



**Eddy-Driven effects on solute transport in turbulent channel flows in porous media**

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## 22    **Abstract**

23    Groundwater pollution poses a significant threat to water resource sustainability, yet  
24    the role of pore-scale eddies in solute transport remains underexplored. This study  
25    investigates the effects of hydrodynamic conditions (flow velocity) and porous media  
26    structural parameters (particle size, arrangement) on eddy development and solute  
27    transport through laboratory experiments and numerical simulations. A novel three-  
28    dimensional (3D) quantitative method for characterizing eddy zones was proposed,  
29    revealing the mechanisms of eddy formation and their impact on solute breakthrough  
30    curves (BTCs). Results indicate that higher flow velocities and larger particle sizes  
31    amplify eddy proportions, leading to pronounced BTC tailing due to delayed solute  
32    exchange between main flow stream and eddy zones. The mobile-immobile model  
33    (MIM) parameters, particularly the immobile zone ratio ( $1-\beta$ ), showed strong alignment  
34    with eddy proportions, reducing inversion ambiguity. Smaller particle sizes diminished  
35    early solute breakthrough, while random-packed (RP) media exhibited the slowest  
36    solute penetration compared to structured arrangements (SC, FCC, BCC). The study  
37    establishes exponential relationships between dilution index and eddy-dominated solute  
38    heterogeneity, highlighting structural controls on diffusion coefficients. These findings  
39    enhance theoretical frameworks for groundwater solute transport and provide practical  
40    insights for optimizing pollution remediation strategies in porous media systems.  
41    Keyword: Eddy effect, Porous media, Solute transport, Mobile-immobile model



## 42    **1 Introduction**

43            Groundwater, as one of the important types of water sources, is characterized by  
44    its widespread distribution, abundant reserves, and good water quality, which is often  
45    used as a vital water source for industrial and agricultural production ([Danielopol et al.,](#)  
46    [2003](#); [Foster and Chilton, 2003](#); [Llamas and Martínez-Santos, 2005](#)). However, the  
47    intensification of human activities has led to a continuous deterioration of groundwater  
48    quality ([Burri et al., 2019](#); [Shah et al., 2003](#)). Approximately 90% of groundwater  
49    resources in China are affected by varying degrees of pollution ([Jia et al., 2018](#); [Wang](#)  
50    [et al., 2018](#)). Once contaminated, remediation is often difficult, resulting in a high  
51    vulnerability of most aquifers ([Gorelick and Zheng, 2015](#); [Kalhor et al., 2019](#)). The  
52    coordinated development of socio-economic and ecological environments has  
53    generated an unprecedented urgent demand for the prevention and control of  
54    groundwater pollution. According to the conditions of the groundwater storage  
55    mediums, groundwater can be classified into pore water, fissure water, and karst water  
56    ([Kaufmann and Braun, 2000](#)), among which the pore media are widely distributed and  
57    easily exploitable, making them the primary water storage medium in aquifers of plain  
58    areas ([Gruzalski et al., 2016](#)). However, the vast majority of quantitative studies of  
59    groundwater mass and energy migration are based on the "seepage assumption" ([Harr,](#)  
60    [2012](#)), which simplifies the complex and curvilinear motion of groundwater within the  
61    actual geotechnical void to the linear movement of groundwater through solid particles.  
62    This simplification greatly facilitates the construction and solution of models for



63 groundwater flow dynamics and solute transport, providing a foundation for the  
64 quantitative study of macro-scale groundwater flow and solute fields, which also  
65 addressing many practical engineering problems ([Vaughan, 2009](#); [Wang, 2004](#)).  
66 However, the actual groundwater flow movement is essentially a complex curved  
67 motion ([Hubbert, 1940](#); [Polubarinova-Kochina, 2015](#)). During this process, the intricate  
68 boundary morphology can easily form eddies, which has significant effects on the  
69 resistance of water flow movement, velocity distribution of flow field, spatial  
70 distribution of groundwater solute, and the law of solute migration, especially on the  
71 distribution, migration and retention of solute ([Lee and Babadagli, 2021](#); [Li et al., 2023](#);  
72 [Zhou et al., 2021](#)).

73 Traditional studies suggest that the migration patterns of pollutants can be  
74 described using the advection-diffusion equation, assuming that the dispersion behavior  
75 of the solute plume conforms to Fickian laws ([Grindrod and Impey, 1993](#); [Moradi and](#)  
76 [Mehdinejadiani, 2018](#); [Zhou and Selim, 2003](#)). [Kreft and Zuber \(1978\)](#) provided an  
77 analytical solution for the breakthrough curves (BTCs) indicating that that Fickian BTC  
78 is asymmetric in time and symmetrical only in space. However, a large number of  
79 studies have found that the BTCs of pollutants migrating through porous media are not  
80 symmetrical normal distributions, but rather exhibit significant early arrival and tailing  
81 non-Fickian behavior ([Brusseau et al., 1989](#); [de Vries et al., 2017](#); [Rao et al., 1980](#)).  
82 This leads to an increased residence time of pollutants in the porous media and  
83 significantly slows down the concentration decay process ([Brusseau, 1994](#); [S'imunek](#)



84 [et al., 2006](#); [Tang et al., 1981](#)). It has been found that eddies have a significant effect on  
85 pollutant tailing ([Dou et al., 2019](#); [Zheng et al., 2022](#)). The curvature of pore boundaries  
86 and scaling of cross-sectional areas will lead to the water flow to change direction,  
87 accelerate, or decelerate, making it prone to the formation of eddies. The complexity of  
88 pore structures determines that eddies are one of the most common and easily occurring  
89 phenomena in actual groundwater flow, significantly influencing the distribution of  
90 flow velocity and the migration of substances. Unfortunately, due to the limitation of  
91 the microscopic scale of the porous media, which is usually millimeter or micron level,  
92 it is difficult to directly observe the eddy region, resulting in insufficient quantitative  
93 identification of eddies. There are few studies considering the influence of eddies on  
94 the solute transport process of the porous media from the pore scale, which also makes  
95 the mechanism of eddies on the migration of pollutants in porous media seriously  
96 ignored for a long time.

97       The currently mobile-immobile model (MIM) is often used to describe the non-  
98 Fickian transport behavior observed in solute transport within porous media affected  
99 by eddies ([Gouze et al., 2008](#); [Hasan et al., 2019](#); [Karadimitriou et al., 2016](#)). The MIM  
100 model divides the water flow into two parts: the mobile zone and the immobile zone.  
101 The solute exchange between the different regions occurs through molecular diffusion,  
102 and the exchange intensity depends on the concentration difference in different regions  
103 ([Gao et al., 2010](#); [Kohne et al., 2004](#)). The parameters related to the MIM model, such  
104 as the proportion of the immobile zone, can only be retrieved by fitting the BTCs.



105 Additionally, the uncertainty of the MIM model is increased because the physical  
106 meaning of relevant parameters cannot be clearly defined during the calibration process,  
107 which limits the range of parameter values.

108 To further explore the generation, development, and evolution of eddies, as well  
109 as their influence on solute transport processes under different hydrodynamic  
110 conditions (different velocities) and the main controlling factors of porous media  
111 structure (different particle sizes and arrangement), this study designed various types  
112 of porous media models and conducted a series of laboratorial physical model  
113 experiments and numerical simulations. Firstly, a new quantitative characterization  
114 method of three-dimensional (3D) eddy area proportion is proposed. Secondly, the  
115 mechanism of different flow velocities, particle sizes and arrangement patterns on the  
116 formation, development and evolution of eddies and their influence on solute transport  
117 was revealed from the 3D pore scale. Finally, the relationship between the parameters  
118 of the MIM model and the structural parameters of the porous medium is quantified,  
119 which can provide scientific support for the prevention and control of groundwater  
120 pollution, and enrich the basic theories of groundwater seepage and solute transport.

## 121 **2 Materials and methods**

### 122 **2.1 Model design and experimental apparatus**

123 To investigate the mechanisms by which the structure of different types of porous  
124 media affects the development and evolution of eddies, this study designed four  
125 different types of porous media, including simple cubic (SC), face-centered cubic



(FCC), body-centered cubic (BCC), and randomly packed (RP). The SC is the loosest pore structure, and the arrangement is gradually tight from FCC to BCC, and the corresponding porosity is 0.476, 0.398, and 0.266, respectively. The randomly packed porosity is 0.645. Subsequently, we can determine the coordinates of each sphere once they achieve mechanical equilibrium. The geometric model of the randomly packed porous media is constructed by integrating MATLAB. It is worth mentioning that the particle sizes of pore media in different arrangement modes are consistent, and a total of 5 mm, 8 mm, 10 mm, 15 mm different particle sizes are designed. The different types of porous media models are shown in Figure 1.

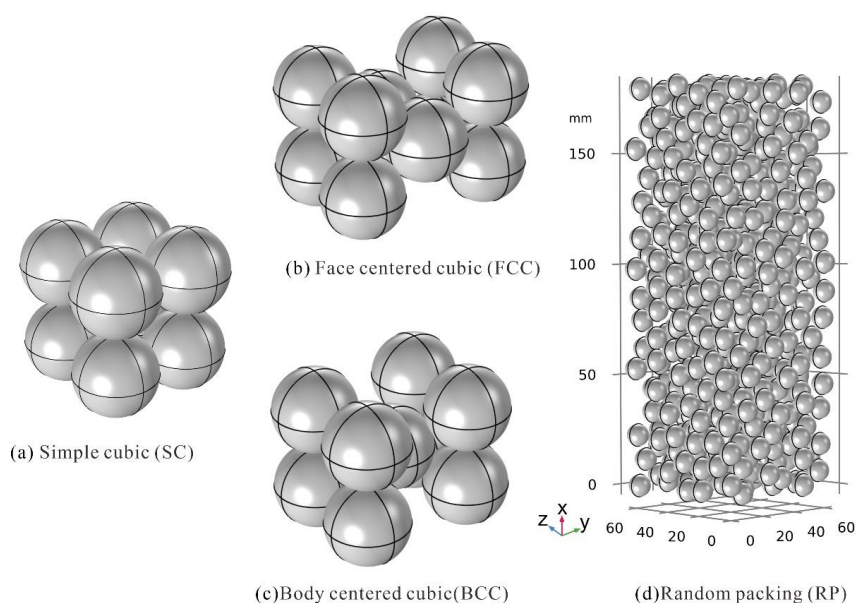


Figure 1. Diagram of different types of porous media models.

Considering the limitations of traditional physical model experiments, we choose the SC packed model to carry out laboratory seepage and solute transport experiments. According to our previous research (Huang et al., 2013), we found that the wall effect



(the flow resistance caused by the tube wall) could be disregarded when the number of  
 spheres in the cross-section of the experimental tubes reached  $6 \times 6$ . The schematic  
 diagram and physical diagram of the experimental device are shown in Figure 2.

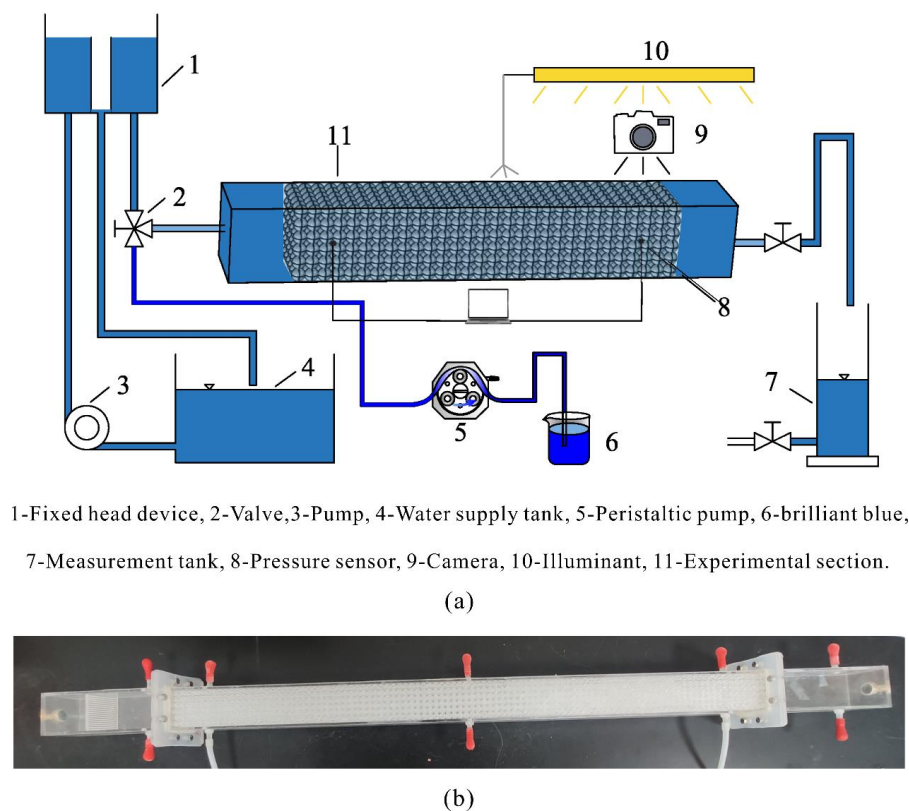


Figure 2. Schematic diagram of solute transport experimental setup.

The tracer delivery system and imaging system were added on the basis of the  
 seepage experimental device. The experimental tube section is composed of three parts:  
 the inlet and outlet transition section and the porous media section. The total length of  
 the experimental tube section is 150 cm, the pellet filling section is 100 cm, and the  
 length of the inlet and outlet transition section is 25 cm. The transition section is  
 designed to mitigate the effects of inlet and outlet influences. Additionally, a dissipative



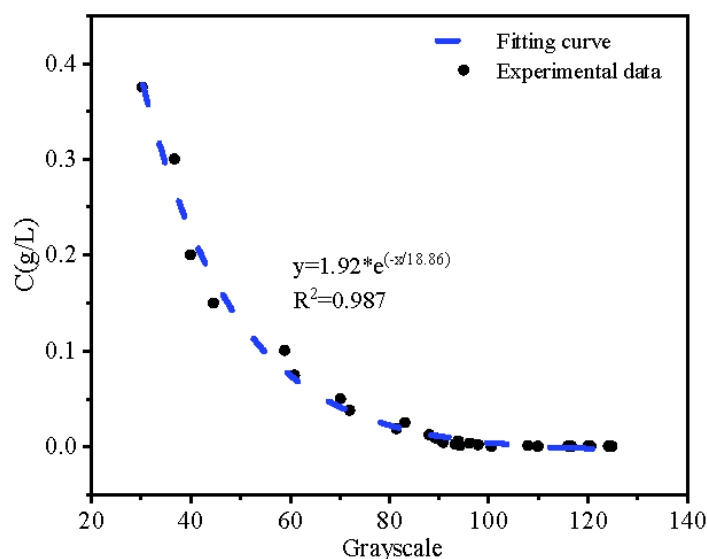


151 plate with numerous small holes is installed at the inlet transition section to ensure a  
152 more stable flow of water entering the system. The medium section is filled with  
153 artificially bonded cubic spheres arranged in a specific pattern, and pressure  
154 measurement ports are located 5 cm away from both the inlet and outlet. The  
155 measurement system consists of three components: flow, pressure, and temperature  
156 measuring devices. The flow rate after stabilization is calculated using the volumetric  
157 method. By monitoring the pressure changes between the two pressure measurement  
158 ports using a pressure sensor, a quantitative relationship between seepage resistance  
159 and flow velocity can be obtained.

160 To investigate the effects of different influencing factors (such as different flow  
161 velocities, particle sizes, and arrangement) on the solute transport process, the selected  
162 tracer should not react with the porous media and should have low adsorption properties.  
163 Due to its stable chemical properties and good visibility, Brilliant Blue was chosen as  
164 the tracer for this solute transport experiment. The photography method involves  
165 capturing images or videos of Brilliant Blue concentrations at different time intervals  
166 using high-resolution camera (FDR-AX60, SONY). The quantitative relationship  
167 between solute concentration and image information can be established by obtaining  
168 information from images of a fixed concentration of Brilliant Blue solution (such as  
169 grayscale values or RGB values), allowing for the determination of solute  
170 concentrations at different times. Compared to the sampling method, the photography  
171 method does not disturb the flow field and is easy to operate, which has been widely



172 used. To address the concern regarding light source variation, we implemented a strict  
173 protocol: the light source, camera, and column positions were fixed, and each image  
174 was corrected using a reference image taken with pure water under identical conditions.  
175 Most importantly, the calibration curve was developed under the exact same lighting  
176 settings as the experiments, meaning the concentration-grayscale relationship  
177 inherently accounts for the specific illumination field, ensuring robust relative  
178 measurements. The relationship between the concentration of Brilliant Blue and the  
179 grayscale values of the photographs we obtained is shown in Figure 1, displaying a  
180 clear negative power-exponential relationship. Strictly speaking, the observation  
181 concerning the increased uncertainty in low-concentration estimation from the  
182 calibration curve, which is an inherent limitation of the optical method.



183

184 Figure 3. A quantitative relationship between brilliant blue concentration and

185

grayscale image.



## 186 2.2 Numerical simulation methods and model validation

187 It is very difficult or almost impossible to obtain the 3D seepage field of porous  
188 media by traditional physical model experiment. With the rapid development of  
189 computational fluid dynamics, numerical simulation has been widely used in the study  
190 of groundwater seepage ([Banaei et al., 2021](#); [Yang et al., 2019](#); [Yu et al., 2023](#)), which  
191 also and has a good effect on the simulation of porous media using COMSOL  
192 Multiphysics® ([Banaei et al., 2021](#); [Koohbor et al., 2023](#)). The COMSOL  
193 Multiphysics® is a finite element method-based fluid simulation software that can  
194 simulate fluid flow in porous media by solving the conservation equations and the  
195 Navier-Stokes equations for incompressible fluids. The transport process of solute in  
196 porous media was simulated using the advection-diffusion equation coupled with the  
197 flow field. And the governing equations are shown as follows:

$$\rho \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\rho (\mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla) \mathbf{u} = \mu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u} - \nabla p \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot \mathbf{J} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla C = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$\mathbf{J} = -D \nabla C \quad (4)$$

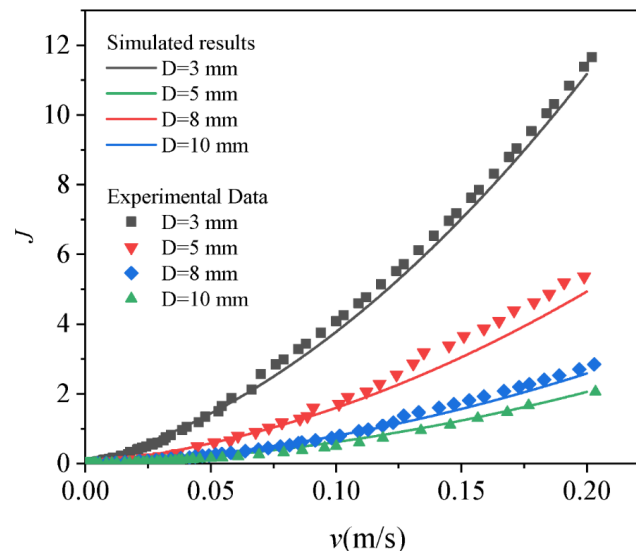
198 where  $\rho$  is the fluid density,  $\nabla$  is the gradient operator,  $\mathbf{u}$  is the velocity vector in 3D  
199 coordinate system,  $\mu$  is the dynamic viscosity, and  $p$  is the total pressure. As for the  
200 solute field,  $C$  is the injection concentration of the solute,  $\mathbf{J}$  is the mass flux diffusive  
201 flux vector,  $D$  is the diffusion coefficient.



202 Experiments and corresponding numerical simulations were conducted on the SC  
203 model under different flow velocities. It is essential to ensure that the dimensions of the  
204 numerical model are fully consistent with those of the experimental section. The inlet  
205 boundary is set as a velocity boundary, the outlet boundary is set as a pressure boundary,  
206 and the model wall is set as a no-slip boundary with zero flow. Besides, the density of  
207 water is  $998.2 \text{ kg/m}^3$ , and the dynamic viscosity is  $1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Pa}\cdot\text{s}$ . The concentration at the  
208 inlet boundary is set to  $0.079 \text{ g/L}$ , the right side of the model is set as the outflow  
209 boundary, and the wall is set as a zero-flux boundary. The molecular diffusion  
210 coefficient of the solute is set to  $2 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ . Then, the corresponding flow field and  
211 solute field are obtained by controlling different inlet velocities. The preprocessing of  
212 the model has a significant impact on the results of numerical simulations. The overall  
213 accuracy of the model mesh generation is controlled by setting the boundary layer and  
214 the number of grid elements. On the one hand, the selected mesh size should not be too  
215 large, otherwise it will not be able to reflect the real model structure, on the other hand,  
216 the mesh size should not be too small, which will consume much more computer  
217 resources, and the calculation results cannot even converge. The COMSOL  
218 Multiphysics® can offer nine levels of grid sizes, and the mesh sensitivity analysis  
219 indicates that the fine-level grid can avoid poor mesh quality and greatly improve  
220 computing efficiency. In our previous research, The COMSOL Multiphysics® was also  
221 applied to the simulation of the seepage field and solute field in rough conduit media,  
222 achieving good results ([Li et al., 2024](#)).



223 To ensure the accuracy of the numerical simulation, we need to validate the  
 224 simulation results with the experimental data, which are detailed in [Huang et al. \(2013\)](#).  
 225 We have compared the numerical simulation results with the experimental results, and  
 226 the relationship between hydraulic gradient ( $J$ ) and specific discharge ( $v$ ) in porous  
 227 media with SC packing is plotted in Figure 4. To avoid confusion, we should point that  
 228  $J$  indeed represents the mass diffusive flux vector, which is a vector quantity (bold in  
 229 italics). Conversely, in Figure 4,  $J$  was used to denote the hydraulic gradient, a scalar  
 230 quantity.



231  
 232 Figure 4. Comparison of experimental and numerical simulation  $J$ - $q$  curves of SC  
 233 packing porous media.

234 We can see that the hydraulic gradient in the simulation results is slightly less than  
 235 that in the experimental results; even so, the simulation results fit well with the  
 236 experimental results overall. When the particle size of spheres remains the same, the  
 237 hydraulic gradient increases with the increasing specific discharge. While the specific



238 discharge is somewhere the same, a smaller particle size leads to a greater hydraulic  
239 gradient. In other words, the smaller particle size needs to overcome the stronger  
240 seepage resistance. In this study, the experimental hydraulic data ( $v$ - $J$  curves in Figure  
241 4) provided the primary validation for the flow field. Since Brilliant Blue is an inert  
242 tracer, its transport is predominantly advection-diffusion under the studied conditions.  
243 Therefore, accurately replicating the flow field is the most critical factor for reliable  
244 solute transport simulations. The strong agreement between experimental and simulated  
245  $v$ - $J$  relationships demonstrates the accuracy of the flow field, thereby validating the  
246 foundation for the subsequent solute transport results. Therefore, given that the flow  
247 field has been rigorously validated and the solute is inert, we are confident that the  
248 numerical solute transport results are robust.

249 Besides, we acknowledge that a direct comparison of experimental and numerical  
250 concentration fields would be ideal. However, obtaining detailed 3D experimental  
251 concentration data within the opaque porous medium is technically challenging with  
252 our current setup. Our experimental concentration measurement (via imaging) provides  
253 spatially-averaged data at the column outlet (BTCs), but not the internal 3D  
254 concentration fields needed for a point-by-point comparison. Therefore, our validation  
255 strategy relied on a foundational principle: for an inert solute, the accuracy of the  
256 transport simulation is entirely dependent on the accuracy of the flow field. The good  
257 agreement in the  $v$ - $J$  curve validates the overall flow field. And the solute transport  
258 simulation is a direct consequence of the validated flow field and the advection-



259 diffusion equation. It will clarify that for an inert tracer, no additional solute-specific  
260 calibration is performed or required, as the transport parameters are known.

### 261 **3 Results and discussion**

#### 262 **3.1 Identification of eddy zone in 3D scale**

263 Due to the complexity of porous media structure, the streamlines are obstructed  
264 during the seepage process, resulting in the formation of numerous eddy zones.  
265 However, it is very difficult to directly extract the volume of eddy area in 3D porous  
266 media. Different methods for identifying the eddy area in 3D scale was proposed based  
267 on the definition of zero flux in eddy zones ([Zhou et al., 2019](#)) and the velocity  
268 probability density function (PDF), see details in [Bijeljic et al. \(2013\)](#).

269 Taking the SC model as an example, firstly, we sliced the 3D porous media model  
270 using the XZ plane (with the X-axis as the flow direction). Multiple cross-sections are  
271 set along the Y-axis to ensure that the number of slices can effectively cover the entire  
272 model, as shown in Figure 5(a), and further export the velocity field data of different  
273 2D sections. We can see that the colors at different positions are different, reflecting  
274 different flow velocities through the local magnification of the 2D slice flow field, as  
275 shown in Figure 5(b). The flow velocity is lower in the areas where eddies are generated,  
276 while the flow velocity at the main flow stream is relatively large. To analyze the flow  
277 velocity characteristics of the eddy area and their impact on solute transport, we further  
278 obtained the flow velocity and concentration data at different times along the white  
279 section line (which includes the main flow stream and the eddy area, see Figure 5(b))



280 according to the numerical simulation results, as shown in Figure 5(c). It can be seen  
281 from Figure 5(c) that the flow velocity curve exhibits three peak velocity segments and  
282 two low velocity segments. Combined with Figure 5(b), we can see that the region with  
283 high velocity corresponds to the main flow stream, while the region with low velocity  
284 corresponds to the eddy area. The flow velocity of the main flow stream is significantly  
285 higher than that of the eddy area, approximately 20 times the velocity in the eddy area.  
286 Moreover, we can clearly observe that there is a significant point of mutation in the  
287 flow velocity between the main flow stream and the eddy zone (the blue curve in Figure  
288 5(c)). In addition, we selected two arbitrary moments ( $t_1$ ,  $t_2$ ) during the solute  
289 attenuation process to obtain the solute concentrations in both the main flow stream and  
290 the eddy zone. It can be observed that the solute concentrations in the eddy zone are  
291 significantly higher than those in the main flow stream. This is due to the relatively low  
292 flow velocity in the eddy zone, along with the bending and deflection of streamlines,  
293 which allows the solute to be captured by eddies, slowing down the diffusion process  
294 into the main flow stream.

295 To compare the velocity differences at various positions within the flow field, we  
296 performed normalization using the average flow velocity ( $v_{av}$ ), which is actually the  
297 inlet flow velocity. We classify the velocities at different positions in 3D space and  
298 obtained the velocity probability density function (PDF) and cumulative probability  
299 density function (CDF) under different inlet flow velocities, allowing us to compare the  
300 changes in the proportion of low-velocity areas under different flow velocity conditions.

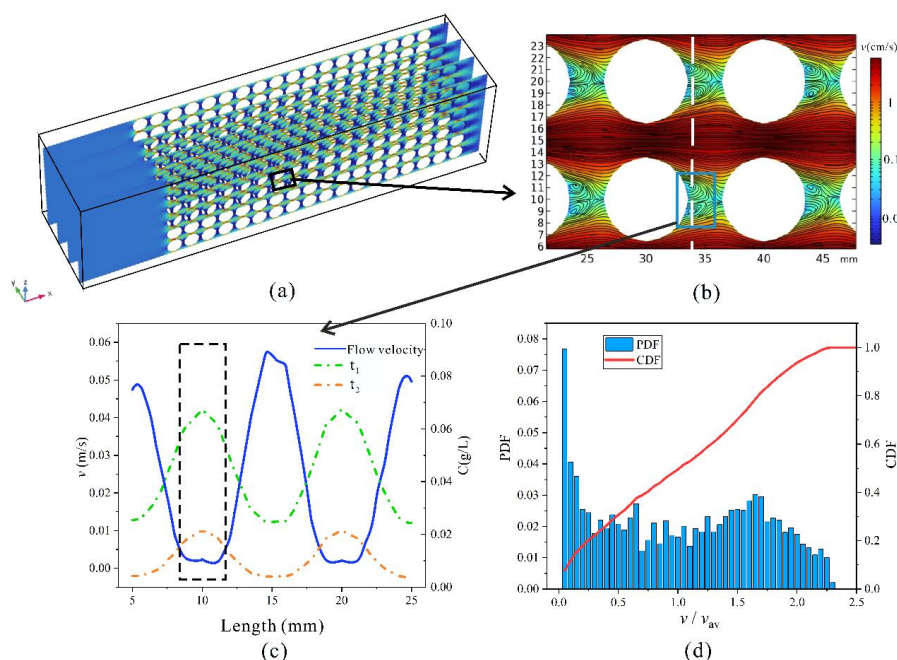




301 Based on the velocity difference between the main flow stream and the eddy zone, we  
302 can obtain the critical flow velocity ( $v_c$ ), which is the significant point of mutation  
303 mentioned above. The process of using the PDF and CDF to quantify the eddy area in  
304 a 2D slice, which is then integrated to obtain the 3D proportion, is indeed a key aspect  
305 of our analysis, which divided into five steps: Firstly, using the self-developed  
306 MATLAB code to process the acquired 2D seepage field data. For a given 2D slice (e.g.,  
307 an XZ plane at a specific Y-coordinate, as in Figure 5a), we export the velocity  
308 magnitude at every grid point within the fluid domain. We then calculate the PDF and  
309 CDF of these velocity values for that specific slice. The horizontal axis of this plot is  
310 the velocity normalized by the average inlet velocity ( $v/v_{av}$ ). As shown in Figure 5(c),  
311 we identify a critical flow velocity ( $v_c$ ) that represents the inflection point separating  
312 the low velocities in the eddy zones from the high velocities in the main flow channels.  
313 The value of the CDF corresponding to this normalized critical velocity ( $v_c/v_{av}$ ) directly  
314 gives the area fraction of that specific 2D slice where the velocity is less than or equal  
315 to  $v_c$ . This area fraction is our quantitative measure of the "eddy area" for that slice. By  
316 repeating this PDF/CDF analysis for a dense series of parallel 2D slices spanning the  
317 entire model (along the Y-axis), we obtain the eddy area fraction for each slice. The  
318 eddy area proportion for the entire 3D model is then calculated by integrating  
319 (averaging) these 2D area fractions across all slices. This method provides a robust and



320 objective way to quantify the complex 3D eddy volume from 2D slice data.



321

322

Figure 5. Schematic diagram of eddy extraction in porous media.

### 323 3.2 Effects of different flow velocities on solute transport

324 We selected the SC model with particle size of 10 mm to conduct numerical  
 325 simulations at four different flow velocities (including 0.5 cm/s, 1 cm/s, 1.5 cm/s, and  
 326 2 cm/s), and the 2D slice flow fields are shown in Figure 6. The Reynolds numbers  
 327 corresponding to different flow velocities range from a minimum of 113 to a maximum  
 328 of 1697, which can provide a standardized metric to characterize the flow and will be  
 329 accompanied by a discussion clarifying that the observed eddy formation is a result of  
 330 inertial effects within the laminar flow regime, rather than full turbulence. We have  
 331 chosen to maintain our analysis based on direct flow velocity for the specific objectives  
 332 of this study. Our focus is on establishing a direct, intuitive link between the



hydrodynamic driving force (velocity) and the resulting eddy development and solute transport behavior. The red areas indicate the main flow stream with high velocity, while the blue areas represent the low-velocity regions formed in the porous medium structure.

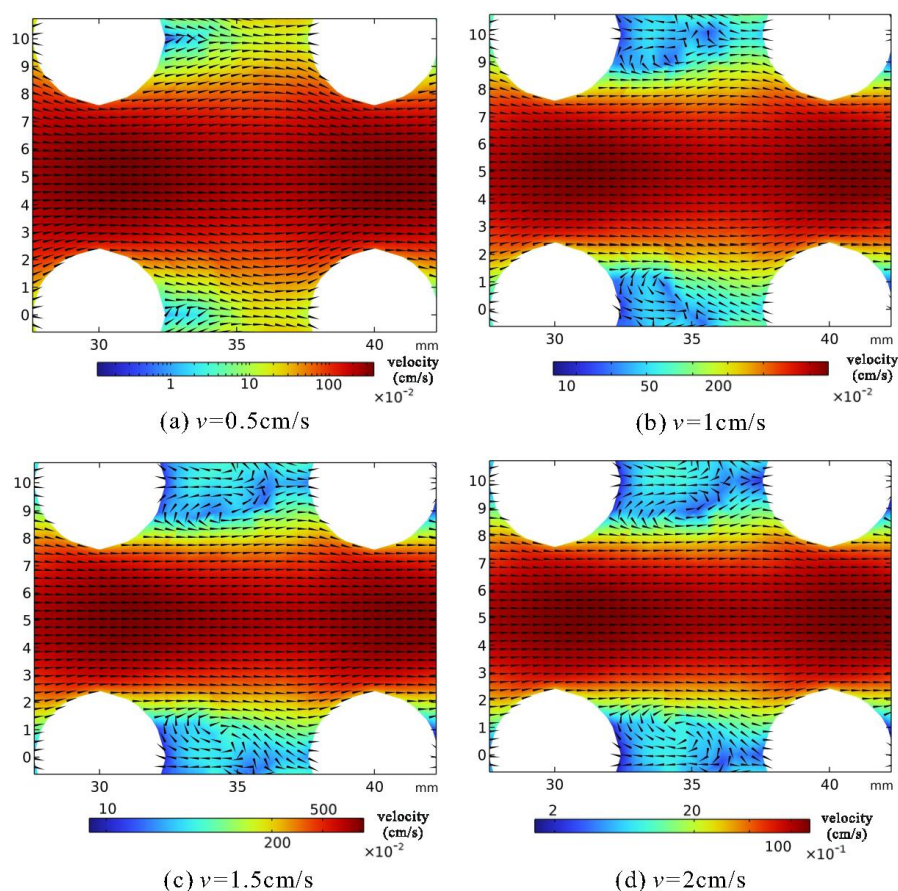
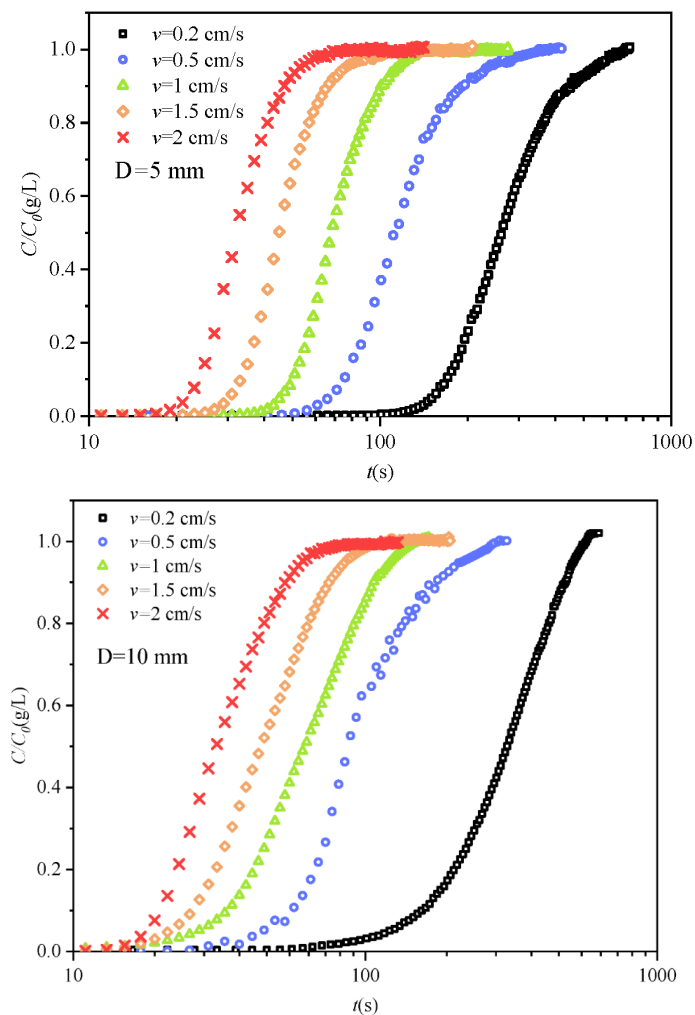


Figure 6. The 2D slice flow fields of the SC model with a particle size of 10 mm at different flow velocities.

We can see from Figure 6 that the flow velocity in the main flow stream is significantly greater than that in the eddy area. When the flow velocity is 0.5 cm/s, the



342 streamlines are deflected due to obstructions, leading to the formation of eddies;  
343 however, the eddy area proportion is quite small. With the continuous increase of flow  
344 velocity, we can obviously see that the eddy proportion increases significantly. This  
345 aligns with our previous research conclusions that the eddy proportion will ultimately  
346 approach a theoretical maximum value ([Xiong et al., 2024](#)). When the flow state  
347 developed to a fully stable condition, we continuously injected the brilliant blue and  
348 conducted solute transport experiments in SC model porous media with particle sizes  
349 of 5 mm and 10 mm, using five flow velocities of 0.2 cm/s, 0.5 cm/s, 1 cm/s, 1.5 cm/s,  
350 and 2 cm/s. The BTCs under different flow velocities are obtained, as shown in Figure  
351 7, where the horizontal coordinate was logarithmic and the vertical coordinate  
352 normalized the concentration ( $C/C_0$ ). And the corresponding dilution concentration  
353 under different inlet flow velocities is defined as the respective initial concentration  
354 ( $C_0$ ).



355

356

357 Figure 7. The BTCs of SC model porous media with 5 mm and 10 mm particle sizes

358

at different flow velocities.

359

We can see from Figure 7 that the BTCs for both particle sizes shift to the left as  
 360 the flow velocity increases, indicating that the penetration time decreases. The  
 361 residence time of water within the pore space increases at lower flow velocities. This  
 362 longer contact time allows for a more complete solute equilibration via diffusion  
 363 between the main flow and the larger, more developed eddy zones present at lower



364 velocities. Consequently, a greater mass of solute is stored in the eddies, which is then  
365 released slowly, causing the pronounced tailing. At higher velocities, the reduced  
366 contact time and different eddy dynamics limit this equilibration process, leading to less  
367 tailing. This correction accurately reflects the interplay between advection timescales  
368 and diffusive exchange. Although the tailing of the BTCs is a consistent and robust  
369 physical observation, the definitive quantitative analysis of concentrations at very low  
370 values ( $C/C_0 < 0.05$ ) is constrained by the increasing uncertainty of the optical  
371 calibration method at these levels. Therefore, the specific values in the late-time tail  
372 should be interpreted with appropriate consideration of this methodological limitation.  
373 To further quantify the eddy effect at different flow velocities and their impact on the  
374 characteristics of the BTCs, we established a quantitative relationship between the  
375 times corresponding to the BTC concentrations reaching 5% and 98% of the input  
376 solute concentration ( $t_5$  and  $t_{98}$ ) (Hou et al., 2018) and the different flow velocities,  
377 respectively, as shown in Figure 8.

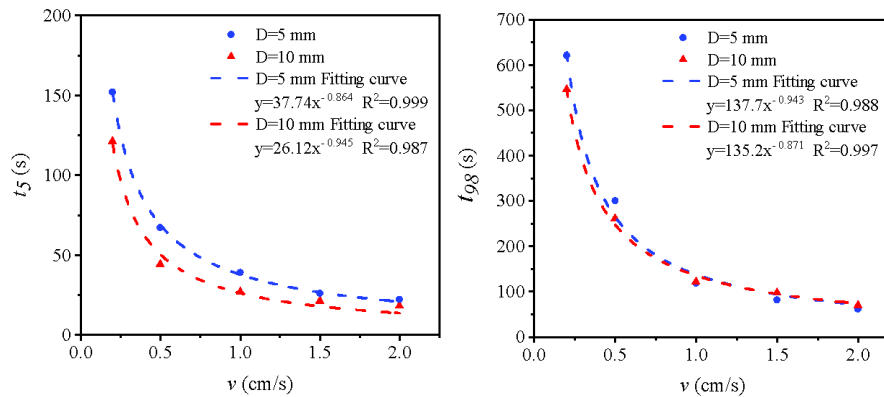




Figure 8. The relationship between characteristic times ( $t_5$  and  $t_{98}$ ) of BTCs and different velocities with different particle sizes.

It can be seen from Figure 8 that  $t_5$  and  $t_{98}$  show a power-law decreasing relationship with the flow velocity, indicating that eddy effect has a significant influence on the penetration process of solute. With the flow velocity increases, the eddy area proportion continues to increase, while the proportion of the main flow stream decreases. The increase in flow velocity within the main flow stream results in the solute arriving earlier. Additionally, it can be observed that the reduction of  $t_{98}$  is significantly greater than that of  $t_5$ . Taking the porous medium with a particle size of 5 mm as an example, when the flow velocity increases from 0.2 cm/s to 2 cm/s, the value of  $t_5$  decreases by approximately 130 s, while the value of  $t_{98}$  decreases by about 450 s, indicating that the changes of flow velocity have a more pronounced effect on the tailing process of the BTCs.

### 3.3 Effects of different particle sizes on solute transport

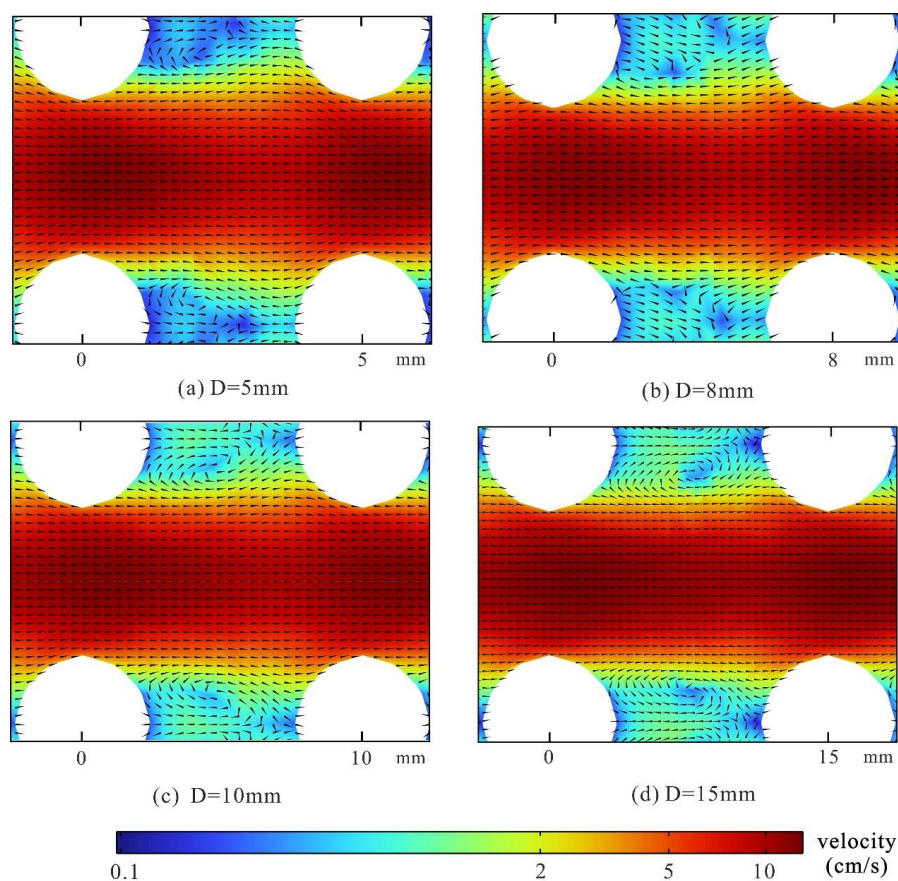
The SC model porous media consisting of four different particle sizes (including 5 mm, 8 mm, 10 mm, 15 mm) was selected for related numerical simulations. The inlet flow velocity is controlled at a constant 2 cm/s, and the 2D slice flow field is shown in Figure 9. In this study, for a given packing arrangement (e.g., Simple Cubic - SC), the porosity remains constant regardless of the particle size. This is a fundamental characteristic of regular, ordered packings; the porosity is determined solely by the geometric arrangement of the spheres. Therefore, when we investigate the effect of





400 particle size (e.g., 5 mm, 8 mm, 10 mm, 15 mm spheres in an SC packing), we are  
401 specifically isolating the effect of scaling the pore geometry (i.e., the absolute size of  
402 the pores and throats) while the porosity, a measure of the pore volume fraction, is held  
403 constant. This allows us to independently analyze the impact of the particle size on eddy  
404 development and solute transport.

405



406

407

Figure 9. Schematic diagram of the flow field of SC model porous media with

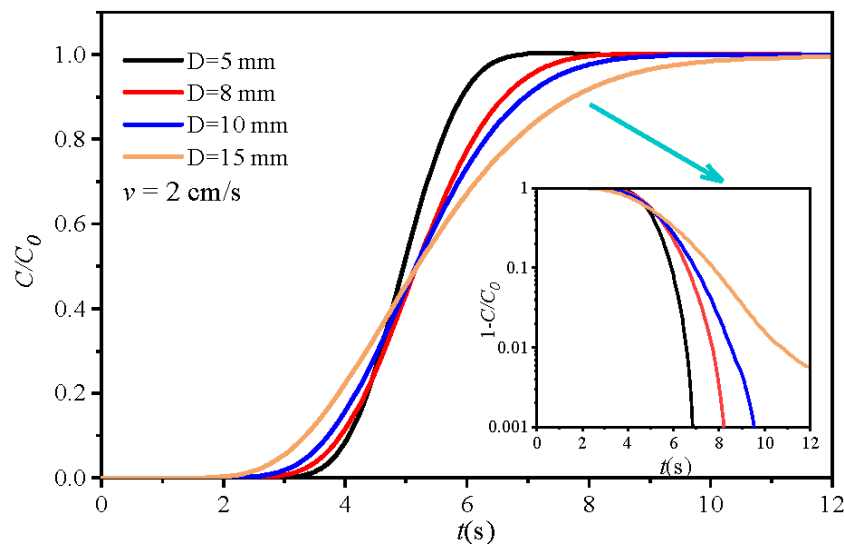
408

different particle sizes ( $v=2\text{ cm/s}$ ).





409 To facilitate the comparison of flow fields between different particle sizes, we  
 410 adjusted the scale to ensure that the different particle sizes appear consistent. Then, it  
 411 is easier to visually compare the velocity differences between the low-speed eddy area  
 412 and the high-speed main flow stream. In Figure 9, the blue area represents the low-  
 413 velocity eddy area, while the red area indicates the high-velocity main flow stream.  
 414 Besides, we can observe that when the flow velocity remains constant, the larger  
 415 particle size led to the larger eddy area and larger rotational velocity inside the eddy  
 416 area. To explore the impact of different eddy developments on solute transport, we  
 417 obtained the BTCs under various particle size conditions after injecting the solute, as  
 418 shown in Figure 10.

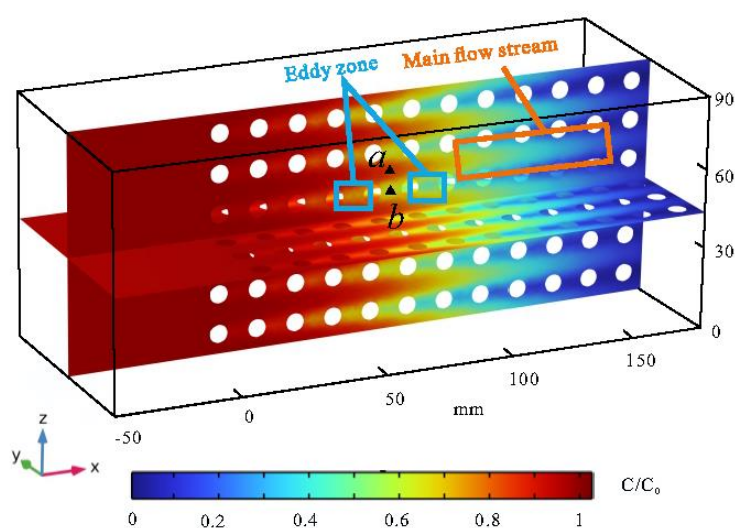


419  
 420 Figure 10. The BTCs of SC model porous media with different particle sizes.

421 We found that the BTCs of different particle sizes show significant differences,  
 422 exhibiting anomalous early arrival times under the same flow velocity conditions. The

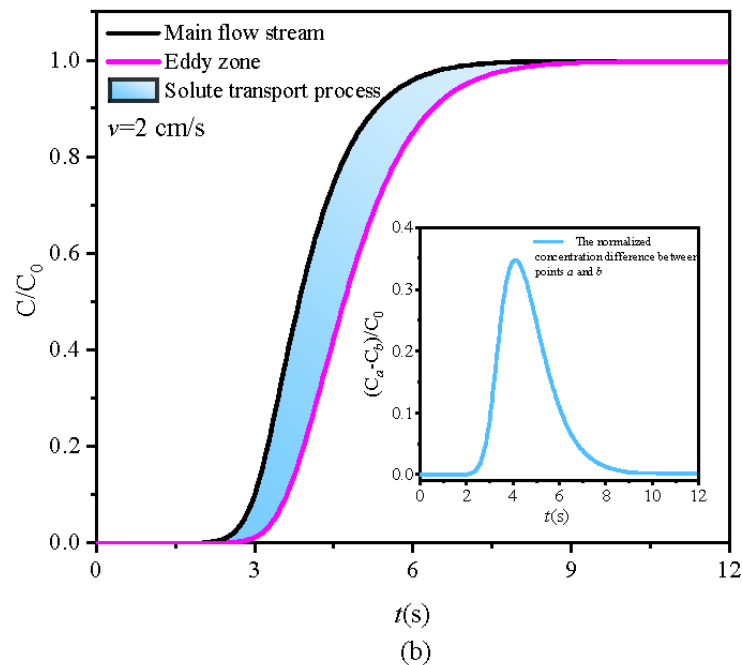


423 BTCs of the porous media with a particle size of 15 mm shows the earliest breakthrough,  
424 while the solute penetration the porous medium with a particle diameter of 5 mm the  
425 slowest. Furthermore, as the particle size decreases, there is a diminishing trend in the  
426 early breakthrough phenomenon of the solute, which is consistent with the above results  
427 of flow fields with different particle sizes (eddy development). In the process of solute  
428 transport in porous media, the rapid flow in the main flow stream significantly  
429 influences the early arrival of the BTCs. To more intuitively observe the morphology  
430 of solute peak, we selected a porous media model with a particle size of 15 mm as an  
431 example and obtained the solute distribution at 5 seconds after solute injection, as  
432 shown in Figure 11(a). In addition, we selected two characteristic points (points *a* and  
433 *b* in Figure 11(a)) in the main flow stream and the eddy area, respectively, and obtained  
434 their BTCs, as shown in Figure 11(b).



(a)

435



436

437 Figure 11. (a) The solute field distribution of SC model porous media ( $t = 5$  s,  $D = 15$

438 mm,  $D$  is particle size). (b) The comparison of the BTCs between the main flow

439 stream and the eddy area.

440 We can see that due to the rapid flow in the main flow channels, multiple distinct

441 solute peak leading edges have been observed. The concentration of solute in the eddy

442 area is significantly lower than that in the main flow stream, and the concentration of

443 solute in the eddy area shows an obvious lag compared with that in the main flow stream.

444 We selected the feature points  $a$  and  $b$  of the main flow stream and eddy area

445 respectively, and obtained their normalized concentration curves over time, as shown

446 in Figure 11 (b). It can be observed that due to the lag in the eddy area, the solute

447 concentration in the main flow stream is always greater than that in the eddy area. The



448 shaded blue area in Figure 11(b) represents the process of solute transfer between the  
449 main flow stream and the eddy area caused by the concentration difference between the  
450 two points. We further magnified this process and plotted the normalized concentration  
451 difference between the main flow stream and the eddy area (the feature points *a* and *b*).  
452 The concentration peaked at 4.1 seconds, showing a trend of initially increasing and  
453 then decreasing, and exhibiting a trailing asymmetry, which indicating that the mass  
454 transfer rate between the main flow stream and the eddy area slows down.

455 To quantify the impact of eddy effect on the degree of heterogeneous distribution  
456 of solute under different particle size conditions, the dilution index proposed by  
457 [Kitanidis \(1994\)](#) was used to characterize the dilution state of solute plumes during  
458 solute transport. The value of the dilution index represents the volume of the solute  
459 plume within the pore volume of the porous media. For continuous injection scenarios,  
460 the value of the dilution index closer to 1 indicates a higher ratio of the solute plume  
461 occupying the entire pore volume of the media. Once the solute is injected into the  
462 porous media, due to the inhomogeneity of the medium structure and flow field, the  
463 value of the normalized dilution index will gradually increase. Then, the normalized  
464 dilution index can reflect the inhomogeneity of the solute distribution in the porous  
465 media. Besides, [Dou et al. \(2018\)](#) evaluated the impact of eddy effect on the uneven  
466 distribution of solutes in fractured media using the dilution index. The equation for the  
467 solute dilution index  $E(t)$  in 3D porous media is as follows:

$$E(t) = \exp \left[ - \int_V p(x, y, z, t) \ln(p(x, y, z, t)) dV \right] \quad (5)$$

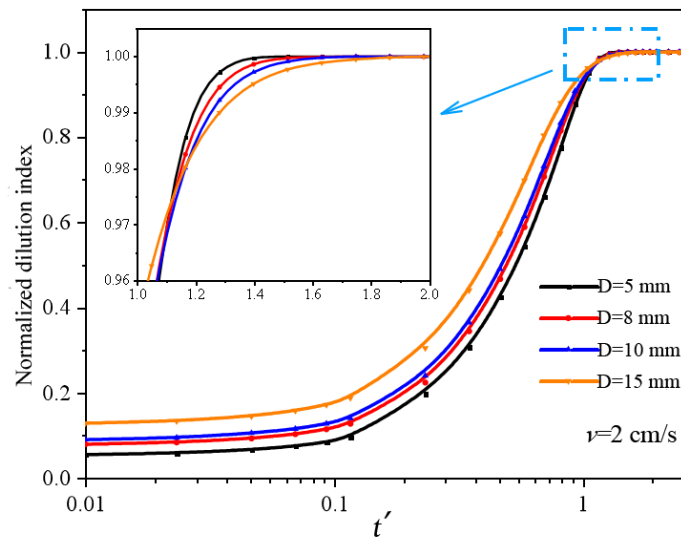


$$p(x, y, z, t) = \frac{c(x, y, z, t)}{\int_V c(x, y, z, t) dV} \quad (6)$$

where  $p(x, y, z, t)$  is the distribution function of the mass. In this study, the normalized dilution index was used to quantify the influence of eddy effect on the uneven distribution of solute in porous media with different particle sizes. When the flow velocity is 2 cm/s, the relationship between the normalized dilution index of porous media and the dimensionless time parameter  $t'$  (the pore volume) with different particle sizes was shown in Figure 12. The  $t'$  represents the time process of solute transport, and the equation is as followed:

$$t' = \frac{Qt}{Al} \quad (7)$$

where  $Q$  is the flow flux at the outlet,  $t$  is the time of solute transport, and  $Al$  is the volume of the pore.





As we know, larger particle sizes lead to a higher eddy proportion and greater initial flow heterogeneity. However, the larger individual pore bodies in these media also host larger, more coherent eddy structures. While these large eddies initially trap solute and create a highly uneven distribution (low normalized dilution index for  $t' < 1$ ),



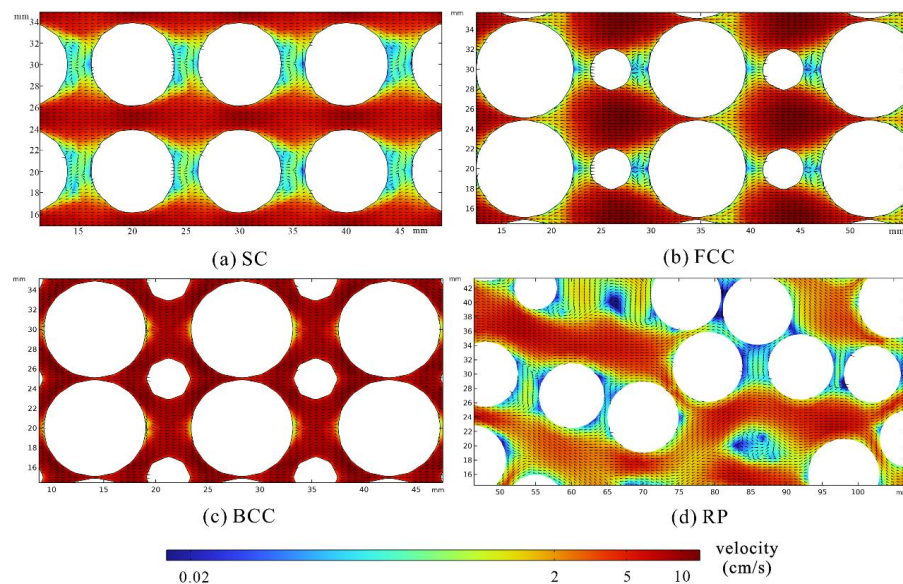
499 they also provide a larger volume for diffusive mixing to act upon over time. The mass  
500 transfer between the main channel and these sizable eddy zones is governed by  
501 diffusion across longer characteristic paths, making it a slower process. Consequently,  
502 the system with larger grains requires a longer time to achieve a homogeneous state.  
503 After the primary advective pulse has passed ( $t' > 1$ ), this slower, more complete back-  
504 diffusion from the large, well-developed eddies eventually leads to a higher degree of  
505 homogeneity (a higher normalized dilution index) compared to systems with smaller  
506 grains, where the pore structure is more confined and complex, potentially limiting the  
507 final extent of mixing. This interpretation, consistent with the mechanisms discussed in  
508 studies like [Dou et al. \(2018\)](#), highlights the time-dependent competition between  
509 heterogeneity-driven trapping and volume-enhanced diffusive mixing.

510 In this study, we employed the dimensional dimensionless time parameter  $t'$  (e.g.,  
511 Figure 12) strategically. Using actual time as the x-axis in several figures (e.g., Figures  
512 7 and 10) was intentional, as it allows for a more intuitive understanding of the temporal  
513 scale of the observed non-Fickian transport phenomena, such as the absolute time of  
514 early arrival and the duration of tailing. This provides a direct, physical sense of the  
515 retardation caused by eddies. Meanwhile, the use of dimensionless time in other figures  
516 facilitates the comparison of the shape of the BTCs independent of the system's specific  
517 volume. We believe this dual approach offers complementary insights.

### 518 **3.4 Effects of different arrangement patterns on solute transport**



519 Different arrangement modes have significant influence on the structure of porous  
 520 media. This section will describe in detail the eddy evolution of porous media with  
 521 different arrangement modes (including SC, FCC, BCC and RP), when the inlet flow  
 522 velocity is 2 cm/s, the obtained flow field is shown in Figure 13.



523  
 524 Figure 13. Schematic diagram of flow field and eddy area of porous media with  
 525 different arrangement modes ( $v = 2$  cm/s).

526 We can see from Figure 13 that the flow fields of porous media with different  
 527 arrangement modes are completely different, and different colors respectively represent  
 528 the main flow stream with high flow velocity (red area) and the eddy area with low  
 529 flow velocity (blue area). Due to the relatively regular structure of the porous medium  
 530 in SC model, the pore abdomen can provide a larger development space for eddies, so  
 531 the volume of the eddy area formed by the SC model is larger than that of the other  
 532 three arrangements. The spatial positions of eddies in porous media with different





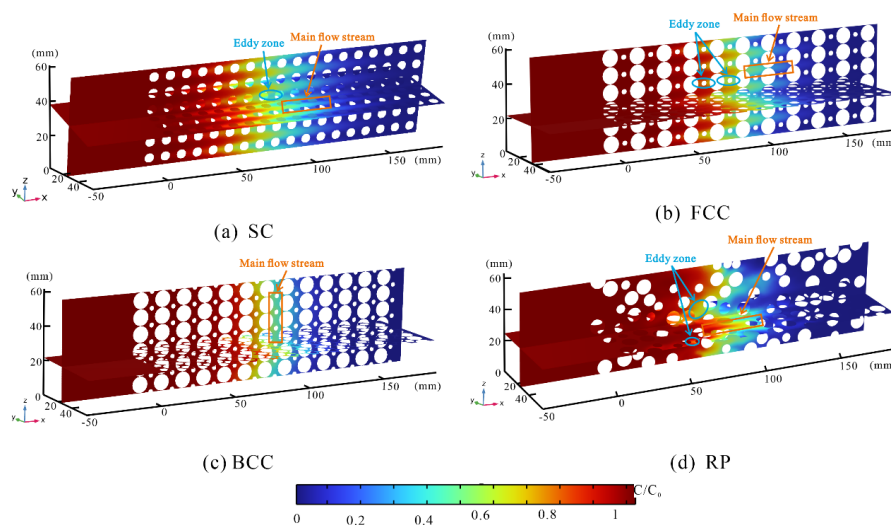
533 arrangement modes are also completely different. As for the RP model, we have  
534 observed several very interesting phenomena: The structure is further complicated due  
535 to the randomness of the arrangement of the spheres. On the one hand, two distinct  
536 preferential flow channels are formed; on the other hand, we observed regions with  
537 lower flow velocities, called dead-end-pores ([Bordoloi et al., 2022](#)). The identified eddy  
538 zones are not stagnant regions but are characterized by active recirculation. As  
539 evidenced by the velocity profile in Figure 5(c), the flow velocity within these zones,  
540 while significantly lower than in the main flow channels, is distinctly non-zero. This  
541 observation is consistent with the findings of [Bordoloi et al. \(2022\)](#), who emphasized  
542 that laminar vortices enhance dispersion through their inherent rotational motion. The  
543 quantification of these dynamic eddy zones forms the basis for analyzing their role in  
544 solute mass transfer and the emergence of non-Fickian transport behavior.

545 Besides, we also agree that porosity is a fundamental property that profoundly  
546 influences flow and transport. We recognize that porosity is not an independent variable  
547 here but is a direct consequence of the packing geometry. The substantial difference in  
548 porosity (e.g., almost 2x between SC and BCC) is an inherent and defining  
549 characteristic of these distinct arrangements. Therefore, the analysis in Section 3.4  
550 inherently addresses the combined effect of the specific pore structure and the resulting  
551 porosity. Discussing porosity as a separate, parallel factor to arrangement would create  
552 a mismatch in the logical hierarchy of influencing factors, as porosity is an emergent  
553 property of the arrangement. Our approach was to treat "arrangement" as a holistic



554 factor that encapsulates both the geometric configuration and the resultant porosity. We  
 555 believe this provides a more integrated understanding of how systematic changes in the  
 556 medium's architecture control eddy development and solute transport.

557 To understand the influence of different arrangement patterns forming eddies on  
 558 solute transport, we obtained the solute distribution characteristics in various porous  
 559 media at 3 s after injection, as shown in Figure 14.

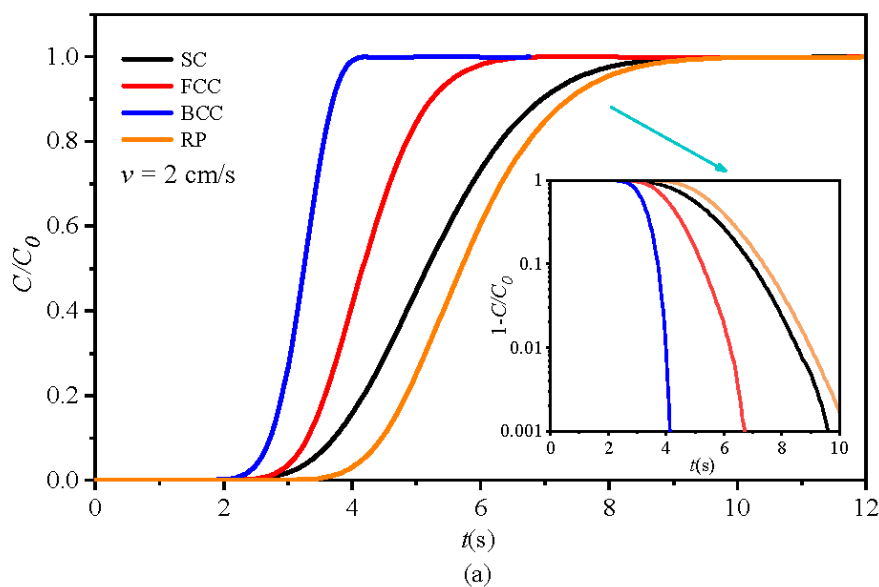


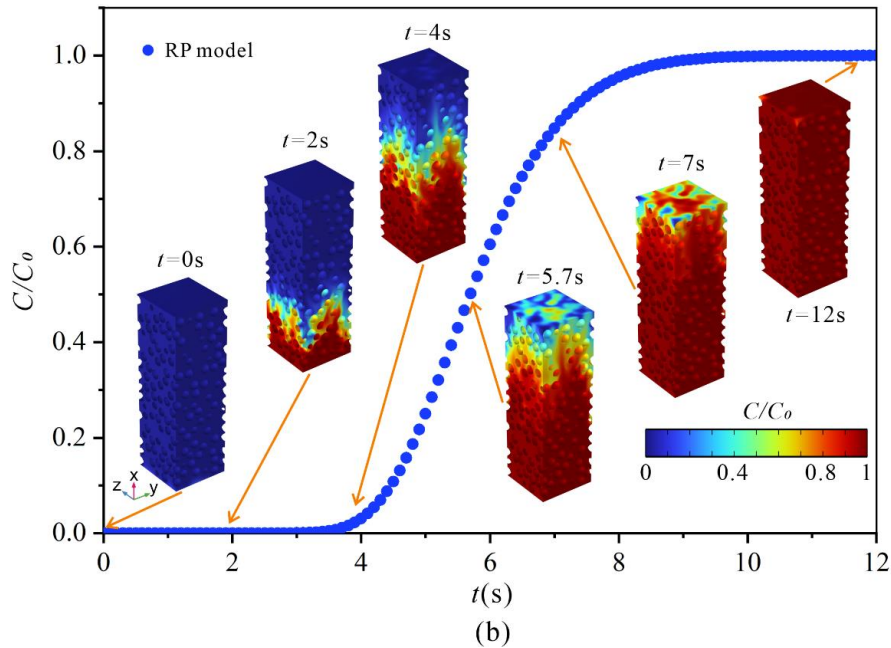
560  
 561 Figure 14. Solute distribution in porous media with different arrangement patterns.

562 We can see from Figure 14 that different types of porous media models all present  
 563 relatively obvious preferential flow channels, although they differ from each other. The  
 564 Figure 14(a) show that the preferential flow channel formed are parallel to each other  
 565 due to the good connectivity of the pore abdomen in the SC model. The Figure 14(b)  
 566 and (c) indicate that the difference in solute distribution between the FCC and BCC  
 567 porous media is primarily manifested in the eddies caused by different pore structures.  
 568 Compared to the FCC model, an additional sphere present in the pore abdomen of the



569 BCC model occupy more pore space, resulting in a lower eddy proportion, which causes  
570 the solute peak in the BCC model to appear more uniform. The Figure 14(d) shows that  
571 the RP porous media structure is more chaotic, leading to a more uneven solute front  
572 with multiple preferential flow paths. Additionally, we further obtained the BTCs of  
573 porous media with different arrangements at a flow velocity of 2 cm/s, especially  
574 detailing the solute penetration process at different times in the RP model of porous  
575 media, as shown in Figure 15.





577

578 Figure 15. (a) The BTCs of different types of porous media with flow velocity of 2

579 cm/s. (b) The RP model penetration process at different times ( $v = 2$  cm/s).

580 We can see from Figure 15(a) that the characteristics of the BTCs of porous media

581 models with different arrangements are completely different when the flow velocity

582 remains consistent. The penetration process of the BCC model is the fastest, followed

583 by the FCC and SC models, while the penetration process of the RP model is the slowest.

584 Among different types of porous media models, the RP model has the highest porosity,

585 followed by the FCC model, while the BCC model has the lowest porosity, which

586 indicate that the structure has a significant impact on the solute penetration process. To

587 compare the effect of eddies on the tail of the BTC, the  $1-C/C_0$  logarithmic coordinate

588 plot is used to process the BTCs (see Figure 15(a)). We noticed that the BTCs of the SC

589 model and the RP model are nearly overlapping at the tail, and the higher eddy area



590 proportion lead to the greater impact on the trailing effect. It is worth noting that the  
 591 numerical results, including the low-concentration tails down to relative concentrations  
 592 of 0.001, are not significantly affected by numerical dispersion. The observed tailing in  
 593 the BTCs (e.g., Figure 15a) is a physical phenomenon resulting from mass exchange  
 594 between the mobile zone and the eddy (immobile) zones, not a numerical artifact,  
 595 thereby confirming the reliability of our conclusions regarding tailing behavior.

596 Specifically, the first arrival time ( $t_5$ ) and the late-stage tailing time ( $t_{98}$ ) are  
 597 extracted from the BTCs for each arrangement (SC, FCC, BCC, RP). These metrics  
 598 provide a direct quantitative measure of the "early arrival" and "tailing" phenomena,  
 599 respectively. The eddy zone proportion and characteristic breakthrough times for  
 600 different packing arrangements at an average inlet velocity of 2 cm/s are shown in Table  
 601 1.

602 Table 1. The eddy zone proportion and characteristic breakthrough times for different  
 603 packing arrangements at an average inlet velocity of 2 cm/s.

Arrangement	Eddy Zone Proportion	$t_5$ (s)	$t_{98}$ (s)
SC	0.148	3.35	8.10
FCC	0.061	3.05	5.95
BCC	0.008	2.60	3.95
RP	0.040	4.15	8.55

604 Table 1 has been added summarizing the eddy zone proportion alongside the  
 605 corresponding  $t_5$  and  $t_{98}$  values for each packing structure. This quantitative data reveals  
 606 a clear and consistent trend. The eddy zone proportion, which is a direct consequence  
 607 of the pore structure created by the packing arrangement, shows a strong correlation



608 with the characteristic times. The quantitative relationship between packing  
609 arrangement, eddy development, and solute transport characteristics is unequivocally  
610 demonstrated in Table 1. The results indicate that the pore structure, determined by the  
611 specific packing arrangement, exerts a primary control on the proportion of eddy zones.  
612 This proportion, in turn, directly governs the key features of non-Fickian transport. A  
613 clear positive correlation is observed between the eddy zone proportion and the late-  
614 time tailing, quantified by  $t_{98}$ . For instance, the SC arrangement, with the highest eddy  
615 proportion (0.148), exhibits the most pronounced tailing ( $t_{98} = 8.10$  s), whereas the BCC  
616 structure, with a minimal eddy proportion (0.008), shows the fastest clearance ( $t_{98} = 3.95$   
617 s). While the early arrival time ( $t_5$ ) is generally earlier in structures with fewer flow  
618 obstructions (e.g., BCC), the significantly delayed arrival in the RP model underscores  
619 the additional influence of flow path tortuosity and connectivity, beyond the mere  
620 volume of eddy zones.

621 This quantitative analysis powerfully substantiates our qualitative arguments. It  
622 demonstrates unequivocally that the packing arrangement controls solute transport by  
623 determining the development of eddies, which in turn quantifiably governs the degree  
624 of both early arrival and tailing observed in the BTCs. This provides a robust, data-  
625 driven link between medium structure and non-Fickian transport dynamics.

#### 626 **4 Solute transport model**

627 The solute transport model is of significant importance for predicting and  
628 quantifying the process of solute migration. The conventional mobile-immobile (MIM)



transport model is used to describe the non-Fickian transport behavior such as early arrival and trailing in porous media. Considering the complexity of the porous media structure, the MIM model divides the pores into mobile and immobile regions. The solute mass exchange occurs between the mobile and immobile regions during the migration process controlled by advection–diffusion effect. Due to the low flow velocity characteristics of the immobile region, the process of receiving and releasing solute is very slow, leading to the tailing of the BTC. The MIM model simulates the breakthrough process of solutes in porous media by coupling the solute transfer equations between the mobile and immobile regions within the porous media. For the inert solutes, the governing equations of the MIM model are as followed without considering the adsorption and degradation.

$$\begin{aligned}\theta_m \frac{\partial C_m}{\partial t} + \theta_{im} \frac{\partial C_{im}}{\partial t} &= \theta_m D_m \frac{\partial^2 C_m}{\partial x^2} - v_m \frac{\partial C_m}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial C_{im}}{\partial t} &= \alpha (C_m - C_{im})\end{aligned}\quad (8)$$

$$\beta = \frac{\theta_m}{\theta_{im} + \theta_m} \quad (9)$$

where  $\theta_{im}$  is the total immobile zone ratio,  $\theta_m$  is the total mobile zone ratio,  $D$  is the effective longitudinal dispersion coefficient,  $v_m$  is the velocity in mobile region, and  $\alpha$  is the first-order mass transfer coefficient (which depends on diffusion coefficient and other geometric factors),  $C_m$  and  $C_{im}$  represent the concentrations of mobile and immobile regions, respectively,  $\beta$  is the proportion of mobile region in porous media.

According to the characteristics of the MIM model, the main flow stream is generalized as the mobile region of the model, and the eddy area is generalized as the



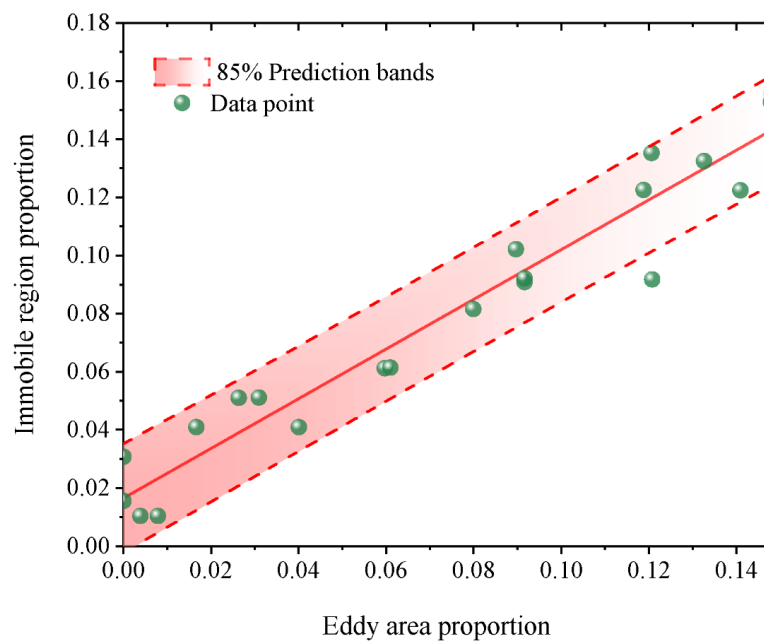
647 immobile region of the model, which show clear physical meaning and provide a basis  
648 for parameter inversion of the MIM model. The migration of a pulse solute in porous  
649 media can be divided into three different stages: In the initial stage, the concentration  
650 of solute in the main flow stream is higher than that in the eddy zone when the solute  
651 pulse is first introduced into the porous media, leading to solute migration primarily  
652 through advection. During the second stage, as the solute pulse encounters the eddy  
653 zone, solute mass transfer occurs due to molecular diffusion, allowing some of the  
654 solute mass from the main flow stream to gradually enter the eddies. In the third stage,  
655 as the solute pulse moves downstream past the eddy zone, the concentration in the main  
656 flow stream decreases rapidly, while the concentration in the eddy zone becomes higher  
657 than in the main flow stream. At this point, the solute in the eddy zone diffuses back  
658 into the main flow stream, resulting in tailing of the BTCs in the main flow stream.

659 The effect of eddies on solute storage aligns well with the applicable conditions of  
660 the MIM model. The eddy zone proportion was obtained directly from the flow field  
661 simulations using the quantitative 3D characterization method detailed in Section 3.1,  
662 which is based on a critical velocity threshold derived from the velocity PDF/CDF  
663 analysis. Conversely, the immobile zone proportion ( $1-\beta$ ) was obtained independently  
664 by calibrating the MIM model (Eqs. 8 and 9) against the numerical breakthrough curves  
665 (BTCs). To validate whether the eddy proportion is consistent with the immobile region  
666 proportion ( $1-\beta$ ) derived from the MIM model, the relationship between the eddy





667 proportion in porous media with varying flow velocities, different particle sizes, and  
 668 different arrangements was obtained, as shown in Figure 16.



669  
 670 Figure 16. The relationship between the eddy proportion in porous media with the  
 671 immobile region proportion ( $1-\beta$ ).  
 672 The abscissa of Figure 16 represents the eddy area proportion, and the ordinate is  
 673 the immobile region proportion ( $1-\beta$ ) derived from the MIM model. If the immobile  
 674 region proportion cluster around the red line with a slope of 1 passing through the origin  
 675 in the figure, which indicates that generalizing the eddy zone proportion as the  
 676 immobile region proportion derived from the MIM model is reasonable. We can see  
 677 from Figure 16 that all data points are located on either side of the red line, with almost  
 678 all of them falling within the 85% prediction band. The strong correlation observed  
 679 between these independently obtained parameters validates that the physical eddy zones,



680 identified hydrodynamically, effectively function as the immobile zones in the  
 681 conceptual MIM model. This provides a physical basis for the MIM parameter and  
 682 reduces its inversion ambiguity.

683 However, different flow velocities, particle sizes and arrangements will affect the  
 684 development of eddies in the porous media, influencing the mass transfer process  
 685 between the main flow stream and the eddy zone. Therefore, we further discussed the  
 686 variations of the parameters in the MIM model under different control conditions. The  
 687 mass transfer coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) and diffusion coefficient ( $D_{MIM}$ ) are very important  
 688 parameters in the MIM model, which determines the transfer process between the  
 689 mobile and immobile region. And the mass transfer coefficient and diffusion coefficient  
 690 under the influence of different control factors are shown in Table 2.

691 Table 2. The characteristic values of MIM model with different factors.

Average inlet flow velocity (m/s)	Particle size (mm)	$D_{MIM}$	$\alpha$	RMSE
0.02	5	6.00E-04	0.023	0.0027
0.015		5.88E-04	0.009	0.0064
0.01		5.41E-04	0.004	0.0043
0.005		4.78E-04	0.001	0.0154
0.002		2.73E-04	0.002	0.0130
0.02	10	1.73E-03	0.018	0.0060
0.015		1.71E-03	0.012	0.0096
0.01		1.57E-03	0.013	0.0150
0.005		1.07E-03	0.010	0.0200
0.002		2.68E-04	0.005	0.0250
Average inlet flow velocity (m/s)	Particle size (mm)	$D_{MIM}$	$\alpha$	RMSE

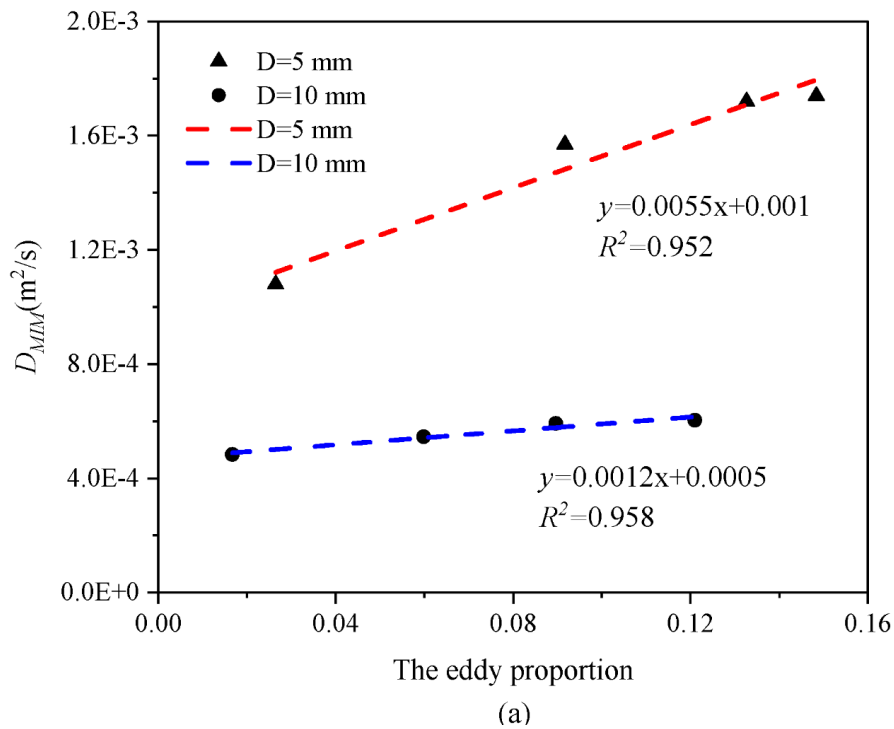


0.01	5	2.27E-05	0.277	0.0077
	8	3.99E-05	0.269	0.0080
	10	5.98E-05	0.282	0.0064
	15	1.21E-04	0.303	0.0063
0.02	5	5.29E-05	0.494	0.0081
	8	1.04E-04	0.492	0.0074
	10	1.51E-04	0.490	0.0055
	15	3.21E-04	0.531	0.0036
Average inlet flow velocity (m/s)	Arrangement	$D_{MIM}$	$\alpha$	RMSE
0.01	SC	5.98E-05	0.282	0.0064
	FCC	4.84E-05	0.230	0.0075
	BCC	3.37E-05	0.096	0.0115
	RP	4.78E-05	0.110	0.0014
0.02	SC	1.51E-04	0.490	0.0055
	FCC	1.05E-04	0.250	0.0026
	BCC	6.55E-05	0.090	0.0117
	RP	9.93E-05	0.120	0.0014

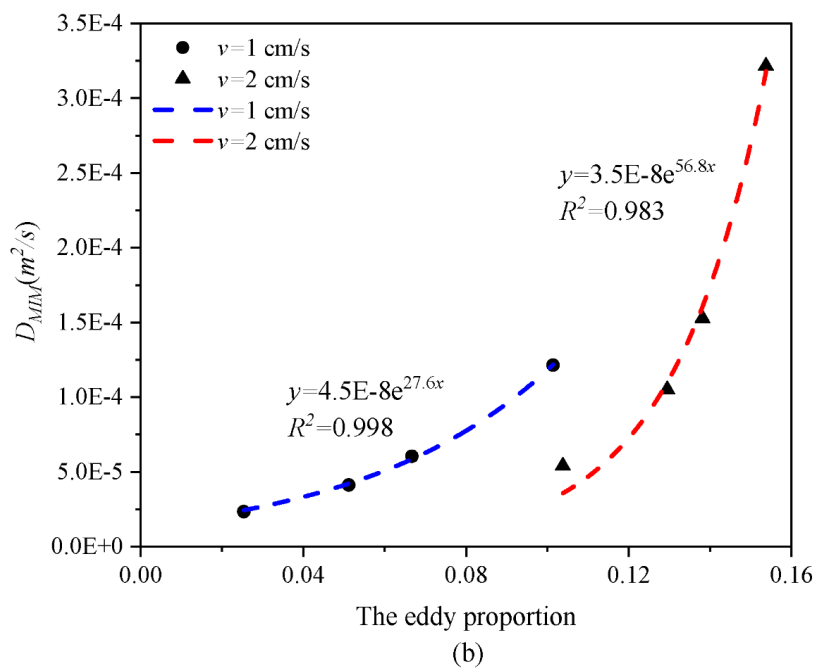
692 The parameters for the Mobile-Immobile Model (MIM) were determined through  
 693 an inverse modeling procedure directly within the COMSOL Multiphysics®  
 694 environment. The governing equations of the MIM (Eqs. 8 and 9) were implemented,  
 695 and the model parameters (including the mass transfer coefficient, the diffusion  
 696 coefficient in the mobile zone, and the immobile zone ratio) were estimated by coupling  
 697 the parameter estimation module with a nonlinear least-squares optimization algorithm.  
 698 This algorithm iteratively adjusted the parameter values to minimize the difference  
 699 between the simulated breakthrough curves (BTCs) and the concentrations predicted  
 700 by the MIM, thereby identifying the optimal parameter set that best represents the



701 observed non-Fickian transport behavior for each specific simulation scenario. To  
702 ensure the reliability and uniqueness of the fitted parameters, a sensitivity analysis was  
703 conducted, and the root mean square error (RMSE) was calculated for each case, as  
704 provided in Table 2. The robustness of the fitted parameters was ensured by verifying  
705 the stability of the solution and the convergence of the optimization routine. The mass  
706 transfer coefficient and diffusion coefficient increase gradually with the gradual  
707 increase of the inlet flow velocity when the particle size remain the same, which is  
708 closely related to the development of the eddies. We further obtained the relationship  
709 between the eddy proportion corresponding to the three influencing factors and the  
710 diffusion coefficient, as shown in Figure 17, and Figures 17(a) and (b) are both SC  
711 arrangements.

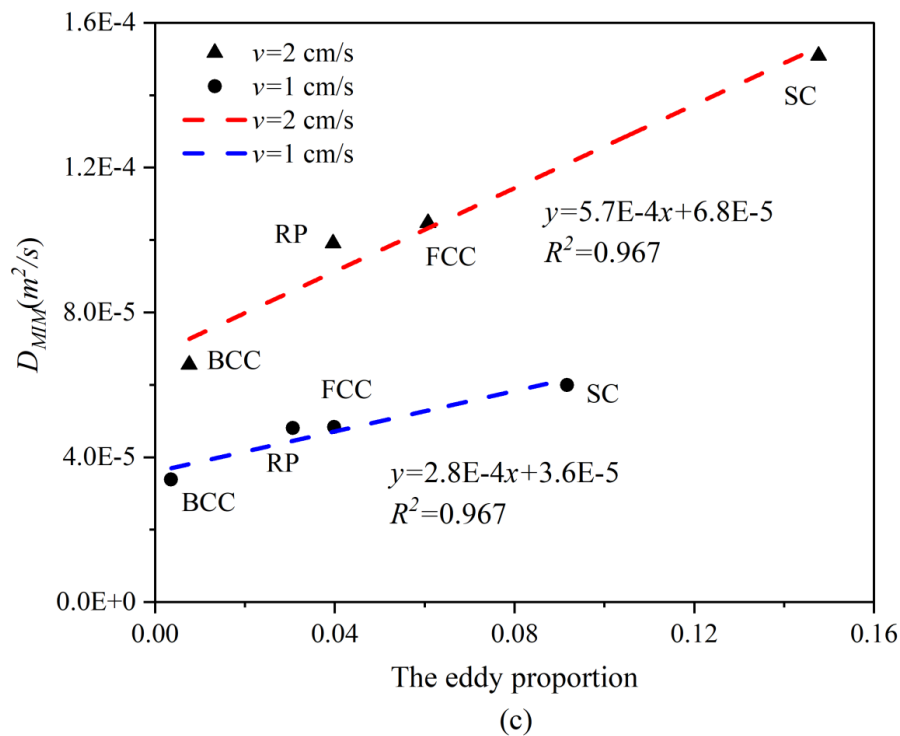


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716 Figure 17. The relationship between the eddy proportion corresponding to the three  
 717 influencing factors and the diffusion coefficient.

718 It can be seen from Figure 17(a) that the diffusion coefficient is positively  
 719 proportional to the eddy proportion. With the increase of inlet flow velocity, on the one  
 720 hand, the eddy proportion is increased, on the other hand, the rotational velocity of the  
 721 eddy zone is also increased, then the solute transport process between the main flow  
 722 stream and the eddy zone and the solute dispersion in the entire porous media are  
 723 accelerated. In addition, the slope of the red fitting line ( $D=10$  mm) in Figure 17 (a) is  
 724 larger than that of the blue fitting line ( $D=5$  mm), which also indicates that the influence  
 725 of the eddy proportion on the diffusion coefficient is also controlled by different particle  
 726 sizes. It can be seen from Figure 17(b) that when the inlet flow velocity and arrangement



727 mode (SC) are unchanged, the diffusion coefficient increases exponentially with the  
728 eddy proportion. And Figure 17(c) show that the eddy proportion is proportional to the  
729 diffusion coefficient under the condition of different arrangement modes, it is found  
730 that the larger flow velocity will lead to larger the slope of the linear equation fitted by  
731 comparing two different flow velocities.

732 A key insight from this study is the confirmation that eddies act as dynamic regions  
733 of active solute retention and release, rather than as immobile water pockets. The  
734 measured non-zero velocities within the eddies (Figure 5c) drive a continuous, albeit  
735 slower, exchange process with the main flow. This mechanism aligns with the modern  
736 understanding of vortex-driven anomalous dispersion, as detailed in studies like  
737 [Bordoloi et al. \(2022\)](#). Our findings, which establish a quantitative link between eddy  
738 proportion, flow conditions, and the parameters of the MIM model, therefore build upon  
739 this paradigm by providing a pore-scale basis for upscaling the effects of such dynamic  
740 immobile zones in conceptual and numerical transport models.

741 In addition, the primary objective of this study is to investigate the basic physical  
742 mechanisms of eddy-driven non-Fickian transport by isolating key variables in a  
743 controlled system. This reductionist approach is a cornerstone of hydrological science,  
744 as it allows for the development of fundamental theories and parametric relationships  
745 that are often obscured in highly heterogeneous natural systems. The insights gained,  
746 specifically, the quantitative links between pore structure, eddy proportion, and the  
747 parameters of the Mobile-Immobile Model (MIM), which provided a mechanistic basis



748 for understanding and predicting solute transport in more complex field scenarios.

749 These include environments where similar processes dominate, such as in coarse-

750 grained aquifer zones, fractured media, or engineered systems like filtration beds. By

751 establishing these fundamental principles, our study provides the scientific basis and

752 conceptual tools needed to improve the accuracy of models used for groundwater

753 pollution prediction and remediation strategy optimization.

754 5 Summary and conclusion

755 The experimental and numerical simulation results of solute transport under three

756 different control factors are presented in this study, and a quantitative characterization

757 method for the eddy proportion on 3D scale is proposed. Besides, the generation,

758 development and evolution of eddies with different factors in different porous media

759 and their effects on solute transport are discussed. The main conclusions are as follows:

760 1. Different types of porous media structures (with varying particle sizes and

761 arrangements) and inlet flow velocities determine the development and evolution of

762 eddies, which in turn affects the solute transport process.

763 2. The exchange of solutes between the main flow stream and the eddy area is slowed

764 down due to the lower flow velocity, resulting in solutes only entering the main flow

765 stream through diffusion, which makes the tailing of the BTCs more pronounced.

766 Smaller particle size will lead to a diminishing trend in the early breakthrough

767 phenomenon of the solute. The penetration process of the BCC model is the fastest,





768 followed by the FCC and SC models, while the penetration process of the RP model is  
769 the slowest.

770 3. The proportion of the immobile region inverted by the MIM model can be well  
771 matched with that of the eddy zone in porous media. Therefore, taking the eddy area  
772 proportion as the input term, on the one hand, endows the parameters of the MIM model  
773 with clear physical meanings; On the other hand, taking the structural parameters of  
774 porous media as the basis for the inversion of MIM model parameters can optimize the  
775 multiple solutions and obtain more accurate model fitting results.

776 4. The mass transfer coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) and diffusion coefficient ( $D_{MIM}$ ) of MIM model  
777 respond significantly to the different structure of porous media, and the  $D_{MIM}$  is  
778 proportional to the increase of inlet flow velocity, which is consistent with the results  
779 of different arrangement modes. And the  $D_{MIM}$  increases exponentially with the eddy  
780 proportion when the inlet flow velocity and arrangement mode (SC) are unchanged.

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#### 786 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

787 Zhongxia Li: Writing-review & editing, Writing-original draft, Funding acquisition,  
788 Methodology, Conceptualization. Xianshuo Yang: Data curation, Visualization. Shuai



789 Yuan: Writing, Data analysis, Numerical simulation. Junwei Wan: Data curation,  
790 Supervision. Yun Yang: Numerical simulation, Data curation. Haibo Feng: Writing-  
791 review & editing, Methodology, Visualization. Xixian Kang: Data analysis, Review &  
792 Editing. Kun Huang: Numerical simulation, Methodology, Visualization. Chong Ma:  
793 Methodology, Data analysis.

794 **Declaration of competing interest**

795 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
796 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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