

1 **Impact of Hydrothermal Carbonization Conditions on the Formation of Hydrochars and** 2 **Secondary Chars from the Organic Fraction of Municipal Solid Waste**

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 Managing the vast quantities of municipal solid waste discarded daily around the globe is critical

18 to insuring global environmental health. Hydrothermal carbonization of the organic fraction of

19 municipal solid waste (OFMSW) could mitigate landfill issues while providing a sustainable

20 solid fuel source. This paper demonstrates the impact of processing conditions on the formation

21 and composition of hydrochars and secondary char of OFMSW; harsher conditions (higher

22 temperatures, longer residence times) decrease generally the solid yield while increasing the

23 higher heating value (HHV), fixed carbon, and elemental carbon. Energy yields upwards of 80%

24 can be obtained at both intermediate and high temperatures (220 and 260-280 °C), but the

25 thermal stability and reactivity of the intermediate hydrochars suggest the formation of a

26 secondary reactive char that condenses on the surface of the primary hydrochar. This secondary

27 char is extractable with organic solvents, and is comprised predominantly of organic acids,

28 furfurals and phenols, which peak at 220 and 240 °C, and decrease at higher carbonization

29 conditions. The HHVs of secondary char are significantly higher than those of primary char.

30 **Keywords:** Hydrothermal carbonization; municipal solid waste; secondary char; thermal

31 analysis; coalification; HTC

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33 **1. Introduction**

34 Global production of municipal solid waste is approximately 1,300 million tons per year
35 [1]; by 2025 annual production will reach 2,200 million tons [2]. A considerable amount of the
36 organic fraction (OF), which accounts for 30-40 % [3] of the total waste, is incinerated or
37 landfilled, low-cost but polluting processes [1]. The remainder undergoes biological treatments
38 such as composting or anaerobic digestion, which are considered more environmentally friendly
39 technologies, but are often not economically viable because of long holding times (20-30 days).
40 In addition, composting has a high energy consumption and CO₂ footprint, with a relatively low
41 product sale price [4]. Anaerobic digestion suffers from complexity of reactor start-up, toxic and
42 inhibiting compounds in the OF, and process instability due to feedstock heterogeneity [1].

43 To address these issues, technologies such as hydrothermal carbonization (HTC) are
44 attracting considerable attention to treat the organic fraction of municipal solid waste (OFMSW).
45 During hydrothermal carbonization, the wet biomass is reacted in subcritical water at
46 temperatures up to 300 °C [5], at times ranging from a few minutes to several hours [6]. HTC
47 converts organic wastes into a carbon rich material known as hydrochar, which can be used as a
48 solid fuel owing to its high energy density and heating value, and high carbon content,
49 homogeneity and grindability [7,8]. One of the main advantages of hydrothermal processes is
50 that the heterogeneous wet biomass can be processed without preliminary pre-treatment such as
51 separating and drying [9]. For these reasons, HTC is applied to various wet residues, including:
52 grape marc [10], off specification compost [11], olive wastes [6], food wastes [12], digestate
53 [13], sewage sludge [14–16] and banana stalk [17]. Our group recently demonstrated the
54 feasibility of this technology for large-scale development through a comprehensive economic
55 and process analysis [18]. However, despite its potential, the data available on HTC applied to
56 wet, as-received OFMSW are scarce; there is no systematic study on HTC of OFMSW that
57 investigates the influence of process variables on resulting hydrochar formation. Reza et al. [5]

58 carried out HTC tests on OFMSW pulp mixed with paper, pre-treated by steam autoclaving
59 sterilization. Berge et al. [19] demonstrated the feasibility of HTC of mixed MSW, including
60 paper, food, plastics, glass and metals. Lin et al. [20] tested hydrochar from MSW as solid fuel.
61 Ingelia S.L. [21], a small enterprise commercializing HTC plants, lists data related to the energy
62 properties and composition of hydrochar from OFMSW acquired at one operating condition (220
63 °C, 8 h).

64 Hydrochar forms via two pathways: (1) *solid-solid conversion*, in which the hydrochar
65 maintains the original structural elements and morphology of the parent biomass; (2) *aqueous*
66 *phase degradation* of biomass followed by polymerization of organic molecules into a solid
67 phase [6,22,23]. Throughout the literature “primary char” or “char” is often used to describe the
68 hydrochar formed following pathway (1) and “secondary char” or “coke” the amorphous solid
69 formed following pathway (2)¹. This secondary char is thought to result because of the sequential
70 hydrolysis, dehydration and isomerization during HTC that produces furfurals, and cleavage
71 reactions yielding intermediate organic acids. These dissolved intermediates can lead to
72 precipitation of the furfurals as a secondary organic phase, which polymerize as microspheres
73 [9,23–27]. The spheres can be further carbonized by dehydration reactions, and are soluble in
74 organic solvents such as acetone and methanol [28].

75 Secondary char formation is thought to be promoted at high carbonization temperatures,
76 solid loadings, and residence times. It is characterized by spherical-like structures that deposit on
77 the carbonaceous primary char. The high carbon content and high heating value of secondary
78 char is of interest for its potential use as a biofuel [6,28]. As reported by Sevilla et al. [29] and
79 Funke et al. [13], the morphology and structure makes secondary char suitable for advanced
80 carbonaceous material applications, including lithium ion batteries [30]. To date, most studies

¹ As coke is often used to refer to the formation of non-desorbed products on a secondary substrate (i.e. catalyst surface), in this paper we refer to the products of pathway (2), which condense on the original carbonaceous substrate, as “secondary char”[58]

81 focus on the application of secondary char obtained from model compounds such as glucose and
82 fructose. However, no one has yet systematically investigated how HTC reaction conditions
83 affect the formation and characteristics of primary versus secondary char obtained from HTC of
84 a heterogeneous organic residual feedstock. The present paper addresses the gaps identified in
85 the literature by studying the influence of temperature, time and solid load on the mass yields
86 and energy properties of the hydrochar produced, as well as the nature of primary versus
87 secondary char formation resulting from the hydrothermal carbonization of OFMSW.

88 **2. Materials and Methods**

89 ***2.1 Feedstock***

90 Approximately 29 million tons of municipal solid waste are produced annually in Italy
91 [31]. 30 kg of OFMSW was provided by AMNU, a municipal waste management company in
92 Trento, Italy in November 2016. After elimination of some residual packaging and inert material,
93 the biomass was shredded and homogenized using a knife mill. The average moisture content,
94 evaluated by drying overnight in a ventilated oven at 105 °C, was 78%±0.4 wt%. To preserve the
95 biomass, milled samples of ~16 g each were stored individually in sealed plastic bags in a freezer
96 at -34 °C. OFMSW samples were thawed to room temperature prior to carbonization.

97 The modified van Soest method was used to determine the extractives, holocellulosic and
98 lignin fractions in the feedstock. Samples were dried at 105 °C, and milled and sieved to > 300
99 µm. The composition was determined using neutral detergent fiber (NDF) to remove extractives,
100 acid detergent fiber (ADF) for hemicellulose, and acid detergent lignin (ADL) for cellulose
101 removal. Klason lignin [32] content was taken as the remaining. This analysis was repeated
102 thrice.

103 ***2.2 Hydrothermal Carbonization***

104 The hydrothermal reactions were carried out in a 50 ml stainless steel (AISI 316) batch
105 reactor as described previously [11,33]. A series of experiments were run with reaction time

106 ranging from 0 to 6 hours, temperatures between 120 and 280 °C, and dry biomass to water ratio
107 (B/W) from 0.05 to 0.25. B/W is the ratio between the dry feedstock and the total water
108 (moisture + additional deionized water). For each experiment, the reactor was loaded with 8 to
109 16 g ± 0.01 g of wet (as-received) OFMSW and 1 to 28 g ± 0.01 g of deionized water. The
110 choice to use the wet feedstock without any pre-drying may modestly affect the control of B/W,
111 however, this is in agreement with an industrial scale approach. The amount of feedstock and
112 water at each condition was chosen in order to completely cover the biomass with water and
113 leave comparable free volumes (about 40%) in the system during the different runs.

114 The reactor was purged by flushing with N₂ gas. The system was heated to the desired
115 reaction temperature, and the HTC residence time started when the system reached the set
116 temperature. After the set reaction time, the reactor was quenched by positioning a stainless steel
117 disc at -34 °C at the bottom of the reactor and blowing compressed air into the reactor walls.
118 When the system reached ambient temperature, the volume of gas produced was measured by
119 flowing it into a graduated cylinder [11]. The gas yield was calculated assuming that the gas
120 produced is entirely CO₂; literature shows that CO₂ is always greater than 90 vol.% [10,11]. The
121 condensed phases were filtered using 45 µm cellulose filters. The pH of the aqueous biomass
122 mixture before carbonization and of the liquid after the HTC were measured using a Profi-Line
123 pH 3310 portable pH-meter. The hydrochar was dried in a ventilated oven at 105 °C for at least 8
124 h. Hydrochar yield was calculated as the mass ratio between hydrochar and raw biomass (dry
125 basis). Gas yield is the mass of gas produced per unit dry raw biomass; liquid yield was
126 determined by difference. Seventeen individual runs were performed at least twice to insure
127 reproducibility. Hydrochars were named as T_t_B/W, where T denotes temperature in °C, t the
128 residence time in hours, and B/W the dry biomass to water ratio, respectively.

129 ***2.3 Hydrochar Characterization***

130 The hydrochars' elemental compositions were determined using a LECO 628 analyzer
131 equipped with sulphur module for CHN (ASTM D-5373 standard method) and S (ASTM D-
132 1552 standard method) determination. The oxygen content was determined by difference. Two
133 runs were performed for each sample, and the average values presented. Proximate analyses
134 were carried out on a LECO Thermogravimetric Analyser TGA 701 using a modified ASTM D-
135 3175-89 standard method: dried at 20 °C/min ramp to 105 °C in air, held until constant weight (<
136 ±0.05%); 16 °C/min from 105 °C to 900 °C, hold time 7 min in N₂ (loss due to volatile matter,
137 VM); isothermal hold at 800 °C in air (loss due to fixed carbon, FC), remaining matter attributed
138 to ash. Higher heating values (HHV) of the raw OFMSW and hydrochars were evaluated
139 according to the CEN/TS 14918 standard by means of a LECO AC500 calorimeter. Data were
140 used to calculate the energy yield EY, as:

$$141 \quad EY = SY * HHV_{HCdb}/HHV_{Rdb} \quad (1)$$

142 where SY is the solid yield (*i.e.* the hydrochar yield), times the ratio of the HHVs of the
143 hydrochar (HC) to raw (R) sample (both on a dry basis, db).

144 The thermal stability and reactivity of a subset of hydrochars were determined using a
145 Mettler-Toledo Thermogravimetric Analyzer-Differential Scanning Calorimeter (TGA-DSC-1)
146 measuring mass to the ±0.1 µg and temperature to the ±0.1 °C. Approximately 4-8 mg of sample
147 was placed in a 70 µL alumina crucible and inserted into the TGA at 25 °C. Samples were heated
148 in either high purity nitrogen (stability) or dry air (reactivity) flowing at 50 mL/min (with an
149 additional 20 mL/min flow of N₂ as a balance protective gas). Samples were heated to 110 °C at
150 10 °C/min and held for 30 min to remove residual moisture. They were then heated to 900 °C at
151 50 °C/min and held for 30 min to insure complete devolatilization or oxidation of the sample.
152 Derivative thermogravimetric (DTG) curves were made by taking the derivative of the mass
153 fractional conversion, X, defined as:

$$154 \quad X = \frac{m_i - m_t}{m_i - m_f} \quad (2)$$

155 with respect to time, dX/dt . In eq. (2), m_i is the initial mass, m_t is the mass at any time, t , and m_f
156 is the final mass after the hold at 900 °C. Measurements were repeated twice.

157 **2.4. Secondary Char Analysis**

158 To explore the nature of the condensed secondary char deposited on the primary char, a
159 series of hydrochars were extracted using acetone and methanol. Acetone is a polar aprotic
160 solvent, with intermediate polarity; methanol is a protic solvent with a strong polarity, and in
161 combination have been shown to remove the condensed solid organic fraction deposited on
162 primary hydrochar [34]. Each hydrochar sample (approximately 1 g) was mixed with 20 mL of
163 acetone in a beaker at room temperature and then filtered; during filtration most of the char was
164 pressed and retained in the beaker, allowing only the liquid to flow through the filter to enhance
165 recovery. This extraction was repeated thrice, followed by the same procedure using 20 mL of
166 methanol, thrice. The extracts were combined and the solvents evaporated via rotary evaporator
167 at 40 °C to yield $HC_{\text{extractable}}$. $HC_{\text{non-extractable}}$ was determined by measuring the solid residue
168 (primary char) remaining in the beaker and trapped on the filter paper. The morphological
169 features of these hydrochars were evaluated via SEM analysis using a JEOL IT 300 scanning
170 electron microscope and an EDS Bruker Quantax equipped with a SDDXFlash 630 M detector.
171 Samples were gold coated and analyzed using an accelerating voltage of 20 kV.

172 To determine how the composition of the secondary char changes as a result of increasing
173 carbonization temperature, a subset of hydrochars were extracted with dichloromethane (DCM)
174 and the extract dried over anhydrous magnesium sulphate, centrifuged, and the supernatant
175 collected. The extract was analyzed on an Agilent 7890B Gas Chromatograph-Mass
176 Spectrometer (GC-MS) using a split ratio of 25:1 with an injection temperature of 250 °C, and
177 helium as a carrier gas at 29 mL/min. The GC oven started at 30 °C, held 10 min, followed by
178 heating at 3 °C/min to 250 °C, with a final hold of 5 min. The interface temperature was 325 °C.
179 Mass spectra were recorded under electron ionization with a source temperature of 230 °C and

180 quadrupole temperature of 150 °C with a 7-min solvent delay over an m/z range of 0 to 300 amu
181 and 0.1 m/z step size. A set of calibration “marker” compounds was used (each at minimum
182 purity 99%, calibrated with 7 points between 10 and 700 ppm, minimum R² value of 0.995 for
183 each). Additional compounds are reported if their NIST-library matches were above 94%, and
184 any relative area differences (area being a direct function of concentration) noted.

185 The thermal stability and reactivity of a subset of extracted (HC_{non-extractable}) and non-
186 extracted (*i.e.* as-carbonized) hydrochars were analyzed on the TGA as described above. The
187 TGA results of DCM and acetone+methanol extracted hydrochars were indistinguishable,
188 suggesting that the extraction methods were equivalent in terms of removing secondary char. The
189 DCM proved a more suitable solvent for GC-MS analysis in terms of separation of distinct
190 peaks.

191 **3. Results and Discussion**

192 Transforming OFMSW to a renewable fuel would mitigate environmental issues
193 associated with landfilling, while providing a renewable energy source. The elemental
194 composition of the raw OFMSW feedstock used is reported in Table 1. Elemental analysis is in
195 accord with average values reported for OFMSW across 18 cities in 12 countries [1]. Sulphur
196 content was lower than 0.2 wt%. The fiber analysis performed on raw biomass shows a high
197 amount of extractives (58.8 ± 0.9%) resulting from protein, oil, starch and sugar. Hemicellulose
198 and lignin contents are present in considerable amounts (14.4 ± 0.2%, 17.6 ± 0.1%, respectively),
199 while the cellulose content is relatively low (9.1 ± 0.1%), in agreement with the literature [35].

200 ***3.1 Effect of Processing Parameters on Solid and Energy Yield***

201 As the severity of the carbonization process increases – that is, as time and/or
202 temperature increase – the degree to which biomass converts to a carbon dense material
203 increases, as documented across the literature [10,36,37]. For OFMSW this is again the case;
204 solid yields decrease as the temperature increases, as shown in Table 1. This decrease in mass

205 with temperature is due to a series of dehydration and decarboxylation reactions. These reactions
206 become more effective at higher temperatures, leading to an increase in the gaseous phase and
207 decreasing solid yield [11,38]. A modestly reverse trend for hydrochar yields was found at higher
208 temperatures; the hydrochar yield decreases at 240 °C, then increases slightly at 260 °C and 280
209 °C, suggesting that amount of solid formed by back-polymerization of the organic compounds
210 from the liquid phase becomes predominant if compared to the degradation of the solid material
211 from the parent biomass [39]. Notably, each experiment was repeated at least twice, with the 240
212 and 280 °C experiments repeated at least thrice each to confirm the observed trend. The gaseous
213 phase yields progressively increase as temperature increases, following a linear trend ($R^2 = 0.98$),
214 starting at 0.03 at 160 °C to 0.17 at 280 °C. Higher residence times favor the formation of higher
215 quantities of water-soluble compounds, consequently increasing the liquid yield and gaseous
216 yields, as shown in Figure 1. Due to the variability of feedstock moisture content, the results
217 regarding B/W could be affected by the difficulty in the control of total water. However, as it is
218 clear from Fig. 1, solid yields are higher at high B/W with respect to lower B/W ratios (0.05,
219 0.10). According to Funke and Ziegler [40], higher concentrations of biomass could enhance the
220 concentration of monomers in the liquid formed during hydrolysis, favoring the chance of
221 polymerization reactions that lead to an increase in solid yields, as demonstrated by other recent
222 works in the literature [6,34,41].

223 Table 1 details the energy yield of the various hydrochars. EY drops upon heating, even
224 with a residence time of zero hours at 220 °C, B/W=0.15, EY = 0.90. This is due to the large
225 biomass decomposition as the reactor heats to the HTC set point. EY is higher at lower
226 temperatures, reaching a maximum at 180 °C (EY=1.00) and follows the trend of solid yield at
227 higher temperatures. At higher residence times (≤ 5 h), the hydrochar mass loss is
228 counterbalanced by the enhancement of the HHV, and therefore EY is approximately constant,

229 as seen in Fig. 1b. As noted here and in the literature, EY increases with B/W ratio, as a result of
230 the increase in hydrochar yield, and enhanced coalification, increasing HHV [6,34].

231 Our group recently demonstrated, for prickly pear cactus biomass, that multivariate
232 ordinary least square (OLS) linear regression could predict hydrochars' SY ($R^2 = 0.966$), EY (R^2
233 $= 0.950$) and HHV ($R^2 = 0.883$) as a function of HTC processing conditions. We found that B/W
234 is the only statistically significant predictor of EY ($p < 0.01$) [28]. Applying OLS regression to
235 the present OFMSW data, we find that both temperature and time are indeed statistically
236 significant predictors of HHV ($R^2 = 0.951$), represented by Eq. 3:

$$237 \quad \text{HHV (MJ/kg)} = 0.066 * T(^{\circ}\text{C}) + 0.466 * t(\text{h}) + 7.600 * \text{B/W}(\text{g/g}) + 12.178 \pm 1.154 \quad (3)$$

238 Unlike for the more homogeneous prickly pear biomass, the SY and EY are not as well
239 represented by a multivariate linear relationship (Table 2), nor are they well represented by
240 bivariate relationships (data available in Supplemental Information, SI). Again, though, B/W is
241 statistically significant in determining EY, while temperature is a key to determining SY. These
242 relationships between SY, HHV and EY result from the compositional changes that occur
243 because of the hydrolysis, dehydration and isomerization reactions that take place during
244 hydrothermal carbonization. Just as SY, HHV and EY are functions of processing parameters, as
245 are the elemental composition and proximate analyses.

246 ***3.2. Effect of Processing Parameters on Hydrochar Composition and Thermal Properties***

247 The proximate analysis (Table 1) shows a decrease in the volatile matter (VM) content
248 with increasing residence time, while the fixed carbon (FC) content predictably follows an
249 opposite trend. This effect is due to the stronger coalification at higher residence time,
250 underscored by the progressive increase in the HHV [6]. Also as expected, as the process
251 temperature increases (with the exception of the 120 °C char), the FC content, elemental carbon
252 content and HHV all increase. No trend is immediately evident in varying the B/W ratio in terms
253 of composition, though the HHV value is slightly higher at higher B/W ratios. The standard

254 deviations of the proximate analyses are lower than 1.8% (analysis repeated at least twice per
255 sample). However, as shown in Fig. 2a, though the VM content tends to decrease with increasing
256 carbonization severity, the thermal stability, as gauged by the peak DTG temperature and mass
257 loss rate in a nitrogen atmosphere, actually decreases as carbonization time and temperature
258 increase. That is, the highest temperature chars (240, 260, 280 °C) show the highest peak
259 reactivity (on the order of 0.0055 s^{-1}) at lowest peak temperature ($T_{\text{peak}} < 300 \text{ °C}$), even as
260 compared to the raw (initial peak at 0.004 s^{-1} and 340 °C , second peak at 0.0045 s^{-1} and 410 °C)
261 and 220 °C , 0 h, B/W=0.15 (Peak 1: 0.0035 s^{-1} , 350 °C , Peak 2: 0.0065 s^{-1} , 410 °C). This
262 suggests the formation of a secondary char phase, whereby volatile organics are condensing onto
263 the solid primary char during HTC, and devolatilize from the surface of the char during TGA.
264 The second peaks noted for the high temperature chars (0.002 s^{-1} , $T > 450 \text{ °C}$) resemble secondary
265 peaks noted for many coals, though shifted to slightly lower temperatures [42–44]. A similar
266 trend is noted for DTG curves of oxidation (Fig. 2b), where the raw OFMSW and 120 °C char
267 exhibit lower peak reactivities in air than their higher temperature counterparts. Again, it is
268 suspected that secondary char condensing on the solid surface is responsible for this reactive
269 behavior, as the chars quickly devolatilize from the surface and oxidize in the air at a faster rate.

270 The elemental content of carbon (C), hydrogen (H), oxygen (O) and nitrogen (N) of raw
271 OFMSW and hydrochars are presented Table 1; standard deviations of ultimate analyses are
272 lower than 1.3%. The sulphur content in the hydrochars was not determined due to its minimal
273 content in the raw biomass ($< 0.2 \text{ wt\%}$). The elemental analysis shows an increase in elemental
274 carbon weight percent with HTC temperature and time. As the van Krevelen diagram (Fig. 3)
275 shows, as carbonization severity increases, the hydrochars more closely resemble coal in terms
276 of elemental composition with decreasing O/C and H/C ratios. By increasing both the HTC
277 residence time and HTC temperature, the hydrochars have lower H/C and O/C ratios, suggesting
278 that dehydration is a dominant reaction during carbonization. However, at higher residence times

279 and temperatures, decarboxylation shifts the hydrochar towards lower O/C and higher H/C. The
280 C, H and O composition (Fig. 3b) is highly dependent on carbonization temperature. The carbon
281 content increases almost 150% upon carbonization to 280 °C, with a corresponding decrease in
282 oxygen. The weight percent of hydrogen in the hydrochar is fairly comparable to that of the raw
283 OFMSW no matter the temperature (Fig. 3b), time (Fig. 3c) and B/W (Fig. 3d).

284 These trends are captured by a multivariate linear model, shown in Table 2 (predicted vs.
285 actual plots available in SI). Unlike previous work on prickly pear biomass [28], where R^2 values
286 were fairly low for predicting elemental C, O, and VM and FC, the OFMSW composition was
287 reasonably well predicted ($R^2 > 0.8$ for all variables). For OFMSW, we find that VM and FC
288 contents are determined by both temperature and time, but not by B/W, confirming our
289 observations [28]. Likewise, as temperature and/or time increases, the elemental carbon increases
290 and oxygen decreases, with B/W not having any statistically significant effect on composition.

291 ***3.3. Effect of Processing Parameters on Process Water pH***

292 The pH of the HTC process liquids are shown in Table 1. The standard deviations are less
293 than ± 0.3 for each value. Upon heating to 220 °C (t=0 h and B/W =0.15) the pH is 3.8; it
294 increases at 0.5 h, and again slightly at 1 h and 3 h. The pH stabilizes to a value of 4.6 at higher
295 residence times. At temperatures up to 180 °C, the liquid fraction becomes progressively more
296 acidic; on the contrary, the pH increases at HTC temperatures higher than 180 °C. These results
297 are consistent with the idea that the organic acids formed during hydrolysis re-polymerize at
298 higher temperatures and residence times, hence leading to higher pH values at 260 and 280 °C.
299 This trend versus temperature was also observed by Ekpo et al. [45] for hydrothermal
300 carbonization of swine manure. The effect of B/W ratio on pH is negligible.

301 ***3.4. Analysis of Secondary Char***

302 The DTG curves in Fig. 2 suggest the presence of a separate, more volatile phase within
303 the solid hydrochars that increases as carbonization severity increases, which is thought to be a

304 secondary char. SEM analysis provides qualitative evidence of its presence and the ability to
305 separate it from the primary char via solvent extraction for samples carbonized for 3 h,
306 B/W=0.15. Fig. 4a shows the amorphous, non-porous nature of the raw OFMSW. Even upon
307 carbonization to 180 °C (Fig. 4b), the biomass begins to decompose, opening pores and reducing
308 the initial amorphous regions on the fibrous support. This progression continues at 240 °C,
309 where we begin to see the formation of smaller, highly spherical amorphous deposits on the fiber
310 surface (Fig. 4c). In Fig. 4d, we see that after extraction, many of these spherical particles are
311 removed, leaving a fibrous structure behind. Fig. 4e, a 5000x magnification of the 280 °C
312 carbonized sample, shows these spherical deposits (which cover even more of the surface as
313 temperature increases) are between 3 and 4 μm in diameter, and sometimes fuse with the spheres
314 next to them. The primary char remaining after extraction for the 280_3_0.15 hydrochar (Fig. 4f)
315 shows some pockets where these spherical chars would have decorated the surface, but also
316 pores in a range of sizes, and both fibrous, smooth surfaces and amorphous surfaces, similar to
317 those observed for biomass-derived activated carbons [46]. While the SEM offers qualitative
318 evidence of the presence of a soluble secondary char, a more quantitative approach sheds light on
319 the amount that forms as a function of carbonization temperature.

320 Repeated solvent washing of a series of hydrochars showed that the extractable char was
321 approximately 40 wt% of the total hydrochar at 220 °C, increased to 55 wt% at 240 °C, and
322 decreased to 34-35 wt% at 260 and 280 °C (Table 3). This suggests that the composition of the
323 secondary char changes as temperature increases. Dehydration and decarboxylation of the solid
324 matrix, combined with reactions in the liquid phase and re-deposition onto the solid char increase
325 the overall degree of carbonization. This is highlighted by the heating contents of the extracted
326 and non-extracted chars, their thermal stability and reactivity, morphology, and composition of
327 the extracts. As seen in Table 3, just as the overall hydrochar HHV increases with temperature,
328 so does the HHV for both the $HC_{\text{non-extractable}}$ and $HC_{\text{extractable}}$ components. To check the

329 consistency of the measured HHVs of the hydrochar fractions, the HHVs of the overall (“as-
330 carbonized”) HCs were estimated by Eq. (4):

$$331 \quad \text{HHV}_{\text{HCpredicted}} = \text{HHV}_{\text{HCnon-extractable}} \cdot \omega_{\text{HCnon-extractable}} + \text{HHV}_{\text{HCextractable}} \cdot \omega_{\text{HCextractable}} \quad (4)$$

332 where ω_{HC} are the mass fractions comprising the “as-carbonized” hydrochar. In Table 3, we see
333 that the $\text{HHV}_{\text{HCpredicted}}$ values have estimation errors as compared to measured HHV_{HC} of less
334 than 3%, suggesting that the solvent extraction simply separates the two kinds of char without
335 affecting their energy values. The $\text{HC}_{\text{non-extractable}}$ are less energetic than the parent HCs
336 ($\text{HHV}_{\text{HCnon-extractable}}/\text{HHV}_{\text{HC}} < 1$). Consistently, $\text{HHV}_{\text{HCextractable}}$ are higher than HHV_{HC} .

337 Qualitatively, $\text{HC}_{\text{non-extractable}}$ appeared by visual observation to be similar to the parent HC, while
338 $\text{HC}_{\text{extractable}}$ was a tar-like phase. The calorific values for all four $\text{HC}_{\text{extractable}}$ samples were higher
339 than 34 MJ/kg, and increase modestly as carbonization temperature increases. However, given
340 the lower yield of extractable char, and higher HHV, we might expect that higher temperatures
341 increase condensation and polymerization reactions in the water phase, leading to larger, more
342 energy intensive products that deposit on the primary char, and fewer volatile components
343 remaining in the solid matrix. This supposition is supported by the thermal analysis.

344 From the DTG curves of devolatilization, we see that at low temperatures (Fig. 5a) the
345 120 °C hydrochar’s solid remaining after extraction has a similar shape, but more rapid
346 devolatilization rate than the “as-carbonized” char. Such low treatment temperatures do not
347 initiate the series of reactions that define hydrothermal carbonization; cellulosic and lignin-like
348 components will not begin to chemically break down at this point, such that the decomposition
349 may only be of simple sugars and amino acids that are soluble in the process water. Warm water
350 treatment has been shown to physically weaken cellulosic structures, making such pre-treated
351 biomass easier to pyrolyze at lower temperatures and more reactive (e.g. higher DTG peaks)
352 [47], which may explain the observed behavior. When the HTC temperature is increased to 220
353 °C, we find that the as-carbonized hydrochar has lower thermal stability than its post-extracted

354 counterpart. That is, the as-carbonized “raw” char devolatilizes faster and at lower temperatures
355 than the extracted solid; the extracted components have higher volatility than the “primary” or
356 non-extracted char. This trend is enhanced as carbonization temperature increases (Fig. 5b). For
357 the 240, 260 and 280 °C samples, the as-carbonized chars have higher peak devolatilization rates
358 (on the order of 0.005 s^{-1}) at lower temperatures ($\sim 275\text{-}290\text{ °C}$) than their extracted counterparts,
359 which all peak around 0.0035 s^{-1} and at $\sim 450\text{ °C}$. This might suggest that the primary (non-
360 extractable) chars remaining after HTC at higher temperatures are not substantially different in
361 terms of composition and structure given the similarities in DTG devolatilization profiles.

362 However, the oxidation behavior belies a more complex story; the oxidative DTG
363 profiles of the as-carbonized chars all show primary DTG peaks at 0.004 s^{-1} around 235 °C (Fig.s
364 5c and d). This is likely due to similar reactivities of the extractable char initiating oxidation of
365 the solid char. The post-extracted samples suggest, contrary to the results in N_2 , that the
366 reactivities of the primary chars are considerably different from each other. Looking at Fig.s 5c
367 and 5d, all the extracted primary chars display at least two large DTG peaks, one at a lower
368 temperature (ranging from $280\text{-}350\text{ °C}$) and the second between $500\text{-}650\text{ °C}$. This second peak
369 DTG temperature decreases as the HTC temperature decreases, suggesting that increasing HTC
370 temperature enhances destruction of the solid matrix. There is a vast literature concerning
371 biomass pyrolysis and oxidation that demonstrates multiple decomposition regimes that
372 correspond to hemicellulose, cellulose, and lignin components [48]. Analogously, as observed
373 here, different components are hydrolyzed as the severity of carbonization increases, and those
374 remaining are shown through distinct DTG peaks [40].

375 The varying nature of the post-extracted solid hydrochars is mirrored in the analysis of
376 “secondary” char extracts via GC-MS (Table 4; chromatograms available in SI). There is a stark
377 contrast between the compounds extracted from the 120_3_0.15 hydrochar and those produced at
378 220 and 260 °C . For example, lauryl lactone is found only in the low temperature char; this

379 compound is known to form from bacteria present in MSW [49,50], and via oxidation of
380 carbonyls [50,51], and it was found in the extract of the raw OFMSW. In addition, 2-hexene is
381 only detected in the raw OFMSW and 120 °C char, which could form from simple alkenes [52],
382 common by-products of OFMSW fermentation [53]. Also detected in the raw and 120 °C
383 extracts was hexanal, which may result from oxidation of the lipids in OFMSW [54], though
384 itself is an alkyl aldehyde used as flavoring. Pentanal (also a flavoring and founding in olive and
385 spice oils) was found in the raw, 120_3_0.15 and 220_1_0.15 extracts, but not at higher
386 temperatures or residence times. The concentrations of the pentanal and hexanal were both
387 higher in the hydrochars versus the raw sample, suggesting that either the milder carbonization
388 helps “release” the compounds from the solid matrix and/or is responsible for their formation.

389 At higher temperatures (220, 260 °C), the extracts have large quantities of organic acids,
390 including hexadecanoic and octadecanoic acids. These acids form above 160 °C from the
391 hydrolysis and polymerization of sugars to furfurals to acids and alcohols [55]. As noted in Table
392 4, at 220 °C, the concentration of octadecanoic acid slightly decreases as residence time
393 increases, starting from 87.6 mg/g_{char} extracted for the 220_1_0.15 char, decreasing to 10.2
394 mg/g_{char} when the carbonization temperature is raised to 260 °C for 3 hours. This trend of
395 decreasing concentration versus temperature extends to hexadecanoic acid (shown as normalized
396 chromatogram area, total ion count/g_{solid} in Table 4).

397 Phenols can follow from lignin hydrolysis and, eventually, glucose degradation pathways
398 with furfural intermediates [56]. Lignin is known to be relatively stable: high residence times and
399 temperatures favor its decomposition, as observed here. Specifically, the concentration of phenol
400 increases from 0.56 mg/g_{char} at 220_1_0.15 to 4.44 mg/g_{char} for 260_3_0.15, with a
401 corresponding decrease in the concentration of furfurals. In the presence of water, small acids
402 decompose via decarboxylation reactions, forming CO₂ and H₂ gas [57], which explains the
403 increase in gas yield noted at harsher carbonization conditions. Though acetic acid is an endpoint

404 in many hydrothermal reactions, forming from glyceraldehydes [55], we do not detect it in the
405 extracted chars, likely due to its higher water solubility retaining it in the water phase. These
406 “secondary char” components could represent platform chemicals for integrated biorefineries.

407 Overall, the secondary char analysis data suggests that the yield and reactivity of
408 extractable or “secondary” char is maximized at moderate carbonization temperatures between
409 220 and 240 °C. At these temperatures the extractable yield (Table 3) is highest and the thermal
410 stability and reactivity of the as-carbonized chars are highest (Figure 5). Larger quantities of
411 organic acids and furfurals are extracted from the char at these carbonization conditions,
412 suggesting that at more harsh conditions these components may re-polymerize into the solid
413 primary char as more “coke-” or “coal-like” carbon, rather than remaining as amorphous
414 extractable secondary char. This behavior could explain both the relative amount of extractable
415 and non-extractable char (Table 3) and the slight increase in hydrochar yield at the highest
416 temperatures (260 and 280 °C, Table 1).

417 **Conclusions**

418 The present work systematically investigates the potential to use hydrothermal
419 carbonization (HTC) to upgrade the organic fraction of municipal solid waste (OFMSW) to
420 energy or by-products from “as-received” feedstocks. Despite the perceived heterogeneity of
421 such feedstocks, clear trends emerge in terms of the impact of carbonization conditions on
422 overall and “secondary” char formation. As the severity of carbonization increases – that is, at
423 higher temperatures and longer residence times – the yield and volatile matter content of the
424 hydrochar generally decrease, whereas the elemental carbon content increases, leading to an
425 overall increase in higher heating values. However, at carbonization temperatures above 260 °C,
426 the amount of extractable “secondary” char decreases, after an initial increase at 220-240 °C. The
427 surface of the as-carbonized hydrochars are dotted with amorphous carbon, comprised of organic
428 acids, phenols and furfurals. Some of these compounds decrease at higher HTC temperatures,

429 perhaps undergoing a re-polymerization and condensation into the solid matrix, whereas others
430 such as phenol increase, probably due to increasing carbonization of the lignin components.

431 OFMSW hydrochars have the potential to be used as a solid fuel, either alone or co-fired
432 with biomasses or coals. Hydrochars produced at temperatures greater than 220 °C have heating
433 values similar to lignite and sub-bituminous coals, though the presence of the secondary char
434 phase does increase oxidative reactivity and reduce thermal stability, which could lead to lower
435 temperature ignition and reduced boiler efficiency. However, if this secondary char were
436 extracted, it could be used as a source of biorefinery platform chemicals, while the remaining
437 primary or non-extractable char has thermal properties very similar to those of coal, and may
438 represent a better solid fuel alternative in existing boilers.

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Table 1. Raw OFMSW and resulting hydrochar properties as a function of process parameters. Compositional analyses performed in duplicate; average values shown (Standard deviations ≤ 1.8 % for proximate and 1.3 % for ultimate analyses); HHVs average of three measurements, standard deviation ≤ 0.6 MJ/kg).

	Temp °C	Time h	B/W	pH	Hydrochar Yield	Proximate analysis (wt% dry basis)			Ultimate analysis (wt% dry basis)				HHV (MJ/kg)	Energy Yield
						VM	FC	Ash	C	H	O	N		
RAW				5.3		80.7	13.9	5.4	52.0	6.7	32.3	3.6	22.0	
120_3_0.15	120	3.0	0.15	4.7	0.879	81.2	14.8	4.0	51.2	6.6	34.7	3.6	21.9	0.88
160_3_0.15	160	3.0	0.15	4.0	0.826	77.9	15.7	6.4	60.1	7.0	22.2	4.3	25.5	0.96
180_3_0.15	180	3.0	0.15	4.0	0.801	73.8	21.9	4.3	64.6	6.9	20.1	4.0	27.4	1.00
200_3_0.15	200	3.0	0.15	4.5	0.743	68.9	22.5	8.6	65.4	7.3	14.6	4.1	28.2	0.95
220_0_0.15	220	0.0	0.15	3.8	0.739	76.3	18.3	5.4	61.6	6.8	21.8	4.3	26.8	0.90
220_0.5_0.15	220	0.5	0.15	4.4	0.679	75.4	19.8	4.8	66.4	7.1	17.5	4.2	28.1	0.87
220_1_0.15	220	1.0	0.15	4.5	0.650	72.2	21.9	5.9	63.7	6.8	19.9	3.7	28.4	0.84
220_3_0.05	220	3.0	0.05	4.7	0.413	65.2	28.9	5.9	67.6	6.6	16.0	3.9	27.9	0.53
220_3_0.10	220	3.0	0.10	4.6	0.414	68.6	26.8	4.6	68.6	6.8	16.2	3.8	29.2	0.55
220_3_0.15	220	3.0	0.15	4.6	0.639	69.5	24.7	5.8	67.1	6.6	16.2	4.3	29.4	0.86
220_3_0.20	220	3.0	0.20	4.6	0.607	69.4	26.1	4.5	69.2	7.0	15.3	3.9	29.6	0.82
220_3_0.25	220	3.0	0.25	4.6	0.602	67.9	27.1	5.0	68.9	7.1	15.1	3.9	29.6	0.81
220_5_0.15	220	5.0	0.15	4.6	0.612	69.1	25.8	5.1	69.4	7.2	14.3	4.0	30.1	0.84
220_6_0.15	220	6.0	0.15	4.6	0.557	66.9	27.3	5.8	69.6	7.0	13.6	3.9	29.8	0.76
240_3_0.15	240	3.0	0.15	4.7	0.477	68.4	26.9	4.7	71.6	7.2	12.4	4.1	31.5	0.68
260_3_0.15	260	3.0	0.15	5.0	0.562	68.5	28.6	2.9	73.5	7.8	11.8	4.0	31.9	0.82
280_3_0.15	280	3.0	0.15	6.3	0.563	63.9	31.8	4.3	73.7	7.0	11.0	4.0	32.5	0.83

Table 2. OLS Multivariate linear regression of impact of reaction temperature, time and biomass to water ratio on hydrochar characteristics

	Hydrochar Yield (wt%)	HHV (MJ/kg)	Energy Yield (%)	Volatile Matter (wt%)	Fixed Carbon (wt%)	Carbon (wt%)	Oxygen (wt%)
Temperature (°C)	-0.003** (0.001)	0.066** (0.004)	-0.001 (0.001)	-0.001** (0.000)	0.001** (0.000)	0.138** (0.012)	-0.137** (0.016)
Time (h)	-0.024 (0.015)	0.466** (0.110)	-0.018 (0.019)	-0.015** (0.004)	0.015** (0.003)	1.190** (0.307)	-1.208* (0.416)
B/W	1.141 (0.529)	7.600 (3.919)	1.660* (0.681)	0.124 (0.136)	-0.086 (0.123)	6.400 (10.969)	-5.400 (14.868)
Constant	1.110** (0.156)	12.178** (1.154)	0.899** (0.200)	0.953** (0.040)	-0.024 (0.036)	32.603** (3.229)	50.706** (4.377)
R-squared	0.688	0.951	0.430	0.828	0.865	0.918	0.856
Observations	17	17	17	17	17	17	17

Standard errors in parentheses

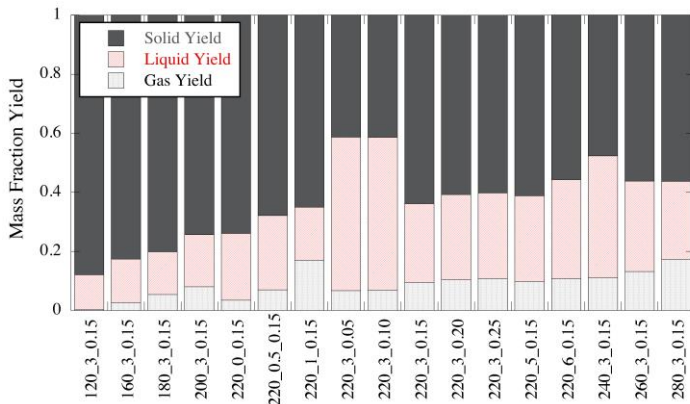
** p<0.01, * p<0.05

Table 3. Yields and heating values of extractable and non-extractable hydrochar portions (HTC reaction time: 3 h; B/W=0.15)

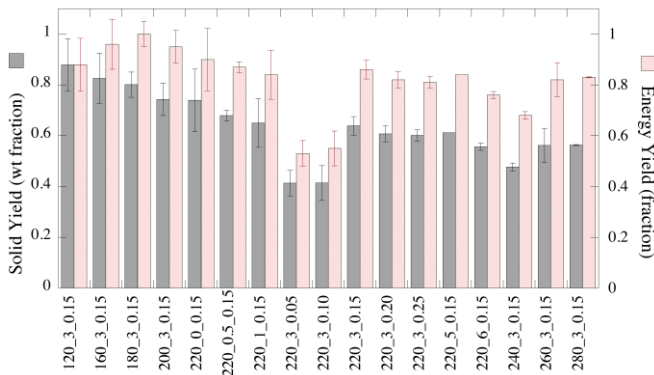
HTC Temp (°C)	Hydrochar Yield	HHV hydrochar (MJ/kg)	Non-Extractable Char (wt%)	HHV Non-Extractable Char (MJ/kg)	Extractable Char (wt%)	HHV Extractable Char (MJ/kg)	Predicted HHV hydrochar (MJ/kg)	HHV Deviation from Measured
220	0.639	29.4	59.6	25.2	40.4	34.5	28.9	-1.6%
240	0.477	31.5	45.4	27.0	54.6	35.4	31.6	0.3%
260	0.562	31.9	65.7	28.6	34.3	35.9	31.1	-2.5%
280	0.563	32.5	65.1	29.5	34.9	36.5	31.9	-1.6%

Table 4. GCMS analysis of “secondary char” extracted from OFMSW hydrochars normalized to gram of solid hydrochar (mg/g_{solid} for “marker” compounds; TIC, Total Ion Count for observed but not calibrated compounds); error on concentration < 5 ppm

Retention Time (min)	Compound	Raw	Normalized Concentration (mg/g _{solid})					
		OFMSW	120_3_0.15	220_1_0.15	220_3_0.15	220_6_0.15	260_3_0.15	
10.4	2-furancarboxaldehyde (furfural)			0.208		0.981		0.165
13.9	2-furanmethanol							3.254
15.7	Styrene		2.756					
29.6	Maltol							0.398
44.4	Vanillin						2.889	1.965
25.6-25.9	Phenol		0.422	0.563		2.357	2.898	4.440
35.2-35.6	5-hydroxymethylfurfural			4.039		3.614	3.675	2.482
40.9-41.1	Syringol					1.647		
41.1-41.3	Eugenol			1.202				
63.5-63.8	Octadecanoic acid			87.562		74.569	60.730	10.158
<i>Normalized Area (TIC/g_{solid})</i>								
8.9-9.0	1,4-butanediol			1.236E+05				
9.1	Hexanal	4.189E+04		5.807E+05				
9.2	Pentanal	8.829E+02		8.918E+03	2.151E+04			
11.7	2-hexene	1.363E+03		8.865E+04				
11.9	Lauryl lactone	5.602E+03		2.302E+04				
36.9	Furan,2-ethyl-5-methyl-			2.101E+05				
63.7	Hexadecanoic Acid				1.876E+05	1.212E+06	1.375E+06	7.653E+04
56.9-57.0	Levogluconan				9.931E+03	1.185E+05	1.301E+05	
68.8-68.9	2-Acetylfuran				6.530E+04	1.409E+05	9.230E+04	4.743E+04
69.0-69.1	Oxacyclotridecan-2-one				3.404E+05	2.127E+06	4.045E+06	6.418E+04

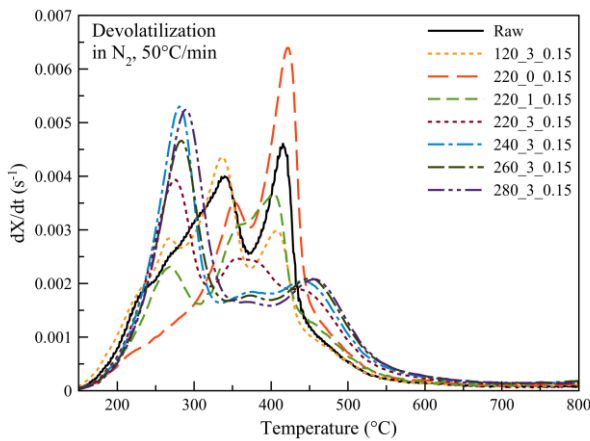


a. Weight fraction distribution of hydrothermally carbonized OFMSW in solid, liquid and gas phases (liquid determined via difference)

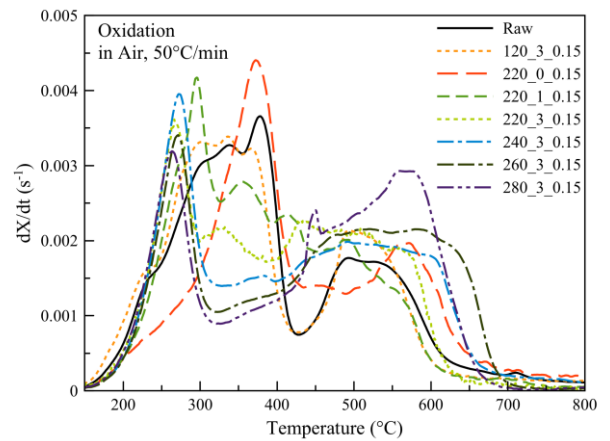


b. Solid and energy yields (error bars indicate 95% confidence interval)

Figure 1. Product distribution and energy yields for hydrothermal carbonization of OFMSW at varying temperatures, residence times and B/W ratios

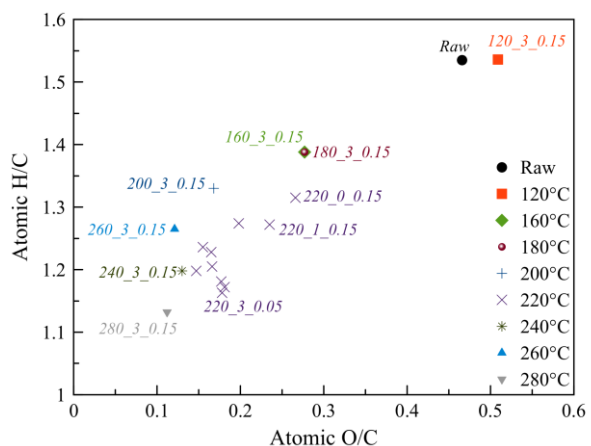


a. Pyrolysis in N₂

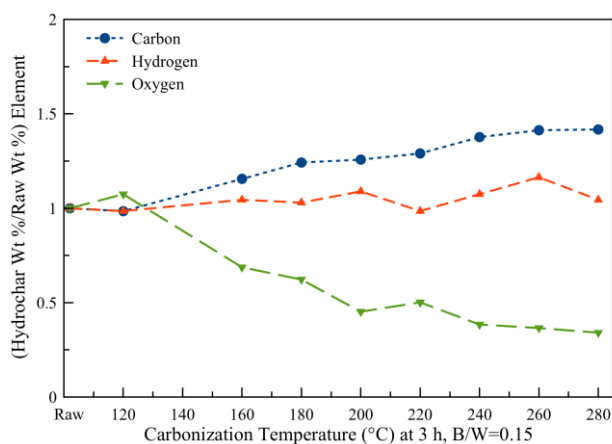


b. Oxidation in air

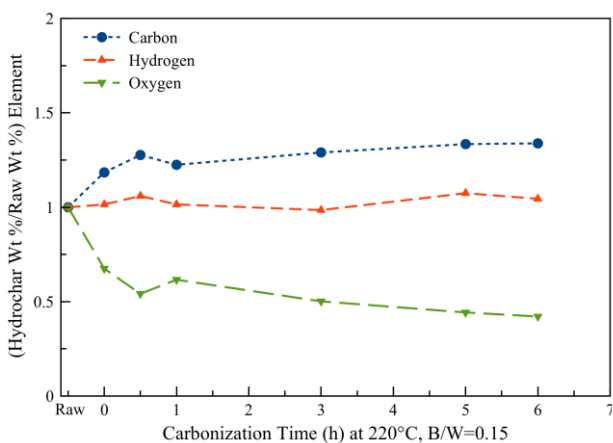
Figure 2. Derivative thermogravimetric curves for raw OFMSW and hydrochars pyrolyzed and oxidized at 50 °C/min



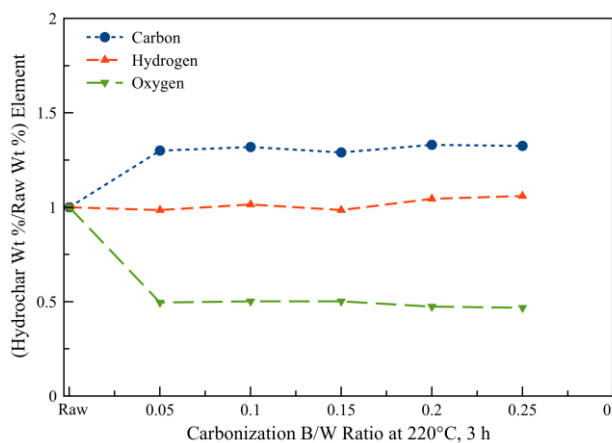
a. van Krevelen diagram



b. Elemental distribution as a function of reaction temperature in terms of hydrochar composition/raw OFMSW composition

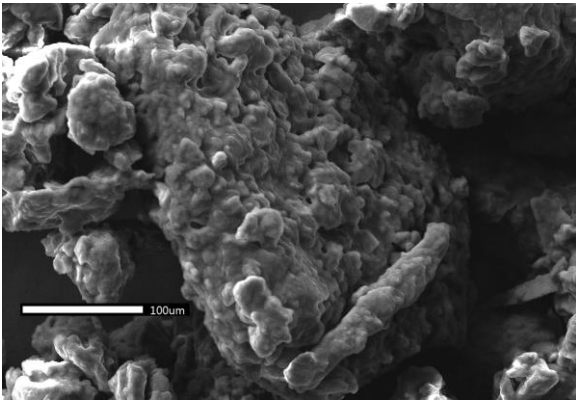


c. Elemental distribution as a function of reaction time in terms of hydrochar composition/raw OFMSW composition

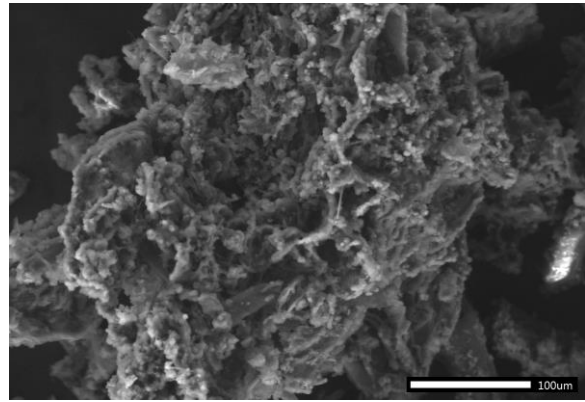


d. Elemental distribution as a function of B/W in terms of hydrochar composition/raw OFMSW composition

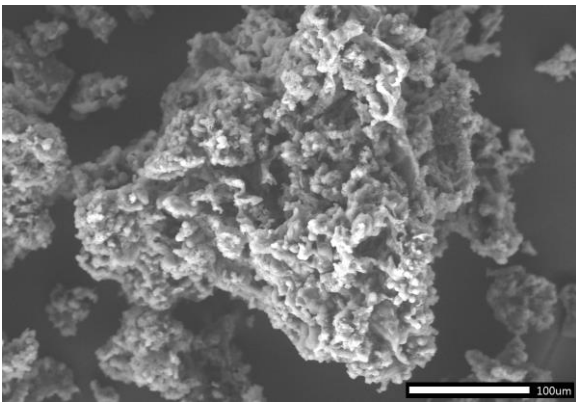
Figure 3. Impact of HTC processing conditions on elemental composition of hydrochars



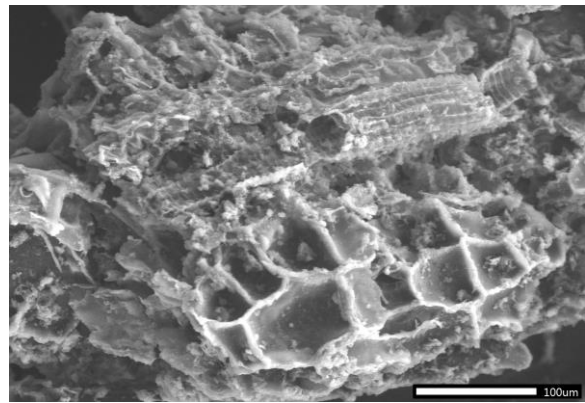
a. Raw OFMSW



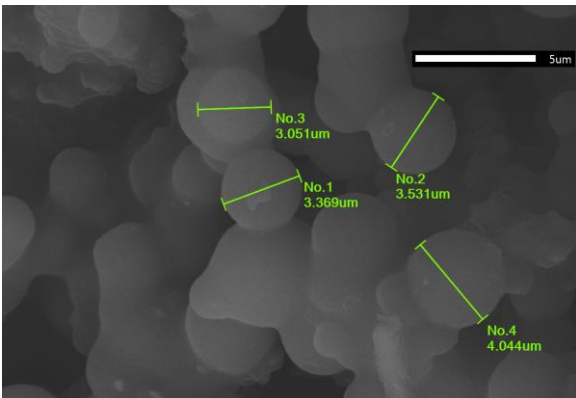
b. 180_3_0.15



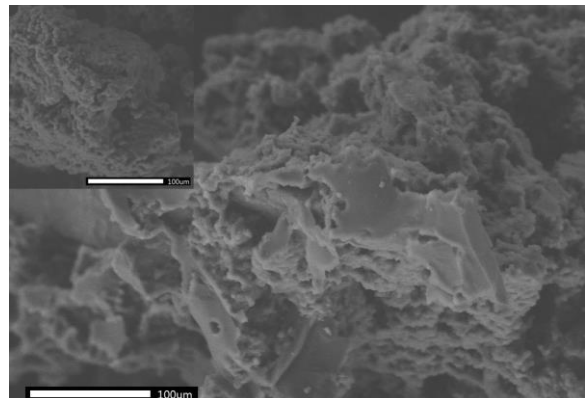
c. 240_3_0.15



d. 240_3_0.15_extracted

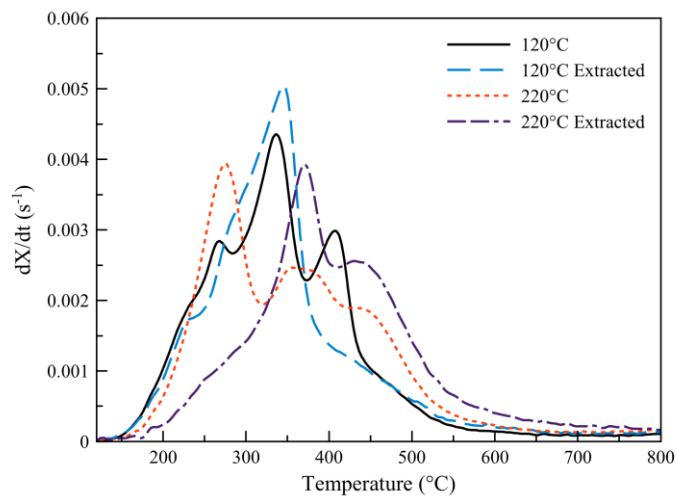


e. 280_3_0.15 (5000x magnification; scale bar = 5 μm to highlight secondary char spheres)

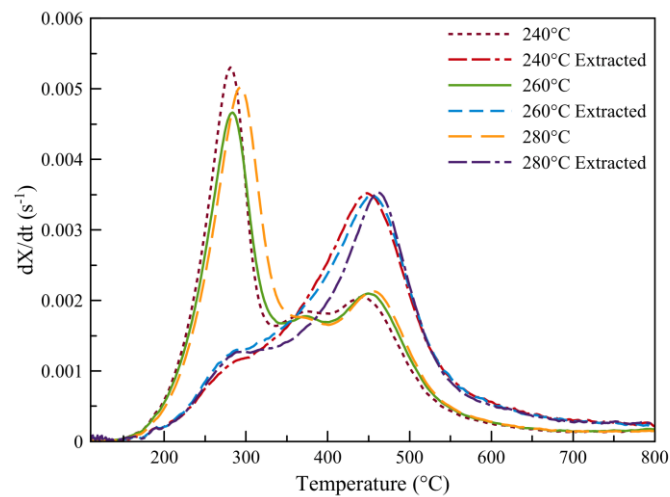


f. 280_3_0.15_extracted with inset image of 280_3_0.15 primary char

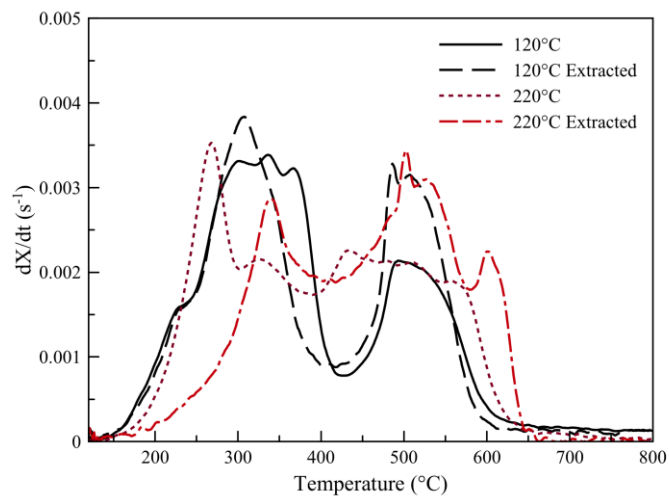
Figure 4. SEM images of OFMSW raw, hydrochars and extracted hydrochars at 250x magnification, scale bar = 100 μm



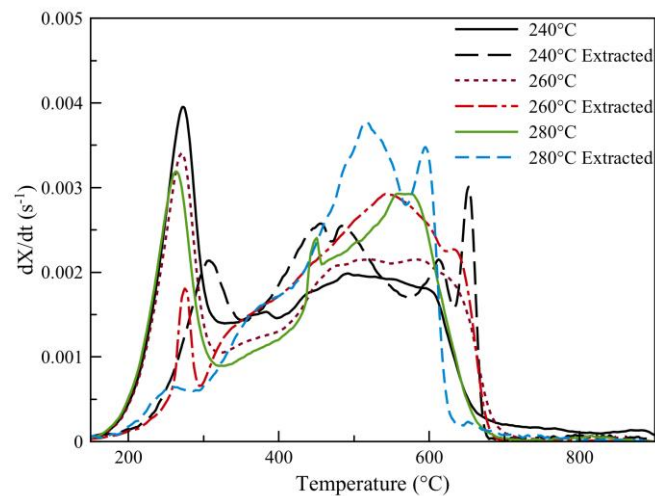
a. Low-temperature hydrochars in nitrogen, 50 °C/min



b. High-temperature hydrochars in nitrogen, 50 °C/min



c. Low-temperature hydrochars in air, 50 °C/min



d. High-temperature hydrochars in air, 50 °C/min

Figure 5. DTG curves of hydrochars prepared at B/W=0.15 over three hours between 120 and 280 °C, pre- and post- solvent extraction