

spatial investigation of groundwater pumping-induced land subsidence

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abstract

A comprehensive study of the factors influencing magnitude and distribution of ground settlements observed during the second half of the twentieth century in the area of Bologna (Italy) is presented to derive a unified framework useful for interpreting the observed phenomena and for predicting future scenarios. Information collected over a surface of more than two hundred square kilometres includes previous geological studies, hydro-geological, geotechnical, and topographical investigations carried out with various purposes. The geological features of the whole region have been initially reviewed to figure out the local geological and hydro-geological setup. Then the stratigraphic sequence has been obtained by integrating the results of an extensive campaign carried out over the whole region for water exploitation. The mechanical characterization of the soil has been based on geotechnical tests performed in the area for the construction of new transportation infrastructures. Groundwater levels, periodically recorded

on a distributed network of wells, have been interpreted with a two-dimensional seepage model capable of back-calculating the modification of the groundwater regime induced by water withdrawal. The spatial and temporal distributions of settlements have been derived by combining sequential topographical monitoring campaigns covering a period of about sixty years with satellite records. To simultaneously analyse all information and provide an interpretation of the observed phenomena, all data have been collected in a geographical information system interpolating the measured data with a geostatistical method. In such a way the role of the different factors has been captured, finding a logical correlation between land subsidence, subsoil composition and groundwater withdrawal, and a strategy has been traced which can be exported to the analysis of other similar situations.

Introduction

Subsidence, whether induced by natural (e.g. tectonic, self weight consolidation of recent sedimentary deposits, oxidation and shrinkage of organic soils) or anthropogenic factors (extraction of gas, fluid or solid), affects significant portions of territory with largely variable effects from one site to another (USGS, 1999). Among all possible causes, withdrawal of groundwater is particularly troublesome, primarily because it is able to produce noticeable settlements with relatively fast rates, but also because it is frequently carried out near densely populated areas where exposure to risk is particularly high. Detrimental effects range from malfunctioning to complete collapse of buildings and infrastructures, or include environmental modifications such as formation of sink holes, changes of natural or artificial water courses, flooding and retreat of coastlines (Bell, 1999). Subsidence induced by groundwater withdrawal has been recognised and cumulatively evaluated in a large number of situations, where relatively recent alluvial, marine or lacustrine deposits include alternation of coarse grained water bearing strata with fine grained compressible layers. Mexico City (Marsal and Mazari, 1962; Zeevaert, 1983), Santa Clara valley (Poland, 1958), Houston (Lockwood, 1954), London

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(Wilson and Grace, 1942), Japan (Yamamoto, 1995), China (Shi et al., 2012), and Greece (Stiros, 2001) represent just few milestone examples, but many other cases can be found in the literature (e.g. SISOLS, 2000). Recorded rates of settlements range from few millimetres to more than forty centimetres per year, depending on the composition of the subsoil and on how intensively groundwater is pumped. Although the role of water extraction in increasing the overburden effective stresses and reducing void spaces of compressible soils has been recognised from long time (Terzaghi, 1943), there is still a surprisingly large number of cases where nil or limited countermeasures are taken to reduce the economical, social and environmental impact of water extraction. Reasons must be found in policies particularly concerned with protecting groundwater sources or with satisfying population's demand and thus much more focused on hydrological, hydro-geological, and hydraulic issues than on the mechanical consequences of groundwater extraction. Land subsidence is thus considered only when the ground deformation becomes evident and its effects start to interact with human activities. Due to such a delayed awareness, measurements are often incomplete and studies rarely arrive beyond qualitative descriptions, whereas quantification of mechanisms taking place in the different portions of the subsoil would be of paramount importance to comprehensively manage groundwater exploitation and use of the territory.

Bearing in mind this goal, great effort has been spent in the last two decades by scientists of different disciplines to develop prompt and accurate satellite monitoring systems like InSAR (Strozzi et al., 2001; Cascini et al., 2007; Hay-Man Ng et al., 2010) or GPS (Sato et al., 2003), to find logical relations between amount of pumping, water head drop and ground surface sinking based on the analysis of different case studies

(e.g. Sato et al., 2006) or to frame this complex phenomenon into comprehensive theoretical models (e.g. Bravo et al., 1991; Mobach and Gussinklo, 1994; Sun et al., 1999; Ferronato et al., 2003; Hung et al., 2012).

Unavoidably, when a multidisciplinary problem like subsidence is faced on large territories, a compromise is necessary to conjugate com-

pleteness of analyses within adequacy of explorations. Harr (1999) clearly states: "In no field of engineering are practitioners faced with more complex and uncertain sets of conditions than those concerned with ground water systems. Add to these the very large size of projects and the expense of ground sampling and data acquisition".

The most difficult task related with these studies is to reduce uncertainty to acceptable levels by a careful analysis of existing information, which is usually incomplete due to a remarkable extension and depth of the subsiding deposits and to the relatively long duration of the phenomenon. Additionally, the available data rarely cover all the crucial aspects of this complex geotechnical phenomenon since they are usually collected for other purposes. In this case the temptation to fill the puzzle, which is unavoidably incomplete, by making uncontrolled assumptions must be escaped. On the other hand, traditional and new investigation tools can be nowadays combined to improve the knowledge of the system's properties and of its boundary conditions. Furthermore, data processing with powerful and fast software and the implementation of relatively simple models represent a great help for the definitions of a unified and comprehensive framework, capable of consistently relating subsidence causes and effects.

The above concepts describe the main goals and the inherent limits of the present research which deals with the case study of Bologna, a very ancient and famous Italian city affected in the past decades by significant ground subsidence. This case is studied with the aim of providing a strategy to be exported to other similar cases. Bearing in mind this goal, information of different nature have been collected over an area of about 225 km², including the centre and the countryside part of the city. The performed spatial analyses include geostatistical interpolations of recorded data, aimed at recovering a continuous distribution of the studied variables, and different numerical models aimed at establishing logical relations among the different variables. In order to superpose all information and perform a comprehensive quantitative analysis of the involved factors, each set of variables has been managed on a layer of a geographical information system.

In the second half of the past century an intensive industrialisation process led a significant part of Italian population to migrate from southern regions and rural areas to the northern cities. Such a concentration, together with the establishment of new industrial, agricultural and livestock activities posed serious problems in the

the Regional Agency for the Protection of the Environment and the Municipality of Bologna to improve the accuracy of monitoring. This net included 527 surveys positioned at a mutual distance of about 250 m, homogeneously distributed above the area surrounding Bologna. Systematic measurement was carried out in 1983, 1987, 1992 and 1999 (<http://servizigis.arpa.emr.it/Geovistaweb>).

Finally, thanks to the development of differential interferometry techniques, high accuracy data could be obtained from a low number of cornerstones. In fact, the last campaign covering the period 1999-2005 has been carried out by combining DInSAR measurement (Stramondio et al., 2007) with 118 records taken directly on the ground. By this combination, the amount of data taken from the topographical network could be significantly reduced, but the quality of information has significantly improved thanks to the large number of satellite records (the authors claim a precision of ± 1.5 mm in the estimate of settlements).

Settlements and ground levels obtained from all these campaigns have been herein processed with geostatistical methods and combined each other to back calculate the progressive deformation of the ground.

In the adopted method (ordinary Kriging) the variation among measures (\sqrt{h}) is considered statistically related to the relative distance (h) between sampling points and a mathematical function $\gamma(h)$ (theoretical variogram) is introduced to model the observed variation with distance (experimental variogram). The mathematical function adopted in this case is:

Another important aspect which needs to be evaluated from the present analysis is represented by the development of

where R (range), c (sill) and p (power) are parameters to be calibrated with experimental values. This function has been selected thanks to monitored data did not show a meaningful dependency with direction. Interpolation of the experimental data has been finally accomplished considering the

procurement of water, which was satisfied by an intensive exploitation of the ground-water sources. As a result, some cities and their surrounding areas suffered land subsidence with rates reaching in some cases dozens of centimetres per year.

One of the most enlightening examples is the city of Bologna, which is located in the southern part of the Po valley, close to the Tuscan-Emilian Apennines, about 70

km to the west of the Adriatic sea. The city represents a very important node for the Italian economy and one of the most well preserved historical sites of Italy, as it includes an important heritage of monuments and buildings. Its population increased significantly during the last century (Figure 1), almost doubling the number of inhabitants during the period 1940-1970 and reaching a peak in 1970 (Osservatorio Astronomico di Bologna, 2007). Consequently with the establishment of new activities, a large number of wells were progressively excavated all around the city to satisfy the increased demand of water. A clear hint of such intense activity can be seen from the right axis of Fig. 1 which shows the number of wells recorded by the regional agency for the protection of the environment ARPA.

This important groundwater exploitation was possible as the city is located at the foot of the Apennines, between the occurrence in the plain of two important rivers, Reno and Savena (see the enlarged map of the city reported in Figure 2). More particularly, the different symbols adopted in the map of Fig. 2 show that groundwater withdrawal for agricultural and industrial purposes is diffusely distributed in the valley, whereas most of the water extracted for civil purpose comes from few wells, excavated during the period around 1970 in the alluvial fans of Reno and Savena to capture the most consistent part of the water flowing from the mountain.

In the late seventies, damages were noticed on several buildings of the historical centre which induced the local governmental institutions and agencies to undertake a number of investigations aimed at discovering the causes of such unexpected phenomenon. Noticeable attention was concentrated on the buildings of Zamboni Street, a major urban artery located in the north-east side of the historical centre. A survey carried out along this road between 1979 and 1983 (Alessi, 1985) gives the evolution of settlement profiles reported in Fig. 3.

Indeed previous studies have shown that the Po valley is affected by subsidence induced by the self-weight consolidation of the thick

settlements with time. With this goal, the time histories calculated in two

different positions of the reference grid (marked with different symbols in Figure 5) are reported in Fig. 6. One point is representative of the region above the alluvial fan, which presents relatively low settlements, the other is located in the middle of the plain, which is the region where the largest settlements have been recorded. Both curves show a similar shape with the higher rates occurring in the period between 1970 and 1980. Significant differences can be however seen on the absolute values of rates and cumulated subsidence. In fact, the maximum settlement rate on the alluvial fan is about 2.5 cm/year and the total settlement about 0.7 m, while the maximum rate in the plain area is about 30 cm/year and the cumulated settlement about 4 m. Besides, it is noted that, while the zone on the alluvial fan has reached a stable condition at the end of the monitored period, there is still a non negligible settling rate of about 3 cm/year in the plain area.

According to the plots of Fig. 5, it seems that the centre of the city is not particularly affected by the phenomenon, being the cumulated settlements in this area much less than for the countryside portion

of the territory. However, this observation disagrees with the damages of the city centre buildings recalled in Fig. 3. To find a more clear explanation, attention must be placed on the rotations instead of cumulated settlements. The analysis, restricted to the historical centre of the city, has been accomplished by superposing an ideal grid of points (nodes are positioned at a mutual distance $\Delta = 60$ m) and computing settlements at each node (i, j) with the previously described geostatistical

method. Rotation in each node $\alpha_{i,j}$ has been then computed via the

spatial variation introduced by this function, by imposing minimum variance and unbiasedness conditions. The details of this calculation for the different periods are summarized in Table 1. Together with the parameter of the model, the average standard error has been computed on the monitored points to synthetically describe the quality

of estimates. The comparison of all data in the tables show that, in spite of different precision of the estimate, basically determined by the number and spatial distribution of the monitoring data, a not particularly different structure of the spatial variation (given by the range and power) can be inferred for the different periods.

A sample plot reporting the experimental and theoretical variograms for the period 1983-1987 is shown for reference in Fig. 4. The evolution of settlements for periods of different lengths starting from 1943 is depicted by the contour maps reported in Figure 5. It is interesting to note that all plots show qualitative similar results, with an increase of subsidence while proceeding from the mountain to the plain, and with the maximum settlements occurring in the areas surrounding the alluvial fan of Reno River.

The hydro-geological pattern recognised by extensive investigations carried out over of the whole Emilia Romagna region for oil and water exploitation (Regione Emilia Romagna and ENI-AGIP, 1998) is a logical consequence of the previously described geological history. Combining the stratigraphical profiles retrieved from a large number of boreholes and deep wells with the results of extensive seismic investigation, three thick aquifer groups have been identified by this study, namely distinguished with A (shallow), B (intermediate) and C (deep).

Each group includes an dense alternation of coarse and fine grained soil strata and is separated from the others by thick impervious barrier extending into the plain (Farina et al., 2000). The upper aquifer group A, which reaches a maximum depth of about 300 m, is strongly dominated by the presence of the two alluvial fans of Reno and Savena rivers, the latter presenting the most important groundwater supplies of the area (Elmi et al., 1984; Fava et al., 2005). Near the foot of Apennines, these alluvial fans form also the upper part of the aquifer group B. In the lowest investigated portion, up to a depth of about 600 m (aquifer Group C), coarse grained materials are basically formed by older marine sediments.

The circulation of groundwater in the top layers is mostly dominated by the underbed dispersion of the two rivers, while a secondary contribution coming from remote sources is found in the lower strata of the lowland area; fossil water are eventually found in the lower aquifer group C.

The relevant geotechnical properties of the subsoil are derived from a collection of in situ and laboratory investigations performed all over the city (Darini, 2008; Darini et al., 2008). A typical layering of the area (Figure 9a) derived from a borehole 300 m deep (IDROSER, 1989) shows a repetitive sequence of coarse and fine grained materials with strata of variable thickness. With regard to the fine grained soils, the analysis of laboratory tests on undisturbed samples cored from this borehole and on samples retrieved at shallower depth (b30m), lead to the following conclusion: the material is made of a predominant fraction of silts (ranging between 40 and 60%), a slightly lower

the most important wells present in the area, extraction from other not recorded wells, although cannot be fully excluded, has been neglected.

The boundary conditions of the numerical model have been imposed by giving nil flux on the Apennines, coincidence of water head and ground level at the intersection with Reno and Savena rivers, and by assigning the measured water heads at the borders of the calculation area, taking particular care in fixing these borders far enough from the most important wells (Verruijt, 1970).

The above described trial and error procedure has led to estimate a permeability

Subsoil characterisation

From the geological viewpoint the Po Valley is the product of the foreland basin evolution process (Carminati and Martinelli, 2002) occurring at the link between the padanian-adriatic sector and the external portion of the thrust belt formed by the up-lifting tectonic units of the Upper Miocene – Quaternary (Bartolini et al., 1996). In the middle Plio-Quaternary age, the Po Valley formed the north-west extension of the Adriatic Sea. Thereafter a gradual eastward movement of the transition between the submarine slope and basin (TSB in Figure 8a) occurred thanks to a progressive accretion of marine sands and continental fine grained sediments (silts and clays). In the southern part, this sedimentation process is tightly interconnected with the erosion of the Apennines (Amorosi et al., 1996). Confining the analysis to the area of Bologna, two big alluvial fans including predominantly gravelly and sandy materials are formed at the occurrence in the plain of Reno and Savena Rivers. As a result, the stratigraphical sequences along the two rivers (Elmi et al., 1984) show an alternation of fine and coarse grained materials, with thicknesses of coarse material strata progressively smaller (Fig. 8b) while proceeding from the mountain to the valley.

The content of clays (variable from 10 to 50%) and a small percentage of sand (between 0 and 20%); the consistency limits plotted on the Casagrande chart (Figure 9b) show a homogenous mineralogical composition of the sediments; the compressibility and swelling indexes (denoted respectively with C_c and C_s in the table of Figure 9b) obtained from oedometer tests do not show any significant variability with depth; overconsolidation is present only in the top 20 m (Figure 9c) being basically determined by fluctuations of the water table. Based on the available results, it is impossible to make any hypothesis on the distribution of the physical and mechanical properties of the fine grained material over the considered area.

The same consideration has been made for coarse grained deposits, focusing the attention on their permeability coefficient estimated with provides only a range of values, without any clear spatial distinction. Another possible, yet not simple, option would consist in computing the distribution of $K(x,y)$ by an inverse analysis, i.e. finding the field of permeability coefficients able to reproduce the distribution of measured groundwater levels under known boundary conditions. In the

present work, this idea has been pursued in a very simplified form, i.e. assuming a unique value of $K(x,y)$ representative of the coarse grained material at every position (x,y) . Such a value has been then found with a trial and error procedure, i.e. by assigning different values of K in Eq. (3), performing simulations with assigned (known) extracted volumes of water and finding the K value giving the best similarity between the simulated water heads and those measured in the same points.

Considering the available data, this analysis could be performed for the year 2002, for which the amount of water cumulatively extracted for respectively zootechnical, industrial agricultural and civil purposes was known (see Table 2 from Vassena, 2003) together with the distribution of water levels monitored on a number of wells uniformly distributed over the considered area. The table reports also the subdivision of the water volumes extracted for civil purpose among four big wells excavated to feed the aqueduct of the city. By looking at their position on the map (see the symbols in Figure 11) it is interesting

to note that the biggest part of this amount of water is extracted from the alluvial fan of the Reno river, as a confirmation of the groundwater head distribution observed in Fig. 11b.

The permeability coefficient $K = 3 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ m/s}$, which provides the comparison between simulation and measurement plotted in Fig. 12a. On the vertical axes of the two plots the water heads computed with the numerical model on each point of the calculation grid of Fig. 2 are reported, while the horizontal axis reports the correspondent values obtained on the same points from the interpolation of measured data. Even considering the noticeable simplification introduced by the made assumptions (Eq. (3) with constant $K(x,y)$), it is worth noting that the comparison is satisfactory. Such a result is confirmed by

comparing the map of calculated groundwater heads (Figure 12b) with that obtained by interpolating measures (Figure 11b). It is finally not trivial to note that the Darcy's coefficient found with this procedure falls within the experimental range (10^{-5} – 10^{-3} m/s) given for coarse grained soils by the Regione Emilia Romagna and ENI-AGIP (1998) study.

Once calibrated, these page model can be used to predict the effects of different pumping scenarios. Among the various possible studied situations, the simulations performed by switching off the different wells have shown the predominant role of the extraction for civil purpose on the groundwater regime. Finally, by assigning nil extraction to all wells, the position of the undisturbed groundwater table could be estimated, thus recovering an useful information for the analysis of settlements.

Interpretation

The observed subsidence can be interpreted, in accordance with the classic principle of Terzaghi (1943), as the cumulated deformation. Where S and S_f represent respectively the total thickness of the aquifer group and the cumulated thickness of fine grained deposits at each single position (mapped in Figure 10a). C_c and C_s have been taken equal to the mean values obtained from laboratory tests (respectively 0.3 for C_c , considering the mean of the values obtained from shallow and deep boreholes, and 0.07 for C_s). The above formula implicitly assumes a nil compressibility of coarse grained materials, being $C^*_c(x,y)$ (and $C^*_s(x,y)$) equal to zero if $S_f(x,y) = 0$. This assumption has been made considering the difference principally aimed at recovering a more precise reconstruction of the subsoil profiles in order to remove, or at least to smooth, some of the simplifying assumptions made in the present analysis. Another important aspect concerns the development of subsidence with time. According to the classical theory of consolidation (Terzaghi, 1943) some delay should be expected between variations at the boundary conditions and settlements, depending on the permeability and deformability of the compressible layers and on the distance from draining surfaces.

Conclusions

The land subsidence observed in the past decades on the area of Bologna has been qualitatively and quantitatively interpreted by performing a large scale multi-temporal analyses of data regarding subsoil properties, groundwater levels and settlements. Fundamental steps for the analysis have been the processing of data with geostatistical methods, the modelling of these page induced by pumping and of the soil deformation induced by the changes of overburden effective stress regime, and the mapping of all variables with a geographical information system.

Magnitude and distribution of subsidence over the studied area have been demonstrated to be the result of the combined action of groundwater table lowering, which produced an increase of the overburden effective stresses and a compression of the subsoil strata. Although with some uncertainty, unavoidable considering the lack of measurement in the earlier times, the analysis of topographical records carried out for the period 1943–2005 has shown the same recurrent pattern of subsidence (Figure 5). Cumulated settlements range from a minimum of 0.7 m to a maximum of 4 m, settlement rates in the period 1970–1980 range from 2.5 to 40 cm/year, with highest values occurring in the area surrounding the alluvial fan of the Reno river. This coarse grained deposit has proved to be of paramount importance for the explanation of the phenomenon. In fact, the analysis of the groundwater circulation, based on the monitoring of wells for the period after 1976 and extrapolation to previous times by means of a finite difference seepage model, has demonstrated the deep impact of the extractive activity carried out in this zone on the overall groundwater regime (Figures 11a and 12b). Land subsidence is concentrated around this area, basically due to the combination of water head drops and thicknesses of fine grained materials, being the latter responsible for soil compression.

of some orders of magnitude typically existing between the compressibility indexes of silty-clayey and gravelly-sandy soils. In fact, while the oedometer tests performed on the fine grained material of Bologna reveal compressibility indexes ranging between 0.25 and 0.35, values lower by some order of magnitude are typically found on gravelly soils (e.g. Modoni et al., 2011).

The map reporting the settlements computed with Eq. (4) is shown in Fig. 13. In spite of the noticeable simplification introduced, the spatial distribution shown by this figure is not dissimilar from that obtained from measurement (Figure 5). Such a similarity provides a logical explanation of the observed subsidence, which can be considered as the result of the intensive pumping carried out from the alluvial fans of the Savena and, moreover, of the Reno River. Due to this activity, a significant drop of the groundwater table has been produced on the whole area. However, because of the relatively low compressibility of the coarse grained materials (gravel and sand, as shown in Figures 8 and 10b) forming the alluvial fans, sinking is relatively limited near the area of pumping. The most evident subsidence is on the contrary produced on the surrounding portion of territory, where the reduction of water levels and the consequent variation of the effective stress regime, is associated to a relatively large thickness of fine grained compressible soils (see Figure 10a). However, it must be noted that the adopted model, while providing an averagely good description of the phenomenon, cannot be used to derive a detailed prediction of settlements all over the considered area. For instance, the comparison of Figs. 13 and 5 shows that the settlements The development of the number of wells (Figure 1) shows that large part of withdrawal has been carried out in the period between 1960 and 1975, with a peak of the activity in the years around 1970, when the wells adopted for civil purposes were reactivated. Although the available data do not allow to establish the development of settlement with high precision, the maximum subsidence rates occurred few years later. This delay, which is consistent with the

Apart from the peculiar aspects of the analysed case, the most important lesson learned from the present study is that the coupled hydro-mechanical phenomenon induced by groundwater extraction can be nowadays studied, even on such large areas, thanks to a number of technological developments. For the back analysis of past phenomena, most of the difficulties lie in the limited availability of data regarding settlements and water table position, as monitoring of these variables generally takes place after the effects on the surrounding environment (building, infrastructures, water courses etc.) become visible.

The study of new cases, to be undertaken whenever groundwater pumping is planned near populated or sensitive areas, can take a meaningful advantage from tools based on satellite technologies (GPS or DInSAR). The precision of these systems, even though not (or not yet) comparable with the traditional topographical techniques, is compatible with the extent of the phenomenon. A big amount of data covering large areas can be available in this way and used for a prompt decision making, provided faster methodologies for the processing of the satellite signals are developed. However, the time dependent nature of the process, i.e. settlements delayed with respect to the modification of groundwater conditions, must not be disregarded and future extrapolation of measurement accomplished with numerical models may be necessary. Finally, it must be stressed more that the accuracy of models is tightly linked to the knowledge of the geological, hydro-geological and geotechnical conditions and to the quality (density and accuracy) of investigations.

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