



# 1 X-ray CT analysis of pore structure in sand

2  
3 **Toshifumi Mukunoki<sup>1</sup>, Yoshihisa Miyata<sup>2</sup>, Kazuaki Mikam<sup>3</sup> and Erika Shiota<sup>1</sup>**

4  
5 <sup>1</sup> X-Earth Center, Graduate School of Science and Technology, Kumamoto University, 1-39-2  
6 Kurokami Kumamoto-city, Kumamoto, JAPAN

7 <sup>2</sup> Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering National Defense Academy, 1-10-20  
8 Hashirimizu, Yokosuka, JAPAN

9 <sup>3</sup> Japan Oil, Gas and Metals National Corporation, Toranomom Twin Building 2-10-1 Toranomom,  
10 Minato-ku, Tokyo, JAPAN

11  
12 Corresponding author to: Toshifumi Mukunoki (mukunoki@kumamoto-u.ac.jp)

## 13 14 ABSTRACT

15 The development of a micro-focused X-ray CT device enables digital imaging analysis at the  
16 pore-scale. The applications have been diverse, for instance, in soil mechanics, geotechnical and  
17 geoenvironmental engineering, petroleum engineering, and agricultural engineering. In particular,  
18 imaging of the pore space of porous media has contributed to numerical simulations for single and  
19 multi-phase flow, or contaminant transport, through the pore structure as three-dimensional image  
20 data. These obtained results are affected by the pore diameter so it is necessary to verify the image  
21 pre-processing for image analysis, and validate the pore diameters obtained from the CT image data.  
22 Besides, it is meaningful to produce the parameters in a representative element volume (REV) and  
23 significant to define the dimension of REV. This paper describes the underlying method of image  
24 processing and analysis and discusses the physical properties of Toyoura sand for the verification of  
25 image analysis based on the definition of REV. Based on the obtained verification results, pore  
26 diameter analysis can be conducted and validated by the comparison of the experimental work and  
27 image analysis. The pore diameter was deduced by Laplace's law and the water retentively test for  
28 the drainage process. The referenced results and perforated-pore diameter proposed originally in  
29 this study, called the voxel-percolation method (VPM), are compared in this paper. The paper  
30 describes the limitation of REV, the definition of pore diameter, and the effectiveness of VPM for  
31 the assessment of pore diameter.

32  
33 Key words: Pore diameter, Image analysis, REV, percolation, X-ray CT

34



## 1 1. INTRODUCTION

2 The estimation of pore dimensions and pore networks in soil is one of the most important studies to  
3 evaluate the mechanical and hydrodynamic properties for soil science, soil mechanics, geotechnical  
4 and geoenvironmental engineering, and petroleum engineering [Carman (1939), Brooks and Corey  
5 (1964), Topp and Miller (1966), Bear (1972), Mualem (1976), Chatzis et al. (1983), Dullien (1992),  
6 Helming (1997), Chanpus (2004), Culligan et al. (2006), Riyadh (2007), Gharbi and Nlunt (2012) ].  
7 In fact, it is difficult to define pore dimensions in grains because the pores are surrounded by grains  
8 and are thus not isolated. Figure 1 illustrates a pore in spheres. As shown in Figure 1(a), five  
9 spheres surround one pore such that the pore should be defined by nine contacting points. However,  
10 the pore space is not closed by the five spheres. The shape of soil particles is not spherical, but  
11 rather a complicated shape so the pore dimension is able to be defined based on assumption only.  
12 Figure 2 shows the X-ray CT image of a grain sample in two dimensions. The X-ray CT shows the  
13 spatial distribution of density, which enables the soil particles and pores to be distinguished.  
14 Locally, the longest and shortest length of the pore, as shown in Figure 2 (a), can be measured by  
15 using software for image analysis. However, it is partial property of the pore, and the required  
16 information is at least a property in representative volume. It should be required not to measure  
17 individual pore dimensions by using software, but to estimate them by using a systematic method.  
18 Moreover, complicated pores have an aspect ratio as shown in Figure 2, so the discussion of  
19 connectivity of pores will be required for the study of the hydrodynamic issue in soils. The  
20 challenge of this paper is to propose an evaluation method for the pore dimensions.

21  
22 Here shall we look back the current technique on the pore analysis. The most popular method for  
23 measuring pores in soil is the indirect methods of the mercury intrusion technique (MIT) or the air  
24 intrusion method (AIM). These methods are based on the concept that the pore structure assumes a  
25 straight tube. Thus, the three-dimensional pore network is not an issue. Through recent  
26 developments of the scanning electron microscope (SEM) and non-destructive testing methods such  
27 as computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) the pore structure in soil can  
28 be measured directly. In particular, CT is applicable by using rays, for example, sound, ultrasound,  
29 x-ray and gamma ray, so that the pore structure of various engineering materials [Otani and Obara  
30 (2003), Desrues et al. (2006), Alshibli and Reed (2010) and Cnudde and Bernard (2013)] can be  
31 scanned. Additionally, advanced CT has been developed to scan in the micro scale [Altman et  
32 al.(2005), Wildenschild et al. (2002), Wildenschild et al. (2005), Wildenschild et al. (2005),  
33 Mukunoki et al. 2010, Higo et al. (2011), Wildenschild and Sheppard (2013), Andrew et al (2014),



1 Andrew et al. (2015) and Taylor et al. (2015)]. To evaluate a structure consisting of a great number  
2 of pores, a suitable image analysis method is required.

3

4 The most popular method to evaluate the porosity of porous materials from CT is based on a  
5 statistical assumption. Parameters of the distribution function based on CT data can be determined  
6 by an optimization technique [e.g. Kato et al. (2014) and Mukunoki et al. (2014)]. The accuracy of  
7 these methods depends on the selection of distribution functions based on the CT data. The required  
8 number and type of functions are still under discussion and there may be a number of solutions to  
9 these issues.

10

11 This paper discusses the evaluation method of pore structure of sand from micro focused CT scan  
12 data. In this paper, authors distinguish pore from pore structure. In the first part of the paper, the  
13 authors propose the application of the mathematical morphology method for estimating the pores of  
14 sand. By showing the analysis results of simple subjects, the usefulness of proposed method will be  
15 validated. Next, the importance of the selection of a representative element volume (REV) is  
16 discussed for estimating the grain size distribution and the averaged pore index, such as the porosity  
17 and specific surface. The authors show there is an optimum REV in this analysis. Based on the  
18 above fundamental examination to treat CT data, the authors propose a voxel-percolation method  
19 (VPM) to evaluate the pore structure of sand. The estimated results are compared with a water  
20 retention curve test, and the effectiveness of proposed method is described. It concluded that the  
21 required resolution to evaluate the pore structure is almost equivalent to that for a pore. The final  
22 objective of this research is to develop a general method for soils. As a primary research, the  
23 evaluation of sand will be treated in this paper because it is natural material and has a uniform grain  
24 shape.

25

26

## 27 **2. X RAY-CT SCAN**

28

29 Table 1 lists the specifications of the micro-focused X-ray CT scanner (TOSHIBA TOSCANNER  
30 32300 FPD) installed at the X-Earth Center at Kumamoto University in 2010. In general,  
31 360-degree radioscopic image data, for an inspection object placed on a sample table, is obtained  
32 using an X-ray image intensifier by turning the table while irradiating the object with X-rays. This  
33 radioscopic image data is then used in reconstruction calculations, which result in cross-sectional



1 images. Because the generated X-ray beam is a polychromatic beam with a wide range of  
2 frequencies, corrections are made for the beam-hardening effect. Radioscopic images alone are not  
3 sufficient to accurately represent internal components that have a complex structure. Tomographic  
4 reconstruction allows the detection of fine flaws, foreign matter, separation, and other phenomena.  
5 State-of-the-art technology allows for high-precision and high-speed inspection, permitting new  
6 applications in various fields. Figure 3 shows an illustration of the internal view of the  
7 micro-focused X-ray CT scanner. The detector is a flat panel detector (FPD), which enables  
8 three-dimensional scanning with a cone-shaped X-ray beam. The scan speed depends on the  
9 scanning conditions. The sample was placed on the scan table and scanned with the cone-shaped  
10 X-ray beam. During scanning, the scan table was rotated to obtain a 360° scan. A back projection of  
11 the X-ray attenuation was detected on the FPD. The X-ray CT images obtained were free from the  
12 ring artifact normally seen in CT images because the scanner applied a filter function to reduce this  
13 during the image reconstruction process.

14

15 Table 2 lists the scan condition selected for this study. An of x-ray tube voltage of 60 kV and a  
16 current of 200  $\mu\text{A}$  were chosen, and the focus-to-center distance (FCD) was defined as 24.7 mm;  
17 hence the dimension of one voxel is  $5\times 5\times 5\ \mu\text{m}$  in this study. In general, the scan condition depends  
18 on the target of study and the voltage, current and FCD should be variable. The scan conditions  
19 selected in this study are not absolute conditions, and each user has to find the best condition to  
20 observe the target in each study. Figure 4 shows the photograph of the scan setup in the  
21 micro-focused X-ray CT room. To obtain high-resolution images, the specimen must be in close  
22 proximity to the X-ray tube, as shown in Figure 4. The soil tested was Toyoura sand with a dry  
23 density of  $1.57\ \text{t/m}^3$  (i.e., the porosity was 0.41). The sample was well packed into an acrylic mold  
24 with a diameter of 10 mm and a thickness of 1 mm. If the diameter of the specimen is greater than  
25 10 mm, for example 20 - 30 mm, the center of the specimen is too far from the X-ray tube and  
26 high-resolution CT images cannot be obtained because of the loss of focus distance between the  
27 X-ray tube and the center of the specimen.

28

### 29 **3. IMAGE PROCESSING OF A PORE IN SAND BASED ON X-RAY CT DATA**

30

#### 31 **3.1 Outline of image processing of a pore in sand**

32 There may be some methods of treating image processing of a pore in sand from X-ray CT data. In  
33 this paper, the applicability of mathematical-morphology is discussed. The



1 mathematical-morphology shows the complicated form by using element whose dimension is  
2 known [Soille (2003)]. The basic operations are available in many image analysis software  
3 packages [Luis et al. (2005)]. The pore has a complicated form so this concept may be useful for  
4 evaluation.

5

6 The basic process for image analysis in this study is as follows:

- 7 1) Image segmentation to create a binary image from an original image (3.1.1);
- 8 2) Determination of pore diameter using a granulometric method based on mathematical  
9 morphology (3.1.2);

10

### 11 3.1.1 Image segmentation

12 As the first step of image analysis, the pore and grain are identified from CT-data. For the operation,  
13 the image segmentation method developed by [Otsu (1979)] was used because the Toyoura sand  
14 tested showed two distinct peaks in this study. Two peaks of CT values indicate the two phases of  
15 particles and pore space, respectively. During this process, the binary data is set such that the grain  
16 is black and the pore is white. By determining the voxel number for each region, the averaged index  
17 showing the pore, such as the void ratio, can be evaluated. However, by this process, the  
18 distribution of the pores according to size cannot be evaluated.

19

### 20 3.1.2 Granulometric method

21 In the second step of image analysis, for each pore which is identified by binary data, the shape is  
22 evaluated by using mathematical morphology. Based on this concept, unit element B belongs to a  
23 pore X. Then the unit element in X,  $B_x$ , can be written by following equation.

24

$$25 \quad B_x = B \cup X \quad (1)$$

26

27 It is likely that the shape of unit element is a square or a circle with a symmetric shape. In this study,  
28 the target subject is a pore and the interest is its size. Obtaining the image of a pore from the X-ray  
29 CT scanner, the dimensions of the pore can be shown by using the unit element, because dimension  
30 of the unit element can be regulated. In this study, the unit element of a sphere is used, thus the  
31 element is called the sphere element in this paper.

32

33 Figure 5 illustrates the sphere element. In this study, thirteen sizes of sphere element are used. In



1 this figure, the first three elements are shown. The number of the maximum sphere element used as  
2 a radius is  $r=13$  in this study. The smallest element is one voxel (Figure. 5(a)). Elements with a  
3 lower sphere number do not appear exactly spherical in shape. However, the greater the number of  
4 voxel for diameter of structural element, the more it spherical it becomes, as shown in Figure 5. The  
5 voxel number as a diameter of a sphere element,  $D$  can be defined as per following equation:

6

$$7 \quad D=2r+1 \quad r \geq 0 \quad (2)$$

8

9 where  $r$  is a voxel number from the center of the sphere element. As shown in Figure 5, when  $r$  is 1,  
10 which is the minimum number,  $d$  is 3; therefore, the diameter of sphere element is 3. The diameter  
11 increased based on the center inclusion concept, so the diameter of the sphere element should be  
12 always an odd number. The more  $r$  increases, the more the shape of the sphere structure  $l$  becomes  
13 spherical. For the generation of a sphere element with different dimension, Image Tool Kit called  
14 ITK [Luis et al. (2005)] was used.

15

16 The granulometric method can recreate the complicated pore space by overlapping sphere elements  
17 with several different diameters. Initially, the smallest sphere element, i.e., one voxel, should be  
18 applied to the analysis area, which is a pore space, and it should occupy the entire pore space. Then,  
19 the next sphere element with a diameter of 3 voxels, as shown in Figure 5, is applied same area of  
20 pore space, but the next sphere element cannot occupy the entire pore space. Likewise, the entire  
21 pore space is scanned by each sphere element and the more complicated the pore shape, the more  
22 sphere elements with different diameter will be required. In the granulometric method, the sphere  
23 element is overlapped partially; hence, the distribution of pore diameter indicates that the  
24 non-overlapped part of sphere element is evaluated by the voxel number. In addition, the  
25 summation of the overlap ratio of the sphere element at each step can be used to evaluate the pore  
26 volume and saturation degree by the voxel percolation method, explained in the following section.

27

### 28 **3.2 Verification of image processing for simple objects**

29 Figure 6(a)-(e) explains the features of the granulometric method. Figure 6(a) and (b) illustrate a  
30 circle and a square rotated  $45^\circ$  in the dimension of  $200 \times 200$  (i.e. the total voxel number is 40000),  
31 and Figure 6(c) prepares the circle and square in the dimension of  $400 \times 200$  (i.e. the total voxel  
32 number is 80000). Let us define the space other than the circle and square as pore space. It is noted  
33 that authors refer to a sphere element as a circle element in this section because the target subject is



1 drawn in two dimensions. At the end of the image analysis using the granulometric method, herein  
2 referred as granulometric image analysis (GIA), authors can count the number of voxel involved in  
3 each sphere element. All images classified by each sphere element, as shown in Figure 6, were  
4 overlapped in the order of the diameter of the circle element. The number of voxel for a minimum  
5 circle element is equal to the number of pore structure in total. Hence, the number of voxel for  
6 circle element greater than the minimum circle element should be less than the number of pore  
7 spaces. Finally, all circle elements are overlapped due to the radius of the circle element and the  
8 total number of voxel is same as that of the pore space, as shown in Table 3; and then, it can be  
9 expressed by the following set equation;

10

$$11 \quad S = \sum_i^n B(r_i) - \sum_i^n \{B(r_i) \cap B(r_{i+1})\} \quad i=0, 1, 2, \dots, n \quad (3)$$

12

13 where  $S$  is the number of voxel as area/volume counted by GIA,  $B(r_i)$  is area/volume of the  
14 circle/sphere element with a radius from  $i$  to  $n$ . When  $i$  is  $n$ ,  $S$  is equal to the target area/volume.  
15 Even if the shape of the pore space is complicated, as in Figure 6(c), GIA can estimate the voxel  
16 number in total. Note that each circle element labeled and its location were also recoded; hence, the  
17 spatial distribution of the overlapped circle element can be visualized as shown in Figures 6. Here,  
18 it should be recognized that the diameter of the circle element cannot become a pore diameter  
19 directly. Hereby, a definition of pore diameter is required.

20 If the diameter of sphere element is equivalent to the pore diameter, its pore geometry must  
21 be a set of parallel lines or a rectangular shape. The area in dotted lines, as shown in Figures 6 (d)  
22 and (e), was analyzed by GIA and both areas were found to be 19801. For latter case, the two  
23 artificial images in Figures 6(d) and (e) can provide an interesting discussion. Certainly, GMI  
24 estimates the width in the area of the diamond; despite the fact that the definition of width is vague,  
25 GMA produced Figure 6(d). Even if the target image is rotated by  $45^\circ$ , the same results should be  
26 obtained. GMA searches the minimum pore space first and then, the sphere element with the  
27 diameter due to order of odd number becomes larger. The point is the sphere element evaluates the  
28 space at four corners, as shown in Figure 6(e). This result indicates the important feature of this  
29 image analysis; in short, the sphere element finds small pore spaces and evaluates the diameter by  
30 the part remaining after the overlapping process. This behavior, whereby the sphere element finds  
31 the small space, is similar to capillary behavior in porous materials such as sand.

32

33 **3.3 Selection of appropriate Representative Element Volume (REV) for analysis of sand**



1 The representative element volume (REV) of the subject should be discussed to estimate the  
2 geometrical properties of sand by image analysis. In this study, the porosity and specific surface of  
3 Toyoura sand were evaluated, and their REV was assessed. Detailed steps can be referred from  
4 [Fujiki et al. (2014)]; hence, the concept is only introduced in this paper as follows:

- 5 1) Sub-sampling region is defined by the authors;
- 6 2) The porosity and specific surface are calculated from the CT-image;
- 7 3) Their mean-value and standard deviation of the porosity ( $n$ ) and specific surface ( $S_{sp}$ )  
8 defined by the following equations are calculated; and then,

$$10 \quad n = \frac{V_{pore}}{V_t} \quad (4)$$

$$12 \quad S_{sp} = \frac{S_{ps}}{V_t} \quad (5)$$

13  
14 where  $V_{pore}$  is a volume of pore,  $V_t$  is the total volume of specimen and  $S_{ps}$  is mean-surface  
15 of grains obtained from CT image.

- 16 4) The process from the above items 1 to 3 is continuously repeated due to the enlargement of  
17 the calculation region until reaching the relative standard deviation (RSD) which is defined  
18 by the equation expressed as the standard deviation divided by mean-value, is less than 1%.

19  
20 Figures 7(a) and (b) show the two-dimensional images of particles of Toyoura sand in each  
21 square dimension. The dimension of the CT image of Figure 7(a) is 1024 x 1024; however, if the  
22 extraction of the cubic area from this CT image is required, the maximum voxel number to be used  
23 is 700, as shown in Figure 7 (a). These images can be obtained from binary images following the  
24 image segmentation process. In this study, the Ohtsu method was applied to create binary images.  
25 For each three-dimensional image, the porosity and specific surface were evaluated to validate the  
26 representative volume. The measured porosity of the specimen was 0.44, and the analyzed porosity  
27 was 0.431, so both values were a good fit. Figure 8 presents the evolution of the relative standard  
28 deviation (RSD) for the porosity and specific surface with a sub-sample size. A theoretical  
29 decreasing behavior is observed for both cases. The behavior observed for the two cases generally  
30 results in close values. The difference between the porosity and the specific surface is not  
31 significant for the tested materials but, generally, the REV should depend on the medium property.





1 Figure 9 shows the distribution curves of the grain size obtained from the sieving test and image  
2 analysis. The grain size distribution curve by image analysis can be obtained from Image J, which is  
3 provided using the function of object counter. With the exception that the image analysis area is  
4 cubic of 100 voxels, the grain size distribution obtained from the CT image has a good fit to the  
5 results of the sieving test. Figure 10 shows the relationship between the image analysis area and the  
6 particle diameters analyzed. The subscript number D means the percentage value finer, by weight,  
7 obtained from Figure 9. The Figure 10 results show that a cubic area of more than 300 voxels can  
8 provide a constant grain size for each percentage finer by weight. Defining a limit for the RSD in  
9 order to choose the size L of the REV remains an open question. The orders of magnitude are  
10 summarized in Table 4. The effect of the size of the reference sample is not significant. This  
11 observation supports the fact that the 300 voxel size (or 1.5 mm size) sample is larger than the REV  
12 when one voxel size is 5  $\mu\text{m}$ .

13

#### 14 **4. ANALYSIS METHOD OF PORE-STRUCTURE**

##### 15 **4.1 Pore structure analysis**

16 In the process of section 3.2, GIA produces pore by the overlapping of many sphere elements. In  
17 this chapter, pore structure analysis based on GIA is described. It is important to consider  
18 three-dimensional continuity of the pore in analyzing the pore structure. In this paper, the pore  
19 structure analysis method to perform vertical air-entry simulation with the imaged pore from X-ray  
20 CT data is proposed. This method is called the voxel-percolation method (VPM) in this paper. For  
21 instance, the number of the kind of sphere element is 13, as shown in Figure 11. For convenience,  
22 the images in Figure 11 are drawn in two dimensions; therefore, sphere elements should be called  
23 circle elements in the explanation of Figure 11. In order to start the percolation flow simulation, in  
24 this study, the rule for water-drainage process should be as follows:

25 Step 1: The original image is binarized to pore space (white) and soil particles (black) (see Figure  
26 11(a));

27 Step 2: The pore space is analyzed by GIA, and thus the distribution of the labeled sphere element  
28 can be known (Figure 11(b));

29 Step 3: VPM starts to find the labeled voxel (herein as 13) of the circle element with the largest  
30 radius from the corner of the defined side. As in Figure 11(c), only the area of the sphere  
31 element with a radius of 13 is shown as white.

32 Step 4: Once VPM finds the labeled voxel of 13, it will keep painting those voxels until it  
33 recognizes no continuous circle element (Figure 11(c)-(o)). Likewise, the labeled number



1 of the largest sphere element is scanned to the image treated in Step 2, and so only the  
2 voxel corresponding to the largest sphere element is counted. Step 3 should be repeated  
3 until the smallest sphere element is used;

4 Step 5: The results in Step 4 produce the saturation degree by the summation of the counted voxel  
5 divided by the number of voxels of the entire pore; and

6 Step 6: The capillary pressure can be evaluated by using Young-Laplace's equation with the  
7 diameter of the sphere element.

8

#### 9 **4.2 Analyzed water retention curve**

10 The water retention property of a soil is a typical parameter influenced by pore structure. In this  
11 section, the water retention curve can be reproduced by combining GIA and VPM. Based on section  
12 4.1, the water retention curve (WRC):  $h_p$ - $S_r$  for the drainage process can be drawn. Figure 12 shows  
13 the 3D image of the percolation flow. As a first step, VPM gave the distribution of the connecting  
14 sphere elements with different size, and then, all voxels with sphere elements share the same label.  
15 By sharing same label, the behavior of voxel seems to flow, as shown in Figure 12(a) – (f), and this  
16 is percolation flow. Figure 13 shows the occupation ratio of the cumulative volume of the sphere  
17 element. In fact, the occupation ratio of the cumulative volume of the sphere element countervails  
18 the volume ratio of air in the pore structure, and so the saturation degree can be evaluated by  
19 subtracting the cumulative volume of the sphere elements from the entire pore volume. This can be  
20 expressed by:

21

$$22 \quad S_r = 1 - \frac{\sum_i^n B_i - \sum_i^n B_i \cap B_{i-1}}{V_T} \quad (6)$$

23

24 where  $V_T$  is a volume of entire pore structure. The diameter of sphere element at each step  
25 contributes to the calculation of capillary pressure head ( $h_p$ ) by the Young-Laplace equation as  
26 shown in eq. (7):

27

$$28 \quad h_p = \frac{4T \cos \theta}{\gamma_w d} \quad (7)$$

29

30 where T is the surface tension between the water and air (72.88 mN/m at 20°C),  $\theta$  is the contact  
31 angle (49°),  $\gamma_w$  is the density of water, and d is the diameter of the tube.

32 In this study, the WRC test for the drainage process could be performed so it was simulated by the



1 following treatments.

- 2 1) To label each sphere element categorized and to recognize the label number of the sphere  
3 element with the maximum diameter;
- 4 2) To count the number of voxel with the label number corresponding to the maximum diameter  
5 from the direction of air entry side, and it should be continued until the discontinuous  
6 condition, as shown in Figure 12(a) – (f);
- 7 3) The first item yields the capillary pressure head using the Young-Laplace equation with the  
8 substitution of the latest perforated diameter. The second item yields the saturation degree by  
9 dividing the number of voxel not counted by the total number of pore spaces. This can be  
10 plotted on one WRC.
- 11 4) Once the counting process on the above second item is finished, the next label of sphere  
12 element should be checked based on same process as item 1), 2) and 3); and lastly, the WRC  
13 can be created. In order to verify the perforated pore diameter, WRCs were obtained from the  
14 experiment at 20 °C, and image analysis was evaluated in this study.

15

#### 16 **4.3 Water retentively test to verify pore structure analysis**

17 In this study, a water retentively test with a reducing elevation head method (WRT-REHM) was  
18 selected to conduct water drainage tests because it was available to measure the moisture content of  
19 identical specimens at different elevations head during the water drainage process. The specimen  
20 used for WRT-REHM was identical to the scanned sample. Figures 14(a) and (b) show photographs  
21 of the set-up used for the water drainage test system with a suction method, and Figure 14(c)  
22 illustrates the cross-sectional view of a mold that was tested. The mold is made of an acrylic,  
23 through which an X-ray beam could be transmitted without strong beam-hardening. The dimensions  
24 of the mold were: height of 120 mm, inner diameter of 10 mm and a thickness of 1 mm. In order to  
25 measure the amount of drained water, a glass syringe was used with a scale of 0.01 ml. A  
26 membrane filter with a mean-pore diameter of 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  was placed on a glass filter with a pore  
27 diameter between 20 and 30  $\mu\text{m}$  installed on the bottom of the mold. Table 1 summarizes the  
28 specification of the soil tested. All test procedures are listed as follows:

29

- 30 1) The mold was filled with de-aired water and an entire system with a syringe, tube connected  
31 between the mold and syringe, glass filter, and membrane sheet was fully saturated in the  
32 storage mold under vacuum condition.



- 1 2) Toyoura sand was carefully installed in the mold filled with de-aired water.
- 2 3) The sand specimen was left for 24 hours after the regulation of the elevation head of the syringe
- 3 to lead water drainage at each saturation degree, and then the volume of the syringe was
- 4 recorded.
- 5 4) Items 3) and 4) were repeated until no water drainage was observed.

6

7 The entire test system was set up in the room with the installed micro-focused X-ray CT scanner,  
8 and the temperature was controlled at  $20 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ . Due to a change of temperature within the range of  
9  $20 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ , the authors were concerned about the generation of condensation in the mold and extra  
10 evaporation from the specimen surface, so the humidity in the room was regulated. In the trial test,  
11 the authors monitored the time to reach a steady condition of the specimen through the checking of  
12 the fluid volume in the syringe, and it was concluded that this time should be 24 hours in this test.

13

#### 14 4.4 Verification of pore structure analysis

15 Figure 15 shows the binary 3-D image of the pore space of Toyoura sand based on the method  
16 explained in section 3.1. In this figure, soil particles are invisible. Figure 16(a) to (e) show binarized  
17 X-ray CT images obtained from Figure 16 in two dimensions after GIA using 13 different sphere  
18 elements; and Figure 16 (f) is the final analysis results by overlapping each result. White represents  
19 pore space and black represents the soil particles. Eventually, this image processing was conducted  
20 in three dimensions so a 3D map can be obtained, as shown in Figure 17. Visually, each color  
21 element is distributed uniquely, as shown in Figure 17. Two neighboring elements from the 3D map  
22 are found to have neighboring colors in the color bar. That is pore size distribute continuously.  
23 From the view point of hydraulic behavior, local velocities of pore water are always different at  
24 each pore.

25 Figure 18 shows X-ray CT images with respect to air intrusion, obtained from the VPM  
26 analysis in 300 voxel dimensions at each capillary pressure analyzed by equation (5) with a  
27 diameter of a sphere element. The number of voxel count produced the saturation degree ( $S_r$ ); hence,  
28 the water retention curve (WRC) for drainage can be obtained as an image-analyzed curve. Figure  
29 19 presents the comparison of the saturation degree obtained from Figure 18 and that from the  
30 Toyoura sample, and thus the analyzed saturation degree was verified by Figure 19. Figure 20  
31 shows the WRC analysis results for five voxel dimensions. Refer to Figure 5(b) to determine the  
32 effect of voxel number on analysis results. Authors validated the effect of the voxel dimension to



1 WRC. In Figure 20, the test result obtained from the laboratory test is also plotted. Focusing the  
2 effect of the voxel dimension as REV, when  $S_r$  is greater than 0.8, it is observed that the lower  
3 voxel dimensions yields a 50% underestimation of the measured data to an air entry pressure as a  
4 result of decrease in  $S_r$ , remarkably. In this case, as shown in Figure 18, the voxel dimension of 100  
5 is not sufficient to become REV for the WRC evaluation where  $S_r$  is greater than 0.8; however,  
6 there is no difference between the voxel dimensions where  $S_r$  is less than 0.5. Providing the voxel  
7 dimension is more than 300 based on all issues discussed, VPM could provide a reasonable pore  
8 diameter and the authors concluded that the diameter of the sphere element can become the pore  
9 diameter.

10 Despite the small change in capillary pressure between 30 and 40 cm,  $S_r$  decreased from  
11 0.9 to 0.3. This behavior indicates that mean pore size caused a capillary pressure head of 30-40 cm  
12 is mainly distributed. This behavior should be caused by sands with a value less than the uniform  
13 coefficient.

14

#### 15 **4.5 Discussion**

16 The studies which require pore structure, are fluid mechanics, geoenvironmental  
17 engineering and petroleum engineering [Blunt (2001), Blunt et al. (2002), Blunt et al. (2013),  
18 Mostaghimi et al. (2013) Iglauer et al. (2013) and Muljadi et al. (2015)]. The issues of how to  
19 model migration of oil in porous media such as rocks/soils, and how to inject air for remediating  
20 contaminated soil by fuels, require that the water/oil flow in the soil quantitatively understands the  
21 pore structure [Morrow and Songkran (1981), Parker et al. (1987), Pantazidou and Sitar (1993),  
22 Mayer and Miller (1993) and Soga et al. (2003)]. Normally, the distribution of pore diameters  
23 should be required to evaluate the water retention curve (WRC) as a hydraulic property of soils. The  
24 mercury intrusion technique (MIT), scanning electron microscope (SEM), and the air intrusion  
25 method (AIM) [Sato et al. (1992), Kamiya et al. (1996) and Uno et al. (1998)] have been used to  
26 measure the pore diameter. In general, MIT is used for the evaluation of pore size in clay, so Sato et  
27 al. (1992), and Kamiya et al. (1996) attempted to develop the method to evaluate pore size in sandy  
28 soil. Uno et al. (1998) included the moisture characteristic property in the results obtained from AIT  
29 [Kamiya et al. (1996)], and proposed the moisture characteristic curve method (MCCM). The  
30 measurement principle of AIM is similar to that of MIT and the obtained pore size is evaluated as  
31 the diameter of a pipe; however, the water contents were not measured. Uno et al. (1998) deduced  
32 the capillary pressure head using the Darcy's equation for air permeation, and then they evaluated  
33 the pore size based on a pipe model [Kamiya et al. (1996)]. WRC is composed of a saturation



1 degree and capillary pressure head measured by the head method with suction, or given by  
2 Young-Laplace's law with a diameter of a pipe as the representative pore diameter. AIM gives the  
3 statistic distribution of a pore diameter model of sandy soil as a glass tube. In short, the pore  
4 diameter is defined as the diameter of the tube as per implicit agreement in a number of papers.

5

6 Figure 21 is a distribution curve of a perforated pore diameter for Toyoura sand and the pore  
7 diameter deduced by the air intrusion method (AIM) proposed by Uno et al. (1998). Figure 22  
8 presents the relationship between the image analysis area and the perforated pore diameter in this  
9 study. Figure 22 verifies that the cubic area of more than 300 voxels can provide the constant  
10 perforated pore diameter for each percent finer by volume. Hence, the results analyzed in a cubic of  
11 300 voxels is compared with Uno et al. (1998). Figure 23 presents the comparison between the pore  
12 diameters deduced by Uno et al. (1998) and those of the authors. For interest, the measured results  
13 between 0.065 mm and 0.85 mm have a better fit than those between 0.03 and 0.055 mm. This  
14 indicates that the AIM had an overestimation of between 0.03 and 0.055 mm, and these results raise  
15 a question that the pore diameter obtained from AIM is not a Poiseuille distribution.

16

17 VPM also evaluates the connectivity of the pore space. GIA provides not only the voxel number of  
18 the sphere element, but also the spatial distribution with VPM. AIM can also provide the pore  
19 diameter as an inner diameter of the pipe, but not the spatial distribution of the pore diameter. This  
20 issue indicates that VPM has the great advantage of being able to estimate WRC. In fact, the  
21 distribution curve in Figure 21 can provide a pore size distribution function (PDF) with respect to  
22 the perforated pore diameter. PDF can also provide the saturation degree by summation of the voxel  
23 and diameter of the sphere element. Figure 24 presents the WRC analyzed by VPM and PDF in this  
24 study. The WRC obtained from PDF was far from the results of VPM in terms of measured plots.  
25 This issue poses the definition of pore diameter. As described in section 4.1, VPM considers  
26 percolation using cluster labeling based on the connectivity of pore spaces. On the other hand, PDF  
27 cannot provide the percolation property. Figure 24 concluded that a reasonable WRC can be  
28 obtained from saturation degree and distribution of pore diameter concerned the percolation  
29 property. Therefore, it is significantly useful that GIA and VPM can estimate the water retention  
30 property based on the geometry of the pore structure without performing a WRC test.

31

## 32 5. CONCLUSIONS

33 In this study, a specimen of Toyoura sand was scanned using a micro-focused X-ray CT scanner,



1 and the 3D spatial distribution of a sphere element as the pore diameter ( $d$ ) was visualized and  
2 evaluated quantitatively by granulometric image analysis (GIA). The GIA was a useful image  
3 analysis method to evaluate pore diameter in a 3-D CT image. Moreover, the voxel percolation  
4 method (VPM) was newly developed in this study, and its validation was assessed by comparing  
5 the analyzed WRC with measured results. The key conclusions are summarized as follows:

6

71) The size of a voxel affected the results of image analysis. When the cubic size of one voxel was 5 x  
8 5 x 5  $\mu\text{m}$ , the representative element volume (REV) to evaluate the physical property of grain  
9 materials, which are similar to Toyoura sand, was at least 300 voxels for the evaluation of grain size,  
10 porosity, surface area and perforated pore diameter. In particular, it was possible for the porosity  
11 and surface area to evaluate the relative standard deviation less than 1 %;

122) Results of GIA show that the perforated pore diameter was less than the pore diameter from the air  
13 intrusion method (AIM), and was less than 0.068 mm, meanwhile mostly similar pore diameters  
14 were evaluated near 0.085 mm. Hence, AIM provided partially different pore diameters from the  
15 results of GIA. This issue revealed that the pore diameter obtained from AIM was not Poiseuille  
16 distribution.

173) AIT can estimate pore diameter as a diameter of a pipe and the occupation ratio; however, the  
18 spatial information was not included and therefore, it was difficult to assess the water retention  
19 curve (WRC) based on pore diameter and its occupation ratio. Meanwhile, the newly proposed  
20 “voxel percolation method (VPM)” in this study can distinguish each sphere element by labeling the  
21 number based on the diameter of the sphere element and scanning the continuous label. As a result,  
22 the connectivity with complex pore spaces can be concerned and therefore, it was available for  
23 VPM to provide the WRC close to the measured result.

244) It was concluded that the VPM was the better image analysis method, which could estimate the  
25 water retention property due to drainage by percolation using cluster labeling (i.e. pore space) and  
26 capillary pressure head based on the Young-Laplace equation, as long as image data of the pore  
27 space was obtained by micro-focused X-ray CT scanner.

28

29 The second, third and fourth conclusions are based on the first conclusion. An appropriate  
30 dimension for image analysis should be defined based on the particle diameter and voxel size. In the  
31 case using the micro-focused X-ray CT scanner, the greater resolution required, the smaller the  
32 sample that should be scanned. In future work, it will be necessary to verify the appropriate  
33 dimension (i.e. REV) for several kinds of grains.



1

## 2 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

3 This research was supported by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (C) No. 26420483. Authors  
4 thank Prof. Laurent Oxarango, who is an associate professor of University of Joseph Fourie, for his  
5 precious comment. We also thank Ms. Hitomi Miyahara, Chiaki Nagai and Yusaku Fujiki, who were  
6 a former bachelor and graduate school students of Kumamoto University, and Mr. Toru Yoshinaga  
7 and Mr. Takahiro Yoshinaga, who are technical staffs of X-Earth Center, for their sincere  
8 contribution to this research.

9

## 10 **REFERENCES**

11 Alshibli, A. K. and Reed, H. A. ed.(2010), “Advances in Computed Tomography for Geomaterials”,  
12 Proc. of GeoX2010, ISTE, WILEY

13 Altman, J. S., Peplinski, J. W. and Rivers, L. M. (2005), “Evaluation of synchrotron X-ray  
14 computerized micro tomography for the visualization of transport processes in low-porosity  
15 materials”, Journal of Contaminant Hydrology, 78, pp. 167-183.

16 Andrew, M., Bijeljic B. and Blunt, J. M. (2014), “Pore-by-pore capillary pressure measurements  
17 using X-ray microtomography at reservoir conditions: Curvature, snap-off, and remobilization of  
18 residual CO<sub>2</sub>”, Water Resource Research, 50, pp. 8760-8774. Doi:10.1002/2014WR015970.

19 Andrew, M., Bijeljic B. and Blunt, J. M. (2015), “Reservoir condition pore-scale imaging of  
20 multiple fluid phase using x-ray microtomography”, Journal of Visualized Experiment, 96, e52440,  
21 doi:10.3791/52440.

22 Bear, J. (1972), “Dynamics of fluids in porous media”, Dover Publications Inc., pp. 439-573.

23 Blunt J.M., Jackson, D. M., Piri, M. and Valvatne, H. P. (2002), “Detailed physics, predictive  
24 capabilities and macroscopic consequences for pore-network models of multiphase flow”, Advances  
25 in Water Resources, 25, pp. 1069-1089.

26 Blunt, J.M. (2001), “Flow in porous media – pore-network models and multiphase flow”, Current  
27 Opinion in Colloid & Interface Science, 6, pp. 197-207.

28 Blunt, J.M., Bijeljic, B., Dong, H. Gharbi., O., Iglauer, S., Mostaghimi, P., Paluszny, A. and





- 1 Pentland, C. (2013), “Pore-scale imaging and modelling”, *Advances in Water Resources*, 51, pp.  
2 197-216 (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.advwatres.2012.03.003>).
- 3 Brooks R. H. and Corey A. T. (1964), “Hydraulic properties of porous media”, Colorado State Univ.,  
4 Hydrology Paper, 3, pp.27.
- 5 Carman, P. C.(1939), “Permeability of saturated sands, soils and clays”, *The Journal of Agricultural*  
6 *Science*, 29(2), pp. 262-273.
- 7 Chanpui, R. P. (2004), “Predicting the saturated hydraulic conductivity of soils: a review”, *Bulletin*  
8 *of Engineering Geology and the Environment*, August 2012, 71(3), pp. 401-434.
- 9 Chatzis, I. Morrow, N., and Lim, H. (1983), “Magnitude and detailed structure of residual oil  
10 saturation”, *Old SPE Journal*, 23(2), pp. 3311-3326.
- 11 Cnudde, V. and Bernard, D. ed. (2013), “Tomography of materials and structures”, *Proc. of 1st*  
12 *International Conference on Tomography of Materials and Structures; ICTMS 2013*, July 1-5  
13 (Ghent, Belgium).
- 14 Culligan, K, Wildenschild, D., Christensen, B., Gray and W., Rivers, M. (2006), “Pore-scale  
15 characteristics of multiphase flow in porous media: A comparison of air–water and oil–water  
16 experiments”, *Advances in Water Resources*, 29(2), pp. 227-238
- 17 Desrues, J., Viggiani, G., and Besuelle, P. ed. (2006), “Advances in X-ray Tomography for  
18 Geomaterials”, *Proc. of the 2nd International Workshop on X-ray CT for Geomaterials, GeoX 2006*.
- 19 Dullien F.A.L. (1992), “Porous media fluid transport and pore structure”, ACADEMIC PRESS,  
20 INC., pp. 132-138.
- 21 Fujiki, Y., Nagai, C., Oxarango, L. and Mukunoki, T. (2014), “Representative elementary volume  
22 determination using x-ray computed tomography”, *Proc. of 13th Global Joint Seminar on*  
23 *Geo-Environmental Engineer*,pp.64-70.
- 24 Gharbi, O. and Nlunt, J.M. (2012), “The impact of wettability and connectivity on relative  
25 permeability in carbonates: A pore network modeling analysis”, *Water Resource Research*, 48,  
26 W12513, doi:10.1029/2012WR011877



- 1 Helming, R. (1997), “Multiphase Flow and Transport Processes in the Subsurface,” Springer-Verlag,  
2 Berlin Heidelberg.
- 3 Higo, Y., Oka, F., Kimoto, S., Sanagawa, T., and Matsushima, Y. (2011), “Study of strain  
4 localization and microstructural changes in partially saturated sand during triaxial tests using micro  
5 focus X-ray CT”, *Soils & Foundations*, 51(1), pp. 95-111.
- 6 Iglauer, S., Paluszny, A. and Blunt, J.M. (2013), “Simultaneous oil recovery and residual gas  
7 storage: A pore-level analysis using in situ X-ray micro-tomography”, *Fuel*, 103, pp. 905-914  
8 (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2012.06.094>)
- 9 Kamiya, K. Uno, T., and Matsushima, T. (1996), “Measurement of the distribution of sandy soil  
10 void diameter by air intrusion method”, *Journal of Japan Society of Civil Engineering*,  
11 No.541/III-35, pp. 189-198. (in Japanese)
- 12 Kato, M., Takahashi, M., Kawasaki, S., Mukunoki, T., and Kaneko, K. (2013): “Evaluation of  
13 porosity and its variation in porous materials using microfocus x-ray computed tomography  
14 considering the partial volume effect”, *Materials Transactions*, 54(9), pp. 1678-1685.
- 15 Luis I., Will S., Lysia N., and Josh, C. (2005), “The ITK Software Guide”, Second Edition Updated  
16 for ITK version 2.4, ITK.
- 17 Mayer, A.S. and Miller, C.T. (1993), “An Experimental Investigation of Pore-Scale Distributions of  
18 Nonaqueous Phase Liquids at Residual Saturation”, *Transport in Porous Media*, 10, pp. 57-80.
- 19 Morrow, N.R., and Songkran, B. (1981), “Effect of viscous and buoyancy forces on non-wetting  
20 phase trapping in porous media”, *Surface Phenomena in Enhanced Oil Recovery*, Plenum Press, pp.  
21 387-411.
- 22 Mostaghimi, P., Blunt, J. M. and Bijeljic, B. (2013), “Computations of absolute permeability on  
23 micro-ct images”, *Math Geoscience* 45, pp. 103-125 (DOI 10.1007/s11004-012-9431-4)
- 24 Mualem, Y., (1976), “A new model for predicting the hydraulic conductivity of unsaturated porous  
25 media”, *Water Resources Research*, 12, pp. 513-522.
- 26 Mukunoki, T. Fujimi, T. and Matsumoto, H. (2014), “Image segmentation and its quantitative  
27 evaluation of X-ray CT data of geomaterials using EM algorithm, *Japanese Geotechnical Journal*, 9



- 1 (4), pp. 555-567. (in Japanese)
- 2 Mukunoki, T., Sugimura, K., and Mikami, M. (2010), “Visualization of LNAPL contamination in  
3 sandy soil using X-ray CT scanner”, Proc. of International Symposium on Earth Science and  
4 Technology 2010, pp. 153-158.
- 5 Muljadi, B., P., Blunt, J. M. Raeini, Q. A., and Bjijelic, B. (2015), The impact of porous media  
6 heterogeneity on non-Darcy flow behavior from pore-scale simulation, Advances in Water  
7 Resources, 000, pp. 1-12 (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.advwaters.2015.05.019>)
- 8 Otani, J. and Obara, Y. ed. (2003), “X-ray CT for Geomaterials soils, concrete, rocks”, Proc. of the  
9 1st international workshop on X-ray CT for Geomaterials, GeoX 2003.
- 10 Otsu N.(1979), “A Threshold Selection Method from Gray-Level Histograms”, IEEE Transactions  
11 of Systems, Man, and Cybernetics, 9(1), pp. 62-66.
- 12 Pantazidou, M., and Sitar, N. (1993), “Emplacement of nonaqueous liquid in the vadose zone”,  
13 Water Resources Research, 29(3), pp. 705-722.
- 14 Parker, J. C., Lenhard, R. J., and Kuppusamy, T. (1987), “A parametric model for constitutive  
15 properties governing multiphase flow in porous media”, Water Resources Research, 23(4), pp.  
16 618-624.
- 17 Riyadh Al-Raoush (2007), “Microstructure characterization of granular materials”, Physica A, 377,  
18 pp. 545-558, doi:10.1016/j.physa.2006.11.090
- 19 Sato, T., Soba, T. Kuwayama, T and Uno, T. (1992), “Mercury intrusion technique for macropore  
20 measurement of particulate soil”, Journal of Japan Society of Civil Engineering, No.445/III-18, pp.  
21 139-142. (in Japanese)
- 22 Soga, K., Kawabata, J., Kechavarzi, C., Coumoulos, H., and Waduge, W. A. P. (2003), “Centrifuge  
23 Modeling of Nonaqueous Phase Liquid Movement and Entrapment in Unsaturated Layered Soils”,  
24 Journal of Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental Engineering, 129(2), pp. 173-182.
- 25 Soille, P. (2003), “Morphological image analysis: principles and applications”, Springer-Verlag,  
26 Berlin Heidelberg, New York.



- 1 Taylor, H.F., O’Sullivan, C. and Sim, W.W. (2015), “A new method to identify void constrictions in  
2 micro-CT images of sand”, *Computers and Geotechnics*, 69 (2015), pp. 279–290,  
3 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.compgeo.2015.05.012>
  
- 4 Topp, G. C., and Miller, E. E. (1966), “Hysteretic moisture characteristics and hydraulic  
5 conductivities for glass-bead media”, *Soil Science Society of America, Proceedings*, 30, pp.  
6 156-162.
  
- 7 Uno, T. Kamiya, K. and Tanaka, K. (1998), “The distribution of sand void diameter by air intrusion  
8 method and moisture characteristic curve method”, *Journal of Japan Society of Civil Engineering*,  
9 No.603/III-44, 35-44. (in Japanese)
  
- 10 Wildenschild, D. and Sheppard, P.A. (2013), “X-ray imaging and analysis techniques for  
11 quantifying pore-scale structure and processes in subsurface porous medium systems”, *Advances in*  
12 *Water Resources* 51, 217-246, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.advwatres.2012.07.018>
  
- 13 Wildenschild, D., Culligan, K.A., and Christensen, B.S.B. (2005), “Application of X-ray micro  
14 tomography to environmental fluid flow problems”, *Proceedings of International Society for*  
15 *Photo-optical Instrumentation Engineers (SPIE): Developments in X-Ray Tomography IV*; Ulrich  
16 Bonse, pp. 432-441.
  
- 17 Wildenschild, D., Hopmans, J.W., Rivers, M.L., and Kent, A.J. (2005), “Quantitative analysis of  
18 flow processes in a sand using synchrotron-based X-ray microtomography”, *Vadose Zone Journal*, 4,  
19 pp. 112-126.
  
- 20 Wildenschild, D., Hopmans, J.W., Vaz, C., Rivers, M.L., Rikard, D., and Christensen, B.S. (2002),  
21 “Using X-ray computed micro tomography in hydrology: systems, resolution and limitations”,  
22 *Journal of Hydrology*, 267, pp. 285-297.



Figures

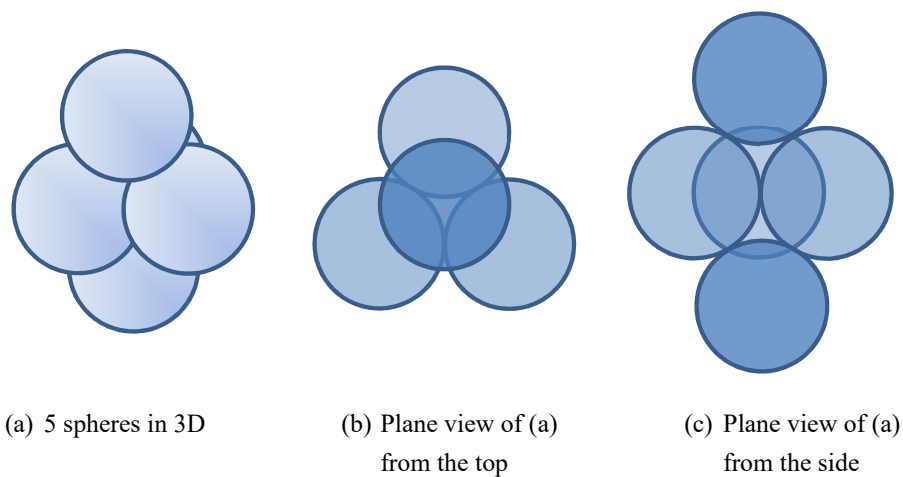


Figure 1: Illustration of spheres for pore surrounded particles

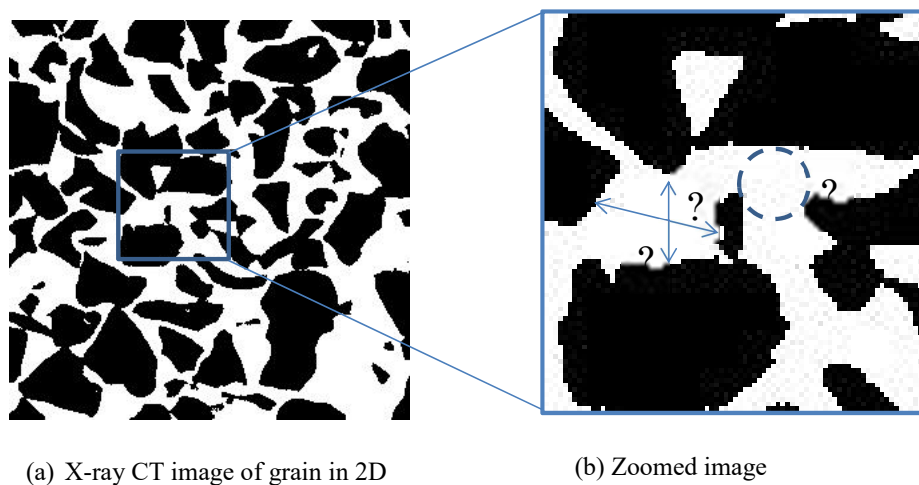


Figure 2 : Binary image of a pore in grains (white indicates pore space and black indicates particles)

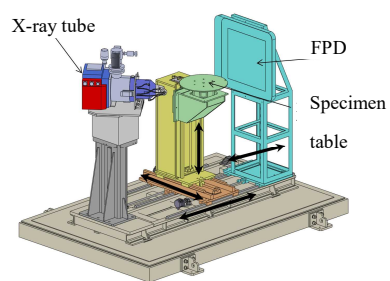


Figure 3: Illustration of micro-focused X-ray CT scanner

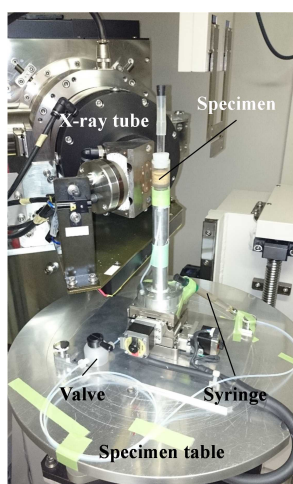


Figure 4: Photograph of a scan scene

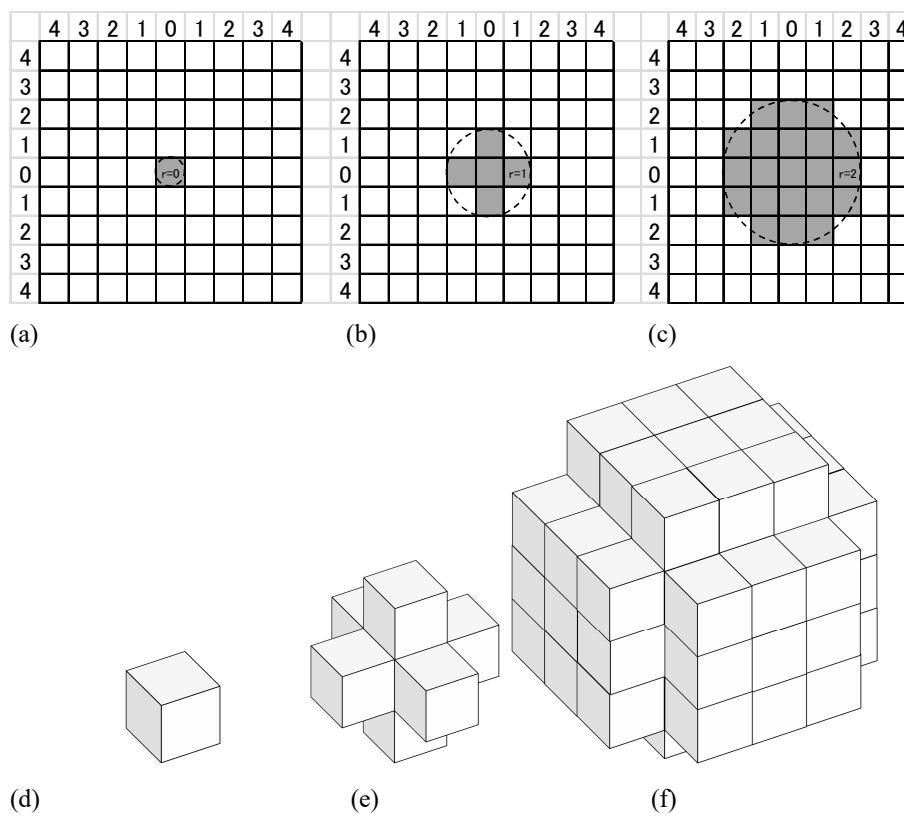


Figure 5: Illustration of sphere elements with different diameters in 2D and 3D views

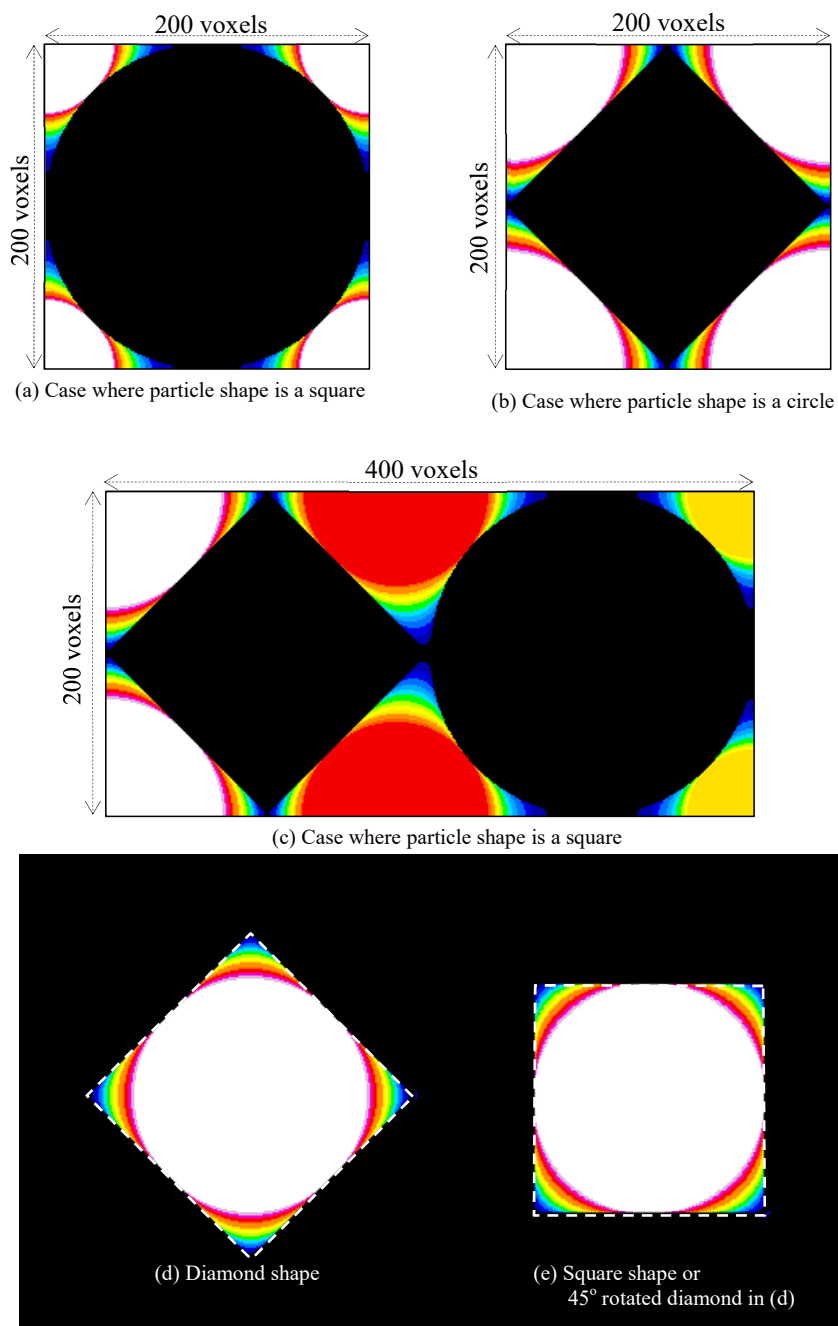


Figure 6: Explanation of features of GMI



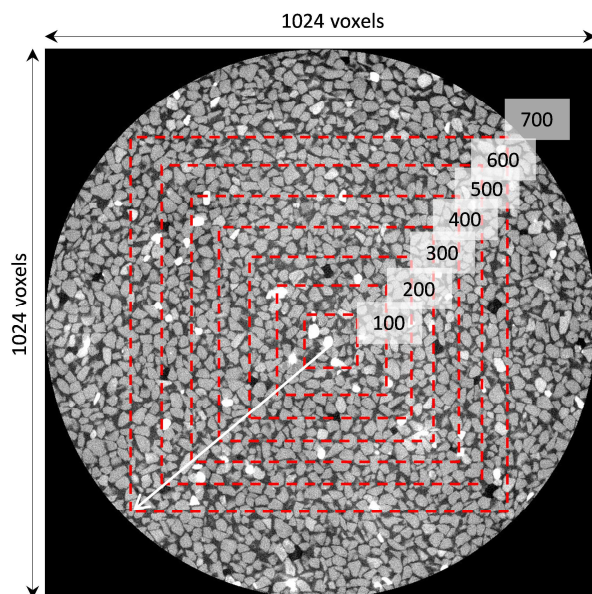


Figure 7(a): X-ray CT image of Toyoura sand with different regions of image analysis in 2D

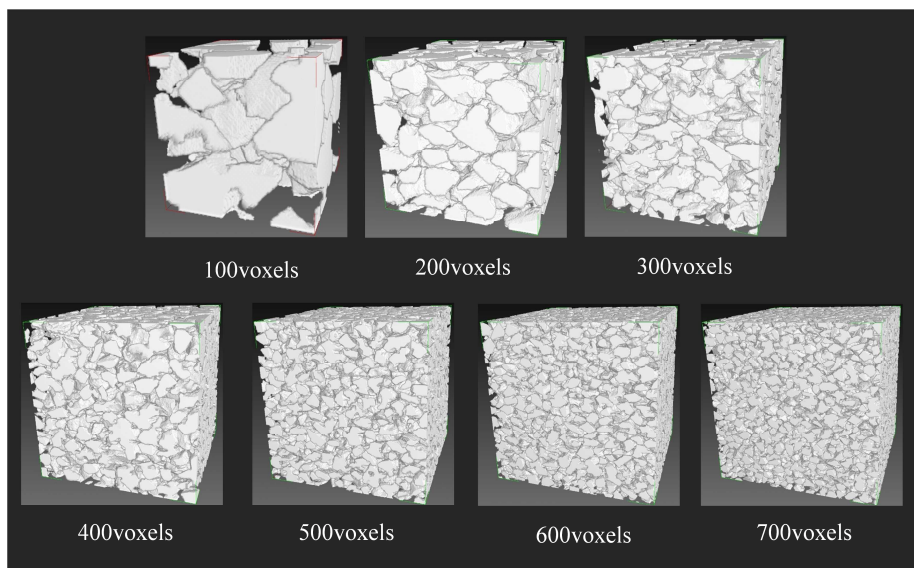


Figure 7(b): X-ray CT image of Toyoura sand with different regions of image analysis in 3D

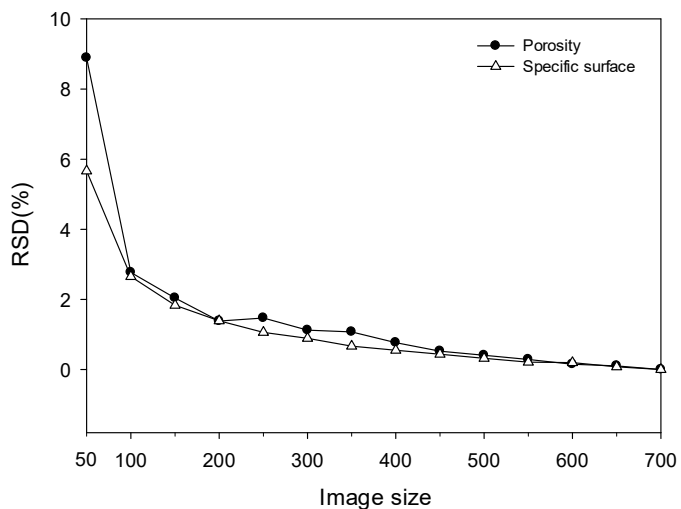


Figure 8: Relative standard deviation by changing the dimension of image analysis

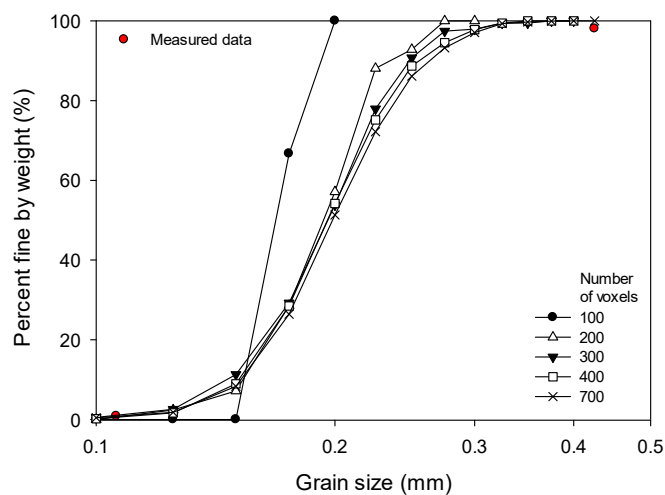


Figure 9: Grain size distribution curve obtained from image analysis

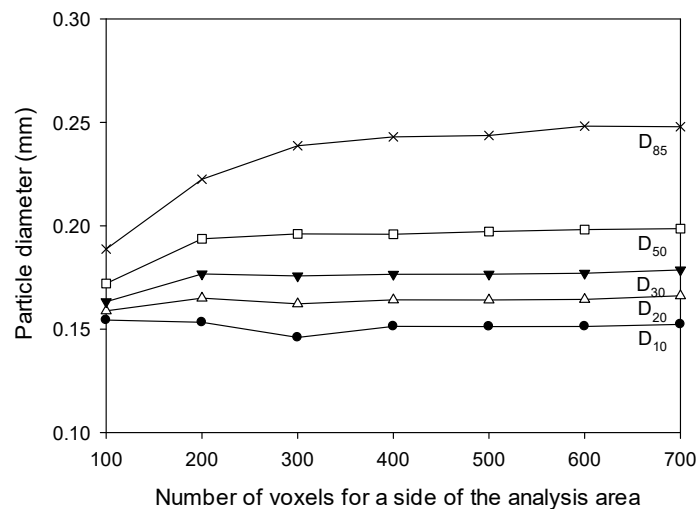


Figure 10: Grain level on each image size

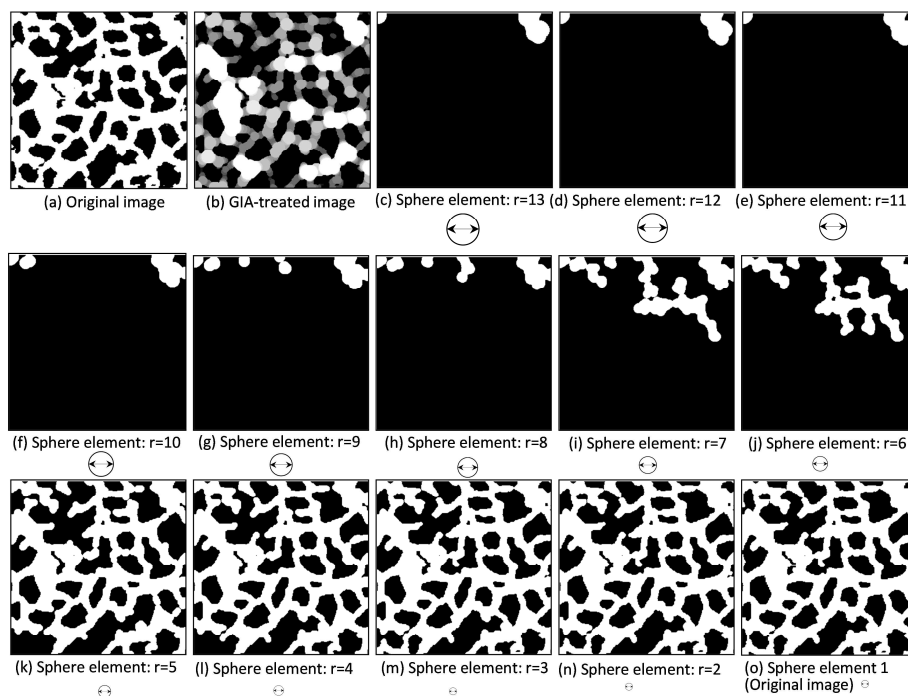


Figure 11: VPM analysis in grains

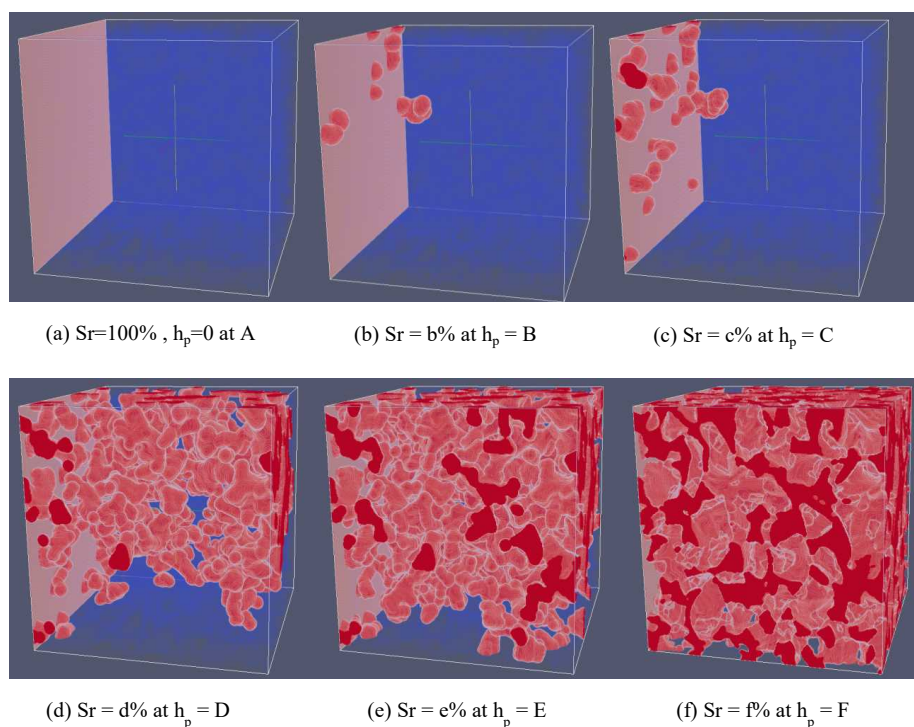


Figure 12: Voxel percolation method in grains

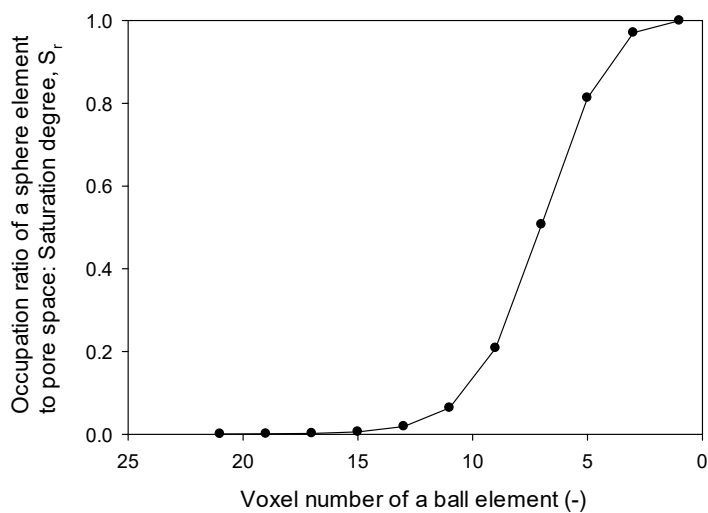


Figure 13: Profile of occupation ratio of the sphere element

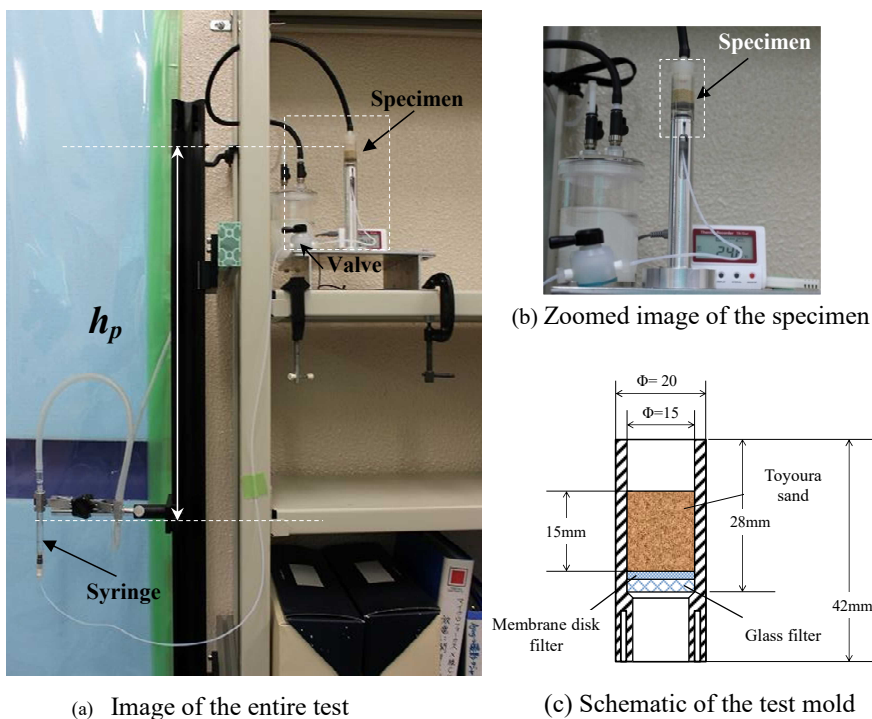
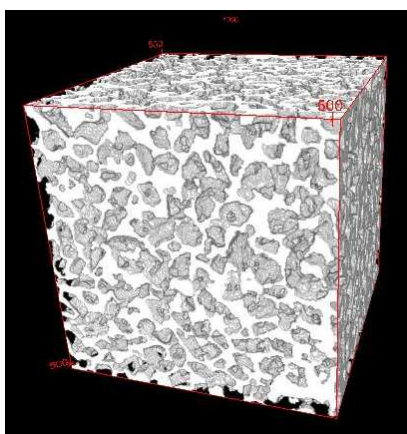


Figure 14: Water retention test apparatus with elevation head method



Binary image of pore space for Toyoura sand

Figure 15: X-ray CT image of pore in Toyoura sand in 3D

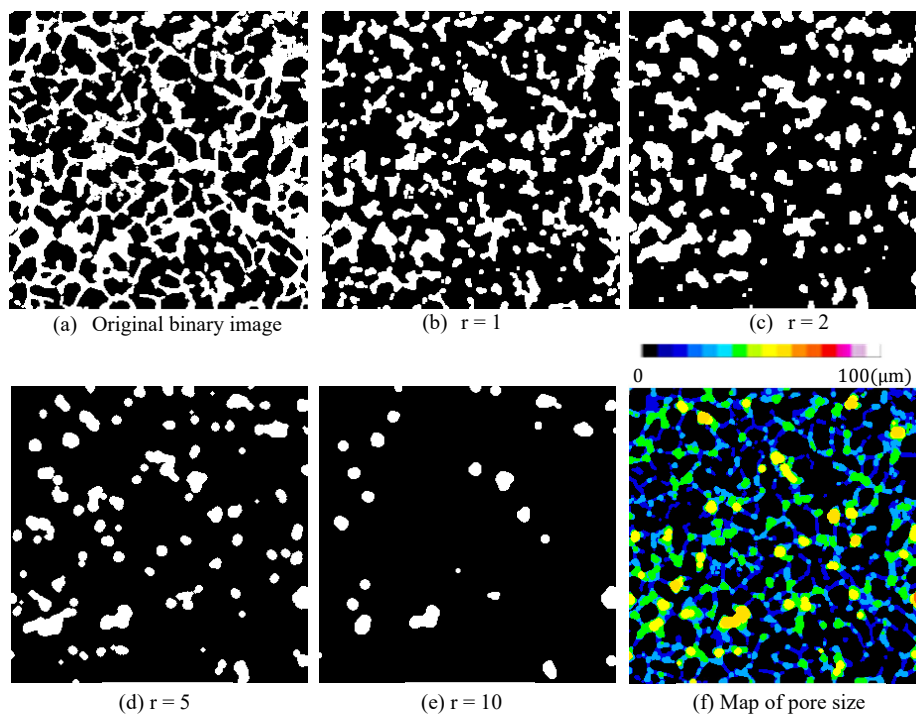
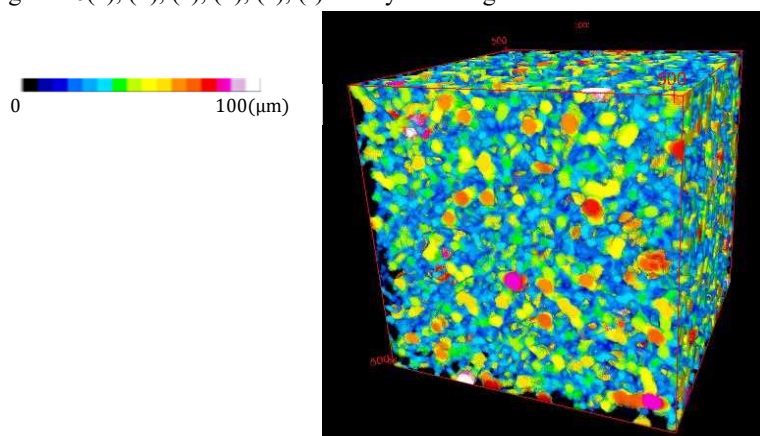


Figure 16(a), (b), (c), (d), (e), (f): X-ray CT images obtained from GMI



(b) 3D map of pore space for Toyoura sand

Figure 17: Distribution of perforated pore size in 3D

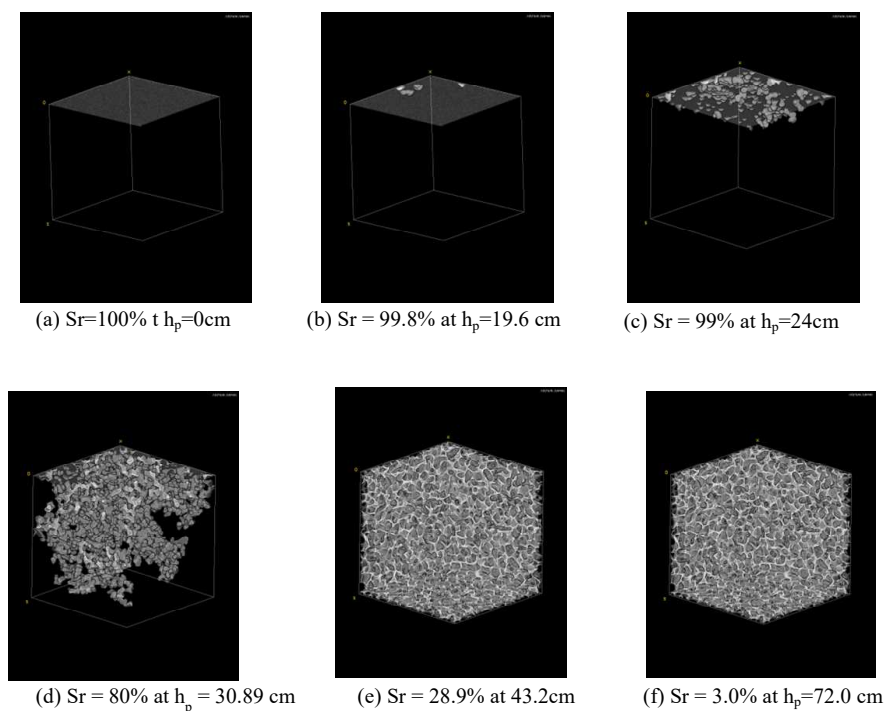


Figure 18: CT images of percolated pore space as the drainage process

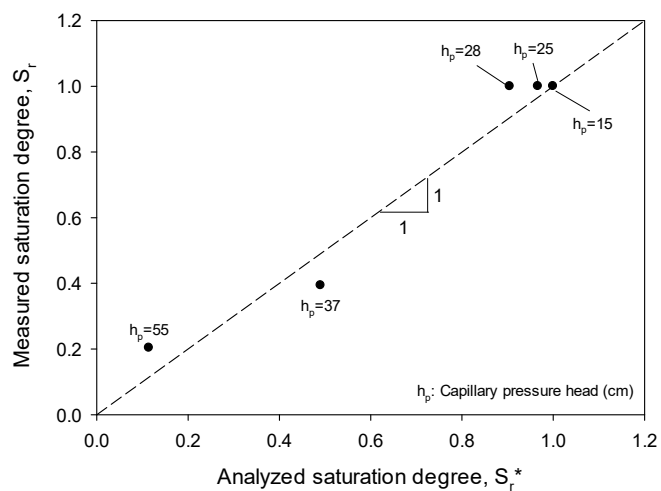


Figure 19: Comparison of saturation degree measured and analyzed at each capillary pressure



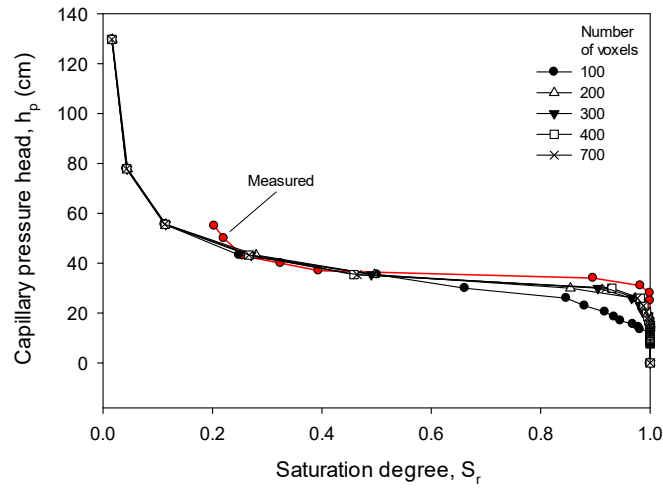


Figure 20: Water retention curves obtained from image analysis and experiment

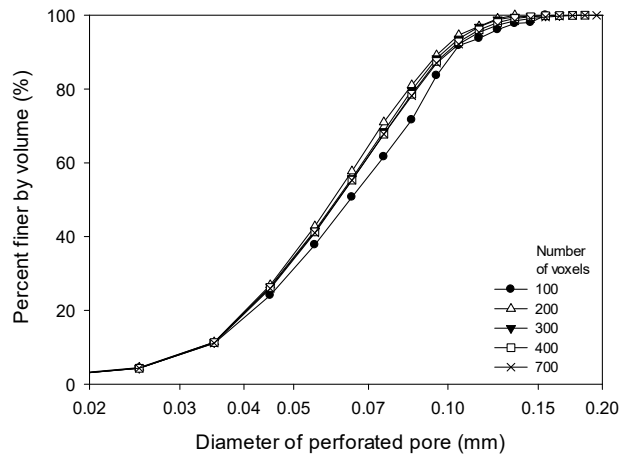


Figure 21: Perforated-pore size distribution for each image size

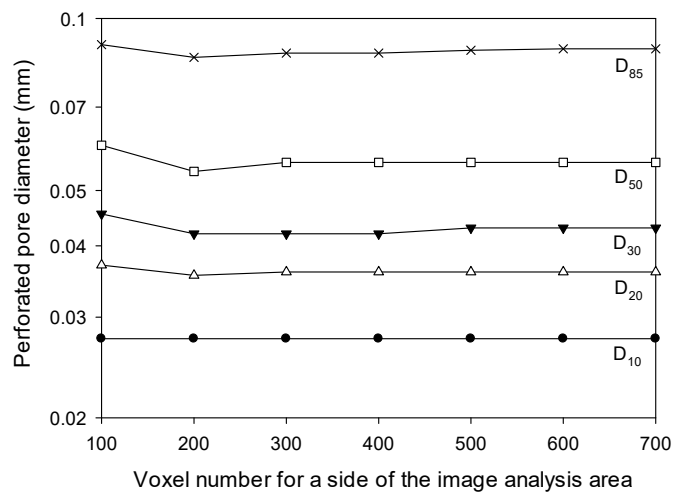


Figure 22: Pore size distribution curve in image size

Figure 22

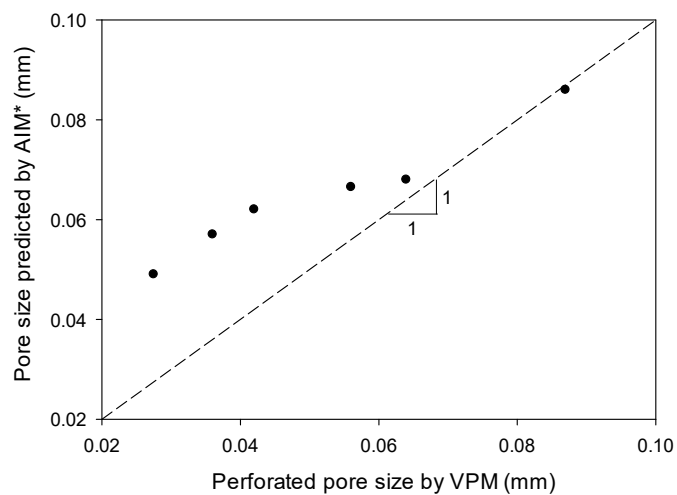


Figure 23: Comparison of pore size obtained from AIM and VPM

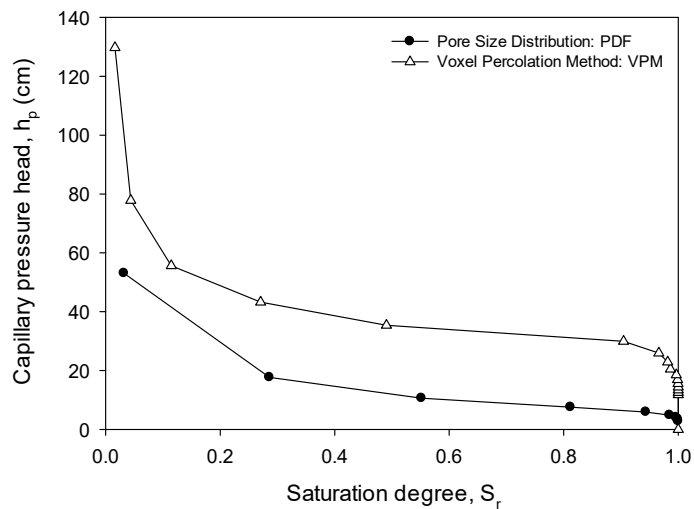


Figure 24: Water retention plots obtained from GMI and VPM



Table 1 Specifications of a micro-focused CT scanner installed at Kumamoto University

Radiograph field vision	400 mm, height 500 mm
Number of display voxels	1024 x 1024
Resolution	4 $\mu\text{m}$
Cone bean scan	Normal, Offset, Half
X-ray beam thickness for plain beam	0.2/0.4/0.6/1.0/2.0 mm
Voltage for x-ray generating	240 kV (140W) maximum
Maximum weight for specimen table	245 N
Flat panel detector	Effective pixel number: 2000 x 2000
	Range of vision: 400mm x 400 mm

Table 2 Scan conditions used in this study

Power of voltage (kV)	60
Current ( $\mu\text{A}$ )	200
Number of views	1500
Number of integration treatments	10
Voxel dimension ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) x, y, z	5 x 5 x 5
Number of voxels (x, y, z)	1024 x 1024 x 1000

Table 3 Verification results of GMI

	Voxel counts			Area by calculation			Square error (SE)*
	Solid	Pore space	Total area	equation	Solid	Pore space	
Circle	31428	8572	40000	$\pi r^2$ 100x100x3.1428	31428	8572	0
Square	19801	20199	40000	L x L 140.716x140.716	19800.99266	20199.00734	5.393x10 <sup>-5</sup>
Square Circle	51229	28771	80000	$\pi r^2 + L \times L$	51228.9927	28771.0073	5.329x10 <sup>-5</sup>

SE = (Voxel counts – Calculation)<sup>2</sup> for each case

Table 4 Results of REV analysis

	Porosity, Specific surface
RSD < 5 %	L > 900 $\mu\text{m}$ (or 100 voxels)
RSD < 2 %	L > 1800 $\mu\text{m}$ (or 160 voxels)
RSD < 1%	1500 $\mu\text{m}$ (or 300 voxels)