# Scaling Analysis of Two-Phase Flow in Fractal Permeability Fields

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# Abstract

Fluid mixing in permeable media is essential in many practical applications. The mixing process is a consequence of velocity fluctuations owing to geological heterogeneities and mobility contrast of fluids. Heterogeneities in natural rocks are often spatially correlated, and their properties, such as permeability, may be described using fractal distributions. This work models the fractal characteristics of such permeability fields in which the covariance function is expressed as a power-law function. A generalized scaling relation is derived relating various fractal permeability fields using the magnitude of their fluctuations. This relation reveals the self-similar behavior of two-phase flow in such permeable media. To that end, a recently developed, high-resolution numerical simulator is employed to validate the analytically derived scaling relations. Two flow problems are considered in which flow is governed by 1) a linear, and 2) a nonlinear transport equation. Due to the probabilistic representation of the fractal permeability fields, a sensitivity study is conducted for each flow scenario to determine the number of realizations required for statistical convergence. Scaling analysis is performed using ensemble averages of simulated saturation profiles and their mixing lengths. Results support the validity of the developed scaling relation across the range of investigated flow conditions at intermediate times. The dynamics of linear flow in the asymptotic regime is affected by the correlation structure of heterogeneity. In nonlinear flow, scaling behavior appears to be dominated by the degree of nonlinearity.

# Scaling Analysis of Two-Phase Flow in Fractal Permeability Fields

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# Key Points:

8	• A generalized analytical scaling relation is derived for two-phase flow in perme-
9	able media subject to self-similar heterogeneity.
10	• Numerical results from a high-resolution simulator agree with predictions of the
11	derived scaling relation.
12	• Nonlinear flows scale with the degree of nonlinearity in the asymptotic regime.

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## 14 Abstract

Fluid mixing in permeable media is essential in many practical applications. The mixing 15 process is a consequence of velocity fluctuations owing to geological heterogeneities and 16 mobility contrast of fluids. Heterogeneities in natural rocks are often spatially correlated, 17 and their properties, such as permeability, may be described using fractal distributions. This 18 work models the fractal characteristics of such permeability fields in which the covariance 19 function is expressed as a power-law function. A generalized scaling relation is derived 20 relating various fractal permeability fields using the magnitude of their fluctuations. This 21 relation reveals the self-similar behavior of two-phase flow in such permeable media. To 22 that end, a recently developed, high-resolution numerical simulator is employed to validate 23 the analytically derived scaling relations. Two flow problems are considered in which flow 24 is governed by 1) a linear, and 2) a nonlinear transport equation. Due to the probabilistic 25 representation of the fractal permeability fields, a sensitivity study is conducted for each 26 flow scenario to determine the number of realizations required for statistical convergence. 27 Scaling analysis is performed using ensemble averages of simulated saturation profiles and 28 their mixing lengths. Results support the validity of the developed scaling relation across 29 the range of investigated flow conditions at intermediate times. The dynamics of linear 30 flow in the asymptotic regime is affected by the correlation structure of heterogeneity. In 31 nonlinear flow, scaling behavior appears to be dominated by the degree of nonlinearity. 32

#### 33

# Plain Language Summary

Multiphase flow in subsurface permeable media plays a fundamental role in many nat-34 ural and engineering processes, such as remediation of contaminated aquifers, geological 35 carbon storage, and petroleum reservoir engineering. In all these instances, variability of 36 the media's properties and contrasts of density and viscosity of the flowing phases may 37 lead to significant velocity fluctuation at the pore-scale and mixing of the fluids at the 38 macroscale. Optimal design and exploitation of these subsurface resources require accurate 39 and predictive macroscale descriptions of the flow processes. This work investigates the im-40 pact of spatial heterogeneity on flow characteristics using a probabilistic description for the 41 permeability field. We demonstrate a relation between flow behaviors in various self-similar 42 fields with a power-law covariance structure. Our findings may help to predict flow behavior 43 in geological formations without the need to conduct full-scale simulations. 44

# 45 1 Introduction

Flow and transport in permeable media in the context of the subsurface is receiving a 46 growing interest due to the wide range of applications that rely on an in-depth understanding 47 of such processes. Natural permeable media consist of matrices of grains interspersed with 48 interconnected pores. To capture the dynamics of subsurface flow, mathematical modeling 49 and numerical simulation play essential roles. Given the availability of information regarding 50 the exact geometry, pore-scale modeling and simulation studies provide a detailed under-51 standing of interactions between fluids and solids in permeable media (Celia et al., 1995; 52 Prodanović & Bryant, 2006; Bijeljic & Blunt, 2006; Liu et al., 2014; Mehmani & Tchelepi, 53 2019). An accurate understanding of physical mechanisms of flow and transport at pore-scale 54 is critical to deriving predictive macroscopic descriptions, which account for disparate length 55 scales and are indispensable in simulating flow in large-scale systems. These mathematical 56 descriptions rely on macroscale variables such as saturation, porosity, and permeability, and 57 they are formulated using conservation laws (LeVeque, 1992). Darcy's law is a macroscale 58 expression of the conservation of momentum for single phase flow at low Reynolds numbers 59 (Hubbert, 1957; Whitaker, 1986; Dullien, 2012). In the case of multiphase flow, Darcy's law 60 is extended by incorporating constitutive relations, i.e., relative permeability and capillary 61 pressure functions (Muskat & Meres, 1936; Wyckoff & Botset, 1936; Leverett, 1941). This 62 work investigates two-phase flow in fully saturated permeable media with significant vis-63 cous forces, such that Darcy-scale continuum models apply (Wilkinson & Willemsen, 1983; 64 Lenormand, 1990; C. Zhang et al., 2011; F. Guo & Aryana, 2019). 65

Macroscopic dispersive mixing induced by fluctuations in the velocity field is of consid-66 erable interest in a number of practical applications involving multiphase flow in permeable 67 media. Examples include remediation of contaminated aquifers, geological carbon storage, 68 and petroleum reservoir engineering (Mercer & Cohen, 1990; Helmig, 1997; Juanes, 2008; 69 B. Guo et al., 2014; Liang et al., 2018; Yuan et al., 2019). In such flows, the growth of 70 the region where the mixing of fluids occurs is driven by spatial heterogeneity in natural 71 geological media, and nonlinearity inherent in the governing equation due to contrast of 72 fluid properties (Hassan et al., 1997; D. Zhang & Tchelepi, 1999; Furtado & Pereira, 2003; 73 Chen & Durlofsky, 2006; Hajibeygi et al., 2012; Heidari & Li, 2014; Christou et al., 2019). 74 This work focuses on the self-similar behavior in mixing due to heterogeneity associated 75 with permeability fields. Permeability distributions in natural permeable media are often 76 observed to be correlated in space, i.e., they exhibit fractal characteristics. Due to difficul-77

ties in complete characterization of their spatial variations, their descriptions often rely on 78 sparse data collected over relatively long distances. A representative description of varia-79 tions across the field may be incorporated in a stochastic manner on the basis of random 80 fields (Hewett & Behrens, 1990; Neuman, 1995; Eggleston & Rojstaczer, 1998; Babadagli, 81 2006; Cushman, 2013; Xue et al., 2019), and the heterogeneity may be quantified through 82 fractal dimension or Hurst exponent (Mandelbrot, 1985; Voss, 1988). As suggested in pre-83 vious studies (Furtado & Pereira, 1998; Borges et al., 2009; Francisco et al., 2014; Daripa 84 & Dutta, 2017), this work adopts the fractal field with a power-law covariance function to 85 characterize permeability fields. 86

The randomness of the permeability field gives rise to fluctuations in fluid velocities. 87 These fluctuations lead to a mixing region between fluids in the vicinity of the displace-88 ment front. The mixing may be characterized by the degree of mixing, which is defined 89 based on the variance of concentration field (Dentz et al., 2011; Jha et al., 2011). Such a 90 method can be applied to quantify the mixing regardless of flow configurations. Previous 91 studies of fluid mixing focus on modeling rectilinear flow through a horizontal cross-section 92 of the permeable media with a line source injection. Under such conditions, the mixing 93 region can be characterized by its extent along the main directions of flow, referred to as 94 the mixing length. The rate of growth of this mixing length has important implications 95 in practical applications. As a result, a major question concerns the growth of the mixing 96 region. Glimm and Sharp (1991) analyzed the relation between the growth of mixing length 97 and the heterogeneity of random (permeability) fields in the case of tracer flow, which is 98 governed by a linear transport equation. The fractal permeability field has a covariance 99 function expressed in the form of a power law with a single exponent. Q. Zhang (1992) 100 generalized the results of Glimm and Sharp (1991) by extending this analysis to a multi-101 fractal system, where the permeability field is characterized with scale-dependent exponents 102 (Harte, 2001). Furtado and Pereira (1998) studied fluid mixing for immiscible two-phase 103 flow in heterogeneous permeable media using numerical simulations. Results of tracer flows 104 agree well with theoretical predictions (Glimm & Sharp, 1991). Moreover, in the case of 105 nonlinear flow, results indicate that the underlying heterogeneities play a major role in de-106 termining transient behavior of the mixing process, and large-time behavior is independent 107 of the strength and correlation structure of heterogeneities. Borges et al. (2009) derived a 108 scaling relation for tracer flow, which is valid for any strength of the underlying self-similar 109 field. Results from Monte Carlo studies show that the mixing lengths from heterogeneous 110

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fields with different strengths collapse to a single curve once they are scaled according to the developed theory. This finding is similar to the results of scaling analysis for miscible displacements reported by Sajjadi and Azaiez (2013). Despite recent advances in understanding the impact of heterogeneity on fluid mixing for miscible or partially miscible flows (Nicolaides et al., 2015; Connolly & Johns, 2016; Amooie et al., 2017; Nijjer et al., 2019), few studies have explored self-similarity of the evolution of mixing for both miscible and immiscible flows in fractal permeability fields.

In this paper, we revisit two-phase flows in heterogeneous permeable media and we 118 focus on flow regimes where viscous forces dominate and overwhelm capillary forces. As a 119 result, the velocity field plays an essential role in driving the mixing process of two-phase 120 flows. A high-resolution numerical scheme is used to solve the governing equations to reduce 121 numerical diffusion and obtain accurate velocity fields. The classical formulation of the gov-122 erning equations is expressed as two partial differential equations (PDE): an elliptic PDE 123 for flow quantities, i.e., velocity and pressure, and a hyperbolic PDE for saturation. Finite 124 difference (FD) methods are often used to discretize the elliptic PDE. Implementation of 125 FD schemes suffers from two major drawbacks. First, an accurate solution of the elliptic 126 PDE may require a fine grid size, which results in a large number of grid cells and high 127 computational cost. Second, the inclusion of constitutive relations gives rise to a system of 128 nonlinear PDEs that requires an implicit iterative scheme to eliminate numerical instabil-129 ity. Spectral methods serve as effective alternatives (D. Gottlieb & Orszag, 1977). In such 130 schemes, solution is written as a sum of certain basis functions, e.g., Fourier series. As a 131 consequence, spatial derivatives of primary variables are computed with high-order of accu-132 racy using a Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). Such a method involves  $\mathcal{O}(N \log N)$  operations 133 for N modes, which is much faster than FD schemes whose number of operations is usually 134 given by  $(\mathcal{O}(N^2))$  (Kutz, 2013). Due to their efficiency and accuracy, spectral methods are 135 commonly used in problems involving miscible/immiscible displacements (Tan & Homsy, 136 1988; Rogerson & Meiburg, 1993; Riaz & Tchelepi, 2006; Yuan & Azaiez, 2014; Wang et al., 137 2018; Wen et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019). 138

In the remainder of this paper, we present the governing equations for two-phase flow, and the computational setup including boundary and initial conditions. We construct scalar permeability fields based on self-similar random fields with a power-law covariance structure. We derive scaling relations for two-phase flow subject to fractal permeability fields analytically. We utilize a spectral method to solve the vorticity stream-function equation,

and a high-order, total variation diminishing (TVD) scheme (Harten, 1983; Sweby, 1984) 144 for spatial discretization of convection flux in the transport equation. Linear transport, e.g., 145 tracer flow, is simulated in heterogeneous permeable media. A statistical convergence study 146 is performed to determine the required number of realizations of the permeability field. 147 Scaling analysis is conducted by applying theoretically derived relations to the results of the 148 numerical simulations in which two values of the scaling exponent are investigated. We then 149 investigate nonlinear transport where the constitutive relation, i.e., relative permeability, is 150 extracted from the literature (Tang & Kovscek, 2011). Two cases are considered regarding 151 the onset of flow instabilities using total shock mobility ratio as its indicator (Berg & Ott, 152 2012). We perform scaling analysis guided by the derived relations using mean saturation 153 profiles and the length of the associated mixing zones. We close with a discussion of results 154 and conclusion. 155

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# 2 Mathematical Model

The Darcy-scale formulation for multiphase flow in permeable media is simplified by assuming incompressible and isothermal conditions with constant porosity  $\phi$ . The governing equations are given by

 $\phi \partial_t S_\alpha + \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{u}_\alpha = q_\alpha, \tag{1}$ 

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$$\boldsymbol{u}_{\alpha} = -\frac{kk_{r\alpha}\left(S_{\alpha}\right)}{\mu_{\alpha}}\nabla P_{\alpha},\tag{2}$$

where the subscript  $\alpha$  denotes the invading ( $\alpha = i$ ) or the resident phase ( $\alpha = r$ ).  $S_{\alpha}$ ,  $u_{\alpha}, q_{\alpha}, k_{r\alpha}, \mu_{\alpha}$ , and  $P_{\alpha}$  denote saturation, Darcy velocity, volumetric flow rate, relative permeability, viscosity, and pressure of phase  $\alpha$ . We consider equations (1) and (2) in a two-dimensional square domain  $\Omega = [0, L] \times [0, L]$  with boundary conditions given by

$$u \cdot n = -U, \text{ on } x = 0,$$

$$P_i = 0, \text{ on } x = L,$$

$$u \cdot n = 0, \text{ on } y = 0, L,$$
(3)

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where n is the unit outward normal vector to  $\partial\Omega$ . The boundary conditions given by (3) simulate a flow predominantly parallel to the x-axis. The invading phase is injected uniformly at the left boundary (x = 0) with constant velocity U, displacing the resident phase initially saturated in  $\Omega$ . The invading phase pressure is assumed to be constant at the outlet (x = L). No-flow boundary conditions are imposed along the horizontal boundaries (y = 0 and y = L). The Riemann initial condition is expressed as

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$$S_{i} = \begin{cases} S_{im}, & \text{if } x < 0, \\ S_{ir}, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

where  $S_{im}$  and  $S_{ir}$  are maximum and irreducible saturation values of the invading phase, respectively.

A spectral numerical method is used to obtain highly accurate velocity fields: flow equations are written in a vorticity stream-function form (Tryggvason & Aref, 1983; Meiburg & Homsy, 1988; Tan & Homsy, 1988; Rogerson & Meiburg, 1993). The following model is used in subsequent numerical experiments:

$$\begin{cases} \nabla^2 \tilde{\psi} = k \lambda_T(S_i) \left( \nabla \left( \frac{1}{k \lambda_T(S_i)} \right) \times \boldsymbol{u} \right) \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{k}}, \\ \boldsymbol{u} = (u_x, u_y) = (\partial_y \tilde{\psi} + u_x^0, -\partial_x \tilde{\psi}), \\ \phi \partial_t S_i + \nabla \cdot (\boldsymbol{u} f_i(S_i)) = q_i. \end{cases}$$
(5)

Here  $\tilde{\psi}$  is the fluctuating component of the stream function,  $\psi$ ,  $\hat{k}$  is the unit vector in the positive z-direction,  $u_x$  and  $u_y$  are scalar components of the total velocity  $\boldsymbol{u}$  along x- and y-axes, respectively.  $\lambda_T(S_i)$  is the total mobility given by  $\lambda_T(S_i) = \lambda_i(S_i) + \lambda_r(S_i)$ , and  $f_i(S_i)$  is the fractional flow function for the invading phase given by  $f_i(S_i) = \lambda_i(S_i)/\lambda_T(S_i)$ . Readers are referred to Wang et al. (2018) for the detailed derivation of system (5).

We consider scalar, log-normal permeability fields expressed as

$$k_{\rho}\left(\boldsymbol{x}\right) = k_{0}e^{\rho\xi\left(\boldsymbol{x}\right)},\tag{6}$$

where  $k_0$  is a constant permeability value,  $\rho$  ( $\rho > 0$ ) is a coefficient that sets the strength of fluctuations, and  $\xi(\boldsymbol{x})$  is a Gaussian isotropic scalar field characterized by the mean,

$$\left\langle \xi\left(\boldsymbol{x}\right)\right\rangle =0,\tag{7}$$

<sup>193</sup> and its two-point covariance function is given by (Glimm & Sharp, 1991)

$$C(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \left\langle \xi(\boldsymbol{x}) \,\xi(\boldsymbol{y}) \right\rangle = \left| \boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y} \right|^{\beta}, \tag{8}$$

where angle brackets denote ensemble averaging.  $\beta$  ( $\beta < 0$ ) is the scaling exponent which controls the correlation structure of heterogeneity: a large  $|\beta|$  indicates that the covariance function decays quickly, which results in fields with short length scale correlations; on the other hand, as  $|\beta|$  decreases, the covariance function decays slower. This produces a smoother field.

#### 3 Scaling Analysis 200

Here we develop scaling relations which relate flow behavior to the magnitude of het-201 erogeneities. Consider a random field which is related to  $\xi(\mathbf{x})$  given by 202

$$\zeta \left( \boldsymbol{x} \right) = \gamma \left( \lambda \right) \xi \left( \lambda \boldsymbol{x} \right), \tag{9}$$

where  $\gamma(\lambda)$  is dependent on  $\lambda$  ( $\lambda > 0$ ). The two-point covariance function of  $\zeta(\boldsymbol{x})$  is 204 expressed as 205

$$\langle \zeta \left( \boldsymbol{x} \right) \zeta \left( \boldsymbol{y} \right) \rangle = \gamma^2 \langle \xi \left( \lambda \boldsymbol{x} \right) \xi \left( \lambda \boldsymbol{y} \right) \rangle, \tag{10}$$

where 207

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$$\left\langle \xi\left(\lambda\boldsymbol{x}\right)\xi\left(\lambda\boldsymbol{y}\right)\right\rangle = \lambda^{\beta}\left|\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{y}\right|^{\beta}$$
(11)

based on equation (8). Combining equations (10) and (11), we arrive at 209

(12) 
$$\langle \zeta \left( \boldsymbol{x} \right) \zeta \left( \boldsymbol{y} \right) \rangle = \gamma^2 \lambda^\beta \left| \boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y} \right|^\beta.$$

 $\gamma(\lambda)$  is determined such that fields  $\zeta(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\xi(\mathbf{x})$  have identical covariance function, i.e., 211  $\langle \zeta (\boldsymbol{x}) \zeta (\boldsymbol{y}) \rangle = \langle \xi (\boldsymbol{x}) \xi (\boldsymbol{y}) \rangle$ .  $\gamma (\lambda)$  is given by 212

$$\gamma\left(\lambda\right) = \lambda^{-\beta/2},\tag{13}$$

and the following relation is obtained: 214

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$$\lambda^{-\beta/2}\xi(\lambda \boldsymbol{x}) = \xi(\boldsymbol{x}).$$
(14)

Therefore, the permeability field described by (6) satisfies the scaling relation given by 216

$$k_{\rho_1}(\boldsymbol{x}) = k_{\rho_2}\left(\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}\boldsymbol{x}\right),\tag{15}$$

where  $\sigma_j = \rho_j^{-2/\beta}$ . The scaling property given by equation (15) relates solutions to flow 218 problems with random permeability fields  $k_{\rho_1}$  and  $k_{\rho_2}$ . Indeed, let  $\tilde{\psi}_{\rho}$ ,  $\boldsymbol{u}_{\rho}$ , and  $S_{\rho}$  solve 219 equations (5) with random permeability  $k_{\rho}$ . The Riemann initial condition (4) and the 220 boundary conditions (3) are invariant under the spatial scaling (15). Then, if  $\sigma_j = \rho_j^{-2/\beta}$ 221 (as above), 222

$$\tilde{\psi}_{\rho_1}\left(\boldsymbol{x},t\right) = \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2} \tilde{\psi}_{\rho_2}\left(\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} \boldsymbol{x}, \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1} t\right),\tag{16}$$

(17)

$$\boldsymbol{u}_{\rho_1}\left(\boldsymbol{x},t\right) = \boldsymbol{u}_{\rho_2}\left(\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}\boldsymbol{x},\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}t\right),$$

and 226

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$$S_{\rho_1}(\boldsymbol{x},t) = S_{\rho_2}\left(\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}\boldsymbol{x},\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}t\right).$$
(18)

In particular, if  $\bar{S}_{\rho}(\boldsymbol{x},t) = \langle S_{\rho}(\boldsymbol{x},t) \rangle$ , which denotes the one-dimensional mean saturation 228 profile (averaged in the transverse direction to mean flow), it follows that 229

$$\bar{S}_{\rho_1}(x,t) = \bar{S}_{\rho_2}\left(\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}x, \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}t\right).$$
(19)

A quantitative analysis of the mixing process is afforded via the analysis of the growth rate 231 of the mixing region as a function of time. For this purpose, we introduce a time dependent 232 length scale, referred to as the mixing length, given as 233

$$l(t) \coloneqq \frac{1}{S_{-} - S_{+}} \int_{0}^{L} \left| \bar{S}(x, t) - S_{H}(x, t) \right| dx,$$
(20)

where  $S_{-}$  and  $S_{+}$  are saturation values behind and ahead the saturation front from the 235 analytical solution (denoted by  $S_H$ ) of the Buckley-Leverett equation (Buckley & Leverett, 236 1942) in a homogeneous system. The scaling relation (19) implies that 237

$$l_{\rho_1}(t) = \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2} l_{\rho_2}\left(\frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}t\right).$$
(21)

#### 4 Numerical Scheme 239

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The velocity field, u, is expressed as a function of first-order spatial derivatives of 240 the fluctuating component of the stream function, i.e.,  $\partial_x \tilde{\psi}$  and  $\partial_y \tilde{\psi}$ , as shown in (5). To 241 calculate the velocity components,  $u_x$  and  $u_y$ , the Fourier transform is applied to the first 242 equation in system (5): 243

$$\mathcal{F}\left(\tilde{\psi}\right) = -\frac{\mathcal{F}\left(k\lambda_T(S_i)\left(\nabla\left(\frac{1}{k\lambda_T(S_i)}\right) \times \boldsymbol{u}\right) \cdot \hat{\boldsymbol{k}}\right)}{\left(k_x^2 + k_y^2\right)},\tag{22}$$

(23)

where  $\mathcal{F}(\cdot)$  denotes the Fourier transform operator, and  $k_x$  and  $k_y$  are wave numbers along 245 the x- and y-axes, respectively.  $\partial_x \tilde{\psi}$  and  $\partial_y \tilde{\psi}$  on the transformed Fourier space are given by 246 (Kutz, 2013) 247

$$\mathcal{F}\left(\partial_{x}\tilde{\psi}
ight)=ik_{x}\mathcal{F}\left(\tilde{\psi}
ight) ext{ and } \mathcal{F}\left(\partial_{y}\tilde{\psi}
ight)=ik_{y}\mathcal{F}\left(\tilde{\psi}
ight),$$

where *i* is unit imaginary number. 
$$\partial_x \tilde{\psi}$$
 and  $\partial_y \tilde{\psi}$  are then obtained by performing an inverse  
transform on both sides of equation (23), resulting in

$$\partial_x \tilde{\psi} = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left( i k_x \mathcal{F} \left( \tilde{\psi} \right) \right) \text{ and } \partial_y \tilde{\psi} = \mathcal{F}^{-1} \left( i k_y \mathcal{F} \left( \tilde{\psi} \right) \right),$$
 (24)

where  $\mathcal{F}^{-1}(\cdot)$  denotes the inverse Fourier transform operator. 252

The transport equation in system (5) may be rewritten as

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}S_i}{\mathrm{d}t} \approx L(S_i, \boldsymbol{u}),\tag{25}$$

where  $L(\xi, \boldsymbol{u}) = \frac{1}{\phi \Delta x \Delta y} C(S_i, \boldsymbol{u}), C(S_i, \boldsymbol{u})$  is an approximation to the convection flux. To 255 reduce numerical diffusion arising from the discretization, this work implements the central-256 upwind scheme (Kurganov & Tadmor, 2000; Kurganov et al., 2001) where the intermediate 257 values are constructed using the third-order weighted essentially nonoscillatory (WENO) 258 scheme (Kurganov & Levy, 2000; Kurganov & Petrova, 2001; Shu, 2009). For details of 259 the discretization of the convection flux, readers are referred to Appendix A. A third-order 260 TVD Runge-Kutta method (S. Gottlieb & Shu, 1998; S. Gottlieb et al., 2001) is used for 261 temporal discretization. The time marching scheme over  $(t^n, t^{n+1})$  is given by 262

$$S_{i}^{(1)} = S_{i}^{n} + \Delta t L \left(S_{i}^{n}, \boldsymbol{u}^{n+1}\right),$$

$$S_{i}^{(2)} = \frac{3}{4} S_{i}^{n} + \frac{1}{4} S_{i}^{(1)} + \frac{1}{4} \Delta t L \left(S_{i}^{(1)}, \boldsymbol{u}^{n+1}\right),$$

$$S_{i}^{n+1} = \frac{1}{3} S_{i}^{n} + \frac{2}{3} S_{i}^{(2)} + \frac{2}{3} \Delta t L \left(S_{i}^{(2)}, \boldsymbol{u}^{n+1}\right),$$
(26)

where superscripts n and n + 1 denote time step counters, and  $\Delta t$  is time step size.

<sup>265</sup> 5 Results and Discussions

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### 5.1 Tracer Flow

Two fluids are miscible in the case of tracer flow and have equal viscosities, i.e.,  $\mu = \mu_i = \mu_r$ . Dependence of relative permeability functions on saturation is linear:  $S_i$  and (1 -  $S_i$ ) for invading and resident phases. The resulting total mobility is  $\lambda_T = 1/\mu$ .

To determine the number of realizations needed for statistical convergence of numerical 270 simulations, we compare simulation results, i.e., the growth of mixing length as a function of 271 time, obtained from ensemble averaging with 2, 4, 8, and 16 realizations of the permeability 272 field defined on a  $512 \times 512$  grid. Physical parameters used in the simulation are presented 273 in Table 1. Figure 1 shows saturation maps from two realizations of permeability field with 274  $\beta=-0.5,\,\rho=1.0$  at the same time of injection. Fluctuations arising from the permeability 275 field grow and develop into fingers in both maps, and fingers of the two maps exhibit different 276 geometries owing to spatial variance of the heterogeneity in different realizations. The 277 growth of mixing length in each case is obtained by calculating the mixing length at a fixed 278 time interval using equation (20). The resulting ensemble averaging of different realizations 279 are presented in Figure 2. It is observed that the growths of the mixing length for ensembles 280 with the number of realizations larger than eight exhibit insignificant differences. Therefore, 281 statistical convergence is obtained by averaging simulation results over eight realizations of 282 the permeability field. 283

Scaling analysis of mixing lengths is performed with two values of  $\beta$ , i.e., -0.25 and -0.5. For each  $\beta$ , four values of  $\rho$ , referred to as  $\rho_0$ ,  $\rho_1$ ,  $\rho_2$ , and  $\rho_3$ , are selected such that the corresponding scaling factor is given by 1/8, 1/4, 1/2, and 1, respectively. From the scaling relation given by equation (15), the strength ( $\rho_j$ ) of a given scaling factor ( $\sigma_j$ ) is expressed as

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$$\rho_j = \sigma_j^{-\beta/2}.\tag{27}$$

Values of  $\rho_j$  are summarized in Table 2. Figures 3a and 4a present the mixing length in 290 terms of injection time in log-log scale for  $\beta = -0.25$  and -0.5, respectively. In each case 291 larger values of  $\rho$  give longer mixing lengths due to stronger fluctuations of the permeability 292 field. The mixing length curves are then scaled according to equation (21), and results 293 are presented in Figures 3b and 4b. As shown, mixing length curves of different  $\rho$  tend to 294 collapse to a single curve at intermediate times for both cases, indicating that numerical 295 results follow the theoretical prediction. The discrepancies at early time (the transient 296 regime) are attributed to the nonfractal behavior of the permeability field at short distances. 297

In log-log variables, the mixing length seems to be a linear function of time and its slope, denoted by dash line, is shown in Figures 3b and 4b. Results of the perturbation theory (Glimm & Sharp, 1991; Borges et al., 2009) suggest that the intermediate-time behavior of mixing length is given by a power law

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$$l_{\rho}(t) \sim a(\rho) t^{\tau(\beta)}, \qquad (28)$$

where  $\tau(\beta)$  dependes on  $\beta$  in a nonlinear fashion;  $\tau = \max\{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1+\beta}{2}\}$ . From equation (28) the growth rate (slope) on a log-log plot satisfies

$$\frac{\log l_{\rho}(t)}{\log t} \sim \gamma(\beta).$$
<sup>(29)</sup>

It is observed that the slope of the straight line ( $\beta = -0.25$ ) is larger than that of the dashed line ( $\beta = -0.5$ ), which agrees with the prediction from the perturbation theory. The slope in Figure 3b has not reached its expected value of 0.875 for the asymptotic regime. This indicates that the asymptotic regime has not been reached yet, but the scaling relation is valid regardless (Glimm & Sharp, 1991).

#### 311 5.2 Multiphase Flow

Multiphase flow refers to the case in which the fluid pair, i.e., invading and resident fluids, may have different viscosities and their relative permeability functions have a nonlinear

Parameter	Value	Unit
Length, $L$	1.0	m
Porosity, $\phi$	0.20	-
Absolute permeability, $k_0$	1.0e-14	$m^2$
Injection velocity, $u_x^0$	2.315e-5	m/s

Table 1: Physical parameters used in numerical simulation.

β	$ ho_0$	$\rho_1$	$\rho_2$	$\rho_3$
-0.25	0.771	0.841	0.917	1.0
-0.5	0.595	0.707	0.841	1.0

Table 2: Values of fluctuation strength.

dependence on saturation. As discussed in Hagoort (1974); Yortsos and Hickernell (1989); Riaz and Tchelepi (2004); Beliveau (2009); Berg and Ott (2012), the stability of displacement process is impacted by the properties of the fluid pair. The total shock mobility ratio,  $M_s^T$ , is used as the indicator of the onset of flow instability given as (Berg & Ott, 2012)

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$$M_s^T = \frac{k_{ri}\left(S_{i,-}\right)/\mu_i + k_{rr}\left(S_{i,-}\right)/\mu_r}{k_{ri}\left(S_{i,+}\right)/\mu_i + k_{rr}\left(S_{i,+}\right)/\mu_r},\tag{30}$$

where  $S_{i,-}$  and  $S_{i,+}$  represent invading phase saturation values behind and ahead of the 319 saturation front from the analytical solution of the Buckley-Leverett equation (Buckley & 320 Leverett, 1942), respectively. Values of  $M_s^T$  larger than unity indicate unstable displacement, 321 i.e., small amplitude of perturbations in the saturation front grow into a fingered flow 322 pattern, whereas values less than one indicate stable processes, i.e., such perturbations 323 decay during displacements. Two pairs of immiscible fluids, namely stable and unstable 324 flows, are considered in this work, see Table 3. Relative permeability functions are based 325 on steady-state measurements of Berea sandstone cores (Tang & Kovscek, 2011). 326

Saturation maps from two realizations of permeability field are presented in Figure 5. Figures 5a and 5b show the results of stable flow. Fluctuations in velocity field develop into prominent channels with varying widths due to the heterogeneity of the permeability field. The interface between two phases exhibits sharper transitions compared to that in tracer

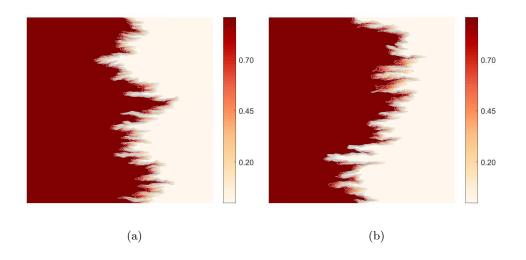


Figure 1: Saturation maps of tracer flow from two realizations of permeability field ( $\beta = -0.5$  and  $\rho = 1.0$ ).

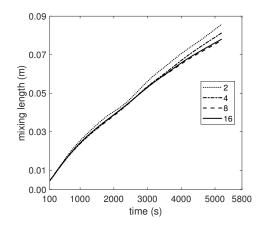


Figure 2: Ensembles of mixing length as a function of time with different numbers of realizations of the permeability field ( $\beta = -0.5$  and  $\rho = 1.0$ ).

flow shown in Figure 1. Results of unstable flow are presented in Figures 5c and 5d, where the random fields are identical as those used in stable flow. Fingers in unstable flow display a more complex structure compared to those in stable flow: large-scale fingers split at the tip and grow into individual fingers almost aligned with the mean flow direction, while some branches spread sidewise. The vigorous fingering behavior leads to substantial bypassing of the resident fluid, resulting in a relatively large mixing length. Figure 6 shows comparisons of ensemble averages of mixing length as a function of time obtained from different numbers

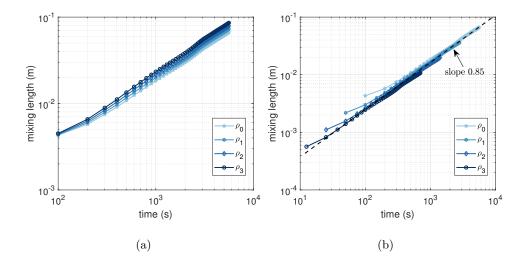


Figure 3: Log-log plot of mixing length as a function of time for  $\rho \approx 0.771$ , 0.841, 0.917, and 1.0. (a) Mixing length curves, and (b) scaled curves according to (21) ( $\beta = -0.25$ ).

of realizations. Results indicate that eight realizations appear to be sufficient in achieving statistical convergence for both types of flow.

One-dimensional mean saturation profiles, which are obtained by cross-sectional aver-340 aging of saturation maps, are plotted at times t, 2t, 4t, and 8t for  $\rho \approx 0.595$ , 0.707, 0.841, 341 and 1.0, respectively - see Figures 7a and 7c. These profiles are scaled according to equa-342 tion (19) shown in Figures 7b and 7d. In each case, the four distinct profiles collapse to 343 a single curve, indicating that simulation results agree with the derived relation. Scaling 344 analysis of mixing length is then performed in a fashion similar to that described in tracer 345 flow: four values of  $\rho$  are investigated and their corresponding scaling factors, given by 346 1/8, 1/4, 1/2, and 1, are obtained from the analytically derived scaling law. Figures 8a 347 and 9a display the mixing length in terms of injection time in log-log scale for stable and 348 unstable flows, and the scaling results are presented in Figures 8b and 9b accordingly. As 349 shown in Figures 8b and 9b, after an early transient regime, curves with different fluctuation 350 strengths appear to collapse into a single curve. In the early transient regime, differences of 351 mixing length obtained from different values of  $\rho$  are relatively pronounced. Growth rates 352 of mixing length in the asymptotic regime are denoted by dash lines in Figures 8b and 9b. 353 As shown, unstable flow has a higher growth rate than that of stable flow. This indicates 354

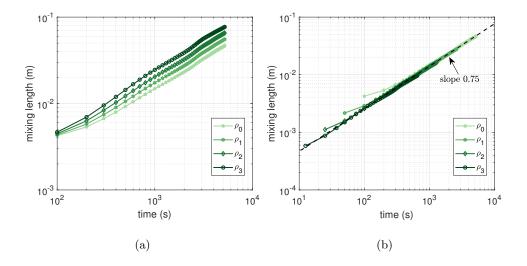


Figure 4: Log-log plot of mixing length as a function of time for  $\rho \approx 0.595$ , 0.707, 0.841, and 1.0. (a) Mixing length curves, and (b) scaled curves according to (21) ( $\beta = -0.5$ ).

that the nonlinearity dominates the flow in the asymptotic regime: the nonlinear effects are stabilizing/destabilizing the flow in stable/unstable cases, respectively.

Case $\#$	Type	Viscosity Ratio	Total Shock Mobility Ratio
1	Stable	18.0	0.87
2	Unstable	120.0	2.10

Table 3: Physical parameters of fluid pairs.

# 357 6 Conclusion

In this work, we employ a recently developed high-resolution, two-dimensional numerical simulator to investigate the dynamics of two-phase flow in permeable media. Flow equation is cast in a vorticity stream-function form and solved using a spectral method. Transport equation is discretized using a third-order explicit scheme, and the convection flux is computed using a third-order central-upwind method. The coupled equations are solved in a sequential manner in each time step. To capture the fractal characteristics of natural permeable media, we utilize a random field with a power-law covariance function

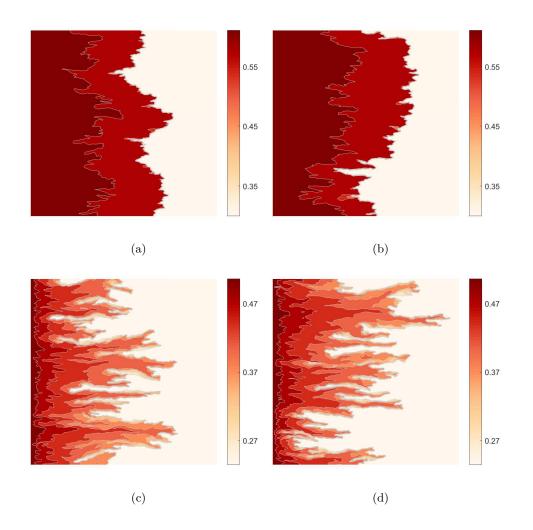


Figure 5: Saturation maps of multiphase flow from two realizations of permeability field. (a) and (b) stable flow, and (c) and (d) unstable flow ( $\beta = -0.5$  and  $\rho = 1.0$ ).

to describe the permeability field. A scaling relation, which relates permeability fields with different fluctuation strengths, is derived based on the statistical property (self-similarity) of the random field. The derived scaling relation in turn implies that flow problems governed by the flow and transport equations could be related: the dynamics of flow for different strengths of heterogeneity could be obtained from the result for a single fixed strength. In particular, scaling relations with respect to ensemble averages of mean saturation profiles and mixing lengths are proposed.

To verify the proposed scaling relations, we first conduct numerical experiments for tracer flow, where invading and resident fluids have equal viscosities, and relative permeability functions are linear functions of saturation. A sensitivity study is performed to

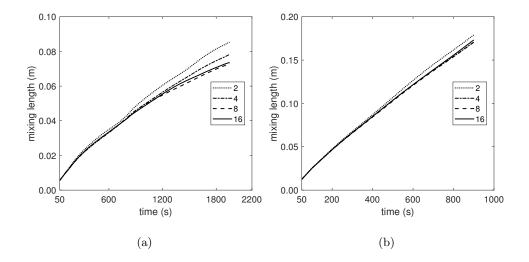


Figure 6: Ensembles of mixing length as a function of time with different numbers of realizations of the permeability field. (a) Stable flow, and (b) unstable flow ( $\beta = -0.5$  and  $\rho = 1.0$ ).

determine the required number of realizations for statistical convergence. Results show that 375 the growth of mixing length obtained from averaging of eight realizations result in a satisfac-376 tory convergence. The derived scaling relations are then examined using ensemble averages 377 of simulation results from those realizations. Results suggest that the mixing length curves 378 from different fluctuation strengths and two different values of  $|\beta|$  scale in accordance with 379 the desired relation. The mixing length curve obtained from the case with a smaller val-380 ues of  $|\beta|$  has a larger slope in the asymptotic regime, which is consistent with result from 381 perturbation theory. 382

Next we investigate nonlinear transport, where the dispersion of fluid mixing is a con-383 sequence of collective efforts from nonlinearity and heterogeneity. Relative permeability 384 functions are extracted from literature, which is based on experimental measurements. We 385 consider two cases with  $M_s^T$  smaller/greater than unity indicating stable/unstable flow. 386 Saturation maps of the stable flow show that heterogeneity in the permeability field facil-387 itates the development of highly conductive flow channels, thus introducing dispersion in 388 fluid mixing. On the other hand, simulation results of unstable flow exhibit highly-fingered 389 flow pattern, which leads to a lager mixing length compared to that of stable flow with the 390 same permeability field. The mixing length curves for both cases are scaled according to 391

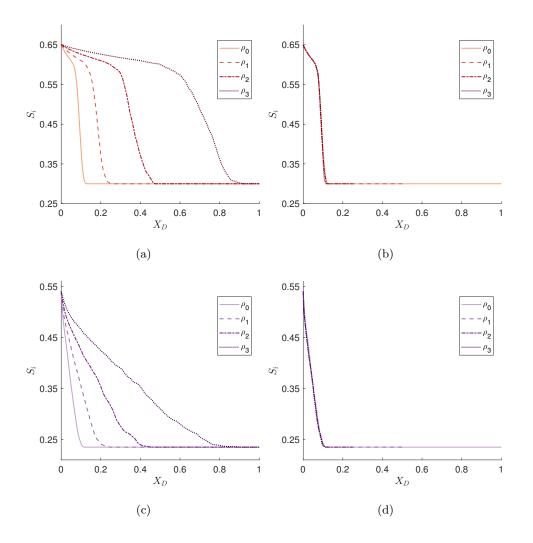


Figure 7: Mean saturation profiles and scaled curves according to equation (19) for  $\rho \approx 0.595, 0.707, 0.841, \text{and } 1.0.$  (a) and (b) stable flow, and (c) and (d) unstable flow ( $\beta = -0.5$ ).

the derived relation, and results show that these curves appear to collapse to a single curve at intermediate times.

To summarize, numerical simulation results from both linear (tracer flow) and nonlinear transport flow agree with predictions from analytically derived scaling relations in the asymptotic regime. The correlation structure of heterogeneity plays a significant role in determining the scaling behavior in linear flow, whereas in the case of nonlinear flow, scaling behavior appears to be dominated by the degree of nonlinearity.

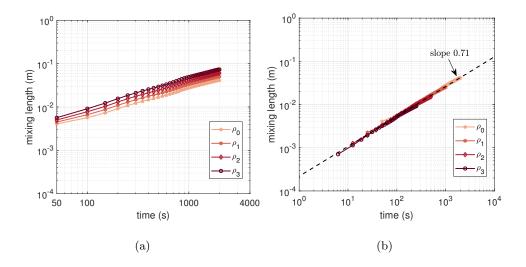


Figure 8: Log-log plot of mixing length as a function of time in the case of stable flow for  $\rho \approx 0.595$ , 0.707, 0.841, and 1.0. (a) Mixing length curves, and (b) scaled curves according to equation (21) ( $\beta = -0.5$ ).

# <sup>399</sup> Appendix A Discretization of the Convection Flux

The central-upwind scheme (Kurganov & Tadmor, 2000; Kurganov et al., 2001) is used to discretize the convection flux. For brevity, we consider one-dimensional system with uniform spacing cells. The semi-discrete form of central-upwind scheme is given by

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \left. S_i \right|_j = -\frac{u_x|_j}{\phi \Delta x} \left( \left. F(\xi_\theta) \right|_{j+\frac{1}{2}} - \left. F(\xi_\theta) \right|_{j-\frac{1}{2}} \right),\tag{A1}$$

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$$F(\xi_{\theta})|_{j+\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{+} f\left(\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{-}\right) - a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{-} f\left(\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{+}\right)}{a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{+} - a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{-}} + \frac{a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{+} a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{-}}{a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{+} - a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{-}} \left[\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{+} - \xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{-}\right],$$

and  $f(\xi) = f_i(\xi)$ . In equation (A2),  $\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^-$  and  $\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^+$  denote left and right intermediate values at cell interface  $x_{j+\frac{1}{2}}$ .  $a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^-$  and  $a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^+$  are local speeds of propagation at cell interface  $x_{j+\frac{1}{2}}$ . In this work we take (Kurganov et al., 2001, 2007)

$$a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{+} = -a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{-} = a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}, \tag{A3}$$

(A2)

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$$a_{j+\frac{1}{2}} = \max_{\xi \in \left[\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{-},\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{+}\right]} f'(\xi).$$
(A4)

<sup>412</sup> Substituting Eq. (A3) into Eq. (A2), the numerical flux becomes

$$F(\xi_{\theta})|_{j+\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{f\left(\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{+}\right) + f\left(\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{-}\right)}{2} - \frac{a_{j+\frac{1}{2}}}{2} \left[\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{+} - \xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{-}\right].$$
(A5)

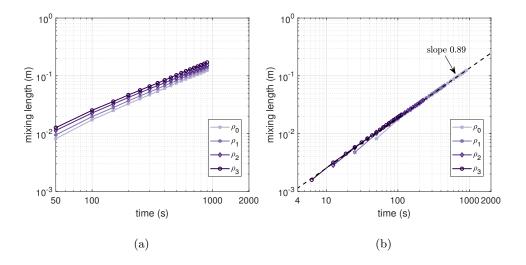


Figure 9: Log-log plot of mixing length as a function of time in the case of unstable flow for  $\rho \approx 0.595$ , 0.707, 0.841, and 1.0. (a) Mixing length curves, and (b) scaled curves according to equation (21) ( $\beta = -0.5$ ).

 $F(\xi_{\theta})|_{j=\frac{1}{2}}$  is obtained in a similar fashion expressed as

$$F(\xi_{\theta})|_{j-\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{f\left(\xi_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{+}\right) + f\left(\xi_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{-}\right)}{2} - \frac{a_{j-\frac{1}{2}}}{2} \left[\xi_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{+} - \xi_{j-\frac{1}{2}}^{-}\right].$$
 (A6)

Intermediate values,  $\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^+$  and  $\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^-$ , are constructed using the third-order central weighted essentially nonoscillatory (CWENO) scheme (Kurganov & Levy, 2000) given by

$$\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{+} = A_{j+1} - \frac{\Delta x}{2} B_{j+1} + \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{8} C_{j+1}, \tag{A7}$$

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$$\xi_{j+\frac{1}{2}}^{-} = A_j + \frac{\Delta x}{2} B_j + \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{8} C_j,$$
(A8)

421 where  $A_j$ ,  $B_j$ , and  $C_j$  are given by

$$A_{j} = \xi_{j} - \frac{w_{C}}{12} \left( \xi_{j+1} - 2\xi_{j} + \xi_{j-1} \right),$$

$$B_{j} = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \left[ w_{R} \left( \xi_{j+1} - \xi_{j} \right) + w_{C} \frac{\xi_{j+1} - \xi_{j-1}}{2} + w_{L} \left( \xi_{j} - \xi_{j-1} \right) \right],$$

$$C_{j} = 2w_{C} \frac{\xi_{j-1} - 2\xi_{j} + \xi_{j+1}}{\Delta x^{2}}.$$
(A9)

In equations (A9), subscript L, R, and C denote the left side, the right side, and the center location of cell j.  $w_k$  ( $k \in \{L, C, R\}$ ) are the weights espressed as

$$w_k = \frac{\chi_k}{\sum_m \chi_m}, \ \chi_k = \frac{c_k}{(\varepsilon + IS_k)^p}, \tag{A10}$$

where  $c_L = c_R = 1/4$ ,  $c_C = 1/2$ , and p = 2.  $\varepsilon$  is used to ensure that the denominator of  $\chi_k$ is nonzero:  $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$ . The smooth indicators  $IS_k$  are given by

$$\begin{cases}
IS_{L} = (\xi_{j} - \xi_{j-1})^{2}, \\
IS_{R} = (\xi_{j+1} - \xi_{j})^{2}, \\
IS_{C} = \frac{13}{3} (\xi_{j+1} - 2\xi_{j} + \xi_{j-1})^{2} + \frac{1}{4} (\xi_{j+1} - \xi_{j-1})^{2}.
\end{cases}$$
(A11)

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Mountain Scholar, where the data will be available with a unique and permanent document
identifier.

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