances are calculated. In this case, the areas can extend beyond the original coarse grid lines,  
201 as shown in Figure 3. This eliminates the elongated areas and ensures that all nodes in all  
202 meshes have a square or a rectangular shape with an aspect ratio similar to that of the coarse  
203 grid. The advantage of this arrangement is that for all the nodes located on the interface, there  
204 is only a need to derive one expression for one head gradient, either  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}$  or  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial y}$  depending on  
205 the direction of the node face.

206  
207 In the new scheme groundwater heads at the six points I, K, J, L, N and P, shown in Figure 3, are  
208 expressed by Taylor's expansions based on a point m that is moving along the line AB.  
209 Equation 8 shows the expression for Node I; the heads at the other nodes take the same form.

210

211

212

$$h_I = h_m + (x_I - x_m) \left. \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right|_m + (y_I - y_m) \left. \frac{\partial h}{\partial y} \right|_m + \frac{(x_I - x_m)^2}{2!} \left. \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x^2} \right|_m + \frac{2}{2!} (x_I - x_m)(y_I - y_m) \left. \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial x \partial y} \right|_m + \frac{(y_I - y_m)^2}{2!} \left. \frac{\partial^2 h}{\partial y^2} \right|_m$$

213

Equation 8

214

215 This equation was used by Quandalle and Franlab (1985) who built a numerical model with

216 composite grids. However, they considered refinement in one direction only and estimated

217 the hydraulic gradient at a single node at the mid-point of line AB. They did not derive a

218 general expression for the hydraulic gradient and integrate it along the interface.

219

220 The next stage consists of solving the six equations containing values of six unknown head and

221 head gradients to evaluate the hydraulic gradient  $\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}$ . This yield Equation 9:

$$M \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} = C_1(h_L - h_I) + C_1(h_J - h_I) + (C_2 + C_{10}C_7 + y_m C_{10}C_6)(h_L - h_J) + C_4(h_P - h_I) + (C_3 + C_5 + C_9C_7 + y_m C_9C_6)(h_K - h_I) + C_5(h_N - h_I) + (C_5 + C_8 + y_m C_8C_6)(h_N - h_I)$$

222

Equation 9

223 Where:

$$224 \quad M = \frac{-3\Delta x - \Delta X}{4\Delta x}$$

$$225 \quad C_1 = \frac{-1}{\Delta x + \Delta X}, \quad C_2 = \frac{-(2y_I - y_L - y_J)}{2\Delta Y(\Delta x + \Delta Y)}, \quad C_3 = \frac{-(2y_I - y_L - y_J)}{2\Delta y(\Delta x + \Delta X)}$$

$$226 \quad C_4 = \frac{-(\Delta x - \Delta X)}{4\Delta x^2}, \quad C_5 = \frac{[(2y_I - y_L - y_J)\Delta y - \Delta Y^2]}{4\Delta y^2(\Delta x + \Delta X)}$$

$$227 \quad C_6 = \frac{-(3\Delta x^2 + \Delta X^2 + 4\Delta x\Delta X)}{4\Delta x(\Delta x + \Delta X)}, \quad C_7 = \frac{[(\Delta x + \Delta X)(y_I(\Delta x + \Delta X) + (y_I + y_L)\Delta x)]}{4\Delta x(\Delta x + \Delta X)}$$

$$228 \quad C_8 = \frac{(y_I + y_N - y_L - y_J - 2\Delta y)}{\Delta y^2(\Delta x + \Delta X)}, \quad C_9 = \frac{(y_I + y_N - y_L - y_J)}{\Delta y^2(\Delta x + \Delta X)}, \quad C_{10} = \frac{2}{\Delta Y(\Delta x + \Delta X)}$$

229

230

231

232 Where  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  are the grid intervals on the fine grid and  $\Delta X$  and  $\Delta Y$  are the corresponding  
 233 values on the coarse grid as shown in Figure 3. Integrating Equation 9 over the interval AB and  
 234 multiplying by the transmissivity in the x direction, gives the flow across AB. In the case of  
 235 node I shown in Figure 3, the integration is carried out in the y direction. This only affects the  
 236 variable  $y_m$  in Equation 9, since all other terms are independent of the position of m. The  
 237 integration results in multiplying all terms that do not include  $y_m$  by  $\Delta y$  and in replacing  $y_m$ , by

238  $\frac{1}{2}(y_B^2 - y_A^2) = y_I \Delta y$ . The flow equation becomes:

239

$$240 \quad Q_{AB} = \frac{T\Delta y}{M} \left[ C_1(h_L - h_I) + C_1(h_J - h_I) + (C_2 + C_{10}C_7 + P \cdot C_{10}C_6)(h_L - h_J) + C_4(h_P - h_I) \right. \\
 241 \quad \left. + (C_3 + C_5 + C_9C_7 + P \cdot C_9C_6)(h_K - h_I) + C_5(h_N - h_I) + (C_5 + C_8 + P \cdot C_8C_6)(h_N - h_I) \right]$$

Equation 10

242

243 The symbol P in Equation 10 is used to indicate a term which changes for certain nodes. In  
 244 general P is equal to  $y_I$ . The value changes when nodes fall along the line of the original coarse  
 245 grid. Node N in Figure 3 represents one such node where the integration of Equation 9 over  
 246 the interval BF is achieved in two steps. The first integral occurs over BE using head values  
 247 located below the line LN while the second occurs over EF and uses head values located above  
 248 LN. In both cases the equations are based on the hydraulic characteristics of node N and are  
 249 similar to Equation 10. However, for the flow moving across segment BE, the value of P is

250 adjusted to:  $\left(y_N - \frac{\Delta y}{4}\right)$  and across EF the value of P is:  $\left(y_N + \frac{\Delta y}{4}\right)$ . With these modifications,

251 Equation 10 is a general equation that takes a desirable numerical form of head differences  
 252 multiplied by constants and it can be applied at all nodes along the grid interface.

253

254 The corresponding equations for interfaces oriented in decreasing x, and increasing and  
255 decreasing y directions can be obtained by careful re-arrangement of Equation 10. An example  
256 of this treatment can be found in Jackson (2000).

257  
258 One slight problem arises at the extremities of the expanded mesh. The procedure does not  
259 allow the determination of groundwater head at nodes located at the corners of a child grid.  
260 This arises from the need for six points to calculate the flow balance as demonstrated for node  
261 I in Figure 4. For a point such as C in Figure 4, which is located at the corner of the child grid,  
262 the sixth node required for the calculation of the flow across DE is missing. To overcome this  
263 difficulty a virtual node is introduced beyond the extreme corner of a fine mesh. The head  
264 value at this extra node has to be estimated by interpolation.

265

## 266 **Convergence of the Numerical Scheme**

### 267 **Convergence to steady state conditions**

268 A first check on the new refinement scheme is to examine a simple steady state problem. This  
269 consists of a 2.5 km square aquifer, refined as shown in Figure 5a. The parent and the child  
270 grids are composed of 500 m and 100 m square cells respectively. The child grid lies at the  
271 middle of the coarse grid and both have the same transmissivity values of  $100 \text{ m}^2 \text{ day}^{-1}$ .

272

273 Successive Over Relaxation (SOR) is used to solve the numerical system. SOR is a point iterative  
274 approach based on the Jacobi and the Gauss-Seidel iteration methods to solve a system of  
275 linear equations. The allowable error, representing the maximum flow imbalance at each node  
276 and at which the SOR procedure terminates, is set to a very small value of  $1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3 \text{ day}^{-1}$ .  
277 The head values generated by the model fit the analytical solution with maximum differences  
278 between the results of the analytical and numerical solutions not exceeding 0.15%. In this

279 special case the interpolation technique calculates the groundwater heads at the missing nodes  
280 and the groundwater heads at the extreme ends of the child grid. The flows calculated by the  
281 model confirm that no flow is generated in the y direction and that the flow in the x direction is  
282 equal to that calculated using the analytical solution. This is an important check of the coding  
283 of the model because it confirms the correct implementation of the various forms of the  
284 refined area equations as well as the proper linkage between the different types of node.

285  
286 The boundary conditions are specified as fixed head values on all sides and zero groundwater  
287 heads are specified everywhere as initial condition. A curved surface is created by introducing  
288 an abstraction well approximately in the centre of the child grid at the location labelled Node C  
289 in Figure 5a.

290  
291 The numerical solution resulting from the proposed refined grid is compared to that produced  
292 using a regular fine mesh grid having 100 m square cells over the whole aquifer. After a certain  
293 period of continuous abstraction at a rate of  $1000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ day}^{-1}$ , a steady state condition is reached.  
294 Figure 5b shows the contour lines resulting from both grids. The results are in close agreement  
295 and the contour lines of both solutions almost coincide. However, a closer examination reveals  
296 that some differences in head exist, reaching at certain locations an absolute value of 1.4%.  
297 This behaviour becomes clearer when the difference between the two solutions at the child  
298 grid boundary is examined. Since a line of symmetry crosses the aquifer diagonally, as shown  
299 in Figure 5a, only the upper and the lower faces of the child grid need be considered. Figure 6  
300 shows the absolute head difference along these two boundary lines. The head difference  
301 varies from a minimum of 0.1% to a maximum value of 1.4% with the maximum difference  
302 located at the node opposite the abstraction point. The flow crossing the coarse-fine interface  
303 at the nodes common to both models is also compared in Figure 6. The absolute percentage

304 difference in flow ranges from a minimum of zero to a maximum of 5.0%. It is clear that a  
305 small error in the computed head leads to a larger error in the flow. Reciprocally, a relatively  
306 large error in the flow may lead to insignificant differences in the corresponding head values.  
307 This is the main reason for basing the convergence criterion on an accurate determination of  
308 flow, i.e. minimising the flow imbalance, which certainly leads to an accurate head  
309 determination. This is also an advantage of the integrated finite difference refinement method  
310 which relies on the calculation of flow as a means of to determining head at the coarse-fine  
311 interface and not vice versa.

### 312 **Reproducing time variant groundwater heads**

313 Theis' (1935) analytical solution is used to investigate the capability of the new refinement  
314 scheme to produce the groundwater flow solution under time variant conditions.  
315 Groundwater flows are simulated in a large 10 km square aquifer with fixed heads at its outer  
316 boundaries. Large dimensions of the aquifer are necessary to reduce the interference of the  
317 outer boundaries with the numerical results, especially at the later times of the simulation. the  
318 transmissivity of the aquifer is set to a value of  $100 \text{ m}^2 \text{ day}^{-1}$  and the storage coefficient is set to  
319 a value of 0.0001. To satisfy the Theis assumptions, no recharge is applied, the initial head  
320 values are set to zero, i.e. no drawdown occurs at time zero, and the abstraction increases  
321 instantaneously to the rate of  $1000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ day}^{-1}$ . Finally, to allow a small nodal area at the  
322 abstraction borehole so that it resembles an infinitely small well, the aquifer is refined in three  
323 stages; at the coarsest level, a grid with 500 m square cells is used, followed by a grid with 100  
324 m square cells as an intermediate stage and finally a grid with 20 m square cells is used for the  
325 finest mesh. These settings are shown in Figure 7.

326  
327 Time drawdown curves generated by the model are compared to the Theis solution at three  
328 observation wells. The locations of the observation (Figure 7) wells are selected to show

329 groundwater head values calculated at nodes located on the three grids. The distances  
330 between the observation boreholes and the abstraction borehole are 141 m, 500 m and 1500  
331 m. Figure 8 shows the simulated time drawdown curves and those produced using the Theis  
332 solution. It is clear that there is good agreement between these curves except at the early  
333 times of pumping. The disparity between the results is attributed to the difference in the  
334 representation of the sink in the numerical model and its representation as a line source in the  
335 Theis analytical solution. After day 7 the outer boundary effects start to appear in the  
336 simulated results. This is reflected by the reduction of the gradient of the time drawdown  
337 curves indicating that some water is being supplied by the outer fixed head nodes to the  
338 pumped borehole.

### 339 **Simulation of groundwater heads in heterogeneous aquifers**

340 The presented numerical scheme can be readily used to simulate groundwater heads in  
341 heterogeneous aquifers on condition that the transmissivity value specified at one coarse grid  
342 node is the same as the transmissivity values of the child nodes in contact with it. Reproducing  
343 the groundwater heads in heterogeneous aquifers is tested in this section.

344 An aquifer that is 5 km long and 2.5 km wide with a global transmissivity value of  $100 \text{ m}^2 \text{ day}^{-1}$   
345 and a storage coefficient value of 0.0001 is discretised using a grid with 500 m square cells,  
346 which is refined at its centre as illustrated in Figure 9a. The refining grid has 100 m square cells.  
347 The aquifer has zones with transmissivity values of 50 and  $200 \text{ m}^2 \text{ day}^{-1}$  as shown in Figure 9a.  
348 The aquifer has fixed head boundaries along its sides, has no recharge and is pumped at a rate  
349 of  $1000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ day}^{-1}$  at its centre. Figure 9b shows the groundwater head contour lines produced  
350 from this model and those produced from a model using a fine with 100 m square cells after a  
351 simulation time of 10 days. These contours are in close agreement with the observed  
352 discrepancy related to contouring artefact. A closer comparison between the simulated results  
353 shows that the overall discrepancy is ranging between 3 and 5% but with few cells showing

354 high error values of up to 13%. While the latter error figure recommends further investigations  
355 into its source, the cells associated with it are located next to the fixed head boundaries. The  
356 groundwater heads calculated at these cells are in the order of 10 cm while the highest  
357 drawdown values calculated at the centre is 1%.

358

## 359 **Discussion and Conclusion**

360

361 The refinement scheme is based on the integrated finite differences approach. It is similar to  
362 that used by De Marsily et al. (1986) as it relies on the divergence theorem and Taylor's  
363 expansions. The divergence theorem is used to transform a double integral of the basic flow  
364 equation over the area associated with a node into a contour integral around the perimeter of  
365 this same area. Taylor's expansions are used to determine the hydraulic gradient along the  
366 perimeter. The accuracy of the developed numerical equations is improved by including terms  
367 up to the second order from the Taylor's expansions. This is the main difference from the work  
368 presented by De Marsily et al. (1986); however, the inclusion of these additional terms requires  
369 extra mathematical computation to derive the numerical equations that describe the flow  
370 across the fine-coarse mesh interface. Significantly, the new flow equations maintain the  
371 desired form, which calculates the flow as the product of head differences multiplied by a  
372 constant as in the conventional finite difference formulae.

373

374 The numerical grid layout used to refine the grid affects the difficulties associated with  
375 producing the numerical equations. It has been found that dividing the nodes rather than the  
376 mesh increases the number of sides over which the conventional finite difference equations  
377 are applied, and increases the accuracy of the model. The derived numerical equations  
378 converged to the required solution without difficulty, although in some cases the over

379 relaxation factor had to be limited to values less than 1.4 to ensure the convergence of the  
380 solution.

381  
382 The new refinement scheme is tested for its ability to represent the groundwater heads in  
383 homogeneous and heterogeneous aquifers under steady state and time variant conditions.  
384 The developed numerical technique relies on the principle of using the Taylor's series to  
385 calculate the groundwater head gradients at a point moving along a node face. This requires  
386 that the groundwater surface is continuous and differentiable between all the nodes in order  
387 to calculate the gradient at that point. For a heterogeneous aquifer, the refining grid must be  
388 selected such that the aquifer does not change in its properties between the nodes  
389 surrounding the point where the hydraulic gradients are calculated

390  
391 Accurate results were generated for a drawdown surface that curves in one direction only.  
392 However, the technique generated undesirable but small errors in the representation of a  
393 drawdown surface that curves in two directions. These errors arise because of the  
394 interpolation necessary to calculate head values at the imaginary nodes at the corners, which  
395 are required to comply with the new formulae. However, the differences between the  
396 numerical results and the analytical results fall within an acceptable range. The flow errors are  
397 found to be higher than the head errors; this is expected since a very small change in the head  
398 values can lead to relatively high changes in water flows. It is therefore much better to stop  
399 the iteration process in the numerical model when it attains an acceptable water balance  
400 rather than when the heads stop changing significantly. This is where the integrated finite  
401 difference approach, where the calculation of flows at all node faces is possible, prevails over  
402 other refinement schemes.

403

404 This refinement scheme shows the potential of having more advantages than other refining  
405 techniques so far reported in the literature. For example, the order of refinement can be  
406 increased to order of refinement higher than 5, the limit imposed by Jackson (2000) on his  
407 refinement technique. This refinement approach together with the layout of the grid  
408 described in this paper also offers the possibility of setting a concave refinement configuration,  
409 i.e. when the part of the child grid takes an L shape. In addition, the integrated finite  
410 difference application presented here can be applied to non-linear grid interface. This opens  
411 the possibility of deriving groundwater flow equations to nodes located at the edges of a  
412 cylindrical grid model and consequently embedding the cylindrical grid model in a Cartesian  
413 model. This investigation is ongoing.

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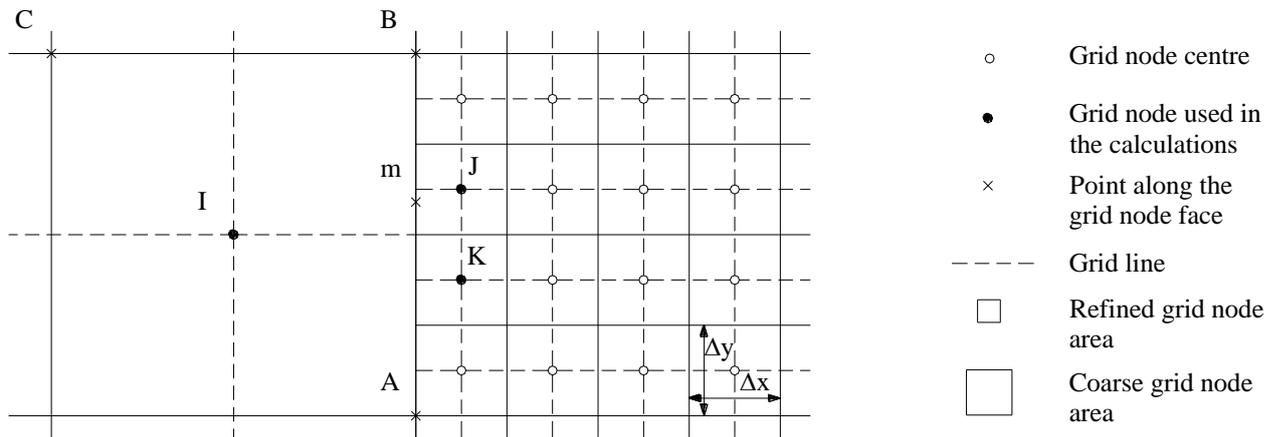
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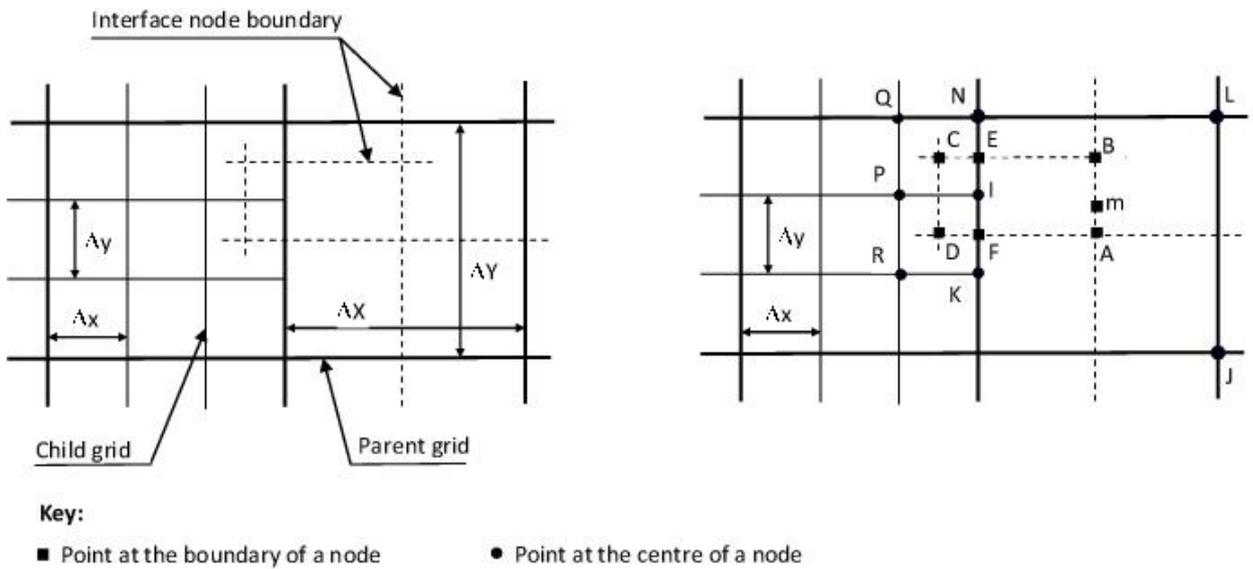
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Figure 1: Parent-Child grid interface in a refined grid

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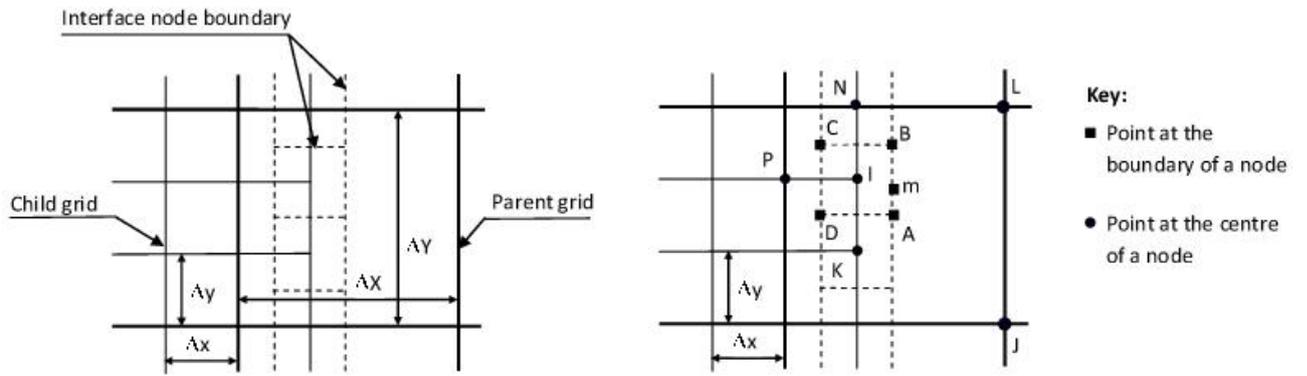
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Figure 2: Grid layout proposed by Jackson (2000).

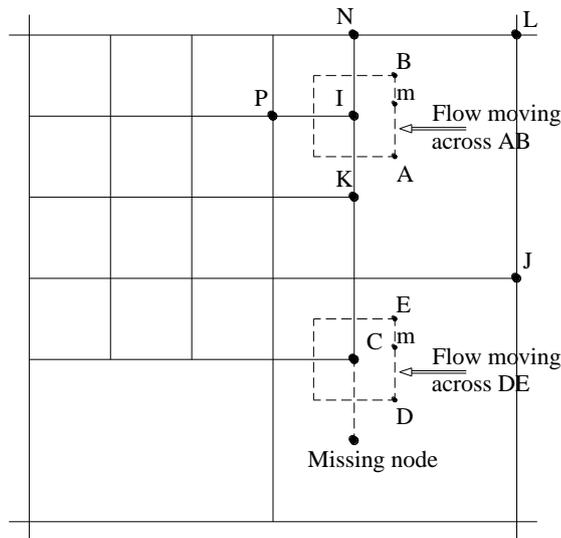
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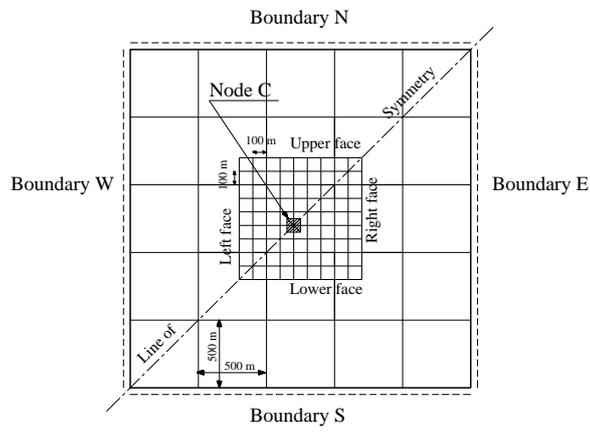
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Figure 3: The new grid layout used to derive the numerical expressions



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Figure 4: An imaginary node replaces the missing node adjacent to the corner node.



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Figure 5: Refined grid representing a homogenous aquifer.

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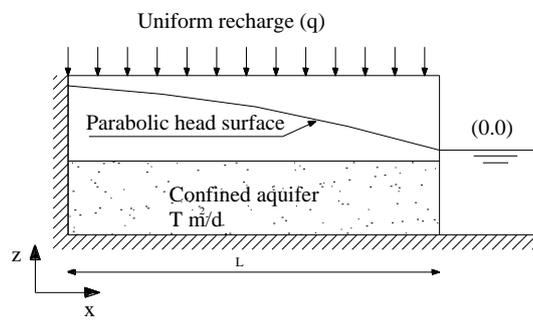
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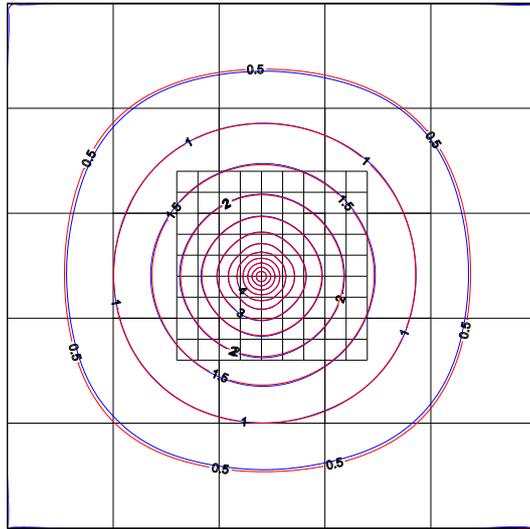
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Figure 6: One dimensional representation of a homogeneous aquifer subjected to uniform recharge.

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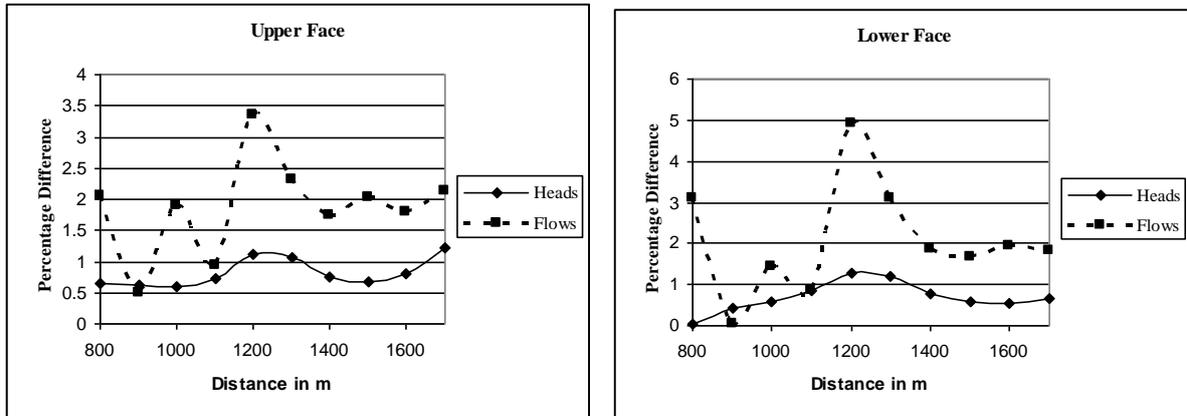
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 521 Figure 7: Contour lines resulting from a model with a refined grid (blue line) and a regular fine  
 522 mesh (red line)  
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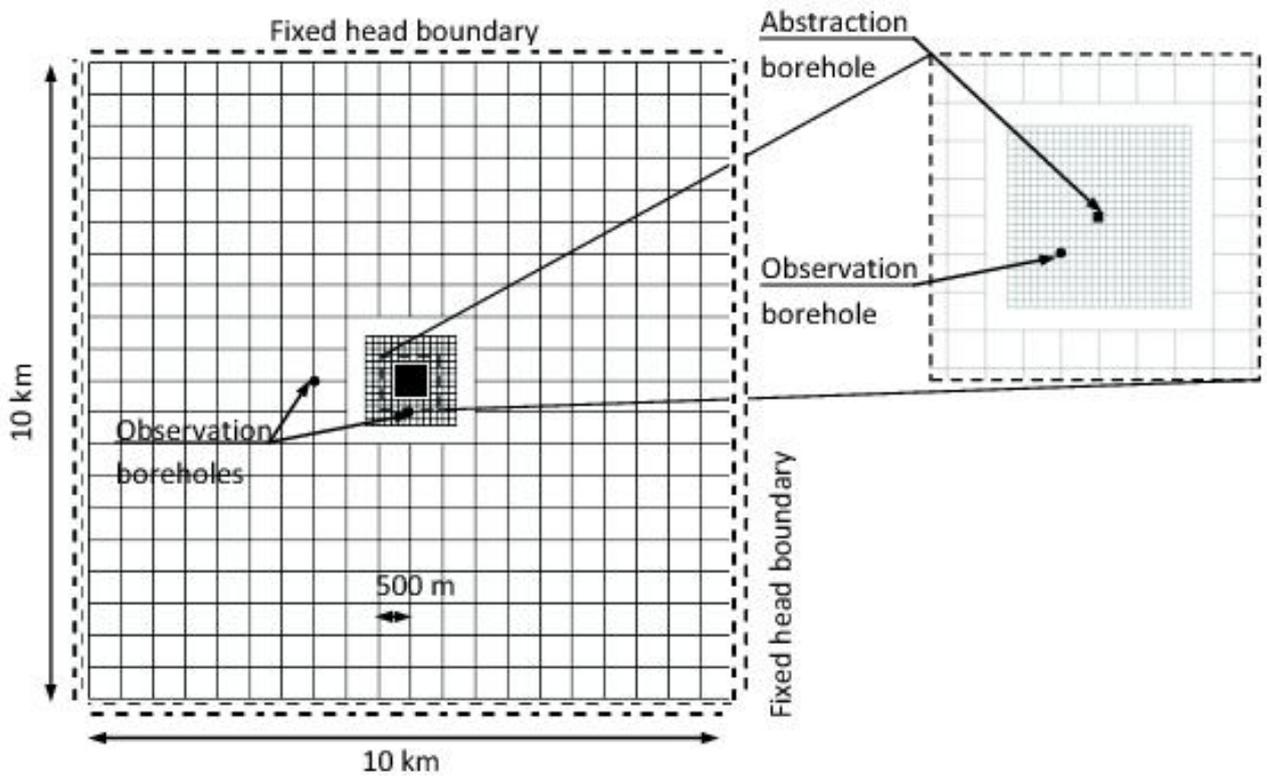


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 527 Figure 8: Absolute percentage flow and head differences at nodes located on the left and upper  
 528 sides of the child grid.  
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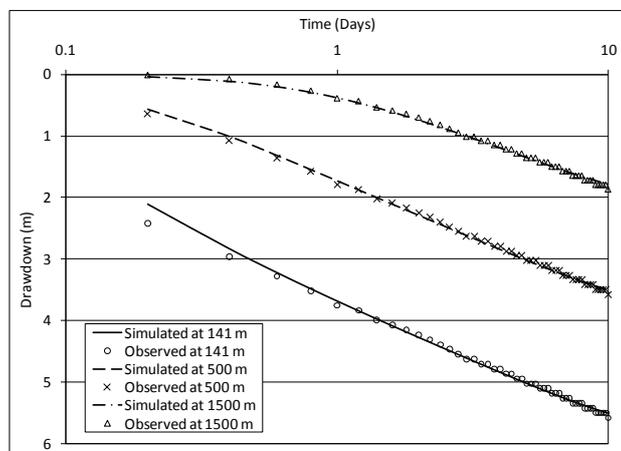
Figure 9: Three levels of refinement in a homogeneous aquifer subject to pumping.

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Figure 10: Comparison between simulated time drawdown curves and the Theis solution at observation boreholes located at 100 m, 500 m and 1500 m from the abstraction borehole.