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Climate targets, carbon dioxide removal and the potential role of Ocean Alkalinity Enhancement

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Abstract. The Paris Agreement to limit global warming to well below 2°C requires ambitious emission reduction and the balancing of remaining emissions through carbon sinks, i.e. the deployment of carbon dioxide removal (CDR). While ambitious climate protection scenarios until now consider primarily land-based CDR methods, there is growing concern about their potential to deliver sufficient CDR, and marine CDR options receive more and more interest. Based on idealized
20 theoretical studies, Ocean Alkalinity Enhancement (OAE) appears as a promising marine CDR method. However, the knowledge base is insufficient for a robust assessment of its practical feasibility, of its side effects, social and governance aspects as well as monitoring, reporting and verification issues. A number of research efforts aim to improve this in a timely manner. We provide an overview on the current situation of developing OAE as marine CDR method, and describe the history that has led to the creation of the OAE research Best Practices Guide.

25 1 Climate Goals and the need for Carbon Dioxide Removal

Achieving the Paris Agreement's goal of limiting global warming to well below 2°C, and ideally 1.5°C, requires ambitious reductions in anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions and the balancing of remaining emissions through carbon sinks in the second half of the 21st century (UNFCCC, 2015). The balance to be achieved is also called net zero and is a qualitatively new element compared to previous climate protection agreements. The net-zero requirement for avoiding further temperature rise
30 derives from a key finding of climate research in recent decades, namely that the increase in global mean surface air



temperature since the beginning of industrialization is proportional to cumulative emissions of carbon dioxide (CO₂), the major anthropogenic greenhouse gas (Matthews et al. 2009).

Arresting global warming will thus require net-zero CO₂ emissions. Non-CO₂ greenhouse gases (GHGs), in particular nitrous oxide and methane, also contribute to current warming. However, because their lifetime in the atmosphere is considerably shorter than that of CO₂, arresting global warming does not require net-zero non-CO₂ GHG emissions (Allen et al., 2022). Nevertheless, increases in non-CO₂ GHG emissions may lead to further temperature rise, whereas a decrease in non-CO₂ GHG emissions will relatively quickly reduce atmospheric concentrations of the respective non-CO₂ GHG and thus radiative forcing and global warming. In order to achieve the long-term temperature goal, parties to the Paris Agreement agreed to reach global peaking of GHG emissions as soon as possible, to undertake rapid reductions thereafter and to achieve a balance between anthropogenic emissions by sources and removals by sinks of greenhouse gases in the second half of this century. Since it is not foreseeable that all greenhouse gas emissions can be avoided by mid-century, the net-zero target set in the Paris Agreement implies the deployment of CO₂ removal methods and explicitly refers to enhancing carbon sinks. The Paris Agreement adopts the UNFCCC definition of “sink,” which refers to “any process, activity or mechanism which removes a greenhouse gas . . . from the atmosphere,” and thus encompasses both ecosystem-based and more technological or engineered removal approaches. Presently, no viable methods for large-scale non-CO₂ greenhouse gas removal exist, so carbon dioxide removal (CDR) will likely have to balance hard-to-abate residual emissions of non-CO₂ GHG emissions from, e.g., agriculture, in addition to hard-to-abate residual CO₂ emissions, e.g. from cement production, waste incineration, aviation and maritime transport.

The amount of these residual emissions needs to be politically and socially viable. In principle, all ‘hard-to-abate’ emissions are technically avoidable, e.g. by switching from fossil to renewable energy, by capturing and safely storing CO₂ from process emissions (e.g. cement production with renewable energy), or by avoiding the processes that lead to emissions. Particularly in the agricultural sector, avoiding all emissions appears impossible without critical societal impacts: rice production and the raising of livestock are associated with methane production, and any use of nitrogen fertilizer is associated with nitrous oxide production, which are both potent non-CO₂ greenhouse gases. The exact amount of residual emissions is thus largely an issue of economic and social costs and society’s ambition to avoid emissions. Which emissions are deemed unavoidable also varies across historical and political contexts and is influenced by claims as to what is regarded as legitimately possible (Lund et al. 2023). Ultimately, decisions about the amount of residual emissions depend on values, norms and interests. Current scenarios assume that, by mid-century, residual emissions will amount to close to 20% of today’s emissions, i.e. to several Gt CO₂ per year globally (Buck et al., 2023).

By mid century, all remaining CO₂ emissions will have to be balanced by CDR in order to reach net-zero CO₂ and thereby arrest global warming. In order to reach net-zero GHG emissions as stated in the Paris Agreement and in national legislation of a number of countries, also residual emissions of non-CO₂ GHGs will have to be balanced by CDR unless atmospheric



65 removal of non-CO₂ GHG should become possible. Current global CDR deployment has been estimated near 2 Gt CO₂ per
year mostly by conventional management of land, primarily afforestation and reforestation and with only 0.002 Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹
by ‘novel’ CDR schemes comprising bioenergy with carbon capture and storage (BECCS), direct air capture with carbon
storage (DACCS), enhanced weathering, and marine CDR, also sometime called ocean CDR, including ocean alkalinity
enhancement (OAE) as a subcategory (Smith et al., 2023). According to the ‘State of CDR’ report (Smith et al., 2023),
70 deployment of novel CDR approaches will have to increase by three orders of magnitude by mid century in order to reach net-
zero emission even in most ambitious emission reduction scenarios. Note that many scenarios used in the recent IPCC’s 6th
Assessment Report assume that emissions turn net negative after having reached net zero (Fig.1), which would allow a net
cooling and is also deemed necessary for so-called temperature overshoot scenarios (Geden and Lössel, 2017) that receive
more attention the longer it takes to drastically reduce emissions. It is, however, currently unclear how to incentivise and
75 govern net negative emissions.

While the current climate goal of the UNFCCC is to limit the temperature rise to 2°C or 1.5°C, one could also envisage climate
targets that aim to reduce global temperatures further toward pre-industrial levels, and much faster than the tens to hundreds
of millennia that planetary feedbacks would take to do so (Archer et al., 2009). Should humanity aim for a faster restoration
80 of the planetary thermal balance to pre-industrial times, CDR would be a prime mechanism with deployment required well
beyond the current ‘net-zero’ targets.

2 CDR approaches and the role the ocean could play

Traditionally, the focus of CDR has been on land-based methods such as reforestation and afforestation or BECCS. While
these approaches certainly have some potential, there are unresolved issues related to land-use competition and associated
85 political and societal feasibility challenges, and it is currently unclear if and how their combined deployment will be possible
at scales sufficient to meet the net zero target by mid century (The Land Gap Report, Dooley et al., 2022). It is thus unlikely
that such ecosystem-based solutions alone will be sufficient to achieve net-zero (Smith et al., 2023) and therefore ‘novel’
approaches will also have to be applied to a considerable extent. None of these are ready for large-scale deployment today.
Transparent research into the efficacy, risks, and benefits of different approaches is urgently needed, and the societal debate
90 on what counts as residual emissions and whether and how to deploy different CDR approaches must begin quickly so that
appropriate processes can be developed in time, well-informed decisions can be made about research, development, and
deployment, and mechanisms can be devised to regulate such use responsibly. Importantly, deployment at scale could compete
with other societal demands for land, water and energy (Lawrence et al., 2018). Marine CDR has the potential to reduce the
need for land and freshwater resources. Large-scale marine CDR approaches, however, may struggle to achieve public
95 acceptance (Bertram and Merk 2020, Nawaz et al. 2023).



Marine CDR options are receiving more and more interest, acknowledging that the ocean has already absorbed more than a quarter of anthropogenic CO₂ emissions and would, on timescales of thousands to hundreds of thousands of years, take up most of the remaining emissions (Archer and Brovkin, 2008), as it has done with natural high-CO₂ excursions in the Earth's geological past. The ocean holds more than 50 times as much inorganic carbon as the pre-industrial atmosphere and about 20 times as much as the carbon stored in global terrestrial plants and soils (Carlson et al., 2001). Its theoretical carbon storage potential appears large compared to the atmospheric and terrestrial carbon pools. However, increasing the oceanic carbon pool will affect the marine environment and may put additional pressure on marine ecosystems. The current level of scientific understanding of marine CDR is low, Monitoring, Reporting, and Verification (MRV) is challenging, and more research is required to comprehensively assess the diverse portfolio of proposed options (e.g. NASEM, 2021).

Currently considered marine CDR approaches include: (1) biological methods such as photosynthetic carbon fixation by microalgae, macrophytes or mangrove trees and subsequent storage of carbon in the deep ocean or in coastal sediments, and (2) abiotic methods that aim to alter ocean carbonate chemistry in a way that enhances air-to-sea flux of CO₂ and subsequently stores atmospheric carbon as dissolved inorganic carbon in seawater. Also, hybrid biological, physical and/or chemical marine CDR approaches are considered (artificial upwelling/downwelling, marine BECCS, bio-enhanced alkalinity generation, hybrid ocean-geochemical approaches, etc.).

3 Ocean Alkalinity Enhancement

Ocean alkalinity enhancement (OAE) is a marine CDR method with high (> Gt CO₂ yr⁻¹ scale) theoretical sequestration potential (Renforth and Henderson, 2017). Alkalinity, the excess of proton acceptors over donors, is a chemical concept that largely determines the storage capacity for CO₂ in seawater. OAE aims to enhance alkalinity by adding alkaline material to the surface ocean or by removing acid from seawater via electrochemistry. Alkalinity enhancement results in the consumption of protons, a corresponding increase in the pH, which results in a decrease of the partial pressure of CO₂ in seawater. If applied to the surface ocean, and depending on the initial air-sea CO₂ gradient, it would promote CO₂ uptake from - or lessen CO₂ release to - the atmosphere, in both cases leading to a net reduction in atmospheric CO₂ at the expense of an increase in the oceanic carbon pool. The atmospheric CO₂ absorbed via OAE-induced air-sea gas exchange is essentially stored in the form of dissolved bicarbonate and carbonate ions that do not exchange with the atmosphere.

When applied within the surface ocean, OAE can rely on air-sea gas exchange to at least partially restore the OAE-induced decrease in partial pressure of CO₂. Air-sea gas exchange of CO₂ can take months to years (Jones et al., 2014) and poses specific challenges to MRV (He and Tyka, 2023). OAE can also be applied by adding alkalinity in chemical reactors upstream, that could at least partially pre-equilibrate the alkalized seawater with CO₂ taken either from ambient air or from CO₂ waste streams. If CO₂ is taken from waste streams, this would, technically, correspond to emissions avoidance and not CDR. Also,



130 if this CO₂ was taken from ambient air via, e.g. direct air capture facilities or bioenergy plants, CDR would be termed according to the process that removes CO₂ from the atmosphere and not the process that provides terminal carbon storage. OAE qualifies as marine CDR if CO₂ is transferred directly from the atmosphere into seawater, either in chemical reactors or in the surface ocean. Hybrid schemes that combine emission reduction by dissolving minerals with acidic CO₂ waste streams in chemical reactors to generate dissolved alkaline solutions to be added into the ocean for subsequent marine CDR can also be envisaged.

135 OAE was positioned in the “Concept Stage” cluster of a recent assessment of ocean-based measures for climate action (Gattuso et al., 2021). This cluster was defined for measures with potentially very high effectiveness but with feasibility and cost-effectiveness which have yet to be demonstrated. The assessment highlighted the urgent need to improve knowledge on “Concept Stage” measures because the full implementation of proven measures runs the risk of falling short of providing enough cost effective CDR capacity. Attractive aspects of OAE compared to many other methods, in particular those that
140 store carbon in biomass, are its potential to reduce ocean acidification at least locally (at the expense of imperfect CDR), and the theoretical durability of storage over several tens to hundreds of thousand years. An effective leakage of CO₂, either via enhanced CO₂ flux back to the atmosphere or by reduced CO₂ uptake from the atmosphere compared to a baseline scenario, can result from enhanced formation and reduced dissolution of carbonate minerals in the water column or at the sea floor. Frequently mentioned drawbacks of OAE are (i) the amount and the quality of alkaline material that is needed (whether mined
145 in the case of mineral-based approaches or generated from waste brine in electrochemical approaches) and the energy required (whether mining, grinding, and transport for mineral-based approaches or low-carbon electricity of electrochemical approaches), and (ii) the difficulty of reliably quantifying CDR (MRV). Regarding (i), all known CDR methods require, at climate-relevant scales, the movement of large amounts of matter. In addition to abundant carbonate and silicate minerals, a number of industrial waste products or artificial minerals can also be considered as alkalinity sources (Renforth, 2019, Caserini
150 et al., 2022). Overall, there is no shortage of alkaline materials on the planet. Regarding (ii), MRV is indeed a challenge and will be addressed in chapter 6 of this best practices guide.

So far, the CDR potential of OAE has essentially been inferred from modeling and techno-economic studies (Kheshgi, 1995; Harvey, 2008), including spatially resolved global or regional models (e.g., Ilyina et al., 2013; Keller et al., 2014, Hauck et al.,
155 2016; Wang et al., 2023). Such models employ simplified representations of marine biogeochemistry, rudimentary descriptions of marine ecosystems, and typically simulate OAE as the addition, often instantaneously, of ‘pure’ alkalinity or of olivine minerals consisting of silicate, iron and alkalinity. The first experimental studies have started only recently and have already generated novel insight into issues regarding the actual delivery of alkalinity (Fuhr et al., 2022; Moras et al., 2022; Hartmann et al., 2023) and ecological impacts (Ferderer et al., 2022), and further research efforts are underway. Some information on the
160 biogeochemical and ecological impacts of OAE might be gained from experimental work on ocean acidification that has been carried out during recent decades. Indeed, a first ocean acidification field experiment employed alkalinity addition to demonstrate that ocean acidification is detrimental to coral reef calcification (Albright et al., 2016).



165 Issues to be researched include the method of deployment of alkalinity, the alkaline materials to be used as well as their
processing, the key attributes of ideal locations for deployment, the CDR potential that can be realized on given timescales,
durability of the carbon storage, biogeochemical and ecological side effects, and also MRV and economic, legal, social, and
ethical aspects of OAE.

4 Motivation for developing a best practices guide

170 Given the urgency of establishing a portfolio of CDR options, a rapid improvement of our understanding of the carbon storage
potential and of the co-benefits and risks of OAE is needed. This requires responsible, efficient and transparent scientific
research in order to generate new and reliable information, allowing for rapid sharing, testing and synthesis of results. With
the first publicly funded research projects having started in several countries, philanthropy funding a number of research
projects to accelerate scientific progress, and start-ups working on enhancing technological readiness, this has motivated us to
develop a best practices guide for OAE research.

175

The chapters presented here describe current knowledge regarding strengths and weaknesses of different OAE approaches,
scientific uncertainties, biological and ecological impacts, knowledge gaps and research needs. Recommendations for
experimental set-up of laboratory, pelagic and benthic mesocosms and field experiments, as well as for modeling scenarios are
provided. The guide also discusses the legal context in which research occurs and offers recommendations for responsible
180 research and innovation, public engagement, data reporting and sharing, MRV and attribution.

The best practices guide aims at fostering intercomparison and synthesis efforts of different studies evaluating the potential,
effectiveness and durability of OAE. This will help to improve knowledge sharing and information gain, and thereby speed up
scientific progress in a situation where robust information about OAE as a carbon dioxide removal option is urgently needed.
185 We have to widen the space of options and also to enable society to define and design appropriate science-based options in
order to reach the agreed-upon climate targets.

We note that this research field is in its infancy and rapidly evolving. The broader legal and social contexts in which research
occurs are also undergoing change. What we designate as “best practice” in this guide today may not be considered best
190 practice in the future. As such our guide comprises our currently available understanding around OAE, but also requires the
user to remain up to date with the available literature. There will almost certainly be improvements in our protocols as the field
develops and everyone is invited to contribute to this process.



5 Development of this best practices guide

195 Best practices guides have proven useful when new areas of research open up, often bringing together scientists from different
fields and with different methodological backgrounds. One example is the Guide to Best Practices in Ocean Acidification
Research and Data Reporting (Riebesell et al., 2010), in which the project lead, Jean-Pierre Gattuso, the scientific coordinator,
Andreas Oschlies, and a number of authors of this guide were involved. The ocean acidification guide had an enormous
catalytic effect in growing the field of ocean acidification research by lowering the barrier to entry and making comparison of
200 different studies and the generation of synthesis products more straightforward. The expectation is that the present guide on
OAE research will have a similar impact on the OAE community and ocean CDR field at large, and also provide guidelines
for ensuring that OAE research is conducted responsibly and most efficiently for the public good.

In summer 2022, Jean-Pierre Gattuso and Andreas Oschlies sent a proposal to the ClimateWorks Foundation with a request
205 for funding to create a detailed guide that outlines all the relevant approaches available for ocean alkalinity enhancement
(OAE) as a Carbon Dioxide Removal approach. The requested funding for a part-time project manager, a 3-day in-person
workshop of chapter lead authors, as well as costs for production, publication and printing of the guide (total amount 170.000
US\$) was approved. A steering committee consisting of the authors of this chapter was established and had several online
meetings to develop the chapter outline and a personal information form that all authors would have to sign in order to ensure
210 transparency, and best scientific knowledge and the absence of conflicts of interest. Lead authors for each chapter were chosen
by the steering committee based on experience, scholarship, and diversity. In consultation with the steering committee, all lead
authors then chose co-leads and additional authors of their respective chapters.

In early 2023, a 3-day in-person workshop of the steering committee and lead authors took place in Villefranche-sur-Mer,
215 France. Chapter outlines were discussed, gaps identified and the timeline agreed upon. Lead authors were responsible for
developing their chapters, with support from the scientific project manager. A public website ([https://oae-best-
practice.carbondioxide-removal.eu](https://oae-best-practice.carbondioxide-removal.eu)) with list of chapters and lead-authors was set up and advertised via social media and the
carbon-dioxide-removal news stream (www.carbondioxidereoval.eu). An internal review was initiated in May 2023. All
chapters were submitted to ‘*State of the Planet*’ in order to allow for public review to ensure that the guide provides state-of-
220 the-art information.

Author Contributions

AO conceived and all authors wrote and edited the paper

225 Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests



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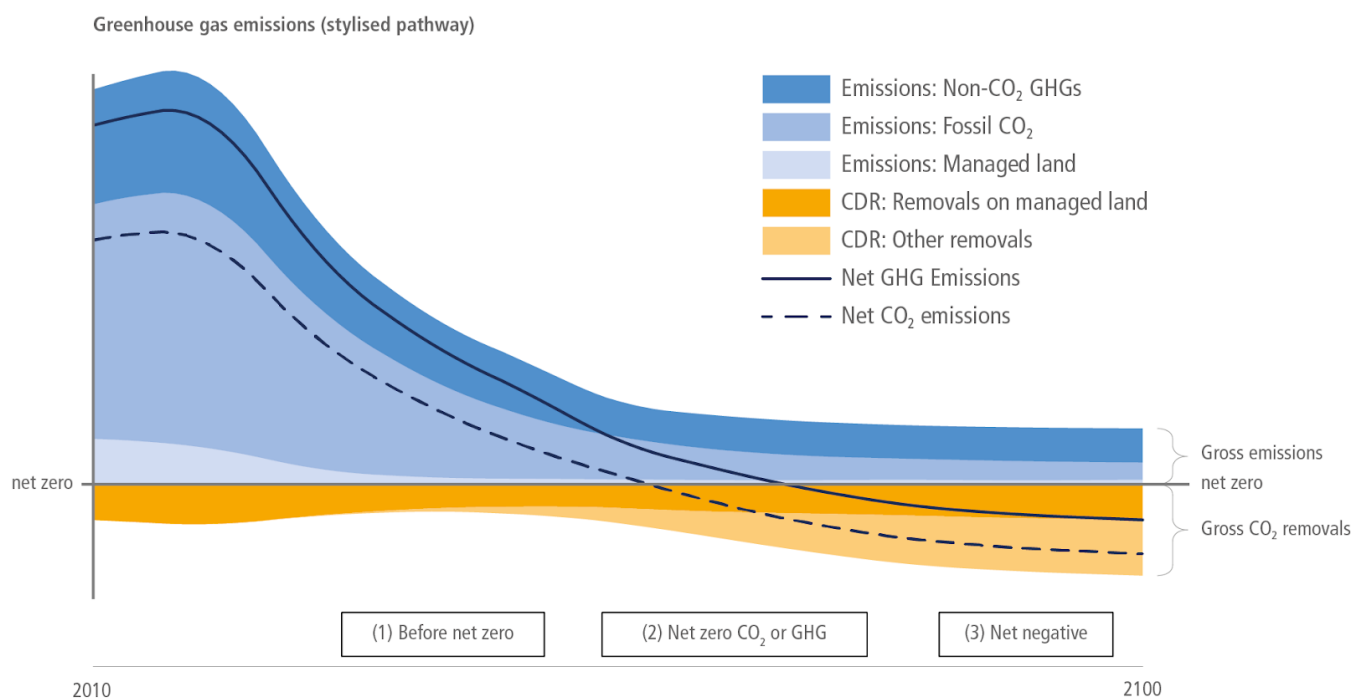
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340 **Figure 1: The role of CO₂ removal (“CDR”) in a stylised pathway of ambitious climate action. Dark green illustrates CO₂ removals from land management and light illustrates removal from other CDR methods, including ocean methods. Note that net-zero CO₂ is reached well before net-zero greenhouse gas (GHG), and the the amount of CDR required for net-zero CO₂ can be substantially smaller than the amount of CDR required for non-zero GHG. Any contribution of ocean alkalinity enhancement would be included in ‘CDR: Other removals’. Source: IPCC (2022) Cross-Chapter Box 8, Figure 2.**