

Pore-scale direct numerical simulation of particle transport in porous media

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Abstract: A computational platform for direct numerical simulation of fluid-particle two-phase flow in porous media is presented in this study. In the proposed platform, the Navier-Stokes equations are used to describe the motion of the continuous phase, while the discrete element method (DEM) is employed to evaluate particle-particle and particle-wall interactions, with a fictitious domain method being adopted to evaluate particle-fluid interactions. Particle-wall contact states are detected by the ERIGID scheme. Moreover, a new scheme, namely, base point-increment method is developed to improve the accuracy of particle tracking in porous media. In order to improve computationally efficiency, a time splitting strategy is applied to couple the fluid and DEM solvers, allowing different time steps to be used which are adaptively determined according to the stability conditions of each solver. The proposed platform is applied to particle transport in a porous medium with its pore structure being reconstructed from micro-CT scans from a real rock. By incorporating the effect of pore structure which has a comparable size to the particles, numerical results reveal a number of distinct microscopic flow mechanisms and the corresponding macroscopic characteristics. The time evolution of the inlet to outlet pressure-difference consists of large-scale spikes and small-scale fluctuations. Apart from the influence through direct contacts between particles, the motion of a particle can also be affected by particles without contact through blocking a nearby passage for fluid flow. Particle size has a profound influence on the macroscopic motion behavior of particles. Small particles are easier to move along the main stream and less dispersive in the direction perpendicular to the flow than large particles.

Keywords: Fluid-Particle Flow; Pore Scale; Fictitious Domain Method; Discrete Element

37 Method.

38 **1. Introduction**

39 Particle transport in porous media plays an important role in many engineering fields, for instance,
40 viscoelastic particle flooding in enhanced oil recovery [1], leaching mining [2], coal bed gas
41 mining [3], sand production in oil recovery [4], particle removal by filtration for water treatment
42 [5-8], and drug delivery [9]. Investigation of fluid-particle dynamics in porous media is of
43 uttermost importance to understand the migration behavior of particles, which is the basis for
44 manual control of the migration process of particle cloud in a porous medium. To study particle
45 transport in porous media, existing methods mainly include macroscopic-scale simulations using
46 convection-diffusion equation [10] and experimental research in the field of microfluidics [11].
47 Macroscopic-scale simulations can predict the macroscopic movement and dispersion of particles,
48 but ignore the effect of detailed pore structure or particle properties. Also, accurate evaluation of
49 transport parameters (e.g. diffusion coefficient, convection velocity) remains a significant
50 challenge. Experimental studies of particle migration in porous media allow direct observation of
51 the transport process of particles in porous media ^[11]. However, such experimental studies cannot
52 reveal the mechanical characteristics of fluid-particle interactions in the pores, nor can they
53 quantify the effect of pore structure and particle properties on particle motion. In this study, a
54 coupled computational fluid dynamics (CFD) and discrete element method (DEM) method is
55 proposed for direct tracking of particles in a porous medium, which explicitly solves fluid-particle
56 and particle-particle interactions.

57 Discrete element method, which was first introduced by Cundall and Strack as a useful tool to
58 simulate particle interactions [12], has now been applied in many fields involving particle motions,
59 especially in the study of fluidized beds in chemical engineering [13,14], energy industry and
60 other industrial processes [15-20] In a DEM model, particle-particle contact forces and
61 particle-wall contact forces, including elastic, viscous and sliding forces, are described using
62 simple mechanical elements, such as springs, dash dots and sliders. The well-established Newton's
63 second law is used to govern the motion of particles under the Lagrangian framework. This
64 method can provide particle-scale information, such as particle trajectories and mechanical
65 characteristics of each particle, which are difficult or impossible to be obtained using macroscopic
66 simulation methods. In the meanwhile, the macroscopic behavior of particle clouds is derived
67 through the evaluation of interactions between individual particles as well as those between
68 particles and their surrounding fluids and walls [15]. DEM offers a very effective tool to
69 understand particle behaviors in porous media by directly calculating all the relevant interactions,
70 thereby providing the basis for accurate control of particle transport.

71 A CFD-DEM coupled method has been applied to simulate particle transport in a porous
72 medium [21], with a new algorithm developed to detect collisions between the particles and pore
73 walls [21-23]. The drag force model based on the point source assumption was adopted, requiring

74 the size of the particle to be much smaller than that of the mesh cell [19]. Therefore, this method is
75 not suitable for the present study, since the particles concerned here have a similar size to the pore
76 channel. To overcome this difficulty, direct numerical simulation (DNS) techniques, such as
77 fictitious domain method [24, 25] or immersed boundary method [26, 27], can be adopted to
78 evaluate the interaction between fluid and particles. Although a CFD-DNS-DEM coupled model
79 has been applied to particle flows [28, 29], the application of such methods in microscopic
80 simulation of pore-scale particle flows is still intractable mainly due to the unique physical
81 features and complex flow phenomena in pore space. So far, direct numerical simulations of
82 particle flow at the pore-scale are rarely reported. To develop a feasible numerical method for
83 pore-scale particle flow simulations, more efforts must be made to address the following issues:

- 84 (1) Fast determination of the computational cells covered by a particle in an arbitrarily
85 polyhedral mesh;
- 86 (2) Fast determination of contact states between particles and arbitrarily complex walls;
- 87 (3) Accurate and efficient evaluation of the fluid-particle interaction force;
- 88 (4) Accurate calculation of the cumulative effect of particle clogging on particle-particle or
89 particle-wall overlap;
- 90 (5) Efficient time integration to ensure the stability and computational efficiency of a
91 system with highly fluctuating velocities.

92 The numerical model proposed in this study adopts the following techniques to overcome the
93 above difficulties.

- 94 (1) To find the computational cells covered by a particle, we first use the point locating
95 algorithm [30, 31] to find the cell where the center of a particle is located, and then find
96 all the cells covered by the particle through nearby-cell searching according to the cell
97 neighbor relation and particle radius.
- 98 (2) Several new methods have been developed for determination of the contact state between
99 a particle and the wall [21-23, 32-33]. The ERIGID algorithm [21] is adopted in this
100 study as it offers a good overall performance in computational accuracy and efficiency.
- 101 (3) A fictitious domain method is used to evaluate the fluid-particle interaction force for its
102 simplicity and good accuracy [24].
- 103 (4) When particles enter a throat, they will slow down due to the damping force from the
104 pore wall. Considering a very small time-step, the displacement of a particle can be
105 rather small and may reach the machine precision within a single time step. As a result,
106 the accuracy of updating of particle location and evaluation of particle overlap will be
107 obviously degraded during the simulation. In this study, we propose a new method,
108 namely base point-increment method, to solve this problem.
- 109 (5) When a particle clogs a throat, the local upstream pressure will increase sharply and flow
110 in the neighbor channels will accelerate. Whereas when a particle breaks through a throat,
111 the upstream pressure will suddenly drop and flow in the neighbor channels will

112 decelerate. As a result, fluid velocity in the pore channels may experience high levels of
 113 fluctuation, rendering the simulation unstable or inefficient with a fixed time step.
 114 Therefore, a variable time-stepping scheme is necessary for the CFD-DNS-DEM coupled
 115 model in this study.

116 The paper is organized as follows. The mathematical model is described in section 2, which
 117 includes dynamic models for the two phases, the fictitious domain method for solving
 118 fluid-particle interactions, the base-point increment method for improving the accuracy of DEM
 119 solver and the new time integration strategy for assuring computational efficiency and stability. A
 120 number of test cases are described in section 3 to validate the proposed model. Numerical
 121 simulations of fluid-particle flow in a realistic rock are presented in section 4, along with
 122 discussions on the mechanisms of fluid-particle flow in porous media. Finally, a short summary
 123 and conclusions are given in section 5.

124 **2. Mathematical Model**

125 The solution domain Ω contains the fluid covered zone Ω_f and particle covered zone Ω_s , which
 126 satisfies $\Omega = \Omega_f \cup \Omega_s$. Γ_s is the boundary of particle covered zone. The solution domain may contain
 127 several discontinuous solid particle zones. For instance, particle i covers zone Ω_{pi} , and the
 128 boundary between the particle and fluid is Γ_{pi} . The fluid is a viscous incompressible Newton fluid
 129 with a density of ρ_f and a viscosity of μ .

130 **2.1 Continuous phase hydrodynamics**

131 Navier-Stokes equation is employed to describe the fluid motion in the fluid domain in the
 132 Eulerian Framework

$$133 \rho_f \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \rho_f \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}) - \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau} = 0 \quad (1)$$

134 where, \mathbf{u} is fluid velocity and t is time. $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ is stress tensor of the fluid given by

$$135 \boldsymbol{\tau} = -p\mathbf{I} + \mu(\nabla\mathbf{u} + \nabla\mathbf{u}^T) \quad (2)$$

136 p is pressure and \mathbf{I} is a unit tensor. The continuity equation describing the mass conservation and
 137 incompressible constraint is

$$138 \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \quad (3)$$

139 **2.2 Particle dynamics**

140 In this work, each particle in the system is tracked using Newton's second Law in the Lagrangian
 141 framework, according to

$$142 \mathbf{F}_i = \sum_j \mathbf{F}_{ij}^{p-p} + \sum_w \mathbf{F}_{iw}^{w-p} + \mathbf{F}_i^{f-p} + m\mathbf{g} \quad (4)$$

143 where \mathbf{F}_i is the total force acting on particle i , \mathbf{F}_{ij}^{p-p} and \mathbf{F}_{iw}^{w-p} are the forces acting on particle i

144 by particle j and wall, respectively. \mathbf{F}_i^{f-p} is the fluid force acting on particle i , evaluated using
 145 fictitious domain method presented in the next section. m is particle mass, \mathbf{g} is gravity acceleration.
 146 The sum of the first and second terms on the right-hand side represents collision induced force,
 147 denoted as \mathbf{F}^c in later discussion.

148 For particle torque, the following relation is satisfied

$$149 \quad \mathbf{T}_i = \sum_j \mathbf{r}_{ic} \times \mathbf{F}_{ij}^{p-p} + \sum_w \mathbf{r}_{ic} \times \mathbf{F}_{iw}^{w-p} + \mathbf{T}_i^{f-p} \quad (5)$$

150 where \mathbf{r}_{ic} is a vector from the center of particle i to the contact point. The summation of the first
 151 and second terms is collision induced torque, denoted as \mathbf{T}^c in later discussion.

152 2.2.1 Discrete Element Method

153 Discrete element method is employed to evaluate particle-particle (or particle-wall) contact forces.
 154 According to Cundall and Strack [12], the normal component of the contact force, \mathbf{F}_{nij}^{p-p} for
 155 particle-particle contact is

$$156 \quad \mathbf{F}_{nij}^{p-p} = (-k_n \delta_n - \eta_n \mathbf{V}_{ij} \cdot \mathbf{n}) \mathbf{n} \quad (6)$$

157 and \mathbf{F}_{niw}^{w-p} for particle-wall contact is

$$158 \quad \mathbf{F}_{niw}^{w-p} = (-k_{nw} \delta_{nw} - \eta_n \mathbf{V}_{iw} \cdot \mathbf{n}_w) \mathbf{n}_w \quad (7)$$

159 The tangential component of contact force, \mathbf{F}_{tij}^{p-p} particle-particle interaction is

$$160 \quad \mathbf{F}_{tij}^{p-p} = -k_t \boldsymbol{\delta}_t - \eta_t \mathbf{V}_{tij} \quad (8)$$

161 and \mathbf{F}_{tiw}^{w-p} for particle-wall interaction is

$$162 \quad \mathbf{F}_{tiw}^{w-p} = -k_{tw} \boldsymbol{\delta}_{tw} - \eta_{tw} \mathbf{V}_{tiw} \quad (9)$$

163 where $k_n(k_{nw})$ and $\eta_n(\eta_{nw})$ are the stiffness coefficient and damping coefficient, respectively, for
 164 particle-particle (or particle-wall) interactions in the normal direction. $k_t(k_{tw})$ and $\eta_t(\eta_{tw})$ are those
 165 in the tangential direction. $\delta_{n(w)}$ is particle-particle (or particle-wall) overlap in the normal
 166 direction. $\boldsymbol{\delta}_{t(w)}$ is particle-particle (or particle-wall) displacement in the tangential direction. \mathbf{V}_{ij}
 167 (\mathbf{V}_{iw}) is the velocity of particle i relative to particle j (or wall), \mathbf{n}_w is the vector pointing from the
 168 center of particle i to that of particle j (or the contact point on wall).

169 If the tangential force and the normal force satisfy the following relation

$$170 \quad \left| \mathbf{F}_{tij(w)}^{p(w)-p} \right| \geq \chi \left| \mathbf{F}_{nij(w)}^{p(w)-p} \right| \quad (10)$$

171 the particles (or particle-wall) in contact will slide against each other, and the tangential force is
 172 given as

$$173 \quad \mathbf{F}_{tij(w)}^{p(w)-p} = -\chi \left| \mathbf{F}_{nij(w)}^{p(w)-p} \right| \frac{\boldsymbol{\delta}_{t(w)}}{|\boldsymbol{\delta}_{t(w)}|} \quad (11)$$

174 where χ is the frictional coefficient.

175 A more elaborate description of the discrete element model can be found in our previous
 176 work [22]. Determination of the physical parameters, such as stiffness coefficient and damping
 177 coefficient, can be found in Tsuji et al [34].

178

179 Efficiency of contact detection for particle-particle interaction and particle-wall interaction is
 180 essentially important for the computational loads in discrete element simulation. In this work,
 181 No-Binary-Search (NBS) algorithm is employed to find candidate contact spheres for each sphere
 182 in the system [35]. Initially, a background mesh including continuous and non-overlapped cubes is
 183 created according to the following relation

$$184 \quad (dx, dy, dz) = \left(\left(\frac{Dx}{\text{int}\left(\frac{Dx}{d_{max}}\right)} \right), \left(\frac{Dy}{\text{int}\left(\frac{Dy}{d_{max}}\right)} \right), \left(\frac{Dz}{\text{int}\left(\frac{Dz}{d_{max}}\right)} \right) \right) \quad (12)$$

185 where, dx, dy and dz are size of the cubes in x, y and z direction. Dx, Dy and Dz are size of the
 186 bound box of the solution domain. d_{max} is the diameter of the biggest particle. $\text{int}(x)$ returns the
 187 biggest integer less than x . Particles are filled into cubes using the following relation

$$188 \quad (i, j, k) = \left(\text{int}\left(\frac{p_x - D_{min,x}}{dx}\right), \text{int}\left(\frac{p_y - D_{min,y}}{dy}\right), \text{int}\left(\frac{p_z - D_{min,z}}{dz}\right) \right) \quad (13)$$

189 Where $D_{min,x}$, $D_{min,y}$ and $D_{min,z}$ are the smallest coordinates of the bound box of the solution domain
 190 in x, y and z direction. (p_x, p_y, p_z) is the particle location. The particles in cubes $([i-1, i+1], [j-1,$
 191 $j+1], [k-1, k+1])$ are the potential contact pairs for particles in cube (i, j, k) . Efficient RIGID
 192 (ERIGID) algorithm [21] is used to detect the contact states between spheres and pore walls.

193 **2.2.2 Enhance DEM accuracy for pore-scale simulation**

194 Particle flow in a porous medium may involve many unique microscopic flow phenomena and
 195 macroscopic flow behaviors. Accurate capture of these phenomena and behaviors is critically
 196 important for investigating pore scale fluid-particle motion characteristics. Due to variations in
 197 particle size, particle flow simulation programs designed for macroscopic flow would encounter
 198 some problems when applied to pore scale simulations (e.g. the position of slowly moving particle
 199 remains stationary; spurious currents in particle-contact force evaluation). It is found that all these
 200 problems are related to errors in evaluating particle positions, although similar problems also exist
 201 but not as serious in macroscopic particle flow simulations. These are explained in detail below.

202 Consider two particles with a radius r , located at $x_p - r$ and $x_p + r$ at a given time point, they
 203 collide with each other at a velocity of v_1 and v_2 , respectively. After a time-interval of Δt , the two
 204 particles move to $x_p - r + v_1\Delta t$ and $x_p + r - v_2\Delta t$. The overlap between them should be $2r - |(x_p - r$
 205 $+ v_1\Delta t) - (x_p + r - v_2\Delta t)| = (v_1 + v_2)\Delta t$. In the discrete element method, in order to track the
 206 complete process of all collisions, the required time step Δt is usually very small. As a result, the
 207 spatial coordinate $x_p - r$ ($x_p + r$) of the particle is much larger than the distance $v_1\Delta t$ ($v_2\Delta t$) the
 208 particle travels within a time step Δt (which is proportional to $r^{3/2}$). In macroscopic scale flow
 209 simulations, the particle size is relatively large, and the difference between a particle's location
 210 coordinate and particle motion distance within a time step is manageable using double precision
 211 variables. However, in pore scale flows, the particle size is much smaller ($100 \mu\text{m}$ in the present
 212 study), the corresponding time step is small ($< 1 \times 10^{-6}$ s), and particle velocity is very low (for

213 example: 0.001 m/s). Within a time-step, the particle travel distance is about 1×10^{-9} m, which is
 214 several orders of magnitude smaller than the location coordinate of the particle $x_p \pm r$. Hence, the
 215 updated particle location $x_{p \pm r + v_1 \Delta t}$ is almost the same as $x_{p \pm r}$ (also known as “a large number
 216 annihilating a small number”). As a result, the position of the particle remains unchanged. If there
 217 is a congestion of particles in the throat, their velocities drop (for example less than 10^{-4} m/s), so
 218 that the particle travelling distance within a time step becomes even smaller (10^{-10} m). Such an
 219 ultra-small displacement is almost undetectable on the macroscopic scale, causing particles to
 220 become ‘stuck’, thus affecting the motion of the continuous fluid phase and further influencing the
 221 migration and dispersion of particles in space. In addition, the accuracy of inter-particle overlap
 222 can be seriously affected by the inaccuracy in particle location, which will further affect particle
 223 movement.

224 To avoid the problems caused by "a large number annihilating a small number" when updating
 225 particle location, in this paper, we describe the location of the particle using a compound structure,
 226 whereby the location of particle is described by a base point \mathbf{x}_{base} and a tiny increment \mathbf{x}_{inc} on the
 227 base point, and is recorded as $(\mathbf{x}_{base}, \mathbf{x}_{inc})$. This method is named as base point-increment (BPI)
 228 method hereinafter. In this BPI method, the particle location and the inter-particle overlap are
 229 evaluated according to

230 (1) for the particle location

$$231 (\mathbf{x}_{base}, \mathbf{x}_{inc}) + \mathbf{v} \Delta t = (\mathbf{x}_{base}, \mathbf{x}_{inc} + \mathbf{v} \Delta t) \quad (14)$$

232 (2) for the overlap between particles a and b

$$233 \delta_{ab} = |[(r_a + r_b) \mathbf{n} - (\mathbf{x}_{base}^a - \mathbf{x}_{base}^b)] - (\mathbf{x}_{inc}^a - \mathbf{x}_{inc}^b)| \quad (15)$$

234 where ,

$$235 \mathbf{n} = \frac{(\mathbf{x}_{base}^a - \mathbf{x}_{base}^b) + (\mathbf{x}_{inc}^a - \mathbf{x}_{inc}^b)}{|(\mathbf{x}_{base}^a - \mathbf{x}_{base}^b) + (\mathbf{x}_{inc}^a - \mathbf{x}_{inc}^b)|} \quad (16)$$

236 The compound structure is refreshed every several time steps according to

$$237 (\mathbf{x}_{base}, \mathbf{x}_{inc}) = \begin{cases} (\mathbf{x}_{base} + \mathbf{x}_{inc}, 0) & \text{for } \mathbf{x}_{base} \leq 10^4 \mathbf{x}_{inc} \\ (\mathbf{x}_{base}, \mathbf{x}_{inc}) & \text{for } \mathbf{x}_{base} > 10^4 \mathbf{x}_{inc} \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

238 The BPI method enables the particle location and inter-particle overlap to be evaluated with high
 239 accuracy, thereby enhancing the accuracy in the simulation of fluid-particle in a porous medium.

240 2.3 Fictitious Domain Method for Fluid-Particle Interaction

241 The core idea of the fictitious domain method is to add a force in the solid domain to make the
 242 fluid behave like a solid. As a result, Navier-Stokes equation can be applied to the whole solution
 243 domain, which is given by [24]

$$244 \rho_f \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \rho_f \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}) - \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau} = \rho_f \boldsymbol{\lambda} \quad (18)$$

245 where $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ is a force acting on the fluid inside the particle covered zone to enforce the rigid body
 246 condition. This force only exists in particle covered zone and is zero elsewhere. According to

247 Equations (4), (5) the following equations are satisfied for particle translation

$$248 \quad m \frac{d\mathbf{V}}{dt} = \mathbf{F}^{hyd} + \left(1 - \frac{\rho_f}{\rho_p}\right) m \mathbf{g} + \mathbf{F}^c \quad (19)$$

249 and for particle rotation

$$250 \quad \mathbf{J} \frac{d\boldsymbol{\omega}}{dt} + \boldsymbol{\omega} \times (\mathbf{J} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}) = \mathbf{T}^{hyd} + \mathbf{T}^c \quad (20)$$

251 where \mathbf{V} and $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ are particle translation velocity and rotation velocity, respectively. \mathbf{J} is particle
252 moment of inertia. \mathbf{F}^{hyd} and \mathbf{T}^{hyd} are hydrodynamic force and torque, expressed as

$$253 \quad \mathbf{F}^{hyd} = \int_{\Gamma_s} \mathbf{n} \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau} dS \quad (21)$$

$$254 \quad \mathbf{T}^{hyd} = \int_{\Gamma_s} \mathbf{r} \times (\mathbf{n} \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau}) dS \quad (22)$$

255 \mathbf{n} is the normal vector pointing out of the particle solid boundary, and \mathbf{r} is the location vector.

256 The integration of equation (18) in particle covered domain is as follows.

$$257 \quad \frac{\rho_f}{\rho_p} m \frac{d\mathbf{V}}{dt} - \int_{\Omega_p} \nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau} d\mathbf{x} = \int_{\Omega_p} \boldsymbol{\lambda} d\mathbf{x} \quad (23)$$

258 The first term on the left-hand side of Equation (23) is the integration of unsteady term and
259 convection term of Equation (18). According to Gaussian theorem, the second term on the left-
260 hand side of equation (23) is equivalent to the term on the right-hand side of equation (21), so that
261 equation (23) can be written as

$$262 \quad \mathbf{F}^{hyd} = \frac{\rho_f}{\rho_p} m \frac{d\mathbf{V}}{dt} - \int_{\Omega_p} \boldsymbol{\lambda} d\mathbf{x} \quad (24)$$

263 similarly, the hydrodynamics moment is written as

$$264 \quad \mathbf{T}^{hyd} = \frac{\rho_f}{\rho_p} \left[\mathbf{J} \frac{d\boldsymbol{\omega}}{dt} + \boldsymbol{\omega} \times (\mathbf{J} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}) \right] - \int_{\Omega_p} \mathbf{r} \times \boldsymbol{\lambda} d\mathbf{x} \quad (25)$$

265 Equations (3), (18), (19), (20), (24) and (25) constitute the set of mechanical equations for direct
266 numerical simulation of particle flow in porous media.

267 **2.4 Solution Method**

268 **2.4.1 Fluid subproblem**

269 It would be desirable to adopt an unstructured mesh for pore scale simulations. In this work,
270 arbitrarily polyhedral finite volume method in an open source CFD package OpenFOAM is
271 employed to discretize Navier-Stokes Equation [36] and PISO algorithm is used to decouple the
272 momentum and continuity equations [37]. The semi-discretization form of Equation (18) can be
273 written as

$$274 \quad a_p \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{A}_H - \nabla p \quad (26)$$

275 where a_p is the diagonal coefficient in coefficient matrix discretized from Equation (18), and \mathbf{A}_H is
276 written as

$$277 \quad \mathbf{A}_H = \sum_N a_N \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{b} \quad (27)$$

278 a_N is the implicit contribution coefficient of neighbor cells to the cell concerned. \mathbf{b} includes all the
279 explicit discretization contributions except pressure. Because $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ at the next step is unknown at this
280 stage and explicit treatment is generally applied.

281 Equation (26) can be transformed to the following form

$$282 \quad \mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{A}_H}{a_p} - \frac{\nabla p}{a_p} \quad (28)$$

283 Equation (28) should satisfy the continuity equation. However, this equation is the velocity
 284 relation at the cell center when applied to continuity equation, it is assumed that the above
 285 equation is also satisfied at the face center (Rhoe-Chow interpolation [38]), i.e.

$$286 \quad \mathbf{u}_f = \frac{(\mathbf{A}_H)_f}{(a_p)_f} - \frac{(\nabla p)_f}{(a_p)_f} \quad (29)$$

287 Substitution of Equation (29) to Equation (3) yields

$$288 \quad \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{1}{a_p} \nabla p \right) = \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{(\mathbf{A}_H)_f}{(a_p)_f} \right) \quad (30)$$

289 Equation (30) is the pressure equation derived from PISO algorithm. Once the new pressure is
 290 obtained using this equation, velocity at the cell center and that at the face center are updated
 291 using Equation (28) and Equation (29) explicitly.

292 **2.4.2 Particle subproblem**

293 Rigid body constraint in particle covered zone is not satisfied after solving the fluid domain, this is
 294 caused by the fact that we treat λ in Equation (18) in an explicit manner. For particle covered zone,
 295 the following relation should be satisfied

$$296 \quad \tilde{\mathbf{u}}^{n+1} = \mathbf{V}^{n+1} + \boldsymbol{\omega}^{n+1} \times \mathbf{r} \quad \mathbf{x} \in \Omega_p \quad (31)$$

297 where $\tilde{\mathbf{u}}^{n+1}$ is the fluid velocity satisfying the rigid body constraint, \mathbf{r} is the vector from particle
 298 center to a location in the particle covered zone.

299 With λ^n , the discretized form of Equation (18) can be written as

$$300 \quad \frac{\mathbf{u}^{n+1} - \mathbf{u}^n}{\Delta t} = \mathcal{F} + \lambda^n \quad (32)$$

301 With λ^{n+1} , the discretized form of Equation (18) can be written as

$$302 \quad \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{u}}^{n+1} - \mathbf{u}^n}{\Delta t} = \tilde{\mathcal{F}} + \lambda^{n+1} \quad (33)$$

303 \mathcal{F} and $\tilde{\mathcal{F}}$ are discretization of convection and diffusion terms, respectively. Subtraction of
 304 Equation (32) from Equation (33) yields

$$305 \quad \lambda^{n+1} = \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{u}}^{n+1} - \mathbf{u}^{n+1}}{\Delta t} + \tilde{\mathcal{F}} - \mathcal{F} - \lambda^n \quad (34)$$

306 The second and third items on the right-hand side of Equation (34) are the differences between the
 307 convective and diffusive effects before and after correction. $\tilde{\mathcal{F}}$ is dependent on λ^{n+1} . The deferred
 308 correction method can be employed to improve the evaluation accuracy of λ . However, for the
 309 sake of simplicity, such a difference is neglected in this work. As a result, Equation (34) can be
 310 rewritten as

$$311 \quad \lambda^{n+1} = \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{u}}^{n+1} - \mathbf{u}^{n+1}}{\Delta t} - \lambda^n \quad (35)$$

312 Substitution of Equation (35) into Equations (19) and (20) yields

$$313 \quad m\mathbf{V}^{n+1} = \frac{\rho_p - \rho_f}{\rho_p} m(\mathbf{V}^n + \mathbf{g}\Delta t) + \rho_f \int_{\Omega_p} (\mathbf{u}^{n+1} - \lambda^n) d\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{F}^c \Delta t \quad (36)$$

$$314 \quad \mathbf{J} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}^{n+1} = \frac{\rho_p - \rho_f}{\rho_p} (\mathbf{J} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}^n - \boldsymbol{\omega}^n \times (\mathbf{J} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}^n) \Delta t) + \rho_f \int_{\Omega_p} \mathbf{r} \times (\mathbf{u}^{n+1} - \lambda^n) d\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{T}^c \Delta t \quad (37)$$

315 The particle velocity and angular velocity can be tracked by Equation (36) and Equation (37).

316 The two equations contain the integral of the physical quantity in the particle covered zone.
 317 Because the grid face and the surface of particles do not fit in the solution process, the
 318 approximated Heaviside function is used when evaluating the integration

$$319 \int_{\Omega_p} \Phi d\mathbf{x} = \int_{D(\Omega_p)} I(\mathbf{x}) \Phi d\mathbf{x} \quad (38)$$

320 where $D(\Omega_p)$ is a solution domain containing Ω_p . $I(x)$ is an indicator function, expressed as

$$321 I(x) = 1 - H(\psi(\mathbf{x})) \quad (39)$$

322 where $\psi(\mathbf{x})$ is the distance between position \mathbf{x} and particle center, which is negative inside the
 323 particle and positive outside the particle. The approximate Heaviside function can be expressed as

$$324 H(s) = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \tanh\left(b \frac{s}{\Delta}\right) \right) \quad (40)$$

325 b is smooth length and $b=5$ is adopted in this work. Δ is mesh size.

326 **2.4.2 Eulerian-Lagrangian coupling**

327 In the method described in this work for direct numerical simulation of particle flow in porous
 328 media, we use Navier-Stokes Equation to describe the continuous phase, DEM-based Lagrangian
 329 method to describe particle dynamics, and fictitious domain method for fluid-particle interaction.
 330 Since two different physical quantities are coupled in the algorithm, these should be treated with
 331 caution.

332 The first physical quantity is velocity. Solved using Equations (36) and (37), particle velocity
 333 should be mapped to particle covered zone in Eulerian framework. For cells completely covered
 334 by the particle, their velocities should be evaluated by Equation (31). For cells partially covered
 335 by the particle, their velocities are averaged using indicator function given in Equation (39).

336 The second physical quantity is the force term λ in Equation (18). In this work, λ is non-zero in
 337 particle covered zone and zero elsewhere. It is to enforce the rigid body condition in particle
 338 covered zone. In this work, we store this quantity in Eulerian framework. After enforcing rigid
 339 body condition using Equation (31), Equation (35) is used to calculate force term λ in Eulerian
 340 framework in the next time step. Since the particle location is updated at the end of the current
 341 time step, resulting in a change in the particle domain, the force term should also be translated
 342 with the particle through the following equation

$$343 \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial t} + \mathbf{U} \cdot \nabla \lambda = 0 \quad (41)$$

344 This equation is a pure convection equation, and λ remains the same along the characteristic line.

345 Thus, the following scheme is used to solve this equation

$$346 \lambda(\mathbf{x}, t + \Delta t) = \lambda(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{U}\Delta t, t) \quad (42)$$

347 **2.4.3 Adjustable time-step for fluid and particle tracking**

348 The flow field of fluid-particle transport in porous media can be quite complex due to interactions
 349 among the fluid, particles and pore walls. The radii of the pore channels are not uniform, and the
 350 resistance of pore walls on particles depends strongly on pore radius. As a result, the fluid velocity
 351 in pores could undergo considerable changes over time. Using a fixed time step may cause

352 instability problems or high computational cost.

353 The time step for solving the fluid equations should conform to the CFL (Courant–Friedrichs–
354 Lewy) condition

$$355 \quad C = \frac{u\Delta t}{\delta} < 1 \quad (43)$$

356 where C is CFL number preset in the simulation, δ is the cell size and u is the fluid velocity. Based
357 on the preset CFL number, the time step size is adjusted using the following relation

$$358 \quad (\Delta t)^{n+1} = \min\left(\min\left(\frac{C}{C_n}, 1.0 + 0.1\frac{C}{C_n}\right), 1.2\right) (\Delta t)^n \quad (44)$$

359 where C_n is the Courant number at the n -th time step. The rate of change in time step is greater
360 when the time step is increased than that when it is reduced. Such a treatment can help to stabilize
361 the numerical simulation.

362 The time step for particle motion is determined by the collision time in DEM method, and the
363 following relation is adopted

$$364 \quad \Delta t_p = \frac{\alpha}{s} \sqrt{\frac{m}{k_n}} \quad (45)$$

365 where α is a constant and $\alpha = 0.3$ is adopted in this work. s is a half of the number of steps to
366 accomplish one collision, and $s = 5$ is adopted in this work. m is the mass of the smallest particle
367 in the system. k_n is normal stiffness coefficient in linear DEM model.

368 It should be stressed that the time step for particle motion and that for continuous phase motion
369 should be coupled. In this work, Equation (44) is adopted as the time step for continuous phase
370 motion, and the time step for particle phase is modified to fit the continuous phase according to

$$371 \quad \Delta t_p^{corr} = \frac{(\Delta t)^{n+1}}{\text{ceil}((\Delta t)^{n+1}/\Delta t_p)} \quad (46)$$

372 where Δt_p^{corr} is the time step we adopted in this work for particle motion. The function $\text{ceil}(x)$
373 returns the smallest integer greater than or equal to x .

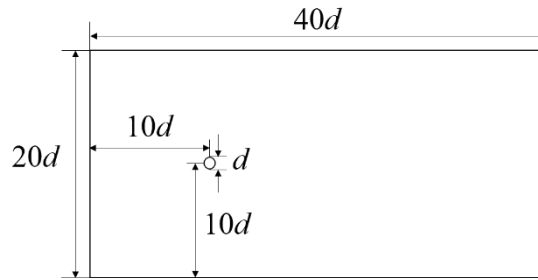
374

375 With the CFD-DNS-DEM coupled method presented here, direct numerical simulation of particle
376 transport in porous media can be simulated at pore scale. The particle cloud can also have a size
377 distribution. However, one should be noted that, if the particle size is much smaller than the pore
378 channel, the point source drag model may be preferred for evaluating fluid-particle force so as to
379 lower computational expense. Moreover, if the particle size is too small, for instance, less than 10
380 μm , the microscopic forces, such as, Electron double-layer force, Van der Waals force, can have a
381 significant impact on the pore-scale particle cloud behaviors. Incorporating these forces in
382 CFD-DNS-DEM framework for studying the particle cloud behaviors is essential in this situation,
383 but exceeds the scope of the present work.

384 **3 Model Validation**

385 **3.1 Flow over a cylinder**

386 Flow over a cylinder is a classical fluid mechanics problem. A large amount of experimental and
 387 numerical results have been reported in the literature. In this test case, the simulation domain is $40d \times 20d$ ($d = 0.025$ m), and the center of the cylinder is located at $(10d, 10d)$, as shown in Fig. 1.
 388 The fluid flows from the left to the right, and the flow velocity is denoted as \mathbf{u} . The fluid density is
 389 $\rho_f = 1.293 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ and the kinematic viscosity $\nu = 1.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. In order to reduce the
 390 computational loads, the mesh size of the grid is $d/30 \times d/30$ within the $5d$ range of the center line
 391 in the flow direction, and the mesh size for the rest is $d/5 \times d/5$. The fluid velocity is specified at the
 392 inlet and pressure is specified at the outlet. Symmetric plane boundary condition is applied at the
 393 top and the bottom walls. Simulations are performed at four different Reynolds numbers, $Re (= \rho_f d|\mathbf{u}|/\nu)$, 10, 20, 40, 100. The corresponding inlet velocities are $6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, $1.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$,
 394 $2.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ and $6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$.
 395
 396



397
 398 Figure 1 The simulation domain for flow over a cylinder

399 Table 1 shows the drag coefficient C_d at different Reynolds numbers when the flow field is stable.

400 The drag coefficient is calculated by the following equation

401
$$C_d = 2|\mathbf{F}^{hd}|/(\rho_f d|\mathbf{u}|^2) \quad (47)$$

402 Table 1 give a comparison of mean drag coefficient for different Reynolds numbers between the
 403 present results and those in the literature. It can be seen that a good agreement is achieved,
 404 showing that the method described here can make a reliable prediction of the fluid-particle
 405 interaction force.

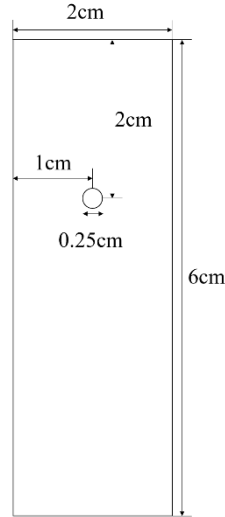
406 Table 1 Comparison of mean drag coefficient for different Reynolds numbers

Re	Su et al.[39]	Silva et al. [40]	Deng et al. [41]	Ranjith Maniyeri [42]	Present
10	-	2.81	2.98	2.98	3.12
20	2.20	2.04	2.06	2.16	2.24
40	1.63	1.54	1.52	1.67	1.67
100	1.40	1.39	1.30	1.32	1.38

407 **3.2 Particle settlement**

408 The settlement process of a circular particle in a closed container is simulated to verify the

409 feasibility of the method in dealing with moving boundary problems. As shown in Figure 2, the
 410 solution domain is $0.02 \text{ m} \times 0.06 \text{ m}$, surrounded by walls. The initial position of the particle is at
 411 $(0.01 \text{ m}, 0.04 \text{ m})$, and the particle diameter is $d = 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$. Initially, the fluid is at rest and the
 412 particle sinks under gravity. The density of the fluid is $\rho_f = 1000 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$. The density of the
 413 particles $\rho_p = 1250 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ and the dynamic viscosity of the fluid is $0.01 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$. The grid size is
 414 $0.01 \text{ cm} \times 0.01 \text{ cm}$, and no-slip boundary condition is applied to all walls.



415 Figure 2 Solution domain and initial particle location for particle settlement

416 In the early stage, the particle sinks in the fluid under the action of gravity. As the sinking speed
 417 increases, the drag force increases gradually. Once gravity force, buoyancy force and drag force
 418 reach a balance, sinking velocity remains constant and this velocity is known as particle terminal
 419 velocity. The terminal Reynolds number based on terminal velocity is defined as
 420

$$421 \quad Re_{max} = \max \left[\frac{\rho_p d \sqrt{u_p^2(t) + v_p^2(t)}}{\mu} \right] \quad (48)$$

422 where u_p and v_p are the x and the y components of particle velocity, respectively. This Reynolds
 423 number is denoted as terminal Reynolds number from herein.

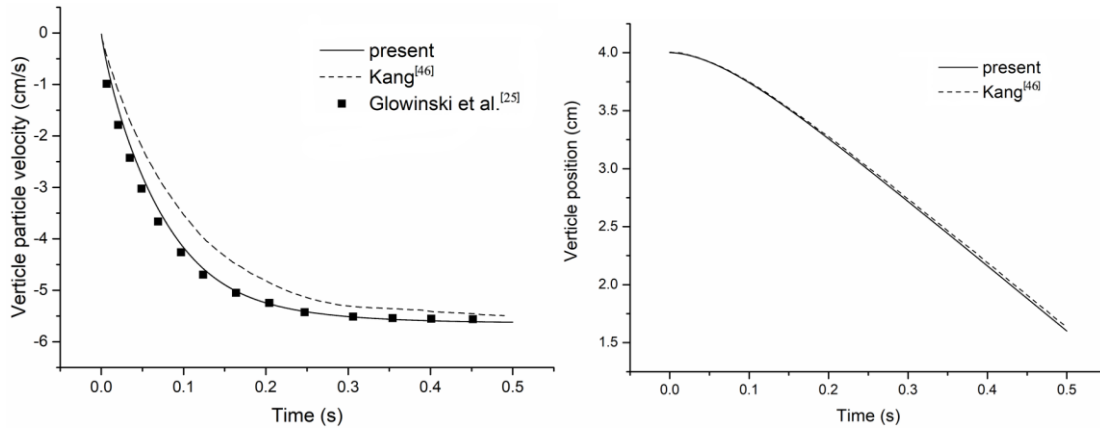
424 Table 2 gives the numerical predicted terminal Re in this test case along with the results of Wan
 425 [43], Glowinski [44] and Wang [45] for comparison. Very small differences can be observed, and
 426 our result matches more closely to the result of Wan [43].

427 Figure 3 gives the evolution of particle sinking velocity and particle vertical position with time.
 428 The results of Kang [46] and Glowinski et al. [25] are also included for comparison. It is clear that
 429 our predicted particle sinking velocity matches the result of Glowinski et al. very well and is
 430 slightly lower than the result of Kang. However, the predicted particle vertical position is not
 431 affected by the difference in sinking velocity as a perfect match with the result of Kang can be
 432 seen from Fig. 3(b). Glowinski et al. [25] did not report their result on particle vertical position,
 433 but a good agreement would be expected given the close match with their predicted particle
 434 sinking velocity.

435

Table 2 The terminal velocity in particle settlement test

	Wan[43]	Glowinski[44]	Wang[45]	This work
$\Delta x/cm$	1/96	1/192	1/144	1/100
Re_{max}	17.42	17.27	17.22	17.57



(a) Sinking velocity

(b) Vertical position

Figure 3 Sinking velocity and displacement in particle settlement test

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440 4 Pore-scale Simulation of Particle transport in porous media

441 4.1 Physical Models and Computational conditions

442 The pore geometry used in the simulation is given in Figure 4. Fluid enters the porous medium
 443 from boundary A and exits from boundary B. The physical parameters used in this simulation are
 444 given in Table 3. The dimension of the solution is 2. Numerical conditions used in the simulation
 445 are shown in Table 4. For pressure, we used Neumann boundary condition for the inlet and wall
 446 and Dirichlet for the outlet. For velocity, we used Neumann for outlet and Dirichlet boundary
 447 conditions for the inlet. Gamma Scheme presented in work [47] is used to discretize the
 448 convection term and Crank-Nicolson scheme is for the time term [48]. Leap-frog scheme is time
 449 discretization for particle tracking [49]. To investigate detailed fluid-particle behaviors in the
 450 porous medium, six test cases are carried out with different particle counts and particle sizes as
 451 given in Table 5. The total particle mass in case IV and that in case V are the same. In all these
 452 cases, particles are initially placed at the inlet, and they enter the porous medium through one of
 453 the three channels with the fluid and exit when moving to the outlet. Two-phase behaviors in the
 454 transport process of fluid-particle system in porous medium are obtained and analyzed in depth.

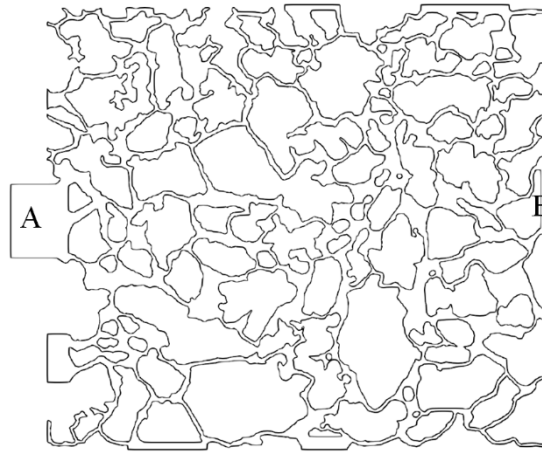


Figure 4 porous structure used in the simulation

Table 3 Physical Parameters used in the simulation

Physical Domain		
Domain Size	0.0103 m × 0.00853 m	
Mesh Count	221743	
Dimension	2	
Fluid Parameters		
Density (ρ_f)	1000	kg·m ⁻³
Viscosity (μ)	0.001	kg·m ⁻¹ ·s ⁻¹
Inlet velocity (\mathbf{u})	(0.1, 0, 0)	m·s ⁻¹
Particle parameters		
Shape	Sphere	
Density(ρ_p)	1000.0	kg·m ⁻³
Normal /tangential stiffness (k_n/k_t)	800/200	N·m ⁻¹
Normal / tangential damping coefficient (η_n/η_t)	0.3/0.3	N·s·m ⁻¹
Frictional coefficient(γ)	0.1	

Table 4 Numerical parameters used in the simulation

Conditions for continuous phase		
Pressure (p)	Inlet	Neumann
	outlet	Dirichlet
	wall	Neumann
Velocity(\mathbf{u})	Inlet	Dirichlet
	outlet	Neumann
	wall	No slip
Particle Phase		
Distance for searching potential particle pair	2^*d_{max}	
Particle behaviors at outlet	exit	
Particle behaviors at inlet	exit	
Particle behaviors at inlet	Interaction force calculated by DEM	
Numerical scheme		

Convection term	Gamma Scheme
Time scheme for continuous phase	Crank-Nicolson
Time scheme for particle phase	Leap-frog

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Table 5 Particle count and diameter in different cases

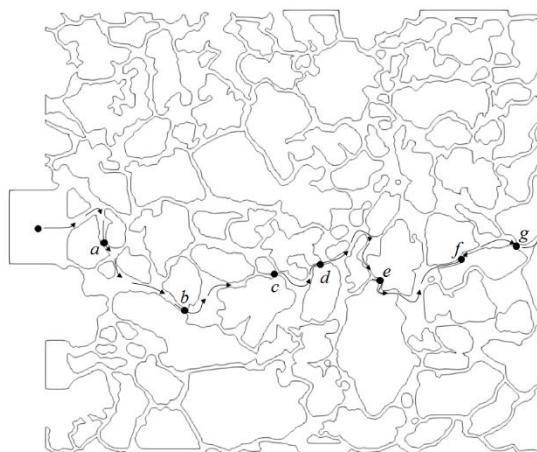
Cases	Particle Number	Particle Diameter (m)
Case I	1	1.50e-4
Case II	2	1.50e-4
Case III	3	1.50e-4
Case IV	70	1.13e-4
Case V	28	1.90e-4
Case VI	0	not applicable

463

464 4.2 Single Particle motion

465 Figure 5 shows the particle trajectory of a single particle in the porous medium (Case I). It
466 appears that the particle moves along the mainstream direction (from the inlet to the outlet). To
467 understand the particle motion path, the single-phase flow field (Case VI) is presented in Figure 6.
468 It reveals a non-uniform velocity distribution in the porous medium, with fluid motion being
469 limited to a few inter-connected pore channels. Under the action of fluid flow, the particle moves
470 along one of the paths connected by these channels.

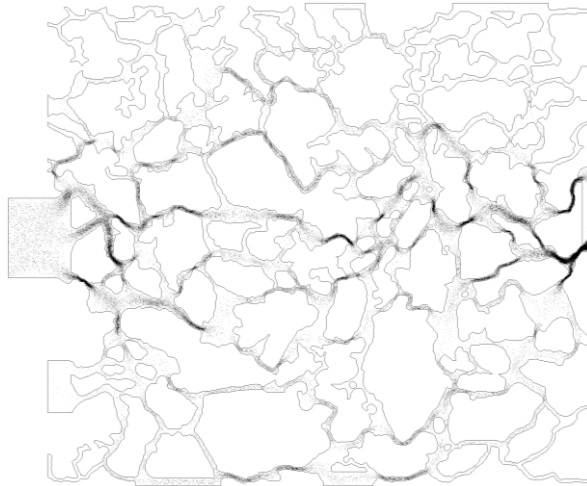
471 Since the radii of the pore channels along the particle moving path are not the same, the acting
472 force of pore walls on the particle are different at different sites. Figure 7 shows the change in
473 pressure-difference between the inlet and outlet over time, where a number of spikes can be seen.
474 Variations in pressure-difference are mainly caused by changes in resistance to the particle during
475 its movement. In order to explain the reasons for causing the spikes in pressure-difference, the
476 corresponding particle locations at the time points of the observed spikes are labelled in Figure 5.
477 Comparing Figure 5 and Figure 7, one can find that the particle is passing through a narrow throat
478 when there is a surge in pressure difference.



479

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Figure 5 Particle trajectory of a single particle in the porous medium (Case I)

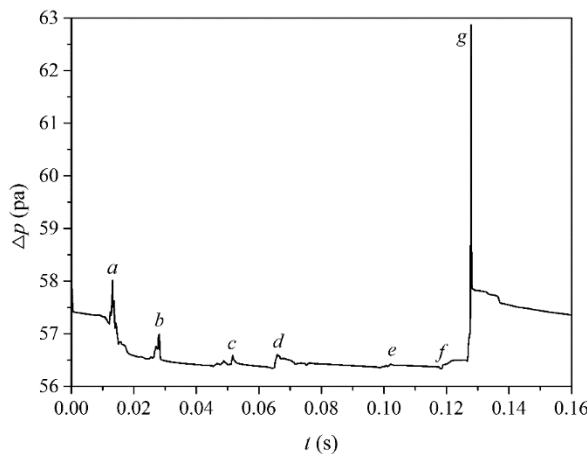


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Figure 6 Fluid phase velocity field (Case VI)



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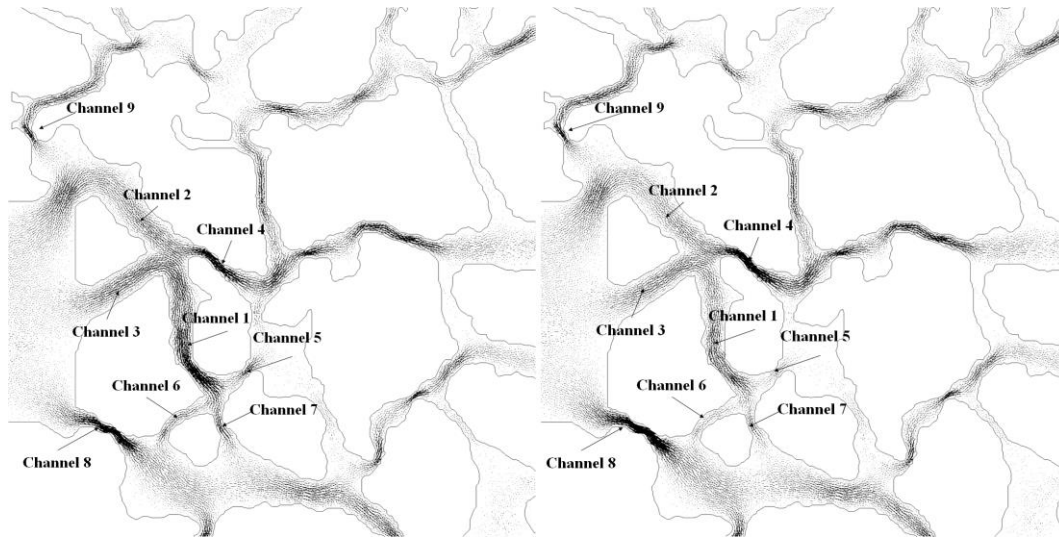
500

Figure 7 Evolution of pressure-difference between the inlet and outlet with time for single particle transport (Case I)

Comparison of the pore size at point *a* and point *e* in Figure 5 shows that the pore radius at point *a* is larger than that at point *e*. However, the inlet-outlet pressure-difference at point *a* is much larger than that at point *e*. Thus, pore radius is not the only factor influencing the pressure-difference. To explore this further, the single-phase velocity fields near points *a* and *e*, and the flow fields when particle is at point *a* and point *e* are given in Figure 8. When the particle is located at point *a*, channel 1 is temporarily blocked, causing flow velocities in Channel 4, Channel 8 and Channel 9 to increase, and velocities in Channel 2, Channel 3, Channel 5, Channel 6 and Channel 7 to decrease. However, from Figure 8c and 8d, one can see that blockage of Channel 10 only causes fluid velocity in Channel 11 to reduce, whilst little influence can be noticed on velocities in the other channels. Although the pore radius at point *e* in Channel 10 is smaller than that at point *a* in Channel 1, the pressure-difference is higher when the particle is at point *a* than at point *e* because of the high flow rate. The total flow velocity in channel 1 (marked in Figure 8b, point *a* is in this channel) is much higher than in channel 10 (marked in Figure 8d, point *e* is located in this channel). Similarly, there is a sharp rise in the inlet-outlet pressure-difference at point *g*, because

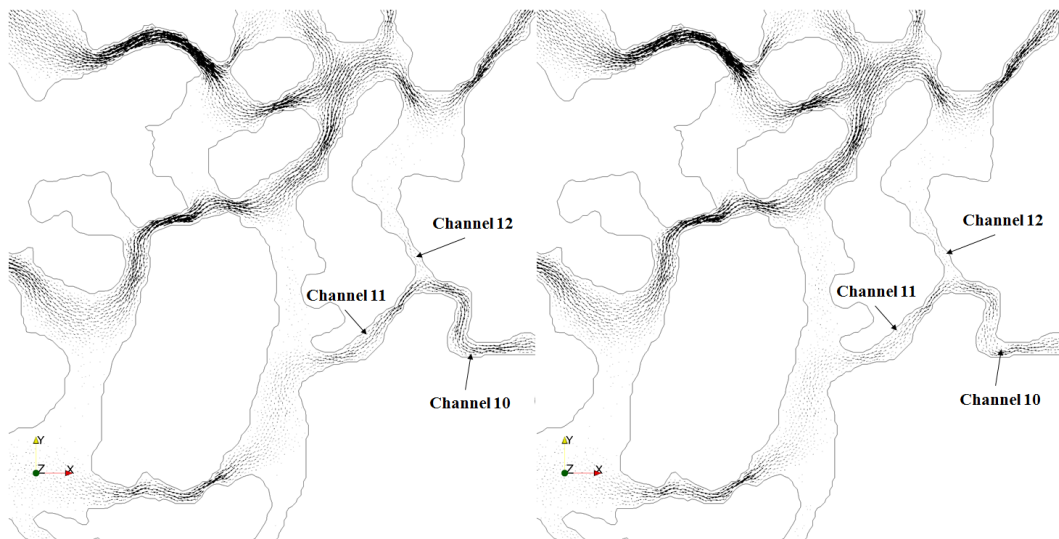
501 the flow rate at this point is very high. If this channel is blocked, all fluid has to exit the solution
502 domain from the other channel, resulting in a high pressure drop.

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508 Figure 8 Local velocity fields of single-phase flow and single-particle transport; (a) single phase
509 flow field near point *a* (the location is marked in Figure 5); (b) flow field with particle at point *a*;
510 (c) single-phase flow field near point *e* (the location is marked in Figure 5); (d) flow field with
511 particle at point *e*.

512

513 The pressure difference displayed in Figure 7 also reveals small-scale fluctuations in addition to
514 large-scale spikes. To find the reason for this phenomenon, a close-up of the local geometry near
515 point *c* (marked in Figure 5) is given in Figure 9, and the corresponding pressure-difference as the
516 particle moves through this domain is presented in Figure 10. Looking at Figure 9 and Figure 10
517 together, one can observe that the pressure difference is large when the particle passes through
518 narrow pores, whereas pressure-difference is small when the particle passes through wide pores.

519



Figure 9 Local geometry near the point c in Figure 5

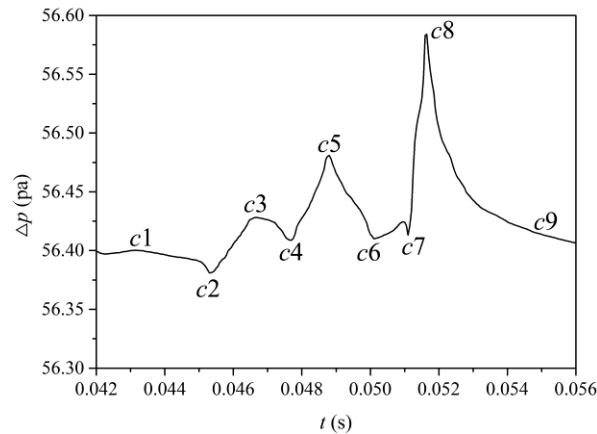


Figure 10 Pressure difference in the process of particle passing through the pore space near point *c* marked in Figure 5

In summary, the inlet-outlet pressure-difference curves show large-scale spikes and small-scale fluctuations for the transport of a single particle in fluid flow. The large-scale spikes are caused by differences in velocity in different channels. If a particle blocks a channel with a high flow-rate, more fluids must bypass this passage to reach the outlet, resulting in a larger pressure difference. Once the particle breaks through the throat in the pore channel, the flow rate in this channel will recover, and the pressure difference falls. For a fixed flow rate, the inlet-outlet pressure difference is controlled by pore radius. Small-scale fluctuations are caused by changes in pore radius in single-particle transport.

4.3 Inter-particle motion interference

In order to investigate fluid-particle behaviors in depth, we have simulated a problem of two-particle transport in a porous medium (Case II). The particle trajectories are shown in Figure 11, along with the evolution of pressure difference between the inlet and outlet given in Figure 12.

Comparing Figures 7 and 12 suggests that the pressure-difference curve in Case II is more complex than that in Case I, and small-scale fluctuations are more obvious. The particle positions in the porous medium at the 9 different time points (*a-i*) shown in Figure 12 are marked in Figure

542 11. A surge in pressure difference tends to coincide with the moment when two channels are
543 blocked by the particles at the same time, showing a "cooperative clogging" feature. The black
544 particle in Case II and the particle in Case I enter the porous medium from the same channel,
545 however, their migration paths are different. As shown in Figure 11, from points *c* to *g* the particle
546 in Case I (single-particle transport) moves along the dotted line, while the black particle in Case II
547 (two particle transport) moves along the solid line. Clearly, the black particle behavior in Case II is
548 interfered by the other particle.

549

550 The primary reason for inter-particle motion interference during their migration in porous media is
551 due to variations in pore channel size, resulting in different resistances to particles from the pore
552 wall during the migration process. When a particle (denoted as particle I) moves to a throat, wall
553 resistance on the particle will increase, causing the particle to slow down or even stop; these will
554 reduce the fluid velocity in the channel (denoted as channel I) where particle I is in, thereby
555 increasing the upstream pressure. As a result, fluid velocity in the nearby channels (e.g. channel II)
556 will increase. The particle (denoted as particle II) moving in channel II will also be accelerated
557 due to increase in the fluid drag force (inter-particle motion interference). However, when particle
558 II moves to a throat and becomes stuck there, the upstream pressure will increase even further and
559 the flow behavior of particle I will be affected (secondary interference). The clogging effect of
560 particles changes the local flow field and interferes with the movement of other particles in the
561 affected flow field, which is called inter-particle motion interference in this work. Because of
562 inter-particle motion interference, the particles will produce cooperative clogging behavior, which
563 makes the large-scale pressure difference greater and the small-scale pressure-difference
564 fluctuation more complex for the two-particle transport case than the single particle transport case.

565

566 Moreover, particle blocking alters the local fluid field, making the particles show "cooperative
567 motion" feature in a macroscopic view. As can be seen from Figure 12, the time required for the
568 migration of the two particles from the inlet to the outlet is 0.104 s, while the single particle
569 migration time is 0.126 s. This is mainly because when a particle is blocked at a throat, the
570 upstream pressure must increase. As a result, fluid velocity in the nearby channels increases and
571 the particles residing in these channels are accelerated. Once the affected particle moves to a
572 throat, the original blocked particle may be forced to break through the throat and accelerate. Thus,
573 inter-particle interference can mutually enhance particle motion.

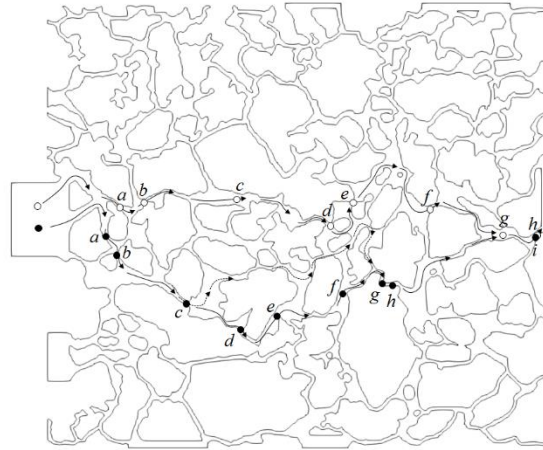


Figure 11 Particle trajectories for two particles transport in a porous medium (Case II)

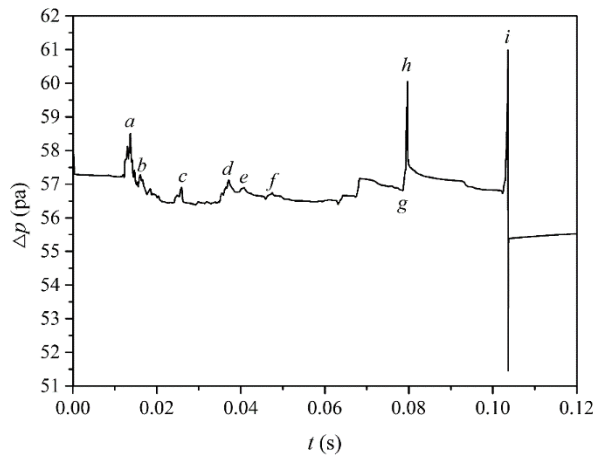
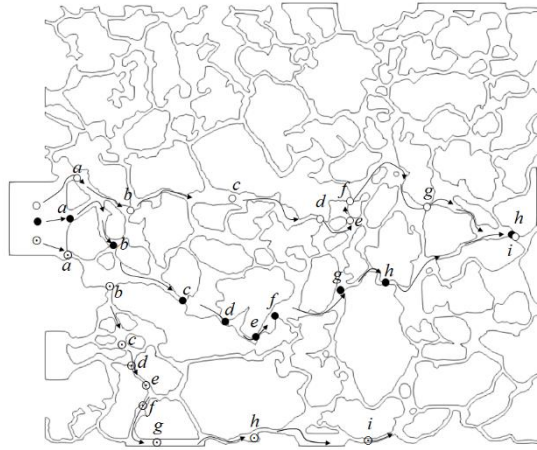


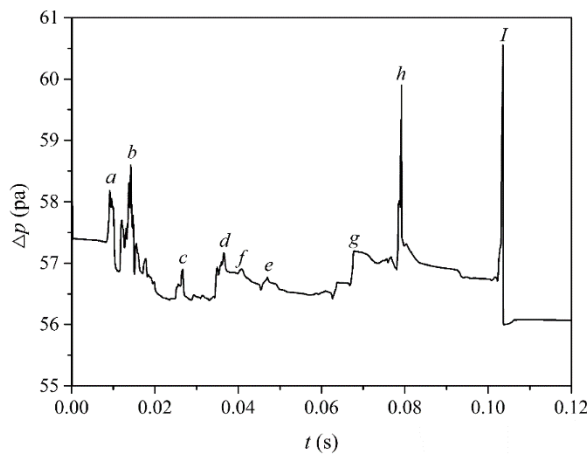
Figure 12 Evolution of Pressure Difference between the inlet and outlet with time for two particles transport (Case II)

Finally, we simulated the motion of three particles in a porous medium (Case III). At the initial time, the three particles are placed at different positions so that they enter the porous medium from different inlets. Particle trajectories are given in Figure 13. Variations of the pressure difference between the inlet and outlet are shown in Figure 14. The pressure difference variations are more complex than those of single-particle or two-particle motions. The white particle and the black particle in this case have the same trajectories as those in Case II. The white particle with a dot is diverted to the non-mainstream region under the action of the fluid; its velocity is lower than the other two particles in the mainstream area, and eventually it is trapped in the porous medium. At the beginning, as the three inlet channels are partially blocked, the pressure difference between the inlet and outlet during the time of 0-0.02 s is larger than that in Case I and Case II. Once the white particle moves to the marginal area of the porous medium, this particle has little influence on the other particles' movement and the characteristics of pressure-difference variation are similar to those in Case II after the time 0.02 s. The migration times of white particle and the black particle in the pores are almost the same as those in Case II.



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Figure 13 Particle trajectories for three particles transport in a porous medium (Case III)



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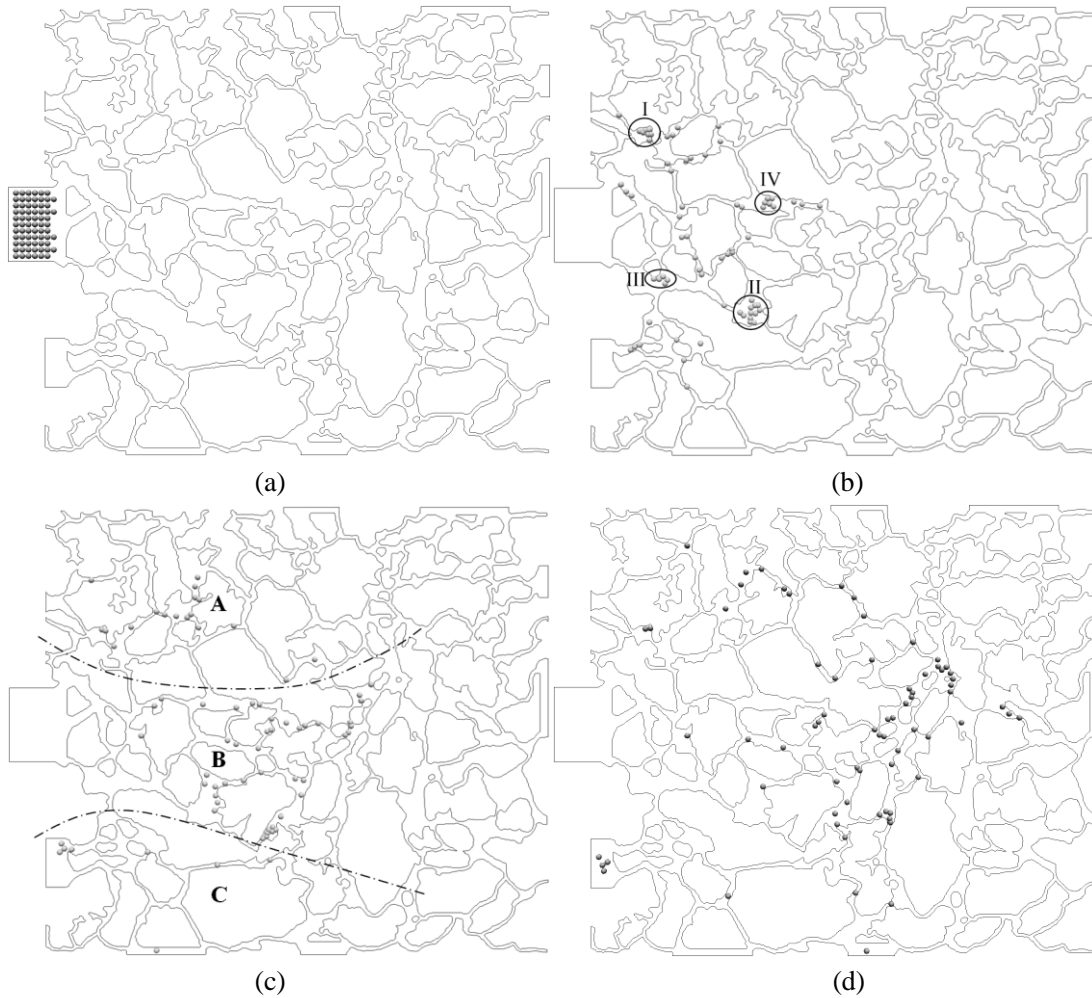
Figure 14 Evolution of Pressure Difference between the inlet and outlet with time for two particles transport (Case III)

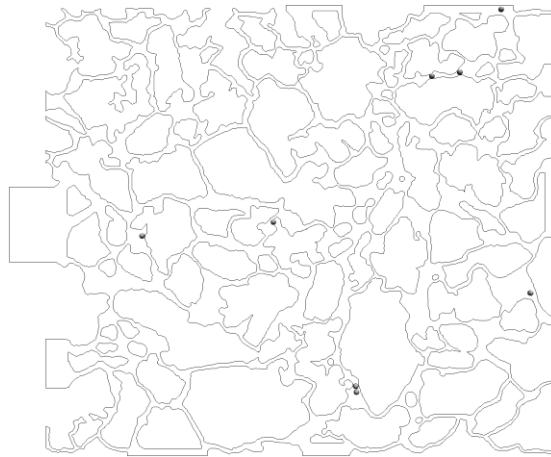
600 4.4 Flow Characteristics of particle cloud

601 4.4.1 Particle Flow Phenomenon

602 Figure 15 shows the particle distribution in Case IV at different times, (a) $t = 0$ s, (b) $t = 0.025$ s;
603 (c) $t = 0.045$ s; (d) $t = 0.065$ s; (e) $t = \infty$ (final steady state). The initial particle distribution at the
604 entrance is shown in Figure 15(a). Under the action of the fluid, these particles enter the porous
605 medium from three different channels. Figure 15 (b) gives the particle distribution at 0.025 s.
606 Several particle clusters in the porous medium can be easily observed, such as clusters located at
607 position I (7 particles), II (6 particles), III (5 particles), and IV (12 particles). The main reasons for
608 the local agglomeration of particles are as follows: (1) the pore radii of the channels are different,
609 resulting in different motion resistances to the particles. When the particles move to a throat, the
610 resistance increases to form clogging, this will cause fluid velocity in the channel to decrease and
611 the particles in this channel to accumulate in the upstream region of the throat. Therefore, particle
612 accumulation generally occurs in pores with relatively large channel radius. (2) Collisions between
613 particles are not completely elastic and involve energy losses, making the particles slow down. As

614 particles migrate deep inside a porous medium, particles from different inlet channels gradually
615 migrate to different pore spaces. As shown in Figure 15 (c), particles entering from the top channel
616 move to zone A, and particles entering from the middle channel move to zone B, whilst particles
617 entering from the lower channel are transported to zone C. Zone B is the mainstream zone, where
618 there is a large pressure gradient and particles are subject to relatively large drag force. Therefore,
619 the average particle velocity in Zone B is greater than that in Zone A and Zone C. As time
620 advances, majority of the particles in the three regions gradually move towards the outlet, as
621 shown in Figure 15 (d), and eventually leave the porous medium. However, several particles are
622 trapped inside the porous medium, as shown in Figure 15 (e), because these particles are not in the
623 main transport channel, and the fluid action on the particles are not sufficient to move them.





(e)

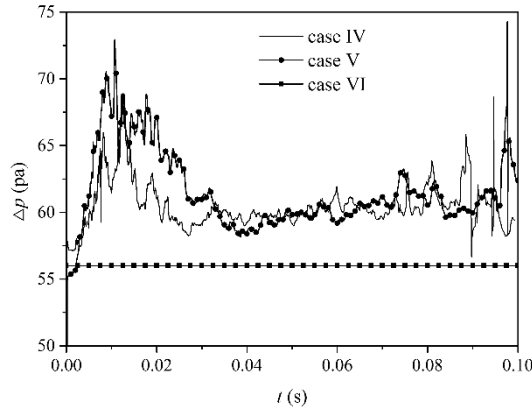
Figure 15 Particle Distribution at different time points (Case IV)

(a) $t = 0$ s; (b) $t = 0.025$ s; (c) $t = 0.045$ s; (d) $t = 0.065$ s; (e) $t = \infty$ (final steady state);

4.4.2 Pressure Difference Characteristics

Figure 16 shows the pressure-difference variations with time in Case IV and Case V along with those from a single-phase flow simulation with the influence of particle (Case VI) for comparison. Although the total particle mass in Case IV and Case V are the same, they exhibit different pressure-difference variations, suggesting that particle size is an important factor influencing the pressure-difference. Compared with Case IV, Case V has more prominent large spikes and more obvious small-scale fluctuation but at a lower frequency. In single-phase fluid simulation, the inlet-outlet pressure-difference remains constant.

Comparing the pressure-difference variations between the cases with particles and the case without particles, one can find that with particles in the fluid the pressure-difference is higher than that of single-phase fluid flow alone. This is because resistance on a fluid-particle two-phase system is greater than that of a single-phase system. The main source of resistance can be divided into two parts: (1) In the presence of particles, the apparent viscosity of the fluid increases, and this part of resistance is called additional viscous resistance; (2) As the sizes of pore channels are not uniform, when particles clog a throat, the fluid needs to go through a longer path to reach the exit, resulting in a larger resistance. This resistance is called clogging resistance. Additional viscosity is the physical property of a fluid-particle two-phase system, which is usually related to the mass concentration of particles in the system. The pressure difference in Case VI and V (Figure 14) between 0.04 s - 0.07 s shows that the particles do not form an effective clogging (the pressure fluctuation is relatively small) during this period. When the particles enter the porous medium from the entrance, large particles are more likely to form effective clogging. Therefore, the larger particles in Case V are more likely to block the pore channels between 0-0.03 s, resulting in a higher clogging resistance and larger pressure difference than in Case VI.

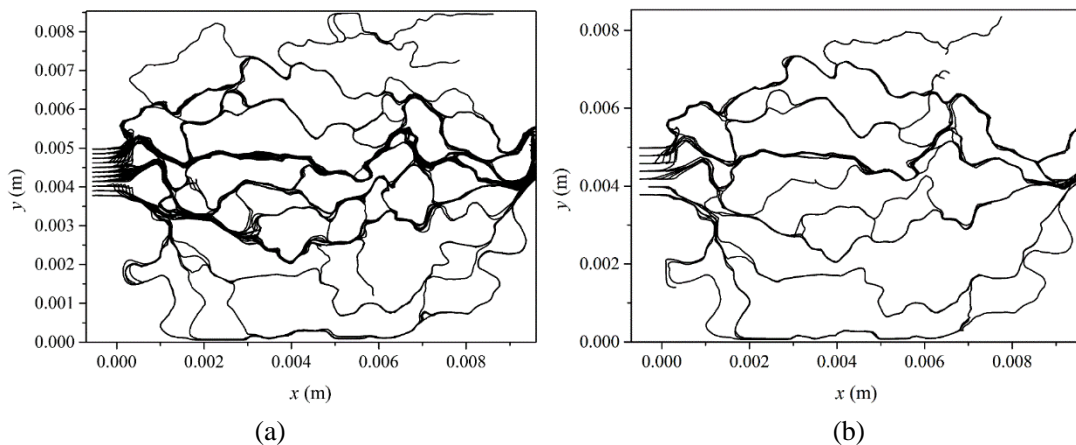


655

656 Figure 16 Evolution of pressure difference between inlet and outlet with time for particle cloud

657 **4.4.3 Particle Trajectory**

658 Figure 17 shows the trajectories of all particles in the porous medium in (a) Case VI (b) Case V. It
 659 can be seen that only not all channels are used as passages for particles' motion. This is mainly
 660 determined by the pore channel structure and pressure conditions. Most of the particles in Case VI
 661 move along channels in the mainstream zone (Zone B in figure 15c), while the number of particles
 662 passing through channels in the marginal zone (Zone A and C in Figure 15c) is relatively small.
 663 Case V has a smaller number of particles passing through channels in the mainstream zone than
 664 Case VI, and the particles are more dispersed in space. This is due to the smaller particle size in
 665 Case VI and the relatively low damping forces from pore walls. The action of fluid on particles
 666 dominates the particle motion, as a result, more particles tend to move in the mainstream zone
 667 where fluid velocity is large. On the other hand, the larger particle size in Case V causes larger
 668 resistance on these particles, making them more likely to block the throat, diverting the fluid from
 669 the mainstream to marginal zones. It is evident from Figure 17 that more channels are involved in
 670 transporting particles in Case VI than in Case V.



671

672

673 Figure 17 Particle trajectories for particle cloud transport in porous media; (a) Case VI (b) Case V

674 **4.4.4 Particle Macroscopic Motion**

675 In order to investigate the macroscopic migration behaviors of the particle cloud, Figure 18 gives

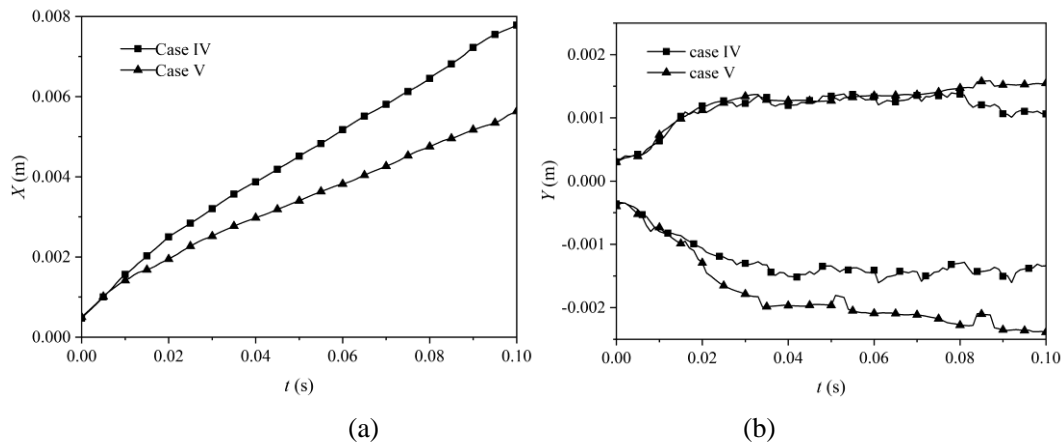
676 the average positions in x and y direction in Case IV and V. To study particle dispersion behaviors
 677 in the vertical direction, the particles are divided into two groups when calculating average
 678 position in the y direction: particles with y coordinates larger than the average y coordinate of all
 679 particles belong to the first group, and those with the y coordinate smaller than the average y
 680 coordinates belong to the second group. The X and Y values in Figure 18 are calculated by the
 681 following equations:

$$682 \quad X = \frac{\sum_i x_i}{n} \quad (49)$$

$$683 \quad Y_1 = \frac{\sum_i^{n_1} \left(y_{1i} - \frac{\sum_j^n y_j}{n} \right)}{n_1} \quad (50)$$

$$684 \quad Y_2 = \frac{\sum_i^{n_2} \left(y_{2i} - \frac{\sum_j^n y_j}{n} \right)}{n_2} \quad (51)$$

685 where n is the total number of particles, x_i and y_i are the x and y coordinates of particle i . y_{1i} is y
 686 coordinates of particle i in group 1 and y_{2i} is that in group 2. n_1 and n_2 are total numbers of
 687 particles in the first and the second group, respectively. Because the y coordinates of particles in
 688 the first group are larger than the average y coordinate of all particles, Y_1 is always greater than 0.
 689 The y coordinates of particles in the second group are less than the average y coordinate of all
 690 particles, and thus Y_2 is always less than 0. From Figure 15 (a), the motion of particles in a larger
 691 space near the entrance during the period 0 - 0.007 s is almost the same in X direction in both
 692 cases. After entering the porous medium, it is obvious that the average velocity of small particles
 693 (Case V) in the X direction is larger than that of the large particles (Case IV). This is caused by the
 694 fact that in Case VI most of the small particles move along the channels in the mainstream zone,
 695 the fluid velocity in this zone is relatively large and the damping forces from pore walls are small.
 696 Therefore, small particles have a larger mainstream migration speed. The particle dispersion in the
 697 Y direction is shown in Figure 18 (b). It can be seen that large particles have higher migration
 698 speed in the longitudinal direction and a better longitudinal distribution. This is mainly because
 699 large particles are more likely to be blocked in the mainstream zone, forcing the fluid to flow
 700 around the marginal region, thus driving the particles to move to these areas.



701
 702

703 Figure 18 Average position of all the particles in the simulation; (a) average position in x direction;
704 (b) average position in y directions.
705

706 **Conclusion**

707 A direct numerical simulation method for fluid particle flow in porous media is presented in this
708 paper. In this method, the Navier-Stokes equation is used to describe the movement of fluid in
709 pores in the Eulerian framework. The discrete element method is used to describe particle-particle
710 contact and particle-wall contact states in the Lagrangian framework. The ERIGID is used to
711 detect the contact between the particles and the pore walls. The fictitious domain method is used
712 to evaluate fluid-particle interactions. The numerical accuracy of the discrete element method is
713 enhanced by the base point-increment method. The time coupling between fluid tracking and
714 discrete element method is realized by a dual adaptive time stepping scheme. Fluid-particle
715 dynamical behaviors in pore space can be easily tracked with our new method. The accuracy and
716 effectiveness of the method are verified by numerical experiments including flow over a cylinder
717 and the settling of a sphere. Finally, the fluid-particle flow process in a porous medium is
718 simulated and our main findings are summarized as follows.

719 (1) Particle clogging – breakthrough causes local pressure changes, which are reflected through
720 changes in pressure difference between the inlet and outlet. The pressure difference time-variation
721 curve exhibits large-scale spikes and small-scale fluctuations.

722 (2) Pressure-difference variations as a result of particle clogging -breakthrough can cause the fluid
723 velocity to fluctuate in local pore space, influencing the motion of particles in the affected domain.
724 Particle motion interference exists when multiple particles are moving in the porous medium.

725 (3) Relative to single-phase fluid flow, the porous medium exerts a higher resistance to a
726 fluid-particle system. The increase in resistance is mainly due to increase in apparent viscosity of
727 the system and the bypass resistance caused by particle clogging.

728 (4) Particle size plays an important role in the migration and dispersion of particles in porous
729 media. Small particles are more likely to migrate along the direction of the mainstream and less
730 dispersive along the direction perpendicular to flow than large particles.

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