

High-Performance Magnetic Activated Carbon from Solid Waste from Lignin Conversion Processes. 1. Their Use As Adsorbents for CO

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Abstract

Lignin is naturally abundant and a renewable precursor with the potential to be used in the production of both chemicals and materials. As many lignin conversion processes suffer from a significant production of solid wastes in the form of hydrochars, this study focused on transforming hydrochars into magnetic activated carbons (MAC). The hydrochars were produced via hydrothermal treatment of lignins together with formic acid. The activation of the hydrochars was performed chemically with KOH with a focus on the optimization of the MACs as adsorbents for CO₂. MACs are potentially relevant to carbon capture and storage (CCS) and gas purification processes. In general, the MACs had high specific surface areas (up to 2875 m²/g), high specific pore volumes, and CO₂ adsorption capacities of up to 6.0 mmol/g (1 atm, 0 °C). The textual properties of the MACs depended on the temperature of the activation. MACs activated at a temperature of 700 °C had very high ultramicropore volumes, which are relevant for potential adsorption-driven separation of CO₂ from N₂. Activation at 800 °C led to MACs with larger pores and very high specific surface areas. This temperature-dependent optimization option, combined with the magnetic properties, provided numerous potential applications of the MACs besides those of CCS. The hydrochar was derived from eucalyptus lignin, and the corresponding MACs displayed soft magnetic behavior with coercivities of <100 Oe and saturation magnetization values of 1–10 emu/g.

Introduction

Fossil resources are being depleted¹ and their use is associated with emissions of greenhouse gases which contribute to anthropogenic global warming.² As production of materials is significantly interlinked with the use of fossil resources, developing materials from renewable resources can reduce the emissions of greenhouse gases.

An underused source of renewable materials and chemicals is the amorphous and largely aromatic polymer lignin.^{3–6} Lignin is a major component in wood and about 50 million tons are produced annually.⁷ It is generally considered a waste product with a low added value. Today about 98% of the available lignin is combusted to supply the pulping and paper processes with energy and low-grade heat.

Most of the remaining lignin is used for deriving low-value products or in narrow market segments.⁷ However, the potential of lignin to be used as a precursor in the production of renewable chemicals and materials is high, and consequently, it is researched for future use in biorefineries^{3,4} and materials production. The structure and chemistry of lignin, as well as the approaches to lignin depolymerization/repolymerization, depend on the type of wood it originates from and the processes used for its separation.⁸ Attempts to produce liquid fuels and chemicals from lignin have often suffered from large streams of side-products consisting of solid wastes^{5,6,9}. By transforming such solid wastes into functional materials, it could be possible to simultaneously add commercial value to the lignin and reduce its associated ecological footprint. The solid wastes have, e.g., the potential to be used as precursors for renewable and functional materials such as activated carbons (ACs).

ACs are highly porous materials commonly used in industry for catalysis, purification, decolorization, deodorization, and resources,^{11,12} but wood and coconut shells are also important precursors.¹³ The use of lignin directly for the production of ACs has been studied.¹⁴⁻¹⁹ In 2014, the production of ACs was estimated at 1.4 million tons,²⁰ and the market value is expected to continue to increase from \$2.1 billion in 2014 with a compound annual growth rate at above 10% in the upcoming years.²¹ The increase is in part a result of stricter regulations on mercury emissions from industry and various aqueous contaminants.^{21,22}

ACs may find use as CO₂ adsorbents in carbon capture and storage (CCS) because of their potential to reduce the cost for capture of CO₂, which is a major hurdle for the implementation of CCS systems.²³⁻²⁷ ACs have the advantages of high adsorption capacity, low cost, and outstanding cycling performance as compared to most other adsorbents.²⁶ However, for the CO₂ adsorption processes to be viable, the cycling times need to be fast; i.e., the adsorption and desorption should be fast.²⁸ For adsorption processes in the liquid state, powdered activated carbons (PACs) are generally more effective than granular activated carbons (GACs), due to their smaller particle size. However, the small particle size also makes the separation of PACs from liquids much more difficult than the separation of GACs.²⁹

Magnetic activated carbons (MACs) may allow for new use of ACs in various processes. MACs and other porous materials with magnetic properties have previously been produced.³⁰⁻³³ Chemical coprecipitation^{31,34-37} with paramagnetic or ferromagnetic compounds is a promising approach. Ball milling³⁸ and impregnation^{39,40} can also be used to introduce such compounds with magnetic properties into the ACs. Suspended powdered MACs may be separated from liquids with a use of an external magnetic field.^{31,32} In this study, solid byproducts from the conversion of lignin into biooil^{6,9} were used to produce MACs with magnetic properties originating from iron-containing nanoparticles. The MACs could be optimized to either contain very high large ultramicropore volumes or present very large surface areas.

Experimental section

Materials

All reagents were of high purity grade and used as supplied, unless otherwise stated.

Lignin conversion to biooil and hydrochars

The hydrochars were produced as side products from a lignin-to-liquid process performed under hydrothermal conditions together with formic acid, as has been described elsewhere.⁹ Two different types of lignin were used for the production of hydrochars. The eucalyptus lignin originated from Thailand and was processed in a biorefinery demonstration plant of SEKAB in Örnsköldsvik, Sweden, using enzymatic hydrolysis. The lignin from Norway spruce was produced at Processum (Sweden) by acid precipitation from kraft black liquor supplied by the Metsä Board Husum mill in Sweden. The elemental analysis of lignin is presented in Table S1. In a typical batch used for the production of a hydrochar, first, 200 g of lignin, 200 mL of formic acid, 500 g of water, and the catalyst were added to a 5 L stainless-steel reactor. The closed reactor was subsequently heated to the desired temperature for 2 h. A temperature of 380 °C was used to produce hydrochars from the Kraft lignin from Norway spruce and 365 °C when using the lignin derived by enzymatic hydrolysis of eucalyptus biomass. After cooling the reactor down by natural convection, the hydrochars were separated and dried. The hydrochars prepared from lignin from Eucalyptus and Spruce, having yields of 29.63% and 33.42%, are called HC-E and HC-S, respectively.

Activation of hydrochars into magnetic activated carbons

HC-E and HC-S were chemically activated into ACs by KOH batchwise. Three grams of HC-E or HC-S was combined with 30 mL of an aqueous solution of KOH (six mol/dm³) and treated overnight at room temperature. The mixtures were heated for 5 h at a temperature of 200 °C and subsequently activated under a flow of N₂ (48 dm³/h) for 4 h at a temperature of 700 or 800 °C. During the activation, the temperature was increased to the set point at a rate of 10 °C/min. After being cooled down by natural convection, the powders were washed with hot water until the pH of the effluents

reached neutral values. The corresponding samples were dried at a temperature of 110 °C for 12 h. The set of samples are denoted as MAC-E-X or MAC-S-X. E and S stand for a lignin source of Eucalyptus and Spruce, respectively; X (7 or 8) is the temperature of the activation (700 or 800 °C).

Elemental analysis

CHN analyzes were conducted by using combustion analysis. The amounts of Fe were analyzed by a Varian Vista MPX ICP-OES system. The amounts of O were calculated by difference (the samples were assumed to be composed of only C, H, N, Fe and O).

Adsorption measurements

Adsorption isotherms for N₂ were measured at -196 °C using a Micromeritics ASAP 2020 device. Before experimentation, samples were degassed under conditions of dynamic vacuum at a temperature of 300 °C for 5 h.

Specific surface areas (S_{BET}) were calculated in the Brunauer–Emmet–Teller (BET) model, using the uptake of N₂ at relative pressures (p/p_0) between 0.06 and 0.29. Care was taken to assure positive and not unphysically large c -values by adjusting the exact pressure range. The total pore volume (V_t) was estimated from the uptake at $p/p_0 = 0.99$. The external surface area (S_{ext}) and micropore volumes (V_{mic}) were determined with the t -plot method. The micropore surface area (S_{mic}) was determined as the difference between the S_{BET} and S_{ext} . The pore-size distributions were estimated from the N₂ adsorption branch using a density functional theory (DFT) method supplied by Micromeritics.

The adsorption and desorption of CO₂ on the MACs were measured with the same Micromeritics device at temperatures of 0, 20, 50, and 80 °C, which were controlled by a circulating bath. The pressure used was from 0 to 101 kPa. Samples were degassed under the condition of a dynamic vacuum at a temperature of 300 °C for five hours before conducting the measurements. Ultramicropore volumes were determined from the adsorption data of CO₂ at 0 °C, with the Dubinin-Radushkevich (DR) method.

Scanning electron microscopy

The scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were captured with a JEOL JSM-7000F microscope using a working distance of 10 mm and an accelerating voltage of 5.0 kV. Detection of secondary electrons was used. Samples were fixed on Oxford Aluminum stubs and coated by dried colloidal carbon before SEM analyses.

Transmission electron microscopy

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were used to determine sample morphology and distribution of iron-based particles in the carbon matrix. The specimens were prepared by depositing a drop of a dilute ethanol suspension of the powders on carbon-coated copper grids (TedPella) and letting the solvent evaporate under atmospheric conditions. Bright field images were collected with either a JEM-2100 (JEOL) microscope (LaB6 filament, 200 kV, $f = 2.7$ mm, $C_s = 1.4$ mm, $C_c = 1.8$ mm, point resolution = 2.5 Å, lattice resolution = 1.4 Å) equipped with a Gatan SC1000 ORIUS camera or a JEM-2100F (JEOL) microscope with a Schottky-type field emission gun working at 200 kV ($f = 1.9$ mm, $C_s = 0.5$ mm, $C_c = 1.1$ mm, point resolution = 1.9 Å, lattice resolution = 1.0 Å) equipped with a Gatan Ultrascan 1000 camera.

Powder X-Ray diffraction

The powder was glued with silicon grease onto a thin glass fiber, and powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns were collected in transmission mode with a dark current mode with Xcalibur III Single Crystal diffractometer (Mo $K\alpha$ radiation with $\lambda = 0.709317$ Å), equipped with a two-dimensional Sapphire 3 CCD detector (2048×2048 px² and pixel size = 30×30 μm²). Data were averaged over four scans, each with a 2θ range of 0–49° ($d = 6.97$ – 0.85 Å), exposure time of 2400 s, and a sample-to-detector distance of 120 mm. The instrumental width was determined through the calibration of the peak width of a lanthanum hexaboride (LaB₆) powder, which was measured using the same procedure.

Magnetic measurements

Magnetic measurements were performed at room temperature with a LakeShore VSM 7400 vibrating sample magnetometer using a pole gap of 22 mm. The field-dependent magnetization curves were measured between ± 18 kOe. The specimens were fixated in gelatin capsules and sealing varnish whereas the magnetization scale was calibrated with a Ni sphere.

Results and discussions

The precursors (HC-E and HC-S) had C–H–N–O compositions typical for hydrochars produced in lignin-to-liquid biofuel processes operating under hydrothermal conditions at temperatures of 365–380 °C and with formic acid present.⁹ The detailed compositions are shown in Table 1.

Iron had been introduced into both HC-E and HC-S, which could have been introduced from both the corrosion of the stainless steel reactor and by the lignin. As shown in Table S1, the lignin consists of a certain amount of iron. Corrosion is often judged as one of the limiting factors of hydrothermal liquefaction of biomass.⁴¹ Eventhough we did not observe any significant corrosion on the surface of the stainless steel reactor, it strongly indicates that a part of the iron was included from corrosion. Moreover, the presence of iron is likely to have promoted the graphitization of carbon, as shown in the XRD result in Figure 1, which resulted in some bamboo-like structures such as those shown in Figure 2d.⁴² However, here, the introduction of iron into the hydrochars was serendipitous and rendered both the precursors and related MACs magnetic. The HC-S had an Fe content of 12.3 wt % and could easily be attracted to a magnetic field, while the HCE had an Fe content of 2.94 wt %. The carbon and iron content in the MAC-E series increased upon activation, but both the C and Fe content decreased upon activation of the MAC-S-8, which possibly was related to the large ash content of HC-S, see Table 1 and Figures S2–S4. The MACs contained large amounts of ash (Table 1 and Figures S2–S4) that could be partially dissolved by treatment with base and acid solutions (see Figure S5).

Table 1. Ash content, bulk element composition of the precursor and the activated carbon

Sample	Ash ^a (wt.%)	Ultimate (wt.%)				
		C	H	N	Fe	others
HC-S	31.6	59.20	3.14	<0.10	12.29	25.27
HC-E	16.4	69.02	3.68	0.64	2.94	23.72
MAC-S-8	19.6	49.56	0.88	0.30	7.10	42.16
MAC-E-7	19.8	72.19	0.91	0.47	4.71	21.72
MAC-E-8	27.2	75.97	0.90	0.39	6.40	16.34

^a Determined by thermal gravimetry conducted in air at 800 °C, *c.f.* Figure S1-3. HC-E is a hydrochar from lignin of Eucalyptus; HC-S is a hydrochar from lignin of spruce; MAC-E-X and MAC-S-X are magnetic activated carbons prepared from HC-E and HC-S; X (7 or 8) is the temperature of the activation (700 °C or 800 °C).

Morphology and structure of the magnetic activated carbons

In the SEM images, the two hydrochars appeared as contiguous pieces of matter, see Figure 3a (HC-E) and Figure 3b (HC-S); however, after the KOH-based chemical activation, the morphologies of the samples changed. The SEM images of the corresponding MACs displayed cavities at the micromolarlength scale, see Figure 3c–f. The MACs that had been KOH-activated at a temperature of 700 °C (MAC-E-7 in Figure 3c and MAC-S-7 in Figure 3d) contained smaller cavities than those activated at 800 °C (MAC-E-8 in Figure 3e and MAC-S-8 in Figure 3f). The chemical activation with KOH appears to have created these etched cavities.

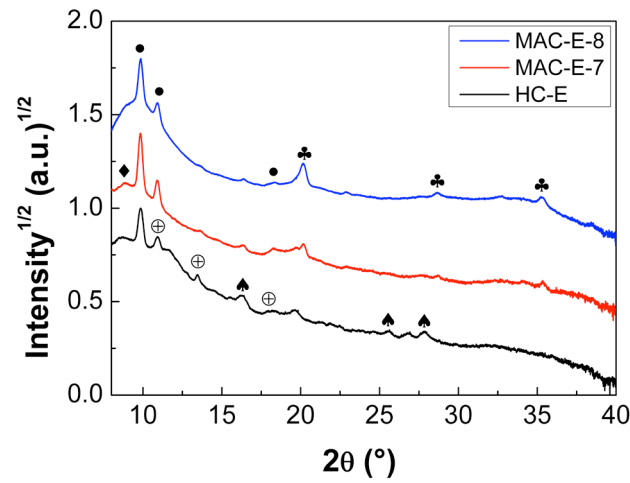


Figure 1. Powder X-ray diffraction (Mo $K\alpha$) patterns of the Eucalyptus precursor and activated samples. The symbols represent the peak position for some of the most intense peaks of graphite oxide (\blacklozenge), magnetite (\spadesuit), metallic iron (\clubsuit), iron sulfate - jarosite (\oplus), and sample holder (\bullet). HC-E is the hydrochar from the Eucalyptus lignin; MAC-E-X's are corresponding magnetic activated carbons prepared at a temperature of 700 or 800 °C.

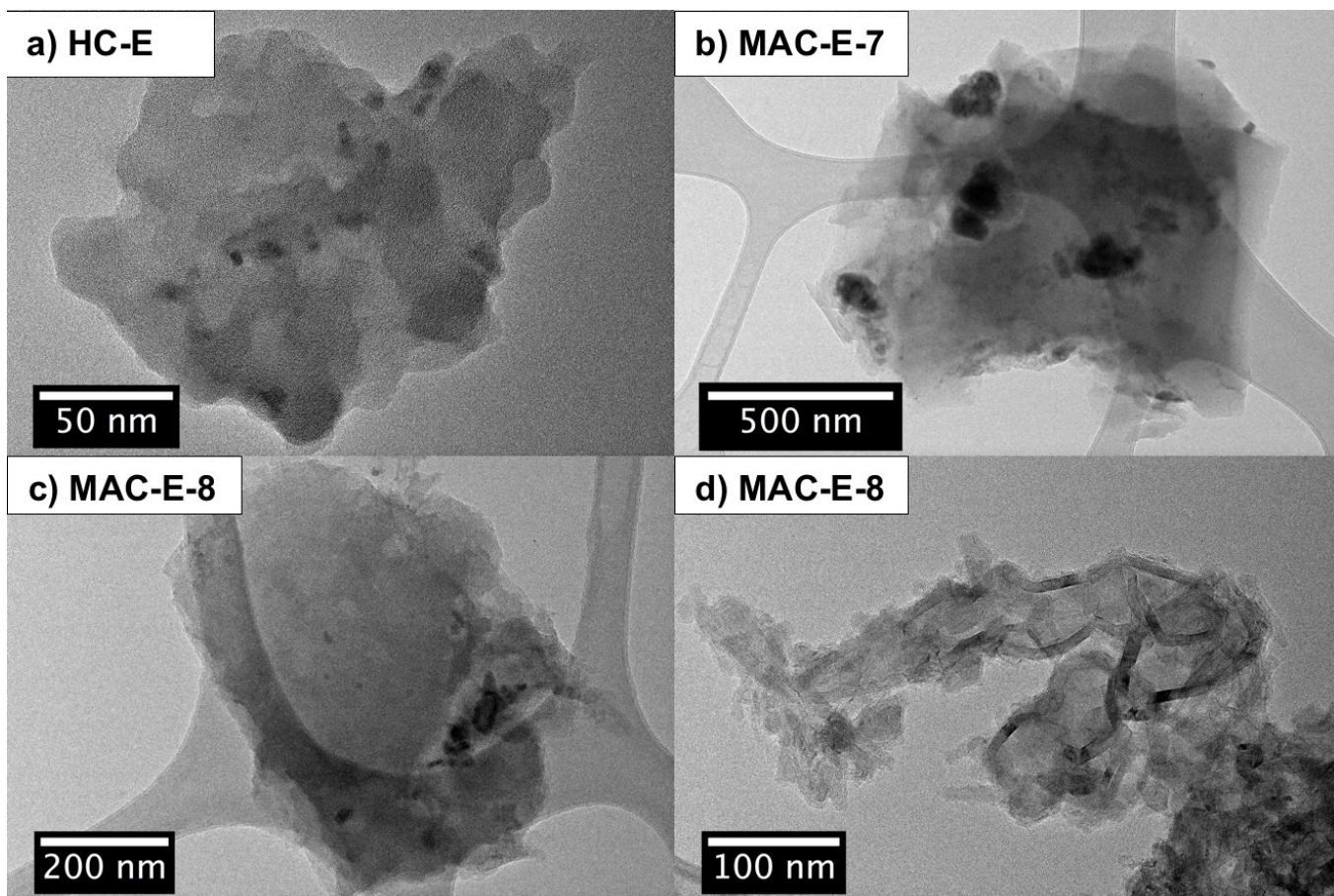


Figure 2. Bright-field transmission electron microscopy images of (a) the precursor HC-E and (b-d) the activated samples. The dark spots in a-d correspond to iron-containing particles on a carbon matrix whereas the long fibers in d correspond to graphitic structures. HC-E is hydrochar from the Eucalyptus lignin; MAC-E-Xs are corresponding magnetic activated carbons prepared at temperature of 700 or 800 °C.

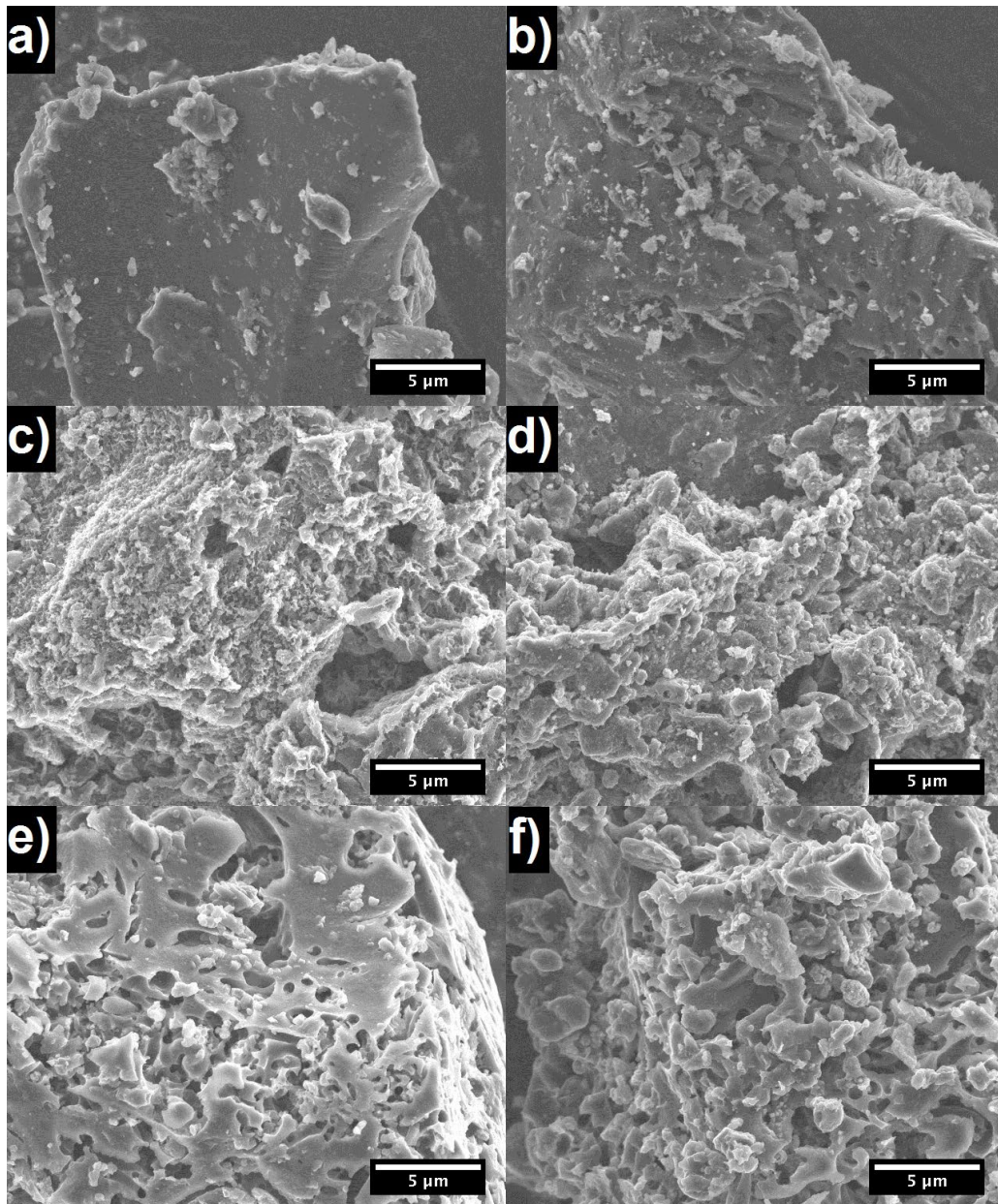


Figure 3. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of a) HC-E, b) HC-S, c) MAC-E-7, d) MAC-S-7, e) MAC-E-8, f) MAC-S-8. HC-E is hydrochar from the Eucalyptus lignin; HC-S is hydrochar from spruce lignin; MAC-E-X and MAC-S-X are magnetic activated carbons prepared from HC-E and HC-S, X (7 or 8) is the temperature of the activation (700 °C or 800 °C).

In addition to the morphological variations visible in the SEM images of the hydrochars and the MACs, the chemically activated MACs were highly porous in the microporous (<2 nm) and/or mesoporous (2–50 nm) domains. The terms microporous and mesoporous are used in accordance with the definitions of IUPAC.⁴³ The N₂ adsorption and desorption isotherms in Figure 4a showed that MAC-S-7 and MAC-E-7 had the typical characteristics of microporous materials. The adsorbed amount of N₂ increased sharply on raising the N₂ gas pressure at low pressures, and the adsorbed amount leveled out at a distinct plateau at higher pressures. MAC-E-7 had smaller pores than MAC-S-7, as can be seen in the pore size distributions (PSDs) of Figure 4b.

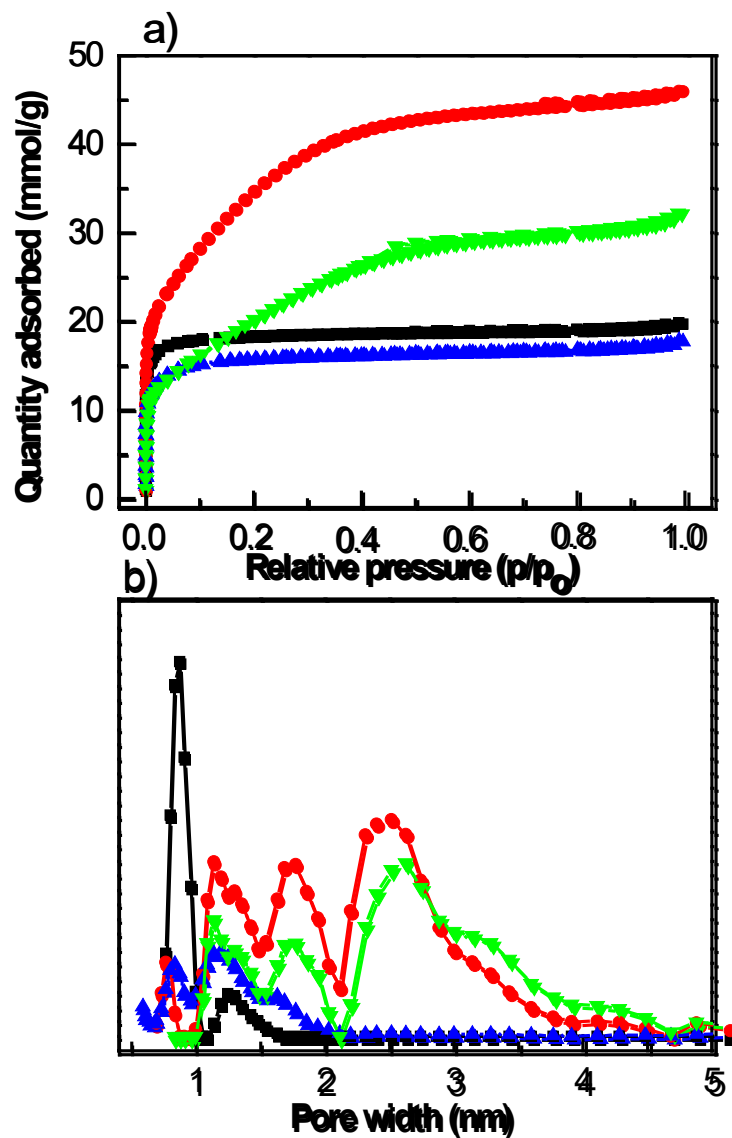


Figure 4. N₂-adsorption and desorption isotherms (a) at -196 °C and pore size distributions (b, using DFT model) of magnetic activated carbons from hydrochars: MAC-E-7, “■ (black)”; MAC-S-8, “▼ (green)”; MAC-E-8, “● (red)”; MAC-S-7, “▲ (blue)”. MAC-E-X and MAC-S-X are magnetic activated carbons prepared from hydrothermally treated Eucalyptus lignin (E) and spruce lignin (S), X (7 or 8) is the temperature of the activation (700 °C or 800 °C).

MAC-E-8 and MAC-S-8 contained significant fractions of mesopores with sizes between 2 and 4 nm, in addition to the micropores as displayed in the PSDs of Figure 4b. Similar relations between a high activation temperature and the formed mesopores have been identified by others.^{44,45} As was expected, MAC-X-8 had a higher surface area (S_{BET}) and external surface area (S_{ext}) and a larger pore volume than MAC-X-7, but its micropore volume (V_{mic}) was smaller. In particular, MAC-E-8 had a BET surface area of 2875 m²/g and a pore volume of 1.59 cm³/g, which are among the highest observed for ACs prepared from hydrochars. Textural characteristics were derived from the N₂-adsorption and desorption isotherms and are shown in Table 2. By alternating treatment with NaOH and HCl solutions, the S_{BET} of MAC-E-7 increased from 1650 m²/g to 1760 m²/g, as is presented in Table S2, and the corresponding isotherms are shown Figure S6. Ding et al. prepared an AC from hydrothermally treated rice husks by chemical activation with KOH, which had a S_{BET} of 3322 m²/g and a V_{tot} of 2.53 cm³/g.⁴⁶ Sevilla et al. also reported on a KOH-activated AC from hydrothermally carbonized sawdust with a S_{BET} of 2850 m²/g and a V_{tot} of 1.35 cm³/g.⁴⁷ Similarly, Wei et al. prepared an AC from hydrothermally carbonized wood by KOH activation with a S_{BET} of 2970 m²/g and V_{tot} of 1.35 cm³/g.⁴⁸ The S_{ext} was very high (2580 m²/g), and its V_{mic} was small (0.07 cm³/g).

Table 2. Yield, textural properties, uptake of CO₂ and apparent selectivity of magnetic activated carbons from hydrochar

MAC ^c	Yield (%)	CO ₂ uptake	CO ₂ uptake	Apparent selectivity (CO ₂ /N ₂) ^a	Specific surface area (m ² /g)			Specific pore volume (cm ³ /g)		
		(0 °C, 101 kPa) (n, mmol/g)	(0 °C, 15 kPa) (n, mmol/g)		S_{BET}	S_{mic}	S_{ext}	V_{t}	V_{mic}	$V_{\text{utmic}}^{\text{b}}$
MAC-E-7	51	6.0	1.8	15	1647	1571	76	0.69	0.60	0.38
MAC-E-8	37	3.7	0.9	16	2875	293	2582	1.59	0.07	0.12
MAC-S-7	78	3.8	1.1	11	1380	1156	224	0.62	0.45	0.24
MAC-S-8	39	2.1	0.5	11	1706	116	1590	1.12	0.02	0.10

^a Apparent selectivity defined as $s = (n_{\text{CO}_2}/n_{\text{N}_2}) / (P_{\text{CO}_2}/P_{\text{N}_2})$, n is the uptake of CO₂ and N₂, P is the partial pressure of CO₂ (15 kPa) and N₂ (85 kPa).

^b Ultramicropore volume determined by CO₂ adsorption at 0 °C with the DR method.

^c MAC-E-X and MAC-S-X are magnetic activated carbons prepared from hydrothermally treated Eucalyptus lignin (E) and spruce lignin (S), X (7 or 8) is the temperature of the activation (700 °C or 800 °C).

As expected, chemical activation at a temperature of 700 °C gave higher yields than at 800 °C. MAC-S-7 had a very high yield (78%), which is consistent with that chemical activation usually has a higher yield than physical activation.^{49,50} With activation at 800 °C, the MACs had larger pore volumes and higher surface areas, see Table 2. This temperature dependence is consistent with the findings of Otowa et al.⁵¹

Local structure, composition, and magnetism

Both the HC-E and the MAC-E's consisted of micrometer-sized carbon flakes with embedded iron-based particles of various sizes, which can be seen in the TEM images of Figure 2. For HC-E, the carbon flakes were amorphous. This sample contained iron-based particles with crystallites <10 nm. For MAC-E-7/8, the carbon flakes were more faceted, indicating a higher crystallinity of the carbon network (c.f. Figure 1). The iron-based particles were much larger in the MAC-E-7/8 than in the HC-E with sizes of 10– 100 nm.

The XRD pattern of HC-E in Figure 1 indicates that the iron-based particles consisted mainly of iron oxide (magnetite, Fe₃O₄) but also of iron hydroxysulfate (jarosite, AFe₃(OH)₆(SO₄)₂; A = H⁺, Na⁺, K⁺). The carbon was mainly amorphous with a small amount of graphite oxide. The activated sample AC-E-7 contained amorphous carbon, graphite oxide, and metallic α -Fe with a passivation layer consisting of magnetite. The activated sample AC-E-8 contained a larger amount of α -Fe (with its passivation layer) and a larger amount of graphitized carbon than AC-E-7. The broad signal of the graphitized carbon was masked by the peaks from the sample holder.

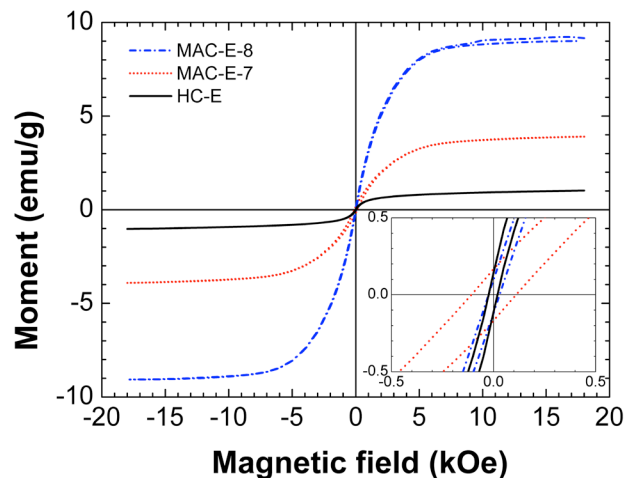


Figure 5. Magnetic measurements of the hydrochar and the activated carbons. Magnetization vs field hysteresis curves with maximum applied field $H_{max} = 18$ kOe. HC-E is the hydrochar from the Eucalyptus lignin; MAC-E-X's are corresponding magnetic activated carbons prepared at a temperature of 700 or 800 °C.

The magnetization curves of HC-E and the MAC-Es are shown in Figure 5 and showed soft magnetic behavior with coercivities below 100 Oe. The saturation magnetization values were 1.1, 4.1, and 9.5 emu/g for HC-E, AC-E-7, and AC-E-8, respectively, and depended on the iron content of the samples and the composition of the iron compounds. For instance, the saturation magnetization of α -Fe is ~ 210 emu/g, but that of magnetite is ~ 90 emu/g. Hence, the activated samples AC-E-7 and AC-E-8 containing α -Fe had a larger saturation value than the hydrochar HC-E that contained Fe_3O_4 .

Adsorption of CO₂ and N₂ at temperatures of 0 °C and above

The adsorption of CO₂ and N₂ on the MACs were studied at a common standard temperature of 0 °C^{52,53} but also at the higher temperatures applicable to CO₂ capture. Flue gas has typically a temperature between 40 and 120 °C after heat exchange,⁵⁴ and the total pressure is close to atmospheric. The partial pressure of CO₂ is about 15 kPa for the flue gas from a coal-fired power plant and about 5 kPa for the one from a natural-gas fired one.⁵⁵

At 0 °C, MAC-E-7 had an uptake of CO₂ of 6.0 mmol/g at 101 kPa and 1.8 mmol/g at 15 kPa (Figure 6) and increased to 6.2 mmol/g at 101 kPa and 1.9 mmol/g at 15 kPa after partial removal of ash (Figure S7 and Table S2). Similar values have been reported in the literature for ACs at this temperature. Alabadi et al. reported on a microporous AC, prepared from a mixture of starch and gelatin by KOH through dry chemical activation. The AC had an uptake of CO₂ of 7.5 mmol/g at 101 kPa.⁵³ Sevilla et al. synthesized a KOH-activated AC from hydrothermally treated sawdust with an uptake of CO₂ of 6.6 mmol/g at 101 kPa and 1.8 mmol/g at 15 kPa⁴⁷ and an N-doped AC from hydrothermally carbonized algae with an uptake of CO₂ of 7.4 mmol/g at 101 kPa.⁵⁶ Deng et al. reported on an AC derived from pine-nut shells with an uptake of CO₂ of 7.7 mmol/g at 101 kPa and 3.3 mmol/g at 15 kPa.⁵⁷ It has been reported that the subatmospheric adsorption of CO₂ at ambient temperatures is related to the (ultra)micropore volume.^{27,49,56,57} MAC-E-7 had a smaller S_{BET} than MAC-E-8. MAC-E-7 had the highest ultramicropore and micropore volumes among the four MACs studied, see Table 2. The PSDs of the four MACs were also estimated using a DFT model and the CO₂ adsorption data recorded at 0 °C (Supporting Information Figure S8). Even though large pores do not contribute to the adsorption of CO₂ at pressures relevant to postcombustion capture of CO₂, such large pores might become important to the mass transport of CO₂. Montagnaro et al. showed that ACs with mesopores had a lower intraparticle diffusion resistance than ACs with mainly micropores.⁵⁸

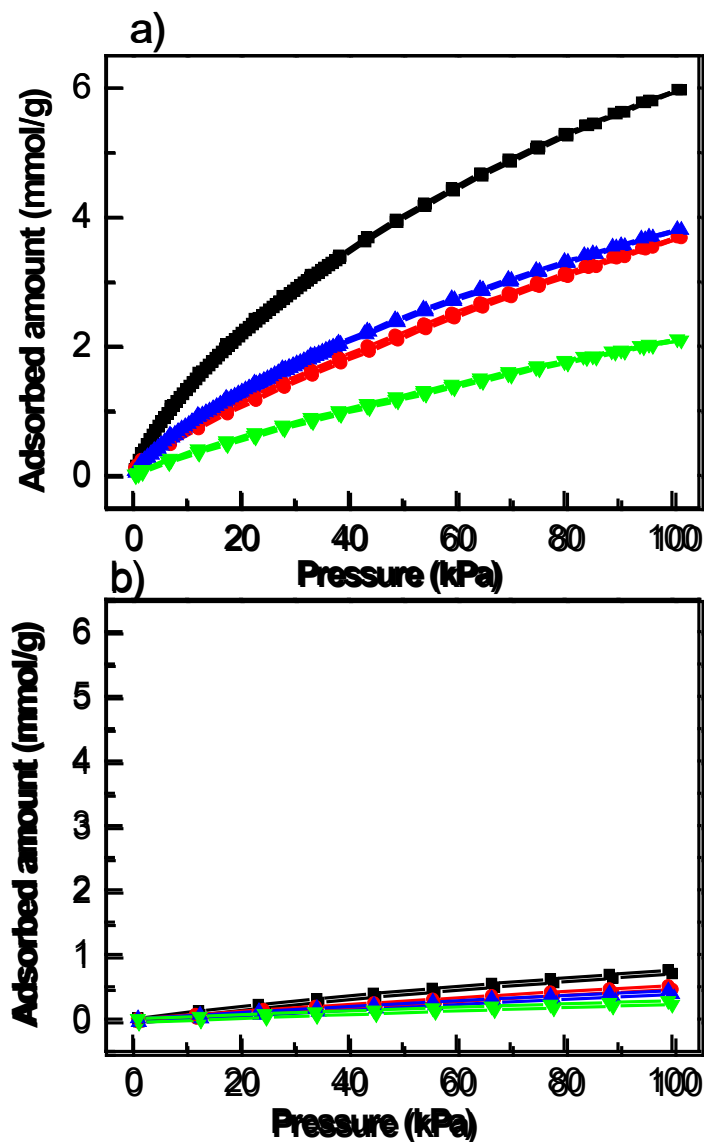


Figure 6. Adsorption and desorption isotherms of a) CO₂ and b) N₂ recorded at 273 K. Chemically activated carbons from hydrochars: MAC-E-7, “■ (black)”; MAC-S-8, “▼ (green)”; MAC-E-8, “● (red)”; MAC-S-7, “▲ (blue)”. MAC-E-X and MAC-S-X are magnetic activated carbons prepared from hydrothermally treated Eucalyptus lignin (E) and spruce lignin (S), X (7 or 8) is the temperature of the activation (700 °C or 800 °C).

The CO₂-over-N₂ selectivity as well as the CO₂ capacity is key to CO₂ capture.^{56,59} As it is rather complex and timeconsuming to determine the binary selectivity experimentally, it is often estimated from single component adsorption data. There are numerous ways to estimate and express the selectivity, and here the apparent selectivity of CO₂/N₂ is often defined as $s = (n_{\text{CO}_2}/n_{\text{N}_2})/(P_{\text{CO}_2}/P_{\text{N}_2})$. n is the uptake of CO₂ and N₂; P is the partial pressure of CO₂ (15 kPa) and N₂ (85 kPa). For MAC-E-7, this selectivity was also estimated for a more realistic temperature of 50 °C. The selectivity was about 14 at a temperature of 50 °C (adsorption and desorption isotherms of N₂ and CO₂ are shown in the Supporting Information). The selectivity was somewhat reduced at the higher temperature, which is consistent with the study of Alabadi et al.⁵³ Overall, these estimated selectivity values are larger than those in the literature: Deng et al. reported a CO₂-over-N₂ selectivity of 8.4 at a temperature of 25 °C for the pinenut-shell-derived AC.⁵⁷ The ACs from hydrothermally carbonized algae prepared by Sevilla et al. have CO₂-over-N₂ selectivity of 10 at a temperature of 25 °C.⁵⁶

The CO₂-over-N₂ selectivity of MAC-E-7 was also estimated by using the full ideal adsorption solution theory (IAST). The IAST was derived by Mayer and Prausnitz and uses single component adsorption data to predict adsorption equilibria of multicomponent mixtures.⁶⁰ The CO₂ and N₂ adsorption isotherms of MAC-E-7 at 0 and 50 °C were analyzed in the Toth model (see Figure S9 in the Supporting Information). These regression analyses were used as inputs to predict the binary CO₂-over-N₂ selectivity for binary mixtures of CO₂ (15%)– N₂ (85%), using the IAST.^{61,62} This selectivity estimate is presented by the molar uptake ratio of $n(\text{CO}_2, \text{binary})/n(\text{N}_2, \text{binary})$ versus pressures, in Figure 7. The IAST-predicted selectivity was between 3 and 4 and notably lower than the simplified estimates presented above. The selectivity was lower at high than at low temperature. It also decreased as the pressure increased, which is contrary to the trends presented by Yi et al.⁶¹ for another AC using the same IAST method.

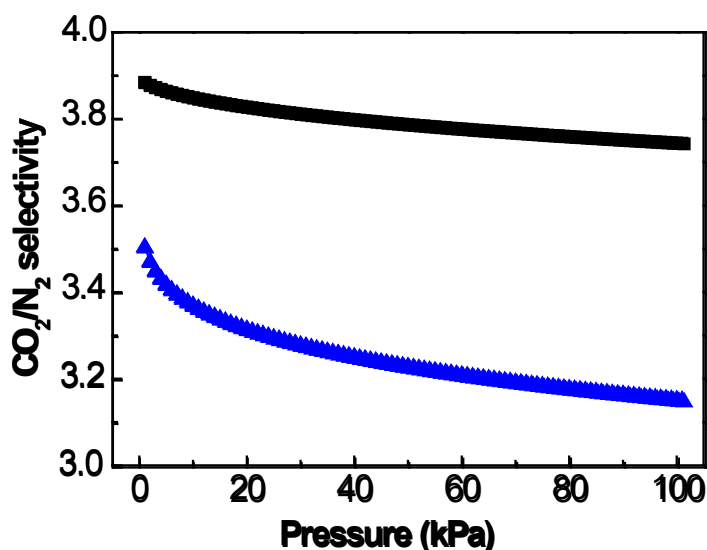


Figure 7. Selectivity of CO₂-over-N₂ under different pressures at temperatures of 0 °C, “■ (black)” and 50 °C, “▲ (blue)”, for chemically activated carbon MAC-E-7 (activated at 700 °C from hydrothermally treated Eucalyptus), predicted by ideal adsorption solution theory.

Isosteric heat of CO₂ adsorption

The isosteric heat (Q_{st}) of CO₂ sorption is important for adsorption-driven capture of CO₂. If the Q_{st} is too large, the regeneration of the sorbents becomes too costly, and if it is too small, the CO₂ uptake and CO₂-over-N₂ selectivity will be too small.⁶³ It has been suggested that relevant values of Q_{st} are in the range of 30-70 kJ/mol for ACs with typical CO₂ concentrations in flue gas.^{53,55,64-66} As adsorption is an exothermic process, the amount of adsorbed CO₂ decreases with an increased temperature.^{55,67}

The Q_{st} can be determined either calorimetrically,⁶⁸ or by using temperature and pressure dependent data and thermodynamic relations such as the van't Hoff,⁶⁹ or the Clapeyron-Clausius equation.^{53,56,64,66,70} By the first and the last methods loading-dependent Q_{st} can be determined. From the adsorption and desorption isotherms in Figure 8a, the loading dependent Q_{st} for MAC-E-7 was calculated using the Clapeyron-Clausius equation: $Q_{st} = R \left(\frac{\partial \ln P}{\partial T^{-1}} \right)_n$.⁶³ Such corresponding isosters are

plotted in Figure 8b. The Q_{st} for MAC-E-7 was 27 - 30 kJ/mol at 50 °C, as is shown in Figure 8c. This level is somewhat lower than determined for related ACs prepared by activation in CO₂ in earlier work.^{53,56,64-66}

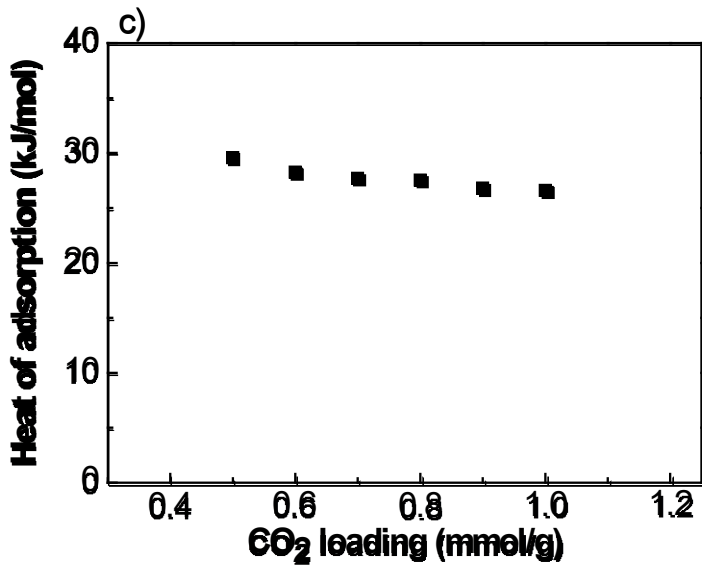
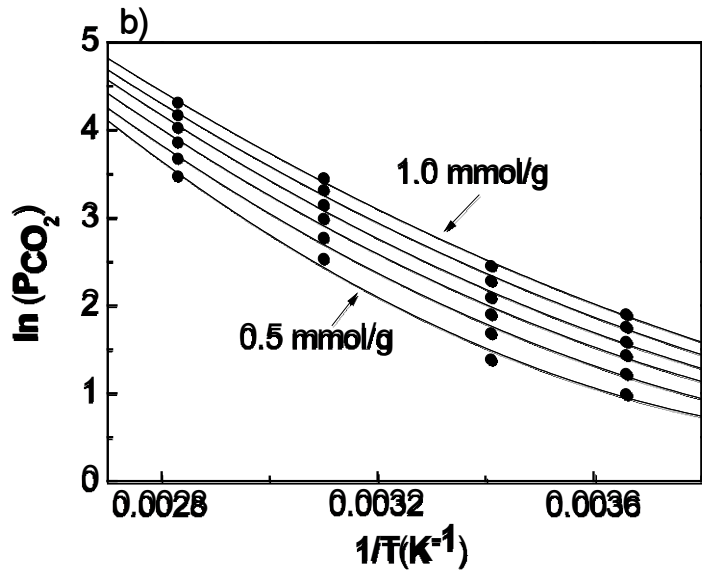
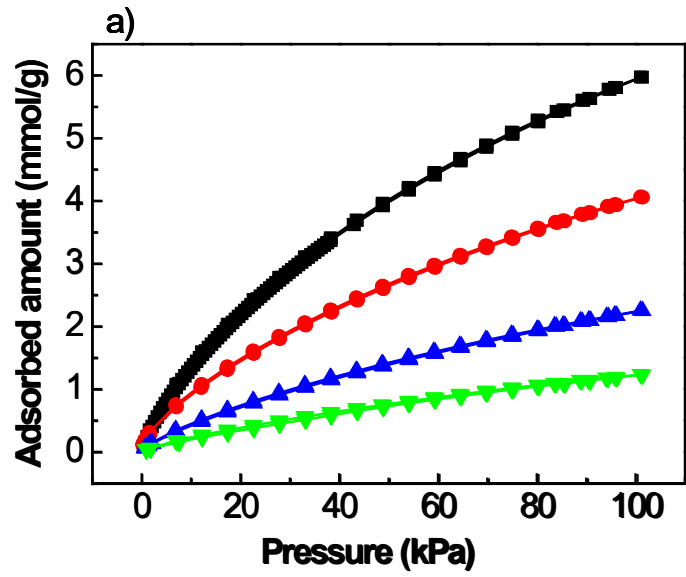


Figure 8. a) Adsorption and desorption isotherms of CO₂ at different temperatures for chemically activated carbon MAC-E-7 (activated at 700 °C from hydrothermally treated Eucalyptus) at 0 °C, “■ (black)”; 20 °C, “● (red)”; 50 °C, “▲ (blue)”; 80 °C, “▼ (green)”. b) Plotted values of ln (P_{CO2}) versus 1/T for CO₂ on MAC-E-7 at constant loading of CO₂ (the contour lines are the regression analysis using a 2nd order polynomial). c) Heat of CO₂ adsorption (Q_{st}) as a function of CO₂ loading on MAC-E-7 at 50 °C. The Q_{st} values were calculated using the Clapeyron-Clausius equation.

Cycle performance and time dependent uptake of CO₂

As CO₂ adsorbents need to be reused many times the cyclic performance is important. Almost no noticeable drop was observed for MAC-E-7 after 9 cycles of repeated CO₂ adsorption and desorption, see Figure 9a. The cyclic CO₂ adsorption was determined without any heat regeneration between subsequent runs.

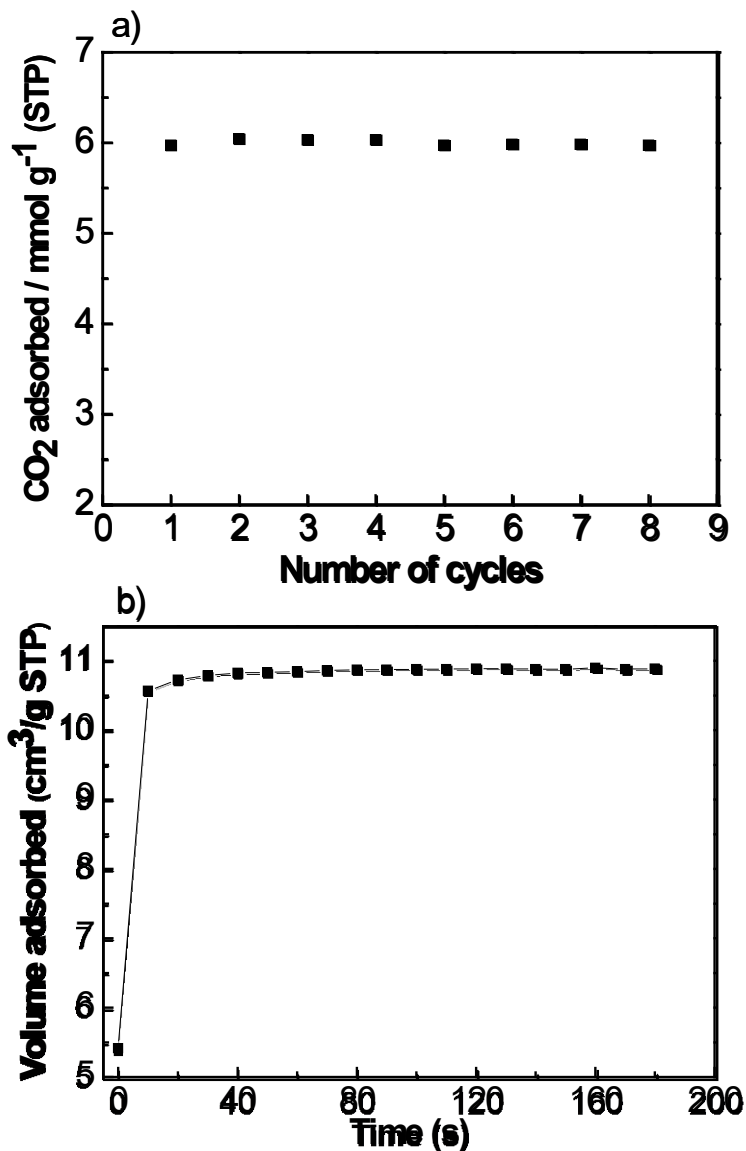


Figure 9. a) Cyclic CO₂ adsorption capacity of chemically activated carbon MAC-E-7 (activated at 700 °C from hydrothermally treated Eucalyptus lignin), recorded at 0 °C in pure CO₂ (eight cycles were performed and no high-temperature degassing was performed between runs); b) uptake kinetics for MAC-E-7, recorded at 0 °C by subjecting the sample to a small amount of pure CO₂.

The cycle time needs to be very short for adsorption-driven capture of CO₂. In relation to that, the adsorption and desorption times become important factors for tentative adsorption-driven processes for the capture of CO₂.^{55,67} These times should be as small as possible. Hence, a good CO₂ sorbent should

have a fast adsorption and/or desorption rate. Figure 9b showed that MAC-E-7 could reach 95% of the CO₂ capacity within 10 s, which is fast and could be suitable for a sorbent used in a very rapid swing-sorption cycle of a CCS-based capture.

Using different hydrochars had a clear effect on the resulting MACs. This is likely due to the different composition and structure of the hydrochars. The hydrochars, in turn, are products of the origin of the lignin, i.e., the wood species, the process with which the lignin was liberated from the wood, i.e., the Kraft process or enzymatic hydrolysis, and the process parameters used in the lignin-to-liquid process.

Conclusions

The MACs were prepared from hydrochars, which is an example that waste products from lignin-to-liquid processes can be upgraded to potentially useful materials. The pore size distribution, surface area, and the ultramicropore volume could be varied by changing the temperature used for the chemical activation with KOH. When activated at a temperature of 700 °C, the MACs displayed very high ultramicropore volume and correspondingly a large uptake of CO₂. These properties are important for the potential use of such sorbents as CO₂ sorbents; however, it appears that it would be beneficial to both the CO₂ capacity and CO₂-over-N₂ selectivity to further enhance the Q_{st} for CO₂ of the MACs. After being activated at 800 °C, the MACs displayed high specific surface areas and broad PSDs. Such properties are speculatively more relevant for uses in water purification or as supports for catalysis. The MACs contained significant amounts of embedded nanoparticles of iron with an iron oxide (magnetite) that displayed soft magnetic behavior with coercivities below 100 Oe.

Although out of the scope of this study, the magnetic properties of MACs may be used to facilitate the separation of PAC from liquids and have the potential to reduce desorption time, and therefore cycling time of CO₂ temperature swing processes through the application of electromagnetic fields. The potential catalytic properties of the MACs are also interesting, and some of these will be reported elsewhere.

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