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Carbonation of alkaline paper mill waste to reduce CO₂ greenhouse gas emissions into the atmosphere

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ABSTRACT

The global warming of Earth's near-surface, air and oceans in recent decades is a direct consequence of anthropogenic emission of greenhouse gases into the atmosphere such as CO₂, CH₄, N₂O and CFCs. The CO₂ emissions contribute approximately 60% to this climate change. This study investigates experimentally the aqueous carbonation mechanisms of an alkaline paper mill waste containing about 55 wt% portlandite (Ca(OH)₂) as a possible mineralogical CO₂ sequestration process. The overall carbonation reaction includes the following steps: (1) Ca release from portlandite dissolution, (2) CO₂ dissolution in water and (3) CaCO₃ precipitation. This CO₂ sequestration mechanism was supported by geochemical modelling of final solutions using PHREEQC software, and observations by scanning electron microscope and X-ray diffraction of final reaction products. According to the experimental protocol, the system proposed would favour the total capture of approx. 218 kg of CO₂ into stable calcite/ton of paper waste, independently of initial CO₂ pressure. The final product from the carbonation process is a calcite (ca. 100 wt%)-water dispersion. Indeed, the total captured CO₂ mineralized as calcite could be stored in degraded soils or even used for diverse industrial applications. This result demonstrates the possibility of using the alkaline liquid–solid waste for CO₂ mitigation and reduction of greenhouse effect gases into the atmosphere.

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1. Introduction

Coal caused the first industrial revolution that transformed the agrarian societies. Electricity allowed the formation of great urban centres. The advance of the industrialized societies has taken place in exchange for the unconditional burning of fossil fuels. This has caused an increase of the CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere

from 280 ppm in the pre-industrial revolution to 379 ppm in 2005, rising faster in the last 10 a (average 1995–2005: 1.9 ppm a⁻¹) (IPCC, 2007a).

The temperature of Earth's near-surface, air and oceans is basically controlled by the capacity of the atmosphere to reflect, adsorb and emit the solar energy. However, the continuous emissions of CO₂ into the atmosphere (26.4 ± 1.1 Gt CO₂ a⁻¹ for 2000–2005) have altered this natural equilibrium and have led to an increase of the greenhouse effect and the consequent climatic change. The global surface average temperature will increase 2–4.5 °C when the atmospheric CO₂ concentration doubles the pre-industrial revolution concentration (IPCC, 2007a).

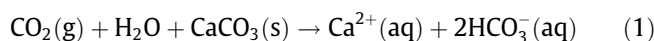
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These alterations are leading to stress on drinking water availability, species extinction, melting of ice sheets and coastal flooding (IPCC, 2007b).

The energy production system is currently profitable, thus any modification is nonviable since it could produce huge imbalances in the global economy. An alternative to reduce the CO₂ emission is the retention of CO₂ in natural reservoirs. Three possibilities for sequestration of CO₂ are currently being studied: aqueous carbon sequestration, geological carbon sequestration and mineralogical carbon sequestration.

Aqueous carbon sequestration involves CO₂ dissolution in water to produce a H₂CO₃ solution, which later is neutralized and equilibrated with limestone as shown by the following reaction (Rau et al., 2007):



The dissolved Ca(HCO₃)₂ produced is then released and diluted in the deep ocean where these ions, already present in seawater, would cause only minimal and localized environmental impact (Golomb, 1997). Moreover, this process is geochemically comparable to the natural mechanism of CO₂ mitigation by continental and marine carbonate weathering, but over a time scale of many millennia (Murray and Wilson, 1997).

Geological carbon sequestration consists of capturing gaseous CO₂ from emission sources and injecting it in terrestrial reservoirs, such as saline aquifers, depleted oil and gas fields or deep coal seams (Bachu, 2000, 2002; Bachu and Adams, 2003; Friedmann, 2007). The main scientific concerns involving the applicability of geological carbon sequestration are the high pressure and temperature variations, caused by the large CO₂ accumulation, on the reservoirs. These thermodynamic variations could exert forces that diminish reservoir confinement due to the formation of cracks and faults either in the reservoir itself or in the cap rocks. Moreover, the CO₂ dissolution in the pore water and the subsequent formation of H₂CO₃ can result in the rapid dissolution of several minerals (mainly carbonate, oxide and hydroxide minerals) affecting the long-term confinement properties of the reservoirs (Kharaka et al., 2006).

In terrestrial reservoirs, the CO₂ pressure can decrease in the long term as a consequence of a mineralogical carbon sequestration or mineral trapping. The stored CO₂ may transform to stable carbonate minerals by reactions with aqueous ions (mainly Ca, Mg and Fe) resulting from silicate weathering (Gunter et al., 2000; Kaszuba et al., 2003, 2005; Giammar et al., 2005; Bénézeth et al., 2007). Although this mechanism favours permanent CO₂ sequestration, it is expected to be slow in geological formation (hundreds of years) due to the slow kinetics of silicate mineral dissolution and carbonate mineral precipitation. However, mineralogical carbon trapping could contribute significantly to CO₂ sequestration in the proximity of the emission source, without the need for storing the gas in a geological reservoir. Some authors have proposed the use of mineralogical carbon sequestration in controlled reactors as a viable approach to reduce CO₂ emissions into the atmosphere using either: (1) industrial by-products such as coal combustion fly-ash (Montes-Hernandez et al., 2008), coal combustion fly-ash plus brine solution

from gas production (Soong et al., 2006) or municipal solid waste bottom-ash (Rendek et al., 2006); or (2) primary minerals such as serpentine/olivine (Maroto-Valer et al., 2005) or wollastonite (Huijgen et al., 2006). These materials act as Ca and Mg sources favouring CO₂ retention by carbonate precipitation.

Montes-Hernandez et al. (2007a) proposed an experimental method to synthesize fine particles of calcite by means of aqueous carbonation of pure portlandite at high pressure of CO₂ (initial $P_{\text{CO}_2} = 55\text{bar}$) and moderate and high temperature (30 and 90 °C). This aqueous carbonation process suggests dissolution of CO₂ into water and consequent calcite precipitation. This method also has important ecological implications for mineral carbon sequestration. However, the use of pure portlandite and other primary minerals may result in high economic and environmental costs as these are typically resources and not residues.

In cellulose pulp production for paper manufacture, the dominant process involves cooking woodchips in high concentrations of NaOH and Na₂S for 2–4 h at 170 °C. This process, known as kraft pulping, favours lignin dissolution and separation of the cellulose fibers that are recovered by means of sieving. The residual liquids or black liquor containing most of the dissolved lignin are transformed to white liquor and re-used in the cooking stage. This transformation is carried out by both combustion in a boiler and alkalinizing with lime and results in the production of several types of portlandite-rich solid wastes with an alkaline nature known generically as alkaline paper mill wastes.

In some pulp and paper industries, the alkaline by-products are sold for cement manufacture and as alkaline amendment for agricultural soils. Nevertheless, their recycling is limited by the presence of Cl⁻ and metals, and in many instances they must be stored near the industrial facilities. A few investigations focused on the reusability of these wastes have been reported in the literature; the existing ones being based on their application for the neutralization of acid mine drainage (Bellaloui et al., 1999). The main aim of this paper is to show the efficiency of the utilization of these wastes as a Ca source for aqueous carbonation, calcite precipitation and mineralogical CO₂ sequestration. From a sustainable development point of view, the treatment proposed is especially attractive because a low-cost residue is used to reduce the emissions of greenhouse gasses into the atmosphere.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Alkaline paper mill waste

The alkaline paper waste used in the present study was collected from a cellulose pulp factory (ENCE) located in Huelva, south-western Spain. This by-product, so-called Ca mud, is the waste of the calcination or conversion of CaCO₃ to lime for alkalinizing the black liquor. Calcium mud was selected since it has a higher Ca content than other alkaline paper wastes.

The particle size of paper mill waste ranges from 1 to 100 μm with a median size of 15 μm, as determined by laser diffraction. This waste is made up of portlandite

(Ca(OH)₂; 55 wt%), calcite (CaCO₃; 33 wt%) and hydroxyapatite (Ca₁₀(PO₄)₆(OH)₂; 12 wt%). The portlandite particles have a laminar-pseudo-hexagonal habit, as observed by scanning electron microscopy equipped with an energy dispersive system (SEM-EDS, JEOL JSM-5410 instrument) (Fig. 1). The determination of the chemical composition of dry (105 °C) waste by X-ray fluorescence (XRF, BRUKER PIONEER instrument) shows a high content of Ca (83.2 wt% CaO), C (10.3 wt% CO₂), P (2.4 wt% P₂O₅), S (2 wt% SO₃), Na (0.88 wt% Na₂O), Mg (0.35 wt% MgO), Si (0.34 wt% SiO₂), Al (0.17 wt% Al₂O₃) and K (0.13 wt% K₂O), and minor amounts of Cl (590 ppm), Fe (96 ppm), Sr (96 ppm), Cu (25 ppm) and Ni (13 ppm). The water content determined by drying at 105 °C until constant weight was about 21 wt%. The presence of high concentrations of portlandite in paper mill waste accounts for the high alkalinity and potential for CO₂ sequestration as discussed below.

2.2. CO₂ sequestration experiments

The CO₂ sequestration experiments were conducted in a 2 L (total volume) closed Ti-lined pressure reactor (Parr Instrument Co., USA, Model 4843) equipped with a heating jacket (Fig. 2). In each experiment, the autoclave was charged with approximately 1 L of Millipore MQ water (18.2 MΩ) and 20 g of paper mill waste. The waste particles were immediately dispersed by mechanical agitation (450 rpm) and the dispersion heated to 30 or 60 °C. When the temperature was reached, 10, 20, 30 or 40 bar of CO₂ (provided by Linde Gas S.A.) was injected into the reactor by opening a valve and adjusting the pressure to the desired one, and the reaction was commenced. This initial pressure of CO₂ was equal to the total initial pressure in the system. A summary of the experiments carried out and the initial experimental conditions is shown in Table 1. A long-term experiment (48 h) at 30 bar of initial pressure of CO₂ allowed both optimizing the experimental duration of the remaining experiments at 2 h and study the kinetic evolution of the carbonation process.

The global pressure drop in the system, $P_{\text{global_pressure-drop}}$, is a consequence of both the dissolution-dissociation of CO₂ in the solution and aqueous carbonation process of

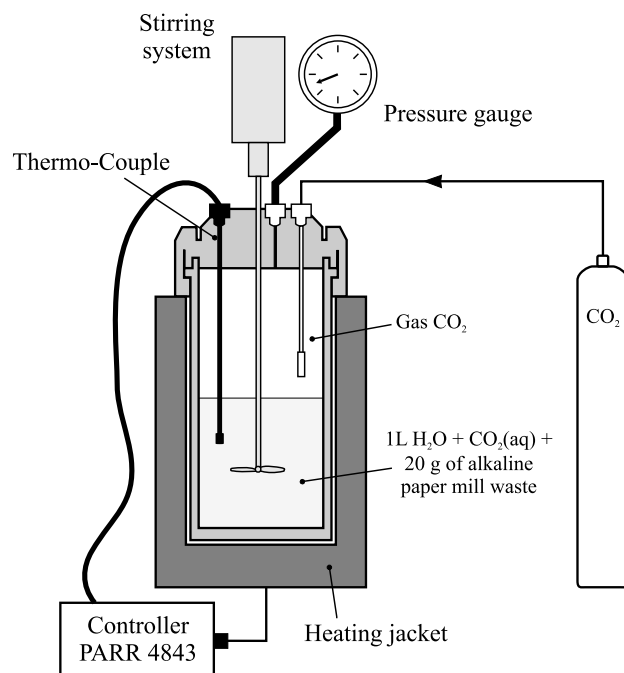


Fig. 2. Schematic experimental system for sequestration of CO₂ by aqueous carbonation of paper mill waste in a continuously stirred reactor.

Ca(OH)₂. In order to calculate the pressure drop produced only by the carbonation process ($P_{\text{carbonation_pressure-drop}}$), two independent but complementary experiments were proposed for each experiment: (1) to measure the pressure drop related to the dissolution-dissociation of CO₂ into pure water ($P_{\text{water_pressure-drop}}$), and (2) to measure the pressure drop related to the dissolution-dissociation of CO₂ in a Ca-rich solution ($P_{\text{Ca-rich_pressure-drop}}$). In this second experiment, a concentration of 1 g L⁻¹ Ca was chosen, that represented the average concentration after paper waste dispersion in water. These two experiments demonstrated that the Ca-concentration (0–1 g L⁻¹) has no measurable effect on the dissolution-dissociation of CO₂ since the monitored pressure drop in pure water ($P_{\text{water_pressure-drop}}$) was equivalent to the monitored pressure drop in the presence of Ca ($P_{\text{Ca-rich_pressure-drop}}$). Consequently, the pressure drop produced by the carbonation process of Ca(OH)₂ was calculated by a simple pressure balance:

$$P_{\text{carbonation_pressure-drop}} = P_{\text{global_pressure-drop}} - P_{\text{water_pressure-drop}} \quad (2)$$

Under isothermal conditions, $P_{\text{global_pressure-drop}}$ and $P_{\text{water_pressure-drop}}$ are proportional to the initial CO₂ pressure.

At the end of the experiment, the reactor was removed from the heating system and was immersed in cold water. The reaction cell was depressurized during the cooling water period at 25 °C (about 15 min). Subsequently, the reactor was disassembled and the supernatant was separated from the solid product by centrifugation at 12,000 rpm for 30 min. Finally, the solid product was dried directly in the centrifugation flasks for 48 h at 65 °C. The supernatant solutions were filtered through a 0.2-μm Teflon filter. Adsorption on the filter and filter holder

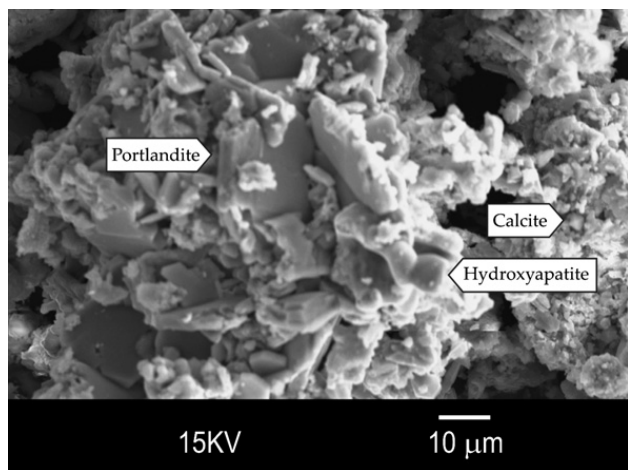


Fig. 1. SEM image of paper mill waste before experimentation showing the initial crystals of portlandite, calcite and hydroxyapatite.

Table 1
Experimental conditions, results of the CO₂ sequestration process, and saturation indices of the final solutions with respect to portlandite, hydroxyapatite and calcite calculated using the PHREEQC code (Parkhurst and Appelo, 2005)

Experiment	Reactor content	Duration (h)	Temp. (°C)	CO ₂ pressure (bar)		Carbonation pressure (bar)		SI _{portlandite}	SI _{hydroxyapatite}	SI _{calcite}
				Initial	Final	Drop	Drop			
Experiment 1	Blanks*	2	30	40	30.5	9.5	-	-	-	-
	1 L pure water + 20 g of paper waste	2	30	40	28	12	2.5	-12.77	8.69	1.51
Experiment 2	Blanks*	2	30	30	22.5	7.5	-	-	-	-
	1 L pure water + 20 g of paper waste	2	30	30	20	10	2.5	-12.52	9.47	1.62
Experiment 3	Blanks*	2	30	20	15	5	-	-	-	-
	1 L pure water + 20 g of paper waste	2	30	20	12.5	7.5	2.5	-12.18	10.54	1.79
Experiment 4	Blanks*	2	30	10	7.5	2.5	-	-	-	-
	1 L pure water + 20 g of paper waste	2	30	10	5.3	4.7	2.2	-11.58	12.31	2.08
Experiment 5	Blanks*	48	30	30	21.5	8.5	-	-	-	-
	1 L pure water + 20 g of paper waste	48	30	30	19	11	2.5	-12.52	9.47	1.62
Experiment 6	Blanks*	2	60	30	24.5	5.5	-	-	-	-
	1 L pure water + 20 g of paper waste	2	60	30	21.5	8.5	3	-10.63	9.58	1.87

* Blanks include two experiments of dissolution–dissociation of CO₂: (1) into pure water and (2) into a solution containing 1 g L⁻¹ of Ca. Both experiments showed identical results.

was considered negligible. The filtered solutions were immediately acidified for measurement of [Ca], [Fe], [Sr], [Cu] and [Ni] by Inductively Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectrometry (ICP-AES, Perkin Elmer Optima 3300DV). The analytical uncertainty for all analysis was <5%.

2.3. Characterization of solid phase

The mineralogical characterization of the starting material and solid products was carried out by X-ray diffraction (XRD, powder method) using a D501 SIEMENS diffractometer. Semi-quantitative mineralogical determination was estimated with DIFFRACplus software. Working conditions were Co K α monochromatic radiation ($\lambda = 1.7902 \text{ \AA}$), 37.5 mA and 40 kV. The experimental measurement parameters were 12 s counting time per 0.02° 2 θ step in the 5–80° 2 θ range. The detection was performed by a Kevex Si(Li) detector. Morphological analyses of solid products were characterized by means of SEM-EDS. The metal content of final products was also determined by digestion with HCl followed by ICP-AES analysis.

Solution saturation indices with respect to solid phases [SI = log(IAP/K_s), where SI is the saturation index, IAP is the ion activity product and K_s is the solid solubility product] and aqueous speciation of the leachates were calculated by simulating the reaction with the equilibrium geochemical speciation/mass transfer model PHREEQC (Parkhurst and Appelo, 2005) and the database of the speciation model MINTeq.v4. Zero, negative or positive SI values indicate that the solutions are saturated, undersaturated and supersaturated, respectively, with respect to a solid phase. Simulation was performed considering Millipore MQ water in contact with 20 g of alkaline paper mill waste (0.11729 mol of portlandite, 0.05209 mol of calcite and 0.00189 mol of hydroxyapatite) for different initial conditions of temperature (30 or 60 °C) and CO₂ pressure (10, 20, 30 or 40 bar). The amount in mol of each mineral contained in the paper waste (n_{\min}) was easily calculated according to

$$n_{\min} = \frac{m_{\text{paper_waste}}}{M_{\min}} \times \left(\frac{\%_{\min}}{100} \right) \times \left(1 - \frac{\%_{\text{water_content}}}{100} \right) \quad (3)$$

where $m_{\text{paper_waste}}$ is the mass of paper mill waste used in the experiments (20 g), M_{\min} is the molar mass of mineral, $\%_{\min}$ is the percentage of mineral in the waste and $\%_{\text{water_content}}$ is the percentage water content in the waste (21 wt%).

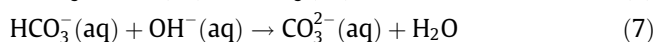
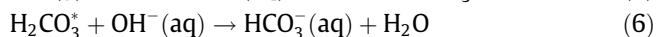
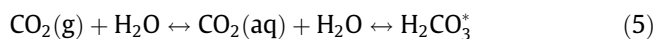
3. Results and discussion

3.1. Reaction mechanisms of CO₂ sequestration

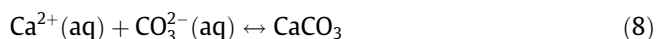
In an aqueous system, the water–CO₂–paper waste interaction would suppose the carbonation of portlandite (Ca(OH)₂; 55 wt%) according to well-known reactions (4–8) described in numerous works (e.g., Juvekar and Sharma, 1973; Shih et al., 1999; Beruto and Botter, 2000). On one hand, the Ca(OH)₂ is dissociated and increases the pH up to values around 12 (Eq. (4)):



On the other hand, the gaseous CO_2 is dissolved in the solution and reacts with the water to form H_2CO_3 (Eq. (5)). Once equilibrium is established between the gaseous CO_2 and H_2CO_3 , the H_2CO_3 further dissociates into HCO_3^- and CO_3^{2-} ions (Eqs. (6) and (7)). At alkaline pH, the CO_3^{2-} ion is the dominant species occurring in solution.



The presence of CO_3^{2-} anions together with high Ca concentrations from the portlandite dissolution favours supersaturation, and hence, the precipitation of CaCO_3 (Eq. (8)):



The overall reaction for the process can be written as



The thermodynamic calculations and the mineralogical characterization of solid products after experiments suggest that this simple reaction mechanism explains the CO_2 sequestration by paper mill waste. After the reaction, PHREEQC code indicates that the solutions are undersaturated with respect to portlandite and supersaturated in CaCO_3 (Table 1). Saturation indices of calcite are in the range 1.51–2.08. Comparison of X-ray diffraction spectra of the starting material and the solid product demonstrates that the portlandite contained in the starting material is totally carbonated and transformed to calcite (Fig. 3). Moreover, the resulting solutions are supersaturated in hydroxyapatite, which indicates that this mineral is not dissolved during the experiment, as also shown in XRD spectra (Fig. 3). Therefore, both pre-existing calcite and hydroxyapatite in the starting material seem not to be involved in the CO_2 sequestration process. The newly-formed calcite is characterized by micrometric agglomerates of rhombohedral-crystals (Fig. 4).

During the aqueous carbonation process, toxic elements initially contained in the alkaline waste such as Fe, Sr, Cu

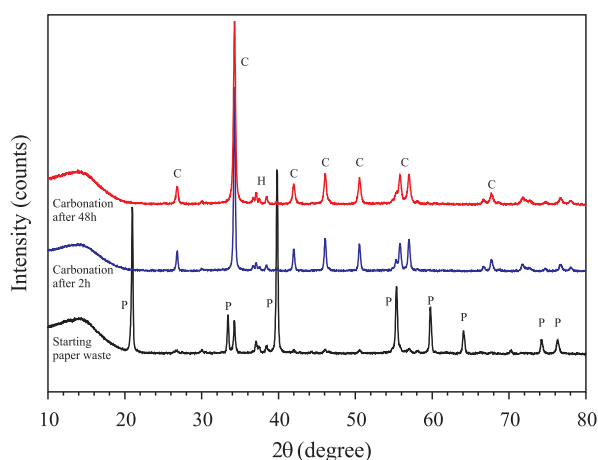


Fig. 3. XRD patterns of starting paper mill waste and solid products after carbonation over 2 and 48 h. C: Calcite, P: Portlandite, H: Hydroxyapatite. These spectra demonstrate the total consumption of portlandite and the production of calcite.

and Ni are released into solution. Metals could be captured by calcite precipitation as long as their concentrations are higher than 10^{-5} M, as proposed by Ettler et al. (2006). In these conditions metal uptake by calcite formation is likely caused by co-precipitation, i.e. as a true solid solution and not simply by physical trapping. In fact, metal co-precipitation with calcite is a successful mechanism for reducing metal mobility in natural aqueous systems (e.g., Montes-Hernandez et al., 2007b). After dissolution of alkaline waste in the experiments, Fe and Sr concentrations in solution are higher than the limit established by Ettler et al. (2006), and for this reason, the concentration of these metals analyzed in the final calcite imply a high transfer factor of around 100 and 75% for Fe and Sr, respectively. However, Ni and Cu concentrations in solution are much lower and consequently the transfer factor to the final calcite is only around 25 and 10%, respectively. The remaining Ni and Cu are expected to be associated with organic compounds existing typically in the cellulose wastes (ca. 2 wt% of total organic C; Nurmesniemi et al., 2008). The association of metals with solid phases explains why the Fe, Ni and Cu concentrations in solution were below the detection limit ($< 6 \mu\text{g L}^{-1}$). Strontium was the only trace element detected by ICP-AES in the solution though in very low concentrations ($[\text{Sr}] \approx 0.25 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$).

In summary, the final product from the carbonation process is a solid containing ca. 100 wt% of calcite, as found in the experiments of Montes-Hernandez et al. (2007a), but using a low-cost portlandite-rich waste instead of pure portlandite. Moreover, the final calcite-water dispersion could be used as a reagent for further aqueous carbon sequestration (see Introduction, Eq. (1)). Hence, the final result of these experiments would allow continuing sequestering CO_2 and the total amount of captured CO_2 could be poured directly into the sea. The addition of HCO_3^- -rich effluents to the oceans would be even environmentally beneficial for marine biota (Rau et al., 2007). Nevertheless, this application could potentially cause metal release and provoke some negative impact on the marine environment, mainly for Ni and Cu because Fe and Sr are trace components of seawater, and in the case of Fe an essential nutrient for some ecosystems. Albeit, the amount of Ni and Cu contained in 1 tonne of alkaline paper waste, and that could be released into the sea after the carbonation process, is lower by a factor of approx. 2×10^9 of the global gross flux of dissolved Ni and Cu transported by rivers into the oceans (Gaillardet et al., 2003). This would mean that to cause harmful effects on the environment, it is necessary to use a much larger amount of waste alkaline than those produced annually worldwide.

The application of the final product from the carbonation process for oceanic carbon sequestration inevitably requires establishing a balance between the economic benefits and the potential environmental impacts. Another possible environmental application for this final product would be its storage in soils. Although organic acids commonly present in soils could favour the release of minor metals, this application would be a very advantageous and viable possibility in soil already contaminated by metals and with a scarcity of nutrients and organic matter. This is especially attractive for ENCE-Huelva factory since

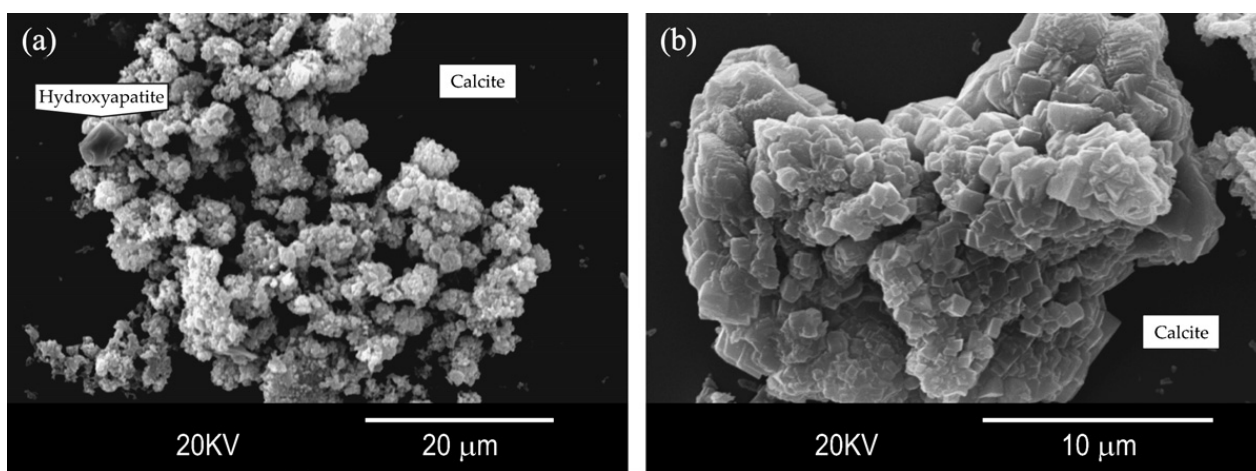


Fig. 4. (a–b) SEM images of calcite particles precipitated during CO₂ sequestration experiments.

it is located about 60 km from the Iberian Pyrite Belt (IPB), one of the largest massive sulphide deposits in the world (Sáez et al., 1999). The intense mining activity in the IPB has produced a huge volume of metal-rich mining wastes and the degradation of soils, which maintain abnormally high concentrations of contaminant metals (Rufo et al., 2007). Alkalinity production by calcite dissolution could even result in a decrease of metal mobility and in an improvement of the quality of soil properties (see for example, Fernández-Caliani et al., 2008). This process would also favour the retention of metals associated initially with alkaline paper mill waste, and not contribute therefore to increasing the pollution with additional elements of soils already affected by mining activity.

3.2. Amount of sequestered CO₂

A simplified method was developed to estimate the quantity of CO₂ sequestered by carbonate precipitation. This method was partially described in Section 2.2. Herein, the pressure drop produced by the carbonation process of Ca(OH)₂ (Eq. (9)) in the system was calculated by a simple pressure balance (Eq. (2)). Knowing the pressure drop values in each experiment (Table 1), the amount of CO₂ consumed by calcite precipitation ($n_{\text{carbonation_CO}_2,\text{real}}$ in mol) could be calculated using the ideal gas law

$$n_{\text{carbonation_CO}_2,\text{real}} = \frac{P_{\text{carbonation_pressure-drop}} V}{RT} \quad (10)$$

where V is the reactor volume occupied with gas (1 L), T is the reaction temperature (≈ 303 K) and R is the gas constant (0.08314472 L bar K⁻¹ mol⁻¹).

In experiments at 30 °C and 2 h of experimental duration, the pressure drop by portlandite carbonation was around 2.5 bar, independent of initial CO₂ pressure (Fig. 5a). Although the results of the long-term experiment (48 h, 30 bar and 30 °C) show that equilibrium is obtained after about 5 h of solid–fluid interaction, the maximum pressure drop by carbonation is already reached at 2 h of experiment (Fig. 5b), and thus the experimental duration of the remaining experiments was correctly optimized. According to Eq. (10), the real amount consumed by carbonation was 0.09923 mol of CO₂.

Based on the stoichiometry of Reaction (9), the theoretical amount of CO₂ ($n_{\text{carbonation_CO}_2,\text{theoretical}}$) that should be sequestered by the carbonation process (i.e., if all Ca is carbonated) is equal to the quantity of portlandite contained in the paper mill waste (0.11729 mol). This supposes a carbonation efficiency (CE) of 85% at 30 °C according to

$$CE = \frac{n_{\text{carbonation_CO}_2,\text{real}}}{n_{\text{carbonation_CO}_2,\text{theoretical}}} \times 100 \quad (11)$$

In the experiment at high temperature (60 °C, 30 bar), the pressure drop by carbonation is slightly superior (3 bar), albeit the sequestered amount of CO₂ and the carbonation efficiency are very similar since this process depends inversely on the reaction temperature (Eq. (10)).

Theoretically, the extrapolation of this experiment to a real industrial scale would suppose a maximum CO₂ sequestration capacity of 258.54 kg of CO₂/ton of paper mill waste containing 55 wt% of portlandite. However, with the experimental protocol, 218.37 kg of CO₂/ton of paper mill waste could be successfully sequestered into stable calcite. Obviously, this is very attractive for the mineral trapping of CO₂.

3.3. Kinetic modelling of sequestered CO₂

The monitoring of the pressure drop for any controlled system under ideal gas conditions allows the kinetic modelling of sequestered CO₂ after gas injection in a solid–liquid system (paper mill waste–water dispersion for this study). This can be done using a simple correlation function, $n_{\text{total_CO}_2} = f(t)$, where $n_{\text{total_CO}_2}$ is the total mol quantity of sequestered CO₂ in the paper waste–water dispersion and t is the time after gas injection.

Several kinetic models including first-order, pseudo-first-order, second-order, pseudo-second-order, parabolic diffusion and power function kinetic expressions are reported in the literature for fitting the kinetic experimental or calculated data of solid–fluid interaction processes (e.g. Lagergren, 1898; Ho and McKay, 1999). For this study, the kinetic modelling concerns the total sequestered quantity of CO₂ in a paper mill waste–water dispersion, i.e. the CO₂ dissolution–dissociation in water, possibly the CO₂ adsorption on the paper waste and, sequestered CO₂ by

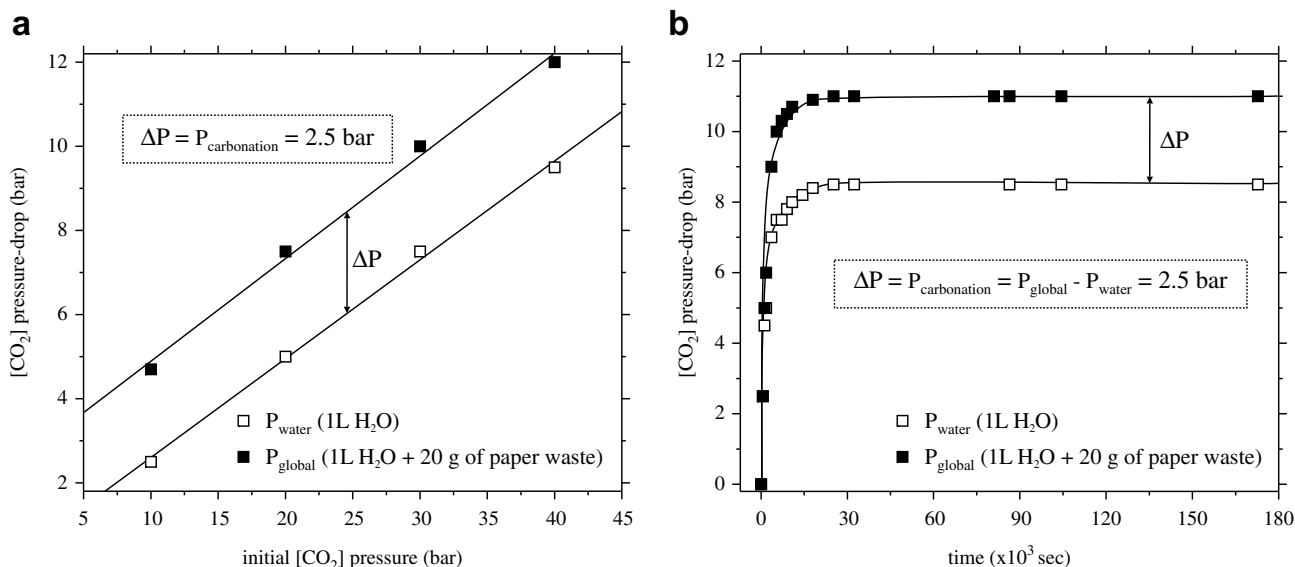


Fig. 5. (a) Linear correlation between the pressure drop and the initial pressure of CO₂ for experiments at 30 °C, an initial pressure of CO₂ equal to 10, 20, 30 and 40 bar and 2 h of carbonation. (b) Kinetic behaviour of the CO₂ pressure drop in the long-term experiment (48 h) at 30 °C and 30 bar of initial pressure of CO₂. In both, constant pressure drop of 2.5 bar is independent of the initial pressure of CO₂, showing that the thermodynamic state of CO₂ (gaseous or supercritical) does not modify the reaction kinetics.

the carbonation process. For this case, the best fit (attested by a correlation factor close to 1) of the experimental-calculated data was achieved when using a pseudo-second-order kinetic model according to the following expression:

$$\frac{dn_{\text{total_CO}_2,t}}{dt} = k_s(n_{\text{total_CO}_2,\text{max}} - n_{\text{total_CO}_2,t})^2 \quad (12)$$

where k_s is the rate constant of sequestered CO₂ [mol⁻¹ s⁻¹] for a given initial pressure of CO₂ in the system, $n_{\text{total_CO}_2,\text{max}}$ is the maximum sequestered quantity of CO₂ at equilibrium [mol], $n_{\text{total_CO}_2,t}$ is the sequestered quantity of CO₂ at any time, t , [mol].

The integrated form of Eq. (12) for the boundary conditions $t = 0$ to $t = t$ and $n_{\text{total_CO}_2,t} = 0$ to $n_{\text{total_CO}_2,t} = n_{\text{total_CO}_2,t}$ is represented by a hyperbolic equation (Eq. (13)):

$$n_{\text{total_CO}_2,t} = \frac{n_{\text{total_CO}_2,\text{max}} \times t}{\left(\frac{1}{k_s \times n_{\text{total_CO}_2,\text{max}}}\right) + t} \quad (13)$$

In order to simplify the fitting of experimentally-calculated data, the constant $t_{1/2} = 1 / k_s \times n_{\text{total_CO}_2,\text{max}}$ has been defined. Physically, $t_{1/2}$ represents the time after which half of the maximum sequestered quantity of CO₂ was reached and is called “half-sequestered CO₂ time”. It can be used to calculate the initial rate of sequestered CO₂, $v_{0,s}$, [mol s⁻¹] (Eq. (14)):

$$v_{0,s} = \frac{n_{\text{total_CO}_2,\text{max}}}{t_{1/2}} = k_s(n_{\text{total_CO}_2,\text{max}})^2 \quad (14)$$

The fitting of the experimental-calculated kinetic curve at 30 bar and 30 °C ($n_{\text{total_CO}_2,t}$ vs. t) using Eq. (13) is shown in Fig. 6. The parameters $t_{1/2}$ and $n_{\text{total_CO}_2,\text{max}}$ were estimated by applying non-linear regression using the least squares method. The initial rate of sequestered CO₂ was calculated using the Eq. (14) ($v_{0,s} = 3.3 \times 10^{-4}$ mol s⁻¹) at 30 °C. This value indicates that the mass transfer of

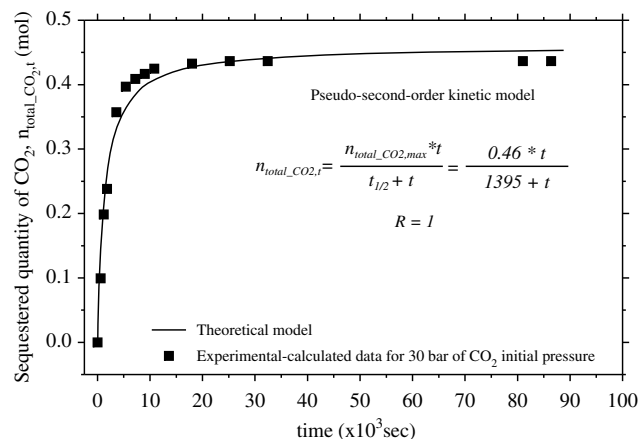


Fig. 6. Kinetic modelling of sequestered quantity of CO₂ in the long-term experiment (48 h) at 30 °C and 30 bar of initial pressure of CO₂.

compressed CO₂ in contact with solid-water dispersion is higher than CO₂ transfer at atmospheric conditions or at low pressure (Haubrock et al., 2007; Akanksha et al., 2008).

3.4. Possible financial benefits

The Kyoto Protocol is a protocol from the international Framework Convention on Climate Change with the objective of reducing Greenhouse gases that cause climate change, mainly CO₂, by at least 5% from the 1990 levels by the period 2008–2012. The European Union attaches national quotas of tradable emission rights. Likewise, governments allocate a specific number of emission rights to each high-energy consumption company. If a company emits more CO₂ than the assigned level, they must buy emission rights at €25 for each tonne of CO₂ or, otherwise, shall be punished with a high penalty amounting to €100

for each tonne of CO₂ emitted in excess. Currently, Spain is the member country with the least possibility of fulfilling this agreement.

ENCE-Spain group has 3 cellulose pulp factories: Huelva, Pontevedra and Navia. Each factory has a production capacity ranging from 300,000 to 400,000 tonnes/a of ECF (Elemental Chlorine Free) pulp, generating a total of approximately 65,000 tonnes of alkaline paper mill waste. Extrapolating the sequestration capacity obtained in this study for the waste from ENCE-Huelva, the total CO₂ that could be sequestered in calcite would be of 15,000 tonnes. Although ENCE complies with CO₂ emissions at present, this company could use their own alkaline waste in order to sequester some of the CO₂ emitted and certainly sell emission rights worth €375,000/a. In this way, other companies that do not comply with their emission rights would avoid paying penalties amounting to €1,500,000/a. Moreover, the CO₂ sequestration in cellulose pulp factories could help to capture other sulphurous gases, and hence, to reduce the characteristic smell of the emissions from these factories (Shih et al., 1999).

Finally, the generation of a solid product containing ca. 100% calcite also revalues the original waste since this mineral could be suitable for use in rubber, plastic, printing ink, paper making, oil paint, toothpaste, cosmetics and food industries (Chan et al., 2002; Kugge and Daicic, 2004).

4. Remarks and conclusions

In search of the most effective technique to reduce point CO₂ emissions into the atmosphere, the aqueous carbonation of alkaline paper mill waste (approx. 55 wt% in portlandite) could fulfil all necessary expectations for the following reasons:

1. The CO₂ sequestration is mainly produced by portlandite dissociation, CO₂ dissolution and calcite precipitation, as shown by means of XRD and SEM-EDS techniques, and thermodynamic calculations with PHREEQC. It is estimated that, the system proposed in this study would favour the mineralogical sequestration of approx. 218.37 kg of CO₂ into stable calcite/ton of paper waste. The amount sequestered by carbonation is independent of both temperature (30 or 60 °C) and initial pressure of CO₂ injected in the system (10, 20, 30 or 40 bar).
2. The independence of temperature and pressure in the sequestration efficiency, probably because the reaction between portlandite and CO₂ is extremely fast, could reduce the costs for the process on an industrial scale since: (1) additional energy is not required for excessive increase of both parameters and (2) the system does not need special materials for reactor design.
3. The capacity of mineral CO₂ sequestration of alkaline paper mill waste is much higher than those of other materials reported in the literature. As a comparison, municipal solid waste bottom-ash could sequester 23.08 kg of CO₂ per ton (Rendek et al., 2006) and coal combustion fly-ash 26.19 kg of CO₂ per ton (Montes-Hernandez et al., 2008), that is, both wastes have a sequestration capacity ca. 10 times lower than paper

wastes. Wollastonite has a very similar sequestration capacity, i.e. 329 kg of CO₂ per ton (Huijgen et al., 2006); however, this primary mineral is not a residue.

4. The result of the carbonation process is a free-metal solution in contact with a solid containing practically 100 wt% of calcite. This final product could be used as a reagent for further aqueous carbon sequestration. The result of this additional CO₂ sequestration may be stored in the ocean, though with some negative impacts on the environment, or used as an alkaline amendment in soils contaminated by metals.
5. The utilization of other wastes to sequester CO₂ would result in the production of calcite in a matrix of silicate minerals that would continue to be a waste product with little application. In addition, these final products could be neither used for further aqueous carbon sequestration nor stored in soils or in the ocean.
6. Carbonation is an exothermic process for portlandite (Montes-Hernandez et al., 2007a), which potentially reduces the overall energy consumption and costs of carbon sequestration.

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