Ocean Alkalinity Enhancement - Avoiding runaway CaCO₃ precipitation during quick and hydrated lime dissolution

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Abstract. Ocean Alkalinity Enhancement (OAE) has been proposed as a method to remove carbon dioxide (CO_2) from the atmosphere and to counteract ocean acidification. It involves the dissolution of alkaline minerals such as quick lime, CaO, and hydrated lime, Ca(OH)₂₇, however However, a critical knowledge gap exists regarding their dissolution in natural seawater. Particularly, how much alkaline mineral can be dissolved before secondary precipitation of calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) occurs 15 is yet to be established. Secondary precipitation should be avoided as it reduces the atmospheric CO_2 uptake potential of OAE. Here-Using two proposed OAE minerals as example, i.e., quick lime (CaO) and hydrated lime (Ca(OH)₂), we show that both CaO and Ca(OH)₂-powdersfeedstocks (>(<63 µm of diameter) dissolved in seawater within a few hours. However, while no CaCO₃ precipitation, in the form of aragonite, occurred was found to occur at a saturation state (Ω_{Ar}) threshold of about 5, CaCO₃ precipitated in the form of aragonite beyond a threshold of 7. This limit is much lower than what would be expected for typical pseudo-homogeneous precipitation in the presence of colloids and organic matterials. Secondary precipitation at 20 unexpectedly low Ω_{Ar} was the result of so-called heterogeneous precipitation onto mineral phases, most likely onto CaO and Ca(OH)₂ prior to full dissolution. Most importantly, this led to runaway CaCO₃ precipitation, by which i.e., significantly more alkalinity (TA) was removed than initially added, until Ω_{Ar} reached levels below 2. Such runaway precipitation would reduce the CO_2 uptake efficiency from about 0.8 moles of CO_2 per mole of TA down to only 0.1 mole of CO_2 per mole of TA. 25 Runaway precipitation appears to be avoidable by dilution below the critical Ω_{Ar} threshold of 5, ideally within hours of the addition to minimise initial CaCO₃ precipitation. Finally, model considerations OAE simulations suggest that for the same Ω_{Ar} threshold, the amount of TA that can be added to seawater would be more than three times higher at 5 $^{\circ}$ C than at 30 $^{\circ}$ C₇. Also, and that equilibration to atmospheric CO₂ levels, i.e., to a pCO₂ of \sim 416 µatm, during mineral dissolution would further increase it by a factor of ~6 and ~3 respectively.

1 Introduction

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Climate change is currently considered one of the <u>largest greatest</u> threats to humankind (Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2019; IPCC, 2021; The Royal Society and Royal Academy of Engineering., 2018). Global mean temperature have increased by 1.0 °C since pre-industrial times, and could reach +1.2-1.9 °C in the next 20 years, and +2.1-5.7 °C by the end of this century (IPCC, 2021). Furthermore, up to 30% of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions have been taken up by the ocean through air-sea gas exchange, leading to a decrease in the average open ocean pH <u>of-by</u> 0.1 units in a process termed ocean acidification – OA (Bates et al., 2012; Canadell et al., 2007; Carter et al., 2019; Cyronak et al., 2014; Doney et al., 2009; Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2007).

The CO₂ reduction pledges by the signatory states of the 2015 Paris Agreement aim to limit-minimise the negative
impacts of global warming and OA on ecosystems and human societies by limiting warming to less than +2.0 °C, ideally around-below +1.5 °C, by the end of this century (Goodwin et al., 2018). However, current and pledged reductions will likely not be enough and additional mitigation strategies are being discussed, such as ocean alkalinity enhancement – OAE (Boyd et al., 2019; Gattuso et al., 2015; Lenton and Vaughan, 2009; The Royal Society and Royal Academy of Engineering., 2018). Among carbon dioxide removal approaches, OAE has a is one with the highest carbon dioxide removal potential, with and modelling models suggests suggesting that at a global scale, between 264165 and 790 Gigatonnes (1 Gt = 1e152 kg) of atmospheric CO₂ could be removed by 2100 on a global scale (Feng et al., 2017) (Burt et al., 2021; Feng et al., 2017; Keller et al., 2014; Köhler et al., 2013; Lenton et al., 2018). However, there is no empirical base on OAE efficacies, in particular regarding safe thresholds for mineral dissolution (National Academies of Sciences and Medicine, 2021).

OAE typically relies on the dissolution of alkaline minerals in seawater, releasing alkalinity similarly to what occurs during 50 natural rock weathering (Kheshgi, 1995). In this regard, Suitable candidates are magnesium-rich minerals such as brucite, periclase or forsterite, and calcium-rich minerals such as quick and hydrated lime have been considered (Renforth and Henderson, 2017). The last two mineralsQuick and hydrated lime are of particular interest, due to their high solubility in seawater as well as their relatively rapid dissolution. Quick lime, also known as calcium oxide (CaO), is obtained by the calcination of limestone, mainly composed of calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) and present in large quantities in the Earth's crust (Kheshgi, 1995), Once heated to temperatures of ~1200 °C, each molecule of CaCO₃ breaks down into one molecule of CaO 55 and one molecule of CO₂ (Ilyina et al., 2013; Kheshgi, 1995). Hence, for maximum OAE potential, carbon capture during calcination and subsequent storage would be advisable (Bach et al., 2019; Ilyina et al., 2013; Kheshgi, 1995; Renforth et al., 2013; Renforth and Kruger, 2013). CaO can then be hydrated into hydrated lime, also known as calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH)₂), also known as hydrated lime-(Kheshgi, 1995). The addition of either CaO or $Ca(OH)_2$ to seawater leads to the dissociation of $Ca(OH)_2$ into one calcium Ca^{2+} and two hydroxyl ions OH⁻ (Feng et al., 2017; Harvey, 2008). The chemical reaction of CaO 60 and Ca(OH)₂ dissolution can be written as follow, which <u>Including includes</u> the subsequent oceanic uptake of atmospheric CO_2 , and ignoringes the non-linearities of the seawater carbonate system, (i.e., changes in total alkalinity, TA, and dissolved

$$(CaO + H_2O \rightleftharpoons Ca(OH)_2) + 2CO_2 \rightarrow Ca^{2+} + 2HCO_3^-$$
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This (Renforth et al., 2013; Renforth and Kruger, 2013)

The dissolution of CaO and Ca(OH)₂ and the subsequent addition of TA chemical equation suggests that each mole of CaO or Ca(OH)₂-reacts with two moles of CO₂ to produce one mole of Ca²⁺ and two moles of bicarbonate ions (HCO₃⁻). A different way to look at this is that adding Ca²⁺ to seawater increases TA by two moles per mole of Ca²⁺, while leaving the concentration of DIC unchanged (Wolf Gladrow et al., 2007). This increases the pH, lowering the CO₂-concentration, [CO₂], and increasing the carbonate ion concentration, [CO₃²⁺]-increases seawater pH, while changing the carbonate chemistry speciation. DIC can be approximated by being the sum of HCO₃⁻ and 2 CO₃²⁻ (ignoring the relatively small contribution by CO₂). Similarly, TA can be approximated as the sum of HCO₃⁻ and 2 CO₃²⁻ (ignoring the smaller contributions by boric and silicic acid, and other minor components). Combining both DIC and TA equations reveal that CO₃²⁻ concentrations can be expressed as [CO₃²⁻] = TA-DIC. Hence, increasing TA at constant DIC, e.g., by dissolving CaO or Ca(OH)₂, increases [CO₃²⁻], shifting carbonate chemistry speciation towards higher pH (Figure A 1Figure A 1, Appendix) (Dickson et al., 2007; Wolf-Gladrow et al., 2007; Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). This in turn-The shift in DIC speciation leads to a decrease in [CO₂], reduces reducing the partial pressure of CO₂ (pCO₂) in seawater and increasing its atmospheric CO₂ uptake -potential.

Depending on the amount of TA added and the initial seawater pCO₂, the <u>TA-enriched sea</u>water would either take up
CO₂ from the atmosphere or degas less until equilibrium is restored, hence acting as a sink for atmospheric <u>CO₂reduce</u> outgassing of <u>CO₂</u> in the case where seawater pCO₂ is still above atmospheric levels. Factoring in carbonate system non-linearities, about 1.6 moles of atmospheric CO₂ could be taken up per mole of CaO or Ca(OH)₂ (Köhler et al., 2010). Furthermore, dissolving CaO and Ca(OH)₂ can also counteract OA-ocean acidification in two ways, raising the pH of seawater and raising the calcium carbonate saturation state of seawater (Ω_{CaCO3}), with Ω_{CaCO3} increasing both because of increasedby increasing both dissolved [Ca²⁺] and [CO₃²⁻]. Therefore, This makes OAE is-a dual solution for both removing CO₂ from the atmosphere and changing ocean acidification trajectorieremoving atmospheric CO₂ and mitigatings OA (Boyd et al., 2019; Feng et al., 2017; Harvey, 2008). However, major knowledge gaps exist regarding OAE, considering most research to date has been based on conceptual and numerical modelling (Feng et al., 2016; González and Ilyina, 2016; Mongin et al., 2021; Renforth and Henderson, 2017).

One such knowledge gap of the major constraints is keeping CaCO₃ saturation state (Ω) of the seawater below a the critical Ω_{CaCO3} eritical threshold, that seawater can be raised to beyond which CaCO₃ would precipitate inorganically. Such secondary precipitation_constitutes the opposite of alkaline mineral dissolution and would_decrease pH and Ω_{CaCO3}, simultaneously increasing increase seawater [CO₂] through decreasing [CO₃²]. This would decrease the ocean uptake's capacity for atmospheric CO₂, and if having the opposite effect of what is initially intended. Similarly, if all added alkalinity is being precipitated, only 1 mole of atmospheric CO₂ per mole of Ca²⁺ would be removed, instead of about 1.6 without. If even more CaCO₃ precipitates, the efficiency would be further reduced.

CaCO₃ does not precipitate spontaneously in typical seawater due to various factors such as the absence of mineral phase precipitation nuclei and the presence of precipitation inhibitors such as dissolved organic compounds, magnesium or phosphate (Chave and Suess, 1970; De Choudens-Sanchez and Gonzalez, 2009; Pytkowicz, 1965; Rushdi et al., 1992; Simkiss, 1964). 100 The latter two directly influence CaCO₃ nuclei formation rates. (Chave and Suess, 1970; Pan et al., 2021) The There are three types of precipitation, i.e., 1) homogeneous (in the absence of any precipitation nuclei), 2) heterogeneous (in the presence of mineral phases), and 3) pseudo-homogeneous (in the presence of colloids and organic materials) (Marion et al., 2009; Morse and He, 1993), critical threshold for Ω with respect to the CaCO₃-mineral phase calcite, Ω_{Ca} -has been determined experimentally(Marion et al., 2009) for so called pseudo homogeneous precipitation, i.e., in the presence of colloids and 105 organic materials (Morse and He, 1993). For a salinity of 35 and at a temperature of 21 °C, tFor the latter, the critical precipitation threshold for calcite (at a salinity of 35 and at a temperature of 21 °C) is at a saturation state (Ω_{Ca}) value is of ~18.8 (Marion et al., 2009). Marion et al. (2009). Assuming a typical open-ocean TA and DIC concentrations, i.e., ~2350 µmol kg⁻¹ and ~2100 umol kg⁻¹ respectively (Dickson et al., 2007), this threshold would be reached by an increase in TA of ~810 μ mol kg⁻¹, corresponding to a critical threshold for Ω_{CaCO3} with respect to aragonite, i.e., Ω_{Ar} , of ~12.3. Concerning the 110 Furthermore, there are two other types of precipitation, i.e., homogeneous (in the absence of any precipitation nuclei) and heterogeneous-(in the presence of mineral phases), but these thresholds are poorly constrained (Marion et al., 2009). Importantly, at the current seawater dissolved magnesium concentration, the CaCO₃ morphotype that is favoured during inorganic precipitation is aragonite rather than calcite (Morse et al., 1997; Pan et al., 2021).

A better understanding of dissolution and precipitation kinetics is needed to address knowledge gaps in OAE research. In order to do so<u>To gain a better understanding</u>, we conducted several dissolution experiments with CaO and Ca(OH)₂ were carried out to determine 1) how much alkaline material can be dissolved without inducing CaCO₃ precipitation, 2) what causes <u>secondary</u> CaCO₃ precipitation, and 3) how <u>it secondary precipitation</u> can be avoided if observed.

2 Material & Methods

2.1 Experimental setup

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Two different calcium minerals were sourcedused, calcium oxide (CaO) powder from Ajax Finechem (CAS no 1305-78-8) and an industrial calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH)₂) powder (Hydrated Lime 20kg, Dingo). The elemental composition of these powders was analysed on <u>an</u> Agilent 7700 Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer, coupled to a laser ablation unit NWR213 from ESIElectro Scientific Industries, Inc. For that purpose, tThe samples were embedded in resin and calibrated against standard reference materials #-610 and #612 from the National Institute of Standards and Technology.

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The dissolution experiments were conducted in natural seawater. The seawater was sampled <u>collected between</u> <u>September 2020 and June 2021</u>, about 200 to 300 m from the shore, avoiding <u>suspended collecting</u> sand or silt, at Broken Head, New South Wales, Australia (28°42'12" S, 153°37'03" E). <u>It-Seawater</u> was stored up to 14 days at 4 °C in the dark to slow bacterial metabolic activity and allow for all particles in suspension to sink to the bottom before being sterile-filtered using a peristaltic pump, connected to a 0.2 µm Whatman Polycap 75 AS filter. For salinity measurements, about 200 mL of

seawater were placed in a gas-tight polycarbonate container and allowed to equilibrate to room temperature overnight. The sample's conductivity was then measured using a measuring cell (Metrohm 6.017.080), connected to a 914 pH/Conductometer. The conductivity was recorded in millisiemens per cm (mS/cm), and the temperature in °C. Salinity was calculated according to Lewis and Perkin (1981) on the 1978 practical salinity scale. The salinity in each experiment is reported in Table A 1.

2.2 OAE experiments

135 For each experiment, seawater was accurately weighed (in grams to 2 decimal places) into high-quality borosilicate 3.3 2L or 5L Schott Duran beakers, and the temperature was controlled via a Tank Chiller Line TK 1000 set to 21 °C, feeding a re-circulation water jacket (Figure A 2, Supplementary material). A magnetic stir bar was placed in the beaker, and the natural seawater was constantly stirred at ~200 rpm. To minimise gas exchange, a floating lid with various sampling ports was placed on top. Finally, after one hour of equilibration, calculated amounts of weighed-in alkaline compounds were 140 added. Upon addition, samples for DIC and TA were taken in-at increasing time intervals to fully capture the dissolution kinetics and check for potential secondary precipitation. Furthermore, the pH was monitored at a frequency of 1 Hertz for the first hour before alkalinity addition, and over 54 hours after addition to get an estimate fordetermine when alkalinity was fully released. Once the pH plateaued (corresponding to maximum TA releasewas reached), the content of the beakerentire content of the beaker was carefully transferred to a clean Schott bottle of the corresponding volume to ensure that evaporation would 145 not play a role in changing DIC and TA. The bBottles were kept in the dark for the duration of each experiment, i.e., up to 48 days, with the same constant stirring of ~200 rpm at 21 °C. Each bottle was exposed to UV light for at least 30 minutes after each sampling to avoid bacterial growth.

2.2.1 CaO and Ca(OH)₂ dissolution

The additions of sieved CaO and Ca(OH)₂ were performedFollowing the previously described beaker setup, TA was added by sieving CaO and Ca(OH)₂ through-using a 63 μm mesh₂— avoiding the formation of larger CaO or Ca(OH)₂ aggregates. The mesh was placed in a clean upside-down 50 mL Falcon tube cap, avoiding to minimise the losslosing any of material smaller than 63 μm when weighing, and the overall weight was recorded in mg. Then, the mesh was placed above the Schott bottle, and mineral was added by gently tapping the side of the sieve. Finally, the sieve was placed in the same upsidedown Falcon tube cap and the weight weighed once again of the whole setup was recorded again, thereby making sure that the desired amount had been added to the beaker. The weighing steps were carefully performed to avoid material loss between the bottle and the balance, and was achieved in less than 5_min. Two alkalinity additions, +250 and +500 µmol kg⁻¹ with each calcium mineral powder were performed (Table 1Table 1).

2.2.2 Na₂CO₃ alkalinity and particles additions, and filtration

Three further experiments assessed A-the role of mineral phases during secondary CaCO3 precipitation observed in160the previous experiments. The first experiment made use of a 1M solution of sodium carbonate (Na2CO3, CAS number 497-19-8) which was freshly prepared before the experiment. Ultrapure Na2CO3 (CAS number 497-19-8) was accurately weighed,i.e., in mg (with 2 decimal places), into a clean 100 mL Schott bottle and made up to 100 g with MilliQ (18.2 MΩ). Thesolution was then sonicated for 15 minutes-with gentle shaking, and gentle mixing every five minutes. The amount of Na2CO3to be added to seawater was calculated so that a similar maximum Ω_{Ar} would be reached, i.e., ~7.7, as in the previous165experiments with the highest addition of CaO and Ca(OH)2. This required almost about twice the alkalinity increase as before(Table 1Table 1), because Na2CO3 additions concomitantly increase DIC when dissociating in two sodium-ions, i.e., Na⁺, andone CO3²⁻, ion, making the Ω_{CaCO3} increase smallersmaller. Calculations-All carbonate chemistry calculations were done inCO2SYS (see below).

In another, otherwise identical<u>similar</u>, experiment with to the Na₂CO₃ <u>addition</u>solution, quartz powder was added after two days. <u>Quartz powder was chosen as it does not dissolve on the timescales relevant for this study</u> (Montserrat et al., 2017). The addition of quartz powder was similar to the sieved CaO and Ca(OH)₂ addition<u>s</u>, i.e., through a 63 µm mesh. The amount mass of quartz particles added, recorded in mg, was determined to provide the same amount of mineral surface area as for the Ca(OH)₂ experiments with a TA increase of 500 µmol kg⁻¹. It was calculated using densities and masses for Ca(OH)₂ and quartz, and assuming spherical particles with a diameter of 63 µm. Quartz powder was chosen as it does not dissolve on timescales relevant to the experiment and hence does not supply extra TA (Montserrat et al., 2017).

Finally, a particle filtering experimenta third experiment was carried out in which all particles were removed by filtration, using Ca(OH)₂ as the alkaline compound and following the same setup as described above (section 2.2.1). Here we first added Ca(OH)₂ to increase TA by ~500 μ mol kg⁻¹ (Table 1Table 1). After 4h of reaction, the entire content of the 2L Schott beaker was filtered through a nylon Captiva Econofilter (25mm) with a pore size of 0.45 μ m into a clean 1L Schott bottle using a peristaltic pump. The bottle was filled from bottom to top, with overflow to minimise gas exchange.

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2.2.3 Dilution experiments

In aA last set of experiments, diluted alkalinity enriched samples seawater was diluted with natural seawater over time, to test if secondary precipitation can be avoided or stopped through dilution. Ca(OH)₂ powder was added to reach a final alkalinity enrichments of 500 and 2000 μ mol kg⁻¹ and dilutions were carried out at several points in time. These initial concentrations were then diluted with NSW in several steps as described in the following.

For the experiment with a targeted TA increase of 500 μ mol kg⁻¹, <u>a larger quantity of TA enriched seawater was</u> required to perform all dilutions and sampling in comparison to the previous experiments. Therefore, two 5L Schott bottles were filled with 5kg of natural seawater and placed on a magnetic stirring platform. Calculated <u>weighed-in masses amounts</u> of Ca(OH)₂ were added to the first bottle <u>as described in section 2.2.1 using the 63 μ m sieve</u>, while the natural seawater in the 190 second bottle was left kept for future subsequent dilutions. Both bottles were kept on the same bench under the same conditions, both stirring at a rate of ~ 200 rpm, for the duration of the experiment. Ca(OH)₂-powder was added as described above using the 63 µm sieve. Following the Ca(OH)₂ addition, 1:1 dilutions (500 g TA enriched seawater:500 g natural seawater) were performed in clean 1L Schott bottles that were then kept in the dark and placed on a magnetic platform at a stirring rate of \sim 200 rpm. After each sampling, the bottles were exposed to UV light for at least 30 minutes. The second dilution experiment 195 was set up like the first one, the only difference being that the targeted TA increase was 2000 μ mol kg⁻¹. The dilution ratio was 1:7 to- again. reduce the targeted TA increase again to 250 umol kg⁻¹. All dilutions were performed 10 minutes, 1 hour, 1 day and 1 week after Ca(OH)₂ addition, leading to 2 TA-enriched and 8 diluted treatments.

2.3 Carbonate chemistry measurements

Samples for TA and DIC measurements were filtered through a nylon Captiva Econofilter (0.45 um) using a peristaltic 200 pump into 100 mL Borosilicate 3.3 Schott DURAN glass stopper bottles. The bottles were gently filled from the bottom to top, using a 14-gauge needle as described in Schulz et al. (2017), with at least half of their volume allowed to overflow, corresponding to ~150 mL of seawater sampled per time-point (Dickson et al., 2007). After filling, 50µL of saturated mercuric chloride solution was added to each sample before being stored without headspace in the dark at 4 °C. TA was analysed in duplicates via potentiometric titrations on an 848 Titrino Plus coupled to an 869 Compact Sample Changer from Metrohm using 0.05M HCl, with the ionic strength adjusted to 0.72 mol kg⁻¹, with NaCl, corresponding to a salinity of 35-with NaCl. 205 Titrations and calculations followed the open-cell titration protocols by Dickson et al. (2007). DIC was measured in triplicates using an Automated Infra-Red Inorganic Carbon Analyzer (AIRICA) coupled to a LICOR Li7000 Infra-Red detector as described in Gafar and Schulz (2018). Measured values of TA and DIC were corrected using an internal Standard prepared as per Dickson et al. (2007) which had been calibrated against Certified Reference Materials Batch #175 and #190 (Dickson, 210 2010).

2.4 Particulate Inorganic Carbon and Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)

In cases where TA and DIC decreases were detected, indicative of CaCO₃ precipitation, several samples were taken at the end of the experiments Samples for total particulate carbon (TPC), and particulate organic carbon (POC) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analyses. TPC and POC samples were collected in duplicates at the end of some experiments on 215 pre-combusted (450 °C) GF/F filters, and stored frozen until analysis. ThenBefore analysis, POC filters were fumed with HCl for 2 hours before drying over night at 60 °C while TPC filters were dried untreated (Gafar and Schulz, 2018). The filters were wrapped in tin capsules and pressed into small balls of about 5mm diameter. Both TPC and POC were quantified on an Elemental Analyser Flash EA, Thermo Fisher, coupled to an Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer-(IRMS), Delta V Plus. Particulate inorganic carbon (PIC), or CaCO₃, was calculated from the difference between TPC and POC. The results are reported in µmol kg⁻¹ with an uncertainty estimate for each calculated by an error propagation from the square root of the sum 220 of the squared standard deviations for TPC and POC. Finally, samples of CaO and Ca(OH)2-were analysed for their carbon

content. This analysis aimed to identify the presence and estimate the amount of particulate carbon, most likely CaCO₃, in the respective mineral powders.

When CaCO₃ was suspected to have precipitated in the experiments, samples for SEM analysis were taken. For that
 purposeSEM analysis, 10 to 15 mL of the sample water was collected on polycarbonate Whatman Cyclopore filters with a 0.2 µm pore size, and rinsed with 50 mL of MilliQ. The filters were dried at 60 °C overnight and kept in a desiccator until analysis on a tabletop Scanning Electron Microscope TM4000 Plus from Hitachi, coupled to an Energy Dispersive X-Ray (EDX) Analyser, allowing to identify the morphotype and elemental composition of precipitates. <u>Finally, samples of CaO and Ca(OH)₂ powders were analysed for their carbon content. This analysis aimed to identify the presence and estimate the amount of particulate carbon, most likely CaCO₃, in the respective mineral powders.
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2.5 Carbonate chemistry calculations

Measured DIC, TA, temperature and salinity were used to calculate the remainingMost carbonate chemistry seawater parameters were calculated using with the CO₂SYS script for MATLAB® (MathWorks)₂₇ using the The borate to salinity relationship from Uppstrom (1974), dissociation constants for carbonic acid by Lueker et al. (2000), and for boric acid by Uppstrom (1974) were used. With two measured carbonate chemistry parameters, i.e., DIC and TA, most of the others can be calculated straight away. An exception in our experiments was that the addition dissolution of CaO and Ca(OH)₂ changes the calculated straight away. An exception in our experiments was that the addition dissolution of CaO and Ca(OH)₂ changes the calculated by CO₂SYS is erroneous underestimated. Ω_{CaCO3} is defined by the solubility product of CaCO₃ as:

$$\Omega_{CaCO3} = \frac{[Ca^{2+}] \times [CO_3^{2-}]}{K_{sp}}$$
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where $[Ca^{2+}]$ and $[CO_3^{2-}]$ denote seawater concentration of Ca^{2+} and CO_3^{2-} , and K_{sp} the solubility product for calcite or aragonite. To calculate saturation states, CO_2SYS was used to determine K_{sp} and $[CO_3^{2-}]$ from measured DIC and TA. Tthe correct calcium concentration $[Ca^{2+}]_{Corr}$ was estimated from measured salinity (Riley and Tongudai, 1967) <u>plus-and</u> half the <u>amount of</u> alkalinity <u>concentration increase</u> that was generated during CaO or Ca(OH)₂ dissolution or lost due to CaCO₃ precipitation, ΔTA :

$$\frac{[Ca^{2+}]_{corr}}{40.087} = \frac{0.02128}{40.087} \times \frac{Salinity}{1.80655} + \frac{\Delta TA}{2} [Ca^{2+}]_{corr} = \frac{0.01028}{35} \times \text{Salinity} + \frac{\Delta TA}{2}$$

where 0.01028 denotes molar Ca²⁺ concentrations at a salinity of 35. K_{sp} was calculated from in-situ temperature and salinity according to Mucci (1983). The corrected Ω_{Ca} and Ω_{Ar} were then calculated from in-situ [CO₃²⁻], [Ca²⁺]_{Corr} and K_{sp} according to Equation 2. Please note that we have opted to rather report Ω_{Ar} rather than Ω_{Ca} since aragonite is more likely to be precipitated in natural modern seawater (Berner, 1975; Morse et al., 1997; Riebesell et al., 2011; Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001).

2.6 OAE simulations

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<u>CO₂SYS and the results from the various dissolution experiments were used to simulate three OAE scenarios (Table</u> 3). Three alkalinity additions were simulated, +250, +500 and +1000 μ mol kg⁻¹. The starting parameters were TA = 2350 μ mol kg⁻¹, DIC = 2100 μ mol kg⁻¹, salinity = 35, temperature = 19 °C, using the same acid-base equilibrium constants as described in section 2.5. In the first scenario, for all three additions, no CaCO₃ precipitation was assumed, and the amount of CO₂ taken up after atmospheric re-equilibration was calculated. For the +500 and +1000 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA increases, two additional simulations were performed: first we assumed that as much CaCO₃ precipitated as TA was added, and second, that CaCO₃ precipitated down to an Ω_{Ar} of ~2 as observed in our experiments. Again, after calculating full carbonate chemistry speciation in these various scenarios, the amount of CO₂ taken up after atmospheric re-equilibration was determined.

3 Results

3.1 Chemical composition of CaO and Ca(OH)₂

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The chemical composition of the CaO and Ca(OH)₂ powders were analysed for their major ions. As to be expected, both consisted mainly of calcium, with minor contributions by-of magnesium and silicon (see <u>Table A 2</u><u>Table A 1</u>, <u>Appendix</u>, for a more <u>extensive-comprehensive</u> list). Furthermore, CaO and Ca(OH)₂ contained about 9.4 ±0.1 mg g⁻¹ and 18.0 ±0.2 mg g⁻¹ of particulate carbon respectively, i.e., ~0.9% and ~1.8% <u>by weight</u>.

3.2 CaO dissolution in filtered natural seawater

In the first CaO experiment with <u>a targeted</u> ~250 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA addition, TA increased by ~200 μ mol kg⁻¹ within the first 4 hours (Figure 1Figure 1a). Following this increase, TA was stable over time. In contrast, DIC increased slowly-over time, about 1 μ mol kg⁻¹ per day, reaching about +50 μ mol kg⁻¹ on day 47 of the experiment (Figure 1Figure 1b). Finally, Ω_{Ar} showed a similar trend to reflected the trend observed for the Δ TA, increasing from ~2.9 to ~5.1 within the first 4 hours before slowly decreasing to 5.0 as ofon day 47 (Figure 1Figure 1c).

In the second CaO experiment with about <u>a targeted</u> 500 μmol kg⁻¹ TA addition, TA increased by ~410 μmol kg⁻¹ within the first 4 hours before slowly decreasing <u>on day 3-two days later</u> (Figure 1Figure 1a), followed by <u>a</u> more rapid decreases over the following week, before slowing down and eventually reaching <u>a</u> steady state <u>on day 20</u> at a final ΔTA of about -540 μmol kg⁻¹. This corresponds to a total loss of TA of ~950 μmol kg⁻¹, between the maximum measured TA and the final TA recorded. Similarly, a slight-relatively small decrease in DIC of ~10 μmol kg⁻¹ was observed over the first two days before a much more considerable significant reduction in the following week before levelling off at a ΔDIC of about <u>-~465</u>

 μ mol kg⁻¹ (Figure 1Figure 1b). Finally, Ω_{Ar} increased rapidly during the first 4 hours of the experiment from 2.8 up to 7.6 (Figure 1Figure 1c). Following this quick increase, Ω_{Ar} decreased by 0.3 units by day 3. Afterwards, Ω_{Ar} within the first two days before rapidly dropping-dropped quickly to 2.4 on day 13, and reacheding ~1.8 on day 47, corresponding to a reduction of by 1.0 compared to the starting seawater value.

285 3.3 Ca(OH)₂ dissolution in filtered natural seawater

In the first Ca(OH)₂ experiment with a targeted TA addition of $-250 \,\mu$ mol kg⁻¹, TA increased by $-220 \,\mu$ mol kg⁻¹ after 4h of reaction, before stabilising at a ΔTA of ~210 µmol kg⁻¹ for the rest of the experiment (Figure 2Figure 2a). The DIC concentration increased relatively quickly over the first 6 days steadily following after the TA addition before slowing down, reaching by -about +70 µmol kg⁻¹ until-by the end of the experiment (Figure 2Figure 2b). Finally, Ω_{Ar} reached ~4.1 after 4 hours, slightly decreasing over time, down to 3.3 on day 28 (Figure 2Figure 2).

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In the second Ca(OH)₂ experiment with a targeted TA addition of $-500 \,\mu$ mol kg⁻¹. TA increased by $\sim 440 \,\mu$ mol kg⁻¹ within the first 4h (Figure 2Figure 2a). This was followed by a relatively steady decrease by $\sim 18 \mu mol kg^{-1}$ per day over the next 2 weeks, after which the decrease accelerated to ~28 μ mol kg⁻¹ per day until day 35, before levelling off at a Δ TA of about -420 µmol kg⁻¹ towards the end of the experiment. Overall, <u>about</u> -860 µmol kg⁻¹ of TA was lost compared to the highest TA recorded. The DIC concentration decreased as well, dropping in a similar fashion as TA and reaching a Δ DIC of about -395 μ mol kg⁻¹ compared to the initial DIC concentration (Figure 2Figure 2b). Finally, Ω_{Ar} increased from 2.5 to 7.4 in the first 4 hours before decreasing, similarly to TA and DIC, reaching ~ 2.0 on day 42 (Figure 2Figure 2c).

3.4 Na₂CO₃, particle addition filtration and filtration addition

Three experiments assessed the influence of particles on CaCO₃ precipitation. In the first one, ~1050 μ mol kg⁻¹ of 300 TA was added using a 1M Na₂CO₃ solution, designed to result in a similar maximum Ω_{Ar} as in the previous experiments when TA precipitated decreased (Table 1 Table 1). Upon addition, TA increased by ~1060 µmol kg⁻ and DIC by ~530 µmol kg⁻¹ within minutes. For the remainder of the experiment, ΔTA was fairly constant between 1060 and 1040 μ mol kg⁻¹kg - 1 (Figure 3Figure 3a). In contrast, DIC slightly increased over 42 days from a Δ DIC of ~530 umol kg⁻¹ on day 1 to ~560 umol kg⁻¹ on day 42 (Figure 3Figure 3b). Finally, Ω_{Ar} increased from ~2.3 to ~8.5 within minutes and slightly decreased to ~8.1 after 42 305 days of experiment (Figure 3Figure 3c).

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In the second experiment, the addition of aliquots of 1M Na₂CO₃ solution (Table 1Table 1) increased TA by 1070 μ mol kg⁻¹, while DIC increased by ~540 μ mol kg⁻¹ within minutes and remained stable (Figure 3Figure 3a, 3b). Then, aAfter 2 days, quartz particles was were added. While one day later ΔTA and ΔDIC remained unchanged, about a week later, between day 5 and 12 Δ TA had-decreased to ~220 μ mol kg⁻¹ while and Δ DIC had-dropped to ~120 μ mol kg⁻¹ (Figure 3Figure 3a, 3b). Over the next month, ΔTA and ΔDIC kept on decreasing continued to decrease, although at a slowing pacerate, reaching about -200 and -110 μ mol kg⁻¹-, respectively, at the end of the study. Finally, Ω_{Ar} followed a similar trend, with an increase from ~2.8 up to ~9.2 within the first 1.5 hours, and a pronounced decline to ~3.9 between day 5 and day 12, before stabilizing around to ~2.0 at the end of the experiment.

In the a last experiment, Ca(OH)₂ was added <u>aiming</u> for a TA increase of 500 µmol kg⁻¹ (<u>Table 1</u>Table 1), a level at which a significant TA decrease had been observed <u>previouslyafter 5 hours previously</u> (<u>Figure 2</u>Figure 2a). In contrast <u>however</u>, upon filtration of the entire experimental bottle content after reaching ~470 µmol kg⁻¹ at the 4-hour mark, Δ TA remained relatively constant between 465 and 470 µmol kg⁻¹ kg 1 over the following 48 days of experiment (<u>Figure 3</u>Figure 3a). At the same time, Δ DIC increased from ~5 to 55 µmol kg⁻¹ after filtration (<u>Figure 3</u>Figure 3b). Finally, Ω_{Ar} increased from ~2.8 to ~8.2 within the first 1.5 hours, and then slightly decreased to ~7.5 over the 48 days of experiment (<u>Figure 3</u>Figure 3c).

320 **3.5 Dilution experiments**

3.5.1 500 µmol kg⁻¹ addition

In this these set of experiments with a targeted TA addition of ~500 μ mol kg⁻¹ by Ca(OH)₂, Δ TA increased to similarly to the other Ca(OH)₂ experiment to ~450 μ mol kg⁻¹ after 2 hours (Figure 4). These changes in TA were followed by a decline to ~320 μ mol kg⁻¹ after 14 days, although the latter being a slightly slower decrease than previously (Figure 2Figure 4Figure 4a, 4d). After a first increase in Δ DIC by ~10 μ mol kg⁻¹ on day 1, it-DIC steadily decreased to about -20 μ mol kg⁻¹ after two weeks (Figure 4Figure 4b, 4e). Finally, Ω_{Ar} was calculated, to increased from ~2.7 to ~7.8 after 2 hours, before steadily decreasing to ~6.4 on day 14 (Figure 4Figure 4c, 4f).

After 10 minutes, 1 hour, 1 day, and 1 week, dilutions of the ~500 μ mol kg⁻¹ of TA by Ca(OH)₂ addition were performed. In these diluted samplestreatments, Δ TA remained relatively stable over time, until the end of the experiments on day 29, regardless of dilution time (Figure 4Figure 4a, 4d). Upon dilution, Δ TA was reduced, being very similar for the 10 minutes, 1 hour and 1 day dilutions. Overall, Δ TA-in the 1 week dilution, however, Δ TA was slightly lower, i.e., ~205 μ mol kg⁻¹ instead of ~230 μ mol kg⁻¹ on average. In all dilutions, Δ DIC increased over time, ranging between ~20 μ mol kg⁻¹ and ~60 μ mol kg⁻¹, independent of dilution timing. Finally, Ω_{Ar} showed similar trends like Δ TA, reaching between ~4.8 and ~5.2, and slightly decreasing over time until end of the experiment.

335 **3.5.2 2000 µmol kg**⁻¹ addition

Similarly to the previous experiment, tThis set of experiments consisted aimed forof a TA increase of ~2000 µmol kg⁻¹ by Ca(OH)₂ addition. <u>However, The-the</u> TA only increased to ~¹/₃ of the theoretical <u>valuealkalinity addition</u>, i.e., ~725 µmol kg⁻¹ within the first two hours (a, 4Figure 4d). Following this increase, TA rapidly decreased during the first day, reaching a Δ TA of about -1260 µmol kg⁻¹, and -1440 µmol kg⁻¹ in the following week (a, 4Figure 4d). Over the second week of the experimentFrom then on, TA appeared to stabilise up to day 14, before slightly increasing until day 21. A similar trend was observed for In contrast, Δ DIC, decreasing decreased by ~580 µmol kg⁻¹ after 7 days (b, 4Figure 4e). Over the remaining 41

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days, Δ DIC then increased by ~210 µmol kg⁻¹, although remaining about 1450 µmol kg⁻¹ under the starting DIC concentration. Finally, Ω_{Ar} reached upincreased to ~16.7 after 2 hours of reaction, followed by a rapid drop down to ~3.2 on day 1 and ~2.0 on day 14, while slightly increasing the following 34 days, varying between 2.0 and 2.1 (e. 4Figure 4f).

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Dilutions were performed after 10 minutes, 1 hour, 1 day and 1 week after Ca(OH)₂ addition, in this case in a 1:7 ratio. Concerning Δ TA, Δ DIC and Ω_{Ar} , the 10 minutes and 1 hour dilutions showed similar responses, as did the 1 day and 1 week dilutions. Upon dilution, Δ TA reached values <u>of</u> ~240 µmol kg⁻¹ after the 10 minutes and 1 hour dilutions, and about -160 to -190 µmol kg⁻¹ for the 1 day and 1 week dilutions. With the exception of one data point in the 1 week dilution time data, Δ TA remained relatively constant throughout all dilution experiments (a, 4Figure 4d). DIC changes were similar to the TA changes, slowly increasing over time between 0.6 and 2.5 µmol kg⁻¹ per day on average, with very similar values reached for the 10 minutes and 1 hour dilutions, as opposed to the 1 day and 1 week ones (b, 4Figure 4e). In all dilutions, Δ DIC slowly increased over time. Finally, Ω_{Ar} dropped to from ~5.0-5.1 to ~4.0-4.1 over time in the 10 minutes and 1 hour dilutions, while it decreased from dropped to ~2.3-2.8 (1:7) to ~2.1-2.2 until day 21 in the 1 day and 1 week dilution, before increasing to ~2.6-3.4 toward the end of the experiments. In all experiments, Ω_{Ar} decreased slightly over time after dilutions (e, 4Figure 4f).

3.6 Particulate inorganic carbon

With the exception of the ~1050 TA addition by Na₂CO₃ plus quartz particles, measured PIC in experiments was always higher than estimates from measured Δ TA (<u>Table 2</u><u>Table 2</u>). Furthermore, PIC estimated from the theoretically maximum TA increase upon full mineral dissolution, Δ TA_{Theo}, was always higher than estimated PIC from Δ TA, by about <u>7</u> to 14% <u>30%</u>-in the ~500 µmol kg⁻¹ TA additions with Ca(OH)₂ and CaO, respectively, and <u>up toalmost_67%_90%</u>-in the experiment with ~2000 µmol kg⁻¹ TA additions.

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4 Discussion

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This study presents the first results on the dissolution of CaO and Ca(OH)₂ in natural seawater in the context of ocean alkalinity enhancement. In some of our experiments with at least 500 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA increase, secondary precipitation was detected via TA and DIC decreases, as well as PIC increases. More specifically, at TA additions leading to an Ω_{Ar} higher than7 (in the +500 and +1000 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA treatments), we observed "runaway CaCO₃ precipitation" at TA additions equal or higher than 500 μ mol kg⁻¹, i.e., not only was the added TA completely removed, but significant portions of residual seawater TA as well, until a new steady state was reached. This would vastly reduce the desired CO₂ removal potential by OAE and should therefore be avoided. Hence, iIn a subsequent set of experiments, we simulated ocean mixing to test the required timescales to avoid and/or stop secondary CaCO₃ precipitation for applications that initially haved TA additions above the critical threshold.

4.1 Identifying CaCO₃ precipitation, and the problem of not unmeasured precipitation, and CO₂ gas exchange

CaCO₃ precipitation can occur via three pathways, i.e., heterogeneous, homogeneous and pseudo-homogeneous nucleation and precipitation (Chen et al., 2005; Marion et al., 2009; Wolf et al., 2008). Heterogeneous precipitation relies on the presence of existing solid mineral phases. This differs from homogeneous precipitation, characterised by the formation of CaCO₃ crystals from Ca²⁺ and CO₃²⁻ ions present in the solution in the absence of any nucleation surfaces (Chen et al., 2005; Wolf et al., 2008). Finally, the last type of precipitation, termed pseudo-homogeneous, is similar to homogeneous nucleation, however it occurs on nuclei other than solid minerals such as colloids, organic particles or glassware in a laboratory setting (Marion et al., 2009). Concerning the Ω_{CaCO3} thresholds beyond above which CaCO₃ precipitation is expected to occur, the lowest would be for heterogeneous and the highest for homogeneous, with pseudo-homogeneous nucleation in between. This is because nucleation sites effectively lower the activation energy required for CaCO₃ precipitation (Morse et al., 2007).

When 1 mole of $CaCO_3$ is precipitated, the TA of the solution decreases by 2 moles because of the removal of 1 mole of CO₃²⁻ ions, accounting which accounts for 2 moles of TA (Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001) (Equation). Simultaneously, the loss of 1 mole of CO32- ions decrease the DIC concentration by 1 mole. Hence, any loss of TA and DIC following a 2:1 ratio can be linked to CaCO₃ precipitation (Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). Additionally, When when CaCO₃ precipitation was suspected in our experiments, SEM and particulate inorganic carbon samples were taken to confirm the presence of CaCO₃ and to identify which morphotypes were predominant. In the $+250 \,\mu$ mol kg⁻¹ TA additions by CaO and Ca(OH)₂, both appeared to fully dissolve without inducing CaCO₃ precipitation, as TA and Ω_{Ar} quickly increased within minutes, similarly to what has been described in the literature (Chave and Suess, 1970; Rushdi et al., 1992), until reaching their respective maximum after about a day and remaining stable over weeks (Figure 1Figure 1 a and 1c, Figure 2Figure 2 a and 2c). A slight increase in DIC was observed over time, expected when atmospheric CO_2 is ingassing from the bottle headspace, which was created by removing between 150 and 200 mL each sampling point. This in turn lead to slowly decreasing Ω_{CaCO3} at constant TA, when increasing DIC and [CO₂], lowering the pH and [CO₃²⁻] (Equation). The reason why the measured TA increase was slightly below the theoretically expected one-increase, which wasis most likely due to a combination of impurities present (in the case of CaO, a significant fraction could be hydrated), and any loss of the finely ground material during the weighing and sieving process despite all efforts. On average, $\sim \frac{25}{2723}$ % of alkalinity added was not measured detected in the experiments with CaO, and about 13 174% in the experiments with Ca(OH)2 (Table 1, Figure 1, Figure 1, and Figure 2, Figure 2).

In contrast, in the +500 µmol kg⁻¹ TA additions by CaO and Ca(OH)₂-additions, TA started decreasing after about <u>a day</u> 400 4 hours, upon the initial increase. This decrease in TA was accompanied by a decrease in DIC. In the CaO experiment (exactly the same conclusions could be reached for the Ca(OH)₂ experiment), TA reached a maximum of about +410 µmol kg⁻¹ after 4 hours of reaction, before dropping to about 560 µmol kg⁻¹ after 34 days, constituting an overall loss of about 970 µmol kg⁻¹. If this TA loss would bewas by CaCO₃ precipitation, DIC should be reduced by half this amount, i.e., about 485 µmol kg⁻¹. And indeed, measured DIC loss was very close to this 2:1 ratio in both the CaO and Ca(OH)₂ experiments with a TA addition

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405 of 500 µmol kg⁻¹ (950:465 and 860:395 for CaO and Ca(OH)₂, respectively)exactly the same. This suggestsing that TA was precipitated in the form of CaCO₃. Although a perfect match, a caveat here is The slight off-set can be explained by that the DIC loss is underestimated as of concurrent ingassing of CO₂ from the head space which would lower the TA:DIC ratio, becoming visible when precipitation ceases towards the end (Figure 1Figure 1b). Hence, the DIC loss should have been higher Another caveat is - requiring also higher TA removal than actually measured. This discrepancy can be explained by the 410 fact that the maximum increase in TA from full dissolution of CaO or Ca(OH)₂ cannot be measured in the presence of concurrent CaCO₃ precipitation. This is mostly evident in the +2000 µmol kg⁻¹ TA addition (Figure 4), where DIC decreases due to CaCO₃ precipitation, yet TA increases due to higher Ca(OH)₂ dissolution rates. It also explains why estimated PIC calculated from measured TA changes are is generally smaller than actually measured PIC concentrations (Table 2Table 2). In the experiment with 1M Na₂CO₃ and quartz particles, both the measured TA-based estimated PIC estimates PIC have similar results. Hhowever, were larger than the measured PIC-is about twice as low. This is difficult to explain, although we 415 observed a white layer on the bottle walls, indicative of CaCO₃ precipitation. However, this was also observed during the other experiments with CaCO₃ precipitation, yet measured PIC concentrations were larger than when estimated from the TA decrease. could be explained by a combination of precipitation on both the quartz particles and bottle walls. In this sense, trying to estimate CaCO₂ precipitation from measured changes in TA, without considering theoretical TA generation by 420 dissolution or actual PIC measurements, might underestimate total precipitation.-Finally, next to impurities and issues with mineral handling, the reason why measured seawater PIC concentrations are in between the other estimates lies in the fact that a small portion of the CaCO₃ precipitated on the bottle walls, at least in the 2000 μ mol kg⁺-TA experiment. In any case, w While being a laboratory artefact, this has no practical consequences as in a natural setting, the TA would eventually precipitate in the water column. In this sense summary, trying to estimate CaCO₃ precipitation from measured changes in TA, without 425 knowing how much considering theoretical-TA was actually generated generation-by full mineral dissolution or actual PIC measurements, might underestimate total precipitation.

4.2 The presence of mineral phases enhances triggers "runaway CaCO3 precipitation"

An interesting important finding in our experiments was that whenever CaCO₃ precipitation was observed, it continued even if the solution dropped below an Ω_{Ar} of ~4-5, levels at which no precipitation was observed in the +250 µmol kg⁻¹ TA addition experiments. We termed this phenomenon "runaway precipitation". Furthermore, in all these experiments, precipitation decreased and seemingly ceased at a Ω_{Ar} of ~1.8-2.0. It <u>therefore</u> appears that when CaCO₃ is initially precipitated, CaCO₃ continues to precipitate in a runaway fashion, even if Ω_{Ar} drops below levels where precipitation would not be initiated in natural seawater. This is to be expected as precipitation rates of CaCO₃ into precipitates onto CaCO₃ mineral phases at any saturation state above 1, and the initial precipitation at high saturation states provides new nucleation sites (Morse et al., 2007; Morse et al., 2003; Zhong and Mucci, 1989). The precipitation rate is are directly related proportional to Ω_{CaCO3} , decreasing exponentially until reaching zero at an Ω_{CaCO3} value of 1 (Figure A 4)-. However, the question of why did

precipitation occurred at a much lower Ω_{CaCO3} , i.e. Ω_{Ar} -7.5, than expected anticipated, (i.e., Ω_{CaCO3} -7.5 vs -12.3) remains (Marion et al., 2009)?.

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It is known that the presence of particles in suspension can initiate and accelerate CaCO₃ precipitation (Millero et al., 2001; Morse et al., 2003; Wurgaft et al., 2021). It is unlikely that the presence of $CaCO_3$ impurities in CaO (less than 1%) carbon) and Ca(OH)₂ (less than 2% carbon) from imperfect calcination would have caused precipitation, as the presence of CaCO₃ mineral phases should have caused precipitation at any saturation state above 1, i.e., also in the $+250 \mu$ mol kg⁻¹ TA addition experiments. Furthermore, modelling precipitation using experimentally determined Ω_{Ar} and surface area dependent aragonite precipitation rates onto CaCO₃ mineral phases Zhong and Mucci (1989) (Zhong and Mucci, 1989), suggests that once precipitation becomes analytically detectable, it should proceed very rapidly before levelling off, i.e., within a couple of 445 days (Figure A 5)-. Furthermore, while we expected CaCO₃ precipitation to stop at an $\Omega_{Ar} \sim 1$, we observed it to stop at Ω_{Ar} of $\sim 2.$ However, that is in contrast to what we observed here. The presence of dissolved organic carbon could have been slowing down if not stopping CaCO₃ precipitation at an Ω_{A_r} higher than 1 (Chave and Suess, 1970; Pan et al., 2021). We also observed that the bulk of precipitation occurring occurred over a period of at least a week, after which an equilibration was reached with 450 apparent differences between the different dissolving minerals (i.e., CaO, Ca(OH)₂ and quartz, although it is acknowledged that the experiments were not replicated).

Another explanation for CaCO₃ precipitation is heterogeneous precipitation on not yet dissolved CaO and Ca(OH)₂ particles (or other impurities), leading to CaCO₃ crystal formation and initiating runaway precipitation. The Ω_{Ar} threshold for this process would depend on lattice compatibility of the mineral phases (Tang et al., 2020). For instance, CaCO₃ precipitation 455 has been observed at any saturation states above 1 when introducing CaCO₃ seed particles. In contrast, Lioliou et al. (2007) did not report CaCO₃ precipitation onto quartz particles at anthe addition of quartz particles did not trigger precipitation at an Ω_{Ar} of up to lower than 3.5. For that to occur and in order to trigger CaCO₃ precipitation onto quartz particles, Ω_{Ar} would need to be further increased. And-Here, we indeed, observed CaCO₃ precipitation above at an Ω_{Ar} of ~9.2, CaCO₃-precipitation did actually occur (Figure 3Figure 3). The reason for an initially slower but then more rapid precipitation could be a combination 460 of exponentially increasing $CaCO_3$ surface area, as well as concomitantly increasing lattice compatibility (Lioliou et al., 2007; Pan et al., 2021). The filtration of TA enriched seawater supports this idea. Not, since not yet dissolved mineral phases that could facilitate early nucleation are removed, preventing runaway CaCO₃ precipitation (Figure 3Figure 3).

Needle-shaped aragonite precipitation onto quartz particles (Figure 5Figure 5c and 5d) was directly observed by SEM imaging, and confirmed by EDX analysis analyses, identifying identified the larger base mineral to be rich in silicon, a key 465 characteristic of quartz, and the needle-shaped particles composed of carbon, oxygen and calcium, indicative for CaCO₃ (Chang et al., 2017; Ni and Ratner, 2008; Pan et al., 2021). In contrast, direct aragonite precipitation onto not yet dissolved CaO and Ca(OH)₂ in the +500 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA addition is difficult to prove as EDX analyses revealed the presence of Ca and O, both present in the mineral feedstocks and aragonite by CaO and Ca(OH)₂-did not reveal any insoluble base element other than Ca, suggesting initial CaCO₃ precipitation onto CaO and Ca(OH)₂ (Figure 5Figure 5a and 5b). In-Finally, in some situations (Figure 5Figure 5b), round crystals were also observed, suggesting the presence of vaterite (Chang et al., 2017). 470

However, aragonite crystals represented the majority of CaCO₃ observed by SEM. Early CaCO₃ precipitation onto CaO and Ca(OH)₂ particles, providing some sort of coating could also, or at least partially, explain why maximum measured TA was lower than theoretically anticipated.

4.3 Impacts of CaCO₃ precipitation on OAE potential

475 From an OAE perspective, $CaCO_3$ precipitation is an important chemical reaction that needs to be avoided. When CaCO₃ precipitates, TA and DIC decrease in a 2:1 fashion. During CaCO₃ precipitation, Simultaneously, dissolved [CO₃²⁻] and Ω_{CaCO3} are decreasing, and [CO₂] is increasing, which reduces the ocean's uptake capacity for atmospheric CO₂, hence impacting OAE potential. Considering typical open ocean TA and DIC concentrations of 2350 and 2100 µmol kg⁻¹ respectively, at a salinity of 35 and a temperature of 19 °C, this water mass would have a pCO₂ close to atmospheric equilibrium 480 of $-416 \,\mu \text{atmppm}$, a pH_T value (total scale) of -8.04, and an Ω_{Ar} of -2.80. Without CaCO₃ precipitation, an addition of 500 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA would lower pCO₂ to ~92 μ atm and increase pH_T and Ω_{Ar} to about 8.61 and 8.45 respectively. If fully reequilibrated with the atmosphere, DIC would increase by about 420 μ mol kg⁻¹, leading to a pH_T and Ω_{Ar} 0.07 and 1.10 higher than prior to the addition, respectively (Table 3Table 3). The resulting OAE efficiency would be 0.83 mole of atmospheric CO_2 absorbed per mole of TA, very similar to estimates by Köhler et al. (2010). Considering that CaCO₃ is the base-source 485 material for CaO and Ca(OH)₂, and the fact that 2 moles of TA are produced per mole of mineral dissolution, ~0.7 tonnes of CO_2 could be captured per tonne of source material, assuming CO_2 capture during the calcination process. At a global-scale, using all available ship capacity and assuming a slow discharge of 1.7 to 4.0 Gt of Ca(OH)₂ per year (Caserini et al., 2021), between 1.2 and 2.8 Gt of CO₂ per year could be absorbed by the ocean-. Including direct coastal TA discharge at Similarly, following the models from with a constant addition of Ca(OH)₂ at 10 Gt -year⁻¹ (Feng et al., 2016), we could expect to absorb about an additional 7 Gt of CO₂ per year. This would eventually lead to more than 546 Gt of CO₂ by 2100 if implemented in 490 2022. To put these model-derived numbers into perspective, the global cement industry currently produces about 4.1 Gt of cement per vear (Statista, 2021). Depending on whether hydraulic (4CaO·Al₂O₃·Fe₂O₃) or non-hydraulic (Ca(OH)₂) cement is being produced, and assuming a molar Ca^{2+} to CO_2 sequestration potential of 1.6, up to 3.9 Gt of atmospheric CO_2 could be captured per year. This is on the order required to be built-up in the next 30 years, based on the shared socioeconomic pathways 495 RCP2.6 scenario that would keep global warming below the 2 °C target (Huppmann et al., 2018).

However, these substantial numbers <u>can only be obtained when dissolution is assume a</u> complete dissolution-without CaCO₃ precipitation. <u>Hypothetically, if</u> as much CaCO₃ precipitates as TA was added, only 0.50-1 instead of 1.6 mole of DIC can be absorbed per <u>2</u> moles of TA after equilibration with atmospheric pCO₂ (<u>Table 3Table 3</u>). This represent a decrease by nearly 40% in OAE potential. Similarly, <u>assuming</u>-runaway CaCO₃ precipitation until <u>an</u> $\Omega_{Ar} = -of 2.0$, <u>as observed here</u>, decreases the OAE potential further by almost 90%. Then, only ~0.11 mole of DIC would be absorbed per mole of TA added (<u>Table 3Table 3</u>). <u>FinallyFurthermore</u>, secondary CaCO₃ precipitation higher than TA addition will lead to pH_T and Ω_{CaCO3} levels lower than initial ones. For instance, runaway precipitation for a TA addition of 500 µ mol kg⁻¹ will see pH_T drop by about 0.1 from 8.04 to 7.93 and Ω_{Ar} from 2.80 to 1.66, significantly enhancing ongoing ocean acidification (<u>Table 3Table 3</u>).

Runaway CaCO₃ precipitation for a TA addition of 1000 μ mol kg⁻¹ (assumed to cease at an Ω_{Ar} of 2 as observed here) would even see Ω_{Ar} drop further, i.e., to below 1, upon CO₂ re-equilibration with the atmosphere (Table 3). Under such conditions, aragonite would start to dissolve, impacting various living beings, as it is an important biomineral for a variety of marine organisms, e.g., sessile corals, benthic molluscs and planktonic pteropods, would start to dissolve (Riebesell et al., 2011; Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). In summary, runaway CaCO₃ precipitation in OAE has to be avoided as not only reducing CO₂ uptake efficiency significantly but also capable of enhancing ocean acidification. Keeping track of OAE efficiency from changes in TA concentrations can be challenging as CaCO₃ precipitation can be underestimated as described earlier, requiring new and clever monitoring strategies to ensure effective dilutions take place.

4.4 Avoiding CaCO₃ precipitation by dilution and other TA addition strategies

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While above considerations stress the importance for monitoring An important aspect when it comes to avoiding CaCO₃ precipitation, they do not take into account the natural <u>is the</u> dilution that would occur in the wake of ships releasing TA in the ocean, or by natural mixing of TA-enriched water with surrounding seawater (Caserini et al., 2021; Feng et al., 2017; Mongin et al., 2021). In our experiments, a 1:1 dilution <u>could seemingly stop of seawater in which</u> CaCO₃ precipitation <u>in</u> <u>seawater</u>, was taking place upon a 500 µmol kg⁻¹ TA addition was seemingly stopped, even if <u>initiated performed</u> only after one week for the +500 µmol kg⁻¹ TA addition. This At a first glance, this comes a bit at a surprise as precipitation nuclei would only be diluted by half, hence reducing surface area and precipitation rates by a factor of 2. However, as Ω_{Ar} is significantly reduced simultaneously, precipitation rates are further reduced by a factor of 10 (see Figure A 4Figure A 4). Hence, overall precipitation would see a reduction by a factor of 20. This however, should slow down continuing precipitation initially, if on CaCO₃ particles, but not completely inhibit it (Zhong and Mucci, 1989). A possible explanation could be that dilution would have lowered Ω_{Ar} below the critical threshold for overcoming lattice mismatch, as most of the aragonite precipitation appears to be on the original seed mineral itself rather than on the newly formed aragonite (compare Figure 5Figure 5Figure 5Figure 5.)

Overall, CaCO₃ precipitation <u>can-could</u> be avoided if the TA+500 µmol kg⁻¹ enriched <u>sample seawater</u> is diluted 1:1, reaching an Ω_{Ar} of ~5.0. The quicker dilution takes place, the less CaCO₃ would precipitate prior. Similar results were found for a TA addition of +2000 µmol kg⁻¹, i.e., the ability to stop precipitation at an Ω_{Ar} of ~5.0, after a 1:7 dilution. However, only the 10 minutes and 1 hour dilutions seem to be suitable in an OAE context, as much more rapidly occurring aragonite precipitation at a higher initial Ω_{Ar} of about 16.7 would significantly reduce the CO₂ uptake efficiency. Furthermore, the difficulty to monitor precipitation form from simple TA measurements (as described above) would also mean that <u>verification of permanent-quantification of</u> CO₂ removal is <u>problematienot straight-forward</u>. Hence, in order to assign carbon credits, TA additions have to be done in a way that rule out <u>or at least minimise</u> secondary CaCO₃ precipitation. This is the <u>casetrue</u> for any type of TA addition, and is not specific to quick and hydrated lime.

Adding TA from land, as modelled by Feng et al. (2017), shows that the more TA is added, the higher coastal Ω_{Ar} would be. <u>Staying By staying clearly below the Ω_{Ar} 5-threshold identified here, i.e., limiting coastal Ω_{Ar} to only 3.2, up to ~550 Gt of carbon in the form of CO₂ could be removed from the atmosphere by 2100, corresponding to a reduction of by about 260 ppm</u>

(Feng et al., 2017). The critical Ω_{Ar} threshold beyond which secondary CaCO₃ precipitation would be observed could be higher for other minerals, theoretically allowing for higher TA additions. However, it has to be kept in mind that in waters with high sediment load, often found in coastal settings, CaCO₃ could precipitate onto other mineral particles than those added to increase

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TA. This has been observed in river plumes (Wurgaft et al., 2021), on the Bahama Banks by resuspended sediments (Bustos-Serrano et al., 2009) and in the Red Sea following flash flood deposition of resuspended sediments and particles (Wurgaft et al., 2016). Hence, even with minerals potentially allowing for higher TA additions, an Ω_{Ar} threshold of 5 might be safer to adopt. However, atmospheric CO₂ removal could be increased if TA would also be added to the open ocean, e.g., on ships of opportunity. Here, additions could be much higher as ship movement and rapid mixing within its wake would significantly dilute added TA (Caserini et al., 2021; Köhler et al., 2013) as opposed to coastal point sources.

Finally, another option to increase atmospheric CO_2 uptake would be to not add minerals to seawater directly, not add mineral to seawater directly, but to keep the seawater first equilibrated it-with air or CO_2 enriched flumes flue gases, during mineral dissolution-to atmospheric pCO₂-levels while dissolving. This-Firstly, this would allow reaching an Ω_{Ar} of 5 when equilibrated with the atmosphere, as opposed to 3.3 in the +250 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA scenario (Table 3), when equilibration is slow and passive, after $+250 \mu mol kg^{+}TA$ increase () occurs after instead of during the dissolution process. And secondly, when reaching an Ω_{Ar} of 5 with CO₂ equilibration, In this case, nearly 1000 instead of 250 µmol kg⁻¹ of TA could be added, allowing for almost 4 times the amount of atmospheric CO_2 to be removed (this number is highly sensitive to temperature, and ranges between ~ 3 and ~ 6 between 30 and 5 °C). However, this represent an extra step, which appears to be far more time and cost consuming than a simple mineral addition. It has also to be kept in mind that for the same Ω_{Ar} threshold, the amount of TA that can be added will increase with lower temperature, as of higher CO₂ solubility and hence naturally lower Ω_{Ar} in colder waters. Based on our Ω_{Ar} threshold of 5, Aat a salinity of 35 and at 5 °C, about three times as much TA can be dissolved as opposed to a temperature of 30 °C.

5 Conclusions

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Ocean alkalinity enhancement is a promising negative emission technology with relatively large potential for atmospheric CO₂ removal (Caserini et al., 2021; Feng et al., 2016; Köhler et al., 2010). In order to maximise carbon dioxide (CO₂) uptake efficiency, secondary calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) precipitation has to be avoided. Here, we show that an increase of total alkalinity (TA) by 500 µmol kg⁻¹ led to aragonite precipitation, reducing the CO₂ uptake potential from about 0.8 moles per mole of alkalinity added to less than 0.2 moles. Precipitation was most likely occurred onto the CaO and Ca(OH)₂ mineral phases prior to their full dissolution. In contrast, an addition of 250 µmol kg⁻¹ of TA did not result in CaCO₃ precipitation, 565 suggesting that an aragonite saturation state (Ω_{Ar}) of about 5 is a safe upper-limit. This is probably also the case for other minerals that with even lower lattice compatibility for CaCO₃, because in coastal settings, CaCO₃ could precipitate would theoretically allow for higher TA additions as of potential precipitation onto naturally present mineral phases, such as resuspended sediments in coastal settings. Safely increasing the amount of TA that could be added to the ocean involves could <u>be achieved by expanding to the open ocean by ships of opportunity,</u> allowin<u>g for</u> major mixing and dilution of enriched seawater <u>by coastal tides or in the wake of ships</u>, equilibrating the seawater to atmospheric CO₂ levels <u>prior to the addition</u> during mineral dissolution, and/<u>or</u> targeting low rather than high temperature <u>regimesregions</u>.

Data availability

Data will be made available on a publicly available repository upon final publication.

Author contributions

575 CAM and KGS designed the initial experiments. All co-authors contributed to the initial data analysis and designing of followup experiments. CAM performed most of the sampling, and the data analyses with the help of KGS. CAM wrote the paper with KGS, with inputs from their respective fields of expertise by all co-authors.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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	TA		Amount	Amount of	mg kg ⁻¹	<u>Theoretical</u> Theoretical	Recorded		Additional
TA Agent	target (μmol kg ⁻¹)	Comments	added in mg (or mL*)	natural seawater in kg	(or mL kg ⁻¹ *)	TA addition (µmol <u>kg</u>	<u>TA</u> addition (µmol kg ⁻¹)	Experiment duration	samples apart from TA and DIC
			S	ieved calciur	n minerals	Sieved calcium minerals experiments			
CaO	250	Sieved in	15.50	2015.90	7.69	274.21	216.49	47 days	N/A
CaO	500	Sieved in	30.60	2004.50	15.27	544.42	410.70	47 days	TPC, POC and SEM samples
Ca(OH)	250	Sieved in	19.90	2001.90	9.94	268.34	221.96	28 days	N/A
ca(OH) 2	500	Sieved in	37.40	2004.20	18.66	503.73	440.19	42 days	TPC, POC and SEM samples
			Na ₂ C	O ₃ , particles	s and filtra	Na ₂ CO ₃ , particles and filtration experiments	nts		
Na ₂ CO ₃	1050	1M Na ₂ CO ₃ solution	1.05*	2000.60	0.52	1050.32	1057.41	42 days	N/A
Na ₂ CO ₃	1050	1M Na ₂ CO ₃ solution, plus quartz powder	1.05*	2000.30	0.5	1050.16	1073.92	48 days	 TPC, POC and SEM samples
Ca(OH) 2	500	atter z days Sieved in, filtered after 4 hours	39.30	2004.30	19.61	529.30	470.79	48 days	N/A
				Diluti	Dilution experiments	nents			
Ca(OH) 2	500	1:1 dilution after 10min, 1 hour, 1 day and 1 week	101.60	5132.50	19.80	534.36	<u>452.65</u>	14 days	TPC, POC and SEM samples
Ca(OH)2	2000	1:7 dilution after 10min, 1 hour, 1 day and 1 week	155.90	2003.80	77.80	2100.21	724.04	48 days	TPC, POC and SEM samples

Table 2: Comparison between the estimated PIC based on half the TA change between the theoretical maximum TA increase upon full dissolution of the alkaline material added and the measured TA at the end of the experiment (<u>Table 1</u>Table 1), the estimated PIC based on half the TA changes between the measured maximum TA increase and the measured TA at the end of the experiment, and the measured PIC from the particulate carbon analysis.

Experiment	PIC ΔTA _{Theo} (μmol kg ⁻¹)	PIC ΔTA (μmol kg ⁻¹)	Measured PIC (µmol kg ⁻¹)
500 TA – CaO-Addition	543.24	476.38	491.82 ±39.18
500 TA – Ca(OH)2-Addition	462.28	430.51	550.87 ±71.32
1050 TA – 1M Na ₂ CO ₃ -Addition + Quartz Particles	627.20	639.07	397.37 ±24.03
500 TA – Ca(OH) ₂ AdditionDilution	107.05	66.20	89.51 ±4.27
2000 TA – Ca(OH) ₂ AdditionDilution	1718.83	1030.74	1331.48 ±50.73

mineral dissolution without precipitation, a complete dissolution followed by as much CaCO3 precipitated as the amount of TA added, and a complete dissolution followed by CaCO3 precipitation until reaching an Ω_{Ar} of 2.0, before CO2 re-equilibration to initial pCO2. For each scenario, the amount of moles of CO2 absorbed per moles of TA added has been calculated for comparison. The 500 µmol kg⁻¹ TA addition simulation is shown in Figure <u>A 3 Figure A 3</u>, Appendix. *Note: the value for Ω_{Ar} is rounded to 1.00 but calculated at 0.997. Table 3: Simulations of the changes in TA, DIC, $\Omega_{\rm Ar}$, pCO₂ and pH_T (total scale) after TA increases of 250, 500 and 1000 μ mol kg⁻¹, assuming complete

	C	E	TA	TA +500 μmol kg ⁻¹	€g-1	TA	$TA + 1000 \ \mu mol \ kg^{-1}$	kg ⁻¹
	Starting	1.A +250		CaCO ₃	CaCO ₃		CaCO ₃	CaCO ₃
	Conditions	µmol kg ⁻¹	No CaCO ₃	Prec.	Prec.	No CaCO ₃	Prec.	Prec.
	csatinity = 33	No CaCU3 nrecinitation	Prec.	= TA	until Ω_{Ar}	Prec.	= TA	until $\Omega_{ m Ar}$
		Tonnud toold		added	of 2		added	of 2
TA (μmol kg ⁻¹)	2350	2600	2850	2350	1748	3350	2350	1320
DIC (µmol kg ⁻¹)	2100	2100	2100	1850	1549	2100	1600	1085
$\Omega_{ m Ar}$	2.80	5.53	8.45	5.34	2.00	14.57	7.89	2.00
pCO2 (µatm)	416.2	175.1	91.5	135.6	319.2	29.6	48.2	144.81
pH_{T}	8.04	8.38	8.61	8.42	8.02	8.97	8.73	8.20
			After re-equilibr	After re-equilibration, i.e., $pCO_2 \sim 416 \ \mu atm$	-416 μatm			
Final TA (μmol kg ⁻¹)	2350	2600	2850	2350	1748	3350	2350	1320
Final DIC (μmol kg ⁻¹)	2100	2309	2517	2100	1588	2926.5	2100	1216
Final Ω_{Ar}	2.80	3.34	3.90	2.80	1.66	5.14	2.80	1.00*
Final $pH_{\rm T}$	8.04	8.08	8.11	8.04	7.93	8.17	8.04	7.82
CO2 uptake (mole/mole TA)	NA	0.84	0.83	0.50	0.08	0.83	0.50	0.13

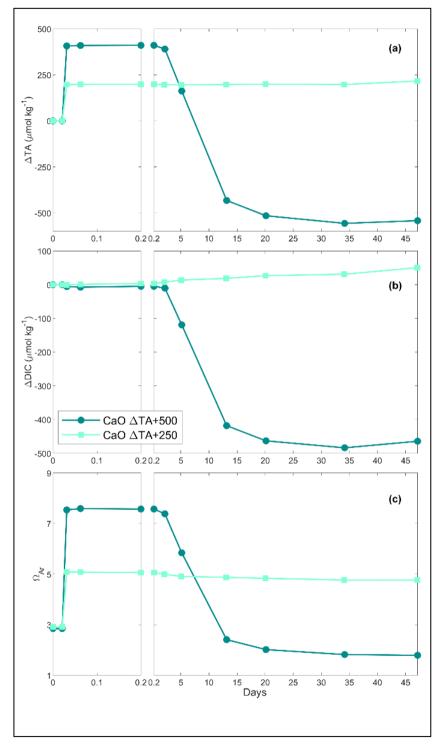
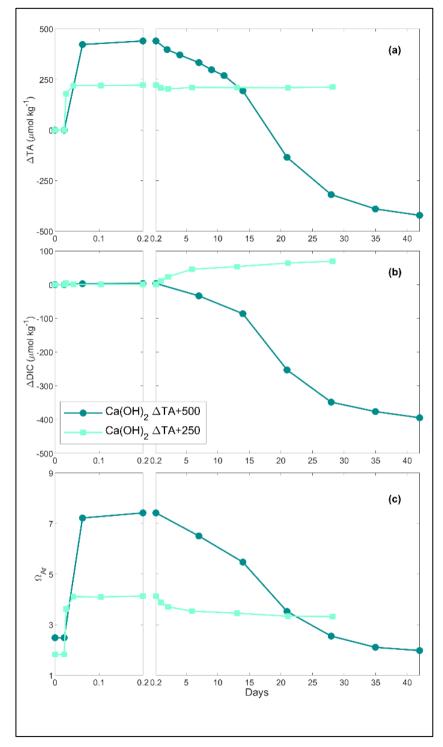


Figure 1: Changes in TA (a), DIC (b) and Ω_{Ar} (c) over time following two CaO additions.



745 Figure 2: Changes in TA (a), DIC (b) and Ω_{Ar} (c) of the samples over time following two Ca(OH)₂ additions.

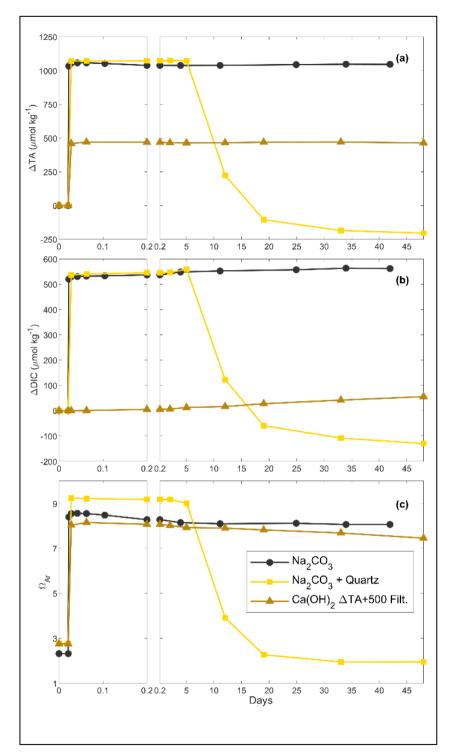
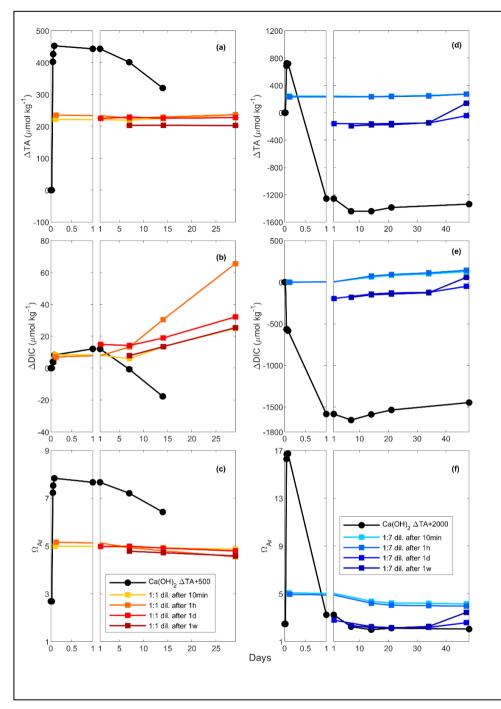


Figure 3: Changes in TA (a), DIC (b) and Ω_{Ar} (c) over time following additions of Na₂CO₃, Na₂CO₃ plus quartz particles and Ca(OH)₂ followed by a filtration step (see Methods for details).



750 Figure 4: Changes in TA (a and d), DIC (b and e) and Ω_{Ar} (c and f) following a TA addition of 500 and 2000 μmol kg⁻¹ respectively, by Ca(OH)₂ (black line), as well as following a 1:1 dilution or the 500 μmol kg⁻¹ TA addition (red and yellow lines) and a 1:7 dilution for the 2000 μmol kg⁻¹ TA addition (blue lines). The dilutions were performed after 10 minutes, 1 hour, 1 day and 1 week and earlier dilutions are represented by lighter colours.

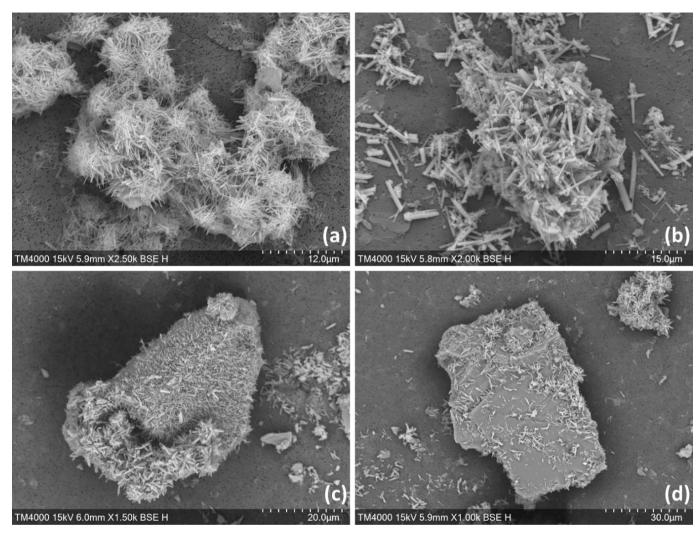


Figure 5: SEM images from experiments with an increase in TA of ~500 µmol kg⁻¹ by CaO (a), Ca(OH)₂ (b) and with a TA increase of ~1050 µmol kg⁻¹ by 1M Na₂CO₃, followed by quartz particles addition ((c) and (d)).

-Appendix

<u>Alkaline</u> <u>mineral</u>	<u>TA increase (in</u> μmol kg ⁻¹)	<u>Experiment</u> <u>details</u>	<u>Seawater</u> <u>salinity</u>	<u>Phosphate (in</u> μmol kg ⁻¹)*
CaO	<u>250</u>	<u>N/A</u>	<u>36.52</u>	Not measured
	<u>500</u>	<u>N/A</u>	<u>36.52</u>	Not measured
<u>Ca(OH)</u> ₂	<u>250</u>	<u>N/A</u>	<u>36.91</u>	Not measured
	<u>500</u>	<u>N/A</u>	<u>36.91</u>	Not measured
	<u>500</u>	For dilutions	<u>35.46</u>	Not measured
	<u>500</u>	For filtration	<u>36.52</u>	Not measured
	<u>2000</u>	For dilution	<u>36.74</u>	<u>0.32 ±0.03</u>
<u>Na₂CO₃</u>	<u>1050</u>	<u>N/A</u>	<u>36.91</u>	Not measured
	<u>1050</u>	With quartz particles	<u>36.52</u>	Not measured

Table A 1: Seawater salinity in each experiment, and phosphate concentrations in one of the batches (*).

765 Table A 21: Main chemical composition of the CaO and Ca(OH)₂ powders-feedstocks used for the TA increase experiments determined by ICPMS analysis.

	CaO Powder	,	C	Ca(OH) ₂ Powder		
Element	mg g ⁻¹	St. Dev.	Element	mg g ⁻¹	St. Dev.	
Calcium	545.15	70.92	Calcium	529.79	117.30	
Magnesium	2.10	0.23	Magnesium	6.87	1.98	
Silicon	2.02	1.79	Silicon	2.70	1.12	
Aluminium	0.50	0.19	Aluminium	1.98	0.77	
Iron	0.32	0.10	Iron	0.91	0.34	
Manganese	0.11	0.01	Potassium	0.43	0.23	
Potassium	0.03	0.00	Titanium	0.07	0.03	
Phosphorus	0.02	0.02	Manganese	0.05	0.01	
Titanium	0.02	0.01	Phosphorus	0.04	0.01	
Chromium	0.01	0.01	Bromine	0.03	0.01	

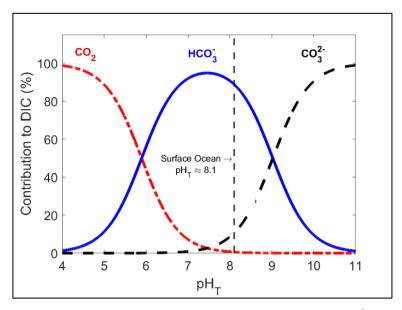


Figure A 1: Relative contribution of dissolved CO₂, HCO₃⁻ and CO₃⁻ to total dissolved inorganic carbon in seawater as a function of pH_T (total scale), also known as Bjerrum plot (based on the carbonic acid equilibrium constant from Mehrbach et al. (1973) and refitted by Dickson and Millero (1987)), at 25 °C and salinity of 35, with the current surface ocean pH average represented by the dashed line (pH_T ~8.1).

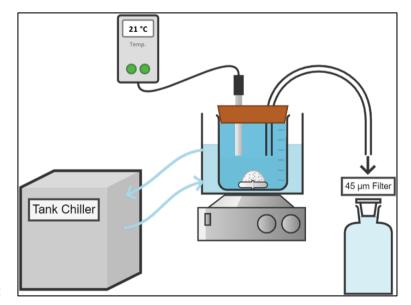
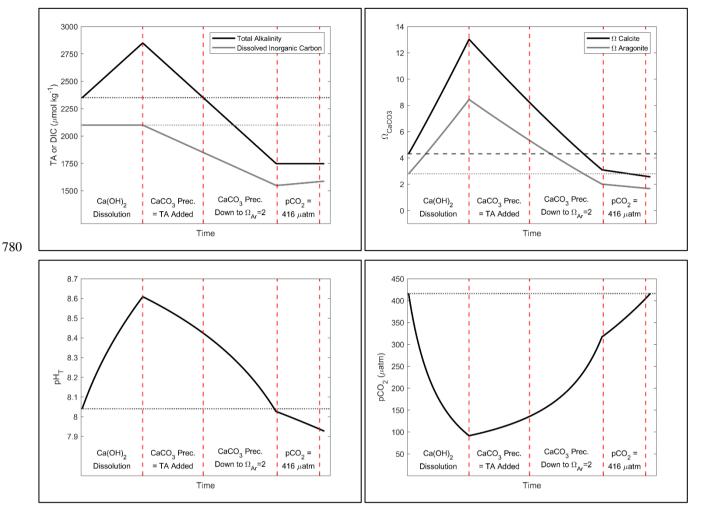


Figure A 2: Conceptual diagram of the experimental setup used for the dissolution of alkaline minerals



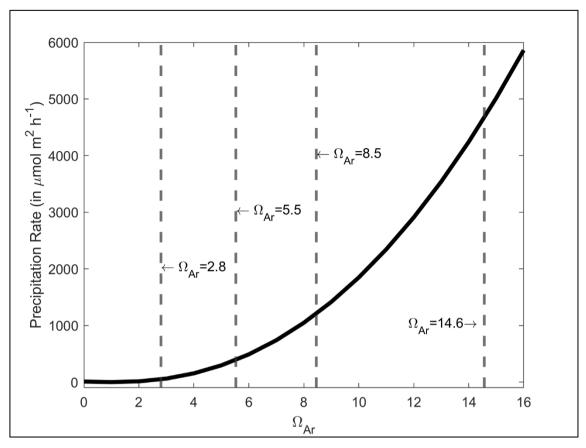
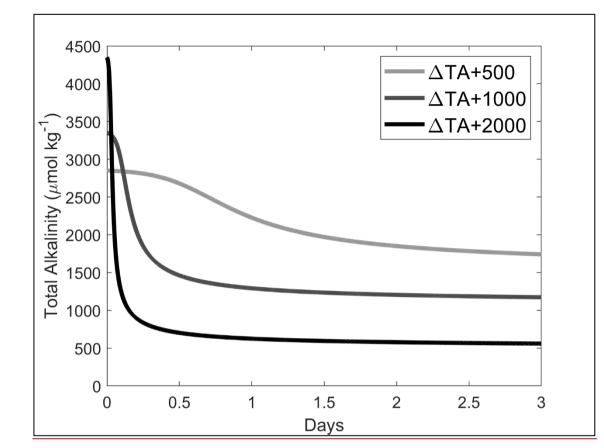


Figure A 4: <u>CaCO₃ Aragonite</u> precipitation rate onto <u>CaCO₃-aragonite</u> seed crystals in µmol m⁻² h⁻¹ as a function of Ω_{Ar}, based on the <u>calculation measurements</u> of Zhong and Mucci (1989) at 25 °C and for a salinity of 35. The <u>values of Ω_{Ar} values</u> for the starting conditions, <u>and</u> following a +250, +500 and +1000 µmol kg-1 TA increase are presented by the grey dashed lines, i.e., 2.8, 5.5, 8.5 and 14.6 respectively.



795 Figure A 5: Simulations of TA loss due to aragonite precipitation after a TA addition of 500, 1000 and 2000 μmol kg⁻¹, based on Ω_{Ar} and surface area dependant precipitation rates shown in Figure A 4,Zhong and Mucci (1989) assuming the initial presence of 2% of CaCO₃ in our samples, i.e., ~0.37, ~0.74 and ~1.48 mg kg⁻¹ for a Δ TA+500, Δ TA+1000 and Δ TA+2000 µmol kg⁻¹, respectively. CaCO₃ mass was converted to a surface area as described in Zhong and Mucci (1989). The starting conditioned were TA = 2300 µmol kg⁻¹, DIC = 2100 µmol kg⁻¹, salinity = 35 and temperature = 21 °C.