

Interactive comment by Ralf Loritz on “Interpretation of Multi-scale Permeability Data through an Information Theory Perspective” by Aronne Dell’Oca, Monica Riva and Alberto Guadagnini (<https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-2019-628>).

Dear Editor:

We appreciate the efforts that you and Dr. Ralf Loritz have invested in our manuscript. We here detail the actions we envision to address Dr. Ralf Loritz’s comments and inputs. Please, find below an item by item list whereas our envisioned actions are indicated in plain font, to distinguish them from the Reviewer’s comments (in italic). Our revised manuscript will be uploaded at a later stage, following closure of the discussions phase.

Summary and Recommendation

In this manuscript (MS), the authors use a series of different methods taken from information theory to estimate and compare the information content of different permeability measurements of two geological settings. Overall, the MS is structure and written in a clear manner. In addition, the general idea behind the study is interesting and of relevance for the potential readers of HESS.

We thank Dr. Ralf Loritz for his appreciation of our work.

However, I have to admit that I was a bit surprised because I could not find a scientific discussion in the entire MS. While there a few interpretations of the results in section 4 there is not a single reference after page 7 neither a discussion.

We thank Dr. Loritz for his comment. We have added the following Discussion section in the revised manuscript.

This left me with a lot of open questions like: How does your results link to the work of Tidwell and other who used for instance geo-statistics on the same data set. Which findings are new and could have not been drawn if you have used of more classical statistical approaches instead of Information theory?

We thank Dr. Ralf Loritz for his comment. We will enhance the focus on the nature of the results of our analysis and the one performed by Tidwell and Wilson (1999a, b), Lowry and Tidwell (2005), Riva et al. (2013), Siena et al. (2012) and Tidwell and Wilson (2002).

Our discussion section includes the following text: ‘We recall that the focus of the present study is the quantification of the information content and information shared between pairs and triplets of datasets of air permeability observations associated with diverse sizes of the measurement/support scale. We exemplify our analysis considering data collected across two different types of rocks, i.e., a Berea and a Topopah sample, that are characterized by different degrees of heterogeneity.

These datasets (or part of these) have been considered in some prior studies. Tidwell and Wilson (1999a, b) and Lowry and Tidwell (2005) assess the impact of the size of the support/measurement scale on key summary one-point (i.e., mean and variance) and two-points (i.e., variogram) statistics within the context of classical geostatistical methods and evaluated kriging-based estimates of the underlying random fields. Siena et al. (2012) and Riva et al. (2013) analyze the scaling behavior of the main statistics of the log permeability data and of their increments (i.e., sample structure functions of diverse orders), with emphasis on the assessment of power-law scaling behavior. On these bases, Riva et al. (2013) conclude that the data related to the Berea sample can be interpreted as observations

from a sub-Gaussian random field subordinated to truncated fractional Brownian motion or Gaussian noise. All of these studies focus on (a) the geostatistical interpretation of the behavior displayed by the probability density function (and key moments) of the data and their spatial increments and (b) the analysis of the skill of selected models to interpret the observed behavior of the main statistical descriptors evaluated upon considering separately data associated with diverse measurement/support. Furthermore, Tidwell and Wilson (2002) analyzed the Berea and Topopah datasets (considering separately data characterized by diverse support scales) to assess possible correspondences between the permeability field and some attributes of the rock samples determined visually through digital imaging and conclude that image analysis can assist delineation of spatial permeability patterns.

We remark that in all of the studies mentioned above the datasets associated with a given support (or measurement) scale are analyzed separately. Otherwise, we leverage on elements of IT which allow a unique opportunity to circumvent limitations of linear metrics (e.g., Pearson correlation) and analyze the relationships (in terms of shared amount of information) between pairs (i.e., bivariate mutual information) or triplets (i.e., multivariate mutual information) of variables.'

What are the merits of using Information Theory if most of your conclusions can be drawn by looking at the pdfs in figure 3a.

We thank Dr. Ralf Loritz for his comment and apologize for our lack of clarity. We refer to these pdfs to show consistency with our results and findings related to the analysis of the information shared between pairs and triplets of permeability datasets. These cannot otherwise be drawn from the mere inspection of the pdfs in Fig. 3a. Our revised manuscript includes the following text: 'We also note that, even as visual inspection of $p(Y_{r_i})$ associated with diverse sizes of the support scale r_i (see Figure 3a and Figure 3b for the Berea and Topopah, respectively) can show that these probability densities can be intuitively linked to the documented decrease of the corresponding Shannon entropies with increasing r_i (see Figure 3c and Section 4), it would be hard to readily infer from such a visual comparative inspection the behavior of the bivariate (see Figure 3d) and multivariate (see Figure 4) mutual information because these require (see Eq.s (2)-(8)) the evaluation of the joint probability mass functions.'

Given the nicely written introduction and the overall interesting topic of the MS I am however very positive that the authors are able to re-work this MS in a way that it can be published in HESS. For this, I believe, however, that a substantial amount of work needs to be put in this MS before it can be published.

We thank Dr. Loritz for his appreciation of our work.

Major comment

No scientific discussion and comparison with other research.

We plan to add a Discussion section in the revised manuscript, where we will detail comparison with prior research relying on these data according to our answer above.

Technical comments

Section 3.2 Implementation Aspect Line 247-269: Here, the authors chose a couple of crucial parameters, which are in my opinion not all well justified. For instance, they use a kernel density estimator to estimate their pdfs from their datasets. However, they give not much details how they chose their related parameters, neither how changing them influences the results nor why they do this besides stating that: "This step enables us to smooth and regularize the available finite datasets".

How do you know that you do not smoothed out information that is of relevance? Furthermore, why do you chose 100 bins. Is this choice based on, for instance, the measurement uncertainties (physics; e.g. Loritz et al. 2018) or on a statistical analysis (statistics; e.g. Gong et al. 2013)? How do your results change if you only pick 50 bins? Remember that the bin width is pretty much your a-priori assumption of similarity so you need to be careful here.

We thank Dr. Loritz for his comment. The revised manuscript will include additional details on the selection of the parameter of the kernel density estimator (KDE) and on the number of bins. In summary, we consider various values of the KDE parameter (i.e., width of the kernel) and bin number to ensure stability of results. We note that evaluating the probability mass function directly from data led to unstable results, mainly due to the limited extent of the available datasets. To circumvent this drawback, we opt for a KDE approach to (a) infer the required *pdfs* and then (b) evaluate the discretized probability mass function. We clarify this aspect in the revised manuscript by adding the following text: ‘We inspect how the IT metrics described in Section 2 vary as a function of (i) the number of bins (i.e., we consider a number of 50, 75, 100, and 125 bins for the discretization of the range of data variability) and (ii) the size of the kernel bandwidth (which is varied within the range 0.1 - 0.4) employed in the KDE routine (see Supplementary Material SM1-3 for additional details). This analysis highlights a weak dependence of the values of the investigate IT metrics on the number of bins and on the size of the bandwidth employed in the Kernel Density Estimator (KDE) procedure. However, the overall patterns of these metrics remain substantially unaffected. This leads us to use 100 bins and a kernel bandwidth equal to 0.3. Note that we consistently employ this binning for the evaluation of all metrics introduced in Section 2.

Additional details on the impact of the number of bins and on the size of the kernel bandwidth will be provided as Supplementary Material.

Line 83: Well, again you need to choose your bin width, which is a strong a-priori assumption.

We will point out this aspect in the revised manuscript where we write: We observe that within an IT approach the selection of a bin size is an a priori choice (see, e.g., Gong et al., 2014; Loritz et al., 2018) the influence of which should be properly assessed (see Section 4 and Supplementary Material1).

Line 106: Information is always about something. Please be more specific here.

Our revised text now reads: ‘we leverage on such a unique and truly multiscale datasets to address research questions such as “How much information about the natural logarithm of (normalized) gas permeabilities is lost as the support scale increases?”.’

Line 155: The formula is correct but rather uncommon in this form.

We adopt this format to emphasize the concept of information, i.e., $\log_2(p_i^{-1})$, as its interpretation as a degree of surprise. We will abide by the Editor on this element.

Line 162: The nature of the Shannon entropy does not change if you use nats, however, I would argue that the interpretation is much more straightforward if you use the binary logarithm calculate it. This is the case because it is then directly linked to the average number of binary questions one needs to ask to infer in which state X is as well as it is then directly linked to the maximum compressibility of your dataset. A perfect lossless compression is thereby a perfect upscaling.

We agree with Dr. Loritz and his interpretation of Shannon entropy when a base-two logarithm is employed. Otherwise, this will just affect the presentation of the results in Fig. 3a, whereas all of our remaining results are based on normalized quantities and the general conclusions and observations remain unaffected. We will modify the manuscript by employing base two logarithm. Our revised text now reads: ‘We employ base two logarithms in (1), thus leading to *bits* as unit of measure for entropy and for the IT metrics we describe in the following. While other choices (relying, e.g., on the natural logarithm) are admissible, the nature and meaning of the metrics we illustrate remain unaffected.’ Furthermore, we will add the interpretation suggested by Dr. Loritz and write: ‘Moreover, one can note that Shannon entropy in (1) is directly linked to the average number of binary questions (i.e., questions with a *yes* or *no* answer) one needs to ask to infer the state in which *X* is’.

Line 244 – 246: Why? Could you explain that in your specific context.

We thank Dr. Ralf Loritz for his comment. We will further elaborate on this concept in the revised manuscript, which now reads: ‘In summary, addressing information partitioning enables us to (i) quantify and (ii) characterize the nature of the information that two variables (sources) provide to a third one (target) as a *whole*, i.e., considering the entire triplet. Doing so overcomes the limitation of depicting the system as a simple *sum of parts*, as based on solely inspecting the corresponding pairwise bivariate mutual information, which allows quantifying just the amount of information that pairs of variables (i.e., the first source and the target; and the second source and the target) share (without being able to define redundant or unique contributions, see Eq. (9)). In the context of our work, this implies that information partitioning enables us to characterize the nature of the information that permeability data collected at two support scales provide to /share with permeability data taken at a third one.’

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Interactive comment by anonymous reviewer on “Interpretation of Multi-scale Permeability Data through an Information Theory Perspective” by Aronne Dell’Oca, Monica Riva and Alberto Guadagnini (<https://doi.org/10.5194/hess-2019-628>).

Dear Editor:

We appreciate the efforts that you and the anonymous Reviewer have invested in our manuscript. We here detail the actions we envision to address the Reviewer’s comments and inputs. Please, find below an item by item list where our envisioned actions are indicated in plain font, to distinguish them from the Reviewer’s comments (in italic). Our revised manuscript will be uploaded following closure of the discussions phase.

Summary and Recommendation

The authors use well-known information-theoretic quantities to quantify information content and information transfer among permeability datasets collected at different scales. The explanation of the quantities is thorough, but it is not clear to which extent the presented results are affected by the choice of the settings for the methodology (binning, bandwidth, ...) or how the information extracted from the datasets can be used in practice. I advise the authors to carefully review the manuscript, expanding the investigation to the analysis of the impact of “setting parameters” and presenting some ideas on the practicality of the analysis.

We thank the Reviewer for his/her efforts and time. We will provide additional details on the impact of the number of bins and the size of the bandwidth of the kernel (i) in the manuscript and (ii) as supplementary material (in details). We will add a discussion section in the revised manuscript where we clarify the potential use and transferability of the current analysis in the context of practical applications.

Specific comments

Please investigate the role of binning with respect to the presented results - how do you choose the bandwidth? Does it have an influence on the results?

We thank the Reviewer for pointing this out. We will provide additional details on the assessment of the impact of the number of bins and of the size of the kernel bandwidth on the presented results. Our revised text now reads: “We inspect how the IT metrics described in Section 2 vary as a function of (i) the number of bins (i.e., we consider a number of 50, 75, 100, and 125 bins for the discretization of the range of data variability) and (ii) the size of the kernel bandwidth (which is varied within the range 0.1 - 0.4) employed in the KDE routine (see Supplementary Material SM1-3 for additional details). This analysis highlights a weak dependence of the values of the investigate IT metrics on the number of bins and on the size of the bandwidth employed in the Kernel Density Estimator (KDE) procedure. However, the overall patterns of these metrics remain substantially unaffected. This leads us to use 100 bins and a kernel bandwidth equal to 0.3. Note that we consistently employ this binning for the evaluation of all metrics introduced in Section 2.”.

We will also include all details about these issues as supplementary material.

Does the fact that permeability is by its nature a process-dependent (or model-dependent) quantity affect the applicability of the procedure?

We do not see why the nature of permeability, including its scale dependence as an effective parameter associated with the flow equation, should hamper the applicability of the procedure. This is also in line with the consolidated use of standard geostatistical approaches for the stochastic characterization of heterogeneity of aquifer systems.

Could you please discuss: - how often multi-scale permeability measurements are available - how the presented results are transferable - how the presented results can be used in practical applications

We thank the Reviewer his/her comment. We will address these aspects by adding relevant references. Our revised text now reads (Section 5): “Considering an operational context, including, e.g., groundwater resource management or (conventional/unconventional) oil recovery, we observe that it is common to have at our disposal permeability data associated with diverse support scales. These can be inferred from, e.g., large scale pumping tests, downhole impeller flowmeter measurements, core flood experiments at the laboratory scale, geophysical investigations, or particle-size curves (see e.g., Paillet, 1989; Day-Lewis et al., 2000; Zhang and Winter, 2000; Pavelic et al., 2006; Neuman et al., 2008; Riva et al., 2009; Barahona-Palomo et al., 2011; Quinn et al., 2012; Shapiro et al., 2015; Galvão et al., 2016; Menafoglio et al., 2016; Medici et al., 2017; Dausse et al., 2019, and reference therein). Assessing (i) the information content and (ii) the amount of information shared between permeability data associated with differing support scales (and/or diverse measuring devices/techniques) along the lines illustrated in the present study can be beneficial to obtain a quantitative appraisal of possible feedbacks among diverse approaches employed for aquifer/reservoir characterization. Results of such an analysis can potentially serve as a guidance for the screening of datasets which are most informative to provide a comprehensive description of the spatially heterogeneous distribution of permeability. While the methodology detailed in Section 3 is readily transferable to scenarios where multi-scale permeability are available, the appraisal of the general nature of some specific findings of the present study (e.g., decrease of the Shannon entropy as the support scale increases, regularity in the trends displayed by the normalized bivariate mutual information) still remains an open issue.”

Lines 85-86: please expand the literature review to include several works on the use of information-theory quantities for porous material characterization.

We thank the Reviewer his/her comment. Our revised text now reads (Section 1): “To the best of our knowledge, as compared to surface hydrology systems only a limited set of works consider relying on IT concepts to analyze scenarios related to processes taking place in subsurface porous media. Nevertheless, we note a great variety in the topics covered in these works, reflecting the broad applicability of IT concepts. These studies include, e.g., the works of Woodbury and Ulrych (1993, 1996, 2000) who apply the principle of minimum relative entropy to tackle uncertainty propagation and inverse modeling in a groundwater system. The principle of maximum entropy is employed by Gotovac et al. (2010) to characterize the probability distribution function of travel time of a solute migrating within a heterogeneous porous formation. Within the same context, Kitanidis (1994) leverage on the definition of entropy and introduced the concept of dilution index to quantify the dilution state of a solute cloud migrating within an aquifer. Mishra et al. (2009) and Zeng et al. (2012) evaluate the mutual information shared between pairs of (uncertain) model input(s) and output(s) of interest, and view this metric as a measure of global sensitivity. Nowak and Guthke (2016) focus on sorption of metals onto soil and the identification of an optimal experimental design procedure in the presence of multiple models to describe sorption. Boso and Tartakovsky (2018) illustrate an IT approach to upscale/downscale equations of flow in synthetic settings mimicking heterogeneous

porous media. Relying on IT metrics, Butera et al. (2018) assess the relevance of non-linear effects for the characterization of the spatial dependence of flow and solute transport related observables. Bianchi and Pedretti (2017, 2018) developed novel concepts, motivated by IT, for the characterization of heterogeneity within a porous system and its links to salient solute transport features. Wellman and Regenaur-Lieb (2012) and Wellman (2013) leverage on IT concepts to quantify uncertainty, and its reduction, about the spatial arrangement of geological units of a subsurface formation. Recently, Mälicke et al. (2019) combine geostatistic and IT to analyze soil moisture data (representative of a given measurement scale) to assess the persistence over time of the spatial organization the soil moisture, under diverse hydrological regimes”.

Lines 145-147: please clarify meaning and implications

We thank the Reviewer his/her comment. We have further clarified our choice. Our revised text now reads: “While corresponding definitions are available also for continuous variables (i.e., summation(s) and probability mass function(s) are replaced by integral(s) and probability density function(s), respectively), these are characterized by a less intuitive and immediate interpretation (e.g., Entropy could be negative, infinite or could not be evaluated in case of probability density function(s) involving a Dirac’s delta since its logarithm is not defined; see e.g., Cover and Thomas, 2006; Kaiser and Schreiber, 2002). Moreover, in case no analytical expressions are available for the demanded probability density functions of the analyzed continuous variables, a quantization of the latter is necessary in order to estimate the IT metrics associated with the continuous variables through their quantized counterparts (see Cover and Thomas, 2006). In general, the quality of this estimates increases (in different manners depending on the specific metric) with the level of quantization of the continuous variables (see e.g., Kaiser and Schreiber, 2002).”

Technical comments

A few typos: line 284, line 254.

We thank the Reviewer his/her comment. We will duly correct the typos in the revised manuscript.

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Interpretation of Multi-scale Permeability Data through an Information Theory Perspective

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Key Points

- Information Theory allows characterizing information content of permeability data related to differing measurement scales.
- An increase of the measurement scale is associated with quantifiable loss of information about permeability.
- Redundant, unique and synergetic contributions of information are evaluated for triplets of permeability datasets, each taken at a given scale.

Abstract

We employ elements of Information Theory to quantify (i) the information content related to data collected at given measurement scales within the same porous medium domain, and (ii) the relationships among Information contents of datasets associated with differing scales. We focus on gas permeability data collected over a Berea Sandstone and a Topopah Spring Tuff blocks, considering four measurement scales. We quantify the way information is shared across these scales through (i) the Shannon entropy of the data associated with each support scale, (ii) mutual information shared between data taken at increasing support scales, and (iii) multivariate mutual information shared within triplets of datasets, each associated with a given scale. We also assess the level of uniqueness, redundancy and synergy (rendering, i.e., information partitioning) of information content that the data associated with the intermediate and largest scales provide with respect to the information embedded in the data collected at the smallest support scale in a triplet.

Plain Language Summary

Characterization of the permeability of a geophysical system, or part of it, is a key aspect in many environmental settings. Permeability of natural systems typically exhibits spatial variations and its spatially heterogeneous pattern is linked with the size of observation/measurement/support scale. As the latter becomes coarser, the system appearance is less heterogeneous. As such, sets of permeability data associated with differing support scales provide diverse amounts of information. In this contribution, we leverage on elements of Information Theory to quantify the information content of gas permeability datasets collected over a Berea Sandstone and a Topopah Spring Tuff blocks and associated with four measurement scales. We then characterize the nature of the information shared by the diverse datasets, in terms of redundant, unique and synergetic forms of information.

1. Introduction

Characterization of permeability of porous media plays a major role in a variety of hydrological settings. There are abundant studies documenting that permeability values and their associated statistics depend on a variety of scales, i.e., the measurement support (or data support), the sampling window (domain of investigation), the spatial correlation (degree of structural coherence) and the spatial resolution (rendering the degree of the descriptive detail associated with the characterization of a porous system) (see e.g., Brace 1984; Clauser, 1992; Neuman, 1994; Schad and Teutsch, 1994; Rovey and Cherkauer, 1995; Sanchez-Villa et al., 1996; Schulze-Makuch and Cherkauer, 1998; Schulze-Makuch et al., 1999; Tidwell and Wilson, 1999a, b, 2000; Vesselinov et al., 2001a, b; Winter and Tartakovsky, 2001; Hyun et al., 2002; Neuman and Di Federico, 2003; Maréchal et al., 2004; Illman, 2004; Cintoli et al., 2005; Riva et al., 2013; Guadagnini et al., 2013, 2018 and references therein). Among these scales, we focus here on the characteristic length associated with data collection (i.e., support scale).

In this context, experimental evidences at the laboratory scale (observation scale of the order 0.1-1.0 m) suggest that the mean value and the correlation length of the permeability field tend to increase with the size of the data support, the opposite trend being documented for the variance (e.g., Tidwell and Wilson, 1999a, 1b, 2000). Similar observations, albeit with some discrepancies, are also tied to investigations at larger scales (i.e., 10-1000 m) (Andersson et al., 1988; Guzman et al., 1994, 1996; Neumann, 1994; Schulze-Makuch and Cherkauer, 1998; Zlotnik et al., 2000; Bulter and Healey, 1998a,b). We consider here laboratory scale permeability datasets which are associated with various measurement scales.

44 The above mentioned documented pattern suggests that the spatial distribution of permeability
45 tends to be characterized by an increased degree of homogeneity (as evidenced by a decreased
46 variance and an increased spatial correlation) as the support/measurement scale increases. At the same
47 time, increasing the measurement scale somehow hampers the ability to detect locally low
48 permeability values, as reflected by the observed increased mean value of the data. As an example of
49 the kind of data we consider in this study to clearly document these features, Figure 1 depicts the
50 spatial distribution of the natural logarithm of (normalized) gas permeabilities, i.e., $Y_{r_i} = \ln(k_{r_i} / \bar{k}_{r_i})$
51 (where k_{r_i} is gas permeability and \bar{k}_{r_i} is the mean value of the data), collected across two faces of a
52 laboratory scale block of (i) a Berea Sandstone (Tidwell and Wilson, 1999a) and (ii) a Topopah Spring
53 Tuff (Tidwell and Wilson, 1999b) at four support scales r_i (see Section 2 for a detailed description).
54 As a preliminary observation, one can note that increasing the measurement scale r_i yields a
55 decreased level of descriptive detail of the heterogeneous spatial distribution of the system properties.
56 It is important to note that a reduced level of details in the description of the system properties (e.g.,
57 Y_{r_i}) could hinder reliability and accuracy of further predictions of system behavior (in terms of, e.g.,
58 flow and solute transport patterns). It is therefore relevant to quantify the amount of loss (or of
59 preservation) of the information about the system properties associated with a fine scale(s) of
60 reference as the data support increases.

61 Our study aims at providing an assessment and a firm quantification of these aspects upon
62 relying on Information Theory (IT) (e.g., Stone, 2015) and the multiscale collection of data described
63 above. We consider such a framework of analysis as it provides the elements to quantify (i) the
64 information content associated with a dataset collected at a given scale as well as (ii) the information
65 shared between pairs or triplets of data, each associated with a unique scale (while preserving the
66 design of the measurement device). In this context, IT represents a convenient theoretical framework
67 to properly assist the characterization of the way the information content is distributed across sets of
68 measurements, without being confined to a linear analysis (relying, e.g., on analyses of linear
69 correlation coefficients) or invoking some tailored assumption(s) about the nature of the
70 heterogeneity of permeability (e.g., the characterization of the datasets through a Gaussian model).

71 To the best of our knowledge, as compared to surface hydrology systems only a limited set of
72 works consider relying on IT concepts to analyze scenarios related to processes taking place in
73 subsurface porous media. Nevertheless, we note a great variety in the topics covered in these works,
74 reflecting the broad potential for applicability of IT concepts. **These studies include, e.g., the works**
75 **of Woodbury and Ulrych (1993, 1996, 2000) who apply the principle of minimum relative entropy**
76 **to tackle uncertainty propagation and inverse modeling in a groundwater system. The principle of**
77 **maximum entropy is employed by Gotovac et al. (2010) to characterize the probability distribution**
78 **function of travel time of a solute migrating across a heterogeneous porous formation. Within the**
79 **same context, Kitanidis (1994) leverages on the definition of entropy and introduces the concept of**
80 **dilution index to quantify the dilution state of a solute cloud migrating within an aquifer. Mishra et**
81 **al. (2009) and Zeng et al. (2012) evaluate the mutual information shared between pairs of (uncertain)**
82 **model input(s) and output(s) of interest, and view this metric as a measure of global sensitivity.**
83 Nowak and Guthke (2016) focus on sorption of metals onto soil and the identification of an optimal
84 experimental design procedure in the presence of multiple models to describe sorption. Boso and
85 Tartakovsky (2018) illustrate an IT approach to upscale/downscale equations of flow in synthetic
86 settings mimicking heterogeneous porous media. Relying on IT metrics, Butera et al. (2018) assess
87 the relevance of non-linear effects for the characterization of the spatial dependence of flow and solute

88 transport related observables. Bianchi and Pedretti (2017, 2018) developed novel concepts, mutated
89 by IT, for the characterization of heterogeneity within a porous system and its links to salient solute
90 transport features. Wellman and Regenaur-Lieb (2012) and Wellman (2013) leverage on IT concepts
91 to quantify uncertainty, and its reduction, about the spatial arrangement of geological units of a
92 subsurface formation. Recently, Mälicke et al. (2019) combine geostatistic and IT to analyze soil
93 moisture data (representative of a given measurement scale) to assess the persistence over time of the
94 spatial organization the soil moisture, under diverse hydrological regimes.

95 Here, we focus on the aforementioned datasets of Tidwell and Wilson (1999a, b) who conducted
96 extensive measurement campaigns collecting air permeability data across the faces of a Berea
97 Sandstone and a Topopah Spring Tuff blocks, considering four different support/measurement scales
98 (see Section 2 for details). While our study does not tackle directly issues associated with the way
99 one can upscale (flow or transport) attributes of porous media, we leverage on such a unique and truly
100 multiscale datasets to address research questions such as “How much information about the natural
101 logarithm of (normalized) gas permeabilities is lost as the support scale increases?” and “How
102 informative are data taken at a coarser support scale(s) with respect to those associated with a finer
103 support scale?” (see Section 3). In this sense, our study yields a unique perspective of the assessment
104 of the value of hydrogeological information collected at differing scales.

105

2. Dataset

106 We consider the datasets provided by Tidwell and Wilson (1999a, b), who rely on a
107 multisupport permeameter (MSP) to evaluate spatial distributions of air permeabilities across the
108 faces of a cubic block of Berea Sandstone (hereafter denoted as Berea) and Topopah Spring Tuff
109 (hereafter denoted as Topopah). Data are collected at uniform intervals with spacing $\Delta = 0.85$ cm
110 across a grid of 24×24 and 36×36 nodes along each face (of uniform side equal to 19.5 cm and
111 29.75 cm, to avoid boundary effects) of the Berea and the Topopah blocks, respectively. Four
112 measurement campaigns are conducted, each characterized by the use of a MSP with a tip-seal of
113 inner radius r_i ($i = 1, 2, 3, 4$) = (0.15, 0.31, 0.63, 1.27) cm and outer radius $2r_i$ (interested readers can
114 find additional details about the MSP design and functioning in Tidwell and Wilson, 1997). While
115 the precise nature and size of the support/measurement scale associated with a MSP is still under
116 study for heterogeneous media (e.g., Goggin et al., 1988; Molz et al., 2003; Tartakovsky et al., 2000),
117 hereafter we denote data associated with a given support/measurement scale by referring these to the
118 associated value of r_i . The ensuing dataset is then composed by 3456 and 6480 data points for each
119 measurement scale, r_i , for the Berea and the Topopah block, respectively (we exclude data for one
120 of the faces of the Topopah block, due to some anomalies with respect to the other faces). We consider
121 here the quantity $Y_{r_i} = \ln(k_{r_i} / \bar{k}_{r_i})$, i.e., the natural logarithm of the air permeability normalized by the
122 mean value (i.e., \bar{k}_{r_i}) of the data of the corresponding sample.

123 The two types of rocks analyzed display distinct features. The Berea sample may be classified
124 as a very fine-grained, well-sorted quartz sandstone. Following Tidwell and Wilson (1999a), visual
125 inspection of the spatial distributions of Y_{r_i} (see, e.g., Figure 1) shows that the Berea sample exhibits
126 a generally uniform spatial organization of permeabilities, devoid of particular features, with the
127 exception of a mild stratification, thus allowing to consider this sample as a fairly homogenous
128 system. Otherwise, the Topopah rock sample clearly exhibits a heterogenous structure whereas
129 pumice fragments ($\sim 23\%$ of the sample) are embedded in the surrounding matrix (see Figure 1). In
130 general, the pumice is characterized by higher permeability values than the surrounding matrix. As

131 such, the Topopah sample can be considered as a fairly heterogenous system, with a tendency to
132 display a bimodal distribution of permeability values (see also Section 4.2). In this sense, the two
133 rock samples analyzed provide two clearly distinct scenarios for the analysis of the interplay of the
134 information contained in datasets collected at diverse measurement scales.

135 We note that the IT elements described in Section 3 refer to discrete variables. **While**
136 **corresponding definitions are available also for continuous variables (i.e., summation(s) and**
137 **probability mass function(s) are replaced by integral(s) and probability density function(s),**
138 **respectively), these are characterized by a less intuitive and immediate interpretation (e.g., Entropy**
139 **could be negative, infinite or could not be evaluated in case of probability density function(s)**
140 **involving a Dirac's delta; see, e.g., Kaiser and Schreiber, 2002; Cover and Thomas, 2006). Moreover,**
141 **in case the probability density functions of the analyzed continuous variables cannot be associated**
142 **with an analytical expression, it is necessary to subject these variables to quantization and the IT**
143 **metrics related to the continuous variables are estimated through their quantized counterparts (see**
144 **Cover and Thomas, 2006). In general, the quality of these estimates increases (in a way which**
145 **depends on the specific metric) with the level of quantization of the continuous variables (see, e.g.,**
146 **Kaiser and Schreiber, 2002). This leads us to treat Y_{r_i} as a discrete variable, a modeling choice which**
147 **is consistent with several previous studies (see, e.g., Ruddell and Kumar, 2009; Goodwell et al., 2017;**
148 **Nearing et al., 2018 and references therein).**

149 3. Methodology

150 3.1 Information Theory

151 Considering a discrete random variable, X , one can quantify the associated uncertainty through
152 the Shannon entropy

$$153 H(X) = \sum_{i=1}^N p_i \log_2(p_i^{-1}) \quad (1)$$

154 where N is the number of bins used to analyze the outcomes of X ; and p_i is the probability mass
155 function and $\ln(p_i^{-1})$ is the (so-called) Information (or degree of surprise) associated with the i -th
156 bin (see, e.g., Shannon, 1948). **We employ base two logarithms in (1), thus leading to *bits* as unit of**
157 **measure for entropy and for the IT metrics we describe in the following. While other choices (relying,**
158 **e.g., on the natural logarithm) are admissible, the nature and meaning of the metrics we illustrate**
159 **remain unaffected.** The Shannon entropy can be interpreted as a measure of the uncertainty associated
160 with X , i.e., $H(X)$ is largest and equal to $\log_2(N)$ in case p_i is uniform across all bins (i.e., $p_i = 1/N$
161), while it is zero when outcomes of X reside only within a single bin. **Moreover, one can note that**
162 **Shannon entropy in (1) is directly linked to the average number of binary questions (i.e., questions**
163 **with a *yes* or *no* answer) one needs to ask to infer the state in which X is.** In our study, samples drawn
164 from the population of the random variable X are identified with values Y_{r_i} and Shannon entropy can
165 also be interpreted as a measure of the degree of heterogeneity of the system. In this sense, considering
166 a support scale r_i , if the collected data (which are spatially distributed over the system) would cluster
167 into one (or only a few) bin(s), one could interpret the system as homogeneous (or nearly
168 homogeneous) at such a scale.

169 The information content shared by two random variables, i.e., X_1 and X_2 , is termed bivariate
170 mutual information and is defined as

$$171 \quad I(X_1; X_2) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^M p_{i,j} \ln \left(\frac{p_{i,j}}{p_i p_j} \right) \quad (2)$$

172 where N and M represent the number of bins associated with X_1 and X_2 , respectively; p_i and p_j
 173 are marginal probability mass functions associated with X_1 and X_2 , respectively; and $p_{i,j}$ is the joint
 174 probability mass function of X_1 and X_2 . The bivariate mutual information measures the average
 175 reduction in the uncertainty (as quantified through the Shannon entropy) about one random variable
 176 that one can obtain by knowledge on the other variable (Gong et al., 2013 and references therein). As
 177 such, the bivariate mutual information (a) vanishes for two independent variables and (b) coincides
 178 with the entropy of either of the two variables when one variable fully explains the other one, i.e.,
 179 $H(X_2) = H(X_1) = I(X_1; X_2)$. In light of the latter observations, it is clear that the bivariate mutual
 180 information can be also interpreted as a measure of the degree of dependence between X_1 and X_2 .

181 When considering three discrete random variables, it is possible to quantify the amount of
 182 information that two of these (termed as sources, i.e., X_{S_1} and X_{S_2}) share with the third one (termed
 183 as target variable, i.e., X_T) upon evaluating the following multivariate mutual information

$$184 \quad I(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^M \sum_{k=1}^W p_{i,j,k} \ln \left(\frac{p_{i,j,k}}{p_{i,j} p_k} \right) \quad (3)$$

185 Here, N , M , and W represent the number of bins associated with X_{S_1} , X_{S_2} and X_T , respectively;
 186 p_k is the probability mass function of X_T ; $p_{i,j}$ is the joint probability mass function of X_{S_1} and X_{S_2}
 187 ; and $p_{i,j,k}$ is the joint probability mass function of X_{S_1} , X_{S_2} , and X_T . Relying on the partial
 188 information decomposition or information partitioning (Williams and Beer, 2010;), the multivariate
 189 mutual information in (3) can be partitioned into unique, redundant, and synergetic contributions, i.e.,

$$190 \quad I(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) = U(X_{S_1}; X_T) + U(X_{S_2}; X_T) + R(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) + S(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) \quad (4)$$

191 Here, $U(X_{S_1}; X_T)$ and $U(X_{S_2}; X_T)$ represent the amount of information that is uniquely provided to
 192 the target X_T by X_{S_1} and X_{S_2} , respectively (i.e., the information $U(X_{S_1}; X_T)$ cannot be provided to
 193 X_T by knowledge on X_{S_2} , a corresponding observation holding for $U(X_{S_2}; X_T)$); the redundant
 194 contribution $R(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)$ is the information that both source variables provide to the target (i.e.,
 195 it is the amount of information transferable to X_T that is contained in both X_{S_1} and X_{S_2}); and the
 196 synergetic contribution $S(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)$ is the information about X_T that knowledge on X_{S_1} and X_{S_2}
 197 brings in a synergic way. Note that the latter contribution corresponds to the amount of information
 198 that (possibly) emerges by simultaneous knowledge of the two sources and through an analysis of
 199 their joint relationship with X_T , i.e., it would not appear by knowing both X_{S_1} and X_{S_2} while
 200 analyzing their individual relationship with X_T separately. All components in (4) are positive
 201 (Williams and Beer, 2010). Figure 2 provides a graphical depiction in terms of Venn diagrams of the
 202 above information components in a system characterized by two sources and a target variable.

203 The bivariate mutual information shared by the target and each source can be written as

$$\begin{aligned}
I(X_{S_1}; X_T) &= U(X_{S_1}; X_T) + R(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) \\
I(X_{S_2}; X_T) &= U(X_{S_2}; X_T) + R(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)
\end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

Note that (5) reflects the nature of the information that is shared by the target and each of the sources, when these are taken separately, i.e., no synergy can be detected here. We also remark that one should expect the emergence of some redundancy of information when the two sources are correlated.

An additional element of relevance for the aim of our study is the interaction information

$$\begin{aligned}
I(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) &= I(X_{S_1}; X_T | X_{S_2}) - I(X_{S_1}; X_T) = \\
&= I(X_{S_2}; X_T | X_{S_1}) - I(X_{S_2}; X_T)
\end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

Here, $I(X_{S_i}; X_T | X_{S_j})$ is the bivariate mutual information shared by source X_{S_i} ($i=1, 2$) and the target, conditional to the knowledge of source X_{S_j} ($j=2, 1$). Note that $I(X_{S_i}; X_T | X_{S_j})$ can be evaluated in a way similar to (2) upon relying on the conditional probability for X_T . Williams and Beer (2011) show that

$$I(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) = S(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) - R(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) \tag{7}$$

According to (7), the bivariate interaction information could be either positive, i.e., when synergetic interactions prevail over redundant contribution, or negative, i.e., when the degree of redundancy overcomes the synergetic effects.

Inspection of (4)-(7) reveals that an additional equation is required to evaluate all components in (4). Various strategies have been proposed in this context (e.g., Williams and Beer, 2010; Harder et al., 2013; Bertschinger et al., 2014; Griffith and Koch, 2014; Olbrich et al., 2015; Griffith and Ho, 2015). We rest here on the recent partitioning strategy formalized by Goodwell and Kumar (2017), due to its capability of accounting for the (possible) dependences between sources when evaluating the unique and redundant contributions. The rationale underpinning this strategy is that (i) each of the two sources can provide a unique contribution of information to the target even as these are correlated, and (ii) redundancy should be lowest in case of independent sources. The redundant contribution can then be evaluated as (Goodwell and Kumar, 2017)

$$R(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) = R_{\min}(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) + I_s(R_{MMI}(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) - R_{\min}(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)) \tag{8a}$$

with

$$\begin{aligned}
R_{\min}(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) &= \max(0, -I(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)); \\
R_{MMI}(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) &= \min(I(X_{S_2}; X_T), I(X_{S_1}; X_T)); \\
I_s &= \frac{I(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2})}{\min(H(X_{S_1}), H(X_{S_2}))};
\end{aligned} \tag{8b}$$

Goodwell and Kumar (2017) termed (8) as a rescaled measure of redundancy whereas (a) $R_{\min}(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)$ represents the lowest bound for redundancy, which is set on the basis of the rationale that the minimum value of redundancy must at least be equal to $-I(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)$ in case $I(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) < 0$ (thus also ensuring positiveness of the synergy; see (7)); (b) $R_{MMI}(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)$ is an upper bound, consistent with the rationale that all information from the weakest source is redundant; and (c) I_s accounts for the degree of dependence between the sources, i.e., $I_s = 0$ and

236 $R(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T) = R_{\min}(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)$ for independent sources, while $I_s = 1$ and redundancy in (8)
237 attains its upper limit value, $R_{MMI}(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)$, in case of a *complete* dependency (i.e.,
238 $X_{S_1} = f(X_{S_2})$ or vice versa) between the sources. Once the redundancy has been evaluated, all of the
239 other components in (4) can be determined.

240 We emphasize that, despite some additional complexities, analyzing the partitioning of the
241 multivariate mutual information provides valuable insights on the way information is shared across
242 three variables, these being here permeability data associated with three diverse support scales. In
243 summary, addressing information partitioning enables us to (i) quantify and (ii) characterize the
244 nature of the information that two variables (sources) provide to a third one (target) as a *whole*, i.e.,
245 considering the entire triplet. Doing so overcomes the limitation of depicting the system as a simple
246 *sum of parts*, as based on solely inspecting the corresponding pairwise bivariate mutual information,
247 which allows quantifying just the amount of information that pairs of variables (i.e., the first source
248 and the target; and the second source and the target) share (without being able to define redundant or
249 unique contributions, see Eq. (9)). In the context of our work, this implies that information
250 partitioning enables us to characterize the nature of the information that permeability data collected
251 at two support scales provide to /share with permeability data taken at a third one.

252 3.2 Implementation Aspects

253 Evaluation of the quantities introduced in Section 3.1 is accomplished according to three main
254 steps. We employ the Kernel Density Estimator (KDE) routines in Matlab2018© to estimate the
255 continuous counterparts of the probability mass functions p_i , p_j , $p_{i,j}$, and $p_{i,j,k}$ and assess the
256 associated probability density functions, i.e., *pdfs*. This step enables us to smooth and regularize the
257 available finite datasets. We then discretize the ensuing *pdfs* to evaluate the associated probability
258 mass functions. Note that this two-step procedure allows us to obtain results that are more stable (with
259 respect to the number of bins employed) than those that one could obtain upon discretizing directly
260 the available finite datasets. As a final step, we evaluate the metrics detailed in Section 3 by treating
261 separately the multi-scale measurements on each face and then averaging the ensuing face-related
262 results for each of the two rock samples. The benefit of resting on this approach is especially critical
263 when considering the Topopah rock, whereas pooling the data of all faces as a unique sample hindered
264 the emergence of the bimodal behavior (i.e., the permeability values corresponding to the peaks of
265 the bimodal distributions are slightly different depending on the face considered and the joint
266 treatment of the data from all faces yielded a nearly unimodal distribution). We employ a binning
267 scheme corresponding to a uniform discretization of the range delimited by the lowest and largest
268 values detected considering all datasets associated with both rocks (i.e., we employ the same specific
269 binning for the Berea and the Topopah rock samples to assist quantitative comparison of the results).
270 We observe that within an IT approach the selection of a bin size is an a priori choice (see, e.g., Gong
271 et al., 2014; Loritz et al., 2018) the influence of which should be properly assessed (see Section 4 and
272 Supplementary Material). We inspect how the IT metrics described in Section 2 vary as a function
273 of (i) the number of bins (i.e., we consider a number of 50, 75, 100, and 125 bins for the discretization
274 of the range of data variability) and (ii) the size of the kernel bandwidth (which is varied within the
275 range 0.1 - 0.4) employed in the KDE routine (see Supplementary Material, Figures SM1-3, for
276 additional details). This analysis highlights a weak dependence of the values of the investigate IT
277 metrics on the number of bins and on the size of the bandwidth employed in the Kernel Density
278 Estimator (KDE) procedure, the overall patterns of these metrics remaining substantially unaffected.

279 This leads us to use 100 bins and a kernel bandwidth equal to 0.3. Note that we consistently employ
280 this binning for the evaluation of all metrics introduced in Section 2.

281 We remark that the bivariate and multivariate mutual information metrics are evaluated by
282 focusing on the joint probability mass function grounded on the multi-scale data collected at the same
283 location on the sampling grids.

284 4. Results

285 Figure 3 depicts the probability mass function $p(Y_{r_i})$ for $i = 1$ (r_1 ; black symbols), 2 (r_2 ; red
286 symbols), 3 (r_3 ; blue symbols), and 4 (r_4 ; green symbols) for the (a) Berea and (b) the Topopah rock
287 samples. For both rocks the $p(Y_{r_i})$ associated with only one face is depicted (similar patterns are
288 noted for all of the remaining faces). Figure 3c depicts the Shannon entropy $H(Y_{r_i})$ as a function of
289 the MSP support scale r_i for the Berea (diamonds) and the Topopah (circles) samples. Figure 3d
290 depicts the bivariate mutual information between data collected at two distinct support scales. This
291 metric is normalized by the entropy of the data associated with the smaller support scale, i.e.,
292 $I^*(Y_{r_i}; Y_{r_j}) = I(Y_{r_i}; Y_{r_j}) / H(Y_{r_i})$ with $j > i$, for $i = 1$ (blue diamonds) and 2 (green diamonds), results for
293 the Berea (diamonds) and the Topopah (circles) samples are reported.

294 Inspection of Figure 3a-b reveals that distributions related to increasing values of r_i tend not to
295 encompass extreme values (in particular the low ones) of Y . This observation supports the fact that
296 increasing r_i favors a homogenization of the permeability values and suggests that the response of
297 the MSP tends to be only weakly sensitive to the less permeable portions of the rock that are
298 encompassed within a given measurement scale. As a consequence, the $p(Y_{r_i})$ associated with
299 increasing r_i are characterized by a reduced number of populated bins, this feature being in turn
300 reflected in the observed reduction of $H(Y_{r_i})$ with increasing r_i (Figure 3c) for both rock samples.
301 This result can be interpreted as a signature (see also the discussion about (1) in Section 3.1) of the
302 effect of increasing r_i , which yields a decrease of (i) the uncertainty about the spatial distribution of
303 the values of Y_{r_i} and (ii) the ability of capturing the degree of spatial heterogeneity of Y . Note that
304 Figure 3c suggests that the value of $H(Y_{r_i})$, given r_i , associated with the Topopah sample is always
305 higher than its counterpart associated with the Berea rock. This outcome is consistent with the higher
306 heterogeneity displayed by the former sample, where the spatial distribution of Y_{r_i} is affected by an
307 increased level of uncertainty as compared to its Berea-based counterpart.

308 Otherwise, two distinct behaviors emerge with regard to the location of the peak(s) of the
309 distributions: (i) the location of the peak of the distributions is virtually insensitive to r_i for the Berea;
310 while (ii) the two peaks of the bimodal distributions of the Topopah sample display a clear tendency
311 to migrate towards higher permeability values as r_i increases. These observations are consistent with
312 the homogeneous nature of the Berea and the two-material (pumice and matrix being high and low
313 permeable, respectively) type of heterogeneity displayed by the Topopah sample. It is also in line
314 with the previously noted weak sensitivity of the MSP measurements to region of low permeability.
315 With reference to the Berea sample, if a measurement taken at a given location with a small r_i is close
316 to the average value (i.e., Y_{r_i} is close to zero in our setting), it is likely that the same behavior is

317 observed also for larger r_i due to the homogeneity of the sample. Otherwise, in the case of the
 318 Topopah sample there are more chances that increasing r_i (hence involving larger volumes of the
 319 rock) yields a shift of the ensuing measurements toward higher values.

320 Inspection of Figure 3d reveals that, given a reference support scale r_i , the mutual information
 321 shared with measurements taken at larger support scales r_j decreases with increasing r_j for both
 322 rock samples. In other words, the representativeness for system characterization of the sets of data
 323 associated with increasingly coarse support scale diminishes, as compared to the data collected at the
 324 given reference scale. At the same time, we note that the way in which $I^*(Y_{r_i}; Y_{r_j})$ decreases with r_j
 325 is very similar for (i) the two analyzed reference support scales, i.e., r_1 and r_2 , and (ii) for the two
 326 considered rock types. We interpret this result as a sign of (at least qualitative) consistency in the way
 327 information is shared between datasets of measurements associated with increasing size of r_i , despite
 328 the different geological nature of the two types of samples analyzed. Otherwise, Figure 3d indicates
 329 that the (normalized) mutual information $I^*(Y_{r_i}; Y_{r_j})$ is always lower in the Topopah than in the Berea
 330 system. This result provides a quantification of the qualitative observation that there is an overall
 331 decrease of the representativeness of the datasets associated with increasing data support (with respect
 332 to data collected with smaller r_i) as the system heterogeneity becomes stronger.

333 Figure 4 depicts the results of the information partitioning procedure detailed in Section 2.3
 334 considering the Berea sample and two triplets of datasets $(Y_{r_{i+1}}, Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i})$, with $r_i =$ (a) r_1 and (b) r_2 .
 335 Corresponding results for the Topopah sample are depicted in (c) for $r_i = r_1$ and (d) for $r_i = r_2$. For

336 ease of comparison between the results, we normalize the unique, synergetic and redundant
 337 contributions in (4) by the multivariate mutual information of the corresponding triplet, e.g.,

$$338 \quad U^*(Y_{r_{i+1}}; Y_{r_i}) = U(Y_{r_{i+1}}; Y_{r_i}) / I(Y_{r_{i+1}}, Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i}), \quad U^*(Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i}) = U(Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i}) / I(Y_{r_{i+1}}, Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i});$$

$$339 \quad R^*(Y_{r_{i+1}}, Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i}) = R(Y_{r_{i+1}}, Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i}) / I(Y_{r_{i+1}}, Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i}), \quad S^*(Y_{r_{i+1}}, Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i}) = S(Y_{r_{i+1}}, Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i}) / I(Y_{r_{i+1}}, Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i}).$$

340 Results in Figure 4a-b suggest that for the Berea sample: (i) most of the multivariate information is
 341 redundant, a finding that can be linked to the dependence detected between the sets of data associated
 342 with the two coarser support scales (see, e.g., Figure 3d); (ii) the synergetic information is practically
 343 zero for both triplets considered, i.e., the simultaneous knowledge of the system at two coarser scales
 344 does not provide any additional information; (iii) data associated with the middle (in the triplets)
 345 support scale provides a non-negligible unique information content, the latter being less pronounced
 346 for the data referring to the most coarse support (in the triples). These results (i.e., high redundancy
 347 and high/low uniqueness for the middle/largest support scale) suggest that, considering the depiction
 348 of the system rendered at the finest support scale, the information provided by the investigations at
 349 the coarsest support scale is mostly contained by the information provided by the data collected at the
 350 intermediate scale. This element suggests a nested nature of the information linked to data collected
 351 at progressively increasing scales with respect to the information contained in the data associated
 352 with the smallest support scale. This finding can be linked to the homogeneous nature of the Berea
 353 sample, whereas the characterization at diverse scales does not change dramatically (e.g., note the
 354 similarities in the spatial patterns of Y_{r_i} in Figure 1 for the Berea sample as a function of r_i), thus
 355 promoting (a) the redundancy of information associated with measurements at the intermediate and
 356 larger scales and (b) the uniqueness of information revealed for the intermediate scale.

357 Otherwise, inspection of Figure 4c-d reveals that for the Topopah rock sample: (i) most of the
358 multivariate information coincides with the unique information associated with the intermediate
359 scale; (ii) the redundant and unique contribution associated with the largest scale are still non-
360 negligible, yet being substantially smaller than the uniqueness contribution provided by the
361 intermediate scale; (iii) there is practically no synergetic information. This set of results descends
362 from the moderate or marked discrepancies displayed by Y_{r_i} data as r_i increases by one or two sizes,
363 respectively (e.g., see the faces depicted in Figure 1 for the Topopah sample). In other words, relying
364 on a device such as the MSP to obtain permeability data enables sampling a volume of the rock
365 according to which the majority of the multivariate information in a triplet is associated with a
366 significant unique contribution of the intermediate scale, the information related to the largest scale
367 still being weakly unique and weakly redundant.

368

5. Discussion

369 We recall that the focus of the present study is the quantification of the information content and
370 information shared between pairs and triplets of datasets of air permeability observations associated
371 with diverse sizes of the measurement/support scale. We exemplify our analysis upon relying on data
372 collected across two different types of rocks, i.e., a Berea and a Topopah sample, that are
373 characterized by different degrees of heterogeneity.

374 These datasets (or part of these) have been considered in some prior studies. Tidwell and Wilson
375 (1999a, b) and Lowry and Tidwell (2005) assess the impact of the size of the support/measurement
376 scale on key summary one-point (i.e., mean and variance) and two-points (i.e., variogram) statistics
377 within the context of classical geostatistical methods and evaluate kriging-based estimates of the
378 underlying random fields. Siena et al. (2012) and Riva et al. (2013) analyze the scaling behavior of
379 the main statistics of the log permeability data and of their increments (i.e., sample structure functions
380 of various orders), with emphasis on the assessment of power-law scaling behavior. On these bases,
381 Riva et al. (2013) conclude that the data related to the Berea sample can be interpreted as observations
382 from a sub-Gaussian random field subordinated to truncated fractional Brownian motion or Gaussian
383 noise. All of these studies focus on (a) the geostatistical interpretation of the behavior displayed by
384 the probability density function (and key moments) of the data and their spatial increments and (b)
385 the analysis of the skill of selected models to interpret the observed behavior of the main statistical
386 descriptors evaluated upon considering separately data associated with diverse measurement/support
387 scale. Furthermore, Tidwell and Wilson (2002) analyzed the Berea and Topopah datasets (considering
388 separately data characterized by diverse support scales) to assess possible correspondences between
389 the permeability field and some attributes of the rock samples determined visually through digital
390 imaging and conclude that image analysis can assist delineation of spatial patterns of permeability.

391 We remark that in all of the studies mentioned above the datasets associated with a given
392 support (or measurement) scale are analyzed separately. Otherwise, we leverage on elements of IT,
393 which allow a unique opportunity to circumvent limitations of linear metrics (e.g., Pearson
394 correlation) and analyze the relationships (in terms of shared amount of information) between pairs
395 (i.e., bivariate mutual information) or triplets (i.e., multivariate mutual information) of variables. We
396 also note that, even as visual inspection of $p(Y_{r_i})$ associated with diverse sizes of the support scale r_i
397 (see Figure 3a and Figure 3b for the Berea and Topopah, respectively) can show that these probability
398 densities can be intuitively linked to the documented decrease of the corresponding Shannon entropies
399 with increasing r_i (see Figure 3c and Section 4), it would be hard to readily infer from such a visual
400 comparative inspection the behavior of the bivariate (see Figure 3d) and multivariate (see Figure 4)

- 446 4. Results of the information partitioning of the multivariate mutual information shared by
447 permeability data collected at three increasing support scales for the Berea sandstone sample
448 exhibit a marked level of redundancy and high/low uniqueness for the data collected at the
449 intermediate/coarser scale in the triplets with respect to the data associated with the finest
450 scale. This result can be linked to the fairly homogeneous nature of the sample, that is also
451 reflected in the moderate variation of the observed (normalized) gas permeability values with
452 increasing size of the support scale.
- 453 5. Information partitioning for the Topopah tuff sample indicates the occurrence of a still
454 significant amount of unique information associated with the data collected at the
455 intermediate scale, while the redundant portion and the unique contribution linked to the
456 largest scale in a triplet are clearly diminished. This result descends from the heterogeneous
457 structure of the Topopah porous system, where the recorded (normalized) gas permeabilities
458 display moderate or marked discrepancies as r_i increases by one or two sizes, respectively.
- 459 6. For both rock samples considered, the simultaneous knowledge of permeability data taken at
460 the intermediate and coarser support scales in a triplet does not provide significant additional
461 information with respect to that already contained in the data taken at the fine scale, i.e., the
462 synergic contribution in the resulting datasets is virtually zero.

463 Given the nature of the approach we employ, the latter is potentially amenable to be transferred to
464 analyze settings involving other kinds of datasets associated with diverse hydrogeological quantities
465 (including, e.g., porosity or sorption/desorption parameters) or considering measurement/sampling
466 devices of a diverse design. Future developments could also include exploring the possibility of
467 embedding the approach within the workflow of optimal experimental design and/or data-worth
468 analysis strategies.

469 **Data Availability**

470 Data employed were graciously provided by Tidwell, V.C., and are available online
471 (<https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/ygcgv32nw5/1>).

472 **Author contributions**

473 The methodology was developed by AD, supervised by and discussed with AG and MR. All codes
474 were developed by AD. The manuscript was drafted by AD. Structure, narrative and language of the
475 manuscript were revised and significantly improved by AG and MR.

476 **Competing interests**

477 The authors declare to have no competing interests.

478

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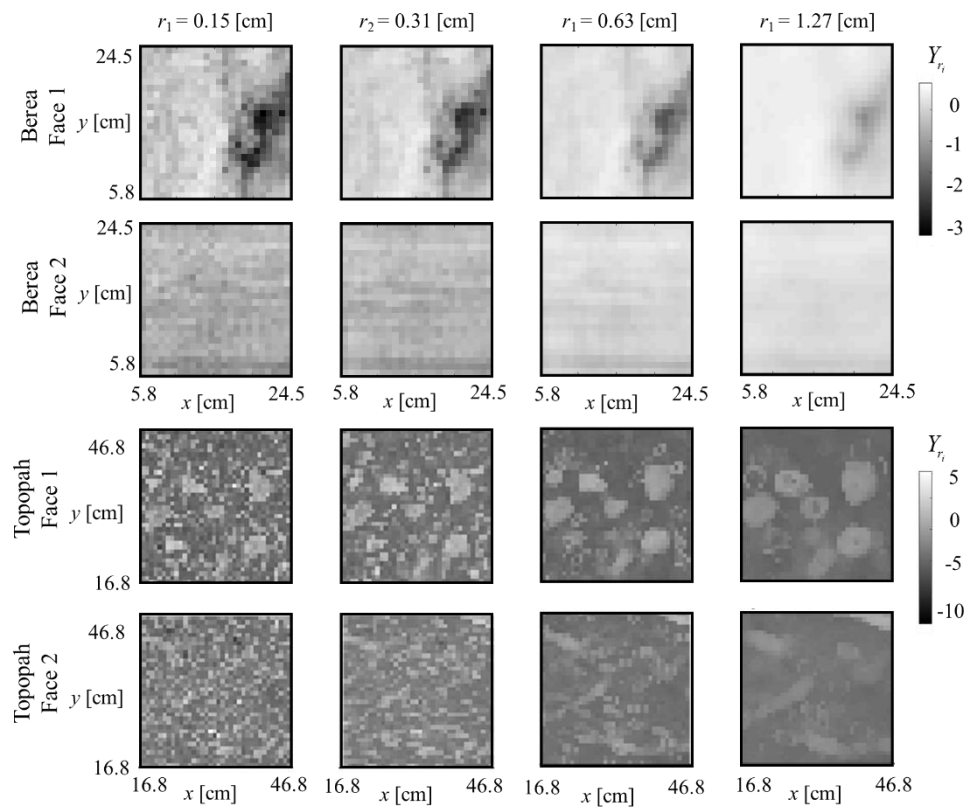
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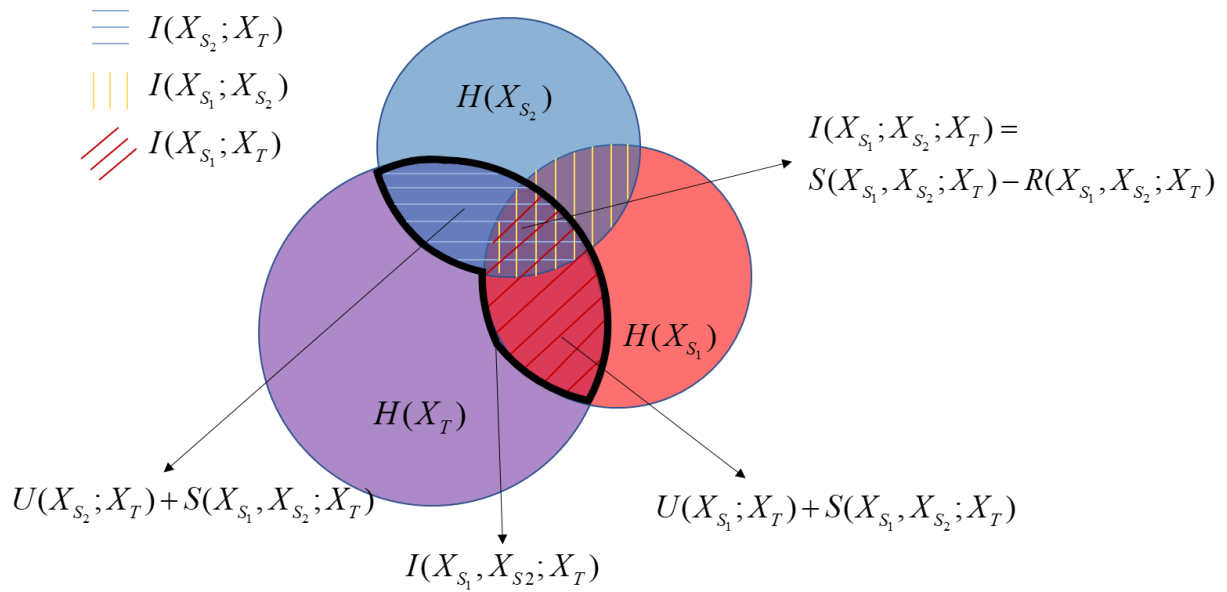
740 **Figures**



741

742 Figure 1. Examples of spatial distributions of the natural logarithm of normalized gas permeability,
 743 Y_r , for two faces of a cubic block of Berea Sandstone (first and second rows) and Topopah Spring
 744 Tuff (third and fourth rows) taken with four increasing support scales (columns, left to right).

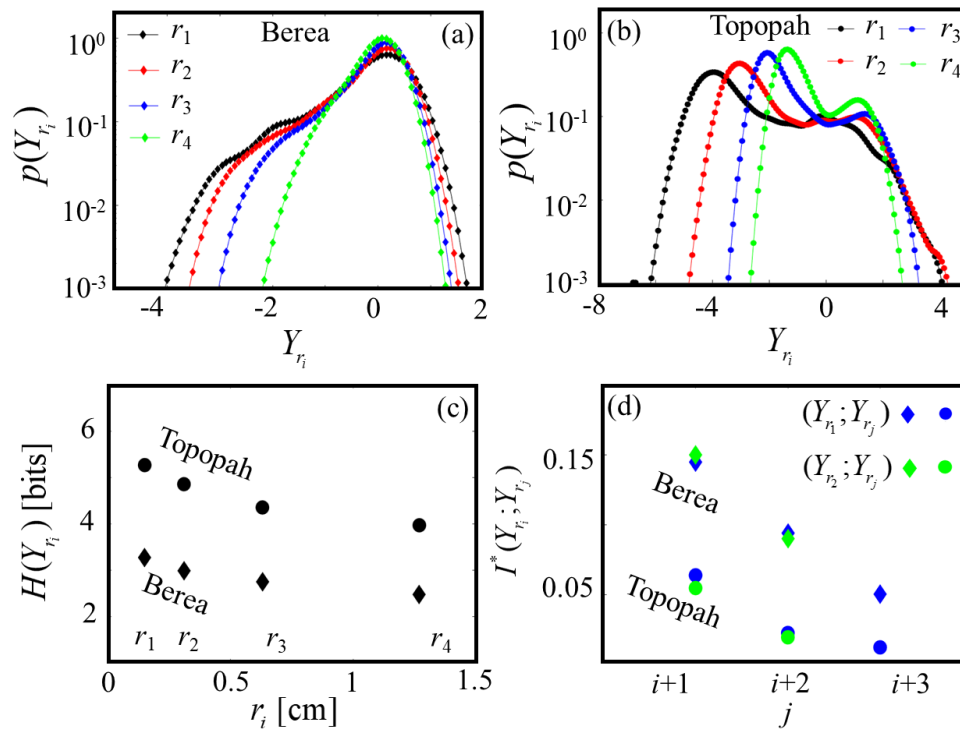
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747 Figure 2. Venn diagram representation of the Information Theory concepts considering two sources,
 748 i.e., X_{S_1} and X_{S_2} , and a target variable, X_T . Areas of the circles are proportional to Shannon entropy
 749 (i.e., $H(X_{S_1})$, $H(X_{S_2})$ and $H(X_T)$); overlaps of pairs of circles reflect bivariate mutual information
 750 (i.e., $I(X_{S_1}; X_T)$, $I(X_{S_2}; X_T)$, and $I(X_{S_1}; X_{S_2})$); and the strength of the multivariate mutual
 751 information (i.e., $I(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)$) corresponds to the region delimited by the thick black curve.
 752 Unique (i.e., $U(X_{S_1}; X_T)$ and $U(X_{S_2}; X_T)$), synergetic (i.e., $S(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)$), and redundant (i.e.,
 753 $R(X_{S_1}, X_{S_2}; X_T)$) components are also highlighted, as well as the interaction information (i.e.,
 754 $I(X_{S_1}; X_{S_2}; X_T)$).

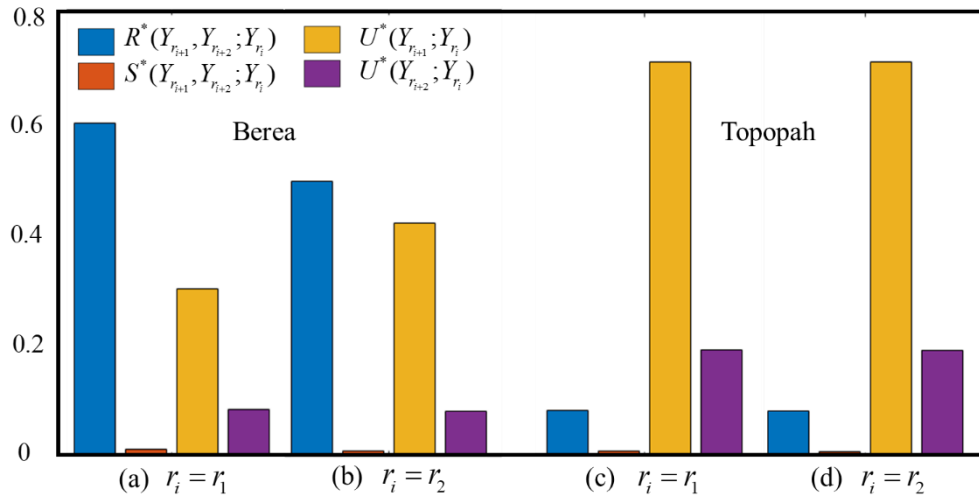
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758 Figure 3. Probability mass function of the logarithm of normalized gas permeability, $p(Y_{r_i})$, for
 759 various support scale, r_i ($i = 1$ (black), 2 (red), 3 (blue), 4 (green)) for (a) the Berea and (b) the
 760 Topopah samples; (c) Shannon entropy $H(Y_{r_i})$ versus r_i for the Topopah (circles) and the Berea
 761 (diamonds) samples; (d) bivariate normalized mutual information $I(Y_{r_i}; Y_{r_j})^* = I(Y_{r_i}; Y_{r_j}) / H(Y_{r_i})$
 762 between data at a reference support scale, Y_{r_i} , and data at larger support scales, Y_{r_j} , for $i = 1$ (blue
 763 symbols), 2 (green symbols), considering the Berea (diamonds) and the Topopah (circles) rock
 764 samples.

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766

767 Figure 4. Information Partitioning of the multivariate mutual information, $I(Y_{r_{i+1}}, Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i})$, considering
 768 two triplets of data and $r_i =$ (a) r_1 and (b) r_2 for the Berea sample and $r_i =$ (c) r_1 and (d) r_2 for the
 769 Topopah sample. For ease of comparison, we show the redundant, unique, and synergetic,
 770 contributions normalized by $I(Y_{r_{i+1}}, Y_{r_{i+2}}; Y_{r_i})$.