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4 **11 Abstract**
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8 **12** The valorization of lignocellulosic biomass waste into bio-based materials is proposed in this
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10 **13** work. Cylindrical activated carbon monoliths (ACMs) were prepared from Alcell®, Kraft lignin
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12 **14** and olive stone by chemical activation with H₃PO₄. To our best knowledge, there is no previous
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14 **15** information about the preparation of ACMs from any type of lignin. The extrusion of the
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16 **16** adequate mixing, without any kind of binder, was carried out in an extruder designed by
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18 **17** ourselves with different dies. Carbon monoliths without and with holes (25 or 120 channels/cm²)
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20 **18** were obtained. In case of lignin precursors, a stabilization step was optimized to minimize the
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22 **19** problems of plasticity and swelling of lignin. N₂ adsorption-desorption at -196 °C and Hg
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24 **20** porosimetry results show that activated carbon monoliths presented pore size distributions in the
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26 **21** micro and mesopore range, with high surfaces areas (c.a. 1500 m²/g) and relatively high
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28 **22** mesopore volume (0.35 cm³/g). The bulk density of the monoliths is also very high (~1.1 g/cm³
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30 **23** for ACM from Alcell lignin). Electrochemical characterization of binderless activated carbon
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32 **24** monolith electrodes was carried out by cyclic voltammetry and galvanic charge-discharge
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34 **25** techniques. The ACM from olive stones presents the highest specific capacitance, with
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36 **26** approximately 217 F/g.
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28 Keywords: activated carbon monolith; lignin; biomass waste; binderless; phosphoric acid
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4 **30 1. Introduction**
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8 **31** The conversion of lignocellulosic biomass waste into bio-based materials can be an interesting
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10 **32** route for its valorization, constituting an important incentive for a higher implementation of
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12 **33** biorefineries, and a further benefit for biomass waste-generating companies. Among the different
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14 **34** possibilities, the preparation of activated carbon from these lignocellulosic biomass waste
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16 **35** present many advantages, such as the great versatility and their exponentially increasing demand
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18 **36** of these materials. Furthermore, it supposes an opportunity to reduce environmental impacts. In
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20 **37** this sense, the structure and composition of lignocellulosic materials make them ideal precursors
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22 **38** for the preparation of activated carbons. Activated carbons are usually in form of powder;
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24 **39** however, they can be present in different morphologies (powder, pellet, monolith, fiber). The
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26 **40** application of the activated carbons will determine the most adequate morphology in each case.
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33 **41** Monolithic configurations usually present large geometric surface area, which results in a low-
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35 **42** pressure drop when there are high flow rates, making them very useful materials to be used as
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37 **43** adsorbents and supports for catalysts in environmental applications. Activated carbon monoliths
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39 **44** (ACMs) have also shown promising results as electrodes for supercapacitors [1-2]. In this sense,
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41 **45** the use of ACMs avoids the use of additives, such as binder and conductive agents. Furthermore,
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43 **46** the bimodal pore size distribution of ACMs presents the advantage that small pores offer high
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45 **47** effective surface area for electrochemical reactions, whereas large pores facilitate electrolyte
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47 **48** ingress throughout the structure. In particular, the importance of these macropores is increased
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49 **49** when employing an aqueous electrolyte because of the hydrophobic surface of carbon [3].
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51 **50** Additionally, they present relatively higher energy density than powder activated carbons.
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4 51 Many researchers have come up with different approaches to produce ACMs. They are usually,
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7 52 made by compressing the corresponding activated carbon in the presence of a binder, which
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9 53 usually implies a reduction of pore sizes due to partial blocking, or in less extent in absence of
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11 54 any type of additive by applying a very high pressure [4-8]. Other alternative methods are
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13 55 impregnation of porous ceramic with a carbonaceous solution or simply by the extrusion of an
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15 56 impregnated material with different activating agents, such as H_3PO_4 , KOH and $ZnCl_2$, until
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17 57 obtaining the adequate rheological conditions to be extruded [9-16].
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22 58 There are different methods to prepare activated carbons. In general, activation with phosphoric
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24 59 acid presents several advantages: (a) it occurs in a single or multiple thermal treatment process
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26 60 and leads to a high carbon yield, the acid can be economically recovered, (b) it is effective at
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28 61 relatively moderate temperatures, and (c) it results in materials with mixed porosity that widen
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30 62 the scope of its application.
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35 63 Specifically, the preparation of binderless ACM from some kind of biomass waste has been
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37 64 already reported. For instance, ACM in form of disks were obtained from coconut shell and
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39 65 African palm by chemical activation with H_3PO_4 solutions [17-19]; ACM with six hexagonal
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41 66 parallel channels were prepared from African palm shells with H_3PO_4 , $ZnCl_2$ and $CaCl_2$ solutions
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43 67 [20]; disks from coconut shells with zinc chloride [21]; honeycomb monoliths from orange peel
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45 68 with H_3PO_4 , KOH, $ZnCl_2$, and water vapor (neither image was reported in this case) [22]; and
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47 69 pellets from olive stones with H_3PO_4 [23]. These previous works used the activating agent as a
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49 70 binder to proceed with the extrusion, followed by the activation of the ACM. Other methods
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51 71 proposed in the literature prepared disks from fibres of oil palm empty fruit bunches and rubber
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53 72 wood sawdust by direct carbonization, compression and further activation with CO_2 , respectively
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4 73 [2,24]; and disks from olive stones with KOH activation, followed by compression in the
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7 74 presence of polyvinylalcohol as binder [25].
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9 75 To our best knowledge, there is an important lack of scientific information on the preparation of
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11 76 ACMs from lignin, and only it has been used as raw material for the production of activated
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14 77 carbons [26]. This fact can be associated to the plastic and swelling behavior observed when
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16 78 lignin is pyrolyzed under N₂ atmosphere. Rodriguez-Mirasol et al. noticed a clear relation
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18 79 between the ash content of lignin and the problems above mentioned, observing the
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21 80 disappearance of fusion and swelling when using kraft lignin with ash content above 8% [27].
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24 81 Nevertheless, this high inorganic percentage in the precursor would lead to a non-desirable high
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26 82 ash content in the final activated carbons.
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29 83 Therefore, the objective of this work is the preparation of binderless ACMs from lignin and olive
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32 84 stones. The first one derived from the pulp and paper industry and new biorefineries for
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34 85 bioethanol production (from lignocellulosic biomass); and the second one obtained in the olive
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37 86 industry. Kraft and Alcell® lignin, and olive stones, impregnated with H₃PO₄, are extruded, and
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39 87 subsequently activated. The obtention of disks and monoliths with different amount of channels
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42 88 are also evaluated. In order to minimize the possible fusion and swelling of lignin during
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44 89 activation, different approaches have been tested. Furthermore, the electrochemical properties of
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46 90 the ACMs are analyzed.
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50 91 **2. Experimental**

51 52 53 92 2.1. ACM preparation

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56 93 The ACMs were prepared from different biomassic precursors: Alcell® lignin (AL) (Repap
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58 94 Technologies Inc.); eucalyptus Kraft lignin (KL); and olive stone (OS) supplied by S.C.A.
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4 95 Olivarera and Frutera San Isidro, Periana (Málaga). The raw materials were milled and sieved to
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7 96 particle size range of 50-80 μm .

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10 97 These precursors were impregnated with H_3PO_4 in an impregnation ratio of 1 ($\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4/\text{raw}$
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12 98 material), and kept in a vacuum dryer for 24 hours, at 60 °C. In order to study the effect of the
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15 99 impregnation ratio, olive stone was also impregnated with an impregnation ratio of 2. The dried
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17 100 impregnated samples were mixed with distilled water to obtain the adequate rheological
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20 101 properties and plasticity to permit their extrusion. Therefore, the impregnated samples, without
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22 102 any kind of binder, were extruded in a extruder designed by our research group, using a
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25 103 cylindrical mould with an internal diameter of 2 cm, at room temperature and 0.8 MPa. The
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27 104 extruder is composed of different high quality designed die elements (internal diameter of 1 cm),
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30 105 with the aim of obtaining different type of monoliths (compact disc; 25 and 120 channels/ cm^2 ;
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32 106 respectively). When both lignins were used as raw materials, a stabilization step of the
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35 107 impregnated samples, previous to the extrusion, was necessary to partially avoid the swelling
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37 108 problems. The optimized methods consists of a thermal treatment at 250 °C, under air flow (150
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39 109 cm^3/min), for 1 h. Then, 50% of the stabilized material was milled and mixed with 50 % of non-
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42 110 stabilized impregnated lignin, obtaining a paste that finally is extruded to form the monoliths.

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45 111 Subsequently, the obtained monoliths were activated in a tubular furnace at 700 °C for 2 h, with a
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47 112 heating rate of 10 °C/min. Finally, activated monoliths were washed with distilled water at 60 °C,
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7 119 Ultimate analysis of the samples was performed using a LECO CHNS 932 system, and the
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10 120 corresponding oxygen content was calculated by difference. The ash content of the ACMs was
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12 121 calculated from the weight of the solid residue after being gasified in air at 900 °C.
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15 122 The porous texture of the ACMs was evaluated by N₂ adsorption–desorption at -196 °C and CO₂
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17 123 adsorption at 0 °C, using a micrometrics instrument (ASAP 2020 model) and by Hg porosimetry
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19 124 (Autopore IV model). The ACMs were previously outgassed for 8 h at 150 °C. The
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21 125 corresponding textural parameters were calculated by applying the BET equation and the t-
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23 126 method from the N₂ isotherm data; and the Dubinin–Radushkevich equation from the CO₂
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25 127 adsorption data.
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31 128 Surface chemistry of the ACMs was analyzed by temperature-programmed desorption (TPD).
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33 129 CO and CO₂ profiles were obtained in a custom quartz fixed bed reactor placed inside an
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35 130 electrical furnace and quantified by non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) gas analyzers (Siemens
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37 131 ULTRAMAT 22). The samples were heated from room temperature to 930 °C at a heating rate of
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39 132 10 °C/min in N₂ flow.
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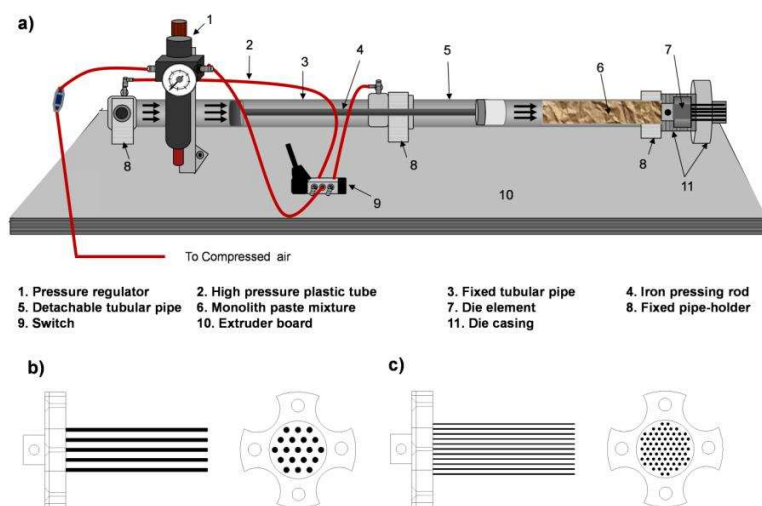
44 133 The real density of the ACMs was measured by helium pycnometer using an AccuPyc II 1340
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46 134 equipment. The surface texture and structure of the ACMs were characterized by scanning
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48 135 electron microscopy (SEM), with a JEOL JSM-6490LV instrument, obtained at a high voltage of
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50 136 20–25 kV.
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54 137 The electrochemical performance was studied by using a standard three electrode cell comprising
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56 138 of a platinum wire as counter electrode, Ag/AgCl electrode as reference electrode and a working
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58 139 electrode that contains the corresponding ACM, which was cut (thickness= 200 μm) and dried at
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4 140 100°C in a vacuum oven. Counter collector consists of a stainless steel mesh. Working and
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7 141 counter electrodes were placed face-to-face and tested in 1 M H₂SO₄ electrolyte. Samples were
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9 142 characterized by cyclic voltammetry technique at a scan rate of 1 mV s⁻¹ in an electrochemical
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12 143 analyzer, model SP-200 (Bio-Logic Int.).

144 3. Results and discussion

145 **Figure 1** shows a representation of the extruder designed by our research group for the
146 preparation of the ACMs. The extruder consists mainly of a cylindrical mould of stainless steel
147 with an internal diameter of 2 cm, and different die elements (internal diameter of 1 cm),
148 operated at room temperature. The set-up is able to provide a maximum of 1.6 MPa, although in
149 the preparation of these ACMs, the pressure has not exceeded, in any case 0.8 MPa. Two
150 different die elements were also designed with 19 and 72 pins to obtain monoliths with 25 and
151 120 channels/cm², respectively.



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153 **Figure 1.** Components of the home-made extruder designed for the ACM preparation.

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4 156 Table 1 summarizes the ash content and ultimate analysis of the different raw materials. KL
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7 157 presents a high ash content, about 12.4 %, in contrast to AL and OS with very low proportions.
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9 158 AL shows the highest percentage of carbon content (about 65 %). Furthermore, no trace of
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12 159 sulphur is observed in samples AL and OS. In the case of KL, the significant S (%) is derived
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14 160 from its preparation procedure (Kraft pulping or sulfate process).
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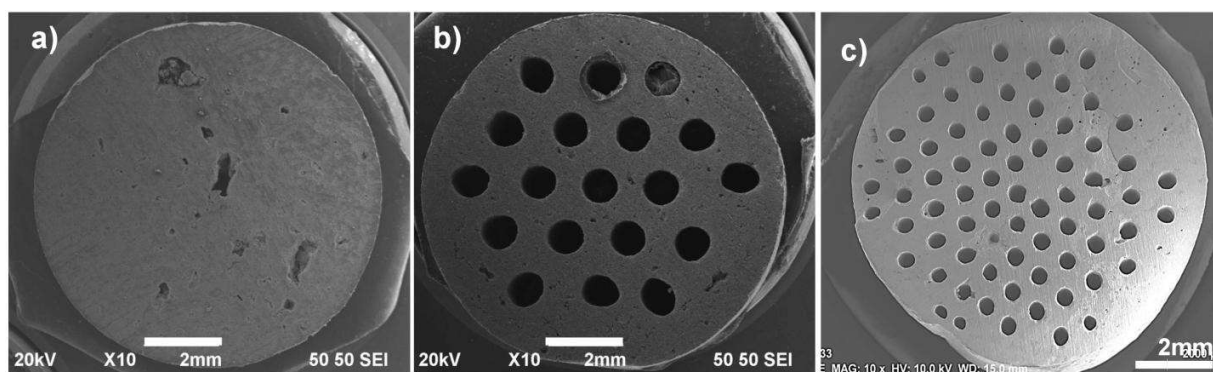
18 161 Table 1. Ash content and ultimate analysis of the different precursors in dry ash free (daf).
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Precursor	Ash (%)	C (%)	H (%)	N (%)	S (%)	O (%) [*]
OS	0.4	48.04	7.32	0.30	n.d.	44.15 ¹⁵³
AL	0.1	64.80	6.30	0.20	n.d.	28.70 ¹⁶⁴
KL	12.4	58.22	6.28	0.11	1.83	33.56 ¹⁶⁵
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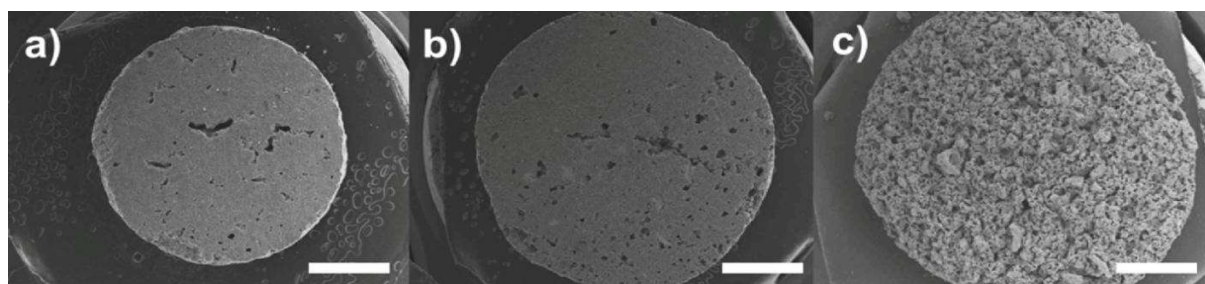
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42 170 The circular shaped monoliths obtained before the activation step present a cross section with a
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44 171 diameter of 0.9 cm. **Figure 2** shows some SEM micrographs of the different types of ACMs
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46 172 prepared from AL. As can be seen, the configuration of the extruder allows for obtaining disks
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49 173 and monoliths with 25 and 120 channels/cm² at very low pressure (0.8 MPa) compared to those
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51 174 reported in the literature obtained at 130 MPa [28-29]. ACMs undergo shrinkage of their sizes
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54 175 after the activation step. For instance, the diameter of the cross sectional view in the monoliths
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56 176 OS and AL at the same impregnation ratio, are reduced to approximately 25%. In general, the
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59 177 density cell of the different ACMs varies from 30 to 125 cell/cm², the wall thickness was from
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4 178 250 to 800 μm , the hydraulic diameter was from 0.7 to 4 cm, the open frontal area was between 5
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7 179 and 25 %, and the geometric surface area varies from 0.7 to 1 cm^2/cm^3 . **Figure 3** represents some
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9 180 SEM micrographs of the ACMs disks for the different raw materials: OS, AL, KL. It is important
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11 181 to mention that the ACMs obtained from lignin needed a previous stabilization treatment to
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13 182 avoid swelling during the activation step. As can be seen, OS and AL monoliths appeared to be
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15 183 very similar. In contrast, Kraft lignin monolith shows more similar xerogel-like morphology as
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19 184 shown in Fig. 3(c).



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36 186 **Figure 2.** SEM micrographs of the activated carbon monoliths a) carbon disk; b) monolith with
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38 187 25 channels/ cm^2 ; c) monolith with 120 channels/ cm^2 .



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56 190 **Figure 3.** SEM micrographs of the activated carbon monoliths disks from OS1; AL1; and KL1,
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58 191 respectively. Bar length: 2 mm.

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4 192 **Table 2** shows the yields and ultimate analyses of the ACMs. Yield is related to the composition
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7 193 of the raw material, i.e. hemicellulose, cellulose and lignin content. The highly aromatic and
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9 194 carbon-rich molecular structure of lignin devolatilizes to a lesser extent than cellulose and
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11 195 hemicelluloses [30]. In this sense, olive stones contain approximately 26–32% of lignin [31],
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14 196 which explains the lower yield of this monolith compared to that of Alcell lignin. In the case of
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16 197 Kraft lignin, the high ash content of this precursor is a probable explanation of its yield, which
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19 198 can be also directly related to the lowest carbon content obtained by the ultimate analysis. On the
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21 199 other hand, yields of OS, AL and KL monoliths are similar to those reported for different AC by
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24 200 Yakout et al., from OS [32]; Rosas et al., from AL [33], and Montane et al., from KL [34]
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26 201 respectively. Although these last ACs were obtained at different impregnation ratios. As
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29 202 expected, the yield of OS monoliths decreases with the impregnation ratio, as a consequence of a
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31 203 deeper dehydration of the carbonaceous structure of the precursor [35], and the corresponding
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34 204 carbon content increases [36-37]. These results suggest that the conformation into monoliths
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36 205 does not produce any significant influence of the yields of the obtained ACMs.

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39 206 **Table 2.** Yields and ultimate analyses of the ACMs in dry ash free (daf).

Monoliths	Yield (%)	C (%)	H (%)	N (%)	S (%)	O (%) [*]
OS1	39.5	78.96	3.73	0.31	n.d.	16.99
OS2	28.8	81.72	3.26	0.42	n.d.	14.60
AL1	40.5	86.26	3.95	0.31	n.d.	9.47
KL1	32.0	78.22	3.47	0.22	0.98	17.12

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58 213 *by difference, includes P content.
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4 **215** **Figure 4** represents the N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of the ACMs disks at -196 °C. It is
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6 **216** important to mention that no significant differences were found in the N₂ adsorption-desorption
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8 **217** isotherms of the different type of monoliths (disks; 25 and 120 channels/cm²) from the same
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10 **218** precursor. ACMs obtained from both Kraft and Alcell lignin show type I isotherms characteristic
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12 **219** of typical microporous solids, where almost all N₂ volume adsorbed takes place at low relative
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14 **220** pressures. Specifically, Kraft lignin-derived monolith presents a more pronounced horizontal
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16 **221** plateau, starting at very low relative pressure, indicating the presence of narrower microporosity.
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18 **222** The monoliths obtained from olive stone show a type IV isotherm with an increase of the
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20 **223** adsorbed volume in the entire relative pressure range, in general, the sample obtained at higher
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22 **224** impregnation ratio presents a large amount of porosity with microporous and mesoporous
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24 **225** structures. As it is well known, the increase of the relative amount of activation agent generates a
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26 **226** higher development of porosity, widening the porous structure of the monoliths [38].
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28 **227** On the other hand, the porosity development of the ACMs, at the same impregnation ratio,
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30 **228** follows the sequence: OS>AL>KL, probably due to the presence of cellulose in OS. In this line,
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32 **229** Guo and Rockstraw pointed out the great influence of the precursor in the porosity development,
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34 **230** showing higher surface areas in carbons obtained from cellulose than those from Kraft lignin, at
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36 **231** impregnation ratios equal or higher than 1 [39].
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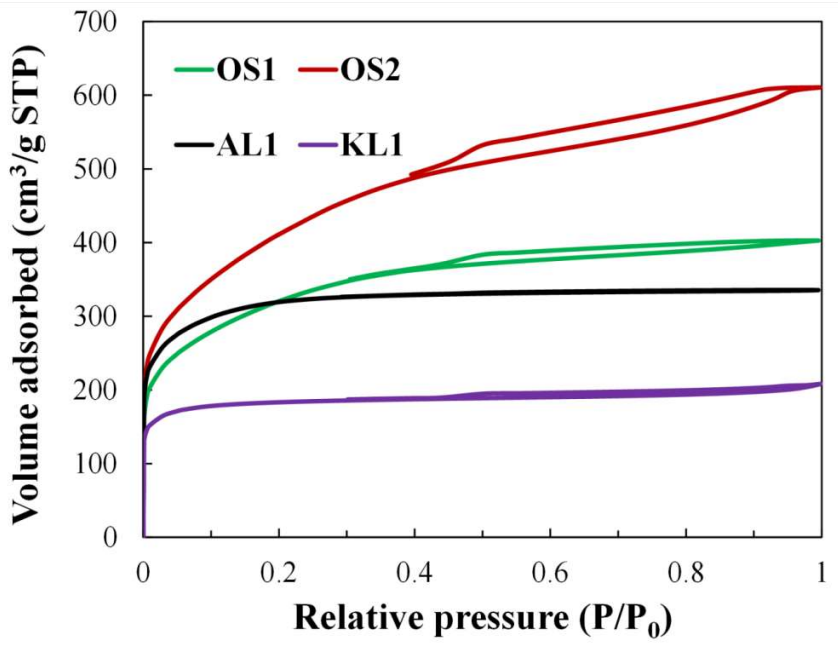
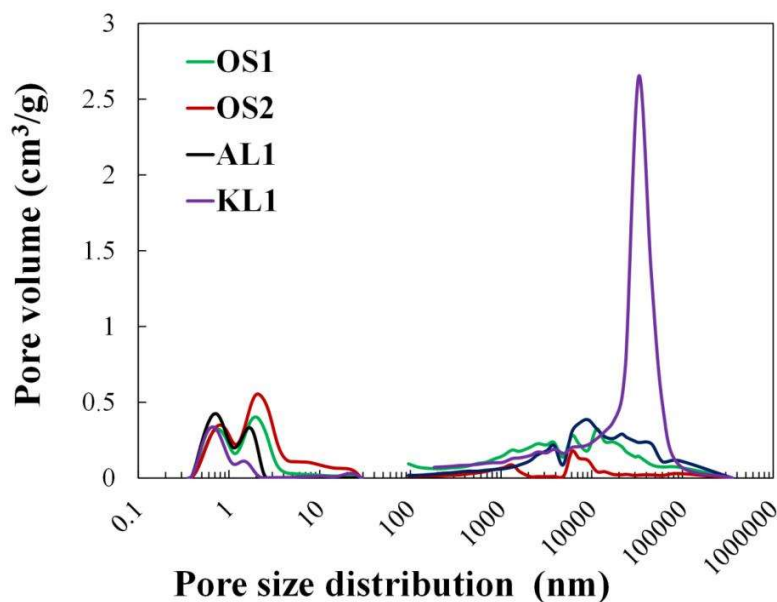


Figure 4. N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of the ACMs disks at -196 °C.

Figure 5 shows the pore size distribution (PSD) of the ACMs derived from both the N₂ adsorption-desorption at -196 °C and Hg porosimetry. With regard to the macroporosity, shown in the right side of the figure, the features observed in SEM micrographs are corroborated in the PSD, and the monolith from kraft lignin exhibits the highest contribution of macroporosity. In contrast, the presence of macropores in monoliths from olive stone is lower than that in monoliths from lignin. The left side of the figure shows the PSD obtained from N₂ adsorption-desorption at -196 °C. A broad pore size distribution was observed in all cases. All the ACMs present a predominant peak center around 0.7 nm and a second peak at pore sizes between 1.4 and 2.0 nm. The monoliths prepared from Kraft and Alcell lignin show a bimodal distribution in the micropore range. In the case of ACMs prepared from olive stone (OS1 and OS2), a wider pore size distribution is observed, obtaining mesopores up to 4 nm. This effect is more noticeable

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4 246 in the sample OS2 due to the higher impregnation ratio, which produces a broadening of the
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249 **Figure 5.** Pore size distribution (PSD) of the ACMs disks derived from both the N₂ adsorption-
250 desorption at -196 °C and Hg porosimetry.
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253 **Table 3** summarizes the textural parameters of the ACMs. The porosity percentage and the true
254 density were also collected in this table. The monoliths exhibit apparent surface areas (A_{BET})
255 between, 700 to 1500 m²/g, which indicate the well-developed porous structure produced after
256 the activation step. ACMs prepared from lignin (AL1 and KL1) present lower values of external
257 area (A_t) and mesopore volume (V_{mes}). On the other hand, when olive stone is used as precursor,
258 higher external surface area and mesopore volume are observed, obtaining at the impregnation
259 ratio of 2, $A_t=300$ m²/g and $V_{mes}=0.35$ cm³/g. Micropore volumes derived from CO₂ adsorption
at 0 °C are quite similar in all monoliths, ranging around 0.25 cm³/g. For the sake of comparison,
activated carbons obtained at the same experimental conditions than those used for monoliths

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4 260 were also prepared. The analysis of the porosity suggests that the extrusion does not modify
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7 261 substantially the porous structure of the activated carbon, even in some cases, a slight increase of
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9 262 the apparent surface area was observed.

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11 263 As aforementioned, there is certain lack of knowledge about the preparation of ACM from
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14 264 lignin. However, there are some works related to the obtention of ACM from olive stones. In this
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16 265 sense, the values of the apparent surfaces area are higher than some pellets reported in the
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19 266 literature [23], and the micropore volumes are in the same order than others [15]. In any case, the
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21 267 possibility of obtaining monoliths not only with higher porosity development, but also with
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24 268 different amount of channels, is an additional advantage compared to pellets, since the pressure
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26 269 drop associated to some applications, such as like adsorbents or catalysts, could make these
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29 270 ACMs into quite attractive materials. Specifically in electrochemical applications, the contact
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31 271 between particles in monoliths is much better than that observed in pellets made from
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34 272 compaction under pressure of a powdered carbon [40].

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38 274 The density of monoliths is also of great interest, overall, in the gas storage applications, where
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41 275 adsorption on a volumetric basis is an important design parameter [41]. The true density of the
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43 276 monoliths is around 1.75 g/cm^3 , but an increase of this value can be observed from OS to KL, at
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46 277 the same impregnation ratio. The true density of OS also increases with the impregnation ratio,
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48 278 as a consequence of the dehydration reaction at low temperature that would facilitate further
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51 279 repolymerization and condensation reaction and conversion to carbon [15]. The values obtained
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53 280 from the different precursors are quite similar to those reported in the literature from different
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56 281 lignocellulosic precursors [15,28]. It is important to point out that the monolith (from Kraft
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58 282 lignin) with higher true density also shows the highest porosity percentage, 64%. A relevant
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parameter in electrochemical applications is the bulk density, which can be calculated from the porosity and the true density. The values here obtained are ranging from 0.7 for KL1 to 1.4 g/cm³ for OS1, these values are considerably higher than others reported in the literature with monoliths obtained by compression of a powdered carbon [42-43].

Table 3. Physico-chemical parameters of the ACMs.

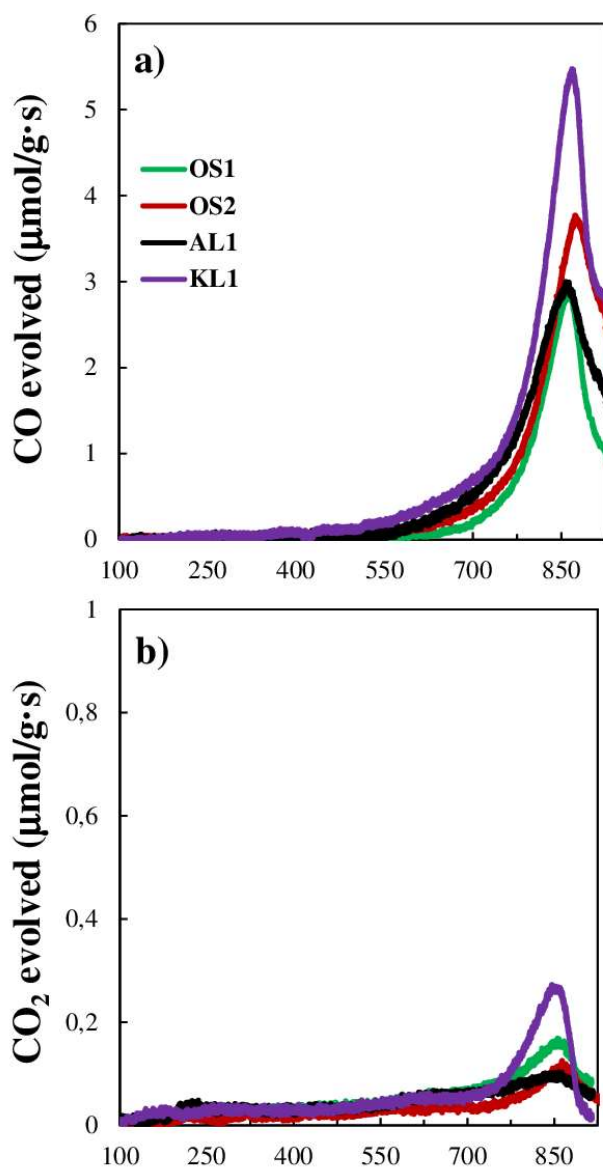
Sample	N ₂ adsorption				CO ₂ adsorption		Ø	ρ _{Tavg} ^{He} (g/cm ³)	TPD	
	A _{BET} (m ² /g)	V _t (cm ³ /g)	A _t (m ² /g)	V _{mes} (cm ³ /g)	A _{DR} (m ² /g)	V _{DR} (cm ³ /g)			CO (mmol/g)	CO ₂ (mmol/g)
OS1	1147	0.50	115	0.12	622	0.25	17.5	1.69	4.2	0.6
OS2	1489	0.59	297	0.35	638	0.26	48.0	1.82	6.4	0.4
AL1	1054	0.49	29	0.02	734	0.29	38.9	1.77	6.1	0.5
KL1	682	0.28	23	0.09	569	0.23	63.8	1.85	9.5	0.7

Figure 6 shows the CO (a) and CO₂ (b) evolution from TPD analyses of the different ACMs. The activated carbon monoliths show most of the CO evolution at high temperatures, which can be attributed to the presence of C-O-PO₃ groups formed during the activation of phosphoric acid, as reported by our research group in previous studies [33,44]. Wu and Radovic also reported the formation of this kind of groups by impregnating carbon/carbon composite samples with a methanol solution of methyl-phosphoric acid or phosphorus oxychloride and heating at ca. 600 °C [45]. A lower amount of CO is desorbed at temperatures below 700 °C, due to decomposition of anhydride, phenol and ether groups. The amount of CO₂ evolved (Fig. 6.b) from the ACMs is significantly lower than that corresponding to CO evolution, indicating a lower concentration of

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299 carboxyl, lactonic and anhydride surface groups. The monolith with the highest presence of CO-
300 evolving groups is that from Kraft lignin. This feature is quite relevant, because the surface
301 oxygen groups that decompose as CO are reported to be more electrochemically active than CO₂-
302 evolving groups, which can actively contribute to charge storage by pseudocapacitive reactions
303 [46]. The total amounts of CO and CO₂ released during the TPD analyses are also summarized in
304 Table 3. As can be seen, the amounts of CO desorbed are significantly higher for the sample
305 KL1, and very similar for the AL1 and OS2 carbon monoliths.

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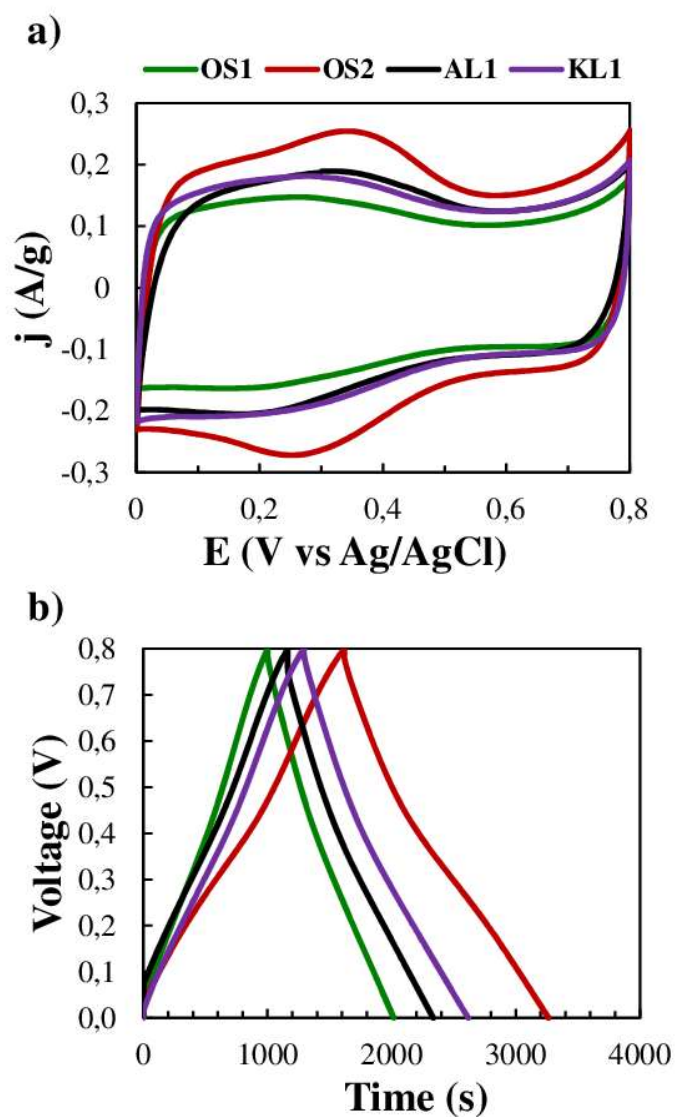
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308 **Figure 6.** CO (a) and CO₂ (b) evolution during the TPD of the different ACMs disks.

309 ACMs disks were tested in a three electrode cell with H₂SO₄ as electrolyte to evaluate their
 310 electrochemical performance. Cyclic voltammeteries were carried out for the potential window
 311 from 0 to 0.8 V, at a scan rate of 1 mV/s. Figure 7.a shows the cyclic voltammograms of ACMs
 312 and 7.b the corresponding galvanostatic charge-discharge curves. ACM electrode from OS2

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313 exhibits the highest current responses at this scan rate, followed by the KL1, AL1 and OS1
314 monolith. Based on the mechanism of double-layer charge/discharge, the specific capacitance of
315 the ACMs should be directly proportional to their apparent surface area (A_{BET}) [47]. In that case,
316 OS2 also presents the highest surface area and pore volume. However, KL1 shows a remarkable
317 electrochemical performance in spite of its low surface area and pore volume. This anomalous
318 result suggests that the specific capacitance of the ACMs was not only contributed by the
319 double-layer charge/discharge at the electrode–electrolyte interface but also by the redox
320 transitions of surface functional groups (i.e., pseudo-capacitance) [48] and/or by the differences
321 of the starting material [49]. In this sense, KL1 presents the highest amount of surface functional
322 groups, which desorb as CO during TPD (as reported in Table 3).



323
324 **Figure 7.**(a) Voltammogram data obtained at $1 \text{ mV} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$; (b) Galvanostatic charge-discharge
325 curves for the different ACMs disks.

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327 The constant current charge-discharge studies of the supercapacitor cell were performed between
328 cell voltages of 0.01 and 0.8 V, at a discharge current density of 50 mA/g. The shape of the

charge–discharge curves are closely linear and show a typical symmetric triangular distribution, indicating a good double layer capacitive property. Comparative values of specific capacitance from galvanostatic charge-discharge and cyclic voltammetry are listed in Table 4 for all the ACMs electrodes. The different methods to calculate specific capacitances reveal the same tendency. There is not a clear relationship between the specific capacitance values and the apparent surface area, suggesting the great influence of the type of precursor and the pseudo-capacitance. The values of capacitances for the ACMs are comparable or even better than others reported in the literature, with similar porosity [50], but the advantage of these materials is the use of a simple preparation method to obtain ACM electrodes from biomass waste precursors.

Table 4. Specific capacitances obtained from cyclic voltammetry (CV) and constant current charge-discharge (GCD) methods of the ACMs electrodes.

Electrodes	C_g^{CV} (F/g)	C_g^{GCD} (F/g)
OS1	122	134
OS2	191	217
AL1	144	161
KL1	151	166

Conclusions

A series of cylindrical activated carbon monoliths (ACMs) were prepared by chemical activation of different lignocellulosic biomass waste such as olive stone, Alcell and kraft lignin with

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4 350 phosphoric acid at different impregnation ratios. To our best knowledge, there is no previous
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7 351 information about the preparation of ACMs from any type of lignin. The extrusion of the
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9 352 adequate mixing, without any kind of binder, was carried out in a home-made extruder with
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11 353 different die elements. This method allows for obtaining disks and monoliths with 25 and 120
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17 355 In the case of lignin precursors, a stabilization step becomes necessary to minimize the problems
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19 356 of plasticity and swelling. Half of the impregnated sample is treated at 250 °C in air and mixed to
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22 357 the rest of impregnated sample before the extrusion. This method is valid for Alcell lignin. In the
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24 358 case of Kraft lignin, a partial contraction of the size is noticed. An activated micropore carbon
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27 359 monolith with an apparent surface area of about 1500 m²/g, with micropore volume of 0.538
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29 360 cm³/g was obtained at 700 °C with an impregnation ratio of 2, using olive stone as precursor. The
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32 361 bulk density of the monoliths is also very high (~1.1 g/cm³ for ACM from Alcell lignin). This
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34 362 high density opens the whole range of possibilities for different applications.

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37 363 Electrochemical characterization was carried out by cyclic voltammetry and galvanic charge-
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39 364 discharge techniques with electrodes from ACMs in the absence of any type of binder and
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42 365 conductivity promoter. The olive stone monolith presents the highest specific capacitance of all
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45 366 the ACMs, approximately 217 F/g. This value is higher than others reported in the literature for
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47 367 activated carbons obtained from lignocellulosic precursors.

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