

EFFECT OF TORREFACTION TEMPERATURE ON PROPERTIES OF PATULA PINE

Sergio Ramos^a, Juan F. Pérez^a, Manuel Raúl Pelaez-Samaniego^b, Rolando Barrera^c,
Manuel Garcia-Perez^d

^a Departamento de Ingeniería Mecánica, Facultad de Ingeniería, Universidad de Antioquia UdeA; Calle 70 No. 52-21, Medellín, Colombia

^b Faculty of Chemical Sciences, Universidad de Cuenca, Cuenca, Ecuador.

^c Grupo CERES, Departamento de Ingeniería Química, Facultad de Ingeniería, Universidad de Antioquia, Calle 70 No. 52-21, Medellín, Colombia

^d Department of Biological Systems Engineering, Washington State University, Pullman, WA, USA.

Corresponding author: juanpb@udea.edu.co

Received: February 20, 2016

Accepted: October 05, 2016

Posted online: October 06, 2016

ABSTRACT

The objective of this work was to study the effect of torrefaction temperature on properties of patula pine (*Pinus patula*) wood that could be of interest for further thermochemical processing. Torrefaction temperature was varied from 200 to 300 °C for 30 minutes using a batch spoon type reactor. Raw and torrefied materials were characterized for proximate and ultimate analyses, thermogravimetry, and pyrolysis gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (Py-GC/MS). Results showed that torrefied pine has greater higher heating value and chemical exergy due to the reduction of O/C and H/C ratios. Compared with raw biomass, the material torrefied at 200 and 250 °C did not present significant changes in chemical composition and thermal behavior. Conversely, material torrefied at 300 °C did show important changes in both chemical composition and thermal behavior. Py-GC/MS results suggested that the main constituents of biomass, i.e., hemicellulose, cellulose and lignin, suffer a progressive thermal degradation with increase in torrefaction temperature.

Keywords: Biomass, Chemical-energy properties, *Pinus patula*, pyrolysis, thermal degradation, thermochemical processes.

1. INTRODUCTION

Historically, wood has been a ubiquitous resource for manufacturing tools, ships, weapons, musical instruments, or for house-building, until less than a century ago. Wood has been at the same time a key fuel used worldwide. For instance, the fuel used for locomotion in the US during the 1850s was entirely

35 wood (Schurr and Netschert 1960) and currently there are several regions that still use abundant
36 amounts of wood as fuel, for example, for cooking (Iiyama et al. 2014). However, since approximately
37 the midst of the 19th century to the beginning of the 20th century, wood fuel has been progressively
38 substituted by fossil fuels in several countries. Despite this reduction of wood as fuel in some regions,
39 other structural and non-structural wood uses are unavoidable and global wood-derived products
40 utilization has been increasing. According to FAOSTAT, the decade from 2002 to 2012 showed an
41 impressive increase of the consumption of wood composites (e.g., by almost 200% in the case of
42 medium density fiberboard – MDF) and other wood-based products, accompanied by a slight decrease
43 in sawn-wood utilization (by approximately 5%) (FAOSAT 2014). This information evidences that an
44 important component of the global wood market is constituted by wood-composites, especially MDF
45 and particleboard.

46 Deforestation, growing wood demand, and environmental restrictions could affect future wood
47 availability, as observed in tropical countries since 2009 (International Tropical Timber Organization
48 (ITTO) 2012). Fast growing timber species and materials that today in several places are considered
49 “residues” are alternatives to timber. In Colombia, fast growing wood species such as patula pine (*Pinus*
50 *Patula*) present enormous energy prospective due to the existence of land potentially usable for
51 dedicated energy trees. The country has approximately 17 million hectares of land suitable for
52 reforestation (Pérez and Osorio 2014). Currently, these lands are poorly used as pastureland or they are
53 simply abandoned due to limited fertility. Thus, part of these lands have been seen as an opportunity for
54 planting trees for both commercial use and bioenergy production (Pérez and Osorio 2014). There are
55 evidences showing that lands not adequate for agricultural use offer potential for planting trees (Phalan
56 2009), without negatively impacting agricultural or pasture lands. Additionally, Colombia already
57 possesses large plantations of this wood species (approximately 55% of the forest planted area) (Ospina
58 et al. 2011). Small diameter pine trees and the corresponding cropping residues are expected to serve as
59 an important raw material for producing biofuels, bioenergy, and other bio-products (Quaak et al. 1999).

60 For an optimum use of fast growing wood species, pretreatment operations aiming at improving
61 some wood properties are required. The use of forest biomass for energy, chemicals, or biofuels,
62 requires pretreatment operations to increase energy content, reduce moisture, and increase bulk density
63 (Pelaez-Samaniego et al. 2013). Difficulty on hauling and processing lignocellulosic biomass in an
64 economical way is greatly limited by these critical properties. One of the recognized strategies for
65 improving these properties is torrefaction. Torrefaction is a mild thermochemical process conducted in

66 oxygen-free environments at temperatures ranging from 200 to 300 °C (Bridgeman et al. 2010, Chen
67 and Kuo 2010, Ibrahim et al. 2013, Phanphanich and Mani 2011, Xue et al. 2014). In this range of
68 temperatures, in addition to moisture and volatiles release, degradation of hemicelluloses occurs, while
69 cellulose is subjected to dehydration and both cellulose and lignin are subjected to partial
70 depolymerization (da Silva Grassmann et al. 2016, Pelaez-Samaniego et al. 2013).

71 Several works have extensively discussed about the advantages of torrefied wood. Arias et al. (2008)
72 studied the effect of temperature and residence time on the grindability of Eucaliptus as well as its
73 reactivity with air, using thermogravimetry. As expected, volatiles decreased when temperature
74 increased and the energy content (i.e., its higher heating value) and C content augmented. O content
75 decreased when time or torrefaction temperature increased, due to the formation of CO₂ and the
76 degradation of hemicelluloses. Grindability depended on the conditions of the process: the more severe
77 the conditions of the process, the better the degree of grindability. Repellin et al. (2010) studied the
78 effect of torrefaction of two types of biomass (spruce and beech) on power consumption during the
79 grinding operation. It was observed that power consumption decreased as a consequence of the thermal
80 treatment. Similar findings have been reported by Bridgeman et al. (2010).

81 The process of torrefaction alters the physical properties of biomass, reducing its bulk density and its
82 fibrous tenacious nature (da Silva Grassmann et al. 2016). This could allow increased rates of co-milling
83 and co-firing in coal fired power stations, which in turn would enable reduction of the amount of coal
84 used and an increase in the use of renewable fuels, without the need for additional infrastructure.
85 Phanphanich et al. (2011) y Chen et al. (2011) investigated the pulverization behavior of two torrefied
86 energy crops, namely: willow and Miscanthus. Results showed that the untreated fuels and materials
87 torrefied at low temperatures had very poor grindability behavior. However, more severe torrefaction
88 conditions caused the fuels to exhibit similar pulverization properties as coals. Medic et al. (2012) have
89 investigated the solid, liquid, and gas products of the torrefaction of corn stover with moisture content of
90 3, 22, and 41%. The temperature was varied from 200 to 300 °C and the residence time from 10 to 30
91 min. As in other types of materials (Pelaez-Samaniego et al. 2014), the yield of solids decreased when
92 the temperature of the process increased. This has been attributed to the degradation of hemicelluloses
93 and probably part of cellulose (Medic et al. 2012). Peláez-Samaniego et al. (2014) investigated the
94 influence of torrefaction conditions on amount, composition, molecular weight, and pattern of
95 deposition of lignin liquid intermediates (LLI). The authors mentioned that it is possible to control the
96 conditions of the torrefaction process to increase or decrease the amount of lignin liquid intermediates

97 on wood fibers surface, which could be of interest for pellets production and wood composites
98 manufacture. Another option is using torrefied wood for fast pyrolysis, as reported by Yang et al.
99 (2014). These authors conducted torrefaction of switchgrass at 230 and 270 °C prior to pyrolysis.
100 Results showed that torrefaction promotes increase of anhydrosugars and phenols in pyrolysis bio-oil.
101 Similar results have been obtained by Zheng et al. (2015), who studied the effect of wet and dry
102 torrefaction on chemical structure and pyrolysis behavior of corncob.

103 The mentioned works show that torrefaction, in addition to modifying critical properties of
104 lignocellulosic biomass, can serve as a strategy to pretreat this material for further thermochemical
105 operations. Therefore, information on the torrefaction process and the effects of softwood, such as
106 abundant patula pine in the Colombian highlands, will help to plan the use of low quality pine (e.g.,
107 small diameter trees) and softwood cropping residues. The objective of this study is to evaluate the
108 effect of torrefaction temperature on some properties of patula pine that are expected to impact further
109 processing as a fuel, as a raw material for thermochemical downstream operations, or for the production
110 of wood pellets.

111

112 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

113 **2.1. Materials**

114 The material used for torrefaction was patula pine, obtained from a commercial plantation located
115 nearby Medellín, Colombia. The selection of this wood species took into account the potential that it
116 offers as an abundant lignocellulosic material in Colombian highlands. Small diameter logs were
117 debarked before a chipping process. The wood sample was chipped using a BANDIT 95XP chipper,
118 then located on the floor (trying to keep a uniform thickness layer of chips) and dried at room conditions
119 during two weeks. Then, a representative amount of chips (approximately 2 kg) was collected and
120 ground, using a laboratory knife table mill, equipped with a 40-mesh sieve. The ground material was
121 then dried for 24 h at 105 °C prior torrefaction and prior to characterization of raw material properties.

122 **2.2. Methods**

123 Torrefaction of the patula pine (PPat) sample was carried out in a Lindberg Blue tube furnace (spoon
124 reactor, capacity of approximately 3 g of biomass per batch). The reactor is described in detail by Wang
125 et al. (2014). Three levels of temperature were selected for torrefaction: 200, 250, and 300 °C, and 30
126 minutes of residence time, following previous works (Pelaez-Samaniego et al. 2014, Phanphanich and
127 Mani 2011). The samples were coded as Raw (untreated material), and PPat200, PPat250, and PPat300,

128 for the materials torrefied at 200, 250, and 300 °C, respectively. The torrefaction process was conducted
129 in duplicates and, due to close yields, the averages of the results are reported.

130 2.3. Ultimate and proximate analyses

131 Elemental composition (CHNS) was determined using a LECO® TruSpec CHN instrument,
132 coupled with a LECO® 628S module (Pelaez-Samaniego et al. 2014). For CHN, approximately 0.13 g
133 of oven dry material were fed in the combustion chamber of the Truspec CHN module. The S content
134 was determined by using approximately 0.1 g of dried material, which was burned in the 628S module.
135 Details about the whole process can be found at (Pelaez-Samaniego et al. 2014). In all cases, the test was
136 replicated twice to verify results. Results of ash content were used to correct the results of elemental
137 composition of each material.

138 Ash content was determined following ASTM D1102-84 (reapproved 2007) for raw pine and using a
139 correction factor (i.e., mass yield) for torrefied material. Volatiles content was determined using
140 thermogravimetry (TGA), as suggested by previous works (García et al. 2013; Pelaez-Samaniego et al.
141 2014). Prior to TGA analysis, the torrefied materials were ground using the knife-mill already described.
142 Again, particles used for the test passed through a 40 mesh sieve. For the test, a TGA equipment
143 (TGA/SDTA851e, Mettler Toledo) was used. The heating rate was 10 °C/min and the temperature
144 varied from room conditions to 600 °C. Approximately 7 mg of material was employed in each case and
145 tests were conducted in duplicate to verify results.

146 2.4. Heating value and chemical exergy

147 The higher heating value (HHV) and chemical exergy (e^{ch}) of the initial material and torrefied
148 material was calculated using correlations that take into account the ultimate analysis (C, H, N, O and S)
149 in dry basis, following to Friedl et al. (2005) and Kotas (1995), respectively (Eqs. 1, 2, and 3). Equation
150 1 shows the calculus of HHV, while equations 2 and 3 show the estimation of e^{ch} .

$$HHV_{bms} (kJ/kg) = 3.55 \cdot C^2 - 232 \cdot C - 2230 \cdot H + 51.2 \cdot C \cdot H + 131 \cdot N + 20600 \quad (1)$$

$$e^{ch} (kJ/kg) = HHV_{bms} \cdot \lambda_{bms} + 9417 \cdot S \quad (2)$$

$$\lambda_{bms} = \frac{1.0438 + 0.1882 \cdot H/C - 0.2509 \cdot (1 + 0.7256 \cdot H/C) + 0.0383 \cdot N/C}{1 - 0.3035 \cdot O/C} \quad (3)$$

151 Where λ_{bms} is a dimensionless coefficient that relates the heating value and the chemical exergy of a
152 solid fuel (Kotas 1995), and C, H, N are the elemental composition (in wt.%).

153 2.5. Mass and energy yield

154 Mass and energy yield are important parameters used in torrefaction process as indicators of the mass
155 degradation and energy content changes due to the thermal pretreatment (Bridgeman et al., 2010). These
156 parameters are calculated according to Eqs. (4) and (5).

$$\text{Mass yield} = \frac{m_{bms,torr}}{m_{bms}} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Energy yield} = \frac{m_{bms,torr} \cdot HHV_{bms,torr}}{m_{bms} \cdot HHV_{bms}} \quad (5)$$

157
158 Where m_{bms} and $m_{bms,torr}$ are the masses and HHV_{bms} and $HHV_{bms,torr}$ are the higher heating values of
159 the raw and torrefied material, respectively. The energy yield is a measure of the energy content of the
160 torrefied biomass after the torrefaction process was carried out (Chen and Kuo 2010, Phanphanich and
161 Mani 2011, Prins et al. 2006a).

162 2.6. Py-GC/MS

163 Characterization of the untreated and torrefied materials was also carried out using pyrolysis gas
164 chromatography/mass spectrometry (Py-GC/MS). Py-GC/MS was performed using a GC/MS system
165 (6890N Network GC System with a 5975B inert XL MSD, from Agilent Technologies) coupled with a
166 CDS pyro-probe 5000 series (CDS Analytical, Inc). The tests were conducted in duplicate at 500 °C for
167 1 min, using ~0.5–0.8 mg of material. Compounds that showed the highest intensity in the pyrolysis
168 chromatograms were identified considering retention time, mass spectra, and comparison with database
169 of the NIST/EPA/NIH Mass Spectral Library V. 2.0d (Fair Com Corp). The areas of peaks were then
170 divided by the mass of the corresponding material for normalization of areas.

171 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

172 3.1. Mass and energy yield

173 Table 1 shows the mass and energy yields of raw and torrefied pine at different temperature
174 conditions. As expected, the mass yield of torrefied wood decreased when torrefaction temperature
175 increased. The mass yield for PPat200 and PPat250 was not reduced significantly compared with
176 PPat300 where the mass loss increased drastically. The mass loss during torrefaction results from the
177 drying process and the thermal degradation of low thermally stable wood constituents (Chen and Kuo
178 2010, Hill et al. 2013, Phanphanich and Mani 2011).

179
180
181

Table 1. Mass and energy yield of torrefied samples.

Sample	Mass yield (%)	Energy yield (%)
PPat 200	98.46	99.37
PPat 250	93.94	97.45
PPat 300	67.75	78.51

The energy yield for the torrefied patula pine decreases as the temperature of the torrefaction process increases as shown in Table 1. The mass loss increases from 1.54 to 32.25% and the heating value gain varies from 0.63 to 21.49%, depending on the temperature of torrefaction. However, the HHV of torrefied woods augments (Table 2), which is associated with the modification in their elemental compositions (e.g. ultimate analysis) during torrefaction process as described in the next section.

3.2. Proximate and ultimate analysis

Table 2 shows the proximate and ultimate analyses, higher heating values, and chemical exergies of the raw and torrefied materials. A slight effect on the proximate analysis was observed in material torrefied up to 250 °C, while a significant change occurs in material torrefied at 300 °C. At higher torrefaction temperature, volatile matter decreases while fixed carbon and ash contents increase. Similar results were reported by Pelaez-Samaniego et al. (2014) for ponderosa pine wood species. It is also observed that the carbon content gradually increases while oxygen content decreases as the torrefaction temperature is augmented. The hydrogen and nitrogen contents remain approximately constant at all levels of torrefaction temperature; this trend is attributed to the low mass concentration of these components in wood biomass. The chemical exergy of a fuel is a measure of the maximum potential that can be obtained as useful work (Kotas 1995). Thereby, the increase of exergy (as torrefaction temperature increases) leads to higher availability of useful work using torrefied biomass as feedstock for power plants or downstream thermochemical processes.

Figure 1 presents a Van Krevelen diagram, showing the decomposition progression of patula pine during torrefaction. The H/C and O/C atomic ratios decrease as torrefaction temperature increases. This is due to the release of volatile matter, constituted by non-condensable CO, CO₂ and condensable gases such as H₂O, CH₃OH, HCOOH and CH₃COOH. Volatiles have high H/C and O/C ratios, implying a reduction in the H/C and O/C atomic ratios of the remaining solid after torrefaction process (Deng et al. 2009, Nocquet et al. 2014, Prins et al. 2006b). Materials with higher heating value and low moisture content can benefit thermochemical processes such as combustion and gasification as the reaction temperatures in those processes can be increased (Pérez et al. 2012, Torres-Fuchslocher and Varas-Concha 2015). Other authors have reported results on the changes in biomass composition (at different

211 torrefaction conditions) that are consistent with the findings of this study (Bridgeman et al. 2010, da
 212 Silva Grassmann et al. 2016).

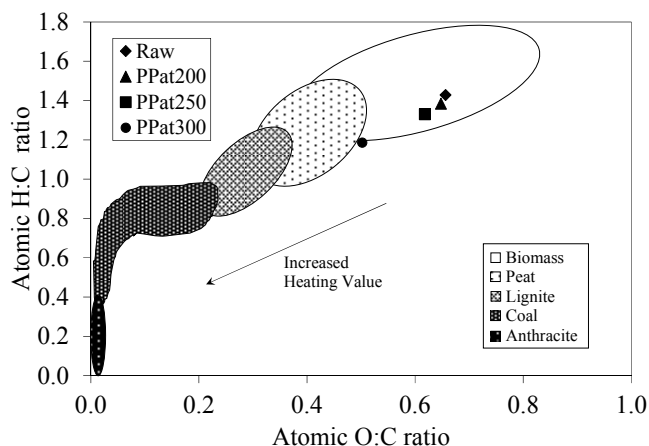
213

214 **Table 2.** Proximate and ultimate analysis of raw and torrefied samples.

Sample	Raw	PPat200	PPat250	PPat300
<i>Proximate analysis (wt. %, dry basis)</i>				
Volatile matter (VM)	81.12	79.53	80.82	70.65
Fixed carbon ^a (FC)	18.62	20.20	18.90	28.97
Ash	0.26	0.26	0.28	0.38
<i>Ultimate analysis (wt. %, dry basis)</i>				
C	49.95	50.33	51.46	56.24
H	5.94	5.80	5.70	5.56
N	0.14	0.13	0.15	0.15
O ^a	43.97	43.74	42.69	38.05
HHV _{db} (MJ/kg)	19.84	19.96	20.40	22.46
e ^{ch} (MJ/kg)	21.45	21.47	21.60	22.37

^a Calculated by difference

215



216

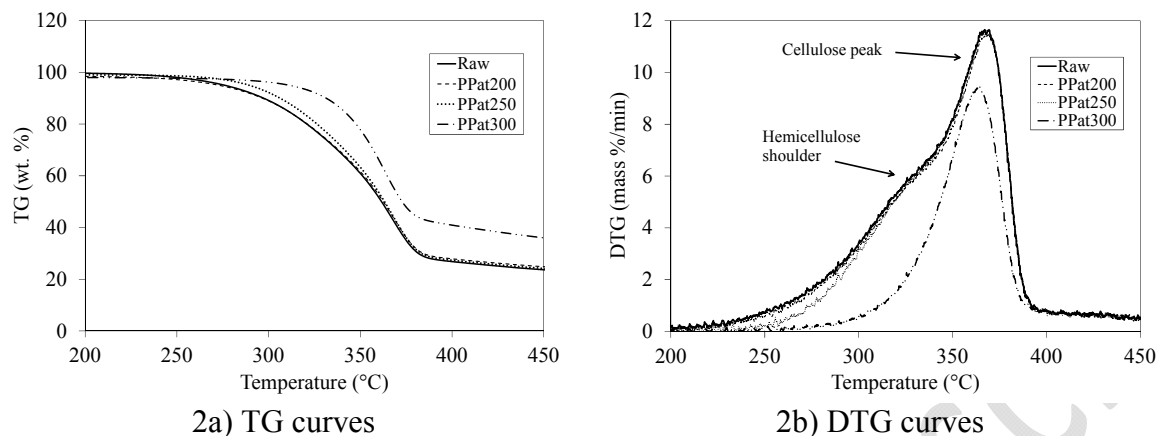
217 **Figure 1.** Van Krevelen diagram of raw and torrefied biomass.

218

219 **3.3. DTG results**

220 Figure 2 shows the TG and DTG curves of the raw and torrefied PPat to evaluate the effect of
 221 torrefaction process. The curves for torrefied material (PPat200, PPat250 and PPat300) have been
 222 multiplied for the mass yield reported in Table 1 in order to obtain the same basis (raw) for comparison
 223 purposes, following the process of Pelaez-Samaniego et al. (2014). TG curves (Figure 2a) shows that
 224 thermal stability slightly increases as torrefaction temperature increases; which is due to lower amount
 225 of volatile matter in torrefied biomass (see Table 2). It is evident that material torrefied at higher

226 temperature (300 °C) shows better thermal stability than the other tested materials (its degradation starts
 227 at approximately 320 °C).



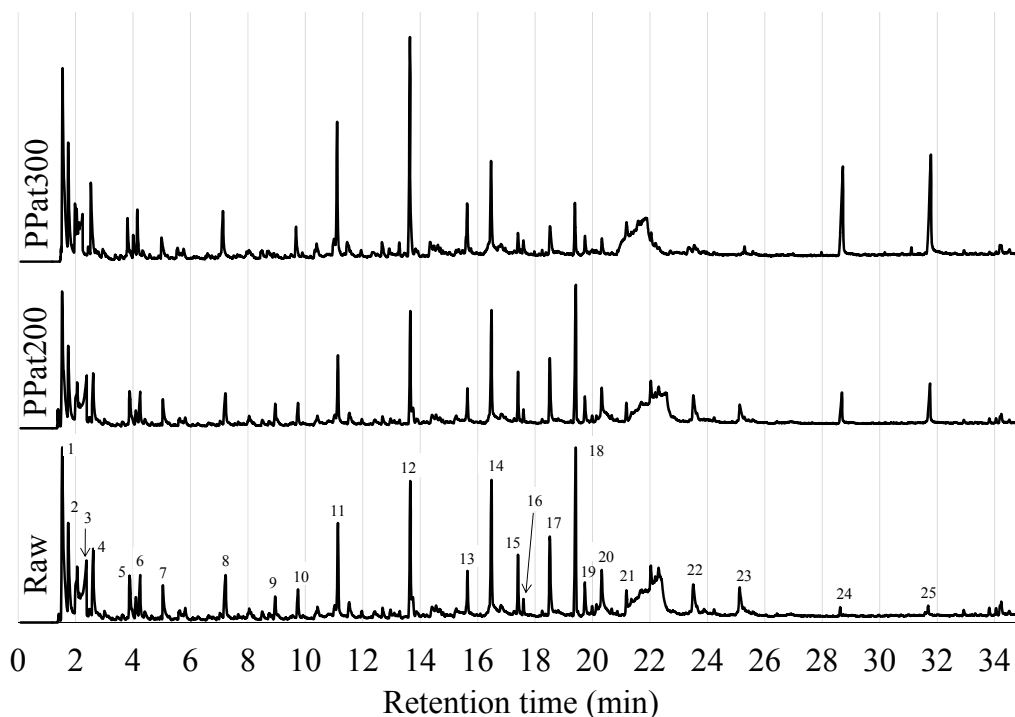
228 **Figure 2.** DTG curves of raw and torrefied samples at different temperatures.
 229

230 Figure 2b shows the DTG curves. It can be seen that there is not significant change in biomass
 231 torrefied up to 250 °C. Raw pine, PPat200 and PPat250 exhibit a shoulder, which can be related with the
 232 presence of hemicelluloses. Absence of this shoulder in the TG curve of material torrefied at 300 °C
 233 could be explained in part by the partial removal of hemicelluloses during torrefaction at this
 234 temperature. The large peak at around 370 °C, in all cases, can be related with the degradation of
 235 cellulose (Chen and Kuo 2010, Park et al. 2013, Pelaez-Samaniego et al. 2014). The thermal stability of
 236 the samples is consistent with the proximate and ultimate analyses in Table 2, where no major changes
 237 were observed on chemical composition of the raw material and the samples of material torrefied at 200
 238 and 250 °C. Additionally, the peak corresponding to cellulose degradation was affected during
 239 torrefaction but its position (365 °C) did not change visibly. This behavior might indicate that the
 240 structural characteristics of cellulose fraction of patula pine was preserved after torrefaction process
 241 (Park et al. 2013).

242 3.4. Py-GC/MS

243 Since the results of DTG and the proximate and ultimate analyses (Table 2) suggest that the PPat200
 244 and PPat250 samples show quite similar composition and thermal stability, we used an additional
 245 technique, Py-GC/MS to indirectly determine if, in fact, the composition of the materials has changed as
 246 a result of torrefaction. Py-GC/MS allowed the determination of the main products of the pyrolysis of
 247 the raw and torrefied materials. Figure 3 and Table 3 show the compounds resulting from the pyrolysis

248 of each material. These compounds were classified as acids, ketones, furans, nitrogen-containing
 249 compound, sugars and phenols according to their chemical functional groups (Zhang et al. 2015).



250
 251 **Figure 3.** Chromatograms of the raw and torrefied materials.
 252

253 **Table 3.** Identification of the main compounds found in the Py-GC/MS chromatograms and their
 254 area/mass ratio.

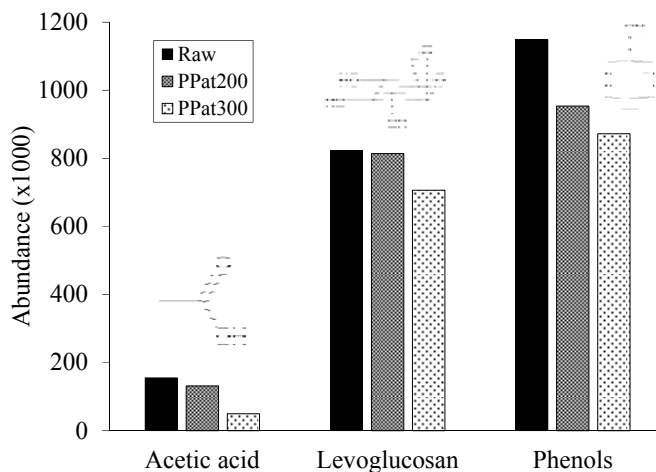
RT	m/z	Formula	Compound	Area/mass		
				Raw	PPat200	PPat300
<i>Acids</i>						
2.43	43	C ₂ H ₄ O ₂	Acetic acid	155406	131242	49585
28.68	73	C ₁₆ H ₃₂ O ₂	n-Hexadecanoic acid	74136	74136	179492
31.75	43	C ₁₈ H ₃₆ O ₂	Octadecanoic acid	94661	94661	217106
Total				324202	300038	446183
<i>Ketones</i>						
2.66	43	C ₃ H ₆ O ₂	2-Propanone, 1-hydroxy-	91240	84480	93957
7.33	98	C ₅ H ₆ O ₂	2-Cyclopenten-1-one, 2-hydroxy-	66704	60897	70513
9.76	112	C ₆ H ₈ O ₂	1,2-Cyclopentanedione, 3-methyl-	45474	36005	47639
3.89	43	C ₄ H ₈ O ₃	1,2-Ethandiol, monoacetate	60789	46165	46409
Total				264207	227547	258518
<i>Furans</i>						
5.05	96	C ₅ H ₄ O ₂	Furfural	43340	44411	43733
Total				43340	44411	43733

<i>Esters</i>						
1.8	43	C ₅ H ₈ O ₂	1-Propen-2-ol, acetate	130609	102551	129055
4.25	43	C ₄ H ₆ O ₃	Propanoic acid, 2-oxo-, methyl ester	54736	42607	59207
Total				185346	145158	188262
<i>Nitrogen-containing compounds</i>						
8.95	114	C ₈ H ₁₇ NO	Oxazolidine, 2,2-diethyl-3-methyl-	29923	28720	0
Total				29923	28720	0
<i>Sugars</i>						
21.33	60	C ₆ H ₁₀ O ₅	Levoglucosan	823508	814179	706676
Total				823508	814179	706676
<i>Phenols</i>						
11.28	109	C ₇ H ₈ O ₂	Phenol, 2-methoxy-	104292	79954	141905
13.6	123	C ₈ H ₁₀ O ₂	Phenol, 2-methoxy-4-methyl-	135393	111258	252044
15.65	137	C ₉ H ₁₂ O ₂	Phenol, 4-ethyl-2-methoxy-	45189	37766	68296
16.47	135	C ₉ H ₁₀ O ₂	2-Methoxy-4-vinylphenol	158860	131233	136737
17.4	164	C ₁₀ H ₁₂ O ₂	Eugenol	65973	54450	37899
17.65	137	C ₁₀ H ₁₄ O ₂	Phenol, 2-methoxy-4-propyl-	24619	18469	26438
18.53	152	C ₈ H ₈ O ₃	Vanillin	119131	98610	71676
19.55	164	C ₁₀ H ₁₂ O ₂	Phenol, 2-methoxy-4-(1-propenyl)-, (E)-	184856	156604	67096
19.73	137	C ₁₀ H ₁₄ O ₂	Phenol, 2-methoxy-4-propyl-	56392	44965	34565
20.31	151	C ₉ H ₁₀ O ₃	Ethanone, 1-(4-hydroxy-3-methoxyphenyl)-	75392	71623	35945
23.53	137	C ₉ H ₁₀ O ₄	Vanillic acid	99430	87774	0
25.12	178	C ₁₀ H ₁₀ O ₃	4-Hydroxy-2-methoxycinnamaldehyde	79658	61321	0
Total				1149185	954027	872601
<i>Others</i>						
1.57	44	CO ₂	Carbon Dioxide	314536	248343	335355
Total				314536	248343	335355

255

256 Acetic acid, levoglucosan and phenols are the most abundant compounds and the main
 257 decomposition products from the pyrolysis of hemicellulose, cellulose and lignin, respectively (Klinger
 258 et al. 2015; Pelaez-Samaniego et al. 2014; Yang et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2015). Figure 4 shows the
 259 abundance of acetic acid, levoglucosan and phenols for raw and torrefied pine. It can be seen that the
 260 abundance of the three compounds decreases with torrefaction temperature. According to Zheng et al.
 261 (2015), the reduction in the acetic acid may be due to the elimination reaction of acetyl groups in
 262 hemicellulose structure. The thermal degradation of cellulose and some thermally unstable lignin
 263 compounds results in the decrease on the abundances of levoglucosan and phenols, respectively. This
 264 behavior is accentuated with the increase of the torrefaction temperature. The progressive reduction in

265 the abundance of levoglucosan and phenols suggests that: a) cellulose is subjected to different degrees of
 266 degradation, mainly to the decomposition of the amorphous fraction, and b) the thermal degradation of
 267 lignin occurs in a wide temperature range (Pétrissans et al. 2014, Chen and Kuo 2010, Wang et al.
 268 2014).
 269



270
 271 **Figure 4.** Effect of torrefaction on abundance of acetic acid, levoglucosan and phenols (PyGC/MS).
 272

273 The upgrading process of wood biomass via torrefaction leads to a feedstock with lower moisture
 274 content and reduced amount of light weight volatiles and hemicellulose in its structure. It is also
 275 expected that the torrefied biomass subjected to thermochemical processes such as fast pyrolysis will
 276 produce high quality products (e.g., pyrolysis bio-oil) than the corresponding untreated material. This
 277 improvement in bio-oil quality is because the bio-oil from a torrefied material is not plenty of water and
 278 light weight compounds since these were released during the torrefaction process (Yang et al. 2014,
 279 Zheng et al. 2015).

280 4. CONCLUSIONS

281 Torrefaction of patula pine promotes mass loss ranging from 1.5 to 32.2 wt. %, depending on the
 282 temperature of the process. This is due to the drying process and thermal decomposition of low-
 283 molecular weight components of wood biomass. For PPat300, the higher heating value and chemical
 284 exergy increase up to 13.2% and 4.29% respectively, which is due to the reduction of O/C and H/C
 285 ratios. The found trends in molar ratios are due the H content reduction and/or by C increment with
 286 torrefaction temperature. The mass loss prevails more than the increment of heating value of torrefied
 287 biomass. Therefore, the energy content tends to diminish with torrefaction temperature. Pretreated
 288 biomasses at 200 and 250 °C do not present major changes in chemical composition and thermal

289 behavior. In material torrefied at 300 °C, the volatile matter decreases by 13% while fixed carbon and
290 ash contents increase by 55.6% and 41.6%, respectively. The use of torrefied wood as feedstock for
291 thermochemical processing (e.g., fast pyrolysis and gasification) and production of pellets offers an
292 important strategy for improving the quality of both the product. In the case of Colombia, torrefaction is
293 a promising strategy for integration of technologies that allow a complete use of patula pine. Due to the
294 potential of patula pine, this study could positively impact planning and management of this important
295 wood source in the country.

296 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

297 The authors acknowledge Universidad de Antioquia for the financial support of this research
298 through the project “Estrategias de integración de la madera plantada en Colombia en conceptos de
299 biorrefinería termoquímica: Análisis termodinámico y caracterización de bioproductos – PRG 2014-
300 1016” and the Universidad de Antioquia for financial support through the project “Sostenibilidad 2014-
301 2015”.

302 REFERENCES

- 303 **Pétrissans, A.; Younsi, R.M.; Chaouch, P.; Gérardin, M.P. 2014.** Wood thermodegradation:
304 experimental analysis and modeling of mass loss kinetics. *Maderas-Cienc Tecnol* 16:133–148.
- 305 **Arias, B.; Pevida, C.; Feroso, J.; Plaza, M.G.; Rubiera, F.; Pis, J.J. 2008.** Influence of torrefaction
306 on the grindability and reactivity of woody biomass. *Fuel Process Technol* 89:169–175.
- 307 **Bridgeman, T.G.; Jones, J.M.; Williams, A.; Waldron, D.J. 2010.** An investigation of the
308 grindability of two torrefied energy crops. *Fuel* 89: 3911–3918.
- 309 **Chen, W.H.; Cheng, W.Y.; Lu, K.M.; Huang, Y.P. 2011.** An evaluation on improvement of
310 pulverized biomass property for solid fuel through torrefaction. *Appl Energy* 88: 3636–3644.
- 311 **Chen, W.H.; Kuo, P.C. 2010.** A study on torrefaction of various biomass materials and its impact on
312 lignocellulosic structure simulated by a thermogravimetry. *Energy* 35:2580–2586.
- 313 **da Silva Grassmann, G.; Rogério-Andrade, C.; Dias-Júnior, A.F.; Gomes-da Silva, F.; Brito, J.O.**
314 **2016.** Timber wastes torrefaction for energy use. *Maderas-Cienc Tecnol* 18(1):0–0.
315 doi:10.4067/S0718-221X2016005000011
- 316 **Deng, J.; Wang, G.J.; Kuang, J.H.; Zhang, Y.L.; Luo, Y.H. 2009.** Pretreatment of agricultural
317 residues for co-gasification via torrefaction. *J Anal Appl Pyrolysis* 86: 331–337.
- 318 **FAOSAT. 2014.** Global production of wood and wood derived products 2001-2012.
- 319 **Friedl, A.; Padouvas, E.; Rotter, H.; Varmuza, K. 2005.** Prediction of heating values of biomass fuel

- 320 from elemental composition. *Anal Chim Acta* 544: 191–198.
- 321 **García, R.; Pizarro, C.; Lavín, A.G.; Bueno, J.L. 2013.** Biomass proximate analysis using
322 thermogravimetry. *Bioresour Technol* 139:1–4.
- 323 **Hill, S.J.; Grigsby, W.J.; Hall, P.W. 2013.** Chemical and cellulose crystallite changes in *Pinus radiata*
324 during torrefaction. *Biomass and Bioenergy* 56: 92–98.
- 325 **Ibrahim, R.H.H.; Darvell, L.I.; Jones, J.M.; Williams, A. 2013.** Physicochemical characterisation of
326 torrefied biomass. *J Anal Appl Pyrolysis* 103: 21–30.
- 327 **Iiyama, M.; Neufeldt, H.; Dobie, P.; Njenga, M.; Ndegwa, G.; Jamnadass, R. 2014.** The potential of
328 agroforestry in the provision of sustainable woodfuel in sub-Saharan Africa. *Curr Opin Environ*
329 *Sustain* 6: 138–147.
- 330 **ITTO. 2012.** International Tropical Timber Organization. ITTO annual report 2012.
- 331 **Klinger, J.; Bar-Ziv, E.; Shonnard, D. 2015.** Unified kinetic model for torrefaction–pyrolysis. *Fuel*
332 *Process Technol* 138: 175–183.
- 333 **Kotas, T.J. 1995.** *The exergy method of thermal plant analysis*. Krieger Publishing Company, Boston.
- 334 **Medic, D.; Darr, M.; Shah, A.; Potter, B.; Zimmerman, J. 2012.** Effects of torrefaction process
335 parameters on biomass feedstock upgrading. *Fuel* 91: 147–154.
- 336 **Nocquet, T.; Dupont, C.; Commandre, J.M.; Grateau, M.; Thiery, S.; Salvador, S. 2014.** Volatile
337 species release during torrefaction of wood and its macromolecular constituents: Part 1 -
338 Experimental study. *Energy* 72: 180–187.
- 339 **Ospina, C.; Hernández, R.; Restrepo, E.; Sánchez, F.; Urrego, J.; Rondas, C.; Ramírez, C.; Riaño,
340 N. 2011.** El Pino pátula. Manizales.
- 341 **Park, J.; Meng, J.; Lim, K.H.; Rojas, O.J.; Park, S. 2013.** Transformation of lignocellulosic biomass
342 during torrefaction. *J Anal Appl Pyrolysis* 100: 199–206.
- 343 **Pelaez-Samaniego, M.R.; Yadama, V.; Garcia-Perez, M.; Lowell, E.; McDonald, A.G. 2014.** Effect
344 of temperature during wood torrefaction on the formation of lignin liquid intermediates. *J Anal*
345 *Appl Pyrolysis* 109: 222–233.
- 346 **Pelaez-Samaniego, M.R.; Yadama, V.; Lowell, E.; Espinoza-Herrera, R. 2013.** A review of wood
347 thermal pretreatments to improve wood composite properties. *Wood Sci Technol* 47: 1285–1319.
- 348 **Pérez, J.F.; Melgar, A.; Benjumea, P.N. 2012.** Effect of operating and design parameters on the
349 gasification/combustion process of waste biomass in fixed bed downdraft reactors: An
350 experimental study. *Fuel* 96: 487–496.

- 351 **Pérez, J.F.; Osorio, L.F. 2014.** Biomasa forestal como alternativa energética: Análisis silvicultural,
352 técnico y financiero de proyectos. Universidad de Antioquia, Medellín.
- 353 **Phalan, B. 2009.** The social and environmental impacts of biofuels in Asia: An overview. *Appl Energy*
354 86: S21–S29.
- 355 **Phanphanich, M.; Mani, S. 2011.** Impact of torrefaction on the grindability and fuel characteristics of
356 forest biomass. *Bioresour Technol* 102: 1246–1253.
- 357 **Prins, M.J.; Ptasinski, K.J.; Janssen, F.J.J.G. 2006a.** Torrefaction of wood. Part 2. Analysis of
358 products. *J Anal Appl Pyrolysis* 77: 35–40.
- 359 **Prins, M.J.; Ptasinski, K.J.; Janssen, F.J.J.G. 2006b.** Torrefaction of wood. Part 1. Weight loss
360 kinetics. *J Anal Appl Pyrolysis* 77: 28–34.
- 361 **Quaak, P.; Knoef, H.; Stassen, H. 1999.** Energy from biomass: A review of combustion and
362 gasification technologies. World Bank Technical Paper N° 422.
- 363 **Repellin, V.; Govin, A.; Rolland, M.; Guyonnet, R. 2010.** Energy requirement for fine grinding of
364 torrefied wood. *Biomass and Bioenergy* 34: 923–930.
- 365 **Schurr, S.H.; Netschert, B.C. 1960.** *Energy in the American Economy, 1850-1975: An economic study*
366 *of its history and prospects.* Johns Hopkins Press.
- 367 **Torres-Fuchslocher, C.; Varas-Concha, F. 2015.** Design and efficiency of a small-scale woodchip
368 furnace. *Maderas-Cienc Tecnol* 17: 355–364.
- 369 **Wang, Z.; Pecha, B.; Westerhof, R.J.M.; Kersten, S.R. A.; Li, C.Z.; McDonald, A.G.; Garcia-**
370 **Perez, M. 2014.** Effect of cellulose crystallinity on solid/liquid phase reactions responsible for the
371 formation of carbonaceous residues during pyrolysis. *Ind Eng Chem Res* 53: 2940–2955.
- 372 **Xue, G.; Kwapinska, M.; Kwapinski, W.; Czajka, K.M.; Kennedy, J.; Leahy, J.J. 2014.** Impact of
373 torrefaction on properties of *Miscanthus × giganteus* relevant to gasification. *Fuel* 121: 189–197.
- 374 **Yang, Z.; Sarkar, M.; Kumar, A.; Tumuluru, J.S.; Huhnke, R.L. 2014.** Effects of torrefaction and
375 densification on switchgrass pyrolysis products. *Bioresour Technol* 174: 266–273.
- 376 **Zhang, S.; Dong, Q.; Zhang, L.; Xiong, Y. 2016.** Effects of water washing and torrefaction on the
377 pyrolysis behavior and kinetics of rice husk through TGA and Py-GC/MS. *Bioresour Technol* 199:
378 352–361.
- 379 **Zheng, A.; Zhao, Z.; Chang, S.; Huang, Z.; Wang, X.; He, F.; Li, H. 2015.** Comparison of the effect
380 of wet and dry torrefaction on chemical structure and pyrolysis behavior of corncobs. *Bioresour*
381 *Technol* 176: 15–22.