

1 *In-situ* bitumen extraction associated with increased petrogenic polycyclic aromatic compounds
2 in lake sediments from the Cold Lake heavy oil fields (Alberta, Canada)

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21 **Abstract**

22 Most future growth in the Alberta bitumen sands will be based on thermal *in-situ*
23 recovery technologies. To date, however, most attention on the environmental effects of bitumen
24 recovery has focused on surface mining in the Athabasca region. Recent uncontrolled bitumen
25 flow-to-surface incidents (FTS; appearance at the surface of bitumen emulsions from deep
26 subsurface recovery zones) reported at the Cold Lake heavy oil fields highlight the need to better
27 understand the potential role of *in-situ* extraction as a source of contaminants to landscapes and
28 surface waters. We analyzed sediment cores from a lake located ~2 km away from a recent
29 bitumen FTS incident to provide a long-term perspective on the delivery of metals, polycyclic
30 aromatic compounds (PACs), and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) to surface freshwaters, and
31 to assess whether the onset of local *in-situ* bitumen extraction can be linked to contaminant
32 increases in nearby lakes. An increase in alkyl PACs coincided with the onset and expansion of
33 commercial *in-situ* bitumen extraction, and multiple lines of evidence indicate a petrogenic
34 source for recent alkyl PAC enrichment. However, no coincident increase in vanadium (enriched
35 in bitumen) occurred that would suggest the source of petrogenic PAC enrichment is direct input
36 of bituminous particles. Our results show that, similar to surface mining in the Athabasca region,
37 activities associated with *in-situ* extraction can increase the burden of petrogenic PACs in nearby
38 lakes, but many questions still remain regarding the exact sources and pathways of PACs into the
39 environment. Given that more than 80% of Alberta's bitumen reserves can only be accessed
40 using *in-situ* technologies, we recommend that this be made a research priority.

41

42 Keywords: Cold Lake, Alberta; high-pressure cyclic steam stimulation; paleolimnology; metals;
43 organic contaminants

44 *Capsule* –The concentration of petrogenic polycyclic aromatic compounds in lake sediments has
45 increased since commercial *in-situ* bitumen extraction began at Cold Lake, Alberta, Canada

46

47 **Introduction**

48 The bituminous sands of northern Alberta and Saskatchewan (Canada) are estimated to
49 contain 170 billion barrels of oil (Attanasi et al. 2010). Production of crude bitumen has
50 increased steadily in recent years, with production rising from $\sim 1 \times 10^5$ barrels of oil per day (b d⁻¹)
51 ¹) in 1980, to 1.6×10^6 b d⁻¹ in 2011. This rapid rise in production has been driven predominantly
52 by an expansion of surface mining within the Athabasca bitumen sands region. This historical
53 increase in production has raised concerns about potential release of contaminants to regional
54 ecosystems, and a number of previous studies have provided compelling evidence for the release
55 of contaminants to groundwater (Frank et al. 2014), surface water (Kelly et al. 2009, 2010) and
56 the atmosphere (Kirk et al. 2014; Kurek et al. 2013). However, the vast majority ($\sim 80\%$) of
57 bitumen sand reserves are located at depths that preclude surface mining and thus are only
58 recoverable by *in-situ* extraction methods (Jiang et al. 2010). The process of bitumen extraction
59 through *in-situ* technologies involves the injection of steam at high pressures through
60 underground wells in order to heat and mobilize cold bitumen for transport to the surface. In
61 Alberta, two main methods of *in-situ* extraction are currently used: high-pressure cyclic steam
62 stimulation (CSS) and steam-assisted gravity drainage (SAGD) (Jiang et al. 2010). For CSS,
63 repeated injection cycles of steam in vertical or horizontal wells are used, where steam is injected
64 at high pressures into the bitumen deposit and allowed to soak for a period of up to several
65 months, until bitumen viscosity is sufficiently reduced that the well can be switched to
66 production mode and the bitumen pumped to the surface. For SAGD, steam is injected

67 underground through a horizontal well to enable bitumen, liberated by the steam, to be pumped
68 to the surface through a second recovery well. *In-situ* bitumen recovery volumes in Alberta
69 exceeded those from surface mining for the first time in 2012, and contributed 55% of total
70 bitumen production in Alberta in 2014; it is expected to reach 60% by 2024 (Alberta Energy
71 Regulator 2015). Future growth in bitumen production will be largely achieved through
72 continued expansion of *in-situ* recovery methods.

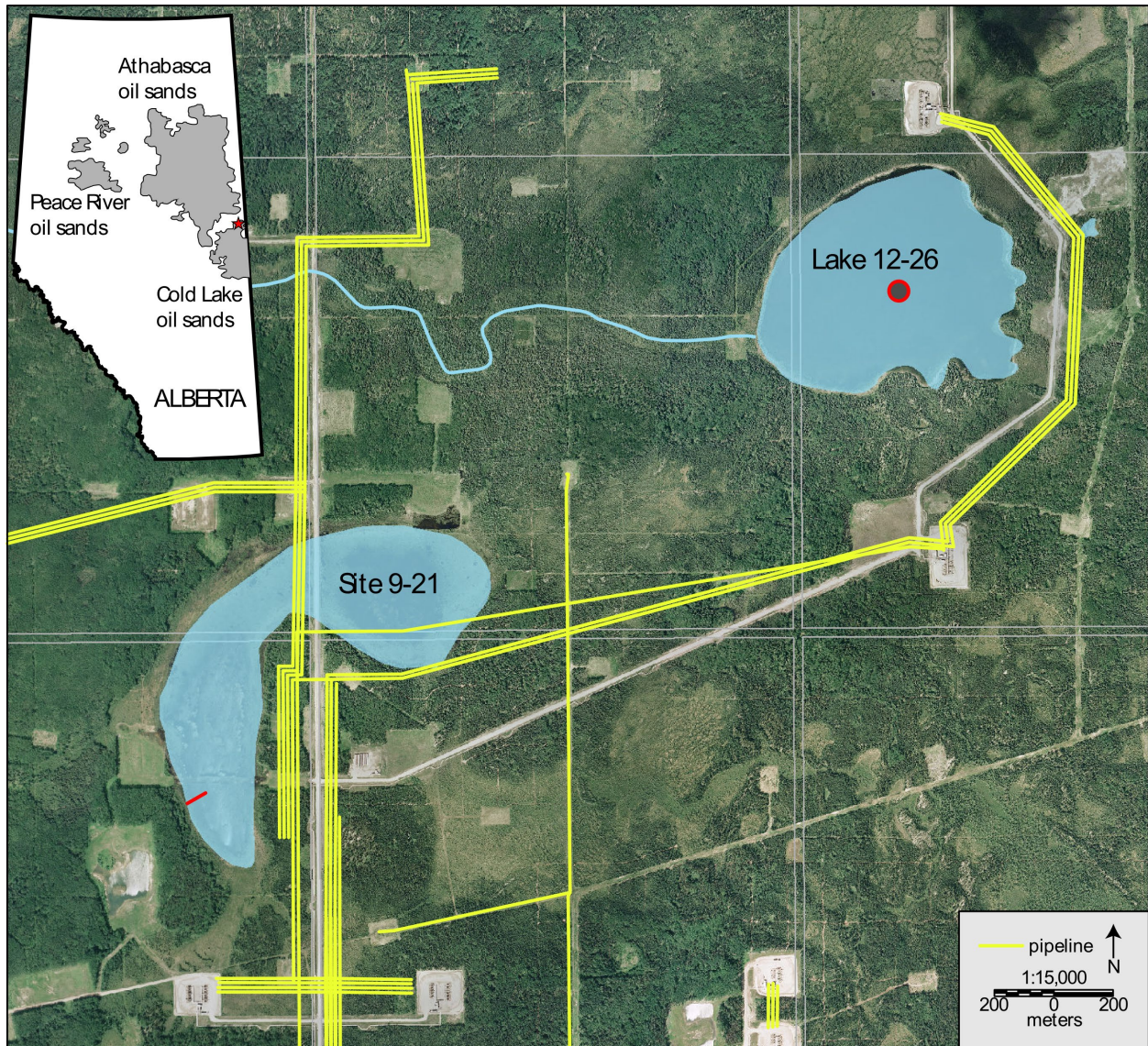
73 Most investigations into the potential for environmental degradation resulting from
74 development in the Alberta bitumen sands have focused on surface mining in the Athabasca.
75 However, the environmental concerns associated with *in-situ* bitumen extraction are distinct
76 from those associated with surface mining. In contrast to surface mining of bitumen, *in-situ*
77 extraction does not generate large volumes of tailings. In addition, while surface mining requires
78 large quantities of fresh water (Sauchyn et al. 2015), *in-situ* technologies can make use of non-
79 potable groundwater to generate steam. Identified environmental risks posed by *in-situ*
80 development include: habitat fragmentation of the boreal forest (Schneider and Dyer 2006),
81 fossil fuel emissions from steam generation and gas flaring, pipeline leaks, and the potential for
82 uncontrolled (vertical) release of bitumen from the bitumen sand reservoir to surface
83 environments, i.e., flow-to-surface (FTS) incidents. CSS enhanced bitumen recovery methods
84 have previously been shown to cause significant ground deformation, with up to 30 cm of
85 upward ground displacement occurring over 1-month injection cycles (Samsonov and
86 Czarnogorska 2014; Stancliffe and van der Kooij 2001). Improperly sealed wellbores and
87 natural faults and fractures in the bedrock provide pathways for bitumen to flow upwards to the
88 surface (Alberta Energy Regulator 2014). Indeed, in May and June, 2013, four uncontrolled
89 bitumen FTS incidents were discovered at the Canadian Natural Resources Ltd. (CNRL)

90 Primrose East and Primrose South operations in the Cold Lake *in-situ* bitumen fields of Alberta.
91 A particularly large incident occurred beneath an unnamed water body at site 9-21, where
92 bitumen oozed to the surface for a period of several months before the flow was eventually
93 stopped. The waterbody was subsequently drained and the basal sediments excavated and
94 disposed of as part of the remediation effort. This FTS event follows a similar event at Primrose
95 East in 2009 that was implicated in contamination of regional groundwater aquifers (Alberta
96 Energy Regulator 2016). Naturally occurring geological features at Primrose Lake may have
97 made this region particularly susceptible to bitumen FTS incidents (Alberta Energy Regulator
98 2014).

99 Confounding the concerns raised about the safety of *in-situ* bitumen extraction
100 technologies is a lack of long-term environmental monitoring. Lake sediments integrate
101 environmental information from a range of spatial and temporal scales, and thus offer a natural
102 archive that can be analyzed to overcome the absence of long-term monitoring data. A growing
103 body of scientific literature has demonstrated the effectiveness of lake sediment cores
104 (paleolimnology) for reconstructing temporal contaminant deposition histories and identifying
105 the spatial extent of contaminant deposition near surface mining operations in the Athabasca
106 region of northeastern Alberta (Hall et al. 2012; Jautzy et al. 2013; Kurek et al. 2013); however,
107 similar efforts related to *in-situ* bitumen extraction are limited to just two studies, both within the
108 southern region of the Cold Lake bitumen sands region (Korosi et al. 2013; Skierszkan et al.
109 2013). Integrating a paleolimnological analysis of metals and polycyclic aromatic compounds
110 (PACs) in two lakes with a spatial assessment in soils and spruce needles showed that *in-situ*
111 bitumen extraction likely caused localized PAC contamination, although the sources of
112 contamination were unclear (Korosi et al. 2013; Skierszkan et al. 2013). Analysis of PACs in

113 moose and wolf scat south of Fort McMurray similarly showed evidence of increased wildlife
114 exposure to petrogenic PACs near intensive *in-situ* drilling operations (Lundin et al. 2015).
115 Collectively, these studies demonstrate the pressing need to better quantify and characterize
116 contaminant release to the environment near *in-situ* drilling wells.

117 The primary objective of this study is to assess the potential for the release of
118 environmental contaminants due to *in-situ* bitumen extraction. We focus here in the Cold Lake
119 *in-situ* development, where no surface mining of bitumen occurs, and specifically on a potential
120 contamination hotspot: the CNRL Primrose South operation that was the site of a large bitumen
121 FTS incident in 2013. We reconstructed historical trends in PACs, bitumen-associated metals,
122 and industrial pollution markers [polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), mercury(Hg)] deposited
123 over the past several hundred years from duplicate sediment cores collected from a small,
124 unnamed lake referred to as “Lake 12-26”, located ~2 km northeast of the 2013 FTS incident at
125 site 9-21 (Fig. 1). We hypothesized that, given the region’s known vulnerability to bitumen FTS
126 incidents, lake sediment cores from this site would show a strong signal of enrichment in
127 petrogenic PACs and bitumen-associated metals consistent with the onset of bitumen extraction
128 by high-pressure CSS. Our study provides a historical context that is necessary for evaluating *in-*
129 *situ* bitumen extraction as a source of environmental contaminants in a region both vulnerable to
130 environmental degradation from *in-situ* drilling operations and lacking in long-term monitoring
131 data.



132

133 **Fig. 1.** Map showing the location of Lake 12-26 at the Primrose Lake development in the Cold Lake bituminous
 134 sands region, relative to site 9-21 where a large bitumen flow-to surface incident occurred in 2013. The red line
 135 marks where bitumen was observed flowing into the lake from the subsurface. Inset shows the location of the Cold
 136 Lake bitumen sands deposits within Alberta. The waterbody at site 9-21 was drained following the bitumen FTS
 137 incident, and its sediments excavated and disposed of. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure
 138 legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)
 139

140 **Study Site Description**

141 The Cold Lake bitumen sands region is located in the boreal forest of northern Alberta,
 142 approximately 300 km northeast of the city of Edmonton and 300 km southeast of surface
 143 mining operations in the Athabasca region. Bitumen at Cold Lake is produced primarily from the
 144 Lower Cretaceous Clearwater Formation, located ~400 m below ground. Commercial bitumen

145 production by high-pressure CSS began in the mid-1980s following pilot projects conducted in
146 the 1960s and 1970s. Pilot testing of SAGD began in the 1990s, and commercial bitumen
147 production by SAGD commenced in 2006 (Jiang et al. 2010). There are four major operators in
148 the Cold Lake bitumen sands region: Imperial Oil Ltd., CNRL, Shell, and Husky. Lake 12-26
149 (54°49'50.3898", -110°30'32.6658) is located in CNRL's Primrose South production area on the
150 Cold Lake Air Weapons Range, in the northern part of the Cold Lake *in-situ* development.
151 Development at the Primrose Lake project area began in 1980, and the site was acquired and
152 expanded by CNRL in 2000. Bitumen extraction at Primrose South is conducted using high-
153 pressure CSS.

154

155 **Materials and Methods**

156 A sample of the bitumen emulsion at site 9-21 was collected in a sterilized glass jar, and
157 shipped to the University of Ottawa for analysis of PAC composition. An archived bitumen
158 sample from the Cold Lake bitumen sands region was also provided by Environment Canada.
159 Duplicate sediment cores were obtained from the center of Lake 12-26 in March 2014 using a
160 gravity corer, and sectioned into 0.5 cm intervals using a vertical extruder. Sediment intervals
161 were placed into sterile glass jars and shipped frozen to the University of Ottawa for analysis.
162 Duplicate, independently dated sediment cores from Lake 12-26 were used to reconstruct the
163 deposition history of three classes of contaminants: metals (core A), PCBs, and PACs (core B).
164 To establish a chronology in both sediment cores, select intervals were freeze-dried and ^{210}Pb
165 and ^{226}Ra activities were measured using an Ortec High Purity Germanium Gamma Spectrometer
166 (Oak Ridge, TN, USA). Certified Reference Materials obtained from the International Atomic
167 Energy Association (Vienna, Austria) were used for efficiency corrections, and results were

168 analyzed using ScienTissiME software (Barry's Bay, ON, Canada). The constant rate of supply
169 model was used to establish a chronology based on unsupported ^{210}Pb activities (Appleby and
170 Oldfield 1978). The ^{137}Cs , a radioisotope produced from atmospheric nuclear bomb testing, was
171 used as an independent chronostratigraphic marker (see Supplementary Information for dating
172 results).

173 Freeze-dried sediment samples and Marine Sediment Certified Reference Materials from
174 the National Research Council of Ottawa (MESS-3) were analyzed for total mercury using an
175 automatic mercury analyzer based on thermal decomposition, dual step gold amalgamation and
176 detection via cold-vapor atomic absorption using an Sp-3D mercury analyzer (Nippon
177 Instrument Corp). Approximately 0.5 g of freeze-dried sediment was shipped to SGS Minerals
178 Services in Lakefield, Ontario, a Canadian Association for Laboratory Accreditation Inc.
179 accredited facility, for metals analysis. Analysis of total organic carbon (TOC) was conducted at
180 the G.G. Hatch Stable Isotope Laboratory (University of Ottawa) following the procedure
181 described in Korosi et al. (2013). PACs and PCBs were extracted using US EPA Method 3540C
182 modified for accelerated solvent extraction. Sulfur was removed using the tetrabutylammonium
183 sulfite reaction from US EPA Method 3660B. Clean up with US EPA Method 3630C was
184 adapted for use on 6 mL (1g) Supelclean™ LC-Si solid-phase extraction cartridges, with PCB
185 and PAC fractions collected separately, and reduced to 1 mL. PACs and PCBs were analyzed on
186 a DB-5MS 30 m x 0.25 μm x 250 μm column following methods outlined in Korosi et al.
187 (2016). Additional methods, as well as the full suite of PCB and PAC compounds analyzed and
188 quantified, are provided in the supplementary information. Laboratory procedure for the
189 extraction and analysis of PACs in the bitumen emulsion collected from site 9-21 and the Cold
190 Lake bitumen sample followed methods described in Yang et al. (2011).

191 We conducted a principal components analysis (PCA) on the total concentration ($\text{ng}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$
192 DW) of individual targeted PAC compounds (Table S1) and C1-C4 dibenzothiophenes analyzed
193 in the sediment core from Lake 12-26 using the vegan package for the R software environment.
194 Highly correlated variables identified using Spearman Rank correlations were removed prior to
195 analysis. The Pyrogenic Index (PI) was calculated using the following formula, modified from
196 Wang et al. (2014):

$$197 \text{PI} = \frac{\sum(\text{"other"} \text{ 3-6 ring EPA PAHs})^*}{\sum(5 \text{ alkylated PAC homologues})^{**}}$$

198 *Includes acenaphthylene, acenaphthene, anthracene, fluoranthene, pyrene, benz[a]anthracene,
199 benzo[b]fluoranthene, benzo[k]fluoranthene, benzo[a]pyrene, indeno[1,2,3-c,d]pyrene, dibenz[a,h]anthracene,
200 benzo[g,h,i]perylene

201 **C0-C4 naphthalene, C0 phenanthrene, C1-C4 phenanthrene/anthracene, C0-C3 dibenzothiophene, C0-C3
202 fluorene, C0 chrysene, C1-C3 benz[a]anthracene/chrysene

203

204 **Results and Discussion**

205 *Reconstruction of historical contaminant trends in Lake 12-26*

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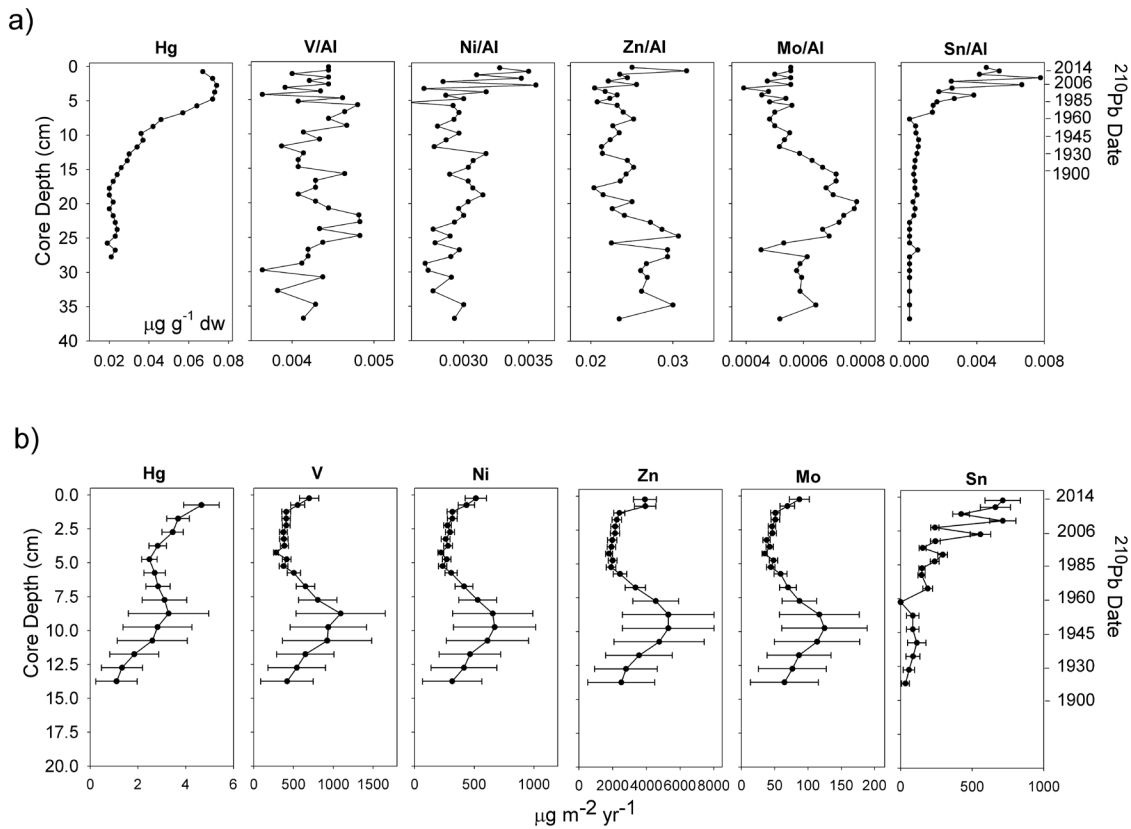
207 **Metals**

208 We investigated historical trends in the concentrations and sedimentary fluxes of metals
209 known to be enriched in bitumen [vanadium (V), nickel (Ni), molybdenum (Mo); Shotyk et al.
210 2014] or petroleum products in general [V, Ni, zinc (Zn), and tin (Sn); Magaw et al. 2001]. We
211 normalized the concentration of metals to aluminum (Al), in order to account for mineralogical
212 effects on metal accumulation in lake sediments (Ho et al. 2012; Wickland et al. 2012). Contrary
213 to our initial hypothesis, there was no strong increase in the normalized concentration of V, Zn,
214 and Mo after local *in-situ* drilling operations began (Fig. 2a). In contrast, Ni concentrations

215 (normalized to Al) increased after approximately 1985, consistent with the onset of *in-situ*
216 drilling operations, while Sn was below detection limit in the deeper sediment intervals, and
217 showed a steady increase in concentration after approximately 1960. Sn is slightly enriched in
218 bitumen, although to a lesser extent than V, Ni, and Zn (Magaw et al. 2001), and also has many
219 industrial uses, such as a constituent in solder. Low background sources of tin in the sediments of
220 Lake 12-26, in contrast to V, Ni, Zn, and Mo, likely account for its clear signal of recent
221 enrichment. The timing of increase in Sn occurs ~20 years prior to the onset of commercial *in-*
222 *situ* production of bitumen extraction, but is consistent with the beginning of industrial
223 development for pilot projects in the Cold Lake bitumen sands, as well as the operational history
224 of the Cold Lake Air Weapons Range (on which the Primrose Lake *in-situ* development is
225 located), which began fighter pilot training operations in the 1950s. This could indicate an
226 industrial source, rather than a petrogenic one. In contrast to the other metals mentioned, Hg
227 concentrations first increased during the early 20th century, rising from ~20 to 70 ng·g⁻¹ DW.
228 These concentrations are typical of regional lake sediments (Neville et al. 2014).

229 When corrected for sedimentation rates (to estimate an annual flux of metals to lake
230 sediments), an increasing trend was observed for V, Ni, Zn, and Mo since ~1985, but especially
231 in the two uppermost surface sediment intervals deposited after 2006 (Fig. 2b). However, this
232 recent increase is within the range of down-core variability. For example, V, Ni, Zn, and Mo flux
233 actually peak during the mid-20th century. Similar increases in flux in the uppermost two
234 sediment intervals were also observed for redox-sensitive elements like manganese, iron, and
235 arsenic (Supplementary Information). The long-term, post-1900 increase in flux of total mercury
236 we observed is consistent with the previous paleolimnological investigation of Hilda Lake and

237 Ethel Lake, in the southern region of the Cold Lake bitumen sands region (Skierszkan et al.
238 2013).
239



240
241 **Fig. 2.** a) Total concentrations normalized to Al (except Hg, shown in mg g^{-1} dry weight) and b) sedimentary flux
242 rates of bitumen-associated metals and Hg over time in a sediment core from Lake 12-26. The ^{210}Pb dates are shown
243 on the right. Flux rates were not calculated below the horizon of unsupported ^{210}Pb activity, as associated errors for
244 inferred date and sedimentation rate are large.
245

246 Polychlorinated biphenyls

247 PCBs were first detected in the sediments of Lake 12-26 after 1950, and concentrations
248 and sedimentary flux increased to $4 \text{ ng}\cdot\text{g}^{-1} \text{ DW}$ and $258 \text{ ng}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{yr}^{-1}$ by 2000 (Fig. 3a). The post-
249 1950 increase in PCBs may be related to the onset of operations on the Cold Lake Air Weapons
250 Range, or the initial growth of the Cold Lake bitumen sands for pilot projects in the 1960s and
251 1970s. Primrose Lake is also located $\sim 300 \text{ km}$ east (in the direction of the prevailing winds) of

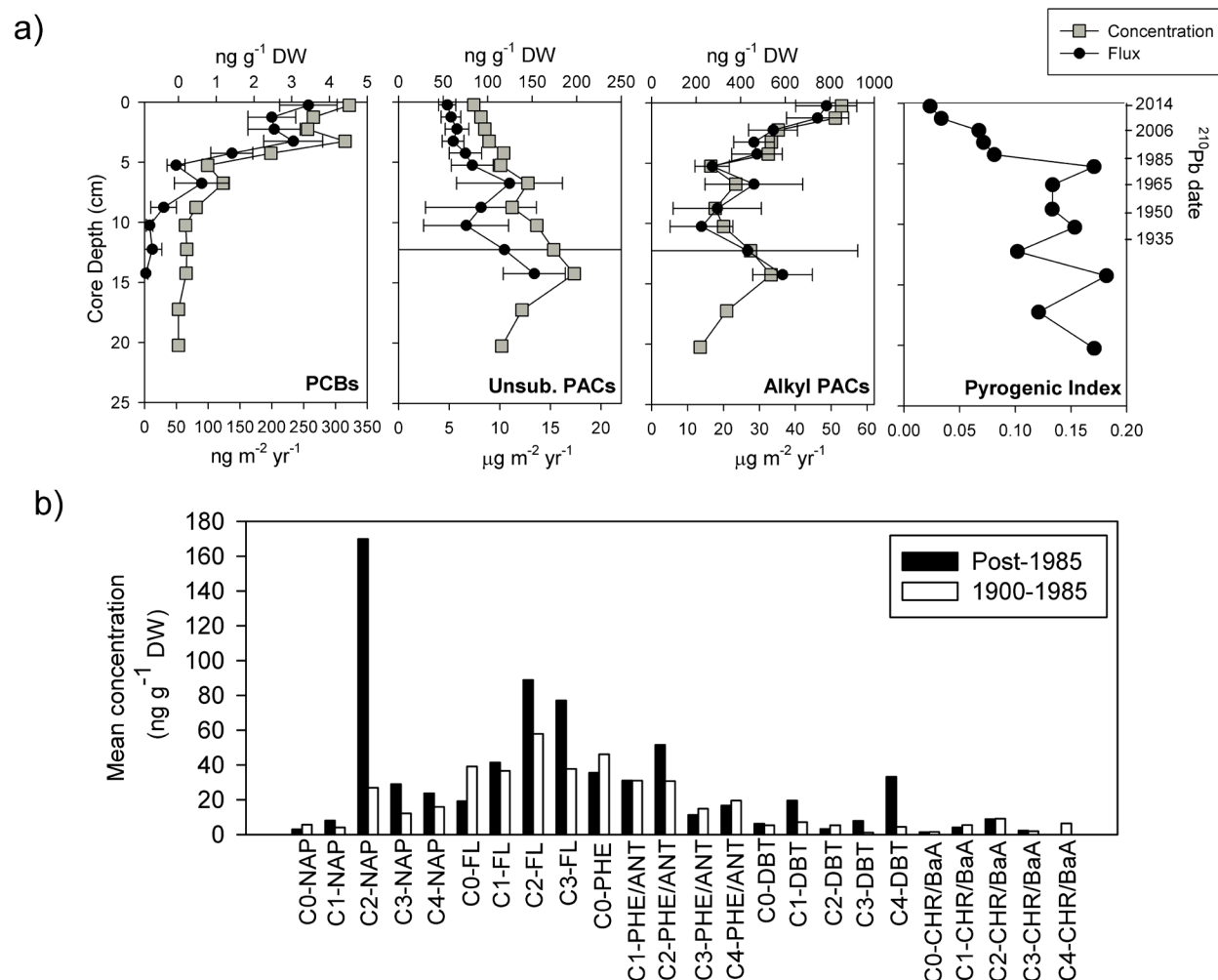
252 the Swan Hills Treatment Centre, where the majority of Canada's high-concentration PCB wastes
253 are treated. The Swan Hills Treatment Centre commenced operations in 1987, coincident with
254 the increase in sedimentary PCB loading we describe. The treatment centre is an important point
255 source of PCBs (Blais et al. 2003), and a notable fugitive emission episode occurred at the
256 treatment centre in 1996 following a transformer furnace malfunction.

257

258 Polycyclic aromatic compounds

259 We observed a sustained, long-term decrease in the concentration and flux of
260 unsubstituted PACs from a subsurface peak at a core depth of 15 cm (~1900 to present),
261 decreasing from ~200 ng·g⁻¹ DW and 13 μg·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ at 15 cm, to 85 ng·g⁻¹ DW and 5 μg·m⁻²·yr⁻¹
262 in the surface sediments (Fig. 3a). The main compounds driving this trend are acenaphthene,
263 fluorene, fluoranthene, and anthracene. A similar pattern was observed for the alkyl PACs, until
264 a reversal of this trend occurred after ~1985, when alkyl PACs increased from 265 ng·g⁻¹ DW
265 and 16 μg·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ to 850 ng·g⁻¹ DW and 49 μg·m⁻²·yr⁻¹ (Fig. 3a). The timing of increase in alkyl
266 PACs in Lake 12-26 occurs later than our industrial pollution markers (Hg post-1900, PCBs and
267 Sn post-1950), and is consistent with the onset of commercial bitumen extraction in the 1980s.
268 The highest concentrations and flux rates of alkyl PACs were recorded in the uppermost two
269 sediment intervals, deposited after 2005. The compound contributing most to the increase in
270 alkyl PACs was C2 naphthalene, which increased from an average of ~25 ng·g⁻¹ DW for the time
271 period of approximately 1900 to 1985, to an average of 170 ng·g⁻¹ DW after 1985 (Fig. 3b). Post-
272 1985 increases in C2 and C3 fluorene, C2 phenanthrene/anthracene, and C1 and C4
273 dibenzothiophene were also evident (Fig. 3b).

274 There are multiple sources (both natural and anthropogenic) and pathways by which
275 PACs can enter the aquatic environment. At the Primrose Lake *in-situ* development, potential
276 anthropogenic sources of pyrogenic PACs include emissions from road and air traffic, or fossil
277 fuel combustion from steam generation and other industrial activities. Wildfires are an important
278 natural source of pyrogenic PACs to regional freshwaters in boreal ecosystems like Primrose
279 Lake (Ahad et al. 2015). For example, during the summer of 2015, one year after the sediment
280 cores used in this study were collected, a forest fire disrupted *in-situ* drilling operations at
281 Primrose Lake. In May, 2016, a large forest fire disrupted surface mining operations in the
282 Athabasca bitumen sands region, and caused the evacuation of the town of Fort McMurray.
283 Anthropogenic sources of petrogenic PACs could include industrial waste releases associated
284 with *in-situ* activities, such as pipeline leaks, oil spills, or processed water releases, in addition to
285 bitumen FTS seeps.



286

287 **Fig. 3.** a) Total concentrations and fluxes of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), unsubstituted and alkyl polycyclic
 288 aromatic compounds (PACs), and the pyrogenic index (Wang et al., 2014) of PACs over time in a sediment core
 289 from Lake 12-26. The ²¹⁰Pb dates are shown on the right. Flux rates were not calculated below the horizon of
 290 unsupported ²¹⁰Pb activity, as associated errors for inferred date and sedimentation rate are large; b) Bar graphs
 291 comparing the mean concentration of the five target petroleum-characteristic alkyl PAC series deposited between
 292 1900 and 1985 (core depth 5-15 cm), and after the onset of bitumen sands development (post-1985, core depth 0-5
 293 cm).

294

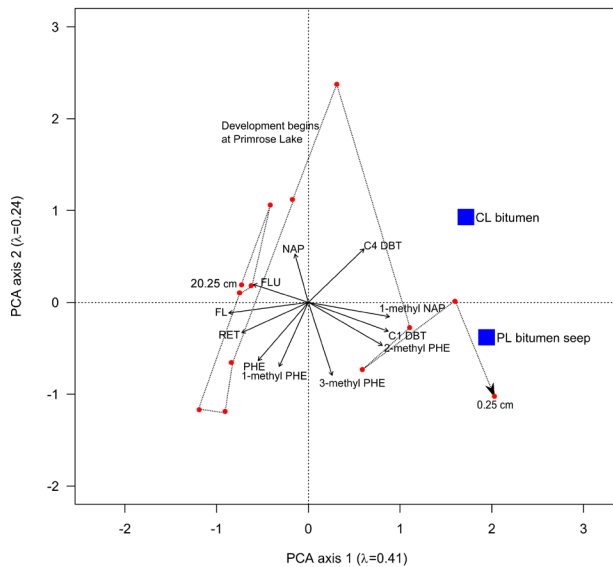
295 *Potential sources of alkyl PAC enrichment in Lake 12-26*

296 Our observation of an increase in alkyl PACs in Lake 12-26, but not unsubstituted PACs,
 297 is a clear indication of a petrogenic source, as alkylated homologues are more abundant than the
 298 unsubstituted compounds in petroleum products (Stogiannidis and Laane 2015). PACs indicative
 299 of fossil fuel combustion, such as fluoranthene, chrysene, pyrene, and benzo[a]pyrene (Pereira et
 300 al. 1999; Yunker et al. 2002), were either absent or present only in low concentrations in Lake

301 12-26. We calculated the PI (Wang et al. 2014), to visualize temporal changes in the
302 predominance of petrogenic versus pyrogenic PAC sources to Lake 12-26. Previous studies have
303 shown that light petroleum products have a PI ratio <0.01 , heavy oils and fuels 0.02-0.05, and
304 that the value of this ratio increases as the proportion of pyrogenic PACs increases (Wang et al.
305 1999, 2014). In Lake 12-26, prior to 1985, the PI ranged from 0.1 to 0.2 (Fig. 3a). After 1985,
306 the PI decreased to 0.02 in the surface interval, indicating an increase of petrogenic inputs.
307 Down-core changes in the diagnostic ratios of select alkyl and unsubstituted PACs
308 (Supplementary Information) also indicated a shift towards predominantly petrogenic PAC
309 sources to Lake 12-26 after 1985. In particular, we observed a decrease in the ratio of retene to
310 total alkyl PACs after the onset of oil sands operations at Primrose Lake, suggesting that boreal
311 forest fires are not the source of recent alkyl PAC enrichment (Ahad et al. 2015).

312 The multiple lines of evidence described above provide strong support for a petrogenic
313 source of recent alkyl PAC enrichment in Lake 12-26. We conducted a PCA on our stratigraphic
314 profile of targeted PAC compounds (listed in Supplementary Table S1) and alkyl
315 dibenzothiophenes in Lake 12-26 to visualize compositional changes in PAC composition
316 through time. We then compared down-core changes in PCA axes scores to the Primrose Lake
317 bitumen seep and Cold Lake bitumen, plotted as passive samples. The resulting PCA biplot
318 showed that a compositional shift towards alkyl PACs occurred after regional bitumen sands
319 development began in 1985, followed by a later shift towards a greater predominance of 2-
320 methylphenanthrene, 3-methylphenanthrene, and C1 dibenzothiophene as development
321 intensified after 2000 (Fig. 4). Sediment intervals deposited after 2000 (the top 3 cm) plotted
322 proximal to the Primrose Lake bitumen sample in PCA ordination space (Fig. 4), showing that
323 the PAC composition in Lake 12-26 sediments in recent years has become more similar to the

324 composition of the bitumen that seeped into the waterbody at site 9-21. However, direct input of
 325 high volumes of bituminous particles into Lake 12-26 is unlikely, given the lack of increase in
 326 vanadium and other trace metals abundant in bitumen (Shotyk et al. 2014), as well as the strong
 327 increase in C2 naphthalene, which is generally depleted in bitumen, although it was present in
 328 our Cold Lake bitumen samples. C2 naphthalene showed the largest magnitude of increase of all
 329 PACs examined in this study, and is abundant in light diesel fuels, or the diluent used to dilute
 330 the bitumen so that it can be transported in pipelines (Wang et al. 2014). This may suggest that
 331 the primary pathway of petrogenic PACs into Lake 12-26 is related to pipeline leaks, processed
 332 water releases, or oil spills, although further work is needed to resolve this.



333

334 **Fig. 4** – Biplot showing changes in principal components analysis (PCA) axis 1 and 2 scores through time for
 335 targeted polycyclic aromatic compounds in sediment intervals (points connected by dotted lines) in the core
 336 collected from Lake 12-26. The bottom (20.25 cm – pre-industrial) and surface (0.25 cm –representing present-day
 337 conditions) sediment intervals are identified. Cold Lake bitumen (CL bitumen) and the Primrose Lake bitumen seep
 338 (PL bitumen) are plotted passively. NAP = naphthalene, FL = fluorene, FLU = fluoranthene, RET = retene, PHE =
 339 phenanthrene, DBT = dibenzothiophene.

340 *Regional contamination trends associated with in-situ bitumen extraction*

341 This study complements two previous spatial and paleolimnological investigations into
342 metals and PACs in the southern region of the Cold Lake bitumen sands region (Korosi et al.
343 2013; Skierszkan et al. 2013). Based on the collective results of our study and these previous
344 investigations, a picture of environmental contamination around *in-situ* developments is
345 beginning to emerge that is distinct from the Athabasca bitumen sands region. In the Athabasca
346 region, metals and PACs are enriched in a bullseye pattern for a 20 km radius around major
347 mining and oil production facilities (Kelly et al. 2009, 2010; Kirk et al. 2014; Landis et al. 2012;
348 Shotyk et al. 2014), and increased deposition of airborne PACs consistent with the timing of
349 development was evident in sediment cores collected from lakes up to 90 km downwind of
350 Athabasca operations (Kurek et al. 2014). Petcoke dust has recently been identified as the major
351 source of environmental contamination in the Athabasca region (Zhang et al. 2016), and fugitive
352 dust from exposed bitumen, tailings sand, and haul road and overburden components are
353 additional sources (Jautzy et al. 2013; Landis et al. 2012). These major sources of environmental
354 contaminants are absent in the Cold Lake bitumen sands region, perhaps providing an
355 explanation for why metals do not appear to be an important environmental contaminant around
356 *in-situ* drilling wells at Cold Lake, and PAC concentrations in the environment remain
357 comparably lower and compositionally distinct from the Athabasca. Even in the absence of
358 fugitive dust, tailings ponds, and upgraders/refineries, localized PAC contamination is still
359 evident in the Cold Lake region, just without the predictable bullseye pattern that could be used
360 to select for priority monitoring sites.

361 Reconstructions of contaminant histories in three study lakes in the Cold Lake bitumen
362 sands region [Hilda Lake and Ethel Lake (Korosi et al. 2013, Skierszkan et al. 2013), Lake 12-

363 26; this study)] revealed that PAC enrichment occurred after ~1985 consistent with the onset of
364 *in-situ* bitumen sands development in Hilda Lake and Lake 12-26, but not in Ethel Lake. The
365 compositional PAC changes differed between Hilda Lake and Lake 12-26, indicating that there
366 are multiple sources of PACs to regional aquatic ecosystems near *in-situ* drilling operations that
367 need to be resolved. In Hilda Lake, acenaphthylene showed a strong increase in sediments
368 deposited after 1985, despite acenaphthylene being absent in the Cold Lake bitumen samples
369 analyzed in this study. In contrast, we observed a clear increase in C2 naphthalene in Lake 12-26
370 after 1985, as well as a general shift in the overall composition of PACs in Lake 12-26 to
371 become more similar to the PAC composition in Cold Lake bitumen. This strongly implicates
372 activities associated with recent *in-situ* development as contributing to the recent increase in the
373 concentration and flux of alkyl PACs in this lake.

374 The recent bitumen FTS incident at drilling pad 9-21, located 2 km southwest of Lake 12-
375 26, is a dramatic example of localized PAC contamination. We show, based on the sediment core
376 profile from Lake 12-26, that *in-situ* bitumen extraction may also be contributing petrogenic
377 PACs to the environment over the longer-term through other pathways, outside of the recent and
378 widely reported bitumen FTS incidents. The results summarized above highlight the need for
379 future research to better characterize the sources and pathways of PACs to aquatic ecosystems
380 near *in-situ* drilling operations, similar to the extensive contaminant diagnostic efforts that have
381 been (and continue to be) conducted in the Athabasca bitumen sands region (Jautzy et al. 2013;
382 Landis et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2016).

383

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