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# **Experimental and theoretical memory diffusion of water in sand**

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#### **Abstract**

The basic equations used to study the fluid diffusion in porous media have been set by Fick and Darcy in the mid of the XIXth century but some data on the flow of fluids in rocks exhibit properties which may not be interpreted with the classical theory of <sup>5</sup> propagation of pressure and fluids in porous media (Bell and Nur, 1978; Roeloffs, 1988).

Concerning the fluids and the flow, some fluids carry solid particles which may obstruct some of the pores diminishing their size or even closing them, some others may chemically and physically react with the medium enlarging the pores; so permeability <sup>10</sup> changes during time and the flow occurs as if the medium had a memory.

In this paper we show, with experimental data, that the permeability of sand layers may decrease due to rearrangement of the grains and consequent compaction as shown qualitatively by Elias and Hajash (Elias and Hajash, 1992). We also provide a memory model for diffusion of fluids in porous media which fits well the flux rate ob-

<sup>15</sup> served in five laboratory experiments of diffusion of water in sand. Finally we show that the flux rate variations observed during the experiments are compatible with the compaction of sand, due to the amount of fluid which went through the grains locally, and therefore with the reduction of porosity.

#### **1. Introduction**

- <sup>20</sup> Using Darcy's law, which states that the flux is proportional to the pressure gradient, many authors contributed in various forms to set equations rigorously representing the interaction between the porous media and the flow of fluid through it and obtained equations solutions in many interesting cases (Bear, 1972; Sposito, 1980; Steefel and Lasaga, 1994; Dewers and Ortoleva, 1994; Indelman and Abramovici, 1994; Cushman
- <sup>25</sup> and Moroni, 2001). In spite of this, some data on the flow of fluids in rocks exhibit properties which may not be interpreted with the classical theory of propagation of pressure

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and fluids in porous media (Bell and Nur, 1978; Roeloffs, 1988) nor adequately with many of the new theories.

If the fluid carries solid particles which obstruct some of the pores or chemically reacts with the medium enlarging the pores, then the permeability changes during time  $5$  and the flow occurs as if the medium had a memory, intending that at any instant the process of diffusion is also affected by the previous local value of pressure and flow of the fluid. These phenomena must be taken into account when writing equations for diffusion of fluids in porous media.

The scope of this paper is to show quantitatively, with experimental data, that the <sup>10</sup> permeability of sand layers decreases due to the rearrangement of the grains and consequent mechanical compaction (Elias and Hajash, 1992). We will provide, by rewriting the constitutive equation of diffusion with memory formalism, a new model for diffusion of fluids in porous media in order to describe permeability changes observed in the flux rate through the sand samples.

#### <sup>15</sup> **2. The laboratory experiments**

The experiments were designed to obtain flow measurements through a porous layer with constant hydraulic pressure difference between the boundary surfaces of the samples.

In order to obtain considerable flux the porous medium selected is sand which <sup>20</sup> showed an adequate compaction and therefore considerable permeability and flux rate variations during the experiments. The grain size distributions shown in Fig. 1 was measured by sieves for a sample of sand; the percentiles of the cells are shown on top of histogram. Sand density was estimated to be  $\rho_S$ = (2.4±0.1) $\texttt{g} \times \texttt{cm}^{-3}$  for all the experiments.

 $_{25}$  We used water as fluid, its temperature during all experiments was (19 $\pm$ 1)°C. From the previous istogram it results that the weighted mean value of the grain size is  $\langle s \rangle$  =0.27 mm. A schematic description of the instrument assembled for all the diffusion 2, 1329–1357, 2005

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experiments is shown in Fig. 2.

Water-saturated sand is kept in the cell for medium, a cylinder shaped metal box of height *l*= (11*.*6±0*.*1) cm and surface's inner diameter *DI*= (10*.*1±0*.*1) cm. The condition of saturation was obtained by slowly filling step by step the initially empty cell with dry <sup>5</sup> sand and water alternately and removing the surplus water; the cell was closed once completely filled. This way ensures that the water pressure inside the cell is, neglecting the small variations due to the cell height, the atmospheric pressure. The next step is to obtain the value for the initial pressure of the water pressure inside the cell. In the Fig. 2  $R$ ,  $R$ <sub>*I*</sub> and  $R$ <sub>*II*</sub> are water-taps and  $R$  is also water source;  $T$  is a tank with input

10 gate *I* and output gate  $U$ ;  $H = (212 \pm 1)$  cm.

The water-taps  $R$  and  $R_I$  are initially turned on while  $R_U$  is off; this way the pressure inside the cell increases and after few time reaches the value of atmospheric pressure plus the pressure due to the *H*- height water column. Once the pressure is the same through the medium, all is ready to start up the experiment.

- $15$  Opening  $R_U$  the pressure on the boundary plane in  $x=$  is equal to the pressure of a water column of height *H* plus the atmospheric one, while the pressure on the boundary plane in *x*=0 is the atmospheric pressure and so water begins to flow through porous medium and runs out from *R<sup>U</sup>* . Note that the column is always of height *H* because the surplus water flows out from the gate *U*. This way a constant pressure difference
- 20 is maintained between the boundary planes in  $x=$ *l* and  $x=0$ , which was verified during all the experiments using pressure gauge *B*.

In this configuration, measurements of water flow at the boundary surface in  $x=0$ were obtained by storing the water that flow through the surface in a small container with capacity of about 100 cm<sup>3</sup> and taking note of the relative time interval with 10<sup>-2</sup> s

<sup>25</sup> precision chronometer, however the dominant time error is that one due to the experimenter who starts and stops the chronometer, as explained below.

The water mass in the filled container was measured using 10<sup>-4</sup> g precision scale and flow rate measured.

In order to diminish the error of the experimenter and of the devices the water mass

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in each filled container was measured three times with the scale, experimenter error in starting and stopping chronometer was evaluated to be 2×10<sup>-1</sup> s and each flow measure is the average value of three containers filled in rapid succession. The estimated relative error in the flux is then about 2%.

<sup>5</sup> All the experiments were managed in the same above described way, with the same value of *H* and with five different samples of the same type of sand. The following Figs. 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 show all experimental data collected. In each experiment the flow measurements are separated by 20 min, only the first ones are separated by 10 minutes. The data collection is limited to about 10 h when the flow seems to have <sup>10</sup> reached a very slow and steady rate to imply that a steady state is reached. The solid line in each figure is the theoretical flux obtained by fitting to the experimental data the memory which will be introduced in the following.

Note that for each experiment in the first few hours the flux rate steadily decreases defining a transient phase. It appears that in several hours, seemingly less than 10, <sup>15</sup> after the transient phase, the flux establishes to a value that is about 70% of the initial

- one, only in experiment 5 it is about 46% of initial value. Moreover a computation of the Reynolds number ( $R_e$ = $\rho$ *<sub>F</sub>VDµ*<sup>-1</sup>, where  $\rho$ <sub>F</sub> is fluid density, *D* is the grain size and *V* is the volume of flowing water per unit of time and surface) ensures that the flow was non-turbulent. Assuming *D* = (s) and *V* ≅0.81 cm× s<sup>-1</sup> (which was computed  $_{20}$  in the worst of cases assuming  $q$ ≅65 $\mathrm{g\times s}^{-1}$ ), it results  $R_{_\mathit{e}}$ =2.2 which is less than 10,
- commonly accepted as threshold for the turbulent motion.

Opening the cell for medium after each experiment we observed a height reduction of the sand of about 3–4 mm, that is about 3% of the porous media volume, and this is an evidence of mechanical compaction.

<sup>25</sup> In order to quantitatively discuss the variation of the flux rate in terms of the porous media volume reductions we used empirical Fair and Hatch law (1933) for permeability *k* (Bear, 1972)

$$
k = C_M z^3 / (1 - z)^2
$$
 (1)

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where *z* is medium porosity and *C<sup>M</sup>* is a geometrical medium dependent coefficient introduced to take into account the grain size distribution, grains shape and chemical properties of the medium.

The sand mass contained in the cell for medium in each experiment was <sup>5</sup> *m*= (1550±30) g (dry sand) and no sand may go out from cell during the experiment. From computations involving the Fair and Hatch law, remembering  $\rho_S$ = (2.4±0.1) g× cm<sup>−3</sup>, it results that Δ*k*<sub>%</sub>= (26±3) %. This permeability reduction justifies experimentally observed flux rate reduction.

#### **3. The modeling of the flux variation**

<sup>10</sup> In order to model the permeability variation with a memory mechanism, meaning that at any instant the process of diffusion is affected by the previous amount of fluid which went through the pores we modified as follows the original Fick law, stating proportionality between flux and pressure gradient

$$
\bar{q}(\bar{x},t) = -c\bar{\nabla}\rho(\bar{x},t) \tag{2}
$$

<sup>15</sup> where  $p$  is fluid pressure in the porous medium and  $q$  is fluid flow through medium, introducing in it a derivative of fractional order *n* (Caputo, 2000):

$$
\gamma \bar{q} \left( \bar{x}, t \right) = -\left[ c + d \frac{\partial^n}{\partial t^n} \right] \bar{\nabla} \rho \left( \bar{x}, t \right) \tag{3}
$$

$$
ap\left(\bar{x},t\right)=\alpha\rho\left(\bar{x},t\right) \tag{4}
$$

$$
div\bar{q}(\bar{x},t) + \frac{\partial \rho(\bar{x},t)}{\partial t} = 0
$$
\n(5)

<sup>20</sup> where *ρ* is variation of fluid density in medium from the undisturbed condition while *γ*, *c* and *d* are real numbers modulating memory formalism, *α*/*a* is the bulk modulus of the fluid. In Eq. (3) the flux can be seen as a linear combination of  $\nabla p\left(\overline{x},t\right)$  and

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its fractional order derivative; the parameters  $c/\gamma$  and  $d/\gamma$  are the coefficient of the combination and are useful to get an idea of the contribution to the flux from the two terms.

The fractional order derivative is defined as follows (Caputo, 1967; Podlubny, 1999)

$$
f^{(n)}(t) = \frac{\partial^n f(t)}{\partial t^n} = \frac{1}{\Gamma(1-n)} \int_0^t \frac{f^{(1)}(u)}{(t-u)^n} du
$$
 (6)

5

where *n* ∈ [0*,* 1] and Γ is the Gamma function. In practice the derivative of fractional order *f* (*n*) (*t*) is constructed with a weighted mean of the first order derivative *f* (1) (*u*) in the time interval [0*, t*], which is a sort of feedback system. That is, the values of  $f^{(1)}\left(u\right)$ at time *u* far apart from *t* are given smaller weight than those at time *u* closer to *t*. <sup>10</sup> Hence, the weights are increasingly smaller with increasing time separation from *t* to imply that the effect of past is fading with increasing time. When  $n=0$  and  $f(0)=0$  the fractional derivative reduce to the functions themselves.

The introduction of fractional derivatives in the constitutive equations of the phenomena studied in geophysics is not new. In rheology they were used to model the rheo-<sup>15</sup> logical properties of solids (Bagley and Torvik, 1986; Le Mehaute and Crepy, 1983), to ´ model the frequency indipendent quality factor (Caputo, 1967), to succesfully model the fennoscandinian uplift (Körnig and Müller, 1989), to show that the constitutive equation of polarizable media, in the time domain, is rapresented by a relation containing these derivatives (Caputo and Plastino, 1998). The derivatives of fractional order were also <sup>20</sup> succesfully used in other fields of research like electromagnetism (Jacquelin, 1984), biology (Caputo, 2002b; Cesarone, 2002), chaos (Mainardi, 1996) and economy (Caputo

The equations resulting from our procedure are phenomenologic, however the reputation of this type of equations, as stated in recent motivations for assigning Nobel <sup>25</sup> prizes for physics, has been rehabilitated for their important contribution given in various forms to the rapid developments of the superconductive materials.

and Kolari, 2001; Caputo, 2002a).

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These phenomenological equations, when adequately verified with experimental data, represent a step forward in respect to the usual empirical equations which are still very useful in many branches of applied science and technology. However some scientists resent the fact that they are not logically obtained from first principles ignor-<sup>5</sup> ing that if we stick very strictly to first principles some types of progress are rendered

more difficult.

It is noteworthy to observe how the memory functions capture the past. What the fractional derivative memory functions are remembering is their past values as defined by Eq. (9), which implies that the function is constructed by adding to the initial <sup>10</sup> value the successive weighted increments over time. The increments per unit time are represented by the first order derivative under the integral sign and the weights are represented by the factor of the first order derivative in Eq. (6), which are decreasing with increasing time separation from *t*. Thus, a variable's value is a weighted mean of its past value.

<sup>15</sup> In order to fit experimental data with memory model we find in the Appendix A the Green function of the flux *q* (0*, t*) when diffusion occurs through a slab of thickness *l* with pressure boundary conditions, neglecting the atmospheric pressure which is a common offset,

$$
\rho(0,t) = 0 \tag{7}
$$

$$
p(l, t) = K = \text{constant} \tag{8}
$$

and initial pressure condition

 $p(x, 0) = K = \text{constant}$  (9)

In order to obtain the flux *q* (0*, t*) we solve the Eqs. (3)–(5) in the Laplace Transform (LT) domain obtaining

$$
P(x,s) = \frac{K}{s} \left[ \frac{e^{Bs^{v}(x-1)} - e^{Bs^{v}(1-x)}}{e^{Bs^{v}1} - e^{-Bs^{v}1}} + 1 \right]
$$
(10)

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and

$$
Q(0,s) = -\frac{dKB}{\gamma s^{\nu}} \left[ \frac{1+e^{2Bs^{\nu}/2}}{e^{2Bs^{\nu}/2}-1} \right]
$$

where

$$
B = [a\gamma/\alpha d]^{\frac{1}{2}}, \ \nu = (1 - n)/2 \tag{12}
$$

<sup>5</sup> and *s* is the LT variable.

The LT<sup>-1</sup> of Eq. (11) is found in the Appendix B and the following expression of boundary flux is obtained

$$
q(0, t) = -\frac{dBK}{2\pi\gamma} \int_{0}^{+\infty} \frac{e^{-rt}}{r^{\nu}} \cdot \frac{2\sin(\pi\nu)\left[e^{2Mr^{\nu}} - 1\right] + 4\sin(Nr^{\nu})\cos(\pi\nu)e^{Mr^{\nu}}}{e^{2Mr^{\nu}} + 1 - 2\cos(Nr^{\nu})e^{Mr^{\nu}}}dr
$$
 (13)

with

 $r =$ modulus of  $s$ 

*M* = 2*Bl* cos (*πν*)

$$
N = 2BI \sin{(\pi v)}
$$

Note that in Eq. (7)  $a/\alpha = \rho_F z / k_B$ , where and  $k_B$  is bulk modulus of fluid; water values are  $\rho_{\digamma}$ =1 g× cm<sup>−3</sup> and  $k_{B}$ =2.08×10<sup>10</sup> g× cm<sup>−1</sup>  $\cdot$  s<sup>−2</sup> (Domenico and Schwartz, 1997).

<sup>15</sup> Therefore  $B$ =  $\left[\gamma\rho_{F}z/dk_{B}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$  and, assuming for sand *z*=0.35 (Bear, 1972), the boundary flux theoretical solution *q* (0*, t*) depends on memory parameter *d γ* and the order of fractional derivative *n* through *ν*=(1 − *n*) 2.

With extreme values theorem it is seen that

$$
\lim_{s \to 0} sQ(0, s) = \lim_{t \to +\infty} q(0, t) = 0
$$
\n(14)

$$
\lim_{z_0 \to \infty} sQ(0, s) = \lim_{t \to 0} q(0, t) = -\infty
$$
\n(15)

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(11)

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3.1. Fitting the model to the experimental data

10

The experimental data show that in several hours flux seems close to stabilization and, since we will describe only the transient phase of diffusion  $(c=0)$ , we obtained the data, to fit to the model, by subtracting the original data the average of the last few hours of  $\frac{1}{2}$  flux (let's call it  $q_{AS}$ ). The data of the five experiments run indicate that  $q_{AS}$  is a good candidate for asymptotic flux and new data are good to represent the diffusion transient phase we want to describe.

In order to best fit memory model to experimental data we minimized the following two variables function

$$
AD\left(v,\frac{d}{V}\right)=\frac{1}{N_D}\sum_{i=1}^{N_D}\left|ED_i-q\left(t_i,v,\frac{d}{V}\right)-q_{AS}\right|
$$
\n(16)

where  $N_D$  is the number of experimental data for each experiment,  $ED_i$  are the data obtained in the laboratory at the time *t<sup>i</sup>* .

The results of fitting for the five experiments are shown in the Table 1.

Note that experiment 5 is a bit different from the others, in fact the initial flux is higher <sup>15</sup> and the transient reaches steady state at about 46% of the initial value while the others reach steady state at about 71% of the initial value. So it differs from the others most of all in the first hour, after which it is similar to the other in the stationary part. This may be due to a difference in the preparation of the sample which caused a particular distribution of the grains which favoured a preferential path for the water caused an <sup>20</sup> initial flux anomalously high but the asymptotic value of flux is similar to that of the other experiments.

Taking into account only the first four experiments it results that both for *n* and *d γ* the average quadratic discrepancy (AQD) is compatible with the relative average value (AV); values are shown in the Table 2.

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#### **4. Conclusions**

In the experiments we have observed that flux decreases in time to about 70% of initial value and that the volume of sand decreases by about 3%; moreover, using empirical Fair and Hatch law for permeability, the sand volume and flux reductions <sup>5</sup> seem compatible; which proves that mechanical compaction occurring during diffusion is caused by the permeability changes which in turn cause the flux variations.

The classic theory, in the case of constant diffusivity, with constant boundary and initial conditions, would give a constant flux contrary to the results of our laboratory experiments. One would have to introduce in the equations a time variable diffusivity <sup>10</sup> which is a priory unknown and would have to be determined monitoring the permeability changes caused by the flux in the sand.

Note that for each experiment the value of the minimum *AD* (see formula 16) numerically computed is about 2% of average observed flux and that the order of the fractional derivatives has a standard deviation of 0,048 or 9% of the average value which, taking <sup>15</sup> into account the variety of samples, is rather satisfactory and, with the low value of AD, confirms the validity of the model.

We have also seen that, with the boundary and initial conditions used, the relaxation time of the flux, that is the time to reach stability, is about 10 hours which in turn implies that the compaction of the sand in the sample has the same relaxation time. However <sup>20</sup> in terms of the memory model the flux and the associated relaxation time are now defined by two parameters, and not only one as in the classic theory; the parameters are the order of fractional derivative n and  $d\mu/\rho_{\it{F}}\gamma$ , where  $\mu$  is the viscosity of the fluid, which are called pseudodiffusivity parameters (Caputo, 2000).

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#### **Appendix A**

It is useful to rewrite memory relations in one dimension:

$$
\gamma q\left(x,t\right) = -\left[c + d\frac{\partial^{n}}{\partial t^{n}}\right] \frac{\partial \rho\left(x,t\right)}{\partial x} \tag{A.1}
$$

$$
ap(x,t) = \alpha \rho(x,t) \tag{A.2}
$$

$$
\frac{\partial q(x,t)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \rho(x,t)}{\partial t} = 0
$$
 (A.3)

In this appendix we find the *LT* of the Green function of the flux resulting from Eqs.  $(A.1)$ – $(A.3)$  with boundary and initial condition given by Eqs.  $(7)$ – $(9)$ . Computing the *LT* , differentiating with respect to *x* and then substituting it results that

$$
\frac{(c + ds^{n})}{\gamma} P_{xx} = \frac{1}{\alpha} [asP - \alpha \rho (x, 0)]
$$
 (A.4)

- <sup>10</sup> Here, in order to reduce the number of free parameters and to simplify the formulae, we set *c*=0 which is justified as follow: it seems that in several hours, seemingly less than 10 h, the flux stabilizes but we cannot rule out that it is asymptotically nil. If the flux were constant after 10 h then the rigorous solution requires that  $c\neq0$ , which implies that asymptotically the flux is constant as required by Darcy's law which does not apply <sup>15</sup> here. We have two options:
	- 1. consider the transient phase which is asymptotically nil,
	- 2. consider that after the transient phase the flux stabilizes.

However, since we have no indication of the asymptotic value, also for simplicity of computation, we studied only the transient phase and set *c*=0.

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So Eq. (A.4) becomes

$$
\frac{d}{\gamma}s^{n}P_{xx} = \frac{a}{\alpha}sP - \rho(x,0)
$$
\n(A.5)

which, by substituting *LT* of pressure equations, can be written as

$$
P_{xx} = \frac{\gamma a}{\alpha d} \left[ s^{1-n} P - s^{-n} p \left( x, 0 \right) \right]
$$
 (A.6)

<sup>5</sup> The general solution of Eq. (A.6) is

$$
P(x,s) = C_1(s) e^{Bs^{v}x} + C_2(s) e^{-Bs^{v}x} + \frac{K}{s}
$$
 (A.7)

where  $B$ =  $\left[ a\gamma /d\alpha \right] ^{\frac{1}{2}}$  and  $v$ =(1 – *n*)/2. With boundary conditions (7) and (8) in Eq. (A.7) we obtain the general solution

$$
P(x,s) = \frac{K}{s} \left[ \frac{e^{Bs^{v}(x-l)} - e^{Bs^{v}(l-x)}}{e^{Bs^{v}l} - e^{-Bs^{v}l}} + 1 \right]
$$
(A.8)

<sup>10</sup> Differentiating Eq. (A.8) with respect to *x* and substituting in the *LT* of Eq. (A.3) we obtain

$$
Q(x,s) = -\frac{dKB}{\gamma s^{\nu}} \left[ \frac{e^{Bs^{\nu}(x-l)} + e^{Bs^{\nu}(l-x)}}{e^{Bs^{\nu}l} - e^{-Bs^{\nu}l}} \right]
$$
(A.9)

#### **Appendix B**

In this appendix we find the LT<sup>-1</sup> of Eq. (9), to be fit to experimental data, by integrating  $e^{st}Q(0,s)$  along the path of figure B.1 below.

When the radius  $R_1$  of the inner circle  $\Gamma_1$  goes to infinity and the radius  $R_2$  of the outer circle  $\Gamma_2$  goes to zero the residual theorem (RT) states that the integral is equal to the sum of residuals inside the path.

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Path of integration in Fig. 9 can be divided as follow

$$
\Gamma_T = \Gamma_1 + \Gamma_{FH} + \Gamma_{HA} + \Gamma_{AB} + \Gamma_{BD} + \Gamma_{DE}
$$
\n(B.1)

and when  $R_1 \rightarrow 0$  we find that  $\Gamma_{BD} \rightarrow \Gamma_{CD}$  and  $\Gamma_{HA} \rightarrow \Gamma_{HK}$ .

Concerning the integral along  $\Gamma_1$ , when the radius  $R_1$  goes to zero it can be shown <sup>5</sup> by the Taylor development of *Q* (0*, s*) near *s*=0 that

$$
\lim_{s \to 0} sQ(0, s) = \lim_{R_1 \to 0} -\frac{2dKB}{\gamma} \frac{s^{1-\nu}}{(2B/s^{\nu} + o(s^{2\nu}))} = 0
$$
 (B.2)

and so integral along  $\mathsf{\Gamma}_1$  is zero.

To compute integrals along Γ*CD* and Γ*HK* , it is useful to rewrite *e stQ* (0*, s*) with  $s$ = $R_2e^{i\vartheta}$ . When  $R_2$  goes to infinity imaginary exponential can be neglected be-10 cause limited in [-1; 1], cos (θν) ∈ ]0, 1] because θ ∈  $\pi/2$ ,  $\pi$  ∪  $\pi$ ,  $-\pi/2$  and *ν*=(1 − *n*)/2 ∈ ]0, 1/2]. So the integrals along Γ<sub>CD</sub> and Γ<sub>HK</sub> are nil because function inside integral is nil.

Function *e stQ* (0*, s*) has no singularity in the complex plain except in the origin, already analyzed. For RT, renaming *e stQ* (0*, s*) =*I* (*s*), we have that

$$
\lim_{R_1 \to 0} \left[ \int_{\Gamma_T} I(s) \, ds \right] = \lim_{R_1 \to 0} \left[ \int_{-iR_2}^{+iR_2} I(s) \, ds + \int_{\Gamma_{DE}} I(s) \, ds + \int_{\Gamma_{F/H}} I(s) \, ds \right] = 0 \tag{B.3}
$$

and so

$$
TL^{-1}[Q(0, s)] = \lim_{\substack{R_1 \to 0 \\ R_2 \to +\infty}} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \left[ - \int_{\Gamma_{DE}} I(s) ds - \int_{\Gamma_{FH}} I(s) ds \right]
$$
(B.4)

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For the integral along  $\Gamma_{DE}$  we set  $s = re^{i\pi}$  and obtain

$$
I\left(re^{i\pi}\right) = I_{DE}\left(r\right) = -\frac{dBK}{\gamma} \frac{e^{-rt}}{e^{i\pi\nu}r^{\nu}} \frac{\left(1 + e^{Zr^{\nu}}\right)}{\left(e^{Zr^{\nu}} - 1\right)}
$$
(B.5)

with

$$
Z = M + iN
$$

<sup>5</sup> *M* = 2*Bl* cos (*πν*)

*N* = 2*Bl* sin (*πν*)

For the integral along  $\Gamma_{FH}$  we set  $s = re^{-i\pi}$  and the same way we have

$$
I\left(re^{-i\pi}\right) = I_{FH}\left(r\right) = -\frac{dBK}{V} \frac{e^{-rt}}{e^{-i\pi v}r^{\nu}} \frac{\left(1 + e^{Z^{*}r^{\nu}}\right)}{\left(e^{Z^{*}r^{\nu}} - 1\right)}
$$
(B.6)

so that

$$
TL^{-1}[Q(0, s)] = q_1(0, t) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{0}^{+\infty} [l_{FH}(r) - l_{DE}(r)] dr
$$
 (B.7)

10

$$
\text{Remaining } \omega = \pi v \text{ and } Y(r) = \left[ -\frac{dBK}{\gamma} \frac{e^{-rt}}{r^v} \right] \text{ we have}
$$
\n
$$
q(0, t) = -\frac{dBK}{2\pi\gamma} \int_{0}^{+\infty} \frac{e^{-rt}}{r^v} \cdot \frac{2\sin(\pi v) \left[ e^{2Mr^v} - 1 \right] + 4\sin(Nr^v) \cos(\pi v) e^{Mr^v}}{e^{2Mr^v} + 1 - 2\cos(Nr^v) e^{Mr^v}} dr \tag{B.8}
$$

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**Table 1.** Fitting parameters with their errors for each experiment.



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**Table 2.** Mean values (AV) and average quadratic discrepancy (AQD) for the first four experiments.





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**Fig. 1.** Grain size distribution for the sand used in the experiments. Weighted mean value of the grain size is 0.27 mm.





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**Fig. 3.** Flux results (triangules) from experiment number one. An initial transient of about 3 to 4 h is visible, afterwards the flux reaches a steady state. Overimposed solid line rapresents the theoretical curve which best fits the experimental data.





**Fig. 4.** Same of Fig. 3, for the experiment number two.

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**Fig. 5.** Same of Fig. 3, for the experiment number three.





**Fig. 6.** Same of Fig. 3, for the experiment number four.



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**Fig. 7.** Same of Fig. 3, for the experiment number five.

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**Fig. 9.** Path of integration in the complex plane.

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