

1 **Physical and rheological characterization of carbonated bitumen for paving applications**

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29 **KEYWORDS:** Bitumen; Carbon dioxide; CO₂; sorption, diffusivity; rheology

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 In the paving industry, current attempts aimed at reducing greenhouse gas emissions have focused
3 on the development of technologies that decrease bitumen viscosity so that asphalt mixtures can be
4 produced at temperatures that are lower than conventional mixing temperature for hot-mix asphalt.
5 This study focuses on the feasibility of producing new lower energy asphalt mixtures using CO₂-
6 modified bitumen. Gravimetric sorption techniques were used to establish the kinetics of CO₂
7 diffusion in bitumen at multiple pressures. The rheological properties of the carbonated bitumen
8 were characterized at multiple temperatures and loading frequencies using a dynamic shear
9 rheometer.

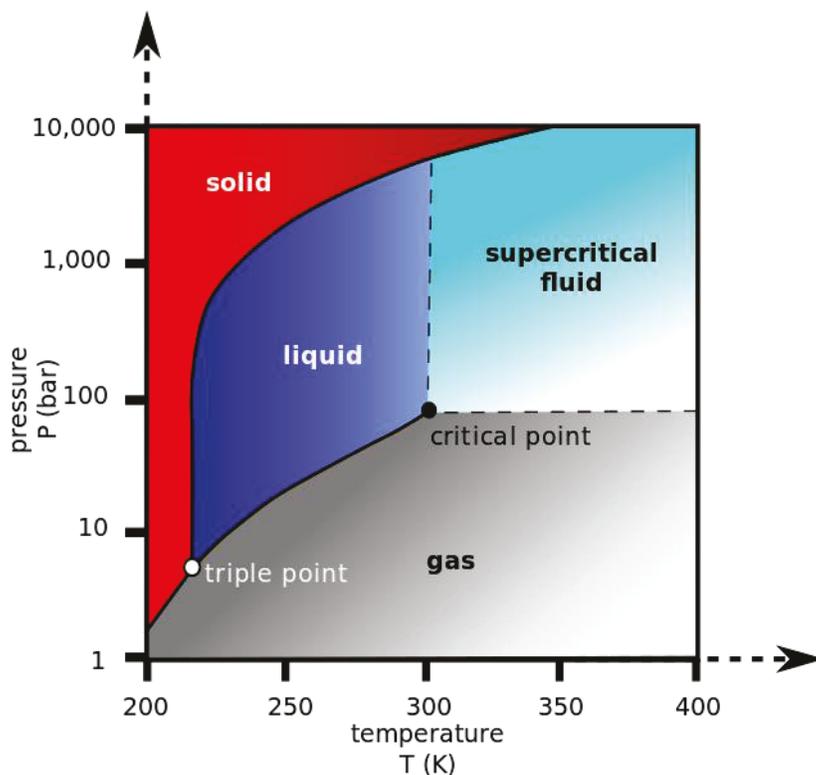
10 The results showed that CO₂, at concentrations of up to about 0.3% w/w, caused significant (up to
11 3-folds) reduction in bitumen viscosity. A 10-fold increase in equilibrium CO₂ uptake was
12 observed when binders were conditioned in CO₂ at 300 psi versus at 40 psi. The carbonated
13 bitumen developed in this study has potential application in the production of lower energy asphalt
14 mixtures. The work presents a novel application of CO₂ at subcritical conditions, to reducing
15 bitumen viscosity so that asphalt can be produced at lower temperature for paving applications.
16 The work represents the first time such as attempt has been in the asphalt paving industry.

17 **1. Introduction**

18 Bituminous mixtures used for pavement construction such as hot-mix asphalt (HMA), warm-mix
19 asphalt (WMA), and cold-mix asphalt (CMA) are all produced by coating mineral aggregates with
20 fluidized low-viscosity bitumen (usually in very thin films) in a mixing plant, and then compacting
21 the resulting mixture in the field to achieve the final product. At ordinary temperatures, paving
22 grade bitumen is a highly viscous material with viscosity at 60°C on the order of 100-1000 Pa.s,
23 depending on type, compared with the recommended asphalt mixing and compaction viscosities of
24 0.17±0.02 Pa.s and 0.28±0.03 Pa.s, respectively. Thus in practice, substantial effort in terms of
25 energy (HMA), additives and/or expensive processes (WMA), and solvents and/or expensive
26 processes (CMA) are required to reduce bitumen viscosity in order to achieve the recommended
27 mixing and compaction viscosities for asphalt mixture production. Of the existing methods, the
28 most commonly used (and also the least sustainable) is the reduction of bitumen viscosity using
29 fossil fuel-powered plants (that generate substantial amount of greenhouse gases) to heat (130°C -
30 160°C for HMA) the bitumen and thereby decrease its viscosity. The current method of asphalt
31 mixture production that utilizes high temperature mixing and compaction temperatures are
32 considered not sustainable in the long-term because of its dependence on fossil fuels for generating
33 the required heating energy and its release of substantial greenhouse gasses. The increasing levels
34 of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere have been linked with global warming that can lead to
35 climate change (Meehl et al., 2007).

36 Recent attempts at reducing greenhouse gas emissions have been in the development of viscosity-
37 modifying technologies such as foaming with water (eg Advera), waxes (eg Sasobit), foaming and
38 emulsification (low-energy asphalt) that decrease viscosity of bitumen so that asphalt mixtures can
39 be produced at temperatures that are lower than conventional mixing temperature (~150°C) HMA
40 [Koenders et al., 2000; Romier et al. 2006; Prowell and Hurley, 2007; Jones et al., 2010; Kvasnak
41 et al. 2010; Visscher et al., 2010; Zelelew et al., 2013]. A reduction in mixing temperature of about
42 10-20°C can be achieved using this so-called warm-mix asphalt (WMA) technology. However, the
43 savings obtained by reducing mixing temperatures used in WMA production are offset by the
44 higher production cost (WMA may cost up to 40% more than HMA) because of
45 additives/processes required to produce WMA and the comparatively large amount of greenhouse
46 gasses that are still produced. Another attempt at reducing the greenhouse footprint of asphalt
47 pavements has been the gradual phasing out of volatile organic solvents for reducing bitumen

1 viscosity. Because of obvious environmental concerns, conventional solvents (such as
 2 Naphthalene, gasoline, kerosene, white spirit) are rarely used nowadays to reduce bitumen
 3 viscosity for paving applications even though there are currently limited or no apparent
 4 environmentally acceptable replacements. Thus, there is a major need for improvement in asphalt
 5 mixture production in terms of 1) reducing bitumen viscosity for lower temperature applications, 2)
 6 more environmentally sustainable solvents, and 3) reducing CO₂ emission footprint of the paving
 7 industry. This study targets how current asphalt production technologies could be made even more
 8 sustainable by exploiting the unique properties of CO₂ at or near its critical conditions (Figure 1) to
 9 act as an effective viscosity-reducing solvent in paving grade bitumen. Carbon dioxide at or above
 10 its critical temperature of 31.1°C (304.25°K) and pressure of 7.39 MPa (73.9 bar) can exist as a
 11 dense gas or liquid with dual gas (high diffusivity) and liquid (good solvent) properties in most
 12 polymeric materials.



13
 14 **Figure 1.** CO₂ pressure-temperature phase diagrams (after Jacobs, 2005).
 15

16 The critical properties of CO₂ are important because under critical conditions CO₂ has the density
 17 of a liquid but the diffusional properties of a gas which may explain the high solubility of CO₂ in
 18 bitumen and other polymers. For instance, diffusion of CO₂ in bitumen can be extremely high
 19 ($\sim 280 \times 10^{-12} \text{m}^2/\text{s}$ [Tharanivasan et al., 2006; Upretit and Mehrotra, 2002; Zhang et al., 2000;
 20 Mehrotra and Svrcek, 1988; Saboorian-Jooybari et al. 2014] compared to moisture in bituminous
 21 materials ($\sim 1 \times 10^{-12} \text{m}^2/\text{s}$ [Apeageyi et al. 2014]). The ability of pressurized CO₂ to dissolve
 22 profusely in bitumen could be accompanied by significant reduction in viscosity. These unique
 23 properties of bitumen have been exploited in the recovery of bitumen from oil fields [Seright,
 24 2016; Saboorian-Jooybari et al. (2015); Saboorian-Jooybari et al. (2016); Seright 2017]. The ability
 25 of pressurized CO₂ to dissolve profusely in bitumen could be accompanied by significant reduction
 26 in viscosity. It was anticipated that understanding how CO₂ (near its critical temperature of 31°C)

1 interacts with bitumen can lead to new approaches for producing asphalt mixtures at reduced
2 temperatures using more eco-friendly and sustainable techniques.

3 The overall aim of this research was to investigate the feasibility of reducing bitumen viscosity
4 by CO₂ modification of paving grade bitumen as a technique for producing lower energy, more
5 environmentally sustainable asphalt mixture. Two grades of bitumen with different viscosities, a
6 harder 40/60pen and a softer pen 160/220 that are commonly used in the UK were used for the
7 experimental work. Four specific objectives to achieve the aim of the project included: a)
8 evaluating the kinetics of CO₂ diffusion in bitumen using gravimetric sorption techniques at
9 multiple temperatures and pressures; b) evaluating the desorption kinetics of CO₂-modified
10 bitumen under ambient conditions to establish its storage stability, c) undertaking laboratory
11 measurement of the viscosity-temperature relationships of the modified bitumen at multiple
12 loading frequencies using a dynamic shear rheometer in order to characterize the viscoelastic
13 response of CO₂-modified bitumen. The results were used to determine the feasibility of using CO₂
14 as a solvent for producing eco-friendly sustainable bitumen for paving application by relating the
15 diffusivity of CO₂ in bitumen to rheological changes in bitumen modified by CO₂. A novel feature
16 of the current study, compared to previous studies, is the use of CO₂ at subcritical conditions (20-
17 25°C and pressures 0.4 – 2MPa). Another innovation is the application of CO₂-modified bitumen
18 for paving applications.

19 **2. Background**

20 ***2.1 Interactions of CO₂ and bitumen mixtures***

21 Bitumen is a complex mixture of polymers that can interact with CO₂ through physical diffusion.
22 This ability of CO₂ is due to the unique property of CO₂ to exist as a supercritical fluid at
23 temperatures close to ambient (Figure 1). The relatively high diffusivity of CO₂ results in
24 substantial solubility in bitumen with reported values ranging from 0.5 to 11% depending on
25 prevailing temperature and pressure as well as physical interaction between bitumen and CO₂. It
26 has also been established that near critical or super-critical conditions, CO₂ can cause significant
27 changes in bitumen. One of the most important effects of CO₂ dissolution in bitumen is viscosity
28 reduction or plasticization characterized by changes in mechanical and physical properties such as
29 the significant reduction in glass transition temperature. The plasticizing effect of CO₂, especially
30 supercritical CO₂, has been exploited in the enhanced crude oil recovery, where CO₂ under in-situ
31 crude oil pressures (2-20 MPa) are often used as solvents in bitumen recovery and also in CO₂
32 sequestration in depleted oil reservoirs. Other important physical property changes caused by CO₂
33 interaction with bitumen include diffusivity modification, viscosity reduction, glass transition
34 suppression, and melting pointers. These properties are important in many industrial applications
35 where polymer melts need to be processed into useful products. In these applications, CO₂ has
36 several advantages over existing solvents and other extraction techniques. For example, CO₂ is
37 economical, environmentally friendly, and sustainable. For these and other novel applications, as
38 presented in this paper, certain fundamental properties of CO₂-bitumen mixtures need to be
39 quantified. These properties include diffusivity (diffusion coefficient) and temperature and time
40 dependent rheological properties.

41 ***2.2 Diffusion of CO₂ in Bitumen***

42 Diffusion can be defined as the movement of molecules from a region of high concentration to a
43 region of low concentration. Previous studies have shown that the diffusional ability of

(supercritical) CO₂ in bitumen, as in many other polymers, could be substantial with reported values of up to 10 wt%. The mechanism by which CO₂ diffuses in bitumen has been extensively investigated especially in the chemical and petroleum industries where both theoretical and experimental approaches have been used (Sheikha et al. 2005; Tharanivasan et al. 2006; Ratnakar and Dindoruk, 2015; Civan and Rasmussen, 2006). Of these, the pressure-decay method in which the pressure of the CO₂ gas is monitored over time, while the molecules of the gas diffuse into the bitumen until equilibrium pressure is reached is the most commonly used, especially in the enhanced crude oil recovery area. As shown in Table 1, different equilibrium pressures have been used by different authors resulting if different CO₂ diffusivities being reported. According to Zhang et al. 2000, diffusivity is highly sensitive to the estimated value of the equilibrium pressure. Therefore, a major drawback of the pressure-decay method is the difficulty in precisely determining the equilibrium pressure and its effects on the estimated diffusivity as illustrated by Behzadfar and Hatzikiriakos 2014. Therefore, the pressure decay approach was not adopted in the current. Also, the majority of previous studies have focused on the diffusion of supercritical CO₂ to better simulate typical conditions used during crude oil extraction. For paving applications, which is the focus of this paper, CO₂ near or below supercritical conditions (low pressures and moderate temperatures) are to be preferred for obvious reasons.

Table 1. Selected list of CO₂ diffusivity studies using the pressure-decay method

Material	T (°C)	P ₀ (MPa)	P _{eq} (MPa)	D (x10 ⁻⁹ m ² /s)	Reference
Heavy oil	21	3.4	2.9	4.76	Zhang et al., 2000
¹ Bitumen	25-90	4.0	3.1-3.5	0.16-0.47	Upreti & Mehrotra, 2002
¹ Bitumen	50-90	8.0	N/A	0.40-0.93	Upreti & Mehrotra, 2002
Bitumen	75, 90	4.0	3.1-3.2	0.51-0.79	Sheikha et al., 2005

NOTE: ¹ Athabasca bitumen; P₀ = initial pressure, P_{eq} = equilibrium pressure.

2.3 Modeling of CO₂ Diffusion in Bitumen

For experimental expediency and to circumvent some of the aforementioned problems, a gravimetric sorption technique in which pressured CO₂ is allowed to diffuse freely into a planar sample of bitumen held in an impervious metal container such that diffusion occurs through a process as shown in Figure 2 was used. By maintaining the pressure of the CO₂ in the pressure vessel at a constant level, the gravimetric approach we used ensured that the concentration at the bitumen-CO₂ interface was independent of time. As shown in Figure 2, the nature of experimental set-up sample container (aluminum can with only the top open to the pressurized CO₂), the assumption of 1-D diffusion appears valid. A brief discussion of the diffusion models for this CO₂-bitumen is described below.

For the situation illustrated in Figure 2 (assuming one-dimensional diffusion in a thin medium (bitumen) bounded on two parallel planes (at x=0 and x=l) such that the diffusing CO₂ gas enters through the plane where x=0, that the surface at x=l is impermeable, and that a negligible amount of diffusion occurs through edges between the aluminum container and the bitumen) it has been shown by Crank (1975) that Eq. 1, which is a solution to Fick's diffusion model is applicable for 0 < x < l, where l is specimen thickness.

For this study only the first 19 terms in the series expansion in Eq. 1 were used for estimating the diffusion coefficient as suggested by Tutuncu and Labuza (1996). Using the CO₂ uptake data and Eq. 1, CO₂ diffusion coefficient values for the two bitumen samples were estimated.

$$\frac{M_t}{M_\infty} = 1 - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{8}{(2n+1)^2 \pi^2} e^{-\frac{D(2n+1)^2 \pi^2 t}{4l^2}} \quad (1)$$

where M_t = CO₂ uptake at time t ; M_∞ = equilibrium moisture uptake; l = specimen thickness; and n = an integer and n takes the values 0, 1, 2, ... 19.

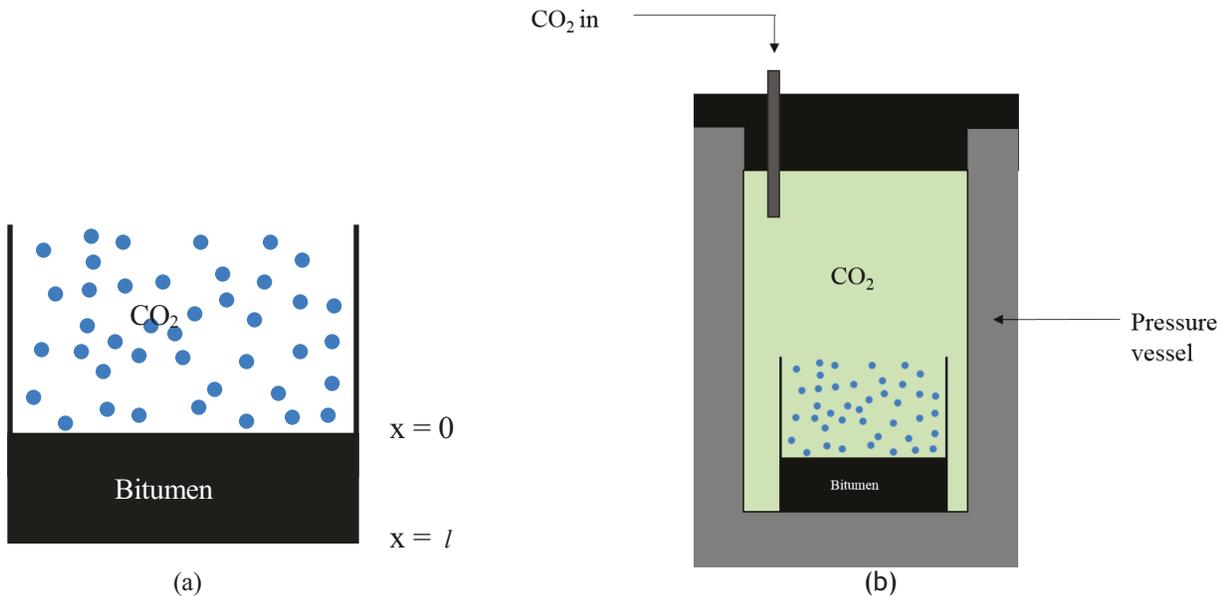


Figure 2. Schematic of bitumen specimen in an impermeable aluminum can that was used for CO₂ diffusion experiments. The tests were conducted in a pressured vessel (b) maintained at a constant pressure so that the concentration of CO₂ at the bitumen-CO₂ interface remained constant throughout the test and thus ensuring a one-dimensional diffusion.

2.4 CO₂ Uptake Profiles

A CO₂ uptake profile describes the relationship between the amount of CO₂ (M_t) a material exchanges (absorbs or desorbs), at a given gas pressure and temperature, with time. If w_0 is the initial (dry) mass of a given material and w_t is the mass after time t , then the CO₂ uptake can be computed as the ratio of the amount of CO₂ absorbed at a given time to the initial dry mass of the sample at the of beginning the test (Eq. 2). For a material at a given temperature and gas pressure, CO₂ uptake by bitumen increases until it reaches a thermodynamic equilibrium at which point no further changes in CO₂ uptake occurs. The uptake at thermodynamic equilibrium (M_∞) is called equilibrium CO₂ uptake.

The data (mass uptake and conditioning time) were fitted to a two-parameter non-exponential empirical model proposed by Peleg (1988) for moisture diffusion in foods. The Peleg model shown in Eq. 3 enables prediction of moisture uptake after long exposure from experimental data obtained in relatively short time. The model has been found to model moisture diffusion of bituminous mixtures very well (Apegyei et al. 2013). The model parameter C_1 represents the rate of CO₂ uptake while C_2 is a measure of the equilibrium CO₂ content (reciprocal of the maximum CO₂ uptake).

$$1 \quad \text{Mass uptake (\%)} = M_t = \frac{w_t - w_0}{w_0} \quad (2)$$

$$3 \quad M_t = \frac{t}{C_1 + t * C_2} \quad (3)$$

4 **3. Materials and Methods**

5 **3.1 Bitumen**

6 Two different bituminous binders, one 50 Pen (40/60 penetration paving grade) and one 190 Pen
 7 (160/220 penetration paving grade) were used as base binders to produce the CO₂-modified binders
 8 (carbonated bitumen). The two binders were different in terms of their consistencies as well as
 9 their crude source and therefore, were expected to display different physical and chemical
 10 properties in both the modified and unmodified state. The physical properties of the binders were
 11 characterized using standard bitumen empirical tests by their penetration, ring and ball softening
 12 point, and mass loss, as presented in Table 2. One important difference between the two binders
 13 was the amount of volatile components they contain. The mass loss in the softer 190 Pen bitumen
 14 was more almost three times that of 50 Pen bitumen which suggests the former has significantly
 15 higher amounts of volatile organic content than the later. The mass loss for 160/220 paving grade
 16 binders is limited to 0.5% since excessive amounts of volatile components could lead to excessive
 17 hardening during bitumen storage, application or in service (Whiteoak, 1991).

18 **Table 2.** *Physical properties of for base binders.*

Bitumen	Penetration (dmm)	Softening point (°C)	Mass loss (wt%)
190 Pen	187	38	0.44
50 Pen	53	50	0.16

19 *NOTES: Physical properties determined according to BS 3690 Part 1: Specification for penetration grade bitumen; dmm =*
 20 *decimillimetre*

21 **3.2 Carbon dioxide (CO₂)**

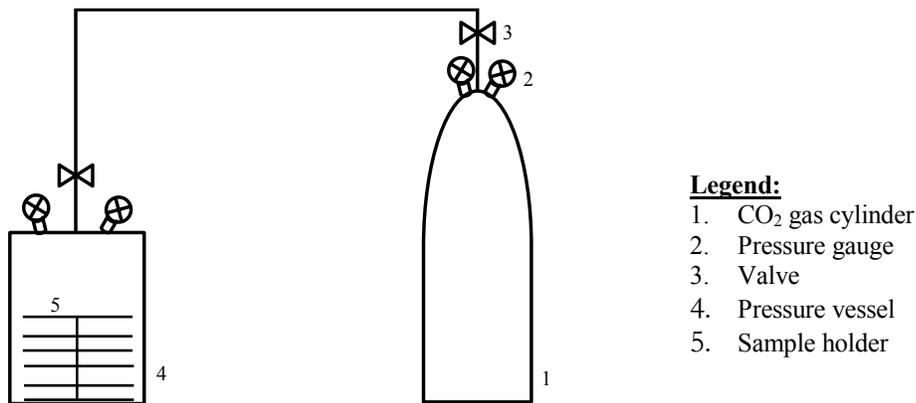
22 The 99.99% high purity carbon dioxide used for modifying the bitumens was supplied by BOC
 23 Industrial Gasses in 150 cm tall by 23cm diameter stainless steel containers. The critical properties
 24 of the CO₂ were respectively, 31.1°C and 7.38 MPa for critical temperature and critical pressure.
 25 Density of CO₂ was assumed to be 0.001977 g/cc. Figure 1 depicts additional physical properties
 26 CO₂ in the form a temperature-pressure phase diagram commonly reported in the literature.

27 **3.3 Preparation of carbonated bitumen**

28 The experimental test set-up for producing the carbonated bitumen is presented in Figure 3
 29 which shows compressed CO₂ at room temperature designed to diffuse into bitumen at room
 30 temperature. The set-up used was a modified version of the Saturation Ageing Tensile Stiffness
 31 (SATS) developed at the University of Nottingham (Collop et al. 2004) with the air and steam

1 supplies replaced with bone-dry CO₂ (Figure 4). It consists of a compressed CO₂ gas cylinder
 2 connected, via high capacity pressure transducers and associated pressure valves, to a Paar high
 3 capacity pressure vessel capable of handling pressure ranging from 0-20 bar at temperatures
 4 ranging from 20-80°C. The pressure vessel is equipped with sample holders capable of holding six
 5 separate specimens on vertical stainless steel racks as depicted in Figure 3. Bitumen samples each
 6 weighing approximately 10 g were placed in steel cans to form a nominal thickness of about 5 mm.
 7 CO₂ at two different pressures, 40 psi and 300 psi, and at temperatures (22-25°C) close to the
 8 critical temperature of CO₂ was employed for the carbonation process. One reason for selecting the
 9 conditioning temperature close to the critical temperature was that CO₂ behaves as a dense liquid
 10 but with diffusivity of a gas. Two penetration grade bitumens (50 Pen and 190 Pen) were used to
 11 produce the CO₂-modified binders (carbonated bitumen). The two bitumens were different in terms
 12 of their consistencies as well as their crude source and therefore, were expected to display diverse
 13 physical and chemical properties in both the modified and unmodified state.

14



Legend:

1. CO₂ gas cylinder
2. Pressure gauge
3. Valve
4. Pressure vessel
5. Sample holder

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Figure 3. Schematic of the CO₂ system used for modifying bitumen.



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Figure 4. Modified SATS test set-up consisting of pressure vessel, pressure and temperature controllers, and bitumen sample holder for producing CO₂-modified bitumen.

3.4 Kinetics of CO₂ Diffusion in Bitumen

23 The kinetics of CO₂ diffusion in bitumen was measured using gravimetric analysis at multiple
 24 temperatures. Similar techniques have been used successfully to study the diffusion moisture in
 25 bituminous mixtures (Apeageyi et al. 2013). The amount of CO₂ absorption by bitumen as a

1 function of time and pressure under isothermal conditions were determined and the results used to
2 develop kinetic models for diffusion of CO₂ in bitumen.

3 ***3.5 Storage Stability of CO₂-Bitumen Mixture***

4 For paving applications, it was deemed important to establish the time frame over which the
5 viscosity-reducing effects of CO₂ lasts under anticipated conditions for low-energy highly
6 sustainable asphalt mixture production (referred to as storage stability in this paper). It was
7 assumed that storage stability of the CO₂-modified binder frame could be related to the CO₂
8 content of the modified binder that remains in solution after a given time at ambient conditions.
9 The storage stability could be considered as analogous to the half-life (measured in tens of
10 seconds) that is commonly used to determine the stability of foamed bitumen for asphalt mixtures.
11 Therefore, in order to establish this time frame, samples of CO₂-modified bitumen were stored
12 under ambient temperature and pressure and the mass loss with time monitored with a sensitive
13 micro-balance. The results were used to generate “desorption” kinetics of the CO₂-modified
14 bitumen. Another reason for determining the desorption profile was to determine if the interactions
15 between CO₂ and bitumen were purely physical, chemical or some combination of both.

16 ***3.6 Rheological Characterization of CO₂-Bitumen Mixture***

17 Experiments to establish the rheological properties of the CO₂-modified binders were undertaken
18 by regularly taking samples used for the kinetics studies previously described and performing
19 dynamic mechanical analysis (DMA) on them using a dynamic shear rheometer (DSR). A DMA is
20 an extensively used technique to characterize a material’s properties as a function of temperature,
21 time, frequency, stress, atmosphere or a combination of these parameters. In strain-controlled
22 DMA, a sinusoidal strain is applied to a specimen and the resulting stress is monitored as a
23 function of frequency. The DSR tests were conducted in the strain-controlled mode. With the DSR
24 it was possible to measure the linear viscoelastic properties of bituminous binders such as stiffness
25 and viscosity at different temperatures, stress and strain levels, and test frequencies. The following
26 DSR testing conditions were used:

- 27 a) mode of loading: controlled strain
- 28 b) testing temperatures: 20°C, 5°C, and 0°C
- 29 c) testing frequencies: 0.1-10 Hz
- 30 d) plate geometry: 8 mm diameter parallel plate with 3 mm gap
- 31 e) strain amplitude: 0.1%

32 One of the key analytical techniques used in evaluating DMA data involves the construction of
33 master curves and the associated temperature shift-factors. Master curves are constructed using the
34 time-temperature superposition principle by shifting the modulus data at various temperatures with
35 respect to frequency until the curves merged into a single function of modulus versus reduced
36 frequency. The amount of shifting required at each temperature to form the master curve is called
37 the shift factor, $a(T)$. A plot of $\log a(T)$ versus temperature can be considered as the viscosity
38 changes with respect to the reference temperature. Thus the master curve and shift-factor versus
39 temperature curve provide complete characterization of the viscoelastic behavior of bituminous
40 binders. In general, a master curve can be modeled as a sigmoidal function (Eq. 4) and the model
41 parameters estimated using numerical optimization techniques: where: f_r is the reduced frequency
42 at the reference temperature (equal to $a(T)$ times test frequency); and δ , α , β , and γ are model
43 parameters.

1
$$\log G^* = \delta + \frac{\alpha}{1 + e^{\beta + \gamma \log f_r}} \quad (4)$$

2

3 The viscosity-reducing effect of CO₂ in bitumen was evaluated by means of a softening index, SI,
4 defined as:

5

6
$$SI = \frac{RP_{\text{modified}}}{RP_{\text{unmodified}}} \quad (5)$$

7 where: RP_{unmodified} represents some rheological property measured on the unmodified binder (such
8 as modulus, viscosity, etc); RP_{modified} represents the same rheological property as measured on the
9 unmodified binder but performed after modification. Thus SI can take values in the range 0 to 1.
10 For example, a modified binder with a smaller SI would indicate a larger effect of CO₂ than a
11 binder with a higher SI.

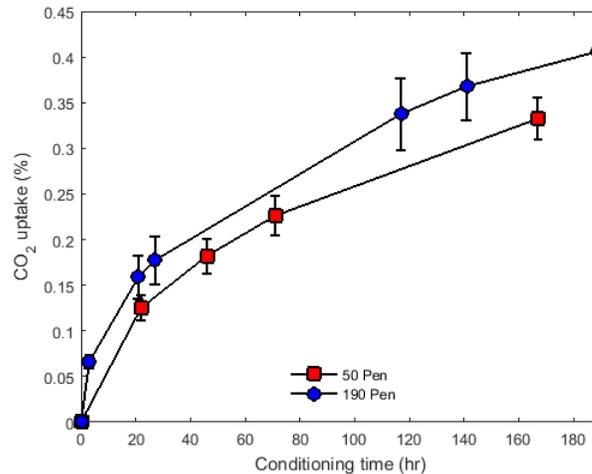
12 **4. Results and Discussion**

13 ***4.1 Kinetics of CO₂ diffusion in bitumen***

14 Kinetics of CO₂ diffusion in bitumen at 20°C were determined using gravimetric sorption
15 techniques by placing 5 mm thin films of bitumen in a pressure vessel kept at 40 psi (0.28 MPa)
16 for periods of up to 170 hours and monitoring the weight gain with conditioning time using an
17 ultra-sensitive weighing balance (0.1µg). The amount of CO₂ absorbed by each binder was
18 computed using Eq. 2. Figure 5 shows the kinetics of CO₂ diffusion for the two bitumen samples
19 plotted as a function CO₂ conditioning time. The data represent the average CO₂ uptake for at least
20 three different bitumen samples measuring about 50 mm diameter by 5 mm thick and weighing
21 about 10 g. The error bars shown in Figure 5 represent one standard deviation of the mean CO₂
22 uptake. The equilibrium uptake values for the two binders were 0.41±0.0306wt % and
23 0.3324±0.0277 wt % for 160 pen and 50 pen, respectively. This suggests the amount of CO₂
24 absorbed by the two binders were of the same order of magnitude and that the differences in
25 equilibrium CO₂ uptake by the two types of bitumen were not statistically significant. However,
26 the data also shows that high-viscosity 50 Pen bitumen absorbed relatively lower amounts of CO₂.
27 The equilibrium CO₂ uptake obtained in this study is comparatively lower than reported values of
28 CO₂ diffusion in bitumen that have been reported by previous researchers. This could be attributed
29 to the fact that majority of the reported CO₂ diffusion studies were conducted at or near
30 supercritical conditions as exemplified by the data presented in Table 1.

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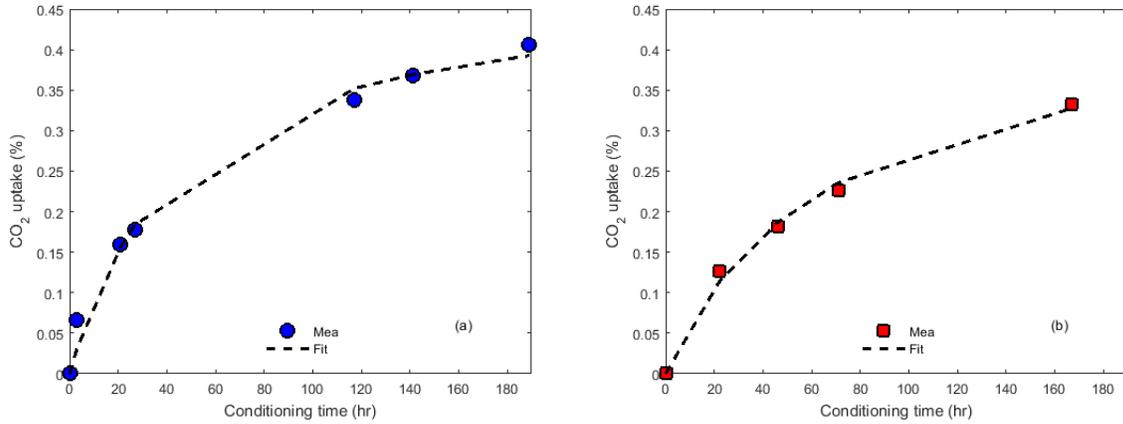
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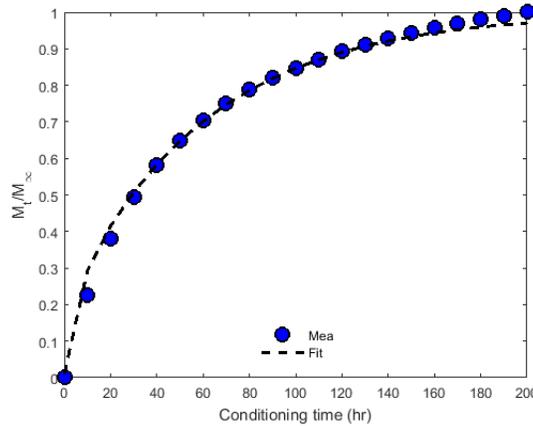
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2 **Figure 5.** *CO₂ diffusion kinetics in bitumen at 20°C and 40 psi. Error bars represent one standard deviation of the*
3 *mean. CO₂ uptake was observed to be higher in the softer 160-220 pen bitumen than in the harder 40-60 pen bitumen.*

4 **4.2 Diffusivity and Equilibrium Uptake of CO₂ in bitumen**

5 The changes in CO₂ concentration in bitumen over time were predicted using Eq. 3 (Pelleg model).
6 The purpose of the model was used to quantify the relationship between CO₂ uptake over time in
7 order to smooth the measured data for analysis, provide a theoretical estimate of equilibrium CO₂
8 uptake and ensure accurate determination of the diffusion coefficient or the diffusivity of CO₂ in
9 bitumen. A least square regression analysis was used to estimate the model parameters C₁ and C₂
10 in Eq. 3. The results of the regression analysis showing a good fit of the CO₂ uptake data by Pelleg
11 model are shown in Figure 6. The model parameters were utilized in three ways in order to
12 characterize the diffusion of CO₂ in bitumen. First, the model parameters C₁ and C₂ were used to
13 generate cumulative CO₂ uptake as a function of time (Figure 7) from which Fick's second law
14 (Eq. 1) was applied to estimate the diffusion coefficient of CO₂ in bitumen at 20°C and 40 psi as
15 $40.2 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ for the 190 Pen bitumen and $36.3 \times 10^{-12} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ for the 50 pen bitumen. The diffusion
16 coefficient values obtained for the binders used in this study appear reasonable when compared to
17 D obtained for supercritical bitumen (Table 1). As previously stated, the model parameter C₁
18 represents the rate of CO₂ uptake while C₂ is a measure of the equilibrium moisture content
19 (reciprocal of the maximum water uptake). The C₁ data suggest that the rate of CO₂ uptake is
20 relatively higher in 50 Pen (140.45) compared with 190 Pen bitumen (90.6612). The data also
21 suggest, based on the reciprocal of C₂, that the theoretical equilibrium CO₂ uptake under the
22 experimental conditions of 20°C and pressure of 40 psi in 160 Pen 160 (0.48%) was comparable to
23 that in 50 Pen bitumen (0.45%). These results appear reasonable when compared with CO₂
24 diffusivity in bitumen obtained by other researchers using supercritical CO₂ and higher
25 temperatures.



1
 2 **Figure 6.** Pelleg model fit to CO₂ uptake by bitumen at 25°C and 40 psi. a) 190 Pen, model parameters were:
 3 $C_1=90.6612$ and $C_2 = 2.0666$, b) 50 Pen, model parameters were: $C_1=146.4474$ and $C_2 = 2.1763$.
 4

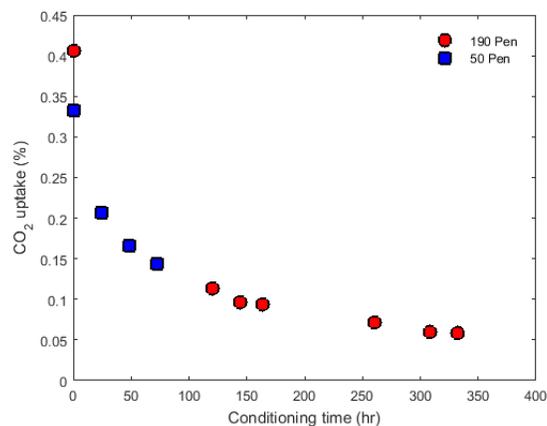


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 6
 7 **Figure 7.** Fick's law fit to CO₂ uptake showing a good fit. Data for 190 pen at 25°C and 40 psi.

8 **4.3 Storage Stability of CO₂-Bitumen Mixtures**

9 The stability of the CO₂-bitumen mixtures (carbonated bitumen) was evaluated by comparing the
 10 kinetics of pressurized CO₂ diffusion in bitumen with CO₂ desorption from bitumen under ambient
 11 conditions (20°C and 1 atmosphere). This information was deemed important to establish because
 12 there has been very little published data on the kinetics of CO₂ absorption and desorption
 13 (degassing) from bitumen, especially paving grade bitumen. It would be impossible to fully exploit
 14 the full viscosity reducing effect of CO₂ in bitumen without establishing the timeframe over which
 15 the carbonated bitumen remains softer than the unmodified base binder. Another reason was that in
 16 order to understand the release of CO₂ from bitumen, it is essential that CO₂ diffusional kinetics
 17 should be established in order to determine the time frame for optimal concentration of CO₂ for
 18 bitumen modification and estimate the room temperature storage stability of carbonated bitumen.

1 Figure 8 shows a graph of desorption (at ambient temperatures and atmospheric pressure) for the
 2 two different binders used. Samples of bitumen were conditioned in CO₂ at 40 psi for almost 200
 3 hours prior to the desorption measurements. The weights of the bitumen samples used for the
 4 desorption experiments were measured periodically using the same sensitive balanced that was
 5 used during the sorption measurements. The results are displayed in Figure 8. As shown in Figure
 6 8, the rate of CO₂ diffusion at 40 psi was relatively lower than rate of CO₂ desorption during
 7 degassing at ambient conditions for both binders. In a similar fashion to the diffusion experiments,
 8 desorption coefficients were computed using the data in Figure 8 and a modified form of Eq. 1.
 9 The coefficient of desorption results (50 Pen, 55.86E-12 m²/s and 190 Pen, 42.46E-12) indicate
 10 that the rate of CO₂ desorption out of a carbonated bitumen was about 30% higher in the stiffer
 11 binder than the softer binder. The results also indicate that the rate of desorption of CO₂ from
 12 bitumen was higher than diffusion which could be attributed to the fact that diffusion occurred
 13 under elevated pressure conditions. Another important observation that could be made from the
 14 trends in Figure 8 and which may have important implications for CO₂-modified bitumen is that
 15 the time scale required for CO₂ desorption from bitumen is on the order of days. For paving
 16 application, this finding is significant as it suggests carbonated bitumen appears to be stable under
 17 ambient condition for durations far in excess of typical mixing times for bituminous mixtures. It is
 18 interesting to note that even after almost 200 hours storage under ambient conditions, the
 19 carbonated bitumen retained residual CO₂ concentration of about 0.065±0.009% which was more
 20 than twice the CO₂ concentration of approximately 0.027-0.037% in air. Thus it may be possible to
 21 sequester CO₂ in bitumen long enough for the mixture to be useful for paving purposes.
 22



23
 24 **Figure 8.** Desorption rates of CO₂ from modified bitumen under ambient conditions. Bitumen samples were previously
 25 conditioned in CO₂ at 40 psi for up to 200 hours prior to desorption experiments.

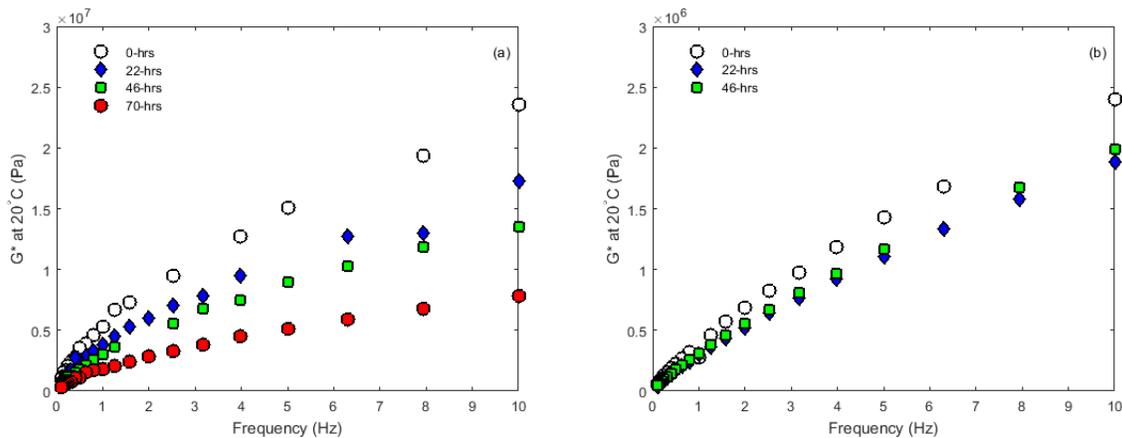
26 **4.4 Rheological Characterization of carbonated bitumen**

27 A series of CO₂ sorption tests were conducted using two different types of bituminous binders – 50
 28 Pen and 190 Pen. The sorption tests consisted of exposing thin films (approximately 5 mm) of
 29 binders to CO₂ gas at a temperature of 20°C and a pressure of 40 psi and measuring the
 30 concentration and rheological response periodically. The rheological measurements were
 31 conducted at three temperatures (20°C, 5°C and 0°C) using a DSR programed to perform
 32 frequency sweeps from 0.1 Hz to 10 Hz to determine the complex shear modulus and phase angle
 33 as a function of conditioning time and also as a function of CO₂ concentration.

34 Figure 9 shows a graph of complex shear modulus obtained at 20°C plotted against loading
 35 frequency as a function of CO₂ conditioning time for 50 Pen and 190 Pen binders. The viscosity-
 36 reducing effect of CO₂ on bitumen stiffness is apparent from the graph. Similar results have been

1 obtained at the two other testing temperatures (0°C and 5°C) for all the other binders and are not
 2 shown for brevity. It should be noted that in Figure 9, the apparent non-monotonous variation of
 3 shear modulus with conditioning time can be attributed to the viscoelastic nature of bitumen. For
 4 bitumen, complex shear modulus is very sensitive to or loading frequency and the relationship
 5 between loading frequency and complex shear modulus can be highly non-linear. Therefore, a plot
 6 of shear modulus versus frequency appears non-monotonous. The point of the figure 9 is to show
 7 the softening effect of CO₂ under each loading condition. For example, in Fig. 9a, complex shear
 8 modulus at 4 Hz and 10 Hz are respectively 1.3E7 Pa and 2.4E7 Pa for the unmodified bitumen
 9 containing no CO₂, (i.e. conditioning time = 0 hours). The corresponding values for bitumen
 10 conditioned in CO₂ for 70 hours containing (i.e. 0.298% of CO₂) are about 0.3E7 Pa and 0.7E7 Pa,
 11 for 4 Hz and 10 Hz, respectively. Thus, the softening effect of CO₂ can be clearly seen irrespective
 12 of loading frequency.

13



14

15 **Figure 9.** Complex shear modulus for CO₂-modified bitumen showing the viscosity-reducing (softening) effects of
 16 pressurized (40 psi) CO₂ dissolved in bitumen. a) 50 Pen bitumen. b) 190 Pen bitumen.

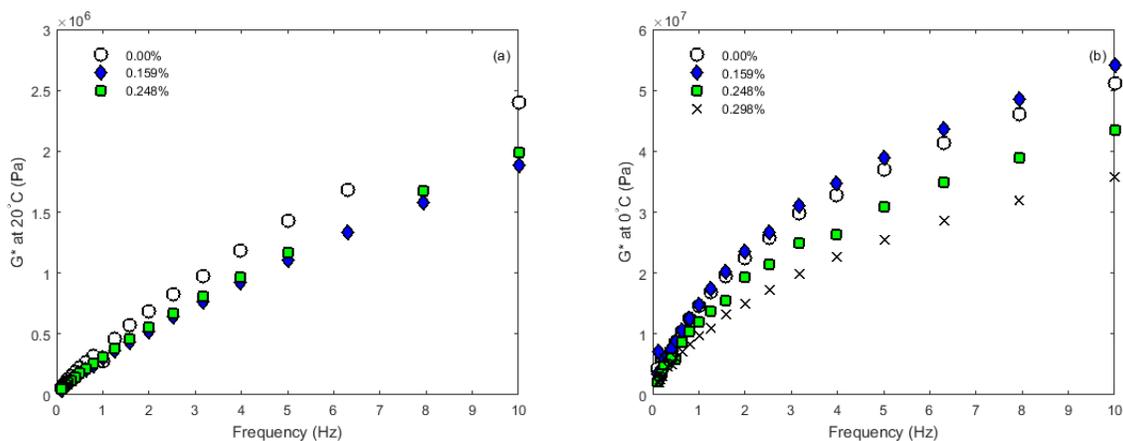
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18 Differences in the ability of CO₂ to plasticized bitumen appear to be bitumen type dependent. For
 19 example, from Figure 9 (b), and comparing stiffness changes at 20°C, after 46 hours of
 20 conditioning, the modified binder was only 70% of the base binder. On the other hand, from Figure
 21 9 (a) the stiffness of CO₂-modified 50 Pen binder at 20°C was as low as 50% that of the base
 22 bitumen. It should be noted that the 190 Pen binder also contained about three times more the
 23 amount of volatiles than the 50 Pen binder. Therefore, the lower softening effect of CO₂ observed
 24 could be due to the loss of volatiles that could result from the pressurized CO₂ used displacing
 25 some of the volatiles. This observation is significant and requires additional studies. The
 26 differences in the softening effect of CO₂ in bitumen also appear to be time dependent. As can be
 27 seen in Figure 9, the longer bitumen is conditioned, the softer the binder becomes.

28 The amount of CO₂ absorbed by bitumen depends on the length of conditioning time. Therefore,
 29 the changes in rheological properties could be related not only to conditioning time as presented in
 30 Figure 9 but also to the amount of CO₂ uptake. Figures 10 and 11 are sample plots which depict
 31 complex modulus data plotted as a function of loading frequencies, testing temperature, and CO₂
 32 concentration for 190 Pen and 50 Pen, respectively. The results show that the presence of dissolved
 33 CO₂ caused substantial reduction in binder stiffness for most of the testing conditions considered.
 34 Reduction in bitumen stiffness appears to be greater at lower temperatures and/or higher
 35 frequencies than at higher temperatures or lower loading frequency. This effect is counter to the

1 effect of most traditional asphalt modifiers that cause the opposite effect. The effect of CO₂ on
 2 bitumen viscosity was more pronounced in the 50 Pen bitumen than in the 190 Pen bitumen. This
 3 can be clearly seen in Figure 10 where stiffness reduction of 3 or more times of the base binder
 4 could be observed. Similar to the 190 Pen data, the results for 50 Pen also suggest the effect of CO₂
 5 on bitumen stiffness may be more pronounced at higher frequencies and /or lower temperatures.
 6 The data suggest that the effect of CO₂ of bitumen rheology is complicated and appears to depend
 7 on multiple factors including bitumen type, conditioning time and testing temperature.

8

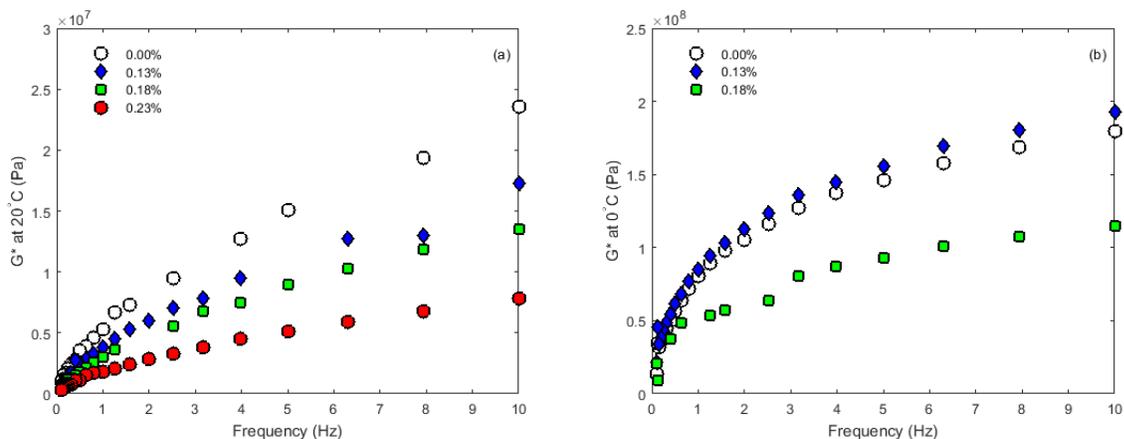


9

10 **Figure 10.** Complex shear modulus data at two tests temperatures for 190 Pen bitumen modified with CO₂ gas at
 11 injection pressure of 40 psi. a) 20°C; b) 0°C. Note that CO₂ uptakes of 0.000%, 0.159%, 0.248% and 0.298%
 12 correspond to conditioning time of 0-hours, 20-hours, 50-hours and 70-hours, respectively.

13

14



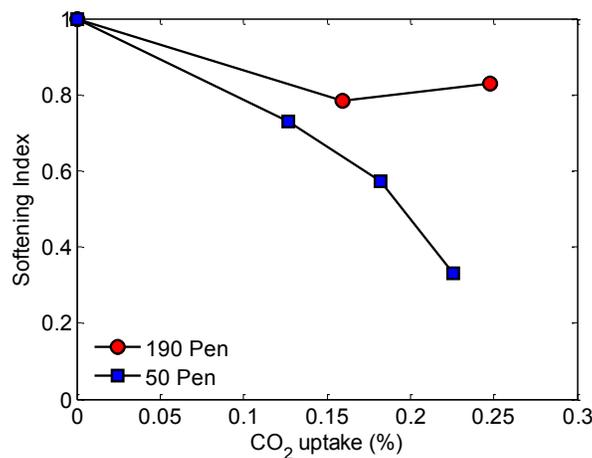
15

16 **Figure 11.** Complex shear modulus data at two tests temperatures for 50 Pen bitumen modified with CO₂ gas at
 17 injection pressure of 40 psi. a) 20°C; b) 0°C. Note that CO₂ uptakes of 0.000%, 0.130%, 0.180% and 0.230%
 18 correspond to conditioning time of 0-hours, 20-hours, 50-hours and 70-hours, respectively.

1 4.5 Softening Indices

2 The viscosity-reducing effect of CO₂ dissolved in bitumen was evaluated by comparing stiffness of
3 the CO₂-modified bitumen with the unmodified or base bitumen using softening indices for
4 complex modulus computed using Eq. 5. Sample results are presented in Figure 12 for the two
5 binders – 50 Pen and 190 Pen - modified with CO₂ at injection pressure 40 psi (0.2758 MPa). The
6 results were obtained by using SI for complex shear modulus obtained at 20°C testing temperature
7 and 10 Hz loading frequency. Similar results were obtained for other temperatures and loading
8 frequencies considered but are not shown for brevity. Lower softening indices suggest higher
9 softening effect of CO₂ on bitumen viscosity. The results suggest that the for CO₂ concentration of
10 0-0.25 wt% obtained using an injection pressure of 40 psi, viscosity reduction was substantial. The
11 biggest reduction was seen in the 50 Pen bitumen where stiffness of the bitumen after modification
12 was only about 30% of the base bitumen. In other words, there was about a threefold reduction in
13 binder viscosity due to a CO₂ uptake of less than 0.25% when 50 Pen was modified with
14 pressurized (40 psi) CO₂. It should be recognized that the data presented in Figure 12 are not
15 intended to provide softening versus CO₂ uptake relationship, but simply to illustrate the potential
16 of exploiting CO₂ as a suitable solvent for temporary modifying bitumen viscosity so that asphalt
17 mixtures could be produced and paved in a more environmentally sustainable manner.

18 The data in Figure 12 showing lower SI for 50 Pen compared to 190 Pen suggest the effect of CO₂
19 was higher in the former than in the later. A statistical analysis was conducted using binder type,
20 mass loss, CO₂ uptake as predictor variables for the modification indices in order to identify
21 significant factors contributing to the viscosity reducing effect of CO₂ in bitumen. The results
22 showed good correlation ($R^2=0.76$) between SI and bitumen type and CO₂ uptake. Therefore, the
23 effect of CO₂ in bitumen appears to be bitumen type dependent: viscosity-reducing effect of CO₂
24 was more pronounced in 50 Pen bitumen than in 190 Pen bitumen. No chemical analysis of the
25 bitumen used were performed, therefore deduction based on the chemical properties of the bitumen
26 could not be ascertained. However, one major difference between the binders used was their
27 volatile content: the softer 190 Pen binder had almost three times more volatiles than the 50 Pen
28 bitumen (Table 2). Therefore, the bitumen dependency of SI requires further studies.



29

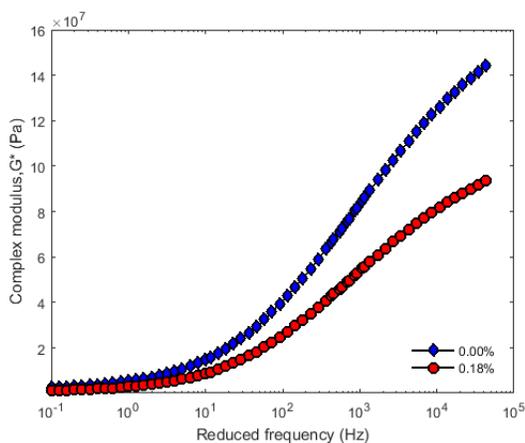
30 **Figure 12.** Softening indices for complex shear modulus of bituminous binders showing the viscosity-reducing effect of
31 CO₂ at 40 psi and 20°C in bitumen. Complex shear modulus data were obtained at 20°C and 10 Hz.

1 **4.6 Complex shear modulus master curve**

2 The master curves were produced by manually shifting the complex modulus versus frequency
3 plots at the three temperatures (20°C, 5°C and 0°C) along the frequency axis to form a single
4 smooth curve of modulus versus reduced frequency using Eq. 4. A reference temperature of 20°C
5 was used. The resulting master curves and the corresponding temperature shift factors are shown in
6 Figures 13 and 14 for samples of 50 Pen binder that were modified with CO₂ at 40 psi injection
7 pressure. The temperature shift factors obtained for both modified and unmodified binders were
8 similar suggesting viscosity changes in the CO₂-modified binder with respect to the reference
9 temperature is not different from the base binder. Similar results have been obtained for different
10 CO₂-bitumen combinations and are not presented for brevity.

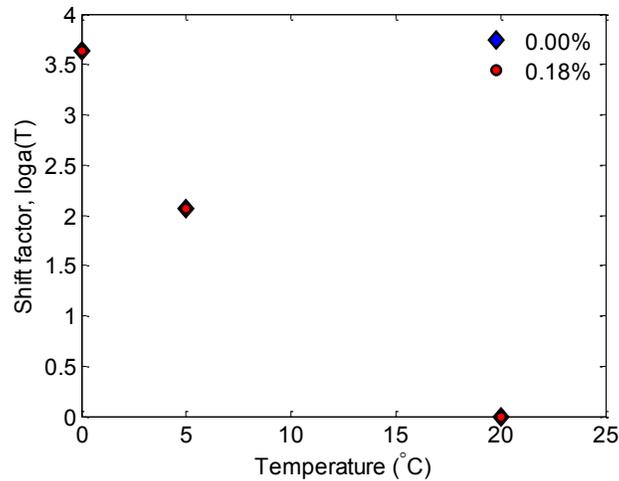
11 Since the pure binder obeys time-temperature superposition principle, it follows that CO₂-modified
12 binder could also be considered as rheologically simple materials. The smoothness and lack of
13 breaks in the master curves suggest lack of structural changes in the bitumen as a result of CO₂
14 bitumen modification. The results further suggest that the interaction of CO₂ and bitumen maybe
15 reversible. The data shows CO₂-modified binder, like the unmodified binder, obeys the time
16 temperature superposition principle.

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Figure 13. Complex shear modulus master curve for 50 pen at two CO₂ concentrations. Reference temperature: 20°C.



1

2 **Figure 14.** *Temperature shift factors for constructing master curve in Figure 13.*

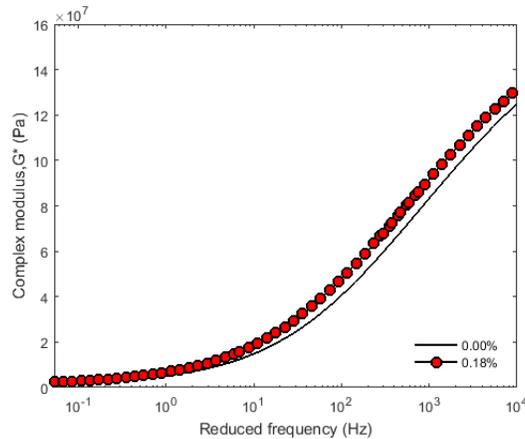
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4 **4.6 Concentration dependent shift factors**

5 As previously discussed, the amount of shifting required at each temperature to form the master
 6 curve is called a shift factor, $a(T)$ which can be considered as the viscosity changes with respect to
 7 the reference temperature. Because the viscosity reducing-effect of CO_2 at 40 psi in bitumen
 8 appears to be a function of concentration (see Figures 10 and 11, for example), it was felt
 9 necessary to investigate if concentration could be used as a scaling factor in much the same way as
 10 a temperature-shift factor so that master curves in which the effects of CO_2 concentration are
 11 characterized entirely through a viscoelastic scaling factor. The basis for this presumption was that
 12 a closer inspection of the master curves obtained for the modified binders were of the similar shape
 13 as the unmodified binder. This approach was previously used by Gerhardt et al. (1998) to model
 14 polydimethylsiloxane- CO_2 systems. In this case if a scaling factor, a , defined in similar fashion as
 15 SI in Eq. 4 is used to reduce the measured rheological parameter (here complex modulus but can
 16 be any other viscoelastic parameter) and plotted as a function of reduced frequency, f_r/a . As an
 17 illustration, modulus and reduced frequency in Figure 13 were further reduced using the scaling
 18 factor, a . The results are shown in Figure 15 which demonstrates the concentration-dependent
 19 scaling factor produced master curves that are identical to the master curves of pure binders.

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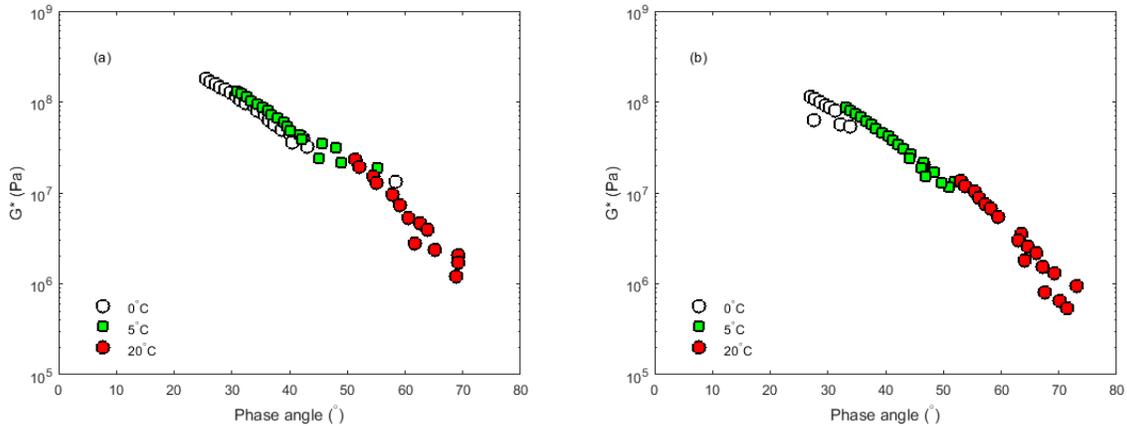


1
 2 **Figure 15.** Comparison of master curves for complex modulus using both temperature depended and concentration
 3 dependent scaling factors.
 4

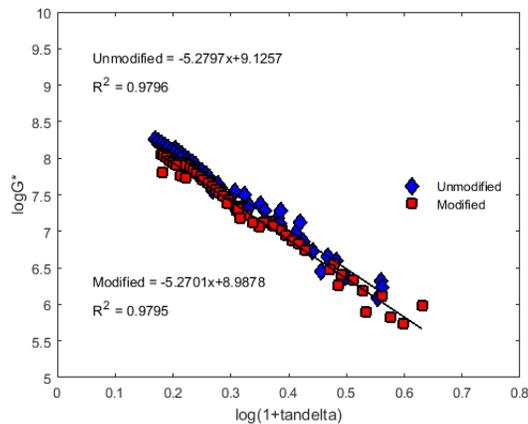
5 **4.7 Black diagram**

6 An alternative technique to the master curve construction for representing the viscoelastic
 7 properties of bituminous binders involves the construction a Black diagram where the modulus
 8 data is plotted against the phase angle. One advantage of the Black diagram representation of
 9 viscoelastic data is that there is no need to determine shift factors as in the case of master curves
 10 since the Black diagram representation is independent of temperature and frequency of
 11 measurement. The diagram thus allows direct comparison of the materials examined. Like the
 12 master curve, a Black diagram with a smooth curve indicates a binder that obeys the time-
 13 temperature superposition principle. The smooth curve obtained for the CO₂-modified binder
 14 shown in Figure 16 suggests no major structural changes occurred as a result of the modification
 15 compared to the unmodified.

16 The Black diagram also provides a means to validate the suitability of the DSR to provide data for
 17 DMA. In this case, a plot of log G* versus log(1+tandelta), where delta is the phase angle, yield a
 18 straight with y-axis intercept on the order of 10⁹ Pa, the limiting maximum stiffness of paving
 19 grade bitumen. One such plot is shown in Figure 17 which compares unmodified Black diagram
 20 with CO₂ modified binder. From Figure 17, the limiting stiffness values for the binders were
 21 respectively, 1.34E+09 Pa and 0.97E+09 Pa for the unmodified base binder and the CO₂-modified
 22 base binder (CO₂ at 40 psi for 46 hours).
 23



1
2 **Figure 16.** Black diagram for binders: a) Unmodified; b) Modified.
3



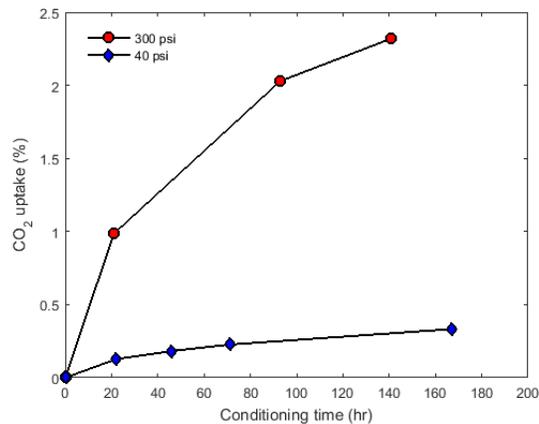
4
5 **Figure 17.** Complex shear modulus ($\log G^*$) versus $\log(1+\tan\delta)$ for modified and CO_2 -modified binders showing
6 limiting bitumen stiffness.

7 **4.8 Effect of pressure on CO_2 diffusion in bitumen**

8 As previously noted, the amount of CO_2 gas that can be absorbed by bitumen depends on bitumen
9 type and as well as the length of conditioning time. Previous studies suggest elevated pressure is
10 another factor that may have significant effect on CO_2 uptake by bitumen and by extension
11 rheology of CO_2 -modified bitumen. Data presented in this paper so far have all been obtained
12 using CO_2 at an injection pressure of 40 psi. In order to evaluate the effect of elevated pressure on
13 bitumen rheology, additional experiments that replicated those described for CO_2 pressure of 40 psi
14 were conducted. Basically, thin films (approximately 5 mm) of bitumen were exposed to CO_2 in a
15 pressure vessel maintained at 300 psi. The samples were weighed periodically using a sensitive
16 balance to develop the kinetics of CO_2 uptake and the rheology of the modified bitumen
17 determined using a DSR to determine complex shear modulus. Figure 18 shows a comparison of
18 CO_2 uptake at a pressure of 300 psi compared with that at 40 psi for the 50 Pen bitumen. The effect
19 of pressure is clearly seen. The amounts of CO_2 absorbed by the binders at 300 psi were almost 10

1 times as large as that obtained for bitumen conditioned at 40 psi. The results suggest that pressure
2 has a significant effect on the amount of CO₂ that could be absorbed by bitumen.

3



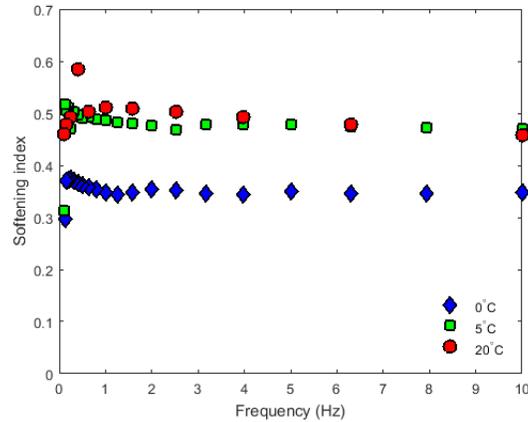
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5 **Figure 18.** *Effect of conditioning pressure on CO₂ uptake for 50 Pen bitumen.*

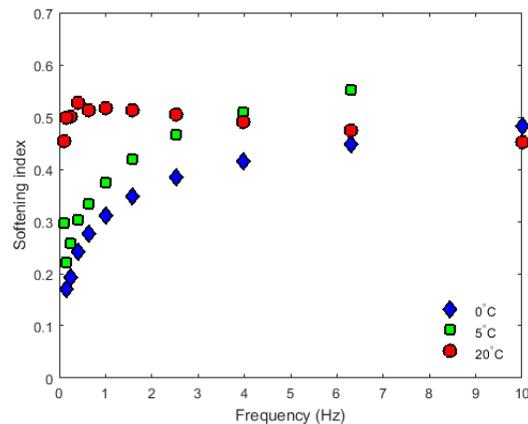
6 Effect of CO₂ conditioning pressure and CO₂ uptake on bitumen rheology was also investigated
7 using the DSR. As previously discussed, at 40 psi, the amount of CO₂ absorbed was only a fraction
8 of the absorption at 300 psi. Therefore, it was decided that a limited study focused on CO₂ uptake
9 at an elevated pressure of 300 psi be conducted. Measurements were undertaken at two conditioning
10 levels, 20 hours and 140 hours in order to study the effect of long-term CO₂ conditioning. Sample
11 results are shown in Figures 19 and 20. In Figure 19, softening indices are plotted as a function of
12 loading frequency and testing temperature for samples conditioned for 20 hours. The results
13 showing decreasing SI with decreasing testing temperature are in good agreement with the results
14 obtained for bitumen conditioned in 40 psi CO₂ where similar levels of viscosity reduction were
15 observed. However, it is important to note that the amount of CO₂ absorbed at 300 psi after 20
16 hours was almost ten times more than that obtained at 40 psi. This suggests in addition to CO₂
17 uptake, the length of conditioning time might be an important factor in the softening ability of CO₂
18 in bitumen.

19 Figure 20 shows SI data obtained for 50 Pen bitumen conditioned in CO₂ at 300 psi and 140 hours.
20 Similar to data depicted in Figure 19, a trend of increasing softening power of CO₂ with decreasing
21 testing temperature is observed. More importantly, the level of softening, as indicated by SI, is
22 significantly lower after 140 hours of conditioning compared to 20 hours of conditioning and or 40
23 psi of injection pressure. A clear trend of increasing SI with loading frequency can be seen in
24 Figure 20, especially at the lower temperatures. This trend, even though common in most modified
25 bitumens, was not observed in the case of bitumen conditioned at 40 psi. The later observation
26 suggests CO₂ might be more miscible and therefore might have more solvent properties at higher
27 pressures than at lower pressures. The results support the assertion that CO₂ might be useful for
28 reducing bitumen viscosity under certain conditions.

29



1
 2 **Figure 19.** Softening index as a function of pressure and conditioning time for 50 pen bitumen conditioned in CO₂ at
 3 300 psi for 20 hours.
 4



5
 6 **Figure 20.** Softening index as a function of pressure and conditioning time for 50 pen bitumen conditioned in CO₂ at
 7 300 psi for 140 hours.

8 **5. Conclusions**

9 The physico-chemical and rheological properties of paving grade bitumen were characterized as a
 10 function of CO₂ uptake in order to establish baseline data that could be exploited for low-emission,
 11 low-energy asphalt production. The following conclusions were reached based on the data
 12 presented in the paper:

- 14 • The kinetics of CO₂ diffusion in bitumen is influenced by both bitumen type and CO₂
 15 pressure. The rate of CO₂ diffusion and the equilibrium CO₂ uptake were relatively higher
 16 in softer binder compared with stiffer binders. For the two binders considered, diffusion
 17 coefficients were of the same order of magnitude (190 Pen, 40.2E-12 m²/s and 50 Pen,

1 36.3E-12 m²/s) at 40 psi CO₂ pressure. Rate of CO₂ desorption (at ambient conditions)
2 was also found to be of the same order of magnitude for both binders.

- 3 • Carbon dioxide uptake was found to be highly dependent on conditioning pressure. A 10
4 fold increase in equilibrium CO₂ uptake was observed when binders were conditioned in
5 CO₂ at 300 psi versus at 40 psi.
- 6 • Substantial reduction in bitumen stiffness (viscosity) was observed with increasing CO₂
7 uptake, conditioning time and conditioning pressure. The level of reduction was also found
8 to be dependent on testing temperature and loading frequency. The largest decrease in
9 stiffness due to CO₂ absorption was found at the lowest testing temperatures.
- 10 • Analysis of the complex modulus master curves, constructed using time-temperature
11 superposition principles, showed that temperature-dependent shift-factors for the CO₂-
12 modified bitumen were similar to the base bitumen. In addition, the results showed that
13 concentration-dependent scaling (shift) factors could be used to reduce the master curves of
14 the modified bitumen into a single master curve with respect to the base bitumen.
- 15 • The results suggest the viscosity-lowering effect of CO₂ on bitumen stiffness is analogous
16 to the well-known trend of increasing temperature with decreasing bitumen viscosity or the
17 viscosity-lowering ability of conventional solvents. Therefore, the study concludes that
18 CO₂ modification of bitumen for paving application appears promising.

19 6.0 Acknowledgment

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