1	Thermal and kinetic analysis of diverse biomass fuels
2	under different reaction environment: A way forward
3	to renewable energy sources
4	
5	Farooq Sher ^{a,*} , Sania Z. Iqbal ^b , Hao Liu ^c , Muhammad Imran ^d , Colin E. Snape ^c
6	a. School of Mechanical, Aerospace and Automotive Engineering, Coventry University,
7	Coventry CV1 2JH, UK
8	b. Department of Biochemistry, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad, 38000, Pakistan
9	c. Faculty of Engineering, University of Nottingham, University Park, Nottingham NG7 2RD,
10	UK
11	d. School of Engineering and Applied Science, Aston University, Aston Triangle, Birmingham
12	B4 7ET, UK
13	
14 15	*Corresponding author:
16	Dr F. Sher
17	Lecturer
18	School of Mechanical, Aerospace and Automotive Engineering
19	Faculty of Engineering, Environmental and Computing
20	Coventry University
21	Coventry
22	
25 24	UK
2 4 25	E-mail address: Earoog Sher@coventry ac uk (E Sher)
26	Tel: $+44 (0) 24 7765 7754$ Fax: $+44 (0) 24 7765 7754$
27	10

28 Abstract

29

30 This study investigates the thermal and kinetic analysis of six diverse biomass fuels, in order 31 to provide valuable information for power and energy generation. Pyrolytic, combustion and 32 kinetic analyses of barley straw, miscanthus, waste wood, wheat straw, short rotation coppicing 33 (SRC) willow and wood pellet were examined by non-isothermal thermogravimetry analyser 34 (TGA), differential thermogravimetric (DTG) and differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) techniques. Biomass fuels were thermally degraded under N₂, air, CO₂ and the selected oxy-35 fuel (30% $O_2/70\%$ CO₂) reaction environments. The thermal degradation under inert N_2 and 36 CO_2 atmospheres showed an almost identical rate of weight loss (R), reactivity ($R_M \times 10^3$) and 37 38 activation energy (E_a) profiles. Similar profiles for R, R_M and E_a were observed for the 39 environments under air (21% O₂/79% N₂) and the oxy-fuel combustion. Results indicated that 40 the thermal decomposition rate for biomass fuels in an oxidising condition was faster than in 41 an inert atmosphere, favourable effect on thermal degradation of biomass fuels was observed 42 when oxygen content increased from 21 to 30%. Higher activation energies with lower 43 reactivity were observed for the biomass fuels that have low cellulosic contents as compared 44 to the other fuels. Regression analysis confirmed that the reaction order 0.5 modelled fitted 45 well for all biomass samples. All these findings will provide valuable information and promote 46 the advancement of future researches in this field.

47

48 Keywords: Renewable energy; Biomass; Oxy-fuel combustion; Activation energy, Heat
49 flow kinetics and Carbon emissions.

50

51

53 **1. Introduction**

54 There is a crucial requisite of global alteration from coal energy to renewable bio-energy 55 sources [1]. As carbon-negative and renewable origin of bio-energy, biomass fuels can play a 56 chief role. Biomass energy, a form of solar energy stored in plant matter, is considered to be 57 environmental friendly and carbon-neutral if the consumption and growth of the biomass are 58 kept in balance. When CO₂ emissions produced from biomass utilisation is captured and stored, 59 negative carbon emissions can be achieved. Biomass fuels are also often regarded as the cleaner 60 fuel for power generation as they tend to have appreciably lower sulphur contents than fossil 61 fuels [2]. Furthermore, biomass fuels can be used to deliver controllable energy that is free 62 from the problem of intermittency which is inherent with the wind and solar energies.

63

64 Therefore, biomasses are the potential major future renewable energy resources, with 65 developed bio-energy systems being considered as vital contributors to future sustainable 66 energy production [3, 4]. Pyrolysis is an important fundamental process that can be used to 67 study the thermochemical conversion of biomasses into the biomass char and gaseous or liquid fuels [5]. It is also used to improve gasification, fixed carbon content, calorific value and 68 69 combustion processes. The combustion process is of great significance in boilers and furnaces, 70 that's why a sound knowledge of this process is required to determine the feasibility of the 71 biomass fuel [6, 7]. In addition, kinetic study is considered as an important criteria for the 72 measurement of reactivity and combustibility potentials of the biomass fuels. Pyrolytic and 73 combustion characteristics of the biomass fuels have been studied mostly with 74 thermogravimetric analyser (TGA) in literature with a focus on a range of working reactant 75 environment for thermal degradation [8]. TGA has also been used to identify different 76 polymeric lignocellulosic fractions present in biomass residues and to determine the reactivities 77 of char residues in the presence of active atmospheres of interest [9].

78 The kinetic parameters derived from TGA analysis are used to design combustors, pyrolysis 79 reactors and gasifiers. Mansaray and Ghaly [10], investigated the thermal decomposition 80 profile of four rice husk selections using TGA, under N₂ at three different heating rates. Direct 81 increase in thermal degradation with increasing heat rates was observed in their research. On 82 the other hand, lower the cellulosic amount of the biomass, the lower the temperature noted for 83 its decomposition. Moreover, the greater the cellulose amount the greater thermal degradation 84 rate and the higher the initial degradation temperatures. Munir et al. [11] studied non-85 isothermal degradation and devolatilisation kinetics of four biomass fuels including shea meal, two different sugarcane bagasse residues and cotton stalk under an inert N2 and oxidising (21% 86 87 $O_2/79\%$ N₂) environment conditions. They found that the cotton stalk was the reactive biomass 88 in comparison to other, under both environments, whereas Shea meal was the least reactive 89 biomass in inert environment because of its low amount of volatile matter and low oxygen to 90 carbon ratio value. However, the generation of complex char under oxidant combustion by 91 Shea meal was indicative of different types of char resulting from fibrous and woody 92 constituents in the original biomass.

93

When the reaction gas environment is CO_2 [12] or oxy-fuel combustion which is mainly composed of O_2 and CO_2 . The CO_2 -char gasification reaction has been studied by various researchers [13-17] is a chief reaction in the biomass thermal decomposition, especially in the high temperature zone. The most important CO_2 -char gasification reaction is the Boudouad reaction Eq. (1):

99

 $C + CO_2 \leftrightarrow 2CO \tag{1}$

100

Where C represents the active site of reaction and C(O) represent complex formation between
carbon and oxygen. The carbon monoxide (CO) presence generates a constraining influence

by dropping the C(O) steady state amount. Different studies [13, 18-20] about pyrolysis and combustion of coal and/or biomass blends using thermogravimetric analysis are available, but few have examined the effects of different gas mixtures, especially oxy-fuel gases on the thermochemical 100% conversions of biomasses especially non-woody biomass fuels.

107

108 In order to provide valuable information for biomass fuel in the UK for power and energy 109 generation, this study investigated the thermal and kinetic behaviour of different local 110 biomasses. Biomass fuels thermally degraded in different atmospheric conditions such as CO₂, 111 N₂, air and oxy-fuel (30% O₂/ 70% CO₂). Pyrolysis and combustion analyses were performed. 112 Impact of reactant gas mixtures on biomass fuels' reactivity parameters (reaction rate constants, rate of weight loss, peak temperature, activation energy etc.) was measured by TGA, 113 114 differential thermogravimetry (DTG), differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and Arrhenius 115 equation. In addition to all these, quantitative assessment of polymeric lignocellulosic 116 components of biomasses was also examined using DTG plots of biomasses. Previously 117 researchers examined the thermal characteristics of the fuels using just one or in the rare case 118 under two experimental conditions, while herein the biomass samples were examined under 119 four different reaction conditions (N₂, oxy-fuel, CO₂ and air) ranges from inert to highly 120 oxidant, for the identification of best fuels for the UK's energy demands. A detail kinetic study 121 of the biomass fuels was carried out by the calculation of reactivity, activation energy, heat 122 flow and mass transfer rates.

123

124 **2. Experimental**

125 **2.1** Materials and sample preparation

Six different biomass fuel samples were used: barley straw (BS), miscanthus (MIS), waste
wood (WD), wheat straw (WS), willow SRC (SRC) and wood pellet (WP). The biomass fuels

were obtained as pellets from different suppliers in the UK. These fuels were produced and processed in the UK. The wood pellet was a commercial product "Brites" from Balcas Ltd and commercially used in domestic boilers, while the other biomass pellets were produced by the suppliers as potential alternative biomass fuels for commercial use. Before analysis, all fuel samples were ground to size $\leq 212 \ \mu m$ using a Retsch ultra centrifugal mill ZM 200 as the relevant analytical standards require the particle size $\leq 212 \ \mu m$ [21]. The fuel samples were ground to the same particle size to elude their effects on thermal degradation [6].

135 **2.2 Fuel analyses**

136 Flash EA 1112 elemental analyser and TA Instruments TGA Q-500 thermogravimetric 137 analyser were used for ultimate and proximate analysis respectively. Proximate analysis was obtained by heating the sample under N2 at a rate of 10 °C/min and temperature 110 °C. To get 138 139 the moisture content maintained these condition for up to 10 min. The temperature was then increased from 110 to 700 °C and the heating rate increased from 10 to 20 °C/min. Set these 140 141 conditions for half an hour to get the weight loss by devolatilisation after this the temperature 142 was ramped at the same rate 20 °C/min to 950 °C. After that, the reaction environment was 143 changed from N₂ to air inside the furnace chamber and kept it isothermal for 40 min to oxidise 144 the char completely to obtain the fixed carbon and ash contents [22]. Channiwala and Parikh 145 (2002) suggested Eq. (2), was used for calculating the high heating value (HHV) of each selected sample, which gives 1.45% absolute error and 0.00% bias error [23]. 146

- 147
- 148
- 149

HHV = 0.3491C+1.1783H+0.105S-0.1034O-0.0151N-0.0211A

(2)

The HHV value is also dependent on ash (A) contents of biomasses. The elemental and proximate analyses along with high heating values (HHV) for these samples are represented in Table 1 along with the results reported elsewhere. The overall analysis shows that all biomass samples have lower moisture content < 8.9%, and high volatiles and oxygen contents. On the other hand, their nitrogen contents are low (0.07-2%). It is also noticed that these samples have sulphur contents 0.00%, below the detection limit. All the biomass fuel samples contain moisture < 8.9%. Therefore, it is verified in correlation from literature, that these samples could become the good fuels for the UK power industry. It is reported that biomass having moisture content < 10 % is considered a good fuel for pyrolysis and combustion [2].

159

160 The amount of elemental and proximate content of the studied biomass fuel samples are 161 compared with other biomasses [18], coal [18] and lignite (low rank coal) [24]. The carbon 162 content of biomass samples ranges (40.87-47.02%). The C content (Table 1) values of BS, 163 MIS and WS are comparable with others while those of SRC, WW and WP are higher than the reported biomasses (40.93–43.19%) and lignite (44.82%). Wheat straw (WS) contains the 164 highest fixed carbon at 18.22%, whereas, SRC has the highest amount of volatile matter at 165 166 85%. Biomass HHV's vary from 15.46 to 18.83 MJ/kg. The higher C and H content and lower 167 O content of wood pellet (WP) in comparison with other samples, results in higher calorific 168 value. It has been described that HHVs increase with an increase in cellulosic content of the 169 biomass fuel, correlate with the polymeric lignocellulosic analysis of these samples as well 170 [25].

Fuels		Ulti	mate ana	lysis ^a			Proxima	te analysis ^c		HHV ^d
	С	Н	Ν	Ob	S (%)	Μ	VM	FC	Ash	(MJ/kg)
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)		(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	
Barley straw (BS)	40.87	5.78	0.55	52.80	0.00	8.95	78.15	14.70	7.15	15.46
Miscanthus (MIS)	42.67	5.86	0.44	51.04	0.00	6.91	78.29	16.33	5.38	16.40
Waste wood (WW)	45.78	6.05	0.34	47.84	0.00	5.80	84.48	14.06	1.46	18.12
Wheat straw (WS)	41.32	5.69	1.18	51.81	0.00	6.41	72.28	18.22	9.50	15.56
Willow SRC (SRC)	45.18	5.99	0.32	48.51	0.00	5.97	85.00	13.24	1.77	17.77
Wood pellet (WP)	47.02	6.17	0.07	46.75	0.00	6.34	84.94	14.28	0.79	18.83
EFB [18]	40.93	5.42	1.56	51.78	0.31		70.5	15.4	4.5	16.8
PMF [18]	43.19	5.24	1.59	49.79	0.19		68.8	15.2	10.2	19.0
Lignite [24] (brown coal)	44.82	2.98	0.81	50.21	1.60					16.38
Coal [18]	54.37	5.29	1.75	38.34	0.25		42.2	48.8	5.8	24.6

Table 1. Ultimate, proximate analysis and calorific values of biomass and other fuels.

M: moisture, VM: volatile matter, FC: fixed carbon, HHV: high heating value, EFB: empty fruit bunches, PMF: mesocarp fibre

a. On dry basis except as denoted in the table.

b. Calculated by the difference.

c. On dry basis except moisture which is on as received basis.

d. Calculated based on Channiwala and Parikh [23].

180 **2.3 Experimental techniques and kinetic analysis**

The pyrolysis and combustion or gasification kinetics of all fuels were studied under dynamic conditions in N₂, air (21% $O_2/79\%$ N₂), CO₂ and a typical oxy-fuel (30% $O_2/70\%$ CO₂), using a non-isothermal conditioned TGA. This method has distinct benefits over the classic isothermal TGA. Firstly, this analysis reduces the thermal induction period errors; secondly, it allows a rapid scan over the desired whole range of temperature. Therefore, many researches have opted the non-isothermal TGA to study pyrolysis of many solid fuels [26, 27].

187

172

188 The weight of each sample was limited to 15–20 mg for each TGA test, to avoid the potential

189 effect of heat flow and mass conversion. For each TGA test, first the temperature was ramped

190 from ambient to 110 °C at 10 °C/min heating rate and maintained these conditions for 10 min.

191 Then it was increased at 20 °C/min to 950 °C and held for 40 min. A 100 mL/min constant rate

192 of gas flow was applied for all gas conditions. Weight loss profiles and their derivative curves

193 (differential thermogravimetry–DTG) were then obtained as a function of time and temperature194 for the reaction conditions examined.

195 **2.3.1.** Error analysis

196 Between three and four repeat runs for each biomass fuel were performed to ensure appropriate repeatability and statistical validity of the results. The average difference between the repeated 197 198 runs was <2% for all type of fuels. Mainly three sources are responsible for errors in TGA 199 measurements: (a) TGA instrument, (b) minor fluctuation in sample's weight measurements 200 by operator, and (c) environmental interference. Standard materials/chemicals with known 201 melting points were used to minimise the effects of TGA instrument errors. In addition to this, 202 TGA-instrument was preheated for 60 min to homogenise the environment before measurements were carried out. An electronic weight balance, was used to minimize the 203 204 operator's error, having a maximum weighing capacity of 60 g with 0.1 mg lower readability 205 efficiency [28].

206

207 2.3.2. Kinetic analysis

Several methods are available for determining the kinetics of non-isothermal thermolysis. However, the method used in this research for the determination of activation energy was based on the Arrhenius equation [13, 29]. This has been found to yield acceptable results by a number of researchers [13, 30]. The formulas used to calculate the decomposition reaction kinetics are as follows:

213

$$\frac{\mathrm{dx}}{\mathrm{dt}} = k \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \tag{3}$$

where k is the rate constant, x is the conversion rate, t is time, $f(x) = (1-x)^n$ and n is the order of reaction.

216 According to the Arrhenius correlation, the rate constant is described as:

217
$$k = Aexp\left(-\frac{E_a}{RT}\right)$$
(4)

219 Where A is the pre-exponential factor, E_a is the activation energy, R the universal gas constant 220 and T the reaction temperature. Thus, combining Eq. (3) and Eq. (4) gives:

221
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = Aexp\left(-\frac{E_a}{RT}\right)(1-x)^n$$
(5)

222

223 Incorporating the non-isothermal TGA heating rate, $\beta = dT/dt$ in Eq. (5) gives:

224
$$\frac{\mathrm{dx}}{\mathrm{dt}} = \left(\frac{A}{\beta}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{E_a}{RT}\right) (1-x)^n \tag{6}$$

225

Taking natural logarithm of both sides of Eq. (6) yields:

227
$$\ln\left[\left(\frac{dx}{dT}\right)(1-x)^n\right] = \ln\left[\frac{A}{\beta}\right] - \frac{E_a}{RT}$$
(7)

228

According to Eq. (7), a plot of $\ln [(dx/dT)/(1-x)^n]$ versus 1/T should yield a straight line with a slope of (-E_a/R) for different values of n resulting in a regression coefficient near to unity. Eq. (7) was used to obtain kinetic parameters for each experiment.

232

233 TGA and DTG profiles guide about the biomass fuels thermal stability and the overall kinetic 234 decomposition. Both these profiles were used to identify other combustion characteristics 235 including average rate of weight loss (R_{avg}), average temperature (T_{avg}), peak temperature 236 (T_{peak}) and maximum rate of weight loss (R_{max}) for all studied biomass fuels [11, 31]. T_{peak} corresponds to the point at which the reaction is proceeding at its maximum rate, and R_{max} is 237 the associated weight loss rate at T_{peak} . The selection of viable temperature ranges for analysing 238 239 devolatilisation and combustion reactions can have a significant impact on the calculated values. However, there is no general consensus on which approach is the best [32, 33]. In this 240

study, a formulation originally devised by Ghetti et al. [34] represented in Eq. (8) has been
employed to calculate the reactivities of the biomass fuel samples:

243
$$R_{M} \times 100 = \frac{R_{M1}}{T_{P1}} + \frac{R_{M2}}{T_{P2}} + \frac{R_{M3}}{T_{P3}} \dots \dots + \frac{R_{Mn}}{T_{Pn}}$$
(8)

Where R_M and T_P is the factor of mean reactivity, height of DTG peak and corresponding peak
 temperature, respectively.

246

To more closely study the kinetics, heat flow profiles of the biomass fuels differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) technique under N_2 and air reaction environments was performed. The DSC analysis was performed by SDT TA Q600 instrument at 20 °C/min heating rate. DSC analyses were performed to detect the endo and exothermic nature of the reactions, as heat transfer during pyrolysis and combustion process [35]. Furthermore, the mass transfer rate of biomass fuels were calculated by using the method of Pottmaier et al. [35].

253

254 **3. Results and discussion**

255 **3.1 Van Krevelen Diagram**

The biomass samples are compared with other solid hydrocarbon fuels in Fig. S1 using the Van Krevelen diagram, a cross plot diagram of H: C as a function of O: C. Devised by Dirk Willem van Krevelen, the diagram permits a better understanding of the evolution path of organic matter/ rank and is indicative of different regions associated with solid fuels. As can be seen from Fig. S1, the biomass samples studied are localised in the region typically associated with biomass. However, they were seen to be relatively uniform in their H/C ratio but varying by 30% in their O/C ratios from WP at 0.99 to BS at 1.29.

This likely evidences the higher proportion of mineral oxides present in straw and grass species (Family: *Poacae*), known to be effective gasification catalysts [36], but with a propensity to melt and sinter in the high temperatures of reactors, causing fused deposits [37]. In general, various types of coal fuels are limited in the range of $0 \le H/C \le 0.1$ and $0 \le O/C \le 0.3$ whereas biomass fuels having a higher proportion of O/H are categorised in the limits of $0.7 \le O/C \le$ 1.3 and $0.075 \le H/C \le 0.25$.

3.2 Thermal degradation under N₂ atmosphere

271 Fig. 1a shows the weight loss profiles of the selected biomass fuels during the non-isothermal 272 TGA tests under N₂. It is well known that cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin are the major 273 natural polymeric components of the biomass fuels. But different kinds of biomass contain 274 varying types and proportions of cellulose, hemicellulose, lignin and a small amount of other 275 extractives. The thermal decomposition of the main organic components of the biomass 276 generates oxygenated by-products. As the temperature gradually increases, these by-products 277 reach their spontaneous ignition and the released heat contributes to the decomposition of the 278 remaining organic matter [11]. Such behaviour can also be observed in Fig. 1a by means of a 279 continuous mass loss due to the slight devolatilisation up to the end of the heating 280 programming. The weight loss (wt% /min) of 7, 6.4, 4.8, 6, 5.3 and 5.1% occurred between 25 281 and 110 °C for BS, MIS, WW, WS, SRC and WP respectively. This initial weight loss (< 110 282 °C) is associated with moisture evolution. Devitalization of BS, MIS, WW, WS, SRC and WP 283 is initiated at different corresponding temperatures of 190, 205, 210, 195, 215 and 220 °C 284 respectively. This variation in devolatilisation temperatures could be related to different 285 elemental and chemical compositions of these biomass fuels [38].

286

Quantitative assessment of polymeric components of biomasses was examined using
 differential thermogravimetric (DTG) plots of biomasses under N₂. Pyrolysis of biomass under

289 inert atmosphere can be divided into three stages; first moisture evolution, then devolatilisation 290 and finally continuous slight devolatilisation [39]. The DTG plots of biomasses under N2 are 291 represented in Fig. 1b. It is difficult to clearly distinguish between hemicellulose and cellulose 292 devolatilisation regions for WW in contrast to other fuels (i.e. SRC; BS; MIS). This is due to 293 the inhomogeneous nature of this mixed original woody-biomass sample. At the end of the 294 major peak the slow degradation over a wider temperature range continues to produce pyrolysis 295 residue reaching to a constant ratio, sometimes referred to as long tailing section [11, 39]. The 296 maximum rates of weight loss (wt% /min) were 16, 17.4, 17.7, 14.9, 19.3 and 19% for BS, 297 MIS, WW, WS, SRC and WP respectively. These weight loss rates were found to be higher 298 for the fuels with higher volatile matter and lower ash contents [11]. The thermal degradation 299 results under N₂ are presented in Table S1.



Fig. 1. Thermal degradation profiles of biomass fuels under N₂ atmosphere: (a) TGA curves, (b) DTG
 curves.

305 Usually, biomass fuels having high cellulose contents are recommendable for bio-thermal 306 conversion processes, whereas those with high lignin contents are particularly suitable for 307 combustion and/or gasification applications. The devolatilisation rate of the lignocellulosic 308 biomass under nitrogen atmosphere depends on number of other components such as higher

309 the lignin content, the slower the biomass devolatilisation [40]. The temperature range of lignin 310 devolatilisation cannot be discerned from, which often has a broad peak temperature 311 overlapping that of cellulose decomposition [41]. It is evaluated and reported [42], that DTG 312 method gives comparable results than the other available common methods (holocellulose 313 extraction, cellulose extraction, neutral detergent fibre, acid detergent fibre and acid detergent 314 lignin). All experimentations were performed side by side for comparison. Moreover, the DTG 315 method is cost effective, easier to implement and faster than the above mentioned wet chemical 316 analyses. Therefore, in this study hemicellulose and cellulose contents of biomass fuels are calculated from DTG curves using a method shown in Fig. 2 and presented in Table 2, along 317 318 with those reported elsewhere.

319



320

Fig. 2. Typical DTG profile for a biomass fuel under N_2 , weight loss under the first shoulder (shaded blue) in the first DTG peak corresponds to hemicellulose contents and the weight loss under the main DTG peak (shaded red) corresponds to cellulose contents.

325 The criteria for division of area under the DTG curve was the observed two shoulders. The 326 DTG plot in Fig. 2 shows the apparent two-stage (two shoulders) release of the first 327 hemicellulose (low temperature) and then cellulose (high temperature). This temperature 328 dependent release of cellulosic components is in accordance with the literature [42]. Weight 329 loss under the first shoulder (shaded blue) in the first DTG peak corresponds to hemicellulose 330 contents and the weight loss under the main DTG peak (shaded red) corresponds to cellulose 331 contents. Due to the difficulties to measure lignin content, an error of +/- 11% can be attributed 332 to this study's results as compared with other published results.

2	2	1
- 1	1	1
~	~	\sim

 Table 2. Compositions of main lignocellulosic components in different biomass fuels.

Fuels	Cellulose	Hemicellulose	Lignin	Reference
(from this study unless	(wt%)	(wt%)	(wt%)	
stated)				
BS^*	40.00	20.00	-	This study
MIS*	40.00	21.00	-	This study
WS*	35.00	20.00	-	This study
SRC*	60.00	12.00	-	This study
WP*	38.00	30.00	-	This study
WS	33–45	20–32	8–20	[43]
	41.30	30.80	7.70	[44]
SRC	49.3	14.10	20	[44]
BS	33.3–42	20.4–28.0	17.10	[43]
MIS	40.0	18.0	25.0	[43]
	38.8	36.6	11.5	[45]

*Anticipated wt% loss attributed to hemicellulose and cellulose calculated from DTG.

335

While the comparison with other studies [44, 46-49] based on a common method for determination of polymeric lignocellulosic components, it is proved that the values predicted by using present DTG technique were comparable. Previous studies on biomass have shown that cellulose comprises 40–50% compared to 20–40% of hemicellulose and 10–40% lignin [50]. The relative proportions of cellulose and lignin are two of the determining factors in identifying the suitability of biomass fuels for the energy production process since the ratio of
cellulose to lignin dictates the rates of thermal decomposition [40]. The final pyrolysis residues
were in the range of 14.3 to 21.7% that comprised of unburnt char and ash.

344 **3.3 Thermal degradation under air atmosphere**

345 As shown in Fig. 3a and b, most of the biomass fuels demonstrated three-stage weight loss 346 under oxidative environments: the first stage of moisture evaluation, the second for oxidative 347 degradation and the third relates to char combustion. The TGA and DTG profiles obtained under air were different from those under N₂, showing elevated reaction rates in the air. The 348 349 DTG peaks under air are shown in Fig. 3b, different peaks and mass loss stages are attributable 350 to moisture evolution and devolatilisation occurred; but with devolatilisation, higher global 351 reaction rates are apparent, evidencing the predominance of different decomposition pathways. 352 The peaks between 215 to 370 °C are attributed to the devolatilisation zone. In the first zone, 353 BS started to react earliest from 205 °C with a weight loss of 53%, whereas WP started last 354 from 235 °C with the highest weight loss of 63% (see Fig. 3a).

355

356 The thermal degradation results in the first and second reaction zones under air are summarized 357 in Table S1. The maximum rate of weight loss (R_{max}) of 39.7% at the peak temperatures (T_{peak}) 358 of 288 °C was observed for BS. Devolatilisation under air was occurred at a lower temperature than under N₂. The average rate of weight loss (R_{avg}) were 10.3, 11, 9.4, 9.4, 10.2 and 9.3% for 359 BS, MIS, WW, WS, SRC and WP respectively. These values are almost twice than under N₂, 360 361 also supported by previous research [11]. Higher decomposition rates within a narrow 362 temperature range are also observed in this region which is associated with cellulose chemical 363 decomposition [40]. After devolatilisation, char combustion begins. An apparent overlapping between these two zones is observed, over temperature periods of 80, 45, 38, 20, 48 and 40 °C 364 for BS, MIS, WW, WS, SRC and WP respectively. It had previously been reported [51] that 365

- 366 char oxidation could be started during devolatilisation if oxygen reaches the particle's surface.
- 367 The mass loss that was observed to occur over a broad range, relatively higher temperature
- 368 region marked as region A in Fig. 3b, between 385 to 540 °C. This is believed to correspond
- to the char combustion zone. The anticipated char (also have ash) contents of 22.5, 23.5, 30,
- 370 19.5 and 24% attributed between temperature regions 360–460, 390–510, 340–570, 410–510
- and 410–540 °C for MIS, WW, WS, SRC and WP respectively.



372

Fig. 3. Thermal degradation profiles of biomass fuels under air: (a) TGA curves, (b) DTG curves.

The rate of reaction for all type of biomass fuels during combustion becomes faster than that of pyrolysis and devolatilisation. The maximum rate of weight loss during char combustion

377 was found to be 9.47% for SRC. The SRC rate of weight loss during combustion is the highest 378 among all other fuels with the highest cellulose contents about 60%. The cellulose content in 379 the biomass may enhance the ignition characteristics and decomposition process of lignin since 380 cellulose compounds have a branching chain of polysaccharides rather than an aromatic ring, 381 which are easily volatilised.

382

The residue left at the end of the combustion actually comprises of ash. A wide variation in the ash content can be observed within non-woody biomass fuels and between other types. Irrigation and fertilizer usage in the growth of herbaceous plants leads to higher contents for almost every inorganic species in comparison to wood. The highest ash content of 9.4% is found with WS. The alkali content is much higher in non-woody biomasses (herbaceous materials) in comparison with woody biomasses. In general, silica and potassium are the two major ash forming species for all of the agricultural biomass fuels [52].

390 3.4 Thermal degradation under CO₂ atmosphere

391 The thermal behaviour of biomass fuels under CO_2 is shown in Fig. 4. It is evident from Fig. 392 1a, that when N₂ is used, the end point of devolatilisation cannot be found after the residence 393 time of the isotherm condition. On the other hand, the use of CO_2 (Fig. 4a) highly improves 394 the trend towards reaching a mass loss plateau in the isothermal step and enables the distinction 395 and quantification of the volatile material and fixed carbon contents in biomass samples. 396 According to Borrego and Alvarez [53], the use of CO₂ as a carrier gas provides higher 397 resistance to the devolatilisation of bulk components of biomass in relation to N₂. This 398 resistance may be due to the involvement of CO₂ in the cross-linking reaction on the char 399 surface, which reduces the deformation and clumps its carbonaceous structure.

401 The onset of devolatilisation was seen to occur at higher temperatures in the presence of CO₂ 402 compared to N₂ which is shown in Fig. 4b. The average temperatures for devolatilisation 403 region being higher under CO₂ flow than N₂ (Table 4). The difference in the values of specific 404 heat capacity and thermal conductivity for CO₂ and N₂ influences the degradation/ combustion 405 characteristics of the fuels. It has been found that combustion temperatures are substantially 406 affected by replacement of N₂ with CO₂ with/ without the presence of oxygen [54, 55]. Thus, 407 replacing N₂ with CO₂ would adversely effects the energy input required for biomass 408 combustion applications.

409

The third peak shown in Fig. 4b after devolatilisation at higher temperatures (>700 °C signifies the gasification of pyrolysis char via the Bouduard reaction [31]. As illustrated in Eq. (9), at lower temperatures (< 700 °C), less stable compounds are released and char is formed by the devolatilisation process shown in Eq. (9).

414



416

417 Fig. 4. Thermal degradation profiles of biomass fuels under CO₂: (a) TGA curves, (b) DTG curve.
418

419 The char in contact with CO_2 at higher temperatures (> 700 °C) and with enough residence 420 time may undergo a Boudouard reaction, which leads to CO formation [56].



423

424 Higher peak temperatures for char gasification under CO₂ reaction atmosphere are indicative
425 of possible delayed combustion as compared to combustion in air.

426 **3.5 Thermal degradation under the oxy-fuel combustion condition**

Recently one of the most studied CO₂ capture and storage technology is oxy-fuel combustion, 427 428 It is considered as technically feasible to capture up to 95% of pure CO_2 much higher than pure 429 CO₂ production from air combustion, and practically ready for sequestration [57]. Mass losses 430 of all tested biomass fuel samples under the oxy-fuel combustion condition (30% O₂/70% CO₂) 431 are shown in Fig. 5 that are somewhat different from those of air combustion shown as in Fig. 432 3. In devolatilisation zone WS starting earlier at temperature 210 °C, but BS was the earliest 433 fuel under air; while WP starting later at temperature 230 °C was similar to the air run but at 434 235 °C. The DTG profiles in Fig. 5b show the biomass fuels decompose with high 435 decomposition rates in rather small temperature intervals. The biomass fuels with high 436 cellulose contents such as BS, MIS, and SRC produce sharp DTG peaks with a small amount 437 of char residue.

438

The differences in initial degradation temperatures in the first zone (devolatilisation) were 5.0 °C for BS, 18 °C for MIS, 12 °C for WW and 8 °C for SRC. The total weight losses during devolatilisation were in the range of 52 to 70% for all studied biomass fuels; 53% for BS, 58% for MIS, 62% for WW, 52% for WS, 70% for SRC and 66% for WP. Among all the studied 443 fuels, the maximum rate of weight loss (R_{max}); lowest 28% for WW and the highest 47.4% for 444 MIS were observed in the first reaction zone. These weight losses were slightly higher than 445 under air condition (except BS and WW), e.g. 2.5% for MIS, 0.5% for WS, 3.5% for SRC and 446 3% for WP. The difference in the degradation temperatures and rate of weight loss is due to 447 the difference in cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin contents of biomass samples; this fact is 448 extensively reported in the literature [58].



449

450 Fig. 5. Thermal degradation profiles of biomass fuels under oxy-fuel environment: (a) TGA curves,
451 (b) DTG curves.

453 Similar overlapping zone as under air was observed, but with higher temperature ranges. The
454 anticipated overlapping temperature ranges were found as 95, 55, 50, 25, 80 and 65 °C for BS,
455 MIS, WW, WS, SRC and WP respectively. This higher degree overlapping may be attributed

456 to higher oxygen contents in oxidising gas as compared to air. It is also supported by the 457 literature that char combustion time increases in relation to the pyrolysis under low oxygen 458 contents and relative time of overlapping reduces as under air [51]. The second weight loss 459 zone is attributed with char combustion within the temperature range of 315–535 °C. Similarly, 460 as in the first reaction zone, WS char combustion is taking place before all the other fuels at 461 315 °C and WP on the end at 435 °C. The differences in the temperatures of the second reaction 462 zone were 97 °C for BS, 53 °C for MIS, 100 °C for WW and 125 °C for SRC. The total weight 463 losses in the second reaction zone were in the range of 15–33% for all studied fuels; 17% for 464 BS, 22% for MIS, 20% for WW, 33% for WS, 15% for SRC and 20% for WP. The maximum 465 rate of weight loss (wt% /min) 12.6% for SRC was observed in the char combustion zone. 466 These weight loss values (except WS in zone two) were lower than under air which is in 467 contrast with zone one, where weight loss values are slightly higher than under air.

468

469 The thermal degradation results of both reaction zones under the oxy-fuel combustion 470 condition are summarised in Table S2. The comparative analysis of DTG profiles of Fig. 1b 471 and Fig. 3b revealed close proximity of peak temperatures for both devolatilisation and char 472 combustion zones. Thermal degradation analysis under air and oxy-fuel also suggests that by 473 replacing N₂ with CO₂ as the diluent; no unfavourable effect on the thermal degradation of 474 biomass fuels was observed, provided O_2 concentration was increased from 21 to 30%. This 475 has also been confirmed on larger scale study [54] that gas temperature profiles were similar 476 to that of conventional air combustion. The studied biomass fuels burned at relatively reduced 477 temperatures in oxy-fuel as compared to air. The residual left at the end of second reaction zone consists of ash with 6.5, 5, 1, 9, 2 and 0.5% for BS, MIS, WW, WS, SRC and WP respectively. 478 479 As previously stated, the combustion characteristics and reaction rates decrease by simply 480 replacing N₂ with CO₂ in the air. Higher concentrations of oxygen are required to match these

characteristics under oxy-fuel conditions as compared to air combustion although parity can beobtained by increasing oxygen concentration up to 30% [54].

483

484 Char combustion zones of under both air and oxy-fuel environment are mentioned in Table S1 485 and Table S2 respectively. The values of T_{peak} and R_{max} in this zone under both reactant gas 486 mixture are comparable to some extent but for some biomasses under oxy-fuel shown higher 487 values for both T_{peak} and R_{max}, this could be associated with higher oxygen ratio in this mixture 488 of reactant gas. The T_{peak} for oxy-fuel char combustion of different biomass found in 378–479 489 °C range with Rmax 4.88–12.65 wt%/min (Table S2), while for air char combustion Tpeak ranges 490 from 387-483°C with 4.78-9.47 wt %/min R_{max} (Table S1). This data indicates that under oxy-491 fuel a slight higher Rmax were observed. Oxy-fuel is better/novel technology and used for CO2 492 capture.

493

494 Thermal degradation analysis of biomass under this mixture (30% O₂/70% CO₂) of oxy-fuel 495 combustion shows equal and somewhat higher properties than air combustion also correlate 496 with the literature [54]. Under different thermal degradation zones of oxy-fuel combustion, T_{peak} and R_{max} were observed comparable and higher than air. Moreover, 95 % pure CO₂ capture 497 498 suggests that this technique could become as one of the leading for combustion of biomass in 499 power plants with even negative CO₂ emission characteristics. Among all studied biomasses 500 under oxy-fuel, air combustion the best biomass fuel with higher T_{peak} and R_{max} were observed 501 in this order SRC> BS>MIS and SRC>MIS>BS respectively. The Tpeak and Rmax values of BS 502 and MIS differ slightly under air and oxy-fuel that could be because of the similar volatile 503 matter content.

505 **3.6 Reactivity and kinetic analysis**

506 In all DTG profiles except N₂, two combustion or gasification steps may be seen clearly, the 507 peaks differing in position and height. Therefore, information on biomass samples reactivities 508 may be deduced. Thus reactivities parameters were calculated for each peak, adding the share 509 of any secondary peaks or shoulders present in the burning profile. In this way a value 510 representing the mean reactivity (R_M) was calculated with the corresponding peak temperature 511 (T_p) for all biomass samples; the results are presented in Table 3. The reactivity parameters under N₂ focus on the temperature range of 190 to 460 °C, where the maximum value is 512 513 associated with SRC. Under air, CO₂ and oxy-fuel there are additional reactions from 514 devolatilisation, char gasification and combustion. Temperature ranges from 205 to 370 °C and 515 315 to 570 °C are associated with volatile combustion zones and char combustion zones under 516 air and oxy-fuel respectively.





Fig. 6. Reactivity profiles of biomass fuels under different reaction environment.

519 Under oxy-fuel, higher reactivity values were noticed as compared to all other reactive 520 environments. Temperature range from 200 to 415 °C and 680 to 950 °C are attributed as 521 devolatilisation and char-CO₂ reaction zones respectively. The biomass fuels such as BS, MIS, 522 and WS with lower lignin content showed higher reactivities.

523

524 For comparative analysis based on the values of R_M the fuel samples may be ranked as 525 SRC>MIS>WP>BS>WW>WS under N₂ and CO₂, but under CO₂ the R_M values are slightly 526 higher than as under N₂. Similarly these values are greater under oxy-fuel as compared to air 527 and show a trend as MIS>BS>WS>SRC>WP>WW. For air the trend is as 528 BS>MIS>WS>SRC>WP>WW. Under above mentioned conditions different trends were observed but there is a small and comparable difference between their R_M values. As under N₂ 529 530 SRC willow exhibited high R_M value of 0.53, whereas the next fuel with high R_M is MIS (0.51) 531 and this biomass fuel is exhibited high R_M under oxy-fuel combustion reactivity analysis. R_M 532 value of 1.60 is observed for BS under air, while this fuel at the first rank under air and at 533 second rank under oxy-fuel analysis. R_M values under oxy-fuel were observed to be higher than 534 those under air, a phenomenon which is also supported by [59], and one of the reasons this 535 process is valued as an alternative to conventional combustion.

	Under N ₂		Under Air (21%O ₂ /79%N ₂)				Under C	02	Under Oxy-fuel (30%O ₂ /70%CO ₂)		
Fuels (from this study	Peak	Reactivity	Peak Temp	Peak Temp	Reactivity	Peak Temp	Peak Temp	Reactivity	Peak Temp	Peak Temp	Reactivity
unless stated)	(°C)	(wt% /min °C)	(°C)	1 _{p2} (°C)	$K_M \times 10$ (wt%/ min °C)	(°C)	1 _{p2} (°C)	$K_M \times 10$ (wt%/ min °C)	(°C)	1 _{p2} (°C)	(wt% /min °C)
BS	335	0.48	288	401	1.61	336	809	0.52	296	433	1.74
MIS	341	0.51	295	387	1.54	343	912	0.56	299	388	1.85
WW	371	0.48	330	456	0.97	370	909	0.50	335	465	1.02
WS	333	0.45	293	403	1.46	331	938	0.49	285	378	1.67
SRC	367	0.53	338	483	1.17	367	889	0.57	331	479	1.36
WP	376	0.50	346	477	0.97	379	945	0.54	340	474	1.14

Table 3. Reactivity parameters	of biomass fuels	s under N ₂ , Air, C	CO_2 and Oxy-fuel environments.
--------------------------------	------------------	---------------------------------	-----------------------------------

540 Under N₂, CO₂, air and oxy-fuel from pyrolysis to combustion, different reactivities have been observed. The reasons behind differences in the reactivity profile of these biomasses are: (1) 541 542 physical characteristics, (2) elemental and structural components, (3) moisture content, and (4) 543 char combustion rate. Different char combustion rate might be credited to the varied reaction 544 environment applied to the non-isothermal TGA of the biomasses. Somewhat similar R_M values 545 were noted for biomasses under air and oxy-fuel, might because of O₂ composition of these 546 environments as shown in Fig. 6. As would be expected, an increase in char reactivity with increasing O₂ concentration was also observed for both O₂/N₂ and O₂/CO₂ combustion 547 548 environments.

549

550 The kinetic parameters of all type of fuels were determined from TGA profiles using a linear 551 form of the Arrhenius equation. The activation energy (Ea), order of reaction (n) and correlation coefficient (\mathbb{R}^2) calculated under different atmospheres of the studied biomass fuels. 552 553 The reaction kinetics were modelled at n = 0.5, n = 1 and n = 2 and it was found that values of 554 Ea increased by as much as twofold between n = 0.5 and n = 2. The best line of fit for the 555 apparent energy of activation values has been reported for 0.5 order of reaction and is 556 represented in Table 4. There is no consensus in the literature as to reaction order, with some 557 studies supporting these results [33] but others affirming that pyrolysis is best described as a global first order reaction [32]. For comparison of rate constants, Arrhenius plots of all biomass 558 559 fuels are shown in Fig. 7. In the devolatilisation zone, there were no significant differences 560 among the rate constants of the samples. In the early stages of thermal degradation, the WS 561 had a slightly higher rate constant than those of the other fuels. The BS maintained a high rate 562 constant, whereas the WP maintained a low rate constant until the end of the first zone. The

- 563 rate constant of the BS reached to its maximum at the end of the first zone under all reaction
- 564 environments.

	Under	N_2	U	%O ₂ /79%N ₂)	Under CO ₂				Under Oxy-fuel (30%O ₂ /70%CO ₂)					
Fuels	Devolatilisat	ion zone	Devolatilisa	ation zone	Char combust	ion zone	Devolatilisati	on zone	Char CO ₂ reac	tion zone	Devolatilisati	on zone	Char combus	tion zone
(from this study	n=0.5		n=0.5		n=0.5		n=0.5		n=0.5		n=0.5		n=0.5	
unless stated)	Ea	\mathbb{R}^2	Ea	\mathbb{R}^2	Ea	\mathbb{R}^2	Ea	\mathbb{R}^2	Ea	\mathbb{R}^2	Ea	\mathbb{R}^2	Ea	\mathbb{R}^2
	kJ/mole		kJ/mole		kJ/mole		kJ/mole		kJ/mole		kJ/mole		kJ/mole	
BS	84.69	0.96	140.07	0.95	380.16	0.92	82.82	0.98	325.10	0.92	155.18	0.95	194.48	0.93
MIS	92.11	0.97	159.33	0.96	303.78	0.85	80.30	0.99	229.42	0.85	175.73	0.96	226.80	0.99
WW	86.72	0.97	110.88	0.96	197.58	0.83	85.46	0.97	334.71	0.87	111.40	0.97	339.73	0.83
WS	98.68	0.96	160.20	0.94	167.79	0.85	82.65	0.99	305.00	0.91	204.87	0.99	203.82	0.83
SRC	76.95	0.95	103.63	0.96	170.05	0.85	75.20	0.94	543.99	0.87	115.51	0.98	333.01	0.93
WP	81.67	0.97	102.45	0.95	198.85	0.83	80.57	0.96	428.22	0.88	112.52	0.92	417.21	0.94

Table 4. Kinetic parameters of biomass fuels under N_2 , Air, CO_2 and Oxy-fuel environments.

568 The slopes of Arrhenius plots help in the determination of the levels of activation energies of 569 these biomass fuels. The highest slope compatible with WS with activation energy 96.98 kJ/mole (under N₂), 160.20 kJ/mole (under air) and 204.87 kJ/mole (under oxy-fuel). While 570 571 the lowest slopes belong to the SRC and WP, both of which have an activation energy of 76.95 kJ/mole (under N₂), 75.20 kJ/mole (under CO₂) and 102.45 kJ/mole (under air) respectively. 572 573 The apparent activation energy values in devolatilisation zone under N₂ were 574 98.68>92.11>86.72>84.69>81.67>76.95 for WS>MIS>WW>BS>WP>SRC respectively. 575 Under CO₂ Ea values were observed in the order of WW>BS>WS WP>MIS>SRC and SRC>WP>WW>BS>WS>MIS in devolatilisation zone and char-CO₂ reaction zone 576 577 respectively. Higher activation energies were observed mostly for soft woody samples whereas for comparatively harder ones lower activation energies were observed. 578

579

580 In the char combustion or gasification zone, much higher rate constants were noticed for the 581 BS under air, SRC under CO₂ and WP under oxy-fuel, when compared to the others. At the 582 beginning of the second zone, the rate constant of the MIS under air was observed higher than 583 that of the BS. Both of these had a closer rate constants as the end of that zone was nearer. 584 Under air BS also had higher slope second zone due to its significantly high activation energy 585 (380.16 kJ/mol) as compared to WS (167.79 kJ/mol). Amid the other six samples, the wheat 586 straws had to some extent higher rate constants in the early phases of the second reaction zone. 587 This turned into even less significant towards the end of this reaction zone. The apparent activation 588 energy values 160.20>159.33>140.07>110.88>103.63>102.45 for 589 WS>MIS>BS>WW>SRC>WP respectively were observed under air in devolatilisation zone. 590 calculated The apparent Ea values under oxy-fuel were as 591 204.87>175.73>155.18>115.51>112.52>111.40 for WS>MIS>BS>SRC>WP>WW in



devolatilisation zone. The above trends of activation energy could be associated with the natureof soft and hardwood residues under different zones.

594

595 **Fig. 7.** Arrhenius plots for biomass fuels under: (a) N_2 , (b) Air devolatilisation zone, (c) Air char 596 combustion zone, (d) CO_2 devitalisation zone, (e) CO_2 char- CO_2 reaction zone, (f) Oxy-fuel 597 devolatilisation zone and (g) Oxy-fuel char combustion zone.

599 With an increase in oxygen concentration, the apparent energy barriers decrease resulting in 600 lower values of Ea for both volatile and char combustion zones. However, in the present case, 601 after replacing N₂ with CO₂ under oxy-fuel the apparent barrier towards the volatile and char 602 combustion reaction zone increases resulting in relatively higher values of Ea. This could be 603 partly due to the physical properties of CO₂ in oxy-fuel. The rest of the apparent Ea values 604 found to be nearly synchronised with existing literature [11]. Therefore, Table 4 values are 605 supported and verified from Table 3 values. According to Ea and reactivity profile trend under 606 N₂, the most reactive biomass with the least activation energy is SRC and the least reactive 607 with high activation energy is WS. A significantly similar type of results under other 608 experimental conditions were observed.

609

610 Heat flow and mass transfer rates of the biomass fuels were determined under N2 and air 611 reaction environments. Fig. 8 and Fig. 9 show the experimental DSC thermograms of biomass 612 fuels under N₂ and air respectively. To detect the endothermic and exothermic nature of the 613 reactions heat transfer analyses were performed. From DSC results, it was observed that the 614 thermograms went from endothermic reactions to very minor exothermic ones. The first region 615 of endothermic peaks was noted up to 300 °C, then very minor exothermic peaks were observed 616 up to 700 °C. The peaks above 300 °C can be attributed to the degradation of the lignocellulosic 617 components [2]. After this, the fuels were degraded again in the endothermic region. These 618 thermograms ensured that all biomass fuels were degraded under endothermic region without 619 the effect of self-heating [2]. Fig. 8b shows the mass transfer rates of the fuels under N₂. All 620 fuels show relatively slow (pyrolysis) mass conversion under N₂ than air (combustion) (Fig. 621 9b), these results are in agreement with [60]. Fig. 9a shows that thermograms went from 622 endothermic to exothermic reactions when the temperature increased above 280 °C. Two exothermic peaks were noted for all type of biomass fuels combustion from 280 to 500 °C, peak 1 was observed due to light volatiles combustion while peak 2 was noticed for fixed carbon combustion [13, 61]. These significant exothermic peaks were considered in accordance with the mass conversion profiles and verified from study [61]. The exothermic peaks were exhibited because of the oxidant environment. After this, the biomass fuels again degraded under the endothermic region.





Fig. 8. DSC analysis of biomass fuels under N₂: (a) Heat flow, (b) Mass transfer rates.





Fig. 9. DSC analysis of biomass fuels under air: (a) Heat flow, (b) Mass transfer rates.

637 The rate of mass transfer of MIS, WP and SRC were detected higher than other fuels under N₂,
638 while under air the rate of BS, WS and MIS mass transfer was higher than others. The mass

transfer rates of the mentioned fuels were in near agreement with their reactivities under similar reaction environment. It can be observed clearly from the (Fig. 8b and Fig. 9b) that the rate of mass transfer is faster under air than N_2 and was noted like this as of respective DSC heat release curves [35, 60].

643

644 **4.** Conclusions

645 This study is focused on the assessment of diverse biomass fuels as a renewable energy source 646 for power and energy generation. The investigated biomass fuels include woody (waste wood, wood pellets), non-woody (miscanthus, wheat straw) and special type (short rotation coppicing 647 648 (SRC willow). Thermogravimetric analyses (TGA) and differential scanning calorimetry 649 (DSC) analyses were performed under four different reaction environments including; N₂, air, 650 CO_2 and the oxy-fuel (30% $O_2/70\%$ CO_2). The findings of this work are summarised as follows: 651 The carbon content of biomass samples ranges (40.87–47.02%), most of these were 652 comparable (BS, MIS and WS C content), higher (SRC, WW and WP C content) than 653 the reported biomasses (40.93–43.19%) and lignite: low rank coal (44.82%) C content 654 respectively. Wheat straw (WS) contains the highest fixed carbon at 18.22%, whereas, 655 SRC has the highest amount of volatile matter at 85%.

The rate of thermal decomposition for any type of biomass fuels in an inert atmosphere
 was slower than in an oxidising atmosphere also confirmed from mass transfer rates.

Thermal degradation analysis under air and oxy-fuel also suggests that by replacing N₂
 with CO₂ as the diluent; no unfavourable effect on thermal degradation of biomass fuels
 was observed provided oxygen percentage was increased from 21 to 30%.

In terms of reactivity, under different thermal degradation zones of oxy-fuel
 combustion, T_{peak} and R_{max} were observed comparable and slightly higher than air.
 Moreover, 95% pure CO₂ capture suggests that this technique could become the leading

- one for combustion of biomass in the UK's power plants with negative CO₂ emission
 characteristics.
- The T_{peak} and R_{max} values of BS and MIS differ slightly under air and oxy-fuel might
 because both have the same volatile matter content.
- It is observed that the reactivity (R_M) order in case of N₂ and CO₂ is
 SRC>MIS>WP>BS>WW>WS. Similarly, R_M order of BS>MIS>WS>SRC>WP>WW
 is observed under air and oxy-fuel, except the R_M of MIS>BS in oxy-fuel case.
- Based on linear regression analysis of half, first and second order, the closest modelled
 fit occurred with a reaction order of n= 1/2 for all samples and conditions.
- Higher activation energies with lower reactivity were observed for the biomass fuels
 that have low cellulosic contents as compared to the other fuels.
- DSC thermograms under N₂ confirmed that all biomass fuels were degraded in the
 endothermic region without the effect of self-heating, while for air combustion two
 significant exothermic peaks were noticed.

The most reactive biomass with least activation energy is SRC and the least reactive with high activation energy is WS, somewhat nearly similar results were observed under all experimental conditions.

681 **References**

- [1] F. Sher, M.A. Pans, D.T. Afilaka, C. Sun, H. Liu. Experimental investigation of woody and
 non-woody biomass combustion in a bubbling fluidised bed combustor focusing on gaseous
 emissions and temperature profiles. Energy. 141 (2017) 2069-80.
- 685 [2] R.K. Mishra, K. Mohanty. Pyrolysis kinetics and thermal behavior of waste sawdust 686 biomass using thermogravimetric analysis. Bioresource technology. 251 (2018) 63-74.
- [3] P. McNamee, L. Darvell, J. Jones, A. Williams. The combustion characteristics of high-
- heating-rate chars from untreated and torrefied biomass fuels. Biomass and bioenergy. 82(2015) 63-72.
- [4] I.U. Hai, F. Sher, A. Yaqoob, H.J.F. Liu. Assessment of biomass energy potential for SRC
 willow woodchips in a pilot scale bubbling fluidized bed gasifier. 258 (2019) 116143.
- K. Jayaraman, I. Gökalp. Pyrolysis, combustion and gasification characteristics of
 miscanthus and sewage sludge. Energy Conversion and Management. 89 (2015) 83-91.
- 694 [6] E. Forbes, D. Easson, G. Lyons, W. McRoberts. Physico-chemical characteristics of eight 695 different biomass fuels and comparison of combustion and emission results in a small scale
- 696 multi-fuel boiler. Energy conversion and management. 87 (2014) 1162-9.
- [7] I.U. Hai, F. Sher, G. Zarren, H.J.J.o.C.P. Liu. Experimental investigation of tar arresting
 techniques and their evaluation for product syngas cleaning from bubbling fluidized bed
 gasifier. 240 (2019) 118239.
- [8] Y. Ding, O.A. Ezekoye, S. Lu, C. Wang, R. Zhou. Comparative pyrolysis behaviors and
 reaction mechanisms of hardwood and softwood. Energy conversion and management. 132
 (2017) 102-9.
- M. Wilk, A. Magdziarz, K. Jayaraman, M. Szymańska-Chargot, I. Gökalp. Hydrothermal
 carbonization characteristics of sewage sludge and lignocellulosic biomass. A comparative
- 705 study. Biomass and Bioenergy. 120 (2019) 166-75.
- [10] K. Mansaray, A. Ghaly. Thermal degradation of rice husks in nitrogen atmosphere.Bioresource technology. 65 (1998) 13-20.
- [11] S. Munir, S. Daood, W. Nimmo, A. Cunliffe, B. Gibbs. Thermal analysis and
 devolatilization kinetics of cotton stalk, sugar cane bagasse and shea meal under nitrogen and
 air atmospheres. Bioresource technology. 100 (2009) 1413-8.
- 711 [12] X. Yao, O. Yu, Z. Han, H. Xie, W. Duan, O. Oin. Kinetics of CO2 gasification of biomass
- char in granulated blast furnace slag. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy. 43 (2018)12002-12.
- 714 [13] M. Mureddu, F. Dessì, A. Orsini, F. Ferrara, A. Pettinau. Air-and oxygen-blown
- characterization of coal and biomass by thermogravimetric analysis. Fuel. 212 (2018) 626-37.
- [14] P. Ollero, A. Serrera, R. Arjona, S. Alcantarilla. The CO₂ gasification kinetics of olive
 residue. Biomass and Bioenergy. 24 (2003) 151-61.
- [15] R. Khalil, G. Várhegyi, S. Jäschke, M.G. Grønli, J. Hustad. CO₂ gasification of biomass
 chars: a kinetic study. Energy & Fuels. 23 (2008) 94-100.
- [16] W. Klose, M. Wölki. On the intrinsic reaction rate of biomass char gasification with carbondioxide and steam. Fuel. 84 (2005) 885-92.
- [17] S. Scott, J. Davidson, J. Dennis, P. Fennell, A. Hayhurst. The rate of gasification by CO₂
 of chars from waste. Proceedings of the Combustion Institute. 30 (2005) 2151-9.
- 724 [18] S.S. Idris, N.A. Rahman, K. Ismail, A.B. Alias, Z.A. Rashid, M.J. Aris. Investigation on
- thermochemical behaviour of low rank Malaysian coal, oil palm biomass and their blends
- during pyrolysis via thermogravimetric analysis (TGA). Bioresource technology. 101 (2010)
- 727 4584-92.

- [19] T. Xu, F. Xu, Z. Hu, Z. Chen, B. Xiao. Non-isothermal kinetics of biomass-pyrolysisderived-tar (BPDT) thermal decomposition via thermogravimetric analysis. Energy
 Conversion and Management. 138 (2017) 452-60.
- 731 [20] Y. Zhang, Z. Zhang, M. Zhu, F. Cheng, D. Zhang. Interactions of coal gangue and pine
- sawdust during combustion of their blends studied using differential thermogravimetricanalysis. Bioresource technology. 214 (2016) 396-403.
- [21] S. Şensöz, D. Angın, S. Yorgun. Influence of particle size on the pyrolysis of rapeseed
 (Brassica napus L.): fuel properties of bio-oil. Biomass and Bioenergy. 19 (2000) 271-9.
- (Brassica napus L.): luer properties of bio-oil. Biolinass and Bioenergy. 19 (2000) 2/1-9.
 [22] I. H. Sait, A. Hussain, A. A. Salama, F.N. Ani, Dynalusia and combustion binatics of do
- [22] H.H. Sait, A. Hussain, A.A. Salema, F.N. Ani. Pyrolysis and combustion kinetics of date
 palm biomass using thermogravimetric analysis. Bioresource Technology. 118 (2012) 382-9.
- [23] S. Channiwala, P. Parikh. A unified correlation for estimating HHV of solid, liquid and gaseous fuels. Fuel. 81 (2002) 1051-63.
- 740 [24] H. Li, S. Xia, P. Ma. Thermogravimetric investigation of the co-combustion between the 741 pyrolysis oil distillation residue and lignite. Bioresource technology. 218 (2016) 615-22.
- 742 [25] S.-J. Jung, S.-H. Kim, I.-M. Chung. Comparison of lignin, cellulose, and hemicellulose
- respectively and the second se
- 744 Bioenergy. 83 (2015) 322-7.
- [26] Y.-J. Xia, H.-Q. Xue, H.-Y. Wang, Z.-P. Li, C.-H. Fang. Kinetics of isothermal and nonisothermal pyrolysis of oil shale. Oil Shale. 28 (2011) 415-24.
- [27] H. Liu. Combustion of coal chars in O_2/CO_2 and O_2/N_2 mixtures: a comparative study with
- non-isothermal thermogravimetric analyzer (TGA) tests. Energy & Fuels. 23 (2009) 4278-85.
- [28] X. Zeng, S. Zheng, H. Zhou, Q. Fang, C. Lou. Char burnout characteristics of five coals
- below and above ash flow temperature: TG, SEM, and EDS analysis. Applied ThermalEngineering. 103 (2016) 1156-63.
- [29] R.A. dos Reis Ferreira, C. da Silva Meireles, R.M.N. Assunção, R.R. Soares. Heat required
- and kinetics of sugarcane straw pyrolysis by TG and DSC analysis in different atmospheres.
 Journal of Thermal Analysis and Calorimetry. 132 (2018) 1535-44.
- [30] Z. Cai, X. Ma, S. Fang, Z. Yu, Y. Lin. Thermogravimetric analysis of the co-combustion
 of eucalyptus residues and paper mill sludge. Applied Thermal Engineering. 106 (2016) 938-
- 757 43.
- [31] N.S. Yuzbasi, N. Selçuk. Air and oxy-fuel combustion characteristics of biomass/lignite
 blends in TGA-FTIR. Fuel Processing Technology. 92 (2011) 1101-8.
- [32] A. Saddawi, J. Jones, A. Williams, M. Wojtowicz. Kinetics of the thermal decompositionof biomass. Energy & Fuels. 24 (2009) 1274-82.
- [33] C.J. Gomez, G. Varhegyi, L. Puigjaner. Slow pyrolysis of woody residues and an
 herbaceous biomass crop: a kinetic study. Industrial & engineering chemistry research. 44
- 764 (2005) 6650-60.
- [34] P. Ghetti, L. Ricca, L. Angelini. Thermal analysis of biomass and corresponding pyrolysis
 products. Fuel. 75 (1996) 565-73.
- [35] D. Pottmaier, M. Costa, A. Oliveira, C. Snape. The profiles of mass and heat transferduring pinewood conversion. Energy Procedia. 66 (2015) 285-8.
- 769 [36] S. Huang, S. Wu, Y. Wu, J. Gao. The Physicochemical Properties and Catalytic 770 Characteristics of Different Biomass Ashes. Energy Sources, Part A: Recovery, Utilization,
- and Environmental Effects. 36 (2014) 402-10.
- [37] T.R. Miles, T. Miles Jr, L. Baxter, R. Bryers, B. Jenkins, L. Oden. Alkali deposits found
- in biomass power plants: A preliminary investigation of their extent and nature. Volume 1.
- 774 National Renewable Energy Lab., Golden, CO (United States); Miles (Thomas R.), Portland,
- 775 OR (United States); Sandia National Labs., Livermore, CA (United States); Foster Wheeler
- 776 Development Corp., Livingston, NJ (United States); California Univ., Davis, CA (United
- 777 States); Bureau of Mines, Albany, OR (United States). Albany Research Center1995.

- [38] S.V. Vassilev, D. Baxter, L.K. Andersen, C.G. Vassileva. An overview of the chemicalcomposition of biomass. Fuel. 89 (2010) 913-33.
- [39] X. Zhang, M. Xu, R. Sun, L. Sun. Study on biomass pyrolysis kinetics. Journal ofengineering for gas turbines and power. 128 (2006) 493-6.
- [40] A. Gani, I. Naruse. Effect of cellulose and lignin content on pyrolysis and combustion
 characteristics for several types of biomass. Renewable Energy. 32 (2007) 649-61.
- 784 [41] E. Biagini, F. Barontini, L. Tognotti. Devolatilization of biomass fuels and biomass
- components studied by TG/FTIR technique. Industrial & engineering chemistry research. 45
 (2006) 4486-93.
- [42] M. Carrier, A. Loppinet-Serani, D. Denux, J.-M. Lasnier, F. Ham-Pichavant, F. Cansell,
 et al. Thermogravimetric analysis as a new method to determine the lignocellulosic
 composition of biomass. Biomass and Bioenergy. 35 (2011) 298-307.
- 790 [43] Y.Y. Tye, K.T. Lee, W.N.W. Abdullah, C.P. Leh. The world availability of non-wood
- 791 lignocellulosic biomass for the production of cellulosic ethanol and potential pretreatments for
 792 the enhancement of enzymatic saccharification. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews.
 793 60 (2016) 155-72.
- 794 [44] T. Bridgeman, J. Jones, I. Shield, P. Williams. Torrefaction of reed canary grass, wheat
- straw and willow to enhance solid fuel qualities and combustion properties. Fuel. 87 (2008)
 844-56.
- [45] H.S. Kambo, A. Dutta. Comparative evaluation of torrefaction and hydrothermal
 carbonization of lignocellulosic biomass for the production of solid biofuel. Energy conversion
 and management. 105 (2015) 746-55.
- 800 [46] E.M. Hodgson, D. Nowakowski, I. Shield, A. Riche, A.V. Bridgwater, J.C. Clifton-Brown,
- et al. Variation in Miscanthus chemical composition and implications for conversion by
 pyrolysis and thermo-chemical bio-refining for fuels and chemicals. Bioresource technology.
 102 (2011) 3411-8.
- [47] E. Hodgson, R. Fahmi, N. Yates, T. Barraclough, I. Shield, G. Allison, et al. Miscanthus
 as a feedstock for fast-pyrolysis: Does agronomic treatment affect quality? Bioresource
 technology. 101 (2010) 6185-91.
- [48] R.A. Hague. Pre-treatment and pyrolysis of biomass for the production of liquids for fuelsand speciality chemicals. Aston University1998.
- 809 [49] C. Greenhalf, D. Nowakowski, A. Harms, J. Titiloye, A. Bridgwater. A comparative study
- of straw, perennial grasses and hardwoods in terms of fast pyrolysis products. Fuel. 108 (2013)216-30.
- 812 [50] P. McKendry. Energy production from biomass (part 1): overview of biomass.
 813 Bioresource technology. 83 (2002) 37-46.
- 814 [51] C. Gurgel Veras, J. Saastamoinen, J. Carvalho Jr, M. Aho. Overlapping of the
- 815 devolatilization and char combustion stages in the burning of coal particles. Combustion and
- 816 Flame. 116 (1999) 567-79.
- 817 [52] D. Dayton, B. Jenkins, S. Turn, R. Bakker, R. Williams, D. Belle-Oudry, et al. Release of
- 818 inorganic constituents from leached biomass during thermal conversion. Energy & Fuels. 13819 (1999) 860-70.
- [53] A.G. Borrego, D. Alvarez. Comparison of chars obtained under oxy-fuel and conventional
 pulverized coal combustion atmospheres. Energy & Fuels. 21 (2007) 3171-9.
- 822 [54] H. Liu, R. Zailani, B.M. Gibbs. Comparisons of pulverized coal combustion in air and in
- 823 mixtures of O₂/CO₂. Fuel. 84 (2005) 833-40.
- 824 [55] P.A. Bejarano, Y.A. Levendis. Single-coal-particle combustion in O₂/N₂ and O₂/CO₂
- environments. Combustion and flame. 153 (2008) 270-87.
- 826 [56] J. Moon, J. Lee, U. Lee, J. Hwang. Transient behavior of devolatilization and char reaction
- during steam gasification of biomass. Bioresource technology. 133 (2013) 429-36.

- [57] F. Sher, M.A. Pans, C. Sun, C. Snape, H. Liu. Oxy-fuel combustion study of biomass fuels
 in a 20 kW th fluidized bed combustor. Fuel. 215 (2018) 778-86.
- [58] A. Ghaly, A. Al-Taweel. Thermal degradation of cereal straws in air. Energy sources. 12(1990) 439-49.
- 832 [59] R.K. Rathnam, L.K. Elliott, T.F. Wall, Y. Liu, B. Moghtaderi. Differences in reactivity of
- pulverised coal in air (O_2/N_2) and oxy-fuel (O_2/CO_2) conditions. Fuel Processing Technology. 90 (2009) 797-802.
- [60] D. Pottmaier, M.r. Costa, T. Farrow, A.A. Oliveira, O. Alarcon, C. Snape. Comparison of
- rice husk and wheat straw: from slow and fast pyrolysis to char combustion. Energy & Fuels.
- 837 27 (2013) 7115-25.
- 838 [61] B. Li, G. Chen, H. Zhang, C. Sheng. Development of non-isothermal TGA–DSC for
- kinetics analysis of low temperature coal oxidation prior to ignition. Fuel. 118 (2014) 385-91.
- 840