

# Event-based contact angle measurements inside porous media using time-resolved micro-computed tomography

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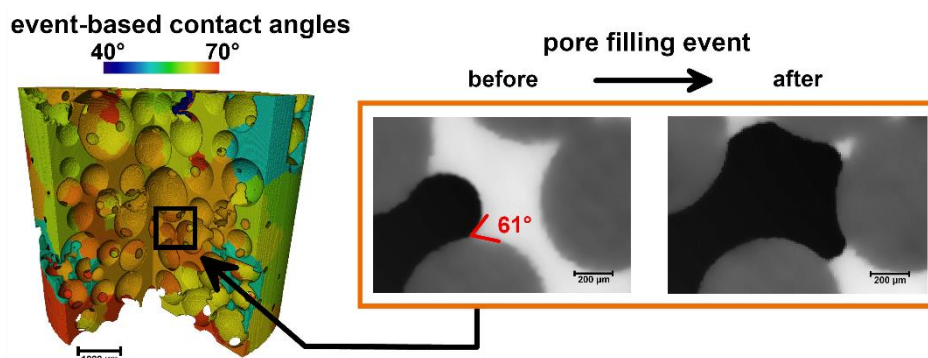
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## Abstract

Capillary-dominated multiphase flow in porous materials is strongly affected by the pore walls' wettability. Recent micro-computed tomography (mCT) studies show that contact angles can be measured inside the pores if the fluid distribution is static. However, this may not be directly relevant to dynamic fluid displacements. Here, we approximate receding contact angles locally in time and space on time-resolved mCT datasets of drainage in a glass bead pack and a limestone. Whenever a fluid meniscus suddenly entered one or more pores, geometric and thermodynamically consistent contact angles in the surrounding pores were measured in the time step just prior to the displacement event. We introduce a new force-based contact angle, defined to recover the measured capillary pressure in the invaded pore throat prior to interface movement. While the static method results in unexpectedly wide contact angle distributions, the new geometric and force-based contact angles followed plausible, narrower distributions and were mutually consistent. We were not able to obtain credible results for the thermodynamically consistent event-based method, likely due to uncertainties in image analysis and neglecting viscous dissipation. Time-resolved mCT analysis can yield a more appropriate wettability characterization for pore scale models, despite the need to further reduce image analysis uncertainties.

## Graphical abstract



## Keywords

Contact angle, Pore-scale, Wettability, Multiphase flow, porous media, imaging, X-ray micro-tomography, interfacial curvature, Haines jump, Primary drainage

## 33 **1. Introduction**

34 Multiphase flow in porous materials is crucial for e.g. safe subsurface CO<sub>2</sub> storage (Bui  
35 et al., 2018), groundwater remediation (Mercer and Cohen, 1990) and efficient PEM  
36 fuel cells (Borup et al., 2007; Gostick et al., 2006). This process is strongly affected by  
37 the porous medium's wettability: its affinity to be in contact with one fluid over another  
38 (Abdallah et al., 2007). The wettability, typically expressed as a contact angle between  
39 the solid and the fluids, induces capillary forces which exert a strong influence on fluid  
40 displacement (Singh et al., 2019). Drainage is the displacement of a wetting fluid by a  
41 non-wetting fluid, while the reverse process is called imbibition (Blunt, 2017).  
42 Fundamentally, wettability is a function of the intermolecular forces between the fluids  
43 and the solid surface (including any coatings or impurities on it). In addition, most  
44 natural materials contain surface roughness from the nanometer scale upwards, which  
45 influences the effective contact angle observed at larger scales (Schmatz et al., 2015).  
46 Due to local variations in mineralogy, surface roughness and coating, contact angles  
47 in porous media are often hysteretic, scale-dependent and variable throughout the  
48 pore space (Abdallah et al., 2007; Alhammadi et al., 2017; AlRatrouf et al., 2018;  
49 Buckley, 2001; Cassie and Baxter, 1944; Khishvand et al., 2016; Morrow, 1990;  
50 Murison et al., 2014; Quéré, 2008; Singh et al., 2016; Wenzel, 1936). One of the main  
51 open standing questions is therefore how to define and measure local wettability  
52 characteristics throughout the pore space with relevance to multiphase fluid dynamics.  
53 This is particularly important to inform pore-scale computational models (Akai et al.,  
54 2019b; Verma et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2019).

55 Recent work has shown that contact angles can be measured by geometrical analysis  
56 on a 3D image of fluids in the pore space where the interfaces between the fluids  
57 remain static. Such images are typically acquired using micro-computed X-ray  
58 tomography (mCT), which has been established as an important tool to investigate  
59 multiphase flow at the pore scale in recent years (Andrew et al., 2015; Berg et al.,  
60 2013; Blunt, 2017; Bultreys et al., 2016; Wildenschild and Sheppard, 2013). Local  
61 measurements of geometrical contact angles in the pore space can be made based  
62 on visual observation (Andrew et al., 2015; Khishvand et al., 2017), automated  
63 algorithms (AlRatrouf et al., 2017; Scanziani et al., 2017) or methods based on the  
64 deficit curvature of the solid and fluid interfaces (Sun et al., 2020). However, these  
65 measurements were shown to result in unexpectedly wide distributions of contact  
66 angles which are difficult to interpret and to use in pore scale models (Akai et al.,  
67 2019a; Blunt et al., 2019). This is not fully explained by the significant uncertainty on  
68 determining the three-phase contact line and the normal to the rough solid surface,  
69 caused by partial volume effects and other imaging artefacts common in mCT (Cnudde  
70 and Boone, 2013).

71 None of the methods discussed so far take into account that contact angles measured  
72 on static fluid distributions may not be directly relevant to dynamic fluid displacements  
73 during drainage and imbibition. Due to unresolved roughness on the solid surface,  
74 contact angles can be hysteretic: at a pinned contact line in any pore, these can vary  
75 between an advancing and a receding value, at which the contact line finally starts to  
76 move. Furthermore, the location of the contact line in combination with the pore shape  
77 at the time of observation, as well as the equilibration time before imaging, likely also

78 influence the observed contact angles (Rabbani et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2020). Such  
79 effects cannot be discerned from an image of a fluid distribution at one specific time.  
80 Blunt et al. (2019) addressed these concerns by indirectly estimating a  
81 thermodynamically consistent contact angle based on energy conservation. They  
82 compared mCT images of fluids in a rock sample at the start and end of imbibition, and  
83 then equated the pressure-volume work, estimated by measuring the curvature of the  
84 fluid-fluid interface and the saturation change, to the interfacial energy stored in the  
85 system. The latter can be expressed in function of interfacial areas and a  
86 thermodynamically consistent contact angle. The sensitivity to contact line and solid  
87 surface normal estimation is therefore reduced or eliminated. Furthermore, this  
88 definition aims to take the effects of unresolved solid surface features into account, as  
89 it should yield an effective value related to the fluid displacement. Yet, two important  
90 issues remain. First, the method assumes that the invasion process can be  
91 approximated as being reversible, while this is unlikely to hold for general  
92 displacements. (Seth and Morrow, 2007) found that up to 84% of the pressure-volume  
93 work during drainage of a limestone was dissipated. Second, the method provides a  
94 single contact angle value for the whole sample, rather than a localized measurement.

95 In this work, we propose to estimate pore-scale (receding) contact angles that are  
96 relevant to fluid displacement by analyzing time-resolved mCT datasets. First, we  
97 identified the time and location of pores in which fluid displacements took place during  
98 drainage. Then, geometric and thermodynamically consistent contact angles were  
99 computed on a pore-by-pore basis for each single displacement event at the time just  
100 before displacement. We introduce a new force-based receding contact angle  
101 definition derived from the measured curvature of a fluid meniscus which triggers it to  
102 move through a pore throat (i.e. a Haines jump). The method was tested on two publicly  
103 available drainage datasets (Schlüter et al., 2016; Singh et al., 2018).

104 The methodology and the experimental data are described in Section 2. In section 3.1,  
105 the results from the detection of pore filling events are discussed, followed by a  
106 validation of the interfacial curvature analysis by experimental capillary pressure data  
107 in Section 3.2. In Section 3.3, the novel time-resolved contact angle measurements  
108 are compared to the prior static approach and to each other. This is followed by  
109 conclusions and discussion of the current limitations of the method in Section 4.

## 110 **2. Materials and methods**

111 In the following section, the conceptual framework for this study is first introduced,  
112 followed by a brief overview of the experimental data and a detailed description of the  
113 image analysis workflow used to identify filling events and calculate force-based,  
114 geometric and thermodynamically consistent contact angles.

### 115 2.1 Contact angles and displacement events

116 At low capillary numbers, drainage takes place as a sequence of unstable fluid  
117 redistribution events (Haines jumps) every few (tens of) seconds, interspersed by  
118 smooth reversible displacement (Armstrong and Berg, 2013; Haines, 1930; Morrow,  
119 1970; Schlüter et al., 2017). During the smooth reversible displacement, the contact  
120 line can remain (nearly) static close to a local constriction ('pore throat') while the

121 curvature of the interface increases due to the increasing capillary pressure (Figure 1),  
122 as described by the Young-Laplace equation:

$$123 \quad P_c = \sigma \left( \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} \right) = 2\kappa\sigma \quad (\text{e.q. 1})$$

124 Where  $\sigma$  is the interfacial tension,  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are the principle radii of curvature of the  
125 fluid-fluid interface and  $\kappa$  is its mean curvature.

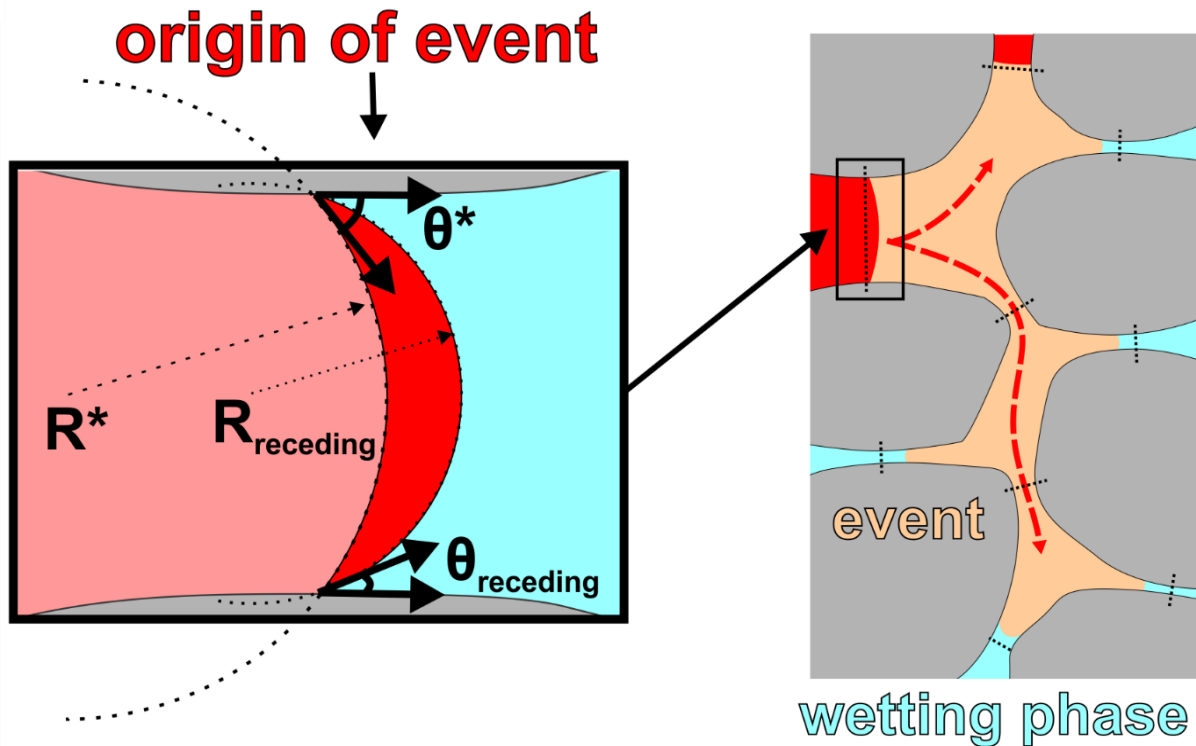
126 When the pressure difference between the two fluids exceeds a certain capillary  
127 pressure threshold, an irreversible displacement takes place and the interface abruptly  
128 enters one or more neighboring pores (local dilations in the pore space). This threshold  
129 is determined by the geometry of the pore throat through which the interface has to  
130 pass – the narrower the throat, the higher the threshold – as well as by the local  
131 wettability. For example, the associated threshold curvature  $\kappa_{thr}$  in a cylindrical pore  
132 throat is given by the well-known Young-Laplace equilibrium pressure:

$$133 \quad P_{c,thr} = 2\sigma\kappa_{thr} = \frac{2\sigma\cos(\theta)}{r} \quad (\text{e.q. 2})$$

134 Where  $\theta$  is the receding contact angle, and  $r$  is the throat radius. Therefore, the local  
135 wettability in a pore throat can be characterized by defining a force-based receding  
136 contact angle  $\theta_f$  relevant to the displacement:

$$137 \quad \theta_f \equiv \arccos(\kappa_{thr}r) \quad (\text{e.q. 3})$$

138 Note that the force-based contact angle only yields the same value as the receding  
139 contact angle for perfectly cylindrical pore throats. However, the advantage is that it  
140 provides a direct link to the threshold capillary pressure without depending on highly  
141 scale-dependent measurements at or near the rough solid interface. Furthermore, e.q.  
142 3 can in principle be extended to arbitrarily complex geometrical pore throat models,  
143 e.g. pore throats with triangular (Ma et al., 1996) or hyperbolic polygonal cross-sections  
144 (Joekar-Niasar et al., 2010). In this paper, we used the cylindrical model to obtain a  
145 first order estimate of the force-based receding contact angle for several hundreds of  
146 Haines jumps in a bead pack and a limestone. The following sections describe how  $\theta_f$   
147 can be estimated for each individual displacement event in time-resolved mCT  
148 datasets, as well as how geometrical and thermodynamically consistent contact angles  
149 were determined for comparison.



150

151 *Figure 1 A schematic drawing of a Haines jump during primary drainage. **Left box:** at time  $T-1$  the main*  
 152 *terminal meniscus of the non-wetting phase (in pink) is located in a pore throat with an interface with a*  
 153 *certain radius of curvature ( $R^*$ ) and associated contact angle  $\theta^*$ . Just before displacement (in red), the*  
 154 *interface reaches a radius of curvature ( $R_{\text{receding}}$ ) and an associated contact angle  $\theta_{\text{receding}}$  upon which it*  
 155 *will start to move into the next pore.  $R_{\text{receding}}$  determines the threshold capillary pressure for the event.*  
 156 ***Right box:** in the following displacement event, three neighboring pores (indicated in orange and*  
 157 *separated by constrictions indicated as black dotted lines) are filled by the Haines jump. Fluid*  
 158 *distributions at  $T-1$  are in red and at time  $T$  in orange.*

## 159 2.2 Experimental data

160 Two well-documented and publicly available primary drainage data sets were  
 161 analyzed: one measured on a sintered glass bead pack (Schlüter et al., 2016) and one  
 162 on a Ketton limestone (Singh et al., 2018). Both experiments are unsteady-state  
 163 drainage experiments in which a non-wetting phase is injected into a cylindrical sample  
 164 at a low capillary number to ensure capillary dominated flow. A summary of the  
 165 experimental parameters is given in Table 1. The time resolved mCT experiments  
 166 resulted in a series of segmented 3D images, each representing the fluid distribution  
 167 in the pore space during a discrete, short time interval in the drainage. The data used  
 168 in our analysis, is the segmented data by Schlüter et al., (2016) and (Singh et al.,  
 169 2018). The former used a modified form of Markov random field (MRF) segmentation  
 170 for this, the latter a seeded watershed algorithm.

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175 *Table 1 Overview of the data sets used for the image analysis. \* exact flow rates were not recorded*  
 176 *during the drainage experiments.*

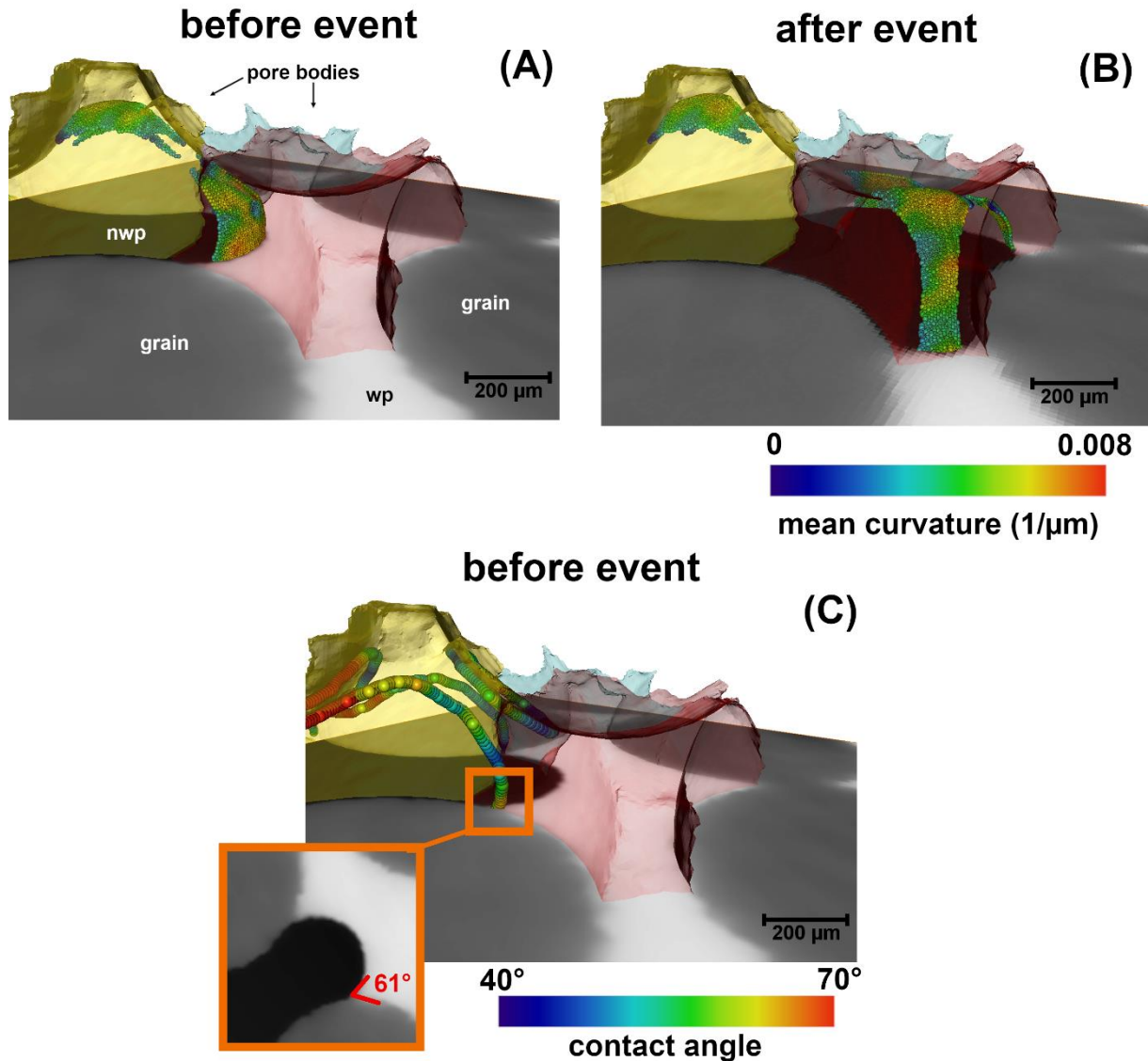
	<b>glass bead pack</b>	<b>Ketton limestone</b>
<b>Sample dimension</b>	5.8mm dia. x 7mm long	3.8mm dia. x 10mm long
<b>Boundary condition</b>	constant flowrate	constant pressure + tight capillary plate
<b>Fluids</b>	n-dodecane, CsCl-brine	n-decane, KI-brine
<b>Interfacial tension</b>	36mN/m	52.33mN/m
<b>Flow rate</b>	50 $\mu$ l/h	$\sim$ 1-6 $\mu$ l/h*
<b>Imposed pressure</b>	N/A	50kPa
<b>Capillary number</b>	$4.2 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$\sim 10^{-9}$ *
<b>Number of time steps</b>	38	496
<b>Time per time step</b>	113s	38s
<b>Time span (hr:min:sec)</b>	01:13:44	5:14:08
<b>Reconstructed voxel size</b>	8.4 $\mu$ m	3.28 $\mu$ m
<b>Reference</b>	Schlüter et al., (2016)	Singh et al., (2018)

177

## 178 2.3 Image analysis

### 179 2.3.1 Identifying fluid filling events in time-resolved mCT datasets

180 As a first step in the analysis, the pore space was divided into individual pores  
 181 separated by throat surfaces using a watershed algorithm implemented in the open  
 182 source algorithm “pnextract” (Raeini et al., 2018) (Figure 2). This algorithm determines  
 183 the largest inscribed spheres in each pore and in each throat. Pore and throat radii  
 184 were found as the radii of these inscribed spheres. Following the procedure proposed  
 185 in Bultreys et al. (2018), 3D images of the determined inscribed spheres in the pores  
 186 were overlain on the drainage datasets. The fluid occupancy of pore centers was then  
 187 determined by checking if the majority of the voxels in the associated inscribed sphere  
 188 were filled with wetting or non-wetting phase. This was done for each pore in each time  
 189 step, and “fluid filling” was consecutively found as the case where a pore changes its  
 190 fluid occupancy (i.e. the fluid in the majority of its inscribed sphere’s voxels) in  
 191 consecutive time steps. Connected fluid fillings in the same time step were regarded  
 192 to belong to the same filling event (Figure 1). This was done by performing a graph-  
 193 based connectivity clustering of the pores filled in each time step using MATLAB  
 194 (Bultreys et al., 2015). Finally, the result of this analysis was a list of filling events,  
 195 detailing the time of filling, the pores that were filled (including location and  
 196 characterization of the pores), and the pores and throats that neighbor each filling  
 197 event. The source throat of each event was found by selecting the throat neighbor with  
 198 the largest throat radius.



199

200 *Figure 2 Capturing and characterizing a pore filling event in the sintered glass bead pack dataset from*  
 201 *Schlüter et al. (2016). nwp = non-wetting phase, wp = wetting phase. (A) before the event, a non-wetting*  
 202 *phase terminal meniscus is located at a pore throat of the yellow pore body. The interface has a mean*  
 203 *curvature proportional to the local capillary pressure which is used to determine the force-based*  
 204 *contact angle. (B) at the time step after the event, the interface has moved into the neighboring blue and red*  
 205 *pore bodies. (C) the event-based geometric contact angle ( $62^\circ$ ) is calculated by measuring the contact*  
 206 *angle on the points of three-phase contact line, indicated by colored spheres. A manual measurement*  
 207 *(small box) of the contact angle in the plane perpendicular to the grain surface is in reasonable*  
 208 *agreement ( $61^\circ$ ) with the event-based geometric contact angle.*

### 209 2.3.2 Force-based receding contact angles

210 As defined in section 2.1, an estimate for the force-based contact angle can be  
 211 obtained by linking the local capillary pressure which triggered the fluid redistribution  
 212 to the radius of the source throat of each event. On 3D images of fluid distributions,  
 213 the local capillary pressure can be estimated from the curvature of the fluid–fluid  
 214 interface (Andrew et al., 2014a; Armstrong et al., 2012). As the volume in space  
 215 associated to each pore is known, it is straightforward to map point measurements of  
 216 interfacial curvature to pores. At time step T-1, before a filling event, the fluid–fluid

217 interface is located (partly) in the pores directly neighboring the event. Therefore, we  
218 determined the average fluid-fluid interfacial curvature both in pores that were invaded  
219 and in their neighbors during the time-step just before the associated filling event  
220 (Figure 2A).

221 To obtain curvature values, the fluid-fluid interface was extracted from the segmented  
222 images by extracting a triangulated surface using the marching cube algorithm  
223 (Lorensen and Cline, 1987) in Avizo (ThermoFisher Scientific). Constrained surface  
224 smoothing using a Gaussian filter with an extent of 3 voxels was performed, analogous  
225 to Li et al. (2018). Mean surface curvature was calculated using the eigenvalues and  
226 eigenvectors of a quadratic form fitted locally to the surface. The accuracy of this  
227 calculation is limited by the finite resolution of the images, especially in regions close  
228 to the three-phase contact line, where partial volume effects add to the uncertainty,  
229 and in arc-meniscus sections of the fluid-fluid interface (Akai et al., 2019b; Armstrong  
230 et al., 2012; Li et al., 2018; Singh et al., 2017). The curvature data points were filtered  
231 based on several criteria to account for this. First, all data points with a curvature  
232 corresponding to a radius of curvature smaller than twice the reconstructed voxel size  
233 were omitted as these most likely represent noise. The non-wetting phase bulges into  
234 the wetting phase during drainage and terminal menisci thus have a positive curvature  
235 with respect to the non-wetting phase (Armstrong et al., 2012). As this study is limited  
236 to drainage, all data points with a curvature equal to or smaller than zero, typically  
237 associated with arc-meniscus sections of the interface, were subsequently filtered out.  
238 Lastly, we followed the approach of Li et al. (2018) on the glass bead data set, to filter  
239 and weigh the curvature data points based (AIRatrou et al., 2017; Blunt et al., 2019;  
240 Dalton et al., 2018) on their geodesic distance (20% of the maximum geodesic distance  
241 found in the image) to the edge of the surface. For the Ketton data set, we followed the  
242 approach of Singh et al. (2017) by filtering data points with a Euclidian distance of 3  
243 voxels from the pore wall.

### 244 2.3.3 Geometric (receding) contact angles

245 To reduce uncertainty related to the state of the interface (e.g. pinning), receding  
246 contact angles have to be measured at (or at least very near) the moment the fluid-  
247 fluid interface moves. Therefore, we propose to measure geometric contact angles at  
248 the appropriate time step in a small region directly surrounding the displacement event  
249 in time-resolved mCT data. This is in contrast to previous measurements of geometric  
250 contact angles that included all points on the three phase contact lines in a single mCT  
251 image of a static fluid distribution, typically acquired at the end of drainage or imbibition  
252 (e.g. AIRatrou et al., 2017; Blunt et al., 2019; Dalton et al., 2018).

253 We compared both approaches of contact angle measurements using the fully  
254 automatic algorithm developed by AIRatrou et al. (2017). The algorithm generated a  
255 smoothed mesh on which the three phase contact line is identified. Subsequently, it  
256 calculated geometric contact angles in each mesh point on the contact line based on  
257 the dot product of the vectors normal to the solid surface and the fluid-fluid interface.  
258 We used the default smoothing settings proposed by AIRatrou et al. (2017). The  
259 method was applied to each time step image. Event-based geometric contact angles  
260 were then determined by retaining and averaging only the geometric contact angle



261 points measured in the event pores and their neighbors at the appropriate event time  
 262 step (Figure 2C). We compared this to the conventional static method by calculating  
 263 the distribution of all the contact angle points in the last time step of drainage.

### 264 2.3.4 Thermodynamically-consistent receding contact angles

265 Here, we extend the work of Morrow (1970) and Blunt et al. (2019) to derive a  
 266 thermodynamically-consistent contact angle,  $\theta_t$ , for filling events during primary  
 267 drainage:

$$268 \quad \cos\theta_t = \frac{\kappa_{thr}\Delta V_{nwp} + \Delta A_{fluid-fluid}}{\Delta A_{nwp-solid}} \quad (\text{e.q. 4})$$

269 Where  $\kappa_{thr}$  is the threshold curvature at invasion,  $\Delta V_{nwp}$  the change in volume of the  
 270 non-wetting phase (positive for primary drainage),  $\Delta A_{fluid-fluid}$  the change in fluid-fluid  
 271 interfacial area, and  $\Delta A_{nwp-solid}$  the change in non-wetting-solid surface area (positive  
 272 for primary drainage). Surface areas were calculated on triangulated surfaces  
 273 extracted using the method described in Section 2.3.2. By applying this relationship,  
 274 drainage is assumed to be an isothermal, reversible process, which has been shown  
 275 not to be valid in general (Armstrong and Berg, 2013; Morrow, 1970; Seth and Morrow,  
 276 2007). The calculated thermodynamically-consistent contact angle is therefore likely  
 277 an underestimation, as part of the work done will be lost as viscous dissipation (Blunt  
 278 et al., 2019). Similar to the calculation of the geometric receding contact angle, we  
 279 compare the event-by-event based results to a static calculation using surface areas,  
 280 curvatures and volumes of consecutive time step images.

## 281 **3. Results & discussion**

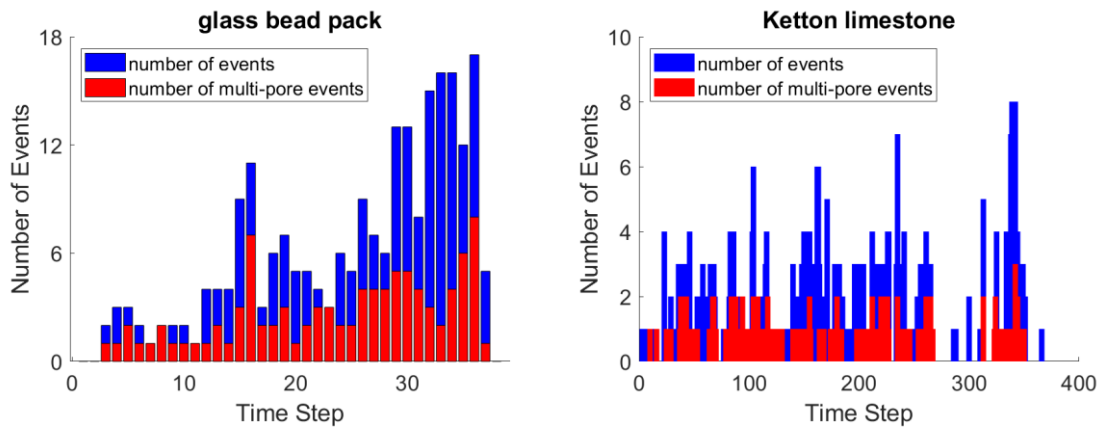
### 282 3.1 Filling events

283 By detecting changes in pore occupancy during the experiments and clustering these  
 284 into pore filling events (section 2), 231 (glass bead pack) and 425 (Ketton limestone)  
 285 filling events were detected and analyzed. Up to 17 (glass beads) and 8 (Ketton  
 286 limestone) different events were detected in a single time step (Figure 3). The number  
 287 of pore-filling events per time step increases over time (Figure 3) while the volumes of  
 288 these events decreases (Figure 4). Well connected, larger pores were filled first, and  
 289 smaller pores with fewer connections were filled later in the sequence, as expected  
 290 from invasion percolation.

291 *Table 2 Overview of the detected events in the glass bead pack and Ketton limestone*

	<b>glass bead pack</b>	<b>Ketton limestone</b>
<b>Events</b>	231	425
<b>multi-pore events</b>	95	134
<b>Large events (&gt;1% pore volume, #pores)</b>	20	4
<b>Largest event (# pores)</b>	18	46

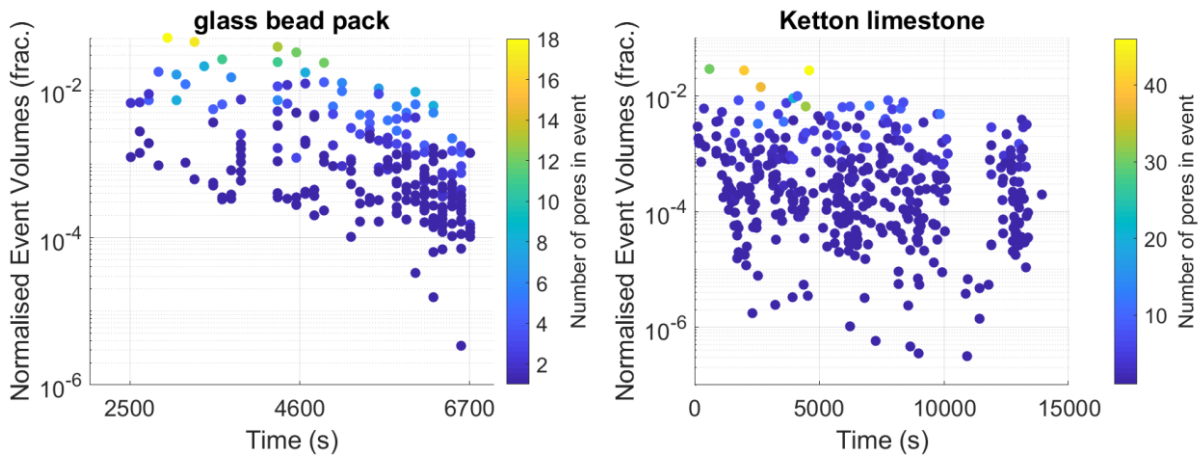
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293

294 *Figure 3 Bar charts showing the number of (multi-pore) events detected per time step.*

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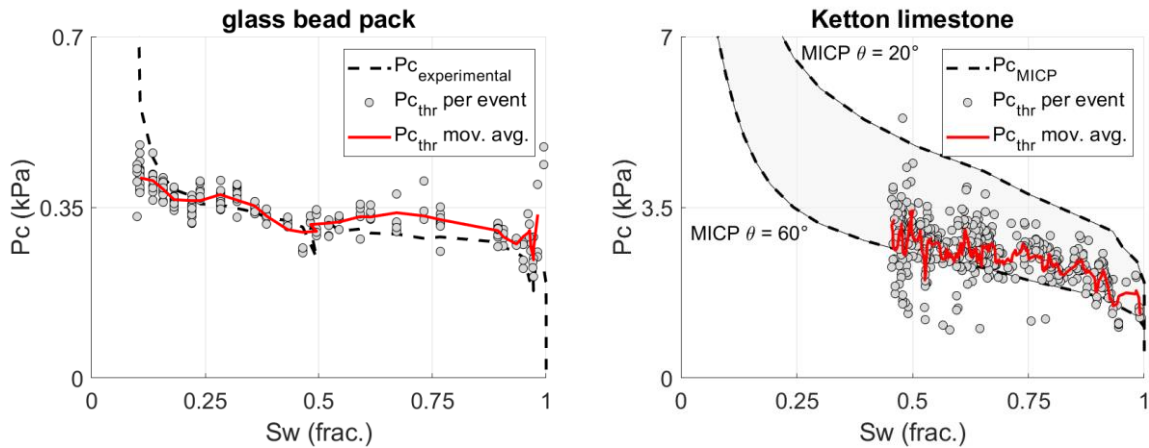


296

297 *Figure 4 Plots showing the normalized event volume for each event with the number of pores filled*  
 298 *during the event in colors.*

### 299 3.2 Validation of curvature measurements

300 The force-based contact angle introduced in this paper depends crucially on the  
 301 measurement of interfacial curvature from the time-resolved mCT scans. Using e.q. 1,  
 302 these measurements also yield the associated capillary pressure, which can be plotted  
 303 against the wetting saturation determined from the image (Figure 5). The resulting  
 304 threshold capillary pressures can thus be compared and validated to capillary pressure  
 305 curves measured with external pressure transducers (Armstrong et al., 2012).  
 306 Experimental pressure measurements were available for the glass bead pack dataset,  
 307 but not for the Ketton limestone dataset. We validated the latter using mercury intrusion  
 308 capillary pressure (MICP) data, measured on a different Ketton limestone sample  
 309 (Reynolds and Krevor, 2015). We rescaled the saturation axis of the MICP data to  
 310 include only the pore space larger than the voxel size of the images ( $3.28\mu\text{m}$ ). The  $P_c$   
 311 axis was rescaled using the interfacial tension measured by (Singh et al., 2018) and a  
 312 range of contact angle values ( $20^\circ$ - $60^\circ$ ) expected for Ketton limestone.



313

314 *Figure 5 Calculated threshold capillary pressure for each event plotted against the wetting-phase*  
 315 *saturation of the sample calculated from the images. The data is compared to experimental pressure*  
 316 *measurements in the case of the glass bead pack and scaled MICP measurements (Reynolds and*  
 317 *Krevor 2015) using a theta between 20° and 60° for the data of the Ketton limestone.*

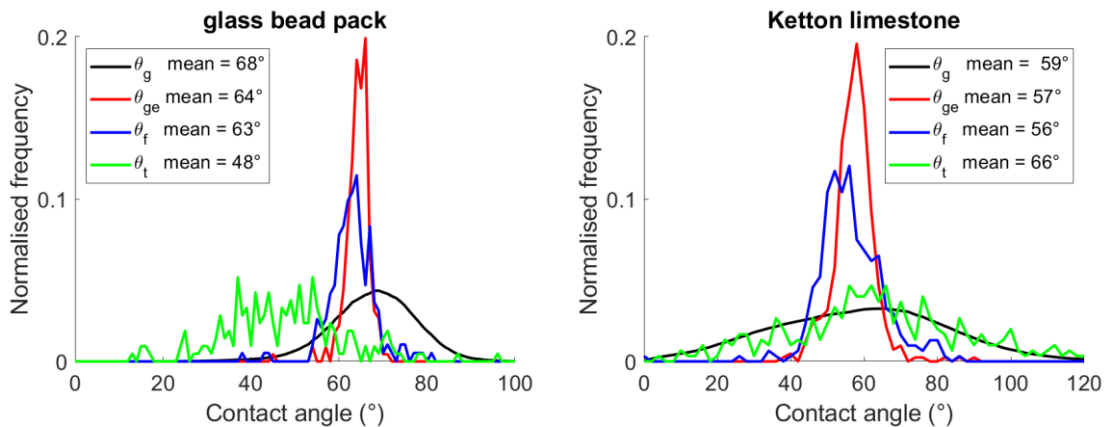
318 As can be seen in Figure 5, the event-based calculations scatter around the externally  
 319 measured pressures. The scatter is to some extent expected for drainage, since non-  
 320 local effects can induce local pressure differences and the time scale of the  
 321 experiments is likely too short to establish full capillary equilibrium (Armstrong and  
 322 Berg, 2013; Schlüter et al., 2017).

323 Imaging and image analysis form additional sources of uncertainty. Limited spatial  
 324 resolution causes uncertainty in the calculated mean curvature of the interface as the  
 325 curvature is not fully resolved. Akai et al. (2019) estimated that local capillary pressures  
 326 can be estimated within 30% if the average radius of curvature is more than 6 times  
 327 the image resolution. Applying these rules of thumb, a radius of curvature of 6 times  
 328 the image resolution would be equivalent to capillary pressures of ~0.7 kPa and ~2.6  
 329 kPa for the glass beads and Ketton limestone respectively. As these values are close  
 330 to the measured pressures, the spatial resolution is likely to influence the results,  
 331 especially at lower wetting phase saturations. The limited temporal resolution of the  
 332 scans causes motion artefacts and decreases the signal to noise ratio, providing  
 333 additional sources of uncertainty. Furthermore, this also means that the curvature is  
 334 determined a few tens of seconds before the Haines jump. To estimate the uncertainty  
 335 induced by this, we determined the average rate of change of the external Pc  
 336 measurement in the glass bead pack. This was ~43 Pa per time step, equating to an  
 337 uncertainty of approximately 10% on the average measured event pressures.  
 338 However, the uncertainty is less significant in the beginning of drainage, and more  
 339 significant at the very end (when the Pc is changing more rapidly). The temporal  
 340 uncertainty on the Ketton dataset can be assumed to be lower, as both the flow rate  
 341 and the time per image are smaller (Table 1), yet there are no external pressure  
 342 measurements available to estimate this quantitatively. Newer synchrotron beamline  
 343 setups allow to further increase the temporal resolution by 2 orders of magnitude  
 344 (1s/scan) without compromising the image quality (Mokso et al., 2017; Spurin et al.,  
 345 2019).

346

### 3.3 Force-based, geometric and thermodynamically consistent contact angles

The distribution of the force-based contact angles is compared to those of the static and event-based geometric contact angles and of the event-based thermodynamically consistent contact angles in Figure 6. The average force-based contact angle was  $63^\circ$  and  $56^\circ$  in respectively the glass bead pack and the Ketton limestone datasets, compared to an average event-based geometric contact angle of respectively  $64^\circ$  and  $57^\circ$ . The distribution of the event-based geometric contact angles matched the force-based angle closely. The event-based geometric contact angle has a notably narrower distribution than its “static” counterpart (the distribution of all geometric contact angles measured in one time step image). This confirms that the unexpectedly wide contact angle distributions reported in literature are to a significant extent related to the dynamics of the interface motion, e.g. contact angle hysteresis, pinning, the location of the contact line at the time of fluid redistribution, or interface relaxation. The event-based thermodynamically consistent contact angles are more broadly distributed than the geometric and force-based methods. They had a lower mean value than the other methods for the glass beads ( $48^\circ$ ) and a higher value for Ketton limestone ( $66^\circ$ ). Similar values,  $44^\circ$  and  $68^\circ$  for the glass bead pack and Ketton limestone respectively, were found when using the approach of Blunt et al. (2019), using the full fluid distributions on consecutive images for the calculations.



366

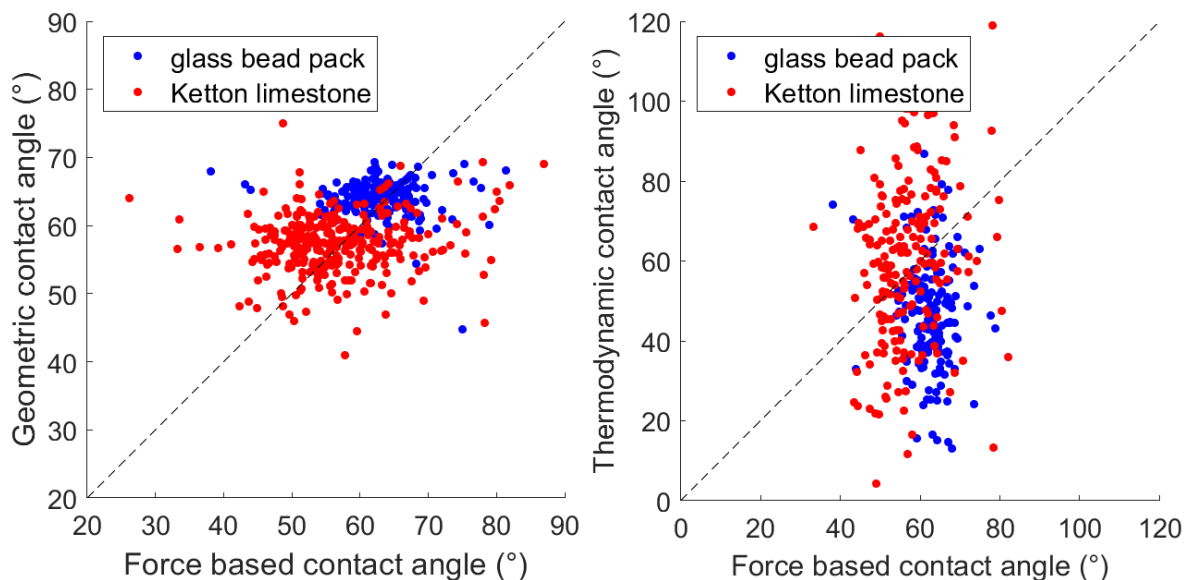
367 *Figure 6 Distribution of force-based ( $\theta_f$ ), geometric ( $\theta_{ge}$ ) and thermodynamically consistent ( $\theta_t$ ) contact*  
 368 *angles determined on an event-by-event basis using the proposed methodology, compared to the*  
 369 *standard approach of determining the geometric contact angles in each point on the contact line of the*  
 370 *mCT image taken after drainage ( $\theta_g$ ).*

371 The contact angle values for each event are cross-plotted in Figure 7. The fairly good  
 372 match between the force-based and the geometric methods suggests that geometric  
 373 contact angles can be used to provide a reasonable prediction of the invasion capillary  
 374 pressure in pore scale drainage models, yet only when measured on an event-by-event  
 375 basis in a time-resolved dataset. This is crucial for e.g. pore network modelling studies,  
 376 which predict the drainage filling sequence by sequentially invading pores in order of  
 377 increasing threshold capillary pressure (invasion percolation). However, it is also clear  
 378 that there was still a significant amount of scatter in the data, related to the spatial and  
 379 temporal resolutions on the one hand and the irregular shape of the throats in realistic  
 380 porous materials on the other hand. The latter could be improved by refining the  
 381 definition of the force-based contact angle (e.q. 2). Both sources of uncertainty are

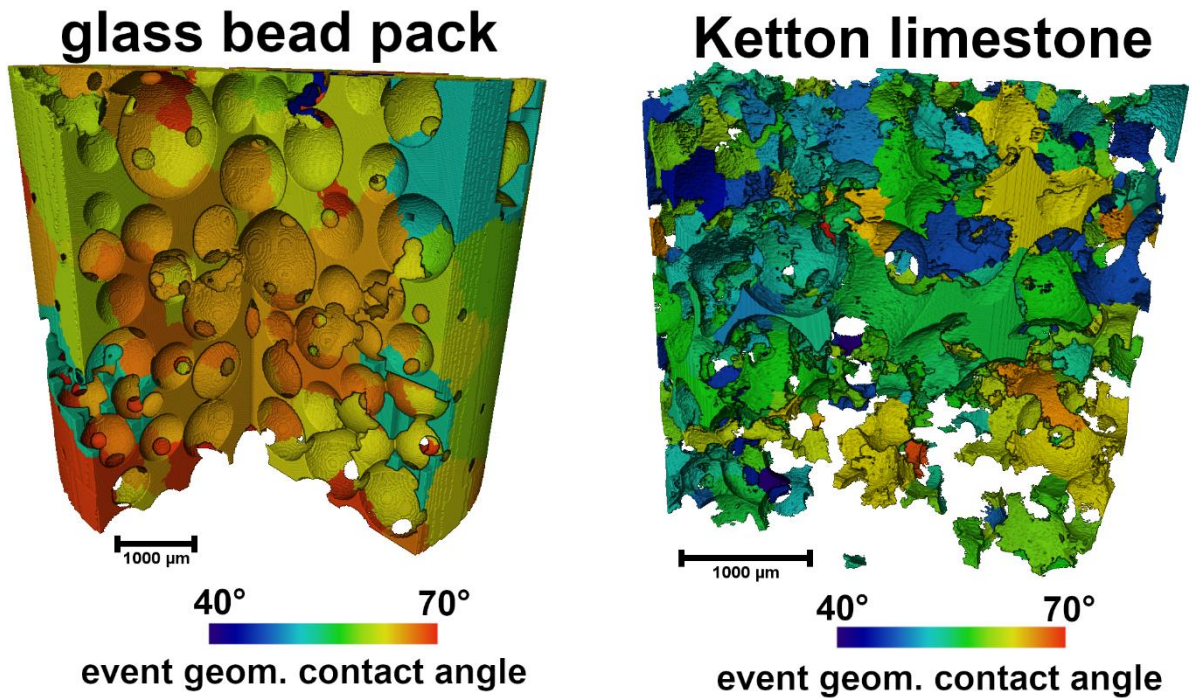
382 consistent with higher scatter in Ketton than in the simpler, wider pore space of the  
 383 glass bead pack. The calculated thermodynamically consistent contact angles show  
 384 significantly more scattering than the force-based contact angles (Figure 7). In  
 385 addition, the equation yielded imaginary values for the contact angle for 17 events in  
 386 the glass bead pack data set and 125 in the Ketton limestone data set. The increased  
 387 scatter could be attributed to both the added uncertainty in the calculations of fluid-fluid  
 388 and fluid-solid surface areas and the assumption of no viscous dissipation.

389 Intuitively, receding contact angles in smooth, water-wet media are expected to be  
 390 lower than the reported values. Manual observations using the method described by  
 391 Andrew et al. (2014b) confirmed contact angles around  $50^\circ - 60^\circ$  (e.g. Figure 2) in both  
 392 the glass beads and Ketton limestone data set, showing that these were likely not  
 393 induced by the automatic image analysis method. As shown in Figure 7, the calculated  
 394 values were consistent with a description of the fluid displacement at the scale of  
 395 observation, and can thus be used directly for pore scale modelling. The discrepancy  
 396 may be due to the converging geometry of pore throats, which was shown to increase  
 397 the “effective” contact angle (i.e. the one linked to the fluid-fluid interfacial curvature)  
 398 (Rabhani et al., 2018). Finally, it should also be noted that the limited temporal  
 399 resolution of the mCT data tended to yield an underestimation of the fluid-fluid  
 400 curvature, as the capillary pressure rises continuously during image acquisition,  
 401 resulting in a slight overestimation of the contact angles.

402 As shown in Figure 8, the values of event-based contact angles can be mapped back  
 403 to the original pore space. This spatial data could be used to improve numerical  
 404 simulations of multiphase flow by incorporating local information on the wettability of  
 405 the sample, which could be especially valuable for samples with a mixed-wettability.



406  
 407 *Figure 7 Left: the geometric versus the force-based contact angle for individual events detected in the*  
 408 *two drainage datasets. Right: the thermodynamically consistent versus the force-based contact angle*  
 409 *for individual events in the two drainage datasets.*



410

411 *Figure 8 Rendering of the 3D distribution of the event-based geometric contact angle for each pore.*

#### 412 **4. Conclusion and outlook**

413 This work aims to improve our understanding of wettability by calculating receding  
414 contact angles for individual pore-filling events, rather than for a static fluid distribution  
415 as a whole. The proposed method was applied to two unsteady state drainage data  
416 sets: a sintered glass bead pack and a Ketton limestone. Event-based geometric  
417 contact angles show a distinctively narrower distribution than when these are  
418 calculated on the entire static fluid distributions (e.g. AlRatrouf et al., 2017; Blunt et al.,  
419 2019; Dalton et al., 2018), suggesting that wide contact angle distributions are likely  
420 caused by the unaccounted for dynamics of the interface. We introduce a force-based  
421 contact angle, which shows that event-based geometric contact angles produce  
422 plausible threshold capillary pressures for associated pore filling events. This suggest  
423 that event-based geometric contact angles may provide valid effective contact angles  
424 for the displacement process and are more appropriate for use in pore scale modeling.  
425 Despite these promising first results, we note the need for enhanced image quality and  
426 image processing methodologies to reduce the uncertainty of the proposed methods.  
427 Due to these uncertainties, we were not able to draw conclusions on the  
428 appropriateness of the thermodynamic contact angle as a concept.

429 Future work should point out if the described method can be used to quantify wettability  
430 for mixed-wettability systems and during imbibition. The success hereof would benefit  
431 of the increased temporal and spatial resolution available at synchrotron facilities  
432 optimized for fast imaging (Mokso et al., 2017) and advances in iterative reconstruction  
433 techniques developed for low signal to noise ratios (Chen et al., 2008; Myers et al.,  
434 2011). This enhanced image quality is crucial to distinguish different displacement  
435 mechanism during imbibition and to improve the accuracy in calculating interfacial  
436 curvature and area.

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443 in the main text.

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