

Controlled Mineralisation of Carbon Dioxide: Laboratory Assessment

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ABSTRACT

NCG reinjection has been implemented in several geothermal power plants to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and support New Zealand's net-zero emissions targets. A major challenge for this system is that there is a potential for NCG breakthrough to the surrounding wells and leakage to the ground surface, which could result in high CO₂ gas emissions. Therefore, effective CO₂ mineralisation is essential to mitigate those risks. This study presents a series of laboratory experiments designed to evaluate suitable and cost-effective materials for CO₂ mineralisation.

Hydroxide compounds—including calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH)₂), potassium hydroxide (KOH), and sodium hydroxide (NaOH)—and industrial waste products were tested by injecting CO₂ into aqueous solutions of these materials. The efficiency of mineralisation was assessed via the composition and mass of solid CaCO₃ deposits formed. The tests were performed under varied conditions of temperature (25–60 °C), CO₂ flow rate (0.1–0.2 L/min), and reactant concentrations.

Based on the results, the most effective hydroxide mineral that has been tested for CO₂ mineralisation is Calcium Hydroxide (Ca(OH)₂) since it produces solid carbonate. However, due to the relatively high cost of pure Ca(OH)₂, other alternatives could be used for the CO₂ capturing. Waste products (e.g., burned lime and NSSC) containing 75–85% Ca(OH)₂ are proven to be effective in CO₂ mineralisation by precipitating CaCO₃ minerals from the carbonation of Ca(OH)₂ aqueous solutions. These waste-based sources produced significant CaCO₃ precipitation and present a promising low-cost alternative.

From these laboratory experiments, it is concluded that waste products containing significant Ca(OH)₂ can be effective for CO₂ sequestration in geothermal reinjection systems, helping to reduce the risk of NCG breakthrough by promoting near-complete mineralisation before subsurface injection.

1. INTRODUCTION

NCG reinjection back into geothermal reservoirs can improve reservoir performance by promoting boiling, increasing the enthalpy of the produced fluids, and maintaining reservoir pressure (Kaya & Zarrouk, 2017). On the other hand, there are risks of injecting NCG into the reservoir, such as potential NCG breakthrough to surrounding production wells, leakage to the surface, and porosity and permeability changes of the original rock matrix.

In New Zealand, three fields have implemented NCG reinjection, namely Te Huka (Ruiz et al., 2021), Ngāwhā (Titus et al., 2024), and Ngā Tamariki (Abd Ghafar et al., 2022). The NCG reinjection effect was evaluated on the Ngā Tamariki reservoir using the reactive transport model (Siahaan et al., 2024). The results show that there are various trends of porosity and permeability along the radial distance. Near the reinjection wellbore, there is increasing porosity and permeability due to calcite and anhydrite dissolution. On the other hand, there is a decrease in porosity and permeability in the outer region due to anhydrite precipitation. The results also show that there is increasing calcite dissolution near the wellbore with increasing NCG concentration due to the lower pH of the injection fluid.

Another study on the simulation of NCG reinjection was conducted for areas located at the Taupo Volcanic Zone, namely Wairakei, Kawerau, and Rotokawa, to determine the CO₂ and H₂S storage potential at that field (Galeczka & Chambeft, 2021). The study concludes that the mineralisation efficiency at reservoir conditions for those fields is insufficient. Maximum CO₂ mineralisation at Kawerau is only 12%, 0.7% at Rotokawa, and no CO₂ is predicted to mineralise at Wairakei. The inefficiency of CO₂ mineralisation during NCG reinjection might lead to an increase in CO₂ content in the reservoir, which can result in higher CO₂ produced at wells, contributing to increasing CO₂ emissions at the surface over time. With the current condition of NCG reinjection at New Zealand geothermal fields, further efforts are required to ensure that the CO₂ gas is efficiently mineralised before the reinjection fluids reach the production wells.

CO₂ mineralisation is one of the CO₂ trap mechanisms where the dissolved CO₂ reacts with divalent cations (e.g. Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, Fe²⁺) to form stable carbonate minerals (Kim et al., 2023). It is considered the most permanent and stable storage because the CO₂ is stored in solid forms, such as calcite (CaCO₃), magnesite (MgCO₃), or siderite (FeCO₃), which are thermodynamically stable and do not pose a risk of re-emission. The use of hydroxide minerals (e.g. Ca(OH)₂, NaOH, and KOH) may promote a faster mineralisation process. Aside from the hydroxide compounds, industrial waste products containing high hydroxide minerals are also potentially effective for use in the CO₂ capture process. It can offer a lower cost of mineralisation and reduce solid waste. Since the CO₂ is converted into solid carbonates before reinjections, the risk of leakage is greatly reduced, and post-injection monitoring programs are minimal.

This study aims to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of CO₂ capture to support the implementation of New

Zealand's NCG reinjection program and contribute to the achievement of the net-zero emission target by 2050.

2. METHODOLOGY

Laboratory experiments used for this study involve injecting CO₂ gas into solutions containing chemical products. These laboratory experiments aim to determine the mineralisation process due to CO₂ capture using several types of solutions, namely Ca(OH)₂, CaCO₃, KOH, NaOH, and industrial waste. At the end of the experiment, the deposits are weighed to determine their % recovery and analysed using XRD to identify their mineral compositions.

2.1 CO₂ Injection Testing

The solutions are put into a 1L cylinder and injected with CO₂ gas at a constant flow rate of 0.1 lpm, and the flow rate is measured using a rotameter. A pH probe is inserted into the solution to measure the pH variation throughout the injection process (Figure 1). The pH was measured using a Thermo Scientific™ Orion Star™ A211 Benchtop pH meter.

After the solution is injected with CO₂ gas, it is filtered using qualitative filter paper with various pore sizes (typically 6 to 11 µm). The filter paper, which already contains the deposited carbonate, is dried using an oven at a temperature of 40°C overnight. Then, it is weighed using an analytical balance, DENVER SI-234, to determine the final weight of the precipitate. The weight of deposits is calculated from the subtraction of the final weight from the initial weight.

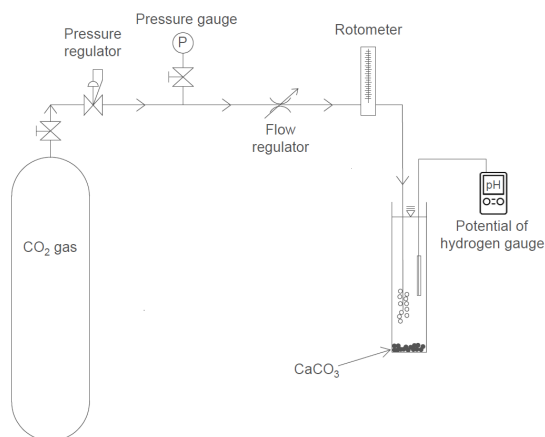
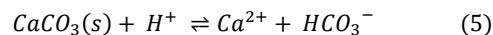
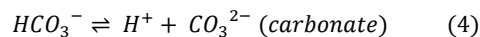
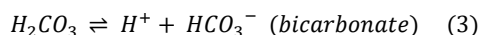
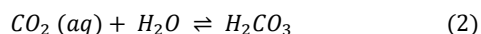


Figure 1: Schematic diagram for a CO₂-capture system using several aqueous solutions as the absorbent.

Injection of CO₂ gas into water involves several processes, including dissolution of CO₂ in water (Equation 1), formation of carbonic acid (Equation 2), and dissociation of carbonic acid (Equations 3 and 4) (Mitchell et al., 2010). These reactions (Equations 3 and 4) release H⁺ ions, which lower the pH of the solution. Therefore, the injection of CO₂ into water makes the pH acidic. When the acidic pH liquid interacts with CaCO₃ mineral, the H⁺ ions react with carbonate (CO₃²⁻) in CaCO₃, shifting the equilibrium towards more dissolution (Equation 5).



Laboratory experiments are conducted to determine the effect of CO₂ injections on the CaCO₃ mineral, using 1 L of CaCO₃ solution with a CO₂ flow rate of 0.1 lpm. Three injection tests were conducted: the saturated solution (0.015 g/L water) at room temperature (National Centre for Biotechnology Information, 2025a), the supersaturated solution (10 g/L water) at room temperature, and the supersaturated solution (10 g/L water) at 80°C. After being injected with CO₂, the oversaturated solutions are filtered, dried, and weighed. The CaCO₃ deposit weight after CO₂ injection is shown in Table 1. Based on the results, the solution at 80°C has slightly more CaCO₃ loss than the solution injected at a room temperature of 22°C, although the amount is insignificant. Therefore, the experiments prove that CO₂ injection into water will dissolve CaCO₃ mineral due to the acidic pH solution.

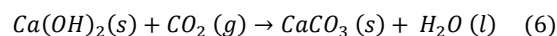
Table 1: CaCO₃ loss calculation after CO₂ injection.

Temperature (°C)	Injection Period (minutes)	Amount of CaCO ₃ in Solution (g)	Total CaCO ₃ after CO ₂ Injection (g)	% Loss
22	30	0.015	N/A*	N/A*
22	30	10	9.2229	7.8%
80	30	10	9.1434	8.6%

**note: in saturated CaCO₃ solutions (0.015 g/L water), all CaCO₃ are dissolved in water before the CO₂ injection and no CaCO₃ precipitate after CO₂ injection.*

2.2 CaCO₃ % Recovery Calculation

One of the injection testing experiments of CO₂ mineralisation is conducted by injecting CO₂ gas into Ca(OH)₂ solutions to form CaCO₃ minerals. The stoichiometric reaction between carbon dioxide (CO₂) and calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH)₂) solution to form calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) is as follows (Han et al., 2011):



The CaCO₃ % recovery refers to the amount of CaCO₃ formed from the injection of CO₂ gas into a Ca(OH)₂ solution, compared to the amount of CaCO₃ that should theoretically form, calculated based on stoichiometry. Therefore, the CaCO₃ % recovery is calculated as follows:

$$\text{CaCO}_3 \% \text{ recovery} = \frac{\text{weight of CaCO}_3 \text{ deposit from the experiment}}{\text{theoretical mass of CaCO}_3} \times 100\%$$

3. HYDROXIDE CHEMICAL PRODUCTS

Several hydroxide lab-grade products are tested to determine their ability to capture and store CO₂ in the form of solid minerals. Those products include Ca(OH)₂, KOH, and NaOH. Solutions containing each of the products are injected with CO₂ gas under various conditions, and the deposits (if any) are weighed to determine the amount of deposits formed after CO₂ injection. The results of this experiment will be used as a basis to select which chemical is more suitable for CO₂ capture.

3.1 Injection Testing – Ca(OH)₂

In Ca(OH)₂ injection testing, the reaction conditions—such as temperature, injection period, CO₂ flow rate, and concentration—can be adjusted to determine the effect on the precipitate weight and reaction rates.

3.1.1 Temperature Effect

CO₂ injection into Ca(OH)₂ solutions was tested at two different temperatures, which are 22°C (room temperature) and 60°C. All solutions are in saturated conditions with respect to each temperature. At room temperature (25°C), the solubility of Ca(OH)₂ is 0.159 g/100 mL (Athanassiadis & Walsh, 2017). At a temperature of 60°C, the solubility is 0.116 g/100 mL (National Lime Association, n.d.). The pH trend for the tested temperatures is shown in Figure 2. It shows that Ca(OH)₂ solutions at the highest temperature (60°C) have a faster reaction time, which results in the faster pH decrease, possibly due to a faster reaction rate/kinetics and a smaller quantity of Ca(OH)₂.

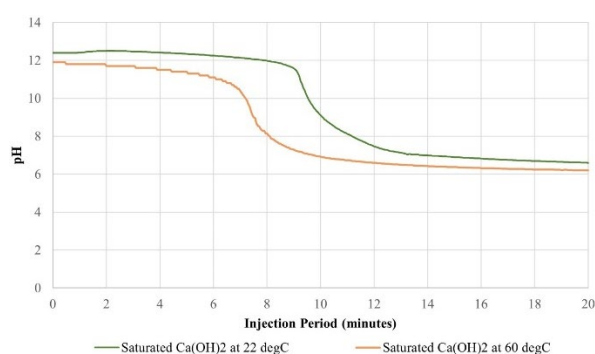


Figure 2: pH changes after CO₂ injection into Ca(OH)₂ solution at different temperatures.

After CO₂ injection, the solutions are filtered, and the deposits are dried to determine the weight. The amount of Ca(OH)₂ in solution and the % recovery at each temperature are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Results of deposit weight and % CaCO₃ recovered at different temperatures.

Temperature (°C)	Amount of Ca(OH) ₂ in Solution (g)	Total CaCO ₃ after CO ₂ Injection (g)	Calculated CaCO ₃ (g)	% Recovery
22	1.511	1.537	2.041	75.3%
60	1.137	1.325	1.535	86.3%

The results show that the CaCO₃ formed at room temperature is 75.3% of the calculated CaCO₃, and the CaCO₃ formed at 60°C is 86.3% of the calculated CaCO₃. These higher CaCO₃ deposits at high temperatures may be due to the effect of CaCO₃ solubility. CaCO₃ solubility decreases with increasing temperature, which means less CaCO₃ can remain dissolved. Therefore, this condition leads to more precipitation of CaCO₃ at 60°C, compared to 22°C.

3.1.2 Injection Period Effect

Different CO₂ injection times are used to determine the effect of CaCO₃ formation. Two Ca(OH)₂ solutions at saturated conditions at room temperature are exposed to different injection periods, which are 20 minutes and 9 minutes, with a CO₂ flow rate of 0.1 lpm. In the first solution, after 20 minutes of injection, the solution pH decreased to 6.60

(Figure 3). Meanwhile, in the second solution, the pH was 9.32 after 9 minutes of injection. The deposit weight is summarised in Table 3.

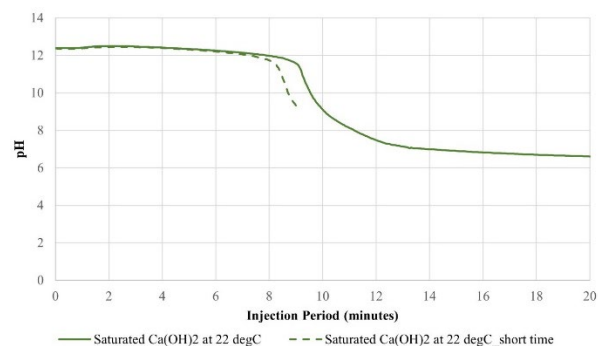


Figure 3: pH changes after CO₂ injection into Ca(OH)₂ solution at different injection periods.

At a shorter injection period and higher pH (pH: 9.32), the amount of CaCO₃ produced is more than in the longer injection period and lower final pH (pH: 6.6). This might be due to CaCO₃ forming effectively at a high pH range (10 < pH < initial). In the high pH range, CaCO₃ was produced by CO₂ absorption, which leads to a decrease in the ion concentration involved in CaCO₃ production, such as Ca²⁺, CO₃²⁻, HCO₃⁻, and OH⁻ (Han et al., 2011). On pH range 7 to 10, there is less CO₂ absorption, increasing H⁺ and HCO₃⁻ ion concentrations, thus, less CaCO₃ is formed. At a pH less than 7, CO₂ forms carbonic acid, leading to CaCO₃ dissolution. Therefore, a higher % recovery in a shorter injection period is because the pH is still in the high range, which is the most effective pH in CaCO₃ formation and no CaCO₃ dissolution by carbonic acid, unlike in the lower pH range.

Table 3: Results of deposit weight and % CaCO₃ recovered at different injection periods.

Initial pH	Final pH	Injection Period (min)	Amount of Ca(OH) ₂ in Solution (g)	Total CaCO ₃ after CO ₂ Injection (g)	Calculated CaCO ₃ (g)	% Recovery
12.40	6.60	20	1.511	1.537	2.041	75.3%
12.37	9.32	9	1.478	1.935	1.996	96.9%

3.1.3 CO₂ Injection Rate

As a baseline condition, the CO₂ flow rate for saturated Ca(OH)₂ solutions is set at 0.1 lpm at room temperature (22°C) and a higher flow rate is set using 0.2 lpm. Based on the experiment, Ca(OH)₂ solutions with higher CO₂ flow rates experienced a faster pH decrease because more CO₂ is dissolving per unit time, producing more H⁺ ions to neutralise OH⁻. Since the CO₂ flow rate is twice as high (0.2 lpm vs. 0.1 lpm), the reaction proceeds faster (half of the normal injection rate), leading to a more rapid decrease in pH (Figure 4).

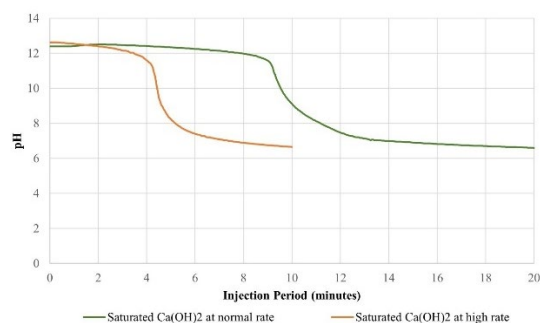


Figure 4: Saturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions at different CO_2 injection rates.

The results of CaCO_3 formation are shown in Table 4. Based on the results, the solution with a higher CO_2 flow rate has a high % recovery of CaCO_3 , which indicates that the CO_2 can be captured effectively. A higher % recovery in higher injection CO_2 injection rates may be due to the effect of the kinetic rate increase, which introduces turbulence into the system. Turbulence produces the necessary activation energy for the precipitation process, brings more ions for the precipitation process, and enhances local supersaturation (Al-Rawajfeh, 2009). Another factor resulting in a higher % recovery in a higher injection rate is that the higher injection rate shortens the reaction time and reduces the duration of exposure to low pH conditions (shorter injection period to reach the same final pH), thereby limiting the redissolution of CaCO_3 into soluble bicarbonate species. Those two factors contribute to the higher % recovery at a higher injection rate.

Table 4: Results of deposit weight and % CaCO_3 recovered at different CO_2 rates.

CO_2 Rates (L/min)	Sample Amount in 1L of H_2O (g)	Amount of Ca(OH)_2 in Solution (g)	Total CaCO_3 after CO_2 Injection (g)	Calculated CaCO_3 (g)	% Recovery
0.1	1.5116	1.5109	1.537	2.041	75.3%
0.2	1.5007	1.2804	1.418	1.730	82.0%

3.1.4 Supersaturation Condition Effect

The supersaturation condition of Ca(OH)_2 solutions was investigated to determine its effect on the reaction rate and CaCO_3 recovered. Based on Figure 5, a solution with 1.5 g of Ca(OH)_2 dissolved in 1 L of distilled water experienced a faster pH decrease compared to the 3 g Ca(OH)_2 solution when injected with CO_2 at the same rate (0.1 L/min). The 1.5 g/L solution will experience a faster pH decrease because fewer OH^- ions are available to buffer against the CO_2 . The 3 g Ca(OH)_2 solution maintains a higher pH for a longer period as a result of the buffering effects from undissolved Ca(OH)_2 , which continuously dissolves and replenishes OH^- ions, thus resisting the acidification process for a longer period.

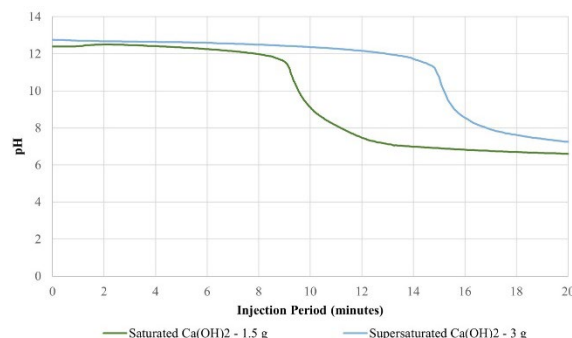


Figure 5: pH changes comparison between supersaturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions with saturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions.

The results of CaCO_3 formation are shown in Table 5. Based on the results, the solution with supersaturated conditions achieved a higher % recovery than the baseline conditions. These results may occur due to a higher concentration of Ca^{2+} , which shifts the carbonate equilibrium more towards the CaCO_3 formation. This led to increasing CO_2 absorption, more complete precipitation of CaCO_3 , and less effect of dissolution from the carbonic acid. The experiment results confirm that a supersaturated Ca(OH)_2 solution could improve the precipitation efficiency in CO_2 capture systems.

Table 5: Comparison of deposit weight and % CaCO_3 recovered at room temperature between saturated and supersaturated conditions.

CO_2 Rates (L/min)	Amount of Ca(OH)_2 in Solution (g)	Total CaCO_3 after CO_2 Injection (g)	Calculated CaCO_3 (g)	% Recovery
0.1	1.5109	1.5368	2.041	75.3%
0.1	3.0000	3.7000	4.052	91.3%

3.1.5 Undersaturation Condition Effect

The undersaturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions were tested to determine the effect of CO_2 injection and compare it with the baseline condition/saturated solution. The undersaturated solution with 0.75 g/L was injected with a similar CO_2 rate (0.1 lpm), similar temperature (22°C), and similar injection periods (20 minutes). The pH trend changes are shown in Figure 6. The undersaturated solution experienced a faster pH decrease, almost half of the time, compared to the saturated solutions. This condition occurs because the undersaturated solution has fewer OH^- ions available to buffer against the CO_2 , hence a faster pH decrease.

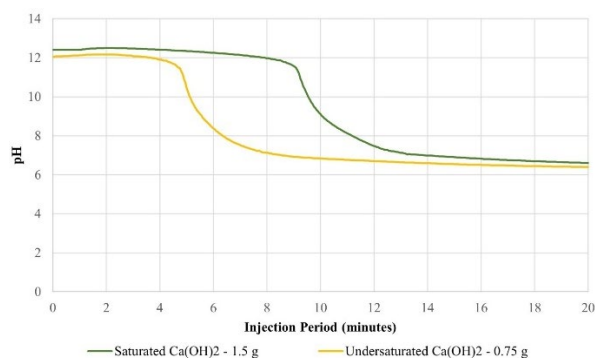


Figure 6: pH changes comparison between undersaturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions with saturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions.

The results of CaCO_3 deposit after 20 minutes of injections are shown in Table 6. The undersaturated solutions have less % recovery compared to the saturated solutions. This might be due to the presence of a larger amount of excess CO_2 in undersaturated solutions. If more CO_2 is added to the solutions, there will be an excess of CO_2 , which promotes the formation of carbonic acid (H_2CO_3). The carbonic acid will dissolve the CaCO_3 deposit into soluble calcium bicarbonate ($\text{Ca(HCO}_3)_2$) and result in less CaCO_3 .

Table 6: Comparison of deposit weight and % CaCO_3 recovered at room temperature between saturated and undersaturated conditions.

Solutions	Injection Period	Total CaCO_3 Deposit after CO_2 Injection (g)	Calculated CaCO_3 (g)	% Recovery
Undersaturated	20 min	0.574	1.024	56.0%
Saturated	20 min	1.537	2.041	75.3%

To prove the hypothesis of the effect of excess CO_2 on dissolving the CaCO_3 , further experiments on saturated solutions are conducted to ensure the perfect filtration of solutions before heating up to 60°C . The results are then compared with the undersaturated solutions.

Table 7: The amount of CaCO_3 deposits of the undersaturated and saturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions.

Solutions	Amount of CaCO_3 deposit of solutions before heat-up (g)	Amount of CaCO_3 deposit of solutions after heat-up (g)	% CaCO_3 Produced from $\text{Ca(HCO}_3)_2$ Conversion
Undersaturated	0.2241	0.3495	60.93%
Saturated	1.0943	0.2423	18.13%
Saturated	1.072	0.2666	19.92%

Based on the weight, more calcium carbonate is produced from calcium bicarbonate (60.93%) after the heating process in the undersaturated solutions (Table 7). This proves the hypothesis that the lower % recovery in undersaturated solutions is due to more soluble calcium bicarbonate in the solution because more CO_2 is present (excess CO_2).

3.1.6 Prolong Injection Rate

A longer injection period is tested at saturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions at room temperature to determine the dissolution effect of CaCO_3 by carbonic acid. The saturated solutions were injected for 3 hours at a CO_2 rate of 0.1 lpm, then it was

filtered and dried to determine the deposits. The deposit weight is compared with the baseline condition (injection period: 20 minutes). The pH trend exhibits a similar time of pH decrease after CO_2 injection, which is at minute 8:50 (Figure 7).

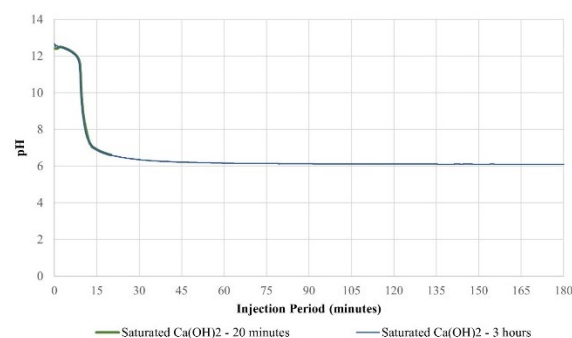


Figure 7: pH trend changes of Ca(OH)_2 solutions with different injection periods.

Based on the deposit weight, the solution with the longer injection period has less CaCO_3 amount (Table 8). It occurs because CaCO_3 is dissolved by carbonic acid, which results in a lower amount of CaCO_3 deposit after 3 hours of injection.

Table 8: Deposit weight and % recovery comparison between saturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions with different injection periods.

Injection Period	Amount of Ca(OH)_2 in Solution (g)	Total CaCO_3 after CO_2 Injection (g)	Calculated CaCO_3 (g)	% Recovery
20 minutes	1.5109	1.5368	2.041	75.3%
3 hours	1.5042	1.1643	2.032	57.3%

3.1.7 Effect of Continuous Addition of Ca(OH)_2

Continuous addition of Ca(OH)_2 into the Ca(OH)_2 solution (1.06 g Ca(OH)_2 in 1 L of distilled water) during CO_2 injection is conducted to determine its effect on the solution pH and its solubility. Figure 8 shows the pH trend during CO_2 injection and the effect on the pH after Ca(OH)_2 is added. After 7 minutes of CO_2 injection, the pH start to decrease and reach pH 6.72 at minutes 14:40. Then, 1 g of Ca(OH)_2 is added after 20 minutes of CO_2 injection, followed by 1 g after 30 minutes of injection, 1 g after 40 minutes of injection, 2 g after 50 minutes of injection, and the lastly, 2 g is added after 55 minutes of injection. The experiment was stopped after 1 hour and 20 minutes. Based on the Figure 8, there is no pH increase after Ca(OH)_2 was added to the solution, possibly because it did not dissolve instantaneously and deposited at the bottom of the cylinder after being added as there was no mixing involved.

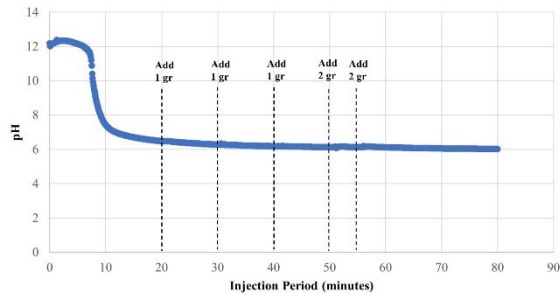


Figure 8: pH trend of continuously adding Ca(OH)_2 powder into the solutions during CO_2 injection.

The deposit weight and % recovery are shown in Table 9. The total deposit recovered after CO_2 injection into the solution is less than the calculated/theoretical CaCO_3 . This might be due to the dissolution of calcite by carbonic acid, which leads to less deposit recovered at the end of the experiment.

Table 9: Calculation of CaCO_3 % recovery after CO_2 injection.

Temperature (°C)	Sample Amount in 1L of H_2O (g)	Total Deposit after CO_2 Injection (g)	Calculated CaCO_3 (g)	% Recovery
22	8.2944	9.3379	11.2043	85.70%

3.2 X-Ray Diffraction – After CO_2 Injection: Ca(OH)_2

XRD analysis is conducted to determine the composition of the deposit after CO_2 injection under various conditions, namely high injection rate, supersaturated, and continuous addition. Based on XRD analysis, deposits retrieved from saturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions that are injected by a high CO_2 flow rate (0.2 lpm) are composed of calcite (CaCO_3) (Figure 9).

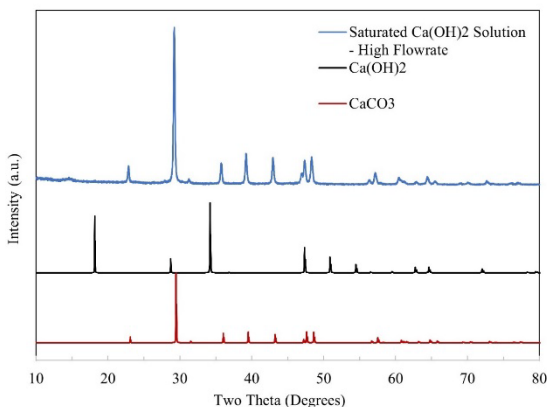


Figure 9: XRD analysis of a sample from saturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions injected with a high CO_2 flow rate.

Two Ca(OH)_2 solutions containing 3 g of Ca(OH)_2 in 1 L of distilled water are injected with 0.1 lpm of CO_2 for 20 minutes and 3 hours. Some samples from both conditions are analysed to determine their composition using XRD. All samples from the 20-minute and 3-hour CO_2 injection consist of CaCO_3 (Figure 10 and Figure 11).

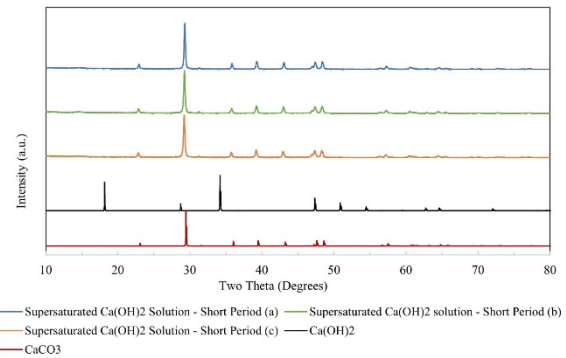


Figure 10: XRD analysis of samples from supersaturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions injected with CO_2 for 20 minutes.

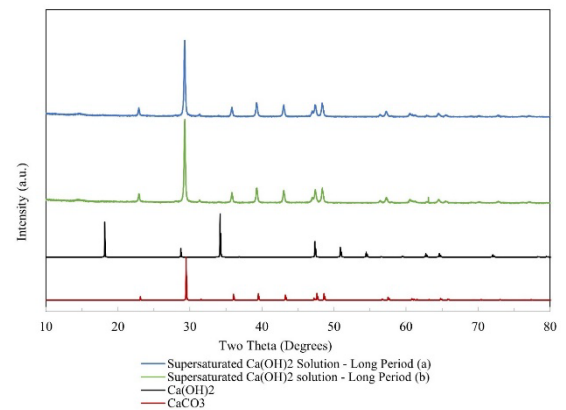


Figure 11: XRD analysis of samples from supersaturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions injected with CO_2 for 3 hours.

For the continuous addition of Ca(OH)_2 , six samples from the experiment are analysed. Based on XRD analysis, three samples (samples a, e, f) contain CaCO_3 (Figure 12). Meanwhile, the other three samples (samples b,c,d) are composed of a mixture of CaCO_3 and Ca(OH)_2 (Figure 13).

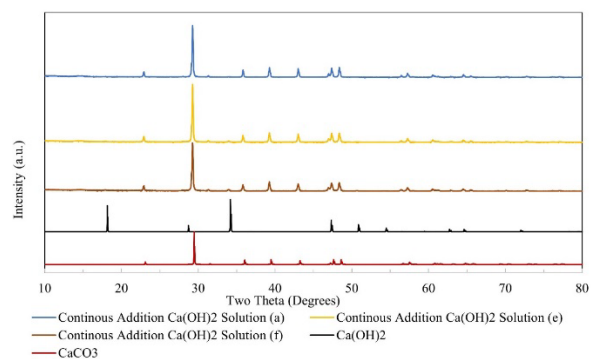


Figure 12: XRD analysis of samples a, e, and f from continuous addition of Ca(OH)_2 solutions injected with CO_2 .

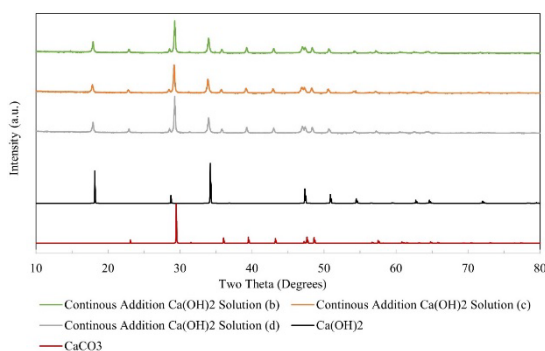


Figure 13: XRD analysis of samples b, c, and d from continuous addition of Ca(OH)_2 solutions injected with CO_2 .

3.3 Injection Testing – Potassium Hydroxide (KOH)

KOH solution is used to determine its effect when being injected with CO_2 . The primary reaction is as follows (Li et al., 2024):



KOH is highly soluble in water, 121 g/100 g water at 25°C (National Center for Biotechnology Information, 2025d). K_2CO_3 is also a highly soluble compound, which is 111 g/100 g water at 25°C (National Center for Biotechnology Information, 2025c). The results of pH changes after CO_2 injection into KOH solutions are shown in Figure 14. The 50 g KOH solution has a higher initial pH (13.64) because it contains more hydroxide ions (OH^-) in the solution than the 10 g KOH solution (pH: 13.18). Since the 50 g KOH solution has more OH^- , it requires more CO_2 to fully react before the pH drops. Thus, the 50 g KOH solution takes a longer time to decrease the pH.

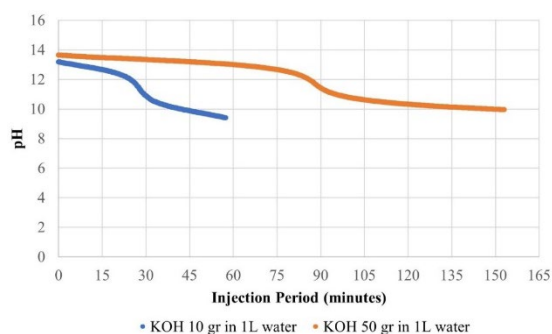
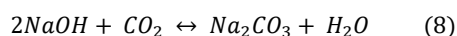


Figure 14: Results of pH changes after CO_2 injection into KOH solutions.

The experiments show that injection of CO_2 into KOH solution does not produce solid precipitated carbonate because the products (K_2CO_3 and KHCO_3) are highly soluble. They remain in solution and do not form stable carbonate minerals. Therefore, CO_2 is not permanently stored, but temporarily dissolved in solution.

3.4 Injection Testing – Sodium Hydroxide (NaOH)

NaOH solution is used to determine its effect when injected with CO_2 . The primary reaction is as follows (Yoo et al., 2013):



NaOH is highly soluble in water, 108 g/100 g water at 25°C (National Center for Biotechnology Information, 2025e). Na_2CO_3 is also a highly soluble compound, 215 g/1L water at 25°C (National Center for Biotechnology Information, 2025b). Due to the high solubility, there is no deposition of Na_2CO_3 after CO_2 injection into an undersaturated NaOH solution. The results of pH changes after CO_2 injection into NaOH solutions are shown in Figure 15. The 50 g NaOH solution has the highest initial pH (13.26) because it contains more hydroxide ions (OH^-) in solution than the 10 g and 1.45 g NaOH solutions (pH: 13.09 and 12.5, respectively). Since the 50 g NaOH solution has more OH^- ions, it requires more CO_2 to react fully before the pH drops fully. Thus, the 50 g NaOH solution takes the longest time to decrease pH.

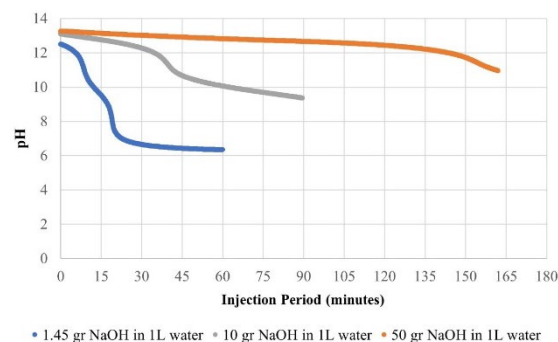


Figure 15: Results of pH changes after CO_2 injection into NaOH solutions.

Although NaOH can be used to capture CO_2 , it is not suitable for permanent CO_2 storage because the products (NaHCO_3 and Na_2CO_3) are highly soluble, reversible, and can release CO_2 at a higher temperature. Therefore, NaOH is considered unsuitable for CO_2 mineralisation in permanent CO_2 storage in geothermal reservoirs.

Based on the experiments conducted on hydroxide solutions, Ca(OH)_2 is the most suitable compound for CO_2 storage via mineralisation, because it forms an insoluble solid mineral (CaCO_3) and is thermodynamically stable, which is essential for long-term sequestration. However, using pure Ca(OH)_2 can be considered high-cost. In China, the price for commercial Ca(OH)_2 product is USD 125/ton, and in Belgium, the price could reach up to USD 531/ton (imarc, 2024). Therefore, other alternatives for CO_2 mineralisation are using waste products that contain significant Ca(OH)_2 minerals.

4. WASTE PRODUCTS

Several industrial waste byproducts are tested to determine their potential and ability to absorb CO_2 gas. Waste products are used as a cost-effective alternative to Ca(OH)_2 powder. They are analysed using X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) to determine the mineral composition and their percentages. Samples with a significant amount of Ca(OH)_2 and CaO content will be used for the injection testing laboratory experiments.

4.1 Waste Products Selection

XRD patterns were collected with a PANalytical Empyrean powder X-ray diffractometer operating at 45 kV and 40 mA. A standard Cu X-ray source was employed with a $\text{K}\alpha 1$ wavelength of 1.5418 Å. Materials were scanned over a two-theta range of 5 - 80° with a 0.013° step size. The phase percentages (%) are determined using the HighScore Plus

Software, using known references (e.g. CaCO_3 , Ca(OH)_2) to match and model the diffraction patterns. This was conducted under the supervision of an X-ray Crystallography Technologist at the School of Chemical Sciences – The University of Auckland.

The results of the waste products XRD analysis from the PANalytical Empyrean powder X-ray diffractometer and HighPlus software show that there are 2 waste products that contain significant Ca(OH)_2 , namely burned lime (Figure 16) and NSSC (Figure 17) from the pulp and paper industry.

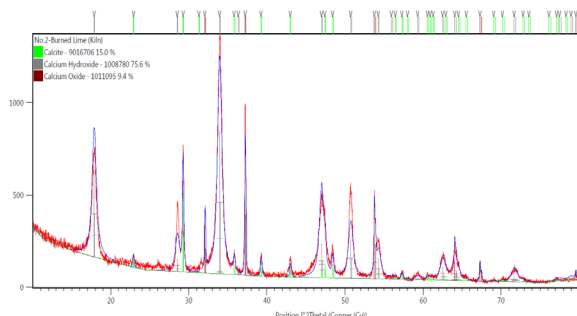


Figure 16: XRD results of the burned lime sample.

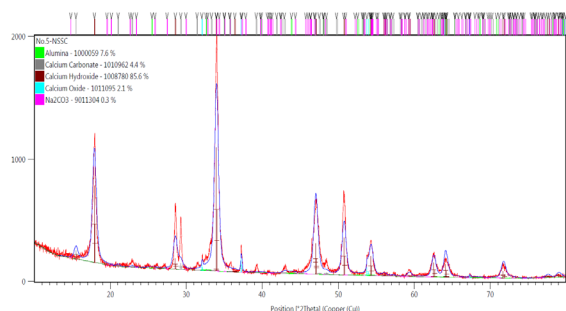


Figure 17: XRD results of the NSSC sample.

4.2 NSSC

Undersaturated and saturated NSSC solutions are tested to determine their ability to react with CO_2 . The pH trend changes of undersaturated NSSC solutions are shown in Figure 18. Based on the graph, the undersaturated NSSC solutions experience an almost similar time before pH decrease compared to the undersaturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions, which is at ~5 minutes after CO_2 injection. Both solutions have similar pH values at the end of the experiment, which is 6.39. This indicates that at undersaturated conditions, the NSSC material with a significant Ca(OH)_2 content can also capture CO_2 , similar to the pure Ca(OH)_2 powder.

The pH changes of saturated NSSC solutions and those of saturated Ca(OH)_2 are shown in Figure 19. The saturated NSSC solutions have a faster pH decrease (~7 minutes), compared to the saturated Ca(OH)_2 solutions. This might occur due to incomplete dissolution of the NSSC powder, as shown in Figure 19, where there is still a white deposit precipitated after it has been left overnight. This results in less Ca(OH)_2 concentration in the solution, which leads to a faster pH decrease. At the end of the experiments, both solutions have the same final pH, which is 6.6.

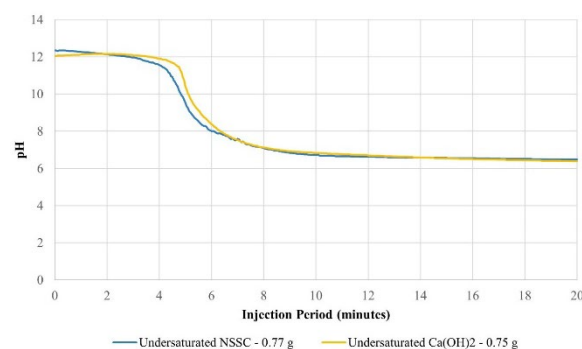


Figure 18: pH trend of undersaturated NSSC and lab-grade Ca(OH)_2 solution.

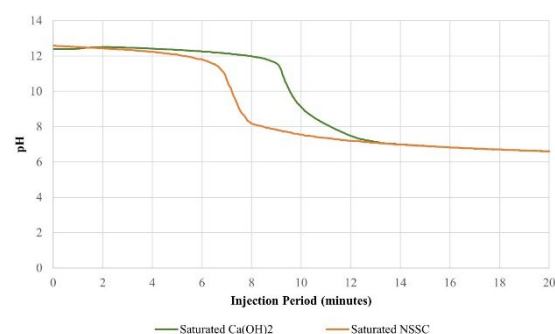


Figure 19: pH trend changes of saturated NSSC and Ca(OH)_2 solutions.

Based on Table 10, the undersaturated NSSC solutions have less % recovery (61.6%) compared to the saturated NSSC solutions (96.3%). The lower recovery might be due to the formation of more soluble calcium bicarbonate in the undersaturated solution due to a higher ratio of CO_2 to hydroxide, which dissolves the CaCO_3 .

Table 10: Results of the % recovery of CaCO_3 from injection testing of NSSC solutions.

Solutions	Condition	Amount of Ca(OH)_2 in Solution (g)	Total CaCO_3 Deposit after CO_2 Injection (g)	Calculated CaCO_3 (g)	% Recovery
NSSC	Under saturated	0.77	0.639	1.038	61.6%
NSSC	saturated	1.4	1.84	1.91	96.3%

After the CO_2 injection into the saturated and undersaturated NSSC solution, based on XRD analysis, all the deposits consist of calcium carbonate (CaCO_3) (Figure 20). Therefore, the NSSC solutions (both saturated and undersaturated) successfully capture CO_2 by converting the Ca(OH)_2 mineral into CaCO_3 .

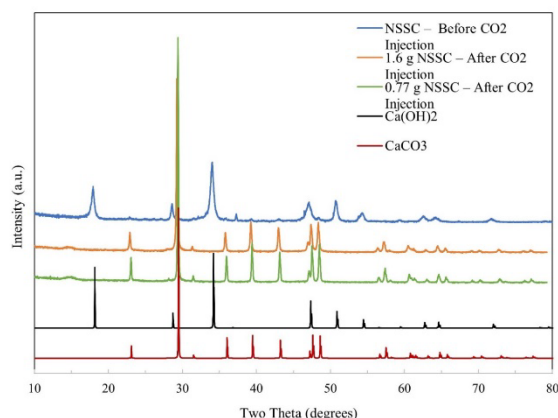


Figure 20: Results of XRD analysis of the deposit before and after CO₂ injection into the NSSC solution.

4.3 Burned Lime

Undersaturated and saturated burned lime solutions are tested to determine their effectiveness in capturing CO₂. The pH trend after CO₂ injection into the undersaturated burned lime solutions is shown in Figure 21. The undersaturated burned lime solutions have a slightly faster pH decrease compared to the undersaturated Ca(OH)₂ solutions. This might be due to less Ca(OH)₂ concentration in the burned lime solutions (0.55 g of Ca(OH)₂ in burned lime solution vs. 0.75 g of Ca(OH)₂ in the Ca(OH)₂ solution). Both solutions have similar pH values at the end of the experiment, which is 6.39. This experiment indicates that at undersaturated conditions, the burned lime solutions containing significant Ca(OH)₂ can still capture CO₂, similar to the lab-grade Ca(OH)₂ powder.

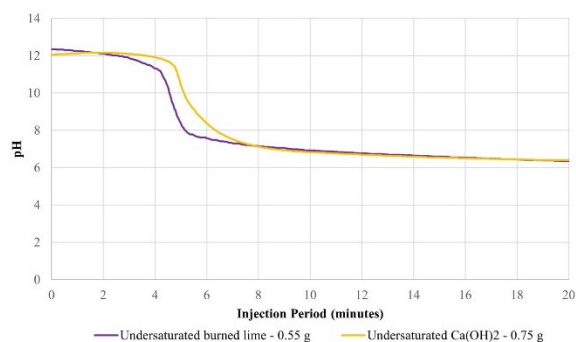


Figure 21: pH trend of undersaturated burned lime and Ca(OH)₂ solution.

Figure 22 shows the pH trend changes of saturated burned lime solutions and Ca(OH)₂ solutions. The saturated burned lime solutions experience a faster pH decrease (~6 minutes) compared to the Ca(OH)₂ solutions (~9 minutes). The faster decrease in pH at saturated burned lime solutions might be due to a lower Ca(OH)₂ concentration in the water caused by the low dissolution rate of burned lime. From the ratio of reaction time (6.4 minutes for burned lime solutions and 9 minutes for Ca(OH)₂ solutions), it is estimated that only 1.067 g of Ca(OH)₂ dissolved in the burned lime solutions instead of 1.58 g. Meanwhile, the saturated Ca(OH)₂ solutions have complete dissolution; thus, they have a higher Ca(OH)₂ concentration. A higher Ca(OH)₂ concentration leads to a longer reaction time before pH decreases.

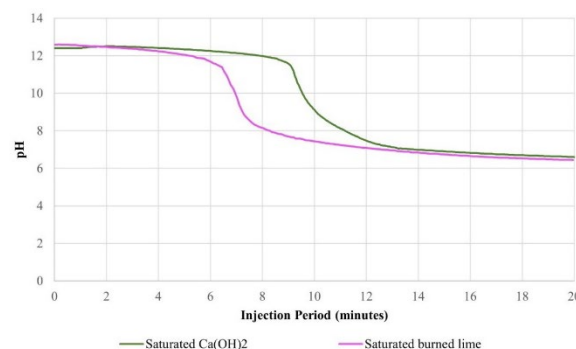


Figure 22: pH trend changes of saturated burned lime and Ca(OH)₂ solutions.

Based on Table 11, the undersaturated NSSC solutions have a lower % recovery (69.9%) compared to the saturated NSSC solutions (90.7%). The lower recovery might be due to more soluble calcium bicarbonate in the undersaturated solution as a result of more CO₂ excess, which dissolves the CaCO₃.

Table 11: Results of the % recovery of CaCO₃ from injection testing of burned lime solutions.

Solutions	Condition	Amount of Ca(OH) ₂ in Solution (g)	Total CaCO ₃ Deposit after CO ₂ Injection (g)	Calculated CaCO ₃ (g)	% Recovery
Burned lime	Under saturated	0.55	0.5239	0.749	69.9%
Burned lime	saturated	1.4	1.94	2.14	90.7%

After the CO₂ injection into the saturated and undersaturated burned lime solution, based on XRD analysis, all the deposits consist of calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) (Figure 23). Therefore, the burned lime solutions successfully capture CO₂ by converting the Ca(OH)₂ mineral into CaCO₃.

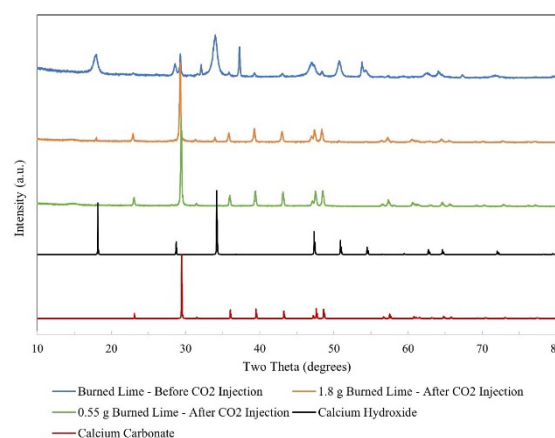


Figure 23: Results of XRD analysis of the deposit before and after CO₂ injection into the Burned Lime solution.

The experiments using waste products (namely NSSC and burned lime), which have a significant Ca(OH)₂ content (85% and 75%, respectively), are successfully promoting CO₂ mineralisation by precipitating it into CaCO₃. These products are proven to be a substitute for pure Ca(OH)₂ minerals at a lower cost.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORKS

To support New Zealand's net-zero emissions target, this research project has proven the effectiveness of using chemical reagents and industrial waste material in optimising CO₂ mineralisation for the geothermal reinjection system. Based on the laboratory experiments that have been conducted, the following conclusions are drawn:

- Among the hydroxide compounds tested (Ca(OH)₂, KOH, NaOH), Ca(OH)₂ is the most effective for CO₂ mineralisation, because it forms a stable and solid CaCO₃ mineral, which is suitable for long-term storage.
- KOH and NaOH produce highly soluble carbonate products, making them unsuitable for permanent CO₂ sequestration.
- Higher temperatures (60 °C) and higher CO₂ injection rates (0.2 L/min) enhance CaCO₃ recovery due to faster reaction kinetics, which makes it the most effective conditions in CO₂ mineralisation using Ca(OH)₂ chemical reagent.
- Supersaturated Ca(OH)₂ solutions improve mineralisation efficiency (up to 91% recovery) by promoting complete precipitation and minimising re-dissolution by carbonic acid.
- Undersaturated conditions result in lower recovery, possibly due to the formation of more soluble calcium bicarbonate as a result of excess CO₂ presence, which dissolves the CaCO₃.
- With the high cost of pure Ca(OH)₂, industrial waste products (NSSC and burned lime) containing 75–85% Ca(OH)₂ were tested and achieved high CaCO₃ % recovery rates (90–96%) under saturated conditions.

For future works, it is recommended to assess the possibilities of other waste products, and hydroxide compounds for cost-effective and permanent CO₂ storage. These findings support the development of low-cost, efficient CO₂ mineralisation strategies for geothermal reinjection systems and contribute to New Zealand's 2050 net-zero emissions goals.

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