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1 Application of Binary Permeability Fields for the Study of CO₂ Leakage
2 from Geological Carbon Storage in Saline Aquifers of the Michigan Basin¹

3

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19 **Abstract**

20 The feasibility of geological carbon storage sites depends on their capacity to safely retain
21 CO₂. While deep saline formations and depleted gas/oil reservoirs are good candidates to
22 sequester CO₂, gas/oil reservoirs typically have a limited storage capacity (~1 Mt/year) compared
23 to alternative targets considered for CO₂ disposal (Celia et al. 2015). In this respect, deep saline
24 aquifers are considered more appropriate formations for geological carbon storage but present the
25 disadvantage of having limited characterization data. In particular, information about the

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26 continuity of the overlying sealing formations (caprock) is often sparse if it exists at all. In this
27 work, a study of CO₂ leakage is conducted for a candidate geological carbon storage (GCS) site
28 located in the Michigan Basin, whose sealing properties of the caprock are practically unknown.
29 Quantification of uncertainty on CO₂ leakage from the storage formation is achieved through a
30 Monte Carlo simulation approach, relying on the use of a computationally efficient semi-
31 analytical leakage model based upon the solution derived by Nordbotten et al. (2009), which
32 assumes leakage occurs across “passive” wells intersecting caprock layers. A categorical indicator
33 Kriging simulator is developed and implemented to represent the caprock sealing properties and
34 model the permeability uncertainty. Binary fields of caprock permeability are generated and
35 exhibit mostly low permeability, with sparsely-occurring local high permeability areas where
36 brine and CO₂ may leak out of the storage formation. In addition, the feasibility of extending the
37 use of the semi-analytical model to large-area leakage pathways is studied. This work advances a
38 methodology for preliminary uncertainty quantification of CO₂ leakage at sites of GCS with little
39 or no information on the sealing properties of the caprock. The implemented analysis shows that,
40 for the considered site, CO₂ leakage may not be negligible even for relatively low (~1%)
41 probabilities of finding permeable inclusions in the caprock and highlights the importance of
42 being able to characterize caprock sealing properties over large areas.

43 **Keywords:** Categorical indicator Kriging simulator; CO₂ leakage; CO₂ storage; Semi-analytical
44 solution.

45 **1 Introduction**

46 Increases in average global air and ocean temperatures are documented around the world
47 with a global mean annual surface temperature increase of 0.3-0.6°C since the late 19th century
48 (Nicholls et al. 1996). This phenomenon is due to the proliferation of greenhouse gas
49 concentrations from anthropogenic emissions, particularly from carbon dioxide (CO₂), the most
50 important greenhouse gas produced by human activities (IPCC 2007). To stabilize CO₂ emissions
51 into the atmosphere several strategies have been suggested, among them geological carbon
52 storage (GCS). GCS is advanced as a promising approach to reduce CO₂ emissions from power

53 plants without needing to switch fuel sources (IPCC 2005). Suitable reservoirs for GCS are deep
54 saline formations, depleted oil and gas reservoirs, and unmineable coal seams (Bergman and
55 Winter 1995; Bachu 2003; Ruether 1998). Deep saline formations are widespread and offer 60%
56 of the estimated storage capacity (IEA 2008). However, compared to oil and gas reservoirs, they
57 lack characterization data and available information about their geological properties is usually
58 scarce.

59 One of the requirements for GCS is the presence of a sealing formation that prevents
60 stored CO₂ from escaping from the injected formation (IPCC 2005) and guarantees a long term
61 sequestration. Deep saline aquifers have the inconvenience of being typically unexplored.
62 Accordingly, little is known about the properties of the sealing formations, which are potentially
63 compromised by the presence of leakage pathways, such as faults or fractures, permeable areas
64 of the caprock, and poorly completed existing wells (IPCC 2005).

65 Several studies that investigate the importance of CO₂ leakage associated with faults and
66 existing wells have been documented. For instance, Chang et al. (2008) studied the CO₂ leakage
67 through faults where flow properties of faults are uncertain. They found that lateral CO₂ migration
68 through overlying permeable formations attenuates CO₂ leakage through faults. The effect of
69 faults, fault permeability, and flow velocity of groundwater on the migration of a CO₂ plume was
70 studied by Sakamoto et al. (2011). Zhang et al. (2010) proposed a method to calculate the
71 probability of CO₂ leakage through fractures and faults in a two-dimensional system. In high well-
72 density areas, abandoned wells may represent a significant escape pathway for the injected CO₂.
73 Gasda et al. (2004) observed that a CO₂ plume could impact twenty to several hundred abandoned
74 wells depending on the well density. Kopp et al. (2010) concluded that high risk of leakage
75 through abandoned wells was produced by long injection times, small distances between injection
76 wells and leaky wells, high permeability anisotropy, high geothermal gradient, and low depth. In
77 Celia et al. (2011), the permeability of abandoned wells was identified as the most influential
78 parameter resulting in CO₂ leakage from GCS. Noguees et al. (2012) implemented a Monte Carlo
79 simulation where the main uncertainty was the effective well permeability. They showed that
80 results on leakage depended on formation properties, location, and number of leaky wells.

81 In González-Nicolás et al. (2015a), stochastic and global sensitivity analyses were
82 applied to study different types of uncertainty affecting leakage of CO₂ through passive wells
83 during GCS operations for a potential candidate site located in the Michigan Basin. In this work,
84 the investigation of González-Nicolás et al. (2015a) is extended to include the presence of
85 potential areas of high permeability of the caprock potentially much larger than passive wells.
86 The level of uncertainty is significantly increased since the location of passive wells is known,
87 whereas the location, the size and the spatial frequency of caprock discontinuities are practically
88 unknown. A probabilistic study of CO₂ leakage is performed by applying a Monte Carlo
89 simulation approach, where the main source of uncertainty is the caprock permeability. “Weak”
90 areas of the sealing formation are herein considered as localized depositions of higher
91 permeability materials and referred to as “inclusions”.

92 A categorical indicator Kriging simulation algorithm is applied to generate ensembles of
93 realizations of the caprock permeability field with two types of facies: 1) sealing formation (areas
94 with low permeability), and 2) inclusions (areas with high permeability). The caprock
95 permeability ensemble is thus used in a Monte Carlo analysis to perform a stochastic simulation
96 of CO₂ injection and probabilistically quantify leakage through the weak caprock areas. Due to
97 the unavailability of geological data with sufficient resolution, different geostatistical
98 configurations for the sealing formation are studied to assess the impact of the uncertainty of
99 caprock inclusions on the probability of CO₂ leakage. Areas of high permeability having relatively
100 similar spatial locations are grouped together into clusters to reduce the number of leaky points
101 used by the semi-analytical multiphase flow model, thus reducing the computational effort. To
102 understand the potential limitations of the clustering approach, results from the semi-analytical
103 multiphase flow model are compared with those obtained using a numerical model. Also, the
104 influence of CO₂ leakage through existing abandoned wells located in the area of interest is
105 studied.

106 The organization of this paper is as follows. First, the methodology of the study is
107 described, which includes the multiphase flow semi-analytical algorithm, the generation of binary

108 permeability fields, and the statistical analysis. Then the application of the methodology to the
109 Michigan Basin test site and results are presented. Lastly, a summary of conclusions is given.

110 **2 Methodology**

111 2.1 Multiphase Flow Semi-Analytical Model

112 ELSA-IGPS (Baù et al. 2015) is a multiphase flow simulator based upon the semi-
113 analytical model ELSA developed by Celia and Nordbotten (2009) and Nordbotten et al. (2009).
114 ELSA-IGPS is able to simulate the injection of supercritical CO₂ into a deep saline formation and
115 compute the leakage of brine and CO₂ through poorly-sealed, “passive” wells. The domain is
116 structured as a stack of horizontal, homogeneous, and isotropic aquifers separated by caprock
117 layers, and perforated by a generic number of CO₂ injection wells and passive wells. CO₂ injection
118 rates are assumed to be constant during the injection period, and no post-injection phase is
119 simulated. Caprock layers are impermeable except at passive well locations. Initially, the domain
120 is saturated with brine at hydrostatic pressure. Flow is assumed to be horizontal in aquifers and
121 vertical in passive wells. Capillary pressure, dissolution and chemical reactions are neglected.
122 The model considers a brine relative permeability equal to one in areas where no CO₂ is present,
123 whereas in areas invaded by the CO₂ plume, the relative permeability of CO₂ is given by the end-
124 point CO₂ relative permeability, which depends on the residual saturation of brine. The effective
125 compressibility is assumed to be equal to the brine compressibility since most of the domain is
126 filled with brine (Nordbotten et al. 2009). More details about the model assumptions can be found
127 in Celia and Nordbotten (2009).

128 In ELSA (Nordbotten et al. 2005), fluid pressures changes are the compound effect of
129 CO₂ injection and fluid leakage across caprock layers in passive wells. To determine the fluid
130 overpressure, superposition of effects is applied based on a fundamental “well” function given in
131 Celia et al. (2011). Using this approach, the fluid pressures $p_{j,l}$ at the bottom of each aquifer l
132 ($l=1,2,\dots,L$; L denotes the number of aquifers), at each passive well j ($j=1,2,\dots,N$; N denotes the
133 number of passive wells), and at any given time t are non-linear functions of the fluid densities,

134 viscosities, and compressibility, as well as the thickness, porosity, brine residual saturation and
 135 permeability of the aquifers. These functions also depend on CO₂ injection rates entering aquifer
 136 l from each of the passive wells j . The cumulative fluid masses $M_{j,l}(t)$ are calculated as

$$M_{j,l}(t) = \int_0^t \rho_{eff,j,l}(\tau) [Q_{j,l}(\tau) - Q_{j,l+1}(\tau)] d\tau, \quad (1)$$

137 where Q is the volumetric flow rate [L^3T^{-1}] and ρ_{eff} is the effective fluid density [ML^{-3}]. This
 138 density is time-dependent since the composition of the leaking fluid varies upon the CO₂ plume
 139 location. To calculate leakage rates $Q_{j,l}$, Nordbotten et al. (2005) propose to use the sum of the
 140 flow rates $Q_{\alpha,j,l}$ for each phase α (b for brine and c for CO₂) given by a multiphase version of
 141 Darcy's law

$$Q_{j,l} = \sum_{\alpha=b,c} \left[\pi r_{pw,j,l}^2 \frac{k_{r,\alpha,j,l} k_{pw,j,l}}{\mu_{\alpha} B_l} (p_{j,l-1} - \rho_{\alpha} g B_l - p_{j,l} - \rho_{\alpha} g H_{l-1}) \right]. \quad (2)$$

142 In Eq. (2), r_{pw} is the passive well radius [L], k_{pw} is the single-phase passive well permeability
 143 [L^2], μ_{α} is the dynamic viscosity of α [$ML^{-1}T^{-1}$], B is the aquitard thickness [L], p is the pressure
 144 at the bottom of an aquifer [$ML^{-1}T^{-2}$], g is the gravitational acceleration [LT^{-2}] and H is the aquifer
 145 thickness [L].

146 The substitution of Eqs. (1) and (2) in the expression of fluid pressures $p_{j,l}$ leads to a
 147 system of non-linear equations. In ELSA-IGPS (Baù et al. 2015), this system is efficiently solved
 148 using a fixed-point scheme, which leads to a substantial computational saving when compared to
 149 the linearization scheme adopted in ELSA by Nordbotten et al. (2005). Further details about the
 150 model equations and solving procedures are given in Baù et al. (2015) and González-Nicolás et
 151 al. (2015a).

152 2.2 Binary Permeability Fields

153 2.2.1 Generation of Binary Permeability Fields

154 Equally likely realizations of the caprock permeability spatial distribution are generated
 155 with a categorical indicator Kriging simulator (CIKSIM), relying on a sequential Gaussian
 156 simulation algorithm similar to that implemented in the “sgsim” routine available in the
 157 Geostatistical Software Library (GSLIB) software developed by Deutsch and Journel (1998).

158 CIKSIM (González-Nicolás et al. 2015b) is based on a “multi-point” categorical geostatistics and
159 has been developed to generate generic facies distributions characterized by arbitrary (continuous
160 or discontinuous) and stationary local probability distribution functions (PDFs) and covariograms
161 that may differ from category to category. CIKSIM approximates a generic cumulative
162 probability distribution function (CDF) using a piecewise linear function. At any point in space
163 during the simulation, the estimated conditional probabilities of the categories are used to
164 randomly select the property values using the inverse CDF.

165 Note that other algorithms are available to generate caprock permeability field based on
166 generic, non-Gaussian, CDFs such as those based on the normal score transform (Goovaerts 1997;
167 Deutsch and Journel 1998) and Gaussian mixtures (Grana et al. 2012). For the purposes of this
168 study, CIKSIM is used to create binary fields that include two types of facies (or categories).
169 Facies 1 represents caprock areas with little or no permeability, and facies 2 represents inclusions
170 characterized by a high permeability. Thus, CIKSIM generates inclusions of the caprock to
171 introduce in the multiphase flow semi-analytical model explained in Sect. 2.1. The caprock
172 permeability k is represented as a binary field (Deutsch and Journel 1998)

$$k(\mathbf{u}) = k_1 I(\mathbf{u}) + k_2 [1 - I(\mathbf{u})], \quad (3)$$

173 where k_1 and k_2 are the permeabilities of facies 1 and facies 2, respectively, at position \mathbf{u} , and I
174 is the indicator transform.

175 2.2.2 Clustering of Inclusions

176 If a large number of inclusions is generated for each field of the ensemble, the
177 computational cost required by running the semi-analytical flow model (Sect. 2.1) will increase.
178 To reduce this cost, a clustering algorithm of the inclusions is developed. A cluster is considered
179 when two or more inclusion gridblocks are “in contact”, that is, when the distance between the
180 centers of their gridblocks is less or equal to $\sqrt{2} \cdot \Delta x$, where Δx is the gridblock size adopted in
181 the generation of the k field. The size and distribution of these clusters depend on the parameters
182 assigned for their generation. In the semi-analytical model, each cluster is modeled as a single
183 circular leakage spot (passive well) with an area equivalent to that of the cluster itself. The

184 position of the leakage spot is calculated as the centroid of the gridblocks forming the cluster.
185 One example of grouping the clusters at the caprock is shown in Fig. 1. In this example, the
186 number of 84 inclusions-blocks (orange gridblocks) is reduced to only 16 clusters after applying
187 the clustering approach. The equivalent areas of the clusters are shown as black circles in Fig. 1.
188 Each of these clusters is used as a single leaky point in the semi-analytical model ELSA-IGPS of
189 Sect. 2.1.

190 [Figure 1 here]

191 Originally, ELSA-IGPS was developed to simulate multi-phase flow and estimate the
192 leakage of both brine and CO₂ flux along existing passive wells. That is to say, leakage always
193 occurs through small cross-sectional areas of the caprock (radii between 0.15 m – 1 m). In
194 contrast, here, ELSA-IGPS is used to simulate escapes through larger weak areas of the caprock.
195 A comparison with a numerical code is made to understand the limitations of using the semi-
196 analytical model in this way. The comparison is carried out using the compositional version E300
197 of ECLIPSE (Schlumberger 2010). ECLIPSE is a commercial numerical multi-phase flow model
198 based on a three-dimensional finite-difference discretization and widely used in the gas and oil
199 industry.

200 It is worth noting that the clustering approach is likely to alter the geostatistics of the
201 inclusions and, in particular, their variogram. However, the most important requirement for this
202 study is to maintain accuracy in the estimation of CO₂ leakage, as explained above, rather than
203 preserving the geostatistics of the caprock.

204 2.3 Statistical Analysis

205 In this work, CO₂ leakage through caprock discontinuities and passive wells is quantified
206 as the percentage of CO₂ mass, $\%M_{leak}$, released into aquifers overlying the targeted storage
207 formation with respect to the total mass of CO₂ injected. CO₂ injection takes place in the deepest
208 formation ($l=1$) through a single injection well ($M=1$), with only one overlying aquifer ($l=2$)
209 above the injected aquifer considered (more details on the conceptual model are in Sect. 3.1).

210 $\%M_{leak}$ is calculated as the ratio between the mass of CO_2 that escapes from the injected
 211 formation into layer $l=2$ and the total CO_2 injected into layer $l=1$ at final time t_{end}

$$\%M_{leak} = \frac{M_{leak}(t_{end})}{\rho_c Q_{1,1} t_{end}} 100, \quad (4)$$

212 where $M_{leak}(t_{end})$ is given by the net cumulative CO_2 mass transferred into aquifer $l=2$ through
 213 all passive wells j ($j=1,2,\dots,N$)

$$M_{leak}(t_{end}) = \int_0^{t_{end}} [\sum_{j=1}^N \rho_c s_{c,j,2}(\tau) Q_{j,2}(\tau)] d\tau. \quad (5)$$

214 In Eq. (5) $s_{c,j,2}$ represents saturation of CO_2 at passive well j and aquifer $l=2$.

215 Output ensembles of the state variable $\%M_{leak}$ are used to produce CDF plots. A CDF
 216 of the state variable $\%M_{leak}$ is obtained from the output of N_{MC} model simulations. After ordering
 217 the $\%M_{leak}$ values in ascending order, $\%M_{leak_1} < \%M_{leak_2} < \dots < \%M_{leak_{N_{MC}}}$, the
 218 corresponding CDF values are calculated as $CDF(\%M_{leak}) = (i - 0.5)/N_{MC}$ ($i=1,2,\dots,N_{MC}$)
 219 (Hahn 1967). To optimize the performance of the simulations, preliminary tests are run to find
 220 the minimum ensemble size N_{MC} beyond which CDFs remain substantially stationary. A sample
 221 size of $N_{MC} = 500$ is selected for each of the investigated scenarios.

222 The methodology applied in this study is summarized as follows. First, CIKSIM is
 223 applied to the grid domain using conditional facies data, such as possible information on caprock
 224 sealing properties in given areas. As a result, an ensemble of caprock binary fields containing the
 225 two types of facies is obtained. The clustering approach is then applied to the caprock binary
 226 fields in order to decrease the number of leaky areas to be introduced in the multiphase flow semi-
 227 analytical model. After the completion of the clustering process, ELSA-IGPS Monte Carlo
 228 simulations are run and a statistical analysis of the output ensembles of mass leakage are used to
 229 generate CDF profiles. Figure 2 shows a flowchart of such methodology.

230 [Figure 2 here]

231 3 Application to the Michigan Basin Test Site

232 3.1 Study Area

233 The methodology introduced in Sect. 2 is applied to a geological test site located within
234 the Michigan Basin in proximity to the town of Thompsonville, MI. The candidate formation
235 proposed for GCS is known as the Gray Niagaran formation. Fig. 3 shows a cross-section of the
236 Michigan basin in the area of interest with the candidate storage formation highlighted in yellow.
237 The Gray Niagaran formation lies below an almost depleted hydrocarbon reservoir (Brown
238 Niagaran pinnacle in Fig. 3), which is currently used by Michigan Technological University for
239 geophysical research.

240 [Figure 3 here]

241 The Gray Niagaran formation has a thickness of 119 m with its top at 1,500 m below the
242 ground surface, making this formation appropriate as a geological repository of CO₂. The choice
243 to store supercritical CO₂ in this formation is justified by the sealing capacity of the formations
244 above the Brown Niagaran pinnacle. However, a relevant source of uncertainty lies in the
245 continuity of the caprock, highlighted in Fig. 3 (green shading). Although several data are
246 available from monitoring wells at the test site (Halliburton 1990; SCH 1983, 1991), the
247 information that can be used directly to describe the spatial distribution of the sealing properties
248 of the caprock formation at the basin scale is scarce.

249 The model system is conceptualized in ELSA-IGPS as a stack of two aquifers ($L=2$): the
250 Gray Niagaran formation (119 m thick) below and the Carbonate formation (35 m thick) above.
251 The two aquifers are separated by a 17-m thick caprock layer constituted by marine evaporites
252 (Fig. 3). Supercritical CO₂ is injected into the Gray Niagaran formation through a single well.

253 When using the numerical simulator ECLIPSE, the geological model is also
254 conceptualized as two aquifers separated by a caprock, with the same thicknesses described
255 above. The model domain is divided into 100 m × 100 m gridblocks horizontally. Vertically, each
256 formation is divided into four sub-layers. A single vertical CO₂ injection well is modeled at the
257 center of the domain and screened within the lower aquifer. The grid resolution in the area

258 surrounding the injection well is progressively increased to achieve an appropriate size for a well
 259 (about 0.5 m). To simulate a laterally infinite aquifer system, the pore volume of the boundary
 260 gridblocks is multiplied by a factor of 1×10^6 . In order to obtain comparable results with ELSA-
 261 IGPS, the CO2SOL option of ECLIPSE is selected, which models the flow of two immiscible
 262 fluids with no capillary pressure.

263 In both models, ELSA-IGPS and ECLIPSE, the mass injection rate is $Q_m = 30$ kg/s (about
 264 0.95 Mt/year) and remains constant during a simulated period of 10 years (t_{end} in Eq. (5)).
 265 Initially, all formations are assumed to be saturated only with brine and under hydrostatic pressure
 266 conditions. The caprock is assumed impermeable except for the location of inclusions or passive
 267 wells located in the area of interest. A Van Genuchten constitutive model (Van Genuchten 1980)
 268 is used to calculate relative permeabilities of CO₂ and brine, assuming a brine residual saturation
 269 $s_b^{res} = 0.3$ and a fitting parameter of 0.41 (Zhou et al. 2009). Porosity values are extracted from the
 270 log-wells of the two boreholes in Fig. 3 (Halliburton 1990; SCH 1983, 1991). The injected aquifer
 271 and the overlying formation are assumed to have a permeability equal to 2.8×10^{-14} m² and 9.6×10^{-15}
 272 m², respectively, calculated according to Trebin (1945) as

$$\begin{aligned}
 k &= 2e^{31.6\varphi} && \text{if } 100\varphi < 12\% \\
 k &= 4.94(100\varphi)^2 - 763 && \text{if } 100\varphi > 12\% \quad , \quad (6)
 \end{aligned}$$

273 where: k is the permeability in millidarcy (mD, $1\text{mD} \equiv 1 \times 10^{-15}$ m²), and φ is the porosity (l). For
 274 the comparison of ELSA-GPS and ECLIPSE results, the sealing formation is assigned a
 275 permeability $k_1 = 0$. For simplicity, inclusions in the caprock are assumed to have the same
 276 permeability as the injected aquifer $l=1$ ($k_2 = k_{l_1}$). The hydro-geomechanical parameters used in
 277 this study are provided in Table 1.

278 [Table 1 here]

279 3.2 Caprock Permeability Generation

280 In order to generate caprock permeability realizations, CIKSIM is used. For this purpose,
 281 a grid covering an area of 7 km \times 7 km is considered with the hydrocarbon reservoir located at its
 282 center (Fig. 1). Each gridblock is 100 m \times 100 m, yielding a total of 4,900 blocks. The thickness

283 of the caprock above the Gray Niagaran formation is relatively small when compared to the
 284 horizontal extension of this formation (30.5 m thickness of caprock versus 7,000 m of estimated
 285 grid extension), thus the permeability is represented as a two-dimensional heterogeneous field
 286 with no variation in the vertical direction.

287 Since the reservoir has contained oil before, it is assumed that the caprock in its area is
 288 perfectly impermeable. This information is used to “condition” caprock permeability realizations
 289 as facies 1 in the gridblocks inside the reservoir boundary. The caprock permeability in the other
 290 gridblocks (unsampled locations) is unknown and thus simulated stochastically. In Fig. 1, the
 291 lateral boundary of the reservoir is indicated by the blue line, and red dots correspond to
 292 gridblocks where the permeability is that of facies 1.

293 3.2.1 Uncertainty from Caprock Continuity

294 The generation of the caprock permeability ensembles with CIKSIM is based on the two-
 295 point geostatistics described in Table 2. The following exponential covariance model is used for
 296 both facies

$$C_{k_i k_i}(d; \sigma_{k_i}^2, l_{k_i}) = \sigma_{k_i}^2 \exp\left(-\frac{d}{l_{k_i}}\right) \quad (i = 1, 2), \quad (7)$$

297 where: d is the horizontal distance between any two points; $\sigma_{k_1}^2, \sigma_{k_2}^2$, and l_{k_1}, l_{k_2} are the variances
 298 and the correlation lengths of the two facies; and k_1 and k_2 are the permeability of facies 1 and
 299 2, respectively. Note that $\sigma_{k_1}^2 = P_1(1 - P_1)$ and $\sigma_{k_2}^2 = P_2(1 - P_2)$, where P_1 and P_2 are the
 300 probability of facies 1 and 2, respectively. Several probabilities of the occurrence of P_2 are applied
 301 for facies 2 (inclusions) ranging between 0.0005 and 0.02, as well as correlation lengths $l_{k_2} = l_{xy}$
 302 ranging between 200 m and 1,500 m (xy denotes equal correlation lengths in the x and y
 303 directions. Facies 1 has a probability $P_1 = 1 - P_2$, and a correlation length $l_{k_1} = 1,000$ m in all
 304 scenarios. N_{MC} in Table 2 refers to the ensemble size.

305 [Table 2 here]

306 To analyze the caprock permeability field generated by CIKSIM in relation to the
 307 correlation length l_{xy} and the effect that this has on CO₂ leakage, two parameters are here

308 introduced: the average distance D between the inclusion clusters and the injection well; and the
 309 inclusion ratio r_{lc} . The distance D is calculated as

$$D = \frac{1}{N_{MC}} \sum_{j=1}^{N_{MC}} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_{cl}} d_{i,j}}{N_{cl}}, \quad (8)$$

310 where N_{cl} ($i=1,2,\dots, N_{cl}$) is the total number of clusters present in realization j ($j=1,2,\dots, N_{MC}$), and
 311 $d_{i,j}$ is the distance between the center of the cluster i in realization j and the injection well. In
 312 general, one can expect CO₂ leakage to be probabilistically more pronounced for smaller values
 313 of D , which practically indicates how close to the injection well the inclusions are on average.

314 The inclusion ratio r_{lc} is defined as the fraction between the average number of actual
 315 inclusion blocks generated in the ensemble and the expected number of inclusion blocks

$$r_{lc} = \frac{\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{N_{MC}} l_{c,j}}{N_{MC}}}{P_2 N_{gb}}, \quad (9)$$

316 where N_{gb} is the total number of gridblocks considered for the generation of the caprock ($N_{gb}=$
 317 4,900), and $l_{c,j}$ is the number of inclusion gridblocks in realization j . For instance, for a
 318 probability $P_2 = 0.01$, the expected number of inclusion blocks is 49 ($P_2 N_{gb}$). In general, larger
 319 r_{lc} values indicate the presence of larger inclusions than expected, which should probabilistically
 320 produce larger CO₂ leakage.

321 Finally, to investigate the influence of the injected formation permeability and inclusions
 322 permeability on CO₂ leakage, different combinations of these are considered as in the scenarios
 323 1.1, 2.1, 3.1, 4.1, and 5.1 presented in Table 2. The range of permeabilities of the injected
 324 formation k_{l_1} and inclusions k_2 studied spans from 1×10^{-15} m² (about 1 mD) to 1×10^{-12} m² (about
 325 1,000 mD). Results of these analyses are reported in terms of the 95th percentile of % M_{leak} (Eq.
 326 (4)).

327 3.2.2 Uncertainty from Caprock Continuity and Passive Wells Permeability

328 The study area considered in Sect. 3.1 comprises 60 wells that perforate the candidate
 329 formation to store CO₂. The locations of these wells are obtained from the Michigan Department
 330 of Environmental Quality database (MDEQOGD 2014). The integrity of these wells is uncertain.

331 A deteriorated or poorly cemented well can create a leaky pathway for brine and/or CO₂. Since
332 the number of these passive wells is significant, they are included in the uncertainty analysis for
333 CO₂ leakage.

334 Before use in the semi-analytical model, these 60 passive wells are grouped into 20
335 equivalent leaky pathways following the approach outlined in González-Nicolás et al. (2015a).
336 Following this approach, these groups are identified by minimizing the sum of the Euclidean
337 distances of the passive wells that form a cluster of wells and the cluster centroid. The equivalent
338 leaky area considered for each cluster of wells is equal to the sum of the cross-sectional areas of
339 the wells included in that group. From the equivalent leaky area, an equivalent radius is calculated
340 and introduced into Eq. (2) to compute the flow rate through this cluster. Figure 4 shows the
341 positions of the 60 passive wells and the position of the 20 equivalent groups of wells after
342 clustering.

343 [Figure 4 here]

344 The location of these well groups is fixed in each of the realizations of the caprock
345 permeability, but their permeability is considered stochastic, as no information is available on
346 passive well integrity. All passive well permeabilities are assumed to fit to the same lognormal
347 probability distribution function with a log-mean of $\log(1 \times 10^{-14} \text{ m}^2)$ and a log-standard deviation
348 of 1 log-m² (Nordbotten et al. 2009).

349 **4 Results and Discussion**

350 **4.1 Simulating CO₂ Leakage from Large Caprock Areas Using ELSA-IGPS**

351 To investigate the viability of simulating CO₂ leakage across generic caprock inclusions
352 with the semi-analytical model, results of ELSA-IGPS are compared with those of the numerical
353 model ECLIPSE. Results of the comparison are summarized in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6.

354 Figure 5 presents the cumulative mass leakage of CO₂ over time for two representative
355 caprock permeability realizations from scenario 3.1. These two realizations are shown in Fig. 5a
356 and 5b, whereas the corresponding CO₂ leakage profiles are shown in Fig. 5c and 5d. In both

357 realizations, the final (at $t_{end} = 10$ years) cumulative CO₂ mass leakage given by ELSA-IGPS
358 and that given by ECLIPSE are quite similar. In addition, the final cumulative CO₂ mass leakages
359 in the two realizations are of the same order of magnitude. However, for the realization in Fig.
360 5a, the CO₂ mass leakage simulated by ECLIPSE starts earlier than that obtained with ELSA-
361 IGPS (Fig. 5c). These differences are not observed in Fig. 5d, which relates to the realization
362 shown in Fig. 5b.

363 [Figure 5 here]

364 The analysis of the two models' results for several other realizations of the caprock
365 permeability (results not shown here) suggests that ECLIPSE simulates consistently an earlier
366 CO₂ leakage than ELSA-IGPS's when caprock discontinuities are located farther away from the
367 CO₂ injection well. In this respect, a major difference between the realizations in Figs. 5a and 5b
368 lies in the distance at which the closest inclusion to the CO₂ injection well is found. In Fig. 5a
369 such distance is 1,532 m, whereas in Fig. 5b it is 526 m. Numerical tests conducted in this study
370 show that this distance is a crucial parameter for the comparison, and discrepancies between the
371 two models, in terms of CO₂ leakage versus time, are observed only when this minimum distance
372 is greater than about 600 m (Figs. 4a and 4c). For realizations having the closest inclusion within
373 600 m (Fig. 5b) no substantial difference in the CO₂ mass leakage profiles is found (Fig. 5d).

374 The earlier CO₂ leakage simulated by ECLIPSE as compared to ELSA-IGPS has already
375 been observed by Nordbotten et al. (2009), who attributed these differences to numerical diffusion
376 in ECLIPSE. Our results confirm these observations. Effects of numerical diffusion lead to
377 simulating a more spread out CO₂ plume front at any given time, that is, a CO₂ plume that
378 somehow advances faster. This results in an earlier leakage, particularly when inclusions are
379 located farther away from the injection well, since in this case the CO₂ plume has to travel longer
380 distances before leakage starts, exacerbating the effects of numerical diffusion.

381 Figure 6 shows the CDF of $\%M_{leak}$ (Eq. (4)) of ELSA-IGPS (in red) and ECLIPSE (in
382 blue) for scenarios 2.1 (dashed lines) and scenario 4.1 (solid lines). One can observe that CO₂
383 mass leakage for the two codes is quite similar for $\%M_{leak}$ values greater than 1%, whereas larger

384 discrepancies are found for smaller $\%M_{leak}$ values. Also, differences in CO_2 leakage are more
385 pronounced for larger inclusion probabilities P_2 . Statistically, ECLIPSE produces more leakage
386 of CO_2 than ELSA-IGPS, which can also be explained by the effects of numerical diffusion
387 discussed above. The analysis of the CDFs in Fig. 6 reveals that low ranges of $\%M_{leak}$ are
388 characterized by realizations with inclusions located farther away from the injection well, in
389 which the CO_2 leakage simulated by ELSA-IGPS starts later than ECLIPSE's, thus producing a
390 lower $\%M_{leak}$.

391 [Figure 6 here]

392 In general, the cumulative CO_2 mass leakage produced by the two models is of the same
393 order of magnitude at later times, hence showing a reasonably good agreement between the two
394 approaches. But since the computational cost of ELSA-IGPS is about two/three orders of
395 magnitude lower than ECLIPSE's, the advantage achieved by introducing clustered inclusions
396 into ELSA-IGPS is quite significant for quantifying the uncertainty on CO_2 leakage at the
397 considered site.

398 4.2 Quantifying Uncertainty on Caprock Continuity

399 4.2.1 Testing of Binary Permeability Fields

400 Figure 7 shows profiles of the average distance D (Eq. (8)) and the inclusion ratio r_{lc} (Eq.
401 (9)) as functions of the correlation length l_{xy} . In Fig. 7a, the D versus l_{xy} relationship is graphed
402 for probabilities P_2 equal to 0.005, 0.01, and 0.02. In general, as the correlation length l_{xy} of
403 facies 2 increases, the distance D is observed to decrease at first and then become roughly
404 constant. In practice, low correlation lengths lead to generating smaller inclusions, generally
405 spread out throughout the domain and thus situated – on average – farther away from the injection
406 well. On the other hand, larger correlation lengths signify larger inclusions, which are constrained
407 within the domain and thus lead to smaller values of D . As a result, for a given probability P_2 and
408 different correlation lengths, larger l_{xy} values will reflect larger CO_2 mass leakage because the

409 average distance D that the CO_2 plume has to travel through the storage formation to reach
410 caprock inclusions, and thus the travel time, will be shorter.

411 [Figure 7 here]

412 Figure 7b displays the relationship between correlation length l_{xy} and the inclusion ratio
413 r_{lc} for probabilities P_2 equal to 0.005, 0.01, and 0.02. This figure shows that in general r_{lc} is equal
414 to 1 only when the correlation length is very small ($l_{xy}= 0.1$ m) and exhibits a general increasing
415 trend as l_{xy} increases. This trend is, however, not significant for correlation lengths l_{xy} beyond
416 400 m, where r_{lc} becomes roughly constant with values oscillating between 1.6 and 1.8 depending
417 on the assigned probability P_2 . This indicates that, in order to simulate caprock continuity and its
418 impact on the uncertainty on CO_2 leakage, assigning meaningful values of the correlation l_{xy} can
419 be as significant as assessing the inclusion probability P_2 .

420 4.2.2 Quantifying CO_2 Leakage

421 The effects of the correlation length l_{xy} and the inclusion probability of facies 2 on CO_2
422 leakage are summarized in Fig. 8, which shows the CDF of $\%M_{leak}$ (Eq. (4)) for some of the
423 scenarios described in Table 2. In general, CO_2 mass leakage is higher for larger P_2 values. This
424 is not surprising, since a higher P_2 substantially means a higher probability of the CO_2 plume to
425 encounter leakage pathways across the caprock. It is interesting to observe, however, that if a
426 maximum $\%M_{leak}$ target of 1×10^{-3} is prescribed, this is met with an 81% probability in scenario
427 1.1 ($P_2= 0.0005$ and $l_{xy}= 200$ m) and only with a 1% probability in scenario 5.1 ($P_2= 0.02$ and
428 $l_{xy}= 200$ m).

429 [Figure 8 here]

430 Results in Fig. 7 confirm that the $\%M_{leak}$ associated to caprock permeability fields with
431 the same probability P_2 is larger for larger correlation lengths, since inclusions have larger extent
432 and, consequently, the CO_2 mass leakage is more likely to occur. This is in agreement with two
433 points made previously: i) the distance from the center cluster to the injection well D is lower for

434 a higher correlation length (Fig. 7a); and ii) the inclusion ratio is greater for higher correlation
435 lengths (Fig. 7b). For example, there are, on average, more inclusions in a scenario where $l_{xy} =$
436 1,500 m, than when $l_{xy} = 200$ m, and the distance that the CO₂ plume has to travel to reach the
437 center of inclusion clusters is shorter, thus promoting earlier leakage of CO₂.

438 4.2.3 Influence of Permeability Values of the Injected Formation and Inclusions

439 To study the combined influence of the storage formation permeability k_{l_1} and the
440 inclusions permeability k_2 on the maximum probable amount of leaked CO₂, different
441 combinations of k_{l_1} and k_2 are considered for scenarios 1.1, 2.1, 3.1, 4.1, and 5.1 (Table 2). These
442 results are presented in Fig. 9, which shows contour maps of the % M_{leak} 95th percentile as a
443 function of k_{l_1} and k_2 . Each subpanel in Fig. 9 corresponds to one of the scenarios above. All
444 scenarios exhibit the lowest CO₂ mass leakage when k_{l_1} is high and k_2 is low. In general, high
445 permeability of the injection formation *corresponds* to less escape of CO₂ through weak areas.
446 The CO₂ plume advances more easily through the injected formation when k_{l_1} is high, which
447 enhances its injectivity and storage properties, and limits CO₂ escape, particularly if the inclusion
448 permeability k_2 is low. As indicated in Fig. 9, scenarios 1.1 and 2.1 are those characterized by
449 the lowest CO₂ mass leakages. In scenarios 4.1 (Fig. 9d) and 5.1 (Fig. 9e), considerable amounts
450 of CO₂ leakage are observed when the inclusion permeability is greater than $3.16 \times 10^{-13} \text{ m}^2$
451 ($\log k_2 = -12.5$). Broadly, results of these scenarios show that % M_{leak} is more sensitive to k_{l_1}
452 than k_2 , except when permeability of inclusions presents a very high value of k_2 ($\log k_2 \geq -12.5$).
453 These results are aligned with those in González-Nicolás et al. (2015a), which have shown that
454 the permeability of the storage formation has the greatest impact on CO₂ leakage uncertainty,
455 whereas the permeability of passive wells, which can be seen as analogues for inclusions, has a
456 significant influence on CO₂ leakage through the interaction with other parameters (higher order
457 effects), such as the location of the leaky pathways.

458 [Figure 9 here]

459 The $\%M_{leak}$ maps given Fig. 9 can be used in relation to the metric reported by Pacala
460 (2003), which limits the amount of CO₂ leakage returning to the atmosphere to 1% per one year.
461 In scenario 1.1 (Fig. 9a), where the probability of finding an inclusion is the lowest, $\%M_{leak}$
462 would be less than or equal to 1% per one year for values of k_{l_1} greater than $5.01 \times 10^{-14} \text{ m}^2$
463 ($\log k_{l_1} \geq -13.3$). On the other hand, if P_2 is increased to 0.01 (Fig. 9d), in order to maintain the
464 maximum probable CO₂ leakage below the 1% per year threshold, the minimum permeability
465 required for the injection formation and the inclusions should be $3.98 \times 10^{-13} \text{ m}^2$ ($\log k_{l_1} = -12.4$)
466 and $6.31 \times 10^{-14} \text{ m}^2$ ($\log k_{l_2} = -13.2$), respectively.

467 This analysis shows that geostatistical data, such as the probability P_2 and the correlation
468 length, l_{xy} , play a critical role for the probabilistic assessment of CO₂ leakage prior to the GCS
469 development for a candidate reservoir. For instance, Fig. 9 indicates that a probability P_2 greater
470 than 0.001 with $l_{xy} = 200 \text{ m}$ (scenarios 2.1, 3.1, 4.1, and 5.1) is likely to produce a CO₂ leakage
471 greater than 1% per year, in which case the injections of CO₂ into the candidate storage formation
472 should not be recommended. If the permeability of the storage formation is $k_{l_1} = 2.8 \times 10^{-14} \text{ m}^2$
473 ($\log k_{l_1} = -13.55$) (Table 1), injection of CO₂ into the formation is not viable since this would lead
474 to a probability of CO₂ leakage exceeding 1% independently of the P_2 value considered in the
475 scenarios shown in Fig. 9. It is, however, important to emphasize that these estimates are quite
476 conservative since the limit proposed by Pacala (2003) is on CO₂ leakage rates back to the
477 atmosphere, whereas in this study the CO₂ mass leakage considered is the CO₂ that escapes the
478 target storage formation $l=1$. Additional processes of trapping and attenuation that CO₂ may
479 undergo in the overburden formations are not accounted for.

480 4.3 Combining the Effects of Caprock Inclusions and Passive Wells

481 Uncertainty from permeability of passive wells affects CO₂ mass leakage results when
482 this uncertainty is added to caprock continuity uncertainty, especially in scenarios where CO₂
483 leakage from the caprock discontinuities is expected to be low. Figure 10 and Fig. 11 show CDFs
484 of $\%M_{leak}$ (Eq. (4)) for some of the scenarios described in Table 2 in the cases where uncertainty

485 in passive well is (solid lines) and is not (dashed lines) accounted for. In Fig. 10, the selected
486 inclusion scenarios are those characterized by the same correlation length $l_{xy}=200$ m (scenarios
487 2.1, 3.1, 4.1, and 5.1). Results in Fig. 10 reveal that, for the considered test site, uncertainty from
488 permeability of passive wells does not affect significantly CO₂ mass leakage, independently of
489 the prescribed P_2 value, if $\%M_{leak}$ exceeds 1%; yet significant differences are observed for
490 smaller values of $\%M_{leak}$, especially for the lowest probabilities P_2 of the inclusions (e.g., $P_2=$
491 0.0005 and $P_2=0.001$).

492 [Figure 10 here]

493 In Fig. 10, scenario 1.1 (blue lines), which has the lowest inclusion probability P_2 , shows
494 an 82% probability of $\%M_{leak}$ to be less than 1×10^{-3} when only caprock continuity uncertainty is
495 considered (blue dashed line). When adding the uncertainty from passive well permeability (blue
496 solid line) this probability is reduced to zero, and there is practical certainty to exceed the 1×10^{-3}
497 threshold. Scenarios 2.1, 3.1, and 4.1 exhibit the same tendency as in scenario 1.1. However,
498 scenarios with higher probability P_2 , such as scenario 4.1 (green profile) and 5.1 (in gray), show
499 small differences between their CDFs even for low values of $\%M_{leak}$. Moreover, in scenario 5.1
500 (gray profile) the influence on leakage produced by the uncertainty on the permeability of passive
501 wells is negligible in comparison to the leakage produced through the weak areas of the caprock.

502 Similar to Fig. 10, Fig. 11 shows CDFs of $\%M_{leak}$ (Eq. (4)) for scenarios 2.1, 2.2, 2.3
503 and 2.4 in Table 2, characterized by the same probability P_2 and different correlation lengths,
504 when uncertainty in passive wells is (solid lines) and is not (dashed lines) considered. Results of
505 Fig. 11 indicate that uncertainty on passive wells permeability has an important impact on the
506 CDFs for values of $\%M_{leak}$ below 0.25%, independently of the correlation length. Figure 11 also
507 shows that when uncertainty on passive wells is considered, the influence of the inclusion
508 correlation scale l_{xy} , which practically dictates the size of the inclusions, is noticeable for
509 $\%M_{leak}$ equal to 0.1% and becomes more prominent for $\%M_{leak}$ larger than 1%. On the other

510 hand, when uncertainty on passive wells is not considered, the influence of l_{xy} is noticed at much
511 lower leakage values ($\%M_{leak} = 1 \times 10^{-3}\%$).

512 [Figure 11 here]

513 **5 Summary and Conclusions**

514 This work advances a novel methodology for the preliminary assessment of the suitability
515 of saline aquifers for GCS in relation to the risk of CO₂ leakage across high permeable areas of
516 the caprock. The study is focused on inclusion facies but it also considers the presence of
517 passive/abandoned wells of uncertain integrity. This framework is applied to a saline aquifer
518 embedded within the Michigan sedimentary basin, with very limited information on the sealing
519 properties of the caprock. An uncertainty quantification analysis of CO₂ leakage is conducted by
520 developing a Monte Carlo simulation approach, where the caprock permeability field is the major
521 source of uncertainty. Because of the computational cost involved in the use of numerical
522 multiphase flow numerical models, the viability of substituting them with a semi-analytical flow
523 model originally developed to treat leakage from passive wells is studied. To generate caprock
524 discontinuities a two-point geostatistics simulator of permeability is coupled with a clustering
525 algorithm that produces equivalent circular discontinuities for direct use in the semi-analytical
526 flow model. To understand the limitations of applying the semi-analytical model to simulate
527 leakage through large areas of the caprock, a comparison of the semi-analytical algorithm with a
528 numerical code is carried out. Results show that, in general, there is a good agreement between
529 the two models, with the cumulative CO₂ mass leakage produced being practically the same at
530 later times.

531 Parameters such as D and r_{lc} can be regarded as useful indicators for assessing the
532 vulnerability of any site to CO₂ leakage. Since CO₂ leakage varies greatly depending on P_2 and
533 l_{xy} values, it is critical to prescribe realistic values of P_2 and l_{xy} to be able to quantify uncertainty
534 in CO₂. Uncertainty from passive well permeability has less impact on CO₂ leakage when large

535 amounts of CO₂ leakage through the inclusions are expected ($\%M_{leak} > 1\%$) and is only
536 significant when CO₂ leakages from caprock inclusions are low.

537 Overall, seemingly low inclusion probabilities P_2 , of the order of 1%, may lead to
538 considerable CO₂ leakage. Therefore, extreme caution should be used before injection of CO₂ into
539 the selected candidate formation. While processes of trapping and attenuation that CO₂ may
540 undergo in the overburden formations are expected, to enhance GCS safety, only the collection
541 of high resolution geophysical data over a large area around the injection site may help narrow
542 down the uncertainty on the caprock continuity.

543 Finally, the methodology presented here can be transferred to assess the probability and
544 intensity of CO₂ leakage in other potential GCS candidate sites in which data on the caprock
545 sealing properties are limited or inexistent. Since this situation is often encountered in the real
546 world, this framework can offer a valid tool to support decision makers in the preliminary
547 selection of safe GCS sites.

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652

653

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656

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679

680 **Fig. 8** CDF of % M_{leak} for several scenarios described in Table 2

681

682 **Fig. 9** Maps of the 95th percentile of % M_{leak} as a function of the injection formation permeability
683 (k_{l_1}) and the inclusions permeability (k_2) for **a** scenario 1.1, **b** scenario 2.1, **c** scenario 3.1, **d**
684 scenario 4.1, and **e** scenario 5.1

685

686 **Fig. 10** CDF of % M_{leak} for some scenarios characterized by different probability P_2 and the same
687 correlation length in the cases where uncertainty in passive well is (solid lines) and is not (dashed
688 lines) accounted for

689

690 **Fig. 11** CDFs of % M_{leak} for scenarios 2.1 to 2.4 in Table 2, characterized by the same probability
691 P_2 and different correlation lengths when uncertainty in passive well is (solid lines) and is not
692 (dashed lines) considered

693

694

695 **Table 1** Hydro-geomechanical parameters

Parameter	Symbol	Value	Units
Brine density	ρ_b	1,045	kg m ⁻³
CO ₂ density	ρ_c	575	kg m ⁻³
Brine viscosity	μ_b	4.5×10 ⁻⁴	Pa s
CO ₂ viscosity	μ_c	4.6×10 ⁻⁵	Pa s
System compressibility	c_{eff}	4.6×10 ⁻¹⁰	Pa ⁻¹
Injected aquifer porosity	φ_{l_1}	0.084	/
Overlying aquifer porosity	φ_{l_2}	0.05	/
Brine residual saturation	s_b^{res}	0.3	/
End-point CO ₂ relative permeability	$k_{r,c0}$	0.42	/
Injection aquifer permeability	k_{l_1}	2.8×10 ⁻¹⁴	m ²
Overlying aquifer permeability	k_{l_2}	9.6×10 ⁻¹⁵	m ²
Sealing formation permeability	k_1	0	m ²
Weak areas/inclusions permeability	k_2	2.8×10 ⁻¹⁴	m ²

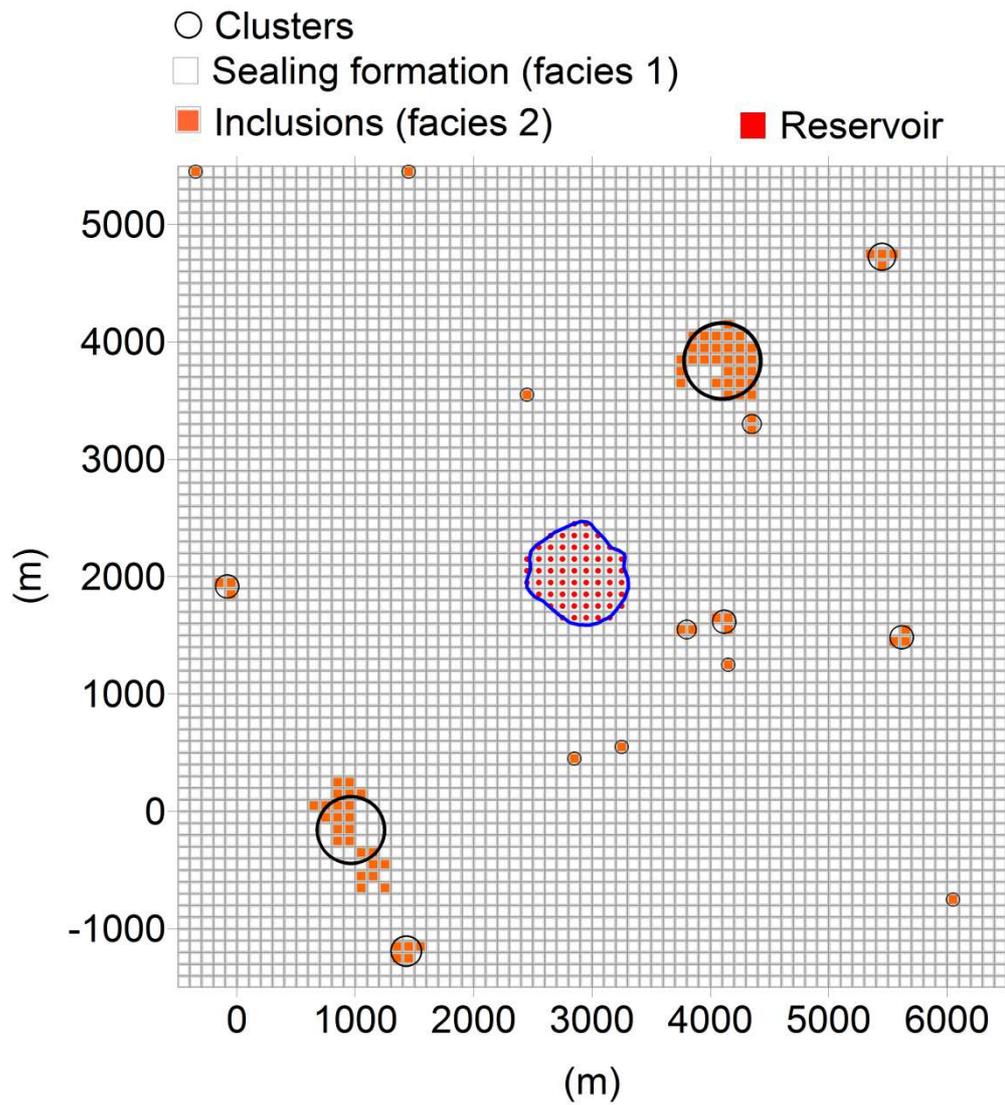
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697 **Table 2** Parameters used for the generation of caprock fields. All considered scenarios are
 698 assumed to have a correlation length $l_{k_1}=1,000$ m for facies 1

Scenario	Covariance model	N_{MC}	P_2^*	l_{xy} (m)
1.1	Exponential	500	0.0005	200
1.2				400
1.3				600
1.4				1,500
2.1	Exponential	500	0.001	200
2.2				400
2.3				600
2.4				1,500
3.1	Exponential	500	0.005	200
3.2				400
3.3				600
3.4				1,500
4.1	Exponential	500	0.01	200
4.2				400
4.3				600
4.4				1,500
5.1	Exponential	500	0.02	200
5.2				400
5.3				600
5.4				1,500

699 *Facies 2 corresponds to inclusions. Probability of facies 1 (perfectly sealing formation) is $P_1 =$
 700 $1 - P_2$.

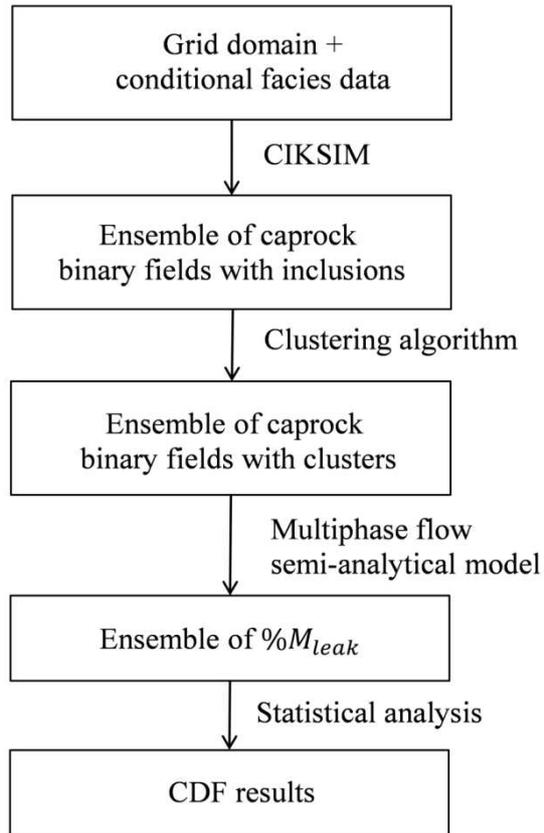
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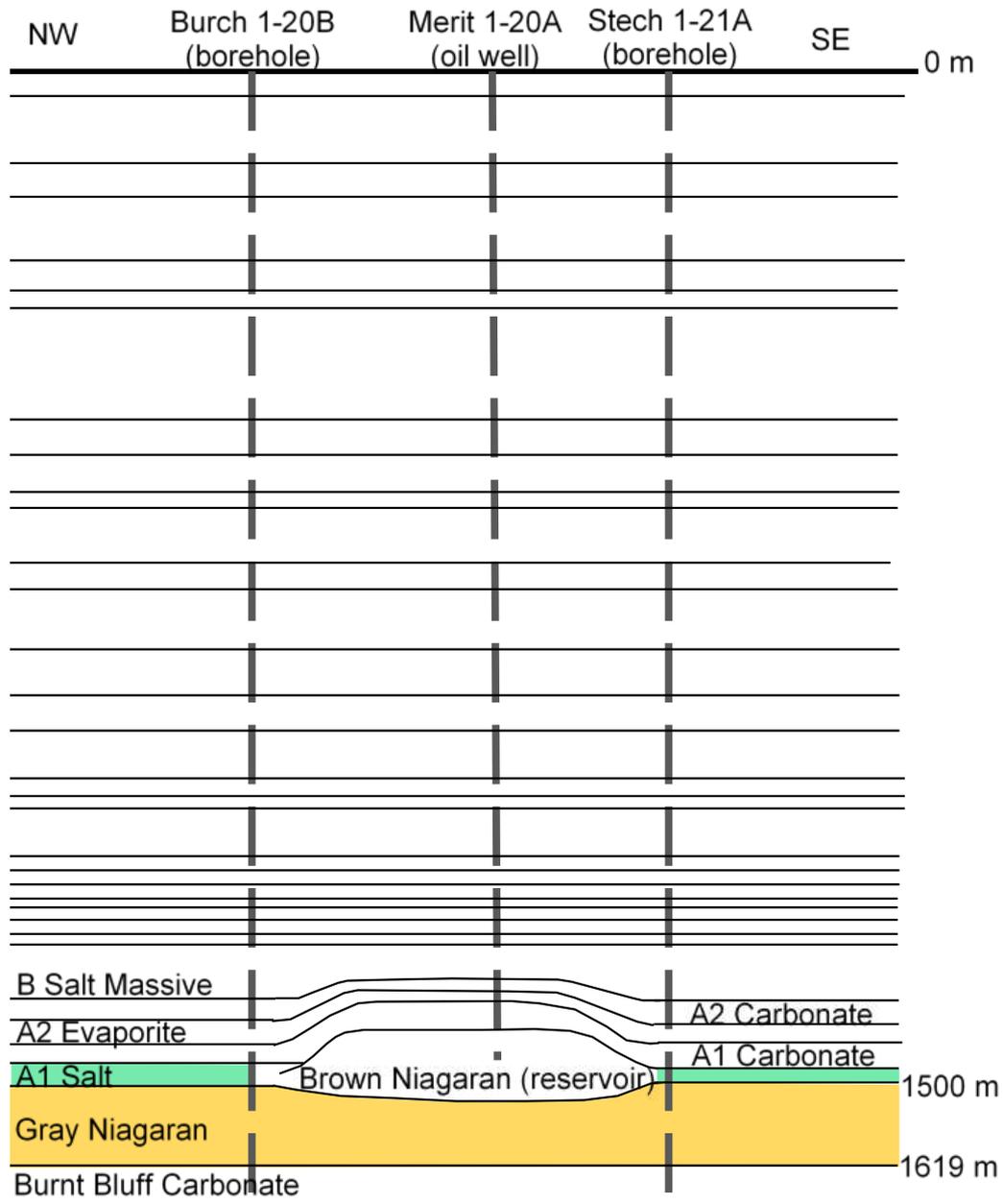
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703 **Fig. 1** Representation of the clustering approach. In this example, the number of 84 inclusions-
 704 blocks (in orange) is reduced to 16 clusters (black circles). Limit of the hydrocarbon reservoir
 705 (red gridblocks) is shown by the blue line (Brown Niagaran pinnacle in Fig. 3)

706



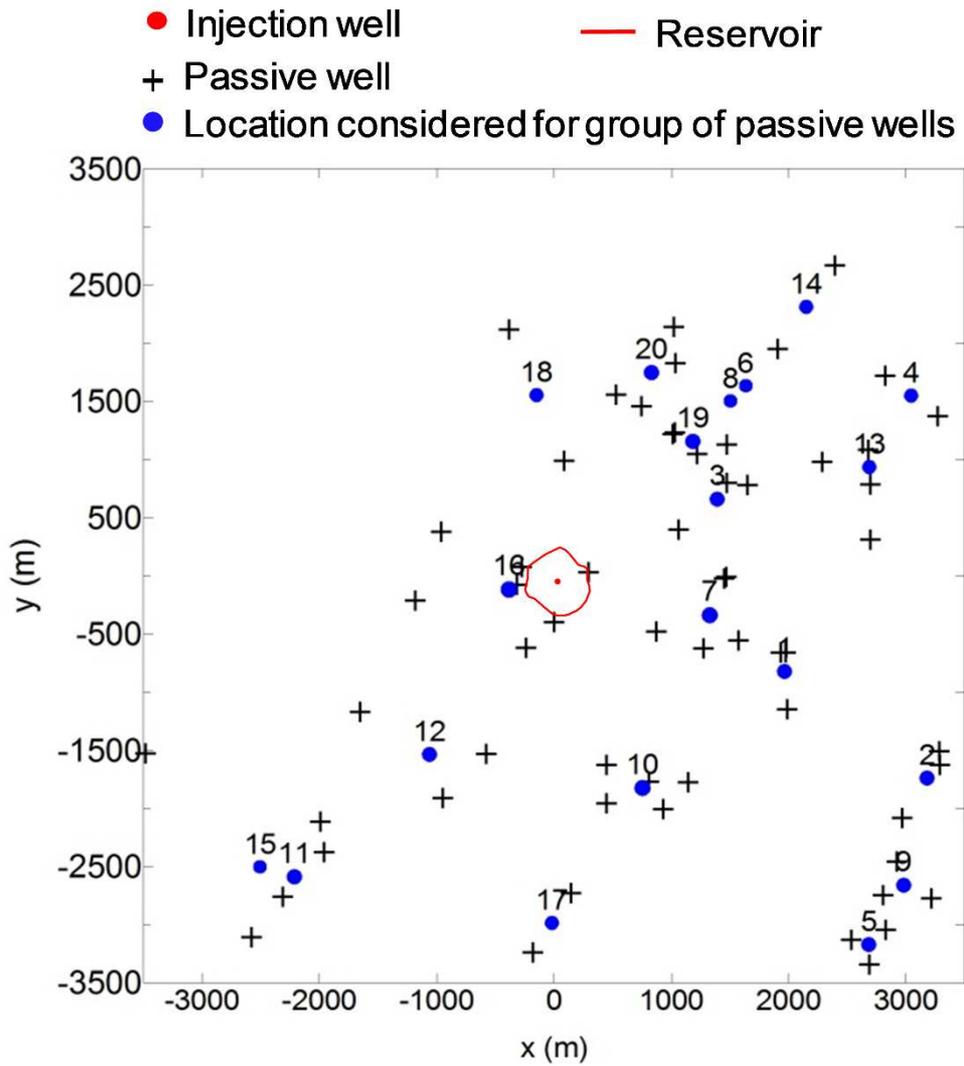
707
708 **Fig 2.** Flow chart of the methodology



709

710 **Fig. 3** Cross-section of the Michigan Basin test site proposed for GCS (Turpening et al., 1992).

711 The candidate formation is highlighted in yellow and the caprock is colored in green



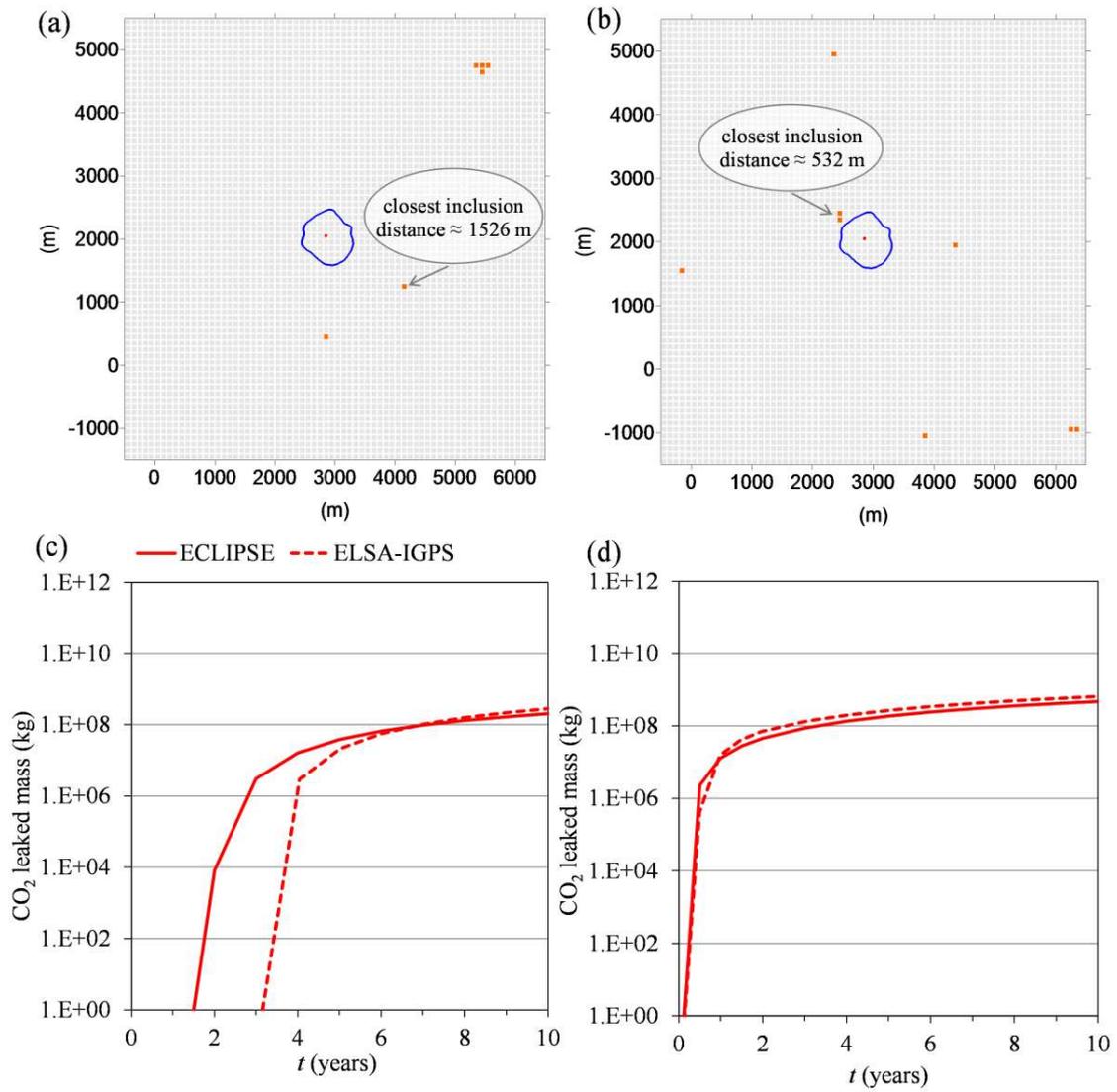
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713 **Fig. 4** Locations of 60 passive wells that cross the candidate GCS formation of the Michigan

714 Basin (black crosses) and of the 20 equivalent clusters (blue circles). The red dot indicates the

715 position of the proposed injection well (Merit 1-20A in Fig. 3)

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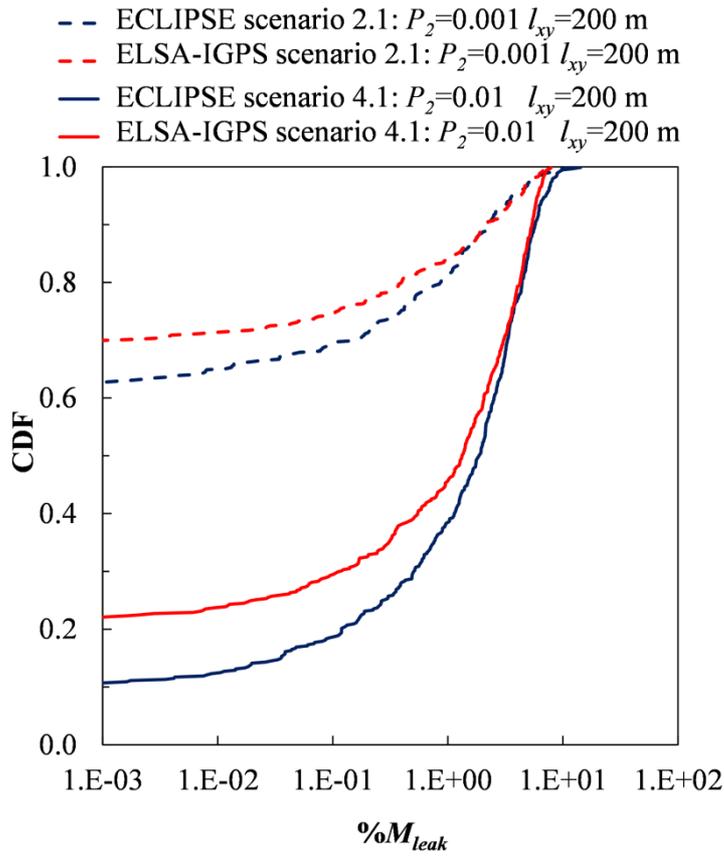
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718 **Fig. 5** Panels **a** and **b**: caprock permeability for two representative realizations of scenario 3.1.

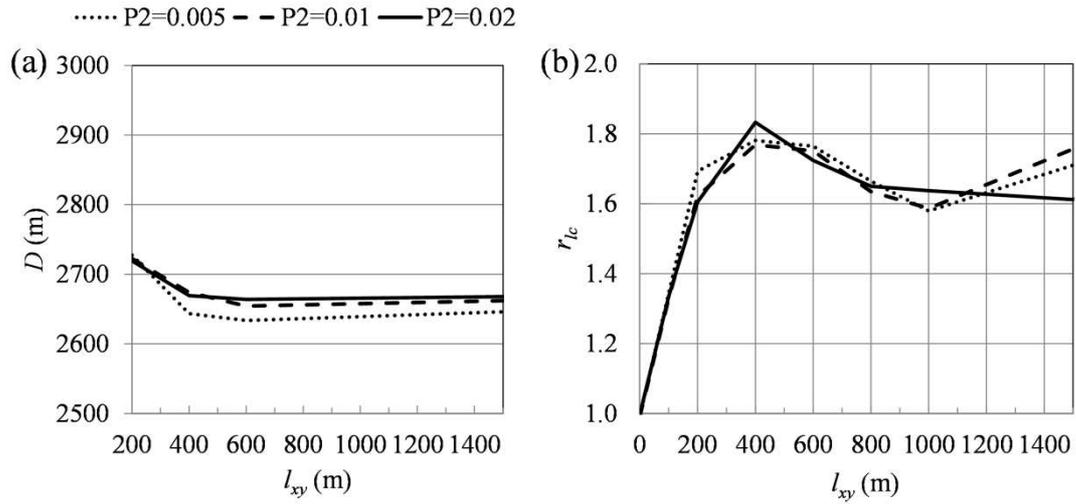
719 Panels **c** and **d**: ECLIPSE and ELSA-IGPS comparison of CO₂ mass leakage over time for

720 realizations in **a** and **b**, respectively

721



722
 723 **Fig. 6** CDFs of $\%M_{leak}$ for ELSA-IGPS (in red) and ECLIPSE (blue) of scenario 2.1 and scenario
 724 4.1
 725



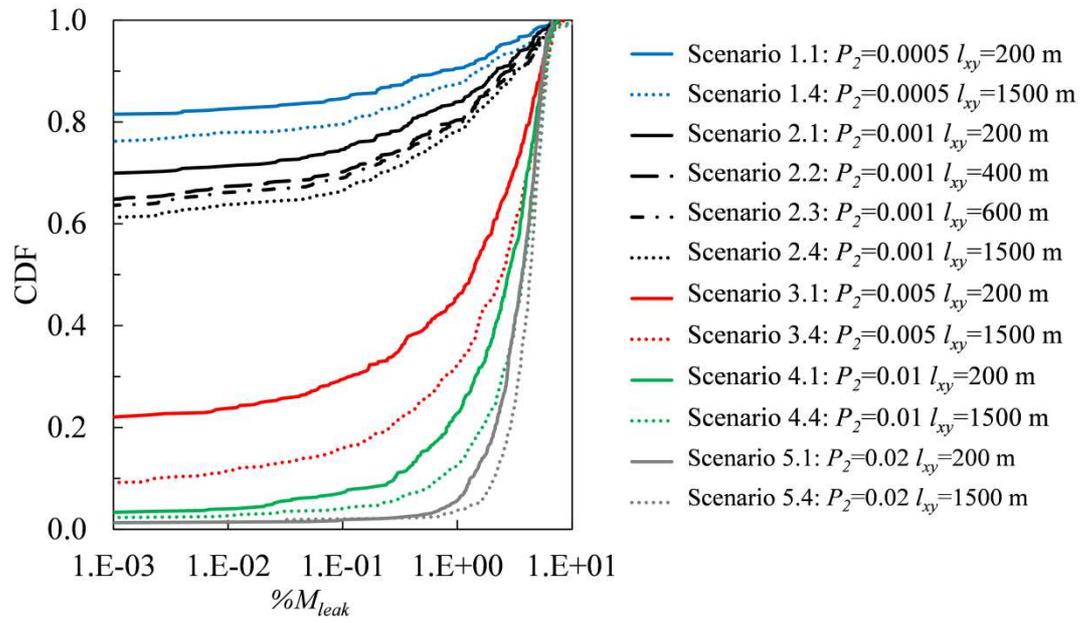
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727 **Fig. 7 a** Relationship between correlation length and the average distance between cluster centers

728 and injection well and **b** relationship between correlation length and the inclusion ratio

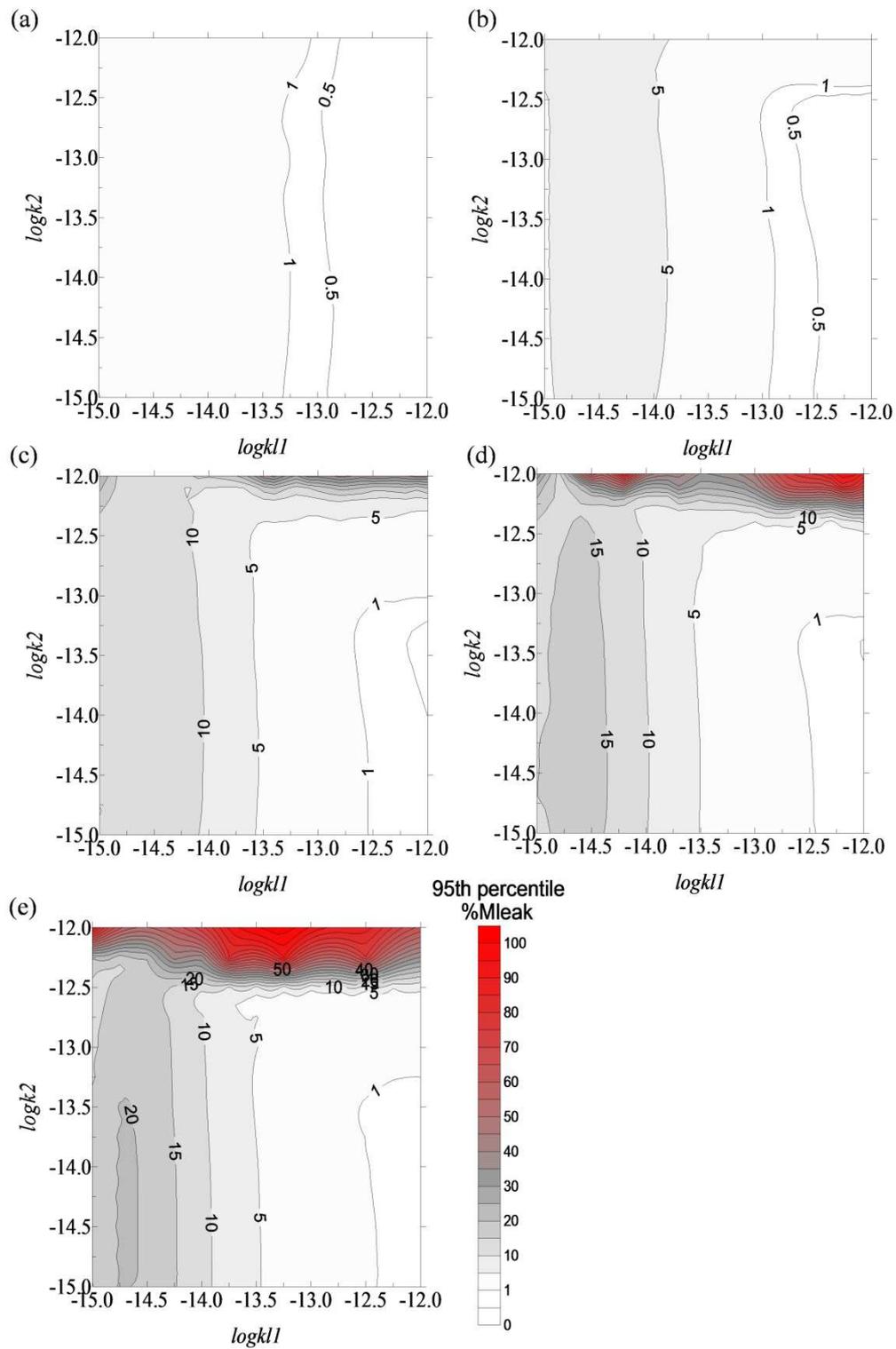
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730



732 **Fig. 8** CDF of %M_{leak} for several scenarios described in Table 2

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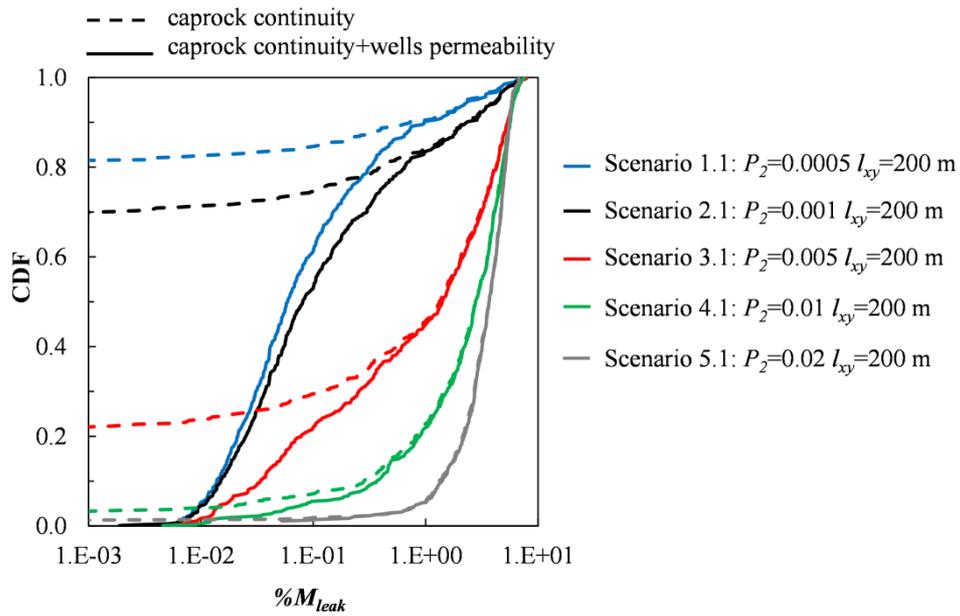


734

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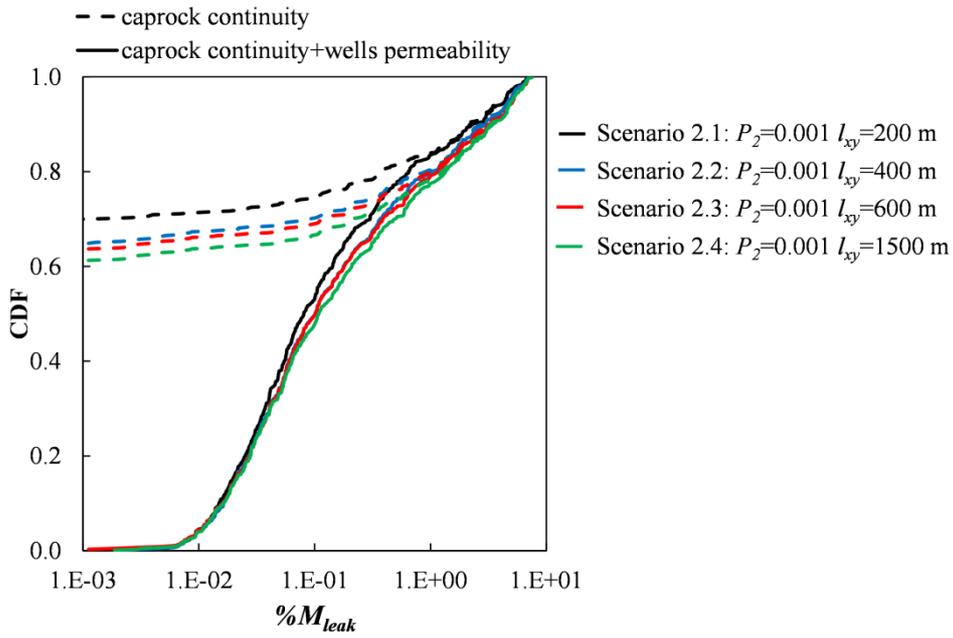
739

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741 correlation length in the cases where uncertainty in passive well is (solid lines) and is not (dashed
742 lines) accounted for

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747 **Fig. 11** CDFs of $\%M_{leak}$ for scenarios 2.1 to 2.4 in Table 2, characterized by the same probability

748 P_2 and different correlation lengths when uncertainty in passive well is (solid lines) and is not

749 (dashed lines) considered

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