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# DEM-LBM coupling for partially saturated granular assemblies

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#### 4 Abstract

In this paper, we propose a phase-field-based Lattice Boltzmann Method

6 (LBM) model coupled with the Discrete Element Method (DEM) for simu-

<sup>7</sup> lating unsaturated granular media over a large range of degrees of saturation.

8 The formation of capillary bridges between grains is computed via an LBM

scheme that solves Navier-Stokes and Allen-Cahn equations for multi-phase

flow in complex geometries. As for the motions of the grains, these are com-

puted within DEM where the contact behavior between spherical particles

is based on a simple elastic-plastic contact law. Using an efficient DEM-

13 LBM coupling framework, capillarity effects are explored at the pore scale

4 with the collapse of a sandcastle as a classic illustration. This is done by

15 considering an assembly of several thousands of spherical particles connected

by capillary bridges for different degrees of saturation. It is shown that the

7 mean capillary stress increases with the degree of saturation up to a certain

threshold beyond which capillary stress drops until complete saturation. In

addition, the Soil Water Characteristic Curve is qualitatively recovered and

20 compared to a theoretical model. As such, the proposed DEM-LBM cou-

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21 pling scheme becomes a viable numerical tool that can explicitly model and

explore pore-scale phenomena in unsaturated soils.

23 Keywords: DEM-LBM coupling, partially saturated medias, capillary

cohesion, GPU

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#### 27 1. Introduction

The full understanding and modeling of partially saturated granular assemblies have been a great challenge for both scientists and engineers (Sheng,
2011; Laloui and Nuth, 2009) over almost a century now. In fact, pore fluid
can somehow be seen as a double-edged sword because a small amount of
water can only strengthen unsaturated materials until a certain point. As
the water content exceeds a certain threshold, capillary bridges merge within
the material to lead to a strength reduction and an eventual collapse at high
water saturation. This phenomenon is reminiscent of the sandcastle problem
that provides a universal example of partially saturated granular material
with varying water content.

The stress/deformation/failure characteristics of a given soil are usually governed by the effective stress tensor,  $\sigma'$ , which relates to the transport of forces at the particle contacts within the solid skeleton. The effective stress derives from the celebrated Terzaghi's principle which was first proposed in 1925 for fully saturated conditions, and reads in tensorial form as

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}' = \boldsymbol{\sigma} - u_w \boldsymbol{I} \tag{1}$$

where  $\sigma$  is the total stress tensor,  $u_w$  is the water pore pressure, and I is the identity matrix. It took almost three decades for addressing unsaturated soils when Bishop (1959) extended Terzaghi's effective stress principle as follows

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}' = (\boldsymbol{\sigma} - u_a \boldsymbol{I}) + \chi (u_a - u_w) \boldsymbol{I}$$
 (2)

where  $u_a$  is the air pressure,  $u_w$  the water pressure in capillary bridges, and  $\chi$  is some weighting parameter that controls the degree of saturation:  $\chi=0$ for dry soils, and  $\chi = 1$  for saturated soils, to recover Eq. (1). Previous studies have suggested empirical relations of  $\chi$  in terms of  $u_a$  and 49  $u_w$  (Khalili and Khabbaz, 1998; Russell and Khalili, 2006). In addition, artificial neural networks have been successfully trained to predict the value of  $\chi$ (Lee et al., 2003; Ajdari et al., 2012). Furthermore, other numerical methods were carried out to estimate  $\chi$ , for instance, (Yuan et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2020) using 2PFV-DEM and DEM-Fabonnacci-Lattice points discretization, respectively. Moreover, numerous experimental, analytical, numerical, and empirical approaches were used to recover the entire Soil-Water Characteristic Curve (SWCC) (Fredlund et al., 1997; Delenne et al., 2015; Fredlund and Xing, 1994; Meskini-Vishkaee et al., 2013; Guo et al., 2021; Pedroso and Williams, 2011; Li, 2005; Hosseini et al., 2022; Yuan and Chareyre, 2022). In fact, this is the physics of pore water and air entry and drainage, including electrochemical effects that control the SWCC. Recently, Wan et al. (2019); Pouragha et al. (2021) have addressed this issue by using a probabilistic approach to recover pore size distribution from grain size distribution and the physics of pore filling or drainage.

tive stress tensors within partially saturated granular assemblies using ho-

Several multiscale attempts were performed to determine total and effec-

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mogenization technique (Wan et al., 2015; Nuth and Laloui, 2008; Vlahinić et al., 2011; Scholtes et al., 2009; Farahnak et al., 2021). It must be noted that most of the works carried out were only applied to low degrees of saturation in the pendular regime where only a distinct water bridge exists between a pair of grains. Small granular assemblies (doublets, triplets, and quadruplets) have been 72 frequently investigated in the literature for exploring fundamental properties of capillary bridges (Mielniczuk et al., 2018; Gagneux and Millet, 2014; Benseghier et al., 2020; Miot et al., 2021; Younes et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2017; Di Renzo et al., 2020). Moreover, numerous studies have been conducted to understand the behavior of partially saturated media at the scale of a Representative Elementary Volume (REV). For instance, Molecular Dynamics has been used to model polydispersed particles in 3D conditions to investigate the shear strength of a partially saturated medium (Richefeu et al., 2006). The capillary forces were computed based on the interparticle distances separating the grains. In spite of the simplicity of the method, good agreement was found with theoretical experimental data regarding shear strength properties. The same method was also applied by Soulie et al. (2006) to address an axial compression test. Later, Richefeu et al. (2008) carried out 3D-DEM simulations to study shear tests in unsaturated granular media. The capillary forces were taken into account within contacts between spherical grains through a contact law supplemented with a capillary force law. This latter is calculated based on an explicit function relating the volume of liquid bridge between a pair of particles to the gap separating them. A good agreement between experimental data and the model was reported in their

92 work.

Recently, Duriez and Wan (2016) have modeled unsaturated granular assemblies using DEM. Capillary bridges were incorporated in DEM calculations by numerically solving the Young-Laplace Equation (YLE) via Finite
Differences to compute resulting capillary forces between pairs of grains. The
authors highlighted the impact of small degrees of saturation on the mechanical response of soil subjected to triaxial tests. It must be noted that in the
aforementioned studies, only low degrees of saturation with isolated capillary
bridges were investigated because their coalescence could not be handled by
none of the numerical methods.

To overcome the above-mentioned limitation, several methods were pro-102 posed by other researchers. For instance, Delenne et al. (2013, 2015) have 103 used 2D Single Component Shan-Chen LBM model along with Molecular Dy-104 namics to investigate the ensuing apparent cohesive strength for a wide range 105 of degrees of saturation. However, in the latter work, grain particles were 106 fixed, supposing that capillary forces arising from the interstitial fluids are 107 balanced by contact forces between the solid particles. Moreover, it has re-108 cently been proven in Benseghier et al. (2022) that the numerical constraints proposed by the Shan-Chen LBM model as well as the Carnahan-Starling 110 Equation Of State (EOS) for the temperature are inappropriate. In fact, 111 the latter EOS is thermodynamically consistent only for high temperatures  $T > 0.7 T_{\rm C}$  where  $T_{\rm C}$  is defined as the critical temperature<sup>1</sup> which is equal to  $T_{\rm C}=282.9^{\circ}{\rm C},$  which is non-physical (Huang et al., 2011, 2015).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The critical temperature is a temperature below which a liquid and its vapor coexist.

Under fully saturated conditions, Yang et al. (2019) have performed a test case of granular collapse in water using the LBM method coupled with DEM. Furthermore, Liu et al. (2020) have used a model that consists of using DEM coupled with Fabonnacci-Point Element discretization of the capillary bridge cap<sup>2</sup> to compute capillary forces. They were able to model capillary bridges for a wide range of degrees of saturation. Nevertheless, it is important to note that in the latter work, even though high values of degrees of saturation were reported, the coalescence of capillary bridges was not possible.

Melnikov et al. (2016) have simulated triaxial tests for mono-dispersed 123 unsaturated media for high values of degrees of saturation using Contact 124 Dynamics (CD) method to model the contacts between spherical grains, cou-125 pled with a Numerical Energy Minimization (NEM) software for accounting 126 air-water interfaces and the associated capillary forces. They highlighted the impact of air-water capillary interfaces on the mechanical behavior of unsat-128 urated media subjected to different water contents. However, using the NEM 129 technique, one should select the shape of clusters (trimer, tetrahedral, hep-130 tamer, pentamer and large) based on defined criteria (Melnikov et al., 2015). 131 Therefore, re-meshing of clusters must be done once when they change shape. In spite of the numerous studies conducted by many authors, there is 133 still the need for a numerical tool that can model the dynamics of capillary 134 bridges merging or splitting when grains move within a granular assembly at 135 high degrees of saturation. 136

To fill this literature gap, this paper investigates the effect of capillary

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 $<sup>^2{\</sup>rm Liquid}\text{-solid}$  interface.

bridges and the related grain displacements in a partially saturated medium composed of multiple polydispersed solid rigid spherical grains within a dynamic network topology of capillary bridges where the latter are allowed to merge or split, among others. In particular, the *pendular* and *funicular* regimes will be investigated to demonstrate that capillary forces can give rise to an *apparent cohesion* in a wet granular assembly and to also prove that granular materials become *cohesionless* in the so-called *capillary* regime.

With the above-mentioned in mind, we propose a 3D GPU phase-field LBM model to compute the dynamics of capillary bridges and associated forces (Younes et al., 2022). These are then coupled with DEM simulations using the software YADE (Šmilauer et al., 2021) which computes the movement of grains under forces that operate between themselves following Newton's second law of motion. It must be pointed out that a thorough validation of the LBM model was conducted by Younes et al. (2022), whereas the code YADE is a reference open-source DEM software.

The paper is organized as follows. First, a brief presentation of the phasefield LBM as well as the DEM model used is given. Then, a section is
dedicated to the DEM-LBM coupling algorithm, including the synchronization between the two numerical methods. Finally, the DEM-LBM coupled
computation model is used to simulate unsaturated granular assemblies for
a large range of saturation in order to determine the evolution of the mean
capillary stress and matric suction during crossing the various regimes: from
pendular, funicular to capillary regimes.

## 2. Proposed Numerical Models

In this paper, the phase-field-based model is adopted where Navier-Stokes 162 Equation (NSE) coupled with Allen-Cahn Equation (ACE) are solved using 163 the Lattice Boltzmann Method. The modeling of partially saturated media as 164 a multiphasic system requires simulating capillary interfaces separating gas 165 from the liquid which are sharp. However, to avoid numerical instabilities, it is preferable to use a regularized interface with a finite width W, as shown 167 in Figure 1(a). A phase field variable  $\phi(\xi)$  is conveniently introduced as in 168 Figure 1(b) to determine which is the distinctive phase, whereas within the 169 transition region within W, the phase is rather smooth. 170 In essence, the ACE allows us to compute the evolution of the phase field 171  $\phi(\mathbf{r},t)$ , where  $\mathbf{r}$  and t are position and time variables, respectively. Herein, the phase parameter  $\phi(\mathbf{r},t)$  is equal to 1 in the liquid phase, 0 in the gas, 173 and represents the interface for  $\phi \in ]0; 1[$  as a diffuse interface zone where the two phases coexist. As such, the ACE provides an implicit tracking of the 175 interface which makes it suitable for problems where the interface motion depends on external conditions such as wetting (Liang et al., 2018, 2019; Younes et al., 2022). 178

In this section, the air-water capillary interfaces modeling will be presented. The capillary force computation technique will then be briefly introduced; see Younes et al. (2022) for more details, especially the wetting condition. Finally, the Discrete Element Method will also be briefly reviewed for completeness.

 $^{84}$  2.1. Allen-Cahn and modified Navier-Stokes equations

The time evolution of the phase-field variable,  $\phi$ , which describes the evolution of the interface is given by the Allen-Cahn Equation

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot (\phi \boldsymbol{u}) = \boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot [M(\boldsymbol{\nabla} \phi - \lambda \boldsymbol{n})]$$
 (3)

where  $\boldsymbol{u}$  is the fluid velocity, M the interface mobility,  $\boldsymbol{n}$  the interface unit normal vector, and  $\lambda$  a parameter related to the interface thickness.

Equation (3) is derived from the classical advection equation in which the velocity is decomposed into two components: (i) advected external fluid velocity  $\boldsymbol{u}$ , and (ii) the normal interface speed  $\boldsymbol{u}_n$ . The first component is usually determined from the Navier-Stokes equation, whereas the second, driven by the thermodynamics constraints, is taken to be proportional to the interface curvature through mobility such that  $\boldsymbol{u}_n = M\kappa\boldsymbol{n}$  where  $\kappa$  is the curvature (Sun and Beckermann, 2007; Chiu and Lin, 2011).

In the ACE (3), the unit normal vector to the interface n as seen in Fig. 1(a) is defined as:

$$n = \frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|}.\tag{4}$$

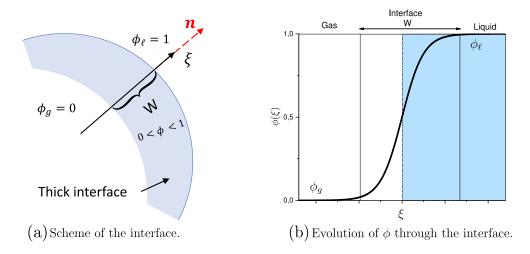


Figure 1: Definition of the regularized interface whose thickness is W and  $\phi \in [0; 1]$ . The  $\xi$  axis is defined as the normal to the interface.

Thus, the interface profile at equilibrium, shown in Figure 1(b), is expressed as

$$\phi^{\text{eq}}(\xi) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 + \tanh\left(\frac{2\xi}{W}\right) \right] \tag{5}$$

where  $\xi$  is the local abscissa perpendicular to the interface as shown in Figure 1(a).

The parameter  $\lambda$  is then defined as the derivative of  $\phi^{\rm eq}$  with respect to  $\xi$ , i.e.:

$$\lambda = |\nabla \phi|^{\text{eq}} = \phi_{\xi}^{\text{eq}} = \frac{4\phi(1-\phi)}{W}.$$
 (6)

To consider viscous, immiscible, incompressible two-phase fluid flow, NavierStokes equation is herein augmented with gravitational forces and, most importantly, a surface tension force term  $\boldsymbol{F}_s$  as

$$\rho \left( \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{u} \right) = -\boldsymbol{\nabla} p + \boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \left[ \rho \nu \left( \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{u}^T \right) \right] + \boldsymbol{F}_s + \boldsymbol{B}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \boldsymbol{u} = 0$$
(7)

where  $\boldsymbol{u}$  is the fluid velocity,  $\nu$  is the kinematic viscosity, p is the hydrodynamic pressure, and  $\boldsymbol{B}$  is the body force.

The fluid density field  $\rho(\mathbf{r},t)$  depends on the phase, and hence can be simply described as a linear interpolation between liquid and gas densities  $\rho_l$  and  $\rho_g$ , i.e.

$$\rho(\mathbf{r},t) = \phi(\rho_l - \rho_g) + \rho_g \tag{8}$$

which links Navier-Stokes equation to Allen-Cahn equation.

The other parameter coupling ACE to NSE is the surface tension term  $\boldsymbol{F}_s$  where a potential form is postulated as in Liang et al. (2018, 2019); Younes et al. (2022); Fakhari and Bolster (2017), i.e.

$$\boldsymbol{F}_s = \mu_\phi \boldsymbol{\nabla} \phi \tag{9}$$

where  $\mu_{\phi}$  is the chemical potential defined as the minimum of the mixing energy (Younes et al., 2022; Penrose and Fife, 1990):

$$\mu_{\phi} = 4\beta\phi(\phi - 1)\left(\phi - \frac{1}{2}\right) - k\phi_{\xi}^{"} \tag{10}$$

where k and  $\beta$  are constants related to the surface tension  $\gamma$  and the interface thickness W, i.e.:

$$k = \frac{3}{2}\gamma W; \quad \beta = \frac{12\gamma}{W}. \tag{11}$$

It is worth noting that equilibrium is established whenever the chemical potential  $\mu_{\phi}$  vanishes (Younes et al., 2022; Penrose and Fife, 1990). As such,  $\phi_{\rm eq}$  can be deduced as the solution of the differential equation (10) with  $\mu_{\phi}$  equal to zero.

#### 2.2. Associated Lattice Boltzmann models

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To solve both Allen-Cahn Equation (3) and Navier-Stokes Equations (7), the Lattice Boltzmann Method (LBM) is adopted using two Probability Density Functions (PDFs),  $g_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r},t)$  and  $h_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r},t)$  which correspond to ACE and NSE, respectively. In this work, the Bhatnagar-Gross-Krook (BGK) collision operator is used (Liang et al., 2018, 2019; Younes et al., 2022) such that

$$g_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{c}_{\alpha}\Delta t, t + \Delta t) = g_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}, t) - \frac{\Delta t}{\tau_g} \left[ g_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}, t) - g_{\alpha}^{eq}(\mathbf{r}, t) \right] + \Delta t G_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}, t)$$
(12)

$$h_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{c}_{\alpha}\Delta t, t + \Delta t) = h_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}, t) - \frac{\Delta t}{\tau_{h}} \left[ h_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}, t) - h_{\alpha}^{eq}(\mathbf{r}, t) \right] + \Delta t H_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}, t) \quad (13)$$

where  $\tau_g$  and  $\tau_h$  are the relaxation times (expressed in lattice units) for  $g(\mathbf{r},t)$ and  $h(\mathbf{r},t)$  probability density functions respectively;  $G_{\alpha}$  and  $H_{\alpha}$  are the source terms of ACE and NSE, respectively. Finally,  $\mathbf{c}_{\alpha}$  are the discrete velocities, which depend on the discretization scheme.

The main purpose of the LBM is to retrieve the macroscopic variables based on the PDFs, e.g., the phase-field parameter  $\phi$ , density  $\rho$ , and fluid velocity  $\boldsymbol{u}$ , among others. It turns out that the phase-field parameter  $\phi$  is given by:

$$\phi = \sum_{\alpha} g_{\alpha}. \tag{14}$$

Once  $\phi$  is determined, Eq. (8) is used to calculate the fluid density  $\rho$ .

Then, the fluid velocity is calculated as follows:

$$\rho \boldsymbol{u} = \sum_{\alpha} \boldsymbol{c}_{\alpha} h_{\alpha} + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \left( \mu_{\phi} \boldsymbol{\nabla} \phi + \boldsymbol{B} \right). \tag{15}$$

As for the boundary conditions, a wetting condition is applied to each particle in order to impose the contact angle  $\theta$ . The second boundary condition is the classical Bounce-Back condition. Readers can refer to Younes

et al. (2022) for more details about the phase-field-based model as well as
the boundary conditions (wetting and bounce-back conditions) used in this
paper.

# 2.3. Numerical calculation of capillary forces

As already established in Younes et al. (2022), integrating the appropriate forces exerted by the fluid onto the solid particle leads to the so-called capillary force. For any capillary bridge shape, the capillary force acting on a domain  $\Omega$  is given as

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{F}}_f = \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_f \boldsymbol{n}_{\Omega} dS + \gamma \int_{\Omega} \boldsymbol{m} \delta_{s}(\xi) dS$$
 (16)

where  $\sigma_f = -pI + \tau_\mu$  is the fluid stress with I as the identity tensor, p is the pressure field, and  $\tau_\mu$  is the viscous stress tensor,  $n_\Omega$  is the outward unit normal vector of the domain  $\Omega$ ,  $\gamma$  is the surface tension,  $\delta_s(\xi)$  is the 'smooth' Dirac function of the so-called smooth fluid-fluid interface, and m is the tangent vector of the fluid-fluid interface as shown in Figure 2. More details about the discretization of the Eq. (16) can be found in Younes et al. (2022).

# 2.4. Discrete Element Method (DEM)

Solid grains are modeled as rigid spherical polydispersed particles from the open-source software YADE based on the Discrete Element Method (DEM) (Šmilauer et al., 2021). The method was originally established by Cundall and Strack (1979), with particles allowed to overlap at contacts and interact through contact laws. The elastic-frictional contact law is applied between overlapping grains. As such, a normal repulsive force  $\mathbf{F}_n$  is created such that:

$$||\boldsymbol{F}_n|| = k_n \delta_n \tag{17}$$

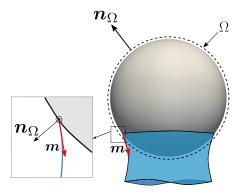


Figure 2: Schematic showing the integration domain  $\Omega$ , its normal vector pointing outward  $\mathbf{n}_{\Omega}$  and the tangent vector to the liquid-gas interface  $\mathbf{m}$ .

where  $\delta_n$  is the normal overlapping distance, and  $k_n$  is the normal stiffness depending on the radii of particles  $R^{(i)}$  and their stiffness E:  $k_n =$  $2ER^{(1)}R^{(2)}/(R^{(1)}+R^{(2)})$ . Additionally, during overlapping, a tangential force  $F_t$  is generated which is also proportional to the product of the relative tangential displacement  $\delta_t$  and the tangential stiffness  $k_t$ . The stiffness fraction  $\alpha$  is defined as the ratio of the tangential stiffness to its normal counterpart  $(\alpha = k_t/k_n)$ . The polydispersed grain parameters of the REV are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: YADE mechanical parameters for the grains used in Section 4

Parameters	Values	Units
Density $\rho_s$	2,600	$kg.m^{-3}$
Stiffness $E$	110	MPa
Stiffness ratio $(\alpha)$	0.3	_
Inter-particle friction angle	30	0
$\{D_{\min};D_{\max}\}$	{80; 108}	$\mu\mathrm{m}$
Number of particles	3,750	_

# 74 3. Numerical Procedures

The DEM-LBM computations rely on an explicit coupling algorithm whereby
the fluid and solid mechanics simulation modules run sequentially following
a frequency that is modulated by the time scales of the different physics.

Details of the algorithm will be discussed in a later sub-section.

We use an in-house LBM master code developed in CUDA C/C++ language for GPU computations, whereas the DEM code, YADE, is launched
using a C++ command. The GPU-based code is found to largely alleviate the
computational efforts. A 16GB GPU memory has been used and has been
found to be just adequate for the size of the model herein presented.

# $3.1.\ Initialization\ of\ the\ grain\ packing$ - YADE

The initialization of the spherical grains is done in YADE, using the *pack* package.

First, the creation of a cloud of grains as well as the walls on the six sides of a cubical sample is completed as shown in Figure 3(a). Then, an isotropic

confining pressure step is carried out with  $\sigma^{\text{conf}} = 100$  kPa by moving the bounding walls to compress isotropically the granular assembly. Then, the walls move backward until  $\sigma^{\text{conf}}$  reaches 0 kPa as illustrated in Figure 3(b).

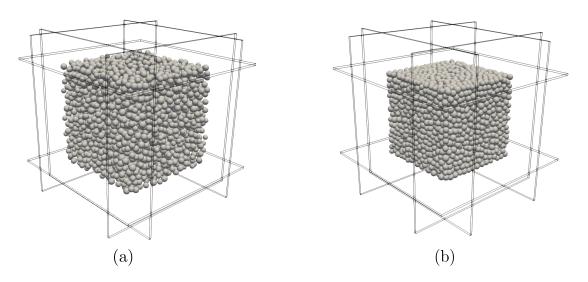


Figure 3: The sequence of steps for generating a polydispersed sample

## 3.2. Initialization of capillary bridges in LBM

Capillary bridges are initialized in the form of equally-sized water droplets between each pair of grains (i, j) for which their separation distance  $D_{ij}$  is less than a user-defined specific value  $\varepsilon$  as depicted in Figure 4(a). Next, after running several LBM iterations with fixed grains, the spherical drops evolve to form capillary bridges of realistic geometries involving more than a pair of grains; see as seen in Figure 4(b). It is worth mentioning that the number of LBM iterations to converge to a final liquid geometry depends on several parameters, e.g. the droplet volume created at mid-distance between two spherical grains and the value of the surface tension  $\tilde{\gamma}$  in lattice units.

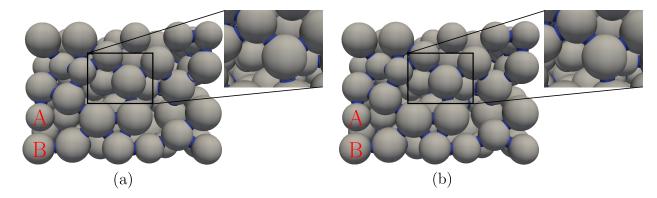


Figure 4: (a) Initialization spherical drops at mid-distance between pair of grains. (b) Converged capillary bridges after several LBM iterations. In (a) the separation distance between particles A and B was larger than the allowed distance  $\varepsilon$ , therefore, no capillary bridge was initialized between these two grains.

# 3.3. DEM-LBM coupling scheme

There are two points to be considered in this multiphysics coupling: first,
the time scales involved in the processes are different, and second, the discretization scheme to solve each piece of physics leads to different time steps.
The latter needs to be synchronized, while also preserving numerical stability
and optimizing computational cost.

For numerical stability, the time step  $\Delta t_{\rm DEM}$  in DEM simulations should be smaller than the critical time step:

$$\Delta t_{\rm crit} = \min_{i} \left( R^{(i)} \sqrt{\frac{\rho_{\rm s}}{E}} \right). \tag{18}$$

Regarding the LBM time step, it is usually taken as 1 in lattice units. Using conversion coefficients as elaborated in Appendix A.1, it can be expressed 312 as:

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$$\Delta t_{\rm LBM} = \sqrt{C_{\rho} \frac{\tilde{\gamma}}{\gamma} C_{\rm L}^3}.$$
 (19)

From Eq. (19), it can be seen that once  $C_{\rm L}$  and  $C_{\rho}$  are selected, the only parameter that controls the  $\Delta t_{\rm LBM}$  is the LBM surface tension  $\tilde{\gamma}$  in lattice units. Ideally, it is more convenient to maximize  $\Delta t_{\rm LBM}$  for numerical efficiency while also guaranteeing numerical stability. The pros and cons of large values  $\tilde{\gamma}$  are discussed in the following.

On one hand, the advantages are:

## • Faster simulations:

Based on Eq. (15), when  $\tilde{\gamma}$  increases, the interface velocity rises.

#### • Reasonable relaxation times:

Based on Eq. (A.7), when  $\tilde{\gamma}$  increases,  $C_t$  increases, which makes the relaxation times  $\tilde{\tau}_h^{\ell,g}$  larger than  $\widetilde{\Delta t}/2 = 0.5$  and crucial for numerical stability (Krüger et al., 2017).

On the other hand, the disadvantages of large values of  $\tilde{\gamma}$  are:

## • Reasonable LBM velocities:

According to Krüger et al. (2017), the lattice Mach number should be low (Ma  $\ll$  1). Moreover, LBM fluid velocities are related to  $\tilde{\gamma}$ . Consequently, the larger the LBM surface tension  $\tilde{\gamma}$ , the larger the velocities, making the Ma larger which is repugnant when using LBM.

One has to consider the above-mentioned points when setting up the value of  $\tilde{\gamma}$  to achieve the best computational performance of the coupling, while respecting numerical stability of both LBM and DEM time steps restrictions.

Next, to ease the synchronization between these two time steps, the ratio between them must be such that

$$\frac{m}{n} = \frac{\Delta t_{\rm LBM}}{\Delta t_{\rm DEM}} \Rightarrow n\Delta t_{\rm LBM} = m\Delta t_{\rm DEM}$$
 (20)

where n and m are integers.

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Figure 5 highlights at which iteration the exchange of data between LBM and DEM takes place. Note that the DEM and LBM algorithms run sequentially, hence, during the LBM cycle, the grains are fixed.

However, another issue can arise regarding the coupling for two main reasons:

# • Convergence of spherical droplets to capillary bridges:

The capillary bridge is initialized as a spherical drop, and since we focus on the steady state, only the converged capillary bridges are considered<sup>3</sup>. Thus, 1 single LBM iteration will not be sufficient for the convergence of capillary bridges.

#### • Computational time performance:

Data exchange between LBM and YADE is a time-consuming procedure. Therefore, making information exchange for every single LBM iteration will drastically reduce the efficiency of the coupling.

To overcome this issue, it is convenient to multiply both iteration numbers (n and m) by a coefficient  $n_{ratio}$ , in order: (1) to make the capillary bridge converge to its equilibrium state between two synchronization points,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>The viscous effect is not taken into account in this study. Readers are invited to consult Younes et al. (2022) for more details.

and (2) to avoid huge computation time in exchanging data between LBM and YADE. Therefore, DEM and LBM numbers of iterations needed for the simulations are:

$$N_{\rm LBM} = n_{\rm ratio} \times n$$
 (21)  
 $N_{\rm DEM} = n_{\rm ratio} \times m.$ 

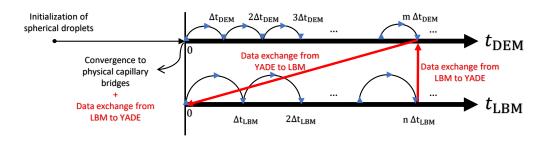


Figure 5: Timelines of both LBM and DEM simulations and information exchange procedure between LBM code and YADE

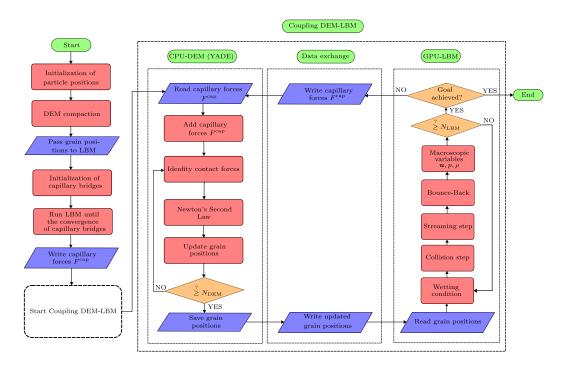


Figure 6: Flowchart showing the coupling between LB and DE methods

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Figure 6 presents the flowchart of the coupling between LBM and DEM. The first steps correspond to the initialization of a cloud of particles in YADE 358 to be then passed to LBM in order to initialize spherical drops at the middistance of the grains. Next, multiple LBM iterations will be run until the 360 convergence of all capillary bridges. Capillary forces are then computed and 361 used in YADE to couple the DEM-LBM calculations. 362 The main steps of the DEM are herein summarized: (a) contact forces 363 are determined, (b) Newton's Second Law is applied for each grain to update 364 the velocities of the grains, and (c) particle positions are updated. Then, if 365 the DEM iteration is less than  $N_{\text{DEM}}$ , the DEM algorithm will return back 366 to step (a). Otherwise, the new positions of particles are saved.

Finally, the updated grain positions are used to start the LBM algorithm. 368 The main steps in the LBM algorithm include: (1) wetting condition, (2) 369 collision, (3) streaming, (4) Bounce-Back boundary condition, and (5) deter-370 mination of macroscopic variables. Then, the synchronization condition is 371 verified. If the number of iterations is less than  $N_{\rm LBM}$ , the cycle will return 372 to step (1). Otherwise, capillary forces  $F^{\text{cap}}$  are computed for each grain. 373 Next, capillary forces are read in YADE and applied to grains and back and 374 forth iteratively. 375

As mentioned far back in the introduction, the LBM and DEM models
have been separately validated. Then, the only validation concerns the coupling of the two models which is rather challenging, given the scale of the
problem. Experimental results that explore the small scale in relation to the
dynamics of particles and the associated topology of liquid bridges are scarce,
and very difficult to realize.

In what follows in the paper, we will be conducting an *indirect* validation of the coupling aspect by investigating the capillary stress versus water saturation relationship in an assembly of wetted particles. The numerical results show a departure from Bishop's relationship, which is validated by available data in the literature.

# 4. Application to capillary water in a granular assembly

In this section, we apply the DEM-LBM coupling model to simulate the mechanical behavior of a granular assembly composed of 3,750 spherical grains following a uniform grain size distribution such that  $D_{\rm max}/D_{\rm min}=1.35$  with  $D_{\rm max}=108\,\mu{\rm m}$ , and  $D_{\rm min}=80\,\mu{\rm m}$ . The DEM parameters were sum-

92 marized in Table 1.

One may ask whether the number of grains (3,750) is sufficient to justify 393 the requirements of a Representative Elementary Volume (REV). It turns out that for such a narrow grain size distribution where the grain diameters 395 are limited, the chosen number of grains is deemed large enough for an REV 396 at least in the dry and low saturation conditions. When the water cluster 397 dimensions approach the sample dimension the concept of REV becomes 398 more questionable, but this question is far beyond the scope of the paper. 399 The LBM domain size is  $N_x \times N_y \times N_z = 350 \times 350 \times 350$ , with a mesh size 400 of  $\Delta x = 5 \times 10^{-6}$  m, and an imposed contact angle of  $\theta = 25^{\circ}$  as a boundary 401 condition that remains constant throughout the entire simulation (Younes 402 et al., 2022). The air-water capillary interfaces are modeled with a surface 403 tension  $\gamma = 0.072 \text{ N.m}^{-1}$ . The critical time step based on Eq. (18) is  $\Delta t_{\text{crit}} =$  $1.944 \times 10^{-7}$  s. The selected value of LBM surface tension is  $\tilde{\gamma} = 10$ . Using Eq. (19), the LBM time step is  $\Delta t_{\rm LBM} = 1.3176 \times 10^{-7}$  s. Therefore, the DEM 406 time step  $\Delta t_{\rm DEM}$  is chosen equal to LBM time step (n=m=1 from Section 407 3.3) along with  $n_{\text{ratio}} = 50$ , and the ratio between DEM time step and the 408 critical one is  $\Delta t_{\rm DEM}/\Delta t_{\rm crit} = 0.6774$  which is reasonably high for not slowing down DEM simulations significantly. Accordingly, the relaxation times of water and air are  $\tilde{\tau}_h^{\ell} = 0.5158$  and  $\tilde{\tau}_h^g = 0.7846$ , respectively<sup>4</sup> (in lattice 411 units). Both relaxation times are larger than 0.5, which ensures numerical

From a mechanical point of view, and according to Scholtès et al. (2009);

stability (Krüger et al., 2017).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Water and air viscosities are  $\nu^{\text{water}} = 10^{-6} \,\text{m}^2.\text{s}^{-1}$  and  $\nu^{\text{air}} = 1.8 \times 10^{-5} \,\text{m}^2.\text{s}^{-1}$ , respectively, at a temperature of  $T = 20^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

Scholtes et al. (2009); Duriez and Wan (2016, 2017); Duriez et al. (2017), the total stress tensor  $\sigma^{\text{tot}}$  can be decomposed into the sum of the so-called contact stress tensor  $\sigma^{\text{cont}}$  that accounts for grain-to-grain interactions and the capillary stress tensor  $\sigma^{\text{cap}}$  to take into account the effect of capillary bridges:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\text{tot}} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\text{cap}} + \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\text{cont}} \tag{22}$$

In the framework of micro-mechanics, the contact stress tensor is calculated via the Love-Weber stress tensor formula  $\sigma^{LW}$  expressed as follows (Love, 2013; Weber, 1966; Nicot et al., 2013; Duriez and Wan, 2016, 2017; Duriez et al., 2017)

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\mathrm{cont}} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\mathrm{LW}} = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{c} \boldsymbol{f}_{ij}^{c} \otimes \boldsymbol{\ell}_{ij}^{c}$$
 (23)

where  $f_{ij}^c$  is the contact force between pair of grains (i and j) and  $\ell_{ij}^c$  is the branch vector from the center of i to that of j, and  $\otimes$  refers to dyadic product.

Previously, in Scholtès et al. (2009); Scholtes et al. (2009); Duriez and Wan (2016, 2017); Duriez et al. (2017) the capillary stress  $\sigma^{cap}$  has been computed directly based on capillary forces using a Love-Weber-like expression. However, this relation between capillary forces and capillary stresses applies exclusively to the *pendular* regime where isolated capillary bridges only exist between pairs of particles.

In this work, the involved degree of saturation range extends the *pendular* regime into the *funicular* and the *capillary* ones as the isolated liquid bridges coalesce, making it complicated to calculate the capillary stress using the

virial of force theorem<sup>5</sup>. Instead, we herein compute capillary stresses  $\sigma^{\text{cap}}$  indirectly using Eq. (22), i.e.:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\mathrm{cap}} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\mathrm{tot}} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\mathrm{cont}}.$$
 (24)

As a matter of fact, it is possible to compute the capillary stress tensor as reconstructed from the topology of the liquid phase in the pores, including the distribution of wetted grain surfaces and air-water, air, solid-water interfaces as derived in Duriez et al. (2017); but this is outside the scope of this work.

## 4.1. Dry sample

Firstly, the sample is initialized as shown in Figure 7(a) and the lateral walls are then removed. As there is no capillary water within the sample, the latter readily collapses to form a pile of grains after a few seconds as illustrated in Figure 7(b). The angle of repose of the pile approaches the macroscopic friction angle of the sample (Al-Hashemi and Al-Amoudi, 2018).

As the sample is dry, the capillary stress is necessarily zero. Moreover, the computed mean contact stress<sup>6</sup> also gives an extremely low value of approximately -0.46 Pa (here negative means compression), corresponding to self-weight of the pile. Therefore, based on Eq. (22), the total stress tensor is also approximately zero.

# 4.2. Wet sample

Next, the same sample as in Figure 7(a) is considered, but under unsaturated conditions. Contrary to Figure 7(b), Figure 8(b) shows that despite

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>This theorem consists in replacing contact forces in Eq. (23) by capillary forces.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Mean contact stress is defined as  $\frac{1}{3} \text{Tr}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\text{cont}})$ 

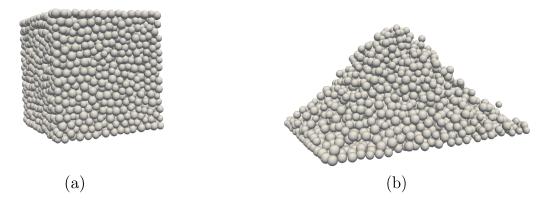


Figure 7: (a) Initial configuration of the dry sample confined within a box of 6 walls. (b) Collapse of the dry sample when lateral walls are removed.

removing the lateral walls, the partially saturated specimen  $(S_r \approx 54\%)$  does not collapse, thanks to capillary forces just like in the case of a self-standing wet sandcastle at the beach. Figure 8(b) readily demonstrates the capillary effects at hand.

## 460 4.2.1. Initial degree of saturation setup

It is certainly of interest to numerically investigate the effects of capillarity at different degrees of saturation. This is, in our numerical experiment, we initialize the granular assembly starting with a known volume of water as per the procedure outlined in Section 3.2, and let the system reach equilibrium both hydraulically and mechanically under zero external stress through many cycles of coupled DEM-LBM computations.

A total number of 10,877 spherical droplets are initialized between particles at a cutoff distance of  $\varepsilon = 5\,\mu\mathrm{m}$  which corresponds to approximately

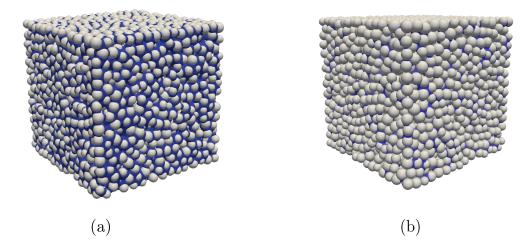


Figure 8: (a) Initial configuration of a wet cubical sample confined within six walls. (b) Stable wet sample even after removing the lateral walls. The degree of saturation in this example is  $S_r \approx 54\%$ .

10% of the maximum particle radius in the assembly. It is worth noting that several simulations were carried out for different values of  $\varepsilon$ , and it has been found that the results are not influenced by  $\varepsilon$ . Also, by growing or reducing the size of the initialized spherical droplet radius we thereby control the increase or decrease of the degree of saturation in our numerical exercise.

Finally, a variety of interesting results will next be explored to establish how both matric suction s and the capillary stress tensor evolve as a function of the degree of saturation.

## 77 4.2.2. Matric suction and Soil Water Characteristic Curve

For a given initial volume of water in the granular sample, we can readily calculate the degree of saturation as well as the volumetric water content,

knowing the porosity. On the other hand, determining the suction operating at the sample level is more complicated, but can be estimated as the average of all local suctions  $s^i$  at capillary menisci weighted by their respective volumes as in Delenne et al. (2015), i.e.

$$s = \frac{1}{V_w} \sum_{i=1}^{N^{\text{cap}}} \overbrace{(u_a - u_w^i)}^{s^i} V_w^i$$
 (25)

where  $V_w$  is the total water volume,  $N^{\text{cap}}$  is the number of capillary bridges,  $u_w^i$  is the pore water pressure within the  $i^{\text{th}}$  capillary bridge, and  $V_w^i$  is the volume of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  capillary bridge. Here, the air pressure  $u_a$  is negligible when compared to the negative water pressure  $u_w$  within the capillary bridges so that suction takes on a positive value.

Figure 9 shows the evolution of suction as computed from Eq. (25) when the sample is wetted at various degrees of saturations ( $S_r$  on the left y-axis) or volumetric water contents<sup>7</sup> ( $\theta_{\omega}$  on the right y-axis).

For low degrees of saturation which correspond to the *pendular* regime, the suction s is high, roughly equal to 13 kPa. As the degree of saturation increases, the suction drops drastically to reach a limiting value of  $s \approx 4$ kPa for  $S_r \in [15; 70]$  %. Thereafter,  $S_r$  reaches nearly  $S_r \approx 70$  % when a change in slope is observed at which point suction will tend to 0 as the level of saturation is being further increased.

The above description of the curve is essentially the so-called Soil Water Characteristic Curve (SWCC) which defines the water retention property of

The volumetric water content is defined as follows:  $\theta_{\omega} = \phi^p S_r$  where  $\phi^p$  is the sample porosity.

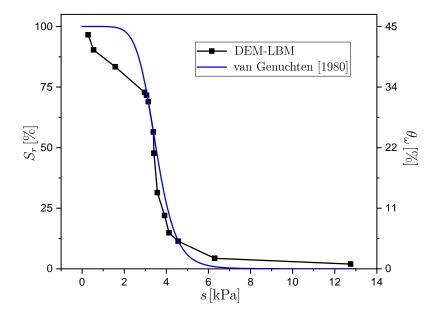


Figure 9: Degree of saturation and volumetric water content evolution in terms of the matric suction s of the present model. Van Genuchten (1980) model has been plotted for comparison.

unsaturated soils. For comparison purposes, the numerical simulation data has been fitted with the well-known Van Genuchten model given by

$$S_r = \left[\frac{1}{1 + (\alpha s)^n}\right]^m \tag{26}$$

where n [-] is the parameter responsible for the soil size distribution, m [-] is related to the symmetry of the retention curve, and  $\alpha$  [kPa<sup>-1</sup>] is the inverse of the suction at the Air Entry Value (AEV) (Matlan et al., 2014b; Oh and Lu, 2014; Matlan et al., 2014a; Fredlund and Xing, 1994).

The van Genuchten fitting parameters are found to be n=7, m=1.2302, and  $\alpha=0.2739$  with the corresponding best fitted curve shown in Figure 9.

Based on the statistical study reported in Matlan et al. (2014a) the values of

 $\alpha$  range between -0.445 and 1.5020 kPa<sup>-1</sup> and those of n between 1.472 and 9.731 [-] for sandy soils. Interestingly, the van Genuchten parameters that fit our numerical SWCC fall within the range of sandy soils as a check for its consistency.

Recently, Hosseini et al. (2021) have studied the effect of porosity on the 513 SWCC. According to their findings, as the porosity increases, m increases 514 as well. For porosities within the range of 0.4 and 0.5, the corresponding 515 m values fall between 0.75 and 1.66. Therefore, the value of m = 1.2302obtained in our numerical simulations is also totally reasonable with the 517 numerical sample porosity being equal to 0.44. It must be noted that for 518 a saturation degree larger than 70%, our numerical findings deviate from 519 the van Genuchten model. This non-smoothness behavior is probably the 520 consequence of the dynamics of the air invading the water phase in the pores, thus creating large changes in the water menisci topology. It is essential 522 to highlight that this non-smooth behavior likely arises from the dynamic 523 interaction between air invading into the water phase within the pores. As 524 a consequence, significant changes occur in the topology of water menisci. 525 This observation aligns with the experimental results of Matlan et al. (2014b) regarding sandy soils which is indeed our case here— $D_{\min} = 80 \,\mu\text{m} > 50 \,\mu\text{m}$ 527 (Das, 2019). 528

The findings of this numerical experiment indicate that the proposed DEM-LBM model is capable of capturing one of the main features in unsaturated soils, i.e., the development of matric suction s and its variation with water saturation. In order to further evaluate the DEM-LBM model, the distinctive properties of the capillary stress tensor  $\sigma^{\text{cap}}$  will be next in-

vestigated.

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535 4.2.3. Capillary stress tensor  $\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{cap}$ 

In the absence of the lateral walls with a total stress tensor  $\sigma^{\text{tot}}$  being sensibly zero, the capillary stress still subsists following Eq. (22), i.e.:

$$\sigma^{\text{tot}} = \sigma^{\text{cap}} + \sigma^{\text{cont}} = 0 \xrightarrow{\sigma^{\text{tot}} \approx 0} \sigma^{\text{cap}} = -\sigma^{\text{cont}} \neq 0.$$
 (27)

Since capillary forces are attractive in nature, they will tend to bring the particles closer to interpenetrate further, which will induce new repulsive forces. The particles then move such that an equilibrium state is finally reached when repulsive forces and attractive capillary forces are equal. Thus, the liquid bridge being in tension by virtue of surface tension forces, the effect of capillarity is tensile.

The following analyses will be based on the mean capillary stress  $\sigma^{\rm cap}$  defined as:

$$p^{\text{cap}} = \frac{1}{3} \text{Tr}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\text{cap}}). \tag{28}$$

The computations in the DEM code YADE follow the continuum mechanics convention where compression is negative and tension is positive. Accordingly, a positive  $p^{\text{cap}}$  corresponds to the traction that confers the sample with an apparent cohesion under unconfined conditions.

Figure 10(a) shows the evolution of the mean capillary stress with time until equilibrium is reached for different degrees of saturation. From a compu-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>Although not necessarily true in the most general case, the computed capillary stress tensor  $\sigma^{\text{cap}}$  turned out to be nearly spherical (with  $\sigma_{xx} \approx \sigma_{yy} \approx \sigma_{zz}$ ) due to the initial arrangement of the solid particles and liquid bridges, cf. Appendix B.

tational viewpoint and for a given saturation, capillary forces  $f_{cap}$  calculated from the topology of the capillary bridges from the LBM side enter the DEM calculations in YADE as attractive forces. These, when applied to the particles, will make them become closer and overlap so that repulsive contact forces set up. The search for an equilibrium state, both mechanically and hydraulically, eventually leads to the plateau shown in Figure 10(a). The coupling between DEM-LBM calculations were described in detail in Section 3.3.

Generally speaking, the higher the degree of saturation with more liquid bridges pulling the grains together, the higher  $p^{\text{cap}}$  as well as the plateau. However, it can be observed from Figure 10(a) that the mean capillary stress value at the equilibrium state initially increases with the degree of saturation up to a certain value of  $S_r = 67.47\%$ , after which there is a drop for  $S_r =$ 72.77 %. This indicates that there must be a maximum value of  $p^{\text{cap}}$  for the range of  $S_r$  between 11.41% and 72.77%.

As a comparative note, the phenomenon of increased capillary stress can also be observed within a small granular assembly composed of three grains (Gagneux and Millet, 2016). Under such condition, it was found that the capillary force will increase significantly (about 30%) when capillary bridges merge to become one cluster, whereas they were three isolated capillary bridges before.

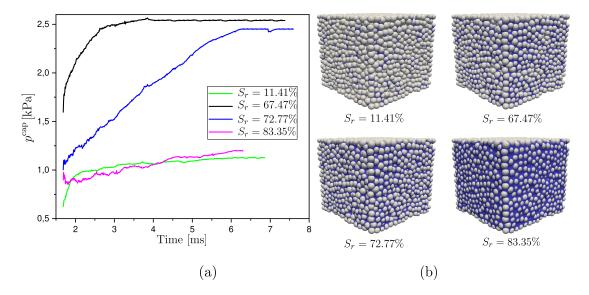


Figure 10: (a) The evolution of mean capillary stress  $p^{\text{cap}}$  [kPa] over time in DEM-LBM coupled simulations for selected values of degrees of saturation are shown, (b) Snapshots of the partially saturated samples at equilibrium for different values of  $S_r \in \{11.41; 67.47; 72.77; 83.35\}$  %.

We next explore the evolution of  $p^{\text{cap}}$  as well as that of s in terms of degree of saturation and volumetric water content  $\theta_{\omega}$  as plotted on the same Figure 11(a). To explain the evolution of  $p^{\text{cap}}$  and s, a topology analysis of capillary bridges and air bubbles is necessary. To avoid ambiguities, the displayed numbering of labeled air bubbles and capillary bridges, as shown in Figures 11(b) and (c), respectively, is explained next. For example, for a degree of saturation  $S_r = 11.41\%$ , the total number of capillary bridges is

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>The Flood-Fill algorithm is used to detect capillary bridges as well as air bubbles. Every air bubble and capillary bridge is labeled and given an ID as indicated in Figure 11(b) and (c) for air bubbles and capillary bridges, respectively.

2,088 and it would be impossible to display them all labeled with distinct colors. We, therefore, show only the first 6 labeled ID's as cut-off value so that capillary bridges ID's higher up to 2,088 are represented by the same color (orange). The same labeling and coloring scheme is applied to air bubbles in Figure 11(b).

Turning to point (1) which corresponds to  $S_r = 11.41$  %, it can be seen that the wet granular assembly contains an extensive network of air clusters together with a large number of capillary bridges as illustrated in Figures 11(b) and (c), respectively.

capillary stress.

As the degree of saturation increases and reaches point (2) which corresponds to the peak of  $p^{\text{cap}}$  ( $S_r \approx 68$  %), the isolated capillary bridges develop into one big cluster, with plenty of trapped air bubbles within the capillary bridge cluster. This particular point corresponds to the maximum curvature in the SWCC where the suction s starts to decrease, as seen in Figure 11(a). It is important to note that the granular system has only one large cluster of capillary bridges from step (2) onward. For higher degrees of saturation at (3) and (4), the originally continuous air phase dwindles with ubiquitous

trapped air bubbles, thus resulting in concurrent drops in suction and mean

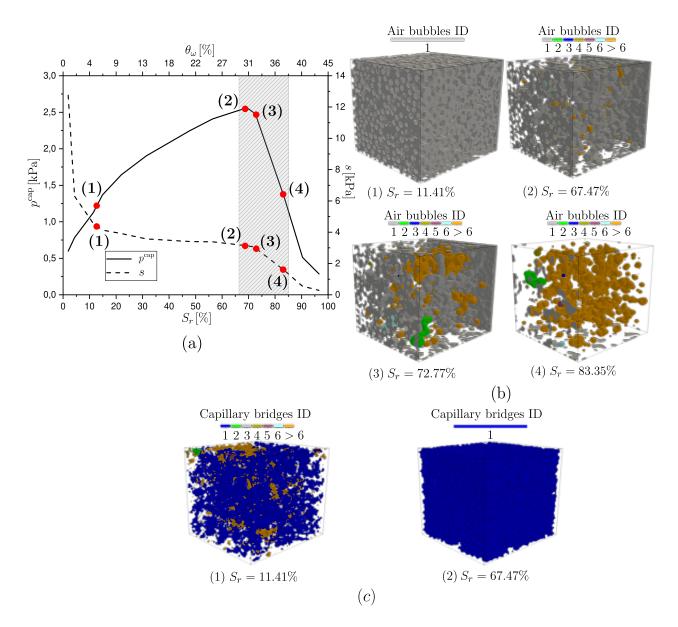


Figure 11: Mean capillary stress  $p^{\text{cap}}$  [kPa] based on Eq. (27) and suction s [kPa] in terms of degrees of saturation  $S_r$  and volumetric water content  $\theta_{\omega}$  at the bottom and top x-axis, respectively. (b) Snapshots of the distribution of air bubbles within the domain as the system is wetted for 4 different degrees of saturation  $S_r \in \{11.41; 67.47; 72.77; 83.35\}$  %. (c) Snapshots of capillary bridges within the granular media for  $S_r \in \{11.41; 67.47\}$  %.

These two aforementioned steps (3 & 4), in fact, correspond to the stage of AEV in SWCC for a path starting from a high saturation. The AEV stage occurs when the air starts filling the voids of the granular system. In order to provide a clearer picture, Figure 12 shows snapshots of a section taken in the middle of the specimen at various levels of saturation similar to those shown in Figure 11(b).

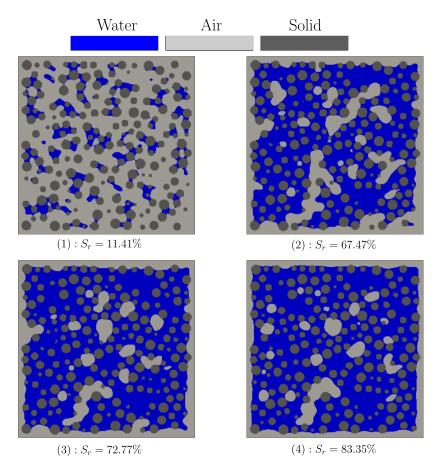


Figure 12: Snapshots of a section made in the middle of the sample at various degrees of saturation. Blue, gray, and dark gray colors correspond to water, air, and solid grains, respectively.

As can be seen, for high degrees of saturation, the sample contains one 605 extensively large interconnected water cluster engulfing isolated trapped air 606 bubbles which correspond to the capillary<sup>10</sup> regime, as shown in (4) at  $S_r =$ 607 83.35%. As the degree of saturation decreases, the air starts to infiltrate through the specimen to become partially connected to the external air, as 609 seen in (3) and (2). These two latter configurations represent the funicular 610 regime. Lastly, for low degrees of saturation below (1): isolated and coalesced 611 capillary bridges can be found, and the air becomes one big interconnected cluster which corresponds to the end of the pendular regime or the beginning of the *funicular* regime.

# 615 4.2.4. Capillary stress tensor and Bishop's equation

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In light of the DEM-LBM simulations, it is tempting to revisit current issues in unsaturated soil mechanics such as how the stresses are partitioned to reflect the contribution of each of the phases. The existence of a single effective stress which controls both skeleton deformation and failure of unsaturated soils is herein not addressed as it has been thoroughly discussed in Duriez et al. (2018); Nuth and Laloui (2008); Laloui and Nuth (2009); Scholtes et al. (2009); Vlahinić et al. (2011). However, the capillary stress tensor will be analyzed to elucidate Bishop's stress equation.

As seen before, the capillary stress tensor is spherical, hence, the relation

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup>The degree of saturation marking the onset of the capillary regime depends on the water spatial distribution in the sample. In laboratory experiments, air invades the pores from the sample boundaries. In this case, the capillary regime is likely to be observed for a wider range of saturation.

between the capillary stress tensor  $\sigma^{\text{cap}}$  and the suction s as a scalar can be simplified (Duriez et al., 2017) as such:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\text{cap}} = sS_r \boldsymbol{I}. \tag{29}$$

In fact, Eq. (29) represents a simplified version of Bishop's equation pre-627 viously seen in Eq. (2) with the assumption that  $\chi = S_r$ , which is debatable and subject of controversy in the literature. On the other hand, in our DEM-629 LBM computations, the capillary stress tensor can certainly be deduced by 630 simple subtraction of the contact stress tensor from the total stress one fol-631 lowing Eq. (27). 632 Figure 13 gives the plot of  $p^{\text{cap}}$  as calculated from simplified Bishop's 633 equation (Eq. (29)) and our DEM-LBM simulations (Eq. (27)) in terms of 634 degrees of saturation  $S_r$  and volumetric water content  $\theta_{\omega}$  on the bottom and 635 top x-axis of the figure, respectively. 636 As the granular assembly is being wetted, both mean capillary stresses 637 will increase until a certain threshold  $(S_r \approx 68 \%, \theta_{\omega} \approx 30 \%)$  is reached beyond which the specimen starts to lose the effects of capillarity. We can 639 observe that  $p^{\text{cap}}$  based on Bishop's simplified equation is always less than

our computed values.

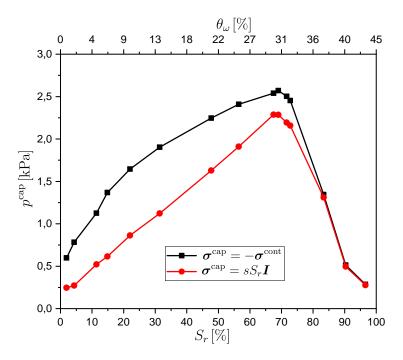


Figure 13: Mean capillary stresses  $p^{\text{cap}}$  [kPa] based on Eqs. (27) and (29) evolution in terms of degrees of saturation  $S_r$  [%] and volumetric water contents  $\theta_{\omega}$  [%].

Despite the same tendency displayed in both curves, they do not perfectly match, especially before the threshold is reached. The reason for this lies in the assumption:  $\chi = S_r$  noted earlier in Bishop's equation.

To investigate whether  $S_r$  and  $\chi$  coincide or not,  $\chi$  is back-calculated from our DEM-LBM computations for various degrees of saturation and suction values. Here, since the specimen is unconfined ( $\sigma^{\text{tot}} = 0$ ), the capillary stress coincides with the negative of the contact stress tensor, and thus:

$$\chi = \frac{1}{3} \frac{\text{Tr}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\text{cont}})}{s}.$$
 (30)

Several points should be noted:

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- The effective stress parameter  $\chi$  can be generally defined as a tensor, but since in our work, all the stress tensors are diagonal and isotropic, mean values are considered, *i.e.*,  $\frac{1}{3}\text{Tr}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})$ ;
- Eq. (30) is deduced from Eq. (2) which is formulated in the Soil Mechanics convention (compression > 0 and tension < 0). The mean contact stress is therefore positive,  $\frac{1}{3} \text{Tr}(\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\text{cont}}) > 0$ ;
  - The air pressure  $u_a$  is negligible with respect to the mean capillary stress.

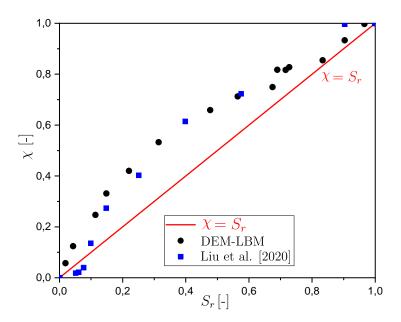


Figure 14: The evolution of  $\chi$  in terms of  $S_r$ . Linear relation ( $\chi = S_r$ ) and Liu et al. (2020) results are plotted for comparison.

The back-calculated  $\chi$  is then plotted against  $S_r$  as shown in Figure 14 658 where  $\chi$  and  $S_r$  almost never coincide proving why both  $\sigma^{\text{cap}}$  are not exactly 659 similar in Figure 13. To insure that our findings are right on course, another 660 numerical data set for  $\chi$  in terms of  $S_r$  (Liu et al., 2020) has been added to 661 Figure 14. 662 Our findings and the ones determined by Liu et al. (2020) are generally in 663 good agreement. Clearly, the two numerical results do not line up perfectly, 664 especially for low levels of degrees of saturation  $S_r < 10 \%$ . For this particular range, and contrary to our findings, Liu et al. (2020) have found that  $\chi < S_r$ . 666 The above discrepancy can be attributed to the difference between particle 667 size distributions used in this work and theirs. In fact, the grain size used 668 in Liu et al. (2020) is roughly four times smaller than the one we have used 669 in this study, which results in changes not only in porosity but also the attendant capillary effects—the smaller the particles, the greater the capillary 671 effect. Moreover, and according to Bishop and Blight (1963), for clayey 672 soils the effective stress parameter  $\chi$  is smaller than the  $S_r$  not only for low 673 saturation but even up to approximately 50 % (Talybort Clay). In contrast, silty-sandy soils lead to  $\chi < S_r$  only for low degrees of saturation  $S_r < 20$ %—see Vaich moraine soil in Bishop and Blight (1963). Hence,  $\chi$  tends to remain greater than  $S_r$  as particle size increases, which renders our results 677 reasonable since our particle size is greater than the one used in Liu et al. 678 (2020).679

### 5. Conclusion

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In this work, a DEM-LBM algorithm is developed in order to investi-681 gate the characteristics—dynamics of liquid bridges and capillarity effects— 682 of partially saturated granular assemblies over a large range of degrees of 683 saturation  $S_r$ . Regarding the Lattice Boltzmann Method (LBM), a GPU 684 phase-field-based model is adopted to solve both Allen-Cahn and Navier-685 Stokes equations to capture the presence of capillary interfaces between liquid and gas phases. As such, the proposed LBM approach successfully handles 687 the dynamics of isolated as well as coalesced capillary bridges, and most 688 importantly calculates capillary forces throughout pendular, funicular and 689 capillary regimes. 690

Concerning the Discrete Element Method (DEM), the open-source YADE is used, accounting for contacts between rigid spherical grains. The key point of the coupling between the two methods lies in the judicious integration of capillary forces computed via LBM into the DEM calculation cycles.

The predictive capabilities of the DEM-LBM algorithm are investigated in the modeling of unsaturated granular assemblies. First, the variation of suction in terms of the degree of saturation or volumetric water content has been qualitatively recovered and compared to van Genuchten model.

Furthermore, when the sample is wetted at various degrees of saturation, we recover the classic result of a self-standing sandcastle under no confinement, whereas an unconfined cubical dry sample readily collapses. Another finding is the elucidation of the mean capillary stress for several degrees of saturation. The obtained results demonstrate that the mean capillary stress only increases with the degree of saturation up to a certain level  $\approx 68\%$  after

which there is a drop, explainable by the dynamics of water clusters filling the void space. Next, we also have convincingly demonstrated that the so-called Bishop's parameter  $\chi$  does not coincide with the degree of saturation  $S_r$ , but takes a form that can be readily calculated numerically and that coincides with experimental results.

To conclude, the DEM-LBM coupling seems to be a viable tool to study partially saturated media over different regimes—pendular, funicular, and capillary, traversing the different transitions in a continuous manner and elucidating the dynamics of the different phases at the pore scale. Further studies should address the micro-mechanical behavior of partially saturated granular assemblies when subjected to drying/wetting cycles to investigate in extenso the merging of capillary bridges with hysteretic phenomena and their influence on the capillary mean stress.

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### 723 CRediT authorship contribution statement

N. Younes: Software, Validation, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Methodology, Investigation. A. Wautier: Conceptualization, Investigation, Review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition. R. Wan: Conceptualization, Writing –

review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Project administration.

O.Millet: Conceptualization, Review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition. F. Nicot: Conceptualization, Review & editing, Supervision. R. Bouchard: Writing – original draft, Visualization.

## Appendix A. LBM parameters

Appendix A.1. Conversion units coefficients

In LBM simulations, the mesh size and the time step are supposed to be equal to 1 in lattice units (lu) to ease numerical implementation. Therefore, a rescaling between physical and lattice units must be established to make the simulations consistent with the physics, because all the LBM parameters are given in lu.

For the sake of simplicity, the following convention will be used: all the parameters represented with a tilde  $\widetilde{\Box}$  are expressed in lattice units<sup>11</sup> 'lu', and without the tilde represents the physical units<sup>12</sup>  $\Box$ . For instance,  $\widetilde{\Delta x} = 1$  lu and  $\Delta x = 1 \,\mu\text{m}$ .

Solving ACE and NSE equations with LBM involves the use of only three physical units; length, time and mass. Therefore, the conversion between lattice and physical units can be derived from the re-scaling of lengths, time, and densities defined as follows

$$\Delta x = C_{\rm L} \underbrace{\widetilde{\Delta x}}_{=1} \qquad \Delta t = C_t \underbrace{\widetilde{\Delta t}}_{=1} \qquad \rho = C_{\rho} \widetilde{\rho}$$
 (A.1)

<sup>11</sup> The lattice unit 'lu' will be omitted in the rest of the paper.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup>All the of the physical parameter values will be written with their associated units.

where the units involved are respectively meters (m), seconds (s), and kilogram per cubic meter kg/m<sup>3</sup>. Eq. (A.1) gives the so-called canonical conversion factors. The first step to determine the conversion coefficient of any given physical parameter is to link its unit to the three canonical factors. For instance, the dimensional analysis of the surface tension  $\gamma$  gives:

$$[\gamma] = \text{N.m}^{-1} = \overbrace{\text{kg.m.s}^{-2}}^{\text{N}} .\text{m}^{-1} = \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} .\text{m}^3 .\text{s}^{-2}.$$
 (A.2)

Thus, the conversion between surface tension  $\gamma$  in lattice and physical units yields to:

$$C_{\gamma} = \frac{\gamma}{\widetilde{\gamma}} = C_{\rho} \frac{C_{\rm L}^3}{C_t^2}.\tag{A.3}$$

If one is interested in computing the physical time step within an LBM simulation  $\Delta t$ , he should calculate it using Eq. (A.3) as follows:

$$C_t = \frac{\Delta t}{\widetilde{\Delta t}} = \sqrt{C_\rho C_\gamma C_L^3}.$$
 (A.4)

Therefore, once the mesh size  $\Delta x$  and  $C_{\rho}$  are fixed <sup>13</sup>, the only parameter that controls the time step is  $\widetilde{\gamma}$ . Similarly, force conversion unit  $C_{\rm F} = \frac{F}{\widetilde{F}}$  is computed based on dimensional analysis:

$$[F] = N = kg.m.s^{-2} = C_{\rho} \frac{C_{L}^{4}}{C_{t}^{2}}.$$
 (A.5)

From Eq. (A.5), the force conversion coefficient expresses:

$$C_F = \frac{F}{\widetilde{F}} = C_\rho \frac{C_{\rm L}^4}{C_t^2}.\tag{A.6}$$

 $<sup>\</sup>overline{^{13}}$ Usually, for the sake of simplicity, the conversion factor of density is unity  $C_{
ho}=1$ 

756 Appendix A.2. Choice of LBM parameters

instabilities.

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In order to accurately model real multiphase fluids, one should choose wisely his simulation parameters, especially in LBM models. First, the interface width is selected, generally  $\widetilde{W}=5-10$  lu to make the interface smooth enough—as shown in Fig. A.15—to preclude numerical

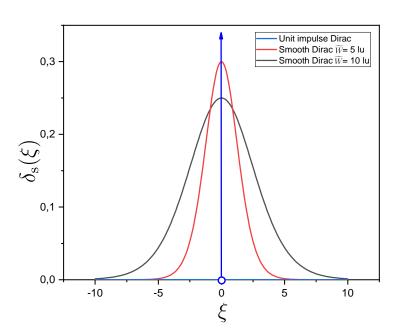


Figure A.15: Smooth Dirac functions for  $\widetilde{W} \in \{5; 10\}$  lu as well as the unit impulse Dirac function.

Next, densities  $\widetilde{\rho}_l$  and  $\widetilde{\rho}_g$  are calculated using Eq. (A.1). As previously mentioned,  $C_{\rho}$  is usually taken as 1 which is the case in all the simulations in this paper. Afterwards,  $C_{\rm L}$  is calculated based on the physical and LBM

characteristic lengths  $L_c$  and  $\widetilde{L}_c$  as follows:  $C_L = \frac{L_c}{\widetilde{L}_c}$ . Following that,  $\widetilde{\gamma}$  is chosen whereby  $C_t$  is calculated using Eq. (A.4). Once the  $C_t$  is determined, the relaxation times  $\widetilde{\tau_h}^{\ell}$  and  $\widetilde{\tau_h}^{g}$  are computed based on the scaling of the liquid and gas viscosities:

$$\nu^{\ell,g} = \underbrace{\widetilde{c}_s^2 \left( \widetilde{\tau}_h^{\ell,g} - \frac{\widetilde{\Delta}t}{2} \right)}_{\widetilde{c}_h^{\ell,g}} \underbrace{\frac{C_\nu}{C_L^2}}_{C_t} \iff \widetilde{\tau}_h^{\ell,g} = \frac{C_t \nu^{\ell,g}}{\widetilde{c}_s^2 C_L^2} + \frac{\widetilde{\Delta}t}{2}. \tag{A.7}$$

According to Krüger et al. (2017), numerical instabilities are observed if the values of  $\tilde{\tau}_h^{\ell,g}$  are too close of  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Moreover,  $\tilde{\gamma}$  determines  $C_t$  whereby relaxation times are calculated.

# 772 Appendix B. Capillary stress tensor characteristics

It can be seen from Figure B.16 that only the diagonal terms are different than zero and roughly equal  $\approx 1.12$  kPa, and the non-diagonal terms are nearly zero  $\approx 7.21 \times 10^{-4}$  kPa. The largest difference between the diagonal terms is 0.15% which is negligible.

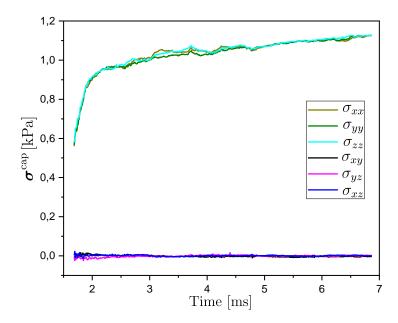


Figure B.16: Capillary stress tensor components  $(\sigma_{xx}, \sigma_{yy}, \sigma_{zz}, \sigma_{xy}, \sigma_{yz}, \sigma_{xz})$  evolution in time for  $S_r = 11.41\%$ .

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