

1      **Trace Metal Source Terms in Carbon Sequestration Environments**

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14      **ABSTRACT**

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16      Carbon dioxide sequestration in deep saline and depleted oil geologic formations is feasible and

17      promising, however, possible CO<sub>2</sub> or CO<sub>2</sub>-saturated brine leakage to overlying aquifers may pose

18      environmental and health impacts. The purpose of this study was to experimentally define trace

19      metal source terms from the reaction of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>, storage reservoir brines, reservoir and

20      cap rocks. Storage reservoir source terms for trace metals are needed to evaluate the impact of

21      brines leaking into overlying drinking water aquifers. The trace metal release was measured from

22      sandstones, shales, carbonates, evaporites, basalts and cements from the Frio, In Salah, Illinois

23      Basin – Decatur, Lower Tuscaloosa, Weyburn-Midale, Bass Islands and Grand Ronde carbon

24      sequestration geologic formations. Trace metal dissolution is tracked by measuring solution

25      concentrations over time under conditions (e.g. pressures, temperatures, and initial brine

26      compositions) specific to the sequestration projects. Existing metrics for Maximum Contaminant

27      Levels (MCLs) for drinking water as defined by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency

28      (U.S. EPA) were used to categorize the relative significance of metal concentration changes in

29      storage environments due to the presence of CO<sub>2</sub>. Results indicate that Cr and Pb released from

30      sandstone reservoir and shale cap rock exceed the MCLs by an order of magnitude while Cd and

31 Cu were at or below drinking water thresholds. In carbonate reservoirs As exceeds the MCLs by  
32 an order of magnitude, while Cd, Cu, and Pb were at or below drinking water standards. Results  
33 from this study can be used as a reasonable estimate of the reservoir and caprock source term to  
34 further evaluate the impact of leakage on groundwater quality.

35

36 1. INTRODUCTION

37

38 Carbon capture and sequestration (CCS) technology is one prominent and feasible approach to  
39 help mitigate impacts from increasing rates of CO<sub>2</sub> release from emission point sources. The  
40 technology, in its most simplistic description, involves the capture of CO<sub>2</sub> from an industrial  
41 source such as a coal-fired power plant, compression and transport of CO<sub>2</sub> to an injection site  
42 and finally its sequestration to a deep underground geologic formation for long-term storage.

43

44 Many types of geologic formations have been proposed as the final receptors of CO<sub>2</sub> based on a  
45 suite of criteria, including their location, geomorphology, potential storage capacity, hydrocarbon  
46 potential, and structural characteristics for storage permanence. Among these, deep saline  
47 formations and depleted oil and gas fields are the most promising. The former is being  
48 considered based on for its large storage capacity with estimates ranging between 2,000 and  
49 22,000 Gt for USA and Canada,<sup>1</sup> while the latter promises the additional potential for CO<sub>2</sub>-  
50 enhanced oil and natural gas recovery<sup>2</sup> and long-term storage based on its inherent characteristic  
51 of maintaining oil and gas securely confined for thousands of years.

52

53 The sequestration of CO<sub>2</sub> in both saline geologic formations and depleted oil and gas fields  
54 involves upward brine displacement,<sup>3</sup> compression of both injected and resident fluids and

55 expansion of pore space.<sup>4</sup> Although, in the long geologic time scale the sequestered bulk CO<sub>2</sub> is  
56 unlikely to escape due to various trapping mechanisms, such as solution,<sup>5,6</sup> physical,<sup>7</sup> and  
57 mineral trapping,<sup>8</sup> slow leakage of buoyant CO<sub>2</sub> or CO<sub>2</sub> saturated brine even under favorable  
58 storage conditions may occur. Analog studies of geologic environments containing large,  
59 concentrated amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> have shown that leakage processes are inherent in CCS.<sup>9</sup> Carbon  
60 sequestration is viable only if those leakages account for less than 1% of stored CO<sub>2</sub> over 100  
61 years.<sup>10</sup> Likely conduits for CO<sub>2</sub> migration to overlying aquifers are faults or fracture networks  
62 within caprock and wellbores.<sup>11</sup> The primary concern for such a leak is that dissolution of CO<sub>2</sub>  
63 within the storage reservoir and a drinking water aquifer will depress the pH and consequently  
64 dissolve trace metals from minerals, such as carbonate- or sulfide-bearing minerals, clays, and  
65 iron oxyhydroxides,<sup>12-16</sup> liberating naturally-occurring hazardous elements to the water table.<sup>17,18</sup>  
66 The resulting increase in concentration of hazardous trace elements can contaminate drinking  
67 water resources and detrimentally affect groundwater quality.<sup>19</sup> Lewicki et al.<sup>20</sup> have summarized  
68 CO<sub>2</sub> leakage incidents from natural and industrial analogues revealing that in more than 20  
69 occasions worldwide, CO<sub>2</sub> escaped mainly through faults, fractures and wells causing adverse  
70 health, safety and environmental effects. In most of these occasions, CO<sub>2</sub> was naturally  
71 accumulated in highly fractured and/or porous rocks, such as sandstones and limestones, under  
72 low-permeability cap rocks or produced by thermal decomposition of carbonate-rich sedimentary  
73 rocks and degassing of magma.

74

75 Geochemical modeling and reactive transport simulations have been conducted to systematically  
76 evaluate the potential for water quality changes due to CO<sub>2</sub> intrusion into shallow aquifers, but  
77 their results are difficult to extrapolate or generalize because these modeling runs are site specific

78 and the variation between sites is high.<sup>21</sup> Many of these investigations use the Maximum  
79 Contaminant Levels (MCLs), as defined by the U.S. EPA, as a metric by which to gauge the  
80 effects of geochemical reactions on water quality. According to the National Drinking Water  
81 Regulations,<sup>22</sup> MCLs are divided into two categories: primary and secondary. Primary drinking  
82 water standards, which are for trace metals such as As, Cd, Cr, Pb, and Cu, among others, are  
83 legally enforced for the protection of public health by limiting the levels of contaminants in  
84 drinking water. Secondary drinking water standards, which include standards for Fe, Mn, and Zn,  
85 are non-enforceable guidelines regulating contaminants that may cause cosmetic or aesthetic  
86 effects in drinking water. One of the modeling studies probed the potential for trace metal  
87 mobilization due to CO<sub>2</sub> intrusion into United States drinking water aquifers, which resulted in  
88 predictions that only As, Pb and Zn should exceed their MCLs.<sup>23,24</sup> Trace metal releases have  
89 also been predicted due to acidification of shallow aquifers with low buffering capacity, and in  
90 some of these cases trace metal concentrations were estimated to exceed their MCLs  
91 (e.g.<sup>19,24,25</sup>).

92

93 Limited experimental data exist to date to assess the probability and the environmental impacts  
94 of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage on groundwater quality. For field studies reported in shallow environments, a  
95 few examples demonstrate the complexity of the reactions involved. In the U.S. Tri-state mining  
96 district (Kansas-Missouri-Oklahoma) high concentrations of zinc, lead and cadmium in the CO<sub>2</sub>-  
97 rich water decreased as the CO<sub>2</sub> degassed and pH increased. In this system trace metal solubility  
98 was governed by the dissolution of iron oxyhydroxide and carbonate minerals.<sup>26</sup> Investigations  
99 suggest that trace metals dissolved from reaction of CO<sub>2</sub>-rich brines with basalt at Mt. Hekla,  
100 Iceland are reincorporated into solid phases as the groundwaters are neutralized by continued

101 basalt dissolution.<sup>27</sup> At Zero Emission Research and Technology Center (ZERT) in Bozeman  
102 MT, a field experiment showed that by injecting CO<sub>2</sub> in a shallow aquifer, Pb and As were  
103 readily mobilized and their respective concentrations in the water were increased, but not to a  
104 level that exceeded their respective MCLs at the end of the field experiment.<sup>28,29</sup> In the Frio  
105 formation in Texas, a demonstrative CO<sub>2</sub> injection was conducted into a sandstone section of the  
106 formation to investigate the potential for geologic storage in a saline sedimentary aquifer.<sup>12</sup> Fluid  
107 samples were collected before and after the CO<sub>2</sub> injection. Chemical and modeling results  
108 exhibited rapid mineral dissolution especially for calcite and iron oxyhydroxide which  
109 significantly increased Fe and Mn concentrations in the saline waters and were associated with  
110 early CO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough. Samples collected 15 months after injection showed much lower metal  
111 concentrations and higher pH, indicating that the reservoir had buffered any environmental  
112 impacts from this short test.<sup>13</sup> Investigations in Chimayo New Mexico, revealed upwelling trace  
113 metals via two pathways that have CO<sub>2</sub>-rich or CO<sub>2</sub>-poor brines. The former provided a source of  
114 As, Pb and U which significantly increased their concentration in the overlying aquifer,  
115 exceeding the MCLs in few cases; however, the increase was not attributed to in situ trace  
116 element mobilization caused by the presence of CO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>17</sup>

117  
118 The objective of this experimental study is to provide a range of concentrations that can be used  
119 as the trace element source term for reservoirs and leakage pathways in risk simulations  
120 (i.e.<sup>30,31</sup>). We report averaged trace metal concentrations after 20 days of reaction of CO<sub>2</sub>-rich  
121 brines with cap and reservoir rock from different carbon sequestration demonstration projects  
122 and wellbore cements. The results rank rock systems and trace elements that require more  
123 systematic studies to establish the geochemical reactions that control solution concentrations.

124 Defining the magnitude of this source term is important for both understanding the role of CO<sub>2</sub> in  
125 liberating trace metals via dissolution of their parent minerals, and predicting the potential risks  
126 to shallow groundwaters if reacted brines leak from storage formations.

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128  
129 **2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION**

130 **2.1. Rock – Brine – CO<sub>2</sub> Experiments**

131  
132 Rock and cement samples used in the experiments from different depths and geologic formations  
133 in the United States, Canada and Algeria (Table 1). In all experiments, rock fragments were  
134 reacted with synthetic or natural brine and supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> at the temperature and pressure  
135 conditions of their respective site. The pCO<sub>2</sub> for a given set of experiments depends on pressure,  
136 temperature, and salinity and can be calculated from various equations of state found in the  
137 literature.<sup>32-35</sup> Most of the brine compositions used in this study were synthesized to simulate the  
138 actual brine composition of the site, because collecting adequate mass to conduct experiments  
139 and preserving natural brine samples from each site is rarely possible. Only the brines used in  
140 experiments studying the Lower Tuscaloosa rocks were collected from the actual site. The rest of  
141 the brine compositions, except for one (i.e. Bass Island) were representative of the sites trying to  
142 mimic the actual composition of the natural brines. Details about the depth, brine type, mass of  
143 solids and brine, temperature, pressure and reaction times for individual experiment are reported  
144 in Table 1.

145

146 Static Dickson-type Au reactors housed in water-filled pressure vessels were used to react rock  
147 or cement samples with the brine and supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> for most of the experiments. Here we  
148 provided a brief description of the experimental setup, details are available in the literature.<sup>13,36</sup>

149 The reaction kinetics and the approach to equilibrium were monitored by sampling the solution  
150 as a function of time. The impact of CO<sub>2</sub> on dissolved trace metal solubility was made from the  
151 comparison of the solution composition before and after injection of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>. After one  
152 month of reaction to achieve constant concentrations in absence of CO<sub>2</sub>, supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> was  
153 injected into the reactor-cell (gold bag) and reacted for an additional month. Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>  
154 was added in excess to the reaction vessel to ensure that both dissolved and supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>  
155 were present for the duration of the experiment. Brine samples were taken and analyzed for  
156 solution chemistry over the duration of the experiment. Samples for dissolved trace metal  
157 analysis were filtered, acidified with high purity nitric acid, and diluted with distilled and  
158 deionized water. CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were measured continuously throughout the experiment.  
159 Measuring the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation was essential to the experiment, not only because we wanted to  
160 mimic the reservoir conditions, but also as an indicator of possible leaks of the reactor-cell (gold  
161 bag) during the experiment. CO<sub>2</sub> values are reported in accompanied studies (Table 1). Control  
162 experiments using the same protocol but without any rock sample show that some trace metals  
163 are leached from the passivated titanium parts when exposed to supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> and high brine  
164 concentrations, but these values are 10 to 1000 times lower than the concentrations from rock-  
165 water interactions. Results for all control experiments are reported in Table 2 for direct  
166 comparison with the rock-water-CO<sub>2</sub> experiments. Initial trace metal concentrations were 1 to  
167 1000 times greater in the solids compared to the solution composition.

168

169 Experiments for Grand Ronde basalt and Bass Islands dolomite rock samples were conducted in  
170 300-mL Parr® pressure vessels (Parr Instrument Company, Moline, Illinois) with a Teflon liner.  
171 Parallel experiments were conducted with CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>, respectively, for each rock sample under

172 the same conditions (pressure, temperature, brine concentration, solid to solution ratio) to  
173 compare the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> on rock dissolution. Synthetic brine and rock samples were  
174 equilibrated with CO<sub>2</sub> or N<sub>2</sub> gas under a designated pressure and temperature. Rock samples were  
175 not equilibrated with saline solution before CO<sub>2</sub> or N<sub>2</sub> injection as previously described for other  
176 rocks. All wetted parts of the pressure vessel were made of either teflon, titanium or zirconium.  
177 No Ti or Zr was detected above its quantification limit (20 and 30 ppb, respectively) in aqueous  
178 samples throughout the experiment. Aqueous samples were collected at selected time intervals,  
179 and during sampling, the vessels were pressurized with a syringe pump to maintain constant  
180 pressure throughout the experiment.

181

182 **2.2. Sample Analysis**

183  
184 Major and trace metals in the aqueous samples and the stock solution were analyzed using ICP-  
185 MS or ICP-OES. Samples were prepared volumetrically with a 20:1 dilution using an internal  
186 standard solution in 2% nitric acid. A fully quantitative analysis using a linear calibration curve  
187 based on known standards was performed. The internal standard was corrected for instrument  
188 drift and suppression from the sodium chloride matrix. Detection levels were established from  
189 duplicate blanks and serial dilution preparations. Matrix spike samples were analyzed for quality  
190 control.

191

Table 1. Summary of general experimental parameters.

Lithology	Location	Depth (m)	Solid (g)	Brine (g)	Brine Type <sup>a</sup>	Temperature (°C)	Pressure (MPa)	Reaction Time before CO <sub>2</sub> injection (days)	Reaction Time after CO <sub>2</sub> injection (days)
<b>Sandstone Reservoirs</b>									
Mt Simon <sup>36</sup>	Illinois, USA	1954	12.4	245.9	A	51	19.5	40	31
Mt Simon <sup>36</sup>	Illinois, USA	2062	12.0	320.7	A	51	19.5	35	43
Frio <sup>13</sup>	Texas, USA	1547	10.6	210.0	B	60	10.0	4	21
Lower Carboniferous <sup>15</sup>	In Salah, Algeria	2062	5.6	301.2	C	95	10.0	33	28
Lower Tuscaloosa <sup>37</sup>	Mississippi, USA	3190	10.0	193.2	D	120	34.4	43	46
Lower Tuscaloosa	Mississippi, USA	3193	8.55	170.8	D	120	34.4	53	50
Bunter <sup>38</sup>	UK	2000	NA	NA	E	60	30	5	57
Navajo Sandstone <sup>39</sup>	Arizona, USA	NA	4.0	40	F	200	30	0	1-58
<b>Shale Caprocks</b>									
Eau Claire <sup>36</sup>	Illinois, USA	1675	15.3	262.6	A	51	19.5	41	31
Eau Claire <sup>36</sup>	Illinois, USA	1675	10.0	364.3	A	95	19.5	29	64
Lower Carboniferous <sup>15</sup>	In Salah, Algeria	2087	6.4	301.2	C	95	10	31	31
<b>Carbonate Reservoirs</b>									
Vuggy <sup>40</sup>	Weyburn, Canada	1463	11.6	253.7	G	60	12.4	35	31
Vuggy <sup>40</sup>	Weyburn, Canada	1448	11.3	340.5	G	60	12.4	28	32
Marly <sup>40</sup>	Weyburn, Canada	1447	10.4	265.4	G	60	12.4	35	31
Bass Islands <sup>41</sup>	Michigan, USA	1367	4.0	180	H	75	10.0	35	35
<b>Evaporite Caprocks</b>									
Three Fingers <sup>40</sup>	Weyburn, Canada	1389	12.1	285.5	G	60	12.4	29	64
<b>Basalt</b>									
Grand Ronde <sup>42</sup>	Washington, USA	1074	4.0	180	H	75	10.0	35	35
<b>Wellbore Cement</b>									
Class G	NA	NA	4.0	280.5	C	95	10	11	30
Class G	NA	NA	20.0	204.5	C	95	10	21	22
Class G + Lower Carboniferous <sup>15</sup>	In Salah, Algeria	2087	4.8	252.5	C	95	10	26	44
Class G + Lower Carboniferous <sup>15</sup>	In Salah, Algeria	2062	8.6	246.5	C	95	10	40	35

<sup>a</sup>Brine Type: A) 2.1 m NaCl, 0.2 m KCl, 0.55 m CaCl<sub>2</sub>, and 0.1 m MgCl<sub>2</sub>; B) 1.5 m NaCl; C) 1.8 m NaCl, 0.55 m CaCl<sub>2</sub> and 0.1 m MgCl<sub>2</sub>; D) Natural brine from Cranfield MI (salinity of 15%wt); E) 1 m NaCl; F) 0.2 m KCl; G) 1.1 m NaCl equilibrated with calcite and anhydrite prior to injection of CO<sub>2</sub>; H) 0.1 m NaCl.

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Our collective experimental dataset shows that reaction of CO<sub>2</sub>-rich brines with reservoir rocks (sandstone, carbonate, and basalt), caprocks (shale and evaporite), and wellbore cement enhance trace metals in solutions. The trace metals generally achieve constant concentrations within about 20 days after CO<sub>2</sub> injection, but not in all cases. Relative standard deviation for the trace metal concentrations was generally less than 2% for As, Cr, Cu, Fe; less than 6% for Pb; less than 10% for Cd and Mn; and often as high as 100% for Zn. For some experiments where the trace metal concentrations were low, the relative standard deviation was between 15 and 35%. An example of the change in trace metal concentrations with time is shown in Figure 1 for carbonate rocks from the Weyburn storage project. The results of these specific carbonate experiments suggest that storage of supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> will result in As, Cr, Fe, and Mn concentrations that are at or above EPA drinking water standards. We observed a wide variation in the absolute trace metal concentrations from the other experiments (see Supplementary Information Figures S2 to S13).

Averaged concentrations measured throughout the duration of the experiment capture the likely range of As, Cd, Cr, Cu and Pb (primary elements of concern) and Fe, Mn, and Zn (secondary elements of concern) that could leak from geologic sequestration environments to overlying aquifers. Table 2 reports averaged concentrations normalized to the appropriate MCL for each element and experiment, as well as results reported by Wigand et al.<sup>38</sup> and Lu et al.<sup>39</sup> Figure 2 is a cumulative distribution profile of the normalized concentrations plotted against the percentage of the experiments with trace metals at or below a given concentration. Normalized concentrations from all experiments generally span 2 to 3 orders of magnitude where values may

be either above or below the standard threshold (MCL). Concentration thresholds of primary MCLs are As = 10 ppb, Cd = 5 ppm, Cr = 100 ppb, Cu = 1300 ppb, and Pb = 15 ppb, and of secondary MCLs are Fe = 300 ppb, Mn = 50 ppb, and Zn = 5000 ppb. Figure 2 suggests that leakage of brines containing Fe and Mn could impact groundwater quality because normalized concentrations for these elements were consistently higher than the secondary MCLs. Leakage of brines containing Pb, Cr, Cd, and As also need to be considered for integrated risk assessment modeling, as between 50% to 75% of the experiments reported here yielded concentrations for these elements that were above the groundwater thresholds. Of the elements studied, only Cu and Zn are unlikely to affect groundwater quality during mixing of reacted brine, because the concentrations measured from 80% to 90% of the experiments were generally below the thresholds.

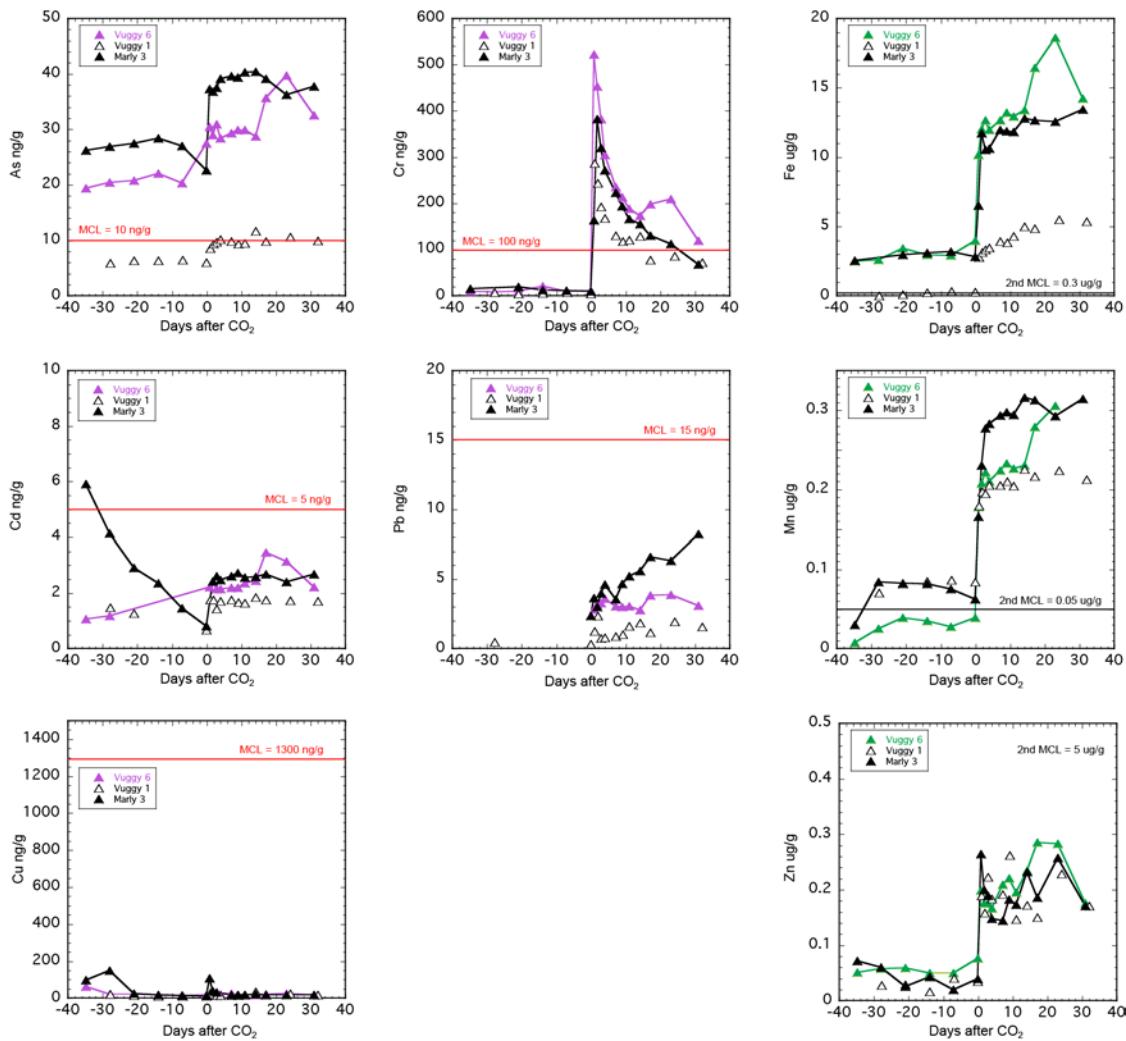


Figure 1. Total concentrations (ng/g or  $\mu\text{g/g}$  solution) of dissolved trace metals released from three carbonate samples originated in Weyburn, Canada (Vuggy and Marly) when they reacted with synthetic brine with or without  $\text{CO}_2$  as a function of reaction time (days). Time 0 hours denotes the beginning of  $\text{CO}_2$  injection in the system.

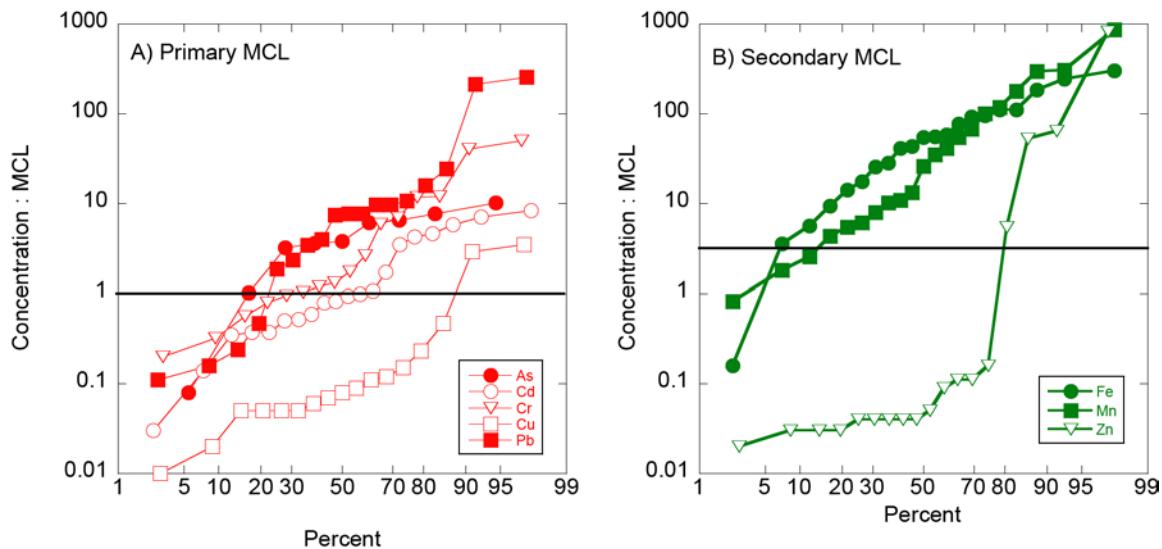


Figure 2. Cumulative distribution profiles of averaged concentrations normalized to MCL plotted against the percentage of the experiments with trace metals at or below a given concentration.

Table 2. Average trace metal concentrations normalized to primary or secondary MCL. Concentrations were averaged after about 20 days of reactions. Relative standard deviation for the trace metal concentrations was generally less than 2% for As, Cr, Cu, Fe; less than 6% for Pb; less than 10% for Cd and Mn; and often as high as 100% for Zn.

Lythology	As	Cd	Cr	Cu	Fe	Mn	Pb	Zn
<b>Sandstone Reservoirs</b>								
<b>Mt Simon<sup>36</sup></b>	- <sup>a</sup>	0.50	40.61	0.23	55.31	10.13	9.66	0.04
<b>Mt Simon<sup>36</sup></b>	-	1.06	50.19	0.12	77.11	10.84	2.35	-
<b>Frio<sup>13</sup></b>	0.08	0.82	1.21	0.08	14.13	8.00	7.67	-
<b>Lower Carboniferous<sup>15</sup></b>	-	0.98	5.90	0.05	303.43	40.96	1.88	0.03
<b>Lower Tuscaloosa<sup>37</sup></b>	-	7.06	-	2.90	111.33	308.00	212.67	53.18
<b>Lower Tuscaloosa</b>	-	3.48	1.33	3.52	25.70	296.00	254.00	5.48
<b>Bunter<sup>38</sup></b>	-	0.79	-	0.47	94.99	865.00	7.67	820.52
<b>Navajo Sandstone<sup>39</sup></b>	-	-	-	0.05	5.67	1.80	-	64.00
<b>Shale Caprocks</b>								
<b>Eau Claire<sup>36</sup></b>	-	1.73	7.03	0.05	241.95	67.61	7.48	-
<b>Eau Claire<sup>36</sup></b>	6.10	0.37	11.90	-	110.00	34.80	4.00	0.03
<b>Lower Carboniferous<sup>15</sup></b>	-	0.93	0.32	0.15	184.00	2.55	24.48	0.11
<b>Carbonate Reservoirs</b>								
<b>Vuggy<sup>40</sup></b>	3.77	0.52	1.04	0.01	43.00	6.14	0.47	0.04
<b>Vuggy<sup>40</sup></b>	1.02	0.35	0.79	-	17.47	4.36	0.11	0.04
<b>Marly<sup>40</sup></b>	3.60	0.59	1.76	0.02	54.77	5.48	0.24	0.05
<b>Bass Islands<sup>41</sup></b>	-	0.03	-	0.09	0.16	0.82	-	0.02
<b>Evaporite Caprocks</b>								
<b>Three Fingers<sup>40</sup></b>	-	0.37	11.99	0.05	58.10	13.19	0.16	0.03
<b>Basalt</b>								
<b>Grand Ronde<sup>42</sup></b>	-	0.14	-	0.06	40.99	99.87	-	0.04
<b>Wellbore Cement</b>								
<b>Class G</b>	10.12	8.41	2.65	-	3.55	54.15	9.71	0.16
<b>Class G</b>	3.20	4.24	0.56	-	9.45	26.08	3.43	0.04
<b>Class G + Lower Carboniferous<sup>15</sup></b>	7.72	4.63	0.96	0.11	91.52	177.20	10.62	0.11
<b>Class G + Lower Carboniferous<sup>15</sup></b>	6.51	5.83	0.20	0.07	28.18	118.64	15.97	0.09
<b>Blanks</b>								
<b>0.1 m NaCl</b>	-	-	0.64	0.07	0.14	-	0.39	-
<b>1 m NaCl + 0.8 m NaHCO<sub>3</sub></b>	0.014	0.05	0.35	0.04	0.69	0.21	0.38	0.005
<b>3.6 m NaCl + 0.015 m NaHCO<sub>3</sub></b>	0.59	0.09	0.12	0.02	-	0.86	0.09	0.009
<b>DI water</b>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

<sup>a</sup>The dashes in the table indicate insufficient data. Concentrations were below the limit of detection.

The rock type (or cement) has significant control on the release of trace metals both in terms of mineral dissolution and carbonate content that can buffer solution pH. Table 3 recasts the information in Table 2 for a given rock type to highlight which types of rock yield trace metal concentrations that exceed EPA primary or secondary MCLs during reaction with CO<sub>2</sub>. Values highlighted with red shading indicate that the respective trace metal concentration exceeds the MCL, whereas those values below or equal to MCL are shaded in green, indicating that they are of less concern when developing models to predict the effects of leaked brine on shallow groundwaters. The amount of trace metals that can be leached from rock types are generally greater for sandstone and shale, followed by cement, and then carbonate, evaporite, and basalt. Dissolved Fe and Mn routinely exceeded the secondary standards for nearly all rock types and their impact to groundwater quality should be evaluated closely. Any impacts to groundwater quality from Fe and Mn would contribute to an economic risk by altering groundwater aesthetics. Dissolved Pb concentrations were highest for sandstones, shales, and cements, but were released in limited amounts for carbonates, evaporites and basalt. Higher releases of Pb generally correspond to those experiments at higher temperatures, with the highest concentrations in the 120 °C sandstone experiments. Elevated Cr release occurred in all rock types (sandstones, shales, carbonates, evaporites or cements) except basalt. The As source term from sandstones and shales were inconclusive because the As concentration of the synthetic brines was generally higher than concentrations measured after the reaction with CO<sub>2</sub>-rich brines. Slight As release was observed for carbonates, cements and evaporites.

Table 3. Median trace metal concentrations normalized to primary or secondary MCL for all the experiment. Shading below indicates those rock types that yielded trace metal concentrations that were at, below or above the MCL.

Metal	Median	Basalt	Sandstone	Shale	Carbonates	Evaporite	Cement
<b>Primary</b>							
Cu	0.08	<MCL	<MCL <sup>a</sup>	<MCL	<MCL	<MCL	<MCL
As	3.8	<MCL <sup>b</sup>			> MCL	<MCL	>MCL
Cd	0.93	<MCL	<MCL <sup>a</sup>	~MCL	~MCL	<MCL	>MCL
Cr	1.27	<MCL	>MCL	>MCL	>MCL	>MCL	~MCL
Pb	4.0	<MCL	>MCL	>MCL	<MCL	<MCL	>MCL
<b>Secondary</b>							
Zn	0.04	<MCL	<MCL <sup>a</sup>	<MCL	<MCL	<MCL	<MCL
Mn	26.08	>MCL	>MCL	>MCL	>MCL	>MCL	>MCL
Fe	54.7	>MCL	>MCL	>MCL	>MCL	>MCL	>MCL

<sup>a</sup>Two points from the experiment were above the MCL; <sup>b</sup>Samples were below the limit of detection. MCLs in drinking water (µg/L or ppb): Cu, 1300; As, 10; Cd, 5; Cr (total), 100; Pb, 15; Zn, 5000; Mn, 50; Fe, 300.

### Implications of brine leakage on groundwater quality

The increased acidity associated with brines in equilibrium with supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> will increase trace metal concentrations in the storage reservoir and along cap rock and wellbore leakage pathways. Although these carbon sequestration experiments show that some trace metals exceeded their respective MCLs, their impact on groundwater quality will be dependent on many processes along the leakage pathway and within the shallow aquifer. This will involve degassing of CO<sub>2</sub>, an increase in pH, and precipitation of carbonate and iron hydroxide minerals as temperature and pressure decrease.<sup>13,27-29</sup> All of these processes are likely to lower the trace metal concentration. Leakage into many groundwaters will also be accompanied by a change from reducing to oxidizing conditions that should result in much lower Fe and Mn concentrations

from hydroxide precipitation.<sup>26</sup> Even for elements such as Pb with fairly high concentrations, it is likely that degassing of the brines could lower the concentrations along the leakage pathway through precipitation or adsorption. Lower Pb concentrations in experiments with cement suggest that Pb released from the caprock would be removed from solution possibly by amorphous silica and carbonate minerals (the primary cement alteration products). Natural dispersion and sorption reactions also have the potential to lower Pb concentrations within a dilute aquifer. The range of trace metal concentrations from these 21 experiments can be used as source terms to overlying aquifers to assess risk during the site selection and permitting process. Once site-specific core is available additional experiments may be performed to narrow the uncertainty of risk assessment calculations.

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## **ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

### **Supporting Information**

Details of the individual dissolved trace metals release from different types of rocks and locations, when reacted with or without CO<sub>2</sub> saturated synthetic or natural brine as a function of time and their comparison with regulatory maximum contaminant levels. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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## Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS ARTWORK

Range of trace metal concentrations normalized to maximum contaminant levels that could leak from geologic carbon storage reservoirs by on experiments

