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► **To cite this version:**

Alexis Maineult, Jean-Baptiste Clavaud, Maria Zamora. On the Interest of Bulk Conductivity Measurements for Hydraulic Dispersivity Estimation from Miscible Displacement Experiments in Rock Samples. *Transport in Porous Media*, 2016, 115 (1), pp.21-34. 10.1007/s11242-016-0749-0 . hal-01372008

**HAL Id: hal-01372008**

**<https://hal.sorbonne-universite.fr/hal-01372008>**

Submitted on 26 Sep 2016

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1 **TECHNICAL NOTE**

2

3 **On the interest of bulk conductivity measurements for hydraulic dispersivity estimation**  
4 **from miscible displacement experiments in rock samples.**

5

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16

17 **SUMMARY**

18           The determination of the hydraulic dispersivity and effective fraction of porous medium  
19 contributing to transport on soil and rock sample in the laboratory is important to understand and  
20 model the evolution of miscible contaminant plumes in groundwater. Classical methods are based  
21 on the interpretation of the breakthrough curve, i.e., the evolution of the concentration in  
22 contaminant at the downstream end-face of a sample into which a front of contaminant is  
23 advected. Here we present an experimental device aimed at performing such measurements, but  
24 also allowing the bulk electrical conductivity of the sample to be measured. We show that the  
25 dispersivity and effective fraction can be inferred from this electrical measurement, and that the  
26 combined use of both out-flowing fluid conductivity and bulk conductivity allows the uncertainty  
27 on the dispersivity and effective fraction to be significantly enhanced.

28

29 **Keywords:** miscible displacement, hydraulic dispersivity, breakthrough curve, electrical  
30 conductivity

31

## 32 1. Introduction

33

34 Miscible contaminants flowing through a porous medium by advection are mixing with  
35 the non-contaminated water, yielding to dilution of the plume. This so-called dispersion  
36 phenomenon originates from the fact that the fluid moves faster in larger pores than in smaller  
37 ones and faster in the centres of the pores than along the walls, and also that some pathways are  
38 longer than others (e.g., Fetter 2001). If we consider an isotropic and homogeneous soil or rock  
39 sample, and assume that i) the flow through it is purely one-dimensional and ii) the dispersion  
40 process is Fickian, the concentration field  $C(x,t)$  (in  $\text{mol m}^{-3}$ ) inside the sample, where  $x$  (in m)  
41 stands for the distance from the upstream-face of the sample and  $t$  (in s) for the elapsed time,  
42 obeys the transport equation:

$$43 \quad \frac{\partial C}{\partial t} = D \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial x^2} - v \frac{\partial C}{\partial x}, \quad (1)$$

44 Here  $D$  is the hydrodynamic dispersion coefficient (in  $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ ) and  $v$  the linear average velocity of  
45 water flowing through the sample (in  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ). Provided that diffusion processes can be neglected,  
46 the dispersion coefficient in Eq. (1) can be written  $D = \lambda v$ , where  $\lambda$  is the hydraulic dispersivity  
47 (in m). Even though the dispersivity changes with the observation scale (e.g., Xu and Epstein  
48 1995), it is often required to determine its value on soil or rock samples to understand and model  
49 the dynamics of contaminants at the field scale.

50 The classical way to perform such measurements in the laboratory consists in applying a  
51 straight front of salty solution at the entrance (i.e., the upstream face) of the sample subjected to  
52 permanent, laminar flow, and to measure the concentration at the outlet (i.e., the downstream  
53 face). The evolution of the concentration of the out-flowing fluid, or “breakthrough curve”, is  
54 generally sigmoidal, provided that the medium is homogeneous at the scale of the sample and

55 that no other processes occur, such as chemical reactions with the minerals. The spreading of the  
56 curve increases with the dispersivity. Knowing the theoretical formulation of the breakthrough  
57 curve, it is then possible to determine the value of the dispersivity by fitting methods.

58 The out-flowing concentration is an integrated value, which presents variations only when  
59 the salt front reaches the downstream face of the sample. Other methods, such as electrical  
60 measurements, can give information as soon as the salt front penetrates the sample. For example,  
61 Odling et al. (2007) used electrical impedance measurements on microfractured granite to  
62 determine its longitudinal dispersivity. They showed that such a technique provided supplemental  
63 information about the dispersion process inside the sample. Here we report on an apparatus  
64 allowing the bulk conductivity of a rock sample to be measured during miscible displacement  
65 experiments. We show that fitting the classical breakthrough curve to the measured electrical  
66 conductivity of the out-flowing fluid, combined to fitting the theoretical evolution of the bulk  
67 conductivity of the sample to the measured one, enables a more accurate determination of the  
68 hydraulic dispersivity and fraction of the porous volume effectively contributing to the transport.

69

## 70 **2. Materials and method**

71

### 72 *2.1. Device and procedure*

73 We devised, constructed and tested an experimental set-up (Fig. 1), aimed at measuring  
74 the bulk electrical conductivity  $\sigma_b$  (in  $\text{S m}^{-1}$ ) of large-sized samples (i.e., about 5 to 10 cm in  
75 diameter and 10-40 cm or more in length), as well as the electrical conductivity of the fluid that is  
76 out-flowing from the sample, denoted  $\sigma_f$ . This device is usable to perform miscible displacement  
77 experiments and therefore infer the hydraulic dispersivity  $\lambda$  (in m) and the effective fraction of

78 the porous volume contributing to transport, denoted  $f$  (no unit).

79 The upstream and downstream end-faces of the sample, which is placed horizontally to  
80 avoid the influence of gravity, are connected to a hydraulic circuit. They are also in perfect  
81 contact with stainless steel electrodes, whose external side is protected by a PVC cap to ensure  
82 electrical isolation. The conductivity of the out-flowing fluid is measured with a custom-made  
83 cell with four platinum electrodes that was calibrated with various brines at different frequencies.  
84 The fluid conductivity and the bulk conductivity of the sample are measured with an impedance-  
85 meter HP 4263A, at the frequencies of 120 and 1000 Hz. The optimal frequency, which  
86 minimizes the polarization effects, is equal to 1 kHz. Note that concerning the bulk conductivity,  
87 the measure is done with the two electrodes at the end-faces of the sample only, each electrode  
88 serving for both current injection and potential measurement.

89 To check its watertightness, the sample is first put under vacuum for a few hours. The  
90 sample is then saturated with distilled and de-aerated water. The porosity accessible by water  
91 under vacuum, which is close to the connected porosity, is deduced from the amount of injected  
92 water required to fill the connected voids, with an accuracy comprised between 0.3 and 3.5  
93 percents. Then we let the fluid flowing through the sample from the upstream reservoir filled  
94 with distilled water. Once the chemical equilibrium is reached, i.e. when the conductivity of the  
95 out-flowing fluid is constant, the distilled water saturating the sample is flushed by NaCl brine at  
96 a concentration around  $3 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ , coming from the brine reservoir. This value of the concentration  
97 is large enough to consider the contribution of the surface conduction to the total electrical  
98 conductivity negligible, but small enough to neglect density-driven flow, at least for highly  
99 permeable samples. Brine is injected until the out-flowing solution has the same electrical  
100 conductivity. In practice, a given amount of brine is introduced in the sample. The electrical  
101 measurements are carried out rapidly enough to neglect the effects of pure diffusion and reduce

102 the density effects, if any. Afterwards we proceed to a new injection step, and so on.

103

## 104 2.2 Tested sample

105 To test our approach, we use a decimetric core of Saint-Maximin limestone (denoted  
106 SML). It is a bioclastic limestone, having a large macro-porosity, and a small amount of  
107 intraclastic porosity (Fig. 2a). The results of mercury injection carried out on a centimetric core  
108 (Fig. 2b) show that the distribution of the pore access radii is bi-modal with two modes at 13.6 and  
109 0.13  $\mu\text{m}$  respectively. However, the second mode, which corresponds to the intraclastic porosity,  
110 is clearly dominated by the first mode.

111 The sample was 309 mm in length, with a diameter of 97.90 mm. The volume of the  
112 sample (2326  $\text{cm}^3$ ) is therefore two orders of magnitude larger than the volumes of rock samples  
113 commonly studied in the laboratory for permeability estimation (i.e., 20 to 50  $\text{cm}^3$ ). This size was  
114 chosen to acquire measurements at a scale significantly larger than the representative elementary  
115 volume (e.g., Henriette et al. 1989). After machining, the sample was dried in an oven at 60  $^\circ\text{C}$   
116 for several days, until its weight stabilized. Then the lateral surface was waterproofed by  
117 covering it with epoxy resin. The connected porosity value, determined from weighting, was  
118 equal to  $36.6 \pm 0.5 \%$ . From flow-rate measurement, the water permeability was estimated to be  
119  $1718 \pm 42 \text{ mD}$ .

120 To check if advection is predominant over diffusion in our experiment, we estimated the  
121 Péclet number  $Pe$ . The classical formulation  $Pe = v_{\text{DF}} d / D_m$  (e.g., Sahimi 1993), where  $v_{\text{DF}}$  is the  
122 Dupuit-Forcheimer velocity (in  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ),  $d$  the mean grain diameter (in m) and  $D_m$  the molecular  
123 diffusion coefficient ( $1.5 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for NaCl), is not applicable for non-granular rocks.  
124 Therefore, we used the non-correlation radius  $r_{nc}$ , estimated from image analysis, instead of  $d/2$ .

125 This yields to  $Pe = 2 v_{DF} r_{nc} / D_m$ . For the highly permeable sample SML,  $v_{DF}$  was equal to 0.35  
 126  $\text{mm s}^{-1}$  during the experiment, and  $r_{nc}$  was estimated to 175  $\mu\text{m}$ . The Péclet number is thus  
 127 around 80, meaning that in this case advection can be neglected (power-law regime, e.g. Sahimi  
 128 1993).

129 For the miscible displacement experiment, the conductivity of the initial fluid after  
 130 stabilization was equal to 4.7  $\text{mS m}^{-1}$ . The conductivity of the injected fluid was 540  $\text{mS m}^{-1}$ .  
 131 (i.e., 54.3  $\text{mmol L}^{-1}$  or 3.17  $\text{g L}^{-1}$  NaCl). The bulk conductivity of the sample was equal to 1.4  
 132  $\text{mS m}^{-1}$  initially, and to 90.1  $\text{mS m}^{-1}$  at the end of the experiment, yielding to an electrical  
 133 formation factor  $F = \sigma_f / \sigma_b$  equal to 6.

134

### 135 3. Theory

136

#### 137 3.1. Problem and solution for a 1D isotropic and homogeneous medium

138 Considering that Eq. (1) applies to our case, the initial condition is  $C(x,0) = C_0$ , where  $C_0$   
 139 is the equivalent salt concentration of the solution initially saturating the pore space. The  
 140 upstream boundary condition, corresponding to the injection of brine starting at  $t = 0$ , can be  
 141 formalized as  $C(0,t) = C_0 + (C_{\text{brine}} - C_0) H(t)$  where  $C_{\text{brine}}$  is the concentration of the brine and  $H$   
 142 the Heaviside step function. The solution is given by (e.g., Ogata and Banks 1961; Fried and  
 143 Combarous 1971; Gupta and Greenkorn 1974; Basak and Murty 1979):

$$144 \quad C(x,t) = C_0 + \frac{C_{\text{brine}} - C_0}{2} \left[ \text{erfc} \left( \frac{x - vt}{2\sqrt{Dt}} \right) + \exp \left( \frac{vx}{D} \right) \text{erfc} \left( \frac{x + vt}{2\sqrt{Dt}} \right) \right], \quad (2)$$

145 where  $\text{erfc}$  is the complementary error function. The second term in the brackets has an influence  
 146 only if  $t$  is close to 0, and can be neglected otherwise (e.g., Ogata and Banks 1961; Pfannkuch  
 147 1963), yielding to the following approximation of Eq. (2):



148 
$$C(x,t) \approx C_0 + \frac{C_{\text{brine}} - C_0}{2} \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{x - vt}{2\sqrt{Dt}}\right). \quad (3)$$

149

150 *3.2. Non-dimensionalization of the solution*

151 In order to compare the breakthrough curves for different samples, if any, it is convenient  
 152 to use the normalized variation of the concentration  $\delta C$  (no unit) defined by

153 
$$\delta C(x,t) = \frac{C(x,t) - C_0}{C_{\text{brine}} - C_0}. \quad (4)$$

154 Since the injection is not continuous but performed step by step (see end of section 2.1), it is  
 155 convenient to consider  $\delta C$  as a function of the normalized injected volume of brine  $V_i^n$ , expressed  
 156 in pore volumes, as (e.g., Pickens and Grisak 1981):

157 
$$V_i^n = \frac{V_i}{V_{pc}}, \quad (5)$$

158 where  $V_i$  is the injected volume of brine and  $V_{pc}$  the total connected porous volume of the sample,  
 159 equal to the total porosity times the volume of the sample. Following this way, the curves  $\delta C$   
 160 versus  $V_i^n$  for different samples are similarly scaled and therefore directly comparable. Indeed,  
 161 the time required for the injection of a given volume of brine, which depends on the permeability  
 162 of the rock, is eliminated from Eq. (3): considering that  $V_i^n$  is also equal to  $vt/L$  where  $L$  is the  
 163 length of the sample (in m), and assuming that the molecular diffusion is negligible so that we  
 164 can introduce the hydraulic dispersivity as  $\lambda = D/v$ , the combination of Eqs. (3) and (4) leads to:

165 
$$\delta C(x,t) \approx \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{L}{\lambda}} \frac{\left(\frac{x}{L} - V_i^n\right)}{\sqrt{V_i^n}}\right). \quad (6)$$

166 The normalized variation of concentration of the out-flowing solution, denoted  $\delta C_{out}$ , is obtained

167 by taking  $x = L$  in Eq. (6):

$$168 \quad \delta C_{out}(t) = \delta C(L, t) \approx \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc} \left( \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{L}{\lambda}} \frac{1 - V_i^n}{\sqrt{V_i^n}} \right) \quad (7)$$

169 Classically, the  $\lambda/L$  ratio is inferred from the measured values of  $\delta C_{out}$  (i.e., the normalized  
170 breakthrough curve) by fitting the theoretical curve (Eq. (7)) to them. Note here that this  
171 theoretical curve passes through the point  $M_{1,0.5} = (V_i^n, \delta C_{out}) = (1, 0.5)$ , since the volume of brine  
172 required for the centre of mass of the front to arrive at the downstream end of the sample is equal  
173 to one pore volume.

174 It is assumed here that the whole connected pore volume contributes to the transport, but  
175 it is rarely expected. For example, dead-end pores do not contribute to the transport processes. If  
176 the pore volume contributing to transport (or “efficient porosity”), denoted  $V_{pc}^*$ , is smaller than  
177  $V_{pc}$ , the experimental curve  $\delta C_{out}$  versus  $V_i^n$  is shifted to the left. In other words, the injected  
178 volume, normalized using Eq. (5), for which  $\delta C_{out}$  is equal to 0.5, is smaller than 1. In this case,  
179 one should also find the best  $V_{pc}^*$  to be used in place of  $V_{pc}$  in Eq. (5). To do so, we define the  
180 effective fraction of the porous volume contributing to the transport as  $f = V_{pc}^*/V_{pc}$ . Equation (5)  
181 must thus be rewritten as:

$$182 \quad V_i^n = \frac{V_i}{V_{pc}^*} = \frac{V_i}{fV_{pc}}. \quad (8)$$

183 The problem then involves two parameters,  $\lambda/L$  and  $f$ , to be found using Eqs. (7) and (8).

184 It should be noted here that if no theoretical curve can explain the data, it means that the  
185 medium is not homogeneous, and/or that retardation processes occur such as trapping in small  
186 pores, or that molecular diffusion is not negligible, or that density-driven flow occurs, or even  
187 chemical reactions with the reactive mineral phases happen.

188 Finally, note that for the calculation of  $V_i^n$ , the measured injected volume of brine was  
 189 corrected from the volume of the tube between the T-valve (Fig. 1) and the upstream end of the  
 190 sample for the bulk sample conductivity, and from the same volume plus the volume of the tube  
 191 between the downstream end of the sample and the conductivity cell for the conductivity of the  
 192 out-flowing fluid.

193

### 194 3.3. Conversion of conductivity to concentration

195 As previously stated, we do not measure the salt concentration directly, but the electrical  
 196 conductivity of the fluid. To transform the concentration  $C$  into conductivity  $\sigma_f$ , and reciprocally  
 197  $\sigma_f$  into  $C$ , we use the empirical relations established by Sen and Goode (1992) for NaCl brine:

$$198 \quad \sigma_f = \left(5.6 + 0.27T - 1.5 \cdot 10^{-4} T^2\right) M - \frac{2.36 + 0.099T}{1 + 0.214M} M^{\frac{3}{2}} \quad (9)$$

199 where  $T$  is the temperature (in °C) and  $M$  is the molality (in mol kg<sup>-1</sup>). To convert the  
 200 concentration  $C_f$  into molality, we use the CRC Handbook Table at 20°C (Lide 2008).

201 For coherence, we also normalized the conductivity of the out-flowing fluid,  $\sigma_{out}$ , as:

$$202 \quad \delta\sigma_{out}(t) = \frac{\sigma_{out}(t) - \sigma_{out,0}}{\sigma_{out,max} - \sigma_{out,0}}, \quad (10)$$

203 where  $\sigma_{out,0}$  and  $\sigma_{out,max}$  are the initial and maximal (i.e., the plateau value at the end of the  
 204 experiment) conductivities of the effluent solution, respectively. We proceeded similarly for the  
 205 bulk conductivity of the sample  $\sigma_b$ :

$$206 \quad \delta\sigma_b(t) = \frac{\sigma_b(t) - \sigma_{b,0}}{\sigma_{b,max} - \sigma_{b,0}}, \quad (11)$$

207 where  $\sigma_{b,0}$  is the initial and  $\sigma_{b,max}$  the maximal (i.e., the plateau value at the end of the  
 208 experiment) value of the bulk conductivity.

209

#### 210 4. Estimation of the dispersivity

211 To estimate the dispersivity  $\lambda$ , we first use the classical method, which consists in fitting a  
212 straight line in Henry's space to the experimental points of the out-flowing fluid concentration.  
213 Secondly we systematically explored the parameter space. This second method allows the  
214 effective fraction  $f$  to be taken into account, and the sample conductivity to be also considered.

215

##### 216 4.1. Cost-function

217 To evaluate the agreement between the data (i.e., the normalized measured conductivity  
218 variations) and the model (i.e., the normalized predicted conductivity variations), a cost-function  
219  $R$  as meaningful as possible has to be defined. We used the determination coefficient  $r^2$ , which  
220 quantifies the mean deviation of the  $N$  experimental points (vector  $\mathbf{d}^{\text{obs}}$ ) from the predictions  
221 (vector  $\mathbf{d}^{\text{pred}}$ ):

$$222 \quad r^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (d_i^{\text{obs}} - d_i^{\text{pred}})^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (d_i^{\text{obs}} - \langle \mathbf{d}^{\text{obs}} \rangle)^2} \quad (12)$$

223 Moreover, considering that the concentration break-through curves (Eq. (7)) are similar to  
224 cumulative Gaussian distributions, we combined  $r^2$  with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov ( $KS$ ) test (e.g.,  
225 Press et al. 1997), usually used as an estimator of the semblance between two distributions, given  
226 by:

$$227 \quad \begin{cases} \mu = \left( \sqrt{N} + 0.12 + \frac{0.11}{\sqrt{N}} \right) \max |\mathbf{d}^{\text{pred}} - \mathbf{d}^{\text{obs}}| \\ KS = 2 \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{j-1} e^{-2j^2 \mu^2} \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

228 We thus used the function  $R = KS r^2$ ; an optimal fit is obtained when  $R = 1$ .

229

#### 230 4.2. Fitting method in Henry's space

231 Defining the two parameters  $\alpha$  (no unit) and  $\Gamma$  (no unit) as:

$$232 \quad \begin{cases} \alpha = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{L}{\lambda}} \\ \Gamma = \frac{1 - V_i^n}{\sqrt{V_i^n}} \end{cases}, \quad (14)$$

233 Eq. (7) can be rewritten as:

$$234 \quad \delta C_{out}(t) = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{erfc}(\alpha \Gamma). \quad (15)$$

235 Therefore the curve  $\Gamma$  versus  $\delta C_{out}$  plotted in linear arithmetic probability paper (in ordinates)  
236 forms a straight line (e.g., Brigham 1974), also called Henry's line. The slope of this line,  
237 denoted  $p$ , is theoretically given by:

$$238 \quad p = -\frac{1}{\alpha\sqrt{2}} = -\sqrt{2} \sqrt{\frac{\lambda}{L}}. \quad (16)$$

239 We did not apply the classical two-point Taylor's (1953) method to determine  $\lambda$  (e.g., Fried and  
240 Combarous 1971; Gupta and Greenkorn 1974; Pickens and Grisak 1981). Instead, we  
241 determined the straight line fitting the data in the least-square sense, as suggested by Gupta and  
242 Greenkorn (1974), considering that this method provides more accurate values for the slope  $p$ .  
243 Note that in this case it is necessary to restrict the data to the interval for which the conductivity  
244 variation is linear, i.e., generally for  $\delta C_{out}$  comprised between 0.1 and 0.9. The dispersivity is then  
245 deduced using Eq. (16) as  $\lambda = L p^2 / 2$ .

246 The observed normalized conductivity  $\delta\sigma_{out}$  and deduced normalized concentration  $\delta C_{out}$   
247 of the out-flowing fluid as a function of the volume of injected brine  $V_i^n$ , expressed in fraction of

248 porous volume, are shown in Fig. 3a for SML sample. The concentrations  $\delta C_{out}$  are distributed  
 249 along a sigmoid, which seems to pass very close to the point  $M_{1,0.5} = (V_i^n, \delta C_{out}) = (1, 0.5)$ ,  
 250 meaning that the whole pore volume contribute to the transport. The associated  $\Gamma$  values  
 251 computed using Eq. (14), versus normalized experimental concentration  $\delta C_{out}$ , are distributed  
 252 along a straight line (Fig. 3b). The line fitting the best the data, in the least-squares sense, passes  
 253 through the point  $(\delta C_{out}, \Gamma) = (0.5, 0)$ , meaning that indeed the effective fraction  $f$  is equal to 1.  
 254 The slope of the fitting line gives a value of 4.018 mm for the dispersivity  $\lambda_{HL}$ . The modelled  
 255 curves  $\delta C_{out}$  (continuous line in Fig. 3a, obtained with Eqs. (7) and (5)) and  $\delta \sigma_{out}$  (dotted line)  
 256 versus the volume of injected brine, expressed in fraction of porous volume, explain the data  
 257 rather well (the cost-function  $R^{HL}$  is close to 1.0).

258

### 259 4.3. Parameter space exploration

260 The previous procedure takes into account the conductivity variation of the out-flowing  
 261 fluid only. Moreover, it does not provide a confidence interval for the dispersivity or the effective  
 262 fraction of porous volume. We hereafter estimate the dispersivity directly from the curves of the  
 263 out-flowing fluid conductivity variations  $\delta \sigma_{out}$  or/and the variations of the bulk conductivity  $\delta \sigma_b$   
 264 versus the injected volume  $V_i^n$  by exploring the parameter space

265 To estimate the sample bulk conductivity  $\sigma_b$ , we apply the generalized Reuss average,  
 266 since the measurement is performed in the direction of the concentration gradient. We assume  
 267 that i) the concentration front is one-dimensional along the axis of the sample (i.e., the sample is  
 268 homogeneous and the front is straight, i.e., the density effect are negligible), and ii) the formation  
 269 factor  $F$  does not depend on the value of the local fluid conductivity. Therefore,  $\sigma_b$  can be written  
 270 as (Odling et al. 2007):

271 
$$\frac{1}{\sigma_b(t)} = \frac{F}{L} \int_0^L \frac{dx}{\sigma_f(C(x,t))} \quad (17)$$

272 where  $\sigma_f(C(x,t))$  corresponds to the fluid conductivity distribution inside the sample (computed  
 273 using Eqs. (3) and (9)). It is important to note that the knowledge of the formation factor is not  
 274 required, since it vanishes in the computation of the normalized variation of the bulk conductivity  
 275 using Eq. (11).

276 The application to limestone SML is shown in Figs. 4, 5 and 6. We explored the  
 277 dispersivity values in the interval comprised between 0 and 20 mm (based on the value  
 278 previously determined for  $\lambda_{HL}$ ) with a spacing of 0.1 mm, and the values of the effective fraction  
 279 in the interval comprised between 0.85 and 1 with a spacing of 0.001.

280 When the exploration method is applied to the fluid conductivity only (Fig. 4a), the  
 281 maximal value of the cost-function  $R_{\max}^f$  is equal to 0.99951 (with a Kolmogorov-Smirnov value  
 282 equal to 100 %) and corresponds to a dispersivity  $\lambda_f$  (subscript "f" standing for "fluid") of 4.0 mm  
 283 and an effective fraction  $f_f$  of 0.982. The value of the dispersivity is very close to the value  
 284 determined previously using Henry's line (4.018 mm). The value of the effective fraction is very  
 285 close to 1, but is slightly smaller. The predictions computed with Eqs. (7), (8) and (10) explain  
 286 very well the data (Fig. 4b).

287 We proceeded similarly for the bulk conductivity only (Fig. 5). As for the fluid, the  
 288 normalized bulk conductivity of the sample is sigmoidal, but the bulk conductivity evolves as  
 289 soon as brine is injected in the sample (Fig. 5b). The dispersivity  $\lambda_s$  (subscript "s" standing for  
 290 "sample") is equal to 3.3 mm, a value slightly smaller than  $\lambda_f$ . The effective fraction  $f_s$  is equal to  
 291 0.987. The prediction, computed using Eqs. (3), (9), (11) and (17), explains here again rather well  
 292 the data, with a cost-function  $R_{\max}^s$  equal to 0.99954. However, it seems that the dispersivity may

293 be slightly underestimated for injected volume above 1, the prediction being systematically  
294 higher than the experimental points.

295 We finally apply the same methodology to find the best dispersivity and effective fraction  
296 explaining both fluid and sample conductivities simultaneously (Fig. 6). In this case, we defined  
297 the cost-function as the product of the two cost-functions for the fluid and the sample, i.e.  
298  $R = R^f R^s$ . Doing so, the best dispersivity value  $\lambda$  is equal to 3.5 mm and the best effective  
299 fraction  $f$  to 0.986 (Fig. 6a). The predictions explained rather well the fluid conductivity (Fig. 6b)  
300 and the bulk conductivity of the sample (Fig. 6c).

301

## 302 **5. Discussion**

303 First of all, a coherent estimation of the dispersivity and of the effective fraction is  
304 provided by the interpretation of the evolution of the bulk conductivity of the sample.

305 Secondly, when performing sensitivity analysis, it can be seen that the ranges of  
306 dispersivity and effective fraction which produce high values of the cost-function for the out-  
307 flowing fluid conductivity are quite large (red area in Fig. 4a). For instance, values of dispersivity  
308 between 1.5 and 8.1 and effective fraction between 0.941 and 1 produce a cost-function value  
309 superior to 0.99, sufficiently high to produce satisfactorily predictions. A way to estimate the  
310 error interval on the determined values of dispersivity and effective fraction may be to consider  
311 their values which produce cost-function values higher than a certain threshold value. Here we  
312 can consider  $R^f = 0.998$ . In this case, the dispersivity  $\lambda_f$  is comprised between 3 and 5.4, and the  
313 effective fraction  $f_f$  between 0.966 and 0.998. From the exploration of the parameter space for the  
314 bulk conductivity of the sample, it can be concluded that the bulk conductivity is more sensitive  
315 to the variations of the dispersivity (the red area in Fig. 5a is less extended in the  $\lambda$ -direction than



316 in Fig. 4a), but is less sensitive to the variations of the effective fraction (the red area is more  
317 extended in the  $f$ -direction). Considering again the threshold value of 0.998 for  $R^s$ , the  
318 dispersivity  $\lambda_s$  is comprised between 2.2 and 4.5, and the effective fraction  $f_f$  between 0.955 and  
319 1. The dispersivity is thus best determined by the bulk conductivity and the effective fraction by  
320 the out-flowing fluid conductivity. This illustrates the fact that using the bulk conductivity of the  
321 sample provides supplemental information, compared to the use of the out-flowing fluid  
322 conductivity alone. Finally, when considering the exploration on both out-flowing fluid  
323 conductivity and bulk conductivity of the sample, the area producing high values of the cost-  
324 function  $R$  is much restrained than in the previous two cases. Indeed, the  $R = 0.998$  threshold  
325 gives an interval of [3.2,3.9] for the dispersivity  $\lambda$  and an interval of [0.978,0.994] for the  
326 effective fraction  $f$ .

327         The fact that the effective fraction is not equal to 1, but close to it, means that a small part  
328 of the porous volume does not contribute to the transport. This non-contributing volume may be  
329 the intracrystalline porosity associated with the second mode in the pore access radius distribution  
330 (Fig. 2b). Moreover, the fact that the predictions are slightly higher than the observations for  
331 injected volume greater than 1 (Figs. 4b, 5b and 6bc) may be results from retardation processes of  
332 small intensity – maybe the penetration of salt in this intracrystalline porosity.

333         Finally, the fact that all the estimated dispersivities  $\lambda_{HL}$ ,  $\lambda_f$ ,  $\lambda_s$  and  $\lambda$ , as well as the  
334 effective fractions  $f_f$ ,  $f_s$  and  $f$  are close one to the other, and that the data are rather well explained  
335 by these values, means that all the assumptions made here (mainly: the sample is homogeneous  
336 and the diffusion and the density effect can be neglected) are reasonable. For less permeable  
337 samples with lower Péclet number, and/or for higher brine concentration, more complicated  
338 models have to be implemented, but this is beyond the scope of this study.

339

## 340 **6. Conclusions**

341 We added to the classical measurement of the breakthrough curve (evolution of the  
342 conductivity of the out-flowing fluid) during miscible displacements experiments the  
343 measurement of the evolution of the bulk conductivity of the sample. A methodology based on  
344 the exploration of the possible values for the hydraulic dispersivity and for the effective fraction  
345 of total connected porous volume contributing to the transport was developed, which also provide  
346 confidence intervals. The values obtained on a sample of limestone using the out-flowing fluid  
347 conductivity only or the bulk conductivity of the sample only are coherent with those determined  
348 by the classical method of Henry line. The most interesting point is that the combined use of out-  
349 flowing fluid and bulk conductivities also produces coherent values, but with significantly  
350 reduced confidence intervals. This underlines the interest of systematically including the  
351 measurement of the bulk conductivity during laboratory measurements of the dispersivity on rock  
352 samples.

353

## 354 **Acknowledgments**

355 The authors thank all the anonymous reviewers of this work for their helpful comments.

356 This is IPGP contribution n°3744.

357

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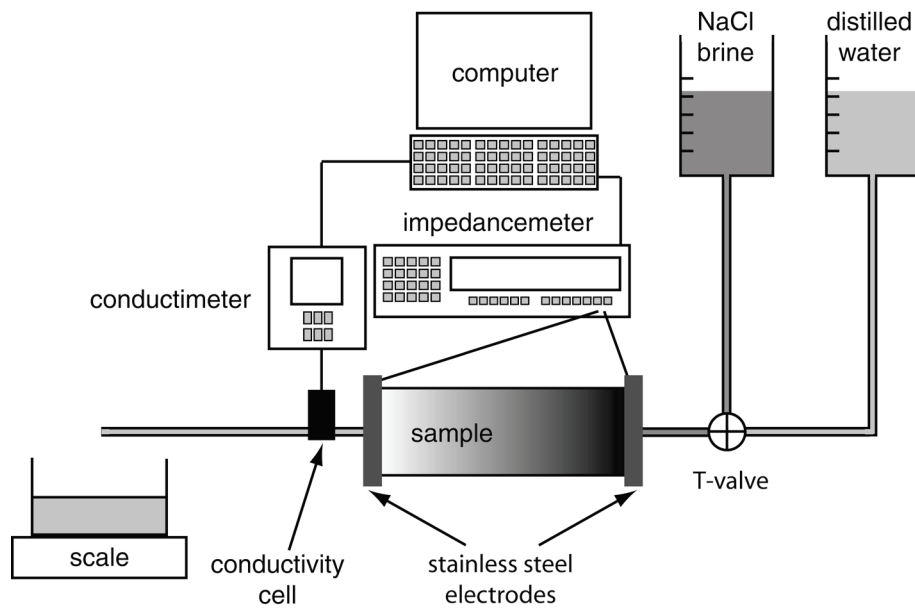
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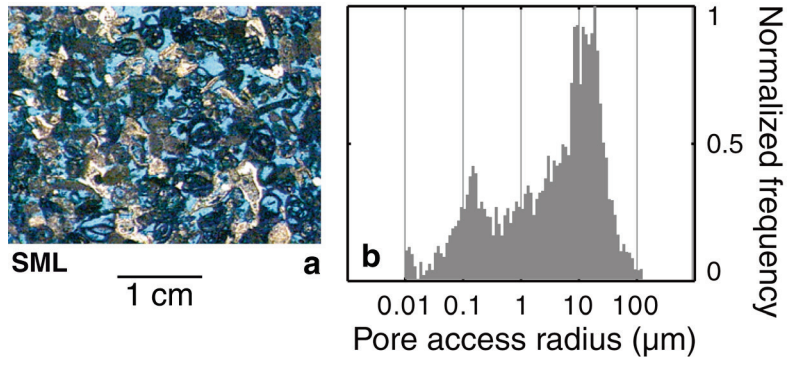
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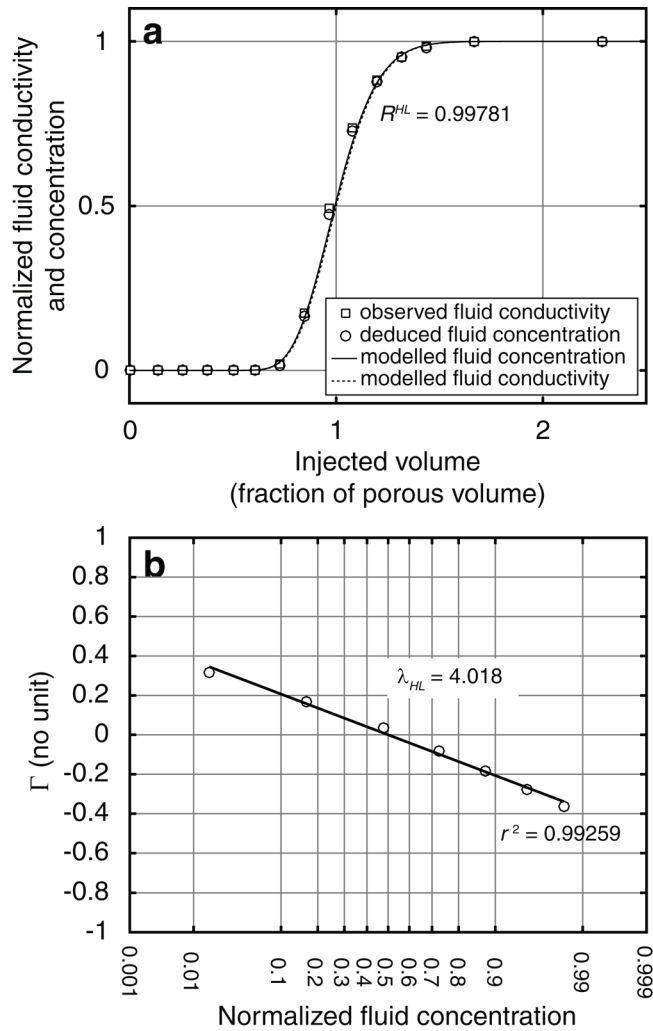
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393 **Fig. 1.** Scheme of the experimental device for miscible displacement. Explanation in the text.

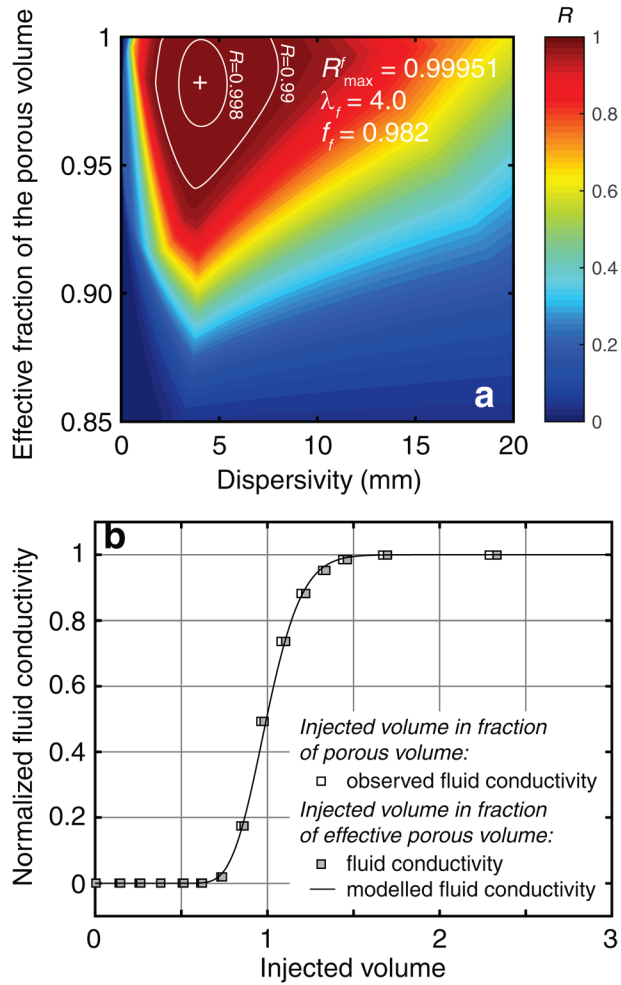
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395  
 396 **Fig. 2.** (a) Thin section of Saint-Maximin limestone SML, where the blue areas correspond to the  
 397 void space filled by the resin; (b) histogram of pore access radius distribution inferred from  
 398 mercury injection.  
 399



400  
 401 **Fig. 3.** Determination of the dispersivity by fitting the conductivity of the outflowing fluid in  
 402 Henry's space for Saint-Maximin limestone SML. (a) Observed fluid conductivity and deduced  
 403 fluid concentration (squares and circles), as a function of the injected volume of brine expressed  
 404 in fraction of total porous volume; (b) concentration in Henry's space (see text for detail). The  
 405 dispersivity value  $\lambda_{HL} = 4.018$  mm, deduced from the slope of the line, is then used to model the  
 406 fluid concentration and conductivity shown by the lines in (a).  $R^{HL}$  is the value of the cost-  
 407 function.  
 408

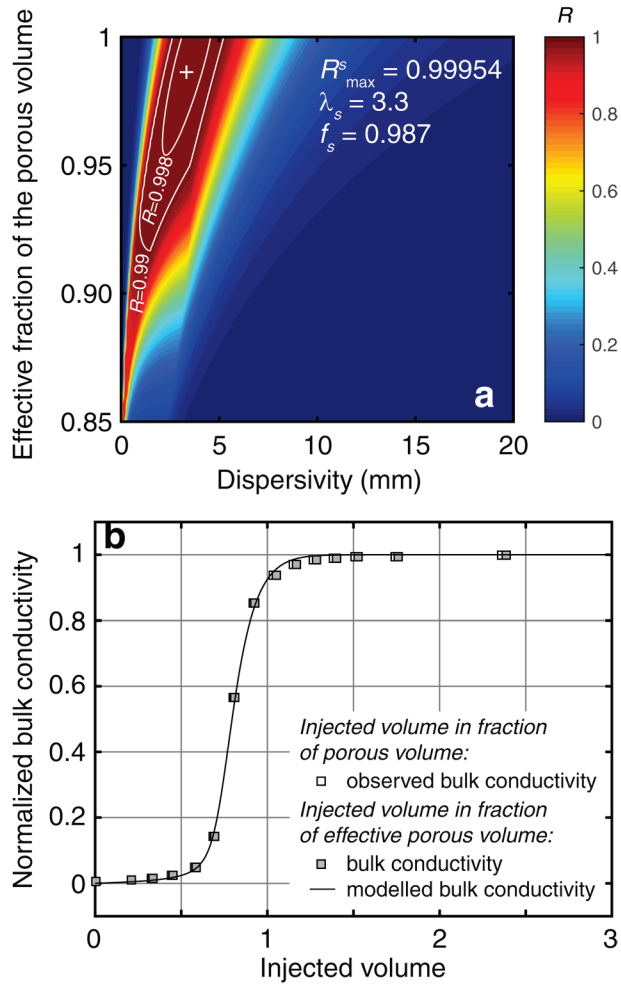


409

410 **Fig. 4.** Exploration of the parameter space to model the evolution of the outflowing fluid  
 411 conductivity for Saint-Maximin limestone SML. (a) isocontours of the cost-function  $R^f$  as a  
 412 function of the dispersivity and the effective fraction; (b) optimal solution ( $\lambda_f = 4$  mm and  
 413  $f_f = 0.982$ ).

414





415

416 **Fig. 5.** Exploration of the parameter space to model the evolution of the bulk conductivity of the

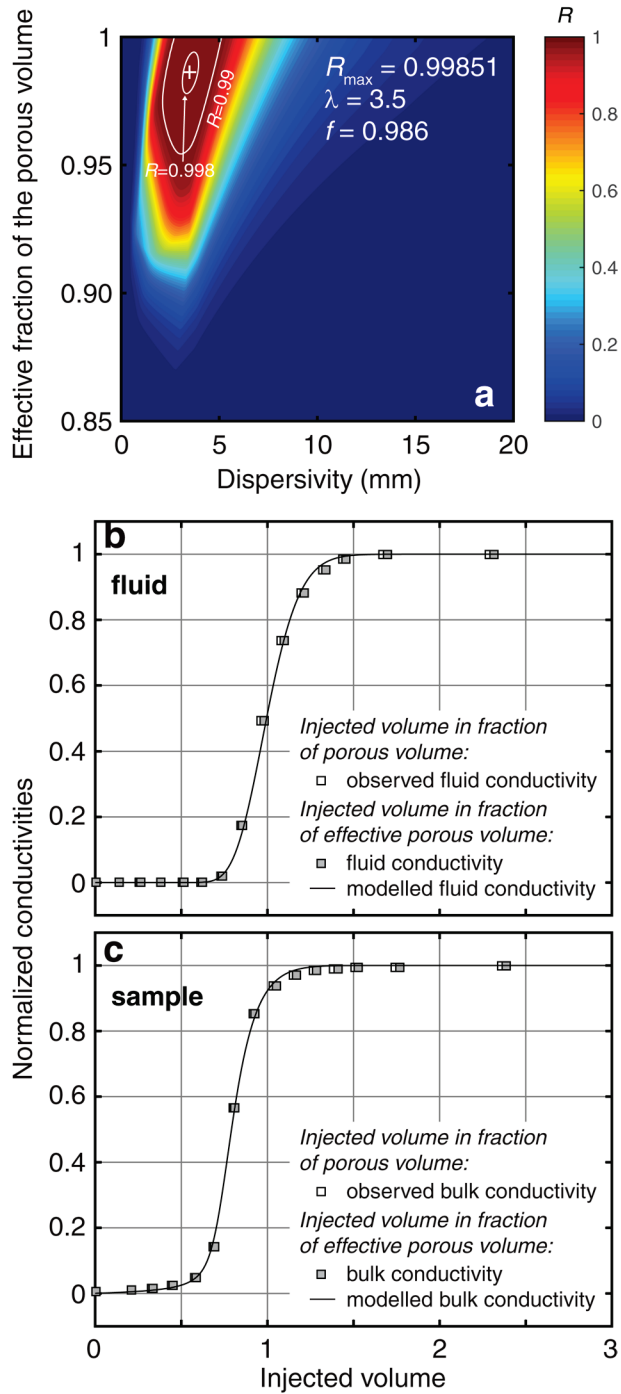
417 SML sample. (a) isocontours of the cost-function  $R^s$  as a function of the dispersivity and the

418 effective fraction; (b) optimal solution ( $\lambda_f = 3.3$  mm and  $f_f = 0.987$ ). Note that the cost-function  $R^s$

419 is more sensitive to the variations of the dispersivity than  $R^f$ , but globally less sensitive to the

420 variations of the effective fraction (compare to Figure 5).

421



422

423 **Fig. 6.** Exploration of the parameter space to model simultaneously the evolutions of the  
 424 outflowing fluid and bulk conductivities for the SML sample. (a) isocontours of the cost-function  
 425  $R$  as a function of the dispersivity and the effective fraction; (b) and (c) optimal solution ( $\lambda = 3.5$   
 426 mm and  $f = 0.986$ ).