

Hydrological effects on gravity and correlations between gravitational variations and level of the Alzette River at the station of Walferdange, Luxembourg

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1	Hydrological effects on gravity and correlations between gravitational
2	variations and level of the Alzette River at the station of Walferdange,
3	Luxembourg
4	
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7	
8	Abstract
9	The gravitational effects of water storage variations driven by local precipitation
10	events are modeled for the Walferdange Underground Laboratory for Geodynamics
11	(WULG) in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg. A modified mass continuity model is
12	implemented, which uses rainfall data from Walferdange as input. In the absence of soil
13	moisture and groundwater level information, the model is empirically parameterized.
14	Model outputs are compared to the gravity time series registered with the Observatory
15	Superconducting Gravimeter CT040 located in the WULG. We find that the model
16	explains 77% of the gravity residuals. In addition, a statistical analysis is carried out to
17	determine the relationship between precipitation, gravity variations and water level
18	changes in the nearby Alzette River. A time delay of 88±34 min between the maximum
19	variation rates of the water level and gravity signal has been calculated. The signals
20	have an admittance of 45 ± 5 cm μ Gal ⁻¹ .

21

22 Keywords: Gravity and Superconducting gravimeter, Hydrology, Groundwater,
23 Precipitation

24

25 **1. Introduction**

26 The effect of water storage variations on gravity has become an important issue for 27 improving the investigation of gravity measurements. Specifically, local water storage 28 variations within 10 km of a station alter the local mass field and thus can significantly 29 affect gravity observations [Van Camp et al, 2006]. Various authors have analyzed the 30 effects of parameters such as local precipitation, soil moisture and groundwater storage 31 on gravity observations [e.g. Meurers et al., 2007; Van Camp et al., 2006; Kroner and 32 Jahr, 2006; Bower and Courtier, 1998; Boy and Hinderer, 2006; Kroner, 2001; Peter et 33 al., 1995; Harnish and Harnish, 2002; Crossley and Xu, 1998; Imanishi et al., 2004; 34 Llubes et al., 2004; Delcourt-Honorez, 1989]. Other authors [van Dam et al., 2001; Crossley et al., 2005; Hinderer et al., 2006; Naujoks et al. 2007] have investigated the 35 36 consequences of longer wavelength (several 100 km) water storage components on the 37 gravity signal. At these wavelengths, the displacement of the Earth's surface due to the 38 excess mass is also important.

39 The response of local gravity to local changes in water storage is site dependent 40 [Hokkanen et al. 2005]. Techniques and schemes for mitigating the signal in gravity data 41 at one location are usually not entirely applicable to another location. In this study, we 42 look at the physical relationship between water storage variations driven by local 43 precipitation events and local gravity changes at Walferdange, in the Grand Duchy of 44 Luxembourg. For the gravity observations, we use the data collected by the 45 superconducting gravimeter CT040 (SG) located in the Walferdange Underground 46 Laboratory for Geodynamics (WULG).

The present paper builds on the results of previous authors who have also investigated the correspondence between gravity and local water storage variations. A new and simple scheme is provided to remove the effects of precipitation events in the gravity observations. A synthesis of the different approaches that can be found in recent literature is proposed. The model is then extended to the Walferdange case by including a new parameter to take into account the seasonal variability of groundwater behavior.

An empirical model is developed, based on a modification of the basic mass continuity model, to estimate water storage variations due to local precipitation [*Meurers et al.*, 2007]. This model is used to correct the gravity time series residuals of the superconducting gravimeter. A statistical analysis is then undertaken to determine the correlation between gravity variations registered by the SG and water level changes in the nearby Alzette River.

In Sections 2 and 3, a synthetic description of the hydrological recharge and discharge 59 60 processes related to the water cycle is given. Here the hypotheses leading to a tank model 61 representation are described. In order to underline the dependence of the model 62 parameters on hydrological parameters, such as porosity and hydraulic conductivity, as 63 indicated by Van Camp et al. [2006], the steps leading to the fundamental model 64 equations are detailed. This is achieved by combining the mass continuity equation and 65 Darcy's law [Fetter, 2001; Roche, 1963], which describes the flow of a fluid through a 66 porous medium.

In Section 4, modeled gravity variations are estimated using an admittance factor between the gravity change and the precipitation height. This is done by decomposing the area above the gravimeter in a discrete number of prismatic elements (the precipitation

height corresponding to the element thickness). The gravity effect on the SG is calculated
using Newton's law of universal attraction. A further hypothesis is developed, regarding
the seasonal variability of a model parameter, which represents the gravity recovery rate
after a rainfall and its physical significance is discussed.

In Section 5, the model outputs for a set of empirically evaluated parameters arepresented and discussed.

76 In Section 6, a statistical analysis is presented to determine the correlation between the 77 gravity signal variations registered by the SG and the water level of the Alzette River. 78 The gravity variation due to the precipitation should appear before the change in river 79 level. The gravity observation should also contain information on the degree of soil 80 Understanding the relationship and temporal dependence between the saturation. 81 observed precipitation and the gravity changes might improve our ability to predict of 82 extreme events like flooding. We estimate the mean time delay between the maximum 83 variation of the gravity signal and the Alzette water level as a function of a set of sampled 84 showers. Finally, the correlation between the gravity variation and water level variation is 85 calculated and discussed.

86

87 2. Hydrological recharge and discharge processes

Variations in the amount of water stored in the ground exert an effect on the gravity signal through essentially two different mechanisms: 1) the Newtonian attraction exerted by the water mass and 2) the ground deformation resulting from the water load and the associated mass redistribution. The effect of the ground deformation on gravity is a long wavelength effect (> 50 km).

Groundwater flow is possible because Earth materials are usually not impermeable, but characterized by the presence of voids (pores) included in a solid matrix. The groundwater and soil moisture occur in the voids [*Fetter*, 2001]. For a control volume V_t of a given material, the porosity P is defined as the ratio between the volume V_v of the voids and the control volume V_t :

98

$$P = \frac{V_v}{V_t}$$

100

101 If the voids are completely/partially filled with water, the medium is defined as102 saturated/unsaturated.

103 The mechanical energy per unit weight possessed by a fluid is given by Bernoulli's104 law:

105

$$106 \qquad h = \frac{v^2}{2 \cdot g} + z + \frac{p}{\rho \cdot g}$$

(2)

(1)

107

108 where v is the fluid velocity, g is the gravity acceleration, z is the elevation of the fluid 109 center of mass with respect to a reference level, p is the pressure, ρ is the fluid density 110 and h, expressed in units of length, is defined as the hydraulic head. The kinetic term 111 v²/2g is generally negligible in problems related to groundwater flow [*Fetter, 2001*]. 112 The flow through a porous medium is described by Darcy's law:

114
$$q = K \cdot \left(\frac{dh}{dl}\right) \tag{3}$$

115

116 where q (length/time) is the flow per surface unit or specific flow, h is the hydraulic head. 117 and 1 is the displacement in the flow direction. The proportionality coefficient (K) 118 between the specific flow and the hydraulic gradient (dh/dl) quantifies the capacity of 119 fluids to move through porous media. The coefficient is known as the hydraulic 120 conductivity or permeability coefficient. It is important to underline that hydraulic 121 conductivity is a function of the characteristics of both the fluid and the porous medium 122 [*Fetter*, 2001]. The general formulation of problems related to groundwater flow is based 123 on a combination of Darcy's law and continuity equations with reference to control 124 volumes [Anderson, 2007].

125 For unconfined aquifers the water table represents the interface between the saturated 126 zone (below) and the unsaturated zone (above) [Milly and Shmakin, 2002]. The water 127 volume contained in the saturated zone represents the groundwater reservoir. When 128 precipitation occurs, part of the fallen volume of water is retained by the vegetation 129 canopy or human artifacts, another part is subject to direct surface runoff or other subsurface flow, and one part infiltrates through the unsaturated zone to increase the 130 131 groundwater reservoir storage. This infiltration represents the recharge process, with 132 augmentation of the water storage. After the precipitation event and the recharge process, 133 the stored water will decrease through different mechanisms, such as evaporation and 134 evapotranspiration from the unsaturated zone or efflux through filtration from the 135 saturated zone, to reach draining flows. This represents the discharge process, with 136 consequent diminution of the water storage. In conclusion, both the recharge and the

137 discharge must be seen as the superposition of different processes with different 138 characteristic time scales. The number of parameters needed to describe those processes 139 is very high, and are subject to strong time and space variability. Different models have 140 been proposed to analyze the complex processes related to water (and energy) storage 141 [Manabe, 1969; Milly and Shmakin, 2002, Iffly et al., 2004]. In the absence of direct 142 information about soil moisture and groundwater level, the development of an empirical 143 local model is required to describe the water storage variations. Important simplifications 144 of the processes involved are necessary.

145

146 **3. The Tank Model**

147 The fraction of precipitation that infiltrates the soil, percolates vertically through the 148 unsaturated zone to reach the saturated zone below the water table. This process 149 increases the groundwater reservoir storage. In the case of unconfined aquifers (presence 150 of one impermeable underlying layer), the efflux from the saturated zone can essentially 151 be described as horizontal filtration through a porous medium. The tank model [Roche, 1963] represents a strong simplification: the discharge process is reduced to the efflux of 152 153 water contained in a tank (and not distributed in a solid matrix) through a porous plug. A 154 simple illustration of the tank model is given in Figure 1.

- 155
- 156 **Figure 1**

157

158 The relation between the flux from the porous plug and the hydraulic head is 159 expressed by Darcy's law (Eq. (3)) in the following form [*Roche, 1963*]:

$$161 \qquad Q = K \cdot \frac{s}{L} \cdot h \tag{4}$$

162

163 where Q represents the outgoing flux (volume/time), h is the water height (corresponding 164 to the hydraulic head), s and L are the cross section and length of the plug, respectively (Figure 1). The parameters of the model have to be determined empirically. The outgoing 165 166 flux is related to the water level through the hydraulic conductivity, which depends both on hydrological soil parameters, such as the medium's porosity, and on fluid 167 168 characteristics such as viscosity. A hydrological volume balance is calculated, with 169 reference to the elementary time interval dt: 170 171 $S \cdot dh(t) = -Q(t) \cdot dt + S \cdot r(t) \cdot dt$ (5) 172 173 where r(t) represents the rainfall rate (length/time) and S the tank surface. Defining the 174 level decrease rate, c (1/time), by: 175 $c = \frac{K \cdot s}{S \cdot L}$ 176 (6) 177 Substituting the definition of Q (Eq. (4)) into Eq. (5), the differential equation describing 178 179 the water level variation becomes: 180 $\frac{dh(t)}{dt} = -c \cdot h(t) + r(t)$ 181 (7)

Equation (7) relates the water level, corresponding to the hydraulic head in this simplified representation, to the rainfall. In this equation, r(t) is not a continuous function of time and the integration has to be performed numerically. In absence of precipitation, the equation can be analytically integrated leading to an exponential decay expression describing the draining of a tank through a porous plug.

188

189 **4. Relation between precipitation height and gravity variation**

190 The WULG is located underground in a derelict gypsum mine, at latitude 40.6700°N, 191 longitude 6.1500°E. The laboratory housing the Observatory Superconducting 192 Gravimeter CT040 lies at the end of an 800 m long tunnel cut into the side of a ridge. 193 The gravity sensor is 295 m above sea level and about 80 m below the local surface. The 194 area above the gravimeter has significant topographic slope gradients (See Figure 2), and 195 is covered by uneven vegetation. The closest human artifacts (i.e. roads and buildings) 196 are located at about 500 m from the gravimeter. All of these factors contribute to making 197 the WULG seismically quiet.

In order to express Eq.(7) in terms of gravity variations, we estimate the admittance between the gravity change and the precipitation height. The gravity effect of a weathered area can be calculated using digital elevation models (DEM): the weathered ground layer is discretized in prismatic elements [*Van Camp et al., 2006; Banerjee and Das Gupta, 1977; Talwani, 1973*]. The gravity effect Δg_e of a single element is given by:

204
$$\Delta g_{e} = G \cdot \rho_{wet} \cdot \int_{x_{1}}^{x_{2}} \int_{y_{1}}^{y_{2}} \frac{z}{z_{1}} \frac{z}{(x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2})^{3/2}} \cdot dx \cdot dy \cdot dz$$
(8)

205

where G is the Newtonian universal constant of gravity $(6.67428 \cdot 10^{-11} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-2})$ and ρ_{wet} is the density of the wet component of the weathered zone (mass/volume). The integration is carried out over the prism volume, delimited by the coordinates (x_1, y_1, z_1) and (x_2, y_2, z_2) in a Cartesian frame centered at the gravity station.

In absence of accurate information about ρ_{wet} in the weathered zone above the WULG, the calculation is made directly on prismatic water elements having the precipitation height as thickness. This simplification is adopted because the thickness of the weathered zone appears to be significantly smaller than the distance between the gravity sensor and the surface.

The 2000 m x 2000 m zone above the gravimeter is divided into 10000 prismatic elements of size 20 m x 20 m. The map projection of the discretized layer defines a 100 x 100 grid. The square elements of the grid are identified by the indices i and j corresponding to the coordinates in meters $x_i=20i$, $y_j=20j$ and elevation z_{ij} in a local Cartesian frame (the coordinates are referred to the element central points). The gravimeter is located at (x_g , y_g , z_g). The gravity effect Δg_{ij} of each prism (m s⁻²) at the gravimeter location is calculated with:

222

223
$$\Delta g_{ij} = G \cdot \Delta S \cdot \rho \cdot l_e \cdot \frac{z_{ij}}{((x_i - x_g)^2 + (y_j - y_g)^2 + (z_{ij} - z_g)^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$$
(9)

224

where ΔS is the surface area of the element (400 m²), ρ represents the water density (1000 kg m⁻³) and l_e is the element thickness (m). The total gravity effect Δg of the layer (m s⁻²) on the gravity sensor is given by:

229
$$\Delta g = \sum_{i=1}^{100} \sum_{j=1}^{100} G \cdot \Delta S \cdot \rho \cdot l_e \cdot \frac{z_{ij}}{((x_i - x_g)^2 + (y_j - y_g)^2 + (z_{ij} - z_g)^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}$$
(10)

230

The admittance, α , between a gravity change (μ Gal) and a precipitation height (m) is directly calculated with Eq.(10), by defining $l_e=1$ m and expressing the gravity in μ Gal. The result is $\alpha=36 \mu$ Gal m⁻¹. For reference, the value given by the Bouguer infinite plate model is 42 μ Gal m⁻¹. This value is generally adopted for almost flat surfaces. The significant height differences of the area above the WULG justify the calculation made on the actual topography.

237

```
238 Figure 2
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239

240

With the calculation of the admittance between the hydrological component of the gravity variation and the precipitation height, the equation describing the gravity changes can be obtained by writing the continuity equation (7) in terms of gravity. This is done by multiplying both sides of Eq.(7) by α , setting $\Delta g = \alpha \cdot h$, $c = \gamma$, and changing the sign of the term $\alpha \cdot r$. This last step is required by the fact that the gravimeter is located in an underground laboratory: an increase of the stored water level above the gravimeter will produce a reduction of the gravity signal. We thus obtain:

248

249
$$\frac{d(\Delta g)}{dt} = -\gamma(t) \cdot \Delta g - \alpha \cdot r(t)$$
(11)

251 where Δg represents the hydrological part of the gravity variation and γ (corresponding 252 to c in Eq.(7)) is here defined as the gravity recovery rate after rainfall (1/time). The 253 coefficient γ is related to hydrological parameters like hydraulic conductivity and 254 porosity, in addition to the geometrical parameters depending on the local configuration. The inverse of γ , defined as τ , has the dimensions of a time and it characterizes the 255 256 duration of the discharge phase. Equation (11) has been previously implemented by 257 Imanishi et al. [2004] to calculate the gravity effects of underground water in Matsushiro 258 (Japan). The basic tank model is modified using the hypothesis of a seasonal variability 259 for the parameter γ . The seasonality is included to account for the annual changes in the 260 meteorological and hydro geological conditions (i.e. evapotranspiration and hydraulic 261 conductivity). This variability is expressed in the form:

262

263
$$\gamma(t) = \gamma_0 \cdot (1 + A \cdot \cos(\frac{2 \cdot \pi}{T} \cdot t + \varphi))$$
(12)

264

where γ_0 is the mean value of γ in the period T (one year). The values of A (amplitude) and φ (phase) are evaluated empirically (see Section 5.2.). Finally, the equation for the gravity variation becomes:

268

269
$$\frac{d(\Delta g)}{dt} = -\gamma_0 \cdot (1 + A \cdot \cos(\frac{2 \cdot \pi}{T} \cdot t + \varphi)) \cdot \Delta g - \alpha \cdot r(t)$$
(13)

270

As already pointed out, the rainfall rate r(t) is not defined by a continuous function of time but by a discrete set of values. To allow us to solve the equation using finite

273	difference algorithms, Eq. (13) has to be rewritten as a discrete expression. We define
274	the terms of a progression:
275	
276	$\Delta g(i+1) = (1 - \gamma(i)) \cdot \Delta g(i) - \alpha \cdot r(i) $ (14)
277	
278	where i represents the non dimensional time indices, $\gamma(i)$ is the non dimensional recovery
279	rate and r(i) are the precipitation heights. The time variable t in Eq. (13) is given by
280	t= $\Delta t \cdot i$, where Δt is the reference time interval (1 hour in the hourly implementation), and
281	the recovery rate function $\gamma(i)$ is formally identical to $\gamma(t)$.
282	
283	5. Data and Results

5. 1. Input Data

The available data for the model implementation are the local rainfall time series from 285 286 the 1 January 2003 to the 1 January 2009. Two different data sources were available: the 287 pluviometer of the Walferdange Meteorological Station and the WULG pluviometer 288 (Figure 2). Both the pluviometers provide the rainfall heights (mm) at one-minute 289 sampling intervals. A comparison between the two series indicates a qualitative 290 similarity. A significant quantitative difference exists as well. The cumulative 291 precipitation provided by the WULG is approximately 10% greater than the cumulative 292 precipitation provided by the Walferdange Meteorological Station. This difference will be used to assess the uncertainties of the rainfall data. The time series provided by the 293 294 WULG is displayed in Figure (3).

296 **Figure 3**

297

298 **5.2. Model parameterization for the hourly implementation**

The value of the admittance, $\alpha=36 \mu$ Gal m⁻¹derived in Section 4, has been used for 299 300 the model parameterization in Eq.(13). The parameters γ_0 , A and φ in the same equation 301 are obtained empirically by a least square adjustment. The gravity variations observed 302 with the SG are compared with the values predicted by Eq.(13) using the rainfall data, for 303 the period 19 December 2003 to 1 December 2004. The parameters are determined from 304 the data in order to minimize the residuals. The values of A=0.6, $\varphi = 2\pi/5$, and $\gamma_0=0.0011$ hours⁻¹ provide the best results. For reference, *Meurers* (2007) adopted the 305 306 value τ =720 hours for the discharge time parameter at the gravity station in Vienna, which corresponds to $\gamma_0 = 0.0015$ hours⁻¹ (see Section 4). 307

308

309 **5.3. Results**

The rainfall time series provided by the WULG, integrated to hourly values and referred to the mid-hour points, are used as model input. The rainfall heights are expressed in meters. An uncertainty of 10% on the rainfall data, as determined by the quantitative difference in the rainfall data from two closely space pluviometers (see Section 5.1) is assigned.

The modeled hourly time series of the gravity (µGal) is compared with the observed hourly time series obtained from the SG for the period 19 December 2003 to 1 January 2009. The instrumental drift of the SG is modeled using an exponential function [*Van*

318 Camp and Francis, 2006]. The modeled gravity (green), the observed gravity (blue) and

their difference (red), expressed in μ Gal, are displayed in Figure 4.a.

320

Figure 4

322

323 The RMS of the uncorrected gravity time series is 1.89 μ Gal. After removing the 324 modeled hydrological effects from the observations, an RMS value of 0.89 μ Gal is 325 obtained, which corresponds to a 77% signal reduction.

The gravity changes after a high intensity precipitation event (Figure 4.b) show that the gravity recovery process has a significantly longer duration than the gravity decrease process. The tank model describes only the recovery process. The gravity decrease process is considered as instantaneous. When a precipitation occurs, the rainfall height is simply added to the current water level, producing an instantaneous gravity change. A higher time sampling of the data is therefore not necessary.

332

333 **5. 4. Discussion**

334

The model provides a reasonable description of the medium and long term effects of rainfall on the gravity observations. However, it does not describe short time scale effects like air pressure changes or air mass redistribution which may themselves be related to the precipitation events [*Meurers, 2007*; *Meurers et al., 2007*]. The hypothesis of the seasonal variability of the gravity recovery rate after rainfall provides a better fit to the actual gravity changes. This variability could be explained from four different factors.

341 First, it could be due to variability of the hydraulic conductivity K, which is related to 342 the parameter γ [Van Camp et al., 2006]. K can be expressed in the form K=k· ρ ·g· μ ⁻¹, 343 where k (length²) is the permeability of the solid matrix, which depends only on the characteristics of the porous medium. The term $\rho \cdot g \cdot \mu^{-1}$ depends only on the fluid 344 345 characteristics, where ρ and μ represent the density and the viscosity of the fluid, respectively. The viscosity depends on groundwater temperature. At mid-latitude 346 347 locations such as Walferdange, groundwater temperature has a definite seasonal 348 variability, even if it is less sensitive in the saturated zone. Bartolino (2003) investigated 349 the annual groundwater temperature fluctuations as a function of depth below the surface 350 beneath the Rio Grande in New Mexico. He estimated an annual groundwater 351 temperature range varying from 22°C at 1 m depth below the surface to 4°C at 15 m 352 depth below the surface..

A second seasonal effect which could positively affect our comparison, could be due to the infiltration variability. The runoff coefficients, and consequently the fraction of precipitation infiltrating the soil, can have a significant seasonal variability, related to the degree of saturation of the root zone.

Thirdly, the improvement could be due to evapotranspiration variability [*Hupet and Vanclooster, 2005*]. The process of evapotranspiration has a strong dependence on air and soil surface temperatures that are subjected to significant seasonal oscillations.

360 Finally, it could be due to regional effects. The model is based on local precipitation.

361 However, the gravity recovery rate variability hypothesis may absorb longer wavelength

362 seasonal effects as well [van Dam et al., 2001; Crossley et al., 2005].

A confirmation of the variability of parameter γ (ranging from 0.4 γ to 1.6 γ_0 as results

from Eq. (12) with A=0.6) can be obtained by a comparison with the Antecedent Precipitations Index (API) calculation model [*Musy and Higy*, 2003; *Rosenthal et al.* 1982]. The API relates the soil moisture level to the precipitation via the expression:

367

363

364

365

366

$$368 \qquad API_{i} = API_{i-1} \cdot K_{p} + P_{i-1} \tag{15}$$

369

where API_i is the index (mm) at time i, API_{i-1} the index at time i-1, P_{i-1} the precipitation 370 (mm) at time i-1 and K_p is a coefficient <1, that appears strongly correlated to parameter 371 372 γ in Eq. (11). Rosenthal et al. [1982] have estimated that in Washita Basin (USA), for a 373 superficial layer of 15 cm thickness, the value of K_p ranges from 0.84 in July to 0.99 in 374 December. The correlation between γ and K_p indicates that the local value of γ may range 375 from $0.1 \gamma_0$ to $1.6 \gamma_0$, where γ_0 represents the yearly average value. Implementing the 376 tank model with a constant value of γ , the seasonal variations are not absorbed and the 377 maximum percentage of signal scatter reduction in Walferdange is only 25%.

378

6. Correlation between gravity variation and level of the Alzette River

In this Section, we determine the statistical correlation between the gravity variations registered by the SG and the water level changes of the Alzette River. The motivation for this analysis is that hydrological gravity may show a better correlation with river water levels than precipitation. This is because both gravity and water level changes are dependent on soil hydrological parameters, whereas rainfall is not.

The water level data is available from the Walferdange Meteorological Station 1.63 km away and downhill from the WULG (see Figure 2). The direct effect of the water level change on observed gravity variations can be neglected due to the distance between the SG and the river.

A shower [Musy and Higy, 2003] is defined as an ensemble of precipitation events 389 390 related to the same meteorological perturbation. Two showers are considered distinct if, 391 during a defined time interval Δt_s the precipitation height is inferior to a defined level Δh_s [*Musy and Higy*, 2003]. The water level increase duration Δt_i is defined as the time 392 393 delay between the start of river level increase and the maximum river level increase due 394 to a particular shower. The mean water level increase duration $<\Delta t_i >= 185 \pm 35$ min is 395 calculated for 45 showers sampled between January 2004 and April 2007. In general the 396 same value can be adopted for the parameter Δt_s . The value of Δh_s is the minimum 397 continuous precipitation for which a water level increase can be observed. The values of 3 hours and 0.5 mm hour⁻¹ are adopted for Δt_s and Δh_m , respectively. 398

In addition to Δt_s and Δh_m , defined as continuity parameters, the quantitative parameters characterizing a shower are the duration (time), the precipitation height (mm), the mean intensity, ratio between the precipitation height and the shower duration, and the maximal intensity [*Musy and Higy, 2003*].

403 In this section, the time delay between the gravity and water level variations due to the 404 showers and the correlation between the gravity and water level changes are estimated.

405

406 **6.1. Time delay between gravity and water level variations**

In order to estimate the time delay of gravity and water level variations, it is more precise to work with the time derivative of the quantities. The sampling interval of the water level time series L(t) is 15 min. The time derivative of L(t) is defined as:

410

411
$$\dot{L}(t) = \frac{L(t + \Delta t) - L(t)}{\Delta t}$$

412

413 The time derivative $\Delta \dot{g}$ (t) of the gravity time series $\Delta g(t)$ is computed in a similar 414 way. Two additional parameters are defined: t_1 is the time delay between the maximum 415 values of the precipitation intensity and the gravity time derivative related to a shower, t_s 416 is the time delay between the maximum values of water level and gravity time derivatives 417 related to a shower (Figure 5).

The statistical analysis is made for 30 showers sampled between January 2005 and February 2007. In general, it is difficult to estimate the time delay between the signals as the relationship can be clearly identified only for some type of showers: high intensity showers and medium intensity showers with their maximum intensity concentrated in the initial phase.

Figure 5 displays the rainfall height (mm), the gravity time derivative (μ Gal hour⁻¹) and the water level time derivative (cm hour⁻¹) related to the shower, which occurred on the 25 June 2006.

426

427 **Figure 5**

428

(16)

429	The average values and the standard deviation of t_s calculated for the entire sample, for
430	the showers that occurred in the time span April to September (warm months), and for the
431	showers that occurred in the time span October to March (cold months) are presented in
432	Table 1. No substantial differences appear in the values calculated for the three periods,
433	but because of the sample limitation these results must be interpreted with caution.
434	
435	Table 1
436	
437	The average values and the standard deviation of t_1 are also calculated for 3 subsets:
438	the entire sample, for the time span April to September (warm months) and the time span
439	October to March (cold months). The results are given in Table 2.
440	
441	Table 2
442	
443	As the uncertainties of the t_l values are even greater than the values themselves, the SG
444	observations do not provide any additional or complementary information already
445	provided by the pluviometer.
446	
447	
448	6.2. Correlation between gravity and water level changes as a function of the shower
449	height
450	A statistical analysis of the correlation between the shower heights, the gravity
451	variations and the water level changes is carried out for 45 showers sampled between
452	January 2004 and April 2007.

453	The parameters $r_{s_s} \Delta g_s$ and L_s are defined as the integrated water content of a shower,
454	the gravity change, and the water level change associated with a shower (Figure 6)
455	respectively. The L _s values as a function of the Δg_s values are displayed in Figure 7.
456	
457	Figure 6
458	
459	The correlation coefficient between L_s and Δg_s is 0.59. The admittance between L_s
460	and Δg_s was calculated to 45±5 cm μ Gal ⁻¹
461	
462	Figure 7
463	
464	The L_s values as a function of the r_s values are displayed in Figure 8. The correlation
465	coefficient between L_{s} and r_{s} is 0.68, higher than the correlation coefficient between L_{s}
466	and Δg_s . The admittance of 2.2±0.4 cm mm ⁻¹ between L _s and r _s is calculated. Again, the
467	slightly better correlation between L_s and r_s shows that the SG observations (as compared
468	to predictions based solely on the pluviometer) fail to provide a better insight into river
469	levels.
470	
471	Figure 8
472	
473	7. Conclusions
474	A simple tank model, based on a combination of a mass continuity equation and
475	Darcy's law, is implemented in order to evaluate the effects of water storage variations
476	on the gravity observations in Walferdange. The hypothesis of the seasonal variability

of the model parameter describing the gravity recovery rate after a rainfall is introduced.
No a priori information about soil moisture and groundwater storage is used to estimate
the hydrological effects on gravity. The model is based solely on the observed local
rainfall and is empirically parameterized.

The model reduces the scatter of the SG data by 77%. However, in the absence of the extra seasonal parameter, the maximum percentage of signal reduction is 25%. This result indicates that seasonal effects are important even when looking at short-scale spatial relationships.

The time delay between the maximum gravity and water level time derivatives and maximum precipitation intensity and gravity time derivative is 88 ± 34 minutes and 4 ± 9 minutes, respectively. The correlation between the gravity and water level variation and the precipitation amount and water level variation is 0.59 and 0.68, respectively. The admittance between water level and gravity variation and water level variation and precipitation amount is 45 ± 5 cm μ Gal⁻¹ and 2.2 \pm 0.4 cm mm⁻¹, respectively.

In conclusion, the gravity signal does not allow for a better prediction of the water levelof the Alzette as compared to the prediction based solely on the pluviometer.

493

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Fig. 2: Topography of the area above the WULG (black dot) and Alzette River (green *line*). The red asterisk represents the WULG pluviometer. The yellow asterisk represents

14 the Walferdange Meteorological Station.

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Fig. 3: Input data: Rainfall time series (mm/hour) provided by the WULG for the period

29	1 January 2003 to 1 January 2009.
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47 a. Observed gravity (blue, μGal), modeled gravity (green, μGal) and their
48 difference (red, μGal) at Walferdange. The comparison period is 19 December
49 2003 to 1 January 2009.

50 b. Zoom on a: rainfall (blue, mm/hour), observed gravity (red, μGal), modeled
51 gravity (green, μGal) for the period May to September 2004. The same scale is
52 adopted for gravity and rainfall.



55 Fig. 5: Rainfall height (mm), gravity time derivative (µGal/hour) and water level time

derivative (*cm/hour*) *related to the shower that occurred on the 25 June 2006.*



66

67 **Fig. 6:** Time evolution of rainfall (mm), gravity (μGal) and water level (cm) related to the

68 shower that occurred on the 25 June 2006.
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79 Fig. 7: Correlation between gravity and water level changes for the showers between

80 January 2004 and April 2007.

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91

92 Fig. 8: Correlation between precipitation heights and water level changes for the

93 showers between January 2004 and April 2007.

- 95
- 96

Table

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			January 2005-February 2007	April-September 2005-2007	October-March 2005-2007			
		t _s	88 ±34 min	85±34 min	93 ±34 min			
2					. 0			
3								
4	Tabl	e 1: T	ïme delay t _s between th	ne maximum values of z	gravity and water level time			
5	derivatives, for the showers sampled between January 2005 and February 2007.							
6								
7								
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	January 2005-February 2007	April-September 2005-2007	October-March 2005-2007
t.	4+9 min	5 +9min	1 +9 min
ч	4_) iiiii	5 _ jiiiii	

Table 2: Time delay t₁ between the maximum values of shower intensity and gravity time

derivative, for the showers sampled between January 2005 and February 2007.