

1 **Pore network model predictions of Darcy-scale**
2 **multiphase flow heterogeneity validated by experiments**

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7 **Key Points:**

- 8 • Pore network models extracted from X-ray micro-computed tomography scans can
9 predict capillary heterogeneity in subdomains of core samples.
- 10 • Darcy-scale simulation results, parameterized with pore network model output,
11 agree well with independent experimental measurements.
- 12 • A digital rocks approach is presented for multiphase characterization that requires
13 no experimental calibration.

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14 **Abstract**

15 Small-scale heterogeneities in multiphase flow properties fundamentally control the flow
16 of fluids from very small to very large scales in geologic systems. Inability to character-
17 ize these heterogeneities often limits numerical model descriptions and predictions of mul-
18 tiphase flow across scales. In this study, we evaluate the ability of pore network mod-
19 els (PNM) to characterize multiphase flow heterogeneity at the millimeter scale using
20 X-ray micro-computed tomography images of centimeter-scale rock cores. Specifically,
21 pore network model capillary pressure and relative permeability output is used to pop-
22 ulate a Darcy-scale numerical model of the rock cores. These pore-network-derived Darcy-
23 scale simulations lead to accurate predictions of core-average relative permeability, and
24 water saturation, as validated by independent experimental datasets from the same cores
25 and robust uncertainty analysis. Results highlight that heterogeneity in capillary pres-
26 sure characteristics are more important for predicting local and upscaled flow behavior
27 than heterogeneity in permeability or relative permeability. The leading uncertainty in
28 core-average relative permeability is driven not by the image processing or PNM extrac-
29 tion, but rather by ambiguity in capillary pressure boundary condition definition in the
30 Darcy scale simulator. This workflow enables characterization of local capillary hetero-
31 geneity and core-averaged multiphase flow properties while circumventing the need for
32 the most complex experimental observations conventionally required to obtain these prop-
33 erties.

34 **1 Keywords**

35 digital rock physics, pore network model, capillary heterogeneity, X-ray computed
36 tomography, multiphase flow, simulation

37 **2 Plain Language Summary**

38 To understand how fluids flow in subsurface rocks it is often necessary to perform
39 laborious and expensive experiments aimed at replicating the subsurface pressure and
40 temperature conditions. In this study, we propose and test a new modeling-based ap-
41 proach using high-resolution images capable of describing the structure and pore space
42 of the rock at a resolution ten times smaller than the width of a typical human hair. We
43 show that with these high-resolution images, along with a few routine rock property mea-
44 surements, it is possible to predict the distribution of fluids in the rocks at range of sub-

45 surface fluid flow conditions. This digital, or experiment-free, approach has the poten-
46 tial to redefine how we parameterize larger-scale models of problems such as contami-
47 nant flow in aquifers or carbon dioxide migration and trapping in carbon capture and
48 storage reservoirs.

49 **3 Introduction**

50 Multiscale heterogeneity, intrinsic to permeable geologic media, dictates single and
51 multiphase fluid flow across a range of applications in hydrogeology and subsurface en-
52 ergy resource development (P. S. Ringrose et al., 1993; Fehley et al., 2000; Kang et al.,
53 2017; Reynolds et al., 2018; Cowton et al., 2018). The reservoir-scale impacts of hetero-
54 geneous features below the resolution of typical reservoir model grid blocks lead to ma-
55 jor challenges in predicting and history matching CO₂ storage and non-aqueous phase
56 liquid migration in the subsurface (P. Ringrose et al., 2009; V. Singh et al., 2010; Eiken
57 et al., 2011). Inability to characterize multiscale heterogeneity limits the predictive abil-
58 ity of existing digital rock approaches (Guice et al., 2014).

59 Advances in high-resolution X-ray micro-computed tomography (micro-CT) have
60 enabled new methods for quantifying single and multiphase fluid flow at the pore scale.
61 Micro-CT has been a valuable tool for experimental characterization of pore space ge-
62 ometry, (Lin et al., 2016) mineralogy (Lai et al., 2015; Menke et al., 2015; Beckingham
63 et al., 2017; Al-Khulaifi et al., 2019), wettability (Iglauer et al., 2012; Bartels et al., 2019;
64 Lin et al., 2019), residual trapping (Herring et al., 2013; Chaudhary et al., 2013; Al-Menhali
65 & Krevor, 2016; Øren et al., 2019), and curvature-based capillary pressure (Armstrong
66 et al., 2012; Herring et al., 2017; Garing et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2018; T. Li et al., 2018).
67 Increased availability of affordable high-power computational and data management re-
68 sources have enabled micro-CT imaging to increasingly be used to image centimeter-scale
69 samples with voxel resolutions less than 10 micrometers (Lin et al., 2018; Jackson et al.,
70 2019; Øren et al., 2019).

71 Models to describe fluid flow at the pore scale can be roughly categorized as di-
72 rect simulation methods and pore network methods. In direct simulation methods, the
73 Navier-Stokes equations are solved on a grid defined by the pore structure of the sam-
74 ple using approaches such as volume-of-fluid, level-sets, or Lattice-Boltzmann methods
75 (Raeini et al., 2015). Alternatively, pore network models (PNM) approximate the pore-

76 space as a construction of optimal shapes—such as balls and tubes—and use continuum
77 solutions of the Navier-Stokes equation to describe fluid flow. By using Navier-Stokes
78 continuum approximations of fluid flow in the pore space, pore network models are able
79 to achieve orders of magnitude faster computational times than direct simulation meth-
80 ods (Raeini et al., 2015; Bultreys et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2019), and therefore have the
81 potential to run centimeter-scale sample domains. Pore network models have been used
82 to study an array of processes in porous media such as solute and reactive transport (Bijeljic
83 et al., 2004; Mehmani & Tchelepi, 2017), multiphase displacement behavior (Chen & Wilkin-
84 son, 1985; Lenormand et al., 1988; Idowu & Blunt, 2010; J. Li et al., 2017), diffusion-
85 driven transport (De Chalendar et al., 2018), capillary pressure characteristic behavior
86 (Bakke & Øren, 1997; Vogel et al., 2005; Silin & Patzek, 2006; Hussain et al., 2014), and
87 relative permeability (M. Blunt & King, 1991; Jerauld & Salter, 1990; M. J. Blunt, 1997;
88 Rajaram et al., 1997; Nguyen et al., 2006; Sheng & Thompson, 2016; Berg et al., 2016).
89 However, computation and experimental complexity has limited multiphase PNM test-
90 ing and validation to synthetic models (Hilpert & Miller, 2001), millimeter-scale exper-
91 imental samples, or partial sample analysis (Guice et al., 2014). As a result, the abil-
92 ity for pore network models to describe and predict Darcy-scale multiphase flow hetero-
93 geneity has not yet been tested or validated against experimental measurements in centimeter-
94 scale cores.

95 One of the biggest challenges with modeling natural systems at any scale is the un-
96 certainty that arises from measurements, characterization, and mathematical descrip-
97 tions of complex systems (Pianosi et al., 2016). When using pore network modeling to
98 describe fluid flow in porous media, uncertainty arises in experimental observations (Bultreys
99 et al., 2018), image resolution and processing (Arns et al., 2001; Wildenschild & Shep-
100 pard, 2013; Leu et al., 2014; Berg et al., 2018; A. Singh et al., 2018), network extraction
101 and descriptions (Joekar-Niasar et al., 2010; Dong & Blunt, 2009; Lindquist et al., 2004;
102 Jiang et al., 2007; Mehmani & Tchelepi, 2017), and flow modeling or characteristic curve
103 development (Silin & Patzek, 2006). Current methods to characterize multiscale mul-
104 tiphase heterogeneity in geologic systems are often nonunique, expensive, laborious, and
105 require restricting assumptions (Reynolds & Krevor, 2015; Zahasky & Benson, 2018).
106 The resulting experimental and modeling uncertainty has often restricted workflows to
107 tuning pore network or continuum scale models to experimental results, thus limiting
108 their predictive ability.

109 In this study, we describe an approach for building heterogeneous multiphase Darcy-
110 scale models of centimeter-scale cores utilizing pore network model predictions of char-
111 acteristic curves in representative elementary volume (REV) subdomains. The approach
112 of using pore network models to characterize heterogeneity in REV subdomains, rather
113 than entire samples, is intrinsically parallelizable and scalable to larger sample sizes. Un-
114 certainty analysis is used to demonstrate that the capillary heterogeneity is greater than
115 the uncertainty in pore network model capillary entry pressure that arises from varia-
116 tions in image processing. This approach utilizes only published contact angle and in-
117 terfacial tension data, mercury injection capillary pressure (MICP) curves, and dry micro-
118 CT scans for pore network model (PNM) extraction and flow. Comparing Darcy-scale
119 fluid saturation results of this hybrid modeling approach with experimentally measured
120 fluid saturations during multiphase drainage experiments in the same cores provides an
121 independent means to test the predictive ability of the pore network models to describe
122 Darcy-scale flow heterogeneity. This approach, combined with robust sensitivity anal-
123 ysis, provides a foundation for future multiscale, multiphase characterization of geologic
124 porous media without the need for the most laborious and expensive components of tra-
125 ditional multiphase flow characterization.

126 4 Methods

127 4.1 Overview

128 The key data required to build and test the workflow in this study—summarized
129 in Figure 1—are high resolution X-ray micro-computed tomography images of two dif-
130 ferent core samples acquired by Jackson et al. (2019) (Section 4.2). Dry scans are used
131 to describe the pore-scale geometry of centimeter-scale Bentheimer sandstone cores (*Dry*
132 *Scan* plot in Figure 1). Bentheimer was selected for this study because of its stability
133 and large pore size. One sample had subtle heterogeneity, while the other sample had
134 clear sedimentary laminations oriented obliquely to the axis of the core.

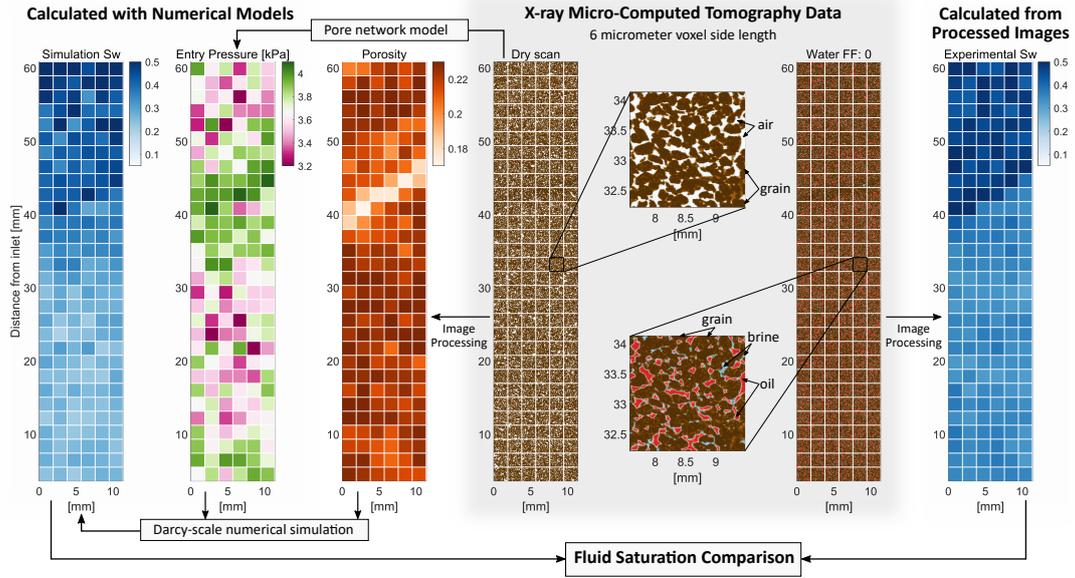
135 The first step in the workflow was to discretize the dry scan images into represen-
136 tative elementary volume (REV) sized subdomains and segment the subdomain images
137 to calculate Darcy-scale porosity (*Porosity* plot in Figure 1) (Section 4.4.3). This dis-
138 cretization enabled unlimited parallelization of the proposed workflow in this study and
139 reduced the computational burden of working with large datasets. The dry micro-CT

140 image sizes of the full samples used in this study were over 60 GB each. Segmented sub-
141 domain blocks from the dry scan were run through a pore network model to estimate
142 capillary entry pressure (*Entry Pressure* plot in Figure 1) and relative permeability. The
143 PNM-derived capillary pressure curves are used to define the local capillary entry pres-
144 sure. These entry pressure values are then used to locally scale the mercury injection cap-
145 illary pressure curve. This enables capillary pressure to be characterized in sub-resolution
146 pores in the sample. The resulting capillary pressure curve, porosity, and PNM-derived
147 relative permeability curves in each subdomain were then used to parameterize each grid
148 cell of a Darcy-scale numerical model.

149 To assess the validity of pore network model multiphase characteristic curve pre-
150 dictions, fluid saturation simulation output from the Darcy-scale model (*Simulation S_w*
151 in Figure 1) is compared with experimentally measured fluid saturations at equivalent
152 flow rate conditions (Section 4.5). Micro-CT scans at a range of fraction flow conditions
153 (*Water FF:0* example shown in Figure 1) are used to calculate local Darcy-scale fluid
154 saturations in discrete subdomains of the cores (*Experimental S_w* plot in Figure 1). This
155 independent comparison between experimentally measured water saturation, and numer-
156 ically simulated water saturation in equivalent subdomains provides a means to evalu-
157 ate the predictive ability of uncalibrated pore network models to describe Darcy-scale
158 multiphase flow behavior.

167 4.2 Core Samples and Experiment Description

168 Two Bentheimer cores were utilized in this study. The first, a relatively homoge-
169 neous core (hereafter referred to as Core 1), was 1.24 cm in diameter and 7.32 cm long.
170 A second core was selected because it had clear sedimentary lamination, providing the
171 opportunity to study layered heterogeneities (hereafter referred to as Core 2). Core 2
172 was 1.24 cm in diameter and 6.47 cm long. The micro-CT image acquisition and mul-
173 tiphase flow experiments are described in detail in Jackson et al. (2019). Briefly, the cores
174 were first loaded into a custom fabricated PEEK coreholder with stainless steel end caps.
175 A Zeiss Versa 510 CT scanner was used to acquire dry scans of nearly the entire volume
176 of each core with 6 μm cubic voxel side length. Imaging artifacts arising from the stain-
177 less steel coreholder end caps limited the scan length of the Core 1 to 6.48 cm and the
178 scan length of Core 2 to 5.69 cm. To acquire micro-CT datasets 6.48 and 5.69 cm in to-
179 tal length, 12 and 10 separate scans were taken in the Core 1 and 2, respectively. Fol-



159 **Figure 1.** A methodological overview and illustration of the data set for Core 2 utilized in
 160 this study. The gray shaded region highlights center-slice micro-CT scans along the axis of the
 161 core during dry and drainage multiphase flow at a water fractional flow equal to zero. To the
 162 left of the micro-CT data is the resulting Darcy-scale porosity (from image processing), capillary
 163 entry pressure (from PNM), and simulated water saturation (S_w). To the right of the micro-CT
 164 data is the Darcy-scale water saturation calculated from image processing of the multiphase
 165 micro-CT data at the same water fraction flow. In the experiments and models fluid is injected
 166 from bottom to top.

180 lowing the completion of dry scans, the cores were saturated with doped brine (3.5 weight
181 percent potassium iodide) such that the drainage experiments started at fully water sat-
182 urated conditions ($S_w = 1$). The core-averaged permeability was measured from mul-
183 tiple single-phase flow rates and found to be 1635 mD and 763 mD in Core 1 and 2, re-
184 spectively. Steady-state co-injection of brine and decane was performed at water frac-
185 tional flows (FF) of 0.95 and 0 in Core 1, and 0.95, 0.5, and 0 in Core 2. The fluids were
186 injected from the bottom of the vertically oriented coreholder mounted in the micro-CT
187 scanner. Scan time and data management considerations prevented experimental mea-
188 surements at additional fractional flow increments in Core 1. The total flow rate in all
189 experiments was 0.1 mL/min. Decane was used as the nonwetting phase fluid to min-
190 imize the density contrast with water. In addition, the higher viscosity of decane rela-
191 tive to gaseous nonwetting phases maximizes fluid stability during the multi-hour X-ray
192 micro-CT scans (Reynolds et al., 2017). Once the differential pressure stabilized at each
193 fractional flow, a scan was taken of nearly the entire core with a 6 μm cubic voxel size.

194 **4.3 Full-core Image Reconstruction**

195 Image reconstruction was first performed with the Zeiss reconstruction software to
196 correct for beam-hardening and center-shift artifacts. Following reconstruction, the multi-
197 scan images were re-normalized, registered, merged, and cropped using the workflow de-
198 scribed in detail in Jackson et al. (2019). This workflow produced a raw 16-bit grayscale
199 micro-CT image of each core during the dry and multiphase scans. The final image sizes
200 were $950 \times 950 \times 10,800$ voxels (76.4 GB) and $954 \times 954 \times 9,540$ voxels (64.1 GB) in
201 Core 1 and Core 2, respectively.

202 **4.4 Image Processing and Pore Network Modeling**

203 ***4.4.1 Pore Network Modeling and Network Extraction***

204 An array of pore network extraction and simulation options are available for a grow-
205 ing range of pore-scale applications. In this study the maximal ball method described
206 by Dong and Blunt (2009) is utilized with the free, open-source network extraction al-
207 gorithm (PNextract) developed by Raeini, Bijeljic, and Blunt (2017). As implemented,
208 no assumptions are made about the topology of the network. Features such as coordi-

209 nation number and throat geometry are calculated automatically and have been previ-
 210 ously validated (Dong & Blunt, 2009), the pores are approximated as spheres.

211 The pore network model simulations were run using the approach of Valvatne and
 212 Blunt (2004) with the updated algorithm (PNflow) described in Raeini, Bijeljic, and Blunt
 213 (2018) and further validated by Bultreys et al. (2018) and Raeini et al. (2019). This model
 214 relies on an assumption of quasi-static capillary dominated flow. Capillary pressure dur-
 215 ing drainage is based on fluid interface force balances using the Mayer-Stowe-Princen method
 216 (Mason & Morrow, 1991). See references for additional details of model extraction and
 217 formulation. Details of parameter settings can be found in examples given in the data
 218 repository referenced in the Acknowledgements.

219 *4.4.2 Impact of Image Processing Uncertainty on Pore Network Model* 220 *Output*

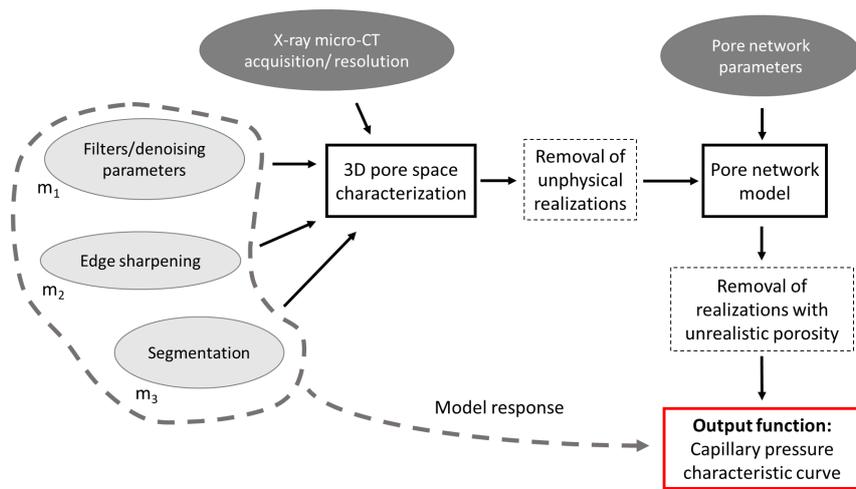
221 To establish a pore network modeling workflow that is as insulated from user sub-
 222 jectivity as possible, a robust image processing uncertainty analysis was performed on
 223 a subdomain ($333 \times 333 \times 333$ voxels = $2 \times 2 \times 2$ mm) of Core 1. The main sources of
 224 uncertainty can be categorized as image acquisition, image processing, pore network ex-
 225 traction, and pore network simulation parameterization. The output function used to
 226 evaluate uncertainty was the pore network model drainage capillary pressure curve. Ini-
 227 tial screening sensitivity of various segmentation methods, network extraction input, pore
 228 network simulation variables found that image processing had by far the greatest impact
 229 on this characteristic curve output relative to the other categories tested, and therefore
 230 was the focus of the uncertainty analysis. Different acquisition settings were not tested
 231 as these will be highly dependent on different micro-CT scanner hardware. While con-
 232 tact angle and interfacial tension are very important parameters in the network model
 233 simulation, these properties were well constrained from previous experimental studies
 234 with similar rock-fluid pairs (Lin et al., 2018; Jackson et al., 2019). For other rock-fluid
 235 pairs, there are extensive contact angle and interfacial tension datasets available in lit-
 236 erature (e.g. Kazakov et al. (2012); Ethington (1990); Espinoza and Santamarina (2010)),
 237 however this is an active area of research.

238 The three main steps in a typical image processing workflow are filtering/denoising,
 239 edge sharpening, and segmentation (i.e. the conversion of a grayscale image into a im-

240 age with voxels categorized as air-rock in the dry scan, or water-decane-rock in the mul-
241 tiphase flow scans). The filter methods tested were the Median 3D filter, the Non-local
242 Means Denoising (Buades et al., 2005), and the Gaussian Blur 3D. Realizations either
243 had no edge sharpening or used the Unsharpen Mask ImageJ plugin. The image segmen-
244 tation algorithms tested included the Robust Automatic Threshold (RATS), the Otsu
245 method, Statistical Region Merging, and a global threshold. The massive size of the ex-
246 perimental datasets that needed to be efficiently processed prevented the use of more com-
247 putationally expensive and sophisticated segmentation tools such as Weka or other machine-
248 learning based methods. All image processing was completed in the open-source image
249 analysis/processing software FIJI/ImageJ.

250 To provide a robust analysis and extensive survey of the image processing param-
251 eter space (i.e. the range of reasonable values for each image processing method), an au-
252 tomated routine was written in Matlab to interface with FIJI via MIJ (Sage et al., 2012).
253 A nested sampling routine was used for mapping the image processing input of 1000 pro-
254 cessed image realizations. An Excel sheet with specific parameter input ranges of each
255 method is included in the Supporting Information (SI).

256 Following the segmentation of each realization, an automated post-processing ex-
257 amination was performed to reject unphysical realizations. This examination was per-
258 formed by sampling a small subregion of the image confidently, approximately 50 vox-
259 els by 50 voxels, known to be solid grain. If the segmented image contained any pore space
260 in this subregion then the realization was rejected. The remaining 557 realizations were
261 run through PNextract and PNflow by calling the executables from Matlab. All realiza-
262 tions were run with identical extraction and flow settings. Of the resulting models, 373
263 remained after a final screening that rejected models with an average porosity in the REV-
264 scale subregion outside of the range of 0.17-0.221. This range was chosen based on a core-
265 average medical CT porosity measurement that uses linear scaling of dry and fully wa-
266 ter saturated sample scans for Core 1 (Akin & Kovscek, 2003). This provides an inde-
267 pendent measurement of porosity with medical CT as opposed to thresholding dry micro-
268 CT scans. A schematic overview of the analysis performed is provided in Figure 2. The
269 first slice of seven example segmented realizations are shown in Figure S1 in the SI. The
270 first ten realizations, pore network input and output files, and Matlab scripts for method
271 automation and pore network model interfacing are included in the data repository ref-
272 erenced in the Acknowledgements.



273 **Figure 2.** Schematic overview of image processing uncertainty workflow. Dark ovals indicate
 274 parameters tested with scoping sensitivity studies, the light gray ovals indicate parameters ex-
 275 tensively evaluated by sampling from parameter distribution functions. This workflow was used
 276 to generate 1000 processed and segmented 3D image realizations of a single subvolume of Core
 277 1. After the realization rejection steps, as indicated by dashed rectangular boxes, 373 capillary
 278 pressure curves were produced. Figure S2 in the SI illustrates the capillary pressure and relative
 279 permeability of these 373 models.

280 **4.4.3 Image Processing Workflow**

281 Based on the sensitivity analysis results (provided in Figure S2 in the SI), the im-
282 age processing and pore network modeling workflows written in Matlab were adapted
283 to process the entire datasets for each Bentheimer core. The workflow for the dry micro-
284 CT data was as follows:

- 285 1. Raw normalized, merged, micro-CT images were filtered with the ImageJ Non-
286 local Means Denoising.
- 287 2. Filtered images were segmented into air/rock binary images (e.g. top zoomed im-
288 age in Figure 1). Segmentation was performed with a global threshold in ImageJ
289 chosen such that the porosity at the inlet of the core was equal to the indepen-
290 dent porosity measurement. This segmentation approach often leads to over-segmentation
291 due to the compensation for sub-resolution porosity. As noted in previous stud-
292 ies, this can have dramatic impacts on permeability prediction (Berg et al., 2018),
293 however the sensitivity analysis in this study indicates that this over-segmentation
294 has a limited impact on capillary entry pressure measurement. In this study we
295 used a single measurement of effective porosity at the inlet of the cores taken from
296 medical CT porosity measurements. Medical CT porosity measurements provide
297 effective porosity measurements along the length of the core by performing lin-
298 ear scaling between dry scans and fully saturated scans (Akin & Kavscek, 2003).
299 Analogous independent effective porosity measurements could utilize Helium py-
300 cnometry or other measurement techniques on adjacent samples to the core. In
301 the Bentheimer cores nearly all of the porosity is connected, however in other sam-
302 ples the extent of connected and unconnected porosity may determine the mea-
303 surement technique used to threshold the dry scans.
- 304 3. Segmented images were discretized into separate smaller REV-scale 3D subdomains.
305 The subdomains were $316 \times 316 \times 300$ and $316 \times 316 \times 318$ voxels in Core 1 and
306 2, respectively. This corresponded to an approximately cubic pore network model
307 and Darcy-model grid cell size with a side length equal to 1.896mm ($6\mu\text{m} \times 316$ vox-
308 els). The subdomain sizes are slightly different in the direction parallel to the axis
309 of the core due to the different lengths of the cores. The REV side-length dimen-
310 sions were determined from detailed REV analysis performed by Jackson et al. (2019)
311 and are in agreement with previous Bentheimer REV analysis (Halisch, 2013).

- 312 4. The porosity of the discretized subdomains was calculated by $\phi_i = \varphi_{air,i}/\varphi_{rock,i}$.
 313 Here $\varphi_{air,i}$ is the volume fraction segmented as air, and $\varphi_{rock,i}$ is the volume frac-
 314 tion segmented as rock.
- 315 5. Pore networks were extracted with PNextract from each subdomain segmented
 316 image.
- 317 6. Pore network model flow simulations were run on the extracted subdomains with
 318 PNflow.

319 Using a similar workflow, it was possible to measure local water saturation in the
 320 discretized subdomains for comparison with Darcy-scale model simulation output. The
 321 image processing workflow for the multiphase flow experiments was as follows:

- 322 1. Raw normalized, merged, micro-CT images were filtered with the ImageJ non-local
 323 means filter.
- 324 2. Filtered images were segmented into nonwetting phase/brine+rock binary images
 325 with a global threshold. The segmentation threshold value was determined from
 326 the minimum histogram value between the nonwetting phase (decane) and brine
 327 histogram peaks. This is illustrated in Figure S3 in the Supporting Information.
- 328 3. Segmented images were discretized into smaller subdomains identical in size to the
 329 dry scan discretization.
- 330 4. The water saturation of each subdomain i was calculated by $S_{w,i} = (1 - (\varphi_{nw,i}/\phi_i))$.
 331 Here $\varphi_{nw,i}$ is the volume fraction of nonwetting phase in the subdomain.

332 Water saturation measurement uncertainty was estimated by calculating subdo-
 333 main water saturation on images segmented at thresholds plus and minus 5% of the grayscale
 334 range relative to the histogram minimum established in step 2 (see histogram illustra-
 335 tion in Figure S3 of the SI). Porosity, raw PNM output, and characteristic curve fits for
 336 every subdomain of both rocks are provided in the data repository referenced in the Ac-
 337 knowledgements.

338 4.5 Darcy-Scale Modeling

339 Darcy-scale multiphase simulation was performed with the Computer Modeling Group
 340 (CMG) IMEX commercial reservoir simulator (Computer Modelling Group LTD, 2017).

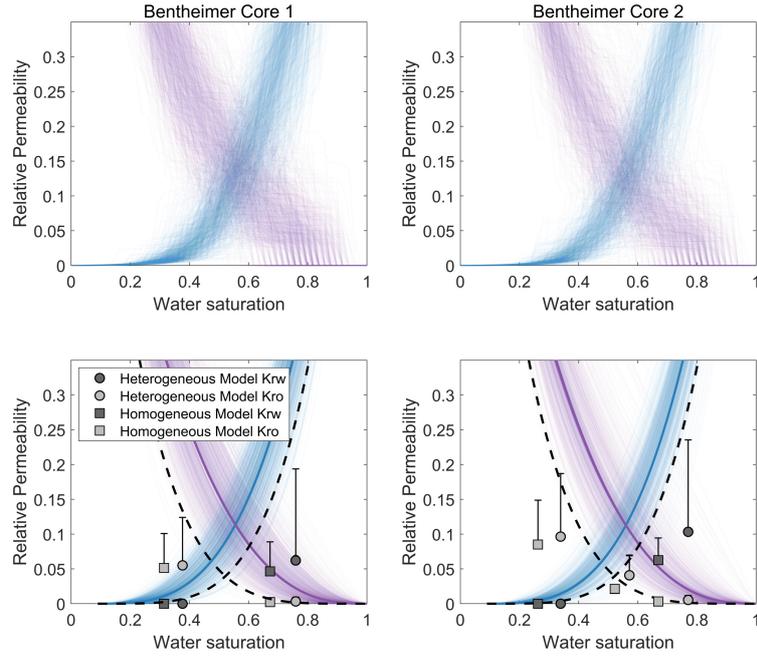
341 The grid cell discretization was set to exactly match the processed image and pore-network
 342 model dimensions (e.g. see saturation maps in Figure 1).

343 Four sets of simulations were run on each core. These were designed to test the rel-
 344 ative importance of including heterogeneity in capillary pressure and relative permeabil-
 345 ity characteristics, as derived from the pore network models. The first set of simulations
 346 utilized a constant set of capillary pressure and relative permeability curves in every grid
 347 cell—excluding the end slices, as described below. These models show the fluid satura-
 348 tion distribution assuming the cores behave as homogeneous porous mediums. The sec-
 349 ond set of simulations used PNM-derived capillary pressure and relative permeability curves
 350 to parameterize the characteristic heterogeneity throughout the cores. These models high-
 351 light the improved match between modeled saturation distribution and the experimen-
 352 tal data when heterogeneity is characterized. The third set of simulations used PNM-
 353 derived capillary pressure and a single relative permeability curve determined from the
 354 mean of the PNM output to parameterize the characteristic heterogeneity throughout
 355 the cores. These models demonstrate the limited influence of relative permeability char-
 356 acterization on fluid saturation distribution. The final set of simulations used the same
 357 heterogeneous characteristic curves but had a constant permeability value of 1000 mD
 358 in both cores, rather than using the experimentally measured permeability of 1635 mD
 359 and 763 mD in Core 1 and 2, respectively. These models emphasize that exact exper-
 360 imental permeability measurements are not necessary to implement the workflow described
 361 here.

362 In the homogeneous simulation models, the relative permeability curves were taken
 363 from previous experimental measurements on large core samples by Jackson et al. (2019)
 364 and Reynolds and Krevor (2015) (dashed black lines in Figure 3). These wetting and non-
 365 wetting phase relative permeability functions from previous work are defined by the mod-
 366 ified Brooks-Corey functions $k_{rw} = ((S_w - S_{wir}) / (1 - S_{wir}))^{4.4}$ and $k_{rnw} = k_{rnw,ir}(1 -$
 367 $(S_w - S_{w,ir}) / (1 - S_{w,ir}))^{4.6}$, respectively. The nonwetting phase relative permeability
 368 at the irreducible water saturation is $k_{rnw,ir} = 0.8$. The irreducible water saturation
 369 is $S_{w,ir} = 0.08$ (Jackson et al., 2019; Reynolds & Krevor, 2015). The homogeneous model
 370 capillary pressure curve was derived from the fluid-scaled MICP curve, represented by
 371 the yellow line shown in Figure 4.

372 In the heterogeneous models of Core 1 and Core 2 pore network model output is
373 used to define the capillary pressure and relative permeability of each grid cell. Based
374 on the uncertainty analysis—and as observed by previous studies—the capillary pres-
375 sure in the smallest pores at low wetting phase saturation has the highest uncertainty
376 (Silin & Patzek, 2006; Berg et al., 2016). The most accurate portion of the pore network
377 model capillary pressure prediction is at high water saturations (i.e. largest features in
378 the micro-CT images). Therefore, the raw pore network model capillary pressure val-
379 ues from $S_w = 0.8$ to $S_w = 0.9$ were used to scale the MICP curve via a linear least
380 squares fitting method implemented in Matlab. The portion of the capillary pressure curve
381 from $S_w = 0.9$ to $S_w = 1$ was not used for fitting because this portion of the curve is
382 dependent on boundary conditions and pore network extraction definition. These bound-
383 ary effects were found to decrease with increasing model/subdomain size, in agreement
384 with previous modeling (Papafotiou et al., 2008; Raeini et al., 2019) and experimental
385 studies (Norton & Knapp, 1977; Zahasky et al., 2018). This approach of scaling the MICP
386 capillary pressure is similar to other approaches that use porosity/permeability/saturation
387 relationships to scale local capillary entry pressure to define capillary heterogeneity (Krevor
388 et al., 2011; Krause, 2012; B. Li & Benson, 2015). The raw and scaled capillary pres-
389 sure curve for every grid cell in Core 2 are shown in Figure 4. The heterogeneous rel-
390 ative permeability curves were defined by modified Brooks-Corey relative permeability
391 curves fit to PNM output. A plot of the raw and fitted PNM relative permeability out-
392 put for every subdomain in both cores is shown in Figure 3.

413 In all models the grid cell porosity was heterogeneous and determined directly from
414 the segmented micro-CT image of the corresponding subdomain (i.e. step 4 of the dry
415 image workflow described above). To parameterize the model inlet and outlet face con-
416 ditions, three inlet slices and three outlet slices were added to the portion of the mod-
417 els defined by the scanned section of the cores. In all models, the first and last slices were
418 set to replicate the experimental coreholder inlet and outlet caps. These had linear rel-
419 ative permeability curves, permeability set an order of magnitude higher than the respec-
420 tive core matrix permeability, and a constant capillary pressure of 0.2 kPa. Results of
421 0 kPa and 3.7 kPa capillary pressure were also tested to illustrate the impact of the cap-
422 illary end effect on the relative permeability uncertainty as shown in Figure 3. A cap-
423 illary pressure of 0.2 kPa was used because this is the theoretical capillary pressure of
424 the tubing entering and exiting the coreholder in the experiments. The tubing outer di-



393 **Figure 3.** Raw pore network model relative permeability curves (top plots) and modified
 394 Brooks-Corey relative permeability functions fit to the raw output (bottom plots). The plots on
 395 the left illustrate the relative permeability in every subdomain in Core 1, while the plots on the
 396 right are for every subdomain in Core 2. The blue lines indicate water relative permeability (k_{rw})
 397 and the purple lines indicate oil relative permeability (k_{ro}). The bold lines in the bottom plots
 398 illustrate the average modified Brooks-Corey relative permeability of all of the PNM output. The
 399 dashed black lines define the modified Brooks-Corey relative permeability in the homogeneous
 400 simulation models and are based on experimental measurements in a number of Bentheimer sam-
 401 ples from previous studies (Jackson et al., 2019; Reynolds & Krevor, 2015). The square points in
 402 the bottom plots indicate core-average relative permeability calculated in the fully homogeneous
 403 CMG simulation model. The circular points in the bottom plots show the core-average relative
 404 permeability calculated from the fully heterogeneous CMG simulation model results. The vertical
 405 error bars on the simulation points illustrates the dominant impact of the boundary conditions on
 406 uncertainty in the estimate of pressure differential. Specifically, the vertical bar above the sym-
 407 bols in Figure show the change in core-average relative permeability when the inlet and outlet
 408 slice capillary pressure is set to 3.7 kPa rather than 0.2 kPa (plotted points). The lower error
 409 bars are smaller than the symbol size indicating that there is little different when the inlet and
 410 outlet capillary pressure is 0 kPa rather than 0.2 kPa. The outlet slice capillary pressure has less
 411 influence on the core-average saturation measurements; the saturation variation is smaller than
 412 the size of the data markers.

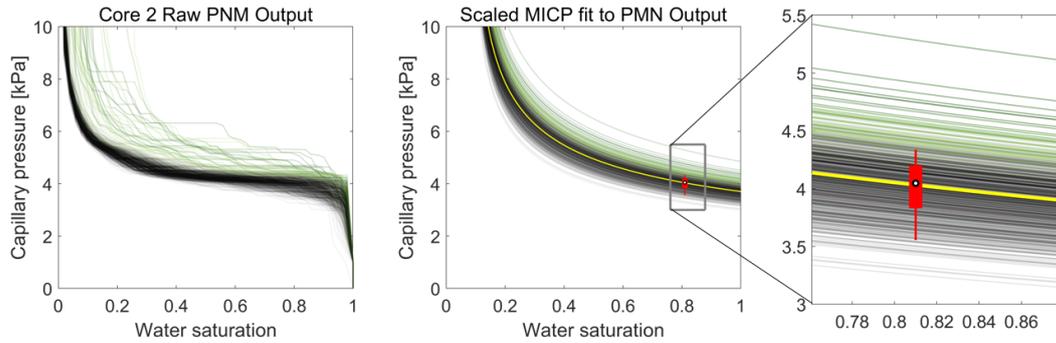
425 ameter was 1.5875 mm and the inner diameter was 0.7938 mm. A capillary pressure of
426 3.7 kPa was chosen as an upper bounds because this is the average capillary entry pres-
427 sure based on MICP analysis. Two additional slices were added to each end of the model
428 to represent the unscanned portion of the core in the experiments. The relative perme-
429 ability and capillary pressure curves in the unscanned slices were set to the average of
430 the first and last model slices in the respective models. The full CMG model input and
431 output files for both of the cores are available in the data repository referenced in the
432 Acknowledgements.

433 5 Results

434 5.1 Pore Network Model Prediction of Capillary Heterogeneity

435 Core 2 was used for capillary heterogeneity analysis because dry image character-
436 ization indicated the presence of a low porosity zone crosscutting the sample near the
437 outlet end of the core. This feature is illustrated in Figure 1 as the low porosity zone in
438 the porosity map plot. The raw and scaled pore network model capillary pressure curves
439 of every subdomain in Core 2 are shown in Figure 4. The capillary pressure curves cor-
440 responding to the low porosity capillary barrier are highlighted in green. The elevated
441 capillary entry pressure predicted in this zone by the PNM is qualitatively confirmed by
442 the experimental saturation measurements (Figure 1 *Experimental S_w* plot). The mea-
443 sured saturation values indicate that this low porosity zone produced a capillary bar-
444 rier that limited the invasion of nonwetting phase relative to the inlet of the core.

445 To confidently predict the capillary heterogeneity in porous media, the heterogene-
446 ity must be greater than the uncertainty in image processing and fluid saturation mea-
447 surements. A comparison between the uncertainty analysis results and the PNM cap-
448 illary heterogeneity is indicated by the red boxplot on the center plot, and zoomed in-
449 set to the right, in Figure 4. This comparison illustrates that the capillary pressure in
450 nearly all the subdomains of the low porosity/capillary barrier zone in Core 2 (green lines)
451 fall well above the bounds of uncertainty. This highlights that one of the key features
452 necessary to predict and accurately simulate multiphase flow—capillary heterogeneity—
453 can be determined with this pore network modeling workflow.



454 **Figure 4.** (left) Example raw capillary pressure curve output (both green and black lines)
 455 from every subdomain of Core 2. (middle) Corresponding capillary pressure curves used for every
 456 grid cell in the CMG model based on scaling the MICP curve (yellow line) based on curve fitting
 457 described in Section 4.5. (right) A zoomed-in plot of the scaled MICP curves. The green lines
 458 highlight the capillary pressure curves corresponding to the low porosity/high entry pressure
 459 zone visible in Figure 1. Specifically, the subdomains with a porosity less than 20% are colored
 460 in green. For reference, the shade of green corresponds to the entry pressure colorbar in Figure
 461 1. The red box plot marks the range of uncertainty arising from the image processing workflow.
 462 The top and bottom of the thin red line indicate the 90th and 10th percentile results, found to
 463 be 3.56 kPa and 4.34 kPa, respectively. The top and bottom of the thick red line indicate the
 464 75th and 25th percentile results, found to be 3.83 kPa and 4.20 kPa, respectively. The dot in the
 465 middle is the median capillary pressure (4.05 kPa) determined from the uncertainty analysis. A
 466 plot showing all of the raw capillary pressure curves used to calculate these statistics is shown in
 467 Figure S2 in the SI.

5.2 Improvement in Darcy-Scale Model When Accounting for Capillary Heterogeneity

A comparison between the experimentally measured water saturation and the water saturation from the CMG models is given for both cores in the right plots in Figure 5. The slice average comparisons include both the results of the CMG simulation with heterogeneous grid cell capillary pressure and relative permeability (bold solid lines), and homogeneous characteristic curves (thin solid lines). The local saturation variation in the experimental data decrease at lower water fractional flow as the impact of subtle differences in capillary forces are suppressed. However, the experimental saturation measurement uncertainty (shaded gray region around dashed lines) increases with decreasing water saturation. This happens because the nonwetting phase interfaces are the main source of segmentation uncertainty. Therefore, the saturation measurement uncertainty increases as the nonwetting phase interfacial area and nonwetting phase saturation increase.

The left plots in Figure 5 provide a direct comparison between micro-CT subdomain saturation and simulated saturations in every grid cell in the heterogeneous models. The scatter in the data is a reflection local differences in saturation between the model and the experimental measurements. This scatter is an accumulation of measurement error, thresholding uncertainty, and local model parameterization error. To more quantitatively compare the results of the CMG model saturation in every grid cell ($S_{w,n}^{sim}$) to the experimental water saturation in the corresponding subdomain ($S_{w,n}^{exp}$), the mean relative saturation error ($\bar{\delta}_{S_w}$) in every subdomain/grid cell (n) and at all fractional flows was calculated with Equation 1.

$$\bar{\delta}_{S_w} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_n \frac{|S_{w,n}^{exp} - S_{w,n}^{sim}|}{S_{w,n}^{exp}} \quad (1)$$

The mean grid cell relative saturation error for the homogeneous Core 1 CMG model at all fractional flows was 0.173 while the heterogeneous model using PNM input was 0.138. In the more heterogeneous Core 2, the homogeneous simulation model relative saturation error was 0.203 while the heterogeneous model was only 0.139. The improved saturation prediction in the heterogeneous models is due to a combination of more accurate local saturation prediction (e.g. the elevated water saturation behind the capillary barrier in Core 2) and the overestimation of nonwetting phase saturation in the homogeneous models in both cores.

490 To further highlight the importance of capillary heterogeneity, Figure 6 compares
491 the results of the fully heterogeneous model shown in Figure 5 with the simulation model
492 that uses the same heterogeneous PNM capillary pressure curves but only a single rel-
493 ative permeability curve. The single relative permeability curve is determined by tak-
494 ing the average of the PNM relative permeability curves in the respective cores (bold col-
495 ored lines in lower plots in Figure 3). The slice-average saturation profiles from the mod-
496 els with homogeneous and heterogeneous relative permeability are nearly indistinguish-
497 able in Figure 6. This highlights that the capillary pressure heterogeneity characteriza-
498 tion is essential in systems where capillary forces dominate over viscous forces. In con-
499 trast, heterogeneity in relative permeability characteristics contribute relatively little.
500 This is likely due to the spatial character of the heterogeneity. In the cores in this study,
501 the heterogeneity in capillary pressure characteristics is structured in layers (e.g. cap-
502 illary entry pressure map in Figure 1) while the heterogeneity in relative permeability
503 is unstructured.

504 Both cores show a capillary end effect, particularly at low fractional flows of wa-
505 ter. The capillary end effect describes the elevated water saturation near the outlet of
506 the cores driven by a capillary pressure discontinuity at outlet face. The end effect is slightly
507 stronger in Core 2 due to the capillary barrier described above. The simulated core-average
508 relative permeability values are shown in Figure 3. As illustrated by the vertical error
509 bars, the core-average relative permeability in the models is strongly influenced by the
510 simulation parameterization approach to account for the capillary end effect. The ver-
511 tical bars in Figure 3 show the change in core-average relative permeability when the in-
512 let and outlet slice capillary pressure is set to 3.7 kPa rather than 0.2 kPa. The core-
513 average relative permeability in the homogeneous model (square points in Figure 3) are
514 lower than the local grid cell input (dashed black lines) at all fractional flow rates be-
515 cause of the capillary end effect reduces the fluid mobility near the outlet of the core,
516 particularly in the unscanned region. Despite the uncertainty in the core-average rela-
517 tive permeability, the PNM subdomain relative permeability predictions are systemat-
518 ically higher than the bulk experimental measurements. The implementation of these
519 subdomain measurements in the heterogeneous models leads to core-average simulation
520 relative permeability values (circular points in Figure 3) that agree better with the pre-
521 vious experimental measurements than the homogeneous model relative permeability val-
522 ues. This is because the aggregate effect of the multiphase heterogeneities is to lower the

523 core-average relative permeability of the fluid phases below that of relative permeabil-
524 ity of any of the individual subdomains.

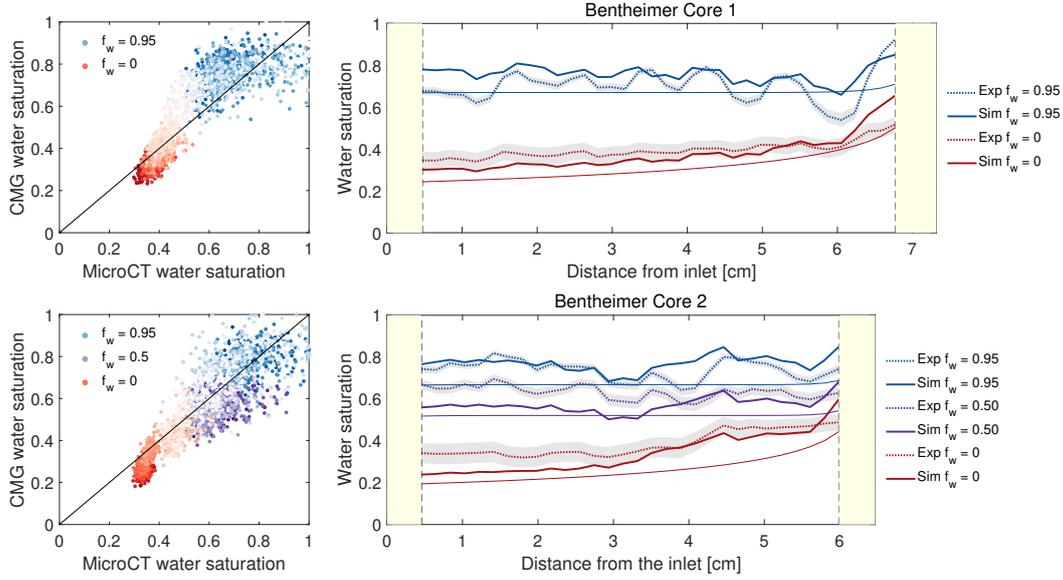
554 **5.3 Darcy-Scale Models With Limited Permeability Information**

555 To emphasize that exact experimental permeability measurements are not neces-
556 sary to accurately reproduce experimental saturation measurements, two heterogeneous
557 simulation models of each core are shown in Figure 7. The bold lines illustrate the CMG
558 models that utilized single-phase flow-through permeability measurements of 1635 mD
559 and 763 mD permeability in Core 1 and Core 2, respectively. The thin lines illustrate
560 CMG simulations with the same heterogeneous relative permeability and capillary pres-
561 sure derived from the pore network models, but with homogeneous permeability values
562 of 1000 mD in both core samples. The slice-average saturation profiles in the models with
563 different permeability only become distinguishable from each at very low water fractional
564 flow. These results highlight that under the experimental conditions of this study, the
565 saturation distributions are more sensitive to accurate capillary pressure characteriza-
566 tion than to permeability parameterization.

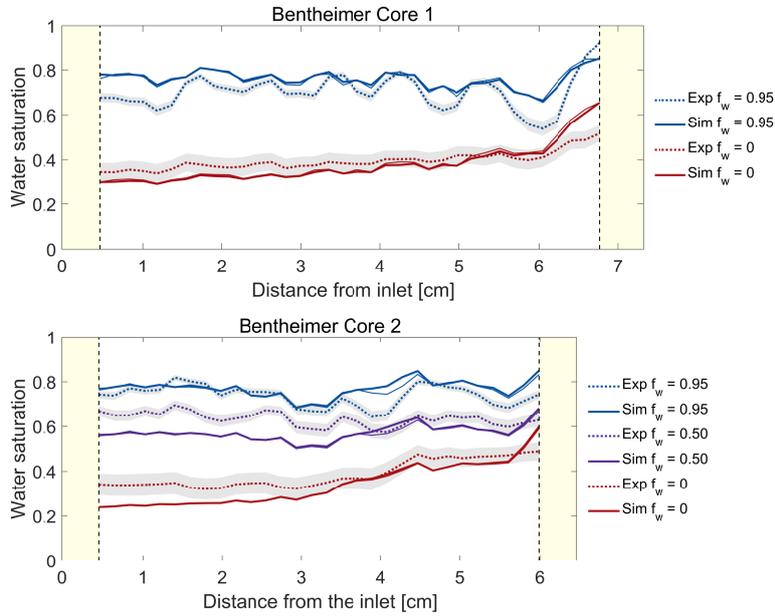
577 **6 Discussion and Implications**

578 The characterization workflow proposed in this study opens the possibility for a
579 digital workflow for estimating multiphase flow properties. In this workflow the most la-
580 borious components of a core analysis work program—such as core flooding relative per-
581 meability measurements—are no longer required. This is because the workflow utilizes
582 only micro-CT images of dry cores, an independent measurement of porosity near the
583 sample inlet (medical CT), a MICP curve, and some knowledge—from literature or ex-
584 perimental measurements—of the wettability and interfacial tension of the fluids in the
585 system. The Darcy-scale model parameterized with heterogeneous PNM capillary pres-
586 sure and relative permeability curves successfully captured subtle features of experimen-
587 tal observations and provided a more accurate match to the experimental saturation data
588 at every fractional flow than the homogeneous models neglecting capillary heterogene-
589 ity.

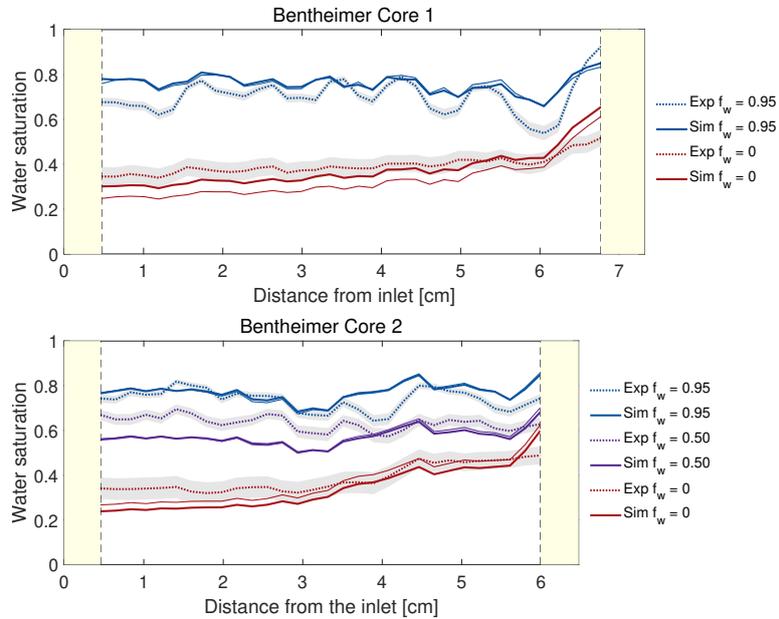
590 The capillary pressure heterogeneity is the dominant mechanism controlling whole-
591 core equivalent relative permeability and sub-core fluid saturation distribution at the cen-



525 **Figure 5.** Water saturation comparison between multiscale simulation predictions and exper-
 526 imental measurements for Core 1 (top plots), and Core 2 (bottom plots). The figures on the left
 527 illustrate direct micro-CT subdomain to simulation grid cell comparison. The color darkness cor-
 528 responds to the length along the core (e.g. dark red is near inlet and faint red is near the outlet).
 529 The figures on the right indicate the slice average saturations measured experimentally (dashed
 530 lines) and in the simulations (solid lines). The shaded gray region around the dashed lines in-
 531 dicates the saturation measurement uncertainty as described in the image processing workflow
 532 shown in Figure 2. The thick solid lines illustrate simulation results using heterogeneous capillary
 533 pressure and relative permeability input. The thin solid lines illustrate the homogeneous simu-
 534 lation model results. The experimental saturation profile in Core 2 indicates how the capillary
 535 barrier limits drainage on the downstream side of the barrier, leading to an increase in water
 536 saturation approximately 4 cm from the inlet of the core. Note the ability of the heterogeneous
 537 simulation model to capture this feature, particularly at a water fractional flow of zero (see Fig-
 538 ure 1 for center-slice saturation comparison). Water fractional flows (f_w) of 0.95, 0.5, and 0 are
 539 respectively represented by blue, purple, and red in all plots. The vertical dashed lines and the
 540 shaded yellow regions in the plots on the right indicate the unscanned portion of the cores. The
 541 plots are different length because they are drawn on equal identical length scales but the cores
 542 have slightly different lengths.



543 **Figure 6.** Water saturation slice-average profile comparison between simulation models with
 544 homogeneous and heterogeneous relative permeability compared with experimental measurements
 545 for Core 1 and Core 2. The thick solid lines are the simulations with heterogeneous PNM-derived
 546 relative permeability and capillary pressure curves assigned to each grid cell. These are identical
 547 to the lines shown in Figure 5. The thin solid lines are simulations in each core using the mean
 548 PNM relative permeability (bold colored lines in lower plot in Figure 3) but the same hetero-
 549 geneous capillary pressure curves as the model indicated by the bold solid lines. Note that the
 550 solid thin lines and the solid thick lines are nearly indistinguishable at every fractional flow. The
 551 dashed lines are the slice-average saturations measured experimentally. The vertical dashed lines
 552 and the shaded yellow regions in the plots on the right indicate the unscanned portion of the
 553 cores.



567 **Figure 7.** Water saturation slice-average profile comparison between simulation models and
 568 experimental measurements for Core 1 and Core 2. The dashed lines are the slice-average satu-
 569 rations measured experimentally and the thick solid lines are the simulations with 1635 mD and
 570 763 mD permeability in Core 1 and Core 2, respectively. These are identical to the lines shown
 571 in Figure 5. The thin solid lines are simulations in each core using 1000 mD homogeneous perme-
 572 ability but the same heterogenous characteristic curves as the model indicated by the bold solid
 573 lines. Note that at high water fractional flow the solid lines are nearly indistinguishable. The
 574 shaded gray region around the dashed lines indicates the saturation measurement uncertainty.
 575 The vertical dashed lines and the shaded yellow regions in the plots on the right indicate the
 576 unscanned portion of the cores.

592 timeter length scale as shown in Figure 6. This may be in part because there is clear spa-
593 tial structure to the heterogeneity in capillary pressure whereas heterogeneity in rela-
594 tive permeability characteristics are randomly distributed. However, the exact relative
595 permeability structure cannot be conclusively determined without further investigation.

596 The importance of capillary heterogeneity is significant for a number of reasons.
597 As demonstrated by the sensitivity analysis (Figure S2 in the SI), pore network model
598 descriptions of capillary pressure are much less dependent on image processing uncer-
599 tainty than relative permeability. This is also significant because sub-core scale estimates
600 of capillary pressure characteristics can be validated by ganglia-curvature based mea-
601 surements (Herring et al., 2017; Garing et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2018, 2018; Jackson et
602 al., 2019), whereas estimates of relative permeability across similar size domains cannot.

603 The insensitivity of saturation distributions to absolute permeability demonstrated
604 in Figure 7 indicates that this workflow does not require exact permeability measure-
605 ments, but permeability could instead be approximated from literature values, relevant
606 porosity-permeability relationships (Tiab & Donaldson, 2016), or possibly pore network
607 modeling. While the pore network model output could be used to define the Darcy-scale
608 permeability, the uncertainty analysis performed here agrees with previous studies that
609 found permeability is highly sensitive to image processing (Beckingham et al., 2013; Guan
610 et al., 2018). Conceptually this is because permeability calculations in pore network mod-
611 els are dominated by smallest throats along the flow path, and thus are very uncertain
612 without model calibration. These observations agree with other work demonstrating the
613 importance of capillary pressure characterization rather than permeability characteri-
614 zation for accurate multiphase flow modeling at low capillary numbers (Corbett et al.,
615 1992; Krause, 2012; B. Li & Benson, 2015; Jackson, Mayachita, & Krevor, 2018).

616 We highlight that the capillary pressure of sample subdomains can be determined
617 from image characterization of the capillary entry pressure. While the maximal ball method
618 implemented in the PNextract open-source network extraction algorithm was used in this
619 study, any number of open-source or commercial geometric or pore-scale modeling ap-
620 proaches could be used to estimate capillary entry pressure. The uncertainty analysis
621 and simulation results indicate that pore network model capillary entry pressure esti-
622 mates are accurate and relatively insulated from the image processing decisions because
623 these measurements are based on the largest pore features in the images. When com-

624 pared with the magnitude of a relatively subtle capillary barrier in the Bentheimer sand-
625 stone Core 2, the increase in capillary entry pressure in this feature was clearly differ-
626 entiable from the bounds of image processing uncertainty.

627 Pore network modeling has several technical and practical advantages over tra-
628 ditional multiphase flow characterization approaches. First, traditional approaches are
629 impacted by experimental artifacts, such as the capillary end effects, as described in de-
630 tail in Figure 3. Another advantage of using PNM to characterize capillary heterogene-
631 ity is that measurements are not influenced by viscous forces that are typically ignored
632 with assumptions of capillary equilibrium across the system (Krause et al., 2013; Pini
633 & Benson, 2013, 2017; Jackson, Agada, et al., 2018; Hejazi et al., 2019). Finally, approaches
634 for quantifying capillary heterogeneity rely on J-Leverett scaling (Leverett, 1940; Krause
635 et al., 2013; Pini & Benson, 2013). This scaling assumes that the relationship between
636 local capillary pressure, porosity, and permeability are fixed for a given sample (often
637 referred to as the J-function). While these assumptions have been rigorously tested in
638 sandstones, they are likely to break down in more complex reservoir types such as car-
639 bonates and non-sedimentary systems. In circumventing the need for these types of assumptions—
640 along with expensive and time-consuming experimental characterization—this digital pore
641 network model approach mitigates key practical barriers to incorporating small-scale cap-
642 illary heterogeneity into reservoir simulation upscaling workflows. This approach is there-
643 fore applicable in more highly heterogeneous rocks as long as the REV is not larger than
644 the size of the sample than can be scanned with micro-CT (1.24 cm diameter with the
645 scanner used in this study).

646 It is important to reemphasize that the multiphase simulation model input presented
647 and compared with the experimental data was sourced from an uncalibrated pore net-
648 work model, assuming some knowledge of fluid contact angle and interfacial tension. As
649 a result of this calibration-free approach, we have illustrated a predictive multiscale char-
650 acterization workflow. This work provides a new way to rapidly estimate characteristic
651 relative permeability and drainage capillary pressure data without the need for flow-through
652 experiments. Future work is needed to test these approaches for imbibition capillary pres-
653 sure curve characterization. More rapid and economical characterization will significantly
654 improve numerical models of complex fluid flow processes in the subsurface. Improved
655 multiphase models are essential for better predictions of complex multiphase flow prob-

656 lems such as global-scale carbon mitigation with geologic carbon sequestration, contam-
657 inate migration and remediation, and invasion of pollutants into the vadose zone.

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