

1 **Experimental study of forced convection heat transport in porous media**

2 **Nicola Pastore⁽¹⁾, Claudia Cherubini^(2,3), Dimitra Rapti⁽⁴⁾, Concetta I. Giasi⁽¹⁾**

3 **¹DICATECh, Department of Civil, Environmental, Building Engineering, and Chemistry,**
4 **Politecnico di Bari, Bari, Italy.**

5 **²Department of Physics & Earth Sciences, University of Ferrara, via Saragat 1 - 44122**
6 **Ferrara, Italy.**

7 **³School of Civil Engineering, University of Queensland, St Lucia, Brisbane 4072, Australia;**

8 **⁴New Energies And environment Company (NEA) via Saragat, 1 - 44122 Ferrara, Italy.**

9 **Correspondence to: Nicola Pastore (nicola.pastore@poliba.it) and Claudia Cherubini**
10 **(chrld@unife.it)**

11

12 **Abstract**

13 The present study is aimed at extending this thematic issue through heat transport experiments and
14 their interpretation at laboratory scale. An experimental study to evaluate the dynamics of forced
15 convection heat transfer in a thermally isolated column filled with porous medium has been carried
16 out. The behavior of two porous media having different grain sizes and specific surfaces has been
17 observed. The experimental data have been compared with an analytical solution for one
18 dimensional heat transport for local non thermal equilibrium condition. The interpretation of the
19 experimental data shows that, the heterogeneity of the porous medium affects heat transport
20 dynamics causing a channeling effect which has consequences on thermal dispersion phenomena
21 and heat transfer between fluid and solid phases limiting the capacity to store or dissipate heat in the
22 porous medium.

23

24 **Introduction**

25 The European Climate and Energy Framework for 2050 aims to shift from the massive use of fossil
26 sources to others characterized by very low emissions. Among the renewable sources, geothermal
27 energy is the only one which is available basically everywhere and at any time.

28 For this reason, in the recent years the use of groundwater as low-enthalpy geothermal resource for
29 heating and cooling of buildings and for agricultural and industrial processes is growing.

30 One of the main limits for the development of low – enthalpy geothermal systems concerns the high
31 cost of investment. Installation of geothermal energy systems requires high upfront capital
32 investments that often exceed the expectations of depreciation expense, so the investment is
33 therefore inconvenient and the economic benefits can only occur after a long time. It is therefore of
34 extreme importance to further the understanding of the behaviour of hydrological systems as
35 concerns heat transport. Studying heat transfer phenomena takes the advantage of the fact that the

36 governing partial differential equations used to describe flow and transport processes in porous
37 media are based on the same form of mass and/or energy conservation laws.

38 Several studies have been already carried out in this context with the aim of enhancing heat transfer
39 phenomena in porous media for engineering processes. Theoretical and numerical research on
40 convection heat transfer in porous media has used two different models for the energy equation: the
41 local thermal equilibrium model and the local thermal non-equilibrium model.

42 Most of the studies have been focussed on investigating on the validity of the local thermal
43 equilibrium assumption (LTE) between the solid and fluid phase, the influence of nonlinear flow
44 patterns, and the existing relationship between thermal dispersion and flow velocity.

45 Koh and Colony (1974) carried out an analytical investigation of the performance of a heat
46 exchanger containing a conductive porous medium using Darcy flow model, while Koh and Stevens
47 (1975) performed an experimental study of the same problem. They have shown that for a constant
48 heat flux boundary condition the wall temperature is significantly decreased by using a porous
49 material in the channel.

50 Vafai and Tien (1981) have formulated a general mathematical model that takes into consideration
51 the boundary and inertial (non Darcian) effects on flow and heat transfer in porous media. In
52 analyzing these effects, they considered three flow resistances: the bulk damping resistance due to
53 the porous structure, the viscous resistance due to the boundary, and the resistance due to the
54 inertial forces.

55 Later, Vafai and Tien (1982) performed a numerical and experimental investigation of the effects of
56 the presence of a solid boundary and inertial forces on mass transfer in porous media.

57 Kaviany (1985) studied laminar flow through a porous channel bounded by two parallel plates
58 maintained at a constant and equal temperature by applying a modified Darcy model for transport of
59 momentum.

60 Vafai and Kim (1989) considered fully developed forced convection in a porous channel bounded
61 by parallel plates by applying Brinkman-Forchheimer-extended Darcy model to obtain a closed-
62 form analytical solution.

63 Lauriat and Vafai (1991) presented a comprehensive review on flow and heat transfer through
64 porous media for two basic geometries: flow over a flat plate embedded in a porous medium and
65 flow through a channel filled with a porous medium.

66 Hadim (1994) carried out a numerical study to analyze steady laminar forced convection in a 1)
67 fully porous and 2) partially porous channel filled with a fluid-saturated porous medium and
68 containing discrete heat sources on the bottom wall.

69 He modelled the flow in the porous medium using the Brinkman-Forchheimer extended Darcy
70 model.

71 Kamiuto and Saitoh (1994) examined theoretically the effects of several system parameters on the
72 heat transfer characteristics of fully developed forced convection flow in a cylindrical packed bed
73 with constant wall temperatures. They developed a two-dimensional model incorporating the effects
74 of non-Darcy, variable porosity and radial thermal dispersion.

75 Hwang et al. (1995) performed a study of non-Darcian forced convection in an asymmetric heating
76 sintered porous channel to investigate the feasibility of using this channel as a heat sink. The study
77 showed that the particle Reynolds number significantly affected the solid-to-fluid heat transfer
78 coefficients.

79 A review of literature indicates that the local thermal equilibrium assumption between the solid and
80 fluid phase is used in the majority of heat transfer applications involving porous media Mikowycz
81 et al., (1999) proposed a modified energy equation that can be solved for very early departures from
82 LTE conditions. Their results confirmed that local thermal equilibrium in a fluidized bed depends
83 on the size of the layer, mean pore size, interstitial heat transfer coefficient, and thermophysical
84 properties. They concluded that for a porous medium subject to rapid transient heating, the
85 existence of the local thermal equilibrium depends on the magnitude of a dimensionless quantity
86 (which they called the Sparrow number) containing the contributions of the flow in porous media,
87 interstitial heat transfer, and general thermal conduction.

88 An in-depth analysis of non-thermal equilibrium is provided by Amiri and Vafai (1994, 1998).

89 Amiri and Vafai (1994) carried out a steady-state analysis of incompressible flow through a bed of
90 uniform solid sphere particles packed randomly. The investigation was aimed at exploring the
91 influence of a variety of phenomena such as the inertial effects, boundary effects, and the effect of
92 the porosity variation model together with the thermal dispersion effect on the momentum and
93 energy transport in a confined porous bed. They also proved the validity of LTE assumption and the
94 two-dimensionality effects on transport processes in porous media.

95 In a subsequent study, Amiri and Vafai (1998) realised a rigorous and flexible model to explore the
96 heat transfer aspects in a packed bed made of randomly oriented spherical particles. Along with the
97 generalized momentum equation they used a two-energy equation model to describe the thermal
98 response of a packed bed. They explored the temporal impact of the non Darcian terms and the
99 thermal dispersion effects on energy transport. In addition, they investigated on the LTE condition
100 and the one dimensional approach under transient condition by formulating dimensionless variables
101 that will serve as instruments in depicting the pertinent characteristics of energy transport in a
102 packed bed.

103 Khalil et al. (2000) performed a numerical investigation of forced convection heat transfer through
104 a packed pipe heated at the surface under constant heat flux showing the effects of particle
105 Reynolds number, pipe-to-particle diameter ratios and Prandtl number. They showed that the
106 average Nusselt number increases with both particle Reynolds number and Prandtl number. They
107 concluded that packing pipes with a porous medium can provide heat transfer enhancement for the
108 same pumping power.

109 Wu and Hwang (1998) investigated experimentally and theoretically flow and heat transfer
110 dynamics inside an artificial porous matrix by using a modified version of the local thermal
111 nonequilibrium model (LTNE) which neglected the effects of thermal dispersion in both fluid and
112 solid. The results showed a highly non-Fourier behaviour which combined rapid thermal
113 breakthrough with extremely long-tailing, that was attributed to disequilibrium between the fluid
114 and the porous matrix. However, the adopted model was unable to fully capture the thermal
115 breakthrough observed in some experimental runs. They concluded that heat transfer coefficient
116 increases with the decrease in porosity and the increase in the particle Reynolds number.

117 Emmanuel and Berkowitz (2007) were able to successfully fit the thermal breakthrough curves
118 obtained by Wu and Hwang (1998) by applying the continuous time random walk (CTRW) which
119 provided an alternative description of heat transport in porous media. They argued that larger scale
120 spatial heterogeneities in porous media present obstacles to both the equilibrium and the LTNE
121 models and that CTRW would be particularly applicable to the quantification of heat transfer in
122 naturally heterogeneous geological systems, such as soils and geothermal reservoirs.

123 Geological media are typically characterized by heterogeneities on many scales, resulting in a wide
124 range of fluid velocities, porosities, and effective thermal conductivities.

125 Despite the uncertainty and contradiction in defining the thermal dispersion, several studies
126 addressed the effects of thermal dispersion in porous media and different approaches have been
127 developed to describe it (Hsu and Cheng, 1990; Anderson, 2005; Molina-Giraldo et al., 2011).

128 Thermal dispersion is generally defined as a function of fluid velocity and grain size (Lu et al.,
129 2009, Sauty et al., 1982, Nield and Bejan, 2006).

130 According to Sauty et al. (1982) and Molina-Giraldo et al. (2011), the thermal dispersion is a linear
131 function of flow velocity and relates to the anisotropy of the velocity field whereas Rau et al. (2012)
132 proposed a dispersion model as a function of the square of the thermal front velocity.

133 The literature also contains conflicting theories about the magnitude of thermal dispersivity. Smith
134 and Chapman (1983) state that it has the same order of magnitude as solute dispersivities, while
135 Ingebritsen and Sanford (1999) neglect it. According to Vandenbohede et al. (2009) thermal
136 dispersivities are small in comparison to solute dispersivities and less scale-dependent.

137 Mori et al. (2005) showed experimentally that, for water fluxes ranging between 0.6×10^{-6} and
138 0.3×10^{-3} (m/s) thermal dispersion was nearly independent of water flow and its effects were
139 insignificant.

140 According to Rau et al., (2012), the effect of thermal dispersion on heat transport is significant for
141 high values of thermal Peclet number. Also Metzger et al. (2004) introduced a dispersion model
142 based on the thermal Peclet number.

143 Koch et al. (1989) obtained an analytical expression for the dispersion tensor for a regular
144 arrangement of cylinders or spheres. They found that for high values of Peclet numbers, the ratio of
145 longitudinal total thermal diffusivity to the fluid thermal diffusivity was proportional to the square
146 of the Peclet number while maintaining the transverse dispersion constant. The analytic finding was
147 in good concordance with the experimental measurements of Gunn and Pryce (1969).

148 Eidsath et al. (1983) quantified the longitudinal thermal dispersion and stressed that the streamwise
149 ratio of longitudinal total thermal diffusivity to the fluid thermal diffusivity was proportional to
150 $Pe^{1.7}$.

151 Ait Saada et al. (2006) investigated the behaviour of microscopic inertia and thermal dispersion in a
152 porous medium with a periodic structure by using a local approach at the pore scale to evaluate the
153 velocity and temperature fields as well as their intrinsic velocity and temperature fluctuations in a
154 typical unit cell of the porous medium under study. They concluded that non-linear effects
155 characterizing microscopic inertia might be the definitive cause of thermal dispersion depending on
156 the nature of the porous medium and in certain situations can exceed 50% toward the contribution
157 of thermal dispersion. Particularly for a highly conducting fluid moving with high Peclet numbers,
158 microscopic inertial effects showed to take a great part in the heat transfer duty. They concluded
159 that a considerable interaction between the velocity and thermal fields exists.

160 This work is aimed at studying the dynamics of forced convection heat transport in porous media
161 allowing the understanding of how the grain size and the specific surface affect heat transport in
162 terms of macrodispersion phenomena, heat transfer between solid and fluid phases and heat storage
163 properties. In particular, the present study involves the experimental investigation of heat transport
164 through a thermally isolated column filled with porous medium. Several heat tracer tests have been
165 carried out using porous media with different grain sizes. The experimental observed breakthrough
166 curves have been compared with the one dimensional analytical solution for the forced convection
167 heat transport in local thermal non equilibrium condition. The results highlight the effects of grain
168 size and the specific surface on forced convection heat transport dynamics in porous media.

169 **Theoretical background**

170 In several studies examining the flow dynamics through porous media it is assumed that flow is
 171 described by Darcy's law, which expresses a linear relationship between pressure gradient and flow
 172 rate. Darcy's law has been demonstrated to be valid at low flow regimes ($Re < 1$), whereas for
 173 $Re \gg 1$ a nonlinear flow behavior is likely to occur. As velocity increases, the inertial effects start
 174 dominating the flow field. In order to take these inertial effects into account, Forchheimer (1901)
 175 introduced an inertial term representing the kinetic energy of the fluid to the Darcy equation. The
 176 Forchheimer equation for one dimensional flow in terms of hydraulic head h (L) is given as follows:

$$177 \quad -\frac{dh}{dx} = \frac{\mu}{\rho g k} q + \frac{\beta_F}{g} q^2 \quad (1)$$

178 Where x (L), k (L^2) is the permeability, μ ($ML^{-1}T^{-1}$) is the viscosity, ρ (ML^{-3}) is the density, q (LT^{-1})
 179 is the darcy velocity and β_F (L^{-1}) is called the non – Darcy coefficient.

180 Ergun (1952) derived a model for high velocity pressure loss in a porous medium from the
 181 Forchheimer equation by correlating the permeability and inertial resistance dimensionally to the
 182 porosity and the equivalent sphere diameter of rough particles. The permeability and inertial
 183 coefficient are interpreted in terms of spatial parameters as follows:

$$184 \quad k = \frac{d_p^2 n^3}{A(1-n)^2} \quad (2)$$

$$185 \quad \beta_F = \frac{B(1-n)}{d_p n^3} \quad (3)$$

186 Where d_p (L) is the average particle diameter, n (-) is the porosity and the coefficients $A = 180$ and
 187 $B = 1.8$ are empirical values and were derived by averaging the Navier – Stokes equations for a
 188 cubic representative unit volume.

189 The behavior of convective heat transport in porous media is strongly dependent on the fluid
 190 velocity and the kinetics of heat transfer process between fluid and solid phases.

191 Given a packed bed, within a thermally isolated column of length L (L) in which a fluid flows with
 192 a specific flow rate q (LT^{-1}) and then with an average fluid velocity q/n , the initial temperature in
 193 the column is T_0 (K) and a continuous flow injection transports heat energy along the column. For a
 194 small ratio of column diameter D (L) to the length L and large fluid velocity the radial heat transport
 195 dynamics can be neglected in comparison with the axial dynamics. Then the heat transport
 196 dynamics in the porous medium column can be represented by a one dimensional model.

197 If the solid and fluid phases are in contact for a sufficient period of time, there is the possibility to
 198 establish a local thermal equilibrium (LTE) condition. In such case, only one energy equation is
 199 sufficient for the description of the convective heat transport through the porous medium. Assuming

200 that porosity, densities and heat capacities are constant in time the energy equation for the fluid and
 201 solid phases are combined into a single equation as:

$$202 \quad (\rho c)_{sf} \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \cdot \left[-vn\rho_f c_f T_f + k_{sf} \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial x} \right] \quad (4)$$

203 With:

$$204 \quad (\rho c)_{sf} = (1-n)\rho_s c_s + n\rho_f c_f \quad (5)$$

$$205 \quad k_{sf} = (1-n)k_s + nk_f \quad (6)$$

206 Where T_f (K) is the temperature of the fluid, ρ_f (ML⁻³) is the density of the fluid, ρ_s (ML⁻³) is the
 207 density of the solid, c_f (LT²K⁻¹) is the thermal capacitance of the fluid, c_s (LT²K⁻¹) is the thermal
 208 capacitance of the solid, k_f (MLT⁻³K⁻¹) is the thermal conductivity of the fluid, k_s (MLT⁻³K⁻¹) is the
 209 thermal conductivity of the solid, whereas $(\rho c)_{sf}$ and k_{sf} represent the equivalent heat capacity and
 210 thermal conductivity of the porous domain respectively including porosity and thermal properties of
 211 solid and fluid.

212 If the interaction between solid and fluid phase is rapid the solid and fluid phase cannot exchange
 213 sufficient amount of energy to establish local thermal equilibrium. At a given location solid and
 214 fluid phases have different temperatures. In the local thermal non equilibrium (LTNE) condition
 215 each phase needs an energy equation for the description of heat transport. Assuming that porosity,
 216 densities and heat capacities are constant in time, the energy equations can be written for the fluid
 217 and solid phase:

$$218 \quad n\rho_f c_f \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \cdot \left[-vn\rho_f c_f T_f + nk_f \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial x} \right] + q_{fs} \quad (7)$$

$$219 \quad (1-n)\rho_s c_s \frac{\partial T_s}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \cdot \left[(1-n)k_s \frac{\partial T_s}{\partial x} \right] - q_{fs} \quad (8)$$

220 The interaction between the two phases is represented by the sink/source terms q_{fs} given by
 221 following equation:

$$222 \quad q_{fs} = hs_f (T_s - T_f) \quad (9)$$

223 Where h (MT⁻³K⁻¹) is the convective heat transfer coefficient and s_f (L⁻¹) is the specific surface area
 224 given by:

$$225 \quad s_{fs} = \frac{6(1-n)}{d_p} \quad (10)$$

226 The convective heat transfer coefficient is related to the Nusselt number Nu that for the porous
 227 medium can be expressed as:

228
$$\text{Nu} = \frac{q_{fs} d_p}{k_f (T_f - T_s)} = \frac{h d_p}{k_f} \quad (11)$$

229 Heat transfer dynamics can be represented also by the volumetric Nusselt number Nu_v :

230
$$\text{Nu}_v = \frac{h s_f d_p^2}{k_f} \quad (12)$$

231 Wakao et al. (1979) found the following correlation for the volumetric Nusselt number:

232
$$\text{Nu}_v = 2.0 + 1.1 \text{Re}^{0.6} \text{Pr}^{1/3} \quad (13)$$

233 Fu et al. (1998), Kamiut and Yee (2005) and Ando et al. (2013) based on experimental data found a
234 correlation between the volumetric Nusselt number and Reynolds number:

235
$$\text{Nu}_v = C \text{Re}^m \quad (14)$$

236 The hydrodynamic mixing of the interstitial fluid at the pore scale gives rise to significant thermal
237 dispersion phenomena. Generally, the hydrodynamic mixing is due to the presence of obstruction,
238 flow restriction and turbulent flow. Therefore, the equivalent thermal conductivity in equation (4)
239 and thermal conductivity in equation (7) is replaced with the effective thermal conductivity k_{eff}
240 which is the sum of thermal conductivity and thermal dispersion conductivity. The effective thermal
241 conductivity depends on various parameters such as mass flow rate, porosity, shape of pores,
242 temperature gradient, and solid and fluid thermal properties (Kaviany, 1995). The following
243 equation can be used to estimate k_{eff} .

244
$$\frac{k_{eff}}{k_f} = \frac{k}{k_f} + K \cdot \text{Pe}^a \quad (15)$$

245 Pe represents the Peclet number defined as the product between the Reynolds number Re and
246 Prandtl number Pr;

247
$$\text{Pe} = \text{Re} \times \text{Pr} = \frac{\rho_f v d_p}{\mu} \times \frac{c_f \mu}{k_f} = \frac{v d_p}{D_f} \quad (16)$$

248 The energy equation representative of the local thermal non equilibrium can be written as:

249
$$\frac{\partial T_f}{\partial t} = -v \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial x} + D_{eff} \frac{\partial^2 T_f}{\partial x^2} + \alpha (T_s - T_f) \quad (17)$$

250
$$\frac{1-n}{n} \frac{\rho_s c_s}{\rho_f c_f} \frac{\partial T_s}{\partial t} = \frac{1-n}{n} \frac{k_s}{\rho_f c_f} \frac{\partial^2 T_s}{\partial x^2} - \alpha (T_s - T_f) \quad (18)$$

251 With:

252
$$D_{eff} = \frac{k_{eff}}{\rho_f C_f} \quad (19)$$

253
$$\alpha = \frac{hs_f}{n\rho_f C_f} \quad (20)$$

254 D_{eff} (L^2T^{-1}) is the thermal dispersion and α (T^{-1}) is the exchange coefficient.

255 The thermal dispersion happens due to hydrodynamic mixing of fluid at the pore scale caused by the
 256 nature of the porous medium. Greenkorn (1983) found nine mechanisms responsible of most of the
 257 mixing among which the following: 1) Mixing caused by the tortuosity of the flow channels due to
 258 obstructions: fluid elements starting a given distance from each other and proceeding at the same
 259 velocity will not remain the same distance apart; 2) Existence of autocorrelation in flow paths: in this
 260 case, all pores in a porous medium may not be accessible to a fluid element after it has entered a
 261 particular flow path; 3) Recirculation due to local regions of reduced pressure due to the conversion of
 262 pressure energy into kinetic energy; 4) Hydrodynamic dispersion in a capillary caused by the velocity
 263 profile produced by the adhering of the fluid to the wall; 5) Molecular diffusion into dead-end pores: as
 264 solute rich front passes the pore. After the front passes, the solute will diffuse back out and thus,
 265 dispersing.

266 Using the analogy with the solute transport the Damköhler number Da (Leij et al., 2012) can be
 267 introduced in order to evaluate the influence of heat transfer between the fluid and solid phases on
 268 the convection phenomena:

269
$$Da = \frac{\alpha L}{v} \quad (21)$$

270 When Da reaches the unit the heat transfer time scale is comparable with the convection time scale
 271 and the LTNE exists between solid and fluid phases. At very high values of Da the heat transfer
 272 time scale is much lower than convective time scale and the LTE condition exists between solid and
 273 fluid phases. Finally, at very low values of Da the heat transfer phenomena between solid and fluid
 274 phase can be neglected.

275 Neglecting the first term on the right side of the Equation 18, the analytical solution of the system
 276 equations describing 1D heat transport in semi – infinite domain for instantaneous temperature
 277 injection is given by Goltz and Roberts (1986). According to this analytical solution, the probability
 278 of density function PDF_{LTNE} of the residence time for LTNE condition can be written as:

279
$$PDF_{LTNE}(x,t) = e^{\alpha t} PDF_0(x,t) + \alpha \int_0^t H(t,\tau) PDF_0(x,t) d\tau \quad (22)$$

280 With:

281
$$PDF_0(x,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi D_{eff} t}} \exp\left(-\frac{x-vt}{4D_{eff} t}\right) \quad (23)$$

$$H(t, \tau) = e^{-\frac{\alpha}{\beta}(t-\tau)-\alpha\tau} \frac{\tau I_1\left(\frac{2\alpha}{\beta} \sqrt{\beta(t-\tau)\tau}\right)}{\sqrt{\beta(t-\tau)\tau}} \quad (24)$$

$$\beta = \frac{1-n}{n} \frac{\rho_s c_s}{\rho_f c_f} \quad (25)$$

Where $PDF_0(x, t)$ represents the probability density function of the residence time without heat transfer between the solid and fluid phase. The parameter β (-) represents the ratio between the volume specific heat capacity of the solid phase and the fluid and I_1 is the modified Bessel function of order 1.

The coefficient α can be viewed as the reciprocal of the exchange time required to transfer energy from fluid to solid phase and vice versa. The effect of local thermal non equilibrium is stronger when the exchange time is the same order of magnitude of the transport time. The local thermal non equilibrium is characterized by thermal distribution profile with a tailing effect.

The observed temperature function $T_{obs}(t)$ at a generic distance x from the injection temperature function $T_{inj}(t)$ can be obtained using the convolution theorem:

$$T_{obs}(x, t) = T_{inj}(0, t) * PDF_{LINE}(x, t) \quad (26)$$

Experimental setup

The test on convective heat transport in the porous medium has been conducted on a laboratory physical model. Figure 1 shows a sketch of the experimental setup. A plastic circular pipe characterized by a diameter of $D = 0.11$ m and height of $H = 1.66$ m has been thermally insulated using a roll of elastomeric foam with a thickness of $s = 0.04$ m and a thermal conductivity of $\lambda = 0.037$ Wm⁻¹K⁻¹. The pipe can be filled with different porous materials with different grain sizes and hydrothermal properties. Seven thermocouples have been equally placed along the axis of the pipe with a reciprocal distance of 0.185 m. The first thermocouple is located at a distance of 0.435 m from the inlet of the water. TC08 Thermocouple Data Logger (pico Thecnology) with sampling rate equal to 1 second has been connected with the thermocouples. An adaptable constant head reservoir and an outlet reservoir permit to maintain a constant head during the test and water within the pipe flows from the bottom to the top. An ultrasonic velocimeter (DOP3000 by Signal Processing) is used to measure the instantaneous flow rate. An electric water boiler characterized by a volume equal to 0.01 m³ has been used to heat the water flowing through the pipe.

A medium gravel (M₁) (USDA, 1975) and a very coarse gravel (M₂) (USDA, 1975) have been used. The Figure 2 shows the tested materials whereas in Table 1 are reported the hydraulic and the thermal parameters of each material. The grain size and the specific surface of each porous material

312 is directly estimated on a sample of one hundred grains. Whereas the porosity is estimated by the
313 ratio between the volume of void space and the total volume of the filled plastic circular pipe. The
314 volume of the void space is obtained measuring the amount of water which enters in the pipe until
315 full saturation. The thermal characteristics reported in the table 1 are literature values
316 (www.engineeringtoolbox.com). The temperature tracer tests involve the observation of the
317 thermal breakthrough curves (BTCs) monitored by the seven thermocouples. Initially cold water
318 flows through the pipe filled with the porous medium in order to have a constant temperature T_0
319 along the pipe. Subsequently hot water is flows through the pipe, maintaining a constant head
320 condition during the test.

321 **Discussion**

322 For each tested porous medium four thermal tracer tests have been carried out varying Re in the
323 range 5.7– 22.5 for M_1 and 23.5 – 105.5 for M_2 . The thermal BTCs observed at different distances
324 have been fitted together using equation (19). The root mean square error (RMSE) and the
325 determination coefficient (r^2) have been used as criteria to evaluate the goodness of the fitting. The
326 parameters v , D_{eff} and α have been individually fitted for each thermal tracer test whereas β has
327 been imposed constant for all tracer tests of each tested porous medium. Table 2 shows the
328 estimated values of the heat transport parameters, the RMSE and r^2 , whereas figure 3 and figure 4
329 show the fittings results of the observed temperature distribution along the porous column for M_1
330 and M_2 respectively. Table 4 shows the dimensionless numbers Pe, k_{eff}/k_f , Nu and Da evaluated for
331 the different values of Re.

332 As shown in Table 2, the fluid velocity q/n is systematically higher than the estimated thermal
333 convective velocity v for the medium gravel M_1 , contrarily for the very coarse gravel M_2 q/n is
334 systematically lower than v .

335 This phenomenon for the coarser material might be attributable to the fact that the heat propagates
336 through both the solid and fluid phase (Anderson, 2005, Rau et al. 2012) and the existence of
337 channeling phenomena that might also have an influence in increasing the convective heat.

338 Even for finer grained materials (2 mm), Rau et al (2012) also found values of thermal velocity
339 systematically lower than solute velocity, coherently with Bodvarsson (1972), Oldenburg and
340 Pruess (1998), Geiger et al. (2006).

341 Another discrepancy has been observed comparing the values of the porosity presented in table 1
342 and the value of porosity obtained from the equation 18 equal to 0.467 and 0.469 respectively for
343 M_1 and M_2 . For M_1 the value of porosity presented in table 1 reaches the value derived from β .

344 Whereas for M_2 the value presented in table 1 is higher than the value derived from β .

345 These results highlight that for M_2 there is the existence of stagnant zones which reduce the amount
346 of porosity that contributes to fluid flow. In other words, in M_1 the total porosity reaches to the
347 effective porosity, whereas in M_2 the effective porosity is less than total porosity.

348 In other words, because the coarser material M_2 is less well sorted than the less coarse one M_1 , not
349 all pores of the former are actually interconnected. In geologic materials, based on the connectivity
350 of pores, consequently, the void space can be divided into: interconnected pore, isolated pore, and
351 blind pore (Hu et al., 2017). Only the pores that are well interconnected provide continuous
352 channels for heat and mass transfer and fluid flow, while the pores that are not part of a continuous
353 channel network do not contribute. These pores are known as non effective pores, namely, they
354 provide no space for fluid flow and heat transfer in reservoirs.

355 In figure 5 is reported the relationships between Pe and the ratio between the effective thermal
356 conductivity and the fluid thermal conductivity k_{eff}/k_f . The experimental results show a non linear
357 behavior well represented by equation (15). A change of slope is evident changing from M_1 to M_2 .
358 The latter material shows a more pronounced thermal dispersion caused by the hydrodynamic
359 mixing of fluid at the pore scale. Some mixing is caused by the tortuosity of the flow paths due to the
360 presence of obstructions: the fluid elements starting a given distance from each other and
361 proceeding at the same velocity will not remain at the same distance apart. The high level of flow
362 path heterogeneity gives rise to a higher velocity variation at pore scale as well as the presence of
363 the preferential flow paths that enhance the effect of macrodispersion. Mixing can also be caused by
364 recirculation caused by local regions of reduced pressure arising from flow restrictions.

365 Further mixing can arise from the fact that all pores in a porous medium may not be accessible to a
366 fluid element after it has entered a particular flow path.

367 These results are coherent with those obtained by Rau et al (2012) who found that the thermal
368 dispersion was transitioning between not depending on the flow velocity and a non linear increase
369 with velocity. They affirmed that the location of the transition zone is a function of the thermal
370 properties of the solid and the sedimentological architecture.

371 In figure 6 the obtained experimental relationship between Pe and k_{eff}/k_f has been compared with the
372 results obtained by several authors (Levec & Carbonell, 1985; Gunn & Price, 1969; Pfancich, 1963;
373 Ebach & White, 1958. For the range of Pe investigated the experimental results presents the same
374 order of magnitude of k_{eff}/k_f . For low Peclet numbers the experimental value of k_{eff}/k_f is
375 systematically greater than the value of the trend line. This phenomenon can be attributable to the
376 density gradients which altered the flow pattern. Given that the water flows from the bottom to the
377 top and the hot water is fed from the bottom, the buoyancy effect adds to the diffusion effect. This
378 effect seems relevant from low Pe value.

379 Figure 7 – highlights the experimental correlation between Nu_v and Re . The equation (13) fails to
 380 represent the experimental results especially for M_1 where they are underestimated of an order of
 381 magnitude. For M_2 the theoretical model reaches the experimental results having a percentage error
 382 of 5 – 35 %.

383 According to Ando et al. (2013) the volumetric Nusselt number is well represented by equation
 384 (14). The exponent m approaches the unit whereas the constant C assumes equal values for M_1 and
 385 for M_2 . According to Ando et al. (2013) the coefficient C decreases as the pore diameter (correlated
 386 with the particle diameter) increases.

387 Figure 8 shows the relationship between Pe and Nu . The experimental results highlight that the
 388 Nusselt number can be represented by an equation like $Nu = C \times Pe$, where C (-) is a coefficient that
 389 assumes a value equal to 0.41 for M_1 and 0.03 for M_2 .

390 The physical meaning of the ratio between the surface of the grains in contact with the active flow
 391 path that transports heat and the total surface of the grain can be attributed to this coefficient. M_2
 392 respect to M_1 is characterized by the presence of preferential flow paths and then an equal number
 393 of Pe corresponding to a lower Nu because the surface of the grain available to exchange heat
 394 between the fluid and solid phase is lower.

395 As shown in table 3 the Damköhler number Da calculated for M_1 is greater than the unit. Heat
 396 exchange is so rapid giving rise to an instantaneous equilibrium between solid and fluid phase. The
 397 heat has enough time to diffuse in solid phase. Contrarily Da calculated for M_2 is close to the unit,
 398 there is the presence of the local thermal non equilibrium condition.

399 A comparison of the heat J (ML^2T^{-2}) stored in the porous column per unit temperature difference
 400 $\Delta T = T_{inj} - T_0$ (K) varying the specific discharge q for each tested porous medium can be evaluated
 401 considering a continuous temperature injection function as:

$$402 \quad \frac{J}{\Delta T} = \rho_f c_f Q \int_0^{\infty} \left(1 - \int_0^t PDF(L, \tau) d\tau \right) dt \quad (27)$$

403 The combined effects of the flow rate and the particle diameter on heat transfer are illustrated in
 404 Figure 9 that shows the variation of the heat stored in the column per unit temperature difference
 405 varying the specific flow rate for M_1 and M_2 . As the flow rate increases, the stored heat increases,
 406 and the porous medium with a smaller particle diameter generates a higher increase in heat transfer
 407 enhancement than one with a larger particle diameter. This is coherent with the results obtained by
 408 Dehghan and Aliparast (2011) and Kifah (2004). M_1 permits to store more heat than M_2 . The former
 409 is characterized by a more homogeneous flow path distribution that allows a greater interaction
 410 between fluid and solid phase. On the contrary M_2 has a more heterogeneous flow path distribution

411 that increases thermal macrodispersion phenomena at the pore scale and at the same time reduces
412 the interaction between the fluid and solid phase.

413 In order to put into evidence the performance of the heat transfer enhancement of the porous
414 materials it can be useful to compare the Nusselt number and the hydraulic head loss dh/dx
415 evaluated by equation 1. The Figure 10 shows the ratio between the Nusselt number and head loss
416 as function of the Peclet number. Despite M_1 presents a higher heat transfer enhancement respect to
417 M_2 , the head losses are higher and then the ratio between Nu and dh/dx is lower. Furthermore, as Pe
418 increases, the heat transfer enhancement increases more rapidly than the head loss for the fine
419 material M_1 , whereas for the coarser material M_2 the opposite happens: increasing the Peclet
420 number the Nusselt number increases weakly due to the presence of channeling phenomena that
421 reduce the heat exchange area between fluid and solid phases.

422

423 **Conclusion**

424 In this study a laboratory physical model has been set up to analyze the behavior of forced
425 convective heat transport in two porous media characterized by different grain sizes and specific
426 surfaces. For each material four tracer tests have been carried out and they have been compared
427 with the 1D analytical solution of LTNE model. The flow paths heterogeneity that characterizes the
428 coarser material gives rise to a higher velocity variation at pore scale with a channeling effect which
429 causes: 1) the increase in the macrodispersion phenomena in the forced convection heat transport,
430 2) the decrease in the surface of the grain available to exchange heat between the fluid and solid
431 phase, 3) the presence of the local thermal non equilibrium condition 4) the decrease in the amount
432 of heat that can be stored in the porous medium and 5) a weak growth of heat transfer enhancement
433 respect to the head loss as convective phenomena increases.

434 The finer material M_1 has a more homogeneous flow path distribution that allows a greater
435 interaction between fluid and solid phase and therefore allows to store more heat than the coarser
436 one.

437 This can also be seen analyzing the ratio between the Nusselt number and the head loss as function
438 of Peclet number for both materials. Even though the coarser material M_2 is more permeable than
439 M_1 as the advective phenomena increase, the head loss increases more rapidly than the heat transfer
440 enhancement due to the channeling effect that increases the macrodispersion phenomena and
441 reduces the heat transfer between fluid and solid phase.

442 The main contribution of this study is to investigate on the optimal thermal energy storage of
443 porous materials by analyzing how the grain size and the specific surface affect heat storage
444 properties as well as heat transport in terms of macrodispersion phenomena, heat transfer between

445 solid and fluid phases. This is relevant in order to optimize the efficiency of geothermal installations
446 in aquifers.

447 The experimental results emphasize the differences between porous and fractured media. As
448 observed by Cherubini et al. (2017) a fractured medium with high density of fractures and then with
449 a higher specific surface is not efficient to store thermal energy because the fractures are surrounded
450 by a matrix with a more limited capacity to store heat. An opposite behavior has been observed in
451 porous media in which a higher specific surface corresponds to a higher capacity to store heat. For
452 porous media as the specific surface decreases the macrodispersion phenomena increase due
453 essentially to the channeling effect and then the surface of the grain available to exchange heat
454 between the fluid and solid phase decreases. Whereas for the fractured media this statement is not
455 true because the macrodispersion phenomena are more related contrarily to the roughness and
456 aperture variation of each single fracture as well as to the connectivity of the fracture network.

457 The study has increased the understanding of heat transfer processes in the subsurface encouraging
458 the investigation on how further parameters such as the shape and the roughness of the grain of
459 porous media affect the amount of energy that can be stored. This is important to maximize the
460 efficiency and minimize the environmental impact of the geothermal installations in groundwater.

461

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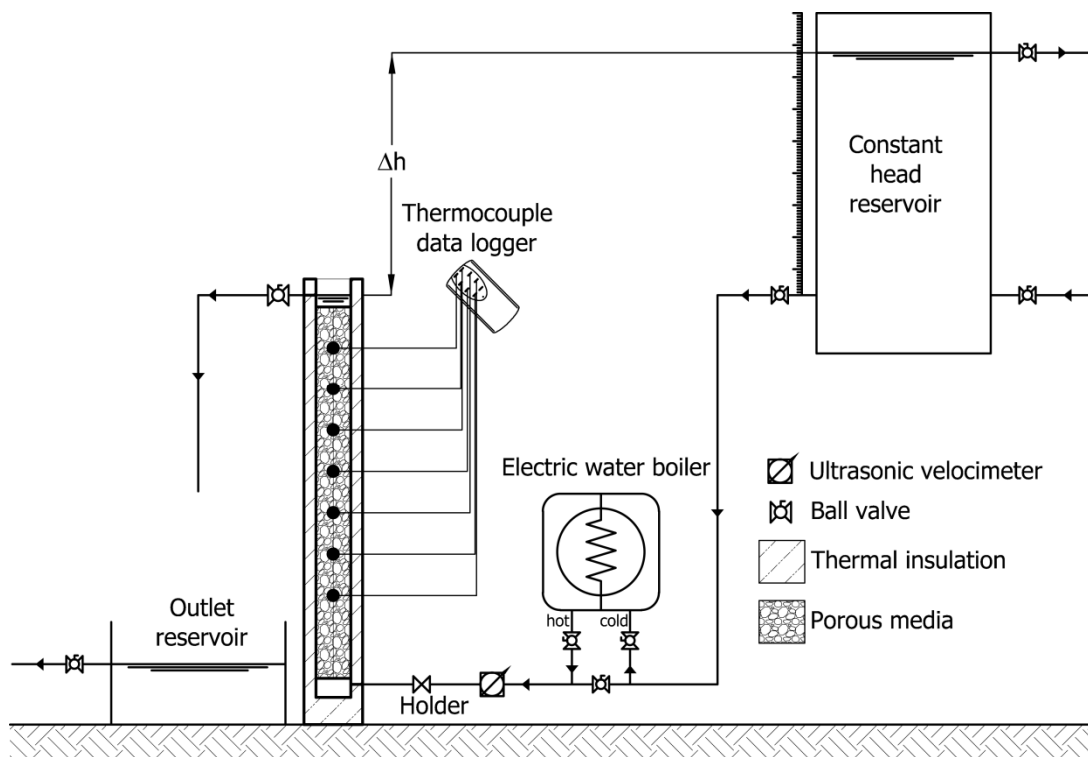
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Figure 1. Setup of experimental apparatus



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Figure 2. Samples of the materials used for the experiments with different average grain sizes d_p . a) $d_p = 9.2$ mm b) $d_p = 41.6$ mm.

	M_1	M_2
Porosity (-)	0.47	0.53
Average grain size (mm)	9.21	41.65
Average specific surface (m^{-1})	675.80	148.4
Soild density ($Kg \cdot m^{-3}$)	2210	2210
Soil heat capacity ($J \cdot Kg^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$)	840	840
Soil thermal conductivity ($W \cdot m^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$)	2.15	2.15

598

Table 1. Properties of the porous materials

	Re	$q/n \times 10^{-2}$ (m/s)	$v \times 10^{-2}$ (m/s)	$D_{eff} \times 10^{-3}$ (m^2/s)	α (s^{-1})	β (-)	RMSE	r^2
M_1	5.7	0.134	0.109	0.099	0.144		75.659	0.9781
	9.5	0.223	0.222	0.102	0.260		4.835	0.9958
	15.5	0.361	0.321	0.116	0.403		1.176	0.9984
	22.5	0.525	0.486	0.126	0.767	0.480	0.033	0.9999
M_2	23.5	0.106	0.138	0.165	0.003		29.740	0.9815
	46.9	0.211	0.248	0.273	0.006		7.843	0.9886
	69.3	0.312	0.367	0.409	0.008		4.742	0.9904
	105.5	0.475	0.579	0.655	0.012	0.476	1.747	0.9944

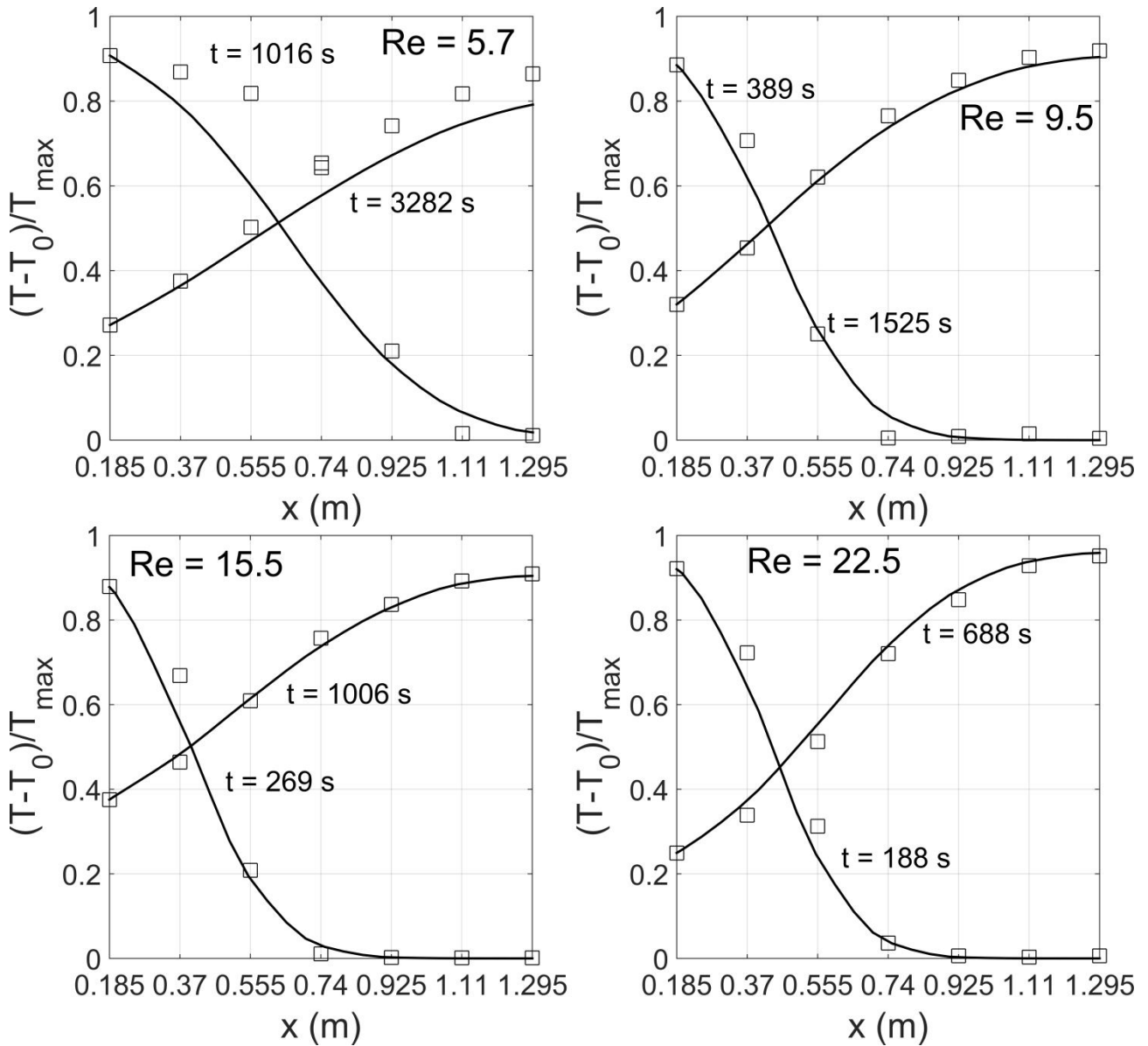
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Table 2. Estimated values of parameters for LTNE model for different Re values.

	Re	Pe	k_{eff}/k_f	Nu	Da
M_1	5.7	70.05	688.83	12.35	146.28
	9.5	142.49	711.48	22.36	130.18
	15.5	205.95	811.60	34.62	139.47
	22.5	311.64	882.13	65.91	175.46
M_2	23.5	402.32	1148.61	6.03	2.10
	46.9	721.64	1902.80	13.42	2.61
	69.3	1068.78	2856.49	17.85	2.34
	105.5	1684.17	4568.91	27.07	2.25

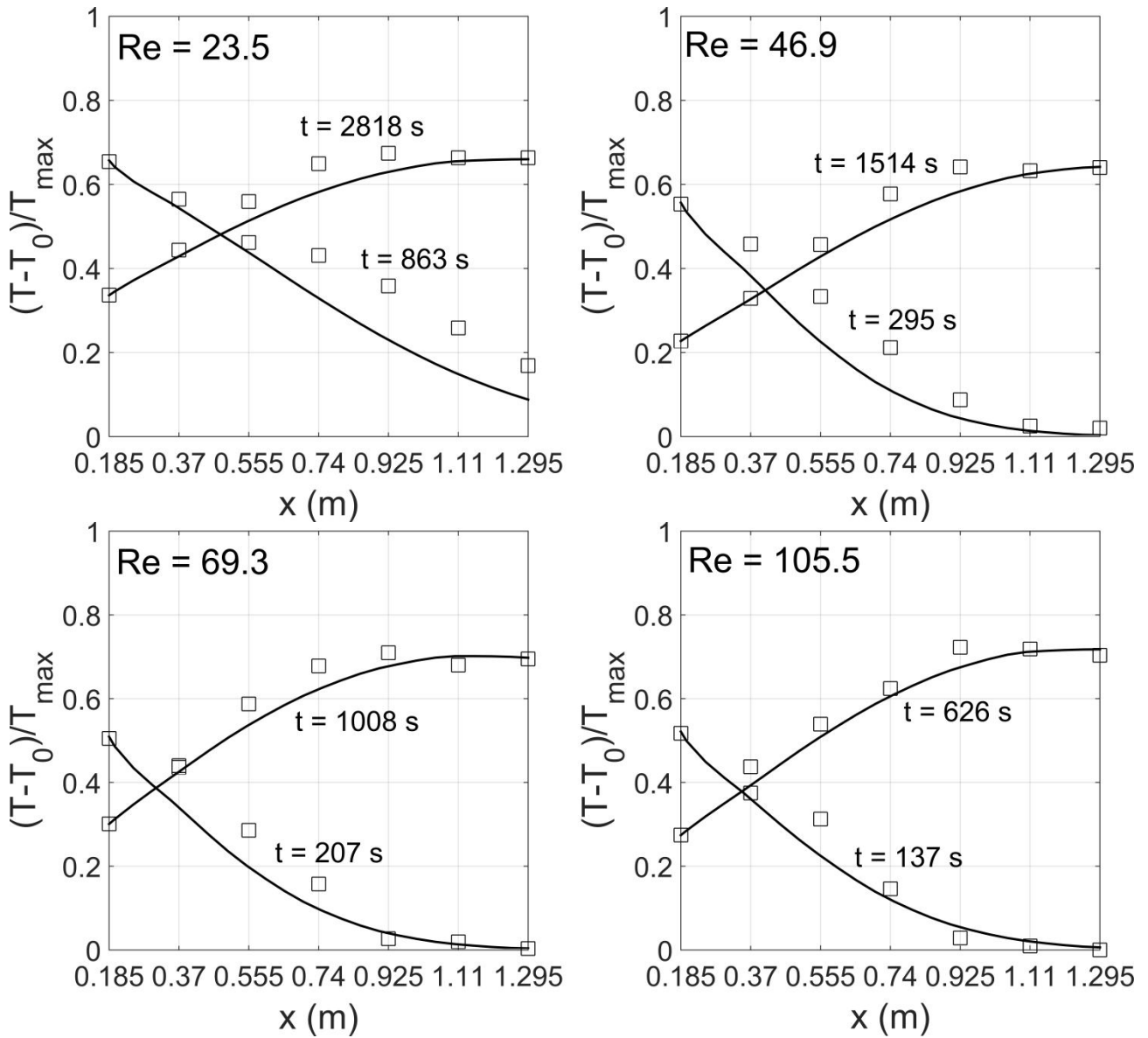
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Table 3. Dimensionless numbers Pe, k_{eff}/k_f , Nu and Da calculated for different Re values.



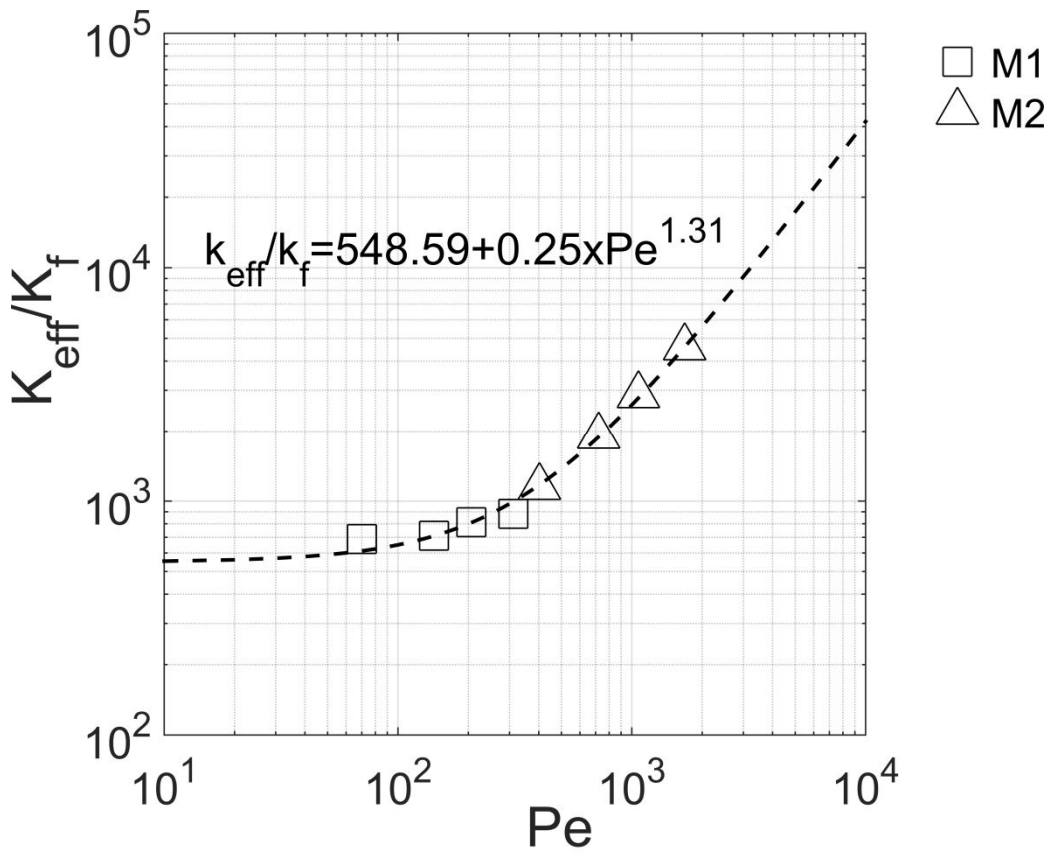
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Figure 3. Temperature distribution for increasing Re values along the porous column filled with material M_1 . The two curves represent the inlet and the downstream temperature. Squares represent the experimental values, the continuous lines represent the simulated values.



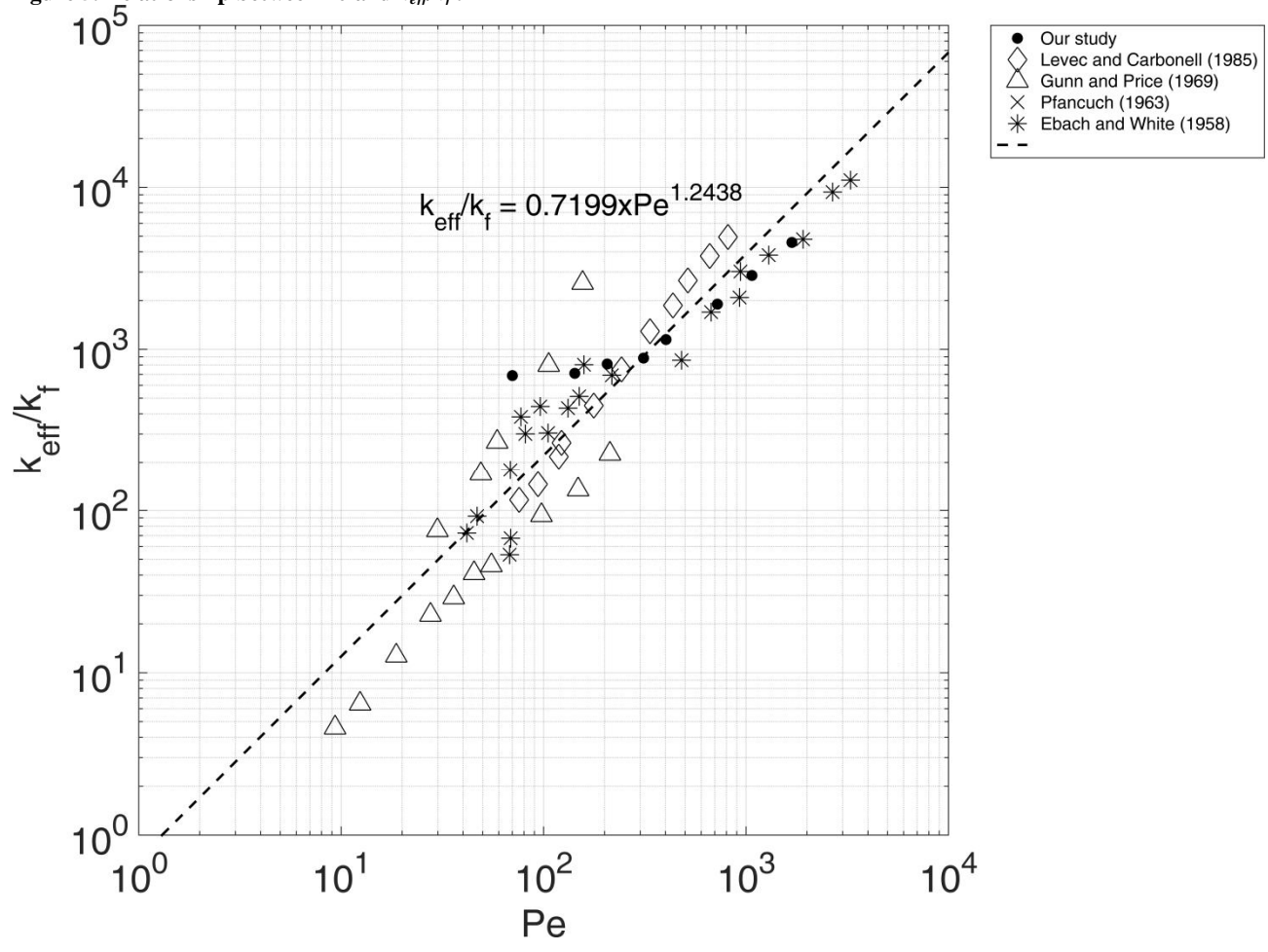
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Figure 4. Temperature distribution for increasing Re values along the porous column filled with material M_2 . The two curves represent the inlet and the downstream temperature. Squares represent the experimental values, continuous lines represent the simulated values.



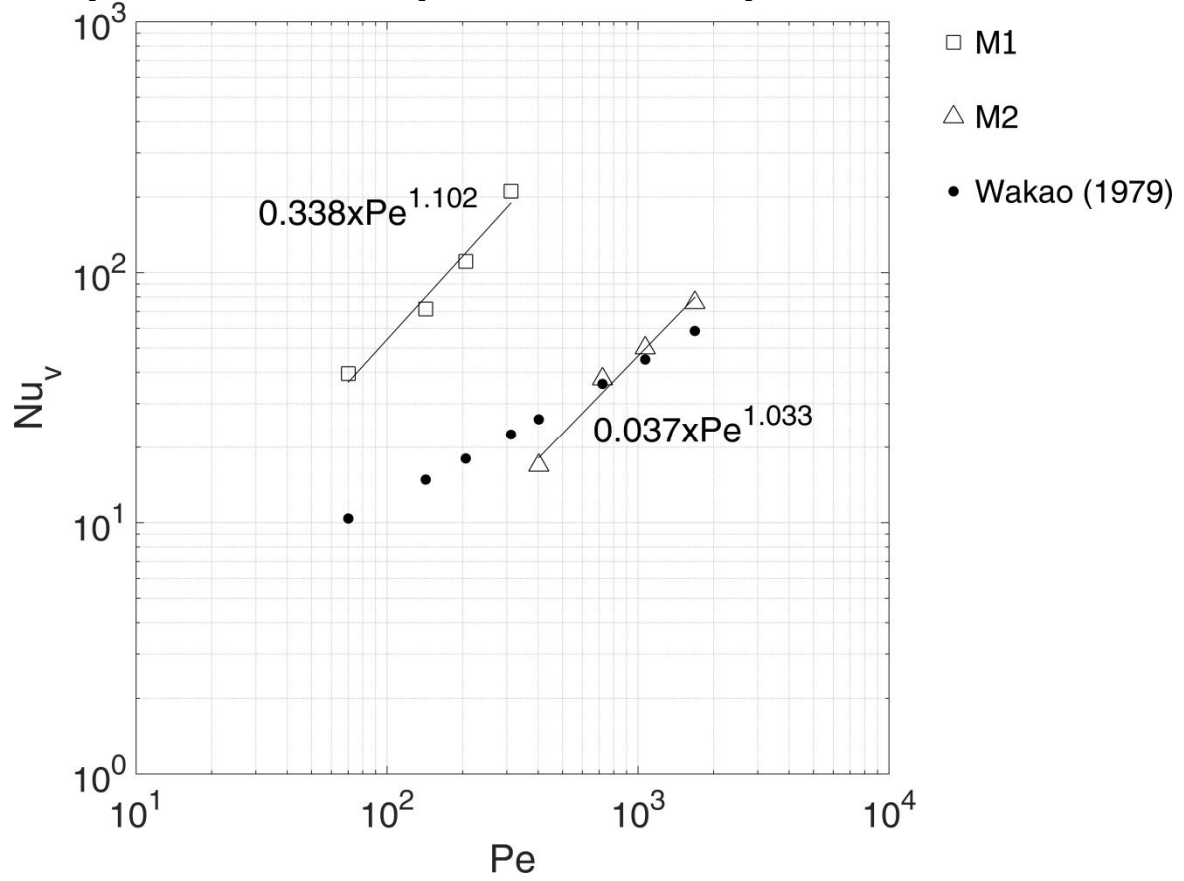
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Figure 5. Relationship between Pe and k_{eff}/k_f .

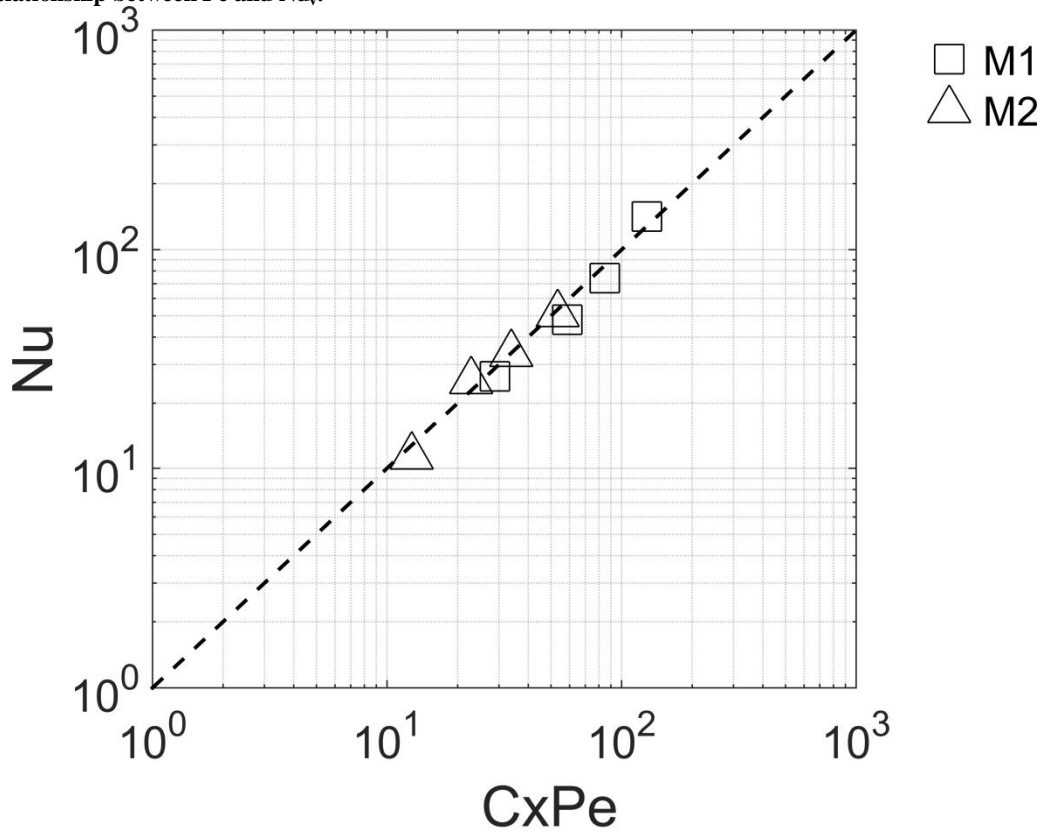


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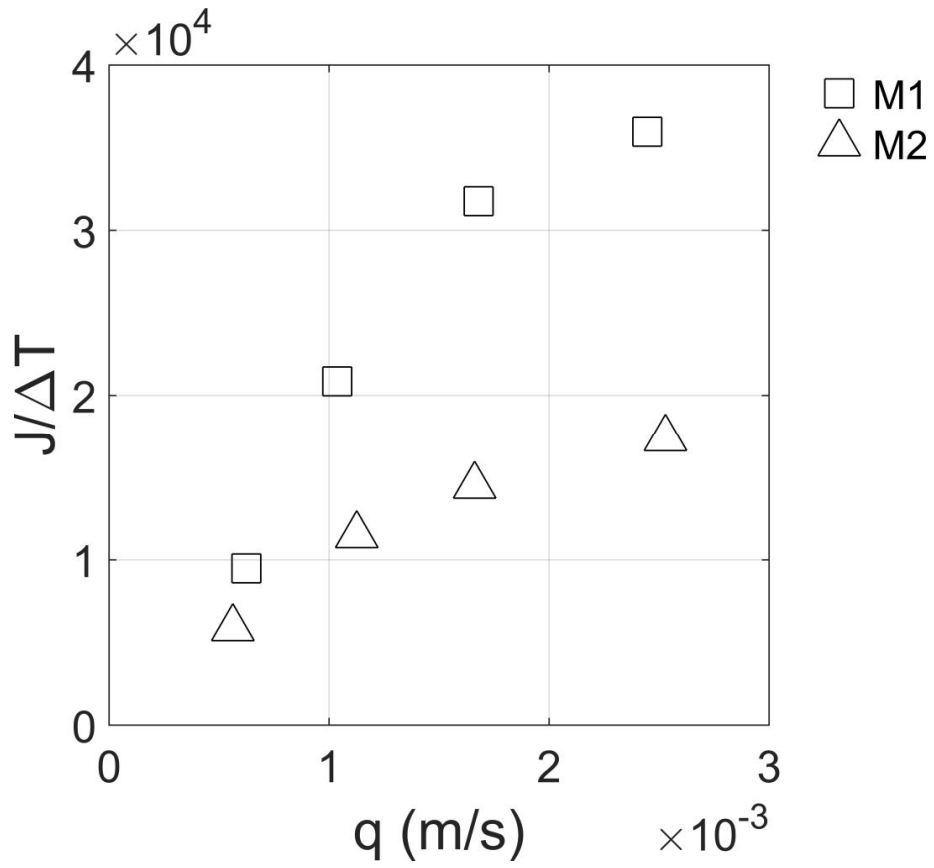
612 Figure 6. comparison between the obtained experimental results with other experiments.



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614 Figure 7. Relationship between Pe and Nu_v .



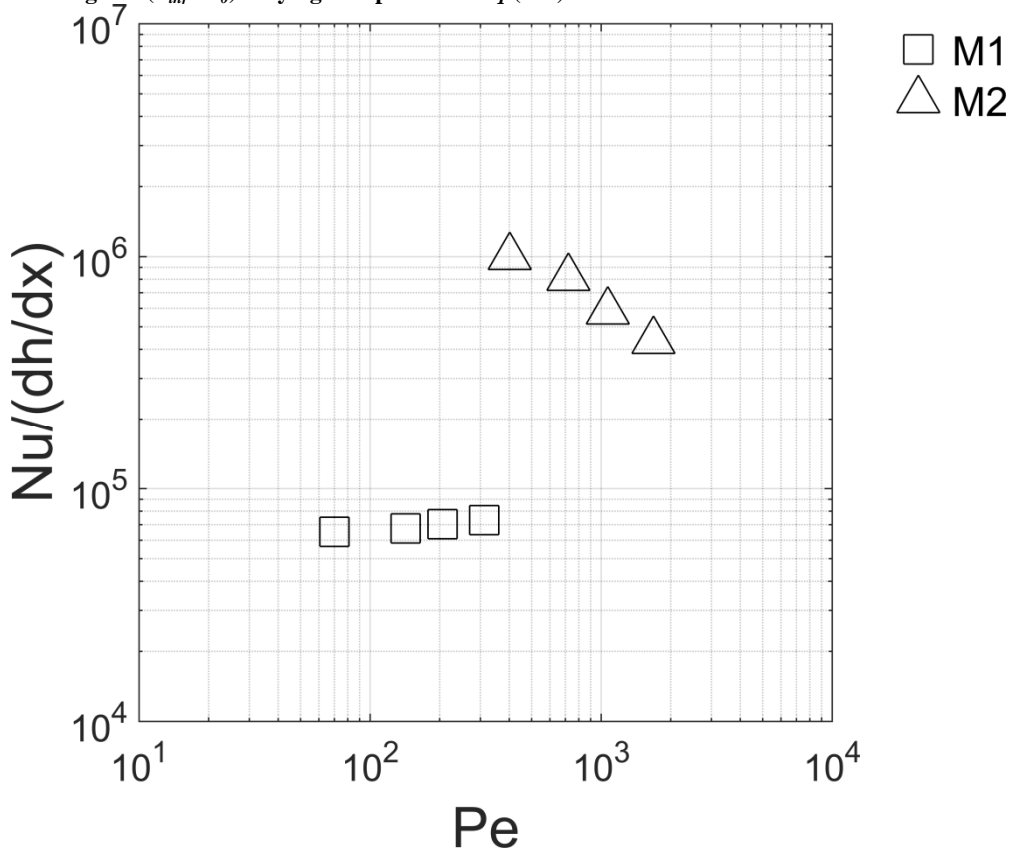
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616 Figure 8. Relationship between $CxPe$ and Nu .



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Figure 9. heat exchanged $J/(T_{ini} - T_0)$ varying the specific rate q (m/s).



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Figure 10. Nusselt number – head loss ratio varying Peclet number.