



Originally published as:

Wilke, F., Schettler, G., Vieth-Hillebrand, A., Kühn, M., Rothe, H. (2018): Activity concentrations of ^{238}U and ^{226}Ra in two European black shales and their experimentally-derived leachates. - *Journal of Environmental Radioactivity*, 190-191, pp. 122—129.

DOI: <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvrad.2018.05.005>

Activity concentrations of ^{238}U and ^{226}Ra in two European black shales and their experimentally-derived leachates

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Abstract

The production of gas from unconventional resources became an important position in the world energy economics. In 2012, the European Commission's Joint Research Centre estimate 16 trillion cubic meters (Tcm) of technically recoverable shale gas in Europe. Taking into account that the exploitation of unconventional gas can be accompanied by serious health risks due to the release of toxic chemical components and natural occurring radionuclides into the return flow water and their near-surface accumulation in secondary precipitates, we investigated the release of U, Th and Ra from black shales by interaction with drilling fluids containing additives that are commonly employed for shale gas exploitation.

We performed leaching tests at elevated temperatures and pressures with an Alum black shale from Bornholm, Denmark and a Posidonia black shale from Lower Saxony, Germany. The Alum shale is a carbonate free black shale with pyrite and barite, containing 74.4 $\mu\text{g/g}$ U. The Posidonia shales is a calcareous shale with pyrite but without detectable amounts of barite containing 3.6 $\mu\text{g/g}$ U.

Pyrite oxidized during the tests forming sulfuric acid which lowered the pH on values between 2-3 of the extraction fluid from the Alum shale favoring a release of U from the Alum shale to the fluid during the short-term and in the beginning of the long-term experiments. The activity concentration of ^{238}U is as high as 23.9 mBq/ml in the fluid for those experiments. The release of U and Th into the fluid is almost independent of pressure. The amount of uranium in the European shales is similar to that of the Marcellus Shale in the United States but the daughter product of ^{238}U , the ^{226}Ra activity concentrations in the experimentally derived leachates from the European shales are quite low in comparison to that found in industrially derived flowback fluids from the Marcellus shale. This difference could mainly be due to missing Cl in the reaction fluid used in our experiments and a lower fluid to solid ratio in the industrial plays than in the experiments due to subsequent fracking and minute cracks from which Ra can easily be released.

Key words: unconventional gas production, black shales, flowback, radioactivity, NOR, batch experiments

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43 **1. Introduction**

44 Increasing gas production from unconventional shale gas plays in the United States (U.S.) and the
45 related engineering improvements for shale gas production in terms of drilling and hydraulic
46 fracturing took also exploitation of European shale gas under consideration. The U.S. Energy
47 Information Administration (U.S. EIA, 2013) estimated that Europe could hold 13.4 Tcm (trillion
48 cubic meters) technically recoverable shale gas. A similar value of 15.9 Tcm was estimated by the
49 European Commission's Joint Research Centre (JRC, 2012). 132 shale gas exploitation and appraisal
50 wells have been drilled in Europe so far, most of them in Poland, Sweden and the UK (AAPG, 2016).
51 Due to commercial viability, political barriers and public concerns, roughly 2/3 of all companies
52 relinquished their concessions or let them expire (AAPG, 2016). In Germany, eight wells were drilled
53 since 2008 in the Wealden or in the Posidonia formation (both Lower Saxony) but no details about the
54 gas flow were published. One well was drilled in the Alum shale in Denmark and the drilling of 17
55 shallow wells into the Alum shale of Ostergötland is reported for Sweden from which only some
56 showed a gas flow (AAPG, 2016).

57 The production of unconventional gas is linked with a high-pressure injection of several thousand
58 cubic meters of water for each well (Gregory et al., 2011; SEAB, 2011) to create minute cracks in
59 which hydrocarbons can flow to the wellbore. The formation and the operator determine the
60 composition of the suspension for injection that is generally made of 90% water, 9 - 9.5% sand or
61 ceramics and 1 - 0.5% chemical additives (e.g. Arthur et al., 2008; King, 2012; Wood et al., 2011).
62 Additives could include small volumes of mainly hydrochloric acid ($< 10 \text{ m}^3$) injected during the
63 initial stage of the gas exploitation to clean perforation tunnels and dissolve carbonate precipitates that
64 seal veins. Chelating agents (e.g. citric, acetic acid) are added to the fracturing fluid to prevent the
65 precipitation of iron and manganese compounds. Additional ingredients of the fracturing fluid could
66 be corrosion inhibitors, friction reducers, surfactants, clay stabilizers, biocides and cross-linkers
67 tailored for the specific lithological conditions (e.g. Arthur et al., 2008; Stringfellow et al., 2014). In
68 practice, 10 - 80% of the injected suspension returns to the surface: the so called flowback (Arthur et
69 al., 2008; Wood et al., 2011). The amount of flowback depends on formation characteristics, well
70 design and operating parameters.

71 To date, much of the research on the environmental impacts of unconventional gas production is
72 related to the origin of gas leakages during drilling, exploitation and production (e.g. Molofsky et al.,
73 2013), the chemical composition of the flowback (e.g. Barbot et al. 2013; Chermak and Schreiber,
74 2014; Dieterich et al., 2016; Gregory et al., 2011; Gordalla et al., 2013; Renock et al., 2016), the
75 release of microbiota and organic molecules from the shales (e.g. Hölzer et al., 2016; Strong et al.,
76 2013; Zhu et al., 2015) and the enrichment of toxic trace elements like As, Cd, Co, Cr, Hg, Ni, Zn, U,
77 V in the flowback (e.g. Marcon, et al., 2017; Wilke et al., 2015; Chermak and Schreiber, 2014 and
78 references therein). Some studies deal with the release of naturally occurring radionuclides (NORs) of
79 oil- and gas-field produced waters, scales or drill cuttings but these studies cover only very specific

80 areas such as the Marcellus shale in the Appalachian Basin (U.S.) (e.g. Chem and Sharma, 2016; Phan
81 et al., 2015; Nelson et al., 2015 & 2014; Haluszczak et al., 2012; Rowan et al., 2011; NYSDEC,
82 2009), the Bowland shale in the UK (Environment Agency, 2011) or one shale in Pomerania, Poland
83 (Mykowska et al., 2015; Mykowska and Hupka, 2014). Therein, the focus is on alpha particle emitter
84 of the ^{238}U -, ^{235}U - and ^{232}Th - decay series e.g. ^{226}Ra (Fig.1).

85 ^{238}U series nuclides are often enriched in TOC-rich shales when U was scavenged as U(IV) under
86 reducing conditions (e.g. Chen and Sharma, 2016; Chermak and Schreiber, 2014; Schovsbo, 2002;
87 Stetten et al., 2018; Raiswell and Berner, 1985). It can be assumed that the reservoir of leachable U-
88 series nuclides initially relates dominantly to scavenging and/or chemical precipitation of uranium
89 from weathering fluids whereas the proportion of U^{238} - and Th^{232} -series nuclides re-mobilized from
90 weathering resistant minerals (e.g. zircon) is negligible. Uranium may be initially co-precipitated with
91 $\text{Fe}(\text{Mn})\text{OOH}$ (Muller et al., 1995 and references therein) or hosting in biogenic calcite (Russell et al.,
92 1994) and may be initially or post-depositional immobilized as U(IV) to form, e.g. secondary uraninite
93 (UO_2), coffeineite ($\text{U}(\text{SiO}_4)_{1-x}(\text{OH})_{4x}$) or autunite ($\text{Ca}[(\text{UO}_2)(\text{PO}_4)]_2 \cdot 10 - 12 \text{H}_2\text{O}$), depending on the
94 composition of the coexisting fluids during early stages of sediment burial (Duff et al., 2002;
95 Fredrickson et al., 2000; Cumberland et al., 2016; Lecomte et al., 2017).

96 The release of U into the drilling fluid may depend on the amount of leachable U available from the
97 shale deposits processed for gas exploitation but also from the carbonate and sulfide contents of the
98 shale (e.g. Nelson et al., 2015; Wilke et al., 2015). Interaction of pyrite-rich shales with oxic fluids
99 generates sulfuric acid that dissolves carbonates and can generate fluids with low pH when the
100 buffering capacity of the carbonate gets exhausted (Chermak and Schreiber, 2014; Wilke et al., 2015).
101 Decrease in pH favors the release of weakly bound cations from cation exchange sites and the
102 solubility of minerals hosting uranium. If acids are present, either as ingredient in the fracturing fluid
103 or formed by fluid-rock interactions during the course of shale gas production, U(IV) would be mobile
104 even under reducing conditions (Garrels and Christ, 1965). Oxygen-containing fluids force the
105 formation of easily soluble U(VI)-oxyanions. U(VI) or U(IV) release due to pH decrease during solid-
106 fluid interactions may be associated with the formation of less soluble secondary U(VI) or U(IV)
107 precipitates with CO_3^{2-} or PO_4^{3-} that may counteract uranium increase in the return fluids (Sandino &
108 Bruno, 1992; Stetten et al., 2018).

109 ^{226}Ra ($T_{1/2}= 1600 \text{ a}$; ^{238}U - series) and ^{228}Ra ($T_{1/2}=5.76 \text{ a}$; ^{232}Th -series) behave less mobile in natural
110 environments (e.g. Vengosh et al., 2014), though they frequently show slightly enhanced activities in
111 groundwater compared to their activities in surface waters (Schettler et al., 2015 and references
112 therein). ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra are preferentially sorbed to ion-exchange sites of particle surfaces (Ames et
113 al., 1983), get co-precipitated with BaSO_4 or BaCO_3 (Langmuir and Riese, 1985) or may be taken up
114 by plants (Bettencourt et al., 1988). Moreover, Ra is efficiently scavenged by Mn(IV)-hydroxides
115 which finds analytical application as a pre-concentration step for Ra (Charette et al., 2015 and
116 references therein). These reactions will lower the concentration of dissolved Ra in the drilling fluid

117 and can yield substantial accumulative enrichments of Ra and its decay products (^{210}Pb , ^{210}Po) in
118 coexisting solids at near-surface compartments (e.g. Nelson et al., 2015 and references therein).
119 In this study, we determine and assess the activity concentrations of ^{238}U , and ^{232}Th from one Alum
120 and one Posidonian black shale and, furthermore, the activity concentration of ^{238}U and the radioactive
121 decay product ^{226}Ra from the experimentally derived black shale leachates. We intend to increase the
122 knowledge about the amount of radioactive elements that might be enclosed in the drill cutting waste
123 and that may become mobilized from black shales into the fluids, the radioactivity they produce and
124 how European shales prospected for gas production differ in this topic from shales used for
125 unconventional gas production in the U.S. (e.g. the Marcellus shales).

126

127 **2. Experimental settings**

128 2.1 Black shales

129 A black shale sample from the Upper Cambrian Alum shale of Scandinavia (Skelbro-2, Bornholm,
130 Denmark) and one from the lower Jurassic Posidonia shale of central Europe (Haddessen, NW-
131 Germany) were chosen to simulate temporal changes in the composition of flow back water by
132 solid/fluid interaction in lab experiments under defined conditions (Table 1; Fig. 2; see Wilke et al.,
133 2015 for details). The selection of shales was done in accordance with a perspective shale gas
134 production (Horsfield et al., 2010). Both samples were taken from cores (not from cuttings) in
135 lithologies suitable for industrial gas production. Samples have been milled to < 2 mm grain size and
136 were not sieved to preserve different grain size fractions.

137

138 2.2 Extraction experiments

139 We designed two experimental set-ups consisting of A) 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks connected with a
140 reflux condenser for short-term experiments (24 h) under atmospheric pressure and at 100°C and B) of
141 800 ml autoclaves made of a Ni-Cr-Mo-W alloy (Hastelloy™) coated inside with
142 polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE), for long-term studies of 2 and 6 month at 100 bar and 100°C . Latter
143 conditions roughly simulate the target formation in Damme 3 well (Lower Saxony, Germany), where
144 hydraulic fracturing was performed in a shale at ca. 1-1.5 km depth at a pressure of 110-150 bar and a
145 temperature of ca. 80°C (Olsson et al., 2013). Both experimental set-ups run under oxidizing
146 conditions. A solid to liquid ratio of 1:12.5 was applied for both experimental set-ups. Fluids in the
147 autoclaves were O_2 -saturated and overlaid by headspace containing 1% O_2 at the beginning of the
148 experiment and 0.2% O_2 at the end. About 3 ml fluid was sampled at each sampling time for HR-ICP-
149 MS measurements and the pH measured instantaneously before degassing to avoid a change in pH.
150 After sampling, the pressure in the autoclave was re-adjusted to 100 bar by adding N_2 from the gas
151 pressure bottle. Further experimental details are given in Wilke et al. (2015).

152

153 2.3 Analytical methods

154 We determined the initial mineralogical compositions of both shales using X-ray diffraction analysis
155 (XRD) using a PANalytical Empyrean (Table 1). Elemental concentrations in the shales were
156 determined by high resolution inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (HR-ICP-MS,
157 THERMO ELEMENT XR) following HF-aqua regia (1/1) digestion, fuming with HClO₄ and dilution
158 by 1/1000 with 2% HNO₃ (Table 2, Supplement 1). Reaction fluids from the experiments were filtered
159 using a 0.45 µm Nylon membrane filter and diluted by 1/10 with 2% HNO₃ before HR-ICP-MS
160 analyses. For all measurements, calibration solutions with concentrations of 0.25 and 10 µg/l were
161 applied and at least three aliquots of the reaction fluids were analyzed. The uncertainty for all ICP-MS
162 analyses is about 2-5%. The detection limits of the applied analytical routine using ICP-MS in the high
163 resolution mode typically ranged between 0.5 and 1 ng/g depending on the element.

164

165 2.4 Gamma-spectrometry

166 An amount of 4 ml out of 30-50 ml reaction fluid of the two short-term and on the beginning and the
167 end of both long-term experiments was used for gamma spectrometry. Special treatment was needed
168 for the reaction fluid from the short-term experiment using Alum. 40 ml fluid were diluted to 50 ml
169 with 5% HNO₃ prior analysis to dissolve precipitations from the fluid. Fluid activities were measured
170 using a high purity well-type germanium detector of Canberra (cryostat model: 7915-30-ULB). 4 ml
171 of the fluids were filled in PE tubes (d= 15 mm, h = 45 mm) for gamma measurements (Table 2).

172 Our measurements aimed on the quantification of Ra activity concentrations of the ²³⁸U- and ²³²Th-
173 decay series. The Ra release of ²³⁸U and ²³²Th-decay series into the extraction fluids could be in
174 similar order of magnitude due to Th and U concentrations of the shales.

175 Presumed ²²⁶Ra equilibrium with ²³⁸U, the theoretical number of counts for ²¹⁴Pb (²³⁸U-series nuclide)
176 at 351.92 keV exceeds the sum of counts for ²²⁶Ra and ²³⁵U 3.5-fold. Nonetheless, we decided to
177 perform the ²²⁶Ra determinations at 186 keV for the following arguments: a) Background peaks of
178 ²¹⁴Pb at 295.21 keV and 351.92 keV may vary over time due to changes in the ²²²Rn concentration of
179 the lab-air b) we cannot be sure about the impermeability to ²²²Rn of the PE-tubes used and c) the
180 efficiency calibrations that considered the ²²²Rn distribution between the headspace and the 4 ml fluid
181 in the PE tubes were not available when we performed the measurements.

182 The 186 keV peak is affected by ²²⁶Ra at 186.211 keV (3.64%) and ²³⁵U at 185.715 keV (57.0%)
183 ([NuDat2.7](#) Database (NNDC) 2017). Interferences by ²³⁴Pa at 186.15 keV with a recommended
184 intensity of 0.00325 (Huang and Wang, 2011) and by ^{234m}Pa at 184.7 keV with an intensity of 0.00168
185 ([NuDat2.7](#) Database (NNDC) 2017) are neglectable. Detector calibration based on the measurement of
186 a dilution of 4 ml NIST4966 Standard (289.1 Bq/ml) in the PE tube (41071 counts, uncertainty 0.53%,
187 $t_{\text{meas}} = 1919$ s) yielded an efficiency of 0.49 at 186 keV. The inferred detector efficiency might be an
188 overestimation if the standard includes impurities of ²³⁵U. An efficiency calibration using solid powder
189 of Nussloch loess which considered ²³⁵U interference corrections for assumed ²³⁸U-²²⁶Ra equilibrium
190 with the same fill height in the PE tube (IAG reference material data sheet) yielded a detector

191 efficiency of 0.47 at 186 keV that supports the plausibility of the efficiency calibration for the 4 ml
192 fluid aliquots.

193 Uncertainty values for γ -counting at 186 keV of the fluid samples from the lab experiments varied
194 between 5.4 and 16.8% (Table 2). Calculations followed the equations given in Supplement 2.
195 Corrections for interferences by ^{235}U are based on ^{238}U concentration measurements using ICP-MS
196 (Table 2). We considered an $^{238}\text{U}/^{235}\text{U}$ ratio of 137.818 ± 0.045 (Hiess et al., 2012) which corresponds
197 to an activity ratio of 21.709.

198 Long-term background measurements did not yield significant photopeaks at 186 keV above the
199 background scatter. We did not consider spectral coincidences for photopeak measurements at 186
200 keV which are minor (e.g. Yücel et al., 2010). A slight photopeak at 351.92 keV of ^{214}Pb (35.6%)
201 ($t_{\text{meas}} = 13$ days, 153 counts, uncertainty 26.4%) mostly represents the ^{222}Rn activity in the measuring
202 room and is not related to a significant ^{226}Ra blank of the detector. Otherwise, it would be related to a
203 ^{226}Ra activity blank concentration of 0.3 mBq/ml.

204 The ^{232}Th -decay series includes ^{224}Ra and ^{228}Ra . The most intense photopeak of ^{224}Ra at 240.98 keV
205 (4.1%) was not strong enough to be measurable in the extraction fluids of our experiment. Less intense
206 photopeaks of ^{228}Ra occur in the low-energy range, outside of our measuring span. Alternatively, the
207 short-lived ^{212}Pb of the ^{224}Ra decay is detectable by its strong photopeak at 238.62 keV (43.6%) which
208 is inferred by ^{224}Ra at 240.98 keV (4.1%). We only obtained a photopeak at 238.62 keV ($t_{\text{meas}} =$
209 1208830 s, 235 counts) in the fluid sampled at the beginning of the long-term experiment using Alum
210 Shale.

211

212 **3. Results**

213 3.1 Shales

214 The XRD data show significant differences in mineralogy between the Alum shale from Bornholm,
215 Denmark and from the Posidonia shale from Lower Saxony, Germany (Table 1). The Alum shale is
216 non-calcareous and contains high amounts of pyrite whereas the Posidonia shale is carbonate rich and
217 contains a lower amount of pyrite. ICP-MS data show a more than 20-times higher U content in the
218 Alum shale (74.4 $\mu\text{g/g}$) compared to the Posidonia shale (3.6 $\mu\text{g/g}$; Table 2). 11.1 $\mu\text{g/g}$ of ^{232}Th was
219 obtained from the Alum shale and 6.6 $\mu\text{g/g}$ from the Posidonia shale.

220

221 3.2 Fluids

222 Due to pyrite oxidation and the formation of sulfuric acid during the course of the experiment the pH
223 in the reaction fluid of the Alum shale declined to 2-3 (Table 2, Suppl. Table 1, Fig. 3), whereas the
224 reaction fluid in contact with the Posidonia shale increased up to 7-8. Under oxidizing but neutral
225 conditions during the short-term experiment with the carbonate-rich Posidonia shale ca. 0.2% of the
226 uranium was mobilized from the shale (Table 2, Fig. 3). Under oxidizing and acidic conditions during
227 the short-term and at the beginning of the long-term experiments using the pyrite-rich Alum shale and

228 EF ca. 32% and 22% of the uranium was mobilized, respectively (Fig. 3). ^{232}Th was released from the
229 Alum shale to the fluid with ca. 22% at the beginning of the long-term experiments and with ca. 0.8 %
230 during the short-term experiment using the Alum shale and EF (Table 2, Fig. 3).

231 The activity concentration of ^{238}U is as high as 23.9 mBq/ml in the fluids of the short-term experiment
232 with the Alum shale. During the long-term experiment with the Alum shale ^{238}U -activity
233 concentrations, calculated on the basis of the ICP-MS analyses, decreased from 16 mBq/ml to 0.0006
234 mBq/ml. For all Posidonia shale extracts the activity concentration of ^{238}U is very low (≤ 0.0075
235 mBq/ml) or below detection limit. The activity concentrations for ^{226}Ra lie between 3.5 and
236 5.0 mBq/ml in Alum shale experiments (Table 2). The activity concentrations of dissolved ^{226}Ra
237 remained unchanged at 4.1 mBq/ml between the beginning and the end of the long-term experiment
238 with the Posidonia shale using the extraction fluid (EF).

239

240 **4. Discussion**

241 A study of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA, 2003), which compiles the current
242 knowledge about the characteristics, occurrence in various compartments, and activity concentration
243 ranges of natural radionuclides at oil and gas exploitation sites (Chapter 5.3; page 55 and Chapter 5.5;
244 page 56), states that ^{238}U and ^{232}Th are not mobilized and largely remain in the reservoir (IAEA, 2003).

245 The U content of the Alum shale from Denmark used in our experiments (74.4 $\mu\text{g/g}$) is a little lower
246 than the mean values of the two upper Cambrian Alum shales in Bornholm, namely from the Olenus
247 and Peltura zones with 92 $\mu\text{g/g}$ and 100 $\mu\text{g/g}$, respectively, and is similar to the lower-most
248 Ordovician Alum shale from Denmark with 73 $\mu\text{g/g}$ (Schovsbo, 2002) and an Alum black shale from
249 Sweden (72.6 $\mu\text{g/g}$; Lavergren et al., 2009). It is shown that the primary enrichment of U in the upper
250 Cambrian Alum shale has likely been taken place by the diffusion of ions through the seafloor along
251 sulfate reductions horizons at or above the sediment-water interface (Schovsbo, 2002). During the
252 middle Cambrian, scavenging of uranium onto organic particles lead primarily to the uranium
253 enrichment in the Alum shales (Lecomte et al., 2017). The Posidonia shale contains 3.6 $\mu\text{g/g}$ U.
254 Comparing both European shales with the Marcellus shale in the U.S., the investigated shales show
255 comparable contents in U whereas the experimentally derived leachates show a much lower ^{226}Ra
256 activity (Table 2) than published Ra activities of the flowback water from the Marcellus shale. The
257 Devonian Marcellus shale is known for particularly high U contents compared to those of other shales
258 in the U.S., such as Eagle Ford, Utica or Antrim (Chermak and Schreiber, 2014; Kargbo et al., 2010).
259 Whole rock ICP-MS analyses show 13.5 ± 0.3 $\mu\text{g/g}$ U for a Marcellus shale from the Chenago County,
260 NY (Renock et al., 2016), between 0.6 and 72.3 $\mu\text{g/g}$ U for a Marcellus shale from Greene County, PA
261 (Chen and Sharma, 2016) and 2-47 $\mu\text{g/g}$ for Marcellus shale from the Tioga and Greene Counties, NY
262 and PA respectively (Phan et al., 2015).

263 In our experiment, the non-calcareous U-rich Alum shale behaves differently than the calcareous
264 Posidonia shale. The reaction fluid of the calcareous Posidonia shale had a pH of 7-8 during the course
265 of the experiments and only 0.2% of the U was mobilized from the solids. The pyrite-rich and
266 carbonate-free Alum shale leads to an acid reaction fluid with a pH of 2-3 containing max. 32% of the
267 U that the shale initially contained (Fig. 3). One has to take into account that the Alum shale has no
268 carbonate that could counteract the pH decrease in the fluid due to oxidizing of pyrite. The actual
269 uranium concentrations in the shale and the substantially higher pyrite concentrations in the Alum
270 shale compared to the Posidonia shale are the driving prerequisites to generate the high U-content in
271 the extraction fluids. ^{238}U is detectable for all extracts except for the beginning of the long-term
272 experiment using the Posidonia shale. We obtained enhanced ^{238}U activities, calculated on the basis of
273 the ICP-MS analyses, in the reaction fluids during the short-term (23.9 mBq/ml) and at the beginning
274 of the long-term (16.0 mBq/ml) experiment using the Alum shale.

275 Compiled Marcellus shale flowback data show a max ^{238}U activity concentration of 5.6 mBq/ml with a
276 median (N=16) of 0.012 mBq/ml but there is no information about the sampling time after hydraulic
277 fracturing (e.g. Abualfaraj et al., 2014; Haluszczak et al. 2012 and references therein). Following
278 hydraulic fracturing, an increase in the U concentration of the produced water was observed during the
279 first week in the Marcellus shale (Phan et al., 2015) and in the Niobrara formation, NE-Colorado
280 (Rosenblum et al., 2017) whereas in later stages of the gas exploitation the U concentration dropped.
281 This is similar to the results of our long-term experiment using the Alum shale (Fig. 3). After U(IV) is
282 oxidized to the soluble and hence readily mobile U(VI) it could be scavenged by FeOOH precipitates or
283 reduced again inorganically by Fe^{2+} or Mn^{2+} species (via e.g. $\text{Fe}^{2+} \leftrightarrow \text{Fe}^{3+} + \text{e}^-$) that are either present
284 dissolved in the aqueous phase or structurally sorbed to phyllosilicates, phosphates or oxides (e.g.
285 Stetten et al., 2018 and references therein). Oxidation of pyrite, present in the Marcellus, Alum and
286 Posidonia shales (Table 1) yields reactive Fe^{2+} that was leached in our experiments.

287 Due to their age, the ^{226}Ra activity concentrations of both shales leached in our experiments can be
288 assumed to be in secular equilibrium with ^{238}U . The ^{226}Ra activities of the low-pH Alum shale extracts
289 slightly exceeded those of the Posidonia shale (Table 2) in the long-term experiments. Obtained ^{226}Ra
290 activity concentrations from the Alum shale extracts seem to increase during the course of that
291 experiment but are similar taken the given count uncertainties into account. Therefore, our findings do
292 neither support nor oppose results of produced waters from the Marcellus shale by Rowen et al. 2011
293 in which the total Ra activities have been found to be higher in later production stages.

294 A rough Ra release estimation from the shales into the extraction fluids, taken into account the U
295 concentration of the solids determined by ICP-MS, the ratio of solids and liquids used during the
296 experiments and the presupposed equilibrium between ^{238}U and ^{226}Ra show that ca. 80% of the solid-
297 bound ^{226}Ra was released from the Posidonia shale but only <5% from the Alum shale. We suggest

298 that the detectable minor percentages of Ra released from the Alum shale into the fluid could point to
299 co-precipitation of Ra with secondary sulfates (Fisher, 1998) like moorhousite and bianchite that were
300 evident using X-ray diffraction (see Wilke et al., 2015 for details) or to a recrystallisation of barite
301 (Grandia et al., 2008). The Ba concentrations in the Posidonia extractions increased during the course
302 of the long-term experiment, whereas the increase of dissolved sulphate associated with the oxidation
303 of pyrite for the Alum shale experiment might have counteracted a Ba increase in the coexisting fluid
304 by the precipitation of Ba-rich sulfates (Supplement 1).

305 Ra can be remobilized from particle surfaces by replacement with other similar cations such as Ca,
306 depending on their concentration in the extraction fluid and/or released by dissolution of chemical
307 precipitates. Radiation damage may favor Ra liberation from solids but is unlikely. Secondary
308 precipitates of U less strongly bind ^{226}Ra than detrital minerals such as zircons that also host ^{232}Th . At
309 the beginning of the short-term experiment using Alum shale we measured weak ^{224}Ra and ^{212}Pb
310 photopeaks, indicating very low ^{228}Ra activity concentrations. The dominance of ^{226}Ra versus ^{228}Ra in
311 the experimental fluids is likely related to differences in the solid substrates hosting ^{238}U and ^{232}Th .
312 ^{226}Ra -bearing solids may be dominantly represented by chemical precipitates hosting U from which
313 ^{226}Ra is easily released, whereas ^{228}Ra should be predominantly hosted in fluvial or aeolian debris that
314 more strongly embeds the ^{232}Th -series nuclides. Substantial $^{226}\text{Ra}/^{228}\text{Ra}$ fractionation associated with
315 precipitation from the fluid or due to cation exchange is unlikely.

316 The Pennsylvania Department of Environmental Protection (PA DEP, 2009; unpublished) analyzed 25
317 flowback fluids from Devonian Marcellus shale typically using gamma-spectrometry and obtained a
318 ^{226}Ra activity concentration as high as 625 mBq/ml (median $A[^{226}\text{Ra}]$: 22 mBq/ml; max. total
319 ($^{226}\text{Ra}+^{228}\text{Ra}$): 667 mBq/ml; median total ($^{226}\text{Ra}+^{228}\text{Ra}$): 35 mBq/ml). The New York State
320 Departments of Environmental Conservation (NYSDEC, 2009) detected a ^{226}Ra activity concentration
321 as high as 593 mBq/ml out of 13 flowback fluids (median $A[^{226}\text{Ra}]$: 203.1 mBq/ml) from the
322 Marcellus shale. Since there is no information about the analytical method, the data need to be handled
323 with care (Nelson et al., 2014). Latter study observed 670 ± 26 mBq/ml in Marcellus shale flowback
324 water. The United States Geological Survey (USGS) analyzed 14 production waters from Devonian
325 Marcellus shale in Bradford County, PA and obtained a ^{226}Ra activity concentration as high as 201
326 mBq/ml (median $A[^{226}\text{Ra}]$: 64 mBq/ml; max. total ($^{226}\text{Ra}+^{228}\text{Ra}$): 231 mBq/ml; median total
327 ($^{226}\text{Ra}+^{228}\text{Ra}$): 91 mBq/ml Rowen et al., 2011). Here, Ra was co-precipitated with Ba and the
328 precipitate measured by gamma-spectrometry. All studies revealed median activities that are higher
329 than the industrial effluent discharge limit of 2.2 mBq/ml for ^{226}Ra (U.S. Nuclear Regulatory
330 Commission, 2011).

331 For comparison, the Environment Agency of UK published a report in 2011 about the Bowland shale.
332 The flowback of the Preese Hall well showed ^{226}Ra activity concentrations between 14 ± 2.1 and 90 ± 12

333 mBq/ml. This is three to twenty-times higher to our experimental findings of 3.5 - 5.0 mBq/ml using
334 the Alum shale but in the range of median ^{226}Ra activities for Marcellus shale flowback fluids derived
335 by PA DEP (2009) and Rowen et al. (2011). In a recent publication from Jodłowski et al. (2017),
336 returned fracturing fluids, drilling mud and proppants as well as drill cuttings were subject to activity
337 measurements from multiple rigs from either the Baltic basin or the Lublin Trough in north-eastern
338 Poland. The returned fracturing fluids were sampled after a set a solid–fluid separators on-site. The
339 ^{238}U activity concentrations (< 30 mBq/ml) and the ^{226}Ra activity concentrations (2-70 mBq/ml;
340 median 43 mBq/ml) of the Polish sites cover our experimental data.

341 In contrast to the U concentration in flowback fluids at shale gas production sites, the activity
342 concentration of Ra was found to be higher in late stage production waters of active industrial shale
343 gas production (e.g. Haluszczak et al., 2012) but kept quite constant in both long-term experiments.
344 The main reason for elevated Ra activities in flowback fluids from production sites compared to those
345 from our reaction fluids could be seen in the fluid itself because our experimental fluids do not have
346 elevated Cl concentrations (e.g. Kraemer and Reid, 1984; Fisher, 1998; Vengosh et al., 2014; Nelson
347 et al., 2015) and our experiments do not simulate connected intra-and intergranular pores filled with
348 reservoir water (Dresel and Rose, 2010) from which Ra can easily release. Furthermore, a smaller
349 fluid to solid ratio due to minute cracks in grains after subsequent hydraulic fracturing in industrial
350 drills would also explain the differences in the activity concentrations of ^{226}Ra .

351 **5. Conclusions**

352 The Posidonia shale from Germany and the Alum shale from Denmark, both differ in their
353 mineralogical and chemical composition were chosen to quantify the release of U, Th and Ra by
354 solid/water interaction in long-term lab experiments under defined experimental conditions.
355 Temperature, pressure, and initial fluid composition roughly simulated the target formation in Damme
356 3 well, Lower Saxony, Germany. The flow through character regarding the solid/fluid interaction,
357 however, could not be simulated in the static lab experiments, which probably underestimated the
358 solid/fluid ratio during the real gas exploitation. The release of U into the extraction fluid appears to be
359 independent from pressure and independent from the pH of the initially applied fluid during gas
360 exploitation (Wilke et al., 2015) but depends on the carbonate and sulfide contents of the shales and
361 therewith also from the pH of the resulting fluid as well as the amount of leachable U in the shale. Our
362 findings point to a preferential Ra release from U-hosting solids.

363 The carbonate-rich Posidonia shale which contains less U and Th than the non-calcareous and pyrite-
364 rich Alum shale also releases comparably low amounts of U and Th whereas the Ra release from the
365 shales into the extraction fluid was similar. Both European shales show comparable contents in U than
366 reported by the USGS for the Marcellus shale. However, the experimentally derived flowback samples
367 show much lower Ra activity concentrations than the flowbacks from the Marcellus shale. The main
368 reasons could be a) the missing Cl in our reaction fluid that is naturally present in the reservoir fluids,

369 b) that in industrial plays the fluid to solid ratio is most probably smaller c) minute cracks and well
370 connected intra-and intergranular pore spaces facilitate the release of Ra in industrial drills and d) co-
371 precipitation of Ra or recrystallization of barite.

372

373 **Acknowledgements**

374 We are very grateful to two anonymous reviewers, Paul Martin and Andreas Bollhöfer for their
375 constructive and rewarding reviews. Moreover, we thank our colleagues Knut Hahne for his laboratory
376 work and Jörg Erzinger for the inspiration. This publication is part of a project that received funding
377 by the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation program under grant agreement
378 number 640715. The content of this publication reflects only the author's view. The Innovation and
379 Networks Executive Agency (INEA) is not responsible for any use that may be made of the
380 information it contains.

381

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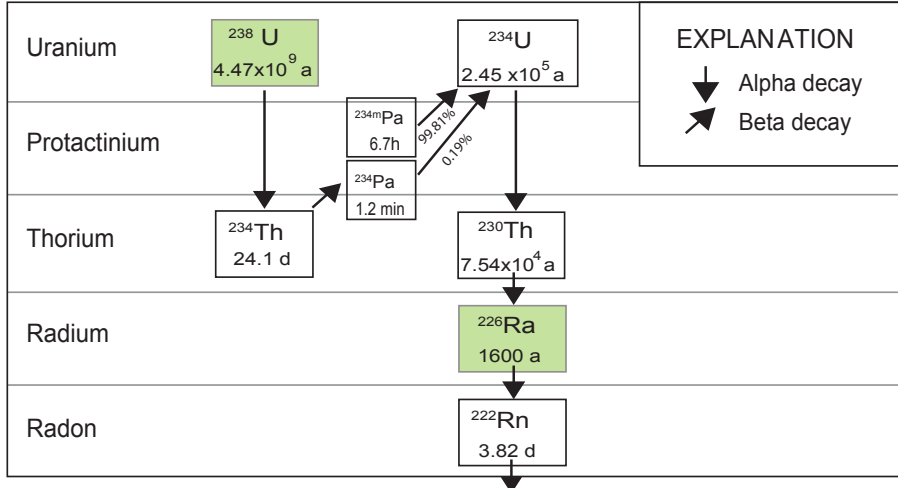
562
563 **Figure Captions**
564

565 Fig. 1 Upper radioactive decay chains for A) ²³⁸U and B) ²³²Th. Half-lives are given: a=years, d=days,
566 h=hours, m=minutes, s=seconds. Half-lives from the international nuclear structure and decay data
567 network under the auspices of the IAEA. <https://www-nds.iaea.org/relnsd/NdsEnsd/QueryForm.html>.
568 Radionuclides marked by a green background were quantitatively determined for this study.

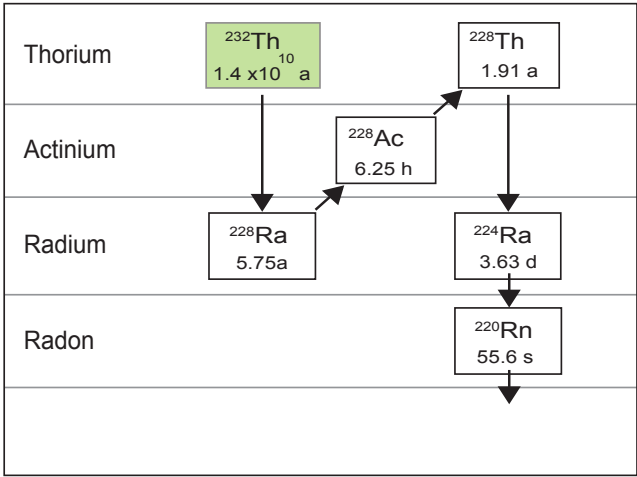
569
570 Fig. 2 Geographic map showing the location of described black shales in Europe. The map was
571 adapted from the Esri World Geocoder. The Alum shale distribution is modified from Buchardt et al.,
572 1997 and the Posidonia shale distribution adapted from the BGR (2016). Red circles show our sample
573 locations.

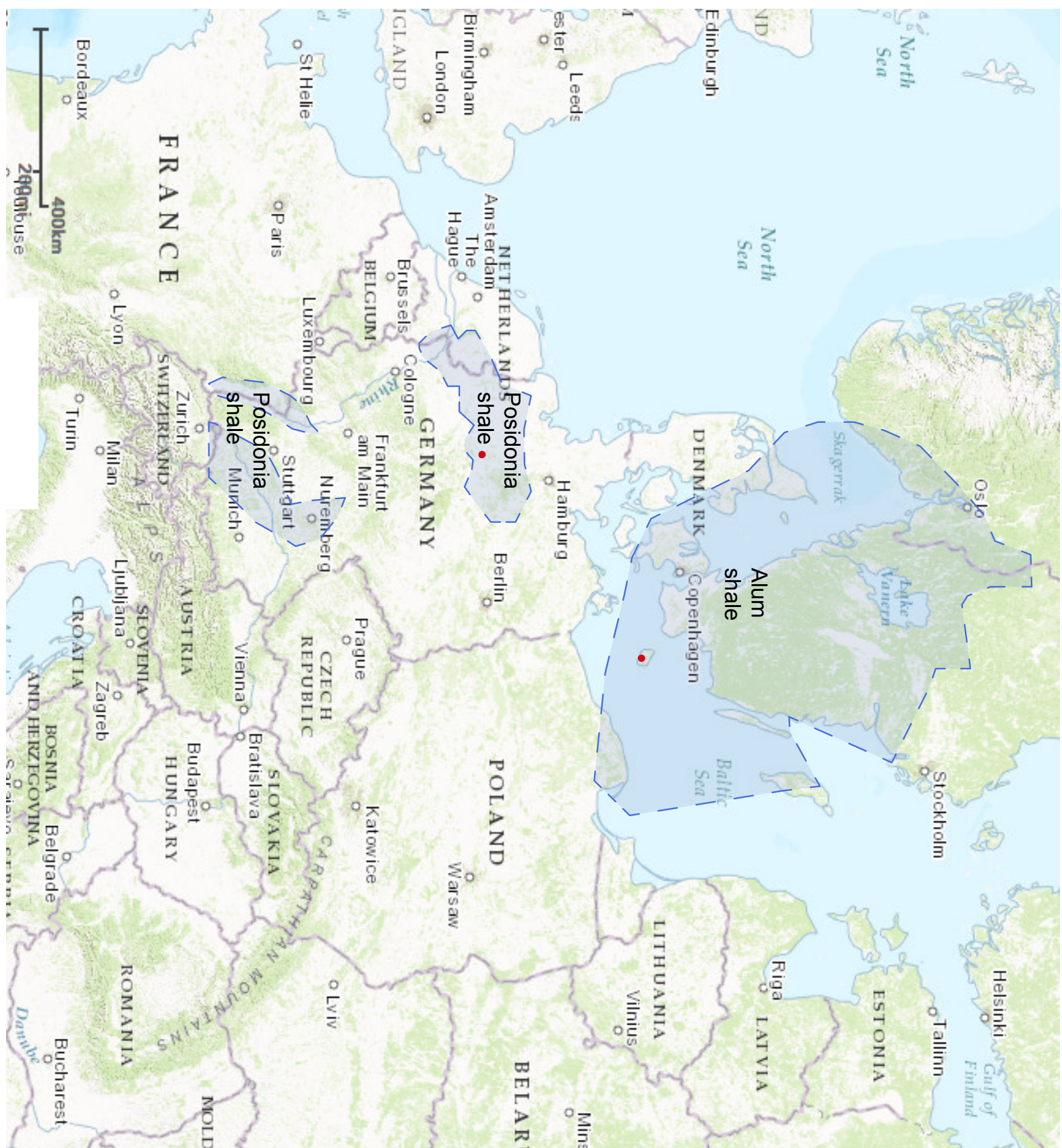
574
575 Fig. 3 ICP-MS analyses of U and Th of fluids sampled during the course of long-term experiments
576 using both shales and the extraction fluid (EF). The uncertainty is approx. 5%. On the secondary axis,
577 the pH is given.

A) Uranium-238



B) Thorium-232





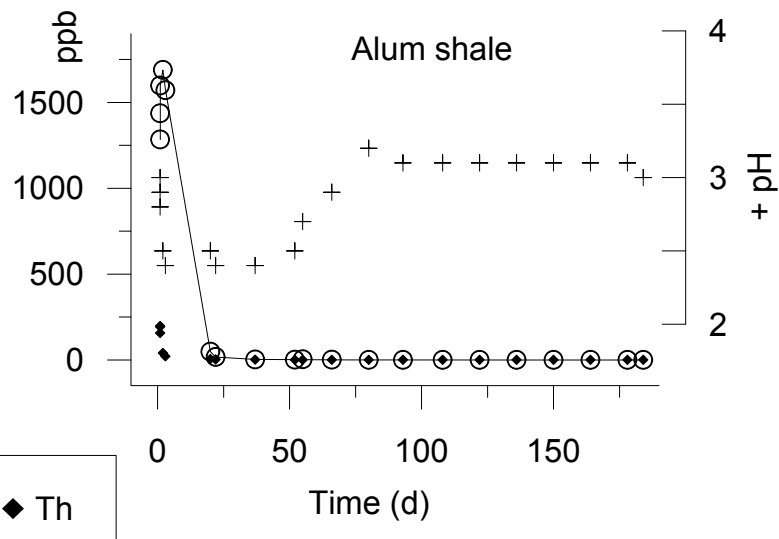
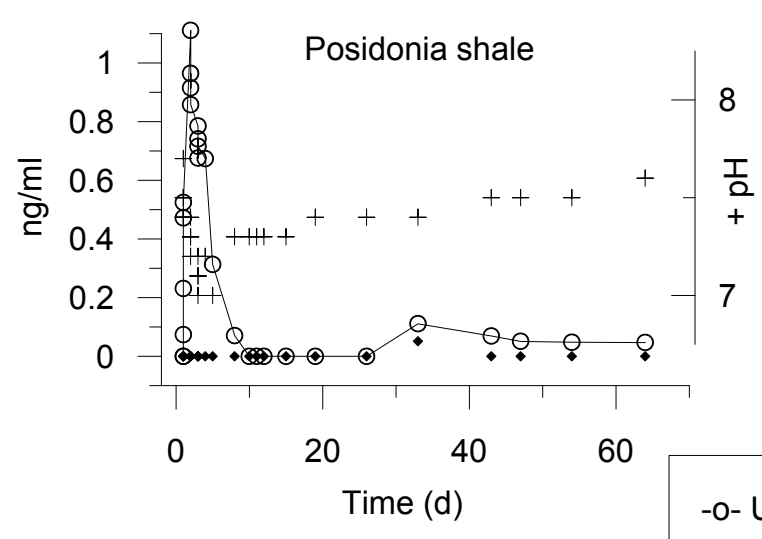


Table 1. Description and composition of black shales from Europe and the US for comparison. Mineral abbreviations after Whitney and Evans, 2010.

| Reference | Name | Location | Stratigraphy | Age | Depth [m] | Minerals [decreasing amount] | TOC |
|---|----------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------|------------------------------|----------|
| Wilke et al., 2015 | Alum 18 | Bornholm (DK) | Alum shale | Upper Cambrian | 18.2 | Ms/Ilt, Qz, Py, Or, Brt | 9.0 |
| | Posidonien 103 | Haddessen (D) | Posidonia shale | Lower Jurassic | 50.8 | Cb, Qz, Ms/Ilt, Kln, Py, Ab | 5.6 |
| Renock et al., 2016 | | Chenago County | | | 571 | Qz, Ilt, Chl, Cb, Py, Brt | - |
| Chen and Sharma, 2016, Marcon et al., 2017 | | Whipkey State#1 Greene County | Marcellus Shale | Middle Devonian | 2375-2406 | Qz, Cb, Ms/Ilt, Py | 5.2-5.7 |
| Phan et al., 2015 | | G1-G8, Greene County | | | 2374-2407 | | 1.0-79.7 |
| | | T1-T7, Tioga County | | | 901-1434 | | 1.1-52.4 |

| pH | Solids [mg/l] | | Reaction Fluids [mg/l] EP | |
|----|---------------|-----------|---------------------------|-----------|
| | Alum | Poisonous | Alum | Poisonous |
| Li | 21798 | 25126 | 59 | 42 |
| Ni | 52449 | 57341 | 14 | 4 |
| Cu | 154597 | 57776 | 131 | 20 |
| Zn | 145745 | 91472 | 6903 | 6 |
| Rb | 139539 | 69155 | 161 | 24 |
| Sr | 128595 | 500697 | 399 | 4642 |
| Mo | 160823 | 24473 | 436 | 436 |
| Cd | 4129 | 848 | 190 | 1 |
| Sb | 748 | 748 | 5 | 1 |
| Ba | 17925071 | 3410300 | 49 | 49 |
| La | 2934 | 2934 | 50 | 50 |
| Tl | 7765 | 1297 | 42 | 1 |
| Pb | 11448 | 6618 | 7 | 1 |
| Th | 74440 | 36651 | 1917 | 1 |
| U | 1043432 | 1097560 | 762 | 1 |
| V | 119379 | 71050 | 72 | <1 |
| Cr | 116158 | 224580 | 265 | 9 |
| Mn | 5077619 | 5787930 | 762791 | 0 |
| Fe | 148225 | 113981 | 1092 | 2 |
| Co | 114000 | 27000 | 1743 | <1 |
| As | | | | |
| Ca | 2779164 | 119822935 | 80911 | 189156 |

| pH | Solids [mg/l] | | Reaction Fluids [mg/l] EP | |
|----|---------------|-----------|---------------------------|-----------|
| | Alum | Poisonous | Alum | Poisonous |
| Li | 191 | 191 | 2 | 2 |
| Ni | 3 | 3 | 1 | 1 |
| Cu | 5 | 5 | 1 | 1 |
| Zn | 8 | 8 | 1 | 1 |
| Rb | 11 | 11 | 1 | 1 |
| Sr | 14 | 14 | 1 | 1 |
| Mo | 17 | 17 | 1 | 1 |
| Cd | 20 | 20 | 1 | 1 |
| Sb | 23 | 23 | 1 | 1 |
| Ba | 26 | 26 | 1 | 1 |
| La | 29 | 29 | 1 | 1 |
| Tl | 32 | 32 | 1 | 1 |
| Pb | 35 | 35 | 1 | 1 |
| Th | 38 | 38 | 1 | 1 |
| U | 41 | 41 | 1 | 1 |
| V | 44 | 44 | 1 | 1 |
| Cr | 47 | 47 | 1 | 1 |
| Mn | 50 | 50 | 1 | 1 |
| Fe | 53 | 53 | 1 | 1 |
| Co | 56 | 56 | 1 | 1 |
| As | 59 | 59 | 1 | 1 |
| Ca | 62 | 62 | 1 | 1 |

| pH | Solids [mg/l] | | Reaction Fluids [mg/l] EP | |
|----|---------------|-----------|---------------------------|-----------|
| | Alum | Poisonous | Alum | Poisonous |
| Li | 191 | 191 | 2 | 2 |
| Ni | 3 | 3 | 1 | 1 |
| Cu | 5 | 5 | 1 | 1 |
| Zn | 8 | 8 | 1 | 1 |
| Rb | 11 | 11 | 1 | 1 |
| Sr | 14 | 14 | 1 | 1 |
| Mo | 17 | 17 | 1 | 1 |
| Cd | 20 | 20 | 1 | 1 |
| Sb | 23 | 23 | 1 | 1 |
| Ba | 26 | 26 | 1 | 1 |
| La | 29 | 29 | 1 | 1 |
| Tl | 32 | 32 | 1 | 1 |
| Pb | 35 | 35 | 1 | 1 |
| Th | 38 | 38 | 1 | 1 |
| U | 41 | 41 | 1 | 1 |
| V | 44 | 44 | 1 | 1 |
| Cr | 47 | 47 | 1 | 1 |
| Mn | 50 | 50 | 1 | 1 |
| Fe | 53 | 53 | 1 | 1 |
| Co | 56 | 56 | 1 | 1 |
| As | 59 | 59 | 1 | 1 |
| Ca | 62 | 62 | 1 | 1 |

| pH | Solids [mg/l] | | Reaction Fluids [mg/l] EP | |
|----|---------------|-----------|---------------------------|-----------|
| | Alum | Poisonous | Alum | Poisonous |
| Li | 191 | 191 | 2 | 2 |
| Ni | 3 | 3 | 1 | 1 |
| Cu | 5 | 5 | 1 | 1 |
| Zn | 8 | 8 | 1 | 1 |
| Rb | 11 | 11 | 1 | 1 |
| Sr | 14 | 14 | 1 | 1 |
| Mo | 17 | 17 | 1 | 1 |
| Cd | 20 | 20 | 1 | 1 |
| Sb | 23 | 23 | 1 | 1 |
| Ba | 26 | 26 | 1 | 1 |
| La | 29 | 29 | 1 | 1 |
| Tl | 32 | 32 | 1 | 1 |
| Pb | 35 | 35 | 1 | 1 |
| Th | 38 | 38 | 1 | 1 |
| U | 41 | 41 | 1 | 1 |
| V | 44 | 44 | 1 | 1 |
| Cr | 47 | 47 | 1 | 1 |
| Mn | 50 | 50 | 1 | 1 |
| Fe | 53 | 53 | 1 | 1 |
| Co | 56 | 56 | 1 | 1 |
| As | 59 | 59 | 1 | 1 |
| Ca | 62 | 62 | 1 | 1 |

Supplementary Table 1: Shows are all analyzed for the discussed experiments. Deviation limits (DL) are mg/l and % and Th and U values in a frame mark the discussed experimental results.

Supplement 2: Specifications of the radiometric analyses and calculation formula

Variables used

| | |
|---|--|
| Eff (186 keV)= 0.49 | Detector efficiency at 186 keV |
| Ab ^[235U (185.715keV)] = 57.0% | Intensity |
| Ab ^[226Ra (186.21keV)] = 3.64% | Intensity |
| counts (186 keV) | |
| Δt _{meas} (s) | Measuring time |
| A _v = 6.02x10 ²³ mol ⁻¹ | Avogadro constant |
| ²³⁸ U _{meas} (ng/ml) | ICP-MS results |
| A ^[238U] _{calc} (mBq/ml) | calculated on the basis of ICP-MS analyses |
| T _{1/2} ^[238U] = 4.47x10 ⁹ a | Half-life ²³⁸ U |
| T _{1/2} ^[235U] = 7.04x10 ⁸ a | Half-life ²³⁵ U |
| ²³⁸ U/ ²³⁵ U = 137.818 ± 0.045 (2σ) | after Hiess et al. (2012) |
| A ^[238U] /A ^[235U] = 21.709 | Reciprocal is 0.04606 |
| V _{meas} = 4 ml | Volume aliquot for γ-measurement |

$$A^{[238U]}(mBq/ml) = \frac{(^{238}U_{[meas]}(ng/mL) \times 10^{-6} \times A_v \times \ln(2))}{238 \times T_{1/2}^{[238U]} \times 365.2422 \times 24 \times 3600}$$

$$A^{[235U]}(mBq/ml) = \frac{A^{[238U]}}{21.709}$$

$$A^{[226Ra]} \left(\frac{Bq}{ml} \right) = \left[\frac{counts[186keV]}{V_{meas} \times t_{meas} \times Eff[186keV]} - A^{[235U]} \times 0.57 \right] \times \frac{1}{0.0364}$$