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# Novel Porous Carbons Derived from Coal Tar Rejects: Assessment of the Role of Pore Texture in CO<sub>2</sub> Capture under Realistic Postcombustion Operating Temperatures

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1 Novel Porous Carbons derived from Coal Tar  
2 Rejects: Assessment of the Role of Pore Texture in  
3 CO<sub>2</sub> Capture under Realistic Post-combustion  
4 Operating Temperatures

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10

11 ABSTRACT

12 Activated carbons (ACs) are among the most commonly used sorbents for CO<sub>2</sub> capture because  
13 of their high surface areas and micropore volumes, which depend on precursor and activation  
14 methods. In this study, we evaluated different ACs obtained from a low-value fraction of liquid-  
15 derived coal pyrolysis, namely phenolic oil, which was used as gel precursor before  
16 carbonization and KOH activation. CO<sub>2</sub> capture performances were determined at temperatures

1 between 25 and 120°C, with CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations ranging from 5 to 90 vol. %. The most efficient  
2 sample captured 2.86 mmol of CO<sub>2</sub>/g AC at 25°C and 1 bar, which is a highly competitive  
3 capture capacity, comparable to previously reported values for ACs without any  
4 modification/functionalization. Finally, their thermal stability and cyclability (i.e., for a  
5 minimum of six adsorption-desorption cycles) were evaluated. CO<sub>2</sub> uptake was not affected by  
6 desorption temperature after six adsorption-desorption cycles. Based on the results obtained in  
7 this work, the role of the textural properties into the CO<sub>2</sub> capture at realistic postcombustion  
8 temperatures and partial pressures was elucidated. In particular, we concluded that CO<sub>2</sub>  
9 adsorption performance was more related to the volume of the narrowest pores and to the  
10 average pore size than to the surface area.

11 KEYWORDS: Coal tar; Xerogels; Cryogels; Activated carbon; Pore Texture; Post-combustion  
12 CO<sub>2</sub> capture.

13

## 14 **1. Introduction**

15 Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is continuously increasing, reaching values higher than 414 ppm  
16 in June 2019<sup>1</sup>. To reduce this concentration, one of the key actions agreed is the application of  
17 Carbon Capture and Storage technologies (CCS) according to the report of the  
18 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)<sup>2</sup>.

19 Among the various carbon capture technologies, the use of solid adsorbents is becoming more  
20 relevant because of several advantages, such as lower energy requirements during regeneration  
21 and increased stability under corrosive atmospheres, compared to absorption-related processes<sup>3-</sup>  
22 <sup>5</sup>. However, these solids need to meet specific requirements to be considered for adsorption-

1 based carbon capture processes including: 1) low heat capacity, 2) fast kinetics, 3) high CO<sub>2</sub>  
2 capture capacity, 4) thermal and chemical stability, 5) high CO<sub>2</sub> selectivity, 6) long service life,  
3 and 7) low-cost raw materials <sup>6,7</sup>.

4 Various activated carbons (ACs), zeolites, ordered mesoporous silica, metal-organic frameworks  
5 (MOFs) and porous organic polymers (POPs), have been already evaluated for CO<sub>2</sub> physical  
6 adsorption <sup>5,8</sup>, as well as amine-based solids for CO<sub>2</sub> chemical adsorption <sup>7</sup>.

7 Even though amine-based solids present lower heat capacity than liquid absorbents, chemical  
8 adsorption is associated with high costs and low CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacities compared to physical  
9 adsorption <sup>7</sup>. For this reason, an increasing number of studies have focused on using porous  
10 solids for physical adsorption-based processes. Among them, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption with ACs offers  
11 one the most promising alternatives due to their low cost, high stability after a large number of  
12 cycles, easy production, high surface area, and cheap regeneration after CO<sub>2</sub> capture <sup>9,10</sup>.

13 ACs are produced by physical or chemical activation of carbon precursors, which can be coals <sup>11-</sup>  
14 <sup>13</sup>, various pyrolyzed materials <sup>14-16</sup>, or biomass <sup>17-20</sup>. In any activation process, the ultimate goal  
15 is to increase the textural properties of the material (i.e., surface area and pore volume). Physical  
16 activation requires CO<sub>2</sub> or steam at high temperatures ( $\geq 800^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), while chemical activation  
17 requires impregnation or blending of the precursor with an activating agent (i.e., H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> or KOH,  
18 among others) and heated to lower temperatures than those used for physical activation <sup>5,15</sup>.

19 Wang et al. proved that CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity is directly proportional to the micropore volume  
20 for ACs having similar BET surface areas, and demonstrated that both high surface area and high  
21 porosity are needed to increase the CO<sub>2</sub> capture on ACs <sup>21</sup>. Lee et al. <sup>8</sup> and Sevilla et al. <sup>22</sup>  
22 showed that the CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity is directly related to the presence of ultramicropores (pore

1 diameter  $< 0.7$  nm) and supermicropores (pore diameter 0.7-2 nm). Furthermore, Lee et al. also  
2 concluded that the pore size distribution (PSD) of micropores narrower than 0.7 nm has a high  
3 influence on the CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity<sup>8</sup>, in agreement with Marco-Lozar et al. who showed that  
4 the CO<sub>2</sub> capture takes place in the ultramicropores at low partial pressures and at 25°C<sup>23</sup>.

5 Carbon gels are known as materials with a highly developed porous texture<sup>24</sup>, and are usually  
6 produced by the pyrolysis of organic and dried resorcinol-formaldehyde (RF)<sup>24</sup> or phenol-  
7 furfural<sup>25</sup> gels. Once the pyrolysis of the gel is controlled, it is possible to obtain highly  
8 microporous carbons, essentially comprising pores narrower than 1.5 nm. Robertson and  
9 Mokaya thus obtained ACs from RF carbon gels with micropores of size mainly between 0.8 and  
10 1.2 nm, and measured CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacities of 2.7 to 3 mmol/g at 25°C<sup>26</sup>. However,  
11 resorcinol and phenol are expensive and this has a direct impact on the final cost of carbon gels.  
12 Hence, new low-cost precursors should be targeted and studied to obtain highly microporous  
13 activated carbons for CO<sub>2</sub> capture applications. Furthermore, no assessment of the role of the  
14 ACs pore texture on the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption process under more realistic operational capture  
15 conditions has been reported and could provide very helpful insights for future developments  
16 targeting improved AC materials.

17 In this study, we evaluated the CO<sub>2</sub> capture performance, at realistic operating temperatures, of  
18 carbon xerogels and cryogels based on low-value phenolic oil derived from coal pyrolysis.  
19 Furthermore, CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption studies were conducted at CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (5 – 30 vol. %)  
20 representative of different flue gas streams from power plants or industries<sup>27, 28</sup>. Selected ACs  
21 were submitted to a cyclic study to evaluate the effect of the regeneration temperature on the  
22 carbon stability and on their CO<sub>2</sub> uptake over several adsorption/desorption cycles. Finally, CO<sub>2</sub>

1 capture capacities at different temperatures were correlated with the pore texture, and clear  
2 relationships were obtained.

## 3 **2. Experimental**

### 4 **2.1 Activated carbons**

#### 5 *2.1.1 Synthesis*

6 Three activated carbon (AC) series: XiPPO, XPPO and CWPO were prepared as indicated in  
7 Table 1. The first letter of the materials label stands for the type of gel (i.e., X for xerogel and C  
8 for cryogel). The organic gels used as AC precursors were prepared by dissolving phenolic oil  
9 (PO) and formaldehyde either in isopropanol (i) for XiPPO, in n-propanol (-) for XPPO, or in  
10 water (W) for CWPO series of gels. Acidic catalysis, using para-toluenesulphonic acid, was used  
11 in the synthesis of the XiPPO series, and basic catalysis, using NaOH, was used in the synthesis  
12 of the XPPO and CWPO ones.

13 After gelation in their respective solvent, the resultant wet hydrogels or alcogels were dried by  
14 convective heat exchange (85°C, 12h) in the case of XiPPO and XPPO materials, and by freeze-  
15 drying in the case of the CWPO series. Prior to the freeze-drying process of the CWPO  
16 hydrogels, water was exchanged thoroughly by tert-butanol (35°C, one exchange per day for 3  
17 days).

18 **Table 1.** Preparation methodology of the samples.

Series of samples	XiPPO	XPPO	CWPO
Type of gel	Xerogel	Xerogel	Cryogel
Organic precursor	Phenolic oil	Phenolic oil	Phenolic oil
Solvent used	isopropanol	n-propanol	Water
Type of Catalysis	Acidic	Basic	Basic

Activation agent	KOH	KOH	KOH
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1

2 The dried gels were then ground and mixed with KOH, using KOH/dried gel mass ratios of 3, 4  
3 and 5 for XiPPO, of 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 for XPPO, and of 1, 2, 3 and 4 for the CWPO series.

4 Chemical activation of the dried gel was next performed by heating the KOH/dried gel mixture  
5 up to 750°C, and maintaining the final temperature for 1h in nitrogen flow (100 mL/min). Thus,  
6 pyrolysis and chemical activation were carried out in one single step. The obtained ACs were  
7 finally washed with 1 mol/L HCl, subsequently washed with distilled water in a Soxhlet

8 extractor for 5 days, and dried in a ventilated oven (105°C, 12h). The ACs were labelled by

9 adding the KOH/gel mass ratio (i.e., from 1 to 5) to the name of their gel precursor. Thus, for

10 instance, XiPPO\_3 is an activated carbon prepared from a xerogel synthesized with isopropanol

11 as solvent, dried by convection, ground and activated with a KOH/gel mass ratio equal to 3.

12 For the sake of comparison, two well-known commercial ACs from Kansai Coke and Chemicals

13 Co. Ltd (i.e., MSP-20X and MSC-30) were also characterized and tested as CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbents.

#### 14 *2.1.2 Textural characterisation*

15 Textural characterization was performed by nitrogen and carbon dioxide adsorption at -196°C  
16 and 0°C, respectively, using an automatic adsorption apparatus (ASAP 2020, Micromeritics).

17 Adsorption data were treated using the Microactive® software from Micromeritics. Prior to gas

18 adsorption, all samples were degassed under secondary vacuum at 110°C until the pressure

19 stabilized at about 0.2-0.4 mPa for more than 48h. Further degassing was carried out at the

20 measuring port for at least 6h. Cool and warm volumes were determined after nitrogen or carbon

21 dioxide adsorption to avoid helium entrapment in the narrowest pores.

1 The BET area calculated by the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method <sup>29</sup>,  $A_{\text{BET}}$ , was obtained  
2 by applying the BET equation in the appropriate range of relative pressures <sup>30</sup>.  $A_{\text{BET}}$  was only  
3 determined for comparing our results with those reported in the open literature, and not used here  
4 for further calculation because of the well-known overestimation of surface area when applying  
5 the BET equation to materials having highly developed supermicroporosity. Micropore volumes  
6 were obtained using the Dubinin-Radushkevich (DR) equation <sup>31</sup>, and they are again only given  
7 here for comparison purposes with the literature <sup>32,33</sup>. The DR method was applied both to N<sub>2</sub> (-  
8 196°C) and to CO<sub>2</sub> (0°C) adsorption isotherms to obtain  $V_{\text{DR},\text{N}_2}$  and  $V_{\text{DR},\text{CO}_2}$ , respectively. The  
9 pore size distributions (PSDs) were obtained by using the non-local density functional theory  
10 (NLDFT) from the Solution of Adsorption Integral Equation Using Splines (SAIEUS®) routine.  
11 This method has the advantage of combining both CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> adsorption data to get more  
12 accurate PSDs <sup>34</sup>. Moreover, it allows fitting the PSDs with a spline model, avoiding the usual  
13 singularities of the classical DFT model. The average micropore diameter was calculated using  
14 this PSD,  $L_{0,\text{NLDFT}}$ , and also the by applying the DR method together with the Stoeckli equation  
15 <sup>35</sup>,  $L_{0,\text{DR}}$ . The mesopore volume was calculated by subtracting the micropore volume obtained  
16 from the NLDFT method,  $V_{\text{mic NLDFT}}$ , to the total pore volume directly measured by N<sub>2</sub>  
17 adsorption at a relative pressure of 0.99. The NLDFT method was also used to determine the  
18 surface area,  $S_{\text{NLDFT}}$ , by integrating the PSDs over the whole range of pore sizes <sup>36</sup>. Moreover,  
19 the pore volumes corresponding to pore widths below 0.5 nm ( $V_{L<0.5}$ ), below 0.7 nm ( $V_{L<0.7}$ ),  
20 between 0.7 and 2 nm ( $V_{0.7<L<2}$ ), below 2 nm ( $V_{L<2}$ ) and between 2 and 50 nm ( $V_{2<L<50}$ ), were  
21 also determined by integrating the PSD over the relevant pore diameters.

## 22 **2.2 CO<sub>2</sub> capture evaluation**

1 The CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacities were determined using a TA Q500 thermogravimetric analyzer (TA  
2 Instruments). In all experiments, a platinum pan was filled with approximately 8 mg of the AC to  
3 be tested. The pan was heated up to 120°C and kept at this temperature for 30 minutes under N<sub>2</sub>  
4 flow (100 mL/min) to eliminate pre-adsorbed gases or water from the AC surface. After drying,  
5 the desired temperature (25, 50, 75, 100, or 120°C) was reached and the sample was kept under  
6 nitrogen flow until constant weight. Once the steady state was reached, the N<sub>2</sub> flow was switched  
7 to a total of 100 mL/min flow with a 90 vol. % of CO<sub>2</sub> in N<sub>2</sub>, and the temperature was  
8 maintained for 30 minutes to ensure that the total CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity was achieved. CO<sub>2</sub>  
9 adsorption at 25°C was repeated at least 3 times to evaluate the deviation and repeatability of the  
10 capture capacity for each AC, and the materials presenting the highest CO<sub>2</sub> capacity were  
11 selected for further studies.

12 For the most efficient ACs, the capture capacity at 25°C and at different concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub>,  
13 from 5 to 90 vol. % in N<sub>2</sub>, was evaluated. Low values such as 5, 15, 18 and 25 vol. % are  
14 particularly interesting to mimic the behavior of ACs in the presence of common concentrations  
15 of CO<sub>2</sub> from the combustion of natural gas and pulverized coal<sup>27</sup>. Furthermore, we used the best  
16 sample of the XiPPO series to evaluate the ageing of the AC after six adsorption-desorption  
17 cycles. For this purpose, we carried out adsorption at 25°C using a pure CO<sub>2</sub> flow of 100 mL/min  
18 and, after desorption, the AC was regenerated at different temperatures (i.e., 125, 150, 175 or  
19 200°C). Moreover, a thermal stability study was carried out for each sample for evaluating its  
20 behavior from 25 to 220°C with a heating ramp of 10°C/min under a 100 mL/min flow of inert  
21 atmosphere. Finally, six cycles of adsorption-desorption were done for the best sample selected  
22 out of each family of AC, using 200°C as regeneration temperature.

23

1

2 **3. Results and discussion**3 **3.1 Porous texture of the ACs**

4 Table 2 shows the main textural parameters of the ACs considered in this study. All were  
 5 essentially microporous, with micropore fractions ranging from 60 to 95 %, and with a well-  
 6 developed  $A_{\text{BET}}$ , from 1356 to 3305  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$ .  $S_{\text{NLDFT}}$  gives a more realistic determination of the  
 7 surface area (having in mind that the maximum surface area of an AC is  $2630 \text{ m}^2/\text{g}^{37}$ ), and it  
 8 indeed varied from 1436 to 2216  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$ . Average micropore size,  $L_{0, \text{NLDFT}}$ , ranged from 0.7 to 1.3  
 9 nm. The two commercial ACs from Kansai, labelled according to their commercial  
 10 denomination, MSC-30 and MSP-20X, had porous textures that compared very well with those  
 11 of the present experimental activated carbon gels, whether surface areas or pore volumes are  
 12 considered. This is an important result, since it should be recalled that the present materials were  
 13 derived from a poorly valorized industrial waste: phenolic oil.

14 **Table 2.** Textural properties of all activated carbons.

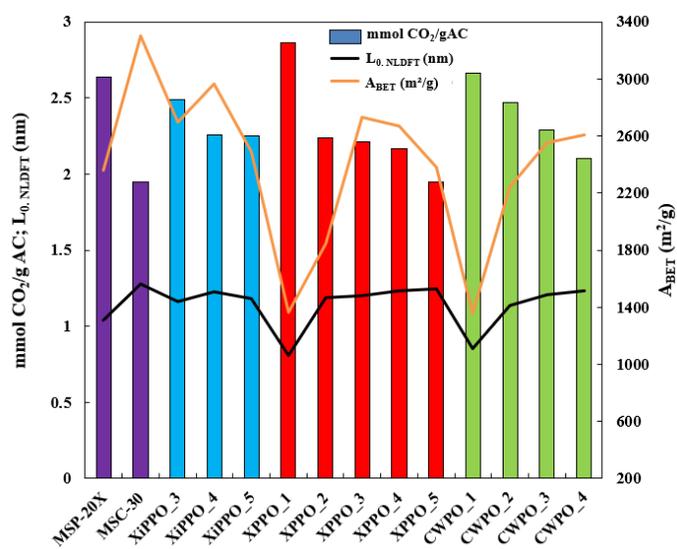
Sample	$A_{\text{BET}}$ $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$	$S_{\text{NLDFT}}$ $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$	$V_{\text{tot}}$ $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$	$V_{L<0.5}$ $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$	$V_{0.5<L<0.7}$ $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$	$V_{L<0.7}$ $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$	$V_{0.7<L<2}$ $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$	$V_{2<L<50}$ $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$	$V_{\text{DR, N}_2/\text{CO}_2}$ $\text{cm}^3/\text{g}$	$L_{0, \text{NLDFT}}$ nm	$L_{0, \text{DR}}(\text{N}_2)$ nm
MSP-20X	2363	2007	0.93	0.02	0.17	0.19	0.69	0.05	0.83/0.42	1.04	0.96
MSC-30	3305	2216	1.60	0.00	0.04	0.04	0.91	0.64	1.02/0.37	1.28	1.29
XiPPO_3	2694	2086	1.15	0.01	0.14	0.15	0.80	0.19	0.90/0.44	1.16	1.21
XiPPO_4	2967	2133	1.34	0.01	0.10	0.11	0.85	0.38	0.94/0.41	1.23	1.25
XiPPO_5	2494	1913	1.11	0.02	0.08	0.10	0.76	0.25	0.83/0.47	1.18	1.24
XPPO_1	1364	1494	0.56	0.03	0.25	0.28	0.25	0.03	0.52/0.53	0.81	0.72
XPPO_2	1848	1943	1.10	0.02	0.13	0.15	0.73	0.22	0.82/0.39	1.19	1.25
XPPO_3	2729	2036	1.23	0.02	0.09	0.10	0.81	0.32	0.90/0.46	1.20	1.27
XPPO_4	2673	1964	1.27	0.02	0.07	0.10	0.75	0.42	0.85/0.36	1.23	1.30
XPPO_5	2383	1713	1.14	0.01	0.06	0.08	0.67	0.39	0.76/0.39	1.25	1.33
CWPO_1	1356	1436	0.56	0.03	0.22	0.25	0.27	0.04	0.51/0.41	0.85	0.80

CWPO_2	2245	1907	0.99	0.02	0.15	0.17	0.69	0.13	0.79/0.43	1.14	1.15
CWPO_3	2551	2039	1.21	0.02	0.11	0.13	0.79	0.28	0.87/0.42	1.21	1.20
CWPO_4	2607	2027	1.30	0.02	0.09	0.11	0.77	0.42	0.87/0.39	1.24	1.24

## 3.2 CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacities at 25°C

### 3.2.1 General trends

Figure 1 shows the CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity, in mmol of CO<sub>2</sub> per gram of adsorbent, of each AC measured at 25°C. The best samples of each series were XPPO\_1 > CWPO\_1 > MSP-20X > XiPPO\_3. Table S1 shows the average CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity of all samples after three repetitions. The deviation in the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption measurement was calculated for all samples, and the CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacities were very repeatable, with a relative error of less than 3%. XPPO\_1 had the highest CO<sub>2</sub> capture out of all samples, 2.86 mmol CO<sub>2</sub>/g, followed by CWPO\_1, 2.66 mmol CO<sub>2</sub>/g. In the XPPO series, the XPPO\_1 presented a lower A<sub>BET</sub> than the rest, but a much higher fraction of micropores (> 90 %) as well as a higher volume of narrow pores (V<sub>DR</sub>). These values are comparable with previous work evaluating the use of asphalt as precursor of activated carbons<sup>38</sup>.



13

1 **Figure 1.** Average micropore size  $L_{0, \text{NLDFT}}$  (black line),  $A_{\text{BET}}$  (yellow line) and  $\text{CO}_2$  capture  
2 capacity (mmol/g AC) of each activated carbon. (Purple for KANSAI, blue for XiPPO, red for  
3 XPPO group and green for CWPO).

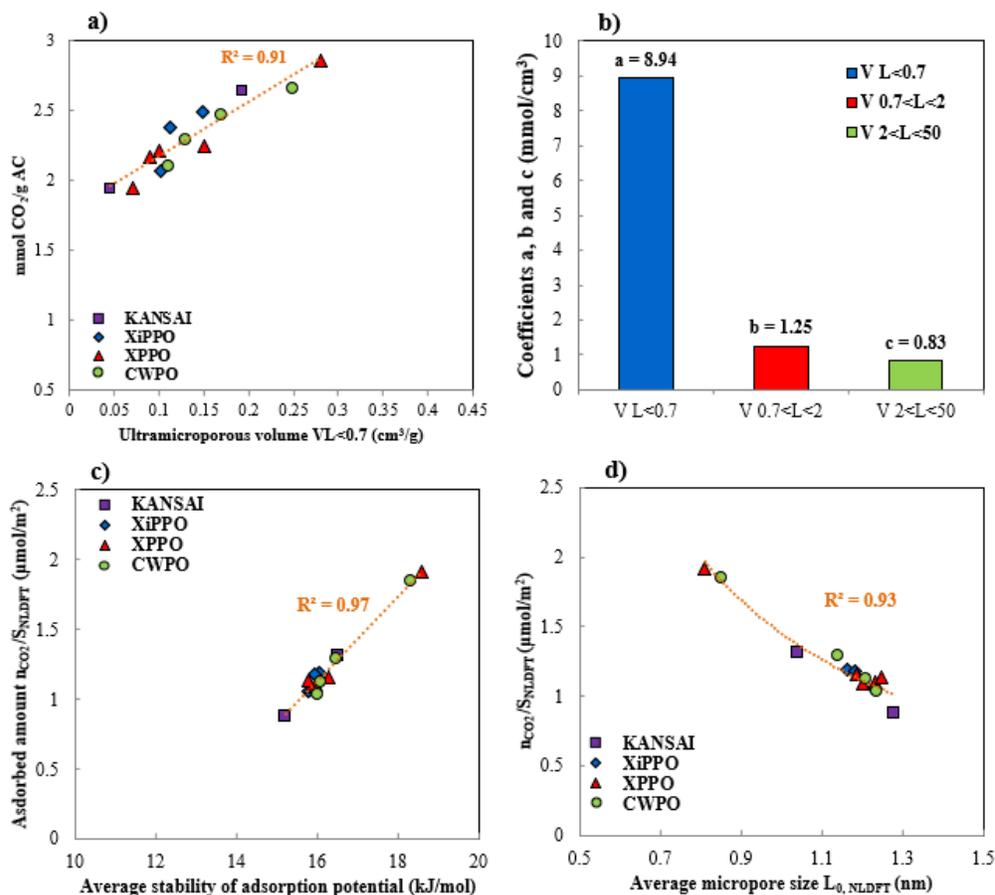
4 The  $\text{CO}_2$  capture capacity of samples XPPO\_2, XPPO\_3 and XPPO\_4 slightly decreased as the  
5 xerogel/KOH mass ratio increased because the micropore volume fraction decreased, which  
6 implied a lower  $\text{CO}_2$  capture capacity. The same trend was observed for the XiPPO samples,  
7 XiPPO\_3 presenting the highest  $\text{CO}_2$  capture capacity and XiPPO\_4 and XiPPO\_5 having  
8 similar  $\text{CO}_2$  capture capacities, with different textural characteristics. The latter clearly implies  
9 that  $\text{CO}_2$  capture can be maintained even if the micropore volume decreases, as long as the total  
10 pore volume of the activated carbons increases sufficiently because  $\text{CO}_2$  capture is due to both  
11 adsorption and pore filling.

12 Otherwise, for the CWPO and Kansai samples, a clear trend could be observed, as the decrease  
13 in  $\text{CO}_2$  capture capacity appeared constant as the degree of activation increased (related to the  
14 cryogel/KOH ratio in the case of CWPO). In both families of materials, the samples that were  
15 more activated had an increase of surface area but that was not enough to compensate the  
16 decrease of  $\text{CO}_2$  capture capacity, related to the correspondingly lower microporous fraction and  
17 micropore volume. MSP-20X and MSC-30 indeed had microporous fractions of 96.80% and  
18 59.83 %, respectively, and surface areas of 2363  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$  and 3305  $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$ , respectively.

19 Finally, comparing in all cases the best samples from each family, it was observed that the  
20 samples with the highest  $V_{0.5 < L < 0.7}$  and the lowest  $L_{0, \text{NLDFT}}$  were the ones with the highest  $\text{CO}_2$   
21 capture capacity.

22 More generally, the adsorption of  $\text{CO}_2$  near room temperature and atmospheric pressure is  
23 mainly due to the narrowest micropores. A quite good linear correlation between the

1 ultramicroporous volume ( $V_{<0.7}$ ) and the amount adsorbed was indeed found ( $R^2 = 0.89$ ). It  
 2 highlights the importance of such narrow pores when a good  $\text{CO}_2$  capture under these conditions  
 3 is sought (Figure 2a), which corroborates what has been previously reported<sup>14, 39, 40</sup>.



4  
 5 **Figure 2.** a) Adsorbed  $\text{CO}_2$  amount at  $25^\circ\text{C}$  as a function of the ultramicroporous volume. b)  
 6 Coefficients of multiple linear regressions for  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ . c) Amount adsorbed per  
 7 unit of surface area as a function of the average adsorption potential stability ( $25^\circ\text{C}$  and 1 bar). d)  
 8 Same as c) but versus  $L_{0, \text{NLDFT}}$ . The dotted lines are just guides for the eye.

### 9 3.2.2 Pore size effect: Multiple linear regression

10 In order to highlight the relative importance of pore size, some authors suggested to perform a  
 11 multiple linear regression taking into account the pore volumes for each class of pores ( $V_{<0.7}$ ,

1  $V_{0.7<L<2}$  and  $V_{2<L<50}$ ) and the corresponding adsorbed amount of gas,  $n_{ads}(T,P)$ <sup>41,42</sup>. The  
2 equation of this multiple linear regression takes the following form (eq. 1):

$$3 \quad n_{ads}(T,P) = a(T,P) \cdot V_{L<0.7} + b(T,P) \cdot V_{0.7<L<2} + c(T,P) \cdot V_{2<L<50} \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

4  $V_{L<0.7}$ ,  $V_{0.7<L<2}$  and  $V_{2<L<50}$  refer to ultramicroporous, supermicroporous and mesoporous  
5 volumes, respectively, whereas a, b and c are real numbers and are the coefficients of the  
6 multiple linear regressions. The fitting algorithm (Levenberg-Marquardt) led to a good  
7 regression ( $R^2 = 0.87$ ), while the p-value was far below 0.05 (i.e.,  $\approx 0$ ). The high value of a  
8 compared to b and c, 8.94, 1.25 and 0.83 mmol/cm<sup>3</sup>, respectively, showed that the  
9 ultramicropore volume is of paramount importance for the adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> at 25°C (Figure  
10 2b).

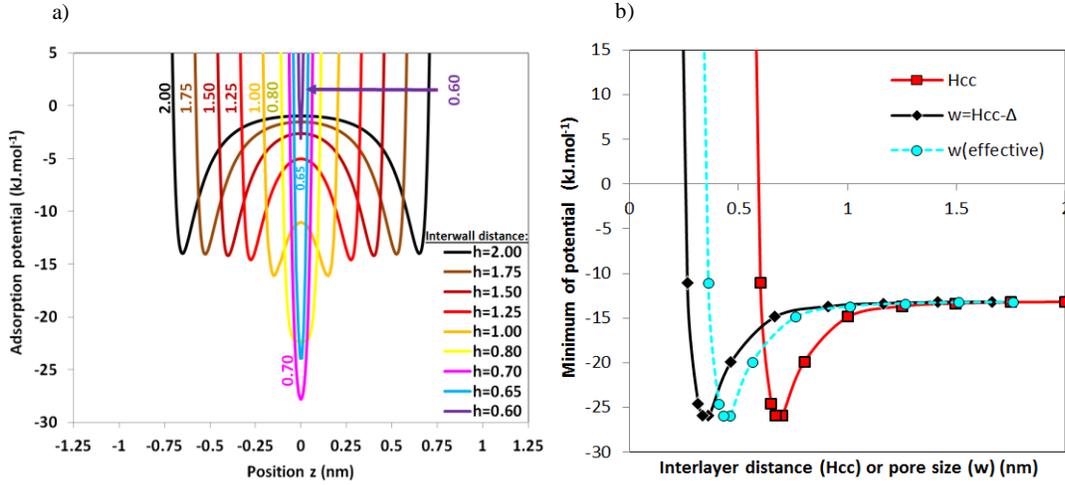
11 This conclusion is further confirmed by the evolution of such coefficients as a function of the  
12 pore size of the corresponding pore classes, which exhibits a dramatic decrease as the pore size  
13 increases. Figure S1 shows the same trend but when the ultramicroporous volume ( $V_{L<0.7}$ ) is  
14 subdivided into two other pore classes ( $V_{L<0.5}$  and  $V_{0.5<L<0.7}$ ). In this case, the coefficients of the  
15 multilinear regression show a dramatic and exponential-like decay as the pore size increases.

### 16 *3.2.3 Adsorption potential*

17 The adsorption potential decreases as the pore size increases due to less overlap of the interaction  
18 potentials exerted by the facing pore walls. Thus, pores having a size less than 0.7 nm and, to a  
19 higher extent, pores narrower than 0.5 nm have a paramount influence on the ability of materials  
20 to adsorb CO<sub>2</sub> at low pressure (1 bar) and at room temperature<sup>14</sup>.

21 These trends are also confirmed by the simple linear regression presented in Figure S2.

1 In order to verify this, the adsorption potential was modelled using the well-known Steele  
 2 potential<sup>43</sup>. The parameters selected for the modelling were the same as those used by  
 3 Kurniawan et al. for Grand Canonical Monte Carlo modelling of gas adsorption<sup>44</sup>. Moreover,  
 4 similar parameters were previously used by Ravikovitch et al. for DFT modelling<sup>45</sup>.



5  
 6 **Figure 3.** Steele adsorption potential for the CO<sub>2</sub> – graphite system (slit pores model).  
 7 The adsorption potentials, as well as their related minima, are reported in Figure 3, where the  
 8 Steele adsorption potential and the minimum of Steele’s potential as a function of the distance  
 9 between median planes of the graphitic pore walls are represented.

10 This Steele potential<sup>46</sup> is described by the following expression (eq. 2):

$$11 \quad U_{sf}(z) = 2 \cdot \pi \cdot \rho_s \cdot \epsilon_{sf} \cdot \sigma_{sf} \cdot \Delta \cdot \left[ \frac{2}{5} \cdot \left( \frac{\sigma_{sf}}{z} \right)^{10} - \left( \frac{\sigma_{sf}}{z} \right)^4 - \frac{\sigma_{sf}^4}{3 \cdot \Delta \cdot (0.61 \Delta + z)^3} \right] \quad (\text{eq. 2})$$

12 where  $\rho_s$  is the number of atoms per unit volume of graphite (114 nm<sup>-3</sup>),  $\Delta$  is the interlayer  
 13 spacing of graphite (0.335 nm),  $z$  is the distance to the graphite wall,  $\epsilon_{sf}$  and  $\sigma_{sf}$  are the  
 14 Lennard-Jones parameters for the CO<sub>2</sub> molecule in interaction with graphite. The values of these  
 15 parameters were obtained using the classical Lorentz-Berthelot combination rules for pure fluid  
 16 (CO<sub>2</sub>) and solid (graphite). For the CO<sub>2</sub>-graphite system and in the case of one-centre model, the

1 parameters were approximated to  $\epsilon_{sf} / k_b = 82.3165 \text{ K}$  and to  $\sigma_{sf} = 0.35075(\text{nm})$ <sup>47</sup>.

2 Ravikovitch et al. previously proposed a similar approximation for DFT modelling<sup>48</sup>. The total  
3 adsorption in a medium, confined between two walls of a slit pore, reads (eq.3):

$$4 \quad U_{sf-total}(z) = U_{sf}(z) + U_{sf}(H_{cc} - z) \quad (\text{eq. 3})$$

5 where  $H_{cc}$  is the centre-to-centre distance, or distance between the median planes of the graphitic  
6 walls (Å). Then, the potential can be converted from K to kJ/mol using Avogadro and Boltzmann  
7 constants.

8 As used by some authors, an indicator of the strength of the potential is its stability, (s)<sup>49</sup>. The  
9 stability of a potential is defined by the opposite value of the minimum of the potential in a valid  
10 range of  $z$  (eq. 4).

$$11 \quad s(H_{cc}) = -\min(U_{sf-total}(z, H_{cc})) \quad (\text{eq. 4})$$

12 The adsorption potentials, as well as their related minima, are reported in Figures 3. It can be  
13 noticed that the adsorption potential follows a nonlinear evolution as a function of the distance  
14 between the two graphite walls. This adsorption potential decreases down to almost -28 kJ/mol  
15 for  $H_{cc} = 0.7 \text{ nm}$ . Such distance corresponds to the space between the median planes of the wall.  
16 Given that the interlayer spacing in graphite is 0.335 nm, this distance corresponds to a real pore  
17 size of 0.365 nm for this lowest minimum of potential<sup>49</sup>. Indeed, the effective pore size can be  
18 calculated from the interplanar ( $H_{cc}$ ) distance.

19 The interlayer distance of pure and defect-free graphite ( $\Delta$ ) is equal to 0.335 nm. Thus, the  
20 effective pore size can be calculated using the following formula. (eq. 5):

$$21 \quad w = H_{cc} - \Delta \quad (\text{eq. 5})$$

22 Some authors suggested that this calculation method leads to a poor estimation of the effective  
23 pore size<sup>50, 51</sup>. Consequently, they proposed to use another estimation (eq. 6).

1  $w_{effective} = H_{cc} - (2 \cdot z_0 - \sigma_{ff})$  (eq. 6)

2 where  $z_0$  has the following expression (eq. 7):

3  $z_0 = 0.8506 \cdot \sigma_{sf}$  (eq. 7)

4 Above  $H_{cc} \approx 1.00$  nm (i.e., for an effective pore size  $w_{effective}$  equal to 0.76 nm), the minimum  
5 of adsorption potential is almost constant and asymptotically converges to a value close to 13.95  
6 kJ/mol. Thus, in pores wider than ultramicropores, CO<sub>2</sub> is assumed to adsorb in the same way as  
7 that occurring on a flat graphitic surface. According to these observations, based on the  
8 minimum of adsorption potential, the ideal pore size for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption would be close to 0.45  
9 nm ( $H_{cc} \approx 0.7$  nm).

10 It can be noticed that the adsorption potential follows a nonlinear evolution as a function of the  
11 distance between the two median planes of the graphite walls ( $H_{cc}$ ). This adsorption potential  
12 decreases down to almost -28 kJ/mol for  $H_{cc} = 0.7$  nm. Given that the interlayer spacing of  
13 graphite is 0.335 nm, the pore width is then 0.365 nm, which is similar to some values previously  
14 reported by other authors<sup>52</sup>. Nevertheless, a more accurate estimation of the effective pore size  
15 (described in the supplementary information by equations 5, 6 and 7<sup>53,54</sup>) leads, in terms of  
16 minimum of adsorption potential, to an optimum pore size of 0.45 nm. Above an effective pore  
17 size close to 0.7 nm, the minimum of adsorption potential is almost constant and  
18 approximatively equal to -13.95 kJ/mol. Thus, in pores wider than ultramicropores, CO<sub>2</sub> is  
19 assumed to adsorb in the same way as that occurring on a flat, single and isolated graphitic  
20 surface. Considering only the adsorption potential, the 0.45 nm pore size should theoretically be  
21 ideal for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption. However, in practice, some authors have reported that cooperative

1 adsorption, occurring in pores wider than 0.6 nm, promotes high densities of adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> as  
2 the pressure increases<sup>52</sup>.

3 Representing the adsorbed amount per unit of surface area (using S<sub>NLDFT</sub>) as a function of the  
4 average potential stability (Figure 2c) makes the cloud of points much narrower compared to the  
5 case of using the average micropore size (Figure 2d), which is discussed in the next subsection.

#### 6 *3.2.4 Influence of adsorption potential and porous texture on CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity*

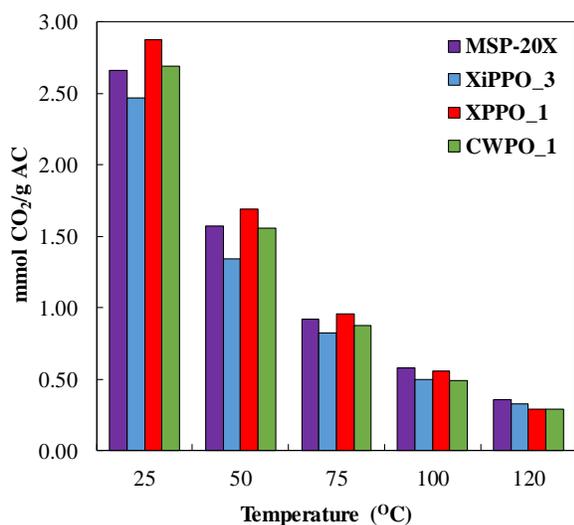
7 The amount of adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> per surface area (μmol.m<sup>-2</sup>) is presented in Figure 2d versus the  
8 average micropore size. This methodology and representation have been already used by several  
9 authors<sup>55,56</sup>. Representing the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> per surface area versus A<sub>BET</sub> and L<sub>0 DR,N2</sub>, a good fit  
10 was also obtained (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.86, Figure S3) but the quality of the fit was far better when using  
11 S<sub>NLDFT</sub> and L<sub>0, NLDFT</sub> (i.e., R<sup>2</sup> = 0.93) (Figure 2d).

12 Likewise, the BET and DR methods overestimate the surface area and the micropore volume,  
13 respectively, of highly activated carbons. The linear dependence of the adsorbed amount of CO<sub>2</sub>  
14 per unit of surface area as a function of the average stability of the adsorption potential (Figure  
15 2c) induces a curvature when the same quantity is observed as a function of the average  
16 micropore size (Figure 2d). Indeed, the stability of the adsorption potential has a highly non-  
17 linear dependence with the pore size (Figure 3b) which induces this curvature. With the  
18 exception of commercial activated carbons (MSC-30 and MSP-20X), all data points are located  
19 on one single trend line (Figure 2d). This suggests that the shapes of the pore size distributions of  
20 activated carbons derived from phenolic oil are similar or, at least, do not have, in this particular  
21 case, a significant influence on the adsorbed density. Moreover, Figure S4 confirms the  
22 similarity of the pore size distributions of activated carbons derived from phenolic oil. Indeed,

1 the three families of synthesized materials follow the same trends: for each pore fraction, each  
2 class of pores depends on  $L_{0,NLDFT}$  in a similar way. The KANSAI family is the only one to  
3 present, here, some differences in the shape of the pore size distributions (Figure S4). Indeed, the  
4 MSP-20X has, given the average size of its micropores, a lower ultramicroporous volume than  
5 the rest of the materials. Hence, the advantage of using average adsorption potential stability  
6 (Figure 2b) instead of average micropore size (Figure 2c) is both to reduce scattering when  
7 comparing different families of materials and to linearize the trend.

### 8 **3.3 CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity above room temperature (50-120°C)**

9 As it has been confirmed previously, the narrow micropore volume is the most important  
10 parameter for CO<sub>2</sub> capture at low temperatures, also concluded by Sevilla et al.<sup>57</sup>. However, in  
11 combustion processes, the most common flue gas temperatures range from 50 to 120°C<sup>3,58</sup>.  
12 Figure 4 shows the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake for the best samples previously identified (MSP-20X, XiPPO\_3,  
13 XPPO\_1 and CWPO\_1) for a representative range of temperatures from 25 to 120°C. As  
14 expected, the CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacities of all samples decreased as the adsorption temperature  
15 increased, because CO<sub>2</sub> physisorption is an exothermic process.



16

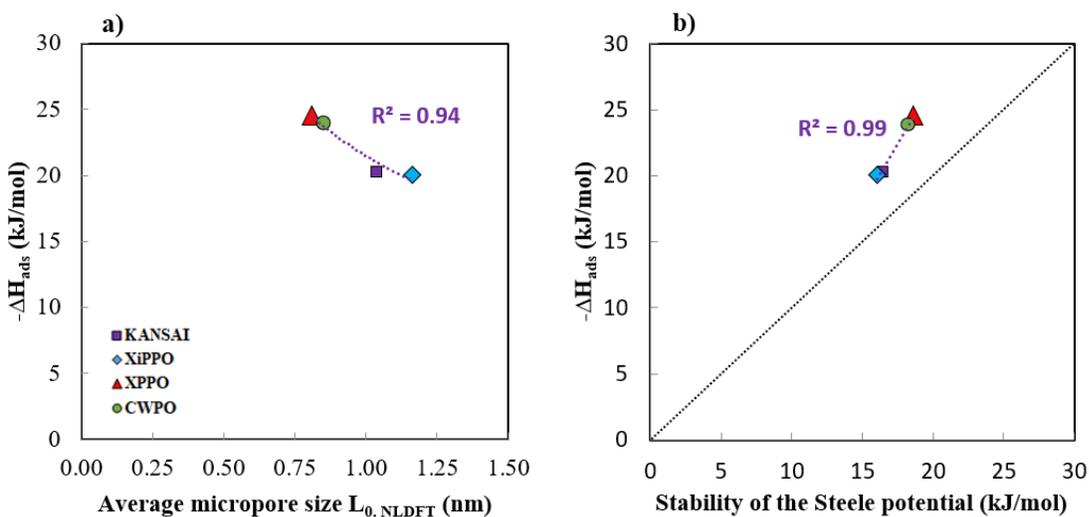
1 **Figure 4.** CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity of the most efficient samples as a function of adsorption  
2 temperature. (Purple for MSP-20X, blue for XiPPO\_3, red for XPPO\_1 and green for  
3 CWPO\_1).

4 In agreement with Serafin et al.<sup>14</sup>, as the adsorption temperature increases, the range of pore size  
5 in which the capture of CO<sub>2</sub> mostly takes place is considerably reduced and pores narrower than  
6 0.5 nm become more important. However, it was observed that at 120°C, the CO<sub>2</sub> capture  
7 capacity of all samples were very similar. Indeed, the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of XPPO\_1 was the lowest,  
8 even though it had the highest volume of narrow pores and the lowest L<sub>0,NLDFT</sub>. Hence, as the  
9 capture temperature increases, the micropore volume of the samples becomes less relevant, as  
10 opposed to the surface area and the total pore volume become more important.

11 Indeed, the higher the specific area and total pore volume the higher the density (per mass unit of  
12 carbon material) of possible defects on the surface of carbon structure (i.e. surface groups, edges,  
13 corrugation and other topological defects). Under high temperature (i.e. 120 °C), such defects  
14 should have a greater importance than under lower temperatures due to the polarization effect  
15 they induce on the CO<sub>2</sub> molecules. This statement is justified by the study of adsorption  
16 enthalpies as detailed below.

17 The calculation of adsorption enthalpies using Henry's law is detailed in the supplementary  
18 information. The linear fits had a high R<sup>2</sup> (> 0.97). The enthalpies of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on the  
19 materials MSP-20X, XiPPO\_3, XPPO\_1 and CWPO\_1 are respectively equal to 20.2, 20.1, 24.5  
20 and 23.9 kJ/mol. These values are in the typical range of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on activated carbons<sup>59</sup>,  
21<sup>60</sup>. The decrease in heat of adsorption (opposite of the enthalpy of adsorption) as the average  
22 micropore size increases (Figure 5a) is due to the decrease of the adsorption potential.

1 When the heat of adsorption is represented in relation to the average stability of the adsorption  
2 potential calculated previously, instead of the average size of the micropores, the trend becomes  
3 perfectly linear but does not correspond to the identity function (Figure 5b). This non-equality  
4 might be due to the fact that the potential of adsorption does not perfectly reflect the substrate-  
5 adsorbate interactions. Indeed, the adsorption potential does not account for intermolecular or  
6 lateral interactions of the adsorbate. These could increase the apparent heat of adsorption.

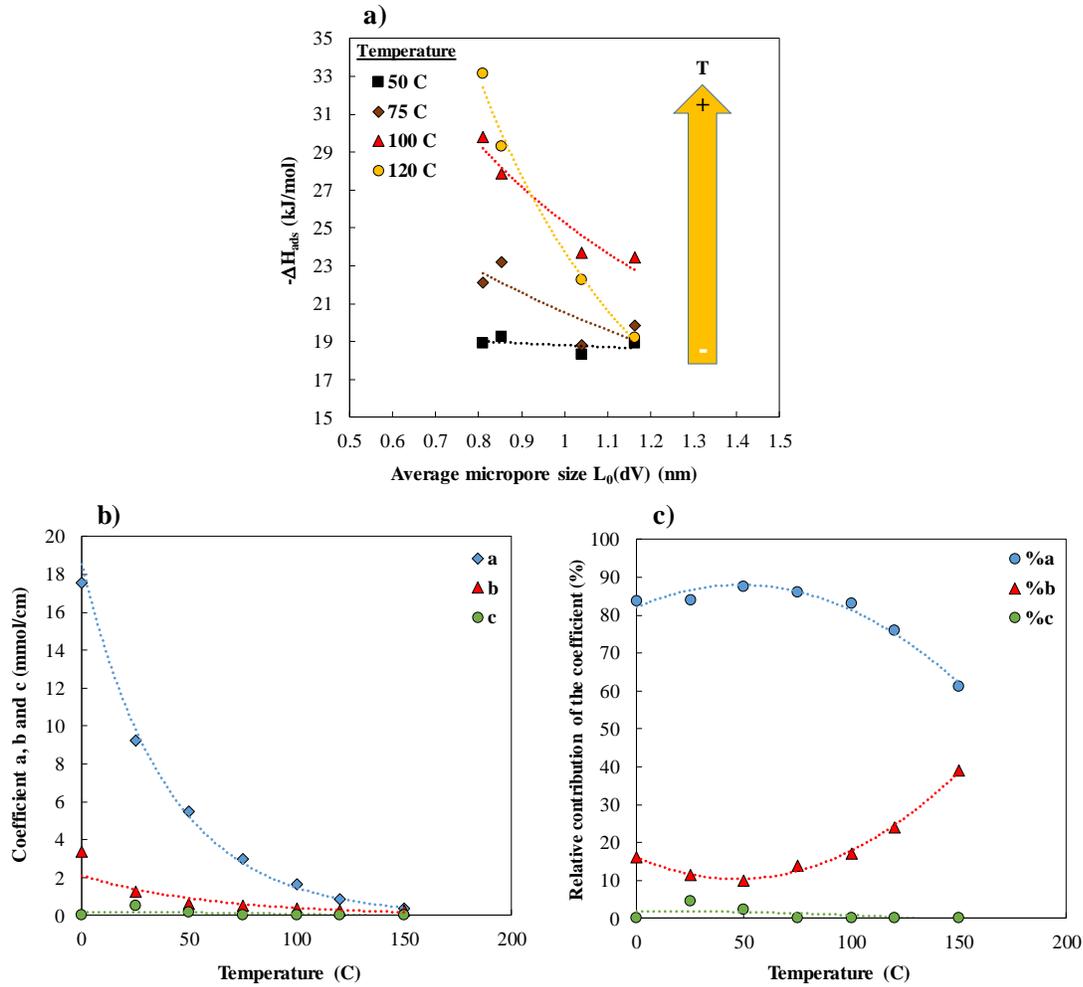


7  
8 **Figure 5.** Heat of adsorption as a function of a) average micropore size according to NLDFT,  
9 and b) stability of the adsorption potential.

10 In addition, the small amount of  $\text{CO}_2$  possibly subjected to cooperative adsorption in the larger  
11 micropores could also affect the heat of adsorption and induce a higher heat of adsorption.  
12 Moreover, the adsorption potential has been calculated for an infinite flat graphitic surface, thus  
13 without edges or corrugation, and in the absence of specific surface group that might  
14 experimentally affect the adsorption heat and the adsorption process. Such characteristics of the  
15 carbon surface (corrugation, defects, edges and surface groups) could explain the higher values

1 of adsorption heat obtained experimentally, compared to the average stability of adsorption  
2 potential.

3 Figure 6a shows the evolution of the heat of adsorption as a function of temperature and average  
4 micropore size. The heat of adsorption increases as the temperature of adsorption increases due  
5 to the preferential filling of the smallest pores at high temperature. Indeed, the high temperatures  
6 induce a greater decrease in the density of the adsorbed layer in the wide pores than in the  
7 narrow pores where the adsorption potential is very high <sup>14</sup>. In addition, the increase in  
8 temperature gives more importance to strong polarized adsorption on the surface of the sorbent  
9 compared to physisorption. In general, defects in carbon structure itself or surface groups such as  
10 hydroxyls can induce such strong polarized adsorption phenomena <sup>61, 62</sup>.



1  
 2 **Figure 6.** a) Heat of adsorption as a function of the average micropore size for different  
 3 temperatures, b) Coefficients  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  of the multilinear regression (eq. 1), and c) their relative  
 4 contribution as a function of temperature.

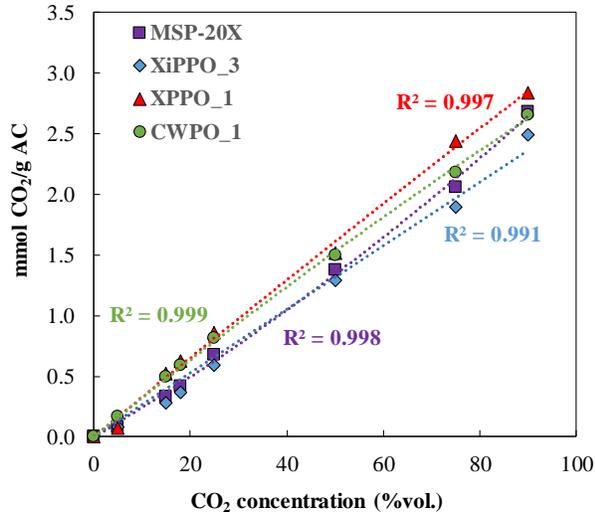
5 By applying multiple linear regression (eq. 1) to each adsorption temperature, the coefficients  $a$ ,  
 6  $b$  and  $c$ , corresponding to the contributions (in  $\text{mmol}/\text{cm}^3$ ) to  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption for each pore size,  
 7 have been calculated. The variation of these coefficients as well as their relative contributions to  
 8 capture capacities are shown in Figure 6b and 6c, respectively, as a function of temperature. The

1 ultramicropores always constituted the most important volume fraction (Figure 6b), although  
2 their importance approached that of supermicropores at 120°C (Figure 6c).  
3 Figure 6b exhibits an exponential decay of all coefficients related to the negative effect of  
4 temperature on the physisorption process. In addition, the relative contribution of each pore size  
5 (Figure 6c) shows that, in a range close to room temperature (i.e., 25-75°C), the contribution of  
6 ultramicropores increases (coefficient a) while that of supermicropores (coefficient b) decreases,  
7 which is due to the higher adsorption potential in ultramicropores. In contrast, above 75°C, the  
8 contribution of supermicropores (coefficient b) begins to increase. This indicates that the surface  
9 becomes, above a given temperature, more attractive for the adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub>.

### 10 **3.4 Effect of partial CO<sub>2</sub> pressure on the capture capacity**

11 When transforming fossil fuel energy in any combustion plant, the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> released  
12 into the atmosphere is between 5 and 30 vol. %: the most common values from pulverized coal  
13 fired plants ranges from 8 to 15 vol. %<sup>28</sup>, whereas the concentration can reach 30 vol. % with  
14 cement plants<sup>27</sup>.

15 Figure 7 shows the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption at 25°C for the most efficient samples of each family (MSP-  
16 20X, XiPPO\_3, XPPO\_1 and CWPO\_1) at different partial pressures of CO<sub>2</sub>. It was observed  
17 that at low concentrations, 5, 15 and 18 % by volume, the CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacities of MSP-20X  
18 and XiPPO\_3 were similar, with a higher CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of CWPO\_1.



1  
 2 **Figure 7.** CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacities at 25°C for the most efficient samples as function of the CO<sub>2</sub>  
 3 concentration. (Purple for MSP-20X KANSAI, blue for XiPPO\_3, red for XPPO\_1 and green for  
 4 the CWPO\_1).

5 The CO<sub>2</sub> capture of XPPO\_1 at 5 vol. % of CO<sub>2</sub> was the lowest among all samples. However, it  
 6 became the highest as the concentration increased, showing the largest differences for CO<sub>2</sub>  
 7 concentrations above 50 vol. %.

8 For any AC, at low CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, the most important pores for adsorption are the  
 9 narrowest pores available, pores narrower than 0.6 nm are the most relevant when working at 15  
 10 % of CO<sub>2</sub><sup>14</sup>. Samples MSP-20X and XiPPO\_3 have a similar V<sub>micro DR</sub> (CO<sub>2</sub>) and showed similar  
 11 CO<sub>2</sub> uptakes at low concentrations. XPPO\_1, at CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations higher than 15 vol. %,   
 12 became the best sample due not only first to the highest V<sub>micro DR</sub>, but also to its lowest L<sub>0, NLDFT</sub>,  
 13 0.72 nm). However, at CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations lower than 15 vol. %, XPPO\_1 had the lowest capture  
 14 capacity and the lowest pore volume between 0.7 and 50 nm. Consequently, when the CO<sub>2</sub>  
 15 concentration increased, the contribution of pores less than or equal to 0.7 nm became important,

1 which means that all samples with a higher  $V_{L<0.7}$  would show a higher CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity, as  
2 indicated previously and as reported elsewhere<sup>14, 39, 40</sup>.

3 For common CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in combustion processes, both XPPO\_1 and CWPO\_1 had a  
4 similar behavior with respect to CO<sub>2</sub> capture.

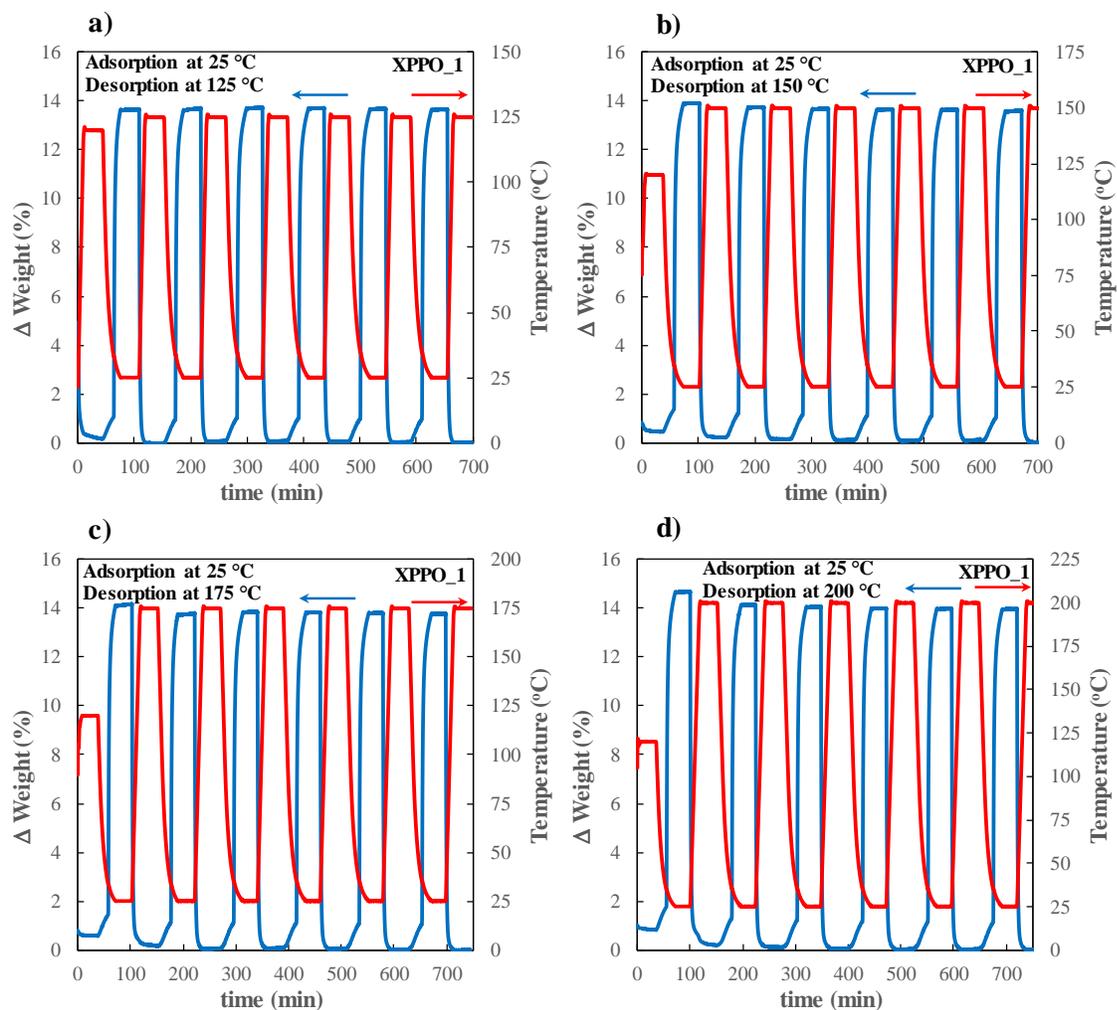
### 5 **3.5 CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption-desorption evaluation**

6 For any CO<sub>2</sub> capture process, the ultimate practical objective is to determine the feasibility of the  
7 method over a large number of adsorption-desorption cycles. In the case of ACs for which CO<sub>2</sub>  
8 is physically adsorbed on the material, the increase of the temperature favors the desorption of  
9 CO<sub>2</sub> from the surface of the adsorbent and can also affect the stability of the carbon materials.

10 The thermal stability of the best ACs considered in this study is illustrated in Figure S6.

11 There is first a drop of sample weight associated to the presence of moisture in the AC, followed  
12 by a progressive but slight decrease in weight between 8 and 10 % for CWPO\_1 and XPPO\_1,  
13 respectively, until stabilization. Therefore, the regeneration temperature used might have a  
14 negative effect on the CO<sub>2</sub> working capacity after the desorption step, as the structure and  
15 stability of the samples could be affected.

16 Figure 8 shows the variation of the weight according to the adsorption-desorption profiles for the  
17 sample XPPO\_1 using an adsorption temperature of 25°C and desorption temperatures of 125,  
18 150, 175 or 200°C. It was observed that after the first cycle, the initial weight of the AC before  
19 CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption at each cycle was smaller as the desorption temperature increased. However, the  
20 CO<sub>2</sub> working capacity (2.47 mmol CO<sub>2</sub>/g AC) was the same in all cycles, regardless of the  
21 desorption temperature. The same behavior was observed for all other ACs.



1  
 2 **Figure 8.** Adsorption-desorption cycles of the activated carbon XPPO\_1, with adsorption at  
 3 25°C and 90% CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and desorption at: a) 125°C, b) 150°C, c) 175°C, and d)  
 4 200°C.  
 5 Table 3 shows the CO<sub>2</sub> working capacity of the most efficient samples through 6 adsorption-  
 6 desorption cycles at 200°C as a regeneration temperature chosen to evaluate the behavior of the  
 7 materials at the highest temperature considered and their degradation during cycles. In all cases,  
 8 the CO<sub>2</sub> working capacity remained constant, corroborating the stability of the samples upon  
 9 cycling, even using a high temperature for the regeneration step.

1 **Table 3.** CO<sub>2</sub> working capture capacity of the most efficient samples at adsorption and  
2 desorption temperatures of 25°C and 200°C, respectively.

Number of cycle	MSP-20X mmol CO <sub>2</sub> / g AC	XiPPO_3 mmol CO <sub>2</sub> / g AC	XPPO_1 mmol CO <sub>2</sub> / g AC	CWPO_1 mmol CO <sub>2</sub> / g AC
1	2.68	2.51	2.86	2.73
2	2.68	2.48	2.88	2.66
3	2.68	2.46	2.88	2.65
4	2.61	2.46	2.88	2.68
5	2.68	2.48	2.88	2.69
6	2.66	2.42	2.89	2.72
Average	2.66 ± 0.02	2.47 ± 0.02	2.88 ± 0.003	2.69 ± 0.02

3

#### 4 **4. Conclusion**

5 This work presents the development of different activated carbon xerogels and cryogels, all  
6 derived from a low-value industrial product, phenolic oil, for the capture of CO<sub>2</sub> under different  
7 conditions of adsorption temperature, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, and regeneration temperature.  
8 Some of these samples showed higher CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacities than commercial activated  
9 carbons, with very good repeatability. The carbon xerogel produced with a basic catalyst and  
10 activated with a carbon/KOH ratio equal to 1:1 had the best CO<sub>2</sub> uptake (2.86 mmol/g AC). The  
11 second most efficient sample was the carbon cryogel activated under the same conditions. The  
12 obtained values in this study are indeed comparable to previously reported values for ACs  
13 without any modification/functionalization. Furthermore, the role of the textural properties of  
14 these new ACs on the CO<sub>2</sub> capture under different postcombustion conditions has been  
15 elucidated. Initially, it has been observed that two different samples with different surface areas  
16 and microporous fractions could present the same CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity. Nevertheless, the

1 influence of the presence of micropores and, more importantly, narrow pores in the structure of  
2 the samples has been demonstrated as the main CO<sub>2</sub> capture factor at 25 °C, with a clear trend as  
3 the partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> increased. Therefore, if the microporous fraction was reduced  
4 during activation, the surface area should be high enough to maintain a constant CO<sub>2</sub> capture  
5 capacity. As a conclusion, under given conditions, different micropore volume-surface area  
6 combinations allow achieving the same CO<sub>2</sub> capture. However, as the temperature increased,  
7 it was determined that the presence of narrow pores had a lesser influence on CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption,  
8 and a higher surface area, total pore volume and absolute micropore volume become more  
9 important. This was justified by a polarized physisorption phenomenon taking place on the  
10 surface defects of the carbon surface. Moreover, it has been determined that as the partial  
11 pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> increases, getting values higher than 25 vol. %, the narrow and micropores get  
12 more relevance.

13 The stability of the best samples of each family selected in this work was evaluated up to a  
14 temperature of 220°C. It was determined that, as the temperature increased, there was a slight  
15 variation in the weight of the AC. However, it was also determined that the desorption  
16 temperature has no effect on the CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity during cycles.

17 Finally, six adsorption-desorption cycles were carried out for each of the best samples at a  
18 regeneration temperature of 200°C. The repeatability and feasibility of samples for CO<sub>2</sub> capture  
19 was demonstrated in all cases, and the materials with the highest capacity at 25°C were the ones  
20 showing the best behavior upon cycling. These results highlighted the possibility of using  
21 activated carbon gels produced using phenolic oil as a relevant precursor for CO<sub>2</sub> capture.

22

23

1 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

2 **Supporting Information**

3 Reproducibility of CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity values at 25°C and 1 bar under a 90% CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere,  
4 coefficients of multiple linear regressions for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption at 25°C for four different pore  
5 classes, simple linear regression between adsorbed amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> at 25°C and pore volumes: a)  
6 VL<0.5, or b) V0.5<L<0.7, Steele, adsorption potential and effective pore size calculations,  
7 Steele adsorption potential for the CO<sub>2</sub> – graphite system (slit pores model), minimum of  
8 Steele’s potential as a function of the distance between the median planes of the graphitic  
9 pore walls, adsorbed amount of CO<sub>2</sub> per unit of BET surface area as a function of the average  
10 micropore size calculated by application of the Dubinin-Radushkevich method ( $L_{0,DR}$ ),  
11 ultramicropore fraction, supermicropore fraction and mesopore fraction, as a function of the  
12 average micropore size according to the NLDFT method, enthalpy of adsorption calculation  
13 for adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> monolayer, Van’t Hoff plot for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption at a pressure of 10<sup>5</sup> Pa, and  
14 thermal stability of ACs from room temperature to 220°C: a) MSP-20X, b) XiPPO\_3, c)  
15 XPPO\_1, and d) CWPO\_1. The following files are available free of charge via the Internet at  
16 <http://pubs.acs.org>.

17

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6

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