

# A kinetic study of roadside grass pyrolysis and digestate from anaerobic mono-digestion

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## Abstract

The aim of this research is to evaluate the thermogravimetric behaviour of roadside grass and its digestate obtained from mesophilic anaerobic mono-digestion by quantifying its impacts on biomass composition and properties. Thermogravimetric measurements were conducted in a laboratory furnace under nitrogen flowrate of 100 mL/min in the temperature range from 35 to 800°C at five different heating rates of 2.5, 5, 10, 15 and 20°C/min. Friedman and Kissinger-Akahira-Sunose differential and integral isoconversional models were applied to determine the distributions of activation energies and modified pre-exponential factors per reacted mass (degree of conversion). The investigation demonstrated that anaerobic digestion of roadside grass can be used to generate biochar-rich material (with significantly greater yield of final residues after pyrolysis) with less energy required for subsequent pyrolysis in comparison with raw roadside grass.

## Keywords:

Roadside grass; roadside grass digestate; anaerobic digestion; pyrolysis; kinetic study; thermogravimetric measurements; isoconversional models

## 1. Introduction

Grass is a sustainable source of lignocellulosic material which can be cultivated on non-arable lands, making it non-competitive with other crops for food production (Rodriguez et al., 2017). The location of the area where grass is collected impacts its chemical composition and further application. Grass collected on non-arable lands has been shown to be an abundant and environment-friendly source of

31 material to produce bioenergy in the form of biogas (Bedoić et al., 2019). Another efficient and  
32 environmentally attractive process for converting biomass and different types of waste to energy products  
33 is pyrolysis (Campuzano et al., 2019). Besides anaerobic digestion and pyrolysis, biomass can be  
34 converted to energy and bioproducts through combustion, gasification and biochemical processing  
35 (Akhtar et al., 2018).

36 Pyrolysis is one of the most thoroughly researched thermochemical conversion processes of biomass  
37 into valuable hydrocarbon and alternative fuels (Dhyani and Bhaskar, 2018). Slow pyrolysis producing  
38 charcoal has been successfully utilised for waste-to-energy and waste-to-liquid purposes (Rostek and  
39 Biernat, 2013). Pyrolysis can be studied under different atmospheric conditions (inert or reactive) that  
40 affect the complexity of the thermal behaviour of feedstock (Mikulcic et al., 2019). Gaseous products that  
41 appear during pyrolysis contain variable chemical constituents based on the feedstock used (Stančín et al.,  
42 2019).

43 Pyrolysis of biomass and waste is widely examined with thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) together  
44 with kinetic studies (Zhang et al., 2017). To evaluate the effects of different waste materials on pyrolysis,  
45 various experiments have been performed using the TGA (Oyedun et al., 2014). Thermochemical  
46 processes (pyrolysis, gasification and combustion) of different types of lignocellulosic biomass have  
47 shown that for describing their kinetics, different approaches/models are suggested (Senneca, 2007).  
48 Generally, there are two types of kinetic methods which have been used for the description of biomass and  
49 waste pyrolysis kinetics, model-fitting and isoconversional or model-free methods (Jain et al., 2016).

50 Isoconversional methods are more popular in the analysis of biomass pyrolysis kinetics than model-  
51 fitting methods (Burnham and Dinh, 2007). The advantages of isoconversional methods include  
52 computation of kinetic parameters without modelling assumptions (Ramajo-Escalera et al., 2006) and  
53 better suitability for more complex and multiple step reactions (Sánchez-Jiménez et al., 2013).  
54 Isoconversional methods can be divided into differential and integral methods (Wang et al., 2017). The  
55 Friedman (FR) differential isoconversional model is among the most widely used (Burnham and Dinh,  
56 2007). It has shown adequacy and high matching to experimental data in the pyrolysis of corn stalk (Cai et  
57 al., 2018), and has been used to describe the kinetics of Miscanthus grass pyrolysis (Cortés and  
58 Bridgwater, 2015). Kissinger-Akahira-Sunose (KAS) and Ozawa-Flynn-Wall (OFW) integral  
59 isoconversional models have been applied in the pyrolysis of different grass types, such as Para grass (Al  
60 Ayed et al., 2016) and Camel grass (Mehmood et al., 2017).

61 Product yields by pyrolysis of lignocellulosic biomass can be improved by pretreatment, such as by  
62 the application of heat, chemicals or different pretreatment times (Wang et al., 2018) or by integration of  
63 aerobic and anaerobic digestion (Juchelková et al., 2015). Pyrolysis is an attractive option for the  
64 treatment of digestate due to its seasonal applicability as a fertilizer (Losak et al., 2014), and in cases when

65 digestates contain heavy metals, pathogens and other toxic compounds (Wiśniewski et al., 2015).  
66 Pyrolysis of digestate is an interesting option because of the benefits it confers (Li et al., 2017) such as  
67 reduction of weight and volume of digestate and elimination of pathogens and odour (Nansubuga et al.,  
68 2015). As biochar from digestate can effectively be used for various applications, a combined anaerobic  
69 digestion – pyrolysis process might be beneficial because of the low economic value of digestate (Egieya  
70 et al., 2019); thus, subsequent pyrolysis of digestate offers an opportunity to improve the profitability of  
71 biogas production processes (Egieya et al., 2018).

72 Digestate has recently attracted significant attention as a potential feedstock for pyrolysis (Wei et  
73 al., 2018). Various kinetic studies have been performed on the combined anaerobic digestion - pyrolysis  
74 process for biomass/waste material with its digestate, for corn stover and its digestate (Zhang et al., 2017),  
75 for food waste and its digestate (Opatokun et al., 2015), and for different organic solid wastes (sewage  
76 sludge, food waste, vinasse and cow manure) and their digestates (Li et al., 2017).

77 This paper presents the continuation of the previous experimental study on anaerobic digestion of  
78 two types of roadside residue grass, residue grass from the uncultivated land (next to minor road) and  
79 from the highway verge (Bedoić et al., 2019). This research contains two novel scientific contributions,  
80 such as the study on pyrolysis of residue roadside grass and its digestate and the study on determination of  
81 degraded organic matter during anaerobic process based on the analysis of thermogravimetric curves.  
82 Estimation of the organic matter degradation is studied in relation to biochemical biogas potential of  
83 grasses, which was determined previously (Bedoić et al., 2019). Two isoconversional models, differential  
84 FR model and integral KAS model are used to quantify the impacts of anaerobic digestion of two types of  
85 roadside residue grass on parameters of pyrolysis kinetics. Verification of the applied models based on the  
86 experimental data and estimated kinetic parameters is finally conducted with the aim to reconstruct the  
87 kinetic behaviour of studied feedstocks in the pyrolysis. The study determines the share of compounds in  
88 two types of roadside grass and in its digestates without using any chemical solvents and performs the  
89 research on the energy recovery of residue grass.

## 90 2. Materials and methods

91 In this section, we present an overview of the methods applied, along with a brief description of  
92 TGA; two further linear isoconversional models used in the study are introduced. Our research is linked  
93 with a previous investigation on anaerobic digestion of different types of residue grass (Bedoić et al.,  
94 2019). Regarding residue grass sampling, preparation and characterisation, and laboratory results from  
95 anaerobic digestion, readers are referred to Bedoić et al. (2019).

96 **2.1. Substrates used in the study**

97 We focused on the use of two roadside grass types. The first was collected on the verge next to a  
98 minor road (RG-MR), while the second was collected on the verge next to a highway (RG-H). In our  
99 previous study (Bedoić et al., 2019) they were marked as RG1 (now RG-MR) and RG3 (now RG-H). Both  
100 grasslands are located near Zagreb, the capital city of Croatia, on locations not suitable for food and/or  
101 feed purposes. Nine samples were collected on each of the grasslands examined, which were then stored  
102 in plastic bags in a vacuum in a freezer at  $-15^{\circ}\text{C}$  (Bedoić et al., 2019).

103 The proximate and ultimate analysis and analysis of heavy metals presence of residue grasses have  
104 been performed. The results, including results from field measurements, are presented in Bedoić et al.  
105 (2019). Both types of grass (see RG1 and RG3 in Table 1 by Bedoić et al., 2019) showed similar chemical  
106 composition; RG-H exhibited higher yield on both a fresh and dry basis, longer stem length, lower  
107 moisture and ash contents, higher heating values and higher carbon content, compared to RG-MR.  
108 Significant differences were obtained in terms of heavy metal concentrations, where RG-H showed much  
109 higher values than RG-MR. On dry basis, RG-H sample contains 93.60 mg/kg of iron, 11.20 mg/kg of  
110 zinc, 8.57 mg/kg of manganese and 4.55 mg/kg of copper. On the other side, RG-MR sample contains on  
111 dry basis 54.40 mg/kg of iron, 5.86 mg/kg of zinc, 7.64 mg/kg of manganese and 3.72 mg/kg of copper.  
112 Other elements like lead, cadmium, mercury and nickel have shown lower concentrations, below 1 mg/kg  
113 of dry grass. As expected, higher concentrations of metals were detected for the grass collected in the  
114 intense traffic area (highway verge).

115 For this study, raw grass samples were reduced into smaller pieces of approx. 3–6 cm in length and  
116 were dried in a laboratory oven at  $105^{\circ}\text{C}$  until constant weight before use.

117 Besides the two types of roadside residue grass, their digestates obtained by mono-digestion were  
118 used as substrates for the analysis. For anaerobic digestion, substrates were chopped into smaller pieces of  
119 approx. 3–6 cm in length. They were placed in 250 mL batch reactors in triplicate together with inoculum,  
120 where the ratio between inoculum and grass for anaerobic digestion was 1:1 on a dry basis. In total, 9 g of  
121 total solids (TS) were added to each reactor, and the dry matter in each reactor was 6%. Anaerobic  
122 digestion was performed for 42 days at  $39^{\circ}\text{C}$ . During the process of anaerobic mono-digestion no  
123 inhibition could be observed, despite relatively high concentration of heavy metals in the studied grass  
124 samples.

125 The digestates, RGD-MR - digestate of roadside grass collected on the verge next to the minor road  
126 (marked as MRG1 in Bedoić et al., 2019), and RGD-H – digestate of roadside grass collected on the verge  
127 next to the highway (marked as MRG3 in Bedoić et al., 2019) were used for this investigation. Before  
128 performing TGA analysis, digestates were dried in a laboratory oven at  $105^{\circ}\text{C}$  until constant weight.

129 More details regarding the residue grass substrates and anaerobic digestion process can be found in  
130 Bedoić et al. (2019).

131

## 132 **2.2. Thermogravimetric analysis**

133 Thermogravimetric measurements of dried samples (RG-MR, RG-H, RGD-MR and RGD-H) were  
134 conducted using a TA Instruments Q500 at the heating rates  $\beta_i$  of 2.5, 5, 10, 15 and 20°C/min at a  
135 temperature range from 35 to 800°C under a steady flow of nitrogen (100 mL/min) to maintain an inert  
136 atmosphere. Samples weighing approximately 10 mg were used for the analysis. Three replicates were run  
137 for each sample, and the average value is reported. TGA data (mass weights and derivative mass weights)  
138 were recorded with respect to temperature and time for the five heating rates considered.

139

## 140 **2.3. Analysis of hemicellulose and cellulose degradation**

141 To calculate the degradation of hemicellulose ( $hc$ ) and cellulose ( $c$ ) in residue grass samples –  
142  $X_{RG}(hc+c)$  (%) based on the analysis of thermogravimetric curves of grass and digestate, the following  
143 relation was used:

$$X_{RG}(hc+c) = \frac{\bar{x}_{RG}(hc+c) - \bar{x}_{RGD}(hc+c) \cdot \frac{\bar{x}_{RG}(l)}{\bar{x}_{RGD}(l)}}{\bar{x}_{RG}(hc+c)} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

144 where  $\bar{x}_{RG}(hc+c)$  is the average share of hemicellulose and cellulose in residue grass sample (before  
145 anaerobic digestion),  $\bar{x}_{RGD}(hc+c)$  is the average share of hemicellulose and cellulose in digestate sample  
146 (after anaerobic digestion),  $\bar{x}_{RG}(l)$  is the average share of lignin in residue grass sample (before anaerobic  
147 digestion) and  $\bar{x}_{RGD}(l)$  is the average share of lignin in digestate sample (after anaerobic digestion). The  
148 term “average share of components” is related to the arithmetic mean of a component’s share determined  
149 at the selected heating rates. Factor  $\frac{\bar{x}_{RG}(l)}{\bar{x}_{RGD}(l)}$  is introduced in the calculation since the relative share of  
150 components during anaerobic digestion changes.

151

## 152 **2.4. Analysis of kinetic parameters**

153 Two linear isoconversional models (Li et al., 2017) were used for the determination of kinetic  
154 parameters of roadside grass and roadside grass digestate pyrolysis, as shown in Table 1. In Table 1  $\beta_i$  is

155 the heating rate ( $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ ),  $\alpha$  is the degree of conversion (/ or %),  $T$  is the temperature as a general  
 156 parameter of process ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$  or  $\text{K}$ ),  $(d\alpha/dT)_{\alpha,i}$  is the conversion derivative per temperature at the given degree  
 157 of conversion and heating rate,  $A_{\alpha}f(\alpha)$  is a modified pre-exponential factor in the Friedmann  
 158 isoconversional model ( $1/\text{s}$ ),  $A_{\alpha}g(\alpha)$  is the modified pre-exponential factor in the Kissinger-Akahira-  
 159 Sunose isoconversional model ( $1/\text{s}$ ),  $E_{\alpha}$  is the activation energy ( $\text{J}/\text{mol}$ ),  $T_{\alpha,i}$  is the temperature at the given  
 160 degree of conversion and heating rate required for model application ( $\text{K}$ ), and  $R$  is the universal gas  
 161 constant ( $8.314 \text{ J}/(\text{mol}\cdot\text{K})$ ).

162

163 Table 1: Linear isoconversional kinetic models applied on the pyrolysis of roadside grass and roadside 164 grass digestate
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165

166 To conduct a kinetic analysis using the models in Table 1, it is necessary to determine the degree of  
 167 conversion at a certain temperature  $\alpha(T)$ , as:

$$\alpha(T) = \frac{m_0 - m(T)}{m_0 - m_f} \quad (2)$$

168 where  $m_0$  is the mass at temperature  $T_0$ ,  $m(T)$  is the mass at temperature  $T$ , and  $m_f$  is the mass at the final  
 169 temperature  $T_f$ . Since biomass sample contains retained water and could also contain light volatile  
 170 compounds, the first stage is a dehydration stage. Pyrolysis occurs in the second and third stages, which  
 171 are called active and passive pyrolysis. Both pyrolysis stages correspond to the decomposition of  
 172 cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin. It has been reported that the dehydration stage ends at about  $150^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  
 173 and pyrolysis of lignocellulosic biomass starts (Chen et al., 2013).

174 When applying the Friedman isoconversional model in the kinetic study of pyrolysis, it is necessary  
 175 to determine the derivative conversion curve  $(d\alpha/dT)_{\alpha,i}$ . Since the curve has been reported to have many  
 176 fluctuations, it is recommended to apply some smoothing tool to reduce the impact of the noisy data  
 177 (Vyazovkin et al., 2011). In this study, the Moving Average of data in Excel was applied (Hogarth, 2014)  
 178 to smooth the experimental derivative conversion curves.

179 After the degree of conversion has been determined, the calculations of parameters based on the  
 180 thermogravimetric measurements follows. For the Friedman isoconversional model, at the given  $\alpha$ ,  $E_{\alpha}$  and  
 181  $\ln[A_{\alpha}f(\alpha)]$  are obtained from the slope and intercept of the plot of  $\ln[\beta_i(d\alpha/dT)_{\alpha,i}]$  versus  $(-1/RT_{\alpha,i})$ . For the  
 182 Kissinger-Akahira-Sunose isoconversional model, at the given  $\alpha$ ,  $E_{\alpha}$  and  $\ln[A_{\alpha}g(\alpha)]$  are obtained from the  
 183 slope and intercept of the plot of  $\ln[\beta_i/T_{\alpha,i}^2]$  versus  $(-1/RT_{\alpha,i})$ .

184 To represent the deviations of activation energy and modified pre-exponential factor (based on  
 185 linear regression) at the given degree of conversion, the confidence interval has been used (Cai et al.,

186 2018). The specific level of confidence was set at 95% to present a range of values of activation energy  
187 and modified pre-exponential factor within the selected probability (Bartocci et al., 2019).

188 To reconstruct the kinetic behaviour of pyrolysis of the selected feedstocks, the average values of  
189 kinetic parameters at the given degree of conversion are used.

## 190 3. Results and discussion

191 In this section, the results of our experiments of biomass pyrolysis and modelling of pyrolysis  
192 kinetics are presented.

193

### 194 3.1. Thermogravimetric analysis

195 The results of thermogravimetric analysis of roadside grass (RG) and roadside grass digestate  
196 (RGD) in terms of thermogravimetric (TG) and derivative TG (DTG) curves are presented in Figure 1 for  
197 five different heating rates ( $\beta_i$  of 2.5, 5, 10, 15 and 20°C/min), where the temperature range is from 35 to  
198 800°C. TG shows the loss of weight during heating, while DTG shows the first derivative of TG which  
199 indicates the main devolatilization stages more clearly (Ceylan and Kazan, 2015). TG curves for analysed  
200 samples (RG-MR, RG-H, RGD-MR and RGD-H) show steady or decreasing trends with increased  
201 temperature, while the changes in TG curves (weight loss) are shown as peaks in DTG curves.

202

203 Figure 1: TG-DTG curves of RG and RGD samples at different heating rates: a) 2.5 °C/min, b) 5 °C/min,  
204 c) 10 °C/min, d) 15 °C/min, e) 20 °C/min

205

206 All the samples underwent three main stages of weight loss, which indicate the processes of  
207 dehydration, active and passive pyrolysis (Slopiecka et al., 2012). The stages are the drying,  
208 devolatilization and char formation stages (Chandrasekaran et al., 2017). In the dehydration stage,  
209 evaporation of water and light volatile compounds occurs; in the active pyrolysis stage, the degradation of  
210 hemicellulose and cellulose takes place, and in the final stage, decomposition of lignin occurs  
211 (Chandrasekaran et al., 2017). Hemicellulose and cellulose degrade at a similar temperature range  
212 (simultaneously) and thus only one peak is typically obtained in the DTG curve (Parthasarathy and  
213 Narayanan, 2014). The last stage typically shows slow continued loss of weight, as solid residue is slowly  
214 decomposed (Peng et al., 2001). The final residue at 800°C consists of biochar and ash (Peng et al., 2001).

215 In Figure 1 it can be seen that RG-H shows the highest peak of the DTG curve at the highest  
216 temperature at each of the applied heating rates, and exhibits a more intense peak shoulder compared to

217 RG-MR. Unlike the RG samples, peak shoulder in the DTG curves in the case of RGDs is not clearly  
218 visible. We assume that this is because both cellulose and hemicellulose from RG are partly degraded  
219 under anaerobic conditions, which impact the DTG curves of RGD by fading the peak shoulder. Similar  
220 observations have been reported in the analysis of food waste and its digestate pyrolysis (Opatokun et al.,  
221 2015).

222 According to the TG curves, all the RGDs show higher amounts of residues or lower weight loss  
223 during pyrolysis due to lower cellulose and hemicellulose content in the samples. In terms of grass  
224 samples, RG-MR shows a slightly higher yield of the final residue compared to RG-H. This result can be  
225 explained through the higher share of ash and carbon in the RG-MR sample (10.4% of ash and 47.1% of  
226 carbon, on dry basis) than in the RG-H sample (8.4% of ash and 46.2% of carbon, on dry basis) (Bedoić et  
227 al., 2019).

228 More detailed information regarding the mass loss intervals and characteristic temperature zones  
229 (Ye et al., 2010) of all samples is shown in Tables 2 and 3. Table 2 shows five characteristic temperature  
230 zones during different stages of decomposition of RG and RGD samples at five different heating rates.  $T_1$   
231 in Table 2 represents the end of the dehydration stage or the start of the biomass pyrolysis process. The  
232 active pyrolysis stage occurs at temperatures between  $T_1$  and  $T_5$ . This stage (stage II) can be divided into  
233 zones I and II, where zone I occurs at temperatures  $T_1 - T_3$ , and zone II at temperatures  $T_3 - T_5$ , with  
234 maximum weight loss at  $T_2$  and  $T_4$ . For more details regarding characteristic temperature zones, see (Ye  
235 et al., 2010). As mentioned previously, the upper limit of the temperature range, 800°C, is applied.

236

237 Table 2: Characteristic temperature zones during different stages of decomposition of RG and RGD  
238 samples

239

240 Table 3: Weight loss (in wt.%) during different stages of decomposition of RG and RGD samples

241

242 Results show that the dehydration stage occurs from the starting temperature to about 136 to 191°C  
243 for RG samples, and to about 137 to 189°C for RGD samples. The active pyrolysis stage is observed to be  
244 in the following temperature ranges:

245 • RG-MR: start from ca. 136°C (2.5 °C/min) to ca. 191°C (20°C/min), end from ca. 343°C  
246 (2.5°C/min) to ca. 396°C (20°C/min),

247 • RG-H: start from ca. 139°C (2.5°C/min) to ca. 191°C (20°C/min), end from ca. 356°C  
248 (2.5°C/min) until ca. 418°C (20°C/min),

249 • RGD-H: start from ca. 137°C (2.5°C/min) to ca. 187.5°C (20 °C/min), end from ca. 332°C  
250 (2.5°C/min) until ca. 394°C (20°C/min),



251 • RGD-H: start from ca. 141°C (2.5°C/min) to ca. 189°C (20°C/min), end from ca. 364°C  
252 (2.5°C/min) until ca. 415°C (20°C/min),

253 Table 3 shows the weight loss during different stages of decomposition for all the analysed samples  
254 for the five heating rates considered. From Table 3 it can be seen that the first dehydration stage shows  
255 slightly higher weight loss for RGD samples (ca. 6 to 8%) than for RG samples (ca. 4 to 5.5%). RG-H  
256 samples on average contain slightly more cellulose and hemicellulose,  $\bar{x}_{\text{RG-H}}(hc+c)=60\%$ , compared to  
257 RG-MR samples,  $\bar{x}_{\text{RG-MR}}(hc+c)=56\%$ . Since temperatures  $T_2$  and  $T_3$  could not be determined for the RGD  
258 samples due to the shoulder fading in DTG curves, the share of cellulose and hemicellulose is calculated  
259 by subtracting the share of moisture, lignin and final residue from the total amount (100 wt.%). Therefore,  
260 the amount of hemicellulose and cellulose in digestate samples is estimated on average,  $\bar{x}_{\text{RGD-MR}}(hc+c)=37\%$   
261 and  $\bar{x}_{\text{RGD-H}}(hc+c)=42\%$ .

262 The degradation of lignin at the observed heating rates started at ca. 340 to 400°C in the RG-MR  
263 sample, at ca. 360 to 420°C for the RG-H sample, at ca. 330 to 390°C for the RGD-MR sample and at ca.  
264 360 to 415°C for the RGD-H sample. The mass loss caused by lignin degradation and charring is as  
265 follows:  $\bar{x}_{\text{RGD-MR}}(l)=17\%$ ,  $\bar{x}_{\text{RG-MR}}(l)=13\%$ ,  $\bar{x}_{\text{RGD-H}}(l)=15\%$ , and  $\bar{x}_{\text{RG-H}}(l)=12\%$ . The differences in mass loss  
266 during the lignin degradation and biochar formation stage between RGD samples and raw RG samples are  
267 3 and 4%, on average. Since the relative share of components during anaerobic digestion changes, this  
268 could be the reason for the measured deviations. However, estimation of the amount of lignin in samples  
269 should be taken with caution, since it was obtained by using experimental data and theoretical background  
270 related to pyrolysis of lignocellulosic biomass (Carrier et al., 2016). It has been reported that partial  
271 degradation of lignin under inert atmosphere starts at 200°C, while at 400°C it starts to be intensified  
272 (Carrier et al., 2011).

273 When Eq. (1) is applied, the results show that during monodigestion of RG-MR, ca. 50% of  
274 cellulose and hemicellulose was converted to biogas ( $X_{\text{RG-MR}}(hc+c)=49.5\%$ ), and in the case of RG-H,  
275 degradation of cellulose and hemicellulose is estimated at  $X_{\text{RG-H}}(hc+c)=44.0\%$ ). Degradation is similar for  
276 both grass types, which is also supported by the fact that for both, similar biochemical biogas potential  
277 values (BGP) were obtained, 0.436 Nm<sup>3</sup>/kgTS for RG-MR and 0.413 Nm<sup>3</sup>/kgTS for RG-H (Bedoić et al.,  
278 2019).

279 The results show that mono-digestion has been incomplete (49.5 and 44 % conversion of cellulose  
280 and hemicellulose). To further increase the degradability of biomass and enhance biogas production, co-  
281 digestion and addition of additives such as bio-based carbon materials (Yun et al., 2018) and accelerants  
282 such as for example urea, plant ash (Zhang et al., 2018) or steel slag (Han et al., 2019) to substrates have  
283 been recognised to be more efficient than mono-digestion (Wang et al., 2019). Similar conclusions have

284 been obtained by thermogravimetric analysis of digested residue from aloe peel waste and dairy manure  
285 (Huang et al., 2016).

286 At 800°C, the average final residue yields for RG-MR and RG-H are ca. 25% and 23%. However,  
287 RGD samples have shown a higher yield of final residue at 800°C; for RGD-MR, the yield was ca. 38%,  
288 and for RGD-H, ca. 37%. Both RGD-MR and RGD-H have shown much higher yields of the final  
289 residues at 800°C than the RG feedstocks. Similar conclusions were obtained when using food waste as  
290 feedstock (Opatokun et al., 2015).

291 This study has shown that significant quantities of final residue (mainly biochar) are obtained from  
292 pyrolysis of roadside grass and its digestate. Biochar could have various applications, such as it could be  
293 used as an additive material for improving stability of anaerobic digestion, as an approach to carbon  
294 sequestration, in animal husbandry, as a soil conditioner, in the building sector, in treatment of drinking  
295 and waste waters and in many other applications (Schmidt, 2012). Combined anaerobic digestion –  
296 pyrolysis process from roadside grass might also improve the profitability of biogas production processes  
297 (Egieya et al., 2018).

298

## 299 **3.2. Kinetic analysis**

300 Thermogravimetry and isoconversional models can provide an estimation of kinetic data (activation  
301 energy and pre-exponential factor) from reaction parameters such as temperature and heating rate without  
302 estimation of reaction mechanisms (Damartzis et al., 2011). The activation energy and modified pre-  
303 exponential factors were obtained using FR and KAS methods. Their distribution for RG and RGD  
304 samples has been determined based on the performed thermogravimetric analysis data for conversions  
305 between 20 and 70% in step sizes of 5%. Degrees of conversion lower than 20% and higher than 70% are  
306 not shown because of significant fluctuations observed (especially for digestate samples), which were  
307 probably associated with the thermal behaviour of lignin (Carrier et al., 2016). In addition, verification of  
308 the applied models was performed, and average values of kinetic parameters obtained by this study were  
309 used to verify models with the experimental data.

### 310 **3.2.1. Friedman (FR) model**

311 The values of activation energy ( $E_a$ ) and modified pre-exponential factor in logarithmic expression  
312 ( $\ln[A_0 f(\alpha)]$ ) for pyrolysis of RG and RGD samples were obtained using the FR isoconversional model, as  
313 shown in Figure 2. The error bars in Figure 2 represent confidence intervals with a confidence level of  
314 95%.

315

Figure 2: Distribution of  $E_\alpha$  and  $\ln[A_{eff}(\alpha)]$  per the degree of conversion by means of FR model

Estimated values of  $E_\alpha$  in the studied range of conversions vary between 160 and 600 kJ/mol for RG-MR samples, and between 170 and 380 kJ/mol for RG-H samples. Both RG samples show a slight increase in the values of  $E_\alpha$  from  $\alpha = 0.20$  to  $0.30$ ; between  $\alpha = 0.30$  to  $0.50$ , a stagnation/slight decline of  $E_\alpha$  is shown, and after  $\alpha = 0.50$ , a significant increase in the  $E_\alpha$  can be observed. Such a trend in the distribution of  $E_\alpha$  using the FR model was also reported for corn stalk pyrolysis (Cai et al., 2018) and for miscanthus pyrolysis (Cortés and Bridgwater, 2015).

On the other hand, RGD samples have shown much lower values of  $E_\alpha$  in the considered ranges of conversions; for RGD-MR it is between 20 and 170 kJ/mol, while for RGD-H it is between 10 and 170 kJ/mol. RGD samples show the highest  $E_\alpha$  at the lowest value of  $\alpha$ , and with an increase in the degree of conversion,  $E_\alpha$  continuously declines in the case of RGD-MR, while RGD-H declines up to  $\alpha = 0.45$ , and then stagnation appears.

Similar trends as for  $E_\alpha$  are observed for the change of  $\ln[A_{eff}(\alpha)]$  with the degree of conversion. The highest value of  $\ln[A_{eff}(\alpha)]$  is for RG-MR, about  $110 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , while the highest value for RG-H is around  $60 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . RGD samples show negative values of  $\ln[A_{eff}(\alpha)]$ , with the lowest value around  $-8 \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

To reconstruct the kinetic process using the FR model, Eq. (3) is used in the non-logarithmic form. The results of the verification process are presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Experimental and FR kinetic model based on  $E_\alpha$  and  $\ln[A_{eff}(\alpha)]$  data for grass and digestate pyrolysis at 2.5, 5, 10, 15 and 20 °C/min

At all heating rates, the FR model shows high-level matching with the experimental data for RG samples. Higher fluctuations of the model compared to the experimental data are shown for RGD samples. The peaks of the curves for RG samples move to higher temperatures with an increase in heating rate. That observation is not seen for RGD samples. Furthermore, RGD samples show a wider range of temperatures in terms of the  $\beta_i(d\alpha/dT)$  distribution. Since the weight loss in the active pyrolysis stage (stage II) is significantly lower for RGD samples, and the residue yield greater than for RG samples, this observation is supported by the analysis of TG curves. The kinetic parameters obtained with the FR model show a better fit for RG samples than for RGD samples. At lower heating rates of 2.5 and 5°C/min, RGD samples show a good model fit to the experimental data.

347 **3.2.2. Kissinger-Akahira-Sunose (KAS) model**

348 Using the KAS isoconversional model, the values of activation energy ( $E_a$ ) and modified pre-  
349 exponential factor in logarithmic expression ( $\ln[A_\alpha/g(\alpha)]$ ) for pyrolysis of RG and RGD samples are  
350 obtained, as shown in Figure 4 **Error! Reference source not found.**

351

352 **Figure 4: Distribution of  $E_a$  and  $\ln[A_\alpha/g(\alpha)]$  with the degree of conversion by means of KAS model**

353

354  $E_a$  estimated by the KAS model for RG samples in the studied range of conversions vary between  
355 150 and 430 kJ/mol for RG-MR, and between 160 and 260 kJ/mol for RG-H samples. Similar results were  
356 obtained for the pyrolysis of Para grass (between 180 and 230 kJ/mol, (Al Aayed et al., 2016)) and Camel  
357 grass with the KAS model (between 150 and 190 kJ/mol, (Mehmood et al., 2017)). The results obtained in  
358 this study and by analyses of specific grass types show a narrower range of activation energies for specific  
359 grass types than for unclassified species of grass. On the other hand, RGD samples again show lower  
360 values of  $E_a$  compared to RG samples; for RGD-MR the range is between 30 and 170 kJ/mol, while for  
361 RGD-H it is between 20 and 175 kJ/mol. Again, RGD samples show the highest  $E_a$  at the lowest value of  
362  $\alpha$ . KAS modeling shows that with an increase of the degree of conversion,  $E_a$  continuously declines in the  
363 case of both RGD samples.

364 Similar trends with the degree of conversion as for  $E_a$  are obtained for  $\ln[A_\alpha/g(\alpha)]$  for both RG and  
365 RGD samples. The highest value of  $\ln[A_\alpha/g(\alpha)]$  is obtained for RG-MR, about  $80 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , while the highest  
366 value for RG-H is about  $45 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . It should be noted that modified pre-exponential factors obtained with FR  
367 and KAS models cannot be compared directly, since the expressions of functions are slightly different.  
368 RGD samples again show both positive and negative values of  $\ln[A_\alpha/g(\alpha)]$ , where the lowest value is about  
369  $-5 \text{ s}^{-1}$ .

370 To reconstruct the kinetic process with the KAS model, Eq. (4) is used in the non-logarithmic form.  
371 The results of the verification process are shown in Figure 5.

372

373 **Figure 5: Experimental and KAS kinetic model based on  $E_a$  and  $\ln[A_\alpha/g(\alpha)]$  for grass and digestate**  
374 **pyrolysis at 2.5, 5, 10, 15 and 20 °C/min**

375

376 The KAS model shows matching with the experimental data for the middle temperature range of  
377 450 to 700 K in the case of RG samples, and between 500 and 1,050 K for RGD samples. At lower  
378 temperatures, the KAS model deviates significantly from the experimental data. Again, more intense  
379 fluctuations of the model compared to the experimental data are shown for RGD samples. For all the

380 analysed samples, the highest match of KAS model to experimental data is at the lowest heating rate  
381 (2.5°C/min). Slowly heating the samples leads to a better and more effective heat transfer to the inner  
382 layers of biomass (Mani et al., 2010). Therefore, the model results match the experimental data best at  
383 lower heating rates. Kinetic parameters obtained with the KAS model are more effective in the case of RG  
384 samples than in the case of its digestate.

## 385 4. Conclusions

386 The analysis of TG and DTG curves of selected feedstocks shows that estimated amount of  
387 degraded cellulose and hemicellulose in roadside grass during the AD process is around 44 to 50%.  
388 Roadside grass digestate has shown a greater yield of final residues (ca. 38%) than roadside grass samples  
389 (ca. 24%). The combined process, anaerobic digestion of roadside grass and pyrolysis of its digestate,  
390 contributes to the production of green bioenergy in the form of heat and electricity, while reducing energy  
391 requirements (activation energy and pre-exponential factor) for pyrolysis.

392

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397 Integration of renewable energy within energy systems (INTEGRES).

398

## 399 Symbols

$(d\alpha/dT)_{\alpha,i}$	Conversion derivative per temperature at the given degree of conversion and heating rate
$0$	Initial (mass or temperature)
$A_{\alpha}/g(\alpha)$	Modified pre-exponential factor in KAS isoconversional model ( $s^{-1}$ )
$A_{\alpha}f(\alpha)$	Modified pre-exponential factor in FR isoconversional model ( $s^{-1}$ )
$f$	Final (mass or temperature)
$m$	mass (kg)
$R$	Universal gas constant, 8.314 J/(mol·K)
$T$	Temperature, general parameter of process (°C or K)
$T_{\alpha,i}$	Temperature at the given degree of conversion and heating rate required for model application (K)
$X$	degradation of hemicellulose and cellulose during anaerobic digestion of roadside grass

	(/ or %)
$\bar{x}$	average share of a component in a biomass sample (/ or %)
$\alpha$	Degree of conversion (/or %)
$\beta_i$	Heating rate (°C/min)

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