

1 **A study of using cosmic ray muon radiography to detect CO<sub>2</sub> leakage from a**  
2 **primary storage into geological formations**

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8  
9 **Abstract** In CO<sub>2</sub> geological sequestration, a combination of monitoring techniques need to be  
10 in place to timely detect possible CO<sub>2</sub> leakage from a primary storage along unanticipated  
11 pathways to shallower formations. This research aims to methodologically investigate the  
12 feasibility of a novel radiographic technique, i.e., cosmic-ray muon radiography, as a  
13 complementary continuous monitoring method. As an example, this method was tested on a  
14 geological model to monitor CO<sub>2</sub> leakage into upper freshwater aquifers. The effectiveness of  
15 the method was preliminarily established by high-fidelity simulations, including the sensitivity  
16 for responding to CO<sub>2</sub> leakage and the spatial resolution that can be achieved by the method.  
17 The simulation results indicate an increase of penetrating flux of the cosmic-ray muons with the  
18 increase of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage in the monitored aquifers. The sensitivity tends to be higher in  
19 monitoring leakage taking place in shallower depths. At depths of about 200 m, the detectable  
20 CO<sub>2</sub> can be as low as 3% measured in volume fraction with a relatively high confidence level.  
21 The spatial resolution can be achieved within a range from 10 m to 20 m for measurements at  
22 depths of no more than 520 m, demonstrating the effectiveness of the method.

23  
24 **Keywords** CO<sub>2</sub> geological sequestration · Cosmic-ray muons · Feasibility · Leakage  
25 monitoring

26  
27 **Introduction**

28 Geological carbon dioxide sequestration in deep underground formations, e.g., subterranean  
29 brine formations, depleted oil and gas reservoirs, and coal seams has been studied for more than  
30 one decade and is drawing increasing attention with the pressing need for climate change  
31 mitigation and greenhouse gas emission reductions, e.g. Anderson and Newell (2004), Hepple  
32 and Benson (2004), and Leung et al. (2014). In response to the urgent need of abatement of  
33 large amounts of CO<sub>2</sub>, it is widely accepted that the best destinations for carbon storage in most  
34 cases will be underground formations of sedimentary rock loaded with pores now filled with  
35 brine (Socolow 2005). Such storage formations are typically pancake-shaped deposits in the  
36 porous subterranean strata, located at least 800 meters deep under low-permeability seals, where  
37 the ambient temperature and pressure could maintain CO<sub>2</sub> in a supercritical phase. In the  
38 framework of a carbon capture and sequestration project, the long-term effectiveness and safety  
39 of the storage reservoir is a major concern after CO<sub>2</sub> injection. Risks must be addressed for  
40 every candidate storage reservoir in view of CO<sub>2</sub> migration with time. The CO<sub>2</sub> plume in the  
41 storage is buoyant and may lead to leakage to shallower subsurface formations along

42 unanticipated natural geological faults, depleted wells, or through upward seepage due to high  
43 pressure and induced fractures, which may in turn pollute potable water resources and defeat the  
44 climate goals of carbon sequestration (Nicot 2008; Yamamoto et al. 2009). A combination of  
45 monitoring techniques need to be in place for every sequestration project to timely detect  
46 possible CO<sub>2</sub> leakage and ensure that impacts on natural resources, such as groundwater and  
47 ecosystems, can be mitigated with the shortest possible response time such that the local  
48 population will stay unaffected by the leakage (Arts et al. 2004; Park et al. 2013; Wiese et al.  
49 2013).

50 There are a variety of technologies available for monitoring geological formations, some  
51 tried and tested in the oil industry, others as yet unproven (Chadwick et al. 2009). Site  
52 monitoring combined with modelling/simulation can play a key role in ensuring storage safety  
53 (Jiang 2011; Jiang et al. 2013). Conventional monitoring methods represented by seismic  
54 monitoring used in a possible CCS project are episodic. The frequency for these episodic  
55 methods is often affected by the storage process, which is higher in the earlier storage period  
56 and decreases year by year. Such sites monitoring cannot timely respond to sudden leakage  
57 situations that might take place between two measurements. This study aims to further  
58 investigate the feasibility of applying a novel radiographic probing method, i.e., cosmic ray  
59 muon radiography (e.g. Lesparre et al. 2010; Kudryavtsev et al. 2012), to geological carbon  
60 storage site monitoring. The study was motivated by the fact that in the existing studies the  
61 simulation processes only considered the variation in the mean density of the monitored volume  
62 while the change of constituents was not taken into account. Furthermore, the performance of  
63 this method in monitoring CO<sub>2</sub> migration in gaseous state, i.e., CO<sub>2</sub> leakage into shallow  
64 formations, has not yet been studied in the literature. In this study, numerical simulations have  
65 been performed to detect possible CO<sub>2</sub> leakage from the primary storage into shallower fresh  
66 groundwater in the sequestration scenarios in multi-layered formations. With this purpose, this  
67 work conducted simulations on a typical geological storage model from Birkholzer et al. (2009),  
68 and studied the effectiveness of using time-dependent measurements of the penetrating fluxes of  
69 cosmic-ray muons through the monitored volume along different directions as the information  
70 source of the internal composition variation caused by CO<sub>2</sub> intrusion and displacement of the in  
71 situ groundwater, including its sensitivity to the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage, as well as spatial and  
72 temporal resolutions. The optimal zenith angle of cosmic ray muons for monitoring was also  
73 analysed, so as to help determine the placement of a muon detector to achieve the best  
74 performance.

75 Traditional radiographic imaging, represented by X-ray scanning of a human body (Mazess  
76 et al. 1990), uses the ability of different materials to attenuate the employed ray particles as the  
77 imaging property of a targeted object. Generally speaking, the imaging effect of a radiographic  
78 method in a specific application depends on the energy spectrum of the radiation source applied  
79 in the measurements and the degree of difference of the imaging property of the materials  
80 involved in the targeted object (Kak and Slaney 1999; Petersilka et al. 2008). By taking  
81 advantage of the highly-penetrating nature of cosmic muons, cosmic-ray muon radiography as a  
82 non-destructive probing method has been gaining applications in mapping the inner structure of  
83 a geological-scale substance like a mountain (Burkhard et al. 1970; Jenneson 2004; Tanaka et al.  
84 2005). The idea of this method has also been extended to measurements of time-dependent  
85 changes occurring within an object. A Japanese team had demonstrated the feasibility of this

86 method to detect both spatial and temporal changes of density inside volcanoes (Nagamine et al.  
87 1995; Tanaka et al. 2009).

88 In the probing process of this method, cosmic ray muons serve as a naturally occurring  
89 radiation source with an inherent time-independent energy and angle distribution. Given a muon  
90 detector (Tanaka et al. 2003; Tanaka et al. 2007; Tanaka 2010; Yamashina 2010) with a certain  
91 area and exposure duration, the measurement of the integrated penetrating muon fluxes from  
92 different directions corresponds to the state of the monitored volume on an average level of the  
93 time period. As for the application of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage monitoring, by comparing the subsequent  
94 time-dependent measurements after CO<sub>2</sub> injection with the baseline measurement prior to CO<sub>2</sub>  
95 sequestration, CO<sub>2</sub> leakage in the monitored volume may be inferred with certain accuracy. The  
96 sensitivity of this method in response to CO<sub>2</sub> content determines if the leakage can be  
97 interpreted with a high fidelity. This case study performed simulations on various CO<sub>2</sub> leakage  
98 levels in different freshwater layers. It is found that this technique has a relatively high  
99 resolution in terms of CO<sub>2</sub> volume fraction (which can be easily turned into density fraction)  
100 variation in shallow aquifers. The spatial resolution that can be achieved by this method was  
101 also studied and assessed, which demonstrates a relatively high fidelity in locating the specific  
102 leakage region.

103 The cosmic-ray muon flux attenuation or penetration behaviour is related to the mean  
104 density and material composition along the muon path with zenith and azimuthal angles ( $\theta$ ,  $\Phi$ )  
105 respectively, so detection in one spot can only provide the leakage information in two  
106 dimensions. To locate the specific site to which leakage happens, measurements should be made  
107 in another spot to cover the potential area and determine the intersection. From the perspective  
108 of practical implementations, given the placement of the detectors and their respective angular  
109 coverage, the region that is under monitoring could be correspondingly determined. This study  
110 mainly concerns with the methodological aspects and the prerequisite problem whether this  
111 method can respond to the change in the monitored aquifers caused by CO<sub>2</sub> intrusion and  
112 displacement of the in situ pore water within its scanning scope, rather than the construction of a  
113 three-dimensional scanning system. The case study in this research shows that cosmic ray muon  
114 radiography can be applied as an effective method to perform shallow leakage monitoring.  
115 Since this method employs naturally and continuous occurring cosmic-ray muons, it may  
116 provide a continuous and cost-effective monitoring way in practical applications. Once leakage  
117 was indicated by such continuous monitoring within a certain spatial resolution, other  
118 measurements can be further made to obtain more information.

119

## 120 **Description of the methods**

### 121 **Cosmic ray muon radiography**

122 Muons are charged particles and share similar properties with electrons except for having about  
123 200 times the mass of electrons. Radiography using the attenuation of muon flux assumes a  
124 qualified muon radiation source with a time-independent energy and angle distribution, a  
125 well-understood muon detector, and a specific muon propagation model through matter (Schultz  
126 2003; Marteau et al. 2012). The penetration behaviour of the muon flux carries information on  
127 the material property along the muon path lines on an average level of the measurement period.  
128 Time-dependent changes within the object may be inferred from continuous measurements and

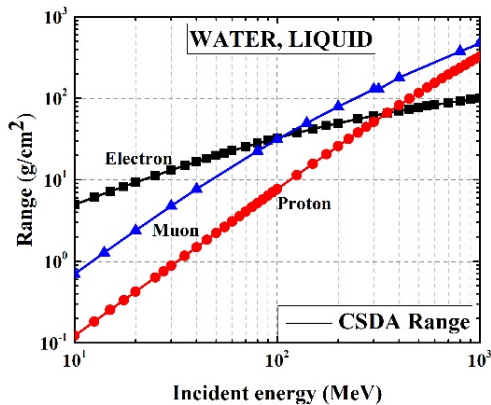
129 analyses. Should variation of matter in either or both material composition and density happen  
 130 within the scanning scope of the detector, the counting of muon events at corresponding arriving  
 131 angles would change to a certain number. By comparison between different measurement  
 132 periods, the material change can thus be inferred and located in two dimensions determined by  
 133 the muon hitting points on the detector and the recorded directions of the muon path lines  
 134 through the target object. Three-dimensional determination (Tanaka et al. 2010) of the specific  
 135 site can be further obtained by one more detection system in another spot in practical  
 136 implementations.

137 **Cosmic-ray muon source**

138 The earth is continuously bombarded by primary rays from outer space. At an altitude of about  
 139 32 km, the primary rays interact with the atmosphere, producing a cascade of secondary  
 140 particles. By the time this shower of particles reaches the earth surface, it is comprised primarily  
 141 of muons (Tanaka 2014). Muons are highly penetrating, and among the various possible  
 142 particles in the secondary radiation, the cosmic muons in high energy region ( $\geq 100$  GeV) are  
 143 the most suitable for probing into the interior of a geological-scale ( $\geq 0.1$  km) object, as  
 144 summarized in Table 1 and Fig. 1.

145 **Table 1** Scale of radiography by various particles in the secondary cosmic radiation.

Particle	Basic interactions	Penetration characteristics
Electron, X-ray	Electromagnetic	A few meters or less for conversion
Proton, neutron, pion	Strong and electromagnetic	$\sim 10$ m for absorption
Neutrino	Weak	Earth-size and difficult to detect
Muon	Electromagnetic and weak	100-1000 m and easy to detect



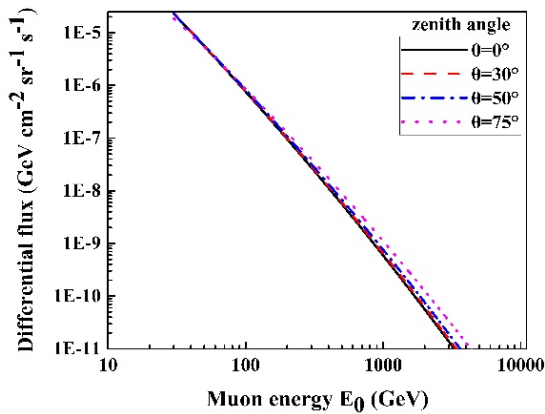
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147 **Fig. 1** The mean range of the electron, muon and proton in water and CO<sub>2</sub>  
 148 (Continuous-slowing-down approximation (CSDA) range, Nakamura and Group (2010)).

149 Cosmic muons uniformly arrive at every point on the earth surface from angles spanning the  
 150 upper hemisphere with a wide range of energies. The energy spectrum is azimuthally isotropic,  
 151 and its dependence on zenith angles has been studied by numerous experiments and theoretical  
 152 analyses, e.g. Aglietta et al. (1998) and Bugaev et al. (1998). The energy and angle distribution  
 153 is found to be time-independent, making cosmic muons a quantified radiation source for a  
 154 radiographic method. The energy distribution of cosmic muons has a wide range from MeV to  
 155 TeV. As depicted by the model of the modified Gaisser's formula (Gaisser 1990) in Fig. 2, the

156 muon intensity falls rapidly with energy, and increases with zenith angle in the high-energy  
 157 region ( $\geq$  a few 100 GeV).

158 The vertical muon rate is about  $1 \text{ cm}^{-2} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ . The cosmic muons are not applicable for  
 159 probing objects of small scales, because almost all of the cosmic muons can penetrate through  
 160 regardless of the material change in the targeted object. While probing large-scale objects, the  
 161 relatively small intensity in the high-energy region is a potential restricting factor for a specific  
 162 application, for the reason that an adequate number of muons are needed to be analysed and  
 163 interpreted in a radiographic scenario while the exposure time period should be restrained in  
 164 view of the requirement of a temporal resolution as high as possible, especially for  
 165 measurements of time-dependent changes. Muons arriving from larger zenith angles have a  
 166 higher intensity, but due to the fact that larger zenith angles mean longer path lengths for muons  
 167 to penetrate through a geologic body, the probing effectiveness for different zenith angles is to  
 168 be examined and compared to optimize the placement of the muon detectors.



169  
 170 **Fig. 2** The energy spectrum of cosmic-ray muons at sea level for arrival angles of near  $0^\circ$ ,  $30^\circ$ ,  
 171  $50^\circ$  and  $70^\circ$  generated from the model of modified Gaisser's formula.

### 172 Attenuation of the cosmic-ray muon flux

173 A detector placed underneath a monitored geological volume is to record the penetrating  
 174 cosmic-ray muons from different directions. Because the size of a muon detector is much  
 175 smaller than the object of interest, the direction of each penetrating muon event can be  
 176 represented by an azimuthal and a zenith angle with reference to a line perpendicular to the  
 177 detector plane ( $\theta$ ,  $\Phi$ ). The penetrating number  $N_\mu$  of cosmic muon events as a function of ( $\theta$ ,  $\Phi$ )  
 178 in a certain exposure duration is the result of the interactions with matter along the muon paths.  
 179 A muon flux during propagation in matter will experience two types of changes, which are  
 180 energy loss and multiple scattering, each leading to muon flux attenuation and defections from  
 181 their original directions. Muons lose energy through electromagnetic interaction, ionization, and  
 182 radiative processes, including bremsstrahlung, direct production of  $e^+ - e^-$  pairs, and  
 183 photonuclear interactions (Amsler et al. 2008). The total muon energy loss rate may be  
 184 summarized as a function of the amount of matter made up of element  $i$  traversed by

$$-\langle dE/dx \rangle_i = a(E) + b(E)E, \quad (1)$$

185 where  $a$  is the ionization loss and  $b$  is the contribution of the three radiation processes (Groom  
 186 et al. 2001). Both  $a$  and  $b$  are functions of the muon energy and the material properties  $Z/A$

187 through which muons propagate. In Eq. (1),  $x$  is density times length along the muon path ( $dx =$   
 188  $\rho \cdot ds$ ,  $\rho$  is the density, and  $ds$  is the length), representing the amount of matter encountered in  
 189 unit length.

190 The mean energy loss rate of a particle in a certain type of material is also referred to as the  
 191 stopping power of the particle in the material. For a compound or mixture, the mean energy loss  
 192 rate of the muon is the weighted sum of that for all the elements involved and the weighted  
 193 fraction for each element is computed by

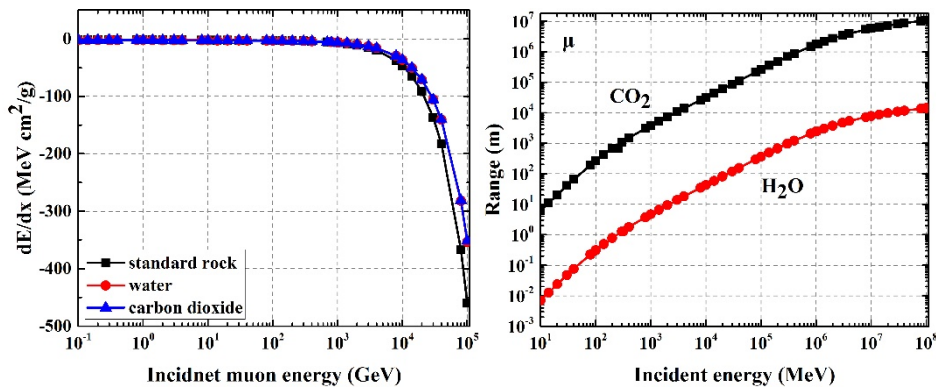
$$w_j = n_j A_j / \sum_k n_k A_k, \quad (2)$$

194 Then

$$\langle -dE/dx \rangle = \sum_j w_j \langle -dE/dx \rangle_j. \quad (3)$$

195 Fig. 3 (left) shows the stopping power for standard rock, water, and  $\text{CO}_2$ , as a function of muon  
 196 energy with data from the Particle Data Group (Olive et al. 2015). It can be seen that the  
 197 stopping power of these three materials differs little from each other, and all of them are slowly  
 198 varying functions of energy at energies lower than several TeV. The CSDA range mentioned  
 199 above in Fig. 1 takes an approximation by parameterizing  $a$  and  $b$  in a  
 200 continuous-slowing-down way, but it is of limited use, especially for the high-energy region  
 201 where the stochastic radiative processes have large energy transfer. Taking account of the  
 202 density of the materials, the mean range of muons of different energy in  $\text{CO}_2$  and water is  
 203 calculated and demonstrated in Fig. 3 (right). It can be seen that the muon with certain incident  
 204 energy can penetrate a further distance in  $\text{CO}_2$  than in water. From another point of view, the  
 205 critical energy  $E_c$  is lower for the muon to penetrate a volume filled with  $\text{CO}_2$  than water. Given  
 206 an incident energy spectrum  $\Psi(E, \theta, \Phi)$ , the intensity of penetrating muon flux  $I$  along the  
 207 direction  $(\theta_0, \Phi_0)$  can thus be obtained by integrating the energy spectrum from the  
 208 corresponding critical energy, neglecting the effect of the muon deflections during propagation  
 209 which will be described subsequently:

$$I(\theta_0, \phi_0) = \int_{E_c} \psi(E, \theta_0, \phi_0) dE. \quad (4)$$



210

211

212 **Fig. 3 a** The stopping power of the muon in standard rock, water, and  $\text{CO}_2$  (with the data taken  
 213 from pdg.lbl.gov). **b** The muon range (m) in  $\text{CO}_2$  and water with different initial energy.

214 For the application considered in this study, it can be deduced from the above discussion that  
 215 when CO<sub>2</sub> leaks into the shallower formations of freshwater aquifers and displaces some of the  
 216 in situ pore water within the scanning scope of the employed detector, more cosmic-ray muons  
 217 will penetrate through and be detected by the detector placed underneath the monitored volume.  
 218 The time-dependent measurements could provide information on the change caused by CO<sub>2</sub>  
 219 leakage and further locate the specific area by measuring from at least two spots.

220 However, it must be pointed out that the energy loss process has a random nature, and the  
 221 mean energy loss rate is based on large number statistics rather than an analysis of a single event.  
 222 Each kind of interaction occurs with their respective cross-sections along the muon path.  
 223 Detailed energy loss processes require the computation of the cross-sections (i.e., the occurring  
 224 probability for a type of interaction) (Gaisser 1990) and Monte Carlo modelling of the various  
 225 interactions (Borozdin et al. 2003) along the muon path. Therefore, the analysis of the  
 226 penetrating cosmic-muon events should be based on a number large enough for different  
 227 directions to achieve a relatively high resolution. For practical implementations, the exposure  
 228 time and the effective area of the employed detector together determine the overall penetrating  
 229 muon events at one measurement spot. Each parameter should be chosen by considerations of  
 230 the required temporal resolution and the accessibility of the employed muon detector. The  
 231 temporal resolution cannot be too long so as to timely respond to CO<sub>2</sub> occupancy, and the size  
 232 of the detectors should be chosen considering the practical geological conditions to place them.

### 233 **Muon scattering effect**

234 Besides losing energy during propagation in matter, muons are also stochastically scattered all  
 235 along the way despite their low cross sections. Every time of scattering slightly influences the  
 236 muon momentum directions, and multiple scattering processes lead to the muon deflections  
 237 from their original directions to a certain extent. Accounting for the random nature of scattering,  
 238 the trajectories of the muons of a certain energy and incident direction are expressed by an angle  
 239  $\delta\theta$  deflected from the original direction  $\theta$ , with a probability given by Rayleigh distribution  
 240 (Priedhorsky et al. 2003):

$$P(\delta\theta) = \frac{\delta\theta}{\sigma_\theta^2} \exp\left[-\frac{\delta\theta^2}{2\sigma_\theta^2}\right]. \quad (5)$$

241 The parameter  $\sigma_\theta$ , is given by

$$\sigma_\theta = \frac{\alpha}{E} \sqrt{\frac{L}{\xi_0}} \left[ 1 + \kappa \ln \frac{L}{\xi_0} \right]. \quad (6)$$

242 where  $\alpha = 13.6$  MeV,  $\kappa = 0.038$ ,  $\xi_0$  is the radiation length for the traversed material, and  $L / \xi_0$  is  
 243 the thickness of matter measured by radiation length.

244 Equations (5) and (6) show that the scattering dispersion largely depends on the muon  
 245 energy. Since muons lose energy along their paths, the ultimate deflection distribution should be  
 246 computed along the muon trajectory, taking account of the energy loss. Some approximations  
 247 can give the mean overall deflection, but they are of limited use, especially for muon  
 248 propagation through large-scale objects (Lesparre et al. 2010). The detailed processes still need  
 249 to be simulated by Monte Carlo modelling for each step along the way.

250 In the process of cosmic ray muon radiography, the penetrating cosmic-ray muons from  
251 different directions denoted by  $(\theta, \Phi)$  are deemed to provide the information of the interior of  
252 the object along corresponding directions. However, due to the multiple scattering along the  
253 muon paths, the penetrating muons from a certain direction may have been deflected from their  
254 original direction, which may limit the spatial resolution of this method in a specific application.  
255 The muon multiple scattering effect is fully evaluated in the simulation studies to determine the  
256 intrinsic spatial resolution of this method in CO<sub>2</sub> leakage monitoring and assess its feasibility in  
257 this respect.

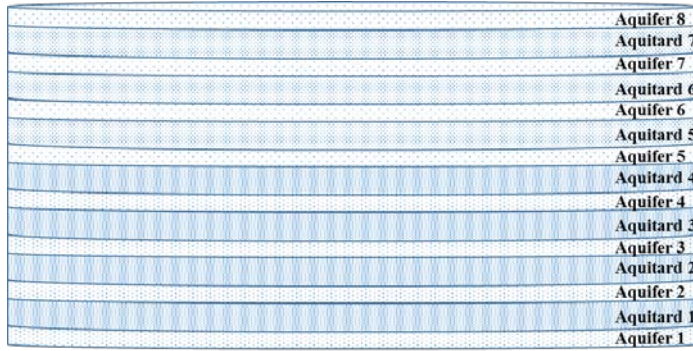
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## 259 **Simulation studies**

260 The effectiveness of using cosmic-ray muons attenuation as an information source to detect  
261 possible CO<sub>2</sub> gas leakage into freshwater aquifers was investigated by simulations of some  
262 leakage scenarios in an idealized multi-layered storage, by considering two aspects of the  
263 method, i.e. the intrinsic spatial resolution of this method and its sensitivity for responding to  
264 CO<sub>2</sub> leakage.

265 As an example of application, the simulation studies considered the geological model of the  
266 sequestration site from Birkholzer et al. (2009) to examine and assess the applicability of this  
267 method. The geometry of the storage is a sequence of 60 m thick aquifers and 100 m thick  
268 aquitards extending from the deep saline storage formation to the uppermost freshwater aquifers  
269 as depicted in the schematic of the geological structure in Fig. 4. Each layer is assumed to be  
270 made up of standard rock and pores filled with brine or freshwater. The material property is  
271 obtained from the NIST chemistry book (Lemmon et al. 2010). The porosity is 0.05 in the  
272 aquitards and 0.2 in the aquifers respectively, and the hydrogeologic properties are  
273 homogeneous in the same layers in the simulation processes. The upper three freshwater  
274 aquifers, the 5<sup>th</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup>, 7<sup>th</sup> aquifer (numbered from the bottom storage layer), are the targeted  
275 regions to be monitored by placing a muon detector beneath the targeted volumes. Vertical  
276 interlayer migration of CO<sub>2</sub> through the sequence of layers into shallow aquifers via local  
277 high-permeability conduits such as faults and abandoned boreholes is concerned. The  
278 effectiveness of cosmic ray muon radiography on detecting CO<sub>2</sub> leakage into different  
279 freshwater aquifers is investigated by numerical simulations using Geant4 (Agostinelli et al.  
280 2003), which is a Monte-Carlo code that could simulate muon propagation in matter with a high  
281 accuracy by modelling the interactions between the muon and matter according to their  
282 respective cross sections for each step along the muon path. The incident muons were  
283 considered to travel from the earth surface down to different depths in the geological model. A  
284 muon detector is assumed to be placed underneath the targeted volumes and record the  
285 information of the penetrating muons, including their hitting positions, directions and energy.  
286 Simulations were carried out corresponding to the baseline measurement prior to CO<sub>2</sub> storage  
287 and different leakage scenarios in the storage phase respectively. The information on the  
288 penetrating muons are recorded under different geological conditions and analysed to obtain the  
289 intrinsic spatial resolution caused by the muon multiple scattering effect and determine the  
290 detectable amount of CO<sub>2</sub> by this method.



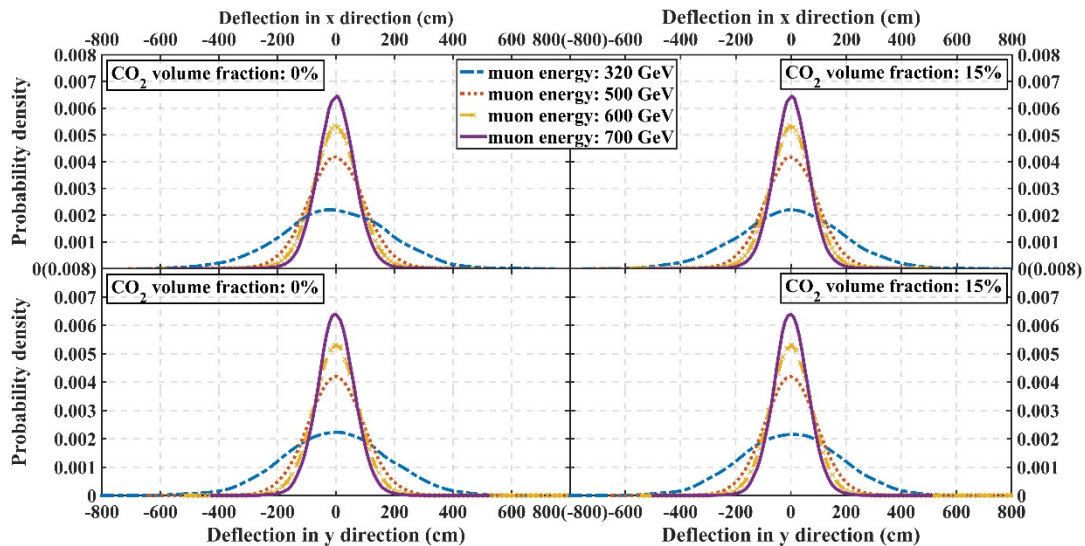


291

292 **Fig. 4** The schematic diagram of the geological model for the multi-layered storage.

293 **The intrinsic spatial resolution**

294 As discussed previously, the muon scattering effect could impose restriction on the spatial  
 295 resolution of this method. The muon scattering effect accumulates along the muon paths. The  
 296 ultimate muon deflection magnitude after traversing a targeted object represents to some extent  
 297 the intrinsic spatial resolution of this method when applied to probing the object. Therefore, the  
 298 muon deflections when arriving at the detection panel were studied for several cases to assess  
 299 the spatial resolution that could be achieved by this method in targeting different depths. This  
 300 was implemented by starting with considerable amounts of mono-energy muons hitting the earth  
 301 surface from a single incident point and direction, with these muons propagating through the  
 302 geological model to different depths subsequently. The scattering processes along the muon  
 303 paths are stochastic and the deflections under the same condition of the target present a  
 304 distribution. The dispersion and distributions were analysed and characterized by kernel density  
 305 estimation in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6.

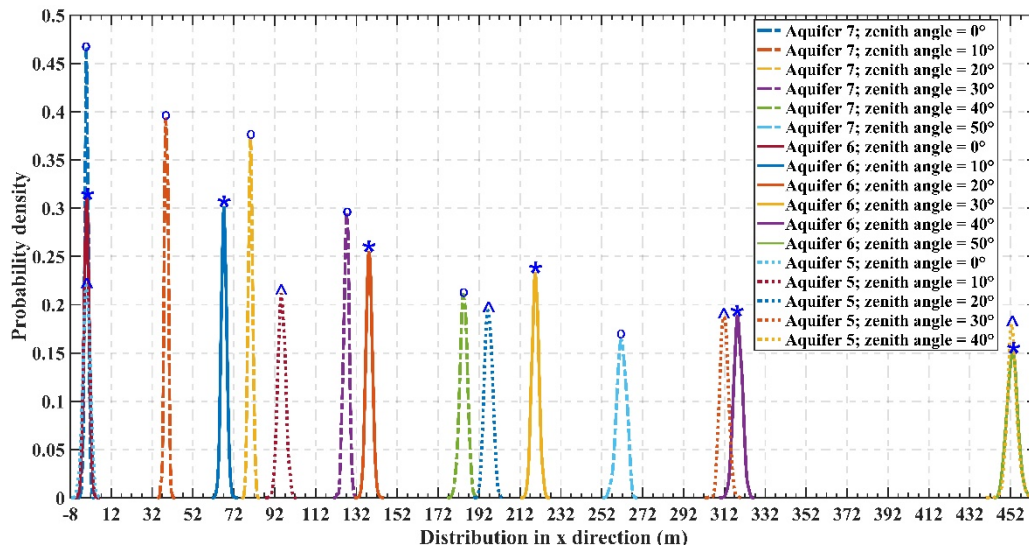


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307 **Fig. 5** The deflections of vertically incident muons when arriving at the bottom of the deepest  
 308 freshwater aquifer (the 5<sup>th</sup> aquifer) with different incident energies.

309 The deflections of vertically incident muons at the bottom of the 5<sup>th</sup> aquifer show that almost  
 310 all of the muons are distributed within a perimeter of 6 m, which means that the cosmic muons  
 311 from vertical direction can probe the state of the object above the detector with a spatial  
 312 resolution at a scale of 10 m. The muon deflections present obvious symmetry in x and y  
 313 directions because the material is laterally homogeneous which results in azimuthally isotropic

314 distribution. The CO<sub>2</sub> content has a small influence on the deflections, and that is why the  
 315 scattering effect cannot be the probing property for applications like distinguishing heavy nuclei  
 316 from others. The extremely-low-probability tails present a small fluctuation in these figures  
 317 because of the stochastic nature and the small number of such events with large deflections. The  
 318 distribution becomes narrower with the increase of muon energy, or in other words, the muon  
 319 flux has a better collimation at higher energies. In light of this result, the largest deflection  
 320 magnitude can be reasonably studied by the outgoing dispersion of the muons incident with the  
 321 critical energy to penetrate the whole target, so as to finally determine the spatial resolution. The  
 322 following simulations were performed on muons with some energy near the critical value for  
 323 each case to obtain the spatial resolution for the various monitoring cases aiming at different  
 324 depths.



325  
 326 **Fig. 6** The largest deflection magnitudes of the muons incident from different zenith angles  
 327 when arriving at the bottom of the 5<sup>th</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> aquifers.

328 Fig. 6 demonstrates the spatial resolutions that can be achieved by the muons from different  
 329 zenith angles in monitoring the 5<sup>th</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> aquifers by simulating the largest possible  
 330 deflection magnitude for different cases. It can be seen that the outgoing spatial distribution  
 331 tends to be wider with the penetration depth and for the same depth, it grows wider with the  
 332 increase of the incident zenith angle. This is due to the fact that the increase of either or both the  
 333 depth and the zenith angle means a longer path for the muons to traverse, and the accumulation  
 334 of the scattering effect turns more prominent. In summary, the simulation results indicate that  
 335 this method can achieve a relatively high spatial resolution ranging from 10 m to 20 m. In  
 336 practical applications, the placement of a detector determines the acceptance range of the zenith  
 337 angles of the employed cosmic muons and should be optimized by comprehensive  
 338 considerations of the detection effectiveness of the muons from different zenith angles and the  
 339 specific requirement of the spatial resolution in an application which will be discussed  
 340 subsequently.

### 341 **The sensitivity to CO<sub>2</sub> leakage at different depths**

342 Cosmic ray muon attenuation along different paths through a geological body is supposed to be  
 343 used as the information source of the interior variation caused by CO<sub>2</sub> leakage. The sensitivity of  
 344 this method to detect CO<sub>2</sub> leakage taking place in freshwater aquifers of different depths is

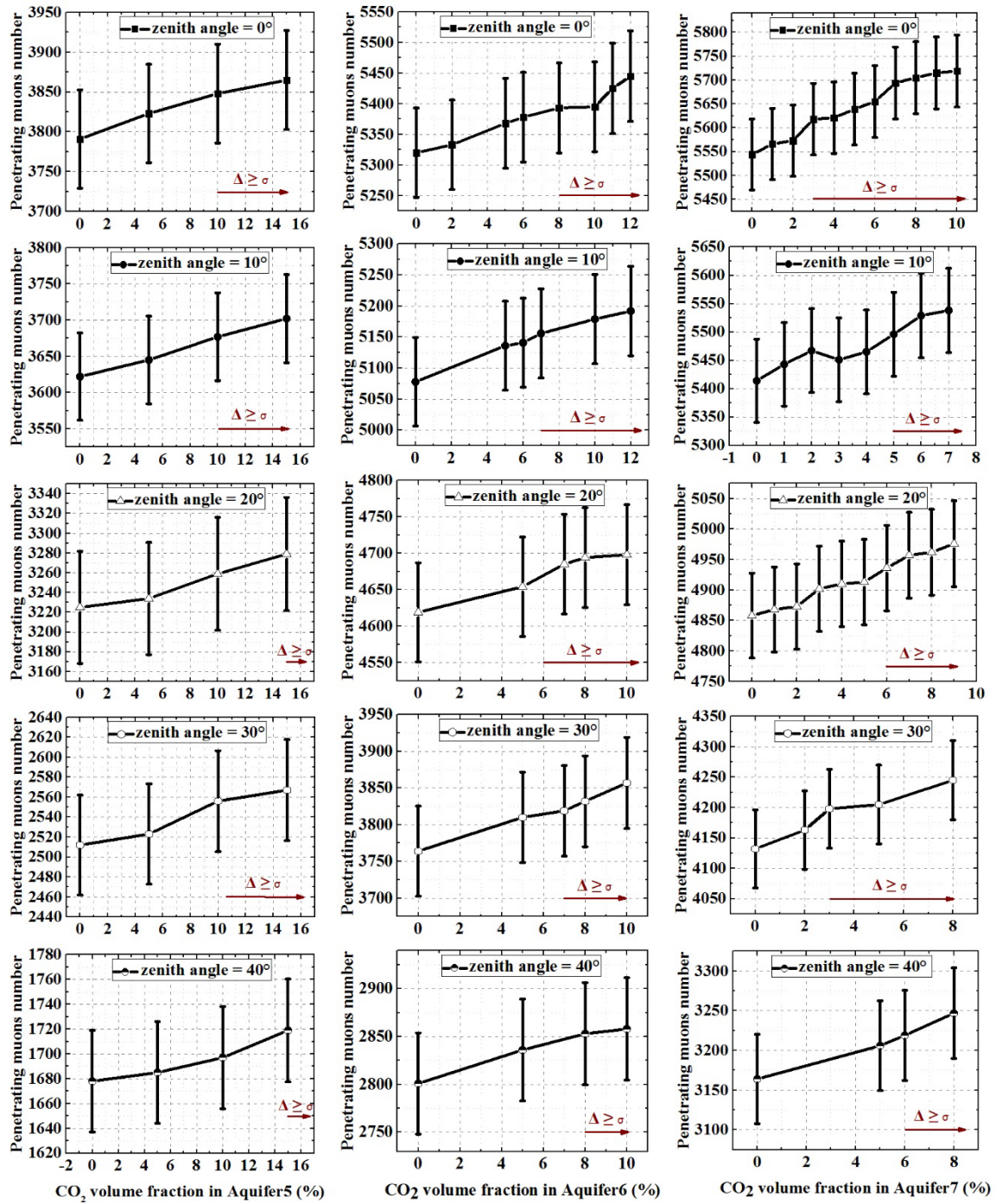
345 investiagted here. For each aquifer to be monitored, a detector was assumed to be placed  
346 adjacently beneath it and record the penetrating cosmic muons from different zenith and  
347 azimuthal angles, which corresponds to the current state inside the volume above along the  
348 muon paths. The simulations for sensitivity study were implemented by changing the CO<sub>2</sub>  
349 volume fraction in the aquifers and simulating the penetrating muons for each case by starting  
350 with the cosmic-ray muon angular distribution and energy spectrum at sea level with these  
351 muons propagating through the geological model to various depths subsequently. The energy  
352 spectrum of the cosmic-ray muons at various zenith angles was taken according to the  
353 parameterization of Gaisser's formula (1990), modified for large zenith angles with the best fit  
354 values for normalization and spectral index obtained by the LVD (large-volume-detector)  
355 underground experiment (Robinson et al. 2003).

356 To determine the detectable amount of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage in the monitored aquifers, the recorded  
357 number  $N(\theta, \Phi)$  of the penetrating muon events for each leakage case was compared with  $N_0(\theta,$   
358  $\Phi)$  for the case without CO<sub>2</sub> leakage and the magnitude of deviation as a response was  
359 examined.  $N_0(\theta, \Phi)$  represents the baseline measurement prior to CO<sub>2</sub> storage in practice, and  $N$   
360  $(\theta, \Phi)$  corresponds to the subsequent measurements after CO<sub>2</sub> injection. It should be noted that  
361 in practical monitoring, due to the stochastic nature of the energy loss processes, the measured  
362 deviation of  $N$  from  $N_0$  not only originates from the change along the path within the targeted  
363 volume, but also can be attributed to the intrinsic fluctuations of the penetrating muon number  
364 under the same condition of the target volume. When the number of the sampled events is large  
365 enough, the distribution of the penetrating number under the same measurement condition can  
366 be described in Gaussian function (Young 1962) with the measured value  $N'$  at the time as the  
367 mean value and  $\sigma = \sqrt{N'}$  as the standard deviation. Table 2 indicates the implications of various  
368 difference values (denoted by  $\Delta = N' - N_0$ ) between  $N'$  and  $N_0$  taking into consideration of the  
369 statistical law. To ensure that the confidence level for leakage identification by this method can  
370 reach not less than 68%,  $N'$  should be out of the region of  $N_0 - \sqrt{N_0} \sim N_0 + \sqrt{N_0}$ .

371 **Table 2** Confidence level for the variation ( $\Delta$ ) of the penetrating muon events between two  
 372 separated measurements to be originated from the change within a monitored object.

$\Delta/\sigma (\sigma = \sqrt{N_0})$	0	0.6745	1	1.6449	2	3
$P(\Delta)$	1.0000	0.5000	0.3173	0.1000	0.0455	0.0027
The confidence level: $1-P(\Delta)$	0	0.5000	0.6827	0.9000	0.9545	0.9973

373 Fig. 7 depicts the outgoing number of the cosmic-ray muons after travelling through  
 374 different targeted volumes (the volumes above the bottom of the 5<sup>th</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup>, and 7<sup>th</sup> aquifer) under  
 375 various conditions. The symbols represent the outgoing numbers, and the error bars were also  
 376 drawn by one deviation to highlight the deviation of each leakage case from the baseline case. It  
 377 has been demonstrated that for penetrating the same path length, a muon needs to have a higher  
 378 energy level in fresh water than in CO<sub>2</sub> on an average level. As a result, given the energy  
 379 spectrum at different zenith angles, there would be more penetrating muons from different  
 380 directions with more CO<sub>2</sub> displacement of water content in a freshwater aquifer. The tendency in  
 381 these figures shows a coincidence with the qualitative prediction. With the confidence level for  
 382 CO<sub>2</sub> leakage identification at a relatively high level of 68%, the simulation results show that the  
 383 sensitivity of this method differs on performing measurements at different depths and with  
 384 cosmic-ray muons from different zenith angles.



385

CO<sub>2</sub> volume fraction in Aquifer5 (%)

CO<sub>2</sub> volume fraction in Aquifer6 (%)

CO<sub>2</sub> volume fraction in Aquifer7 (%)

386

(a)

(b)

(c)

387

**Fig. 7** The penetrating muons number recorded for baseline case and different cases of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage using a muon detector with a surface area of 1×1 m<sup>2</sup>: **a** leakage in the 5<sup>th</sup> aquifer (measurement period - 23 days); **b** leakage in the 6<sup>th</sup> aquifer (measurement period - 11 days); **c** leakage in the 7<sup>th</sup> aquifer (measurement period - 3 days).

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To achieve a certain sensitivity, an adequate number of cosmic-ray muons are required to be sampled for one measurement period. By comparing the change in the outgoing muons number in response to various amount of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage in the three sets of figures, this method shows a

392

393

394 higher sensitivity in monitoring leakage taking place at shallower depths. That is because the  
395 intensity of the cosmic muons decreases as it goes deeper in the underground and with the same  
396 exposure duration and detection area, the penetrating muon events that could be sampled are  
397 less than at shallower depths. As for leakage in the same depth, muons incident from larger  
398 zenith angles will traverse longer path lengths in the leakage region and the amplitude of the  
399 change in the mean critical energy for penetration is larger, resulting from that the variation  
400 effect in the ability to stop muons before and after CO<sub>2</sub> appearance accumulates more along the  
401 way. The ultimate deviation of the penetrating number  $N(\theta, \Phi)$  from  $N_0(\theta, \Phi)$  is also related to  
402 the energy spectrum at that zenith angle. As can be seen from Fig. 7, the best directions to  
403 perform with are at about 0° and 10° for the 5<sup>th</sup> aquifer, 10°, 20° and 30° for the 6<sup>th</sup> aquifer, and  
404 0° and 30° for monitoring the 7<sup>th</sup> aquifer.

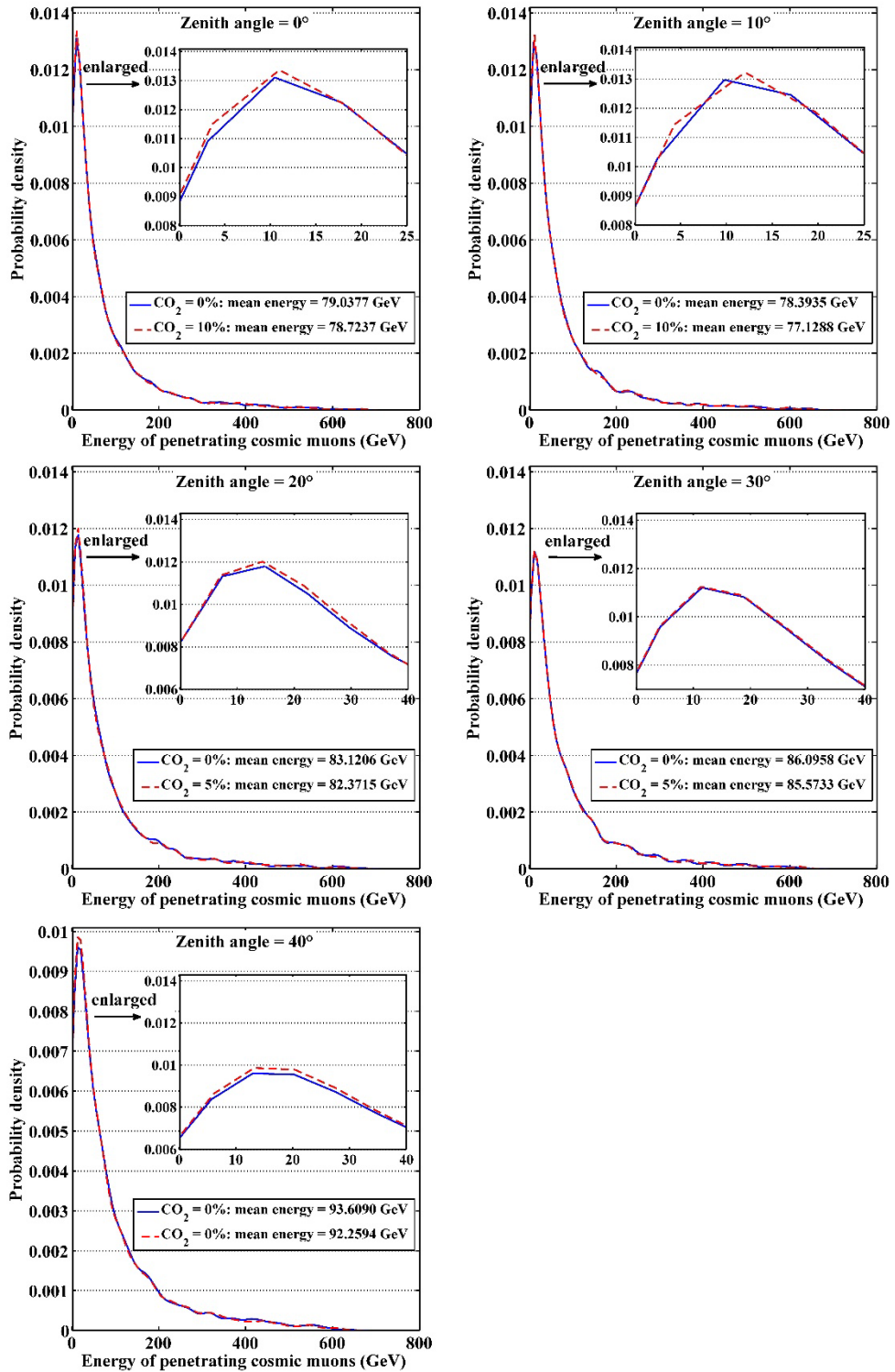
405 Fig. 7a shows that with a confidence level of 68%, this method could respond to 10% of  
406 CO<sub>2</sub> measured in volume fraction in the aquifer with a temporal resolution of about 23 days  
407 using a detector with a sensitive surface area of  $1 \times 1 \text{ m}^2$ . Fig. 7b shows that should leakage  
408 happen in the 6<sup>th</sup> aquifer, the detectable amount of CO<sub>2</sub> fluctuates between 6% and 8% with a  
409 requirement for a longer exposure time period of about 11 days. The sensitivity is highest for  
410 detecting leakage in the 7<sup>th</sup> aquifer as demonstrated in Fig. 7c, and the least possible leakage that  
411 can be identified by this method could be as low as 3% of CO<sub>2</sub> within a short exposure duration  
412 of about 3 days.

#### 413 **The potential for using the energy of outgoing cosmic muons as an information source**

414 This study goes a step further to explore the potential of using the energy of the outgoing  
415 cosmic muons as an information source to identify CO<sub>2</sub> leakage. On an average level, the  
416 critical energy for muons to penetrate a monitored area decreases as the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage  
417 increases in freshwater aquifers. Taking account of the continuous energy spectrum of the  
418 incident cosmic muons, whether this change can be reflected by the statistical information on  
419 the energy of the outgoing cosmic muons is yet to be addressed. In order to gain insight into the  
420 possibility, the study here considered some CO<sub>2</sub> leakage scenarios taking place in the 7<sup>th</sup> aquifer  
421 as a test. Fig. 8 demonstrates the contrast of the energy distribution and the mean value of the  
422 penetrating muons from several zenith angles under different conditions of the 7<sup>th</sup> aquifer.

423 The enlarged (zoomed-in) figures in Fig. 8 for the low-energy regions show an identical  
424 tendency that due to CO<sub>2</sub> leakage and displacement of the fresh water in the 7<sup>th</sup> aquifer, the  
425 residual energy after penetrating the targeted volume above the detector tends to present a larger  
426 proportion in the lower region. The mean energy shows a declining tendency due to the  
427 occupancy of CO<sub>2</sub> compared with the baseline measurement prior to CO<sub>2</sub> leakage. This result  
428 indicates that the information on the energy of the penetrating muons may serve as another  
429 effective source to identify CO<sub>2</sub> leakage, or at least an auxiliary one for identifying the change  
430 occurring in the geological formations from the cosmic-muon flux attenuation.

431



432

433

434

435 **Fig. 8** The energy distribution of the outgoing cosmic muons and their mean energy after  
 436 penetrating the 7<sup>th</sup> aquifer under different conditions.

437

438 **Discussions and conclusions**

439 This study aims to methodologically investigate the feasibility of a novel radiographic method  
 440 of using cosmic-ray muons attenuation as an information source to monitor possible CO<sub>2</sub>

441 leakage from a primary storage into shallower formations. As an example of application, this  
442 method was tested on a multi-layered geological model for CO<sub>2</sub> storage. Its effectiveness in  
443 detecting various leakage scenarios in different freshwater aquifers was studied by high-fidelity  
444 simulations, including the intrinsic spatial resolution and the sensitivity of the penetrating  
445 number in response to the change in the aquifers caused by CO<sub>2</sub> intrusion and displacement.

446 The spatial resolution of this method is found to be within a range from 10 m to 20 m.  
447 Detection at shallower depths tends to have higher spatial resolutions, and for measurements at  
448 the same depth, the ability to locate the specific regional leakage is higher for cosmic-ray muons  
449 with smaller zenith angles. To achieve a relatively high spatial resolution, the zenith angle of the  
450 employed cosmic-ray muons may be chosen not to be larger than 40°. Given a detector with a  
451 certain surface area and an exposure period, the sensitivity analysis was performed for using this  
452 method to detect possible CO<sub>2</sub> leakage at different depths. It was found that when the volume  
453 fraction of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage reaches 10% measured in volume fraction in the shallow freshwater  
454 aquifer at depths of about 520 m, it could be identified within a measurement period of 23 days  
455 and detection area of 1 m × 1 m. For leakage at shallower depths, the sensitivity tends to be  
456 higher, and the detectable amount of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage decreases to as low as 3% with a temporal  
457 resolution of two or three days. The thickness for the leakage region is assumed to be 60 m in  
458 this study, while the method will be more effective for larger thickness of leakage region under  
459 monitoring. The potential for using the energy of outgoing cosmic muons as an information  
460 source was also investigated as a preliminary attempt, which demonstrates that it may serve as  
461 an effective information source for such monitoring applications or at least an auxiliary one.

462 To achieve a relatively high sensitivity, an adequate number of cosmic muons is needed. The  
463 exposure time and the area of the detector surface can be adjusted and trade-off should be made  
464 in consideration of the requirement for the temporal resolution and the geological constraints for  
465 the installation of the detection system in a specific practical application. Since the construction  
466 of a muon detection system is well-developed nowadays and a detector can be designed and  
467 constructed to meet the various requirements for the size and shape, the new monitoring method  
468 seems very promising. The radiation source in this radiographic technique is naturally and  
469 continuously occurring rather than episodically man-made, making it a cost-effective method  
470 for continuous monitoring. The feasibility analysis in this study shows that cosmic-ray muon  
471 radiography could serve as an effective complementary way to monitor possible CO<sub>2</sub> leakage  
472 into shallower freshwater aquifers. Since it continuously monitors a region of interest, leakage  
473 could be identified timely, while other episodic measurements for more information can be  
474 taken afterwards.

475

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