

Metal recovery from iron slag via pH swing-assisted carbon mineralization with various organic ligands

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ABSTRACT

In this study, we suggest aqueous carbon mineralization of iron slag to selectively produce both solid carbonate and rare earth elements (REEs) under organic ligands such as acetate, propionate, and butyrate, which are the major derivatives of various biogenic wastes. An amorphous phase of iron slag was used as the feedstock, which was confirmed to be quartz and aluminosilicate, and its carbon mineralization was performed with a pH swing-assisted process. When conducting the aqueous carbon mineralization in a series of leaching, precipitation, and carbonation processes by elevating the pH from 3 to 10, all organic ligands exhibited higher leaching efficiencies and recovery yields for all metal species than the inorganic ligand (nitrate). The maximum leaching efficiencies of Ca, and Mg at pH ~ 3 found in acetate were 63.55 and 97.35 wt%, respectively. The total rare earth elements (tREEs) including Y, La, Ce, Pr, and Nd recovered over 50 wt% for all ligands from the pristine iron slag; acetate, propionate, and butyrate exhibited tREEs recovery yields of 54.92, 51.10, and 53.76 wt%, respectively, while nitrate only showed 43.46 wt% in the precipitation step. These metal recovery enhancements are due to the distinct solubility of metal species and their co-precipitation behavior with organic ligands depending on the pH. Owing to the high Ca affinity of the organic ligands, structures of solid carbonates were dominantly controlled as a high-purity calcite, which contained less than 10 ppm of Fe.

1. Introduction

According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) report on Climate Change in 2021, future CO₂ emission scenarios indicate that net-zero CO₂ emissions must be achieved by the mid-century to limit global temperature rise below 2 °C [1]. Carbon capture, utilization, and storage (CCUS) technologies – capturing, separating, transporting, converting, and storing CO₂ that is generated from industrial sectors – have been recognized as a promising option toward net-zero CO₂ emissions [2,3]. Among the CCUS technologies, ex-situ carbon mineralization technology that artificially transforms CO₂ into solid carbonates (e.g., CaCO₃ and MgCO₃) with alkali earth metals (e.g., Ca or Mg), is generally performed through gas-solid or aqueous systems, which aim

to accomplish large-scale CO₂ storage and utilization [4,5]. Either natural silicate minerals (e.g., wollastonite, basalts, olivine, and serpentine) or alkaline industrial wastes (e.g., iron and steel slags, mine tailings, gypsums, coal ashes, construction wastes, etc.) have been considered as the feedstock to provide alkali earth metals [6,7]. Since solid carbonate has the most thermodynamically stable energy level among the carbon-derivative compounds, it can permanently sequester CO₂ while relieving the critical issue of CO₂ leakage in the geological CO₂ injection approach [4,8]. Moreover, solid carbonates can be used in various industries such as adhesives, sealants, food and pharmaceuticals, paints, coatings, paper, cements, and construction materials [9–11], thereby also contributing to realizing a circular carbon economy. Even though various approaches to ex-situ carbon mineralization

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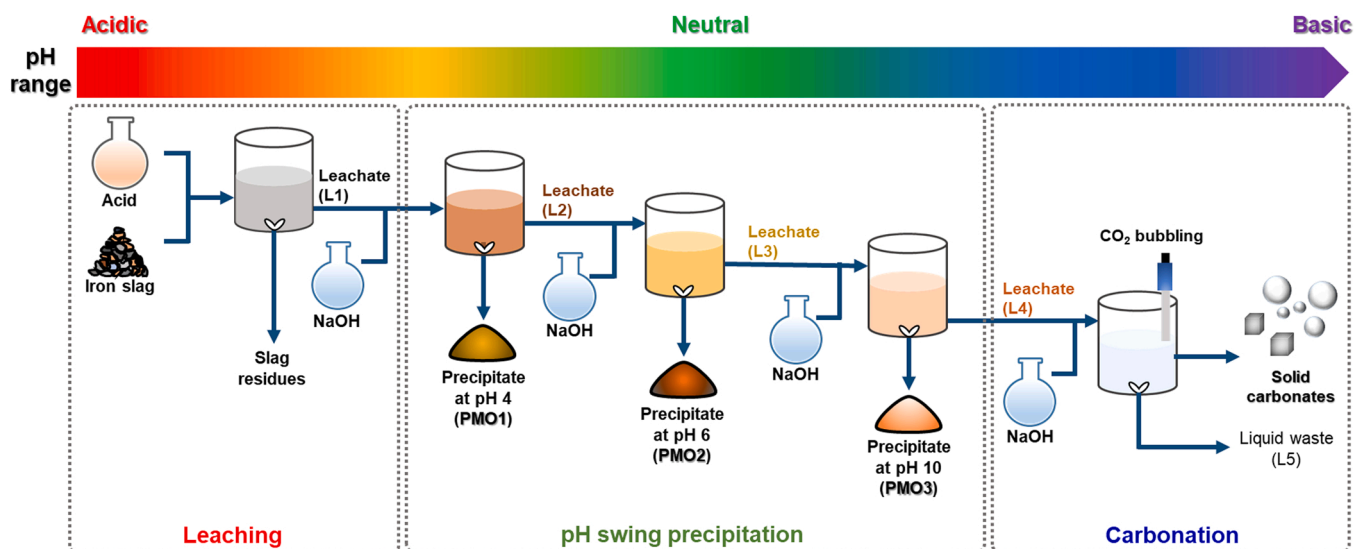


Fig. 1. Scheme of aqueous pH swing-assisted carbon mineralization process for polygeneration of high-purity solid carbonates and rare earth elements.

technology have been proposed over the past few decades [12–14], their current status still resides in a wide range of technology readiness levels (TRL) from 3 to 9 [5,8], due to some remaining challenges; for example, (i) there are limited quantities of highly reactive feedstocks in some regions or countries, (ii) the reaction system often shows high complexity, and (iii) the product market is still uncertain [3,6].

To accelerate the large-scale implementation of ex-situ carbon mineralization, understanding the complexity of bulk feedstock, enhancing reaction kinetics and carbonation efficiency, and producing high value-added materials were suggested as breakthroughs to overcome the current bottleneck [3,15–18]. Because alkaline industrial wastes generally exhibit cheaper cost, higher reactivity, and better accessibility to CO₂ sources than natural silicate minerals, its successful implementation can accomplish both waste treatment and value-added production; thus, alkaline industrial wastes have been recognized as promising feedstock to meet these breakthroughs [5,7].

In this study, to make the ex-situ carbon mineralization process more feasible, we focused on the novel carbon mineralization process with polygeneration, specifically producing both high-purity CaCO₃, and rare earth elements (REEs)-concentrated precipitated metal oxides, which could be an alternative natural REE ore. REEs consist of seventeen kinds of metal elements including fifteen lanthanides, yttrium (Y), and scandium (Sc) [19], and are key elements used in various industries including electric devices and green technologies [20]. The global demand for REEs is expected to grow rapidly, but the uncertainty of its supply chain still remains. Note that REEs are only reserved to a few countries (e.g., China, Australia, Canada, and the United States); thus, many other countries such as Republic of Korea rely on the import of REEs to meet their demand [19]. To manage the high risk of REE supply, its recovery from electrical device wastes and other industrial wastes are being actively studied, and recent literature has reported that bulk industrial wastes such as coal ashes, and iron slag, which contain REEs over a few hundred ppm levels, can be an alternative REE ore via concentrating REEs up to the current ore-grade level [19,21,22].

Our previous study introduced a multi-step pH swing-assisted carbon mineralization process using inorganic acids, which can not only enhance reaction kinetics but also produce value-added materials (e.g., high-purity CaCO₃) [5,21]. From these results, we newly presented the concept of simultaneous selective REE recovery and CO₂ storage via an aqueous carbon mineralization. However, the carbon mineralization process is costly due to requiring a large amount of inorganic solvents [21]. In general, 50% of the carbon mineralization process cost in the aqueous phase corresponds to the solvent consumed [23]. To relieve

these costs, volatile organic acids (VOAs) generated by anaerobic digestion of biogenic wastes were investigated as the leaching solvent of steel slag in a differential bed reactor [24]. Owing to the strong stability constants between organic ligands and metal ions [25], VOAs including acetic acid, propionic acid, butyric acid, valeric acid, and their mixture showed better leaching efficiencies and faster reaction kinetics for metal elements than inorganic acids (i.e., HCl and HNO₃) at the same pH condition. These indicate that an aqueous carbon mineralization process integrated with the biogenic waste streams is feasible [24].

Here, we conducted an aqueous carbon mineralization process with REE recovery from iron slag under organic ligands (e.g., acetate, propionate, and butyrate) aiming to newly establish the waste-to-resource supply chain. The results were compared with the case of inorganic ligand (HNO₃). As shown in Fig. 1, this process was constructed via a series of steps including leaching, three-steps pH swing-assisted precipitation, and carbonation with CO₂. Iron slag was used as feedstock, and its physicochemical properties were characterized. The dissolution and precipitation behaviors of the metal species shown in each step were explored. REE recovery behavior according to ligand type was obtained. Finally, the obtained high-purity CaCO₃ was characterized.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Iron slag, supplied by POSCO (Pohang, Republic of Korea), was used as the feedstock controlled with a particle size (d_p) ranging from 54 to 200 μm . Nitric acid (HNO₃, 68–70%), sodium hydroxide (NaOH, 97%, pellets), and organic ligand salts including sodium acetate (99%, CH₃COONa), sodium propionate (99%, CH₃CH₂COONa), and sodium butyrate (98%, CH₃CH₂CH₂COONa) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, Inc. (USA). CO₂ gas purified to 99.99% was provided by Dae-deok Gas Co., Ltd (Republic of Korea). Purified water was provided from a water purification system (HIQ-I, Coretech Co., Ltd., Republic of Korea).

2.2. Experimental procedure of aqueous carbon mineralization

An aqueous carbon mineralization experiment consisting of leaching, three-steps pH swing precipitation, and carbonation by bubbling CO₂ was conducted in a batch reactor system at 25 °C. Metal leaching from iron slag was performed in a 0.3 L solution at 1/8 of the solid to liquid (acid) ratio (S/L ratio, kg/L) for 2 h. For the inorganic ligand

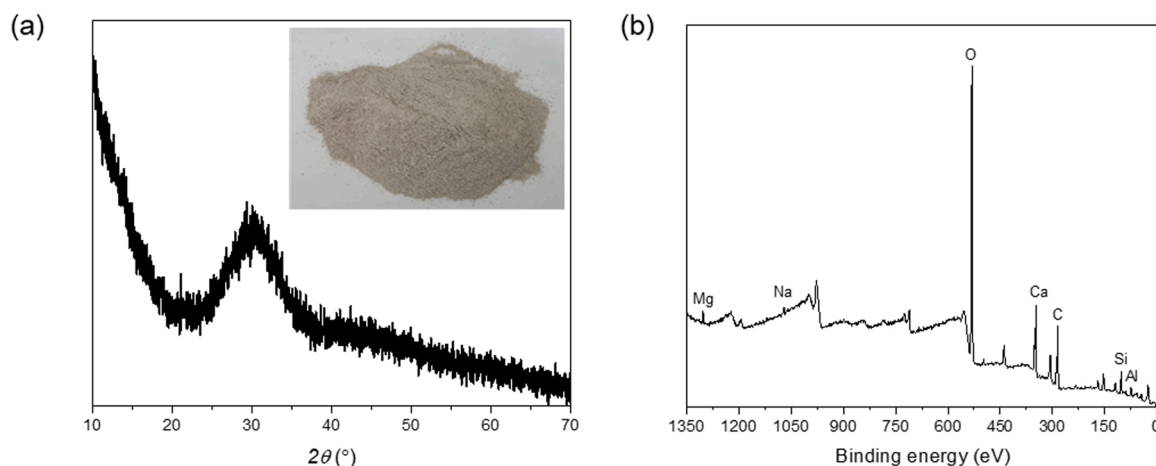


Fig. 2. (a) PXRD pattern and (b) XPS spectrum of the iron slag used in this study.

(hereafter, NA), 0.001 M of HNO₃ solution was prepared, which was pH 3. For the organic ligands, solutions containing 0.001 M of HNO₃ and 0.05 M of sodium acetate (hereafter, NA-Ac), sodium propionate (hereafter, NA-Prop), or sodium butyrate (hereafter, NA-But) were prepared. During the leaching process, the stirring was set to 700 rpm, the pH of the slurry was maintained at ~ 3, and was monitored using a pH meter (S220, Mettler-Toledo International Inc., USA). The leachates (L1) recovered after leaching were used as a reactant in the next step.

To selectively concentrate metal species dissolved in L1, the pH swing precipitation was conducted by stepwise increasing of the pH to 4, 6, and 10 with NaOH. The recovered precipitated metal oxides in each pH step were named as PMO1 (at pH 4), PMO2 (at pH 6), and PMO3 (at pH 10). The corresponding leachates (L2 at pH 4 and L3 at pH 6) were also produced. These leachates were provided for the next pH step. While each precipitation step was maintained with a stirring rate of 200 rpm for 1 h, pH was adjusted by adding NaOH.

Carbonation was performed by injecting gaseous CO₂ into the leachate (L4) recovered after precipitation at pH 10. The pH was controlled between 10 and 11 by injecting NaOH, and the stirring rate was set to 200 rpm, maintaining 10 L/min of CO₂ flow rate for 0.5 h. Solid carbonates were then separated from the leachate (L5), and washed using purified water. All slurries recovered after each step were separated into leachates and solid residues by a vacuum filtration system equipped with 0.45 μm of filter paper. Finally, these solids were collected after drying at 70 °C in a convection oven (OF-02 GW, Jeio Tech Co., Ltd., Republic of Korea) for 24 h.

2.3. Characteristic analyses

The chemical composition of iron slag including both major and trace metals was determined by using inductively coupled plasma–mass spectrometry (ICP–MS, 7900, Agilent Technologies, Inc., USA), inductively coupled plasma–optical emission spectroscopy (ICP–OES, OPTIMA 8300, PerkinElmer, Inc., USA), and an X-ray fluorescence spectrometer (XRF, Axios FAST, Malvern Panalytical Ltd., UK). To completely convert iron slag to be dissolved before the ICP measurements, the iron slag powder (~ 0.2 g) was ground in a mill before being added to 10 mL of HCl solution at 90 °C for 6 h. The prepared solution was then put into a mixture of HNO₃, hydrofluoric acid (HF), and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), which was digested for 10 min in a microwave digestion system (TOPEX+, PreeKem Scientific Instruments Co., Ltd., China). The liquid sample filtered using a 0.45 μm syringe filter was diluted with a 1% HNO₃ solution.

To explore the dissolution and precipitation behaviors of the metal species as a function of pH, aliquots (1 mL) of the leachates collected at all steps and dried solid samples (0.2 g) were completely dissolved in

4 mL of aqua regia. These liquid samples were diluted to 10 mL of 2% HNO₃ solution, and their elemental concentrations were measured by ICP–OES and ICP–MS. The leaching efficiency and conversion ratio of metal species were calculated using Eqs. (1) and (2), respectively, as follows:

$$\text{Leaching efficiency of metal specie} = \frac{C_{L1,i} \times V_{L1}}{C_{s,i} \times m_s} \times 100(\text{wt}\%) \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Residual elemental fraction in leachate} &= \frac{C_{L,i} \times V_L}{C_{L1,i} \times V_{L1}} (L \\ &= L1, L2, L3, L4, \text{ or } L5) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where $C_{s,i}$ (mg/kg) and m_s (kg) indicate the concentration of element i and total mass of iron slag, respectively. $C_{L1,i}$ (mg/L) and V_{L1} (L) are the concentration of element i in the L1 and leachate volume of L1, respectively. $C_{L,i}$ (mg/L) and V_L (L) express the concentration of element i in the leachate of L1, L2, L3, L4 or L5, and each leachate volume, respectively.

Particle properties of solids including the raw iron slag, solid residues, precipitated metal oxides, and solid carbonate were investigated by a particle size analyzer (PSA, LS 13 320 MW, Beckman Coulter, Inc., USA), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, NEXSA, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA), field emission–scanning electron microscope (FE–SEM, S-4700, Hitachi Ltd., Japan), and powder X-ray diffractometer (PXRD, SmartLab, Rigaku, Co., Japan). The diffraction patterns were obtained in the 2θ range of 10–70° (0.02° step size) using CuK α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$) with a 2 kW generator. Rietveld refinement was conducted by using FullProf software [26].

A thermogravimetric analyzer (TGA, TGA-50, Shimadzu Scientific Instruments, Inc., Japan) was used for the characterization of the precipitated CaCO₃. The TGA system was run in a temperature range from ambient to 900 °C with a 10 °C/min heating rate under N₂ gas.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization of iron slag

Iron slag generally represents a high complexity in mineralogical structure and chemical composition, which affects the reaction mechanism, leaching kinetics, reactivity, etc [27]. Thus, mineralogical structure and chemical composition of the raw iron slag were investigated prior to conducting aqueous carbon mineralization under various ligands. The mineralogical structure of the iron slag was examined by PXRD analysis. As shown in Fig. 2(a), the PXRD pattern showed only a large bump that is typically illustrated to be an amorphous phase [24, 28]. The detailed elemental arrangement in this amorphous phase was

Table 1
Elemental compositions of iron slag.

Major elements, wt%					
Ca	Si	Mg	Al	Fe	Others
25.08	14.42	3.62	6.05	0.49	50.34
Rare earth elements (REEs), ppm					
La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Y	Total REEs (tREEs)
73.6	151.6	17.4	68.1	80.9	391.6

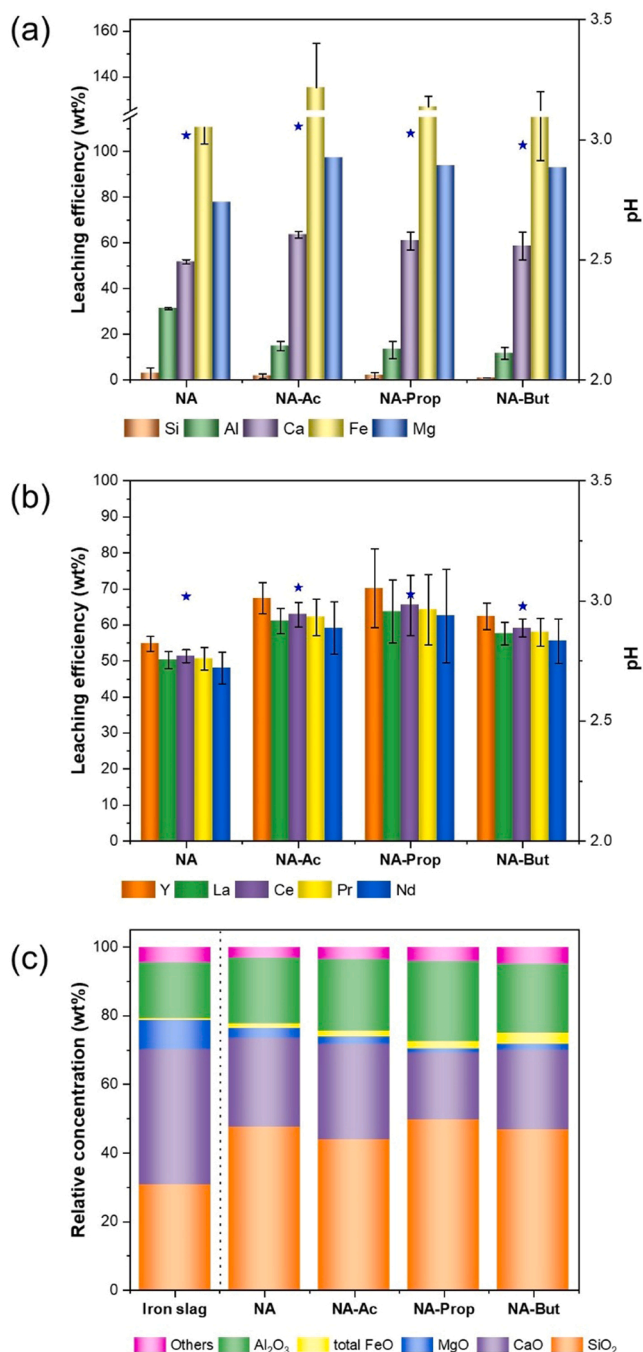


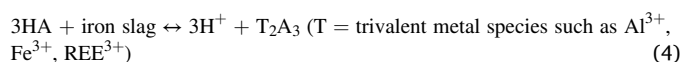
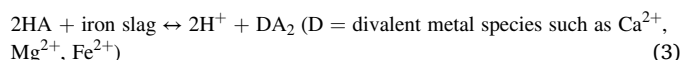
Fig. 3. Leaching efficiency of (a) major elements and (b) REEs from raw iron slag at S/L (kg/L) = 1/8 at 25 °C. (c) Relative composition of solid residues recovered after leaching.

also explored using the XPS spectrum shown in Fig. 2(a). The binding energies of Al(2p) and Si(2p) were 74.28 and 102.11 eV, respectively, and it is postulated that the iron slag consists of the aluminosilicate and quartz structures (Fig. 2(b)) [29].

To determine the concentrations of major metals and REEs in the raw iron slag, the chemical composition using ICP—OES and ICP—MS was measured. As shown in Table 1, the iron slag exhibited the chemical composition of both major metals and REEs regardless of particle sizes, and it consisted of Ca (25.08 wt%), Si (14.43 wt%), Al (6.05 wt%), Mg (3.62 wt%), and Fe (0.49 wt%) as the major metals. The total rare earth elements (tREEs) were 391.6 ppm, including lanthanum (La), cerium (Ce), praseodymium (Pr), neodymium (Nd), and Y.

3.2. Iron slag leaching under inorganic and organic ligands

Major elements and REEs from the raw iron slag were first leached under inorganic and organic ligand conditions. Leaching of the iron slag depending on the oxidation state of metal species can be expressed as follows:



(A = NO₃⁻, CH₃COO⁻, C₂H₅COO⁻, and C₃H₇COO⁻).

As shown in Fig. 3(a) and (b), the organic ligands improved the leaching efficiencies of both major metals and REEs more than those of the inorganic ligand (NA) at the same pH condition. Interestingly, Si leaching efficiency was shown below 10 wt% regardless of ligand type. This could be due to its re-precipitation at the pH condition. To identify the Si re-precipitation during leaching, the relative composition of solid residues obtained in the leaching step was analyzed by XRF (Fig. 3(c)). Compared to the raw iron slag, Si concentration in the solid residues increased by about 10%. Previous literature explained that silicates dissolved in an acidic environment form silicic acids as the building block of silica, and those acids are stable at pH 2; however, they may be condensed into silicas by polymerization or precipitation in the amorphous phase by increasing the pH [30,31]. Note that Si is saturated and precipitates above 132 ppm (SiO₂) at 20 °C [32]. Again, the iron slag leaching under inorganic and organic ligands was also performed at 1/1000 of the S/L ratio, and Si leaching efficiencies ranged from 82.92 to 89.42 wt% (Fig. S1). From this evidence, we speculated that Si leached at 1/8 of the S/L ratio was polymerized and recovered with slag residues. Regardless of ligand type, slag residues also showed an amorphous phase as shown in the PXRD patterns (Fig. S2(a)). Furthermore, they exhibited white particles with a wider particle size distribution than the iron slag (Fig. S2 (b) and (c)).

3.3. Three-step pH swing for recovering rare earth elements

Metal species dissolved in an aqueous solution can be precipitated according to its thermodynamic solubility as a function of pH [25]. To selectively concentrate REEs and liberate alkali metals (e.g., Ca and Mg), three-step pH swing-assisted precipitations at pH 4, 6, and 10 were conducted using the L1 leachate generated by the case of 1/8 of the S/L ratio. The pH was controlled by adding NaOH. The pH swing-assisted precipitation of the metal species is represented as follows:



Fig. 4 shows the residual elemental fraction of each leachate under inorganic and organic ligands. This pattern shows how much of each element including REEs remained or precipitated out during the pH swing steps. The Al and Fe species were mostly precipitated and

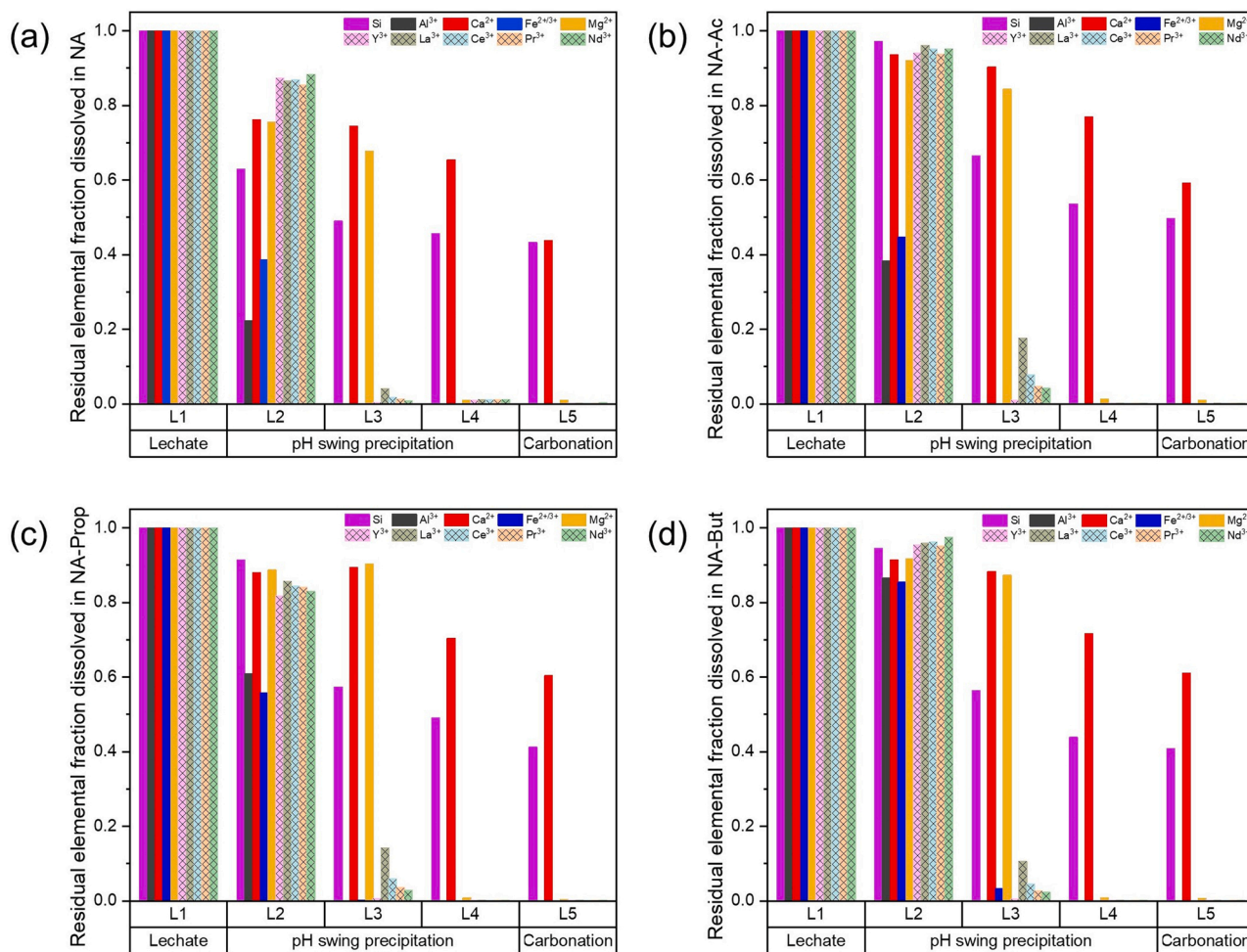


Fig. 4. Residual elemental fraction of each leachate generated by (a) NA, (b) NA-Ac, (c) NA-Prop, and (d) NA-But.

Table 2

Leaching efficiency, recovered tREEs, and CaCO₃ purity.

Ligand	Chemicals	Leaching efficiency (wt %)	Recovered tREEs (wt%)	CaCO ₃ purity (wt %)
NA	HNO ₃ / NaOH	Ca: 51.68 Mg: 77.78 tREEs: 50.98	43.46	95.30
NA-Ac	HNO ₃ / Na-acetate / NaOH	Ca: 63.55 Mg: 97.35 tREEs: 62.54	54.92	93.61
NA-Prop	HNO ₃ / Na-propionate / NaOH	Ca: 60.84 Mg: 93.80 tREEs: 65.20	51.10	94.10
NA-But	HNO ₃ / Na-butyrate / NaOH	Ca: 58.63 Mg: 92.97 tREEs: 58.51	53.76	94.00

removed at a pH between pH 4 (L2) and 6 (L3). However, the organic ligands (e.g., NA-Ac, NA-Prop, and NA-But) removed less Al and Fe species from the L1 than the NA case possibly due to the high stability constant between the metal ions and organic ligands. Regardless of ligand type, pH 10 (L4) favorably removed the Mg-bearing precipitate. In all cases, most of the REEs were concentrated as the precipitates at pH 6 (PMO2). The recovery fraction of the tREEs from the L1 by NA, NA-Ac, NA-Prop, and NA-But at pH 6 (PMO2) was 85.25, 87.82, 78.38, and 91.89 wt%, respectively. This indicates that the use of organic ligands recovered over the half of the tREEs in the raw iron slag as a solid residue

Table 3

Concentration of REEs in PMO2.

Ligand	Rare earth elements (ppm)					
	Y	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	tREEs
NA	885.5	676.9	1438	165.0	638.8	3804.2
NA-Ac	1141	927.8	1980	225.4	879.6	5153.8
NA-Prop	977.7	471.9	1296	161.5	645.8	3552.9
NA-But	768.5	419.6	1097	132.1	519.9	2937.1

in the precipitation step as 54.92, 51.10, and 53.76 wt% for NA-Ac, NA-Prop, NA-But, respectively: higher than the use of NA (Table 2). Table 3 shows the concentrations of tREEs in the PMO2 for NA, NA-Ac, NA-Prop, and NA-But. The NA-Ac case exhibited the highest tREEs concentration of 5153.8 ppm. Note that the initial REEs concentration in the iron slag was 391.6 ppm. Fig. S3 presents PMOs recovered during pH swing-assisted precipitation from pH 4–10. It appears that the distinct colors of the solid residues rely on pH and their oxidation states [33].

3.4. Synthesis of solid carbonate and its properties

Carbonation was finally performed by injecting CO₂ gas into the L4 leachate in which Ca was the major species. Solid carbonation can occur by the reaction with CO₂ as described below:

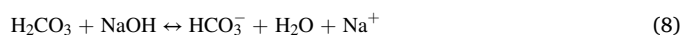
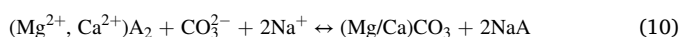
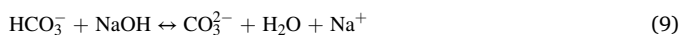


Table 4
Impurities of precipitated CaCO₃.

Sample	Elements (ppm)			
	Mg	Fe	Si	Al
NA	489.3	7.7	1172.8	-
NA-Ac	1564	-	1188	-
NA-Prop	1674.1	3.7	1207.4	-
NA-But	743.4	11.3	1256.6	-

Table 5
Structural properties of precipitated CaCO₃ under various ligand types.

		NA	NA-Ac	NA-Prop	NA-But
Lattice parameter of calcite (Å)	<i>a</i>	4.9932	4.9964	5.002	4.996
	<i>b</i>	4.9932	4.9964	5.002	4.996
	<i>c</i>	17.0612	17.0793	17.083	17.083
Polymorph (%)	Calcite	100	96.23	92.95	93.7
	(hexagonal, <i>R</i> 3̄2/ <i>c</i>)				
	Vaterite	0	3.77	7.05	6.3
	(hexagonal, <i>P</i> 6 ₃ / <i>mmc</i>)				



Solid carbonates recovered after carbonation were confirmed as CaCO₃ with a purity > 93% for all organic ligands, which was analyzed by TGA (Fig. S4). The minor impurities in the CaCO₃ were also analyzed

using ICP—MS, and the results are given in Table 4. Interestingly, Fe was detected to be less than 12 ppm in all solid carbonates.

CaCO₃ is known to form various polymorphs including amorphous, hydrous crystals (e.g., monohydrocalcite and ikaite), and anhydrous crystals (e.g., calcite, aragonite, and vaterite) [34,35]. Since those CaCO₃ structures exhibit different physicochemical properties (e.g., density, morphology, and particle size) which are controlled under various conditions such as pH, reaction time, additive, temperature, solute concentration, and solvent type [2,36], the crystalline structures of the synthesized CaCO₃ in the presence of various ligands were also examined using PXRD refinements (Fig. S5 and Table 5). Since complexes between Ca and ligand stabilize unstable CaCO₃ which induces the transformation into calcite [36], all CaCO₃ were dominantly crystallized to calcite; however, the larger ligands formed an unstable structure (i.e., vaterite). Calcite morphologies also differed depending on the ligand type, and increasing ligand size induced the formation of elongated spheroids, as shown in Fig. 5. Previous studies described that organic additives can induce the formation of elongated spheroids because complexes between the Ca and ligand interact with the calcite face, which limits crystal growth on the surface [36,37].

4. Conclusions

This study conducted selective polygeneration of both CaCO₃ and REEs via aqueous carbon mineralization of iron slag in a series of leaching, pH swing-assisted precipitation from pH 4–10, and carbonation with CO₂. The solvents used in this process were organic ligands which can be derived from various biogenic wastes. When conducting the aqueous carbon mineralization in a series of leaching, precipitation, and carbonation processes with elevating pH from 3 to 10, all organic ligands exhibited higher leaching efficiencies and recovery yields for all

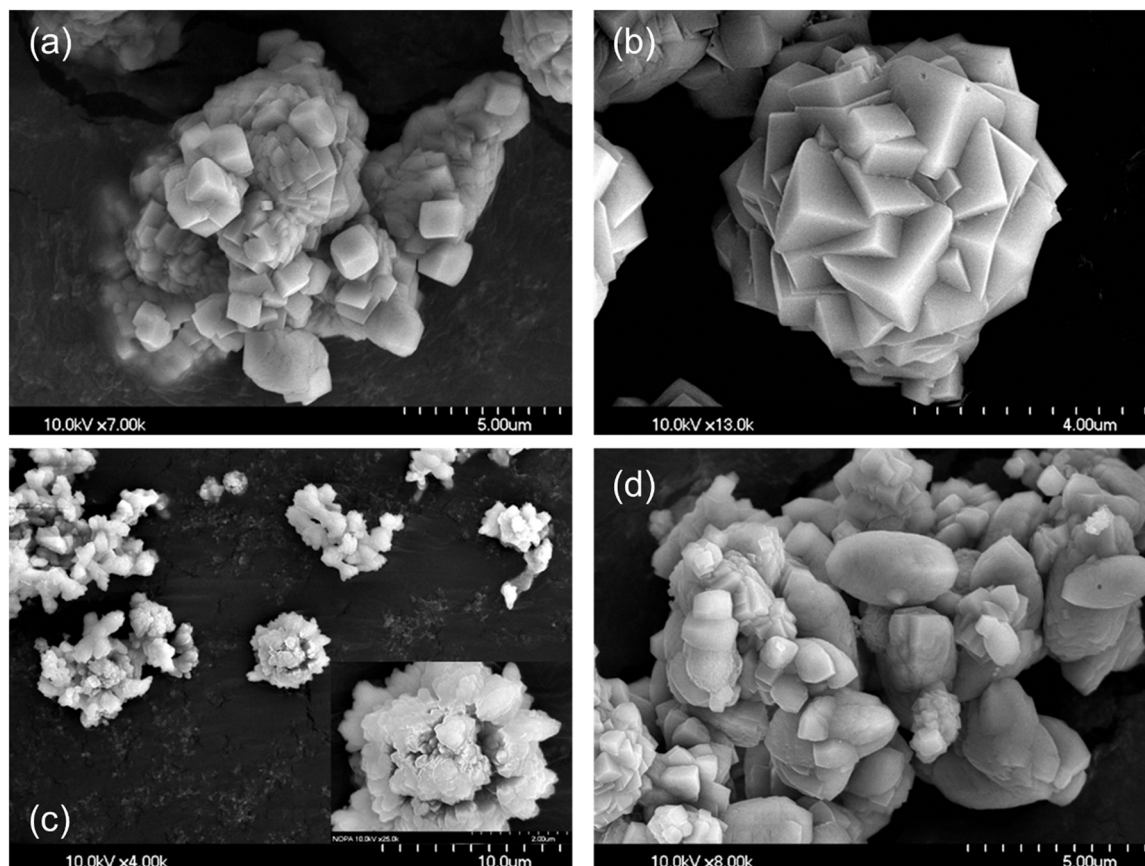


Fig. 5. SEM images of precipitated CaCO₃ obtained from (a) NA, (b) NA-Ac, (c) NA-Prop, and (d) NA-But.

metal species than inorganic ligand (nitrate). Specifically, the maximum leaching efficiencies of Ca, and Mg at pH ~ 3 were found in acetate, as 63.55 and 97.35 wt%, respectively. The tREEs, including Y, La, Ce, Pr, and Nd, recovered over 50 wt% for all ligands from the pristine iron slag; acetate, propionate, and butyrate exhibited tREEs recovery yields of 54.92, 51.10, and 53.76 wt%, respectively, while the nitrate only showed 43.46 wt% in the precipitation step. This metal recovery enhancement is due to the distinct solubility of metal species and their co-precipitation behavior with organic ligands depending on pH. CaCO₃ produced with a purity > 93% were mainly controlled as calcite because the high Ca affinity of ligands induces the transformation of unstable CaCO₃ to calcite. Even though the aqueous carbon mineralization process proposed should be further studied for improving process performances and understanding reaction complexity induced by waste streams, this work provides insight for newly establishing the waste-to-supply chain toward a circular carbon economy as well as net-zero CO₂ emissions.

Synopsis

This study provides insight for newly establishing the waste-to-supply chain toward a circular economy as well as net-zero CO₂ emissions.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Sujin Hong: Conceptualization, Validation, Investigation, Writing – original draft. **Seokyeon Moon:** Conceptualization, Validation, Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing, Visualization. **Gyudae Sim:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Data curation. **Young-june Park:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

Author contributions

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supplementary material

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.jcou.2023.102418](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcou.2023.102418).

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