Dolomite dissolution in aqueous solutions in the presence of nucleotides and their structural components at 25° C and pCO₂ ~ 1 atm.

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1 Abstract

The kinetics and stoichiometry of dolomite dissolution were investigated in deionized water at 2 25°C and pCO₂ ~1 atm in the absence (control) and presence of various nucleotides and their 3 structural components at low concentrations (1mM). Dissolutions were conducted in "free-drift" 4 mode and rates estimated based on the accumulation rate of calcium and magnesium ions in 5 solution. The additives considered in this study are likely present at low concentrations (< mM) in 6 deep, carbonate aquifers targeted for CO₂ geological sequestration. Results of our control 7 8 experiment are consistent with rates and stoichiometries reported in earlier studies. In the presence 9 of nucleotides, dolomite dissolution was inhibited and proceeded incongruently, yielding a Mg:Ca 10 solution ratio ≥ 2 . An investigation of the nucleotide structural components (nucleosides, 11 nitrogenous bases and phosphates) revealed that, whereas they nearly all inhibited dolomite 12 dissolution, only phosphate salts (mono-, di-, tri-, and hexametaphosphate) lead to incongruent 13 dissolution. Examination of the surface morphology and phosphate analysis of the solids reacted 14 in the presence of nucleotides and phosphate salts revealed the formation of a solid phosphate phase on the dolomite surface, likely a Ca rich-phosphate phase that accounts for the observed 15 16 dissolution incongruency.

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18 Keywords: Dolomite; CO₂ sequestration; nucleotides; phosphates; incongruent dissolution

20 1. Introduction

Carbonate reservoirs are hosts to more than 50% of the world's hydrocarbon reserves 21 (Saberi, 2010). The Western Canadian sedimentary basin (central Alberta and southwest Alberta 22 23 and Manitoba) comprises a number of ancient carbonate reefs, many of which have been partially or fully dolomitized, and these account for a substantial percentage of oil (50.7%) and gas (23%) 24 producing reservoirs (Creaney and Allan, 1990; Fowler et al., 2001; Halbertsma, 1994; Hamilton 25 26 and Olson, 1990; Hay, 1994). In many cases, the porosity and permeability of these reservoirs was acquired as a result of dolomitization (Qing and Mountjoy, 1992; Sharma et al., 2014) and are now 27 identified as potential sites for geological sequestration of CO₂ (Bachu, 2003; Bachu and Adams, 28 2003; Bachu and Stewart, 2002). The injection and dissolution of CO_2 in these reservoirs will 29 lower the pH of the reservoir fluids and promote the dissolution of surrounding carbonate minerals 30 31 (André et al., 2007; André et al., 2010; Garcia et al., 2011; Hao et al., 2013; Luquot and Gouze, 2009; Mohamed et al., 2011; Tutolo et al., 2014). The dissolution and precipitation of carbonate 32 minerals in aqueous solutions at high CO₂ partial pressures is of growing research interest in the 33 34 context of the geological sequestration of CO₂ in deep aquifers (Oelkers et al., 2011; Oelkers and Schott, 2005; Wellman et al., 2003). 35

Dolomite is a double carbonate, in which the cationic layer alternately hosts calcium and magnesium ions (Morse et al., 2007; Warren, 2000). Dolomite is abundant in ancient rocks, fossil carbonate reefs, but rare in modern sedimentary deposits (Arvidson and Mackenzie, 1999; McKenzie and Vasconcelos, 2009; Warren, 2000). A large number of studies have been carried out to determine the kinetics of dolomite dissolution in aqueous solutions in an effort to identify factors that control the reaction (Busenberg and Plummer, 1982; Pokrovsky and Schott, 2001; Sherman and Barak, 2000; Lüttge et al., 2003; Urosevic et al., 2012), more recently in the context of geological CO₂ sequestration and the structural integrity of limestone reservoirs (Gautelier et
al., 2007; Luhmann et al., 2014; Pokrovsky et al., 2009a; Pokrovsky et al., 2005; Pokrovsky et al.,
2009b), but also in an attempt to resolve the mysteries of its formation at low temperatures
(Busenberg and Plummer, 1982; Chou et al., 1989; Gautelier et al., 1999; Herman, 1982; Herman
and White, 1985; Morse and Arvidson, 2002; Morse et al., 2007; Orton and Unwin, 1993;
Pokrovsky et al., 1999).

49 McKenzie et al. (2009) recently reported that bacteria can promote the precipitation of dolomite. Bacteria and their metabolic products are ubiquitous in subaqueous environments 50 (Dhami et al., 2013; Gray and Engel, 2013; Paul, 2014) and the former can thrive in carbonate 51 52 (calcite and dolomite) hydrocarbon-bearing reservoirs (Machel et al., 1995; Wolicka et al., 2010). Hence, these reservoir rocks and associated fluids may contain bioactive molecules such as 53 nucleotides (Bulleid, 1978; Holm Hansen and Booth, 1966; Karl and Craven, 1980; Oomori and 54 55 Kitano, 1991; Webster et al., 1984) that may influence the dissolution and growth of carbonate minerals (calcite and dolomite) in these environments. Numerous studies have been conducted to 56 determine the effects of temperature, pH, salinity and pCO₂ on the dissolution of Ca and Mg 57 carbonates (Chou et al., 1989; Pokrovsky et al., 2005; Pokrovsky et al., 2009b; Zhang et al., 2007), 58 59 but few have focused on the influence of organic ligands on the reaction (Jordan et al., 2007; Oelkers et al., 2011; Pokrovsky et al., 2009a). Meyer (1984) reported on the influence of several 60 additives, including nucleotides (ATP and ADP), on calcite growth rates from aqueous solutions. 61 His results show an inhibition of calcite growth upon an increase in additive concentration, but no 62 63 study of the influence of nucleotides on carbonate dissolution kinetics has been conducted to date. 64 The present study strives to partially fill this gap by reporting the results of an experimental study of the kinetics and stoichiometry of dolomite dissolution in the absence (control) and presence of 65

four nucleotides (ATP, ADP, GDP and AMP) and their structural components (nucleosides, purines, sugars and phosphate backbone). Experiments were carried out in deionized water at a CO₂ partial pressure of one atmosphere in order to identify the chemical constituents responsible for the inhibitory and incongruent dissolution of the mineral that we observed in the presence of the nucleotides.

71 **2.** Materials and Methods

72 **2.1.** Sample characteristics

Dolomite crystals (hydrothermal, from Franklin, Sussex County, NJ, U.S.A.), purchased 73 74 from Boreal Science, were used in all experiments. The material was crushed, ground in an agate mortar and pestle, and sized by dry sieving between 149-212 µm. The sized material was washed 75 5 minutes in a 0.05N hydrochloric acid (HCl) solution to remove fine particles and impurities, 76 separated from the solution by filtration through a 0.45 µm Millipore polycarbonate filter, rinsed 77 five times with deionized water, and allowed to dry at room temperature. The geometric surface 78 area of the ground material was estimated at 155 cm²/g based on the mean grain size (180.5 μ m) 79 and the correlation published by Plummer and Wigley (1976) for particles sized between 20-325 80 81 mesh. The mineralogy of the material was characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD) (Rigaku 82 Smartlab: Cu K α anode at 44 mA, 20 step size of 0.01 degree and scan speed of 1.5 deg/min) whereas its metal (Ca, Mg, Fe, Mn, Na and Sr) content (Table 1) was determined by Flame Atomic 83 Absorption/Emission Spectrometry (AAS) (Perkin Elmer Analyst 100 Atomic Absorption 84 Spectrometer) following dissolution of a known weight of the material in 5N HCl and further 85 dilution in 0.1N HCl. The AAS was calibrated using external standards prepared by dilution, in 86 0.1N HCl, of commercially purchased 1000 ppm certified solutions. The results of the AAS and 87

88 XRD analyses revealed that the sample is a calcium-rich dolomite having 56.7 % CaCO₃ and 43.3% MgCO₃ (CaO- 31.8% and MgO-20.9%) with less than 5% FeCO₃. The excess calcium in 89 the dolomite can be explained by the presence of a ferroan dolomite (ankerite) that we identified 90 by XRD Rietveld analysis (Chai et al., 1995). 91

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2.2. General Procedure

The dolomite dissolution rate measurements were carried out in "free-drift" mode at 25°C, 93 1 atm CO₂ partial pressure in a 500 mL jacketed reaction vessel. The experimental set-up is 94 95 schematically represented in Fig.1. Temperature was maintained constant by recirculating water through the jacketed vessel from a water bath set at 25.0 ± 0.1 °C. The reaction vessel was fitted 96 97 with a PVC lid with holes for insertion of a Teflon stirring impeller, CO₂ gas dispersion tube and pH combination electrode. The impeller was driven by an overhead motor at a stirring speed of 98 120 rpm, high enough to keep the solid particles in suspension. 99



Fig.1 Schematic representation of the experimental design of the dolomite dissolution experiment.

The dissolution experiments were carried out in 300 mL of deionized water in the absence 104 (control experiment) and presence of selected additives (Table 2) at an initial concentration of 1 105 mM. The additives were chosen because of their potential presence in natural sedimentary 106 environments and their ability to complex divalent cations. The initial pH of the solution was 107 adjusted between 4-5 using standardized HCl (0.1M) or NaOH (1M) solutions. Commercial grade 108 109 CO_2 (100%) was pre-saturated with water by bubbling the gas through a scrubber filled with deionized water before being channeled into the reaction vessel through a fritted dispersion tube. 110 111 The gas flow was set at approximately 75 mL/min, thus maintaining the CO₂ partial pressure in 112 solution at ~0.97 atm, as estimated from pH measurements in pure water. The solution was preequilibrated with the CO₂ gas for 6 hours or until a steady-state pH was reached. The dissolution 113 experiment was initiated upon the addition of a weighed amount ($\sim 0.5g$) of the sized dolomite 114 crystals to the reaction vessel. Less than 10% of the starting material was dissolved by the end of 115 each experiment so that variations in surface area were estimated at less than 14% and deemed to 116 have a small influence on the measured rates. The pH was measured using a combination glass 117 electrode (Radiometer® GK2491C) connected to a Radiometer® M84 pH/millivolt-meter 118 (Radiometer Copenhagen PHM 84 Research pH Meter). The pH electrode was calibrated using 119 120 three NIST-traceable buffers (Fisher Scientific; pH = 2.00, 4.00 and 7.00 at 25°C), prior to and after each sample measurement. Aliquots (10 mL) of the reacting solution were taken at the 121 122 beginning of the run and at ~24-hour intervals over the next five days (total of 5 sampling intervals 123 for each experiment, time intervals between samplings sometime differ because of statutory holidays and lock-down of the laboratories, see Appendix A-1). The aliquots were filtered through 124 a 0.45 µm Millipore polycarbonate filter and acidified with 0.1 mL of 5N HCl. Dissolved Ca, Mg, 125 Fe and Mn were analyzed by AAS and Na by Atomic Emission Spectroscopy (AES). The detection 126

limits were estimated at 0.04 mg/L for Ca, Mg, Fe, and Mn and 0.01 mg/L for Na. The pH of the
reacting solution was noted at each sampling interval. The initial and final pH for all experiments
are given in Appendix (Table A-1).

130 2.3. Experimental calculations

The pH and pCO₂ were used to calculate the carbonic acid speciation (carbonate and 131 bicarbonate ion concentrations) of the reacting solutions at different time intervals by simple 132 iterative mathematical calculations. The thermodynamic constants used in the speciation and 133 saturation calculations were taken from the WATEQ4F database file in the PHREEQC program 134 provided by the USGS (Parkhurst and Appelo, 2011). The additive species and complexation 135 constants considered in the equilibrium calculations are given in Table 2. The activity coefficients 136 137 of charged species were estimated using an extended Debye-Hückel equation whereas those of neutral species were calculated according to: $\gamma = 10^{-0.51}$ (Busenberg and Plummer, 1982). 138

139 The dissolution rate was calculated from the change in total dissolved Ca^{2+} or Mg^{2+} concentration 140 (in mol/l), $\Delta[Ca^{2+}]$ or $\Delta[Mg^{2+}]$, according to Equation (1):

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$$R (mmol cm-2 s-1) = \frac{\Delta[Me]}{\Delta t} x \frac{V}{S}$$
(1)

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where Δt is the elapsed time in seconds, [Me] is total Ca or Mg concentration, V is the volume of the solution (mL) and, S is the total surface area of the dolomite crystals (cm²). The dissolution rates were corrected for evaporation, as determined from the change in the chloride concentration of a 0.1N NaCl solution under the same experimental conditions (temperature, stirring and bubbling). The chloride concentration was measured using a Radiometer Titralab 865 automated potentiometric titrator connected to a Ag electrode and a Hg/HgSO₄ reference electrode. The cumulative evaporation after 7 days was on the order of 0.7%, negligible relative to the analytical uncertainty of the Ca^{2+} and Mg²⁺ analyses.

152 **3. Result and Discussion**

153 **3.1. Influence of nucleotides on dolomite dissolution**

Results of the "free-drift", dolomite dissolution experiments performed in the absence 154 (control) and presence (1 mM) of the selected nucleotides at 25^oC and 1 atm CO₂ partial pressure 155 are presented in Figs. 2 and 3. Our results are also compared to those of Busenberg and Plummer 156 (1982) obtained by monitoring the weight loss of single crystals of sedimentary and hydrothermal 157 158 dolomite in "free drift" mode. Results of our control experiment are compatible with those of 159 Busenberg and Plummer (1982) for their hydrothermal dolomite. The small rate discrepancies 160 could be attributed to differences in the stability of the dolomite materials as well as the methods 161 used to estimate the rates. On the other hand, our rates are significantly faster than those obtained 162 from the vertical scanning interferometer study conducted by Lüttge et al. (2003) on various 163 cleavage faces of a dolomite single crystal in 0.001M HCl solutions (pH ~3). The authors offer a 164 number of reasons why this is so, including the highly reactive surface area and etch pit dominated kinetics of mineral powders. Results of experimental studies of dolomite dissolution must 165 obviously be carefully scrutinized and extrapolated to natural settings with caution. 166

167 The presence of nucleotides clearly leads to significant inhibition of the dolomite 168 dissolution rate, as tracked by the release of calcium to the solution. In all cases, the rate of 169 dissolution decreases exponentially with increasing pH of the solution. Similar trends were 170 reported in CO₂-rich solutions (pCO₂~1atm), in which the rate of dolomite dissolution decreased sharply with increasing pH above 5.5 (Busenberg and Plummer, 1982; Herman and White, 1985; 171 Pokrovsky and Schott, 2001; Pokrovsky et al., 1999; Urosevic et al., 2012). Results of our dolomite 172 dissolution experiments (Fig. 2) also display features that are similar to those observed by Plummer 173 et al. (1978) for calcite dissolution in "pH stat" and "free drift" experiments at various pCO2. 174 175 Plummer et al. (1978) divided their log (rate) vs pH plot into three regions: a linear region, far from equilibrium, where dissolution mostly depends on pH, a region where rates vary with both 176 pH and pCO₂, and a region characterized by a sharp inflection in the curve (i.e., rapid reduction in 177 178 the rate). In the latter region, calcite and dolomite dissolution is slow and was reported to vary linearly with the bicarbonate ion activity $(aHCO_3)$ in solution at a given pCO₂ (Busenberg and 179 Plummer, 1982; Plummer et al., 1978). The boundaries between the regions is a function of the 180 pCO₂ and reaction progress. (Plummer et al., 1978). Since the number of data points in the present 181 study are limited, the second region is poorly represented by our data and covers a very narrow 182 range of pH (<0.5). 183



Fig.2 Log (rate) of dolomite (as tracked by the release of Ca to the solution) vs. pH for dolomite in the absence (control) and presence of selected nucleotides (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at \leq 4%). (The B&P data are from Busenberg and Plummer (1982) and were acquired using sedimentary and hydrothermal dolomite dissolved in distilled water at ambient temperature and at a pCO₂~1atm.)



Fig.3 Log (rate) of dolomite dissolution (as tracked by the release of Ca and Mg to the solution)
as a function of pH: a) Control vs. ATP, b) ATP vs ADP, c) ATP vs GDP and d) ATP vs AMP.
(Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control
experiments, was estimated at ≤4%.)

198 In Fig. 3, the dissolution rate of dolomite at various pHs in the presence and absence (control) of the selected nucleotides is presented in terms of the release rate of both Ca and Mg to 199 the solutions. Our results indicate that the studied nucleotides not only inhibit the dissolution of 200 dolomite, but also influence the stoichiometry of the dissolution reaction. Whereas the Mg:Ca ratio 201 in the control experiment is nearly equal to the stoichiometry of the solid (Mg/Ca = 0.81 vs 0.76), 202 203 it is much larger in the presence of the nucleotides (Mg/Ca = 1.9 to 2.7) (Table A-2). In other words, the dissolution of dolomite is highly incongruent in the presence of the nucleotides, with 204 205 Mg being released to solution at a much faster rate than calcium. Our results contrast strongly with 206 observations of Busenberg and Plummer (1982), Pokrovsky and Schott (2001), Zhang et al. (2007) and Urosevic et al. (2012) who reported that, , under acidic conditions (pH < 5) in deionized water, 207 Ca dissolves faster than Mg and the surface of the dissolving dolomite becomes enriched with 208 MgCO₃. To the best of our knowledge, the level of incongruency that we observed in the presence 209 of the nucleotides has never been reported before, whether in the presence or absence of organic 210 or inorganic additives (Pokrovsky and Schott, 2001; Thomas et al., 1993). The preferential release 211 of Ca to the solution reported in previous studies of the dissolution of dolomite and other mixed 212 cation minerals in water was explained by the lower hydration energy of Ca^{2+} relative to Mg^{2+} and 213 the adsorption of Mg²⁺ at the mineral-water interface (Pokrovsky and Schott, 2001; Urosevic et 214 al., 2012; Wang, 2012). The dissolution rates of dolomite, in the presence of ATP and a small 215 amount of HgCl₂ (5x10⁻⁵M, a strong bactericide), were also incongruent but slightly slower than 216 217 those obtained in the absence of HgCl₂ (Fig. 4). Since the presence of HgCl₂, at an identical concentration, does not affect the stoichiometry but slightly inhibits the dolomite dissolution 218 219 reaction in control experiments (no additives added) (Fig. 4), the observed rate inhibition and 220 incongruency observed in the presence of the nucleotide upon the addition of HgCl₂ can be taken

as evidence that the influence of the nucleotide is not bacterially-mediated but a true abioticresponse.



Fig.4 Log (rate) of dolomite dissolution (based on Ca and Mg release to the solution) as a function of pH: ATP vs. ATP-HgCl₂ and Control vs Control-HgCl₂. (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at $\leq 4\%$.)

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3.2. Identification of the nucleotide structural component responsible for the incongruent dissolution behavior of dolomite

In order to identify which of the nucleotide's structural component (nucleoside, 232 233 nitrogenous base, pentose sugar and phosphate) is responsible for the observed incongruent dolomite dissolution, we repeated the dissolution experiments in the presence of adenine, 234 adenosine, guanine, guanosine and D-ribose as well as sodium monophosphate, diphosphate, 235 triphosphate and hexametaphosphate salts. The results obtained in the presence of each nucleotide 236 and their respective structural components are presented in Fig. 5, 6, 7 and 8. Among the 237 components investigated, the phosphates, i.e. mono-, di- and tri-phosphates displayed similar 238 behaviors to the nucleotides (ATP, ADP, GDP and AMP), whereas the other components 239 (nucleoside, nitrogenous base and pentose sugar), like the control experiments, all lead to the 240 congruent dissolution of dolomite, i.e., $Ca/Mg \approx 1$. 241

Fig.5 Dolomite dissolution rate (log) in terms of a) change in solution $[Ca^{2+}]$ and b) $[Mg^{2+}]$ as function of pH in the presence of 1mM ATP and its structural components: adenosine, adenine, D-ribose and triphosphate. (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at $\leq 4\%$.)

Fig.6 Dolomite dissolution rate (log) in terms of a) change in solution $[Ca^{2+}]$ and b) $[Mg^{2+}]$ as function of pH in the presence of 1mM ADP and its structural components: adenosine, adenine, D-ribose and diphosphate. (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at $\leq 4\%$.)

Fig.7 Dolomite dissolution rate (log) in terms of a) change in solution $[Ca^{2+}]$ and b) $[Mg^{2+}]$ as function of pH in the presence of 1mM GDP and its structural components: guanosine, guanine, D-ribose and diphosphate. (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at $\leq 4\%$.)

Fig.8 Dolomite dissolution rate (log) in terms of a) change in solution $[Ca^{2+}]$ and b) $[Mg^{2+}]$ as function of pH in the presence of 1mM AMP and its structural components: adenosine, adenine, D-ribose and monophosphate. (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at $\leq 4\%$.).

267 **3.3.** Influence of phosphate chain length on dolomite dissolution kinetics and stoichiometry

In order to quantify the extent of dolomite dissolution inhibition and the incongruency of 268 the reaction by the phosphate moieties of the nucleotides, dolomite dissolution experiments were 269 carried out in the presence of different phosphate salts (mono-, di-, tri- and hexametaphosphates). 270 In Busenberg and Plummer (1982), dolomite dissolution rates are expressed as a function of the 271 activity of H⁺, H₂CO₃, H₂O and HCO₃⁻ and the rates slow as aHCO₃⁻ increases in solution at a 272 fixed pCO₂. In analogy to their study, we compare the effectiveness of the nucleotides and 273 phosphate salts as inhibitors of dolomite dissolution at fixed HCO₃⁻ concentrations ([HCO₃⁻] (as 274 opposed to activities, a thermodynamic construct inappropriate to express c kinetics). Note that we 275 276 do not wish to imply a mechanistic role to the HCO₃⁻ ion in the dissolution reaction, it is simply used as a benchmark variable because rates vary almost linearly with its concentration, 277

278 The relative rates of dolomite dissolution with respect to the control experiment at identical 279 $\log([HCO_3])$ in the presence of various nucleotides and phosphate salts are given in Fig. 9. The 280 experimental results indicate that the degree of dissolution inhibition and incongruency is different for all tested phosphate salts. With the exception of monophosphate, dissolution inhibition 281 282 increases as the phosphate chain becomes shorter, in the order AMP> ADP> ATP and 283 diphosphate> triphosphate> monophosphate>hexametaphosphate, respectively. Given that the most powerful inhibiting species are believed to be the fully deprotonated phosphate moieties 284 (Burton and Walter, 1990), the anomalous behavior of the monophosphate may reflect the fact 285 286 that, under our experimental conditions and given their respective acidity constants (Table 2), the PO_4^{3-} concentration is smaller than that of triphosphate (TPP (5-)) and diphosphate (DPP (4-)) at 287 the same total additive concentration (1mM). 288

Fig.9 Ratios of the dissolution rate of dolomite, as expressed by the release of Ca to solution, in the presence of nucleotides and phosphate salts with respect to those measured in the control experiment at three fixed $\log([HCO_3^-]) A)$ -2.00, B) -2.25 and C) -2.50. (Note that the ratios are nearly the same if the rates are expressed in terms of the release of Mg to solution and $[HCO_3^-]$ values are calculated from the pH and pCO₂ of the individual experiments).

296 Earlier studies of dolomite dissolution (Busenberg and Plummer, 1982; Chou et al., 1989) revealed that, in contrast to calcite (Alkattan et al., 1998; Pokrovsky et al., 2005), the kinetics of 297 dolomite dissolution is surface-reaction controlled even at low pH (i.e., <4). Nevertheless, Orton 298 and Unwin (1993) reported that, at low pH (3 to 4), the kinetics of dissolution is diffusion-299 controlled, by providing evidence of mass-transport control on the dolomite dissolution rate. 300 301 Results of our control experiments at five different stirring rates (30 to 360 rpm) (Appendix, Fig. A-1) reveal that the dissolution rates are congruent and do not vary systematically with stirring 302 rate and are therefore deemed surface reaction-controlled. Our experimental observation at the 303 304 lowest stirring rate (30 rpm), with the mineral grains sitting nearly undisturbed at the bottom of reaction vessel, clearly support our conclusion whereas the odd data obtained at the highest stirring 305 rate (360 rpm) are most likely an experimental artifact that results from the collision between the 306 mineral grains. In summary, whereas the investigated nucleotides and most of their structural 307 components inhibited the dolomite dissolution rate, a greater inhibition and incongruent 308 dissolution were observed when the investigated compounds contained phosphate moieties. 309

Several studies have reported the inhibitory effect of phosphate (Alkattan et al., 2002; Dove 310 and Hochella, 1993; Klasa et al., 2013; Lin and Singer, 2005; Morse, 1974; Mucci, 1986; Sjöberg, 311 312 1978; Sulu-Gambari, 2011; Walter and Burton, 1986) and nucleotides (Meyer, 1984) on calcite 313 dissolution and growth, but the influence of nucleotides and phosphate salts on dolomite dissolution kinetics has not been investigated before. Phosphate inhibits the dissolution and growth 314 of calcite by adsorbing at high energy sites (kink, step, edge and hole) on the mineral surface 315 316 (Berner and Morse, 1974; Giannimaras and Koutsoukos, 1987; Meyer, 1984; Mucci, 1986; Walter 317 and Burton, 1986) and leads to variations in etch-pit spreading and step-retreat rates (Ruiz-Agudo 318 and Putnis, 2012). The inhibition is believed to be caused by the temporary pinning of phosphate

at active sites and the consequent impediment of anion attachment (growth) or cation detachment 319 (dissolution) from neighboring sites (Berner and Morse, 1974; Dove and Hochella, 1993). 320 Alternatively, our observations could be explained by the concomitant release of calcium and 321 magnesium from the dolomite, followed by the precipitation of their corresponding phosphate salts 322 on the mineral surface (Klasa et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2014a; Xu et al., 2014b; Yuan et al., 2015) 323 324 and further dissolution inhibition. In other words, the incongruent dissolution of dolomite in the presence of phosphate-containing compounds may reflect the preferential adsorption of phosphate 325 species such as CaHPO₄⁰ (Lin and Singer, 2006) and precipitation of a phosphate phase on the 326 327 mineral surface. Like Xu et al (2014a), we do not exclude the possible adsorption of Mg and formation of Mg-phosphate phases. 328

The adsorption of phosphate-bearing compounds on calcite has been investigated in 329 various contexts such as its influence on the mineral dissolution kinetics (Alkattan et al., 2002; 330 Klasa et al., 2013) and growth (Dove and Hochella, 1993; Giannimaras and Koutsoukos, 1987; 331 Lin and Singer, 2005; Lin and Singer, 2006; Plant and House, 2002), surface-complexation model 332 development (Sø et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2014a), the use of calcite as a phosphate adsorbing substrate 333 (Freeman and Rowell, 1981; Karageorgiou et al., 2007; Millero et al., 2001; Prochaska and 334 335 Zouboulis, 2006; Sawada et al., 2003; Sø et al., 2011; Suzuki et al., 1986; Wang et al., 2012) and phosphate mineral nucleation and replacement (Rokidi et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2012). Most of 336 these studies were conducted using monophosphate, with a limited number of investigations of 337 pyrophosphate (Lin and Singer, 2005), triphosphate (Sawada et al., 2003), polymetaphosphates 338 339 (Lin and Singer, 2005) and nucleotides (Cleaves et al., 2011). To the best of our knowledge, the 340 influence of phosphate on dolomite dissolution and growth kinetics has not been investigated, but 341 a number of studies of its adsorption to natural as well as calcinated dolomite (Hanna et al., 2008;

Karaca et al., 2004; Karaca et al., 2006; Mangwandi et al., 2014; Nugroho et al., 2014; Roques et 342 al., 1991; Xu et al., 2014a; Yuan et al., 2015) and the pseudomorphic transformation of dolomite 343 to a phosphate mineral (Schultheiss et al., 2013) can be found in the literature. In most of these 344 studies, the authors state that the interaction of mineral constituent cations in solution or at the 345 mineral surface with phosphate commonly leads to the formation of various calcium and 346 347 magnesium phosphate phases such as amorphous calcium phosphate (ACP) (Dove and Hochella, 1993; Giannimaras and Koutsoukos, 1987; Millero et al., 2001; Roques et al., 1991; Wang et al., 348 2012; Xu et al., 2014a; Xu et al., 2014b), hydroxyapatite (HAP) (Klasa et al., 2013; Yuan et al., 349 350 2015; Schultheiss et al., 2013), di-calcium phosphate (DCP) (Freeman and Rowell, 1981), di-basic calcium phosphate di-hydrate (DCPD) (Xu et al., 2014b), tri-calcium phosphate (TCP) (Plant and 351 House, 2002; Sawada et al., 2003), octa-calcium phosphate (OCP) (Freeman and Rowell, 1981; 352 Klasa et al., 2013; Plant and House, 2002; Sawada et al., 2003), newberyite (MgHPO4.3H2O) (Xu 353 et al., 2014a) and whitlockite (Ca₉Mg(PO₄)₆(PO₃OH) (Schultheiss et al., 2013). As discussed 354 previously, the metal phosphate phases can either form following the adsorption of phosphate at 355 the mineral surface and the formation of surface complexes (Giannimaras and Koutsoukos, 1987; 356 Sø et al., 2011) or following dolomite dissolution and release of calcium to the solution, its 357 358 adsorption and precipitation of a Ca-phosphate phase on the surface (Klasa et al., 2013; Yuan et al., 2015). There have also been reports of the hydrothermal mineral replacement of calcite and 359 aragonite by calcium phosphate phases (apatite, HAP and second phosphate phase β -TCP) (Jonas 360 et al., 2014; Lemos et al., 2006; Yoshimura et al., 2004). Under acidic or circum-neutral conditions 361 (pH \leq 7), the following surface complexes: >CaH₂PO₄⁺, >CaHPO₄⁰ and >MgHPO₄Ca⁺ are thought 362 to dominate and serve as precursors of a Ca-phosphate phase (Giannimaras and Koutsoukos, 1987; 363 Lin and Singer, 2006; Hanna et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2014a). At pH≥8, >CaPO₄Ca⁰ and 364

>MgHPO₄Ca⁺ would prevail and lead to the formation of both Ca- and Mg-phosphates (e.g.,
newberyite; Xu et al., 2014a).

Given that this study was conducted at a high pCO₂ (~1 atm) and weak acidic conditions 367 (pH ~4-6), and since the Mg:Ca ratio in solution is significantly larger than the mineral 368 stoichiometry, the observed inhibition and reaction incongruency is best explained by the 369 adsorption of phosphate (or CaHPO₄⁰, as proposed by Lin and Singer (2006)) at CaCO₃ sites 370 through pinning of active dissolution sites (steps) followed by the growth of a Ca-phosphate phase 371 on the dolomite surface, by the formation of a (Ca, Mg)-phosphate overgrowth and/or the surface 372 adsorption of Mg ions (Schultheiss et al., 2013). Calculations of the saturation indices (SI = \log 373 374 $(\Omega) = \log (IAP/K^{o}_{sp}))$ of the experimental solutions with respect to different Me (Ca, Mg)phosphate phases (ACP, HAP, TCP, OCP, DCPD and newbervite) throughout the dolomite 375 dissolution reaction (Table A-3), reveal that the solutions were undersaturated with respect to these 376 377 minerals at all times. SEM micrographs (FEI Quanta 450 Environmental Scanning Electron Microscope (FE-ESEM)) of the fresh ground dolomite (starting material) and reacted solids 378 recovered (washed with DI water and air dried) from the control, monophosphate and AMP 379 experiments are shown in Fig. 10 a, b, c and d, respectively. The samples were mounted on 380 381 aluminum stubs, sputter-coated with platinum and examined by scanning electron microscopy at an accelerating voltage of 10KV. Whereas the surface of the first two shows well defined steps 382 and is devoid of fine particules, the solids reacted in the presence of monophosphate and AMP 383 display irregular and corroded surfaces and the presence (a frosting) of very fine overgrowths 384 385 concentrated along step edges and on flat surfaces. Following the complete dissolution of aliquots 386 of the fresh dolomite and the reacted solids (washed in DI water and air dried) from the control 387 and monophosphate experiments in a 5N HCl solution, the phosphate concentration of the 388 solutions was measured spectrophotometrically (HP-8453A UV-Visible diode-array spectrophotometer) using the phosphomolybdate method developed by Murphy and Riley (1962) 389 and described in Grasshoff et al. (1999). The absorbance of the phosphomolybdate reaction 390 product was measured at 880 nm in a 1-cm quartz cell. Based on the results of our analyses, the 391 phosphate concentration on the solids reacted in the presence of monophosphate was 280 µmol/g 392 or 1.8 µmol/cm², whereas it was barely detectable (detection limit was 0.5 µmol/g or 0.003 393 μ mol/cm²) in the others samples. These results and the SEM photomicrographs confirm that a 394 phosphate phase was precipitated on the mineral surface. The preferential precipitation of a Ca-395 396 phosphate, leading to the observed incongruent dissolution, is likely a consequence of the differential stability of the surface complexes and the solubility product of the calcium and 397 magnesium phosphate salts (Table 3). The K_{sp} of common calcium phosphates vary between $2x10^{-1}$ 398 33 (apatite) and 1×10^{-36} (hydroxyapatite), compared to magnesium phosphate 1.04×10^{-24} 399 (Mg₂(PO)₃) and 1.67x10⁻⁶ (newberyite) at 25°C (Averill, 2012; Le Rouzic, 2013; Verbeeck et al., 400 1984; Xu et al., 2014b). Whereas, under our experimental conditions, H₂PO₄⁻, HPO₄²⁻ and 401 CaHPO₄⁰ dominate in solution and PO₄³⁻ is negligible (<0.05%), Xu et al. (2014a) estimates that, 402 between pH 5.5 and 6.5, $>CaH_2PO_4^+$, $>CaHPO_4^0$ and $>MgHPO_4Ca^+$ are the dominant species on 403 the dolomite surface at total phosphate concentrations > 0.1 mM. As mentioned above, fully 404 deprotonated phosphate (PO₄³⁻) accounts for less than 0.05 % of total phosphate in solution, but it 405 406 is expected that its adsorption will lead to a re-equilibration of the dissolved phosphate species (Le Chatelier's principle). Hence, over the course of the experiment, a potentially significant amount 407 of PO₄³⁻ may adsorb onto the dolomite surface. It is also interesting to note that the presence of 408 409 Mg in calcite and dolomite enhances phosphate adsorption to their surfaces and may promote the

- 410 precipitation of a Ca-phosphate phase on the mineral surface (Millero et al., 2001; Xu et al.,
- 411 2014a).

Fig.10 SEM micrographs of a) fresh, ground dolomite (starting material) and recovered, reacted

solids of b) control, c) monophosphate and d) AMP experiments.

417 **4.** Conclusion

Dolomite dissolution rate and stoichiometry were determined at 25°C and 1 atm pCO₂ to 418 419 simulate conditions that may be encountered during geological CO₂ sequestration in carbonate aquifers. The study was conducted in the absence (control) and presence (1mM) of the nucleotides 420 (ATP, ADP, GDP and AMP) and their structural components (adenine, guanine, D-ribose, 421 adenosine and guanosine), including inorganic phosphate salts (mono-, di-, tri- and 422 hexametaphosphates), that are likely present in deep aquifers at low concentrations (1-10mM). 423 424 With the exception of adenine and D-ribose, the presence of all nucleotides, their structural 425 components, including all phosphate salts inhibited the dolomite dissolution rate relative to the 426 control experiment. The presence of nucleotides and phosphate salts not only inhibited the 427 dolomite dissolution but also lead to an incongruent reaction, yielding a resultant solution with a 428 Mg:Ca molar ratio ≥ 2 . With the exception of monophosphate, the inhibition was found to increase 429 as the length of the chained phosphate nucleotides and inorganic polyphosphates decreased. Under 430 our experimental conditions, the dissolution of dolomite in the presence of nucleotides and phosphate is accompanied by the nucleation of a solid phosphate phase on the dolomite surface, 431 432 as resolved by SEM and confirmed by phosphate analysis of the dissolved reacted solids. The surface precipitate is likely a Ca-rich phosphate phase, accounting for the observed incongruent 433 dissolution. Since the reacting solutions were undersaturated with respect to common Ca and Mg-434 phosphate phases throughout the dissolution experiments, adsorption of phosphate followed by the 435 436 development of a Me (Ca, Mg)-phosphate phase through surface complexation is thought to account for the observed incongruency. Whereas the formation of a carbonate hydroxyapatite has 437 been documented by atomic force microscopy (AFM) on the surface of dissolving calcite in the 438 presence of phosphate salts (Kamiya et al., 2004; Klasa et al., 2013), a similar study of the dolomite 439

surface has not yet been conducted to confirm the nature of the precipitate at low temperatures,but whilockite was shown to form under hydrothermal conditions (Schultheiss et al., 2013).

The present study provides insights on how dolomite behaves upon dissolution in the presence of the studied additives in low ionic strength solutions. A more pertinent study, in the context of CO₂ sequestration in deep aquifers (subsurface environments, high ionic strengths to brine like conditions), would require an investigation of the effect of ionic strength on the dolomite dissolution rate in the absence and presence of these additives (Jordan et al., 2007; Oelkers et al., 2011; Pokrovsky and Schott, 2001; Pokrovsky et al., 2005; Pokrovsky et al., 2009a; Pokrovsky et al., 2009b).

449

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Figures List

Fig.1 Schematic representation of the experimental design of the dolomite dissolution experiment.

Fig.2 Log (rate) of dolomite (as tracked by the release of Ca to the solution) vs. pH for dolomite in the absence (control) and presence of selected nucleotides. (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at $\leq 4\%$.) (The B&P data are from Busenberg and Plummer (1982) and were acquired using sedimentary and hydrothermal dolomite dissolved in distilled water at ambient temperature and at a pCO₂~1atm).

Fig.3 Log (rate) of dolomite dissolution (as tracked by the release of Ca and Mg to the solution) as a function of pH: a) Control vs. ATP, b) ATP vs ADP, c) ATP vs GDP and d) ATP vs AMP. (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at $\leq 4\%$.)

Fig.4 Log (rate) of dolomite dissolution (based on Ca and Mg release to the solution) as a function of pH: ATP vs. ATP-HgCl₂ and Control vs Control-HgCl₂. (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at $\leq 4\%$.)

Fig.5 Dolomite dissolution rate (log) in terms of a) change in solution $[Ca^{2+}]$ and b) $[Mg^{2+}]$ as function of pH in the presence of 1mM ATP and its structural components: adenosine, adenine, D-ribose and triphosphate. (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at $\leq 4\%$.)

Fig.6 Dolomite dissolution rate (log) in terms of a) change in solution $[Ca^{2+}]$ and b) $[Mg^{2+}]$ as function of pH in the presence of 1mM ADP and its structural components: adenosine, adenine, D-ribose and diphosphate. (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at $\leq 4\%$.)

Fig.7 Dolomite dissolution rate (log) in terms of a) change in solution $[Ca^{2+}]$ and b) $[Mg^{2+}]$ as function of pH in the presence of 1mM GDP and its structural components: guanosine, guanine, D-ribose and diphosphate. (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at $\leq 4\%$.)

Fig.8 Dolomite dissolution rate (log) in terms of a) change in solution $[Ca^{2+}]$ and b) $[Mg^{2+}]$ as function of pH in the presence of 1mM AMP and its structural components: adenosine, adenine, D-ribose and monophosphate. (Note that the reproducibility of rate measurements, based on the results of replicate control experiments, was estimated at $\leq 4\%$.)

Fig.9 Ratios of the dissolution rate of dolomite, as expressed by the release of Ca to solution, in the presence of nucleotides and phosphate salts with respect to those measured in the control experiment at three fixed $\log(aHCO_3^-) A)$ -2.50, B) -2.75 and C) -3.00. (Note that the ratios are nearly the same if the rates are expressed in terms of the release of Mg to solution and $aHCO_3^-$ values are calculated from the pH and pCO₂ of the individual experiments).

Fig.10 SEM micrographs of a) fresh, ground dolomite (starting material) and recovered, reacted solids of b) control, c) monophosphate and d) AMP experiments.

Tables List

Table 1. Metal composition of the dolomite

Table 2. Chemical species considered in the speciation and equilibrium calculations.

Table 3. The stability constants of various calcium and magnesium phosphate species in solution at $25^{\circ}C$

Element	Concentration (ppm)
Calcium (Ca)	20600
Magnesium (Mg)	9260
Iron (Fe)	830
Manganese (Mn)	175
Sodium (Na)	9.2
Strontium (Sr)	53

 Table 1. Metal composition of the dolomite

Table 2.	Chemical	species	considered	in the	speciation an	d ec	juilibrium	calculations.

No.	Additives	Dissolved chemical species	Acidity Constants	Stability Constants
1	Adenosine	*a, ATP, ATP ¹⁻ , ATP ²⁻ , ATP ³⁻ , ATP ⁴⁻ ,	pKa1,2,3,4 = 1.8, NA, 4.0, 6.5 (*1,	pK1 (ATPCa ²⁻) = -3.9, pK1 (ATPMg ²⁻) = -4.2, pK2
	triphosphate (ATP)	ATPCa ²⁻ , ATPMg ²⁻ , ATPCa ⁻ , ATPMg ⁻	*2)	(ATPCa ⁻) = -2.1, pK2 (ATPMg ⁻) = -2.3 (*3)
2	Adenosine	*a, ADP, ADP ¹⁻ , ADP ²⁻ , ADP ³⁻ , ADPCa ⁻	pKa1,2,3 = 1.5, 3.9, 6.3 (*1, *2)	$pK1(ADPCa^{-}) = -2.9, pK1(ADPMg^{-}) = -3.2,$
	diphosphate (ADP)	, ADPMg ⁻ , ADPCa ⁰ , ADPMg ⁰		pK2(ADPCa ⁰) = -1.6, pK2(ADPMg ⁰) = -1.6 (*3)
3	Guanosine	*a, GDP, GDP ¹⁻ , GDP ²⁻ , GDP ³⁻ , GDPCa ⁻	pKa1,2,3 = 2.9, 6.3, 9.6 (*3)	pK(GDPCa ⁻) = -3.4, pK(GDPMg ⁻) = -3.4
	diphosphate (GDP)	, GDPMg ⁻		
4	Adenosine	*a, $C_{10}H_{14}N_5O_7P^0$, $C_{10}H_{13}N_5O_7P^{-1}$	pKa1,2 = 3.80, 6.23 (*3)	$pK1(AMPCa^{2-}) = -1.8, pK1(AMPMg^{2-}) = -1.8$ (*3)
	monophosphate	$C_{10}H_{12}N_5O_7P^{2\text{-}},\ CaC_{10}H_{12}N_5O_7P^0,$		
	(AMP)	$MgC_{10}H_{12}N_5O_7P^0\\$		
5	Adenosine	*a, $C_{10}H_{13}N_5O_4$, $C_{10}H_{12}N_5O_4$,	pKa1,2,3 = 3.5, NA, 12.5 (*3)	NA
		$C_{10}H_{11}N_5O_4{}^{2\text{-}}, C_{10}H_{10}N_5O_4{}^{3\text{-}}$		NA
6	Guanosine	*a, $C_{10}H_{13}N_5O_5$, $C_{10}H_{12}N_5O_5$,	pKa1,2,3 = 2.2, 9.3, 12.4 (*3)	NA
		$C_{10}H_{11}N_5O_5^{2-}, C_{10}H_{10}N_5O_5^{3-}$		NA
7	Adenine	*a, $C_5H_5N_5$, $C_5H_4N_5^-$, $C_5H_3N_5^{2-}$,	pKa1,2 = 4.2, 9.7 (*3)	$pK(C_5H_3N_5Ca^0) = -3.0, pK(C_5H_3N_5Mg^0) = -3.1$ (*3)
		$C_5H_3N_5Ca^0, C_5H_3N_5Mg^0$		

No.	Additives	Dissolved chemical species	Acidity Constants	Stability Constants
8	Guanine	*a, $C_5H_5N_5O$, $C_5H_4N_5O^-$, $C_5H_3N_5O^{2-}$, $C_5H_2N_5O^{3-}$	pKa1,2,3 = 3.3, 9.2, 12.3 (*3)	NA
9	Beta-D- Ribose	*a, C ₅ H ₁₀ O ₅ , C ₅ H ₉ O ₅ ⁻	pKa1 = 11.8 (*4)	NA
10	Sodium monophosphate	*a, H ₃ PO ₄ , H ₂ PO ₄ ⁻ , HPO ₄ ²⁻ , PO ₄ ³⁻ , CaPO ₄ ⁻ , MgPO ₄ ⁻	pKa1,2,3, = 2.1, 7.2, 12.4 (*5)	$pK(CaPO_{4^{-}}) = -2.2, pK(MgPO_{4^{-}}) = -2.5$ (*3)
11	Sodium diphosphate	*a, $H_4P_2O_7$, $H_3P_2O_7^-$, $H_2P_2O_7^{2-}$, $HP_2O_7^{3-}$, $P_2O_7^{4-}$, $P_2O_7Ca^{2-}$, $P_2O_7Mg^{2-}$	pKa1,2,3 = 0.8, 2.2, 6.7 (*5)	$pK(P_2O_7Ca^{2-}) = -5.0, pK(P_2O_7Mg^{2-}) = -4.7$ (*3)
12	Sodium triphosphate	*a, $H_5P_3O_{10}$, $H_4P_3O_{10}^-$, $H_3P_3O_{10}^{2-}$, $H_2P_3O_{10}^{3-}$, $HP_3O_{10}^{4-}$, $P_3O_{10}^{5-}$, $CaP_3O_{10}^{3-}$, $MgP_3O_{10}^{3-}$, $CaHP_3O_{10}^{2-}$, $MgHP_3O_{10}^{2-}$	pKa1,2,3 = 1.0, 2.0, 2.8 (*6)	$pK1(CaP_{3}O_{10}^{3-}) = -5.2, pK1(MgP_{3}O_{10}^{3-}) = -5.8,$ $pK2(CaHP_{3}O_{10}^{2-}) = -3.0, pK2(MgHP_{3}O_{10}^{2-}) = -3.5$ (*3)
13	Sodium hexametaphosphate	*a, $H_6(PO_3)_6$, $H_5(PO_3)_6^-$, $H_4(PO_3)_6^{2-}$, $H_3(PO_3)_6^{3-}$, $H_2(PO_3)_6^{4-}$, $H(PO_3)_6^{5-}$, $(PO_3)_6^{6-}$, $CaP_6O_{18}^{6-}$, $MgP_6O_{18}^{6-}$	pKa1,2,3,4,5,6 = 2.0, NA, NA, NA, 5.6, 7.82(*7)	$pK(CaP_6O_{18}^{4-}) = -8.1 (*5),$ $pK(MgP_6O_{18}^{4-}) = -8.1 (*8)$

NA- Not Available

*a- Common chemical species are H^+ , OH^- , HCO_3^- , CO_3^{2-} , H_2CO_3 , Ca^{2+} , $CaHCO_3^{++}$, $CaCO_3^{-0}$, Mg^{2+} , $MgHCO_3^{++}$, $MgCO_3^{-0}$, Na^+ , $NaHCO_3^{-0}$, $NaCO_3^{--}$, Cl^{--}

*1- (Tate, 1981), *2- (Alberty et al., 1951), *3- (Dawson et al., 1989), *4- (Sen et al., 2014), *5- (Smith and Martell, 1976)

*6- (Dai Lam et al., 2006), *7- (Perrin, 1982), *8- Assumed same value as $CaP_6O_{18}^{4-}$

Table 3. The stability constants of various calcium and

Species	LogK
CaPO ₄	6.50 ^(a,b)
MgPO ₄ ⁻	6.59 ^a
CaHPO ₄ ⁰	2.74 ^a
MgHPO ₄ ⁰	2.87 ^a , 2.88 ^c
$CaH_2PO_4^+$	1.41 ^a , 1.08 ^b
$MgH_2PO_4^+$	1.51ª, 1.17 ^c
Wateq4f dat in I	Phreeac-313

magnesium phosphate species in solution at 25°C

^aWateq4f.dat in Phreeqc-3.1.3. ^bXu et al. (2014b) ^{c(}Verbeeck et al. (1984)

Appendix

Tables

Additive ^a	Initial solution pH	Final solution pH
Control	5.01	5.72
Adenosine triphosphate (ATP)	4.89	5.49
Adenosine diphosphate (ADP)	4.74	5.42
Guanosine diphosphate (GDP)	4.08	5.44
Adenosine monophosphate (AMP)	4.16	5.49
Adenosine	4.28	5.76
Guanosine	4.25	5.49
Adenine	4.56	5.67
Guanine	4.54	5.71
Beta-D- Ribose	4.10	5.68
Sodium monophosphate	4.00	5.58
Sodium diphosphate	4.07	5.29
Sodium triphosphate	3.99	5.39
Sodium hexametaphosphate	4.29	5.50

Table A-1. Initial and final solution pH of dissolution experiments in the absence and presence of additives (1 mM)

^aAll experiments were conducted for 7 days at 25° C and 1 atm pCO₂ in 300 mL of deionized water with 1mM of additive .

Experiment	RPM	Time	pН	Mg:Ca molar	Rate ^a (dCa/dt)	Rate ^a (dMg/dt)	Ω dolomite	log (mHCO3 ⁻)
-		(min)	-	ratio	(mmolcm ⁻² sec ⁻¹)	(mmol cm ⁻² sec ⁻¹)		
Control	120	1440	5.54	0.89	1.5E-07	1.2E-07	3.2E-04	-2.29
		2880	5.64	0.84	7.6E-08	5.7E-08	1.6E-03	-2.18
		4320	5.67	0.81	3.4E-08	2.1E-08	2.5E-03	-2.15
		8640	5.72	0.81	1.2E-08	1.0E-08	5.0E-03	-2.09
Control+HgCl ₂	120	380	5.20	0.78	1.6E-07	1.1E-07	4.3E-06	-2.65
· ·		1448	5.37	0.81	6.7E-08	5.8E-08	4.9E-05	-2.47
		2880	5.45	0.81	4.0E-08	3.1E-08	1.7E-04	-2.38
		4275	5.50	0.81	2.0E-08	1.6E-08	3.1E-04	-2.33
		8665	5.57	0.82	1.3E-08	1.1E-08	9.1E-04	-2.25
ATP	120	1440	5.33	2.21	3.9E-08	6.8E-08	4.8E-06	-2.49
		2880	5.41	2.21	8.9E-09	2.0E-08	1.4E-05	-2.41
		4320	5.45	2.19	7.0E-09	1.4E-08	2.6E-05	-2.36
		5760	5.47	2.19	3.9E-09	8.3E-09	3.5E-05	-2.34
		8640	5.50	2.19	1.7E-09	3.7E-09	4.7E-05	-2.32
ATP+HgCl ₂	120	1440	4.93	1.53	2.6E-08	4.0E-08	4.5E-08	-2.90
		2880	5.03	1.63	7.6E-09	1.5E-08	1.8E-07	-2.80
		4320	5.09	1.70	3.7E-09	8.5E-09	3.9E-07	-2.74
		5760	5.13	1.74	1.8E-09	4.8E-09	6.3E-07	-2.70
		8640	5.19	1.82	7.9E-10	2.9E-09	1.1E-06	-2.64
ADP	120	1440	5.28	1.93	3.8E-08	7.7E-08	5.0E-06	-2.55
		2880	5.34	2.02	5.9E-09	1.6E-08	1.1E-05	-2.49
		4320	5.37	1.98	3.2E-09	4.2E-09	1.6E-05	-2.46
		5760	5.40	1.94	2.4E-09	2.9E-09	2.1E-05	-2.43
		8640	5.42	1.86	2.7E-09	2.9E-09	3.1E-05	-2.40
GDP	120	1440	5.30	2.52	3.1E-08	7.7E-08	4.8E-06	-2.47
		2880	5.36	2.51	9.1E-09	2.3E-08	1.4E-05	-2.44
		4320	5.40	2.51	3.8E-09	9.7E-09	2.3E-05	-2.42
		7200	5.41	2.53	1.5E-09	4.1E-09	3.0E-05	-2.40
		8640	5.44	2.54	5.8E-10	1.6E-09	3.7E-05	-2.40
AMP	120	1440	5.39	2.57	2.1E-08	5.5E-08	5.1E-06	-2.46
		2880	5.42	2.59	3.0E-09	1.1E-08	9.4E-06	-2.42
		4320	5.43	2.60	1.9E-09	4.3E-09	1.2E-05	-2.40
		7200	5.44	2.56	1.3E-09	1.8E-09	1.4E-05	-2.40
		8640	5.50	2.50	1.3E-09	1.8E-09	2.5E-05	-2.35
Adenine	120	1440	5.50	0.79	2.2E-07	1.7E-07	4.2E-04	-2.32

Table A-2. Experimental data from dolomite dissolution experiments

Experiment	RPM	Time	pН	Mg:Ca molar	Rate ^a (dCa/dt)	Rate ^a (dMg/dt)	Ω dolomite	log (mHCO3 ⁻)
•		(min)	•	ratio	(mmolcm ⁻² sec ⁻¹)	(mmol cm ⁻² sec ⁻¹)		0
		2880	5.56	0.78	5.7E-08	4.3E-08	1.1E-03	-2.25
		4320	5.60	0.77	1.7E-08	1.1E-08	1.6E-03	-2.22
		5760	5.66	0.77	1.5E-08	1.1E-08	3.0E-03	-2.15
		8640	5.67	0.77	4.1E-09	4.2E-09	3.6E-03	-2.14
Adenosine	120	1440	5.63	1.05	1.7E-07	1.8E-07	1.1E-03	-2.19
		2880	5.67	1.03	1.2E-08	7.4E-09	1.6E-03	-2.16
		4320	5.69	1.00	1.3E-08	7.5E-09	2.1E-03	-2.13
		7200	5.73	0.97	9.1E-09	6.1E-09	3.5E-03	-2.09
		8640	5.76	0.96	8.4E-09	5.7E-09	4.6E-03	-2.06
Guanine	120	1440	5.46	0.79	1.8E-07	1.4E-07	2.0E-04	-2.36
		2880	5.56	0.75	5.4E-08	3.4E-08	7.2E-04	-2.26
		4320	5.62	0.76	1.3E-08	1.2E-08	1.4E-03	-2.20
		8640	5.71	0.74	2.4E-08	1.6E-08	4.8E-03	-2.09
Guanosine	120	387	5.18	0.69	1.3E-07	1.1E-07	9.8E-07	-2.54
		1518	5.40	0.78	8.1E-08	6.7E-08	4.6E-05	-2.46
		2918	5.45	0.79	2.7E-08	2.4E-08	1.1E-04	-2.43
		4345	5.49	0.78	9.6E-09	6.1E-09	1.7E-04	-2.38
		8688	5.53	0.74	8.7E-09	4.3E-09	3.1E-04	-2.35
D-ribose	120	1440	5.53	1.00	2.0E-07	2.0E-07	5.9E-04	-2.30
		2880	5.60	1.00	5.0E-08	5.0E-08	1.7E-03	-2.22
		4320	5.63	1.00	2.3E-08	2.2E-08	2.5E-03	-2.18
		5760	5.64	1.00	1.0E-08	9.6E-09	2.8E-03	-2.18
		8640	5.68	0.99	9.7E-09	9.7E-09	4.6E-03	-2.13
Hexametaphosphate	120	1440	5.39	2.74	4.2E-08	1.1E-07	1.3E-07	-2.38
		2880	5.43	2.78	6.5E-09	1.9E-09	9.7E-07	-2.34
		4320	5.47	2.79	3.5E-09	1.0E-08	2.4E-06	-2.30
		7200	5.49	2.77	2.3E-09	5.9E-09	5.2E-06	-2.28
		8640	5.50	2.76	1.7E-09	4.6E-09	6.6E-06	-2.27
Triphosphate	120	1440	5.18	2.18	3.5E-08	7.5E-08	1.3E-06	-2.63
		2880	5.26	2.27	6.1E-09	1.7E-08	3.5E-06	-2.55
		4320	5.31	2.27	4.9E-09	1.1E-08	6.6E-06	-2.50
		5760	5.33	2.27	2.7E-09	5.9E-09	9.2E-06	-2.48
		8640	5.39	2.24	1.7E-09	3.2E-09	1.8E-05	-2.41
Diphosphate	120	1440	5.09	2.42	2.5E-08	6.1E-08	4.1E-07	-2.76
-		2880	5.17	2.54	3.9E-09	1.3E-08	1.2E-06	-2.67
		4320	5.22	2.49	2.7E-09	5.4E-09	2.1E-06	-2.62
		7200	5.26	2.47	2.3E-09	5.4E-09	3.9E-06	-2.58

Experiment	RPM	Time	pН	Mg:Ca molar	Rate ^a (dCa/dt)	Rate ^a (dMg/dt)	Ω dolomite	log (mHCO ₃ ⁻)
		(min)		ratio	(mmolcm ⁻² sec ⁻¹)	(mmol cm ⁻² sec ⁻¹)		
		8640	5.29	2.47	1.6E-09	4.1E-09	5.8E-06	-2.55
Monophosphate	120	1440	5.35	2.77	2.1E-08	5.9E-08	1.9E-06	-2.49
		2880	5.39	2.78	2.9E-09	1.2E-08	7.7E-06	-2.46
		4320	5.40	2.82	1.8E-09	4.8E-09	9.7E-06	-2.44
		5760	5.42	2.88	1.4E-09	3.5E-09	1.3E-05	-2.42
		8640	5.43	2.74	1.1E-09	2.3E-09	6.0E-05	-2.41
Control	30	329	5.23	0.84	2.5E-07	2.3E-07	3.9E-06	-2.62
		1466	5.51	0.84	1.1E-07	9.7E-08	2.4E-04	-2.33
		2829	5.59	0.80	5.6E-08	3.7E-08	8.2E-04	-2.23
		4179	5.62	1.00	3.0E-08	1.5E-08	1.3E-03	-2.20
		5751	5.65	0.80	1.5E-08	9.6E-09	1.9E-03	-2.17
Control	60	417	5.31	0.74	1.8E-07	1.2E-07	5.8E-06	-2.54
		1584	5.46	0.74	5.2E-08	4.4E-08	6.5E-05	-2.38
		2960	5.62	0.91	3.5E-08	2.2E-08	4.6E-04	-2.21
		4392	5.68	1.06	2.7E-08	1.7E-08	1.1E-03	-2.14
		9057	5.85	1.09	1.8E-08	1.2E-08	7.6E-03	-1.96
Control	240	365	5.35	0.82	2.4E-07	2.0E-07	1.1E-05	-2.50
		1507	5.48	0.81	7.0E-08	5.6E-08	1.1E-04	-2.36
		2900	5.57	0.82	2.9E-08	2.5E-08	3.6E-04	-2.26
		4375	5.60	0.84	2.2E-08	2.2E-08	6.7E-04	-2.22
		8995	5.69	0.78	3.2E-08	2.2E-08	3.2E-03	-2.12
Control	360	535	5.44	0.92	2.6E-07	2.4E-07	6.5E-05	-2.40
		1550	5.56	0.84	6.2E-08	4.0E-08	3.4E-04	-2.27
		3103	5.63	0.83	2.7E-08	2.2E-08	8.4E-04	-2.20
		4453	5.68	0.83	4.3E-08	3.5E-08	1.9E-03	-2.14
		10303	5.81	0.80	2.3E-08	1.7E-08	1.1E-02	-2.00

^aThe calculated rates are the means of two consecutive measurements (difference in concentration of Ca or Mg between two measurements/samplings divided by the elapsed time)

Time (min)	pН	SI (ACP) ^a	SI (HAP) ^b	SI (TCP) ^c	SI (OCP) ^d	SI (DCPD) ^e	SI (Newberyite) ^f
1440	5.26	-11.90	-5.50	-6.50	-8.08	-2.39	-2.76
2880	5.39	-11.29	-4.44	-5.89	-7.31	-2.23	-2.57
4320	5.40	-11.16	-4.22	-5.76	-7.14	-2.19	-2.56
5760	5.42	-11.02	-3.97	-5.62	-6.96	-2.15	-2.54
7200	5.53	-10.56	-3.17	-5.16	-6.39	-2.04	-2.39
8640	5.58	-10.34	-2.78	-4.94	-6.11	-1.98	-2.34

Table A-3. Saturation Index (SI) of the experimental solution with respect to various calcium phosphate phases throughout the dolomite dissolution experiment in the presence of monophosphate (1mM)

 ${}^{a}\overline{K_{sp}}$ (ACP) - 3.16x10⁻²⁴ (Roques et al., 1991)

 ${}^{b}K_{sp}$ (HAP, hydroxyapatite) - Ca₅(PO₄)₃OH - 4.7x10⁻⁵⁹ (McDowell et al., 1977)

 $^{c}K_{sp}$ (TCP, tri-calcium phosphate) – Ca₃(PO₄)₂ - 1.26x10⁻²⁹ (Ong et al., 2013)

 ${}^{d}K_{sp}$ (OCP, octa-calcium phosphate) - Ca₈H₂(PO₄)₆·5H₂O - 5.01x10⁻⁴⁹ (Ong et al., 2013)

^eK_{sp} (DCPD, di-basic calcium phosphate di-hydrate) - CaHPO₄·2H₂O - 2.57x10⁻⁷ (Ong et al., 2013)

 ${}^{f}K_{sp}$ (Newberyite)- MgHPO₄· 3H₂O - 1.67x10⁻⁶ (Le Rouzic, 2013; Verbeeck et al., 1984)

where SI = log (Ω) = log (IAP/K^o_{sp})

For example,

$$SI(HAP) = log\left(\frac{aCa^{5}(aPO_{4})^{3}aOH}{K_{sp(HAP)}}\right)$$
(A-1)

References

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- Roques, H., Nugroho-Jeudy, L., Lebugle, A., 1991. Phosphorus removal from wastewater by half-burned dolomite. Water Research, 25(8): 959-965.
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Sl. No	Additives	Supplier	Chemical Grade
1	Adenosine triphosphate (ATP)	Sigma-Aldrich	99%
2	Adenosine diphosphate (ADP)	Sigma-Aldrich	> = 95 % (HPLC)
3	Adenosine Monophosphate (AMP)	Sigma-Aldrich	99%
4	Guanosine diphosphate (GDP)	Sigma-Aldrich	96 % (HPLC)
5	Adenine	Acros Organics	99 %
6	Guanine	Sigma-Aldrich	98 %
7	Beta-D- Ribose	Sigma-Aldrich	>=98 %
8	Sodium triphosphate	Fisher Scientific	Granular/Laboratory
9	Sodium pyrophosphate	Sigma-Aldrich	>=95 %
10	Sodium Monophosphate (ortho)	A&C American Chemical Ltd	ACS
11	Sodium Hexa metaphosphate	Sigma-Aldrich	65-70 % P ₂ O ₅ basis
12	Adenosine	Sigma-Aldrich	>=99 %
13	Guanosine	Acros Organics	99 %

 Table A-4. Chemical additives supplier details and grade

Figures

Fig.A-1 Log (rate) of dolomite dissolution rate (based on Ca and Mg release to the solution) as a function of pH at different stirring rates.