

1 **Phosphorus behavior in sediments during a sub-seabed CO₂ controlled release experiment**

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19 ***Highlights***

20 ✓ Behavior of sedimentary phosphorus (P) during sub-seabed controlled release of CO₂.

21 ✓ Potential P release from CO₂ exposure varies widely as a function of sediment type.

22 ✓ Calcium-bound P acts as a source for P released by low pH induced by CO₂.

23 ✓ Iron-bound P acts as a sink for P released by low pH induced by CO₂.

24

25 **Abstract**

26 The CO₂ controlled release experiment “Quantifying and Monitoring Potential Ecosystem Impacts
27 of Geological Carbon Storage” (QICS) assessed the impacts of potential CO₂ leakage from
28 sub-seabed carbon capture and storage reservoirs to the marine environment. During QICS, CO₂
29 gas was released into shallow sediment in Ardmucknish Bay, Scotland, in the spring and summer
30 of 2012. As part of this project, we investigated the effects of CO₂ leakage on sedimentary
31 phosphorus (P), an essential nutrient for marine productivity. We found no statistically significant
32 effects during QICS, as the solid-phase P content in the sediment was constant before, during, and
33 after exposure to CO₂. However, laboratory experiments using marine sediment standard materials
34 as well as QICS sediment revealed substantial differences among these different sediment types in
35 their potential for P release during CO₂ exposure. Employing the SEDEX sequential extraction
36 technique to determine the sizes of the major P pools in the sediments, we showed that
37 calcium-bound P can be easily released by CO₂ exposure, whereas iron-bound P is a major sink of
38 released P. The overall impacts of CO₂ leakage on sediment P behavior appear to be low compared
39 to natural variability.

40

41 **Keywords:**

42 Sub-seabed carbon capture and storage; CCS; CO₂ leakage; marine sediment; phosphorus;
43 sequential extraction.

44

45 **1. Introduction**

46 Long-term storage of carbon dioxide (CO₂) beneath the seafloor promises to help mitigate global
47 climate change by reducing anthropogenic CO₂ emissions into the atmosphere (IPCC, 2005).

48 However, one risk associated with this carbon capture and storage (CCS) technology is the
49 potential for CO₂ leakage due to failures of the pipeline infrastructure and injection wells or due to
50 leakage through ruptures in the caprock, which may be created by events such as earthquakes
51 (Monastersky, 2013; Van Noorden, 2010).

52 The impact of CO₂ leakage on the marine environment is a special concern (De Vries et al.,
53 2013; Widdicombe et al., 2013). To date, most of our information about the effects of elevated
54 atmospheric concentrations of CO₂ on marine ecosystems comes from studies of ocean
55 acidification (Gattuso et al., 2008; Kleypas et al., 2006; Orr et al., 2005; Royal Society, 2005).
56 Some of these have shown that seawater acidification can alter the biogeochemical cycles of
57 nutrients. Huesemann et al. (2002) found that high levels of CO₂ inhibit nitrification in the water
58 column. Indexes of bioavailability of phosphorus (P) for marine microbes can be altered by
59 changes in pH due to increased CO₂. Uptake rates of P by phytoplankton and phosphatase activities
60 increase or decrease depending on the location and community structure (Endres et al., 2013;
61 Yamada and Suzumura, 2010). To examine the impact of high CO₂ levels on benthic biota, in situ
62 CO₂ exposure experiments have been conducted, but these are restricted to brief and localized
63 experiments using benthic chambers (Ishida et al., 2005, 2013).

64 In the recent experiment “Quantifying and Monitoring Potential Ecosystem Impacts of

65 Geological Carbon Storage” (QICS), 4.2 t of CO₂ gas was released through a pipeline drilled from
66 land into unconsolidated sediments about 11 m below the seabed (Blackford and Kita, 2013;
67 Blackford et al., 2014). The gas was released over a period of 37 days, and the effects were
68 monitored for a further 90 days. As part of the QICS experiment, we investigated the impacts of
69 CO₂ leakage on the behavior of P in the marine sediments.

70 Although P is an essential nutrient for sustaining marine productivity, an excess of P can
71 degrade water quality through eutrophication and the triggering of harmful algal blooms in coastal
72 ecosystems (Conley et al., 2009). Sediment is an important sink in the oceanic P cycle
73 (Benitez-Nelson, 2000; Paytan and McLaughlin, 2007), and sediment plays an essential role in
74 regulating P availability in shallow coastal environments through P release to and uptake from the
75 water column (e.g., Fisher et al., 1982; Slomp et al., 2013). Release and uptake of P by sediments
76 largely depend on the environmental conditions (e.g., redox potential, pH, activities of benthic
77 organisms) and the reactivity of the different geochemical pools of P in the sediment (Mayer and
78 Jarrell, 2000; Ruttenberg, 1992). Through its role as a major factor controlling sediment pH, CO₂
79 can regulate the behavior of P in sediments.

80 Our objective was to evaluate to what extent CO₂ leakage from CCS reservoirs into the
81 overlying sediment and seawater can induce changes in sedimentary P behavior. During the QICS
82 field experiment, we recorded the changes in P concentration in sediments before, during, and after
83 the CO₂ release in both the solid phase and pore water. We also conducted laboratory experiments
84 to evaluate the potential for P release from the sediment solid phase due to CO₂ exposure, using

85 standard reference materials of coastal and pelagic marine sediments as well as a sediment sample
86 collected from the QICS site. We used a sequential extraction technique to identify the pools of P in
87 sediment that are most sensitive to changes in CO₂ levels.

88

89 **2. Materials and methods**

90 **2.1 QICS field experiment and sampling**

91 The CO₂ release experiment was conducted in Ardmucknish Bay, on the west coast of
92 Scotland. A pipeline was drilled from land into shallow sediment 350 m offshore. CO₂ gas was
93 introduced into the sediment through a perforated diffuser (0.5 mm holes) at the end of the pipeline
94 11 m below the seabed. The depth of the overlying water column was 10–12 m, depending on the
95 state of the tide. A total of 4.2 t of CO₂ gas was injected over 37 days between 17 May and 22 June
96 2012, and the site was monitored for a further 90 days. CO₂ was initially injected at a rate of 10
97 kg/d, and then the injection rate was incrementally increased to 210 kg/d. Full details of the
98 experimental setup are given elsewhere (Blackford et al., 2014; Taylor et al., this issue).

99 Core samples of sediment were collected from directly above the CO₂ injection site (QICS
100 Zone 1; Z1) during six campaigns: (1) 10 May, seven days prior to the start of CO₂ release (D -7),
101 (2) 30–31 May (D 13/14, during injection), (3) 20–21 June (D 34/35, during injection), (4) 28–29
102 June (D 42/43, 5–6 days after the end of injection), (5) 9–10 July (D 54/55, 17–18 days after the
103 injection), and (6) 20–21 September (D 126/127, 89–90 days after the injection). Another core
104 sample was collected within an active pockmark close to a bubble stream (Zone 1 pockmark; Z1p)

105 on D 34/35. Cores were collected by SCUBA divers using acrylic tubes (5 cm i.d.). Immediately
106 after collection, pore water in the cores was extracted by filtering with Rhizon Pore Water
107 Samplers (pore size 0.15 μm , Rhizosphere Research Products, Netherlands). Subsamples of the
108 filtered pore water were fixed with mercuric chloride for dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) analysis
109 or frozen for dissolved inorganic phosphorus (DIP) analysis. The sediment cores were sliced into
110 sections 2 cm thick in a temperature-controlled room set at in situ temperature ($\sim 8^\circ\text{C}$), freeze-dried,
111 and then homogenized with an agate mortar and pestle (details in Lichtschlag et al., this issue).

112

113 **2.2 Laboratory CO₂ exposure experiment**

114 To quantify the potential for P release from different types of sediment, we conducted a series
115 of laboratory CO₂ exposure experiments using standard reference materials and a sediment sample
116 from the QICS site. Reference materials representing coastal and pelagic marine sediments (JMS-1
117 and JMS-2, respectively) were provided by the Geological Survey of Japan. The JMS-1 sediment
118 was collected from a eutrophic coastal basin (Tokyo Bay), and the JMS-2 sediment was a mixture
119 of pelagic and zeolitic clay from seven locations in the South Pacific (Terashima et al., 2002). The
120 QICS sample consisted of sediment from 0–2 cm depth, collected from site Z1 prior to release of
121 CO₂.

122 A schematic diagram of the experiment is shown in Figure 1. A 0.30 g sediment sample was
123 placed into a polycarbonate centrifuge tube and 30 mL of P-depleted pelagic seawater collected
124 from the surface of the western North Pacific Ocean (155°E, 20°N) was added. The concentration

125 of DIP, as a measure of dissolved orthophosphate, in the seawater sample was below detection
126 limit ($< 0.02 \mu\text{M}$). The seawater was filtered through a $0.2 \mu\text{m}$ Nuclepore filter (Whatman, UK)
127 before use to minimize microbiological influences, then saturated with CO_2 by bubbling just before
128 the experiment. The mixture of sediment and seawater was continuously bubbled with CO_2 gas for
129 24 hours at 25°C . To evaluate the effects of physical disturbance by bubbling, parallel experiments
130 bubbling laboratory air (rather than CO_2) were conducted as a control. After 24 hours, the mixture
131 was centrifuged (4000 rpm, 2380 g for 10 min), and the supernatant was analyzed for DIP. Another
132 30 mL aliquot of filtered seawater was then added to the same sediment sample, and this procedure
133 was repeated five times such that six sequential experiments were run for each sediment type.

134

135 **2.3 Chemical analysis**

136 The total P content of the sediment solid phase (total P) was determined in the freeze-dried
137 samples by using the method of Aspila et al. (1976), slightly modified by Suzumura (2008). Briefly,
138 0.5 mL of 0.17 M magnesium nitrate was added to 0.1 g of sediment, and then the mixture was
139 dried on a hotplate and combusted at 470°C for 90 min. DIP was extracted with 1 M hydrochloric
140 acid and determined spectrophotometrically with a Seal Analytical QuAAtro Autoanalyser (2-HR,
141 UK). To determine DIP concentrations of the pore water samples, the frozen samples were thawed,
142 diluted 20 times, and then measured with the Autoanalyser. DIC in the pore water samples was
143 measured by using an Apollo SciTech DIC analyzer (AS-C3) with a $\text{CO}_2/\text{H}_2\text{O}$ infrared analyzer
144 (LI-7000, LI-COR, USA) to detect CO_2 released from the sample after acidifying with 10%

145 H_3PO_4 .

146 The different geochemical reservoirs of P were quantified by using a sequential extraction
147 technique (SEDEX) following Ruttenberg (1992). Approximately 0.30 g of sediment (both the
148 original sediment and the sediment subjected to bubbling with CO_2 or air) was extracted
149 sequentially with 30 mL of (1) 1 M magnesium chloride (pH 8), (2) citrate dithionite buffer (CDB;
150 pH 7.6), (3) 1 M sodium acetate buffer (pH 4), and (4) 1 M hydrochloric acid. In step 5, the residue
151 from step 4 was ashed at 550 °C and extracted with 30 mL of 1 M hydrochloric acid. After
152 extraction steps 1, 2 and 3, sediment samples were rinsed first with 1 M magnesium chloride (30
153 mL), then with water (30 mL) to prevent the readsorption of extracted phosphate. The extraction
154 and washing solutions were centrifuged (4000 rpm, 2380 g for 10 min) and filtered through a
155 syringe filter with 0.45 μm pore size (Millex-HV, Millipore, USA). The supernatants containing
156 magnesium chloride or sodium acetate buffer were acidified to pH 1 by the addition of
157 hydrochloric acid, and DIP analysis followed. The CDB extracts are not suited to analysis by the
158 standard molybdenum blue method because the citrate interferes with reduction of molybdate
159 complex (Ruttenberg, 1992); therefore, a solid-phase extraction technique was used (Suzumura
160 and Koike, 1995). All reagents used were of analytical grade. Purified water obtained from a
161 Milli-Q Gradient System (Millipore, USA) was used for reagent preparation and rinse. Three
162 replicate measurements were carried out for total P analysis and SEDEX. All results of this
163 procedure are reported on an oven-dry (110 °C) basis.

164 The chemical composition of the sediments was determined by energy-dispersive X-ray

165 fluorescence spectrometry (EDXL300, Rigaku, Japan). Loss-on-ignition (LOI) was determined
166 after heating for 1 hour at 750 °C (JIS, 2009). The carbonate content of the sediments was
167 determined by using a CO₂ coulometer (Coulometrics, USA) that measures the CO₂ released
168 during sample dissolution under acidic conditions (10% phosphoric acid) in a closed system
169 (Johnson et al., 1987). The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) specific surface area of the sediments
170 was determined by nitrogen adsorption (BELSORP-max, BEL JAPAN, Japan).

171

172 **2.4 Calculations and statistical analysis**

173 Results are reported as the mean ± 1 standard deviation (SD), where applicable. For statistical
174 analyses, we used the program SigmaStat, included in the Sigmaplot 11 software package (Systat
175 Software, Chicago, USA). We used a significance level of 5%.

176

177 **3. Results and discussion**

178 **3.1 Total P concentration in QICS sediment from the field experiment**

179 Vertical profiles of total P in the QICS sediment are shown in Figure 2. Total P concentrations
180 at site Z1 before CO₂ injection were ~14 µmol/g (12.6–14.2 µmol/g; Fig. 2a) and showed little
181 variation with depth. The total P concentrations that we measured in the Ardmucknish Bay
182 sediments were somewhat lower than values reported for other continental margins and coastal
183 areas (~34 µmol/g; e.g., Frankowski et al., 2002; Küster-Heins et al., 2010; Suzumura, 2008).
184 During and after exposure to CO₂, we observed no obvious changes in total P (Fig. 2). Although

185 concentrations of DIC in the sediment pore water increased significantly below 20 cm depth 35
186 days after the start of the CO₂ release (Blackford et al., 2014; Lichtschlag et al., this volume), total P
187 concentrations (11.8–16.6 μmol/g; Fig. 2b) were close to those observed before the CO₂ release
188 (12.6–14.2 μmol/g). The highest levels of pore-water DIC (10 times background levels) were
189 observed for five days after the release of CO₂ was terminated, but there was no obvious effect on
190 total P concentration during this period (12.5–15.6 μmol/g; Fig. 2c). Throughout the experiment,
191 changes in the total P content of the sediments were not statistically significant (ANOVA; $p = 0.126$,
192 $n = 8$). Figure 2d shows the vertical profile of total P at the bubble stream site (Z1p) after the start of
193 the CO₂ injection (D 34/35). Again, changes in the total P content of these sediments, relative to the
194 other sediment cores collected from Z1, were not significant (paired t -test, $p = 0.803$, $n = 12$).
195 These results indicate that leakage of CO₂ had no effect on the total P content of Ardmucknish Bay
196 sediments. DIP concentrations in sediment pore water varied vertically, ranging between ~3 and ~7
197 μmol/L, before the CO₂ release (Fig. 3a). DIP in pore water increased slightly with high DIC
198 concentrations at D 34/35 at site Z1 (up to 13 μmol/L; Fig. 3b), but this increase was not observed
199 in pore water with high DIC from site Z1p (Fig. 3d). These fluctuations in DIP concentration
200 observed during the QICS field experiment are unexplained.

201

202 **3.2 Laboratory CO₂ exposure experiment**

203 To assess whether the lack of any obvious change in the total P content of the Ardmucknish
204 Bay sediments during the QICS experiment was due to non-reactive forms of P in these sediments,

205 or the rate and amount of CO₂ released, a series of laboratory experiments were performed. In our
206 laboratory experiments, sediment samples were exposed to high levels of CO₂ (equivalent to
207 approximately 30 mmol/L as DIC) to assess the role of non-reactive P. The concentration of DIP in
208 seawater increased when either CO₂ or air was bubbled through the sediment suspension. The
209 amount of DIP released from the sediment solid phase ($P_{released}$), as estimated from the measured
210 DIP concentration of seawater, decreased gradually over the course of the experiment, but DIP was
211 still being released even after five episodes of bubbling (Fig. 4a). To estimate the potential
212 maximum amount of releasable P in the sediment solid phase, we assumed that the P concentration
213 was in solid-liquid equilibrium and fitted the following equation to our data:

$$214 \quad \Sigma P_{released} = (1 - q^n) P_{max},$$

215 where P_{max} is the maximum amount of releasable P ($\mu\text{mol P/g}$) as obtained by extending each
216 regression curve in Figure 4a to infinity, n is the number of bubbling episodes, and q is the
217 fractionation coefficient, defined as releasable P content remaining in the sediment per DIP content
218 in seawater plus releasable P content remaining in the sediment. The fit is good between our data
219 and this equation ($r^2 > 0.96$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 6$). The calculated values of P_{max} from the CO₂ bubbling
220 experiment ($\text{CO}_2\text{-}P_{max}$) for QICS sediment from site Z1 was $0.83 \pm 0.11 \mu\text{mol/g}$ ($n = 6$). This value
221 is equivalent to 6.0% of the total P in the sediment (Table 1). Such small changes in total P would
222 be difficult to detect in the QICS field experiment, even in sediments exposed to very high levels of
223 CO₂. With one outlier, P_{max} induced by air bubbling ($\text{Air-}P_{max}$) in the QICS sediment was $0.69 \pm$
224 $0.01 \mu\text{mol/g}$ ($n = 5$), accounting for 4.9% of total P. The difference between $\text{CO}_2\text{-}P_{max}$ and $\text{Air-}P_{max}$

225 corresponds to the potential amount of releasable P due to leakage of CO₂. Although the difference
226 between CO₂-P_{max} and Air-P_{max} was significant ($p < 0.05$), the amount of the difference, 0.14
227 μmol/g, is equivalent to only 1.0% of total P. This result implies that most of the P released by
228 bubbling is due to physical disturbance of the sediments, and leakage of CO₂ does not lead to
229 notable change in the total P content of sediments in Ardmucknish Bay. The stability of total P
230 concentrations during the QICS field experiment is therefore most likely because the sediment P
231 was in forms that were not reactive to CO₂ exposure.

232 To assess whether the non-reactivity of P with respect to CO₂ is a general property of marine
233 sediments or is specific to the sediments in Ardmucknish Bay, we performed laboratory
234 experiments using two standard reference marine sediments (JMS-1 and JMS-2). The results are
235 shown in Figures 4b and c and in Table 1. The rate and extent of P release differed substantially
236 between the different sediment samples. For the coastal marine sediment (JMS-1), the release of P
237 in the air bubbling experiment (Air-P_{max}; 1.27 ± 0.30 μmol/g) was nearly twice that in the CO₂
238 bubbling experiment (CO₂-P_{max}; 0.66 ± 0.12 μmol/g). These results suggest that although the
239 physical disturbance of bubbling induced P release from the JMS-1 sediment regardless of gas type,
240 P release was considerably depressed by exposure to CO₂. In the pelagic marine sediment (JMS-2),
241 P release was greatly enhanced by CO₂ bubbling, such that CO₂-P_{max} (13.84 ± 3.31 μmol/g) was an
242 order of magnitude higher than for the other sediments (Table 1). On the other hand, Air-P_{max} of the
243 JMS-2 sediment was comparable to its value in the QICS and JMS-1 sediments. In addition, the
244 proportion of P release induced by CO₂ (CO₂-P_{max} - Air-P_{max}) to total P was substantially higher in

245 the JMS-2 sediment (7.3%). The considerable difference in P dissolution behavior among the three
246 different sediment types is most likely due to differences in the P pools and their reactivity with
247 CO₂.

248 During the laboratory experiment, pH values were generally constant (8.07 ± 0.06 , $n = 90$)
249 among three sediments throughout all five episodes of air bubbling, but they varied greatly with
250 CO₂ bubbling (Fig. 5). The CO₂ bubbling experiments produced the highest pH values in seawater
251 during the first bubbling episode for all sediment samples, particularly in JMS-2 (5.40 ± 0.05 , $n =$
252 6). This value was significantly higher ($p < 0.01$) than the pH range in the QICS sediment ($5.17 \pm$
253 0.04, $n = 6$) and JMS-1 (5.19 ± 0.03 , $n = 6$). The pH decreased to a constant value of ~ 5.0 after the
254 second bubbling episode in the QICS and JMS-1 sediments. However, pH in the JMS-2 sediment
255 decreased more gradually, reaching 5.12 ± 0.02 ($n = 6$) after the second bubbling episode and
256 stabilizing at ~ 5.0 after the third bubbling episode. The higher pH in the initial stages was likely due
257 to buffering by carbonates in the sediments. This would imply that JMS-2 had the highest buffering
258 capacity of the three sediments, which might be related to the greater P release from JMS-2 than
259 from QICS and JMS-1 after CO₂ exposure. To confirm this, further chemical analyses were
260 performed.

261

262 **3.3 Chemical forms of P in sediments**

263 For a better understanding of P behavior during CO₂ exposure, we quantified the various forms
264 of P in the sediments, both before and after bubbling, using the well-established SEDEX method

265 (Ruttenberg, 1992). In SEDEX, the strength of the extractant is incrementally increased to separate
266 more strongly bound P. The P fractions extracted by the first three steps—loosely sorbed P (step 1),
267 iron-bound P (step 2), and calcium-bound P (step 3)—are considered to be easily releasable, for
268 example, by changes in environmental conditions. Step 4 extracts detrital P, and step 5 extracts
269 organic P (Fig. 6).

270 There were substantial differences in P composition among the sediments before bubbling
271 (original sediments). The original QICS sediment was dominantly detrital P, which accounted for
272 71% of the total extracted P from all five steps. Original sediment JMS-1 contained large
273 proportions of organic P (28%) and iron-bound P (31%). Original sediment JMS-2 was dominantly
274 calcium-bound P (30%) and detrital P (48%). These results are consistent with the bulk chemical
275 analyses, which showed that JMS-2 had the highest contents of calcium and carbonates (Tables 2
276 and 3).

277 Although CO₂ and air bubbling released P (as DIP) from the QICS sediment into seawater
278 (Table 1), the difference between P extracted by SEDEX from the original sediment (14.7 ± 0.78
279 $\mu\text{mol/g}$) and the bubbled sediment (air: $14.1 \pm 0.31 \mu\text{mol/g}$, CO₂: $14.3 \pm 0.54 \mu\text{mol/g}$) was not
280 significant (*t*-test, $p > 0.05$, $n = 3$). Two factors likely account for the lack of significance: first, the
281 accumulated error over the steps of the SEDEX procedure is large compared to the difference
282 between the original and bubbled sediments. Second, the concentration difference between the
283 solid phase ($\mu\text{mol/g}$) and solution phases ($\mu\text{mol/L}$) is necessarily very large, such that small
284 changes in the solid phase that are less than the limits of detection can cause detectable changes in

285 the solution phase.

286 In the JMS-1 sediment, the total P extracted by SEDEX from the original, air-bubbled, and
287 CO₂-bubbled samples was 20.8 ± 0.04 , 20.2 ± 0.11 , and 20.7 ± 0.18 $\mu\text{mol/g}$, respectively. The
288 decrease in P relative to the original sample in the air-bubbled sample was significant (*t*-test, *p* <
289 0.05, *n* = 3), but it was not significant in the CO₂-bubbled sample (*t*-test, *p* > 0.05, *n* = 3). Although
290 the decrease caused by air bubbling was statistically significant, its magnitude (0.6 $\mu\text{mol/g}$) was
291 comparable to the decrease in the QICS sediment. CO₂ bubbling increased the content of
292 iron-bound P in JMS-1 significantly relative to the original and the air-bubbled sediments (Fig. 6b).
293 This accounts for the result that P release from the JMS-1 sediment was depressed by CO₂
294 bubbling (Fig. 4b). It appears that the released DIP was redistributed to the iron-bound P pool in
295 this sediment in the amount of 1.43 ± 0.40 $\mu\text{mol/g}$.

296 In the JMS-2 sediment, much greater changes were observed after CO₂ bubbling: detrital and
297 calcium-bound P decreased, and iron-bound and loosely sorbed P increased by statistically
298 significant amounts (*n* = 3, *p* < 0.01). According to Ruttenberg (1992), the calcium-bound P
299 fraction contains authigenic apatite, biogenic hydroxyapatite, and calcium carbonate-bound P (e.g.,
300 calcite). Detrital P contains relatively stable inorganic materials, including lithic clasts and minerals
301 such as detrital apatite of igneous or metamorphic origin. It may be that dissolution of abundant
302 apatite species in JMS-2 raised the seawater DIP concentration during the CO₂ bubbling
303 experiment. Redistribution of released P appeared to be greater in JMS-2 than in the JMS-1
304 sediment. It is noteworthy that JMS-2 has the largest specific surface area of the three sediments

305 (Table 3), and therefore the largest number of adsorption sites, as well as the highest iron content
306 (Table 2). The significant increase in loosely sorbed and iron-bound P in JMS-2 after CO₂ bubbling
307 may indicate that some of the DIP released from apatite was subsequently taken up into these pools
308 by adsorption and scavenging. Anderson and Delaney (2000) reported that most loosely sorbed P is
309 composed of phosphate adsorbed on oxides, including iron oxide. Therefore, the increase in
310 loosely sorbed P in JMS-2 after CO₂ bubbling may be P adsorbed on iron oxides, that is,
311 iron-bound P.

312 The behavior and status of calcium-bound and iron-bound P have been studied in solutions
313 over a wide range of pH, regardless of CO₂ concentration. It has been shown that DIP is released
314 from calcium-bound P and incorporated into iron-bound P at pH 6.0 or lower (Golterman, 1995;
315 Gomez et al., 1999). The substantial changes in the P pools in the JMS-2 sediment, therefore, were
316 most likely induced by changes in pH during CO₂ bubbling. Consistent with that finding, we
317 observed a small but significant increase in iron-bound P in the JMS-1 sediment as a result of CO₂
318 bubbling. Iron-bound P may therefore act as a buffer and sink of P released from apatite and other
319 fractions. This effect is likely to be notable under oxic conditions, where iron-bound P is stable (e.g.,
320 Rozan et al., 2002).

321

322 **4. Summary and wider implications**

323 Our experiments found no significant impacts of CO₂ leakage on P behavior in the sediments
324 of Ardmucknish Bay. The laboratory experiments showed that the P content in Ardmucknish Bay

325 sediments is rather insensitive to CO₂ exposure. Crucially, the QICS sediment has the highest
326 concentration of silica (Table 2) and contains dominantly detrital P (Fig. 6a). Thus, it may be rich in
327 non-apatite detrital materials, which tend to be relatively inert. Our results show that loosely sorbed
328 P and iron-bound P, which are relatively easily mobilized in marine environments, are largely
329 unaffected by CO₂ exposure. On the other hand, CO₂ exposure appears to increase acidic
330 dissolution of calcium carbonates and apatite, which liberates their P content. Although dissolution
331 of calcium carbonate was important in buffering pH changes during the QICS experiment
332 (Blackford et al., 2014), no considerable change in P concentrations of solid phases or pore water
333 was observed during the field experiment. This is likely because calcium-bound P is a minor P pool
334 in the QICS sediment. Moreover, most of the calcium-bound P fraction in the QICS sediment
335 appears to be apatite, which is orders of magnitude less sensitive to acidic dissolution than calcite
336 (Amankonah et al., 1985; Ruben and Bennett, 1987). Our data also show that much of the P
337 released from these phases was redistributed within the other sediment P pools, so the total P
338 content of marine sediments is not an effective indicator of CO₂ leakage in marine environments.

339 Our results provide insight into the processes that might occur if leaked CO₂ were to reach
340 shallow unconsolidated sediments from deep geological storage (or shallow pipelines). Because P
341 is an essential nutrient, releases of P from sediment to seawater may affect coastal ecosystems.
342 Concentrations of iron-bound P can fluctuate considerably and seasonally in coastal sediments, and
343 such fluctuation might influence the P status of the overlying water column (Slomp et al., 2013;
344 Sundby et al., 1992). Our data show that CO₂ exposure does not result in large P releases in

345 Ardmucknish Bay sediments. Moreover, iron-bound P functions as a sink for P, rather than a source.
346 Although we tested only three sediment samples from different locations, the wide variation in P
347 behavior after CO₂ exposure among these samples emphasizes the importance of proper site
348 assessment at each CCS site. The effects of CO₂ leakage on release of P are negligible relative to
349 the effects of seasonal changes in the redox conditions of coastal marine sediments. This strongly
350 suggests that proper monitoring of baseline conditions is essential to assess the potential impacts of
351 CO₂ leakage on the dynamics of sedimentary phosphorus.

352

353 **Acknowledgments**

354 We thank all of the QICS participants for valuable technical support and scientific exchange, in
355 particular Peter Taylor, Belinda Alker, and Carolyn Graves for support during sampling. We also
356 thank the skilled divers of the National Scientific Diving Facility at the Scottish Association for
357 Marine Science for collecting the cores, as well as the landowners (Lochnell Estate) and users
358 (Tralee Bay Holiday Park) for allowing us to conduct this experiment. Funding was kindly
359 provided by the Natural Environment Research Council (NE/H013962/1), the Scottish
360 Government, and the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry of Japan.

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472

473 **Figure captions**

474 Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the CO₂/air exposure experiment.

475

476 Figure 2. Vertical profiles of the total P content of sediments collected during the QICS field
477 experiment. (a) Core collected at site Z1 seven days prior to the release of CO₂. (b) Cores collected
478 from site Z1 on days 13/14 and 34/35, during CO₂ release. (c) Cores collected from site Z1 on days
479 42/43, 54/55, and 126/127 during the recovery phase. (d) Core collected from an active bubble
480 stream, site Z1_p, on days 34/35. Total P content is on an oven-dry (110 °C) basis.

481

482 Figure 3. Vertical profiles of the dissolved inorganic phosphorus (DIP) concentration in sediment
483 pore water collected during the QICS field experiment.

484

485 Figure 4. Plots of the integrated amount of P released by bubbling of CO₂ (red) or air (blue)
486 through three sediments: (a) QICS (Z1), (b) JMS-1, and (c) JMS-2. Each sample was bubbled for
487 five separate 24-hour periods. Note difference in scale in 3c relative to 3a and 3b.

488

489 Figure 5. Plots of pH during bubbling of CO₂ through QICS sediment (triangles), JMS-1 sediment
490 (open circles), and JMS-2 sediment (filled circles). Each sample was bubbled for five separate
491 periods of 24 hours.

492

493 Figure 6. P concentration in five different sedimentary P pools before (original) and after bubbling
494 with CO₂ or air for (a) QICS sediment, (b) JMS-1 sediment, and (c) JMS-2 sediment. P content is
495 on an oven-dry (110 °C) basis.

Table 1. Total P content and maximum amount of releasable P (P_{max} , see text) of sediment samples in the laboratory experiments.

Sample		Mean \pm SD ($\mu\text{mol/g}$)	Proportion of total P (%)
QICS	Total P	13.94 \pm 0.14	
	CO ₂ P _{max}	0.83 \pm 0.11	6.0
	Air P _{max}	0.69 \pm 0.01	4.9
JMS-1	Total P	21.52 \pm 0.18	
	CO ₂ P _{max}	0.66 \pm 0.12	3.1
	Air P _{max}	1.27 \pm 0.30	5.9
JMS-2	Total P	163.6 \pm 0.1	
	CO ₂ P _{max}	13.84 \pm 3.31	8.5
	Air P _{max}	2.00 \pm 0.33	1.2

SD: standard deviation ($n = 3$ for total P, $n = 6$ for P_{max}).

Table 2. Major element composition and loss on ignition (LOI) (wt%) of the three sediments in the laboratory experiments.

	Z1	JMS-1	JMS-2
SiO ₂	65.50	56.70	46.10
Al ₂ O ₃	11.60	14.50	10.70
Fe ₂ O ₃	0.93	6.14	10.90
CaO	2.15	1.93	4.83
Na ₂ O	7.41	3.02	4.37
K ₂ O	2.54	2.17	2.74
MgO	1.36	2.64	4.01
TiO ₂	0.31	0.64	1.45
MnO	0.03	0.10	2.37
S	0.46	1.14	0.30
Cl	5.19	2.25	3.49
LOI	2.36	8.71	7.67

Table 3. Carbonate content and specific surface area of the three sediments in the laboratory experiments.

	Z1	JMS-1	JMS-2
Carbonates (mg C/g)	0.90	0.51	1.41
Specific surface area (m ² /g)	1.6	23.7	85.9

Figure 1 (on the web only)

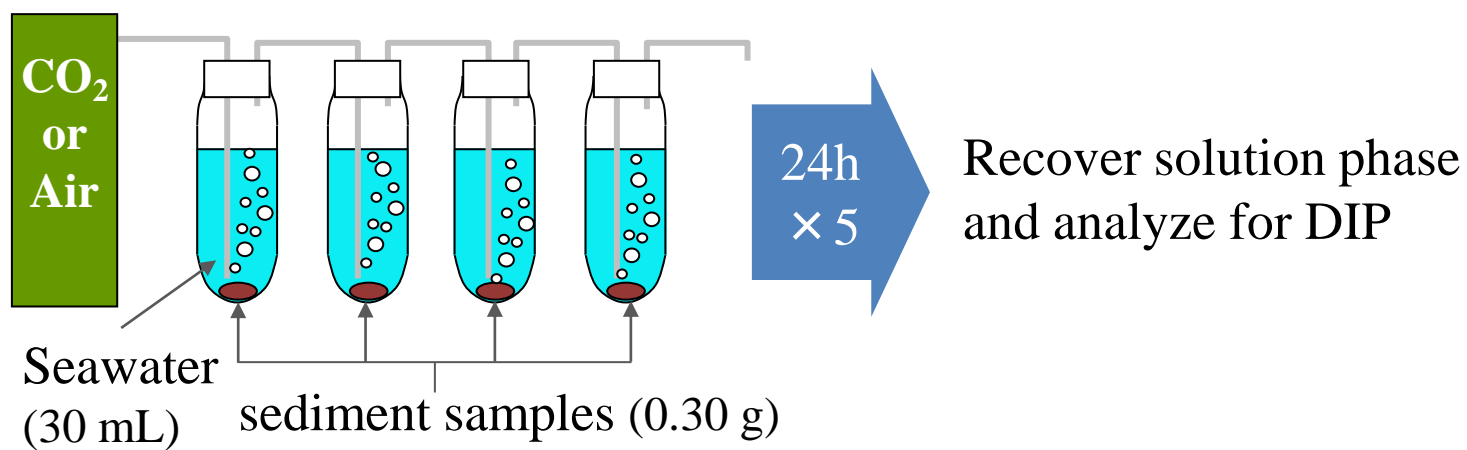


Figure 2

Figure 2
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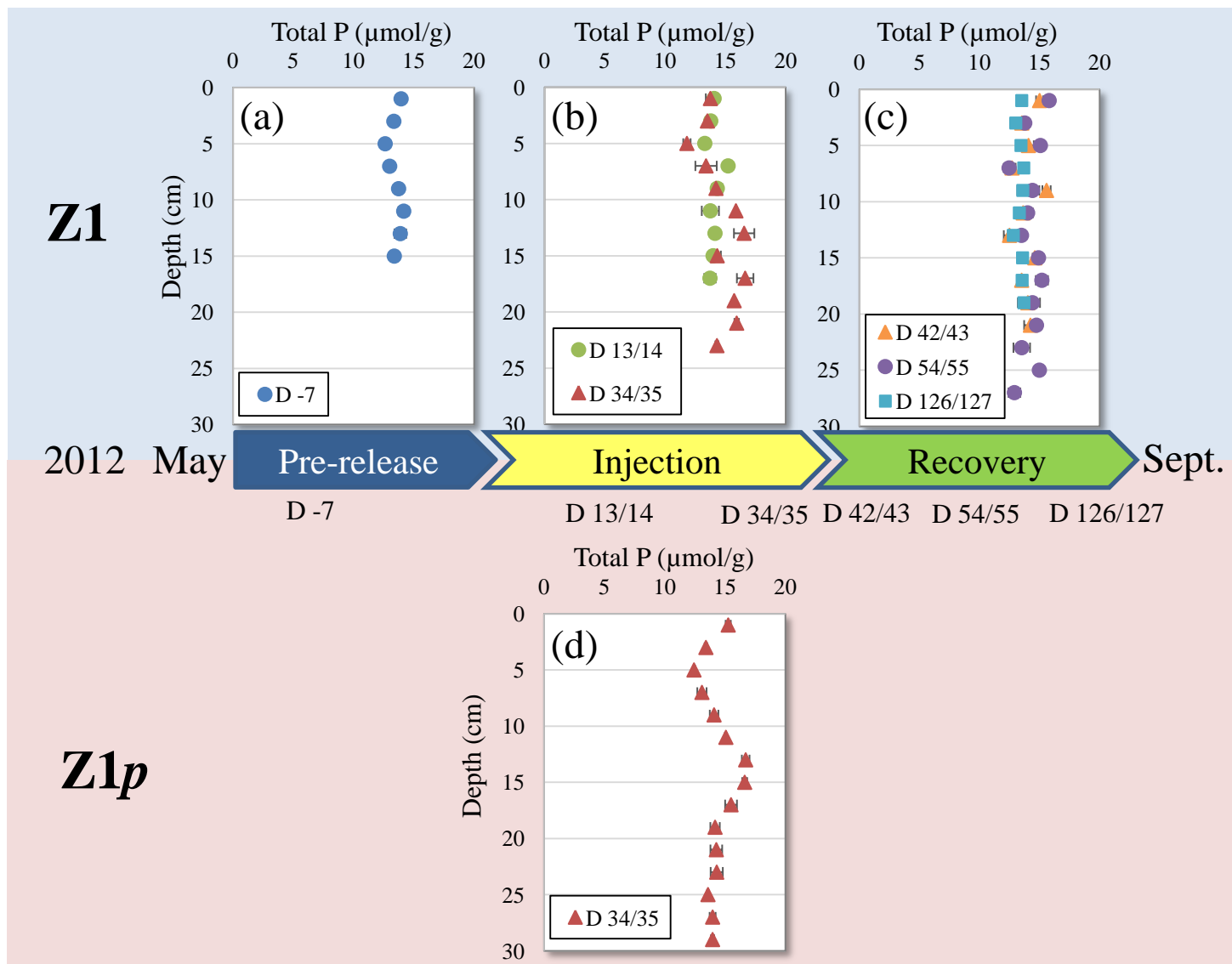


Figure 3

Figure 3
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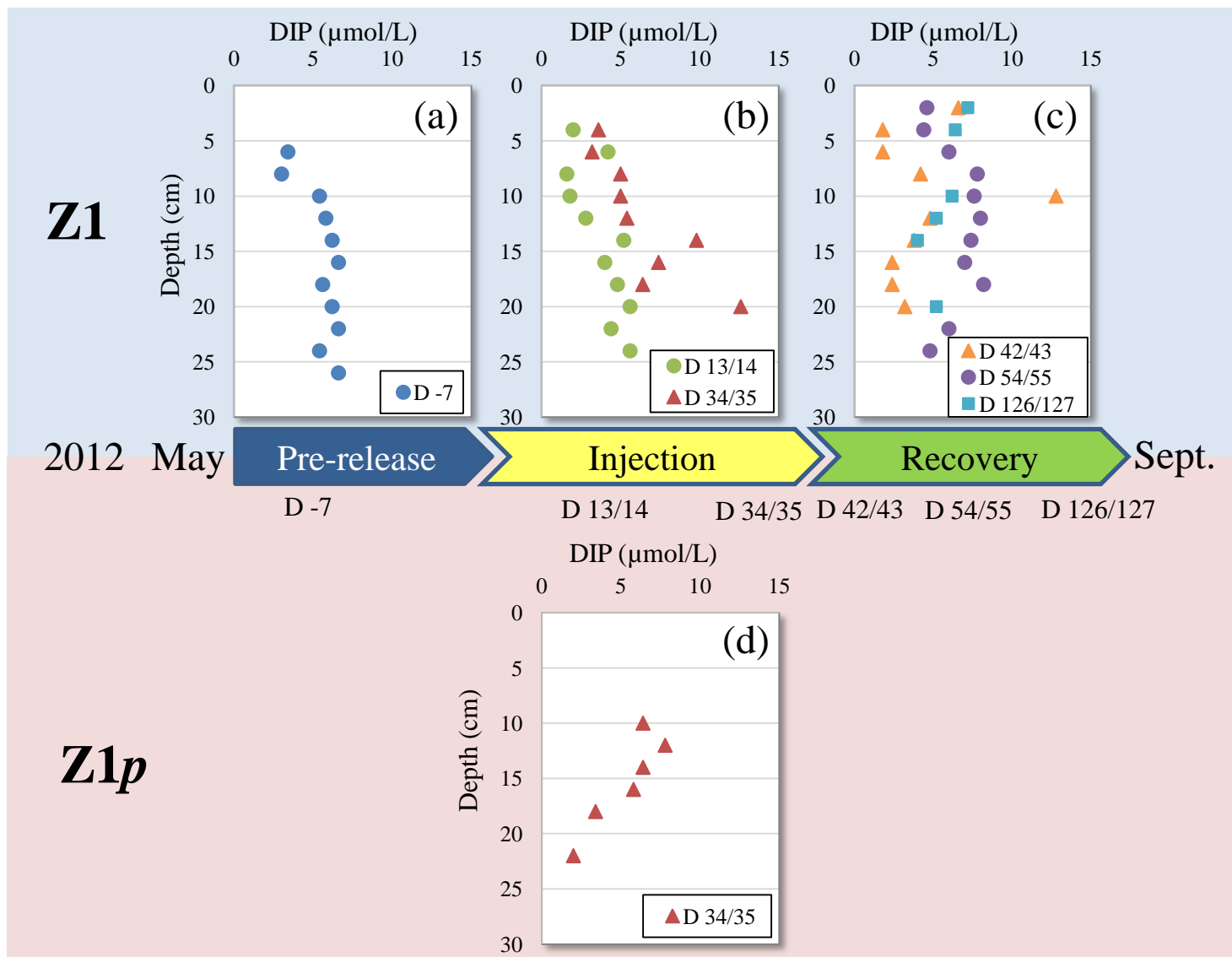


Figure4

Figure 4 (on the web only)

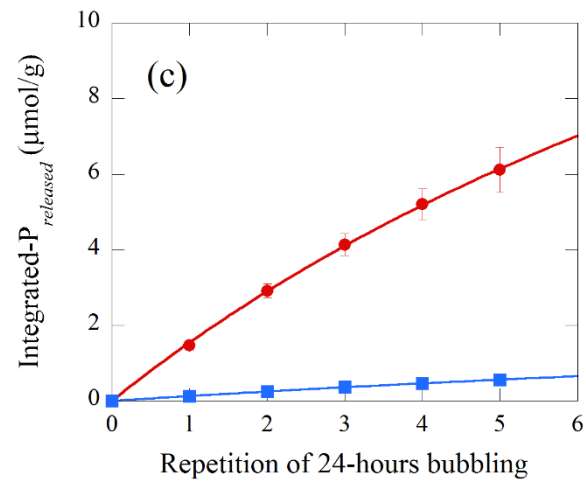
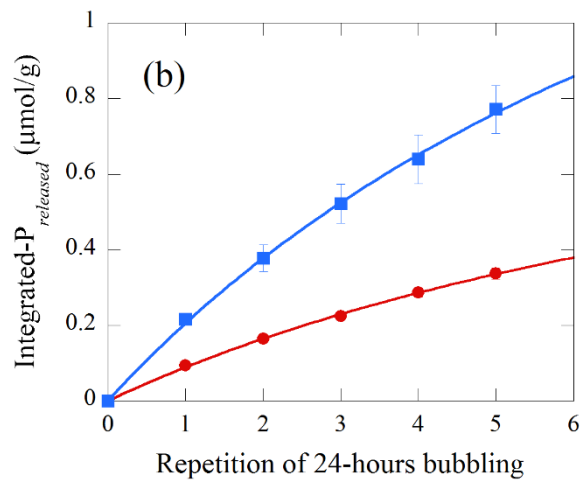
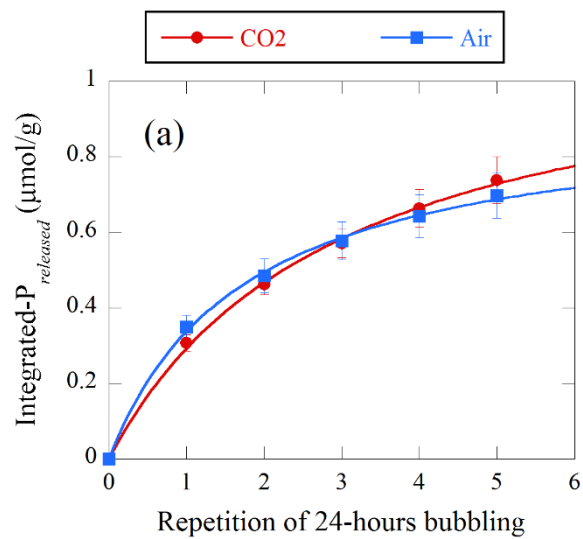


Figure5

Figure 5 (on the web only)

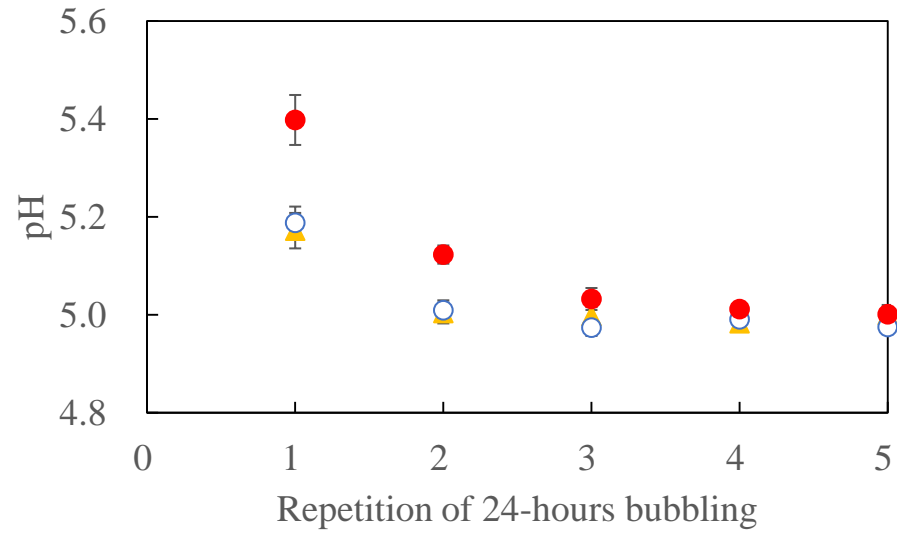


Figure6

Figure 6 (on the web only)

