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20 **Burning characteristics of single particles of coal and wood**
21 **mixtures for co-firing in an upward-flowing hot gas stream**

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36 **Abstract**

37 This study presents the comparative burning behaviours of single solid particles of coal and
38 biomass mixtures for co-firing. In this experimental investigation, a direct observation
39 approach was used to investigate the ignition, flame characteristics and combustion times by
40 means of high-speed photography at 7,000 frames per second. Single particles were entrained
41 into a hot gas stream at 1,340 K and a rapid heating rate at 10^4 - 10^5 K/s. The apparent volatile
42 flames from the prepared particle size groups were observed within 20-50 milliseconds. To
43 assess the effect of oxygen concentration, particles were burned for their flame characteristics
44 in a range of 10%–40% O₂. The test particles were sieved into three size groups (215–255 μm,

45 255–300 μm and 300–350 μm) to assess the effect of particle size. Special particles for the
46 co-firing effect were collected individually from two types of mixed pellet: 20:80 and 50:50
47 coal/wood. Pure sub-bituminous coal and wood particles were also prepared in order to
48 compare their combustion behaviours. In the experimental setup with a cross-injection
49 configuration, sequential combustion processes were effectively and clearly described in
50 terms of particle displacement with time. The experimental results showed distinguishable
51 flame characteristics from single particles of coal, 50:50 coal/wood, 20:80 coal/wood and
52 wood, including soot flame size and intensity. The impact of high coal-blending ratio caused
53 an increase in the flame size and intensity and the ignition time was close to that of pure coal
54 particles. Quantitative measurements of combustion events on co-firing particles were also
55 discussed in relation to significant impacts of the particle size and the oxygen concentration.

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66 1. INTRODUCTION

67 Co-firing is a promising technique with several benefits, the most important of which are
68 environmental ones. Simultaneous burning of coal and biomass emits low NET carbon
69 dioxide [1, 2] and the sulphur oxide (SO_x) and nitrogen oxide (NO_x) emissions from this
70 combustion are generally lower, compared with the coal-fired combustion [3–6]. The
71 economic benefits of this type of combustion are fuel price stabilisation, fuel flexibility and
72 low-risk costs of retrofitting coal-fired plants with fuel-blending control systems for biomass
73 particles [7, 8]. The main challenges with co-firing come from the characteristics of biomass
74 particles in relation to chemical composition, fibrous shape and relatively large particles (~3
75 millimetres for biomass, ~150 μm for coal in p.f. boiler) [9, 10] with relatively low energy
76 density [11, 12]. Their irregular shape and wide particle size range during combustion play a
77 significant role in burning behaviours such as ignition, volatile flame and char combustion
78 [13]. The significant differences between biomass and coal are the wide disparity in volatility
79 and the fixed carbon content of different types of biomass. The volatile matter content of
80 biomass is greater than that of coal and the fixed carbon content is less, which contributes to
81 their different burning behaviours regarding volatiles and char combustions [14–16]. From a
82 previous study [17], pulverised biomass particles are known to exhibit flame characteristics
83 that are associated with a small flame and low intensity during homogeneous combustion.
84 Besides, the volatile matter in biomass is released earlier than that in coal because of the
85 different ignition temperatures of their organic compositions [18–20]. Consequently, the
86 burning behaviour in co-firing is attributed mainly to the biomass type and its mixtures.

87 Soot loading in volatile flames plays an important role in generating radiation heat transfer,
88 because of soot luminosity, as illustrated by the equation: $q_{\text{radiation}} = \epsilon 4\sigma T^4 \Delta t$, where $\epsilon = 1 -$
89 $(1 + k_f v_L T / c_2)^{-4}$ [21, 22]. There have been studies on average soot volume fraction from

90 different types of coal [15]. It is believed that biomass has less flame luminosity, where gas is
91 the major phase in the flame. Atiku et al. [24] measured soot particles, which consist of
92 elemental carbon (EC) and organic carbon (OC), between biomass and coal. During flaming
93 combustion, eight times as much elemental carbon was collected from burning coal. In the
94 experiment, the apparent volatile flame would be discussed for comparative soot intensity
95 between co-firing particles and pure solid particles.

96 An in-depth understanding of the thermal decomposition and combustion in co-firing would
97 certainly be beneficial. Several studies [2, 7, 18–20, 24–28] have reviewed technical
98 considerations and conducted biomass combustion with coal in extended experimental
99 investigations. In thermogravimetric analysis (TGA), the devolatilisation of biomass–coal has
100 been investigated extensively at low heating rates, with focus on the ignition characteristics
101 [18], kinetic analysis [19] and primary reactions [25]. However, the experimental results of
102 such studies have not been adequately explained in the context of practical combustion
103 behaviour. This is because the actual pulverised solid-fuel particles in power plants are
104 generally burned rapidly and are accompanied by complicated reactions and events. Gani et
105 al. [26] investigated the co-combustion of coal with biomass in relation to ignition, NO_x
106 emission and ash formation in a drop-tube furnace at 800°C. They plotted the temperature
107 profile along the furnace during biomass, coal and co-combustion and showed that co-
108 combustion yields the highest temperature of the three. Lu et al. [27] reported that adding
109 biomass can prolong ignition in co-firing because of the large particles and high moisture
110 content of the biomass. They also investigated flame characteristics such as brightness,
111 temperature and ignition in industrial-scale coal combustion. However, there were
112 uncertainties such as the loading of particles, their sizes and environmental conditions; these
113 limited the extent to which they were able to explain the flame parameters. Therefore, for a

114 comparative analysis to clarify the combustion behaviour of solid-fuel particles with clearly
115 defined physical properties under well-controlled conditions, it is necessary to burn one
116 particle at a time.

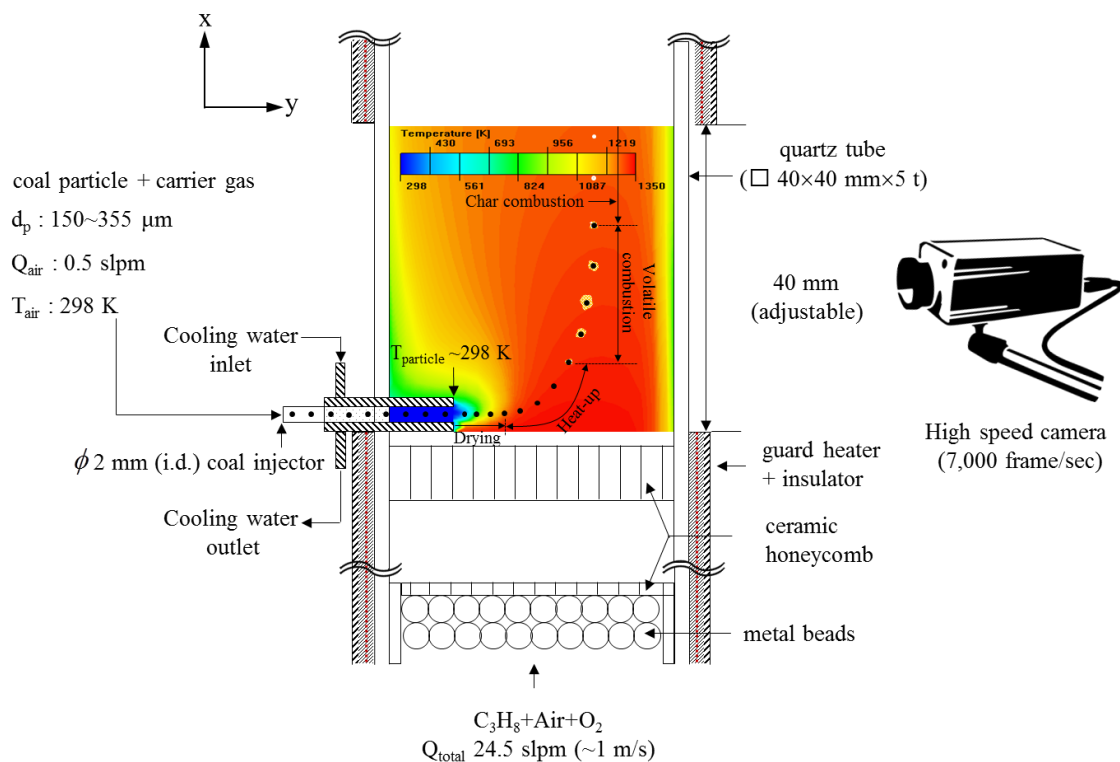
117 In previous studies [17, 29], we investigated the combustion of single coal and biomass
118 particles in a lab-scale entrained-flow reactor. The experiments were carried out under rapid
119 heating rates and a high gas temperature in order to describe the particle combustion process
120 and investigate the flame characteristics. Khatami, Levendis et al. [30–32] also observed the
121 behaviour of single particles of individual coal and biomass in a drop-tube furnace. However,
122 the observations of flame structure from these experiments are neither fully understood nor
123 explained in relation to co-firing. Different physical and chemical events can occur in co-
124 firing because of a mixture of solid fuel particles. Unfortunately, no experimental research
125 has been reported on single particles of pulverised coal and biomass mixtures.

126 This paper reports an investigation of burning single particles, which were produced from a
127 mixture of pulverised coal and biomass, using direct observation. Sequential combustion
128 processes such as heat-up, devolatilisation and char combustion are described in detail. The
129 effects of having single particles with different blending ratios, sizes and oxygen
130 concentrations are also discussed. Given the statistical uncertainties related to single particles
131 of homogenous fuel mixtures (20:80 and 50:50 mixtures of coal and wood), there was a clear
132 need for particle definition from sub-experiments such as scanning electron microscopy
133 (SEM), fuel properties and TGA, prior to the main experiment. The experimental results are
134 compared to discuss their ignition and combustion time and flame parameters with pure wood
135 and coal single particle burning behaviours through quantitative analysis.

136 **2. METHODOLOGY**

137 **2.1 Experimental apparatus**

138 The experimental combustion study of solid fuel particles was performed in a lab-scale
139 entrained-flow reactor as shown in Fig. 1 with optical access to the burning single particles.
140 The square-shaped quartz tube is 45 mm in length and width and 800 mm in height, and a
141 honeycomb burner is located at the bottom for an upward flow of post-combustion gas. An
142 electrical guard heater shields the quartz to minimise the temperature drop of the post-
143 combustion gas except across the optical access section. Particles are injected at ambient
144 temperature (298 K) via a water-cooled injector made of stainless steel double tubes: an outer
145 tube for cooling water and an inner tube for the carrier gas and particles. This injector is
146 positioned above a porous flow straightener in the cross-flow configuration in which single
147 particles are entrained from the horizontal cold carrier gas into the vertical hot gas stream.
148 The injector is also placed 20 mm from the interior wall to minimise temperature and flow
149 differences between the hot gas stream and the wall. To support the temperature environment,
150 the temperature gradient in the optical access section is shown in Fig. 1 by a simulation
151 image (Fluent 13.0) that includes a prediction of particle displacement during burning. The
152 carrier-gas flow rate is 0.5 slpm in all experiments and the particles are injected at 25–30
153 particles/min by a micro-syringe injector.



154

155 Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of the lab-scale entrained-flow reactor for a few hundred micron-
 156 sized single solid particles. Also shown are the temperature fields of the hot gas stream (red)
 157 and cold carrier gas (blue), which explain the temperature gradient and the predicted
 158 sequential combustion processes of burning particle in the optical access section.

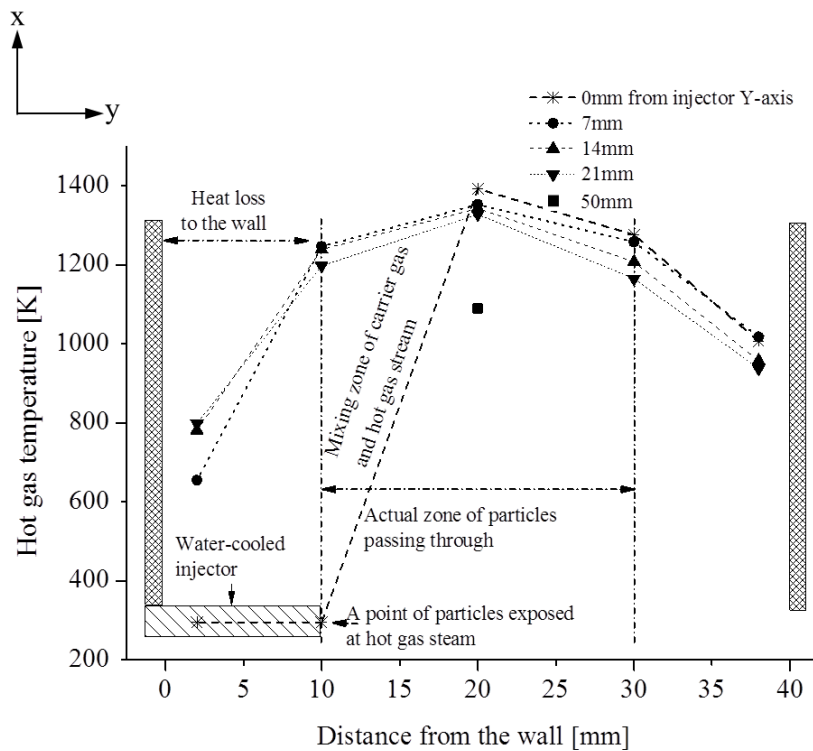
159 **2.2 Environmental conditions**

160 The variable-supply gas inputs of C_3H_8 , O_2 and air into the honeycomb are controlled for
 161 10%–40% oxygen concentration, whereas the flow rate of these gases is maintained
 162 identically at 24.5 slpm for the experiments. The following main flue gases are produced: N_2
 163 (38.2%–67.9%), O_2 (10.4%–40.1%), H_2O (12.4%) and CO_2 (9.3%).

164 The gas temperatures were measured on the basis of radiation loss of the probe of an R-type
 165 thermocouple at 21 locations in x- and y-axis: 0, 7, 14, 21 and 50 mm from the injector along
 166 the y-axis and 2, 19, 20, 30 and 39 mm along the x-axis. To obtain a mean value, temperature

167 was averaged over 30 seconds. The variation in adiabatic flame temperatures from the post-
168 combustion was approximately 140 K from 10 % to 40 % oxygen concentration. The mixing
169 zone of the leftward-flowing cold carrier gas and the upward-flowing hot main gas stream is
170 shown in Fig. 2. As particles pass through this zone, their temperature increases up to the
171 devolatilisation or ignition temperature. The highly interacting flow zone at 0 mm along the
172 y-axis is also sufficient to affect particle motion and combustion. Khatami et al. [31]
173 discussed the change in combustion behaviour of a particle between quiescent gas conditions
174 (no flow) and active gas flow. Therefore, the environment with the mixing zone and cross
175 injection configuration enables an exclusive description of sequential combustion processes
176 such as drying, heat-up and volatile combustion regimes that accompany particle motion.

177 The velocities of post-combustion gas and cold carrier gas in a cross-jet apparatus have been
178 discussed by Lee et al. [33]. The particle velocities during the release of volatile matter vary
179 according to these physical quantities, so all experiments were performed under identical
180 vertical and horizontal velocities: ~ 1 m/s for the post-combustion gas and 2.5 m/s for the cold
181 carrier gas.



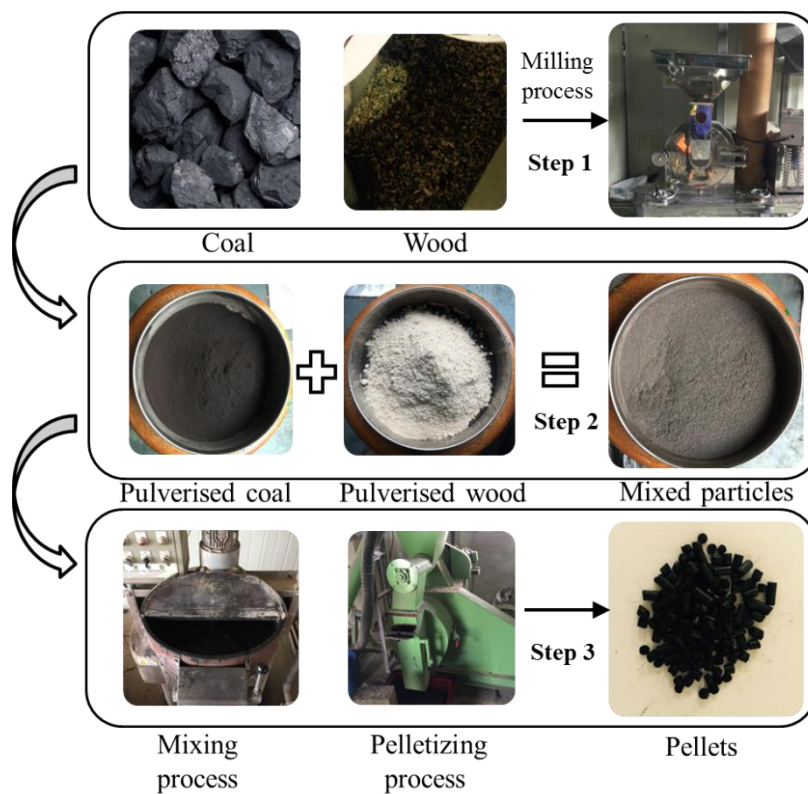
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183 Fig. 2. Experimental measurements of surrounding gas temperatures in the optical access
 184 section. This shows the actual zonal temperatures of particles passing through and the
 185 predicted initial particle temperature before heat-up.

186 2.3 Particle properties

187 The coal used in this study was a sub-bituminous type mined by Adaro Energy in Indonesia;
 188 the biomass was pine wood logged in Gyeongsang Province, South Korea. These materials
 189 were used for making a few-hundred-micron-sized single particles with a coal-to-wood fuel
 190 ratio of either 50:50 or 20:80. To produce these special particles, we first created pellets in a
 191 pellet factory through a sequence of pulverising and sieving the raw coal and wood (step 1),
 192 mixing the resulting powders (step 2) and compressing the mixture into pellets (step 3), as
 193 shown in Fig. 3. In step 1, particles are milled separately by species and sieved to under
 194 100 μm ; anything larger can spoil a homogeneous mixture. Step 2 is an initial fuel mixing
 195 process in which the same volume (500 mL) of coal and wood or 200 mL and 800 mL,

196 respectively, are added to a container before being shaken and then sieved for 20 min. The
 197 final step is the pelletizing process, which involves another mixing process with the addition
 198 of 2 kg of water per 1 m² of particles. This water content plays an important role in the
 199 physical bonding of different solid fuel particles as an adhesive source; this particular level of
 200 water loading was determined through repeated tests of pellet stability/integrity.



Step 1: Milling process of coal & wood

Step 2: Mixing process of pulverised coal & wood

Step 3: Pelletizing process of mixed particles

201

202 Fig. 3. Preparation of pellets with 50:50 or 20:80 coal/wood mixtures. This figure shows how
 203 the pellets were made with fuel blending for co-firing, prior to being pulverised into a few-
 204 hundred-micron-sized particles.

205 Two types of pulverised co-firing particles were obtained from several separation methods
 206 that have been described in detail previously [17]. Some of the collected particles inevitably

207 have irregular shapes with high aspect ratio because of the fibrous wood particle structure,
208 but these can be separated using an inclined plane. The particles were separated into size
209 groups (215–255 μm , 255–300 μm and 300–355 μm) using seven testing sieves with different
210 mesh diameters: 215, 255, 300 and 355 μm . Repeated tests with uncoated paper on an
211 inclined plane allowed the particles to be sorted by shape, e.g., flat, cylindrical, or spherical.
212 In the experiment, only the spherical-like shape is used because the cross-jet injection is
213 limited in burning irregular particle shapes. Flat-like and cylindrical-like particles lead to
214 very random trajectories with non-uniform particle motion in the reactor.

215 Four particles were subjected to chemical composition analysis on an as-received basis, as
216 shown in Table 1. These analysis data were obtained using the thermogravimetric analyser
217 (TGA-701) at the Energy and Environment Research Centre of the Korea Advanced Institute
218 of Science and Technology (KAIST). The changes in volatile matter and fixed carbon mass
219 fraction for the 50:50 blended particle were approximately +15% and –16.6%, respectively,
220 compared with coal particles, whereas for the 20:80 blended particle they are +26.7% and
221 –27.7%, respectively. The blended particles have higher moisture content because of the
222 water added during pelletising. However, the moisture differences between the four particles
223 after the pulverising process are too small to noticeably affect their combustion behaviours.

224 The bulk densities of the four particles were measured using a simplified bulk density
225 technique that involved filling a bottle with pulverised particles. This method allows the
226 density of each packed-bed particle to be calculated based on $\rho_p = (m_{b,p} - m_{b,e}) / V_{b,w}$, where ρ_p
227 is the particle density, $m_{b,p}$ is the mass of the bottle filled with particles, $m_{b,e}$ is the mass of
228 the empty bottle and $V_{b,w}$ is the volume of the bottle determined from water filling. Using
229 coal for the reference bulk density, the relative bulk densities of 50:50 coal/wood, 20:80
230 coal/wood and wood are 570 kg/m^3 , 430 kg/m^3 and 340 kg/m^3 , respectively. From measuring

231 these particle densities, the energy densities were calculated as 19.581 GJ/m³ for coal,
 232 12.490 GJ/m³ for 50:50 coal/wood, 8.530 GJ/m³ for 20:80 coal/wood and 6.215 GJ/m³ for
 233 wood.

234 The difference in chemical composition between coal and wood particles is shown in Fig. 4
 235 in a Van Krevelen diagram that indicates the relationship between the hydrogen/carbon (H/C)
 236 and oxygen/carbon (O/C) ratios. Coal particles have the lowest H/C (0.73) and O/C (0.28)
 237 ratios, whereas wood particles have the highest H/C (1.34) and O/C (0.89) ratios. The latter
 238 contain highly volatile matter that is high in oxygen and low in fixed carbon. The presence of
 239 high oxygen content plays a significant role in the reactivity of the pyrolysis, and the tar yield
 240 is proportional to the H/C ratio [34].

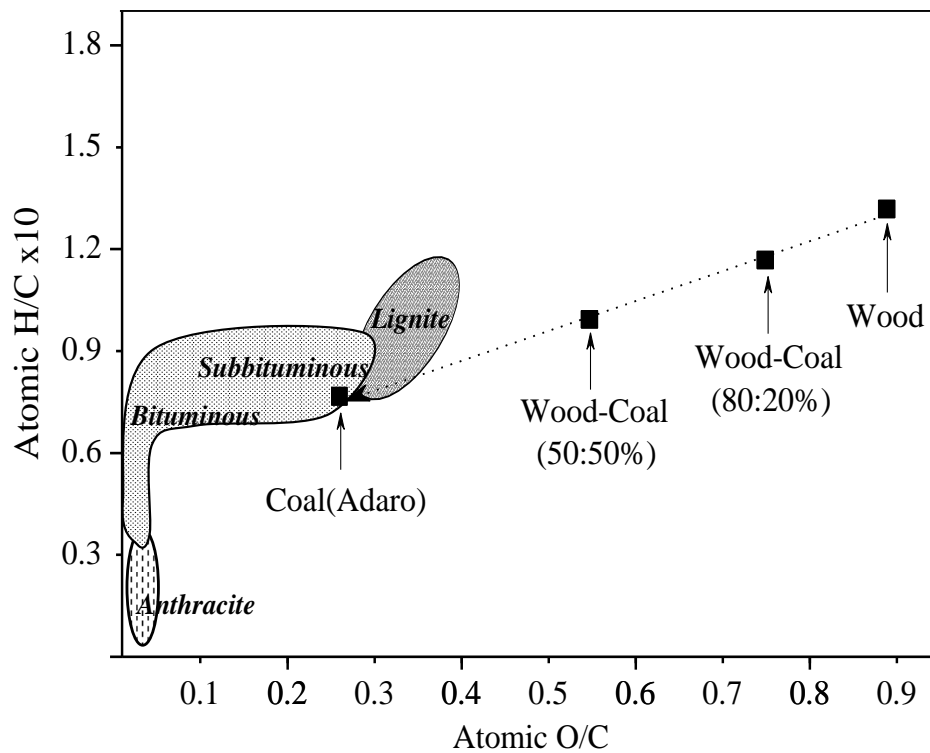
241 Table 1. Chemical compositions of four samples

Sample	Proximate analysis (wt. % ar) ¹				Ultimate analysis (wt. % daf) ²					LHV ^{3&1} (MJ/kg)	Particle bulk density (kg/m ³)	Approx. energy density (GJ/m ³)
	V.M	F.C	Ash	M	C	H	O	N	S			
Coal	42.0	46.1	1.5	10.4	64.4	4.7	18.1	0.9	0.1	25.43	770	19.581
Coal-Wood (50:50 %)	57.0	29.5	1.3	13.0	58.6	6.2	28.1	0.6	0.1	20.82	570	12.457
Coal-Wood (20:80 %)	68.7	18.4	0.6	11.7	52.3	6.4	35.4	0.4	0.1	17.14	430	8.530
Wood	81.5	9.7	0.1	8.5	48.5	6.5	43.2	0.2	0.1	25.43	340	6.215

¹as received ²dry, ash free ³lower heating value

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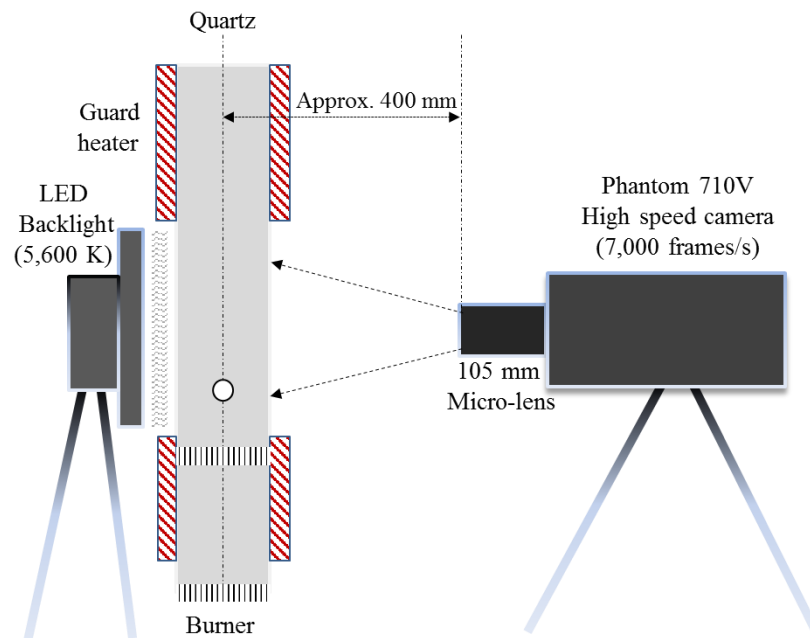
245 Fig. 4. Van Krevelen diagram for the four different solid fuel particles.

246

247 2.4 Direct observation of burning particles

248 A high-speed camera (Phantom V710) was used for direct observation of the burning
 249 particles. It can record at 7,000 frames per second and is fitted with a micro-lens (Nikon
 250 Micro-NIKKOR 105 mm f/2.8) as shown in Fig. 5. The magnification of the microscope lens
 251 was determined through repeated tests with 30-mm and 200-mm micro-lenses to record clear
 252 images of the soot flame in the maximum range of combustion regimes. The complementary
 253 metal oxide semiconductor (CMOS) image sensor in the camera was 25.6 mm × 16.0 mm
 254 and a resolution of 1,280 × 800 pixels was selected to provide a quantitative analysis of the
 255 burning particles. Lee et al. [29] introduced the calibration method with minimal observation
 256 errors wherein the pixel size was calibrated using circle and line-scale reticle shapes, fitted
 257 inside the field of view of the camera. Without a backlight, the flame intensity on a particle's

258 surface was too bright to allow char particles to be captured simultaneously. The flame
259 intensity varied according to the type of solid particle; for example, a coal particle burns with
260 almost twice the intensity of a biomass particle [17]. Therefore, determining the backlight
261 intensity played an important role in comparing the flame structures of the four particles. A
262 controllable-brightness, light-emitting diode (LED) backlight with uniform luminescence and
263 high intensity was adapted identically at 5,600 K for all experiments and was located at
264 50 mm from the quartz window.



265

266 Fig. 5. Configuration of the high-speed camera and LED backlight. This enables the
267 observation of particle ignition and volatile and char combustion on the few-hundred-micron-
268 sized surfaces.

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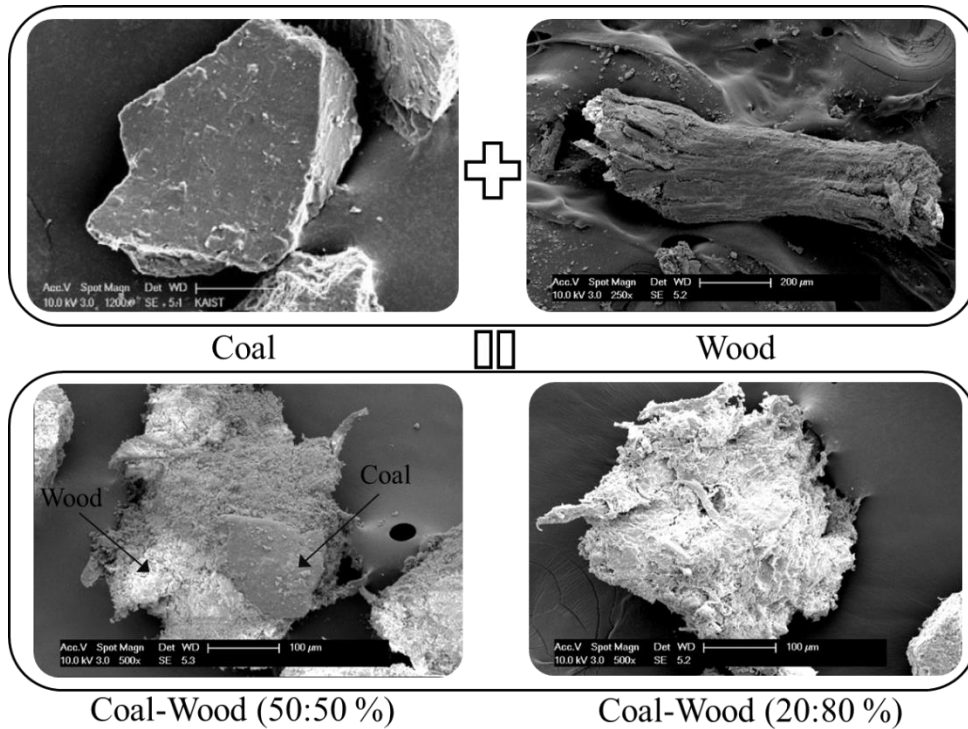
270 **2.5 Physical formation of the four particles from SEM images**

271 To explain the particle structures of the fuel mixtures, pulverised particles were examined
272 using a NOVA 230 SEM. The resulting images shown in Fig. 6 were taken under the

273 following conditions: accelerating voltage 10.0 kV, spot size 3.0, magnification 650–800×.
274 The pure wood and coal particles were compared with the two co-firing particles. First, the
275 raw wood particle had a remarkably fibrous structure with a high aspect ratio, and the
276 external physical structure of the coal particle was an irregular blocky shape with angular
277 transitions. These appreciably different shapes can play an important role in particle motion,
278 temperature gradient and ignition [33, 35].

279

280 They may also exert a strong influence on differences in combustion behaviour, such as
281 flame structure, release of volatile matter and combustion mode. The blended particles were
282 physical mixtures of coal and wood fragments, and the small coal particles could appear
283 inside or on the particles. The fuel blending ratios (50:50 or 20:80) were fairly constant
284 according to the volume fractions of coal particles used in the pelletising process. However, it
285 is difficult to guarantee a homogeneous mixture of pulverised particles. Repeated tests
286 showed remarkable differences in the apparent flame structures of each particle group but
287 similar combustion behaviour in identical particle groups. The standard deviation was less
288 than 10% in all experiments. We analysed the thermal decomposition of the four particles to
289 support whether the particle mixtures were homogeneous or not, as discussed later in section
290 3.



291

292 Fig. 6. SEM images of coal, wood, 50:50 coal/wood and 20:80 coal/wood particles.

293

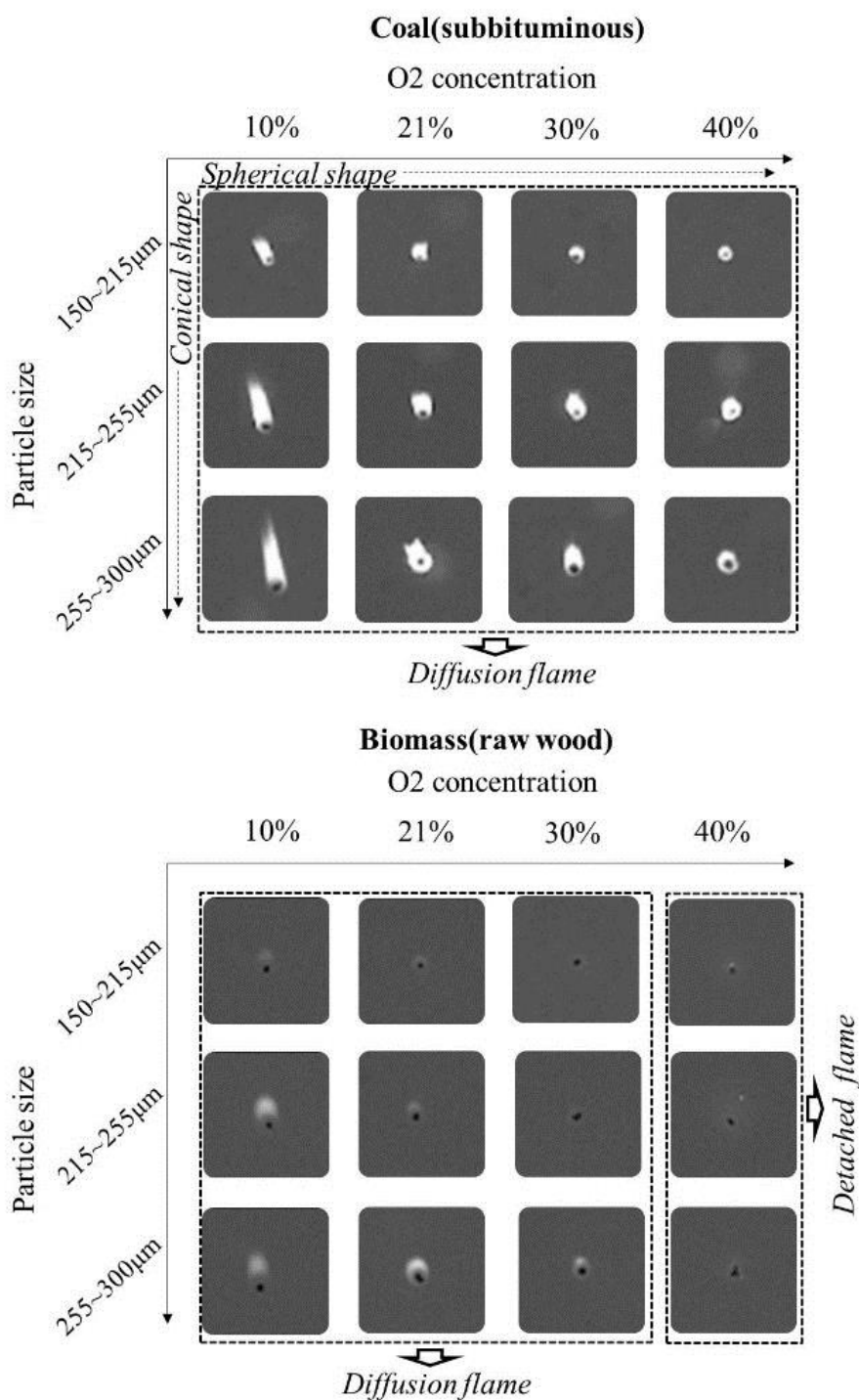
294 2.6 Characterisation of volatile flame on pulverised coal and raw wood particles

295 Flames comprise pyrolysis and luminous regions in which a gas phase and a solid phase (as
 296 submicron soot particles) are released by the chemical reactions. The luminous region is
 297 occupied in a flame and the high radiative energy is generated mostly from the soot particle
 298 fraction. The fixed carbon content plays an important role in the formation of an elongated
 299 soot cloud, because this content is equivalent to elemental carbon, which is one of the
 300 elements that produce soot particles [36]. Here we discuss the physical appearance of flames
 301 due to coal and wood particles prior to the investigation of single particles with different fuel
 302 mixtures. As shown in Fig. 7, the different size and shape in volatile flames for both sub-
 303 bituminous coal and wood particles at 1,340 K were observed under 10-40 % O₂. The
 304 diffusion flame of coal was found to be several times larger than the wood flame under all

305 oxygen concentrations. Increasing the coal particle size under low O₂ concentration enhanced
306 the elongated flame. This result is consistent with previous research [29, 37]. The attached
307 flame is formed where the rate of volatile release is balanced by the rate of oxidation, but this
308 fast oxidation rate decreases the radius of the volatile flame and enhances the detached flame
309 depending on biomass species, particle size and particle heating rates. Especially, biomass
310 particles have thin volatile flames under high oxygen concentration because of their turbulent
311 dispersion of gas-phase, which is the major species in a flame. Coal particles under low O₂
312 concentration have an elongated flame with a soot tail. This tail is formed by the effect of
313 thermophoresis (force and velocity) between the solid phase and surrounding gas and low
314 availability of oxygen [38–40]. The differences in this soot tail are less pronounced at higher
315 oxygen concentration [41].

316 The flame characteristics of pure coal and wood particles offer a meaningful comparison for
317 the flame parameters of the two co-firing particles with different fuel-blending ratios. In the
318 experimental results, the intensities of volatile flames for the four particles were analysed by
319 image processing, which converts a flame image into a grayscale image. In the process, each
320 pixel in the image has different values in a range of 0 to 255, and numerical background
321 values, which were more or less than 65, are extracted from the images. After that, the
322 intensity of the flame was divided by the maximum value of grayscale (255). The intensity-
323 weighted values in the flame boundaries were fluctuating, which means that it might be
324 considered a flame threshold. To minimise their fluctuation and verify the minimised
325 variation of the flame size, we have carried out the sensitivity analysis with varying back-
326 lighting intensity until the rate of change in the flame size was minimised.

327



329

330

331 Fig. 7. Typical flame structures of pure coal and wood in relation to shape and size under 10–
 332 40% O₂ and at 1,340 K. This illustrates the physical changes due to particle size and O₂
 333 concentration, and explains the corresponding volatile combustion modes of attached,

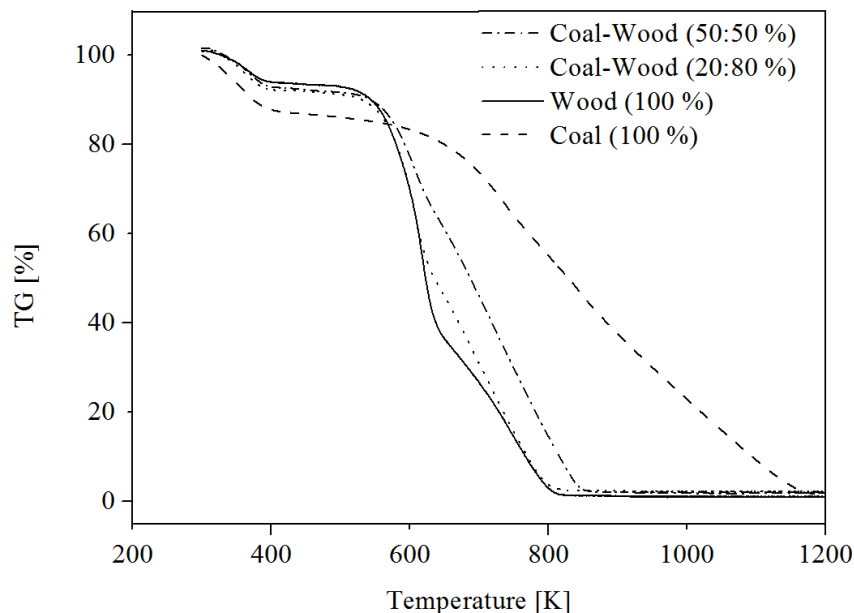
334 diffusion and detached flames.

335 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

336 **3.1 Sequential combustion processes under slow heating and thermal decomposition for** 337 **different fuel-blending ratios**

338 It is generally accepted that the impact of co-firing sub-bituminous coal (Adaro) with
339 biomass (pine wood) contributes to rapid devolatilisation, fast ignition and low emission of
340 carbon dioxide because of the chemical and physical characteristics of wood.
341 Thermogravimetric analysis, TG/DTA 92-18, was used to investigate the characteristics of
342 co-firing particles with different fuel blending ratios compared to raw wood particles. Each
343 sample was prepared at 8 ± 0.5 mg from pulverised particles in the range of 150–215 μm , and
344 the samples were heated at 20 K/min to 1,273 K under air conditions. The results explained
345 the thermal decomposition and how the mass of these samples reduces differently as a
346 function of temperature over time. The main experiment was carried out under rapid heating,
347 but the TGA here was done under slow heating that is not representative of practical
348 conditions in an industrial furnace. In spite of this limitation, the different thermal
349 decompositions of 20:80 and 50:50 coal/wood and wood particles can be discussed in relation
350 to the impact of co-firing combustion and by comparing the combustion behaviour with that
351 under rapid heating rate. Thermogravimetric (TG) plots and derivative thermogravimetric
352 (DTG) curves, which are obtained from the derivatives of the TG profiles, are shown in Fig.
353 8. The results show unequal TG and DTG curves, with the first and second peaks of mass
354 reduction followed by fluctuations between 50:50 coal/wood, 20:80 coal/wood and raw wood.
355 In relation to the combustion processes, the first peak is due to the drying process that occurs
356 at 300–400 K, after which the particle is heated up with negligible mass reduction.
357 Sequentially, the volatile release starts at approximately 520 K and the peak reaches almost

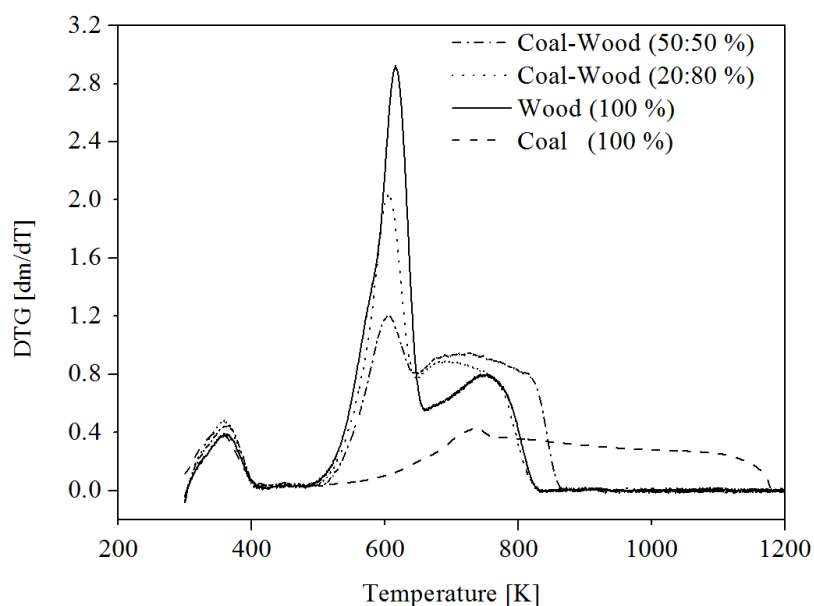
358 610 K because pure wood particles have three components: lignin, cellulose and
359 hemicellulose. A fluctuation then occurs because of lignin decomposition. Generally,
360 hemicellulose decomposes in a range of 493–588 K, cellulose does so at 588–673 K and
361 lignin does so over a wide range of 433–1173 K [42]. Finally, the particle mass decreases at
362 constant mass loss rate, which is associated with char combustion. The second peak and
363 degree of fluctuation magnitude were obviously different between the three particles, which
364 is attributed to either the volume of wood particles or the volatile mass fraction in a particle.
365 Coal particles have a moderate peak and the char combustion regimes are extended because
366 of their high carbon content. Consequently, under slow heating, the highest peak for
367 devolatilisation occurs for the raw wood particle, and the co-firing particles also have higher
368 peaks at relatively low temperatures. However, the flame ignition and combustion behaviours
369 under this slow heating rate does not correspond with those of a single burning particle under
370 rapid heating rate. This aspect is discussed in section 3.2.



371

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(a)



(b)

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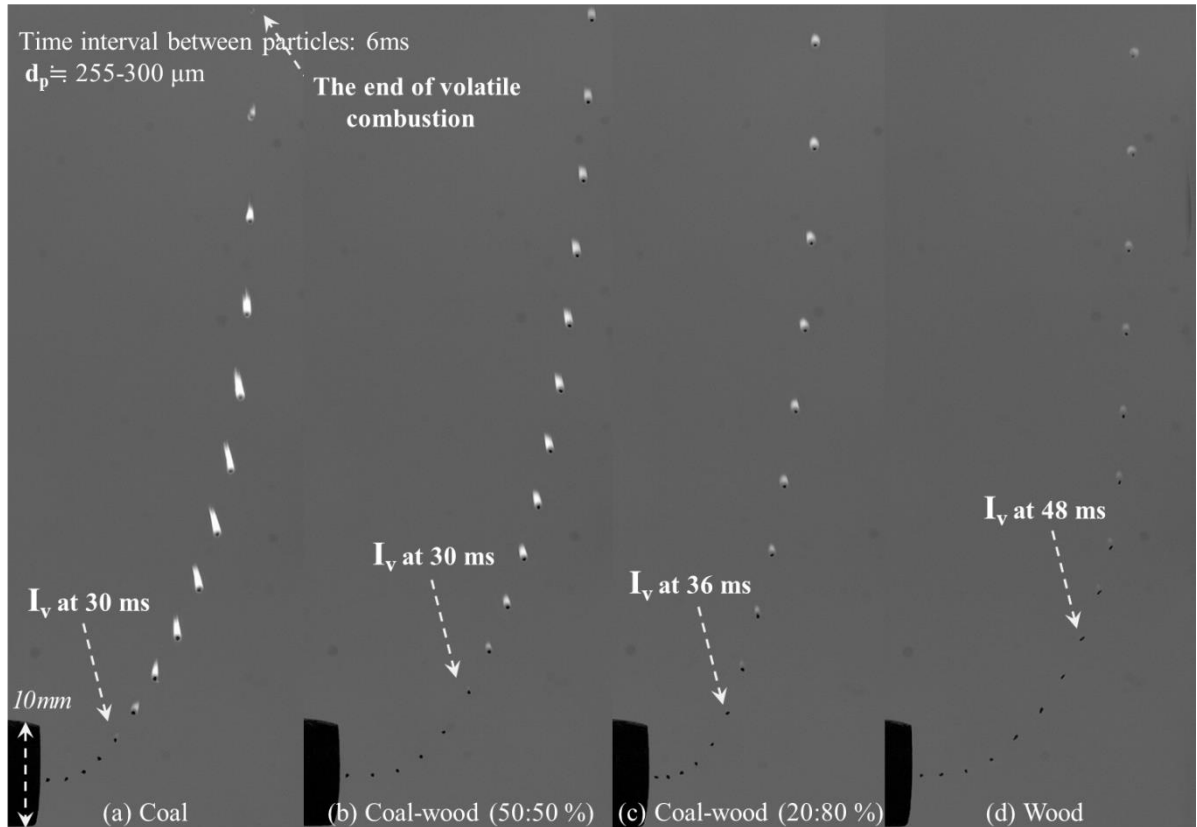
375 Fig. 8. Thermal decompositions of 50:50 coal/wood, 20:80 coal/wood and pure wood
 376 obtained from TGA at a heating rate of 20 K/min: (a) TG, (b) DTG. These graphs explain the
 377 distinction between mass reduction associated with homogeneous and heterogeneous
 378 combustion between the two prepared co-firing particles, coal particles and pulverised wood
 379 particles.

380

381 3.2 Sequential combustion processes under rapid heating and development of volatile 382 flames for different blending ratios

383 The sequential combustion processes of a pulverised solid-fuel particle are explained in the
 384 superimposed images in Fig. 9. Single particles of coal, 50:50 coal/wood, 20:80 coal/wood
 385 and wood in size ranges of 215–255 μm and 300–355 μm were burned under 10% oxygen
 386 concentration and at 1,340 K. Particles are heated rapidly by the drying process after particle
 387 injection at 298 K. The release of volatiles then starts within a few milliseconds, followed by
 388 volatile combustion. Char combustion starts after extinction of the volatile flame, but this

389 regime is not shown because of limited optical access. Under rapid heating rates, volatile
390 combustion presents changes in the flame size, following volatile ignition. Comparative
391 flame size and intensity with sequential combustion processes can be explained as a function
392 of time. In contrast, TGA, which is operated under slow heating rates, shows the fluctuated
393 profile with a peak for the regime of volatile combustion, providing a range of particle
394 temperature for volatile and char combustion and a different rate of devolatilisation between
395 the four particles. The similar tendency of volatile combustion was shown in the results, but
396 there are more complex physical and chemical events in a flame around a particle under rapid
397 heating. Generally, high soot formation in a flame is associated with tar reacting to become
398 submicron-sized soot particles at high temperatures. This affects the volatile combustion
399 associated with highly luminous flames [43, 44]. From this result, the four burning particles
400 differed in apparent homogeneous ignition and apparent flame structures. The pure coal
401 particle (215–255 μm) ignited after 30 ms, whereas the wood particle ignited after 48 ms. The
402 single particles with fuel mixtures ignite in almost the same way as does the coal particle,
403 which is attributed to the coal ignition characteristics. To see this in more detail, the results
404 for ignition and combustion times are discussed in Fig. 12–15, where it can be seen that
405 increasing the coal blending ratio has an impact on large elongated flames with their high
406 intensity.



407

408 Fig. 9. Sequential combustion-process images of four solid particles ($d_{255-300\mu\text{m}}$, $T_g = 1340\text{ K}$
 409 and 10% O_2 concentration). After leaving the tip of the injector, each single particle is
 410 marked at intervals of 6 ms as it forms an apparent volatile flame from initial ignition.

411

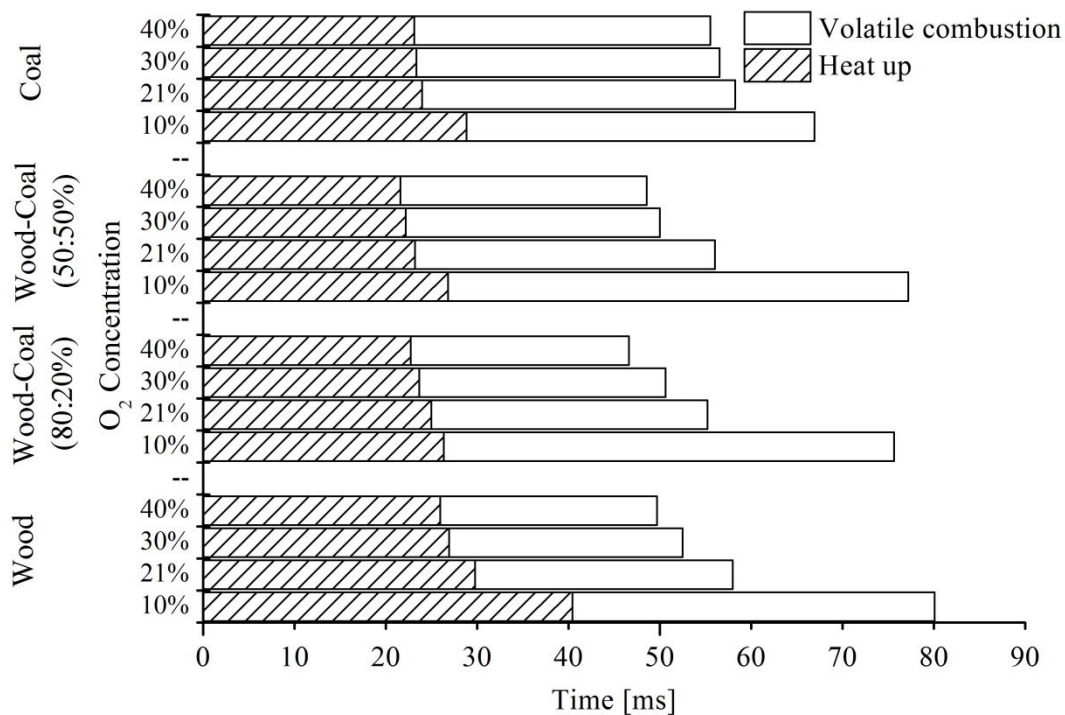
412 3.3 Ignition delay, volatile combustion time and flame characteristics

413 Figure 10 shows the average heat-up (or ignition) and volatile combustion durations for the
 414 four particles from 20 of each particle under different oxygen concentrations at 1,340 K. The
 415 standard deviation of each test is less than 10% of the mean values from the quantitative
 416 analysis. The heat-up time is measured from when the particle is injected until the apparent
 417 volatile ignition. This ignition might be different from homologous ignition, because a light
 418 gas phase emits a very weak light. Therefore, this experiment presents only the apparent
 419 volatile ignition with soot luminosity. The results show that, under 10% oxygen, the coal
 420 particle and the two co-firing particles have shorter ignition delays (26–30 ms) than that of

421 the wood particle (40 ms).

422 Under all oxygen levels, the differences in apparent volatile ignition between particles
423 (except for the pure wood particles) are not significant because of early ignition, based on
424 apparent volatile ignition of the coal particle. The volatile combustion time of the co-firing
425 particles is almost the same as that of wood. In other words, the different ignition and volatile
426 combustion times of the co-firing particles can be attributed to both coal and wood,
427 respectively.

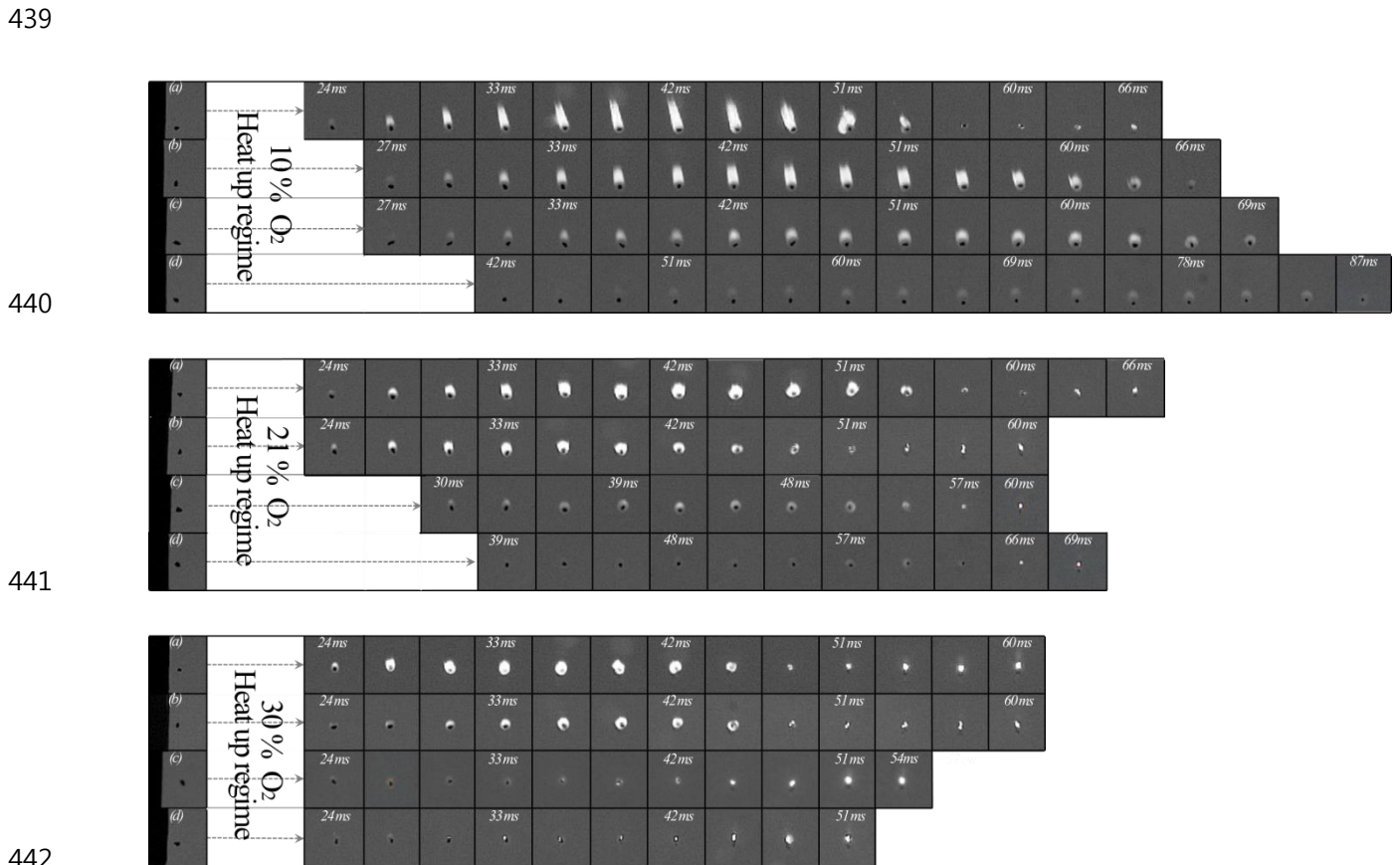
428 The apparent flame characteristics of the four particles at 215–255 μm are explained under
429 10, 21 and 30% O_2 as shown in Fig. 11. Overall, the size of the volatile flames decreases with
430 the shorter combustion time as the oxygen concentration increases. This result shows that the
431 four particles have distinguishable flame structures in terms of size and intensity under all
432 oxygen levels. Their flame size and intensity are explained by a quantitative analysis in
433 section 3.4.



434

435 Fig. 10. Measurement of average duration of heat-up and volatile combustion, obtained from

436 four particles (255–300 μm) under different oxygen concentrations at 1,340 K. This figure
 437 shows different burning characteristics between the wood and coal particles and the two
 438 mixed particles.



443 Fig. 11. Burning particles at 215–255 μm under 10%–30% O_2 concentrations at 1,340 K: (a)
 444 coal, (b) 20:80 coal/wood, (c) 50:50 coal/wood and (d) wood. The particles are captured over
 445 time intervals of 4 ms. The coal particle has the largest and brightest flame of the four.

446

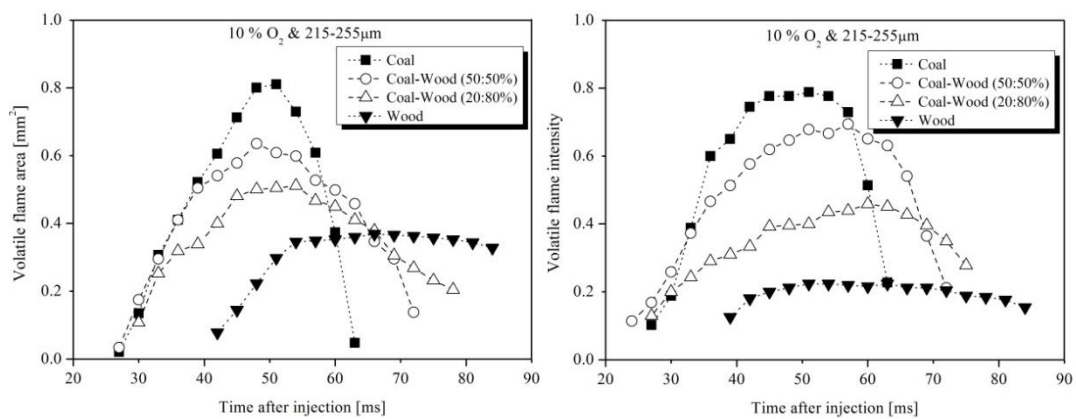
447 3.4 Effect of particle types over time

448 The results shown in Fig. 12 suggest that increasing the coal blending ratio under 10 and 21%
 449 oxygen concentrations has a significant effect on the enveloped flame of each particle in the
 450 time domain. The size and intensity of the flames around particles (215-255 μm) were
 451 measured from volatile ignition to flame extinction. However, we cannot detect the whole

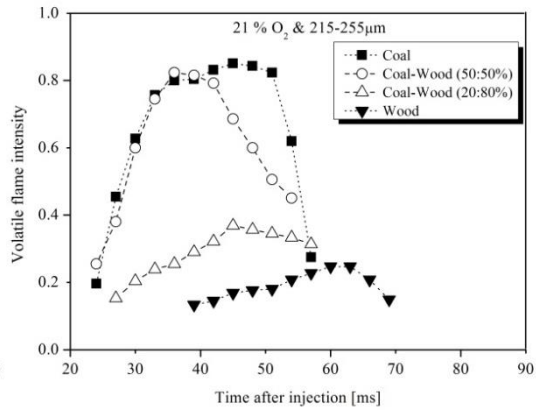
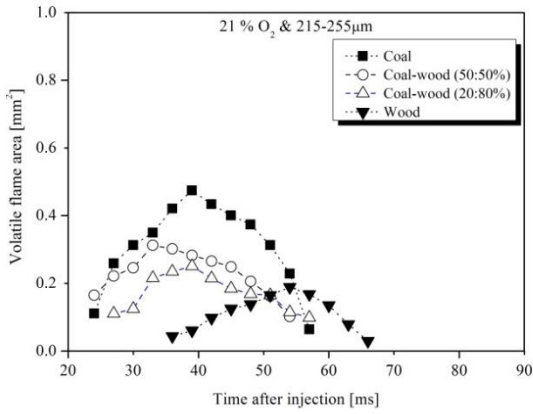
452 volatile combustion in particles (300-350 μm) as explained before. Particle combustion
 453 events are associated with a high peak when the maximum volume of volatiles and soot
 454 particles are in the flame. This can also be seen in the nearly symmetrical profile during
 455 combustion [17]. From this result, the profiles of the two particles with fuel mixtures are seen
 456 to lie between the coal and wood profiles. The peak flame size does not correspond entirely
 457 with the peak flame intensity, although they have similar tendencies over the same period.
 458 The peak of volatile flame area occurs marginally before the intensity peak.

459 Figure 13 shows the variation in maximum flame area and intensity under 21% O_2 at
 460 1,340 K with the wood-coal blending ratio. The imagined line between wood and coal
 461 particles is drawn in order to compare their measured magnitudes. To obtain the results, the
 462 flame parameters were averaged over 20 particles for each test. The flame area of the 50:50
 463 coal/wood particle differed from the prediction of the imagined line by 0.03 mm^2 . Both the
 464 20:80 and 50:50 coal/wood particles have a higher intensity compared with the trend in flame
 465 area. Also, there was little difference in intensity between the 50:50 coal/wood and pure coal
 466 particles under 21% O_2 .

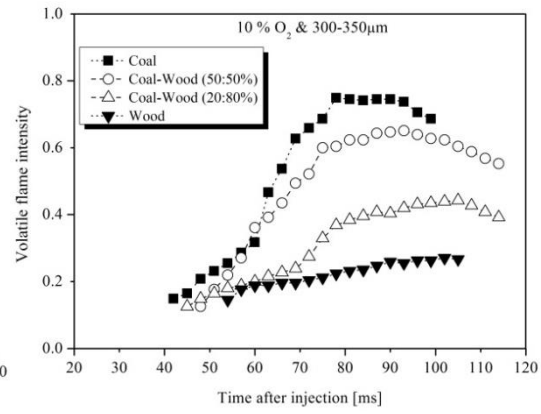
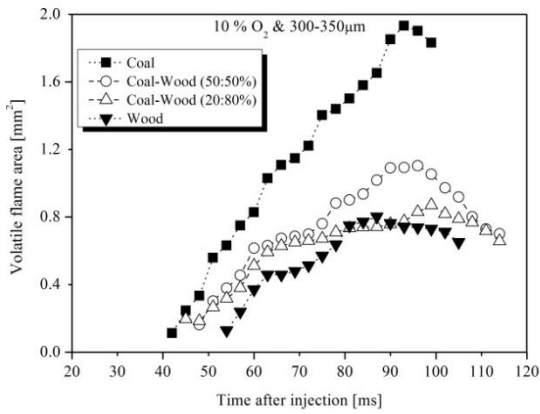
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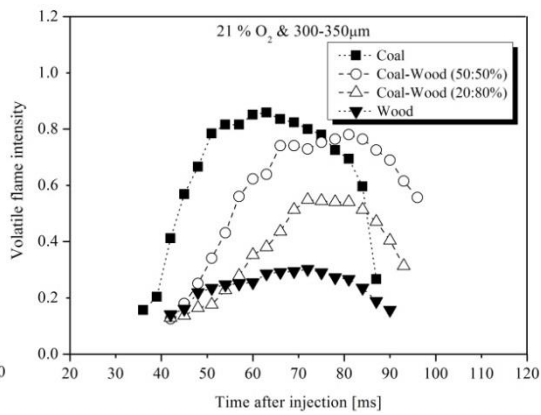
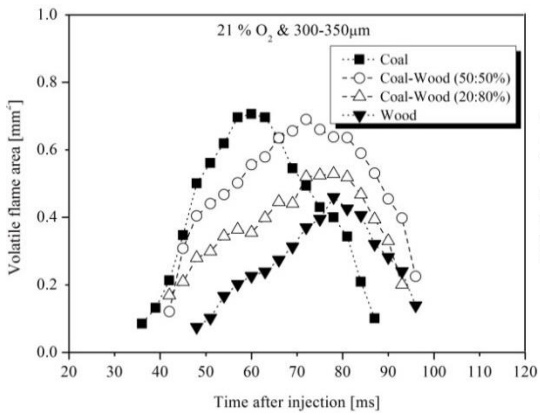
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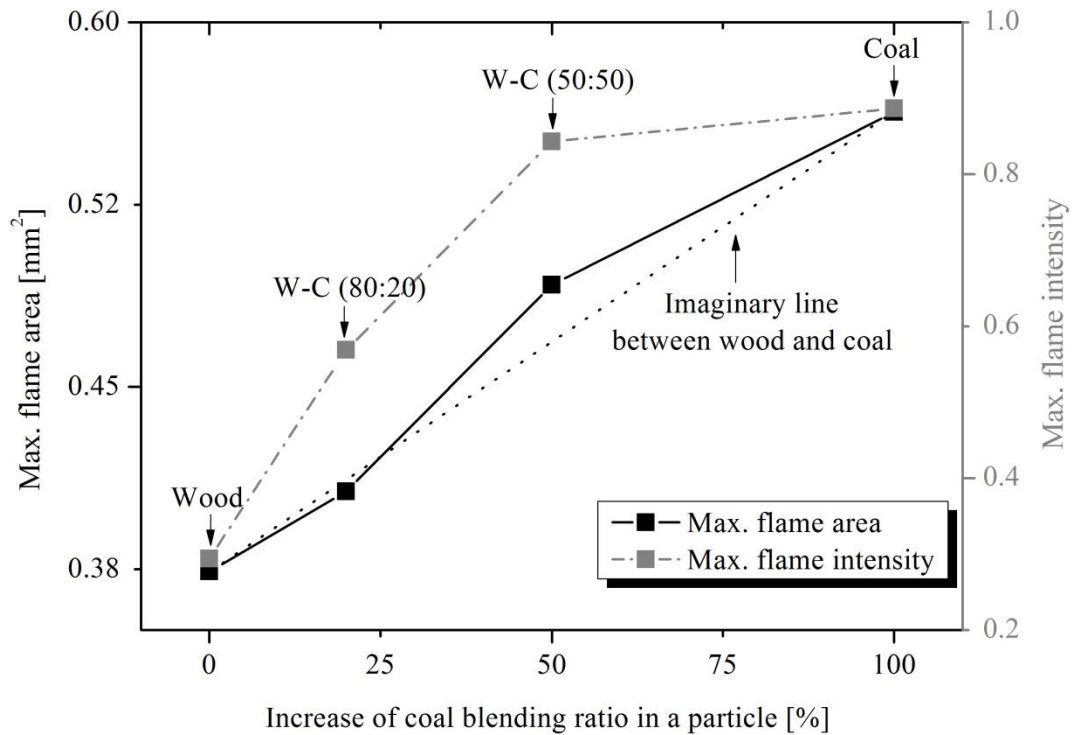


472



473

474 Fig. 12. Effect of particle type on flame development under 10 and 21% O₂ at 1,340 K. The
 475 figures show a peak in the flame parameters as a function of time, and distinguishable flame
 476 size and intensity between particles are measured at 215–255 µm and 300–350 µm.



477

478 Fig. 13. Overall profiles of average flame parameters with particle coal-blending ratio (255–
 479 300 μm) under 21% O_2 at 1,340 K. This figure shows how flame intensity and area increase
 480 with reference to an imagined line between wood and coal.

481

482 3.5 Effect of oxygen concentration with particle type as a function of time

483 The four different types of particle in the particle size group of 215–255 μm were burned
 484 under 10%–40% O_2 . Fig. 14 shows the temporal flame profiles for the effect of oxygen
 485 concentration. The flame area decreased with shorter volatile combustion time as the oxygen
 486 concentration was increased. A dramatic decrease of this flame parameter for particles at
 487 255–300 μm was observed between 10 and 21 % oxygen, as shown in Fig. 15(a). Particles
 488 burning under low oxygen concentration have an elongated flame. The flame areas of coal,
 489 50:50 coal/wood, 20:80 coal/wood and wood under 21%–30% O_2 decreased by
 490 approximately 44, 40, 59 and 79%, respectively. As for the combustion mode, particles

491 containing 80% or more of wood have imperceptible volatile flames with low luminosity at
492 high oxygen concentrations, and simultaneous homogeneous and heterogeneous combustion
493 occurs on the surface. Hence, coal blending plays an important role in stable flame structures
494 and sequential combustion processes even under high oxygen concentrations.

495

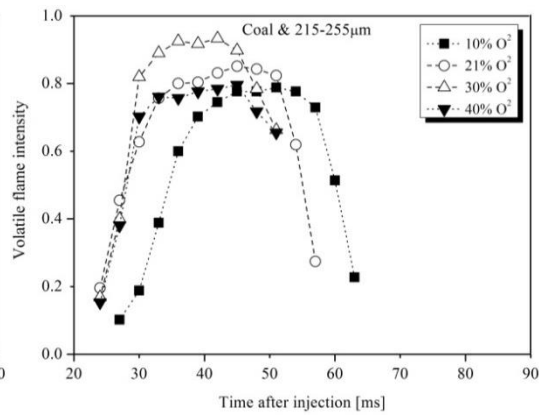
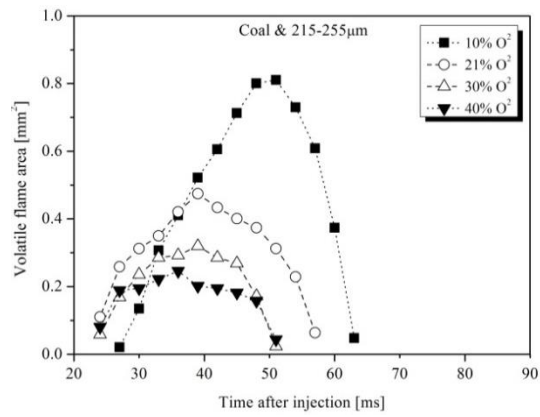
496 Overall, the flame intensity of the four particles at 255–300 μm present the effect of oxygen
497 concentration as shown in Fig. 15(b). The flame intensities on all the particles were
498 comparatively high under 21% oxygen. However, the peak flame intensity of the coal
499 particles was reached at 30% oxygen concentration, whereas the pure wood particle and
500 particles with wood mixtures have their highest flame intensities at 21% O_2 . This
501 phenomenon is likely attributable to the volume fraction of soot in the flame. The normalised
502 flame intensities of particles with high wood mixtures decreased dramatically between 21 %
503 and 30 % O_2 . Khatami et al. [15] reported that the highest peak soot volume fraction of
504 bituminous coal occurred in 40 % O_2 . The different profiles between two results are related to
505 the particle size, environmental conditions and reaction rate.

506

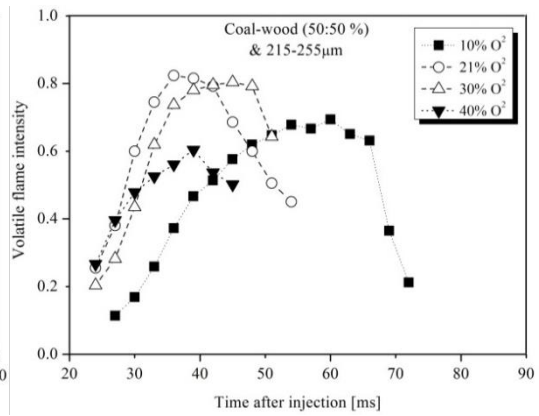
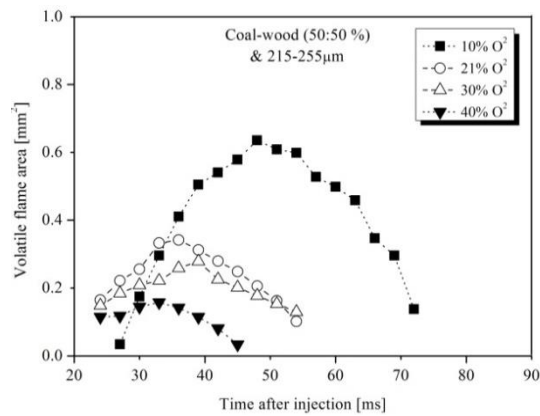
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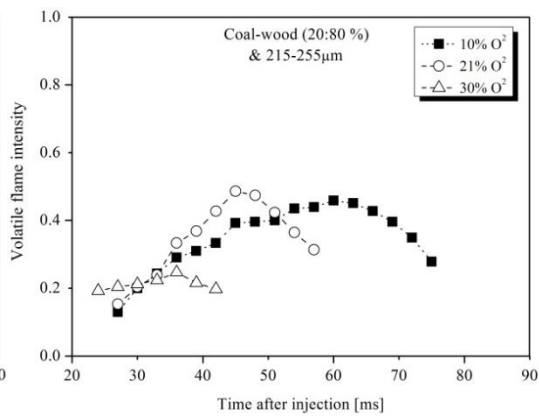
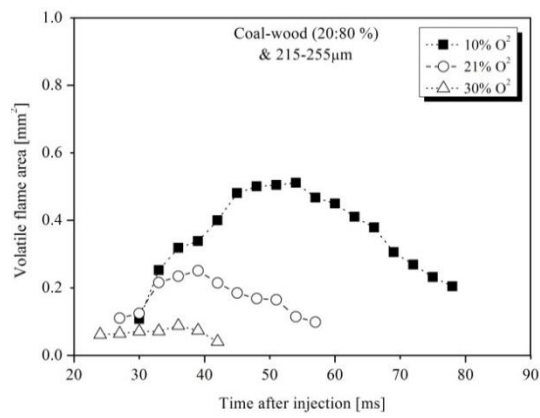
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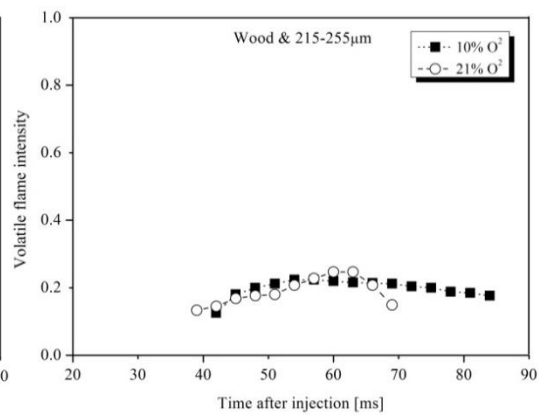
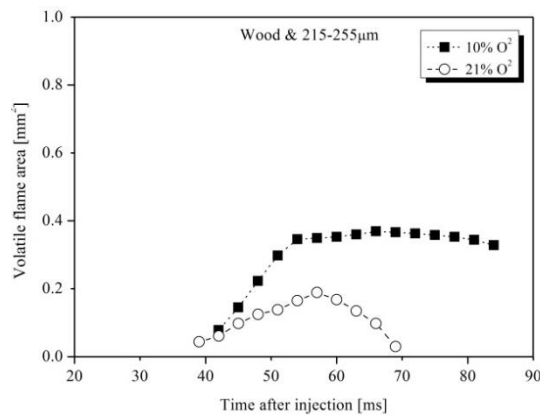
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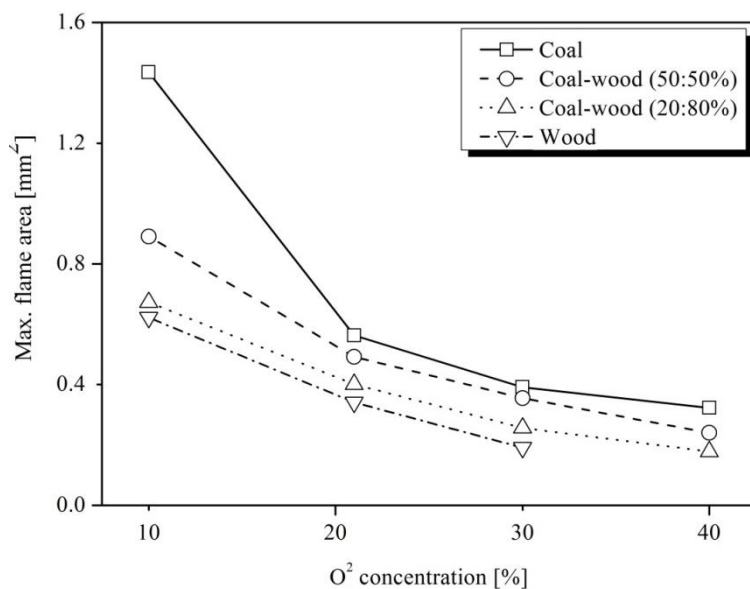
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513

514 Fig. 14. Effect of oxygen concentration (10%–40%) on the flame characteristics of the four

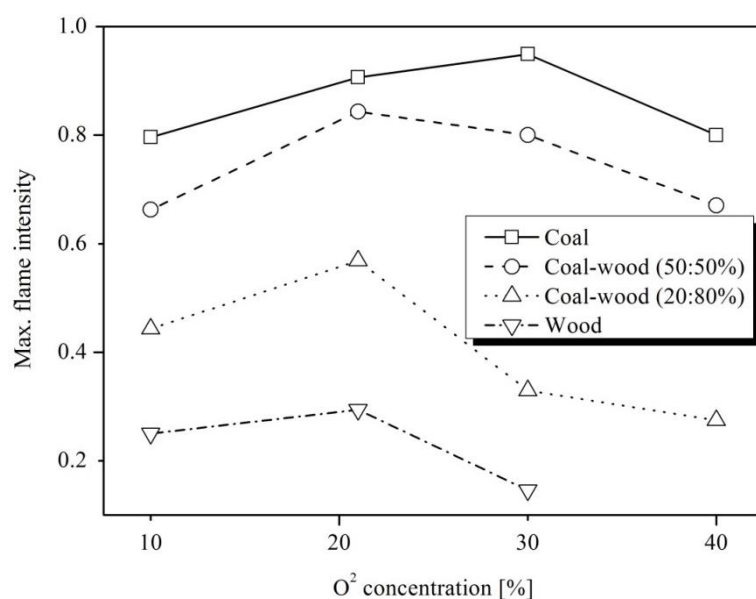
515 particles (215–255 μm) at 1,340 K. The graphs illustrate the variation of volatile flame area
516 and intensity with surrounding O_2 .



517

518

(a)



519

520

(b)

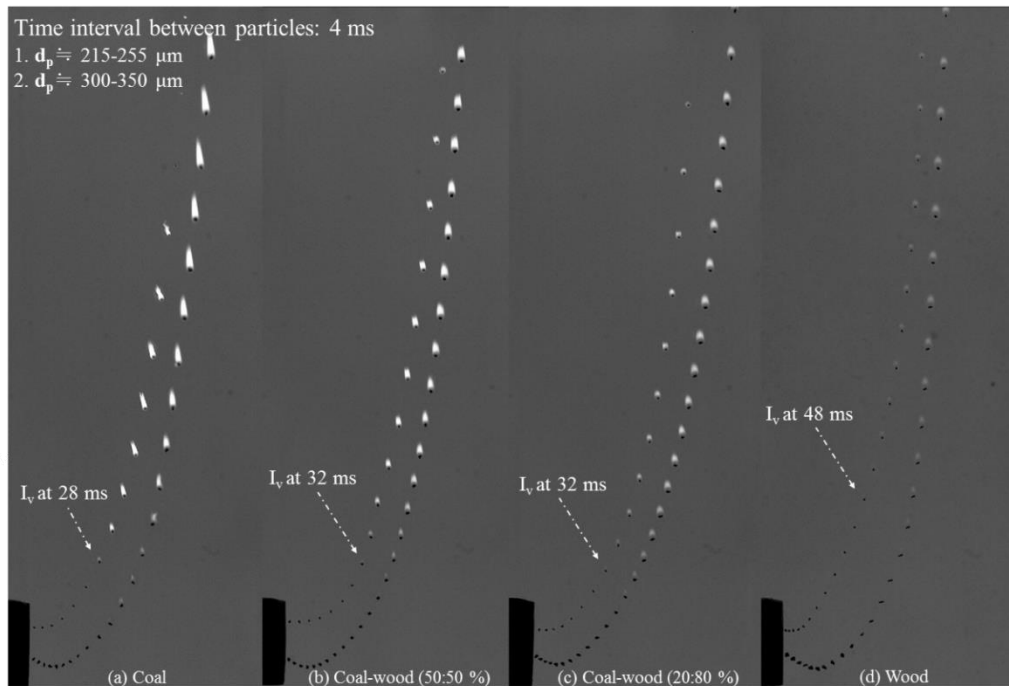
521 Fig. 15. Overall profiles of average flame area and intensity of the four particles (255–300
522 μm) with O_2 concentration. These graphs show a wide variation in flame area for the four
523 particles under 10% O_2 ; wood and blended particles (not coal particles) have a peak flame
524 intensity at 21% O_2 .

525 **3.6 Effect of particle size**

526 Figure 16 shows superimposed visible flame appearances for particle sizes in the ranges of
527 215–255 μm and 300–350 μm . All the experiments were performed under 10% oxygen
528 concentration at 1,340 K. After injection, the burning particles were captured at 4-ms time
529 intervals. The increase of approximately 100 μm in the size of the four particle types clearly
530 affected the ignition delay. The trajectories of the 300–350- μm particles dropped slightly after
531 injection and then went upwards until burnout because of the relatively high particle mass. In
532 the experiment, the particle size group of 355–425 μm dropped slightly after injection and
533 then lifted toward the top until burnout. Larger particle sizes fall to the bottom to be
534 incompletely burned without volatile combustion, which was explained by Mock et al. [17].

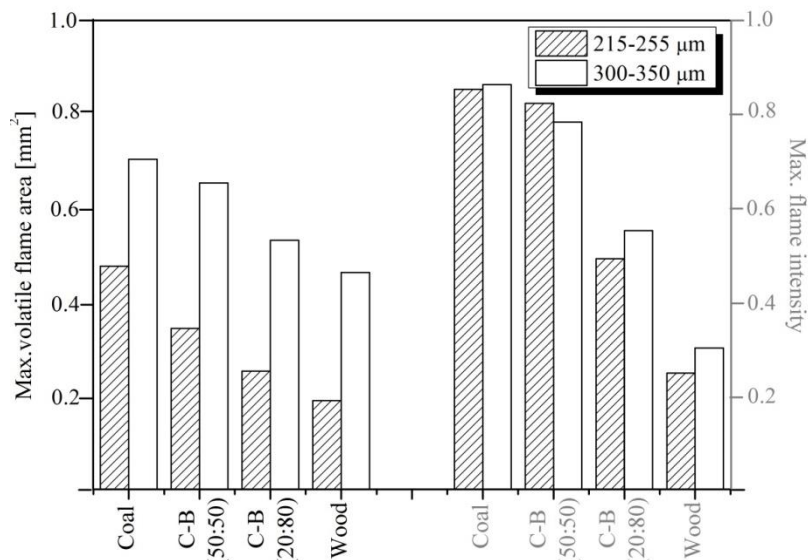
535 Figure 17 shows the average flame parameters for 20 particles of 215–255 μm and 300–
536 350 μm under 21% oxygen concentration. This shows that the increase in flame size for all
537 particles was very steady between the two particle-size groups. However, the increased flame
538 intensity is a little different between coal particles and particles with a high coal-blending
539 ratio. The coal and 50:50 coal/wood particles also show very similar flame intensity
540 variations with particle size, which may be attributed to a sufficiently high soot particle
541 volume fraction in the particles.

542



543

544 Fig. 16. Superposition of four different particles of 215–255 μm and 300–350 μm at time
 545 intervals of 4 ms entrained in hot gas streams of 1,340 K under 10% oxygen concentration.
 546 The tendencies of particles of different sizes are similar between the two particle size groups.
 547 However, the flames on the 300–350 μm particles grow because of the longer ignition delay.



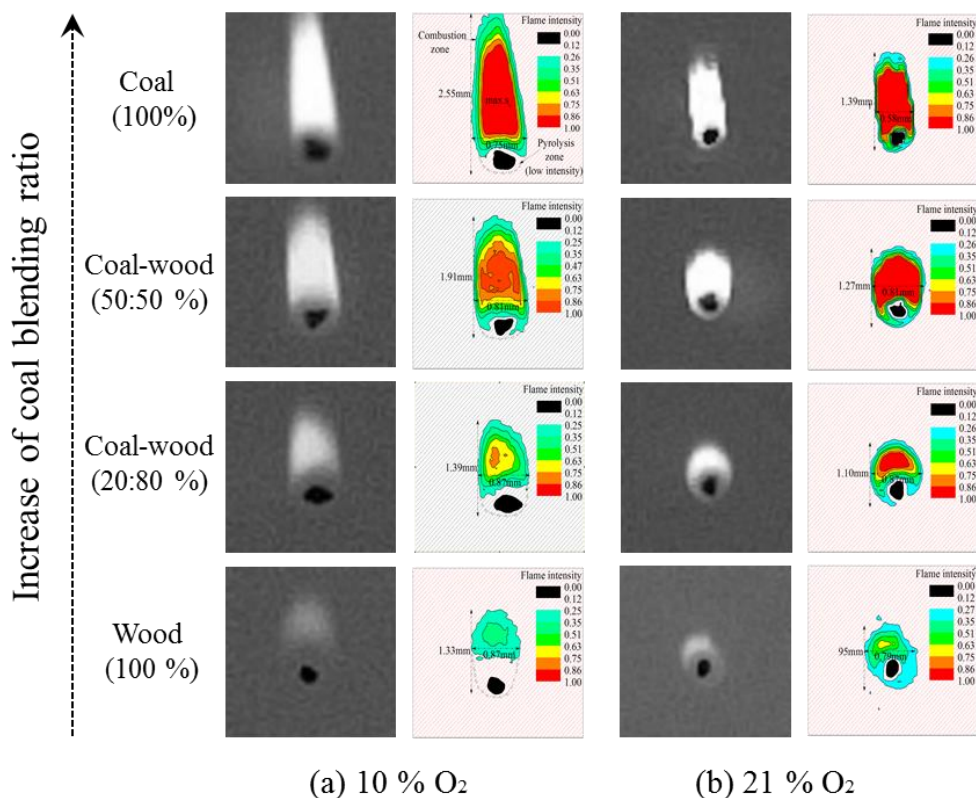
548

549 Fig. 17. Average flame area and intensity of four different particles with particle size (215–
 550 255 μm and 300–350 μm) under 21% O_2 concentration. The graphs show a regular
 551 decreasing trend in volatile flame area.

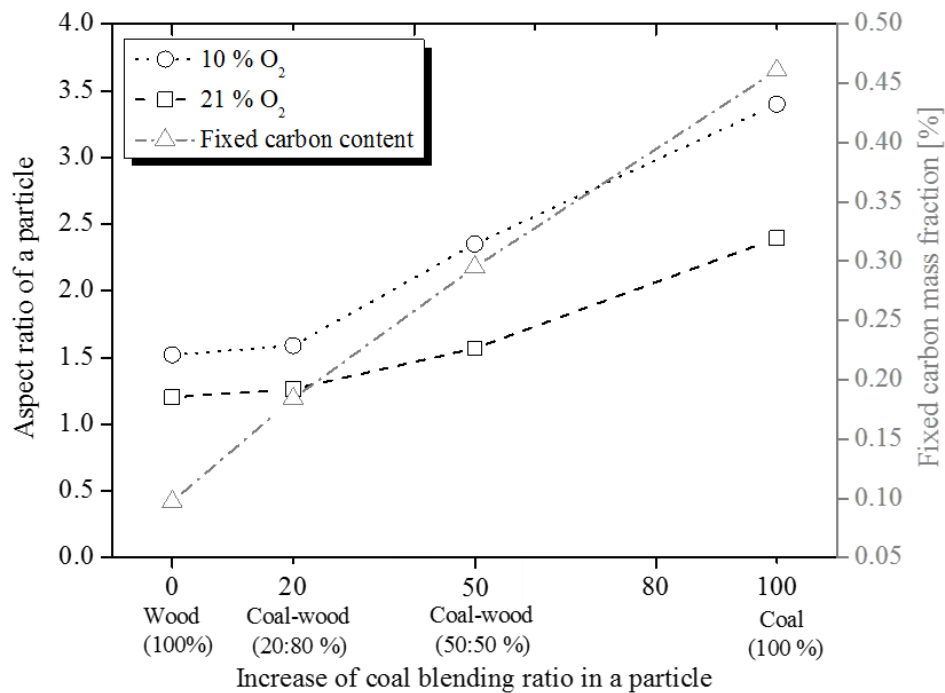
552 **3.7 Flame aspect ratio of co-firing particles**

553 The shapes of the flames on the four particle surfaces under 10 and 21% oxygen
 554 concentrations can be represented in terms of the flame aspect ratio. Figures 18(a) and (b)
 555 illustrate the measurement of flame height, length and intensity after image post-processing,
 556 which may be an effective way to define the characteristics of flame shape. One of the results
 557 is that a relatively large pyrolysis zone for fuel vaporisation and reactions was observed
 558 clearly under low oxygen concentration, showing a transparent coloured boundary layer. The
 559 flame aspect ratio increases rapidly for burning particles with a 50% coal blending ratio.
 560 However, wood and 20:80 coal/wood particle have aspect ratios of approximately 1.2, which
 561 suggests a more spherical flame. An elongated flame can be attributed to soot phase in a
 562 particle. Coal particles, which contain more fixed carbon and less volatile matter, have the
 563 highest visible flame aspect ratio of 3.4 under the lowest oxygen concentration.

564



565



(c) Flame aspect ratio

566

567 Fig. 18. Flame structure in terms of aspect ratio obtained from volatile flames of four
 568 particles under 10 and 21% O₂ concentrations by image post-processing.

569 4. CONCLUSIONS

570 In the study, pulverised single solid-fuel particles with different fuel mixtures were burned
 571 in a lab-scale entrained-flow reactor. These were compared with the burning of pure coal and
 572 pure wood particles under identical environmental conditions. The four particles differed in
 573 relation to their chemical and physical characteristics, which in turn affected the flame
 574 characteristics. The main objectives were to assess the burning behaviours of mixed single
 575 particles for co-firing, focusing on ignition, flame area and intensity, and combustion time,
 576 from direct observation. Quantitative analysis of these combustion parameters was presented
 577 along with a description of the sequential combustion process of the particles under various
 578 oxygen concentrations and for different particle sizes. The burning of particles under both
 579 slow and rapid heating was also discussed in relation to the similarities and differences of

580 their combustion behaviours. The significant conclusions of this study are as follows:

581

582 1. Single particles were observed in sequential combustion processes such as heat-up,
583 ignition and volatile and char combustion. Simultaneous volatile and char combustion
584 has been observed in a particle with high wood mixture under enhanced oxygen
585 concentrations.

586 2. The conical flame shape on co-firing particles was affected by an increase in the coal
587 mixture ratio. This was because the high fixed carbon content and H/C ratio of coal
588 generate a large soot flame with a high aspect ratio and flame intensity.

589 3. The pulverised particles are burned out in a few hundred milliseconds under rapid
590 heating; coal particles ignited sooner than the apparent ignition of wood particles. As
591 a result, the ignition of pulverised co-firing particles is attributed to the coal ignition
592 characteristics. However, the volatile combustion time plays an important role in the
593 high volatile matter content of the wood mixtures.

594 4. Of relevance to co-firing combustion is the fact that particles with coal/wood
595 mixtures improve the radiative heat energy from the flame parameters compared with
596 wood flames: +9% and +32% for the size and 93% and 187% for the intensity of
597 20:80 coal/wood and 50:50 coal/wood, respectively, under 21% O₂. This may affect
598 the stable diffusion flame, the fast homogeneous ignition and the flame stability to the
599 boiler efficiency.

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