

Scale dependence of fluid flow and solute transport in fracture networks of tight geological formations

by

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## Abstract

Understanding the effect of fracture network heterogeneity on flow and transport is of great importance because fractures are primary pathways, particularly in tight formations with low permeability values. Although numerous studies were conducted to investigate solute transport in fractured media, simultaneous investigation of the effect of scale on flow and transport in tight reservoirs is very limited. More specifically, we are not aware of any study that has addressed how the continuous time random walk (CTRW) model parameters vary with scale. In this study, we carried out extensive numerical simulations in sparse fracture networks of sizes  $L = 20, 35, \text{ and } 50$  m under two different fracture densities ( $p_{30} = 0.05$  and  $0.1$ ) using the discrete fracture network approach. The fractures in the networks were elliptical in shape, whose radii followed the truncated power-law distribution with exponent  $\alpha = 1.5, 2, \text{ and } 2.5$ . We simulated fluid flow based on the Reynolds equation and solute transport using the particle tracking approach. The solute transport behavior was quantified by fitting the CTRW model to the simulated arrival time distributions averaged over at least twenty realizations. Results showed that as the exponent  $\alpha$  increased, the permeability of the networks decreased. We found non-Fickian solute transport behavior, deduced from small  $\beta$  values, in all the fracture networks studied here. We demonstrated that although the value of permeability might have reached the REV value, solute transport parameters could still be scale-dependent. Our numerical analyses disclosed the scale dependence of the CTRW model parameters on the geometrical properties and topological properties of fracture networks, confirmed through our regression analyses.

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## **Dedication**

This thesis is dedicated to the glory of God, the beginning and the end.

## Chapter 1 - Introduction

Tight geologic formations have received great attention, particularly in the past two decades, due to broad applications, such as hydrogen and carbon dioxide storage, radioactive waste materials disposal, new sources of fossil fuels, and geothermal energy exploitation (Liu, 2017; Yuan & Wood, 2018; Zoback & Kohli, 2019). Fluid flow and contaminant migration through such low-porosity geologic formations are mainly controlled by fractures, their aperture and length distributions as well as their interconnectivity (Faybishenko et al., 2015; Long & Witherspoon, 1985). The presence of fractures across scales spanning from a few microns to several kilometers in nature have been reported. Such heterogeneities spanning orders of magnitude lead to spatial variability as well as scale dependence in fracture networks and their physical and hydraulic characteristics (Davy et al., 2006; Forstner & Laubach, 2022; Gong & Rossen, 2017; Lei et al., 2015).

The literature on flow and transport in fracture networks is vast and extensive. Theories (Berkowitz et al., 2016; Sahimi, 2011), experiments (Chen et al., 2017; Detwiler et al., 2000), and simulations (Moreno et al., 1990; Roubinet et al., 2022) were widely applied to better understand physical and hydraulic properties of fractures and their networks. For instance, Neretnieks et al. (1982) experimentally studied radionuclide migration in a natural fracture in a granite core using reactive and non-reactive tracers. Those authors measured the breakthrough experimentally and found that for non-reactive tracers channeling may occur, while for reactive tracers diffusion into the porous matrix was significant. In another study, Grisak and Pickens (1980) injected a tracer solution containing Cl and Ca ions into a large cylindrical sample of fracture obtained in a fresh excavation. The sample contained two orthogonal sets of fractures parallel to the long axis of the cylinder. Breakthrough curves for both ions showed significant

retardation of the ions relative to the average water velocity in the cylindrical. They attributed the retardation to the effect of diffusion of solutes from the fracture into the matrix. Hull et al. (1987) constructed 2D networks of fracture and experimentally investigated dispersion in them. They also carried out random walk simulations in similar networks to test the validity of some assumptions that they made in their models.

The discrete fracture network (DFN) is one of the widely applied numerical approaches in the literature to study solutes (Cacas et al., 1990; Hyman, 2020; Kang et al., 2017, 2020). One advantage of DFN models over equivalent porous medium models, e.g., stochastic continuum, is their ability to represent a broader range of transport phenomena. These can be explicitly related to fracture network properties, e.g., densities, length, and fracture aperture (S. Painter & Cvetkovic, 2005; Raats, 1973). Using the DFN approach, Kang et al. (2019) studied the effects of geological stress on fluid flow and tracer transport in 2D fracture networks based on actual field measurements. They found that the interaction of fracture geometry, aperture heterogeneity, and geological stress results in the formation of tiny apertures, resulting in non-Fickian behavior of fluid flow and tracer transport through the system.

Through numerical simulation of flow and transport in fracture networks, Hyman et al. (2019) investigated large-scale particle motion and solute breakthrough in sparse three-dimensional discrete fracture networks characterized by power-law distributed fracture lengths. By using the stream-tube model and Bernoulli continuous-time random walk model to predict breakthrough, they found that particle motion in fracture networks cannot be characterized by a constant velocity between the inlet and control plane at which the breakthrough curve is detected. Instead, the network structure requires that frequent velocity transitions be made as particles move through the system.

In the literature, various theoretical models, such as the advection-dispersion equation (Nielsen & Biggar, 1962; Raats, 1973), mobile-immobile model (Coats & Smith, 1964; van Genuchten & Wagenet, 1989), fractional derivatives (Benson et al., 2000; Kelly et al., 2017), percolation theory (Ghanbarian-Alavijeh et al., 2012; Hunt et al., 2011; Hunt & Ghanbarian, 2016), continuous-time random walk (Berkowitz et al., 2006; Cortis & Berkowitz, 2004), and spatial Markov model (Kang et al., 2011; T. Sherman et al., 2017) were developed and widely used to investigate contaminant migration in porous media. Early studies were mainly based on assuming solute transport to be Fickian in porous media and fracture networks. Thus, the advection-dispersion equation was extensively applied to model transport in both homogeneous and heterogeneous soils and rocks. However, later investigations demonstrated that even in homogeneous media, solute transport may conform to non-Fickian behavior (Aronofsky & Heller, 1957; Bromly & Hinz, 2004; Levy & Berkowitz, 2003; Scheidegger, 1959; Silliman & Simpson, 1987).

Evidence indicates that the ADE is not a satisfactory model for solute transport in inhomogeneous porous media (Berkowitz & Scher, 1995; Cortis & Berkowitz, 2004; Hunt et al., 2011). It predicts a Gaussian distribution for solute arrival times. However, both experimental and numerical results typically follow nearly power-law tails at large time scales, which cannot be explained by the ADE. Several alternative theories were proposed to model transport; among them, the continuous time random walk (CTRW) was widely applied. Although the generality of the CTRW makes it an attractive and promising choice for modelers, values for the specific parameters governing the truncated power-law arrival time distribution are unknown, which hinders its use for prediction purposes.

Solute transport in two- and three-dimensional fracture networks have been widely investigated experimentally and numerically. In addition to that, the effect of scale on dispersion has been well studied (Gao et al., 2010; Ghanbarian-Alavijeh et al., 2012; Pickens et al., 1981; Rajaram & Gelhar, 1993). However, the literature still lacks in a comprehensive analysis addressing the dependence of solute transport parameters and more specifically the continuous-time random walk (CTRW) model parameters on the scale, particularly for the sake of predictions. Therefore, the main objectives of this study are to: (1) generate three-dimensional fracture networks of various sizes, 20, 35, and 50 m representing tight geologic formations in nature considering the density of fracture  $\rho_{30}$  (total number of fractures per unit volume) in the systems, (2) investigate effect of domain size (scale) on fluid flow and solute transport, and (3) link solute transport parameters, e.g., average particle velocity ( $v$ ), particle dispersion coefficient ( $D$ ), characteristic transition time ( $t_1$ ), cut-off time ( $t_2$ ), and exponent  $\beta$  in the CTRW-TPL framework to fracture network topological and structural properties, e.g., domain size ( $L$ ), density ( $\rho_{30} = N_f/L$  in which  $N_f$  is the total number of fractures in the network and  $L$  is the domain size), porosity ( $\rho_{33}$ ), surface area ( $\rho_{32}$ ), and fracture length-aperture distributions controlled by exponent  $\alpha$ , and (4) finally examine the correlation between truncated power law distribution exponent  $\alpha$ , effective permeability of the network and solute transport.

## Chapter 2 - Numerical Simulations

In this study, first we stochastically generated discrete fracture networks. Then, we meshed them and solved the governing equations of flow (i.e., Stokes) to determine the velocity field. After that, we applied the Lagrangian approach of particle tracking to simulate solute transport and more specifically the arrival time distributions. Further details are provided in the following.

### 2.1. Fracture network generation

To generate the fracture networks, we used the data of Vermilye and Scholz (1995) who reported fracture aperture and length values for a dark-reddish siltstone outcrop in Culpeper Crushed Stone Quarry in Stevenburgs, Virginia. Overall, 23 fractures with lengths ranging from 65 mm to 13.2 m were collected. The local aperture value was measured every 5 mm along each fracture, and its average value ranged from 0.6 mm to 5 mm. Vermilye and Scholz (1995) found a positive correlation between fracture length and aperture. We accordingly assumed that fracture length and aperture were correlated in this study.

Three-dimensional fracture networks were then stochastically generated as shown in Fig. 2.1 at two fracture densities, defined as the sum of fracture lengths per unit volume,  $\rho_{3D} = 0.05$  and  $0.1 \text{ m/m}^3$ . Within the `dfnWorks` framework, each fracture is characterized by its length, orientation, aperture, and position of the fracture center. The fracture networks consisted of a single family whose orientation followed a von Mises-Fisher distribution and sampled using the algorithm provided by Wood (1994)

$$f(x; \mu, \kappa) = \frac{\kappa \exp(\kappa \mu^T x)}{4\pi \sinh(\kappa)} \quad (1)$$

where  $\mu$  is the vector that defining the mean orientation, which can be expressed in terms of spherical coordinates ( $\theta$  and  $\phi$ ),  $T$  denotes the transpose,  $\kappa \geq 0$  is the concentration parameter that determines the degree of clustering around the mean direction ( $\kappa \rightarrow 0$  results in a uniform distribution of fractures). Fractures in the networks were represented as planar polygon (ellipse) whose radii  $r$  followed a truncated power-law distribution with exponent  $\alpha$  and lower and upper bounds ( $r_0; r_u$ )

$$Pr(r, r_0, r_u) = \frac{\alpha \left(\frac{r}{r_0}\right)^{-1-\alpha}}{r_0 \left[1 - \left(\frac{r_u}{r_0}\right)^{-\alpha}\right]} \quad (2)$$

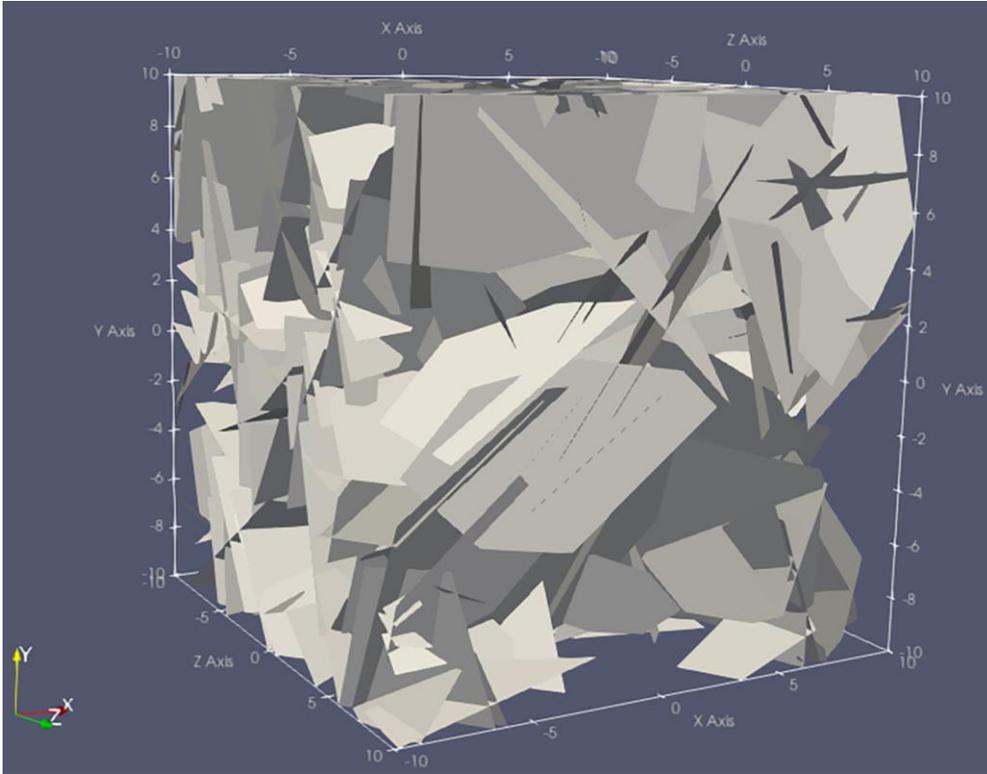
We set  $r_0 = 1.5\text{m}$  and  $r_u = 6.75\text{m}$ , following Vermilye and Scholz (1995), and  $\alpha = 1.5$ , 2.0, and 2.5, following Bonnet et al. (2001). A minimum feature size of  $h = 0.15\text{ m}$  (the one-tenth of the minimum fracture radius) was used in this study ensured any smaller fractures less than the value of  $h$  be removed during the network generation process.

Isolated clusters and fractures were removed after the generated networks, which resulted in slightly different p30 values. To address the effect of scale on flow and transport, cubic domains of the linear size  $L = 20, 35, \text{ and } 50\text{ m}$  were investigated. Overall, we generated 18 fracture networks ( $3 \alpha \times 2 p30 \times 3 L$ ). Table 2.1 summarizes the parameters used to generate fracture network in this study.

**Table 2.1.** Parameters and their values used in this study to generate eighteen fracture networks. Fracture length and aperture data are from Vermilye and Scholz (1995).

$L$ (m)	$p30$	$\alpha$	$r_0$ (m)	$r_u$ (m)	$b_0$ (m)	$b_u$ (m)	$\kappa$	$\phi$	$\theta$
20	0.05	1.5	1.5	6.75	0.0003	0.0025	1	0	0
35	0.10	2.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
50	-	2.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

$L$ : domain size,  $p30$ : fracture density,  $\alpha$ : truncated power-law exponent for fracture length distribution,  $r_0$ : minimum fracture radii,  $r_u$ : maximum fracture radii,  $b_0$ : minimum aperture,  $b_u$ : maximum aperture,  $\kappa$ : concentration parameter,  $\phi$ : mean trend,  $\theta$ : mean plunge

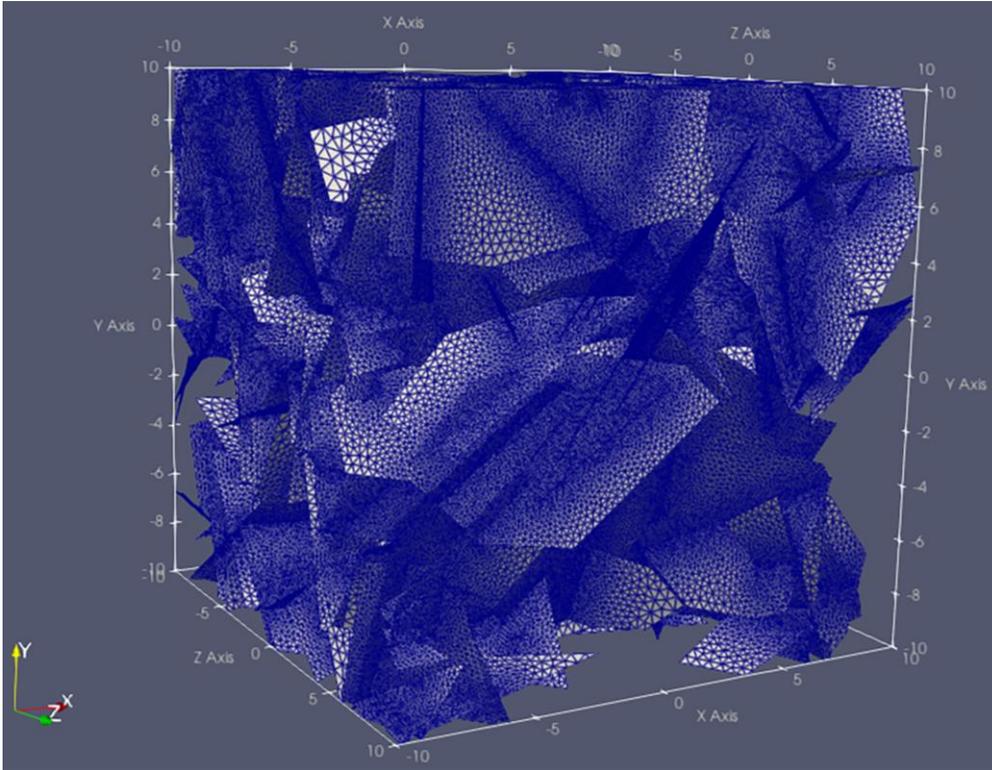


**Figure 2.1.** A DFN generation of  $L = 20$  m with a total number of three hundred and thirty-eight fractures at  $p_{30} = 0.10$  with  $\alpha = 1.5$ .

## 2.2. Network meshing

Each generated fracture network was meshed individually while preserving the polygon boundary line and segment corresponding to fracture/fracture intersections (see Fig. 2.2). The meshing was performed using the feature rejection algorithm for meshing (FRAM) and the (Los Alamos Grid toolbox (LaGrit) software package within the dfnWorks computational suite (J. D. Hyman et al., 2014, 2015). By linking network generation and meshing, FRAM creates an unstructured conforming Delaunay triangulation of each DFN without user intervention or manual mesh modification. At fracture intersections, the conforming Delaunay triangulation produces Voronoi control volumes suitable for finite volume solvers, e.g., finite element heat and

mass flow (FEHM), and parallel flow and reactive transport model (PFLOTRAN) (J. D. Hyman et al., 2014, 2015; Zyvoloski & Vesselinov, 2006).

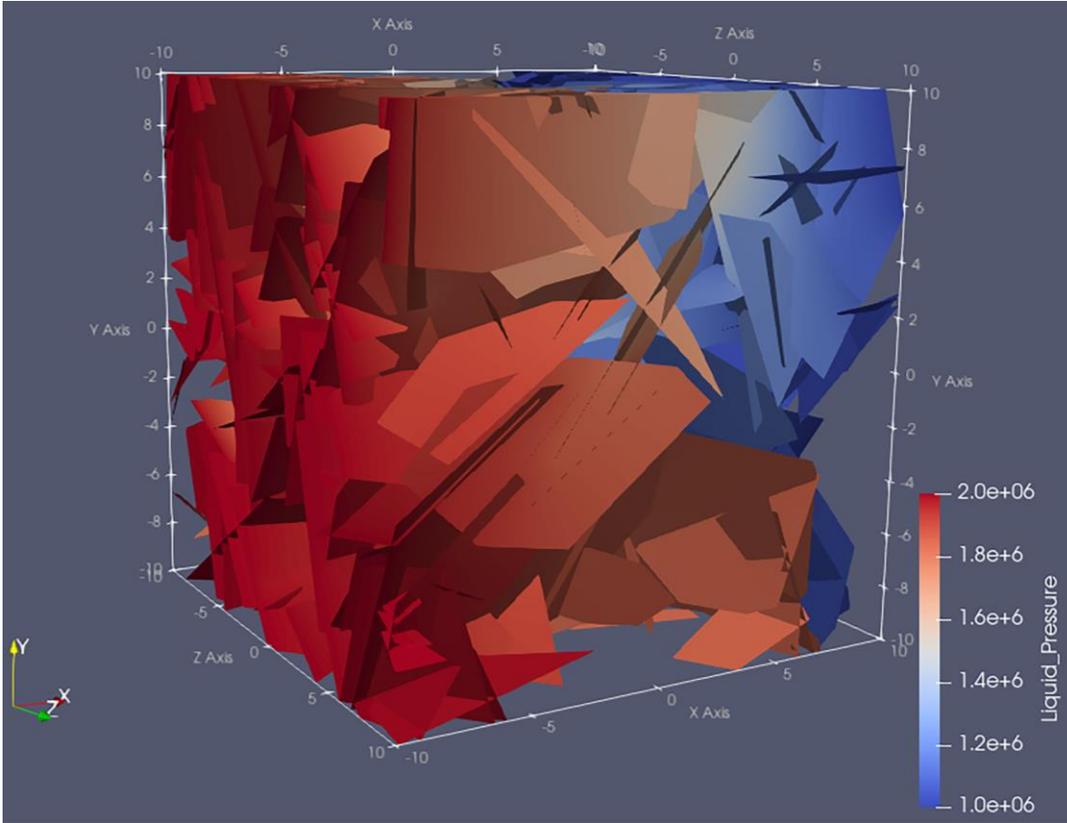


**Figure 2.2.** Meshing of DFN of  $L = 20$  m at  $p_{30} = 0.10$  with  $\alpha = 1.5$ . The mesh is coarsened away from the fracture intersection.

### 2.3. Fluid flow simulation

Fluid flow through the networks was simulated using the dfnFlow code and by computing the control volumes (Voronoi polygons), the dual mesh of the Delaunay triangulation after the network was generated and meshed. The dfnFlow code utilizes the massively parallel subsurface flow and reactive transport finite volume code PFLOTRAN, which can be used to integrate the governing flow equations numerically (J. D. Hyman et al., 2015; Jeffrey D. Hyman, 2020). We considered isothermal, incompressible, Newtonian fluid at the steady state through the fracture networks, which are governed by the Stokes equations. Assuming that the fracture

walls are parallel and smooth, the Stokes equations can be integrated to quantify the volumetric flow rate  $Q$  per unit fracture-aperture normal to the flow direction to obtain the Boussinesq equation. PFLOTRAN code solves the Reynolds partial differential equation for the pressure field in the network using the pressure conditions on the fracture domain boundaries, and this was then used to obtain a steady-state pressure solution to the fully saturated flow in the networks. (J. D. Hyman et al., 2015; Peter K. Kang et al., 2020; Zimmerman & Bodvarsson, 1996). Dirichlet boundary conditions were imposed at the inlet (2MPa) and outlet (1Mpa) as displayed in Fig. 2.3 below to create a pressure gradient along the z-direction, and no-flow boundary conditions were set along other boundaries. Local mass balance was maintained within the networks by utilizing a control volume-based discretization for flow, and flux evaluation accuracy was maintained using a Voronoi mesh (J. D. Hyman et al., 2015; Zyvoloski & Vesselinov, 2006). In this study, matrix diffusion is not considered in our simulations because the matrix surrounding the fractures is believed to be impervious, and there is no coupling between flow within fractures and the solid matrix.



**Figure 2.3.** Steady- state pressure solution inside DFN of  $L = 20$  m at  $p_{30} = 0.10$  with  $\alpha = 1.5$ . The pressure boundary at the right and left plane of the network are 2 MPa and 1 MPa respectively.

## 2.4. Particle tracking simulation

We simulated mass transport by the dfnTrans code using control volume flow solutions and the unstructured mesh generated by dfnGen. The Darcy flux (including pressure and volumetric flow rate) from dfnFlow were used to determine the Eulerian velocity field. For details on particle tracking, see Painter et al. (2012) and Makedonska et al. (2015). Complete mixing of contaminants was assumed to occur at the fracture intersections instead of streamline routing. After determining the fluxes, we simulated particle transport through the network by the Lagrangian approach using a non-reactive conservative solute as a collection of indivisible passive tracer particles that trace the pathline through the velocity field. Particles were released

over a plane at the inlet plane perpendicular to the net flow direction of the domain, which was the x-axis, and, thus, particles were injected at a point  $x = 0$ , and at time  $t = 0$  using the flux weighted injection method.

Although complex dynamics at fracture intersections may significantly affect mixing-induced reactions, they are not yet explicitly resolved (Jeffrey D. Hyman, 2020; Lee & Kang, 2020; Thomas Sherman et al., 2019). Under this condition, imposing a complete mixing model, which has negligible effects on longitudinal spreading, is the appropriate representation, and the probability of particles exiting into a fracture is weighted by the outgoing flux (Peter K. Kang et al., 2015, 2020; Park et al., 2001; Thomas Sherman et al., 2019).

For each realization, 50,000 particles were injected to each network and tracked from the inflow to the outflow plane boundary of the domain. Flow and transport simulations were iterated at least twenty times for each fracture network. Different realizations resulted in different arrival time distributions. To determine the appropriate number of realizations, we first iterated the simulations ten times and determined the slope of the arrival time distributions by fitting a power law at larger time scales. We thereafter calculated the mean and standard deviation of the slopes. We next increased the number of iterations to twenty and followed the same procedure to calculate the slopes, means and standard deviations for all twenty iterations. If no significant difference was observed between the results of ten and twenty iterations, we stopped. Otherwise, we increased the number of simulations to thirty and beyond until the results were insignificantly different. After that, to detect outliers, we computed the 95% confidence interval of the average arrival time distribution and removed those fell outside the 95% confidence interval boundaries.

## Chapter 3 - Continuous time random walk model

Continuous-time random walk (CTRW) is one of the promising theories developed to study Fickian and non-Fickian transport. It is a generalization of the random walk method proposed first to describe diffusion. In fracture networks, contaminants migrate through the tortuous path of interconnected fractures. The motion can be envisioned as solutes executing a series of discrete transitions between fracture intersections. The size distribution of the fracture fragments sets the spatial scale; however, the transport is primarily controlled by the distribution of transit times in fracture fragments due to flow velocities. Anomalous transport behavior occurs if the velocity distribution is broad, i.e., there is a slow algebraic power tail for long arrival times. A sufficient interplay between the migrating solute along a flow path and a broad spectrum can produce this tail. The CTRW framework accounts naturally for the cumulative effects of a sequence of these transitions characterized by the following truncated power-law (TPL) distribution of the local transition times

$$\psi(t) = \left[ t_1 \tau_2^{-\beta} \exp(\tau_2^{-1}) \Gamma(-\beta, \tau_2^{-1}) \right]^{-1} \frac{\exp(-t/t_2)}{(1 + t/t_1)^{1+\beta}} \propto \exp(-t/t_2) \quad (3)$$

where  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are respectively the lower and upper cutoffs of the truncated distribution ( $t_2$  also represents the onset for the transition to Fickian transport),  $\tau_2 \equiv t_1/t_2$ , and  $\Gamma(a, x)$  is the incomplete Gamma function. In Eq. (3),  $\psi(t)$  follows a power-law trend like  $(t/t_1)^{-1-\beta}$  for  $t_1 \leq t \leq t_2$  i.e., in this time regime the transport behavior is anomalous, while  $\psi(t)$  decreases exponentially for  $t \geq t_2$ , and the transport evolves from anomalous to normal transport. The exponent  $\beta$  controls the overall shape of breakthrough curve and is a useful means to characterize the cutoff  $t_2$  range. In general, non-Fickian transport arises for  $0 < \beta < 2$ , for  $0 < \beta < 1$ , transport is highly non-Fickian and for  $\beta > 2$ , the transport becomes Fickian (Berkowitz

& Scher, 2009). Eq. (3) has been successfully used to account for many laboratory-based experiments, field observations, and behavior determined by simulations (Berkowitz, 2002; Cortis & Berkowitz, 2005).

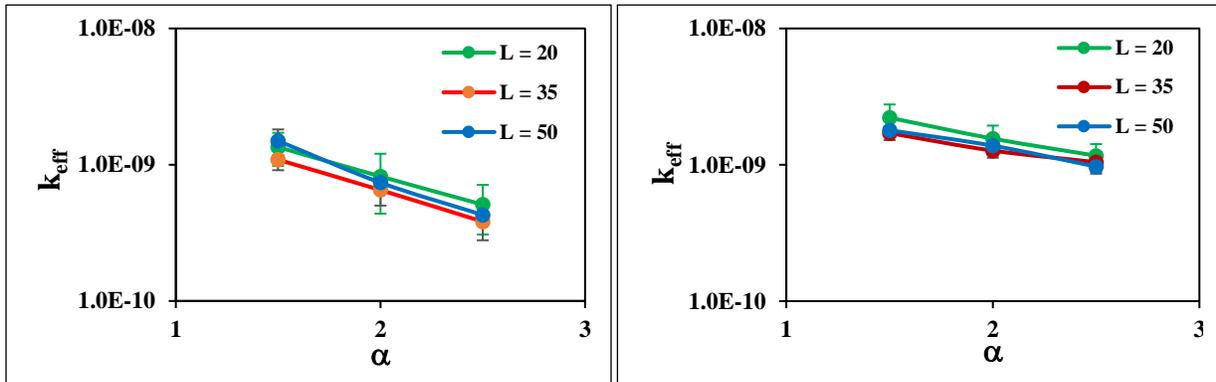
In order to quantify the solute transport behavior in the generated fractured media, we applied the CTRW model. Five transport parameters  $v$ ,  $D$ ,  $t_1$ ,  $t_2$ , and  $\beta$  were optimized by fitting the CTRW model to the individual arrival time distributions (Fig. 4.2). For this purpose, we used the CTRW MATLAB toolbox developed by Cortis & Berkowitz, (2005). The initial guess for the average solute velocity was determined from the average linear velocity (Freeze & Cherry, 1979) and using the porosity and permeability data. As an initial guess for the dispersion coefficient and  $\beta$ , we used 10% of the average linear velocity and a value near 1 (due to heavy-tailed arrival time distributions), respectively. For  $t_1$ , we used a value two orders of magnitude smaller than the lower limit of the arrival time distribution, while for  $t_2$  a value two orders of magnitude greater than the upper limit.

## Chapter 4 - Results and Discussion

### 4.1. Effect of exponent $\alpha$ on effective permeability

To investigate the impact of the exponent  $\alpha$ , we plotted the effective permeability values averaged over all the realizations for each network against  $\alpha$  in Fig. 4.1. Results for two fracture densities  $p_{30} = 0.05$  and  $0.10$  are also summarized in Table 4.1. As can be observed from Fig. 4.1, with increasing  $\alpha$  the value of  $k_{eff}$  decreases. The exponent  $\alpha$  controls the frequency of longer and shorter fractures in the network (de Dreuzy et al., 2012). As the value of exponent  $\alpha$  increases, a larger number of small fractures dominates the network. Thus, the  $k_{eff}$  of the network decreases with increasing the  $\alpha$  values. Zhu et al. (2021) observed similar results of increasing exponent  $\alpha$  on flow rates in three-dimension DFN simulations. Since the apertures are positively correlated to the fracture lengths in our study, long fractures tend to contribute more to the fluid flow due to their large apertures. We found that the  $k_{eff}$  strongly depended on the number and permeability of individual fractures that cut across the entire network rather than the total number of fractures in the networks. Particularly in sparse networks with low densities studied here, a few long fractures may significantly contribute to the permeability in the system. For  $p_{30} = 0.05$  and  $\alpha = 1.5$ , we observed one order of magnitude increase in the  $k_{eff}$  value higher than  $\alpha = 2.0$  even though the number of fractures in the network with  $\alpha = 2.0$  was higher than that with  $\alpha = 1.5$ . We also found a direct proportionality between the exponent  $\alpha$  and the fracture surface area (also known as fracture intensity  $p_{32}$ ). Similar trend was reported by Hyman et al. (2019). The exponent  $\alpha$  controls the distributions of fracture surface area, which does influence the permeability distributions, specifically in sparse networks considered in this study, more than the number of fractures in the systems (e.g., Table 4.1 for  $p_{30} = 0.10$  and

exponent  $\alpha = 1.5$ ). Recall that we generated the fracture networks stochastically, and it has been reported that realistic fracture networks share most of the attributes of random fracture networks (Zhu et al., 2021). All the fracture networks in this study mimic that of real-world fracture networks in terms of geometry. Specifically, the fracture intensity  $p_{32}$  in this study, which represents the total fracture surface per unit volume ranges from  $1.03$  to  $1.88 \text{ m}^{-1}$  (Table 4.1). This  $p_{32}$  value is consistent with  $p_{32}$  measurement of core data sets from New Albany Shale Unit, Baxter Shale Unit, and Marcellus Shale Unit (Gale et al., 2017).



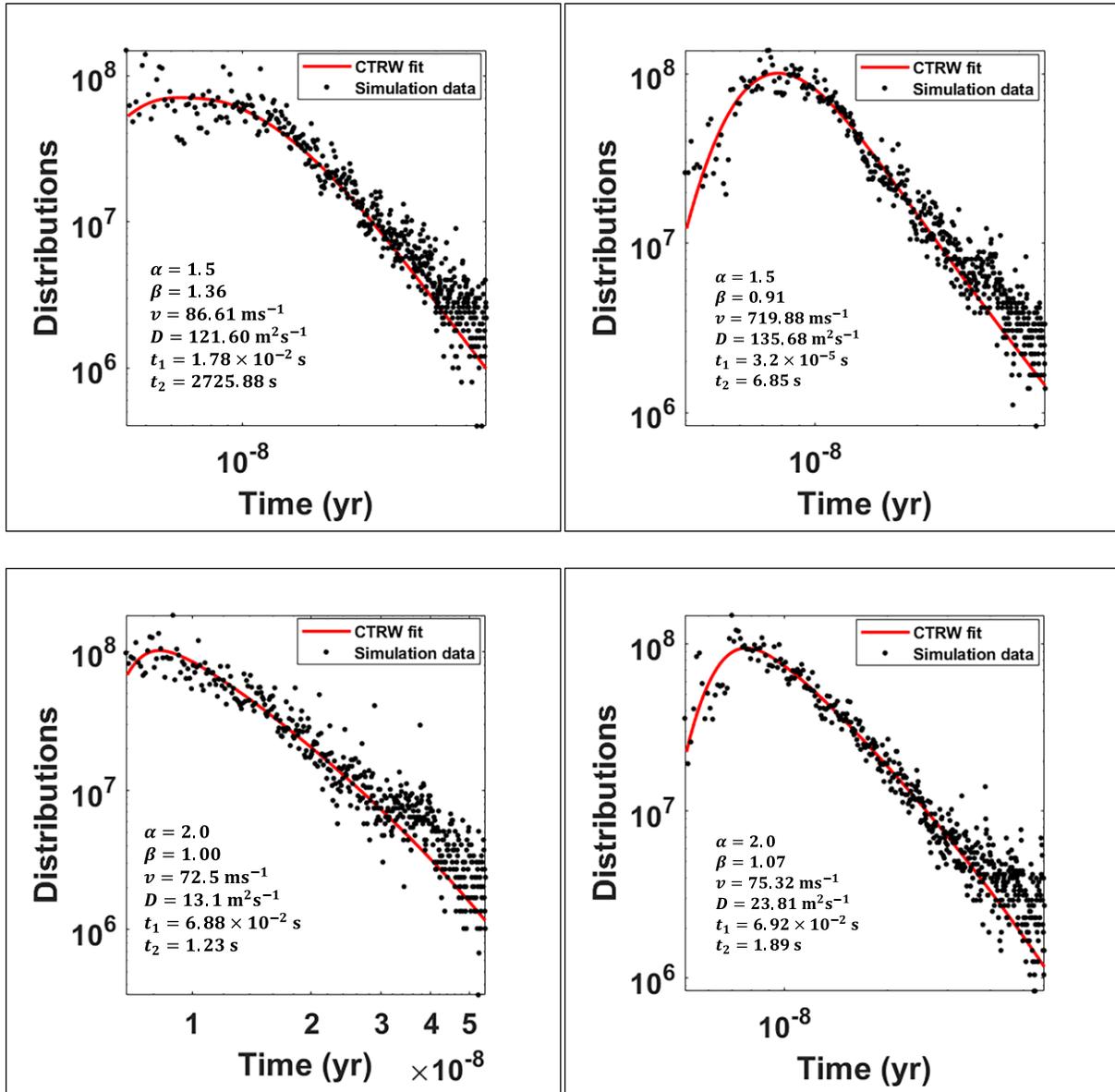
**Figure 4.1.** Permeability  $k$  as a function of exponent  $\alpha$  for (left)  $p_{30} = 0.05$  and (right)  $p_{30} = 0.10$  plotted for different domain sizes ( $L = 20, 30,$  and  $50 \text{ m}$ )

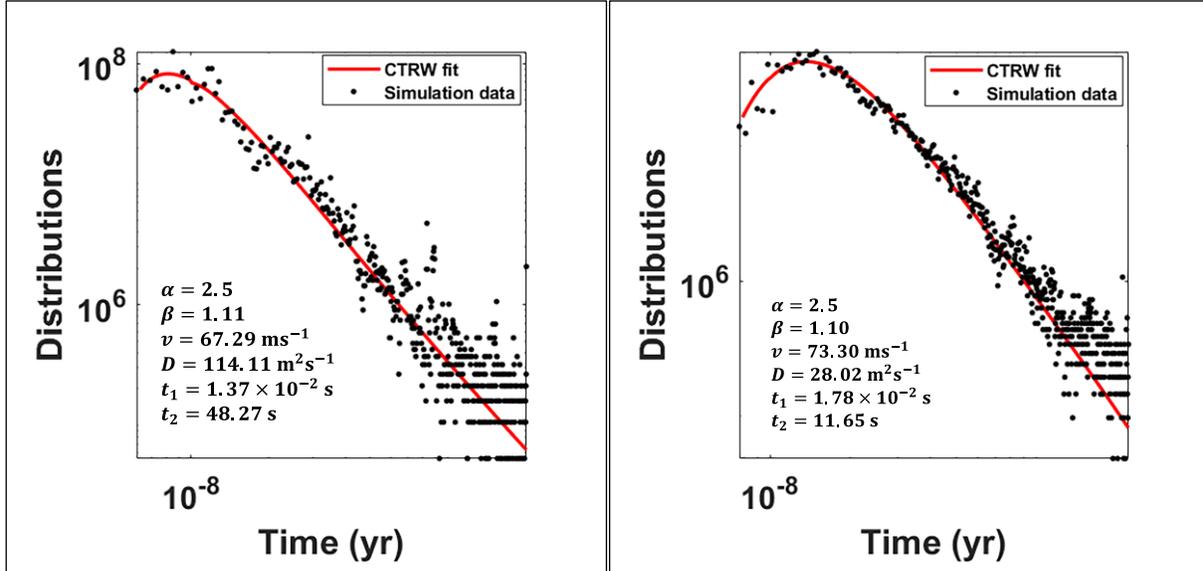
## 4.2. Effect of exponent $\alpha$ on solute transport

Although the effect of  $\alpha$  on fluid flow and permeability in fracture networks has been previously investigated (Bogdanov et al., 2007; de Dreuzy et al., 2001), its influence on solute transport and more specifically non-Fickian behavior in tight media has not well addressed yet.

The average values of the optimized CTRW model parameters for 18 fracture networks studied here are summarized in Table 4.1. The standard deviation for each parameter is given in Table A1 in Appendix A. The CTRW fit to the simulated arrival time distribution is shown in Fig.4.2 for six fracture networks depicted in Fig. A.1 in Appendix A. As can be seen, the CTRW

reasonably fit the arrival time distributions. Similar results were obtained for other twelve sets of simulations (not shown). Overall, we found  $0.69 \leq \beta \leq 1.25$  indicating non-Fickian solute behavior (Berkowitz et al., 2006). The long tails at large time scales shown in Fig. 4.2 confirm the non-Fickian transport behavior. Regarding the origin of non-Fickian transport in fracture networks, Neuman (2005) attributed that to flow channeling and fast paths through fractured media.



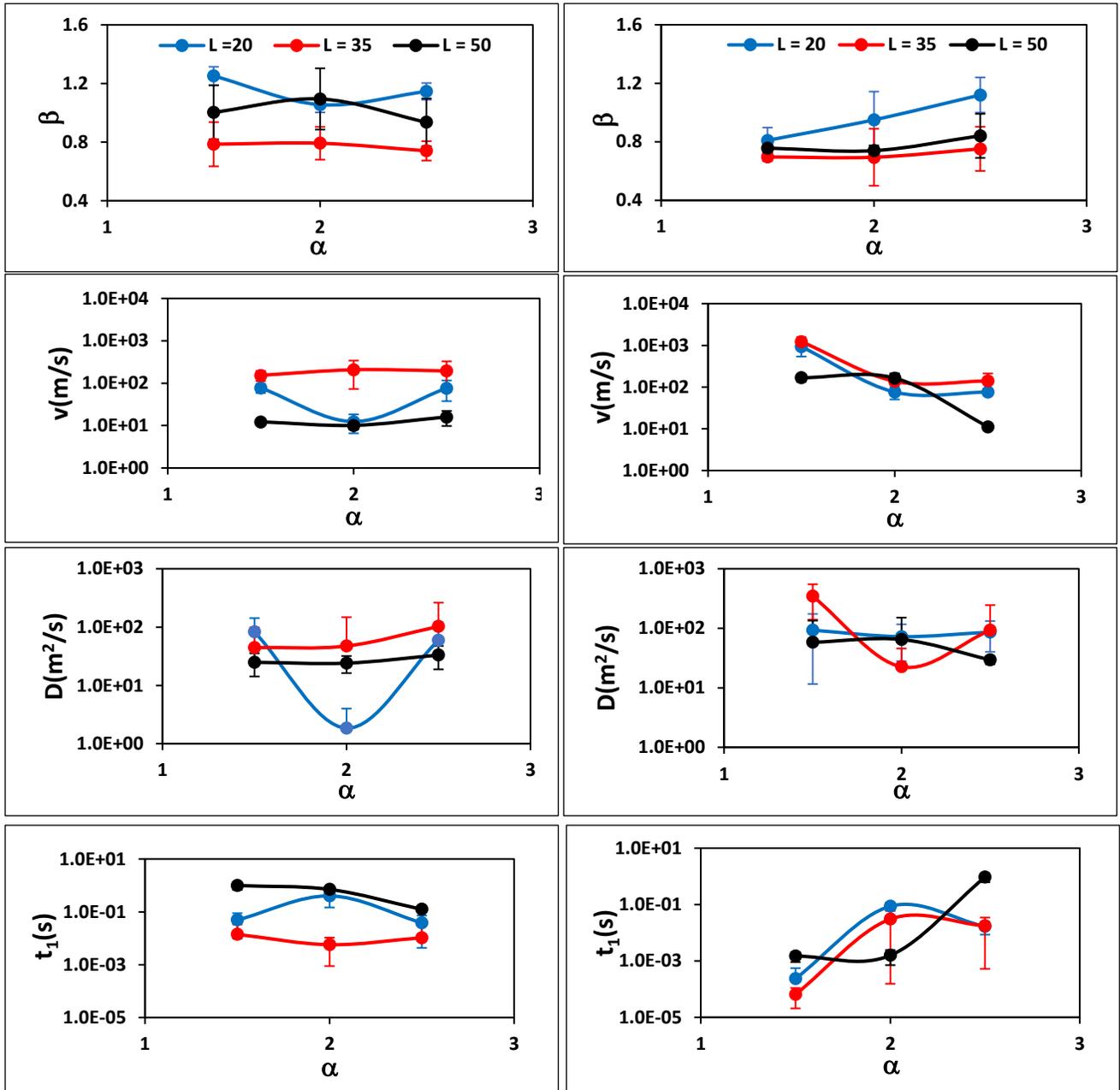


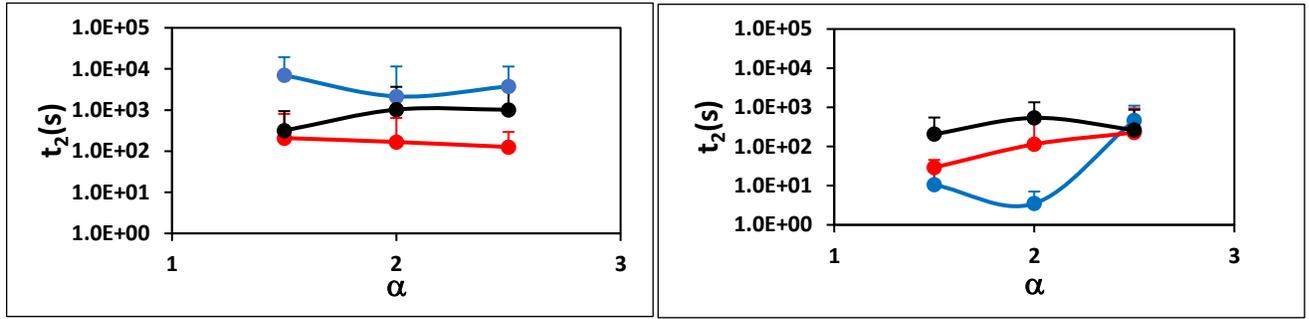
**Figure 4.2.** Simulated arrival time distributions and fitted CTRW model for a single DFN realization and  $L = 20$  m. Left plots correspond to  $p_{30} = 0.05$  and right ones to  $p_{30} = 0.10$ .

In Fig. 4.2.1, we show the average values of the CTRW model parameters  $\beta$ ,  $v$ ,  $D$ ,  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  versus  $\alpha$  for two fracture densities studied here ( $p_{30} = 0.05$  and  $0.1$ ). We did not find any monotonic relationship between the average  $\beta$  values reported in Table 4.1 and  $\alpha$ . For example, for  $p_{30} = 0.05$  and  $L = 20$  and  $35$  m the average value of  $\beta$  decreased monotonically with increasing  $\alpha$ . However, for other cases  $\beta$  first increased as  $\alpha$  increased from  $1.5$  to  $2$  and then decreased with increasing  $\alpha$  from  $2$  to  $2.5$  (see Table 4.1). Similar results were observed for the other CTRW model parameters (Fig. 4.2.1).

We explored the relationship between  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$  in further detail. By averaging over all six values corresponding to two fracture densities and three system sizes, we found  $\beta = 0.89, 0.89,$  and  $0.92$  for  $\alpha = 1.5, 2,$  and  $2.5,$  respectively, showing as  $\alpha$  increased, on average the value of  $\beta$  increased as well. Although similar results were found within the networks corresponding to  $p_{30} = 0.1$ , the trend between  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$  was decreasing in the networks with  $p_{30} = 0.05$ . Further

investigations and simulations at various fracture densities are still required to better address how varying  $\alpha$  affects the value of  $\beta$  and solute transport in fracture networks.





**Figure 4.2.1.** The CTRW model parameters against exponent  $\alpha$  for  $p_{30} = 0.05$  (left) and  $0.1$  (right)

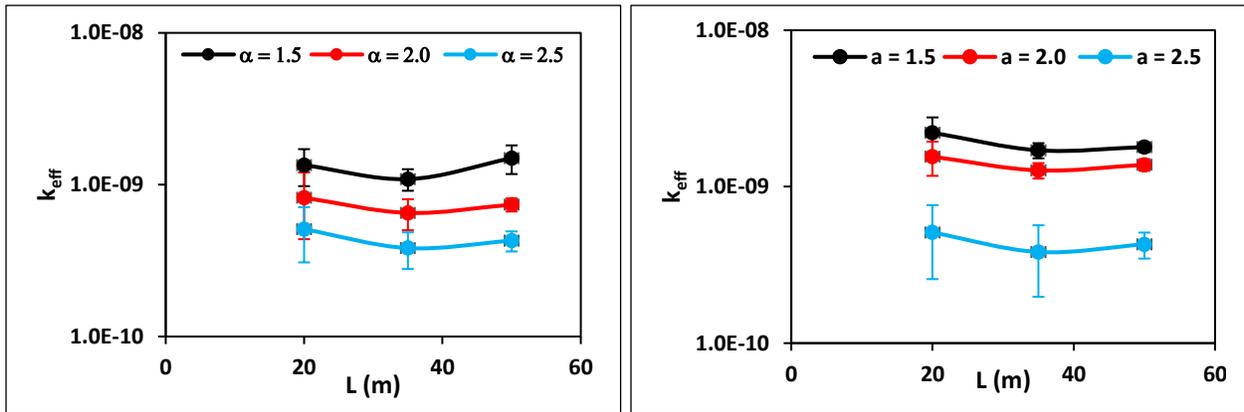
### 4.3. Effects of fracture density and scale on fluid flow

We found that in the fracture networks corresponding to the same  $\alpha$  value, as the fracture density increased, the value of effective permeability increased as well (see Table 4.1). The increasing trend varied from one  $\alpha$  value to another. On average, we found that the value of permeability increased from  $p_{30} = 0.05$  to  $0.1$  by a factor of 1.5, 1.9 and 2.4 for  $\alpha = 1.5, 2,$  and  $2.5$ , respectively.

Results of the scale dependence of  $k_{eff}$  for two fracture densities  $0.05$  and  $0.1$  are shown in Fig. 4.3. For  $p_{30} = 0.05$ , we found that  $k_{eff}$  slightly decreased by 19, 26, and 25% respectively for  $\alpha = 1.5, 2,$  and  $2.5$  as  $L$  increased from  $20$  to  $35$  m. Its value then slightly increased by 37, 13, and 12% for  $\alpha = 1.5, 2,$  and  $2.5$ , respectively, with increasing  $L$  from  $35$  to  $50$  m. For  $p_{30} = 0.1$ , the  $k_{eff}$  dropped slightly by 23% for  $\alpha = 1.5$ , 18% for  $\alpha = 2$ , and 10% for  $\alpha = 2.5$  when  $L$  increased from  $20$  to  $35$ . When the system size increased from  $35$  to  $50$  m the value of  $k_{eff}$  increased by 5 and 9% for respectively  $\alpha = 1.5$  and  $2$ , while decreased by 7% for  $\alpha = 2.5$ . Overall, our results showed less scale-dependent  $k_{eff}$  for  $p_{30} = 0.1$  compared to  $0.05$ . This is most probably because at the fracture density of  $0.05$ , the generated networks are closer

to the percolation threshold where a disordered sample spanning cluster forms, and one should expect a very high level of heterogeneity.

The fluid flow simulations and the  $k_{eff}$  values presented in Table 4.1 and depicted as a function of the system size in Fig. 4.3 showed that the generated networks with size 50 m for both  $p_{30} = 0.05$  and 0.1 should be close to the representative elementary volume (REV).



**Figure 4.3.** Effective permeability,  $k_{eff}$ , against network size,  $L$ , for  $p_{30} = 0.05$  (left) and 0.1 (right) and three  $\alpha$  values. The data are summarized in Table 4.1.

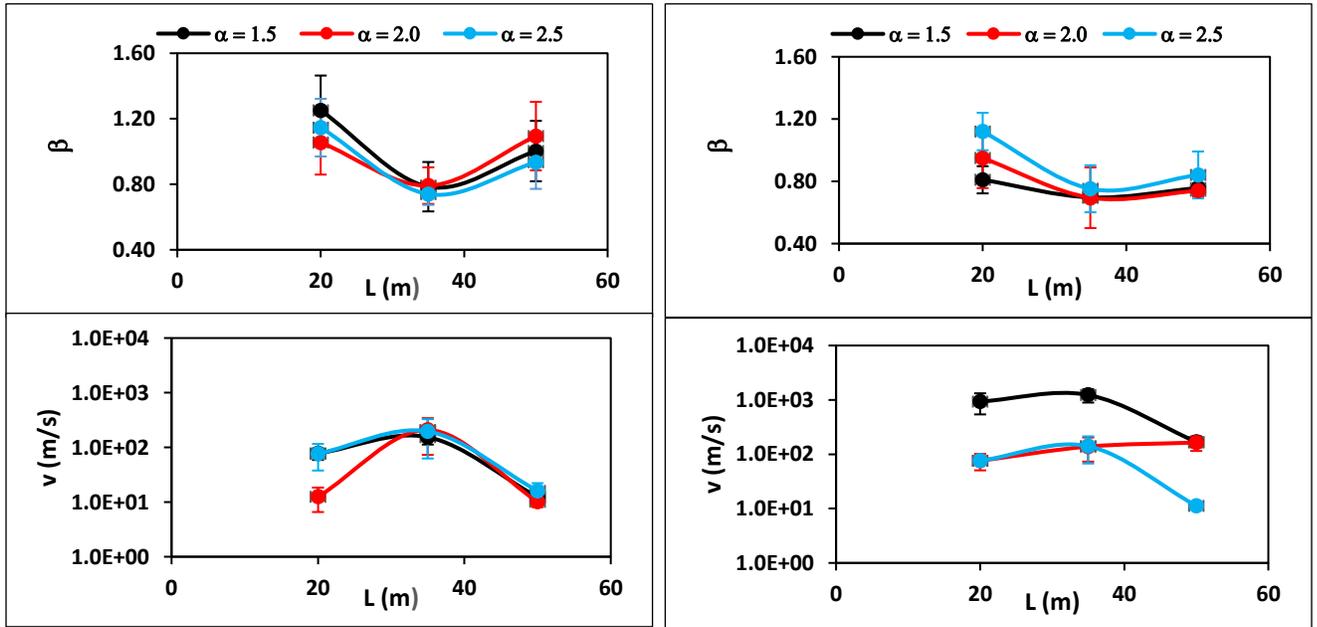
#### 4.4. Effects of fracture density and scale on solute transport

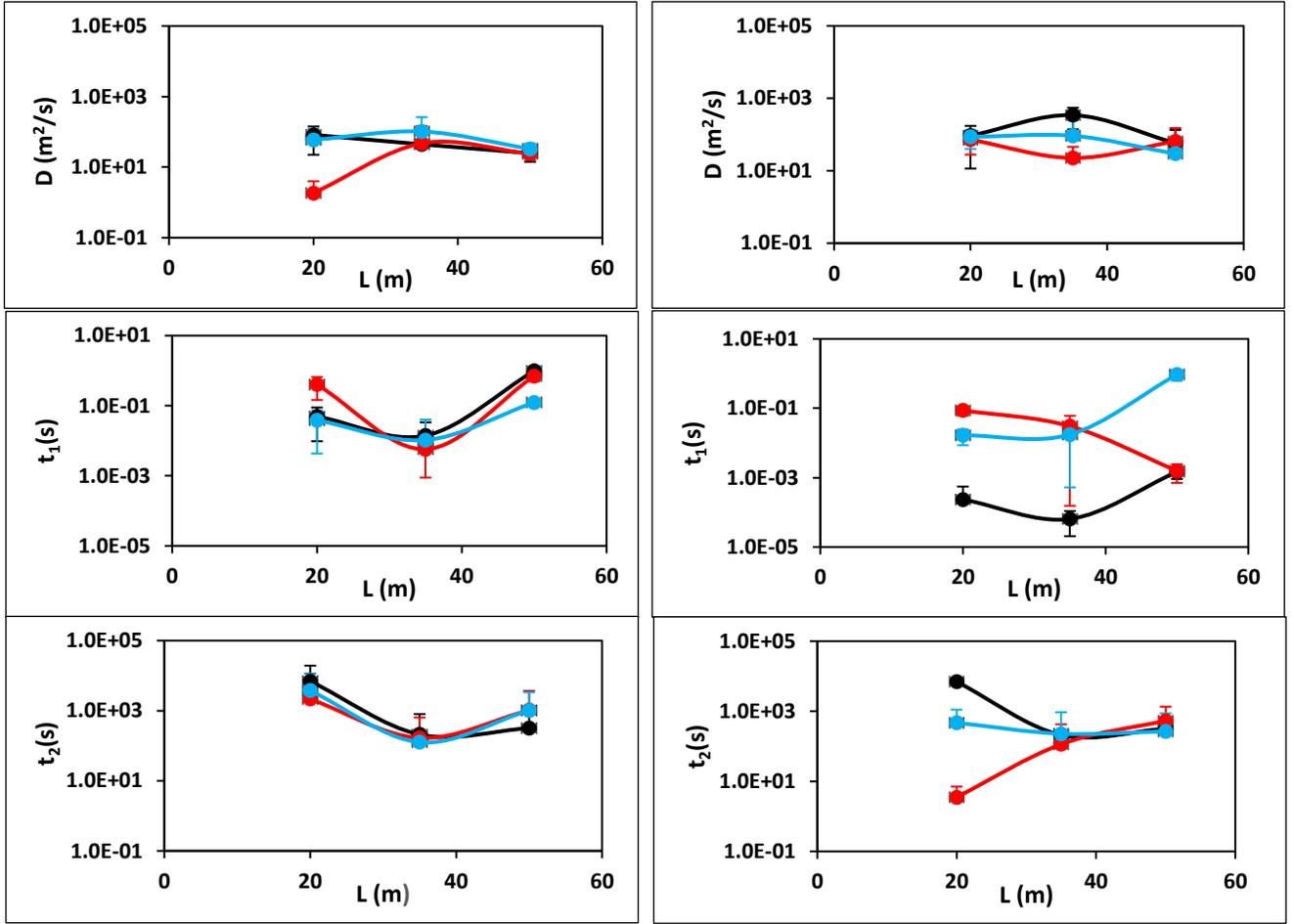
In Fig. 4.4, we show the CTRW model parameters as a function of the system size  $L$  for  $p_{30} = 0.05$  and 0.10 and different  $\alpha$  values. As can be seen, all the CTRW model parameters showed strong scale-dependent behavior, although the effect of scale on the  $k_{eff}$  was relatively trivial (Fig. 4.3). Plots corresponding to  $p_{30} = 0.05$  are as scattered as those corresponding to  $p_{30} = 0.10$ , which makes it difficult to determine at which fracture density (0.05 or 0.1) the effect of scale on solute transport is more substantial. Fracture networks with low fracture densities are very heterogeneous and complex systems, which makes solute transport simulations very challenging and computationally demanding (Cherubini et al., 2022; Davy et al., 2006).

Generally speaking, we found slightly smaller  $\beta$  values ( $0.69 \leq \beta \leq 1.12$ ) in the higher density fracture networks ( $p_{30} = 0.1$ ) than those ( $0.74 \leq \beta \leq 1.25$ ) in the lower density ones ( $p_{30} = 0.05$ ). Although one may expect  $\beta$  to be smaller in lower density networks, due to the presence of higher level of heterogeneity, the two ranges of  $\beta$  are not greatly different. For both  $p_{30} = 0.05$  and  $0.1$ , small values of  $\beta$  ( $< 1.25$ ) indicate strong non-Fickian transport behavior in such networks and heavy tails in the arrival time distributions.

We also found that the average solute velocity ( $v$ ) in the networks with  $p_{30} = 0.1$  was generally greater than that in the networks with  $p_{30} = 0.05$ . These results are consistent with the results of fluid flow simulations for which we found the  $k_{eff}$  in the networks with higher fracture densities greater than that in the networks with lower fracture densities (Table 4.1).

Our results showed that by increasing  $v$ , the value of dispersion coefficient  $D$  also increased with  $R^2 = 0.64$  (results not shown). Similar to the results of Ghanbarian et al. (2023), we found as either  $v$  or  $D$  increased, the value of  $t_1$  decreased with  $R^2 = 0.82$  (results not shown).





**Figure 4.4.** CTRW model parameters against domain size for (left)  $p_{30} = 0.05$  and (right)  $p_{30} = 0.1$ . Error bars shows the variabilities from various realizations. The data in the tabulated format are summarized in Table 4.1.

#### 4.5. Regression-based relationships for the CTRW model parameters

In this section, we investigated the correlation between the geometrical and topological properties of the fracture networks, e.g., density ( $p_{30}$ ), fracture surface area ( $p_{32}$ ), network porosity ( $p_{33}$ ), domain size ( $L$ ), exponent ( $\alpha$ ), effective permeability ( $k_{eff}$ ), and the optimized CTRW model parameters. We first examined the normality of the input and output variables using the Jarque-Bera test. If not normally distributed, we used the Cox-Box transformation and verified the normality of the transformed variables via the Jarque-Bera test. We then applied

multiple linear regression analysis in R to link the fracture network geometrical and topological properties to the CTRW model parameters. Results summarized in Table 4.5 indicate that  $0.74 \leq R^2 \leq 0.84$  and  $0.0002 \leq \text{p-value} \leq 0.0085$ . No model was found for the dispersion coefficient with high  $R^2$  or  $\text{p-value} < 0.05$  (at 95% confidence level). Although through multiple linear regression analysis, we found  $\beta$ ,  $\nu$ , and  $t_1$  to be significantly dependent on the system size  $L$  ( $\text{p-value} < 0.05$ ), the parameter  $t_2$  was only linked to  $p_{32}$ ,  $p_{33}$ ,  $N_f$ , and  $\alpha$  (Table 4.5). The reason is still not clear, and further investigations are required.

Generally speaking, one should expect the average solute velocity to increase as the effective permeability increases. This is consistent with our results given in Table 4.1 and the regression-based model presented for  $\nu$ . In addition to that, earlier we showed that as  $\alpha$  increased, on average the value of  $\beta$  increased as well. The regression model for  $\beta$ , reported in Table 4.5, similarly mimic the same trend between  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$ . Our regression analysis also showed an inverse relationship between the  $\nu$  and the exponent  $\alpha$ , which seems reasonable because solutes would transit at a faster rate when large fractures dominate and cross a network.

We should point out that the  $\beta$  showed more sensitivity to the number of fractures ( $N_f$ ) in the networks than the  $p_{30}$ . Recall that after fractures were generated, isolated fractures and clusters were removed from the networks because they did not contribute to flow and transport led to a different number of fractures at each realization. Based on our regressions analysis, as the number of fractures increases, the value of  $\beta$  also increases, i.e., the networks tend to be homogeneous with increasing number of fractures.

**Table 4.1.** Fracture geometrical and topological properties from fracture network generations, and averaged CTRW model optimized parameters obtained from the fits of the model to arrival time distributions of particle tracking simulations.

Fracture network topological properties							CTRW model parameters				
<b>P30</b> ( <b>m<sup>-2</sup></b> )	<b>L(m)</b>	<b>N<sub>f</sub></b>	<b>P33</b> × <b>10<sup>-3</sup></b>	<b>P32</b> ( <b>m<sup>-1</sup></b> )	<b>α</b>	<b>K(m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	<b>β</b>	<b>v(ms<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>D(m<sup>2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>t<sub>1</sub>(s)</b>	<b>t<sub>2</sub>(s)</b>
<b>0.05</b>	20	193	1.61	1.30	1.5	$1.35 \times 10^{-09}$	1.25	$7.74 \times 10^{01}$	$8.25 \times 10^{01}$	$4.92 \times 10^{-02}$	$6.99 \times 10^{03}$
		184	1.34	1.20	2.0	$8.21 \times 10^{-10}$	1.06	$1.25 \times 10^{01}$	$1.85 \times 10^{00}$	$4.00 \times 10^{-01}$	$2.15 \times 10^{03}$
		166	1.17	1.03	2.5	$5.09 \times 10^{-10}$	1.15	$7.67 \times 10^{01}$	$5.95 \times 10^{01}$	$3.84 \times 10^{-02}$	$3.76 \times 10^{03}$
	35	1011	1.51	1.33	1.5	$1.09 \times 10^{-09}$	0.79	$1.54 \times 10^{02}$	$4.45 \times 10^{01}$	$1.04 \times 10^{-02}$	$2.09 \times 10^{02}$
		993	1.29	1.28	2.0	$6.52 \times 10^{-10}$	0.79	$2.08 \times 10^{02}$	$4.73 \times 10^{01}$	$5.74 \times 10^{-03}$	$1.67 \times 10^{02}$
		974	1.06	1.21	2.5	$3.82 \times 10^{-10}$	0.74	$1.96 \times 10^{02}$	$1.03 \times 10^{02}$	$1.05 \times 10^{-02}$	$1.26 \times 10^{02}$
	50	3124	1.55	1.44	1.5	$1.50 \times 10^{-09}$	1.00	$1.23 \times 10^{01}$	$2.49 \times 10^{01}$	$9.88 \times 10^{-01}$	$3.17 \times 10^{02}$
		3153	1.39	1.40	2.0	$7.39 \times 10^{-10}$	1.09	$1.01 \times 10^{01}$	$2.41 \times 10^{01}$	$7.04 \times 10^{-01}$	$1.02 \times 10^{03}$
		3139	1.19	1.34	2.5	$4.28 \times 10^{-10}$	0.94	$1.60 \times 10^{01}$	$3.31 \times 10^{01}$	$1.24 \times 10^{-01}$	$1.02 \times 10^{03}$

<b>0.10</b>	20	338	2.08	1.77	1.5	$2.21 \times 10^{-09}$	0.81	$9.31 \times 10^{02}$	$9.30 \times 10^{01}$	$2.35 \times 10^{-04}$	$1.05 \times 10^{01}$
		342	1.77	1.74	2.0	$1.56 \times 10^{-09}$	0.95	$7.58 \times 10^{01}$	$7.24 \times 10^{01}$	$8.69 \times 10^{-02}$	$3.52 \times 10^{00}$
		338	1.79	1.65	2.5	$1.17 \times 10^{-09}$	1.12	$7.58 \times 10^{01}$	$8.63 \times 10^{01}$	$1.66 \times 10^{-02}$	$4.68 \times 10^{01}$
	35	1648	1.97	1.75	1.5	$1.71 \times 10^{-09}$	0.70	$1.23 \times 10^{03}$	$3.45 \times 10^{02}$	$6.49 \times 10^{-05}$	$2.92 \times 10^{01}$
		1679	1.71	1.70	2.0	$1.27 \times 10^{-09}$	0.69	$1.38 \times 10^{02}$	$2.26 \times 10^{01}$	$3.03 \times 10^{-02}$	$1.14 \times 10^{02}$
		1676	1.59	1.69	2.5	$1.05 \times 10^{-09}$	0.75	$1.40 \times 10^{02}$	$9.27 \times 10^{01}$	$1.76 \times 10^{-02}$	$2.28 \times 10^{02}$
	50	4972	1.98	1.88	1.5	$1.79 \times 10^{-09}$	0.76	$1.68 \times 10^{02}$	$5.81 \times 10^{01}$	$1.48 \times 10^{-03}$	$2.07 \times 10^{02}$
		5052	1.85	1.86	2.0	$1.38 \times 10^{-09}$	0.74	$1.64 \times 10^{02}$	$6.49 \times 10^{01}$	$1.58 \times 10^{-03}$	$5.39 \times 10^{02}$
		5107	1.67	1.82	2.5	$9.71 \times 10^{-10}$	0.84	$1.12 \times 10^{01}$	$2.95 \times 10^{01}$	$9.44 \times 10^{-01}$	$2.65 \times 10^{02}$

p30: fracture density, L: domain size,  $N_f$ : final number of fractures after isolated fractures have been removed

from network, p32: initial fracture surface area,  $\alpha$ : truncated power-law exponent for fracture length distribution,

$K$ : system permeability;  $\beta$ : CTRW-TPL exponent,  $v$ : solute velocity,  $D$ : dispersion,  $t_1$ : transition time,  $t_2$ : cut-off time.

**Figure 4.5.** Basic regression model for CTRW model parameters

Variable	Equation	R <sup>2</sup>	P-value
$\beta$	$(9.73 + 0.03L - 2.13\alpha - 4368.36p33 - 2.61p32 + 78.35p30)^{-1/2.36}$	0.62	0.0036
$v$	$(2.30 - 2.63 \times 10^{-5}N_f - 0.56p32 - 717.6p33 - 0.11\alpha - 1.32 \times 10^8k_{eff} + 507.30p32 \times p33)^{1/0.03}$	0.69	0.0048
$t_1$	$(-1.71 + 1.60 \times 10^{-4}N_f + 2.52p32 + 1396.20p33 - 1382.40p32 \times p33 - 0.01L \times p32 + 1.84 \times 10^8k_{eff})^{1/0.06}$	0.67	0.0114
$t_2$	$(0.64 + 1.90 \times 10^{-4}N_f - 1081.20p32 \times p33 + 2002.20p33 - 0.01L + 5.16p30)^{1/0.06}$	0.78	0.0002

p30: fracture density (m<sup>-2</sup>), p32: fracture surface area (m<sup>-1</sup>),  $L$ : domain size (m),  $k_{eff}$ (m<sup>2</sup>), p33: network porosity,  $N_f$ : number of fractures in the network

Note: No high correlation was found for dispersion (D); thus, it was not reported in the table.

## Chapter 5 - Conclusions

We investigated the effect of scale and truncated power-law fracture length distribution on both fluid flow and solute transport in three-dimensional fracture networks at two different fracture densities ( $p_{30} = 0.05$  and  $0.1$ ) representing tight formations. We considered three values i.e., 1.5, 2, and 2.5 (consistent with experiments reported in the literature) for the exponent  $\alpha$ , numerically solved the Stokes equation to determine the velocity field, and applied a Lagrangian approach to simulate advective transport through eighteen fracture networks. To quantify the solute transport behavior, we fit the CTRW model to the simulated arrival time distributions obtained from particle tracking simulations. Results showed that the generated networks were near the representative elementary volume (REV) for fluid flow. More specifically, the effect of scale (fracture network linear size  $L$ ) on the effective permeability was trivial, particularly for  $L = 35$  and  $50$  m. However, by investigating the scale dependence of the CTRW model parameters, we showed that the REV for solute transport has not reached. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study demonstrating the REV for fluid flow is different from that for solute transport in tight formations. We also established scale-dependent regression-based relationships linking the CTRW model parameters to the system size and other fracture network characteristics. We found parameters  $\alpha$ ,  $p_{32}$ ,  $p_{33}$ ,  $N_f$ , and  $L$  significantly control the CTRW model parameters, and more generally the solute transport behavior ( $p$ -value  $< 0.05$ ).

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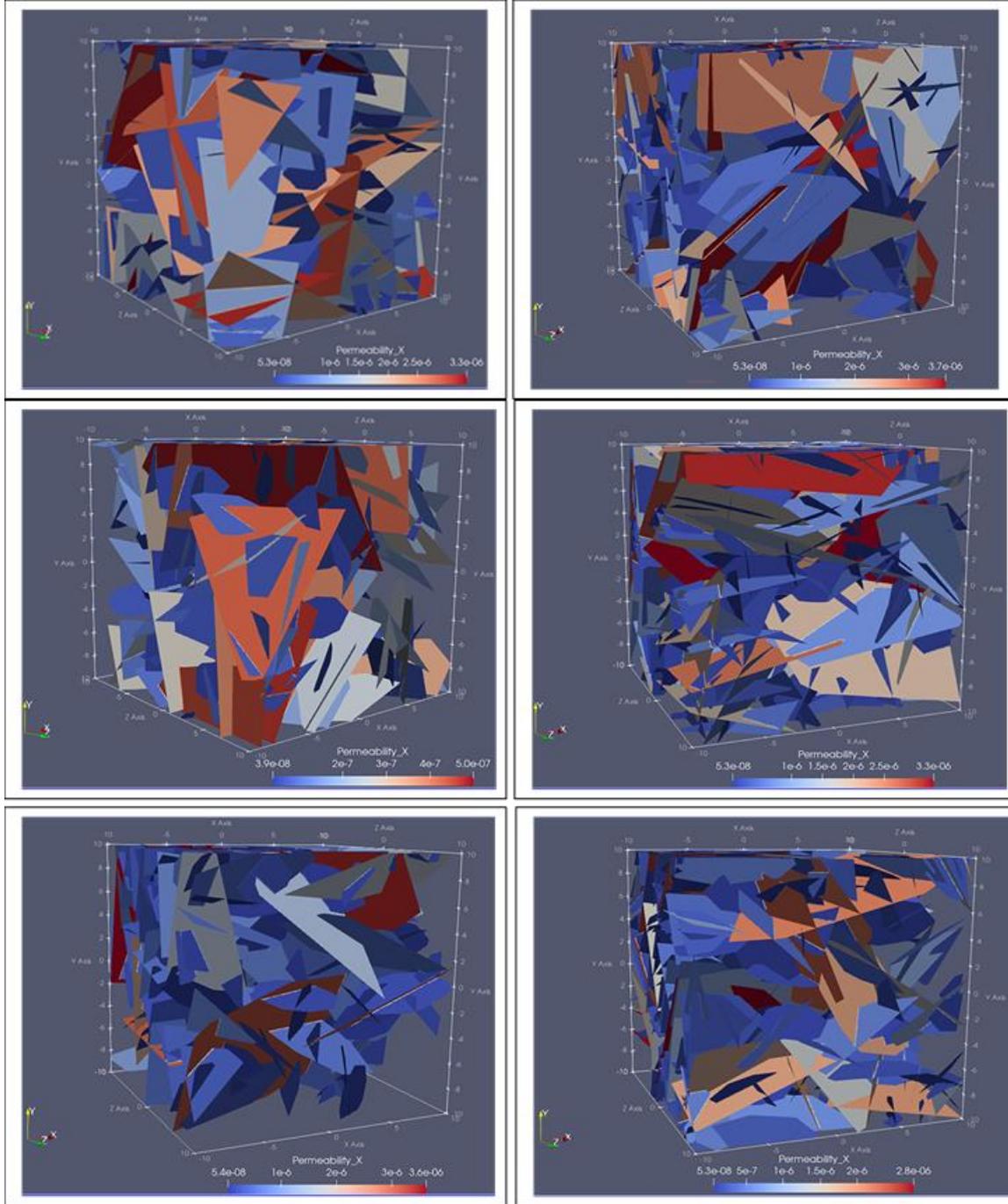
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**Appendix A - DFN permeability field and standard deviation for  
CTRW model parameters**



**Appendix A Figure A.1.** Discrete fracture networks of  $L = 20$  m showing the impacts of TPL  $\alpha$  on the permeability of the network: left  $p_{30} = 0.05$  (top:  $\alpha = 1.5$ ), ( middle:  $\alpha = 2.0$ ), (bottom:  $\alpha = 2.5$ ). Right  $p_{30} = 0.10$  (top:  $\alpha = 1.5$ ), (middle:  $\alpha = 2.0$ ), (bottom:  $\alpha = 2.5$ ). Note that colors indicate the permeability of individual fractures and their size in the network, with larger fractures having warmer colors.

**Appendix A Table A.1.** Network characterization (Density and Topology), and standard deviation values showing the variability between the ensembled CTRW optimized parameters.

Fracture Network Topological Properties						CTRW Model Parameters (Standard deviation)				
P30	L(m)	P32	$N_f$	$\alpha$	$K$ (m <sup>2</sup> )	$\beta$	$v$ (ms <sup>-1</sup> )	$D$ (m <sup>2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	$t_1$ (s)	$t_2$ (s)
0.05	20	1.30	193	1.5	$1.35 \times 10^{-09}$	0.21	$1.84 \times 10^{01}$	$6.00 \times 10^{01}$	$3.96 \times 10^{-02}$	$1.24 \times 10^{04}$
		1.17	182	2.0	$6.58 \times 10^{-11}$	0.20	$5.91 \times 10^{00}$	$2.15 \times 10^{00}$	$2.54 \times 10^{-01}$	$9.35 \times 10^{03}$
		1.03	166	2.5	$5.09 \times 10^{-10}$	0.18	$3.90 \times 10^{01}$	$6.05 \times 10^{01}$	$3.41 \times 10^{-02}$	$7.67 \times 10^{03}$
	35	1.33	1011	1.5	$1.09 \times 10^{-09}$	0.15	$4.41 \times 10^{01}$	$5.37 \times 10^{01}$	$1.95 \times 10^{-02}$	$5.97 \times 10^{02}$
		1.28	993	2.0	$6.52 \times 10^{-10}$	0.11	$1.35 \times 10^{02}$	$1.00 \times 10^{02}$	$4.85 \times 10^{-03}$	$4.73 \times 10^{02}$
		1.21	974	2.5	$3.82 \times 10^{-10}$	0.07	$1.33 \times 10^{02}$	$1.60 \times 10^{02}$	$2.94 \times 10^{-02}$	$1.67 \times 10^{02}$
	50	1.44	3124	1.5	$1.50 \times 10^{-09}$	0.18	$1.78 \times 10^{00}$	$1.07 \times 10^{01}$	$3.13 \times 10^{-01}$	$6.23 \times 10^{02}$
		1.40	3153	2.0	$7.39 \times 10^{-10}$	0.21	$2.04 \times 10^{00}$	$7.87 \times 10^{00}$	$2.04 \times 10^{-01}$	$2.65 \times 10^{03}$
		1.34	3139	2.5	$4.28 \times 10^{-10}$	0.16	$6.19 \times 10^{00}$	$1.43 \times 10^{01}$	$2.36 \times 10^{-02}$	$2.34 \times 10^{03}$
0.10	20	1.77	338	1.5	$2.21 \times 10^{-09}$	0.09	$3.90 \times 10^{02}$	$8.14 \times 10^{01}$	$3.20 \times 10^{-04}$	$1.70 \times 10^{01}$
		1.74	342	2.0	$1.56 \times 10^{-09}$	0.19	$2.53 \times 10^{01}$	$4.44 \times 10^{01}$	$2.62 \times 10^{-02}$	$3.57 \times 10^{00}$
		1.65	338	2.5	$1.17 \times 10^{-09}$	0.12	$1.17 \times 10^{01}$	$4.62 \times 10^{01}$	$8.03 \times 10^{-03}$	$6.36 \times 10^{02}$
	35	1.75	1648	1.5	$1.71 \times 10^{-09}$	0.03	$3.38 \times 10^{02}$	$2.05 \times 10^{02}$	$4.42 \times 10^{-05}$	$1.62 \times 10^{01}$
		1.70	1679	2.0	$1.05 \times 10^{-09}$	0.19	$6.50 \times 10^{01}$	$2.32 \times 10^{01}$	$3.02 \times 10^{-02}$	$3.08 \times 10^{02}$
		1.69	1676	2.5	$9.32 \times 10^{-10}$	0.15	$7.27 \times 10^{01}$	$1.52 \times 10^{02}$	$1.70 \times 10^{-02}$	$1.70 \times 10^{02}$

		1.88	4972	1.5	$1.79 \times 10^{-09}$	0.03	$3.40 \times 10^{01}$	$7.65 \times 10^{01}$	$5.67 \times 10^{-04}$	$3.43 \times 10^{02}$
	50	1.86	5052	2.0	$1.38 \times 10^{-09}$	0.04	$4.95 \times 10^{01}$	$8.63 \times 10^{01}$	$8.67 \times 10^{-04}$	$8.08 \times 10^{02}$
		1.82	5107	2.5	$9.71 \times 10^{-10}$	0.15	$1.23 \times 10^{00}$	$4.59 \times 10^{00}$	$3.26 \times 10^{-01}$	$6.05 \times 10^{02}$

p30: fracture density, L: domain size,  $N_f$ : final number of fractures after isolated fractures have been removed from network, p32: initial fracture surface area,  $\alpha$ : truncated power-law exponent for fracture length distribution,  $K$ : system permeability;  $\beta$ : CTRW-TPL exponent,  $v$ : solute velocity,  $D$ : dispersion,  $t_1$ : transition time,  $t_2$ : cut-off time.

# Appendix B - Scripts for generating fracture networks, running flow and transport simulations

## Discrete Fracture Network Generation Script

```
//=====
```

```
=====
```

```
// General Options & Fracture Network Parameters:
```

```
stopCondition: 0
```

```
/* 0: stop once nPoly fractures are accepted (Defined below)
```

```
1: stop once all family's p32 values are equal or greater than the families
```

```
target p32 values (defined in stochastic family sections)
```

```
*/
```

```
nPoly: 4288
```

```
/* Used when stopCondition = 0
```

```
Total number of fractures you would like to have
```

```
in the domain you defined. The program will complete
```

```
once you have nPoly number of fractures,
```

```
maxPoly number of polygon/fracture rejections,
```

```
rejPoly number of rejections in a row, or reach a
```

```
specified fracture cluster size if using
```

```
stoppingParameter = -largestSize */
```

outputAllRadii: 0

/\* 0: Do not output all radii file.

1: Include file of all radii (accepted+rejected fractures)

in output files.

\*/

domainSize: {35,35,35}

/\* Mandatory Parameter.

Creates a domain with dimension x\*y\*z centered at the origin.\*/

numOfLayers: 0 //number of layers

layers:

{0}

/\* Layers need to be listed line by line

Format: {minZ, maxZ}

The first layer listed is layer 1, the second is layer 2, etc

Stochastic families can be assigned to these layers (see stochastic  
shape family section)

\*/

numOfRegions: 0 // Number of regions

regions:

{}

/\* Regions need to be listed line by line

Format: {minX, maxX, minY, maxY, minZ, maxZ}

The first region listed is region 1, the second is region 2, etc

Stochastic families can be assigned to these layers (see stochastic  
shape family section)

\*/

orientationOption: 0

/\* Fracture Orientation Option

0 : Spherical Coordinates

1 : Trend / Plunge

2 : Dip / Strike

\*/

h: 0.15

/\* Minimum fracture length scale(meters)

Any fracture with a feature, such as an intersection, of less than h will be rejected. \*/

//=====

=====//

/\* Fracture Network Parameters: \*/

tripleIntersections: 0

/\* Options: 0: Off

1: On \*/

printRejectReasons: 0

/\* Useful for debugging,

This option will print all fracture rejection reasons as they occur.

0: disable

1: print all rejection reasons to screen

\*/

disableFram: 0

visualizationMode: 0

/\* Options: 0 or 1

Used during meshing:

0: creates a fine mesh, according to h parameter;

1: produce only first round of triangulations. In this case no modeling of flow and transport is possible. \*/

seed: 0

//Seed for random generator. 0 = seed off clock

domainSizeIncrease: {8, 8, 8}

//temporary size increase for inserting fracture centers outside domain

//increases the entire width by this amount. So, {1,1,1} will increase

//the domain by adding .5 to the +x, and subtracting .5 to the -x, etc

keepOnlyLargestCluster: 1

/\* 0 = Keep any clusters which connects the specified

boundary faces in boundaryFaces option below

1 = Keep only the largest cluster which connects

the specified boundary faces in boundaryFaces option below

\*/

ignoreBoundaryFaces: 0

/\*

0 = use boundaryFaces option below

1 = ignore boundaryFaces option and keep all clusters and  
will still remove fractures with no intersections

\*/

boundaryFaces: {1,1,0,0,0,0}

/\* DFN will only keep clusters with connections to domain boundaries which are set to 1:

boundaryFaces[0] = +X domain boundary

boundaryFaces[1] = -X domain boundary

boundaryFaces[2] = +Y domain boundary

boundaryFaces[3] = -Y domain boundary

boundaryFaces[4] = +Z domain boundary

boundaryFaces[5] = -Z domain boundary

Be sure to set ignoreBoundaryFaces to 0 when using this feature.

\*/

rejectsPerFracture: 10 /\*If fracture is rejected, it will be re-translated to a new  
position this number of times.

This helps hit distribution targets for stochastic families  
(Set to 1 to ignore this feature) \*/

outputAcceptedRadiiPerFamily: 0

//=====

=====

// Shape and Probability Parameters

//=====

=====

//user rectangles and user Ellipses defined in their cooresponding files

famProb: {1}

/\* Probability of occurrence of each family of randomly distrubuted rectangles  
and ellipses.

User-ellipses and user-rectangles insertion will be attempted with 100% likelihood, but with possibility they may be rejected.

The famProb elements should add up to 1.0 (for %100).

The probabilities are listed in order of families starting with all stochastic ellipses, and then all stochastic rectangles.

For example:

If then there are two ellipse families, each with probabiliy .3,  
and two rectangle families, each with probabiliy .2, famProb will be:  
famProb: { .3,.3,.2,.2} Notice: famProb elements add to 1

\*/

insertUserRectanglesFirst: 0

/\*

1: User rectangles will be inserted first

0: User ellipses will be inserted first

\*/

/\*=====

=====\*/

//=====

=====

```
//          Elliptical Fracture Options
//  NOTE: Number of elements must match number of ellipse families
//      (first number in nShape input parameter)
//=====
//=====
/*=====
=====*/
```

```
//Number of ellipse families
```

```
nFamEll: 1
```

```
//Having this option = 0 will ignore all rectangle family variables
```

```
eLayer: {0}
```

```
/* Defines which domain the family belongs to.
```

```
Layer 0 is the entire domain.
```

```
Layers numbered > 0 corresponds to layers defined above
```

```
1 corresponds to the first layer listed, 2 is the next layer listed, etc */
```

```
eRegion: {0}
```

```
/* Defines which domain the family belongs to.
```

```
Region 0 is the entire domain.
```

```
Regions numbered > 0 correspond to layers defined above
```

1 correspond to the first region listed, 2 is the next region listed, etc \*/

//edist is a mandatory parameter if using statistically generated ellipses

edistr: {2} /\* Ellipse statistical distribution options:

1 - lognormal distribution

2 - truncated power law distribution

3 - exponential distribution

4 - constant \*/

ebetaDistribution: {1} /\* Beta is the rotation around the polygon's normal  
vector, with the polygon centered on x-y plane at the origin

0 - uniform distribution [0, 2PI]

1 - constant angle (specified below by "ebeta") \*/

e\_p32Targets: {0.5}

/\* Elliptical families target fracture intensity per family.

When using stopCondition = 1 (defined at the top of the input file), families will  
be inserted until the families desired fracture intensity has been reached.

Once all families desired fracture intensity has been met, fracture generation will be complete.

\*/

//=====

=====

// Parameters used by all stochastic ellipse families

// Mandatory Parameters if using statistically generated ellipses

easpect: {2} /\* Aspect ratio. Used for lognormal and truncated  
power law distribution. \*/

enumPoints: {8} /\*Number of vertices used in creating each elliptical  
fracture family. Number of elements must match number  
of ellipse families (first number in nShape) \*/

eAngleOption: 1 /\* All angles for ellipses:

0 - degrees

0 - Radians (Must use numerical value for PI) \*/

etheta: {0} /\*Ellipse fracture orientation.

The angle the normal vector makes with the z-axis \*/

ephi: {0} /\* Ellipse fracture orientation.

The angle the projection of the normal onto the x-y plane  
makes with the x-axis \*/

ebeta: {90} /\* rotation around the normal vector \*/

ekappa: {1} /\*Parameter for the fisher distributions. The bigger, the more  
similar (less diverging) are the elliptical family's  
normal vectors \*/

//=====

=====

// Options Specific For Ellipse Lognormal Distribution (edistr=1):

// Mandatory Parameters if using ellispes with lognormal distribution

// NOTE: Number of elements must match number of

// ellipse families (first number in nShape)

eLogMean: {2} //Mean value For Lognormal Distribution.

esd: {.5} // Standard deviation for lognormal distributions of ellispes

eLogMin: {1}

eLogMax: {15}

//=====

=====

// Options Specific For Ellipse Exponential Distribution (edistr=3):

// Mandatory Parameters if using ellipses with exponential distribution

eExpMean: {2} //Mean value for Exponential Distribution

eExpMin: {1}

eExpMax: {5}

//=====

=====

// Options Specific For Constant Size of ellipses (edistr=4):

econst: {10, 10, 10} // Constant radius, defined per family

```
//=====
=====
```

```
// Options Specific For Ellipse Truncated Power-Law Distribution (edistr=2)
```

```
// Mandatory Parameters if using ellipses with truncated power-law dist.
```

```
// NOTE: Number of elements must match number
```

```
// of ellipse families (first number in nShape)
```

```
emin: {1.5} // Minimum radius for each ellipse family.
```

```
    // For power law distributions.
```

```
emax: {6.75} // Maximum radius for each ellipse family.
```

```
    // For power law distributions.
```

```
ealpha: {1.5} // Alpha. Used in truncated power-law
```

```
    // distribution calculation
```

```
/*=====
```

```
=====*/
```

```
/*=====
```

```
=====*/
```

```
/*          Rectangular Fractures Options          */
```

```

/* NOTE: Number of elements must match number of rectangle families      */
/*      (second number in nShape parameter)                               */
/*=====
=====*/
/*=====
=====*/

```

```
//Number of rectangle families
```

```
nFamRect: 0
```

```
//Having this option = 0 will ignore all rectangle family variables
```

```
rLayer: {}
```

```
/* Defines which domain the family belongs to.
```

```
Layer 0 is the entire domain.
```

```
Layers numbered > 0 corresponds to layers defined above
```

```
1 corresponds to the first layer listed, 2 is the next layer listed, etc */
```

```
rRegion: {}
```

```
/* Defines which domain the family belongs to.
```

```
Region 0 is the entire domain.
```

```
Regions numbered > 0 correspond to layers defined above
```

1 corresponds to the first region listed, 2 is the next region listed, etc \*/

/\*rdist is a mandatory parameter if using statistically generated rectangles \*/

rdistr: {} /\* Rectangle statistical distribution options:

1 - lognormal distribution

2 - truncated power law distribution

3 - exponential distribution

4 - constant \*/

rbetaDistribution: {} /\* Beta is the rotation/twist about the z axis

with the polygon centered on x-y plane at the origin

before rotation into 3d space

0 - uniform distribution [0, 2PI]

1 - constant angle (specified below by "rbeta")

\*/

r\_p32Targets: {}

/\* Rectangle families target fracture intensity per family.

When using stopCondition = 1 (defined at the top of the input file), families will be inserted until the families desired fracture intensity has been reached.

Once all families desired fracture intensity has been met, fracture generation will be complete.

\*/

//=====

=====

// Parameters used by all stochastic rectangle families

// Mandatory Parameters if using statistically generated rectangles

raspect: { } /\* Aspect ratio \*/

rAngleOption: 0 /\* All angles for rectangles:

0 - degrees

1 - radians (must be numerical value, cannot use "Pi") \*/

rtheta: {0, 1.57, 1.57} /\*Rectangle fracture orientation.

The angle the normal vector makes with the z-axis \*/

rphi: {0, 0, 1.57} /\* Rectangle fracture orientation.

The angle the projection of the normal onto the x-y

plane makes with the x-axis \*/

rbeta: {0, 0, 0} /\* rotation around the normal vector \*/

```
rkappa: {100, 100, 100} /*Parameter for the fisher distributions. The bigger,  
the more similar (less diverging) are the rectangle  
family's normal vectors */
```

```
//=====
```

```
=====
```

```
// Options Specific For Rectangle Lognormal Distribution (rdistr=1):  
// Mandatory Parameters if using rectangles with lognormal distribution
```

```
rLogMean: {1.6} /*For Lognormal Distribution.  
Mean radius (1/2 rectangle length) in  
lognormal distribution for rectangles. */
```

```
rsd: {.4} /* Standard deviation for lognormal distributions of  
rectangles */
```

```
rLogMin: {2}
```

```
rLogMax: {10}
```

```
//=====
=====
```

```
// Options Specific For Rectangle Truncated Power-Law Distribution (rdistr=2):
```

```
// Mandatory Parameters if using rectangles with power-law distribution
```

```
rmin: {1,1} /* Minimum radius for each rectangle family.
```

```
For power law distributions. */
```

```
rmax: {6,5} /* Maximum radius for each rectangle family.
```

```
For power law distributions. */
```

```
ralpha: {2.4,2.5} // Alpha. Used in truncated power-law
```

```
// distribution calculation
```

```
/*=====
=====*/
```

```
/* Options Specific For Rectangle Exponential Distribution (edistr=3): */
```

```
/* Mandatory Parameters if using rectangles with exponential distribution */
```

```
rExpMean: {2} //Mean value for Exponential Distribution
```

```
rExpMin: {1}
```

rExpMax: {10}

```
/*=====
=====*/
```

```
/* Options Specific For Constant Size of rectangles (edistr=4): */
```

rconst: {2, 2, 2} // Constant radius, defined per rectangular family

```
/*=====
=====*/
```

```
/*=====
=====*/
```

```
/* User-Specified Ellipses */
```

```
/* Mandatory Parameters if using user-ellipses */
```

```
/* NOTE: Number of elements must match number of user-ellipse families. */
```

```
/* NOTE: Only one user-ellipse is placed into the domain per defined */
```

```
/* user-ellipse, with possibility of being rejected */
```

```
/*=====
=====*/
```

```
/*=====
=====*/
```

userEllipsesOnOff: 0

/\* 0 - User ellipses off

1 - User ellipses on

\*/

UserEll\_Input\_File\_Path:

/home/jharrod/GitProjects/DFNGen/DFNC++Version/inputFiles/userPolygons/uEllInput.dat

/\*=====

=====\*/

/\*=====

=====\*/

/\* User-Specified Ellipses \*/

/\* Mandatory Parameters if using user-ellipses \*/

/\* NOTE: Number of elements must match number of user-ellipse families. \*/

/\* NOTE: Only one user-ellipse is placed into the domain per defined \*/

/\* user-ellipse, with possibility of being rejected \*/

/\*=====

=====\*/

/\*=====

=====\*/

userEllByCoord: 0

/\* 0 - User ellipses defined by coordinates off

1 - User ellipses defined by coordinates on

\*/

EllByCoord\_Input\_File\_Path:

/home/jharrod/GitProjects/DFNGen/DFNC++Version/inputFiles/userPolygons/ellCoords.dat

/\*=====

=====\*/

/\*=====

=====\*/

/\* User-Specified Rectangles \*/

/\* NOTE: Number of elements must match number of user-ellipse families \*/

/\* NOTE: Only one user-rectangle is placed into the domain per defined \*/

/\* user-rectangle, with possibility of being rejected \*/

/\*=====

=====\*/

/\*=====

=====\*/

userRectanglesOnOff: 0

/\* 0 - User Rectangles off

1 - User Rectangles on

\*/

UserRect\_Input\_File\_Path:

/home/jharrod/GitProjects/DFNGen/DFNC++Version/inputFiles/userPolygons/ignoreConnTest.  
dat

/\*=====

=====\*/

/\*=====

=====\*/

/\* \*/

/\* User Rectangles Defined By Coordinates \*/

/\* \*/

/\*=====

=====\*/

/\*=====

=====\*/

userRecByCoord: 0

```
/* 0 - User defined rectangles by coordinates off
   1 - User defined rectangles by coordinates on
*/
```

RectByCoord\_Input\_File\_Path:

```
~/GitProjects/DFNGen/DFNC++Version/inputFiles/userPolygons/rectCoords.dat
```

```
/* WARNING: This option can cause LaGriT errors if the polygon
   vertices are not put in clockwise or counter-clockwise order.
   If errors (Usualy seg fault during meshing in LaGriT),
   make sure the vertices are in clockwise or counter clockwise
   order. Also, coordinates must be co-planar.
*/
```

```
/*=====
=====*/
```

```
// Aperture [m]
```

```
/* Mandatory parameter, and can be specified in several ways:
```

- 1)meanAperture and stdAperture for using LogNormal distribution.
- 2)apertureFromTransmissivity, first transmissivity is defined, and then, using a cubic law, the aperture is calculated;
- 3)constantAperture, all fractures, regardless of their size, will have

the same aperture value;

- 4)lengthCorrelatedAperture, aperture is defined as a function of fracture size\*/

//NOTE: Only one aperture type may be used at a time

aperture: 4 //choice of aperture option described above

/(\*\*\*\* 1)meanAperture and stdAperture for using LogNormal distribution.\*\*\*\*\*)

meanAperture: 3 /\*Mean value for aperture using  
normal distribution \*/

stdAperture: 0.8 //Standard deviation

/(\*\*\*\*\* 2)apertureFromTransmissivity, first transmissivity is defined,  
and then, using a cubic law, the aperture is calculated;\*\*\*\*\*/

apertureFromTransmissivity: {1.6e-9, 0.8}

/\* Transmissivity is calculated as  $\text{transmissivity} = F \cdot R^k$ ,  
where F is a first element in aperturefromTransmissivity,  
k is a second element and R is a mean radius of a polygon.

Aperture is calculated according to cubic law as

$b = (\text{transmissivity} \cdot 12)^{1/3}$  \*/

/(\*\*\*\*\* 3)constantAperture, all fractures, regardless of their size,

will have the same aperture value; \*\*\*\*\*/

constantAperture: 1e-5 //Sets constant aperture for all fractures

/\*(\*\*\*\*\* 4)lengthCorrelatedAperture, aperture is defined as a function of  
fracture size \*\*\*\*\*/

lengthCorrelatedAperture: {0.0001694, 1.41}

/\*Length Correlated Aperture Option:

Aperture is calculated by:  $b = F \cdot R^k$ ,

where F is a first element in lengthCorrelatedAperture,

k is a second element and R is a mean radius of a polygon.\*/

//=====

=====

//Permeability

/\* Options:

0: Permeability of each fracture is a function of fracture aperture,  
given by  $k = (b^2)/12$ , where b is an aperture and k is permeability

1: Constant permeability for all fractures \*/

permOption: 0 //See above for options

constantPermeability: 1e-12 //Constant permeability for all fractures

forceLargeFractures: 0

outputFinalRadiiPerFamily: 0

radiiListIncrease: 0.1

removeFracturesLessThan: 0

keepIsolatedFractures: 0

/\* 0 - Remove any isolated fracture (not clusters)

1 - Keep all fractures in the domain

\*/

/\*=====

=====\*/

/\*=====

=====\*/

/\* \*/

/\* User Polygon Defined By Coordinates \*/

/\* \*/

```
/*=====
=====*/
```

```
/*=====
=====*/
```

userPolygonByCoord: 0

```
/* 0 - User defined polygon by coordinates off
    1 - User defined polygon by coordinates on
*/
```

PolygonByCoord\_Input\_File\_Path: ./

```
/*WARNING: userDefCoordRec can cause LaGriT errors because the polygon
vertices are not put in clockwise or counter-clockwise order.
If errors (Usually seg fault during meshing if using LaGriT),
try to reorder the points till u get it right.
Also, coordinates must be co-planar */
```

## **Flow Simulation Script**

# Jan 13, 2014

# Nataliia Makedonska, Satish Karra, LANL

```
#=====
```

SIMULATION

SIMULATION\_TYPE SUBSURFACE

PROCESS\_MODELS

SUBSURFACE\_FLOW flow

MODE RICHARDS

/

/

END

SUBSURFACE

DFN

#===== discretization

=====

GRID

TYPE unstructured\_explicit full\_mesh\_vol\_area.uge

GRAVITY 0.d0 0.d0 0.d0

END

#===== fluid properties

=====

FLUID\_PROPERTY

DIFFUSION\_COEFFICIENT 1.d-9

END

DATASET Permeability

FILENAME dfn\_properties.h5

END

#===== material properties

=====

MATERIAL\_PROPERTY soil1

ID 1

POROSITY 0.25d0

TORTUOSITY 0.5d0

CHARACTERISTIC\_CURVES default

PERMEABILITY

DATASET Permeability

/

END

#===== characteristic curves

=====

CHARACTERISTIC\_CURVES default

SATURATION\_FUNCTION VAN\_GENUCHTEN

M 0.5d0

ALPHA 1.d-4

LIQUID\_RESIDUAL\_SATURATION 0.1d0

MAX\_CAPILLARY\_PRESSURE 1.d8

/

PERMEABILITY\_FUNCTION MUALEM\_VG\_LIQ

M 0.5d0

LIQUID\_RESIDUAL\_SATURATION 0.1d0

/

END

#===== output options

=====

OUTPUT

TIMES s 0.01 0.05 0.1 0.2 0.5 1

# FORMAT TECPLOT BLOCK

PRINT\_PRIMAL\_GRID

FORMAT VTK

MASS\_FLOWRATE

MASS\_BALANCE

VARIABLES

LIQUID\_PRESSURE

PERMEABILITY

```
/
END

#===== times
=====

TIME

INITIAL_TIMESTEP_SIZE 1.d-8 s

FINAL_TIME 1.d0 d

MAXIMUM_TIMESTEP_SIZE 10.d0 d

STEADY_STATE

END

# REFERENCE_PRESSURE 1500000.

#===== regions
=====

REGION All

COORDINATES

-1.d20 -1.d20 -1.d20

1.d20 1.d20 1.d20

/

END
```

REGION inflow

FILE pboundary\_left\_w.ex

END

REGION outflow

FILE pboundary\_right\_e.ex

END

#===== flow conditions

=====

FLOW\_CONDITION initial

TYPE

PRESSURE dirichlet

/

PRESSURE 1.01325d6

END

FLOW\_CONDITION outflow

TYPE

PRESSURE dirichlet

/

PRESSURE 1.d6

END

FLOW\_CONDITION inflow

TYPE

PRESSURE dirichlet

/

PRESSURE 2.d6

END

#===== condition couplers

=====

# initial condition

INITIAL\_CONDITION

FLOW\_CONDITION initial

REGION All

END

BOUNDARY\_CONDITION INFLOW

FLOW\_CONDITION inflow

REGION inflow

END

BOUNDARY\_CONDITION OUTFLOW

FLOW\_CONDITION outflow

REGION outflow

END

#===== stratigraphy couplers

=====

STRATA

REGION All

MATERIAL soil1

END

END\_SUBSURFACE

## **Solute Transport Simulation Script**

/\*  
\*\*\*\*\*  
\*/

/\* CONTROL FILE FOR PARTICLE TRACKING IN DISCRETE FRACTURE NETWORK

\*/

/\*  
\*\*\*\*\*  
\*/

/\*  
\*\*\*\*\* INPUT FILES: grid \*\*\*\*\*  
\*/

/\*  
\*\*\*\* input files with grid of DFN, mainly its output of DFNGen \*\*\*\*\*  
\*/

param: params.txt

poly: poly\_info.dat

inp: full\_mesh.inp

stor: full\_mesh.stor

boundary: allboundaries.zone

/\* boundary conditions: reading the nodes that belong to in-flow and  
out-flow boundaries. Should be consistent with those applied to obtain  
steady state pressure solution (PFLOTRAN) \*/

/\*1 - top; 2 - bottom; 3 - left\_w; 4 - front\_s; 5 - right\_e; 6 - back\_n \*/

in-flow-boundary: 3

out-flow-boundary: 5

/\*\*\*\*\*\* INPUT FILES: PFLOTRAN flow solution \*\*\*\*\*/

PFLOTRAN: yes

PFLOTRAN\_vel: darcyvel.dat

PFLOTRAN\_cell: cellinfo.dat

PFLOTRAN\_uge: full\_mesh\_vol\_area.uge

/\*\*\*\*\*\* INPUT FILES: FEHM flow solution \*\*\*\*\*/

/\*currently we are using PFLOTRAN , but the code would work with FEHM, too \*/

FEHM: no

FEHM\_fin: tri\_frac.fin

/\*\*\*\*\*\* OUTPUT FILES \*\*\*\*\*/

```
/* initial grid info structure output, usefull for debugging */
out_grid: no

/* flow field: 3D Darcy velocities: output file has an each nodes position
and its Darcy velocity, reconstructed from fluxes */
out_3dflow: no

/* out initial positions of particles into separate file */
out_init: no

/* out particle trajectories tortuosity file, torts.dat */
out_tort: no

/****** output options for particles trajectories *****/
/* output frequency is set according to trajectories curvature. We check the
curvature of particles trajectory each segment, from intersection to intersection.
If it's like a straight line, then the output is less frequent (in case of
"out_curv:yes", if "no", the output file will contain every time step) */
out_curv: yes

/* output into avs file (GMV visualization, Paraview visualization) */
out_avs: no

/* output into trajectories ascii files (veloc+posit+cell+fract+time) */
out_traj: no
out_fract: no

/* temporary outputs (every time step from intersection to intersection)*/
```

/\* use outputs to file or memory buffer. Memory buffer by default \*/

out\_filetemp: no

/\*\*\*\*\*\* output directories \*\*\*\*\*/

out\_dir: dfnTrans\_output /\* path and name of directory where all the particle tracking results will be written\*/

out\_path: trajectories /\*name of directory where all particle trajectories will be saved, in out\_dir path \*/

/\* name of resultant file (in out\_dir path), which contains total travel time and final positions of particles \*/

out\_time: partime.dat

/\*\*\*\*\*\* Intersection Mixing Rule \*\*\*\*\*/

/\*\*\*\*/streamline\_routing: if yes - streamline routing is the selected subgrid process otherwise the complete mixing rule is selected \*\*\*\*\*/

streamline\_routing: no

/\*\*\*\*\*\* PARTICLES INITIAL POSITIONS \*\*\*\*\*/

/\*\*\*\*/init\_nf: if yes - the same number of particles (init\_partn) will be placed

on every boundary fracture edge on in-flow boundary,  
equidistant from each other \*\*\*\*\*/

init\_nf: no

init\_partn: 10

/\*\*\*/init\_eqd: if yes - particles will be placed on the same distance from  
each other on all over in-flow boundary edges \*\*\*\*\*/

init\_eqd: no //maximum number of particles that user expects on one boundary edge

init\_npart: 100

/\*\*\*/ all particles start from the same region at in-flow boundary, in a range

{in\_xmin, in\_xmax, in\_ymin, in\_ymax, in\_zmin, in\_zmax} \*\*\*\*\*/

init\_oneregion: no

in\_partn: 100000

in\_xmin: -50.0

in\_xmax: -50.0

in\_ymin: -20.0

in\_ymax: 20.0

in\_zmin: -15.0

in\_zmax: 0.0

/\*\*\*/ all particles are placed randomly over all fracture surface

(not only on boundary edges!) \*\*\*\*\*/

init\_random: no

// total number of particles

in\_randpart: 100

init\_matrix: no

/\*\*\*\*\* particles positions distributed according to in-flow flux weight \*\*\*\*\*/

init\_fluxw: yes

init\_totalnumber: 50000

/\*\*\*\*\*\* FLOW AND FRACTURE PARAMETERS \*\*\*\*\*/

porosity: 1.0 // porosity

density: 997.73 //fluid density

satur: 1.0

thickness: 1.0 //DFN aperture (used in case of no aperture file provided)

/\*\*\*\*\*\* APERTURE \*\*\*\*\*/

aperture: yes //DFN aperture

aperture\_type: frac //aperture is giving per cell (type "cell")

// or per fracture (type "frac")

// for now we use an aperture giving per fracture

aperture\_file: aperture.dat

/\*\*\*\*\*\* TIME DOMAIN RANDOM WALK \*\*\*\*\*/

tdrw: no

tdrw\_porosity: 0.02

tdrw\_diffcoeff: 1.0e-5

/\*\*\*\*\*\* TIME \*\*\*\*\*/

timesteps: 2000000

//units of time (years, days, hours, minutes)

time\_units: years

/\*\*\* flux weighted particles\*\*/

/\*\*\* in case of random initial positions of particles - it's aperture weighted \*\*/

flux\_weight: yes

/\* random generator seed \*/

seed: 337799

/\*\*\*\*\*\* Control Plane/Cylinder Output \*\*\*\*\*/

/\*\*\* virtual Control planes will be built in the direction of flow.

Once particle crosses the control plane, it's position, velocity, time

will output to an ascii file. \*\*\*/

ControlPlane: no

/\* the path and directory name with all particles output files \*/

control\_out: outcontroldir

/\* Delta Control Plane - the distance between control planes \*/

delta\_Control: 1

/\* ControlPlane: direction of flow: x-0; y-1; z-2 \*/

flowdir: 0

/\*\*\*/

/endendend/

END