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Uncertainty analysis and validation of the estimation of effective hydraulic properties at the Darcy scale

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Abstract

The determination of the hydraulic properties of heterogeneous soils or porous media remains challenging. In the present study, we focus on determining the effective properties of heterogeneous porous media at the Darcy scale with an analysis of their uncertainties.

Preliminary, experimental measurements of the hydraulic properties of each component of the heterogeneous medium are obtained. The properties of the effective medium, representing an equivalent homogeneous material, are determined numerically by simulating a water flow in a three-dimensional representation of the heterogeneous medium, under steady-state scenarios and using its component properties. One of the major aspects of this study is to take into account the uncertainties of these properties in the computation and evaluation of the effective properties. This is done using a bootstrap method.

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Numerical evaporation experiments are conducted both on the heterogeneous and on the effective homogeneous materials to evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed approach. First, the impact of the uncertainties of the component properties on the simulated water matric potential is found to be high for the heterogeneous material configuration. Second, it is shown that the strategy developed herein leads to a reduction of this impact. Finally, the adequacy between the mean of the simulations for the two configurations confirms the suitability of the homogenization approach, even in the case of dynamic scenarios.

Although it is applied to green roof substrates, a two-component media composed of bark compost and pozzolan used in the construction of buildings, the methodology proposed in this study is generic.

Keywords: effective hydraulic parameters, heterogeneous porous media, uncertainty estimation, green roof substrate, the Richards equation, bootstrapping method

1 1. Introduction

At the Darcy scale, heterogeneous media can be represented in different ways. Basically, a heterogeneous medium can be modeled either using a spatial distribution of properties inside a single unit (Khaleel et al., 2002; Mantaglou and Gelhar, 1987; Russo, 1992; Vogel et al., 2010; Yeh et al., 1985 among others), or using a patchwork of homogeneous sub-units (Bechtold et al., 2012; Samouëlian et al., 2011; Wildenschild and Jensen, 1999a). A combination of both approaches (Javaux and Vanclooster, 2006a; Zhang et al., 2010) can also be used. A detailed description of the various representations can be found in the reviews of Renard and de Marsily (1997) or Vereecken et
al. (2007). In our study, we refer to the second way of representation, based
on a patchwork of homogeneous sub-units.

The determination of these sub-units is a difficult task and can be per-13 formed in different ways. Invasive methods for delineating three-dimensional 14 natural soil units include pedological or geological observations (Bierkens 15 and van der Gaast, 1998; Javaux and Vanclooster, 2006b; Ma et al., 2010 16 Samouëlian et al., 2011) and dye tracing experiments (Javaux and Van-: 17 clooster, 2006a). Non invasive methods such as two-dimensional electrical 18 resistivity tomography (Besson et al., 2004; Tabbagh et al., 2000) or three-19 dimensional x-ray computed assist tomography (Duliu, 1999) can also be 20 used. The alternative approach is to work on remolded porous media, such 21 as calibrated sands, to precisely control the heterogeneity pattern and the 22 distribution of hydraulic properties (Bechtold et al., 2012; Danquigny and 23 Ackerer, 2005; Wildenschild and Jensen, 1999b). In our study, we refer to 24 this last way of representation. 25

When working on a patch of homogeneous sub-units, each component 26 of the heterogeneous medium is considered as a single-phase continuum de-27 scribed by macroscopic laws (the Darcy law and the Richards equation). Wa-28 ter flow simulation or water balance computation can then be performed on 29 the elementary volume by using a numerical solver of the Richards equation 30 accounting for the spatial heterogeneity of the hydraulic properties. The 31 spatial structure must be known to distribute the hydraulic properties of 32 each material on the volume of interest. Moreover, solving the Richards 33 equation can be tedious, in particular for three-dimensional flow in complex

heterogeneous geometry (Herbst et al., 2008). A simpler approach consists 35 in replacing the explicit three-dimensional structure of the heterogeneous 36 volume by a homogeneous medium, wherein the properties of the homoge-37 nized medium take into account the hydraulic properties of each material, in 38 such a way that simulations conducted on both domains yield similar water 39 fluxes under identical boundary conditions (Samouëlian et al., 2011). Such 40 medium properties are then called effective properties. The effective medium 41 is still obtained at the Darcy scale. The homogenization approach can then 42 be considered as an upscaling technique from a continuum scale to a larger 43 continuum one. 44

Due to the recent advances in computing capabilities, numerical ap-45 proaches are now widely used for the determination of effective properties 46 (Samouëlian et al., 2007; Vogel et al., 2010). The objective of this study 47 is to contribute to the evaluation of this approach. Several authors noted 48 that simulations conducted using effective parameters may differ from simu-40 lations conducted with spatially distributed parameters (Vogel et al., 2008; 50 Vogel et al., 2010) or from experimental data measured on heterogeneous me-51 dia (Wildenschild and Jensen, 1999b). In addition, though several authors 52 estimated the effective hydraulic properties of various natural soils (Javaux 53 and Vanclooster, 2006a; Samouëlian et al., 2011; Vogel and Roth, 1998), no 54 study, to our knowledge, integrates a complete uncertainty evaluation of this 55 procedure. The process of estimating the hydraulic properties of a given 56 material includes however various sources of uncertainties (Mohrath et al., 57 1997; Peters and Durner, 2008; see also section 2.2 of this article). These 58 uncertainties significantly affect the results of numerical simulations (Chris-59

tiaens and Feyen, 2001; Coppola et al., 2009; Pan et al., 2009) and thus the estimation of effective properties or their evaluation using dynamic scenarios. In this study, we propose to estimate the uncertainties on the effective hydraulic properties of a real heterogeneous material, and to evaluate these properties and the impact of their uncertainties by comparing simulations of a dynamic process using either the heterogeneous medium or the effective homogeneous material.

The methodology proposed in this article is generic. It is applied here to 67 green roof substrates, hereafter called substrate or complex substrate. It is a 68 composite of compressible materials, namely organic matter (bark compost) 69 used as fertilizer, and of aggregates of volcanic rock (pozzolan) used as rigid 70 skeleton. This two-component material is considered to serve a number of 71 beneficial purposes that can help in the management of various environmen-72 tal problems, such as the reduction of air pollution or of the carbon footprints 73 of cities (Yang et al., 2008), the improvement of storm water management 74 (Carter and Jackson, 2007) and the improvement of energy efficiency in build-75 ings (Ouldboukhitine et al., 2012). 76

77 2. Materials and Methods

The methodology followed in this study is sketched up in Fig. 1. The heterogeneous material under study is composed of a combination of bark compost and pozzolan. In the first step, water retention and hydraulic conductivity are measured for both materials using ad hoc experimental procedures for different water matric potential and on different samples. The hydraulic properties are then estimated by fitting parametric models to the experimental data. The uncertainties on these properties are estimated using
a bootstrap method.

In the second step, effective hydraulic parameters are determined by simu-86 lating numerically the water flow in a three-dimensional representation of the 87 heterogeneous material taking into account the uncertainties on the hydraulic 88 properties of each constitutive materials and on the spatial distribution of 89 the materials using Monte Carlo random sampling. The effective hydraulic 90 properties and associated uncertainties are then estimated in the same way 91 as for single material properties but using the simulated water retention and 92 conductivity values. 93

Finally, in the third step, the reliability of the computed effective hydraulic properties is evaluated. Simulations of the evolution of water matric potential versus time are performed under dynamic scenarios with the effective medium and the heterogeneous material taking into account the uncertainties on their hydraulic properties and the spatial distribution of the materials. Their mean behaviors are cross-checked and the impact of the uncertainties is compared.

The following subsections give details on the models used for fitting hy-101 draulic properties, the methodology followed for estimating their uncertain-102 ties, the numerical configuration of the water flow simulations, the method 103 used for computing the effective properties and the evaluation of the homog-104 enization approach. The experimental procedures used for measuring water 105 retention and hydraulic conductivity for bark compost and pozzolan and the 106 specific C++ parallelized code used for solving the Richards equation are 107 described in Appendix A and B respectively. 108

109 2.1. Models of hydraulic properties

The van Genuchten model (van Genuchten, 1980) is fitted to the experimental data to obtain the hydraulic properties, from which we deduce the water retention curve, i.e. the relation between $\theta(h, \mathbf{x}, t)$ [L^3L^{-3}], the volumetric water content, and $h(\mathbf{x}, t)$ [L], the water matric potential, as follows

$$\theta(h, \mathbf{x}, t) = \theta_r(\mathbf{x}) + (\theta_s(\mathbf{x}) - \theta_r(\mathbf{x})) \times \left[1 + \left(\frac{h(\mathbf{x}, t)}{h_e(\mathbf{x})}\right)^n\right]^{-m}$$
(1)

where **x** [L] are the spatial coordinates, t [T] is the time, θ_r [L³L⁻³] is the residual volumetric water content, θ_s [L³L⁻³] is the water content at saturation, $h_e[L]$ is a scale parameter, n [-] and m [-] are shape parameters with m = 1 - 1/n.

The Mualem-van Genuchten model (van Genuchten, 1980) is fitted to the experimental data to obtain the hydraulic properties, from which we deduce the hydraulic conductivity curve, i.e. the relation between $K(h, \mathbf{x}, t)$ $[LT^{-1}]$, the hydraulic conductivity, and $h(\mathbf{x}, t)$, the matric water potential, as follows

$$K(h, \mathbf{x}, t) = K_{Sat}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \frac{\left[1 - (h(\mathbf{x}, t)/h_e(\mathbf{x}))^{n-1} \times (1 + (h(\mathbf{x}, t)/h_e(\mathbf{x}))^n)^{-m}\right]^2}{\left[1 + (h(\mathbf{x}, t)/h_e(\mathbf{x}))^n\right]^{m/2}}$$
(2)

The values of the parameters of the hydraulic models are estimated by fitting these models on all the available observations. These fits are performed using non-linear least squares regression with a trust-region-reflective minimizer (Coleman and Li, 1996). The method of estimating the uncertainties for these properties is detailed in the following subsection.

127 2.2. Uncertainty evaluation methodology

As already mentioned, various approximations and errors can be sources of uncertainty when estimating the hydraulic properties of a material. The following typology is proposed to classify these sources of uncertainty:

 Variability in the properties of samples: owing to the variability of the material samples used in some experiments, or due to the fact that some experiments result in the destruction of the samples, measurements of the properties of a material are often performed on replicates. The number of replicates may have a significant impact on the estimation of the hydraulic properties of a material depending on the level of their individual variability.

2. Errors in experimental data due to (i) approximations used for size characterization, weight or density measurements, sensor locations, and to (ii) digitalization errors associated with digital data-loggers. These errors can propagate in the estimation of the hydraulic properties as noted by Tamari et al. (1993).

- 3. Model errors due to inadequate model assumptions. Vogel et al. (2010)
 showed in a numerical case study that the validation of the homogenization process requires a highly flexible hydraulic law model.
- 4. Fitting errors: in the presence of a low number of experimental data,
 the level of uncertainty of the obtained parameters using parametric
 models fitted to the experimental data may be very high, even in case
 of slight variability in the properties of the samples and of slight measurement errors.

8

In our study the bootstrap method (Efron and Tibshirani, 1994; Manly, 2006) is used to estimate the resulting uncertainties on the hydraulic properties. This method can be used to estimate a statistic without it being biased, to evaluate the accuracy of this estimation and/or to build confidence intervals for this statistic. In the present study, the statistics computed are the parameters of the models describing the hydraulic properties. The principle of non-parametric bootstrapping is briefly described below.

Let us consider the observation sample obtained for the computation of 158 the statistic, in our case a set of water retention or conductivity measure-159 ments. These observations must be independent and identically distributed 160 to ensure the convergence of the method. This is the case for almost all 161 configurations in our study and when it is not completely the case (pozzolan 162 and compost conductivity measurements), it has been checked that the pres-163 ence of dependencies does not significantly influence the results. N artificial 164 samples, of the same size as the original observation sample, are created by 165 sampling in it with replacement. They are called bootstrap samples. The 166 value of the statistic is computed for each one of these bootstrap samples. 167 Its probability distribution is then approximated using the histogram of its 168 N computed values. In other words, the actual variability of the statistic 169 is estimated using the observed variability of all the samples obtained by 170 resampling. In our case, the uncertainty distributions of the estimated hy-171 draulic properties are thus approximated by fitting the models N times on 172 bootstrap samples of the observations. The number of bootstrap samples 173 used is always set to N = 500. It has been verified that the results obtained 174 (mean and standard deviation of the parameters estimated) are stable for 175

¹⁷⁶ this number (variation of only a few percent).

Though this methodology does not take into account the problem of 177 model error, of large biases or of samples non representative of the popu-178 lation, it produces accurate descriptions of uncertainties under reasonable 179 assumptions and a lower bound of the actual uncertainty level. Compared 180 to the maximum likelihood approach, that is classically used for model fit-181 ting and allows estimating a covariance error matrix for the parameters, the 182 bootstrap approach has the advantage of being free of hypothesis concern-183 ing the linearity of the model and thus allows estimating non-gaussian error 184 distribution for the parameters. The joint distribution estimated contains 185 the possible dependencies between parameter values resulting from the cal-186 ibration process. Finally bootstrap method directly gives a sample of this 187 distribution that represents the parameter uncertainties and their depen-188 dencies. This sample can then easily be used for Monte Carlo uncertainty 189 propagation. The bootstrap method is particularly well suited in our case 190 since numerous replicated observations are available and the models to fit 191 are simple. In case of time-expensive models or numerous parameters, alter-192 native methods could be used (see for example Brunner et al., 2012). 193

¹⁹⁴ 2.3. Configuration for Richards equation computation

¹⁹⁵ Numerical simulations are performed on a typical soil core to compute the ¹⁹⁶ effective parameters at the Darcy scale and to evaluate the reliability of these ¹⁹⁷ parameters under dynamic scenarios. In our case, the green roof substrate ¹⁹⁸ is represented by a cylinder with the following dimensions: height = 7 cm ¹⁹⁹ and diameter = 15 cm. The cylinder is discretized with 507, 553 nodes and ²⁰⁰ 3, 216, 152 elements. The average length of each edge is approximately 1.5

mm. As mentioned in Appendix A, the pozzolan aggregate size distribution 201 is the following: 2/3 of the pozzolan aggregate diameters ranged from 3 to 6 202 mm, and 1/3 from 7 to 15 mm. A specific algorithm is developed to model 203 the geometry and distribution of pozzolan. This algorithm uses a mesh of 204 the cylinder obtained by GMSH (http://geuz.org/gmsh/). Aggregates of 205 pozzolan are then created by randomly selecting a seed represented by an 206 element of the mesh. The volume of the aggregate is randomly chosen from 207 the known aggregate diameter distribution and under the hypothesis that the 208 pozzolan aggregates are spheric. The irregular aggregates are then iteratively 209 built by randomly selecting and aggregating adjacent elements of the growing 210 irregular seeds until the required aggregate volumes are reached. Fig. 2 shows 211 a typical mesh used in the simulations. Initial and boundary conditions are 212 specific to the problem solved (effective parameter computation or evaluation 213 under a dynamic scenario) and are detailed in subsections 2.4 and 2.5. 214

215 2.4. Effective parameter computation

The effective parameters are obtained using a steady-state flow simula-216 tion, as explained in Samouëlian et al. (2007) or Samouëlian et al. (2011). 217 The interval under consideration is $[-10^2, -10^{-2}]$ m, which corresponds to 218 the validity range of the numerical code. The same water matric potential, 219 a Dirichlet type condition, is applied to the upper and the lower boundaries 220 of the cylinder. This leads to a constant water matric potential throughout 221 the medium in the case of homogeneous materials. The vertical boundaries 222 are impermeable. To obtain the hydraulic conductivity, the calculated wa-223 ter flux is divided by the surface of the upper boundary. In the case of a 224 heterogeneous medium, the same configuration leads to an almost constant 225

water matric potential in the medium, and the so-called effective hydraulic 226 conductivity of the composite substrate is equal to the average water flux 227 density across the horizontal boundaries. The water retention is calculated 228 for each element with a simple arithmetic average. These conductivity and 229 water retention values are relative to the matric potential value set at the 230 boundaries, even if local gradients of matric potential are present within the 231 heterogeneous medium. The computation is thus repeated for several water 232 matric potential values to fit the conductivity and retention curves. 233

To take into account uncertainties in the hydraulic properties of pozzolan 234 and compost, the computation of the effective hydraulic conductivity and 235 water retention for each water matric potential value is repeated for a single 236 set of component properties randomly sampled from their uncertainty distri-237 butions. The sizes, shapes and spatial distribution of the pozzolan aggregates 238 in the mesh are different for each repetition and are generated randomly as 239 explained in section 2.3. The sampling of pozzolan and compost properties 240 is performed independently for each water matric potential value. 241

The choice of the number and values of water matric potential points, 242 and the number of replicates for each water matric potential value, directly 243 affects the computational cost of the estimation of the effective properties 244 and of their level of uncertainty. An optimal experimental design technique 245 is used to guide these choices. A D-optimal criterion (Atkinson and Doney, 246 1992) is computed to fit the Mualem-van Genuchten and the van Genuchten 247 models. The aim is to minimize the D-criterion, which is the determinant of 248 the error covariance matrices of the models parameters. Several contrasted 249 water matric potential distributions of points are considered in the bounded 250

interval $[-10^2, -10^{-2}]$ m: regular distribution, log-regular distribution and 251 quantiles of beta distributions to concentrate points on the left, the right 252 or the center of the interval. The log-regular distribution appears to be 253 the best compromise with respect to the criterion values computed for both 254 models for a number of water matric potential values. Then, an optimization 255 of the ratio between the number of water matric potential points and the 256 number of replicates, for a given computational cost corresponding to 200 257 simulations, is computed with this log-regular distribution. In the end, the 258 D-optimal design, among those tested, is a log-regular repartition of 4 water 259 matric potential points with 50 replicates. For the Mualem-van Genuchten 260 model fit, prior information from the Wiener bounds on K_{sat} is considered 261 to regularize the fitting problem due to the lack of data at h = 0 m. 262

263 2.5. Evaluation of the homogenization approach

In order to reduce the impact of non-equilibrium water flow that may 264 appear during dynamic scenarios (Vogel et al., 2008), we use an evaporation 265 scenario to evaluate the homogenization approach because it was noticed that 266 non-equilibrium water flow is more likely to be produced by sharp moisture 267 front obtained during the infiltration process (Roth, 2008). A time-variable 268 flux of evaporation ranging from 1.9 mm d^{-1} to 0.9 mm d^{-1} is applied to the 269 top surface of the soil core at z = 0. This evaporation flux is imposed as a 270 Neumann boundary condition at the core surface. The values of the time-271 variable flux are representative of usual experimental conditions when using 272 the Wind evaporation method. The other boundaries are impermeable. The 273 initial condition is that of a quasi-saturated medium with $h(\mathbf{x}, t = 0) = -9.5$ 274 cm for all depths. For h = -100 m, the flux type boundary conditions are 275

switched to Dirichlet conditions. The simulations last 10 days to ensure a
strong evaporation and a switch from flux to Dirichlet conditions at the upper
part of the soil core.

200 simulations are performed for the two-component configuration and 279 for the equivalent homogeneous material, by randomly sampling the corre-280 sponding hydraulic properties in their uncertainty distributions and the sizes, 281 shapes and spatial distribution of the pozzolan aggregates. For each simula-282 tion, 4 sets of 5 points are considered to monitor the matric potential. They 283 are taken for z = 0, -0.2, -1.1 and -4.8 cm, respectively. For each depth, 284 the arithmetic mean values of matric potential are computed on the 5 points. 285 The distribution of these mean values obtained for the two-component con-286 figuration is then compared to the distribution obtained for the equivalent 287 homogeneous configuration at each depth. 288

289 3. Results and Discussion

290 3.1. Hydraulic properties and associated uncertainties of individual materials

The water retention measurements of pozzolan are widely spread near 291 saturation (Fig. 3a). High standard deviations for water content, 0.13 m^3 292 m^{-3} to 0.14 $m^3 m^{-3}$, are obtained for matric potential values greater than 293 -10^{-2} m. They decrease to a typical value of 0.03 m³ m⁻³ in the central part 294 of the water retention curve and are lower than 0.007 $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$ for h < -10295 m. According to the Jurin law, water content near saturation is determined 296 by the proportion of larger pores (up to 1 mm in diameter) that can be 297 found inside the pozzolan aggregates. Due to the small size of the aggregates 298 (diameter of about 5 mm) used in the present study, the proportion of macro 290

pores is highly variable from one aggregate to the other, which explains 300 the high variability of the water content near saturation. For lower matric 301 potential values, the water content variability of pozzolan aggregates may be 302 attributed to factors involved in the pozzolan formation. Indeed, pozzolan 303 is a porous siliceous pyroclastic rock, the porosity of which is created by 304 dissolved gas entrapped in lava during scoria emission. The mineralogy of 305 rocks, the proportion of dissolved gas and the temperature of scoria during 306 volcanic eruption, all affect upon the porosity and pore size distribution of 307 pozzolan rocks. 308

Experimental data are less spread out for the water retention of bark 309 compost (Fig. 3c). Contrary to pozzolan, the water retention measurements 310 for bark compost are obtained on remolded and compacted samples. The 311 porosity of compacted bark compost includes both the matric porosity of 312 individual bark fragments and the structural porosity between bark frag-313 ments. As observed for natural soils (Dexter et al., 2008), water retention 314 near saturation is linked to the structural porosity. We observe a very good 315 linear relationship between water retention data and apparent bulk density 316 for matric potentials greater than -0.7 m (data not shown). Variability in 317 the water retention measurements is thus very low near saturation, since the 318 apparent bulk density of bark compost samples is accurately controlled. For 319 lower matric potential values, the variability is due to the variability of ma-320 tric porosity and pore size distribution of bark fragments. This experimental 321 dispersion is relatively low, since the highest standard deviation value is 0.02 322 $m^{3} m^{-3}$. 323

Figs. 3a and 3c show that the van Genuchten model adequately fits

water retention experimental data. Some slight deviations can be found 325 between the mean of the experimental data and the fitted curve for a water 326 potential of about -1 m. However, these deviations are within the range 327 of the experimental dispersion and they do not question the quality of fit. 328 The estimated uncertainty distributions have a similar behavior to those of 329 the experimental ones: a lower level of uncertainty for compost than for 330 pozzolan, particularly for matric potentials between -0.01 m and -1 m, 331 and a higher level of uncertainty near saturation. For both materials, the 332 most variable and least variable parameter, respectively, are h_e and the n333 exponent, with respective coefficient of variations of approximately 20% and 334 1% for bark compost data, and 35% and 1% for pozzolan aggregates data 335 (see Table 1). The h_e parameter is a scale parameter, which is related to 336 the entry point of air into the studied material, whereas parameter n is a 337 shape parameter related to the pore size distribution (Kutilek and Nielsen, 338 1994). A greater scattering of the parameters can thus be linked to the macro 339 porosity variability. A slight variability in exponent n is representative of a 340 homogeneous meso- and micro pore size distribution for both materials. 341

 K_{Sat} experimental values range from 10^{-7} to 10^{-3} m.s⁻¹ for pozzolan 342 samples (Fig. 3b). The conductivities at saturation of "porous" blocks are 343 higher than those of "dense" blocks (not shown here). The relative standard 344 deviation of K_{Sat} is quite low for compost (Fig. 3d). This is expected as 345 explained in Appendix A. For the unsaturated part of the hydraulic conduc-346 tivity curve, the scattering of (K, h) experimental data found for pozzolan 347 and bark compost materials are similar to the scattering of data found for 348 natural soils using the Wind evaporation method (Tamari et al., 1993). We 349

observe a lack of experimental values between the data obtained under sat-350 urated and unsaturated conditions. This is due to the limited accuracy of 351 matric potential sensors and to the Wind evaporation method: it is neces-352 sary to have significant matric potential gradients between two successive 353 sensors to compute an accurate value of the unsaturated hydraulic conduc-354 tivity. This is usually not achieved close to saturation (Tamari et al., 1993). 355 Despite this limitation, direct computation of K values can be obtained using 356 the Wind evaporation. This is not the case for inverse methods used either 357 in the one-step or the multi-step outflow methods (Hopmans et al., 2002), 358 where only curve parameters are fitted. 359

Figs. 3b and 3d show that, as expected, the estimated uncertainty of the hydraulic conductivity of pozzolan is greater than that of bark compost. The uncertainty distribution of parameter n is very low for both materials (see Table 2). For the h_e and K_{sat} parameters, the uncertainty is greater for pozzolan material than for bark compost material.

365 3.2. Effective hydraulic properties and associated uncertainties

The uncertainty distributions of the effective water retention and hydraulic conductivity values are presented in Figs. 3e and 3f. Estimated values and standard deviations for the corresponding parameters of the van Genuchten and Mualem-van Genuchten models are displayed in Tables 1 and 270 2.

The estimated uncertainties for the effective parameters are relatively low and generally lower than those of bark compost and pozzolan under unsaturated conditions. This is mainly due to the size (number of replicates \times number of water potential values), and to a lower extent, given this size, to

the optimal choice of the numerical experimental design used for computing 375 the effective values. These uncertainties increase close to saturation, follow-376 ing the same trend as the one observed for individual components. The stan-377 dard deviations of most of the van Genuchten and Mualem-van Genuchten 378 parameters estimated for the effective material are lower than the ones es-379 timated for bark compost and pozzolan. The standard deviations of the 380 parameters directly linked to saturated conditions $(K_{Sat} \text{ and } \theta_s)$ estimated 381 for the effective material, are between those estimated for bark compost and 382 pozzolan. 383

Various analytical bounds or estimations of effective hydraulic conductiv-384 ities can be found in the literature (Matheron, 1967; Renard and de Marsily, 385 1997). The Wiener bounds are the harmonic and arithmetic means of con-386 ductivity data and correspond to the effective conductivity of a plane layered 387 porous medium when the water flux is, respectively, perpendicular or par-388 allel to the main orientation of the layered surface. These bounds give a 389 fundamental inequality which is always valid for complex structure patterns 390 (Renard and de Marsily, 1997, Samouëlian et al., 2011). Let $\mu_{a|K}$ and $\mu_{h|K}$ 391 be the arithmetic and harmonic means of conductivity values, ω_C and ω_P 392 the volumetric proportion of each material, and K_C and K_P the hydraulic 393 conductivities of compost and pozzolan, respectively. For each water matric 394 potential h, the effective conductivity K_{eff} can be bounded as follows 395

$$\mu_{h|K} = \frac{1}{\omega_C/K_C + \omega_P/K_P} \le K_{eff} \le \mu_{a|K} = \omega_C K_C + \omega_P K_P.$$

For a statistically homogeneous and isotropic medium, Matheron (1967) proposes an estimation of the effective conductivity calculated by a geometric

weighted average of the arithmetic and harmonic means $\mu_{a|K}$ and $\mu_{h|K}$. This 398 curve is defined by $\mu_{M|K} = \mu_{a|K}^{\alpha} \mu_{h|K}^{1-\alpha}$, where $\alpha = (D-1)/D$ and D is the 399 dimension of the problem. 400

Figs. 4 show the mean and standard deviation of the 50 effective conduc-401 tivity values at the 4 water matric potential values, as well as the means of 402 the corresponding Wiener bounds and Matheron estimations. The mean of 403 the effective conductivity values, for each water matric potential value, must 404 be included into the mean of the corresponding Wiener bounds. The crosses 405 which can be observed in Figs. 4 are well-bounded, validating the numerical 406 procedure developed to determine the effective values. Note that the mean 407 of the effective conductivity values is closer to the arithmetic mean curve. 408 It is above the Matheron mean curve before the intersection between the 409 Wiener curves, and below after that intersection. Fig. 5 presents the mean 410 and standard deviation of the effective retention values. It is very close to 411 the arithmetic mean curve. This result is already obtained by several authors 412 (Samouëlian et al., 2007; Samouëlian et al., 2011; Vogel et al., 2008 among 413 others). Under quasi-static conditions and without dynamic effects, the wa-414 ter retention curve presents a capacitive property (Vogel et al., 2008) and 415 the effective water retention curve can be calculated from the additive prop-416 erties of the local water retention (Samouëlian et al., 2007). The standard 417 deviations of the effective conductivity and retention values computed for 418 the four water potential values are between those obtained for bark compost 419 and pozzolan, and close to the standard deviation of their arithmetic mean 420 (results not shown). 421

422

In summary, the methodology using an optimal sampling design leads

to "well defined" effective properties. We show that the uncertainties of the effective properties are lower than the uncertainties of the properties of each material. The reduction in the level of uncertainty is more pronounced for the van Genuchten parameters associated to the dry part of the properties (θ_r, h_e, n) than for the ones associated to the wet part of the properties (θ_s, K_{sat}) .

429 3.3. Evaluation of the homogenization approach under dynamic evaporation

Three snapshots of water potential values obtained during the evapora-430 tion process are presented in Figs. 6 for the two-component configuration. 431 Heterogeneous spatial distributions of these values are observed at the upper 432 surface of the soil core at t = 2 days and t = 6 days. Blue shades represent 433 the gradients due to the geometrical distribution of the two materials. Con-434 sequently, isovalues of h do not correspond to horizontal planes. At t = 10435 days, the Dirichlet condition replaces the flux condition at the upper surface, 436 which leads to a uniform spatial distribution of water matric potential values 437 at z = 0. A gradually stronger vertical gradient could be seen in-depth as 438 evaporation takes place. 439

Figs. 7 present the uncertainty distributions of water matric potential 440 mean values per depth for the two-component configuration and the cor-441 responding effective homogeneous material configuration. The uncertainty 442 distributions obtained for the effective homogeneous material configuration 443 are clearly less scattered than those obtained for the two-component config-444 uration, and are included in their [25th, 75th] percentile ranges (not shown 445 here). This is a direct consequence of the lower level of uncertainties of the 446 effective hydraulic properties compared to those of compost and pozzolan. 447

⁴⁴⁸ Note however that the level of uncertainty obtained here for the simulation ⁴⁴⁹ of water matric potential might not be representative of the level of uncer-⁴⁵⁰ tainty expected on the simulation of a real evaporation experiment. In this ⁴⁵¹ last case, other types of uncertainties, such as uncertainties on initial and ⁴⁵² boundary conditions for example, must be taken into account.

The mean of these uncertainty distributions for each simulation configu-453 ration and depth is also presented in Figs. 7. The curves obtained for the 454 effective homogeneous material and the explicit two-component medium are 455 similar. This confirms the validity of our approach. However, some discrep-456 ancies appear as simulation time increases. Table 3 shows the mean water 457 matric potential values and the mean water content values for both configu-458 rations at $t_{max} = 10$ days, the final time point of the evaporation simulation. 459 Relative differences between the two configurations are quite high for water 460 matric potentials, and are more pronounced in-depth. However, these relative 461 differences correspond to an area of the core where the porous media are dry. 462 Water content values of both the two-component and the homogeneous ma-463 terial configurations are computed from these water matric potentials using 464 the van Genuchten model and the parameters estimated for the effective ma-465 terial configuration given in Table 1. These water content values presented in 466 Table 3 show only slight differences between the two configurations, and the 467 relative differences (between 2.1% and 6.4% at 10 days) are lower than those 468 of the water matric potentials. Note that these discrepancies may be due to 469 the non-equilibrium flow process, a consequence of the occurrence of tran-470 sient processes during the dynamic simulation. This point has been showed 471 theoretically by Lewandovska et al. (2004) in the framework of the homoge-472

nization theory : a sink-source term accounting for non-equilibrium processes 473 is added to the Richards equation during the upscaling process. However, 474 this non-equilibirum water flow should be minimized under evaporation sce-475 narios compared to infiltration scenarios because of smoother moisture front 476 (Roth, 2008). Moreover, results obtained by Simunek et al. (2001) show 477 that modeling a non-equilibrium flow modifies the dynamic response for in-478 filtration scenarios, but hardly affects the dynamic response for evaporation 470 scenarios. During the evaporation simulation, the average macroscopic flux 480 is a vertical upward flux. However, the orientation of the local, microscopic 481 water flux could be derived from the vertical direction, due to the presence 482 of local heterogeneous water potential gradients as shown in Figs. 6. The 483 tortuosity of the water flow is, thus, increased. This local tortuosity is a kind 484 of balance between the boundary conditions leading to a vertical macroscopic 485 flux and the contrast of the hydraulic properties of both materials leading to 486 the multidimensional microscopic water flux. The contrast of the hydraulic 487 properties depends on the local water content or matric potentials, and as 488 these variables are time dependent during the dynamic simulation, the tortu-480 osity is also time dependent. This time-dependent tortuosity is not accounted 490 for during the upscaling process since the determination of the effective prop-491 erties is performed under successive states of equilibrium. Consequently to 492 the time dependency of the local tortuosity, the overall evaporation process 493 of the heterogeneous medium could be accelerated or slowed down compared 494 to the effective material. Therefore, more complex models including non-495 equilibrium terms might be implemented to study their influence on the 496 dynamic response using the present configuration. 497

498 4. Conclusion

The hydraulic properties of a heterogeneous medium are studied at the 499 Darcy scale using two different approaches. The first approach consists in 500 determining the water retention and hydraulic conductivity curves for the 501 components of the heterogeneous medium. The material considered herein is 502 a green roof substrate, which is a composite of compressible materials, bark 503 compost, and of aggregates of volcanic rock, pozzolan. Associated uncer-504 tainties are evaluated using a bootstrap method. It is shown, on a virtual 505 evaporation experiment, that the impact of these uncertainties on the simu-506 lated water matric potential is high. 507

The second approach considers the heterogeneous medium as an homoge-508 neous material. Effective water retention and hydraulic conductivity curves 509 are fitted on values computed for several water matric potentials using nu-510 merical steady-state scenarios on the heterogeneous material. Associated 511 uncertainties of these properties are also evaluated, considering the uncer-512 tainties of the hydraulic properties of each component. As for as we know, 513 this is the first time uncertainty analysis is performed for the computation 514 of effective properties. To that effect, for each hydraulic property, N couples 515 of curves are sampled in the uncertainty distributions of the components in 516 an independent way for a set of water matric potential values. N is set at a 517 high value, and the water matric potential values are optimally chosen. We 518 show that this methodology leads to very low levels of uncertainties in the 519 effective properties of the material. Despite high level of uncertainties on the 520 hydraulic parameters of the two-component material, effective properties of 521 the heterogeneous media can thus be precisely defined using the bootstrap 522

method. A direct consequence is that the uncertainties of simulated water potential for the effective material are very low compared to those obtained on the heterogeneous medium. Nevertheless, their mean values are almost similar for dynamic evaporation which confirms the relevance of the approach in these conditions.

Our work shows thus that when non-equilibrium water flow can be neglected, it is preferable to work with the effective parameters rather than with the heterogeneous and distributed parameters in order to reduce uncertainties on the water balance. This is of importance since the uncertainties linked to the experimental setup and to the variability of the materials properties may be high, as shown in the first part of the study.

Simulation models which include a non-equilibrium term could be used in the scope of future studies to evaluate the relevance of effective parameters and the impact of their uncertainties in a larger range of conditions.

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| | | θ_r | θ_s | $ h_e $ | n |
|-----------|----------|--------------|--------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| | | $m^3 m^{-3}$ | $\mathrm{m}^3~\mathrm{m}^{-3}$ | m | |
| Compost | Estimat. | $8.66e^{-2}$ | $5.55e^{-1}$ | $7.47e^{-3}$ | 1.22 |
| | value | | | | |
| | σ | $5.92e^{-3}$ | $1.27e^{-2}$ | $1.63e^{-3}$ | $1.01e^{-2}$ |
| | | (6.9%) | (2.3%) | (21.8%) | (0.8%) |
| Pozzolan | Estimat. | 0(fixed) | $3.53e^{-1}$ | $5.88e^{-3}$ | 1.29 |
| | value | | | | |
| | σ | 0(fixed) | $1.63e^{-2}$ | $2.05e^{-3}$ | $1.11e^{-2}$ |
| | | | (4.6%) | (34.9%) | (0.9%) |
| Effective | Estimat. | $3.81e^{-2}$ | $4.35e^{-1}$ | $6.71e^{-3}$ | 1.26 |
| material | value | | | | |
| | σ | $7.17e^{-4}$ | $1.36e^{-2}$ | $1.04e^{-3}$ | $2.74e^{-3}$ |
| | | (1.9%) | (3.1%) | (15.5%) | (0.2%) |

Table 1: Estimated values and associated uncertainties of the van Genuchten model parameters for water retention of compost, pozzolan and effective material.

| | | K _{Sat} | $ h_e $ | n |
|-----------|----------|------------------|--------------|--------------|
| | | $m.s^{-1}$ | m | |
| Compost | Estimat. | $3.04e^{-3}$ | $9.72e^{-3}$ | 1.12 |
| | value | | | |
| | σ | $1.03e^{-4}$ | $2.79e^{-4}$ | $8.87e^{-3}$ |
| | | (3.4%) | (2.9%) | (0.8%) |
| Pozzolan | Estimat. | $6.94e^{-6}$ | $6.01e^{-1}$ | 1.02 |
| | value | | | |
| | σ | $7.95e^{-6}$ | $9.90e^{-1}$ | $9.64e^{-3}$ |
| | | (114.6%) | (164.7%) | (0.9%) |
| Effective | Estimat. | $9.36e^{-4}$ | $2.28e^{-2}$ | 1.05 |
| material | value | | | |
| | σ | $8.91e^{-5}$ | $8.01e^{-4}$ | $1.91e^{-3}$ |
| | | (9.5%) | (3.5%) | (0.2%) |

Table 2: Estimated values and associated uncertainties of the Mualem-van Genuchten model parameters for hydraulic conductivity of compost, pozzolan and effective material.

| | | Depth= | Depth= | Depth= |
|--------------------|----------------------|----------|----------|-----------|
| | | -0.2 cm | -1.1 cm | -4.8 cm |
| Water matric | Effective homo- | -45.78 | -15.33 | -5.68 |
| potential means | geneous material | | | |
| (m) | configuration | | | |
| | Two-component con- | -53.71 | -21.47 | -8.36 |
| | figuration | | | |
| | Relative differences | 14.8% | 28.6% | 32.1% |
| Water content | Effective homo- | 7.81 e-2 | 9.12 e-2 | 10.69 e-2 |
| means $(m.m^{-3})$ | geneous material | | | |
| | configuration | | | |
| | Two-component con- | 7.65 e-2 | 8.68 e-2 | 10.00 e-2 |
| | figuration | | | |
| | Relative differences | 2.1% | 4.9% | 6.4% |

Table 3: Means of all water matric potential and water content values for several depth and for the two-component and effective material configurations.

714 Appendix A. Experimental procedures

The green roof substrate under study is composed of a combination of 40% organic material (bark compost) and 60% volcanic material (pozzolan). This combination corresponds to the volumetric proportions which are actually used in in situ environments.

⁷¹⁹ Determination of solid density and apparent bulk density of compost and ⁷²⁰ pozzolan

Pozzolan materials are extracted in a quarry located in the "Massif Central" mountain, in the center of France. Chemical composition of pozzolan is given by the operator of the quarry (SiO₂ : 42-55%; Al₂O₃ : 12-24%; Fe₂O₃ : 8-20%). The pozzolan aggregate size distribution is the following: 2/3 of the pozzolan aggregate diameters ranged from 3 to 6 mm, and 1/3 from 7 to 15 mm. Bark compost is provided by an industrial partner and the precise composition of this compost is confidential.

The properties of the two materials are measured on samples of both materials, and are measured at the same bulk density $[ML^{-3}]$ as they occur in the actual substrate.

Samples are crunched, sieved at 315 μ m and air dried in the oven for 24 h at 105 °C. Solid particles are then placed in the measurement chamber of a He pycnometer and solid bulk density is determined using the Boyle law (Dane and Hopmans, 2002). The apparent bulk density of pozzolan aggregates is measured on replicates with diameters varying from 7 to 15 mm, using the Archimede law and buoyancy measurements in water. The aggregates are previously saturated in water for 24 h (Monnier et al., 1973). The apparent ⁷³⁸ bulk density of the composite substrate is measured using the core method ⁷³⁹ (Dane and Hopmans, 2002) adapted for compacted and remolded samples.

Since bark compost is a compressible material, contrary to pozzolan, we 740 follow the procedure described hereafter to be sure that the density of pure 741 bark compost samples is the same as the density of bark compost present in 742 the actual composite substrate: the complex substrate is characterized fol-743 lowing a standard compaction methodology, namely the Proctor compaction 744 test, standard DIN 18127. The sample is struck 6 times by a 4.5 kg Proctor 745 hammer from a height of 45 cm to obtain adequate compaction. The com-746 pacted sample obtained following this methodology is supposed to be repre-747 sentative of the in situ industrial execution of the green roofs (Forschungs-748 gesellschaft Landschaftsentwicklung Landschaftsbau e. V. - FLL, 2002). By 749 knowing, on the one hand, the apparent bulk density of the substrate and 750 of the pozzolan aggregates and, on the other hand, the solid density of bark 751 compost and of pozzolan, we extrapolate the apparent bulk density of bark 752 compost in the actual composite substrate. 753

All the measured properties are displayed in Table A.4.

755 Determination of water retention and associated uncertainties

Water retention measurements are obtained using the suction table for small suctions (0.05, 0.54, 1.03, 2.01, 3.97, 6.91 kPa) and the pressure plate extractors for large suctions (10, 30, 50, 100, 300, 500 and 1500 kPa) (Dane and Hopmans, 2002). The total number of replicates differs for pozzolan and bark compost materials.

Since pozzolan aggregates are a natural material with a high level of
 variability due to geological variations occurring during their formation,

| | | Pozzolan ag- | Complex | Bark com- |
|---------------------|----------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| | | gregate | substrate | post |
| Particle | Mean | 3.000 | - | 1.670 |
| density | | | | |
| $(kg.m^{-3})$ | | | | |
| | σ | 0.020 | - | 0.040 |
| | coefficient of | 0.7% | - | 2.4% |
| | variation | | | |
| Apparent | Mean | 1.520 | 0.822 | 0.195 |
| bulk density | | | | |
| $({\rm kg.m^{-3}})$ | | | | |
| | σ | 0.230 | 0.002 | 0.003 |
| | coefficient of | 15.1% | 0.2% | 1.5% |
| | variation | | | |

Table A.4: Mean and standard deviation values of the particle and apparent bulk densities for bark compost, pozzolan aggregate and complex substrate.

a large number of replicates are required to counter the effects of this 763 natural heterogeneity. 10 different aggregates are used for each suction 764 point. The aggregates taken for apparent bulk density measurements 765 are also used for the 0 kPa suction point. Water saturated aggregates 766 are gently placed onto a fine layer of kaolinite paste to ensure a good 767 contact between aggregate pores and the sand layer (for suction tables) 768 or the porous plate (for pressure plate extractors). A set time for sample 769 equilibration of 3 days is respected. 770

2. Bark compost samples are compacted in the laboratory following a 771 standard procedure to obtain a predetermined density of compost into 772 the composite substrate, the variability of which is very low (see Table 773 A.4). A low number of replicates are, therefore, required. 5 different 774 bark compost samples are used for each suction point. To account 775 for any natural variability in the density of bark compost within the 776 composite substrate, samples are compacted in small cylinders ranging 777 from 0.184 and 0.213 g.cm⁻³. Mean bulk density is 0.200 g.cm⁻³, which 778 differs slightly from the theoretical bulk density of compost within the 779 composite substrate $(0.195 \text{ g.cm}^{-3})$, due probably to experimental ap-780 proximations. After initial saturation, samples are placed onto the 781 suction table or porous plate. Kaolinite paste is also used to increase 782 the quality of the capillary connectivity between the sample and the 783 sand layer or porous plate. The time needed for sample equilibrium is 784 over one week for each suction point and is controlled by monitoring 785 the water flow out of the pressure chamber. 786

787 Determination of hydraulic conductivity and associated uncertainties

Hydraulic conductivity is measured for pozzolan and bark compost un-788 der water-saturated and unsaturated conditions using two different meth-789 ods. Hydraulic conductivity at saturation K_{Sat} [LT^{-1}] is measured using 790 a constant head permeameter (Chossat, 2005) for pozzolan cores and bark 791 compost samples. Unsaturated hydraulic conductivity is measured using the 792 Wind evaporation method (Tamari et al., 1993). Samples used for determin-793 ing the hydraulic conductivity at saturation are also used to determine the 794 unsaturated hydraulic conductivities. As is the case of the water retention 795 curve, the number of replicates differs for pozzolan and bark compost, and is 796 adapted to the different variability of both materials: 10 replicates are used 797 for pozzolan and 1 replicate is used for bark compost. 798

Samples of pozzolan are extracted from large blocks (volume of approxi-799 mately 1 dm^{-3}). A classification of these blocks is initially made based on the 800 visible porosity and the estimated bulk density: an equal number of "com-801 pact" and "porous" blocks in equal quantities are identified. 10 replicates 802 are then cored from both types of blocks. The vertical walls of the clods are 803 surrounded by heat shrink tubing to avoid preferential water flow along the 804 walls during measurements. The uncertainty distribution of the measured 805 hydraulic conductivity at saturation used in section 3.1 is estimated as the 806 experimental variability of K_{Sat} measurements. 807

Samples of bark compost are obtained after their compaction up to 0.195 g.cm⁻³ in cylinders. A single replicate is used, since a low experimental variability is expected as the compaction procedure is accurately performed and leads to a very low level of variability in the porosity obtained (see

Table A.4). Porosity ϕ of bark compost is measured for this single sample. The uncertainty of the measured saturated hydraulic conductivity could thus be estimated from the variability in the porosity values using the Kozeny-Carman model (Kutilek and Nielsen, 1994). A simple error propagation computed using this model, assuming a log-normal distribution of K_{Sat} , gives rise to

$$\operatorname{var}\left[\log(K_{Sat})\right] = \left(\frac{3-\phi}{\phi(1-\phi)}\right)^2 \operatorname{var}(\phi).$$

For measuring the unsaturated hydraulic conductivity, pozzolan clods and bark compost are equipped with sufficient microtensiometers to obtain an accurate estimation of their hydraulic properties (Tamari et al., 1993). After the sample saturation, water is allowed to evaporate from the upper surface of each core under laboratory conditions, i.e. conditioned atmosphere at 24 °C under atmospheric pressure. The base of each core is sealed to prevent downward flux.

Appendix B. C++ parallelized code

The three-dimensional variably saturated flow modeling is based on the non-linear Richards equation. The mixed form of Richards equation obtained by combining the mass conservation law with the generalized Darcy equation is

$$\frac{\partial \theta(h, \mathbf{x}, t)}{\partial t} = \nabla (K(h, \mathbf{x}, t) \nabla (h(\mathbf{x}, t) + z))$$
(B.1)

where z is the upward vertical coordinate. Constitutive functions depending on the materials considered link $h(\mathbf{x},t), \theta(h,\mathbf{x},t)$ and $K(h,\mathbf{x},t)$ and close (B.1). Various initial and boundary conditions can complete the parabolic system of partial differential equations.

Water flow is solved using the mixed form of the Richards equation, for 824 which a perfect mass balance is ensured (Celia et al., 1990; Kavetski et al., 825 2001; Renaud et al., 2003 to cite a few). Spatial discretization is performed 826 using the Galerkin-type linear isoparametric finite elements (Dhatt et al., 827 1984; Ju and Kung, 1997). The modified Picard iteration scheme is imple-828 mented in a fully implicit Euler time discretization. Different convergence 829 criterion can be used, as explained in Huang et al. (1996). An adaptive time 830 step adjustment is implemented to improve numerical efficiency (Kavetski et 831 al., 2001). Time and spatial discretizations result in the following system of 832 linear equations 833

$$\begin{bmatrix} \underline{[M^{t+1,m}][C^{t+1,m}]} \\ \Delta t \end{bmatrix} + [K^{t+1,m}] \\ \{F^{t+1,m}\} - \frac{[M^{t+1,m}]}{\Delta t} \{\theta^{t+1,m}\} + \frac{[M^{t+1,m}]}{\Delta t} \{\theta^t\} - [K^{t+1,m}] \{u^{t+1,m}\} \\ B.2\}$$

where t and m denote, respectively, time and inner iteration levels, u = h + zand $\delta_u^m = u^{t+1,m+1} - u^{t+1,m}$, [M] and [K] are the global mass and stiffness matrices, F includes the source/sink terms and $[C(h, \mathbf{x}, t)]$ is the specific moisture capacity function matrix.

A C++ object oriented code (FAFEMO) has been developed to solve (B.2) and to determine the water matric potential and the water flux at each node/boundary of the finite element mesh grid for an unsaturated medium. Our numerical results are found to corroborate analytical results published by Tracy (2007), Fityus and Smith (2001) or purely numerical results proposed by Vanderborght et al. (2005).

Due to the specific composition of the green roof substrate, very fine spatial grids are required, leading to huge CPU time and storage cost. This major drawback is overcome by a parallelization of code FAFEMO with
a similar parallelization strategy as the one presented in Hardelauf et al.,
2007, or Herbst et al., 2008. MPI (http://www.mpi-forum.org/) and PETSc
(http://www.mcs.anl.gov/petsc/) libraries were used herein to parallelize the
C++ sequential code.

LaTeX Source Files Click here to download LaTeX Source Files: JH_V27_unmarked.tex Highlights:

- The effective hydraulic properties of real heterogeneous media were evaluated at the Darcy scale.
- The suitability of the homogenization approach was shown in a case of dynamic evaporation simulations.
- We accounted for the uncertainties for the hydraulic properties of each material.
- A reduction in the level of uncertainties was obtained for the effective hydraulic properties.

List of captions

Figure 1:

General flowchart of the approach. # is used to symbolise several samples or values. Blue color is used for the description of the processing of the heterogeneous material and its individual components, green color for the effective material, red color for the treatment of uncertainties.

Figure 2:

Typical heterogeneous mesh for the two-component configuration. Black or white zones correspond, respectively, to the pozzolan or bark compost components.

Figure 3:

Uncertainty distributions of a) pozzolan, c) compost and e) effective water retention values. Crosses and error bars represent means and ± 1 standard deviations of measured or simulated data and curves represent 0.5, 2.5, 25, 75, 97.5, 99.5 percentiles and median of the estimated water retention uncertainty distributions. Vertical axes are in log scale.

Uncertainty distributions of b) pozzolan, d) compost and f) effective hydraulic conductivity values. Data obtained for pozzolan samples are represented with the same symbol since experimental scattering largely overlaps from one sample to the other. Vertical and horizontal axes are in log scale. Water potential axes are cut to artificially plot asymptotic behaviour and measured values at 0 m in log scale.

Figure 4:

Effective conductivity values computed from 200 compost and pozzolan properties for 4 water matric potential values. Crosses represent the mean and ± 1 standard deviations of the 50 computed values per water matric potential point, dotted lines are the means of the Wiener bounds and the plain line is the Matheron curve obtained from these mean curves. Fig. b) is an enhanced view of Fig. a). Vertical and horizontal axes are in log scale.

Figure 5:

Effective retention values computed from 200 compost and pozzolan properties for 4 water matric potential values. Crosses represent the mean and ± 1 standard deviations of the 50 computed values per water matric potential point and the plain line is the mean of the arithmetic mean curves obtained from the compost and pozzolan retention curves used. The vertical axis is in log scale.

Figure 6:

Snapshots of the evolution of the water potential according to time, at a) t = 2 days, b) t = 6 days and c) t = 10 days. Scales for water matric potential (m) are different for each snapshot.

Figure 7:

Uncertainty distributions of water matric potential values obtained by simulating evaporation using the heterogeneous green roof substrate (black curves) and using the corresponding computed effective homogeneous material (red curves). Dotted or solid curves represent, respectively, 0.5, 99.5 percentile or median values for the water matric potential distributions. The 4 graphs correspond to 4 various depths of the core.

Figure 1: Estimation of individual material properties



Step3: Evaluation of the homogenization approach



















(a)







Figure 7

