

1 **Detection of CO₂ leakage from a simulated sub-seabed storage site using three**
2 **different types of pCO₂ sensors**

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27 **Abstract**

28 *This work is focused on results from a recent controlled sub-seabed in situ*
29 *carbon dioxide (CO₂) 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 pCO₂*
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 CO₂ emissions features high spatial and*
36 *temporal heterogeneity. The highest pCO₂ 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 pCO₂ 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 CO₂*
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 *pCO₂ and O₂, and when it was influenced by purposefully released CO₂.*

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 CO₂ 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 CO₂ storage can be carried out on a commercial scale, ecological
62 consequences as well as adverse environmental and human impacts of potential CO₂
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 CO₂ releases with the focus on environmental
67 impact and detectability were restricted by either small-scale direct injections of
68 liquid CO₂ into the deep water layers or model studies of the fate of released CO₂.
69 Small-scale liquid CO₂ 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 CO₂ Enrichment) program (Kirkwood et al., 2005, 2009; Walz et al.,
72 2008).

73 Modelling studies based on natural CO₂ releases in Kagoshima Bay described
74 physico-chemical processes of CO₂ transformation in seawater (Dissanayke et al.,
75 2012). Numerous models were developed to predict the behaviour of leaking CO₂,
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*CO₂ (Kano et al., 2009) or the
78 transformation pathways of released CO₂ in the deep ocean (Jeong et al., 2010).

79 Natural marine CO₂ seepage sites, like the one off the coast of Panarea Island,
80 Southern Italy, are widely and extensively studied in terms of assessment of CO₂
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* CO₂ 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 CO₂ leakage
86 event. An overview of the physical aspects of CO₂ 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 CO₂ emissions
91 in the overlying water from this shallow water release experiment, using three
92 different types of *p*CO₂ 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 CO₂ release affect the *p*CO₂ 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 CO₂ 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 CO₂ release? Which technical solutions
101 for monitoring systems at storage sites, fixed and movable, would allow detection
102 and/or identification CO₂ leakages with the highest probability?

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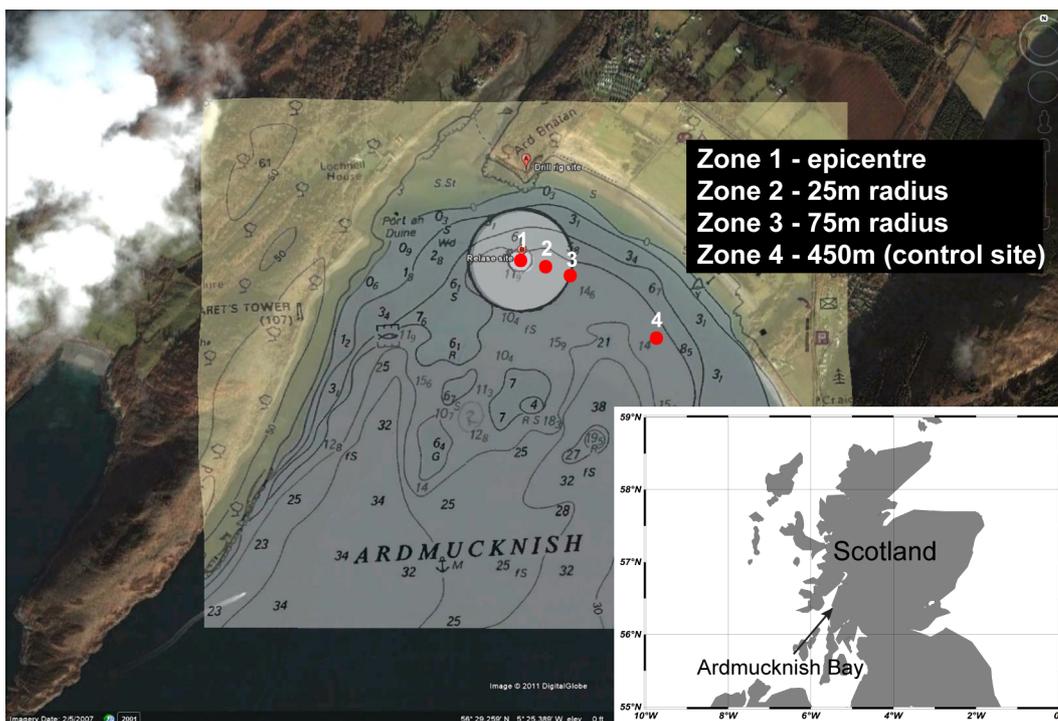
105 2. Materials and methods

106

107 2.1. Study site and CO₂ release experiment

108

109 The CO₂ 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 CO₂.



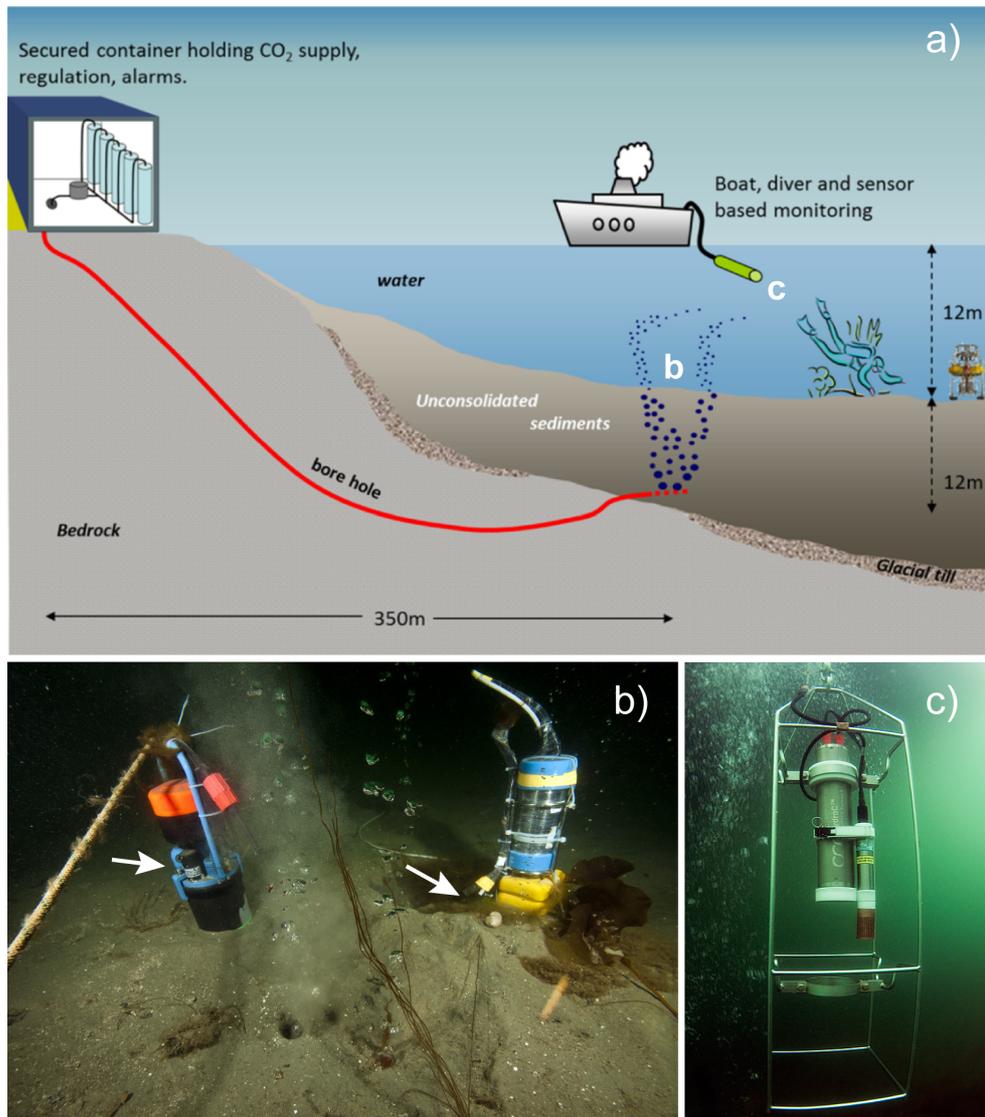
116

117 Fig. 1. Satellite picture of Ardmucknish Bay (<https://maps.google.com>) where the release of CO₂ 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[®] (left) and ISFET (right) $p\text{CO}_2$ sensors
129 deployed *in situ* next to 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[™] $p\text{CO}_2$ sensor.

132

133 The 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 17th
137 and lasted for 37 days (day 0 to 36) until June 22nd, followed by the recovery period,
138 until November 1st. CO₂ injection rates commenced at 10 kg CO₂ d⁻¹ at day 0,
139 increasing to 83 kg CO₂ d⁻¹ by day 3, 150 kg CO₂ d⁻¹ at day 23 and 210 kg CO₂ d⁻¹ on
140 day 33 (Fig. 3a). The total injected CO₂ 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 and Supplementary material). The
150 control site (Z4) was assumed to be unaffected by the CO₂ 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 CO₂ experiment.

166

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

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

168 **p*CO₂ sensor's protection cap left on resulting in no data

169 [†] 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[®] autonomous datalogger from Aanderaa Data Instruments,
175 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, 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 (τ_{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 μatm ; 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 ± 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[®] 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[®] 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 SiO_2 ,
224 with Si_3N_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 (± 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 AFTM) manufactured by DuPont
237 was used as the gas permeable membrane. The *in situ* (3000 m depth, 1.8°C) response
238 time (τ_{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™-CO₂ sensor from CONTROS Systems and Solutions, GmbH,
251 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*CO₂ 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*CO₂ 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*CO₂ signals within the flush intervals, neglecting
270 the initial *p*CO₂ values representing gas mixing artefacts within the internal gas
271 stream (Fiedler et al., 2013). An average response time (τ_{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, 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 (μatm)	Optode (μatm)	ISFET (μatm)	HydroC™ (μatm)	Tide	CO ₂ 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 [†] (538,508)	high-low	Yes
22/06/12 day 36 (afternoon)	-	-	807	362 [†] (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 [†]	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 CO₂ 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). 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 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 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-CO₂ module developed by Torres et al. (2012, pers. communication)
354 prediction of several components of the carbonate system - DIC concentration, pH
355 and *p*CO₂ in seawater - is also possible (see Supplementary material).

356

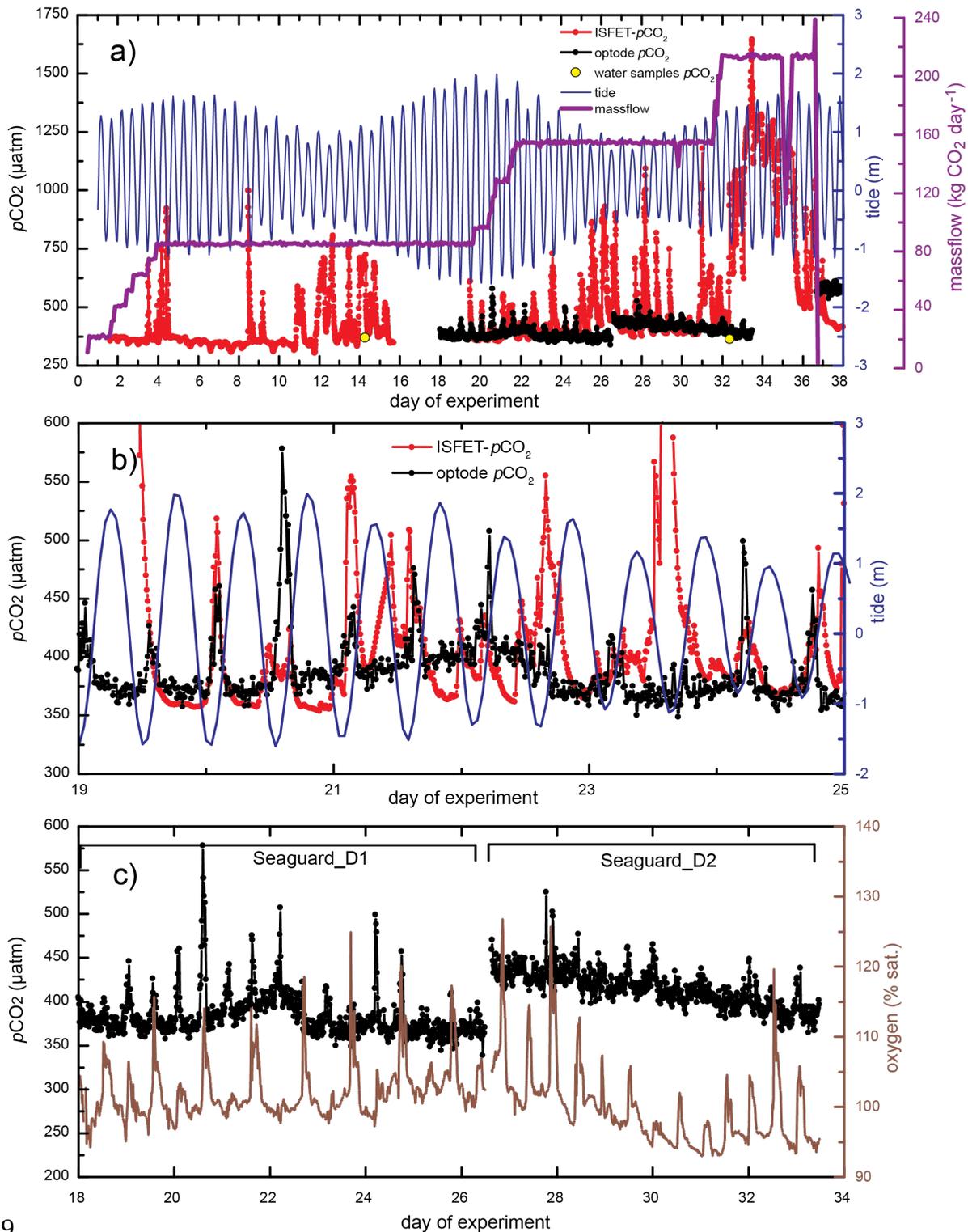
357 3. Results

358

359 3.1. *p*CO₂ during gas release

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361 Figure 3a presents details of *p*CO₂ changes during the release phase, continuously
362 measured with the two different independent sensors systems, i.e. *p*CO₂ optode and
363 ISFET-*p*CO₂, along with the tidal conditions and gas release rates. Correlation
364 between *p*CO₂ values measured by optode and ISFET-based sensor, and water
365 samples data is given in the Table 2. Figure 3b shows *p*CO₂ variations measured with
366 optode and ISFET-*p*CO₂ in correlation with tidal circulation. Figure 3c highlights the
367 redeployment of Seaguard[®] instrument at the release site and related to this event
368 changes in *p*CO₂ and oxygen time-series.



369
 370 Fig. 3. Summary of data collected during the QICS campaign.
 371 a) period of 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 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 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[®] 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[®] (Fig. 3b). This sensor was placed ~ 3 cm above the seafloor, at the
384 rim of one of the pockmark actively venting CO_2 . Although having very similar
385 baseline values, e.g. 356 ± 4 μatm for ISFET- $p\text{CO}_2$ sensor and 369 ± 7 μatm for $p\text{CO}_2$
386 optode during days 18-21 of 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 μatm) comparing to the
388 corresponding peaks from the $p\text{CO}_2$ optode (up to 400-580 μatm). 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 ~ 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 μatm on day 32, while optode and ISFET- $p\text{CO}_2$ detected 390 and
396 671 μatm , respectively.

397 Steep vertical and horizontal $p\text{CO}_2$ gradients were observed while towing the
398 CONTROS HydroC[™] sensor ~ 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 ± 2 μatm without significant spatial heterogeneity. For Z2 and Z3 the same values
401 were obtained, 363 ± 2 μatm , 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 ± 1 μatm and 362 ± 2 μatm in the morning and the afternoon,
404 respectively. Sharp $p\text{CO}_2$ peaks of as high as 540 μatm and 740 μatm in the morning
405 and the afternoon respectively, were observed when the sensor was towed through the

406 area with active venting of CO₂, i.e. within the ‘footprint’ of the gas release (Fig. 5a
407 shows the afternoon data). At the same time ISFET- *p*CO₂ recorded 800-850 μatm
408 closer to the bottom. Later during the same day, the *p*CO₂ optode recorded ~570 μatm
409 *p*CO₂ 30 cm above the seabed and the ISFET *p*CO₂ 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*CO₂ 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. pCO₂ during recovery period*

425

426 ISFET-*p*CO₂ 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 CO₂ gas was stopped after day 36, which was
429 followed by decline in the *p*CO₂ concentrations at the epicentre as detected by *p*CO₂
430 optode (Fig. 6). Within 7 days after terminating the gas flow, *p*CO₂ 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 2nd and 4th $p\text{CO}_2$ levels increased significantly with ~ 100
443 μatm compared to background values. A similar event happened during August 8-9th
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*).

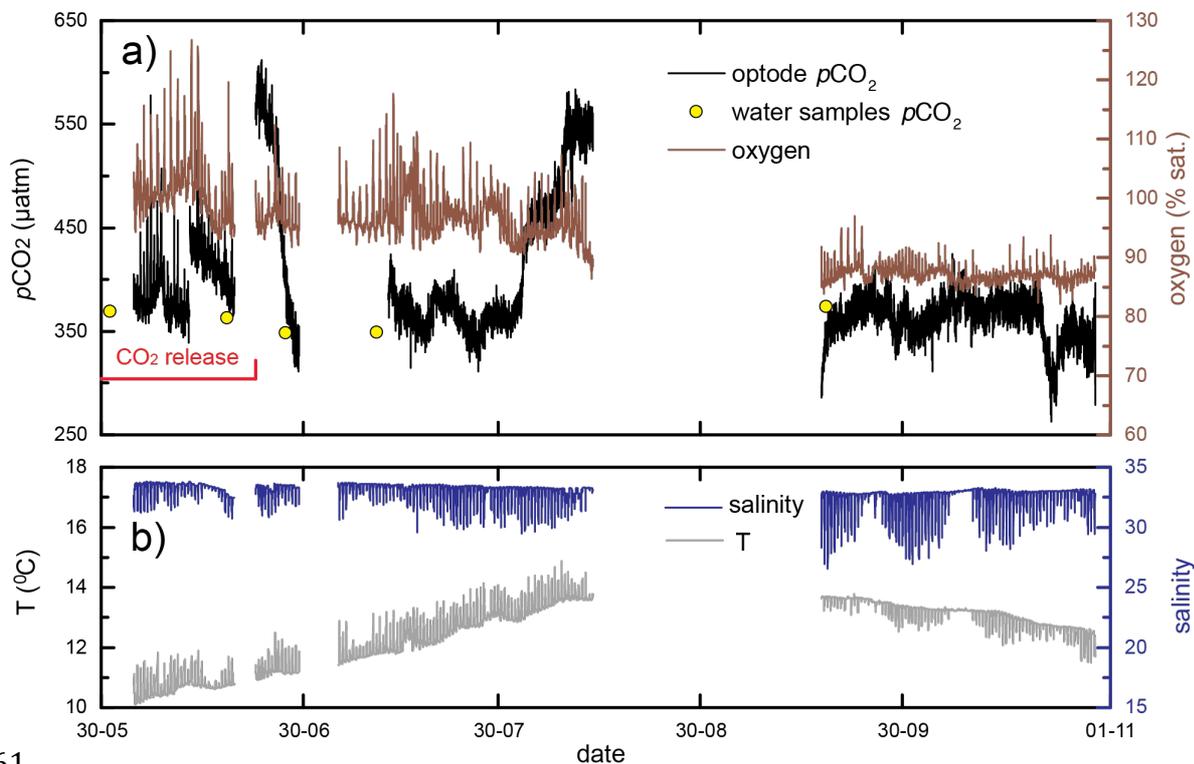
449

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[®] data over June-October 2012.
 464 a) $p\text{CO}_2$ 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 $p\text{CO}_2$ data calculated
 466 from water samples analyzed for DIC and A_T . Gaps in the data are due to service of
 467 Seaguard[®] 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⁻¹. 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[®] 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^{-1} (RCM#643)
481 and 3.6 cm s^{-1} (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 $p\text{CO}_2$, 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[®] 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[®] 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 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[®] (June 6th-October
532 28th) 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[®] current profiler registered several occasions with sudden changes
537 in the main flow. Between July 5th and July 27th the flow was predominantly towards
538 NE. On July 28th it changed its direction by ~180 degrees towards SW until July 31st.
539 From August 1st to August 12th 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 CO₂ release*

547

548 The QICS CO₂ 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 CO₂, escaping from the seabed into the overlying water column.

551 The distribution of gaseous and dissolved CO₂ 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 CO₂ signal of the injected gas.

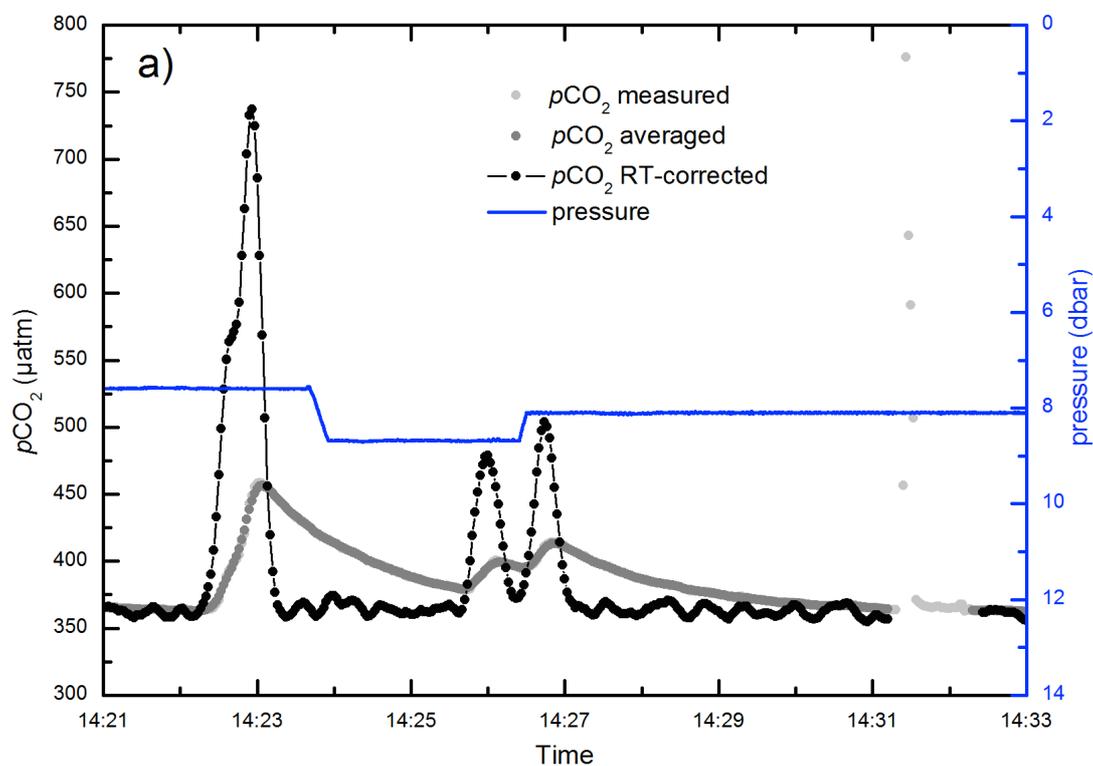
558 Using standard techniques, such as ship-based discrete water sampling, made it
559 almost impossible to capture and describe established gradients in *p*CO₂ due to their
560 lack of temporal coverage and low spatial precision. Thus, it was possible to obtain
561 only background values of *p*CO₂, which appeared to be insufficiently precise in this
562 case to detect the leakage of CO₂. Discrete water samples were however required to
563 quality assure and *in situ* calibrate the *p*CO₂ optode and ISFET-*p*CO₂ sensor.
564 Agreement between optode data and reference values from water samples confirmed
565 stability and reliability of the *p*CO₂ 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*CO₂ distribution as a result of sub-seabed emissions
569 during and after the actual release to the water column. Only 15% of the injected CO₂
570 escaped the sediment-water interface as gas bubbles at the highest injection rate (210
571 kg CO₂ d⁻¹); 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 CO₂ 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*CO₂ evolution at different levels above the bottom and different distances from the
577 emission site.

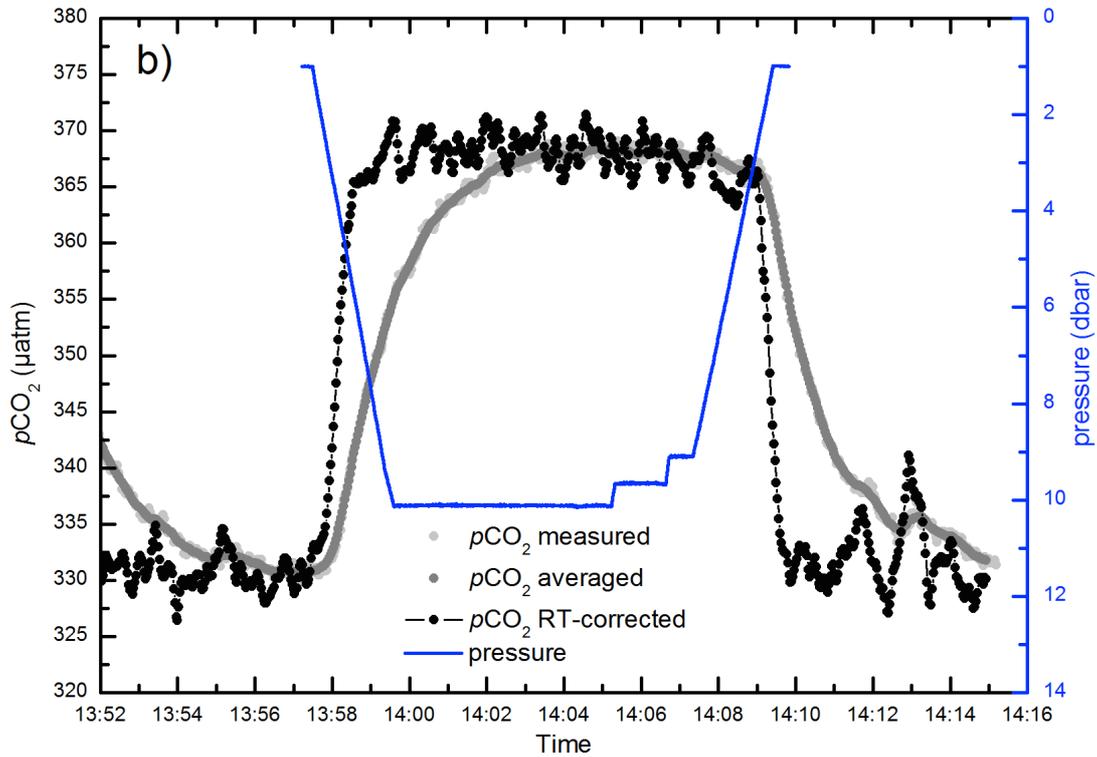
578 In close vicinity to the pockmarks, i.e. where the gas bubble streams enter the
579 water column, tidally driven oscillations in the *p*CO₂ had the highest amplitude as
580 detected by the ISFET-*p*CO₂ sensor. Dissolution of gas bubbles as they ascend in the

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 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 μatm 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 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 μatm 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[®] 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 μatm , 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 ~ 30 m in diameter was verified by HydroC™ when drifting over Z1 (Fig. 5a). Since at the given vessel speed of ~ 0.1 knts a temporal interval of 1 min correlates with a spatial extend of ~ 3 m, 10 min interval in-between the peaks detected by HydroC™ (Fig. 5a) translates into ~ 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 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 CO_2 outflux further enhanced stratification of
624 the water column, resulting into more pronounced difference in baseline values
625 recorded ~ 3 and ~ 30 cm above the seafloor, i.e. 1200 and $570 \mu\text{atm}$, respectively. In
626 this concern, the values measured ~ 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 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 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

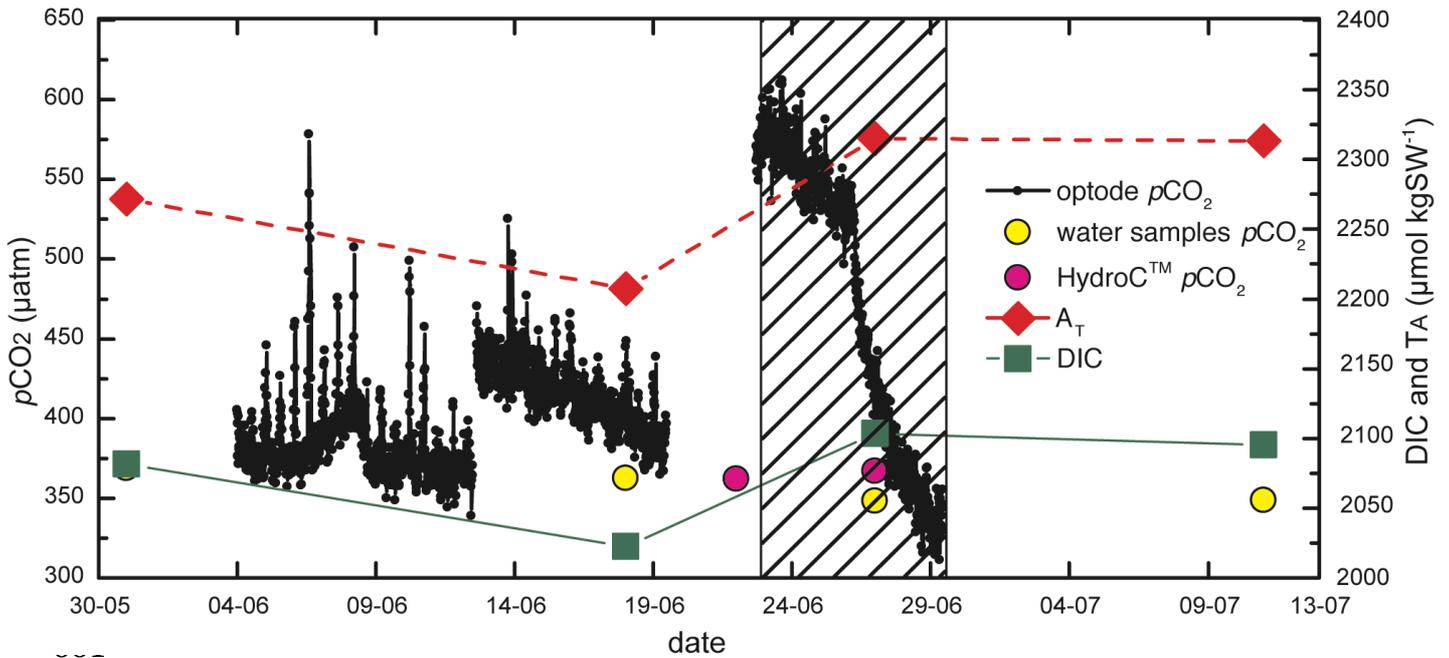
643 pointed on a smaller scale of CO₂ release within the QICS. Observed peak
644 concentrations in order of 1600 μatm in this study, are much smaller compared to
645 peak concentrations of 4.5 % CO₂ (or 45 000 μatm) at Panarea site. Higher CO₂ flux
646 rates facilitated much stronger vertical and horizontal gradients of *p*CO₂ distribution,
647 which could be detected by means of discrete water sampling along a transect at
648 Panarea site. Observations of natural CO₂ leaking sites emphasize the effect of
649 seasonal variability and hydrography both on concentration and distribution of CO₂
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 CO₂ release*

654

655 After the gas was shut off, *p*CO₂ in the water column recovered relatively fast,
656 within 7 days according to *p*CO₂ optode. The towed HydroC™ measurements 1 m
657 above the bottom on day 41 did not show any areas of elevated *p*CO₂ either. A
658 gradual build-up of DIC and A_T in the water column was tracked by simultaneous
659 decrease of *p*CO₂ levels for ~1 week after the termination of the release, whereafter
660 all three samples seemed to have reached equilibrium (Fig. 6).



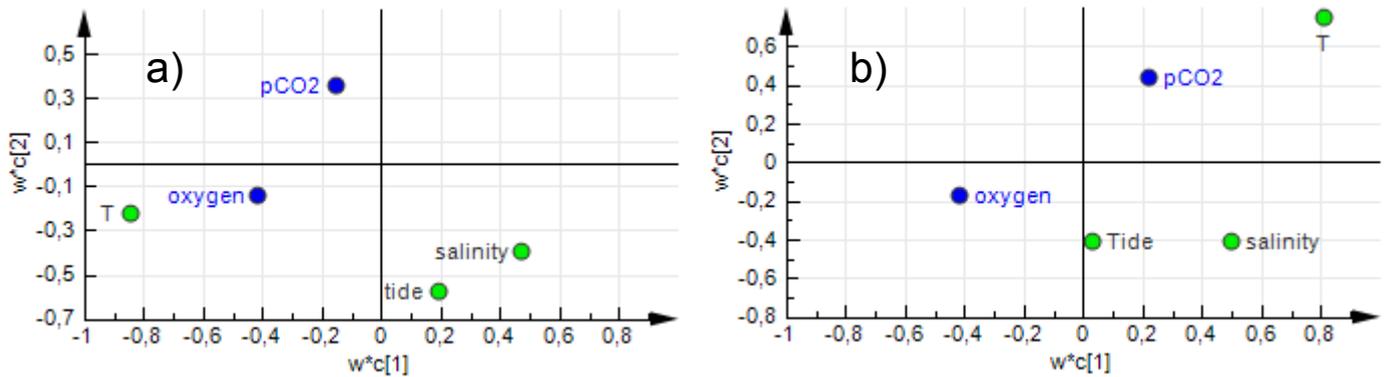
662
 663 Fig. 6. $p\text{CO}_2$ time-series recorded by optode during the release of CO_2 and until the recovery
 664 (shaded area) of the water column. Water samples $p\text{CO}_2$ values derived from DIC/ A_T
 665 (yellow) and measured by HydroCTM 1m above the bottom (cyan) represent background
 666 levels. DIC and A_T analyzed from water samples are plotted for better understanding of
 667 recovery pattern shown by $p\text{CO}_2$ optode. Shaded area shows recovery period in the water
 668 column.
 669

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 CaCO_3 , three weeks after the termination of the 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 CO_2 release. b) Period without 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 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 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 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 CO₂ was breaking natural correlation between pCO₂
711 and oxygen.

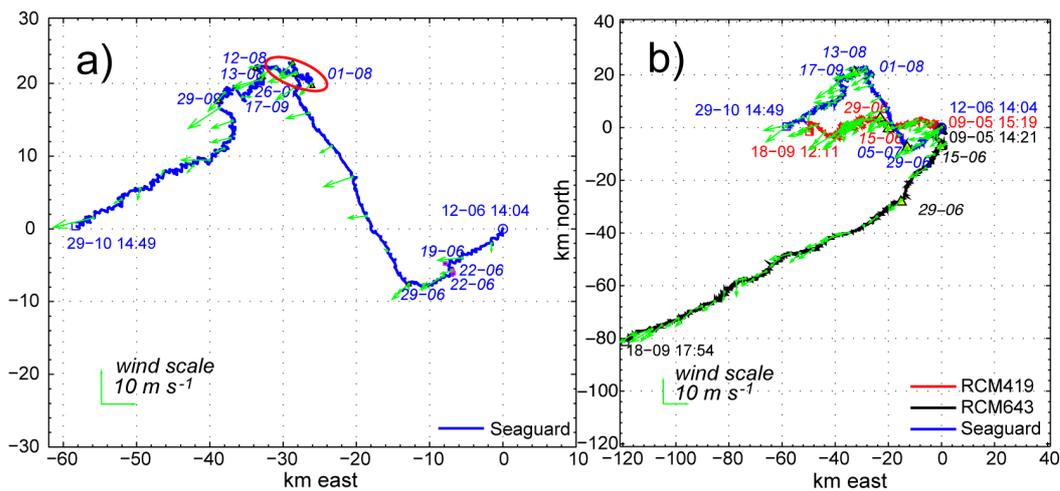
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713 4.4. Hydrographical conditions

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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 pCO₂, 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 1st and Aug 12th. 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**

745

746 This work is focused on the technical challenges of detecting anthropogenic CO_2
747 leakages from a simulated sub-seabed 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 CO_2 caused tidally-induced $p\text{CO}_2$
752 oscillations in the water column of Ardmucknish Bay in the order of 30-1250 μatm
753 and resulted in a gradual build-up of the background level from 369 μatm at the
754 beginning up to ~ 570 μatm 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 HydroCTM CO_2 , and (c) by relocation of the $p\text{CO}_2$ optode during redeployment.
760 Acidification as a result of 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 CO₂ leakage from an anthropogenic
764 storage site is possible, but challenging. An aspect of strong heterogeneity of the
765 distribution of the CO₂ gas bubble stream and of the associated dissolved CO₂ 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 CO₂
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 CO₂ leaks in the form of an increased
772 background *p*CO₂ level, though with less pronounced gradients close to the breach.
773 Hence, the detection with permanently deployed sensors measuring *p*CO₂/pH/O₂ 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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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 CO₂ leak from a CCS sub-seabed storage
971 site.mp4

972

973 Model output 1 – An example of modelled tidally driven near-bottom DIC/TCO₂
974 (μmol kgSW⁻¹) 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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