

**PREPARATION OF ACTIVATED CARBONS FROM WASTE TYRES
CHAR IMPREGNATED WITH POTASSIUM HYDROXIDE AND CARBON
DIOXIDE GASIFICATION**

NURULHUDA BINTI AMRI

UNIVERSITI SAINS MALAYSIA

2008

**PREPARATION OF ACTIVATED CARBONS FROM WASTE TYRES
CHAR IMPREGNATED WITH POTASSIUM HYDROXIDE AND CARBON
DIOXIDE GASIFICATION**

by

NURULHUDA BINTI AMRI

**Thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of
Master of Science**

June 2008

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First of all, a great thankful to Allah S.W.T. upon the completion of this thesis. A special gratitude to my beloved parents, Hj. Amri Bin Lah and Hjh. Shatrah Binti Mohd Alwee and my siblings for their love, endless support and prays.

I would like to express my heartiest appreciation to my supervisor, Associate Professor Dr. Ridzuan Zakaria for his guidance, continuous support and supervision of the research project until the completion of the thesis. Special thank also goes to my co-supervisor, Associate Professor Dr. Mohd Zailani Abu Bakar for his invaluable suggestion and encouragement throughout my research. I am really honored for the opportunity to work under the supervision both of them.

I would also like to extend my gratitude to the Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation for the Long-term IRPA Grant provided throughout the entire study period. My gratitude also goes to Universiti Sains Malaysia for awarding me the USM Fellowship Scholarship Scheme for one and half year.

Sincere thanks to the Dean, Prof. Abdul Latif Ahmad and the Deputy Deans, Dr. Mashitah Mat Don for their support and assistance towards making this research a success. Not forgetting all staffs and technicians of School of Chemical Engineering, USM for their kindness and technical assistance during this work.

To my beloved husband, Mohamad Sabri bin Mohamad Sidik, thank you for always being there for me. Last but not least, thanks to all my dear friends Kak Midah, Farah Alwani, Kak Yus, Airene, Kak Shitah, Kak Lin, Dila, Pramila, Pakaq, Abir and other colleagues for their valuable help and moral supports throughout this study. Their friendship will always be remembered with joyful memories.

Nurulhuda Amri, June 2008

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|---|-------|
| Acknowledgement | ii |
| Table of Contents | iii |
| List of Tables | ix |
| List of Figures | xii |
| List of Plates | xvi |
| List of Abbreviations | xvii |
| List of Symbols | xviii |
| Abstrak | xx |
| Abstract | xxii |
| | |
| CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION | |
| 1.1 Waste tyre and problem disposal | 1 |
| 1.2 Utilization of waste tyre using pyrolysis process | 3 |
| 1.3 Activated carbon | 5 |
| 1.4 Activated carbon adsorbents for waste water removal | 6 |
| 1.5 Problem statement | 7 |
| 1.6 Objectives | 8 |
| 1.7 Scope of study | 8 |
| 1.8 Organization of thesis | 9 |
| | |
| CHAPTER TWO - LITERATURE REVIEW | |
| 2.1 Definition of activated carbon | 11 |
| 2.1.1 History of activated carbon and summary of its uses | 11 |
| 2.1.2 Types of activated carbon | 13 |
| 2.2 Activated carbon preparation | 14 |
| 2.2.1 Carbonization | 16 |
| 2.2.2 Activation | 16 |
| 2.2.2 (a) Physical activation | 16 |
| 2.2.2 (b) Chemical activation | 19 |
| 2.2.2 (c) Physiochemical activation | 25 |
| 2.3 Activated carbon production from waste tyre rubber | 28 |

| | | |
|-----------|---|----|
| 2.3.1 | Composition of tyre rubber | 31 |
| 2.4 | Nature of activated carbon | 32 |
| 2.4.1 | Physical properties | 32 |
| 2.4.1 (a) | Yields | 32 |
| 2.4.1 (b) | Surface area, pore volume | 33 |
| 2.4.1 (c) | Pore size distribution | 38 |
| 2.4.1 (d) | The t-plot | 40 |
| 2.4.1 (e) | Surface morphology | 41 |
| 2.4.1 (f) | Adsorption capacity | 42 |
| 2.4.2 | Chemical properties | 43 |
| 2.4.2 (a) | Surface chemistry | 43 |
| 2.4.2 (b) | Chemical composition | 46 |
| 2.5 | The role of activated carbon for wastewater treatment | 48 |
| 2.6 | Adsorption | 48 |
| 2.6.1 | Adsorption mechanism | 49 |
| 2.7 | Adsorption of methylene blue and phenol | 50 |
| 2.7.1 | Methylene blue | 51 |
| 2.7.2 | Phenol | 52 |
| 2.8 | Adsorption isotherms | 53 |
| 2.8.1 | Langmuir isotherm | 54 |
| 2.8.2 | Freundlich isotherm | 56 |
| 2.9 | Adsorption Kinetics | 57 |
| 2.9.1 | The pseudo first order model | 57 |
| 2.9.2 | The pseudo second order model | 58 |
| 2.9.3 | Intraparticle diffusion model | 59 |
| 2.9.4 | Validity of kinetic model | 60 |

CHAPTER THREE - MATERIALS AND METHODS

| | | |
|-------|-----------------------|----|
| 3.1 | Introduction | 61 |
| 3.2 | Material and chemical | 61 |
| 3.2.1 | Material | 61 |
| 3.2.2 | Chemicals | 61 |
| 3.3.3 | Gases | 61 |

| | | |
|-----------|---|----|
| 3.3. | Experimental set-up | 63 |
| 3.4 | Experimental procedure | 64 |
| 3.4.1 | Activated carbon preparation | 64 |
| 3.4.1 (a) | Carbonization process | 65 |
| 3.4.1 (b) | Chemical treatment | 66 |
| 3.4.1 (c) | Activation process | 66 |
| 3.4.1 (d) | Washing stage | 67 |
| 3.4.1 (e) | Characterization study | 68 |
| | Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms | 68 |
| | Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) | 69 |
| | Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy | 70 |
| | Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) | 70 |
| | Elemental analyzer (EA) | 71 |
| 3.4.2 | Adsorption capacity studies | 72 |
| 3.4.2 (a) | Preparation of stock solution | 72 |
| | Preparation of methylene blue stock solution | 72 |
| | Preparation of phenol stock solution | 72 |
| 3.4.2 (b) | Preparation of absorbance calibration curve | 73 |
| | Preparation of calibration curve for methylene blue | 74 |
| | Preparation of calibration curve for phenol | 75 |
| 3.4.2 (c) | Batch adsorption system | 76 |
| 3.5 | Experimental calculation | 77 |

CHAPTER FOUR - RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

| | | |
|-----------|--|----|
| 4.1. | Characterization of waste tyre. | 79 |
| 4.1.1 | Proximate and ultimate analysis | 79 |
| 4.1.2 | Surface morphology (SEM) | 80 |
| 4.2 | Preparation and characterization of waste tyre char. | 81 |
| 4.2.1 | Yield of waste tyre char | 81 |
| 4.2.2 | Nitrogen adsorption | 81 |
| 4.2.2 (a) | Nitrogen adsorption and desorption isotherms | 81 |
| 4.2.2 (b) | Surface area and porosity | 82 |
| 4.2.2 (c) | Pore size distributions | 83 |

| | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 4.2.3 | Proximate and ultimate analyses | 83 |
| 4.2.4 | Surface morphology (SEM) | 84 |
| 4.2.5 | Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) | 86 |
| 4.3 | Preparation and characterization of activated carbon from waste tyres. | 86 |
| 4.3.1 | Effect of activation temperature | 88 |
| 4.3.1 (a) | Effect of activation temperature on yield of activated carbon | 88 |
| 4.3.1 (b) | Effect of activation temperature on nitrogen adsorption | 89 |
| | Nitrogen adsorption and desorption isotherms | 89 |
| | Surface area and porosity | 91 |
| | Pore size distribution | 92 |
| | The t-plots | 93 |
| 4.3.1 (c) | Effect of activation temperature on proximate and ultimate analysis | 94 |
| 4.3.1 (d) | Effect of activation temperature on functional group (FTIR) | 95 |
| 4.3.1 (e) | Effect of activation temperature on surface morphology (SEM) | 96 |
| 4.3.1 (f) | Effect of activation temperature on adsorption capacity of phenol and methylene blue obtained by Langmuir isotherms. | 99 |
| 4.3.1 (g) | Concluding remarks | 99 |
| 4.3.2 | Effect of impregnation ratio | 100 |
| 4.3.2 (a) | Effect of impregnation ratio on yield of activated carbon | 100 |
| 4.3.2 (b) | Effect of impregnation ratio on nitrogen adsorption | 101 |
| | Nitrogen adsorption and desorption isotherms | 101 |
| | Surface area and porosity | 102 |
| | Pore size distribution | 103 |
| | The t-plots | 104 |
| 4.3.2 (c) | Effect of impregnation ratio on proximate and ultimate analysis | 104 |

| | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 4.3.2 (d) | Effect of impregnation ratio on functional group (FTIR) | 106 |
| 4.3.2 (e) | Effect of impregnation ratio on surface morphology (SEM) | 106 |
| 4.3.2 (f) | Effect of impregnation ratio on adsorption capacity of phenol and methylene blue obtained by Langmuir isotherms | 109 |
| 4.3.2 (g) | Concluding remarks | 109 |
| 4.3.3 | Effect of CO ₂ gasification time | 110 |
| 4.3.3 (a) | Effect of CO ₂ gasification time on yield of activated carbon | 110 |
| 4.3.3 (b) | Effect of CO ₂ gasification time on nitrogen adsorption | 111 |
| | Nitrogen adsorption and desorption isotherms | 111 |
| | Surface area and porosity | 112 |
| | Pore size distribution | 113 |
| | The t-plots | 113 |
| 4.3.3 (c) | Effect of CO ₂ gasification time on proximate and ultimate analysis | 114 |
| 4.3.3 (d) | Effect of CO ₂ gasification time on functional group (FTIR) | 115 |
| 4.3.3 (e) | Effect of CO ₂ gasification time on surface morphology (SEM) | 117 |
| 4.3.3 (f) | Effect of CO ₂ gasification time on adsorption capacity of phenol and methylene blue obtained by Langmuir isotherms | 118 |
| 4.3.3 (g) | Concluding remarks | 118 |
| 4.3.4 | The best condition for preparation of activated carbon | 119 |
| 4.4 | Adsorption studies of methylene blue and phenol onto prepared activated carbon | 120 |
| 4.4.1 | Equilibrium studies | 120 |
| 4.4.1 (a) | Effect of initial concentration for methylene blue and phenol | 120 |
| 4.4.1 (b) | Effect of contact time for methylene blue and phenol | 121 |

| | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| 4.4.2 | Adsorption isotherms | 123 |
| 4.4.2 (a) | Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm models for methylene blue adsorption. | 125 |
| 4.4.2 (b) | Langmuir and Freundlich isotherm models for phenol adsorption. | 129 |
| 4.4.3 | Kinetic studies | 131 |
| 4.4.3 (a) | Pseudo first order, pseudo second order and intraparticle diffusion for methylene blue adsorption. | 131 |
| 4.4.3 (b) | Pseudo first order, pseudo second order and intraparticle diffusion for phenol adsorption. | 135 |
| 4.4.4 | Validity of kinetic models | 139 |
| 4.4.5 | Comparison studies of activated carbons performance | 139 |
| 4.4.5 (a) | Methylene blue | 139 |
| 4.4.5 (b) | Phenol | 142 |

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

| | | |
|-----|-----------------|-----|
| 5.1 | Conclusions | 145 |
| 5.2 | Recommendations | 147 |

| | |
|-------------------|-----|
| REFERENCES | 148 |
|-------------------|-----|

APPENDICES

| | |
|------------|---|
| Appendix A | Calibration curves of methylene blue and phenol |
| Appendix B | Experimental calculation |

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

| LIST OF TABLES | | Page |
|-----------------------|---|-------------|
| Table 1.1 | The principle phases of pyrolysis process (Fortuna <i>et al.</i> , 1997) | 4 |
| Table 1.2 | List of local producer commercial activated carbons in Malaysia | 6 |
| Table 2.1 | Block diagram and comparison for both procedures used in the preparation of activated carbons (Din, 2005) | 15 |
| Table 2.2 | Summary of previous work on preparation of activated carbons produced by waste tyres using physical activation. | 20 |
| Table 2.3 | Summary of previous works on preparation of activated carbons produced by waste tyres impregnated with potassium hydroxide (KOH) | 24 |
| Table 2.4 | Summary of previous works on preparation of activated carbons produced by different raw materials using physiochemical activation | 29 |
| Table 2.5 | Typical composition of tyre (Zabaniotou and Stavropoulos, 2003) | 32 |
| Table 2.6 | List of surface area and pore volume properties of prepared activated carbons from waste tyres by the previous works | 37 |
| Table 2.7 | Adsorption capacities of methylene blue and phenol onto activated carbon adsorbent from tyres reported in the literature | 43 |
| Table 2.8 | The proximate and ultimate analyses data for the waste tyres and activated carbon | 47 |
| Table 2.9 | Comparison between physical and chemical adsorption (Ruthven, 1984) | 50 |
| Table 3.1 | List of chemicals | 61 |
| Table 3.2 | Pyrolysis parameters for activated carbon prepared from waste tyres | 65 |
| Table 3.3 | Properties of methylene blue | 72 |
| Table 3.4 | Properties of phenol | 73 |

| | | |
|------------|--|------------|
| Table 3.5 | Maximum wavelength of the adsorbates | 74 |
| Table 4.1 | Proximate and ultimate analyses of waste tyre | 80 |
| Table 4.2 | Surface area and pore volume parameters of prepared char at 800°C | 83 |
| Table 4.3 | Proximate and ultimate analyses of char | 84 |
| Table 4.4 | Surface area and pore volume parameters of the activated carbons at various activation temperatures | 92 |
| Table 4.5 | Proximate and ultimate analyses of prepared activated carbons at different activation temperatures | 95 |
| Table 4.6 | The adsorption capacity, Q_o of methylene blue and phenol on prepared activated carbons obtained by Langmuir isotherm models | 99 |
| Table 4.7 | Surface area and pore volume parameters of the activated carbons at various impregnation ratios | 103 |
| Table 4.8 | Proximate and ultimate analyses of prepared activated carbon at different impregnation ratios | 105 |
| Table 4.9 | The adsorption capacity, Q_o of methylene blue and phenol on prepared activated carbons obtained by Langmuir isotherm models | 109 |
| Table 4.10 | Surface area and pore volume parameters of the activated carbons at different CO ₂ gasification times | 112 |
| Table 4.11 | Proximate and ultimate analyses of prepared activated carbons at different CO ₂ gasification times | 115 |
| Table 4.12 | The adsorption capacity, Q_o of methylene blue and phenol on prepared activated carbons obtained by Langmuir isotherm models | 118 |
| Table 4.13 | Langmuir parameters of methylene blue adsorption onto AC850(5)2 adsorbent | 126 |
| Table 4.14 | Freundlich parameters of methylene blue adsorption onto AC850(5)2 adsorbent | 127 |
| Table 4.15 | Langmuir parameters of phenol adsorption onto AC850(5)2 adsorbent | 130 |

| | | |
|------------|---|------------|
| Table 4.16 | Freundlich parameters of phenol adsorption onto AC850(5)2 adsorbent | 130 |
| Table 4.17 | Kinetic parameters of the pseudo first order, pseudo second order and intraparticle diffusion models for adsorption of methylene blue at different initial concentrations | 132 |
| Table 4.18 | Kinetic parameters of the pseudo first order, pseudo second order and intraparticle diffusion models for adsorption of phenol at different initial concentrations | 137 |
| Table 4.19 | The maximum monolayer adsorption capacity of methylene blue on activated carbon adsorbent from tyres reported in the literature | 140 |
| Table 4.20 | The maximum adsorption capacity of phenol on activated carbon adsorbent from tyres reported in the literature | 142 |

| LIST OF FIGURES | | Page |
|------------------------|--|-------------|
| Figure 1.1 | The process flow of powdered activated carbon | 5 |
| Figure 2.1 | Two-dimensional representation of carbon activation (Lehmann, 1998) | 16 |
| Figure 2.2 | Thermal treatment scheme of two-step physical activation method (Gonzalez <i>et al.</i> , 2006) | 18 |
| Figure 2.3 | Thermal treatment scheme of one-step chemical activation method (Teng <i>et al.</i> , 2000) | 22 |
| Figure 2.4 | Thermal treatment scheme of two-step chemical activation method (Stavropoulos, 2005) | 23 |
| Figure 2.5 | Thermal treatment scheme of one-step physiochemical activation method (Hu <i>et al.</i> , 2003) | 26 |
| Figure 2.6 | Thermal treatment scheme of two-step physiochemical activation method (Wu and Tseng, 2006) | 27 |
| Figure 2.7 | Structure of Styrene-Butadiene Rubber (SBR) | 32 |
| Figure 2.8 | The IUPAC classification of adsorption isotherm shapes (Sing <i>et al.</i> , 1985) | 34 |
| Figure 2.9 | The phenomenon of hysteresis in adsorption where adsorption and desorption are not co-linear (Marsh and Reinoso, 2006) | 36 |
| Figure 2.10 | Different type of pores present in the activated carbon | 40 |
| Figure 2.11 | t-plots for activated carbons. (A) CZ carbon ; (B) PZ carbon and (C) CK carbon (Hu <i>et al.</i> , 2003) | 41 |
| Figure 2.12 | SEM image of (A) carbonized char (600°C) and (B) activated char using steam activation (Helleur <i>et al.</i> , 2001) | 41 |
| Figure 2.13 | FTIR spectra of activated chars derived from tyres (Sainz-Diaz and Griffiths, 2000) | 45 |
| Figure 2.14 | Adsorption process | 49 |
| Figure 2.15 | Most common adsorption isotherms found from dilute aqueous solutions on carbon materials (Moreno-Castilla, 2004) | 54 |

| | | |
|-------------|---|------------|
| Figure 3.1 | Flowchart of the overall experimental works | 62 |
| Figure 3.2 | Schematic diagram of the pyrolysis unit | 63 |
| Figure 3.3 | Thermal treatment scheme on prepared activated carbon | 67 |
| Figure 3.4 | Chemical structure of methylene blue (Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2005) | 72 |
| Figure 3.5 | Chemical structure of phenol (Dabrowski <i>et al.</i> , 2005) | 73 |
| Figure 4.1 | SEM images of waste tyres before carbonized with magnifications (A) 50x, (B) 1.00Kx, (C) 2.00Kx and (D) 4.00Kx | 80 |
| Figure 4.2 | Adsorption/desorption isotherms of N ₂ at 77K on prepared char | 82 |
| Figure 4.3 | Pore size distribution of char | 83 |
| Figure 4.4 | SEM images of carbonized char with magnifications (A) 1.00Kx, (B) 4.00Kx, (C) 10.00Kx and (D) 20.00Kx | 85 |
| Figure 4.5 | Fourier Transform Infra Red (FTIR) spectrums of char | 87 |
| Figure 4.6 | Products yield at different activation temperatures | 89 |
| Figure 4.7 | Adsorption/desorption isotherms of N ₂ at 77K on activated carbons prepared at various activation temperatures | 90 |
| Figure 4.8 | Pore size distribution for activated carbons, AC750(5)2, AC800(5)2 and AC850(5)2 | 93 |
| Figure 4.9 | The t-plots for activated carbons, AC750(5)2, AC800(5)2 and AC850(5)2 | 94 |
| Figure 4.10 | Fourier Transform Infra Red (FTIR) spectrums of prepared activated carbons at different activation temperatures | 97 |
| Figure 4.11 | SEM images of prepared activated carbon (A) AC750(5)2, (B) AC800(5)2 and (C) AC850(5)2 at 10.00 Kx | 98 |
| Figure 4.12 | Products yield at various impregnation ratios | 101 |
| Figure 4.13 | Adsorption/desorption isotherms of N ₂ at 77K on activated carbons prepared at different impregnation ratios | 102 |

| | | |
|-------------|--|------------|
| Figure 4.14 | Pore size distribution for activated carbons, AC850(3)2, AC850(4)2 and AC850(5)2 | 103 |
| Figure 4.15 | The t-plots for activated carbons, AC850(3)2, AC850(4)2 and AC850(5)2 | 104 |
| Figure 4.16 | Fourier Transform Infra Red (FTIR) spectrums of prepared activated carbons at various impregnation ratios | 107 |
| Figure 4.17 | SEM images of prepared activated carbon (A) AC850(3)2, (B) AC850(4)2 and (C) AC850(5)2 at 10.00 Kx | 108 |
| Figure 4.18 | Product yield at different CO ₂ gasification times | 110 |
| Figure 4.19 | Adsorption/desorption isotherms of N ₂ at 77K on activated carbons prepared at different CO ₂ gasification times | 111 |
| Figure 4.20 | Pore size distribution for activated carbons, AC850(5)1 and AC850(5)2 | 113 |
| Figure 4.21 | The t-plots for activated carbons, AC850(5)1 and AC850(5)2 | 114 |
| Figure 4.22 | Fourier Transform Infra Red (FTIR) spectrums of prepared activated carbons at different CO ₂ gasification times | 116 |
| Figure 4.23 | SEM images of prepared activated carbon (A) AC850(5)1 and (B) AC850(5)2 at 10.00 Kx | 117 |
| Figure 4.24 | Effect of contact time and initial dye concentration on adsorption of methylene blue by AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 120 |
| Figure 4.25 | Effect of contact time and initial phenol concentration on adsorption of phenol by AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 121 |
| Figure 4.26 | Equilibrium adsorption isotherm of methylene blue onto AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 124 |
| Figure 4.27 | Equilibrium adsorption isotherm of phenol onto AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 125 |
| Figure 4.28 | Langmuir isotherm of methylene blue onto AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 126 |
| Figure 4.29 | Freundlich isotherm of methylene blue onto AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 127 |

| | | |
|-------------|--|------------|
| Figure 4.30 | Langmuir adsorption isotherm of phenol onto AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 129 |
| Figure 4.31 | Freundlich adsorption isotherm of phenol onto AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 130 |
| Figure 4.32 | Pseudo first order kinetics for adsorption of methylene blue by AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 131 |
| Figure 4.33 | Pseudo second order kinetics for adsorption of methylene blue by AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 133 |
| Figure 4.34 | Intraparticle diffusion for adsorption of methylene blue by AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 135 |
| Figure 4.35 | Pseudo first order kinetics for adsorption of phenol by AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 136 |
| Figure 4.36 | Pseudo second order kinetics for adsorption of phenol by AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 136 |
| Figure 4.37 | Intraparticle diffusion for adsorption of phenol by AC850(5)2 adsorbent at 30°C | 139 |

LIST OF PLATES

Page

| | | |
|-----------|--|----|
| Plate 3.1 | Experimental rig for preparation of activated carbon | 64 |
| Plate 3.2 | UV-Visible spectrophotometer (Model Shimadzu UV-1601, Japan) | 74 |

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| AC | Activated carbon |
| BET | Brunauer, Emmet and Teller |
| BJH | Barrett-Joyner-Halenda |
| CH ₄ | Methane |
| CO ₂ | Carbon dioxide |
| DR | Dubinin-Radushkevich |
| DOE | Design of Experiment |
| EA | Elemental Analyzer |
| IR | Impregnation ratio |
| FTIR | Fourier Transform Infrared |
| HCL | Hydrochloric acid |
| IUPAC | International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry |
| KOH | Potassium hydroxide |
| N ₂ | Nitrogen |
| rpm | Rotation per minute |
| SEM | Scanning Electron Microscopy |
| SSE | Sum of error squares |
| TEM | Tranmission Electron Microscopy |
| TGA | Thermogravimetric Analyzer |

LIST OF SYMBOLS

| | | |
|--------------|--|-----------------------------|
| C | Intercept | Dimensionless |
| C_e | Equilibrium concentration of adsorbate | mg/L |
| C_o | Initial concentration of adsorbate | mg/L |
| C_t | Concentration of adsorbate at time, t | mg/L |
| q_e | Amount of adsorbate adsorbed at equilibrium | mg/g |
| $q_{e,calc}$ | Equilibrium adsorption capacity obtained from calculation of models | mg/g |
| $q_{e,exp}$ | Equilibrium adsorption capacity obtained from experiment data | mg/g |
| q_t | Amount of adsorbate adsorb per unit weight of adsorbent at time, t | mg/g |
| K_L | Langmuir isotherm constant | L/mg |
| K_F | Freundlich constant | (mg/g)(L/mg) ^{1/n} |
| k_1 | Rate constant of pseudo-first order sorption | 1/h |
| k_2 | Rate constant of pseudo-second order sorption | g/h.mg |
| k_i | Intraparticle diffusion rate parameter | mg/g. h ^{1/2} |
| M_1 | Concentration of initial adsorbate solution | mg/L |
| M_2 | Concentration of final adsorbate solution | mg/L |
| N | Number of data points | Dimensionless |
| n | Freundlich heterogeneity factor | Dimensionless |
| p/p^o | Relative Pressure | Dimensionless |
| Q_o | Maximum adsorption capacity corresponding to complete monolayer coverage | mg/g |
| R_L | Langmuir separation factor | Dimensionless |

| | | |
|------------|--------------------------------------|---------------|
| R^2 | Correlation coefficient | Dimensionless |
| S_{BET} | Total BET surface area | m^2/g |
| S_{mic} | Micropore area | m^2/g |
| S_{meso} | Mesopore area | m^2/g |
| $t^{1/2}$ | Half adsorption time | g/h. mg |
| V | Volume of solution | L |
| V_1 | Volume of initial adsorbate solution | mL |
| V_2 | Volume of final adsorbate solution | mL |
| V_{mic} | Micropore volume | cm^3/g |
| V_{meso} | Mesopore volume | cm^3/g |
| V_{tot} | Total pore volume | cm^3/g |
| ν | Stretching | Dimensionless |
| w | Weight of adsorbent | g |
| w_{ac} | Weight of activated carbons | g |
| w_c | Weight of chars | g |
| w_{KOH} | Weight of potassium hydroxide | g |
| w_{wt} | Weight of waste tyre | g |

**PENYEDIAAN KARBON TERAKTIF DARIPADA ARANG TAYAR
TERBUANG DIJERAP ISI DENGAN KALIUM HIDROKSIDA DAN
PENGASAN KARBON DIOKSIDA.**

ABSTRAK

Penghasilan karbon teraktif daripada bahan pepejal terbuang merupakan salah satu daripada penyelesaian masalah alam sekitar yang mesra alam dengan mengubah bahan terbuang yang bernilai negatif kepada bahan yang bernilai. Oleh itu, objektif utama penyelidikan ini ialah menyediakan karbon teraktif daripada tayar terbuang menggunakan kaedah fizikal kimia dua langkah. Proses pengkarbonan dijalankan pada suhu 800°C di bawah kadar aliran nitrogen 150 ml/min. Arang terhasil dijerap isi dengan kalium hidroksida (KOH) pada nisbah jerap isi yang berbeza (3, 4 dan 5). Arang yang telah dirawat secara kimia kemudiannya melalui proses pengaktifan pada pelbagai suhu pengaktifan (750°C, 800°C dan 850°C) di bawah masa penggasan karbon dioksida (CO₂) yang berbeza (1 dan 2 jam). Keadaan yang paling sesuai bagi penyediaan karbon teraktif ialah pada suhu 850°C, nisbah jerap isi 5 dan masa penggasan CO₂ selama 2 jam, dan ia dinamakan sebagai AC850(5)2. Melalui pemerhatian, AC850(5)2 memberikan luas permukaan yang tertinggi sebanyak 353.49 m²/g dan isipadu liang keseluruhan sebanyak 0.64 cm³/g dengan pecahan liang meso yang tinggi sehingga mencapai 90.55%. Diameter purata AC850(5)2 ialah di dalam lingkungan meso (4.92 nm). Prestasi kapasiti penjerapan bagi karbon teraktif yang disediakan di dalam penyelidikan ini dikaji dengan menggunakan 2 jenis bahan jerap yang berbeza iaitu metilena biru dan fenol. Penjerapan secara berkelompok dijalankan pada pelbagai kepekatan awal (100-500 mg/L) pada suhu

bilik (30°C) selama 48 jam. Kapasiti penjerapan didapati telah meningkat dengan peningkatan kepekatan awal. Bahan penjerap AC850(5)2 telah menunjukkan kapasiti penjerapan maksimum bagi metilena biru dan fenol iaitu masing-masing sebanyak 200.00 mg/g dan 192.31 mg/g. Bagi penjerapan metilena biru kepada bahan penjerap AC850(5)2, data penjerapan adalah berpadanan dengan garis sesuhu model Langmuir dengan nilai R^2 sebanyak 0.9999. Manakala bagi penjerapan fenol kepada bahan penjerap AC850(5)2, data penjerapan dapat dihuraikan dengan baik oleh garis sesuhu model Freundlich dengan nilai R^2 sebanyak 0.9380. Kajian kinetik bagi kedua-dua sistem penjerapan mematuhi model kinetik pseudo tertib kedua. Keputusan penyelidikan ini menunjukkan bahawa karbon teraktif daripada tayar terbuang adalah bahan penjerap yang menarik untuk penyingkiran metilena biru dan fenol daripada larutan akuas.

**PREPARATION OF ACTIVATED CARBONS FROM WASTE TYRES
CHAR IMPREGNATED WITH POTASSIUM HYDROXIDE AND CARBON
DIOXIDE GASIFICATION**

ABSTRACT

The production of activated carbons from solid wastes is one of the most environment-friendly solutions by transforming negative-valued wastes to valuable materials. Thus, the main objective of this research was to prepare activated carbons from waste tyres using two-step physiochemical activation method. The carbonization process was carried out at 800°C for 1 hour under nitrogen flow rate of 150 ml/min. The char products were impregnated with potassium hydroxide (KOH) at different impregnation ratios (3, 4 and 5). The chemically treated chars were then proceed to the activation process at various activation temperatures (750°C, 800°C and 850°C) under different carbon dioxide (CO₂) gasification time (1 and 2 h). The most suitable conditions for the preparation of activated carbons were found at temperature of 850°C, impregnation ratio 5 and CO₂ gasification time 2 h, namely as AC850(5)2. It was observed that AC850(5)2 gives the highest surface area of 353.49 m²/g and total pore volume of 0.64 cm³/g with high mesopore fraction up to 90.55%. The average pore diameter of AC850(5)2 was in the meso range (4.92 nm). The adsorption capacity performances of prepared activated carbons in this work were investigated using two different adsorbates; methylene blue and phenol. The batch adsorption study was carried out at different initial concentrations of adsorbates (100-500 mg/L) at room temperature (30°C) for 48 h. The adsorption capacity was found to increase with increasing of initial concentrations. AC850(5)2 adsorbent

presents the maximum adsorption capacities for methylene blue and phenol adsorption which are 200.00 mg/g and 192.31 mg/g respectively. For methylene blue adsorption onto AC850(5)2 adsorbent, the adsorption data were fitted to Langmuir isotherm with R^2 value of 0.9999. Whereas for phenol adsorption onto AC850(5)2 adsorbent, the adsorption data were described well by Freundlich isotherm with R^2 value of 0.9380. The kinetics studies on both adsorption systems obeyed the pseudo second order kinetic model. The result in this study indicated that activated carbon from waste tyres was an attractive adsorbent for removal of methylene blue and phenol from aqueous solutions.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Waste tyre and problem disposal

The automobile has become an indispensable means of transportation for many households throughout the world. Thus, the disposal of vehicle tyres represents a major environmental issue throughout the world. Globally more than 330 million tyres are discarded every year and accumulated over the years in different countries (Cunliffe and Williams, 1999). In Malaysia, an estimated 150,000 tonnes of waste tyres per year are dumped mostly in an illegal process. The disposal and reprocessing tyres are difficult since they contain complex mixture of different materials such as rubber, carbon black, steel cord and other organic and inorganic minor components (Rodriguez *et. al*, 2001).

There are major aspects of tyre problems such as tyres stockpiles provide breeding ground for mosquitoes and vermin, this in turn, causing serious disease and affecting human health. Fire hazards in large stockpiles could consequently cause uncontrollable burning and air pollution where it will be emitting large amounts of thick black smoke and noxious gases including carcinogens. Other than that, the current “conservation of natural resources concept”, i.e the reuse (retreat) first, then reuse the rubber prior disposal, does not accommodate the ever increased dumping of tyres. In fact, due to the high cost of legal disposal for tyres, illegal dumping may increase. The disposal of tyres is also becoming more expensive, while this trend is likely to continue as landfill space becomes more scarcer (Mui *et al.*, 2004).

Several attempts have been made to reduce the number of waste tyres, for example, by using them as a dock bumper, playground equipment, artificial reefs and others. Other than that, Jang *et al.*, (1998) also reported the used of discarded tyres as highway cash barrier which was studied in the late 1970s by the Texas Transportation Institute. However, no widespread use of tyres in this application has occurred. Therefore, from environmental and economical points of view, a much better solution is to convert such waste tyres into valuable products (Ariyadejwanich *et al.*, 2003).

A possible solution to overcome tyre problems would be recycling this cheap and plentiful resource as raw materials in alternative processes. In general, recycling is the economic reuse of materials from wastes like tyres to obtained improved products and energy. Their high volatile, carbon contents and higher heating value make them excellent material for energy recovery with the appropriate technology (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2001). Pyrolysis, incineration and gasification processes are considered to be more attractive and practical methods for recovering energy and by products such as carbon black, activated carbon and etc. from waste tyres.

Recently, much effort has been devoted to the thermal degradation of tyres into gaseous and liquid hydrocarbons and solid char residue, all of which have the potential to be processed into valuable products. The resulting hydrocarbons from thermal treatment can be used directly as fuel or added to petroleum refinery feedstocks. As for solid residue, the char can be used either as low-grade reinforcing filler or as activated carbon. However, reprocessing of the char from pyrolysis of

waste tyres into activated carbon has been considered to be a profitable way to convert this material into valuable product.

The activated carbons produced from tyre rubber could have commercial value in the (a) water purification (dissolved organics and toxic compounds, dechlorination, dye removal, municipal drinking water treatment, swimming pools etc.), (b) air purification (volatile inorganic and organic removal , solvent recovery, gas desulfurization, etc.), (c) special application such as batteries, fuel cells, nuclear power station, and (d) others such as cigarette filters and food industry (Zabaniotou and Stavropoulos, 2003).

Thus, the production of activated carbon adsorbents from waste tyre rubber can provide a two-fold environmental and economic benefit: A recycling path is created for waste vehicles tyres and new adsorbents are produced for commercial use in wastewater treatment.

1.2 Utilization of waste tyre using pyrolysis process

Many years back, incineration (without the recovery value) and landfill were the main and practical means for dealing with the problem of waste tyres. However, in light of the overall environmental impact along the drive toward energy and material conservation, more emphasise now has been given to the new disposal options having higher energy recovery values, and also being attractive environmentally.

From the comparison of different disposal available such as cryogenic pulverization, thermal destruction technologies (incineration with energy recovery), pyrolysis etc., it has been observed that pyrolysis appears to be the most viable means of waste tyres treatment and has a promising future (Fortuna *et al.*, 1997). Basically, pyrolysis involves the decomposition of organic wastes at high temperatures in an inert atmosphere or under vacuum. This process presents an alternative to scrap tyre disposal in landfill sites and can result in the recovery by a typical of useful products in an environmentally friendly manner. The products recovered by a typical pyrolysis process are usually, 33-38 wt% pyrolytic char, 38-55 wt% oil and 10-30 wt% gas fractions.

Pyrolysis offers an environmentally attractive method to decompose a wide range of wastes chemically (using system working at high temperature and oxygen-free environment), producing lower emission of nitrogen-oxide, sulphur-oxide and side by side valuable reusable products. For example, the oil and gas can be used as fuels within the pyrolysis system or for an adjacent plant such as combined heat and power system. The principle phases of pyrolysis process are given in Table 1.1 (Fortuna *et al.*, 1997).

Table 1.1: The principle phases of pyrolysis process (Fortuna *et al.*, 1997)

| Temperature, (°C) | Phases of pyrolysis process |
|-------------------|---|
| 20-100 | Mainly a dry phase meant for water removal and vapour formation |
| 100-150 | Starting of thermal degradation reaction |
| 200-500 | De-polymerisation, H ₂ S separation, formation of olefin, paraffin hydrocarbons and permanent gas. |
| 500-600 | Decomposition of long chain hydrocarbon into H ₂ , CO ₂ , CH ₄ and olefin. |
| >600 | Mainly aromatic radical reactions with the formation of aromatic compounds take place. |

1.3 Activated carbon

Activated carbon can be defined as highly porous, carbonaceous materials. Commercial activated carbons have surface areas greater than $400 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ and many have areas over $1000 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}$ (Merchant and Petrich, 1993). Generally, the commercial activated carbon was produced using two step physical activation consist of carbonization and activation process using steam as activating agent and this process will be discussed later in Chapter 2. Plate 1.1 shows the process flow for preparation of powdered activated carbon from sawdust obtained from Century Chemical Works Sdn. Bhd., (2006) as one of the local activated carbons producer. Table 1.2 lists the local activated carbon producers in Malaysia.

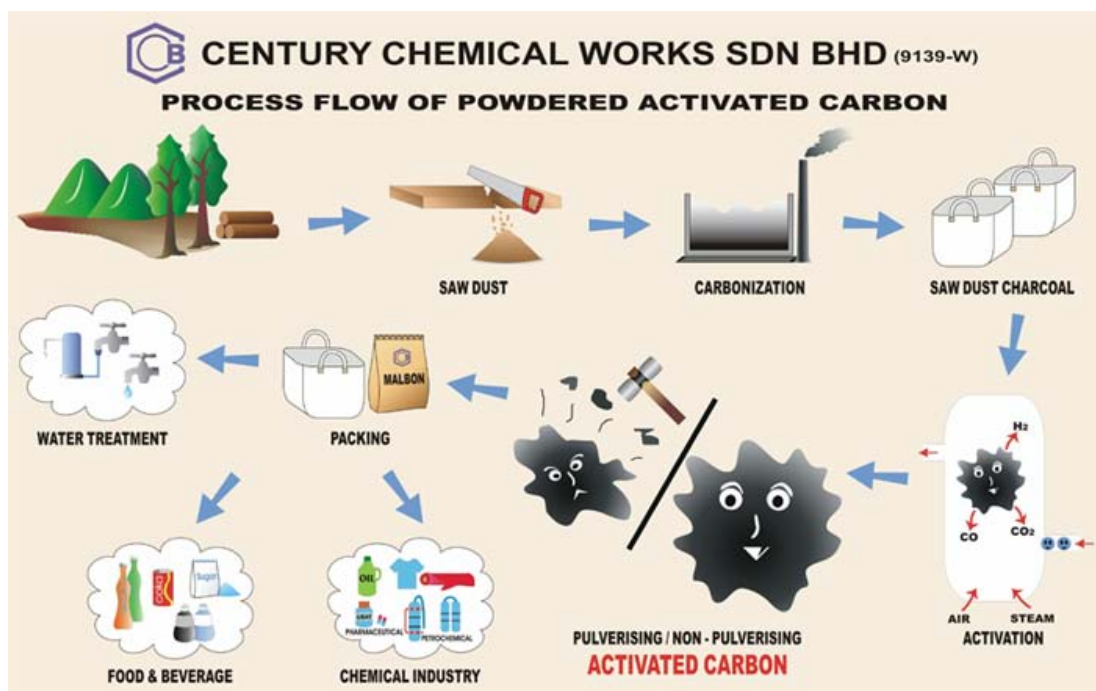


Figure 1.1: The process flow of powdered activated carbon (Century Chemical Works Sdn. Bhd., 2006)

Table 1.2: List of local producer commercial activated carbons in Malaysia

| Name of producer | Raw material used | Type of activated carbon | Surface area (m ² /g) |
|---|-------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Century Chemical Works, Penang | Sawdust charcoal | Powder form | 800-1000 |
| Effigen Sdn Bhd | Coconut shell | Granular and powder form | - |
| Laju Carbon Product Sdn. Bhd (LCP), Selangor. | Coconut shell | Granular, pellets and powder form | 500-2500 |

1.4 Activated carbon adsorbents for waste water removal

Increasing demand for adsorption processes in the water treatment industry encourages research in the production of activated carbon from alternative precursors including industrial wastes and agricultural by-products. In wastewater treatment, activated carbon is a powerful adsorbent because it has a large surface area and pore volume, which allows the removal of liquid-phase contaminants, including organics pollutants, heavy metal ions and colors (Hsieh and Teng, 2000).

Generally, activated carbon is used for the tertiary treatment of wastewater in many industries, for example, food, textile, chemical and pharmaceutical. In some applications, molecules cannot easily penetrate into the micropores especially those involving large molecules to adsorb onto them, so the produced activated carbons should possess not only micropores but also interconnecting mesopores (Hsieh and Teng, 2000; Tamai *et al.*, 1999). Due to this reason, waste tyres give another important source of raw material because highly mesoporous activated carbons can be produced from waste tyres rubber (Ariyadejwanich *et al.*, 2003). Mesopores activated carbon is one of the most important characteristics in the liquid phase adsorption. Moreover, owing to the high surface areas (ranging from 164 to 1260

m²/g) and pore volumes (up to 1.62 cm³/g), tyre carbon are considered as a potential adsorbent in water treatment for the purpose of removing dye and organic pollutants such as phenol and chlorophenol (Mui *et al.*, 2004).

1.5 Problem statement

During the past 10 to 15 years, there are many fundamental studies reported on the production of activated carbon from pyrolysis of waste tyres using conventional method; physical and chemical activation process. The potential of these products as possible adsorbents for various pollutants has been assessed and found very successful, thus stimulating a serious research interest.

The latest approach in activated carbon production technology is physiochemical activation. This method is derived from combination of both physical and chemical activation method. From the literatures, it was found that this method could present a very high quality activated carbon in terms of surface area, pore volume and porosity (Hu *et al.*, 2003; Hu and Srinivasan, 2001; Tseng *et al.*, 2006; Wu and Tseng, 2006).

Since there is no research have been done yet using this physiochemical activation method in production of activated carbon from tyres, this study was carried out to investigate the performances of the prepared activated carbon using this method. The main purpose of the present work is to prepare highly mesoporous activated carbon from waste tyres which are suitable for adsorbing relatively large molecules.

1.6 Objectives

- i. To prepare activated carbons from waste tyres through two-step physiochemical activation under different operating parameters and preparation variables such as activation temperature, impregnation ratio KOH/char and CO₂ gasification time.
- ii. To establish the best conditions for producing activated carbons using waste tyres.
- iii. To investigate the physical characteristics and surface chemistry of the prepared activated carbons.
- iv. To study the equilibrium, isotherm and kinetics of methylene blue and phenol adsorption on the best activated carbon.

1.7 Scope of study

In this study, waste tyres were used as raw material in preparation of activated carbon adsorbent using two-step physiochemical activation method. The experiments were carried out in a batch muffle furnace which can heat up to a temperature of 1000°C. Potassium hydroxide (KOH) was selected as chemical agent in the impregnation procedure because it was found to be more effective than other chemical agents such as ZnCl₂ and H₃PO₄ in creating porosity in activated carbons derived from tyres (Teng *et al.*, 2000). Whereas, the activating agent used in the activation process was carbon dioxide gas.

The effects of various preparatory conditions including different activation temperature (750, 800 and 850°C), impregnation ratio of KOH/char (3, 4 and 5) and CO₂ gasification time (1 and 2 h) was studied in order to establish the optimum

conditions for producing high surface area activated carbons using waste tyres. The prepared activated carbons were also characterized by using Micromeritics ASAP 2000, SEM, FTIR, TGA and EA to determine the physical characteristics and surface chemistry of the prepared activated carbons.

Two different adsorbates were used in the adsorption studies which are methylene blue and phenol to determine the performances of activated carbon adsorbent. The effect of initial concentration of adsorbate (100-500mg/L) and contact time (48 h) were carried out in the adsorption study. The experimental data are crucial in determination of the adsorption isotherm of the samples using Langmuir and Freundlich adsorption isotherm model followed by kinetic study. This kinetic study was carried out by using pseudo-first order, pseudo-second order and intraparticle diffusion models. The validity of each model was confirmed by judging the correlation coefficient, R^2 value and % SSE.

1.8 Organization of thesis

Chapter 1 includes a brief introduction on waste tyres problem and utilization waste tyres using pyrolysis process to produce the activated carbon. This chapter also enclosed with application of activated carbon in wastewater treatment. The problem statement of the research is stated to give clear objectives of the present study. The scope of the study covers the research work done to meet these objectives.

Chapter two covers the history of activated carbon and methods of preparation of activated carbons that have been applied by researchers. In addition, this chapter also gives a brief explanation on the physical and chemical properties of activated

carbon obtained from the characterization study. Finally, the last part discusses in details about the adsorption study including the adsorption isotherm and kinetic study used in this present work.

Chapter three provides list of materials and chemicals reagents used in the present research work. It also gives the general description of the equipment used in the activated carbon preparation system. It continues with the explanation on the methods and analysis required on preparation of activated carbon followed by adsorption studies. The description of equipments used for characterization of activated carbon is also included in this chapter.

Chapter four presents the result obtained from the experiments in the preparation of activated carbon, characterization of activated carbon and adsorption studies. Each of the results will be followed by the discussion and comparison between the present results and the results obtained by others researchers. This explanation clearly describes the performance of activated carbon from present study.

Chapter five gives the conclusions of the results obtained in the present study. Some recommendations for the future studies are also included in this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Definition of activated carbon

Activated carbon includes a wide range of amorphous carbon-based materials prepared to exhibit a high degree of porosity and an extended interparticulate surface area. It is also common term used for a group adsorbing substances of crystalline form, having large internal pore structures that make the carbon more adsorbent.

2.1.1 History of activated carbon and summary of its uses

The use of carbon extends far back into its history. Charcoal was used for drinking water filtration by ancient Hindus in India, and carbonized wood was used as a medical adsorbent and purifying agent by the Egyptians as early as 1500 B.C (Parker, I. and Hughes, D., 2008). In contrary, modern development and use has been documented more precisely. Activated carbon was first generated industrially in the first part of the twentieth century, when activated carbon from vegetable material was produced for use in sugar refining.

In the early 19th century in Europe, powdered activated carbon was first produced commercially by using wood as a raw material. In the United States, the first production of activated carbon used black ash as the source, after it was accidentally discovered that the ash was very effective in decolorizing liquids. Activated carbon has been used extensively for this purpose in many industries such as textile industry for the removal of organic dyes.

The first documented use of activated carbon in a large scale water treatment application was in 19th century in England, where it was used to remove undesirable odors and tastes from drinking water. In recent years, the use of activated carbon for the removal of priority organic pollutants has become very common. Today, hundreds of brands of activated carbon are manufactured for a large variety of purposes. Generally, activated carbon is used in metal extraction (e.g. gold), water purification (especially in home aquariums), medicine, wastewater treatment, filters in gas and filter masks, filters in compressed air and gas purification, and many other applications.

The largest market for activated carbon is currently in the municipal water purification industry, where charcoal beds have been used for the dual purpose of physical filtration and sorption. In fact, activated carbon filters are used today in drinking water treatment to remove the natural organic compounds that produce carcinogenic chlorinated by-products during chlorine disinfection of water. In wastewater treatment, activated carbon is usually used as a filter medium in tertiary treatment processes. In these applications, carbon filters are usually quite effective in removing low concentrations of organic compounds, as well as some inorganic metals.

In addition to the drinking water and wastewater treatment applications, activated carbon also applicable in gas purification process. Filters with activated carbon are usually used in compressed air and gas purification to remove oil vapour, odor, and other hydrocarbons from compressed air and gas. The most common

designs use a 1 stage or 2 stage filtration principle where activated carbon is embedded inside the filter media.

Some other common uses included corn and cane sugar refining, gas adsorption, dry cleaning recovery processes, pharmaceuticals, fat and oil removal, electroplating, catalyst support, battery electrodes, alcoholic beverage production and supercapacitors.

2.1.2 Types of activated carbon

The types of activated carbon available in the current market are powder, granular and pellet. It is classified according to its particle sizes and shape, and each type has its specific application.

The size of powder activated carbon is less than 100 μ m in size with an average diameter between 15 and 25 μ m. Thus, they present a large internal surface with a small diffusion distance. Powdered activated carbons are mainly used in liquid phase adsorption and flue gas treatment. In wastewater treatment, the most common used of powdered activated carbon is in the secondary treatment called powdered activated carbon treatment process (Norit Americas Inc., 2001).

Granulated activated carbon has a relatively larger particle size compared to powdered activated carbon and consequently, presents a smaller external surface. The size range is from 0.5 to 4.0 mm. This type of activated carbons is commonly used in water treatment facilities where the granular carbon bed to remove tastes,

colors, odors and dissolved organics. In addition, granular activated carbon can also be used for gas phase application.

Meanwhile, pellet activated carbon consists of extruded and cylindrical shaped activated carbon with diameters in the range of 4-7 mm and 8-15 mm length. Pellets activated carbon is mainly used for gas phase applications because of their low pressure drop, high mechanical strength and low dust content.

2.2 Activated carbon preparation

Activated carbon can be prepared from many carbonaceous materials including municipal and industrial wastes (Nakagawa *et al.*, 2004; Sainz-Diaz and Griffiths, 2000) and forest and agricultural by-products (Hu *et al.*, 2003; Hu and Srinivasan, 2001; Tseng, 2007; Tseng *et al.*, 2006; Wu and Tseng, 2006). Waste tyres are one of the interesting sources to prepare activated carbon because of their high carbon content. Several studies have reported on the production of activated carbon from waste tyres (Ariyadejwanich *et al.*, 2003; Gonzalez *et al.*, 2006; Helleur *et al.*, 2001; Laszlo *et al.*, 1997; Miguel *et al.*, 2003; Nakagawa *et al.*, 2004; Rozada *et al.*, 2005; Sainz-Diaz and Griffiths, 2000; Stavropoulos, 2005; Tanthapanichakoon *et al.*, 2005; Teng *et al.*, 2000)

Basically, there are 2 different methods in the preparation of activated carbon; single step pyrolysis and two step pyrolysis. Single step pyrolysis usually applied in the preparation of activated carbon using chemical activation method. However, the conventional preparation of activated carbon using physical activation method was based on two step pyrolysis where carbonization and activation process

takes place separately. The product quality of two step pyrolysis is better compared to the single step pyrolysis. Table 2.1 shows a block diagram and the summary of comparison for both procedures used in the preparation of activated carbon.

Table 2.1: Block diagram and comparison for both procedures used in the preparation of activated carbon (Din, 2005)

| | Single Step Pyrolysis | Two Step Pyrolysis |
|------------|---|--|
| Diagram | <pre> graph TD A[Raw material preparation] --> B["Activation (Physical/chemical) 400 - 1000°C"] B --> C[Washing and Drying] C --> D[Activated carbon] </pre> | <pre> graph TD A[Raw material preparation] --> B["Carbonization (Inert atmosphere, N2) 300 - 800°C"] B --> C["Activation (Physical/chemical) 400 - 1000°C"] C --> D[Washing and Drying] D --> E[Activated carbon] </pre> |
| Comparison | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Single stage process -Low energy consumption, cheap -Shorter process duration -Modest surface area and porosity | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Two stage process -High energy consumption and expensive -Longer process duration -High surface area and porosity |

2.2.1 Carbonization

The terms carbonization means to convert organic matter to elemental carbon at high temperature in the absence of oxygen. This process drives off the volatiles matter to form char. The char obtained normally has low surface area and adsorption capacity since the porous structure is not well developed (Ahmad, 2006).

2.2.2 Activation

The activation process creates or increases porosity on the activated carbon surface as illustrated in Figure 2.1. There are three main activation process; physical activation, chemical activation and physiochemical activation.

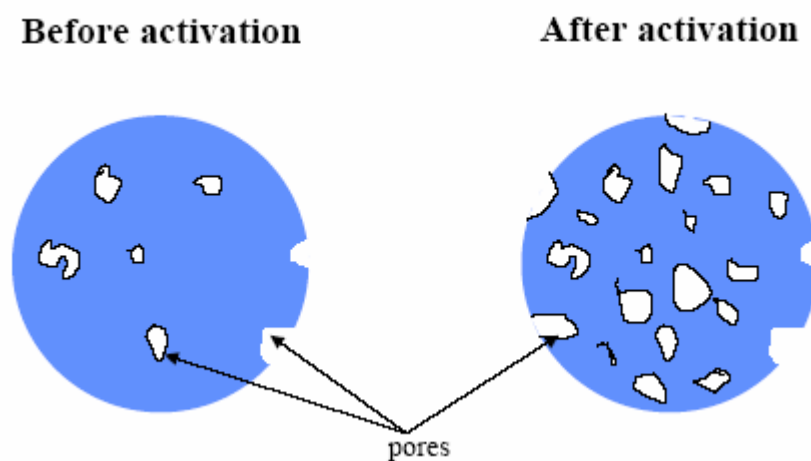


Figure 2.1: Two-dimensional representation of carbon activation (Lehmann, 1998)

2.2.2 (a) Physical activation

Physical activation using carbon dioxide or steam as oxidizing agents are the most commonly used processes in the production of tyre carbons. It is a conventional manufacturing process of activated carbon. The overall process usually consists of two steps: thermal pyrolysis at a relatively low temperature (typically 400-700°C) in the presence of nitrogen or helium to break down the cross-linkage between carbon

atoms, and activation with activating gas at 800-1000°C for further development of the porosity of tyre carbon (Mui *et al.*, 2004).

Carbon characteristics are greatly influenced by the degree of the activation but also by the nature of the activating agent (steam or carbon dioxide) and process temperature. For the purpose of elevating the degree of burn-off, the activation temperature is usually higher than 900°C to maintain a sufficiently high reaction rate. A sharp increase in the surface area was observed when the activation took place at a temperature of 770°C or above and based on current technologies and literature results (Mui *et al.*, 2004), tyre char activation below 700°C is impractical. Previous studies have discovered that steam is a better activating agent compared to CO₂ because the tyre char presents higher reactivity with steam than with CO₂ (Miguel *et al.*, 2003; Zabaniotou and Stavropoulos, 2003). However, contradictory information has been published regarding the type of porosity generated by each activating agent.

Gonzalez *et al.*, (2006) studied the preparation of activated carbons from scrap tyres by gasification with both steam and carbon dioxide under different activation temperature and time. In the carbonization step, the temperature used was 800°C under nitrogen flow for 1 h and approximately a percentage of 43% chars were obtained from this process. Then the yielded chars proceeded to the activation process under steam or carbon dioxide flow at different temperature and time ranging from 750 to 900°C and 1 to 3 h respectively. For burn-off higher than 50%, a slight increase in the average equivalent radius of micropores was observed, indicating a widening of the micropores. As the activation proceeds, this widening of the micropores can contribute to the strong increase of the mesoporosity detected in the

activated carbon. The highest BET surface area values of 1317 m²/g and 496 m²/g was obtained by activation with steam and carbon dioxide respectively. These results proved that steam is a better activating agent compare to CO₂. Figure 2.2 shows the thermal treatment scheme of two-step physical activation method applied in their work.

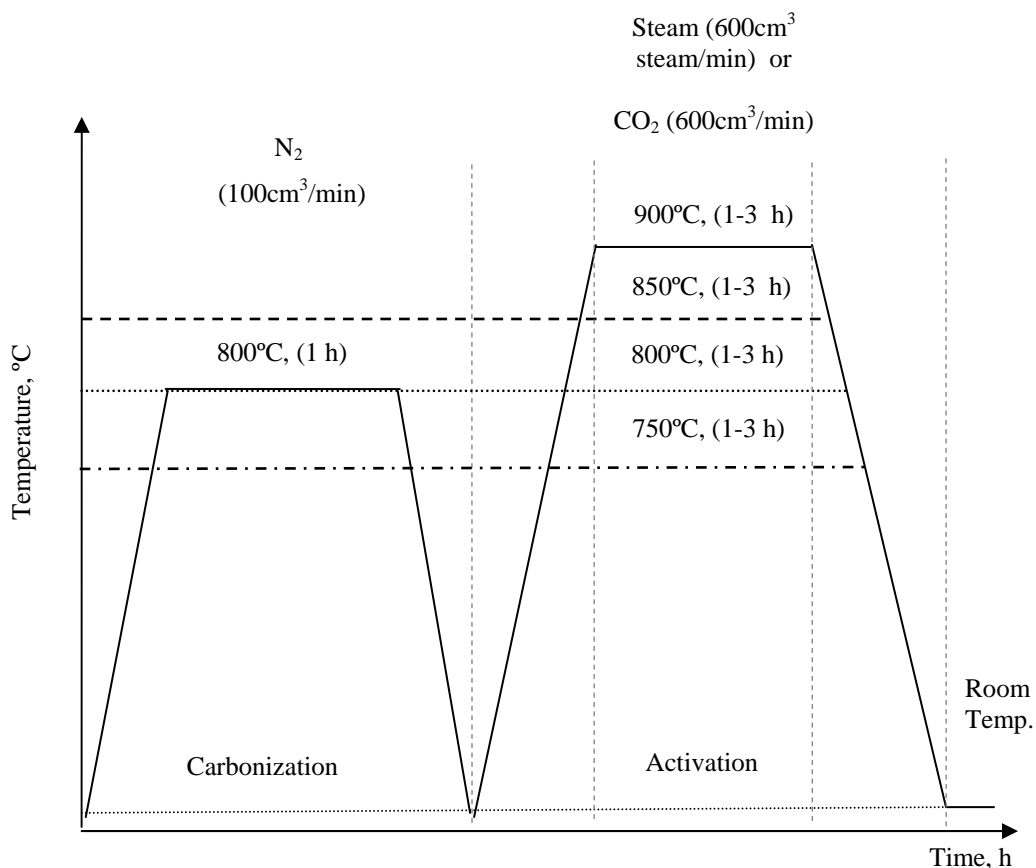


Figure 2.2: Thermal treatment scheme of two-step physical activation method (Gonzalez *et al.*, 2006)

In addition, the particle size of the tyre rubber was found to have influence on the porosity of the resultant carbon generated from steam activation. Both surface area and micropore volume of carbons produced from powdered tyre rubber (particle size < 0.42 mm) were 5% and 40% higher than those carbons prepared from particles in larger size (particle size < 2.0 mm) (Miguel *et al.*, 2003). It was believed that smaller particles allowed better diffusion of steam molecules into the structure,

leading to a more homogeneous activation of the carbonized precursor. However, it is worth noting that other research yielded a different point of view and suggested that particle size had not affected the surface area development in CO₂ activation (Teng *et al.*, 1995). Table 2.2 presents summary of previous works on preparation of activated carbons produced from waste tyres using physical activation method.

2.2.2 (b) Chemical activation

Chemical activation is another process for the production of activated carbon from tyres. It allows both pyrolysis and activation to be integrated into a single, relatively lower temperature process in the absence of oxygen. Chemical agents such as phosphoric acid, zinc chloride and potassium hydroxide act as dehydrating and stabilizing agents that enhance the development of porous structure in the activated carbon. Although wide varieties of activating agents are known, using potassium hydroxide (KOH) in making carbons has become popular in recent studies (Mui *et al.*, 2004). In addition, KOH also was found to be more effective than phosphoric acid and zinc chloride in creating porosity in activated carbons derived from tyres (Teng *et al.*, 2000).

Chemical activation offers several advantages since it is carried out in a single step which combining the carbonization and activation process, performed at lower temperatures, produced a much higher yield than the physical activation, and therefore resulting in the development of a better porous structure (Ioannidou and Zabaniotou, 2007; Lillo-Ródenas *et al.*, 2003). However, there are also some disadvantages of chemical activation process such as corrosiveness of the process and the washing stage (Teng and Lin, 1998).

Table 2.2: Summary of previous works on preparation of activated carbons produced by waste tyres using physical activation

| References | Particle size of tyre rubber (mm) | Charring conditions (°C,h) | Activation conditions (°C,h) | Heating Rate (°C min ⁻¹) | Activating Agent | Activating gas flow rate (ml/min) | BET surface Area (m ² / g) | Yield (g activated carbon/100g tyre rubber) | Equipment |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|---|
| Skodras <i>et al.</i> , (2007) | | Temp=800 Time=0.75 | Temp=900 Time= 2 | - | Steam | - | 358.5 | - | Compact power pyrolysis plant |
| Gonzalez <i>et al.</i> , (2006) | 0.5 - 1 | Temp=800 Time=1 | Temp=850 Time=3 | - | CO ₂ | 600 | 496 | - | Cylindrical refractory stainless steel reactor. |
| | | | Temp=900 Time=2 | | Steam | 600 | 1317 | - | |
| Ariyadejwanich <i>et al.</i> , (2003) | <0.595 | Temp=500 Time=1 | Temp=850 Time=4 | 5 | Steam | 680 | 1119 | 7.9 | Quartz tube reactor |
| | | | Temp=850 Time=3 | 20 | | | 1177 | 11.2 | |
| Lin and Teng <i>et al.</i> , (2002) | - | - | Temp=900 Time=1 | - | Steam | - | 602 | - | Fixed bed reactor. |
| Helleur <i>et al.</i> , (2001) | ~1 | Temp=550 Time= 4 | Temp=900 Time=3 | 20 | Steam | 135 | 272 | - | Continuous ablative reactor (CAR), provided with a long coiled stainless steel tube |
| | | | Temp=875 Time= 7 | | CO ₂ | 342 | 270 | | |

Table 2-2. Continued

| | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|-----|--|--|----|-----------------|----------------|----------------|------------------|--|
| Sainz-Diaz and Griffiths, (2000) | 8 | - | Temp=1000 Time=5 Temp=1000 Time=7 | - | CO ₂ | - | 431 284 | 33.0 - | Pilot-scale batch flaming pyrolyser |
| Cunliffe and Williams, (1999) | 30 | Temp=450 Time=1.5 | Temp=935 Time= - | - | Steam | 146 | 640 | 13.6 | - |
| Allen <i>et al.</i> , (1999) | 50 | Temp=800 Time= - Temp=700 Time= - | Temp=877 Time= - | - | Steam | 528 478 | - | 19.5 17.2 | Steam saturated nitrogen atmosphere |
| Brady <i>et al.</i> , (1996) | 2.5 | Temp=600 Time=0.75 | Temp=850 Time= 3 | 20 | Steam | 542 | 1031 | 10.0 | Batch tubular (5.0cm OD) fixed bed reactor, (Lindberg, type 54232) |
| Streat <i>et al.</i> , (1995) | - | - | Temp=800 Time= 24 Temp=900 Time= 18 | 3 | Steam | 200 100 | 346 155 | - | Tube furnace in a stream of oxygen free nitrogen |

Teng *et al.*, (2000) prepared activated carbons from pyrolysis of waste tyres impregnated with KOH at impregnation ratio in the range of 0 to 8. Single step pyrolysis was applied at four different temperatures 600, 700, 800 and 900°C under nitrogen flow at activation time 0, 1 and 2 h respectively. The carbon yield ranged from 11-26% where it was found to decrease with the increased pyrolysis temperature, holding time and impregnation ratio. In this work, the effect of mass ratio between KOH and tyre was proved to be an influencing factor to the pore development of carbon. The highest surface area performed at temperature 700°C, impregnation ratio of 4 and zero holding time with a value of 474 m²/g. Figure 2.3 shows the thermal treatment scheme of one-step chemical activation method utilized in their study.

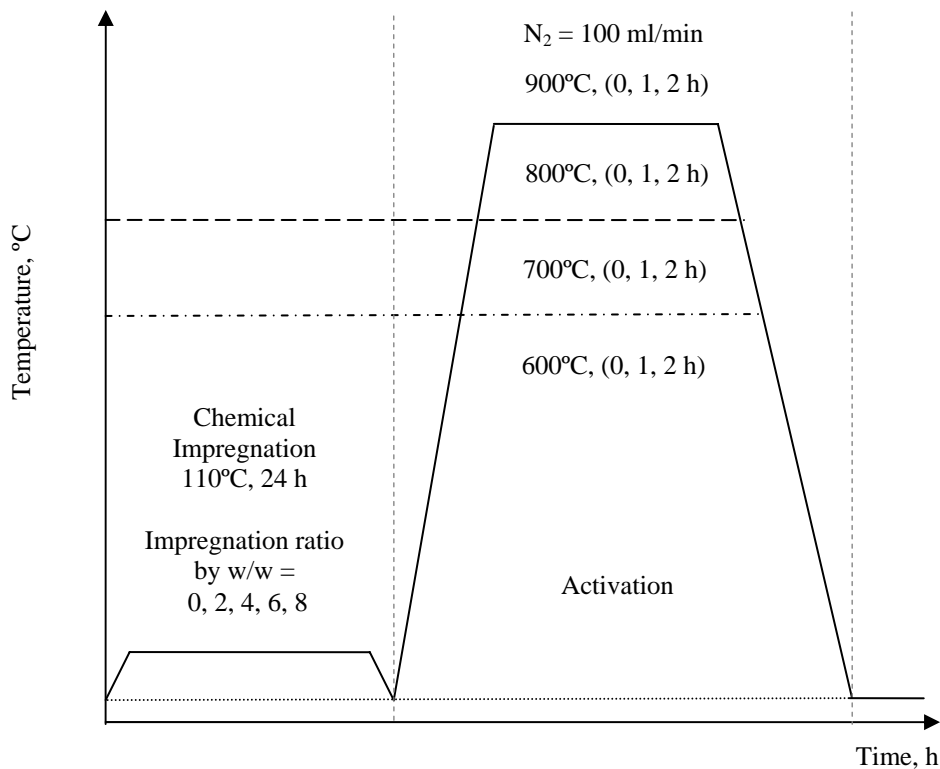


Figure 2.3: Thermal treatment scheme of one-step chemical activation method (Teng *et al.*, 2000)

In other finding, activated carbon were prepared from waste tyres through two-step chemical activation method (Stavropoulos, 2005). In this work, the waste tyres were carbonized first to produce char at temperature 800°C for 1 h under nitrogen flow. Then, the chars were chemically treatment with KOH with KOH/char ratio 4:1 by weight. The mixture were activated in the furnace reactor system at 800°C for three different activation times 1, 2 and 3 h. Carbon yield ranged from 55-63% which was slightly higher than that obtained by Teng *et al.*, (2000). The highest surface area up to 758 m²/g was obtained at activation time 2 h. This literature proved that the product quality of two-step pyrolysis is better compared to the single step pyrolysis. Figure 2.4 shows the thermal treatment scheme of two-step chemical activation method applied in this work. The summaries of previous works on preparation of activated carbons produced from waste tyres impregnated by KOH are shown in Table 2.3.

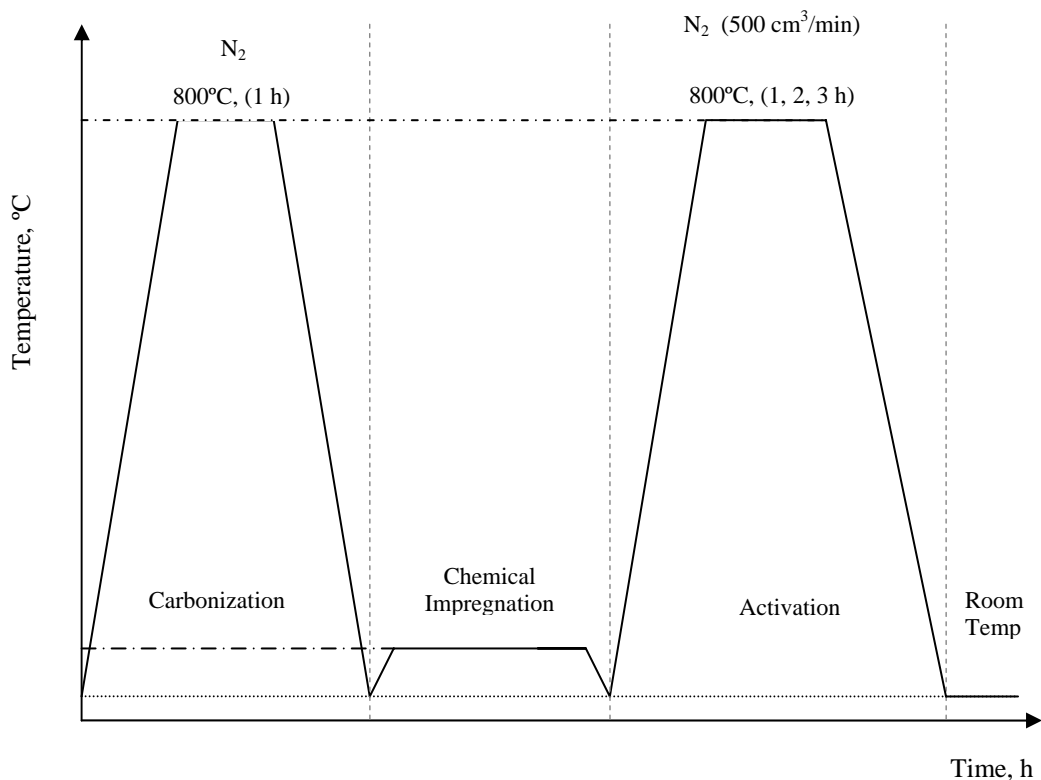


Figure 2.4: Thermal treatment scheme of two-step chemical activation method (Stavropoulos, 2005)

Table 2.3: Summary of previous works on preparation of activated carbons produced by waste tyres impregnated with KOH

| References | Particle size of tyre rubber (mm) | Charring conditions (°C,h) | Activation conditions (°C,h) | Heating Rate (°C min ⁻¹) | Chemical Treatment | Activating gas flow rate (ml/min) | BET surface Area (m ² / g) | Yield (g activated carbon/100g tyre rubber) | Equipment |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|---|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|---|
| Stavropoulos, (2005) | - | Temp=800 Time= 1 | Temp=800 Time= 2 | - | KOH/N ₂ <u>KOH</u> = 4 Char | 500 | 758 | 58 | Furnace reactor system |
| Teng <i>et al.</i> , (2000) | 0.2-0.3 | - | Temp=700 Time= 0 Temp=800 Time= 0 | - | KOH/N ₂ <u>KOH</u> = 4 Tyre | 100 | 474 411 | 16.0 12.0 | Horizontal cylindrical furnace |
| Sun <i>et al.</i> , (1997) | 3 | - Temp=600 Time= 0.75 | Temp=850 Time= 1.5 Temp=900 Time= 1 Temp=850 Time= 3 | - - | KOH/N ₂ <u>KOH</u> = 1 Tyre Steam | 500 500 | 820 1031 888 | - - - | Bench-scale tubular reactor with a horizontal tube furnace. |