



RESEARCH ARTICLE

Microbial community composition of a hydrocarbon reservoir 40 years after a CO₂ enhanced oil recovery flood

Jenna L.K. Shelton^{1,*}, Robert S. Andrews², Denise M. Akob^{2,†}, Christina A. DeVera¹, Adam Mumford², John E. McCray^{3,4} and Jennifer C. McIntosh⁵

¹Eastern Energy Resources Science Center, U.S. Geological Survey, 12201 Sunrise Valley Drive, Reston, VA, 20192 USA, ²Water Mission Area, U.S. Geological Survey, 12201 Sunrise Valley Drive, Reston, VA, 20192 USA, ³Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Colorado School of Mines, 1500 Illinois Street, Golden, CO, 80401 USA, ⁴Hydrologic Science and Engineering Program, Colorado School of Mines, 1500 Illinois Street, Golden, CO, 80401 USA and ⁵Department of Hydrology and Atmospheric Sciences, University of Arizona, 1133 E. James E. Rogers Way, Tucson, AZ, 85721 USA

*Corresponding author: Eastern Energy Resources Science Center, U.S. Geological Survey, 12201 Sunrise Valley Drive, Reston, VA, 20192 USA. Tel: +1-703-648-6489; E-mail: jshelton@usgs.gov

One sentence summary: Microbial community composition was compared between samples affected by a CO₂-EOR flood and those from areas that were outside or stratigraphically above the flood region to determine if CO₂-EOR flooding impacted the microbial community, or if the reservoir was able to “reset” back to pre-flood conditions.

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[†]Jenna L.K. Shelton, <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1377-0675>

[‡]Denise M. Akob, <http://orcid.org/0000-0003-1534-3025>

ABSTRACT

Injecting CO₂ into depleted oil reservoirs to extract additional crude oil is a common enhanced oil recovery (CO₂-EOR) technique. However, little is known about how *in situ* microbial communities may be impacted by CO₂ flooding, or if any permanent microbiological changes occur after flooding has ceased. Formation water was collected from an oil field that was flooded for CO₂-EOR in the 1980s, including samples from areas affected by or outside of the flood region, to determine the impacts of CO₂-EOR on reservoir microbial communities. Archaea, specifically methanogens, were more abundant than bacteria in all samples, while identified bacteria exhibited much greater diversity than the archaea. Microbial communities in CO₂-impacted and non-impacted samples did not significantly differ (ANOSIM: Statistic R = -0.2597, significance = 0.769). However, several low abundance bacteria were found to be significantly associated with the CO₂-affected group; very few of these species are known to metabolize CO₂ or are associated with CO₂-rich habitats. Although this study had limitations, on a broad scale, either the CO₂ flood did not impact the microbial community composition of the target formation, or

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microbial communities in affected wells may have reverted back to pre-injection conditions over the ca. 40 years since the CO₂-EOR.

Keywords: carbon dioxide enhanced oil recovery; microbial ecology; carbon sequestration; bioinformatics

INTRODUCTION

As atmospheric CO₂ concentrations increase worldwide, strategies to reduce this greenhouse gas are becoming necessary to curb global climate change. One popular method for carbon utilization and/or storage is CO₂-enhanced oil recovery (CO₂-EOR). CO₂-EOR involves injecting CO₂ into depleted crude oil reservoirs in order to extract residual oil from a formation. This process typically leaves around 30% of the injected CO₂ in the target formation, thus presenting the potential to curb CO₂ emissions, while the remaining 70% is recycled back to the surface (Melzer 2012).

Increasing energy demand, depletion of oil reservoirs and rising CO₂ levels in the atmosphere are driving the initiation of more CO₂ injection projects. Changes in subsurface microbiology due to CO₂ injection can impact the long-term fate and transport of the injected CO₂, as well as impact CO₂ injectivity and possibly alter target formation and cap rock lithology (e.g. Giese et al. 2009). This injected CO₂ also may also be converted by *in situ* methanogens into additional natural gas (e.g. Sugai et al. 2012), making the injection more financially appealing and potentially converting a greenhouse gas into a usable fuel source. Therefore, it is increasingly important to understand the long-term impacts of CO₂ injection on reservoir microbial communities. Recent work has demonstrated that the innate microbial community composition may change after a CO₂ injection, albeit varying environments (Mu et al. 2014; Wilkins et al. 2014; Peet et al. 2015; Kirk et al. 2016), and cells may die as a result of CO₂ dissolving into cell membranes (e.g. White, Burns and Christensen 2006). Other research has determined that microbial communities can live and thrive in high CO₂ conditions like those experienced during CO₂-EOR (Freedman, Tan and Thompson 2017; Probst et al. 2017). Furthermore, microbial populations have been documented to change after CO₂ injection compared to water-flooded portions of the same reservoir (Liu et al. 2015), but no study has analyzed microbial community composition of a reservoir decades after CO₂ injection has stopped. Even though changes in microbial communities can impact a CO₂ injection project, very few large-scale projects have monitored microbiological changes *in situ* (e.g. Michael et al. 2010). Furthermore, studies with a microbiological component mostly involve geochemical modeling and/or simply examine isolates from high-CO₂ natural analogue environments, such as hot springs (e.g. West et al. 2011; Kirk et al. 2016); few studies target the actual microbial communities living in geologic CO₂ sequestration or CO₂-EOR reservoirs.

The Olla Oil Field in the LaSalle Parish, Louisiana, USA has been previously studied due to its high microbial methanogenesis activity compared to surrounding oil fields. This was initially hypothesized to be due to a CO₂-EOR flood in the 1980s (McIntosh et al. 2010; Shelton et al. 2014, 2016a, 2016b). Shelton et al. (2014) determined that the CO₂ flood was not the cause of the increased methanogenesis observed in the Olla Field; therefore, the crude oil composition and the microbiology of the Olla Field and surrounding oil fields were also examined in an attempt to determine the drivers of increased methanogenic activity (Shelton et al. 2016a, 2016b). This present study analyzes how the CO₂-EOR flood may have changed microbial community structures in

the Olla Oil Field. The microbial composition of the samples collected from CO₂-affected production wells (n = 2) are compared to samples from unaffected portions of the same target sand (n = 5) and unaffected younger strata in the same oil field (n = 2). This study is unique in that it allows for an assessment of *in situ* microbiology almost 40 years after a CO₂ flood, providing an opportunity to determine how long-term CO₂ injection and cessation may impact the innate microbial communities. This study is also the first of its kind in analyzing microbial communities *in situ* post-CO₂ injection and cessation.

METHODS

Formation water from 9 different wells that produce from the Olla Oil Field in LaSalle Parish, Louisiana, USA was collected in August of 2014 (Fig. 1). Water samples from continuously pumping wells were collected in sterile 1 L glass bottles and filtered through sterile 0.22 μm Sterivex GP filter units (Millipore®, Billerica, MA USA) using a GeoPump (Geotech Environmental Equipment, Inc. Denver, CO, USA) and sterile plastic Nalgene tubing until the filters clogged. Filters were immediately frozen on dry ice and kept frozen until analysis at the University of Colorado Next Generation Sequencing Facility. DNA was extracted at the University of Colorado at Boulder using a MO BIO Powersoil® DNA Isolation Kit (MO BIO Laboratories, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Slices of the Sterivex filters were added directly to the bead tubes of the MO BIO kit in order to extract DNA from the filter units. The 515-F (5'-GTGCCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA-3') and 806-R (5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3') 16S rRNA gene primer pair (Fierer et al. 2012) was used during amplification; these primers included Illumina adapters and error-correcting 12-bp barcodes. A GoTaq® Hot Start PCR Master Mix (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) was used for PCR. Thermal cycling (in a 25 μL reaction) consisted of initial denaturation at 94°C, annealing at 50°C for 30 s, extension at 70°C for 90 s and a final extension at 72°C for 10 min. Gel electrophoresis was used to confirm amplification, and all PCR products were quantified using the PicoGreen dsDNA assay. Samples were pooled together in equimolar concentrations, and the amplified DNA was sequenced using the Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA), running 2 × 250 base pair (bp) chemistry.

Sequenced DNA was processed downstream using a joint QIIME (Caporaso et al. 2010) and UPARSE pipeline (Edgar 2013) as discussed in Shelton et al. (2016a). Demultiplexing was performed in QIIME, while the remainder of the downstream processing was performed using UPARSE. Quality filtering was performed with a maxee value of 0.5, sequences were dereplicated and singletons were removed from the dataset prior to determining and assigning phylotypes (all in UPARSE). Taxonomic units were mapped to operational taxonomic units (OTUs) at a minimum of 97% similarity (typically greater) using the Greengenes 13.8 (<http://greengenes.secondgenome.com>) database.

All subsequent steps were performed in R (R Core Team 2015), including contaminant removal, where any sequences matching mitochondria and/or chloroplast phylotypes were eliminated from the dataset, as well as any phylotypes identified at greater than 5% in the blank (i.e. control) samples (8 contaminant OTUs

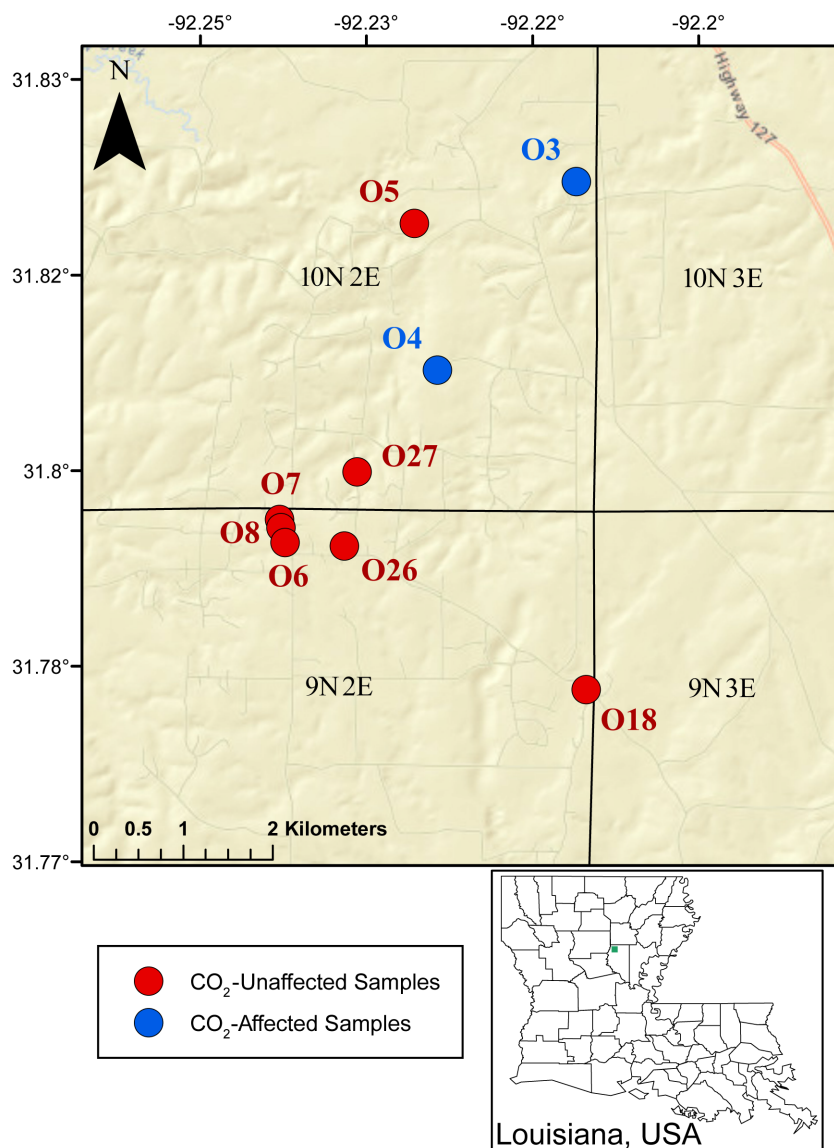


Figure 1. Map of sample locations, Louisiana, USA. The small green square on the map of Louisiana annotates the location of the inset map.

were identified and removed from the dataset). This resulted in 180 773 ($n = 9$) total sequences, with the minimum number of sequences per sample being 5829 (sample O4). Therefore, the entire sample set was then randomly subsampled to 5000 sequences per sample. All subsequent statistical analyses were performed in R using the *vegan* (Oksanen et al. 2014), *bioDist* (Ding, Gentleman and Carey 2017), *RAM* (Chen, Simpson and Levesque 2016) and *indicpecies* (De Caceres and Jansen 2016) packages. All methods requiring a distance matrix were performed using a Bray–Curtis dissimilarity matrix. Sequences reads for each sample were deposited into the National Center for Biotechnology Information Short Read Archive (SRA) under BioProject PRJNA310850 and BioSample accession numbers SAMN04457241 and SAMN04457231 - SAMN04457237.

The Olla Field was injected with CO₂ from 1983 until 1986 via eight injection wells (Shelton et al. 2014). Due to heterogeneous CO₂ flooding of the 2800' sand—the target formation—of the Olla Oil Field, only parts of the 2800' sand were impacted by the injected CO₂. Two samples, O3 and O4, were collected from wells that produced injected CO₂ during the CO₂-EOR flood

(deemed the CO₂-affected wells; Shelton et al. 2014). Seven additional wells, O5, O6, O7, O8, O18, O26 and O27, were sampled that were not affected by the CO₂-EOR flood as they never produced injected CO₂ during the EOR project (Shelton et al. 2014).

Two of the CO₂-unaffected wells, O26 and O27, produce from strata stratigraphically above the 2800' sand, which was not impacted by the CO₂ flood. Samples from strata younger than the 2800' sand were added to the study to increase the robustness of the sample set, even though the hydrochemistry and lithology of this younger strata are slightly different than the 2800' sand. Although these two samples were located in different strata than the other CO₂-unaffected samples, they were statistically similar in regard to hydrogeochemical parameters (Shelton et al. 2016a; see Tables SI-2 and SI-3 (Supporting Information) for hydrologic and gas geochemical data). Therefore, this was used as justification to group the samples together. The remaining 5 CO₂-unaffected wells, O5, O6, O7, O8 and O18, produce from portions of the 2800' sand that were not impacted by injected CO₂. Detailed information about the study site, background and sampling methods can be

found in McIntosh et al. (2010) and Shelton et al. (2014, 2016a, 2016b).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Alpha diversity and general community composition

The CO₂-affected wells were wells O3 and O4, while the CO₂-unaffected wells were wells O5, O6, O7, O8, O18, O26 and O27, with wells O26 and O27 producing from more shallow strata, as discussed in the Methods section. The total number of unrarefied sequences per sample ranged from 5829 (O4, CO₂-affected sample) to 45 217 (O6, CO₂-unaffected sample; average = 20 086, n = 9), while the total number of identified OTUs per sample (i.e. sample richness prior to rarefaction) ranged from 107 (O7) to 306 (O8), with an average value of 202 OTUs (Table SI-1, Supporting Information). The Shannon Diversity Index of the unrarefied dataset ranged from 1.41 (O27) to 4.19 (O3), while the Pielou Evenness ranged from 0.28 (O27) to 0.77 (O3). On average, the sample richness and Pielou evenness for the rarefied dataset are both higher for the CO₂-affected samples compared to the CO₂-unaffected samples (Fig. 2).

Every sample (n = 9) is dominated by a methanogenic archaea (Fig. 2). Twenty-eight of the 876 identified OTUs were archaea. The observed microbial community in eight of the nine wells sampled is dominated by *Methanothermococcus* spp., where *Methanothermococcus* spp. ranges from 14.2% (O3) to 74.1% (O27) of the total measured abundance across these eight samples. *Methanothermococcus* sp. has been identified as a hydrogenotrophic methanogen (Takai, Inoue and Horikoshi 2002) with preferential growth requirements well within the hydrogeochemical parameters observed in these eight wells. The microbial community in the water sampled from well O6 is dominated by *Methanohalophilus halophilus*, comprising 68.2% of the total measured abundance in that sample. *Methanohalophilus halophilus* typically prefers a high salinity environment, 1200 mM Cl⁻ (Kendall and Boone 2006); although sample O6 was concentrated in Cl⁻ at 1394 mM Cl⁻ (Table SI-2, Supporting Information), it was not significantly more saline than the other wells sampled in this study. There was no geochemical reason for well O6 to have different dominating OTUs than the other eight wells (i.e. the geochemistry of the gas and water from well O6 was not remarkably different than any other well sampled; Tables SI-2 and SI-3, Supporting Information). Most notably, it is not the most saline sample, nor did it have more chemical or isotopic indicators of methanogenesis than the other eight samples (Shelton et al. 2016a; Shelton et al. 2016b). The other archaea identified at greater than 1% abundance in at least one of the nine samples are *Methanolobus* sp., the order E2 within the class *Thermoplasmata*, *Methanomicrobiales*, *Methanosaeta* sp., *Methanocalculus* sp. and the order NRA6 of the class *Methanomicrobia*.

The bacteria identified in these nine samples are much more diverse than the archaea: 847 different bacterial OTUs were identified out of 876 total identified OTUs. Every sample contains high amounts of low abundance (<1% of total sample abundance) bacterial OTUs; no single bacterial OTU was identified at greater than 6.2% abundance in any of the nine samples. The dominating bacterial OTUs identified were *Thermovirgaceae*, *Alicyclobacillus* sp., the order BA021 of the phylum OP9 (Atribacteria), *Deferribacter* sp. and *Acinetobacter lwoffii*. Two of these dominating bacteria have been identified in crude oil reservoirs, *Thermovirgaceae* (Piceno et al. 2014) and *Deferribacter* sp. (Greene, Patel and Sheehy 1997). However, only one has been associated with

high CO₂ environments, *Deferribacter* sp., which is typically identified in hydrothermal vents growing autotrophically off of CO₂ (Slobodkina et al. 2009; Takai et al. 2003). *Alicyclobacillus* sp. is usually associated with fruit juices (e.g. Chang and Kang 2004), BA021 has been identified in anaerobic digestors (e.g. Wang, Hou and Su 2017), while *A. lwoffii* is typically associated with animal environments (e.g. Debarry et al. 2007). In some cases, when considered together, these low abundance bacterial OTUs dominate the community compositions of some of the samples collected (Fig. 2).

There are no obvious differences between the CO₂-affected (O3 and O4) and CO₂-unaffected (n = 7) samples when looking at the alpha diversity metrics and the general microbial community composition. Any major observed variation exists mostly in the low abundance bacterial communities. Unfortunately, concentrations of DNA were not measured and therefore, differences in total biomass could not be compared between the CO₂-affected and CO₂-unaffected samples.

A previous study by Gulliver, Gregory and Lowry (2016) compared the microbial communities of different samples that they exposed to different partial pressures of CO₂, emulating CO₂ sequestration conditions in a saline aquifer and a depleted crude oil formation. The study found no relationship between microbial community diversity and the partial pressure of CO₂ (pCO₂) in formation water associated with an oil field (similar to that of the Olla Field), while in the saline aquifer, microbial diversity decreased with increasing pCO₂ (Gulliver, Gregory and Lowry 2016). An additional study by Gulliver, Lowry and Gregory (2014) also found that increasing pCO₂ over a specific threshold initiated decreases in microbial community diversity in the target formation. The CO₂-affected samples in this study generally had higher Shannon Diversity values than the unaffected samples, opposite to what was observed in the Gulliver, Gregory and Lowry (2016) study for a saline aquifer and the oil field formation water. Conversely, the Gulliver, Gregory and Lowry (2016) study found that changes in the microbial community were site-specific (e.g. aquifer versus oil field formation water) and highly dependent on pH. The microbial community in the oil field formation water shifted from *Pseudomonas* in no- to low-pCO₂ samples to *Escherichia* in the high pCO₂ samples (Gulliver, Gregory and Lowry 2016). This study did not identify any dominating *Escherichia* OTUs in the CO₂-affected samples; however, *Pseudomonas* was present in higher abundances in the CO₂-affected versus the CO₂ unaffected samples (Fig. 2), albeit not at a statistically significant difference.

Beta diversity

In order to determine if the microbial composition of the CO₂-affected samples were distinct compared to the CO₂-unaffected samples, the data were analyzed using a variety of statistical methods. As shown in Fig. 2, no obvious grouping of the CO₂-affected samples can be observed in a dendrogram based on hierarchical clustering of Bray-Curtis distances between the sites (Fig. 2). The O3 and O4 samples were separated into two different, distinct clusters, both being more similar to CO₂-unaffected samples than to each other.

The same result occurred when performing a principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) on the dataset. The dataset was evaluated 4 different ways in order to determine if a relationship exists between the microbial communities of the CO₂-affected samples versus the CO₂-unaffected samples. Four different PCoA plots were constructed: one at the OTU level that included both the identified archaea and

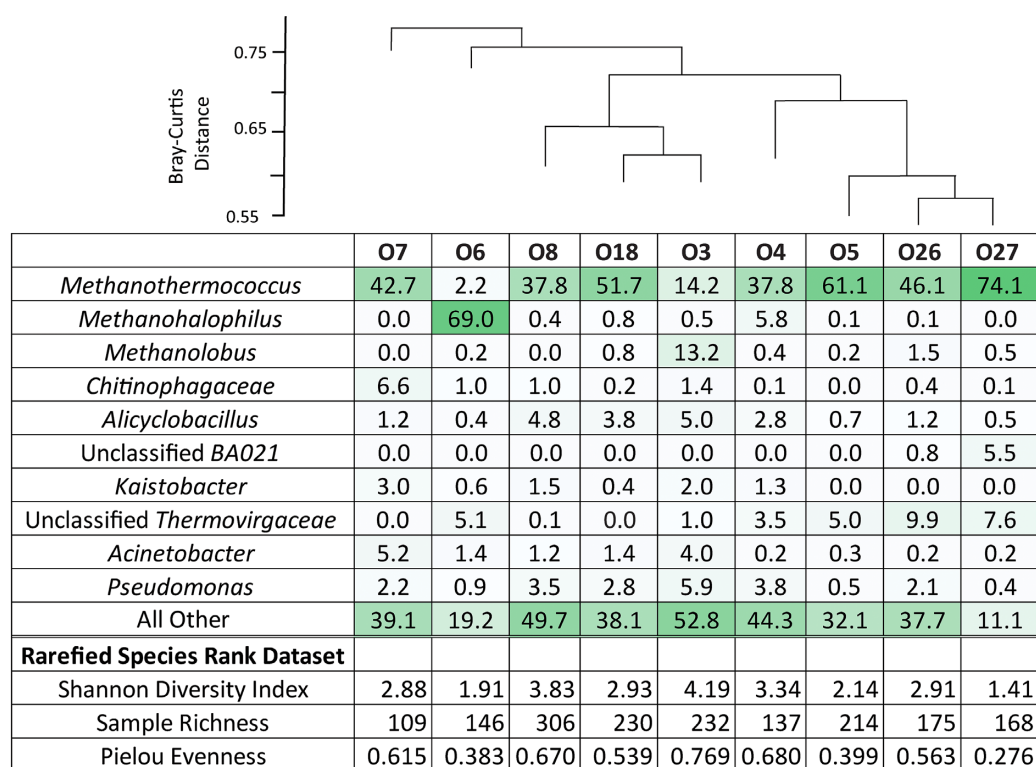


Figure 2. Coupled dendrogram (based on hierarchical clustering of Bray–Curtis distances between the sample locations) and a species abundance-based heat map. Dark green indicates a greater % abundance while white indicates a smaller % abundance. The Shannon Diversity Index, sample richness and Pielou Evenness after rarefaction (at the species rank) are also listed. ‘All Other’ indicates all of the remaining identified OTUs that were present at less than 3% abundance in at least one sample.

the identified bacteria (Fig. 3A), one at the order level that included the identified archaea and bacteria (Fig. 3B), one at the OTU level that only considered the identified bacteria (Fig. 3C) and one at the OTU level that only considered the identified archaea. The datasets were evaluated this way due to the alpha diversity statistics; as there was much more bacterial diversity than archaeal diversity, the archaea could have been masking any bacterial differences between the CO₂-affected and CO₂-unaffected samples. However, the CO₂-affected samples (O3 and O4) neither cluster together nor do they cluster distinctly from the CO₂-unaffected samples in any of the four scenarios (Fig. 3).

To confirm the lack of significant differences between the CO₂-affected and CO₂-unaffected samples, an ANOSIM test was also performed on the four different scenarios, testing the CO₂-affected (n = 2) samples against the CO₂-unaffected (n = 7) samples (Fig. 3). None of the ANOSIM results indicated a significant difference between the microbial community composition of the CO₂-affected versus the CO₂-unaffected samples for the data. Scenarios considered were all taxa at the OTU level (Statistic R = -0.2597, Significance = 0.769), just the bacteria at the OTU level (Statistic R = -0.2208, Significance = 0.785), just the archaea at the OTU level (Statistic R = 0.1494, 0.269), and all taxa at the Order level (Statistic R = -0.2338, Significance = 0.779).

These three pieces of evidence—the dendrogram of Bray–Curtis distances, PCoA and ANOSIM tests—indicate that there is no statistical difference between the total microbial community compositions of the CO₂-affected samples compared to the CO₂-unaffected samples. It is important to note that

these data cannot confirm whether or not the microbial communities in this reservoir were ever impacted by the injected CO₂, meaning that the microbial communities of the impacted areas of the reservoir may not have changed during the CO₂ flood to begin with. However, these wells did produce injected CO₂ during the EOR project (Shelton et al. 2014), confirming that the well areas of the CO₂-affected wells were impacted by injected CO₂. If the microbes were indeed modified during the CO₂ flood, these results suggest that reservoirs impacted by a CO₂ flood (or perhaps a CO₂ leak) may have the ability to rebound back to their pre-flood microbial composition. Furthermore, geochemical data found in Table SI-2 (Supporting Information) also provide evidence for the rebounding of these CO₂-affected wells back to their pre-injection condition. Many hydrologic parameters of formation water change during a CO₂ injection. The pH decreases, the alkalinity increases, dissolved iron content increases and the δ¹⁸O-H₂O decreases (Kharaka et al. 2006; Zheng et al. 2012). These geochemical and isotopic changes are not observed in our sample set (Table SI-2, Supporting Information): the pH values for O3 and O4 are near neutral and close to those of the CO₂-unaffected samples, the alkalinity values of O3 and O4 are high, but not significantly higher than the CO₂-unaffected wells, iron was below the detection limit for most samples, and the δ¹⁸O-H₂O values of the CO₂-affected wells are similar to those of the CO₂-unaffected wells. This evidence supports the conclusion that the CO₂-affected portions of the reservoir may have reverted back to pre-flood conditions, given the CO₂-unaffected wells are currently representative of pre-flood conditions.

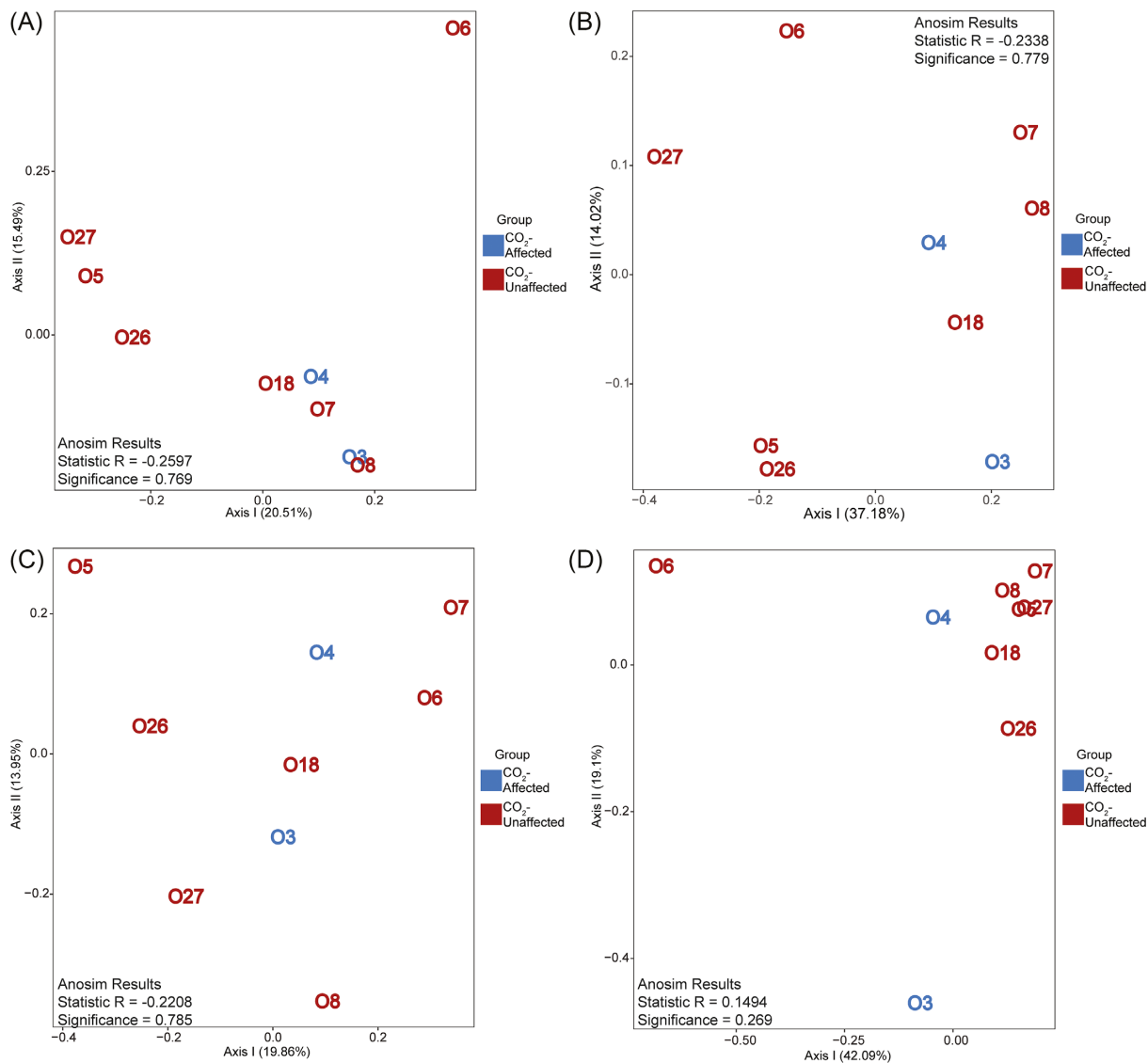


Figure 3. Principle coordinates analysis (PCoA) of sampled wells. Well names are colored based on their exposure to CO₂ (CO₂ affected = blue; unaaffected = red). (A) PCoA of samples at the OTU level; (B) PCoA of samples at the Order level; (C) PCoA of only the identified bacteria at the OTU level; (D) PCoA of only the identified archaea at the OTU level.

Another issue to consider is that the small sample size may have also skewed the results, as this study only sampled two CO₂-affected wells. Therefore, it is difficult to statistically determine if the two wells were initially impacted in the same way by the CO₂ flood, or if their impact was site-specific as was observed by Gulliver, Gregory and Lowry (2016). Further, it is difficult to determine with our experiment design if the microbial communities in O3 and O4 shifted as a result of the CO₂ flood in the same manner or in a different way, meaning that the microbiology of O3 and O4 may have been modified in different ways by the CO₂ flood.

Indicator species for CO₂-affected wells

Although the composition of the total microbial community suggested that the overall community composition of the CO₂-affected versus the CO₂-unaaffected wells was not statistically different, additional tests were performed in order to see if any

OTUs could serve as indicator species in the CO₂-affected samples. An indicator species (R package `indicspecies::multipatt`) test was performed on the group of the two CO₂ affected samples (O3 and O4) against the CO₂ unaaffected samples (O5, O6, O7, O8, O18, O26 and O27). The test resulted in 14 statistically significant indicator species associated with the CO₂ affected samples, but no OTUs associated with the CO₂ unaaffected samples (Table 1). These 14 organisms are *Desulfitobacter* sp., *Sporotomaculum* sp., *Corynebacterium* sp., *Syntrophomonas* sp., *Flavobacterium frigidarium*, an organism from the order Ellin6067 and the order Burkholderiales and organisms from the families Pasteurellaceae, Sporichthyaceae, Ellin6513, Methylophilaceae, Pseudomonadaceae, Oxalobacteraceae and Enterobacteriaceae (Tables 1 and 2).

These indicator species were present in statistically higher abundance in the CO₂-affected samples versus the CO₂-unaaffected samples (if at all), and could be indicative of the species that thrived in CO₂-flooded conditions. The increased abundance of these indicator species is likely not due to differences in geology or hydrochemistry, as all of these wells

Table 1. Results of the indicator species analysis (R package `indicspecies::multipatt`). All identified operational taxonomic units (OTUs) are associated with the CO₂-affected samples. The analysis was performed at the OTU level on the identified bacteria, the identified archaea and the whole rarefied dataset. No archaea were identified as indicator species.

Species	Only bacteria (OTU rank)		OTU rank	
	Stat	P value	Stat	P value
<i>Desulfotobacter</i> sp. (OTU 778)	0.999	0.031	0.999	0.024
<i>Sporotomaculum</i> sp. (OTU 3911)	0.998	0.031	0.998	0.024
Ellin6067 (OTU 142)	0.997	0.031	0.997	0.024
Pasteurellaceae (OTU 4562)	0.997	0.031	0.997	0.024
Sporichthyaceae (OTU 1093)	0.993	0.031	0.993	0.024
Ellin6513 (OTU 141)	0.988	0.031	0.988	0.024
<i>Syntrophomonas</i> sp. (OTU 1683)	0.985	0.031	0.985	0.024
Methylophilaceae (OTU 4351)	0.978	0.031	0.978	0.024
Pseudomonadaceae (OTU 3861)	0.975	0.031	0.975	0.024
Pseudomonadaceae (OTU 18 730)	0.965	0.031	0.965	0.024
Oxalobacteraceae (OTU 2315)	–	–	0.954	0.046
<i>Flavobacterium frigidarium</i> (OTU 15 553)	0.938	0.031	0.938	0.024
Enterobacteriaceae (OTU 8894)	–	–	0.936	0.046
Burkholderiales (OTU 3883)	0.922	0.031	0.922	0.024
<i>Corynebacterium</i> sp. (OTU 860)	–	–	0.916	0.05

have very similar lithology and water chemistry parameters (Shelton et al. 2014, 2016b). Of these 14 indicator species, to our knowledge, only four have been previously observed in or associated with CO₂-rich environments: *Desulfotobacter* sp., *Pseudomonadaceae*, Burkholderiales and Enterobacteriaceae (Morozova et al. 2011; Frerichs et al. 2014; Mu et al. 2014; Octavia and Lan 2014; Gulliver, Gregory and Lowry 2016; Ham et al. 2017). The other 10 organisms, *Sporotomaculum* sp., *Corynebacterium* sp., *Syntrophomonas* sp., *F. frigidarium*, Ellin6067, Pasteurellaceae, Sporichthyaceae, Ellin6513, Methylophilaceae and Oxalobacteraceae, have been identified in a variety of environments, including methanogenic sludge; sewage; in animals, human materials and plants; waterlogged soils and soils in general; marine sediment; surface waters; and aquifers (Tamura, Hayakawa and Hatano 1999; Humphry et al. 2001; Qiu et al. 2003; Baldani et al. 2014; Doronina, Kaparullina and Trotsenko 2014; Kim et al. 2014; Schink and Muñoz 2014; Stackebrandt 2014; Tauch and Sandbote 2014).

A previous study by Gulliver, Gregory and Lowry (2016) examined how various pCO₂ concentrations impacted the microbial communities of formation waters from a saline aquifer and an oil field. That study found that *Pseudomonas* dominated their low-pCO₂ samples, while *Escherichia* dominated the high-pCO₂ sample. As *Escherichia* was not present in their 0 MPa pCO₂ samples, this suggests that *Escherichia* thrives in CO₂-rich environments. If the Enterobacteriaceae identified as an indicator species in this study are of the *Escherichia* genus, then this could imply that, when the CO₂ flood occurred, *Escherichia* may have dominated, or at least became more prevalent, in the CO₂ affected areas of the aquifer. Given that current pCO₂ and CO₂ concentrations for the Olla Field were, at the time of sampling, much lower than typical injection conditions (Shelton et al. 2014), it appears that the presence of *Pseudomonadaceae* as an indicator species for the CO₂-affected wells is in agreement with the study by Gulliver, Gregory and Lowry (2016); however, neither *Pseudomonadaceae* nor Enterobacteriaceae dominate (i.e. are >10% abundance) the samples. This may be because sufficient time has elapsed since the CO₂ flood, allowing these

CO₂-affected areas of the reservoir to revert back to close to ‘pre-injection’ conditions, or to microbial compositions similar to the unaffected portions of the reservoir.

Morozova et al. (2011) found that total bacterial cell counts in a CO₂-flooded saline aquifer initially decreased by 50% during the CO₂ flood, but rebounded up to 75% of the original pre-flood cell counts after a period of 5 months of CO₂ flooding. Sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB), specifically *Desulfohalobium utahense*, increased in concentration 5 months after the CO₂ flood (Morozova et al. 2011). The SRB identified as an indicator species for CO₂-affected wells in this study were *Desulfotobacter* sp., which are within the same phylum as *D. utahense* but not more closely related. Furthermore, cell counts of archaea initially increased after the CO₂ flood, but, after 5 months of CO₂ flooding, no archaea were identified in the CO₂-affected formation waters. In contrast to the findings presented by Morozova et al. (2011), the CO₂-affected wells in the present study are both dominated by archaea. However, the CO₂ flood in the Olla Field ceased ca. 1 year after it was initiated, and high CO₂ concentrations were not maintained in the Olla Field over the past 40 years (Shelton et al. 2014).

A study by Mu et al. (2014) monitored microbiological changes before and after a 4 day CO₂ injection into a saline aquifer. They observed a dramatic increase in the relative abundances of *Comamonas* and *Sphingobium* ca. 30 days after the end of the 4 day CO₂ injection. Burkholderiales, which contains the genus *Comamonas*, is significantly associated with the CO₂-affected samples in this study. If the Burkholderiales OTU identified is of the genus *Comamonas*, this would be in agreement with the study by Mu et al. (2014) and this significant association may indeed be due to the CO₂ flood. The Mu et al. (2014) post-CO₂ injection samples also clustered together on a PCoA plot, unlike the samples for this study. This may be due to drastic changes to pH caused by active CO₂ flooding, which others have speculated may be the main cause for microbiological changes to the target formation during a CO₂ flood (Xu et al. 2010). The pH for the water samples collected for this study were close to 7 (Shelton et al. 2014), and had obviously rebounded back to near-neutral

Table 2. Indicator species correlated to the CO₂-affected samples, including information about the physiology, habitat and any evidence for living in a CO₂-rich environment. The references for the data provided in the columns for each row are also provided.

Indicator species	Habitat	Known CO ₂ relationship	Optimal salinity	Metabolism	Oxygen requirements	References
<i>Desulfitobacter</i> sp.	Heating system pipes	Only with general sulfate-reducing bacteria	<i>D. alkalitolerans</i> : 0–5% (w/v) NaCl [0–0.5%]	Fermentative; sulfite-reducing	Anaerobic	(Nielsen, Kjeldsen and Ingvorsen 2006; Morozova et al. 2011)
<i>Sporotomaculum</i> sp.	Anoxic environments	No	<i>S. hydroxybenzoicum</i> : 0–0.2% (w/v) NaCl	Fermentative; possibly benzoate-degrading	Anaerobic	(Brauman et al. 1998)
Ellin6067	Soils	No	Not given	Heterotrophic; possibly ammonia-oxidizing	Aerobic	(Ye et al. 2016)
Pasteurellaceae	Generally animal-borne	No	Presumably salty (e.g. body fluid)	Heterotrophic; varies by Genus	Facultatively anaerobic	(Naushad et al. 2015)
Sporichthyaceae	Soils	No	Not given for <i>S. brevicatena</i>	Heterotrophic; nitrate-reducing	Aerobic	(Tamura, Hayakawa and Hatano 1999)
Ellin6513	Soils	No	Not given	Heterotrophic; acidophilic	Aerobic	(Beulig et al. 2014, Wegner and Liesack 2017)
<i>Syntrophomonas</i> sp.	Anoxic habitats	No	Not given	Syntrophic; fatty-acid oxidizing	Anaerobic	(McInerney et al. 1981)
Methylophilaceae	Surface waters, mud, activated sludge and plants	No	<i>Methylotenera mobilis</i> : No growth above 0.1% (w/v) NaCl	Obligate or restricted facultative methylophilic; methyamine or methanol utilizing	Aerobic	(Kalyuzhnaya et al. 2006; Doronina, Kaparullina and Trotsenko 2014)
Pseudomonadaceae	Widespread	Yes if 'Pseudomonas'	Varied	Heterotrophic; varies by species	Aerobic or facultatively anaerobic	(Frerichs et al. 2014; Gulliver, Gregory and Lowry 2016)
Oxalobacteraceae	Plants, soils and waters	No	<i>Herbaspirillum psychrotolerans</i> : 0–0.5% (w/v) NaCl	Heterotrophic; can be pathogenic	Mostly aerobic or facultative aerobic; Oxalobacter is strictly anaerobic	(Bajerski et al. 2013; Baldani et al. 2014)
<i>Flavobacterium frigidarium</i>	Antarctic marine sediments	No	Growth in up to 10% (w/v) NaCl	Psychrophilic, xylanolytic and laminarinolytic	Aerobic	(Humphry et al. 2001)
Enterobacteriaceae	Widespread, typically in guts of animals	Yes if 'Escherichia'	Varies based on genus	Nitrate-reducing, glucose fermentation; may be pathogenic	Facultatively anaerobic	(Octavia and Lan 2014; Gulliver, Gregory and Lowry 2016)
Burkholderiales	Widespread	Yes if 'Comamonas'	Varied	Heterotrophic; possibly aromatics-degrading	Varies by genus	(Offre et al. 2008; Mu et al. 2014; Tong et al. 2015; Probst et al. 2017)
<i>Corynebacterium</i> sp.	Widespread	No	Varies based on genus	Chemooorganotrophic; fermentative and oxidative, may be pathogenic	Aerobic or facultative anaerobic	(Tauch and Sandbote 2014)

conditions since the active CO₂ flood in the 1980s, which would have lowered the pH in the formation.

Ham et al. (2017) compared two naturally CO₂-rich sites and one low-pCO₂ control site as an analog for long-term microbiological changes to reservoirs impacted by CO₂ flooding. They found sequences close to *Comamonadaceae* in one CO₂-rich site and taxa related to *Anaerolineaceae*, *Nitrospirae* and methanogens in the other CO₂-rich site. This study identified Burkholderiales

as significantly associated with the CO₂-rich sites, similar to the Ham et al. (2017) finding that *Comamonadaceae* was associated with one group of CO₂-rich sites. However, these sites were a mix of surficial springs and shallow groundwater wells, which provide geochemical conditions that are not comparable to the sites in this study.

Taken together, our study provides some evidence that the CO₂ flood in the Olla Field impacted the microbial community

structure in CO₂-affected regions of the formation. Although the majority of the microbial populations identified in both the CO₂-affected and CO₂-unaffected samples were similar (e.g. most samples were dominated by *Methanothermococcus* spp.), several low abundance taxa were significantly more abundant in the CO₂-affected samples compared to the CO₂-unaffected samples. Some of these OTUs have been linked to CO₂-rich environments; however, their low overall % abundance in the CO₂-affected wells may suggest that any long-term microbial changes to a formation due to a CO₂ flood or leak would be minor or even insignificant. It is important to note that only groundwater was sampled in this study and our findings cannot account for the response of attached microbial populations associated with biofilms or the rock matrix to the CO₂ flood. Under ideal conditions, sampling techniques that can evaluate biofilms or rock-attached microbial populations such as cores or diffusive samplers (e.g. Barnhart et al. 2013) would be utilized. Unfortunately, due to core material being unavailable, these methods could not be applied.

CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the present study provides a field-scale representation of how the microbial community structure of a formation may recover from a CO₂ flood or a CO₂ leak and how native microbial communities may change years after the cessation of a CO₂ flood. To the authors' knowledge, this is the only study performed at this time scale (ca. 40 years after flood). No large-scale variation was present when comparing the major microbial communities identified in the CO₂-affected and CO₂-unaffected samples. However, certain lower abundance OTUs were identified in the CO₂-affected samples that were significantly less abundant or absent in the CO₂-unaffected samples. These OTUs were found to be similar to taxa that have been shown to thrive in CO₂-rich environments. Due to their low % abundance here, this may provide evidence for the microbiology of a formation to return to pre-injection conditions after a CO₂ flood ceases or if a CO₂ leak would be stopped. At a minimum, the results of this study show that the microbial community of the CO₂-affected wells is not significantly different than the community identified in the CO₂-unaffected samples after 40 years post-CO₂ injection. This has wide implications for both CO₂-EOR operations and CO₂ leaks into shallow aquifers due to CO₂ sequestration. The results of this study suggest the potential for any possible microbial effects from or responses to changing the concentration of CO₂ in an aquifer or hydrocarbon-bearing formation to rebound back to pre-injection conditions if the CO₂ concentration was returned to baseline conditions.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary data are available at [FEMSEC](#) online.

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Conflicts of interest. None declared.

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