In situ SAXS studies of the pore development in biochar during gasification

Yurong Liu¹, Mark Paskevicius¹, M. Veronica Sofianos^{1,2}, Gordon Parkinson¹, Chun-Zhu Li^{1*}

4 ¹ Fuels and Energy Technology Institute, Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth, WA 6845, Australia

5 ² School of Chemical and Bioprocess Engineering, University College Dublin, Belfield, Dublin 4, Ireland

6

3

7 Abstract

8

This work investigates the pore development in biochar during gasification using synchrotron 9 10 small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) as an in situ characterization technique. The influence of the gasifying agents (H₂O, CO₂ or H₂O/CO₂) and temperature on the pore structure 11 12 development in biochar was studied by carrying out the hour-long gasification of mallee wood 13 biochar (106–250 μm) in: (i) H₂O at 700, 800 and 900°C respectively, (ii) CO₂ at 700 and 800°C, and (iii) a mixture of H₂O and CO₂ (H₂O/CO₂) at 800°C. There was a minor increase in the 14 micro- and mesopore volumes in biochar during gasification in H₂O at 700°C, in contrast to 15 CO_2 gasification at the same temperature where no measurable changes to the pore structure 16 were observed. At 800°C, biochar derived from H₂O/CO₂ gasification exhibited the highest 17 18 specific surface area (SSA). CO₂ tended to produce a highly microporous biochar with a mesopore network showing pore fractal features. Micropore enlargement was a major 19 process in the presence of H₂O. In this case, the pore structure evolved from being a porous 20 network of branched micropore clusters (pore fractal) to being dominated by rough surfaced 21 22 mesopores (surface fractal) during gasification in H₂O and H₂O/CO₂. The evolution of pore structures result from the different ways in which carbon atoms were removed by either H₂O 23 or CO₂. H₂O is more reactive and less selective towards reacting with biochar, resulting in a 24 25 less worm-like network of pores than CO2. Moreover, it was found that increasing temperatures can lead to faster rates of pore generation and pore enlargement, which is
attributed to the increased reaction rate and the less selective removal of carbon atoms.

Keywords: *in situ*, SAXS, pore development, selective carbon removal, surface fractal, pore
fractal, specific surface area, pore volume, biochar gasification.

30

1. Introduction

32

33 Biomass, as a widely available and carbon neutral resource, plays an important role in supplying clean and affordable energy. Gasification is a highly efficient technology to utilize 34 35 biomass for power generation, as well as for the production of biofuels and chemicals [1]. 36 Biomass gasification is a thermo-chemical process to convert biomass to syngas and biochar 37 [2]. During gasification, biochar reacts with the gasifying agents and undergoes drastic changes in both its chemical and physical structure [3,4]. The study of pore evolution in 38 biochar during gasification is critical to understanding the gasification process, as well as to 39 optimizing the conditions that are used for the preparation of activated carbon using biochar 40 41 as a precursor [5–8].

It has been reported [9–12] that the pore structure of biochar largely depends on the gasification conditions such as the biomass feedstocks, the gasifying agents and the carbon conversion level. Particularly, the pore structure of biochar from H₂O (steam) gasification has been found to be different from that of biochar obtained from CO₂ gasification [5,10,11,13]. However, different results have been obtained regarding the effects of steam and CO₂ on the porosity development in biochar. Some studies found the maximum micropore development in biochar when subjected to steam gasification [10,14], while others reported that CO₂

gasification resulted in the maximum level of microporosity [6,13,15,16]. Additionally, it has
not reached an agreement regarding whether there is a synergistic, competitive or additive
effect between H₂O and CO₂ during gasification in the mixture of H₂O and CO₂.

52 Those reported results are based on measurements using a wide range of techniques including N₂ adsorption (BET), scanning and transmission electron microscopy (SEM and TEM), 53 54 as well as SAXS and small angle neutron scattering (SANS). Among these techniques, SAXS has been historically utilized to characterize the porosity and the pore morphology of coal and 55 56 porous carbon with the advantage of detecting both closed and open pores over wide dimension ranges [11,17-23]. Moreover, SAXS can provide the textural properties (e.g. 57 surface roughness or aggregation) of biochar by giving fractal information of the pore network 58 59 [24–27]. The development of the pore network reflects the evolution of the carbon matrix 60 during gasification, which depends on the reaction pathways of gasification. Therefore, the evolution in the porous network of biochar is of great importance for understanding the 61 62 reaction pathways during gasification. However, little has been reported on the evolution of the porous network of biochar along gasification. Moreover, in situ SAXS is capable of tracking 63 the real-time changes of pore structure under high temperatures throughout the process of 64 65 gasification. In this way, the in situ SAXS measurement avoids the possible changes in biochar structure during cooling down, which can be a shortcoming of *ex situ* measurements. To the 66 best of our knowledge, no in situ SAXS measurements of this kind have been previously 67 performed. 68

To this end, this study uses synchrotron SAXS to characterize the real-time evolution of the pore structure of biochar during gasification. Gasifying agents including H₂O, CO₂ and their mixture were used with the aim of studying the effects of different gasifying agents on

- the pore development of biochar. The influence of gasification temperature (700, 800 and
 900°C) on the development of pores in biochar was also investigated.
- 74 2. Experimental

2.1.

75

In situ SAXS measurement

76

77 In situ SAXS measurements were conducted at the SAXS beamline of the Australian Synchrotron, Melbourne, Australia [28]. The X-ray beam energy and size was 20 keV and 240 78 (horizontally) X 24 (vertically) µm respectively. Data were acquired using a Pilatus 1 M 79 detector at a camera length of 959 mm, which corresponds to a q-range of 0.03-1.5 Å⁻¹ (q is 80 the scattering vector $q = (4\pi/\lambda)\sin(\theta/2)$, λ (0.62 Å) and θ are the wavelength and 81 82 scattering angle) [29]. The q range approximately corresponds to observing a pore diameter ranging from 4 to 180 Å [29]. The SAXS patterns were acquired every 1 s during gasification. 83 84 Silver behenate was used to calibrate the q-scale of the instrument, and a 1 mm thick glassy 85 carbon standard was used for absolute intensity calibration [30]. The background scattering from the capillary was subtracted using a single measurement of an empty capillary. 86

87 2.2. Experimental set-up

88

The biochar (106-250 μ m) used in this study is from the pyrolysis and gasification of 89 mallee wood in Renergi's gasification demonstration plant at Curtin University, Australia 90 91 [31,32]. The biochar precursor was loaded into a thin-walled quartz capillary (OD = 1 mm, wall 92 thickness is 0.01 mm) open at both ends. Quartz wool was firmly inserted at both sides of the 93 biochar to prevent sample displacement while allowing gas flow through the samples (Fig. 1). A total of 3 different gasifying gases including steam (3 vol. % H₂O in argon), pure CO₂ and a 94 mixture of steam and CO₂ (3 vol. % H₂O in CO₂) were used in this study. Steam was generated 95 96 by flowing argon or CO₂ through 2 connected gas washing bottles that contained DI water (a 97 100% relative humidity at room temperature gives a ~3 vol. % steam at 800-900 °C). Gas was
98 flowed through the sample from one end to another of the capillary with a flow rate of 10 ml
99 min⁻¹ controlled by a mass flow controller (Alicat MC).

100 Biochar samples were heated to operating temperature under an argon flow before switching to the prescribed gasifying agent. During this process, SAXS data were collected for 101 102 60 min or until the biochar was fully consumed. It should also be mentioned that one data set was collected during the heating of biochar up to 900°C in pure argon, where no changes in 103 104 the scattering intensities were observed to verify that the pore network does not change under these conditions. The heating of biochar was achieved by placing a hot-air blower 105 106 underneath the capillary, which can provide a uniform heating of the sample in the X-ray 107 beam. A K-type thermocouple was placed on the outside of the capillary and fixed next to the 108 sample in the beam to accurately measure the temperature. All the experiments were operated under ambient pressure. 109



Fig. 1. Diagram showing the experimental set-up in place on the SAXS beamline at theAustralian Synchrotron.

2.3. 113 Data processing

114

The collected SAXS patterns were background subtracted using Scatterbrain [33,34] 115 before being converted to an absolute scale by normalising the intensity by the sample 116 117 thickness with reference to a known glassy carbon standard [35]. The solid thickness of the sample was calculated using Eq. (1), which is described elsewhere [35]. 118

119
$$d = -\ln(T_s)/\mu$$
 (1)

120 where, d is the solid thickness of sample, T_s is the X-ray transmission that is measured by 121 recording the incident flux (I₀) and transmitted flux (I_{BS}) using an upstream detector and a 122 detector inside the beamstop respectively. μ is the linear adsorption coefficient of the sample (the density of 2.0 g cm⁻³ for amorphous carbon was used for the calculation). 123

124 SAXS data were interpreted to solely originate from the dominant scatterer within the sample, which was deemed to be the electron density difference due to porosity on the micro-125 and meso- length scale. It should be noted that the analysis of fractal power-law regimes 126 within the SAXS data is limited to the q-range of the data but it has been interpreted as a 127 128 representation of either rough pore surfaces or pore fractals based on its dimensionality.

129 The normalised SAXS patterns were then processed using the Irena package for Igor Pro (WaveMetrics) [36]. The Unified model [37] was used to fit the scattering patterns as it 130 can describe the structural features of complex systems containing multiple structural levels. 131 132 The Unified equation for one structural level combines a Guinier law and a structurally limited power law [37], as shown in Eq. (1). 133

134
$$I(q) = G \exp\left(-\frac{q^2 R_g^2}{3}\right) + B(q^*)^{-P}, \quad q^* = \frac{q}{\left[\operatorname{erf}(q R_g/\sqrt{6})\right]^{-3}}$$
 (2)

where I(q) is the scattering intensity, erf() is the error function. G and B are the prefactors 135 from the Guinier and power law regions respectively. R_g is the radius of gyration of the 136 scattering objects, the pores in this case, and P is the scattering exponent. A detailed 137 description of the parameters can be found in ref [37]. The extracted R_g and P from each 138 structural level provide information on the size and the morphology of the pores. If we 139 assume the pores are nearly spherical, their radius can be calculated by $r = \sqrt{5/3} R_g$. The 140 141 power law slope given by P provides information about the fractal dimension of the pores 142 and/or their network [26,38]. Generally, for surface fractals 4 > P > 3 and the fractal dimension $D_s = -P + 6$. A smooth surface corresponds to $D_s = 2$ and the surface roughness increases 143 with increasing D_s . For mass or pore fractals P < 3 and the fractal dimensions $D_m = D_p = P$. 144 Pore fractal can be viewed as the negative image of mass fractal. The dimension of pore fractal 145 dimension (D_p) describes the space-filling and branching properties of pores in a structure 146 [26]. 147

148 The specific surface area (*S*) was calculated (Eq. 3) using the parameters extracted 149 from the unified fit [38,39].

150
$$S(r) = Sr^{2-D_s}$$
 (3)

where *r* is the size of the 'measurement stick' for which 4 Å (the size of a nitrogen molecule)
was used, and *S* is given by:

153
$$S = 2\pi\varphi(1-\varphi)B/Q\rho_{bulk}F(D_s)$$
(4)

where F(Ds), the mass fraction φ and the high-q invariant Q are given by the following:

155
$$F(D_s) = \Gamma(5 - D_s) \sin[\pi(3 - D_s)/2]/(3 - D_s)$$
 (5)

156
$$\varphi = \rho_{bulk} / \rho_{base\ material}$$
 (6)

157
$$Q = \int_0^\infty I(q)q^2 dq = 2\pi^2 G/V_p \tag{7}$$

158 Where ρ_{bulk} and $\rho_{base material}$ are the bulk density (see ref. [40] for the calculation) and the 159 primary particle density (2.0 g cm⁻³) of sample, V_p is the volume of the primary particles (pores 160 in our case).

The pore size distribution was determined using the IPG/TNNLS (Internal Point Gradient-Total Non-Negative Least Square) fitting method in Irena [36]. This model provides a size distribution assuming a dilute dispersion of scattering features, but has been verified to provide accurate size distributions even for scattering features that demonstrate fractal aggregation [41].

- 166 3. Results and discussion
- 1673.1. Pore development of biochar gasification at 800 °C in H_2O , CO_2 and168 H_2O/CO_2 .
- 169

170 3.1.1. *In situ* SAXS patterns of biochar during gasification

171

Fig. 2 shows the SAXS patterns of biochar during gasification for 60 min at 800 °C in (a) 172 H_2O_1 (b) CO_2 , and (c) H_2O/CO_2 mixture. The scattering intensity I(q) was plotted on log-log 173 scale and the scattering intensities are on an absolute scale. The sequences of scattering 174 patterns represent the changes in the scatterers (pores in our case) from the beginning of the 175 gasification (blue line in graph) until after 60 min of reaction (red line). The intensities (I) as a 176 function of the scattering vector (q) are due to X-rays scattered from the electron density 177 178 difference between the carbon matrix and the empty pores (the scattering from the gases used in experiments is negligible) at various length scales [29]. The intensities in the high q179 region (roughly $q > 0.3 \text{ Å}^{-1}$) correspond to the features of micropores (pore diameter less than 180 20 Å). Similarly, intensities in the low q region (roughly $q < 0.3 \text{ Å}^{-1}$) reflect scattering from 181

mesopores (pore diameter between 20 and 500 Å). The increase or decrease in the scattering intensity shows the general growth or reduction of the specific surface area (SSA) and/or volume from micro- (high q) and mesopores (low q).

For all the biochars gasified (in H₂O, CO₂ or H₂O/CO₂) at 800°C, there are obvious 185 changes in the SAXS intensities throughout the gasification process, reflecting the 186 187 transformations in the pore structure over time. There is a clear increase in the intensities at low q as the gasification progresses, indicating that the volume fraction of mesopores steadily 188 189 increases over time. There are also differences in the increase of intensities at low q among the three gasifying agents, indicating the differences in the mesopore development in biochar 190 during gasification in different gasifying agents. As for the intensities at high q, a slight 191 decrease is observed as the conversion proceeds. During gasification in H₂O/CO₂, the 192 intensities at q higher than 0.2 Å⁻¹ decreased with increasing time, implying the reduction of 193 194 the micropore volume. Also, the intensity decrease is more significant in H_2O/CO_2 than any in 195 either H₂O or CO₂ alone. The reactions occuring on the size scale of the micropores appear to be enhanced by the presence of both H₂O and CO₂. The differences in the SAXS patterns 196 among different gasifying agents show the differences in pore development in biochar 197 198 gasified in different gases.



Fig. 2. Time-resolved SAXS patterns of biochar during gasification in (a) H₂O, (b) CO₂ and (c)
 H₂O/CO₂ at 800°C. The SAXS curves were plotted on linear time scale.

202 3.1.2. SAXS analysis

203

204 Before further analysis, it should be pointed out that the porosity in biochar originates from the disordered organisation of the amorphous carbon structures. The pore development 205 of biochar during gasification is the result of the selective removal of carbon atoms by reacting 206 207 with gasifying agents. During gasification, some ultramicropores (pore size is smaller than 10 Å) will be created when some carbon atoms are selectively removed by H_2O or CO_2 . The 208 initially created ultramicropores allow the next H₂O or CO₂ molecules to enter into the pore 209 210 and to continue attacking the next carbon site. In this way, an abundance of micropores will be generated in the process. 211

212 In the case of gasification in the mixture of H₂O and CO₂, both of H₂O and CO₂ molecules could access the micropores initially created either by H₂O or CO₂. This is 213 reasonable as the molecular size of H_2O (2.75 Å) and CO_2 (3.3 Å) is much smaller than the size 214 of micropores if they are part of an open-pore (not closed-pore) network. With the 215 continuous removal of the interior micropore walls, micropores may turn into meso- and 216 217 macropores. Additionally, pore enlargement and coalescence will also occur when reactions 218 take place on the pore walls or if the wall between pores is consumed. However, new micropores may also be created simultaneously. Therefore, the pore distribution in biochar 219 220 observed at any point is the net results of pore generation, pore enlargement, and pore coalescence that occur simultaneously during gasification. For example, when the rate of 221 micropore generation is slower than the rate of micropore enlargement and/or coalescence, 222 223 a reduction in micropores and an increase in mesopores would occur.

To analyse better the pore development of biochar, we selected a few datasets (gasification for 0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50 and 60 min) and performed a fit to the data using the

Unified model [37]. Two structural levels were used in this study that represent the scattering 226 227 from the (1 - high q) microporous and (2 - low q) mesoporous size regimes. As shown in Fig. 3, the first structural level at high q contains a Guinier region (presenting as a hump) and a 228 following power law region (linear on a log-log plot). The Guinier region represents the 229 230 average size of micropores (d_{micro}) and the slope of the power law region at high q (not shown) gives information on the texture of micropores [37,38]. To get a stable fit to the data we had 231 to assume that the micropore surface was smooth and thus fixed the slope of the high q 232 power law region at 4. This is also reasonable on this length-scale (sub-20 Å) due to the limited 233 possibilities for roughness when C-C bonds are approximately 1.5 Å. Due to the limited q 234 range, we do not see a Guinier regime from mesopores, which would exist at even lower q. 235 236 As a result, the second structural level at low q only covers a power law region (P, green line), giving fractal information from the mesopore size regime. As such, the average size of 237 238 mesopores, as well as an accurate mesopore volume, is not able to be extracted from the 239 data. Measurements covering a wider *q* range will be conducted in future work.



Fig. 3. A representative set of SAXS data (black circles) and a two-level unified model (redline) reproduces the experimental data.

243	The derived parameters from the refined unified model are shown in Table 1. The
244	overall average diameter of micropores (d_{micro}) in the gasified biochar was calculated to be
245	around 10 Å. Additionally, in the three data series, the average size of the micropores
246	gradually increased over time during gasification. This demonstrates the occurrence of
247	widening of micropores during gasification. which results from the removal of micropore
248	walls by H_2O and/or CO_2 -molecules. The increase in the size of micropores was more rapid
249	with reaction time in the case of mixed gas H_2O/CO_2 gasification compared to that in the case
250	of H_2O or CO_2 gasification. This could be due to the enhanced removal of the interior
251	micropore walls as both H_2O and CO_2 molecules can penetrate into the micropores initially
252	created by H ₂ O or CO ₂ .

Table 1. Derived average diameter of micropores (d_{micro}), micropore volume (V_{micro}), fractal dimension (D_p , D_s) and SSA from the two-level unified fit of SAXS patterns for biochar gasified in H₂O, CO₂ and H₂O/CO₂ at 800°C for different times (10–60 min). Note: the average diameter of micropores was calculated by assuming the pores are spherical. For surface fractal, $D_s =$ -P + 6 and for pore fractal, $D_p = P$.

	0 min	10 min	20 min	30 min	40 min	50 min	60 min
H ₂ O							
d _{micro} (± 0.5 Å)	9.8	9.9	10.4	10.9	11.1	11.3	12.0
$V_{\rm micro}$ (± 0.01 cm ³ /g)	0.19	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.19
Fractal dimension (± 0.05)	$D_p = 2.4$	$D_p = 2.4$	$D_p = 2.7$	$D_p = 2.9$	$D_{s} = 3.0$	$D_{s} = 3.0$	$D_s = 3.1$
SSA (± 1 m²/g)	106	122	139	154	166	179	195
CO ₂							
d _{micro} (± 0.5 Å)	10.1	10.5	10.6	10.7	10.8	10.9	11.0
V _{micro} (±0.01 cm ³ /g)	0.18	0.20	0.21	0.21	0.21	0.21	0.22
Fractal dimension (± 0.05)	$D_p = 2.4$	$D_p = 2.4$	$D_p = 2.4$	$D_p = 2.4$	$D_p = 2.5$	$D_p = 2.6$	$D_p = 2.7$
SSA (± 1 m²/g)	106	188	212	215	218	216	215

	d _{micro} (± 0.5 Å)	10.1	11.6	11.7	12.0	12.3	12.8	13.3
	<i>V</i> _{micro} (±0.01 cm ³ /g)	0.19	0.19	0.20	0.20	0.19	0.17	0.15
	Fractal dimension (± 0.05)	$D_{p} = 2.4$	$D_p = 2.5$	$D_p = 2.7$	$D_p = 2.9$	$D_{s} = 3.1$	$D_{s} = 3.3$	$D_s = 3.4$
	SSA (± 1 m²/g)	107	127	182	205	211	232	250
25	259							

When the gasification time was extended from 10 to 60 min, the micropore volume 260 (V_{micro}) decreased slightly for the biochar gasified in H₂O and H₂O/CO₂. The decrease is more 261 evident for biochar gasified in H₂O/CO₂. On the contrary, an insignificant increase of the 262 micropore volume was observed in biochar gasified with CO₂. The subtle changes in the 263 micropore volume coincide with the slight variations in the SAXS intensity at high q observed 264 265 from Fig. 2. The micropore development during gasification with H_2O and H_2O/CO_2 presents a relatively constant and slightly decreased micropore volume over time, suggesting a 266 decrease in the quantity of micropores to compensate for a larger average micropore size. 267 The greater reduction of the micropore volume in H_2O/CO_2 gasified biochar indicates that the 268 rate of micropore enlargement become higher than that of micropore creation at the late 269 stage of the process. This could be attributed to the rapid removal of large amount of carbon 270 271 atoms by both H₂O and CO₂ molecules, causing the rapid destruction/collapse of micropore 272 walls. The results suggest that there could be a synergy effect between H₂O and CO₂ in attacking various active carbon sites. For example, the micropore wall left by H₂O is 273 274 preferentially consumed by CO₂, consequently, a rapid enlargement of micropores would occur. Unlike gasification in H₂O and H₂O/CO₂, the rate of micropore enlargement is probably 275 slower than that of new micropore generation for CO₂ gasification. Consequently, within the 276 277 experimental time in this study, there is a steady increase in the micropore volume of the CO₂ 278 gasified biochar.

The pore sizes and volume fractions derived from the Unified fit (as reflected in Table 279 1) are comparable to the pore size distribution obtained using the IPG/TNNLS fitting method 280 in Irena [36], as shown in Fig. 4. Similarly, most of the micropores are around 10 Å and no 281 obvious changes in the pore volume distribution is observed. If we compare the micropore 282 283 volume for biochar gasified in different atmospheres for the same time, the biochar gasified in CO₂ has the highest micropore volume, followed by the biochar gasified in H₂O, whilst the 284 micropore volume in biochar gasified in H₂O/CO₂ is the lowest. This agrees with literature 285 286 [5,6,13,15,16], where they also find that gasification with H₂O leads to biochar with a lower micropore volume than CO₂. During H_2O and/or H_2O/CO_2 gasification, It seems that the 287 288 enlargement of micropores could be a primary phenomenon in the presence of H₂O. converting micropores to bigger pores outside of this size regime. Accordingly, the resulting 289 290 in biochars exhibit a low micropore volume at the late stage of the process after gasification 291 in H_2O and/or H_2O/CO_2 .



292

Fig. 4. Pore size and volume distribution of biochar over gasification time (10, 30 and 60 min) in (a) H_2O , (b) CO_2 and (c) H_2O/CO_2 . The results were obtained from the IPG/TNNLS fitting method to SAXS data.

The specific surface area (SSA, as shown in Table 1) can also be extracted from the SAXS data where it can be seen that both of the H_2O and H_2O/CO_2 gasified biochars showed significant growth after gasification for 60 min (60% and 97% growth respectively). The biochar derived from gasification in H_2O/CO_2 has the highest SSA (250 m²/g). However, only a small increase was observed for the biochar gasified in CO_2 (14% growth). The reason for the growth of SSA could be due to the rough surface of mesopores [39], which will be discussed later.

303 One of the most important parameters to help understand the evolution of pore structure in biochar is the fractal information of the pore network, which is a measure of its 304 305 morphology. Fractal information is an intrinsic characteristic of an object, regardless of the scale at which it is viewed [24,38]. This fractal property can be used to describe the surface 306 roughness of a pore (surface fractal) or the aggregation of a network of smaller pores (pore 307 fractal) [26]. The modelled fractal dimensions of mesopores from SAXS data are presented in 308 309 Table 1. As mentioned above, the power law slope (P) lies between 1 and 3 for pore fractals and between 3 and 4 in the case of surface fractals. In this scenario, a pore fractal where P 310 311 approaches 2 describes an almost sheet-like network (do not display branching), and 312 conversely when P approaches 3, the fractal dimension describes an extremely disordered pore network in three dimensions that is akin to a sponge-like morphology. The power law 313 slope *P* in the surface fractal regime approaches 3 for an extremely rough surface, bordering 314 315 on becoming a sponge-like aggregate of pores/surface. Whereas, when a power law slope P becomes 4 it is a representation of a perfectly smooth surface. 316

For the biochar gasified in CO_2 , the *P* values suggest a pore fractal of dimension $D_p =$ 2.4 where the dimension increases (to 2.7) as gasification proceeds. The results indicate that micropores are distributed across biochar in a way that forms a network of micropore clusters of a particular size that become more sponge-like and more branched over time. At the end

321 of gasification, the derived biochar presents a porous network of clusters of branched micropore aggregates [26,42]. As mentioned before, the way in which the pore network of 322 323 biochar evolves reflects the way in which the carbon atoms are removed. The evolution of 324 the fractal features in biochar during CO_2 gasification suggests that the removal of carbon atoms occurs in clusters at particular locations. CO2 molecules react with carbon atoms at 325 particular active sites, inducing the local etching of pore walls to form mesoporous channels 326 327 of uniform size. This process then branches in a new direction in such a way that the remaining 328 carbon solid is riddled with micropore clusters, leaving behind a porous network with a fractal 329 dimension just below 3.

In contrast, the pore evolution during gasification in H_2O and H_2O/CO_2 occurs 330 differently to that in CO₂ alone. The mesopore network does exhibit a branched and 331 disordered pore network (pore fractal) at the early stages of gasification but the pore network 332 transitions into a surface fractal at the late stage, representing a larger mesopore with a rough 333 334 surface where the cluster of micropore channels used to reside. Essentially, this is the physical representation of the transition from a pore fractal to a surface fractal. This process is akin to 335 removing solid material from a sponge-like object until there only remains a larger pore 336 337 without many interconnected solids across that pore, but only a remnant of solid roughness on the surface of the larger pore. Thus, considerable numbers of carbon atoms are removed 338 at the late stages of gasification, giving rise to the collapse and damage of micropore walls. 339 340 As a result, a rough surface in the mesopores is detected instead of the previous branched micropore network. The different pore evolution, reflected by the fractal dimension, between 341 H₂O and CO₂ gasified biochar could result from the different reactivity of H₂O and CO₂ with 342 343 carbon [5,10,43]. At 800°C, lower energy is needed to dissociate a H_2O molecule than for a 344 CO_2 molecule (the apparent activation energies are 275 and 211 kJ/mol for CO_2 and H_2O , respectively)

[5,43,44]. The high reactivity of H₂O makes it less selective in reacting with biochar in 345 comparison to CO₂. Therefore, H₂O molecules react with carbon atoms located almost 346 347 anywhere. Carbon atoms can be removed layer after layer to essentially carve out a mesopore from a cluster of smaller micropores. With the continuous elimination of carbon atoms in this 348 way, the pore network transits from a pore fractal to surface fractal. This could also be a 349 principal process during the gasification in H₂O/CO₂, giving rise to the similar changes in fractal 350 351 dimensions of biochar to that of H₂O gasified biochar. The high selectivity of CO₂ results in preferred carbon attack, and thus the development of a more branched micropore network. 352

353 Our in situ SAXS data has shown clear differences in pore development especially the fractal properties between biochar gasified in H₂O and CO₂. The fractal feature of the porous 354 network in biochar shows the way in which pores (empty phase) distribute in the two-phase 355 356 structure. Thus, from another perspective, it also reflects the way of the arrangement and organisation of the carbon matrix (solid phase). Therefore, the different fractal features of 357 358 biochar gasified in H₂O and CO₂ has further confirmed that the reaction pathway for biochar gasification in H₂O is different from that in CO₂ [45,46]. Pore enlargement is a prominent 359 phenomenon during gasification in H₂O and H₂O/CO₂, while CO₂ tends to produce biochar 360 361 with a high micropore volume in a branched network. A significant increase in SSA of biochar was observed during gasification in H_2O and H_2O/CO_2 , which is predominantly associated with 362 the development of rough mesopore surfaces. The simultaneous use of H₂O and CO₂ 363 364 produced a higher SSA in biochar than the case in which only H₂O or CO₂ was used, due to a 365 synergistic development of rough surfaced mesopores and additional branched micropore clusters. The biochar derived from CO₂ gasification presents purely as a pore fractal. However, 366 367 a transition from pore fractal to surface fractal was observed for the biochar gasified in H₂O

369	adsorption techniques and SAXS by others [5,6,11,13,15,16,47].
370	
371 372 373	3.2. The impact of temperature on pore development of biochar during gasification in H_2O and/or CO_2 .
374 375	3.2.1. Pore development during gasification at 700°C in H_2O and CO_2 .
376	
377	Fig. 5 shows the SAXS patterns of biochar during (a) H_2O gasification at 700°C and (b)
378	CO_2 gasification at 700°C for 60 min. As expected, unlike gasification at 800°C, only minor
379	changes in the intensities were shown when biochar was gasified at 700°C. This is particularly
380	true for the case of gasification in CO_2 (Fig. 5b), during which the SAXS patterns barely
381	changed. The data imply that the pore structure of biochar changed slightly or stayed almost
382	unchanged. This is because, at 700°C, the reactions were modest and unable to eliminate

and $H_2O/CO_{2^{-}}$ The result is generally consistent with the findings obtained using gas

383 sufficient carbon atoms to cause porosity development.



384

Fig. 5. SAXS patterns of biochar during gasification at 700°C (a) in H_2O for 60 min, (b) in CO_2 for 60 min. Please be noted that the peaks at high q is from the detector and can be neglected.

387 Despite the small changes in the scattering intensities, the SAXS patterns of biochar 388 changed more significantly during gasification in H_2O than that during CO_2 gasification. The 389 SAXS intensities showed a slightly increasing trend in intensities for the whole *q* range over 390 the 60 min of gasification in H_2O , suggesting the development of both micropores and 391 mesopores or the increase of SSA in biochar. The barely visible changes in SAXS patterns of 392 CO_2 gasified biochar is most likely ascribed to the lower reactivity of CO_2 compared to H_2O [5,44,48]. At 700°C, the reactivity of carbon sites with CO₂ is not high enough for intense
reactions to take place. For this reason, the pore structure of biochar is nearly constant
throughout the process [22].

396

397 3.2.2. Pore development during gasification at 900°C in H₂O.

398

As gasification is typically carried out between 800 and 900°C, it is of more practical 399 significance to investigate the pore development of biochar at temperatures above 800°C. 400 401 Thus we also performed the gasification in H₂O at 900°C. It is worth mentioning that the measurement was ceased after 35 min of gasification when the biochar was completely 402 403 consumed. The quick conversion of biochar is due to the enhanced thermal cracking and gasification reactions at 900°C. The SAXS patterns of biochar are displayed in Fig. 6. Before 404 the completion of reactions, the evolution of scattering intensity (Fig. 6b) is similar to that 405 406 obtained for biochar during gasification in H₂O at 800°C (Fig. 2a). When the reaction went to completion, the total intensity dropped quickly and eventually was shown as the red line in 407 408 Fig. 6a. It can be seen that the signals at high q disappeared eventually, demonstrating a complete loss of microporosity. The scattering intensity at low q shows a q^{-4} dependency (P = 409 4), as indicated by the black line in Fig. 6a, which means the scattering was generated from 410 residual bulk surface scattering. 411



412

Fig. 6. (a) SAXS pattern of biochar during gasification in H₂O at 900°C until the complete
conversion of biochar; (b) SAXS pattern of biochar during gasification at 900°C before the
completion of reaction.

To have a better understanding of the temperature influence on pore development, the pore size distributions for biochar were compared further in Fig. 7. After 30 min of gasification, the increase in temperature from 700 to 800°C leads to a wider pore size distribution with the growth of both micropore and mesopore volume. The rise of temperature can not only promote the creation but also the enlargement of micropores. As

stated before, the pore development in biochar is the result of the selective removal of carbon 421 422 structures, which is determined by the reactivity between carbon sites and gasifying agents. There are different carbon sites with various structural features and energy levels in biochar. 423 Therefore, different activation energies are required for those carbon sites to react with 424 425 gasifying agents. At 700°C, most of the carbon sites are not reactive enough to react with 426 gasifying agents and therefore to be removed. As a result, no obvious creation of pores will 427 be observed. When the temperature increases to 800°C, more carbon sites become reactive enough to react with gasifying agents. Accordingly, an obvious development of micro- and 428 mesopores will occur, as we observed here. 429

430 A further rise in temperature from 800 to 900°C gives rise to a decrease in the micropore volume as well as a shift of the distribution of pores to larger sizes. This is because 431 432 a large amount of micropores are already converted to mesopores and macropores after gasification at 900°C for such a long time. During gasification at 800°C, those carbon sites with 433 434 lower activation energies would be gasified/consumed more easily than those with higher 435 activation energies. At 900°C, the reaction rate of carbon sites with higher activation energies increases more rapidly than that of carbon sites with lower activation energies. When 436 437 different carbon sites have closer gasification rates, carbon removal become less selective 438 and a less significant micropore creation would occur at 900°C. Pore development would be dominated by the development of large pores due to the enhanced gasification rate and 439 440 thermal cracking. Therefore, at a similar biochar conversion level (after gasification at 900°C for 10 min and at 800 for 30 min, see ref [49]), the biochar gasified at 900°C has a lower 441 micropore volume $(0.12 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g})$ than the biochar gasified at 800°C $(0.20 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g})$. 442



443

Fig. 7. Pore size and volume distribution for biochars after 30 min gasification in H₂O at 700
and 800°C, 10 min at 900°C.

446

447 4. Conclusion

448

The evolution in pore structure of biochar during gasification was investigated in situ 449 using synchrotron SAXS. Differences in the pore development were observed for biochar 450 451 gasified in different atmospheres (H₂O, CO₂, and H₂O/CO₂) and at different temperatures (700, 800 and 900°C). H₂O started to create micro- and mesopores at 700°C while the pore structure 452 453 of biochar stayed nearly unchanged during CO₂ gasification at 700°C. At 800°C, the simultaneous use of H₂O and CO₂ led to a higher SSA in biochar than the case in which only 454 H₂O or CO₂ was used. The CO₂ gasified biochar exhibited a high micropore volume while the 455 enlargement of micropores was a pronounced phenomenon during H₂O and H₂O/CO₂ 456

gasification. Moreover, the mesoporous network of biochar gasified in CO₂ presented pore 457 fractal features throughout the whole gasification process. A transition from pore fractal to 458 surface fractal was observed for the biochar gasified in H₂O and H₂O/CO₂. The differences in 459 the evolution of pore structure between biochar gasified in H₂O and CO₂ could be attributed 460 461 to the different reactivity of H₂O and CO₂. CO₂ is less reactive and more selective towards reacting with biochar. It was found that the increase in temperature enhanced reaction rates 462 463 and makes carbon removal less selective, leading to the enhanced rate of pore creation and 464 enlargement.

465

466 Acknowledgement

467

The authors acknowledge the financial support from the Australian Research Council (DP180101788, FT160100303). This project also received funding from the Australian Government through ARENA's Emerging Renewables Program. This research was undertaken on the SAXS beamline at the Australian Synchrotron, part of ANSTO.

472

473 Reference

474

475 [1] C.-Z. Li, Special issue—gasification: a route to clean energy, Process Saf. Environ. Prot.
476 84 (2006) 407–408. https://doi.org/10.1205/psep.ed.0606.

477 [2] C.-Z. Li, Importance of volatile-char interactions during the pyrolysis and gasification

478 of low-rank fuels - A review, Fuel. 112 (2013) 609–623.

479 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2013.01.031.

- 480 [3] S. Wang, L. Wu, X. Hu, L. Zhang, K.M. O'Donnell, C.E. Buckley, C.-Z. Li, An X-ray
- 481 photoelectron spectroscopic perspective for the evolution of O-containing structures
- 482 in char during gasification, Fuel Process. Technol. 172 (2018) 209–215.
- 483 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuproc.2017.12.019.
- 484 [4] H. Wu, K. Yip, F. Tian, Z. Xie, C.-Z. Li, Evolution of char structure during the steam
- 485 gasification of biochars produced from the pyrolysis of various mallee biomass

486 components, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 48 (2009) 10431–10438.

- 487 https://doi.org/10.1021/ie901025d.
- 488 [5] F. Rodríguez-Reinoso, M. Molina-Sabio, M.T. González, The use of steam and CO₂ as
- 489 activating agents in the preparation of activated carbons, Carbon N. Y. 33 (1995) 15–
- 490 23. https://doi.org/10.1016/0008-6223(94)00100-E.
- 491 [6] J. Pastor-Villegas, C.J. Durán-Valle, Pore structure of activated carbons prepared by
- 492 carbon dioxide and steam activation at different temperatures from extracted
- 493 rockrose, Carbon N. Y. 40 (2002) 397–402. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0008-
- 494 6223(01)00118-X.
- 495 [7] Y. Liu, M. Paskevicius, H. Wang, G. Parkinson, J.P. Veder, X. Hu, C.-Z. Li, Role of O-
- 496 containing functional groups in biochar during the catalytic steam reforming of tar
- 497 using the biochar as a catalyst, Fuel. 253 (2019) 441–448.
- 498 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2019.05.037.
- Y. Liu, M. Paskevicius, H. Wang, C. Fushimi, G. Parkinson, C.-Z. Li, Difference in tar
 reforming activities between biochar catalysts activated in H₂O and CO₂, Fuel. 271
- 501 (2020) 117636. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2020.117636.

502	[9]	K. Tomków, T. Siemieniewska, F. Czechowski, A. Jankowska, Formation of porous
503		structures in activated brown-coal chars using O_2 , CO_2 and H_2O as activating agents,
504		Fuel. 56 (1977) 121–124. https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-2361(77)90129-6.
505	[10]	J.F. González, J.M. Encinar, C.M. González-García, E. Sabio, A. Ramiro, J.L. Canito, J.
506		Gañán, Preparation of activated carbons from used tyres by gasification with steam
507		and carbon dioxide, Appl. Surf. Sci. 252 (2006) 5999–6004.
508		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apsusc.2005.11.029.
509	[11]	G.H. Coetzee, R. Sakurovs, H.W.J.P.J.P. Neomagus, L. Morpeth, R.C. Everson, J.P.
510		Mathews, J.R. Bunt, Pore development during gasification of South African inertinite-
511		rich chars evaluated using small angle X-ray scattering, Carbon N. Y. 95 (2015) 250–
512		260. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbon.2015.08.030.
513	[12]	I. Sircar, A. Sane, W. Wang, J.P. Gore, Experimental and modeling study of pinewood
514		char gasification with CO ₂ , Fuel. 119 (2014) 38–46.
515		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2013.11.026.
516	[13]	M. Molina-Sabio, M.T. González, F. Rodriguez-Reinoso, A. Sepúlveda-Escribano, Effect
517		of steam and carbon dioxide activation in the micropore size distribution of activated

518 carbon, Carbon N. Y. 34 (1996) 505–509. https://doi.org/10.1016/0008-

519 6223(96)00006-1.

520 [14] F. Rodríguez-Reinoso, Controlled gasification of carbon and pore structure

521 development, in: E.P. Lahaye J. (Ed.), Fundam. Issues Control Carbon Gasif. React.,

522 Springer, Dordrecht, 1991: pp. 533–571. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-011-3310-

523 4_26.

- 524 [15] J. Gonzalez, J.F. Gonza, S. Roma, C.M. Gonza, A.L. Ortiz, R. Roma, Porosity
- 525 Development in Activated Carbons Prepared from Walnut Shells by Carbon Dioxide or
- 526 Steam Activation Porosity Development in Activated Carbons Prepared from Walnut
- 527 Shells by Carbon Dioxide or Steam Activation, (2009) 7474–7481.
- 528 https://doi.org/10.1021/ie801848x.
- Y. Bai, P. Lv, X. Yang, M. Gao, S. Zhu, L. Yan, F. Li, Gasification of coal char in H₂O/CO₂
 atmospheres: Evolution of surface morphology and pore structure, Fuel. 218 (2018)
 236–246. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2017.11.105.
- 532 [17] M. Kalliat, C.Y. Kwak, P.W. Schmidt, B.E. Cutter, E.A. McGinnes, Small angle X-ray
- 533 scattering measurement of porosity in wood following pyrolysis, Wood Sci. Technol.

534 17 (1983) 241–257. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00349913.

- 535 [18] M. Foster, K.F. Jensen, Small angle X-ray scattering investigations of pore structure
 536 changes during coal gasif ication, 69 (1990) 88–96.
- 537 [19] M.H. Reich, S.P. Russo, I.K. Snook, H.K. Wagenfeld, The application of SAXS to
- 538 determine the fractal properties of porous carbon-based materials, J. Colloid
- 539 Interface Sci. 135 (1990) 353–362. https://doi.org/10.1016/0021-9797(90)90005-9.
- 540 [20] M.D. Foster, K.F. Jensen, SAXS investigation of model carbon pore structure and its
- 541 change with gasification, Carbon N. Y. 29 (1991) 271–282.
- 542 https://doi.org/10.1016/0008-6223(91)90077-V.
- 543 [21] T. Nakagawa, I. Komaki, M. Sakawa, K. Nishikawa, Small angle X-ray scattering study
- on change of fractal property of Witbank coal with heat treatment, Fuel. 79 (2000)
- 545 1341–1346. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0016-2361(99)00269-0.

- 546 [22] A.J. Smith, M.J. MacDonald, L.D. Ellis, M.N. Obrovac, J.R. Dahn, A small angle X-ray
 547 scattering and electrochemical study of the decomposition of wood during pyrolysis,
- 548 Carbon N. Y. 50 (2012) 3717–3723. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbon.2012.03.045.
- 549 [23] G.N. Okolo, R.C. Everson, H.W.J.P. Neomagus, M.J. Roberts, R. Sakurovs, Comparing
- 550 the porosity and surface areas of coal as measured by gas adsorption, mercury
- intrusion and SAXS techniques, Fuel. 141 (2015) 293–304.
- 552 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2014.10.046.
- 553 [24] G. Beaucage, Determination of branch fraction and minimum dimension of mass-
- 554 fractal aggregates, Phys. Rev. E Stat. Physics, Plasmas, Fluids, Relat. Interdiscip. Top.
- 555 70 (2004) 10. https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevE.70.031401.
- 556 [25] P. Pfeifer, Fractal dimension as working tool for surface-roughness problems, Appl.
- 557 Surf. Sci. 18 (1984) 146–164. https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-5963(84)90042-4.
- 558 [26] P. Pfeifer, F. Ehrburger-Dolle, T.P. Rieker, M.T. González, W.P. Hoffman, M. Molina-
- 559 Sabio, F. Rodríguez-Reinoso, P.W. Schmidt, D.J. Voss, Nearly space-filling fractal
- networks of carbon nanopores, Phys. Rev. Lett. 88 (2002) 115502.
- 561 https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.88.115502.
- 562 [27] H.D. Bale, P.W. Schmidt, Small-Angle X-Ray-Scattering Investigation of
- 563 Submicroscopic Porosity with Fractal Properties, Phys. Rev. Lett. 53 (1984) 596–599.
- 564 https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.53.596.
- 565 [28] N.M. Kirby, S.T. Mudie, A.M. Hawley, D.J. Cookson, H.D.T. Mertens, N. Cowieson, V.
- 566 Samardzic-Boban, A low-background-intensity focusing small-angle X-ray scattering
- undulator beamline, J. Appl. Crystallogr. 46 (2013) 1670–1680.

568 https://doi.org/10.1107/S002188981302774X.

- 569 [29] O. Glatter, O. Kratky, Small angle x-ray scattering, 1982. https://doi.org/10.1007/978570 3-642-03307-0.
- 571 [30] C.A. Dreiss, K.S. Jack, A.P. Parker, On the absolute calibration of bench-top small-
- angle X-ray scattering instruments: A comparison of different standard methods, J.
- 573 Appl. Crystallogr. 39 (2006) 32–38. https://doi.org/10.1107/S0021889805033091.
- 574 [31] Advanced biomass gasification technology, Australian Renewable Energy Agency,
- 575 https://arena.gov.au/projects/advanced-biomass-gasification-technology/ (accessed
- 576 May 20, 2020).
- 577 [32] Grinding pyrolysis, Renergi Pty Ltd. http://www.renergi.net/grinding_pyrolysis.
 578 (accessed October 28, 2019).
- 579 [33] A.J. Allen, F. Zhang, R. Joseph Kline, W.F. Guthrie, J. Ilavsky, NIST Standard Reference
- 580 Material 3600: Absolute Intensity Calibration Standard for Small-Angle X-ray
- 581 Scattering, J. Appl. Crystallogr. 50 (2017) 462–474.
- 582 https://doi.org/10.1107/S1600576717001972.
- 583 [34] SAXS Software scatterBrain, http://archive.synchrotron.org.au/aussyncbeamlines
 584 (accessed August 27, 2019).
- 585 [35] O. Spalla, S. Lyonnard, F. Testard, Analysis of the small-angle intensity scattered by a
- 586 porous and granular medium, J. Appl. Crystallogr. 36 (2003) 338–347.
- 587 https://doi.org/10.1107/S0021889803002279.
- 588 [36] J. Ilavsky, P.R. Jemian, Irena : tool suite for modeling and analysis of small-angle
- 589 scattering, J. Appl. Crystallogr. 42 (2009) 347–353.

590 https://doi.org/10.1107/S0021889809002222.

- 591 [37] G. Beaucage, Approximations leading to a unified exponential power-law approach to
- 592 small-angle scattering, J. Appl. Crystallogr. 28 (1995) 717–728. https://doi.org/Doi
- 593 10.1107/S0021889895005292.
- 594 [38] G. Beaucage, IUCr, Small-Angle Scattering from Polymeric Mass Fractals of Arbitrary
- 595 Mass-Fractal Dimension, J. Appl. Crystallogr. 29 (1996) 134–146.
- 596 https://doi.org/10.1107/S0021889895011605.
- 597 [39] A.J. Hurd, D.W. Schaefer, D.M. Smith, S.B. Ross, A. Le Méhauté, S. Spooner, Surface
- areas of fractally rough particles studied by scattering, Phys. Rev. B. 39 (1989) 9742–
- 599 9745. https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevB.39.9742.
- 600 [40] M. Paskevicius, A nanostructural investigation of mechanochemically synthesised
 601 hydrogen storage materials (thesis), 2009.
- 602 [41] G. Beaucage, H.K. Kammler, S.E. Pratsinis, Particle size distributions from small-angle
- scattering using global scattering functions, J. Appl. Crystallogr. 37 (2004) 523–535.
- 604 https://doi.org/10.1107/S0021889804008969.
- 605 [42] D. Avnir, D. Farin, P. Pfeifer, Surface geometric irregularity of particulate materials:
- The fractal approach, J. Colloid Interface Sci. 103 (1985) 112–123.
- 607 https://doi.org/10.1016/0021-9797(85)90082-7.
- 608 [43] J.F. González, S. Román, C.M. González-García, J.M.V. Nabais, A.L. Ortiz, Porosity
- 609 development in activated carbons prepared from walnut shells by carbon dioxide or
- steam activation, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 48 (2009) 9354.
- 611 https://doi.org/10.1021/ie9013293.

- 612 [44] S. Román, J.F. González, C.M. González-García, F. Zamora, Control of pore
- 613 development during CO₂ and steam activation of olive stones, Fuel Process. Technol.
- 614 89 (2008) 715–720. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuproc.2007.12.015.
- 615 [45] H.L. Tay, S. Kajitani, S. Zhang, C.-Z. Li, Effects of gasifying agent on the evolution of
- char structure during the gasification of Victorian brown coal, Fuel. 103 (2013) 22–28.
- 617 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2011.02.044.
- 618 [46] S. Wang, L. Wu, X. Hu, L. Zhang, T. Li, C.-Z. Li, Effects of the particle size and
- gasification atmosphere on the changes in the char structure during the gasification
- of mallee biomass, Energy and Fuels. 32 (2018) 7678–7684.
- https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.energyfuels.8b01309.
- 622 [47] E. Arenas, F. Chejne, The effect of the activating agent and temperature on the
- 623 porosity development of physically activated coal chars, Carbon N. Y. 42 (2004) 2451–
- 624 2455. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbon.2004.04.041.
- 625 [48] J. Pallarés, A. González-Cencerrado, I. Arauzo, Production and characterization of
- activated carbon from barley straw by physical activation with carbon dioxide and
- 627 steam, Biomass and Bioenergy. 115 (2018) 64–73.
- 628 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biombioe.2018.04.015.
- [49] S. Wang, Evolution of Char Structure and Reactivity during Gasification (thesis), Curtin
 University, 2016.