Verifying pore network models of imbibition in rocks using time-resolved synchrotron imaging

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10	Key Points:
11	• A new method to compare pore network simulations of two-phase flow to time-resolved
12	micro-CT data
13	• Evolution of fluid distributions were validated with respect to pore size, connectivity
14	and flow paths
15	• Quasi-static pore network models put the fluids in approximately the right pores to
16	predict flow properties

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17 Abstract

At the pore scale, slow invasion of a wetting fluid in porous materials is often modelled with 18 quasi-static approximations which only consider capillary forces in the form of simple pore 19 filling rules. The appropriateness of this approximation, often applied in pore network mod-20 els, is contested in literature, reflecting the difficulty of predicting imbibition relative per-21 meability with these models. However, validation by sole comparison to continuum-scale 22 experiments is prone to induce model overfitting. It has therefore remained unclear whether 23 difficulties generalizing the model performance are due to network extraction, the pore fill-24 ing rules, or whether a quasi-static description is useful at all. Here, we address this by ex-25 amining whether such a model can predict the pore-scale fluid distributions underlying the 26 behaviour at the continuum scale. To this end, we compare the fluid arrangement evolution 27 measured in fast synchrotron micro-CT experiments on two rock types to quasi-static simu-28 lations which implement capillary-dominated pore filling and snap-off, including a sophisti-29 cated model for cooperative pore filling. The results indicate that pore network models with 30 appropriate pore filling rules can in principle obtain a good first-order prediction of the up-31 scaled flow properties of strongly-wetted rocks at low capillary numbers. 32

1 Introduction

Dunking a biscuit into tea, which then soaks up the liquid, is an everyday example of 34 a wetting fluid (tea) displacing a non-wetting fluid (air) in a porous medium (biscuit). This 35 process, termed imbibition, occurs in nature in the topmost layer of soil during rainfall, dur-36 ing the flow of immiscible pollutants in ground water resources, the geological storage of 37 carbon dioxide or hydrogen, and the management of petroleum reservoirs [Bickle, 2009; At-38 teia et al., 2013; Blunt, 2017]. To understand the link between pore structure, wettability and 39 upscaled multi-phase flow parameters, a large amount of effort has been put into simulating 40 the pore-scale fluid distribution and calculating the corresponding macroscopic properties 41 [Meakin and Tartakovsky, 2009; Bultreys et al., 2016a]. 42

The key challenge in this field is to describe the intricate arrangement of the two fluids in the pore space during the fluid invasion [*Herring et al.*, 2013; *Armstrong et al.*, 2016; *Zhao et al.*, 2016]. Models struggle to capture the effect of the many fluid-fluid interface movements on the fluid flow over sufficiently large length and time scales [*Meakin and Tartakovsky*, 2009]. While Navier-Stokes solvers are becoming mature enough to perform useful numerical experiments on domains tens of pores across over relatively short time scales [*Fer*-

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rari and Lunati, 2013; Shams et al., 2018; Alpak et al., 2018; McClure et al., 2018], it re-

⁵⁰ mains desirable to define a more conceptual model which describes the emergence of struc-⁵¹ tures at the scale of fluid clusters for upscaling [*Hilfer et al.*, 2015].

Pore network models (PNMs) conceptualize the pore space as a network of larger void 52 volumes, pores, bounded by restrictions, called throats (Figure 2). In Earth science cases, the 53 global flow rates are typically so low that the capillary force is often assumed to be domi-54 nant at the pore scale [Blunt, 2017]. The most computationally efficient type of pore network 55 models therefore adopts the quasi-static assumption: only capillary forces are taken into ac-56 count and the fluids are assumed in capillary quasi-equilibrium at each moment [Wilkinson 57 and Willemsen, 1983; Blunt et al., 1992]. The fluid invasion process is abstracted into filling 58 rules which aim to produce similar emerging fluid distribution patterns as when the capillary, 59 viscous and inertial forces drive the process in reality [Blunt et al., 2013]. The pore space is 60 invaded as a sequence of invasion events of three types: snap-off, piston-like displacement 61 and cooperative pore filling [Lenormand et al., 1983]. Predicting the evolution of the pore-62 scale fluid distribution therefore reduces to calculating the entry capillary pressure for each 63 of these events in all available pores, and gradually filling the pore space with the invading 64 fluid in order of this pressure. Dynamic pore network models, on the other hand, explicitly 65 capture the visco-capillary force balance of immiscible transport [Lenormand et al., 1983; 66 Joekar-Niasar and Hassanizadeh, 2012], but come at the price of increased complexity and 67 computational demands. 68

While a number of early studies have showed that quasi-static PNMs can match exper-69 imental relative permeability curves in specific cases [Øren et al., 1998; Valvatne and Blunt, 70 2004; Blunt et al., 2013], substantial efforts over several decades have not led to satisfying 71 predictive capabilities in a general sense [Bondino et al., 2012]. It has been unclear whether 72 the shortcomings originate from uncertainties in the extracted network, the pore filling rules, 73 or whether it is adequate to use a quasi-static description at all. Newly available fast time-74 resolved X-ray micro-CT experiments [Wildenschild and Sheppard, 2013; Youssef et al., 75 2013; Berg et al., 2013; Andrew et al., 2015; Bultreys et al., 2016b; Schlüter et al., 2017; 76 Singh et al., 2017] have challenged the quasi-static assumption, as viscous and inertial effects 77 such as ganglion dynamics and intermittency have been observed [Rücker et al., 2015; Arm-78 strong et al., 2016; Gao et al., 2017; Reynolds et al., 2017]. However, it is currently not well 79 understood how strongly the quasi-static approximation deviates from the experimental real-80 ity in rock samples, and if this produces fundamentally flawed predictions at the intermediate 81

scale of the fluid clusters. The validation question is complicated by the fact that model sim-82 plifications lead to a large number of internal microscopic degrees of freedom, but the output 83 consists of relatively few macroscopic parameters that can be used for validation. Therefore, 84 there is a risk of overfitting the model when tuning it to experimentally measured continuum 85 scale flow properties, e.g. relative permeability and capillary pressure-saturation functions 86 [Bondino et al., 2012; Aghaei and Piri, 2015; Masalmeh et al., 2015; Jerauld et al., 2017]. 87 Instead, criteria which contain enough information to reconstruct the relevant aspects of the 88 system's internal state are required [Liu et al., 2013]. 89

In a previous study, we showed how PNM predictions can be mapped to fluid distribu-90 tions measured with micro-CT to facilitate direct pore-by-pore comparisons [Bultreys et al., 91 2018]. Here, we extend this to time-resolved micro-CT datasets to validate the filling se-92 quence rather than a static snap-shot, resulting in a more complete picture. The experimental 93 data in this study are two publicly available fast synchrotron micro-CT datasets of water-94 flooding in strongly water-wet Ketton limestone [Singh et al., 2017] and Gildehauser sand-95 stone [*Rücker et al.*, 2015]. This study investigates whether a quasi-static assumption can 96 result in realistic filling sequences for strong imbibition at low capillary numbers. Contrary 97 to previous studies, e.g. Berg et al. [2016], the models used here implement snap-off and 98 cooperative pore filling processes on experimentally based geometries [Valvatne and Blunt, 99 2004; Ruspini et al., 2017]. We used a realistic cooperative pore filling algorithm [Ruspini 100 et al., 2017], and minimized the influence of the specific PNM extraction and of the bound-101 ary conditions on the analysis. The general workflow is depicted in figure 1. We find that 102 the quasi-static model generally puts the fluids in the right pores to approximate mm-scale 103 averaged properties, at least in strongly water-wet samples at low capillary numbers. 104

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2 Materials and methods

2.1 Experiments

¹¹² Details of the Ketton and Gildehauser unsteady-state (constant injection flow rate) ¹¹³ imbibition experiments are described in *Singh et al.* [2017] and *Rücker et al.* [2015]. Both ¹¹⁴ datasets are publicly available [*Singh et al.*, 2018; *Berg et al.*, 2018]. Ketton and Gildehauser ¹¹⁵ (the latter a local variety of Bentheimer) respectively have a porosity of 23 % and 20 %; and ¹¹⁶ a permeability of 2.8×10^{-12} m² and 1.48×10^{-12} m² [*Andrew et al.*, 2014]. In the experi-¹¹⁷ ments, KI-brine was used as the wetting phase and decane as the non-wetting phase. As the



Figure 1. The workflow for validation of pore scale multi-phase flow models proposed in this paper. After extracting a pore network model from a micro-CT scan of the sample, we generated a series of fluid distributions in the pore network model by either numerical simulation or experimental micro-CT imaging. We then investigate whether the simulation succeeds at filling pores in approximately the right order compared to the experiment, particularly with regards to predicting upscaled flow properties.

118	samples were clean quarry stones, they were water-wet. Cylindrical samples with a diame-
119	ter of approximately 4 mm and a height of 10 mm were inserted into flow cells. First, a high
120	quality dry micro-CT scan was obtained. Next, the samples were fully saturated with brine
121	and drained by injecting decane. Then, imbibition was initiated by injecting brine at very
122	low capillary numbers (1.26×10^{-9} in the Ketton case, 1.8×10^{-8} in the Gildehauser case).
123	During imbibition, each sample was partly imaged along its height by fast micro-CT (Ketton:
124	400 scans at 38 seconds/scan, voxel size 3.28 μm , image height 3.28 mm; Gildehauser: 40
125	scans at 45 seconds/scan, voxel size 4.4 μm , image height 2.49 mm). Imaging was performed
126	at I13-2 (Diamond Light Source) and at TOMCAT (Swiss Light Source). As detailed in the
127	aforementioned references, the images were treated with a non-local means filter and seg-
128	mented with the watershed algorithm in Avizo 9 (ThermoFisher/FEI). The final Gildehauser
129	image contained an oil cluster connected to the top and the bottom of the image, i.e. the oil
130	in the sample may still have been mobile.

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2.2 Quasi-static modelling

The pore network models used here were extracted from the segmented dry scans using the maximal ball method [*Raeini et al.*, 2017]. This method employs the distance map of the pore space image to find pores and throats as constrictions and dilations. The radii of these elements were found by looking for the maximum inscribed spheres at these locations. Shape factors were used to describe the angularity of pores and throats as described in *Bultreys et al.* [2018]. The pores and throats had circular, triangular and square cross-sections, based on their shape factor [*Valvatne and Blunt*, 2004].

After network extraction, imbibition was simulated using a quasi-static invasion perco-139 lation approach, based on Øren et al. [1998], Valvatne and Blunt [2004] and Ruspini et al. 140 [2017]. Following these works, entry pressures were calculated for each pore and throat 141 which could be accessed by the invading fluid and from which the defending fluid had an 142 escape path (i.e. was not trapped). The pressure calculations are summarized in the Sup-143 porting Information. The wetting phase was injected from the top and bottom face, and the 144 non-wetting phase was allowed to escape through both, to account for backflow in the porous 145 medium outside the field of view. We used the fluid occupancy at the start of imbibition in 146 the experimental data to assign the initial condition of the model. Advancing contact an-147 gles were randomly assigned to each pore or throat in the range between 35 and 45 degrees 148 for Ketton [Scanziani et al., 2017] and 35 and 55 degrees for Gildehauser [Khishvand et al., 149 2016], based on in situ contact angle measurements. We list here the PNM assumptions and 150 parameters which can influence the simulated filling sequence: 151

- The segmentation of the micro-CT scan. While this can have an important effect on
 the network extraction and simulations, the large pores and the good image quality
 in the dry scans was deemed to lead to high quality segmentations. We used the seg mented images provided in the public domain data sets, without tuning the segmenta tion to improve the PNM results.
- The detection of pore and throat centres as local minima and maxima of the distance
 map. The main user-defined parameter is the minimum inscribed radius for a point
 to be called a pore centre, set to 1.5 voxel lengths. This does not affect the results for
 the well-resolved, rather simple pore structures in this work. In any event, the same
 network extraction was used to analyse both the experiment and the model.

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162	• Pore and throat shape factor determination, and the simplification of pore shapes to
163	(predominantly) triangles with the same shape factor and inscribed radius [$Øren \ et \ al.$,
164	1998]. This induces an approximation, but it is fully defined by the detection of pore
165	centres and throat surfaces.
166	• Advancing contact angle assignment. These were randomly assigned in each pore or
167	throat in the range between 35 degrees and 45 degrees for Ketton [Singh et al., 2016;
168	Scanziani et al., 2017] and 35 degrees and 55 degrees for Gildehauser [Khishvand
169	et al., 2016], based on in situ contact angle measurements. The sensitivity within
170	likely values (several ranges spanning 25 degrees to 65 degrees) was found not to in-
171	fluence the conclusions in this paper, as shown in the Supporting Information.
172	• The capillary pressure reached during drainage, prior to imbibition. This is inferred
173	from the radius of the smallest pore or throat that is oil-filled in the micro-CT image
174	after drainage.
175	• One parameter in the cooperative pore filling algorithm, which determines when the
176	interface becomes unstable while entering the throats. This parameter has a very lim-
177	ited influence on the simulations results [Ruspini et al., 2017].

178 **2.3 Data analysis**

To allow consistent comparison of the experiments to PNM simulations, we used the 179 PNM as an image analysis tool on the imbibition datasets. As detailed in Bultreys et al. 180 [2018], the inscribed spheres at each pore and throat centre in the dry scan were determined 181 during network extraction. These were used to define the fluid occupying the pore or throat 182 centre. For each time step in the imbibition experiment, a pore or throat was called wetting-183 filled if more than half of the voxels of the associated inscribed sphere are segmented as wet-184 ting fluid. The simulations were run on the same PNM used to analyse the experiments, en-185 abling a like-for-like comparison (Figure 2). The measures shown in this paper were calcu-186 lated on the PNM structure, with fluid distributions mapped from the experiments, or from 187 simulations on the PNM. 188

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2.3.1 Filling size

Pores and throats in the experiment were considered to be invaded at time step *t* if they were filled with wetting fluid in image *t* and with non-wetting fluid in image t - 1. If they

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Figure 2. Voids in Ketton limestone, with the non-wetting fluid observed in one of several hundred snapshots of an imbibition experiment indicated in transparent red (the figure shows a small subvolume of a micro-CT scan). The balls and sticks represents the corresponding pore network model, colored according to the fluids occupying each pore or throat in a simplified model of fluid invasion. We use this one-to-one mapping to compare the evolving fluid filling pattern to the experiment.

changed filling state more than 3 times, they were not listed here, as these were a small number of mainly narrow throats affected by image noise. The filling time was then translated to the filling sequence rank number (the rank of the pore or throat filling event when ordered according to the filling time). This was necessary because the simulations do not have a time scale, but only predict in which order pores and throats fill. In the Gildehauser case, the rate of filling was relatively large compared to the time resolution of the imaging. Therefore, filling sizes at certain time steps in this experiment are shown using box plots with outliers.

2.3.2 Connectivity

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To characterize the connectivity, we calculate the Euler characteristic of the shape formed by the throats (conceptualized here as cylinders) and pores (conceptualized as spheres) that are filled with the non-wetting phase from either the experiment or the simulation. We first remove isolated non-wetting phase-filled throats to reduce the dependency on imaging noise. Then, we modify this shape by adding a sphere to the end of any cylinder which does not already end in a sphere. This does not change the Euler characteristic as it is invariant under continuous deformation of the shape. The Euler characteristic χ can be calculated us-

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ing the Betti numbers β_i :

$$\chi = \beta_0 - \beta_1 + \beta_2 \tag{1}$$

Here, β_0 equals the number of connected components k and β_2 is the number of holes in the shape, the latter by construction equaling zero. β_1 is the number of loops in the shape [*Wildenschild and Sheppard*, 2013], equalling $N_e - N_v + k$, with N_e the number of edges and N_v the number of vertices of the corresponding graph [*Berge*, 2001]. Therefore, the calculation of the Euler characteristic reduces to:

$$\chi = N_v - N_e \tag{2}$$

Note that the calculation does not depend on the exact pore and throat shapes. Detecting the connected components in the non-wetting phase graph allows to calculate the amount and sizes of clusters, after which the amount of loops can be calculated as $k - \chi$.

221 **2.3.3** Flow paths

The relevance of discrepancies in the filling sequence to relative permeabilities is a 222 question of key concern [Berg et al., 2016]. However, the calculation of volumes and fluid 223 flow conductances for each pore and throat induces non-uniqueness associated with user-224 defined parameters [Sorbie and Skauge, 2011]. Since we are only interested here in the fluid 225 displacements and not in improving conductivity or saturation calculations, we circumvent 226 this problem by calculating relative permeabilities for both the experimental and the simu-227 lated fluid distributions on the same PNM, using the same (possibly imprecise) conductivi-228 ties and volumes. This yields a flow-weighted connectivity metric which is a proxy to (but 229 not necessarily equal to) physical relative permeability measurements. 230

For the experiments, relative permeabilities were calculated by mapping the experi-231 mentally observed fluid distribution on the same PNM as used in the imbibition simulations. 232 The Hagen-Poiseuille conductivity model was used to calculate the flow rates through the 233 wetting and the non-wetting phase separately, using the OpenPNM pore network modelling 234 package [Gostick et al., 2016]. We assumed that throats filled with one phase have zero con-235 ductivity for the other phase. Flow rates for the simulations were calculated on the same 236 PNM with the same conductivities, and discrepancies compared to the experiment therefore 237 came solely from differences in the fluid distribution. A good match means the flow distri-238 bution in the model is approximately correct to predict the upscaled properties. However, to 239

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240	match experimentally measured relative permeabilities (based on pressure measurements),
241	it may still be necessary to improve the volume and conductivity assignment of pores and
242	throats. This less fundamental issue is outside the scope of the study.

243 **Results and discussion**

Previous studies have shown that the pore-scale fluid distribution in experiments is not 244 fully reproducible [Ferrari et al., 2015; Ling et al., 2017; Bultreys et al., 2018]. The averaged 245 properties are, however, much more reproducible, as different realisations of the fluid distri-246 bution can lead to consistent averaged results if they are statistically similar. Therefore, sim-247 ply comparing the filling sequence on a pore-by-pore basis does not offer a relevant answer 248 [Bultreys et al., 2018]. Recognizing that a good prediction of the upscaled multi-phase flow 249 properties needs to capture the geometry and the connectivity of the fluid phases throughout 250 the filling sequence, we use the following criteria to validate the model: 251

- In terms of size (radius), which pores and throats are filled throughout the filling se quence?
- How does the connectivity of the non-wetting phase change during the filling sequence?
- How do the flow paths of the wetting and the non-wetting phase change throughout the filling sequence?
- As our goal was to evaluate physical concepts rather than model implementation, the influence of PNM non-uniqueness on the validation was reduced as much as possible. Parameters that affect the filling sequence were set based on physical principles and were sensitivitychecked.

Filling size

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The PNM used in this study explicitly defines pores as local dilations and throats as local constrictions [*Raeini et al.*, 2017]. In terms of the associated capillary energy, pores should locally be less favourable places for the invading wetting phase to pervade, while throats should be more favourable. Therefore, we tracked the invasion of the wetting phase in these locations in the experiment and the model, using the same network extraction on both. We define filling in the experiment as events where the image shows a change in oc-

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- ²⁰⁹ cupancy, such that the voxels associated with the maximal sphere centred on a pore or throat
- ²⁷⁰ first become occupied principally by the wetting phase in the segmented image.



Figure 3. Pore and throat filling sizes in the the model and the experiment for Ketton (top row) and Gildehauser (bottom row) matched well, although there is a tendency for a small number of larger elements to be filled in the experiment and not by the model. Dots and box plots (for time steps where many network elements were invaded at the same time) present the radii of pores and throats filled with the invading wetting phase during the experiment in rank order. The contour plots show the pore or throat radii filled in the model.

Figure 3 shows the radii of pores and throats that were invaded during the experiment 276 as a function of their rank order in the filling sequence. In general, pores and throats of simi-277 lar sizes were filled throughout the filling sequence in the experiment and the model. In both 278 cases, filling did not strictly happen in order of increasing radius due to the occurrence of the 279 three types of filling (snap-off, piston-like advance and cooperative pore filling) and the vari-280 ation in pore and throat shapes. A small number of pores and throats with large radii were 281 filled in the experiment, but not in the simulations. This could be related to geometry simpli-282 fications in the network model, to local variations in wettability [AlRatrout et al., 2018], or 283 to viscous and/or inertial effects which are not captured in the quasi-static PNM. A decrease 284 of the local capillary pressure caused by the latter two effects may have led to the invasion of 285 pores with larger characteristic size than predicted by the quasi-static model. 286



Figure 4. Pore and throat sizes that are filled with water at the end of imbibition, for Ketton (top row) and Gildehauser (bottom row). The black line indicates the frequency of pore and throat sizes that were filled with fluid in the model different than in the experiment.

Figure 4 shows the size distribution of the water-filled pores and throats in the experiments and the model after imbibition, and indicates pores and throats filled with a fluid in the model different from the experiment, similar to *Bultreys et al.* [2018] and Øren et al. [2019]. In the Ketton experiment both model and experiment reached residual saturation. There is a very close agreement, with a filling discrepancy of 9 % in the pores and 6 % in the throats (the percentage of pores or throats that were filled with a different fluid in the model as in the experiment).

The Gildehauser experiment did not reach the residual saturation in the experimen-297 tal field of view, and therefore we compared the simulated fluid distribution with the same 298 saturation as the final state in the experiment. The model overpredicted the number of water-299 filled pores and throats, resulting in a filling discrepancy of 30% in the throats and 38% in 300 the pores. This is explained by the fact that the simulation was stopped at the same saturation 301 as the experiment, while a number of large pores were filled earlier in the experiment than 302 in the model (Figure 3). A previous study showed filling discrepancies of 18 % and 21 % for 303 PNM simulations compared to steady-state Bentheimer experiments at the end of imbibition 304 [Bultreys et al., 2018], and a standard deviation of up to 25 % on the pore occupancy for the 305 intermediately-sized pores in repeated experiments. A different study on Paaratte sandstone 306 found filling discrepancies of 15 % and 13 % [Øren et al., 2019]. 307

The validation of pore and throat filling sizes presented here improves on the approach 308 in Bultreys et al. [2018] and Øren et al. [2019] because it took the dynamics of the filling 309 process into account. Overall, a more favourable agreement was found here than in Bultreys 310 et al. [2018] due to the use of a different cooperative pore filling algorithm [Ruspini et al., 311 2017] and initial and boundary conditions that more closely resembled those of the experi-312 ment. The cooperative pore filling algorithm developed by Ruspini et al. [2017] is a signifi-313 cant improvement over the previously available algorithms because it accounts for the local 314 geometry of the surrounding throats to assign the capillary invasion pressures. 315

In repeated drainage-imbibition experiments on Bentheimer, the standard deviation of the filling state was found to be up to 25 % for the most variable pores, while the large-scale behaviour did not vary significantly [*Bultreys et al.*, 2018]. The filling discrepancy between the PNM simulation and the experiment is thus of similar magnitude to the difference between two repeat experiments that are macroscopically nearly indistinguishable.

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Connectivity

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The upscaled flow characteristics are strongly influenced by the phase connectivity [*Hilfer*, 2006], which can be characterized by the Euler characteristic [*Armstrong et al.*, 2016; *Schlüter et al.*, 2016]. We compared the evolution of the Euler characteristic during imbibition in the model and the experiment (Figure 5). A consistent comparison to the simulations was achieved by mapping the experimental distributions on the PNM and calculating the Euler characteristic there. The experimental trend is consistent with direct image-based calculations [*Alpak et al.*, 2018].



Figure 5. Comparison of the evolution of the non-wetting phase Euler characteristic in the experiment and in the model (left) and the amount of loops in the non-wetting phase (right), for Ketton (top) and Gildehauser (bottom). A large negative Euler characteristic indicates that the non-wetting phase is well connected with many loops in the structure.

Figure 5 shows that magnitude and trends of the Euler characteristic are correctly represented by the model. There are, however, some discrepancies. In the Ketton simulation the model shows a local minimum at the start of imbibition. This is caused by an image processing artifact: small pores that were wrongly identified as non-wetting-filled after drainage.

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The effect of this on the Euler characteristic was partly compensated by redundant loops in the modelled non-wetting phase distribution being removed too quickly. The latter may have been caused by a mismatch in the amount of cooperative pore filling compared to snap-off between the simulation and the experiment, due to geometric simplifications in the model. Imbibition in Ketton is more sensitive to cooperative pore filling than most other rock samples, due to Ketton's pore structure resembling that of a bead pack [*Ruspini et al.*, 2017]. In this particular case, the model may therefore overestimate the amount of capillary trapping.

In the Gildehauser case, the Euler characteristic increased more quickly in the experi-344 ment than in the model. In the experiment, there was a change in the slope of the Euler char-345 acteristic and the number of loops after approximately 1600 pores and throats were filled. 346 This was likely related to the occurrence of two different filling regimes observed by *Rücker* 347 et al. [2015]: first pathway flow and film swelling, and then a regime which includes clus-348 ter dynamics. This was not reproduced in the model. Furthermore, the faster increase in the 349 experimental Euler characteristic is partly due to misidentification of the fluid occupancy in 350 smaller pores and throats caused by imaging noise in the Gildehauser experiment. This re-351 sulted in an excessive amount of small non-wetting phase clusters being detected. However, 352 the average sizes of multi-throat clusters (excluding single-throat clusters to reduce imaging 353 noise) were in fair agreement between the model and the experiment, as were the sizes of the 354 largest non-wetting phase clusters which dominate the flow (see Supporting Information). As 355 will be shown in the next section, the discrepancies discussed here had a limited influence on 356 the flow paths through each fluid. 357

Flow paths

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The filled pore/throat sizes and the connectivity together control the flow paths which 359 are accessible to each fluid, and consequently the relative permeability. We compared the 360 flow paths in the model and the experiment by calculating relative permeabilities on the im-361 aged and the modelled fluid distributions. This relative permeability can be seen as a flow-362 weighted connectivity of the fluid distributions. Since both the experimental and the mod-363 elled results used the same conductivity and volume assignments in pores and throats, mis-364 matches in the presented relative permeabilities can only come from discrepancies in the 365 modelled fluid distributions. 366

The resulting relative permeabilities indicated a close match between the model and 367 the experiment (Figure 6). This implies that the quasi-static model provided a good estima-368 tion of the fluid distribution with respect to its impact on the upscaled flow properties. There 369 were some discrepancies near the end of imbibition in Ketton. This was likely related to a 370 small mismatch of cooperative pore filling versus snap-off, and to the boundary conditions, 371 which were unknown in the experiment due to the limited field of view of the scan. While 372 ganglion dynamics have been seen to play an important role near the residual non-wetting 373 phase saturation in the Gildehauser experiment [Rücker et al., 2015], there is no direct evi-374 dence of this in the Ketton dataset. We do not draw conclusions about the behaviour near the 375 end point of imbibition in the Gildehauser case here, as the experiment did not continue until 376 residual non-wetting saturation. 377



Figure 6. Imbibition relative permeability calculations based on the modelled and the experimental fluid
 distributions for Ketton (left) and Gildehauser (right) allow to consistently compare the flow paths in the
 model and the experiment and indicate a good match.

381 Conclusions

A key question concerning imbibition in permeable materials is how to formulate con-382 ceptual models that decrease the degrees of freedom compared to an explicit description, 383 while still capturing the salient behaviour of the process. Quasi-static PNMs abstract the pro-384 cess by simplifying the local pore shapes and by assuming that capillary forces are dominant, 385 allowing imbibition to be described as a sequence of simple pore and throat filling processes. 386 However, one of the main problems has been validation: the complex relation between the 387 fluid occupancy of the system and the experimentally measured properties (e.g. relative per-388 meability) typically used for validation makes it difficult to understand the origin and gener-389

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ality of any observed (mis-)match [Sorbie and Skauge, 2011; Bondino et al., 2012; Bultreys
et al., 2018].

The analysis we have developed here allowed the comparison of pore-scale experimental data to a quasi-static PNM with minimal influence from anything but the fluid distributions. This indicated that the quasi-static assumption provided a good approximation of the order in which pores with different sizes were invaded. The model did misinterpret the filling behaviour of some larger pores, and overestimated the amount of loop-breaking in the nonwetting phase. However, the pores and throats causing these discrepancies showed to be of minor importance for the flow paths, which closely matched the experiments.

The conclusion is that an abstracted, conceptually simple model based on quasi-static physics *can* give a good first order approximation of continuum scale properties such as relative permeability, at least in strongly-wetted rocks with relatively homogeneous pore structures and at low capillary numbers. Whether or not it *does*, depends on model implementation (e.g. volume and conductivity assignment) and accurate input concerning pore geometry and advancing contact angles. These less fundamental considerations are outside the scope of this study.

In summary, PNMs as a concept appear a valuable starting point for building conceptual models. However, it must be stressed that more validation needs to point out whether this holds in circumstances where more influence of ganglion dynamics has been observed or can be expected, e.g. near the end of imbibition [*Rücker et al.*, 2015], in intermediate / mixed-wet samples [*Zou et al.*, 2018] and in samples with very wide pore size distributions.

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