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## Accepted Manuscript

Chemical and structural characterization of char development during lignocellulosic biomass pyrolysis

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PII: S0960-8524(17)31103-3  
DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2017.07.017>  
Reference: BITE 18436

To appear in: *Bioresource Technology*

Received Date: 24 May 2017  
Revised Date: 3 July 2017  
Accepted Date: 4 July 2017

Please cite this article as: Mafu, L.D., Neomagus, H.W.J., Everson, R.C., Strydom, C.A., Carrier, M., Okolo, G.N., Bunt, J.R., Chemical and structural characterization of char development during lignocellulosic biomass pyrolysis, *Bioresource Technology* (2017), doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2017.07.017>

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1 **Chemical and structural characterization of char development during lignocellulosic**  
2 **biomass pyrolysis**

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 The chemical and structural changes of three lignocellulosic biomass samples during  
15 pyrolysis were investigated using both conventional and advanced characterization  
16 techniques. The use of ATR-FTIR as a characterization tool is extended by the proposal of a  
17 method to determine aromaticity, the calculation of both CH<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub> ratio and the degree of  
18 aromatic ring condensation ((R/C)<sub>u</sub>). With increasing temperature, the H/C and O/C ratios,  
19 X<sub>A</sub> and CH<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub> ratio decreased, while (R/C)<sub>u</sub> and aromaticity increased. The micropore  
20 network developed with increasing temperature, until the coalescence of pores at 1100 °C,  
21 which can be linked to increasing carbon densification, extent of aromatization and/or  
22 graphitization of the biomass chars. WAXRD-CFA measurements indicated the gradual  
23 formation of nearly parallel basic structural units with increasing carbonization temperature.  
24 The char development can be considered to occur in two steps: elimination of aliphatic  
25 compounds at low temperatures, and hydrogen abstraction and aromatic ring condensation at  
26 high temperatures.

27 **Keywords:** *Aromaticity, ATR-FTIR, biochar, CPMAS <sup>13</sup>C NMR, pyrolysis*

28

## 29 1 Introduction

30 Interest in the use of biomass for energy generation has grown considerably in recent years,  
31 since it is considered to be a more sustainable alternative to fossil fuels (Mao et al., 2015;  
32 Pimenidou and Dupont, 2012). One process of ensuring the efficient use of biomass in energy  
33 production is pyrolysis, where fast pyrolysis is often preferred for liquid products and low  
34 heating rates are used for the production of chars (Fisher et al., 2012). The biomass origin and  
35 the pyrolysis conditions such as heating rate, pyrolysis temperature and gas environment  
36 shape the chemical and structural characteristics of the formed chars (Rutherford et al., 2012;  
37 Wei et al., 2011). The transformation of a broad range of plant biomass sources resulted in  
38 the production of carbonaceous material displaying properties suitable for various  
39 applications such as soil amendment, gasification and co-gasification with coal (Angin and  
40 Sensoz, 2014; Kaudal et al., 2016). In addition to variable lignocellulosic composition, the  
41 presence of inorganic compounds results in peculiar reactivity of plant biomass during  
42 pyrolysis, gasification and combustion. For example, feedstocks with a high mineral matter  
43 content may be preferred for co-gasification applications due to a favourable catalytic effect  
44 of the specific minerals (Huang et al., 2009). On the other hand, low ash feedstocks may be  
45 directly transformed into liquids that should result in more stable biofuels (Antonio et al.,  
46 2014).

47 The intended application of pyrolytic chars is dependent on their structural and chemical  
48 characteristics, which is in turn reliant on the pyrolysis conditions. For instance, chars  
49 produced at higher temperatures have shown higher fixed carbon and elemental carbon, lower  
50 volatile matter, lower elemental oxygen and hydrogen contents (Uzun et al., 2006; Zhang et  
51 al., 2016). A number of advanced techniques has been developed and used to provide more  
52 information on the changes in characteristics induced by pyrolysis (Rutherford et al., 2012;  
53 Suliman et al., 2016). Wide angle X-ray diffraction – carbon fraction analysis (WA-XRD-  
54 CFA) has been useful in identifying the phases of biomass and has been extended to  
55 evaluating the microcrystalline parameters (Huang et al., 2009). This has been done by the  
56 determination of the interlayer spacing ( $d_{002}$ ), crystalline height ( $L_c$ ), crystalline diameter ( $L_a$ )  
57 and the average number of aromatic layers per carbon crystallite ( $N_{ave}$ ) using the Bragg's and  
58 Scherrer's equation (Okolo et al., 2015). The transformation of the surface functionalities, or  
59 functional groups, as biomass undergoes heat treatment, has been studied by Fourier  
60 Transforms infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy. Major findings include the elimination of aliphatic  
61 groups at lower temperatures and as heating temperatures were increased, the aromatic

62 functional groups lost their infrared activity resulting in a spectrum with no FTIR peaks  
63 (Rutherford et al., 2012; Suliman et al., 2016). Cui et al. (2016) used FTIR to extract coal  
64 structural parameters which included the fraction of aromatic and aliphatic fractions. It was  
65 concluded that the  $\text{CH}_2/\text{CH}_3$  ratio increased with coal rank, pyrolysis temperature and  
66 pyrolysis time. Most findings from FTIR have been complemented by results from cross  
67 polarization magnetic angle spinning nuclear magnetic resonance (CPMAS  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR)  
68 spectroscopy and surface area measurements (McBeath et al., 2011; Suliman et al., 2016).

69 In addition, the characterization techniques have revealed important details in the process of  
70 char formation, which depends on the pyrolysis conditions and biomass characteristics. The  
71 lignocellulosic fibre composition has been reported to be the basis of observed chemical and  
72 structural changes during low temperature pyrolysis (Mafu et al., 2016; Wannapeera and  
73 Worasuwanarak, 2012). At temperatures above  $500\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , the vast majority of fibres have been  
74 found to be consumed through decomposition.

75 When considering processing conditions in a typical fixed bed dry bottom (FBDB) gasifier,  
76 the pyrolysis zone may rise up to temperatures above  $1000\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , while the heating rate is  
77 relatively low ( $10 - 20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ ) (Skhonde et al., 2009) and as such, the understanding of slow  
78 pyrolysis char formation even up to higher temperatures is justified. The characteristics of  
79 chars produced from the pyrolysis zone affect the gasification kinetics during biomass  
80 gasification or co-gasification with coal (Kajitani et al., 2010; Y. Zhang et al., 2016). It has  
81 been reported that the aromaticity, for instance, is a function of charring temperature  
82 (Everson et al., 2013), which increases with increasing pyrolysis temperature, while the  
83 gasification reactivity of the formed char has been shown to decrease with increasing  
84 aromaticity. However, as aromatization progresses, other chemical transformations that affect  
85 the crystallinity, the surface area and the microcrystalline structure are simultaneously taking  
86 place. The progress of char formation in slow pyrolysis, together with correlations between  
87 the various char characteristics have not yet received significant attention, and forms the  
88 motivation of this study.

89 The chemical and structural characterization of biomass, similar to coal, provides insight in  
90 the thermal behaviour, such as the gasification reactivity. As such, this work reports on the  
91 slow pyrolysis char development in the region of torrefaction to gasification temperatures.  
92 The effect of temperature on three different biomass samples that are widely available in  
93 South Africa is discussed, and outcomes include: the determination of aromaticity ( $f_{\text{aF}}$ ),  
94 degree of aromatic ring condensation ( $(\text{R}/\text{C})_{\text{u}}$ ), and aliphatic  $\text{CH}_2/\text{CH}_3$  ratios from ATR-FTIR

95 spectroscopy data; fraction of amorphous carbon ( $X_A$ ) and Van Krevelen plots of the  
96 samples. From the reported results, the char development is then explained using both  
97 chemical and structural characteristics by relating aromaticity to other char characteristics,  
98 which has been an area that is inadequately explored in biomass studies.

## 99 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 100 **2.1 Materials**

101 Three abundantly available biomass sources in South Africa were procured. Softwood (SW)  
102 and hardwood (HW) chips were supplied by South African Pulp and Paper Industries Limited  
103 (SAPPI), whereas sweet sorghum bagasse (SB) was obtained from the Agricultural Research  
104 Council (ARC) in Potchefstroom. Approximately 10 kg of each sample was obtained and air-  
105 dried overnight. Successively, the sample size was representatively reduced by applying a  
106 standardised cone and quartering method (DD CEN/TS 14780:2005) three times. The  
107 obtained sample was ground to  $< 300 \mu\text{m}$  and was further used for characterisation and  
108 conversion experiments. From the bulk samples, about 15 g of the air-dried and ground  
109 biomass samples were heated at  $10 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$  using a  $\text{N}_2$  gas flow rate of  $100 \text{ ml}/\text{min}$  from room  
110 temperature to  $260 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in a tube furnace from Elite Thermal Systems Limited (Model  
111 TSH12/75/610) to achieve a 30% mass loss. The changes in characteristics after torrefaction  
112 are reported in a previous study (Mafu et al., 2016). Chars for this study were prepared from  
113 the torrefied biomass, in the same furnace by heating at  $10 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$  to final temperatures of  
114  $300, 400, 600$  and  $1100 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and left isothermal for 60 minutes. The series of pyrolytic chars  
115 were referred to by the plant biomass that they were produced from, and the highest  
116 temperature of the pyrolysis treatment (e.g. softwood char prepared at  $300 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  is referred to as  
117 SW 300).

### 118 **2.2 Characterization**

119 Ultimate analysis was carried out by means of the standard ASTM D 5373 method for  
120 elemental C, H and N, whilst the elemental S and O mass percentages were determined by the  
121 ASTM D 4239 method and by difference, respectively. The volatile matter and mineral  
122 matter contents were obtained using the ISO 562:2010 and ISO 1171:2010 methods  
123 respectively, whilst the fixed carbon content was calculated by difference. Both analyses  
124 were carried out by the Council of Geosciences, Pretoria, South Africa. Infrared spectra were  
125 recorded using a Perkin–Elmer Paragon 1000 PC Fourier Transforms Infrared (FTIR)  
126 spectrometer with an attenuated total reflectance (ATR) accessory between  $400$  and  $4000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

127 <sup>1</sup> with 4 cm<sup>-1</sup> resolution, where 32 scans were averaged for one sample run. CPMAS <sup>13</sup>C  
128 NMR experiments were carried out at the Central Analytical Facility of Stellenbosch  
129 University following the method by Melkior et al. (2012), which involves a combination of  
130 cross polarization and magnetic angle spinning techniques. A Quanta FEG 250  
131 Environmental Scanning electron microscope (ESEM) under an acceleration voltage of 30  
132 kV was used to capture the surface morphology of biomass char samples and the imaging  
133 was improved by lightly covering the sample with a gold layer at the Laboratory of Electron  
134 Microscopy (LEM) of the North-West University. WA-XRD-CFA was conducted at the  
135 North-West University following a method outlined in Mafu et al. (2016). Surface area  
136 measurements were obtained from a Micrometrics ASAP 2020 surface area and porosity  
137 analyser. Samples were degassed under vacuum, at 75 °C for 48 h and analysis conducted at  
138 0 °C at a relative pressure range:  $0 < P/P_0 \leq 0.032$ : where  $P$  is the analysis pressure and  $P_0$  is  
139 the saturation vapour pressure of CO<sub>2</sub>. The Dubinin-Radushkevich (D-R) and Horvath-  
140 Kawazoe (H-K) models were used to obtain the micropore surface area, maximum pore  
141 volume and median pore width (Okolo et al., 2015).

142 From ATR-FTIR spectroscopy, the sum of aromatic functional groups and the sum of  
143 aliphatic functional groups, derived by Gaussian curve deconvolution, were used to calculate  
144 the aromaticity. The aromaticity ( $f_{a,F}$ ), defined as the fraction of aromatic groups from the  
145 sum of aliphatic and aromatic groups in the sample is given by Equation 1. The aromaticity  
146 values from this proposed method were compared to those determined from CPMAS <sup>13</sup>C  
147 NMR ( $f_{a,N}$ ). The  $f_{a,F}$  was then used to calculate the degree of aromatic ring condensation  
148 (Equation 2) which was found to be proportional to the total aromaticity ( $f_{a,F}$  in this case) and  
149 the fraction of aromatic hydrogen ( $H_{ar}$ ) to aromatic carbon ( $C_{ar}$ ) by Cui et al., (2016). The  
150 asymmetric stretching of CH<sub>3</sub> and CH<sub>2</sub> groups have been used as an indication of the degree  
151 of cyclization, where a higher value of CH<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub> revealed longer aliphatic chains or a higher  
152 degree of cyclization. The value of CH<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub> was determined using Equation 3 where  $A_{2925}$   
153 and  $A_{2955}$  represent the area under the deconvoluted curves of ATR-FTIR peaks at 2925 and  
154 2955 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The fraction of amorphous carbon,  $X_A$ , was determined by the  
155 Gaussian curve deconvolution of the amorphous and crystalline phases of the 002 band of the  
156 XRD spectra (Figure 1). The area under the curve at position 16° and 25° after deconvolution  
157 were assigned to the amount of amorphous carbon ( $S_A$ ) and crystalline carbon ( $S_C$ ),  
158 respectively.  $X_A$  was calculated using Equation 4 (Okolo et al., 2015). Using the empirical  
159 Bragg's and Scherrer's equations, the crystallite height ( $L_c$ ), crystallite diameter ( $L_a$ ),

160 interlayer spacing ( $d_{002}$ ) and average number of aromatic layers per carbon crystallite ( $N_{ave}$ )  
 161 were calculated (Everson et al., 2013; Okolo et al., 2015).

$$162 \quad f_{aF} = \frac{\sum C_{ar}}{\sum C_{ar+al}} \quad (1)$$

$$163 \quad \left(\frac{R}{C}\right)_u = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \left( f_a + \frac{H_{ar}}{C_{ar}} \right) \quad (2)$$

$$164 \quad \frac{CH_2}{CH_3} = \frac{A_{2925/cm}}{A_{2955/cm}} \quad (3)$$

$$165 \quad X_A = \frac{S_A}{S_A + S_C} \quad (4)$$

### 166 **3 Results and discussion**

#### 167 **3.1 Chemical characteristics**

168 Table 1 presents the chemical characteristics of the pyrolytic chars. Char development  
 169 progressed with increasing temperature through the evolution of volatiles, which results in  
 170 increased fixed carbon and mineral matter contents. The proximate analyses showed minor  
 171 changes between torrefied biomass and chars prepared at 300 °C. Further changes up to 600  
 172 °C were linked to the decomposition of cellulose and lignin (Giudicianni et al., 2013). The  
 173 differences in proximate analyses chars prepared at 600 and 1100 °C were significant and  
 174 reported to be mainly driven by secondary reactions (Anca-Couce, 2016). The calorific value  
 175 (CV) increased with increasing pyrolysis temperature, but decreased at 1100 °C for all  
 176 biomass samples. The increase in CV at lower temperatures is attributed to the reduction in  
 177 elemental O and H, and increasing carbon content (carbon densification) in the solid matrix.  
 178 However, the graphitization of the solid mass at high temperatures accounts for the reduction  
 179 in CV for the for the 1100 °C chars, as observed for coal (Suggate and Dickinson, 2004).  
 180 Increasing pyrolysis temperature resulted in the increase in elemental carbon, whilst  
 181 elemental oxygen and hydrogen decreased appreciably. Noteworthy were the larger changes  
 182 in ultimate analysis results from torrefied biomass to chars prepared at 600 °C as a result of  
 183 the degradation of lignocellulosic fibres (Yang et al., 2006). Beyond 600 °C, changes were a  
 184 result of bond reordering and hydrogen abstraction as shown by further decreases in  
 185 elemental H and O (Trubetskaya et al., 2016a). The amounts of N and S were very low; as

186 such no trends could be drawn. The changes in C, H and O amounts result in the reduction of  
187 the H/C and O/C ratios linked to an increase in aromaticity (Anupam et al., 2016). The  
188 decrease of H/C and O/C ratios as shown in the Van Krevelen plot (Figure 2) with  
189 temperature was comparable to the coalification process with torrefied biomass' ratios similar  
190 to those of peat and chars prepared at 1100 °C to anthracite coals (Anupam et al., 2016;  
191 Suggate and Dickinson, 2004).

192 ATR-FTIR spectra for chars prepared at 1100 °C could not be collected due to line  
193 broadening and absence of vibrating and stretching functional groups at high temperatures  
194 (Roberts et al., 2015; Rutherford et al., 2012). Torrefied biomass displayed characteristic  
195 vibrations corresponding to the presence of aliphatic groups (3200-3500, 2800-3000 and 900-  
196 1150  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) and aromatic groups (700-900, 1150-1650  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) (Huang et al., 2015; Zhao et al.,  
197 2013) which can be attributed to the presence of residual lignocellulosic fibres (Anca-Couce,  
198 2016; Pimenidou and Dupont, 2012).

199 The deconvoluted area under the aromatic ATR-FTIR peaks could not be related to the  
200 amounts of lignin at torrefaction conditions (Mafu et al., 2016), but from both aliphatic and  
201 aromatic peaks, the aromaticity of the materials could be determined. SB had the lowest  
202 aromaticity of the torrefied biomass samples, due to the lower lignin contents in the parent  
203 biomass, compared to SW and HW (Mafu et al., 2016). Aromaticity increased with  
204 increasing pyrolysis temperature (Table 2) as alluded to previously by other researchers  
205 (Asadullah et al., 2010; McBeath et al., 2011). The observed increase in aromaticity had two  
206 contributing factors: (1) the elimination of aliphatic groups taking place more rapidly than the  
207 loss of aromatics and (2) the condensation of aromatic rings as observed by the increase in  
208  $(R/C)_u$  with increasing pyrolysis temperature (Table 2). The parameter,  $\text{CH}_2/\text{CH}_3$  ratio, was  
209 determined and the results are presented in Table 2. For torrefied biomass samples, the  
210  $\text{CH}_2/\text{CH}_3$  ratio was around 50 and decreased with increasing temperature to approximately 1  
211 for chars prepared at 600 °C. This could be a consequence of progressing cyclization of the  
212 aliphatics, as well as the shorter  $-\text{CH}_2$  aliphatic chains being easily broken compared to the  
213 longer  $-\text{CH}_3$  aliphatic chains (Cui et al., 2016). Functionalities containing elemental H and O  
214 gradually decreased at pyrolysis temperatures up to 300 °C as a result of dehydration  
215 (Rutherford et al., 2012). Subsequent elimination of aliphatic functionalities, H- and O-  
216 containing functional groups up to 600 °C could be related to the degradation of fibre  
217 components (Yang et al., 2013) and was consistent with the ultimate analysis data (Table 1).



218 From CPMAS  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectroscopy, the presence of acetyl, methoxyl, amorphous and  
219 crystalline carbons of cellulose and aromatic groups of lignin in all biomass samples could be  
220 confirmed by the presence of peaks at characteristic positions (Freitas et al., 2001; Mafu et  
221 al., 2016). For chars prepared at 300 °C, peaks related to hemicelluloses and amorphous  
222 carbons of cellulose and lignin, gradually decreased as a result of the degradation of the  
223 lignocellulosic fibres. Peaks at 35, 68, 62, 65, 73, 84, 105, 112 and 149 ppm were visible for  
224 chars at 300 °C and related to the carbons of the crystalline cellulose and lignin (Bardet et al.,  
225 2007; Melkior et al., 2012). Shoulder peaks at 62-65 ppm and 72-74 ppm were as a result of  
226 residual amorphous carbons (Mafu et al., 2016). At 400 °C, the peak areas of characteristic  
227 cellulose and lignin peaks reduced, as a result of the reduction of their carbon functionalities  
228 (Rutherford et al., 2012). Chars prepared at 600 °C had mainly aromatic carbon  
229 functionalities with fractions of amorphous C=C and C-H left in the chars. The differences  
230 between woody biomass and SB were more significant for chars prepared at 300 °C, and  
231 converged to almost the same  $^{13}\text{C}$  chemical structure at 600 °C, which was also observed by  
232 McBeath et al., (2011) for different lignocellulosic biomass samples. These findings suggests  
233 that char development may be broadly defined as a two-step process, where the first step (<  
234 600 °C) is accompanied by lignocellulosic fibre degradation linked to the net loss of the  
235 aliphatic fraction of biomass. The second step (> 600 °C) may be assigned to the  
236 reorganisation of bonds that result in the conjugation of aromatic bonds, hence increasing  
237 further, the aromaticity of chars. The aromaticity as determined through both ATR-FTIR and  
238 NMR were comparable as presented in Table 2.

### 239 3.2 Structural characteristics

240 Due to the insignificant changes as pyrolysis temperatures were increased to 1100 °C, only  
241 torrefied, 300 and 1100 °C char micrographs are presented and discussed. The surface for all  
242 torrefied biomass was smooth, possibly from the melting of lignin and cellulose (Mafu et al.,  
243 2016). With increasing temperature, the matrix did not change but rather became brittle  
244 (Cetin et al., 2004), that is, the escape of volatiles left a rigid, hollow biomass matrix  
245 (Trubetskaya et al., 2016a). A slight broadening of the water conducting pores was also  
246 observed for all biomass samples with increasing pyrolysis temperature (Liu et al., 2010;  
247 Trubetskaya et al., 2016a).

248 The diffractograms showed two broad and distinct peaks at the  $2\theta$  positions 16 and 25°  
249 assigned to amorphous and graphitic basal planes, respectively. Most of the crystalline carbon  
250 in biomass is in general ascribed to the presence of cellulose, whilst the other lignocellulosic

251 fibres contribute to the amorphous carbon content (Barnette et al., 2012; Murillo et al., 2014).  
252 The intensities of both peaks were lesser for SB than HW and SW, which was a direct  
253 consequence of the higher amount of mineral matter and lower content in original  
254 lignocellulosic fibres in SB than HW and SW (Mafu et al., 2016). As the pyrolysis  
255 temperature increased, the amorphous carbon peak ( $16^\circ$ ) progressively disappeared, in line  
256 with the degradation of hemicelluloses and other amorphous fractions of biomass. The  
257 crystalline phase narrowed as the temperature increased from 300 to 600 °C, following the  
258 degradation of celluloses at these conditions (Tumuluru et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2007). Chars  
259 prepared at 1100 °C showed increased peak intensity at  $27^\circ$  which may be a result of the  
260 recrystallization of some of the carbon material in the matrix (Azargohar et al., 2014).  
261 Increasing pyrolysis temperature promoted structural orderliness within the residual solid  
262 matrix as illustrated by the shift of the (002) band towards higher angle ( $2\theta$ ) regions (25 –  
263  $28^\circ$ ). The emergence of sharp peaks at 52 and  $60^\circ$  reflected the increasing share of minerals  
264 such as oxides and carbonates of Si, Mg and Ca (Trubetskaya et al., 2016b; Wen et al., 2014).  
265 CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption results showed an increase in the micropore surface area with increasing  
266 pyrolysis temperature up to 600 °C (Table 3). This occurred through the development of  
267 micropores, with increasing micropore volume as volatiles were increasingly driven off,  
268 facilitated by carbon densification in the bulk biomass char. At 1100 °C, both micropore  
269 surface area and micropore volumes decreased for SW and SB. This was ascribed to pore  
270 coalescence at higher temperatures (Angin and Sensoz, 2014; Mukome et al., 2013).  
271 Pyrolytic chars prepared from HW at 1100 °C were an exception as they demonstrated an  
272 increase in the surface area and pore volume (Table 3). This could be a consequence of the  
273 accumulation of pores in the higher micropore range without a disruption of the lower  
274 micropore range, which was not the case for SB and SW. The lower pore volumes, and  
275 consequently surface areas of SB compared those of the woody biomass samples may be as a  
276 result of the higher ash values which may hinder pore development and/or block the access of  
277 pores by CO<sub>2</sub> (Tumuluru et al., 2011). There were no significant changes in the average pore  
278 diameter as the pyrolysis temperature increased. They ranged from 3.5-4.1 Å for all biomass  
279 samples suggesting that pore development happens through the formation of channels with  
280 deeper pores (Mafu et al., 2016).  
281 The structural lattice parameters and fraction of amorphous carbon,  $X_A$ , are presented in  
282 Table 3. The different torrefied biomass samples showed approximately the same amounts  
283 (fractions) of amorphous carbon. The determined  $X_A$  was reported as being representative of

284 the amorphous sections of the fibres, which were not degraded during heat treatment (Mafu et  
285 al., 2016). Pyrolytic chars of SB were more sensitive to heat owing to the limited shielding by  
286 the lower lignin contents in SB compared to HW and SW. At 600 °C,  $X_A$  could not be  
287 determined by means of WA-XRD-CFA for SB char, while this was observed only at 1100  
288 °C for HW and SW chars. As the pyrolysis temperature increased,  $d_{002}$ ,  $L_c$  and  $N_{ave}$  decreased  
289 significantly, whilst  $L_a$  was considerably increased. The reduction in  $d_{002}$  resulted in the  
290 decrease of  $L_c$  producing a more packed microcrystallite lattice. Thus, the carbon crystallite  
291 of the biomass chars were significantly stretched in the y-direction resulting in flat layered  
292 carbon sheets. The average number of crystallites in a stack was reduced as  $d_{002}$  and  $L_c$   
293 decreased. These lattice parameter changes may indicate changes of the micropore network.  
294 From 600 °C, the structural parameters of woody biomass became more similar to each other  
295 and increasingly different from that of the bagasse sample. This may be a consequence of the  
296 rearrangement reactions that dominate char formation at high temperatures (Trubetskaya et  
297 al., 2016a).

298 The extracted characteristics of biomass and subsequent chars were correlated with their H/C  
299 ratios as presented in Figure 3 (a – c). Inverse linear correlations were observed between the  
300 H/C ratios and the aromaticity (Figure 3(a)), and the degree of aromatic ring condensation,  
301  $(R/C)_u$ , of the chars as shown in Figure 3(b). This implies that both the aromaticity and  $(R/C)_u$   
302 can be predicted from the empirical H/C ratios, following the correlation equations shown in  
303 Table 4, with correlation coefficients  $> 0.98$ . Conversely, the  $CH_2/CH_3$  ratio was found to  
304 increase with increasing H/C ratio (equivalent to decreasing aromaticity) as presented in  
305 Figure 3(c) with a power law fitting. It has been demonstrated that the  $CH_2/CH_3$  ratios of the  
306 chars can as well, be estimated from the H/C ratios of the studied samples from the  
307 correlation equations given in Table 4. Thus, with increasing pyrolysis temperature, char  
308 development proceeds by the elimination of aliphatic groups while aromaticity increases,  
309 complemented by the progression of aromatic ring condensation,  $(R/C)_u$ , with the  
310 concomitant hydrogen abstraction. These processes, coupled with increasing carbon  
311 densification of the biomass chars, also impacted the pore structure evolution and  
312 development. For example, the micropore surface area as shown in Figure 6(d) and the  
313 micropore volume (Table 3) increased with increasing with increasing pyrolysis temperature  
314 up to 600 °C. This may be linked to the elimination of aliphatic chains and the escape of  
315 volatiles leaving behind pores as the pyrolysis temperature increased. However, pore  
316 coalescence was observed for char samples of SW and SB at 1100 °C, similar to reported

317 findings for coal (Roberts et al., 2015). From these established correlations, it is evident that  
318 the charring process is a combination of aliphatics elimination and the aromatic ring  
319 condensation which results in the gradual increase in aromaticity with increasing temperature.

#### 320 **4 Conclusions**

321 Char development was found to be dependent on the pyrolysis conditions. There was an  
322 observed link between the proximate and ultimate analysis data with fibre degradation.  
323 Chemical properties of the chars can be extracted from ATR-FTIR data, complimenting  
324 results from other techniques. Gradual decrease in H/C and O/C ratios, and aliphatic chains  
325 with increasing pyrolysis temperature, resulted in increasing  $f_a$  and  $(R/C)_u$  of the chars. While  
326 micropore development was observed up to 600 °C, pore coalescence was more significant  
327 for SW and SB at 1100 °C. Char development can be considered as a two steps process: <  
328 600 °C where changes were attributed to fibre degradation, resulting in the removal of  
329 aliphatics, and > 600 °C where changes were as a result of hydrogen abstraction and aromatic  
330 ring condensation.

#### 331 **Acknowledgments**

332 The work presented in this paper is based on the research financially supported by the South  
333 African Research Chairs Initiative of the Department of Science and Technology (DST) and  
334 National Research Foundation (NRF) of South Africa (Coal Research Chair Grant Nos.  
335 86880, UID85643, UID85632). Any opinion, finding or conclusion or recommendation  
336 expressed in this material is that of the author(s) and the NRF does not accept any liability in  
337 this regard.

#### 338 **Appendix A**

339 Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at

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**Figure captions**

476 **Figure 1:** Determination of  $X_A$  by Gaussian curve deconvolution of the (002) band for SB  
477 char prepared at 300 °C.

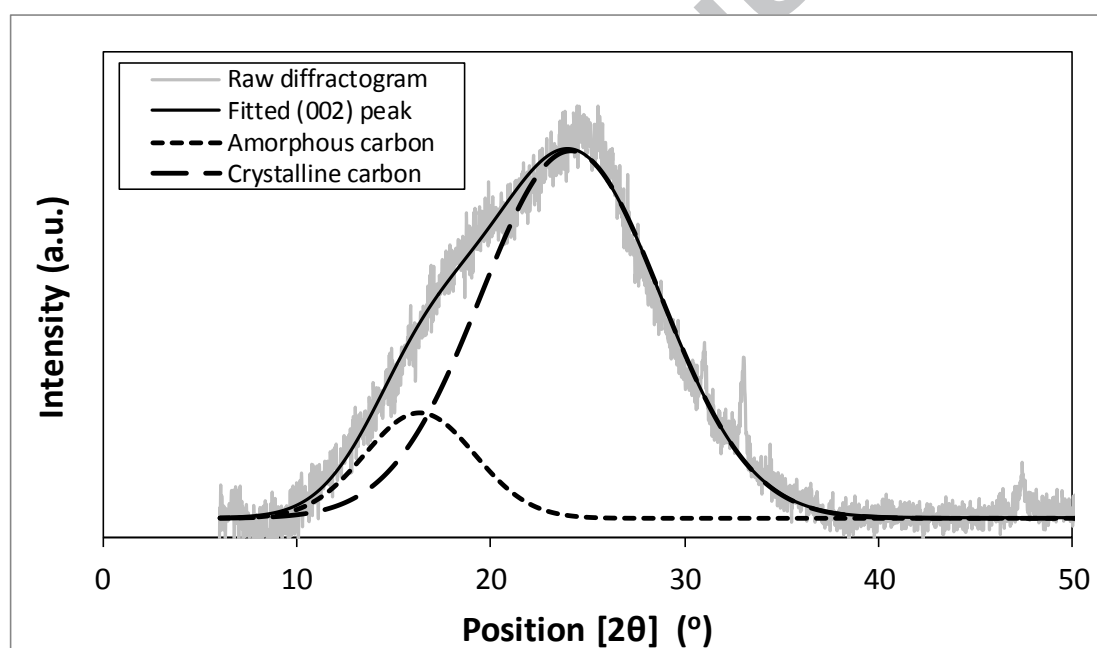
478 **Figure 2.** Comparison of the coalification process with biomass char formation in a Van  
479 Krevelen Plot.

480 **Figure 3:** Correlations between the chemical characteristics of biomass and biomass chars.

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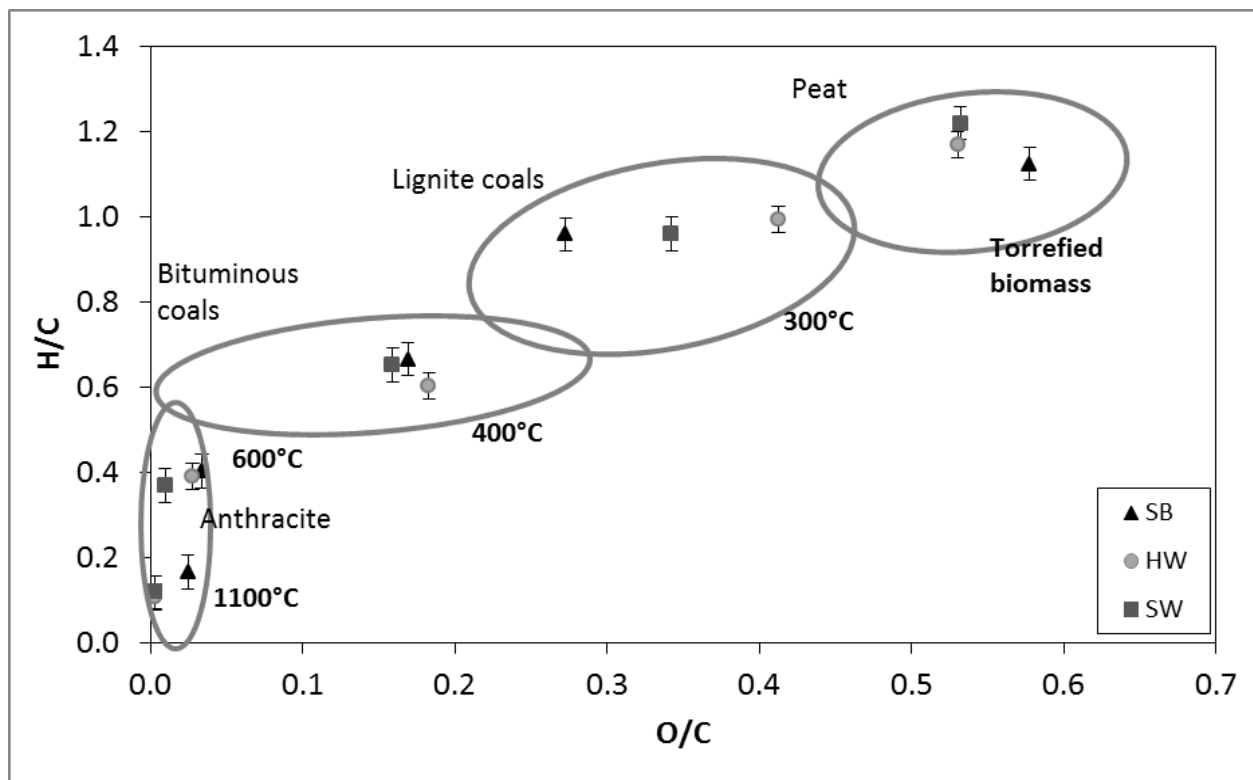


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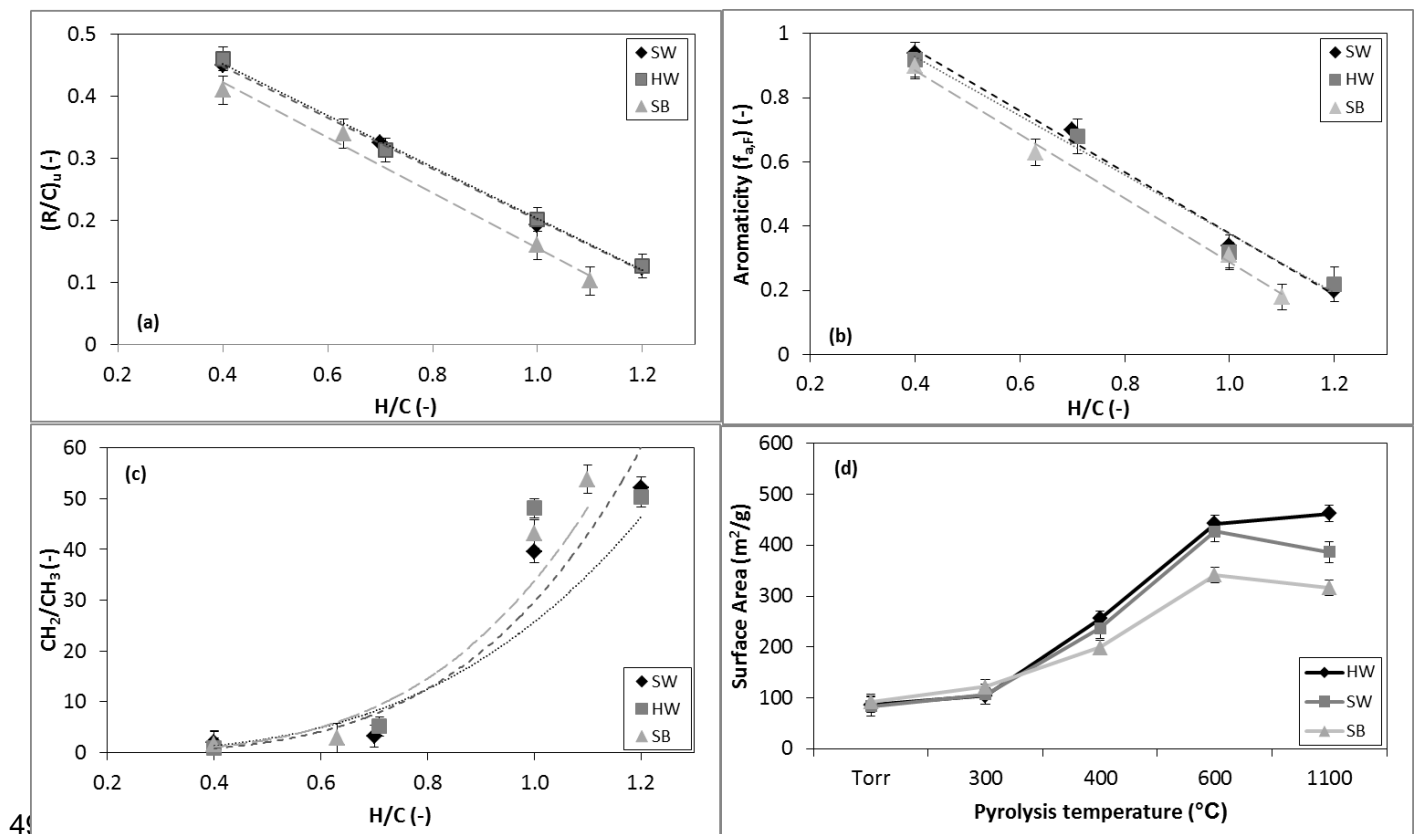
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**Table captions**

503 **Table 1:** Proximate and ultimate analyses for torrefied biomass and chars prepared at  
504 different temperatures.

505 **Table 2:** Chemical parameters for torrefied biomass and chars.

506 **Table 3:** Structural characteristics of torrefied biomass and subsequent chars.

507 **Table 4:** Correlation equations of some properties of torrefied biomass and chars.

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510**Table 1:** Proximate and ultimate analyses for torrefied biomass and chars prepared at different temperatures

Sample	Proximate Analysis (wt.%, mfb)				Ultimate Analysis (wt.%, daf)							
	VM <sup>1</sup>	FC <sup>2</sup>	Ash	CV <sup>3</sup> (MJ/kg)	C	H	N	S	O	H/C	O/C	
SW	Torr	76.5	22.9	0.6	22.3	55.1	5.6	0.13	0.09	39.1	1.2	0.5
	300 °C	63.8	35.5	0.7	23.2	65.2	5.2	nd <sup>4</sup>	0.07	29.7	1.0	0.3
	400 °C	30.7	68.5	0.8	28.8	78.9	4.3	nd	0.06	16.7	0.7	0.2
	600 °C	9.9	89.2	1.0	33.1	95.7	2.9	0.08	0.07	1.2	0.4	0.01
	1100 °C	1.3	97.4	1.2	32.3	99.2	0.6	0.02	0.07	0.06	0.1	0.01
HW	Torr	77.3	22.1	0.6	22.4	55.4	5.4	0.01	0.03	39.2	1.2	0.5
	300 °C	64.2	35.3	0.6	23.2	61.2	5.1	nd	0.05	33.7	1.1	0.4
	400 °C	30.4	68.9	0.7	28.1	77.2	3.9	nd	0.04	18.8	0.6	0.2
	600 °C	10.1	89.2	0.8	33.7	93.4	3.0	nd	0.05	3.6	0.4	0.03
	1100 °C	1.2	97.5	1.2	32.1	99.2	0.7	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.1	0.01
SB	Torr	69.8	23.7	6.5	23.0	53.4	5.5	0.32	0.15	41.1	1.1	0.6
	300 °C	48.1	45.0	6.8	24.5	69.2	5.0	nd	0.16	25.1	1.0	0.3
	400 °C	26.2	66.1	7.6	26.6	77.9	4.3	0.11	0.15	17.6	0.7	0.2
	600 °C	5.8	82.0	12.2	30.1	92.2	3.1	0.36	0.19	4.2	0.4	0.03
	1100 °C	3.2	83.9	12.5	26.6	97.1	1.3	0.39	0.18	1.0	0.2	0.03

511 <sup>1</sup>VM - volatile matter, <sup>2</sup>FC - fixed carbon and <sup>3</sup>CV - calorific value, <sup>4</sup>nd - not detected

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**Table 2:** Chemical parameters for torrefied biomass and chars.

Sample	Chemical Characteristics				
	$f_{a,N}$	$f_{a,F}$	$(R/C)_u$	$CH_2/CH_3$ ratio	
SW	Torr	0.21	0.26	0.12	52.1
	300 °C	0.34	0.37	0.19	39.5
	400 °C	0.71	0.74	0.30	3.2
	600 °C	0.94	0.93	0.48	1.9
	1100 °C	-	-	-	-
HW	Torr	0.22	0.24	0.13	50.3
	300 °C	0.32	0.30	0.20	48.1
	400 °C	0.68	0.62	0.31	5.2
	600 °C	0.92	0.92	0.46	1.0
	1100 °C	-	-	-	-
SB	Torr	0.18	0.23	0.10	53.8
	300 °C	0.31	0.47	0.16	43.1
	400 °C	0.63	0.63	0.34	2.9
	600 °C	0.90	0.96	0.41	1.6
	1100 °C	-	-	-	-

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530 **Table 3:** Structural characteristics of torrefied biomass and subsequent chars.

Sample ID		CO <sub>2</sub> adsorption			WA-XRD-CFA				
		S.A (m <sup>2</sup> /g)	M.P.V (cm <sup>3</sup> /g)	M.P.W (Å)	d <sub>002</sub> (Å)	L <sub>c</sub> (Å)	L <sub>a</sub> (Å)	N <sub>ave</sub> (-)	X <sub>a</sub> (-)
<b>SW</b>	<b>Torr</b>	83	0.017	3.7	4.0	27	72.0	7.8	0.34
	<b>300 °C</b>	107	0.022	3.6	4.1	19	74	5.6	0.42
	<b>400 °C</b>	236	0.055	3.8	3.9	10	86	3.7	0.21
	<b>600 °C</b>	427	0.092	3.9	3.8	10	125	3.6	0.08
	<b>1100 °C</b>	386	0.083	4.4	3.7	9	139	3.5	-
<b>HW</b>	<b>Torr</b>	86	0.018	3.7	4.0	30	65	8.5	0.35
	<b>300 °C</b>	103	0.022	3.6	4.0	17	67	5.2	0.41
	<b>400 °C</b>	255	0.059	3.7	3.9	12	85	4.0	0.18
	<b>600 °C</b>	442	0.094	3.8	3.8	10	115	3.7	0.07
	<b>1100 °C</b>	461	0.097	4.0	3.8	9	130	3.5	-
<b>SB</b>	<b>Torr</b>	92	0.02	3.7	4.1	28	69	8.0	0.34
	<b>300 °C</b>	121	0.026	3.6	4.2	17	71	5.0	0.15
	<b>400 °C</b>	198	0.049	3.5	4.0	13	89	4.3	0.06
	<b>600 °C</b>	341	0.073	3.6	3.9	12	135	4.0	-
	<b>1100 °C</b>	316	0.072	3.9	3.8	10	151	3.6	-

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543 **Table 4:** Correlation equations of some properties of torrefied biomass and subsequent chars.

Parameter	Sample ID	Correlation equation	R <sup>2</sup>
$f_{a,F}$	SW	$f_{a,F} = -0.96(H/C) + 1.34$	0.991
	HW	$f_{a,F} = -0.92(H/C) + 1.30$	0.983
	SB	$f_{a,F} = -0.99(H/C) + 1.28$	0.995
$(R/C)_n$	SW	$(R/C)_n = -0.41(H/C) + 0.61$	0.998
	HW	$(R/C)_n = -0.42(H/C) + 0.62$	0.997
	SB	$(R/C)_n = -0.44(H/C) + 0.60$	0.990
$CH_2/CH_3$	SW	$CH_2/CH_3 = 26(H/C)^{3.23}$	0.858
	HW	$CH_2/CH_3 = 29.8(H/C)^{3.85}$	0.958
	SB	$CH_2/CH_3 = 33.8(H/C)^{3.74}$	0.924

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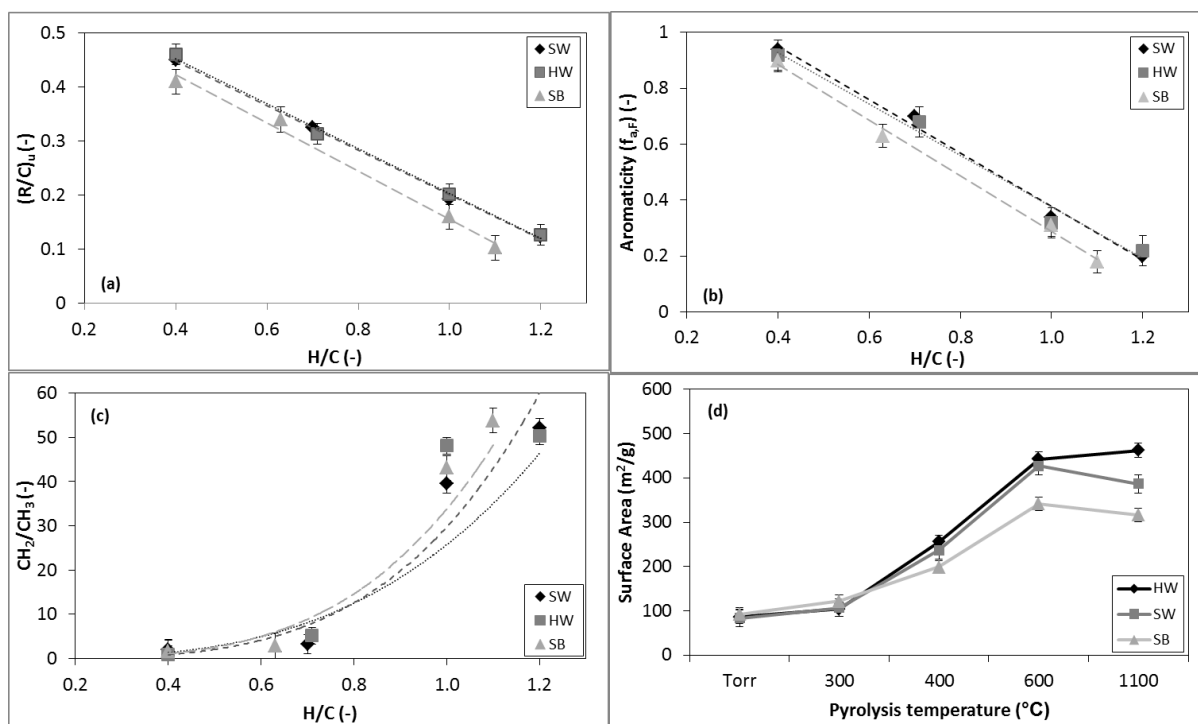
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551 **Highlights**

- 552       • Lignocellulosic biomass pyrolysis is a 2-step process
- 553       • Aromaticity can be determined from ATR-FTIR spectroscopy
- 554       • Aliphatic chains decrease with increasing pyrolysis temperature
- 555       • The carbon lattice is stretched into sheets as temperature is increased

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