

1 **Potential of products from high-temperature pyrolysis of biomass**
2 **and refuse-derived fuel pellets**

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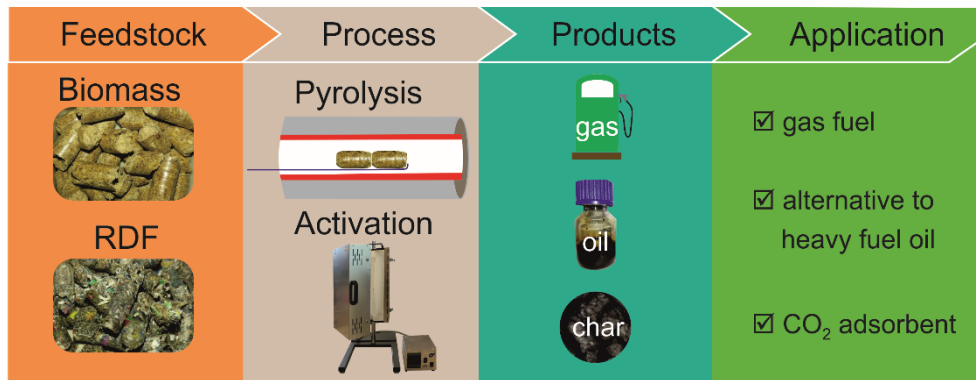
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11 **Abstract**

12 The management of energy contained in waste is an important research topic.
13 Among many high-energy wastes, pellets are produced from refuse-derived fuels
14 (RDF) and lignocellulosic biomass. This study investigated high-temperature pyrolysis
15 (800 °C) of biomass and RDF pellets. Experiments were conducted in two reactors: i)
16 on a microscale (thermogravimetric analysis) and ii) on a laboratory scale (fixed-bed
17 reactor) to investigate the yields of the products (char, liquid fraction, and gas) and to
18 characterise products toward their further application. ~~Using the char from RDF~~
19 ~~reduced the carbon content, whereas using the char from biomass significantly~~
20 ~~increased carbonisation.~~ The RDF char contained less carbon than the material before
21 pyrolysis. The carbon content of the biomass char was 90%, almost twice that of the
22 raw material. The biomass and RDF chars were chemically and physically activated to
23 increase their specific surface areas. The chemically activated biomass char had a
24 sorption capacity of 156.2 mg/CO₂ at 25 °C and 0.1 MPa. The kinetics of CO₂ sorption
25 were also examined, and the maximum uptake was observed after 2–3 min. The higher
26 heating value of the liquid phase, including the organic condensed phase, was 28.6
27 and 25.8 MJ/kg for pyrolysis of biomass and RDF pellets, respectively. The pyrolysis
28 gas composition was analysed separately for the heating and isothermal processes.
29 Due to the high CO, CH₄, and H₂ contents, the gas from the heating stage was
30 characterised by a much higher heating value.

31 **Keywords:** pyrolysis; fixed-bed reactor; biomass; refuse-derived fuel; CO₂
32 adsorption

33 **Graphical abstract**



34

35 **1. Introduction**

36 The waste remaining after sorting municipal solid waste (MSW) that is
37 unsuitable for recycling may be processed into refuse-derived fuel (RDF). ~~Storage of~~
38 ~~RDF is not recommended because of fire hazards.~~ Unfortunately, the amount of RDF
39 produced in Poland is still greater than the possibility of using it for energy purposes in
40 cement and waste incineration plants [1]. RDFs and biomass are calorific wastes,
41 which in European Union (EU) legislation are partly classified as renewable sources
42 because their combustion reduces the landfilling of waste. The need for thermal
43 recovery of the municipal waste energy fraction has been included in the national waste
44 prevention program [2]. The RDF was pelleted to increase the energy density and
45 facilitate handling, transport, and storage. The same goal applies to pelleting shredded
46 woody biomass [3]. After pelleting, biomass and RDF are characterised by low
47 moisture and regular shape, size, and composition, which favours their future use for
48 energy purposes.

49 The global production of biomass pellets is 40.4 million tons, nearly 45% of which is in
50 the EU. Poland ranks sixth in the EU with 1.3 million tonnes per year. The RDF
51 obtained annually from MSW is approximately 5 million tons, including 2.7 million tons
52 thermally used (mainly cement plants), while approximately 2.3 million tons of the
53 combustible fraction of municipal waste is disposed of in landfills [4,5]. The availability
54 of biomass pellets and MSW for RDF production in Poland is shown in Figs. 1a and
55 1b, respectively.

56 Biomass and RDF pellets are potential raw materials for energy production or
57 for producing valuable materials [6,7]. Thermal methods of biomass and RDF
58 utilisation include combustion, torrefaction, gasification, and pyrolysis. However,
59 biomass combustion can encounter operational problems, such as slagging and ash

60 fouling. Biomass ash contains alkali metals and chlorine, which accelerate corrosion.
61 In turn, biomass torrefaction is a technology that works well on a laboratory scale, but
62 requires overcoming difficulties related to increasing the scale of production. Biomass
63 valorisation by gasification is a technology that is used to produce syngas with a high
64 hydrogen content. The main problem that prevents the commercialisation of the
65 gasification process is the formation of tars, their decomposition, and carbon
66 deposition. Pyrolysis of biomass and RDF pellets is a promising thermal conversion
67 method that has been intensively studied in recent years [8–11]. Zhou et al. [8]
68 observed that an increase in the pyrolysis temperature of RDF pellets above 400 °C
69 intensifies the shrinkage phenomenon due to a decrease in the viscosity and surface
70 tension of the plastic liquid. Char, oil and gas are produced from pyrolysis. The yields
71 of pyrolysis products and their compositions depend, among others, on the feedstock
72 characteristics, process temperature, and solid residence time [9,10]. There are four
73 pyrolysis types flash, fast, intermediate and slow. The choice of flash and fast pyrolysis
74 is aimed at obtaining a high oil yield. In the case of intermediate pyrolysis, the yields
75 of all products are comparable. In turn, when the expected products are gas and char,
76 slow pyrolysis will be suitable. Pyrolysis of low-moisture RDF pellets is highly
77 recommended because it minimises the energy required for the process [11]. As the
78 pyrolysis temperature of the biomass and RDF pellets increases, the char and oil yields
79 decrease [9,12]. Simultaneously, the pyrolysis gas yield increases from 30% at 400 °C
80 to 82% at 1000 °C [12]. The benefits of pyrolysis gas include a high heating value
81 between 19.5–28.4 MJ/m³, which allows its use in both the heating and the energy
82 consumption sectors, e.g., cement and metallurgy [13]. Using high pyrolysis
83 temperatures also implies the carbonisation of char from biomass pellets, even 93%
84 carbon at 1000 °C [14]. The opposite trend was observed during the pyrolysis of RDF

85 pellets [10,15], likely due to the higher ash content of the RDF compared to biomass.
86 Another parameter of the pyrolysis process is the solid residence time, which has been
87 studied to a lesser extent. Extending the solid residence time from 30 to 150 min
88 reduces the yield of biomass char [16]. However, the solid residence time affected the
89 char yield less as the operating temperature increased. RDF pellets contain a high
90 percentage of plastics; therefore, the time and temperature of pyrolysis play important
91 roles. A solid residence time of 30 min was sufficient at 500 °C, regardless of the
92 percentage of polyethylene in the composition of the RDF pellet, as indicated by Zaini
93 et al. [17].

94 One of the key aspects of pyrolysis is the potential application of chars. Husain
95 et al. [18] proposed using char obtained from biomass pellet pyrolysis at 600 °C for
96 energy production and soil remediation. The char produced by the pyrolysis of biomass
97 pellets is microporous (average pore size less than 2 nm) and can be used as activated
98 carbon [19]. Char obtained from wood can also be used as an additive to improve the
99 quality of wood pellets and increase the energy density to 13.3 GJ/m³ [20]. The positive
100 correlation between pyrolysis temperature and the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET)
101 surface area of biomass chars was confirmed by Quan et al. [21]. However, a higher
102 pyrolysis temperature does not always favour the largest specific surface area of the
103 chars. The surface area of the wheat straw char at 700 °C was lower than at 600 °C
104 [22]. High-temperature biomass pyrolysis (at 1400 °C) may result in the partial melting
105 of ash and blocking of pores in the char [23]. The residence time of the samples in the
106 pyrolysis reactor also affected the specific surface area. An excessively long pyrolysis
107 time of the raw material resulted in the collapse of the char pore structure, and the
108 specific surface area was reduced [16]. The typical solid residence time of the samples
109 in a fixed-bed pyrolysis reactor to obtain char was 30 min to 4 hours [17,24]. Therefore,

110 char production experiments were conducted using shorter residence times. Another
111 popular applications of char are: i) as a porous carbon material for CO₂ capture [25], i)
112 for supercapacitor applications [26] and i) as a potential in electrode material [27].
113 Modifications using thermal and chemical methods are recommended to increase the
114 specific surface area of the chars and the CO₂ adsorption capacity. Depending on the
115 type of biomass, the chars after physical modification were characterised by adsorption
116 of CO₂ of 49.29 to 136.43 mgCO₂/g of char (at 25 °C, 1 bar) [28]. Under the same
117 conditions, the CO₂ adsorption capacity of chars treated with chemical activation
118 ranges from 26 (modified with NH₃) to 326.55 mgCO₂/g (KOH activation at 900 °C)
119 [24,28].

120 The main goal of this study was to utilise biomass and RDF pellets via high-
121 temperature pyrolysis. One research hypothesis proposed that chars from RDF and
122 biomass pellets are good candidates as adsorbents for CO₂ capture. The novelty of
123 this work is the use of a short pyrolysis time of 10 min (5 min of heating and 5 min of
124 holding at 800 °C) compared to the times reported in the literature which ranged from
125 30 min to several hours. To the best of our knowledge, using char from biomass and
126 RDF pellet pyrolysis as a material for CO₂ adsorption has not yet been studied.

127 **2. Materials and methods**

128 2.1. Feedstock

129 This study investigated two types of pellets (biomass and RDF), which differed
130 in their origin and the chemical composition of feedstock. Biomass pellets were
131 produced from pine sawdust waste in an installation located on a sawmill. The pellet
132 diameter was 6 mm, and their lengths were irregular, ranging from 7 mm to
133 approximately 30 mm. RDF pellets (consisting of paper, plastic, textiles, wood, rubber

134 and cardboard) were purchased from a waste processing plant in Lesser Poland,
135 Voivodeship.

136 The proximate and ultimate analyses are presented in Table 1. The high content
137 of volatile matter (VM > 81% by weight) in both types of pellets indicates that these
138 wastes are good candidates for thermal processes such as pyrolysis. These pellets
139 differed significantly in terms of ash content, biomass (0.3%), and RDF content
140 (13.3%). The ash content affects the char mass. The significant ash content in RDF
141 may influence the reactivity of the sample through the catalytic effect of the elements
142 present in the ash [29]. Therefore, the composition of the ash was determined using
143 XRF, and the results are summarised in Table S1 (Supplementary Materials). The main
144 oxides identified in the biomass ash were CaO and K₂O (approximately 66%), whereas
145 those in the RDF ash were CaO and SiO₂ (approximately 58%). The biomass pellets
146 contained 47.3% carbon, 6.2% hydrogen, and 0.03% sulphur. The carbon content in
147 the RDF pellet was 10% higher than that in the biomass because of the high plastic
148 and paper materials content [17]. The lower nitrogen content in biomass pellets is
149 beneficial from the perspective of environmental protection because of reduced NO_x
150 emissions during thermal processes. Chlorine is an undesirable element in RDF,
151 constituting 0.9% in pellets and 6.5% in ash, and may indicate the presence of polyvinyl
152 chloride (PVC) [30]. Ultimate analysis of the biomass pellets indicated a higher oxygen
153 content than the RDF pellets.

154 2.2. Research methodology

155 The research plan is illustrated in Fig. 2. For air-dried basis pellets, proximate
156 and ultimate analyses, infrared spectroscopy with a Fourier transform, and
157 thermogravimetric analysis of the pyrolysis process were performed at three heating
158 rates. Preliminary investigations of the feedstocks included a thermogravimetric

159 analysis (TGA) performed using a Mettler Toledo STA instrument. The pyrolysis
160 process of heating the sample to 800 °C at rates of 5, 25, and 50 °C/min was analysed,
161 and the sample was held at 800 °C for 5 min. This study aimed to determine the effect
162 of the heating rate on the weight loss of a sample. Pyrolysis was performed using
163 approximately 5 mg of the feedstock at a nitrogen flow rate of 50 ml/min.

164 The main pyrolysis process was conducted in a fixed-bed reactor at 800 °C. The
165 experimental setup and temperature profile of the pyrolysis process are shown in Fig.
166 3 and Fig. S1 (see supplementary material). The experimental pyrolysis procedure
167 included the following steps: An approximately 5 g sample was inserted into the cooling
168 jacket, which was purged with high-purity nitrogen for 4 min to remove air. The nitrogen
169 flow rate was 500 ml/min, as measured using a digital mass flow meter manufactured
170 by Aalborg. The sample was heated to a temperature of 800 °C for no more than 5
171 min, and then held at this temperature for another 5 min. The final step involved sample
172 cooling. The liquid phase (a mixture of condensed hydrocarbons and water) was
173 collected in an ice cooler, and the non-condensed gases were transferred to a Tedlar
174 bag for chromatographic analysis. The gas was collected separately during heating
175 (green area in Fig. S1) and when the pellet was maintained at a constant temperature
176 (red area in Fig. S1). The gas compositions were analysed using an Agilent 7890A gas
177 chromatograph (GC). Additional details regarding the experimental pyrolysis process
178 are described elsewhere [31].

179 Proximate and ultimate analyses, and infrared spectroscopy with a Fourier
180 transform, were performed for the char and liquid fractions. The liquid product included
181 a mixture of organic condensate (OC) and aqueous condensate (AC). The OC and AC
182 were separated from the liquid fraction gravimetrically. Combustion of OC in an air

183 atmosphere at a flow rate of 50 ml/min was assessed using thermogravimetry for three
184 heating rates of 5, 10, and 20 °C/min.

185 The biomass and RDF chars were physically and chemically activated using
186 steam and potassium hydroxide, respectively. The physical activation process in an
187 atmosphere of water vapour (a mixture of H₂O heated to 300 °C and N₂ carrier gas) at
188 850 °C was performed in a fixed-bed system. Approximately 2–3 g of pretreated char
189 was placed on glass wool in a quartz tubular reactor. The activation process lasted 25
190 min and consisted of a 15-minute heating stage, which began with heating the system
191 from the ambient temperature to the set temperature, and a 10-minute gasification
192 stage at 850 °C. The flow rates of the process gases were 1 ml/min of water vapour
193 and 80 ml/min of N₂.

194 The chars obtained during pyrolysis were chemically activated using KOH as the
195 activating agent. The activation process was conducted in a horizontal fixed-bed
196 reactor. The process parameters were: 800 °C activation temperature, 1-hour
197 activation time, nitrogen atmosphere with a flow rate of 80 ml/min, and a 1:3 char to
198 KOH mass ratio. A mixture of char and hydroxide was ground in a knife grinder before
199 thermal treatment to homogenise the sample. After activation, the activated carbons
200 were subjected to repeated rinsing in distilled water to remove KOH, and then the
201 activated carbons obtained were dried at a temperature of 105 °C for a minimum of 6
202 h.

203 The specific surface area and average pore diameter of the chars were
204 determined by low-temperature nitrogen adsorption/desorption using a Micromeritics
205 ASAP 2020 Plus version 2.0. Additionally, a Hiden Isochema IGA-001 sorption
206 analyser was used to determine the CO₂ sorption capacity in the pressure range of 0–

207 1.0 MPa. The activated chars were degassed at 80 °C for approximately 12 h before
208 analysis.

209 **3. Results and discussion**

210 3.1. Thermogravimetric analysis of the pyrolysis process

211 Preliminary investigations involved the representation of the pyrolysis process
212 using thermogravimetric analysis (TG and DTG). The mass losses of the samples were
213 determined using heating rates over a wide range. Crushed biomass and RDF pellets
214 (400–600 µm fraction size) were heated at rates of 5, 25, and 50 °C/min and then the
215 temperature was maintained at 800 °C for 5 min to reflect the experimental conditions
216 in the fixed-bed reactor. Figs. 4a–4c show the results for heating rates of 5, 25, and
217 50 °C/min, respectively. A positive correlation was observed between the heating rate
218 and final mass of the char. With increasing heating rates for biomass char, it was 16.5,
219 16.9, and 17.6%, respectively and for RDF char, it was 21.9%, 23.7%, and 28.8%,
220 respectively.

221 The heating rate also influenced the maximum mass-loss peaks. The maximum
222 DTG peak was observed at higher temperatures as the heating rate increased. In the
223 case of biomass pellets, there were 345, 361, and 366 °C for the considered heating
224 rates. Regarding the pyrolysis of biomass pellets, the maximum peaks of mass loss
225 from RDF pellets were at higher temperatures of 456, 481 and 486 °C, 5, 25 and
226 50 °C/min, respectively. As RDF pellets consist of various materials, several peaks
227 reflecting the decomposition of paper, cardboard, polyethylene, or polyvinyl chloride
228 were visible in the DTG curves. The mass losses of the samples marked in Figs. 4a–
229 4c in the isothermal region confirm the need to keep the samples at 800 °C for 5 min,
230 especially at a heating rate of 50 °C/min. The mass of the RDF pellet decreased by
231 1.3% after 5 min. at 800 °C for the variant, at a heating rate of 50 °C/min.

232 3.2. Yields of pyrolysis products in a fixed-bed reactor

233 The yields of the biomass and RDF pellet pyrolysis products are shown in Figs.
234 5a and 5b. The liquid phase included two fractions, the OC and AC. The yields of the
235 char and liquid phases were determined by weighing, whereas the yields of the gas
236 phase were determined from differences of up to 100%. The measuring error in the
237 mass of the liquid fraction based on the five measurement campaigns did not exceed
238 6% of the value. The measuring error in the mass of the char was less than 3%. The
239 main pyrolysis products were gas from biomass and RDF (named gas_biomass and
240 gas_RDF) which accounted for 42% and 61%, respectively. As reported by Efika et al.
241 [9], the non-condensable gas yield was positively correlated with the heating rate,
242 which favoured gas production. The pyrolysis temperature of 800 °C favoured the
243 degassing of the pellets, cracking reactions, and gas production. The gas_RDF yield
244 at 800 °C was consistent with the results of Tokmurzin et al [32]. The secondary
245 pyrolysis products in terms of yield were aqueous condensed from biomass pyrolysis
246 (AC_biomass) and char from RDF (char_RDF). The RDF pellets contained a large
247 amount of ash (13.3%), which may explain the higher production of char_RDF than
248 char_biomass. While the ash is ballast, Table S1 shows that the ash from RDF is rich
249 in silica, calcium and alumina and these elements enhance the catalytic effect during
250 pyrolysis. Similar yields of OC_biomass and OC_RDF (3.6% and 3.9% each) were
251 obtained. Despite their low yields, OC_biomass and OC_RDF have the potential to
252 replace heavy-oil fuels and be used as valuable chemicals. Ultimate analyses were
253 performed to assess the energy potentials of the chars and liquid fractions.

254 3.3. Characteristic of pyrolysis products

255 3.3.1. *Ultimate analyses of chars, organic condensed (OC), and aqueous* 256 *organic (AC) fractions*

257 The elemental compositions of the liquid fractions and chars, along with their
258 ash contents, are shown in Table 2. Char_biomass contained almost twice as much
259 carbon as the biomass pellets (from 47% to 90.5%, respectively). Another advantage
260 of char_biomass is its low ash and oxygen content of 2.2% and 5.1%, respectively.
261 The carbon content in char_RDF was reduced compared to that in RDF_pellets, from
262 56.8% to 33.7%, i.e., the opposite trend was observed compared to biomass. The high
263 ash content of char_RDF (62%) suggests its use as a complementary material for
264 cement production or as a catalyst carrier in the pyrolysis process. OC_biomass and
265 OC_RDF were characterised by carbon and hydrogen contents exceeding 50% and
266 10%, respectively. According to Dulong's formula [33], the higher heating values of
267 OC_biomass and OC_RDF were 28.6 MJ/kg and 25.8 MJ/kg, respectively.

268 The pyrolysis products with the lowest carbon contents were AC_biomass and
269 AC_RDF. The AC fractions contained 15%–16% carbon and 9%–10% hydrogen.
270 Recovering the organic content from AC is economically unfeasible because of the
271 significant water dilution. Anaerobic digestion is a prospective route for processing
272 AC_biomass and AC_RDF to produce methane. In addition, liquid-phase fermentation
273 with added char improves biogas production while simultaneously increasing the
274 CH₄/CO₂ ratio [34].

275 3.3.2. *Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)*

276 The presence of functional groups in the biomass pellets, RDF pellets, and
277 pyrolysis products was analysed using Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR).
278 The wavenumber range of 4000–400 cm⁻¹ was divided into four parts, covering
279 stretching and deformation vibrations for single, triple, and double bonds and the
280 fingerprint range. The spectra of the biomass and RDF pellets are shown in Fig. 6a. In
281 the spectral ranges 3550–3200, 3000–2840, 1760–1690, 1490–1440, 1275–1200,

282 1200–970 and 900–675 cm^{-1} , O–H, C–H, C=O, C–H, C–O and C–H peaks were
283 detected, respectively [35,36]. In the RDF pellet, distinct peaks were observed at 2915
284 and 2849 cm^{-1} assigned to the asymmetric and symmetric stretching vibrations of C–
285 H, the characteristic bands of polyethylene [37]. Furthermore, the important peak at
286 1460 cm^{-1} of the infrared spectra is attributable to the polypropylene present in the
287 RDF. Fig. 6b presents the spectra of the chars. The flattening of the char spectra
288 confirmed the disintegration of the organic matrix, particularly in some oxygen-
289 containing structures. The char spectra included peaks at 3634 cm^{-1} (O–H stretching
290 in alcohols), 2317 cm^{-1} ($\text{C}\equiv\text{N}$ stretching in nitriles), 2106 cm^{-1} ($\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ stretching in
291 alkynes), 2060 cm^{-1} ($\text{N}=\text{C}=\text{N}$ stretching in isothiocyanates), 1994 cm^{-1} ($\text{C}=\text{C}=\text{C}$
292 stretching in allenes), 979 cm^{-1} ($\text{C}=\text{C}$ bending in alkenes), and 874 cm^{-1} (C–H bending
293 in alkenes) [38]. The intensity of the vibration of O–H, C–O, and C–H bonds in the
294 chars disappeared compared to that in the biomass and RDF pellets. The characteristic
295 bands of cellulose and hemicellulose, i.e., C–O (1022 cm^{-1}) and C–H (870 and 717 cm^{-1}),
296 respectively [39], were much weaker in the char than in the pellets. This may indicate
297 the removal of carboxyl, hydroxyl, and carbonyl groups during pyrolysis via dehydration
298 and decarboxylation reactions. In addition, the double and triple vibrations between
299 carbon atoms indicated the formation of aromatic compounds.

300 The structural properties of the functional groups in the liquid phase are shown in Fig.
301 6c. The wide range of O–H stretching vibrations at 3373 cm^{-1} corresponded to the
302 functional groups in phenols, alcohols, and acidic compounds. C–H stretching
303 vibrations (alkanes) occur at 2920 cm^{-1} and 2851 cm^{-1} only for the OC fraction. The
304 C=O (1699 cm^{-1}) and C=C (1638 cm^{-1}) vibrations may come from alkenes, cyclic
305 alkenes, and aromatic compounds. In the fingerprint range, C–H bending vibrations
306 were observed (1459, 1451, and 1374 cm^{-1}). This was consistent with alkanes and

307 aromatics for the OC phase. The AC phase had distinct O–H vibrations at 1365 cm⁻¹,
308 responsible for esters, acids, and phenols. The last two peaks are bending vibrations
309 (698 and 708 cm⁻¹) that may be associated with open-chain hydrocarbons containing
310 four or more CH₂ groups.

311 *3.3.3. Thermogravimetric analysis of organic condensed phase combustion*

312 The OC phase combustion process was investigated to study the potential
313 applications of these products. Thermogravimetry analysis (TG and DTG) was
314 examined up to 800 °C under air atmosphere. Figs. 7a and 7b demonstrate the
315 oxidation of OC_biomass and OC_RDF at different heating rates. The OC phase
316 includes various chemical compounds whose release into the gas phase depends on
317 combustion temperature. Several peaks with different intensities were observed in the
318 DTG curves. The oxidation process was divided into three stages based on the DTG
319 curves. Low-temperature oxidation (LTO) is the first stage, which occurred up to
320 approximately 300 °C. During this stage, chains of heavy compounds are cleaved and
321 oxidised at low temperatures to produce organic compounds, including aldehydes,
322 ketones, and alcohols. OC_RDF contained more LTO because more OC_biomass
323 (67.7%–72.6%) than OC_RDF (42.2%–53.7%) remained at 300 °C. This indicated that
324 LTO was the main stage in the oxidation of OC_RDF. The next stage is called medium-
325 temperature oxidation (MTO), which occurred up to 450 °C (OC_biomass) and 425 °C
326 (OC_RDF). For each heating rate, one maximum mass-loss peak was observed for
327 OC_RDF. These occurred 327, 337, and 331 °C for heating rates of 5, 10, and
328 20 °C/min, respectively. In the MTO stage, the maximum mass losses for OC_RDF
329 were recorded for heating rates of 10 and 20 °C/min. High-temperature oxidation
330 (HTO) is the final combustion stage. The driving force is the degradation of high
331 molecular-weight compounds [40,41]. HTO was the main mass-loss region for the

332 OC_biomass. HTO was the main combustion region for OC_biomass (the largest mass
333 loss), with the peak mass losses observed at 550, 590, and 634 °C for heating rates of
334 5, 10, and 20 °C/min, respectively. The burn-out of OC_biomass was at 580 °C for
335 5 °C/min and 700 °C for 20 °C/min. However, OC_RDF burned at lower temperatures.

336 *3.3.4. Gas composition*

337 The gas chromatography results are presented in Figs. 8a and 8b. Nine gas
338 components were identified, with six main constituents: N₂, CO, CH₄, H₂, CO₂, and
339 C₂H₄. Pyrolysis gas formed during the primary and secondary stages of biomass and
340 RDF pyrolysis, cracking, and related reforming reactions. The gas compositions for the
341 heating process to 800 °C (marked in blue) and the isothermal process (marked in red)
342 are shown separately. Analysis of the heating stage at 800 °C showed that CO (35.5%)
343 was the most abundant component in gas_biomass, while N₂ (25.8%) was the most
344 abundant in gas_RDF. CO formation is associated with the decomposition of
345 lignocellulosic biomass components. CO is mainly produced via cracking of C–O–C
346 and C=O groups [42]. The percentage of CO was only higher than that of CO₂ in
347 gas_biomass and gas_RDF during heating. Simultaneously, the cracking and
348 reforming reactions of the C=O and COOH groups were responsible for the formation
349 of CO₂. Chen et al. [39] found that hemicellulose was responsible for CO₂ and H₂
350 production, whereas lignin provided the highest CH₄ content in pyrolysis gas. RDF_gas
351 from the heating stage contained more CH₄ (19.2%), H₂ (11.2%), CO₂ (11.0%), C₂H₄
352 (10.4%), and other hydrocarbons than did gas_biomass. Consequently, the calculated
353 higher heating value (HHV) of gas_RDF was 21.7 MJ/m³, which was higher than the
354 HHV of gas_biomass of 12.9 MJ/m³. The combustible gaseous components accounted
355 for > 62 vol. % of gas_biomass and more than 63% of gas_RDF. When interpreting
356 the isothermal stage of pyrolysis, the pyrolysis gas contained 86.6% N₂ and 82.2% N₂

357 for gas_biomass and gas_RDF, respectively. Therefore, the HHV of gas_biomass was
358 six times lower, and that of gas_RDF was four times lower. Gas_RDF from the
359 isothermal process was characterised by a higher content of each hydrocarbon than
360 that of gas_biomass. The higher hydrocarbon content was attributed to the presence
361 of plastics in the RDF. Gases released under isothermal conditions were associated
362 with the thermal degradation of raw materials and the cracking of higher hydrocarbons.

363 3.4. Char characteristic

364 3.4.1. *Surface area analysis and adsorption/desorption of nitrogen*

365 The specific surface areas of the chars determined by low-temperature nitrogen
366 adsorption are listed in Table 3. The biomass chars had larger surface areas than the
367 RDF chars. Before activation, the surface areas were 368.0 and 37.4 m²/g for biomass
368 and RDF, respectively. The high ash content in char_RDF negatively affected the
369 surface area. As a result of chemical activation, larger surface areas of char_biomass
370 and char_RDF (1375 and 515 m²/g) were obtained than those after physical activation
371 (701 and 231 m²/g, respectively).

372 Cumulative pore volumes were assessed using nitrogen adsorption and desorption.
373 Adsorption is the adhesion of nitrogen gas molecules to the surface of the char and
374 open pores, whereas desorption is their removal. The increase in the surface area was
375 accompanied by an increase in the pore volume and a decrease in the pore diameter
376 of the tested samples. The pores in the chars were classified as mesopores according
377 to the IUPAC classification.

378 3.4.2. *CO₂ adsorption on chars after activation*

379 The CO₂ adsorption and desorption performance of activated chars were
380 studied at 25 °C and up to 1 MPa. The adsorption isotherm describes the relationship
381 between the adsorption capacity and pressure under isothermal conditions and was

382 used to characterise the adsorption properties of the analysed porous materials. Based
383 on the analysis of the adsorption isotherm of a given material, its structure and
384 physicochemical properties were determined. The adsorption isotherms of the
385 activated char_biomass and char_RDF are presented in Figs. 9a and 9b.

386 Presented in Figs. 9a and 9b, the Type I isotherm is also called the Langmuir
387 isotherm and has a characteristically microporous structure. The Type I isotherm is
388 concave to the P/P_0 axis, and the amount adsorbed approaches the limit value at P/P_0
389 ~ 1 . Type I isotherms were obtained when the adsorption was limited to a few layers
390 of mostly adsorbed molecules and the material contained almost no mesopores. The
391 filling of the micropores, and therefore a large amount of adsorbed agent, was
392 observed at relatively low pressures owing to the small pore width and high heat of
393 adsorption. The amount of adsorbed adsorbate was mainly limited by the volume of
394 the micropores and not by the internal surface area. In all cases, the adsorption and
395 desorption isotherms coincided, indicating the absence of hysteresis and confirming
396 the microporous structure of the material.

397 The chemical adsorption yields were noticeably better for activated char_biomass. As
398 shown in Figure 9a, for a relative pressure of 0.1 MPa, the yield of chemically activated
399 char was 156 mg/g and for physically activated char was 104 mg/g. This may be due
400 to the higher affinity of CO_2 molecules for KOH-activated carbons [43]. Furthermore, a
401 higher carbon content in the biomass chars resulted in a higher carbon content in the
402 activated carbons obtained, which may improve the CO_2 adsorption performance of
403 the material. Activated char_biomass, which had almost three times higher carbon
404 content than char_RDF, was two times higher in the physically activated samples and
405 four times higher in the chemically activated samples carbon dioxide sorption capacity.
406 The activated char_RDF samples have a higher mineral matter content, and high

407 concentrations of metal oxides can cause pore clogging, which directly minimises CO₂
408 adsorption [44].

409 Activated char_biomass, compared to activated char_RDF, presented higher BET
410 surface areas, but this was not the major parameter determining the CO₂ adsorption
411 capacity in the case of activated carbons [43,45]. Both the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller
412 (BET) surface area and high micropore distribution determine the CO₂ sorption
413 performance of activated carbon [43].

414 Compared to other experiments, e.g., chemically activated lemon peels, comparable
415 values of CO₂ uptake were observed, as approximately 135 mg of CO₂ were adsorbed
416 per g of the obtained activated carbon at 25 °C and 0.1 MPa [43]. Under similar
417 conditions, both the chemical and physical methods yielded comparable results of
418 approximately 100 mgCO₂/g for physically activated biomass chars and 160 mgCO₂/g
419 for chemically activated char_biomass.

420 This study selected RDF as the waste material for activated carbon synthesis. RDF-
421 derived activated carbon is a better feedstock for activated carbon synthesis and
422 displayed an adoption performance towards CO₂ four times higher than industrial-
423 grade biomass ash-derived feedstock [46].

424 In the literature, the CO₂ uptakes for different adsorbents were between 100–220
425 mgCO₂/g at 25 °C compared to other adsorption materials. Therefore, biomass-derived
426 activated carbons are promising materials for CO₂ sequestration and storage. RDF-
427 derived ACs are not as good as biomass ACs, but the thermal upgrading of waste and
428 the production of new value-added materials is a priority and subscribes to a circular
429 economy concept.

430 A decreased process temperature improves the CO₂ adsorption performance of the
431 activated carbons obtained [43,45].

432 Fig. 10 presents CO₂ adsorption and desorption kinetics. During the experiment, the
 433 pressure increased rapidly and nearly reached equilibrium within a few seconds. In all
 434 cases, the mass of CO₂ adsorbed increases sharply at the beginning of the adsorption
 435 process at a given pressure and then gradually flattened over time. Maximum uptake
 436 was observed after 2–3 min. This behaviour was characteristic of activated carbons
 437 used as CO₂ adsorbents [47,48], and makes this group of materials good candidates
 438 for CO₂ capture and storage. However, further studies on material stability and
 439 durability after cyclic adsorption and desorption processes are required.

440 3.5. Energy efficiency and recommendations for improvement economic viability 441 of process

442 The overall energy efficiency (η) of the pyrolysis process was estimated using
 443 Eq. (1) [49]. The energies of input (E_{in}) and output (E_{out}) was expersed by Eq. (2)
 444 and Eq. (3).

$$445 \quad \eta = \frac{E_{out}}{E_{in}} \cdot 100\% \quad (1)$$

$$446 \quad E_{in} = Q_{py} + HHV_{biomass} \quad (2)$$

$$447 \quad E_{out} = HHV_{char} \cdot Y_{char} + HHV_{OC} \cdot Y_{OC} + HHV_{AC} \cdot Y_{AC} + HHV_{gas} \cdot Y_{gas} + Q_{loss} \quad (3)$$

448 where,

449 Q_{py} – the heat required for the pyrolysis of biomass waste. The assumed value was
 450 1.5 MJ/kg biomass [50].

451 HHV – higher heating value of feedstocks and pyrolysis products (MJ/kg),

452 Y – mass yield of pyrolysis products, corresponding to the value in Fig. 5 divided by
 453 100%. Furthermore, it was assumed that the gas yield from the heating stage was
 454 27.6% (biomass) and 36.8% (RDF).

455 Q_{loss} – is the energy loss in the pyrolysis process. In these calculations, 0,58 MJ/kg of
456 biomass was used, which reflects the heat transferred by the reactor casing to the
457 surroundings air.

458 The overall energy efficiency of biomass pyrolysis was 66.7% and for RDF 48.8%. The
459 results were considered satisfactory, considering that pyrolysis gas contains nitrogen,
460 which significantly reduces its HHV. Generally, η depends on the fraction size and type
461 of biomass, reactor type, process temperature, and sample holding time. The results
462 obtained are consistent with the values in the literature for various types of pyrolysis
463 and biomass [12,49].

464 There are several key assumptions that can increase the profitability and energy
465 efficiency of the discussed pyrolysis system. The first is the location of the pyrolysis
466 system, close to the place of production and collection of biomass waste and RDF.
467 Avoiding biomass transport reduces costs and at the same time also eliminates the
468 carbon footprint. Therefore, it is reasonable to consider a mobile installation for the
469 pyrolysis and activation of biochar. The operating costs of pyrolysis reactors and their
470 activation depend significantly on the price of the electricity with which they are
471 powered. To minimize them, it is recommended to supply the reactor system with
472 electricity generated directly from photovoltaic panels. The last important aspect is the
473 water used to cool the pyrolysis gases. To reduce water consumption, the installation
474 should be equipped with a closed water circulation cooling system. This procedure will
475 contribute to protecting the natural environment and reducing costs.

476 **4. Conclusions**

477 The pyrolysis of biomass and RDF pellets was performed in a fixed bed reactor
478 at 800 °C. The yield and composition of the pyrolysis products (char, liquid, and gas
479 phases) were determined. For biomass and RDF pellets, the product with the highest

480 yield was the gas phase (42% and 61%, respectively). The gaseous phase collected
481 during heating to 800 °C had a higher HHV than the gaseous phase collected while
482 maintaining the sample temperature at 800 °C for 5 min. The HHV of the gas from RDF
483 pyrolysis was 22 MJ/m³ which was almost double the HHV of the gas from biomass
484 pyrolysis. The yield of the organic condensed phase was low at 3.6% (biomass) and
485 3.9% (RDF). However, these phases were promising due to the HHV values 28.6 and
486 25.8 MJ/kg, for biomass and RDF, respectively.

487 The obtained chars were characterised based on their properties for further
488 applications. Biomass char has a very high carbon content (90%), whereas RDF char
489 contains a low amount of carbon (34%) because some compounds are released into
490 the gas and liquid phases. However, both chars were successfully activated to
491 enhance their surface areas and adsorption capacities. The most favourable result was
492 obtained for chemically activated biomass char, which had a sorption capacity of 156.2
493 mg/CO₂ at 25 °C and 0.1 MPa. Despite the low CO₂ sorption capacity of activated char
494 from RDF, thermal processing of this waste should not be abandoned, as it may
495 contribute to the reduction of the carbon footprint.

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692

693 **Figure captions**

694 Fig. 1. Production of a) biomass pellet and b) municipal solid waste in Poland in 2021

695 Fig. 2. Scheme of the research methodology

696 Fig. 3. Laboratory-scale furnace used in the pyrolysis experiment

697 Fig. 4. TG and DTG curves of biomass and RDF pellet pyrolysis process at a) 5 °C/min, b) 25
698 °C/min, and c) 50 °C/min.

699 Fig. 5. Yields of pyrolysis products from a) biomass pellet and b) RDF pellet.

700 Fig. 6. FTIR spectra of a) feedstocks, b) chars, and c) organic condensed (OC) and aqueous
701 condensed (AC) fractions.

702 Fig. 7. TG and DTG curves of oxidation of organic condensed fraction from pyrolysis for a)
703 biomass and b) RDF.

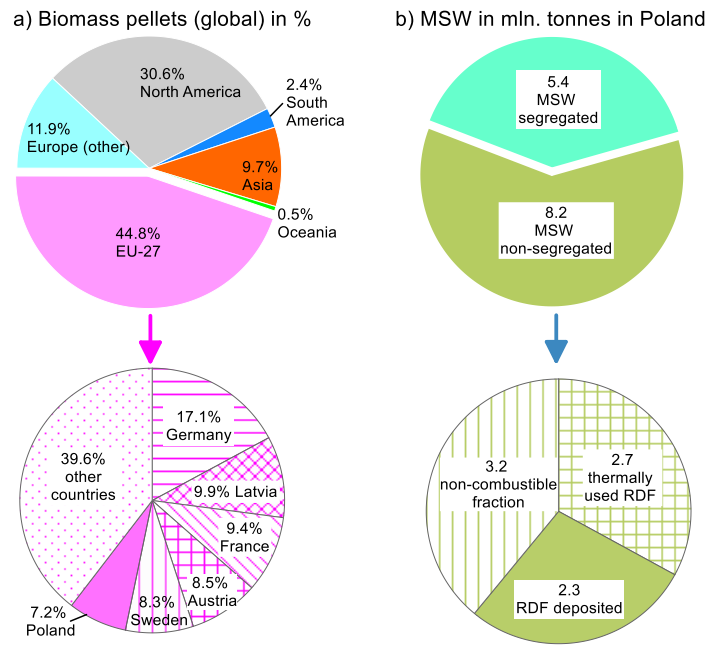
704 Fig. 8. Gas composition of pyrolysis a) biomass and b) RDF pellets.

705 Fig. 9. CO₂ adsorption/desorption Langmuir isotherms of activated a) biomass chars and b)
706 RDF chars.

707 Fig. 10. Kinetics of CO₂ adsorption/desorption.

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Fig. 1.

Types of analyzes performed:

- 1 Proximate analysis (A, VM, M)
- 2 Ultimate analysis (C, H, N, S)
- 3 Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy
- 4 Thermogravimetric analysis
- 5 Gas chromatography
- 6 Porosimetry
- 7 CO₂ adsorption capacity

Pyrolysis

Reactor: horizontal fixed-bed reactor
800 °C (5+5 min), N₂

Physical chars activation

Reactor: vertical fixed-bed reactor
850 °C (15+10 min), H₂O (at 300 °C)

Chemical chars activation

Reactor: horizontal fixed-bed reactor
800 °C (60 min), char:KOH (1:3)

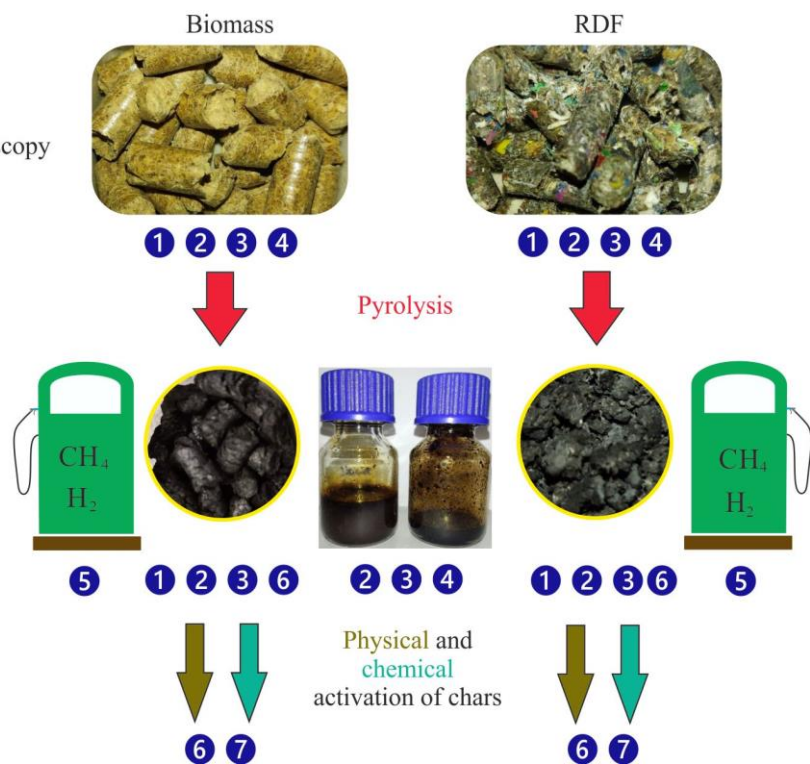
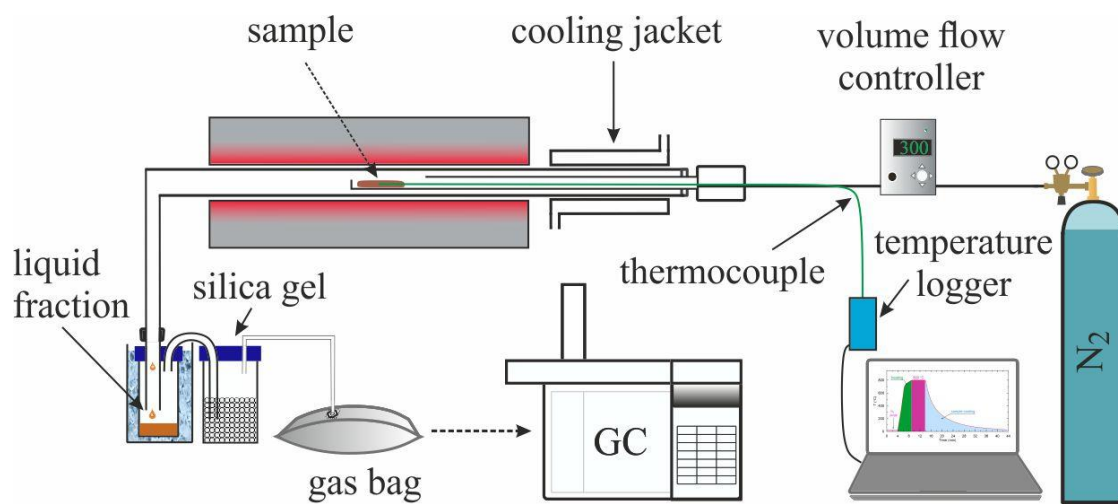


Fig. 2.

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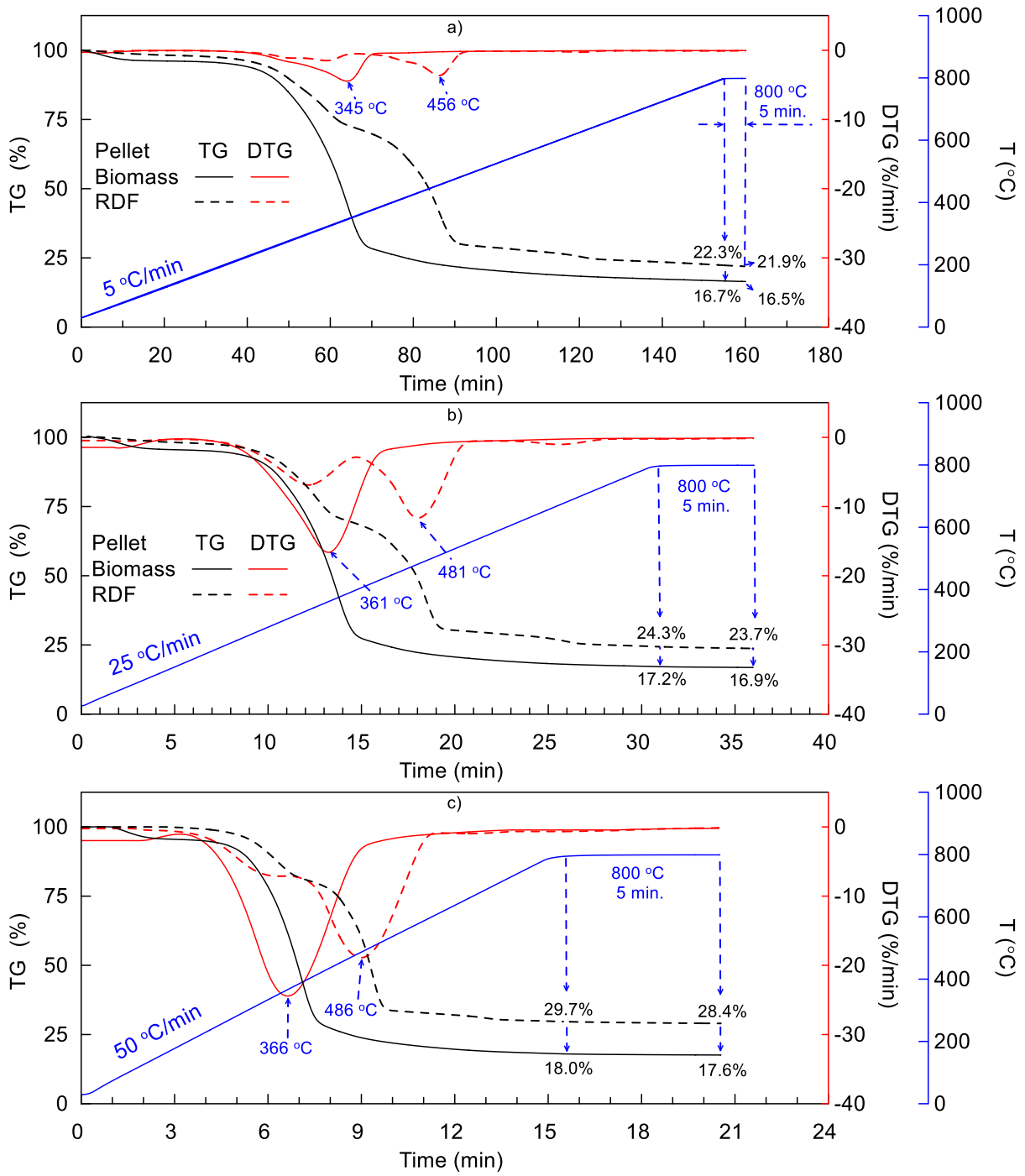
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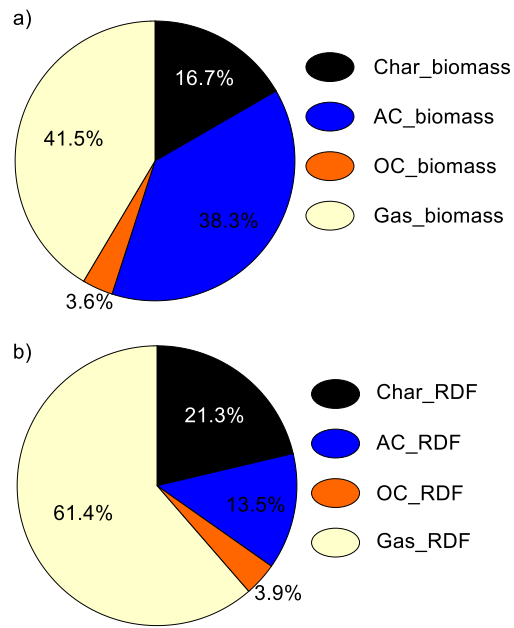
Fig. 3.



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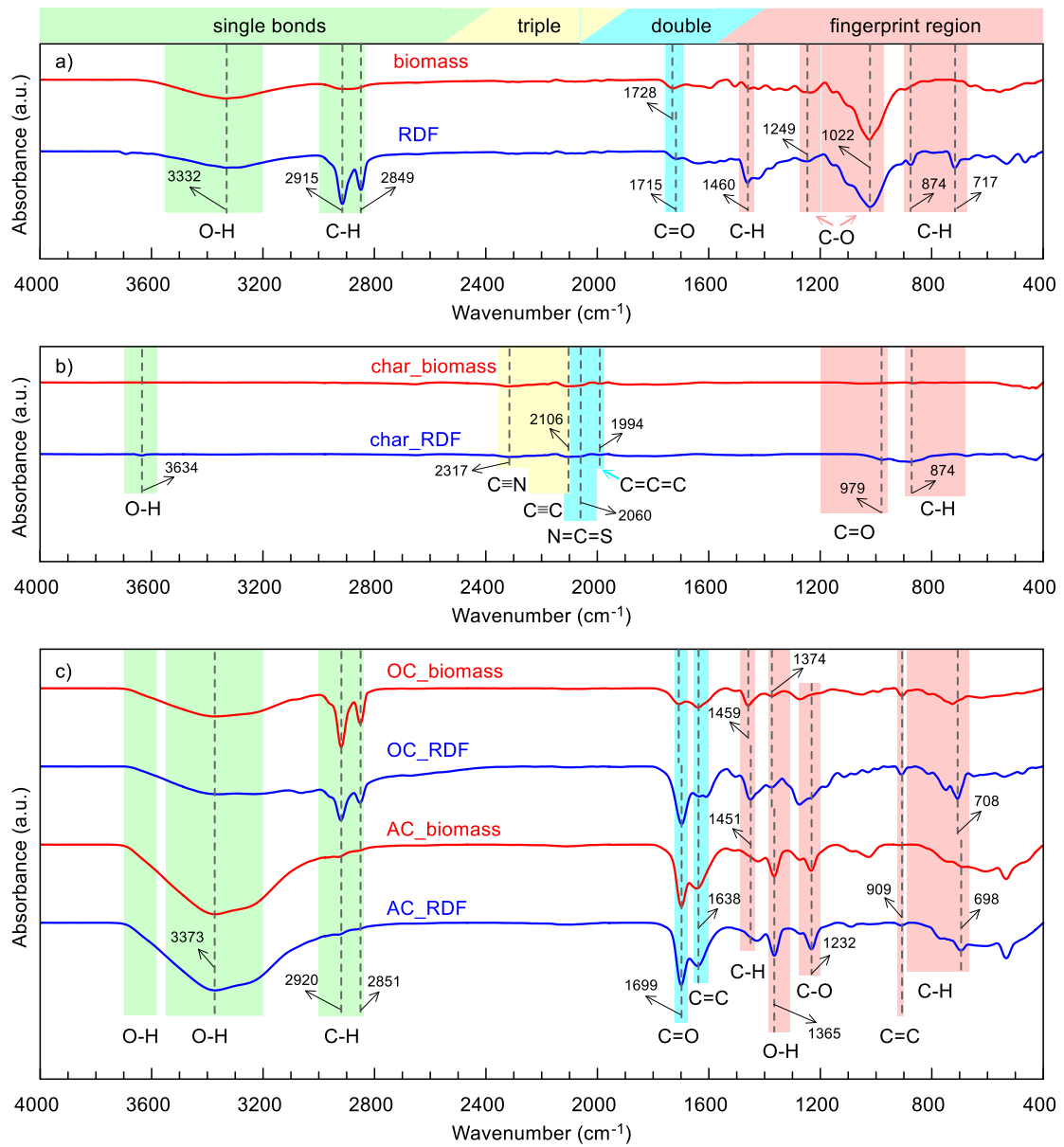
Fig. 4.



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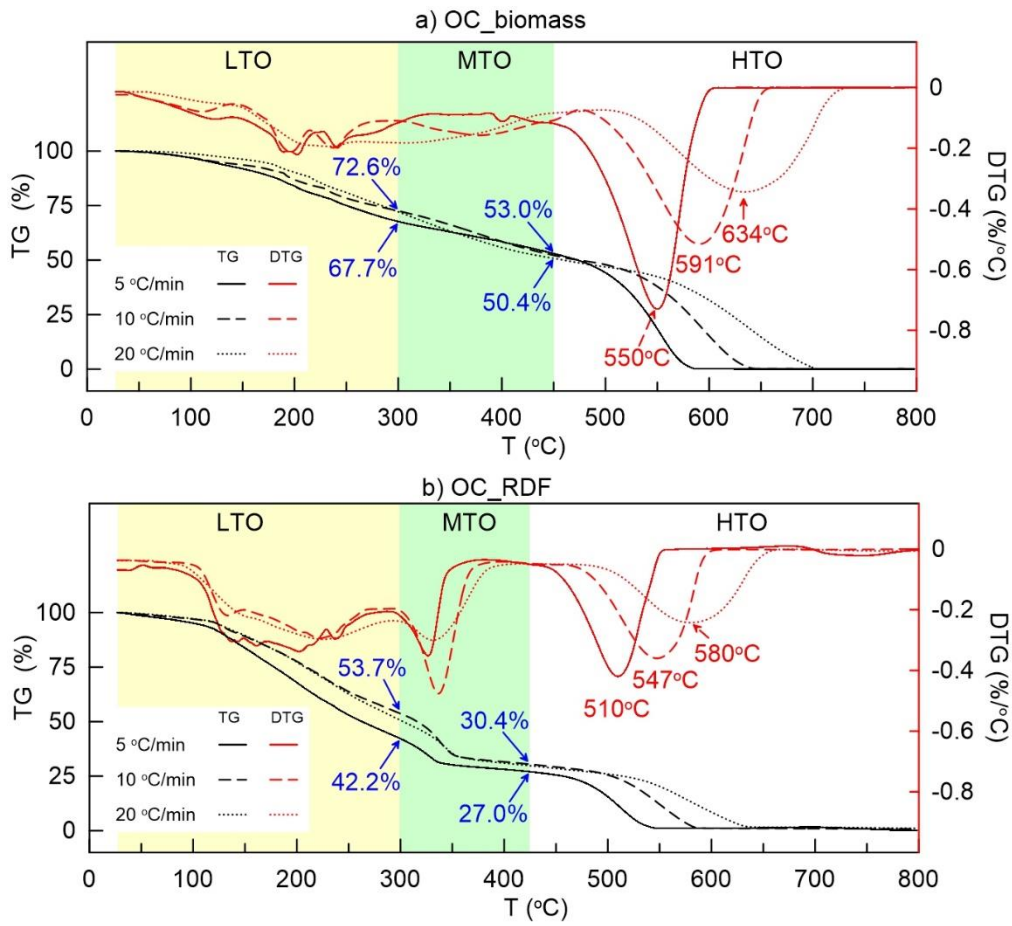
Fig. 5.



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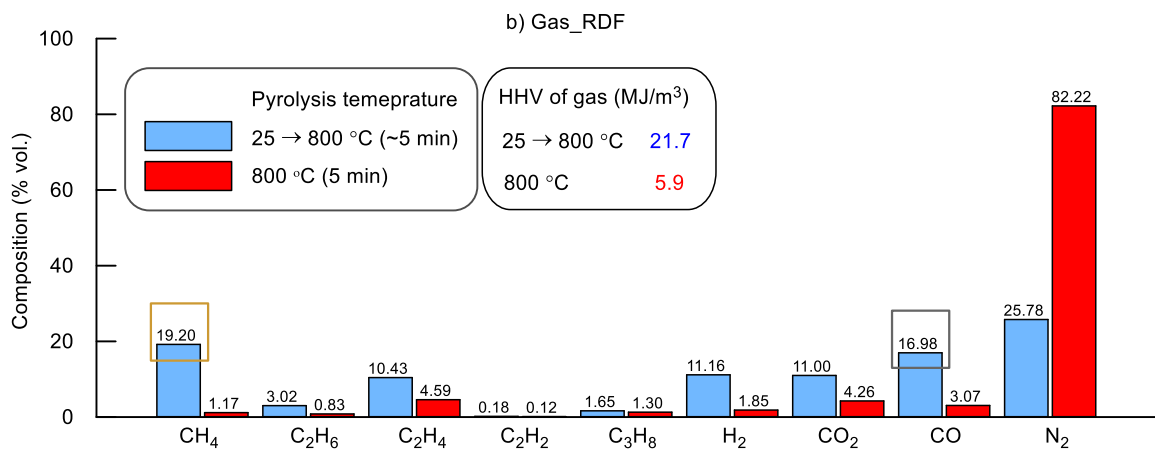
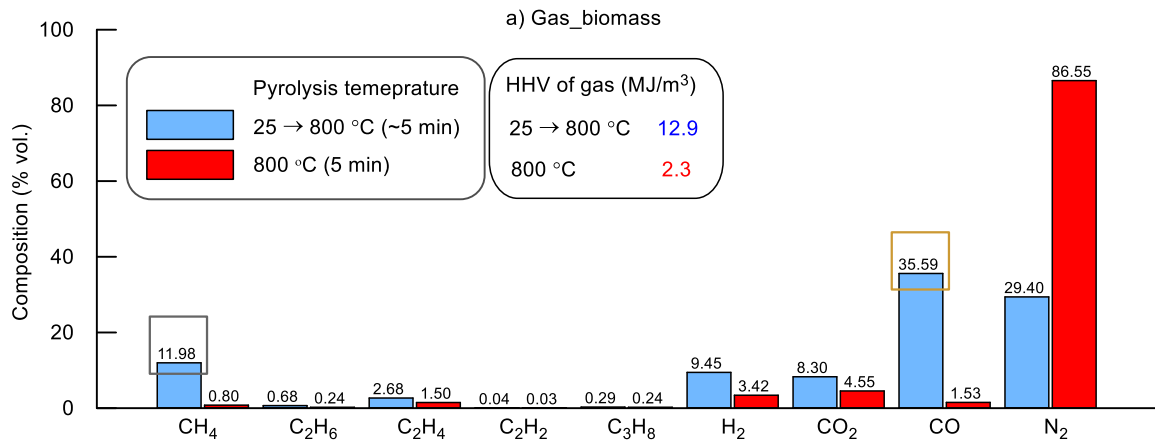
Fig. 6.



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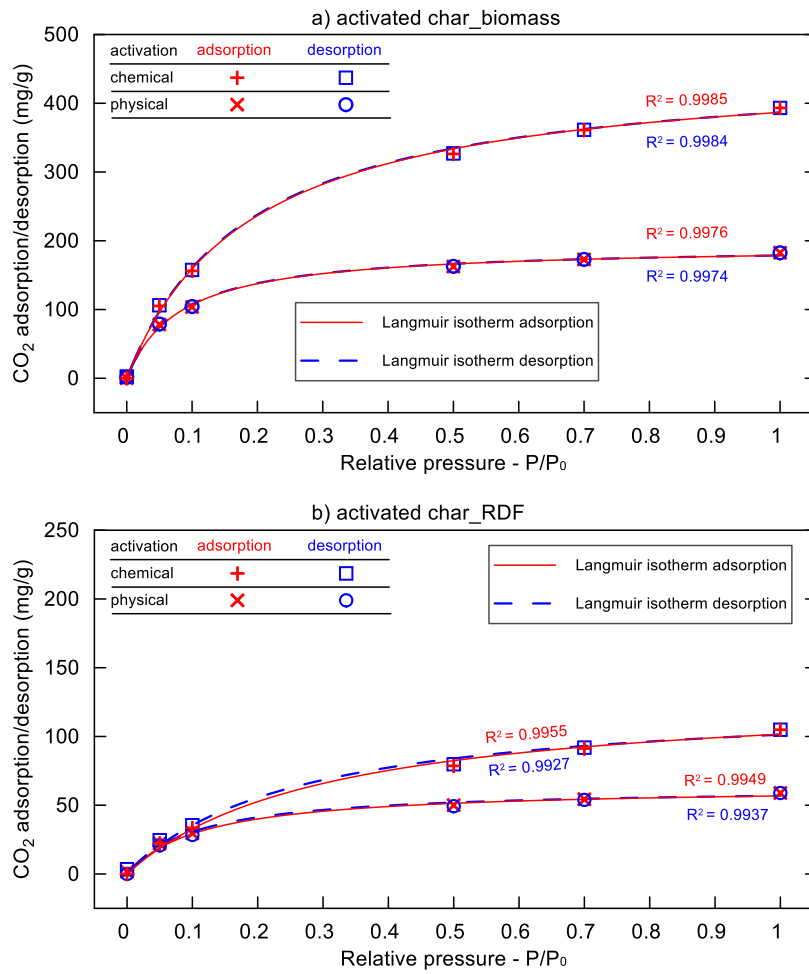
Fig. 7.



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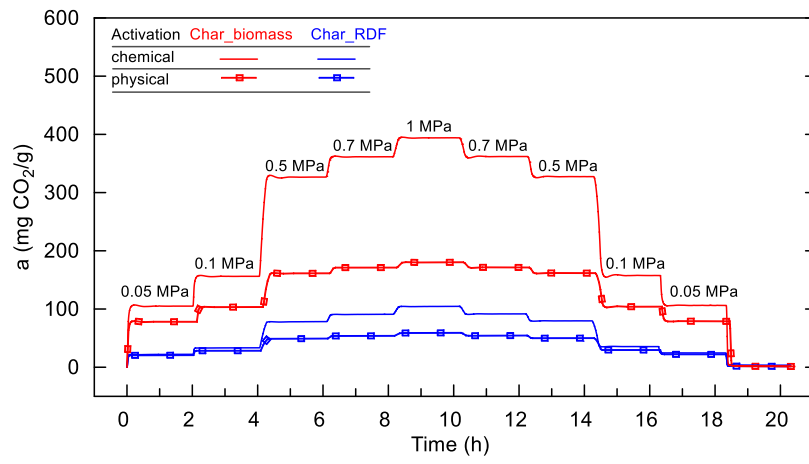
Fig. 8.



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Fig. 9.



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Fig. 10.