INFLUENCE OF CARBONISATION TEMPERATURE ON THE SURFACE PORE CHARACTERISTICS OF ACID-TREATED OIL PALM EMPTY FRUIT BUNCH ACTIVATED CARBON

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Abstract

Carbonisation process affects the surface physical and chemical properties of an activated carbon. Therefore, this work aims to investigate the influence of carbonisation temperature from 400 to 550°C during activation with 85% phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄) on the surface pore characteristics of activated carbon produced from oil palm empty fruit bunch (EFB) for nitric oxide (NO) removal from gas streams. Pore and morphological characterisation showed that EFB carbonised at 400°C (EFBC-400) is microporous and has a uniform pore structure with 98% micropore volume. Increasing carbonisation temperature resulted in pore enlargement from 2.8 to 4.7 nm and increment in pore heterogeneity and BET surface area from 215 to 759 m²/g. However, the NO breakthrough experiment indicated that EFBC-400 is more favourable for low-temperature NO removal, due to the importance of microporosity in adsorption of NO. Further study will look at the kinetics of NO removal and the adsorbent regeneration.

Keywords: Air pollution control, Oil palm empty fruit bunch, Carbonisation, Adsorption, Nitric oxide, Pore characterisation

Abstrak

Proses pengkarbonan mempengaruhi sifat fizikal dan kimia permukaan bagi suatu karbon teraktif. Justeru, kerja ini bertujuan untuk mengkaji pengaruh suhu pengkarbonan dari 400 hingga 550°C semasa pengaktifan dengan 85% asid fosforik (H₃PO₄) terhadap ciri-ciri liang permukaan karbon teraktif yang terhasil daripada tandan kosong (EFB) kelapa sawit untuk penyingkiran nitrik oksida (NO) daripada aliran gas. Pencirian liang dan morfologi menunjukkan EFB yang dikarbonkan pada 400°C (EFBC-400) adalah bermikroliang dan mempunyai struktur liang seragam dengan 98% isipadu mikroliang. Peningkatan suhu pengkarbonan menghasilkan pembesaran liang dari 2.8 ke 4.7 nm serta peningkatan dalam keheterogenan liang dan luas permukaan BET dari 215 ke 759 m²/g. Namun, ujian bulus NO menunjukkan EFBC-400 adalah lebih baik untuk penyingkiran NO berbanding rendah disebabkan kepentingan mikroliang dalam penjerapan NO. Kajian seterusnya akan melihat kepada kinetik penyingkiran NO dan penjerapan semula penjerap.

Kata kunci: Kawalan pencemaran udara, Tandan kosong kelapa sawit, Pengkarbonan, Penjerapan, Nitrik oksida, Pencirian liang

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen oxides (NO\textsubscript{x}), known cumulatively for nitric oxide (NO) and nitrogen dioxide (NO\textsubscript{2}) are toxic gases as they are perilous to humans and the environment. The formation of acid rain, for example, is due to the reaction between water molecules in the atmosphere and nitrogen oxides (NO\textsubscript{x}) or sulphur oxides (SO\textsubscript{y}), which are largely emitted from industries and vehicles [1,2]. One of the methods developed for the treatment of NO\textsubscript{x} is activated carbon adsorption. Activated carbon with well-developed pore structures is versatile and has been widely used as adsorbents, catalysts, and/or catalyst supports in many applications such as for pharmaceutical usage, gaseous storage or purification and separation, pollutants and odour removal, etc. [3–5]. The diversity of pore characteristics makes activated carbon suitable for different applications, e.g. activated carbon with microporous characteristics is more favourable for gaseous adsorption, while mesoporous one is more suitable for liquid pollutants due to the larger size of liquid molecules [6].

Activated carbon can be produced through physical or chemical activation [7], but method selection largely influences the pore characteristics, including the pore shapes, pore size distribution, and surface chemistry [8]. Physical activation is usually a two-step process; initially started with carbonisation of a carbonaceous precursor in inert condition, followed by activation at high temperature in the presence of activating agents e.g. carbon dioxide (CO\textsubscript{2}) or steam [9]. Chemical activation is commonly a one-step process in which raw material gets carbonised and impregnated with a chemical agent at moderate temperature in air or inert atmosphere at the same time. Chemical activation requires lower energy and operating cost while producing higher carbon yields, high surface areas, and a well-developed porous structure. On the other hand, the surface chemistry on the carbon precursor can be modified with various activating agents such as NaOH [10,11], KOH [12], H\textsubscript{3}PO\textsubscript{4} [13-15], and HNO\textsubscript{3} [16,17] to enhance surface oxygen complexes [18] which normally aid in the adsorption process.

The abundance of agricultural by-products makes them a good alternative for activated carbon precursors [19]. The use of carbonaceous materials for NO removal has been extensively studied including olive stone [20], date pits [21], walnut shell [22], rice straw and sewage sludge derived char [23], orange skin [24] palm shell [25] cherry stones [26] and coconut shell [18]. As the second-largest producer of crude palm oil in the world, Malaysia produces abundant oil palm biomass, e.g., frond and empty fruit bunch (EFB), which are commonly disposed in a landfill or used as organic fertilizer by leaving them mulching on plantation ground [26,27]. Oil palm EFB has high carbon content and is rich in lignin, thus, could be used as a precursor material for activated carbon production. Carbonisation temperature is among critical activation process parameters as it could influence the complex carbon structure generated. This work aims to investigate the influence of carbonisation temperature on the surface pore properties of the activated carbon produced from EFB for low temperature NO removal.

2.0 METHODOLOGY

2.1 Activation and Carbonisation Process

Oil Palm EFB fibre collected from United Oil Palm Mill Sdn. Bhd, Nibong Tebal, Penang, Malaysia, was physically cleaned and dried at 110°C for about 24 hours to remove surface moisture before undergoing the chemical activation process. Initially, the raw EFB was soaked with concentrated phosphoric acid at 1:1 (wt./vol.) in a 1500 mL beaker for 30 minutes at room temperature, followed by carbonisation at different temperatures, i.e., 400, 450, 500 and 550°C in a furnace for 24 hours. The activated carbon produced from carbonisation of EFB (EFBC) was abbreviated as EFBC-400, EFBC-450, EFBC-500, and EFBC-550 based on their carbonisation temperatures, respectively. Afterward, the EFBC samples were cooled to room temperature and washed with copious hot distilled water to remove residual acid and left to dry in the oven overnight at 110°C. The dried EFBC was sieved to obtain average particle sizes between 0.5-1 mm for further testing.

2.2 Characterisation of EFBC

Nitrogen adsorption/desorption analysis was conducted at -196°C using a surface area and porosity analyser (Belsorp Mini II, Japan) based on BET method. Approximately 0.2 g of sample was used for the analysis and degassed at 300°C for 3 hrs under nitrogen flow. Following that, the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET), t-plot and Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) methods were used to calculate the specific surface area, micropore volume and mesopore volume respectively, while the total pore volume was calculated from the N\textsubscript{2} adsorption-desorption isotherm. The volume of nitrogen held at the highest relative pressure (p/p\textsubscript{0} = 0.99) was used to determine the pore volume. The mesopore size distribution was determined based on the BJH method, while the micropore size distribution was obtained based on the micropore analysis method (MP-method).

In addition, the surface morphology of raw EFB and EFBC at different carbonisation temperatures was analysed using micrographs obtained at 5000× magnification with Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopy (FEI Nova NanoSEM 450).

2.3 NO Breakthrough Experiments

For breakthrough experiments, 5 g of EFBC sample was placed in the middle of a quartz column reactor with 1.5 cm internal diameter and 25 cm length, while the
The rest of the empty space was filled with quartz wool. The schematic diagram of the experimental rig for NO breakthrough experiment was already shown in a previous work [28]. Nitric oxide (NO) breakthrough experiment was performed at 100°C using a 100 mL/min flow of 500 ppm NO, balanced with helium. All gases were supplied by Linde, Malaysia. The total flow rate was controlled using a mass flow controller (Aalborg Instruments, USA). The sample was initially flushed with helium for 1 hour, followed by a breakthrough test until equilibrium or for 2 hours. The inlet and outlet concentration of NO was measured using a NO gas analyser (TESTO 340, Germany). The gas analyser was pre-calibrated with zero (helium) and span (3000 ppm NO) gas before experiment. The NO adsorption capacity was calculated at the non-STP condition from the following dynamic mass balance equation (1):

\[ q = \frac{Q_f h V_t}{m_c} \]  

Where \( q \) is the adsorption capacity (mg/g), \( Q_f \) is the volumetric feed flow rate at STP [L/min], \( V_t \) is mole fraction of NO in the feed, \( m_c \) is the mass of EFBC samples [g].

The time equivalent, \( t \) to the adsorption capacity was obtained from equation (2):

\[ t_t = \int_0^t (1 - \frac{C}{C_0}) \, dt \]  

where \( t \) is the time at equilibrium, \( C \) is the concentration of NO at time \( t \), and \( C_0 \) is the initial concentration of NO.

### 3.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 3.1 Surface Area and Pore Characteristics

Figure 1 shows the nitrogen adsorption/desorption isotherms, while Table 1 shows the BET specific surface area (\( S_{BET} \)), micropore volume (\( V_{mic} \)), total pore volume (\( V_t \)), percentage of micropores (\( \% \)) or ratio of micropore volume to total pore volume (\( \frac{V_{mic}}{V_t} \)) and average pore diameter (\( D_{ave} \)) of each sample at different carbonisation temperatures. The isotherm of EFBC carbonised at 400°C (EFBC-400) in Figure 1 shows a flat plateau shape, concave to the relative pressure (\( p/p_0 \)) axis, with a limiting value as \( p/p_0 \) approaches 1, indicative of Type I isotherm. This indicates that monolayer adsorption is happening and shows that EFBC has the characteristic of microporous solids (pore size < 2 nm). From 450°C onwards, the curve started to transform towards a Type IV isotherm with a characteristic hysteresis loop, indicating that multilayer adsorption can be expected, together with capillary condensation that takes place in the mesopores.

As can be observed in Table 1, the average pore diameter increases from 2.8 to 4.7 nm, indicating that the pores are enlarged as the temperature of carbonisation rises. At the same time, the percentage of micropores also decreases from around 80% at 400°C to 54% at 550°C. Table 1 also shows an increase in the \( S_{BET} \) from around 215 to 760 m²/g, total micropore volume from 0.15 to 0.5 cm³/g, and total pore volume from 0.15 to 0.9 cm³/g as the carbonisation temperature increases from 400 to 500°C, implying that the carbon surface is becoming more porous. Several previous works also reported similar enhancement in the pore structure of the carbon matrix due to the increase in carbonisation temperatures [29,30]. Such changes in pore characteristics with temperature rise from 400 to 550°C could be due to the increase in the decomposition of volatile matters from the precursor material [31]. Besides, with the increase in carbonisation temperature, the surface complexes (e.g., oxygen and phosphate surface groups) responsible for further carbon gasification are also increased, leading to enlargement of pores from micro to mesopore size. During carbonisation, the residual acid on the precursor surface is also decomposed, leaving the carbon matrix in an expanded state with an accessible pore structure.

Figures 2 (a-b) show the pore size distribution of EFBC samples derived from BJH and MP-plot methods respectively. Figure 2(a) indicates that the pore size
distribution curve of EFBC-400 is high below the 2 nm radius, confirming its microporous characteristic. An increase in volume distribution \( \frac{dV_p}{dr_p} \) with \( r_p \) (up to 60 nm) can also be observed as the carbonisation temperature increases from 400 to 550°C, indicative of the increase in the pore heterogeneity. On the other hand, Figure 2(b) shows that increasing carbonisation temperature also influences the pore radius and heterogeneity in the lower size range, between 0.4-2 nm. Although the percentage of microposity is reduced due to enlargement of some of the pores, more micropores are actually produced at 550°C compared to the other samples.

The result indicates that activation of EFB with phosphoric acid (H\(_3\)PO\(_4\)) and heat treatment is successful in creating pores, which are expected to be favourable for adsorption of gaseous pollutants like NO\(_x\). Like other chemical activating agents, H\(_3\)PO\(_4\) plays an important role as a dehydrating agent that could penetrate deep into the carbon structure, resulting in the development of pores on the surface of activated carbon precursor [31].

![Figure 2 Mesopore (a) and micropore (b) size distributions of EFBC at various carbonisation temperatures obtained using BJH and MP methods](image)

**Figure 2** Mesopore (a) and micropore (b) size distributions of EFBC at various carbonisation temperatures obtained using BJH and MP methods

### 3.2 Surface Morphology

It has been shown in Section 3.1 that increasing carbonisation temperature results in the enlargement of pores and pore heterogeneity on the carbon complex, which are also reflected in the FESEM micrograph images shown in Figures 3(a-e) below. In Figure 3(a), the precursor material can be seen to have a thick wall structure, which is non-porous, while all EFBC samples carbonised at 400 and 450°C showed in Figure 3(b-c) exhibit a well-developed porous structure with quite uniform pore diameter ranging from 5 to 10 μm at 5000 times magnification, corresponding to actual pore size around 1-2 nm.

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At higher carbonisation temperatures (especially 500 and 550°C) shown in Figures 3(d-e), the pores are becoming less uniform, and some pores are becoming larger up to 20 μm (corresponding to 4 nm). As discussed earlier in Section 3.1, higher temperatures could play a more significant role in the decomposition of volatile matters and acid precursors.

3.3 NO Breakthrough Study

Finally, the resulting EFBC samples carbonised at varying temperatures were tested for NO removal under a mild condition with a 100 mL/min flow of 500 ppm NO at 100°C. In general, it can be observed from Figure 4 that the NO breakthrough curves become less gradual to achieve saturation with the increasing carbonisation temperatures. The time taken to achieve breakthrough point at C/CO=0.05 also reduces from around 31 to 14 s as the carbonisation temperature increases from 400-550°C. On the other hand, Table 2 shows that the corresponding NO adsorption capacity by EFBC-400 after 2 hours of the experiment is 0.58 mg/g at maximum, and this decreases to 0.14 mg/g with increasing temperature to 550°C (EFBC-550).

Apart from the well-understood influence of oxygen surface functional groups generated on EFBC due to pre-treatment with H₃PO₄ [3,6,32], which is not of debate here, these results indicate that the surface pore structure of EFBC also plays a role in NO removal at low temperature (100°C). In the previous sections, EFBC-400 has been shown to have the highest percentage of micropores, lower pore volume, lower average pore diameter and more uniform pore structures than the other samples.

![Figure 3](image3.png)

Figure 3 FESEM images of raw EFB and EFBC at different temperature of carbonisation at 5000x magnifications: (a) raw EFB, (D) EFBC-400, (c) EFBC-450, (d) EFBC-500, and (e) EFBC-550

![Figure 4](image4.png)

Figure 4 The breakthrough curves of EFBC at different carbonisation temperatures

| Sample    | Adsorption capacity (mg/g) |
|-----------|----------------------------|
| EFBC-400  | 0.584                      |
| EFBC-450  | 0.340                      |
| EFBC-500  | 0.323                      |
| EFBC-550  | 0.137                      |

Table 2 NO adsorption capacities of EFBC at different carbonisation temperatures

Apparently, such characteristics are better for NO removal by EFBC, similar to Claudino et al. who reported a higher NO adsorption by PK35 with smaller average micropore width (about 2.24 nm) apart from the role of oxygen functionality groups in NO removal [33]. On the other hand, Kaneko et al. reported that the optimum pore diameter for NO adsorption is 0.6–1.1 nm based on micropore filling of supercritical NO [34], which is even smaller than the pore diameter of EFBC-400 in this work (2.78 nm).

In addition, a previous work explained that an appropriate size of micropores is required for NO removal from a kinetic point of view [35]. The size and the shape of the pores can greatly influence the accessibility to the carbon’s internal area, thereby improving the mass transport of reacting gas from the exterior surface to an active site beneath the surface and transport of products in the opposite direction [36]. The significance of microporous structure for NO removal is also supported by several previous studies.
including a study on waste-derived activated carbons for control of nitrogen oxides [37].

4.0 CONCLUSION

Chemical activation of oil palm empty fruit bunch (EFB) biomass using H3PO4 produced porous activated carbon with BET surface area ranging from 215 to 759 m²/g. All EFB samples showed an increase in the surface area and total pore volume with an increase in carbonisation temperature from 400 to 550°C. EFB carbonised at a lower temperature (400°C) was found to exhibit a microporous structure with 98% of micropores, favouring NO removal at low temperature (100°C) than the rest (carbonised at 450-550°C). As the carbonisation temperature rises, the pores were enlarged, becoming more mesoporous and less uniform while the heterogeneity of pores was increased. This slightly decreased the NO adsorption capacity from 0.58 to 0.14 mg/g. It can thus be suggested that a proper pore size of EFB is important in the kinetics of NO adsorption, by improving the accessibility of NO to the internal area of the carbon. Future work will include an evaluation of the kinetics of NO removal through application of various kinetic models including Avrami’s and intra-particle diffusion, as well as a study on EFB regeneration.

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