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1 **Co-gasification of woody biomass and chicken manure: syngas**  
2 **production, biochar reutilization, and cost-benefit analysis**

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28 **Abstract**

29 The management and disposal of livestock manure has become one of the top environmental  
30 issues at a global scale in line with the tremendous growth of poultry industry over the past  
31 decades. In this work, a potential alternative method for the disposal of chicken manure from  
32 Singapore local hen layer farms was studied. Gasification was proposed as the green  
33 technology to convert chicken manure into clean energy. Through gasification experiments in  
34 a 10 kW fixed bed downdraft gasifier, it was found that chicken manure was indeed a  
35 compatible feedstock for gasification in the presence of wood waste. The co-gasification of  
36 30 wt% chicken manure and 70 wt% wood waste produced syngas of comparable quality to  
37 that of gasification of pure wood waste, with a syngas lower heating value (LHV) of 5.23  
38 MJ/Nm<sup>3</sup> and 4.68 MJ/Nm<sup>3</sup>, respectively. Furthermore, the capability of the gasification  
39 derived biochar in the removal of an emerging contaminant (artificial sweetener such as  
40 Acesulfame, Saccharin and Cyclamate) via adsorption was also conducted in the second part  
41 of this study. The results showed that the biochar was effective in the removal of the  
42 contaminant and the mechanism of adsorption of artificial sweetener by biochar was  
43 postulated to be likely via electrostatic interaction as well as specific interaction. Finally, we  
44 conducted a cost-benefit analysis for the deployment of a gasification system in a hen layer  
45 farm using a Monte Carlo simulation model.

46

47

48

49 **Keywords:** gasification; chicken manure; biochar, adsorption; emerging contaminants; cost-  
50 benefit analysis.

51

52

53 **1. Introduction**

54 Due to the tremendous growth of poultry industry over the past decades, the management and  
55 disposal of livestock manure has become one of the top environmental issues at a global scale  
56 [1]. An estimate by the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) showed that farms  
57 in the United States produce more than 335 million tonnes of dry matter waste annually [2].  
58 This huge amount of animal manure if not properly disposed of, may lead to air pollution due  
59 to the release of gases such as hydrogen sulphide and ammonia [3]. The leaching of manure  
60 by rainwater followed by runoff of the leachate, or the presence of pathogens in the manure,  
61 could also potentially result in the contamination of soil and water resources, which  
62 eventually will affect human health [1].

63

64 In Singapore, there are three hen layer farms which cater for about one fourth of the total egg  
65 demand, i.e., around 1.2 million/day [4]. These farms inevitably generate over 200 tonnes of  
66 animal waste on a daily basis, the disposal of which poses a potential challenge. Specifically,  
67 Chew's Agriculture rears approximately 750,000 chickens that generate 60 tonnes of chicken  
68 manure per day, while Seng Choon Farm produces about 70 to 80 tonnes of chicken manure  
69 per day [5]. One of the potential ways to dispose of the animal manure is incineration [6].  
70 However, the incineration of manure produces a cocktail of toxic by-products (e.g., dioxins  
71 and furans) that are harmful to the environment and general public health if not appropriately  
72 controlled [7]. There is a need to develop or apply alternative technologies to treat or contain  
73 this dairy biomass.

74

75 Gasification is gaining increasing attention in the waste-to-energy or renewable energy  
76 research field as it is regarded as a green technology that could potentially be an alternative  
77 solution to incineration in the disposal of the chicken manure. It has been showcased in a

78 number of studies that gasification is capable of treating a diverse source of solid waste such  
79 as sludge, wood and horticultural waste, food waste, dairy manure, and etc. [8-11] with  
80 encouraging results. Since gasification is conducted in an oxygen deficient environment as  
81 opposed to the oxygen-rich environment in incineration, the formation of the toxic pollutants  
82 is effectively restrained [9, 12]. Furthermore, the gasification technique is well suitable for a  
83 decentralised application [13]. On-site treatment of chicken manure at the farms will benefit  
84 in two ways: (1) the environmental concerns (e.g., pathogen transmission and odour spread)  
85 during the transport of chicken manure to incineration plants is avoided; (2) the power  
86 generation (e.g., electricity converted from syngas) from gasification could be used to satisfy  
87 a part of the energy demand of the farms. Furthermore, while syngas could also be used for  
88 synthesis of valuable hydrocarbons via the Fischer-Tropsch process, a water-gas shift  
89 reaction ( $\text{CO} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2$ ) is required to adjust the syngas to an ideal  $\text{H}_2:\text{CO}$  ratio of  
90 2:1 beforehand, typically done in the industry first through a high temperature shift followed  
91 by a low temperature shift to maximize CO conversion [14]. Last but not least, gasification  
92 also produces valuable solid products such as biochar and ash at the end of the process [15,  
93 16] which have a great application potential in multiple fields including building and  
94 construction, agriculture, water treatment, catalysis and etc. [17-19]. For example, biochar  
95 can be mixed into soil for agricultural purposes to enhance soil quality and nutrient content  
96 [20, 21]. Because of its low bulk density [22], biochar could also be mixed into concrete as  
97 construction material and offers the benefits of light weight and carbon sequestration  
98 capability [23].

99

100 Recently, the capability of biochar in the adsorption and removal of some pollutants such as  
101 heavy metals and organic contaminants in water streams is also well-recognized [18, 24]. As  
102 a newly recognized class of emerging contaminants, the artificial sweetener (AS) such as

103 Acesulfame, Saccharin, Cyclamate, and etc., in water streams pose a potential threat to  
104 ecosystems because it is extremely persistent and resistant to conventional waste water  
105 treatment processes [25, 26]. Its continuous introduction into the water environments has  
106 caused an accumulation in many aquatic ecosystems. Previous studies have shown that AS  
107 may change the physiology and locomotion of *Daphnia magna* [27], and interfere with plant  
108 photosynthesis [28]. However, since conventional approach is not very effective in the  
109 removal of AS from water streams [29, 30], there is a need to explore alternative methods  
110 that are cost effective yet environmentally friendly. One possible solution is to use biochar  
111 that is derived from solid waste through the gasification technology. The successful  
112 adsorption of AS by the biochar derived from the gasification of chicken manure will add a  
113 further economic benefit from biochar sale to the farms.

114

115 In this work, the feasibility of applying the gasification technology for the on-site disposal of  
116 chicken manure at hen layer farms is explored. The performance of the co-gasification  
117 between chicken manure and wood chips is assessed, with the quality of syngas produced  
118 being the indicator. The capability and mechanism of gasification-derived biochar in  
119 adsorbing and removing AS from water are studied. Lastly, a cost-benefit analysis is  
120 conducted to showcase the economic viability of the on-site application of gasification  
121 systems at the farms. Overall, this work aims to show that gasification system as a whole is a  
122 robust technology for waste reduction, energy harvesting, valuable solid product generation.

123

## 124 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 125 **2.1 Feedstock preparation**

126 Chicken manure collected from a local chicken farm was first dried at 68°C for 24 hours in a  
127 dehydrator (Excalibur Parallex 9 Trays commercial dehydrator) to remove its free moisture

128 content. The chicken manure moisture content after drying was approximately 10 wt%. The  
129 dried manure was then used for subsequent characterization and gasification experiment. The  
130 mesquite wood chips (Kingsford Manufacturing Co., USA) used for mixing with chicken  
131 manure prior to co-gasification were approximately 2.54-3.81 cm in size. Two types of final  
132 feedstock were prepared for gasification/ co-gasification: (i) 100 wt% wood chips  
133 (100%WC), and (ii) 30 wt% chicken manure + 70 wt% wood chips mixture  
134 (30%CM+70%WC). The reason for using a 30 wt% chicken manure in the mixture was to  
135 avoid bridging in the hopper based on our past experience that feedstock with sizes below the  
136 lower limit (1.27 cm) has a higher likelihood of blocking the hopper, hence obstructing the  
137 flow of feedstock down the reactor [11].

138

## 139 **2.2 Feedstock characterization**

140 Proximate analysis and ultimate analysis were performed on chicken manure and wood chips.  
141 For proximate analysis of feedstock, a Thermal Gravimetric Analyzer (TGA) (Shimadzu,  
142 DTG-60A) was employed where the feedstock sample was heated from 25°C to 800°C at a  
143 rate of 20°C/minute in nitrogen or air atmospheres. The TGA profile was then used to  
144 identify the moisture, volatiles, fixed carbon and ash contents of feedstock.

145

146 For ultimate analysis, a Vario MACRO Cube elemental analyzer was used to determine the  
147 carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen and sulphur content of the feedstock. Briefly, approximately 2-3g  
148 of sample was combusted at 1150°C to produce CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub> gases, and the gas  
149 detector would detect and analyze the mass percentage of each element (C, H, N and S). The  
150 mass percentage of oxygen was estimated by subtracting C, H, N, S and ash content mass  
151 percentages from 100%. The higher heating value (HHV) of each feedstock was subsequently  
152 estimated using Eq. (1) [31]:

153

154 
$$\text{HHV} = 0.3491 * M_C + 1.1783 * M_H + 0.1005 * M_S - 0.1034 * M_O - 0.0151 * M_N - 0.0211 * M_{ash} \quad (1)$$

155 where  $M_i$  is the mass percentage of the element  $i$  (i.e.  $i = \text{C, H, N, S, O}$  and ash).

156

### 157 **2.3 Co-gasification experiment**

158 The gasifier used in this experiment was a 10kW fixed-bed downdraft gasifier with a  
159 feedstock intake rate of 10kg/h (All Power Labs, Berkeley, CA). Figure 1(a) shows the  
160 schematic of the gasifier. The feedstock was first introduced into the hopper located at the top  
161 of the gasifier and the vacuum fan was switched on. Then the gasifier was started up by  
162 introducing and igniting some gasoline at the igniter to heat up the reactor. Upon reaching a  
163 temperature range of ~800-900°C, the rotating auger was initiated to feed the feedstock into  
164 the gasifier at a rate of 10kg/h, where the feedstock went through four zones of reactions  
165 namely drying, pyrolysis, combustion and reduction (gasification). Air flow into the  
166 combustion zone of the reactor was regulated through a nozzle to control the temperature  
167 where necessary. **The air flow rate in the experiment was 4L/s.** Upon reaching a steady state  
168 operation (approximately 850°C in the reduction zone and 900°C in the combustion zone with  
169 no significant fluctuation), the syngas produced was tapped from the gas sampling port and  
170 filtered before it was analysed by a Gasboard 3100P gas analyser to measure the CO, H<sub>2</sub>,  
171 CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, O<sub>2</sub> content and the lower heating value (LHV) of the syngas. For every batch of  
172 the experiment, the residence time of the feedstock in the gasifier was roughly 3 hours. **While**  
173 **the downstream syngas to power generation section was not covered in the scope of this**  
174 **work, a more complete schematic was proposed (process flowsheet in Figure 1(a)) and details**  
175 **were further outlined in Section 2.6 to allow a more thorough analysis of the deployment of**  
176 **gasification system in hen layer farms.**

177



178 **2.4 Characterization of biochar**

179 The morphological structure of the biochar produced from gasification was observed with a  
180 scanning electron microscope (SEM) (JEOL JSM 5600LV). The surface area and porosity of  
181 biochar was analysed with a Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) test. Proximate and ultimate  
182 analyses were also performed on biochar based on the procedures described in Section 2.2.  
183 The pH of the biochar was determined with a SI Analytics Lab 870 pH meter by suspending  
184 1g of biochar in 10ml of deionized water.

185

186 **2.5 Adsorption of artificial sweetener (AS)**

187 **2.5.1 Kinetics and isotherms study of adsorption of AS by biochar**

188 The three species of artificial sweeteners (AS) of interest, acesulfame (ACE), saccharin  
189 (SAC) and cyclamate (CYC), were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Pte. Ltd., Singapore.  
190 These three AS species were chosen as they are very commonly studied in research owing to  
191 their presence in many water systems [26, 32]. For kinetics study, 10mg of biochar was  
192 suspended in 5ml of 100ppb AS (dissolved in deionized water) in 15ml centrifuge tubes. The  
193 tubes were left shaking at 150rpm and 25°C for different durations. At pre-determined time  
194 points (every 30 minutes, up to 6 hours), the tubes were retrieved from the shaker and the  
195 contents filtered to separate the solid biochar and liquid AS. 100ppb AS solutions in 15ml  
196 centrifuge tubes without the addition of biochar were used as the respective controls for each  
197 time point. The filtrate was then sent for LC-MS/MS analysis to determine the concentration  
198 of AS using a similar method in our previous work [33].

199

200 For isotherms study, 10mg of biochar was suspended in 5ml of AS of different initial  
201 concentrations (10-100ppb) for 6 hours. After 6 hours of shaking, the filtrate was analysed  
202 with LC-MS/MS using the method described above to determine the concentration of AS,

203 which was also the equilibrium concentration. AS solution in the absence of biochar was used  
204 as a control. All experiments were conducted in triplicates.

205

### 206 **2.5.2 Effect of pH and water hardness on adsorption capacity**

207 To investigate the effect of pH on the adsorption capacity in an attempt to investigate the  
208 mechanism of adsorption, 10mg of biochar was suspended in 5ml of 100ppb AS in 15ml  
209 tubes. Then the suspension pH was adjusted by the dropwise addition of HCl or NaOH to a  
210 pH range of 3-10 (SI Analytics Lab 870 pH meter). As the dropwise addition was done with a  
211 10 $\mu$ l pipette and 6-8 drops were added to each sample on average, the influence to the overall  
212 concentration was assumed to be negligible. The suspensions were shaken at 150rpm and  
213 25°C for 6 hours. After that, the suspension pH was re-measured (due to the buffering  
214 capacity of the biochar) and the suspension was filtered. The AS concentration of the filtrate  
215 was measured by LC-MS/MS. Meanwhile, to study the effect of water hardness, 10mg of  
216 biochar was suspended in 5ml of 100ppb AS in water of different total hardness (as CaCO<sub>3</sub>  
217 mg/L): DI water (0 mg/L), Singapore tap water (66 mg/L on average [34]), mixture of DI and  
218 tap water in 1:1 ratio (~33 mg/L), seawater (~6630 mg/L [35]), and 10 $\times$  diluted seawater  
219 (~663 mg/L). Similar to the above, the suspension was filtered after adsorption and the AS  
220 concentration of the filtrate was measured by LC-MS/MS.

221

### 222 **2.5.3 Effect of pH on zeta potential of AS-biochar suspension**

223 To determine whether specific bonding between AS molecules and biochar surface (that can  
224 result in a change in the overall biochar surface charge) is a possible mechanism of  
225 adsorption, the zeta potential of AS-biochar suspension was measured. The zeta potential of  
226 biochar in deionized water or 100ppb AS at different pH was determined by suspending 10  
227 mg of biochar in 40 mL of deionized water or AS. The suspension pH was adjusted to within

228 the range of 3 – 8 with HCl or NaOH (SI Analytics Lab 870 pH meter). Similarly, the total  
229 volume of acid or base added was negligible as compared to the final suspension volume.  
230 Following pH adjustment, the suspension was sonicated for 30 minutes at 25°C in an  
231 ultrasonic bath unit (Elma S30H), and subsequently allowed to stand for 2 days before the  
232 zeta potential was measured with Malvern Zetasizer Nano ZS. The suspension pH was also  
233 re-measured when measuring the zeta potential.

234

## 235 **2.6 Cost-benefit analysis**

### 236 **2.6.1 Scheme Proposal and Parameter Selection**

237 A complete schematic of the whole gasification plant to be set up in the farm is proposed  
238 (presented in Figure 1(a)) to facilitate a more thorough analysis of the technology from the  
239 starting point (feedstock) to electricity generation. After the gasification of feedstock to  
240 produce syngas as discussed in section 2.3, the syngas is cleaned up via a series of processing  
241 units such as cyclone, cooler and scrubber to remove fine particulates and impurities.  
242 Thereafter, cleaned syngas is fed to a gas engine to generate electricity. The power output is  
243 calculated as [36]

$$244 \quad P = \dot{m}_{biomass} \times LHV_{feedstock} \times CGE \times EF \quad (2)$$

244

245 where  $\dot{m}_{biomass}$  is the biomass consumption rate (kg/h);  $LHV_{feedstock}$  (MJ/kg) is the lower  
246 heating value of feedstock;  $CGE$  is the cold gas efficiency;  $EF$  is the electrical efficiency of  
247 the gas engine.  $LHV_{feedstock}$  and  $CGE$  are obtained based on our experiments.

248

249 Based on the design of the plant proposed above, a cost-benefit analysis for the deployment  
250 of a gasification system in one of the hen layer farms is conducted following a similar scheme  
251 employed by the study of You et al. [13]. The cost components involved in the gasification-  
252 based disposal include the initial capital investment such as the facility and land costs,

253 operating and maintenance (O&M) cost, woodchip cost, cost contingency, and external costs.  
254 However, for the case of hen layer farms, the existing, spacious land space makes the land  
255 cost negligible, that is, no extra land space needs to be purchased for the gasification system.  
256 We consider to use commercial woodchips as co-gasification agents instead of existing  
257 horticultural or wood waste as proposed in the study by You et al. [13]. The woodchips do  
258 not need to go through a pre-treatment process and could be directly used for gasification as  
259 we did during the experiments. The bulky and loose form of horticultural or wood waste and  
260 the large demand of co-gasification agent further makes the use of horticultural or wood  
261 waste less realistic for a hen layer farm. The cost contingency is used to consider the costs  
262 that are unknown at the moment but will probably occur in the future. The external costs  
263 defined as the monetary valuation of damages caused by the pollutants emitted during a  
264 process are also negligible as suggested by previous studies [13]. Hence, the major cost  
265 components are the facility cost, O&M cost, woodchip cost, cost contingency. Note that the  
266 cost of the gasification system used in the CBA is an overall cost of the system based on the  
267 reference of the data, that is, it includes the cost of gasifier, syngas cleaning units, and  
268 electricity generation system. The O&M cost includes salaries, training cost, and component  
269 replacement cost, etc. The major benefit components include selling electricity (energy  
270 income), waste (chicken manure) disposal income, and biochar (resource income). To  
271 account for the underlying uncertainty of variable parameters, triangular distributions are  
272 assumed and the cost-benefit analysis is modeled by Monte Carlo simulation with a total of  
273  $10^5$  iterations. The triangular distributions of the variable parameters are summarized in Table  
274 1.  
275  
276 Similar to the study by You et al. [13], a triangular distribution with a lower limit, mode, and  
277 upper limit of 1000, 1500 and 2000 US\$/kW, respectively, is set to be the unit cost of a

278 gasification system (including both gasifier and gas engine sub-systems) in 2007. The cost is  
279 updated to the current year (2017) using the Chemical Engineering Plant Cost Index (CEPCI)  
280 as Eq. (3)

$$\text{Cost}_i = \text{Cost}_j(\text{CEPCI}_i/\text{CEPCI}_j) \quad (3)$$

281 where  $i$  and  $j$  denote the current year (2017) and base year (2007), respectively. The annual  
282 value of CEPCI for 2007 was 525.4, while the annual value of CEPCI for year 2017 is not  
283 available and is represented by that for 2015, i.e., 556.8. The scale dependence of facility cost  
284 is considered by Eq. (4) [37]

$$\text{Cost}_k = \text{Cost}_i(S_k/S_i)^f \quad (4)$$

285 where  $S_k$  and  $S_i$  denote the designed facility capacity and base facility capacity, respectively.  
286 Considering an operating time of 24 hours per day [38], the yearly mass of chicken manure of  
287 around 27000 tons [5], and a feedstock mixture ratio of 30% vs 70% between the chicken  
288 manure and woodchips, the full load capacity of the designed system is estimated to be  
289 around 3.1 MW with a feedstock consumption rate of 3.7 ton/hr. The base facility capacity  
290 was set to be 1 MW [39].  $f = 0.7$  is the scaling factor.

291

292 Similar to the study by You et al. [13], a triangular distribution with a lower limit, mode, and  
293 upper limit of 0.008, 0.014, and 0.02, respectively, is set for the ratio between the monthly  
294 O&M cost and the capital cost (i.e., the facility cost). It is assumed that the O&M cost  
295 increases at a rate of 5% [40]. The price of wood chips is set to be triangularly distributed  
296 with a lower limit, mode, and upper limit of 100, 150, and 200 US\$/ton [41], respectively.  
297 The cost contingency is considered to have a triangular distribution with a lower limit, mode,  
298 and upper limit of 2, 4, and 6 US\$/kW/year [40], respectively. The electrical efficiency of gas  
299 engine is considered to have a triangular distribution with a lower limit, mode, and upper  
300 limit of 25%, 30%, and 35%, respectively [42]. The syngas to power conversion efficiency is

301 typically about 25% [43]. Electricity is also consumed by the gasification system itself, which  
302 is the so-called auxiliary electricity consumption (AEC). AEC is considered to be 10% [40].  
303 A triangular distribution with a lower limit, mode, and upper limit of 0.1, 0.2, and 0.3  
304 US\$/kWh, respectively, is assumed for the tariff of electricity [44]. The waste income is  
305 estimated by the product of net waste handled by the gasification system and the refuse  
306 disposal fee. A triangular distribution with a lower limit, mode, and upper limit of 50, 60, and  
307 70 US\$/ton, respectively, is assumed for the refuse disposal fee [45]. Note the waste disposal  
308 benefit here denotes the cost that the farm otherwise needs to undertake if the chicken manure  
309 is disposed outside of the farm (i.e., by incineration). The price of biochar is set to be  
310 triangularly distributed with a lower limit, mode, and upper limit of 1000, 2500, and 4000  
311 US\$/ton, respectively, considering the global average biochar price is around 2650 US\$/ton  
312 [46]. The mass of biochar is based on our experimental data as reported below.

313

314 The net present value (NPV) is calculated as Eq. (5)

$$\text{NPV} = \sum_t^{LT} \frac{C_{it}}{(1+r)^t} - C_0 \quad (5)$$

315 where  $C_t$  is the net cash inflow during a year  $t$ ;  $C_0$  is the total initial capital investment;  
316  $LT=20$  denotes the life time of the gasification facility;  $r$  is the discount rate and is set to be  
317 triangularly distributed with a lower limit, mode, and upper limit of 1%, 8%, and 15%,  
318 respectively, according to the study by You et al. [13].

319

320

321

322

323

### 324 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 325 **3.1 Characteristics of feedstock**

326 Table 2 shows the results from the proximate analysis and ultimate analysis of chicken  
327 manure and wood waste. As compared to wood waste, chicken manure contained lower C, H  
328 and O content but higher N and ash content. Hence, the HHV of chicken manure is lower  
329 (approximately half) than that of wood waste as estimated by Eq. (1). **Though the HHV of**  
330 **chicken manure is significantly different (lower) from that of wood waste, co-gasification of**  
331 **these two materials may still be feasible, but it has to be conducted with care (e.g. appropriate**  
332 **mixing ratio of these two feedstocks such that the amount of chicken manure is lesser than**  
333 **wood waste) so as to not severely affect the overall gasification performance.** Additionally,  
334 when compared to other existing studies [47-49], it was found that the composition of  
335 chicken manure could vary significantly **especially its C content and hence the HHV**, which  
336 is not uncommon, mainly due to the different origins and management practices of farm [50].

337

#### 338 **3.2 Gasification performance**

339 Figure 1(b) shows the transient syngas data from the co-gasification of 30% chicken manure  
340 + 70% woodchips recorded by the online gas analyser throughout a period of 15 minutes.  
341 When steady state was achieved, the individual syngas data points were averaged over the  
342 steady state range to estimate the mean syngas composition. The mean gas composition of the  
343 main syngas component (CO and H<sub>2</sub>) as well as CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> is shown in Figure 1(c). It was  
344 observed that the syngas produced from the co-gasification of 30%CM+70%WC had a  
345 slightly higher CO and H<sub>2</sub> volume percentage, lower CO<sub>2</sub> volume percentage and similar  
346 CH<sub>4</sub> percentage, as compared to the gasification of pure woodchips. Syngas from  
347 30%CM+70%WC contained ~20 vol% CO and ~18 vol% H<sub>2</sub>, while syngas from 100%WC  
348 contained ~15 vol% CO and ~16 vol% H<sub>2</sub>. The remaining components in the syngas

349 generally consist of species that are incombustible such as long carbon chained tar, hydrogen  
350 sulphide, carbonyl sulphide, ammonia, nitrogen and other trace contaminants [51]. Overall,  
351 the lower heating value (LHV) of the syngas produced from 30%CM+70%WC (5.23  
352 MJ/Nm<sup>3</sup>) was comparable to that of 100%WC (4.68 MJ/Nm<sup>3</sup>).

353

354 The slightly higher LHV of syngas from 30%CM+70%WC could be attributed to the  
355 different structure and properties of the feedstock. Firstly, chicken manure is smaller in size,  
356 softer and more loosely packed, while wood chips are bigger in size, harder and more  
357 compacted. When subjected to gasification, it is hence easier for chicken manure to attain a  
358 complete conversion reaction to produce syngas as compared to wood chips. Secondly, wood  
359 chips has a higher fixed carbon content than chicken manure. In general, biomass with higher  
360 fixed carbon content tend to favour biochar formation [52], which in turn indicates that a  
361 lower syngas yield or quality could be expected. Therefore, syngas from the co-gasification  
362 of chicken manure and wood chips has more volumetric energy density (MJ/Nm<sup>3</sup>) than  
363 gasification of pure wood chips.

364

365 While the co-gasification of chicken manure and wood chips was only conducted at one  
366 mixing ratio (30% chicken manure) due to limited amount of feedstock collected, the  
367 performance of other mixing ratios (e.g. 10%, 20% chicken manure) could be inferred from  
368 our previous study using food waste [11]. When co-gasified with wood chips at increasing  
369 ratio of food waste (0%, 20%, 30% and 40% food waste), the quality of syngas produced in  
370 terms of its LHV slightly increased, before encountering the bridging issue due to large  
371 amount of undersized particles. As both food waste and chicken manure have similar physical  
372 texture, i.e. smaller, softer and more loosely packed than woodchips, such that they are easily  
373 reacted completely inside the gasifier to produce syngas, the same increasing LHV trend is



374 expected when their percentage is increased in the feedstock mixture. A comparable and  
375 similar quality of syngas was obtained for the co-gasification of 30% food waste and 70%  
376 wood chips (LHV 5.27 MJ/Nm<sup>3</sup>). All these results showed that chicken manure, like wood  
377 chips and food waste, has the right chemical and physical properties for gasification in our  
378 gasifier.

379

380 In this study, by performing a mass balance, pure wood gasification resulted in approximately  
381 79.8% syngas, 13.9% biochar and 6.3% ash, while co-gasification of chicken manure and  
382 wood chips produced about 80.8% syngas, 7.2% biochar and 12.0% ash. The mass fraction of  
383 syngas was similar for both cases, while the addition of chicken manure for gasification  
384 resulted in a higher mass fraction of ash (lower biochar) than pure wood gasification, mainly  
385 due to the high ash content of chicken manure as presented in Table 2. Our finding was  
386 somewhat similar with the literature that gasification typically results in roughly 85% gaseous  
387 products, 10% solid residue and 5% liquid [53]. It is also known that downdraft gasifier  
388 produces lesser tar-oils (<1%) and more particulate matter [54]. Therefore, the amount of  
389 liquid produced in this study was assumed negligible.

390

391 Last but not least, the raw material to syngas conversion efficiency, or the cold gas efficiency  
392 (CGE) for both cases was estimated using Eq. (6)

$$393 \quad CGE = \frac{LHV_{gas} \times \dot{V}_{gas}}{LHV_{biomass} \times \dot{m}_{biomass}} \times 100\% \quad (6)$$

394 where  $LHV_{gas}$  is the LHV of syngas produced (MJ/Nm<sup>3</sup>),  $\dot{V}_{gas}$  is the volumetric flow rate of  
395 syngas (m<sup>3</sup>/hr),  $LHV_{biomass}$  is the LHV of biomass (MJ/kg) and  $\dot{m}_{biomass}$  is the biomass  
396 consumption rate (kg/hr). It was estimated that the CGE was approximately 64.9% and 69.2%  
397 for the case of 100%WC and 30%CM+70%WC, respectively. This is similar to the CGE  
398 reported in our previous study using the same gasifier for the gasification of woody biomass

399 and mixture with sewage sludge [9]. Though fixed bed downdraft gasifier is known to have a  
400 lower efficiency than other gasifiers such as the updraft gasifier due to a high amount of heat  
401 being carried over by the hot gas [55, 56], it is still preferred for power generation as the  
402 quantity of tar produced is very low [57].

403

### 404 **3.3 Characteristics of biochar**

405 The characteristics of the solid residue generated from the gasification experiments, i.e. the  
406 biochar, are shown in Table 3. It was noted that the pH of both the biochar (pure woodchips  
407 gasification biochar (WC BC) and chicken manure-woodchips co-gasification biochar (CM  
408 BC)) was approximately 10, i.e. in the alkaline range. This is consistent with other reported  
409 results in the literature that biochar is generally near neutral or alkaline in pH [58, 59]. From  
410 the SEM images in Figure 2, though high porosity was observed for both types of biochar,  
411 BET analysis showed that their external surface area was quite different. CM BC contained a  
412 higher external surface area (340 m<sup>2</sup>/g) than WC BC (172 m<sup>2</sup>/g), which could be attributed to  
413 the different properties of feedstock. In brief, wood chips were bigger in size and had higher  
414 fixed carbon content than chicken manure. Hence, it was likely that wood chips experienced a  
415 lower burn-off rate compared to the smaller size chicken manure which was more easily and  
416 quickly reacted. As such, WC BC had a lower porosity and surface area. This was also  
417 reflected by a higher C content remaining in WC BC (84%) compared to that of CM BC  
418 (71%). Our finding was similar to the study of Lima et al. [60] where the surface area of their  
419 wood shavings biochar was also smaller than that of chicken litter biochar. Nevertheless, the  
420 highly porous structure and high surface area of the biochar make it a good adsorbent for the  
421 removal of water contaminants such as artificial sweeteners [61-63]. Since CM BC was found  
422 to contain higher surface area, it was used for subsequent adsorption study.

423

### 424 **3.4 Adsorption kinetics of AS by biochar**

425 Figure 3(a) shows the adsorption kinetics of the 3 AS species (ACE, SAC and CYC) by  
426 biochar. In contrast to the typical sorption kinetics that display a smooth L-shape curve with  
427 sorption capacity gradually increasing with time, it was observed that the AS kinetic  
428 adsorption curve increased very quickly within the first 0.5hr and then slowly plateaued off.  
429 This could be due to the absence of the intra-particle surface diffusion owing to the large pore  
430 size of biochar, hence there was no rate limiting diffusion step [64]. This is in contrast to the  
431 behaviour of a microporous sorbent [65, 66]. Equilibrium was reached approximately within  
432 the first two hours of adsorption, with an adsorption capacity of about 30, 50 and 50 mg/kg  
433 for ACE, SAC and CYC, respectively. This is also equivalent to a removal efficiency of  
434 82.5%, 98.4% and 65.9% for the three AS species respectively.

435  
436 From the limited number of such studies in the literature, only one most representative study  
437 was found where AS was removed by metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) and activated  
438 carbon (AC) [67]. When compared to this study, though the SAC adsorption performance of  
439 our biochar was not as superior as the AC, it is noteworthy that the AS concentration used in  
440 both studies was different, and AC is a much higher quality and hence expensive material as  
441 compared to biochar. Our study used a concentration in the ppb range, a level typically  
442 detected in the environment such as surface water or water treatment plants [26, 68], for a  
443 more realistic and representative evaluation of the current situation. Furthermore, the benefit  
444 of using biochar is to offer low cost adsorptive material that is easily affordable.  
445 Nevertheless, this biochar can be upgraded to AC through activation processes [62] at  
446 additional costs to further maximize its performance.

447

448 In addition, to further examine the kinetic adsorption of AS onto the biochar surface, the AS  
 449 sorption experimental data at various time points was also fitted into several kinetics models  
 450 in the literature. Out of the more popular kinetics models such as the first order, second order,  
 451 and Elovich rate model [69], it was found that the Elovich rate model (Eq. (7)), wherein the  
 452 model assumes that the adsorption sites are heterogeneous and exhibit a variety of activation  
 453 energy during the adsorption process [70], provided the best fit for all three AS species.

$$454 \quad q_t = \frac{1}{\beta} \ln \alpha\beta + \frac{1}{\beta} \ln t \quad (7)$$

455 where  $q_t$  (mg/kg) is the amount adsorbed/ adsorption capacity ,  $t$  (hr) is the time,  $\alpha$   
 456 (mg/kg/hr) is the initial adsorption rate, and  $\beta$  (kg/mg) is the desorption constant. The  
 457 corresponding  $R^2$  fitting value and the relevant parameters are reported in Table 4. It was  
 458 found that  $\alpha$  was the largest for SAC among the three species, indicating its high initial  
 459 adsorption rate as shown by the steepest gradient in Figure 3(a). On the other hand, the  
 460 adsorption of CYC gave the smallest  $\alpha$  due to its lower adsorption rate as shown by the curve  
 461 wherein it was still gradually increasing while the adsorption of SAC and ACE had already  
 462 plateaued off.

463

### 464 **3.5 Adsorption isotherms of AS by biochar**

465 As the adsorption isotherm is commonly used to define the characteristic of solid-liquid  
 466 adsorption process at equilibrium, the adsorption isotherm study was conducted. Figure 3(b)  
 467 shows the sorption isotherms of ACE, SAC and CYC by biochar, i.e. the sorption capacity at  
 468 different equilibrium concentrations. Similarly, the experimental data was fitted to two  
 469 isotherms models such as the Langmuir model (Eq. (8)) and Freundlich model (Eq. (9)),  
 470 respectively.

$$471 \quad S = \frac{S_{\max}KC}{1+KC} \quad (8)$$

$$472 \quad S = K_f C^n \quad (9)$$

473 where  $S$  (mg/kg) is the amount adsorbed/ adsorption capacity ,  $C$  (ppb) is the equilibrium  
474 concentration,  $S_{\max}$  (mg/kg) is the maximum amount adsorbed,  $K$  (1/ppb) is the Langmuir  
475 adsorption constant related to the interaction bonding energy,  $K_f$  (mg/kg/ppb<sup>n</sup>) is the  
476 Freundlich equilibrium constant, and  $n$  is the Freundlich linearity constant.

477

478 For ACE and CYC, the Langmuir model was found to be a better model to represent their  
479 respective adsorption trend ( $R^2=0.997$  for ACE and  $R^2=0.969$  for CYC), whereas SAC was  
480 better fitted into the Freundlich model ( $R^2=0.862$ ). The fitted model parameters of each AS  
481 species are shown in Table 5. The fitting results showed that the Langmuir model  $S_{\max}$  value  
482 was estimated to be larger for ACE than CYC, indicating that the maximum adsorbed amount  
483 for ACE was higher than CYC at any given concentration, as represented by its steeper  
484 gradient in Figure 3(b). On the other hand,  $K$  was smaller for ACE than CYC. This inverse  
485 trend is due to the negative correlation between the bonding energy governing the  $K$  value  
486 and the adsorption maximum  $S_{\max}$  [71]. Additionally, it was noted that unlike the typical L-  
487 shape of a Langmuir isotherm curve, the Langmuir adsorption isotherms of ACE and CYC  
488 were almost linear. This was due to the low concentration of AS used (10-100ppb). At low  
489 concentrations, Eq. (8) is simplified into a linear expression.

490

491 An equilibrium parameter ( $R_L$ ) can also be used to express the characteristics of the  
492 Langmuir isotherm based on Eq. (10) [72].

493 
$$R_L = \frac{1}{1+K_L C_0} \quad (10)$$

494 where  $K_L$  is the Langmuir isotherm constant and  $C_0$  is the initial concentration.  $R_L$  indicates  
495 the nature of adsorption where  $R_L = 0$  means irreversible,  $0 < R_L < 1$  means favourable,  
496  $R_L = 1$  means linear, and  $R_L > 1$  means unfavourable [73]. Based on the initial concentration  
497 range of 10-100ppb used in this study, it was found that the  $R_L$  values fall within the range of

498 0.58-0.99. This indicates that from Langmuir isotherm point of view, biochar is favourable  
499 for the adsorption of AS (ACE and CYC) at the experimental conditions used.

500

### 501 **3.6 Effect of pH and water hardness on adsorption capacity of AS by biochar**

502 Figure 4(a) shows the adsorption capacity of AS by biochar at different suspension pH. The  
503 solution pH is a vital parameter in adsorption process as it affects both the adsorbent (e.g.  
504 surface charge) and adsorbate (e.g. ionization and speciation) [74, 75]. The pH at point of  
505 zero charge ( $pH_{pzc}$ ) was approximately pH3.5 (Figure 5). From Figure 4(a), the pH range for  
506 this experiment was  $>pH$  3.5 (within pH 7-10). In general, beyond  $pH_{pzc}$ , biochar surface  
507 charge is net negative. From this test, it was found that adsorption capacity decreases with  
508 increasing pH. As pH increases with the addition of alkaline ( $OH^-$ ), the functional groups  
509 (typically phenolic  $-OH$  and  $-COO^-$  groups) of biochars become more deprotonated [76],  
510 hence the overall surface charge is even more negative. This weakens the electrostatic  
511 attraction between cationic AS molecules and negative biochar surface. Furthermore, the  $OH^-$   
512 ions will compete with anionic AS molecules for adsorption sites. These lead to the decrease  
513 in adsorption efficiency. On the other hand, as pH decreases with the addition of acid ( $H^+$ ),  
514 the functional groups are more protonated. Biochar net surface charge becomes less negative  
515 (more positive), hence the electrostatic attraction is stronger and the adsorption efficiency  
516 increases. This observation suggests that electrostatic interaction could be a mechanism  
517 governing the adsorption of AS onto biochar, which is consistent with the findings in  
518 literature that electrostatic interaction is the dominant mechanism for the adsorption of  
519 organic contaminants onto chars [77]. Figure 4(b) shows the effect of water hardness on the  
520 adsorption capacity of AS onto biochar. In general, as water hardness increased, the  
521 adsorption efficiency of the three AS species decreased. This is somewhat consistent to the  
522 finding reported by Couto et al. where the adsorption of caffeine onto activated carbon

523 decreased under the influence of water hardness, mainly due to the competition effect from  
524 calcium and magnesium ions [78].

525

### 526 **3.7 Effect of pH on AS-biochar suspension zeta potential**

527 From Figure 5, the pH at point of zero charge ( $\text{pH}_{\text{pzc}}$ ) was approximately pH3.5 for both  
528 deionized water (control) and AS. When  $\text{pH} > 3.5$ , zeta potential was negative, indicating that  
529 the biochar surface charge was net negative. In general, with increasing pH, the zeta potential  
530 became more negative, which suggests that the amount of negative charge increased with pH.  
531 Furthermore, in the presence of 100ppb AS, the pH-zeta potential curve shifted slightly to the  
532 positive direction. This indicates that there could be some specific bonding or interaction  
533 between the AS molecules and the biochar surface such that AS can be specifically adsorbed  
534 by biochar. When there is any change in the bonds (e.g. adsorbed ions diffuse into the Stern  
535 layer of electric double-layers and form bonds with the biochar surface), the biochar net  
536 surface charge will be changed, hence the zeta potential will change as well [79]. Based on  
537 this observation, it is hypothesized that specific bonding between AS molecules and  
538 functional groups of biochar surface could also be a potential mechanism of adsorption in  
539 addition to electrostatic interaction.

540

### 541 **3.8 Cost-benefit analysis**

542 The calculated NPV distribution is shown in Figure 6 (a). The average and standard deviation  
543 of the NPV distribution are -4.6 million US\$ and 21.9 million US\$, respectively, over a  
544 course of 20 years. Statistically, there is a 41.5% chance for the gasification-based disposal  
545 system to bring profit to the farm. Figure 6 (b) shows the comparison among the average cost  
546 and benefit components. It is shown that the biochar selling income (53.9 million US\$)  
547 accounts for the most of the income, followed by the electricity selling income (49.3 million

548 US\$) and waste disposal income (6.0 million US\$), respectively. The setting of the variable  
549 parameters (e.g., biochar price, electricity tariff, and electrical efficiency) is based on the  
550 possible values of recent years, while they may vary significantly depending on the market.  
551 The biochar price could be even higher than the ones considered in this work upon the  
552 increase of market demand [46, 80, 81]. A 100% increase in the biochar price could increase  
553 the profitability probability and average NPV of the gasification system to 93.7% and 49.1  
554 million US\$, respectively. Recycling of gasification biochar is important towards the  
555 economic feasibility of the gasification system. The increase of electricity tariff could  
556 effectively improve the economics of the system. A 100% increase in the electricity tariff  
557 could make the system to be 94.2% profitable with an average NPV of 44.2 million US\$.  
558 Increasing the overall electrical efficiency of the system serves to increase the energy income,  
559 which could be achieved by increasing (1) the *CGE* of the gasifier and (2) the *EF* of gas  
560 engine. For the former, however, caution needs to be taken because a higher *CGE* generally  
561 corresponds to a lower biochar yield (or even a deterioration of biochar quality) and thus less  
562 biochar income. This means that the increase of the total income due to the increase of  
563 electricity income could be lessened. For the latter, the biochar yield and quality are not  
564 affected and the total electricity income will increase. For example, if the *EF* of gas engine  
565 increases by 50%, the profitability chance and average NPV of the system increase to 71.7%  
566 and 14.3 million US\$, respectively. The woodchip cost is the biggest cost component (96.6  
567 million US\$) followed by the O&M cost (9.03 million US\$) and the facility cost (3.4 million  
568 US\$). The economics of the system could be improved upon the reduction of the woodchip  
569 price or using cheaper alternative co-gasification agents. Halving the woodchip price could  
570 increase the profitability chance and average NPV to 99.5% and 45.2 million US\$,  
571 respectively. Finally, the O & M cost and facility cost may decrease with the continuous  
572 advancement of the gasification technology. For example, a 50% decrease in the ratio



573 between the monthly O&M cost and the capital cost increases the profitability probability and  
574 the average NPV to 49.7% and -0.38 million US\$. On the whole, the economics of the system  
575 has a potential to be further improved in the future.

576

#### 577 **4. Conclusions**

578 In this study, co-gasification of wood waste and chicken manure was conducted in a 10kW  
579 fixed-bed downdraft gasifier to evaluate the feasibility of chicken manure as a gasification  
580 feedstock. At the same time, the potential of chicken manure as a source for a green and  
581 sustainable energy production was studied. The co-gasification test was successfully  
582 conducted for a feedstock composition of 30% chicken manure and 70% wood waste. It was  
583 found that at 30% chicken manure, the quality of syngas produced in terms of LHV was not  
584 significantly different (comparable or slightly higher) from that of pure wood waste  
585 gasification, which is an indication that chicken manure is suitable for mixing with wood  
586 waste as a feedstock for gasification. This suggests that gasification may be a potential  
587 technology for the disposal of chicken manure in a green and environmental friendly way  
588 while harnessing clean energy in the form of syngas concurrently.

589

590 Furthermore, the biochar produced was found to be able to effectively remove artificial  
591 sweeteners (Acesulfame, Saccharin and Cyclamate), a newly categorized class of emerging  
592 contaminant, from water via adsorption. Both the kinetics and isotherms sorption behaviors  
593 were studied. Based on the effect of pH on the zeta potential of AS-biochar suspension and  
594 adsorption efficiency, it is postulated that electrostatic and specific interaction are potential  
595 mechanisms governing the adsorption. Last but not least, the cost-benefit analysis showed  
596 that there was around 41.5% chance for the system to profit the farm and this probability

597 increases to over 90% if either the biochar price or electricity tariff are doubled, or the  
598 woodchip price is halved.

599

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605

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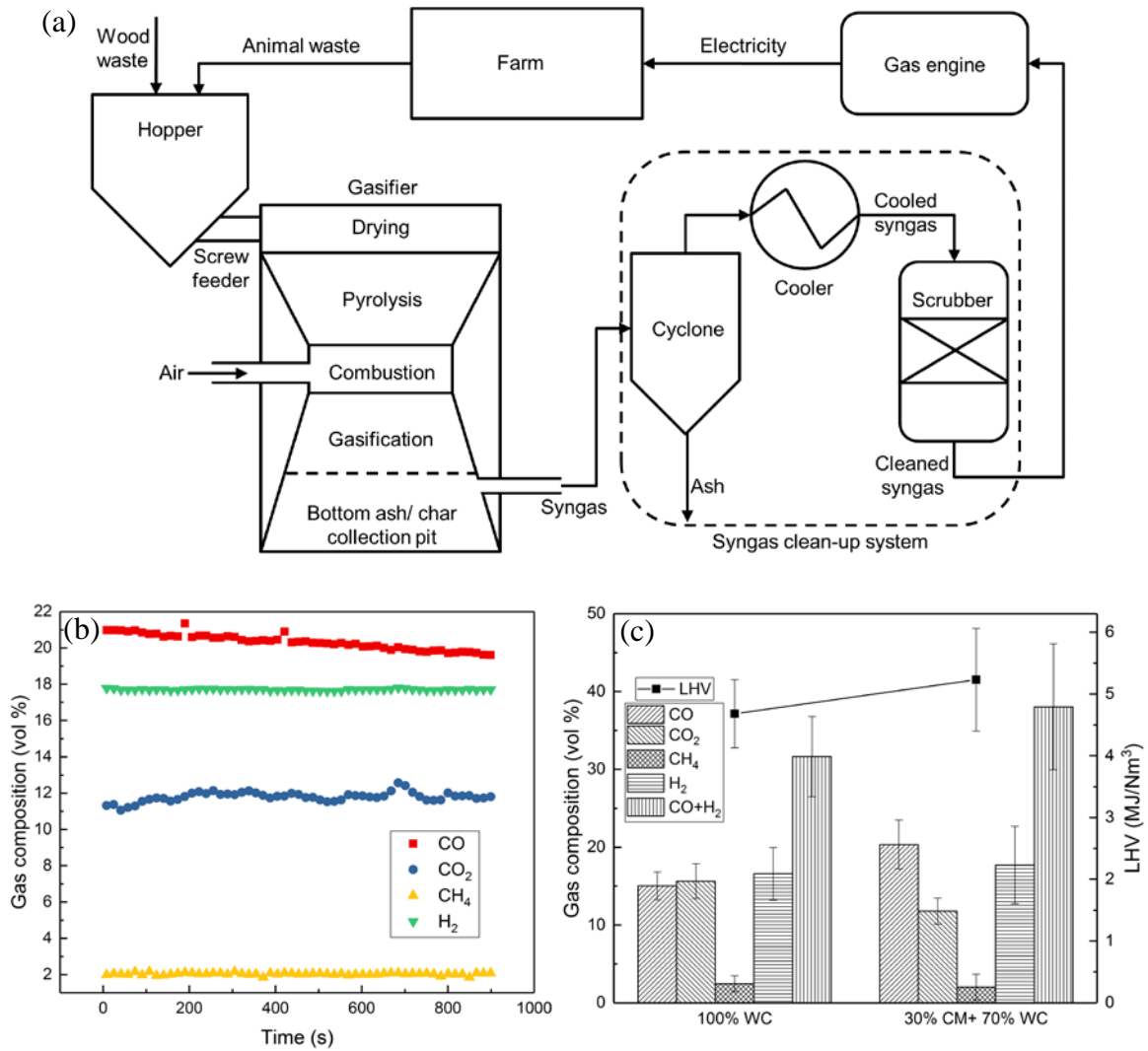
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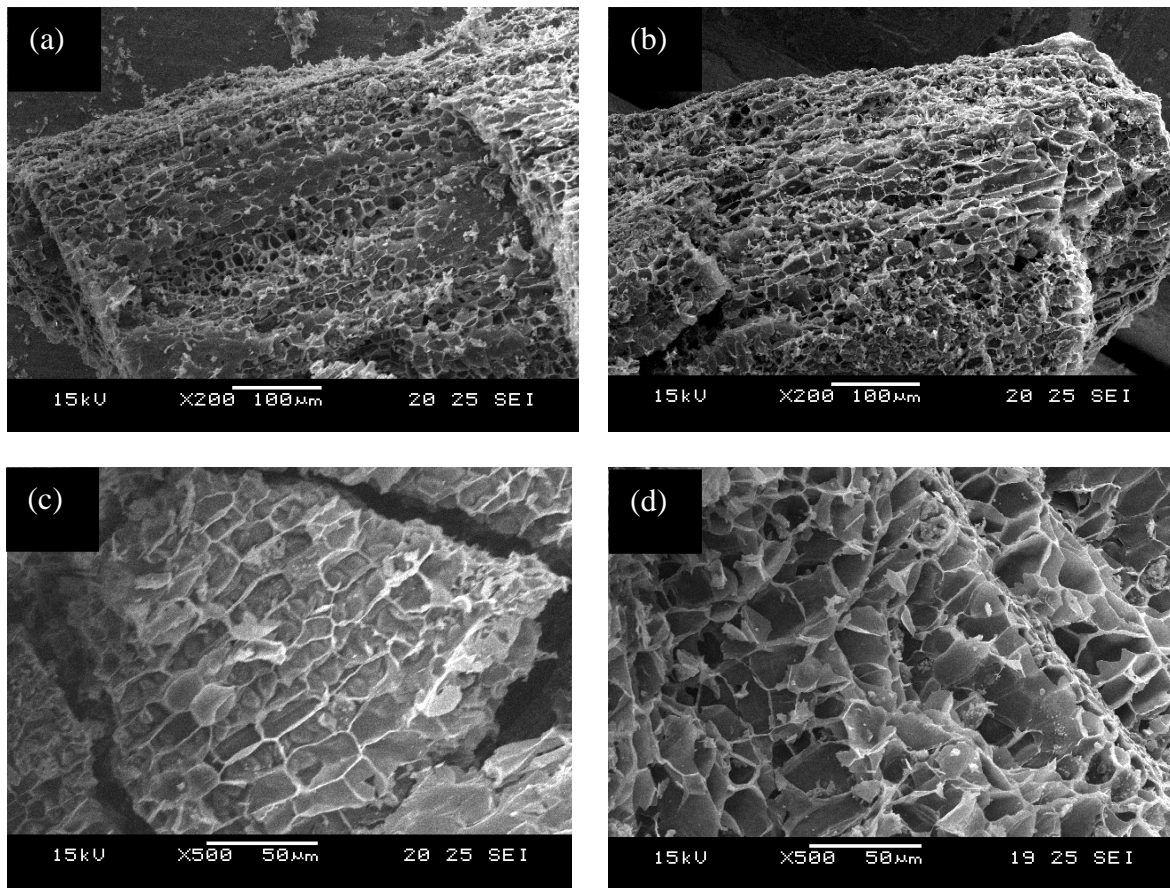
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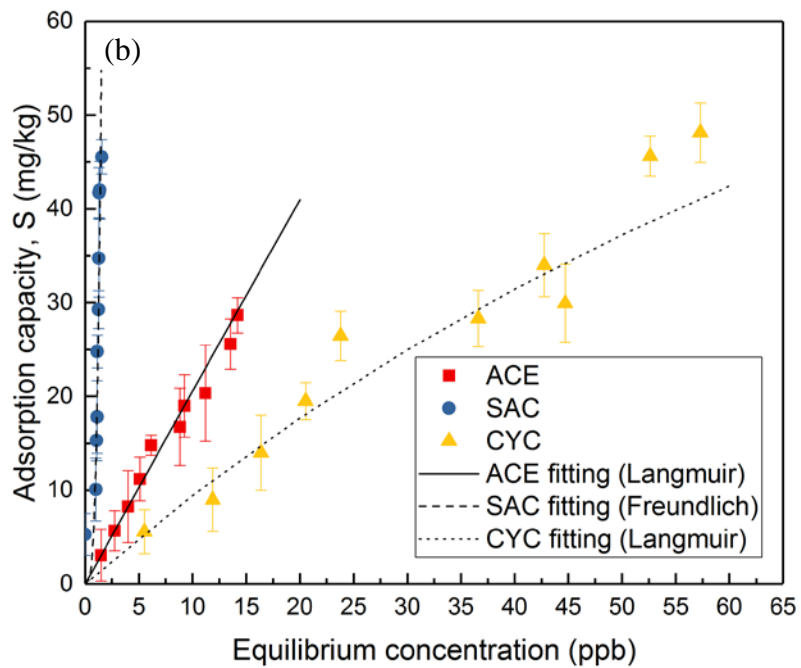
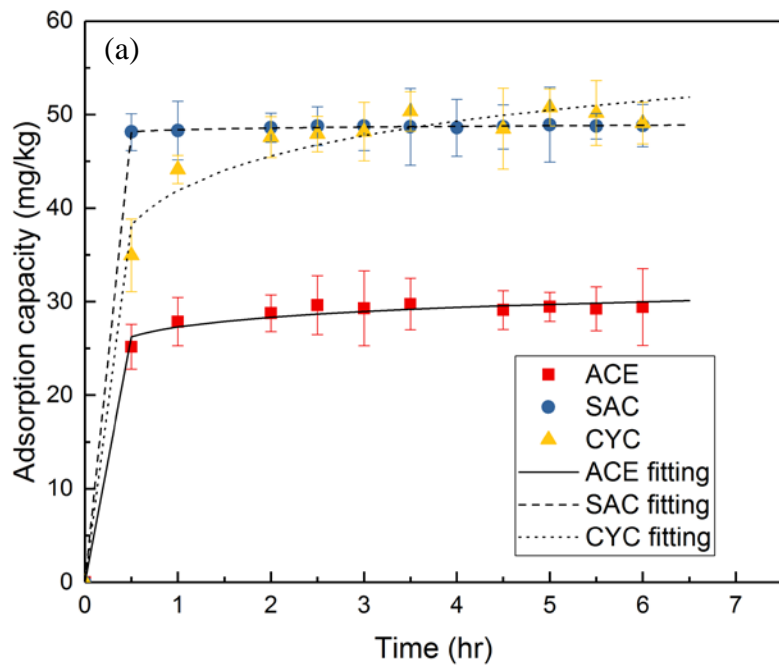
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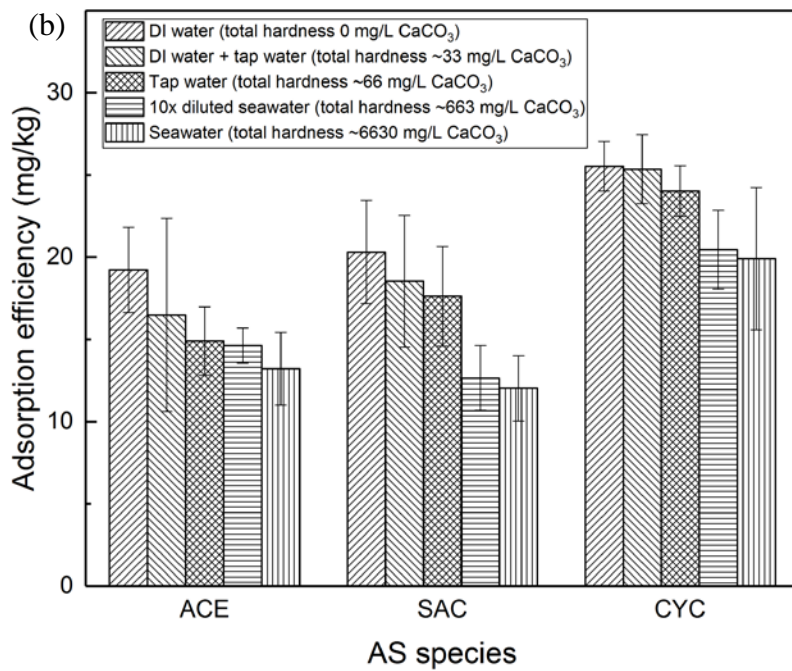
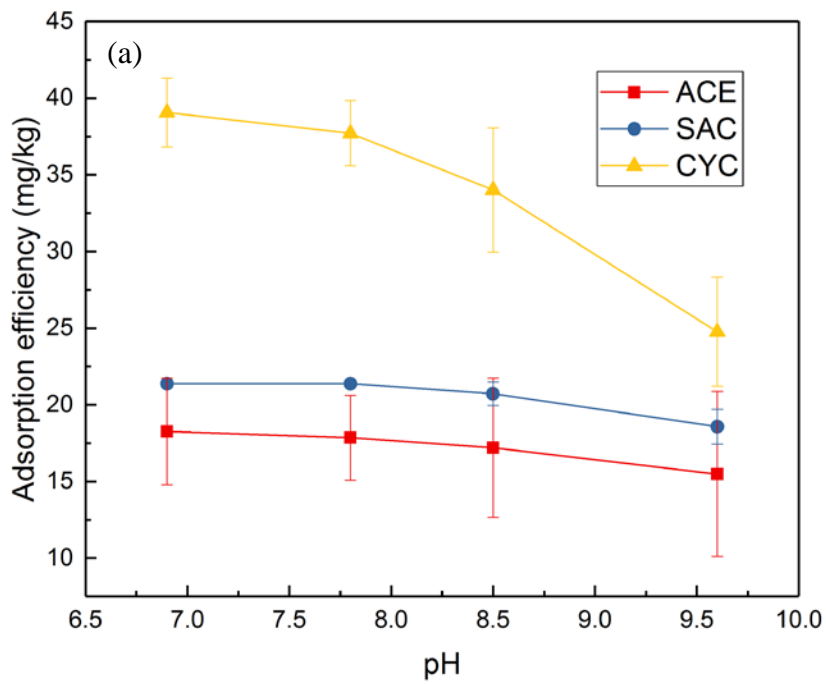
**Figure 1.** (a) Schematic of fixed-bed downdraft gasifier, and a process flow diagram showing the proposed system for integration of gasifier with other downstream processing units (syngas clean-up and gas engine) for power generation at the farm, (b) Transient syngas data from the co-gasification of chicken manure and woodchips, (c) Syngas composition and its lower heating value (LHV) from the gasification of pure woodchips (100% WC) as compared to the co-gasification of 30% chicken manure and 70% woodchips (30% CM + 70% WC).



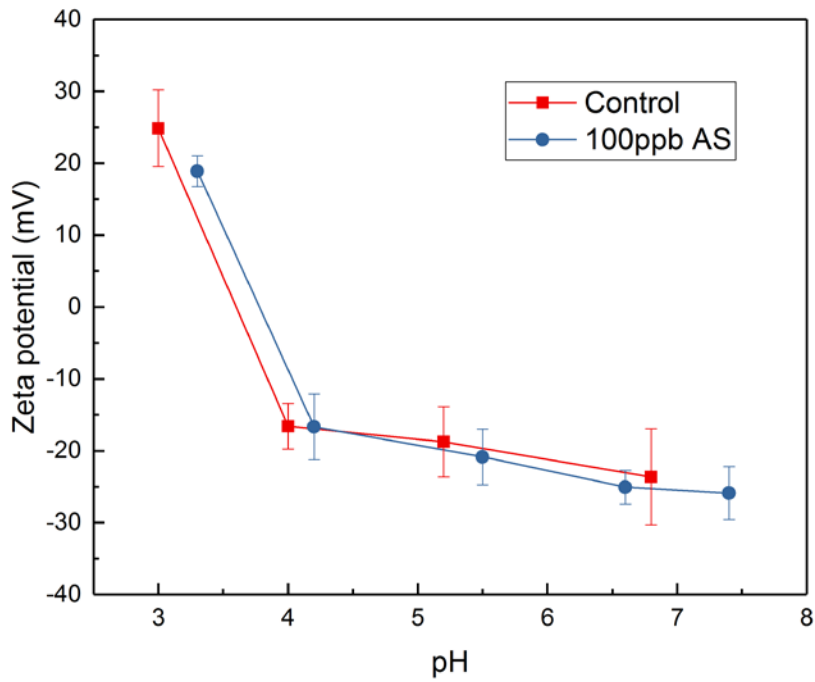
**Figure 2.** Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of biochar from (a, c) pure wood chips gasification, and (b, d) co-gasification of chicken manure and wood chips.



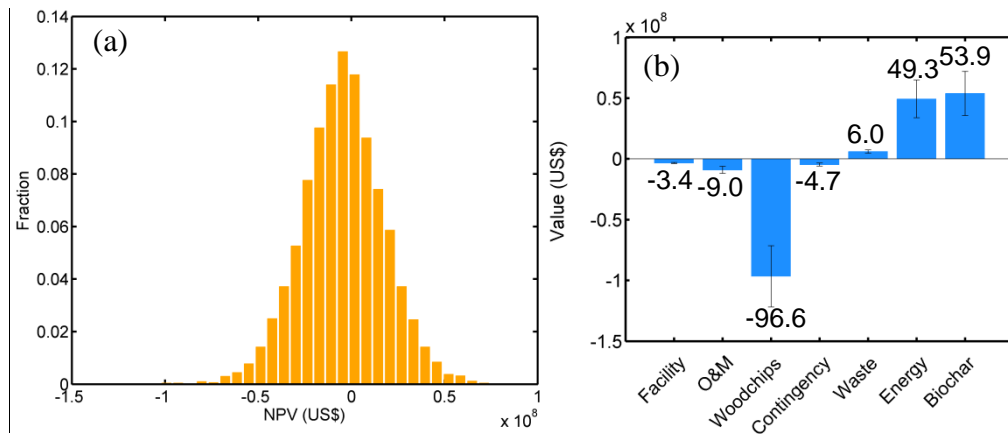
**Figure 3.** Adsorption of artificial sweeteners by biochar: (a) sorption kinetics, (b) sorption isotherms.



**Figure 4.** Effect of (a) pH and (b) water hardness on the adsorption efficiency of artificial sweeteners by biochar.



**Figure 5.** Zeta potential of biochar at different pH.



**Figure 6.** (a) The distribution of NPV. (b) The comparison among average cost and benefit components. The positive values denote benefits while negative values denote costs. The numbers besides the bars in (b) are averages and have the unit of million US\$.

**Table 1.** The lower limit, mode, and upper limit of triangular distributions for cost-benefit analysis using Monte Carlo simulation.

Variable parameters	Lower limit	Mode	Upper limit
Cost of a gasification system in 2007 (US\$/kW)	1000	1500	2000
Ratio between monthly O&M cost and capital cost	0.008	0.014	0.02
Cost contingency (US\$/kW)	2	4	6
Price of wood chips (US\$/ton)	100	150	200
EF (%)	25	35	30
Tariff of electricity (US\$/kWh)	0.1	0.2	0.3
Refuse disposal fee (US\$/ton)	50	60	70
Price of biochar (US\$/ton)	1000	2500	4000
Discount rate (%)	1	8	15



**Table 2.** Proximate, ultimate analysis and higher heating values of chicken manure and wood waste.

Feedstock	Chicken Manure	Wood Waste
<b>Proximate Analysis (dry basis, wt %)</b>		
Moisture	10.0 (73.6*)	8.3
Volatile	55.2	69.2
Fixed Carbon	9.5	16.2
Ash	25.3	6.3
<b>Ultimate Analysis (dry basis, wt %)</b>		
C	28.2	44.24
H	3.5	6.05
N	8.1	0.86
S	1.1	0.95
O <sup>#</sup>	33.8	41.60
HHV (MJ/kg)	9.93	18.22

\*as received (wet basis)      <sup>#</sup>by difference

HHV =  $0.3491 \cdot M_C + 1.1783 \cdot M_H + 0.1005 \cdot M_S - 0.1034 \cdot M_O - 0.0151 \cdot M_N - 0.0211 \cdot M_{ash}$   
 where  $M_i$  : mass fraction of  $i$ -th element (i.e.  $i = C, H, N, S, O$  and ash) in the waste.

**Table 3.** Characteristics of biochar

Item		Biochar from chicken manure-wood chips co-gasification (CM BC)	Biochar from pure wood chips gasification (WC BC)
pH		10.12	9.94
Ultimate Analysis (wt%)	C	70.67	84.5
	H	2.06	1.0
	N	0.68	0.5
	S	<0.5	<0.5
Surface Area (m <sup>2</sup> /g)		342.26	172.24
Total pore volume (cc/g)		0.224	0.121

**Table 4.** Kinetics data fitted to Elovich rate model

Species	$\alpha$ (mg/kg/hr)	$\beta$ (kg/mg)	$R^2$
ACE	$1.37 \times 10^8$	0.671	0.7624
SAC	$1.71 \times 10^{77}$	3.704	0.8344
CYC	$1.36 \times 10^4$	0.187	0.8352

**Table 5.** Isotherms data fitting

Species	Model	$S_{max}$ (mg/kg)	$K$ (1/ppb)	$K_f$ (mg/kg/ppb <sup>n</sup> )	$n$	$R^2$
ACE	Langmuir	5000	0.0004	-	-	0.9967
	Freundlich	-	-	2.19	0.96	0.9888
SAC	Langmuir	-7.89	-0.62	-	-	0.8103
	Freundlich	-	-	13.19	3.51	0.8623
CYC	Langmuir	140.85	0.0072	-	-	0.9692
	Freundlich	-	-	1.12	0.92	0.9628