

Journal Article

Optimized composition, structure, and property of a low-carbon bio-rejuvenator for aged asphalt

Zhou, X., Zong, T., Yang, C., Kim, S., Li, L., Chen, M., Ma, Z.

This article is published by Elsevier. The definitive version of this article is available at:
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0950061825050548?via%3Dihub>

Recommended citation:

Zhou, X., Zong, T., Yang, C., Kim, S., Li, L., Chen, M., Ma, Z. (2025), 'Optimized composition, structure, and property of a low-carbon bio-rejuvenator for aged asphalt', *Construction and Building Materials*, vol 506, 144902. doi: 10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2025.144902

1 **Optimized composition, structure, and property of a low-carbon [bio-rejuvenator](#)**
2
3
4 **for aged asphalt**

5
6 **Xinxing Zhou^{1,2,*}, Professor, Ph.D.,**

7
8 1. Institute of Resources and Environmental Engineering, Shanxi University, Taiyuan
9
10
11 030031, China

12
13 2. School of Environmental Science and Engineering, Tianjin University, Tianjin
14
15
16 300350, China

17
18
19 Email: zxx09432338@sxu.edu.cn

20
21
22 **Tianqi Zong¹, Ph.D., Candidate**

23
24 1. Institute of Resources and Environmental Engineering, Shanxi University, Taiyuan
25
26
27 030031, China

28
29
30 Email: zongtianqi1@sxu.edu.cn

31
32
33 **Chunping Yang³, Professor, Ph.D.,**

34
35 3. College of Environmental Science and Engineering, Hainan University, Haikou,
36
37
38 Hainan 570228, China

39
40
41 Email: yangc@hnu.edu.cn

42
43
44 **Seung-Soo Kim⁴, Professor, Ph.D.,**

45
46 4. Department of Chemical Engineering, College of Engineering, Kangwon National
47
48
49 University, Samcheok-Si 25913, Republic of Korea

50
51
52 Email: sskim2008@kangwon.ac.kr

53
54
55 **Linglin Li⁵, Senior Lecturer, Ph.D.,**

56
57 5. Built Environment, Wrexham University, Mold Road, Wrexham
58
59
60 LL11 2AW, Wales, UK

1 24 Email: linglin.li@wrexham.ac.uk

2
3
4 25 **Meizhu Chen⁶, Professor, Ph.D.,**

5
6 26 6.School of Materials Science and Engineering, Wuhan University of Technology,

7
8
9 27 Wuhan, 430070, China

10
11 28 Email:chenmzh@whut.edu.cn

12
13
14 29 **Zhibin Ma^{1,**}, Professor, Ph.D.,**

15
16 30 1.Institute of Resources and Environmental Engineering, Shanxi University, Taiyuan

17
18
19 31 030031, China

20
21 32 Email:mazhibin@sxu.edu.cn

22
23
24 33 *Corresponding author:

25
26
27 34 *Xinxing Zhou, Email:zxx09432338@sxu.edu.cn

28
29
30 35 Present address: Zhanming North Building Room B313, No.63 South central east

31
32
33 36 street, Xiaodian district, Taiyuan, Shanxi Province, China

34
35
36 37 Tel:+86 13513645248

37
38 38 **Zhibin Ma, Email:mazhibin@sxu.edu.cn

39
40
41 39 Present address: Zhanming North Building Room B214, No.63 South central east

42
43
44 40 street, Xiaodian district, Taiyuan, Shanxi Province, China

1 47 **Abstract:** Catalytic liquefaction of waste wood and waste tire rubber was conducted
2
3 48 to produce bio-oil under varying experimental conditions, including liquefaction
4
5
6 49 temperature, retention time, solvent type, and catalyst type. Subsequently, a
7
8
9 50 bio-oil-activated waste tire rubber **rejuvenator**, referred to as a **bio-rejuvenator**
10
11 (BRR), was synthesized by adjusting the bio-oil content and optimizing microwave
12
13 51 treatment parameters. The microwave activation and structure-property regulation
14
15 52 mechanisms of BRR were elucidated. The results indicated that the highest bio-oil
16
17 53 yield and aromatic content were achieved under the following conditions: a waste
18
19 54 wood-to-waste tire rubber ratio of 6:4, a liquefaction temperature of 200 °C, a
20
21 55 residence time of 0.5h, dichloromethane as the solvent, and Al₂O₃ as the catalyst.
22
23 56 Liquefaction temperature had the most significant effect on the structure and
24
25 57 properties of bio-oil, followed by solvent and catalyst type, and finally residence time.
26
27 58 The flash point, aromatics content, and saturates content of BRR are 375-462 °C,
28
29 59 20.1-21.8%, and 16.4-17.9%, respectively, which meet the road application standards.
30
31 60 BRR containing 15-35% bio-oil met the performance requirements for a **rejuvenator**.
32
33 61 The microwave activation mechanism revealed that microwaves can break the S-S
34
35 62 and C-S bonds in waste tire rubber, increasing molecular flexibility. The -OH and
36
37 63 C=O groups in bio-oil can then react with the broken S-S or C-S bonds, forming BRR.
38
39 64 The structure-property regulation mechanism of BRR indicates that waste wood
40
41 65 contributes to higher aromatic and oxygen content, whereas waste tire rubber
42
43 66 increases carbon content and reduces oxygen content. Bio-oil acts as a source of
44
45 67 aromatics and saturates, helping to compatibilize the waste tire rubber, soften it, and
46
47 68

1 69 reduce the viscosity of BRR.
2

3 70 **Keywords:** **Bio-rejuvenator**; Composition optimization; Structure-property
4
5
6 71 regulation mechanism; Waste wood; Waste tire rubber
7

8 9 72 **1. Introduction**

10
11 73 According to statistics, by the end of 2024, China's expressway network had
12
13 74 reached a total length of 190,700 km, with approximately 12% of the network
14
15 75 requiring annual maintenance^[1-2]. The annual generation of reclaimed asphalt
16
17 76 pavement (RAP) is estimated at 20 million tons^[3]. After recycling, this process can
18
19 77 reduce material costs by up to 31.8 billion yuan^[4]. To promote resource conservation
20
21 78 and efficient utilization, the Chinese government has implemented policies to
22
23 79 encourage the recycling and reuse of waste materials, driving a shift in the
24
25 80 transportation sector from prioritizing speed and scale to focusing on quality and
26
27 81 efficiency^[5-7]. By implementing rational strategies, such as recycling RAP using a
28
29 82 **bio-rejuvenator**, significant savings in raw material costs can be achieved^[8-9]. This
30
31 83 effectively minimizes material waste and environmental pollution^[10], positioning RAP
32
33 84 recycling as a cornerstone of sustainable infrastructure development. Extensive
34
35 85 research has been conducted on the recycling of aged asphalt, with proposed
36
37 86 mechanisms broadly categorized into two types: the component compensation
38
39 87 mechanism and the reactive regeneration mechanism^[11-12].
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52

53 88 By the end of 2024, China's stockpile of end-of-life tires had reached
54
55 89 approximately 800 million units, with annual waste tire rubber processing capacity
56
57 90 exceeding 1 million tons^[13-15]. The open burning of discarded tires generates
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1 91 substantial environmental pollution, releasing hazardous compounds such as
2
3 92 polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and dioxins^[16]. To valorize this waste
4
5
6 93 stream, co-pyrolysis of waste tire rubber with waste wood, particularly enzymatic
7
8
9 94 hydrolysis waste wood, has been investigated to produce bio-oil, with studies
10
11
12 95 focusing on the synergistic interactions between the two feedstocks^[17-19]. The
13
14
15 96 distributed activation energy model (DAEM) has been employed to assess the
16
17
18 97 resource recovery potential of end-of-life tire samples during pyrolysis. Notably, the
19
20
21 98 contents of natural rubber, synthetic rubber, and limonene in the resulting pyrolysis
22
23
24 99 oils exhibit strong linear correlations^[20]. However, tire-derived pyrolysis oil suffers
25
26
27 100 from inherent drawbacks, including high viscosity and low hydrogen content, which
28
29
30 101 limit its direct use as a fuel or chemical feedstock^[21-22].

31 102 In recent years, pyrolysis bio-oil derived from waste wood has been extensively
32
33
34 103 investigated as a renewable energy source^[23-26]. A novel method for quantifying
35
36
37 104 exothermicity during the pyrolysis of large wood particles, based on interpolated
38
39
40 105 temperature curves, has also been proposed^[27]. Furthermore, Al₂O₃-based acid
41
42
43 106 leaching residue has been explored as a catalyst for waste wood pyrolysis, with
44
45
46 107 studies revealing that chlorination of the catalyst surface activates Brønsted acid sites,
47
48
49 108 thereby enhancing furfural selectivity^[28]. However, pyrolysis bio-oil is typically
50
51
52 109 characterized by low heating value, high oxygen content, and poor thermal
53
54
55 110 stability^[29-34]. Co-pyrolysis of waste wood and waste tire rubber offers a promising
56
57
58 111 strategy to address these limitations. In this approach, both feedstocks are first
59
60
61 112 comminuted and then subjected to co-liquefaction to produce a upgraded bio-oil.

1 113 Subsequently, the waste tire rubber component is activated by the bio-oil, and the
2
3
4 114 resulting blend is formulated into a bio-rubber rejuvenator (BRR). This is a new
5
6 115 application of bio-oil.
7

8
9 116 As for aged asphalt rejuvenator, they are mainly two kinds:
10
11 117 component-supplementing rejuvenator and reactive rejuvenator^[11].
12

13
14 118 Component-supplementing rejuvenators (e.g., bio-oils, aromatic oils, or softening
15
16
17 119 agents) work by replenishing lost light fractions and improving flexibility. Their
18
19
20 120 advantages include simplicity, low cost, and good compatibility with base materials^[11].
21

22
23 121 However, they may cause excessive softening, poor long-term stability, and limited
24
25 122 restoration of original chemical structure. Reactive rejuvenators (e.g., compounds
26
27
28 123 with epoxide, amine, or silane groups) chemically interact with the aged polymer
29
30
31 124 network, breaking cross-links or forming new bonds, to partially restore molecular
32
33
34 125 integrity. They offer better durability and performance recovery but are often more
35
36 126 expensive, complex to formulate, and may require precise processing conditions^[12]. In
37
38
39 127 summary, component- supplementing types are economical and easy to use but less
40
41
42 128 durable, while reactive types provide superior structural recovery at higher cost and
43
44
45 129 complexity.
46

47
48 130 This BRR not only restores the elasticity of aged asphalt mixtures but also
49
50 131 enhances their toughness, fatigue resistance, and long-term durability^[35-37] ,
51
52
53 132 demonstrating significant potential for sustainable pavement applications^[38-39].
54

55
56 133 Nevertheless, the optimized composition, structure, and property of a low-carbon
57
58
59 134 BRR for aged asphalt remain unclear, which has hindered its broader application.
60
61
62
63
64
65

1 135 To address the aforementioned limitations of BRR, a waste wood- and waste tire
2
3 136 rubber-derived bio-oil-activated rubber-referred to as a BRR-was developed through
4
5
6 137 co-liquefaction followed by microwave activation. Furthermore, the optimized
7
8
9 138 composition, structure, and property of a low-carbon BRR for aged asphalt were
10
11
12 139 investigated using a multi-technique approach, including: molecular simulations,
13
14 140 Fourier infrared spectrometer (FT-IR), gas chromatography-mass spectrometry
15
16
17 141 (GC-MS), gel permeation chromatography (GPC), Fourier Transform Infrared
18
19
20 142 Microscope (FT-IRM), dynamic shear rheometer (DSR), fluorescence microscopic
21
22
23 143 (FM), and X-ray photoelectron spectrometer (XPS).

144 2. Materials and experiments

145 2.1 Raw materials

146 The raw materials consist of waste wood and waste tire rubber. The waste wood
32
33
34 147 is sourced from pine, while the waste tire rubber is derived from the top components
35
36
37 148 of discarded radial tires. The average particle size of the waste tire rubber is 425 μm
38
39
40 149 and the natural rubber content ranges from 15% to 20%. Proximate analysis data for
41
42
43 150 both materials is presented in **Table 1**. As shown in the table, the volatile matter and
44
45
46 151 ash content of the waste wood together account for over 90% of its total mass. In
47
48
49 152 contrast, waste tire rubber exhibits high levels of volatile matter and fixed carbon,
50
51
52 153 which together constitute more than 90% of its total mass.

154 **Table 1.** The proximate analysis of waste wood and waste tire rubber

Type	Ash content	Volatiles	Moisture	Fixed carbon
Waste wood	37.98	52.81	2.29	6.92
Waste tire rubber	9.06	62.14	0.80	28.00

155 2.2 The preparation of bio-oil

156 Waste wood and waste tire rubber were mixed in varying mass ratios (9:1, 8:2,
 157 7:3, 6:4, 5:5) and loaded into a hydrothermal reactor for co-liquefaction. Prior to
 158 co-liquefaction, waste tire rubber was subjected to **microwave** pyrolysis at 350 °C for
 159 2h under nitrogen to partially cleave S-S cross-links. The reaction temperature was
 160 varied from 180 °C to 280 °C in 20 °C increments, and the residence time ranged from
 161 0.5 to 3 h in 0.5 h increments. The solvents tested included distilled water,
 162 dichloromethane, and ethanol, and the catalysts employed were Al₂O₃, CeO₂, MOF,
 163 and C/Pt. The experimental preparation parameters are summarized in **Table 2**.

Table 2. The preparation parameters of bio-oil

Sample	Wood/rubber ratio	Temperature (°C)	Time (h)	Solvent	Catalyst	Yield (%)
S1	9:1	180	0.5	water	Al ₂ O ₃	19.1
S2	8:2	180	0.5	water	Al ₂ O ₃	19.5
S3	7:3	180	0.5	water	Al ₂ O ₃	20.1
S4	6:4	180	0.5	water	Al ₂ O ₃	20.5
S5	5:5	180	0.5	water	Al ₂ O ₃	19.2
S6	6:4	200	0.5	water	Al ₂ O ₃	21.2
S7	6:4	220	0.5	water	Al ₂ O ₃	22.7
S8	6:4	240	0.5	water	Al ₂ O ₃	24.5
S9	6:4	260	0.5	water	Al ₂ O ₃	27.3
S10	6:4	280	0.5	water	Al ₂ O ₃	27.5
S11	6:4	200	1	water	Al ₂ O ₃	22.0
S12	6:4	200	1.5	water	Al ₂ O ₃	23.5
S13	6:4	200	2	water	Al ₂ O ₃	25.2
S14	6:4	200	2.5	water	Al ₂ O ₃	25.9
S15	6:4	200	3	water	Al ₂ O ₃	26.2
S16	6:4	200	0.5	dichloromethane	Al ₂ O ₃	31.2
S17	6:4	200	0.5	ethyl alcohol	Al ₂ O ₃	26.5
S18	6:4	200	0.5	water	CeO ₂	21.3
S19	6:4	200	0.5	water	MOF	21.8
S20	6:4	200	0.5	water	C/Pt	21.5

165 As shown in the table, temperature, solvent, and catalyst significantly affect the
 166 bio-oil yield, whereas the wood/rubber ratio and residence time have only a slight

167 influence. The highest bio-oil yield and aromatic content were achieved under the
 168 following conditions: a waste wood-to-waste tire rubber ratio of 6:4, a liquefaction
 169 temperature of 200 °C, a residence time of 0.5 h, dichloromethane as the solvent, and
 170 Al₂O₃ as the catalyst. Thus, when bio-oil yield is used as the optimization criterion,
 171 these conditions represent the optimal preparation parameters for bio-oil production.

172 2.3 The preparation of BRR

173 Bio-oil was prepared under the optimal conditions identified in Section 2.2. It
 174 was then blended with waste tire rubber at mass fractions of 15-35%, and the mixture
 175 was subjected to microwave treatment to produce bio-oil-activated rubber.
 176 Subsequently, the BRR was formulated by incorporating 20% of this activated rubber
 177 into fresh bio-oil. The preparation parameters for BRR are summarized in **Table 3**.
 178 Microwave activation was performed in a microwave heating system at power levels
 179 of 1000-2000 W for durations of 60-240 s.

180 **Table 3.** The preparation parameters of BRR

Number	Bio-oil content (%)	Microwave power (W)	Microwave time (s)
S21	15	1000	60
S22	20	1000	60
S23	25	1000	60
S24	30	1000	60
S25	35	1000	60
S26	30	1500	60
S27	30	2000	60
S28	30	1000	120
S29	30	1000	180
S30	30	1000	240

181 2.4 The functional groups of BRR

182 The functional groups of the raw materials (waste tire rubber, bio-oil,

1 183 bio-oil-activated rubber, and BRR) were analyzed using Fourier-transform infrared
2
3 184 spectroscopy (FT-IR). Additionally, the changes in functional groups of waste tire
4
5
6 185 rubber were examined before and after microwave activation. Spectra were recorded
7
8
9 186 over a wavenumber range of 400-4000 cm^{-1} with a resolution of 2cm^{-1} and 32 scans
10
11
12 187 per measurement, using attenuated total reflection (ATR) as the sampling mode.

14 188 **2.5 The chemical structure and composition of BRR**

17 189 Twenty milliliters (20 mL) of the BRR solution were added to 40mL of
18
19
20 190 dichloromethane. The mixture was vigorously agitated for 1h, then concentrated to
21
22
23 191 approximately 2 mL using a rotary evaporator, followed by nitrogen purging. The
24
25
26 192 chemical composition and structural features of the BRR were characterized via gas
27
28
29 193 chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS).

31 194 The chemical composition and sulfur valence state of the BRR were
32
33
34 195 characterized using gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) and X-ray
35
36
37 196 photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). GC-MS analysis was conducted with an injector at
38
39
40 197 $290\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, a temperature program from $40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ (2 min hold) to $290\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ at $4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ (20 min
41
42
43 198 final hold), helium carrier gas (1.2mL/min), and MS in EI mode (70eV, ion source
44
45
46 199 $260\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, transfer line $280\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, m/z 50-650, 100 ms/scan). For XPS, samples were
47
48
49 200 sputter-cleaned for 30 min using a 3 keV Ar^+ beam, and both survey (0-1100eV) and
50
51
52 201 high-resolution (C 1s, O 1s, N 1s) spectra were collected in FAT mode without charge
53
54
55 202 neutralization, employing a $200\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ X-ray beam (-50W), 224eV pass energy, 0.4eV
56
57
58 203 step size, 200ms dwell time, 1 sweep, and 2 cycles.

59 204 **2.6 The rheological properties of BRR**

1 205 The rheological properties of the BRR were characterized using a dynamic shear
2
3 206 rheometer (DSR). Specifically:

4
5
6 207 ● High-temperature rheological behavior was evaluated with a 25 mm
7
8 208 parallel-plate rotor system across the temperature range of 30 °C to 80 °C.

9
10
11 209 ● Low-temperature rheological behavior was assessed using an 8 mm
12
13 210 parallel-plate rotor system from -30 °C to 10 °C.

14
15
16
17 211 Additionally, the viscosity-temperature dependency of the BRR was investigated
18
19 212 using a Brookfield Rotational Viscometer, with temperature sweeping from 60 °C to
20
21 213 200 °C.

22 214 **2.7 The microstructure of BRR**

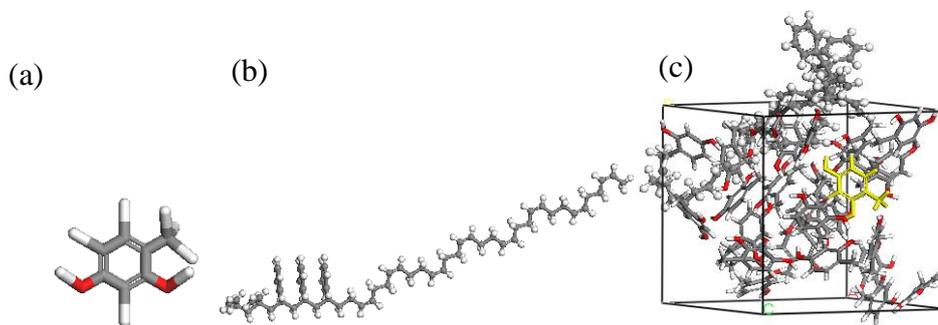
23
24
25
26
27 215 The microstructure of BRR was evaluated by fluorescence microscope and
28
29 216 atomic force microscopy. The magnification times of fluorescence microscope
30
31 217 (Shangguang XP63) selected 50X. The samples of fluorescence microscope were
32
33
34 218 heated to liquid and spread flat on the slide as a film with a thickness of 3 to 5 μm.

35 219 **2.8 Molecular modeling**

36
37 220 Bio-oil was represented by the molecular formula $C_7H_8O_2$, as reported in our
38
39 221 previous study ^[40], while rubber was modeled using C_8H_8 , based on prior research ^[19].

40
41
42 222 The molecular structures of bio-oil and rubber were downloaded from ChemicalBook
43
44 223 in MOL file format. The BRR model comprised 27 bio-oil molecules and 1 rubber
45
46 224 molecule, corresponding to a mass ratio of 80 wt% bio-oil to 20 wt% rubber. The
47
48 225 molecular models of bio-oil, rubber, bio-oil-activated rubber, and BRR are shown in
49
50
51 226 Figure 1. The BRR model was constructed using the Amorphous Cell module with a

1 227 target density of 1.0 g/cm³. The COMPASS force field was employed, and all other
2
3
4 228 simulation parameters were set to the default values of the system.
5
6



229
230 Figure 1. The molecular models of BRR system:(a)bio-oil, (b)rubber, (c)BRR

231 2.9 Molecular simulations

232 The molecular dynamic simulations were performed using Materials Studio 2024
233 software. The initial model was first geometrically optimized to get the stable
234 configuration. In order to achieve the free volume fraction (FFV), radial distribution
235 function (RDF), and Hansen Solubility Parameter (HSP), the NPT and NVT ensemble
236 were used with a 100 ps molecular dynamic simulation. The time step selects 1 fs.
237 The temperature and pressures are 298 k and 1 atm, respectively.

238 The free volume fraction (FFV) reflects the molecular mobility and permeability
239 of the material. In this study, the Connolly surface method was used to calculate FFV.

240 The FFV calculation methods showed as equation (1).

$$241 \quad FFV = \frac{V_f}{V} = \frac{V_f}{V_f + V_{oc}} \quad (1)$$

242 In the formula, V_f and V_{oc} respectively represent the free volume and occupied
243 volume of the model.

244 The radial distribution function (RDF, $g(r)$) can be calculated for either one or
245 two sets of atoms, which is related to the orderliness and arrangement of molecules

1 246 structure. The $g(r)$ represents the change law of density function with distance from
2
3
4 247 reference position, which is the probability parameter of the occurrence of a particular
5
6 248 molecule at a distance from the reference point r . The RDF is calculated by Equation
7
8
9 249 (2).

$$10 \quad g(r) = \frac{1}{\rho 4\pi r^2 \Delta r} \frac{\sum_{j=1}^N \Delta N(r \rightarrow r + \Delta r)}{NT} \quad (2)$$

11
12
13
14
15
16 251 where ρ is the density of the system, r is the distance in the radial direction, Δr is the
17
18
19 252 interval distance, ΔN is the interval number of atoms between the Δr distance, and N
20
21 253 and T are the total number of atoms and total time of the system, respectively.

22
23
24 254 The Hansen Solubility Parameter (HSP) is a predictive framework for solubility
25
26
27 255 based on intramolecular interaction principles. It quantifies molecular properties
28
29
30 256 through three orthogonal dimensions: δ_D (dispersion forces), δ_P (polar forces), and δ_H
31
32 257 (hydrogen bonding capacity). By decomposing substance-solvent interactions into
33
34
35 258 these components, HSP enables systematic prediction of material compatibility and
36
37
38 259 solubility behavior. The Hansen solubility parameter (δ) can be calculated by equation
39
40
41 260 (3).

$$42 \quad \delta^2 = (\delta_D)^2 + (\delta_P)^2 + (\delta_H)^2 \quad (3)$$

43 261 where δ_D , δ_P , and δ_H is the dispersion component, polar component, and hydrogen
44
45
46 262 bond, respectively.
47
48
49 263

50 51 264 **3. Results and discussions**

52 53 54 265 **3.1 Composition optimization of BRR**

55
56
57 266 As shown in **Table 4**, analysis of the fundamental properties of bio-oil reveals
58
59
60 267 that the wood/rubber ratio is the primary influencing factor, exerting a significant

1 268 impact on these properties, followed by co-liquefaction temperature, retention time,
2
3 269 solvent, and finally catalyst. The density, 60 °C viscosity, aromatic content, and
4
5
6 270 saturate content of the bio-oil all decrease with an increasing wood/rubber ratio,
7
8
9 271 whereas the flash point increases under the same condition. Waste tire rubber is rich in
10
11 272 high-molecular-weight aromatic compounds (e.g., styrene-butadiene) and carbon
12
13
14 273 black, yielding viscous, dense, and highly aromatic bio-oil upon liquefaction. In
15
16
17 274 contrast, wood-derived bio-oil consists mainly of lower- molecular-weight
18
19
20 275 oxygenated compounds (e.g., phenols and alcohols) with fewer aromatic rings,
21
22
23 276 leading to reduced density, viscosity, and aromatic content, and a higher flash point,
24
25
26 277 when the wood/rubber ratio increases.

27 278 Similarly, as the co-liquefaction temperature rises, the density, 60°C viscosity,
28
29
30 279 aromatic content, and saturate content decrease, while the flash point increases.
31
32
33 280 Moderate temperature increase (e.g., from 180 °C to 200 °C) enhances cracking and
34
35
36 281 dealkylation reactions, producing lighter molecules that reduce viscosity, density, and
37
38
39 282 aromatics/saturates content, while volatilization of low-boiling compounds raises the
40
41
42 283 flash point. However, excessive temperatures (>240 °C) risk secondary condensation,
43
44
45 284 increasing viscosity. Thus, 200 °C represents an optimal balance.

46
47 285 The Al₂O₃ catalyst can selectively regulate the aromatic content in bio-oil, while
48
49
50 286 the CeO₂ catalyst can selectively control the saturate content. These findings indicate
51
52
53 287 that both the wood/rubber ratio and co-liquefaction temperature significantly affect
54
55
56 288 the fundamental properties of bio-oil. Furthermore, Al₂O₃ and CeO₂ catalysts exhibit
57
58
59 289 selective catalytic effects on specific components in bio-oil. The optimal preparation
60
61
62
63
64
65

parameters are determined as follows: a wood/rubber ratio of 6:4, a co-liquefaction temperature of 200 °C, water as the solvent, and the use of Al₂O₃ catalyst. Al₂O₃ promotes aromatization via its Lewis acid sites, selectively enhancing aromatic content, while CeO₂ favors saturation through redox-mediated hydrogenation. Given that moderate aromatics improve compatibility with aged asphalt, Al₂O₃ was selected as the optimal catalyst for high-performance bio-rubber rejuvenator production.

Table 4. The fundamental properties of bio-oil

Sample	15°C Density (g/cm ³)	60°C Viscosity (mPa.s)	Flash point (°C)	Aromatics (%)	Saturates (%)	Yield (%)
S1	1.15	64.5	325	24.2	26.4	19.1
S2	1.10	67.2	344	23.5	25.8	19.5
S3	1.08	69.5	365	23.1	25.1	20.1
S4	1.02	72.8	376	22.6	23.7	20.5
S5	0.98	75.5	392	22.1	23.5	19.2
S6	1.02	73.2	378	22.5	23.6	21.2
S7	1.01	74.5	379	22.3	23.3	22.7
S8	1.00	75.7	380	22.1	23.2	24.5
S9	0.99	76.9	382	21.8	23.1	27.3
S10	0.97	77.3	383	21.7	22.8	27.5
S11	1.02	72.9	377	22.6	23.7	22.0
S12	1.01	73.0	377	22.6	23.7	23.5
S13	1.00	73.2	378	22.5	23.6	25.2
S14	1.00	73.3	378	22.5	23.6	25.9
S15	1.00	73.4	379	22.5	23.5	26.2
S16	1.02	72.8	376	22.6	23.4	31.2
S17	1.02	72.9	376	22.6	23.4	26.5
S18	1.02	72.9	376	22.6	21.1	21.3
S19	1.02	73.0	377	21.5	23.3	21.8
S20	1.02	73.0	377	22.3	23.3	21.5

As shown in **Table 5**, an analysis of the fundamental properties of the BRR reveals the following: The viscosity (at 60 °C), flash point, and density (at 15 °C) of the BRR decrease with increasing bio-oil content, while both the saturates and aromatics content increase as the bio-oil content rises. Increasing bio-oil content

1 301 reduces viscosity, density, and flash point due to its low-molecular-weight oxygenates
 2
 3 302 and volatile components, while simultaneously increasing saturates and
 4
 5
 6 303 aromatics-partly because lignin-derived phenolics are classified as aromatics and
 7
 8
 9 304 aliphatic oxygenates as saturates in standard compositional analysis.

10
 11 305 With an increase in microwave power, the viscosity and flash point decrease,
 12
 13 306 whereas the density, aromatics content, and saturates content remain virtually
 14
 15
 16 307 unchanged. Similarly, as microwave time increases, the viscosity and flash point
 17
 18
 19 308 exhibit a slight decrease, while the density, aromatics content, and saturates content
 20
 21
 22 309 show almost no variation. Within the studied range (2000 W, 60 s), microwave
 23
 24
 25 310 treatment primarily induces mild thermal effects-slightly reducing viscosity and flash
 26
 27
 28 311 point through heating and volatilization-without significantly altering chemical
 29
 30
 31 312 composition, indicating its role as a physical activation aid rather than a deep
 32
 33
 34 313 chemical modifier. The bio-oil content, not microwave parameters, is the key factor
 35
 36
 37 314 governing the rheological and compositional properties of the BRR.

38
 39 315 **Table 5.** The fundamental properties of BRR

Number	15 °C Density (g/cm ³)	60 °C Viscosity (mPa.s)	Flash point (°C)	Aromatics (%)	Saturates (%)
S21	1.06	225	462	20.1	16.4
S22	1.05	213	438	20.3	16.7
S23	1.03	206	415	20.7	17.1
S24	1.00	186	386	21.2	17.6
S25	0.98	175	380	21.8	17.9
S26	1.00	182	381	21.3	17.8
S27	1.00	178	375	21.3	17.8
S28	1.00	183	383	21.3	17.8
S29	1.00	179	380	21.3	17.8
S30	1.00	176	377	21.3	17.8

58
 59 316 The above results indicate that bio-oil content has a significant impact on the
 60
 61
 62
 63
 64
 65

1 317 fundamental properties of the BRR, whereas microwave power and microwave time
2
3 318 exert almost no discernible effect on these properties. The optimal preparation
4
5
6 319 parameters for the BRR are determined as follows: 30% bio-oil content, 2000 W
7
8
9 320 microwave power, and 60 s microwave duration.

11 321 **3.2 The chemical structure and composition analysis of BRR**

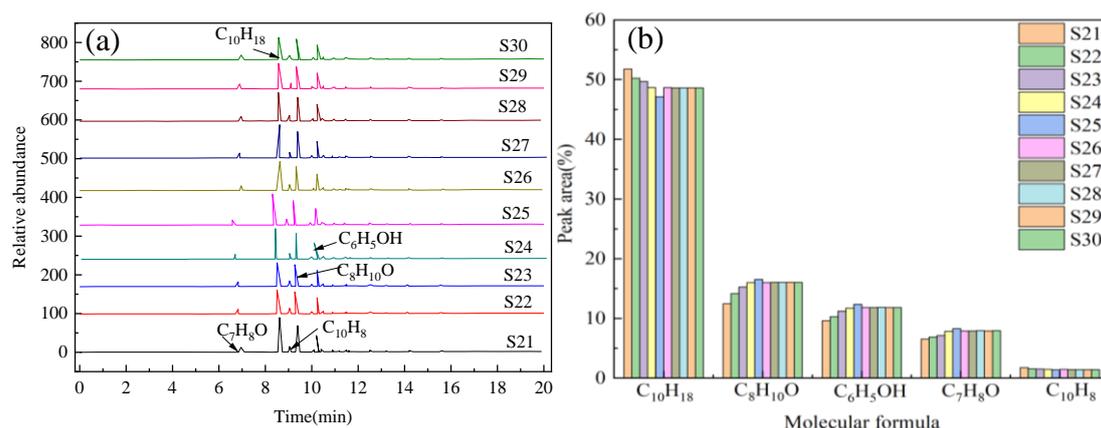
14 322 **3.2.1 The chemical structure analysis of BRR**

17 323 As shown in **Figure 2(a)**, GC-MS analysis of the BRR reveals the presence of
18
19
20 324 guaiacol, furfural, formic acid, levoglucosan, and styrene-butadiene rubber fragments.
21
22 325 Formic acid imparts acidity to the BRR (pH ranging from 3 to 4), which may cause
23
24
25 326 equipment corrosion. Guaiacol exhibits antioxidant properties and possesses a
26
27
28 327 relatively high calorific value. Furfural influences the storage stability of the BRR,
29
30
31 328 while levoglucosan is characterized by high oxygen content, high viscosity, and
32
33
34 329 chemical instability. These results indicate that the BRR is acidic and highly
35
36
37 330 oxygenated. Although its fundamental properties differ from those of base asphalt, it
38
39
40 331 can effectively restore certain performance characteristics of aged asphalt, rendering it
41
42
43 332 suitable as an asphalt rejuvenator.

45 333 As shown in **Figure 2(b)**, with increasing bio-oil content, the relative
46
47
48 334 abundances of $C_{10}H_{18}$ and $C_{10}H_8$ show a decreasing trend, whereas those of $C_8H_{10}O$,
49
50
51 335 C_6H_5OH (phenol) and C_7H_8O exhibit an increasing trend. Quantitative analysis shows
52
53
54 336 that the $C_{10}H_{18}$ content ranges from 47.5% to 52.3%, $C_8H_{10}O$ from 11.2% to 17.3%,
55
56
57 337 C_6H_5OH from 10.0% to 13.4%, C_6H_5OH from 8.5% to 9.3%, and $C_{10}H_8$ from 1.5% to
58
59
60 338 2.0%. This indicates that $C_{10}H_8$ is the dominant component in BRR, while $C_8H_{10}O$,

339 C_6H_5OH (phenol) and C_7H_8O are present at comparable levels, and $C_8H_{10}O$, C_6H_5OH
 340 (phenol) and C_7H_8O is the least abundant. Furthermore, different BRR formulations
 341 exhibit distinct chemical compositions, and bio-oil content significantly affects the
 342 overall chemical profile of BRR.

343 The microwave activation mechanism suggests that microwave irradiation
 344 cleaves the S-S and C-S cross-links in waste tire rubber, thereby enhancing molecular
 345 flexibility. The hydroxyl (-OH) and carbonyl (C=O) groups in bio-oil can
 346 subsequently react with the generated radical sites on the devulcanized rubber,
 347 forming a chemically integrated BRR.



348
 349 **Figure 2.** GC-MS of BRR: (a) GC-MS, (b) peak areas

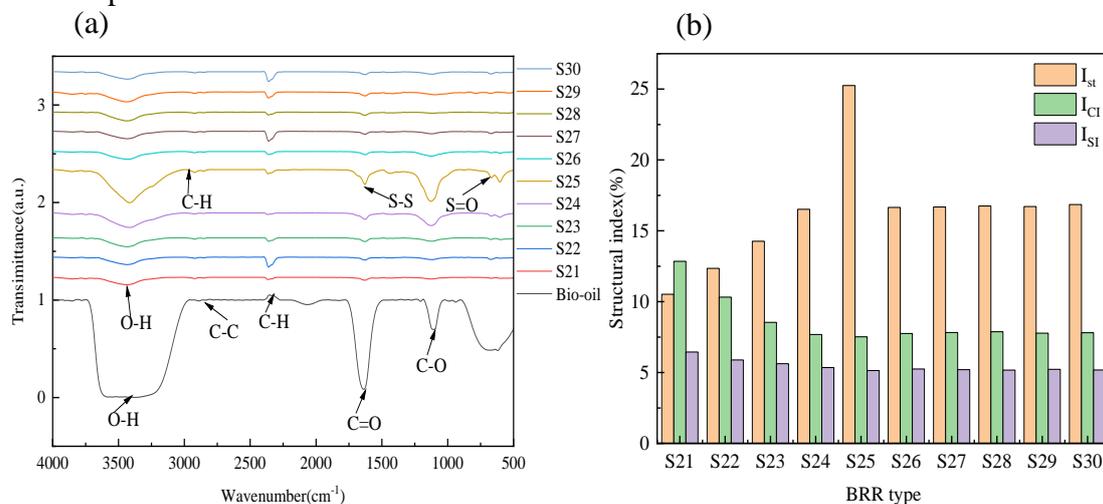
350 3.2.2 The functional groups analysis of BRR

351 As shown in **Figure 3(a)**, the FT-IR spectrum of bio-oil exhibits characteristic
 352 absorption bands corresponding to O-H (hydroxyl), C=O (carbonyl), C-C, and C-H
 353 groups. The spectrum of waste tire rubber shows peaks associated with C-C, C-O-C
 354 (ether), C=O, C-S, C-H, N-H, and -N=C=O (isocyanate) functionalities.

355 The FT-IR spectrum of BRR is dominated by alkyl-related vibrational peaks,
 356 including 2925 cm^{-1} (asymmetric C-H stretching, possibly overlapping with O-H),

357 2860 cm^{-1} (symmetric C-H/C-C stretching), 1455 cm^{-1} (-CH₂- bending), 1378 cm^{-1}
 358 (-CH₃ bending), and 1170 cm^{-1} (C-O stretching). A distinctive aromatic ring vibration
 359 appears at 1600 cm^{-1} . The peaks at 2925 cm^{-1} and 2860 cm^{-1} are also characteristic of
 360 both cyclic and linear alkanes. The strong carbonyl (C=O) absorption at 1740 cm^{-1} in
 361 bio-oil is attributed to oleic acid or other fatty acid derivatives. Additionally, sulfoxide
 362 (S=O) groups give rise to a peak at 1030 cm^{-1} , while the C-S bond appears at 665 cm^{-1} .

363 These results indicate clear structural differences between bio-oil and BRR.
 364 During microwave-assisted preparation of bio-oil-activated rubber, chemical reactions
 365 occur, leading to cleavage of sulfur-containing cross-links (e.g., C-S and S-S bonds)
 366 and formation of new functional groups such as C=O and S=O. This process is
 367 referred to as microwave-induced devulcanization or desulfurization activation.
 368 Although the O - H group observed in BRR originates from bio-oil, its presence does
 369 not necessarily indicate a new chemical reaction. In contrast, when BRR is formulated
 370 by physically blending activated rubber with bio-oil, no further covalent chemical
 371 reactions take place; the resulting material is a composite rather than a chemically
 372 bonded product.



373

1 374 **Figure 3.** FT-IR and structural index of BRR: (a) FT-IR, (b) structural index

2
3 375 To quantitatively characterize the chemical structure difference in BRR, the
4
5
6 376 characteristic peak area indexes of functional groups were evaluated. The
7
8
9 377 characteristic functional groups indexes such as O-H, C=O, C-S, and S=O were pay
10
11
12 378 attention because they can reflect the differences among the various components. The
13
14 379 saturates index, carbonyl index (C=O), and sulfoxide index (S=O) were defined and
15
16
17 380 calculated using peaks areas (A) according to equations (4) to (6).
18

19
20 381 Saturates index:

21
22 382
$$I_{st} = (A_{1235} + A_{1150}) / \sum A \quad (4)$$

23
24
25 383 Carbonyl index:

26
27
28 384
$$I_{CI} = A_{2358} / \sum A \quad (5)$$

29
30
31 385 Sulfoxide index:

32
33
34 386
$$I_{SI} = A_{1340} / \sum A \quad (6)$$

35
36 387 As shown in Figure 3(b), the saturates index, carbonyl index, and sulfoxide index
37
38
39 388 of the BRR exhibit significant differences. The saturates index of BRR increases with
40
41
42 389 higher bio-oil content, whereas both the sulfoxide index and carbonyl index decrease
43
44
45 390 as bio-oil content rises. In contrast, with increasing microwave power and duration,
46
47
48 391 the saturates index and carbonyl index of BRR increase, while the sulfoxide index
49
50
51 392 decreases. These results indicate that bio-oil can promote the formation of saturates
52
53
54 393 and carbonyl groups while inhibiting sulfoxide formation. Additionally, bio-oil can
55
56 394 activate rubber. Overall, bio-oil content, microwave power, and microwave duration
57
58
59 395 all exert an influence on the structural indexes and functional groups of BRR.
60
61
62
63
64
65

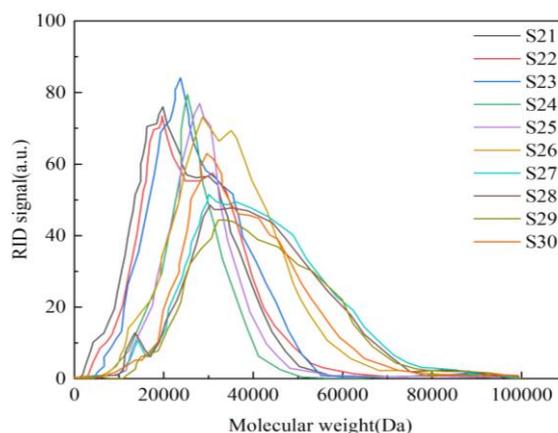
3.2.3 Molecular weight distributions analysis of BRR

The molecular weight distribution of different samples was calculated based on the following theoretical principles. Gel Permeation Chromatography (GPC) operates by separating molecules through porous gel fillers. In this process, larger molecules elute first, characterized by smaller elution volumes, while smaller molecules elute later, with larger elution volumes. By employing standard substances with known molecular weights, such as polystyrene, a calibration curve is constructed between the elution volume (V_e) and molecular weight (M). This calibration curve is typically represented in logarithmic form as: $\lg M = A - BV_e$. Subsequently, the GPC chromatogram of the BRR sample, which plots elution volume against signal intensity, is transformed into a molecular weight distribution curve, depicting molecular weight versus signal intensity, using the established calibration curve. This conversion allows for a quantitative analysis of the relative content of various molecular weight fractions.

The molecular weight distribution of BRR was characterized by gel permeation chromatography (GPC) to evaluate the influence of preparation parameters on its **macro-molecular** structure. As shown in **Figure 4**, larger molecules eluted at shorter retention times, consistent with the size-exclusion mechanism of GPC. The weight-average molecular weight (MW) of BRR exceeded 20,000 Da and increased with higher bio-oil content. Specifically, the peak molecular weight of neat bio-oil was approximately 20,010 Da, whereas that of BRR reached 21,300 Da, indicating that the incorporation of bio-oil into activated rubber resulted in a slight increase in

1 418 overall molecular weight compared to bio-oil alone. Notably, while the average
2
3
4 419 molecular weight increased, the relative abundance of very high-molecular-weight
5
6 420 species (>50,000 Da) decreased with increasing bio-oil content, suggesting a partial
7
8
9 421 depolymerization or homogenization effect.

10
11 422 With increasing microwave power and irradiation duration, the molecular weight
12
13 423 of BRR exhibited only a marginal increase, accompanied by a reduction in the
14
15 424 refractive index detector (RID) signal—likely reflecting changes in sample
16
17 425 concentration or compositional uniformity. Collectively, these results demonstrate that
18
19 426 bio-oil content significantly influences the molecular weight distribution of BRR,
20
21 427 whereas microwave power and treatment duration have negligible effects.



41 428
42
43 429 **Figure 4.** GPC of BRR

44
45 430 As shown in **Figure 5**, Fourier Transform Infrared Microscopy (FT-IRM)
46
47 431 analysis of the BRR reveals significant differences in its FT-IR characteristics. The
48
49 432 differences areas of FT-IR appeared at 2900-3000 cm^{-1} (C-H), 1680-1720 cm^{-1} (C=O),
50
51 433 and 500-1200 cm^{-1} (fingerprint regions). Bio-oil, rich in oxygen-containing functional
52
53 434 groups (e.g., C=O, -OH) and aliphatic chains, introduces distinct FT-IR signals when
54
55 435 blended into rubber. The increased bio-oil content enhances C-H (2900-3000 cm^{-1})
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

1 436 and C=O (1680-1720 cm^{-1}) peaks and alters the fingerprint region (500-1200 cm^{-1}),
2
3 437 reflecting its chemical contribution to the rejuvenator. Even within different regions of
4
5
6 438 the same BRR sample, variations in the FT-IR curves are observed. With increasing
7
8
9 439 bio-oil content, these differences in the FT-IR curves become increasingly pronounced.
10
11 440 In contrast, increasing microwave power or duration results in almost no changes to
12
13
14 441 the FT-IR curves of the BRR. These results indicate that bio-oil content significantly
15
16
17 442 affects the FT-IR characteristics of the BRR, whereas microwave power and duration
18
19
20 443 have only a minor influence on its FT-IR properties.
21

22
23 444 As shown in **Figure 5**, the FT-IRM analysis reveals characteristic peaks at 2930
24
25 445 cm^{-1} (C-H or O-H), 2862 cm^{-1} (C-C), 1740 cm^{-1} (C=O), 1457 cm^{-1} (-CH₂-), 1376 cm^{-1}
26
27
28 446 (-CH₃-), 1168 cm^{-1} (C-O), and 1030 cm^{-1} (S=O). The BRR exhibits distinctive peaks
29
30
31 447 at 2862 cm^{-1} , 1740 cm^{-1} , and 1030 cm^{-1} , which correspond to the presence of
32
33
34 448 unsaturated hydrocarbon groups, sulfoxide groups, and oleic acid, respectively. The
35
36 449 characteristic peak area associated with oleic acid increases with higher bio-oil
37
38
39 450 content. These findings indicate that variations exist in the FT-IR characteristic peaks
40
41
42 451 across different regions of the sample, confirming the occurrence of phase separation
43
44
45 452 within the system. Notably, there are slight differences between the FT-IR and
46
47
48 453 FT-IRM curves. This can be attributed to the fact that conventional FT-IR analyzes a
49
50
51 454 single point, whereas FT-IRM examines an entire surface area.
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

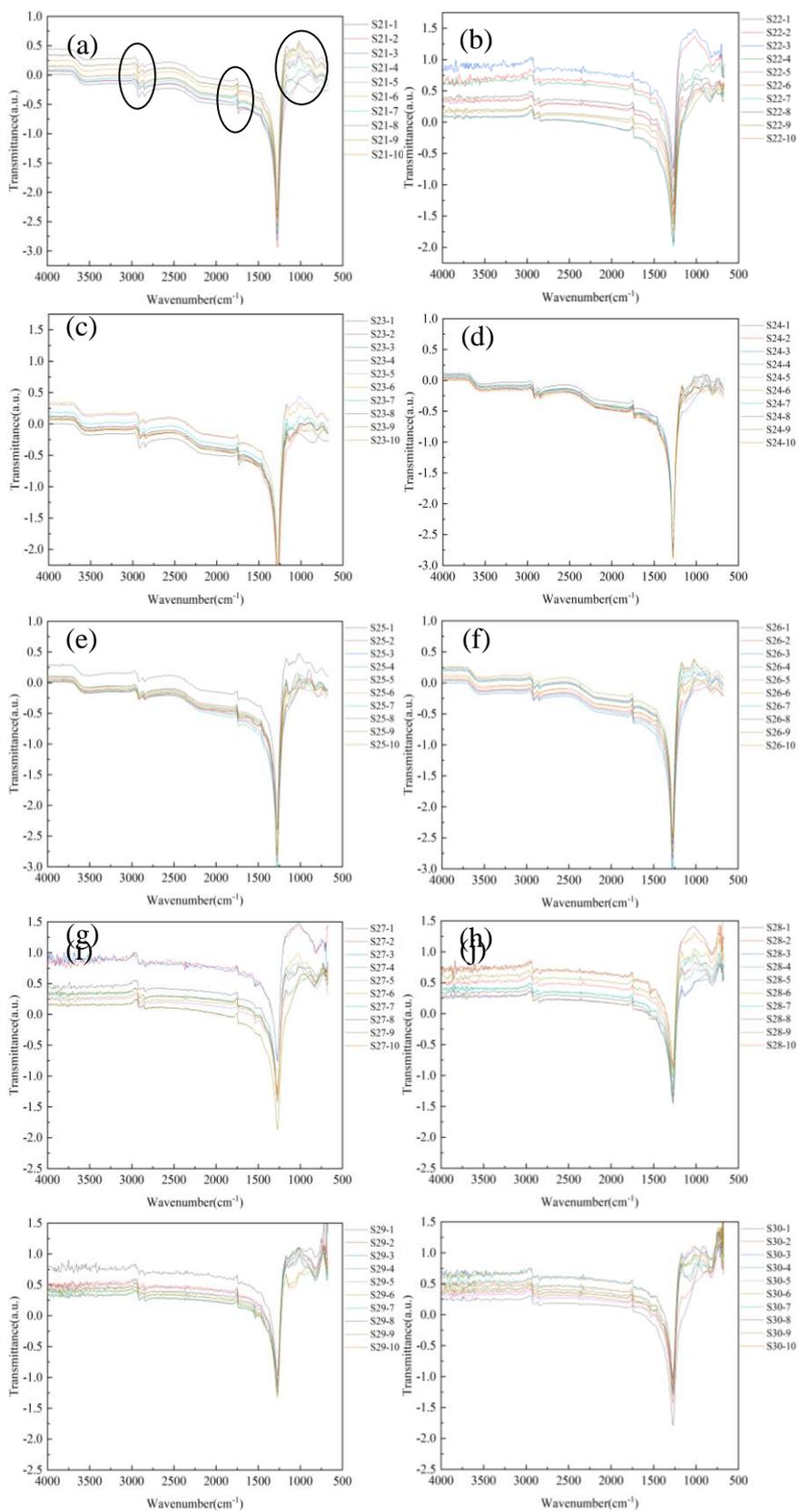


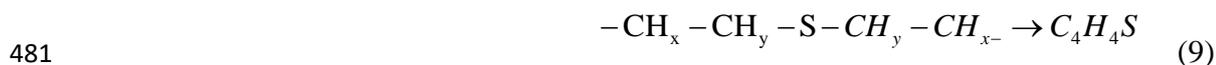
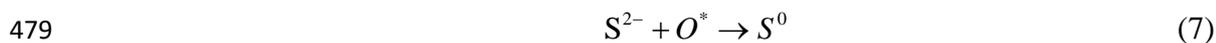
Figure 5. FT-IRM of BRR: (a)S21, (b)S22, (c)S23, (d)S24, (e)S25, (f)S26, (g)S27,

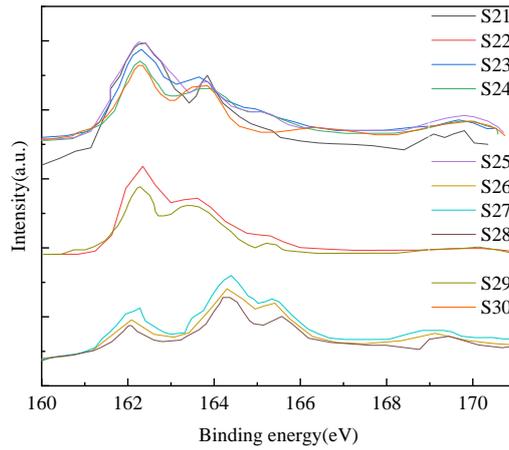
(h)S28, (i)S29, (j)S30

3.2.4 The sulfur transformation of BRR

To elucidate the sulfur transformation mechanism, X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) was employed to characterize the valence states of sulfur on the surface of the BRR. As illustrated in **Figure 6**, sulfur in the BRR (S21) existed in the forms of sulfate, sulfoxide, aliphatic sulfur, and sulfide. After the incorporation of bio-oil, the total content of sulfoxide and aliphatic sulfur in the BRR (S22) increased significantly, whereas the sulfide content decreased. Furthermore, in the BRR (S26), aliphatic sulfur was no longer detected, and thiophenic/elemental sulfur was generated instead—this phenomenon indicates that microwave power enhances the activation of rubber.

Based on the above results, the sulfur transformation mechanism during hydrothermal liquefaction is described by Equations (7) to (9). First, oxygen species (O^*) in waste wood can oxidize sulfides into elemental sulfur. Subsequently, the elemental sulfur further reacts with carbon to form organic sulfur (C-S). When the microwave power is further increased to 1500 W, aliphatic sulfur is converted into thiophenic sulfur; this is attributed to the fact that high microwave power facilitates the occurrence of cyclization reactions.



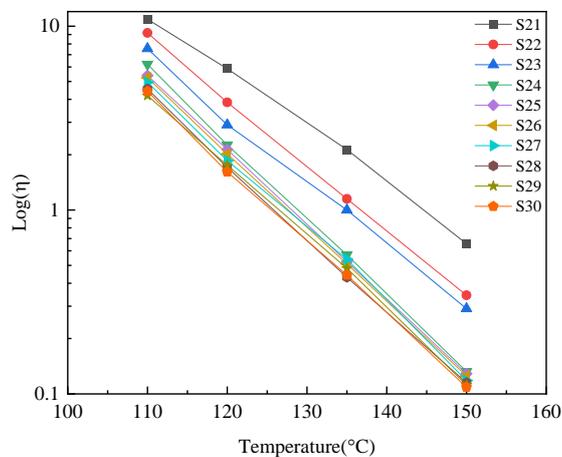


482
483 **Figure 6. XPS of BRR**

484 **3.3 The rheological properties analysis of BRR**

485 **3.3.1 Viscosity-temperature curves analysis of BRR**

486 As shown in **Figure 7**, the viscosity of BRR decreases monotonically with both
 487 increasing bio-oil content and temperature. The viscosity–temperature profiles exhibit
 488 strong non-linearity, characteristic of thermorheologically complex fluids. Among the
 489 tested formulations (S24, S26–S30), variations in microwave power and irradiation
 490 duration induce only minor shifts in these profiles. Collectively, these findings
 491 confirm that BRR displays significant temperature-dependent rheological behavior,
 492 with bio-oil content being the dominant factor governing its thermal sensitivity.



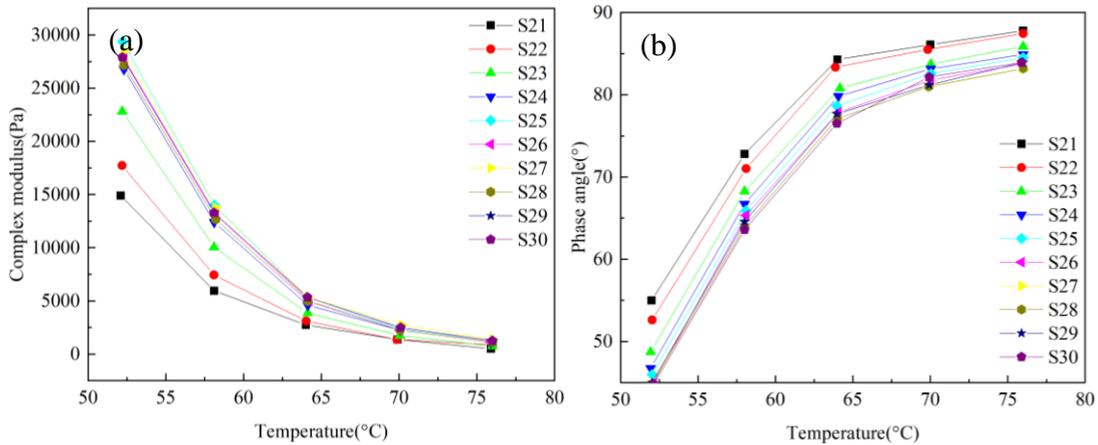
493
494 **Figure 7. The viscosity-temperature curves of BRR**

3.3.2 The high temperature rheological properties analysis of BRR

As illustrated in **Figure 8(a)**, the high-temperature rheological properties of BRR show that its complex modulus decreases with increasing test temperature and bio-oil content. The complex modulus also declines slightly with higher microwave power and longer irradiation duration; however, the influence of these microwave parameters is considerably weaker than that of temperature and bio-oil content.

This behavior stems from the fact that bio-oil content fundamentally alters the chemical composition, molecular structure, and overall properties of BRR, whereas microwave treatment primarily induces limited modifications to the rubber's functional groups or cross-link density. Consistent with this, the complex modulus exhibits only minor changes with increasing microwave power and duration. These results indicate that bio-oil significantly governs the high-temperature rheological response of BRR, while microwave parameters exert only a marginal effect. Overall, the bio-rubber rejuvenator behaves as a temperature-sensitive material, and its thermal sensitivity is strongly modulated by bio-oil content.

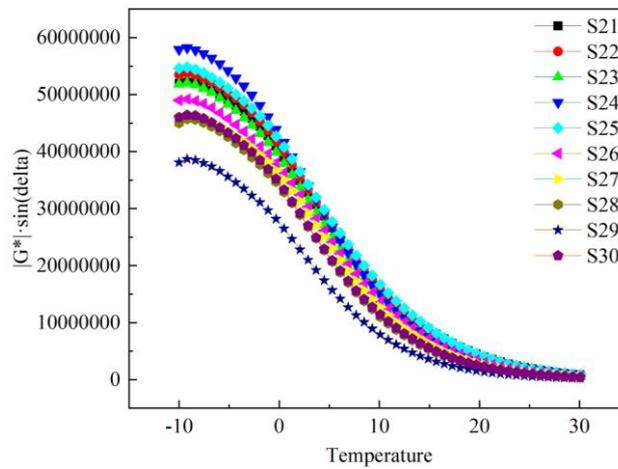
As shown in **Figure 8(b)**, the phase angle of BRR increases with rising test temperature and higher bio-oil content, and it also shows a slight upward trend with increased microwave power and irradiation time. These findings confirm that temperature and bio-oil content are the dominant factors influencing the phase angle, whereas microwave parameters play a secondary role. Notably, no abrupt transitions or discontinuities are observed in the phase angle curves, suggesting the absence of phase separation and good compatibility among the constituents of BRR.



517
518 **Figure 8.** The temperature scanning curves of BRR: (a)complex modulus, (b)phase
519 angle

520 3.3.3 The low temperature rheological properties analysis of BRR

521 As shown in **Figure 9**, the low-temperature cracking resistance of BRR increases
522 with rising bio-oil content. Microwave power and irradiation duration also contribute
523 to a modest improvement in this property. Collectively, these findings demonstrate
524 that bio-oil is the primary factor governing the low-temperature rheological
525 performance of BRR, effectively enhancing its anti-cracking capability, while
526 microwave parameters exert only a secondary influence.

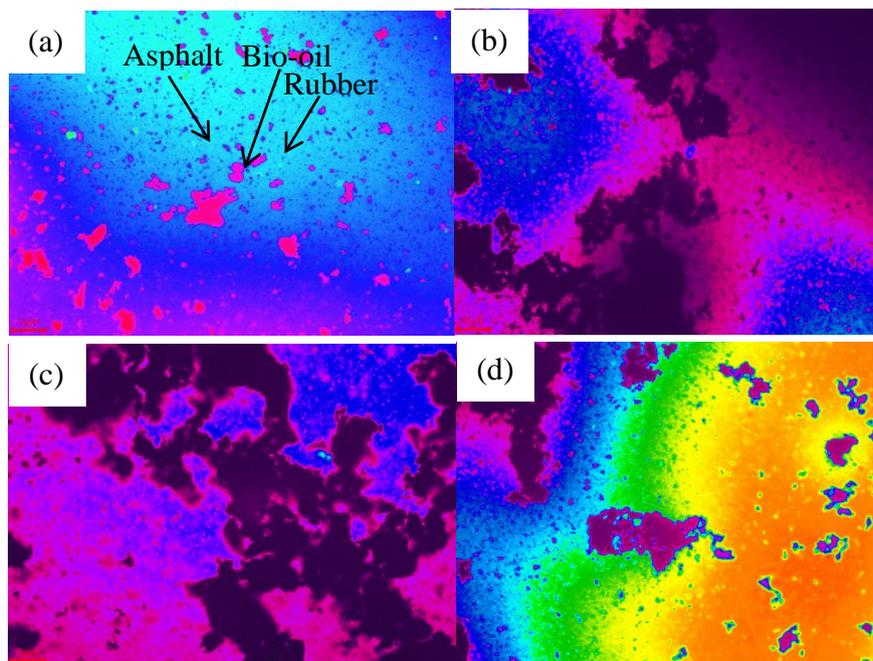


527
528 **Figure 9.** The low temperature anti-cracking factor of BRR

529 3.4 The microstructure analysis of BRR

1 530 **3.4.1 The fluorescence microscopic morphology analysis of BRR**

2
3 531 As shown in **Figure 10**, fluorescence microscopy revealed distinct
4
5
6 532 morphological features in BRR: Blue-emitting regions correspond to fluorescent
7
8
9 533 components, whereas dark areas represent non-fluorescent phases. The fluorescence
10
11
12 534 intensity shows a strong positive correlation with bio-oil content ($R^2 = 0.97$),
13
14 535 confirming that bio-oil contains intrinsic fluorescent moieties that enhance the overall
15
16 536 luminescence. Although microwave treatment (1000–2000 W, 60–240 s) induced
17
18
19
20 537 minor intensity variations (<8%), statistical analysis ($p > 0.05$) confirmed that
21
22 538 microwave parameters have a negligible effect compared to bio-oil composition.
23
24
25 539 These findings indicate that bio-oil content is the primary determinant of the
26
27
28 540 fluorescence performance of BRR, governed by its native chromophores, while
29
30
31 541 microwave processing offers a secondary means of fine-tuning the photoluminescent
32
33
34 542 properties through combined control of bio-oil formulation and microwave exposure.



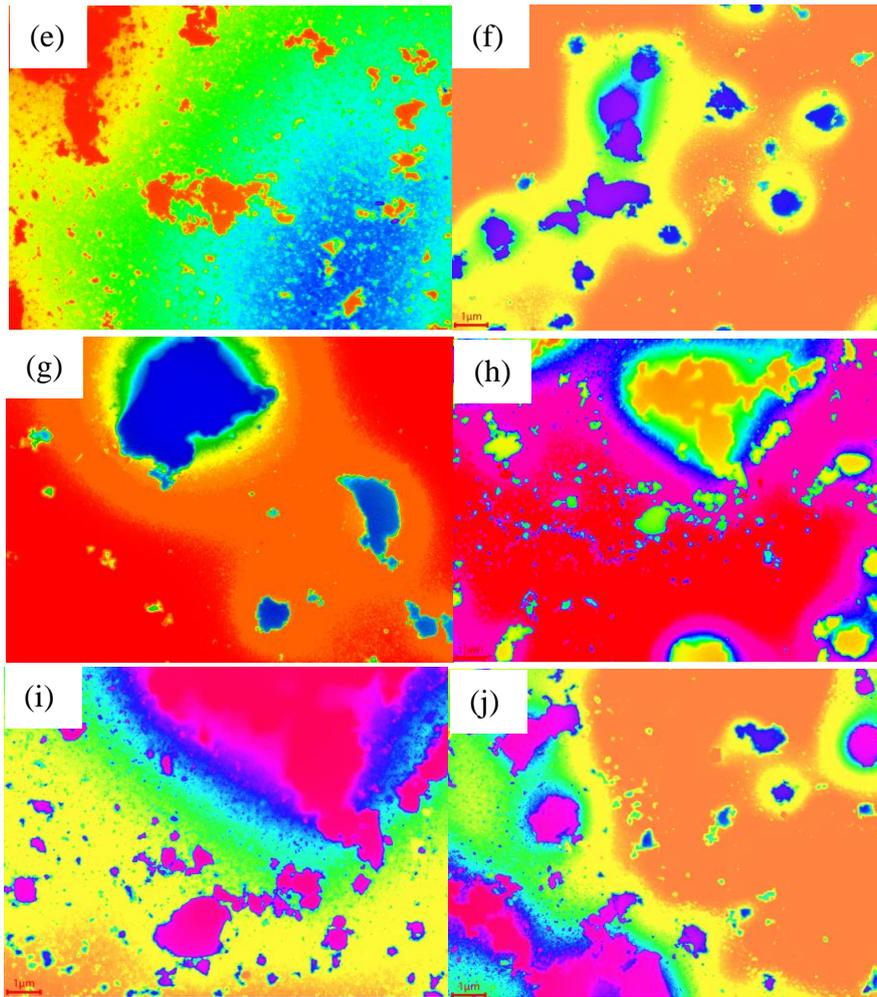


Figure 10. The fluorescence microscopic morphology of BRR: (a)S21, (b)S22, (c)S23, (d)S24, (e)S25, (f)S26, (g)S27, (h)S28, (i)S29, (j)S30

3.4.2 The free volume fraction analysis of BRR

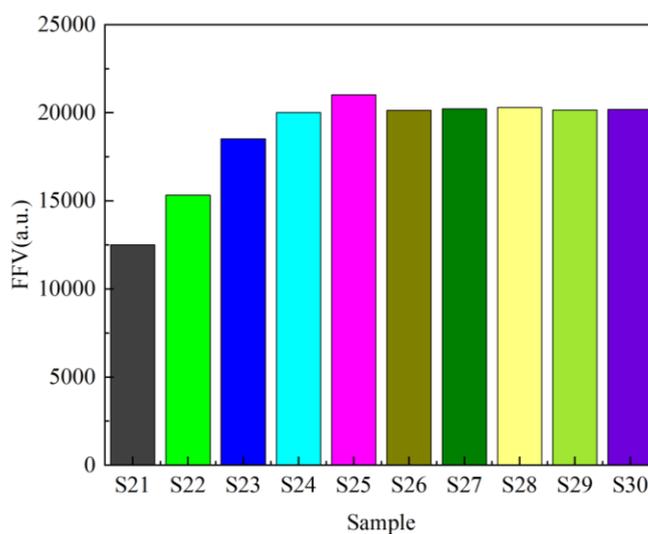
As illustrated in **Figure 11**, the free volume fraction (FFV) of BRR exhibits distinct dependencies on composition and processing conditions: FFV increases monotonically with bio-oil content (15–35%), rising by approximately 1.2 percentage points for every 1% increase in bio-oil. In contrast, FFV decreases exponentially with increasing microwave power (1000–2000 W) and irradiation time (60–240 s) ($R^2 = 0.96$).

This positive correlation between FFV and molecular mobility is corroborated by

1 558 dynamic mechanical analysis, which shows that higher FFV values (>15%) are
2
3
4 559 associated with a 40% reduction in the activation energy for segmental motion ($E_a =$
5
6 560 25 ± 3 kJ/mol at FFV = 18% versus $E_a = 42 \pm 5$ kJ/mol at FFV = 12%).

7
8
9 561 These observations can be attributed to two competing mechanisms: (1) the
10
11
12 562 incorporation of bio-oil introduces low-viscosity components (viscosity $\eta \approx 0.08$ Pa·s
13
14 563 at 160 °C), which expand the amorphous domains and increase free volume; and (2)
15
16
17 564 microwave irradiation induces cleavage of S–S cross-links (as confirmed by FT-IR)
18
19
20 565 and chain scission, thereby reducing intermolecular spacing.

21
22
23 566 Collectively, these results demonstrate that while bio-oil enhances molecular
24
25
26 567 mobility through plasticization, microwave treatment enables precise control over
27
28
29 568 mobility via structural modification—allowing for tailored adjustment of BRR’s
30
31 569 rheological properties.



32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52 **Figure 11.** The FFV of BRR

53 54 572 **3.4.3 The radial distribution function analysis of BRR**

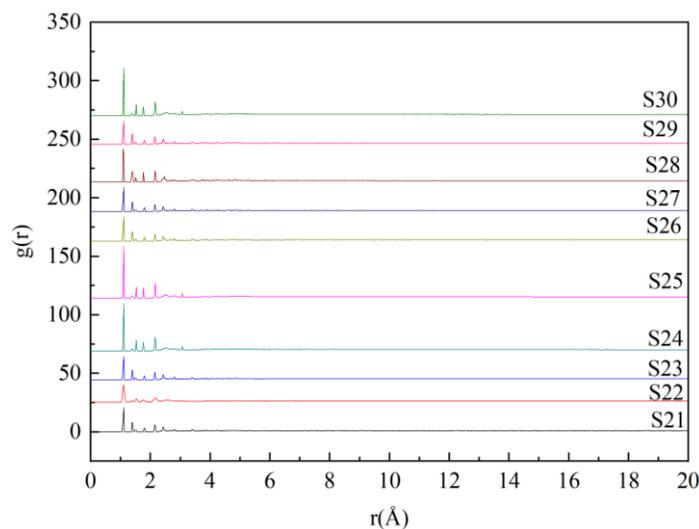
55
56
57 573 As illustrated in **Figure 12**, the radial distribution function (RDF) of BRR
58
59
60 574 displays three characteristic peaks: the first corresponds to the nearest-neighbor

1 575 coordination shell, the second to the secondary shell, and the third to medium-range
2
3 576 structural ordering. The overall RDF profile is sensitive to variations in bio-oil
4
5
6 577 content, microwave power, and irradiation duration.
7

8
9 578 Specifically, the position of the first RDF peak shifts to higher inter-atomic
10
11 579 distances with increasing bio-oil content, indicating disruption of short-range order. In
12
13
14 580 contrast, this peak remains essentially unchanged with increasing microwave power
15
16
17 581 and duration, suggesting that microwave treatment has negligible impact on the
18
19
20 582 nearest-neighbor structure.
21

22
23 583 The second peak exhibits only minor variations under all tested conditions,
24
25 584 implying that neither bio-oil incorporation nor microwave parameters significantly
26
27
28 585 alter the intermediate-range local packing.
29

30
31 586 Meanwhile, the third peak becomes progressively broader and less pronounced
32
33
34 587 as bio-oil content, microwave power, and irradiation time increase, reflecting a loss of
35
36 588 medium- to long-range structural coherence. Collectively, these results demonstrate
37
38
39 589 that bio-oil primarily governs the short-range disorder in BRR, while both bio-oil and
40
41
42 590 microwave processing contribute to the degradation of longer-range structural order.
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65



591
592 **Figure 12.** The RDF of BRR

593 3.4.4 The Hansen solubility parameter (HSP) analysis of BRR

594 As shown in **Figure 13**, Hansen solubility parameter (HSP) analysis reveals that
 595 the HSP of BRR is influenced by bio-oil content, microwave power, and irradiation
 596 duration. Specifically, increasing bio-oil content raises the total HSP (δ) of BRR and
 597 significantly reduces the HSP distance (Ra) relative to the base rubber, indicating
 598 improved compatibility between the bio-oil rejuvenator and the aged rubber matrix. In
 599 contrast, variations in microwave power and duration induce only marginal increases
 600 in δ and cause negligible changes in Ra . These findings suggest that while bio-oil
 601 plays a dominant role in enhancing interfacial compatibility, microwave treatment
 602 exerts minimal influence on the thermodynamic miscibility of BRR components.

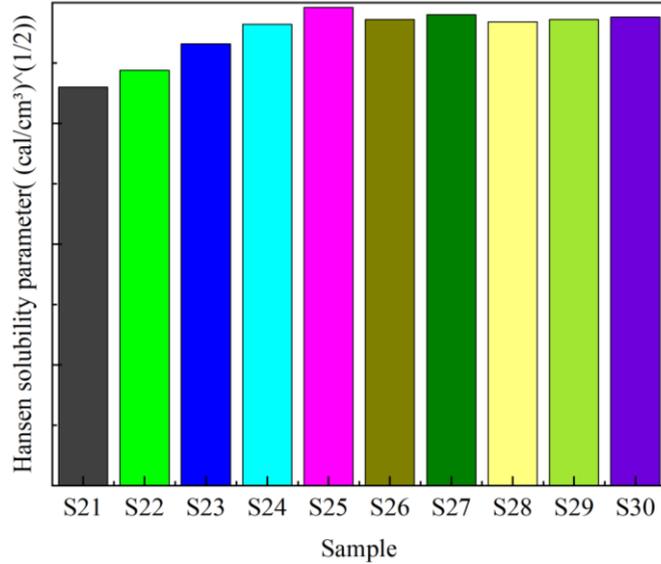


Figure 13. The Hansen solubility parameter (HSP) of BRR

3.5 The fundamental properties analysis of bio-rubber rejuvenator regenerated aged asphalt

As shown in **Table 6**, the fundamental properties of bio-rubber rejuvenator regenerated aged asphalt (BRRAA)—including penetration, softening point, and ductility—all satisfy the specification requirements for 70# asphalt. Specifically, increasing bio-oil content leads to a gradual increase in both penetration and ductility, while the softening point decreases correspondingly. This behavior stems from the plasticizing effect of bio-oil, which softens the aged asphalt matrix and improves its low-temperature deformability. Additionally, BRRAA exhibits a viscosity in the range of 1500-2500 mPa·s and an elastic recovery exceeding 60%, both of which comply with the performance criteria for regenerated asphalt binders.

In contrast, variations in microwave power and irradiation time induce only minor changes in these key indicators. These results indicate that bio-oil content is the dominant factor governing the fundamental properties of BRRAA, whereas

microwave parameters exert only a secondary influence. Overall, the BRRAA formulation meets all relevant specifications for high-quality regenerated asphalt.

Table 6. The fundamental properties of BRRAA

Material	Penetration (25 °C, 0.1 mm)	Softening point (°C)	Ductility (15 °C, cm)	Viscosity (135 °C, mPa·s)	Elastic recovery (25 °C, %)
70# asphalt	60-80	≥46	≥100	≤3000	< 20
BRRAA-1	75	58	108	1501	69
BRRAA-2	71	55	125	1520	72
BRRAA-3	68	52	139	1600	75
BRRAA-4	63	49	145	1840	78
BRRAA-5	61	47	>150	1950	85
BRRAA-6	62	48	147	1890	81
BRRAA-7	61	46	149	2010	83
BRRAA-8	63	48	146	1860	80
BRRAA-9	62	48	147	1880	81
BRRAA-10	62	47	148	1900	82

3.6 The life cycle environmental impact assessment analysis of BRRAA

3.6.1 Goal and scope definition

This study conducted a comprehensive life cycle assessment (LCA) to evaluate the environmental performance of BRRAA. The primary objective was to provide evidence-based guidance for stakeholders considering BRRAA implementation in sustainable road construction. As illustrated in **Figure 14**, the system boundaries and functional unit were established following ISO 14040/44 standards.

The cradle-to-gate LCA framework encompassed four key stages: raw material acquisition and transportation (including biomass collection and waste tire recycling), BRR production and delivery, pavement construction (spreading and compaction), and end-of-life management (millings disposal or recycling). The functional unit was defined as 1km of BRRAA using regenerated 70# base asphalt. The optimal BRRAA

634 formulation, determined through prior experimental optimization (30% bio-oil content,
 635 2000 W microwave treatment for 60 s), was applied in the regeneration of aged 70#
 636 asphalt to ensure representative environmental performance evaluation. Energy and
 637 Emission Calculation: Total energy consumption was determined by integrating the
 638 power demand of microwave heating, mixing, and auxiliary equipment over the
 639 processing time. Greenhouse gas emissions were derived by converting energy use
 640 into CO₂ equivalents using China's national grid emission factor, supplemented by
 641 upstream emissions from bio-oil and rubber powder production sourced from
 642 published LCA studies.



643
644 **Figure 14.** The boundaries conditions and functional unit of BRRAA

645 3.6.2 Life cycle inventory analysis

646 The inventory data collected for the LCA is categorized into primary and
 647 secondary data. Primary data is derived from calculations based on case studies in the
 648 relevant industry, representing the most up-to-date and accurate information.
 649 Secondary data is sourced from existing authoritative studies. The major indicators for

650 Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA) include Global Warming Potential (GWP),
 651 Eutrophication Potential (EP), Photochemical Ozone Creation Potential (POCP), and
 652 Acidification Potential (AP). According to the conversion results of the life cycle
 653 inventory, the LCIA indicators for pollution emissions are presented in **Table 7**.

654 **Table 7.** Environmental impact categories and characterized factors

Impact category	Characteristic indicator	Pollution	Equivalent factor
GWP	CO ₂	CO ₂	1
		CH ₄	25
		N ₂ O	298
EP	NO ₃ ⁻	NO _x	1.35
POCP	CH ₄	CH ₄	0.007
		CO ₂	0.03
AP	SO ₂	SO ₂	1
		NO _x	0.7

655 Based on the statistical data presented above, the life-cycle energy consumption
 656 and gas emissions of BRRAA were calculated, with the results shown in **Table 8**. The
 657 trends for energy consumption, CO₂, N₂O, CO, SO₂, and NO_x emissions of BRRAA
 658 are consistent, following the order I>II>III>IV>V. However, the trends for CH₄ and
 659 CO₂ differ entirely, with CH₄ following the order I<II<II<IV<V.

660 **Table 8.** The energy consumption and gas emissions of BRRAA

Materials	Energy consumption (MJ)	CO ₂ (kg)	CH ₄ (kg)	N ₂ O (kg)	CO (kg)	SO ₂ (kg)	NO _x (kg)
I	1.95*10 ⁷	1.89*10 ⁵	2.28*10 ¹	7.11	1.25*10 ³	1.45*10 ³	3.05*10 ²
II	1.89*10 ⁶	1.59*10 ⁵	3.15*10 ¹	6.28	8.38*10 ²	8.48*10 ²	2.48*10 ²
III	1.65*10 ⁶	1.42*10 ⁵	3.26*10 ¹	5.25	6.25*10 ²	6.35*10 ²	2.05*10 ²
IV	1.48*10 ⁶	1.35*10 ⁵	3.35*10 ¹	4.32	4.38*10 ²	4.68*10 ²	1.89*10 ²
V	1.23*10 ⁶	1.29*10 ⁵	3.42*10 ¹	3.58	3.69*10 ²	3.79*10 ²	1.72*10 ²

661 Typically, CO₂ emissions are the highest (10⁵ kg), dominating the overall gas
 662 emissions, while N₂O emissions are the lowest (10⁰ kg), exerting the least impact. The

663 order of gas emission volumes is $\text{CO}_2 > \text{SO}_2 > \text{CO} > \text{NO}_x > \text{CH}_4 > \text{N}_2\text{O}$. This indicates
 664 that the energy consumption of BRRAA is lower than that of base asphalt; the trends
 665 for most gas emissions are similar, except for CH_4 , whose emission trend is opposite.
 666 Furthermore, CO_2 , SO_2 , and CO dominate the gas emissions during the life-cycle
 667 assessment process, whereas CH_4 emissions have almost no impact on the overall gas
 668 emissions throughout the entire life-cycle assessment.

669 As shown in **Table 9**, the GWP trend of BRRAA is $\text{IV} < \text{III} < \text{V} < \text{II} < \text{I}$, while
 670 the EP trend of BRRAA is $\text{III} < \text{IV} < \text{V} < \text{II} < \text{I}$. Both POCP and AP of BRRAA
 671 exhibit the same trend: $\text{IV} < \text{V} < \text{III} < \text{II} < \text{I}$. The environmental indicators of BRR (I,
 672 II) are bigger than those of BRRAA (III, IV, V), indicating that BRRAA offer
 673 significant environmental advantages when used for high bio-oil content compared to
 674 conventional base asphalt. When considering only the emission equivalent mass,
 675 GWP is the most critical impact category in the LCA process. With the same binder (I
 676 and II), increasing the bio-oil content by 5% reduces GWP by 15%, indicating that the
 677 efficient utilization of bio-rubber rejuvenator can effectively mitigate global warming.
 678 However, the POCP and AP of BRRAA are reduced by an average of 20% and 25%,
 679 respectively, compared to base asphalt pavement, indicating a significant effect of
 680 BRRAA in reducing photochemical smog and Acidification.

681 **Table 9.** The LCA of BRRAA

Pavement type	GWP (kg)	EP (kg)	POCP (kg)	AP (kg)
I	$1.62 \cdot 10^5$	$4.02 \cdot 10^2$	$3.56 \cdot 10^1$	$1.45 \cdot 10^3$
II	$1.05 \cdot 10^5$	$2.25 \cdot 10^2$	$2.68 \cdot 10^1$	$9.59 \cdot 10^2$
III	$6.33 \cdot 10^4$	$1.62 \cdot 10^2$	$1.42 \cdot 10^1$	$5.32 \cdot 10^2$
IV	$6.19 \cdot 10^4$	$2.12 \cdot 10^2$	$7.89 \cdot 10^0$	$2.26 \cdot 10^2$
V	$6.38 \cdot 10^4$	$2.18 \cdot 10^2$	$7.92 \cdot 10^0$	$2.31 \cdot 10^2$

682 4. Conclusions

683 This study investigated the composition optimization and structure-property
684 regulation of low-carbon **bio-rejuvenator** for aged asphalt. The key conclusions are
685 as follows:

- 686 ● The optimal preparation conditions for bio-oil are a waste wood-to-waste tire
687 rubber ratio of 6:4, a co-liquefaction temperature of 200 °C, dichloromethane as
688 the solvent, and Al₂O₃ as the catalyst. For the BRR, the optimal formulation
689 comprises 30% bio-oil by weight, with microwave activation performed at
690 2000 W for 60 s.
- 691 ● The BRR exhibits temperature-sensitive behavior, with its sensitivity strongly
692 dependent on bio-oil content. Bio-oil significantly influences the rheological
693 properties of the BRR, whereas microwave power and irradiation duration exert
694 only minor effects.
- 695 ● Bio-oil enhances molecular mobility within the BRR matrix. In contrast,
696 excessive microwave power and prolonged irradiation may promote cross-linking,
697 thereby restricting molecular motion. Furthermore, all three parameters, bio-oil
698 content, microwave power, and irradiation time, affect the long-range structural
699 disorder of the BRR.
- 700 ● The BRRAA demonstrates lower energy consumption during production
701 compared to conventional base asphalt. Moreover, the effective utilization of
702 BRR contributes to reduced greenhouse gas emissions, offering potential
703 environmental benefits in mitigating climate change.

1 704 **Acknowledgments**

2
3 705 This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China
4
5
6 706 (No. 52378456), the National Natural Science Foundation of China International
7
8
9 707 (Regional) Cooperation and Exchange Program (No. W2421062), the Shanxi Sanjin
10
11
12 708 Youth Top Talent Project (SJYC2024308) and the Special Foundation of
13
14
15 709 Achievements Transformation Guide of Department of Science and Technology of
16
17
18 710 Shanxi Province (No.202204021301075).

19
20 711 **References**

- 21
22 712 [1] P. Bai, Z. Ma, L. Tian, Can government intervention correct and adjust resource
23
24
25 713 misallocation of infrastructure: Evidence from toll expressway of China,
26
27
28 714 Transportation Research Interdisciplinary Perspectives. 33 (2025) 101629.
- 29
30 715 [2] Z. Zhou, X. Yu, Y. Gao, W. Liu, Cost-effective optimization system for automated
31
32
33 716 asphalt pavement maintenance, Automation in Construction. 177 (2025) 106333.
- 34
35
36 717 [3] K. Tsubasa, H. Kazuyoshi, Effect of privatizing Japanese expressway companies
37
38
39 718 on maintenance and management efficiency, Transport Economics and Management.
40
41
42 719 3 (2025) 290-301.
- 43
44
45 720 [4] L. Zhang, R. Shi, J. Ning, L. Jia, K. Lee, RAMS assessment methodology for road
46
47
48 721 transport self-contained energy systems considering source-load dual uncertainty,
49
50
51 722 Renewable Energy. 239 (2025) 122096.
- 52
53 723 [5] S. Dong, Y. Tong, Z. Wan, C. Zuo, J. Luo, Z. Cui, H. Wang, Z. Dai,
54
55
56 724 Multi-objective maintenance and rehabilitation decision-making modelling for
57
58
59 725 highway networks: balancing economy, environment, and maintenance benefits,

1 726 Transportmetrica A Transport Science. 32 (2025) 2507898. DOI:10.1080/23249935.
2
3 727 2025.2507898
4
5
6 728 [6] J. Ou, J. Zhang, H. Li, B. Duan, Road damage prediction and intelligent
7
8
9 729 maintenance methods based on stacking ensemble learning, Advanced Engineering
10
11 730 Informatics. 66 (2025) 103466.
12
13
14 731 [7] X. Yu, X. Lan, Z. Zhou, X. Nie, Effects of different dosages of iron ore tailings on
15
16
17 732 the fatigue performance of high-strength modified AC asphalt mixtures, Construction
18
19
20 733 and Building Materials. 494 (2025) 143367.
21
22
23 734 [8] Y. Sun, F. Zhang, D. Wang, W. Chen, F. Augusto, Study on the multiple recycling
24
25
26 735 limit of asphalt binders containing high RAP content based on chemical and
27
28
29 736 rheological properties, Fuel. 405 (2026) 136708.
30
31
32 737 [9] Y. Fan, H. Yu, Y. Zhou, R. Yang, J. Yang, W. Huang, Fracture characteristics and
33
34
35 738 fracture surface recognition of epoxy-recycled mixtures with high reclaimed asphalt
36
37
38 739 pavement (RAP) content toughened by SBS/CR-CSR, Theoretical and Applied
39
40
41 740 Fracture Mechanics. 139 (2025) 105087.
42
43
44 741 [10] Y. Zhang, J. Li, T. Ma, H. Liu, C. Chen, J. Hao, Cold recycled mixtures prepared
45
46
47 742 with finely separated RAP aggregates and modified emulsified asphalt: Adhesive
48
49
50 743 performance and interface fusion characteristics, Construction and Building Materials.
51
52
53 744 493 (2025) 143122.
54
55
56 745 [11] S. Xu, G. Tang, S. Pan, Z. Ji, L. Fang, C. Zhang, Z. Cao, X. Zhou, X. Jia,
57
58
59 746 Application of reactive rejuvenator in aged SBS modified asphalt regeneration: A
60
61
62 747 review, Construction and Building Materials. 421 (2024) 135696.
63
64
65

- 1 748 [12] A. Gedik, Repurposing recycled walnut shell as an anti-aging agent into asphalt
2
3 749 binder: A multi aspect evaluation, *Construction and Building Materials*. 498 (2025)
4
5 750 143969.
6
7
8 751 [13] N. Li, Y. Zhang, C. Bi, L. Xu, Experimental study on the horn effect of loaded
9
10 752 patterned tires, *Applied Acoustics*. 242 (2026) 111053.
11
12
13 753 [14] M. Mahdi, K. Jozsef, Efficient flexible tire-terrain interaction modelling, *Journal*
14
15 754 *of Terramechanics*. 120 (2025) 101081.
16
17
18 755 [15] X. Zhang, H. Wang, B. Thomas, Tire polishing effects on rubber-texture contact
19
20 756 and friction characteristics of different asphalt mixtures, *Wear*. 582-583 (2025)
21
22 757 206328.
23
24
25 758 [16] D. Ren, J. Liang, Y. Cheng, L. Zheng, J. Chen, Z. Li, J. Li, Sustainable
26
27 759 enhancement of rock asphalt composite binder using waste tire pyrolysis oil and
28
29 760 rubber powder: a multi-scale study, *Journal of Environmental Chemical Engineering*.
30
31 761 25 (2025) 119356.
32
33
34 762 [17] S. Cui, R. Li, T. Yang, J. Wang, Z. Wang, X. Kai, Unveiling interactions of
35
36 763 enzymatic hydrolysis lignin and waste tires during co-pyrolysis, *Chemical*
37
38 764 *Engineering Journal*. 523 (2025) 168408.
39
40
41 765 [18] B. Meryem, C. Phuong, P. Warumporn, C. Benoit, G. Bertrand, N. Minh, C.
42
43 766 Nedege, T. Joris, Performance comparison of tire pyrolysis oils in hydrotreating
44
45 767 toward high-quality fuel, *Chemical Engineering Journal*. 520 (2025) 165115.
46
47
48 768 [19] X. Zhou, Z. Zhang, Metal organic frameworks catalytic co-pyrolysis mechanism
49
50 769 of waste wood and rubber for oil preparation, *Journal of the Energy Institute*. 123
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

- 1 770 (2025) 102285.
2
3
4 771 [20] S. Alberto, N. Maria, V. Alberto, M. Juan, C. Maria, L. Jose, G. Tomas, M.
5
6 772 Ramon, Pyrolysis of different types and sections of end-of-life tyres: Kinetics and
7
8
9 773 experiments to improve product quality, *Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis*.
10
11 774 192 (2025) 107309.
12
13
14 775 [21] K. Wang, J. Zhan, H. Zang, X. Liu, H. Wang, Z. Peng, C. Wang, X. Tian, Study
15
16
17 776 on in-situ and ex-situ catalytic pyrolysis of waste tires based on low-cost catalysts,
18
19
20 777 *Waste Management*. 204 (2025) 114947.
21
22
23 778 [22] S. Towell, M. Ratushnyy, L. Cooke, G. Lewis, A. Zhukhovitskiy, Deconstruction
24
25 779 of rubber via C–H amination and aza-Cope rearrangement, *Nature*. 640 (2025)
26
27
28 780 384-389.
29
30
31 781 [23] T. Mohamed, C. Antonio, O. López-Costas, P. Federico, Ł. Jeannette, Combining
32
33
34 782 infrared spectroscopy (FTIR-ATR) and analytical pyrolysis for assessing chemical
35
36
37 783 degradation pathways in waterlogged Neolithic wood, *Journal of Analytical and*
38
39 784 *Applied Pyrolysis*. 191 (2025) 107197.
40
41
42 785 [24] D. Maximilian, H. Fabian, S. Ulrike, B. David, M. Marco, K. Thomas,
43
44
45 786 Characterisation of beech wood pyrolysis oil: Chemical and physical properties and
46
47
48 787 decomposition kinetics, *Fuel*. 404 (2025) 134897.
49
50
51 788 [25] L. Xu, Y. Chen, X. Song, Y. Qi, S. Li, H. Xu, Study on the pyrolysis process of
52
53
54 789 engineered wood material with multicomponent modeling and peaks deconvolution
55
56 790 analysis, *Renewable Energy*. 248 (2025) 123158.
57
58
59 791 [26] N. Li, K. Yan, R. Thanya, J. Liang, Y. Liu, Z. Wang, H. Nie, M. Suthawan, G.

1 792 Castiella-Ona, X. Pan, Q. Zhou, G. Jiang, G. Zhou, J. Ralph, J. Samec, F. Wang,
2
3 793 Selective lignin arylation for biomass fractionation and benign bisphenols, *Nature*.
4
5
6 794 630 (2024) 381-386.
7
8
9 795 [27] S. Anna, H. Angela, P. Christoph, Exothermicity during the pyrolysis of large
10
11 796 wood particles, *Fuel Processing Technology*. 27 (2025) 108250.
12
13
14 797 [28] S. Cheng, C. Tan, Y. Yu, J. Huang, J. Du, J. Hu, H. Wang, Targeted conversion of
15
16
17 798 furfural from waste wood via catalyzed pyrolysis of acid-leaching residue,
18
19
20 799 *Bioresource Technology*. 431 (2025) 132616.
21
22
23 800 [29] G. Cucci, F. Valentini, A. Dorigato, Cradle to gate life cycle assessment of
24
25
26 801 Tyre-grade natural rubber produced in Thailand, *Science of The Total Environment*.
27
28 802 987 (2025) 179653.
29
30
31 803 [30] Y. Yang, T. Zhang, Y. Chen, C. Wang, G. Cai, A comprehensive review on
32
33
34 804 application of scrap tire rubber for sustainable thermal insulation material in civil
35
36
37 805 engineering, *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*. 217 (2025) 115727.
38
39
40 806 [31] J. Wang, C. Zhao, Q. Li, G. Song, Y. Hu, The synergistic effect of recycled steel
41
42 807 fibers and rubber aggregates from waste tires on the basic properties, drying shrinkage,
43
44
45 808 and pore structures of cement concrete, *Construction and Building Materials*. 470
46
47 809 (2025) 140574.
48
49
50 810 [32] Y. Wang, Y.Y. Wang, Experimental study and theoretical modeling of effective
51
52
53 811 thermal conductivity of waste tire rubber composite concrete under different relative
54
55
56 812 humidity, *Journal of Building Engineering*. 111 (2025) 113605.
57
58
59 813 [33] Q. Su, L. Xia, J. Tang, M. Zhang, D. Wang, D. Cao, From waste tires to long-life
60
61
62
63
64
65

1 814 asphalt pavement: Evaluation of rheological and fatigue properties of high-content
2
3 815 rubber/SBS composite modified asphalt, *Construction and Building Materials*. 495
4
5
6 816 (2025) 143671.
7
8
9 817 [34] H. Wang, H. Yao, Y. Ma, S. Wang, X. Yu, S. Wang, Controllable decrosslinking
10
11 818 of waste tire rubber as asphalt substitute: From elastic filler to colloidal rubberized
12
13
14 819 asphalt, *Fuel*. 392 (2025) 134975.
15
16
17 820 [35] B. Zhang, G. Liang, B. Hou, Rubber running track inspired ultra-robust
18
19
20 821 superhydrophobic coating armored with recycled tire rubber (RTR) particles for
21
22
23 822 sustained corrosion resistance, *Chemical Engineering Journal*. 522 (2025) 167434.
24
25
26 823 [36] Z. Su, T. Zhou, S. Xie, C. Jin, L. Cao, Z. Dong, A. Gershome, M. Guo,
27
28 824 Enhancing compatibility of crumb rubber in modified asphalt using green
29
30
31 825 desulfurization for sustainable waste tire recycling, *Construction and Building*
32
33
34 826 *Materials*. 490 (2025) 142556.
35
36
37 827 [37] N. Tian, T. Piergiorgio, Y. He, C. Sangiorgi, Surface treatment of waste tire
38
39
40 828 rubber via oxidation and alkalization for enhanced compatibility with bitumen,
41
42
43 829 *Construction and Building Materials*. 492 (2025) 142996.
44
45
46 830 [38] X. Jin, D. Ren, H. Wu, H. Kong, Q. Yang, T. Zhou, Z. Zhao, J. Li, Enhancing
47
48
49 831 compatibility of waste tire rubber powder in asphalt: A comparative study of acid
50
51
52 832 surface activation and molecular dynamics insights, *Construction and Building*
53
54
55 833 *Materials*. 478 (2025) 141417.
56
57
58 834 [39] M. Zhang, Q. Su, G. Li, D. Cao, Y. Yao, S. Yang, S. Wang, Enhancing
59
60
61 835 reutilization of waste tires and sustainability of environment: analysis of the
62
63
64
65

1 836 performance and emission reduction mechanism of high content rubber modified
2
3 837 asphalt, Chemical Engineering Journal. 508 (2025) 160917.
4
5
6 838 [40] X. Zhou, M. Chen, S. Wu, X. Zhou, L. Li, Z. Ma, Heavy metals and PAHs
7
8
9 839 adsorption characteristics of bio-asphalt in road runoff, Journal of Cleaner Production.
10
11 840 450 (2024) 141923.
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65

Highlights

- ◆ Co-liquefaction of waste wood and waste tire rubber **was carried out to** produce bio-oil **in the presence of a catalyst.**
- ◆ **The bio-rejuvenator was synthesized by fine-tuning the bio-oil content and preparation parameters.**
- ◆ The microwave activation mechanism and **the regulation of** structure-property **relationships** of **the bio-rejuvenator** were elucidated.
- ◆ Oxygen species (O*) **present** in waste wood can oxidize sulfides **to** elemental sulfur.