

1 A case study of using cosmic ray muons to monitor supercritical CO₂ migration in 2 geological formations¹

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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.
- 14

15 **Abstract**

16 In carbon dioxide (CO₂) geological storage, the monitoring of the injected CO₂ 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 CO₂ 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 CO₂
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 CO₂ would
44 account for a large proportion of the total costs, CO₂ feed-in will often contain impurities, which
45 could be N₂, O₂, H₂S, and/or SO_x [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 object. 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 ($2\gamma \rightarrow e^-$
78 $+ e^+$) with the increase of the required photon energy sets a limit to the size of the samples that can
79 be imaged by this method [18]. However, cosmic ray muons possess some unique characteristics

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 γ -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 γ -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 CO₂ 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 CO₂ and with
114 impurities H₂S and N₂ 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 (θ , Φ), with θ and Φ 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·cm². 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⁻/e⁺ 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⁻¹ cm². 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; δ 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, α ($= 1/137.036$) is the fine structure
 195 constant, λ_e and m_μ are the Compton wavelength of the electron and the rest mass of the muon
 196 respectively, and $\Phi(\delta)$ is evaluated as follows

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

197

198 where $\delta = m_\mu^2 v / 2E(1 - v)$ is the minimum momentum transfer to the nucleus and $e = 2.718$. From

199 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

200 energy loss rate caused by bremsstrahlung can be calculated as

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

201

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:

202

203

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

204

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:

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

211

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

212

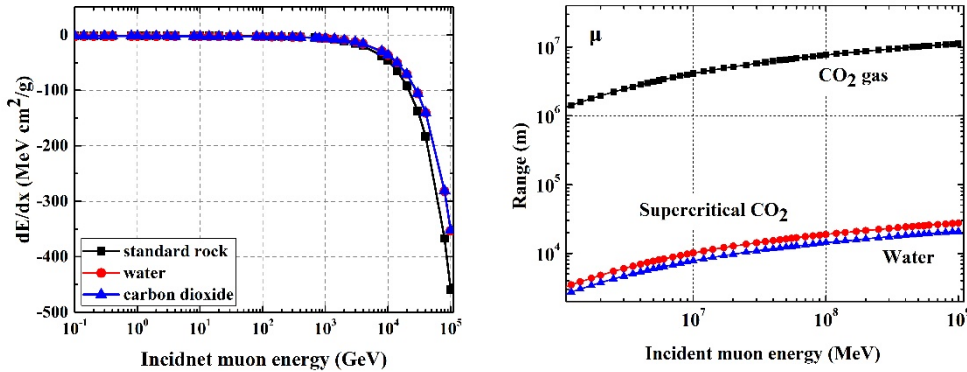
$$\left\langle \frac{dE}{dx} \right\rangle = \sum_j w_j \left. \frac{dE}{dx} \right|_j. \quad (7)$$

213

Fig. 1 (left) shows the mean energy loss rate of muons in standard rock, brine, and CO₂. In this study, the standard rock considered is underground rock with $Z/A=11/22$, density=2.65 g/cm³, while the supercritical CO₂ is considered to have density=0.75g/cm³. 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 CO₂. By taking into consideration the density of the materials, the

219

220 mean physical range of muons of different energy in CO₂ gas, supercritical CO₂ and water is
 221 calculated and demonstrated in Fig. 1 (right). It can be seen that muons with a certain incident
 222 energy can penetrate the furthest distance in supercritical CO₂, and that the penetration ability in
 223 CO₂ gas is higher than in water. In view of this, it can be deduced that for an object made up of the
 224 mixture of standard rock, water and CO₂ (either in supercritical state or gaseous state), the
 225 penetrating cosmic ray muon flux would increase with more displacement of water by CO₂ (either
 226 in gaseous or supercritical state).



227 Fig. 1. Left: The mean energy loss rate or stopping power of muons in standard rock, brine and
 228 CO₂ with experimental data from the Particle Data Group (<http://pdg.lbl.gov>); Right: The
 229 muon range (m) in gaseous CO₂, supercritical CO₂ and water with different initial energy.
 230

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

240 Precise knowledge of the muon propagation process in matter makes it possible to
 241 theoretically calculate the minimum energy E_{min} for cosmic ray muons to penetrate a given object
 242 from a certain incident point (x_0, y_0, z_0) and direction (zenith angle of θ_0 , azimuthal angle of Φ_0).
 243 By integration of the energy spectrum of the incident cosmic ray muons with E_{min} as the lower
 244 energy limit, the intensity $I(\theta_0, \Phi_0)$ of the penetrating cosmic ray muons in an exposure duration
 245 ΔT can be obtained corresponding to the interior state of the object along the muon path. When
 246 changes either in the mean density or the material composition happen to the object, the value of
 247 E_{min} and the resulting integrated intensity $I(\theta_0, \Phi_0)$ varies. It is necessary to emphasize that E_{min}
 248 can only be defined as a quantity of statistical average, because of the stochastic fluctuations of the
 249 muon energy losses from the radiative processes and the muon multiple scattering effect, which
 250 cause the stopping power fluctuations and range straggling of muons respectively under the same
 251 conditions of the object. Therefore, in practical measurements, the deviation between two separate
 252 measurements needs to be large enough to certify that the variation in measured $I(\theta_0, \Phi_0)$
 253 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 Δ_0 , when Δ_0 is equal to σ , 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 Δ_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 (Δ_0) of the penetrating muon events between two
285 separate measurements originated from the change within a monitored object.

Δ_0/σ	0	0.6745	1	1.6449	2	3
F(Δ_0)	1.0000	0.5000	0.3173	0.1000	0.0455	0.0027
1-F(Δ_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 CO₂ or impure CO₂ streams with

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

296 The first model was deployed for deep monitoring and is briefly described as follows. The
 297 monitored area in the simplified application scenario comprised of two layers and the surface of
 298 the area is assumed to be flat and at sea level. The upper layer is cap rock comprised of standard
 299 rock, and the lower layer is a saline aquifer layer which is made up of standard rock with a
 300 porosity of 35% initially saturated with brine. The brine is assumed to be composed of NaCl and
 301 H₂O, and the density is 1.1 g/cm³. The cap rock is 1000 m thick, while the saline aquifer is 250 m
 302 thick underneath the cap rock. The material properties involved in the monitored site model are
 303 shown in Table 2. As supercritical CO₂ migrates in the saline aquifer, the mean density and
 304 material composition in the saline aquifer change with its presence associated with the migration
 305 of CO₂ into or out of the targeted area. The sensitivity of cosmic ray muon radiography to monitor
 306 and identify such changes, i.e., the sensitivity of penetrating cosmic ray muon flux in one
 307 measurement period to such changes, was investigated by changing CO₂ volume fraction in the
 308 monitored site model from 0% to 15% in the different cases studied. For each case, the distribution
 309 of the mixture of standard rock, brine and supercritical CO₂ is set to be homogeneous in the saline
 310 aquifer, and the monitored area is deemed to be constant within one measurement period.

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

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

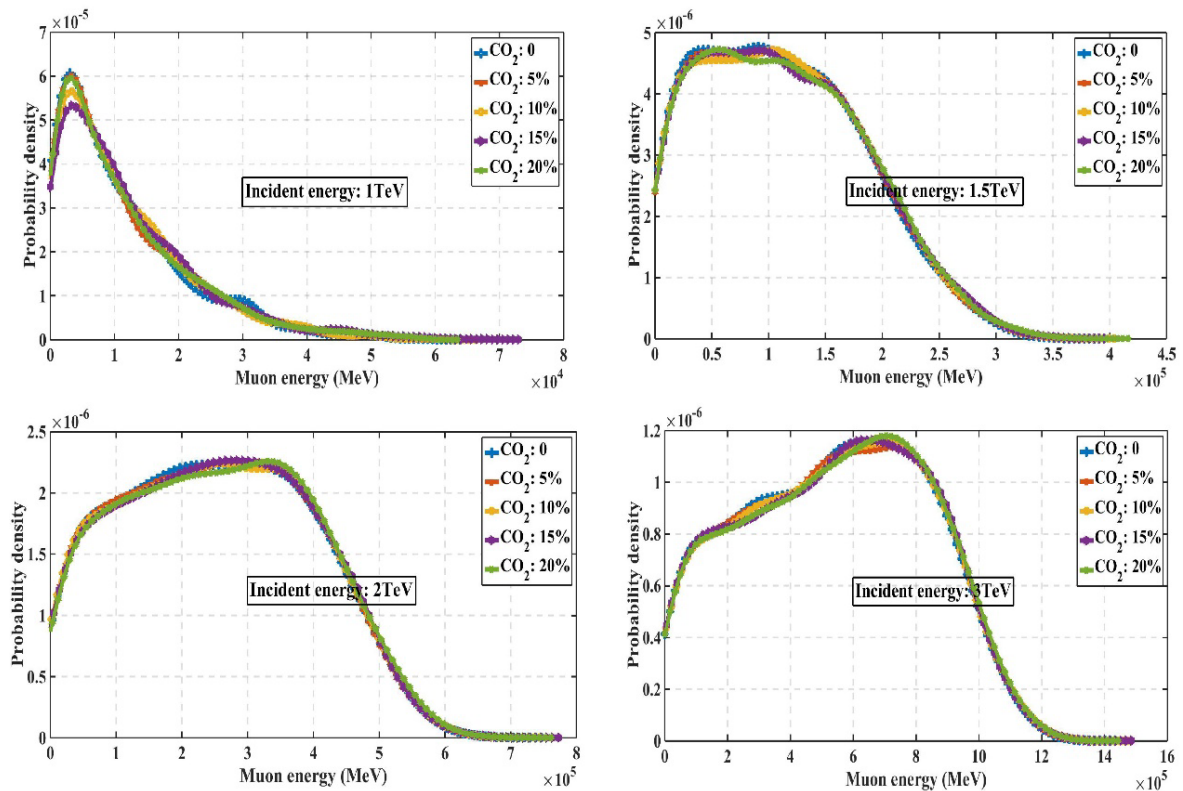
312 The second model for shallow monitoring considered a multi-layered storage formation from
 313 the literature [33]. It is a sequence of 60 m thick aquifers and 100 m thick aquitards extending
 314 from the deep saline storage formation to the uppermost freshwater aquifer. Each layer is assumed
 315 to be made up of standard rock and pores filled with brine or freshwater. The material property is
 316 obtained from the NIST chemistry book (<http://webbook.nist.gov/chemistry/fluid/>). The porosity is
 317 0.05 in the aquitards and 0.2 in the aquifers respectively, and the hydrogeologic properties are
 318 homogeneous in the same layers in the simulation processes. This study investigates the sensitivity
 319 of using this method to monitor leakage of the injected fluids into the second aquifer from the top.
 320 The leakage scenarios include pure CO₂ gas and impure CO₂ with N₂, H₂S and SO₂.

321 4. Simulation results

322 The propagation process of cosmic ray muons crossing the monitored site model was
 323 simulated by Geant4, a Monte-Carlo toolkit for simulation of particle propagation in matter with
 324 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.

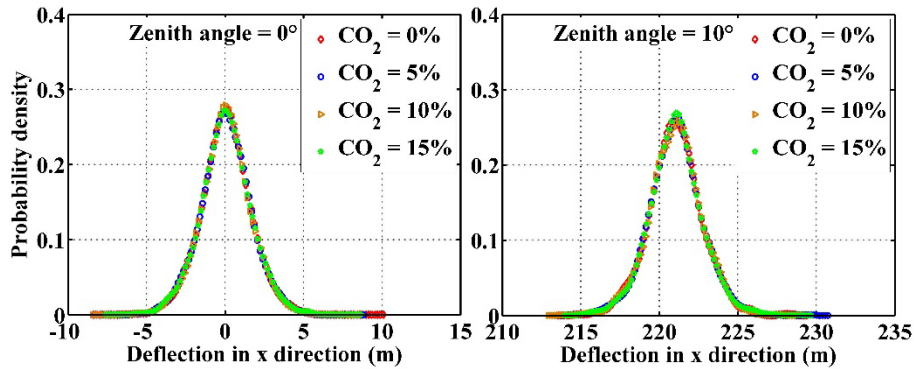
339 Because the muon behaviour in matter is stochastic, the outgoing energy of a muon with a
 340 given incident energy and direction is uncertain and forms a spectrum. The possibility of using the
 341 outgoing energy spectrum variation as an accompanying information source of the inner change in
 342 the targeted object is investigated. Fig. 2 shows that the CO₂ 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 CO₂ displacement of the in situ brine within the monitored volume.



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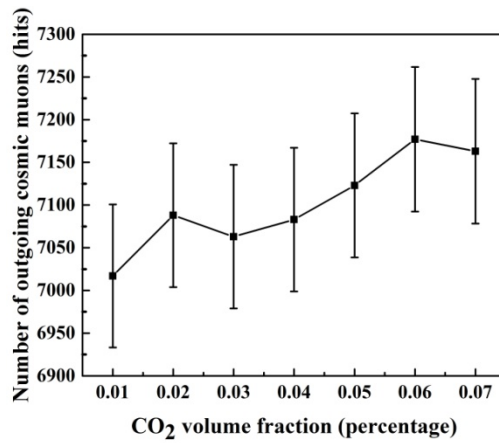
348 Fig. 2. The outgoing energy spectrum of the muons vertically penetrating the entire storage area
 349 (the first storage model) with certain incident energy.

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° and 10° . 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° and 10° when
 359 arriving at the detector placed adjacent and beneath the storage.

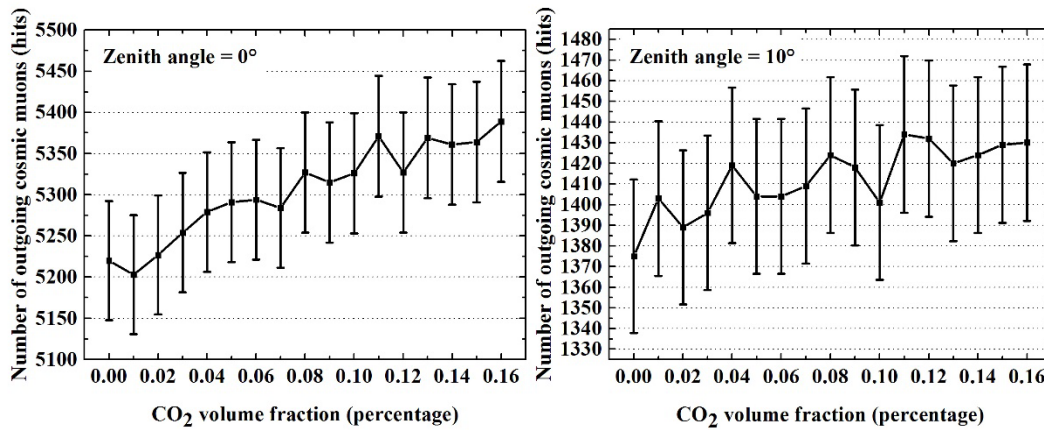
360 In the sensitivity study for deep monitoring, the incident cosmic ray muons are sampled
 361 according to the modified Gaisser formula. By increasing the amount of supercritical CO_2 in the
 362 saline aquifer, the sensitivity of the penetrating cosmic ray muon intensity to the change within the
 363 monitored site was investigated. The case study of the monitored site model with no supercritical
 364 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 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 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 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 CO_2 measured in volume fraction can be
 377 identified by the cosmic muons from zenith angle 0° , and about 11% can be detected by cosmic
 378 muons from zenith angle 10° .



379

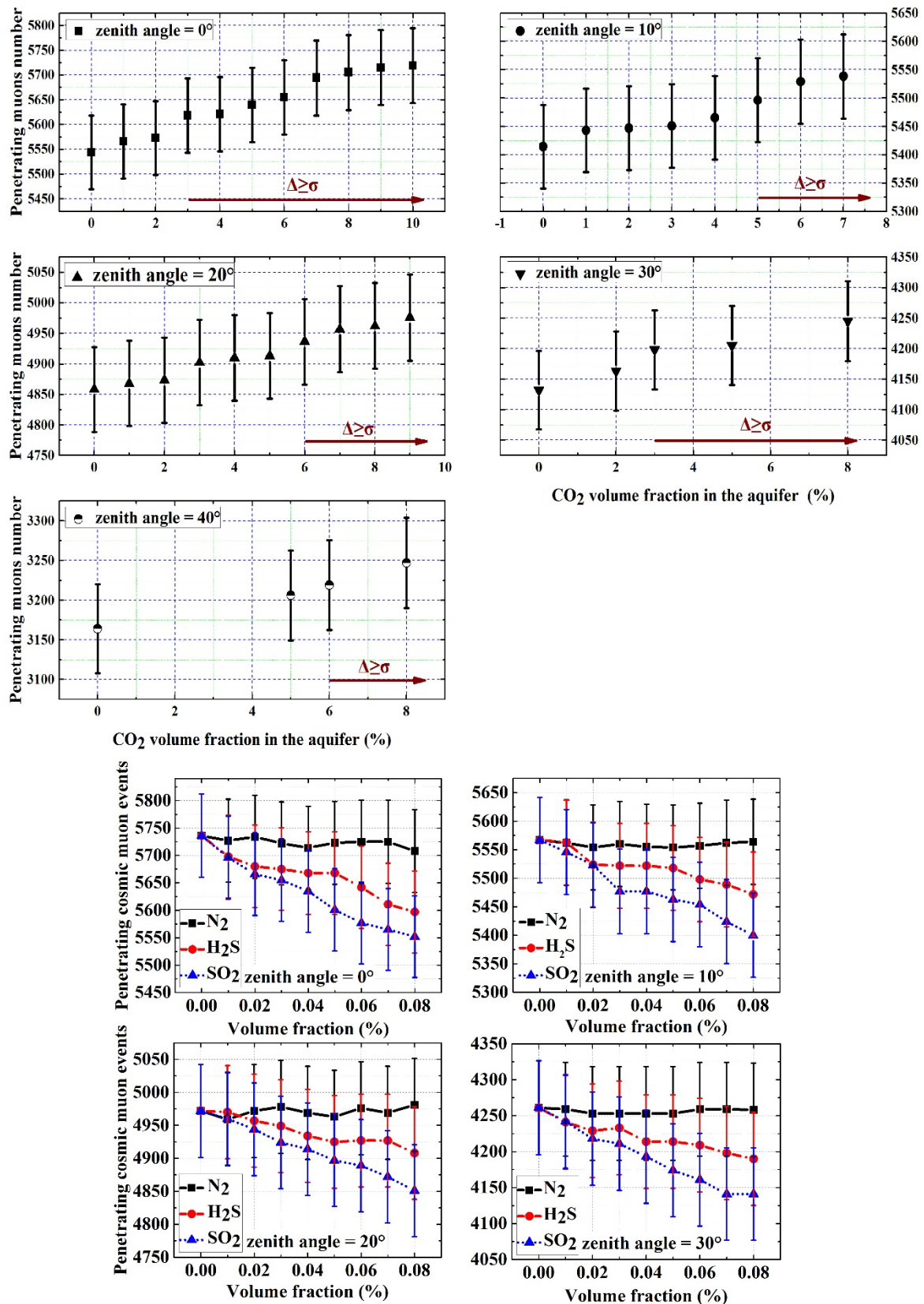
380 Fig. 4. The variation in the outgoing number of the vertically incident cosmic muons under
 381 different volume fractions of supercritical CO₂ in the saline aquifer of the underground
 382 storage with measurement period of 1 year.

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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 CO₂ 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 CO₂ leakage in the shallowest aquifer using a muon detector with a surface area of 1×1 m² 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 CO₂ 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, N₂-mixed impurities
399 has a negligible influence on the detection sensitivity, while SO₂-mixed impurities has the most
400 prominent influence on the detection sensitivity and can lower the sensitivity by 10% of CO₂
401 volume fraction. H₂S-mixed impurities could lower the detection sensitivity by about 6% of CO₂
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 SO₂-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 CO₂ 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 CO₂, 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 CO₂
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 CO₂ 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 m², the detectable CO₂ leakage can be as low
447 as about 5%. This method also applies to the leakage situations with N₂ involved regardless of the
448 concentration and H₂S- and SO₂-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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