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# Upgrading argo-pellets by torrefaction and co-pelletization

process using food waste as a pellet binder

 Feihong Guo<sup>1</sup>, Jun Chen<sup>2</sup>, Yi He<sup>3</sup>, Jabbar Gardy<sup>3</sup>, Yahui Sun<sup>1</sup>, Jingyu Jiang<sup>1</sup>, Xiaoxiang Jiang <sup>1<sup>\*\*</sup></sup>
 <sup>1</sup>Engineering Laboratory for Energy System Process Conversion and Emission Control Technology of Jiangsu Province, School of Energy and Mechanical Engineering, Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing, 210042, China
 <sup>2</sup> Rural Technology Service Center of Jiangsu Association of Science and Technology, Nanjing, 210019, China

<sup>3</sup> School of Chemical and Process Engineering, Faculty of Engineering and Physical Sciences, University
 of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9DT, UK

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### 12 ABSTRACT:

This work presents a study on the properties of upgraded argo-pellets produced 13 by torrefaction and co-pelletization process, where starch-rich food waste was used as 14 15 a pellet binder. The impact of blending coal cutting waste (CCW), torrefaction pre-16 treatment and the use of starch binder on the mechanical properties of argo-pellets were examined. The resulting physical properties of argo-pellets were significantly 17 improved. Thermal decomposition of corn straw (CS) can be divided into three stages. 18 Co-pelleting with a small amount of CCW promote the combustion of CS, showing an 19 20 improved thermodynamic characteristic of torrefied corn straw (TCS). Torrefaction reduces the difference of heat distribution, improving the adaptability of pellet fuel in 21 22 operation. Both co-pelletization and torrefaction processes lead to reduced 23 concentrations of  $NO_x$  and  $SO_2$ , increased calorific value of fuel and elevated  $CO_2$ emission per unit mass, which are conducive to pollutants reduction and 24 thermodynamic qualities of argo-pellets. Moreover, life cycle assessment (LCA) 25 analysis indicated that more energy input was required for co-pelletization and 26 torrefaction pre-treatment, consequently leading to an enhanced energy return ratio. 27

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KEYWORDS: Argo-pellets, torrefaction, co-pelletization, starch binder, life cycle
 analysis, energy

### 32 **1. INTRODUCTION**

33 China has become the world's largest emitter of carbon, nitrogen and sulphur 34 oxides due to its over-reliance on coal [1], which calls for the development of alternative energy conversion from biomass. This is further promoted by a series of 35 policies made recently in China [2]. The wastes in agricultural production and wood 36 industry are the main source of biomass [3]; however, direct utilization of biomass 37 feedstock is often not practical, this is due to its low energy density, unstable 38 combustion and difficulties in storage and transportation while biomass pellet 39 40 presents a much higher bulk density, making it suitable for long distance 41 transportation and storage. Together with its high calorific value in combustion [4, 5] and sustainable characteristics of biomass, application of biomass pellet is at the 42 center of both scientific research and industrial practice. 43

To date, the majority of biomass pellets are produced from woody biomass due to 44 its high calorific value and low ash content [6]. However, the production of wood-45 based raw material cannot meet the growing market in demand. It is thus necessary 46 to search for alternative feedstock for biomass pelletization. For non-woody biomass, 47 48 agricultural waste could be of significant use due to its wide availability and low price. 49 This is especially the case in China, as approximately 0.24 billion tons of corn stover (CS) are produced yearly, accounting for 32% of the total crop residues [7, 8]. Agro-50 pellets made from corn stover usually have a lower calorific value, a lower density and 51 a higher ash content than that of woody pellets, which can be categorised as a low-52 grade pellet fuel. There is thus a need to improve the quality of agro-pellets, which can 53 54 be potentially achieved by pelleting various blends and torrefaction [9, 10]. Previous studies have shown that component complementarity and mechanical interlocking 55 between particles were significantly enhanced through biomass blending [11], 56 consequently leading to a better pelleting performance. For example, Djatkov et al. 57 58 [12] showed that blending with spruce wood improves the mechanical properties of corn stover pellets. Similar results were reported by Stasiak et al. [3] and Harun et al. 59 [13]. The calorific capacity of straw pellet was found to increase with the addition of 60 higher calorific value pine sawdust. Blending can also reduce compaction energy and 61 thus consumes less energy in the pressing process [13, 14]. In addition to 62

wood/agricultural residues blending, the mixing of various agricultural wastes [15, 16],
co-pelleting of agro-wastes with other residues, such as sewage sludge, pyrolysis oil
and hydrolysis lignin, has also been reported [17-20]. Table 1 lists a short summary of
biomass blending reported in the literature.

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 Table 1. Blending biomass pellets: literature reviews

Biomass feedstocks	Research objectives	Experimental conclusions	Ref.
Spruce wood and corn stover	The influences on the mechanical-physical properties of corn stover pellets	Blending with wood improved the mechanical properties of corn stover pellets	[12]
Pine sawdust and wheat/ rapeseed straws	Mechanical and combustion properties of pellets made of pine sawdust mixed with straws	Pellet density、strength and calorific capacity increased with the addition of pine sawdust	[3]
Pine sawdust, spruce, timothy hay and switchgrass	The energy requirement for the pelletizing of agricultural biomass	Blending helped to improve the quality of pellets and lower the compaction energy	[13]
Rice husk and wheat straw	Physicochemical and energetic characterization of pellets produced with rice husks and wheat straws	Biomass blends improve the quality and combustion characteristics of the pellets	[16]
Pepper, perilla, rice chaff, and spent coffee	The possibility of pellets made from agricultural by-product	Perilla coffee pellets (PRCP) were determined as A-grade owing to higher durability.	[15]
Sewage sludge and biomass (Chinese fir, camphor and rice straw)	Energy consumption and properties of sludge mixed pellets and pure biomass pellets	Biomass-sludge mixed pellets reduced energy input, increased hardness and improved the combustion characteristics	[20]

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Compared with wood and agricultural wastes and other residues, coal fuel has a higher calorific value. Heat value and combustion characteristics of argo-pellets can thus be improved by co-pelleting with coal or coal waste. As the main by-product of coal mining, coal cutting waste (CCW) is characterised with a high-moisture content 74 and small particle sizes, presenting serious challenges in collection, storage and transportation [21, 22]. For example, in open areas, stored coal cutting waste may 75 pollute ground water and transfer to far places by natural means. Large amounts of 76 77 unburnt fine particles are released to the atmosphere in the conventional combustion 78 systems, causing environmental problems if they are not controlled properly. In this 79 regard, pelletizing or co-pelletizing allows for an effective use of coal cutting waste [23-80 25]. Atay and Ekinci [26] characterised the pellets made from lignite coal powder and pine bark. Experimental results showed that the added coal increased combustion 81 82 temperature and decreased the maximum weight loss rate, leading to an improved 83 combustion efficiency. Janewicz et al. [27] produced pellets from biomass-lignite 84 blends and found that blending pellets present good combustion characteristics but poor water resistance. Both compressive strength and water resistance decreased with 85 86 the increase of biomass proportion [28]. However, contrary conclusions have been 87 drawn by Yaman et al. [29] and Ozyuguran et al. [30], where the mechanical properties of lignite briquettes were improved by adding biomass while excessive lignite is 88 89 detrimental to briquetting by decreasing impact resistance and durability of pellets [9, 26]. It can thus be concluded that blending with coal or coal waste can improve the 90 91 calorific value of biomass pellets but may not contribute to the mechanical properties of briquettes. For different biomass and coal materials, it is necessary to provide a 92 guideline on the selection of blending proportion during the co-pelleting process. In 93 94 this study, torrefied argo-biomass and fine coal particles (coal cutting waste) are selected, with their physical and chemical properties partially changed. 95

96 In addition to blending with coal cutting waste, torrefaction pre-treatment can improve calorific value and combustion characteristics of argo-pellets [31, 32]. During 97 the torrefaction process, biomass feedstock is heated to the temperature of 200 $\sim$ 98 300 °C with low oxygen concentration [33]. Dehydration breaks large numbers of 99 100 hydroxyl bonds and reduces hydrogen bonding between biomass and water molecules, 101 consequently improving the hydrophobicity of biomass [34]. With the removal of light volatile fraction that contains most of the oxygen in biomass, heating value of the 102 103 remaining biomass is gradually increased. Decomposition of hemicellulose destroys the fiber structure of dried biomass, which benefits biomass crushing and improves 104 grinding characteristics [35]. It is worthwhile to note that previous studies are mainly 105

106 focused on the underlying mechanisms of torrefaction [36, 37] and factors affecting its performance [38] while less attention has been paid to the efficiency of energy 107 utilization for torrefied biomass. This can be readily achieved by life cycle assessment 108 109 (LCA). Adams et al. [39] assessed torrefaction process in wood pellets production, and 110 found out that torrefied pellets reduced energy consumption: the cumulative energy per kg of modelled torrefied pellets is 18% lower than for the equivalent wood pellets, 111 with primary energy input for torrefied pellets is 43% lower than wood pellets. Rivera 112 113 et al. [40] identified the energy balance of torrefied microalgal biomass production 114 based on a life cycle approach. The energy analysis showed that torrefaction improves the energy content of the microalgal biomass from 20.22 to 27.93 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup>. 115 Torrefaction, among all other scenarios, had the least energy requirement by 20% and 116 117 less. Lin et al. [41] evaluated the energy return on investment (EROI) to determine the 118 sustainability of torrefied biochar. As the torrefaction temperature increased, EROI index gradually increased from 13.1 to 22.9 for the Ananas comosus peel and from 119 10.9 to 21.9 for the Annona squamosa peel. Fantozzi and Buratti [42] presented a LCA 120 study on household heat from the combustion of wood pellets, where energy return 121 index was calculated. It was reported that energy return index was equal to 3.25 for 122 biomass chain, clearly above the breakpoint, equal to 1. However, for the pellet 123 production process, mass and energy flows were measured on an existing Italian 124 pelleting plant which was completely different from the domestic situation. A number 125 126 of articles have looked at LCA to quantify and compare the energy performance of biomass pellets, but a wide variation of results can be found in the literature due to 127 the selection of methods, the source of data, the type of raw materials, etc. [43]. In 128 contrast there have only been limited studies which attempt to evaluate the energy 129 efficiency of this innovative argopellets. This paper addresses some of the existing 130 research gaps by performing LCA of upgraded pellets and comparing the results with 131 132 different processing conditions.

133 It should be noted that mechanical properties and energy efficiency of argo-134 pellets are still not comparable with that coal particles or wood pellets if upgraded 135 alone by blending or torrefaction. Other processes to improve the utilization level of 136 agricultural waste are still necessary. One of the possible solutions is to combine 137 blending with torrefaction which not only enables a high calorific value and energy

efficiency, but it also improves mechanical properties of argo-pellets. Since pelleting is 138 usually operated at high pressure and temperature, more energy is required to 139 increase attractive forces between particles. Si et al. [44] showed that the addition of 140 141 coal tar is able to improve mechanical durability of biomass pellets at ambient 142 temperature and low pressure. Attempts have also been made to use food waste as 143 binder in engineering applications [45, 46]. For example, starch-rich food waste contributes to granulation, increasing mutual adhesion between particles and 144 145 consequently reducing energy consumption in pressing and improving the stability of 146 pellets [47]. Although it is feasible in theory, the use of starch-rich food waste as a 147 binder has not been verified experimentally.

The objective of this study is to investigate the properties of upgraded argo-pellets manufactured from torrefied corn stover and coal cutting waste, with the use of starch-rich food waster as binder. The effects of coal cutting waste blending, biomass torrefaction and food waste additive on argo-pellets were systematically examined, together with their mechanisms. Experimental conclusions drawn in this work can provide guidelines for argo-pellets optimisation and upgrading in the future.

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# 155 2. Materials and methods

## 156 **2.1. Materials**

Corn stover used in this study was collected from Henan Province, China. Stover 157 feedstock was washed with distilled water, dried for 36 hours at 105 °C and then 158 ground to powders to ensure a particle size smaller than 2 mm. Torrefaction was 159 conducted in a horizontal sliding tube furnace (TL1200, BYT). After torrefaction at 200 °C 160 for 1.0 hour, the heating furnace was slid back and torrefied corn stover (TCS) was 161 cooled in a quartz tube. Coal cutting waste from a coal processing plant in Anhui 162 Province was used in this experiment. Starch-rich food waste was mainly from bread 163 and pancake, which prepared for the binder after simple cleaning, drying, and grinding. 164

The contents of carbon and hydrogen were quantified by Liebig method (ISO 625:1996). Nitrogen concentration was determined by Semi-micro Kjeldahl method (ISO 333:1996). Infrared spectrometry (ISO 19579:2006) was used to quantify the sulfur content, and the remaining oxygen percentage was calculated by the difference according to  $O_* = 100 - (C + H + N + S)$ . The proximate analysis was referred to GB/T

212-2008 standards [48]. According to method ASTM E 711, the calorific value was
determined as the quantity of heat liberated by combustion of a unit quantity of fuel
with oxygen in a standard bomb calorimeter. Three replicates were measured for each
raw material. Table 2 lists the measured properties of raw materials used in this study.

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 Table 2. Ultimate and proximate analysis of CS、 TCS and CCW

	Proximate analysis (wt %, ad.)				Ultimate analysis (wt %, ad.)				$\mathbf{Q}_{net,ad}$	
Parameter	$M_{ad}$	А	V	FC	С	Н	0*	Ν	S	(MJ/kg)
CS	7.93	5.98	73.59	12.5	41.57	4.93	52.64	0.66	0.20	13.42
TCS	1.37	6.52	78.18	13.93	46.23	4.49	48.59	0.55	0.14	17.71
CCW	6.66	14.75	30.61	47.98	63.77	3.68	31.24	0.81	0.50	24.34

176 Notes: O\*=100%-C-H-N-S; ad: air dry basis

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#### 178 2.2. Pelleting process

179 Corn stover and coal cutting waste were mixed with the set mass ratios of 9:1, 8:2, 7:3, 6:4 and 5:5. In order to maintain the basic characteristics of argo-pellets, the 180 addition ratio of coal cutting waste was controlled below 50%. Mixture of each 181 proportion was conditioned by adding a fixed amount of starch binder (5% mass), 182 according to the limits of DIN 14961. To compare the effects of starch binder and 183 torrefaction pre-treatment on biomass materials, the other two groups of argo-pellets 184 (one group processed without starch binder and the other group torrefied corn straw) 185 186 were manufactured at the same blending ratios. These pellets were produced using a laboratory pelletizing unit (PC-10T), made by Tianjin Jingtuo Instrument Technology 187 Co., Ltd, with press channel of 10.0 mm and a diameter of 8.0 mm. The whole pelleting 188 189 process is illustrated in Fig. 1.



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Fig. 1. The pelleting process for pellet samples

## 193 2.3. Mechanical properties of pellets

The properties of pellet samples were measured according to Pellet Fuel Institute 194 (PFI) Standard (2011). Fig. 2 illustrates the pellets preparation and analysis processes. 195 The length (L) and diameter (D) of randomly selected biomass pellets were measured 196 with a caliper (CD-56C, Aurora, III). Each measured L and D was recorded to the nearest 197 0.01 mm. True density (TD) was calculated by the ratio of mass to volume. Due to the 198 199 cylindrical pellet shape, the volume formula was calculated according to the columnar 200 particles. Pellet integrity was established according to the improved PN-G-04651 [49]. 201 Pellet samples passed parabolic test (2 m height) and staircase test (14 standard stair face) successively to determine the loss of fine material and undamaged pellets. Then, 202 the pellet integrity was calculated as the percentage of undamaged pellet weight to 203 the total sample weight. Water absorbability was defined by the standard PN-G-04652 204 [49]. Pellet samples were taken out from water for two hours, and then placed in a 205 natural indoor environment for a period of time (3 or 7 days). The difference between 206 the sample weight and the initial weight made the measure of this parameter. The 207 208 compressive strength and SEM analysis were completed by KC-3 digital particle strength tester and JSM-5610LV scanning electron microscope (SEM), respectively. 209



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Fig. 2. The flow chart of pellet samples distribution and testing

## 213 2.4. Thermal behaviors of pellets

Thermogravimetric/differential thermal analysis (TG/DTA) experiments were 214 215 performed on a Hitachi synchronous thermal analyzer (STA 449F5®) to characterise 216 thermal properties of samples. In this experiment, 10±0.5 mg material was heated 217 from 25 to 1000 °C at a heating rate of 20 °C/min under 40 mL/min air gas. However, thermogravimetric/mass spectrometry (TG/MS) technique were carried out on 218 Netzsch thermal analyzer (STA 449F3®) coupled with Blazers mass spectrometer 219 (Omnistar 200) to evaluate and characterise of combustion characteristics In each 220 experiment, 100 mL/min of air gas flow rate and 20 °C/min of heating rate was used 221 222 from ambient temperature to 1000 °C. Mass spectrometry system was operated under a vacuum and detected the characteristic fragment ion intensity of the volatiles 223 224 according to respective mass to charge ratios (m/z). The number of m/z signals selected were: 18.03 (H<sub>2</sub>O<sup>+</sup>), 30.00 (NO<sup>+</sup>), 43.94 (CO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>), 46 (NO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>), and 63.96 (SO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup>). For 225 each experimental process, it was done in triplicate for accuracy and the relative error 226 among all the data was controlled within 5%. After all the experiments, thermal data 227 was derived and processed by Origin 8.5 to obtain multiple thermodynamic curves to 228 229 compare the combustion difference of different pellet fuels.

#### 231 **2.5. Life cycle assessment of pellets**

This study aims to quantitatively assess the quality of argo-pellets by life cycle 232 assessment (LCA) meanwhile exploring the feasibility of upgrading argo-pellets. Energy 233 234 Return Ratio (ERR) is the ratio of the amount of usable energy obtained from a resource to the amount of energy expended to produce that net amount of energy 235 236 [50]. The larger the ERR, the greater the net energy output and the higher the energy efficiency. In this study, the reference functional unit was selected as one-ton pellet 237 fuel production. The corresponding calorific value was measured with a standard 238 239 bomb calorimeter. Energy input of production equipment, plant, land and living 240 facilities are not considered. The upstream production data of the material is also 241 ignored, as raw material weight is less than 5%. In addition, waste and disposal are excluded from the boundary. Fig. 3 presents the system boundary for pellets 242 243 production, including three key stages which are: corn planting and coal mining (ST1); 244 feedstocks collection and transportation (ST2); and pellet fuels production (ST3: 245 chopping, drying, and co-pelleting).





Fig. 3. The diagram of system boundary of pellets production

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Table 3 presents the inventory data for corn planting stage per functional unit,

250 without considering output to technosphere. The consumption of raw materials is mainly collected from the calculated results of Henan statistical yearbook and 251 literature [51]. Some necessary background data, such as the generation and 252 253 transportation of raw materials, are derived from Ecoinvent 3.1 database, which is 254 representative of China. As an agricultural waste, the yield of corn stover is 1.2 times 255 of corn while its price is one tenth of corn. Based on the principle of economic distribution [51], the proportion of energy consumption in corn planting allocated to 256 corn and corn stover are 90% and 10%, respectively. For coal mining, the relevant 257 258 energy input data and background data are derived from similar reference [52]. The 259 second stage (ST2) is the collection and transportation of raw material. According to 260 the previous study [51], the average collection distance from fuel plant to corn planting area is set as 15 km, and the distance between fuel plant and coal area is about 50 km. 261 262 Feedstocks are transported by the third-party trucks (Dongfeng, 8t load capacity), with average diesel consumption of 0.15 L/km and load factor of 50%. The last process (ST3) 263 combines chopping, drying, and co-pelleting. Long corn stover is first crushed and 264 dried, and then sprayed with water to adjust the water content approximate 10% 265 before co-pelleting with dried coal cutting waste. Electricity is mainly consumed by 266 267 drying machine, chopping device, and pelleting machine. For torrefied biomass, the power consumption includes vacuum torrefaction equipment. The natural loss and 268 lifespan of various mechanical equipment are not considered in the LCA calculation. 269 The consumed water, electricity, diesel, etc. are calculated according to actual pellets 270 271 processing plant in Henan province, which are listed in Table 4.

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 Table 3.
 Inventory data for corn planting per functional unit (1t pellets)-ST1

· · ·	1 01		· ·	
Item	Total Amount	Unit	Corn	Corn stover
Nitrogen fertilizer (N urea)	15.78	kg	14.2	1.58
Phosphate fertilizer (P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> )	8.844	kg	7.96	0.884
Potassium fertilizer (K <sub>2</sub> O)	6.722	kg	6.05	0.672
Pesticides	0.789	kg	0.71	0.079
Electricity	36.4	kWh	32.76	3.64

Diesel	10.9	L	9.81	1.09

275 **Table 4.** Inventory data for pellet fuels production per functional unit (1t pellets) –ST2 and ST3

Item	Amount	Unit	Description
Corn stover	1100	kg	Used for raw material, loss rate of the whole
			process is about 10%
Diesel (Collection and	0.306	L	Corn stover collection and transportation
transportation)			
Electricity-Drying	32.7	kWh	JTSG1415, Electricity consumption during
			drying
Electricity-Chopping	2.5	kWh	HY-400, Electricity consumption during
			chopping
Electricity-Torrefaction	34.87	kWh	HY-8, Electricity consumption during
			torrefaction
Electricity-Pelleting	93.4	kWh	RGKJ560, Electricity consumption during
			pelleting
Water	22.77	kg	Water spraying in pellets production
Diesel (In-plant	0.12	L	For transportation of material and pellet fuels
transportation)			

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# 277 3. Results and discussion

The photo of manufactured pellet fuels under different process conditions are 278 presented in Fig. 4. As feedstocks are pressed by machine, the particle size of pellets 279 is generally maintained, with a length of 8 mm and a diameter of 10 mm. Most of the 280 281 briquette fuels exhibit excellent formability and integrity, and the color of pellets changes obviously: with an increase of CCW mixing ratio, the color of pellet fuels 282 deepens. Moreover, the color of torrefied pellets (TCS+CCW+5%S) is obviously darker 283 than that of pellets without torrefaction (CS+CCW and CS+CCW+5%S). Theoretically, 284 the darker the color, the higher the calorific value, but this needs to be verified by 285 combustion experiments. The effect of starch-food binder on pellets cannot be 286 identified directly, hence further physical test and analysis are required. 287



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Fig. 4. Pellet fuels under different experimental conditions (CS: corn straw; TCS: torrefied corn
 straw; CCW: coal cutting waste; S: starch-binder)

# 293 3.1 Mechanical properties

# 294 3.1.1 True density

True density is an important parameter for pellet fuels, calculated as the ratio of 295 mass to volume of single pellet. A large true density corresponds to a high transport 296 efficiency and a small storage space [53]. Fig. 5 presents the true densities of various 297 298 pellet fuels. It is obvious that the pellet densities (CS+CCW and CS+CCW+5%S) increase with CCW percentage. The reason can be attributed to the higher density of CCW than 299 that of CS. For torrefied corn stover (TCS), the advantage of high-density CCW is not 300 that obvious. Fig. 5 indicates that pellet density (TCS+CCW+5%S) remains nearly 301 unchanged with the addition of CCW. However, the density of torrefied pellets 302 (TCS+CCW+5%S) is much higher than that without torrefaction. Basically, all pellet 303 fuels can meet the DIN 51731 standard (i.e., 1000 kg/m<sup>3</sup>), except for CS pellets 304 blending with 10% CCW. However, once 10% CCW is mixed with TCS, the pellet density 305 is much higher than 1000 kg/m<sup>3</sup> as a result of torrefaction. 306

The addition of starch binder has a positive impact on pellet density, which is obvious when the CS fraction is less than 70%. The improvement on pellet density is more obvious with further decrease of CS proportion. In contrast, as the proportion of CS is 80% or 90% in **Fig. 5**, the addition of starch binder has little influence on true density. Previous studies have shown that lignin was the main component of selfbinding in stover, which combined with cellulose and hemicellulose to produce pellets by intermolecular attraction and entanglement [54, 55]. It may be speculated that the external starch binder plays the main role in palletization with less CS, and the internal lignin binder will gradually act with increasing CS. However, relevant inferences and assumptions need to be verified in future studies.



Fig. 5. Pellet true density as related to CS/TCS to CCW and starch binder addition (CS: corn straw;
 TCS: torrefied corn straw; CCW: coal cutting waste; S: starch-binder)

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## 321 **3.1.2 Pellet integrity**

Fig. 6 shows that with increasing CCW percentage, the pellet integrity increases 322 first and then decreases. The maximum value of integrity is found at a mixing ratio of 323 (8:2) between CS and CCW. Blending different feedstocks can improve pellet integrity, 324 325 and similar conclusions was also drawn in previous study [56]. Compared with CS, the particle size of CCW is much smaller. The addition of a small amount of CCW fills the 326 gap between CS particles, which contributes to the improvement of pellet forming and 327 integrity. This is especially so for CS without torrefaction. For instance, when CCW 328 blending ratio increases from 10% (9CS:1CCW) to 20% (8CS:2CCW), the pellet integrity 329 is improved by 1% (from 98.2% to 99.2%). In the presence of starch binder 330 (CS+CCW+5%S), particle size is not the only factor affecting pelleting. The integrity of 331

mixed pellets (TCS+CCW+5%S) remains nearly unchanged while the physicochemical properties of torrefied biomass are modified, and the effect of particle size is significantly reduced.

335 Overall, the pellet fuels meet the DIN 1496 class-A requirement (97.5% for integrity). The pellet integrity after torrefaction (TCS+CCW+5%S) is higher than that 336 without torrefaction (CS+CCW+5%S) and the pellet integrity with starch binder 337 (CS+CCW+5%S) is better than that without starch binder (CS+CCW). Corn straw 338 contains chemical extractives, such as low molecular weight fatty acids, waxes, sterols 339 340 and terpenes [57]. When CS material is milled, these chemical substances migrate to 341 particle surface and thus hinders the binding of CS molecules. This phenomenon is 342 called passivation which reduces compression strength and integrity of pellets, as confirmed by Bergstrom et al. [58]. After torrefaction treatment, some of these 343 344 chemical extractives from CS can be removed, thus reducing this passivation effect. 345 This is the reason for the high pellet integrity of pellet fuels (TCS+CCW+5%S). Starch binder mainly includes dextrin, cellulose, free sugar, and pentosan, which plays an 346 important role in pelleting process. The internal forces of pelleting includes attractive 347 force, interfacial force, capillary force, adhesive and cohesive forces, solid bridges of 348 349 particles [59]. Liu et al. [56] found that the predominant bonding was created by solid bridges during palletization. Adding starch additive can strengthen these solid bridges 350 and promote pellet formation. Clearly, the effect of starch binder is dependent on the 351 mixing ratio of CS and CCW. In Fig. 6, with the decrease of CS mixing ratio, the positive 352 effect of starch on integrity is reduced. Even when the proportion of CS is 50%, the 353 addition of starch binder reduces pellet integrity. This may be related to the reaction 354 between starch binder and the components of CS or CCW, resulting in synergy or 355 356 antagonism.





358 359

**Fig. 6.** Pellet integrity as related to CS/TCS to CCW and starch addition (CS: corn straw; TCS: torrefied corn straw; CCW: coal cutting waste; S: starch-binder)

## 361 3.1.3 Compressive strength

Similar to pellet integrity, the compressive strength of pellets rises first and then 362 falls, as shown in Fig. 7. When the mixing ratio of TCS is 70%, the pellet fuel has the 363 maximum compressive strength of 1897.67 N/cm<sup>2</sup>. The addition of starch binder also 364 improves the compressive strength from 1880.67 to 1895.33 N/cm<sup>2</sup>. However, the 365 effect of torrefaction is extremely weak, and the compressive strength remains largely 366 stable, from 1895.33 to 1897.67 N/cm<sup>2</sup>. SEM results in Fig. 8 show that the surface of 367 368 unroasted pellets has an obvious layered structure, mainly due to the spiral extrusion 369 in channel. The material without starch binder (CS+CCW) has rough surface, loose texture and a small amount of gap and pore structures. After the addition of starch-370 binder, the layered structures (CS+CCW+5%S) are more obvious, orderly, and compact. 371 This structural difference caused by starch-binder is the main reason for the 372 improvement of pellet integrity and compressive strength. Torrefied granular fuel 373 (TCS+CCW+5%S) still contains layered structures, but the layered structures are 374 interspersed with partial melting and crosslinking, resulting in the reduction of 375 intermittent space and the enhancement of compactness. This may be the reason why 376 377 torrefied pellets have greater integrity and compressive strength.



Fig. 7. Compressive strength as related to CS/TCS to CCW and starch addition (CS: corn straw;

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TCS: torrefied corn straw; CCW: coal cutting waste; S: starch)





Fig. 8. SEM of pellets (CS: corn straw; TCS: torrefied corn straw; CCW: coal cutting waste; S:

## 385 **3.1.4 Water absorbability**

386 Regardless of whether starch binder is added or not, pellet fuels without torrefaction decompose obviously after soaking in water for 24 hours as shown in Fig. 387 9, indicating that their water resistance stabilities are relatively poor. On the contrary, 388 389 the torrefied fuel presents good water resistance and still has high integrity after soaking for a period of time. This is mainly related to the composition of CS material. 390 Hemicellulose in corn straw is rich in hydroxyl groups, which are the main groups of 391 water absorption [20]. After torrefaction, the hydroxyl groups of corn straw are 392 393 decomposed by heating, which weakens the water absorption function. In addition, 394 the surface of torrefied particles contains some hydrophobic organic matters [20], which can further reduce the water absorption. 395

396 The water absorbability of pellet fuels is closely related to the weak bond between particles and the corresponding pore structure. Fig. 9 plots water 397 absorbability of pellet fuels versus CS/TCS proportion. The water absorption decreases 398 gradually with decreasing proportion of CS (from 90% to 50%). Moreover, water 399 absorption of torrefied pellets (TCS+CCW+5%S) was much less than that of the non-400 torrefied pellets. The presence of starch binder (CS+CCW+5%S) leads to a smaller 401 water absorption than that without starch (CS+CCW). Torrefaction heating destroys 402 403 some hydroxyl groups; therefore, the water absorption is weakened. The addition of 404 starch binder during pelleting process improves the mechanical strength and reduces the pore structures between particles. In general, the above two mechanisms of 405 reducing water absorption are essentially different. The effect of time on the decrease 406 of water absorption is further investigated. It was found that the water absorption of 407 pellet fuels decreases differently with times from 3 to 7 days. Among them, the water 408 absorption of pellets without starch-binder (CS+CCW) decreases the most up to 40 $\sim$ 409 50%, and the decline seems to be related to the proportion of CS. When the CS 410 percentage is the highest, the largest decline is obtained. Moreover, a smaller decrease 411 412 is observed at a lower CS ratio, which is mainly due to the role of hemicellulose in CS. 413 This difference shows that the hydroxyl weak bond is unstable and easy to be affected by external environment. Different from the function of hydroxyl bond, starch-binder 414 mainly acts instantaneously. With the increase of time, water absorption 415

416 (CS+CCW+5%S) decreases, with a reduction range smaller than that without binder
417 (CS+CCW) and a minor influence due to the ratio of CS. In comparison, pellet fuels with
418 the smallest water absorption corresponds to a TCS proportion of 50%, implying that
419 torrefaction greatly improves water resistance and stability of pellet fuels.



Fig. 9. Pellet water absorbability as related to CS/TCS to CCW and starch addition (CS: corn straw;
 TCS: torrefied corn straw; CCW: coal cutting waste; S: starch)

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420

## 424 3.2 Thermal behaviors

## 425 3.2.1 TG-DTG-DTA

Thermogravimetric analysis is an efficient method widely used for the analysis of 426 427 combustion process [60]. Fig. 10 shows the thermal profiles of CS and CCW. The weight 428 loss of CS can be observed in three main stages: first) the dehydration and drying stage 429 ranged from 80 °C to 160 °C; second) the pyrolysis of lignin and cellulose, and the release of volatile matter starting from 160 °C and finishing at 370 °C and third) coke 430 combustion took place between 370 and 470 °C. The first weight-loss stage is mainly 431 due to the evaporation of water molecules. The second stage represents the loss of 432 CO, and the third stage of weight-loss is mainly caused by volatilisation of CO<sub>2</sub>. The 433 final stage was characterised by a slight weight loss, which is mainly caused by the 434 435 further cracking of C-C and C-H bonds. Three weightlessness peaks can be observed 436 from the DTG curves, with the volatile release-combustion peak much larger than the peak of fixed char combustion. This is mainly because the volatile matter of CS is much 437

438 greater than its fixed char, thus showing a higher rate of release and combustion.

The weight loss of CCW combustion can be divided into two stages: dehydration 439 (90  $\sim$  220 °C), and volatile release and fixed char combustion (220  $\sim$  580 °C). The first 440 441 step is weaker than that of CS as the moisture content of CCW is lower than that of CS. 442 The second weight-loss step is related to fixed char, where the weight loss increases 443 with fixed char in CCW. There are two weightlessness peaks on the DTG curves: dehydration peak and the peak of volatile release-combustion and fixed char 444 combustion. Due to the low volatile content and high volatile release temperature of 445 446 CCW (390 ~ 500 °C), the volatile release-combustion peak of CCW is not fully reflected. 447 The volatile release and combustion are always accompanied by the combustion of 448 coal char. There is only one obvious weight loss peak except the dehydration peak on the DTG curves. 449

By comparing the DTG curves of CS and CCW, it can be seen that the combustion process of CS is mainly concentrated in the volatile combustion stage while the combustion process of CCW is mainly concentrated in the fixed carbon combustion stage. Different from the sharp combustion peaks of CS, the volatile release and fixed char combustion peak of CCW shows a shoulder peak.

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456

457

Fig. 10. TG and DTG curves of corn straw/coal cutting waste

458

It can be observed that TG and DTG curves of CS/TCS and CCW blends are arranged in order according to the proportion of feedstocks. As shown in **Fig. 11(a)**, the same first peak is obtained for both, this might be due to the dehydration of

moisture from 80 to 160 °C. Note that the dehydration stage is not analysed here. The 462 combustion process mainly consists of two stages: volatile release-combustion and 463 fixed char combustion. TG curves of blends basically coincide when the temperature 464 465 is lower than 120 °C while differs with a temperature over 120 °C. With the increase 466 of CCW ratio, TG curves move towards the high temperature zone, and the ignition temperature ( $T_i$ ) and burnout temperature ( $T_b$ ) of the mixtures rise gradually, as shown 467 in Table 4. In addition, the weakening of the second weight loss step is more 468 pronounced due to a low volatile content of CCW, and the third step is gradually 469 470 enhanced due to a higher fixed carbon content of CCW than that of CS. Comparing TG 471 curves with or without torrefaction treatment, the second weight loss step is 472 weakened after pre-treatment, indicating that torrefaction is conducive to pyrolysis and volatile precipitation. Torrefaction improves the fuel performance of biomass, 473 474 mainly reflected in the improvement of moisture content, fixed carbon content, and energy density. Torrefaction had a significant impact on the distribution and 475 characteristics of biomass pyrolysis products. The increase of pyrolysis carbon from 476 477 torrefied biomass was mainly due to the large decomposition of hemicellulose and the sharp increase of lignin content, while the lignin pyrolysis products were mainly 478 biochar. 479

According to DGT curves shown in **Fig. 11(b)**, the greater the CS proportion in the 480 mixtures, the higher the volatile content, and the greater peak value of volatile release 481 and combustion. Theoretically, the lower the CCW ratio in the mixtures, the lower the 482 fixed carbon content and the smaller peak value of coke combustion. However, the 483 coke combustion peak is the highest ( $D_{max}$ =23.5 mg/min) when the ratio is 7:3 (CS: 484 CCW). Feedstocks with high carbon content can continuously provide higher heat for 485 486 the combustion process, so as to promote the combustion of fixed carbon or residual samples. Meanwhile, raw materials with high ash content are easy to generate ash 487 shell during burnout stage, which hinders the inward infiltration of oxygen and the 488 outward diffusion of combustion products. The calorific value of CCW is large, but the 489 ash content is also high. Therefore, only selecting the appropriate mixing proportion 490 can help to improve the burnout characteristics of blending pellets. 491



494 Fig. 11. TG and DTG curves of CS/CCW and TCS/CCW at different ratios (CS: corn straw; TCS:
 495 torrefied corn straw; CCW: coal cutting waste)

496

The peak values of volatile release and combustion increases after torrefaction as shown in **Table 5**. This is mainly due to the increase of calorific value of torrefied CS. Torrefied CS combustion preheats CCW and promotes the release of volatile matters, which is conducive to pellets ignition and burnout. However, when the CCW mixing ratio was larger (at 50%), the decrease of DGT peak is not conducive to the overall combustion, which is also related to the high ash content from CCW.

503 DTA curves with exothermic and endothermic areas are presented in **Fig. 12**, 504 which are similar to mass loss trend of TG curves. By integrating the area under DTA 505 curves, the heat release from the entire combustion process can be obtained to 506 understand the thermodynamic behavior. Experimental results showed that the 507 calorific value of pellet fuel can be improved by mixing with CCW (from 13540.8 to 508 19467.1 J/g) and torrefaction pretreatment (form 13973.8 to 18659.1 J/g, from 509 17271.6 to 19264.1 J/g, from 19467.1 to 23049.3 J/g). The corresponding interval of 510 exothermic is devolatilization or combustion (stage 2) and fixed char combustion 511 (stage 3). The endothermic peak is mainly caused by the endothermic volatilization of 512 moisture.

513

Table 5. The combustion characteristics of pellet fuels

		Volatile release and			Char combustion				
Samples			Combustion	l					
campies	Ti	Tp	D <sub>max</sub>	М	Tp	D <sub>max</sub>	М	Tb	
	(°C)	(°C)	(mg/min)	(%)	(°C)	(mg/min)	(%)	(°C)	
CS	252	299	30.2	58.1	406	17.4	26.8	505	
9:1(CS:CCW)	258	299	35.9	53.7	412	19.0	30.5	518	
9:1(TCS:CCW)	261	290	48.2	47	420	10.4	18.9	529	
7:3(CS:CCW)	261	300	28	43.4	402	23.5	42.3	534	
7:3(TCS:CCW)	260	294	38.2	41	390	19	36.1	545	
5:5(CS:CCW)	265	300	13.6	34.6	392	22	52.4	585	
5:5(TCS:CCW)	274	302	9.5	25.4	420	16.3	58	599	
CCW	408	_	_	_	502	9.2	76.5	650	

514 Notes:  $T_{i}$ = ignition temperature;  $T_{p}$ = peak temperature;  $D_{max}$ = the highest combustion peak; M= mass ratio;  $T_{b}$ = 515 burnout temperature.

516

Obviously, the heat peak of pure CS is higher at char combustion stage than that 517 at the volatile combustion stage with a ratio of 2, indicating more heat is released per 518 519 unit weight during coke combustion. Compared with CS combustion, the CCW peaks in the whole DTA curves are smoother in Fig. 12(a). Similar conclusions have been 520 drawn by previous studies [49, 61]. Theoretically, with the addition of CCW, the 521 thermal profiles of CS/CCW will become smoother, as the desired result of combustion 522 of fuel mixtures [48, 62]. Figs. 12(a)-(d) demonstrated that the addition of CCW 523 smoothed CS thermal curves, but the effect was very limited. Moreover, when the 524 525 CCW blending ratio is 30%, the DTA peak of CS/CCW reaches the maximum value of 526 380 uV, which may be related to the synergistic effect of CS and CCW [48]. Compared with original CS, the torrefied CS increased the DTA peak of volatile combustion and 527 decreased the peak of char combustion, and the whole thermal curve tended to be 528 529 smoother. In other words, the combustion of TCS/CCW presents relatively small 530 difference in heat distribution. The use of fuels with small differences in heat



distribution curves can improve the availability of the boiler in operation.

Fig. 12. DTA curves of CS/TCS and CCW at different ratios (a=CS/CCW; b=9:1; c=7:3; d=5:5)

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#### 536 3.2.2 TG-MS

Fig. 13 presents the variation of ion current of various gaseous components with 537 temperature at the same heating rate of 20 °C/min. Moisture vaporised at about 100 °C 538 and displayed a good ion peak as shown in Fig. 13(a). The mass evaporation of water 539 mainly occurred within the temperature range of 200 to 400 °C, corresponding to the 540 volatilization stage[63]. For different pellet fuels, the largest H<sub>2</sub>O peak is observed for 541 pure CS, reaching  $3.8 \times 10^{-9}$  A/mg. Because the water content of CCW (6.66%) is 542 slightly lower than that of CS (7.93%), when they are mixed up to produce the new 543 blending pellets (0.7CS:0.3CCW), there is a slight decrease in H<sub>2</sub>O peak. Similarly, after 544 torrefaction treatment, the moisture ratio of CS decreases sharply (1.37%) and the H<sub>2</sub>O 545 peak of blending pellets (0.7TCS:0.3CCW) is the smallest. Biomass is mainly composed 546 of cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin, and their contents affect the moisture release 547 548 process directly. Hemicellulose begins to decompose and release water molecule

approximately at 200 °C, while the temperature for cellulose and lignin is higher, about 250 °C [64]. However, most of water was lost after torrefaction, thereby the  $H_2O$  peak is not very prominent compared with the case without torrefaction.

552 The  $CO_2$  ion profiles are distributed in the entire combustion process, as shown 553 in **Fig. 13(b)**. Two prominent peaks of  $CO_2$  can be found between 200 and 600 °C, which are attributed to the decomposition of anhydrides, phenols, quinones, carbonates, 554 carbonyls and ethers [65]. Note that there is a slightly different peak in the range of 555 600 to 800 °C. This indicates that carbonates or covered carbon in ash is decomposed 556 557 at high temperatures during combustion. For different pellet fuels, it is obvious that 558 both blending CCW and biomass torrefaction shift the curve towards right, implying 559 that a higher burnout temperature is required for fuels burnout. This change is mainly related to the increase of carbon content in pellet fuel, which would consequently 560 561 cause an increase in carbon dioxide emission.

Fuel nitrogen mainly exists in the form of gaseous nitrogen, tar nitrogen and char nitrogen. The main products in volatilization stage are volatile nitrogen and char nitrogen, in which volatile nitrogen is composed of gaseous nitrogen and tar nitrogen. Gaseous nitrogen (NH<sub>3</sub>, HCN, HNCO) can be further converted to NO, in which partial NO is oxidised to NO<sub>2</sub>, or N<sub>2</sub> is generated under the reduction of hydrocarbons and coke. At high temperature, char nitrogen is further oxidised through combustion reaction to produce NO and NO<sub>2</sub> [66].

569 Elemental analysis in **Table 2** shows that the content of nitrogen in CCW is greater than that in CS. In theory, the combustion of CS mixed with CCW will release more 570 nitrogen compounds. However, when the temperature is low (<400°C), nitrogen 571 mainly exists in the form of gas-phase volatiles, and CS itself contains more volatile 572 573 components, thereby it presents a very obvious large NO peak in Fig. 13(c). With the increase of temperature, a relatively gentle NO peak appears on the CS curve, which 574 is because most of the nitrogen precipitates in the form of volatiles and a small amount 575 exists in char. In the temperature range of 400 °C - 650 °C, the content of char nitrogen 576 in CCW is higher, and presents an obvious NO peak compared with CS. When the 577 temperature reaches about 650 °C, the ion current of NO and NO<sub>2</sub> increase briefly in 578 579 Fig. 13(c) and(d), respectively. A portion of nitrogen-containing compounds exited as 580 the nitrate or covered organic in CS and CCW [63]. As the temperature rises, nitrogencontaining compounds decomposes to form nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>2</sub> and NO). Meanwhile,
NO<sub>2</sub> is reduced to NO on the coke surface at high temperature. It can be confirmed by
Fig. 13(d) that the concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> decreases significantly at the same
temperature. When the temperature is higher than 700 °C, the higher the carbon
content, the more carbon reacts with NO<sub>2</sub> and the more NO is generated. Compared
with the raw material CS, CCW blending and torrefaction both can improve the carbon
content of pellet fuel.

During combustion, the formation of sulfur oxides is related to the occurrence 588 589 form, temperature and composition of sulfur. In the devolatilization stage, sulfur 590 oxides mainly come from organic sulfur, and sulfur oxides are mainly the 591 decomposition of inorganic sulfur during char combustion. As shown in Fig. 13(e), SO<sub>2</sub> gas is mainly produced in the volatiles release and combustion stage. Due to the low 592 593 sulfur content in CS, there is only a weak SO<sub>2</sub> peak at 300 - 500 °C, and the corresponding peak value is  $5.0 \times 10^{-13}$  A/mg. The sulfur proportion of CCW is 2.5 times 594 that of CS, thereby the SO<sub>2</sub> emission peak of co-combustion of CS and CCW is very 595 sharp (1.5  $\times$  10<sup>-12</sup> A/mg). Heating during torrefaction can remove some sulfur-596 containing organic matter in the form of volatiles, resulting in the reduction of sulfur 597 598 content in pellet fuel, and the SO<sub>2</sub> released by combustion is greatly reduced (8.5 $\times$  $10^{-13}$  A/mg). 599

The total gas emission during combustion is calculated by integral method. The 600 cumulative amount of different gas products is shown in Fig. 13(f). As the main gas 601 602 composition of all pellet fuels, the total amount of H<sub>2</sub>O and CO<sub>2</sub> accounts for more than 99% of the total gas products. The co-combustion of CS and CCW leads to the 603 604 increase of CO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> emissions, which is mainly due to the high proportion of C and N in CCW. Although the emissions of  $CO_2$  and  $NO_2$  per unit mass increases, the 605 emission of pollutants with the same calorific value will be greatly reduced due to co-606 607 combustion. After torrefaction treatment, the content of C element in CS increased, the content of N and S elements decreased, and the element compositions of raw 608 material changed significantly. Meanwhile, the release of NO and SO<sub>2</sub> are reduced in 609 the gas accumulation diagram. Although the CO<sub>2</sub> emission increased, the calorific 610 value of pellet fuel (TCS+CCW) was improved. The results showed that torrefaction 611

technology was conducive to reduce the pollutant emissions and significantly improve



613 the quality of raw materials.

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  - 618
  - 619

# 620 3.3 LCA analysis

The energy input in the whole life cycle of pellet fuel manufacturing is shown in **Fig. 14**. For pure biomass pellet (CS and TCS), energy input is mainly used for corn planting, accounting for 51.04% (10CS:0CCW) and 45.87% (10TCS:0CCW), respectively; the second is the pressing processing of pellet fuel, with energy consumption accounting for 27.25 - 30.32%. These results are in line with those previously reported

emissions at the heating rate of 20 °C/min

by Hamedani et al. [50], where biomass cultivation and pelletizing were reported as 626 the main contributors to energy consumption in olive pellet production. It is also clear 627 that transportation and chopping are the least consuming energy activities. 628 629 Torrefaction process is the main power consumption, accounting for about 10.12% of 630 the total energy input, as shown in **Fig. 14(b)**. For biomass pellet fuel blending with 631 CCW, the top three energy consumption are coal mining (37.78 - 41.17%), pellet pressing (22.09 - 24.08%), and corn planting (18.59 - 20.27%). Similar to biomass pellet, 632 the composite pellet fuel consumes less energy in the transportation and chopping 633 634 processes, consistent with previous studies [42, 50]. The mixing amount of CCW 635 directly affects the total energy input. Therefore, a reasonable selection of CCW 636 blending proportion is critical for energy efficiency of pellet fuel.

Fig. 15 shows that EER increases slowly with CCW blending ratio. Although increasing CCW leads to an increase in the total input energy, a higher calorific value of CCW implies a larger total output heat, thereby showing a better performance of EER. Moreover, the energy efficiency of pellet fuel improves with torrefaction, with the EER increases in varying degrees. However, this extent of improvement depends on the proportion of biomass material, which is more significant at large proportions of biomass.

644









# Fig. 15. Energy Return Ratio of different pellet fuel samples

CS/TCS:CCW

9:1

7:3

5:5

652

# 653 **3.3 Discussion and future perspectives**

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10:0

654 Combining the above-mentioned research findings, a summary of the physical 655 and combustion characteristics of upgraded argo-pellets has been presented in **Fig. 16**. 656 There are two feasible ways to improve the quality of argo-pellets: mixing CCW and 657 torrefaction. Mechanical properties: with increasing CCW percentage, all the physical 658 parameters increases, except that the pellet integrity increases first and then 659 decreases. The addition and use of starch can further optimise this physical

performance. CS torrefaction can improve these mechanical properties in varying 660 degrees on the basis of starch addition and CCW mixing. In terms of compressive 661 662 strength, the compressive performance of argo-pellets first increases and then decreases, reaching the maximum at 30% mixing ratio of CCW. Combustion 663 characteristics: CCW blending and torrefaction both improve the thermodynamic 664 characteristic parameters, release more calorific value and present higher energy 665 666 efficiency. However, C, N and S account for a large proportion in CCW, and the simple blending is not conducive to environmental protection. Although torrefaction 667 treatment increases the proportion of C, it releases more net heat energy and reduces 668 669 the contents of N and S. From the perspective of unit energy output, it is conducive to 670 the emission reduction of pollutants.



Fig. 16. The variation of mechanical and combustion characteristics of upgraded argo-pellets
under different processing conditions

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675 Considering that biomass itself belongs to clean energy, the blending of biomass 676 and CCW to upgrade the quality of argo-pellets is still a feasible scheme on the premise 677 of meeting the emission standards of air pollutants. However, in some places with high 678 requirements for pollutant emission, the combination of torrefaction treatment and 679 reduced proportion of CCW blending needs to be adopted. Based on the mechanical 680 properties and combustion characteristic parameters of argo-pellets, the proportion 681 of CCW blending recommended in this study is 30%. For different sources of agricultural and coal waste, the recommended blending proportion may be changed. 682 683 Meanwhile, the emission standards of air pollutants are often aimed at the emission of biomass or coal, and lack of relevant blending pellets. Therefore, future studies need 684 to pay more attention to the variation of raw materials and the formulation of 685 pollutant emission standards. In addition, LCA study in this work does not consider the 686 687 main pollutant emission  $(CO_2)$  during the whole process, and the corresponding environmental impact analysis needs to be added in the follow-up, so as to analyse the 688 pollutant emission in the whole process more comprehensively. CS and CCW are two 689 690 different forms of waste; and upgraded argo-pellets show a good market prospect. The 691 resource combined utilisation of these two wastes is a promising method with high economic benefits. 692

693

#### 694 **4. Conclusions**

This work aimed to improve the quality of argo-pellets by blending with CCW, torrefaction treatment and adding starch binder. On the basis of the obtained results and discussion, the main conclusions can be drawn as:

Mechanical experiments showed that co-pelleting of TCS and CCW with starch
 binder was technically possible. The qualities of the pellet samples including
 true density, pellet integrity, compressive strength and water absorbability
 have been improved to varying degrees.

Thermogravimetric analysis revealed that the appropriate proportion of less
 CCW can not only promote the combustion of blending pellets, but also
 improve the thermodynamic characteristic parameters of torrefied pellet.
 Compared with CCW blending, torrefaction treatment can more effectively
 smooth the DTA curves, which improves the availability for the boiler in
 operation.

Both CCW blending and torrefaction can reduce the concentration of NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>, improve the calorific value of fuel, but increase the CO<sub>2</sub> emission per unit mass. Comprehensive considering the increase of calorific value and CO<sub>2</sub> emission, co-combustion and torrefaction are conducive to pollutants

- reduction and improve the quality of raw materials
- LCA analysis indicated that increasing the blending ratio of CCW and
   torrefaction pre-treatment requires more energy input, but the energy
   efficiency EER of pellet fuel will also be improved.
- 716

### 717 Declaration of competing interest

- The author declares no competing financial interest.
- 719

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