RSC Advances



PAPER

View Article Online



Cite this: RSC Adv., 2024, 14, 40133

Received 30th October 2024 Accepted 16th December 2024

DOI: 10.1039/d4ra07753a

rsc.li/rsc-advances

Beryllium carbonate: a model compound for highest capacity carbon sequestration chemistry?

Gad Licht, a Kyle Hofstetter and Stuart Licht (1) *abc

Beryllium carbonate has the highest capacity to bind and release the greenhouse gas CO2 compared to amines, ionic liquids, $CaCO_3$ or Li_2CO_3 . The thermodynamic equilibrium for CO_2 and BeO from $BeCO_3$ is calculated. TGA of BeCO₃ is used to determine the stepwise mechanism of its CO₂ release, and the low melting point Li/Sr/BeCO₃ is demonstrated.

Introduction

Rising CO₂ levels are causing catastrophic climate change, and are an existential threat to the planet. Atmospheric CO₂ levels, stable at 235 (\pm 50) ppm for several hundred thousand years prior to the industrial revolution, have nearly doubled to 424 ppm and continue to rise rapidly. The effects of climate change include an increasing probability of a mass species extinction event. The ongoing toll on humanity and the planet's habitats are increasingly evident; on a personal note, the first and third authors of this study have just experienced ground zero of two "once in a millennium rainfall events" (Hurricanes Helene and Milton) in a period of two weeks, while the middle author is subject to increasingly frequent forest fires.

A principal path to mitigate climate change is CO₂ sequestration, and CO₂ capture capacity is a measure of the extent of a chemical species binding of CO2 for use in carbon sequestration chemistry. CO2 capture capacity is quantified as mass or mole capacity of CO₂ per mass or mole of absorbent. In addition to the general need for effective CO2 trapping materials to mitigate CO₂-induced global warming and climate change, other examples of the need for lightest weight carbon capture materials for CO2 air scrubbing, include those needed by submersibles, submarines, and spacecraft.2,3

Several recent reviews have focused on amines (and amino acids), calcium oxide (to calcium carbonate), and ionic liquids to bind and release CO2.4-9 More recently, there has been growing focus on nanomaterials, such as carbon nanomaterials, 10-12 and also on and lithium carbonate and mixed lithium/strontium carbonates13-16 to capture CO2 has emerged. Table 1 summarizes common absorbents including

aC2CNT LLC, A4 188 Triple Diamond Blvd, North Venice, FL 34275, USA. E-mail:

more recently, lithium oxide (to lithium carbonate). In this study, beryllium carbonate is introduced as a model compound, establishing a baseline for among the highest capacities of CO2 captured.

CO₂ can be captured and stored by thermal cycling. In this case, dilute CO2 is generally introduced at a lower temperature and released in a concentrated form at a higher temperature. Thermal cycling can comprise adsorption chemistry, as generally occurs with various amine carbon capture chemistries,5,7 or by chemical reactions, as occurs in the reaction of dissolved or solid calcium oxide with CO2 to calcium carbonate, followed by high-temperature decomposition of calcium carbonate back to calcium oxide.8 Thermal cycling is often accompanied by pressurization and also by different subsequent processes to sequester (Carbon Capture and Storage, CCS) or chemically convert (Carbon Capture Utilization and Storage, CCUS) the captured concentrated CO₂. As an alternative to thermal cycling, the CO2 capture can be accomplished by electrolysis (such as the electrochemical splitting of CO₂ to C and O₂) to a product containing the captured CO₂, such as the formation of Carbon NanoTubes (CNTs) from CO2 in molten carbonates. 17-20 This latter CCUS process often occurs in a single step.

In Table 1, the capacity for CO₂ is compiled for common CO₂ absorbents (absorbents referring to both adsorbents, absorbents, and reactants). The capacity for CO₂ is presented in units of both mole CO₂/mole absorbent and also in more typical units of kg CO2 captured per kg absorbent in the last column. Pragmatic capacities for CO2 will be lower than those compiled when a matrix (such as an inert membrane or solvent stabilizer) is required as an additional mass component in the CO₂ capture process.

Amines and amino acids have been widely studied both as absorbents, principally in the liquid phase, to absorb and release CO2, and as adsorbents principally affixed on membranes to adsorb and release CO₂. As seen in Table 1, amines and amino acids have respective capacities for CO2 of 0.19-0.37 or 0.27-0.35 kg CO₂ per kg (amine or amino acid). Ionic liquids have attained capacities of 0.07-0.09 kg CO2 per kg. CaO/CaCO3 has a capacity for CO_2 of 0.78 kg CO_2 (determined as of $CaO + CO_2 \rightarrow CaCO_3$

amines, ionic liquids, calcium oxide (to calcium carbonate), and

^bCarbon Corp, 1035 26 St NE, Calgary, AB T2A 6K8, Canada

Dept. of Chemistry, George Washington University, Washington DC 20052, USA

[†] Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available. https://doi.org/10.1039/d4ra07753a

Table 1 The high capacity for CO₂ of beryllium oxide as beryllium carbonate compared to other absorbents

Chemical absorbent/product	Acronym	Formula	Formula weight, $g \text{ mol}^{-1}$	CO ₂ storage mechanism	Capacity for CO ₂ , mol CO ₂ /mol absorbent	Source, reference	Capacity for CO ₂ , kg CO ₂ per kg absorbent
1-Butyl-3-methylimidazolium bis(trifluoromethylsulfonyl) imide	[Bmim] [Tf ₂ N]	$C_{10}H_{15}F_6N_3O_4S_2$	419.37	Ionic liquid	0.68	7	0.07
1-Aminopropyl-3- methylimidazolium tetraborafluorate/various products	APMim [BF ₄]	$C_7H_{14}N_3BF_4$	227.01	Ionic liquid	0.34	7	0.07
1-Butyl-3-methylimidazolium hexafluorophosphate/various products	[Bmim] [PF ₆]	$C_8H_{15}F_6N_2P$	284.186	Ionic liquid	0.51	7	0.08
1-Butyl-3-methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate/various products	[Bmim] [BF ₄]	$C_8H_{15}BF_4N_2$	226.03	Ionic liquid	0.44	7	0.09
Taurine to protonated acid, HCO_3^- or carbamate		$C_2H_7NO_3S$	125.14	Amino acid	0.7	7	0.25
Proline to protonated acid, HCO ₃ ⁻ or carbamate		$C_5H_9NO_2$	115.132	Amino acid	0.7	7	0.27
Glycine to protonated acid, HCO_3^- or carbamate		$C_2H_5NO_2$	75.067	Amino acid	0.6	7	0.35
Monoethanolamine to RNHCOO ⁻	MEA	$C_5H_{13}NO_2$	61.08	Amine	0.5	7	0.36
Diethanolamine to RNHCOO ⁻	DEA	$C_4H_{11}NO_2$	105.14	Amine	0.5	7	0.21
Methyldiethanolamine to ""	MDEA	$C_5H_{13}NO_2$	119.164	Amine	1	7	0.37
Diethylethanolamine to ""	DEAE	$C_6H_{15}NO$	117.192	Amine	0.5	7	0.19
Calcium oxide to carbonate		CaO	56.08	$CaO + CO_2 \rightarrow CaCO_3$	1	9	0.78
Lithium oxide to carbonate		Li ₂ O	29.88	$\text{Li}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$		16	1.47
Beryllium oxide to carbonate		BeO	24.01	$BeO + CO_2 \rightarrow BeCO_3$	1	This study	1.83

from the 44.01 g per mol FW of CO_2 to the 56.08 g per mol FW of CaO). The lighter molecular weight Li_2O/Li_2CO_3 has a capacity for CO_2 of 1.47 kg CO_2 . In order of increasing CO_2 capacities, the absorbents are ionic liquids < amino acids & amines < CaO (to $CaCO_3$) < Li_2O (to Li_2CO_3).

In this study, beryllium carbonate, with the lowest melting points of inorganic carbonates, is introduced as a model compound establishing a baseline for maintaining the highest capacities for CO_2 (1.83 kg CO_2 per kg $BeO \rightarrow BeCO_3$). Beryllium carbonate is also as an example of a melting point decrease facilitator by addition of $BeCO_3$ to binary Li/SrCO $_3$ electrolyte to become the substantially lower melting point ternary Li/Sr/BeCO $_3$. Binary mixtures typically melt at lower temperatures than pure components because the presence of different molecules disrupts the crystal lattice, weakening intermolecular forces and reducing the energy needed to melt, and in this case CO_2 release can then be achieved using a lower thermal energy input.

Results and discussion

Phase changes & CO₂ equilibria of alkali & alkali earth carbonates

As summarized in Table 2, the melting point of beryllium carbonate (mp 54 °C), Be₂CO₃, is low in the extreme compared

to that of the other alkali earth or alkali carbonates, or compared to their binary or tertiary carbonate mixtures. It should be noted that reported values of carbonate melting points exhibit a considerable range of 10 °C or more. For example, in 7 studies, the melting point of Li₂CO₃ is reported from 700 °C to 728 °C. ²²⁻²⁸ Furthermore, the CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere has increased by 35% since the first of these reports appeared (in 1957). The stability of lithium carbonate increases under 1 atm of CO₂, and we also note that many properties, including melting points, of species related to CO₂ equilibrium will need to be reevaluated due to the rapidly increasing atmospheric concentration of this greenhouse gas.

Alkali carbonate binary mix eutectics have lower melting points. The lowest melting alkali carbonate is generally considered to be the $\text{Li}_x\text{Na}_y\text{K}_z\text{CO}_3$ with a melting point of 397 °C (at $\sim x = 0.47$, y = 0.62, z = 0.5), still considerably higher than the melting point of BeCO₃, by 343 °C.

The extent to which an alkali or alkali earth carbonates retains CO₂ is given by:

$$MCO_3 \rightleftharpoons CO_2(gas) + MO (M = Be, Mg, Li_2, Na_2, etc.)$$
 (1)

$$K = p_{\text{CO}_2} a_{\text{MO}} / a_{\text{MCO}_3}; K(T) = e^{-\Delta G(T)/\text{RT}}$$
 (2)

Table 2 Melting point of alkali and alkali earth carbonates and their eutectic mixtures

Carbonate	Melting point (°C)	Decomposition point (°C)	Ref.
Be_2CO_3	54	\sim 100	21
Li ₂ CO ₃ , Na ₂ CO ₃ or K ₂ CO ₃	723, 851 or 891	\sim 1300 a (Li $_2$ CO $_3$)	30
BaCO ₃	810	~1360	31 and 32
$MgCO_3$	_	\sim 350	32
CaCO ₃	_	\sim 850	31 and 32
SrCO ₃	1494	1494	13
Li ₂ /BaCO ₃ ; 55/45 mol%	609		31 and 34
K ₂ CO ₃ /MgCO ₃ ; 57/43 mol%	460		35
Li ₂ /K ₂ CO ₃ ; 62/38 mol%	498		35
Na ₂ /K ₂ CO ₃ ; 56/44 mol%	710		35
Li ₂ /Na ₂ /K ₂ CO ₃ ; 43.5/31.5/25 mol%	397		35
Li ₂ /Sr ₂ CO ₃ ; 60/40 wt%	680		13
Be/Sr/Li ₂ CO ₃ ; 33/33/33 wt%	480		This study

An extensive literature search did not reveal phase diagrams or equilibria for beryllium carbonate. We've calculated the

BeCO₃/BeO + CO₂ equilibrium from the available enthalpy and

entropy of the constituent species.²⁹

Fig. 1 presents a comparison of the carbonate/oxide equilibrium constant for binding and releasing of CO_2 by beryllium carbonate compared to those for alkali, or other alkali earth carbonates as a function of temperature. Below any of the Fig. 1 equilibrium presented curves, that is, in the high CO_2 activity domain, the carbonate salt will spontaneously form from CO_2 and the salt's oxide. Above any Fig. 1 equilibrium curve, the low CO_2 activity domain ($a_{CO_2} a_{\text{oxide}} / a_{\text{carbonate}} < K$), the carbonate salt will spontaneously decompose. For example, as noted in Table 2, solid Mg CO_3 decomposes at 350 °C, releasing bound CO_2 , and as seen is the second largest (other than Be CO_3) of the eqn

1.0E+04

1.0E-01

1.0E-06

1.0E-11

1.0E-16

1.0E-21

1.0E-26

1.0E-26

1.0E-31

1.0E-31

1.0E-46

1.0E-51

1.0E-56

1.0E-51

1.0E-51

1.0E-56

1.0E-51

1.0E-51

1.0E-51

1.0E-56

1.0E-51

1.0E-51

1.0E-51

1.0E-52

1.0E-53

1.0E-54

1.0E-55

1.0E-56

1.0E-51

1.0E-56

1.0E-57

1.0E-58

1.0E-58

1.0E-59

1.0E-59

1.0E-59

1.0E-59

1.0E-59

1.0E-50

1

Fig. 1 Equilibrium constant for CO_2 release calculated for beryllium carbonate and compared to a range of alkali and alkali earth carbonates. The equilibrium constants as a function of temperature for strontium, lithium, sodium, potassium, and barium carbonate. The equilibrium constants are calculated from the free energy according to eqn (5). The free energy is calculated from the metal carbonate, metal oxide, and carbon dioxide enthalpies and entropies. $^{29,36-39}$

(2) carbonate/oxide equilibrium constants. The high industrial carbon footprint conversion process of limestone to lime or cement depends on the solid state decomposition of calcium carbonate, such as aragonite, which occurs at ~850°.

Li₂CO₃/Li₂O was introduced as among the highest CO₂capture materials, as delineated in the next to last row of Table 1, with a storage capacity of 1.47 kg CO₂ per kg Li₂O. Under argon, Li₂CO₃ entirely dissociates to CO₂ + Li₂O. Specifically, at a TGA rate of 5° min⁻¹ under 1 atm of argon Li₂CO₃ dissociation starts around the lithium carbonate melting point of 723 °C, and is 98% complete to Li₂O by 900 °C, and under 1 atm of pure CO₂ also starts at 723 °C, but the dissociation is less than 10% complete by 900 °C.15 However, under even small partial pressures of CO2, such as the 426 ppm (and rising) of atmospheric CO₂, Li₂CO₃ only fractionally dissociates to CO₂, attaining 0.3 molal concentration Li₂O per kg molten Li₂CO₃ at 750 °C.³⁶ This high capacity was experimentally realized in the form of the electrolytic splitting of CO2 in molten Li2CO3 to graphene nanocarbons.40-49 The small concentration of dissolved Li₂O in molten Li₂CO₃ under air is sufficient to support high CO₂ splitting electrochemical current and continuous renewal of the molten Li₂CO₃ electrolyte with CO₂.50

The relationship between melting and decomposition temperatures for carbonates is complex. Beryllium carbonate has respective melting and decomposition points of BeCO₃ ($M_p = 54$ °C and $D_p = 100$ °C), ²¹ lithium carbonate Li₂CO₃ ($M_p = 723$ °C and $D_p = 1300$ °C), while as seen in Table 2, solid calcium and barium carbonate do not melt nor sublime, but rather decompose directly to calcium or barium oxide and carbon dioxide, finally, strontium carbonate has equivalent, but very high melting and decomposition points SrCO₃ ($M_p = D_p = 1494$ °C). For binary and ternary mixtures, all the higher melting point carbonates are observed to be highly soluble in lithium carbonate. For example, over 60 wt% SrCO₃ is miscible in 750 °C molten Li₂CO₃. ¹³

The temperature at which individual carbonates do, or do not, melt is observable and reproducible to within a few degrees. However, the decomposition point is much less distinct, occurring over hundreds of degrees. For example, while the formal Li_2CO_3 decomposition point in Table 2 is \sim 1300, substantial decomposition has already occurred at 750 °C with release of CO_2 and the resultant Li_2O forming as a dissolved salt within the molten Li_2CO_3 . Hence, this study focuses on the more precise melting point, rather than the broad range of observable decomposition point temperatures.

Beryllium carbonate as an ultra-high CO2 storage material

When modeled as a specific example of eqn (1), beryllium carbonate is a high-capacity carbon capture storage material. Carbon dioxide is stored in beryllium carbonate and is released in the reaction to CO_2 and beryllium oxide:

$$BeCO_3 \rightleftharpoons CO_2(gas) + BeO$$
 (3)

In accord with eqn (3), BeCO₃ (FW 69.02 g mol⁻¹) stores 44.01 g mol⁻¹ CO₂/BeO (FW 25.01 g mol⁻¹) = 1.83 kg CO₂ per kg BeO \rightarrow BeCO₃, as included in Table 1. As seen in Fig. 1, beryllium carbonate provides the largest of the equilibrium constants to release CO₂ of any of the alkali earth or alkali carbonates, and will begin to release CO₂ near ambient temperatures. At room temperature, beryllium carbonate (solid BeCO₃) is often stored under a blanket of CO₂ gas to prevent its decomposition. Beryllium oxide is the lightest weight oxide (other than water), and lithium and beryllium oxide have among the highest carbon capture storage capacities (as moles CO₂ storable per kg oxide).

Thermodynamically, $BeCO_3$ is the carbonate best suited to initiate storage and release of CO_2 at low temperatures. $BeCO_3$ is less prevalent as a salt than calcium, lithium, or strontium carbonate. Be is only the 48th most abundant element in the earth's upper crust, ⁵¹ and it and its oxide, particularly in powder form, is carcinogenic. However, the storage of CO_2 by $BeCO_3$ serves as a model for among the highest carbon storage capacity materials and lowest mass CO_2 scrubbers.

The stepwise mechanism of beryllium carbonate CO2 storage

Eqn (1) only provides a thermodynamic overview of a carbonate's capability to release CO₂. The individual steps in the process of the binding of CO₂ into beryllium carbonate are investigated here by ThermoGravimetric Analysis, TGA.

Fig. 2 presents the TGA results of beryllium carbonate conducted from 30 °C, with a 5 °C temperature increase per minute, and in atmospheres of either (1) 80% $N_2/20\%$ O_2 gas mix shown in the orange curve from 30 to 730 °C or (2) 100% N_2 shown in the blue curve from 30 °C to 1000 °C. In the figure, the downward trend in the mass is seen to start at approximately, the cited²¹ 54 °C melting of BeCO₃. The equivalence of the curves with or without an atmosphere containing O_2 provides primary evidence that O_2 is neither evolved nor absorbed by beryllium carbonate during the TGA, and that species in equilibrium with O_2 , including oxides, peroxides, and superoxides, those species are not participants in reactions related to the TGA temperature sweep.

In Fig. 2 above 54 °C, BeCO₃ rapidly evolves CO₂ upon melting (at increasing temperature, the release of CO₂ from

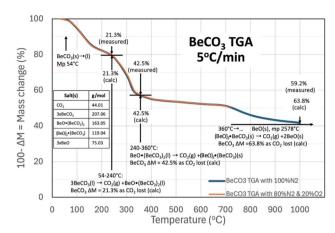


Fig. 2 TGA analysis of beryllium carbonate. The TGA is conducted from 30 °C with a 5 °C increase per minute in either (1) 80% $N_2/20\%$ O_2 (from 30 °C to 730 °C) or (2) 100% N_2 (from 30 °C to 1000 °C). Note, the observed TGA are identical (from 30 °C to 730 °C) in either the O_2 or pure N_2 environments.

BeCO₃ is an exergonic, spontaneous reaction). Released gases diffuse more slowly through a solid than through a liquid.52 Salts evolving CO₂ from the liquid, as opposed to from the solid form, facilitate the rapid release of CO2. For example, comparing liquid and solid CO2 amine sorbents, solid gas reactions require much higher minimum work,53 and the concurrent observed increased rate of mass loss acts as an indicator that the salt has melted. In solid salts that can release CO₂ by decomposition, CO₂ release is constrained by surface depletion and by the slow diffusion of CO_2 to the solid surface. Whereas, in the molten state, the liquid surface is continuously replenished, sustaining facile CO2 access to the surface, and to the interior liquid bulk. In the figure, the mass loss and temperature are noted at the start of rapid mass declines with increasing temperature, and a mechanism of CO2 mass loss is then determined by calculating mass consistent changes of the equivalent calcinated beryllium oxide and BeCO3 salts.

As seen in Fig. 2, molten BeCO $_3$ evolves CO $_2$ to become BeO·(BeCO $_3$) $_2$ from \sim 54 °C to 240 °C, consistent with the equivalence of both the observed and the calculated mass loss as mass loss (of CO $_2$ /mass BeCO $_3$) of 21.3% when one CO $_2$ is evolved from 3 BeCO $_3$ to become BeO·(BeCO $_3$) $_2$, and the rapid mass loss indicative of facile CO $_2$ evolution from a liquid. In the future, several orders of magnitude larger than the TGA mg size samples would be useful to visually corroborate that this is in the liquid (l) phase at these temperatures:

$$3BeCO_3(1) \rightarrow CO_2(g) + BeO \cdot (BeCO_3)_2(1) T = 54-240 \,^{\circ}C$$
 (4)

At increasing temperature, the molten $BeO \cdot (BeCO_3)_2$ then evolves CO_2 to become $(BeO)_2 \cdot BeCO_3$ (FW 119.04) from 240 °C to 360 °C; again, as determined by the equivalence of both the observed and the calculated mass loss of 42.5% when $2CO_2$ are evolved from $3BeCO_3$ to become $BeO \cdot (BeCO_3)$, and once again the rapid mass loss indicative of facile CO_2 evolution from a liquid:

BeO·(BeCO₃)₂(l)
$$\rightarrow$$
 CO₂(g) +(BeO)₂·(BeCO₃) (s)
 $T = 240-360 \, ^{\circ}\text{C}$ (5)

From 360 °C to \sim 700 °C, there is an observed slow, steady rate of CO_2 evolution as the mass loss observed in Fig. 2 increases to 50.9% from the original BeCO₃. The slow rate of CO_2 evolution is evidence that the eqn (5) product may be solid, and the additional (50.9–42.5%) 8.4% mass loss from 3BeCO₃ is evidence that the 2BeO·(BeCO₃) has evolved an additional 0.4 CO_2 over this temperature range with either a lower thermodynamic drive to release CO_2 , or has reverted to the solid phase.

$$(BeO)_2 \cdot (BeCO_3)(s) \rightarrow 0.4CO_2(g) + (BeO)_{2,4} \cdot (BeCO_3)_{0.6}(l)$$

 $T = 360-700 \, ^{\circ}C$ (6a)

Equivalent to integral molecular values of:

$$5(\text{BeO})_2 \cdot (\text{BeCO}_3)(s) \rightarrow 2\text{CO}_2(g) + (\text{BeO})_{12}(\text{BeCO}_3)_3(l)$$

 $T = 360-700 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$ (6b)

Above 700 °C, the observed rate of mass loss and CO_2 evolution again increased, indicative that the product has once again entered a liquid phase as noted on the right side of eqn (6a). In eqn (6b) (BeO)₁₂(BeCO₃)₃(l) is a generalization of the total equivalence of BeO and BeCO₃ in the product, and it is likely that this consists of a solid BeO (mp 2578 °C) in a liquid phase of mixed BeO_x/BeCO₃. This product then evolves CO_2 to become BeO(s) from ~700 °C onward. As the end product of the beryllium carbonate CO_2 loss is a solid, high melting point BeO (mp 2578 °C), and by 1000 °C, the mass observed mass loss has reached 59.2% of the full, calculated 63.8% CO_2 mass loss from BeCO₃. Holding the TGA temperature at 1000 °C for 4 more hours resulted in a further mass loss of 1.2% to 60.4% of the full, calculated 63.8% CO_2 mass loss from BeCO₃:

$$(BeO)_{2.4} \cdot (BeCO_3)_{0.6}(1) \rightarrow 3BeO(s); T = 700 \,^{\circ}\text{C to } T > 1000 \,^{\circ}\text{C}(7)$$

For an overall reaction of:

$$3\text{BeCO}_3(1) \rightarrow 3\text{CO}_2(g) + 3\text{BeO}; T = 54 \text{ °C to } T > 1000 \text{ °C}$$
 (8)

The thermal release of CO_2 from $BeCO_3$ does not result in the formation of powdered BeO, which can be toxic, but rather initially forms $BeO_y \cdot (BeCO_3)_y$, and then at highest levels of CO_2 release temperatures, forms BeO in the TGA as a sintered (solid) mass due to the high temperature of formation, rather than an easily dispersible and potentially toxic powder.

The kinetically and thermodynamic-driven release of CO_2 by heating BeCO_3 and beryllium oxide/carbonates intermediate compounds has been demonstrated, and will presumably similarly occur by alternatively reducing the pressure over those compounds, or by simultaneously heating and reducing the pressure of those compounds. Thermodynamically, the storage of CO_2 by beryllium oxide and beryllium oxide/carbonate intermediates is energetically favored by the reverse process of cooling or pressurizing under CO_2 beryllium oxide and beryllium oxide/carbonate intermediates and stores CO_2 . Beryllium oxide is stable, and this stability to reaction can be overcome by

introducing kinetic facilitation to increase the rate of CO₂ uptake by cooling and/or with pressurized CO₂.

Future studies can probe the likelihood that the reverse beryllium oxide reaction with CO₂ to beryllium carbonate can be facilitated by means including: (i) bubbling CO2 through the various molten (liquid phase) stages of beryllium oxide and its beryllium oxide/carbonate intermediates or forming a liquid aerosol combined with CO₂, (ii) increasing the surface area of the various solid phases stages of beryllium oxide and its beryllium oxide/carbonate intermediates such as by forming a powder, solid aerosol or fixing it to a high surface membrane or aerogel while combining with CO2, (iii) introducing the CO2 by mixing with a combined solid and liquid phase (slush) of beryllium oxide/carbonate intermediates, (iv) or a multistep reaction to incorporate CO2 into beryllium oxide such as, but not limited to, the (iva) the facile reaction of CO2 with ammonium compounds to form ammonium carbonates and the (ivb) reaction of beryllium oxide with sulfate compounds to form beryllium sulfates, followed by the (ivc) the facile reaction of ammonium carbonates and beryllium sulfates to form BeCO₃.

Beryllium-induced carbonate electrolyte melting point decrease

Li₂CO₃ is expensive due its relative scarcity and due to its increasing demand as a primary resource for EVs, but is useful for CO2 removal and its electrolytic transformation to graphene nanocarbons.16 There is less demand for SrCO3 and its derivative salts, such as SrO, are also much more abundant, and an order of magnitude less expensive than Li₂CO₃.^{13,51} We had demonstrated that molten Li₂CO₃ based electrolytes are effective for CO₂ carbon capture by the electrolytic splitting of CO₂. Interestingly, we recently found that the replacement of the majority of the Li₂CO₃ by SrCO₃ and SrO is also effective. The low-Li₂CO₃ electrolytes based on SrCO₃ are substantially less expensive than comparable Li2CO3-based electrolytes, and are useful for splitting and transforming CO2 to stable graphene nanocarbons including CNTs and carbon nano-onions (ESI†).13 The use of an electrolyte that is a binary mixture (for example, Sr/Li carbonate or SrO/Li₂CO₃) that can provide a low melting point electrolyte that facilitates transition metal nucleated growth from CO2 of nanographene carbon allotropes is preferred. 13,16,40,42,47 Low-Li₂CO₃ electrolysis may be performed using a planar, rather than a coiled, and brass, rather than Monel, cathode without substantially affecting low-lithium CNT growth from CO2.13,40,41

Pure $SrCO_3$ has a high melting point of 1194 °C, and in accord with Table 2 does not decompose until temperatures $\gg 1000$ °C. As previously noted and as measured by TGA, the rapid decomposition of pure Li_2CO_3 commences near the 723 °C melting under conditions of no CO_2 (argon) up through pure CO_2 .¹⁵ A binary $SrCO_3/Li_2CO_3$ mix has a melting point of 690–790 °C. The melting point increases as the weight percent of $SrCO_3$ in the binary mix increases from 40 to 65%. The eutectic containing 40 wt% $SrCO_3$ melts at 690 °C, while the binary 50% $SrCO_3$ mix melts at 695 °C (ESI†). Fig. 3 demonstrates that this binary mix melting point is substantially decreased by the inclusion of

RSC Advances Paper

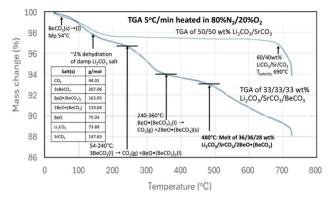


Fig. 3 TGA analysis of 50/50 wt% Li₂CO₃/SrCO₃ compared to 33.3/ 33.3/33.3 wt% Li₂CO₃/SrCO₃/BeCO₃. The TGA is conducted from 30 ° C to 730 with a 5 °C increase per minute in 80% N₂/20% O₂.

BeCO₃ in a ternary mix. Specifically, Fig. 3 compares the TGA's of a binary mix 50/50 wt% Li₂CO₃/SrCO₃ to that of a ternary mix composed one-third by weight each in Li₂CO₃, SrCO₃, BeCO₃. The TGA starts from 30 °C, with a 5 °C min⁻¹ temperature increase, and under an 80% N₂/20% O₂ gas mix.

For the TGA of the binary mix of 50/50 wt% Li₂CO₃/SrCO₃, a few percent weight loss is evident in Fig. 3 at low temperature as the damp material dries. Then the mass is moderately constant, decreasing slowly until a more rapid weight loss occurs around the 690 °C melting point observed for a Li₂CO₃/ SrCO₃ mixture. Alternatively, in addition to the low-temperature drying, the 33.3/33.3/33.3 wt% Li₂CO₃/SrCO₃/BeCO₃ ternary mix exhibits the hallmarks of pure BeCO₃ up to a temperature of 360 °C that were seen in Fig. 2. However, in addition, another sharper decrease in mass loss is observed starting at 480 °C. These are attributed to the melting point of new lower melting ternary mixes of Li₂CO₃/SrCO₃/BeO(BeCO₃)₂ and specifically of 36/36/28 wt% Li₂CO₃/SrCO₃/BeO when taking into account the loss of CO2 up to 480 °C from the original BeCO3 in the formation of BeO. Note, these wt% masses refer to the measured ratio of masses, as distributed through homogeneous speciation in the oxide dissolved in alkali earth carbonate melt, and not that there is a specific release of CO2 from an isolated alkali earth carbonate within the liquid.

The melting point observed for the Li₂CO₃/SrCO₃/BeCO₃ ternary carbonate mix at 480 °C in Fig. 3 is 215 °C lower than the binary Li₂CO₃/SrCO₃mix without the beryllium carbonate addition. Hence, inclusion of BeCO₃ can lower the melting point of conventional inorganic carbonates prepared without a mix of BeCO3.

Experimental

Thermodynamic carbonate/CO2 equilibrium calculation

Enthalpies, entropies of species i, i = alkali and alkali earth carbonates, oxides, and CO₂ are from standard Barin, NIST (calculated from the available condensed phase thermochemistry data Shomate equations), and NASA data bases⁻²⁹⁻³⁹ At any given temperature, the free energy of species "i" was calculated as:

$$\Delta G_i(T) = \Delta H_i(T) - T\Delta S_i(T) \tag{9}$$

The free energy of equilibrium eqn (1) was then calculated as:

$$\Delta G_{\text{eqn (1)}}(T) = \Delta G_{\text{CO}_2}(T) + \Delta G_{\text{MCO}}(T) - \Delta G_{\text{MCO}_3}(T) \qquad (10)$$

The eqn (1) equilibria constants for the various alkali and alkali earth carbonates were then calculated in accord with eqn

TGA measurement, CO₂ evolution, and phase change

BeCO₃, 99+% purity, was from Chemsavers. Li₂CO₃ was purchased at a battery grade >99.5%, and used as received. The Li₂CO₃ had an analyzed composition of 99.8% (Li₂CO₃, Shanghai Seasongreen Chemical Co). The SrCO3 used was 99.4% pure SrCO₃ (Shendong Zhi Chemical Co. Thermal) gravimetric analysis (TGA) was conducted using a PerkinElmer STA 6000 TGA/DSC TGA, under either pure N₂ or a mix of 80% N₂ and 20% O₂. TGAs were conducted with 15 mg of sample using a temperature ramp of 5 °C min⁻¹ over the indicated temperature range. The daily reproducibility of known pure carbonate or graphene samples served as instrumental calibration, and any buildup of residual carbonate was removed by acid wash. In this study, the similarity of the measured mass change with or without the presence of O2 was considered indicative that O2 and related species were not participants in the mass loss sequence. TGA rapid mass loss was considered as gas evolved from the liquid phase, while a low rate of mass loss was considered an indicator of gas evolved from the solid phase as delineated in the text.

Conclusions

Rising levels of CO₂ in the atmosphere are driving catastrophic climate change, posing an existential threat to the planet. As CO₂ concentrations increase, they contribute to global warming, extreme weather events, and ecological disruptions. Addressing this challenge requires innovative solutions, one of which is CO₂ capture and sequestration.

The capacity for CO₂ is a crucial metric in assessing the effectiveness of various chemical species in absorbing, adsorbing or reacting CO2 for sequestration purposes. This capacity is quantified as the amount of CO2 (in kilograms) that can be captured per kilogram of the absorbent material. Common absorbents used in this field include amines, ionic liquids, and calcium oxide, which can transform into calcium carbonate. More recently, lithium oxide (Li2O), which converts to lithium carbonate (Li₂CO₃), has gained attention as a potential absorbent.

In this study BeCO₃ has been introduced as a model compound due to its remarkably high CO2 capture capacity. Although the practical application of beryllium is limited by its scarcity-ranking, as only the 48th most abundant element in the Earth's upper crust, it boasts a CO₂ capture capacity of 1.83 kg CO₂ per kg of BeO. This is significantly higher than that of other common absorbents: amines range from 0.19-0.37 kg CO2 per kg, ionic liquids capture between 0.07 and 0.09 kg CO₂ per kg,

calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) with a capacity of 0.78 kg CO₂ per kg, and lithium carbonate (Li₂CO₃) that captures 1.47 kg CO₂ per kg Li₂O.

To better understand the thermodynamics involved, the equilibrium between CO₂ and beryllium oxide (BeO) derived from BeCO₃ has been calculated and compared to various alkali and alkaline earth carbonates. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) of BeCO₃ has also been conducted to elucidate the stepwise mechanism of CO₂ release, providing insights into how this process in a stepwise release of CO2 at increasing different temperatures.

Additionally, the influence of BeCO₃ on the melting point of mixtures has been explored. A comparison of the binary carbonate system consisting of Li₂CO₃ and strontium carbonate (SrCO₃) with a ternary system that includes BeCO₃ illustrates how the addition of BeCO3 can substantially depress the melting point. BeCO₃ has been presented as a model carbonate to advance the foundation of understanding of the requirements of maximum carbon sequestration. It should be emphasized that beryllium, beryllium carbonate and beryllium oxide are more toxic, less abundant and therefore less available and more expensive than previously studied lower sequestration capacity lithium, magnesium and calcium compounds. This research not only highlights the unique properties of BeCO₃, but also contributes to the broader understanding of CO₂ capture technologies and their potential role in mitigating climate change.

Data availability

The data supporting this article have been included as part of

Author contributions

G. L. and S. L. designed the research; K.·H., G. L. and S. L. performed the research and analysed the data; G. L. and S. L. wrote the paper.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Emissions Reduction Alberta award IT0162473 for partial support of this research.

Notes and references

- 1 M. C. Urban, Accelerating extinction risk from climate change, Science, 2015, 348, 571-573.
- 2 H. M. Baek, Possibility of service-regeneration of LiPH for submarines and improvements in CO2 scrubbing performance in LiOH canisters, JAMET, 2022, 46, 115-121.
- 3 S. Satayapal, T. Filburn, J. Trela and J. Strange, Performance and Properties of a Solid Amine Sorbent for Carbon Dioxide

- Removal in Space Life Support Applications, Energy Fuels, 2001, 15, 250-255.
- 4 C. F. Martín, M. G. Plaza, J. J. Pis, F. Rubiera, C. Pevida and T. A. Centeno, On the limits of CO₂ capture capacity of carbons, Sep. Purif. Technol., 2010, 74, 225-229.
- 5 J. Y. Lai, L. H. Ngu and S. S. Hashim, A review of CO₂ adsorbents performance for different carbon capture technology processes conditions, Greenhouse Gases:Sci. Technol., 2021, 11, 1076-1117.
- 6 E. Victor, K. Chukwuemeka, O. A. Blessing, I. C. Success, O. Chisom, E. B. Chukwuemeka and N. U. Christian, A Concise Review of Sorbent Materials for Carbon Dioxide Capture and Storage, J. Mat. Sci. Res. Rev., 2022, 10, 72–98.
- 7 S. Y. W. Chai, L. H. Ngu and B. S. How, Review of carbon capture adsorbents for CO2 utilization, Greenhouse Gases:Sci. Technol., 2022, 12, 394-427.
- 8 Y. Tan, W. Liu, X. Zhang, W. Wei and S. Song, Conventional and optimized testing facilities of calcium looping process for CO₂ capture: A systematic review, Fuel, 2024, 358, 130337.
- 9 S. Licht, Efficient solar-driven synthesis, carbon capture and desalinization, STEP, Adv. Mater., 2011, 23, 5592-5612.
- 10 M. Firdaus, A. Desforges, A. R. Mohamed and B. Vigolo, Progress in adsorption capacity of nanomaterials for carbon dioxide capture: A comparative study, J. Cleaner Prod., 2021, 328, 129553.
- 11 Y. Deng, J. Li, Y. Mia and D. Izikowitz, A comparative review of performance of nanomaterials for Direct Air Capture, Energy Rep., 2021, 7, 3506-3516.
- 12 X. Wang, T. He, J. Hu and M. Liu, The progress of nanomaterials for carbon dioxide capture via the adsorption process, Environ. Sci.: Nano, 2021, 8, 890-912.
- 13 G. Licht, K. Hofstetter and S. Licht, A new electrolyte for molten carbonate decarbonization, Commun. Chem., 2024,
- 14 Q. Zhu, Y. Zeng and Y. Zheng, Overview of CO₂ capture and electrolysis technology in molten salts: operational parameters and their effects, Ind. Chem. Mater., 2023, 1, 59.
- 15 L. Shi, T. Qu, D. Liu, Y. Deng, B. Yang, and Y. Dai, Process of Thermal Decomposition of Lithium Carbonate, in Materials Processing Fundamentals, J., Lee, S., Wagstaff, G., Lambotte, A., Allanore and F., Tesfaye, The Minerals, Metals & Materials Series, 2020.
- 16 J. Ren, A. Yu, P. Peng, M. Lefler, F.-F. Li and S. Licht, Recent advances in solar thermal electrochemical process (STEP) for carbon neutral products and high value nanocarbons, Acc. Chem. Res., 2019, 52, 3177-3187.
- 17 J. Ren, F.-F. Li, J. Lau, L. Gonzalez-Urbina and S. Licht, Onepot synthesis of carbon nanofibers from CO₂, Nano Lett., 2015, 15, 6142-6148, DOI: 10.1021/jp9044644.
- 18 J. Ren and S. Licht, Tracking airborne CO2 mitigation and low cost transformation into valuable carbon nanotubes, Sci. Rep., 2016, 6, 27760, DOI: 10.1038/srep27760.
- 19 G. Licht, K. Hofstetter and S. Licht, Polymer composites with carbon nanotubes made from CO2, RSC Sustainability, 2024, 2, 2496-2504.

- 20 G. Licht, K. Hofstetter and S. Licht, Buckypaper made with carbon nanotubes derived from CO₂, *RSC Adv.*, 2024, **14**, 27195–27197.
- 21 R. C. Ropp, *Encyclopedia of the Alkaline Earth Compounds*, Elsevier, Netherlands, pp. 359–360, 2013, ISBN 9780444595539.
- 22 The Differential Thermal Investigations of Clays, ed. T. L. Webb, H. Heystek and R. C. Mackenzie, Mineralogical Society, London, 1957, p.329.
- 23 A. D. Pelton, C. W. Bale and P. L. Lin, Can. J. Chem., 1984, 62, 457.
- 24 L. Barin, in *Thermochemical Data of Pure Substances*, VCH, Weinheim, 1989, pp.1–9.
- 25 N. N. Semenov, T. V. Zablotskii, I. Sib and O. Akad, *Nauk SSSR*, 1962, 2, 58.
- 26 E. I. Maslova, I. S. Lileev, I. Sib and O. Akad, *Nauk SSSR*, 1958, 1, 63.
- 27 L. S. Itkinaa and nd N. M. Chaplygina, Russ. J. Inorg. Chem., 1962, 7, 1456.
- 28 Y. Otsubo and K. Yamaguchi, J. Chem.Soc.Japan, 1961, 82, 557.
- 29 M. Leader, curator, NASA Glenn ThermoBuild thermodynamic database,https://cearun.grc.nasa.gov/ ThermoBuild/; last accessed April 17, 2024.
- 30 S. Licht, B. Wang, S. Ghosh, H. Ayub, D. Jiang and J. Ganley, A new solar carbon capture process: STEP carbon capture, *J. Phys. Chem. Lett.*, 2010, **1**, 2363–2368.
- 31 S. Licht and B. C. B. Wang, STEP carbon capture: the barium advantage, *J. CO₂ Util.*, 2013, **2**, 303–312.
- 32 X. Wang, G. Licht, X. Liu and S. Licht, CO₂ utilization by electrolytic splitting to carbon nanotubes in non-lithiated, cost effective, molten carbonate electrolytes, *Adv. Sustainable Syst.*, 2022, 2022, 2100481.
- 33 J. Ren, M. Johnson, R. Singhal and S. Licht, Transformation of the greenhouse gas CO2 by molten electrolysis into a wide controlled selection of carbon nanotubes, *J. CO*₂ *Util.*, 2017, **18**, 335–344.
- 34 P. Pasierb, R. Gajerski, M. Rokita and M. Rekas, Studies on the binary system Li₂CO₃-BaCO₃, *Physica B*, 2001, **304**, 463–476.
- 35 S. Fangini and A. Masi, Molten carbonates for advanced and sustainable energy applications: Part 1, *Int. J. Hydrog. Energy*, 2016, 41, 18739–19746.
- 36 J. Ren, J. Lau, M. Lefler and S. Licht, S. The minimum electrolytic energy needed to convert carbon dioxide to carbon by electrolysis in carbonate melts, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2015, **119**, 23342–23349.
- 37 P. J. Linstrom and G. Mallard, NIST Chemistry WebBook. NIST Standard Reference Database Number 69, 2001, National Institute of Standards and Technology, *J. Chem. Eng. Data*, 2001, 46(5), 1059–1063.
- 38 J. Malcom and W. Chase, *NIST-JANAF Thermochemical Tables Fourth Ed. Amer Chem Soc*, Amer Inst Phys, Nat Inst Stand Tech, 1998, http://webbook.nist.gov, retrieved April 22, 2024.

- 39 L. Barin, *Thermochemical Data of Pure Substances. Part II*, VCH, 1989, pp. 1418–1427.
- 40 X. Liu, G. Licht and S. Licht, Controlled Transition Metal Nucleated Growth of Carbon Nanotubes by Molten Electrolysis of CO₂, *Catalysts*, 2022, **12**, 137.
- 41 X. Liu, G. Licht, X. Wang and S. Licht, Controlled Growth of Unusual Nanocarbon Allotropes by Molten Electrolysis of CO₂, Catalysts, 2022, 12, 137.
- 42 X. Liu, G. Licht and S. Licht, The green synthesis of exceptional braided, helical carbon nanotubes and nanospiral platelets made directly from CO₂, *Mater. Today Chem.*, 2021, 22, 100529.
- 43 X. Wang, G. Licht, X. Liu and S. Licht, One pot facile transformation of CO₂ to an unusual 3-D nan-scaffold morphology of carbon, *Sci. Rep.*, 2020, **10**, 21518.
- 44 X. Liu, J. Ren, G. Licht, X. Wang and S. Licht, Carbon nanoonions made directly from CO₂ by molten electrolysis for greenhouse gas mitigation, *Adv. Sustain. Syst.*, 2019, 3, 1900056.
- 45 X. Liu, X. Wang, G. Licht and S. Licht, Transformation of the greenhouse gas carbon dioxide to graphene, *J. CO*₂ *Util.*, 2020, 236, 288–294.
- 46 X. Wang, X. Liu, G. Licht and S. Licht, Calcium metaborate induced thin walled carbon nanotube syntheses from CO₂ by molten carbonate electrolysis, *Sci. Rep.*, 2020, 10, 15146.
- 47 X. Wang, F. Sharif, X. Liu, G. Licht, M. Lefler and S. Licht, Magnetic carbon nanotubes: Carbide nucleated electrochemical growth of ferromagnetic CNTs, *J. CO₂ Util.*, 2020, **40**, 101218.
- 48 M. Johnson, J. Ren, M. Lefler, G. Licht, J. Vicini, X. Liu and S. Licht, Carbon nanotube wools made directly from CO₂ by molten electrolysis: Value driven pathways to carbon dioxide greenhouse gas mitigation, *Mater. Today Energy*, 2017, 5, 230–236.
- 49 J. Ren, M. Johnson, R. Singhal and S. Licht, Transformation of the greenhouse gas CO₂ by molten electrolysis into a wide controlled selection of carbon nanotubes, *J. CO*₂ *Util.*, 2017, **18**, 335–344.
- 50 G. Licht, K. Hofstetter and S. Licht, Separation of Molten Electrolyte from the Graphene Nanocarbon Product Subsequent to Electrolytic CO₂ Capture, *Decarbon*, 2024, 4, 100044.
- 51 Z. Hu and S. Gao, Upper crustal abundances of trace elements: A revision and update, *Chem. Geol.*, 2008, 253, 205–221.
- 52 A. Kantzas, J. Bryan, S. Taheri, Molecular Diffusion, Chapt. 3 in Fundamentals of Fluid Flow in Porous, Media PERM, 2024, available at: https://perminc.com/resources/ fundamentals-of-fluid-flow-in-porous-media/chapter-3molecular-diffusion/.
- 53 H. S. Caram, R. Gupta, H. Thomann, F. Ni, S. C. Weston and M. Afeworki, A simple thermodynamic tool for assessing energy requirements for carbon capture using solid or liquid sorbents, *Int. J. Greenhouse Gas Control*, 2020, 97, 102986.