

1   **A case study of using cosmic ray muons to monitor supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> migration in**  
2   **geological formations<sup>1</sup>**

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8   **Highlights**

- 9         • Carbon storage monitoring using cosmic ray muons is investigated.  
10      • The accuracy of the method in terms of its resolution is studied.  
11      • The muon propagation process causes energy loss and results in attenuation.  
12      • The muon scattering effect which may lower the spatial resolution is evaluated.  
13      • The monitoring method may be more applicable and effective for shallow monitoring.

15   **Abstract**

16   In carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) geological storage, the monitoring of the injected CO<sub>2</sub> migration in  
17   underground storage is essential to understanding storage process and ensuring storage safety. An  
18   effective monitoring system will be required for decades into the future during storage phase to  
19   indicate the location where the injected fluids have extended to. A novel radiographic probing  
20   technique using naturally occurring cosmic ray muon radiations was introduced in recent years as  
21   a promising continuous and cost-effective candidate method. This method utilizes the ability of  
22   different materials to attenuate muons as the detection property. The feasibility of this technique  
23   still needs to be investigated in terms of higher simulation accuracy, the intrinsic spatial resolution,  
24   and response sensitivity for storage with impurities. In this study, simulations are performed to  
25   understand the sensitivity of this method in responding to the presence of the injected fluids in  
26   saline aquifer formations. The energy spectrum of the cosmic ray muons for different zenith angles  
27   at sea level is sampled according to the modified Gaisser's formula. The muon propagation  
28   process has been simulated with high fidelity by detailed description of different materials  
29   involved in the deployed geological model. The muon attenuation along different paths carries  
30   information on the interior of a monitored region and the muon scattering effect may lower the  
31   accuracy to locate the fluids. The intrinsic spatial resolution of this method is thus analysed and  
32   found to be at a scale of several meters. This method aims to provide the basis for understanding  
33   the injected fluids behaviour. The simulations show that the method is feasible and the injected  
34   fluids in saline aquifers can be identified with a high sensitivity.

35   **Keywords:** carbon storage; cosmic ray muon; feasibility; Monte Carlo; radiography; site  
36   monitoring.

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37     **1. Introduction**

38       Carbon dioxide capture and storage (CCS) may prove to be the most viable way to reduce  
39       CO<sub>2</sub> emission into the atmosphere on an industrial scale [1, 2]. Instead of allowing carbon dioxide  
40       to be directly emitted into the atmosphere, CCS technologies would capture a large amount of CO<sub>2</sub>  
41       from carbon-based power plants, compress it into supercritical state, transport and finally inject it  
42       into well-characterized underground porous formations, which usually lie at depths of more than  
43       800 meters below the ground surface [3]. Since purification of the fossil fuel-derived CO<sub>2</sub> would  
44       account for a large proportion of the total costs, CO<sub>2</sub> feed-in will often contain impurities, which  
45       could be N<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S, and/or SO<sub>x</sub> [4-6]. CCS projects are aimed at sealing the injected fluids in  
46       geological formations effectively. However, there is no guarantee that the goal of carbon  
47       sequestration can be fulfilled without complexities and the injected fluids will stay underground  
48       safely forever. Once injected, the fluids would migrate both upward and laterally under the driving  
49       forces of buoyancy and the pressure difference between the injection zone and the ambient zones.  
50       Site monitoring is required for decades into the future in view of the expected time scales for  
51       permanent storage [7]. Monitoring systems can be classified into two categories, i.e. shallow and  
52       deep monitoring [8]. Deep monitoring of the injected fluids is to identify the location where they  
53       have extended to for reasons of process control, storage safety and effectiveness, and verification  
54       and modification of the numerical prediction models. When the fluids appear in unintended  
55       regions like areas near depleted wells, natural geological faults, and fractures in upper cap rocks, it  
56       may pose a threat of leakage. Deep monitoring can help reduce the occurring rate of leakage by  
57       site-specific risk assessment together with relative remediation measures, provide a basis for  
58       improving the prediction models and also help better understand the fluids migration behaviour in  
59       deep storage [9, 10]. When leakage takes place, shallow monitoring is needed to locate it. Existing  
60       monitoring techniques tested in experiments and ongoing pilot projects include geophysical and  
61       geochemical measurements [11-16]. These methods tend to be episodic, and the frequency and  
62       extent of monitoring are important problems to be settled in a practical storage phase. In view of  
63       this, a continuous monitoring method is also needed to provide a continuous measurement for  
64       observing dynamic reservoir behaviour.

65       A new method, cosmic ray muon radiography, was introduced in recent years to effectively  
66       address this need in a way with no destruction to the storage integrity [17]. If the dynamically  
67       extending saturated region by the injected fluids can be determined using this method,  
68       measurements for more information can be regulated accordingly. This work is focused on the  
69       feasibility of the method in respect of the spatial resolution and sensitivity for responding to  
70       storage scenarios involving impurities. Based on the principle of traditional radiography  
71       (represented by X-ray scanning of a human body), cosmic ray muon radiography uses the ability  
72       of different materials to attenuate the cosmic ray muons as the detection property of a targeted  
73       object, and measures the statistical penetrating muon events along different paths through a  
74       monitored object as the information source for probing the interior of the objet. In radiography,  
75       energy of the used ray particles should be chosen so that the mean range of the particles is  
76       comparable to the thickness of the tested object. The larger or denser a targeted object is, the  
77       higher the energy of the used particles has to be. Eventually the onset of pair production ( $2\gamma \rightarrow e^- + e^+$ ) with the increase of the required photon energy sets a limit to the size of the samples that can  
78       be imaged by this method [18]. However, cosmic ray muons possess some unique characteristics  
79

80 and can be used for detecting the interior of geophysical-scale objects, in a way similar to  
81 applications in other areas found by X-rays and  $\gamma$ -rays.

82 Cosmic ray muons are naturally occurring and highly penetrating particles continuously  
83 arriving at the earth surface from different zenith angles. At sea level, the energy spectrum of  
84 cosmic ray muons has a wide range from extremely low value to hundreds of TeV, which is almost  
85 time-independent [19], making cosmic ray muons a suitable radiation source for radiography. The  
86 small variations related to several factors in the energy spectrum has been well studied, and the  
87 ultimate effects on imaging can be adjusted by placing a muon detector above the monitored area  
88 in practical applications [20]. Besides, by virtue of the weak interactions with matter, muons with  
89 an initial energy of tens of GeV can reach depths of tens of meters in standard rock, far beyond the  
90 penetration limit of X-rays or  $\gamma$ -rays under the same conditions. In fact, cosmic ray muon  
91 radiography has been successfully applied for geophysical studies [19, 21], such as search for  
92 hidden chambers in the Kephren Pyramid [22], measurements of the thickness of snow layers on  
93 a mountain and investigation of volcano structures [23]. It has been confirmed that this technology  
94 is capable of mapping volcano structures with higher resolutions than other geophysical  
95 technologies [24]. The idea of this method can also be easily extended to measurements of  
96 time-dependent changes occurring within a target [25]. With a baseline measurement, the  
97 following measurements could provide the interior variation by comparing the statistical  
98 information of the penetrating events along different directions. By virtue of this, the spot where  
99 change has happened can be determined and located in two dimensions. In order to identify the  
100 three-dimensional site, two or more detection systems will be required [26].

101 Previous work [17] on the feasibility study of cosmic ray muon radiography was based on the  
102 storage scenario of carbon sequestration in saline aquifer. The preliminary simplified simulation  
103 results showed that this technique can respond to the presence of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> in deep  
104 reservoirs with a relatively high sensitivity. In this previous study, mean density was the only  
105 varying quantity considered before and after the saturation of the injected fluid in the monitored  
106 region, while the influence of other important factors such as change in material composition on  
107 measurements was neglected. To fully study the feasibility of this method, more investigations are  
108 needed to better understand its responding sensitivity to the injected fluids and other parameters  
109 such as the intrinsic spatial resolution that can be achieved. With these purposes, two aspects of  
110 this method have been investigated in this study. Firstly, the scattering effect of muons during  
111 propagation in matter was evaluated, which would determine the intrinsic spatial resolution.  
112 Secondly, the sensitivity of the statistical penetrating muon events to the injected fluids in saline  
113 aquifer formations was investigated. Two different storage scenarios, storage of pure CO<sub>2</sub> and with  
114 impurities H<sub>2</sub>S and N<sub>2</sub> involved, were investigated respectively. Given a muon detector with a  
115 certain area and an angular acceptance region, the area that is within the scanning scope of this  
116 detector is determined. The muon detector receives the penetrating cosmic muons through the  
117 volume above and adjacent to it. The sensitivity of the method is analysed and determined by  
118 comparing the statistical information on the penetrating muon events for saturation cases of  
119 different fluid concentrations with those for the baseline case prior to injection of the fluids.

120    **2. Cosmic ray muon radiography**

121       The process of the application of cosmic ray muon radiography in detecting time-dependent  
122 change within an object is outlined here. In this technology, a muon detector is placed in an  
123 underground detecting room, aiming to monitor an object that is above and adjacent to it. The  
124 incident cosmic ray muons hit the ground surface, and then propagate through the object. The ones  
125 with sufficient energy to penetrate the object are recorded by the muon detector. The muon  
126 detector can record the penetrating cosmic muons from different directions with a certain intrinsic  
127 angular resolution which is determined by the detector structure. The penetration behaviour of the  
128 muon flux carries information on the material property along the muon path lines of the  
129 measurement period. Time-dependent changes within the object may be inferred by continuous  
130 measurements and analysis. If variations of matter in material composition and density happened  
131 within the scanning scope of the detector, the counting of muon events at corresponding arriving  
132 angles would change accordingly.

133       However, during the propagation process muons also experience stochastic scattering all  
134 along the way except for losing energy. The accumulation of the scattering effect may lead to a  
135 certain deflection from their original directions [27]. Considering that the penetrating muons  
136 recorded from a specific direction ( $\theta, \Phi$ ), with  $\theta$  and  $\Phi$  representing the zenith and azimuth angles  
137 of muons respectively, may have been actually deflected to a certain degree, the scattering effect  
138 could have a negative impact on locating the region where changes actually take place. In general,  
139 the accumulated deflection angles determine the intrinsic spatial resolution of this method which  
140 should be evaluated in deep monitoring applications in CCS. The spatial resolution should be at a  
141 reasonable scale to achieve good performance in detecting.

142       The measurements performed at one detection spot can only identify changes either in the  
143 mean density or in the material composition along the muon paths, so they cannot provide  
144 information on the specific site where changes take place. Nevertheless, changes in lateral  
145 direction within the monitored domain could be effectively measured in this way. In order to  
146 locate the specific area, measurements performed at more than two spots at the same time are  
147 needed to construct a three-dimensional monitoring system. The three-dimensional positioning is  
148 beyond the scope of this work, which is mainly focused on the problem of the sensitivity of this  
149 technology in CCS site monitoring.

150    *2.1 Cosmic ray muon source*

151       The earth is continuously bombarded by primary rays from outer space. At an altitude of  
152 about 32 km, primary rays interact with the atmosphere, producing large amounts of secondary  
153 particles, which travel down through the atmosphere to the earth surface. When arriving at sea  
154 level, most of them are muons, accounting for about 63% of the energy [28], with an  
155 approximately time-independent energy spectrum ranging widely from GeV to PeV. In a  
156 simulation study, an accurate knowledge of the incident cosmic ray muon flux is of vital  
157 importance since it is used to determine the attenuation produced by a targeted object.

158       Precise knowledge of the muon energy spectrum is based on numerous experimental  
159 measurements. The energy spectrum of cosmic ray muons at sea level depends on zenith angles,  
160 and is azimuthally isotropic. In this study, the muon energy spectrum for different zenith angles  
161 was taken from the modified Gaisser spectrum [29] with the best fit values for normalization and

162 spectral index obtained by experimental measurements. The total differential flux of cosmic ray  
 163 muons falls very rapidly with energy losses. As for the incident zenith angle, the cosmic muon flux  
 164 in low-energy region decreases as it increases, but in high-energy region, it is the other way around.  
 165 The total integrated intensity of incident cosmic ray muons at sea level is quite low, with about 1  
 166 muon per minute·cm<sup>2</sup>. Given this situation, the exposure time may be needed to be quite long or  
 167 the detection area to be fairly large to get adequate number of muons to be used as the radiation  
 168 source in one measurement period. This may become a limiting factor for the applicability of this  
 169 technology taking into consideration of practical conditions and requirements, such as the time  
 170 needed for a specific application and the availability of space to accommodate the whole detection  
 171 apparatus underground.

172 *2.2 Muon propagation in matter*

173 The muon is a particle having similar charge properties as the electron. They are equally  
 174 charged with a spin of 1/2, except that the muon has a larger mass (207 times heavier than the  
 175 electron). High-energy muons passing through matter lose energy by ionization and radiative  
 176 processes - bremsstrahlung, direct production of e<sup>-</sup>/e<sup>+</sup> pairs, and photonuclear interactions [29].  
 177 The mean ionization loss rate of a muon of energy  $E$  is given by the well-known Bethe-Bloch  
 178 formula:

$$-\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle_i = 4\pi N_A r_e^2 m_e c^2 z^2 \frac{Z}{A} \frac{1}{\beta^2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{2m_e c^2 \beta^2 \gamma^2 T_{\max}}{I^2} - \beta^2 - \frac{\delta}{2} \right), \quad (1)$$

179 where  $dE/dx$  is expressed in MeV g<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>2</sup>. The meanings of all the other parameters are:  $x$  stands  
 180 for density length (density × length), often referred to as opacity, representing the amount of  
 181 matter encountered along the path;  $z$  is the electric charge of the incident particle, scaled by  $|e|$ ,  
 182 and here for the muon,  $z$  equals to 1;  $A$  and  $Z$  are the mass number and the atomic number of the  
 183 traversed material, and the unit of  $A$  is g/mole;  $m_e$  is the rest mass of the electron;  $r_e$  is the classical  
 184 electron radius;  $N_A = 6.023 \times 10^{23}$  is Avogadro's number;  $I$  is the average excitation energy  
 185 depending on the property of the traversed matter, which can be approximately described as  
 186  $I = 16Z^{0.9}$  eV ( $Z > 1$ ), and it is also related to the state of molecule;  $\delta$  is the density correction [30].

187 The energy losses caused by radiative processes are more complicated, and the evaluation can  
 188 be highly accurate by virtue of improved experimental measurements. For each type of radiative  
 189 interactions, the transferred energy from a muon of energy  $E$  is stochastic and can be expressed in  
 190 the cross section, that is, the probability density distribution of the value of the transferred energy.  
 191 The cross section for each radiative interaction can be looked up [31]. Such energy loss  
 192 mechanism was illustrated by bremsstrahlung here. The cross section for bremsstrahlung is  
 193 expressed in the following formula:

$$\frac{d\sigma}{dv} = \alpha^3 \left( 2Z \lambda_e \frac{m_e}{m_\mu} \right)^2 \frac{1}{v} \left( \frac{4}{3} - \frac{4}{3} v + v^2 \right) \phi(\delta), \quad (2)$$

194 Where  $v$  is the fraction of energy transferred from the muon,  $\alpha (= 1/137.036)$  is the fine structure  
 195 constant,  $\lambda_e$  and  $m_\mu$  are the Compton wavelength of the electron and the rest mass of the muon  
 196 respectively, and  $\Phi(\delta)$  is evaluated as follows

$$\phi(\delta) = \ln \frac{\frac{189m_\mu}{m_e} Z^{-1/3}}{1 + \frac{189\sqrt{e}}{m_e} \delta Z^{-1/3}} \quad Z \leq 10, \quad \phi(\delta) = \ln \frac{\frac{2}{3} \frac{189m_\mu}{m_e} Z^{-2/3}}{1 + \frac{189\sqrt{e}}{m_e} \delta Z^{-1/3}} \quad Z > 10,$$

(3)

where  $\delta = m_\mu^2 v / 2E(1 - v)$  is the minimum momentum transfer to the nucleus and  $e = 2.718$ . From the integral of the cross section (3) between  $v_{\min} = 0$  and  $v_{\max} = 1 - 3/4\sqrt{e}(m_\mu/E)Z^{1/3}$ , the mean energy loss rate caused by bremsstrahlung can be calculated as

$$-\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle_b = E \frac{N}{A} \int_{v_{\min}}^{v_{\max}} v \frac{d\sigma}{dv} dv. \quad (4)$$

Following the above, the total mean energy loss rate (also referred to as the stopping power) of the muon for a single element is derived by summing up the individual contributions and can be parameterized as:

$$\begin{aligned} -\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle &= -\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle_i -\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle_b -\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle_p -\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle_n \\ &= a(Z, A, E) + b(Z, A, E) \cdot E, \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where  $p$  denotes pair production,  $n$  stands for nuclear interactions,  $a(Z, A, E)$  represents the mean ionization energy loss rate in Eq. (1) and  $b(Z, A, E)$  is the joint energy-scaled contributions of the three radiative interactions. Both  $a$  and  $b$  are functions of material type ( $Z$  and  $A$ ) and slowly varying functions of  $E$ . The formula given in Eq. (5) is the mean energy loss rate of the muon in an object made of a pure element. For a compound or a mixture, the mean energy loss rate is the weighted sum of that for all the elements involved and the weight fraction for each element is computed by:

$$w_j = n_j A_j / \sum_k n_k A_k. \quad (6)$$

In Eq. (6),  $w_j$  stands for the mass weight of  $j$  element in a compound or mixture while  $n_j$  represents the number of  $j$  element in a compound or mixture. It follows that

$$\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = \sum_j w_j \left. \frac{dE}{dx} \right|_j. \quad (7)$$

Fig. 1 (left) shows the mean energy loss rate of muons in standard rock, brine, and CO<sub>2</sub>. In this study, the standard rock considered is underground rock with  $Z/A=11/22$ , density=2.65 g/cm<sup>3</sup>, while the supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> is considered to have density=0.75g/cm<sup>3</sup>. In Fig. 1, the dotted symbols represent the experimental data obtained from the Particle Data Group (<http://pdg.lbl.gov>). From the fitted curves it can be seen that the energy loss rates for the three materials vary little from each other in the lower energy region. In the higher region, the energy loss rate is the largest for standard rock, and the least for CO<sub>2</sub>. By taking into consideration the density of the materials, the

mean physical range of muons of different energy in  $\text{CO}_2$  gas, supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  and water is calculated and demonstrated in Fig. 1 (right). It can be seen that muons with a certain incident energy can penetrate the furthest distance in supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$ , and that the penetration ability in  $\text{CO}_2$  gas is higher than in water. In view of this, it can be deduced that for an object made up of the mixture of standard rock, water and  $\text{CO}_2$  (either in supercritical state or gaseous state), the penetrating cosmic ray muon flux would increase with more displacement of water by  $\text{CO}_2$  (either in gaseous or supercritical state).

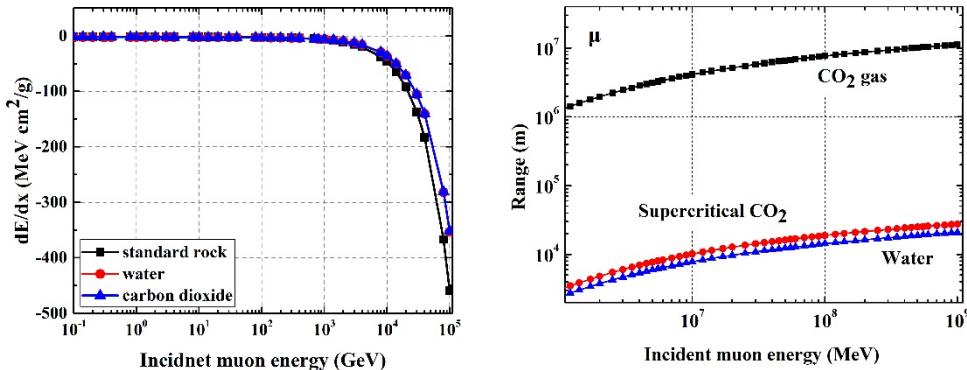


Fig. 1. Left: The mean energy loss rate or stopping power of muons in standard rock, brine and  $\text{CO}_2$  with experimental data from the Particle Data Group (<http://pdg.lbl.gov>); Right: The muon range (m) in gaseous  $\text{CO}_2$ , supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  and water with different initial energy.

Apart from losing energy during propagation in a medium, muons are also continuously scattered by the Coulomb force of both atomic nuclei and electrons along their paths. The momentum of muons will be slightly affected each time when scattering takes place, and multiple scattering processes lead to muon deflections from their original direction to a certain extent. The angular distribution of muons becomes broader and the lateral deflection grows larger as muons propagate through matter. Thus, multiple scattering effects may have an impact on the spatial resolution of this technology, since the direction of the penetrating muons accepted by the corresponding image pixel of the muon detector may have been deflected from the original direction with an angle larger than the angular resolution of this pixel.

Precise knowledge of the muon propagation process in matter makes it possible to theoretically calculate the minimum energy  $E_{\min}$  for cosmic ray muons to penetrate a given object from a certain incident point  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  and direction (zenith angle of  $\theta_0$ , azimuthal angle of  $\Phi_0$ ). By integration of the energy spectrum of the incident cosmic ray muons with  $E_{\min}$  as the lower energy limit, the intensity  $I(\theta_0, \Phi_0)$  of the penetrating cosmic ray muons in an exposure duration  $\Delta T$  can be obtained corresponding to the interior state of the object along the muon path. When changes either in the mean density or the material composition happen to the object, the value of  $E_{\min}$  and the resulting integrated intensity  $I(\theta_0, \Phi_0)$  varies. It is necessary to emphasize that  $E_{\min}$  can only be defined as a quantity of statistical average, because of the stochastic fluctuations of the muon energy losses from the radiative processes and the muon multiple scattering effect, which cause the stopping power fluctuations and range straggling of muons respectively under the same conditions of the object. Therefore, in practical measurements, the deviation between two separate measurements needs to be large enough to certify that the variation in measured  $I(\theta_0, \Phi_0)$  originates from the change in the object rather than the intrinsic fluctuations, and the identification

254 should be interpreted in terms of confidence level statistically.

255 Because of the multiplicity of the energy loss mechanisms, it is difficult to precisely derive  
256 the range of the muon in a medium in an analytical form given in terms of the initial energy  $E_0$ .  
257 Besides, fluctuations of the transferred energy from muons in the stochastic radiative processes  
258 would lead to stopping power fluctuations and range straggling in practice. A detailed treatment of  
259 muons propagation resorts to high-fidelity simulations. For the stochastic processes with  
260 well-known cross sections, Monte Carlo modelling provides an effective approach to simulate the  
261 specific processes with a high accuracy, which can sample each kind of interaction (including  
262 multiple scattering effects) according to their cross sections for each step along the muon path in  
263 matter.

264 In practical measurements the recorded muons in two separate measurement periods may  
265 vary with no actual change happening to the inside of the targeted object, due to the fact that the  
266 intrinsic fluctuations of this technology originating from the stochastic processes along the muon  
267 path also play a role in the variation of detected muon events. The stochastic processes have been  
268 investigated and it is known that the counts of penetrating muons through a targeted object follow  
269 the statistical law under the same condition of the targeted object. Analysis on the phenomenon  
270 can only be made on the basis of adequate penetrating muon events. When the recorded number  $N$   
271 of muon events penetrating the targeted object in one detection period is large enough ( $N \gg 16$ ),  
272  $N$  can be seen as the mean number statistically, and the counts for the following measurements  
273 with no actual change taking place can be described by the Gaussian distribution with the standard  
274 deviation  $\sigma = N^{1/2}$  [32]. Assuming that the difference between the counts in another measurement  
275 period and  $N$  is equal to  $\Delta_0$ , when  $\Delta_0$  is equal to  $\sigma$ , there is a probability of 31.73% for the  
276 difference to be originated from the intrinsic fluctuation or systematic error. From another point of  
277 view, change within the monitored object can be resolved or identified with a confidence level of  
278 68.27%. Confidence level for identification of change in the targeted object is generally  
279 represented by  $k$  times of standard deviation. With  $\Delta_0$  or the value of  $k$  increases, the increase of  
280 the probability for the variation due to changes within the object becomes larger as specifically  
281 shown in Table 1 by  $(1 - F(\Delta_0))$ . In practical measurements,  $k$  is usually required to be larger than  
282 1 to indicate internal change of the object rather than the intrinsic fluctuations of this method. The  
283 value of  $k$  has to be larger if high accuracy is needed.

284 Table 1. Confidence level for the variation ( $\Delta_0$ ) of the penetrating muon events between two  
285 separate measurements originated from the change within a monitored object.

$\Delta_0/\sigma$	0	0.6745	1	1.6449	2	3
$F(\Delta_0)$	1.0000	0.5000	0.3173	0.1000	0.0455	0.0027
$1-F(\Delta_0)$	0	0.5000	0.6827	0.9000	0.9545	0.9973

286 **3. Monitored site model**

287 In this study, the storage scenario of carbon sequestration in deep saline aquifers is  
288 investigated to examine the performance of cosmic ray muon radiography in site monitoring by  
289 Monte Carlo simulations. Deep saline aquifers with overlying impermeable formations are the  
290 most widely adopted options for the geological storage of pure CO<sub>2</sub> or impure CO<sub>2</sub> streams with

other contaminant gases involved. In the process of injection and storage, the injected fluids displace some of the salty water and migrate to the regions with lower pressure before they are immobilized and permanently sealed in the storage. Cosmic ray muon radiography performed in a specific site to be monitored was examined to identify the change caused by the saturation of the injected fluids in the formations.

The first model was deployed for deep monitoring and is briefly described as follows. The monitored area in the simplified application scenario comprised of two layers and the surface of the area is assumed to be flat and at sea level. The upper layer is cap rock comprised of standard rock, and the lower layer is a saline aquifer layer which is made up of standard rock with a porosity of 35% initially saturated with brine. The brine is assumed to be composed of NaCl and H<sub>2</sub>O, and the density is 1.1 g/cm<sup>3</sup>. The cap rock is 1000 m thick, while the saline aquifer is 250 m thick underneath the cap rock. The material properties involved in the monitored site model are shown in Table 2. As supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> migrates in the saline aquifer, the mean density and material composition in the saline aquifer change with its presence associated with the migration of CO<sub>2</sub> into or out of the targeted area. The sensitivity of cosmic ray muon radiography to monitor and identify such changes, i.e., the sensitivity of penetrating cosmic ray muon flux in one measurement period to such changes, was investigated by changing CO<sub>2</sub> volume fraction in the monitored site model from 0% to 15% in the different cases studied. For each case, the distribution of the mixture of standard rock, brine and supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> is set to be homogeneous in the saline aquifer, and the monitored area is deemed to be constant within one measurement period.

Table 2. The properties of the materials involved in the model.

Formation properties	Standard rock	Supercritical CO <sub>2</sub>	Brine	
			NaCl	H <sub>2</sub> O
Atomic number	11	7.33	14.00	3.33
Atomic mass (g/mole)	22	14.67	29.23	6.00
Density (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	2.65	0.67	2.1075-2.02 (changing with CO <sub>2</sub> volume fraction variance)	

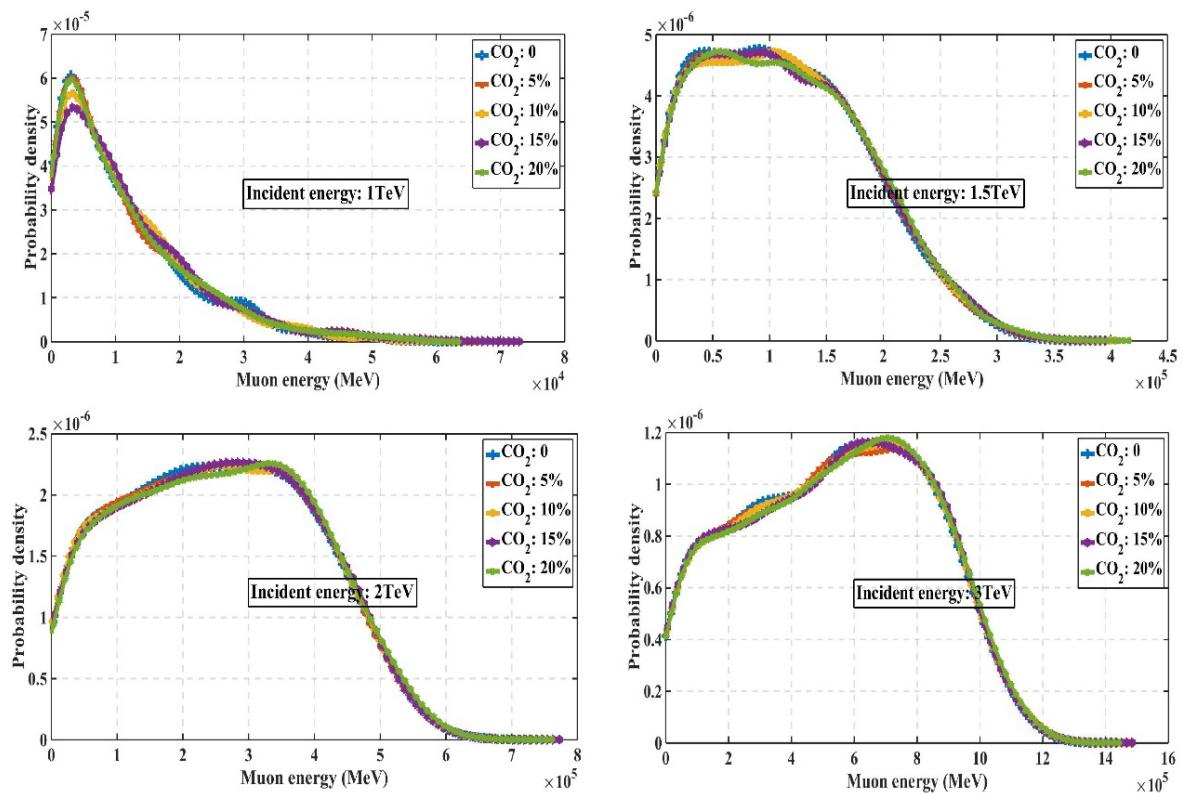
The second model for shallow monitoring considered a multi-layered storage formation from the literature [33]. It is a sequence of 60 m thick aquifers and 100 m thick aquitards extending from the deep saline storage formation to the uppermost freshwater aquifer. Each layer is assumed to be made up of standard rock and pores filled with brine or freshwater. The material property is obtained from the NIST chemistry book (<http://webbook.nist.gov/chemistry/fluid/>). The porosity is 0.05 in the aquitards and 0.2 in the aquifers respectively, and the hydrogeologic properties are homogeneous in the same layers in the simulation processes. This study investigates the sensitivity of using this method to monitor leakage of the injected fluids into the second aquifer from the top. The leakage scenarios include pure CO<sub>2</sub> gas and impure CO<sub>2</sub> with N<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S and SO<sub>2</sub>.

#### 4. Simulation results

The propagation process of cosmic ray muons crossing the monitored site model was simulated by Geant4, a Monte-Carlo toolkit for simulation of particle propagation in matter with high fidelity [34, 35]. Geant4 was developed as an object-oriented toolkit and has gained wide

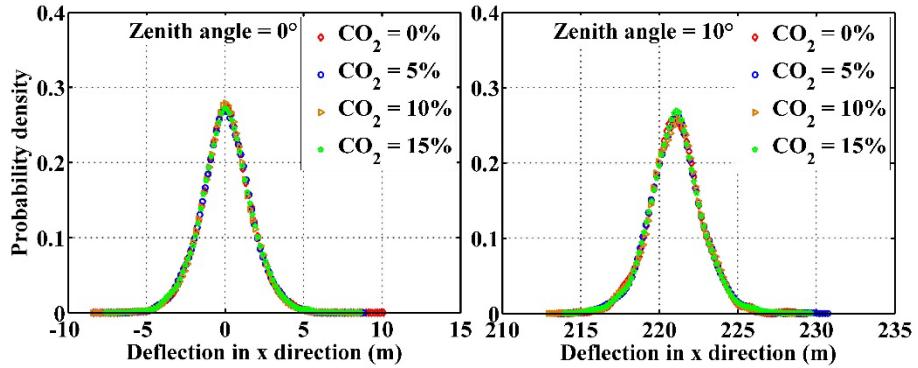
325 applications in high energy physics as well as studies in medical and space sciences. It allows  
 326 users to produce a radiation source of their own needs. In this simulation study, the cosmic ray  
 327 muons are produced by Monte-Carlo sampling according to an energy-spectrum histogram  
 328 generated from the modified Gaisser formula. The width of each of the histogram bin is 1 GeV and  
 329 the energy was sampled linearly within each histogram bin, which means the sampling of the  
 330 cosmic ray muons is highly accurate. The setup of the geometry and the material composition of  
 331 the target can be well described and precisely implemented. In the simulation process, a cosmic  
 332 ray muon is sampled at the beginning of a simulated event and then radiates through the target.  
 333 The passage of the muon through matter is accomplished by Monte-Carlo modelling. For each step  
 334 along the muon path in matter, each kind of stochastic interaction between the muon and matter,  
 335 including the muon multiple scattering effect, is sampled according to their respective cross  
 336 sections by Monte-Carlo modelling. The availability of the latest updated cross sections of the  
 337 muon in different kinds of elements allows accurate modelling of the muon propagation process in  
 338 matter.

339 Because the muon behaviour in matter is stochastic, the outgoing energy of a muon with a  
 340 given incident energy and direction is uncertain and forms a spectrum. The possibility of using the  
 341 outgoing energy spectrum variation as an accompanying information source of the inner change in  
 342 the targeted object is investigated. Fig. 2 shows that the CO<sub>2</sub> volume fraction variations have little  
 343 influence on the normalized energy spectrum shapes, which is shown by the probability density  
 344 distribution of the penetrating muon energy. The results indicate that it would not work by  
 345 considering the outgoing energy spectrum to interpret the inner change caused by the variation in  
 346 CO<sub>2</sub> displacement of the in situ brine within the monitored volume.



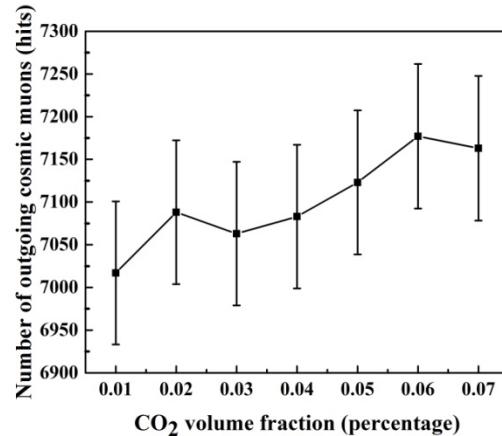
347  
 348 Fig. 2. The outgoing energy spectrum of the muons vertically penetrating the entire storage area  
 349 (the first storage model) with certain incident energy.

350        The muon scattering effect and accumulated deflections when arriving at the detection panel  
 351        were studied for deep monitoring. The largest angle of muon deflection when arriving at plane  
 352        determines the intrinsic spatial resolution in a specific application. Fig. 3 demonstrates the spatial  
 353        resolution that can be achieved by the cosmic muons from zenith angle  $0^\circ$  and  $10^\circ$ . The results  
 354        indicate that this method can achieve a spatial resolution ranging from 10 m to 20 m in deep  
 355        monitoring application. Compared with the target at a scale of hundreds of meters, the spatial  
 356        resolution is at a relatively high level.



357  
 358        Fig. 3. The deflections of the cosmic ray muons incident from zenith angle  $0^\circ$  and  $10^\circ$  when  
 359        arriving at the detector placed adjacent and beneath the storage.

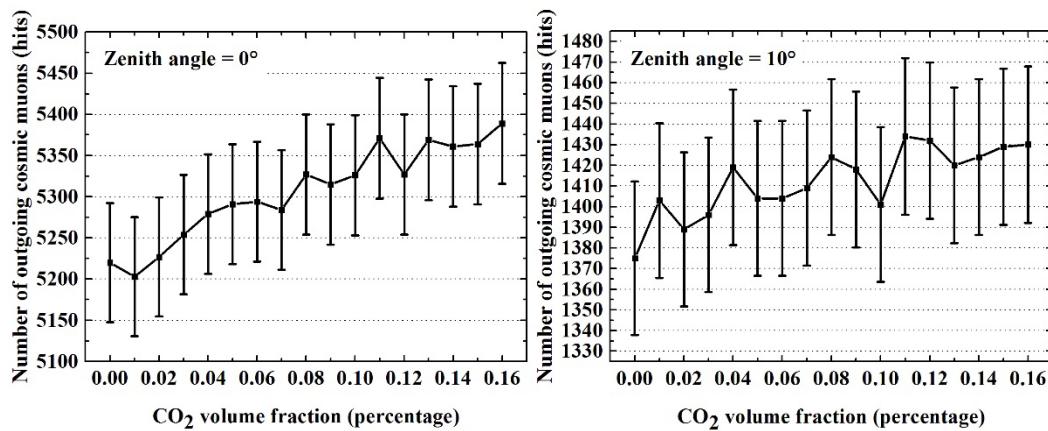
360        In the sensitivity study for deep monitoring, the incident cosmic ray muons are sampled  
 361        according to the modified Gaisser formula. By increasing the amount of supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  in the  
 362        saline aquifer, the sensitivity of the penetrating cosmic ray muon intensity to the change within the  
 363        monitored site was investigated. The case study of the monitored site model with no supercritical  
 364         $\text{CO}_2$  in the saline aquifer corresponds to the baseline measurement in practice. The simulation  
 365        results in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 show with the increase of the supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  composition in the  
 366        saline aquifer, the penetrating number of cosmic ray muons fluctuates locally but increases  
 367        globally. The fluctuations are due to the intrinsic statistical attribute of this method and meanwhile,  
 368        the penetrating muon events are not large enough to reach a level that can be statistically averaged.  
 369        A sample of vertically incident cosmic muon events (corresponding to one measurement period of  
 370        one year and a detection area of about  $25 \text{ m}^2$ ) was first used in the simulation, and the muon  
 371        detector was set to receive the penetrating muons whose directions fall into a zenith angle range  
 372        from 0 to 10 mrad. The result in Fig. 4 shows that the detectable amount of supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  using  
 373        vertically incident cosmic muons is about 5% measured in volume fraction in deep saline aquifers.  
 374        A second set of simulations were made with a shorter measurement period of 100 days, and the  
 375        results in Fig. 5 show that the sensitivity decreases with less sampled cosmic muons, as can be  
 376        easily deduced from the statistics. About 8% supercritical  $\text{CO}_2$  measured in volume fraction can be  
 377        identified by the cosmic muons from zenith angle  $0^\circ$ , and about 11% can be detected by cosmic  
 378        muons from zenith angle  $10^\circ$ .



379

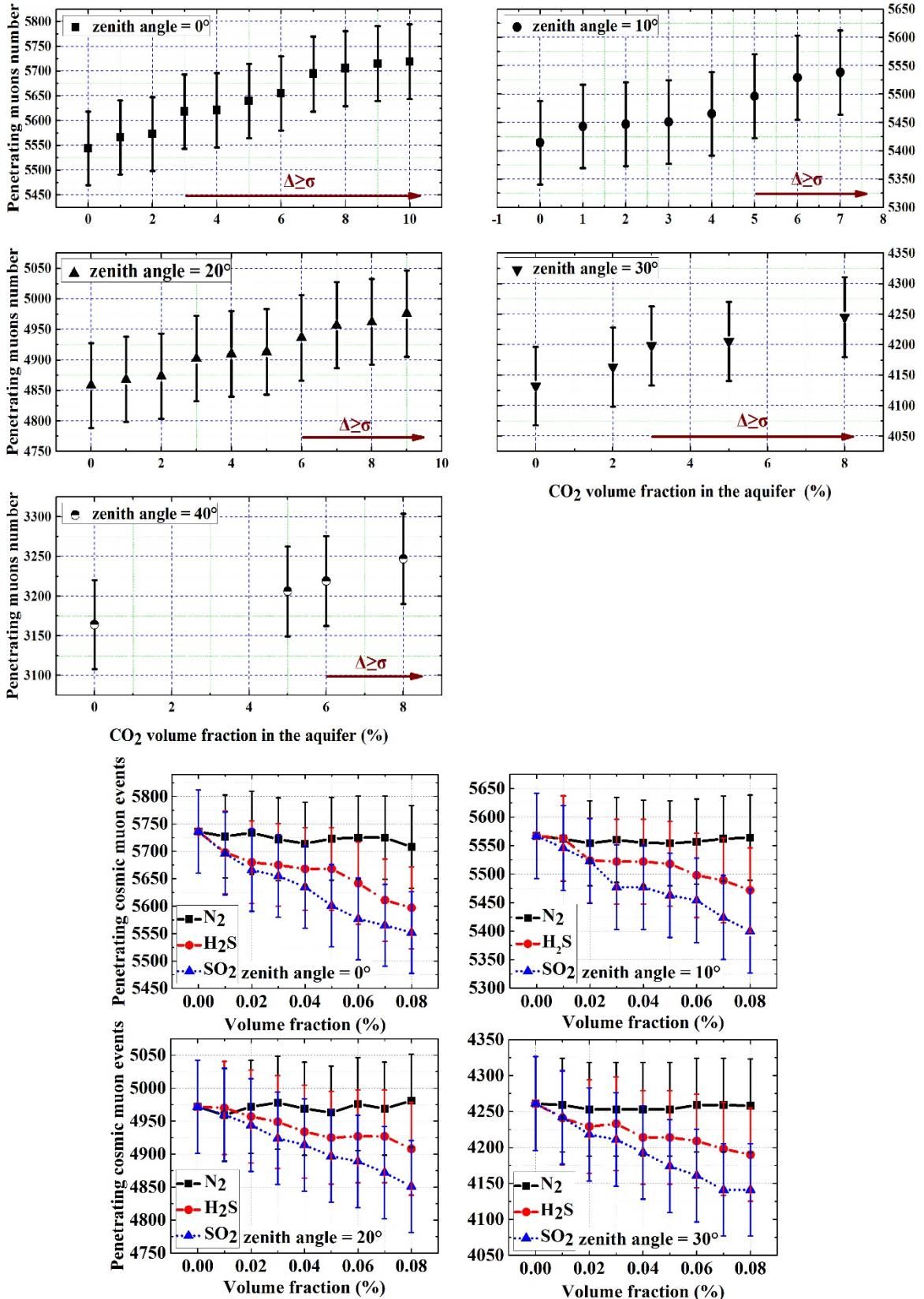
380 Fig. 4. The variation in the outgoing number of the vertically incident cosmic muons under  
 381 different volume fractions of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> in the saline aquifer of the underground  
 382 storage with measurement period of 1 year.

383



384

385 Fig. 5. The variation in the penetrating cosmic muons number (from zenith angle 0° and 10°  
 386 respectively) under different volume fractions of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> with measurement  
 387 period of 100 days.



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Fig. 6. Upper: The penetrating number of cosmic muons recorded for the baseline case and different cases of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage in the shallowest aquifer using a muon detector with a surface area of 1×1 m<sup>2</sup> and a measurement period of 3 days. Lower: the penetrating cosmic muons from zenith angle 0°, 10°, 20°, 30° under various leakage scenarios with different

393           impurities involved.

394       Fig. 6 demonstrates the results of the sensitivity study for shallow monitoring. It can be seen  
395       that the monitoring effectiveness improves dramatically compared with deep monitoring. The  
396       sensitivity for detecting the presence of CO<sub>2</sub> is much higher with a reduced measurement period  
397       and a smaller detection area. Leakage with impurities involved was considered and their impact on  
398       the sensitivity is evaluated. As deduced from the lower set of the sub-figures, N<sub>2</sub>-mixed impurities  
399       has a negligible influence on the detection sensitivity, while SO<sub>2</sub>-mixed impurities has the most  
400       prominent influence on the detection sensitivity and can lower the sensitivity by 10% of CO<sub>2</sub>  
401       volume fraction. H<sub>2</sub>S-mixed impurities could lower the detection sensitivity by about 6% of CO<sub>2</sub>  
402       volume fraction. The results on the effects of impurity are of practical relevance to geological  
403       carbon storage. In fact, the concentration of the impurities in practical situations is rather low. This  
404       method can apply to the SO<sub>2</sub>-mixed situations with a lower sensitivity. Overall the method  
405       performs much better in shallow monitoring than in deep detection because the intensity of cosmic  
406       ray muon events becomes higher with decreasing depths. And the statistical requirement can be  
407       more easily met at shallower depths.

408       The feasibility of radiographic method depends on two aspects, the sensitivity of the method  
409       and the spatial resolution. The simulations conducted for the applications of deep and shallow  
410       monitoring have showed the feasibility of this technique in CCS monitoring. Because the detection  
411       is based on statistical information of the cosmic ray muon events to be used, the sensitivity would  
412       be higher with the increase of the events number as can be seen from Fig. 6. The total number is  
413       determined by the measurement period and the detection area. In a specific application, trade-off  
414       should be made between the detection area and the detection period according to practical  
415       requirements, including consideration of the characteristic time for the dynamic behaviour of  
416       geological carbon storage in CCS and the specific geological conditions for the detection system to  
417       be placed.

418       **5. Concluding remarks**

419       Monitoring of carbon storage can help understand the dynamic behaviour of storage  
420       reservoirs. The knowledge of the supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> migration can provide a basis for mitigation  
421       measures as well as modification and verification of numerical prediction models. Timely  
422       detection and location of the leakage region permeated by the injected fluids is of vital importance  
423       for remediation measures to be taken effectively. This paper presented a feasibility study of cosmic  
424       ray muon radiography as a promising continuous and cost-effective monitoring method. Based on  
425       the principle of traditional radiographic imaging, the feasibility of this technology was investigated  
426       mainly from two aspects using a simplified application scenario of carbon sequestration in deep  
427       saline aquifer formations. The first aspect examined is about the intrinsic spatial resolution that is  
428       determined by the muon scattering effect, and the second aspect is the sensitivity of this method to  
429       the presence of CO<sub>2</sub>, either in the form of supercritical state in deep storage or in the gaseous state  
430       in shallow formations in the case of leakage taking place. Furthermore, in the application for  
431       detecting shallow leakage, the influence of impurities on the detection sensitivity is evaluated.  
432       Besides, the muon outgoing energy spectrum is also investigated with regard to the possibility of  
433       using it as a possible probing parameter, but it turns out that it is not sensible to the CO<sub>2</sub>  
434       displacement of the in situ pore formation.

435 The spatial resolution is an important index for a radiographic probing technology in which  
436 the stopping power of the muon in matter is the imaging parameter. For this technology, the spatial  
437 resolution was determined by the muon scattering effect and found to be at a relatively high level  
438 of a scale of ten meters. In deep monitoring application, the presence of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> can be  
439 identified in the region within its scanning scope at a relatively high level of about 5%. Since the  
440 probing method is based on statistical analyses of adequate number of cosmic muon event, the  
441 higher the sensitivity is, the more the required cosmic muon events are. Since the number of events  
442 is determined by the measurement period and the detection area, the measurement period should  
443 be decided to meet the practical requirements associated with the characteristic time for the  
444 underground behaviour. For the same reason, this method performs better in shallow monitoring  
445 application considering that the cosmic ray muon intensity is higher at shallower depths. For a  
446 period of several days and a detection area of several m<sup>2</sup>, the detectable CO<sub>2</sub> leakage can be as low  
447 as about 5%. This method also applies to the leakage situations with N<sub>2</sub> involved regardless of the  
448 concentration and H<sub>2</sub>S- and SO<sub>2</sub>-mixed leakage situations when the impurity concentration is not  
449 too high. A significant advantage of this technique is that it can provide continuous measurements.  
450 In deep monitoring, it could help determine the frequency and occasion for other measurements to  
451 be taken, and in shallow monitoring, it could identify the fluid leakage timely. The specific region,  
452 either the newly extended area in deep storage formations or the leakage area saturated with  
453 intruding fluids in shallow formations, can also be located by constructing a three-dimensional  
454 detection system from two or more detection spots. Cosmic muons from various directions can be  
455 utilized, and this study has investigated the feasibility of this newly introduced method in CCS  
456 monitoring on a wide range. Because cosmic ray muons are naturally and continuously occurring  
457 and the muon detectors that can be applied are available at relatively low costs, this method could  
458 serve as an effective means to perform continuous site monitoring for carbon storage,  
459 complementary to other monitoring techniques.

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