

1 **Numerical investigation of Herschel-Bulkley fluid flows in 2D porous media: yielding**
2 **behaviour and tortuosity**

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24 **Abstract**

25

26 Hydraulic tortuosity is commonly used as an input to macroscopic flow models in porous
27 media, accounting for the sinuosity of the streamlines. It is well known that hydraulic
28 tortuosity does not depend on the applied pressure gradient for Newtonian creeping flows.
29 Nevertheless, this is not necessarily the case for yield stress fluids flows, given the directional
30 nature of both yielding and shear-thinning behaviour. This study aims at a breakthrough on
31 the relationship between the hydraulic tortuosity and the level of yielding. To do so, the
32 hydraulic tortuosity of the flow paths is evaluated in 2D porous media by means of direct
33 numerical simulations and subsequently put in relation with the morphological information of
34 the medium provided by pore-network modelling. Moreover, the effects of pore dimensions,
35 spatial disorder and rheological parameters on yielding behaviour are examined. In most
36 situations, the reported tortuosity values are lower than those obtained for Newtonian fluids.

37

38 1. Introduction

39

40 Along with the rheology of the considered fluid, transport phenomena within the porous
41 media are fundamentally influenced by structural properties, such as pore size distribution,
42 mean pore connectivity and average tortuosity (Habisreuther et al., 2009). Among them,
43 tortuosity is used to describe the sinuosity and interconnectedness of the pore space as it
44 affects transport processes (Clennel, 1997). This concept was originally introduced by
45 Kozeny (1927) and Carman (1937), and is commonly defined as the ratio between the
46 average length of the actual fluid flow path through the porous matrix, L_e , and the apparent
47 length of the porous medium, L . However, a wide range of definitions exist in different fields
48 of science and engineering (Duda et al., 2011), which have been previously analysed and
49 compared in several publications (Dullien, 1992; Clennel, 1997; Valdés-Parada et al., 2011;
50 Ghanbarian et al., 2016; Agnaou et al. 2017). Moreover, Agnaou et al. (2017) focused on the
51 dependence of the tortuosity of the flow on the pore scale Reynolds number to predict the
52 onset of different inertial regimes in non-creeping motion.

53

54 When modelling the relationship between pressure drop and flow rate, tortuosity is often
55 defined as being the average elongation of a streamline in a porous medium, and is referred to
56 as hydraulic tortuosity (Duda et al., 2011). The hydraulic tortuosity $T = L_e/L$ is then used to
57 account for the fact that the effective length of the fluid flow path within the porous medium
58 L_e is greater than the apparent length L of the porous medium. Consequently, T has been
59 commonly used as a significant input for predicting the hydraulic conductivity of a porous
60 medium (Dullien, 1992; Vidal et al., 2009; Valdés-Parada et al., 2011; Ghanbarian et al.,
61 2016). By assuming that the flow rate vs. pressure drop relationship during one-dimensional
62 horizontal flow through a 2D porous medium sample of length L can be assimilated to that

63 obtained in a bundle of rectangular channels having the same length L , infinite width, and N
64 different aperture classes h_i ($i = 1 \dots N$), the total flow rate Q per unit width is written as:

65

$$Q(\Delta P) = \sum_{i=1}^N n_i q(\Delta P, h_i) \quad (1)$$

66

67 where ΔP is the pressure drop between the inlet and the outlet of the bundle, h_i is the
68 representative pore aperture of the i^{th} class of capillaries and n_i is the frequency of the i^{th}
69 class. In this equation, the (n_i, h_i) data correspond to the pore size distribution of the
70 investigated medium, and $q(\Delta P, h_i)$ is the individual flow rate per unit width in a rectangular
71 channel of aperture h_i , under a pressure gradient ΔP . In the case of creeping flow of a
72 Newtonian fluid of dynamic viscosity μ , $q(\Delta P, h_i)$ is given by Hele-Shaw's equation:

73

$$q(\Delta P, h_i) = \frac{h_i^3 \Delta P}{12\mu TL} \quad (2)$$

74

75 Other expressions of $q(\Delta P, h_i)$ are available for the flow of non-Newtonian fluids, including
76 yield stress fluids (Skelland, 1967; Chhabra and Richardson, 2008). It is worth noting that the
77 use of Eq. (1) and Eq. (2) to obtain flow rate vs. pressure drop relationship assumes that all
78 channels have equal tortuosity value T . Therefore, if the specific hydraulic tortuosity of the
79 streamlines is known for each pore class, the accuracy of the Q vs ΔP predictions with the
80 bundle-of-capillaries model is expected to be noticeably improved.

81

82 Another important issue concerns the determination of local pore velocity, shear rate and
83 viscosity from easily measurable macroscopic Darcy's velocity u . By taking tortuosity into
84 account, the average effective flow velocity V_p within a porous medium of porosity ϵ ,
85 expressed as $V_p = (u/\epsilon) \times T$ (Carman, 1937), can be determined. Consequently, assuming $T = 1$
86 in a porous medium that is tortuous by nature leads to underestimation of V_p , which is not a
87 trivial matter when dealing with non-Newtonian fluids with shear-rate-dependent viscosity.
88 For example, if shear-thinning polymer solutions are considered, underestimation of V_p
89 results, in turn, in underestimation of local shear rate and overestimation of local shear
90 viscosity. Moreover, other effects of fluid-medium interactions on the adsorption, mechanical
91 degradation and retention of macromolecules that are frequently encountered in the flow of
92 such complex fluids are expected to be more impacted in the case of highly tortuous porous
93 media, given that the residence time increases with T .

94

95 Different numerical approaches are currently available for determining tortuosity from the
96 results of different experimental methods. In this respect, 3D images obtained by Nuclear
97 Magnetic Resonance technique (NMR) were used by Habisreuther et al. (2009) to achieve
98 numerical determination of structural tortuosity. Also, Laudone et al. (2015) presented an
99 algorithm allowing the calculation of tortuosity in different types of porous media by using
100 the mercury intrusion porosimetry results as input data. More recently, Pawlowski et al.
101 (2018) derived hydraulic tortuosity from numerically simulated fluid pathways in the internal
102 structure of a monolith reconstructed using 3D X-ray tomography images. In any case,
103 attention must be paid to the differences between geometrical tortuosity and hydraulic
104 tortuosity when analysing the results provided by these tortuosity characterization methods
105 (Ghanbarian et al., 2016). Indeed, as emphasized by Clennel (1997), the paths taken by a
106 fluid as it flows through the porous medium are not straight lines, or close tangents to the

107 solid grains, but they are rather smooth curves tending to follow the axes of the flow
108 channels. Also, as a result of viscous drag, fluid flow is more retarded at the channel walls
109 than along the mean channel axes, so not all paths are equally intricate.

110

111 Previous works showed that, in the case of creeping Newtonian flow through a porous
112 medium, the hydraulic tortuosity of the streamlines is independent of injection velocity
113 (Sivanesapillai et al., 2014; Ghanbarian et al., 2016; Agnaou et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019),
114 and several relationships were proposed to estimate its value, as summarized by Ghanbarian
115 et al. (2016). Whereas various definitions are only based on the actual length of the
116 streamlines, others introduce a weighting factor such as the local velocity magnitude or flux
117 which gives more importance to the streamlines with high velocity. Unlike in the case of
118 Newtonian fluids, little attention has been paid to the evaluation of hydraulic tortuosity
119 during flow of non-Newtonian fluids. In particular, the available numerical studies addressing
120 yield stress fluid flow in porous media are remarkably scarce (Chevalier and Talon, 2015;
121 Malvault et al., 2017; Bao et al., 2017; Rodríguez de Castro and Agnaou, 2019; Kostenko and
122 Talon, 2019; Rodríguez de Castro et al., 2020), due partly to the considerable computational
123 resources required to perform direct numerical simulations of these complex flows (Saramito
124 and Wachs, 2017).

125

126 Recently, Zhang et al. (2019) carried out 3D numerical simulations of the flow of non-
127 yielding shear-thinning fluids obeying a Cross rheological law that contains an upper and a
128 lower viscosity plateau through a rough-walled rock fracture, using an input geometry
129 extracted from a digitalized microtomography image. In this work, the authors determined the
130 hydraulic tortuosity of the flow from the detailed velocity field provided by the numerical
131 simulations. They found that the hydraulic tortuosity of such a shear-thinning flow decreases

132 with increasing flow rate within the creeping flow regime. In their analysis, they attributed
133 this behaviour to the flow channelling effect observed when the local viscosity of the
134 considered Cross fluids falls below the upper Newtonian plateau value in only a part of the
135 fracture, i.e., in the largest pores where larger shear rates are generated. Also, Kostenko and
136 Talon (2019) analyzed the fractal flow structures exhibited by yield stress fluids with
137 constant plastic viscosity (Bingham fluids) in the presence of local heterogeneities by
138 performing 2D Lattice Boltzmann simulations. These authors qualitatively observed that
139 hydraulic tortuosity was higher in the presence of strong permeability heterogeneities. Such
140 heterogeneities result in a considerable increase in the value of the local hydraulic tortuosity,
141 as the flow is diverted towards the high-permeability regions of the medium.

142

143 The relationship between hydraulic tortuosity and injection velocity in the presence of a yield
144 stress has still not been addressed in the literature, nor have the specific effects of pore body
145 and throat size distributions and structural disorder been elucidated. In an attempt to fill this
146 gap, the major objective of the present paper is to investigate the dependency of hydraulic
147 tortuosity on the yielding degree of yield stress fluids obeying the Herschel-Bulkley law
148 flowing through a porous medium. Moreover, the proportion of the fluid having yielded at
149 different values of the Herschel-Bulkley number (which will be defined below) will also be
150 characterized. In order to achieve these goals, a set of numerical simulations are performed
151 by using 2D porous media with different microstructural characteristics. In these simulations,
152 the fraction of the stagnant fluid and the tortuosity of the streamlines are calculated from the
153 computed shear viscosity and velocity maps for different values of the Herschel-Bulkley
154 number. To go further, the effects of Herschel-Bulkley parameters (i.e., yield stress,
155 consistency and fluidity indexes) on the investigated relationships will be assessed by

156 performing a second set of numerical experiments with different Herschel-Bulkley fluids
157 through a given porous medium.

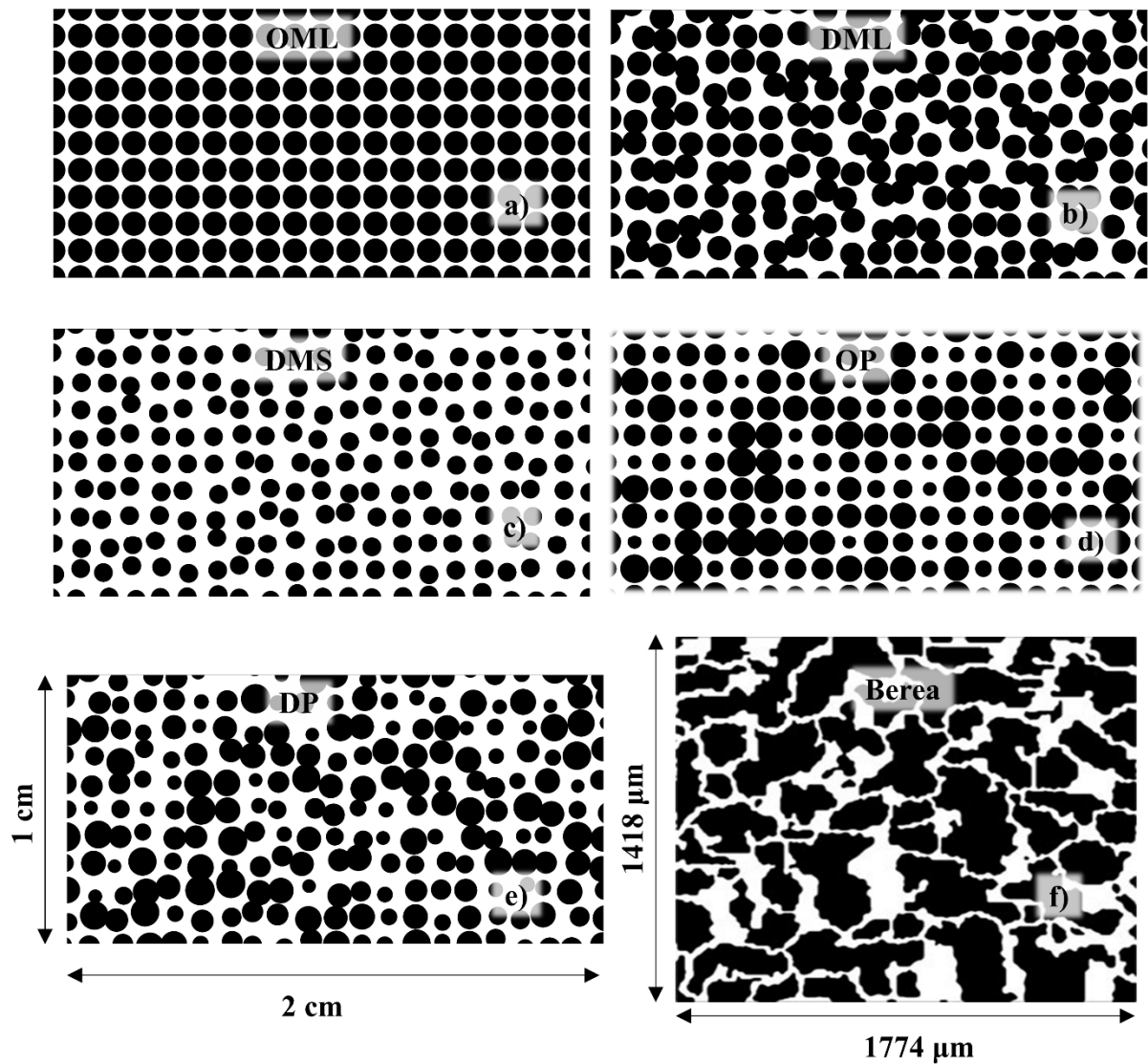
158 2. Numerical experiments

159

160 2.1. Microstructure of porous media under investigation

161

162 A subset of 2D micromodels presented by Mehmani and Tchelepi (2017a) was used in the
163 current research (Figure 1). This choice will allow us to assess the effect of disorder, grain
164 sizes and polydispersity on the hydraulic tortuosity of the streamlines for the steady flow of
165 Newtonian and yield stress fluids. In the particular case of the Berea 2D micromodel, the
166 geometry was previously extracted by Boek and Venturoly (2010) based on a thin slice of a
167 3D Berea sandstone rock sample. Table 1 lists the main microstructural features, the
168 permeability K , the porosity ϵ and the value of the hydraulic tortuosity of the flow paths
169 followed by Newtonian fluids, T_N , for all the used micromodels. T_N was obtained from the
170 results of direct numerical simulations as those presented in subsection 2.2. The original
171 names given by Mehmani and Tchelepi, (2017a;b) to the investigated media have been
172 modified in order to facilitate the current analysis. It is highlighted that the effect of grain size
173 will be analysed by keeping the positions of the grains centers unchanged in both DML and
174 DMS. Regarding the level of disorder, high disorder level was generated by randomly
175 perturbing grain positions in both horizontal and vertical coordinates with respect to the low
176 disorder level in which the grain centres are aligned.



177

178 **Figure 1.** 2D micromodels used in the present numerical simulations: (a) Ordered
 179 Monodisperse Large grains: OML, (b) Disordered Monodisperse Large grains: DML, (c)
 180 Disordered Monodisperse Small grains: DMS, (d) Ordered Polydisperse grains: OP, (e)
 181 Disordered Polydisperse grains: DP and (f) Berea sandstone micromodel. Black colour
 182 represents the solid grains and white colour represents the interstices. These geometries were
 183 obtained from Mehmani and Tchelepi (2017a) and are freely available (Mehmani and
 184 Tchelepi, 2017b).

185

186 **Table 1.** Main features of the investigated micromodels. The original names given by
 187 Mehmani and Tchelepi (2017a;b) to these micromodels are listed in the second column.

| Medium | Original name | Level of disorder | Grain size | Grain shape | ε (%) | K (m ²) | T _N |
|--------|---------------|-------------------|----------------------|------------------|-------------------|------------------------|----------------|
| OML | GL – D1 | Low | Monodisperse - Large | Circular | 36.40 | 5.51×10^{-12} | 1.012 |
| DML | GL – D4 | High | Monodisperse - Large | Circular | 38.97 | 3.31×10^{-10} | 1.456 |
| DMS | GS – D4 | High | Monodisperse - Small | Circular | 61.97 | 5.42×10^{-9} | 1.160 |
| OP | P – D1 | Low | Polydisperse | Circular | 47.78 | 9.97×10^{-10} | 1.309 |
| DP | P – D4 | High | Polydisperse | Circular | 48.91 | 1.60×10^{-9} | 1.348 |
| Berea | Berea | From rock sample | From rock sample | From rock sample | 33.61 | 3.87×10^{-12} | 1.300 |

188

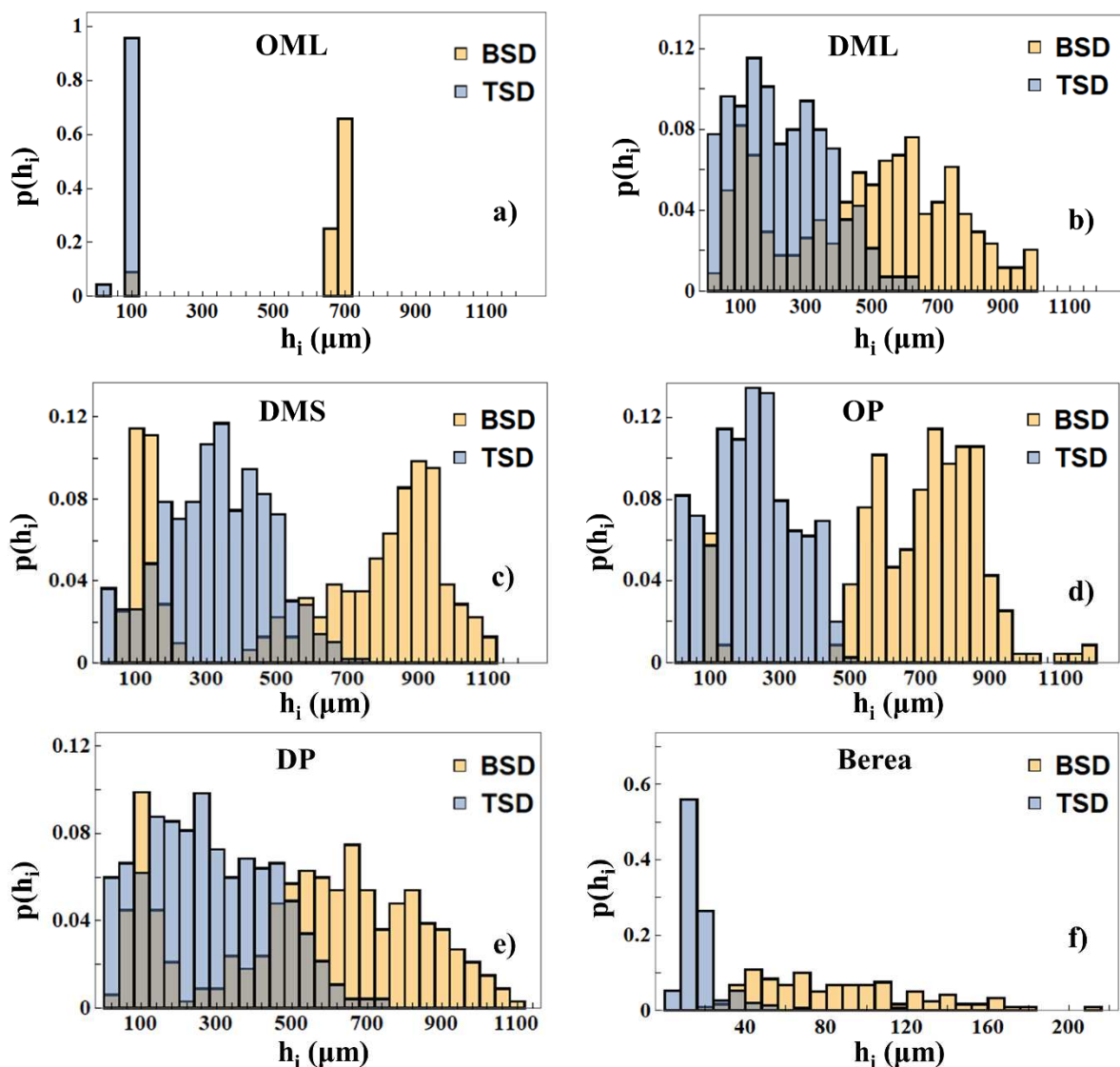
189 In order to carry out further investigations on the microstructures, an equivalent pore network
 190 model representing each 2D porous medium was extracted. Pore network models are
 191 idealized representations of the real porous geometry that reduce the complexity involved in
 192 solving transport problems at the pore scale. Moreover, essential features for permeability
 193 and pressure loss prediction, such as pore-body to pore-throat aspect ratio and pore
 194 connectivity, can be well characterized by the pore network models in typical cases (Paul et
 195 al., 2019). A review of the advances in pore network modelling of porous media was
 196 presented by Xiong et al. (2016), who described the different current applications ranging
 197 from dissolution phenomena to biomass growth. The pore network extraction operations
 198 carried out in the current work were performed using the subnetwork of the oversegmented

199 watershed (SNOW) algorithm (Gostick, 2017) implemented within the open-source toolkit
200 for quantitative analysis of porous media images, PoreSpy (Gostick et al., 2019; Khan et al.,
201 2019). The algorithm proceeds through different steps. It first extracts the distance map of the
202 void spaces, filters it and eliminates peaks on saddles and plateaus and then merges peaks that
203 are close to each other. Finally, it assigns void voxels (or pixels for a 2D medium) to pores.
204 The SNOW algorithm was used for the extraction of the pore networks from the 2D media
205 shown on Figure 1. It is highlighted that the position of the centers of the grains remains
206 unchanged for a given level of disorder in the investigated porous media. Therefore, the
207 different combinations of grain size, grain shape, level of disorder and polydispersity produce
208 changes in the compacity of the investigated media, and consequently in their porosity. The
209 individual effects of such a porosity variation on yielding behavior and tortuosity are not
210 specifically addressed in the current study. Also, it is noted that the average grain size of the
211 polydisperse media is identical to the grain size of the monodisperse media with large grains.

212
213 The Body Size Distributions (BSD) and the Throat Size Distributions (TSD) of the pore-
214 network models extracted from the six porous media are represented in Figure 2.
215 Furthermore, in order to facilitate the analysis, the average throat size, m_{throats} , the standard
216 deviation of the TSD, σ_{throats} , the average body size, m_{bodies} , and the standard deviation of the
217 BSD, σ_{bodies} , were determined and are listed in Table 2. A noteworthy feature is the single
218 probability peak obtained in both BSD and TSD of OML. Also, the pore dimensions of the
219 Berea micromodel are significantly smaller than those of the other samples. It can be
220 observed that the standard deviations of the BSDs and TSDs of the polydisperse media OP
221 and DP are higher than those of the monodisperse media OML and DML, as expected from
222 the diversity of grain sizes present in polydisperse media. Moreover, both m_{bodies} and m_{throats}
223 are higher in the polydisperse media for a given level of disorder. The effect of grain size on

224 pore characteristics can be evaluated by comparing the BSD and TSD obtained for DMS and
 225 DML. By doing so, it was observed that despite similar standard deviations, the values of
 226 $m_{throats}$ and m_{bodies} were smaller for the porous medium with larger grain sizes. Another key
 227 aspect is the effect of disorder. Indeed, while partial overlap between TSD and BSD is
 228 obtained for the disordered media DML and DP, this effect is much less significant for the
 229 ordered ones.

230



231

232 **Figure 2.** Body Size Distributions and Throat Size Distributions of the six porous media
 233 investigated in the present work: (a) OML, (b) DML, (c) DMS, (d) OP, (e) DP and (f) Berea.

234

235 **Table 2.** Average values and standard deviations of the BSDs and TSDs of the pore-networks

236 extracted from the different porous media

| Medium | $m_{\text{throats}} (\mu\text{m})$ | $\sigma_{\text{throats}} (\mu\text{m})$ | $\sigma_{\text{throats}} (\%)$ | $m_{\text{bodies}} (\mu\text{m})$ | $\sigma_{\text{bodies}} (\mu\text{m})$ | $\sigma_{\text{bodies}} (\%)$ |
|--------|------------------------------------|---|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|-------------------------------|
| OML | 96 | 19 | 20 | 627 | 167 | 27 |
| DML | 222 | 141 | 64 | 474 | 258 | 54 |
| DMS | 322 | 149 | 46 | 618 | 342 | 55 |
| OP | 217 | 120 | 55 | 685 | 208 | 30 |
| DP | 274 | 164 | 60 | 540 | 282 | 52 |
| Berea | 17 | 13 | 76 | 86 | 40 | 47 |

237

238 2.2. Numerical experiments procedure

239

240 The procedure previously presented by Rodríguez de Castro and Agnaou (2019) was adopted

241 in the present numerical simulations. In this procedure, the flow problems were numerically

242 solved using the finite-element-method-based simulation package Comsol Multiphysics

243 version 5.3. (2017). The porous media displayed in Figure 1 were discretized using

244 unstructured triangle dominated meshes. The simulations were carried out using the *Creeping*

245 *Flow* module, developed for solving Stokes flow problems. The boundary conditions

246 associated with the flow problem consist of the Dirichlet uniform pressure at the left and right

247 boundaries of the porous structures. In addition, a no-slip velocity condition was imposed at

248 the grain-fluid interface as well as at the top and the bottom boundaries of the considered
249 porous media. It was observed that, given the small ratio between the average grain size and
250 the dimensions of the computational domain, the choice of boundary conditions at the top and
251 bottom walls had not significant influence on the results. Also, it must be noted that since
252 flow is induced thanks to the enforced pressure difference, backflow may appear at the inlet
253 and result in numerical instabilities. For this reason, the backflow at the entrance (left
254 boundary) was systematically eliminated. This constraint can be compared to the situation
255 where one uses a pump to inject the fluid through the porous medium and where the pump
256 does not allow the fluid to go back. The average skewness of the generated meshes ranged
257 from 0.798 to 0.828. Regarding the resolution of the boundary layers along the walls of the
258 pore channels, a minimum mesh element size of 20 μm was used for all porous media apart
259 from Berea sandstone, for which 3 μm was imposed. This led to an average of 240 grid nodes
260 per pore.

261

262 The fundamental character of yield stress fluids is that they flow only if they are submitted to
263 a shear stress exceeding some critical value τ_0 (Coussot, 2014). Otherwise, they deform in a
264 finite way like elastic solids. The rheological behavior under shear of such fluids is mostly
265 described by the empirical Herschel-Bulkley law (Herschel and Bulkley, 1926). This law
266 combines yield stress with a shear-dependent viscosity and, for simple shear, can be written
267 as:

$$\begin{cases} \tau = \tau_0 + k\dot{\gamma}^n & \text{for } \tau \geq \tau_0 \\ \dot{\gamma} = 0 & \text{for } \tau \leq \tau_0 \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

268

269 where τ_0 is the yield stress, k is the consistency index and n is the fluidity index. To
270 overcome the expected singularities when using such a relationship in numerical
271 computations, the shear viscosity of the fluid was described as follows:

272

$$\mu = \begin{cases} \min \left[\mu_{\max}, \left(k\dot{\gamma}^{n-1} + \frac{\tau_0}{\dot{\gamma}} \right) \right] & \text{for } \dot{\gamma} > 0 \\ \mu_{\max} & \text{for } \dot{\gamma} = 0 \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

273

274 in which μ_{\max} is a pre-defined maximum viscosity. A value $\mu_{\max} = 10000$ Pa s was used in
275 this study. It should be highlighted, however, that this maximum limit was adopted as a
276 compromise between accuracy and numerical stability. On the one hand, using extremely
277 high μ_{\max} values yields important viscosity gradients within the computational domain and
278 therefore numerical instabilities. On the other hand, low μ_{\max} values fail to accurately
279 reproduce the expected rheological behaviour. The resulting system of non-linear equations
280 was solved using the *Comsol Stationary Solver* and the solution was sought using the
281 Newton-Raphson algorithm, taking as initial guesses the initial conditions (fluid at rest, zero
282 pressure and velocity fields). The system of linearized equations within each Newton-
283 Raphson iteration, was solved using the direct solver PARDISO (Schenk, 2004). The
284 numerical solution is then judged converged upon reaching a residual below a relative
285 tolerance of 10^{-3} both in terms of velocity and pressure. A computer equipped with an
286 Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-4500U CPU node at 2.40GHz with 4 cores was used to perform the
287 current numerical simulations. The simulation times were close to 20 min in all cases, with a
288 memory usage of 4 GHz.

289

290 A first set of experiments was performed by using a yield stress fluid with shear-rheology
291 parameters $\tau_0 = 10$ Pa, $k = 1$ Pa sⁿ and $n = 0.5$. In these experiments, the yield index Y of the
292 fluid was defined as the complement of the ratio between the computed surface-averaged
293 shear viscosity $\bar{\mu}$ and μ_{\max} at each value of the imposed pressure gradient:

294

$$Y = 1 - \frac{\bar{\mu}}{\mu_{\max}} \quad (5)$$

295

296 Y was used to quantify the size of the unyielded region. The value of Y is zero when the fluid
297 is “stagnant” within the whole porous medium, and it approaches unity when the fluid flows
298 with low viscosity in all pores. The numerical simulations were also used to obtain sets of
299 average velocity vs. pressure gradient data points. For each imposed pressure gradient ∇P_j ,
300 the resulting average velocity u_j was computed as the line integration over the inlet of the
301 velocity component in the main flow direction divided by the width of the medium. Then, by
302 using the computed $(u_j, \nabla P_j)$ data, the apparent viscosity of the yield stress fluid in the porous
303 medium μ_{app} was calculated from Darcy’s law (Darcy, 1856):

304

$$\mu_{\text{app}} = K \frac{\nabla P_j}{u_j} \quad (6)$$

305

306 The apparent shear rate $\dot{\gamma}_{\text{app}}$ was subsequently calculated by using μ_{app} as an input to
307 Herschel-Bulkley’s empirical law (Herschel and Bulkley, 1926), which can be rewritten as
308 follows:

309

$$\mu_{\text{app}} = \frac{\tau_0}{\dot{\gamma}_{\text{app}}} + k\dot{\gamma}_{\text{app}}^{n-1} \quad (7)$$

310

311 In each experiment, the Herschel-Bulkley number H , also known as generalized Bingham
 312 number, was used to quantify the relative importance of yield stress τ_0 as compared to the
 313 excess shear stress $k\dot{\gamma}_{\text{app}}^n$ produced in the power-law-viscosity regime (Magnin and Piau,
 314 2004; Kandasamy and Nadiminti, 2015; Moreno et al., 2016):

315

$$H = \frac{\tau_0}{k\dot{\gamma}_{\text{app}}^n} \quad (8)$$

316

317 Furthermore, the hydraulic tortuosity values of the flow paths followed by Newtonian and
 318 yield stress fluids were also obtained from the post processing of the direct numerical
 319 simulation results. This was achieved by dividing the surface average of the velocity
 320 magnitude field $\overline{|\mathbf{u}|}$ by the surface average of the horizontal component of velocity $\overline{u_x}$ (since
 321 the imposed pressure gradient was oriented along the inverted x axis) over the pore space
 322 (Duda et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019), with \mathbf{u} being the velocity vector:

323

$$T = \frac{\overline{|\mathbf{u}|}}{\overline{u_x}} \quad (9)$$

324

325 The same procedure was used in order to conduct a second set of *in silico* experiments, in
 326 which the injection of seven yield stress fluids with different Herschel-Bulkley parameters
 327 through the micromodel DP was simulated. Table 3 lists the Herschel-Bulkley parameters of

328 the considered yield stress fluids. The results of this second set of experiments are presented
329 in subsection 3.1.4.

330

331 The definition of the tortuosity given by Eq. (9) is more rigorous and simpler than the more
332 common definition $T = L_e/L$. In fact, this definition does not require the computation of the
333 flow streamlines. It was shown (Duda et al., 2011) that T given by Eq. (9) is equivalent, for
334 an incompressible flow without recirculation zones, to the surface (for a 3D configuration)
335 average of L_e/L weighted by the local flux over a reference surface perpendicular to the main
336 flow direction. This implies that if one uniformly discretizes the reference surface, the flux
337 can be replaced by the velocity component normal to the reference surface. On the other
338 hand, in the presence of recirculation zones, T given by Eq. (9) becomes an upper limit of the
339 surface (over a reference surface) average of L_e/L weighted by the local flux.

340

341 **Table 3.** Herschel-Bulkley parameters of the fluids used in the present numerical simulations

| Fluid name | Standard | Low τ_o | High τ_o | Low k | High k | Low n | High n |
|------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| τ_o | 10 Pa | 1 Pa | 100 Pa | 10 Pa | 10 Pa | 10 Pa | 10 Pa |
| k | 1 Pa s ⁿ | 1 Pa s ⁿ | 1 Pa s ⁿ | 0.1 Pa s ⁿ | 10 Pa s ⁿ | 1 Pa s ⁿ | 1 Pa s ⁿ |
| n | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.33 | 1 |

342

343 3. Results

344

345 This section presents the results provided by the numerical simulations presented above.
346 Subsections 3.1.1, 3.1.2 and 3.1.3 deal with the injection of the investigated standard yield
347 stress fluid through the different porous media, in order to assess the effects of microstructure
348 on the hydraulic tortuosity and yielding behaviour. The second set of experiments in which a

349 set of different yield stress fluids were injected in the same porous medium are presented in
350 subsection 3.1.4, aiming to evaluate the effects of varying Hershel-Bulkley parameters on Y
351 and T .

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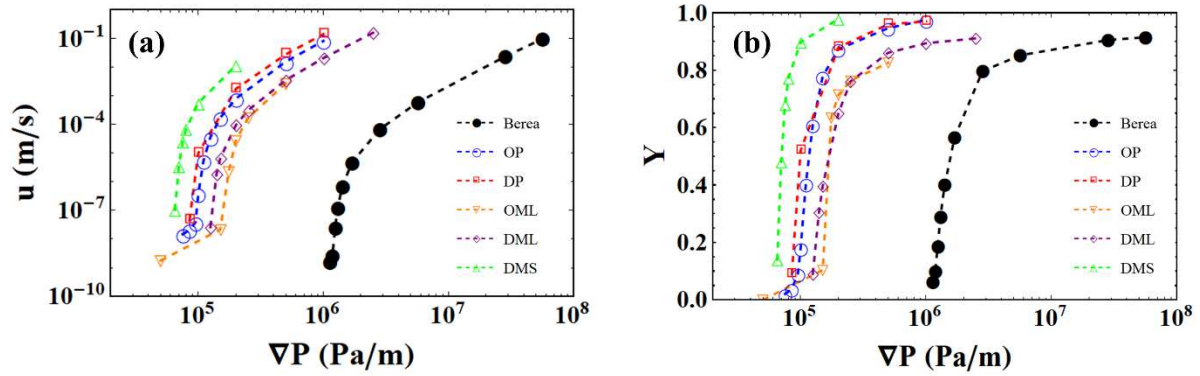
353 **3.1.1. Computed u (∇P) data points and examples of the obtained shear viscosity and** 354 **velocity maps**

355

356 The computed u (∇P) data obtained for the injection of the standard fluid ($\tau_0 = 10$ Pa, $k = 1$
357 Pa s ^{n} and $n = 0.5$) through the set of porous media investigated in the current work are
358 represented in Figure 3(a). The unexpected trend observed at the lowest ∇P values for OML
359 and OP, where u is roughly proportional to ∇P , is due to the existence of an important
360 residual Newtonian flow produced below yielding in these ordered media, with viscosity
361 μ_{\max} (Eq. 2). Apart from this aspect, the u (∇P) behaviour is the usual one for a yield stress
362 fluid flowing through a porous medium (Rodríguez de Castro et al., 2016). Besides, it is
363 reminded that, as mentioned in subsection 2.2., Y can be used to quantify the size of the
364 unyielded region. In order to facilitate the understanding of the relationship between the
365 controllable macroscopic quantity ∇P and the measured dimensionless number Y , the Y vs.
366 ∇P results obtained for all numerical experiments are represented in Figure 3(b). As expected,
367 higher values of Y are obtained as ∇P is increased, and once $Y \sim 0.8$ is attained, a
368 considerable increase in ∇P is required to achieve the flow of the yield stress fluid within the
369 whole porous medium ($Y = 1$). In Figure 4, examples of shear viscosity maps at intermediate
370 values of Y are displayed over the three considered porous structures showing the existence
371 of an important channelling effect through the largest pores. Furthermore, illustrative
372 examples of the computed velocity maps are provided in Figure 5 for different values of the
373 Herschel-Bulkley number H , confirming that significant velocity magnitudes are obtained

374 only in those pores in which the fluid has yielded. Also, as H decreases (∇P increases), the
375 unswept area becomes smaller.

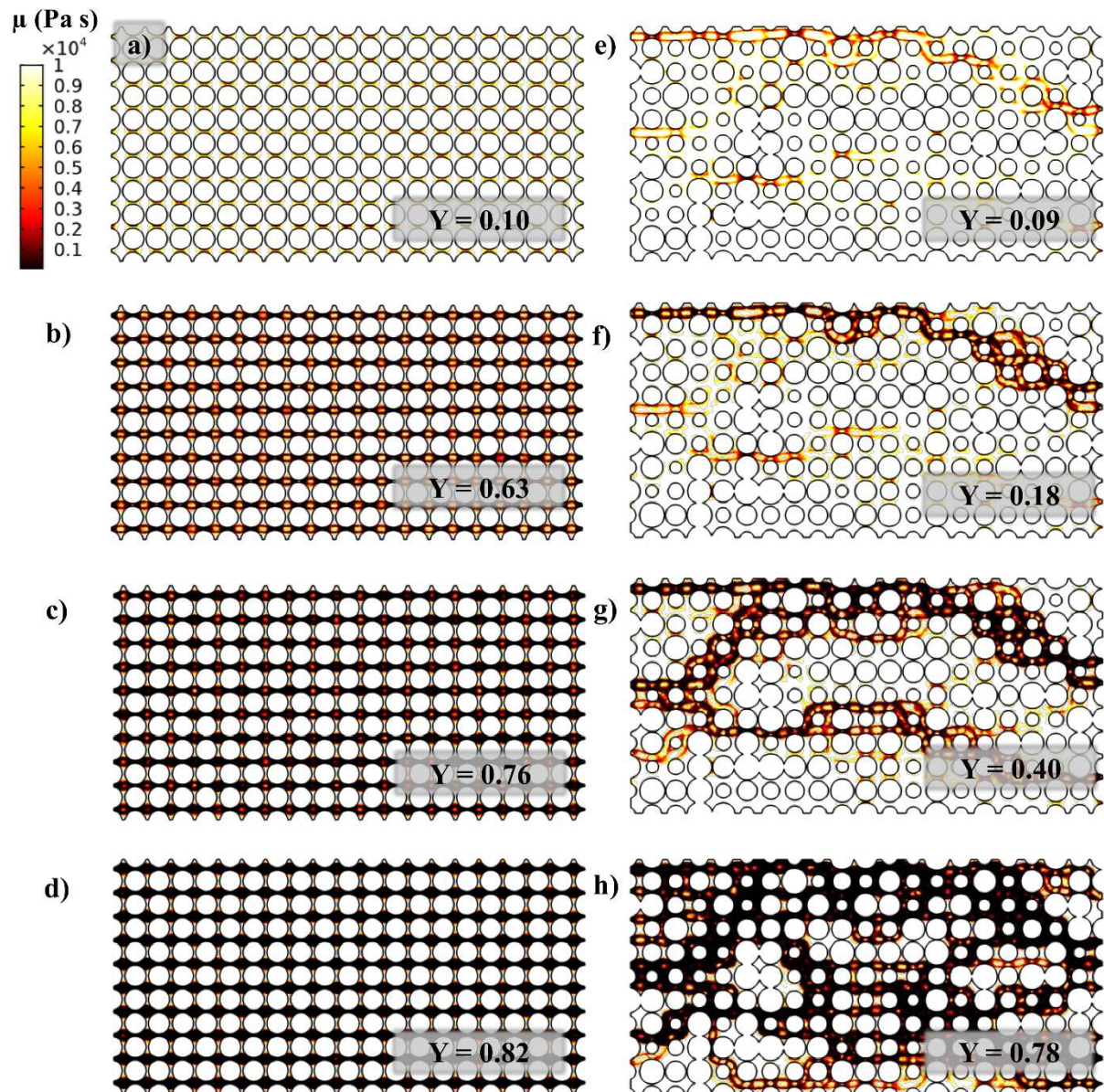
376



377

378 **Figure 3.** (a) Simulated $(u, \nabla P)$ data points and (b) Y vs. ∇P relationship obtained for the
379 injection of the standard fluid ($\tau_0 = 10$ Pa, $k = 1$ Pa s^n and $n = 0.5$) through the different
380 porous media investigated in the current work.

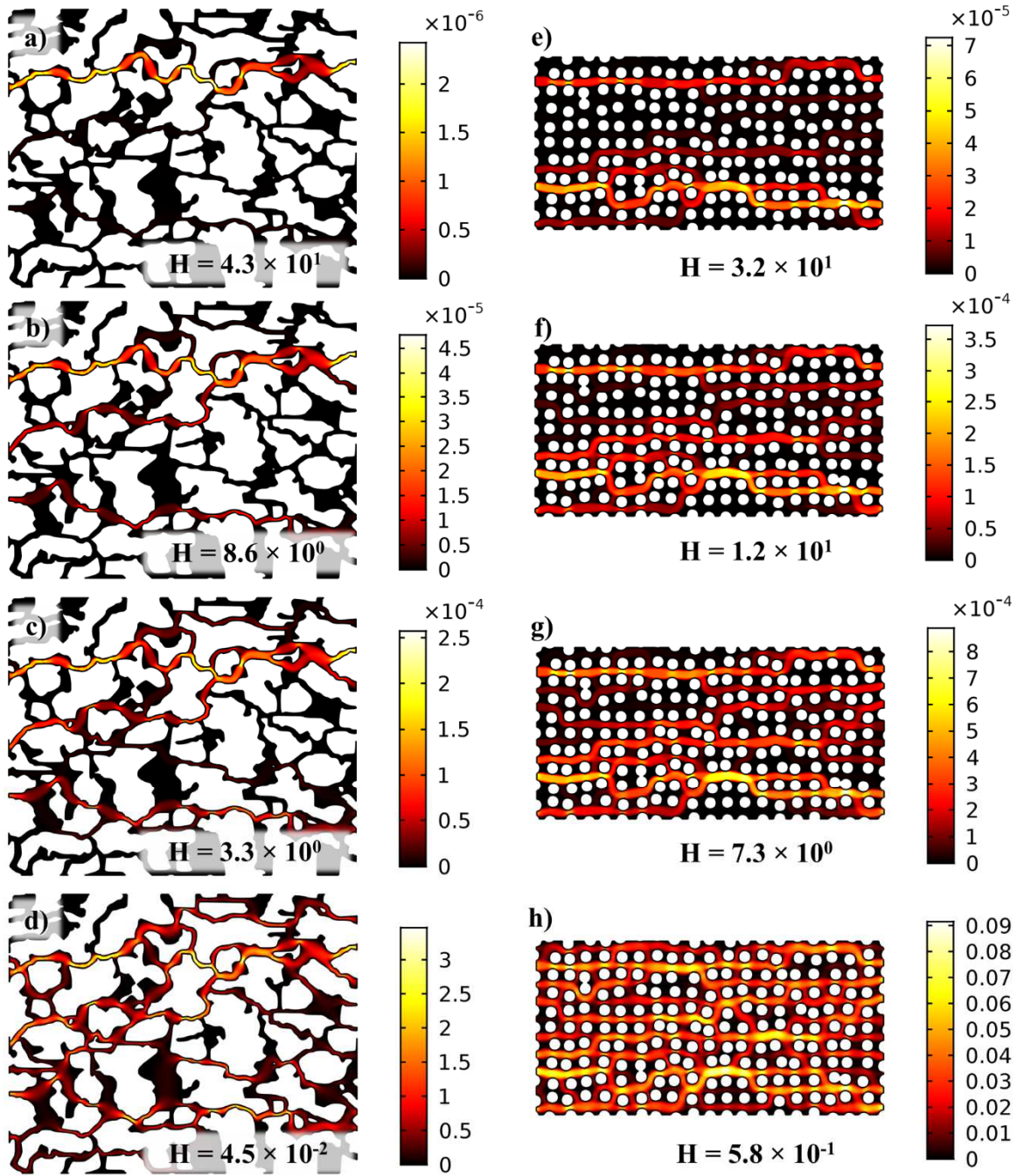
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382

383 **Figure 4.** Examples of shear viscosity maps as provided by the numerical simulations for
 384 different values of Y during the injection of the standard fluid ($\tau_0 = 10$ Pa, $k = 1$ Pa sⁿ and n
 385 $= 0.5$): (a – d) correspond to the porous medium OML and (e – h) to the porous medium OP.

386



387

388 **Figure 5.** Examples of simulated velocity maps obtained for different values of H during the

389 injection of the standard fluid ($\tau_0 = 10 \text{ Pa}$, $k = 1 \text{ Pa s}^n$ and $n = 0.5$). (a – d) correspond to

390 Berea sandstone and (e – h) to the porous medium DMS. The colour scale represents the

391 magnitude of velocity at each position. The values in the colorbars are expressed in m s^{-1} .

392

393

394 3.1.2. Effects of the pore structure on the yielding behaviour of the fluid

395

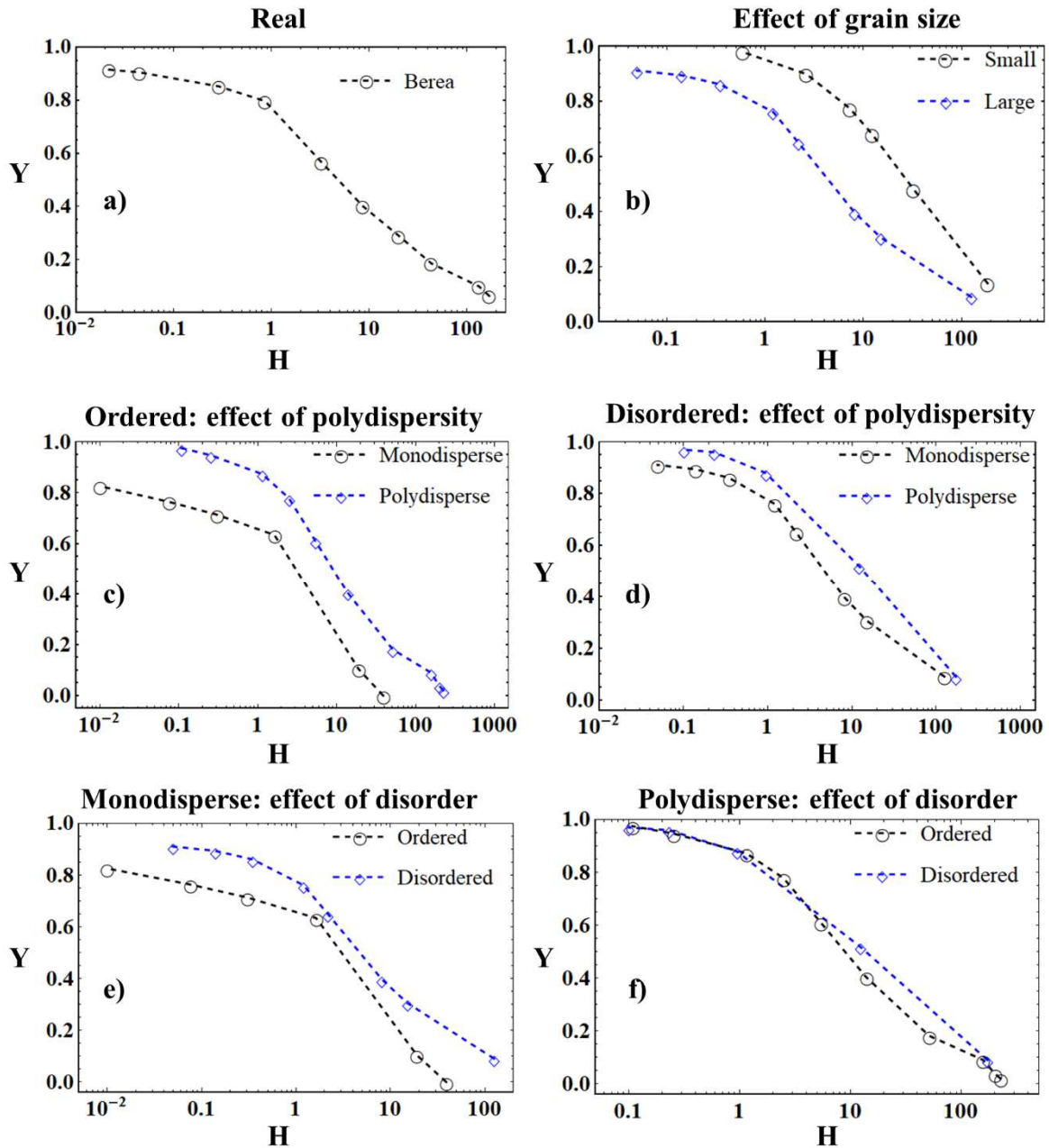
396 The viscosity maps provided by the numerical simulations presented in subsection 3.1.1. for
397 the flow of the standard Herschel-Bulkley fluid (Table 3) were used to calculate Y and H
398 under different pressure gradients using Eqs. (5) and (8). From these results, the relationship
399 between Y and H was determined and is represented in Figure 6. It is noted that, in all cases,
400 Y decreases when H is increased. This was expected due to the higher influence of yield
401 stress at the high values of H (corresponding to small pressure gradients), leading to larger
402 sizes of the unyielded regions (Prashant and Derksen, 2011). More importantly, the main
403 conclusion is that the relationship between Y and H depends on the type of structure.
404 Moreover, in all cases, Y is lower than 0.2 when H is higher than 100, which means that a
405 very small portion of the fluid is flowing at a significant velocity.

406

407 From Figure 6(b), it can be deduced that the range of H over which progressive yielding is
408 produced is shorter for the porous medium with small grains (and larger pores). This can be
409 explained by the fact that, although the maximum throat sizes of DMS (small grains) and
410 DML (large grains) are very close (Figure 2), the TSD of DML presents higher probabilities
411 for small pore sizes. Indeed, the fluid is mobilized in these small pores only at high pressure
412 gradients, corresponding to lower values of H . Also, the considerably higher porosity of DMS
413 is expected to facilitate yielding of the fluid at lower pressure gradients (higher values of H)
414 as compared to DML. Moreover, it can be observed in Figures 6(c) and 6(d) that the effect of
415 polydispersity on the $Y - H$ relationship is stronger for the ordered media, probably as a
416 consequence of the marked differences in terms of TSD and BSD between the monodisperse
417 and polydisperse ordered media. Figure 6(f) shows that the influence of disorder on the $Y - H$
418 relationship is negligible for the polydisperse media, while it is significant for the

419 monodisperse media. This behaviour can be explained by the exceptional straightness of the
 420 flow paths obtained in OML, which results in a more abrupt yielding transition, as will be
 421 discussed in section 4.

422



423

424 **Figure 6.** Relationships between yield index, Y , and Herschel-Bulkley number, H , for the
 425 different porous media during the injection of the standard fluid ($\tau_0 = 10$ Pa, $k = 1$ Pa sn and
 426 $n = 0.5$). (a) Berea sandstone. (b) Effect of grain size by comparing DMS (small grain size)

427 and DML (large grain size). (c) Effect of polydispersity in ordered porous media by
428 comparing OML (monodisperse) and OP (polydisperse). (d) Effect of polydispersity in
429 disordered porous media by comparing DML (monodisperse) and DP (polydisperse). (e)
430 Effects of disorder in monodisperse porous media by comparing OML (ordered) and DML
431 (disordered). (f) Effects of disorder in polydisperse porous media by comparing OP (ordered)
432 and DP (disordered).

433

434 **3.1.3. Influence of the pore structure on the tortuosity of the streamlines**

435

436 The hydraulic tortuosity of the streamlines was calculated for the flow of the considered
437 standard Herschel-Bulkley fluid as well as for a Newtonian fluid by using Eq. (9), and its
438 dependence on Y was investigated. Figure 7 shows that the hydraulic tortuosity of the flow of
439 the Herschel-Bulkley fluid is lower than that of a Newtonian fluid for all the tested porous
440 media, except for the ordered monodisperse medium OML for which they coincide (Figure
441 7c and 7e). This is true even when Y approaches unity, i.e., when H becomes very low and
442 the effect of yield stress is well mitigated. Such low tortuosity stems from the directional
443 nature of shear-thinning behaviour and yielding. Indeed, the shear viscosity decreases as the
444 applied pressure gradient increases. Consequently, low viscosity regions are oriented along
445 the main direction of the flow, where the pressure gradients are higher than in transverse
446 directions, as clearly illustrated in Figure 4. In the particular case of OML, in which all grains
447 are perfectly aligned, the flow paths offering the lowest resistance to flow correspond to the
448 shortest ones, i.e., straight lines going from the inlet to the outlet of the medium traveling
449 over the identical pore constrictions with a hydraulic tortuosity approaching unity both for the
450 Newtonian and the yield stress fluid flows. For the other considered porous media, including
451 the Berea sandstone micromodel, hydraulic tortuosity is observed to increase with decreasing

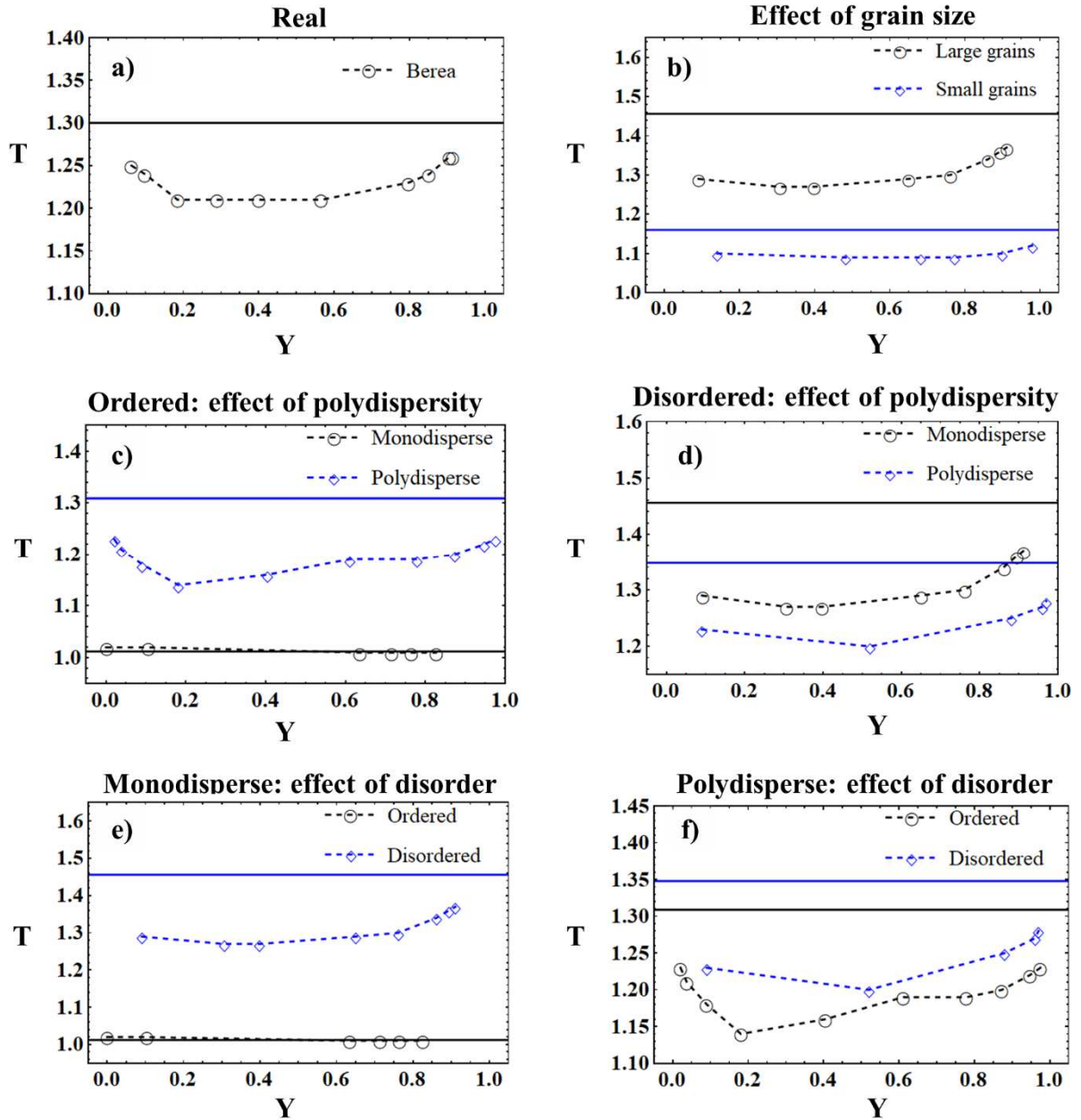
452 Y within the low Y-regime. This is expected to be related to the Newtonian viscosity limit
453 μ_{\max} imposed during the flow simulations. Indeed, the residual Newtonian flow with
454 viscosity μ_{\max} becomes more significant as Y approaches zero, and therefore the higher
455 tortuosity of the residual Newtonian flow (T_N) in some regions of the micromodel contribute
456 to increase the average value of T throughout the medium. The preceding finding is in good
457 agreement with the results of Zhang et al. (2019) for Cross fluids. It should be emphasized
458 that, although ideal Herschel-Bulkley fluids do not exhibit any viscosity plateau at very low
459 shear rates, the use of μ_{\max} is quite realistic in the case of most commonly encountered
460 pseudo-yield stress fluids, as previously shown and discussed by several researchers (Spelt et
461 al., 2005; Lavrov, 2013; Rodríguez de Castro et al., 2018). Besides this, the main flow
462 features are as follows:

- 463 - The hydraulic tortuosity dependence on Y is weaker for the porous media with the
464 narrowest TSDs (Table 2), i.e., OML and DMS. This is because of the number of
465 preferential flow paths is smaller and the increase of Y (at higher ∇P) occurs under
466 the same flow configuration, leading to an almost constant T.
- 467 - The polydispersity of the grain size distribution leads to an overall increase in
468 hydraulic tortuosity in the ordered media (Figure 7c). As described by Kostenko and
469 Talon (2019), this is due to the diversion of the flow produced by the considerable
470 increase in the magnitude of the permeability of local highly permeable zones.
- 471 - The tortuosity of the disordered polydisperse medium DP is lower than the one of the
472 disordered monodisperse medium DML (Figure 7d). This is possibly due to the
473 similar range of sizes covered by the TSDs and the BDSs of both disordered media
474 and the significant overlap between their TSD and BDS (Figure 2). As a result, the
475 maximum local permeability is not necessarily higher for the polydisperse medium.

476 - T increases with Y at moderate and high values of Y, which is explained by the
477 decreasing intensity of channelling displayed in Figures 4 and 5, and the greater
478 number of paths opening to the flow as the pressure gradient is increased. It is noted
479 that no significant differences in such a behaviour were observed between media with
480 different grain sizes.

481 It should be kept in mind that, while the present conclusions are valid for the considered
482 configurations, further works are required in order to generalize these findings.

483



484

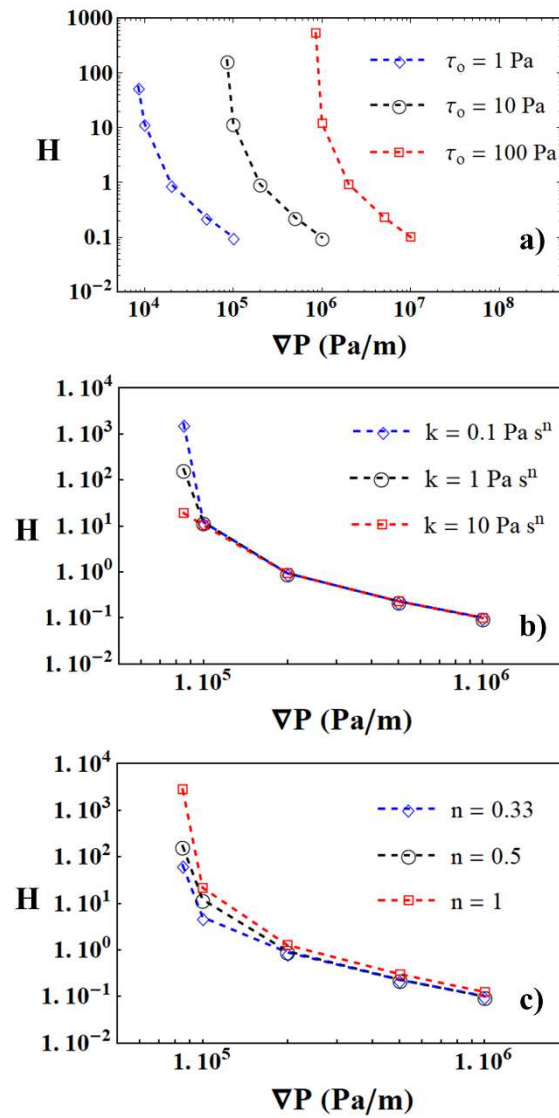
485 **Figure 7.** Relationships between Hydraulic tortuosity and yield index for the different porous
 486 media during the injection of the standard fluid ($\tau_0 = 10$ Pa, $k = 1$ Pa sⁿ and $n = 0.5$). The
 487 continuous lines represent the constant hydraulic tortuosity T_N for Newtonian flow in each
 488 case, while dashed lines correspond to the flow of the yield stress fluids. (a) Berea sandstone.
 489 (b) Effects of grain size by comparing DMS (small) and DML (large). (c) Effects of
 490 polydispersity in ordered porous media by comparing OML (monodisperse) and OP
 491 (polydisperse). (d) Effects of polydispersity in disordered porous media by comparing DML

492 (monodisperse) and DP (polydisperse). (e) Effects of disorder in monodisperse porous media
 493 by comparing OML (ordered) and DML (disordered). (f) Effects of disorder in polydisperse
 494 porous media by comparing OP (ordered) and DP (disordered).

495

496 **3.1.4. Effect of Herschel-Bulkley parameters on the yielding behaviour and the**
 497 **tortuosity of the streamlines**

498



499

500 **Figure 8.** Relationships between H and ∇P for the different Herschel-Bulkley fluids (Table 3)
501 injected through DP. (a) represents the dependence on τ_0 , (b) the dependence on k and (c)
502 dependence on n .

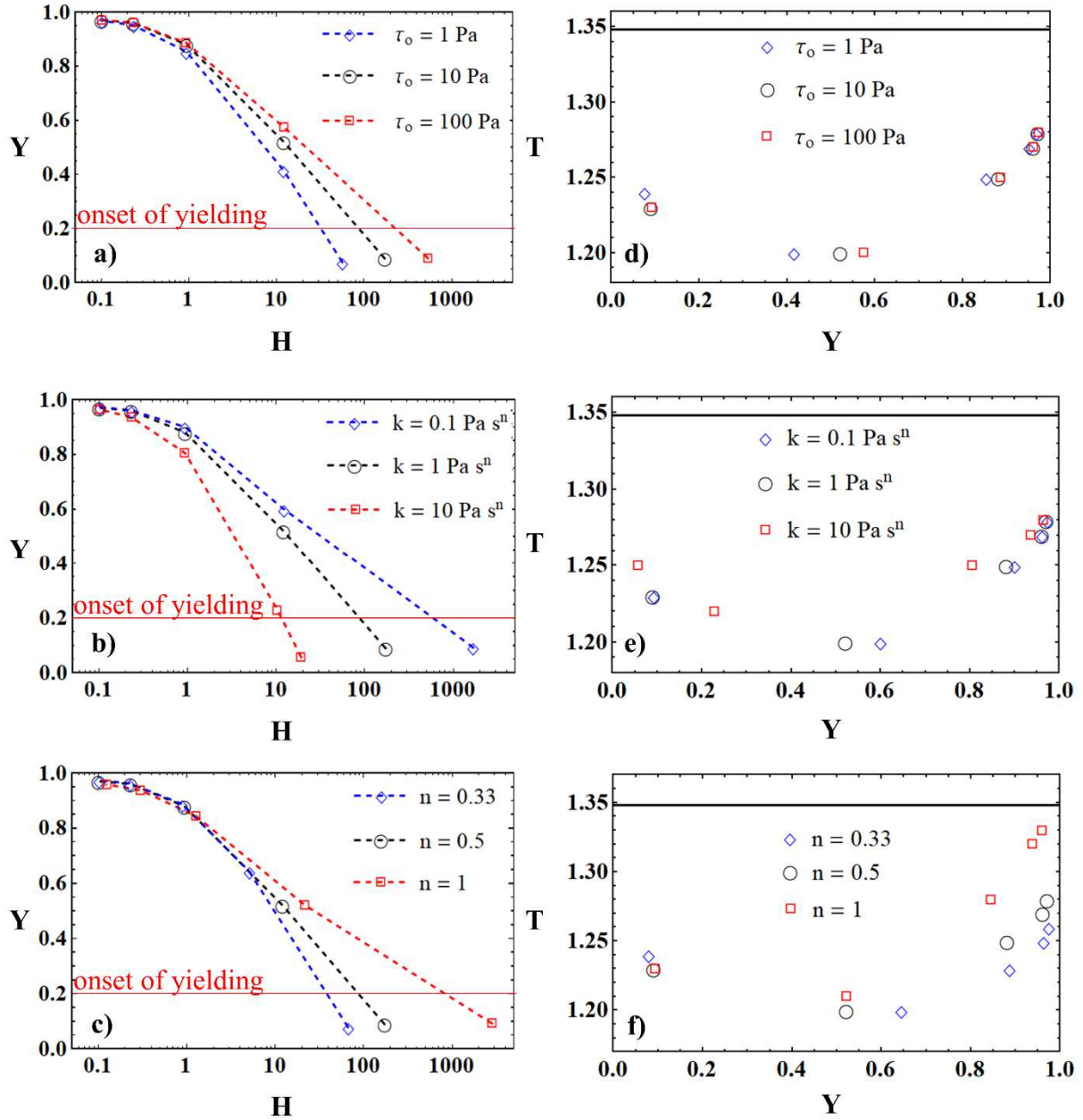
503

504 In an effort to elucidate the individual effects of τ_0 , k and n on the investigated relationships,
505 the results of the set of flow simulations using different fluids (Table 3) are represented in
506 Figures 8 and 9. All fluids were injected through the same porous medium, DP. As reported
507 in Figure 8, H monotonically decreases with ∇P in all cases, as expected from Eqs. (6–8).
508 More precisely, one can note that higher values of τ_0 consistently lead to higher values of H
509 for a given pressure gradient. On the contrary, the effect of k is significant only for the lowest
510 pressure gradients. This is because higher values of k lead to higher values of μ_{app} under a
511 given pressure gradient, leading, in turn, to smaller values of $\dot{\gamma}_{app}$. Consequently, the
512 denominator of Eq.(8) remains roughly constant and the value of H is almost unaffected.
513 Analogously, the fluidity index n has a growing influence on H as the pressure gradient
514 decreases, which can be explained by employing a similar reasoning.

515

516 It is observed in Figure 9a that the effect of the value of τ_0 on the dependence of Y on H is
517 only significant for $H > 1$, e.g., at the lowest pressure gradients for which the fluid has still
518 not yielded in many pores. Moreover, the onset of yielding (taken as $Y = 0.2$) occurs at
519 higher values of H when τ_0 is increased, and the intermediate values of Y span over a wider
520 range of H . Indeed, in the presence of a yield stress, progressive yielding occurs between a
521 minimum pressure gradient $\nabla P_{min} = 2\tau_0/h_{max}$ and a maximum pressure gradient $\nabla P_{max} =$
522 $2\tau_0/h_{min}$, with h_{max} and h_{min} being characteristic sizes of the largest and the smallest
523 constrictions in the medium. Therefore, the range between ∇P_{min} and ∇P_{max} is proportional to
524 the value of τ_0 . This results in wider ranges of H as the value of τ_0 increases, in qualitative

525 agreement with the results displayed in Figure 9a. Also, it can be deduced from Figure 9b that
526 the value of H corresponding to a given value of Y becomes lower as k increases, with the
527 intermediate stages of yielding spanning over a narrower range of H . In this regard, it can be
528 noted that despite ∇P_{\min} and ∇P_{\max} being unaffected by k , the value of the average shear
529 viscosity $\bar{\mu}$ (Eq. 3) under a given pressure gradient is higher as k increases, resulting in lower
530 values of Y . In contrast, lower values of n increase the shear-thinning behaviour of the fluid,
531 leading to lower values of $\bar{\mu}$ and higher values of Y for a given H , as depicted in Figure 9c.
532



533

534 **Figure 9.** Relationships between Y and H (a, b,c) and between T and Y (d, e, f) for the
 535 different Herschel-Bulkley fluids (Table 3) injected through DP. (a,d) represent the
 536 dependence on τ_0 , (b,e) the dependence on k and (c,f) dependence on n. The continuous
 537 black lines in figures (d), (e) and (f) represent the constant hydraulic tortuosity T_N for
 538 Newtonian flow. The onset of yielding according to the criterium $Y = 0.2$ is represented by a
 539 continuous red line in figures (a), (b) and (c).

540

541 The relationships between T and Y for the different combinations of Herschel-Bulkley
542 parameters are also displayed in Figure 9. A remarkable feature that can be deduced from
543 these results is the lower hydraulic tortuosity of Herschel-Bulkley flow as compared to
544 Newtonian flows, whatever the values of τ_0 , k and n. Moreover, n is shown to be the only
545 Herschel-Bulkley parameter that significantly affects the T vs. Y relationship, which stems
546 from the stronger channelling effect exhibited by shear-thinning fluids of low fluidity index.
547 Also, the increase in hydraulic tortuosity at the lowest values of Y is very similar for all the
548 considered fluids.

549

550 **4. Discussion**

551

552 In their investigation using non-yielding shear-thinning fluids, Zhang et al. (2019) reported an
553 increase in T with increasing ∇P at the highest values of the pressure gradient. This effect
554 was attributed to the value of the high shear plateau viscosity μ_∞ exhibited by the fluids
555 investigated in that work (Cross power-law fluids) and also to the important inertial pressure
556 drops. Based on this work, and since neither μ_∞ nor the inertial pressure drops are considered
557 in the present numerical experiments, one may expect no increase in T at the highest values
558 of ∇P (associated to the highest values of Y). However, the opposite effect was proven in the
559 present study, showing that T does increase at the highest values of Y (as shown in figures 7
560 and 9). As mentioned above, this is a direct implication of the decreasing intensity of
561 channelling effect as a greater number of paths open to the flow of the yield stress fluid when
562 the pressure gradient is increased.

563

564 It must be mentioned that, in the case of Direct Numerical Simulations (DNS), the governing
565 equations are solved on the actual pore space geometry obtained through an imaging

566 technique, such as X-ray microtomography. In contrast, only a simplified representation of
567 the complex geometry of the pore space is used in Pore Network Modeling (PNM), usually
568 consisting of a network of spherical pore bodies connected by cylindrical pore throats in
569 which most pressure loss is generated. This important simplification makes PNM highly
570 efficient from a computational point of view, especially when compared to more fundamental
571 DNS, which are computationally expensive. Nevertheless, this geometric simplification also
572 leads to secondary simplifications in the flow and transport physics, which result in a loss of
573 predictive accuracy (Mehmani and Tchelepi, 2016; Xiong et al., 2016). Several authors
574 studied the flow of shear-thinning fluid with and without yield stress in the past using
575 mechanistic PNM (Sahimi, 1993; Tsakiroglou, 2002, Perrin et al., 2006; Sochi and Blunt,
576 2008; Balhoff et al., 2012), achieving a significant reduction in the computation times as
577 compared to DNS. However, experimental validation of PNM results is still a challenge,
578 particularly in the case of yield stress fluids (Sochi and Blunt, 2008). The discrepancies
579 existing between PNM predictions and experimental datasets may be explained by the
580 physical effects that have still not been modelled, such as precipitation and adsorption.

581

582 The Representative Elementary Volume (REV) of the analyzed porous media for the
583 macroscopic quantities Y and T investigated in the present work was assumed to be smaller
584 than the size of the computational domains used in the numerical simulations. In order to
585 assess the validity of this assumption, the values of T and Y were computed for the same
586 pressure gradient in 4 subregions of the DML and DP media having, respectively, 50%, 66%,
587 75% and 85% of the original size, and situated in the central part of the micromodels. From
588 this analysis, it was concluded that only slight variation in the values of T and Y ($\sim 10\%$ for
589 Y and $\sim 1\%$ for T) occurred above 75% of the original size. Moreover, it should be noted that
590 other authors (Lasseux et al., 2011) performed numerical simulations using 2D porous media

591 of similar characteristics, reporting that a matrix of more than 10×10 solid elements was
592 representative for the calculation the macroscopic quantities (20×10 solid elements were
593 used here). Also, the concept of REV and its determination from X-ray microtomography
594 images were analyzed by Al-Raoush and Papadopoulos (2010).

595

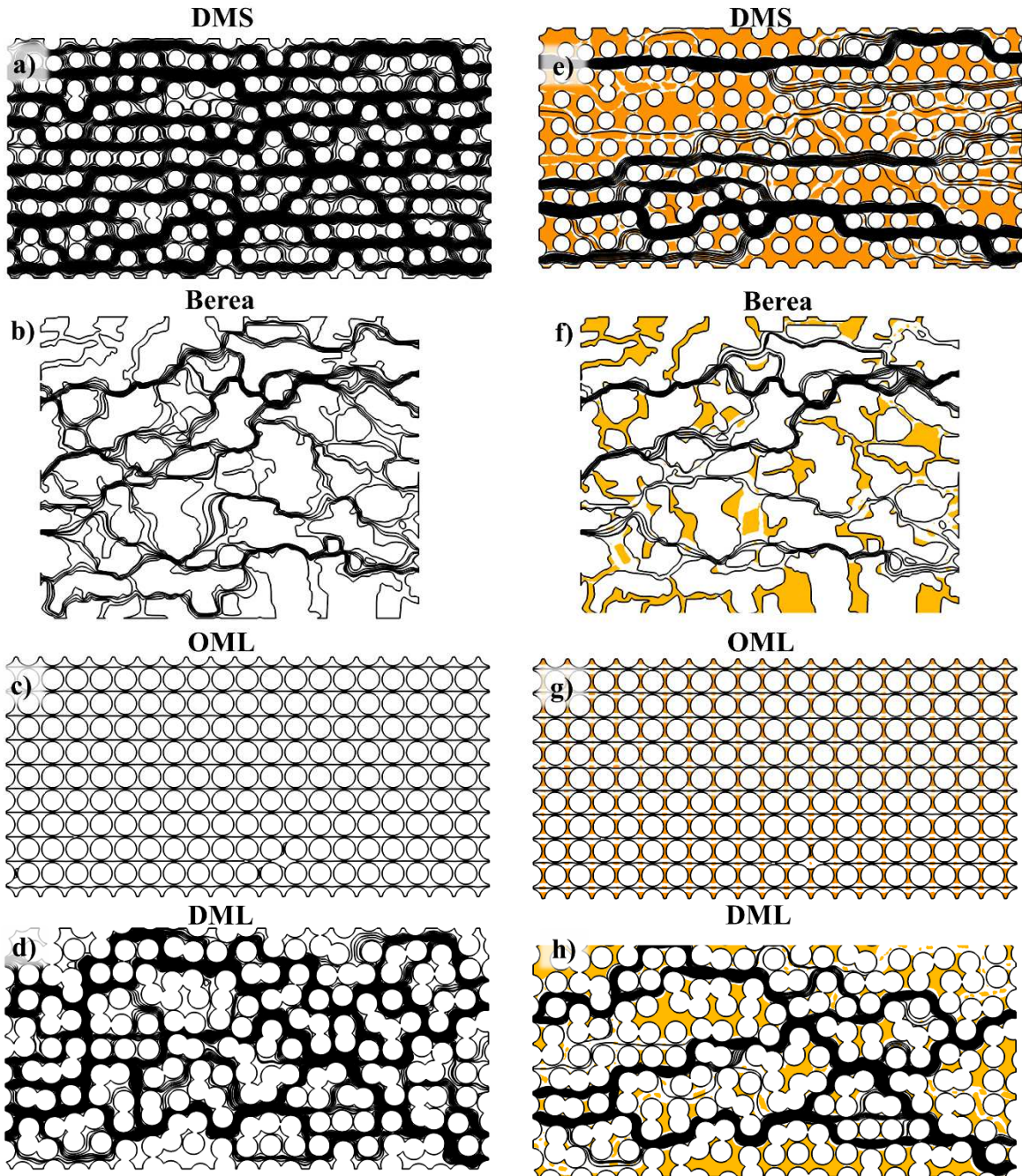
596 Proper characterization of the Pore Size Distribution (PSD) of porous media is crucial in
597 many industrial applications, e.g. separation processes, food industry, in situ remediation of
598 contaminated soils, transport of landfill leachates, oil and gas industry, CO₂ sequestration,
599 transport of seawater through underground aquifers or geothermal energy generation.
600 Nowadays, the “gold standard” technique to characterize the PSD of porous materials is
601 Mercury Intrusion Porosimetry (MIP), which presents well-known shortcomings, especially
602 the environmental problems and health concerns arising from the use of toxic mercury as well
603 as the severe restrictions on its use. As a safe alternative, the Yield Stress fluids Method
604 (YSM) consists in computing the PSD of a given material from the pressure drop vs. flow
605 rate measurements during injection of a given yield stress fluid. When defining the pore size
606 class h_0 that opens to the flow of the yield stress fluid under a pressure drop ΔP_0 , the
607 algorithm of YSM technique (Rodríguez de Castro et al., 2014; 2016; 2018) assumes that the
608 pores are straight and horizontal, with a length L equal to the length of the bundle. In
609 contrast, the length of a real streamline with hydraulic tortuosity T is $L_e = T \times L$, and the
610 depth of the tortuous channel opening to the flow under the same pressure drop ΔP_0 is $h_0^* =$
611 $h_0 T$. Therefore, including the dependence of T on flow rate is expected to improve the
612 accuracy of the PSDs provided by Yield Stress fluids porosimetry Method (YSM). In order to
613 illustrate the preceding aspect, the intricateness of the streamlines obtained in the case of the
614 present simulations is shown in Figure 10, confirming the existence of stagnant zones and

615 questioning the assumption of straight streamlines used in YSM for all tested media apart
616 from OML.

617

618 Given that the investigated media were 2D sections of 3D structures, comparison against
619 experiments was not possible. However, microfluidic experiments in which a transparent
620 yield stress fluid is displaced by a dyed one, similar to those performed by Auradou et al.
621 (2008) in a rough fracture, may be an appropriate means to obtain experimental
622 measurements of T which can be compared to the present numerical results

623



624

625 **Figure 10.** Examples of streamlines for the flow a Newtonian fluid (a–d) and the yield stress

626 fluid (e – h) through different porous media. The corresponding values of Y are: (e) $Y = 0.48$,

627 (f) $Y = 0.57$, (g) $Y = 0.63$, (h) $Y = 0.65$.

628

629 5. Conclusions and prospects

630

631 A key finding of the current work is the lower hydraulic tortuosity of yield stress fluid flow
632 as compared to Newtonian fluid flow in porous media, due to the directional nature of
633 yielding. Only the ordered porous medium is an exception to such a conclusion, which is
634 explained by the straightness of the streamlines for all the tested fluids. Moreover, tortuosity
635 has been shown to increase with increasing Y once the size of the stagnant region is reduced
636 ($Y > 0.4$ in the present experiments) and the impact of channelling is mitigated. Also, an
637 increase in tortuosity is observed at the lowest pressure gradients in the presence of the
638 viscosity limit μ_{\max} imposed during the numerical simulations. Attention must be drawn to
639 the strong effect of the size distribution of pore throats on the variation of tortuosity at
640 different yielding stages, which is a consequence of the influence of this microscopic
641 characteristic on the diversity of preferential flow paths. Among the Herschel-Bulkley
642 parameters, only the fluidity index has been observed to affect the tortuosity of the flow for a
643 given level of yielding.

644

645 The dependence of the level of yielding has also been assessed as a function of the value of
646 Herschel-Bulkley number H for the different micromodel-fluid combinations, and the
647 following conclusions have been drawn:

648 - The level of yielding achieved at a given value of H depends on the structure of the porous
649 medium.

650 - Yielding occurs over a wider range of H in the micromodel with smaller pores.

651 - Disorder plays a significant role in the relationship between yielding level and H only in the
652 cases in which the size distribution of the solid grains is monodisperse.

653 - The influence of polydispersity on yielding behaviour is stronger in ordered media.

654 - The value of the yield stress strongly affects the range and values of H over which yielding
655 occurs. Besides, high consistency and low fluidity indexes result in a decrease in the values
656 of H covering such transition.

657

658 The conclusions of the present work can be used to significantly improve the accuracy of the
659 models used for predicting pressure drops, local pore velocities and stagnant region size in
660 yield stress fluid flows through porous media., by considering hydraulic tortuosity
661 dependence on injection flow rate. Such detailed modelling is most valuable in a great
662 number of industrial applications, e.g., in situ remediation of contaminated groundwater,
663 filtration of polymeric liquids or liquid food engineering. The present study was carried out
664 considering two-dimensional (2D) ordered and disordered model porous structures (Figure
665 1), with different grain sizes and shapes. Since the objective was to examine the relationships
666 between H , T and the rheological parameters, 2D configurations extracted from a 3D
667 structure were used. This was further motivated by the fact that accurate numerical
668 simulations are more tractable, and their results can be more easily and more clearly
669 interpreted in the 2D case. Moreover, a thorough analysis of 2D and three-dimensional (3D)
670 flows of yield stress fluids in porous media (Talon and Bauer, 2013; Bauer et al.; 2019)
671 showed that the same flow regimes are observed in both cases.

672

673 Nevertheless, additional research and experiments are required in order to extend these
674 results to the flow of yield stress fluids through 3D porous media. The main stumbling block
675 to achieve this goal is the considerable computational power required to compute the pressure
676 and velocity maps in the 3D case. In this regard, recent developments in pore-network
677 modelling are expected to provide an effective alternative to direct numerical simulations in
678 future studies. Also, given that the investigated media were 2D sections of 3D structures,

679 comparison against experiments was not possible. However, microfluidic experiments in
680 which a transparent yield stress fluid is displaced by a dyed one, similar to those performed
681 by Auradou et al. (2008) in a rough fracture, may be an appropriate means to obtain
682 experimental measurements of T which can be compared to the present numerical results

683

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