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Macroscopic orientation of inertial flows in porous media

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Abstract

Macroscopic models of inertial flows in porous media have many practical applications where 10 direct numerical simulations are not feasible. The Forchheimer equation describes macroscopic 11 momentum transport accounting for inertial effects at the pore scale through a non-linear cor-12 rection tensor \mathbf{F}_{β} . Using up-scaling approaches such as the volume averaging method, \mathbf{F}_{β} can be 13 determined through the resolution of a closure problem. However this later is non-linear and still 14 depends on the intensity and orientation of the macroscopic flow, complicating its resolution. 15 Moreover, while the influence of the pore Reynolds number on the Forchheimer correction has 16 been studied in details, its dependency on the flow orientation has drawn much less attention. In 17 this work, a system of linearized closure problem is proposed and solved, allowing to determine 18 \mathbf{F}_{β} without the need to solve the full closure problems for each orientation of the macroscopic 19 pressure gradient. The validity of this approach is assessed for various rectangular unit cells 20 against numerical solutions of the corresponding non-linear problem, showing excellent agree-21 22 ment for pore Reynolds number up to unity. Then macroscopic simulations are performed to evaluate the importance of varying flow orientation on the macroscopic inertial flow. Numerical 23 results of the general non-linear macroscopic model obtained by the volume averaging method 24 highlight the necessity to account for extra-diagonal terms as well as macroscopic gradient ori-25 entation in the determination of the Forchheimer tensor. 26

27 **1** Introduction

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Inertial laminar flows in porous media are present in a wide range of environmental or industrial systems such as atmospheric flows in canopies [38,46], geological flows [3,14], and heat exchangers [4, 29, 32]. Although direct numerical simulation (DNS) of such flows can be performed at the pore scale, the complexity of the local geometry as well as the length scale separation between the pore and the macroscopic system require prohibitively massive computing resources for most applications.

This has motivated the use of macroscopic models of transport phenomena in porous media, where macroscopic conservation equations and effective parameters can be obtained by averaging

the local (pore-scale) equations. For incompressible non-inertial flows, averaging Stokes equation 36 results in Darcy's law where the filtration velocity is linearly dependent on the pressure gradient 37 through the intrinsic permeability tensor \mathbf{K}^*_{β} [15, 19, 55]. This linearity holds for pore Reynolds 38 number up to one [54]. Above this value, it is the Navier-Stokes equation that must be homogenized, 39 resulting in a macroscopic equation analogous to Darcy's law but with an additional non-linear 40 term called the Forchheimer tensor \mathbf{F}^*_{β} that accounts for inertial effects [19, 56]. In this case, the 41 macroscopic equation that relates the seepage velocity $\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^* \rangle$ to the macroscopic pressure gradient 42 $\nabla \langle p_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta}$ is known as the Forchheimer equation, and can be written in the absence of gravity as 43

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$$\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle = -\frac{\mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{*}}{\mu_{\beta}} \cdot \nabla \langle p_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} - \mathbf{F}_{\beta} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle = -\frac{\mathbf{H}_{\beta}^{*}}{\mu_{\beta}} \cdot \nabla \langle p_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta}$$
(1)

where $\mathbf{H}_{\beta}^{*} = \left(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{F}_{\beta}^{*}\right)^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{*}$ is the global permeability tensor and μ_{β} is the dynamic viscosity of the fluid. Here and in the rest of this article, the subscript β designates quantities defined in the fluid phase β , and the * exponent indicates dimensional quantities.

Recent studies identified distinct inertial flow regimes corresponding to the onset of inertia 48 effects on the pore scale flow structure [1, 2, 23, 24, 31, 52]. The dependency of the Forchheimer 49 correction with the Reynolds number have been largely discussed in the literature, as detailed for 50 instance in Lasseux et al. 2019 [25]. Briefly, for pore Reynolds number slightly greater than one, 51 a *weak inertia regime* characterized by a cubic correction of Darcy's law was identified. Then 52 for larger pore Reynolds numbers up to hundred, a strong inertia regime showing a quadratic 53 dependency on the pore Reynolds number was found to occur for various geometries of periodic 54 unit cells. Other transition regimes were observed between unsteady laminar and turbulent flows 55 at pore Reynolds number around hundred. In this case, the transient nature of the flow requires a 56 time-averaging procedure that assumes a linear Forchheimer correction [12, 17, 28, 47, 59]. Although 57 this hypothesis is in agreement with experimental observations, its theoretical justification remains 58 unclear. 59

Forchheimer's equation (Eq. (1)) has been derived by Whitaker using the volume averaging 60 method [56] to formally upscale Navier-Stokes from the pore to the macroscopic scale. Note that 61 the form shown in Eq. (1) neglects additional terms arising from the up-scaling procedure, in 62 particular the viscous diffusion term also known as the Brinkman correction. In addition to the 63 macroscopic transport equation, the volume averaging method provides a series of closure problems 64 which solutions allow to determine the effective transport properties involved in the global perme-65 ability tensor. The closure problem associated with the intrinsic permeability is linear while the 66 one associated with the Forchheimer correction is non-linear and still depends on a local velocity 67 field [24–27, 39]. To solve this non-linear problem, it has been proposed to first solve an associated 68 local flow problem on a periodic unit cell for each values of the pore Reynolds number [1, 2, 24, 52]69 and macroscopic pressure gradient orientation [11, 24, 37, 53]. As a result, the Forchheimer tensor 70 is an implicit function of these two dimensionless parameters. 71

Although the dependency of the Forchheimer tensor with the pore Reynolds number has been the subject of several studies leading to the classification of weak inertial flow regimes described above [1,2,23,24,31,39], the influence of the macroscopic pressure gradient orientation has drawn much less attention. Importantly, extra-diagonal components of the tensor are not null when the macroscopic flow is not aligned with the elementary geometry. This aspect can become essential



Figure 1: Schematic of a representative elementary volume (REV) with the definitions of the porescale phases and length scales.

in cases where the orientation of macroscopic flow varies with respect to the porous arrangement,
such as in elbows or curved channels produced by additive manufacturing.

In this work, the effect of the macroscopic flow orientation on the Forchheimer correction tensor 79 is studied in two ways. First, the local inertial flow is up-scaled using the volume averaging 80 method in Section 2. The resulting general closure problem is then linearized in Section 3 by 81 generalizing previous work for arbitrary macroscopic pressure gradient orientation and small pore 82 Reynolds number [7,31,39]. The ability to predict the Forchheimer tensor of this linearized model 83 is assessed on rectangular unit cells through comparisons with the classical non-linear model [24, 84 56] to determine its range of validity in Reynolds number and orientation of the macroscopic 85 pressure gradient. Finally, in Section 4, simulations of macroscopic inertial flow with varying 86 pressure gradient orientation are performed. The prediction of two macroscopic models are assessed 87 against direct numerical simulation. It is shown that, in contrast to diagonal-tensor models often 88 encountered in CFD softwares [11, 37, 53], the non-linear macroscopic model obtained with the 89 volume averaging method is able to correctly capture inertial flow structures and pressure losses in 90 an elbow channel filled with a square porous medium. 91

⁹² 2 Up-scaling inertial flow in porous media

At the pore scale, two phases are considered: a Newtonian fluid (β -phase) and an immobile nonpermeable solid (σ -phase). The flow is assumed incompressible, laminar and steady. The velocity field \mathbf{v}_{β}^{*} and pressure p_{β}^{*} in the fluid β verify the incompressible Navier-Stokes equations with noslip boundary conditions at the fluid-solid interface $A_{\beta\sigma}$. The boundary value problem at the pore ⁹⁷ scale is therefore

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$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} = 0 \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta} \tag{2a}$$

$$\rho_{\beta} \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^* \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^* = -\nabla p_{\beta}^* + \mu_{\beta} \nabla^2 \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^* \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta}$$
(2b)

100
$$\mathbf{v}_{\beta}^* = 0$$
 at $A_{\beta\sigma}$ (2c)

Here ρ_{β} and μ_{β} are the fluid density and dynamic viscosity, while V_{β} is the volume occupied by the β phase (see Fig. 1). Here and along the document, the * exponent denotes dimensional variables. For readability purpose, the notations of the differential operators, volumes and areas, and characteristic lengths are kept without exponents weather they are dimensional or dimensionless.

To proceed to up-scaling by volume averaging, the general methodology [58] is to construct an averaging volume \mathcal{V} of characteristic length r_0 that verifies the length-scales separation $l_{\beta} \ll$ $r_0 \ll L$ where l_{β} and L are the characteristics lengths of the pores and the macroscopic domain respectively (see Fig. 1). The superficial and intrinsic averages on the averaging volume \mathcal{V} are defined respectively as

110
$$\langle \psi_{\beta} \rangle = \frac{1}{\mathcal{V}} \int_{V_{\beta}} \psi_{\beta} dV_{\beta} \text{ and } \langle \psi_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} = \frac{1}{V_{\beta}} \int_{V_{\beta}} \psi_{\beta} dV_{\beta}$$
 (3)

where ψ_{β} is an arbitrary variable defined in the β -phase. These two definitions are related through the volume fraction of the β -phase $\varepsilon_{\beta} = V_{\beta}/\mathcal{V}$ by $\langle \psi_{\beta} \rangle = \varepsilon_{\beta} \langle \psi_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta}$. The averages of differential operators can be expressed using the following averaging theorems [58]

$$\langle \nabla \psi_{\beta} \rangle = \nabla \langle \psi_{\beta} \rangle + \frac{1}{\mathcal{V}} \int_{A_{\beta\sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta\sigma} \psi_{\beta} dA \tag{4a}$$

$$\langle \nabla \cdot \mathbf{a}_{\beta} \rangle = \nabla \cdot \langle \mathbf{a}_{\beta} \rangle + \frac{1}{\mathcal{V}} \int_{A_{\beta\sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{a}_{\beta} dA \tag{4b}$$

where \mathbf{a}_{β} is an arbitrary tensor field of order $n \geq 1$. These expressions involve surface integrals on the fluid-solid interface $A_{\beta\sigma}$ contained in \mathcal{V} and thus allow to take into account the influence pore-scale boundary conditions in the averaged pore-scale equations. Moreover the presence of the local field such as ψ_{β} and \mathbf{a}_{β} in these integrals motivates the introduction of a decomposition of the pore-scale fields using their intrinsic average and a corresponding spatial deviation [21]

$$\psi_{\beta} = \langle \psi_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \tilde{\psi}_{\beta} \tag{5}$$

Making use of these definitions and following the volume averaging method [57, 58, 60, 61], one can upscale the local flow description Eqs. (2) to obtain the non-closed macroscopic transport equations

$$\nabla \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \tag{6a}$$

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$$\rho_{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} \cdot \nabla \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} + \rho_{\beta} \nabla \cdot \langle \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}^{*} \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} = -\nabla \langle p_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} + \mu_{\beta} \nabla^{2} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} + \frac{1}{V_{\beta}} \int_{A_{\beta\sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta\sigma} \cdot \left(-\mathbf{I} \tilde{p}_{\beta}^{*} + \mu_{\beta} \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}^{*} \right) dA$$
 (6b)

The validity of the above equations relies on the assumption of homogeneous porous medium 129 and of the scale separation $(l_{\beta} \ll r_0 \ll L)^{-1}$. Equation (6b) is not closed since the local deviations 130 of the pressure and velocity still appear in the inertial term and in the area integral that represents 131 the friction forces exerted by the solid phase σ on the fluid β . 132

In order to obtain a closed form of the averaged equations, one can write a boundary-value 133 problem verified by the spatial deviations $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}^*_{\beta}$ and \tilde{p}^*_{β} by subtracting the averaged problem (6) 134 to the pore-scale equations (2), and expand the local fields using the decomposition in spatial 135 deviations Eq. (5) [21]. After some simplifications based on the above length-scale constraints, one 136 obtains the local deviation problem [9, 24, 56, 57]137

138
$$\nabla \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}^* = 0 \quad \text{in } V_{\beta}$$
 (7a)

$$\rho_{\beta} \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \cdot \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}^{*} = -\nabla \tilde{p}_{\beta}^{*} + \mu_{\beta} \nabla^{2} \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}^{*} - \frac{1}{V_{\beta}} \int_{A_{\beta\sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta\sigma} \cdot \left(-\mathbf{I} \tilde{p}_{\beta}^{*} + \mu_{\beta} \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}^{*}\right) dA \quad \text{in } V_{\beta}$$
(7b)

140
$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}^* = -\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^* \rangle^{\beta}$$
 on $A_{\beta\sigma}$ (7c)

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}^{*}\left(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{l}_{i}\right) = \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}^{*}\left(\mathbf{r}\right) \quad ; \quad \tilde{p}_{\beta}^{*}\left(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{l}_{i}\right) = \tilde{p}_{\beta}^{*}\left(\mathbf{r}\right) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$
(7d)

142
$$\langle \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \quad ; \quad \langle \tilde{p}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} = 0$$
 (7e)

where \mathbf{l}_i are the periodic vector in the \mathbf{e}_i direction of the periodic unit cell. Here the deviations are 143 supposed to satisfy periodic boundary conditions. Note that this does not suppose that the porous 144 medium is periodic, only that the local problem is solved on a representative unit cell that satisfies 145 the length scale constraints [20, 41, 42, 58]. 146

Since the deviation problem is defined within the averaging volume V_{β} , it is convenient to 147 express the system in terms of the pore Reynolds number 148

$$Re_p = \frac{\rho_\beta v_{ref}\ell}{\mu_\beta} \tag{8}$$

where v_{ref} is a reference velocity constant over V_{β} , and ℓ is a characteristic length of the pore scale. 150 In accordance, the dimensionless local variables and their deviations are defined as 151

152
$$\mathbf{v}_{\beta} = \frac{\mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*}}{v_{ref}} \quad ; \quad p_{\beta} = \frac{p_{\beta}^{*}\ell}{\mu_{\beta}v_{ref}} \quad ; \quad \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta} = \frac{\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}^{*}}{v_{ref}} \quad ; \quad \tilde{p}_{\beta} = \frac{\tilde{p}_{\beta}^{*}\ell}{\mu_{\beta}v_{ref}} \tag{9}$$

In the rest of the document, all lengths are normalized with respect to the arbitrary pore-scale 153 length ℓ except stated otherwise. Therefore the dimensionless deviation problem takes the form 154

 $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta} = -\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta}$ on $A_{\beta\sigma}$

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$$\nabla \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta} = 0 \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta} \tag{10a}$$

$$Re_{p}\mathbf{v}_{\beta}\cdot\nabla\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta} = -\nabla\tilde{p}_{\beta} + \nabla^{2}\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta} - \frac{1}{V_{\beta}}\int_{A_{\beta\sigma}}\mathbf{n}_{\beta\sigma}\cdot\left(-\mathbf{I}\tilde{p}_{\beta} + \nabla\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}\right)dA \quad \text{in } V_{\beta}$$
(10b)

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156

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta} = -\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \quad \text{on} \quad A_{\beta\sigma} \tag{10c}$$
fact, the scale separation should be written $l_{\beta} \ll r_0 \ll (L_v, L_{v2}, L_{p1})$ where L_v, L_{v2} and L_{p1} are characteristic

¹In length-scales of variation of the fields $\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta}$, $\nabla \nabla \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta}$ and $\nabla \langle p_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta}$ respectively. Because these length-scales are of the same order of magnitude as the characteristic length of the macroscopic domain L, assuming the separation of length-scales $l_{\beta} \ll r_0 \ll L$ is usually equivalent to those constraints.

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}\left(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}\right) = \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}\left(\mathbf{r}\right) ; \quad \tilde{p}_{\beta}\left(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}\right) = \tilde{p}_{\beta}\left(\mathbf{r}\right) ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$
(10d)

159

$$\langle \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \quad ; \quad \langle \tilde{p}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \tag{10e}$$

Due to the inertial effects introduced by the term on the left hand side of Eq. (10b), the system 160 is non-linear and non-intrinsic in the sense that it still depends on the value of the flow field. Two 161 approaches are proposed in the next section to deal with this difficulty. 162

3 Determination of the Forchheimer tensor 163

In this section, two approaches are proposed to account for the non-linearity in the deviation 164 problem (10) and to determine the Forchheimer tensor. First a general approach based on [24] 165 relying on the preliminary computation of a local problem for each Reynolds and macroscopic 166 flow orientation is detailed. Then a methodology is proposed to linearize the closure problem, 167 eliminating the need for preliminary local computations. Finally, the value of the Forchheimer 168 tensor computed with the two methods are compared to determine the domain of validity of the 169 linearized approach. 170

3.1The general non-linear closure problem 171

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By analogy with the up-scaling procedure of Stokes flow where the deviation problem is linear, only 172 the macroscopic source term in Eq. (10c) is considered to map the deviations of the velocity and 173 pressure $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}$ and \tilde{p}_{β} as [56] 174

$$\dot{\mathbf{r}}_{\beta} = \mathbf{D} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta}$$
 (11a)

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta} = \mathbf{D} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta}$$
(11a)
$$\tilde{p}_{\beta} = \mathbf{d} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta}$$
(11b)

where \mathbf{D} and \mathbf{d} are dimensionless closure variables. Implicitly, Eqs. (11) assumes that the convec-177 tive velocity is known in the inertial term of Eq. (10b). Although this might seem like a strong 178 simplification of the non-linear closure problem, this practical approximation is widely made in the 179 literature [1, 3, 9, 24, 36, 40, 47, 51, 52, 56, 59], resulting in good predictions of macroscopic models 180 against DNS [10, 30, 47, 48, 50, 59] and consistent with experiments [18]. 181

Introducing Eqs. (11) into Eqs. (6), the closed macroscopic equations describing inertial flow in 182 a porous medium is obtained [24, 40, 56]183

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188

$$\nabla \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \tag{12a}$$

$$\rho_{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} \cdot \nabla \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} = -\nabla \langle p_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} + \mu_{\beta} \nabla^{2} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle^{\beta} - \mu_{\beta} \mathbf{H}_{\beta}^{*-1} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle$$
(12b)

The global permeability tensor $\mathbf{H}_{\beta}^{*} = \mathbf{H}_{\beta}\ell^{2}$ appears as an effective property. It is defined in its 186 dimensionless form as 187

$$\varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{H}_{\beta}^{-1} = -\frac{1}{V_{\beta}} \int_{A_{\beta\sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta\sigma} \cdot \left(-\mathbf{Id} + \nabla \mathbf{D}\right) dA \tag{13}$$

and can be related to the Forchheimer tensor $\mathbf{F}^*_{\beta} = \mathbf{F}_{\beta}$ and the intrinsic permeability tensor 189 $\mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{*} = \mathbf{K}_{\beta}\ell^{2}$ through $\mathbf{H}_{\beta}^{-1} = \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{F}_{\beta})$. Note that when the viscous diffusion term is neglected in Eq. (12b), the well known Darcy-Forchheimer equation (1) is recovered. 190 191

Introducing the closure variable Eqs. (11) into the deviation problem (10), the closure problem 192 193 is obtained [56]

 $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D} = 0$ in V_{β} (14a)

194

$$Re_{p}\mathbf{v}_{\beta}\cdot\nabla\mathbf{D} = -\nabla\mathbf{d} + \nabla^{2}\mathbf{D} - \frac{1}{V_{\beta}}\int_{A_{\beta\sigma}}\mathbf{n}_{\beta\sigma}\cdot\left(-\mathbf{Id} + \nabla\mathbf{D}\right)dA \quad \text{in } V_{\beta}$$
(14b)

196

$$\mathbf{D} (\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}) = \mathbf{D} (\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad \mathbf{d} (\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}) = \mathbf{d} (\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$
(14d)
$$\langle \mathbf{D} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \quad ; \quad \langle \mathbf{d} \rangle^{\beta} = 0$$
(14e)

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This boundary-value problem is integro-differential. To facilitate its numerical resolution, it is 199 convenient to introduce the following change of variables 200

$$\mathbf{D}' = \varepsilon_{\beta}^{-1} (\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{I}) \cdot \mathbf{H}_{\beta} \quad ; \quad \mathbf{d}' = \varepsilon_{\beta}^{-1} \mathbf{d} \cdot \mathbf{H}_{\beta} \tag{15}$$

(14c)

(14e)

to obtain a more practical form of the closure problem 202

 $\mathbf{D} = -\mathbf{I}$ on $A_{\beta\sigma}$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{D}' = 0 \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta} \tag{16a}$$

204
$$Re_p \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{D}' = -\nabla \mathbf{d}' + \nabla^2 \mathbf{D}' + \mathbf{I} \quad \text{in } V_{\beta}$$
(16b)

$$\mathbf{D}' = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{on} \quad A_{\beta\sigma} \tag{16c}$$

206
$$\mathbf{D}'(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_i) = \mathbf{D}'(\mathbf{r}) ; \mathbf{d}'(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_i) = \mathbf{d}'(\mathbf{r}) ; i = 1, 2, 3$$
 (16d)

 $\langle \mathbf{D}' \rangle^{\beta} = \varepsilon_{\beta}^{-1} \mathbf{H}_{\beta} \quad ; \quad \langle \mathbf{d}' \rangle^{\beta} = 0$ (16e)207

The closure problem (16) is non-linear and still depend on the local dimensionless velocity 208 \mathbf{v}_{β} . Lasseux et al. [24] proposed to deal with this non-linearity by introducing the decomposition 209 $p_{\beta} = \langle p_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \tilde{p}_{\beta}$ in the local problem (2), and consider the solution of the system in a representative 210 periodic unit cell 211

 $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}_{\beta} = 0$ in V_{β} (17a)

213
$$Re_p \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{v}_{\beta} = -\nabla \tilde{p}_{\beta} + \nabla^2 \mathbf{v}_{\beta} - \nabla \langle p_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \quad \text{in } V_{\beta}$$
(17b)

214
$$\mathbf{v}_{\beta} = 0 \quad \text{on} \quad A_{\beta\sigma}$$
 (17c)

215
$$\mathbf{v}_{\beta}\left(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}\right) = \mathbf{v}_{\beta}\left(\mathbf{r}\right) \quad ; \quad \tilde{p}_{\beta}\left(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}\right) = \tilde{p}_{\beta}\left(\mathbf{r}\right) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \tag{17d}$$

216
$$\langle \tilde{p}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} = 0$$
 (17e)

Decomposing once more the macroscopic pressure gradient $\nabla \langle p_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} = |\nabla \langle p_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} | \mathbf{e}_{\nabla p}$, it is clear that 217 this form of the local problem is dependent on three dimensionless parameters: the magnitude 218 $|\nabla \langle p_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta}|$ and the orientation $\mathbf{e}_{\nabla p}$ of the macroscopic pressure gradient, as well as the pore Reynolds 219 number $Re_p = \rho_\beta v_{ref} \ell / \mu_\beta$. To reduce this dependency to two parameters, the reference velocity 220 appearing in the pore Reynolds number and the dimensionless variables is taken so that $|\nabla \langle p_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta}| =$ 221 1, that is to say $v_{ref} = |\nabla \langle p_{\beta}^* \rangle^{\beta} |\ell^2 / \mu_{\beta}$ and so $Re_p = \rho_{\beta} |\nabla \langle p_{\beta}^* \rangle^{\beta} |\ell^3 / \mu_{\beta}^2$. It follows that Eq. (17b) 222 simplifies to 223

$$Re_{p}\mathbf{v}_{\beta}\cdot\nabla\mathbf{v}_{\beta} = -\nabla\tilde{p}_{\beta} + \nabla^{2}\mathbf{v}_{\beta} - \mathbf{e}_{\nabla p} \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta}$$
⁽¹⁸⁾

where the only source terms left are the pore Reynolds number and the flow orientation. 225

Knowing \mathbf{v}_{β} from the solution of Eqs. (17) with (18) on a representative elementary volume, one can solve the closure problem (16b) and obtain the global permeability tensor. Note that the dimensionless local velocity field \mathbf{v}_{β} depends on both the orientation of the macroscopic pressure gradient $\mathbf{e}_{\nabla p}$ appearing as a source term, and in Re_p linked to the flow intensity. Therefore the global permeability tensor also depends on these macroscopic dimensionless quantities \mathbf{H}_{β} ($Re_p, \mathbf{e}_{\nabla p}$). The procedure to solve the general non-linear closure problem will be detailed in Section 3.3.

²³² 3.2 The linearized closure problem

In order to deal with the non-linear inertial term in the closure problem and avoid having to solve an associated local problem as presented above, an alternative approach leading to a linearized closure problem is proposed using regular perturbation theory [7,31,39].

Let us consider the dimensionless deviation problem (10). In the case where $Re_p = 0$, the lower limit of a purely viscous Stokes flow is recovered. This suggests to linearize the deviation problem around that special case which is already linear and self-consistent. Using regular perturbation theory, any field ψ_{β} in the deviation equations can be expanded as a power series around Re_p

$$\psi_{\beta} = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} \psi_{\beta k} R e_p^k \tag{19}$$

Using decomposition (19) for the spatial deviations $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}$ and \tilde{p}_{β} and the local velocity \mathbf{v}_{β} , it is possible to convert the non-linear deviation problem (10) into countable series of linearized deviation problems for each order of the Reynolds number Re_p . The details of this linearization procedure are given in Appendix A up to order 2, although the methodology can be applied to any higher order. The main results are summarized here.

The decompositions of the velocity and deviations are introduced in the deviation problem 246 (10), and the terms in the different orders of Reynolds number are gathered. Starting at order 247 0, the terms in Re_p^0 form a system of equations identical to the one obtained for a purely viscous 248 Stokes flow. The deviations at order 0 can then be decomposed in closure variables (\mathbf{B}, \mathbf{b}) that 249 are solution of the same closure system as the one for a Stokes flow. This allows to compute the 250 intrinsic permeability tensor \mathbf{K}_{β} . Then at order 1, collecting the terms in Re_p^1 leads to a deviation 251 problem which structure is similar to an inertial flow, but where the non-linear term only involves 252 terms at order 0. Therefore it can be expressed in terms of the closure variables at order 0 and 253 be treated as a source term. One can then decompose the deviations at order 1 in terms of new 254 closure variables $(\mathcal{C}, \mathbf{C})$ that are the solution of a closure problem at order 1 (Eqs. (A.9)). A new 255 effective tensor \mathcal{H}_{β} can be identified as a correction of the permeability tensor at order 1. The 256 same procedure is carried at order 2, where the non-linear term only depends on variables at lower 257 orders and therefore can be treated as a source term. It is shown that the closure variables at order 258 2, defined as $(\mathscr{E}, \mathscr{E})$, are solution of a closure problem (Eqs. (A.20)), where a new effective tensor 259 \mathcal{J}_{β} correcting the permeability at order 2 is identified. 260

Introducing the definition of the closure variables at different orders in the power series decomposition of the velocity and pressure deviations (Eq. (19)), they can be written as expansions of the macroscopic source terms

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathcal{C} : Re_{p} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathscr{E} : Re_{p}^{2} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \dots$$
(20)

264

$$\tilde{p}_{\beta} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathbf{C} : Re_{p} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathcal{E} : Re_{p}^{2} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \dots$$
(21)

Inserting these decompositions in the non-closed macroscopic equation (6b), and identifying the corrective effective tensors at each order, the linearized form of the global permeability tensor up to second order can be written as

$$\mathbf{H}_{\beta}^{-1} = \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \left(\mathbf{I} + Re_{p}\mathcal{H}_{\beta} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + Re_{p}^{2}\mathscr{J}_{\beta} : \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \dots \right).$$
(22)

²⁷⁰ In this expression, the Forchheimer correction tensor is directly identified as

$$\mathbf{F}_{\beta} = Re_{p}\mathcal{H}_{\beta} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + Re_{p}^{2}\mathscr{J}_{\beta} : \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \dots$$
(23)

This procedure can easily be carried at higher orders, although each additional order requires to solve a new closure problem with each time a higher dimension closure variable. It should be emphasized that, in contrast to the general non-linear approach, each of the effective tensors appearing in the definition above are obtained from the solution of closure problems that are independent of the Reynolds number and pressure gradient orientation, and thus do not require the *a priori* solution of a local flow field velocity. Therefore at the macroscopic scale, the above expression can be directly used in the average equation to determine the velocity and pressure field.

²⁷⁹ 3.3 Influence of the flow intensity and orientation on the Forchheimer tensor

280 3.3.1 Resolution of the closure problems



Figure 2: Example of geometries of the 2D unit cells on which the closure problems were solved (here $\varepsilon_{\beta} = 0.75$).

The non-linear closure problem Eqs. (16) was solved for various values of the pore Reynolds number Re_p and pressure gradient orientations $\mathbf{e}_{\nabla p}$ on the two-dimensional unit cells shown in Fig. 2. Two obstacle geometries were considered: squares and rectangles of aspect ratio 1:2. For each geometry, three volume fractions were examined ($\varepsilon_{\beta} = 0.25, 0.5, \text{ and } 0.75$).

Concerning the linearized approach, each linearized closure problem was solved numerically in an incremental manner, starting from order 0, allowing to solve order 1, and then order 2. In this work, closure problems up to order 2 were solved in order to evaluate the global permeability

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tensor from Eq. (23). Preliminary computations at orders up to 6 were performed but did not show significant improvement on the prediction of the permeability tensor within the range of validity of the linearized closure problem (data not shown).

The closure problems were solved using COMSOL Multiphysics software. The systems having the same structure as the Navier-Stokes equations, the "Laminar Flow" module was used with custom source terms added using the "Volume Force" node. For the linearized closure problem, the same mesh for the three closure problems was used in order to avoid mesh interpolations when computing the source terms.

To facilitate the comparison between the results from the two approaches, a definition of the Reynolds number based on the intrinsic permeability Re_k was used [39]

298

$$Re_{k} = \frac{\rho_{\beta} |\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{*} \rangle | \sqrt{k^{*}}}{\mu_{\beta}} = Re_{p} |\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle | \sqrt{k}$$
(24)

where $k = k^*/\ell^2$ is the mean of the diagonal components of the intrinsic permeability tensor $k = (K_{xx} + K_{yy})/2$, and $|\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^* \rangle| = (\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^* \rangle \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^* \rangle)^{1/2} = |\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle |v_{ref}$. The flow orientation angle θ is defined such as $\mathbf{e}_{\nabla p} = \cos \theta \mathbf{e}_x + \sin \theta \mathbf{e}_y$. In all computations, dimensionless values are given with respect to the characteristic length ℓ representing the size of a unit cell (see Fig. 2).

303 **3.3.2** Computation of the Forchheimer tensor: comparison between non-linear and 304 linearized closure problems

The values of the xx component of the Forchheimer tensor obtained from the numerical solution 305 of the non-linear and linearized closure problems are shown in Fig. 3 as a function of the Reynolds 306 number and pressure gradient orientation. For Reynolds number Re_k up to about 0.1, results from 307 the linearized closure problem are in excellent agreement with the one obtained from the non-linear 308 problem. The component F_{xx} of the Forchheimer correction tensor shows a quadratic dependency 309 on the Reynolds number $\mathbf{F}_{\beta} \sim \mathbf{A} R e_k^2$ as previously reported in the weak inertia regime [1, 24]. 310 Notably, the linearized Forchheimer tensor (Eq. (23)) allows to express the proportionality tensor 311 as $\mathbf{A} = \varepsilon_{\beta}^{-2} k^{-1} \mathscr{J}_{\beta} : \mathbf{e}_{v} \mathbf{e}_{v}$ where $\mathbf{e}_{v} = \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} / |\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta}|$ is the unit vector giving the direction of the 312 averaged velocity on the studied unit cell. This expression assumes that \mathcal{H}_{β} the linearized correction 313 tensor at order 1 is negligible, which is the case for symmetric and periodic unit cells [7, 31, 39] and 314 is numerically verified here. 315

For Reynolds number between 0.1 and 1, the system enters a stronger inertia regime, and the Forcheimer tensor transitions to a linear function of the Reynolds number. Results from the linearized closure problem truncated at order 2 start to deviate from the general non-linear case in a manner that depend on the porosity and flow orientation [39]. Including higher orders for the linearization only improves marginally the range of validity compared to the non-linear closure problem (data not shown).

Fig. 3(d-f) represents the evolution of the component F_{xx} of the Forchheimer correction tensor as a function of the angle θ of the macroscopic pressure gradient for different porosities and fixed Reynolds number Re_k . The agreement between the linearized and non-linear closure problem solutions are confirmed for all flow orientations in the weak inertial regime. With increasing pore Reynolds number above 0.1 and for large porosities, discrepancies between the two approaches are observed.



Figure 3: Comparison between non-linear and linearized component F_{xx} of the Forchheimer correction tensor for a square solid as a function of the pore Reynolds number (a-c), and as a function of the pressure gradient angle (d-f).

For completeness, the closure problems were solved on lower symmetry unit cell, namely rectangular obstacles with aspect ratio 1:2. The xx component of the Forchheimer tensor F_{xx} are shown in 4 for three different porosities as a function of the pore Reynolds number Re_k and flow orientation θ . Similarly to the square unit cell, the linearized closure problem approach shows a good agreement with the non-linear closure problem in the weak inertia regime up to $Re_k \sim 0.3$, but fails to capture the linear dependency on the Reynolds number in the strong inertia regime.

Interestingly, for low porosities ε_{β} , the Forchheimer correction shows a sharp maximum at pressure gradient angle θ equal to $\pi/2$. This behavior can be explained in the limit where the side of the rectangular obstacles reach the vertical boundaries of the unit cell, effectively producing a series of impermeable channels.

A comparison of the computational cost of solving the non-linear versus linear closure problems is presented in Appendix B. Briefly, the computational time required to solve the linear closure problem at order 2 is about nine time larger than for the non-linear problem. However, a single run of the linear problem gives values of the Forchheimer correction for all pore Reynold number Re_k



Figure 4: Comparison between non-linear and linearized component F_{xx} of the Forchheimer correction tensor for a square rectangular as a function of the pore Reynolds number (a-c), and as a function of the pressure gradient angle (d-f).

and flow orientation θ within the domain of validity. This is not the case for the non-linear problem which requires to be solved for each values of the couple (Re_k, θ) . Therefore the linear closure problem is computationally advantageous when a tabulation of at least ten values of (Re_k, θ) is needed.

³⁴⁶ 4 Effect of flow orientation on macroscopic inertial flow

In the previous section, the inertial correction to the permeability was computed as a function of the flow intensity and orientation. Although the linearized approach gave accurate results for a limited range in Reynolds, both approaches highlighted a non-trivial dependency of the Forchheimer tensor with the orientation of the pressure gradient. In order to explore this relationship, macroscopic simulations of the non-linear general model were performed and compared with two methods commonly used in engineering studies: direct numerical simulations (DNS) and diagonal-tensor macroscopic models.

³⁵⁴ 4.1 Implementation of the macroscopic models

355 4.1.1 General non-linear macroscopic model

For convenience, the macroscopic transport equations (Eqs. (12a) and (12b)) are normalized with respect to a global macroscopic velocity U, representing in our case the bulk velocity imposed at the inlet of the macroscopic system. Written in their superficial form, the closed averaged equations are

360

$$\nabla \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{+} \rangle = 0 \tag{25a}$$

361 362

$$\varepsilon_{\beta}^{-2} Re_U \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^+ \rangle \cdot \nabla \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^+ \rangle = -\nabla \langle p_{\beta}^+ \rangle^{\beta} + \varepsilon_{\beta}^{-1} \nabla^2 \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^+ \rangle - \mathbf{H}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^+ \rangle$$
(25b)

where the global Reynolds number is $Re_U = \rho_\beta U \ell / \mu_\beta$, $\mathbf{v}^+_\beta = \mathbf{v}^*_\beta / U$, and $p^+_\beta = p^*_\beta \ell / (\mu_\beta U)$. Note that because ℓ is used as the reference length scale in both the pore and global Reynolds numbers Re_p 363 364 and Re_{U} respectively, the definition of the dimensionless effective tensor \mathbf{H}_{β} remains unchanged. 365 Additionally, it is worth noticing that the global Reynolds number Re_U reflects the effect of the 366 macroscopic boundary conditions on the system and is constant within the whole domain, while 367 the pore Reynolds number Re_p reflects the flow intensity and orientation at every point of the 368 continuous macroscopic porous medium, and is therefore space dependent. This later affects the 369 values of the effective tensor. For this reason the global permeability tensor \mathbf{H}_{β} was tabulated 370 over a range of pore Reynolds numbers and pressure gradient orientations by solving the non-371 linear closure problem on a two dimensional square unit cell (see Section 3.1 for details). The 372 macroscopic transport equations (Eqs. (25)) with a space-dependent permeability tensor were then 373 solved numerically on the macroscopic domain. 374

As shown in Fig. 5, three macroscopic geometries were considered: a two-dimensional straight 375 pipe, an elbow and a diverging pipe of 1:3 expansion ratio, all partially filled with a porous medium 376 of constant porosity $\varepsilon_{\beta 0} = 0.75$ constituted of an array of squares. A symmetry boundary condition 377 is imposed at the top wall of the straight and diverging pipes, so that the total height of the channel 378 in both geometries is 20ℓ at the inlet. The system is constituted of fluid domains at the inlet and 379 outlet, and a porous domain in the center of the pipes. A fully developed parabolic flow is imposed 380 at the entrance, while a zero pressure is imposed at the outlet, and a no-slip boundary condition is 381 imposed at the pipe walls 382

$$\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{+} \rangle = \frac{3}{2} \left(\frac{2y}{h} - \frac{y^{2}}{h^{2}} \right) \mathbf{e}_{x}$$
 at inlet (26a)

385

$$\langle p_{\beta}^{+} \rangle^{\beta} = 0$$
 at outlet (26b)

6c)

$$\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{+} \rangle = 0$$
 at pipe walls (2)

with h = 10 the half height of the channel (see Fig. 5). As a reminder, all lengths are normalized with the pore length scale ℓ representing the size of a unit cell (see Fig. 2). Note that since the inlet and outlet are fully fluid domains, the averages are equivalent to the point fluid velocity and pressures.

In order to avoid to deal with boundary conditions at the fluid-porous interfaces, a one-domain modeling approach is adopted [10, 13, 22]. The principle is based on the observation that in the limit where the porosity tends to 1 ($\varepsilon_{\beta} \rightarrow 1$), the inverse of the permeability tensor tends to 0



Figure 5: Geometries used for the macroscopic simulations. (a) Two-dimensional pipe partially filled with resolved square obstacles used for DNS. (b) Two-dimensional pipe partially filled with an effective continuous porous region. (c) Two-dimensional elbow partially filled with resolved square obstacles used for DNS. (d) Two-dimensional elbow partially filled with an effective continuous porous region. (e) Two-dimensional diverging pipe with expansion ratio 1:3 partially filled with resolved square obstacles used for DNS. (f) Two-dimensional diverging pipe with expansion ratio 1:3 partially filled with an effective continuous porous region.

 $(\mathbf{H}_{\beta}^{-1} \to 0)$, so that the macroscopic equations (12a) and (12b) tend to the incompressible Navier-393 Stokes equations. Therefore they can be solved on the entire domain, provided that the porosity 394 depends on space such as $\varepsilon_{\beta}(\mathbf{x}) = 1$ in the fluid region, and $\varepsilon_{\beta}(\mathbf{x}) = \varepsilon_{\beta 0} = 0.75$ in the porous region. 395 To facilitate the transition from the fluid to porous regions, a smooth function of the porosity was 396 built based on resolved fluid porous-interfaces used for direct numerical simulations (DNS) (see 397 Fig. 5). Briefly, the space dependent porosity was defined as the cellular average of the β -phase 398 indicator function [30, 41, 42] leading to a smooth transition of the porosity with a linear slope. 399 Finally, to ease the evaluation of the effective permeability tensor at the fluid-porous interfacial 400 region without having to compute it for the whole range of porosity, its values in the transition 401

⁴⁰² regions was assumed to follow

403

$$\mathbf{H}_{\beta}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}) = \gamma_{tr}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{H}_{\beta}^{-1}(Re_{p}, \theta)$$
(27)

where the region-indicator function was defined as $\gamma_{tr}(\mathbf{x}) = [1 - \varepsilon_{\beta}(\mathbf{x})] / [1 - \varepsilon_{\beta 0}]$. Note that this approach can be applied only to the fluid-porous interface, but not to the solid-porous interface. To avoid singular values at the solid-porous interface, values of the region-indicator functions were computed in the bulk of the pipes/elbow and were then extrapolated using constant extrapolation through the cross-section.

409 4.1.2 Direct numerical simulations and diagonal tensor model

For validation, results from the general non-linear model were compared against two common approaches to model inertial flows in porous media: direct numerical simulations (DNS), and macroscopic momentum transport models with a diagonal global permeability tensor.

Direct numerical simulations (DNS) As a reference case against which to validate the results 413 from the macroscopic models, DNS were performed. In this case, the geometric details of the porous 414 medium are resolved (see Fig. 5a & c), and the incompressible Navier-Stokes equation are solved 415 in the whole fluid domain including in the pore space. The same boundary conditions Eqs. (26) 416 were applied at the inlet, outlet, and pipe walls with the averages equal to the point velocities and 417 pressures. Additionally, a no-slip boundary condition was set at the fluid-solid interface between the 418 fluid and the square obstacles constituting the porous medium. In order to facilitate comparisons 419 with the homogenized macroscopic models, the velocity and pressure fields were averaged using the 420 cellular average [16, 41-45]. 421

Diagonal tensor model simulations As a complementary comparison, the non-linear general 422 model was compared to a commonly used macroscopic version where the global permeability tensor 423 is diagonal and independent of the macroscopic flow orientation [11, 37]. Such model is routinely 424 used in state of the art CFD softwares, where instead of solving a closure problem to determine the 425 components of the permeability tensor, an incompressible flow at a given Reynolds number is solved 426 on a representative volume, and the diagonal components of the permeability tensor are obtained 427 by relating the mass flow rate to the pressure drop through a simplified Darcy-Forchheimer law 428 $\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta}^{+} \rangle = -\mathbf{H}_{\beta}(Re_{p}) \cdot \nabla \langle p_{\beta}^{+} \rangle^{\beta}.$ 429

430 4.1.3 Numerical implementation

All models were solved numerically using the finite element commercial software COMSOL Multiphysics 6.1 with the "Laminar Flow" module. The additional macroscopic terms were implemented as volume forces in order to obtain their values iteratively in the domain. For the general non-linear macroscopic model, the values of the inertial permeability tensor were tabulated *a priori* using the results of the non-linear general closure problem. The tabulated values were interpolated linearly with respect to the pore Reynolds number and the angle of the superficial averaged velocity.



Figure 6: Comparison of macroscopic results of an inertial flow at global Reynolds number $Re_U = 30$ in a pipe partially filled with a porous medium constituted of square obstacles of porosity $\varepsilon_{\beta} = 0.75$. (a) Magnitude of the cellular average of the velocity field obtained from DNS. (b) Magnitude of the superficial average of the velocity field obtained from the diagonal tensor model. (c) Magnitude of the superficial average of the velocity field obtained from the general non-linear model. (d) Cross section average pressure (cellular for DNS, intrinsic for homogenized models) as a function of x.

437 4.2 Macroscopic simulation results

⁴³⁸ Macroscopic simulations of inertial flows in conduits filled with porous media were first performed ⁴³⁹ for validation in a straight pipe filled with a porous medium. Then, to assess the influence of the ⁴⁴⁰ extra-diagonal terms and of the macroscopic pressure gradient orientation on the global permeabil-⁴⁴¹ ity tensor, an elbow filled with porous medium was considered. In all cases, values of the global ⁴⁴² Reynolds number $Re_U = \rho_\beta U \ell / \mu_\beta$ were tested for 1, 10, 30, and 50. Finally, a diverging pipe ⁴⁴³ geometry was considered.

444 4.2.1 Inertial flow in a straight pipe partially filled with a porous medium

Fig. 6 compares the simulations results from the three models for of an inertial flow with global 445 Reynolds number $Re_U = 30$ in a two-dimensional pipe partially filled with a porous medium. The 446 averaged DNS simulations hold as the reference against which the homogenized models, namely 447 the diagonal tensor model and the general non-linear model, are compared. As seen in Fig. 6, very 448 little difference is observed between the models. All three models show a very good agreement in 449 the inlet fluid region, validating the use of the one-domain approach to describe the fluid part. In 450 the central porous region, the flow becomes uniform. It can be noticed that the two homogenized 451 models slightly under-predict the thickness of the wall boundary layer at the porous-solid interface 452 compared to DNS. Finally, in the outlet fluid region, although the homogenized models capture 453 the overall flow behavior, they fail to predict the small recirculation zone at the corner between 454

Table 1: Dimensionless pressure loss between inlet and outlet of a pipe partially filled with a porous medium as a function for different values of the global Reynolds numbers for DNS and the two homogenized models.

	$\Delta \langle p_{\beta}^{+} \rangle^{\beta}$			Relative difference to DNS $(\%)$	
Re_U	DNS	Diag. tensor	Gen. non-linear	Diag. tensor	Gen. non-linear
0	1618	1566	1566	3.2	3.2
1	1618	1566	1566	3.2	3.2
10	1641	1583	1583	3.5	3.5
30	1714	1630	1634	4.9	4.7
50	1771	1657	1668	6.5	5.8

the fluid-porous interface and the wall, as predicted by DNS. These limitations of the homogenized models are due to the difficulty to define a representative elementary volume that satisfies the length-scale separation close to a wall or a fluid interface. Although some jump conditions have been proposed for two-domain approaches [5,6,8,33–35], these are generally limited to non-inertial flows. More recently a methodology to account for the influence of porous media macroscopic boundaries on inertial flows was proposed [50]. Such model refinements are out of the scope of the current study.

As seen in Fig. 6d, the evolution of the cross section average of the pressure as a function of the distance from the entrance also show very similar results between the three models, although both homogenized models slightly under-predict the inlet pressure by less than 5% compared to DNS. Given that the outlet pressure is set to zero, these results point to the fact that the homogenized models underestimate the singular head losses at the fluid-porous interfaces and the distributed head-losses at the porous-wall interfaces, leading to an overall lower pressure loss between the inlet and outlet.

Simulations for various global Reynolds number up to $Re_U = 50$ were performed, giving the 469 same qualitative behavior as for the case $Re_U = 30$ (data not shown). For completeness, the total 470 pressure drop and their relative difference with the DNS results are summarized in Table 1. Relative 471 differences in pressure losses of the two homogenized models compared to DNS remain lower than 472 7% for all the cases considered, confirming the relevance of these models. The general non-linear 473 model and diagonal tensor models are equivalent at low global Reynolds number, with a relative 474 difference in pressure loss compared to DNS remaining blow 3.5% for $Re_U = 10$. This relative 475 difference in pressure loss increases with larger values of the Reynolds number, with the diagonal 476 tensor model having larger differences than the general non-linear model. This discrepancy can be 477 explained by the appearance of recirculation zones with increasing Reynolds numbers, leading to 478 local streamlines having a non-zero angle with the x-axis. Although the influence of flow orientation 479 in the unit cell is accounted for in the general non-linear model during the determination of the 480 effective permeability tensor, this is not the case in the diagonal tensor model. 481

To investigate further the effect of flow orientation on inertial flow in porous media, an elbow partially filled with a porous medium is considered in the next section.



Figure 7: Comparison of macroscopic results of inertial flows in a 90° elbow partially filled with a porous medium constituted of square obstacles of porosity $\varepsilon_{\beta} = 0.75$. Results are shown for three global Reynolds numbers: (a, d, g, j) $Re_U = 1$, (b, e, h, k) $Re_U = 30$, (c,f, i, l) $Re_U = 50$. (a-c) Magnitude of the cellular average of the velocity field obtained from DNS. (d-f) Magnitude of the superficial average of the velocity field obtained from the diagonal tensor model. (g-i) Magnitude of the superficial average of the velocity field obtained from the general non-linear model. (j-l) Cross section average pressure (cellular for DNS, superficial for homogenized models) as a function of the arclength s.

484 4.2.2 Inertial flow in an elbow partially filled with a porous medium

In order to test the importance of the pressure gradient orientation on the macroscopic inertial flow in a porous medium, the three models were solved in a 90° elbow partially filled with a porous medium (see Fig. 5c & d). Importantly, the porous medium is the same as the one used in the straight pipe, namely square obstacles of porosity $\varepsilon_{\beta} = 0.75$ where the unit cell geometry is not rotated to follow the curvature of the domain. As a consequence, the angle between the average flow and the *x*-axis of the square obstacle varies from 0° at the entrance of the porous medium to -90° at its exit.

Comparison between the results obtained by DNS, the diagonal-tensor macroscopic model, and 492 the general non-linear macroscopic model are presented in Fig. 7 for global Reynolds number of 493 $Re_U = 1, 30, \text{ and } 50$. At $Re_U = 1$, the velocity profiles obtained for the macroscopic simulations are 494 very similar to the one obtained from averaged DNS. Although averaged DNS results show some 495 oscillations in average velocity field close to the walls due the contact of some solid obstacles with 496 the wall, overall the three simulations predict a constant averaged velocity profile along the length 497 of the porous region. For larger global Reynolds numbers of $Re_U = 30$ and 50, inertial effects induce 498 variations of the average velocity profile along the length of the elbow, as shown by the averaged 499 DNS (Fig. 7e & i). This behavior is not captured by the diagonal tensor model which predicts a 500 constant average velocity profile in each section of the porous region (Fig. 7f & j). In contrast, the 501 general non-linear model does reproduce well the non-uniform velocity profile predicted by DNS 502 (Fig. 7g & k). The difference between the predictions of the two homogenized model increases with 503 the global Reynolds number as inertial effects become more and more present. Interestingly, it is 504 clear from the streamlines at $Re_U = 30$ and 50 that the inertial flow follows preferential paths at 505 angles $\theta = 0$, $\pi/4$, and $\pi/2$ as shown in the DNS and general closure model. This is due to the 506 choice of the unit cell geometry with the regular arrangement of square obstacles. 507

The difference of predictions between the homogenized models is even more evident from the 508 values of the averaged intrinsic pressures. The evolution of the cross-section averaged pressure 509 along the length of the elbow is shown in Fig. 7d, h, & l, and the values of the pressure losses 510 and relative difference to DNS are given in Table 2. As inertial effects increase, both DNS and the 511 general non-linear model predict a significantly larger pressure loss between the inlet and outlet 512 (more than a 40% increase in pressure at $Re_U = 50$ compared to $Re_U = 1$), as well as a deviation 513 from a linear pressure evolution in the porous region. In contrast, the diagonal tensor model only 514 predicts a mild increase in pressure (about 5% at $Re_U = 50$ compared to $Re_U = 1$) and maintains 515 a linear decrease in pressure along the elbow. Importantly, in the fully inertial regime, the general 516 non-linear model remains within the 5% of the pressure drop predicted by DNS, while the diagonal 517 tensor model shows differences up to 42.6% at $Re_U = 50$. 518

The ability of the general non-linear model to capture realistically the variation of average 519 velocity field along the elbow is due to the dependency of the global permeability tensor on the 520 pressure gradient orientation. Indeed, in the elbow the flow is diverted by a 90° angle while the 521 unit cell geometry remains with the same orientation. As a consequence, the global permeability 522 tensor displays non-negligible extra-diagonal terms and a dependency of its components to the flow 523 orientation compared to the unit cell geometry. While these two features are accounted for in the 524 general non-linear model, they are not captured in the diagonal tensor model which fails to account 525 for the change of tortuosity and permeability (including inertial corrections) induced by the change 526

Table 2: Pressure loss between inlet and outlet of a 90° elbow partially filled with a porous medium as a function for different values of the global Reynolds numbers for DNS and the two homogenized models.

	$\Delta \langle p_{\beta}^{+} \rangle^{\beta}$			Relative difference to DNS $(\%)$	
Re_U	DNS	Diag. tensor	Gen. non-linear	Diag. tensor	Gen. non-linear
0	3611	3508	3508	2.8	2.8
1	3617	3510	3519	3.0	2.7
10	3846	3550	3729	7.7	3.0
30	4995	3659	4811	26.8	3.7
50	6491	3727	6173	42.6	4.9

⁵²⁷ of flow orientation relative to the pore unit geometry.

528 4.2.3 Inertial flow in a diverging pipe partially filled with a porous medium

Finally, a diverging pipe filled with a porous medium is considered (see Fig. 5e-f). A Reynolds 529 number of $Re_{U} = 50$ is imposed at the entrance to ensure a strong inertial but laminar flow regime. 530 As seen in Fig. 8, the general observations on the different macroscopic models are similar to the 531 ones from the elbow geometry: the diagonal model fails to capture the change of average velocity 532 orientation and predicts a more uniform flow field than the one obtained with the general closure 533 model which is much closer to DNS results. Some discrepancies between the general model and 534 DNS remain, particularly near the pipe walls due to the macroscopic boundary layer and at the 535 fluid/porous interfaces. Once again, the evolution of the section average pressure along the channel 536 shows that the diagonal model largely under-predicts the head loss (19.5% difference with DNS) 537 while the general model successfully predicts the head loss within 3.05% of the DNS values. 53

539 5 Conclusion

Incompressible inertial flows in porous media are well described by the Forchheimer equation, where 540 inertial effects are accounted for through a corrective tensor \mathbf{F}_{β} to the intrinsic permeability. Using 541 up-scaling techniques such as the volume averaging method [24, 56], one can compute the effective 542 tensor from the solution of a non-linear closure problem on a representative unit cell. However 543 this closure problem requires that, for each flow orientation and for each pore Reynolds number, an 544 associated local problem must be solved before solving the non-linear closure problem. To deal with 545 this difficulty, in this work, a linearized approach where the resulting linear closure problems are 546 independent of the flow orientation was proposed and assessed. Then, macroscopic simulations were 547 carried to study the importance of the macroscopic flow orientation, highlighting the importance 548 of extra-diagonal components in the Forchheimer correction tensor. 549

The non-linear closure problem obtained with the volume averaging method [24] was linearized into a series of linear problems independent of the macroscopic flow orientation. This procedure is a generalization of previous works for weakly inertial flows [7,31,39] leading to linear and intrinsic closure problems independent of the macroscopic flow orientation. Developments were pushed up to order 2 with respect to the pore Reynolds number, resulting in a Forchheimer correction expressed as a quadratic polynomial of Re_k . The limit of validity of this approach was assessed by comparison



Figure 8: Comparison of macroscopic results of an inertial flow at global Reynolds number $Re_U = 50$ in a diverging pipe with expansion ratio 1:3, partially filled with a porous medium constituted of square obstacles of porosity $\varepsilon_{\beta} = 0.75$. (a) Magnitude of the cellular average of the velocity field obtained from DNS. (b) Magnitude of the superficial average of the velocity field obtained from the diagonal tensor model. (c) Magnitude of the superficial average of the velocity field obtained from the general non-linear model. (d) Cross section average pressure (cellular for DNS, intrinsic for homogenized models) as a function of x.

with a general non-linear closure problem. The effect of flow orientation and intensity was studied for different square and rectangle unit cell geometries, showing a good match between the linearized and general non-linear models up to pore Reynolds number Re_k of the order one. The linearized quadratic model was able to accurately predict the weak inertia regime [2, 23, 24, 39] for different flow orientations. The generality of the presented method allows to expand to higher orders, but at the cost of increasing tensor order leading to exponential numerical difficulties.

To assess the effect of flow orientation on the extra-diagonal terms of the correction tensor, 562 macroscopic simulations were conducted for Reynolds number up to 50 in straight and 90° elbow 563 conduits filled with porous media. Results from the macroscopic general non-linear model were 564 compared against a diagonal macroscopic model commonly used in engineering applications [11, 565 37,53]. In the straight conduit, due to the flow orientation being constant, no significant difference 566 were observed between diagonal and general non-linear models. However, in the case where the 567 flow orientation varies along the elbow conduit, the diagonal model was unable to predict the non-568 homogeneous velocity field along the channel's length, leading to a under-prediction of the pressure 569 loss by more than 40% at $Re_U = 50$ compared to DNS. In contrast, the general diagonal model 570 captured well the average velocity field, and predicted a pressure loss within 5% of the values 571 obtained by DNS. Qualitatively similar conclusions were obtained on a diverging pipe reproducing 572 a progressive expansion flow. 573

All together, this work highlights the importance of macroscopic pressure orientation on the global permeability tensor in inertial flow in porous media. Further developments to improve the prediction of the macroscopic inertial flow include introducing accurate jump conditions [5, 6, 8] or profile transition at fluid-porous and solid-porous interfaces [10, 22, 33, 48–50]. Concerning the proposed linearization approach, future applications to transfers where the critical phenomenon occurs with a dimensionless number below one might be particularly relevant, such as in weakly compressible and dilatable flows.

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732 Statements and declarations

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739 APPENDIX

$_{740}$ A Linearization of the closure problem associated with inertial flow

Based on regular perturbation theory, any field ψ_{β} in the deviation problem (10) is expanded as a power series around Re_p

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$$\psi_{\beta} = \sum_{k=0}^{+\infty} \psi_{\beta k} R e_p^k \tag{A.1}$$

This leads to a self-sufficient series of linear deviation problems for each order of the Reynolds number Re_p . Here the details of their derivation and the procedure to obtain the corresponding closure problem are detailed up to order 2, although the methodology can be easily applied to higher orders.

749 Order k = 0

First, the closure problem at order 0 is developed as the reference case of the linearization. This corresponds to the limit case where $Re_p = 0$

$$\nabla \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0} = 0 \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta} \tag{A.2a}$$

753
$$0 = -\nabla \tilde{p}_{\beta 0} + \nabla^2 \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0} - \frac{1}{V_{\beta}} \int_{A_{\beta \sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta \sigma} \cdot \left(-\mathbf{I} \tilde{p}_{\beta 0} + \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0}\right) dA \quad \text{in } V_{\beta} \tag{A.2b}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0} = -\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \quad \text{on} \quad A_{\beta \sigma} \tag{A.2c}$$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0} \left(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}} \right) = \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0} \left(\mathbf{r} \right) \quad ; \quad \tilde{p}_{\beta 0} \left(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}} \right) = \tilde{p}_{\beta 0} \left(\mathbf{r} \right) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$
(A.2d)

756
$$\langle \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \quad ; \quad \langle \tilde{p}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} = 0$$
 (A.2e)

which is exactly the spatial deviation problem for a Stokes flow at the pore-scale. Because it is linear and self-consistent, it is possible to use the superposition principle to express the spatial deviations $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0}$ and $\tilde{p}_{\beta 0}$ as a function of the only macroscopic source term $\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta}$

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \tag{A.3a}$$

$$\tilde{p}_{\beta 0} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \tag{A.3b}$$

Here \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{b} are closure variable that are solution of the closure problem at order 0

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta} \tag{A.4a}$$

764
$$0 = -\nabla \mathbf{b} + \nabla^2 \mathbf{B} + \varepsilon_\beta \mathbf{K}_\beta^{-1} \quad \text{in } V_\beta \tag{A.4b}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = -\mathbf{I} \quad \text{on} \quad A_{\beta\sigma} \tag{A.4c}$$

766
$$\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{i}) = \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}) ; \mathbf{b}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{i}) = \mathbf{b}(\mathbf{r}) ; i = 1, 2, 3$$
 (A.4d)

(A.4e)
$$\langle \mathbf{B} \rangle^{\beta} = 0$$
 ; $\langle \mathbf{b} \rangle^{\beta} = 0$

⁷⁶⁸ where the intrinsic permeability is defined as

$$\varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} = -\frac{1}{V_{\beta}} \int_{A_{\beta\sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta\sigma} \cdot (-\mathbf{I}\mathbf{b} + \nabla \mathbf{B}) \, dA \tag{A.5}$$

Similarly to the closure problem (14), the above system can easily be written in the form of an incompressible Stokes flow with no-slip boundary conditions using the following change of variable [58]: $\mathbf{B}' = \varepsilon_{\beta}^{-1} (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{I}) \cdot \mathbf{K}_{\beta}$ and $\mathbf{b}' = \varepsilon_{\beta}^{-1} \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{K}_{\beta}$

The solution of the closure problem at order 0 on a unit cell gives the value of the intrinsic permeability tensor \mathbf{K}_{β} . Moreover, the values of the closure variables **B** and **b** will be needed to solve the linearized closure problems at higher order. These properties is linked to the linearization method and motivates the need to solve the closure problems in a recursive way in order to linearized the results for high orders of the Reynolds number.

778 **Order** k = 1

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Identifying the terms in Re^1 in the power-series decomposition of the deviation problem, one gets the linearized spatial deviation problem at order 1

781
$$\nabla \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} = 0$$
 in V_{β} (A.6a)

²
$$\mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \cdot \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0} = -\nabla \tilde{p}_{\beta 1} + \nabla^2 \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} - \frac{1}{V_{\beta}} \int_{A_{\beta \sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta \sigma} \cdot (-\mathbf{I} \tilde{p}_{\beta 1} + \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1}) \, dA \quad \text{in } V_{\beta}$$
 (A.6b)

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} = -\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} \quad \text{on} \quad A_{\beta \sigma} \tag{A.6c}$$

784
$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} \left(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{i}} \right) = \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} \left(\mathbf{r} \right) \quad ; \quad \tilde{p}_{\beta 1} \left(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{i}} \right) = \tilde{p}_{\beta 1} \left(\mathbf{r} \right) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \tag{A.6d}$$

785
$$\langle \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \quad ; \quad \langle \tilde{p}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \tag{A.6e}$$

Note that the term $\mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \cdot \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0}$ is at order 0. Thanks to the spacial decomposition of the velocity and (A.3a), it can be expressed using the zero order closure variables as

788
$$\mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \cdot \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0} = \left[(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{I}) \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \right] \cdot \left(\nabla \mathbf{B} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \right)$$
789
$$= \left[(\nabla \mathbf{B})^{T_{(123)}} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{I}) \right] : \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta}$$

where the transpose operator is defined as $\mathcal{A}^{T_{(123)}} = (\mathcal{A}_{ijk}\mathbf{e}_i\mathbf{e}_j\mathbf{e}_k)^{T_{(123)}} = \mathcal{A}_{kij}\mathbf{e}_i\mathbf{e}_j\mathbf{e}_k$ for a third order tensor \mathcal{A} . Using this expression, the spatial deviation problem can be written in a more explicit form that exhibits different macroscopic source terms

$$\nabla \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} = 0 \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta} \tag{A.7a}$$

$$\left[(\nabla \mathbf{B})^{T_{(123)}} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{I}) \right] : \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta}$$
(A.7b)

793

$$= -\nabla \tilde{p}_{\beta 1} + \nabla^2 \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} - \frac{1}{V_{\beta}} \int_{A_{\beta \sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta \sigma} \cdot \left(-\mathbf{I} \tilde{p}_{\beta 1} + \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} \right) dA \quad \text{in } V_{\beta}$$
(A.7b)

795
$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} = -\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta}$$
 on $A_{\beta \sigma}$ (A.7c)

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1}\left(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}\right) = \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1}\left(\mathbf{r}\right) \quad ; \quad \tilde{p}_{\beta 1}\left(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}\right) = \tilde{p}_{\beta 1}\left(\mathbf{r}\right) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \tag{A.7d}$$

$$\langle \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \quad ; \quad \langle \tilde{p}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \tag{A.7e}$$

This last problem is linear and self-consistent because the closure variables **B** and **b** have been solved previously at order 0. Moreover, two macroscopic source terms are identified. The first one $\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta}$ appears in the boundary condition and is very similar to the macroscopic source term at order 0. The second one $\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta}$ is new and arises in the momentum balance equation at order 1 due to the coupling between order 0 and 1. Using the superposition principle, the spatial deviations $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1}$ and $\tilde{p}_{\beta 1}$ can be mapped using the macroscopic source terms

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797

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathcal{C} : \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta}$$
(A.8a)

$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{v}}_{\beta 1} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathbf{C} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta}$$
(A.8b)
$$\tilde{\boldsymbol{n}}_{\beta 1} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathbf{C} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta}$$

where **B** and **b** are the closure variables that solve the same closure problem as previously introduced at order 0, and C and **C** are two new closure variables introduced for the second source term. They verify the following closure problem at order 1

$$\nabla \cdot \mathcal{C} = 0 \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta} \tag{A.9a}$$

810
$$\left[(\nabla \mathbf{B})^{T_{(123)}} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{I}) \right] = -\nabla \mathbf{C} + \nabla^2 \mathcal{C} - \frac{1}{V_\beta} \int_{A_{\beta\sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta\sigma} \cdot (-\mathbf{I}\mathbf{C} + \nabla \mathcal{C}) \, dA \quad \text{in } V_\beta \tag{A.9b}$$

811
$$C = 0$$
 on $A_{\beta\sigma}$ (A.9c)

⁸¹²
$$\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}) = \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}) = \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$
 (A.9d)

813
$$\langle \mathcal{C} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \quad ; \quad \langle \mathbf{C} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \tag{A.9e}$$

The solution of this problem only depends on the geometry of the unit cell, and not on the Reynolds number nor the macroscopic pressure gradient orientation. Once again, to deal with the integrodifferential nature of this problem, it is convenient to define

$$\varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \mathcal{H}_{\beta} = -\frac{1}{V_{\beta}} \int_{A_{\beta\sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta\sigma} \cdot (-\mathbf{IC} + \nabla \mathcal{C}) \, dA \tag{A.10}$$

where \mathcal{H}_{β} can be interpreted as a correction to the intrinsic permeability to account for inertial effects contributing to the global permeability tensor \mathbf{H}_{β} at order 1. The surface integral being constant within a given unit cell, $\varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \mathcal{H}_{\beta}$ can be seen as a constant source term. This suggests to proceed once more to a change of variable

$$\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}' + \mathscr{S} : \varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \mathcal{H}_{\beta} \quad ; \quad \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{C}' + \mathcal{S} : \varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \mathcal{H}_{\beta} \tag{A.11}$$

so that the integro-differential closure problem can be decomposed into two purely differential problems

$$\nabla \cdot \mathcal{C}' = 0 \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta} \tag{A.12a}$$

$$[(\nabla \mathbf{B})^{T_{(123)}} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{I})] = -\nabla \mathbf{C}' + \nabla^2 \mathcal{C}' \quad \text{in } V_\beta$$
(A.12b)

$$\mathcal{C}' = 0 \quad \text{on} \quad A_{\beta\sigma} \tag{A.12c}$$

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$$\mathcal{C}'(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_i) = \mathcal{C}'(\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad \mathbf{C}'(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_i) = \mathbf{C}'(\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$
 (A.12d)

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 $\langle \mathbf{C}' \rangle^{\beta} = 0$ (A.12e)

and 830

$$\nabla \cdot \mathscr{S} = 0 \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta} \tag{A.13a}$$

$$0 = -\nabla S + \nabla^2 S + \mathscr{I} \quad \text{in } V_\beta \tag{A.13b}$$

$$\mathscr{S} = 0 \quad \text{on} \quad A_{\beta\sigma} \tag{A.13c}$$

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$$\mathscr{S}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}) = \mathscr{S}(\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad \mathscr{S}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}) = \mathscr{S}(\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \quad (A.13d)$$

$$\langle \mathcal{S} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \tag{A.13e}$$

Problem (A.13) is very similar to the practical form of the Stokes closure problem but needs to be 836 solved for a fourth order tensor \mathscr{S} and a source term $\mathscr{I} = \delta_{il}\delta_{jk}\mathbf{e}_i\mathbf{e}_j\mathbf{e}_k\mathbf{e}_l$. 837

The superficial averages of the closure variables \mathcal{C} being null, one gets 838

$$0 = \langle \mathcal{C} \rangle^{\beta} = \langle \mathcal{C}' \rangle^{\beta} + \langle \mathscr{S} \rangle^{\beta} : \varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \mathcal{H}_{\beta}$$
(A.14)

so that 840

$$\varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \mathcal{H}_{\beta} = -\left(\langle \mathscr{S} \rangle^{\beta}\right)^{-1} : \langle \mathcal{C}' \rangle^{\beta}$$
(A.15)

After making use of some tensor algebra and the properties of problem (A.13), the following ex-842 pression for the correction tensor at order 0 is obtained 843

$$\mathcal{H}_{\beta} = -\langle \mathcal{C}' \rangle^{\beta} \tag{A.16}$$

Order k = 2845

Applying the same pocedure as above, coefficients in Re^2 are identified in the expanded closure 846 problem, giving the deviation problem at order 2 847

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$$\nabla \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2} = 0$$
 in V_{β} (A.17a)

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$$\mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \cdot \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} + \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \cdot \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0} = -\nabla \tilde{p}_{\beta 2} + \nabla^2 \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2} - \frac{1}{V_{\beta}} \int_{A_{\beta \sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta \sigma} \cdot \left(-\mathbf{I} \tilde{p}_{\beta 2} + \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2}\right) dA \qquad (A.17b)$$

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$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2} = -\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 2} \rangle^{\beta}$$
 on $A_{\beta \sigma}$ (A.17c)

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2}\left(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{i}}\right) = \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2}\left(\mathbf{r}\right) \quad ; \quad \tilde{p}_{\beta 2}\left(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{i}}\right) = \tilde{p}_{\beta 2}\left(\mathbf{r}\right) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$
(A.17d)

$$\sqrt[852]{\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2}}^{\beta} = 0 \quad ; \quad \langle \tilde{p}_{\beta 2} \rangle^{\beta} = 0$$
 (A.17e)

Once again the non-linear terms only involve variables at lower orders. After some rearrangements, 853 the problem can be expressed in a more explicit form that exhibits all the different macroscopic 854 source terms 855

 $\nabla \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2} = 0 \quad \text{in} \ V_{\beta}$ (A.18a)856

$$\begin{bmatrix} (\nabla \mathbf{B})^{T_{(123)}} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{I}) \end{bmatrix} : \begin{bmatrix} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} + \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} (\nabla \mathcal{C})^{T_{(1234)}} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{I}) + (\nabla \mathbf{B})^{T_{(123)}} \cdot \mathcal{C} \end{bmatrix} \vdots \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \\ = -\nabla \tilde{p}_{\beta 2} + \nabla^{2} \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2} - \frac{1}{V_{\beta}} \int_{A_{\beta \sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta \sigma} \cdot (-\mathbf{I} \tilde{p}_{\beta 2} + \nabla \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2}) \, dA \quad \text{in } V_{\beta}$$
(A.18b)

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$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2} = -\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 2} \rangle^{\beta} \quad \text{on} \quad A_{\beta \sigma}$$
(A.18c)

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2} \left(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}} \right) = \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2} \left(\mathbf{r} \right) \quad ; \quad \tilde{p}_{\beta 2} \left(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}} \right) = \tilde{p}_{\beta 2} \left(\mathbf{r} \right) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \tag{A.18d}$$

$$\langle \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \quad ; \quad \langle \tilde{p}_{\beta 2} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \tag{A.18e}$$

where the notation $\mathscr{A}^{T_{(1234)}} = (\mathscr{A}_{ijkl}\mathbf{e}_i\mathbf{e}_j\mathbf{e}_k\mathbf{e}_l)^{T_{(1234)}} = \mathscr{A}_{lijk}\mathbf{e}_i\mathbf{e}_j\mathbf{e}_k\mathbf{e}_l$ has been used for the transpose of a fourth order tensor \mathscr{A} . In this problem, three independent source terms are identified. The first one $\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 2} \rangle^{\beta}$ appears in the boundary condition at $A_{\beta\sigma}$ just as in the case of order 0 and 1. The second one $[\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} + \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta}]$ is similar to the second source term of order 1. The third one $\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta}$ is a new source term that appears in the momentum balance equation. This terms couple order 0 and 1 with the solution of the linearized deviations at order 2. Based on these observations, the following decomposition is introduced

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 2} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathcal{C} : \left(\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} + \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \right) + \mathscr{E} \stackrel{:}{:} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta}$$
(A.19a)

$$\tilde{p}_{\beta 2} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 2} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathbf{C} : \left(\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} + \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \right) + \mathcal{E} \vdots \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta}$$
(A.19b)

where **B**, **b** and C and **C** are the closure variables at order 0 and order 1 respectively. The new closure variables \mathscr{E} and \mathcal{E} verify the following closure problem

$$\nabla \cdot \mathscr{E} = 0 \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta} \tag{A.20a}$$

$$\left[(\nabla \mathcal{C})^{T_{(1234)}} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{I}) + (\nabla \mathbf{B})^{T_{(123)}} \cdot \mathcal{C} \right] =$$
(A. 20b)

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$$-\nabla \mathcal{E} + \nabla^2 \mathscr{E} - \frac{1}{V_\beta} \int_{A_{\beta\sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta\sigma} \cdot (-\mathbf{I}\mathcal{E} + \nabla \mathscr{E}) \, dA \quad \text{in } V_\beta$$
(A.20b)

$$\mathscr{E} = 0 \quad \text{on} \quad A_{\beta\sigma} \tag{A.20c}$$

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$$\mathscr{E}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}) = \mathscr{E}(\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad \mathscr{E}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}) = \mathscr{E}(\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3 \tag{A.20d}$$

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$$\langle \mathscr{E} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \quad ; \quad \langle \mathscr{E} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \tag{A.20e}$$

⁸⁷⁷ The integral term is defined as

$$\varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \mathscr{J}_{\beta} = -\frac{1}{V_{\beta}} \int_{A_{\beta\sigma}} \mathbf{n}_{\beta\sigma} \cdot \left(-\mathbf{I}\mathcal{E} + \nabla \mathscr{E}\right) dA \tag{A.21}$$

Once again, \mathscr{J}_{β} can be interpreted as a correction tensor of the intrinsic permeability \mathbf{H}_{β} at order 2.

To solve this integro-differential problem, the following decomposition is introduced based on the superposition principle

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$$\mathscr{E} = \mathscr{E}' + \mathscr{T} : \varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \mathscr{J}_{\beta}$$
(A.22a)

$$\mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}' + \mathcal{T} : \varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \mathscr{J}_{\beta}$$
(A.22b)

⁸⁸⁵ It follows that the closure problem can be decomposed into two purely differential closure problems

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$$\nabla \cdot \mathscr{E}' = 0 \quad \text{in } V_\beta \tag{A.23a}$$

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$$\left[(\nabla \mathcal{C})^{T_{(1234)}} \cdot (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{I}) + (\nabla \mathbf{B})^{T_{(123)}} \cdot \mathcal{C} \right] = -\nabla \mathcal{E}' + \nabla^2 \mathcal{E}' \quad \text{in } V_\beta$$
(A.23b)

$$\mathscr{E}' = 0 \quad \text{on} \quad A_{\beta\sigma} \tag{A.23c}$$

$$\mathscr{E}'(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}) = \mathscr{E}'(\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad \mathscr{E}'(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}) = \mathscr{E}'(\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$
(A.23d)

$$\langle \mathcal{E}' \rangle^{\beta} = 0 \tag{A.23e}$$

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$$\nabla \cdot \mathscr{T} = 0 \quad \text{in} \quad V_{\beta} \tag{A.24a}$$

$$0 = -\nabla \mathcal{T} + \nabla^2 \mathcal{T} + \mathscr{I} \quad \text{in } V_\beta \tag{A.24b}$$

$$\mathscr{T} = 0 \quad \text{on} \quad A_{\beta\sigma} \tag{A.24c}$$

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$$\mathscr{T}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}) = \mathscr{T}(\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad \mathcal{T}(\mathbf{r} + \mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{i}}) = \mathcal{T}(\mathbf{r}) \quad ; \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$
(A.24d)

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$$\langle \mathcal{T} \rangle^{\beta} = 0$$
 (A.24e)

Note that \mathscr{T} is solution of the exact same closure problem as Eqs. (A.13), so that $\mathscr{T} = \mathscr{S}$.

To compute the correction tensor at order 2, a similar strategy as at order 1 is used. By definition of the intrinsic average (A.20e), one can write the equality

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$$\langle \mathscr{E} \rangle^{\beta} = 0 = \langle \mathscr{E}' \rangle^{\beta} + \langle \mathscr{T} \rangle^{\beta} : \varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \mathscr{J}_{\beta}$$

$$= \langle \mathscr{E}' \rangle^{\beta} + \varepsilon_{\beta}^{-1} \mathbf{K}_{\beta} \cdot \varepsilon_{\beta} \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \mathscr{J}_{\beta}$$

$$= \langle \mathscr{E}' \rangle^{\beta} + \mathscr{J}_{\beta}$$
(A.25)

so that the value of \mathscr{J}_{β} is obtained from $\mathscr{J}_{\beta} = -\langle \mathscr{E}' \rangle^{\beta}$.

904 Total deviations

The total deviations $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta}$ and \tilde{p}_{β} can be reconstructed from Eq. (A.1) using the mappings (A.3), (A.8), and (A.19), giving up to order 2

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$$\begin{split} \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta} &= \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 0} + \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 1} R e_{p} + \tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta 2} R e_{p}^{2} + \dots \\ &= \mathbf{B} \cdot \left[\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} + R e_{p} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} + R e_{p}^{2} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 2} \rangle^{\beta} + \dots \right] \\ &+ \mathcal{C} : R e_{p} \left[\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} + R e_{p} \left(\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} + \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 1} \rangle^{\beta} \right) + \dots \right] \\ &+ \mathscr{E} : R e_{p}^{2} \left[\langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta 0} \rangle^{\beta} + \dots \right] + \dots \end{split}$$
(A.26)

and similarly for the pressure deviation. Higher order developments can show that the total deviations are recursively recovered. Therefore, it is possible to simply group all these terms to obtain a second order expansion of the total deviations with the total macroscopic source terms as follows

$$\tilde{\mathbf{v}}_{\beta} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathcal{C} : Re_{p} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathscr{E} : Re_{p}^{2} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \dots$$
(A.27a)

$$\tilde{p}_{\beta} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathbf{C} : Re_{p} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \mathcal{E} : Re_{p}^{2} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \dots$$
(A.27b)

Similarly to the non-linear case, it is possible to close the averaged equation (6b) by introducing the above linearized mapping of the spatial deviations and identifying the corrective effective tensors at each order. Identical closed averaged equations are obtained but the effective parameters are linearized around the Reynolds number. Up to order 2, the linearized global permeability tensor is

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$$\mathbf{H}_{\beta}^{-1} = \mathbf{K}_{\beta}^{-1} \cdot \left(\mathbf{I} + Re_{p}\mathcal{H}_{\beta} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + Re_{p}^{2}\mathcal{J}_{\beta} : \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \dots \right)$$
(A.28)

⁹¹⁸ where the Forchheimer correction tensor can be directly identified as

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$$\mathbf{F}_{\beta} = Re_{p}\mathcal{H}_{\beta} \cdot \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + Re_{p}^{2}\mathscr{J}_{\beta} : \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} \langle \mathbf{v}_{\beta} \rangle^{\beta} + \dots$$
(A.29)

⁹²⁰ B Comparison of computation times of the closure problems

Here the computational costs of solving the linearized and non-linear closure problems are com-921 pared in the weak inertia regime where the linearized closure problem is valid ($Re_k \leq 1$). In two 922 dimensions, the general non-linear closure requires to solve one non-linear vectorial problem (Eqs. 923 (17)), plus $2^{2-1} = 2$ linear vector problems (Eqs. (16)) over a unit cell for each value of the pore 924 Reynolds number Re_p and the macroscopic pressure gradient orientation θ . On the other hand, 925 the linearized closure truncated at order 2 in Reynolds number introduces 3 linear tensor closure 926 problems of increasing orders: at order 0 a second-order tensor problem (Eqs. (A.4)), at order 927 1 a third-order tensor problem (Eqs. (A.9)), and at order 2 a fourth-order tensor problem (Eqs. 928 (A.20)). In total, in two dimensions, the numerical resolution of the linearized closure up to order 929 2 consists of solving $2^{2-1} + 2^{3-1} + 2^{4-1} = 14$ vector problems with Stokes-like structure over the 930 same unit cell but without any dependency on the local macroscopic flow. 931

Computation times for numerical simulations of the non-linear and linearized closure problems up to order 2 were compared on the symmetric unit cell presented in Fig. 2a. The same mesh composed of 230,000 elements was used for all the simulations in order to ensure mesh independence on the numerical results, limit the propagation of numerical errors through the incremental linearized methodology and measure computation times for comparable numerical resources. Computations were performed in Comsol Multiphysics as described in the main text.

Numerical simulations of the general non-linear closure problem take approximately 200 seconds for each value of pore Reynolds numbers Re_p and macroscopic pressure gradient orientation θ . In contrast, solving the 14 vector problems of the linearized closure truncated at order 2 take approximately 1800 seconds. However these are valid for any (Re_p, θ) within the domain of validity of the linear problem. Therefore solving the linearized closure problem truncated at order 2 costs as much as solving the non-linear problem for 1880s/200s = 9 values of the couples of parameter (Re_p, θ) .

The use of the linearized closure problem is interesting when more than 10 points are needed for the tabulation of the Forchheimer correction tensor. For instance, the results presented in Fig. 3 for a unit cell with solid square obstacle and porosity $\varepsilon_{\beta} = 0.75$ required approximately 50 computations of the non-linear closure problem with different values of (Re_p, θ) satisfying $Re_k < 0.1$, thus making the linearized closure much more cost efficient in this special case.