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

Charly A. Moras^{1,*}, Lennart T. Bach², Tyler Cyronak³, Renaud Joannes-Boyau¹, Kai G. Schulz¹

Abstract. Ocean Aalkalinity Eenhancement (OAE) ishas been proposed as a method to that can remove carbon dioxide (CO₂) from the atmosphere and to-counteract ocean acidification, through the dissolution of alkaline minerals. It involves the dissolution of alkaline minerals. HoweverCurrently, a critical knowledge gaps exists regarding their dissolution of different minerals suitable for OAE in natural seawater. Particularly, Of particular importance, is to understand how much alkaline mineral can be dissolved before secondary precipitation of calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) occurs, is yet to be established. Secondary precipitation should be avoided as it since secondary CaCO₃ precipitation reduces the atmospheric CO₂ uptake potential of OAE. Using two types of minerals proposed for OAE minerals as example, i.e., quick lime (CaO) and hydrated lime (Ca(OH)₂), we show that both feedstocks (<63 µm of diameter) dissolved in seawater within a few hours. However, while nNo CaCO₃ precipitation was found to occur occurred at a saturation state (Ω_{Ar}) of about ~5, but CaCO₃ precipitated precipitation in the form of aragonite occurred above beyond a threshold of an Ω_A value of 7. This limit is much lower than what would be expected for typical pseudo-homogeneous precipitation, i.e., in the presence of colloids and organic matter. Secondary precipitation at unexpectedly low Ω_{AF} (~7) was the result of so called heterogeneous precipitation onto mineral phasessurfaces, most likely onto the added CaO and Ca(OH)2 prior to full dissolution particles. Most importantly, this led to-runaway CaCO₃ precipitation was observed, i.e., a condition where significantly more total alkalinity (TA) was removed than initially added, until Ω_{Ar} reached levels below 2. Such runaway precipitation would could reduce the OAE CO₂ uptake efficiency from about ~0.8 moles of CO₂ per mole of added TA down to only 0.1 mole of CO₂ per mole of TA. Runaway precipitation appears to be avoidable by dilution below the critical Ω_{A_F} threshold of 5, ideally within hours of the mineral additions to minimise initial CaCO₃ precipitation. Finally, OAE simulations suggest that for the same Ω_{A_F} threshold, the amount of TA that can be added to seawater would be more than three times higher at 5 °C than at 30 °C. The maximum TA addition could also be increased by equilibrating the seawater Also, equilibration to atmospheric CO₂ levels, (i.e., to a pCO₂ of ~416 µatm) during addition. This would allow for more TA to be added in seawater without inducing CaCO₃ precipitation, using OAE at its CO₂ removal potential., during mineral dissolution would further increase it by a factor of ~6 and ~3 respectively.

¹Faculty of Science and Engineering, Southern Cross University, Lismore, NSW, Australia

²Institute for Marine and Antarctic Studies, Ecology & Biodiversity, University of Tasmania, Hobart, TAS, Australia

³Department of Marine and Environmental Sciences, Nova Southeastern University, Fort Lauderdale, FL, USA

^{*} Correspondence to: Charly A. Moras (c.moras.10@student.scu.edu.au)

1 Introduction

Climate Modern climate change is currently considered as one of the greatest threats to humankind (Hoegh-Guldberg et al., 2019; IPCC, 2021; The Royal Society and Royal Academy of Engineering, 2018). Global mean temperature has 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, aboutup to 3026% of all anthropogenic carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions have been taken up by the ocean through air-sea gas exchange between 1750 and 2020 (Friedlingstein et al., 2022). This has led, leading to a decrease in the average open ocean pH by 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 aim of the 2015 Paris Agreement aim is to minimise the negative impacts of global warming and OA on ecosystems and human societies by limiting global warming to less than +2.0 °C, ideally below +1.5 °C, by the end of this century (Goodwin et al., 2018). However, the current and pledged reductions will likely not be enough and additional CO₂ mitigation strategies are being discussedneeded, such as ocean alkalinity enhancement – OAE (Gattuso et al., 2015; GESAMP, 2019; Lenton and Vaughan, 2009; The Royal Society and Royal Academy of Engineering, 2018). Among carbon dioxide removal approaches, OAE could be an efficient approach for CO₂ removal (current emissions of 40 Gt per year)has a high carbon dioxide removal potential, with models suggesting that between a potential of 165 and to 790 Gigatonnes (1 Gt = 10e¹⁵ g) of atmospheric CO₂ could be removed by the year 2100 on a global scale if OAE was implemented today (Burt et al., 2021; Feng et al., 2017; IPCC, 2021; Keller et al., 2014; Köhler et al., 2013; Lenton et al., 2018). However, there is no empirical data on OAE efficacies is limited, and in particular regarding safe thresholds for mineral dissolution are particularly lacking (National Academies of Sciences and Medicine, 2021).

OAE typically relies on the dissolution of alkaline minerals in seawater, releasing alkalinity similarly to natural rock weathering processes (Kheshgi, 1995). Suitable candidates are magnesium-rich minerals such as brucite, periclase or forsterite, and calcium-rich minerals such as quick and hydrated lime (Renforth and Henderson, 2017). Quick and hydrated lime are of particular interest, due to their high solubility in seawater essential to their high solubility in seawater essential to the seawater are of particular interest, due to their high solubility in seawater essential to the seawater well as their relatively and rapid dissolution. Quick lime, also known as i.e., calcium oxide (CaO), is obtained by the calcination of limestone, mainly composed primarily of calcium carbonate (CaCO₃), and which is present in large quantities within the Eearth's crust. Once heated to temperatures of ~1200 °C, each molecule of CaCO₃ breaks down into one molecule of CaO 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 necessary (Bach et al., 2019; Ilyina et al., 2013; Kheshgi, 1995; Renforth et al., 2013; Renforth and Kruger, 2013). CaO can then be hydrated into calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH)₂), also known as hydrated lime. The addition of either CaO or Ca(OH)₂ to seawater leads to the dissociation of Ca(OH)₂ into one calcium Ca²⁺ and two hydroxyl ions OH⁻ (Feng et al., 2017; Harvey, 2008). Ignoring the non-linearities of the seawater carbonate system (i.e., changes in total alkalinity, TA, and dissolved inorganic carbon, DIC, are not 1:1) The, the chemical reaction of CO₂ and Ca(OH)₂ dissolution and the subsequent uptake of atmospheric CO2 can be written as follows, which includes the subsequent uptake of atmospheric CO2, and ignores the non linearities of the seawater carbonate system (i.e., changes in total alkalinity, TA, and dissolved inorganic carbon, DIC, are not 1:1):

$$(CaO + H_2O \rightleftharpoons Ca(OH)_2) + 2CO_2 \rightarrow Ca^{2+} + 2HCO_3^{-}$$

1

The dissolution of CaO and Ca(OH)₂ and the subsequent addition of TA increases the pH of seawater pH, while changing which changes the carbonate chemistry speciation (Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). DIC can be approximated by being as the sum of HCO₃⁻ and 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 a constant DIC, e.g., by dissolving CaO or Ca(OH)₂, increases [CO₃²-], shifting the carbonate chemistry speciation towards a higher pH (Figure A1) (Dickson et al., 2007; Wolf-Gladrow et al., 2007; Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). The subsequent shift in DIC speciation leads to a decrease in [CO₂]dissolved CO₂ concentrations, 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 pCO_2 , the TA-enriched seawater would either take up CO_2 from the atmosphere or reduce outgassing of CO_2 in the case where seawater pCO_2 is still above atmospheric levels. Factoring in the non-linearities of the carbonate system non linearities, about 1.6 moles of atmospheric CO_2 could be taken up per mole of dissolved CaO or $Ca(OH)_2$ (Köhler et al., 2010). Furthermore, dissolving CaO and $Ca(OH)_2$ can also counteract ocean acidification, in two ways, During the dissolution of alkaline minerals, raising the both pH and the calcium carbonate CaCO₃ saturation state of seawater (Ω_{CaCO_3}) increase, with Ω_{CaCO_3} increasing both because of increased through increasing $\{Ca^{2+}\}$ and $\{CO_3^{2-}\}$ concentrations. This makes OAE a dual solution for removing atmospheric CO_2 and mitigating OA (Feng et al., 2017; GESAMP, 2019; Harvey, 2008). However, major there are important knowledge gaps exist regarding OAE, considering most research to date has been based on conceptual and numerical modellingin our understanding surrounding basic mineral dissolution in seawater (Feng et al., 2016; González and Ilyina, 2016; Mongin et al., 2021; Renforth and Henderson, 2017).

One such knowledge gap is the critical Ω_{CaCO3} threshold that seawater can be raised to beyond which CaCO₃ would starts to precipitate inorganically. Such secondary precipitation constitutes the opposite of alkaline mineral dissolution and would decrease pH and Ω_{CaCO3}, while simultaneously increasing seawater the {CO₂} concentration in seawater. This would decrease the ocean uptake's capacity for atmospheric CO₂, having the opposite of the intended effect as what is initially intended. SimilarlyAdditionally, if all added alkalinity is being precipitated, only 1 one mole of atmospheric CO₂ per mole of Ca²⁺ would be removed, instead of about ~1.6 withoutin the absence of CaCO₃ precipitation. If even more CaCO₃ precipitates, the efficiency of OAE would be further reduced. At typical seawater conditions, CaCO₃ precipitation does not precipitate spontaneously in typical seawater does not occur 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 (Mg) or phosphate (Chave and Suess, 1970; De Choudens-Sanchez and Gonzalez, 2009; Pytkowicz, 1965; Rushdi et al., 1992; Simkiss, 1964). The latter two directly influence CaCO₃ nuclei formation rates. There are three types of CaCO₃ 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). For the latterpseudo-homogeneous precipitation, the critical precipitation threshold

at which for-calcite precipitates spontaneously (at a salinity of 35 and at a temperature of 21 °C) is at a calcite saturation state (Ω_{C_8}) of ~18.8 (at a salinity of 35 and at a temperature of 21 °C) (Marion et al., 2009). Assuming a-typical open-ocean carbonate chemistries (e.g., TA ~2350 µmol kg⁻¹ and DIC ~2100 µmol kg⁻¹)eoncentrations, i.e., ~2350 µmol kg⁻¹ and ~2100 µmol kg⁻¹ respectively (Dickson et al., 2007), this threshold would be reached by through an increase in TA of ~810 µmol kg⁻¹. This corresponds corresponding to a critical threshold for Ω_{C_8CO3} with respect to aragonite, i.e., Ω_{A_8} , of ~12.3. Concerning tThe two other types of precipitation τ (i.e., homogeneous and heterogeneous), these are more poorly constrained (Marion et al., 2009). Importantly, at the current seawater dissolved magnesium Mg and Ca concentrations in seawater, the CaCO₃ morphotype polymorph that is favoured during inorganic precipitation is aragonite rather than calcite (Morse et al., 1997; Pan et al., 2021). Therefore, aragonite saturation state Ω_A may be a more important determinant of critical runaway precipitation under conditions relevant to OAE are needed.

To gain a better understanding on the consequences of CaO and Ca(OH)₂ dissolution for OAE, we conducted several dissolution experiments with CaO and Ca(OH)₂ to determine 1) how much alkaline material can be dissolved without inducing CaCO₃ precipitation, 2) what causes secondary CaCO₃ precipitation, and 3) how secondary precipitation can be avoided if observed.

2 Material & Methods

2.1 Experimental setup

Two different calcium minerals were used, CaO powder from Ajax Finechem (CAS no 1305-78-8) and an-industrial Ca(OH)₂ powder (Hydrated Lime 20kg, Dingo). The elemental compositions of these powders was were analysed on-using an Agilent 7700 Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer, coupled to a laser ablation unit (NWR213, from-Electro Scientific Industries, Inc). The sSamples were embedded in resin and instrument readings calibrated against standard reference materials, batches #610 and #612, from the National Institute of Standards and Technology.

The All dissolution experiments were conducted in natural seawater. The seawater was collected between September 2020 and June 2021, about 200 to 300 m from the shore, avoiding suspended sand or silt, at Broken Head, New South Wales, Australia (28°42½12½2° S, 153°37½03½2° E). Seawater was stored up to 14 days at 4-_°C in the dark to slow bacterial metabolic activity and allow for all suspended particles in suspension to sink settle onto 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 sample½s conductivity and temperature was were then measured using a with a Metrohm 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 A1.

2.2 OAE experiments

For each experiment, seawater was accurately weighed (in grams to 2 decimal places) into high-quality borosilicate 3.3 2_L Schott Duran beakers, and the temperature was controlled via a Tank Chiller Line TK 1000 set to-at 21 °C, feeding a re-circulation water jacket (Figure A2). 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 calcium alkaline compounds were added. Upon addition, samples for DIC and TA were taken 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 4 hours after addition to get an estimate for determine when alkalinity was fully released. Once the pH plateaued (corresponding to maximum TA release), the content of the beaker was carefully transferred to a clean Schott bottle to ensure that evaporation would not play a role in changing alter the DIC and or TA concentrations. Bottles 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-inhibit bacterial growth.

2.2.1 CaO and Ca(OH)2 dissolution

Following the previously described-beaker setup as described in section 2.2, TA was added by sieving CaO and Ca(OH)₂ through a 63 µm mesh, avoiding to avoid the formation of larger CaO or Ca(OH)₂ aggregates. The mesh was placed in a clean upside-down 50 mL Falcon tube cap, to minimise the loss of material smaller than 63 µm, 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 upside-down Falcon tube cap and weighed once 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 were achieved in less than 5-five minutes. Two alkalinity additions, +250 and +500 µmol kg⁻¹ with each calcium mineral powder were performed (Table 1).

2.2.2 Na₂CO₃ alkalinity, and particles additions, and filtration

Three further experiments assessed the role of mineral phases during secondary CaCO₃ precipitation observed in the previous experiments. The first experiment made use of used a 1M solution of sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃, CAS number 497-19-8), freshly prepared on the day to limit which was freshly prepared before the experiment CO₂ ingassing. Ultrapure Na₂CO₃ 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 M Ω). The solution was then sonicated for 15 minutes, and with gentle mixing every five minutes. The amount of Na₂CO₃ to be added to seawater was calculated so that a similar maximum Ω_{A_F} would be reached, i.e., ~7.7, as in the previous experiments with the highest addition of CaO and Ca(OH)₂. This required about twice the alkalinity increase as before (Table 1), because Na₂CO₃ additions concomitantly increase DIC when dissociating in two sodium and one CO₃²⁻ ion, making the Ω_{CaCO_3} increase smaller. All carbonate chemistry calculations were done in CO₂SYS (see below).

In another similar experiment to the Na_2CO_3 addition, quartz powder was added after two days. Quartz powder was chosen as it does not dissolve on the timescales relevant for this study (Montserrat et al., 2017). The addition of quartz powder was similar to the sieved CaO and Ca(OH)₂ additions, i.e., through a 63 μ m mesh. The

mass of quartz particles added, <u>(recorded</u>-in mg with 2 decimal places), was determined to provide the same 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 of Ca(OH)₂ and quartz, and assuming spherical particles with a diameter of 63 μm.

Finally, a The third experiment was carried out in which all particles were removed by filtration, using Ca(OH)₂ as the alkaline compound and following followed the same experimental setup as described above (in section 2.2.1). Here, we first added Ca(OH)₂ was added to first increase TA by ~500 μ mol kg⁻¹ (Table 1). After 4 h of reaction, the entire content of the 2L Schott beaker was filtered through a Nnylon 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.

2.2.3 Dilution experiments

In a last set of experiments, alkalinity enriched seawater was diluted with natural seawater, to test if secondary precipitation can be avoided or stopped. Ca(OH)₂ powder was added to reach final alkalinity enrichments of 500 and 2000 µmol kg⁻¹ and dilutions were carried out at several points in timetime intervals.

For the experiment with a targeted TA increase of 500 μ mol kg⁻¹, a larger quantity of TA_enriched seawater was 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 weighed-in masses of Ca(OH)₂ were added to the first bottle, as described in section 2.2.1, using the 63 μ m sieve, while the natural seawater in the second bottle was kept for 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.

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 ~200 rpm. After each sampling time, the bottles were exposed to UV light for at least 30 minutes. The second dilution experiment was set up like the first one, the only difference being that the targeted TA increase was 2000 µmol kg⁻¹. The dilution ratio was 1:7 to reduce the targeted TA increase again to 250 µmol kg⁻¹. All dilutions were performed 10 minutes, 1 hour, 1 day and 1 week after Ca(OH)₂ addition, leading to 2-two TA-enriched and 8-eight diluted treatments.

2.3 Carbonate chemistry measurements

TA was analysed in duplicates via potentiometric titrations on anby a Metrohm 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 using NaCl, corresponding to a salinity of 35. 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, Marianda) 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 sectional section (2010) per Dickson et al. (2007) which had been, calibrated against Certified Reference Materials Batch #175 and #190 (Dickson, 2010).

The overall instruments uncertainty for TA and DIC was calculated as follows. For each measurement, a standard deviation was calculated, from duplicates of TA and triplicates of DIC. The samples and reference materials standard deviations were averaged, and an error propagation on these values were used to estimate average measurement uncertainty, i.e., $\pm 1.0 \,\mu$ mol kg⁻¹ and DIC at $\pm 0.8 \,\mu$ mol kg⁻¹, for TA and DIC, respectively.

2.4 Particulate Inorganic Carbon and Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM)

In cases where TA and DIC decreases were detected observed, indicative of CaCO₃ precipitation, several samples were taken at the end of the experiments for total particulate carbon (TPC), particulate organic carbon (POC) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analyses. TPC and POC samples were collected in duplicates on pre-combusted (450 °C) GF/F filters and stored frozen until analysis. Before 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 5 mm diameter balls. Both TPC and POC were quantified on an a Thermo-Fisher Elemental Analyser Flash EA, Thermo Fisher, coupled to an a Delta V Plus Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer, Delta V Plus. Particulate inorganic carbon (PIC), or CaCO₃, was calculated from based on the difference between TPC and POC. The results are reported in µmol kg⁻¹ of seawater with an uncertainty estimate for each calculated by an error propagation from of the square root of the sum of the squared standard deviations for TPC and POC.

For SEM 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 Hitachi Scanning Electron Microscope TM4000 Plus from Hitachi, . The microscope was coupled to an Energy Dispersive X-Ray (EDX) Analyser, allowing to identify the CaCO₃ morphotypepolymorph and elemental composition of precipitates. Finally, 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.

2.5 Carbonate chemistry calculations

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

$$\Omega_{CaCO3} = \frac{[Ca^{2+}] \times [CO_3^{2-}]}{K_{sp}}$$
 2

where $[Ca^{2+}]$ and $[CO_3^{2-}]$ denote seawater concentrations of Ca^{2+} and CO_3^{2-} , and K_{sp} is the solubility product for calcite or aragonite at the appropriate salinity and temperature. To calculate saturation states, the correct calcium concentration $[Ca^{2+}]_{Corr}$ was estimated from measured salinity (Riley and Tongudai, 1967) and half the alkalinity concentration increase change, ΔTA , that was generated during CaO or $Ca(OH)_2$ dissolution or loss due to $CaCO_3$ precipitation, ΔTA :

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

where 0.01028 denotes-is the molar Ca^{2+} 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 according to Equation 2. Please note that we have opted to report Ω_{Ar} rather than Ω_{Ca} since aragonite is more likely to be precipitated in natural modern seawater (Morse et al., 1997).

2.6 OAE simulations

CO₂SYS and the results from the various dissolution experiments were used to simulate three OAE scenarios (Table 3). Three alkalinity additions were simulated, +250, +500 and +1000 µmol kg⁻¹. The starting parameters were TA = 2350 µmol kg⁻¹, DIC = 2100 µmol 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. We then estimated , and the amount of CO₂ taken up by the seawater after atmospheric re-equilibration was calculated, i.e., until a pCO₂ of ~416 ppm. For the +500 and +1000 µmol kg⁻¹ TA increases, two additional simulations were performed: first First, we assumed that as much CaCO₃ precipitated as TA was added, e.g., after increasing the TA by 500 µmol kg⁻¹, we assumed a loss of 500 µmol kg⁻¹ of TA and 250 µmol kg⁻¹ of DIC. We then simulated atmospheric re-equilibration until a pCO₂ of ~416 ppm and recorded the changes in the carbonate chemistry parameters. and second, we assumed 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 using the same approach as described above.

3 Results

3.1 Chemical composition of CaO and Ca(OH)2

The <u>bulk</u> chemical composition of the CaO and Ca(OH)₂ powders were analysed—for their major ions. These consisted primarily of As to be expected, both consisted mainly of calcium, with minor contributions of magnesium and silicon (see Table A2, for a more comprehensive 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% by weight.

3.2 CaO dissolution in filtered natural seawater

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

In the second CaO experiment with a targeted 500 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA addition, TA increased by ~410 μ mol kg⁻¹ within the first 4 hours before slowly decreasing on day 3 (Figure 1a),). This was followed by a more rapid decrease over the following week, before eventually reaching a steady state on day 20 at a final Δ TA of about 540 μ mol kg⁻¹. This corresponds to a total loss of TA of ~950 μ mol kg⁻¹, between the maximum measured TA and the final recorded TA-recorded. Similarly, a relatively small decrease in DIC of ~10 μ mol kg⁻¹ was observed over the first two days before a much-more significant reduction in the following week. Finally, Δ DIC before levelling levelled off at a Δ DIC of about -465 μ mol kg⁻¹ (Figure 1b). Ω_{A_F} rapidly increased rapidly during the first 4 hours of the experiment from 2.8 up to 7.6 (Figure 1c). Following this quick increase, Ω_{A_F} decreased by 0.3 units by day 3. Afterwards, Ω_{A_F} dropped quickly to 2.4 on day 13, and reached ~1.8 on day 47, corresponding to a reduction by of 1.0 compared to the starting seawater value.

3.3 Ca(OH)₂ dissolution in filtered natural seawater

In the first $Ca(OH)_2$ experiment with a targeted TA addition of 250 μ mol kg⁻¹, TA increased by ~220 μ mol kg⁻¹ after 4 h of reaction, before stabilising at a Δ TA of ~210 μ mol kg⁻¹ for the rest of the experiment (Figure 2a). The DIC concentration increased relatively quickly over the first 6 days after the TA addition before slowing down, reaching about +70 μ mol kg⁻¹ by the end of the experiment (Figure 2b). Finally, Ω_{AF} reached ~4.1 after 4 hours, slightly decreasing over time, down to reaching 3.3 on day 28 (Figure 2c).

In the second Ca(OH)₂ experiment with a targeted TA addition of 500 μ mol kg⁻¹, TA increased by ~440 μ mol kg⁻¹ within the first 4_h (Figure 2a). This was followed by a relatively-steady decrease by of ~18 μ 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. Then, it levelled off at a Δ TA of about -420 μ mol kg⁻¹ towards the end of the experiment. Overall, about ~860 μ mol kg⁻¹ of TA was were lost compared to the highest TA recorded. The overall DIC concentration decreased as well, dropping in a similar fashion as TA₂ and reaching a Δ DIC of about -395 μ mol kg⁻¹ compared to the initial DIC concentration (Figure 2b). Ω _{AF} 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 2c).

3.4 Na₂CO₃, particle addition and filtration

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

In the second experiment, the addition of 1M Na₂CO₃ solution (Table 1) increased TA by 1070 μ mol kg⁻¹, while DIC increased by ~540 μ mol kg⁻¹ within minutes and remained stable (Figure 3a, 3b). After 2 days, quartz particles were added. While one day later-Whereas Δ TA and Δ DIC remained unchangedinvariant after one day, between day 5 and 12₂ Δ TA decreased to ~220 μ mol kg⁻¹ and Δ DIC dropped to ~120 μ mol kg⁻¹ (Figure 3a, 3b). Over the next month, Δ TA and Δ DIC continued to decrease, although at a slowing rate, reaching about -200 and -110 μ mol kg⁻¹, respectively, at the end of the study on day 42. Ω _{AF} followed a similar trend, with an increase from ~2.8 up to ~9.2 within the first 1.5 hours, and a pronounced significant decline to ~3.9 between day 5 and day 12, before stabilizing around ~2.0 at the end of the experiment on day 48.

In the last experiment, $Ca(OH)_2$ was added, aiming for a TA increase of 500 μ mol kg⁻¹ (Table 1), a level at which a significant TA decrease had been observed previously (Figure 2a). In contrast howeverto the previous experiment, upon filtration of the entire experimental bottle content after reaching ~470 μ mol kg⁻¹ at the 4-hour mark, the content of the bottle was filtered and Δ TA remained relatively constant between 465 and 470 μ mol kg⁻¹ over the following 48 days of experiment (Figure 3a). At the same time Meanwhile, Δ DIC increased from ~5 to 55 μ mol kg⁻¹ after filtration (Figure 3b). Ω_{AF} increased from ~2.8 to ~8.2 within the first 1.5 hours after Ca(OH)₂ addition, and then slightly decreased to ~7.5 over the 48 days of experiment (Figure 3c).

3.5 Dilution experiments

3.5.1 500 µmol kg⁻¹ addition

In these experiments with a targeted TA addition of 500 μ mol kg⁻¹ by Ca(OH)_{2 τ} addition. Δ TA increased 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 was a slightly slower decrease than previously (Figure 2Figure 4a). After a first increase in Δ DIC by ~10 μ mol kg⁻¹ on day 1, DIC Δ DIC steadily decreased to about -20 μ mol kg⁻¹ after two weeks (Figure 4b). Finally, Ω_{A_F} increased from ~2.7 to ~7.8 after 2 hours, before steadily decreasing to ~6.4 on day 14 (Figure 4c).

In the diluted treatments, ΔTA remained relatively stable over time, until the end of the experiments on day 29, regardless of dilution time (Figure 4a). Upon dilution, ΔTA was reduced, being very which were similar for the 10₂-minutes, 1₂-hour and 1₂-day dilutions. Overall, in the 1₂-week dilution, ΔTA was slightly lower, i.e., ~205 µmol kg⁻¹ instead of ~230 µmol kg⁻¹ on average. In all dilutions, ΔDIC increased over time, ranging between ~20 µmol kg⁻¹ and ~60 µmol kg⁻¹, independent of dilution timing. Finally, Ω_{AF} showed similar trends like to ΔTA , reaching between ~4.8 and ~5.2, and slightly decreasing over time until the end of the experiment.

3.5.2 2000 µmol kg⁻¹ addition

This set of experiments aimed for a TA increase of 2000 μ mol kg⁻¹ by Ca(OH)₂ addition. However, the TA only increased to ~1/3 of the theoretical targeted value, i.e., ~725 μ mol kg⁻¹ within the first two hours (Figure 4d). Following this increase, TA rapidly decreased during the first day, reaching a Δ TA of about -1260 μ mol kg⁻¹, and -1440 μ mol kg⁻¹ in the following week (Figure 4d). Over the second week of the experiment, TA appeared to stabilise before slightly increasing until day 21. In contrast, Δ DIC decreased by ~580 μ mol kg⁻¹ already within the first two hours, before rapidly dropping to about -1590 μ mol kg⁻¹ on day 1, and -1660 μ mol kg⁻¹ after 7 days (Figure 4e). Over the remaining 41 days, Δ DIC then-increased by ~210 μ mol kg⁻¹, although remaining about ~1450 μ mol kg⁻¹ under below the starting DIC concentration. Ω _{Ar} increased to ~16.7 after 2 hours, followed by a

rapid drop to \sim 3.2 on day 1 and \sim 2.0 on day 14, while slightly increasing the following 34 days, varying between 2.0 and 2.1 (Figure 4f).

Concerning-With respect to ΔTA , ΔDIC and Ω_{Ar} , the 10-minutes and 1-hour dilutions showed similar responses, as did the 1-day and 1-week dilutions. Upon dilution, ΔTA reached values of ~240 μ mol kg⁻¹ after the 10-minutes and 1-hour dilutions, and about -160 to -190 μ mol kg⁻¹ for after the 1-day and 1-week dilutions. With the exception of one data point in the 1-week dilution data, ΔTA remained relatively constant throughout all dilution experiments (Figure 4d). DIC changes were similar to the TA changes, slowly increasing over time between 0.6 and 2.5 μ mol 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-dilutions (Figure 4e). Finally, Ω_{Ar} dropped from ~5.0-5.1 to ~4.0-4.1 over time in the 10-minutes and 1-hour dilutions, while it decreased from ~2.3-2.8 to ~2.1-2.2 until day 21 in the 1-day and 1-week dilutions, before increasing to ~2.6-3.4 toward the end of the experiments (Figure 4f).

3.6 Particulate inorganic carbon

With the exception of the ~1050 TA addition by Na_2CO_3 plus quartz particles, measured PIC in experiments was always higher than estimates from measured ΔTA (Table 2). Furthermore, PIC estimated from the theoretical maximum TA increase upon full mineral dissolution, ΔTA_{Theo} , was always higher than estimated PIC from ΔTA , by about 7 to 14% in the ~500 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA additions with Ca(OH)₂ and CaO, respectively, and up to 67% in the experiment with ~2000 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA additions.

4 Discussion

This study presents the first results on investigating the dissolution of CaO and Ca(OH)₂ in natural seawater in the context of ocean alkalinity enhancementOAE. In some of our experiments with at least 500 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA increase, secondary precipitation was detected via through observed TA and DIC decreases, as well as PIC increases. More specifically, at TA additions leading to an Ω_{AF} higher than 7 (in the +500 and +1000 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA treatments), we observed "runaway CaCO₃ precipitation" was observed, meaning that, i.e., not only was the added TA was completely removed, but significant portions of residual seawater TA as well, until a new steady state was reached. This would vastly reduces the desired CO₂ removal potential by OAE and should therefore be avoided. In a subsequent set of experiments, we simulated ocean mixing to test estimate the required timescales required to avoid and/or stop secondary CaCO₃ precipitation for applications that initially have TA additions above the critical threshold.

4.1 Identifying CaCO₃ precipitation, the problem of 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 phasessurfaces. This differs from homogeneous precipitation, characterised by the formation of CaCO₃ crystals from Ca²⁺ and CO₃²⁻ ions 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 but 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 above which CaCO₃ precipitation is expected—to occur, the lowest threshold 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 CaCO₃ is precipitated, the TA of the solution decreases by 2 moles because due toof the removal of 1 mole of CO₃²⁻ ions, accounting which accounts for 2 moles of TA (Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). 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 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 polymorphs were predominant. In the +250 µmol kg⁻¹ TA additions by CaO and Ca(OH)₂, both appeared to fully dissolve without inducing $CaCO_3$ precipitation, as TA and Ω_{AF} 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 maxima after about a day and remaining stable over weeks (Figure 1a and 1c, Figure 2a and 2c). A slight increase in DIC was observed over time, as expected when since atmospheric CO₂ is ingassing was absorbed from the bottle headspace, which was created by removing when between 150 and to 200 mL of solution were withdrawn at each sampling point. The measured TA increase was slightly below the theoretically expected increase, which was most likely is assumed to be 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. On average, ~23% of alkalinity added was not detected in the experiments with CaO, and about 14% in-for the experiments with using Ca(OH)₂ (Table 1, Figure 1 and Figure 2).

In contrast, in the +500 µmol kg⁻¹ TA additions by CaO and Ca(OH)₂, TA started decreasing after about a one day, upon following the observed initial increase. If this TA loss was by through CaCO3 precipitation, DIC should be reduced by half this amount. AThe measured TA and DIC losses werend indeed, measured DIC loss was very close to this 2:1 ratio in for both the CaO and Ca(OH)₂ experiments with a TA addition of 500 µmol kg ¹ (950:465 and 860:395 for CaO and Ca(OH)₂, respectively). This suggests that TA was precipitated in the form of CaCO₃. The slight off-set can be explained by ingassing of CO₂ from the head-space which would-lowers the TA:DIC ratio, becoming visible only when precipitation ceases towards the end (Figure 1b). Another caveat is the 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. He This also explains why estimated PIC calculated from measured TA changes is generally smaller than actually measured PIC concentrations (Table 2). In the experiment with 1M Na₂CO₃ and quartz particles, the measured TA-based PIC estimates however, were larger than the measured PIC. This difference is difficult to explain. although we observed a and could be possibly linked to the observed 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. In any case, 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 summary, trying to estimate CaCO₃ precipitation from measured changes in TA, without

knowing how much TA was actually generated by full mineral dissolution or actual PIC measurements, might underestimate total precipitation.

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

An important finding in our experiments was that whenever CaCO₃ precipitation was observed, it continued even if the solution dropped below an Ω_{A_F} of ~4-5, levels at which no precipitation was were 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 an Ω_{A_F} of ~1.8-2.0. It therefore Therefore, it appears that when CaCO₃ is initially precipitated, CaCO₃ continues to precipitate in a runaway fashion, even if Ω_{A_F} drops below levels where precipitation would not be initiated in natural seawater. This is to be expected as CaCO₃ precipitates onto CaCO₃ mineral phases surfaces 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 pPrecipitation rate is directly proportional to Ω_{CaCO_3} , decreasing exponentially until reaching zero at an Ω_{CaCO_3} value of 1 (Figure A4). However, the question of why precipitation occurred at a much lower Ω_{CaCO_3} than anticipated (i.e., Ω_{CaCO_3} ~7.5 vs ~12.3), remains (Marion et al., 2009).

It is known that the presence of particles in suspension can initiate and accelerate $CaCO_3$ 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 $CaCO_3$ mineral phases should have caused precipitation at any saturation state above 1, i.e., also in the +250 µmol kg⁻¹ TA addition experiments. Furthermore, modelling precipitation using experimentally determined Ω_{AF} and surface area dependant aragonite precipitation rates onto $CaCO_3$ mineral phases (Zhong and Mucci, 1989), suggests that once precipitation becomes analytically detectable, it should proceed very rapidly before levelling off (Figure A5). Furthermore, while we expected $CaCO_3$ precipitation to stop at an $\Omega_{AF} \sim 1$, we observed it to stop at Ω_{AF} of ~ 2 . The presence of dissolved organic carbon and soluble reactive phosphate could have been slowingslowed down if not stopping-stopped $CaCO_3$ precipitation at an Ω_{AF} higher than 1 (Chave and Suess, 1970; Pan et al., 2021). We also observed that the bulk of precipitation occurred over a period of at least a week, after which an equilibration was reached with 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 $CaCO_3$ precipitation is heterogeneous precipitation on not yet dissolved CaO and $Ca(OH)_2$ particles (or other impurities), leading to $CaCO_3$ crystal formation and initiating runaway precipitation. The Ω_{AF} threshold for this process would depend on lattice compatibility of the mineral phases (Tang et al., 2020). For instance, $CaCO_3$ precipitation has been observed at any saturation state above 1 when introducing $CaCO_3$ seed particles. In contrast, Lioliou et al. (2007) did not report $CaCO_3$ precipitation onto quartz particles at an Ω_{AF} lower than 3.5, and in order to trigger $CaCO_3$ precipitation onto quartz particles, Ω_{AF} would need to be further increased. Here, we indeed-observed $CaCO_3$ precipitation on quartz particles at an Ω_{AF} of ~9.2 (Figure 3). The reason for an initially slower but then more rapid precipitation could be a combination of exponentially increasing $CaCO_3$ surface area, as well as concomitantly while increasing lattice compatibility (Lioliou et al., 2007; Pan et al., 2021). The filtration of TA_enriched seawater supports this idea, since not yet dissolved mineral

phases that could facilitate early nucleation are were removed, preventing runaway CaCO₃ precipitation (Figure 3).

Needle-shaped aragonite precipitation onto quartz particles (Figure 5c and 5d) was directly observed by SEM imaging. EDX analyses identified the larger mineral to be rich in silicon, a key 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 µmol kg⁻¹ TA addition is difficult to prove as EDX analyses revealed the presence of Ca and O₇ both present-in both the mineral feedstocks and aragonite (Figure 5a and 5b). Finally, in some situations (Figure 5b), round crystals were also observed, suggesting the presence of vaterite (Chang et al., 2017). HoweverNevertheless, aragonite crystals represented the majority of CaCO₃ observed by SEM.

4.3 Impacts of CaCO₃ precipitation on OAE potential

From an OAE perspective, CaCO₃ precipitation is an important chemical reaction that needs to be avoided. During CaCO₃ precipitation, dissolved [CO₃²⁻] and $\Omega_{\text{CaCO}3}$ are decreasing decrease, and [CO₂] is increasing increases, which reduces the ocean's uptake capacity for atmospheric CO₂, hence impacting the 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 of 416 μ atm, a pH_T value (total scale) of 8.04, and an Ω_{A_F} of 2.80. Without CaCO₃ precipitation, an addition of 500 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA would lower pCO₂ to ~92 μ atm and while increase increasing pH_T and Ω_{AF} to about 8.61 and 8.45, respectively. If fully re-equilibrated with the atmosphere, DIC would increase by about 420 µmol kg⁻¹, leading to a pH_T and Ω_{A_F} , respectively, 0.07 and 1.10 higher than prior to the addition, respectively (Table 3). The resulting OAE efficiency would be 0.83 mole of atmospheric CO₂ absorbed per mole of TA added, very similar to estimates by Köhler et al. (2010). Considering that CaCO₃ is the source material for CaO and Ca(OH)₂, and the fact that 2 moles of TA are produced per mole of CaO or Ca(OH)₂ mineral dissolution, ~0.7 tonnes of CO₂ could be captured per tonne of source material, assuming CO₂ 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 a constant addition of Ca(OH)₂ at of 10 Gt year (Feng et al., 2016), we could expect to absorb an additional 7 Gt of CO₂ per year. To put these model-derived numbers into perspective, the global cement industry currently produces about 4.1 Gt of cement per year (Statista, 2021). Depending on whether hydraulic (4CaO·Al₂O₃·Fe₂O₃) or non-hydraulic (Ca(OH)₂) cement is being produced, and assuming a molar Ca²⁺ to CO₂ sequestration potential of 1.6, up to 3.9 Gt of atmospheric CO₂ could be captured per year. This is within the range required over the next 30 years to keep global warming below the 2 °C target, as in the shared socioeconomic pathway RCP2.6 scenario This is on the order required to be built-up in the next 30 years, based on the shared socioeconomic pathways RCP2.6 scenario that would keep global warming below the 2 °C target (Huppmann et al., 2018).

However, theseThe above numbers can only be obtained-achieved if CaO or Ca(OH)₂ when dissolution is complete without CaCO₃ precipitation. Hypothetically, when if as much CaCO₃ precipitates as TA was is added i.e., 100 μmol kg⁻¹ of CaCO₃ precipitate after a TA increase of 100 μmol kg⁻¹, only 1 instead of 1.6 moles of DIC can be absorbed per 2 moles of TA₂ after equilibration with atmospheric pCO₂ (Table 3). This represents a decrease

by nearly 40% in OAE potential. Similarly, runaway $CaCO_3$ precipitation until an Ω_{Ar} of 2.0, as observed here, decreases the OAE potential further by almost 90%. ThenConsequently, only ~0.14 mole of DIC would be absorbed per mole of TA added (Table 3). Furthermore, secondary $CaCO_3$ precipitation higher than TA addition will lead to pH_T and Ω_{CaCO_3} levels lower than the 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 (Table 3). Runaway $CaCO_3$ precipitation for a TA addition of 1000 μ mol kg⁻¹ (assumed to cease at an Ω_{Ar} of 2 as observed here) would see a further drop in even see Ω_{Ar} drop further, i.e., to below 1, upon CO_2 re-equilibration with the atmosphere (Table 3). Under such conditions, aragonite would start to dissolve, impacting various living beingsmarine organisms, especially carbonate-secreting as it is an important biomineral for a variety of marine organisms, e.g., sessile corals, benthic molluses and planktonic pteropods (Riebesell et al., 2011; Zeebe and Wolf-Gladrow, 2001). In summary, runaway $CaCO_3$ precipitation in OAE has tomust be avoided as it will not only reducing reduce CO_2 uptake efficiency significantly but also capable of enhancing enhance ocean acidification. Keeping track of OAE efficiency from changes in TA concentrations can be challenging as $CaCO_3$ precipitation can be underestimated as described earlier, requiring new and clever monitoring strategies.

4.4 Avoiding CaCO₃ precipitation by dilution and other TA addition strategies

An important aspect when it comes to avoiding CaCO₃ precipitation is the 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 could appeared to seemingly stop-inhibit CaCO₃ precipitation in seawater, even if performed only after one week for the +500 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA addition. At a first glance, this comes at as a surprise as since precipitation nuclei would only be diluted by half, hence reducing surface area and precipitation rates by a factor of 2. However, as Ω_{AF} is significantly simultaneously reduced simultaneously, precipitation rates are further reduced by a factor of 10 (see Figure A4). Hence, overall precipitation rate would see a reduction by a factor of 20. This should slow down continuing precipitation initially initiated upon the alkalinity addition, if on CaCO₃ particles, but not completely inhibit it (Zhong and Mucci, 1989). A possible explanation could be that dilution would have lowered lowers Ω_{AF} below the critical threshold, for overcoming the 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 5c and 5d).

Overall, $CaCO_3$ precipitation could can be avoided if the $TA+500 \,\mu\text{mol}\,kg^{-1}$ enriched seawater is diluted 1:1, reaching an Ω_{AF} of ~5.0. The quicker dilution takes place, the less $CaCO_3$ would precipitate prior to dilution. Similar results were found for a TA addition of $+2000 \,\mu\text{mol}\,kg^{-1}$, i.e., the ability to stop precipitation at an Ω_{AF} 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 rapid aragonite precipitation at a higher initial Ω_{AF} of about 16.7 would significantly reduce the CO_2 uptake efficiency. Furthermore, the difficulty to-in monitoring precipitation from simple TA measurements (as described above) would also mean that quantification of CO_2 removal is not straightforward. Hence Therefore, in order to assign carbon credits, TA additions have to be done in a way that rule out or at least minimise secondary $CaCO_3$ precipitation. This is true for any type of TA addition, and is not specific to additions of quick and hydrated lime.

Adding TA from land, as modelled by Feng et al. (2017), shows that the as more TA is added, the higher coastal Ω_{Ar} would be reached. By staying elearly well below the Ω_{Ar} threshold identified here, i.e., limiting coastal Ω_{Ar} to only 3.2, up to ~550 Gt of carbon in the form of CO_2 could be removed from the atmosphere between 2020 and 2100, corresponding to a reduction by about 260 ppm (Feng et al., 2017). The critical Ω_{Ar} threshold beyond which secondary $CaCO_3$ precipitation would be observed occurs could be higher for other alkaline minerals of interest for OAE, 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, $CaCO_3$ could precipitate onto other mineral particles than those added to increase TA. This has been observed in river plumes (Wurgaft et al., 2021), on resuspended sediments of 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, expense with minerals potentially allowing for higher TA additions, an Ω_{Ar} threshold of 5 might be safer to adopt. However, and the potentially allowing 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).

Finally, another option to increase atmospheric CO_2 uptake would be to not add minerals to seawater directly, but to keep the seawater equilibrated with air or CO_2 —enriched flue gases, during mineral dissolution. Firstly, this would allow reaching an Ω_{A_F} of 3.35 would be reached as opposed to 3.35 in the +250 µmol kg⁻¹ TA scenario (Table 3), when equilibration occurs after during instead of during after the dissolution process. And sSecondly, when reaching an Ω_{A_F} of 5 with CO_2 equilibration, 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 Unfortunately, this requires represent an extra step, which appears to be far more time and cost consuming and costly than a simple mineral addition. It has should also to be kept in mind that for the same Ω_{A_F} threshold, the amount of TA that can be added will increase with at lower temperatures, as because of higher CO_2 solubility and, hence, naturally lower Ω_{A_F} in colder waters. Based on our Ω_{A_F} threshold of 5, at a salinity of 35 and at 5 °C, about three times as much TA can be dissolved as opposed to a temperature of than at 30 °C.

5 Conclusions

Ocean alkalinity enhancementOAE is a negative emission technology with relatively a large potential for atmospheric CO₂ removal (Caserini et al., 2021; Feng et al., 2016; Köhler et al., 2010). In order to maximise earbon dioxide (CO₂) uptake efficiency, secondary ealcium earbonate (CaCO₃) precipitation has to be avoided. Here, we show that an increase of total alkalinity (TA) by 500 μ mol kg⁻¹ led to aragonite precipitation, reducing the CO₂ uptake potential from about 0.8 moles per mole of alkalinity-TA added to less than nearly 0.2-1 moles. Precipitation most likely occurred onto the CaO and Ca(OH)₂ mineral phases—surfaces prior to their full dissolution. In contrast, an addition of 250 μ mol kg⁻¹ of TA did not result in CaCO₃ precipitation, suggesting that an aragonite saturation state (Ω _{Ar}) of about 5 is a safe limit. This is probably also the case for other minerals with even lower lattice compatibility for CaCO₃, because in coastal settings, since CaCO₃ could precipitate onto naturally present mineral phases in coastal settings, such as resuspended sediments. Safely increasing the amount of TA that could be added to the ocean could be achieved by 1) allowing for major mixing and dilution of enriched

seawater by coastal tides or in the wake of ships, 2 equilibrating the seawater to atmospheric CO₂ levels prior to the addition during mineral dissolution, and/or 3 targeting low rather than high temperature regions.

Data availability

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

Author contributions

CAM and KGS designed the initial experiments. All co-authors contributed to the initial data analysis and designing of follow-up 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 the co-authors.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Marian Bailey for her help with ICP_MS sample preparation, as well as Dr Nick Ward for his help with preliminary X-ray Diffraction analyses of the calcium powders. We are also thankful to Dr Matheus Carvalho de Carvalho for the particulate carbon analyses and Nadia Toppler for her help arranging the use of the SEM.

Financial support

This research is part of the PhD project of CAM that is funded by a Cat. 5 - SCU Grad School scholarship from the Southern Cross University, Lismore, Australia. The ICP_MS analyses were made possible by the Australian Research Council grants number LE200100022 by to RJB and KGS, and LE120100201 obtained by RJB.

References

Bach, L. T., Gill, S., Rickaby, R., Gore, S., and Renforth, P.: CO2CO2 removal with enhanced weathering and ocean alkalinity enhancement: Potential risks and co-benefits for marine pelagic ecosystems, Frontiers in Climate, 1, 7, 2019.

Bates, N., Best, M., Neely, K., Garley, R., Dickson, A., and Johnson, R.: Detecting anthropogenic carbon dioxide uptake and ocean acidification in the North Atlantic Ocean, Biogeosciences Discussions, 9, 2012.

Boyd, P., Vivian, C., Boettcher, M., Chai, F., Cullen, J., Goeschl, T., Lampitt, R., Lenton, A., Oschlies, A., and Rau, G.: High level review of a wide range of proposed marine geoengineering techniques, 2019.

Burt, D. J., Fröb, F., and Ilyina, T.: The sensitivity of the marine carbonate system to regional ocean alkalinity enhancement, Frontiers in Climate, 3, 2021.

Bustos-Serrano, H., Morse, J. W., and Millero, F. J.: The formation of whitings on the Little Bahama Bank, Marine Chemistry, 113, 1-8, 2009.

Canadell, J. G., Le Quéré, C., Raupach, M. R., Field, C. B., Buitenhuis, E. T., Ciais, P., Conway, T. J., Gillett, N. P., Houghton, R., and Marland, G.: Contributions to accelerating atmospheric CO2CO2 growth from economic activity, carbon intensity, and efficiency of natural sinks, Proceedings of the Neational Academy of Seciences, 104, 18866-18870, 2007.

Carter, B. R., Feely, R. A., Wanninkhof, R., Kouketsu, S., Sonnerup, R. E., Pardo, P. C., Sabine, C. L., Johnson, G. C., Sloyan, B. M., and Murata, A.: Pacific anthropogenic carbon between 1991 and 2017, Global Biogeochemical Cycles, 33, 597-617, 2019.

Caserini, S., Pagano, D., Campo, F., Abbà, A., De Marco, S., Righi, D., Renforth, P., and Grosso, M.: Potential of Maritime Transport for Ocean Liming and Atmospheric CO2CO2 Removal, Frontiers in Climate, 3, 22, 2021. Chang, R., Kim, S., Lee, S., Choi, S., Kim, M., and Park, Y.: Calcium carbonate precipitation for CO2CO2 storage and utilization: a review of the carbonate crystallization and polymorphism, Frontiers in Energy Research, 5, 17, 2017.

Chave, K. E. and Suess, E.: Calcium Carbonate Saturation in Seawater: Effects of Dissolved Organic Matter 1, Limnology and Oceanography, 15, 633-637, 1970.

Chen, T., Neville, A., and Yuan, M.: Calcium carbonate scale formation—assessing the initial stages of precipitation and deposition, Journal of Petroleum Science and Engineering, 46, 185-194, 2005.

Cyronak, T., Schulz, K. G., Santos, I. R., and Eyre, B. D.: Enhanced acidification of global coral reefs driven by regional biogeochemical feedbacks, Geophysical Research Letters, 41, 5538-5546, 2014.

De Choudens-Sanchez, V. and Gonzalez, L. A.: Calcite and aragonite precipitation under controlled instantaneous supersaturation: elucidating the role of CaCO3 saturation state and Mg/Ca ratio on calcium carbonate polymorphism, Journal of Sedimentary Research, 79, 363-376, 2009.

Dickson, A. G. and Millero, F. J.: A comparison of the equilibrium constants for the dissociation of carbonic acid in seawater media, Deep Sea Research Part A. Oceanographic Research Papers, 34, 1733–1743, 1987.

Dickson, A. G.: Standards for ocean measurements, Oceanography, 23, 34-47, 2010.

<u>Dickson, A. G. and Millero, F. J.: A comparison of the equilibrium constants for the dissociation of carbonic acid in seawater media, Deep Sea Research Part A. Oceanographic Research Papers, 34, 1733-1743, 1987.</u>

Dickson, A. G., Sabine, C. L., and Christian, J. R.: Guide to best practices for ocean CO2CO2 measurements, PICES Special Publication 3; IOCCP Report 8, Sidney, British Columbia, North Pacific Marine Science Organization, 191 pp., 10.25607/OBP-1342, 2007.

Doney, S. C., Fabry, V. J., Feely, R. A., and Kleypas, J. A.: Ocean acidification: the other CO2CO2 problem, Annual Review of Mmarine Science, 1, 169-192, 2009.

Feng, E. Y., Keller, D. P., Koeve, W., and Oschlies, A.: Could artificial ocean alkalinization protect tropical coral ecosystems from ocean acidification?, Environmental Research Letters, 11, 074008, 2016.

Feng, E. Y., Koeve, W., Keller, D. P., and Oschlies, A.: Model-Based Assessment of the CO2CO2 Sequestration Potential of Coastal Ocean Alkalinization, Earth's Future, 5, 1252-1266, 2017.

Friedlingstein, P., Jones, M. W., O'Sullivan, M., Andrew, R. M., Bakker, D. C., Hauck, J., Le Quéré, C., Peters, G. P., Peters, W., and Pongratz, J.: Global carbon budget 2021, Earth System Science Data, 14, 1917-2005, 2022. Gafar, N. A. and Schulz, K. G.: A three-dimensional niche comparison of *Emiliania huxleyi* and *Gephyrocapsa oceanica*: reconciling observations with projections, Biogeosciences, 15, 3541-3560, 2018.

Gattuso, J.-P., Magnan, A., Billé, R., Cheung, W. W., Howes, E. L., Joos, F., Allemand, D., Bopp, L., Cooley, S. R., and Eakin, C. M.: Contrasting futures for ocean and society from different anthropogenic CO2CO2 emissions scenarios, Science, 349, aac4722, 2015.

GESAMP: High level review of a wide range of proposed marine geoengineering techniques. (Boyd, P.W. and Vivian, C.M.G., eds.). (IMO/FAO/UNESCO-IOC/UNIDO/WMO/IAEA/UN/UN Environment/UNDP/ISA Joint Group of Experts on the Scientific Aspects of Marine Environmental Protection). Rep. Stud. GESAMP No. 98, 144 p.1020-4873, 2019.

González, M. F. and Ilyina, T.: Impacts of artificial ocean alkalinization on the carbon cycle and climate in Earth system simulations, Geophysical Research Letters, 43, 6493-6502, 2016.

Goodwin, P., Brown, S., Haigh, I. D., Nicholls, R. J., and Matter, J. M.: Adjusting mitigation pathways to stabilize climate at 1.5 °C and 2.0 °C rise in global temperatures to year 2300, Earth's Future, 6, 601-615, 2018.

Harvey, L.: Mitigating the atmospheric CO2CO2 increase and ocean acidification by adding limestone powder to upwelling regions, Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans, 113, 2008.

Hoegh-Guldberg, O., Jacob, D., Taylor, M., Bolaños, T. G., Bindi, M., Brown, S., Camilloni, I., Diedhiou, A., Djalante, R., and Ebi, K.: The human imperative of stabilizing global climate change at 1.5_°C, Secience, 365, eaaw6974, 2019.

Hoegh-Guldberg, O., Mumby, P. J., Hooten, A. J., Steneck, R. S., Greenfield, P., Gomez, E., Harvell, C. D., Sale, P. F., Edwards, A. J., and Caldeira, K.: Coral reefs under rapid climate change and ocean acidification, Science, 318, 1737-1742, 2007.

Huppmann, D., Kriegler, E., Krey, V., Riahi, K., Rogelj, J., Rose, S. K., Weyant, J., Bauer, N., Bertram, C., and Bosetti, V.: IAMC 1.5_°C Scenario Explorer and Data hosted by IIASA, Integrated Assessment Modeling Consortium & International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis, 10, 2018.

Ilyina, T., Wolf-Gladrow, D., Munhoven, G., and Heinze, C.: Assessing the potential of calcium-based artificial ocean alkalinization to mitigate rising atmospheric CO2CO2 and ocean acidification, Geophysical Research Letters, 40, 5909-5914, 2013.

IPCC: Summary for Policymakers. In: Climate Change 2021: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change [Masson-Delmotte, V., P. Zhai, A. Pirani, S. L. Connors, C. Péan, S. Berger, N. Caud, Y. Chen, L. Goldfarb, M. I. Gomis, M. Huang, K. Leitzell, E. Lonnoy, J.B.R. Matthews, T. K. Maycock, T. Waterfield, O. Yelekçi, R. Yu and B. Zhou (eds.)]. Cambridge University Press. In Press., 2021.

Keller, D. P., Feng, E. Y., and Oschlies, A.: Potential climate engineering effectiveness and side effects during a high carbon dioxide-emission scenario, Nature Ceommunications, 5, 1-11, 2014.

Kheshgi, H. S.: Sequestering atmospheric carbon dioxide by increasing ocean alkalinity, Energy, 20, 915-922, 1995.

Köhler, P., Hartmann, J., and Wolf-Gladrow, D. A.: Geoengineering potential of artificially enhanced silicate weathering of olivine, Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 107, 20228-20233, 2010.

Köhler, P., Abrams, J. F., Völker, C., Hauck, J., and Wolf-Gladrow, D. A.: Geoengineering impact of open ocean dissolution of olivine on atmospheric CO2CO2, surface ocean pH and marine biology, Environmental Research Letters, 8, 014009, 2013.

Köhler, P., Hartmann, J., and Wolf-Gladrow, D. A.: Geoengineering potential of artificially enhanced silicate weathering of olivine, Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 107, 20228-20233, 2010.

Lenton, A., Matear, R. J., Keller, D. P., Scott, V., and Vaughan, N. E.: Assessing carbon dioxide removal through global and regional ocean alkalinization under high and low emission pathways, Earth System Dynamics, 9, 339-357, 2018.

Lenton, T. M. and Vaughan, N. E.: The radiative forcing potential of different climate geoengineering options, Atmos-pheric Chem-istry and Phys-ics, 9, 5539-5561, Discuss., V, 2009.

Lewis, E. and Perkin, R.: The practical salinity scale 1978: conversion of existing data, Deep Sea Research Part A. Oceanographic Research Papers, 28, 307-328, 1981.

Lioliou, M. G., Paraskeva, C. A., Koutsoukos, P. G., and Payatakes, A. C.: Heterogeneous nucleation and growth of calcium carbonate on calcite and quartz, Journal of Ceolloid and Linterface Secience, 308, 421-428, 2007.

Lueker, T. J., Dickson, A. G., and Keeling, C. D.: Ocean pCO2CO₂ calculated from dissolved inorganic carbon, alkalinity, and equations for K1 and K2: validation based on laboratory measurements of CO2CO₂ in gas and seawater at equilibrium, Marine Cehemistry, 70, 105-119, 2000.

Marion, G., Millero, F. J., and Feistel, R.: Precipitation of solid phase calcium carbonates and their effect on application of seawater SA–T–P models, Ocean Science, 5, 285, 2009.

Mehrbach, C., Culberson, C., Hawley, J., and Pytkowicx, R.: Measurement of the apparent dissociation constants of carbonic acid in seawater at atmospheric pressure 1, Limnology and Occanography, 18, 897-907, 1973.

Millero, F., Huang, F., Zhu, X., Liu, X., and Zhang, J.-Z.: Adsorption and desorption of phosphate on calcite and aragonite in seawater, Aquatic Geochemistry, 7, 33-56, 2001.

Mongin, M., Baird, M. E., Lenton, A., Neill, C., and Akl, J.: Reversing ocean acidification along the Great Barrier Reef using alkalinity injection, Environmental Research Letters, 16, 064068, 2021.

Montserrat, F., Renforth, P., Hartmann, J., Leermakers, M., Knops, P., and Meysman, F. J.: Olivine dissolution in seawater: implications for CO2CO2 sequestration through enhanced weathering in coastal environments, Environmental Socience & Technology, 51, 3960-3972, 2017.

Morse, J. W. and He, S.: Influences of T, S and PCO2 on the pseudo-homogeneous precipitation of CaCO3 from seawater: implications for whiting formation, Marine Chemistry, 41, 291-297, 1993.

Morse, J. W., Arvidson, R. S., and Lüttge, A.: Calcium carbonate formation and dissolution, Chemical Reviews, 107, 342-381, 2007.

Morse, J. W., Gledhill, D. K., and Millero, F. J.: <u>Caco3CaCO3</u> precipitation kinetics in waters from the great Bahama bank: Implications for the relationship between bank hydrochemistry and whitings, Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 67, 2819-2826, 2003.

Morse, J. W. and He, S.: Influences of T, S and PCO2pCO2 on the pseudo-homogeneous precipitation of CaCO3CaCO3 from seawater: implications for whiting formation, Marine Chemistry, 41, 291-297, 1993.

Morse, J. W., Wang, Q., and Tsio, M. Y.: Influences of temperature and Mg: Ca ratio on CaCO³₂ precipitates from seawater, Geology, 25, 85-87, 1997.

Mucci, A.: The solubility of calcite and aragonite in seawater at various salinities, temperatures, and one atmosphere total pressure, American, Journal, of Science, 283, 780-799, 1983.

National Academies of Sciences, E. and Medicine: A Research Strategy for Ocean-based Carbon Dioxide Removal and Sequestration, The National Academies Press, Washington, DC, 360 pp., doi:10.17226/26278, 2021. Ni, M. and Ratner, B. D.: Differentiating calcium carbonate polymorphs by surface analysis techniques—an XPS and TOF-SIMS study, Surface and Interface Analysis: An International Journal devoted to the development and application of techniques for the analysis of surfaces, interfaces and thin films, 40, 1356-1361, 2008.

Pan, Y., Li, Y., Ma, Q., He, H., Wang, S., Sun, Z., Cai, W.-J., Dong, B., Di, Y., and Fu, W.: The role of Mg²⁺ in inhibiting CaCO3CaCO₃ precipitation from seawater, Marine Chemistry, 104036, 2021.

Pytkowicz, R. M.: Rates of inorganic calcium carbonate nucleation, The Journal of Geology, 73, 196-199, 1965. Renforth, P. and Henderson, G.: Assessing ocean alkalinity for carbon sequestration, Reviews of Geophysics, 55, 636-674, 2017.

Renforth, P. and Kruger, T.: Coupling mineral carbonation and ocean liming, Energy & fuels, 27, 4199-4207, 2013.

Renforth, P., Jenkins, B., and Kruger, T.: Engineering challenges of ocean liming, Energy, 60, 442-452, 2013. Renforth, P. and Kruger, T.: Coupling mineral carbonation and ocean liming, Energy & Ffuels, 27, 4199-4207, 2013.

Riebesell, U., Fabry, V. J., Hansson, L., and Gattuso, J.-P.: Guide to best practices for ocean acidification research and data reporting, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, <u>Luxembourg</u>, <u>258 pp.</u>, <u>10.2777/66906</u>, 2011.

Riley, J. and Tongudai, M.: The major cation/chlorinity ratios in sea water, Chemical Geology, 2, 263-269, 1967. Rushdi, A., Pytkowicz, R., Suess, E., and Chen, C.: The effects of magnesium-to-calcium ratios in artificial seawater, at different ionic products, upon the induction time, and the mineralogy of calcium carbonate: a laboratory study, Geologische Rundschau, 81, 571-578, 1992.

Schulz, K. G., Bach, L. T., Bellerby, R. G., Bermúdez, R., Büdenbender, J., Boxhammer, T., Czerny, J., Engel, A., Ludwig, A., and Meyerhöfer, M.: Phytoplankton blooms at increasing levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide: experimental evidence for negative effects on prymnesiophytes and positive on small picoeukaryotes, Frontiers in Marine Science, 4, 64, 2017.

Simkiss, K.: The inhibitory effects of some metabolites on the precipitation of calcium carbonate from artificial and natural sea water, ICES Journal of Marine Science, 29, 6-18, 1964.

Statista: Global cement industry - Statistics & Facts. See: https://www.statista.com/topics/8700/cement-industry-worldwide/, 2021.

Tang, H., Wu, X., Xian, H., Zhu, J., Wei, J., Liu, H., and He, H.: Heterogeneous Nucleation and Growth of CaCO₃₂ on Calcite (104) and Aragonite (110) Surfaces: Implications for the Formation of Abiogenic Carbonate Cements in the Ocean, Minerals, 10, 294, 2020.

The Royal Society and Royal Academy of Engineering: Greenhouse Gas Removal. See: https://royalsociety.org/-/media/policy/projects/greenhouse-gas-removal/royal-society-greenhouse-gas-removal-report-2018.pdf, 2018. Uppstrom, L.: The boron/chlorinity ratio of deep-sea water from the Pacific Ocean, Deep Sea Research., 21, 161-

Uppstrom, L.: The boron/chlorinity ratio of deep-sea water from the Pacific Ocean, Deep Sea Res<u>earch</u>., 21, 161-162, 1974.

Wolf-Gladrow, D. A., Zeebe, R. E., Klaas, C., Körtzinger, A., and Dickson, A. G.: Total alkalinity: The explicit conservative expression and its application to biogeochemical processes, Marine Chemistry, 106, 287-300, 2007. Wolf, S. E., Leiterer, J., Kappl, M., Emmerling, F., and Tremel, W.: Early homogenous amorphous precursor stages of calcium carbonate and subsequent crystal growth in levitated droplets, Journal of the American Chemical Society, 130, 12342-12347, 2008.

Wurgaft, E., Steiner, Z., Luz, B., and Lazar, B.: Evidence for inorganic precipitation of CaCO3CaCO3 on suspended solids in the open water of the Red Sea, Marine Chemistry, 186, 145-155, 2016.

Wurgaft, E., Wang, Z., Churchill, J., Dellapenna, T., Song, S., Du, J., Ringham, M., Rivlin, T., and Lazar, B.: Particle triggered reactions as an important mechanism of alkalinity and inorganic carbon removal in river plumes, Geophysical Research Letters, e2021GL093178, 2021.

Zeebe, R. E. and Wolf-Gladrow, D.: $\underline{\text{CO2}\underline{\text{CO}_2}}$ in seawater: equilibrium, kinetics, isotopes, 65, Gulf Professional

Publishing, 2001. Zhong, S. and Mucci, A.: Calcite and aragonite precipitation from seawater solutions of various salinities: Precipitation rates and overgrowth compositions, Chemical Ggeology, 78, 283-299, 1989.

Table 1: Summary of experimental conditions. Please note that for comparability, more TA was added in the liquid than the sieved approaches to match the theoretical increases in calcium carbonate saturation state (see Methods section for details).

TA Agent	TA target (µmol kg ⁻¹)	Comments	Amount added in mg (or mL*)	Amount of natural seawater in kg	mg kg ⁻¹ (or mL kg ^{-1*})	Theoretical TA addition (μmol kg ⁻¹)	Recorded TA addition (µmol kg¹)	Experiment duration	Additional samples apart from TA and DIC
				Sieved calcium minerals experiments	m minerals	experiments			
CaO	250	Sieved in	15.50	2.015-90	69.7	274.21	216.49	47 days	N/A
CaO	500	Sieved in	30.60	2 <u>.</u> 004 . 5 0	15.27	544.42	410.70	47 days	TPC, POC and SEM samples
$Ca(OH)_2$	250	Sieved in	19.90	2.001.90	9.94	268.34	221.96	28 days	N/A
Ca(OH) ₂	200	Sieved in	37.40	2 <u>.</u> 004 . 2 0	18.66	503.73	440.19	42 days	TPC, POC and SEM samples
			Na;	CO3, particle	s and filtra	Na ₂ CO ₃ , particles and filtration experiments	S		
Na ₂ CO ₃	1050	1M Na ₂ CO ₃ solution	1.05*	2 <u>.</u> 000 . 6 0	0.52	1050.32	1057.41	42 days	N/A
Na ₂ CO ₃	1050	1M Na ₂ CO ₃ solution, plus quartz powder after 2 days	1.05*	2_000-39	0.5	1050.16	1073.92	48 days	TPC, POC and SEM samples
Ca(OH) ₂	500	Sieved in, filtered after 4 hours	39.30	2 <u>.</u> 004 . 3 0	19.61	529.30	470.79	48 days	N/A
				Dilut	Dilution experiments	nents			
Ca(OH) ₂	500	1:1 dilution after 10min, 1 hour, 1 day	101.60	5_132-50	19.80	534.36	452.65	14 days	TPC, POC and SEM samples
		and 1 week 1:7 dilution							
Ca(OH) ₂	2000	arter 10min, 1 hour, 1 day and 1 week	155.90	2 <u>.</u> 003 . 8 0	77.80	2100.21	724.04	48 days	IFC, FOC 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 (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	543.24	476.38	491.82 ±39.18
500 TA – Ca(OH) ₂	462.28	430.51	550.87 ±71.32
1050 TA – 1M Na ₂ CO ₃ + Quartz Particles	627.20	639.07	397.37 ±24.03
500 TA – Ca(OH) ₂ Dilution	107.05	66.20	89.51 ±4.27
2000 TA – Ca(OH) ₂ Dilution	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_{A+} 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 A3, Appendix. *Note: the value for Ω_{A+} is rounded to 1.00 but calculated at 0.997. Table 3: Simulations of the changes in TA, DIC, Ω_{A*} , pCO₂ and pH_T (total scale) after TA increases of 250, 500 and 1000 µmol kg⁻¹, assuming complete

		C Y	T/	TA +500 µmol kg ⁻¹	, 1-1	TA	TA +1000 μmol kg ⁻¹	g-1
	Conditions (salinity = 35 19 °C)	μmol kg ⁻¹ No CaCO ₃ precipitation	No CaCO ₃ Prec.	CaCO ₃ Prec. = TA added	CaCO ₃ Prec. until $\Omega_{A\epsilon}$ of	No CaCO ₃ Prec.	CaCO ₃ Prec. = TA added	CaCO ₃ Prec. until Ω_{A_F} of
TA (µmol kg ⁻¹)	2350	2600	2850	2350	1748	3350	2350	1320
DIC (µmol kg ⁻¹)	2100	2100	2100	 1850 	1549	2100	1600	1085
$\Omega_{\mathrm{A}^{\mathrm{F}}}$	2.80	5.53	8.45	5.34	2.00	14.57	7.89	2.00
pCO ₂ (µatm)	416.2	175.1	91.5	135.6	319.2	29.6	48.2	144.81
$ m pH_T$	8.04	8.38	8.61	8.42	8.02	8.97	8.73	8.20
			After re-equilib	After re-equilibration, i.e., pCO $_{\rm 2}$ ~416 μatm	416 µatm			
Final TA (µmol kg ⁻¹)	2350	2600	2850	2350	1748	3350	2350	1320
Final DIC (μ mol kg ⁻¹)	2100	2309	2517	2100	1588	2926.5	2100	1216
Final $\Omega_{A_{ extbf{F}}}$	2.80	3.34	3.90	2.80	1.66	5.14	2.80	1.00*
Final $ m pH_T$	8.04	8.08	8.11	8.04	7.93	8.17	8.04	7.82
CO ₂ uptake (mole/mole TA)	NA	0.84	0.83	0.50	0.08	0.83	0.50	0.13

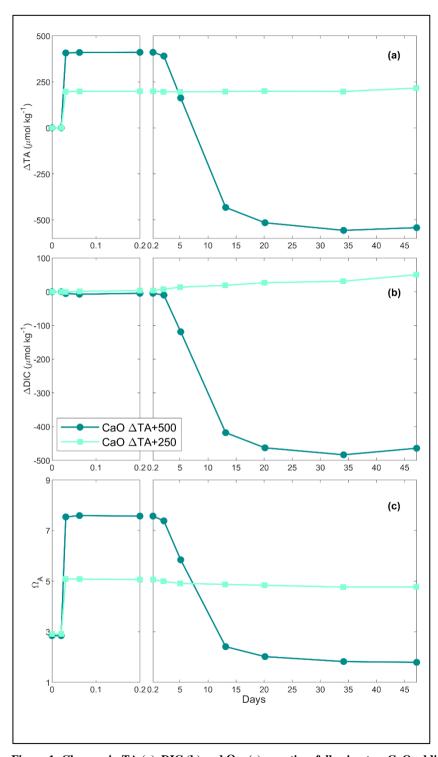


Figure 1: Changes in TA (a), DIC (b) and Ω_{Ar} (c) over time following two CaO additions.

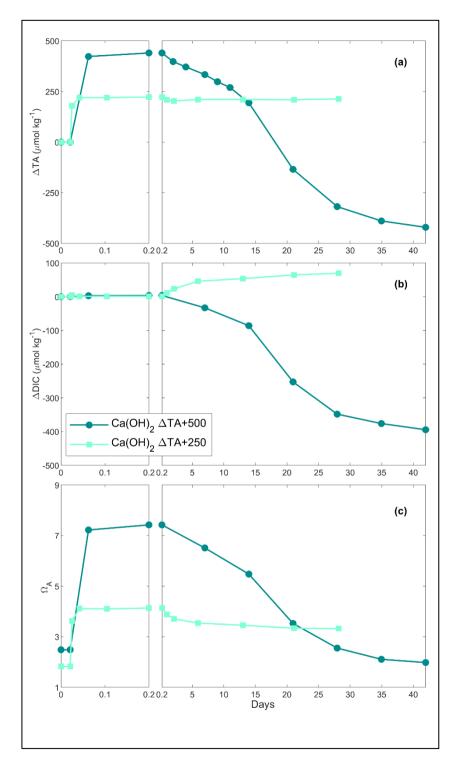


Figure 2: Changes in TA (a), DIC (b) and Ω_{Af} (c) of the samples over time following two Ca(OH)₂ additions.

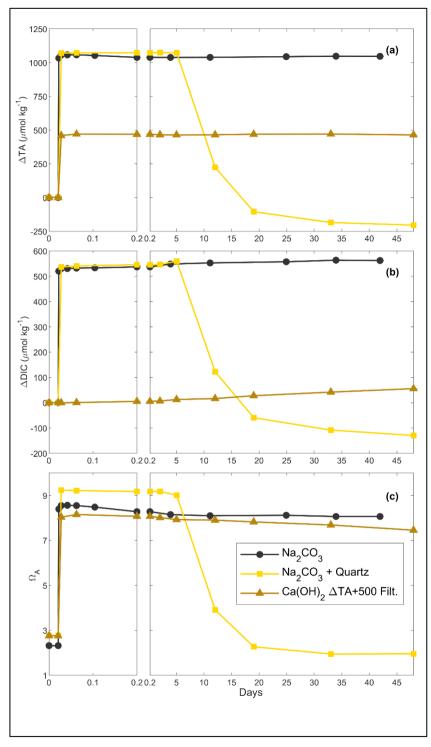


Figure 3: Changes in TA (a), DIC (b) and Ω_{Ar} (c) over time following additions of Na₂CO₃, Na₂CO₃ plus quartz particles and Ca(OH)₂ followed by a filtration step (see Methods for details).

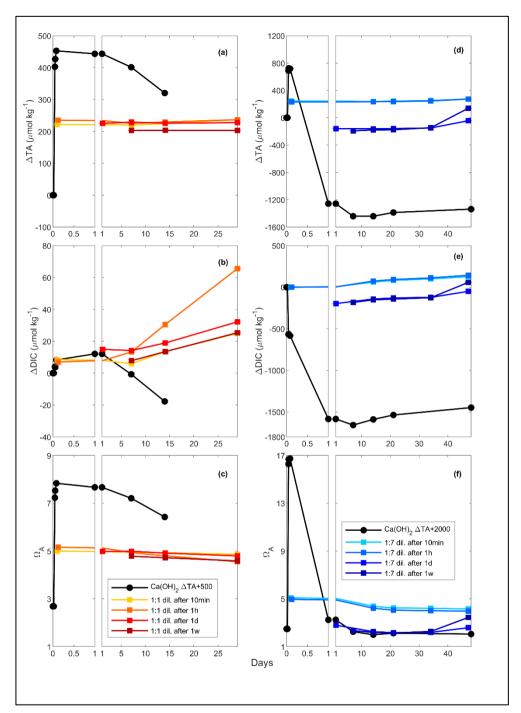


Figure 4: Changes in TA (a and d), DIC (b and e) and Ω_{Ar} (c and f) following a TA addition of 500 and 2000 μ mol kg⁻¹ respectively, by Ca(OH)₂ (black line), as well as following a 1:1 dilution or the 500 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA addition (red and yellow lines) and a 1:7 dilution for the 2000 μ mol kg⁻¹ TA addition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

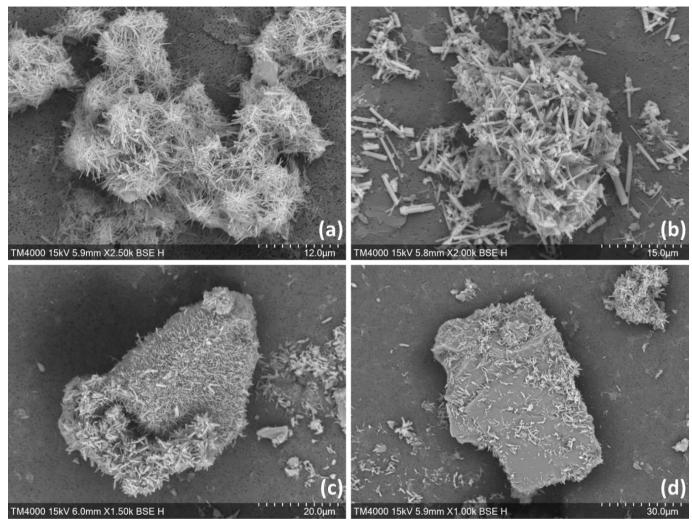


Figure 5: SEM images from experiments with an increase in TA of \sim 500 μ mol kg⁻¹ by CaO (a), Ca(OH)₂ (b) and with a TA increase of \sim 1050 μ mol kg⁻¹ by 1M Na₂CO₃, followed by quartz particles addition ((c) and (d)).

Appendix

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

Alkaline	TA increase (in	Experiment	Seawater	Phosphate (in
mineral	μmol kg ⁻¹)	details	salinity	μmol kg ⁻¹)*
CaO	250	N/A	36.52	Not measured
	500	N/A	36.52	Not measured
Ca(OH) ₂	250	N/A	36.91	Not measured
	500	N/A	36.91	Not measured
	500	For dilutions	35.46	Not measured
	500	For filtration	36.52	Not measured
	2000	For dilution	36.74	0.32 ± 0.03
Na ₂ CO ₃	1050	N/A	36.91	Not measured
	1050	With quartz particles	36.52	Not measured

Table A-2: Main chemical composition of the CaO and $Ca(OH)_2$ feedstocks used for the TA increase experiments determined by ICPMS analysis.

	CaO Powder		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	

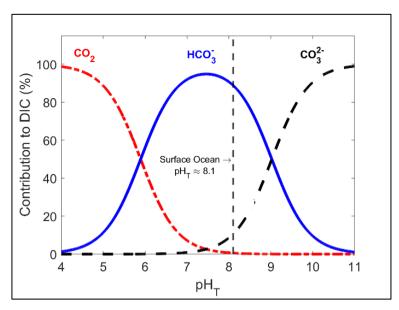


Figure A-1: Relative contribution of dissolved CO_2 , HCO_3 and CO_3 to total dissolved inorganic carbon in seawater as a function of pH_T (total scale), also known as Bjerrum plot (based on the carbonic acid equilibrium constant from Mehrbach et al. (1973) and refitted by Dickson and Millero (1987)), at 25 °C and salinity of 35, with the current surface ocean pH average represented by the dashed line (pH_T ~8.1).

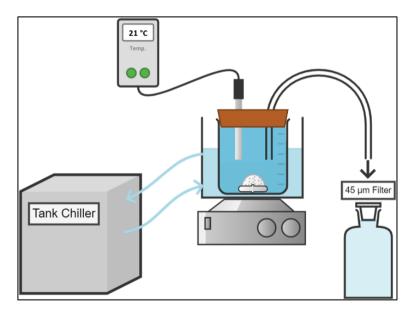


Figure A-2: Conceptual diagram of the experimental setup used for the dissolution of alkaline minerals

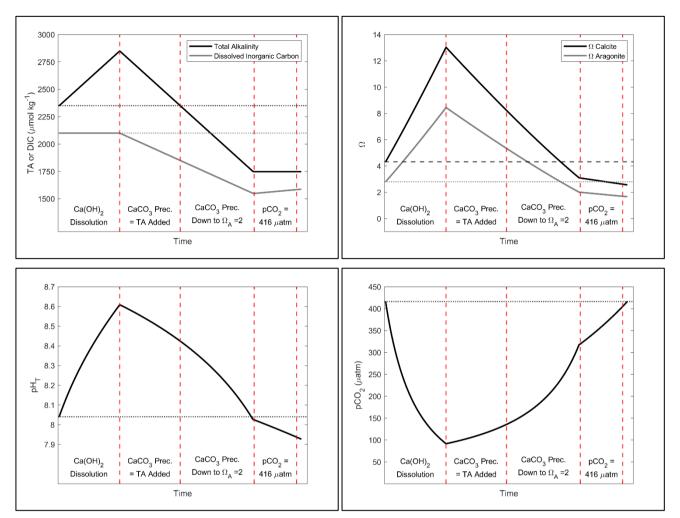


Figure A-3: Simulation of the changes in TA, DIC, Ω_{Ca} , Ω_{Ar} , pCO₂ and pH_T after addition of 500 μ mol kg⁻¹ of alkalinity. Four important steps are presented. First, assuming the complete Ca(OH)₂ dissolution without CaCO₃ precipitation, second, assuming as much CaCO₃ precipitation as the amount of TA added, third, assuming CaCO₃ precipitation happening until reaching an Ω_{Ar} of 2, and fourth, CO₂ uptake until equilibrium is reached between atmosphere and seawater at a pCO₂ of ~416 μ atm.

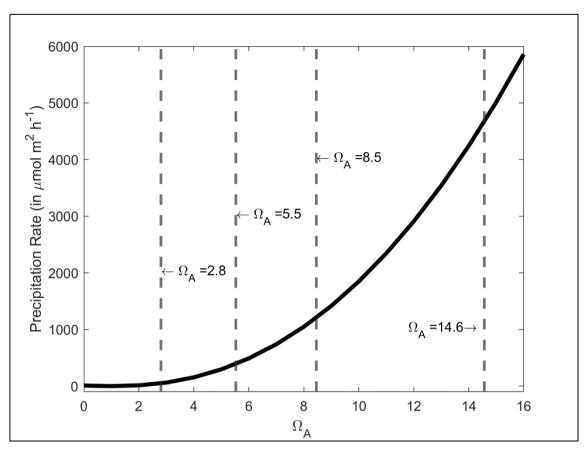


Figure A-4: CaCO₃ precipitation rate onto aragonite seed crystals in μ mol m⁻² h⁻¹ as a function of Ω_{AF} , based on the measurements of Zhong and Mucci (1989) at 25 °C and for a salinity of 35. The Ω_{AF} values for the starting conditions, and following a +250, +500 and +1000 μ mol kg-1 TA increase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

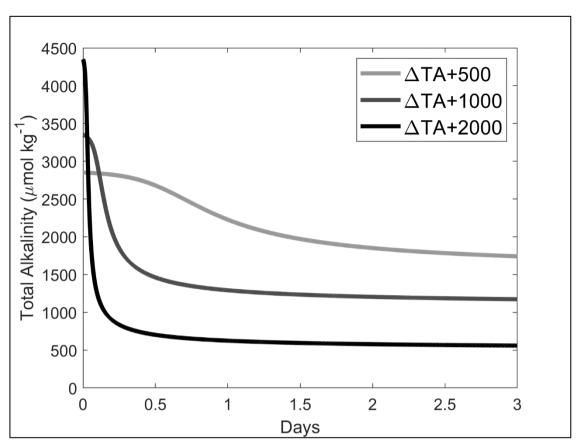


Figure A-5: Simulations of TA loss due to aragonite precipitation after a TA addition of 500, 1000 and 2000 μ mol kg⁻¹, based on Ω_{AF} and surface area dependant precipitation rates shown in Figure A4, assuming the initial presence of 2% of CaCO₃ in our samples, i.e., ~0.37, ~0.74 and ~1.48 mg kg⁻¹ for a Δ TA+500, Δ TA+1000 and Δ TA+2000 μ mol kg⁻¹, respectively. CaCO₃ mass was converted to a surface area as described in Zhong and Mucci (1989). The starting conditioned were TA = 2300 μ mol kg⁻¹, DIC = 2100 μ mol kg⁻¹, salinity = 35 and temperature = 21 °C.