

1     ***A deep adaptive cycle generative adversarial neural network***  
2     ***for inverse estimation of groundwater contaminated source***  
3                     ***and model parameter***

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14    ***Abstract***

15       In light of the challenges posed by groundwater contamination and  
16    the urgent need for accurate and efficient groundwater contaminated  
17    source estimation (GCSE), the present study proposes a novel approach  
18    for GCSE using a deep adaptive cycle generative adversarial neural  
19    network (DA-CGAN). Given the equifinality from different parameters  
20    (EFDP) often associated with GCSE, we leveraged a bidirectional  
21    adversarial training pattern involving a forward process and a recovery  
22    process to supervise the inverse mapping relationship. Once trained, the

forward process can be utilized to provide estimation for GCSE. This bidirectional-training strategy mitigates EFDP, thereby effectively enhancing the reliability of GCSE. Moreover, the performance of DA-CGAN is closely related to the quality of the training samples. To address this, we introduced a significant enhancement through an adaptive sampling strategy. This substantially improves the quality of training samples and consequently increases the accuracy of the GCSE. Furthermore, the inherent data-driven attribute of the deep cycle GAN considerably reduces computational costs when conducting GCSE. The research unfolds in the contexts of both hypothetical and real-world scenarios, with the goal of providing an efficient, precise, and cost-effective solution for GCSE. The results demonstrate that the DA-CGAN, an innovative model in the hydrogeological domain, exhibits superior performance in both estimation accuracy (Average Relative Error (ARE) of 4.91% and R of 0.998) and computational efficiency (0.17 seconds per run). This is particularly notable when compared with typical inverse methods such as the genetic algorithm (GA) and the ensemble kalman filter (ENKF).

**Key words:** Inverse estimation; groundwater contamination; cycle generative neural network; adaptive sampling; deep learning; bidirectional adversarial training

**Key points**

- 45       ● First attempt to employ a DA-CGAN as a direct framework,  
46       rather than as a surrogate model, for conducting GCSE
- 47       ● The bidirectional adversarial design of the DA-CGAN to  
48       mitigate equifinality from different parameters, enhancing the  
49       accuracy of GCSE.
- 50       ● The adaptive sampling strategy improves the quality of training  
51       samples fed to the DA-CGAN, further increasing the accuracy of  
52       GCSE.

### 53    ***1.Introduction***

54       The issue of groundwater contamination has severe ramifications for  
55    both drinking water quality and the broader ecological environment  
56    (Yang et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2023). The clandestine  
57    nature of groundwater contamination, often discovered with significant  
58    delay, complicates the process of revealing the contamination source (Luo  
59    et al., 2022). Groundwater contaminated source estimation (GCSE) is a  
60    pivotal process in both assessing the risk posed by contamination and  
61    implementing remediation measures (Moghaddam et al., 2021). GCSE  
62    involves matching simulated outputs from a contaminant transport model  
63    with actual observations from monitoring wells (Zhou et al., 2014). Over  
64    recent decades, various methods have emerged to conduct GCSE, which  
65    can be summarized as three categories: simulation-optimization methods  
66    (Ayvaz, 2016; Yeh, 2015), simulation-statistics methods (Chang et al.,

2021; Jiang et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2018) and simulation- data  
assimilation methods (Chen et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2018).

The simulation-optimization methods focus on establishing an  
optimization model, which aims to minimize the discrepancy between  
simulated outputs and observed data by adjusting decision variables such  
as contamination source information or model parameters (Xing et al.,  
2019; Zhao et al., 2020). Jiang et al. (2013) proposed an  
almost-parameter-free harmony search algorithm for groundwater  
pollution source identification and achieved a robust estimation under  
conditions of irregular geometry and erroneous monitoring data. Li et al.  
(2020) proposed a hybrid particle swarm optimization-extreme learning  
machine to estimate the contaminated source considering the uncertainty  
of random hydraulic parameters.

The simulation-statistics methods update the state of unknown  
variables (including contaminated source information or model  
parameters) to maximum the likelihood function which can evaluate the  
bias between the simulated outputs and observed data (Wang & Jin, 2013).  
Zanini and Woodbury (2016) proposed a Bayesian framework to  
reconstruct the release history of a contaminated source. Zhang et al.  
(2017) utilized a two-stage Monte Carlo method to evaluate the small  
failure probability analysis in groundwater contaminant modelling. An et  
al. (2022) utilized an improved Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) as a



89 promising solution to characterize groundwater contaminated sources.

90 The simulation-data assimilation methods using the covariance  
91 matrix between the unknown variables and the observed data to update  
92 the estimated values of unknown variables (Kurtz et al., 2014; Li et al.,  
93 2018). Xu et al. (2021) used an ensemble smoother with multiple data  
94 assimilation to simultaneously estimate a contaminant source and  
95 hydraulic conductivity, presenting superior performance than the restart  
96 ensemble Kalman filter.

97 While these methods have proven to be effective, they necessitate  
98 multiple iterations of simulation models, resulting in considerable time  
99 consumption, particularly when multiple GCSEs are required.  
100 Furthermore, the accuracy of these approaches may face limitations when  
101 tackling highly nonlinear and intricate groundwater inverse problems,  
102 particularly in the establishment of the inverse mapping relationship. In  
103 light of these limitations, this paper introduces a novel approach that  
104 employs a deep cycle generative adversarial network (CGAN) to rapidly  
105 and accurately conduct GCSE.

106 Recently, deep learning methods, particularly generative neural  
107 network (GAN), have demonstrated remarkable capabilities in image  
108 recognition and translation tasks (Bond-Taylor et al., 2022; Yinka-Banjo  
109 & Ugot, 2020). GANs, a form of deep learning model, are known for  
110 their ability to generate data that mimic the input data (Goodfellow et al.,

111 2014). They consist of two neural networks, a generator and a  
112 discriminator, that work in tandem to improve the generalization capacity  
113 for complex system. A myriad of studies demonstrated the potential of  
114 GANs in capturing complex geological input-output relationship. In the  
115 domain of hydrogeology, Laloy et al. (2018) used GANs for  
116 high-dimensional inverse modeling in hydrogeology. The researchers  
117 employed a Wasserstein GAN with a gradient penalty to generate  
118 plausible hydrogeological models that respected the observed data, which  
119 significantly improve the efficiency and reliability of the inversion  
120 process. Sun (2018) proposed a state-parameter identification GAN for  
121 estimating the spatial structure of the hydraulic conductivity and achieved  
122 satisfactory inverse results. Dagan et al. (2020) applied a conditional  
123 GAN as a forward operator surrogate to characterize the spatial  
124 distribution of the hydraulic conductivity. Our previous work Pan et al.  
125 (2022) has explored the potential of deep convolutional-generative  
126 adversarial neural network for estimating high-dimensional hydraulic  
127 conductivity field. Zheng et al. (2023) utilized a GAN to generate the  
128 training samples for a convolutional neural network surrogate to  
129 efficiently provide estimation of groundwater contaminant source and  
130 hydraulic conductivity.

131 While numerous past studies have examined the utility of generative  
132 adversarial networks (GANs) for surrogate tasks within the hydrology

133 field, the potent capacity of GANs to capture relationships also presents a  
134 promising opportunity for the direct implementation of the GCSE, rather  
135 than solely being deployed for surrogate purposes.

136       Theoretically, a GAN can realize GCSE via establishing a  
137 single-directional mapping relationship between simulated outputs (SO)  
138 and the groundwater contamination sources and parameters (GCSP).  
139 However, GCSE often exhibits ill-posedness, leading to a scenario where  
140 different combinations of GCSP can produce similar observations, a  
141 phenomenon known as equifinality from different parameters (EFDP)  
142 (Zhao et al., 2020). Given this circumstance, it becomes evident that a  
143 bidirectional mapping pattern is more suitable for conducting GCSE,  
144 compared to the single-directional mapping.

145       Therefore, in the present study, a variant of the traditional GAN,  
146 known as a cycle GAN (Zhu et al., 2017), was employed to conduct  
147 GCSE. This model incorporates two interconnected GANs working  
148 together, each consisting of a generator and a discriminator (Wang et al.,  
149 2022). These GANs work in a cyclical process where one GAN learns to  
150 translate from one data domain to another, and the other GAN learns to  
151 reverse this translation (Liang et al., 2022). This *cycle consistency* ensures  
152 that the data retains its original characteristics after translation and  
153 re-translation, making it an ideal tool for GCSE. To the best of our  
154 knowledge, no studies to date have implemented a cycle GAN as a direct

155 framework, rather than as a surrogate model, for conducting GCSE.

156         In the context of GCSE, we used one GANs of the deep cycle GAN  
157 to translate the domain of SO derived from the transport model into the  
158 domain of GCSP—a process referred to as “forward mapping”. The other  
159 GAN then reverts the translated GCSP domain back into its original SO  
160 domain—termed as “recovery mapping”. The recovered SO domain  
161 closely resembles the simulated outputs from the transport model. The  
162 unique cycle adversarial training design of the deep cycle GAN can  
163 supervise the mapping from SO to GCSP, thereby mitigating EFDP. This  
164 provides an efficient and precise way to estimate groundwater  
165 contamination sources and parameters, offering a significant  
166 improvement over traditional GCSE methods.

167         However, the efficacy of deep learning methods also hinges on the  
168 quality of training samples (Sun et al., 2017; Van Horn et al., 2018). In  
169 light of this, an adaptive sampling strategy was implemented to enhance  
170 the quality of training samples for the cycle GAN. This strategy  
171 concentrates computational resources on areas of the GCSP space that  
172 yield more significant information, potentially obtaining more accurate  
173 results with a reduced number of total samples. In particular, we added  
174 one new sample at a time, utilizing all the accumulated information from  
175 updated training samples to determine more informative locations for  
176 generating subsequent samples. This adaptive-sampling strategy can

177 effectively enhance the performance of the deep cycle GAN, thereby  
178 further improving the accuracy of GCSE. Furthermore, the inherent  
179 data-driven nature of deep cycle GAN results in a notably faster  
180 computation time compared to commonly used ensemble-based (GCSE)  
181 methods.

182 In the present study, we proposed a novel deep adaptive cycle GAN  
183 (DA-CGAN) for the estimation of contaminated groundwater sources  
184 using observed concentration data. Unlike conventional standard GANs  
185 typically employed for surrogate purposes, our proposed DA-CGAN  
186 employs a bi-directional training pattern and an adaptive sampling  
187 strategy. This innovative approach significantly improves both the  
188 accuracy and efficiency of GCSE. The performance of this method is  
189 evaluated in two scenarios: a hypothetical scenario and a real-world site  
190 scenario. The key contributions of the proposed method are as follows:

- 191 ● First attempt to employ a DA-CGAN as a direct framework,  
192 rather than as a surrogate model, for conducting GCSE
- 193 ● The bidirectional adversarial design of the DA-CGAN to  
194 mitigate equifinality from different parameters, thereby  
195 enhancing the accuracy of GCSE.
- 196 ● The implementation of an adaptive sampling strategy improves  
197 the quality of training samples fed to the deep cycle GAN,  
198 further increasing the accuracy of GCSE.

199       • The inherent data-driven attribute of the deep cycle GAN  
 200       considerably reduces computational costs when conducting  
 201       GCSE.

## 202   **2.Methodology**

### 203   **2.1 Numerical simulation model**

204       The transportation of contaminant can be described by two sub  
 205       models: a groundwater flow model and solute transport model. The  
 206       governing equation of groundwater flow can be expressed as:

$$207 \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left[ K(H - z_0) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[ K(H - z_0) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \right] + W(x, y, t) = 0 \quad (1)$$

208       Where  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  denote the location distances along the respective  
 209       Cartesian coordinate axis,  $K$  represents the hydraulic conductivity,  $W$   
 210       denotes the volumetric flux per unit volume,  $H$  represents the water  
 211       level above the sea level.  $z_0$  represents the elevation of the aquifer  
 212       bottom above the sea level.

213       The governing equation of solute transport model can be expressed  
 214       as:

$$215 \quad \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( D_{ij} \frac{\partial C}{\partial x_j} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (u_i C) + \frac{R}{\theta} \quad (2)$$

$$216 \quad u_i = \frac{K_{ij}}{\theta} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_i} \quad (3)$$

217       Where  $C$  represents the solute concentration,  $D_{ij}$  denotes the  
 218       hydrodynamic dispersion tensor,  $u_i$  represents the average pore  
 219       groundwater velocity that satisfies Darcy's Law,  $\theta$  denotes the effective

porosity,  $R$  represents the source or sink term. For non-aqueous phase liquids (NAPLs) transportation,  $R$  can be expressed as:

$$R = R_{\text{source}}^{\text{NAPL}} - R_{\text{sink}}^{\text{Bio}} \quad (4)$$

Where  $R_{\text{source}}^{\text{NAPL}}$  represents the rate of hydrocarbon from NAPL to aqueous phase,  $R_{\text{sink}}^{\text{Bio}}$  represents the rate of hydrocarbon removal by biodegradation. The numerical simulation models of two scenarios were calculated using MODFLOW and MT3D/SEAM3D module of groundwater modeling system.

## 2.2 Generative adversarial neural network

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) constitute a subcategory of artificial intelligence algorithms designed to discern data distributions via an adversarial interaction between two unique neural networks: the generator and the discriminator. The generator strives to formulate data instances indistinguishable from authentic data, whereas the discriminator's role involves distinguishing real data instances from those manufactured by the generator. Both constituents are usually realized as various forms of neural networks, including but not limited to fully connected and convolutional neural networks.

The generator  $G$  utilizes a prior random noise variable,  $p_z(\mathbf{z})$ , to convert it into a data distribution,  $\mathbf{m}$ . The notation  $G(\mathbf{z}; \theta_g)$  signifies a generative/mapping operator to the data space of  $\mathbf{m}$ , where  $\theta_g$  are the parameters of a neural network. In contrast, the discriminator  $D$  serves

242 the function  $D(\mathbf{m}; \theta_d)$ , signifying the probability of the generated  
 243 samples,  $m$ , originating from real samples.  $\theta_d$  are the parameters of the  
 244 other neural network. The fundamental goal of a GAN is to  
 245 simultaneously minimize the generator loss  $\log(1 - D(G(\mathbf{z})))$  and  
 246 maximize the discriminator loss  $\log(D(\mathbf{m}))$ . This objective can be  
 247 represented as a two-player minmax game, formulated with the following  
 248 value function as described by Goodfellow et al. (2014):

$$249 \quad \min_G \max_D V(D, G) = \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{x} \sim p_{data}(\mathbf{x})} [\log D(\mathbf{m})] + \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{z} \sim p_z(\mathbf{z})} [1 - \log D(G(\mathbf{z}))] \quad (5)$$

250 In other words, the  $\theta_g$  of the generator and the  $\theta_d$  of the  
 251 discriminator must be alternately trained with the same objective function  
 252 until the adversarial process between them reaches Nash equilibrium,  
 253 which means the generator  $G$  can generate the perfect imitation of  $m$   
 254 that the discriminator  $D$  cannot distinguish. For GCSE, the  $m_o^r$   
 255 represents the real samples of observation data domain,  $m_t^g$  represents  
 256 the fake (generated) samples of GCSP data domain derived by the  
 257 generator and  $m_r^t$  represents the real samples of GCSP domain (Fig.1).



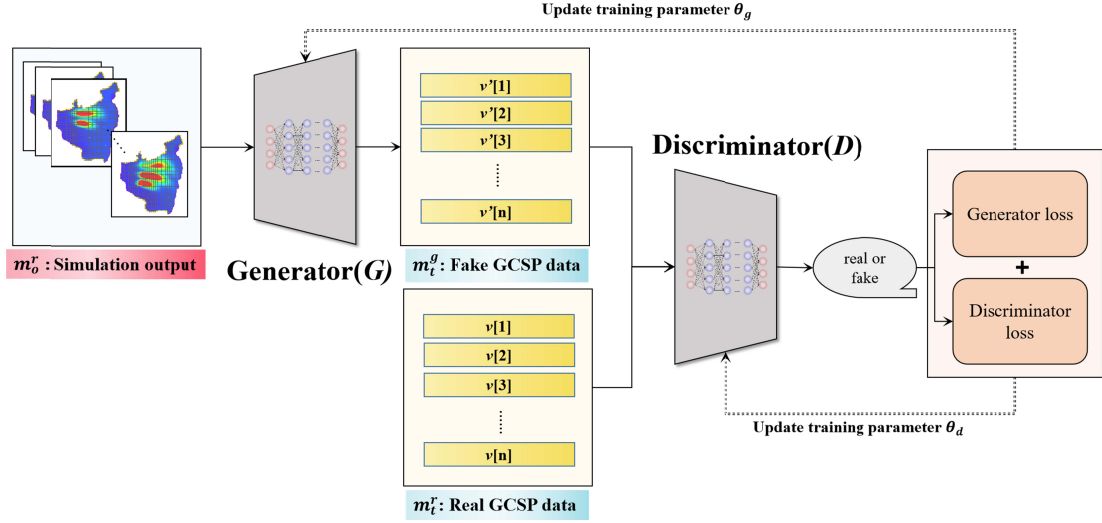


Fig.1 The basic topological structure of traditional GAN for GCSE

### 2.3 Deep adaptive cycle generative adversarial network

#### Cycle generative adversarial network

However, the standard GANs might suffer from the equifinality from different parameters (EFDP). In other words, the generator network starts producing similar samples of observation data, despite being given different inputs of GCSP. Thus, a cycle GAN with a bi-directional mapping strategy was proposed to mitigate EFDP. This method involves training two interconnected GANs in a cyclic manner. Each GAN consists of a generator and a discriminator, with one GAN (consists of  $G_p$  and  $D_p$ ) translating from SO domain ( $O$ ) to GCSP domain ( $P$ ), and the second GAN ((consists of  $G_o$  and  $D_o$ )) reversing this process (Fig.2). In particular, the GCSP-SO transformation loss used in the cycle GAN encourages the generators to create estimated results of GCSP from SO and then recover the GCSP back to SO, which can be expressed as:

$$L_{trans}(G_p, G_o) = E_{P \sim p_{data}(P)} [\|G_p(G_o(P)) - P\|_1] + E_{O \sim p_{data}(O)} [\|G_o(G_p(O)) - O\|_1] \quad (6)$$

The total training loss consists of three components, namely, adversarial loss of two GANs and the transformation loss of the generated  $O$  and  $P$ , which can be expressed as:

$$L(G_o, G_p, D_o, D_p) = L_{GAN}(G_o, D_o, O, P) + L_{GAN}(G_p, D_p, P, O) + \lambda L_{trans}(G_o, G_p) \quad (7)$$

Where  $\lambda$  represents the relative importance of the GCSP-SO transformation loss towards the adversarial loss  $L_{GAN}$ , which is set to “0.5” in the present study. The  $G_p$  and  $G_o$  aim to minimize the total training loss whereas the  $D_p$  and  $D_o$  aim to maximize the loss. Once trained, the  $G_p$  can be utilized to estimate the GCSP from the given observation data.

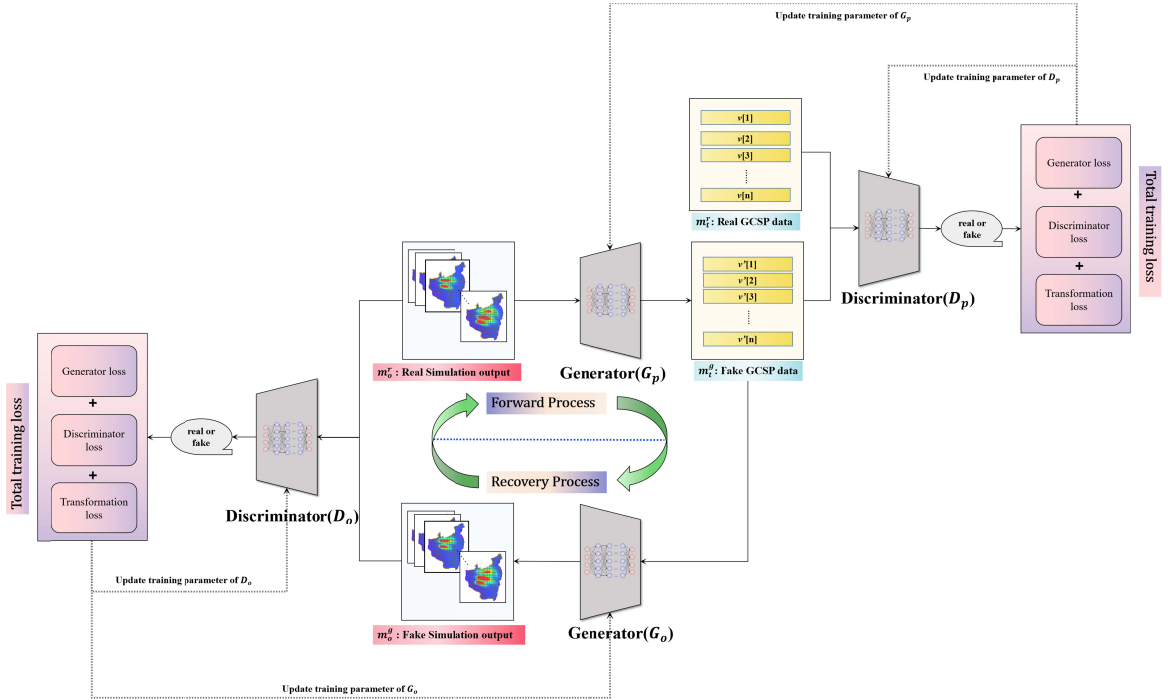


Fig.2 The basic topological structure of cycle GAN for GCSE

*Adaptive sampling-generated strategy*

Deep learning algorithms, such as a cycle GAN (CGAN), irrespective of the input, will invariably provide an output. Nonetheless, to elicit high-quality estimation results, the algorithm must be trained with superior quality data samples (Xiao et al., 2018). Moreover, adaptive sampling allows for more focused and efficient use of computational resources by prioritizing data points that provide the most information or learning potential (Li et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2018). Therefore, an adaptive sampling-generated strategy was proposed to provide high-quality samples for the CGAN. In particular, at the initial step, we used the pre-trained CGAN to estimate GCSP from the observation data and get an estimated result, thereby obtaining an initial estimate. Subsequently, by executing a forward run of the numerical simulation model, an updated sample was adaptively generated and incorporated into the pre-existing dataset. The CGAN was then retrained using this augmented dataset. The iterative process continued until the bias ( $B$ ) between the current estimation result and that of the previous step reached a tolerance value ( $\delta$ ).

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**Table 1 Flow of adaptive sampling-generated strategy**

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**1 INITIALIZATION STEP**

1.1 Set the tolerance  $\delta$  and max iteration, define numbers of unknown variable:  $n_v$ , observation:  $n_o$  and number of training samples:  $n_s$ , lower boundary of **GCSP**: lb and upper boundary of **GCSP**: ub

$$n_{tr} = n_v + n_o$$

1.2 Generate the initial training dataset of **GCSP**  $v$  ( $n_s \times n_v$  matrix) and the

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corresponding **SO**  $o$  ( $n_o \times n_v$  matrix), "lhs" means Latin hypercube sampling.

$$v_{initial} = lb + lhs(n_s, n_v) \cdot (ub - lb)$$

The total training dataset  $Tr$  consists of  $v$  and  $o$ .

## 2 ITERATIVE LOOP

**While**  $B > \delta$  and iteration < max iteration **do**

2.1 Training the cycle GAN with the initial dataset  $Tr$ .

2.2 Execute **GCSE**, obtain an estimation result of **GCSP**.

2.3 Adaptive Sample generated: forward run the simulation model with the estimation result, update the prior dataset.

2.4 Retrain cycle GAN with the updated dataset.

$loop = loop + 1$

**3 TERMINATION** Obtain the optimal estimated results of GCSP.

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### 309 **3.Application**

#### 310 *3.1 case overview*

311 In this section, the effectiveness and applicability of the proposed  
312 deep adaptive cycle GAN (DA-CGAN) for GCSE were assessed using  
313 two scenarios: a hypothetical scenario and a real-world scenario. The  
314 hypothetical scenario provides reference values, which enable the  
315 comparison of estimated results and actual values, specifically in terms of  
316 the unknown variables (GCSP). The observational data at the monitoring  
317 wells were produced by conducting a forward run of the simulation  
318 model with the reference values of GCSP. Meanwhile, for the real-world  
319 scenario, the actual observational data serve as the sole criterion for  
320 evaluating the proposed DA-CGAN.

##### 321 *3.1.1 Hypothetical scenario*

322 The site of the hypothetical scenario encompasses an unconfined  
323 aquifer, with groundwater flow directed from west to east (2000m ×  
324 2500m). In term of the groundwater flow boundary, the west and east  
325 boundaries are specific head boundaries while the north and south  
326 boundaries are no-flow boundaries (Fig.3). In terms of solute boundaries,  
327 only the west boundary holds a specific concentration, with other  
328 boundaries manifesting no-flow. The hydraulic conductivity can be  
329 divided into four zones:  $k(I)$ ,  $k(II)$ ,  $k(III)$ ,  $k(IV)$  Table 2 provides  
330 detailed information regarding the aquifer. Three potential contamination

331 sources, situated on the west side of the site, release contaminants into the  
332 aquifer. The release histories of these sources are conceptualized into five  
333 stress periods:  $T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4, T_5$ .

334 The estimation involves three types of unknown variables: features  
335 of the contamination source, boundary conditions, and hydraulic  
336 parameters. Specifically, contamination source features include the  
337 release intensities of the three potential sources during five stress periods,  
338 labeled as,  $S_i T_j, i = 1, 2, 3, j = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$  (15 dimensions). The boundary  
339 conditions incorporate the contaminant recharge flux on the west  
340 boundary, denoted as  $C_b$ . The hydraulic parameters involve the hydraulic  
341 conductivities in four zones (4 dimensions) and the longitudinal  
342 dispersivity  $D_l$  (1 dimension). In total, the hypothetical scenario targets  
343 the estimation of 21-dimensional unknown variables. For the calculation  
344 of numerical simulation model, the domain has been discretized by the  
345 grids with the size of  $20m \times 20m$ .

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Table 2 Prior values/ranges of the aquifer and the contaminated

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source (hypothetical scenario)

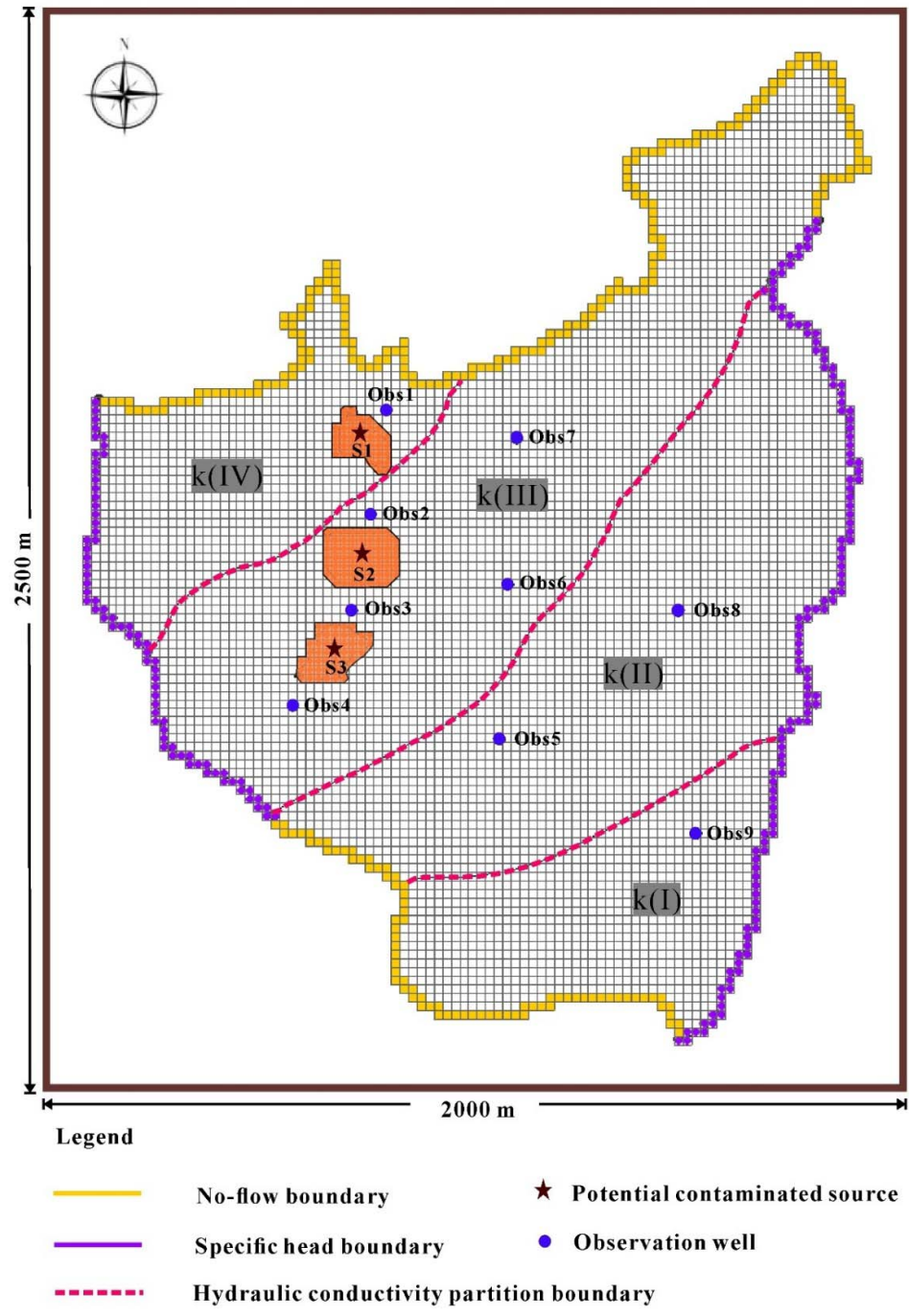
Parameter	Value/Range
Hydraulic conductivity(m/d)	(30,50)
Contaminant recharge flux $C_b$ (mg/l)	(30,90)
Specific yield	0.24
Longitudinal dispersivity $D_l$ (m)	(20,60)
Ratio of transverse dispersivity to longitudinal dispersivity	0.1
Saturated thickness(m)	40
Grid spacing in x-direction(m)	20
Grid spacing in y-direction(m)	20
Stress periods(year)	5
Fluxes of pollution source during stress period (g/d)	(0,52)

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Fig.3 Boundary conditions, hydrogeology conditions and potential contaminated sources



### 3.1.2 Real world scenario

The contaminated site is a chemical plant located in Jilin Province, China, with a width of 560 m and length of 620 m. According to field investigation, the plant released Benzene into the aquifer and ten monitoring wells were set to trace the contaminant. The chemical reaction and biodegradation reaction were considered. According to the observed groundwater head,  $\Gamma_1$  is generalized as a specific head boundary.  $\Gamma_3$  is the Songhua River, which is conceptualized as the specific boundary.  $\Gamma_1$  and  $\Gamma_3$  are parallel to the groundwater flow line, thus are generalized as no-flow boundary. Table 3 provides detailed prior information regarding the aquifer and the contaminated source. We set ten wells to monitoring the solute transport of the groundwater. In particular, #1, #2, #3, #4, #5, #6, #7 were allocated for observing both the water level and contaminant concentration, while wells #8, #9, #10 were reserved exclusively for water level monitoring.

It must be noted that, some model parameters were selected as unknown variables through sensitivity analysis. The estimation involves three types of unknown variables: spatial-temporal features of the contaminated source, hydraulic parameter and reaction parameter. In particular, the spatial-temporal features of contaminated source include the position  $(x, y)$ , the initial release concentration  $(C_r)$  and dissolved rate  $(D_r)$ . The hydraulic parameter involves the hydraulic conductivity  $(K_c)$ ,

the porosity ( $P$ ), longitudinal dispersivity ( $L_d$ ) and the ratio of horizontal  
transverse dispersivity to longitudinal dispersivity ( $\alpha$ ). The reaction  
parameter includes the initial concentration of dissolved oxygen ( $D_o$ ). In  
total, the real-world scenario targets the estimation of 9-dimensional  
unknown variables. For the calculation of numerical simulation model,  
the domain has been discretized by the grids with the size of  $5\text{m} \times 5\text{m}$ .

Table 3 Prior values/ranges of the aquifer and the contaminated  
source (real world scenario)

Parameter	Value/Range
Position $x$ (m)	(20,200)
Position $y$ (m)	(0,140)
Initial release concentration $C_r$ (*10E-3 mg/l)	(0.8,1.2)
Dissolve rate (1/d)	(0.5,0.8)
Hydraulic conductivity(m/d)	(40,60)
Porosity $P$	(0.2,0.3)
Longitudinal dispersivity $L_d$ (m)	(20,60)
Ratio of transverse dispersivity to longitudinal dispersivity $\alpha$	(0.3,0.5)
Initial concentration of dissolved oxygen $D_o$ (mg/l)	(1.4,3)
Initial concentration of Fe(II) (mg/l)	0.003
Microcolony minimum (mg/m <sup>3</sup> )	0.0055
Grid spacing in x-direction(m)	5
Grid spacing in y-direction(m)	5

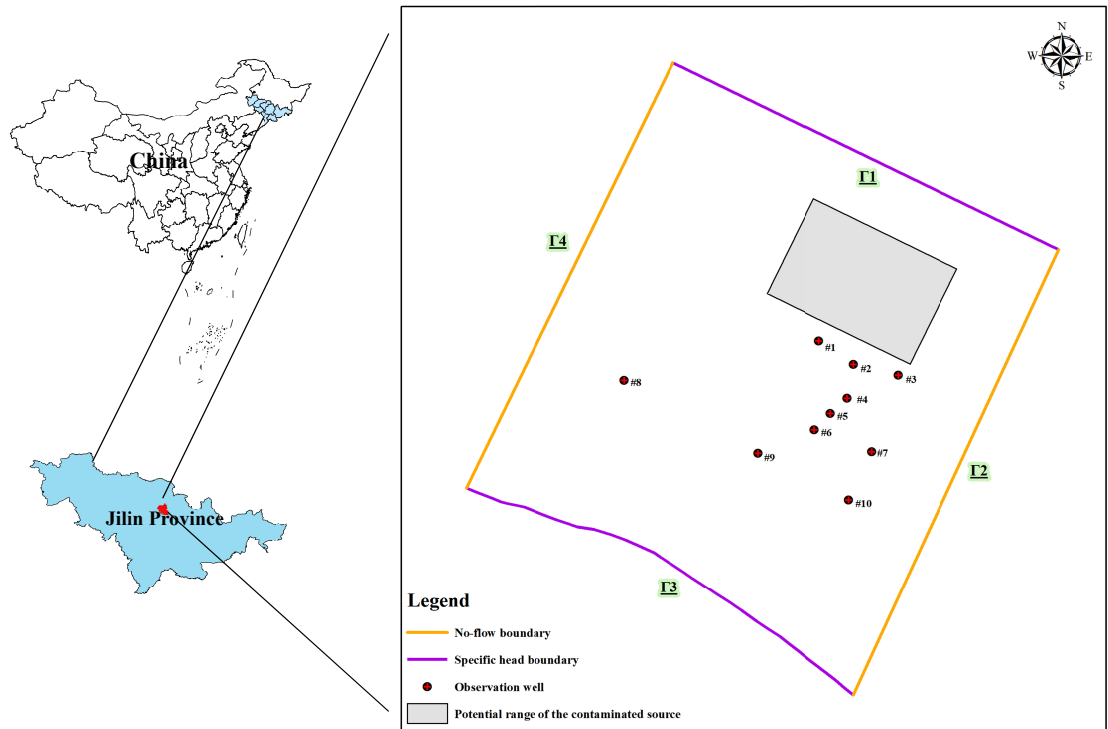


Fig.4 Overview of boundary conditions, potential contaminated sources and observation wells

### Training dataset

For DA-CGAN, the initial training dataset is derived by forward-running the simulation model using the provided samples of GCSP. These samples can be generated within their upper and lower boundaries using the Latin hypercube sampling method, as outlined in Table 1. In the present study, the quantity of training samples for the two scenarios is 500 and 400, respectively. In particular, 80% of these samples

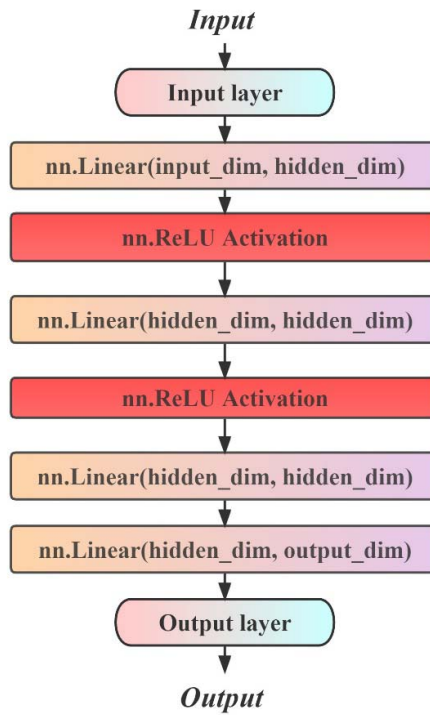
411 are utilized for training purposes, while the remaining 20% serve as the  
412 validation dataset. As the estimation loop initiates (Table 1), the  
413 adaptively generated samples are sequentially fed into the DA-CGAN to  
414 train until the termination of the loop.

#### 415 *Training details*

416 The DA-CGAN has been trained on a PC with Intel Core i7-12700H  
417 CPU i7-12700H processor, GTX3060 GPU, and 16.0 GB RAM. The  
418 important part of DA-CGAN is the design of the two GANs which  
419 involve their own generator and discriminator. For the purpose of  
420 generated data of numerical form, the generators of two GANs were  
421 designed as a designed-friendly fully-connected structure. Figure 5  
422 presents the topological structure of generator, where input\_dim  
423 represents the dimensions of input of generator and output\_dim  
424 represents the dimensions of output of generator, hidden\_dim represents  
425 the dimensions of neurons in the hidden layers.

426 It must be noted that, the generator  $G_p$  and generator  $G_o$  possess  
427 identical structures, with hidden\_dim of values of “100”. Despite their  
428 analogous structures, differences exist in their weights and biases. This  
429 discrepancy arises from the unique mapping relationships established by  
430 each generator:  $G_p$  ( $SO \rightarrow GCSP$ ) versus  $G_o$  ( $GCSP \rightarrow SO$ ). The  
431 experiment was conducted in a Python environment, leveraging the torch  
432 package to construct the network structure.

433 Functions such as “nn.Linear()” and “nn.ReLU” were invoked from  
 434 the torch package (Paszke et al., 2019). With regard to the optimization  
 435 hyperparameters, “Adam” was selected as the optimizer, the “initial  
 436 learning rate” is set to “0.002”. This rate linearly declines from 0.002 to  
 437 zero over the course of the final 500 epochs. The “batch size” equals the  
 438 size of the training dataset, thus accelerating the training process.  
 439 Additional details regarding the optimization hyperparameters can be  
 440 located in our attached source code.



441 .  
 442 Fig.5 The topological structure of generator  $G_p$  and  $G_o$   
 443  
 444

#### 445 **4. Result and discussion**

446 This section assesses the performance of DA-CGAN in terms of  
447 estimation accuracy and computational time cost. For a comprehensive  
448 comparison, we contrast DA-CGAN with three typical indirect methods:  
449 the Genetic Algorithm, Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC), and the  
450 Ensemble Kalman Filter. It must be noted that, the typical indirect  
451 methods required massive realizations of numerical simulation model,  
452 which is high-time cost. The model generalization ability/ estimation  
453 accuracy (can be evaluated through the criterion of the correlation  
454 coefficient ( $R$ ) and the average relative error (ARE), which can be  
455 expressed as:

$$456 \quad R = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^n (v_{tru}(i) - v_{est}(i))^2 / (v_{tru}(i) - m_{tru})^2 \quad (8)$$

$$457 \quad ARE = 100\% \times \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (v_{tru}(i) - v_{est}(i)) / v_{tru}(i) \quad (9)$$

458 Where  $v_{tru}$  represents the true values of GCSP,  $v_{est}$  represents the  
459 estimation values of GCSP,  $m_{tru}$  represents the mean values of  $v_{tru}$ . It  
460 must be noted that, the generalization ability was assessed using the  
461 validation dataset, while the estimation accuracy was assessed based on  
462 the reference values of GCSP. Theoretically, the reference values of  
463 GCSP can be a subset of the validation dataset.

464

#### 4.1 Hypothetical scenario

Fig.6 shows the trace plot of training loss of  $L_{GAN}(G_p, D_p, P, O)$  (fig.6(a))  $L_{GAN}(G_o, D_o, O, P)$  (fig.6(b)) and  $L_{trans}(G_o, G_p)$  (fig.6(c)) as mentioned before in equation (7). It can be indicated that the CGAN reached a stable training process till 10,000 th epoch. Figure 6(d) shows that the implementation of the CGAN model resulted in accurate and stable estimations of GCSP with the ARE 4.9% and R of 0.9856 when compared with the validation data. Fig.6(e) illustrates the loss of discriminators  $D_o$  and  $D_p$ , which reveals that the discriminators also improved the ability to distinguish real data and generated data. In general, both the generators' and discriminators' capabilities have been enhanced through the adversarial training process.

Moreover, an adaptive-sampling strategy was implemented to enhance the accuracy of the CGAN. Figure 7 shows that the ARE was improved from 8.86% to 4.91% whereas the R was improved from 0.948 to 0.998. It was evident that the estimation accuracy of DA-CGAN for GCSE increased as new training samples were adaptively generated and used to retrain the DA-CGAN (fig.7). Table 4 presents the comparison of estimated values and reference values of GCSP. The AREs of the GCSP were all found to be below 10%, reaching an average value of 4.91%. In terms of SO, figure 9 presents the comparison between the observed and simulated contaminant concentrations corresponding to the estimated

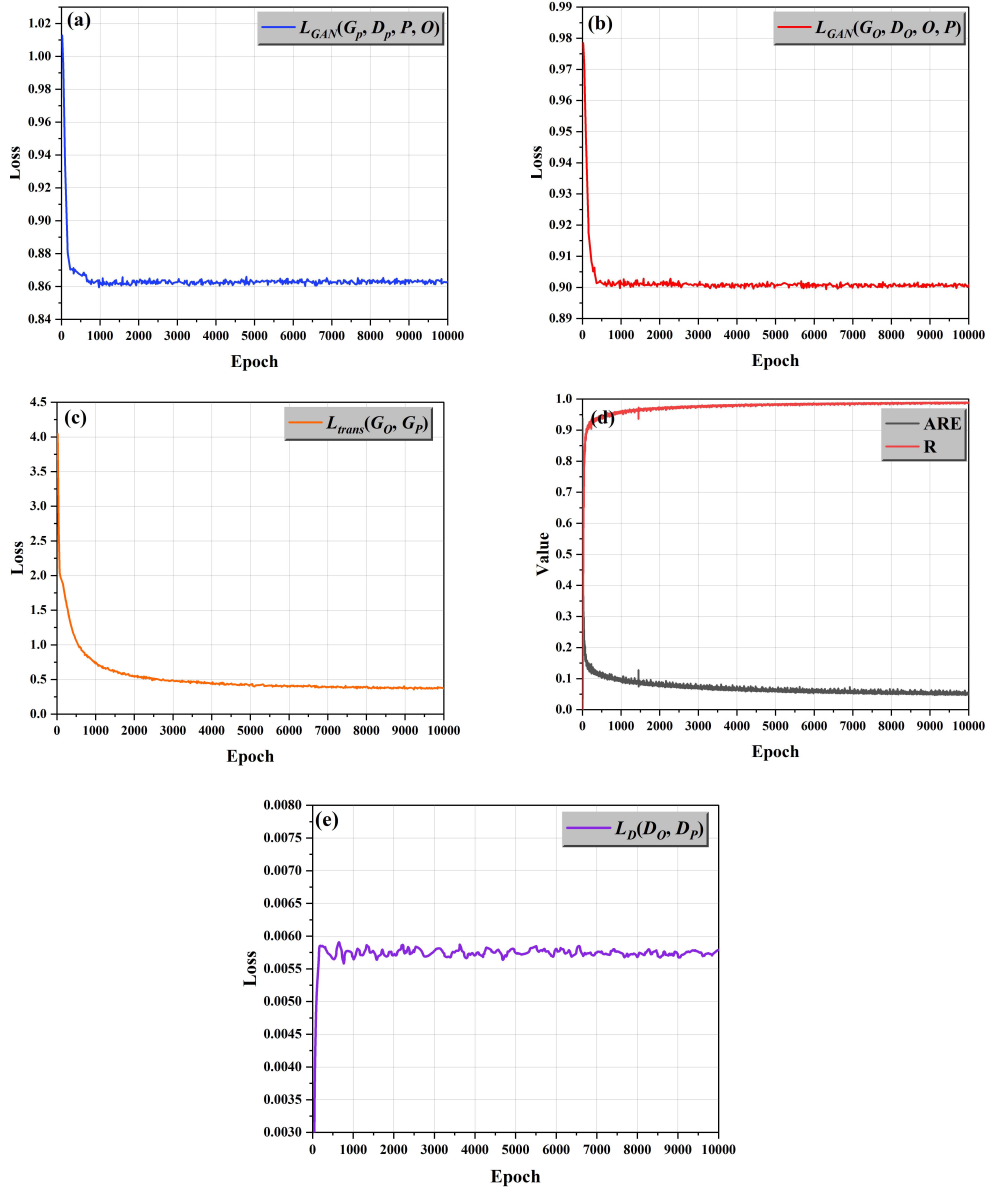
487 GCSP. DC-CGAN achieved a mean ARE of 4.62% between the observed  
488 and simulated outputs at the monitoring wells. It further substantiates that  
489 the bi-directional strategy ensures the accuracy of GCSP and the  
490 corresponding SO. This suggests that the proposed DA-CGAN achieved  
491 promising accuracy in GCSE.

492 Furthermore, the performance of DC-CGAN was compared with  
493 traditional methods such as genetic algorithm (GA) and ensemble  
494 Kalman filter (ENKF), where DA-CGAN outperformed these techniques  
495 in terms of estimation accuracy (ARE) and calculated time cost (fig.8).  
496 With regard to the estimation accuracy, the notable performance of the  
497 DA-CGAN (ARE of 4.9%) can be primarily attributed to three techniques:  
498 the unique bi-directional design (BD), the deep generative-adversarial  
499 learning structure (DGAL), and an adaptive-sampling strategy (AS),  
500 respectively. In particular, BD and DGAL enhance the learning capacity  
501 of DA-CGAN, while AS ameliorates the quality of the training samples  
502 used for DA-CGAN. In terms of computational time, the data-driven  
503 nature of the DA-CGAN enables it to execute GCSE rapidly in 0.17  
504 seconds, which is markedly faster than both the ENKF at 10.62 seconds,  
505 and the GA at 40.30 seconds.

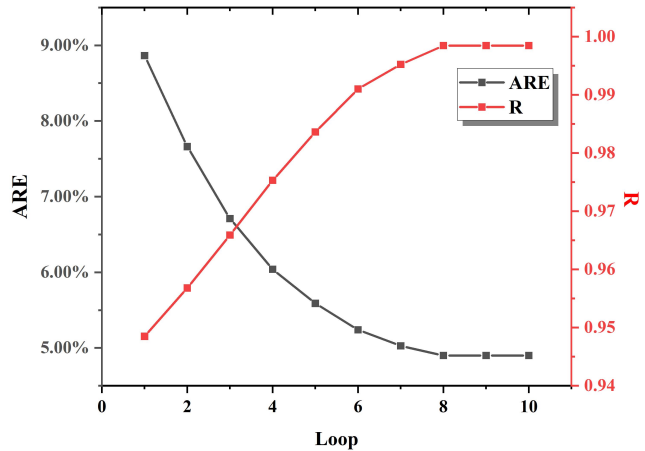
506 It should be emphasized that the Genetic Algorithm (GA) and the  
507 Ensemble Kalman Filter (ENKF) both incorporate a surrogate. This  
508 surrogate role can be served by the recovery process embedded within our



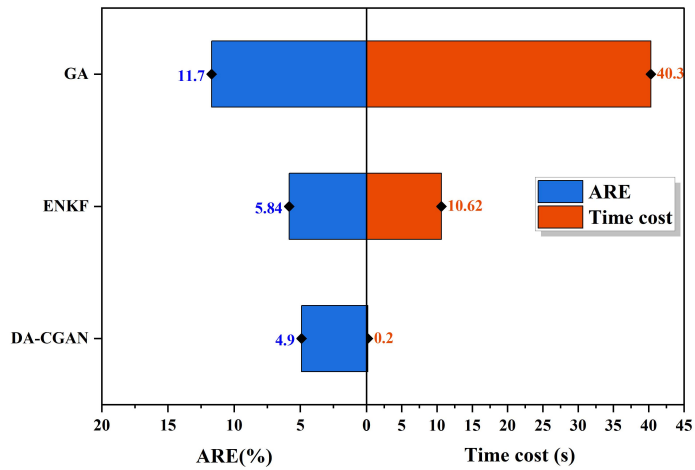
509 DA-CGAN. In other words, this recovery process (surrogate) establishes  
510 a mapping relationship from GSCP to SO. This demonstrates that the  
511 DA-CGAN can serve not only as an inverse estimation framework but  
512 also as a surrogate model.  
513



514 Fig.6 Trace of training loss and ARE and R of the CGAN (Hypothetical  
 515 scenario)



516  
 517 Fig.7 Trace plot of ARE and R of DC-CGAN using adaptive-sampling  
 518 strategy



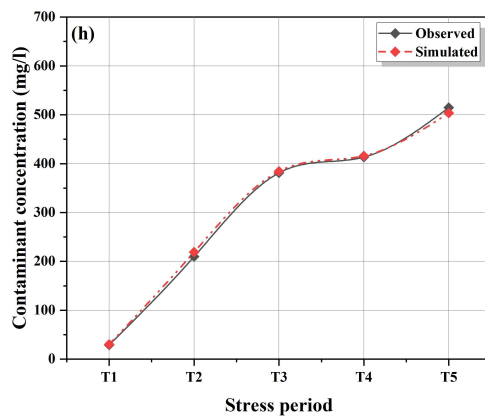
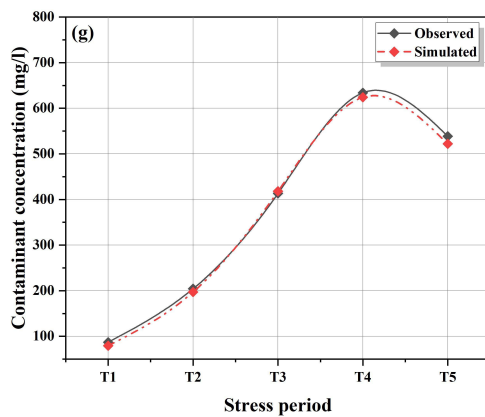
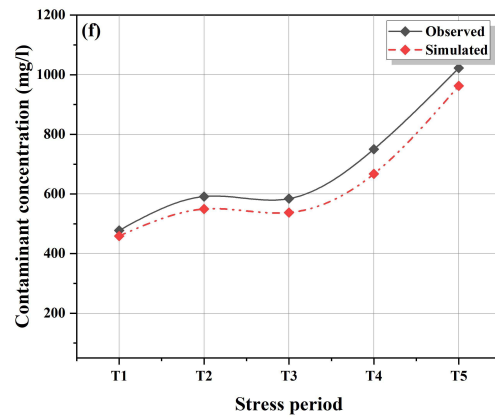
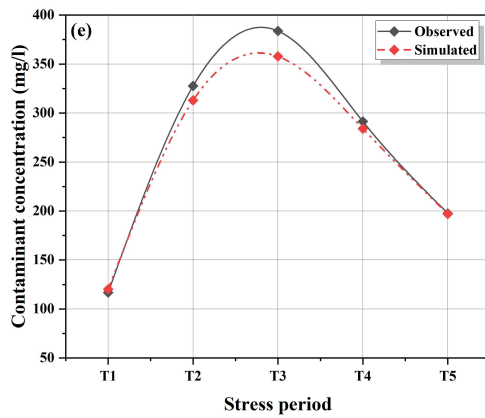
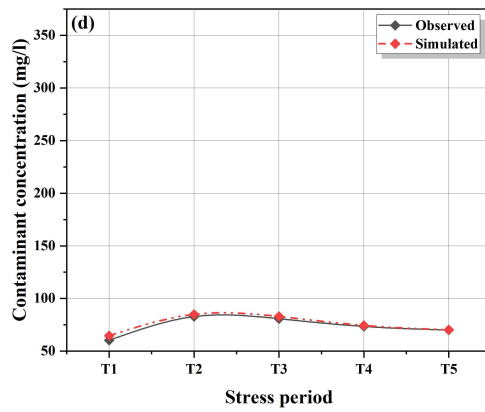
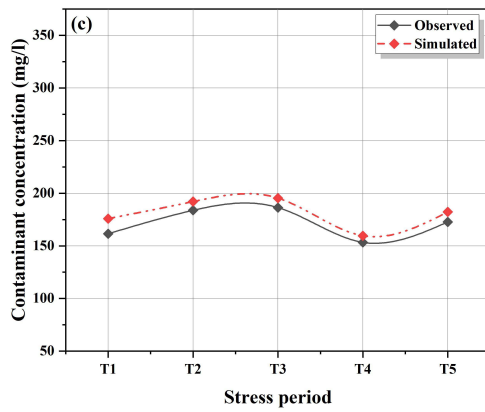
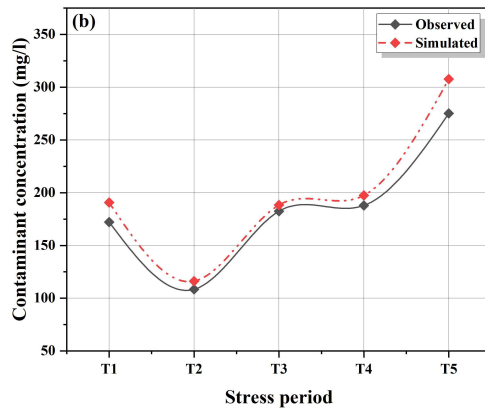
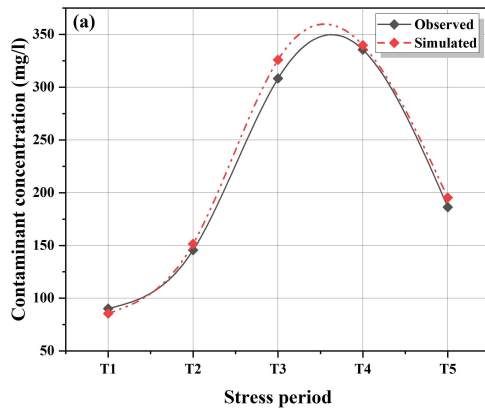
519  
 520 Fig.8 Comparison of performance of GA, ENKF and DA-CGAN  
 521  
 522  
 523  
 524

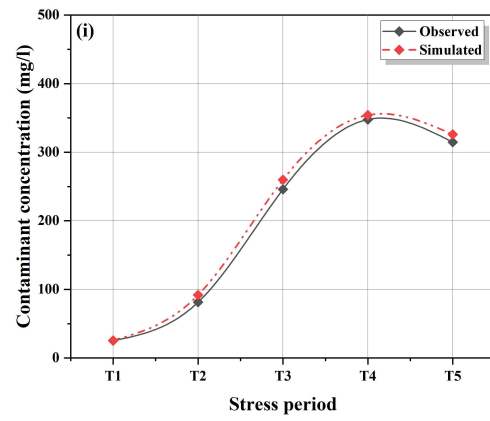
525 Table 4 Comparison of estimated values and reference values of GCSP

526 (hypothetical scenario)

GCSP	Reference values	Estimated values	ARE(%)
$C_b$	63.36	62.20	1.83
$S_1T_1$	14.14	12.86	9.07
$S_1T_2$	16.78	17.87	6.46
$S_1T_3$	47.70	49.10	2.94
$S_1T_4$	42.72	38.68	9.45
$S_1T_5$	11.07	9.98	9.88
$S_2T_1$	39.40	39.62	0.56
$S_2T_2$	5.05	5.20	2.99
$S_2T_3$	28.99	26.54	8.45
$S_2T_4$	23.44	22.26	5.04
$S_2T_5$	47.89	49.41	3.17
$S_3T_1$	32.57	33.69	3.41
$S_3T_2$	36.95	34.71	6.05
$S_3T_3$	21.93	23.56	7.44
$S_3T_4$	9.85	10.62	7.90
$S_3T_5$	8.08	8.33	3.12
$k(I)$	34.98	31.90	8.81
$k(II)$	43.68	46.20	1.19
$k(III)$	45.08	42.42	0.75
$k(IV)$	48.82	53.21	0.80
$D_l$	55.12	60.12	3.63

527





528 Fig.9 The comparison between observed and simulated contaminant  
529 concentration corresponding to the estimated GCSP  
530

## 531 4.2 Real world scenario

532 The effectiveness of the DA-CGAN was evaluated in the previous  
533 section using a hypothetical scenario. In this section, we applied the  
534 DA-CGAN to perform GCSE in a real-world scenario. Fig.10 shows the  
535 trace plot of training loss and ARE and R of the CGAN in a real-world  
536 scenario.

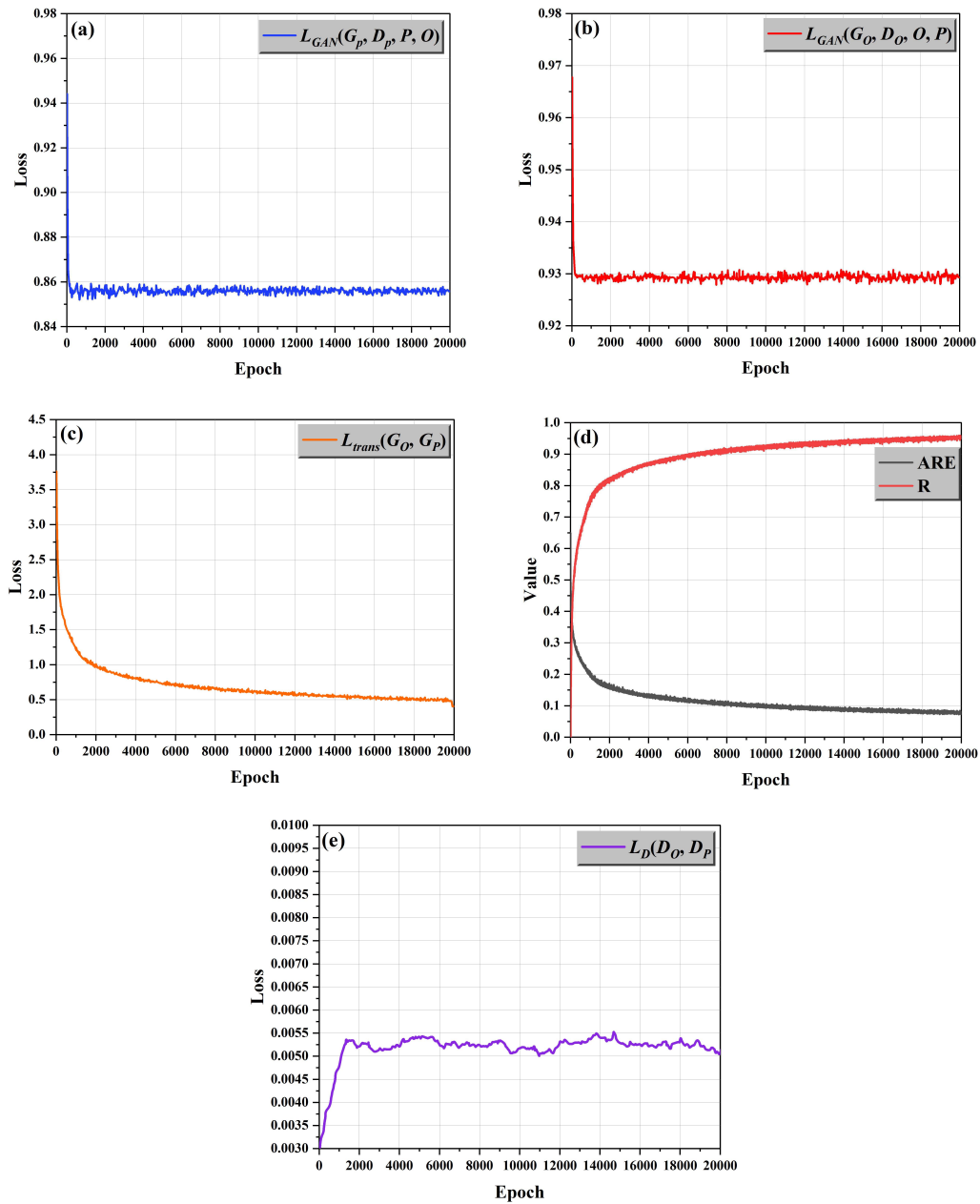
537 At the start of training, this loss of  $L_{GAN}(G_p, D_p, P, O)$  (fig.10(a))  
538 and  $L_{GAN}(G_o, D_o, O, P)$  (fig.10(b)) were high, given that the generator  
539 initially produces data easily distinguishable from real data. As training  
540 progresses, the generator loss decreased, implying that the generators of  
541  $G_p$  and  $G_o$  were improving their ability to produce data closely  
542 resembling the real data. That is to say, the generators of  $G_p$  and  $G_o$  can  
543 provide more accurate and stable estimation results of GCSP and SO,  
544 respectively. The decreasing  $L_{trans}(G_o, G_p)$  (fig.10(c)) further  
545 proved that the accuracy of bi-transformation from SO to GCSP is valid.  
546 Fig.10(e) illustrates the loss of discriminators  $D_o$  and  $D_p$ . It is the  
547 measure of how well the discriminator is able to correctly classify real  
548 and generated data. A higher loss signifies a better ability of the  
549 discriminator to correctly differentiate between real and generated data.  
550 An upward trend in the loss can be observed, indicating that the  
551 discriminators' capacity to distinguish training samples has consistently  
552 improved throughout the adversarial training process. After training, the

553  $G_p$  can be utilized to perform the GCSE by transforming SO into GCSP.  
554 Fig.10(d) shows that after 20,000 epochs, the CGAN achieved a stable  
555 and reliable estimations of GCSP with ARE of 7.5% and R of 0.95.

556 It must be noted that, when dealing with a real-world scenario, it is  
557 essential to compare the corresponding SO of the estimated GCSP with  
558 the real observation data. Figure 11 illustrates the trace plot of SO ARE of  
559 DC-CGAN using adaptive-sampling strategy. It demonstrates a distinct  
560 decrease the ARE of the DA-CGAN, stabilizing at 23.06%, as adaptive  
561 samples were sequentially generated and incorporated into the network.  
562 This result validates the effectiveness of the adaptive-sampling strategy.  
563 Figure 12 visualized the comparison of the simulated and observed  
564 contaminated concentrations. Table 5 presents the estimated values of  
565 unknown GCSP in a real-world scenario. The visualization of Estimated  
566 position of the contaminated source can be found in fig.13.

567 It must be noted that a SO ARE of 23.06% in a real-world scenario  
568 is notably higher than that of 4.62% in the hypothetical scenario. But the  
569 mean GCSP ARE of 7.5% (validation dataset) presents not much  
570 difference form that of 8.86% (validation dataset) in the hypothetical  
571 scenario. This discrepancy of SO may be attributable to the noise present  
572 in the measurement of contaminant concentrations at monitoring wells.  
573 Consequently, exploring denoising techniques would be a potential  
574 direction for future research.

575



576 Fig.10 Trace of training loss and ARE and R of the CGAN (real world  
577 scenario)

578



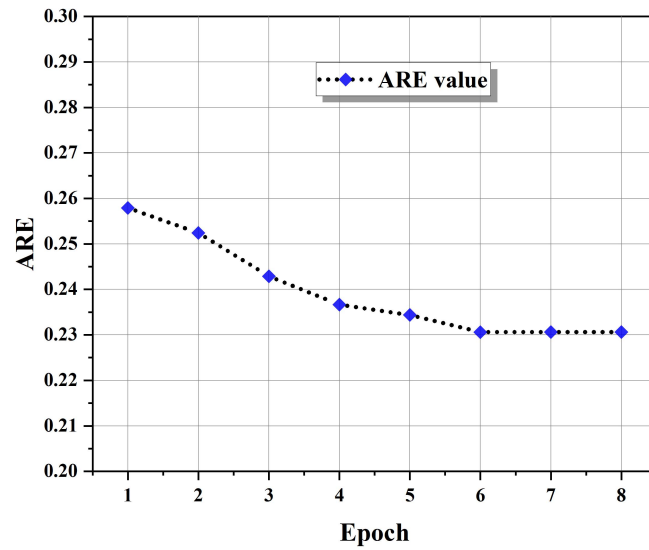


Fig.11 Trace plot of SO ARE of DC-CGAN using adaptive-sampling strategy

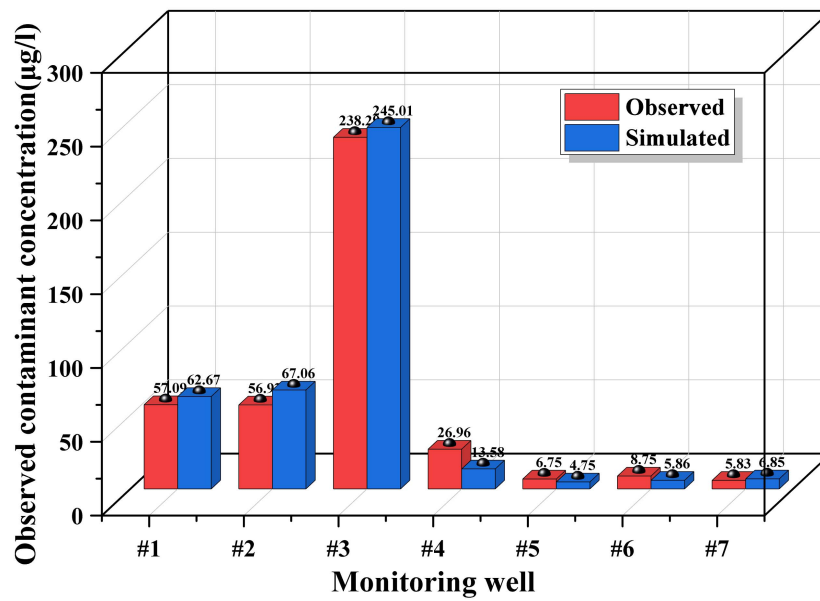
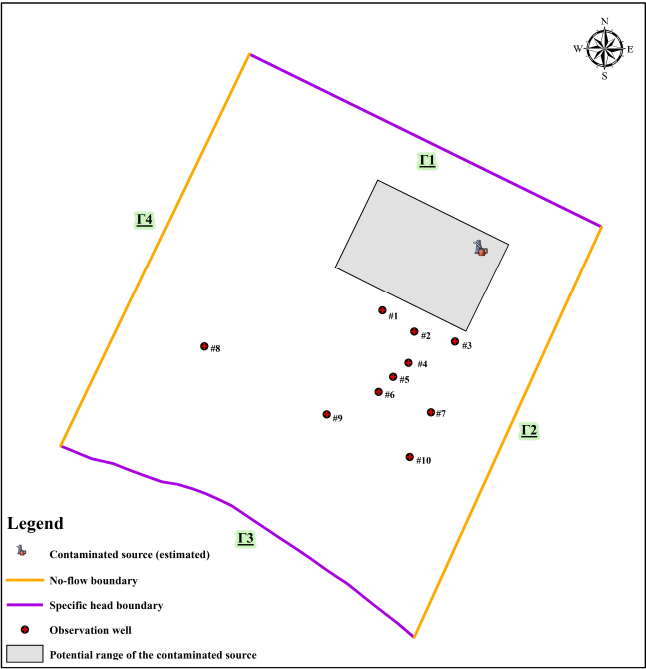


Fig.12 Comparison of the simulated and observed contaminated concentrations

587                      Table 5 Estimated values of unknown GCSP (real world scenario)

Unknown GCSP	Prior Range	Estimated value
Position $x$ (m)	(20,200)	183.637
Position $y$ (m)	(0,140)	105.584
Initial release concentration $C_r$ (*10E-3 mg/l)	(0.8,1.2)	1.0
Dissolve rate (1/d)	(0.5,0.8)	0.528
Hydraulic conductivity(m/d)	(40,60)	47.32
Porosity $P$	(0.2,0.3)	0.244
Longitudinal dispersivity $L_d$ (m)	(20,60)	28.898
Ratio of transverse dispersivity to longitudinal dispersivity $\alpha$	(0.3,0.5)	0.341
Initial concentration of dissolved oxygen $D_o$ (mg/l)	(1.4,3)	2.401

588



589

590                      Fig.13 Estimated position of the contaminated source

591

## 592    **5. Conclusion**

593        In the present study, we proposed a deep adaptive cycle generative  
594    adversarial network (DA-CGAN) for the task of groundwater  
595    contaminated source estimation (GCSE). The efficiency and effectiveness  
596    of this DA-CGAN were assessed in both hypothetical and real-world  
597    scenarios. The following conclusions have been drawn from this study:

598    1. The proposed DA-CGAN proved to be a powerful tool for GCSE.

599        This model, built on deep learning and adversarial training concepts,  
600    have provided reliable estimations of various parameters, such as  
601    boundary conditions, hydraulic conductivities, and release intensity  
602    and position of contaminated source across diverse GCSE scenarios.

603    2. The bidirectional design, deep generative-adversarial learning  
604    structure, and adaptive-sampling strategy employed in DA-CGAN  
605    were integral to its performance. In particular, the unique bidirectional  
606    design supervised the mapping from SO to GCSP, mitigating the  
607    phenomenon of EFDP. Moreover, the deep learning structure enhanced  
608    the capacity of DA-CGAN to learn complex mapping relationships  
609    from SO to GCSP. Furthermore, the adaptive-sampling strategy  
610    improved the quality of training samples, leading to better estimation  
611    accuracy for GCSE.

612    3. Comparisons with traditional methods such as the Genetic Algorithm  
613    (GA) and the Ensemble Kalman Filter (ENKF) showed that

614 DA-CGAN outperformed these methods in both estimation accuracy  
615 and computational efficiency. This superiority in performance  
616 underscores the potential of DA-CGAN as a robust and efficient  
617 solution for GCSE.

618 4. The data-driven nature of DA-CGAN enabled it to rapidly estimate  
619 GCSE, drastically reducing computational time. This time efficiency,  
620 combined with its high accuracy, makes DA-CGAN a promising  
621 framework for real-world applications.

622 In conclusion, the proposed DA-CGAN has demonstrated promising  
623 potential for accurate and efficient GCSE, exploring a novel potential of  
624 deep generative neural network for advanced applications in the field of  
625 hydrogeology. Our Future work will focus on improving the ability of  
626 model to handle real-world data noise and further refining its adaptive  
627 learning capabilities.

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## 633 ***Declarations***

634 Authors contributions Zidong Pan: Conceptualization, Writing - original  
635 draft, Software, Methodology. Wenxi Lu: Writing - review & editing,

636 Methodology, Software. Yaning Xu: Supervision; Validation. Chengming

637 Luo: Supervision; Validation. Yukun Bai: Supervision; Validation.

638 Funding: See the Acknowledgments section

639 Competing interest:None

640 Ethics Approval:Not applicable.

641 Consent to Participate:Not applicable.

642 Consent for Publication:Not applicable.

643

644 ***Open research***

645 ***Data Availability statement:***

646 The DA-CGAN was trained in a Python environment of version 3.7.0.

647 The training data and code (DA-CGAN for GCSE) are available at

648 [10.6084/m9.figshare.23714010](https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23714010).

649

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651

652

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