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# Flue gas desulfurization gypsum mineralization in waste Lye medium at pilot scale

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CO<sub>2</sub> capture, utilization and sequestration technology is currently a global research hotspot with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> emission and rising atmospheric temperatures. Flue gas desulfurization gypsum (FGDG) was used to realize CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization in waste NaOH lye in a pilot scale bubble tower. The effects of the ionic strength, CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate, reaction temperature, and liquid level in the reactor on the properties of the mineralization products and the CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization efficiency were investigated using thermogravimetric analysis, X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and particle size analysis. The experimental results indicated that ionic strength, reaction temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate significantly influenced the CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization efficiency of FGDG. The CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization efficiency reached 92.15% under the optimized conditions (the ionic strength: 10<sup>-2</sup> mol·L<sup>-1</sup>, CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate: 20 L·h<sup>-1</sup>, reaction temperature: 60 °C, liquid level: 50 cm). The liquid level has a strong effect on the particle size distribution of mineralized products. A higher liquid level promotes the formation of mineralized products with smaller particle sizes. These products consist of a single cluster of crystals and the main component is calcium carbonate. The pilot scale results demonstrate optimized evidence for CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization using FGDG in waste lye. Therefore, this approach enables the comprehensive utilization of three types of waste-gas, liquid, solid- generated produced in coal-fired power plants.

Keywords Flue gas desulfurization gypsum (FGDG), Waste Lye, Pilot scale reactor, CO, mineralization

The use of fossil energy emits large amounts of greenhouse gases (e.g.,  $CO_2$ ,  $CH_4$ ,  $N_2O$  and  $O_3$ ) due to the continuous development of global industrialization. These emissions have contributed significantly to global warming, posing a severe threat to the ecological environment as well as the human survival<sup>1,2</sup>. Consequently, reducing  $CO_2$  emissions has garnered increasing attention<sup>3,4</sup>.  $CO_2$  capture, utilization and sequestration (CCUS) is currently a necessary approach to achieve  $CO_2$  emission reduction<sup>5</sup>. Among CCUS technologies, mineral sequestration (mineralization) is particularly promising, as it generates stable carbonate products that ensure permanent, safe and efficient  $CO_2$  storage with minimal leakage risk<sup>6</sup>. This technology achieves  $CO_2$  mineralization by precipitating stable carbonate compounds, such as calcium carbonate and magnesium carbonate<sup>7,8</sup>.

Certain natural minerals and industrial solid wastes containing abundant of  ${\rm Ca^{2+}}$  have been explored as feedstocks for mineralization. However,  ${\rm CO_2}$  mineralization using natural minerals requires harsh conditions, and the associated mining, milling, and separation processes make it costly<sup>9</sup>. In contrast, industrial solid wastes such as fly ash<sup>10,11</sup>, waste gypsum<sup>12-14</sup>, steel slag<sup>15</sup>, and calcium carbide slag<sup>16</sup> are considered highly promising due to their high reactivity, widespread availability, and lower costs.

Flue gas desulfurization gypsum (FGDG), a byproduct of the wet flue gas desulfurization process in coal-fired power plants, is primarily composed of  $CaSO_4\cdot 2H_2O$ , with a content up to 93%. Currently, China's annual FGDG emissions are approximately 80 million tons, with a utilization rate of 78%, and an annual stockpile of around 100 million tons<sup>17</sup>.  $CO_2$  mineralization using FGDG has been extensively studied at the laboratory scale. For instance, Lee used direct wet mineralization of FGDG to investigate the effects of process parameters, such as ammonia concentration,  $CO_2$  flow rate, and solid-liquid ratio, on the conversion rate and  $CO_2$  mineralization efficiency  $CO_2$  flow rate, and solid-liquid ratio, on the effects of different liquid media on the mineralization process and the crystalline morphology of the products  $CO_2$ . Ding explored the mineralization of  $CO_2$  by FGDG mineralization in an  $CO_2$  system based on the solubility equilibrium theory between a salt solution and an insoluble electrolyte, achieving a 98% carbonation rate and demonstrating the recyclability of the carbonation reaction filtrate. Wang proposed an amine-promoted carbonation process for waste gypsum,

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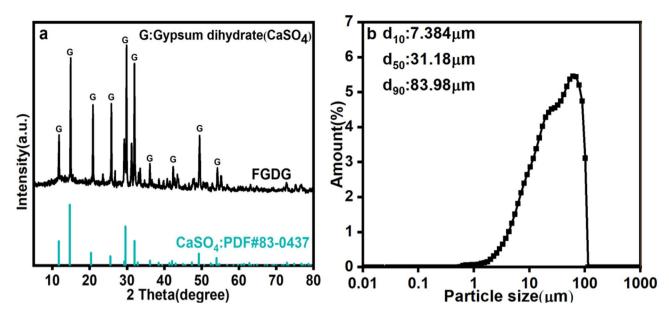


Fig. 1. (a) XRD pattern of FGDG and (b) the particle size distribution of FGDG.

Material	CaO	SO <sub>3</sub>	SiO <sub>2</sub>	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	MgO	Na <sub>2</sub> O	K <sub>2</sub> O	LOI*
wt%	46.02	46.15	3.6	1.56	0.55	0.17	0.26	1.69

Table 1. Chemical composition of FGDG.

coupled with amine regeneration using bipolar membrane electrodialysis (BMED), and evaluated seven types of amines as reaction media for  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization<sup>21</sup>. Chang et al. proposed using waste lye from steel smelting and steel slag as raw materials for mineralization to absorb  $\rm CO_2$ , which not only reduces water consumption but also lowers the total  $\rm cost^{22}$ . However, the waste lye utilized contains a lot of impurities, resulting in a complex composition of the product. Kumar et al. investigated carbonation of the waste lye produced by the paper industry to, achieving simultaneous  $\rm CO_2$  absorption and recovery of carboxylic acids and lignin, though the  $\rm CO_2$  capture performance remained unevaluated in this process<sup>23</sup>.

Many studies have focused on liquid alkaline media, including ammonia or organic amines, for CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization, which is severely limited by the cost of liquid media. Few studies have explored the application of waste lye so far, despite its availability and cost advantages. It is well known that ionic strength positively influences reaction rates in reactors<sup>24,25</sup>. Altiner et al. adopted NaOH and Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> in a "two-step" carbon sequestration method, but focused primarily on performance outcomes rather than the effects of ionic strength<sup>14</sup>.

The study demonstrates a pilot scale system to achieve CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization and to recycle product. The effects of key parameters such as ionic strength in solution, CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate, reaction temperature and liquid level on the CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization efficiency of FGDG were systematically investigated. And the particle size and morphology of the products was characterized by means of XRD, TG, SEM, and particle size analysis. A comprehensive utilization of three kinds of wastes (gas CO<sub>2</sub>, solid FGDG and liquid waste lye) emitted from the coal-fired power plants was explored Furthermore, both inherent factors (e.g., ionic strength) and external factors (e.g., reactor structure) of CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization at the pilot scale are discussed in detail.

### Materials and methodology Materials

The FGDG used in this study was produced from a coal-fired power plant. The FGDG sample was first dried at 105 °C for 8 h to remove surface moisture and then sieved to 60 mesh<sup>26</sup>. The purity of the CaSO<sub>4</sub> in the FGDG used was 97%, as determined by wet analysis. The phase composition of the samples was analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD, Bruker D2 Advance with a Cu K $\alpha$  source at 30 kV and 10 mA) with the scanning scope (2 $\theta$ ) from 5° to 80° under the speed of 10° min<sup>-1</sup> and the obtained patterns were examined using jade6.5 (PDF#83-0437) software for mineral identification. The XRD confirmed that the main component of the FGDG samples was calcium sulfate dihydrate, as shown in Fig. 1a. The particle size was measured with a particle size analyzer (Bettersize 3000 Plus), and the average size of the FGDG samples (d<sub>50</sub>) was 31.18  $\mu$ m, with 90% of the particles smaller than 83.98  $\mu$ m, as shown in Fig. 1b. The composition of the sample was analyzed via X-ray fluorescence (XRF, ZSX Primuss II, Rigaku), and the FGDG impurities were mainly SiO<sub>2</sub> and Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, as shown in Table 1. The theoretical CaO content in pure CaSO<sub>4</sub>·2H<sub>2</sub>O is ~32.5% (based on molar mass ratios), but the higher CaO content (46.02%) reflects the dehydration of gypsum (loss of crystalline water) during sample preparation (dried

at 105 °C for 8 h) and potential partial decomposition of  $CaSO_4\cdot 2H_2O$  into CaO and  $SO_3$ . This aligned with the XRD results as Fig. 1a, confirming  $CaSO_4\cdot 2H_2O$  as the dominant phase.

#### CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization experiment

NaOH solutions with different ionic strengths were prepared to simulate the waste lye, and the ionic strength of the waste lye was calculated according to the Eq. (1):

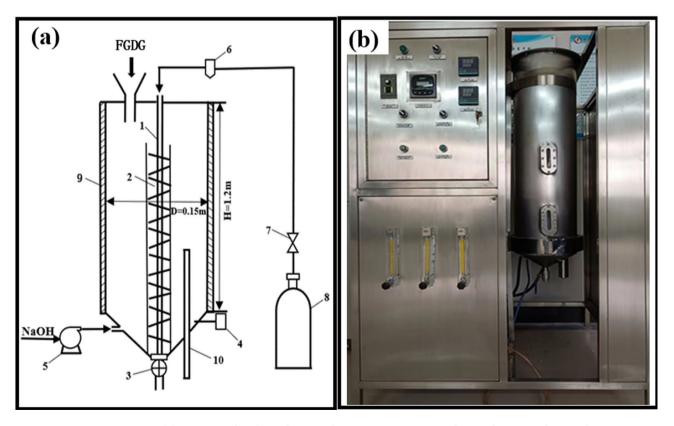
$$I = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} C_i Z_i^2 \tag{1}$$

Here, I is the ionic strength of the waste lye,  $C_i$  is the ion concentration, and  $Z_i$  is the charge number of ions.

The waste lye was pumped into the pilot scale reactor with a height of 120 cm, an inner diameter of 15 cm and a length of the sampling tube 50 cm, as shown in Fig. 2a. The physical diagram of the reactor is shown in Fig. 2b. After the waste lye was heated to the desired temperature, a weighed FGDG sample was added to the waste lye through the auger to prepare slurry, and then 99% CO<sub>2</sub> gas was bubbled into the slurry with vigorous stirring. The mineralization reaction process is shown in Fig. 3. According to the standards for industrial production waste lye, equipment limitations and energy-saving requirements, the effects of reaction temperature (40 °C, 60 °C, 80 °C), ionic strength  $(10^{-12} \text{ mol·L}^{-1}, 5 \times 10^{-9} \text{ mol·L}^{-1}, 10^{-2} \text{ mol·L}^{-1})$ , CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate (20 L·h<sup>-1</sup>, 40 L·h<sup>-1</sup>, 60 L·h<sup>-1</sup>) and liquid level (30 cm, 40 cm, 50 cm) on FGDG mineralization were investigated<sup>34</sup>. The detailed experimental conditions are shown in Table 2. For example, for  $I_{10}^{-12}$ -T40-r20-h30, the experiment was carried out at  $I = 10^{-12}$  mol·L<sup>-1</sup>, a reaction temperature of 40 °C, a CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate of 20 L·h<sup>-1</sup> and a liquid level of 30 cm. Samples were taken from the exit at a given reaction time for determination (2, 4, 6, 15, 30, and 60 min), and the pH was measured at various reaction time points (2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 40, 50, and 60 min).

#### Characterization of the product and calculation of the storage capacity

All the samples were separated from the liquid by a high-speed centrifuge, and the obtained solid samples were dried at 180 °C for 8 h. The purity of the CaCO<sub>3</sub> in the product was calculated from the weight loss of the solid samples during the thermogravimetric process which was increased from 600 °C to 780 °C under N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere conditions. Pane and Lin concluded that the decomposition of CaCO<sub>3</sub> occurred at 600 °C to 780 °C<sup>27,28</sup>. A particle size analyzer (Bettersize 3000 Plus) was used to determine the particle size distribution of the mineralization products.



**Fig. 2.** (a) Structure of a pilot scale mineralization reactor: 1—gas tubes, 2—heating coils, 3—valve, 4—pH meter, 5—liquid pump, 6—gas flow meter, 7—gas pressure reducing valves, 8—CO<sub>2</sub> cylinders, 9—insulation, 10—sampling tube. (b) Physical drawings of a pilot scale mineralization reactor.

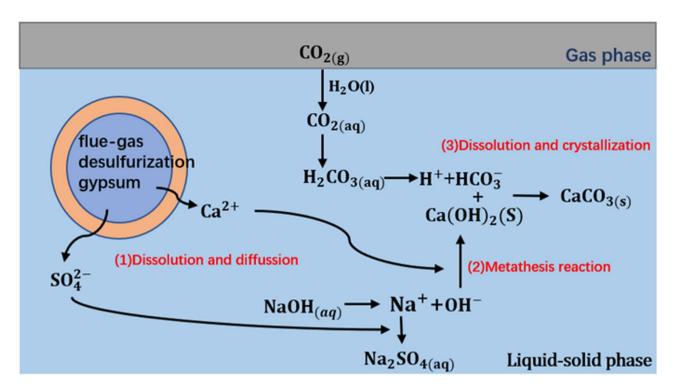


Fig. 3. Schematic diagram of carbonization and carbon sequestration of FGDG.

Reaction condition	1	2	3
Temperature, T/°C	40	60	80
Ionic strengths, I/mol·L <sup>-1</sup>	$10^{-12}$	5×10 <sup>-9</sup>	$10^{-2}$
CO <sub>2</sub> flow rate, r/L·h <sup>-1</sup>	20	40	60
liquid level, h/cm	30	40	50

**Table 2.** Reaction conditions in the pilot scale experiments.

The morphology of the products was observed by scanning electron microscopy (National Ceremony SEM 4000). The mass of CaCO<sub>3</sub> in the sample at time t is calculated via the following Eq. (2):

$$m_{\rm t-CaCO_3} = \frac{\Delta m_{\rm co_2}}{M_{\rm co_2}} \times M_{\rm CaCO_3}$$
 (2)

Where  $\Delta m_{\rm co_2}$  is the weight of CO<sub>2</sub> that escapes when CaCO<sub>3</sub> decomposes during thermogravimetry and where  $m_{\rm t-CaCO_3}$  is the mass of CaCO<sub>3</sub> in the sample of products.  $M_{\rm caco3}$  is the relative molecular weight of CaCO<sub>3</sub> and  $M_{\rm CO_2}$  is the relative molecular weight of CO<sub>2</sub>. The purity of the CaCO<sub>3</sub> in the sample at time t is calculated via Eq. (3):

$$P_{\rm t-CaCO_3} = \frac{m_{\rm t-CaCO_3}}{m_{\rm p}} \tag{3}$$

Here,  $P_{t-CaCO_3}$  is the purity of the CaCO<sub>3</sub> in the sample of products, and  $m_p$  is the mass of the sample of products.

$$\rho_{\rm t} = \frac{P_{\rm t-CaCO_3}}{P_{\rm C-CaCO_3}} \tag{4}$$

Where  $\rho_{\rm t}$  represents the CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization efficiency of FGDG and P<sub>C-CaCO3</sub> represents the purity of CaCO<sub>3</sub> when FGDG was 100% mineralized. The purity of the CaSO<sub>4</sub> in FGDG used in the study was 97%, as determined by wet analysis. Therefore, the purity of the reaction product should be 95.9% for 100% mineralization.

#### Results and discussion

#### Effect of reaction parameters on CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization efficiency

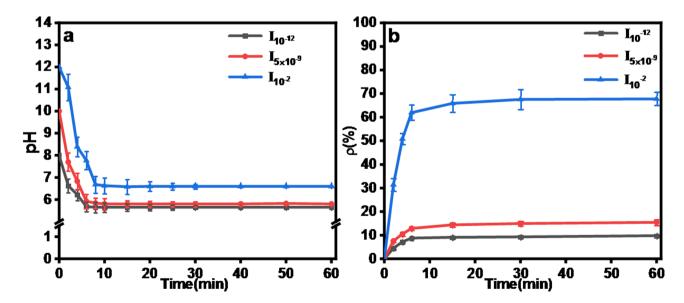
Effect of the initial ionic strength of waste Lye on the CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization efficiency. The effects of the initial ionic strength of waste lye on CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization were evaluated by varying initial ionic strengths, which were  $10^{-12}$  mol·L<sup>-1</sup>,  $5 \times 10^{-9}$  mol·L<sup>-1</sup>, and  $10^{-2}$  mol·L<sup>-1</sup> (denoted as  $I_{10}^{-12}$ ,  $I_{5 \times 10}^{-9}$  and  $I_{10}^{-2}$ , respectively).

Figure  $^4$ a shows the variation in slurry pH with time. As CO $_2$  was introduced into the slurry, the reaction began, and OH $^-$  ions in the slurry were consumed, resulting in a decrease in the pH of the slurry. The pH of the slurry gradually stabilized after approximately 6 min of continuous reaction. Under all conditions, the CO $_2$  mineralization efficiency and slurry pH tended to stabilize at around 6 min, which was considered the termination point of the mineralization reaction, as shown in Fig. 4a. Higher ionic strength increases ion collision frequency and accelerates Ca $^{2+}$  leaching from FGDG, thereby promoting mineralization kinetics at the early stage. Despite varying initial ionic strengths, the reaction is ultimately limited by CO $_2$  dissolution and diffusion rates in the bubble column reactor. When the system reaches the equilibrium, the reaction process tends to be stabilized regardless of the ionic strength. At this stage, the reaction terminates regardless of initial ionic strength, as the mineralized system becomes limited by the availability of reactants rather than kinetic factors  $^{29}$ .

When the ionic strength decreases, the final pH of the slurry drop due to the protonation of  $OH^-$  during  $CO_2$  dissolution:

$${\rm CO_2 + OH^- \to HCO_3}^- \quad ({\rm pH} \sim 10{-}12)$$
  
 ${\rm HCO_3}^- + {\rm OH}^- \to {\rm CO_3}^{2-} + {\rm H_2O} \quad ({\rm pH} \sim 7{-}9)$ 

At higher ionic strengths (10<sup>-2</sup> mol·L<sup>-1</sup>, the buffering capacity of the waste lye increases due to the Le Chatelier principle: excess Na\* shifts the carbonate equilibrium toward CO<sub>2</sub><sup>2-</sup> formation, maintaining a near-neutral pH (~7) even after OH<sup>-</sup> depletion<sup>30</sup>. The final pH of the slurry slightly increased as the initial ionic strength of the waste lye increased. The final pH increases as the initial ionic strengths of the waste lye increases. This phenomenon is attributed to activity coefficient effects. According to the Davies equation, the activity coefficient of OH<sup>-</sup> decreases at high ionic strengths due to ion pairing effects, which reduces the effective OH<sup>-</sup> concentration, while the analytical (total) OH<sup>-</sup> concentration remains unchanged. This phenomenon aligns with the observed pH trend<sup>31</sup>. The CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization efficiency of FGDG was also affected by the initial ionic strength of the waste lye. After approximately 6 min of reaction, the mineralization reaction was essentially complete, and then the reaction approached the saturation state, as shown in Fig. 4b. The CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization efficiency of FGDG increased slightly with the continuous influx of CO<sub>2</sub> after 6 min of reaction. Increasing the ionic strength of waste lye from  $10^{-12}$  mol·L<sup>-1</sup> to  $10^{-2}$  mol·L<sup>-1</sup> enhanced the CO, mineralization efficiency from 9.8% to 67.76%. According to collision theory, when the initial ionic strength of the spent lye reaches  $10^{-2}$  mol·L<sup>-1</sup>, the number of Na<sup>+</sup> and OH<sup>-</sup> ions per unit volume is large, leading to a higher frequency of effective collisions between different ions per unit time and an increase reaction rate<sup>32</sup>. Moreover, as the concentration of OH<sup>-</sup> in the slurry increases, the amount of Ca<sup>2+</sup> leached also increases, intensifying the mineralization reaction and resulting in higher CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization efficiency Luo verified this conclusion from the perspective of pH<sup>33</sup>.



**Fig. 4**. (a) pH value curves with respect to time and (b) Effect of the initial ionic strength of waste lye on the  $CO_2$  mineralization efficiency (Conditions: 40 °C temperature, 20 L·h<sup>-1</sup>  $CO_2$  flow rate, 30 cm liquid level.).

The above results indicated that a high ionic strength of waste lye would be beneficial for the mineralization reaction to generate higher purity  $CaCO_3$  in the products, and the mineralization reaction would be more thorough. A high ionic strength of waste lye is ideal for increasing  $CO_2$  mineralization efficiency<sup>34,35</sup>.

Effect of the CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate on the CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization efficiency

The effects of the CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate on CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization were evaluated by varying the CO<sub>2</sub> flow rates which were 20, 40 and 60 L·h<sup>-1</sup> (denoted as r20, r40 and r60, respectively).

In all the samples, the pH of the slurry decreased until it stabilized at 7 after around 10 min, as shown in Fig. 5a. The  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency also tended to stabilize when the reaction lasted for about 10 min. However, the final  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency decreased from 67.76% to 38.35% when the  $\rm CO_2$  flow rate increased from 20  $\rm L\cdot h^{-1}$  to 60  $\rm L\cdot h^{-1}$ , as shown in Fig. 5b. Increasing the  $\rm CO_2$  flow rate was not conducive to achieving high  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency of FGDG. This may be attributed to the increase in bubble diameter and the decrease in the contact area between  $\rm CO_2$  and the slurry at higher  $\rm CO_2$  flow rate  $^{36,37}$ . According to Henry's Law, the dissolution of  $\rm CO_2$  into the liquid phase is directly proportional to the interfacial area. A reduced interfacial area limits the dissolution of  $\rm CO_2$  into the waste lye, thereby decreasing the availability of dissolved  $\rm CO_2$  for the mineralization reaction  $^{38}$ . Additionally, the contact time between  $\rm CO_2$  bubbles and the liquid phase decreased at higher flow rates. This is because the bubbles rise more rapidly through the reactor, reducing the time available for  $\rm CO_2$  to dissolve and react with  $\rm Ca^{2+}$  ions leached from FGDG, which is unfavorable for  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization.

Effect of the reaction temperature on the CO, mineralization efficiency

The effects of the reaction temperature of waste lye on  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization were evaluated by varying the reaction temperature of the waste lye. The  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency tended to stabilize, and the pH of the slurry reached 7 after ~ 10 min when the reaction temperature were 40 °C and 60 °C, as shown in Fig. 6a. The time which the  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency and pH of the slurry reached stability increased to about 15 min at 80 °C. When the reaction temperature was increased from 40 °C to 60 °C, the  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency increased from 67.76% to 78.31%. When the reaction temperature was increased from 60 °C to 80 °C, the  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency decreased from 78.31% to 55.62%, as shown in Fig. 6b.

From the perspective of ion collision, when the reaction temperature increased from 40 °C to 60 °C, the collision frequency of ions increased, and the effective number of collisions per unit time increased resulting in an increase in the reaction rate<sup>32,39</sup>. Moreover, the increase in temperature was conducive to the precipitation of  $CO_2$  mineralization components in FGDG and improved the  $CO_2$  mineralization efficiency<sup>36</sup>. At the same time, the reaction rate constant (K) increased exponentially with temperature, as described by Eq. (5):

$$K = A \times e^{\frac{-E_{\rm a}}{RT}} \tag{5}$$

where  $E_a$  is the activation energy, A is the pre-exponential factor, R is the gas constant, and T is the temperature. For FGDG mineralization, the activation energy barrier for  $Ca^{2+}$  release and carbonate formation was more readily overcome at elevated temperatures<sup>40</sup>.

However, excessively high temperatures would reduce the  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  dissolution rate, and the  $\mathrm{CO}_3^{2-}$  concentration in the solution decreased, resulting in a decline in the reaction rate and  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  mineralization efficiency. According to Henry's Law, the solubility of  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  in water decreased with rising temperature. At 80 °C,  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  gas-liquid mass transfer was hindered, reducing the availability of dissolved  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  for FGDG. The carbonation reaction is exothermic. Le Chatelier's principle predicts that higher temperatures shift the equilibrium toward reactant dissociation, suppressing  $\mathrm{CaCO}_3$  precipitation, which is consistent with previous results in the literature<sup>41</sup>.

Effects of the liquid level on the CO, mineralization efficiency

The effects of the liquid level of the waste lye in the reactor on CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization were evaluated by varying the liquid level which was 30, 40 and 50 cm. The difference in liquid level can lead to different capacities of waste lye in the reactor during the experiment. Therefore, it was necessary to change the quantity of FGDG added, to ensure that the solid-liquid ratio remained constant and that the experiment proceeded smoothly. The change

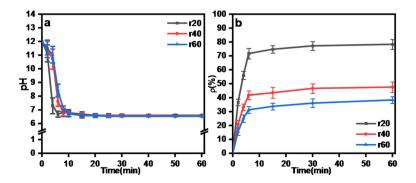


Fig. 5. (a) pH value curves depending on time and (b) Effect of  $CO_2$  flow rate on  $CO_2$  mineralization efficiency (Conditions: 40 °C temperature,  $10^{-2}$  mol·L<sup>-1</sup> initial ionic strength of waste lye, 30 cm liquid level.).

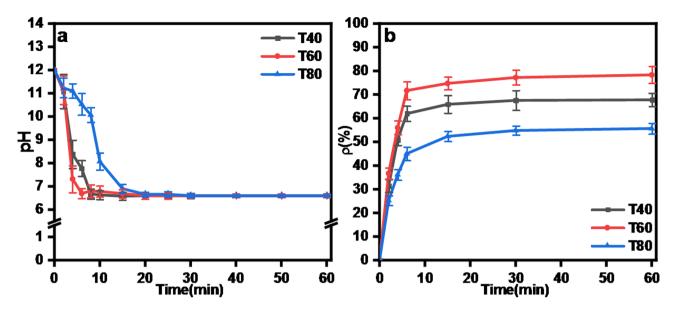


Fig. 6. (a) pH value curves with respect to time and (b) Effect of reaction temperature on the mineralization efficiency (Conditions:  $20 \text{ L} \cdot \text{h}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2$  flow rate,  $10^{-2} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$  initial ionic strength of waste lye, 30 cm liquid level.).

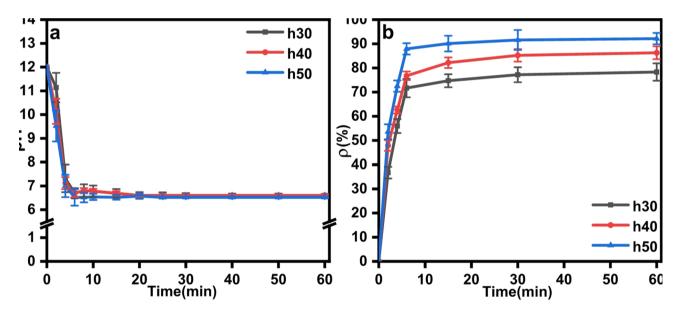


Fig. 7. (a) pH value curves as a function of time and (b)Effect of liquid level on mineralization efficiency (Conditions: 60 °C temperature, 20  $\text{L}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  CO, flow rate,  $10^{-2}$  mol·L<sup>-1</sup> initial ionic strength of waste lye.).

in the liquid level was not significant. After approximately 6 min of reaction, the pH of the slurry decreased to 7, and the decline curve was consistent, as shown in Fig. 7a. At the same time, the  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency tended to stabilize after about 6 min of reaction. When the liquid level increased from 30 cm to 50 cm, the  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency increased from 78.31% to 92.15%, as shown in Fig. 7b. According to penetration theory, the gas-liquid contact time ( $t_c$ ) is proportional to the liquid level (h):

$$t_{\rm c} \propto \frac{h}{u_{\rm g}}$$
 (6)

where  $u_{\rm g}$  is the bubble rise velocity. A taller liquid column allows  ${\rm CO_2}$  bubbles to remain in contact with the slurry for longer, increasing the dissolution of  ${\rm CO_2}$  and subsequent reaction with  ${\rm Ca^{2+}}$  ions. This extended contact time ensures more complete conversion of  ${\rm CO_2}$  to carbonate species  $({\rm HCO_3^-/CO_3^{2-}})$ , thereby

improving mineralization efficiency<sup>42</sup>. The above results indicate that a high liquid level is favorable for high  $CO_2$  mineralization efficiency<sup>43</sup>.

#### Effect of reaction parameters on product particle size

Effect of the initial ionic strength of waste Lye on product particle size

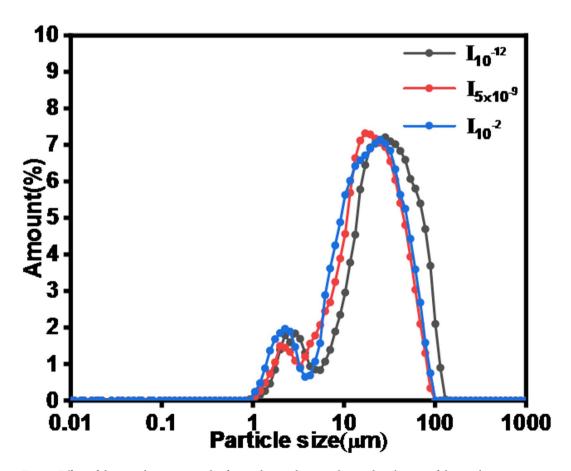
The effects of the initial ionic strength of the waste lye on the particle size distribution of the products were investigated by changing the initial ionic strength of the waste lye  $(10^{-12} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}, 5 \times 10^{-9} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}, 10^{-2} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1})$ . Figure 8 shows the particle size distributions of the products generated under different initial ionic strengths of the waste lye. The products exhibited a bimodal particle size distribution, with peak values at approximately 2  $\mu$ m and 25  $\mu$ m. When the initial ionic strengths of the waste lye were  $10^{-12} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ ,  $5 \times 10^{-9} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ , and  $10^{-2} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ , the  $d_{50}$  values of the products were 13.4  $\mu$ m, 11.7  $\mu$ m and 10.4  $\mu$ m, respectively. The  $d_{50}$  of the products decreased by 29.97% as initial ionic strength of the waste lye increased from  $10^{-12} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$  to  $10^{-2} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ . Higher ionic strength increased the concentration of free ions in the waste lye, accelerating the nucleation process. This resulted in a larger number of smaller CaCO<sub>3</sub> nuclei forming simultaneously, which limited subsequent crystal growth due to competitive ion consumption  $\frac{44}{3}$ . Therefore, an increase in the initial ionic strength of waste lye is favorable for obtaining small particle products.

Effects of the CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate on product particle size

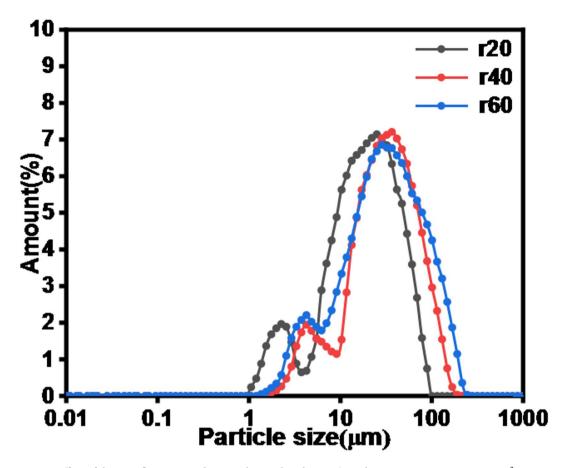
The  $CO_2$  flow rate also significantly influenced the particle size distribution of the products. Figure 9 illustrates the effect of the  $CO_2$  flow rate on the particle size distribution. At a flow rate of  $20~\rm L\cdot h^{-1}$ , the product exhibited bimodal peaks at  $1.9~\mu m$  and  $28.4~\mu m$ , with a  $d_{50}$  value of  $10.4~\mu m$ . When the  $CO_2$  flow rates were increased to  $40~\rm L\cdot h^{-1}$  and  $60~\rm L\cdot h^{-1}$ , the bimodal peak values shifted to approximately  $3.4~\mu m$  and  $32.2~\mu m$ , with  $d_{50}$  values of  $17.1~\mu m$  and  $19.4~\mu m$ , respectively. As the  $CO_2$  flow rate increased from  $20~\rm L\cdot h^{-1}$  to  $60~\rm L\cdot h^{-1}$ , the bimodal particle sizes distribution shifted to the right. And the  $d_{50}$  of the products increased by 86.55%. These results indicate that higher  $CO_2$  flow rates increased the proportion of large particles in the products, which hindered the formation of small particles.

A higher CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate accelerated crystal growth, whereas a lower flow rate favored the formation of smaller particles. Increased CO<sub>2</sub> flow rates intensified the churning and stirring of the slurry<sup>45</sup>, leading to greater drag forces on the particles. As a result, the larger and heavier particles were more likely to reach higher liquid levels.

Additionally, the higher CO<sub>2</sub> flow rates introduced turbulence and shear stress within the reactor. According to colloidal theory, excessive turbulence can disrupt nascent CaCO<sub>3</sub> crystals, resulting in a higher proportion



**Fig. 8**. Effect of the initial ionic strength of waste lye on the particle size distribution of the products (Conditions: 40 °C temperature, 20  $\text{L}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate, 30 cm liquid level).



**Fig. 9**. Effect of the  $CO_2$  flow rate on the particle size distribution (Conditions: 40 °C temperature,  $10^{-2}$  mol·L<sup>-1</sup> initial ionic strength of waste lye, 30 cm liquid level.).

of larger, less reactive particles. This observation aligns our findings that higher flow rates increased the particle size of the mineralization products  $^{46}$ .

#### Effect of reaction temperature on product particle size

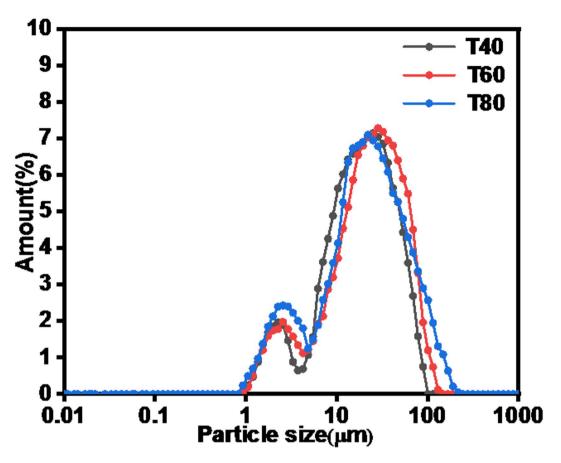
Figure 10 shows the effect of the reaction temperature of waste lye on the particle size distribution of the products. Under all tested conditions, the products exhibited a bimodal distribution, with bimodal peak values ranging from 2.3  $\mu$ m to 2.9  $\mu$ m and 22.5  $\mu$ m to 28.4  $\mu$ m. The d<sub>50</sub> values of the products varied between 10.4  $\mu$ m and 11.3  $\mu$ m. These results indicate that the reaction temperature had no significant effect on the particle size distribution of the products<sup>47</sup>.

#### Effect of liquid level on products particle size

In this stage, the influence of the liquid level on the particle size distribution of the products was studied by varying the liquid level inside the reactor. Figure 11 shows a bimodal distribution of the products under different liquid level conditions. When the liquid level was 30 cm, the bimodal peak values of the products were 1.9  $\mu$ m and 28.4  $\mu$ m and the d<sub>50</sub> value was 10.4  $\mu$ m. at a liquid level of 40 cm, the bimodal peak values shifted to 2.5  $\mu$ m and 11.7  $\mu$ m and the d<sub>50</sub> value decreased to 6.2  $\mu$ m. Further increasing the liquid level to 50 cm resulted in bimodal peak values of 1.5  $\mu$ m and 7.1  $\mu$ m, with a d<sub>50</sub> value of 4.2  $\mu$ m. When the liquid level was raised from 30 cm to 50 cm, a 62.83% reduction in the d<sub>50</sub> of the products was observed. Additionally, the peaks corresponding to smaller particle sizes became more pronounced, and the overall particle size distribution shifted to the left as the liquid level increased. The liquid level affects the turbulent shear stress ( $\tau$ ) within the reactor, which plays critical role in crystal nucleation and growth<sup>48</sup>.

$$\tau \propto \rho u^2$$
 (7)

Where  $\rho$  is fluid density and u' is turbulent velocity fluctuation. At higher liquid levels, increased turbulence generates stronger shear forces. These enhanced shear forces disrupt the growth of CaCO<sub>3</sub> crystals, promoting nucleation over Ostwald ripening. This results in smaller particle sizes, as observed in our experiments. Furthermore, higher liquid levels reduce the settling velocity of FGDG particles (as described by Stokes' law), maintaining a homogeneous slurry. This prevents particle agglomeration and maximizes the reactive surface



**Fig. 10.** Effect of the reaction temperature on the particle size distribution (Conditions:  $20 \text{ L} \cdot \text{h}^{-1} \text{ CO}_2$  flow rate,  $10^{-2} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$  initial ionic strength of waste lye, 30 cm liquid level).

area of  $CaSO_4$ :  $2H_2O$  for  $Ca^{2+}$  leaching<sup>49</sup>. The above experimental results demonstrate that a higher liquid level reduces the proportion of large particles in the products, leading to smaller particle sizes.

#### Characterization

Characterization and analysis of the product

After 60 min of mineralization,  $CaSO_4$ , the main component of dried FGDG, was converted to  $CaCO_3$ , the main component of the mineralization product. However, a small amount of  $CaSO_4$  remained in the mineralization product, as shown in Fig. 12. In gas-liquid reactor systems, gypsum particles undergo Stokes sedimentation, leading to a significant increase in particle concentration within the bottom region and forming a diffusion-limited reaction zone. Turbulent characteristics within the reactor (e.g., Taylor-scale vortices) influence particle collision frequency and mass transfer efficiency, with this process exhibiting multi-scale coupling effects. Therefore, the variation of the proportion of incomplete  $CaSO_4$  conversion and its potential impact on product properties are complex and multifaceted 50. Figure 13a presents a scanning electron microscope (SEM) image of the FGDG. The carbonization products consisted of amorphous nanosized particles with an aggregate structure 18,51, in contrast to the original diamond-shaped morphology of FGDG, as shown in Fig. 13b, c. Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) analysis of the carbonized products, shown in Fig. 13d, revealed that they primarily contained Ca, Ca, and C

#### Conclusion

The study was focused on that FGDG mixed with waste NaOH lye can function as an absorbent to capture  $\rm CO_2$  and then  $\rm CaCO_3$  subsequently produced through the gas-liquid- solid phase reaction. The  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency increased from 9.8% to 67.76% and the  $\rm d_{50}$  of the products decreased from 13.4  $\mu m$  to 10.4  $\mu m$  with the elevated ionic strength. Reducing the  $\rm CO_2$  flow rate can prolong the gas-liquid-solid contact time, improved the  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency from 38.35% to 67.76%, and reduced the  $\rm d_{50}$  of the products from 19.4  $\mu m$  to 10.4  $\mu m$ . The reaction temperature significantly influenced the  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization process. The  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency initially increased and then decreased with rising reaction temperature, reaching an optimal efficiency of 78.31% at 60 °C. However, the reaction temperature had no significant effect on the particle size of the products. The elongated sampling tube can increase the liquid level, increased the  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency from 78.31% to 92.15%, and reduced the  $\rm d_{50}$  of the products from 10.4  $\mu m$  to 4.2  $\mu m$ . The maximum  $\rm CO_2$  mineralization efficiency was 92.15% and the  $\rm d_{50}$  of the products was 4.2  $\mu m$  under optimized conditions

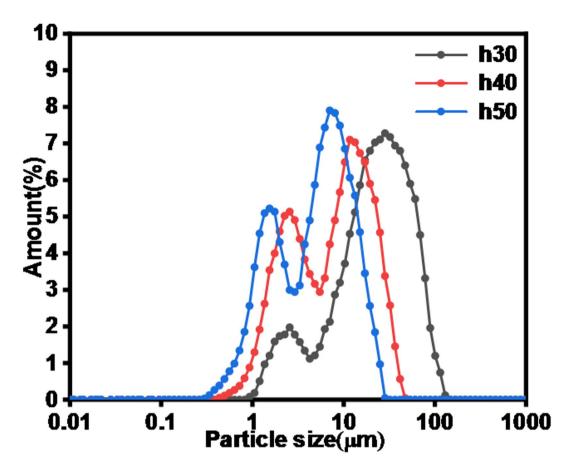


Fig. 11. Effect of the liquid level on the particle size distribution (Conditions: 60 °C temperature, 20  $\text{L}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate,  $10^{-2}$  mol·L<sup>-1</sup> initial ionic strength of waste lye.).

(ionic strength:  $10^{-2}$  mol·L<sup>-1</sup>, CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate: 20 L·h<sup>-1</sup>, temperature: 60 °C, liquid level: 50 cm). The solid in the slurry was also transformed from columnar CaSO<sub>4</sub> crystals into clusters of CaCO<sub>3</sub> aggregates. In conclusion, this study successfully demonstrated an efficient method for CO<sub>2</sub> mineralization using FGDG and waste NaOH lye, offering a sustainable solution for carbon capture and utilization.

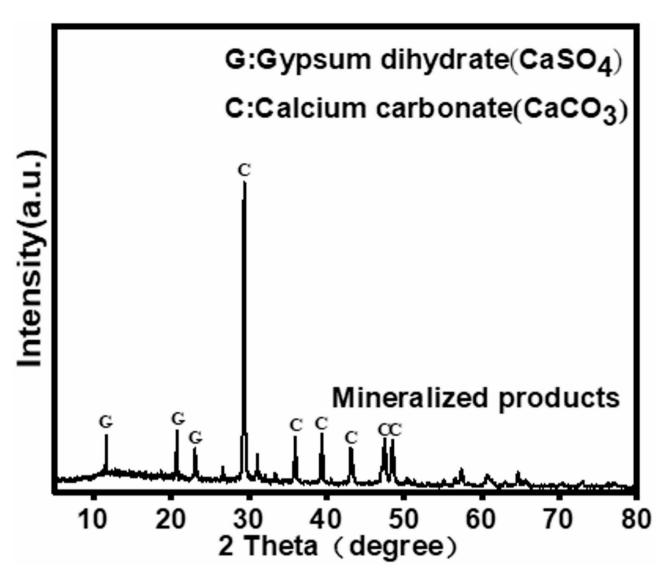


Fig. 12. XRD patterns of the mineralized product.

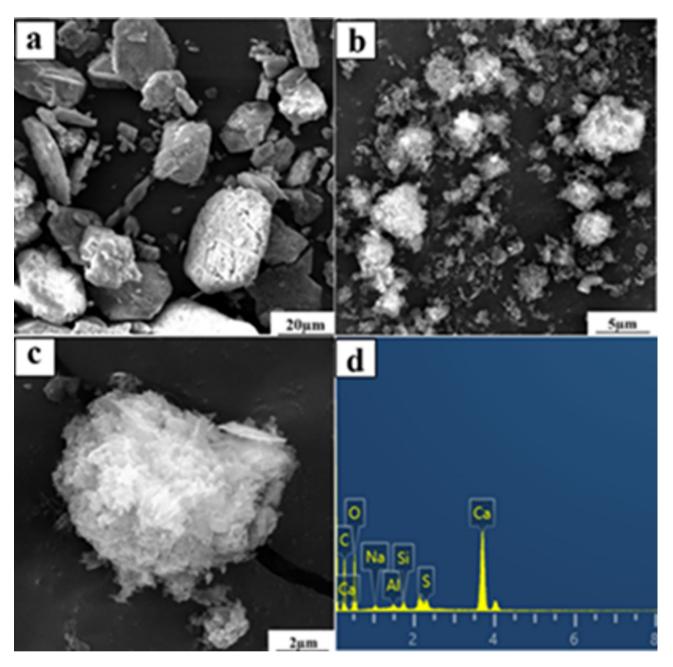


Fig. 13. (a) SEM images of raw FGDG; (b,c) SEM images of mineralization products; (d) EDS mapping of mineralization products.

#### Data availability

All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article.

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#### **Author contributions**

Yuliang Cao: Writing - Original Draft, Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Data Curation, Data Curation, Wenyi Tan: Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition, Writing - Review & Editing, ValidationTingfeng Liu: Writing - Review & EditingGuodong Chen: Resources.

#### **Declarations**

#### Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

#### Additional information

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