Combustion of Single Biomass Particles in Air and in Oxy-Fuel Conditions

Juan Riaza	extsuperscript{1}, Reza Khatami	extsuperscript{2}, Yiannis A. Levendis	extsuperscript{2*}, Lucia Álvarez	extsuperscript{1}, Maria V. Gil	extsuperscript{1}, Covadonga Pevida	extsuperscript{1}, Fernando Rubiera	extsuperscript{1}, Jose J. Pis	extsuperscript{1}

	extsuperscript{1} Instituto Nacional del Carbón, INCAR-CSIC, Apartado 73, 33080 Oviedo, Spain

	extsuperscript{2} Mechanical and Industrial Engineering Department, Northeastern University, Boston, MA, 02115, USA

* Corresponding author: y.levendis@neu.edu

Tel: 1 (617) 373-3806, Fax: 1 (617) 373-2921

Abstract

The combustion behaviors of four different pulverized biomasses were evaluated in the laboratory. Single particles of sugar cane bagasse, pine sawdust, torrefied pine sawdust and olive residue were burned in a drop-tube furnace, set at 1400 K, in both air and O\textsubscript{2}/CO\textsubscript{2} atmospheres containing 21, 30, 35, and 50\% oxygen mole fractions. High-speed and high-resolution images of single particles were recorded cinematographically and temperature-time histories were obtained pyrometrically. Combustion of these particles took place in two phases. Initially, volatiles evolved and burned in spherical envelope flames of low luminosity; then, upon extinction of these flames, char residues ignited and burned in brief periods of time. This behavior was shared by all four biomasses of this study, and only small differences among them were evident based on their origin, type and pre-treatment. Volatile flames of biomass particles were much less sooty than those of previously burned coal particles of analogous size and char combustion durations were briefer. Replacing the background N\textsubscript{2} gas with CO\textsubscript{2}, i.e., changing from air to an oxy-fuel atmosphere, at 21\% O\textsubscript{2} impaired the intensity of combustion; reduced
the combustion temperatures and lengthened the burnout times of the biomass particles. Increasing the oxygen mole fraction in CO\textsubscript{2} to 28-35\% restored the combustion intensity of the single biomass particles to that in air.

**Keywords:** biomass process residues; torrefied biomass; combustion; ignition; single particle; pyrometry.

1. **Introduction**

Biomass has higher volatile matter content than coal, but it has less carbon, more oxygen and a lower energy content (heating value). The use of biomass in existing pulverized coal power plants requires only minor modifications as compared to the construction of new biomass-specific fired power plants, making the co-firing of biomass with coal an easier and less costly way for generating power. Co-firing is becoming more common in coal power plants because replacing part of the coal with biomass results in lower pollutant and greenhouse gas emissions, as compared to firing neat coal [1, 2]. Co-firing biomass and coal reduces the emissions of SO\textsubscript{2}, NO\textsubscript{x} and CO\textsubscript{2}. Altogether elimination of such emissions may be achieved in future power plants (termed zero emission power plants) by implementing carbon dioxide capture and storage (CCS) techniques. However, co-firing coal with biomass reduces the power output of a power-plant in proportion to the amount of the latter fuel [3, 4, 5]. Oxy-fuel combustion is a promising technology for facilitating CCS. It burns fuel in a mixture of oxygen and recycled flue gases (mainly CO\textsubscript{2}) instead of air in conventional combustion. The exhaust flue gases consist mainly of CO\textsubscript{2}, approx. 95\% on a dry volume basis, and small amounts of excess oxygen, nitrogen and, to a lesser extent,
pollutants, such as nitrogen oxides (NO\textsubscript{x}) and sulfur oxides (SO\textsubscript{x}) (approx. 0.1–0.2% dry volume basis) [6]. The combination of oxy-fuel combustion, as a CCS technology, with biomass [2] could effectively provide a method which would not only avoid further CO\textsubscript{2} emissions but, perhaps even help reduce the atmospheric CO\textsubscript{2}. Simpson et al. [7] compared the efficiency of oxy-fuel combustion and post-combustion carbon dioxide separation cycles by thermodynamic analysis. They concluded that the air separation efficiency in oxy-fuel technology must increase sufficiently to offset the additional cost and inefficiency of requiring a CO\textsubscript{2} purification unit on the back end. They proposed that oxy-fuel combustion may be more attractive for systems operating with oxygenated fuels such as biomass. For such systems, the development of near-stoichiometric combustors would not need expensive CO\textsubscript{2} purification units. Moreover, a recent investigation [8] revealed that biomass/coal blend combustion may be a method for controlling the excess heat generated from oxy-combustion of coal, a proposed “clean” coal technology. They utilized a TGA-DSC technique at 1173 K to burn blends of a lignite coal and two biomasses, at high oxygen partial pressures. They reported that the heat flux from the combustion of lignite increased dramatically when the oxidizing medium was altered from dry air to neat oxygen. However, in the case of co-firing lignite with biomass under neat oxygen, the excess heat flux arising from the combustion of lignite was reduced and the temperature of the combustion chamber was thus controlled. Based on their results, they suggested that co-combustion of coal/biomass blends in enriched oxygen environments may be an alternative method to CO\textsubscript{2} recycling in future oxy-fuel combustion systems.

All biomasses are composed of three main components: cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin. For instance, the sugar-cane bagasse sample burned herein contained 41.3%
cellulose, 34.3% hemicelluloses and 13.8% lignin. Whereas cellulose and hemicellulose are macromolecules constructed from different sugars, lignin is an aromatic polymer synthesized from phenylpropanoid precursors [9]. Hemicellulose is easily degraded, and its pyrolysis takes place at temperatures in the range of 493–588 K. The pyrolysis of cellulose occurs in the 588–673 K range, whereas that of lignin covers a wider temperature range (423–1176 K) [10].

Torrefaction is a useful pre-treatment for the biomass materials as they are sometimes difficult to fluidize and introduce into furnaces because of their fibrous shapes [11]. The management and milling of torrefied biomass is easier than that of the parent biomass. That is why the torrefaction process is being introduced to industrial practices [12, 13]. This process consists of heating the biomass in nitrogen, or in a low oxygen-containing atmosphere, to temperatures up to 573 K. In this process, the biomass dries, and as the temperature increases, certain changes take place in the molecular structure. Light hydrocarbon molecules are released through the decomposition of the reactive hemicellulose fraction [14]. Torrefied fuels are easier to manage, and they contain more fragile particles as well as a higher energy density than the parent biomass particles [15, 16]. During the torrefaction process, the biomass loses typically 30% of its mass, but only 10% of its energy content [17]. The resulting higher energy density of the torrefied fuel reduces the transportation costs.

Biomass pyrolysis has been investigated in numerous studies. Results are highlighted in several reviews, including those in Refs. [3, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22]. The pyrolytic products are H₂, H₂O, CO, CO₂, CH₄, other light hydrocarbons, tar, ash and char. At temperatures below 773 K, biomass fuels decompose into primary volatiles. At these temperatures, tars are produced by depolymerisation reactions while pyrolytic water is produced by
dehydration reactions. The main gaseous products of pyrolysis are CO\(_2\) and CO. At temperatures above 773 K, the primary volatiles are subject to a secondary pyrolysis, during which tars are converted into a variety of gaseous species, especially CO, light hydrocarbons, hydrogen and CO\(_2\). At high heating rates, biomass decomposes expediently generating mostly gas, vapors and char [23]. The char that remains upon termination of the pyrolysis reactions is enriched in carbon [24].

Implementation of optical pyrometry and high speed cinematography for the study of ignition and combustion of single coal particles and streams of coal particles has been well documented [25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33]. However, there is a scarcity of analogous studies on biomass particle ignition and combustion characteristics. On the other hand, Wornat et al. [34] studied the combustion rates of single particles of two biomass chars (southern pine and switch grass), with nominal sizes in the range of 75-106 µm, in a laminar flow reactor with 6% and 12% O\(_2\) mole fraction (balance N\(_2\)) at 1600 K. In situ measurements using a two-color optical pyrometer and a video camera revealed that biomass char particles burned over a wider temperature range (1500-1950K, \(\Delta T\approx450\) K) than high volatile bituminous and lignite coal particles (1800-1950K, i.e., \(\Delta T\approx150\) K versus 1900-2000 K, i.e., \(\Delta T\approx100\) K, respectively). Austin et al. [35] conducted an experimental study in a drop-tube furnace, burning 300-1500 µm corncob particles in air using a video camera (50-100 frames per second) and an infrared phototransistor. They determined that the burning times of the volatiles and the ignition delay times increased with the increase of the initial particle density and diameter. Meesri and Moghtaderi [36] burned pine sawdust particles at drop-tube furnace temperatures of 1473K in air and reported particle temperatures circa 1700K. They also reported that the char oxidation reactions occurred in Regime II, where
chemical reactions and pore diffusion happen concurrently. Arias et al. [37] studied the ignition and combustion characteristics of coal/biomass blends under oxy-fuel conditions. They burned a bituminous coal and bituminous coal/eucalyptus biomass blends (90%-10% or 80%-20%, by weight) Their experiments were performed in an electrically-heated entrained flow reactor (EFR) set to 1273 K. Oxy-fuel combustion of pulverized fuels (75-150 µm) occurred with 21%, 30% and 35% O₂ mole fraction in CO₂, and was compared with results obtained in air. When coal was blended with the biomass, its ignition temperature in air was reduced. However, this effect was less pronounced in the case of oxy-fuel combustion, regardless of O₂ concentration. The effect of blending biomass and coal on burnout effectiveness was negligible. Riaza et al. [2] observed similar results. Borrego et al. [38] obtained chars from different biomasses by pyrolysis in air and in oxy-fuel environments, and reported no significant differences between the char characteristics, i.e., pore volume, morphology, surface area and reactivity.

In addition to the above studies, some other notable investigations reported on experiments and numerical modeling of single-particle biomass combustion [39, 40, 41, 42]; however, the number of experimental works on this topic is very limited [43]. Additional studies are warranted to document the entire combustion behavior of biomass fuels, especially the phase of the volatile matter combustion. Such studies may be instrumental in assessing the radiating behavior of biomass particles in furnaces. In particular, little (if anything) has been reported on the experimental combustion behavior of individual biomass particles in oxy-combustion conditions, and this is of special interest to co-firing coal and biomass in future oxy-fuel power plants. The present work reports on systematic in situ combustion study of different biomasses
(residual or torrefied) in a laboratory-scale drop-tube furnace, under both conventional (air) and oxy-fuel conditions by means of optical pyrometry and high-speed back-light cinematography. Comparisons with the combustion characteristics of coal particles studied in previous work in this laboratory are made.

2. Bio-Fuel Characteristics and Experimental Methods

2.1. Biomass samples

Four different residue biomasses were studied, olive residue (OR), which are residues from the olive oil production industry, pine sawdust (PI), torrefied pine sawdust (TOPI), and sugarcane bagasse (SCB), which is a residue of bio-ethanol and sugar production. Olive residue is the part of the olive that remains after the olive oil has been extracted. Nowadays olive residue biomass is used as a low cost renewable fuel for domestic and industrial heating. The olive residue sample used in this work was supplied by ELCOGAS, S.A., which is an IGCC power station located in Puertollano (Ciudad Real, Spain), that processes a 50:50 blend (based on weight) of coal and petcoke, and occasionally also includes biomass in the fuel blend. The pine sawdust sample was obtained from a pellets industry, Pellets Asturias, S.L., situated in Tineo (Asturias, Spain), which has a yearly production of 30,000 tons of pellets. The torrefaction of pine sawdust was carried out at INCAR-CSIC. The torrefaction treatment conditions were selected according to the results obtained in previous studies [15]. Briefly, the torrefaction of pine sawdust was performed using a horizontal quartz reactor, where 10–15 g of biomass was heated at a rate of 10 K min$^{-1}$ under a nitrogen flow rate of 50 mL min$^{-1}$ up to 513 K. The samples were kept at the final temperature for 1 hour. The mass loss from the sample was measured and then the sample was sieved to 75-150 µm.
Sugar cane bagasse was collected directly from a mill located in Brazil – São Paulo State. The bagasse was washed, dried at 90°C for 24 hours, chopped in a household blender and sieved. All biomass samples were less than a year old and were kept in closed glass bottles in the laboratory under standard temperature and pressure conditions.

Photographs and scanning electronic microscope images of the different biomasses samples are presented in Fig. 1. All of the samples were ground and sieved to 75-150 µm. The proximate and ultimate analyses and gross calorific values of the biomasses are given in Table 1.

### 2.2. Experimental Approach

#### 2.2.1. Drop-tube furnace (DTF)

An electrically-heated laminar-flow drop-tube furnace was used for the combustion experiments. The furnace (an ATS unit) was fitted with an alumina tube (Coors) with an inner diameter of 7 cm. It was heated with molybdenum disilicide heating elements, defining a radiation zone of 25 cm in length. The furnace was fitted at the top with a water-cooled injector (Fig. 2a). Details of the design of the furnace injector are provided elsewhere [30, 44]. To introduce single biomass particles into the furnace injector, the following technique was used. A few particles were placed inside the tip of a beveled syringe needle. The needle was inserted into a port at the top of the injector, which was rotated half a revolution back and forth and then gently tapped. Single particles could thus be dropped into the furnace injector. Upon exiting the injector, the particles reacted with the preheated furnace gases. The furnace wall temperatures ($T_f$) were continuously monitored by type-S thermocouples embedded in the wall. Particle heating rates were
very high, calculated to be in the order of $10^4$ K s$^{-1}$. Optical access to the radiation zone of the furnace was achieved through three observation ports: one at the top (Pyrometer) and two orthogonally situated at the sides of the furnace. The pyrometer and the high speed cinematography camera were used as experimental devices to study the burning of single biomass particles.

2.2.2. Optical pyrometer

Pyrometric observations of burning single particles were conducted from the top of the furnace injector, viewing downward along the central axis of the furnace is typically a particle’s path-line. Thus, complete luminous burnout histories of single biomass particle - from ignition to extinction - were monitored. An optical fiber made up of a high-transmittance (> 99.5%) fused silica core and doped fused silica cladding with an f-number of 2.2, transmitted light from the furnace to the pyrometer assembly. The pyrometer used two dichroic edge filters as spectrum splitters to direct the light to the three interference filters (Fig.2b). These filters had effective wavelengths of 0.640, 0.810 and 0.998 μm with bandwidths (FWHM) of 70 nm. In conjunction with these interference filters, silicon diode detectors were employed to maximize the signal sensitivity. They also possessed good stability and linearity. Details of the pyrometer optics and electronics were supplied by Levendis et al. [28, 30]. The voltage signals generated by the three detectors were amplified and then processed by a microcomputer using LabView software. The temperature was deduced from the three output voltage signals of the pyrometer using a non-linear least square method, based on Planck’s radiation law. Details of this method were supplied by Khatami and Levendis [44].
2.2.3. *High-speed camera*

High-speed cinematography was conducted through the slotted side quartz windows of the drop-tube furnace against backlight (Fig. 2a). A *NAC HotShot 512SC* self-contained digital high-speed video camera was used, at speeds of 1000 or 2000 frames/s. The camera was fitted with an *Infinity* model K2 long-distance microscope lens to provide high-magnification images of the combustion events (Fig. 2c).

2.3. *Gas temperatures and Furnace Gas Compositions*

Combustion experiments of biomass particles were conducted under a quiescent gas condition (i.e., no gas flow). Quiescent gas condition was created by turning off the gas flows 10 seconds prior to the particle injection. The design of this experiment has been documented by Khatami et al. [33]. A slender bare thermocouple (*Omega* type K) was used to measure the axial profile of the centerline gas temperature. The measured temperatures with this method were corrected for radiation effects as outlined by Khatami et al. [33]; results are illustrated in Fig. 3. Under the quiescent gas condition (no flow), the gas temperature profiles were similar in either N₂ or CO₂ environments. Both temperatures increased along the centerline of the furnace and stabilized at an estimated 1340 K. The furnace wall set-point temperature ($T_w$) was 1400 K, as monitored by type-S thermocouples embedded in the wall. The gas compositions in the furnace included air as well as mixtures of oxygen (mole fractions of 21 %O₂, 30%O₂, 35%O₂ and 50%O₂) in carbon dioxide to simulate oxy-combustion conditions. In this manuscript all gas compositions are given on a mole fraction basis, which is equivalent to a volume fraction basis, as percentages (%).
3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Cinematographic observations

Six snapshot photographic sequences for each biomass sample at different gas atmospheres during burnout history of the particle are shown in Fig. 4. The particles ignited very close to the injector tip at the top of the DTF, immediately upon entering the radiation zone. Upon ignition, the flames surrounding individual particles grew bigger and increasingly luminous. For all biomass fuels at all gas compositions, the envelope flames had strikingly spherical shapes with fairly uniform luminosity. Some other similar burning characteristics were also observed for all the biomasses. The similarities included the sequential particle devolatilization with ignition and burning of the volatiles around the particle, followed by the ignition, combustion and extinction of the char residues.

The ignition of particles was determined visually as the onset of luminous combustion. However, the determination of the precise initial instant of ignition of the volatile matter proved to be difficult for several reasons. Firstly, as Grotkjaer et al. [45] have already pointed out, the ignition temperatures of biomass are fairly low and lie in the range of 500-600 K in air. In this study, the volatiles ignition took place at temperatures much lower than the furnace wall temperature (1400 K) and could not be categorically discerned by optical techniques. Secondly, the volatiles envelope flames had low luminosities and typically exhibited low contrast with the background furnace surfaces.

3.2. Pyrometric Signals

Figure 5 shows sample radiation intensity signals, corresponding to the 0.640, 0.810 and 0.998 μm pyrometric wavelengths, obtained from single particles of each type of
biomass burning in air. As can be seen in this figure, the signals of the PI, TOPI and SCB particles exhibit two different zones: the first peak corresponds to volatiles combustion in envelope flames and the second peak corresponds to subsequent char combustion. The first peak (corresponding to volatiles combustion) of OR signals is much weaker than that of other biomass samples.

3.3. Combustion temperatures and burnout times

To facilitate a quantitative comparison between the different biomass fuels burning in the diverse atmospheres of this study, burnout times of the volatiles and burnout times of chars were directly obtained from both pyrometric and cinematographic observations, whereas char combustion temperatures were deduced from pyrometric data. The particle burnout times, displayed in Figs. 6 and 7, were deduced from pyrometric signals for volatile matter and char combustion phases, based on the duration of the recorded highest-intensity signal ($\lambda = 0.998 \mu m$) of a particular event from its onset (particle ignition) to its termination (particle extinction), both defined when the signal exceeded its baseline by a factor of at least one thousand, i.e., $S_{signal}/S_{baseline} > 1,000$. Each data point represents mean values from a minimum of 15 individual particle combustion events. Standard deviation bars (2$\sigma$) are shown on each datum point. Volatile burnout times recorded by cinematography (e.g., see Fig.4) were typically shorter (by 10%) than the pyrometric volatile burnout times (Fig. 6). The discrepancy between pyrometric and cinematographic volatile burnout times was attributed to the fact that low-luminosity, nearly-transparent flames are hard to identify visually in photographic records (visible bandwidth is 0.4-0.7 $\mu m$), whereas the pyrometer is able to record radiation emanating from non-sooty flames at the near-infrared wavelengths of 0.81 $\mu m$ and 0.998 $\mu m$. In
the case of the olive residue biomass (OR) which have lower volatile matter content than the other biomasses, the duration of the volatile matter combustion phase could not be reliably assessed because even the pyrometric signals were too weak. However, the volatiles combustion peaks were clearly distinguishable in the cases of SCB, PI and TOPI biomasses (see Fig. 5).

The volatile matter flame temperature deduction method is currently under development in this laboratory for such lowly-sooty flames, for which the gray-body emissivity assumption [44] may not be valid. Thus, the temperatures of the volatile matter flames are not reported herein. The presented char temperatures in Fig. 8 are peak temperatures recorded in individual particle burnout histories, averaged over at least 15 single particle cases. Char temperatures were deduced by the method of Khatami and Levendis [44].

3.4 Effect of atmospheric composition (replacement of N$_2$ by CO$_2$) and O$_2$ mole fraction

3.4.1. Combustion Behavior

The weakest particle combustion intensities were obtained in the 21%O$_2$-79%CO$_2$ atmosphere for all biomass samples. The weaker particle combustion intensities in 21%O$_2$-79%CO$_2$ atmosphere than in air are due to the lower particle temperatures, which resulted from the lower diffusivity of oxygen in CO$_2$ than in N$_2$ [46, 47]. It has also been determined that the higher volumetric heat capacity of CO$_2$ (than N$_2$) contributes to the lower particle temperatures [47].

At 21% O$_2$, both in the N$_2$ and CO$_2$ environments, the ignition and combustion of the volatiles and the ignition of the char residues occurred sequentially in a particle’s time-history profile (Fig. 4). When the combustion of the volatiles was completed, the flame
extinguished and, subsequently, char ignition took place. Some differences were observed in the time periods between volatile extinction and char ignition in air and in the $21\%O_2/79\%CO_2$ atmosphere; the former was in the neighborhood of 2 ms, whereas the latter was much lengthier, at 5-8 ms.

At higher oxygen mole fractions (>30%) in CO$_2$, the following behaviors were observed: (i) ignition of the volatiles started earlier, i.e., the ignition delay period was briefer; (ii) the volatile flames were less bright (e.g., see Fig. 4: bagasse at 35% and 50% O$_2$ mole fractions), most likely because under such conditions soot oxidation reactions were more prominent than soot formation reactions in the envelope flames; and finally, (iii) the incandescent residual char particles of all fuels emitted stronger radiation and they appeared brighter. In the 50%O$_2$-50%CO$_2$ atmosphere, chars ignited while the volatiles were still burning. At such an elevated oxygen mole fraction, the phases of the homogeneous volatiles combustion and heterogeneous residual char combustion became nearly indistinguishable. Moreover, char combustion was very fast.

3.4.2. Temperatures and burnout times

Devolatilization of particles occurs both pre- and post-ignition in the furnace. Pre-ignition devolatilization times are affected by the ignition delay period, which is in turn influenced by the volumetric heat capacity (heat sink) of the surrounding gas. Post-ignition devolatilization times are affected by the flame temperature, which is influenced by the composition, and thus, the properties of the surrounding gas. Hence, both times are affected by the substitution of N$_2$ with CO$_2$ gas in oxy-combustion. In this work, only the post-ignition devolatilization and simultaneous volatiles combustion phenomena could be monitored. In general, longer volatile and char burnout times were
observed when N\textsubscript{2} was replaced by CO\textsubscript{2}, at the same oxygen mole fraction (i.e., longer burnout times in 21%O\textsubscript{2}/79%CO\textsubscript{2} than in 21%O\textsubscript{2}/79%N\textsubscript{2}), see Figs 6 and 7. Moreover, the burnout time decreased as the oxygen mole fraction increased from 21% to 35%. These results are in agreement with previous studies which were carried out for coal particles of all ranks [2, 32, 48]. In the cases of both coal and biomass char particles it is likely that combustion occurred in Regime II, i.e., under both kinetic and diffusion control [44]. For biomass chars this was illustrated with calculations outlined in the Appendix, whereas for coal chars, burning under identical conditions, similar calculations have been performed in Refs. [32] and [48]. Figure 7 shows that increasing the O\textsubscript{2} mole fraction further, from 35% to 50%, had a less pronounced effect on the char burnout time. Peak char temperatures, averaged over particles, during combustion of biomass in both air and simulated oxy-fuel conditions, shown in Fig. 8, are heavily dependent on the oxygen mole fraction. The temperatures of all biomass particles burning in air were higher than those burning in 21%O\textsubscript{2} diluted with CO\textsubscript{2}. At higher oxygen mole fractions (>21%) in CO\textsubscript{2}, the char combustion temperatures increased while the durations of char combustion decreased. Increasing the oxygen mole fraction in CO\textsubscript{2} to 30-35% restored the combustion intensity of single fuel particles to the level found in conventional combustion in air, for all biomass fuels tested herein. This is in agreement with observations on coal particle combustion reported in Ref. [33].

3.5. Effect of biomass type

Biomass particles burned expediently under the conditions of this work. Biomass devolatilization commences at low temperatures (at around 473 K [19, 45]). As the particles heated up, devolatilization accelerated until most of the volatiles were released.
The heating rate of the particles in the drop tube furnace was high (in the order of $10^4$ K s$^{-1}$ [34]). Biomass structures, and heavy hydrocarbons and tars, produced by the devolatilization step have been reported to expediently convert into smaller molecules by cracking reactions in the proximity of the devolatilizing particles [49]. In fact, previous work in this laboratory [50, 51, 52, 53] pyrolyzed various biomasses under relevant high heating-rate conditions and elevated furnace temperatures and found that the pyrolytic products were mainly light hydrocarbon gases (such as methane, ethylene, ethane, acetylene, propylene, benzene, ethyl-benzene, etc.), as well as hydrogen, carbon monoxide and carbon dioxide.

The proximate and ultimate analyses of the different biomasses were similar, see Table 1, and so was their combustion behavior. The sugarcane bagasse, SCB, has the highest volatile matter content, therefore extra time was likely needed for devolatilization, and the combustion duration of the volatiles of this fuel was indeed observed to be lengthier (see Fig. 6). On the other hand, SCB has the least fixed carbon content and, thus, it exhibited the shortest char burnout duration (Fig. 7).

The envelope flames of olive residues, OR, were slightly less distinguishable cinematographically than those of the other biomass fuels. The corresponding pyrometric signals were also weaker than those of the rest of the samples. It is notable that OR had the lowest volatile matter content than the rest of the biomasses examined herein. Moreover, it was found that the OR char temperatures were the lowest among those of the other fuels, in all gas atmospheres in the DTF and the burnout times of the OR chars were less influenced by the oxygen mole fraction in the gas, as shown in Fig. 7. Regarding the combustion behavior of the chars, it is notable that OR had the highest ash, which may have increased the catalytic effect on the char burnout and have thus
decreased the influence of oxygen content of the surrounding gas. High ash content and possible, yet unexplored, physical structure-related reasons (pore sizes, porosity, tortuosity) may have been responsible for the lower char temperatures.

The torrefied pine sawdust (TOPI) chars burned hotter than the other biomass chars under all oxy-fuel conditions. Differences in the combustion behavior of the pine sawdust (PI) and the torrefied pine sawdust (TOPI) were very small. However, a more luminous flame was observed in the case of TOPI (Fig. 4). This is perhaps because a lower amount of CO\(_2\) was supposedly released with the TOPI volatiles as a consequence of the torrefaction pre-treatment while the hydrogen content of the torrefied sample and, therefore, the release of hydrocarbon gases (e.g. CH\(_4\) and C\(_2\)H\(_6\)) remained unchanged [15]. The CO\(_2\) dilutes the rest of the combustible gases and produces lower luminosity flames. The TOPI biomass released a greater amount of energy per unit mass during combustion due to the fact that its calorific value was higher than that of raw biomass (PI). This effect was confirmed by the typically hotter char temperatures of TOPI.

Average volatile burnout times of the original PI were longer; however, the char combustion times were generally similar, perhaps a little shorter for the original PI in comparison with the torrefied TOPI under oxy-fuel atmospheres.

3.6 On the differences of single-biomass and single-coal particle combustion

Several recent studies in this laboratory have focused on the combustion behavior of coal particles of all ranks in conventional (air) and oxy-fuel conditions [30, 31, 32, 48]. In comparison to coal, biomass particles exhibit certain physical and chemical differences, the most prominent of which have as follows: (1) Raw biomasses have a highly fibrous nature. (2) The biomass particles are less dense than coal particles,
therefore the total mass burnt for the same nominal particle size is lower. (3) Biomass has much lower heating value than coals [20], see also Tables 1 and Table A2 in Appendix 2. (4) Biomass has a different elemental composition with a high proportion of oxygen. See Tables 1 and Table A2 in Appendix 2. (5) The proximate composition of the biomass is different, i.e., biomass contains a higher proportion of volatile matter and a smaller proportion of fixed carbon than coal. Biomasses contain 70-80% volatile matter while most of the volatile matter contents of coals studied in this laboratory did not exceed 45%, see Table 1 and Table A2 in Appendix 2. The aforementioned structural and chemical composition disparities resulted in the following combustion behavior differences between biomass studied herein and coal reported in Refs [32, 34, 48]:

(i) Pyrometric combustion intensities
The radiation intensity signals captured by the pyrometer during the combustion of biomass particles were weaker than those captured during combustion of coal particles under identical experimental conditions [48], especially during the phase of volatiles combustion. Moreover, the variability of the pyrometric signals of biomass particles was higher than those of coal, as there were more particle-to-particle size variations and shape irregularities in the biomass samples.

(ii) Volatile particle envelope flame combustion
The compounds released from biomass in the form of volatiles are different than those from coal. The cellulose and hemicellulose components of biomass decompose to small molecules in the form of volatile gases, tars and pyrolytic water [54]. These volatiles are
generally lighter than those formed from coal [23]. The volatile flames of biomasses were observed to be typically transparent, and nearly non-sooty, similar to those of low rank coals [32], whereas those of the bituminous coals were sooty. The percentage of bonded oxygen in biomasses is much higher than that of coals (Table 1 and Table A2). Therefore, the volatiles contain high quantities of CO and CO$_2$ as well as hydrogen and light hydrocarbons [24, 50, 51]. They also contain smaller amounts of tars and other condensables than the volatiles of coal particles. To the contrary, bituminous coal volatiles contain mostly heavy hydrocarbons, tars, condensables and light hydrocarbons [53]. In previous studies [31, 32, 33, 48], bituminous coal particles released a high amount of volatiles, with long soot-containing contrails forming in the wake of each settling particle whereas lignite coal particles released light hydrocarbons and CO, resulting in occasional, faint and brief volatile flames with a large extent of char fragmentation. Anthracite coals released very small amount of volatiles and did not establish an envelope flames. Biomass particles burned with distinctive volatiles flames without contrails. Unlike the combustion behavior of coals, which differs widely with rank, type and seam, the combustion behavior of biomasses from the four different sources of this study appears to be more unified. The ignition of biomass volatiles started earlier (shorter ignition delays) and their ensuing combustion occurred in envelope flames that were spherical and peripherally-uniform, even in the cases of elongated or otherwise irregularly-shaped particles. Furthermore, as biomass has a lower apparent density than coal (representative values for which have been reported as 1.32 g cm$^{-3}$ for bituminous, 1.30 g cm$^{-3}$ for subbituminous and 1.29 g cm$^{-3}$ for lignite [56], whereas for biomasses is typically in the range of 0.4 - 0.5 g cm$^{-3}$ [57], the burning biomass particles were very buoyant and settled very slowly in the furnace. The
observed volatile flame burnout times (Fig. 8) of the biomasses were generally much
degree than those of the coal flames; for instance, they were lengthier than those of
bituminous coal particles of comparable nominal size by a factor of eight [30, 32],
which is much higher than the ratio of their volatile contents. This is likely due to the
fact that because of their elongated shapes and, thus, their higher aspect ratios, biomass
particles tend to be overall bigger than coal of the same size cut.

(iii) Char combustion
Whereas coal chars typically exhibited a rather uniform temperature profile during their
combustion before experiencing a slow decrease towards burnout [30, 31, 32, 48], the
temperature profile of biomass chars increased throughout their combustion history.
Examples of biomass (bagasse) char and coal (bituminous) particle temperature-time
profiles are illustrated in Figure 9 (the temperature of the volatile envelope flames of the
biomass particles is not included in this plot, as it is currently under investigation). In
general, biomass chars burned at a somewhat higher average temperature than
bituminous char particles (by 50-100 K), as can be attested by comparing the results
shown in Fig.8 and those in Refs. [30, 31, 32, 48]. Biomass char particles burned with
lower average temperatures (by 100-200 K) than lignite char particles in similar gas
environments. Moreover, the biomass char burnout times were much briefer than the
coal particle chars burnout times due to lower fixed carbon content of the biomass.
Biomass chars have higher reactivity than coal chars, as reported by Matsumoto et al.
[58] and Ollero et al. [59]. Matsumoto et al. [58] showed that a woody biomass char had
five times higher reactivity than a sub-bituminous coal char at high heating rates
encountered in an entrained flow reactor and gas temperatures in the range of 1200-
1450 K. The higher reactivity of biomass char was partly attributed to faster char
gasification reactions, such as C(s) + CO\textsubscript{2} \rightarrow 2CO. This was also related to the higher
concentration of alkali metals, which act as a catalyst and to the higher oxygen to
carbon ratio in biomass char [58, 59].

4. Conclusions

Biomass particles were burned in a laboratory-scale drop-tube furnace at 1400 K in air
and in different oxy-fuel atmospheres, simulated by dry O\textsubscript{2}/CO\textsubscript{2} gases. Experiments
were performed under quiescent gas conditions. Striking differences were observed
between the combustion behavior of the biomass particles burned herein and those of
ccoal particles of all ranks investigated in previous studies in this laboratory. The
biomass particles released large amounts of volatiles that burned in the form of
spherical envelope flames. Ensuing biomass char combustion produced stronger
pyrometric signals than the combustion of the volatile matter. Increasing the oxygen
mole fraction in CO\textsubscript{2} reduced the luminosity of the flames. The combustion intensity of
the biomass was stronger in air (21% O\textsubscript{2}-79% N\textsubscript{2}) than in an oxy-fuel atmosphere with
the same oxygen mole fraction (21% O\textsubscript{2}-79% CO\textsubscript{2}). Increasing the oxygen mole
fraction in the CO\textsubscript{2} background gas enhanced the combustion intensity of biomass. It
decreased the burnout times of volatiles and of the char residues, whereas it increased
the temperature of the burning char particles. Similar trends were observed for all tested
biomass samples from disparate sources, including the raw and torrefied pine sawdust.
Thus, unlike the combustion behavior of coals, which differs widely with rank, type and
seam, the combustion behavior of biomasses from the four different sources of this
study appears more unified. Olive residue chars (OR) burned at lower temperatures than
the other biomass fuels, whereas bagasse chars (SCB) burned at higher temperatures than the other biomass fuels. The volatile flames of biomass particles are less sooty than those of bituminous coal particles.

Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge financial assistance from the US-NSF award CBET-0755431. J. Riaza acknowledges funding from the Government of the Principado de Asturias (Severo Ochoa program). M.V. Gil and L. Álvarez acknowledge funding from the CSIC JAE programme co-financed by the European Social Fund.

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Appendix 1

Calculation of the oxygen mole fraction at the biomass char particle surface and of the diffusion-limited burnout time.

Based on a derivation by Levendis et al.[26], the average oxygen mole fraction on the char particle surface can be estimated by the following formula:

\[
y_{O_2} = (4/3 + y_{O_2,\infty})e^{-\frac{a_i^0RT_m\rho_c}{56P_{tot}D_y\rho}} - 4/3
\]  

(A.1)

In this relation, \(y_{O_2}\) is assumed to be an average value. \(a_i, \rho_c, T_m, D, t_B, R \) and \(P_{tot}\) are initial burning particle radius, initial particle density, film temperature between the char particle and flow, bulk diffusion coefficient of \(O_2\) in the diluents gas, observed particle burnout time, gas universal constant and total pressure of the system, respectively.

If \(y_{O_2}\) is zero or close to zero, the combustion takes place at diffusion limited conditions (Regime III), whereas if \(y_{O_2}\) is close to \(y_{O_2,\infty}\), the combustion happens at kinetically limited condition (Regime I). Any \(y_{O_2}\) in-between the above values results in kinetic-diffusion limited condition (Regime II).

The time \(t_B\) required for combustion under diffusion control (Regime III) becomes [26]:

\[
t_B = \frac{\rho_c(a_i^3-a_f^3)RT_m}{56D} \frac{1}{\ln(1+\frac{3}{4}y_{O_2,\infty})}
\]  

(A.2)

In Eq. A.2, \(a_f\) is the final particle radius after extinction, which herein is estimated based on the ash content in the parent biomass composition.

For instance, for sugarcane bagasse burning in air with the observed parameters of this study \(a_0=15(\mu m), a_i=2.5(\mu m), \rho_c=0.2(g/cm^3), T_m=1600\) K, \(P_{tot}=1\) (atm), \(D_{O_2-N_2}=3.49\) (cm\(^2\)/s), \(t_B-obs=18\) (ms), \(R=82\) (atm.cm\(^3\)/mol.K), oxygen mole fraction on the particle
surface from A.1, $y_{O_2}$, was calculated to be 0.08 and the diffusion limited burnout time from A.2, $t_B$, was calculated to be 10 (ms). On the other hand, for sugarcane bagasse burning in 21%O$_2$-79%CO$_2$, $T_m=1500$ K, $D_{O_2-CO_2}=2.73$(cm$^2$/s), $t_{B-obs}=23$ (ms) and the rest of parameters are similar to those of combustion in air. In this case, oxygen mole fraction on the particle surface from A.1, $y_{O_2}$, was 0.09 and the diffusion limited burnout time from A.2, $t_B$, was 12 (ms). Therefore, under the experimental conditions of this study, combustion of bagasse in either air or oxy-fuel condition (21%O$_2$-79%CO$_2$) took place in Regime II which is a combination of kinetic and diffusion limited cases. From Eq. A.2 for diffusion limited case, the burnout time is inversely proportional to the mass diffusivity of oxygen in the diluents gas and this seems to be the case in the current work, because:

$$\frac{t_{B-obs-Air}}{t_{B-obs-21\%O_2-79\%CO_2}} = \frac{18}{23} = 0.78 \approx \frac{D_{O_2-CO_2}}{D_{O_2-N_2}} = \frac{2.73}{3.49} = 0.77$$

The resulted observed burnout times and calculated diffusion limited burnout times versus oxygen concentration for sugarcane bagasse in different oxy-fuel condition is shown in Fig. A.1.

**Appendix 2**

**Characterization of coals used for comparison with the biomasses [32, 48].**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Proximate Analysis (wt%, db)</th>
<th>Ultimate Analysis (wt%, daf)</th>
<th>HHV (MJ/kg)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ash</td>
<td>V.M.</td>
<td>F.C.*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OR</td>
<td>Olive residue</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>71.9</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCB</td>
<td>Sugarcane bagasse</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PI</td>
<td>Pine sawdust</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>79.8</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOPI</td>
<td>Torrefied pine sawdust</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>75.5</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* determined by difference
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Rank/Type</th>
<th>Proximate Analysis (wt%, db)</th>
<th>Ultimate Analysis (wt%, daf)</th>
<th>HHV (MJ/kg)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ash</td>
<td>V.M.</td>
<td>F.C.*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC [53]</td>
<td>Anthracite</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>82.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSOC-1451 [34]</td>
<td>Bituminous</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DECS-26 [34]</td>
<td>Sub-bituminous</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSOC-1443 [34]</td>
<td>Lignite</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* determined by difference
Figure 1. Physical appearance of the biomasses residue; (a) original biomasses, as received, (b) ground and sieved, (c) SEM micrographs detailing individual particles.
Figure 2. Schematic of the experimental setup and diagnostic facilities. (a) Laminar-flow, electrically-heated drop-tube furnace (DTF), (b) Three-color optical pyrometer, (c) High speed camera (NAC) fitted with a long-range microscope lens (Infinity K2).
Figure 3. The centerline furnace gas temperature under quiescent conditions (no gas flow)[47].
a) Sugar cane bagasse
Bagasse – AIR

Bagasse - Oxy 21%

Bagasse - Oxy 30%

Bagasse - Oxy 35%

Bagasse - Oxy 50%
b) Olive residue

OR - Air

OR - Oxy 21%

OR - Oxy 30%

OR - Oxy 35%

OR - Oxy 50%
c) Pine sawdust

PI - Air

PI - Oxy 21%

PI - Oxy 30%

PI - Oxy 35%

PI - Oxy 50%
Figure 4. High-speed, high magnification cinematography images of single particles of biomass residues in different atmospheres. Displayed numbers under each image represent frame times of combustion in milliseconds. Biomass samples are: a) sugarcane bagasse (SCB), b) olive residue (OR), c) pine sawdust (PI), and d) torrefied pine sawdust (TOPI).
Figure 5. Three-color pyrometry – generated signals from single particles of biomass residues burning in air. Biomass samples are: pine sawdust (PI), torrefied pine sawdust (TOPI), sugarcane bagasse (SCB), and olive residue (OR).
**Figure 6.** Average burnout times for the volatiles of three of the biomass fuels of this work (sugarcane bagasse (SCB), pine sawdust (PI) and torrefied pine sawdust (TOPI)) burning in air and in different oxy-fuel atmospheres.
Figure 7. Average burnout times for the chars of all the biomass fuels of this work (sugarcane bagasse (SCB), pine sawdust (PI), torrefied pine sawdust (TOPI and olive residue (OR)) burning in air and in different oxy-fuel atmospheres.
Figure 8. Average deduced temperatures for the burning chars of all the biomass fuels of this work (pinesawdust (PI), torrefied pine sawdust (TOPI), sugarcane bagasse (SCB), and olive residue (OR)) burning in air and in different oxy-fuel atmospheres.
Figure 9. Deduced temperature-time profiles of single particles of biomass (sugar cane bagasse) and coal (bituminous) burning in air. The original particle sizes are 75-90µm for both fuels. The biomass char size is 25-30µm. The temperature of biomass char increases during the combustion history of the particle whereas that of the coal char remains mostly constant.
Figure A.1. Comparison of experimentally-observed and calculated diffusion-limited burnout times of sugarcane bagasse char particles, plotted against bulk oxygen mole fraction.