UPGRADING OF MOIST AGRO-INDUSTRIAL WASTES BY HYDROTHERMAL CARBONIZATION

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ABSTRACT

This work focuses in the application of the hydrothermal carbonization (HTC) 13 technology as a possible moist agro-industrial waste management treatment. Through 14 15 this technique, olive mill, canned artichoke and orange wastes (OMW, CAW and OJW, 16 respectively) were carbonized in a lab-scale high pressure reactor at different 17 temperatures (200-250°C) and durations (2, 4, 8 and 24 hours) in order to obtain useful bioenergy feedstocks. The effect of the residence time and temperature on the properties 18 19 of the bio-char obtained was studied through different characterization techniques. 20 Material and energy balances were also performed to determine the potential energy 21 saving of hydrothermal carbonization versus dry thermal treatments like torrefaction 22 (TF). It is found that the moisture content of HTC-hydro-chars decreases as the 23 temperature and duration increase, which implies that wet biomass can be upgraded and, 24 at the same time, dewatered through HTC. The best results are found for the OMW, 25 whose moisture content decreases from over 70% to less than 30% for the experiments 26 carried out under the more severe conditions. Consequently, it is be possible to reach 27 energy savings over 50% by using HTC instead of TF technologies. Regarding the hydro-char properties, the hydrothermal carbonization of the three organic wastes 28 29 treated leaded to hydro-chars that present carbon contents and heating values closed to 30 those of brown coal and great energy densifications, depending on the type of waste. Accordingly, it can be concluded that it is feasible to manage moist agro-industrial 31 32 wastes via HTC, which is ostensibly more efficient than TF in terms of energy 33 consumption.

35 Key words: hydrothermal carbonization, agro-industrial wastes, biomass, hydrochar,

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38 **1. INTRODUCTION**

process conditions, energy.

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40 The Mediterranean region concentrates an important fraction of wine, olive oil, canned 41 fruits and vegetables industries worldwide. Currently, part of the canning industrial 42 wastes are intended to animal feeding, but a significant fraction ends in the landfill and 43 increases the existing problem of lack of space. Meanwhile, fresh wine and olive mill wastes, which are high polluting by-products, are usually managed through biological 44 45 treatments such as composting to produce fertilizers. However, this technology needs 46 large processing volumes to treat the large amounts of wastes that are generated every 47 year and, on the other hand, the digestate storage is also a problem because of the 48 associated costs and the vast occupied space. Thus, to decrease such amounts of wastes, 49 it would be interesting to use them as bio-energy feedstocks. Nevertheless, the 50 combustion characteristics of agro-industrial wastes pose some technical and economic 51 challenges and, as a consequence, the use of this kind of wastes as a bioenergy source 52 has not been extended. Agro-industrial wastes present moisture contents that in most cases reach the 80%. As a result, this kind of wastes has low calorific values and 53 54 difficult and costly handling, transport and storage. Then, to make them suitable for 55 energy production and reach all their potential as alternative energy sources, the 56 aforementioned limitations must be overcome.

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A range of pre-treatment and upgrading technologies have been developed in order to 58 59 improve the biomass characteristics as bioenergy feedstocks. Among these methods, dry 60 pyrolytic treatments such as torrefaction are being widely evaluated to produce 61 carbonaceous solids from different biomass materials. Torrefaction (TF) is a mild 62 pyrolysis process at temperatures between 200 and 300°C that converts biomass into an 63 upgraded solid that is more suitable for international long-distance shipping for use in centralized heat and power generation [1]. Though, before conversion through dry 64 pyrolysis, wet biomass needs to be actively dried. Therefore, moisture is a limiting 65 66 factor in the thermal process efficiency due to the great deal of energy required in the 67 pre-drying step of moist wastes.

To avoid the costly pre-drying step, wet pyrolysis, often called hydrothermal 69 70 carbonization (HTC), is mentioned as an efficient technology to carbonize moist 71 biomass [2], [3], [4], [5], [6] and [7]. In the HTC process, biomass is heated in a high 72 pressure reactor at temperatures lower than 350°C. As a result, the feedstock is 73 decomposed by a series of simultaneous reactions that occur in liquid phase, including 74 hydrolysis, dehydratation, decarboxylation, aromatization and recondensation [7], that 75 lowers both the oxygen and hydrogen content of the feed. The reaction products are 76 gases, mainly carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide, hydrogen, methane, ethane and 77 propene, and a mechanically easy to separate mixture of solid, referred to as hydro-char, 78 and liquid, which contents the solvent used in the HTC reaction and solubilized organic 79 products [5], [7], [8], [9], [10] and [11].

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81 Through HTC technique, the water that is inherently in green biomass could be used as 82 solvent to pressurize the reaction medium and then, it is not necessary to remove it from 83 the material before to apply this method. During HTC, the phase change from water to 84 steam is largely avoided due to the high pressures involved in the process. Then, the 85 required energy to heat the water is smaller in comparison to that required to evaporate 86 the same mass of water before dry pyrolytic treatments. Additionally, carbonization 87 reactions and disruption of colloidal structures have been shown to improve the 88 dewaterability properties of the hydro-char [12]. As a consequence, the HTC process is 89 expected to have a great potential of energy saving versus dry thermal conversion 90 techniques regarding to the avoided pre-drying step and the improvement in the 91 dewatering properties of the hydro-char compared to those of the raw material.

92 Besides, the ash content of the biomass and its chemical composition determines its 93 application as a bio-fuel. Biomass from agricultural products is rich in alkali metals (Na 94 and K), which melt at combustion temperatures and lead to slagging and fouling 95 deposits on the surfaces of the equipment involved in the process (furnaces, boilers) 96 [13] and [14]. Through HTC, part of the inorganic matter of the raw biomass is found to 97 be transferred to the liquid phase [15]. Consequently, the hydro-char ash content is 98 expected to be lower than that of the bio-char obtained by other pyrolytic techniques, 99 which retains the 100% of the metals contained in the raw biomass [15]. Thus, in terms 100 of energy consumption and ash content, HTC appears as a more energy efficient 101 disposal treatment for moist organic residues and is expected to be beneficial to improve

the quality of the hydro-char as bio-energy feedstock compared to dry pyrolytictreatments.

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105 Several research works related to the conversion of organic wastes via HTC exist in the 106 literature, since the HTC process, first described by Bergius in 1913 [16], was 107 rediscovered by Bobleter in the nineteen-eighties [2] and applied to organic wastes at 108 the University of Applied Sciences Ostwestfalen-Lippe in co-operation with the Max-109 Planck Intitute of Colloids and Interfaces inf Golm/Postdam (MPI) [5]. Within the last 110 project, different organic wastes from households and industries were successfully 111 carbonized. The produced hydro-chars were found to maintain approximately 75-80% 112 of the carbon input. In addition, their elemental compositions and calorific values were 113 very similar to brown coals, which make hydro-chars interesting for energy production. 114 In the most recent literature, Lu et al. [17] found that the HTC of solid municipal waste 115 leads to raise the departure energy density between 6.39 and 9.0 times. Xiao et al. [18] 116 studied the HTC of cornstalk and observed that the heating value of the hydro-char was 66.8% higher than that for fresh biomass. In a similar way, Román et al. [19] treated 117 118 walnut shells and sunflowers stems through HTC under different operating conditions to 119 optimize the heating value of the hydro-char and obtained that the heating value 120 increased from 1.5 to 1.75 fold when compared with the natural biomass. Regarding the 121 variables studied, these authors found that temperature and water/biomass ratio were 122 more influent on the hydrocarbonization process than residence time. Meanwhile, 123 Oliveira et al. [6] applied the HTC process to several mixtures of agricultural wastes in 124 order to analyze the hydro-char grade and the mass and energy losses during the 125 treatment. They conclude that the mass and energy recoveries are increased as the waste 126 mixtures are more lignocellulosic while the hydro-char grade improves as the waste 127 mixtures were richer in low molecular weight carbohydrates. Pala et al. [20] compared 128 the fuel, morphological and structural properties and the combustion characteristics of 129 chars produced from grape pomace by both hydrothermal carbonization and 130 torrefaction. These authors found that the char produced by torrefaction was more 131 aromatic in nature than that obtained by HTC. However, HTC led to chars with greater 132 energy density and combustion reactivity, which showed that HTC appears as a 133 promising process for a winery waste having high moisture content.

135 Studies indicate that the hydro-char properties and the performance of the products 136 depend on both the experimental conditions and the type of raw material used. Our aim 137 in this work was to upgrade moist agro-industrial wastes typical in the Mediterranean 138 region via hydrothermal carbonization to obtain profitable bio-energy feedstocks. Olive 139 mill, artichoke and orange wastes, which have not been assessed yet, were evaluated 140 because they suppose a concerning problem for the producing companies due to the 141 large volume of wastes involved. The Mediterranean area is the main producer of olive 142 oil and canned artichokes worldwide. In addition, 67% of processed artichokes resulted in wastes. As a consequence, more than $10 \cdot 10^6$ and $7 \cdot 10^5$ tones are produced per year, 143 respectively. On the other hand, the production of orange juice is also important, 144 especially in Spain, and consequently more than $5 \cdot 10^5$ tons of orange waste are 145 produced per year. HTC experiments were carried out under different time and 146 147 temperature conditions to study their effect on the hydro-char properties and estimate 148 the energy saving of hydrothermal carbonization versus dry thermal treatments, such as 149 torrefaction.

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2. MATERIALS AND EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

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153 **2.1. Materials**

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155 Fresh olive mill waste (OMW) was supplied by Extremadura Agricultural and Food 156 Technological Centre during the 2012-2013 campaign. The OMW appearance was 157 typical of sludge. Specimens used for reactions and analyses were taken from below the 158 surface layer of the OMW to gain a homogeneous sample, as the surface of the sludge 159 becomes oxidized. In a similar way, fresh canned artichoke waste (CAW) and fresh 160 orange juice waste (OJW) were collected from different artichoke canning industries 161 and orange juice industries located in the south east of Spain. In this case, both CAW 162 and OJW were milled in a grinder to attain homogeneity and sieved to obtain a particle 163 size between 1 and 3 mm. Moisture and ash content of OMW, CAW and OJW prior 164 HTC experiments were obtained.

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166 **2.2. HTC experimental procedure**

168 Two series of experiments were addressed to study the effect of residence time and 169 temperature on the reaction products. In the first series, OMW was thermally treated at 170 225°C during residence times of 2, 4, 8 and 24 hours. In the second series, OMW, CAW 171 and OJW were processed under 200, 225 and 250°C during 2 hours. The reaction 172 conditions were chosen because they are known to be effective for the hydrothermal 173 degradation of a wide range of lignocellulosic materials (190-240°C) [5, 7, 21]. The 174 reactor pressure was not controlled in the experiments and was kept autogenic with the vapor pressure of water at the corresponding reaction temperature: 1.5 MPa at 200 °C. 175 25 MPa at 225 °C and 40 MPa at 250 °C, as indicated by the pressure gauge attached to 176 177 the reactor.

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The HTC experiments were conducted in a high pressure lab-scale non-stirred reactor with an internal volume of 1 L from Amar Equipments Pvt. Ltd. The walls of the reactor were heated by an external electrical resistance heater that was controlled using a Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) temperature controller. Temperatures inside and at the walls of the reactor were monitored by two K thermocouples. Table 1 sum up the conditions of the different experiments carried out.

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186 Approximately, 200 g of moist waste was fed into the stainless steel canister of the 187 reactor, and subsequently, this was closed and bolted shut. Note that no solvent apart 188 from the moisture content of wastes was added for the HTC reaction. The band heater 189 was turn on. When the reactor reached the HTC operating temperature, measurement of 190 the residence time began. After the specified residence time period, the heater was turn 191 off and the reactor was cooled overnight until room temperature. Afterwards, the reactor 192 was depressurized by opening the pressure release valve and the gaseous products were 193 collected in Tedlar bags. The solid and liquid products were removed from the canister 194 and separated using filter paper (5-13 µm). After weighing each fraction, hydro-chars 195 were dried in an oven at 105°C, ground into <0.5 mm particles and stored in plastic 196 sealed buckets for the subsequent characterization.

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- 198 **2.3. Analytical methods**
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200 The moisture and ash contents of OMW, CAW and OJW were obtained prior HTC 201 experiments. The moisture content was obtained by calculating the total mass loss of samples placed in an oven model UFP500 from Memmert GmbH at 105°C until no 202 203 further decrease in weight was observed (typically after 24 hours), accordingly to the 204 European Standard EN 14774-1:2009. The ash content of the specimens was 205 determined by treating the samples in a Muffle serie-74 model 12-R/300 from Heron at 206 550°C during 8 hours under atmospheric conditions, accordingly to the European 207 Standard EN 14775:2009. In addition, a Philips Analytical MagiX-PRO X-ray 208 Fluorescence Spectrometer (XRF) was used to determine the ash composition in terms 209 of weight fractions of the main oxide constituents.

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211 After the experiments, the gaseous products and the hydro-char were analyzed. A low 212 resolution mass spectrometer Agilent 5975 C fitted with a quadrupole analyzer and 213 coupled to a gas chromatograph Agilent7890A for capillary columns with splitless 214 injection was used to identify the main gases generated in the HTC experiments. 215 Regarding to the hydro-char characterization, moisture and ash contents were measured 216 the same way than those values for the raw materials. Additionally, elemental analysis 217 CHNS and heating value measurements of the three types of wastes and the produced 218 hydro-chars were also carried out. The elemental analysis CHNS was conducted in an 219 Elemental CHNS Microanalyzer Thermo Finningan Flash 1112 Series. Oxygen content 220 was calculated by subtraction of the ash and the CHNS content from the total. Heating 221 values were measured, accordingly to the European Standard EN 14918:2009, using a 222 Leco AC-350 oxygen bomb calorimeter, which had an integral water-measuring and 223 combustion vessel-filling station. Before the samples measurement, the equipment was 224 calibrated using approximately 1g of benzoic acid. Each heating value measurement 225 was conducted at least twice. Approximately 0.7 g of sample was loaded into the 226 apparatus and combusted at 25°C under a pressure of 450 psi of pure oxygen. Results 227 are summarized in Table 1.

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Additionally, a mass balance for each HTC experiment was performed with the data
obtained in the weighing of the reaction products. The equations used for the
determination of the product yields (%) were:

Hydro – char Yield (%) =
$$\frac{m_{hydro-char}}{m_{bio}} \cdot 100$$
 [Eq. 1]

Moisture Yield (%) =
$$\frac{m_{evap}}{m_{bio}} \cdot 100$$
 [Eq. 2]

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Liquid Yield (%) =
$$\frac{m_{liquid}}{m_{bio}} \cdot 100 \text{ [Eq. 3]}$$

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where m_{bio} is the mass of moist waste feedstock, $m_{hydro-char}$ is the mass of hydro-char after filtering the mixture removed from the canister and oven drying, m_{liquid} is the mass of the liquid phase collected after filtering the above mixture; m_{evap} is the mass of water that still remains in the hydro-char after filtering.

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Spill or droplet losses when emptying the reactor and during separation of the output materials were assumed negligible. Furthermore, as the liquid phase consisted of water and solubilized organic products, the hydro-char may also have retained small amounts of volatile products that could have been released during its oven drying. However, for calculation purposes, all mass lost registered during the oven drying of the hydro-char was assumed to be water.

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Finally, HTC was energetically compared with TF in terms of the thermal treatments applied over the water involved in both processes. Fig. 1 shows the schemes evaluated for comparison. The scheme related to the TF process also illustrates the pre-drying treatment. The scheme associated to HTC process also includes the hydro-char drying step.

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The energies considered for comparison were: the energy required to evaporate the moisture content of the wastes (Energy 1); the energy required to heat the water until each experimental temperature (Energy 2), assuming that the steady state during the reaction was closed to the vapor-liquid equilibrium; and the energy required to 259 evaporate the residual moisture of the hydro-chars after being separated from the liquid 260 phase by filtering (Energy 3). As mechanical processes expend much less energy than heating processes, the mechanical energy invest to separate the hydro-char from the 261 262 liquid phase by filtering was assumed negligible compared to the heating energy and 263 consequently was not considered in the energy balance. In addition, neither the energy 264 required to heat the solid during the drying steps nor the energy invested in the solid 265 during HTC experiments were considered since the first was assumed negligible 266 compared to that required for the evaporation of water and the second was supposed to 267 be similar to that required during TF experiments.

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269 Energies 1 and 3 were calculated accordingly with equation 5:

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Energy i =
$$m_i \left[\int_{20^{\circ}C}^{100^{\circ}C} Cp(T) dT + \Delta H_{vap} \right]$$
 [eq. 5]

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where m_i is the mass of water in the samples (m_1 : mass of water in wastes, equal to its moisture content; m_3 : mass of water in hydro-chars, equal to the product of the moisture content of the hydro-char and the moisture content of the corresponding waste), Cp(T) is the specific heat capacity of water as a function of temperature and ΔH_{vap} is the enthalpy of vaporization of water at 100°C and 101325 Pa, which is 2257 kJ/kg. For this case of study, the calculated integral value was 318 kJ/kg.

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Energy 2 =
$$m_2(H_2 - H_1)$$
 [Eq. 6]

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where m_2 is the mass of water in the initial wastes, equal to its moisture content, H_1 is the enthalpy of water at 20°C and 101325 Pa, which is 84 kJ/kg, and H_2 is the enthalpy of water at the operating reaction conditions.

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For comparison, the energy considered in the TF process was Energy 1, which was defined as E_{TF} (Eq.7), while the energy considered in the HTC process was defined accordingly to Eq. 8:

 $E_{TF} = Energy 1$ [Eq. 7]

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$$E_{HTC} = Energy 2 + Energy 3$$
 [Eq. 8]

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Additionally, the energy saving that is possible to achieve by using HTC instead of TF is defined as indicated in Eq. 9:

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Energy saving (%) =
$$\frac{E_{TF} - E_{HTC}}{E_{TF}} \cdot 100$$
 [Eq. 9]

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3. RESULTS AND DICUSSION

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298 3.1. Mass balance

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300 The variation between the reaction products obtained was visibly notable. In the 301 experiments carried out under the softer conditions (low residence time and 302 temperature), the product removed from the canister was a homogenous wet slush 303 constituted by the mixture of hydro-char and liquid phase. As the reactor residence time 304 or temperature increased, there was a well-defined separation between the hydro-char 305 and the liquid phase produced. After being filtered and oven dried, the hydro-chars 306 appearance varied from a brown lignocellulosic to a black coal like material with 307 increasing residence time or temperature.

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309 Fig. 2 shows the reaction product yields for each experiment carried out. In the first 310 series of experiments, it is observed that the solid yield decreases while the liquid and 311 gas yield increase as the residence time does. In the second series, when the temperature 312 is increased, the tendency is found to be similar to that observed with increasing 313 residence time, and this behavior is independent of the type of waste, as all of them 314 present the same trend. The initial lower mass yields reported are attributed to the 315 combination of the initial feedstock solubilization and the partitioning of the feedstock 316 to the gaseous and liquid products as a result of the reactions involved [22]. As the 317 conditions become more severe, the rate of the initial solids disappearance increases due 318 to the intensification of the reactions involved, and, accordingly to the results obtained 319 by other authors [23] and [24], also probably to the dilution of aqueous extractives

present in the solids. During HTC process, the high pressure conditions produced by the steam generated degrade hemicellulose and cellulose into water soluble monomers, which are assumed to primarily consist of sugars that could be absorbed on the remaining porous solid product [24], [25], [26] [27] and [28], thus contributing to the moist hydro-char yield. However, at higher temperatures or residence times those sugars are further degraded [25], thus, resulting in less depositionand in lower recovered mass of the solid product.

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Through GC/MS, it was possible to bear out that the main gaseous products were carbon dioxide and carbon monoxide followed by methane, ethylene and hydrogen for all the experiments carried out, which represent between 35 and 40 % of the total gaseous products generated in the HTC process, depending on the conditions.

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333 Table 1 shows the moisture content of the raw wastes and the hydro-chars obtained after 334 mechanical dewatering. It can be noted that for the OMW, the moisture content 335 decreases from over 70% to less than 30% for the experiments carried out under the 336 more severe conditions (longer residence time or higher temperature). With increasing 337 residence time or temperature, it was easier to remove the hydro-char from the liquid 338 phase. This observation may be explained as follows. For lignocellulosic biomass, 339 moisture can be absorbed into the cell walls and hydrogen-bonded to the hydroxyl 340 groups of the cell wall components. With the thermal treatment, the breakdown of these hydroxyl groups jointly with the hydrolysis of the hemicellulose and cellulose to 341 342 monosaccharides occur and these reactions become increasingly significant with an 343 increase in temperature and/or residence time. As a consequence, the solid becomes 344 more hydrophobic under the more severe conditions. Thereby, the reduction in 345 hydrophilic nature of the solid allowes physical dewatering to occur easier and, as a 346 result, the moisture of the hydro-chars decreases.

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348 The reduced moisture content and the improved hydrophobic properties are 349 advantageous in the storage of the hydro-chars. These solids could be stored stably over 350 time, with low risk of biological deterioration, to accommodate seasonal availability. 351 Also, its transportation would be less expensive, because there would be less moisture 352 to transport along with the biomass.

354 For CAW and OJW derived hydro-chars, the moisture content drop is less pronounced, 355 what suggests that their hydrophobicity is not as improved as that of the OMW derived 356 hydro-chars. For the CAW, the moisture content decreases from 86% to 84% for the 357 hydro-chars obtained at 200 and 225°C and to 79% for the sample obtained at 250°C. 358 For the OJW, the moisture content only decreases from almost 79% to about 76% for 359 the hydro-chars obtained at 200 and 225°C and 71% for the sample obtained at 250°C. 360 These results agree with those observed by Oliveira et al. [6], who found that, 361 depending on the input material, the decrease in the moisture content after mechanical 362 dewatering could be completely different. Then, hydrothermal carbonization improves 363 the dewatering properties of materials with high moisture content but, in addition of 364 residence time and temperature, the hydro-chars moist degree also depends on the type 365 of waste carbonized.

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367 3.2. Characterization of the hydro-chars (CHNOS analysis, heating value and ash368 content and composition)

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370 Table 1 shows the elemental composition of the raw materials and the hydro-chars 371 obtained after mechanical dewatering and oven drying. By comparing the elemental 372 composition of input and output materials, it is possible to realize about the intensity of 373 the carbonizations process. The more severe were the reaction conditions, the higher the 374 carbon content that remained in the solid phase. For the three wastes studied, it can be 375 observed that the H content keeps almost constant, while the oxygen content is 376 decreased as the residence time or temperature rise and, consequently, the carbon 377 content increases from 56% to 73% for the OMW derived hydro-chars, from 43% to 378 66% for the CAW derived hydro-chars and from 45% to 68% for the OJW derived 379 hydro-chars. From these data, the carbon percentage retained in the solid products was 380 calculated and these values are indicated in Table 1. It is shown that the hydro-chars 381 obtained from OMW and CAW retained between 70% and 50% of the C content in the 382 initial wastes, which decreases as the severity of the reactions increases. Regarding to 383 those obtained from OJW, it is found that these hydro-chars present higher percentages 384 of carbon retained in the solid product, which range from 93% for the softest conditions 385 to 77% for the most aggressive environment. By comparing the effect of residence time 386 and temperature, it is seen that the elemental composition of the hydro-char obtained 387 from OMW at the longest residence time is similar to that of the hydro-char obtained

from OMW at the highest temperature. Then, high temperatures compensate the long residence time needed at lower temperatures, since the elemental composition of the hydro-char prepared at 250°C during 2 h matches the hydro-char prepared at 200°C during 24 h. The sulfur content is significantly low for all the samples analyzed, as it is under the detection limit of the elemental microanalyzer used in all cases. The N content increases with longer residence times and higher temperatures, although this tendency is not clear for the hydro-chars obtained from CAW and OJW.

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396 From the elemental analysis data, H/C and O/C molar ratios were calculated. The results 397 are plotted in the Van Krevelen diagram to illustrate the hydrothermal carbonization 398 process (Fig. 3). It is observed that as the severity of the HTC process increases, both 399 H/C and O/C ratios linearly move from upper right to lower left, which indicates that 400 dehydratation and decarboxylation reactions occur during the carbonization, resulting in 401 hydro-chars with more aromatic structures and, consequently, more hydrophobic than 402 the input materials [8]. Nevertheless, the evolution essentially follows the path of a 403 dehydration process, what suggests that significant decarboxylation only appears after 404 plenty of water has been generated [9]. On the other hand, these reactions are more 405 intense as the severity conditions are intensified, accordingly to the greater length of the 406 vector, which starts at the input analysis and ends at the output analysis [4] and [5].

407

408 It is worth mentioning that the carbonization of the OMW is slightly different from the 409 other wastes possibly due to the high organic matter content [29] and [30] and the olive 410 oil that still remains in the olive mill residue, which is mainly constituted by oleic acid. 411 This content in organic matter contributes to increase the molar ratio H/C and as a 412 consequence, the carbonization pathway is over those that CAW and OJW describe, although the pathway direction is the same in all cases. At 200°C, it seems that the 413 414 organic matter present in the input material remains in the hydro-char obtained. 415 However, at 225°C, there is a significant drop in the H/C molar ratio, which suggests 416 that from this temperature the organic matter is partly removed from the hydro-char, 417 either because they are thermally degraded or transferred to the liquid phase.

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The quality of the carbonaceous solids produced by hydrothermal carbonization could
be compared to that of bituminous reach brown coal, lignite or even sub-bituminous
coal, depending on the reaction severity and the type of organic waste used. Fig. 3

422 shows that the organic wastes go towards those forms of brown coal via interim steps 423 peat and lignite. Only the hydro-chars produced from OJW nearly reach the region of 424 lignite coal, which is high quality lignite. In the case of CAW, the hydro-chars obtained 425 at 200 and 225°C are typically lignite brown coal, while the one obtained at 250°C 426 reaches the region of bitumen rich brown coal due to the higher H/C molar ratio. 427 Likewise, the hydro-chars obtained from OMW are also typical bitumen-rich brown 428 coal due to the major content of H associated to the olive oil that still remains in the 429 hydro-char after the thermal treatment. Therefore, the coalification degree is relevant to 430 both the HTC conditions and the material used, which agree the results found by other 431 authors [5], [6], [31] and [32].

432

433 The energy density of the raw organic wastes is improved due to the decrease in the 434 number of low energy H/C and O/C bonds and the increase of high energy C-C bonds 435 [31]. Fig. 4 shows the evolution of the low heating value for the two series of 436 experiments carried out. It is observed that the heating value of the hydro-chars 437 produced from OMW is enhanced with the increasing residence time. Similar trends are 438 observed when the type of waste and the effect of time are discussed since the low 439 heating value is improved as the reaction temperature increases, independently of the 440 type of waste. However, as expected from the H/C and O/C molar ratios, this improvement is higher for CAW and OJW. In these cases, the best values almost 441 442 duplicate the calorific value of the raw wastes. Table 1 indicates the energy 443 densification ratio. In all tests, a significant increase in energy density can be confirmed. 444 It is seen that the residence time and temperature have the same effect over this 445 parameter. In addition, the maximum energy densification ratios are found for the 446 hydro-chars produced from CAW, followed by those produced from OJW and OMW. 447 Thus, for the CAW derived hydro-char prepared under the more sever reaction 448 conditions, the energy densification ratio is 1.87, while for the OJW and OMW derived 449 hydro-chars these values drop until 1.73 and 1.26 (highest temperature) or 1.23 (longest 450 residence time), respectively.

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Fig. 5 illustrates the hydro-chars low heating value and carbon content. It is shown that there is a significant correlation between the carbon content and the heating value of the materials tested, as expected from the literature [5]. The resulting vector connecting input to output material is directed from lower left to upper right and displays the 456 increasing carbon content and heating value as the environmental conditions of the 457 reaction become more severe. The carbon content and the low heating values obtained 458 are typical of brown coal [5]. Therefore, the hydrochars derived from OMW, CAW and 459 OJW might be of interest for energy production and they could partly replace the 460 mineral brown in power energy generation plants.

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462 Another important property of a fuel material is the ash content and its composition, 463 since alkaline metals, such as K, are involved in reactions that lead to slagging and 464 fouling deposits on the combustor heat transfer surfaces [33] and [34], S and Cl are 465 known to promote corrosion problems on the combustion facilities [35], and Cl can also 466 serve as a source for chlorinated dioxin formation in a furnace, increasing the risk to 467 emit toxic dioxins and furans [35] and [36]. Biomass ashes are rich in such elements. 468 Then, in order to decrease its slagging, fouling, corrosion and Cl-dioxin formation 469 potential, it is imperative to decrease the content of these elements in the final bioenergy 470 product.

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472 Table 1 indicates the ash content of the hydro-chars produced in each HTC experiment. 473 For the experiments carried out with OMW at 225°C during different residence times it 474 is noted that all the samples have similar ash contents, but these are much lower than the 475 initial ash content of the OMW, due to the transfer of metals to the liquid phase during 476 the HTC reaction. With increasing temperature, the trends observed are different 477 depending on the type of waste. The ash content of the hydro-chars produces from 478 OMW decreases as the temperature rises. However, the values obtained for the hydro-479 chars produced from CAW and OJW are kept almost constant or even slightly 480 increased, what suggests that the metals that remain in the solid phase could have led to 481 insoluble compounds during the HTC reaction, resulting in higher ash contents.

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Table 2 shows the ash composition obtained through X-ray fluorescence (XRF) analysis and the high heating value of the respective hydro-char. Accordingly to these values, the alkali index of each sample was calculated accordingly to Eq. 10, where Q is the high heating value of the fuel, Y_{f}^{a} is the mass fraction of ash in the fuel and Y_{K2O}^{a} and Y_{Na2O}^{a} are the mass fractions of K₂O and Na₂O in the ash [34].

Alkali Index =
$$\frac{Y_{f}^{a}(Y_{K_{2}O}^{a} + Y_{Na_{2}O}^{a})}{Q}$$
 [Eq. 10]

490 The alkali index is one of the most significant threshold indicator for fouling and 491 slagging and expresses the quantity of alkali oxide in the fuel per unit of fuel energy (kg 492 alkali \cdot GJ⁻¹). Above 0.17 kg alkali GJ⁻¹ fouling is probable and above 0.34 kg GJ⁻¹ 493 fouling is theoretically certain to occur [34].

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The alkali index is found to be 0.66, 1.09 and 0.52 kg alkali GJ^{-1} , for OMW, CAW and 495 496 OJW, respectively. These values are typical from herbaceous and fruit biomass and 497 imply that fouling per alkali metals during combustion of these agro-industrial wastes 498 would theoretically occur. Nevertheless, the alkali index decreases when the wastes are 499 treated by hydro-thermal carbonization as a consequence of the lower K₂O content, 500 what suggests that the slagging and fouling potential of the hydro-chars is lower than 501 that of the unreacted wastes. The best results are found for the OMW derived hydrochars, whose values are under 0.17 kg alkali GJ⁻¹ and closed to the alkali index of coal 502 (approximately 0.03 kg alkali GJ^{-1}) [34] when the more severe conditions are applied 503 504 during the HTC process. In this sense, the possible slagging and fouling problems 505 associated to the OMW combustion are improved via HTC. On the other hand, the 506 alkali index drop obtained for the CAW and OJW derived hydro-chars is less pronounce and only the hydro-chars obtained from OJW present values under 0.34 kg GJ⁻¹, what 507 suggests that for these kind of wastes slagging and fouling are more likely to occur. 508

509

510 Furthermore, oxides and Cl mass balances were carried out. Fig. 6 shows the percentage 511 of the main oxides detected in the dry hydro-chars prepared. The amount of Si, Mg, P, 512 Fe and S oxides recovered in the hydro-chars increases with increasing residence time 513 (Fig. 6a), what suggests that, although part of this compounds are transferred to the 514 liquid phase, those remaining in the carbonaceous solid lead to insoluble compounds 515 and contribute to higher oxide yields. Otherwise, most of the Cl is removed from the 516 solid and shift to the liquid phase as the residence time increases. Similar trends are 517 observed for the OMW derived hydro-char with increasing temperature (Fig. 6b), with the exception of Fe_2O_3 and SO_3 , which in this case decrease. Regarding to Fig. 6c and 518 519 Fig. 6d, it is observed that the trends also depend on the type of waste. The percentage 520 of K₂O, MgO, SO₃ and Cl recovered in the hydro-chars produced from CAW decreases 521 with increasing temperature, while the MgO and SO_3 yields in the hydro-chars produced 522 from OJW increase. The MgO recovery is 100%. On the other hand, K₂O and Cl do not 523 show a clear trend with increasing temperature.

524

525 3.3. Energy considerations

526

527 Table 3 shows the results obtained in the energy balance. The dying step needed before 528 torrefaction requires 1821 MJ/kg OMW, 2213 MJ/kg OMW and 2045 MJ/kg OMW to 529 entirely evaporate the water in each type of waste. However, if we treat these wastes via 530 HTC, the energy consumption decrease until the values indicated in Table 3 depending 531 on the operating conditions and the type of waste. The lower the moisture content of the 532 hydro-char mechanically dewatered, the lower the total energy invested in the HTC 533 process. Then, the moisture of the hydro-char obtained after mechanical dewatering is a 534 key factor in the energy efficiency of the HTC process.

535

536 It is possible to achieve excellent energy savings by using HTC instead of TF, which are 537 over 50% and 40% when the highest experimental temperature is applied to OMW and 538 CAW, respectively. However, as the hydro-char moisture content drop is less 539 pronounced E_{HTC} increases and, consequently, the energy savings are lower. Thus, in 540 the case of OJW, the energy saving for the highest temperature is lower than 30%, 541 which is not as good as for the other wastes. These results could have been improved if 542 a filter press had been used for the mechanical dewatering of the hydro-chars. Even 543 though, HTC process appears as a more energetically efficient process than TF process 544 for the agro-industrial wastes studied.

545

546 Table 3 also shows the same analysis for OMW with increasing residence time at 547 225°C. It is seen that the energy saving is increased as the residence time is longer due 548 to the reduction in the hydro-char moisture content. However, the effect of time in the 549 hydro-char moisture content is less important than that of temperature, and this is 550 traduced into a minor effect on the energy savings calculated. The energy saving found 551 for the 24 h experiment is closed to that of the experiment carried out at 250°C during 2 552 h. In addition, the energy to maintain the HTC reaction during longer residence times 553 would be also higher. Then, no significant holding time over 2 h is needed to achieve 554 better results.

556 4. CONCLUSIONS

557

Accordingly to the results obtained, it is concluded that the organic wastes produced in 558 559 olive mill, canned artichoke and orange juice industries could be transform into 560 profitable bioenergy feedstocks similar to brown coal by employing the hydrothermal 561 carbonization technology. The HTC process allows upgrading and dewatering these 562 substrates, which initially had moisture contents over 70%. The carbon content, heating 563 value, ash content and composition and the dewatering properties are improved by 564 increasing the residence time and the reaction temperature. Additionally, these 565 properties are also found to be affected by the type of organic waste carbonized. The 566 dewatering properties are more improved for the OMW derived hydro-chars, and 567 consequently, it was possible to achieve better energy savings when comparing the HTC 568 process of OMW with the torrefaction.

569

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Tables

Sample Id.	Ul	timate A	nalysis	(wt.% d.	b.)	Moisture	Ash	C-solid	Energy
	С	Н	S	Ν	0	content	content	(%)	densification
OMW	56.11	7.39	< 0.1	0.75	30.24	70.71	5.51	100	-
CAW	43.17	5.96	< 0.1	2.95	41.46	85.95	6.46	100	_
OJW	45.37	6.20	< 0.1	1.34	43.75	79.41	3.34	100	-
OMW (225°C, 2h)	66.05	7.96	< 0.1	1.43	22.30	55.10	2.26	70	1.12
OMW (225°C, 4h)	68.24	8.18	< 0.1	1.47	19.92	52.16	2.19	69	1.18
OMW (225°C, 8h)	70.10	7.97	< 0.1	1.60	18.26	45.10	2.07	67	1.20
OMW (225°C, 24h)	73.01	8.33	< 0.1	1.72	14.76	29.63	2.17	61	1.26
OMW (200°C, 2h)	63.25	8.20	< 0.1	1.12	24.08	59.51	3.35	70	1.03
OMW (250°C, 2h)	71.85	8.27	< 0.1	1.66	16.27	27.13	1.95	58	1.23
CAW (200°C, 2h)	55.52	5.77	< 0.1	3.52	28.14	83.67	7.06	71	1.54
CAW (225°C, 2h)	55.96	5.70	< 0.1	3.31	27.79	83.76	6.96	65	1.61
CAW (250°C, 2h)	66.24	5.75	< 0.1	4.52	16.15	78.77	7.35	50	1.87
OJW (200°C, 2h)	62.93	5.49	< 0.1	1.26	26.32	76.68	4.01	93	1.48
OJW (225°C, 2h)	64.92	5.40	< 0.1	1.25	23.98	76.44	4.45	89	1.58
OJW (250°C, 2h)	68.19	5.36	< 0.1	1.35	21.05	70.60	4.05	77	1.73

Table 1. Ultimate analysis (wt.% dry basis), moisture content (wt.%), ash content (wt.% dry basis), C-content retained in the solid phase (%) and energy densification ratio.

				HHV	Alkali index							
Sample	K ₂ O	SiO ₂	MgO	P_2O_5	CaO	Fe ₂ O ₃	SO ₃	Na ₂ O	Cl	(MJ/kg)	(kg alkali/GJ)	
OMW	31.90	27.75	18.43	6.83	5.52	1.64	1.10	n.d.	1.40	26.43	0.66	
OMW (225°C, 2h)	28.11	2.83	2.47	4.76	n.d.	0.90	3.03	n.d.	0.72	29.63	0.21	
OMW (225°C, 4h)	22.17	2.74	2.05	3.30	n.d.	0.39	3.05	n.d.	0.38	31.04	0.16	
OMW (225°C, 8h)	17.48	5.97	3.22	13.15	0.24	0.97	n.d.	n.d.	0.08	31.57	0.11	
OMW (225°C, 24h)	11.81	3.66	3.52	15.88	7.83	1.54	4.70	n.d.	n.d.	33.21	0.08	
OMW (200°C, 2h)	32.82	4.52	0.99	n.d.	n.d.	0.67	1.98	n.d.	1.43	27.45	0.40	
OMW (250°C, 2h)	12.59	3.01	3.47	10.56	n.d.	1.25	2.39	n.d.	0.14	32.50	0.07	
CAW	25.64	n.d.	3.52	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1.35	2.62	4.08	16.80	1.09	
CAW (200°C, 2h)	23.95	n.d.	3.20	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1.42	4.44	5.21	25.09	0.80	
CAW (225°C, 2h)	25.70	n.d.	2.42	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1.56	1.99	4.02	26.17	0.74	
CAW (250°C, 2h)	20.73	n.d.	3.54	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	2.01	n.d.	6.46	30.26	0.50	
OJW	28.99	n.d.	2.46	n.d.	n.d.	0.13	2.70	n.d.	1.16	18.21	0.53	
OJW (200°C, 2h)	8.08	n.d.	0.87	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1.13	n.d.	0.10	26.78	0.12	
OJW (225°C, 2h)	16.21	n.d.	3.06	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	2.67	n.d.	0.44	27.73	0.26	
OJW (250°C, 2h)	12.08	n.d.	4.10	0.41	n.d.	n.d.	4.19	n.d.	0.26	30.35	0.16	

Table 2. Ash composition (w.t.%) and alkali index of the hydro-chars produced.

Table 3. Energy estimation to evaluate the TF and HTC processes in terms of thethermal treatments applied to the water contained in the wastes.

Type of waste	E _{TF} (kJ/kg waste)	Time (h)	T _{HTC} (°C)	H ₂ (kJ/kg water)	Energy 2 (kJ/kg waste)	Energy 3 (kJ/kg waste)	E _{HTC} (kJ/kg waste)	Energy Saving (%)
OMW	1821	2	225	971	627	554	1181	35.1
		4	225	971	627	465	1093	40.0
		8	225	971	627	330	958	47.4
		24	225	971	627	150	777	57.3
		2	200	855	545	698	1243	31.7
		2	250	1092	713	126	839	53.9
CAW	2213	2	200	855	663	1029	1692	23.5
		2	225	971	763	935	1698	23.3
		2	250	1092	867	438	1305	41.0
OJW	2045	2	200	855	612	1131	1744	13.04
		2	225	971	705	994	1698	13.05
		2	250	1092	801	655	1456	28.8



(a)

(b)

c)







■Gas SLiquid SMoisture ■Hydro-char 100 7.0 7.5 8.4 80 45.3 49.2 Yield (%) 60 85.9 70.0 40 40.0 36.3 20 17.0 14.1 7.8 7.0 0 CAW CAW CAW CAW (200°C, 2h) (225°C, 2h) (250°C, 2h)



d)



Fig. 2. Reaction product yields (w.t.%) of wastes and hydro-chars from (a) OMW at











Fig. 5. Low heating value and carbon content diagram representing the hydro-chars
obtained from OMW, CAW and OJW under different experimental conditions
(OMW(time): 225°C during 2, 4, 8 and 24 hours; OMW (T), CAW and OJW: 200, 225
and 250°C during 2 hours).



Fig. 6. Percentage of oxides retained by the hydro-chars obtained from (a) OMW at 225°C and different residence times. (b) OMW, (c) CAW and (d) OJW at different temperatures during 2 h.