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Effect of fast pyrolysis conditions on biomass solid residues at high temperatures

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Abstract

Fast pyrolysis of wood and straw was conducted in a drop tube furnace (DTF) and compared with corresponding data from a wire mesh reactor (WMR) to study the influence of temperature $(1000-1400)^{\circ}$ C, biomass origin (pinewood, beechwood, wheat straw, alfalfa straw), and heating rate $(10^{3\circ}$ C/s, $10^{4\circ}$ C/s) on the char yield and morphology. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM), elemental analysis, and ash compositional analysis were applied to characterize the effect of operational conditions on the solid residues (char, soot) and gaseous products. The char yield from fast pyrolysis in the DTF setup was 3 to 7% (daf) points lower than in the WMR. During fast pyrolysis pinewood underwent drastic morphological transformations, whereas beechwood and straw samples retained the original porous structure of the parental fuel with slight melting on the surface. The particle size of Danish wheat straw char decreased in its half-width with respect to the parental fuel, whereas

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the alfalfa straw char particle size remained unaltered at higher temperatures. Soot particles in a range from 60 to 300 nm were obtained during fast pyrolysis. The soot yield from herbaceous fuels was lower than from wood samples, possibly due to differences in the content of lignin and resin acids. *Keywords:* fast pyrolysis, drop tube furnace, wire mesh reactor, soot, CAMSIZER XT

1 1. Introduction

Suspension firing of biomass is widely used for power generation and has 2 been considered as an important step in reduction of greenhouse gas emis-3 sions. Unlike coal, biomass is difficult to mill to $< 100 \,\mu m$ due to its fibrous 4 structure, resulting in higher energy consumption for the comminution process. The shape and size distribution of ground biomass particles consists 6 of a larger fraction of flake- and cylinder-like particles with a particle size >7 $300\,\mu\text{m}$. In biomass suspension firing, it is a challenge to achieve high fuel 8 conversion at the short residence time while minimizing the input for milling. 9 This is further challenged by application of a broad biofuel range to obtain 10 high operational flexibility at power plants. Thus an increased energy input 11 into the biomass comminution process affects the total efficiency of a power 12 plant, and large particle sizes may cause problems with flame stability and 13 burnout. 14

In suspension firing, biomass particles are heated rapidly to high temperatures of 1000-1400°C, leading to volatile release and formation of solid residues (char and soot) during devolatilization. The solid residue yield and its properties, including particle size and shape, composition, reactivity and

burnout, depend strongly on the operational conditions of fast devolatiliza-19 tion [1-4]. A number of studies [5-11] have investigated structural changes of 20 different biomass types and their plant cell components during fast pyroly-21 sis. Sharma et al. [5–7, 12] reported structural changes of lignin and tobacco 22 char at temperatures up to 750° C with rapid heating rates, accompanied by 23 softening and melting of a solid phase. The effect of char plasticization was 24 observed mostly at high heating rate of pyrolysis (> $10^{3\circ}$ C/s) [8, 9, 13–15]. 25 The char fluidity of coal and lignin during pyrolysis was described by the 26 FG-DVC model (Functional Group - Depolymerization, Vaporization and 27 Cross-linking model) of Solomon et al. [16, 17]. They pointed out that the 28 char fluidity is influenced by small differences in the cross-linking rate with 20 oxygen, affecting cross-linking and preventing char fluidity [18]. 30

Previous investigations of biomass pyrolysis [9, 15, 19, 20] ascribed the 31 char structural transformations and changes in reactivity to the catalytic 32 effect of minerals (K, Ca, Mg and Si). Wornat et al. [19] reported migration 33 of alkali and alkaline earth metals to the particle surface for high oxygen 34 content fuels, with the formation of beads on the char shell, accompanied by 35 a highly cross-linked carbon structure that hindered crystallite mobility and 36 graphitization during combustion. Dall'Ora et al. [9] studied fast pyrolysis 37 of beechwood in an entrained-flow reactor, and concluded that calcium and 38 potassium catalyze cross-linking, resulting in a higher char yield and less 39 severe char morphological changes. 40

In the present study the relation between different types of biomass and their solid residue (char, soot) properties was investigated. Char and soot yields were obtained from fast pyrolysis in a drop tube furnace (DTF). The

char yields from the DTF were compared with results from a wire mesh reac-44 tor (WMR) [21] at temperatures > 1000° C to study the simultaneous effect 45 of temperature, heating rate, and biomass origin on the char yield. The in-46 fluence of extractives on the structural changes, on which available literature 47 is not extensive, was also studied using char from the DTF. This work also 48 attempted to fill a gap about the effect of biomass origin on the soot forma-49 tion during fast pyrolysis. The influence of ash composition, particularly of 50 K and Ca elements, on the char morphological changes under fast heating 51 was characterized by SEM and TEM microscopy. 52

⁵³ 2. Materials and methods

54 2.1. Original biomass characterization

Pinewood, beechwood, Danish wheat straw, and alfalfa straw were se-55 lected for the fast pyrolysis study in the DTF and WMR. The wheat straw 56 was leached in deionized water (room temperature) by continuous stirring 57 for 12 hours, followed by drying at 30°C in an oven desiccator without any 58 ventilation. The mineral content after biomass leaching was determined by 59 ash analysis. Due to the wheat straw leaching, the metal content was re-60 duced to $\approx 60\%$ of the original value and the Cl, S, K, Na and P contents 61 were strongly reduced [21]. The leached wheat straw was selected to study 62 the influence of alkali on the char and soot yields. 63

The proximate and ultimate analyses of fuels are shown in Table 1. The fuels were milled on a Retsch rotor mill RZ200 and sieved to a particle size fraction of 0.2-0.425 mm. The wood and herbaceous fuels were selected for the present study, based on the differences in organic and inorganic matter. The compositional analysis of biomass (cellulose, hemicellulose, acid-soluble lignin, acid-insoluble lignin, protein and extractives) was conducted according to NREL technical reports [22–24] and Thammasouk et al. [25], and shown in Table 2.

The water-ethanol extraction was performed on wheat straw and alfalfa straw which contain a high level of hydrophilic and lipophilic extractable compounds as described by Thammasouk et al. [25]. Extraction with acetone on pinewood and beechwood was done for the quantitative estimation of extractives in the original biomass, and to remove resin and fatty acids, waxes, and phytosterols for the investigation of char structural changes under fast heating as described in the supplemental material.

79 2.2. Experimental apparatus and procedure

80 2.2.1. Drop Tube Furnace

The Drop Tube Furnace (DTF) used in the present study is shown in 81 Figure 1. The cylindrical reactor tube was made of alumina ceramic (grade 82 C799) with an inner diameter of 54 mm. The reactor tube was heated by tube 83 furnace modules using SiC rods as heating elements (Elite Thermal Systems 84 Ltd.) with a maximum temperature of 1500°C. Supply of primary gas was 85 led through the biomass feeder, and secondary gas was led to the top of the 86 reactor through a packed bed of ceramic balls that distributed the gas flow 87 equally in the radial direction. Inlet gas flows of O₂, N₂, H₂, CO and CO₂ 88 were controlled by mass flow controllers (EL-FLOW[®] Select, Bronkhorst 89 High-Tech B.V.), while the flow rate of H_2O was controlled by a syringe 90 pump (Legato 100, KD Scientific Inc.). A syringe pump type biomass feeder 91

⁹² was used to supply biomass at low feeding rates [26]. The feeding probe was ⁹³ water-cooled at 20°C to ensure a high heating rate of the biomass when it ⁹⁴ entered the reactor. The Reynolds number of the gas flow inside the reactor ⁹⁵ was 60-100, dependent on the reaction temperature.

Biomass was rapidly heated and reacted while it fell down through the 96 reactor. Reaction products were separated into coarse particles (mainly char 97 and fly ashes), fine particles (mainly soot and precipitated ash vapor), and 98 permanent gases. Soot particles passing the cyclone (cut size $2.5 \,\mu m$) were 99 captured from the product gas flow by a grade QM-A quartz filter with a 100 diameter of 50 mm (Whatman, GE Healthcare Life Science). The larger 101 particles (e.g. char) could either fall down to a char bin or a stainless steel 102 cyclone with cut size of $2.5 \,\mu \text{m}$ (URG-2000-30ENS-1, URG Corporation). 103 After an activated carbon filter (VACU-GUARD 150, GE Healthcare Life 104 Science), the gas composition was measured by a micro gas chromatograph 105 (Model 490, Agilent Technologies). The μ GC was equipped with two columns 106 (CP-MolSieve 5 A for H_2 , O_2 , N_2 , CH_4 and CO; and PoraPlot U for CO_2 , 107 C_2H_4 , C_2H_6 , C_2H_2 , and C_3H_6/C_3H_8) and thermal conductivity detectors. 108 The temperature of the char bin and product gas was controlled by heating 109 controllers (HTC-5500, Hemi Heating AB) with thermo-tapes (S-type, Hemi 110 Heating AB) and kept at 200°C to avoid tar condensation. 111

In the present study, the experiments were conducted by feeding $\approx 5 \text{ g}$ of biomass at a rate of 0.2 g/min. Both primary and secondary gases were N₂, and the flow rate of primary gas was 180 mL/min and that of secondary gas was 4.8 L/min. The residence time of the fuel particles was estimated to be about 1 s, taking into account the density change during pyrolysis [11].

¹¹⁷ Three reaction temperatures (1000, 1250 and 1400°C) were applied.

118 2.2.2. Wire mesh reactor

The wire mesh reactor at TU Munich used in this study was previously described by Tremel et al. [27]. A schematic drawing is shown in the supplemental material (Figure S-2). It could be operated up to a temperature of 1700°C, at a heating rate of 5000°C/s, and a maximal pressure of 50 bar.

123 2.2.3. Measurement uncertainty

For the DTF, the measurement error was calculated for each component 124 of a mass balance (C_xH_y +vapor, gas, coke, soot). The absolute extended 125 uncertainty of the product yield was determined by a Gaussian error prop-126 agation procedure [28], based on the equations shown in the supplemental 127 material (S-4). The average standard measurement error in the present study 128 was $\pm 2 \text{ wt. }\%$, within a 95% confidence interval for the DTF experiments. 129 The volatile measurements with a micro gas chromatograph and soot loss 130 in the DTF setup were sources of experimental error (< 15%) as shown in 131 the calculated carbon / hydrogen balances. Another source of error was the 132 non-measured fractions of vapor, tars and larger hydrocarbons in the DTF. 133

For the WMR, the error bars represent the standard deviation from the mean of the series of experiments at each condition [21]. The char yield data obtained in the wire mesh reactor were plotted as a representative average of at least five experiments. The measurement uncertainties of the char yields, prepared in the WMR, were < 6%. The inaccuracy in determining the char yield was mainly caused by weighting errors.

140 2.2.4. Solid residue characterization

Three different solid residues were distinguished in the present study, namely char, soot and coke. Char and soot were collected in a char bin and on a filter at the different experimental temperatures. Char is the fraction of non-devolatilized solid from the initial biomass, consisting mainly of carbon and ash with minor presence of hydrogen and oxygen. Coke, the carbonaceous material deposited on the reactor walls, was quantified after each experiment by measurement of the concentration of CO₂ during oxidation.

SEM and TEM microscopy. SEM analysis of char was performed on a microscope (FEI Company, Inspect) with a tungsten filament under high vacuum in order to understand char structural and chemical properties. Prior to the analysis, char samples were coated with a thin layer of carbon (40 sec, 5 mA) using a Cressington 208 Carbon Coater to avoid sample charging.

Soot samples were studied on the transmission electron microscope (200-153 kV FEI Tecnai T20 G^2). Prior to the microscopy, soot samples were kept at 154 350° C for 4 hours in a thermo-gravimetric instrument (TGA) to reduce the 155 amount of volatiles. The TGA curves shown in the supplemental material 156 (Figure S-7) quantified the remaining volatiles yield to be < 5%. TEM 157 analysis of soot was performed using dry method to avoid nano-structure 158 changes as shown in the supplemental material (Figure S-8). In addition, 159 soot samples were grounded a very short time using a pestle and mortar, to 160 ensure homogeneous particle distribution, and placed on a Cu grid. Imaging 161 of soot samples was performed in vacuum using a Gatan 894 2K UltraScan 162 1000 CCD camera and a FEI single-tilt holder. 163

Elemental analysis. The elemental analysis was performed on two instruments of the same model (Eurovector, model EA3000). Acetanilide was used as a reference standard. The ash content was determined using a standard ash test at 550°C, according to the procedure described in DIN EN 14775.

Ash compositional analysis. The ash compositional analysis was performed 168 by an X-ray fluorescence instrument (Shimadzu, model EDX 800-HS) at TU 169 Munich. Prior to the XRF analysis, char samples were pre-heated in oxygen 170 at 5°C/min up to 550°C and kept at that temperature for 7 h. The generated 171 ash (about 200 mg) was initially mixed and then pressed with a special wax 172 (mixture ratio 1:5). The Cl and S content in the ash was analyzed by ICP-173 OES/IC at TU Wien. The ash sample was dissolved in ultrapure water 174 at 120°C for 1 h, and then the solution was filtered and analyzed by ICP-175 OES/IC. 176

Particle size and shape. The particle size and shape of the original biomass 177 and its char were characterized on a 2D dynamic imaging instrument (CAM-178 SIZER XT, Retsch), designed for a particle size range of $3\,\mu m$ to $3\,mm$. A 179 particle shadow was captured by the CCD-basic and zoom cameras of the 180 CAMSIZER XT. The zoom-camera was optimized to analyze smaller parti-181 cles with a high resolution, whereas the basic-camera detected larger particles 182 due to a large field of view. The projected area of a particle was analyzed by 183 the CAMSIZER XT 6.3.10 software to characterize its size and shape. Fine 184 biomass particles tended to agglomerate which made it difficult to detect the 185 true geometric dimensions of each individual particle. Therefore, the par-186 ticle agglomerates were separated without destroying the primary particles 187

¹⁸⁸ by air pressure dispersion. For the particle size analysis, ca. 100 mg of sam-¹⁸⁹ ple was used. The particle size and shape measurements of char, collected ¹⁹⁰ from several drop tube pyrolysis experiments, were performed twice with ¹⁹¹ the CAMSIZER XT for each operational condition to establish reproducible ¹⁹² results.

The Martin minimal $(\mathbf{x}_{Ma,min})$ and Feret maximal $(\mathbf{x}_{Fe,max})$ diameters 193 are suitable parameters to represent the biomass particle width and length 194 in combustion. The Martin diameter is a chord length that divides the pro-195 jected particle area into two equal halves [29], as shown in the supplemental 196 material (Figure S-5). The minimal Martin diameter $(\mathbf{x}_{Ma,min})$ is determined 197 from the smallest Martin diameter of the particle projection [30], and rep-198 resents a particle width based on the assumption of a biomass particle to 199 be thinner than its width in the diffusion process in combustion. The Feret 200 diameter is the distance between two tangents placed perpendicular to the 201 measurement direction [29], as shown in the supplemental material (Figure 202 S-5). The Feret maximal diameter is applied as the largest value of all mea-203 sured Feret diameters of a particle [30], and the longest measurable diameter 204 $\mathbf{x}_{Fe,max}$ is the largest diameter to fulfill the assumption that the length of 205 a particle has to be larger than its width. The results of the particle size 206 analysis were represented as a frequency distribution over $x_{Ma,min}$, as defined 207 in equation 1: 208

$$q_3(x_{Ma,min}) = \frac{dQ_3(x_{Ma,min})}{x(x_{Ma,min})} \tag{1}$$

where Q_3 is the cumulative particle size distribution based on volume. The particle shape was characterized by sphericity (SPHT) and aspect ratio (b/l) in the present study. Sphericity is one of the most common ways to express the deviation of an 2D image shape from a sphere and is defined by equation 2:

$$SPHT = \frac{4 * \pi * A}{P^2} \tag{2}$$

where P is the measured circumference of a particle projection and A is the measured area of a particle projection. The particle is considered to be spherical when the value of sphericity is equal to one and non-spherical when it is smaller than one. The aspect ratio (AR) is defined as the ratio of particle width (b = $x_{Ma,min}$) to the particle length (l = $x_{Fe,max}$).

$$AR = \frac{b}{l} \tag{3}$$

218 3. Results and discussion

219 3.1. Carbon and hydrogen balances

The mass balances of the DTF experiments with respect to measured 220 solid residues (char, soot, coke) and major gaseous products (CO_2 , H_2 , CO, 221 $\mathrm{CH}_4,\,\mathrm{C}_3\mathrm{H}_8,\,\mathrm{C}_2\mathrm{H}_4,\,\mathrm{C}_2\mathrm{H}_2)$ in dependency on the heat treatment temperature 222 are shown in Figure 2. The amount of vapor, tars, and larger hydrocarbons 223 was not measured in the present study, but estimated by difference from the 224 mass balance. The carbon and hydrogen balances represent an average of at 225 least two measurements. During fast pyrolysis, mainly gaseous products were 226 formed, along with lower amounts of solid residues at higher temperatures. 227

At 1000°C, the yield of larger hydrocarbons and vapor was significantly larger than at higher temperatures. The carbon in wood and herbaceous biomasses was converted to gas, soot and char. Hydrogen was present mostly in gaseous products, tars, larger hydrocarbons and vapor at 1000°C. Almost all hydrogen (> 90%) was found in the form of gaseous products above
1250°C for wood and herbaceous biomasses. Higher temperatures suppressed
tar formation and enhanced hydrogen and oxygen release to gaseous products.

236 3.2. The solid product yield

Char yield. The wire mesh reactor (WMR) results were obtained by Trubet-237 skaya et al. [21]. In that study, the char yield (daf) was represented including 238 inorganic matter in char relative to the biomass on dry and ash-free basis. 239 In the present work, char yields of wood and herbaceous biomass in both 240 reactors are shown on dry ash free basis (daf), excluding inorganic matter in 241 char relative to original biomass (daf) in Figure 3. The biomass char yield 242 at fast pyrolysis conditions depends strongly on the biomass origin, tem-243 perature and heating rate. Straw (herbaceous) samples showed higher char 244 yields compared with wood and leached wheat straw due to the presence of 245 alkali metals as known from the literature [15, 19, 20, 31]. The char yields 246 of pinewood and beechwood showed significant differences, possibly due to 247 differences in lignin content, presence of temperature stable extractives, and 248 alkali metal content (higher in beechwood). 249

As a general trend, the char yield of beechwood, wheat straw and alfalfa straw decreased with increasing temperature, indicating a dependency of the char yield on the heat treatment temperature. On the other hand, the char yield of pinewood and leached wheat straw decreased only slightly between 1000 and 1400°C, being lower than the char yield of other fuels at 1000°C. The continuous decrease in char yield from wheat straw (rich in K, Si) and alfalfa straw (rich in Ca, K) was attributed partly to high-temperature ash reactions, leading to the volatile ash release, and affecting the organic matter release. The results indicate that the influence of alkali on the char yield is more pronounced at low and intermediate heating rates than at fast heating rates in the DTF as shown in Figure S-11.

The results showed that there is a clear difference between char yields in the WMR and DTF. The char yield in the DTF was 3-7% wt. (daf) lower than that in the WMR, possibly due to the differences in heating rate and residence time. The pyrolysis in the WMR was carried out with a lower heating rate (1000°C/s) than in the DTF ($10^4-10^{5\circ}$ C/s). When the holding time in the WMR was increased from 1 to 2 s, the char yield became slightly lower [21].

Soot yield. Figure 4 shows the soot and char yields, each separated into organic matter and ash. The soot yield varied between different biomasses at similar operational conditions. The highest soot yield was observed during pinewood fast pyrolysis. The soot yield increased with temperature, reaching a peak value at 1250°C, and slightly decreased at higher temperatures, corresponding to the well-known soot yield curvature [32].

Figure 4 shows large differences in the soot yield of wood, leached wheat 274 straw and herbaceous biomass. The fact that beechwood and leached wheat 275 straw exhibit major differences in soot yield despite similar alkali (i.e. K^+) 276 and holocellulose contents indicate that these parameters are of minor im-277 portance for the soot fraction. Instead, lignin and extractives in the original 278 biomass possibly are important for the soot yield. The leaching of alkali from 279 wheat straw resulted in a removal of lignin and other organic compounds as 280 shown in Table 2, leading to the decreased formation of PAH precursors, and 281

thereby to lower soot yields. Williams et al. [33] suggested that biomass with 282 a high content of lignin may form larger soot fractions due to its ability to 283 generate phenolic tars. A significant fraction of aromatic tars and soot orig-284 inates from lignin pyrolysis, mainly composed of guaiacol and syringol-type 285 units [34–36]. Ross et al. [37] stated that wood soot contains PAH material, 286 promoted by the presence of acetylene at higher temperatures. The sug-287 gestion is consistent with the gas measurement results of the present study. 288 The measured C_2H_2 concentration is up to 0.05 vol. % in inert nitrogen dur-289 ing fast pyrolysis of wood and herbaceous biomasses at 1000°C shown in 290 Figure 5. With increasing temperature, the C_2H_2 yield decreased, whereas 291 the soot yield increased. Moreover, C_2H_4 might affect the soot yield at high 292 temperatures, facilitating PAH molecule growth [37]. The high concentra-293 tion of resin acids in pinewood could increase the soot yield in addition to a 294 stronger formation of PAH precursors [38, 39]. 295

296 3.3. Volatile gas composition

The concentrations of H₂, CO, CO₂ and C_xH_y (CH₄, C₂H₂, C₂H₄) are shown in Figure 5. The gas composition changed significantly with increasing heat treatment temperature. Higher temperatures favor cracking of the volatile hydrocarbon products, increasing the yield of H₂ generated mainly from dehydrogenation. Soot formation could lead to increase in the yields of H₂ and CO between 1000 and 1250°C due to polymerization and dry

³⁰³ reforming reactions, equations 4 and 5.

Hydrocarbon polymerization :
$$C_n H_m \rightarrow \left(\frac{m}{2}\right) H_2 + nC_{soot}$$
 (4)

Dry reforming :
$$C_n H_m + nCO_2 \rightarrow 2nCO + \left(\frac{m}{2}\right) H_2$$
 (5)

Steam reforming:
$$C_n H_m + n H_2 O \rightarrow \left(n + \frac{m}{2}\right) H_2 + n C O$$
 (6)

Water gas shift:
$$CO + H_2O \leftrightarrow H_2 + CO_2$$
 (7)

The yield of CO_2 decreased and those of CO and H_2 increased for all biomass at temperatures above 1250°C due to dry (equation 5) and steam reforming (equation 6) and the water-gas shift reactions (equation 7).

In the literature [40–43], the larger fractions of H_2 and CO and a lower fraction of CO₂ along with lower yields of char were related to self-gasification in a drop tube reactor. However, according to calculations (see Table S-1) the self-gasification reaction is slow under the present conditions. The differences observed in the char yields between the WMR and DTF were mainly attributed to changes in heating rate and not self-gasification.

313 3.4. Alkali transformations of herbaceous biomasses

Char alkali. The weight of each inorganic element retained in alfalfa and 314 wheat straw char from DTF is shown in Figure 6, based on the original 315 sample weight. The main difference between the composition of the two 316 fuels was the ash content, which was higher (7.2%) in alfalfa straw than in 317 wheat straw (4.1%). Wheat straw char contained predominantly Si, K and 318 Ca elements, whereas the alfalfa straw char mostly consisted of Ca, K, S, Si, 319 P and Mg. The original alfalfa straw was characterized by a high level of K 320 and Ca, and therefore forming mainly K and Ca rich compounds in the char. 321

The inorganic composition of original wheat straw showed a large frac-322 tion of Si (seven times larger than in alfalfa straw), leading to the formation 323 of silicates during devolatilization. Thermodynamic equilibrium calculations 324 of gas and solid phases, performed with the Factsage software, indicated that 325 under reducing conditions potassium in the alfalfa and wheat straw chars was 326 most likely present as chlorides and silicates. In addition, potassium and cal-327 cium could be present as carbides in the alfalfa straw. In the wheat straw 328 char, calcium was obtained as a silicate. 329

Soot inorganic content. The beechwood and straw soot clusters contained both organic matter and minerals as shown in Figure 7. The mineral compounds in the soot arose from the condensation of inorganic species from the gas phase onto the soot. It appeared that the inorganic elements in alfalfa and wheat straw soot mainly consisted of K, Cl and S. The high levels of K and Cl in the soot matter was probably caused by the KCl release under fast heating in the DTF.

As it can be seen in Figure 7, a high level of sulfur (about 0.8 wt. %) was observed in both soot samples. The Factsage equilibrium calculation showed that sulfur was most likely released as H₂S gas, in agreement with literature results [44, 45]. Hydrogen sulfide could possibly react with soot active sites or with metals, as shown by Cal et al. [46]:

$$C + H_2 S \to C - S + H_2 \tag{8}$$

$$C-M + H_2S \to C-M-S + H_2 \tag{9}$$

342 3.5. Solid residue characterization

343 3.5.1. Particle size and shape analysis of char

The particle size and shape of the original biomass and its char were 344 analyzed by CAMSIZER XT instrument. Prior to the 2D dynamic imaging 345 analysis, the original fuel was sieved to a particle size fraction of 0.2-0.4 mm. 346 As shown in Figures 8 and 9, the results of the particle characterization study 347 indicate nearly 50% decrease of the characteristic length of pinewood, beech-348 wood and wheat straw during pyrolysis in comparison to the original fuel, 349 while further changes in particle size between 1000 and 1400°C are almost 350 negligible. The particle size of alfalfa straw char remained similar to the 351 original fuel at heat treatment temperatures of 1000-1400°C. This may be 352 attributed to formation of calcium carbonates and silicates (as shown by 353 the Factsage simulation), which form a very stable inorganic matter shell, 354 hindering particle shrinkage. 355

The particle shape of biomass was characterized using the sphericity 356 (SPHT) and width/length ratio (b/l) parameters. The pinewood char par-357 ticles showed a near-spherical shape (SPHT = 0.8-0.9; b/l = 0.7-0.8). The 358 beechwood and herbaceous chars obtained cylindrical or rectangular shapes 359 (SPHT = 0.5-0.8; b/l ratios = 0.4-0.7). The results of particles > 0.4 mm in 360 terms of shape description were considered as non-representative due to the 361 low presence of particles in this fraction. It seems that at high heating rates 362 in the DTF (about $10^{4\circ}$ C/s), a biomass particle transforms to one particular 363 shape that stays unchanged with increasing temperature above 1000°C. 364

365 3.5.2. Char and soot structure

Char morphology. Figure 10 shows SEM images of wood and herbaceous 366 char, pyrolyzed at 1000 and 1400°C in the drop tube reactor. The wood 367 and herbaceous char particles have undergone softening and melting. At 368 higher temperatures, the char plasticization is attributed to the formation 369 of liquid metaplast due to the depolymerization with subsequent repolymer-370 ization and cross-linking, leading to char formation [47]. The differences in 371 cross-linking propensity influence the fluidity of char significantly. The for-372 mation of metaplast depends on the complex interaction of all plant cell 373 compounds (holocelluloses, lignin and extractives). Heating rates affect the 374 melting and swelling behavior of biomass, since the relative rates of compet-375 ing processes for tar formation (bond-breaking, cross-linking, internal mass 376 transport) change with the temperature. The heating rates determine the 377 temperature at which reaction occurs [48], leading at high heating rates to 378 a significant bridge-breaking in biomass before it starts to cross-link and 379 therefore becomes fluid. On one hand, the inorganic matter could conceiv-380 ably influence the char morphology since potassium and calcium may act as 381 active catalysts, affecting the metaplast formation. On the other hand, the 382 inorganic matter probably does not have sufficient time to affect cross-linking 383 due to the fast bonds breaking at very high heating rates. 384

The SEM images showed that the pinewood particles lost all features of the parental structure, becoming spherical and porous with large inner cavities, formed from the simultaneous release of a large volatiles fraction. The pinewood particles have undergone stronger melting during fast pyrolysis by forming smooth and near-spherical structures. It is believed that under fast heating the formation of metaplast is mostly affected by the bond-breaking and cross-linking of organic components present in lignin that is less volatile than holocelluloses. Surprisingly, beechwood char particles were only slightly molten on the outer surface and kept the shape and size characteristics of the parental fuel, contrary to the results of Dall'Ora et al [9].

This observation is most likely caused by the presence of beechwood at a stage of being converted from the water-conducting sapwood to the heartwood, and to formation of tyloses, which are filled with a large quantity of phenolic compounds, lignin, and aromatic substances [49, 50]. The formed phenolic compounds polymerize in insoluble forms, for example in a nonlignin related bio-polymer suberin that makes the wood particle more stable at high heat treatment temperatures [51, 52].

Alfalfa straw and wheat straw have underwent plasticization, but less 402 melting than the pinewood, indicating an effect of ash on the char morphol-403 ogy. The high levels of K and Ca in the herbaceous biomasses could cause 404 less severe plasticization, by catalyzing the conversion of bridges into char 405 links, and therefore increasing polymerization / cross-linking and reducing 406 char fluidity. The alfalfa and wheat straw char obtained two types of a par-407 ticle shape (elongated cylindrical and near-spherical). The transformation of 408 herbaceous char shapes was probably affected by the presence of potassium 409 and calcium silicates, remaining in the char. The high Ca content in the 410 alfalfa straw could provide additional stability to the char, preserving the 411 particle size of the original fuel. 412

In the present study, the effect of extractives on the char structural transformations was studied by removing resin, fatty acids, waxes, and phy-

tosterols from the pinewood and beechwood by acetone extraction. Fig-415 ure 10 shows the char structures of pinewood and beechwood. The pinewood 416 char after the extraction exhibited stronger swelling and enhanced sticking 417 of smaller particles to the surface of larger particles at 1000°C. The beech-418 wood char without extractives showed slightly stronger melting than the 419 non-treated beechwood char. The extractives could affect the char fluidity. 420 The nearly similar levels of K and Ca in the char of non-treated and extracted 421 wood showed that the extraction process did not have an effect on biomass 422 ash content. 423

Soot morphology. In the fast DTF pyrolysis, the solid sub-micron particles were collected on a filter. The particulate matter at 1250-1400°C was characterized by TEM and SEM microscopy. The collected nano-sized particles were spherical and attached to each other forming long chain-like structures. Due to the near-spherical shape and particle size < 100 nm, the particulate matter on the filter was identified as soot, mixed with inorganic matter as shown in Figure 11.

Interestingly, also larger sub-micron particles of a size $> 100 \,\mathrm{nm}$ were 431 observed in the particulate matter. The wheat straw fast pyrolysis generated 432 larger sub-micron particles of size 100-300 nm, agglomerated with smaller 433 units of size 5-20 nm, while during the wood pyrolysis the particle size was 434 between 20 and 150 nm. The formation of particles of size between 60 nm and 435 300 nm at high temperatures during fast pyrolysis has not been extensively 436 discussed in the literature before. However, the differences in a carbon nano-437 structure and graphitization degree may affect soot reactivity as mentioned 438 previously [43, 53]. 439

440 4. Conclusion

Char yields from the DTF were lower than those obtained in a wire mesh 441 reactor. This was attributed to the higher heating rates in the DTF, while 442 self-gasification by reaction with CO_2 and H_2O was of minor importance. 443 The straw samples showed a significant char yield decrease in the DTF when 444 the temperature was increased from 1000 to 1400°C, whereas the char yields 445 of pinewood ($\approx 3.5\%$, daf) and beechwood ($\approx 7\%$, daf) were almost con-446 stant at a very low level. It was observed that low fuel alkali content, high 447 temperatures, and fast heating rates lead to low biomass char yields. The 448 results indicated that the influence of alkali on the char yield is more pro-449 nounced at low and intermediate heating rates than at fast heating rates in 450 the DTF. 451

The measured soot yield of wood was 3-7% higher compared to herba-452 ceous biomass above 1250°C. Leaching of the wheat straw resulted in a re-453 duction of the soot fraction, indicating that suppression of soot by a high 454 potassium content only plays a minor role. However, the higher concentra-455 tion of lignin and resin acids in the wood could lead to a larger formation 456 of PAH precursors and thus higher soot yields. The lower soot yields in 457 pyrolysis of leached wheat straw compared to alfalfa straw and non-treated 458 wheat straw were related to the removal of organic compounds, and there-459 fore decreased formation of PAH precursors. Significant levels of K, Cl and S 460 elements were found in the straw soot. The particle size of herbaceous soot 461 varied from $5 \,\mathrm{nm}$ to $300 \,\mathrm{nm}$, whereas the wood formed particles from $20 \,\mathrm{nm}$ 462 to 150 nm. 463

464

The pyrolysis process caused the characteristic length of both wood sam-

ples and wheat straw particles to decrease by a factor of two as shown by 465 2D dynamic imaging analysis, while the pinewood char obtained the most 466 spherical shape. The beechwood and herbaceous char particles retained a 467 cylindrical shape. Scanning electron microscopy on the chars indicated struc-468 tural transformations of all biomass under fast heating. The chars underwent 469 strong deformation with clear signs of melting and development of macrop-470 ores at all applied temperatures. The ability of char to melt under the fast 471 heating followed the order pinewood > wheat straw, alfalfa straw > beech-472 wood, and was related to the formation of a metaplast with a stronger con-473 tribution of lignin due to its lower volatility and remaining high-temperature 474 stable extractives (suburin, tannin) in the beechwood char. In addition, a 475 significant catalytic effect of K and Ca on the fuel structural changes was 476 observed due to a stronger cross-linking of herbaceous chars, leading to less 477 fluidity. The increased melting of pinewood and beechwood could indicate 478 some influence of extractives on the char morphology. 470

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Fuel	Pine-	Beech-	Wheat	Alfalfa	Leached	Pine-	Beech		
	wood	wood	straw	straw	wheat straw	wood*	wood*		
Proximate analysis									
Moisture, (wt. % ar)	5.1 4.5 5.5 5.2 4.3 5.1 5.								
Ash (550°C), (wt. % db)	0.3	1.4	4.1	7.4	2	0.3	1.5		
Volatiles, (wt. % db)	86.6	79.4	77.5	75.9	84.2	84.9	79.3		
HHV, (MJ/kg)	21.6	20.2	18.8	19.7	18.7	20.3	20.3		
LHV, (MJ/kg)	20.2	19	17.5	16.9	17.4	19	19		
Ultimate analysis, (wt. % db)									
С	53.1	50.7	46.6	42.5	45.7	50.1	50		
Н	6.5	5.9	6.1	6.7	6.6	6	5.8		
0	40	41.9	42.5	43.1	45.4	43.5	42.6		
Ν	0.06	0.13	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.05	0.08		
S	$<\!0.01$	0.02	0.1	0.03	0.02	0.008	0.019		
Cl	0.01	0.02	0.1	0.5	0.01	0.005	0.02		
	Ash co	mposition	al analysi	s, (mg/kg	, db)				
Al	10	10	150	600	100	8.3	15.9		
Са	600	2000	2500	12900	1300	620	2090		
Fe	20	10	200	-	350	8	10		
К	200	3600	11000	28000	1300	250	3700		
Mg	100	600	750	1400	350	120	610		
Na	30	100	150	1000	50	60	150		
Р	6	150	550	1900	80	25	120		
Si	50	200	8500	2000	6200	33	200		
Ti	2	8	10	30	10	1	4		

Table 1:

*after extraction

Table	2:
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Biomass	Cellulose	Hemi-	Lignin		Extrac-	$\mathbf{Protein}$
		cellulose	acid in-	acid	tives	
			soluble	soluble		
Pinewood	38.3	17.8	29.6	1.8	8.8*	0.6
Beechwood	35	19.2	32	1.5	7.5^{*}	1.9
Wheat straw	35.9	18	19.2	6.5	10.1**	6.3
Leached wheat straw	32.1	23.5	13.8	2	13.3**	1.3
Alfalfa straw	18.8	12	14.7	6.8	39.6**	5.1

 \ast acetone extraction $\ast\ast$ ethanol-water extraction (room temperature)



Figure 1







2.2:

Figure 2:







3.2:

Figure 3:







Figure 4:







5.2:

Figure 5:



Figure 6



Figure 7



Figure 8:



Figure 9:





10.3:

10.4:



10.5:

10.6:

Figure 10:



11.1:





11.3:

Figure 11: 42

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