



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

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 The knowledge of the dynamics of forced convection heat transfer in porous media is relevant in  
13 order to optimize the efficiency of geothermal installations in aquifers.

14 In some applications groundwater is used directly as thermal fluid. The system uses one or several  
15 drilling holes to pump and deliver groundwater with a heat exchange system at surface (open loop).  
16 Other applications use vertical borehole heat exchangers without injection or extraction of  
17 groundwater (closed loop). In both systems the convection flow dynamics in porous media play an  
18 important role on the heat production.

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

29



## 30 **Introduction**

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

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

36 One of the main limits for the development of low – enthalpy geothermal systems concerns the high  
37 cost of investment. Installation of geothermal energy systems requires high upfront capital  
38 investments that often exceed the expectations of depreciation expense, so the investment is  
39 therefore inconvenient and the economic benefits can only occur after a long time. It is therefore of  
40 extreme importance to further the understanding of the behaviour of hydrological systems as  
41 concerns heat transport. Studying heat transfer phenomena takes the advantage of the fact that the  
42 governing partial differential equations used to describe flow and transport processes in porous  
43 media are based on the same form of mass and/or energy conservation laws.

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

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

51 Koh and Colony (1974) carried out an analytical investigation of the performance of a heat  
52 exchanger containing a conductive porous medium using Darcy flow model, while Koh and Stevens  
53 (1975) performed an experimental study of the same problem. They have shown that for a constant  
54 heat flux boundary condition the wall temperature is significantly decreased by using a porous  
55 material in the channel.

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

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



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

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

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

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

75 He modelled the flow in the porous medium using the Brinkman-Forchheimer extended Darcy  
76 model.

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

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

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

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

95 Amiri and Vafai (1994) carried out a steady-state analysis of incompressible flow through a bed of  
96 uniform solid sphere particles packed randomly. The investigation was aimed at exploring the



97 influence of a variety of phenomena such as the inertial effects, boundary effects, and the effect of  
98 the porosity variation model together with the thermal dispersion effect on the momentum and  
99 energy transport in a confined porous bed. They also proved the validity of LTE assumption and the  
100 two-dimensionality effects on transport processes in porous media.

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

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

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

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

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



131 Despite the uncertainty and contradiction in defining the thermal dispersion, several studies  
132 addressed the effects of thermal dispersion in porous media and different approaches have been  
133 developed to describe it (Hsu and Cheng, 1990; Anderson, 2005; Molina-Giraldo et al., 2011).  
134 Thermal dispersion is generally defined as a function of fluid velocity and grain size (Lu et al.,  
135 2009, Sauty et al., 1982, Nield and Bejan, 2006).  
136 According to Sauty et al. (1982) and Molina-Giraldo et al. (2011), the thermal dispersion is a linear  
137 function of flow velocity and relates to the anisotropy of the velocity field whereas Rau et al. (2012)  
138 proposed a dispersion model as a function of the square of the thermal front velocity.  
139 The literature also contains conflicting theories about the magnitude of thermal dispersivity. Smith  
140 and Chapman (1983) state that it has the same order of magnitude as solute dispersivities, while  
141 Ingebritsen and Sanford (1999) neglect it. According to Vandenbohede et al. (2009) thermal  
142 dispersivities are small in comparison to solute dispersivities and less scale-dependent.  
143 Mori et al. (2005) showed experimentally that, for water fluxes ranging between  $0.6 \times 10^{-6}$  and  
144  $0.3 \times 10^{-3}$  (m/s) thermal dispersion was nearly independent of water flow and its effects were  
145 insignificant.  
146 According to Rau et al., (2012), the effect of thermal dispersion on heat transport is significant for  
147 high values of thermal Peclet number. Also Metzger et al. (2004) introduced a dispersion model  
148 based on the thermal Peclet number.  
149 Koch et al. (1989) obtained an analytical expression for the dispersion tensor for a regular  
150 arrangement of cylinders or spheres. They found that for high values of Peclet numbers, the ratio of  
151 longitudinal total thermal diffusivity to the fluid thermal diffusivity was proportional to the square  
152 of the Peclet number while maintaining the transverse dispersion constant. The analytic finding was  
153 in good concordance with the experimental measurements of Gunn and Pryce (1969).  
154 Eidsath et al. (1983) quantified the longitudinal thermal dispersion and stressed that the streamwise  
155 ratio of longitudinal total thermal diffusivity to the fluid thermal diffusivity was proportional to  
156  $Pe^{1.7}$ .  
157 Ait Saada et al. (2006) investigated the behaviour of microscopic inertia and thermal dispersion in a  
158 porous medium with a periodic structure by using a local approach at the pore scale to evaluate the  
159 velocity and temperature fields as well as their intrinsic velocity and temperature fluctuations in a  
160 typical unit cell of the porous medium under study. They concluded that non-linear effects  
161 characterizing microscopic inertia might be the definitive cause of thermal dispersion depending on  
162 the nature of the porous medium and in certain situations can exceed 50% toward the contribution  
163 of thermal dispersion. Particularly for a highly conducting fluid moving with high Peclet numbers,



164 microscopic inertial effects showed to take a great part in the heat transfer duty. They concluded  
165 that a considerable interaction between the velocity and thermal fields exists.  
166 This work is aimed at studying the dynamics of forced convection heat transport in porous media  
167 allowing the understanding of how the grain size and the specific surface affect heat transport in  
168 terms of macrodispersion phenomena, heat transfer between solid and fluid phases and heat storage  
169 properties. In particular, the present study involves the experimental investigation of heat transport  
170 through a thermally isolated column filled with porous medium. Several heat tracer tests have been  
171 carried out using porous media with different grain sizes. The experimental observed breakthrough  
172 curves have been compared with the one dimensional analytical solution for the forced convection  
173 heat transport in local thermal non equilibrium condition. The results highlight the effects of grain  
174 size and the specific surface on forced convection heat transport dynamics in porous media.

### 175 **Theoretical background**

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

$$183 \quad -\frac{dh}{dx} = \frac{\mu}{\rho g k} q + \frac{\beta}{g} q^2 \quad (1)$$

184 Where  $x$  (L),  $k$  ( $L^2$ ) is the permeability,  $\mu$  ( $ML^{-1}T^{-1}$ ) is the viscosity,  $\rho$  ( $ML^{-3}$ ) is the density,  $q$  ( $LT^{-1}$ )  
185 is the darcy velocity and  $\beta$  ( $L^{-1}$ ) is called the non-Darcy coefficient.

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

$$190 \quad k = \frac{d_p^2 n^3}{A(1-n)^2} \quad (2)$$



$$191 \quad \beta = \frac{B(1-n)}{d_p n^3} \quad (3)$$

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

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

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

203 If the solid and fluid phases are in contact for a sufficient period of time, there is the possibility to  
204 establish a local thermal equilibrium (LTE) condition. In such case, only one energy equation is  
205 sufficient for the description of the convective heat transport through the porous medium. Assuming  
206 that porosity, densities and heat capacities are constant in time the energy equation for the fluid and  
207 solid phases are combined into a single equation as:

$$208 \quad (\rho c)_{sf} \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \cdot \left[ -v \rho_f c_f T_f + k_{sf} \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial x} \right] \quad (4)$$

209 With:

$$210 \quad (\rho c)_{sf} = (1-n) \rho_s c_s + n \rho_f c_f \quad (5)$$

$$211 \quad k_{sf} = (1-n) k_s + n k_f \quad (6)$$

212 Where  $T_f$  (K) is the temperature of the fluid,  $\rho_f$  ( $ML^{-3}$ ) is the density of the fluid,  $\rho_s$  ( $ML^{-3}$ ) is the  
213 density of the solid,  $c_f$  ( $LT^2K^{-1}$ ) is the thermal capacitance of the fluid,  $c_s$  ( $LT^2K^{-1}$ ) is the thermal  
214 capacitance of the solid,  $k_f$  ( $MLT^{-3}K^{-1}$ ) is the thermal conductivity of the fluid,  $k_s$  ( $MLT^{-3}K^{-1}$ ) is the  
215 thermal conductivity of the solid, whereas  $(\rho c)_{sf}$  and  $k_{sf}$  represent the equivalent heat capacity and



216 thermal conductivity of the porous domain respectively including porosity and thermal properties of  
 217 solid and fluid.

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

$$224 \quad n\rho_f c_f \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ -vn\rho_f c_f T_f + nk_f \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial x} \right] + q_{fs} \quad (7)$$

$$225 \quad (1-n)\rho_s c_s \frac{\partial T_s}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[ (1-n)k_s \frac{\partial T_s}{\partial x} \right] - q_{fs} \quad (8)$$

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

$$228 \quad q_{fs} = hs_f (T_s - T_f) \quad (9)$$

229 Where  $h$  ( $\text{MT}^{-3}\text{K}^{-1}$ ) is the convective heat transfer coefficient and  $s_f$  ( $\text{L}^{-1}$ ) is the specific surface area.

230 The convective heat transfer coefficient is related to the Nusselt number  $\text{Nu}$  that for the porous  
 231 medium can be expressed as:

$$232 \quad \text{Nu} = \frac{q_{fs} d_p}{k_f (T_f - T_s)} = \frac{h d_p}{k_f} \quad (10)$$

233 The hydrodynamic mixing of the interstitial fluid at the pore scale gives rise to significant thermal  
 234 dispersion phenomena. Generally, the hydrodynamic mixing is due to the presence of obstruction,  
 235 flow restriction and turbulent flow. Therefore, the equivalent thermal conductivity in equation (1)  
 236 and thermal conductivity in equation (4) is replaced with the effective thermal conductivity  $k_{eff}$   
 237 which is the sum of thermal conductivity and thermal dispersion conductivity. The effective thermal  
 238 conductivity depends on various parameters such as mass flow rate, porosity, shape of pores,  
 239 temperature gradient, and solid and fluid thermal properties (Kaviany, 1995). The following  
 240 equation can be used to estimate  $k_{eff}$ .





$$241 \quad \frac{k_{eff}}{k_f} = \frac{k}{k_f} + K \cdot Pe^a \quad (11)$$

242 Pe represents the Peclet number defined as the product between the Reynolds number Re and  
 243 Prandtl number Pr;

$$244 \quad Pe = Re \times Pr = \frac{\rho_f v d_p}{\mu} \times \frac{c_f \mu}{k_f} = \frac{v d_p}{D_f} \quad (12)$$

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

$$246 \quad \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial t} = -v \frac{\partial T_f}{\partial x} + D_{eff} \frac{\partial^2 T_f}{\partial x^2} + \alpha (T_s - T_f) \quad (13)$$

$$247 \quad \frac{1-n}{n} \frac{\rho_s c_s}{\rho_f c_f} \frac{\partial T_s}{\partial t} = \frac{1-n}{n} \frac{k_s}{\rho_f c_f} \frac{\partial^2 T_s}{\partial x^2} - \alpha (T_s - T_f) \quad (14)$$

248 With:

$$249 \quad D_{eff} = \frac{k_{eff}}{\rho_f C_f} \quad (15)$$

$$250 \quad \alpha = \frac{h s_f}{\rho_f C_f} \quad (16)$$

251  $D_{eff}$  ( $L^2 T^{-1}$ ) is the thermal dispersion and  $\alpha$  ( $T^{-1}$ ) is the exchange coefficient.

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



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

$$266 \quad Da = \frac{\alpha L}{\nu} \quad (17)$$

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

271 Neglecting the first term on the right side of the Equation 14, the analytical solution of the system  
 272 equations describing 1D heat transport in semi – infinite domain for instantaneous temperature  
 273 injection is given by Goltz and Robertz (1986). According to this analytical solution, the probability  
 274 of density function  $PDF_{LTNE}$  of the residence time for LTNE condition can be written as:

$$275 \quad PDF_{LTNE}(x, t) = e^{\alpha t} c_0(x, t) + \alpha \int_0^t H(t, \tau) c_0(x, t) d\tau \quad (18)$$

276 With:

$$277 \quad c_0(x, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi D_{eff} t}} \exp\left(\frac{x - vt}{4D_{eff} t}\right) \quad (19)$$

$$278 \quad H(t, \tau) = e^{-\frac{\alpha}{\beta}(t-\tau) - \alpha\tau} \frac{\tau I_1\left(\frac{2\alpha}{\beta} \sqrt{\beta(t-\tau)\tau}\right)}{\sqrt{\beta(t-\tau)\tau}} \quad (20)$$

$$279 \quad \beta = \frac{1-n}{n} \frac{\rho_s c_s}{\rho_f c_f} \quad (21)$$

280 Where  $I_1$  is the modified Bessel function of order 1.

281 The coefficient  $\alpha$  can be viewed as the reciprocal of the exchange time required to transfer energy  
 282 from fluid to solid phase and vice versa. The parameter  $\beta$  (-) represents the ratio between the  
 283 volume specific heat capacity of the solid phase and the fluid. The effect of local thermal non  
 284 equilibrium is stronger when the exchange time is the same order of magnitude of the transport  
 285 time. The local thermal non equilibrium is characterized by thermal distribution profile with a  
 286 tailing effect.



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

$$289 \quad T_{obs}(x, t) = T_{inj}(0, t) * PDF_{LTNE}(x, t) \quad (22)$$

### 290 **Experimental setup**

291 The test on convective heat transport in the porous medium has been conducted on a laboratory  
292 physical model. Figure 1 shows a sketch of the experimental setup. A plastic circular pipe  
293 characterized by a diameter of  $D = 0.11$  m and height of  $H = 1.66$  m has been thermally insulated  
294 using a roll of elastomeric foam with a thickness of  $s = 0.04$  m and a thermal conductivity of  $\lambda =$   
295  $0.037 \text{ Wm}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}$ . The pipe can be filled with different porous materials with different grain sizes and  
296 hydrothermal properties. Seven thermocouples have been equally placed along the axis of the pipe  
297 with a reciprocal distance of 0.185 m. The first thermocouple is located at a distance of 0.435 m  
298 from the inlet of the water. TC08 Thermocouple Data Logger (pico Thecnology) with sampling rate  
299 equal to 1 second has been connected with the thermocouples. An adaptable constant head reservoir  
300 and an outlet reservoir permit to maintain a constant head during the test and water within the pipe  
301 flows from the bottom to the top. An ultrasonic velocimeter (DOP3000 by Signal Processing) is  
302 used to measure the instantaneous flow rate. An electric water boiler characterized by a volume  
303 equal to  $0.01 \text{ m}^3$  has been used to heat the water flowing through the pipe.

304 A medium gravel ( $M_1$ ) (USDA, 1975) and a very coarse gravel ( $M_2$ ) (USDA, 1975) have been  
305 used.. The Figure 2 shows the tested materials whereas in Table 1 are reported the hydraulic and the  
306 thermal parameters of each material. The grain size and the specific surface of each porous material  
307 is directly estimated on a sample of one hundred grains. Whereas the porosity is estimated by the  
308 ratio between the volume void space and the total volume of the filled plastic circular pipe. The  
309 volume of the void space is obtained measuring the amount of water which enters in the pipe until  
310 full saturation. The thermal characteristics reported in the table 1 are literature values  
311 ([www.engineeringtoolbox.com](http://www.engineeringtoolbox.com)). The temperature tracer tests involve the observation of the  
312 thermal breakthrough curves (BTCs) monitored by the seven thermocouples. Initially cold water  
313 flows through the pipe filled with the porous medium in order to have a constant temperature  $T_0$   
314 along the pipe. Subsequently hot water is flows through the pipe, maintaining a constant head  
315 condition during the test.

### 316 **Discussion**



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

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

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

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

336 Another discrepancy has been observed comparing the values of the porosity presented in table 1  
337 and the value of porosity obtained from the equation 18 equal to 0.467 and 0.469 respectively for  
338  $M_1$  and  $M_2$ . For  $M_1$  the value of porosity presented in table 1 reaches the value derived from  $\beta$ .  
339 Whereas for  $M_2$  the value presented in table 1 is higher than the value derived from  $\beta$ .

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

343 In figure 5 is reported the relationships between  $Pe$  and the ratio between the effective thermal  
344 conductivity and the fluid thermal conductivity  $k_{eff}/k_f$ . The experimental results show a non linear  
345 behavior well represented by equation (8). A change of slope is evident changing from  $M_1$  to  $M_2$ .  
346 The latter material shows a more pronounced thermal dispersion caused by the hydrodynamic  
347 mixing of fluid at the pore scale. Some mixing is caused by the tortuosity of the flow paths due to the



348 presence of obstructions: the fluid elements starting a given distance from each other and  
349 proceeding at the same velocity will not remain at the same distance apart. The high level of flow  
350 path heterogeneity gives rise to a higher velocity variation at pore scale as well as the presence of  
351 the preferential flow paths that enhance the effect of macrodispersion. Mixing can also be caused by  
352 recirculation caused by local regions of reduced pressure arising from flow restrictions.  
353 Further mixing can arise from the fact that all pores in a porous medium may not be accessible to a  
354 fluid element after it has entered a particular flow path.  
355 These results are coherent with those obtained by Rau et al (2012) who found that the thermal  
356 dispersion was transitioning between not depending on the flow velocity and a non linear increase  
357 with velocity. They affirmed that the location of the transition zone is a function of the thermal  
358 properties of the solid and the sedimentological architecture.  
359 Figure 6 shows the relationship between  $Pe$  and  $Nu$ . The experimental results highlight that the  
360 Nusselt number can be represented by an equation like  $Nu = C \times Pe$ , where  $C$  (-) is a coefficient that  
361 assumes a value equal to 0.41 for  $M_1$  and 0.03 for  $M_2$ . This coefficient has the physical meaning of  
362 the ratio between the surface of the grains in contact with the active flow path that transports heat  
363 and the total surface of the grain.  $M_2$  respect to  $M_1$  is characterized by the presence of preferential  
364 flow paths and then an equal number of  $Pe$  corresponding to a lower  $Nu$  because the surface of the  
365 grain available to exchange heat between the fluid and solid phase is lower.  
366 As shown in table 3 the Damköhler number  $Da$  calculated for  $M_1$  is greater than the unit. Heat  
367 exchange is so rapid giving rise to an instantaneous equilibrium between solid and fluid phase. The  
368 heat has enough time to diffuse in solid phase. Contrarily  $Da$  calculated for  $M_2$  is close to the unit,  
369 there is the presence of the local thermal non equilibrium condition.  
370 A comparison of the heat  $J$  ( $ML^2T^{-2}$ ) stored in the porous column per unit temperature difference  
371  $\Delta T = T_{inj} - T_0$  (K) varying the specific discharge  $q$  for each tested porous medium can be evaluated  
372 considering a continuous temperature injection function as:

$$373 \quad \frac{J}{\Delta T} = \rho_f c_f Q \int_0^{\infty} \left( 1 - \int_0^t PDF(L, \tau) d\tau \right) dt \quad (23)$$

374 The combined effects of the flow rate and the particle diameter on heat transfer are illustrated in  
375 Figure 7 that shows the variation of the heat stored in the column per unit temperature difference  
376 varying the specific discharge for  $M_1$  and  $M_2$ . As the flow rate increases, the stored heat increases,  
377 and the porous medium with a smaller particle diameter generates a higher increase in heat transfer  
378 enhancement than one with a larger particle diameter. This is coherent with the results obtained by  
379 Dehghan and Aliparast (2011) and Kifah (2004).  $M_1$  permits to store more heat than  $M_2$ . The former



380 is characterized by a more homogeneous flow path distribution that allows a greater interaction  
381 between fluid and solid phase. On the contrary  $M_2$  has a more heterogeneous flow path distribution  
382 that increases thermal macrodispersion phenomena at the pore scale and at the same time reduces  
383 the interaction between the fluid and solid phase.

384 In order to put into evidence the performance of the heat transfer enhancement of the porous  
385 materials it can be useful to compare the Nusselt number and the hydraulic head loss  $dh/dx$   
386 evaluated by equation 1. The Figure 8 shows the ratio between the Nusselt number and head loss as  
387 function of the Peclet number. Despite  $M_1$  presents a higher heat transfer enhancement respect to  
388  $M_2$ , the head losses are higher and then the ratio between Nu and  $dh/dx$  is lower. Furthermore, as Pe  
389 increases, the heat transfer enhancement increases more rapidly than the head loss for the fine  
390 material  $M_1$ , whereas for the coarser material  $M_2$  the opposite happens: increasing the Peclet  
391 number the Nusselt number increases weakly due to the presence of channeling phenomena that  
392 reduce the heat exchange area between fluid and solid phases.

393

#### 394 **Conclusion**

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

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

408 This can also be seen analyzing the ratio between the Nusselt number and the head loss as function  
409 of Peclet number for both materials. Even though the coarser material  $M_2$  is more permeable than  
410  $M_1$  as the advective phenomena increase, the head loss increases more rapidly than the heat transfer



411 enhancement due to the channeling effect that increases the macrodispersion phenomena and  
412 reduces the heat transfer between fluid and solid phase.

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

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

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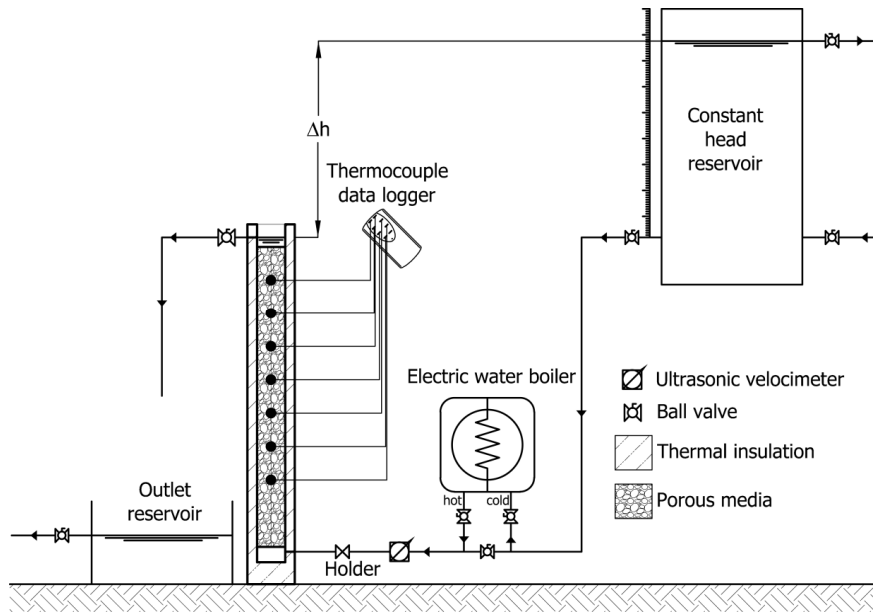




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535

536 **Figure 1. Setup of experimental apparatus**



537

538 **Figure 2. Samples of the materials used for the experiments with different average grain sizes  $d_p$ . a)  $d_p = 9.2$  mm b)  $d_p = 41.6$**   
 539 **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

540 **Table 1. Properties of the porous materials**

$Re$	$q/n \times 10^{-2}$ (m/s)	$v \times 10^{-2}$ (m/s)	$D_{eff} \times 10^{-3}$ ( $m^2/s$ )	$\alpha$ ( $s^{-1}$ )	$\beta$ (-)	RMSE	$r^2$
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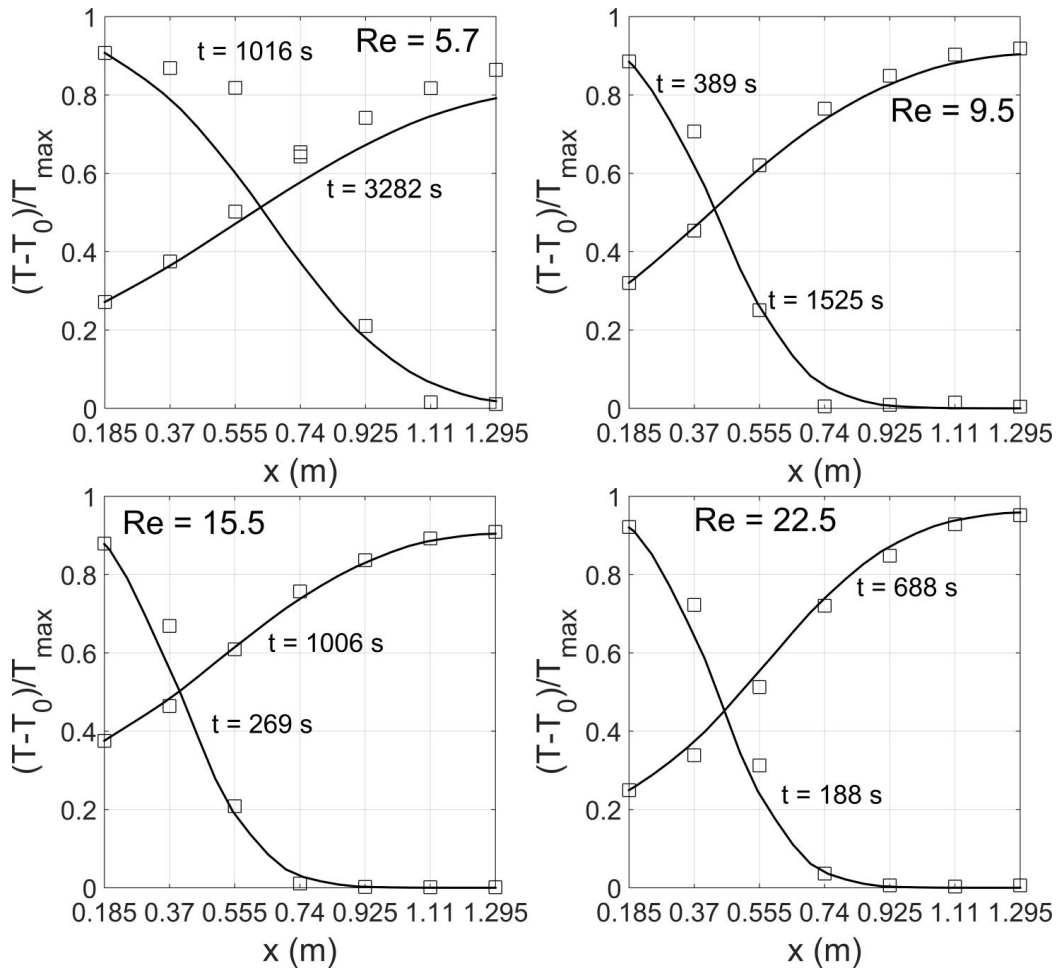


	5.7	0.134	0.109	0.099	0.144	75.659	0.9781
$M_1$	9.5	0.223	0.222	0.102	0.260	4.835	0.9958
	15.5	0.361	0.321	0.116	0.403	1.176	0.9984
	22.5	0.525	0.486	0.126	0.767	0.480	0.033
	23.5	0.106	0.138	0.165	0.003	29.740	0.9815
$M_2$	46.9	0.211	0.248	0.273	0.006	7.843	0.9886
	69.3	0.312	0.367	0.409	0.008	4.742	0.9904
	105.5	0.475	0.579	0.655	0.012	0.476	1.747
							0.9944

541 **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	26.51	146.28
	9.5	142.49	711.48	47.98	130.18
	15.5	205.95	811.60	74.30	139.47
	22.5	311.64	882.13	141.45	175.46
$M_2$	23.5	402.32	1148.61	11.32	2.10
	46.9	721.64	1902.80	25.21	2.61
	69.3	1068.78	2856.49	33.52	2.34
	105.5	1684.17	4568.91	50.84	2.25

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

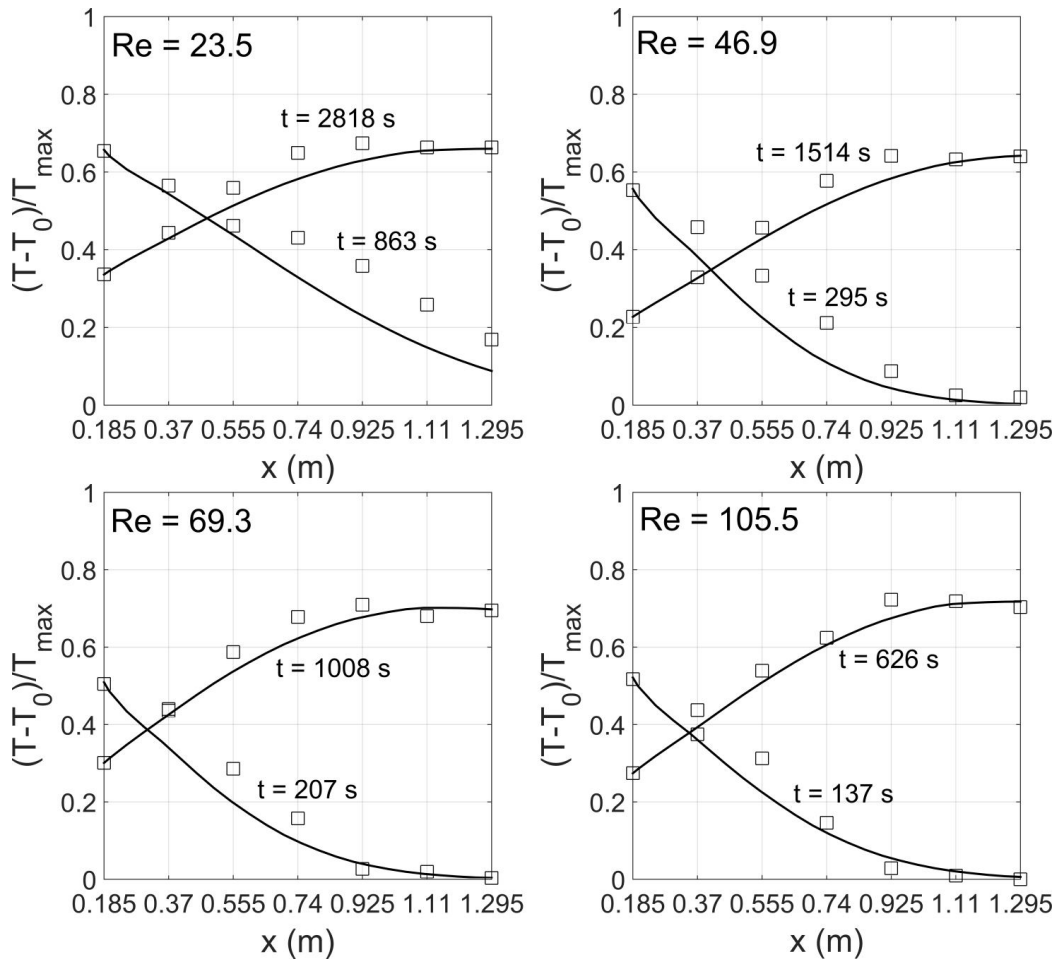


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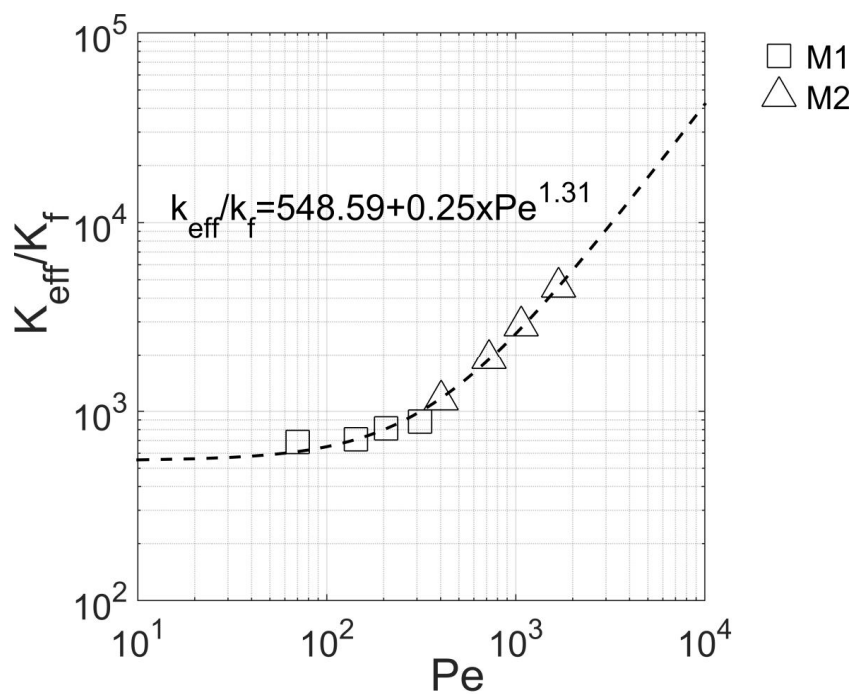
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Figure 3. Temperature distribution for different Re values along the porous column filled with material  $M_1$ . Squares represent the experimental values, the continuous lines represent the simulated values.



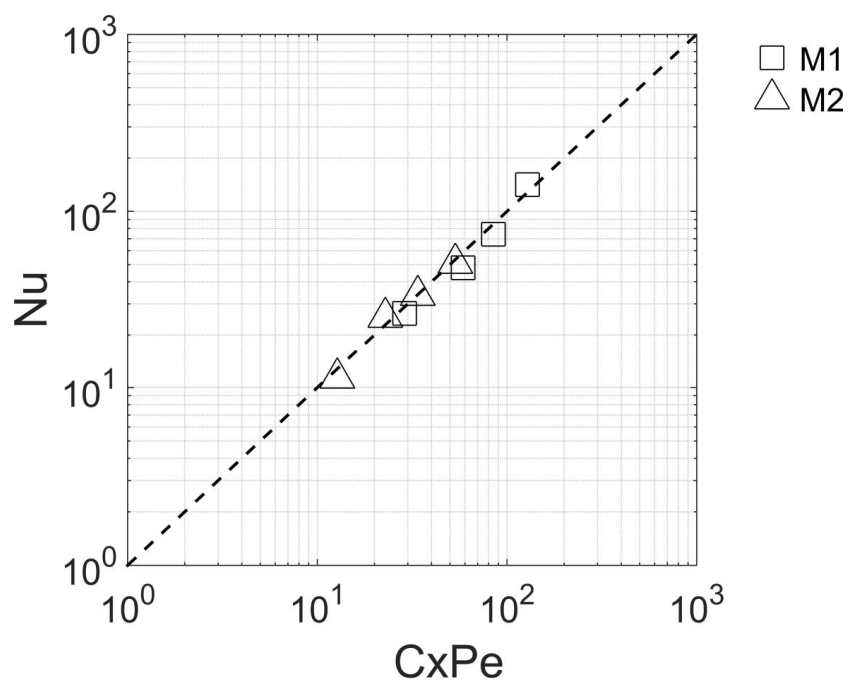
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547 **Figure 4.** Temperature distribution for different Re values along the porous column filled with material  $M_2$ . Squares  
548 represent the experimental values, continuous lines represent the simulated values.



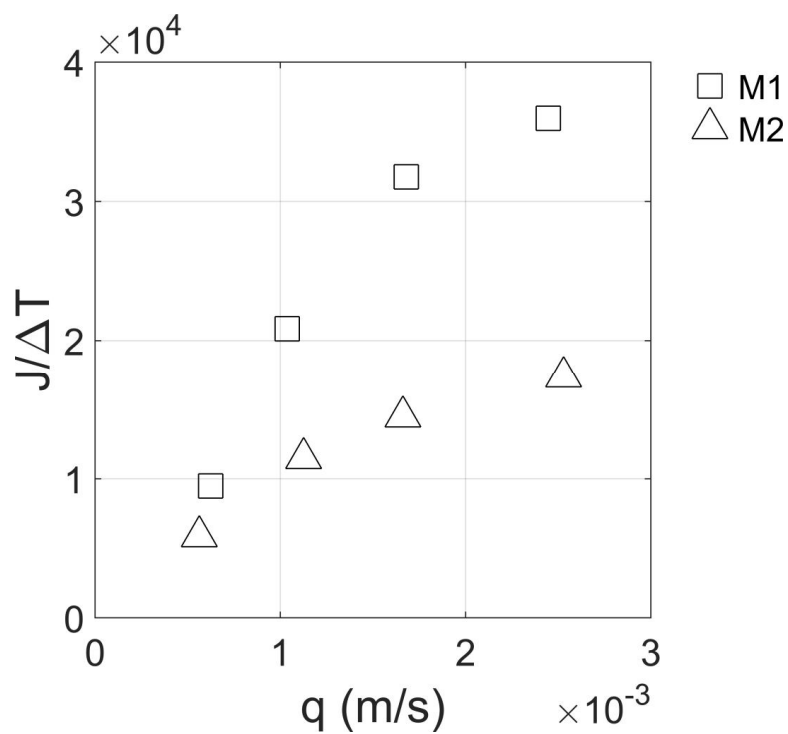
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550 **Figure 5.** Relationship between  $Pe$  and  $k_{eff}/k_f$ .



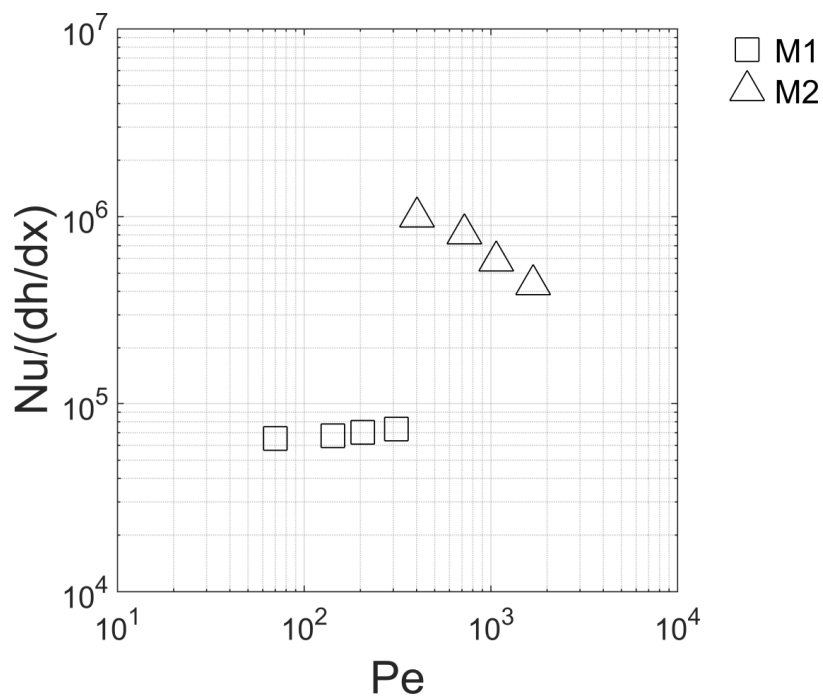
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552 **Figure 6.** Relationship between  $CxPe$  and  $Nu$ .



553

554 Figure 7. heat exchanged  $J/(T_{inj} - T_0)$  varying the specific rate  $q$  (m/s).



555





556

557 **Figure 8. Nusselt number – head loss ratio varying Peclet number.**