

1     **Detection of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage from a simulated sub-seabed storage site using three**  
2                                   **different types of pCO<sub>2</sub> sensors**

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5     Daria Atamanchuk<sup>1,\*</sup>, Anders Tengberg<sup>1,2</sup>, Dmitry Aleynik<sup>3</sup>, Peer Fietzek<sup>4</sup>,  
6     Kiminori Shitashima<sup>5</sup>, Anna Lichtschlag<sup>6</sup>, Per O.J. Hall<sup>1</sup>, Henrik Stahl<sup>3</sup>

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8     <sup>1</sup>Department of Chemistry and Molecular Biology, Marine Chemistry, University of  
9     Gothenburg, SE-41296 Gothenburg, Sweden

10    <sup>2</sup>Aanderaa Data Instruments AS, Midtun, NO-5828 Bergen, Norway

11    <sup>3</sup>Scottish Association for Marine Science, Scottish Marine Institute, Oban, Argyll,  
12    PA37 1QA, UK

13    <sup>4</sup>GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research, 24148 Kiel, Germany and  
14    CONTROS Systems & Solutions GmbH, 24148 Kiel, Germany

15    <sup>5</sup>International Institute for Carbon-Neutral Energy Research, Kyushu University,  
16    Kasuga-Kouen, 816-8580 Fukuoka, Japan

17    <sup>6</sup>National Oceanography Centre, University of Southampton Waterfront Campus,  
18    European Way, Southampton, SO14 3ZH, UK

19

20    \* *Corresponding author*

21    [dariia@chem.gu.se](mailto:dariia@chem.gu.se)

22    Tel: +46-31-786-9063

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27 **Abstract**

28 *This work is focused on results from a recent controlled sub-seabed in situ*  
29 *carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) release experiment (QICS: Quantifying and Monitoring*  
30 *Potential Ecosystem Impacts of Geological Carbon Storage) carried out during May-*  
31 *October 2012 in Ardmucknish Bay on the Scottish west coast. Three types of pCO<sub>2</sub>*  
32 *sensors (fluorescence, NDIR and ISFET-based technologies) were used in*  
33 *combination with multiparameter instruments measuring oxygen, temperature,*  
34 *salinity and currents in the water column at the epicentre of release and further away.*  
35 *It was shown that distribution of seafloor CO<sub>2</sub> emissions features high spatial and*  
36 *temporal heterogeneity. The highest pCO<sub>2</sub> values (~1250 μatm) were detected at low*  
37 *tide around a bubble stream and within centimetres distance from the seafloor.*  
38 *Further up in the water column, 30 to 100 cm above the seabed, the gradients*  
39 *decreased, but continued to indicate elevated pCO<sub>2</sub> at the epicentre of release*  
40 *throughout the injection campaign with the peak values between 400 and 740 μatm.*  
41 *High-frequency parallel measurements from two instruments placed within 1 m from*  
42 *each other, relocation of one of the instruments at the release site and 2D horizontal*  
43 *mapping of the release and control sites confirmed a localized impact from CO<sub>2</sub>*  
44 *emissions. Observed effects on the water column were temporary and post-injection*  
45 *recovery took <7 days.*

46 *A multivariate statistical approach was used to recognize the periods when the*  
47 *system was dominated by natural forcing with strong correlation between variation in*  
48 *pCO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub>, and when it was influenced by purposefully released CO<sub>2</sub>.*

49 *Use of a hydrodynamic circulation model, calibrated with in situ data, was*  
50 *crucial to establishing background conditions in this complex and dynamic shallow*  
51 *water system.*

52

53 1. **Introduction**

54

55 Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS) is a method of capturing CO<sub>2</sub> from large point  
56 emitters, such as fossil fuel based power plants and heavy industry, and its  
57 sequestration into geological storage sites, e.g. deep geological formation covered by  
58 sealing caprock. This approach has been suggested as a potentially significant  
59 mitigation strategy to counteract climate change and ocean acidification (Gough and  
60 Shackley, 2005; Haszeldine, 2009; Wilkinson et al., 2013).

61 Before sub-sea CO<sub>2</sub> storage can be carried out on a commercial scale, ecological  
62 consequences as well as adverse environmental and human impacts of potential CO<sub>2</sub>  
63 leakages need to be identified and reliable monitoring strategies for detection and  
64 quantification of potential leakages, both acute (broken pipes, leaking connections,  
65 etc.) and chronic (faults in the geological caprock), need to be developed.

66 Previous efforts to study controlled CO<sub>2</sub> releases with the focus on environmental  
67 impact and detectability were restricted by either small-scale direct injections of  
68 liquid CO<sub>2</sub> into the deep water layers or model studies of the fate of released CO<sub>2</sub>.  
69 Small-scale liquid CO<sub>2</sub> injections were carried out in a series of experiments off the  
70 coast of California (Brewer et al., 2003, 2004), which later developed into the FOCE  
71 (Free Ocean CO<sub>2</sub> Enrichment) program (Kirkwood et al., 2005, 2009; Walz et al.,  
72 2008).

73 Modelling studies based on natural CO<sub>2</sub> releases in Kagoshima Bay described  
74 physico-chemical processes of CO<sub>2</sub> transformation in seawater (Dissanayake et al.,  
75 2012). Numerous models were developed to predict the behaviour of leaking CO<sub>2</sub>,  
76 purposefully stored under the seabed (Blackford et al., 2008; Kano et al., 2010; Dewar  
77 et al., 2013), and as a consequence the rise of *p*CO<sub>2</sub> (Kano et al., 2009) or the  
78 transformation pathways of released CO<sub>2</sub> in the deep ocean (Jeong et al., 2010).

79 Natural marine CO<sub>2</sub> seepage sites, like the one off the coast of Panarea Island,  
80 Southern Italy, are widely and extensively studied in terms of assessment of CO<sub>2</sub>  
81 impacts to seawater chemistry and ecology (Pearce et al., 2014).

82 Within the NERC funded research project QICS (Quantifying and Monitoring  
83 Potential Ecosystem Impacts of Geological Carbon Storage) a large scale controlled  
84 *in situ* CO<sub>2</sub> sub-seabed release was conducted in Ardmucknish Bay, Scotland (Fig. 1)  
85 in spring-summer of 2012, in order to make a realistic simulation of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage  
86 event. An overview of the physical aspects of CO<sub>2</sub> migration through the sediment  
87 overburden and overlying water column, as well as of the ecological and  
88 biogeochemical impacts on the benthos, of this experiment were recently described in  
89 Blackford et al. (submitted).

90 This paper focuses on challenges and technical aspects of detecting CO<sub>2</sub> emissions  
91 in the overlying water from this shallow water release experiment, using three  
92 different types of *p*CO<sub>2</sub> sensors in combination with standard hydrographical  
93 instrumentation for additional properties of seawater.

94 In this study we address the following questions:

95 How much did the CO<sub>2</sub> release affect the *p*CO<sub>2</sub> in the water column at different  
96 distances from the source and how did it compare to background natural variability?  
97 What was the spatial and temporal heterogeneity of the CO<sub>2</sub> plume in the water  
98 column during the release, and how quick was the recovery after the termination of  
99 the release? What parameters need to be measured in order to explain and model the  
100 changes in the carbonate system caused by CO<sub>2</sub> release? Which technical solutions  
101 for monitoring systems at storage sites, fixed and movable, would allow detection  
102 and/or identification CO<sub>2</sub> leakages with the highest probability?

103

104

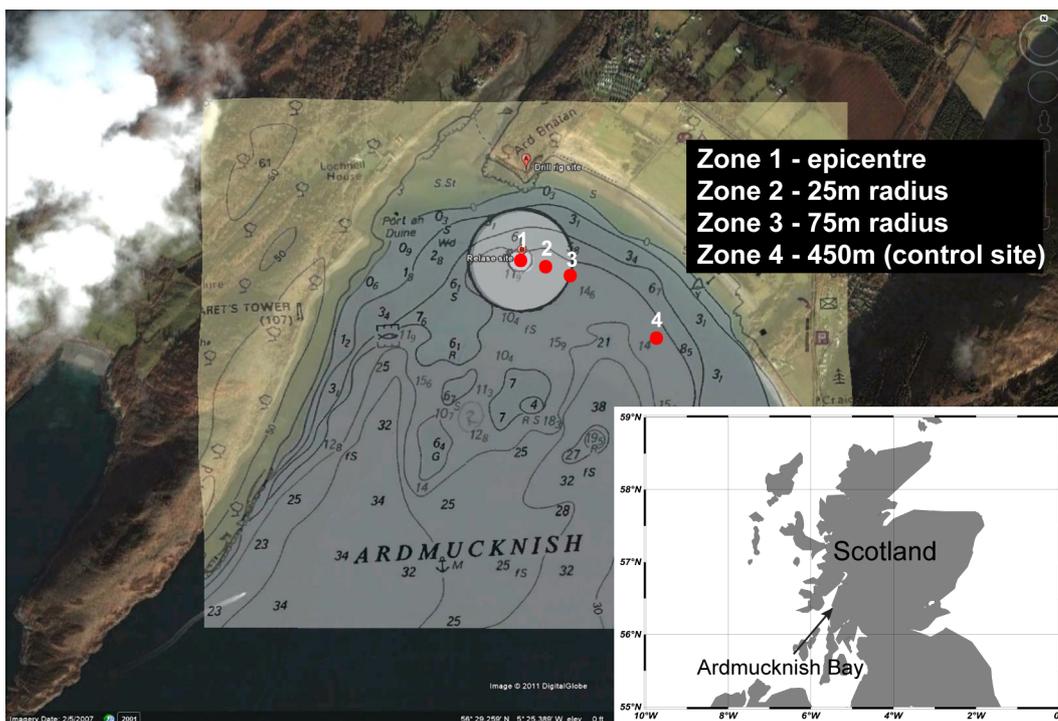
105 2. Materials and methods

106

107 2.1. Study site and CO<sub>2</sub> release experiment

108

109 The CO<sub>2</sub> release experiment (QICS) was carried out in Ardmucknish Bay, near  
110 Oban on the Scottish west coast (Fig. 1, *inset*). After identification of a suitable site in  
111 the vicinity of the Scottish Association for Marine Science (SAMS, Dunstaffnage,  
112 Oban) (Taylor et al., this volume), a thorough baseline survey was conducted during  
113 autumn of 2011 and in early 2012. The latter included a combination of acoustic  
114 surveys, sediment coring and diver-based characterization of background conditions  
115 prior to drilling and injection of CO<sub>2</sub>.



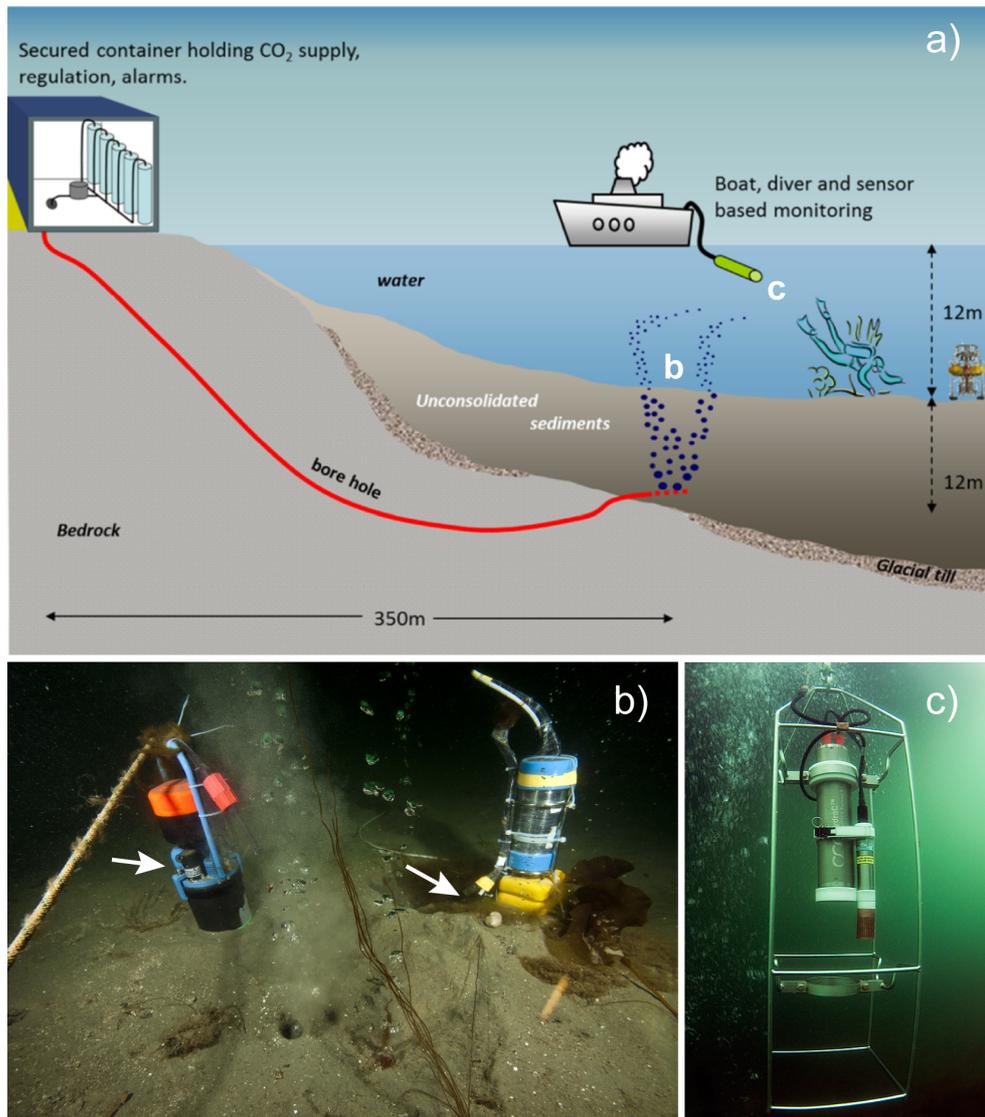
116

117 Fig. 1. Satellite picture of Ardmucknish Bay (<https://maps.google.com>) where the release of CO<sub>2</sub> gas  
118 took place with indication of sampling sites (red circles) at Zones 1-4. *Inset*: The study site  
119 Ardmucknish Bay, Oban, Scotland on the map.

120

121 In the beginning of 2012 (February-April), a southerly facing borehole was  
122 drilled, using a directional drilling rig, through the bedrock and terminating 10 m

123 horizontally into unconsolidated sediments 350 m offshore in the northern part of the  
124 bay (Fig. 2a; see also <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bhmCGcEenjk> and  
125 Supplementary material).



126  
127 Fig. 2. a) Schematic of the QICS *in situ* release experiment indicating the relative locations (b and c) of  
128 the  $p\text{CO}_2$  sensors used in this study; b) Photo of Seaguard<sup>®</sup> (left) and ISFET (right)  $p\text{CO}_2$  sensors  
129 deployed *in situ* next to  $\text{CO}_2$  bubble streams. White arrows indicate positions of sensors on the  
130 instruments, 30 and 3 cm above the bottom, respectively; c) Underwater photo of the towed  
131 CONTROS HydroC<sup>™</sup>  $p\text{CO}_2$  sensor.

132

133 The  $\text{CO}_2$  gas was released from a land-based container, through a 20 mm diameter  
134 welded stainless steel pipeline terminating in a 5 m long diffuser with multiple 0.5  
135 mm perforations located 11 m below the seabed. The overlying water depth at the

136 study site was 10-12 m depending on the tide. The injection phase started on May 17<sup>th</sup>  
137 and lasted for 37 days (day 0 to 36) until June 22<sup>nd</sup>, followed by the recovery period,  
138 until November 1<sup>st</sup>. CO<sub>2</sub> injection rates commenced at 10 kg CO<sub>2</sub> d<sup>-1</sup> at day 0,  
139 increasing to 83 kg CO<sub>2</sub> d<sup>-1</sup> by day 3, 150 kg CO<sub>2</sub> d<sup>-1</sup> at day 23 and 210 kg CO<sub>2</sub> d<sup>-1</sup> on  
140 day 33 (Fig. 3a). The total injected CO<sub>2</sub> amounted to 4.2 tonnes over the 37-day  
141 period.

142 Four zones with biogeochemically and ecologically similar characteristics were  
143 chosen: Zone 1(Z1) was the epicentre of the release; Z2 and Z3 were 25 and 75 m  
144 distant from the epicentre respectively; Z4 was the control site at 450 m from the  
145 epicentre (Fig. 1). All zones were situated along the 10 m isobath. During the release  
146 phase up to 35 (depending on the injection rate and tides) individual bubble streams  
147 were observed by scuba divers at the epicentre of the release (Z1) rising from the  
148 sediment into the water column above it  
149 ([https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=N\\_CUdiI5\\_r4](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=N_CUdiI5_r4) and Supplementary material). The  
150 control site (Z4) was assumed to be unaffected by the CO<sub>2</sub> release. For further details  
151 on the experimental methodology see Taylor et al., 2014 (this volume).

152

## 153 *2.2. Instruments and sensors*

154

155 Instruments' deployment and maintenance at the release site in Ardmucknish Bay  
156 during the experiment were undertaken by scuba diving, assuring for precise  
157 positioning and handling of the equipment. Boat-deployed water column sampling  
158 and profiling (5L Niskin bottle and SBE19 CTD from Seabird Inc.) was done from  
159 R/V Soel Mara using the onboard winch.

160 Tidal information and relevant weather data (solar radiation, wind speed and  
161 direction, precipitation and atmospheric pressure) were obtained at an hourly interval

162 from Poltips software and from the permanently installed weather stations at SAMS,  
 163 and at nearby Dunstaffnage, respectively. To facilitate the wind pattern analysis, high  
 164 resolution (2km grid) Atmospheric WRF model was run over West Scotland for the  
 165 period of CO<sub>2</sub> experiment.

166

167 Table 1. Summary of the deployments and instruments used in this study.

<b>Instrument deployment</b>	<b>Measuring parameters</b>	<b>Period (dd.mm)</b>	<b>Zone</b>	<b>Phase of experiment</b>	<b>Water depth</b>
Seaguard_D1	<i>p</i> CO <sub>2</sub> , O <sub>2</sub> , C/T	04.06-12.06	Z1	Release	10-12m
Seaguard_D2	<i>p</i> CO <sub>2</sub> , O <sub>2</sub> , C/T, currents	12.06 -19.06	Z1	Release	10-12m
Seaguard_D3*	O <sub>2</sub> , C/T, currents	19.06 - 22.06	Z4	Release	11-13m
Seaguard_D4	<i>p</i> CO <sub>2</sub> , O <sub>2</sub> , C/T, currents	22.06 - 29.06	Z1	Release/ Recovery	10-12m
Seaguard_D5	<i>p</i> CO <sub>2</sub> , O <sub>2</sub> , C/T, currents	05.07 - 13.08	Z1	Recovery	10-12m
Seaguard_D6	<i>p</i> CO <sub>2</sub> , O <sub>2</sub> , C/T, currents	17.09 -29.10	Z1	Recovery	10-12m
ISFET_D1	<i>p</i> CO <sub>2</sub> , T	18.05 - 01.06	Z1	Release	10-12m
ISFET_D2	<i>p</i> CO <sub>2</sub> , T	05.06 -25.06	Z1	Release	10-12m
CONTROS_D1	<i>p</i> CO <sub>2</sub> , C/T/D	22.06	Z1-Z4	Release	9-14.7 m
CONTROS_D2	<i>p</i> CO <sub>2</sub> , C/T/D	27.06	Z1-Z4	Recovery	11-13.6 m
RCM#419_D1	C/T, currents	09.05 -18.06	Z3	Release	11-13m
RCM#419_D2	C/T, current	18.06 - 29.06	Z4	Release/ Recovery	11-13m
RCM#419_D3	C/T, current	29.06 - 18.09	Z4	Recovery	11-13m
RCM#643_D1	C/T, current	09.06 - 18.06	Z4	Release	11-13m
RCM#643_D2	C/T, current	18.06 - 29.06	BI <sup>†</sup>	Release/ Recovery	25-27m
RCM#643_D3	C/T, current	29.06 - 18.09	BI <sup>†</sup>	Recovery	25-27m

168 \**p*CO<sub>2</sub> sensor's protection cap left on resulting in no data

169 <sup>†</sup> Bay inlet

170

171 In the work presented here data collected by four different types of instruments (a-  
 172 d) was used (see Table 1 for deployment details).

173

174 (a) A Seaguard<sup>®</sup> autonomous datalogger from Aanderaa Data Instruments,  
175 [www.aanderaa.com](http://www.aanderaa.com), (Fig. 2b) was fitted with a single point Doppler Current Meter  
176 (Victoria et al., 2011), a temperature and a conductivity/salinity probe, an oxygen  
177 optode (Tengberg et al., 2006) and a new type of  $p\text{CO}_2$  optode recently described in  
178 Atamanchuk et al. (2014). In short,  $\text{CO}_2$  gas diffuses from the surrounding water  
179 through a gas-permeable membrane into the sensing layer of the  $p\text{CO}_2$  optode, where  
180 as a consequence the pH is modified. The magnitude of pH change is correlated to the  
181  $p\text{CO}_2$  level outside the membrane. The embedded DLR (Dual Lifetime Referencing)  
182 material exhibits a pH dependent fluorescence change, which is detected as a phase  
183 shift value of returning red light. Response time ( $\tau_{63}$ ) is between 45 sec (at 40°C) and  
184 4.5 min (at 0°C). Observed precision of the sensors is  $\pm 2\text{-}3 \mu\text{atm}$  and absolute  
185 accuracy is 2-75  $\mu\text{atm}$ ; better accuracy is achievable through *in situ* calibration.  
186 Stability of the sensors during long-term deployments was shown to be longer than 7  
187 months (Atamanchuk et al., 2014).

188 The  $p\text{CO}_2$  optode was calibrated before the deployment at 40 points (10  $p\text{CO}_2$   
189 concentrations and 4 temperatures) using a temperature controlled water bath that was  
190 bubbled with different gas mixtures. In addition the 3-D calibration plane was  
191 adjusted *in situ* using one-point referencing methodology (Atamanchuk et al., 2014)  
192 and a reference value from water sample taken on day 14 of the release experiment.  
193 This value was assumed to represent the background  $p\text{CO}_2$  even though it was taken  
194 before the actual measurements of the optode commenced (day 18). Following water  
195 samples' data served as a reference for subsequent accuracy control (Fig. 4a, Table 2).

196 Based on factory specifications the absolute accuracies for data from other sensors  
197 presented here were estimated to be:  $\pm 1 \%$  for current speed measurements,  $\pm 5^\circ$  for  
198 current direction,  $\pm 0.05^\circ\text{C}$  for temperature and  $\pm 0.05$  for salinity. The oxygen optode

199 was saturation checked against atmospheric values in-between deployments; the  
200 absolute accuracy was estimated to be  $\pm 3\%$ .

201 None of the Seaguard<sup>®</sup> sensors demonstrated detectable drift (within sensor  
202 specifications) during the five-months period that the instrument was used in this  
203 project, and no major bio-fouling was noticed at the five occasions that the instrument  
204 was lifted, cleaned and redeployed.

205 The Seaguard<sup>®</sup> instrument was anchored to the bottom by burying the housing  
206 halfway into the sediment (Fig. 2b) with the sensors measuring every 15 min ~30 cm  
207 above the seabed. The instrument was recovered, inspected for damages, cleaned, its  
208 data downloaded and it was subsequently redeployed at five separate occasions (Table  
209 1) during the QICS experiment. Each time the instrument was redeployed, it was  
210 placed as close as possible to the same location at the release site (Z1). Gaps in data  
211 recorded with the instrument during five months of the project was either due to  
212 servicing, when the instrument was taken out of the water for few hours, or because it  
213 was used in other projects, i.e. long gap between deployments 4 and 5 (Table 1, Fig.  
214 4). On one deployment (Seaguard\_D3, see Table 1), the  $p\text{CO}_2$  sensor protection cap  
215 was left on by mistake while deployed at Z4, and hence the data were excluded from  
216 further analysis.

217

218 (b) A cabled on-line ion-sensitive field-effect transistor (ISFET) based (e.g.  
219 Shitashima and Kyo, 1998; Shitashima et al., 2002; Martz et al., 2010) pH/ $p\text{CO}_2$   
220 sensor (Shitashima et al., 2008; Shitashima et al., 2010) was deployed at the epicentre  
221 (Fig. 2b). The ISFET based pH sensor uses an ion-sensitive field-effect transistor as  
222 the pH electrode, and a chloride ion selective electrode (Cl-ISE) as the reference  
223 electrode. The ISFET is a semiconductor made of p-type silicon coated with  $\text{SiO}_2$ ,  
224 with  $\text{Si}_3\text{N}_4$  as the gate insulator surface that is the ion-sensing layer. In aqueous

225 media, the interface potential between the reference electrode and the sensing layer is  
226 a function of the activity of the  $H^+$  ion, i.e. pH. The Cl-ISE is a pellet made of several  
227 metal chlorides having a response to the chloride ion, a major element in seawater.  
228 The electric potential of the Cl-ISE is stable in the seawater, since it has no inner  
229 electrolyte solution. The devised pH sensor shows quick response time ( $\tau_{90} < 1$  s) with  
230 high accuracy ( $\pm 0.005$  pH).

231 The principle of  $pCO_2$  measurement using ISFET-pH technology is as follows.  
232 Both the ISFET-pH electrode and the Cl-ISE of the pH sensor are sealed in a unit  
233 with a gas permeable membrane whose inside is filled with inner electrolyte solution  
234 with 1.5% of NaCl. The pH sensor can measure changes in  $pCO_2$  from changes in the  
235 pH of the inner solution, which is caused by penetration of  $CO_2$  through the  
236 membrane. An amorphous Teflon membrane (Teflon AF<sup>TM</sup>) manufactured by DuPont  
237 was used as the gas permeable membrane. The *in situ* (3000 m depth, 1.8°C) response  
238 time ( $\tau_{90}$ ) for detecting changes in  $pCO_2$  was  $< 60$  seconds (Shitashima et al., 2013).  
239 Response time of ISFET sensor at the conditions of this experiment was not  
240 estimated.

241 The  $pCO_2$  sensor data were calibrated *in situ* on day 2 of the gas release and on  
242 day 5-6 using baseline values. *In situ* calibration involved correction of an existing  
243 laboratory calibration of the pH/ $pCO_2$  sensor (not shown in this paper) and the data  
244 (depth, temperature, salinity and  $A_T$ ) of reference bottom water samples (see 2.3.  
245 *Discrete water samples*). Since background  $pCO_2$  showed daily oscillation, we  
246 determined a linear regression of the raw  $pCO_2$  sensor data vs. calculated baseline  
247  $pCO_2$  data, which was used for correction of all the raw ISFET- $pCO_2$  data before  
248 presenting it here (Shitashima et al., 2013).

249

250 (c) A HydroC™-CO<sub>2</sub> sensor from CONTROS Systems and Solutions, GmbH,  
251 [www.contros.eu](http://www.contros.eu) (Saderne et al., 2013, Fiedler et al., 2013, Fietzek et al., 2014) was  
252 deployed twice for profiling and towed measurements in the water column (Table 1).  
253 Data for 2D *p*CO<sub>2</sub> mapping of the sites Z1 through Z4 was collected during the final  
254 day of the gas release (day 36) and 5 days after the gas was switched off (day 41). The  
255 sensor was towed behind the vessel at 0.1-0.2 knts ~1 m above the bottom along  
256 transect from Z1 to Z4. In between the different zones it was heaved and veered by  
257 winch at 0.1 m/s.

258 The HydroC™ determines the *p*CO<sub>2</sub> in water at an accuracy of better than ± 1%  
259 by NDIR absorption measurements within an internal headspace realized by means of  
260 a flat membrane equilibrator (Fietzek et al., 2014). The sensor was factory calibrated  
261 in water just before and after the two deployments at an *in situ* temperature of 11°C  
262 for a range of 200–1700 µatm (Fietzek et al., 2014). The field data was drift corrected  
263 by considering the information from the regular sensor zeroings as well as the pre-  
264 and the post-deployment calibration of the sensor. Data was processed as described in  
265 Fietzek et al. (2014), with the transformation of the two polynomials being carried out  
266 based on sensor runtime. All sensor zeroings and subsequent 5 min flush intervals  
267 were removed from the data set for response time determination and correction  
268 (Fiedler et al., 2013). The sensor's response times were determined automatically  
269 from the recovery of the corrected *p*CO<sub>2</sub> signals within the flush intervals, neglecting  
270 the initial *p*CO<sub>2</sub> values representing gas mixing artefacts within the internal gas  
271 stream (Fiedler et al., 2013). An average response time ( $\tau_{63}$ ) of 84 s with a standard  
272 deviation of ± 4.2 s was derived from a total of 6 flush intervals during deployment.  
273 Since the sensor only experienced a maximum temperature difference of 1°C between  
274 all sensor zeroings and the maximum deployment depth was less than 15 m, both  
275 temperature and depth influence on the response time were neglected and a constant

276 response time was assumed for further processing. Using a numerical inversion  
277 algorithm the data was finally corrected for the time-lag influence caused by the  
278 sensor's time constant (Miloshevich et al., 2004). Different averaging methods were  
279 applied to the data prior to the response time correction depending on whether the  
280 correction was used to enhance temporal resolution of events or to minimize noise  
281 amplification caused by the processing algorithm.

282

283 (d) To obtain more background data on currents, salinity and temperature two  
284 RCM9 instruments from Aanderaa Data Instruments, [www.aanderaa.com](http://www.aanderaa.com), were also  
285 deployed and relocated in the area at several occasions (Table 1).

286

### 287 *2.3. Discrete water samples*

288

289 For values of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and total alkalinity ( $A_T$ ) in the  
290 bottom water a series of discrete samples was collected by boat in 5L Niskin bottles 1  
291 meter above the bottom (Table 2). These samples were analysed for DIC and  $A_T$  in  
292 the lab using standard techniques. For DIC analysis samples were measured in  
293 triplicates with an Apollo SciTech DIC analyzer (AS-C3), which uses a LI-COR  
294  $CO_2/H_2O$  (LI-7000) infrared analyser to detect the  $CO_2$  released from the samples  
295 after acidification with a 10%  $H_3PO_4$  solution. Standard deviation of DIC  
296 measurements was typically 0.05% using this system. Potentiometric titration and  
297 subsequent Gran evaluation was used for  $A_T$  samples (Dickson et al., 2003). For  
298 comparison with *in situ* sensor data, the DIC and  $A_T$  data were converted into  $pCO_2$   
299 with an overall uncertainty of  $\pm 10 \mu atm$  using the CO2SYS software (Lewis and  
300 Wallace, 1998) using *in situ* temperature and salinity from SBE19 CTD.

301

302 Table 2 Summary of the reference  $p\text{CO}_2$  data derived from discrete water samples vs.  
 303 measured by  $p\text{CO}_2$  optode, ISFET-based  $p\text{CO}_2$  sensor and HydroC™ at Z1.  
 304

Date/Day of experiment	Water samples ( $\mu\text{atm}$ )	Optode ( $\mu\text{atm}$ )	ISFET ( $\mu\text{atm}$ )	HydroC™ ( $\mu\text{atm}$ )	Tide	CO <sub>2</sub> release
31/05/12 day 14	369	-	461	-	low	Yes
18/06/12 day 32	362	390	671	-	low	Yes
22/06/12 day 36 (morning)	-	-	846	367 <sup>†</sup> (538,508)	high-low	Yes
22/06/12 day 36 (afternoon)	-	-	807	362 <sup>†</sup> (737, 479, 504)	low-high	Yes
27/06/12 day 41 (morning)	348	397	-	-	low-high	No
27/06/12 day 41 (afternoon)	-	377	-	368 <sup>†</sup>	high-low	No
11/07/12 day 55	349	380*	-	-	high	No
18/09/12 day 90	373	342	-	-	low	No

305 \*Data indicates the value measured closest to the time of water sampling for referencing.

306 †Data resembles averaged baseline values with the peak values in brackets.  
 307

308

#### 309 2.4. Multivariate data analysis

310

311 Recorded data from the Seaguard® at CO<sub>2</sub> release rate, gas release rates, tidal  
 312 oscillations and meteorological parameters such as air and water temperature, wind  
 313 direction and speed, precipitation and atmospheric pressure, was used for multivariate  
 314 data analysis using SIMCA 13 software (Umetrics AB, [www.umetrics.com](http://www.umetrics.com)). First, a  
 315 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was applied to each deployment dataset  
 316 (Seaguard\_D1-D2, \_D4-D6) to identify dependencies between the variables, such as

317  $p\text{CO}_2$ , oxygen, salinity, temperature, gas release rate (where applicable), tidal  
318 conditions and meteorological parameters. PCA usually serves for initial inspection of  
319 data for outliers, identifying significance of each factor based on a simple analysis  
320 tools (scatter and loadings plots, coefficients list, etc). After comparison of the  
321 patterns for the gas release phase and recovery phase, conclusions about the response  
322 of the system to external  $\text{CO}_2$  supply were made.

323       Based on the outcome from PCA, a Partial Least Squares (PLS) regression model  
324 was used to identify parameters, which contributed significantly to  $p\text{CO}_2$  and oxygen  
325 variations both during the gas release (Seaguard\_D1, \_D2, \_D4-release) and after it  
326 was cut off (Seaguard\_D4-recovery, \_D5, \_D6). A supervised PLS model aimed to  
327 put  $p\text{CO}_2$  and oxygen variations into a context of their correlation with each other and  
328 the relation to other parameters. For this  $p\text{CO}_2$  and oxygen parameters were assigned  
329 in the model as Y variables or result variables, which depend on X variables, i.e. other  
330 measured parameters.

331

### 332       2.5. Hydrodynamic modelling

333

334       High resolution unstructured grid hydrodynamic model for Loch Etive and  
335 Ardmucknish bay, developed at SAMS (Aleynik et al., 2012), was used for modelling  
336 of the hydrodynamic conditions at the site. A major advantage of the Finite Volume  
337 Community Ocean Model (FVCOM) used here, is in its geometric flexibility, making  
338 it a suitable solution for hydrographical modelling along complex coastlines and  
339 bathymetry, such as off the West coast of Scotland. The model consists of 6601  
340 horizontal non-overlapping triangular elements and 3776 vertices, with enhanced  
341 horizontal resolution (22 m) in the narrows and over the sills (Connel, Bon Awe). At  
342 the  $\text{CO}_2$  release site, the model has an effective resolution of 120-180 m. In the

343 vertical dimension, the model consists of 11 terrain following layers. FVCOM is a  
344 primitive-equation, free-surface, hydrostatic model described in details in Chen et al.  
345 (2003). A model simulation was performed using real-world data – laterally it was  
346 forced with a set of CTD data from fixed platforms deployed around Ardmucknish  
347 Bay. Tidal forcing was calculated with 6 major tidal harmonics (M2, S2, N2, K2, O1,  
348 K1) for the nearest port in Oban, and the meteo-forcing parameters (short-wave and  
349 net heat flux, precipitation/evaporation, atmospheric pressure) have been derived from  
350 the Met-Office weather station at Dunstaffnage. Freshwater runoff was compiled  
351 using a lagged precipitation rate over the catchment area. The forecast parameters of  
352 the model include surface elevation, temperature, salinity, current velocity and with  
353 the dye-CO<sub>2</sub> module developed by Torres et al. (2012, pers. communication)  
354 prediction of several components of the carbonate system - DIC concentration, pH  
355 and *p*CO<sub>2</sub> in seawater - is also possible (see Supplementary material).

356

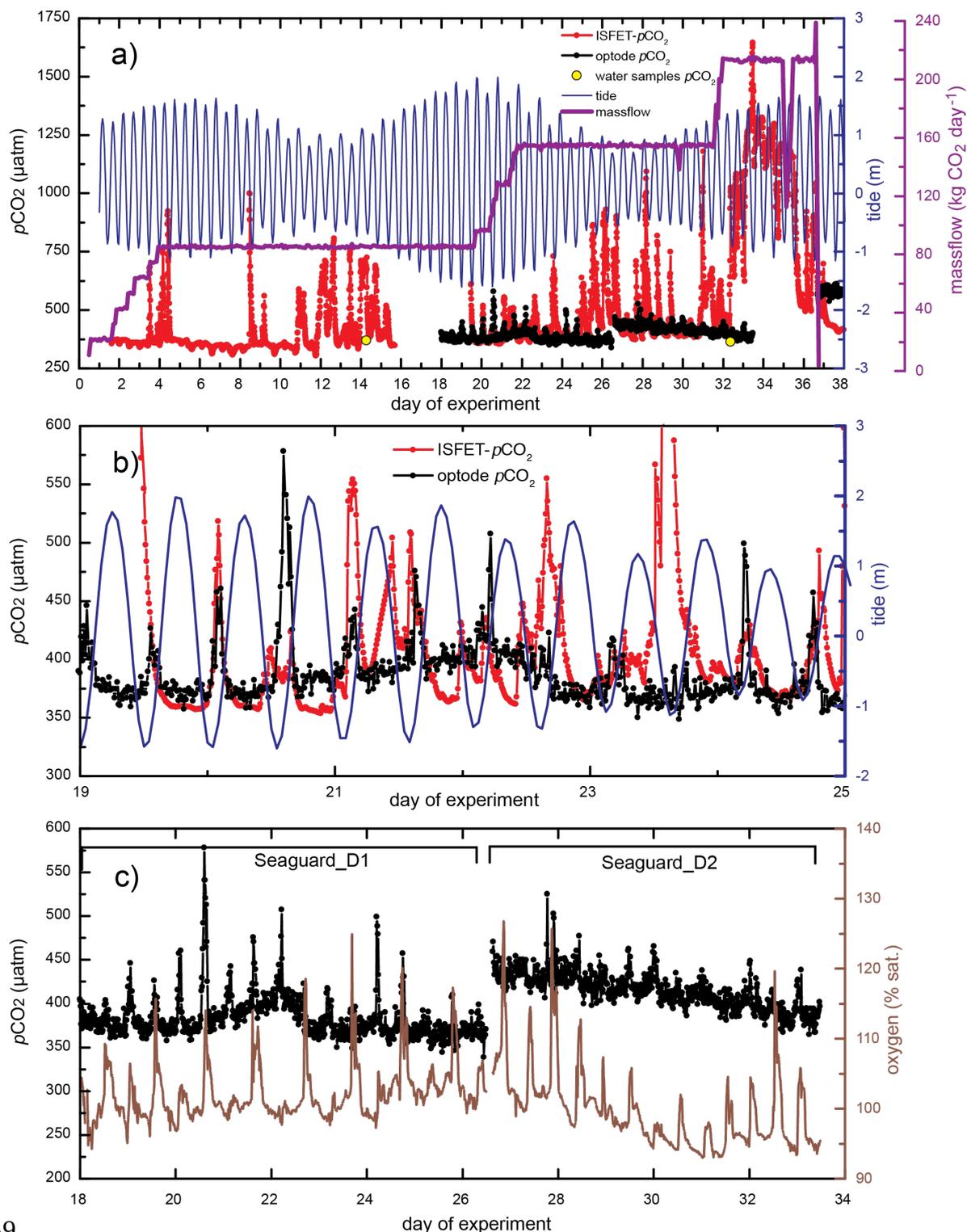
### 357 3. Results

358

#### 359 3.1. *p*CO<sub>2</sub> during gas release

360

361 Figure 3a presents details of *p*CO<sub>2</sub> changes during the release phase, continuously  
362 measured with the two different independent sensors systems, i.e. *p*CO<sub>2</sub> optode and  
363 ISFET-*p*CO<sub>2</sub>, along with the tidal conditions and gas release rates. Correlation  
364 between *p*CO<sub>2</sub> values measured by optode and ISFET-based sensor, and water  
365 samples data is given in the Table 2. Figure 3b shows *p*CO<sub>2</sub> variations measured with  
366 optode and ISFET-*p*CO<sub>2</sub> in correlation with tidal circulation. Figure 3c highlights the  
367 redeployment of Seaguard<sup>®</sup> instrument at the release site and related to this event  
368 changes in *p*CO<sub>2</sub> and oxygen time-series.



369  
 370 Fig. 3. Summary of data collected during the QICS campaign.  
 371 a) period of  $\text{CO}_2$  release:  $p\text{CO}_2$  data from optode (black line) is compared to ISFET-  $p\text{CO}_2$   
 372 sensor (red) with respect to tidal variability (blue) and mass flow rate of  $\text{CO}_2$  release (violet).  
 373 Drop in the massflow rate between the days 35 and 36 was due to freezing of the system,  
 374 which delivered  $\text{CO}_2$ ;  
 375 b) correlation between the peaks in  $p\text{CO}_2$  optode and ISFET-  $p\text{CO}_2$  data and tidal circulation  
 376 at Z1 during the release;  
 377 c)  $p\text{CO}_2$  and oxygen time-series recorded during two deployments of the Seaguard<sup>®</sup> at the  
 378 release site (Z1). A gap on day 26 indicates recovery and redeployment of the instrument.  
 379 Spikes on both time-series are attributed to tidal cycles at the site.

380 A strong dependency between low tide and  $p\text{CO}_2$  optode measurements was  
381 observed and is highlighted below in 3.4. *Multivariate analysis*. A tidal relation was  
382 also visible from the ISFET based pH/ $p\text{CO}_2$  sensor deployed about 1 meter away  
383 from the Seaguard<sup>®</sup> (Fig. 3b). This sensor was placed  $\sim 3$  cm above the seafloor, at the  
384 rim of one of the pockmark actively venting  $\text{CO}_2$ . Although having very similar  
385 baseline values, e.g.  $356 \pm 4$   $\mu\text{atm}$  for ISFET- $p\text{CO}_2$  sensor and  $369 \pm 7$   $\mu\text{atm}$  for  $p\text{CO}_2$   
386 optode during days 18-21 of  $\text{CO}_2$  release, the ISFET- $p\text{CO}_2$  sensor showed generally  
387 higher amplitude  $p\text{CO}_2$  peaks during low tide (up to 420-900  $\mu\text{atm}$ ) comparing to the  
388 corresponding peaks from the  $p\text{CO}_2$  optode (up to 400-580  $\mu\text{atm}$ ). Most of the tidally  
389 induced  $p\text{CO}_2$  peaks from both the optode and ISFET sensors did concur, but not  
390 always (Fig. 3b).

391 The tidal  $p\text{CO}_2$  peaks were not reflected at all in the data from discrete water  
392 samples collected randomly  $\sim 1$  m above the seabed just outside the ‘footprint’ of the  
393 bubbling area in Z1. The water samples appeared to reflect approximate baseline  
394 levels for  $p\text{CO}_2$  at the release and did not represent values of peak concentrations:  
395 values showed 362  $\mu\text{atm}$  on day 32, while optode and ISFET-  $p\text{CO}_2$  detected 390 and  
396 671  $\mu\text{atm}$ , respectively.

397 Steep vertical and horizontal  $p\text{CO}_2$  gradients were observed while towing the  
398 CONTROS HydroC<sup>™</sup> sensor  $\sim 1$  m above the bottom from Z1 to Z4 on day 36, the  
399 last day of the gas release. At the Z4 (control site) the sensor measured a  $p\text{CO}_2$  of  
400  $368 \pm 2$   $\mu\text{atm}$  without significant spatial heterogeneity. For Z2 and Z3 the same values  
401 were obtained,  $363 \pm 2$   $\mu\text{atm}$ , which were of comparable magnitude to those at the  
402 control site. When measuring closer to the epicentre in Z1, baseline values at the same  
403 depth were  $367 \pm 1$   $\mu\text{atm}$  and  $362 \pm 2$   $\mu\text{atm}$  in the morning and the afternoon,  
404 respectively. Sharp  $p\text{CO}_2$  peaks of as high as 540  $\mu\text{atm}$  and 740  $\mu\text{atm}$  in the morning  
405 and the afternoon respectively, were observed when the sensor was towed through the

406 area with active venting of CO<sub>2</sub>, i.e. within the ‘footprint’ of the gas release (Fig. 5a  
407 shows the afternoon data). At the same time ISFET- *p*CO<sub>2</sub> recorded 800-850 μatm  
408 closer to the bottom. Later during the same day, the *p*CO<sub>2</sub> optode recorded ~570 μatm  
409 *p*CO<sub>2</sub> 30 cm above the seabed and the ISFET *p*CO<sub>2</sub> sensor showed as high as 1250  
410 μatm at 3 cm above the seabed. The fact that HydroC™ detected higher peak values  
411 in the afternoon correlates with the tide dependency observed by the sensors deployed  
412 on the seabed. Low tide occurred at the site in conjunction with the afternoon  
413 measurements as can be seen in the lower water depth of Fig. 5a compared to Fig. 5b,  
414 which shows a transect of the same area obtained during high tide.

415 At two occasions distinct peaks in the HydroC™ signal even suggest detection of  
416 ascending gas bubbles in the water column (one example depicted in Fig. 5a at around  
417 14:32). This observation was underlined by visual evidence of gas bubbles at the  
418 water surface around the same time. Moreover, the towed HydroC™ measurements  
419 showed distinct *p*CO<sub>2</sub> differences between the surface water and the bottom water  
420 (see Fig. 5b). It could be observed that these differences were influenced by tides  
421 and currents as they contributed to mixing of the entire water column within the  
422 experimental area, thus affecting the observed gradients (data not shown here).

423

### 424 *3.2. pCO<sub>2</sub> during recovery period*

425

426 ISFET-*p*CO<sub>2</sub> sensor showed values, which approached the background level,  
427 starting already from day 35 (one day before the gas was shut off) and levelled off at  
428 ~350 μatm on day 37. Actual release of CO<sub>2</sub> gas was stopped after day 36, which was  
429 followed by decline in the *p*CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at the epicentre as detected by *p*CO<sub>2</sub>  
430 optode (Fig. 6). Within 7 days after terminating the gas flow, *p*CO<sub>2</sub> values had  
431 reached stable baseline partial pressure of ~345-355 μatm. The post-injection

432 recovery pattern was also supported by data from discrete water samples (Table 2):  
433 DIC and  $A_T$  values increased by 75 and 105  $\mu\text{mol kg SW}^{-1}$  and stabilized at the levels  
434 of 2095 and 2213  $\mu\text{mol kgSW}^{-1}$ , respectively (Fig. 6). As the relative increase in  $A_T$  is  
435 higher than the increase in DIC, pH shifts to higher values indicating decrease in  
436  $p\text{CO}_2$ . In Z1 the HydroC™  $p\text{CO}_2$  sensor measured on average  $368 \pm 2 \mu\text{atm}$  ~1 m  
437 above the bottom on the fifth day of recovery (day 41, Fig. 5b). With measured  $p\text{CO}_2$   
438 values of  $369 \pm 2 \mu\text{atm}$ ,  $368 \pm 2 \mu\text{atm}$  and  $370 \pm 1 \mu\text{atm}$  for zones Z2, Z3 and Z4  
439 respectively no significant spatial variation was detectable.

440 After recovery to background values, the partial pressure measured by the  $p\text{CO}_2$   
441 optode typically oscillated with  $\pm 30 \mu\text{atm}$  around mean value of  $\sim 360 \mu\text{atm}$ .  
442 However, between August 2<sup>nd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup>  $p\text{CO}_2$  levels increased significantly with  $\sim 100$   
443  $\mu\text{atm}$  compared to background values. A similar event happened during August 8-9<sup>th</sup>  
444 and resulted in an additional rise in  $p\text{CO}_2$  with  $\sim 70 \mu\text{atm}$  (Fig. 4a). Both these  
445 occasions coincided with distinct changes in the general circulation pattern and in the  
446 direction of the water flow, as recorded by the current meters on the Seaguard® and  
447 the RCM instruments (see 3.5. *Water circulation in Ardmucknish Bay: recorded*  
448 *velocity regime*).

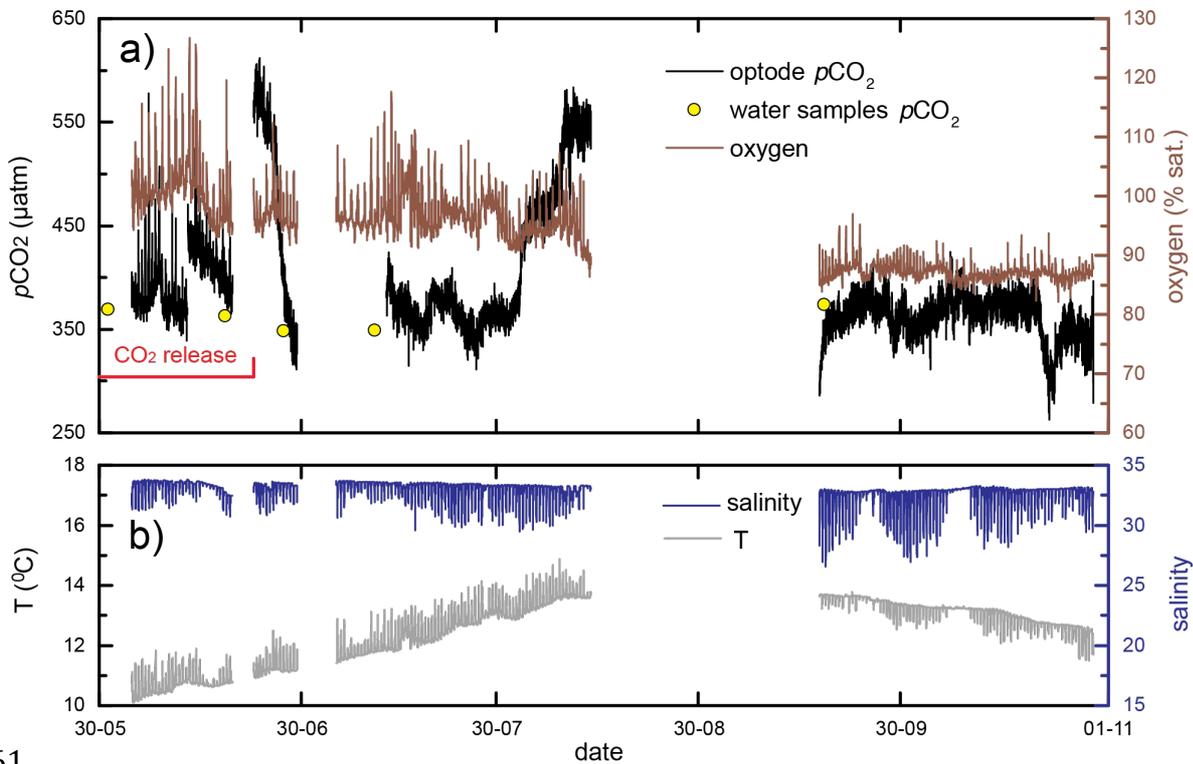
449

### 450 3.3. Background parameters (temperature, salinity, currents and oxygen)

451

452 Results from June-October 2012, when the Seaguard® instrument was deployed,  
453 are presented in Fig. 4. The clear influence of tides is visible in most of the data.  
454 Temperature varied between 9.9-14.3°C and followed the general seasonal pattern  
455 with increasing temperatures from May to August and slowly decreasing through  
456 September-October to 12.5°C. Depending on tidal conditions temperature changed  
457 within  $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ . Recorded temperature time-series showed negative spikes at low tide

458 during September-October, and positive spikes during June-August, meaning higher  
 459 temperature at the surface during summer.  
 460



461  
 462  
 463 Fig. 4. Summary of Seaguard<sup>®</sup> data over June-October 2012.  
 464 a) pCO<sub>2</sub> and oxygen with a marked period of gas release, and b) temperature and salinity  
 465 time-series recorded at the release site (Z1). Yellow circles in a) indicate pCO<sub>2</sub> data calculated  
 466 from water samples analyzed for DIC and A<sub>T</sub>. Gaps in the data are due to service of  
 467 Seaguard<sup>®</sup> instrument or its' use in a different project.  
 468

469 Salinity varied between 25.7 and 33.8 with tidally induced salinity oscillations in  
 470 the order of 1-5, and with higher amplitudes during the final September-October  
 471 deployment. It is worth to notice that water in Ardmucknish Bay was freshening by  
 472 river discharge, and salinity gradually decreased from 33.4 to 32.5 during June-  
 473 October (Fig. 4b)

474 Currents were strongly affected by the tidal circulation. They varied between 0-  
 475 40.5 cm/s with an overall average of 3.3 cm s<sup>-1</sup>. The relatively weak average current  
 476 speed reflects the position of the instrument close to the bottom. The Doppler Current  
 477 Sensor of the Seaguard<sup>®</sup> was positioned about 40 cm above the seabed, which is

478 likely to be close to the logarithmic boundary layer. The two other recording current  
479 meters (Table 1) were positioned in frames ~80 cm above the seabed. These  
480 instruments recorded somewhat higher average current speeds, 4.8 cm s<sup>-1</sup> (RCM#643)  
481 and 3.6 cm s<sup>-1</sup> (RCM#419) respectively, from May-September. Measurements from  
482 the current meters were used to calibrate and validate the circulation model used in  
483 this study.

484 Oxygen varied between 60-127% air saturation (Fig. 4a) in the bottom water.  
485 Especially in the beginning of June a combination of tides and primary  
486 production/consumption could lead to 40% changes in air saturation in some hours.  
487 There was a general decrease in the average air saturation from ~105% in the  
488 beginning of June to ~85% in the end of October.

489 Oxygen saturation time-series during post-injection period showed moderate  
490 daily oscillations correlating with tidal circulation in the bay. The amplitude of these  
491 oscillations were higher during June-August, governed by primary production and  
492 availability of solar radiation at that period. In September-October the amplitude of  
493 oscillations was 2-3 times lower, and mainly controlled by temperature changes at the  
494 bottom due to tidal circulation. At that period, surface water was colder than near the  
495 bottom, implying lower temperature and higher oxygen concentration at low tide.

496

#### 497 *3.4. Multivariate analysis*

498

499 PCA analysis of the collected data showed a poor correlation between weather  
500 parameters, such as wind speed and direction, precipitation, PAR and air temperature,  
501 and variations in *p*CO<sub>2</sub>, oxygen, salinity, temperature, currents in the bottom water;  
502 and tidal activity. Hence weather data was excluded from further evaluation.

503 A supervised PLS model for each of the five Seaguard<sup>®</sup> deployments in Z1  
504 (Table 1) showed correlation between the variations of oxygen and  $p\text{CO}_2$  in  
505 particular, and between the variations of oxygen and  $p\text{CO}_2$  and the other measured  
506 parameters (salinity, temperature and tides) in general. At the time when the  
507 Seaguard<sup>®</sup> was deployed at the epicentre (Seaguard\_D1, \_D2, \_D4-release) of gas  
508 release, a strong correlation between peaks in  $p\text{CO}_2$  and low tide was observed, and  
509 appeared as equally distanced from origo (centre point) variables in the scatter plot  
510 (Fig. 7a). No clear correlation in the pair  $p\text{CO}_2$ -oxygen was identified when the  
511 external source of  $\text{CO}_2$  was in operation during gas release.

512 Multivariate analysis of post-injection deployments (Seaguard\_D4-D6), in  
513 contrary, revealed a clear negative correlation between  $p\text{CO}_2$  and oxygen variations,  
514 while connection to the tidal cycle weakened (Fig. 7b).

515

### 516 *3.5. Water circulation in Ardmucknish Bay: recorded velocity regime*

517

518 The dominating circulation pattern at the release site is determined by a  
519 combination of coastline, bathymetry, tides and, to a lower extent, by the wind  
520 pattern. A jet current heading toward the NW coast of the Ardmucknish bay is formed  
521 at each tidal cycle on the ebb stage. When the leading edge of the tidal 'bora' (a train  
522 of internal waves set at the tidal front) reaches shallower water the flow splits into a  
523 pair of smaller cyclonic and antic-cyclonic 'eddies', which decay when approaching  
524 the opposite shore.

525 The progressive vector diagrams calculated from the velocity records of the three  
526 current meters deployed at different distances from the impact site Z1 demonstrate the  
527 shift in direction and smaller variations in intensity of the general flow, which  
528 confined in time with the relocation of the instruments (Fig. 8a and Table 2). The

529 changes in the circulation pattern and velocity records also correlated with wind  
530 velocities maps at 10m height over Ardmucknish Bay (Supplementary material).

531 Long-term deployment data from the RCMs and Seaguard<sup>®</sup> (June 6<sup>th</sup>-October  
532 28<sup>th</sup>) confirmed what was found with the short-term record analyses: at Z4 the  
533 velocity vector rotation was predominantly counter clockwise (CCW) cyclonic. At  
534 both the near source sites Z3 and Z1, the velocity vector rotation was clockwise (CW)  
535 anti-cyclonic.

536 The Seaguard<sup>®</sup> current profiler registered several occasions with sudden changes  
537 in the main flow. Between July 5<sup>th</sup> and July 27<sup>th</sup> the flow was predominantly towards  
538 NE. On July 28<sup>th</sup> it changed its direction by ~180 degrees towards SW until July 31<sup>st</sup>.  
539 From August 1<sup>st</sup> to August 12<sup>th</sup> it changed again towards ENE gradually veering  
540 towards E. From the recorded  $p\text{CO}_2$  time-series (Fig. 4a) it is seen that the latter  
541 change in circulation coincided in time with the two-step elevation in  $p\text{CO}_2$  values  
542 compared to the baseline.

543

## 544 **4. Discussion**

545

### 546 *4.1. Detection of CO<sub>2</sub> release*

547

548 The QICS CO<sub>2</sub> release experiment proved to be challenging, but yet feasible in  
549 terms of chemically detecting the signal from and describing the distribution of the  
550 released CO<sub>2</sub>, escaping from the seabed into the overlying water column.

551 The distribution of gaseous and dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> in the water column was  
552 heterogeneous in both time and space during the release with bubble-streams  
553 regularly shifting location within the limited ‘footprint’ of the release (Cevaloglu et  
554 al., this issue) and also varying in intensity with the hydrostatic pressure (Fig. 3a, b;

555 Blackford et al., submitted). The complex hydrodynamic environment typical for  
556 coastal- and continental shelf settings made it even more challenging to clearly  
557 capture the CO<sub>2</sub> signal of the injected gas.

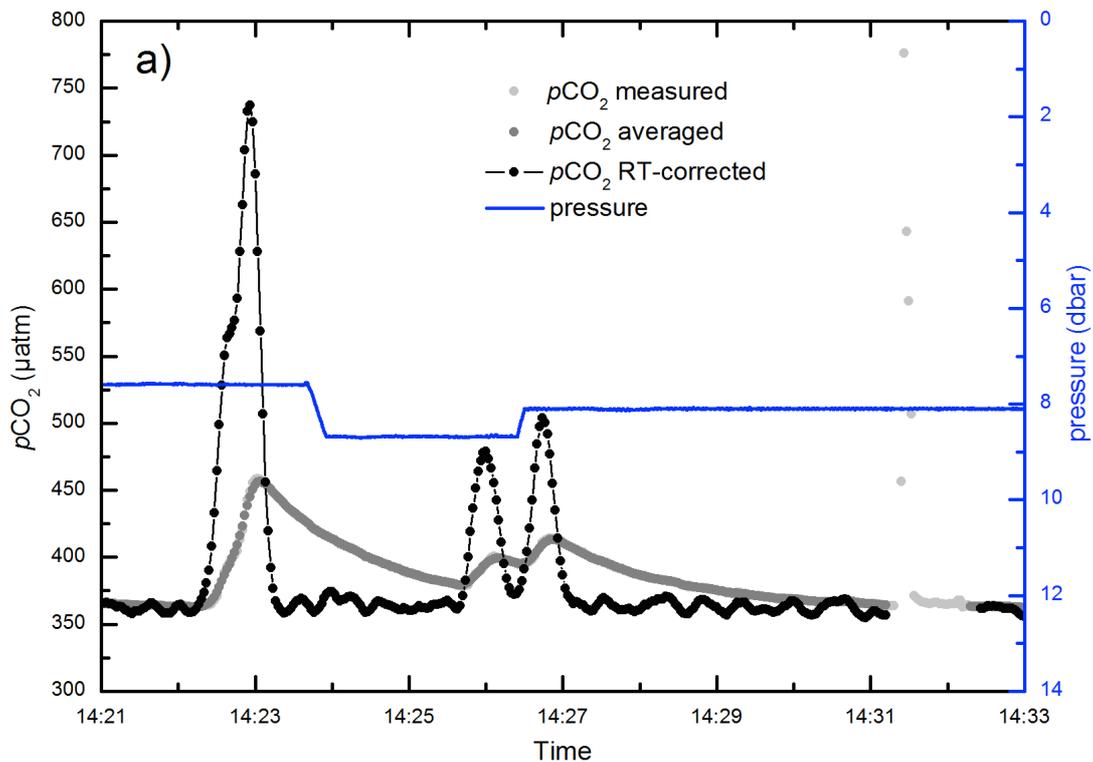
558 Using standard techniques, such as ship-based discrete water sampling, made it  
559 almost impossible to capture and describe established gradients in *p*CO<sub>2</sub> due to their  
560 lack of temporal coverage and low spatial precision. Thus, it was possible to obtain  
561 only background values of *p*CO<sub>2</sub>, which appeared to be insufficiently precise in this  
562 case to detect the leakage of CO<sub>2</sub>. Discrete water samples were however required to  
563 quality assure and *in situ* calibrate the *p*CO<sub>2</sub> optode and ISFET-*p*CO<sub>2</sub> sensor.  
564 Agreement between optode data and reference values from water samples confirmed  
565 stability and reliability of the *p*CO<sub>2</sub> optode measurements (Fig. 4a), and hence the  
566 robustness of this relative new technology.

567 Continuous *in situ* measurements in contrast to discrete sampling reflected the real  
568 dynamics and heterogeneity of *p*CO<sub>2</sub> distribution as a result of sub-seabed emissions  
569 during and after the actual release to the water column. Only 15% of the injected CO<sub>2</sub>  
570 escaped the sediment-water interface as gas bubbles at the highest injection rate (210  
571 kg CO<sub>2</sub> d<sup>-1</sup>); with the remaining 85% still captured within the sediments, either as gas  
572 bubbles or dissolved in the porewater (Blackford et al., submitted). The released  
573 amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> are a small fraction of what can be expected during real-life acute  
574 leaks minding realistic sizes of potential CCS. Nevertheless, the horizons of sharp  
575 concentration gradients are detectable by means of high-temporal observations of  
576 *p*CO<sub>2</sub> evolution at different levels above the bottom and different distances from the  
577 emission site.

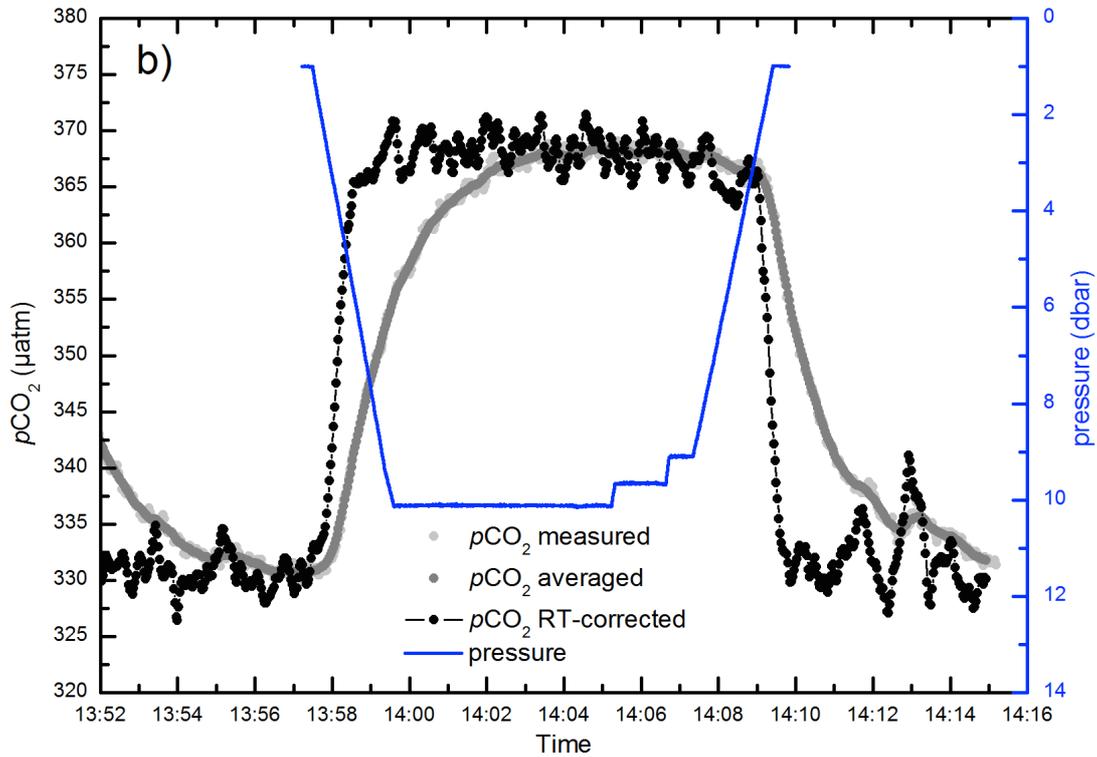
578 In close vicinity to the pockmarks, i.e. where the gas bubble streams enter the  
579 water column, tidally driven oscillations in the *p*CO<sub>2</sub> had the highest amplitude as  
580 detected by the ISFET-*p*CO<sub>2</sub> sensor. Dissolution of gas bubbles as they ascend in the

581 water column was described to control distribution of  $p\text{CO}_2$  in a vertical plane  
 582 (Dissanayake et al., 2012; Dewar et al., 2013). Elevated  $p\text{CO}_2$  values in the near-  
 583 bottom masses were further enhanced by mixing of  $\text{CO}_2$ -saturated pore water, which  
 584 escapes from pockmarks together with the gas stream. As a result, observed  $p\text{CO}_2$   
 585 peaks reached up to 1250  $\mu\text{atm}$  at low tide with occasional values of  $\sim 1600 \mu\text{atm}$ .  
 586 Weak bottom currents and density gradients prevented efficient mixing and restricted  
 587 upwelling of the denser  $\text{CO}_2$  saturated bottom water in favour of horizontal spreading.

588 At 30 cm above the seafloor, the  $p\text{CO}_2$  optode registered peak concentrations of  
 589 580  $\mu\text{atm}$  and equal to  $\pm 80\text{-}100 \mu\text{atm}$   $p\text{CO}_2$  horizontal gradient after relocation for  
 590  $\sim 1\text{m}$  (Fig. 3c). This was interpreted as evidence of strong spatial variability at the  
 591 release site where the outflowing gas could take different routes through the water  
 592 column depending on the variable hydrography and/or re-establishing of gas  
 593 chimneys with a new tidal cycle. After the Seaguard<sup>®</sup> was moved some of the tidal  
 594 night-time peaks in oxygen became more distinguished confirming that water column  
 595 conditions changed after relocation (Fig. 3c).



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Fig. 5.  $p\text{CO}_2$  data obtained from the HydroC™ along with depth information a) while drifting over the release area Z1 on day 36 and b) after the gas release ended on day 41. Note the different scales for  $p\text{CO}_2$ . In both plots the processed measured  $p\text{CO}_2$  signal is shown along with the averaged data (moving average of approx. 12 s width within the upper plot and approx. 30 s within the lower plot respectively) that served as an input to the iterative determination of the response time (RT) corrected  $p\text{CO}_2$  time-series.

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Occasional  $p\text{CO}_2$  peaks with high values in the order of 540-740  $\mu\text{atm}$ , detected during 2D-mapping of the release site with the HydroC™ sensor (Fig. 5a), pointed on the existence of microenvironments around each focused bubble stream, similar to what is observed in a close vicinity to pockmarks. The ‘footprint’ area of  $\sim 30$  m in diameter was verified by HydroC™ when drifting over Z1 (Fig. 5a). Since at the given vessel speed of  $\sim 0.1$  knts a temporal interval of 1 min correlates with a spatial extend of  $\sim 3$  m, 10 min interval in-between the peaks detected by HydroC™ (Fig. 5a) translates into  $\sim 30$  m long area of the transect. This indicated dispersion in the water column, which was limited to the restricted area of focused flow of  $\text{CO}_2$  bubble plumes, although with slightly shifting position controlled by tidal conditions and hydrography. In this context, high temporal resolution  $p\text{CO}_2$  data and response time

617 correction algorithms as applied within the profiling and drifting measurements of the  
618 HydroC™ proved to be useful and powerful observation means. By that distinct  $p\text{CO}_2$   
619 peaks on a sub minute time scale with recoveries back to baseline in between could be  
620 obtained (Fig. 5a) as well as depth profiles clarified (Fig. 5b).

621 Increasing flow rates appeared to have minor influence on the baseline values from  
622 optode and ISFET- $p\text{CO}_2$  except at the very end when the flow rates were finally  
623 increased to  $210 \text{ kg CO}_2 \text{ d}^{-1}$ . Intensified  $\text{CO}_2$  outflux further enhanced stratification of  
624 the water column, resulting into more pronounced difference in baseline values  
625 recorded  $\sim 3$  and  $\sim 30$  cm above the seafloor, i.e.  $1200$  and  $570 \mu\text{atm}$ , respectively. In  
626 this concern, the values measured  $\sim 3$  cm above to the bottom seemed to represent  
627 microenvironment created by a gas chimney at the pockmark, rather than background  
628  $p\text{CO}_2$  value in the water column. The seismic data confirmed that gas chimneys were  
629 fully developed all the way up to the sediment-water interface only towards the end of  
630 the release phase (Cevatoglu et al., this issue). The higher, but narrower peaks were  
631 observed during spring tides and lower, but broader peaks during neap tides. In the  
632 latter case the difference in hydrostatic pressure was lower, which allowed  $p\text{CO}_2$   
633 peaks to fully develop in-between the tidal changes.

634 Observations and measurements done in this study are unique in a way that it was  
635 a first attempt to assess the impacts of purposefully released  $\text{CO}_2$  in the water column  
636 by imitating real-life leakages from CCS. A natural analogue of ‘failed’ CCS, Panarea  
637 site, Southern Italy, was well described in terms of the impacts of leaked  $\text{CO}_2$  on  
638 seawater chemistry (Pearce et al., 2014). The study reports localized effect of seeping  
639 gas on seawater  $p\text{CO}_2$ : natural  $350\text{-}400 \mu\text{atm}$   $p\text{CO}_2$  was detected  $50$  m away from the  
640 outflux area, and  $\sim 2000 \mu\text{atm}$  and  $\sim 6000 \mu\text{atm}$  above the epicentre at moderate and  
641 high flux rates, respectively. Baseline values in the QICS, however, stayed within the  
642 natural range all the time, except for slight elevation to the end of release. This

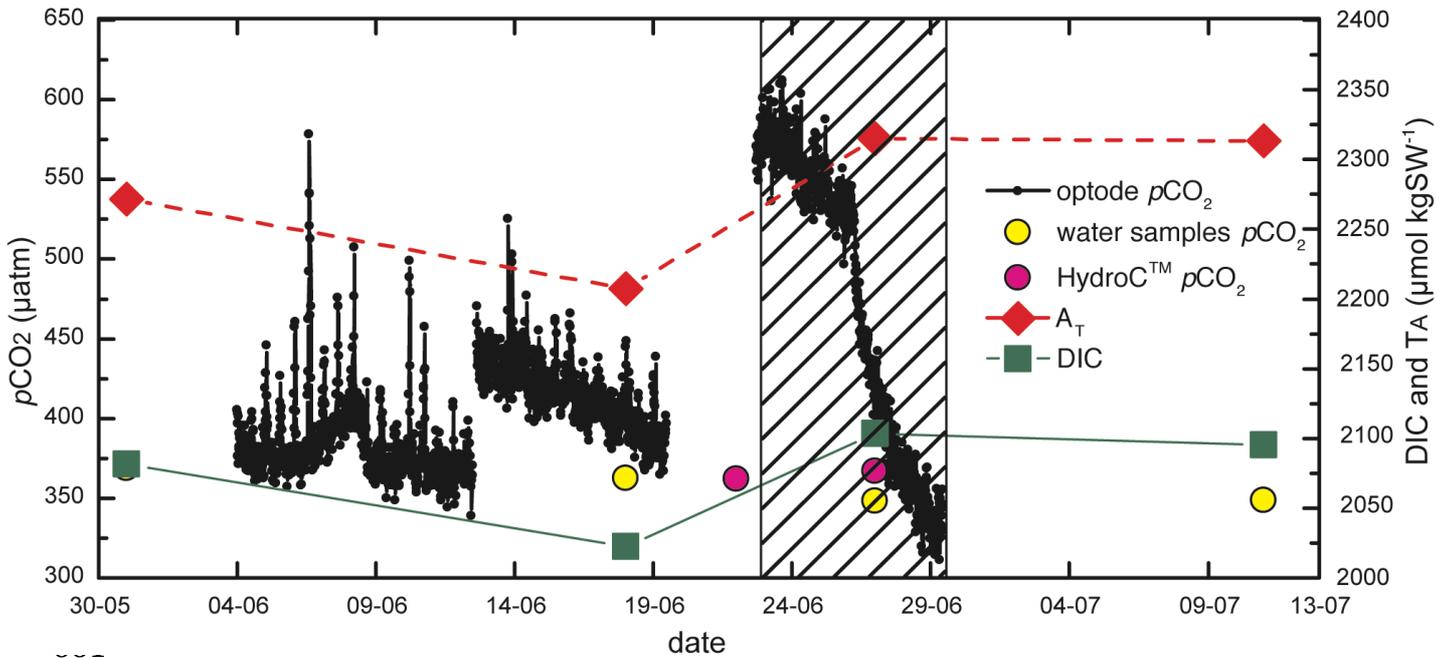
643 pointed on a smaller scale of CO<sub>2</sub> release within the QICS. Observed peak  
644 concentrations in order of 1600 μatm in this study, are much smaller compared to  
645 peak concentrations of 4.5 % CO<sub>2</sub> (or 45 000 μatm) at Panarea site. Higher CO<sub>2</sub> flux  
646 rates facilitated much stronger vertical and horizontal gradients of *p*CO<sub>2</sub> distribution,  
647 which could be detected by means of discrete water sampling along a transect at  
648 Panarea site. Observations of natural CO<sub>2</sub> leaking sites emphasize the effect of  
649 seasonal variability and hydrography both on concentration and distribution of CO<sub>2</sub>  
650 gas in the water column (Pearce et al., 2014), which have to be taken into  
651 consideration when designing a suitable monitoring strategy for future CCS.

652

#### 653 *4.2. Recovery after CO<sub>2</sub> release*

654

655 After the gas was shut off, *p*CO<sub>2</sub> in the water column recovered relatively fast,  
656 within 7 days according to *p*CO<sub>2</sub> optode. The towed HydroC™ measurements 1 m  
657 above the bottom on day 41 did not show any areas of elevated *p*CO<sub>2</sub> either. A  
658 gradual build-up of DIC and A<sub>T</sub> in the water column was tracked by simultaneous  
659 decrease of *p*CO<sub>2</sub> levels for ~1 week after the termination of the release, whereafter  
660 all three samples seemed to have reached equilibrium (Fig. 6).



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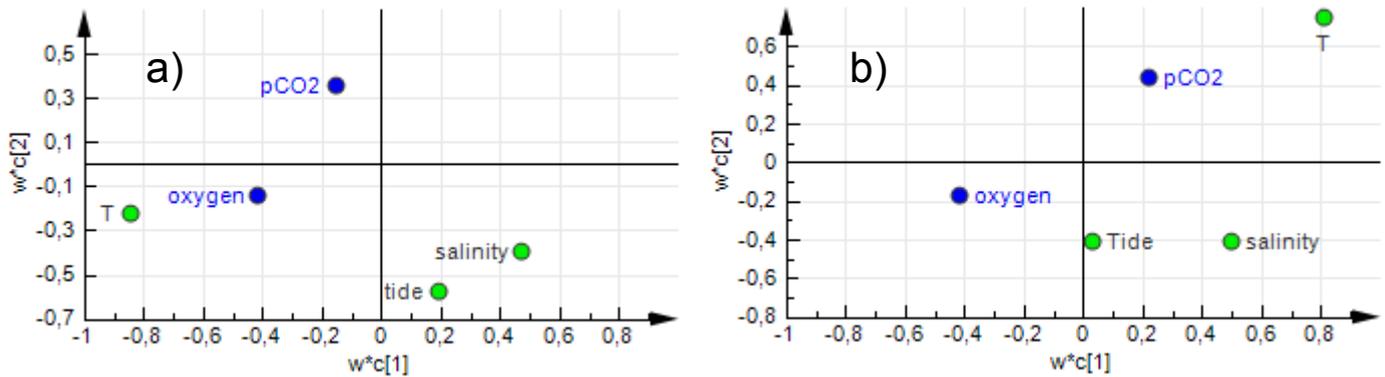
Fig. 6.  $p\text{CO}_2$  time-series recorded by optode during the release of  $\text{CO}_2$  and until the recovery (shaded area) of the water column. Water samples  $p\text{CO}_2$  values derived from DIC/ $A_T$  (yellow) and measured by HydroC<sup>TM</sup> 1m above the bottom (cyan) represent background levels. DIC and  $A_T$  analyzed from water samples are plotted for better understanding of recovery pattern shown by  $p\text{CO}_2$  optode. Shaded area shows recovery period in the water column.

670 Observed changes in carbonate chemistry are presumably a combination of natural  
671 forcing and flux out of the sediment, where the highest DIC concentrations were  
672 measured in the near-surface sediments after the injection was stopped (Blackford et  
673 al., submitted; Lichtschlag et al., this issue). Pore water concentrations of DIC and  $A_T$   
674 remained high even though the water column data indicated full recovery at day 41.  
675 The pore water chemistry (DIC and  $A_T$ ) returned to background concentrations, most  
676 likely through precipitation of  $\text{CaCO}_3$ , three weeks after the termination of the  $\text{CO}_2$   
677 release (Blackford et al, submitted).

678 Data from the ISFET- $p\text{CO}_2$  sensor indicated low values and a fast (<2 days)  
679 recovery pattern, which is further discussed in Shitashima et al. (this issue).

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688 Fig. 7. Graphic representation of PLS model applied in multivariate analysis of the collected  
 689 data: scatter plot of the Y ( $p\text{CO}_2$  and oxygen) and X (T, salinity, tide) weights. Axes represent  
 690 first ( $w^*c[1]$ ) and second vector component ( $w^*c[2]$ ) of the correlations between the  
 691 variables. a) Period with  $\text{CO}_2$  release. b) Period without  $\text{CO}_2$  release. The plots show the  
 692 relation between Y variables and X variables, and the relation within Y's and X's. Points in  
 693 the opposite corners and distanced far away from origo (centre point – crossing of the axes)  
 694 are indicating strong negative correlation between the variables. Points that are closer to the  
 695 centre have weaker influence to the model.

696

697 The multivariate analysis of data turned out to be an efficient tool in distinguishing  
 698 between periods with and without anthropogenic release. It was shown that in highly  
 699 dynamic waters like Ardmucknish Bay natural variability is comparable in its levels  
 700 of  $p\text{CO}_2$  variation with the effects of an external  $\text{CO}_2$  source (Fig. 4a). Natural  
 701 forcing, such as biological respiration and exchange of water masses, may be a  
 702 stronger factor in carbonate system dynamics than the effect of a small acute  $\text{CO}_2$   
 703 release. We addressed this problem by applying a multivariate analysis technique and  
 704 looked specifically for the strongest correlation, which dominates in favour to the  
 705 others. During the  $\text{CO}_2$  release phase, the strongest dependence was found between  
 706 peaks in  $p\text{CO}_2$  and low tide – which agreed with the observations of lack of bubble  
 707 streams during high tide. During the recovery phase, however, multivariate analysis  
 708 indicated strong negative correlation between the variations of  $p\text{CO}_2$  and oxygen,  
 709 implying that natural factors were now driving the changes in concentrations of these

710 two gases. The external source of CO<sub>2</sub> was breaking natural correlation between pCO<sub>2</sub>  
711 and oxygen.

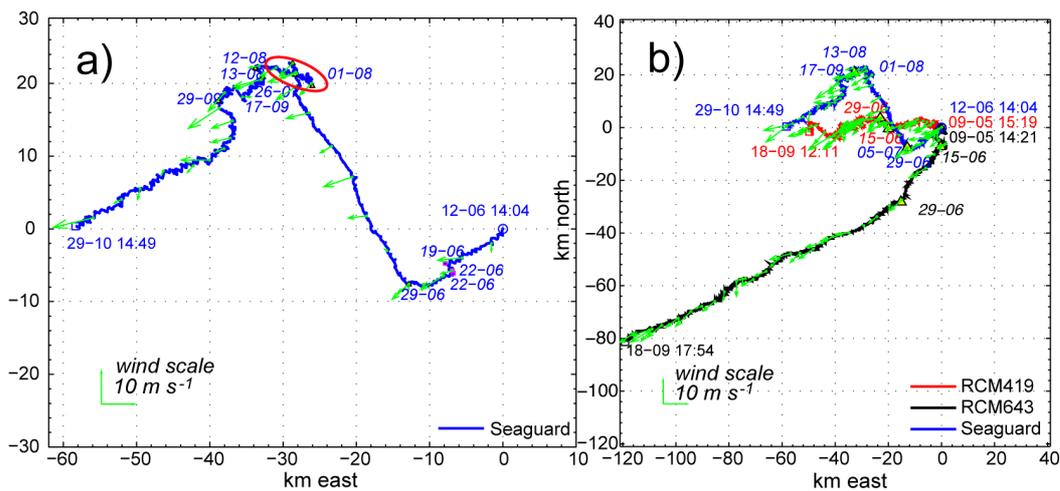
712

#### 713 4.4. Hydrographical conditions

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715 In general, the circulation in Ardmucknish Bay is tidally driven and the influence  
716 of tidal circulation was significant on all the measured parameters. In addition the  
717 water depth at the release site was ca. 10-12 m, allowing light penetration all the way  
718 to the bottom. This led to enhanced oxygen variations due to benthic activity: primary  
719 production and super-saturation of oxygen in bottom water during spring/summer  
720 days, and respiration during nights, which consumes oxygen (Fig. 4a).

721 From the observations of pCO<sub>2</sub>, main current velocity and velocity vector rotation  
722 data, we can conclude that a change in flow direction at Z1 could (a) enhance/inhibit  
723 clockwise (CW) anti-cyclonic velocity rotation, and (b) affect water renewal at the  
724 site. If the change in flow direction facilitates velocity rotation, this should result in  
725 quasi-stationary eddy-like structures, which decay and emerge with every tidal cycle.



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728 Fig. 8. Predominant water flow direction recorded by the current meters: a) details of  
729 Seaguard® data and b) overview of Seaguard® and RCM9 instruments deployed in  
730 Ardmucknish Bay in May/June-October 2012. Dates indicate relocation/redeployment of the  
731 instrument or change in flow direction. The red oval at a) indicate the change in flow  
732 direction between Aug 1<sup>st</sup> and Aug 12<sup>th</sup>. Three-daily average wind direction from the  
733 Dunstaffnage weather station is indicated with green arrows.

734  
735 These structures may increase the normal residence time of water and hence  
736 accumulate  $p\text{CO}_2$  at the site. If the flow direction facilitates renewal of the water with  
737 each tidal cycle, this would counteract, in our case, the clockwise anti-cyclonic  
738 rotation so that normal eddies lose their velocity, and prevent accumulation of  $p\text{CO}_2$ .  
739 A lowering of the  $p\text{CO}_2$  baseline would then be expected. At the release site there  
740 were several periods of cyclonic circulation, e.g. in the beginning of August (Fig. 8b),  
741 which increased the water residence time, and lead to occasional increases in  $p\text{CO}_2$   
742 levels.

743

## 744 **5. Conclusions**

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746 This work is focused on the technical challenges of detecting anthropogenic  $\text{CO}_2$   
747 leakages from a simulated sub-seabed  $\text{CO}_2$  storage site using instrumentation installed  
748 in the overlying water. Data provided by three different types of  $p\text{CO}_2$  sensors in  
749 combination with other chemical and physical sensors measuring water column  
750 conditions are presented and discussed in this paper.

751 We showed that purposefully released  $\text{CO}_2$  caused tidally-induced  $p\text{CO}_2$   
752 oscillations in the water column of Ardmucknish Bay in the order of 30-1250  $\mu\text{atm}$   
753 and resulted in a gradual build-up of the background level from 369  $\mu\text{atm}$  at the  
754 beginning up to  $\sim 570$   $\mu\text{atm}$  close to the seafloor, when the gas flow was the highest,  
755 i.e. 220  $\text{kg CO}_2 \text{ d}^{-1}$ . The release caused strong spatial heterogeneity of  $p\text{CO}_2$  above the  
756 epicentre detected by (a) two sensors measuring within 1 m from each other, i.e.  
757 optical  $p\text{CO}_2$  and ISFET- $p\text{CO}_2$  sensors, (b) by comparing mentioned devices' data  
758 with a 2D horizontal  $p\text{CO}_2$  map recorded by a third, NDIR-based  $p\text{CO}_2$  sensor, a  
759 HydroC™  $\text{CO}_2$ , and (c) by relocation of the  $p\text{CO}_2$  optode during redeployment.  
760 Acidification as a result of  $\text{CO}_2$  dissolution in the water column and the sediment was

761 temporary; the recovery took <7 days and <22 days, respectively, until the system  
762 returned to its original natural state.

763 This study demonstrates that detection of CO<sub>2</sub> leakage from an anthropogenic  
764 storage site is possible, but challenging. An aspect of strong heterogeneity of the  
765 distribution of the CO<sub>2</sub> gas bubble stream and of the associated dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> species  
766 should be taken into consideration as well as a localized ‘footprint’ of the release. The  
767 hydrographically complex system of Ardmucknish Bay introduced an additional  
768 challenge bringing more uncertainty to identifying changes associated with CO<sub>2</sub>  
769 leakages in contrary to those associated with natural coastal processes. In reality, CCS  
770 would most likely be situated at deeper sites with less variable water conditions. One  
771 should expect more pronounced effects of CO<sub>2</sub> leaks in the form of an increased  
772 background *p*CO<sub>2</sub> level, though with less pronounced gradients close to the breach.  
773 Hence, the detection with permanently deployed sensors measuring *p*CO<sub>2</sub>/pH/O<sub>2</sub> with  
774 high sensitivity is suggested as a feasible solution for the targeted areas near the  
775 hotspots, such as injection wells, pipelines, and other places of higher risks (e.g.  
776 known faults). Depending on the size of the sub-seabed geological storage, a few  
777 AUV or towed systems equipped with sensor packages, described in this paper and in  
778 Blackford et al. (submitted), should be deployed to scan larger areas on regular  
779 intervals. As highlighted in this study, response time of the instruments should be  
780 carefully addressed by introducing a correction for signal variation over time. This is  
781 applicable for both fixed and movable monitoring platforms. Treatment of incoming  
782 data and further assessing the probability of leakage should be done on-line in a  
783 framework of multivariate data analysis. This approach decreases risks of  
784 misinterpretation of the data caused by e.g. confusing natural variability with an  
785 actual leakage.

786 The results of our study emphasize the necessity of a unique approach in  
787 monitoring design of each potential storage site depending on e.g. water depth,  
788 bathymetry, etc., and solid knowledge about hydrological and biogeochemical  
789 conditions before the storage becomes operational.

790

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792

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804 and  $A_T$  as well as providing background CTD and currents data for the modelling.

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## 965 **8. Supplementary material**

966

967 Video1 - Introduction to quantifying and monitoring potential ecosystem impacts of  
968 geological carbon storage.mp4

969

970 Video2 - QICS experiment-replicated CO<sub>2</sub> leak from a CCS sub-seabed storage  
971 site.mp4

972

973 Model output 1 – An example of modelled tidally driven near-bottom DIC/TCO<sub>2</sub>  
974 (μmol kgSW<sup>-1</sup>) distribution with one-hour intervals for the end of May 2012 during  
975 the release in Ardmucknish Bay. Black arrows show vertically averaged (barotropic)  
976 current velocity in conditional units.

977

978 Model output 2 – High-resolution (2km grid) Atmospheric WRF model over West  
979 Scotland for the period of the QICS experiment. The picture sequence show be-  
980 weekly averaged wind velocity maps at 10 m height, extracted for the centre of the  
981 nested domain. Dates above the graph indicate the centre of 2 weeks average period.

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