ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Enhanced CO₂ Sequestration Strategy Using CO₂ Capturing Material Synthesized from Spent Railway Tie Concrete

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Abstract

Lots of railway tie concrete waste are produced which needs appropriate treatment for disposal. This study introduces a novel strategy for converting railway tie concrete waste into a highly efficient CO_2 capturing material (RTC). To enhance the CO_2 capturing capabilities, a CaCl₂ solution was employed as a modifying agent (Ca-RTC). The introduction of a 0.001 M CaCl₂ solution increased the Ca content in Ca-RTC by only 0.08% compared to unmodifed RTC, yet it signifcantly enhanced porosity and surface area. This modification led to an 11.57% of excellent CO_2 capturing ability, which is 2.5 times greater than that of the original RTC. Even though the Ca content is similar in RTC and Ca-RTC, the signifcant increase in BET surface area led to a notable improvement in CO_2 capturing ability. However, increasing the CaCl₂ concentration beyond 0.005 M resulted in a reduction of CO_2 capturing ability, attributed to the inhibitory effect of Cl[−] ions. The kinetics of the CO₂ capturing reaction and the impact of CO_2 pressure on Ca-RTC were systematically investigated. Finally, the CO_2 capturing mechanism of Ca-RTC was elucidated.

Keywords Railway tie concrete \cdot Modification \cdot CO₂ capture \cdot Mineral carbonization

Introduction

In recent years, rapid industrialization has led to climate change, contributing to an increase in unexpected natural disasters worldwide. Among greenhouse gases, carbon dioxide $(CO₂)$ is a primary concern, with its atmospheric concentration nearing 400 ppm and an annual growth rate of approximately 2 ppm since 2000 [\[1](#page-9-0)]. The 2015 Paris Agreement underscored the urgency of addressing climate change, setting a global target to limit the average temperature rise to well below 2 °C above pre-industrial levels, and aiming for a cap of 1.5 °C. In response, achieving carbon neutrality has

emerged as a universal objective, with nations and organizations around the globe, including the South Korean government, committing to carbon neutrality by 2050 [\[2](#page-9-1)].

One of the strategies to mitigate $CO₂$ emissions involves post-treatment, its capture and conversion into valuable products, such as synthetic fuels [[3](#page-9-2)], chemicals [[4](#page-9-3)] and polymers [[5\]](#page-9-4) , or into thermodynamically stable forms like carbonate minerals for long-term sequestration [[6\]](#page-9-5). Among these methods, mineral carbonization, which converts $CO₂$ into solid minerals, stands out for its simplicity, stability, and the widespread availability of necessary minerals. This process involves the reaction of alkaline earth metal ions, such as calcium (Ca) and magnesium (Mg), with $CO₂$ gas to form stable compounds like $CaCO₃$ or MgCO₃. Given the abundant presence of alkaline earth metals in industrial waste materials—including waste concrete [[7](#page-9-6), [8\]](#page-9-7), steel-making slags [\[9\]](#page-9-8), fly ash $[10]$ $[10]$, incineration ash $[11]$ and cement kiln dust [\[12\]](#page-9-11)—there has been signifcant interest in utilizing these materials for $CO₂$ capture through mineral carbonization.

As of September 2023, 445,652 waste railway concrete ties have been left untreated and abandoned in South Korea. The disposal of these used railway ties poses a critical environmental challenge, necessitating efficient waste

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management strategies to address the disposal of this vast quantity of spent railway ties. Interestingly, these waste railway concrete ties contain approximately 10% alkaline earth metal ions, making them potential candidates for $CO₂$ capture through mineral carbonation. Our prior research has demonstrated that, although railway ties have a lower content of Ca and Mg compared to regular concrete, they exhibit a $CO₂$ capture capacity (4.31% $CO₂$ loading ability) comparable to conventional concrete waste [\[13\]](#page-9-12). This is attributed to a high proportion of uncarbonized alkaline earth metals, underscoring their potential as a material for $CO₂$ capture.

This study aims to augment the $CO₂$ capture efficiency of waste concrete railway ties by treating them with a $CaCl₂$ solution. Incorporating Ca or Mg sources into materials to enhance their $CO₂$ capturing capabilities is a widely recognized method, typically involving the use of CaO or MgO) [[14,](#page-9-13) [15](#page-9-14)]. However, the conventional production of CaO through the calcination of natural limestone inevitably releases a substantial amount of $CO₂$ [[16\]](#page-9-15). In contrast, CaCl₂ can be sourced from seawater or brines, which are abundant natural mineral sources that do not contribute to $CO₂$ production. Therefore, we explored a novel modifcation technique to improve the $CO₂$ capturing ability of spent railway tie concretes, leveraging the environmental benefts of using CaCl₂ derived from natural sources.

Initially, we developed a cube-shaped $CO₂$ capturing material from waste railway tie concrete (RTC) and subsequently modified it with varying concentrations of $CaCl₂$ solution to produce Ca-RTCs. We examined the characteristics of both RTC and Ca-RTCs to understand the modifcations induced by the addition of $CaCl₂$. Furthermore, the $CO₂$ capturing performance of Ca-RTCs was assessed based on the varying amounts of $CaCl₂$ incorporated. We also conducted studies on the kinetics of $CO₂$ capture and the impact of $CO₂$ pressure on the capturing efficiency of Ca-RTC, demonstrating the potential of Ca-RTCs as effective $CO₂$ capturing materials. Finally, we explored the changes in the physicochemical properties of Ca-RTCs post- $CO₂$ capture to elucidate the mechanism of CO_2 capture by Ca-RTCs.

Materials and Methods

Synthetic Procedure of RTC and Ca‑RTC

Railroad tie concrete sourced from Gyeonggi, South Korea, was utilized as the primary material for this study. This concrete was processed into a fne powder by ball milling with tungsten carbide (WC) balls in a stainless steel (SUS) milling jar, operating at 250 rpm for a duration of 12 h. A paste was then produced from the powdered railroad tie concrete by adding a calcium chloride (CaCl₂, 97% purity, Sigma–Aldrich) solution in concentrations ranging from 0.0001 to 0.5 M, maintaining a waste-to-solution ratio of 0.45 (w/w). Specifcally, 9 mL of the desired concentration of CaCl₂ solution was mixed with 20 g of railroad tie concrete powder by hand mixing. The resultant slurry was injected into a 1 cm^3 cubic mold using a 10 mL syringe and dried at 60 °C for 3 days in an oven, resulting in a material designated as Ca-RTC. Ten Ca-RTC cubes were prepared from the slurry. For the synthesis of Ca-RTC, a relatively high temperature of 60 °C was employed to expedite the synthesis of the $CO₂$ capturing material. Despite this elevated temperature, the carbon (C) content in Ca-RTC was only 1.49%, indicating that the majority of the Ca (10.1%) remained in an uncarbonated form. The added amounts of Ca and Cl (mmol per Ca-RTC cube) are described in table s1.

For comparative purposes, $CO₂$ capturing materials were also prepared using deionized water (DI water) and a 0.01 M sodium chloride (NaCl, 99% purity, SAMCHUN) solution, labeled as RTC and Na-RTC, respectively. These materials underwent a $CO₂$ capture experiment following a 3-day hydration process. The preparation process for the $CO₂$ capturing materials is detailed in Fig. [1](#page-1-0).

Characterization of the Ca‑RTC Before and After CO2 Capture

The crystal structures of RTC and Ca-RTC were analyzed using X-ray Difractometry (XRD, Rigaku, Smartlab). X-ray Fluorescence (XRF, Rigaku, ZSX Primus-II) was employed

to investigate their elemental composition and content. The surface area and pore size distribution were measured using Brunauer–Emmett–Teller analysis (BET, Micromeritics, ASAP2020). The BET model is used for determining surface area of Ca-RTC, and BJH (Barrett–Joyner–Halenda) model was used for analysis of pore size distribution. Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FESEM, Zeiss, Ultra Plus) was used to observe the surface morphology of RTC and Ca-RTC, both before and after the $CO₂$ capture reaction. Additionally, the elemental distribution of Ca-RTC before and after the $CO₂$ capture reaction was analyzed by SEM equipped with an Energy Dispersive X-ray Spectrometer (EDAX, Zeiss, Ultim Extreme). The zeta potential of Ca-RTC was measured using a zeta analyzer (Otsuka, ELS-Z) after grinding it into a powder. The alkalinity of Ca-RTC was determined using the following procedure: First, 5 g of ground Ca-RTC were thoroughly mixed with 50 ml of deionized water for 5 min using a vortex mixer. The mixture was then allowed to settle for 20 min. Finally, the pH of the supernatant was measured with a pH meter [\[17\]](#page-9-16). Phenolphthalein analysis was conducted to observe reaction kinetics after $CO₂$ capture; a 1% Phenolphthalein solution (1% Purity, Daejung) was sprayed on freshly cut surfaces, indicating carbonated regions as colorless ($pH < 9.2$) and non-carbonated regions as purple $(pH>9.2)$ [[18](#page-9-17)].

CO2 Capturing Experiments

To evaluate $CO₂$ capturing abilities of prepared material, one piece (1 cm^3) of CO_2 capturing material was put it to the $CO₂$ capturing reaction chamber (RAMT, maximum pressure 1 bar, diameter = 22 cm, depth = 50 cm) and evacuation to − 0.5 bar using vacuum pump to remove unwanted molecule bound on $CO₂$ capturing materials. After 30 min evacuation, a 99.5% $CO₂$ gas (99.5%, Sejong Industry Gas) atmosphere at a pressure of 0.5 bar for 7 days. To evaluate amount of captured $CO₂$ on Ca-RTC, thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA, Scinco M&T, TGA N1000) was carried out. The weight change of Ca-RTC was monitored from 25 to 900 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min. Considering the decomposition of CaCO₃ between 600 and 900 °C, the formula for calculating the CO_2 absorption capacity is as follows [[19\]](#page-9-18):

(1) CaCO₃ formedduring CO₂ capture reaction(%) = $\frac{\Delta w_1 - \Delta w_2}{\text{Weight of 900 } \text{ } \circ \text{C}} \times \frac{100}{43.66}$

where Δw_1 and Δw_2 (g) is the weight difference of Ca-RTC at 25 and 900 °C, after and before CO_2 capturing reaction, respectively. We analyze the TGA of pure $CaCO₃$ to confirm the reliability of $CaCO₃$ decomposition at 900 °C and it is discovered that not all $CaCO₃$ was decomposed at 900 °C and only 66.3% of weight loss occurred (Fig. S1, see supporting information). Considering this 100/43.66 was multiplied to compensate the actual $CaCO₃(%)$. The CO₂ loading on Ca-RTC was calculated by following equation, by considering molecular weight of CO_2 (44.01 g/mol) and $CaCO_3(100.1)$ mol), respectively.

$$
CO_2 \text{ loading}(\%) = \text{CaCO}_3 \times \frac{44.01}{100.1}.
$$
 (2)

Results and Discussion

Characterization of RTC and Ca‑RTC

Table [1](#page-2-0) outlines the compositions of RTC and Ca-RTC. Both materials predominantly consist of silicon (Si), a fundamental component of concrete, with Si compositions of 26.6% and 25.3%, respectively. Following Si, calcium (Ca) is the next most abundant element, playing a crucial role in $CO₂$ capture reactions, with both RTC and Ca-RTC containing approximately 10% Ca. The inclusion of $CaCl₂$ solution marginally increased the Ca content in the $CO₂$ capturing materials from 9.82 to 10.10%.

The carbon (C) content in both RTC and Ca-RTC was relatively low, recorded at 0.99% and 1.49% respectively, indicating a minimal presence of $CO₂$ in their original chemical structures. This suggests that a signifcant portion of Ca and Mg within the materials remains uncarbonated and available for $CO₂$ capture reactions. Additionally, other elements such as aluminum (Al), sodium (Na), and iron (Fe) experienced negligible changes, within 0.28%, even after the $CaCl₂$ treatment. Based on the amounts of Ca and Mg, we can estimate the theoretical $CO₂$ capturing ability of RTC and Ca-RTC. Alkaline earth metals such as Mg and Ca form insoluble mineral carbonates by reacting with $CO₂$ through the following equations:

$$
Ca^{2+} + CO_2 + H_2O \rightarrow CaCO_3 \downarrow,
$$

Considering that 1 mol of Ca or Mg reacts with 1 mol of $CO₂$, the theoretical $CO₂$ capturing ability of Ca-RTC is estimated to be 11.66%.

Figure [2](#page-3-0)a shows the X-ray diffractometry (XRD) results for RTC and Ca-RTC. Both materials displayed a dominant peak for $SiO₂$, confirming the predominance of Si in the form of $SiO₂$ crystals. Despite the low intensity of the $CaCO₃$ peak, it verified the presence of trace crystalline $CaCO₃$. The XRD patterns for RTC and Ca-RTC were similar, indicating that Ca addition did not alter the crystalline structure of the $CO₂$ capture material.

 $Mg^{2+} + CO_2 + H_2O \rightarrow MgCO_3 \downarrow$.
However, differences in morphology between RTC and Ca-RTC were evident in their scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images (Fig. [2e](#page-3-0), f). The SEM image for RTC showed relatively smooth surfaces, whereas Ca-RTC exhibited large pores ranging from 10 to 100 μm and small aggregates, affecting the specific surface area as demonstrated in the nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms in Fig. [2b](#page-3-0). Compared with raw railway tie concrete (before crushing), the crushing and reconstruction of Ca-RTC (or RTC) into a 1 cm³ cube structure significantly affects its morphology. The raw railway tie concrete exhibits a flat and non-porous surface, which hinders the reaction of alkaline earth metals (Ca or Mg) in concrete waste and results in relatively prolonged carbonation

kinetics (Fig. S2). In contrast, both RTC and Ca-RTC exhibit hysteresis loops indicative of mesoporous materials. Notably, Ca-RTC has a higher specific surface area of 6.29 m²/g, approximately 1.52 m²/g greater than that of RTC $(4.77 \text{ m}^2/\text{g})$. The pore structure analysis indicated a reduction. In total pore volume but an Increase In average pore size from 36.9 to 42.7 nm after Ca addition, suggesting that the surface area increase is attributed to the formation of numerous particles rather than an increase in mesopore size (Fig. [2c](#page-3-0)).

The formation of these pores likely occurs during Ca-RTC fabrication, where Ca is introduced as a $CaCl₂$ solution. This process involves the hydration and ionization of CaCl₂, producing Ca²⁺ and Cl[−] ions that adhere to the RTC particle surfaces, making them more hydrophilic. Consequently, more H_2O molecules are attracted to the surface of Ca-RTC due to its increased hydrophilicity compared to RTC. Upon oven drying, the water is removed, resulting in the formation of smaller aggregates on the surface of Ca-RTC than on RTC. This expanded surface area is anticipated to enhance the $CO₂$ capturing capability of the material. We also analyzed the zeta potential of Ca-RTC as a function of solution pH (Fig. [2d](#page-3-0)). At pH levels between 2 and 4, Ca-RTC exhibited a slightly positive charge of approximately 5 mV. However, as the solution pH increased, the zeta potential decreased signifcantly, becoming negative. At pH 8, a markedly negative zeta potential of -30 mV was observed. Considering that the pH of hydration water ranges from 5 to 6, Ca-RTC exhibited a negative zeta potential of − 20 mV within this range. During hydration, fewer Ca^{2+} ions are released from the Ca-RTC surface due to electrostatic interactions compared to Cl− ions. Additionally, we measured the alkalinity of Ca-RTC, which was found to be 12.87, indicating significant potential as a $CO₂$ capturing material.

CO2 Capturing Behavior by Ca‑RTC

To investigate the effect of CaCl₂ concentration on $CO₂$ capture, experiments were conducted with Ca-RTCs prepared at various CaCl₂ concentrations (Fig. [3](#page-4-0)a). After seven days of $CO₂$ capture experiments, the pristine RTC showed a $CO₂$ loading capacity of 4.35%. By adding $0.0001 - 0.5$ M CaCl₂ solution to preparation of Ca-RTC, the $CO₂$ capturing ability is significantly enhanced. By increasing $CaCl₂$ concentration from 0.0001 to 0.001 M, the $CO₂$ capturing ability is proportionally increased and Ca-RTC with 0.001 M CaCl₂ concentration shows 11.57%, which more than doubles the capacity compared to the untreated RTC. However, further increase of CaCl₂ concentration caused decrease of $CO₂$ capturing ability. Even though Ca content in Ca-RTC is increased by increasing CaCl₂ concentration, the highest $CO₂$ capturing performance was obtained with not 0.5 M CaCl₂ concentration, but 0.001 M of lower CaCl₂ concentration. If the enhancement were solely due to the Ca added in the Ca-RTCs, the $CO₂$ loading capacity should increase proportionally with CaCl₂ concentration. However, the 0.001 M CaCl₂ solution, which is the middle range of $CaCl₂$ concentration resulted in the highest CO₂ loading capacity. Additionally, the Ca content in the Ca-RTC prepared with the 0.001 M CaCl₂ solution is 10.1%, which is only a 0.28% increase compared to RTC. This result indicates that the extra Ca supplied by the CaCl₂ solution is not the reason for the enhanced $CO₂$ capturing ability. It is expected that the increase in $CO₂$ capturing ability is due to the increased BET surface area, as discussed in Sect. 1.

To further validate this point, Na-modified RTC (Na-RTC) was produced by adding Na ions, which do not participate in the mineral carbonation reaction, and its $CO₂$ capture performance was evaluated (Fig. [3](#page-4-0)a). Na-RTC exhibited a $CO₂$ loading capacity of 7.73%, which is 3.38% higher than that of RTC even though its alkaline earth metal (Ca and Mg) content is similar to pristine RTC.

Fig. 3 $CO₂$ capturing abilities (a) and Ca content $(\%)$ (b) of Ca-RTCs by CaCl₂ solution concentration

This result clearly proved that the enhanced $CO₂$ loading capacity of Ca-RTC was not solely caused by addition of Ca into the material. Moreover, like Ca-RTC, Na-RTC showed an increased specific surface area of $5.78 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ compared to RTC, and its surface morphology became similar to that of Ca-RTC (refer to Fig. S3). The increase in $CO₂$ capturing capacity due to the addition of Na ions is attributed to the expanded surface area, as Na ions do not participate in the $CO₂$ loading reaction. In RTC, the Ca ions originally present were not completely reactive with $CO₂$ within 7 days due to relatively low porosity and blocking. However, the expansion of surface area resulting from the addition of Na ions facilitates the reaction between Ca and $CO₂$, thereby increasing the $CO₂$ sorption capacity. These fndings suggest that the surface area and pore structure of $CO₂$ capture materials are significantly affected by ionic strength during the manufacturing process, with an increase in ion concentration in the composite leading to an enlarged specific surface area.

However, a further increase in $CaCl₂$ concentration did not result in a higher $CO₂$ capture ability (Fig. [3a](#page-4-0)). Analysis of the Ca content in Ca-RTCs prepared with different $CaCl₂$ concentrations (Fig. [3](#page-4-0)b) showed a slight increase in Ca content from 9.22 to 9.58% with increased CaCl₂ concentration. This indicates that the $CO₂$ capture ability is not solely dependent on the Ca or Mg content within the Ca-RTCs, despite Ca being a critical ion for the mineral carbonation reaction. The decreased trend in $CO₂$ capturing ability with increasing CaCl₂ concentration is not fully understood, but it is thought to be due to the inhibitory efect of Cl− ions on the mineral carbonation reaction. As the concentration of CaCl₂ increases, so does the concentration of Cl[−] ions, which has been reported to signifcantly reduce the rate of mineral carbonation on lime mud surfaces. Specifcally, a Cl:Ca ion ratio greater than 2:100 has been shown to dramatically reduce $CO₂$ capturing ability [[20\]](#page-9-19). We also analyze the Cl:Ca ratio of Ca-RTC prepared at 0.5 M CaCl₂

solution. The Cl:Ca ratio was 2.57:100, which can afect the $CO₂$ capturing ability.

Following up, $CO₂$ capture experiments were carried out with Ca-RTC treated with 0.001 M CaCl₂ solution. Figure [4a](#page-5-0) illustrates the kinetics of $CO₂$ capture by Ca-RTC. Upon injecting 99% CO_2 at 0.5 bar, the CO_2 loading rate surged to approximately 6% after just one day of capture, climbing to 10% after 3 days, and eventually reaching the saturation point of $CO₂$ capture capacity. Given the initial Mg and Ca content in Ca-RTC (refer to Table [1](#page-2-0)), it is deduced that Ca-RTC achieved its theoretical maximum $CO₂$ capture capacity. When examining the phenolphthalein response inside the $CO₂$ capture material at various stages of capture, samples pre-capture and post one day of capture exhibited a pink color, signaling incomplete carbonate reactions due to the interaction with residual alkaline earth metals. However, samples taken after three days of reaction maintained their colorless state upon applying the same indicator, signifying the completion of the carbonate reaction. Although the carbonate reaction rate was anticipated to be infuenced by $CO₂$ diffusion into the Ca-RTC's interior macropores, the observed rapid penetration of $CO₂$, attributable to the material's high porosity and extensive specifc surface area, indicated a quicker internal reach than expected.

We compared the $CO₂$ capturing abilities of industrial waste-derived $CO₂$ capture materials with Ca-RTC (Table [2\)](#page-6-0). Except for magnesium slag, which contains more than 50% high CaO content, Ca-RTC demonstrates the highest $CO₂$ capturing ability. Despite its relatively low Ca content of 15.0%, compared to other industrial wastes, Ca-RTC exhibits excellent $CO₂$ capturing performance. This result indicates that Ca-RTC is a highly reliable and efective $CO₂$ capturing material, emphasizing the reactivity of Ca for carbonation by increasing the surface area of the $CO₂$ capturing material.

To identify the rate-limiting step in $CO₂$ capture, both the pseudo-second-order reaction kinetic model and the intraparticle diffusion model were employed (see

Fig. 4 CO₂ loading on Ca-RTC as a function of reaction time. Inset: phenolphthalein analysis of Ca-RTC (a) and CO₂ loading on Ca-RTC under various pressure (**b**)

supporting information). We expressed amount of $CO₂$ captured on Ca-RTC as mg $CO₂$ per g Ca-RTC in Fig. [4a](#page-5-0) and described kinetic model constants in table S2. While the intraparticle difusion model yielded a linear regression coefficient of merely 0.60, the pseudo-second-order model demonstrated an excellent ft with a linear regression coefficient (R^2) of 0.98. This suggests that CO_2 diffusion into Ca-RTC was notably rapid, and the chemical reaction between $CO₂$ and the alkaline earth metals within Ca-RTC constituted the rate-limiting step of the overall reaction. The maximum $CO₂$ capturing amount expected from pseudo-second order model kinetic model was described as 142.85 mg/g $(=CO₂$ loading 14.28%) which is similar and even higher than theoretical $CO₂$ capturing capacity of Ca-RTC.

To further explore the impact of pressure on $CO₂$ capture by Ca-RTC, experiments were conducted over a 1-day period at pressures of 0, 0.25, 0.75, and 1 bar, as shown in Fig. [4](#page-5-0)b. Given that $CO₂$ capture reached saturation after 3 days at 0.5 bar, as demonstrated in the kinetics experiment, the efficiency of $CO₂$ loading in Ca-RTC under varying pressures was assessed over a shorter duration of 1 day. At atmospheric pressure (0 bar), $CO₂$ loading over the 1-day period was 10.5%. An increase in pressure from 0.25 to 0.75 bar led to higher $CO₂$ capture rates of 11.17% and 12.28%, respectively. The $CO₂$ capture at 0.75 bar aligned with the theoretical adsorption capacity of Ca-RTC, suggesting that a pressure increase up to 0.75 bar positively infuences the mineral carbonation reaction. This enhancement in the mineral carbonation reaction at approximately 0.75 bar is attributed to the high pressure, which, according to previous kinetic experiments, does not signifcantly afect the diffusion rate of $CO₂$ due to Ca-RTC's large surface area. Thus, the observed increase in $CO₂$ capture rate with pressure is primarily due to an accelerated reaction rate of $CO₂$ mineral carbonation, rather than an increase in difusion rate. According to Le Chatelier's principle, an increase in pressure shifts the equilibrium to minimize the system's volume. $[21]$ However, a further increase in $CO₂$ pressure to 1 bar resulted in a sharp decline in $CO₂$ loading. During

the mineral carbonation reaction, water needs to be released from calcium or magnesium hydroxide, as represented by the reactions:

$$
Ca(OH)_2 + CO_2(g) \to CaCO_3(g) + H_2O(g),
$$
 (3)

$$
Mg(OH)_2 + CO_2(g) \to MgCO_3(g) + H_2O(g).
$$
 (4)

The increased pressure enhances the water retention capability, thereby reducing the mineral carbonation efficiency of Ca-RTC. Feng et al. reported similar findings, noting a decrease in $CO₂$ capturing ability of $Ca(OH)₂$ as a $CO₂$ capturing material at pressures higher than 8 MPa [\[22](#page-9-21)].

CO2 Sequestration Mechanism by Ca‑RTC

We clarified the mechanism behind $CO₂$ capture by analyzing the physicochemical properties of Ca-RTC both before and after the $CO₂$ capture reactions. Notably, the crystallinity of Ca-RTC remained largely unchanged through the process of $CO₂$ absorption. However, the post-capture X-ray Difraction (XRD) analysis revealed a marked increase in the intensity of the $CaCO₃$ peak, suggesting the formation of $CaCO₃$ within Ca-RTC via the carbonation of calcium in the presence of CO_2 as the precursor (Fig. [5](#page-7-0)a). This transformation involves gaseous CO_2 converting into solid $CaCO_3$, a change that was accompanied by a signifcant increase in the material's specifc surface area, as shown in Fig. [5b](#page-7-0). Specifcally, the specifc surface area of Ca-RTC more than doubled, from 6.29 m²/g before CO_2 capture to 15.94 m²/g afterwards. Post-capture, there was a notable increase in the volume of macropores larger than 50 nm (Fig. [5](#page-7-0)c), while the volume of nano and mesopores remained similar to that of the untreated Ca-RTC. Given that $CaCO₃$ is in a solid phase, in contrast to the gaseous phase of its precursor $CO₂$, this suggests the creation of new surfaces during the carbonation reaction.

We also analyzed the FTIR spectrum of Ca-RTC before and after the CO_2 capturing reaction (Fig. [5d](#page-7-0)).

Fig. 5 XRD patterns (**a**), N₂ adsorption–desorption isotherms (**b**), pore size distributions (**c**), and FTIR spectrums (**d**) of Ca-RTC before and after $CO₂$ capture

The Ca-RTC consists of signifcant amounts of SiO, and peaks corresponding to Si–O–Si bonds were observed at 1010–1074 cm^{-1} [[23\]](#page-9-22). Additionally, the peak at 3707 cm−1, representing the –OH group, was evident due to the hydration of Ca-RTC. A slight asymmetric CO₃ peak was also observed at 1404 cm^{-1} due to partial carbonation reaction. After the $CO₂$ capturing reaction, the intensity of peaks at 1404, 870, and 700 cm⁻¹, which represent the peaks of calcite $(CaCO₃)$ [\[24](#page-9-23)], significantly increased. This result clearly supports that the $CO₂$ capturing mechanism of Ca-RTC involves the mineral carbonation of Ca ions.

Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) analysis post- $CO₂$ capture revealed the formation of numerous fne particles, less than 1 μm in size, on the surface of Ca-RTC. These particles, which flled the spaces between larger and mesopores, led to a denser structural arrangement (Fig. [6a](#page-8-0),b). These newly formed particles are believed to be crystalline $CaCO₃$, as corroborated by the XRD findings. Furthermore, SEM–energy dispersive x-ray analysis (EDAX) imaging of Ca-RTC post-CO₂ capture (Fig. [6](#page-8-0)c) indicated that $CaCO₃$

did not exist as isolated particles but rather, calcium and carbon were uniformly distributed across the surface of Ca-RTC. Silicon, the predominant component of Ca-RTC, was found to be co-distributed with aluminum, mostly in the form of aluminum silicate and crystalline $SiO₂$. The areas with a high concentration of silicon and aluminum were distinct from those rich in calcium. The coinciding distributions of carbon with calcium, as previously identifed in the XRD analysis, confirmed that $CO₂$ was converted into CaCO₃. This comprehensive evidence supports the conclusion that $CO₂$ capture in Ca-RTC is directly associated with the formation of $CaCO₃$, effectively elucidating the material's $CO₂$ capture mechanism.

Conclusion

This study presents an innovative approach to carbon dioxide $(CO₂)$ capture by leveraging modified spent railway tie concrete (RTC), aiming to address the pressing need for **Fig. 6** SEM images of Ca-RTC before (a) and after $CO₂$ capturing (**b**), SEM-EDAX mapping of CO2 captured Ca-RTC (**c**)

efficient $CO₂$ sequestration technologies. By incorporating a 0.001 M calcium chloride $(CaCl₂)$ solution in lieu of water, we developed a calcium-modifed RTC (Ca-RTC) that exhibits a significantly enhanced $CO₂$ capturing capability. The preparation process involved mixing the waste material with a water/waste ratio of 0.45 (w/w), followed by drying and hydration to form 1 cm^3 cubes. Despite a marginal increase in calcium content (0.08%) compared to the pristine RTC, the Ca-RTC modifed with 0.001 M $CaCl₂$ solution demonstrated a substantial increase in BET surface area to 6.29 m^2/g and a highly porous morphology. These changes are attributed to the altered surface properties induced by the ionic strength of the CaCl₂ solution, resulting

in a 2.5-fold increase in $CO₂$ capture efficiency (11.57%) over the unmodifed RTC. This enhancement is primarily due to the enlarged surface area, facilitating greater $CO₂$ adsorption. However, increasing the concentration of $CaCl₂$ beyond 0.001 M led to a decrease in $CO₂$ capturing performance, likely due to the inhibitory efect of Cl− ions. The $CO₂$ capture reaction with 0.001 M CaCl₂-modified Ca-RTC was completed within three days under 0.5 bar pressure, with the chemical interaction between alkaline earth metal ions in Ca-RTC and $CO₂$ identified as the rate-limiting step. Furthermore, elevating $CO₂$ pressure to 0.75 bar enhanced the capture rate, whereas pressures above 1 bar adversely affected the $CO₂$ capturing ability. Post-reaction analysis

revealed the formation of crystalline calcium carbonate $(CaCO₃)$, contributing to an increased surface area of the material. This study not only elucidates the mechanisms underpinning the improved $CO₂$ capture performance of Ca-RTC but also highlights its potential as a sustainable and efficient solution for $CO₂$ sequestration.

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11814-024-00214-1>.

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Data availability The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Declarations

Conflict of Interst The authors declare that they have no known competing fnancial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to infuence the work reported in this paper.

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