

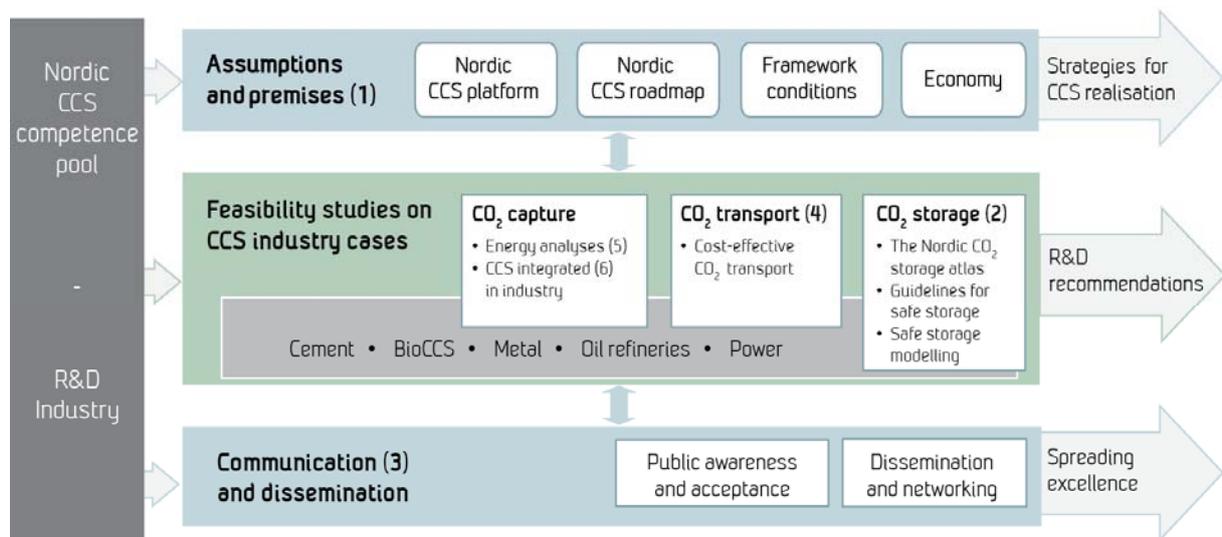
CO₂ storage potential of basaltic rocks in Iceland and the oceanic ridges

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Summary

Methodology for injection of CO₂ into basalts and evaluation of the theoretical storage capacity for Iceland.

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Keywords Storage potential, basalts, Iceland, ocean ridges, geothermal

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CO₂ storage potential of basaltic rocks in Iceland and the oceanic ridges

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The reduction of CO₂ emissions to the atmosphere is one of the greatest challenges of this century. One solution to this is carbon capture and storage (CCS). Some of the risks associated with CCS stem from the buoyancy of CO₂. This risk can be mitigated by dissolving CO₂ in water during its injection into basaltic rocks. Once dissolved, CO₂ is no longer buoyant and the CO₂-charged water accelerates metal release and formation of solid carbonate minerals for long term storage CO₂ [1].

Iceland is the largest landmass found above sea level at the mid-ocean ridges, about 103,000 km² mostly made of basaltic rocks (~90%). Theoretically much of Iceland could be used for injection of CO₂, fully dissolved in water. Most of the pore space in the older rocks is filled with secondary minerals, thus the young and porous basaltic formations, found within the active rift zone and covering about one third of Iceland, are the most feasible for carbon storage onshore. Studies on mineral storage of CO₂ in basaltic rocks are still at an early stage. Therefore, natural analogues are important for gaining a better understanding of CO₂ fixation in basaltic rocks. Volcanic geothermal systems serve as an applicable analogue since the systems receive considerable amounts of CO₂ from magma in the roots of the systems. Wiese et al. [2] quantified the amount and spatial distribution of CO₂ stored as calcite within the bedrock of three active geothermal systems in Iceland. The average kg m⁻³ of CO₂ fixed in the uppermost 1500 m varied from 28.2 kg m⁻³ in the area considered to be the youngest of the three to 73.1 kg m⁻³ in the oldest one. The results from this study can be used as a guideline for the theoretical potential of CO₂ storage in basaltic formations. By using the lowest average as a minimum and the highest average as a maximum and apply these values to a 1000 m thick segment of the relatively fresh basaltic formations within the rift zone of Iceland yields 2,470 Gt of CO₂ as a maximum mineral storage potential and 953 Gt as a minimum. This scenario is highly theoretical but underscores the enormous mineral storage potential within the young and porous basaltic rocks.

The length of the rift zone in Iceland is about 600 km. The oceanic ridges rise on average 1000–3000 m above the adjacent ocean floor and extend through all of the major ocean basins, with a total length in excess of 60,000 km. The theoretical mineral CO₂ storage capacity of the ocean ridges, using the Icelandic analogue, is of the order of 100,000–250,000 Gt CO₂. This theoretical storage capacity is significantly larger than the estimated 18,500 Gt CO₂ stemming from burning of all fossil fuel carbon on Earth [3]. The question remains; how much of this storage potential is practical to use?

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CO₂ storage potential of basaltic rocks in Iceland and the oceanic ridges

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Mineral storage of CO₂

The reduction of CO₂ emissions is one of the greatest challenges of this century. One solution to this is carbon capture and storage (CCS).

Some of the risks associated with CCS stems from the buoyancy of CO₂. That risk can be mitigated by dissolving CO₂ in water during its injection into basaltic rocks (fig. 1). Once dissolved, CO₂ is no longer buoyant, making it possible to inject into fractured rocks, such as basaltic rocks along the oceanic ridges.

The CO₂-charged water accelerates metal release and formation of solid carbonates for long term storage of CO₂ [1].

Iceland is the largest landmass found above sea level at the mid-ocean ridges, about 103,000 km² mostly (~90%) made of basaltic rocks. Theoretically much of Iceland could be used for injection of CO₂, fully dissolved in water. Most of

the pore space in the older rocks is filled with secondary minerals, thus the young and porous basaltic formations within the active rift zone, covering about one third of Iceland, are the most feasible for carbon storage onshore (fig. 2).

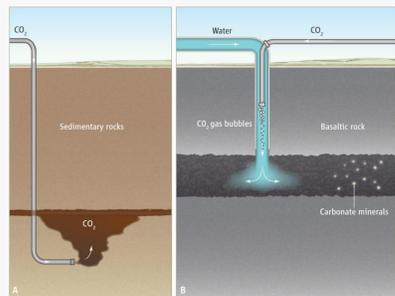


Figure 1. (A) Carbon storage in sedimentary basins; CO₂ is injected as a separate buoyant phase and is trapped below an impermeable cap rock. (B) CO₂ dissolved in water during its injection into porous basaltic rocks. No cap rock is required because the dissolved CO₂ is not buoyant and does not migrate back to the surface (from Gislason and Oelkers 2014).

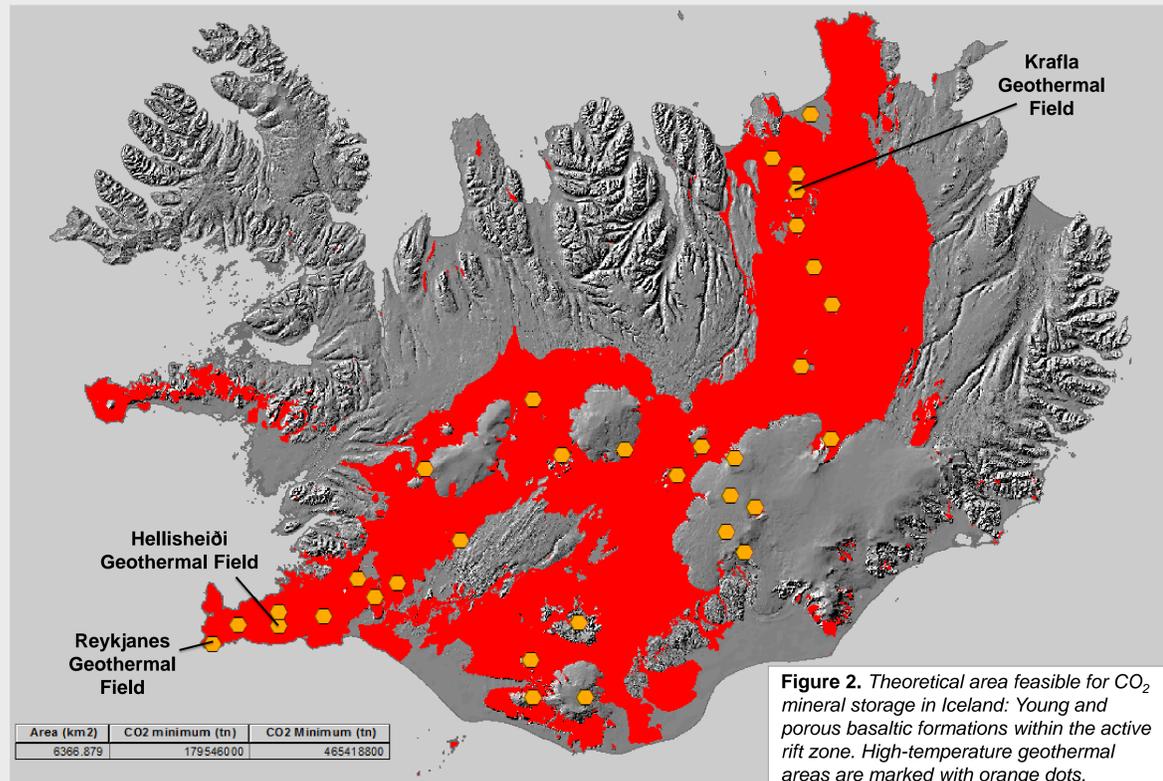


Figure 2. Theoretical area feasible for CO₂ mineral storage in Iceland: Young and porous basaltic formations within the active rift zone. High-temperature geothermal areas are marked with orange dots.

Natural analogs

Since studies are still at an early stage, volcanic geothermal systems serve as an applicable natural analogue for gaining a better understanding on mineral storage of CO₂. The systems receive considerable amounts of CO₂ from their heat source and can therefore be considered as a natural experiment to determine

CO₂ storage capacity of the bedrock.

Wiese et al. [2] quantified the amount and spatial distribution of CO₂ stored as Calcite within the bedrock of three active geothermal systems in Iceland: Krafla in the north-east of Iceland and Hellisheiði and Reykjanes in the south-west. The geothermal waters are meteoric in the Krafla and Hellisheiði systems, but seawater in the

Reykjanes system. The CO₂ content was measured in drill cutting samples from 40 wells, located in the three geothermal areas.

Average CO₂ load

The values measured in the Reykjanes geothermal area (considered the youngest of the three) were significantly lower than elsewhere in

this study; on average 28.2 kg m⁻³ of CO₂ fixed in the uppermost 1500 m. The average CO₂ load in the uppermost 1500 m in Hellisheiði geothermal area was measured 65.7 kg m⁻³. The highest values are measured in the Krafla geothermal area (considered to have been active for the longest) on average 73.1 kg m⁻³ in the uppermost 1500 m [2].

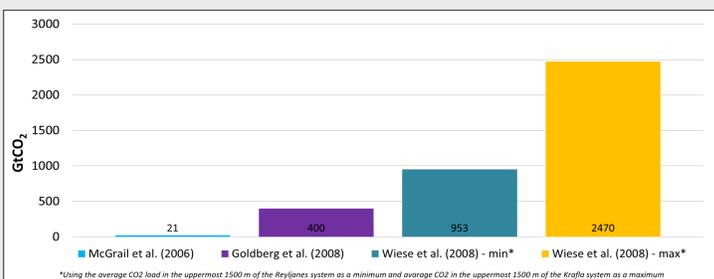


Figure 3. Theoretical mineral storage potential (GtCO₂) of basaltic rocks within the rift zone (34,000 km²) using methods from McGrail [3], Goldberg [5] and Wiese [2].

Storage capacity

The amount of CO₂ fixed in the bedrock of the three geothermal systems obtained from Wiese's study [2] can be used as a guideline for the theoretical potential of CO₂ storage in relatively young basaltic formations.

By using the average CO₂ load in the uppermost 1500 m of the Reykjanes system as a minimum of the Krafla system as a maximum and applying these to a 1000 m thick segment of the relatively fresh basaltic formations within the rift zone of Iceland yields 953 GtCO₂ as a minimum mineral storage potential and 2,470 GtCO₂ as a maximum. (fig. 3)

This scenario is highly theoretical but underscores the enormous mineral storage potential within the rift zone of Iceland where the basaltic rocks are young and still porous and normal faults are common.

Other estimations

Other attempts have been made to estimate the capacity for mineral storage of CO₂ (table 2). McGrail et al. [3] estimated that the Columbia River basalts alone have the capacity to store over 100 Gt of CO₂, assuming an interflow thickness of 10 m, average porosity of 15% and 10 available interflow zones at an average hydrostatic pressure of 100 atm. Anthonen et al. [4] applied McGrail's assumptions to the bedrock of Iceland, giving an estimated capacity of about 60 Gt CO₂. Using the same assumption for active rift zone in Iceland the number goes down to about 21 GtCO₂.

Furthermore, Goldberg et al. [5, 6] revealed the large storage capacity of sub-oceanic basalt formations at the Juan De Fuca plate east of Oregon, USA. Assuming a channel system dominating permeability over one-sixth of the uppermost 600 m of the area, it is estimated to contain 7800 km² of highly permeable basalt feasible for mineral storage. Given an average channel porosity of 10%, 780 km³ of potential pore volume will be available for CO₂ storage. Anthonen et al. [4] also applied Goldberg et al.'s [5] calculations to the bedrock of Iceland, resulting in an enormous number of about 1,200 GtCO₂. If these calculations are limited to the bedrock of the active rift zone in Iceland over 400 GtCO₂ could be stored.

Iceland and the oceanic ridges

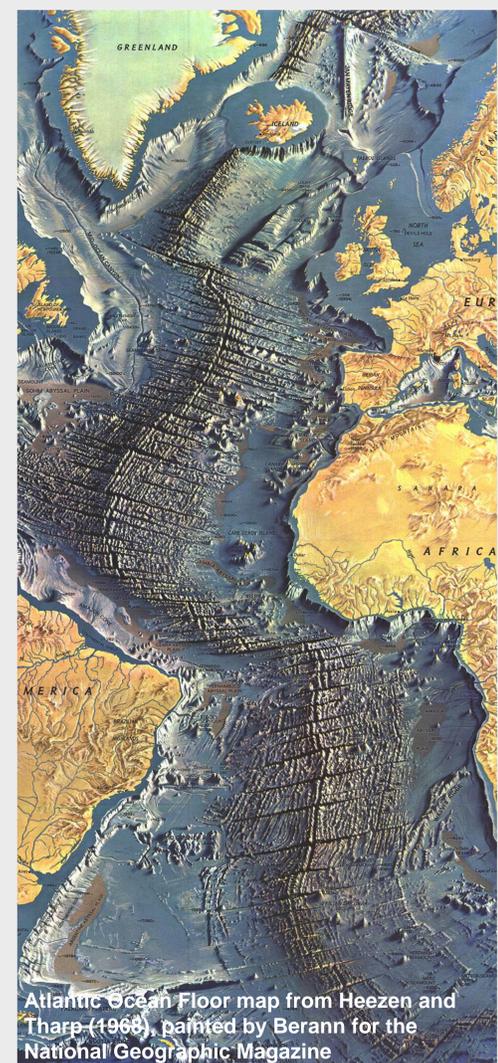
There is a high potential for mineral storage of CO₂ in Icelandic basalts and large amounts of CO₂ are already naturally fixed within the geothermal systems. Wiese et al. [2] estimates that the total CO₂ fixed within the active geothermal systems in Iceland amounts to 30-40 GtCO₂. This is equal to the anthropogenic global annual emission of CO₂ to the atmosphere in 2012.

The large potential for mineral storage of CO₂ in Icelandic basalts remains theoretical until more experience is gained by up-scaling of ongoing demonstration projects (e.g. Gislason and Oelkers, 2014).

The length of the rift zone in Iceland, the largest landmass found above sea level at mid-ocean ridges, is about 600 km. The oceanic ridges rise on average 1000–3000 m above the adjacent ocean floor. The ridges extend through all of the major ocean basins, with a total length in excess of 60,000 km.

The theoretical mineral CO₂ storage capacity of the ocean ridges, using the Icelandic analogue, is of the order of 100,000–250,000 GtCO₂. This theoretical storage capacity is significantly larger than the estimated 18,500 GtCO₂ stemming from burning of all fossil fuel carbon on Earth [7].

The question remains; how much of this storage potential is practical to use?



Atlantic Ocean Floor map from Heezen and Tharp (1968), painted by Berann for the National Geographic Magazine

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