

1 Using Sentinel-1 and GRACE satellite data to
2 monitor the hydrological variations within the
3 Tulare Basin, California

4 Donald W. Vasco¹, Kyra H. Kim², Tom G. Farr³, J. T. Reager²,
5 David Bekaert², Simran S. Sangha², Jonny Rutqvist¹, and Hiroko
6 K. Beaudoin^{4,5}

7 ¹Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory , University of California
8 , Berkeley, California 94720

9 ²Jet Propulsion Laboratory , California Institute of Technology ,
10 Pasadena, California

11 ³Retired, formerly of Jet Propulsion Laboratory , California
12 Institute of Technology , Pasadena, California

13 ⁴Hydrological Sciences Lab, NASA GSFC , Greenbelt, Maryland

14 ⁵Earth System Science Interdisciplinary Center , University of
15 Maryland , College Park, Maryland

16 January 13, 2022

17 **Abstract**

18 Subsidence induced by groundwater depletion is a grave problem in
19 many regions around the world, leading to a permanent loss of groundwa-
20 ter storage within an aquifer and even producing structural damage at the
21 Earth's surface. California's Tulare Basin is no exception, experiencing
22 about a meter of subsidence between 2015 and 2020. However, under-
23 standing the relationship between changes in groundwater volumes and
24 ground deformation has proven difficult. We employ surface displacement
25 measurements from Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (InSAR)
26 and gravimetric estimates of terrestrial water storage from the Gravity
27 Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) satellite pair to character-
28 ize the hydrological dynamics within the Tulare basin. The removal of the
29 long-term aquifer compaction from the InSAR time series reveals coher-
30 ent short-term variations that correlate with hydrological features. For
31 example, in the winter of 2018-2019 uplift is observed at the confluence
32 of several rivers and streams that drain into the southeastern edge of the
33 basin. These observations, combined with estimates of mass changes ob-
34 tained from the orbiting GRACE satellites, form the basis for imaging the

35 monthly spatial variations in water volumes. This approach facilitates the
36 quick and effective synthesis of InSAR and gravimetric datasets and will
37 aid efforts to improve our understanding and management of groundwater
38 resources around the world.

39 Introduction

40 The Tulare Basin is an indispensable groundwater source within the Central
41 Valley Aquifer system, which provides drinking water for 6.5 million residents
42 and supports an agribusiness critical for the entire nation [1]. However, subsi-
43 dence induced by groundwater depletion, while causing issues such as permanent
44 storage loss and infrastructural damage, has been difficult to quantify and pre-
45 dict [2]. The hydrodynamics of the Tulare basin are quite complicated and the
46 important components of the geologic system are not completely characterized.
47 Furthermore, the complex hydrology of the basin, with multiple sources and
48 sinks, can cause substantial changes over periods as short as a few months.
49 Thus, orbiting satellite-based systems are well suited for monitoring variations
50 within the Tulare basin at various timescales. Here, we consider Sentinel-1 In-
51 terferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (InSAR) observations, which provide
52 estimates of line-of-sight (LOS) displacements of the Earth's surface, and ter-
53 restrial water storage (TWS) changes gravimetrically measured from NASA's
54 Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) and GRACE Follow-on
55 (FO) missions. Both data sets are sensitive to hydrologic variations in the Tu-
56 lare basin and each has its own set of factors that complicate any analysis.
57 For example, changes in the gravity field sensed by GRACE and GRACE-FO
58 can be traced to a variety of sources such as ground movement, soil moisture,
59 water table variations, and snow cover. Thus, it is difficult, if not impossible,
60 to distinguish between water mass changes in the shallow unconfined aquifer
61 and in the underlying confined aquifer using gravitational observations alone.
62 Observations of surface deformation have their own issues, primarily due to the
63 complicated relationship between ground motion and hydrological changes [3].
64 The main hydrological driver of deformation in a porous medium are typically
65 changes in the total stress minus the fluid pressure within a given aquifer, a
66 quantity known as the effective stress. In an unconfined aquifer, the fluid pres-
67 sure is moderated by the possible upward movement of the water table and
68 the coupling to the atmosphere, forming a constant pressure boundary condi-
69 tion. Ground deformation is often most strongly influenced by changes in the
70 fluid volume in a confined aquifer, where the effective pressure can build up
71 to large values. In addition, water volume changes in an overlying unconfined
72 aquifer are coupled to the deeper aquifer, as it exerts a downward force upon the
73 confining layer, leading to compressive stress and inducing further compaction.
74 Thus, gravity and deformation data can have differing sensitivities to changes
75 in the confined and unconfined aquifers and may be used together to distinguish
76 changes in each. The presence of long-term inelastic deformation further com-
77 plicates the interpretation of surface deformation, as it is related to earlier fluid

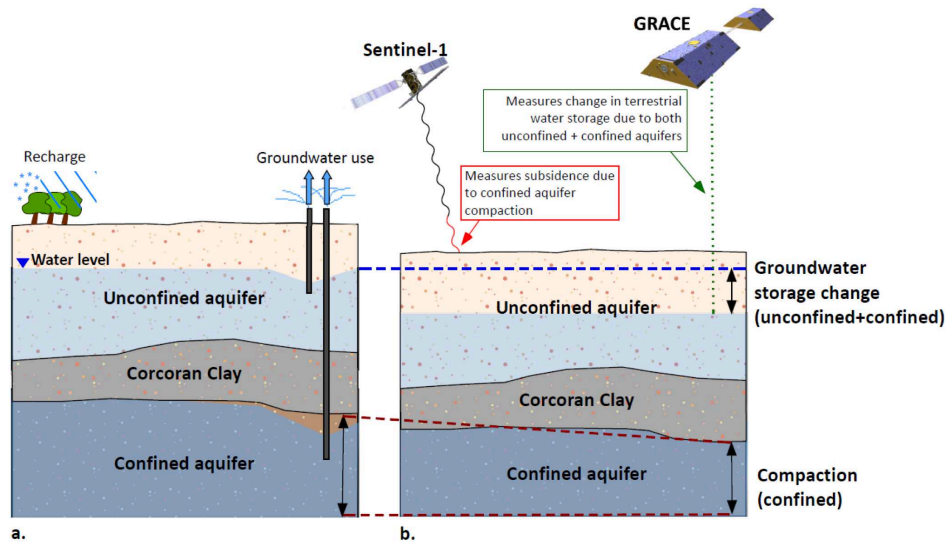


Figure 1: Schematic figure of the conceptual model of the Tulare basin aquifer. (a) The Corcoran clay separates the overlying unconfined aquifer from the confined aquifer below. Recharge occurs in the unconfined aquifer from snow, runoff, and precipitation. (b) Groundwater usage decreases overall terrestrial water storage in both the unconfined and confined regions (blue shaded region), which is detected by GRACE. Compaction (red dotted line), predominantly occurring in the confined aquifer, results in the line-of-sight displacement of the Earth's surface measured by Sentinel-1 Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR) satellites.

78 volume changes and not to current aquifer conditions. [4, 5].

79 In this paper, we describe an approach for removing longer-term deformation
80 and extracting monthly variations in surface deformation. These shorter-term
81 variations provide insight into the seasonal factors influencing the aquifer and
82 its deformation. Combining the monthly displacement data with GRACE esti-
83 mates of mass changes, we develop an inverse problem for water volume changes
84 in a simplified model of the Tulare basin consisting of an unconfined near sur-
85 face aquifer and an underlying confined aquifer (Figure 1). We show that it
86 is possible to fit both the GRACE and Sentinel observations with this simpli-
87 fied model, despite notable differences in the patterns of InSAR line-of-sight
88 displacement and the gravitational mass changes. Furthermore, a comparison
89 between water levels at wells with nearby geodetic observations indicates that
90 the ground surface can move in both synchrony and in opposition with changes
91 in the water table. This behavior highlights the complexity of the relationship
92 between surface deformation and changes in the volume of water in the two
93 aquifers.

94 Results

95 Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar Analysis.

96 Satellite-based Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (InSAR) is currently
97 the most widely used technique for monitoring surface deformation associated
98 with groundwater variations and subsidence in the California Central Valley
99 [4, 6–11]. In this technique, phase shifts between radar returns gathered during
100 successive passes of an orbiting satellite are used to estimate changes in the
101 range or the line-of-sight (LOS) displacement [12]. Our estimates of LOS dis-
102 placement were obtained from the Sentinel radar returns using the small baseline
103 subset (SBAS) method [6, 13–15]. The observed displacements are dominated
104 by long term subsidence associated with the excessive pumping of groundwater
105 from the Tulare basin [4, 5] (Figure 2a and Figure 2c). Previously, this trend
106 has been removed by fitting linear and sinusoidal variations, as well as principal
107 component analysis, and have somewhat successfully revealed secular and sea-
108 sonal changes [4, 5, 11]. We adopt an alternative approach and fit a quadratic
109 polynomial to each LOS displacement time series to remove the most significant
110 long-term deformation (Figure 2c).

111 A three-month moving window was used to compute mean displacements and
112 standard errors for each time series, as shown in Figure 3a for a point located
113 between the towns of Lemoore and Corcoran. The data was averaged in 2 km
114 by 2 km spatial bins over an area of 180 km (east-west) by 220 km (north-south)
115 to improve the signal-to-noise ratio and to provide estimates of mean line-of-
116 sight displacement values and their standard errors. This averaging significantly
117 smoothed the data and further reduced the standard deviations associated with
118 the estimated mean values in each time-space window (Figure 3b). The size of
119 the bins was chosen in order to have at least 20 measurements for each estimate

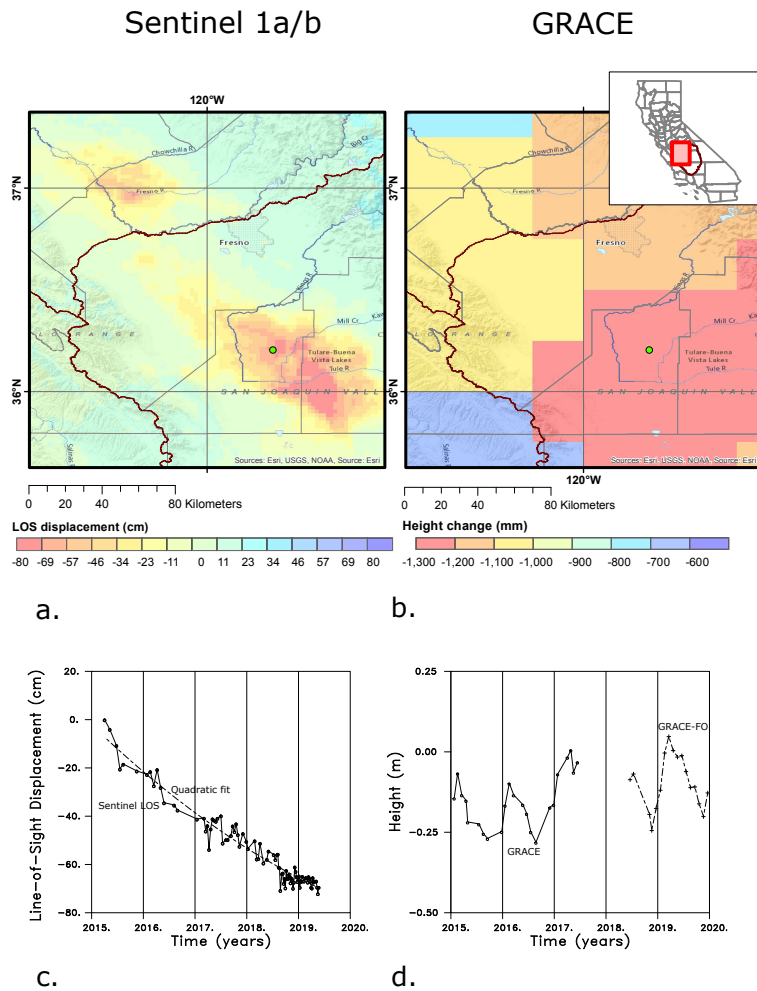


Figure 2: (a) Sentinel 1a/b Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (InSAR) cumulative line-of-sight displacement from May 2015 until January 2019, for the area surrounding the Tulare basin. The filled green circle denotes the location used to calculate the InSAR line-of-sight displacements in panel c and in Figure 3. (b) GRACE estimates of mass concentrations for 0.25 by 0.25 degree patches in the Tulare basin region, calculated in terms of an equivalent change in water height for the period 2011 to 2019. (c) Line-of-sight displacement time series for a point located midway between Lemoore and Corcoran. The solid curve and open circles denote displacements relative to early 2015 while the dashed curve represents a quadratic fit to the time series. (d) Area-wide average change in equivalent water height from 2015 until 2020 for the original GRACE satellite (solid line, open circles) and the subsequent GRACE follow-on (GRACE-FO) mission (dashed line, pluses). The average corresponds to the total change in water height over the mascons in the area of interest divided by the number of mascons in the region. The two maps in panels (a) and (b) were created with ESRI ArcMap 10.8.1 software (<https://www.esri.com/>).

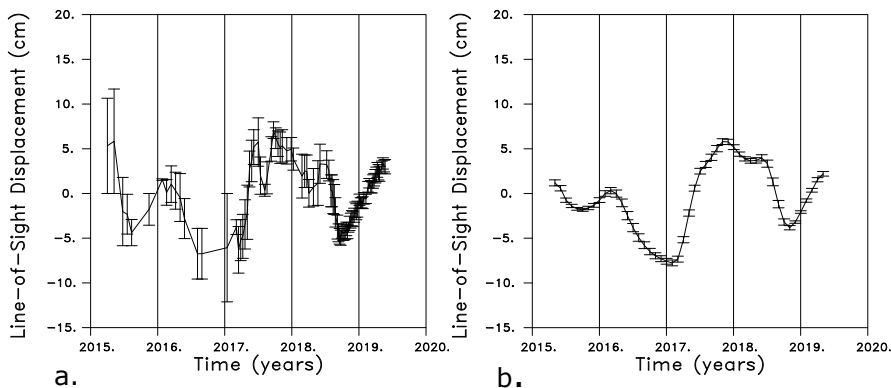


Figure 3: (a) Mean values for the reduced line-of-sight displacement with the quadratic fit removed [see Figure 2c]. The values were obtained by averaging over a sliding three month window. The time series corresponds to the line-of-sight displacement for a point mid-way between Lemoore and Corcoran. (b) Time series obtained after averaging over 2 km by 2 km spatial bins. The error bars represent the one standard error about the mean value, obtained from the individual contributions to the bin average. The estimates are for the point denoted by the filled green circle in Figure 2.

120 of the mean value, and to be closer to the 6-7 kilometer-scale of the interpolated
 121 GRACE gravity data than are the original LOS estimates. The resulting 9900
 122 time series were re-interpolated onto monthly displacements. Observations from
 123 Global Positioning System stations in and around the Central Valley have been
 124 shown to be sensitive to hydrological variations in the region [11,16]. Two time
 125 series, for locations corresponding to the Global Positioning System stations
 126 LEMA (near the town of Lemoore) and CRCN (near the town of Corcoran), are
 127 shown in the Supplementary Figure S1, along with the daily changes obtained
 128 from the GPS observations. The InSAR LOS displacements are with respect
 129 to a reference point that is assumed to be stationary, while the GPS estimates
 130 are with respect to a reference datum such as the North American plate. After
 131 accounting for this difference we find general agreement between the InSAR and
 132 GPS estimates of line-of-sight displacement at the two stations.

133 The Sentinel-1 mission had a repeat time of 12 to 24 days through the entire
 134 observational period, and the derived line-of-sight displacement is resolved at a
 135 spatial resolution of 90 m [6]. As is clearly seen in Figure 2c and Figure 3, the
 136 time sampling between late 2016 and mid-2018 is somewhat irregular with clear
 137 gaps, particularly in late 2016, perhaps due to a loss of coherence in certain
 138 agricultural areas. At JPL's request, the satellite repeat time was reduced
 139 to 8 days from about mid-2018 onward, resulting in higher quality monthly
 140 estimates for this later time period. Thus, we analyzed monthly changes during
 141 this better-sampled interval. In Figure 4, we plot in map view the six monthly
 142 changes from November 2018 through April 2019. There is notable uplift in

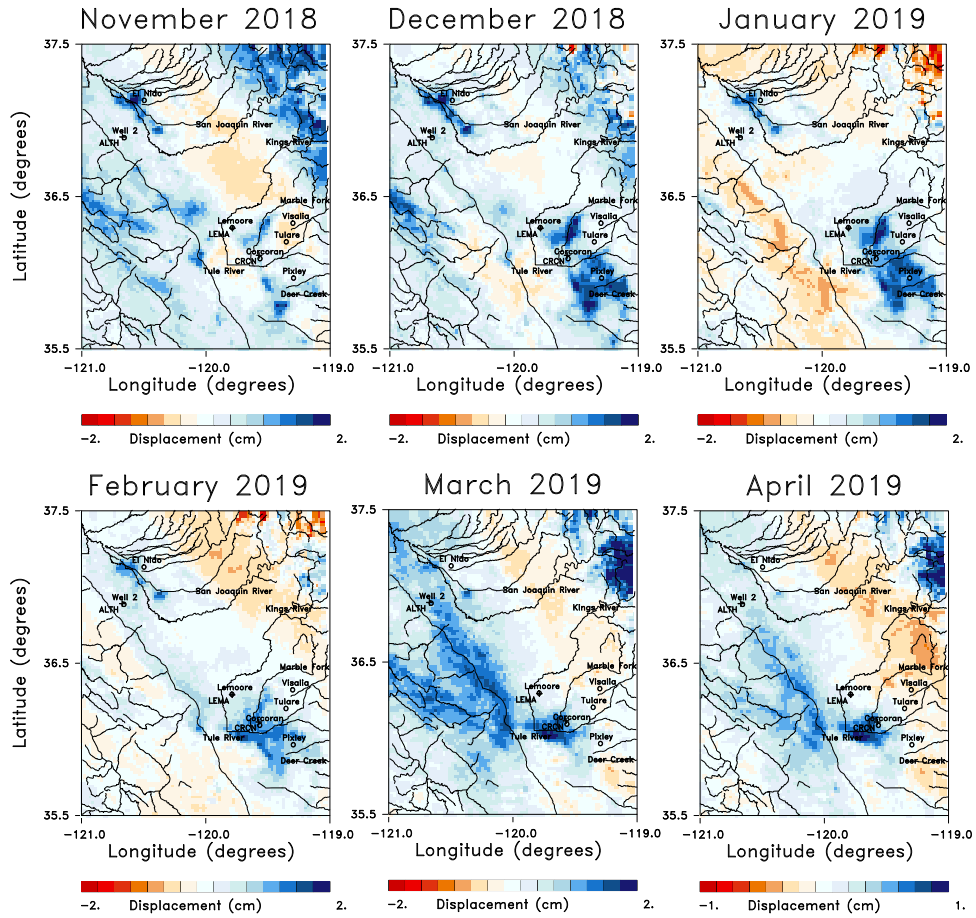


Figure 4: Six monthly line-of-sight displacements from the years 2018 and 2019. Rivers and streams in the region are indicated by the solid lines while several towns in the area are denoted by open circles and labeled. The locations of the GPS stations ALTH, LEMA, and CRCN are also shown as +’s in this panel. The location of a monitoring well discussed in this paper, water well 2, is denoted by an open circle. The colors represent the line-of-sight displacements obtained after removing the long term quadratic trend from each displacement time series. The plots were constructed using NCL and NCAR Graphics 6.5.0 (<https://www.earthsystemgrid.org/dataset/ncl.650.html>).

143 the southeast quadrant from December 2018 through February 2019, and in a
144 narrow southeasterly oriented zone to the northwest. The uplift is in regions
145 where rivers draining the Sierra Nevada enter the Central Valley [11]. This
146 uplift spreads laterally in February, March, and April, joining to form a larger
147 northwestern region trend along the deeper Tulare basin. Interestingly, the
148 trend of both the GPS and InSAR LOS displacements are positive throughout
149 2017 (Figure S1). These increases stand in contrast to the significant downward
150 slopes observed in the years 2015, 2016, and 2018.

151 Though we will only analyze a subset of the LOS estimates shown in Figure
152 4, it is important to look at other time intervals in order to understand the yearly
153 variations in the region. To this end, in Figure 5 we display the displacements
154 from the relatively wet year 2017. The six monthly changes shown in the Figure,
155 from April to September 2017, display interesting temporal variations. In April
156 and May, there is significant uplift in the southern end of the basin, most likely
157 due to the unusually large rainfall in late 2016 and early 2017 that is evident in
158 the precipitation anomaly time series plotted in Figure 6a. This is followed by
159 two months of reduced uplift and even subsidence in some areas of the Tulare
160 basin in June and July, though the region of the largest uplift in April and May
161 is still rising. The area of uplift parallels that observed for April of 2019 and
162 plotted in Figure 4. There is also an increase in uplift through August and
163 September 2019, which was initially surprising to us, given that these were dry
164 months for the region. However, an examination of stream and river flows into
165 the region (Supplementary Figure S2) suggests this later uplift is due to the
166 effects of the runoff from large accumulations of snowmelt at higher elevations.
167 As shown in the river discharge data in Figure S2, the snowmelt leads to a
168 secondary influx of water in mid to late summer of 2017, particularly in rivers
169 draining mountainous areas, such as the Marble Fork river. The increased water
170 volume at lower elevations appears to have given rise to higher fluid pressure
171 in the confined aquifers of the Tulare basin and subsequent expansion of the
172 confined aquifer beneath the Corcoran clay and the overlying formations. The
173 2017 LOS displacements in Figure 5 are associated with the high levels of rain-
174 and snow-fall in late 2016 and early 2017, as indicated in Figure 6a. The area
175 with the highest levels of precipitation in January 2017 is in the Sierra Nevada
176 to the east of the Tulare basin (Figure 6b). Much of this precipitation represents
177 accumulating snow, the source of the significant runoff in the summer months.

178 **GRACE Gravity Observations.**

179 While the InSAR line-of-sight displacements are likely to be the most sensitive
180 to fluid pressure and corresponding effective stress changes within the confined
181 aquifer, GRACE gravity observations are influenced by water mass changes ev-
182 erywhere in the Tulare basin [18]. In particular, it is not possible to distinguish
183 between changes in the shallow unconfined aquifer and the deeper confined
184 aquifer with satellite-based gravity data. There have been several discussions
185 and comparisons of InSAR and GPS data to GRACE estimates of mass vari-
186 ations over time [9, 19–22]. The two panels Figure 2b and 2d highlight the

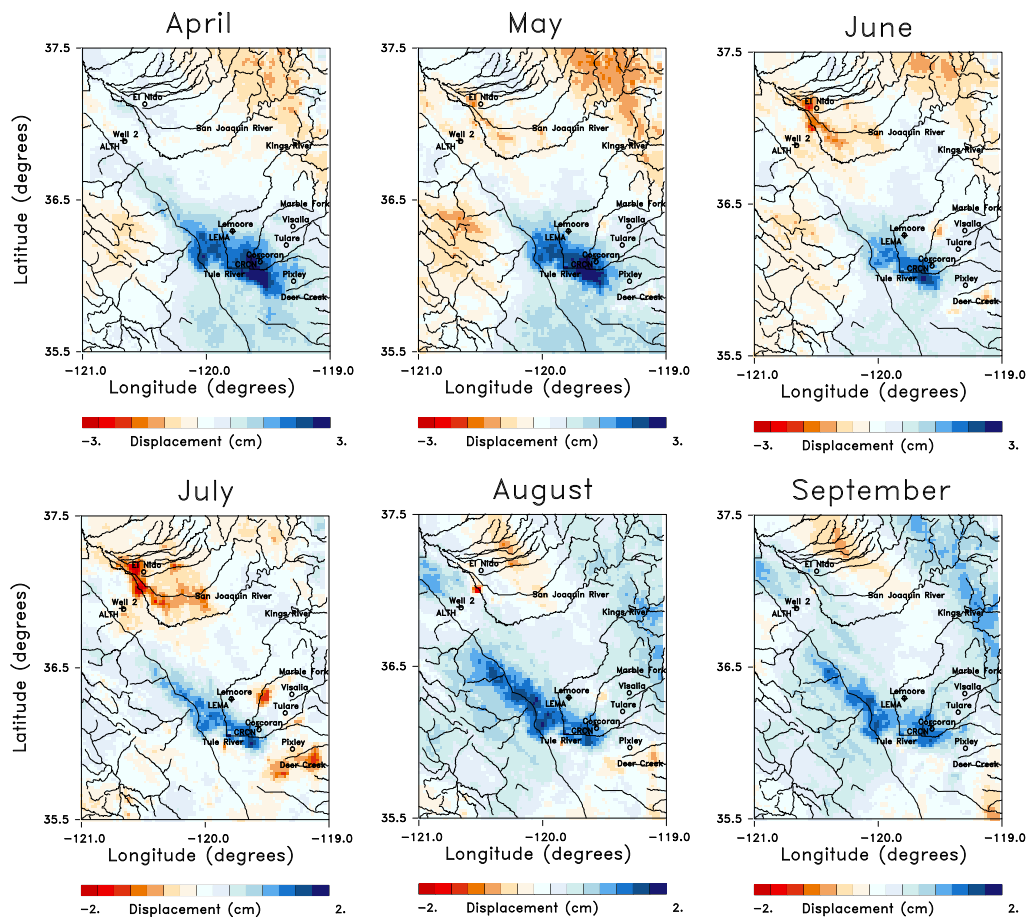


Figure 5: Panels displaying 6 sequential instances of monthly line-of-sight displacements for months in 2017. The plots were constructed using NCL and NCAR Graphics 6.5.0 (<https://www.earthsystemgrid.org/dataset/ncl.650.html>).

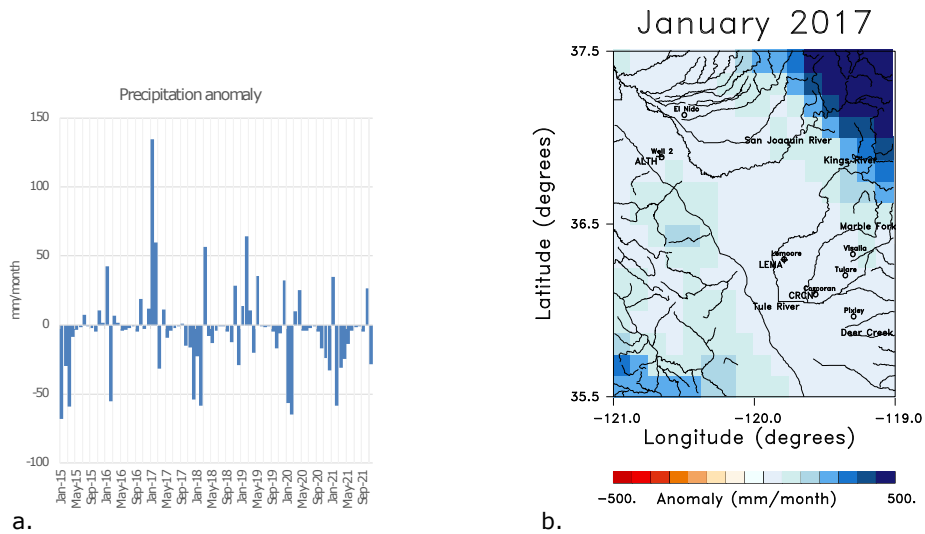


Figure 6: Precipitation data used as a forcing function for Phase 2 of the North American Land Data Assimilation System (NLDAS-2) [17]. The precipitation data extends from 1979 to the present at a spatial resolution of 0.125 degree and the monthly precipitation fields are accessible from the NASA Goddard Earth Science Data and Information Services Center [see NLDAS_FORA0125_M.002 doi:10.5067/Z62LT6J96R4F]. (a) Precipitation anomaly time series for the entire study area from the beginning of 2015 to the end of 2021. The anomaly is in millimeters per month. (b) Map of the precipitation anomaly for the area for the excessively wet month of January 2017. The map in panel (b) was constructed using NCL and NCAR Graphics 6.5.0 (<https://www.earthsystemgrid.org/dataset/ncl.650.html>).

187 limitations of the GRACE observations obtained during the interval of interest,
188 from 2015 to mid-2019. Figure 2b presents the changes in mass estimated by
189 the GRACE in the manner that they are obtained from the University of Texas
190 Center for Space Research, as equivalent changes in water height. The 1/4th
191 of a degree GRACE estimates of mass concentrations (mascons) that we use
192 are of much lower resolution than the InSAR observations. In particular, the
193 spacing between mascons is roughly 28 km, compared to the 2 km by 2 km
194 bins used for displacement estimates. Furthermore, the physical resolution is
195 actually much less-around 1 degree by 1 degree at the equator [23–26]- leading
196 to the large-scale anomalies in Figure 2. In addition, the temporal sampling is
197 somewhat irregular and there is a notable gap from June 2017 until June 2018
198 (see Figure 2d) due to the transition from the original GRACE satellites to the
199 GRACE-FO (follow-on) satellites [27]. Thus, the wet year of 2017 is not well
200 sampled and we must look at a later time, such as after June 2018, in order to
201 conduct a joint inversion.

202 An example of current GRACE estimates, corresponding to mass changes
203 during March in 2019, are plotted in Figure 7a. As noted above, this later time
204 interval was chosen because of the higher quality InSAR displacement estimates
205 post-2018 and the availability of the GRACE-FO observations starting in mid-
206 2018. Note that we have sub-divided each mascon into 4 smaller pixels with
207 dimensions of roughly 6 by 6 km, and the mass was divided by 1/16th, in
208 order to maintain a spatial scale that is consistent with our interpretation of
209 the Sentinel InSAR data. The mass concentrations were converted to water
210 volume changes in order to conduct a uniform analysis of the GRACE and
211 InSAR data. To focus on shorter-term monthly changes, the long-term trend of
212 the GRACE total water storage (TWS) was removed from each time series by
213 fitting a quadratic curve to the values between January 1, 2011 and January 1,
214 2020. Note the difference in the pattern of volume change as compared to the
215 pattern of displacement in March 2019, plotted in Figure 4. The ground surface
216 is subsiding in much of the eastern half of the area and uplifting to the west
217 in March 2019, while Figure 7a indicates an overall increase in the water mass
218 with the exception of a slight mass decrease in the southwest corner.

219 **A Constrained Inversion for Water Volume Changes.**

We conducted a constrained inversion of the GRACE data, where the constraints are provided by InSAR estimates of volume change in the confined aquifer. The details of the inversion are presented in the Methods section below, but the model consists of two volumes representing the shallower unconfined aquifer and the underlying confined aquifer, with the Corcoran clay defining the boundary between the two [28] (Figure 1). Within the model, this boundary was extended beyond the extent of the Corcoran clay to allow for an effective confined aquifer to the east of the clay layer. The surface deformation is hypothesized to be driven primarily by the movement of the boundary between the confined and unconfined aquifers, due to changes in the mass of overlying material or changes in effective stress within the confined aquifer. The inversion proceeds in two

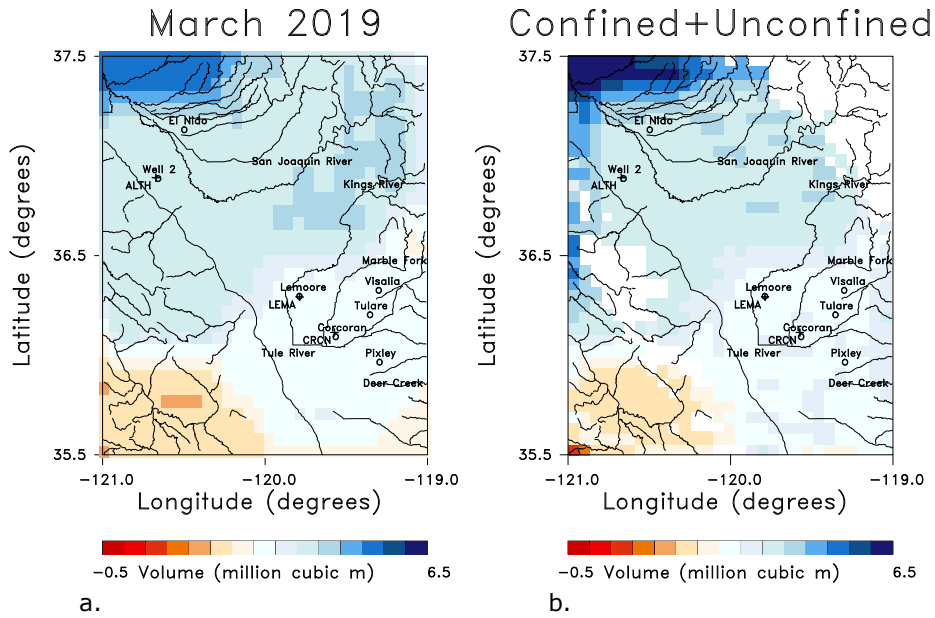


Figure 7: (a.) GRACE 1/4th degree mascons corresponding to changes in March 2019, which have been sub-divided into 4x4 sub-grids and re-interpolated onto a finer grid that correlates with the Sentinel InSAR estimates. The color scale indicates the volume changes in millions of cubic meters during the month of March 2019. The water volume change has been reduced to reflect the smaller area (roughly 6km by 6km) that is represented in the finer grid. (b.) The sum of the water volume changes in the unconfined and confined aquifers of the inversion result that is plotted in Figure 8. The open circles denote towns in the area while the +’s indicate the locations of three GPS stations. The solid curves indicate rivers and streams in the region. The plots were constructed using NCL and NCAR Graphics 6.5.0 (<https://www.earthsystemgrid.org/dataset/ncl.650.html>).

main steps: in the first step we use the InSAR displacements to solve for the individual volume changes in all of the N grid blocks of the confined aquifer, which we denote by δV_n^{InSAR} . In the next step we use the N_g GRACE-derived gravity changes, δg_l , and the InSAR-derived confined aquifer volume changes to estimate the water volume changes in the unconfined (δV_n^u) and the confined aquifers (δV_n^c), given by the systems of equations (5) and (6) in the Methods section, which we repeat here for convenience

$$\delta V_n^{InSAR} = -\frac{\rho g l_o}{K_u} \cdot \delta V_n^u + B \cdot \delta V_n^c$$

$$\delta g_l = \sum_{n=1}^N G_{ln}^u \delta V_n^u + \sum_{n=1}^N G_{ln}^c \delta V_n^c,$$

220 where $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$ and $l = 1, 2, \dots, N_g$ for the N_g GRACE estimates of gravity
 221 change. In these equations, G_{ln}^u and G_{ln}^c are the Green's functions derived using
 222 expressions for the gravitational attraction due to a rectangular prism [29–32],
 223 ρ is the density of the groundwater, g is the gravitational constant, and l_o is
 224 the vertical extent of the aquifer used to calculate the reference volume. The
 225 porous medium is characterized by the undrained Bulk modulus, K_u , and by
 226 Skempton's coefficient B [33, 34]. The parameters K_u and B in the equations
 227 were determined by a systematic grid search in which the misfit was minimized,
 228 giving an undrained bulk modulus of 0.3 GPa and a Skempton's coefficient of
 229 0.97 which are compatible with earlier findings [8].

230 The solution to the coupled linear equations given above are found using an
 231 iterative and regularized solver [35]. In Figure 8 we plot the resulting estimates
 232 of water volume changes occurring in the unconfined and confined aquifers dur-
 233 ing the month of March in 2019. Areas with elevations exceeding 600 m were
 234 removed from the solutions as they are likely to be adversely influenced by snow
 235 and have groundwater hydrology that is significantly different from the Central
 236 Valley sediments (white regions in Figure 8). In the unconfined aquifer, there
 237 are large volume increases at the western edge of the Sierra Nevada and the
 238 southern edge of the basin where the rivers and streams most likely contribute
 239 significant water volumes. The solution for the volume changes in the confined
 240 aquifer does resemble the observed InSAR displacements plotted in Figure 4,
 241 albeit with some deviations in the north-western corner where higher volume
 242 increases are required to fit the gravity data.

243 The sum of the volume changes in the two layers, plotted in Figure 7b, is in
 244 fairly good agreement with the GRACE mascon estimates of equivalent water
 245 volume change (Figure 7a). A more quantitative comparison between the refer-
 246 ence (GRACE-derived) gravity changes and gravity changes calculated using
 247 the volume changes from the inversion is plotted in the Supplementary Figure
 248 S3. In addition, in Figure S3 we plot the normalized left-hand-sides (Observed)
 249 and right-hand-sides (Calculated) of the InSAR constraint provided by the first
 250 set of equations given above. Both sets of equations are satisfied by the model
 251 shown in Figure 8. The largest misfits for the gravity data are associated with

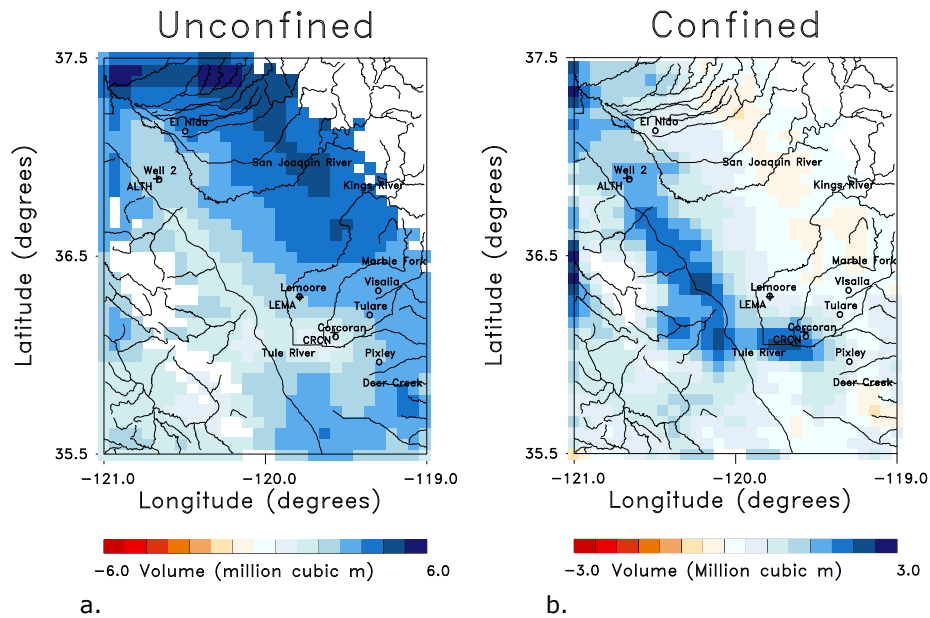


Figure 8: Estimates of the water volume changes in the unconfined (a) and confined (b) aquifers of the model. The color scale denotes the estimated water volume changes in millions of cubic kilometers during March 2019. Areas with elevations above 600 meters have been removed from the solution because they are likely to be in anomalous mountain areas that do not conform to the model assumptions. The labeling indicates towns, GPS stations, and rivers as denoted in the previous captions. The plots were constructed using NCL and NCAR Graphics 6.5.0 (<https://www.earthsystemgrid.org/dataset/ncl.650.html>).

252 observations at the edge of the model where mass changes outside the area of
 253 interest can influence the values. Thus, it appears possible to honor both the
 254 Sentinel InSAR and the GRACE gravity data with a simple model involving a
 255 confined and an unconfined aquifer. By looking at shorter-term monthly changes
 256 we are minimizing the impact of poorly known parameters, such as the inelastic
 257 skeletal storage properties which influence longer-term behavior.

258 Discussion

259 Our analysis of the Sentinel InSAR and GRACE gravity data is relatively
 260 straight-forward and involves several simple steps, such as removing a long-term
 261 quadratic trend and averaging in both time and space. The two-volume aquifer
 262 model, consisting of unconfined and confined aquifers, satisfies both the Sentinel
 263 and GRACE constraints, suggesting that the datasets may be explained by a
 264 common hydrological source. For the particular month that we considered in

265 detail, March 2019, there is a volume increase within the overlying unconfined
266 aquifer at the eastern edge of the Central Valley (Figure 8a), perhaps due to
267 a combination of preceding winter rains and the early onset of snowmelt. In
268 the confined aquifer of the model (Figure 8b), the region in the Central Valley
269 is dominated by a northwest oriented volume increase that follows the deeper
270 region of the aquifer. The changes in Figure 4 suggest that the source of this
271 volume increase is due to the influx of water from rivers primarily in the south-
272 ern Sierra Nevada and in an area to the north. The resulting pattern of uplift
273 in March and April of 2019 shares many characteristics to the changes in April
274 2017 (Figure 5), suggesting similar seasonal variations.

275 While very few wells have monthly observations of the water table in this
276 area, we did find two closely-spaced and densely-sampled monitoring wells in
277 the northwest portion of our study area (Figure 9). Both wells display large
278 long-period seasonal trends with a period of about 1 year. The periodic sea-
279 sonal variation is interrupted by a systematic increase in water level from late
280 2016 to early 2018 due to the excessively wet winter of 2017, which is largely
281 reflected in the GRACE trends in Figure 9b. Unfortunately, the break in the
282 satellite coverage in 2017 and 2018 means that it is not possible to determine
283 if the gravitational signal from the water volume continued to build up in 2017
284 before falling in 2018, as observed in the geodetic data. The vertical displace-
285 ments recorded at a nearby GPS station ALTH records uplift during all of 2017,
286 in correspondence with the upward movement of the water table, followed by
287 a systematic decrease in 2018. This pattern is also seen in the InSAR LOS
288 data extracted for the same location (Figure 9d). Note that the ground dis-
289 placements and the water levels diverge in 2018 and 2019, when the water level
290 remains elevated, while the ground surface subsides, as observed in both the
291 GPS and InSAR displacements in Figure S1. In addition, the water table in
292 Wells 1 and 2 appear stable during the early months of 2019, while the ground
293 deformation indicates early subsidence in January and February followed by
294 uplift in March and April of 2019, supporting the notion of a stable water table
295 during deformation driven by the confined aquifer.

296 The long term behavior of the water table in the region is constrained by an
297 additional 57 wells that are sampled roughly twice a year, as shown in Figure 10.
298 The time series for three widely-spaced wells, displaying changes in the water
299 table between 2015 and 2020, somewhat mirrors the behavior of the two wells
300 plotted in Figure 9. In particular, there is a sustained elevation of the water
301 table from the end of 2016 until some time in late 2017 and early 2018. The
302 wide-spread nature of this change is evident in the regional map in Figure 10b,
303 indicating the change in the water table for the water year 2017, that is from
304 October 2016 to October 2017. Almost all of the available observation wells
305 record upward movement in the water table of 5 to 10 meters. In the time series
306 in Figure 10 we observe a rapid build up in early 2017 and a gradual decline in
307 2018 and 2019. The rapid decay observed in the GPS and InSAR observations
308 in Figure 9 and Supplementary Figure S1 is not seen in the water table changes
309 in wells 33 and 50. Thus, it appears that the water level and the ground surface
310 can move in synchrony, due to water volume increases in the unconfined and

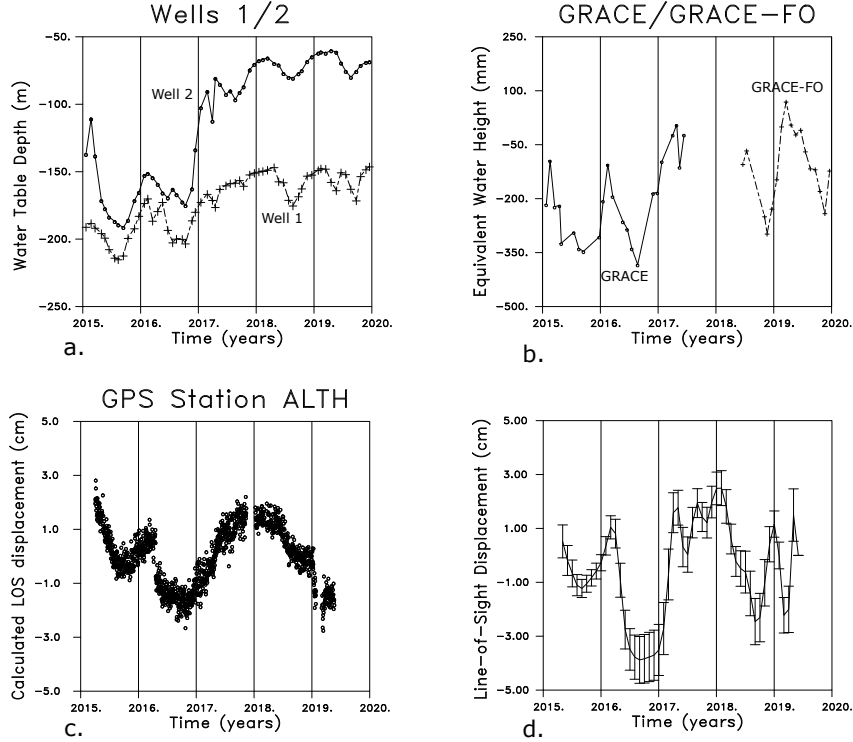


Figure 9: (a) Water table variations at well 1 (365322120401203) and well 2 (365325120391504) that are within a few hundred meters of each other. The continuous water table observations are available from the site: <https://data.cnra.ca.gov/dataset/continuous-groundwater-level-measurements> The locations of the wells are indicated in Figure 4 by an open circle and the label well 2. (b) Equivalent water height changes for a point corresponding to well 1 obtained from the GRACE and Grace follow-on (GRACE-FO) missions. The symbols denote the sampled values and the gap corresponds to the transition between the two missions when no observations were available. (c) Vertical displacements from the GPS station ALTH near the two water wells 1 and 2. The open circles indicate values from the daily recordings. (d) Estimated line-of-sight displacements at the location of water well 1.

311 confined aquifers, and in opposition, due to groundwater loading of the confined
312 aquifer in conjunction with deep groundwater withdrawal.

313 More work is necessary to substantiate and fully understand these results,
314 and to determine the most important contributions to ground deformation. For
315 example, continued monitoring is needed in order to determine if the patterns
316 observed around April of 2017 and 2019 are truly periodic seasonal changes
317 driven by the groundwater hydrology. Detailed modeling of the flow and the
318 propagation of subsurface fluid pressure changes will help in understanding the
319 dynamics of these results and other observations [11], and to replicate these
320 observations. A larger scale study will be better suited to the resolution of
321 the GRACE data and will allow for a more comprehensive comparison with
322 observations of water levels in monitoring wells. Improved characterization uti-
323 lizing archived well logs and borehole extensometer data is necessary in order
324 to develop a better geomechanical model of the system and to obtain better es-
325 timates of poroelastic properties. It is particularly important to determine the
326 relationship between effective stress changes in the confined aquifer and the re-
327 sulting volume changes. Still, the results here do suggest that available Sentinel
328 and GRACE satellite data can indeed monitor hydrological variations over time
329 scales of a month or more. With future improvements in observations, such as
330 the NASA-ISRO SAR (NISAR) mission planned for 2023, there should be even
331 better constraints on temporal changes in the Tulare basin in the future. Longer
332 wavelength L-band data, such as the ALOS-PALSAR observations [8, 36] can
333 improve imaging in highly vegetated regions but they did not have sufficient
334 temporal resolution for this study.

335 Methods

336 Our analysis is based upon the simplified model of the Tulare basin outlined
337 in Figure 1, consisting of a shallow aquifer from the water table down to a
338 mostly impermeable but deformable boundary, which for much of the region is
339 defined by the Corcoran clay [28]. However, due to factors such as layering, it
340 is frequently true that the vertical permeability is an order of magnitude less
341 than the horizontal permeability so that other parts of the basin may contain
342 partially confined aquifers, particularly over short time intervals. The underly-
343 ing sequence of layers collectively forms a confined aquifer and effective stress
344 changes within this volume lead to changes in the vertical location of any over-
345 lying deformable boundaries, such as the ground surface. The upper boundary
346 of the confined aquifer is subject to a downward force, due to the weight of the
347 overlying sediments and water, including soil moisture and snow, and sediment
348 volumes. It is also subject to any changes in effective stress within the confined
349 aquifer itself. The relationship between a change in the confining pressure dP_c ,
350 the total volumetric stress, and the changes in the volume of the solid and water
351 volumes, dV_s^c and dV_w^c respectively, in the confined aquifer is [34, 37]

$$\frac{1}{K_u} dP_c = -\frac{dV_s^c}{V_o} + B \frac{dV_w^c}{V_o}, \quad (1)$$

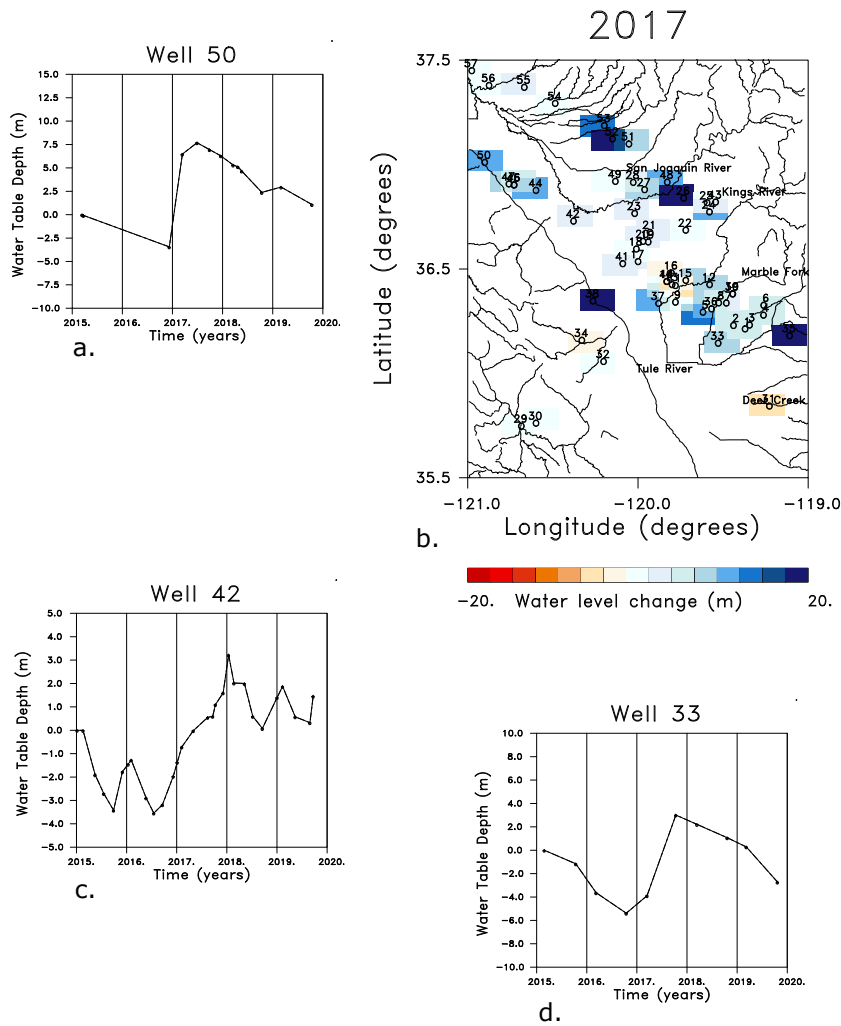


Figure 10: (a) Water level changes observed in Well 50, denoted in the location map in panel b. The time series has been reduced by shifting the initial value to zero and removing a linear trend from the data. (b) Location map indicating the position of the 57 wells that had at least 10 observations between the start of 2015 and the end of 2020. The colored rectangles denote the changes in the water levels in each well that occurred during the water year 2017 (between October 2016 and October 2017). (c) Water level changes in Well 42 obtained after shifting the curve such that the initial value is zero and removing a linear trend. (d) Changes in the depth to the water table in Well 33, reduced in the same fashion as the other two wells in this figure. The continuous water table observations are available from the site: <https://data.cnra.ca.gov/dataset/continuous-groundwater-level-measurements> while the seasonal data may be found at <https://data.cnra.ca.gov/dataset/periodic-groundwater-level-measurements>. The plots were constructed using NCL and NCAR Graphics 6.5.0 (<https://www.earthsystemgrid.org/dataset/ncl.650.html>).

352 assuming poroelastic behavior for the monthly changes, where K_u is the effective
 353 undrained bulk modulus of the sediments comprising the confined aquifer at this
 354 location and B is Skempton’s coefficient [33,34]. We will assume that the mass
 355 of the overlying solid material is constant and that only the overlying water
 356 volume is changing, so that

$$dP_c = \rho g \cdot dh = \rho g \frac{dV_w^u}{A_o} \quad (2)$$

357 where ρ is the density of the water, g is the gravitational constant, and A_o is
 358 the horizontal surface area of the top of the grid block. Substituting equation
 359 (2) into the first equation produces an expression relating the change in the
 360 volume of water overlying the grid block to the solid and water volume
 361 changes within the grid block of the confined aquifer. We can rearrange this
 362 equation and multiply by the reference volume of the grid block V_o , solving for
 363 the solid volume change in terms of the water volume changes in the unconfined
 364 and confined aquifers

$$dV_s^c = -\frac{\rho g l_o}{K_u} \cdot dV_w^u + B \cdot dV_w^c, \quad (3)$$

365 where l_o is the vertical extent of the aquifer at the corresponding location used
 366 in the calculation of the reference volume.

367 We can estimate the solid volume changes dV_s^c from the InSAR line-of-sight
 368 changes using the inversion methods developed for geodetic data [10,38–40]. A
 369 finite incremental change in solid volume for the i -th grid block, obtained from
 370 the InSAR observations, is noted by δV_i^{InSAR} . Assuming that the medium
 371 overlying the confined aquifer behaves as an elastic medium during the time
 372 increment of interest, typically 6 to 11 days, the inverse problem involves solving
 373 the linear system for the solid volume changes for each grid block in the confined
 374 aquifer

$$\delta l_i = \sum_{n=1}^N U_{in} \delta V_n^{InSAR} \quad (4)$$

375 where δl_i is the i -th InSAR line-of-sight observation and U_{in} is a discrete version
 376 of the Green’s function relating aquifer volume change to the line-of-sight dis-
 377 placement of the Earth’s surface. Using the InSAR estimates of volume change
 378 as a constraint, forming the left-hand-side of equation (3) we can write down an
 379 InSAR-based constraint defined by the force balance across the confining layer,
 380 for each of the N grid blocks of the two layers

$$\delta V_n^{InSAR} = -\frac{\rho g l_o}{K_u} \cdot \delta V_n^u + B \cdot \delta V_n^c, \quad (5)$$

381 for $n = 1, 2, \dots, N$.

382 In addition, we have the constraint due to the mascons obtained from the
 383 analysis of the GRACE data. It is not straight-forward to relate volume or
 384 mass changes at the Earth’s surface to confined and unconfined aquifer water

385 volume changes. Furthermore, the edges of the mascons are artificial boundaries
 386 introduced in the formulation of the inverse problem that maps the GRACE data
 387 into changes in mass at the Earth’s surface [26]. To mitigate these issues we
 388 use the mascons to generate gravitational changes at a height above the Earth’s
 389 surface. We use a height of 6000 meters as that is the lateral dimensions of
 390 our grid blocks for the inversion. An additional increase in elevation will also
 391 increase the sensitivity of the gravity values to changes that are outside of
 392 the Tulare basin. Thus, we solve a forward problem and calculate the gravity
 393 changes at a height of 6000 meters and then use these changes as data for
 394 an inverse problem for water volume changes in the confined and unconfined
 395 aquifers

$$\delta g_l = \sum_{n=1}^N G_{ln}^u \delta V_n^u + \sum_{n=1}^N G_{ln}^c \delta V_n^c \quad (6)$$

396 with $l = 1, 2, \dots, N_g$ for N_g gravity estimates, and where G_{ln}^u and G_{ln}^c are the
 397 Green’s functions for the gravitational attraction of a rectangular prism [29–31].
 398 Such Green’s functions have proven useful in the analysis of airborne gravity
 399 and gravity gradiometry data [32]. The inverse problem for the water volume
 400 changes, compatible with the InSAR volume change estimates, involves solving
 401 the linear system defined by equations (5) and (6).

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521 **Addendum**

522 Supplementary information is available for this paper. Correspondence and
523 requests for materials should be addressed to D. W. Vasco.

524 The authors wish to acknowledge the financial support of Lawrence Berke-
525 ley National The state of California’s Department of Water Resources funded
526 the InSAR data reduction and the construction of range change estimates by
527 T. Farr and the ARIA project. The theoretical development of the inverse
528 and forward modeling by D. W. Vasco was supported by the U.S. Depart-
529 ment of Energy, Office of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences, Chemical
530 Sciences, Geosciences, and Biosciences Division under contract number DE-
531 AC02-05- CH11231. Additional funding was provided by the California Energy
532 Commission under the grant opportunity (GFO-15-507) under agreement PIR-
533 16-015, as part of Work for Others funding from Berkeley Lab, provided by the
534 Director, Office of Science, of the U.S. Department of Energy under Contract
535 No. DE-AC02-05CH11231. The contribution from K. H. Kim, J.T. Reager, D.
536 Bekaert and S. S. Singh was supported by the NASA GRACE-FO science team,
537 and represents research carried out at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, Califor-
538 nia Institute of Technology, under a contract with the National Aeronautics
539 and Space Administration. We thank the University of Texas Center for Space
540 Research for providing the 0.25 degree mascon data set CSR-GRACE-GRACE-
541 FO-RL06-Mascons-all-corrections-v02.nc as a public resource.

542 **Data Availability** The InSAR observations discussed in the paper were
543 originally provided by Caltech’s Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL), ARIA project
544 and are available as an ARIA product from JPL or from our Zenodo archive,
545 the citation is: Donald Vasco (2019). Central Valley InSAR Data - 2015-2016-
546 2017-2018 (Version 1.0), DOI 10.5281/Zenodo.3468553. As noted above, the
547 GRACE data are freely available from the University of Texas Center for Space
548 Research as CSR-GRACE-GRACE-FO-RL06-Mascons-all-corrections-v02.nc.

549 **Competing Interests** The authors declare that they have no financial or
550 non-financial interests in groups or organizations that might be influenced by
551 this work.

552 **Contributions** DWV formulated the approach and implemented the inver-
553 sion of the Sentinel and GRACE data. KHK and JTR provided the well data,
554 guided the use of the GRACE data for the initial inversions, and helped to write
555 the paper. TGF, DB, and SSS processed and analyzed the Sentinel 1a/b and
556 provided it for this study and helped in the writing of this paper. JR provided
557 expertise and oversight on the modeling of the coupled hydrology and mechanics
558 of the Tulare basin. HKB oversaw the later use of the GRACE data and related
559 improvements in the inversion and analysis of the gravity observations, and also
560 helped in the writing of the paper.

561 **Correspondence** Correspondence and requests for materials should be ad-
562 dressed to D. W. Vasco (email: dwvasco@lbl.gov).