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Introduction

Rising CO₂ levels are causing catastrophic climate change, and are an existential threat to the planet. Atmospheric $CO₂$ levels, stable at 235 (±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.¹ 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 CO_2 -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 CO_2 .⁴⁻⁹ More recently, there has been a 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 amines, ionic liquids, calcium oxide (to calcium carbonate), and

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

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Beryllium carbonate has the highest capacity to bind and release the greenhouse gas $CO₂$ compared to amines, ionic liquids, CaCO₃ or Li₂CO₃. The thermodynamic equilibrium for CO₂ and BeO from BeCO₃ 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.

> 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. Open Access Article. Published on 23 December 2024. Downloaded on 1/26/2025 8:00:12 PM. This article is licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 Unported Licence.](http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0/) **[View Article Online](https://doi.org/10.1039/d4ra07753a) [View Journal](https://rsc.66557.net/en/journals/journal/RA) [| View Issue](https://rsc.66557.net/en/journals/journal/RA?issueid=RA014054)**

> 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 CO₂ of 0.78 kg CO₂ (determined as of CaO + CO₂ \rightarrow CaCO₃

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

from the 44.01 g per mol FW of $CO₂$ to the 56.08 g per mol FW of CaO). The lighter molecular weight Li_2O/Li_2CO_3 has a capacity for $CO₂$ of 1.47 kg $CO₂$. In order of increasing $CO₂$ capacities, the absorbents are ionic liquids < amino acids & amines < CaO (to $CaCO₃$ < Li₂O (to Li₂CO₃).

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 BeCO₃). Beryllium carbonate is also as an example of a melting point decrease facilitator by addition of $BCO₃$ to binary $Li/STCO₃$ electrolyte to become the substantially lower melting point ternary Li/Sr/BeCO₃. 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 $CO₂$ 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 CO_2 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 $Li_xNa_yK_zCO_3$ 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:

 $MCO₃ \rightleftharpoons CO₂(gas) + MO (M = Be, Mg, Li₂, Na₂, etc.)$ (1)

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

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

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 $CO₂$ 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 $CO₂$ activity domain, the carbonate salt will spontaneously form from $CO₂$ and the salt's oxide. Above any Fig. 1 equilibrium curve, the low $CO₂$ activity domain (a_{CO} , $a_{\text{oxide}}/a_{\text{carbonate}} < K$), the carbonate salt will spontaneously decompose. For example, as noted in Table 2, solid MgCO₃ decomposes at 350 °C, releasing bound $CO₂$, and as seen is the second largest (other than $BeCO₃$) of the eqn

Fig. 1 Equilibrium constant for $CO₂$ 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°.

 Li_2CO_3/Li_2O was introduced as among the highest CO_2 capture 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 Li_2CO_3 electrolyte with CO_2 .⁵⁰

The relationship between melting and decomposition temperatures for carbonates is complex. Beryllium carbonate has respective melting and decomposition points of $\text{BeCO}_3 \left(M_{\text{n}} \right)$ = 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 $Li_2CO_3.^{13}$

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 $Li₂CO₃$ decomposition point in Table 2 is ∼1300, substantial decomposition has already occurred at 750 ° C with release of $CO₂$ and the resultant $Li₂O$ forming as a dissolved salt within the molten Li_2CO_3 .³⁶ 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 $CO₂$ and beryllium oxide:

$$
BeCO_3 \rightleftharpoons CO_2(gas) + BeO \tag{3}
$$

In accord with eqn (3), BeCO $_3$ (FW 69.02 $\rm g$ mol $^{-1})$ stores 44.01 $\rm g$ 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, $BeCO₃$ is the carbonate best suited to initiate storage and release of $CO₂$ at low temperatures. BeCO₃ 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 $CO₂$ by BeCO₃ serves as a model for among the highest carbon storage capacity materials and lowest mass $CO₂$ 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 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$ to 1000 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}.$ 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 $O₂$ provides primary evidence that O_2 is neither evolved nor absorbed by beryllium carbonate during the TGA, and that species in equilibrium with $O₂$, 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% N₂/20% O₂ (from 30 °C to 730 °C) or (2) 100% N₂ (from 30 °C to 1000 °C). Note, the observed TGA are identical (from 30 $^{\circ}$ C to 730 $^{\circ}$ C) in either the O₂ or pure N₂ 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 $CO₂$ 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 $BeCO₃$ evolves $CO₂$ to become BeO⋅(BeCO₃)₂ from ∼54 °C to 240 °C, consistent with the equivalence of both the observed and the calculated mass loss as mass loss (of CO_2/m ass BeCO₃) of 21.3% when one CO_2 is evolved from 3 BeCO₃ to become BeO·(BeCO₃)₂, and the rapid mass loss indicative of facile $CO₂$ 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:

$$
3\text{BeCO}_3(l) \rightarrow \text{CO}_2(g) + \text{BeO} \cdot (\text{BeCO}_3)_2(l) T = 54-240 \text{ °C} \quad (4)
$$

At increasing temperature, the molten BeO \cdot (BeCO₃)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 $2CO₂$ are evolved from 3BeCO₃ to become BeO \cdot (BeCO₃), and once again the rapid mass loss indicative of facile $CO₂$ evolution from a liquid:

From 360 °C to ∼700 °C, there is an observed slow, steady rate of $CO₂$ evolution as the mass loss observed in Fig. 2 increases to 50.9% from the original BeCO₃. The slow rate of $CO₂$ 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 $2BeO \cdot (BeCO_3)$ has evolved an additional 0.4 $CO₂$ over this temperature range with either a lower thermodynamic drive to release $CO₂$, or has reverted to the solid phase.

$$
(BeO)2 \cdot (BeCO3)(s) \rightarrow 0.4CO2(g) + (BeO)2.4 \cdot (BeCO3)0.6(l)
$$

$$
T = 360-700 \text{ °C}
$$
 (6a)

Equivalent to integral molecular values of:

$$
5(BeO)2 \cdot (BeCO3)(s) \rightarrow 2CO2(g) + (BeO)12(BeCO3)3(l)
$$

$$
T = 360-700 \text{ °C}
$$
 (6b)

Above 700 °C, the observed rate of mass loss and $CO₂$ 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) $(BeO)_{12}(BeCO_3)_{31}$ 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 $BeO_x/BeCO_3$. This product then evolves CO_2 to become BeO(s) from ∼700 °C onward. As the end product of the beryllium carbonate $CO₂$ 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% $CO₂$ mass loss from BeCO₃. Holding the TGA temperature at 1000 \degree C for 4 more hours resulted in a further mass loss of 1.2% to 60.4% of the full, calculated 63.8% $CO₂$ mass loss from BeCO₃:

 $(BeO)_{2,4} \cdot (BeCO_3)_{0.6}(1) \rightarrow 3BeO(s); T = 700 \degree C$ to $T > 1000 \degree C(7)$

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 $CO₂$ from BeCO₃ does not result in the formation of powdered BeO, which can be toxic, but rather initially forms BeO_y ($BeCO_3$)_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 $CO₂$ by heating $BeCO₃$ 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 $CO₂$ by beryllium oxide and beryllium oxide/carbonate intermediates is energetically favored by the reverse process of cooling or pressurizing under $CO₂$ beryllium oxide and beryllium oxide/carbonate intermediates and stores $CO₂$. 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 $BeCO₃$. Paper
 BEO (BEO (BEO $+120-30$) (CFCO $+120-30$) (S) interducing handed by article in a significant contract and the state of OD, recent the CV, recent to the conduction as the mass loss observed the way are significant

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 $S₁CO₃$ and its derivative salts, such as SrO, are also much more abundant, and an order of magnitude less expensive than Li_2CO_3 , $13,51$ We had demonstrated that molten $Li₂CO₃$ based electrolytes are effective for CO_2 carbon capture by the electrolytic splitting of CO_2 . 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 SrCO₃ 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 $Li₂CO₃$ commences near the 723 °C melting under conditions of no $CO₂$ (argon) up through pure $CO₂$.¹⁵ A binary SrCO₃/Li₂CO₃ mix has a melting point of 690–790 °C. The melting point increases as the weight percent of $S₁CO₃$ in the binary mix increases from 40 to 65%. The eutectic containing 40 wt% SrCO₃ melts at 690 °C, while the binary 50% SrCO₃ mix melts at 695 °C (ESI†). Fig. 3 demonstrates that this binary mix melting point is substantially decreased by the inclusion of

Fig. 3 TGA analysis of 50/50 wt% $Li_2CO_3/STCO_3$ 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% $N_2/20\%$ O₂.

 $BeCO₃$ in a ternary mix. Specifically, Fig. 3 compares the TGA's of a binary mix 50/50 wt% $Li₂CO₃/STCO₃$ 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% $N_2/20\%$ O₂ gas mix.

For the TGA of the binary mix of 50/50 wt% $Li₂CO₃/STCO₃$, 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 $Li_2CO_3/$ 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 $Li_2CO_3/SCO_3/BeO(BeCO_3)_2$ and specifically of $36/36/28$ wt% $Li₂CO₃/STCO₃/BeO$ 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 $Li_2CO_3/StCO_3/BeCO_3$ ternary carbonate mix at 480 °C in Fig. 3 is 215 °C lower than the binary $Li_2CO_3/STCO_3$ mix 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:

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

The eqn (1) equilibria constants for the various alkali and alkali earth carbonates were then calculated in accord with eqn (2).

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 Li_2CO_3 had an analyzed composition of 99.8% (Li_2CO_3 , Shanghai Seasongreen Chemical Co). The $S₁$ CO₃ used was 99.4% pure $S₁CO₃$ (Shendong Zhi Chemical Co. Thermal) gravimetric analysis (TGA) was conducted using a PerkinElmer STA 6000 TGA/DSC TGA, under either pure N_2 or a mix of 80% N_2 and 20% O_2 . 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 O_2 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. **PSC Advances**

³⁰

²⁰²

²⁰

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 BeCO_3 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 $BCO₃$ 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. Paper

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Data availability

The data supporting this article have been included as part of the ESI.†

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.

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