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Fluid invasion dynamics in porous media with complex wettability and connectivity

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Abstract

Fluid invasion into porous materials is very common in natural and industrial processes. The fluid invasion dynamics in simple pore networks are governed by a global balance of capillary, viscous and inertial forces. However, significant local variability in this balance may exist inside natural, heterogeneous porous materials. Here, we imaged slow fluid intrusion in two sister samples of a heterogeneous sandstone, one water-wet and one mixed-wet, using high-resolution 4D X-ray imaging. The pore-by-pore fluid invasion dynamics were quantified, revealing a new type of mixed-wet dynamics where 19% of the fluid invasions were orders of magnitude slower than in directly neighboring pores. While conventional understanding predicted strongly capillary-dominated conditions, our analysis suggests that viscous forces played a key role in these dynamics, facilitated by a complex interplay between the mixed-wettability and the pore structure. These previously unknown dynamics highlight the need for further studies on the fundamental controls on multiphase flow in complex natural porous materials, which are abundant in e.g. groundwater remediation and subsurface CO₂ storage operations.

Introduction

The simultaneous flow of multiple fluid phases through a porous material is an important process encountered in many natural and manmade systems. Multiphase flow plays a crucial role in transport in fuel cells (1), safe medical facemasks (2) and self-cleaning materials (3). In earth sciences, it is critically important for the injection and safe storage of CO₂ in deep saline

35 aquifers (4), geological energy storage (5) and the study of subsurface contaminant transport
36 (6).

37 The pore-scale dynamics of multiphase flow in porous media are known to be governed by a
38 competition between the driving forces on the fluids: capillary, viscous, inertial forces
39 (gravitational forces are generally considered negligible at the pore scale) (7–10). These
40 dynamics determine how fluids occupy the available space in the pores and how the resulting
41 fluid distribution evolves over time. For example, an invading fluid can form a flat front, steadily
42 displacing the defending fluid, or it can form ramified “fingers” penetrating into the defending
43 fluid (10). Fluid invasion in 2D networks was found to have qualitatively different properties
44 when the injection flow rate or fluid properties were varied (11, 12), resulting in a “phase
45 diagram” of flow regimes in function of the capillary number (average ratio of viscous to
46 capillary forces) and the viscosity ratio of the two fluids. The development of these pore-scale
47 fluid arrangements into distinct patterns has a crucial impact on the macroscopic transport
48 behavior, yet continues to challenge our pore-scale models (13).

49 A particular problem has been the understanding of how pore-scale variations in the pore
50 geometry and the wettability (the relative affinity of the fluids to the solid surface) affect fluid
51 intrusion in porous materials. Recently, Lenormand’s phase diagram was extended to
52 incorporate random disorder (7) and the influence of homogeneous wetting conditions in 2.5D
53 micro-models (10, 14). However, natural materials such as porous rocks, sediments and soils
54 frequently exhibit much higher degrees of correlated disorder (“heterogeneity”), with pore sizes
55 spanning many orders of magnitude (15). Furthermore, the effective wettability in the pores of
56 geological materials is subject to variations in mineral composition and surface roughness at
57 all length scales (16, 17), and can be impacted by coatings of surface-active components,
58 particularly in hydrocarbon reservoirs (18) and polluted aquifers (19). This can lead to different
59 surfaces having a different fluid affinity, commonly referred to as “mixed-wettability” (20, 21),
60 which also occurs in other natural phenomena such as self-cleaning lotus leaves (22) and
61 antifogging mosquito eyes (23). Multiphase flow has spatial dependencies that stretch over
62 many pores, and consequently it is still poorly understood how pore-scale heterogeneities
63 influence the fluid invasion dynamics. Nevertheless, their importance is critical in groundwater
64 (6), energy (5) and carbon storage technologies (4).

65 To study the fluid invasion dynamics in complex porous media, time-resolved high resolution
66 X-ray microtomography (mCT) can be applied to image the fluids’ distribution in the pores at
67 the second to minute time scale in three dimensions (24, 25). This technique led to the first
68 observations of capillary-dominated fluid displacement events in rock samples (26–28) and of
69 complex dynamic effects such as ganglion dynamics (29) and intermittency (30). Despite this

70 significant progress, most time-resolved imaging has been performed on rocks with essentially
71 single-scale pore structures, and the dynamics in such samples exhibiting heterogeneous
72 wettability have only recently started to be studied (31, 32). Furthermore, most studies have
73 focused on describing the geometry and connectivity of the fluids during displacements and in
74 the resulting fluid distributions, while the time scales associated with the dynamics received
75 relatively little attention (33). This leaves unanswered whether the current knowledge on
76 capillary-dominated fluid dynamics covers the behavior that typically occurs in the subsurface.

77 In this work, the pore-scale dynamics of capillary-dominated multiphase flow are investigated
78 in microcores of a heterogeneous sandstone in both homogeneously water-wet and mixed-wet
79 conditions. The time scales of fluid displacements are estimated on a pore-by-pore basis using
80 time-resolved laboratory-based X-ray mCT to image the fluid distribution in the pores. We show
81 that the dynamics were qualitatively different in mixed-wet conditions and in water-wet
82 conditions. Under mixed-wet conditions, an important fraction of the pores had fluid
83 displacement time scales that were several orders of magnitude slower than directly
84 neighboring pores. These slow dynamics appeared to be dominated by the fluid conductivity
85 rather than by capillary forces (despite the low capillary number). This implies that in complex
86 porous media, flow regimes commonly thought to be controlled by capillary forces may in fact
87 digress significantly from this assumption. This puts into question the use of classical concepts
88 such as the capillary number to characterize multiphase flow.

89 **Results and discussion**

90 To investigate fluid dynamics in complex porous media, we performed unsteady-state
91 multiphase flow experiments in two twin microcores of a heterogeneous, calcareous
92 Luxembourg Sandstone (34) with a multiscale pore geometry. One sample was used in its
93 native homogeneously hydrophilic (water-wet, WW), state, while the wettability of the second
94 sample was chemically altered to obtain a mixed-wettability (MW) to water and oil. We
95 performed oil- (OF) and subsequent water flooding (WF) experiments using a KI-brine as
96 watery phase and decane as oil phase. The experiments were imaged continuously using
97 dynamic laboratory-based mCT (TESCAN DynaTOM scanner) with imaging temporal
98 resolutions of 60 seconds (WW-OF, MW-WF) and 120 seconds (WW-WF) per image and a
99 voxel size of 8 μm . The dynamic imaging was supplemented with higher spatial and temporal
100 resolution imaging prior to and after each experiment. Further details can be found in the
101 Material and Methods section and Supporting Information.

102 In the water-wet sample the oil flood was a drainage process, as decane is the non-wetting
103 phase intruding the sample, and similarly the water flood was an imbibition. To mimic flow in
104 the subsurface, the fluid flux in the experiments was very low, with capillary numbers ($C_a =$

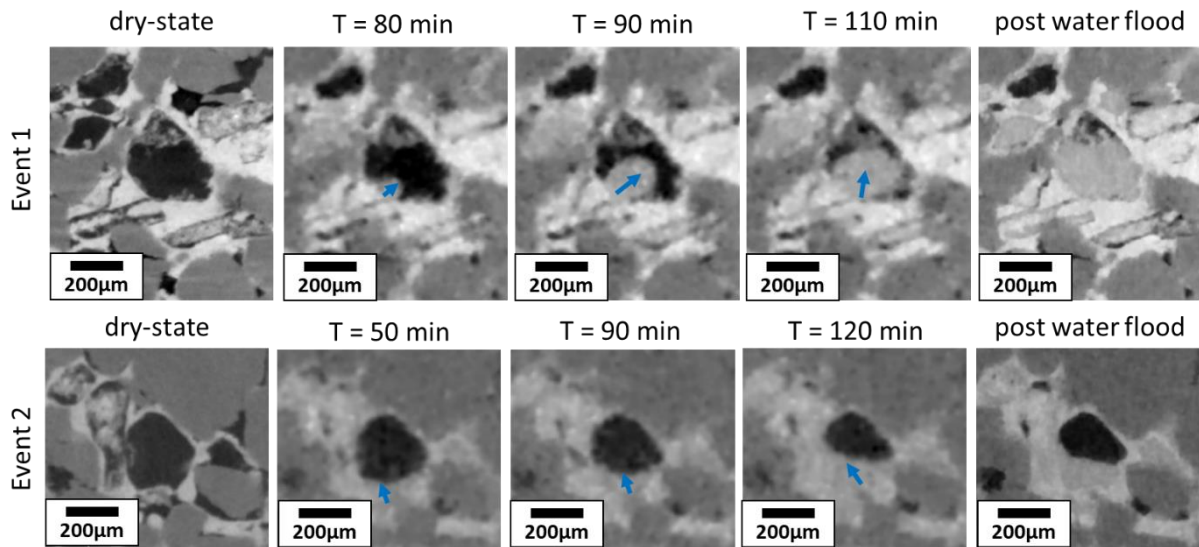
105 $\mu v/\sigma$, where u the characteristic fluid velocity in the pores, μ the invading fluid's viscosity and
106 σ the interfacial tension) on the order of 10^{-8} , so that capillary forces would typically be
107 assumed to dominate. Theoretically, we therefore expected to find three types of irreversible,
108 fast pore filling "events" on the millisecond time scale: piston-like displacement (e.g. Haines
109 jumps during drainage), snap-off, and cooperative pore filling (35, 36). These events were
110 anticipated to be interspersed with reversible interface movements (e.g. wetting layer swelling)
111 on the time scale of seconds to hours (33). Below, we first qualitatively compare our
112 experimental results to this conventional picture. Then, the timescales and flow rates are
113 quantified on a pore-by-pore basis. Next, the role of wettability on the displacements is
114 investigated. Finally, the viscous-capillary force balance of the observed dynamics is
115 investigated.

116 **Qualitative comparison of displacement processes**

117 Under water-wet conditions, oil was observed to displace the watery phase in a sequence of
118 large meniscus jumps (Movie S1). These jumps were significantly faster than the temporal
119 resolution of the mCT imaging, thus appearing as instantaneous pore-scale displacement
120 events in the mCT images. This is conform the expectation that the drainage process takes
121 place as an intermittent sequence of Haines jumps at the milli-second time scale (35). In the
122 subsequent water flooding experiment (Movie S2), water layers were observed to slowly swell
123 from the sides of the pores (Figure S6), causing the oil to become disconnected by the
124 occurrence of sudden snap-off events in narrow constrictions of the pore space. This behavior
125 is typical for imbibition in a water wet medium with a high pore-throat aspect ratio (37), and led
126 to significant non-wetting phase trapping of the oil.

127 The sample with a mixed-wettability showed a notably different behavior (Figure 1; Movie S3)
128 during water flooding. The majority of the displacements were filled in fast events comparable
129 to the drainage process in the water-wet sample. However, three observations stood out. First,
130 the front at which the displacements occurred was more compact than that of the water-wet
131 drainage case (Figure S7). Second, a significant part of the pores changed fluid occupancy
132 over a much slower time scale: it took tens of minutes rather than a single time step for a fluid
133 meniscus to move through such a pore. The slow events occurred concurrently with the fast
134 events in neighboring pores. They typically happen in poorly connected moldic pores, that
135 often appear to be only connected to the rest of the network by micropores below the imaging
136 resolution. Third, the pore walls of many of these pores visually appeared to be partly water-
137 wet and partly oil-wet (Figure 1). We observed both events where water moved into the center
138 of the pore body while bulging into the oil (Figure 1 event 1; Figure 2; Movie S4-5) and events
139 with a near flat meniscus (Figure 1, event 2; Movie S6-7). This was distinct from layer swelling

140 during water flooding of the water-wet sample, where the water-layers always swelled from the
 141 smaller pores and corners.



142

143 **Figure 1** Visual comparison of two “slow” events show different fluid configurations of water (light grey) and oil
 144 (black). The blue arrows indicate the movement of the watery phase. During event 1 water is observed to bulge into
 145 the oil-phase indicating oil-wet conditions. In contrast, oil bulges weakly into the watery phase during event 2
 146 indicating weakly water-wet to intermediate wetting conditions.

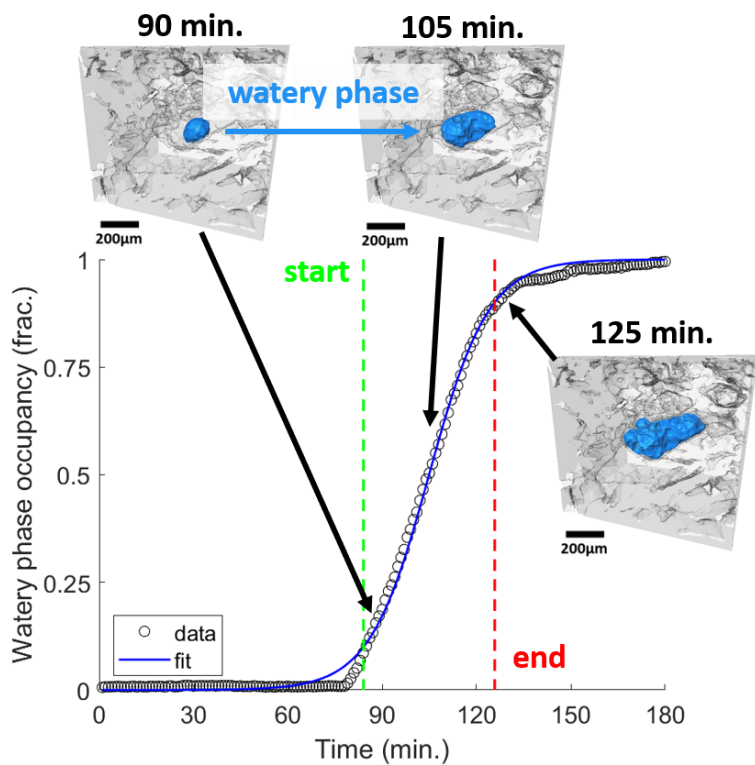
147 **Quantifying the time scales of pore-scale displacements**

148 To quantify the times scales of individual pore-scale displacements, the pore space was
 149 divided into pore bodies separated at local constrictions (38). The change in fluid saturation of
 150 each pore body over time was calculated by counting the number of segmented oil voxels
 151 within their volume. The duration of a fluid displacement event (Figure 2) was found by
 152 identifying the start and finish times of the saturation change in a pore body, and calculating
 153 the transient time during which the oil saturation in it increased or decreased (limited by the
 154 temporal resolution of the imaging). Pores that changed occupancy with less than 10% were
 155 omitted from the analysis to lower the influence of image noise.

156 In the water-wet sample, 98% of the displaced volume during the oil flood was associated with
 157 pore filling events that completed faster than the temporal resolution of the imaging (Figure
 158 3a). Longer pore filling events were associated with two or more intermittent displacements
 159 inside one pore body that each took less than one time step to complete. Displacements during
 160 the water flood in the same sample took typically 10-20 min to complete (Figure 3a). Note that
 161 the filling duration calculated here included the reversible swelling of wetting layers, which led
 162 up to capillary instabilities and subsequent “snap-off” redistributions of the fluids.

163 The displacements in the MW-WF case had a distinctively different temporal signature. While
 164 most of the fluid displacement occurred in events that took less than one time step to complete,
 165 19% of the displaced oil volume was associated with events that took longer than 60 seconds.
 166 The cumulative pore filling duration distribution shown in Figure 3a has a long tail, spanning
 167 almost the full duration of the experiment. These slow fillings appeared not to be dominated by
 168 capillary forces in the same way as during a typical drainage, which would have resulted in
 169 instabilities that caused fast fluid redistribution as soon as the invasion capillary pressure of a
 170 pore throat was overcome. Displacements with a long duration occurred concurrently with
 171 those that completed within one time step, as can be seen in Figure 3b, which shows the start
 172 and finish time of each detected displacement event. The slow filling dynamics may therefore
 173 have a non-trivial influence on the order in which pores are invaded by brine, and therefore
 174 potentially on the fluid distribution patterns that arise from this.

175



176

177 **Figure 2** By calculating the fluid occupancy over time for a single pore body, displacements can be identified and
 178 the duration of the event be calculated.

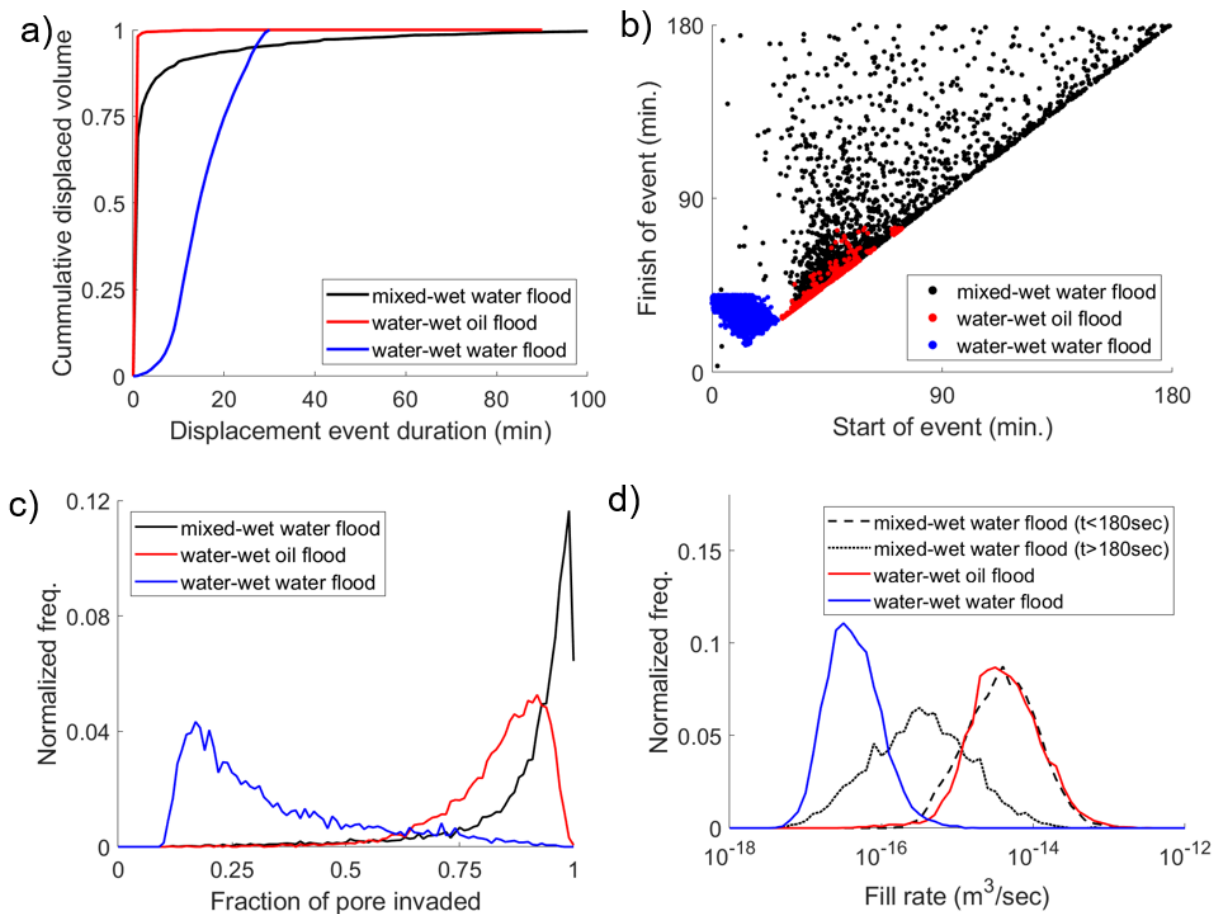
179 Displacement efficiencies

180 The fluid distributions (and thus the upscaled properties such as the relative permeability) after
 181 a displacement are influenced by the efficiency of the displacement process. In a piston-like
 182 displacement, the wetting phase can theoretically displace all of the non-wetting phase. In

183 contrast, snap-off leaves behind more non-wetting phase, as the latter becomes disconnected
 184 and may therefore be trapped in the pore-space.

185 The displaced fraction (watery phase for oil flood, oil-phase for water flood) was quantified
 186 using the difference in oil-saturation of each pore before and after a displacement event was
 187 detected (Figure 3c). The drainage process observed in the WW sample was highly efficient,
 188 displacing most of the resolved watery phase. Small amounts of water were left behind in
 189 corners, surface roughness and microporosity. The imbibition process in the same sample was
 190 much less efficient and typically only displaced 20% of the oil-phase in pore bodies where an
 191 event was detected, leaving as much as 80% percent behind.

192 The water flooding in the MW sample was found to be even more efficient than the drainage
 193 process in the WW sample, highlighting the importance of the role of surface wetting on the
 194 overall displacement processes. It also clearly shows the distinction between the slow events
 195 in the water-wet water flooding (due to layer swelling) and the slow invasion events in the
 196 mixed-wet water flooding, which tended to invade the pore centers in a piston-like manner.



197

198 **Figure 3 a)** During the water flood in the altered wet sample more than 19% of the total displaced volume of fluid
 199 occurred in events that took more than a minute to complete. **b)** Start and finish times were identified on a pore-by-
 200 pore basis. **c)** The displacement efficiency clearly shows the difference between water flood during water-wet and
 201 mixed-wet conditions. **d)** Distribution of effective fill rates for fluid displacement events in individual pores. This
 202 figure includes events that occur at time scale faster than the temporal resolution of the imaging. In those cases,

203 *the calculated effective filling rate is a lower limit and is likely much higher. Events with a duration shorter than 180*
 204 *seconds are plotted separately from those who took more than 180 seconds to complete.*

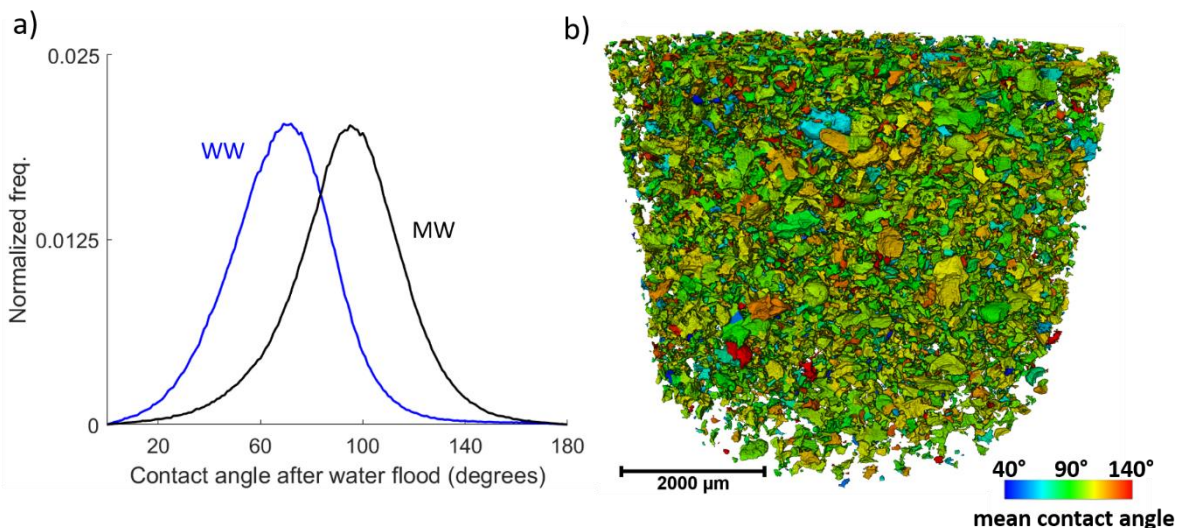
205 **Effective displacement rates**

206 The rate at which fluids flow through a porous medium is closely related to the capillary-viscous
 207 force balance that control the fluid distributions. We investigated this by defining the effective
 208 displacement rate as the volume of displaced fluid divided by the filling duration. The calculated
 209 effective displacement rates are shown in Figure 3d. These are a lower limit to the actual
 210 displacement rates due to the limited temporal resolution of the measurement. Note that the
 211 effective filling rates for a single pore were up to six orders of magnitude slower than the overall
 212 flow rate set on the pump ($1 \cdot 10^{-11} \text{ m}^3/\text{sec}$).

213 **Wettability and pore scale dynamics**

214 Wettability has a strong influence on the position of the fluid-fluid interfaces during multiphase
 215 flow and can alter the sequence in which pores are invaded in mixed-wet media (32). The
 216 wettability of a material is quantified by a contact angle, that can be calculated geometrically
 217 directly from 3D mCT images of fluid distributions (39). Contact angles were calculated on
 218 high-resolution images of the static fluid distributions after water flooding and are presented in
 219 Figure 4 for both samples. The mean contact angle for the sample in its native state was 68.5° ,
 220 indicating weakly-water wet conditions. The MW sample had a mean of 93.9° with part of the
 221 distribution below and above 90° , indicating mixed-wet conditions (20). The width of the contact
 222 angle distributions can be attributed in part to the dynamics of the fluid-fluid interface (40) as
 223 well as artefacts related to limited spatial resolution (41).

224

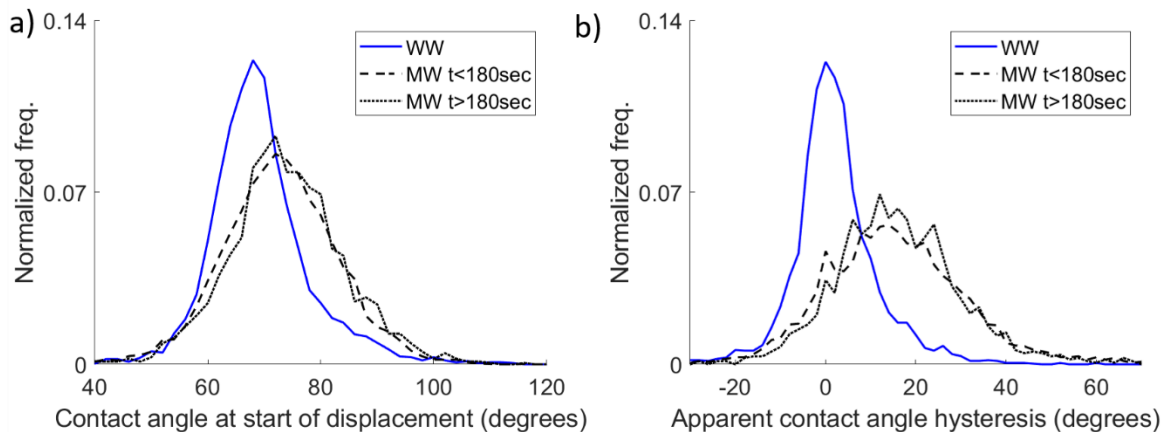


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226 **Figure 4 a)** Distributions of contact angles on static fluid distributions after the water flood. The mixed-wet
 227 distribution shows a distribution that covers both values above and below 90 degrees which is typical for mixed-wet

228 rocks. **b)** The spatial distribution of contact angles post water flood averaged for each pore body inside the mixed-
 229 wet sample.

230 By themselves, the measured wettability properties of the mixed-wet sample did not explain
 231 the slow filling dynamics that we observed. In addition to the “static” contact angles in Figure
 232 4, we investigated the relation between the wettability and the dynamics by measuring the local
 233 contact angles at the start of each fluid invasion event in the dynamic imaging data (40). Unlike
 234 contact angle measurements on static fluid distributions, which contain pinned contact lines
 235 that can yield any value between the advancing and receding contact angles, the latter “event-
 236 based” measurements indicate the advancing contact angle at the time when fluid
 237 displacements started (Figure 5a). In our mixed-wet experiment, the event-based contact
 238 angles were very similar in fast- and slow-filling pores, as was the hysteresis between the
 239 measured contact angles at the start and end of the filling events (Figure 5b). This suggests
 240 that the time-scale of the dynamics was not controlled by the local wettability alone.
 241 Nevertheless, contact angle measurements on fast time resolved mCT data may suffer from
 242 the limited spatial and temporal resolution of these measurements, and further experiments
 243 with higher resolutions are needed to confirm this.



244
 245 **Figure 5 a)** Distribution of the mean contact angles for each pore body at the start of the displacement event
 246 calculated on the dynamic mCT data of the water- and mixed-wet data. **b)** Distribution of the apparent contact angle
 247 hysteresis per pore for both water- and mixed-wet conditions during water flooding. In both a) and b) there is no
 248 obvious difference in distribution between events that take less than 180 seconds and events that take longer to
 249 complete.

250 **Filling dynamics and the viscous-capillary force balance**

251 In the capillary limit, fluid displacement can only take place if both fluid phases are connected
 252 through the sample (i.e. there is no mobilization of trapped ganglia due to viscous forces).
 253 When connected fluid pathways become narrow, the area available for fluid flow may limit the
 254 rate of fluid displacements. Conductivity-limited behavior has been observed indirectly during
 255 the final stages of drainage experiments in water-wet rocks (42). During these final stages, the

256 water phase is displaced via a network of thin water layers in the corners and crevices of rough
257 pore walls. As the area available for the water phase is limited, the relative permeability is very
258 low (orders of magnitude lower than the relative permeability of the non-wetting phase). The
259 time it takes to reach capillary equilibrium in this case can be days for a small cm-scale sample,
260 compared to the timescale of milliseconds of the initial Haines jumps that filled most of the pore
261 space (43). There are however important differences with the fluid filling events described in
262 this work: the events here happen concurrently with the fast displacements occurring in
263 neighboring pores and fill complete pore bodies rather than consisting of interfaces merely
264 invading small pore corners and crevices. They therefore have the potential of severely
265 impacting the displacement sequence, and thus the upscaled flow properties.

266 The prevalence of the slow filling events can be explained by taking into account both the
267 wettability and the pore space architecture. Microporous materials such as mineral cements
268 and clays can provide structural bottle necks between larger intergranular pores that impede
269 fluid flow. The pore throats in these narrow structures might differ orders of magnitude with
270 larger neighboring pores. Large heterogeneity in the pore size promotes the loss of fluid
271 connectivity during the invasion, due to trapping by e.g. snap-off and bypassing (43). However,
272 mixed-wet systems are known to preserve this connectivity longer than homogeneously-wetted
273 systems (44). As a consequence, filling events that cannot proceed in a water-wet systems,
274 may proceed in mixed-wet systems. When this happens, narrow connections through micro-
275 pores and wetting layers therein may cause bottlenecks in the fluids' "supply chain", thereby
276 causing conductance-limited behavior which significantly slows down the pore-scale invasion
277 dynamics. This likely explains why slow filling dynamics were less pronounced in previous
278 studies of mixed-wet systems with simpler pore structures, such as Bentheimer sandstone or
279 Ketton limestone (31, 32).

280 The local balance between viscous and capillary forces during the slow filling events can be
281 investigated using a simple model of the pore space architecture in our experiment. Mercury
282 intrusion porosimetry (Figure S1) showed that the sample had a bimodal pore throat size
283 distribution centered on throat radii $R_{\text{micro}} = \sim 2 \mu\text{m}$ and $R_{\text{inter}} = \sim 20 \mu\text{m}$ for the micro- and
284 intergranular pores respectively. We model the situation that the invading fluid had to pass
285 through a patch of tight throat radii to invade a large pore. The flow thus passed through an
286 intergranular pore (throat) with typical dimensions on the order of $R_{\text{inter}} \times R_{\text{inter}} \times R_{\text{inter}}$, which
287 was cemented with microporous material with throat size R_{micro} . Using respectively the
288 multiphase extension of the Darcy equation and the Young-Laplace equation, the balance
289 between the viscous pressure drop P_v over this blocked throat and its capillary intrusion
290 pressure P_c is:

$$291 \quad \frac{P_v}{P_c} = \frac{\mu q_{local} R_{inter}}{k_{micro} \cdot k_{micro,r}} \cdot \frac{R_{micro}}{2\sigma |\cos \theta|} = Ca_{local} \cdot \frac{R_{micro} \cdot R_{inter}}{k_{micro} \cdot k_{micro,r}} \cdot \frac{1}{2 |\cos \theta|}$$

292 Where μ is viscosity, q_{local} is the local fluid flux approximated by the effective displacement rate,
 293 k_{micro} and $k_{micro,r}$ are the absolute and relative permeability of the microporosity, σ is the interfacial
 294 tension, θ is the advancing contact angle and Ca_{local} is a local capillary number defined to
 295 equal $\mu q_{local}/\sigma$. Following (43), a typical permeability for the microporosity with this throat size
 296 is on the order of 10^{-15} m^2 , and the average contact angle was 93.5° (Figure 4). Filling in these
 297 values, we find that:

$$298 \quad \frac{P_v}{P_c} \approx 10^5 \cdot \frac{Ca_{local}}{k_{m,r}}$$

299 Based on the flow rates measured in the mCT data, the typical Ca_{local} for slow pore filling
 300 events mediated by this microporous patch would be on the order of 10^{-7} (Figure S8). Given
 301 the fact that the relative permeability to either the invading or the escaping phase is expected
 302 to be low ($\ll 10^{-1}$) in a mixed-wet medium, the local ratio between viscous and capillary forces
 303 can easily approach values on the order of 1. This indicates that in samples where pore sizes
 304 differ orders of magnitude, viscous forces could play a significant role in the displacement
 305 process even at very low global capillary numbers. The mixed-wet wettability plays a crucial
 306 role here, as it allows to maintain fluid connectivity – and thus displacement processes to
 307 proceed – even for very low relative permeabilities to either of the fluids.

308 **Conclusions**

309 To investigate multiphase flow dynamics in porous materials with a complex pore structure and
 310 wettability, we used time-resolved microcomputed tomography to image unsteady-state
 311 multiphase flow experiments in two microcores of a calcareous sandstone. The pore-scale
 312 dynamics are shown to be qualitatively and quantitative different for samples in the water- and
 313 mixed-wet conditions. We identified a novel displacement mechanism during water flood under
 314 mixed-wet conditions where a significant part of the pores change fluid occupancy at time
 315 scales which are orders of magnitude slower than those of directly neighboring pores. These
 316 observations indicate that even at low capillary numbers, viscous forces can influence the
 317 displacement process in complex pore spaces, particularly under mixed-wet conditions.

318 One of the main open questions in the field of multiphase flow is how to link pore-scale
 319 displacements to macro-scale behavior of multiphase flow described by continuum-scale
 320 equations. Most continuum descriptions implicitly assume static fluid distributions for constant
 321 flow conditions. However, multiphase flow is a dynamic process: the fluid patterns are not
 322 stable and no genuine steady state exists. This has been demonstrated experimentally for
 323 higher capillary numbers (10^{-6} - 10^{-4}), in the form of intermittency (30), ganglion dynamics (29)

324 or break-up of ganglia in rocks with a multiscale pore system (45). The work presented here
325 demonstrates that even at much lower capillary numbers ($\sim 10^{-8}$), pore-scale complexities such
326 as mixed-wettability and multi-scale pore geometries can cause significant pore-scale
327 variations in the capillary-viscous force balance. This gave rise to previously undescribed pore-
328 scale dynamics that may contribute significantly to the overall volume and order of the pore-
329 scale fluid displacements, and thus to the macro-scale behavior. Our observations of these
330 dynamics spurs further investigation into the classification of phenomena caused by pore-scale
331 variability in the driving forces of multiphase flow in heterogeneous porous materials.
332 Ultimately, this may lead to better models of fluid flow in the subsurface critical for groundwater
333 resources and CO₂ sequestration operations.

334 **Materials and Methods**

335 Unsteady-state core flooding experiments were performed using a 1.0 mol·kg⁻¹ potassium
336 iodide (KI) brine as watery phase and n-decane as oil phase, a flow rate of 0.0006 ml/min and
337 at ambient temperatures. The fluid viscosities were taken to be $\mu_{\text{brine}} = 0.82$ mPa/s and μ_{decane}
338 $= 0.84$ mPa/s and an interfacial tension of 52 mN·m⁻¹ (46–48). Under these conditions, the
339 macroscopic capillary number for the flooding experiments was $3 \cdot 10^{-8}$.

340 Two 29 mm long, 6 mm diameter microcores of Luxembourg Sandstone (Carrières Feidt
341 Ernzen, Luxembourg) were used: one in its native water-wet state, while the wettability of the
342 second sample was chemically altered by partial liquid phase deposition of
343 Octadecyltrichlorosilane (OTS) rendering it mixed-wet (49).

344 The sample was mounted in an X-ray transparent core holder with a confining pressure of
345 3.65MPa. The experiments were imaged using a TESCAN DynaTOM scanner (TESCAN,
346 Czech Republic). mCT scans were acquired continuously during the experiments (8 $\mu\text{m}/\text{vx}$)
347 and higher resolution imaging (4 $\mu\text{m}/\text{vx}$ for WW and 3.5 $\mu\text{m}/\text{vx}$ for MW) was performed prior to
348 and after each flooding experiment.

349 Each image in the time series was processed and segmented using Avizo 2020.2 (Thermo
350 Fisher Scientific) to classify voxels in each image either belonging to mineral, oil or watery
351 phase (50). Filling times were calculated by fitting a sigmoidal function to the normalized pore
352 occupancy data (51). Contact angles were calculated using an automatic method (39).

353 A more detailed description of materials and methods is provided in Supporting Information.

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