Pore-scale imaging of multiphase flow fluctuations in core-scale samples

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Abstract

Representative elementary volumes (REVs) are an important concept in studying subsurface multiphase flow at the continuum scale. However, fluctuations in multiphase flow are currently not represented in continuum scale models, and their impact at the REV-scale is unknown. Previous pore-scale imaging studies on these fluctuations were limited to small samples with mm-scale diameters and volumes on the order of ˜ 0.5 cm3. Here, we image steady-state co-injection experiments on a one-inch diameter core plug sample, with nearly two orders of magnitude larger volume (21 cm3), while maintaining a pore-scale resolution with X-ray micro-computed tomography. This was done for three total flow rates in a series of drainage fractional flow steps. Our observations differ markedly from those reported for mm-scale samples in two ways: the macroscopic fluid distribution was less ramified at low capillary numbers (Ca) of 10-7; and the volume fraction of intermittency initially increased with increasing Ca (similar to mm-scale observations), but then decreased at Ca of 10-7. Our results suggest that viscous forces may play a role in the cm-scale fluid distribution, even at such low Ca, dampening intermittent pathway flow. A REV study of the fluid saturation showed that this may be missed in smaller-scale samples. Pressure drop measurements suggest that the observed pore-scale fluctuations resulted in non-Darcy like upscaled behavior. Overall, we show the importance of large field-of-view high-resolution imaging to bridge the gap between pore- and continuum-scale multiphase flow studies, in particular of pore-scale fluctuations.

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Pore-scale imaging of multiphase flow fluctuations in core-scale samples

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Key Points:

- The observations of fluctuations in multiphase flow on cm-scale sample differ markedly from those reported for mm-scale samples

- Viscous forces may play a role in the cm-scale fluid distribution even at low capillary numbers

- Pore-scale fluctuations can result in non-Darcy like upscaled behavior

14   **Abstract**

15   Representative elementary volumes (REVs) are an important concept in studying subsurface

16   multiphase flow at the continuum scale. However, fluctuations in multiphase flow are

17   currently not represented in continuum scale models, and their impact at the REV-scale is

18   unknown. Previous pore-scale imaging studies on these fluctuations were limited to small

19   samples with mm-scale diameters and volumes on the order of ~ 0.5 cm^3. Here, we image

20   steady-state co-injection experiments on a one-inch diameter core plug sample, with nearly

21   two orders of magnitude larger volume (21 cm^3), while maintaining a pore-scale resolution

22   with X-ray micro-computed tomography. This was done for three total flow rates in a series

23   of drainage fractional flow steps. Our observations differ markedly from those reported for

24   mm-scale samples in two ways: the macroscopic fluid distribution was less ramified at low

25   capillary numbers (Ca) of 10^{-7}; and the volume fraction of intermittency initially increased

26   with increasing Ca (similar to mm-scale observations), but then decreased at Ca of 10^{-7}. Our

27   results suggest that viscous forces may play a role in the cm-scale fluid distribution, even at

28   such low Ca, dampening intermittent pathway flow. A REV study of the fluid saturation

29   showed that this may be missed in smaller-scale samples. Pressure drop measurements

30   suggest that the observed pore-scale fluctuations resulted in non-Darcy like upscaled

31   behavior. Overall, we show the importance of large field-of-view high-resolution imaging to

32   bridge the gap between pore- and continuum-scale multiphase flow studies, in particular of

33   pore-scale fluctuations.

34   **1 Introduction**

35   Understanding multiphase flow in geological porous materials is central to the safe storage

36   of CO$_2$ underground (Jeddizahed & Rostami, 2016; Streit & Hillis, 2004) and successful

37   containment of contaminants in the subsurface (McCarthy, 2018). Complex flow dynamics

38   arise from fluid-fluid and fluid-solid interactions over multiple length and time scales

39   (Bultreys et al., 2016; Krevor et al., 2015; Pentland et al., 2011). The underlying pore-scale

40   physics are considered to be mainly controlled by the competition between capillary forces

41   and viscous forces (Chen et al., 2018; Panda et al., 2019; Spurin et al., 2019b). The ratio of

42 these two forces expressed by means of the capillary number ($Ca = \mu v/\sigma$) is commonly used

43 to differentiate between flow regimes. In the majority of subsurface porous medium

44 applications, the fluid flow is very slow, resulting in capillary numbers $< 10^{-7}$ (Bultreys,

45 2016).

46 At the Darcy scale, multiphase flow in porous media is described using averaged properties

47 such as capillary pressure and relative permeability (Lin et al., 2018; Parker, 1989; Zahasky

48 et al., 2020), ignoring fluctuations at the pore scale. However, recent observations at the

49 pore-scale have shown that complex interface dynamics occur even during so-called

50 'steady-state' flow, where the average fluid saturation of the system remains constant

51 (Reynolds et al., 2017; Zou et al., 2018). For example, fluid phases can rearrange and

52 periodically disconnect and reconnect in a process called intermittent pathway flow, or

53 intermittency (Gao et al., 2019; Reynolds et al., 2017; Spurin et al., 2019a). This influences

54 the energy dissipation in the system and, therefore, impacts the averaged behavior at larger

55 scales (Rücker et al., 2021). Thus the assumption of static interfaces in quasi-static models

56 or continuum frameworks may not be accurate. These phenomena occur even in capillary

57 dominated flow regimes that are commonly assumed to be quasi-static, especially when the

58 viscosity ratio (i.e. ratio of nonwetting phase viscosity to wetting phase viscosity) of the two

59 fluids is very low, as for liquid-gas flows. Previous studies, in small mm-scale samples

60 found intermittent pathway flow was most common, and important to fluid connectivity, at

61 capillary numbers around 10^{-8} - 10^{-6}, with the percentage of intermittently-occupied pores

62 increasing with capillary number, and heterogeneity of the pore space (Spurin et al., 2019a,

63 2019b).

64 However, previous pore-scale observations have been limited to mm-scale samples, as 3D

65 X-ray imaging has a trade-off between sample size and resolution (Cnudde & Boone, 2013).

66 These samples are smaller than the typical representative elementary volume (REV) for

67 multiphase flow, making the upscaling from the pore-scale to the core-scale more difficult

68 (Jackson et al., 2020, Zahasky et al., 2020). It has been hypothesized that intermittency does

69 not average out at the REV-scale based on the analysis of fluctuations in the pressure drop

70   over the sample (Rücker et al., 2021; Spurin et al., 2022), yet pore-scale variations in the

71   fluid distribution have not been observed and characterized directly in REV-scale samples.

72   As such, it is currently unclear how intermittency impacts REV-scale multiphase flow.

73   In this study, we use the "High-Energy μCT scanner optimized for Research" (HECTOR) at

74   Ghent University's Center for X-ray Tomography (Masschaele et al., 2013) to study

75   pore-scale intermittent fluid dynamics at the core-scale in a sample that is 25 mm in

76   diameter, with a voxel size of 9.6 μm. This sample size - corresponding to a 1 inch drill bit -

77   is a standard for many (relative) permeability measurements, and is thus the smallest size at

78   which the REV concept is typically assumed to be valid in practical applications.

79   We conduct a series of steady-state two-phase flow experiments on a Bentheimer sandstone

80   sample. Nitrogen and brine were simultaneously injected into the sample at three different

81   total flow rates, representing capillary numbers from 2.21×10^{-9} to 3.59×10^{-7}. At each total

82   flow rate, the brine fractional flow was decreased while the total flow rate was fixed. The

83   micro-CT images allowed us to identify variations in the pore-scale fluid distribution in a

84   time-averaged sense over the course of the scan time (53 minutes) at each fractional flow

85   step (Gao et al., 2019; Spurin et al., 2021). We first present the observation of fluid

86   distribution based on the micro-CT images in Section 3.1.1, followed by an analysis of the

87   influence of capillary number on intermittent pathway flow (Section 3.1.2). The importance

88   of performing multiphase flow study at core-scale is then illustrated by carrying out the

89   representative elementary volume (REV) analysis in Section 3.2. The investigation of fluid

90   distribution in the 3D pore network is shown in Section 3.3 to further understand the

91   intermittency behavior at the core-scale. Finally, Section 3.4 characterizes the dynamics of

92   the pressure signal, supplementing the imaging data with information at a time resolution at

93   the scale of seconds. Overall, the observations discussed in this paper were markedly

94   different than those previously reported on mm-scale samples. The results provide a link

95   between scales, and will aid future upscaling research.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Core flooding experiment

We perform core flooding experiments on a cylindrical Bentheimer sandstone core of diameter 25 mm and length 42 mm, nearly two orders of magnitude larger volume than previous experiments looking at intermittency (Figure 1). It is a well-sorted German sandstone that contains > 90% quartz (Peksa et al., 2015). For Bentheimer sandstones, the REV for porosity has been observed to be between 1 and 60 mm^3 (Halisch, 2013; Herring et al., 2013). The absolute permeability of the sample measured with deionized water was 1.71 D. The sample was wrapped by a Viton sleeve and placed in an aluminum flow cell (RS Systems, Norway), which has two injection ports and one outflow port. The flow cell and flow lines were firmly attached to the rotation stage of the micro-CT scanner, avoiding effects of the fluid lines tugging or tangling during the imaging. A differential pressure transducer (Keller PD-33X) was used to monitor the differential pressure over the brine inlet and the outlet of the sample.

Steady-state co-injection experiments were conducted with nitrogen as the non-wetting phase and brine (25 wt% potassium iodine) as the wetting phase. The confining pressure and the back pressure were set to 4000 kPa and 2000 kPa respectively, and kept constant during the experiment. The sample was first scanned in its dry state to obtain the geometrical information of the pore structure, this is referred to as the dry scan. Then, brine was injected through the sample at the set back pressure, and a second high-quality scan was made to confirm that all the air was displaced out of the sample, this is referred to as the brine saturated scan. After that, the nitrogen and brine were injected simultaneously through the two injection lines into the sample at a fixed total volumetric flow rate, while the fractional flow f_w (i.e. the volumetric flow rate of brine over the total flow rate) was decreased in a series of drainage fractional flow step. At each step, a scan was taken when the pressure drop across the sample measured by the differential pressure transducer became stable. In this study, 3 observations were made at the total flow rate of 4 ml/min (for $f_w = 0.9$, 0.7, 0.5); 5 observations at the total flow rate of 1 ml/min (for $f_w = 0.9$, 0.7, 0.5, 0.25, 0);

124   and 5 observations at the total flow rate of 0.2 ml/min (for f_w = 0.9, 0.7, 0.5, 0.25, 0). For

125   convenience, we will refer to the three total flow rate experiments 4 ml/min, 1 ml/min and

126   0.2 ml/min as experiments H, M and L (high, middle and low flow rate) and note the f_w in

127   subscript to describe the fractional flow at each experiment in the following sections. For

128   example, experiment $L_{0.5}$ represents the two-phase flow experiment at f_w = 0.5 for the Q =

129   0.2 ml/min experiment.

130   The capillary number (Ca) describes the relative importance of capillary forces to viscous

131   forces, and is commonly used to categorize flow regimes. Here, we used the following

132   expression (Spurin et al., 2019b) to quantify the Ca at different fractional flows:

133
$$Ca = \frac{Q_t}{\sigma\left(\frac{f_w}{\mu_w}+\frac{1-f_w}{\mu_{nw}}\right)} \tag{1}$$

134   where Q_t is the total flow rate, σ is the interfacial tension, μ is the fluid viscosity for the

135   wetting (w) or non-wetting (nw) phase.

136   The X-ray imaging was performed with the "High Energy micro-CT Optimized for

137   Research" scanner (HECTOR) at the center for X-ray tomography at Ghent University

138   (UGCT). The X-ray energy and the power were 150 kV and 10 W respectively. 3201

139   projections with 1 s integration time per radiograph were acquired to obtain each image.

140   The voxel size was 9.6 µm for all images, which was the highest resolution the setup could

141   reach to image the full width of the sample. The Octopus software (Tescan-XRE, Belgium)

142   was used to perform the image reconstruction.

Previous sample size used in (Gao et al.,2017)

30 mm

5 mm

Now

42 mm

25 mm
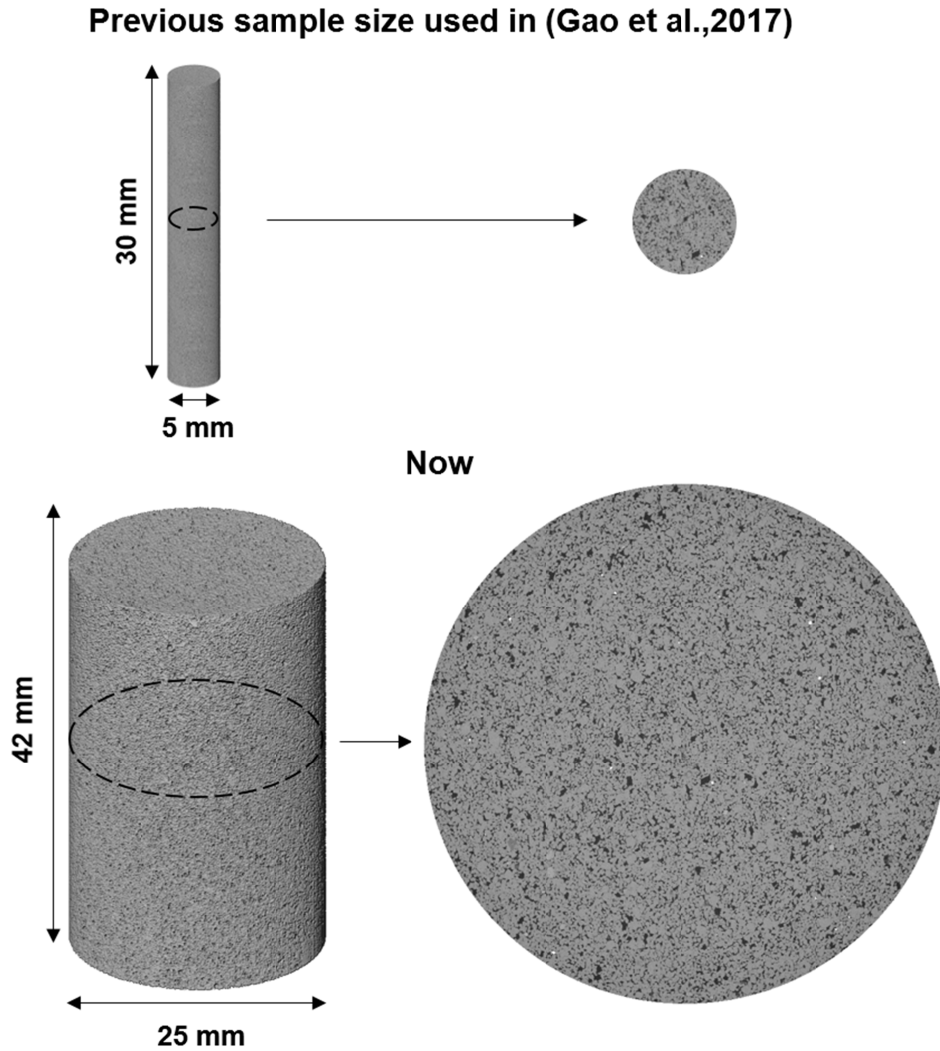
Figure 1. The comparison of sample sizes used in previous experiments (top) and in this study (bottom).

2.2 Image processing

The reconstructed images were registered using normalized mutual information and denoised with a non-local means edge-preserving filter (Buades et al., 2008). To quantify the porosity contributed by macropores (pores clearly resolved at the resolution of the scans) and sub-resolution pores (pores below image resolution), the differential imaging method was used (Gao et al., 2017). The dry scan was first subtracted from the brine saturated scan. Then, the macropores segmented from the filtered dry scan using histogram thresholding were masked out on the differential image and the rest of the fluid-filled phases on

153 differential image were identified as sub-resolution pores. If we consider the macropore
154 voxels to be 100% porous, while solid grain is 0% porous, the porosity of voxels with
155 sub-resolution pores can be calculated as $\varphi_{sub} = (I_{diff} - CT1)/(CT2 - CT1)$, where I_{diff} is the
156 grey value difference of two images, $CT1$ is the threshold value for solid phase, $CT2$ is the
157 threshold value for macropores. The detailed procedure can be found in our previous study
158 (Wang et al., 2022). Figure 2(c) shows the porosity distribution map. The total porosity of
159 the sample measured from the differential imaging was 19.58%, with 90% of the total
160 porosity assigned as macropores, the remainder were micropores that could not be resolved
161 with the voxel size of 9.6 µm. This agrees with previously-published results on Bentheimer
162 sandstone (Bultreys et al., 2015). As the sub-resolution microporosity occupies a small
163 percentage of the pore space, and is susceptible to partial volume effects, we focus solely on
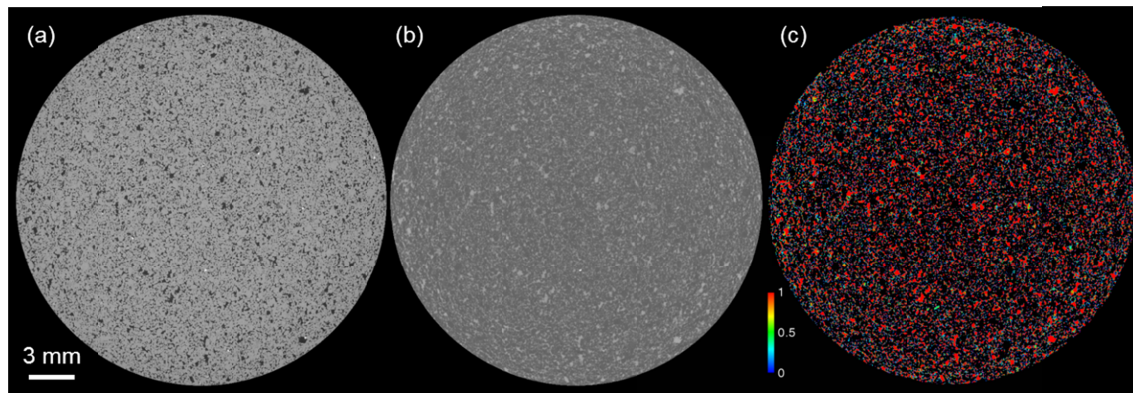164 the fluid distribution in macropores.

165

166 Figure 2. A 2D slice of (a) dry image, (b) brine saturated image and (c) the corresponding porosity
167 distribution map.

168 As it took approximately 55 minutes to acquire and transfer radiographs for each scan, the
169 fluid distribution in the images reflected time-averaged information. If there was no
170 movement in the sample during the scanning, the pores would be occupied by either
171 nitrogen or brine, presenting as respectively dark or bright gray values in micro-CT images.
172 In case the presence of nitrogen and brine varied periodically in a certain location, this
173 would result in an intermediate gray value, which can be linked to fluid phase intermittency
174 (Spurin et al., 2019a). Similar to the workflow above, the segmentation of nitrogen, brine

175 and intermittent phases on multiphase scans was also based on the differential imaging

176 method, i.e. the difference image between the brine saturated and the fractional flow scans

177 was used to find the location including both nitrogen and intermittent phases in macropore

178 masked region, then, the nitrogen segmented from the fractional flow scan was subtracted

179 from this image, and the remaining voxels were identified as having intermittent fluid

180 occupancy. To remove partial volume effects that might occur at the fluid-fluid interface, a

181 morphological opening operation (a one-voxel erosion followed by a one-voxel dilation)

182 was performed on the segmented intermittent voxels.

183 3 Results and discussion

184 We present the observation of fluid distributions and intermittent pathway flow in the

185 micro-CT images (Section 3.1). The results show that the volume of pore space

186 intermittently occupied by both fluid phases first increases with increasing Ca, and then

187 decreases as Ca increases further. This differs from a continuously positive correlation

188 between Ca number and amount of intermittency observed in mm-scale samples (Spurin et

189 al., 2019b) up to much larger Ca. To understand why, we first show the importance of

190 performing multiphase flow studies on core-scale samples by calculating the deterministic

191 REV (dREV) for the nitrogen saturation in Section 3.2. Then the fluid distribution in the 3D

192 pore network is further analyzed to explain the manifestation of intermittent flow pathways

193 at a REV-scale (Section 3.3). We also investigate the pressure fluctuations and discuss the

194 possible relationship between the pressure signal response and the intermittent flow

195 (Section 3.4).
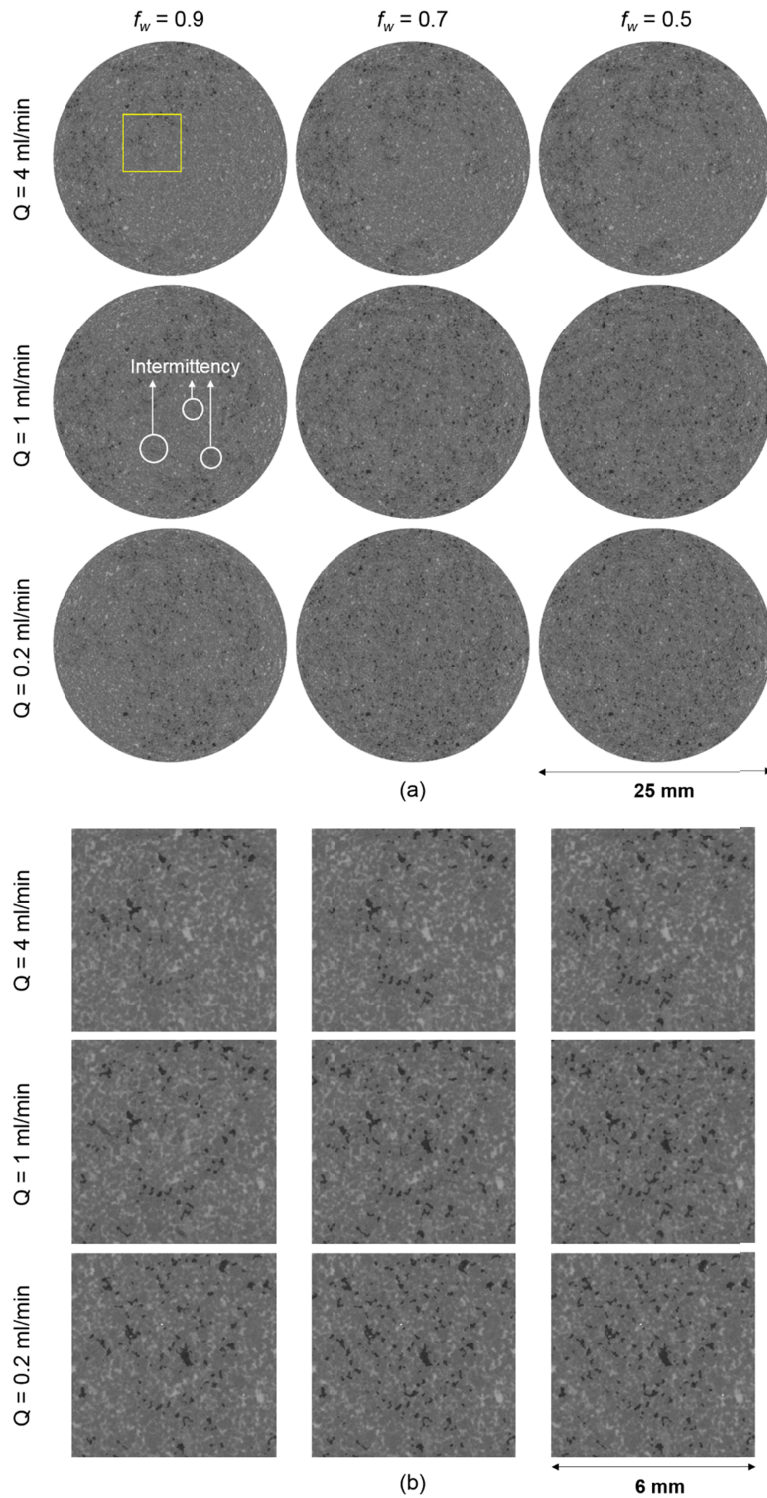
196 3.1 Observation of the two-phase flow

197 3.1.1 Fluid distribution in micro-CT images

198 In our fractional flow experiments, the Ca ranges from 2.21×10^{-9} to 3.59×10^{-7}, indicating

199 the system is in the capillary-dominated regime (the threshold of this flow regime is

200 capillary number below $Ca < 10^{-6}$ (Niu et al., 2015)). Our results confirm previous

201 pore-scale studies, which showed the occurrence of intermittency even at capillary numbers

202   below this threshold.

203   Figure 3 shows the processed greyscale images for the different fractional flows, with the
204   segmented images shown in Figure 4. For the highest total flow rate experiment
205   (experiment H), the nitrogen mainly invaded the left half of the sample in the beginning,
206   and new flow paths in the right part of the sample were gradually built with decreasing
207   fractional flows, shown in the top panel of Figures 3(a) and 4(a). The fluid distribution for
208   experiments M and L was more ramified, as expected for the case of capillary fingering. In
209   co-injection experiments performed on smaller sandstones or carbonate rock samples (5-6
210   mm in diameter) by Gao et al. (2020), Lin et al. (2018), Spurin et al. (2021) and Zhang et al.
211   (2021), fluid distributions similar to those in our high flow rate experiment were not
212   reported. One possible reason is that our sample is much larger, the viscous forces at Q = 4
213   ml/min on the cm-scale start playing a role in the fluid distribution on this scale. If we zoom
214   in on a small part (Figures 3(b) and 4(b)), the distribution may still look like a capillary
215   finger, but globally these fingers are not distributed homogeneously throughout the
216   cross-section of the whole sample, due to viscous forces (Figure 5(a)). Since the total flow
217   rates were lower in the experiments M and L, the capillary effect was stronger. The
218   nonwetting phase therefore generates a ramified fluid distribution like that depicted in
219   Figure 5(b), dominated by the capillary pressure needed to invade individual pore throats
220   (Blunt et al., 1992).

221   Another observation is the amount of intermittently occupied pore space. As shown in
222   Figure 3, the periodic invasion of nitrogen and brine in specific pores presented
223   intermediate grayscale values in the micro-CT images. Note that the sub-resolution pores
224   also result in voxels with averaged grey values, due to partial volume effects, but these
225   voxels were masked out by the macropore segmentation (as described in Section 2.2). Our
226   image processing workflow thus avoids the erroneous detection of voxels with partial
227   volume effects as containing intermittency. Figure 4. shows the segmentation results of
228   nitrogen, brine and intermittency at different fractional flows.

$f_w = 0.9$ $f_w = 0.7$ $f_w = 0.5$

Q = 4 ml/min   Q = 1 ml/min   Q = 0.2 ml/min

Intermittency

(a)

25 mm

Q = 4 ml/min   Q = 1 ml/min   Q = 0.2 ml/min

(b)

6 mm

229

Figure 3. Greyscale two-dimensional slices of three-dimensional X-ray images at different fractional flows for (a) the whole sample and (b) a zoom in region of the sample for better visibility. The yellow box in the upper left image shows the location of the zoom in region for all images in (a).

(a)

25 mm

(b)

6 mm

233
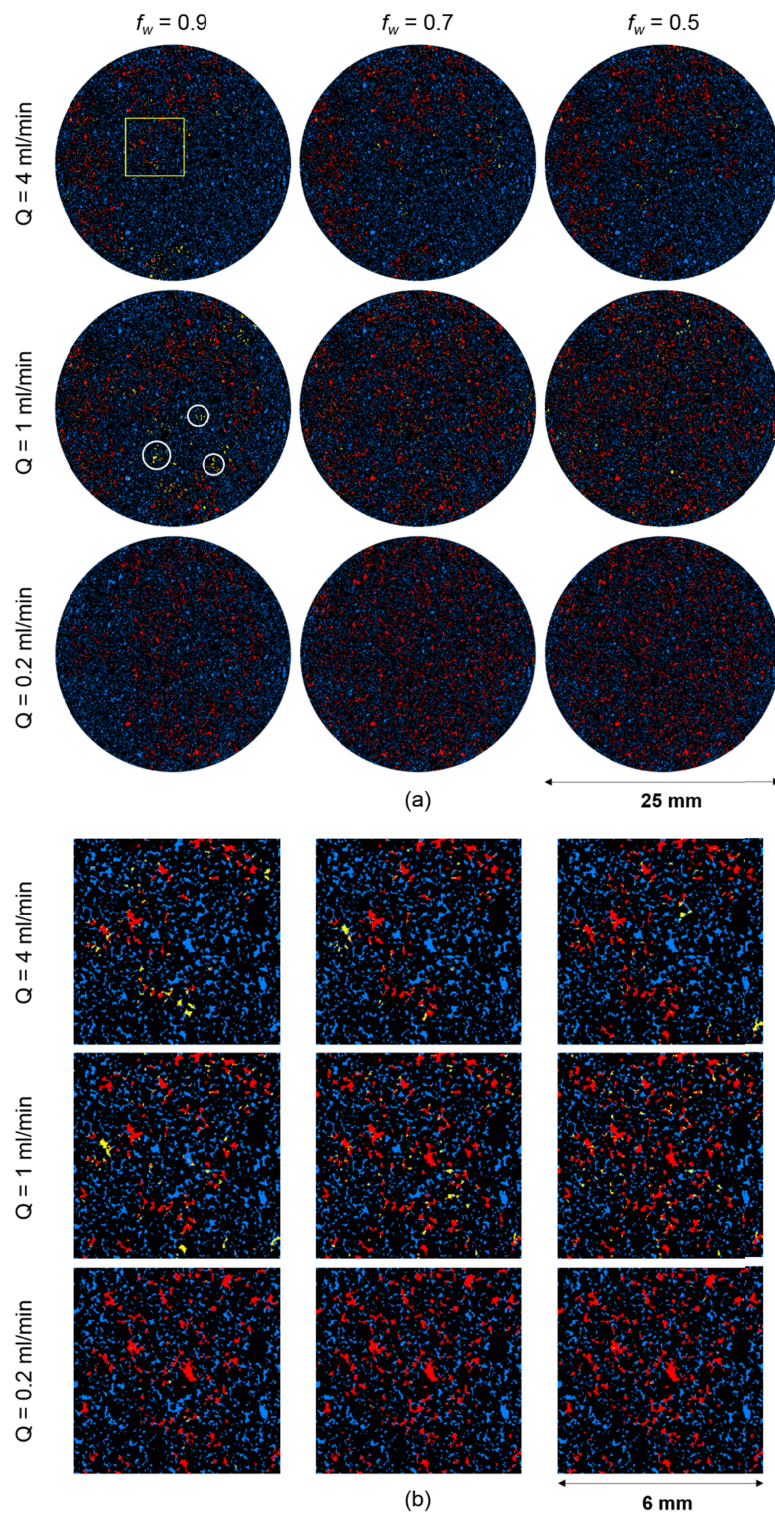
Figure 4. Segmented images on the same slice as the greyscale images at different fractional flows for (a)
the whole sample and (b) a zoom in region of the sample for better visibility. The yellow box in the upper
left image shows the location of the zoom in region for all images in (a). The blue, yellow, red and black

237   represent brine, intermittent phase, nitrogen and solid grain, respectively.

(a)   (b)
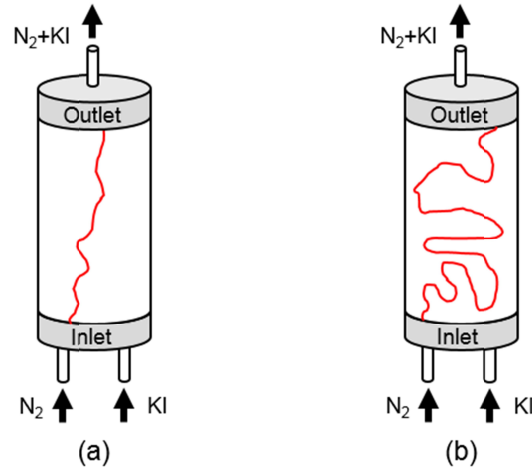
238

239   Figure 5. Schematic diagram of typical nitrogen pathways observed in our experiments at (a) high and (b)

240   low flow rate conditions.

3.1.2 Impact of Ca on intermittency

242   According to the fractional flow experiments performed by Spurin et al. (2021) and Gao et

243   al. (2020) on rock samples with diameters around 5 mm, the percentage of intermittency has

244   a positive correlation with the Ca when the latter is of the order 10^{-7} to 10^{-5}, reaching a

245   plateau from 10^{-5} to 10^{-4}. However, despite the similarity of the rock type used, our data did

246   not follow the same trend, due to the variability of the macroscopic saturation distribution in

247   these larger samples.

248   As shown in Figure 6(a), little intermittency was observed when the Ca was lower than 10^{-9}.

249   For the experiments M and L, the capillary forces stabilized the fluid distribution. When the

250   Ca increased, the volume fraction of pores being intermittently-occupied at the total flow

251   rate of 1 ml/min was higher than the highest flow rate (4 ml/min) experiment. A possible

252   explanation for the different relationship from mm-scale sample observations is that the

253   brine saturation was relatively high in experiment H (Figure 6(b)), especially in case of f_w =

254   0.9 which showed highly channeled flow of nitrogen on the left half side of the sample

255   (Figure 7). Intermittent pathway flow could, therefore, only form in limited regions, where

256   both nitrogen and brine were present. With decreasing f_w, more nitrogen entered the pore

257   space and developed stable pathways, leading the volume of intermittent phase to reduce at

258   f_w = 0.7 and 0.5. In experiment M the brine saturation was lower, and nitrogen was

259   distributed in a more ramified pattern. This causes more opportunity for competition

260   between nitrogen and brine, resulting in more intermittency compared with its highest total

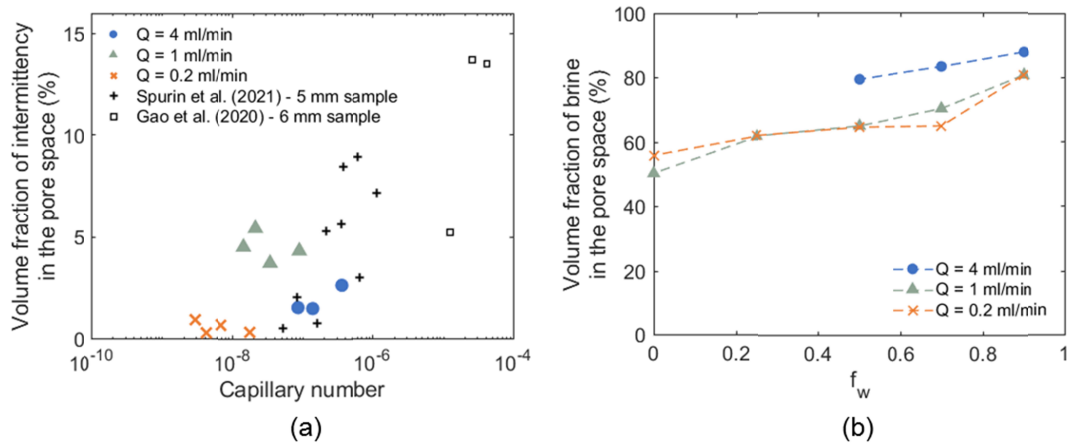261   flow rate counterpart (Spurin et al., 2021).

262

263   Figure 6. (a) The volume fraction of pores occupied by intermittent phase versus capillary number

264   measured from our 25 mm diameter sample. The results are compared to data obtained on mm-scale

265   experiments (i.e. sample diameter of 5 mm and 6 mm) by Spurin et al. (2021) and Gao et al. (2020). (b)

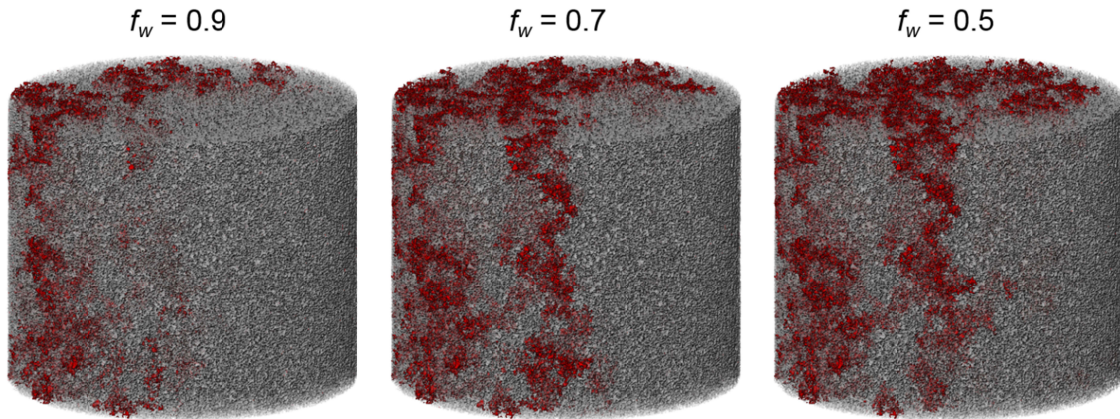266   The volume fraction of pores occupied by brine at different fractional flows.

267

268   Figure 7. Nitrogen (red) distribution in the 3D pore space (grey) in experiment H. Brine is transparent.

269   **3.2 Representative elementary volume**

270   Linking pore-scale flow behavior to macro-scale or continuum-scale characteristics of

271   porous materials relies on the determination of REV (Singh et al., 2020). A REV is defined

272   as the minimum volume for which the average of a microscopic property first become

273   independent of the averaging volume (Bear, 1972). The size of the REV is not universal and

274   can be different for different properties (e.g. porosity, permeability, saturation, capillary

275   pressure, etc.) of a rock under consideration. In this study, the REV analysis was performed

276   by increasing a cubic domain size from the center of the sample (also called deterministic

277   REV, dREV), calculating the average porosity and nitrogen saturation of the cube calculated

278   at each incremental step. The porosity shows an increasing trend with the cubic volume

279   increasing, and reaches a plateau at around 2 mm linear length (Figure 8(a)). This compares

280   well with the porosity REV size for Bentheimer of >1.75 mm suggested by Halisch (2013)

281   and $\approx$ 1.25 mm by Jackson et al. (2020). However, the REVs for saturation depend on the

282   flow regime. As seen in Figures 8(b)-8(d), for $Ca < 10^{-7}$ (experiments $H_{0.5}$, M and L), the

283   nitrogen saturation (S_{nw}) continues to slowly decrease even at the largest scale shown,

284   implying that the values of REV exceed the maximum domain size (18 mm) investigated

285   here. This is because the flow paths have a high degree of channeling: if the volume size is

286   increased past the typical cross-sectional size of these channels (past ~ 5-7 mm), the global

287   saturation decreases. The effect may thus go unnoticed in experiments on 5 mm diameter

288   samples. Based on the convergence trend, it appears that for the same fractional flow, a

289   smaller Ca results in a larger REV. In the flow regime for $Ca > 10^{-7}$, the S_{nw} shows less

290   variance for subvolumes larger than 10 mm linear dimension in experiment $H_{0.7}$, indicating

291   that the REV in this regime is approximately 10 mm. This is similar to the observation by

292   Jackson et al. (2020), in which the REV for saturation was larger than the maximum image

293   size (8 mm).

294   The above analysis indicates that most of the current studies of pore-scale dynamics

295 (Alhammadi et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2021; Mascini et al., 2021) on samples
296 with only 5-6 mm diameter are far below the REV requirement for multiphase flow studies.
297 That is why in this study, we use the full image (25 mm diameter) to analyze the fluid
298 performance rather than a cropped region, as this sample size is a standard for many
299 (relative) permeability measurements in the laboratory, and is thus the smallest size at which
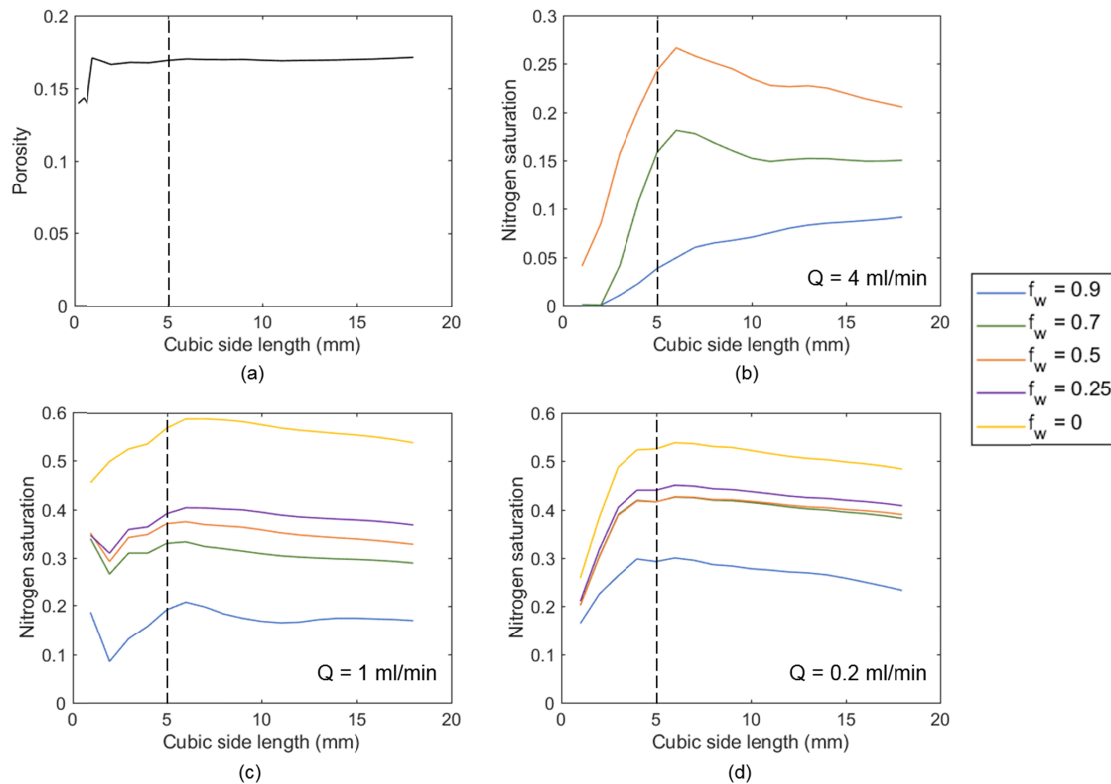300 the REV concept is typically assumed to be valid in real applications.

301

302 Figure 8. Deterministic REV analysis for (a) porosity and (b)-(d) nitrogen saturation variation in
303 experiments H, M and L. The dotted lines on 5 mm cubic side length show the typical sample size used
304 in previous imaging studies on multiphase flow dynamics in rock samples. This REV study shows that
305 the latter is likely too small to probe the full physical picture.

3.3 Fluid occupancy in the pore network

307 Intermittent pathway flow provides connections where the non-wetting phase is poorly
308 connected, and could even provide a flow path for otherwise trapped non-wetting phase.
309 This means that it can change the fluid distribution pattern and impact the relative

310   permeability of fluids. To quantify fluid occupancy in the pore space, a pore network

311   extraction (PNE) algorithm (Raeini et al., 2017) was used to extract and simplify the

312   complex pore morphology into spherical pores (i.e. local dilations in the geometry)

313   connected by throats (i.e. local constrictions in the geometry). The inscribed spheres for the

314   pores were overlaid on the segmented multiphase images to determine which phase (i.e.

315   brine, nitrogen or intermittent fluid) occupied the majority of its voxels. This way, the

316   relationship between pore size and fluid occupancy at each fractional flow step was

317   characterized. As shown in Figure 10, almost all smaller-size pores (< 20 μm) were filled

318   with brine and remained uninvaded. The intermittent phase mainly occupied the

319   intermediate-sized pores (20-40 μm), where the wetting and nonwetting fluids showed more

320   competition. For experiment H (Figure 9(a)), the percentage of nitrogen in pores with 25-45

321   μm radius showed a notably increase with the decrease of f_w, while that in large pores (>50

322   μm) was lower than the percentage of brine in all fractional flows. This is contrary to the

323   expectation of capillary-dominated drainage, where the large pores tend to be invaded by

324   the nonwetting fluid first, followed by the invasion of smaller-sized pores due to their

325   correlation with small throats and high entry pressures. This suggests that the fluid invasion

326   behavior is significantly affected by viscous forces, having the effect of causing less

327   intermittency. For experiments M and L (Figures 9(b) and 9(c)), the nitrogen was mainly

328   distributed in pores with 35-45 μm radius. The fraction of nitrogen in large pores (>50 μm)

329   became higher than brine when the f_w was lower than 0.7, indicating that the capillary effect

330   was stronger. This supports our hypothesis that viscous forces are playing an important role

331   in fluid distribution.

332   Table 1 presents the average coordination numbers (CN) for the pores that remained brine

333   filled, the pores that contained intermittency and the pores that remained nitrogen filled. The

334   coordination measures the number of surrounding pores that are connected via throats to the

335   pore in question. As expected, pores with higher CN are more likely to provide more flow

336   pathways for the invading nitrogen, and are therefore prone to be occupied by nitrogen.

337   Most of the intermittent pores had CN around 4-6 (Figure 10(a)), implying that the

338   intermittency was favorable in pores with less neighbors. As the brine saturation for

339   experiments $H_{0.5}$, $M_{0.9}$ and $L_{0.9}$ was similar, we compared the CN of intermittent pores and

340   their neighboring pores occupied by different fluids in these three cases (Figure 10(b)). This

341   indicates that the intermittent pores with a large number of CN were likely to be surrounded

342   by brine-filled pores. A possible reason is that if a pore has many neighboring pores and

343   most of them are all filled with nitrogen, they may create a connected flow path directly to

344   perform the displacement. In contrast, if the surrounding pores are brine-filled, they will

345   have more possibilities to reenter the nitrogen-filled pores in a cooperative filling manner,

346   and the intermittent fluid-fluid interface provides the only path for nonwetting fluid to keep

347   the connectivity, which lead to periodic occupancy of both fluids (Spurin et al., 2019a). In

348   addition, Figure 10(b) shows that for the intermittent pores with the same CN, the

349   percentage of nitrogen-occupied neighboring pores in the experiment $M_{0.9}$ case was lower

350   than the other two counterparts, this means that the gas was better connected for the highest

351   and lowest total flow rate cases and there would be fewer potential locations for the water to

352   snap the gas off, which may explain why we observed more intermittency in experiment M.
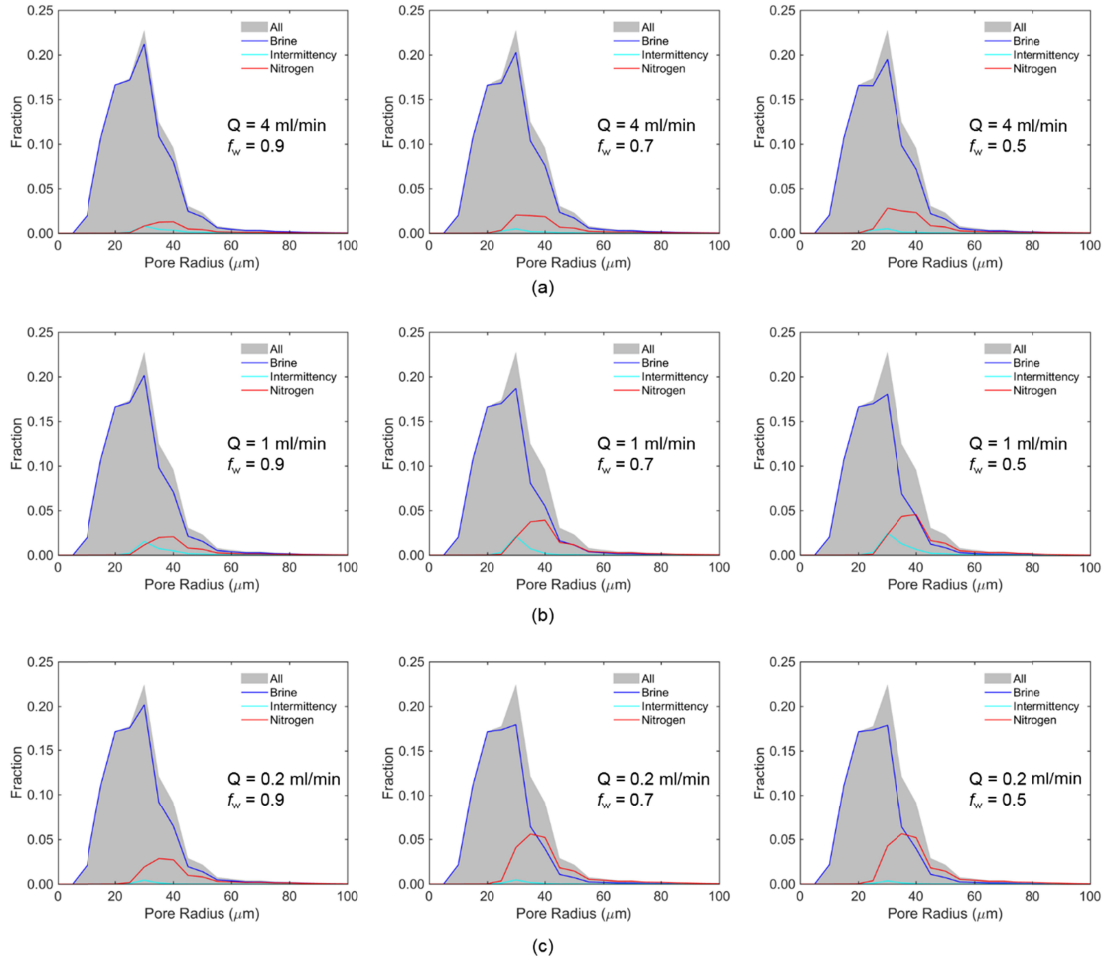
353

Figure 9. The pore size distribution of different fluid-filling pores in (a) experiment H, (b) experiment M
and (c) experiment L. The pore size distribution for all macropores is shown in grey areas, which is
obtained from the PNE.

Table 1 Average CN for the brine-filled, intermittency-filled and nitrogen-filled pores during the
co-injection process at three total flow rate experiments.

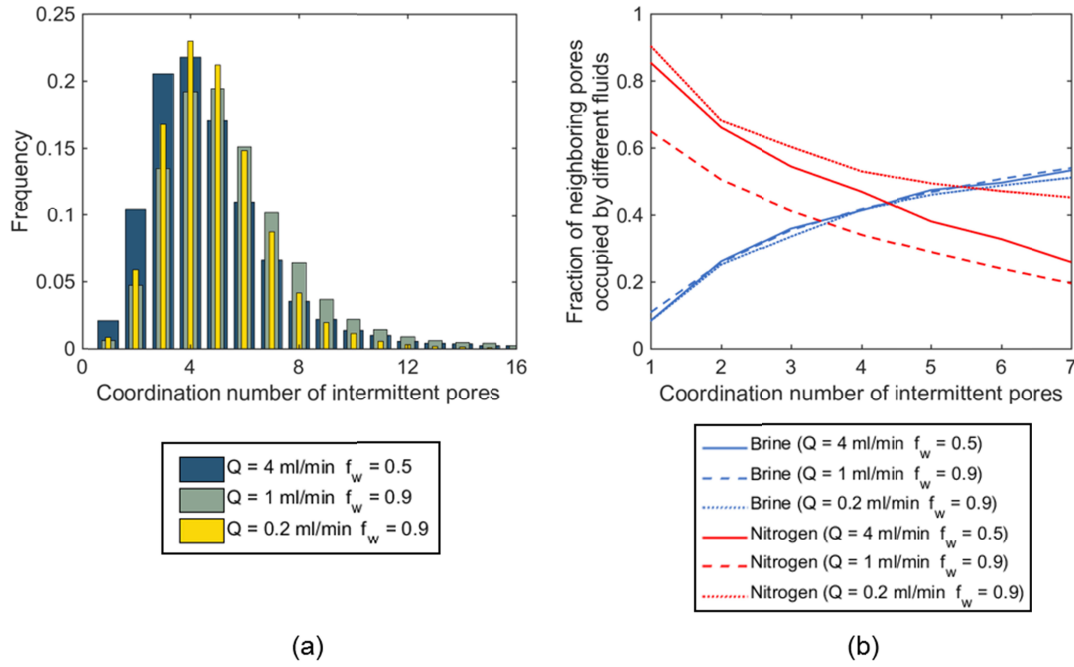| Total flow rate (ml/min)	Brine-filled	Intermittency-filled	Nitrogen-filled
4	3.9	5.6	7.0
1	3.5	5.6	7.3
0.2	3.5	6.0	7.1

Figure 10. (a) Coordination number distribution of intermittently-occupied pores. (b) The fraction of brine-filled and nitrogen-filled pores surrounding the intermittent pores for different fractional flows. The experiments $H_{0.5}$, $M_{0.9}$ and $L_{0.9}$ are selected because of the similar brine saturation in these three cases.

3.4 Pressure fluctuations in fractional flow experiments

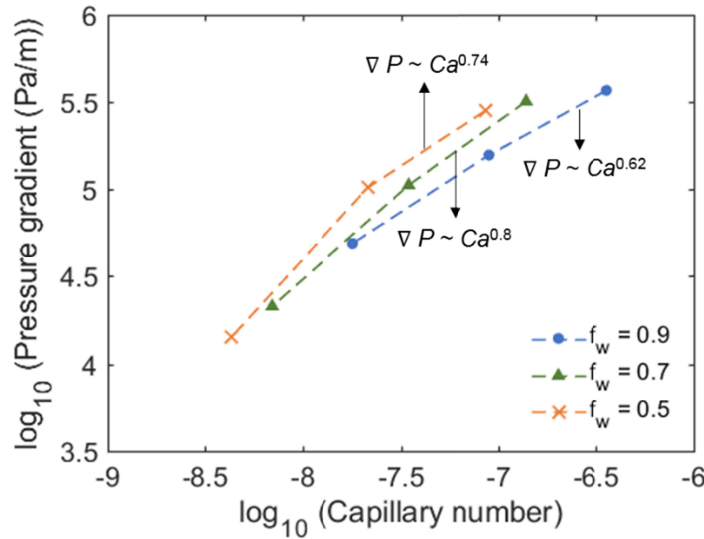**3.4.1 Differential pressure measurements and Darcy's law**

Fractional flow experiments typically aim to achieve a "steady-state" at each fractional flow step, which means both the saturation and pressure drop become time-independent. However, clear pressure fluctuations can be found in many fractional flow experiments (Lin et al., 2018; Menke et al., 2022; Spurin et al., 2022; Zou et al., 2018), and also in the experiments presented here. These fluctuations have been shown to be caused by multiphase fluid dynamics, rather than just representing experimental noise (Rucker et al. 2021, Spurin et al. 2022). In this study, the pressure drop over the sample during the co-injection process was measured by a differential pressure transducer, through which we determined whether the system reached the steady state condition (i.e. a stable pressure difference) before each scan was taken. Figure 11 shows the pressure signal during the final 53 minutes of the scan

375   for each fractional flow.

376   We first investigate how the measured time-averaged pressure measurements relate to the

377   imposed Ca, investigating the meaning of our observations for large-scale modeling of

378   multiphase flow. According to Darcy's law, the Ca is proportional to ∇P (i.e. $\nabla P \sim Ca$) in

379   the capillary-dominated regime. This linear relation is known to break down when viscous

380   forces become comparable to capillary forces at a threshold value around $Ca \sim 10^{-3}$ (Blunt,

381   2017). Recent research has however shown that complex dynamics (e.g. intermittency) that

382   already occur at low Ca induce a transition regime for which a power-law relation has been

383   proposed: $\nabla P \sim Ca^{a}$ (Zhang et al., 2021). This represents a reduction in the resistance to

384   flow compared to Darcy's law, as the fluid distributions (intermittently) change in a way

385   that reduces viscous dissipation. The exponent a has been found to be in a range of 0.3 to

386   0.6, both from theoretical arguments as experimental measurements on small samples and

387   simplified systems (e.g. micromodels and bead packs) (Rassi et al., 2014; Sinha et al., 2017;

388   Tallakstad et al., 2009). Figure 12 shows the measured pressure gradients ∇P as a function

389   of Ca for our experiments. While there are only three datapoints for each fractional flow, the

390   curves do appear to show a non-Darcy dependence (a < 1), illustrating the relevance of the

391   observed fluctuations towards large-scale simulations. A rough estimate of the exponent a

392   from the limited datapoints available is in the range of 0.62 - 0.8, which is higher than

393   values between 0.42 and 0.6 reported for 6 mm diameter Bentheimer samples (Gao et al.,

394   2020; Zhang et al., 2021). The threshold capillary number (Ca^{i}) for the onset of

395   intermittency derived from Figure 12 is $\sim 10^{-8}$ for $f_{w} > 0.5$, compared to $\sim 10^{-5}$ in (Gao et al.,

396   2020; Zhang et al., 2021), indicating that the Ca^{i} for REV-scale sample might be much

397   lower than that defined at the mm-scale. This provides evidence for theoretical analyses on

398   how the effective rheology during multiphase flow scales with length (Roy et al., 2019).

399   Further research with more data points is needed to investigate the results presented here.

400   Next, we investigate the fluctuations in the pressure signal. The amplitude of these

401   fluctuations was lower in experiment H than in the other experiments, and fluctuations in

402   experiments M and L showed notable periodicity. To differentiate the pressure fluctuations

403   from noise, the fluctuation histogram is plotted (Figure 13). If the instrumental noise was

404   the main cause of the large fluctuations, this histogram would generally be expected to

405   approximate a Gaussian shape (Rücker et al., 2021). However, in all fractional flows of our

406   experiment, we found non-Gaussian, non-symmetric distributions, implying that the

407   pressure behavior may be a consequence of pore scale displacement events. This leads to

408   the hypothesis that the more pronounced fluctuations in experiment M resulted from the

409   occurrence of more displacement events, confirming the results presented in Figure 6(a): the

410   highest percentage of intermittency was observed under this condition in the imaging.

411   Furthermore, the pressure profile at $f_w = 0$ was smooth (see the supporting information)

412   since there was no fluid rearrangement in this case, providing further proof that pore-scale

413   fluid rearrangement corresponded to the observed pressure fluctuations. For the lowest total

414   flow rate (experiment L), the pressures were very low (close to 0 kPa) and were less

415   periodic. Comparison to the profile at $f_w = 0$ implies that the fluid distributions in S were

416   more stable than in the other two cases.

417

418   Figure 12. The measured pressure gradients ∇P as a function of Ca at different fractional flows.

419
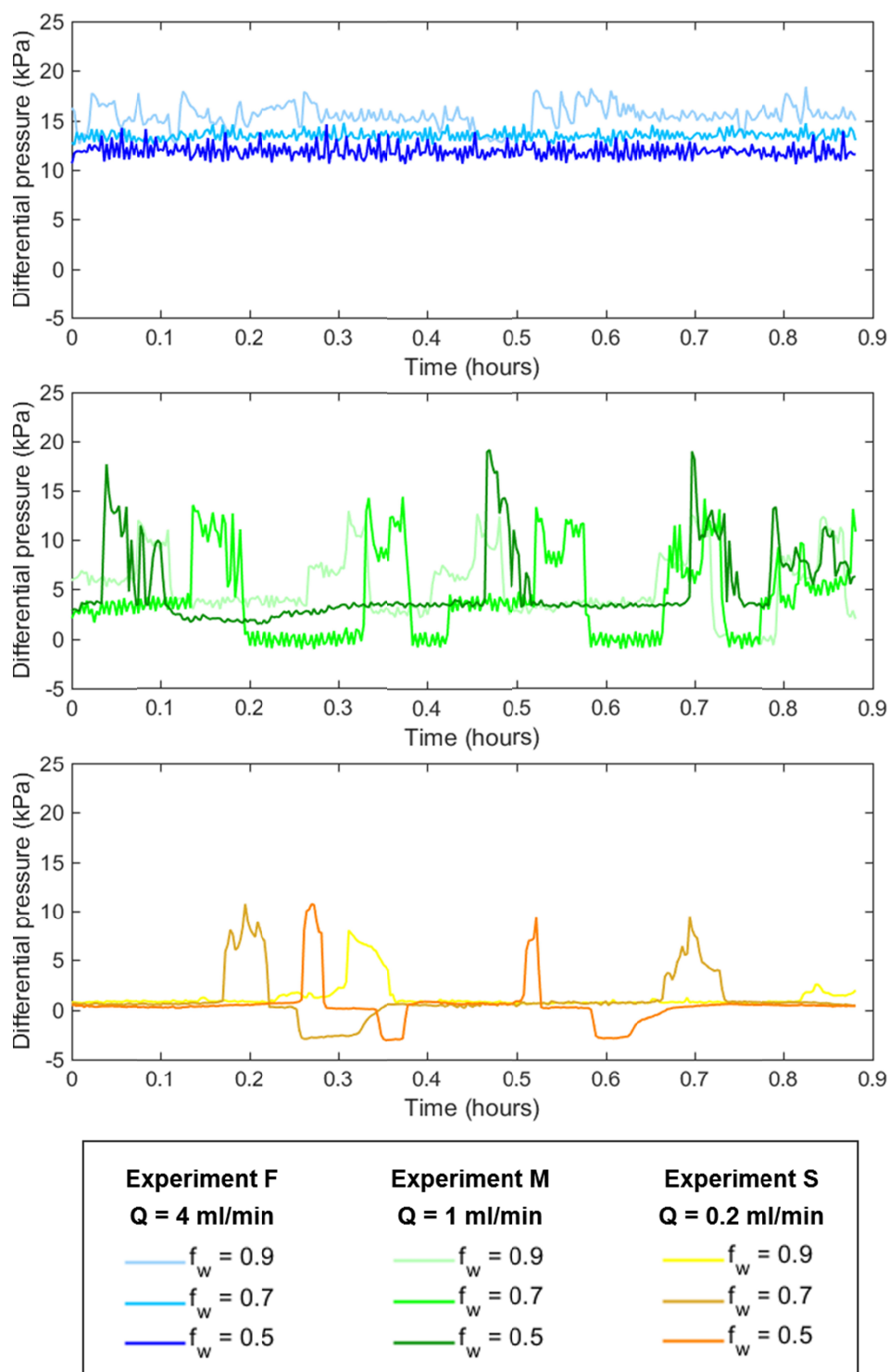
Figure 11. The differential pressure across the sample measured at steady state during the scan for
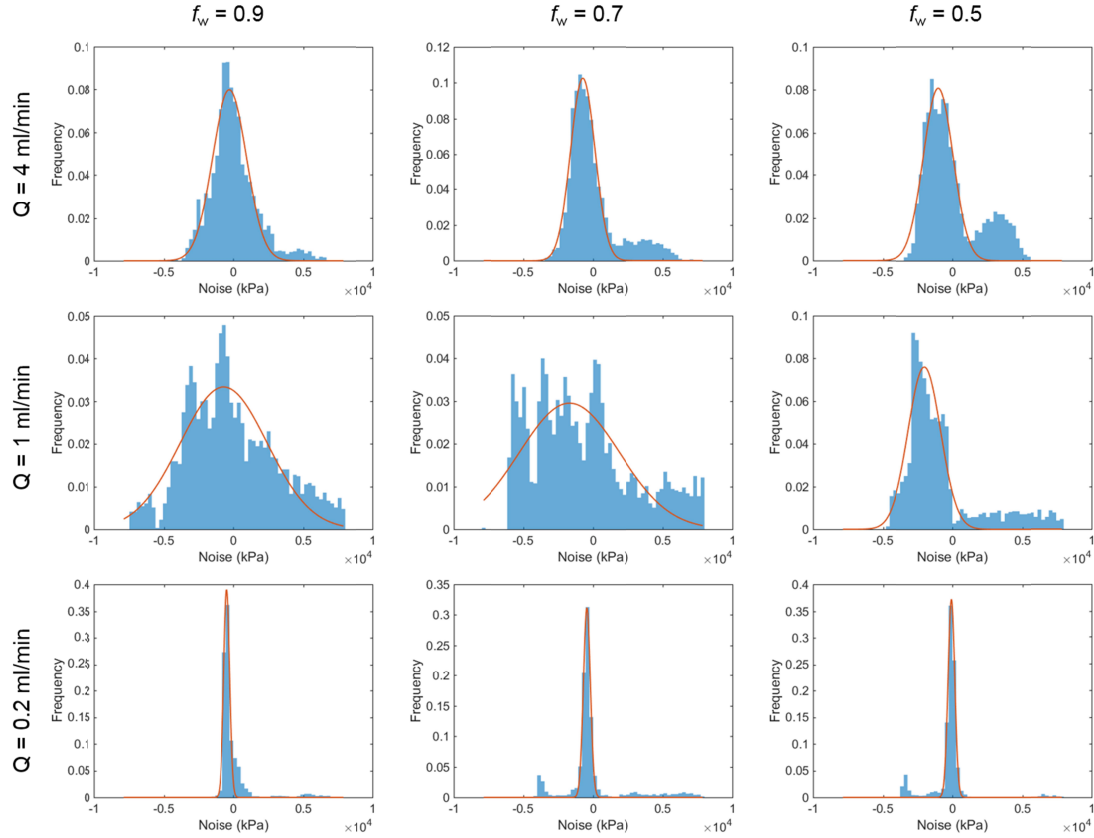different fractional flows.

422

Figure 13. Fluctuation histogram of the pressure signal. A Gaussian fit (orange solid curve) is plotted for comparison with the distribution.

3.4.2 Spectral analysis of pressure data

Here, we analyze the frequency behavior of the pressure fluctuations, thereby supplementing the micro-CT data with higher temporal resolution information. Spurin et al. (2022) observed that fluctuations in differential pressure measurements in a mm-scale carbonate rock sample had the spectral properties of red noise, or $1/f^2$ scaling, by decomposing the pressure data into the frequency domain using a Fourier transformation. This indicates that pressure fluctuations are a stochastic process characterized by self-organized criticality, with no characteristic time or length scale. The scaling relates the power spectral density (S) to the frequency (f):

$$S(f) \sim \frac{1}{f^2} \qquad (2)$$

435   Spurin et al. (2022) asserted that the longest time-scales in this spectrum correspond to

436   repetitive filling of the largest intermittent pores. They showed that the gas connectivity

437   changed for intermittency with a time scale of 8-10 minutes as gas ganglia repeatedly

438   connected and disconnected, while the intermittent gas occupancy with shorter time scales

439   (i.e. 30 s to 2 minutes) were associated with fluctuations without connectivity change, but

440   which may still affect the energy dissipation.

441   We investigated the spectral properties for our experiments by performing a Fourier

442   transformation on pressure data from the H and M experiments, with the results shown in

443   Figure 14. Experiment L was discounted from this analysis as the pressure drop was small,

444   and close to the resolution of the pressure transducer. As can been seen in Figure 14, the $1/f^2$

445   scaling (red noise) fitted well for all fractional flow cases in experiment M, where the

446   percentage of intermittently-occupied pores was higher than 3.5%. However, in experiment

447   H, it matched only the $f_w = 0.9$ case, which had an intermittency volume of 2.6%. For $f_w =$

448   0.7 and 0.5, with intermittency volumes around 1.5%, the power associated to the longer

449   timescales was significantly below red noise scaling, and thus differed from mm-scale

450   observations by Spurin et al. (2022). Since lower frequencies relate to larger sized fluid

451   redistribution events, this may be further evidence for the need to study multiphase

452   dynamics at the core-scale rather than in smaller samples.

453   For experiment M, the highest amplitudes were at frequencies that correspond to timescales

454   of 10-20 mins. This is the same for $H_{0.9,}$ but for $H_{0.7}$ and $H_{0.5}$ the peak is for timescale of

455   around 20 s. Therefore, we would expect that the intermittently-occupied pores had a large

456   contribution to the non-wetting fluid connectivity in experiment $H_{0.9}$. With the decrease of

457   brine fractional flow, the intermittency may still have played an important role in energy

458   dissipation in experiments $H_{0.7}$ and $H_{0.5}$ – leading to the non-Darcy like behaviour in Figure
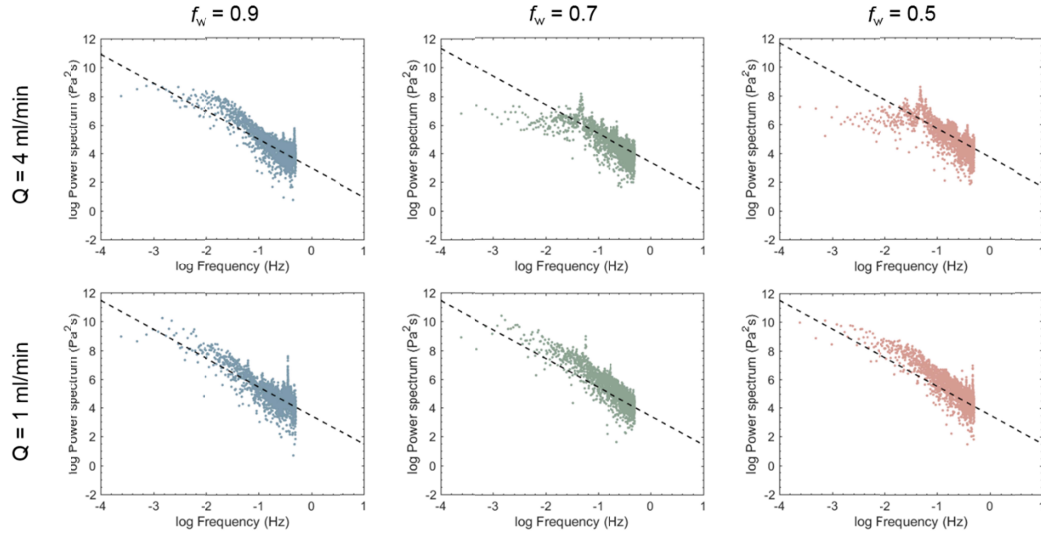
459   12.

Figure 14. Power spectral density for different fractional flows for Q = 4 ml/min and Q = 1 ml/min. The black dashed line denotes $1/f^2$ scaling.

4 Conclusions

One of the most important challenges in multiphase flow studies is to upscale the fluid dynamics from the pore-scale to the continuum scale. In this work, we observe pore scale dynamics in a core scale sample, assess the upscaled manifestation of these dynamics in the fluid distribution and fluid connectivity, and ultimately link this to the flow resistance reflected by the pressure drop over the sample. At very low Ca, we observed the same underlying pore scale dynamics as in small samples. However, at Ca on the order of 10^{-7} – traditionally considered to still be well within the capillary-dominated regime – we observed dampening in the amount of intermittent pathway flow. We hypothesize that this is caused by an increased importance of viscous forces, explaining the observation of a less ramified fluid distribution. We show that the latter is difficult to detect on a small sample or a magnified small part of the image. This is reflected in an REV study of the fluid saturation: the saturation varied strongly for averaging volumes with cube sizes up to approximately 10 - 15 mm, after which the variation tailed off but never fully died down to a true constant value reflecting REV.

The analysis of the pressure drop over the sample showed that the observed intermittent

479   fluid dynamics impact the flow resistance, confirming previous studies that found a

480   non-Darcy-like scaling of the pressure drop with the capillary number, yet finding a larger

481   than expected slope for the $Ca \sim 10^{-7}$ case (i.e. the case with the less ramified distribution).

482   A spectral analysis of the pressure drop showed that the red noise scaling observed in

483   mm-scale samples was only valid for core-scale cases where the percentage of

484   intermittently-occupied pores was relatively high. At higher Ca, the spectral slope in our

485   measurements (i.e. experiments $H_{0.7}$ and $H_{0.5}$) became flatter for timescales > 20 s. We

486   suggest that the intermittency may still play an important role in energy dissipation in these

487   two cases, leading to the non-Darcy like behaviour.

488   Overall, our research shows the need to study pore-scale dynamics in samples that approach

489   the REV scale – or, from a practical point of view, at least the scale at which continuum

490   properties such as capillary pressure and (relative) permeability curves are typically

491   measured, in case a true REV does not exist. However, the limited time resolution of the

492   laboratory-based micro-CT scanner for such samples did not allow us to further track the

493   fluid dynamics at different time scales. Our findings need to be confirmed by more

494   experiments on cm-scale samples with different fluids, rock types, wettability and pore

495   structures. This may provide us a deeper understanding of fluid flow from small scale to

496   large scale, which could be important for the design of secure subsurface storage of carbon

497   dioxide and energy, as well as for ground-water studies.

498   **Acknowledgments**

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