Water flow across the interface of contrasting materials: Pressure discontinuity and its implications

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12 Abstract

Water flow along or across the interfaces of contrasting materials is ubiquitous in hydrology 13 and how to solve them in macroscopic models derived from volumetric average of the pore-14 scale processes remains elusive. While the change in the average velocity and pressure at 15 water-sediment interface has been well established for channel flow over porous beds, 16 17 whether a volumetric average could alert the pressure continuity when water flows across the interface of two porous materials is poorly understood despite its imperative implications in 18 hydrological modelling. The primary purpose of this paper is to provide evidences via pore-19 scale simulations that volumetrically averaging the pore-scale processes indeed yields a 20 discontinuous pressure when water flows across a material interface. We simulated two 21 columns numerically reconstructed by filling them with stratified media: One is an idealised 22 two-layer system and the other one is a 3D column filled by fine glass beads over coarse 23 glass beads with their pore geometry acquired using x-ray computed tomography. The pore-24 scale simulation is to mimic the column experiment by driving fluid to flow through the void 25 space under an externally imposed pressure gradient. Once fluid flow reaches steady state, its 26 velocity and pressure in all voxels are sampled and they are then spatially averaged over each 27 section perpendicular to the average flow direction. The results show that the average 28 29 pressure drops abruptly at the material interface no matter which direction the fluid flows. Compared with the effective permeability estimated from the homogenization methods well 30 31 established in the literature, the emerged discontinuous pressure at the interface reduces the combined ability of the two strata to conduct water. It is also found that under certain 32 33 circumstances fluid flow is direction-dependant, moving faster when flowing in the finecoarse direction than in the coarse-to-fine direction under the same pressure gradient. 34 35 Although significant efforts are needed to incorporate these findings into practical models, we do elicit the emergence of discontinuous pressure at material interface due to volumetric 36 average as well as its consequent implications in modelling of flow in heterogeneous and 37 stratified media. 38

Key words: Homogenization; stratified media; pore-scale modelling; pressure discontinuity;upscaling.

41 **1. Introduction**

Water flow over or cross the interfaces of different materials is ubiquitous in both surface 42 43 and subsurface hydrology, and how to solve them is an issue that still attracts interest in modelling of flow in heterogeneous and stratified media (Strack, 2017). Physically, the 44 microscopic water pressure and velocity are continuous and there is no interface between the 45 46 pore spaces in different materials. In practical models for large scales, however, the delicate 47 pore-scale processes cannot be explicitly resolved and they are instead volumetrically averaged with the impact of the porous structure described by effective parameters, such as 48 49 permeability for fluid flow and dispersion coefficient for solute transport (Simunek et al., 2003). Material interfaces emerge as a result and need to be treated explicitly when solving 50 for the volumetric average flow rate and pressure. While mass conservation requires the 51 52 average flow rate across the interfaces to be continuous, there are no physical criteria for the average pressure to meet. Therefore, it has long been speculated that a volumetric average 53 could render what are continuous at pore space discontinuous at macroscopic scales 54 (Berkowitz et al., 2009). For example, it has been found in channel flow over porous bed that 55 the velocity jumps at the water-sediment interface as evidenced from experimental data that, 56 compared to water flow over an impermeable bed, a porous bed could greatly enhance the 57 flow rate (Beavers and Joseph, 1967). Beavers and Joseph (1967) derived a formula to 58 59 describe this velocity jump, which, known as Beavers-Joseph model in the literate since 60 (Nield, 2016), has been used to simulate flows involving fluid-sediment interfaces such as water flow in karst aquifers (Hu et al., 2012). Early applications of the Beavers-Joseph model 61 assumed a continuous pressure around the interface (Sahraoui and Kaviany, 1992), but recent 62 63 work has revealed that this might not be true. For example, numerical simulations showed that the pressure at the water-sediment interface is continuous only when the sediment is 64 isotropic and becomes discontinuous if the sediment is anisotropic (Carraro et al., 2013). For 65

water infiltration into a sand bed from channel, it was also found that the average pressurecould become discontinuous(Carraro et al., 2015).

68 The aforementioned efforts were for channel flow over sediment beds with water flow in the sediments described by the Darcy law. For heterogeneous and stratified soils and aquifers, 69 70 water can move either along or across the interfaces of different materials. How the pressure changes across such interfaces remains elusive and is poorly documented (Nick and Matthai, 71 72 2011). A common conjecture in most macroscopic models is that, given the fluid pressure in void space is continuous, a volumetric average of the pore-scale processes should not alter 73 74 this continuity (Gohardoust et al., 2017). This is the key assumption used in most homogenization methods, such as the wavelet transformation method (King, 1989; Moslehi et 75 al., 2016), to estimate the effective permeability of heterogeneous and stratified porous 76 77 formations. For example, it has been well established and routinely used that the effective permeability of a saturated layered system equals to the harmonic mean and arithmetic mean 78 of the individual permeability of each layer for flow parallel and perpendicular to the layers 79 respectively (Mualem, 1984); these were proven even applicable to estimate effective 80 permeability of unsaturated stratified soils if the individual layers are not too thick (Yeh et 81 al., 1985). It is worth pointing out that the above conclusion is valid only if the pressure at the 82 strata interfaces is continuous, which has yet been proven. To the contrary, theoretical 83 84 analysis of immiscible flow suggested a discontinuous pressure at material interface 85 (Hassanizadeh and Gray, 1989), but evidences proving or disapproving such a discontinuity are lack even for single-phase flow due to the difficulty associated with measuring fluid 86 pressure on each side of a material interface. In the meantime, experimental and theoretical 87 88 studies on chemical transport in stratified media have both found a mass accumulation when solute moves across material interfaces, suggesting existence of a discontinuous 89 concentration which renders chemical transport in stratified media direction-dependant 90

91 (Berkowitz et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2010). Efforts have been made on how to incorporate
92 such discontinuities into macroscopic model for solute transport by assuming the
93 concentration discontinuity is solely caused by permeability difference in the strata (Zoia et
94 al., 2010). This is at odds with some pore-scale simulations which showed that knowing the
95 permeability difference alone is insufficient to quantity the concentration discontinuity and
96 that it is the pore geometry of the adjacent strata that controls how the concentration changes
97 in the proximity of their interface (Zhang et al., 2010).

Given the importance of pressure continuity in modelling fluid flow in heterogeneous 98 99 and stratified media and the difficulty of experimentally measuring it, we investigated the pressure change across material interface via pore-scale modelling in this paper. We 100 considered single phase flow, and the pore-scale simulations were to mimic column 101 102 experiment by driving the fluid to flow under an externally imposed pressure gradient. We simulated two columns with each packed by a fine medium and a coarse medium. The first 103 one was an idealised stratified column with a high porosity, and the second one was a 3D 104 column acquired using x-ray computed tomography. In each simulation, when fluid flow was 105 deemed to have reached steady state, we sampled the fluid pressure and the velocity in each 106 voxel and then spatially averaged them cross the sections perpendicular to the average flow 107 108 direction. Considering that solute transport in two-layer system had been found to be directionally dependant, for each column we also simulated fluid flow in the fine-coarse 109 110 direction and the coarse-fine direction, respectively, in attempts to examine if fluid flow in the two-layer columns was also direction-dependant. 111

112 **2.** Pore-scale simulations

113 The pore-scale modelling is to test the conjecture that the pressure is continuous at 114 material interfaces after a volumetric average. Figure 1a to Figure 3a show the two stratified 115 systems we studied. The first one is an idealised 2D column with high porosity, and the

second one is a column filled with fine glass beads and coarse glass beads; the fine glass beads layer was acquired using x-ray tomography and the coarse one was reconstructed numerically by enlarging the size of all fine glass beads and the pores between them two times equally in all directions (Chen et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2008).

The pore-scale simulation is to mimic column experiment by driving fluid to flow under a pressure gradient imposed externally at the two ends of the columns. Fluid flow in the pore geometry is assumed to be laminar and described by the Navier-Stokes equation; it is simulated using the multiple-relaxation time lattice Boltzmann model as follows (d'Humieres et al., 2002):

125
$$f_i(\boldsymbol{x} + \delta t\boldsymbol{e}_i, t + \delta t) = f_i(\boldsymbol{x}, t) + M^{-1}SM \Big[f_i^{eq}(\boldsymbol{x}, t) - f_i(\boldsymbol{x}, t) \Big],$$
(1)

where $f_i(\mathbf{x}, t)$ is the particle distribution function at location \mathbf{x} and time t moving at lattice 126 velocity e_i , δx is the size of the voxels in the image, δt is time step, $f_i^{eq}(x,t)$ is equilibrium 127 distribution function, M is a transform matrix and S is the collision matrix. The product Mf in 128 Eq. (1) transforms the particle distribution functions to a moment space in which the collision 129 operation $m = SM \left[f_i^{eq}(\mathbf{x}, t) - f_i(\mathbf{x}, t) \right]$ is performed. The post-collision result in the moment 130 space is then transformed back to particle distribution functions by $M^{-1}m$. We use the D3Q19 131 lattice model in this paper where the particle distribution functions move in 19 directions with 132 19 velocities: (0, 0, 0), $(\pm \delta x/\delta t, \pm \delta x/\delta t, 0)$, $(0, \pm \delta x/\delta t, \pm \delta x/\delta t)$, $(\pm \delta x/\delta t, 0, \pm \delta x/\delta t)$ and 133 $(\pm \delta x/\delta t, \pm \delta x/\delta t, \pm \delta x/\delta t)$ (Qian et al., 1992). The collision matrix is diagonal and the terms 134 135 in it are given as follows:

$$S = (s_0, s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4, s_5, s_6, s_7, s_8, s_9, s_{10}, s_{11}, s_{12}, s_{13}, s_{14}, s_{15}, s_{16}, s_{17}, s_{18})^T,$$

$$s_0 = s_3 = s_5 = s_7 = 0,$$

$$s_1 = s_2 = s_{9-15} = 1/\tau,$$

$$s_4 = s_6 = s_8 = s_{16-18} = 8(2 - \tau^{-1})/(8 - \tau^{-1}),$$
(2)

137 The fluid simulated by the above model has a kinematic viscosity $\mu = \delta x^2 (\tau - 0.5)/6\delta t$ and 138 pressure $p = \rho \delta x^2/3\delta t^2$. The equilibrium distribution functions are defined as follows:

$$f_{i}^{eq} = w_{i} \left[\rho + \rho_{0} \left(\frac{3\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{u}}{c^{2}} + \frac{9(\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{u})^{2}}{2c^{4}} - \frac{3\boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{u}}{2c^{2}} \right) \right],$$
139 $w_{0} = 1/3,$
 $w_{i} = 1/18, \qquad \|\boldsymbol{e}_{i}\| = \delta x / \delta t$
 $w_{i} = 1/36 \qquad \|\boldsymbol{e}_{i}\| = \sqrt{2} \delta x / \delta t$
(3)

140 where $c = \delta x / \delta t$ and ρ_0 is a reference fluid density to ensure that the fluid is incompressible 141 when the flow is in steady state(Zou et al., 1995). The bulk fluid density ρ and velocity u are 142 updated after each time step by

143
$$\rho = \sum_{i=0}^{18} f_i,$$

$$\rho_0 u = \sum_{i=1}^{18} f_i e_i.$$
(4)

Implementation of the above model consists of two steps to advance one time step. The 144 first one is to calculate the collision in the moment space and then transform the results back 145 to particle distribution functions, i.e., to calculate $f_i^* = f_i(\mathbf{x}, t) + M^{-1}SM \left[f_i^{eq}(\mathbf{x}, t) - f_i(\mathbf{x}, t) \right];$ 146 and the second step is to move the post-collision particular distribution function f_i^* to position 147 at $x + \delta te_i$ in the time period of δt . During the streaming step, whenever f_i^* hits a solid voxel, it 148 is bounced back to where it was before the streaming to give a non-slip boundary where the 149 150 bulk fluid velocity is zero. In each simulation, once flow is deemed to have reached steady 151 state, we sample fluid pressure and velocity at each voxel and then average them across each y-z section as shown in Figure 3a as follows: 152

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$$P(x) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_{xy}} p(x, y_i, z_i)}{N_{xy}},$$

$$q(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{xy}} u_x(x, y_i, z_i),$$
(5)

where N_{yz} is the number of fluid voxels in the y-z section located at x, $p(x, y_i, z_i)$ and $u_x(x, y_i, z_i)$ is the pressure and velocity component at voxel located at (x, y_i, z_i) , respectively. We also calculate the effective permeability of the column based on the simulated velocity field from

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$$k = \frac{\mu}{Ng} \sum_{i=1}^{N} u_x(x_i, y_i, z_i),$$
(6)

where *k* is the effective permeability; *N* is the number of voxels, including all solid and void voxels; $u_x(x_i, y_i, z_i)$ is the velocity component in the voxel centred at (x_i, y_i, z_i) and *g* is the externally imposed pressure gradient along the column. In addition to the effective permeability of the stratified media, we also calculate the permeability of the fine and the coarse medium separately within each column shown in Figures 1a to 2a.

164 **3. Result Analysis**

After the above volumetric average, the pore-scale flow process in each of columns is simplified as a one-dimensional macroscopic flow as illustrated in Figure 4. The two-layer system can be further homogenized using an effective permeability to describe their combined ability to conduct water (King et al., 1993; Mukhopadhyay and Sahimi, 2000). If the hydraulic conductivity of Soil 1 and Soil 2 is k_1 and k_2 and their thickness is L_1 and L_2 respectively, the effective hydraulic conductivity k of the two soils can be estimated as follows if the pressure at their interface is continuous (Mualem, 1984):

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$$\frac{L_1 + L_2}{k} = \frac{L_1}{k_1} + \frac{L_2}{k_2}.$$
 (7)

For the two examples studied in this work $L_1 = L_2$, and the effective hydraulic conductivity is hence $k = 2k_1k_2/(k_1 + k_2)$. We will call the permeability calculated from Eq. (7) theoretical permeability and compare it with those calculated directly from the pore-scale simulations. For ease of analysing the simulated results in what follows, the space will be normalized to $x' = x/\delta x$, time to $t' = t\mu/\delta x^2$, density to $\rho' = \rho/\rho_w$ and pressure to $P' = P\delta t^2/\delta x^2 \rho_w$,

178 where ρ_w is the density of liquid water.

179 **3.1. The idealised 2D column**

180 Figure 2b shows the average pressure distributions along the column for fluid flow in the fine-coarse direction and the coarse-fine direction, respectively. It is evident that the pressure 181 182 is not continuous but endures an abrupt drop at the interface no matter which direction the 183 fluid flowed. Except at the interface, the pressure is continuous and approximately linearly distributed within each of the two strata in the column. Figure 2c plots the average flow rate 184 along the column calculated from the pore-scale simulations when the fluid flowed in the two 185 opposite directions. The figure shows that under the same pressure gradient, the flow rate is 186 higher when the fluid flowed in the fine-coarse direction than in the coarse-fine direction. 187 188 Due to the energy loss and pressure drop across the interface, the real effective permeability of the two soils calculated from pore-scale simulations is smaller than estimated 189 from Eq. (7); Table 1 compares the results. Emergence of the discontinuous pressure at the 190 191 interface reduced the effective permeability to 8.49 when the fluid flowed in the coarse-fine direction and to 8.63 when it flowed in the fine-coarse direction, compared to the theoretical 192 9.08 when the pressure is assumed to be continuous. 193

The above example is for stratified media with a sharp-cut interface. Stratified geological formations formed naturally usually have transition interfaces where the coarse medium in the proximity of the interface might contains some small-size particles. To elucidate how pressure changes in stratified media with such interfaces, we simulated fluid flow in an idealized image shown in Figure 2a. The average pressure distribution calculated along the column is shown in Figure 2b. Strictly speaking, the pressure is more continuous

compared to the example shown in Figure 1a, but it still ensured a sharp change and suchchange cannot be described by Eq. (7) that assumes the pressure is continuous.

202 **3.2. The 3D column**

The porosity of both the fine and the coarse strata in the 3D column is approximately 203 37%, much less than the porosity of the 2D idealised column. Figure 3b shows the average 204 pressure distribution along the column when the fluid flowed in the fine-coarse and the 205 206 coarse-fine directions. Compared to the 2D columns, the pressure drop across the interface in the 3D column is more significant no matter which direction the fluid flowed, probably 207 208 because the 3D image is more porous and the energy loss (thus the pressure drop) associated with the flow through it is more significant than that in the 2D idealised example. The key 209 result in this example is that the pressure drop is approximately the same, regardless of flow 210 211 direction. The example shown in Figure 4b is for flow under pressure gradient of 0.0013, and the pressure drop over the interface is 0.056. Again, because the energy loss over the 212 interface is almost the same when fluid flow in different directions, their associated 213 permeability is also comparable as shown in Table 1. Strictly speaking, however, the 214 permeability calculated from the pore-scale simulation for flow in the fine-coarse direction is 215 still higher than that in the coarse-fine direction, consistent with the results obtained from the 216 2D column. 217

218 Physically, the average macroscopic pressure at the strata interface should be continuous 219 when fluid is stagnant, and the pressure drop at the interface is hence solely caused by fluid 220 flow. It is therefore natural to examine how the pressure drop responds to flow rate. Figure 5 221 shows the change in the pressure drop as the average flow rate increases. The pressure drop 222 Δp increases parabolically with the average flow rate q. Because of the pressure drop and 223 energy loss over the interface, the permeability calculated from the pore-scale simulations 224 decreases as the average flow rate increases as shown in Figure 5.

4. Discussion and conclusions

Pore-scale simulations of water flow in idealised 2D columns and a 3D column obtained 226 227 using x-ray tomography both revealed that volumetrically averaging the pore-scale process resulted in a macroscopic pressure that is discontinuous at the material interface in the 228 columns. The emerged discontinuous pressure means extra energy loss and, as a result, 229 230 reduces the combined ability of the two strata to conduct water compared to the prediction 231 from the classical homogenization methods that assume a continuous pressure at the material interface. The magnitude of the pressure drop across the interface varies with physical 232 233 properties of the materials as well as water flow rate across the column. For the columns we simulated, the pressure drop increases parabolically with water flow rate. Furthermore, 234 depending on physical properties of the strata, water flow could even become direction-235 dependant in that water moved faster when flowing the fine-coarse direction than in the 236 coarse-fine direction. We also found that a sharp pressure drop existed even for transitional 237 interface in which the coarse medium near the interface contains some small particles. 238 Early study on channel flow over sediment bed has shown that the change in 239 macroscopic pressure across the water-sediment interface depended on the sediment, being 240 continuous if the sediment is isotropic and discontinuous if the sediment was anisotropic 241 (Carraro et al., 2013; Marciniak-Czochra and Mikelic, 2012). Our simulations suggested that 242 this conclusion appear to be valid only for channel flow in parallel with sand bed and break 243 244 down when water flows across the interface of two porous materials. For water flow across material interface, the mass conservation requires that the average flow rate calculated from 245 Eq. (5) must be a constant along the column. Physically, the pressure drop at the interface is 246 the consequence of energy loss caused by viscous friction, which increases with velocity. The 247 viscous friction depends on the water-wall interfacial areas, which differ in the fine and 248 coarse media because the specific surface area in the former is bigger than that in the latter. 249

For the 3D column, the porosity of the coarse and the fine medium shown in Figure 3a is 250 approximately the same, and the average-pore velocity in them is hence also the same. As 251 252 such, under the same externally imposed pressure gradient, the pressure drop in the 3D column is independent of flow direction as shown in Figure 3b. In contrast, the porosity of 253 the two media in Figure 1a and Figure 2a differs slightly and, consequently, the average pore-254 water velocity in them is different. Therefore, apart from energy loss caused by viscous 255 256 friction, inertial dissipation due to the abrupt increase or decrease in pore-water velocity might also play a role in inducing the pressure drop. Theoretically, the relative significance of 257 258 the energy loss caused by viscous friction and inertial dissipation depends on flow rate. However, since water flow in porous materials is viscous, in all columns we simulated, the 259 energy loss is dominated by viscous friction and the pressure drop is hence independent or 260 261 only slightly dependant of flow direction as evidenced from the simulated results. Fluid flow in the proximity of material interfaces is ubiquitous in hydrology but 262 complicated to be described. The results presented in this paper might improve our 263 understanding of water flow in heterogeneous and stratified media, but incorporating them 264 into macroscopic models needs substantial efforts even though numerical models capable of 265 dealing with discontinuous pressure at material interfaces exist (Nick and Matthai, 2011). The 266 challenge lies in that the pressure drop across the interface depends not only on material 267 properties and flow rate but also on the flow direction. Quantifying these processes and then 268 269 incorporating them into macroscopic models is not trivial, especially when flow is transient (Kitanidis, 1990). Given these challenges, assuming a continuous pressure at the material 270 interface is postulated to be the dominant approach in the foreseeable future for modelling 271 272 flow in heterogeneous and stratified media because of its simplicity ease in implementation, especially for unsaturated flow which is far more complicated than saturated flow even under 273 steady flow condition (Pruess, 2004). Notwithstanding these, this work still has an important 274

- implication as it provides evidence that spatial average (or upscaling) does result in a
- discontinuous pressure at material interfaces and that the commonly used homogenization
- 277 methods for estimating effective permeability and for calculating flow across material
- 278 interfaces in heterogeneous and stratified porous formations could give rise to errors. The
- significance of the errors depend on media property and flow rate and direction.
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Table 1. Comparison of the effective permeability calculated directly from pore-scale simulations with the theoretical estimates by assuming the pressure at the interface is continuous for the columns shown in Figures 1a and 3a.

	2D Column	3D Column
Permeability of the fine medium k_1	5.89	1.050
Permeability of the coarse medium k_2	19.85	2.452
Theoretical effective permeability	9.08	1.470
Calculated effective permeability in fine-coarse direction	8.63	1.289
Calculated effective permeability in coarse-fine direction	8.49	1.285

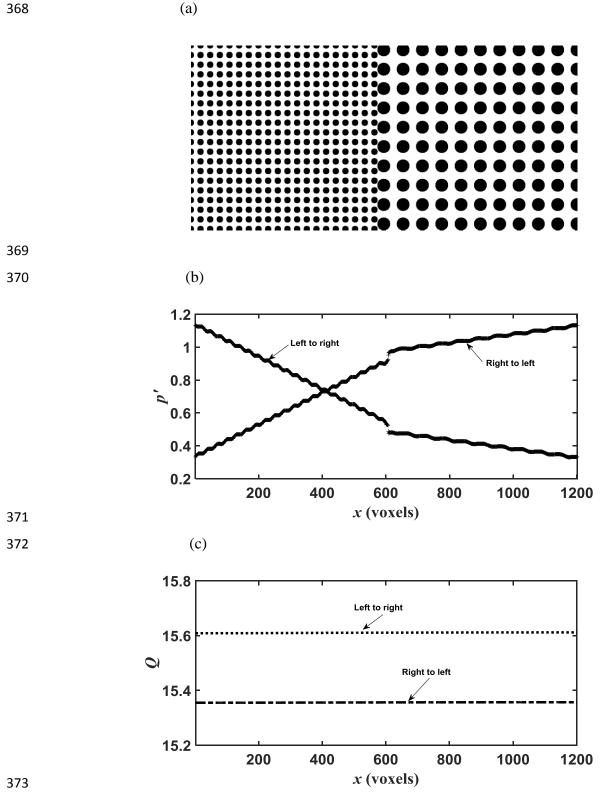
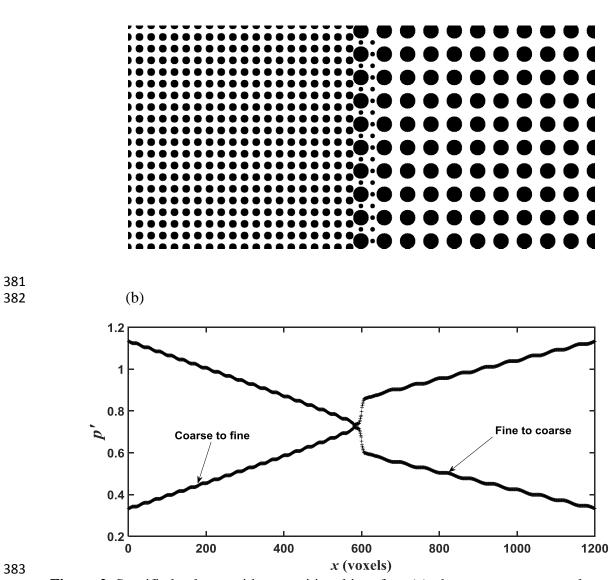


Figure 1. The idealised stratified column for pore-scale simulation (a); the average pressure along the column when fluid flows from the left to the right and from the right to the left respectively (b); average flow rate through the column calculated directly from pore-scale simulations when fluid flows from the left to the right and the right to the left respectively (c).



(a)

Figure 2. Stratified column with a transitional interface (a); the average pressure along the column when fluid flows in the fine-to-coarse direction and the coarse-to-fine direction (b).

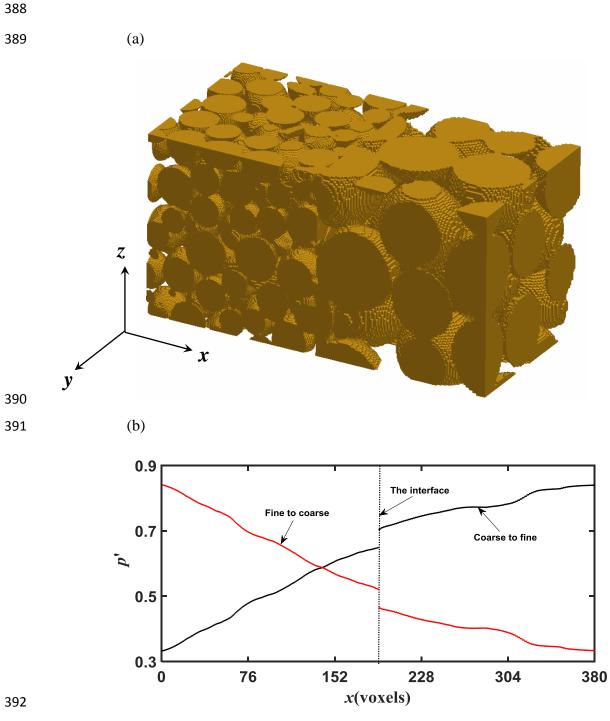




Figure 3. The 3D stratified column acquired using x-ray tomography (a). The average pressure distribution calculated directly from pore-scale simulation when fluid flows in the fine-coarse and the coarse-fine directions respectively (b).

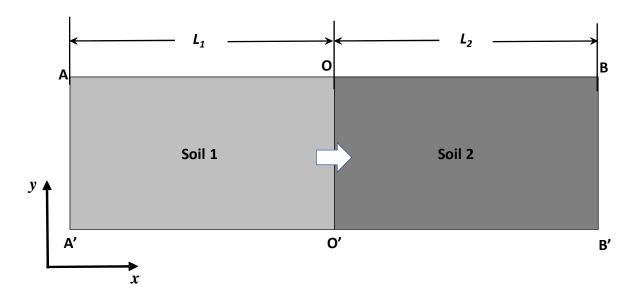
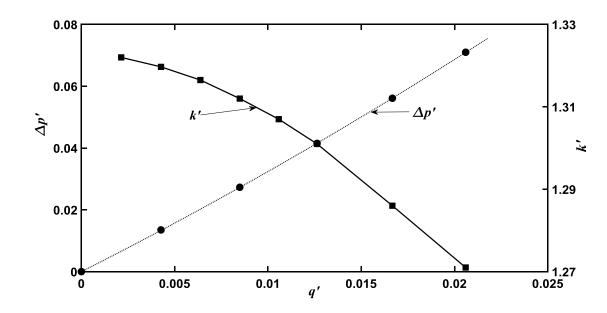




Figure 4. Schematic illustration of the one-dimensional macroscopic flow resulted from

401 volumetric average of the two columns in Figures 1a to 3a.





405 Figure 5. Change in the effective permeability and the pressure drop over the media interface406 in the 3D column shown in Figure 4a as the flow rate through it increases.