

# 1 Utilisation of Poultry Litter as an 2 Energy Feedstock

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16 **Abstract**

17 This paper examines poultry litter (PL) as a resource in fuel quality terms and illustrates  
18 how the small scale application of fluidised bed technology solves both energy and  
19 waste problems, while producing a nutrient rich ash. PL was found to have a higher  
20 heating value (HHV) of  $18 \text{ GJ t}^{-1}$  on a dry basis (db). On an as received basis (ar), it had  
21 an ash mass fraction of 9 % and the elemental phosphorous content of the ash was  $110 \text{ g}$   
22  $\text{kg}^{-1}$ . The resultant mineral matter can be utilised as a nutrient substitute for mineral  
23 fertiliser.

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27 **Keywords:** Energy, poultry litter, phosphorous, fluidised bed combustion.

## 28 **1 Introduction**

29

### 30 **1.1 Background:**

31 Approximately 56 billion land animals are raised and slaughtered worldwide each year  
32 for human consumption [1] and livestock inventories are expected to double by 2050,  
33 mostly in developing countries [2].

34 The growing demand for animal protein products has led to the intensification of the  
35 agricultural industry, leading to the birth of the so called “factory farm” or “CAFO”  
36 (concentrated animal feeding operation). These farms allow meat and eggs to be  
37 produced at a much lower cost than traditional methods. The animals on these farms are  
38 usually confined for most of their life span, under increased stocking densities, leading  
39 to large volumes of excreta being accumulated in concentrated areas.

40 Manure generated from CAFOs consists of both solid and liquid fractions. The solid  
41 fraction mainly consists of faeces and bedding material recovered from the floor of the  
42 houses while the liquid contains a mixture of water, urine and soluble faecal  
43 components, and is drained through gutters [3, 4]. This manure is considered an  
44 industrial waste and must be managed in an environmentally responsible way [5].

45 Animal excreta are high in nutrients such as nitrogen, phosphorous, potassium, calcium  
46 and sulphur, and as such, are generally spread on land as an organic fertiliser.

47 However, manure production from CAFOs is often greater than local crop and proximal  
48 pastureland nutrient requirements. Over-application of manure can lead to  
49 eutrophication, nitrate leaching, high biological oxygen demand (BOD), ammonia  
50 toxicity, high chlorine concentrations, pathogen contamination, nuisances (e.g. flies and

51 odours), crop toxicity (due to high concentrations of ammonia, nitrite, nitrate and  
52 soluble salts), fish kills and human and animal health impacts [6].

53

### 54 ***1.2 Phosphorous Recovery:***

55 Phosphorous (P) is perhaps the most important nutrient in animal manure, not only due  
56 to its agronomic benefit, but also its status as a non-renewable resource. Current global  
57 reserves may be depleted within 50 - 100 years [7]. The merging of food and fuel  
58 economies has seen an increased demand for mineral P fertiliser, and its price increased  
59 by over 200 % in 2007 [8]. The expected global peak in phosphorus production is  
60 predicted to occur around 2030. The quality of remaining phosphate rock is decreasing  
61 due to some trace element impurities; while production costs are also increasing as  
62 removing these impurities generates hazardous waste and may require high energy input  
63 [7-9].

64

### 65 ***1.3 Poultry Litter:***

66 Poultry litter is one of the drier and bulkier manures produced in intensive agriculture. It  
67 consists of a mix of bedding material, excreta, waste feed and feathers. Bird mortalities  
68 may also be present, however under EU Regulation 1774/2002 [10] these must be  
69 removed and disposed of separately. According to Szogi & Vanotti [8], recoverable P  
70 from poultry litter is about 39 % of the total recoverable P from all animal manures in  
71 the U.S. because of its high P concentration with respect to other manures. Phosphorous  
72 in poultry litter is present as both solid phase organic P and inorganic P (2:1), it can  
73 vary with diet and husbandry practices, and has a reported mass fraction range of 0.3 %

74 – 2.4 % on a dry basis [11, 12]. However, this P is largely present in the acid soluble  
75 fraction, limiting its bioavailability [13].

76 A total of 18 billion meat chickens were slaughtered in Europe and the USA in 2009  
77 [1]. Using the calculation of 1.4 t of litter per 1000 birds, this amounts to a reserve of  
78 litter of 25,000,000 t as received (moisture unspecified) in the USA and Europe  
79 combined in a single year.

80 Agriculture is the single largest source of waste in Ireland. According to the EPA  
81 National Waste Database, of a total of 85,256,685 t of waste generated in 2004,  
82 60,170,025 t (70.6 %) were generated in a managed environment from agriculture.  
83 Poultry litter represented 0.3 % (172,435 t) of the total managed agricultural waste  
84 produced in 2004 [14]. The majority of the litter generated was derived from chicken  
85 (broiler) production [15].

86

#### 87 ***1.4 Poultry Production:***

88 In northern and temperate climates, temperature control in the initial stages of broiler  
89 production is paramount and involves the use of an external heat supply for the first four  
90 weeks of the production cycle. The requirement for heat is normally reduced in the later  
91 stages of the cycle. Typically, fossil fuels (such as propane or diesel) are used to heat  
92 the poultry houses directly. Rising energy costs have led to some farmers reducing  
93 ventilation of the sheds as a cost saving measure. This can be detrimental to bird health  
94 as it can increase the moisture content of the litter, leading to hock burn and dermatitis  
95 and can also lead to the build up of harmful emissions such as ammonia and carbon  
96 monoxide, increasing bird mortality [16, 17].

97 **1.5 Poultry Litter as a Fuel:**

98 Poultry litter is recognised as a biomass fuel, and is generally a free-flowing, granular  
99 material, with a consistency and physical appearance similar to a mixture of wood chips  
100 and sawdust. It can vary from wet compacted manure to a dry dusty powder. It is  
101 generally recognised as a low value fuel due to its relatively high moisture and ash  
102 contents. The moisture content of poultry litter is highly variable and this impacts on the  
103 homogeneity and the lower heating value (LHV) of the fuel, which can range from 9 GJ  
104  $\text{t}^{-1}$  – 13 GJ  $\text{t}^{-1}$  [18, 19]. The use of poultry litter as an alternative fuel source on a large  
105 scale basis has been carried out since Fibropower opened their poultry litter-fired power  
106 plant, at Eye in Suffolk UK in November 1993 [6].

107 Use of poultry litter as a combustion fuel concentrates the nutrients of the litter in an  
108 inorganic, sterile form. Nitrogen is lost during combustion, however; phosphorous and  
109 potassium are both retained, as well as several other macro and micro nutrients.

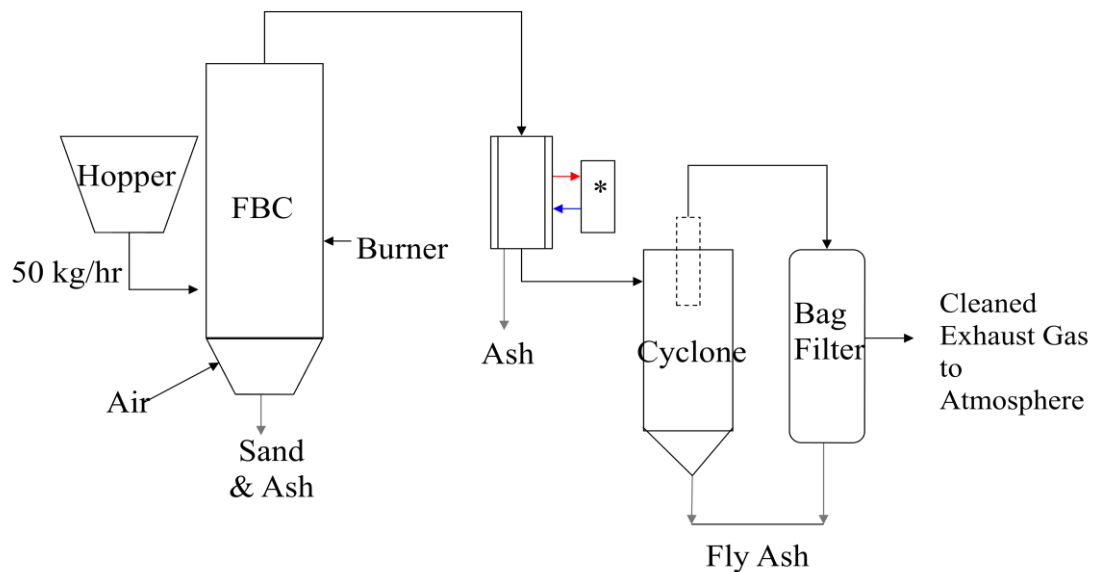
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111 **1.6 Fluidised Bed Combustion of Poultry Litter:**

112 For the purpose of this research a 200 kW atmospheric bubbling fluidised bed  
113 combustion (FBC) unit was employed. FBC technology was selected as it is well  
114 documented as being suitable for low value fuels such as poultry litter [6, 20, 21]. The  
115 unit used in this work was a commercial unit, operated by Biomass Heating Solutions  
116 Ltd., Ireland. The FBC was located adjacent to a broiler operation and as such the litter  
117 did not leave the site of production. The design of the FBC made it suited to on-site  
118 location for small scale operations (30,000 birds) which are common across Ireland. A

119 schematic of the FBC is shown in Figure 1. The resultant ash was collected via a series  
120 of heat exchangers, a cyclone and a bag house filter.

121 Fluidised bed combustors have been shown to be a versatile technology capable of  
122 burning practically any fuel or biofuel combination while producing low emissions [22].



\* Heat exchanger connected to buffer tank and poultry houses

123

124 **Figure 1: Schematic of Process**

125

### 126 **1.7 Overview:**

127 This paper examines the suitability of poultry litter for use in FBC technology in terms  
128 of its basic fuel characteristics. It is clear that managed agriculture faces many  
129 problems, primarily energy generation and waste disposal. This paper shows how the  
130 small scale application of FBC technology can solve both energy and waste problems,  
131 and create an additional revenue stream in the form of a mineral rich ash suited for  
132 fertiliser substitution.

## 133 **2 Materials and Methods**

134 Poultry litter samples were collected from broiler production facilities, following the  
135 guidelines of BS EN 14778:2011, 'Solid biofuels – Sampling '[23], and prepared  
136 according to BS EN 14780:2011, 'Solid biofuels – Sample preparation'[24].

137 The methodology for testing poultry litter followed the standards set out under CEN TC  
138 335. Moisture content was determined by the weight loss of the sample at 105 °C [25];  
139 ash by the weight loss at 550 °C under a controlled heating regime [26], and volatiles  
140 via the weight loss at 900 °C [27]. Fixed carbon was determined by calculation. Carbon,  
141 hydrogen, nitrogen and sulphur were determined using an elemental analyser -  
142 Elementar Vario EL CUBE [28]. Chlorine content was determined using Ion  
143 Chromatography (IC) [29]. Samples for Cl determination were generated via  
144 combustion in a Parr 6200 oxygen bomb calorimeter. Higher heating value (HHV) was  
145 determined simultaneously [30].

146 Due to the heterogeneity of poultry litter numerous (30) samples were analysed to  
147 establish the fuel properties.

148 Elemental content of the ash was determined using ICP/OES and ICP/MS [31, 32],  
149 sulphur content was determined via combustion [29] and neutralising value via titration.

150 Microbial counts on the ash were conducted by placing 1 g of ash in a flask containing  
151 99 ml of sterile Ringers Lactate solution. Serial dilutions were then carried out to  $10^{-5}$ . 1  
152 ml of liquid was spread on Plate Count Agar (PCA) plates and these were incubated at  
153 37°C for 72hrs [33]. Tests were conducted in triplicate and read at 24 and 72 hours.



154 **3 Results and Discussion**

155 **3.1 Feed stock characterisation**

156 **3.1.1 Proximate analysis**

157 The average results obtained for the proximate analysis of poultry litter with wood  
158 shavings (*Picea abies* and *Pinus sylvestris*) as the bedding material are presented in  
159 Table 1. The data is presented on an as-received (ar) and on a dry weight basis (db). For  
160 comparison, results from literature are also given. The wood shavings used were kiln  
161 dried and milled from imported Finnish softwoods (redwood and whitewood), sold in  
162 25 kg bales as animal bedding from a local distributor.

163 **Table 1: Proximate Analysis of Poultry Litter and other Fuels**

<b>Proximate</b>				<b>Std</b>	<b>Wood</b>	<b>Poultry</b>	<b>Poultry</b>				
<b>Analysis</b>	<b>Units</b>	<b>Result</b>	<b>Range</b>	<b>Dev</b>	<b>Shavings</b>	<b>Litter<sup>1</sup></b>	<b>Litter<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>Miscanthus<sup>3</sup></b>	<b>MSW<sup>5</sup></b>	<b>Peat<sup>4</sup></b>	<b>Coal<sup>4</sup></b>
Moisture Content	% (ar)	41.82	18.68 - 51.8	8.88	49.69	10.47	9.29	11.5	n/a	14.6	5.5
Ash Content	% (ar)	9.13	5.95 - 15.15	1.98	0.23	35.08	34.28	2.5	n/a	3.3	19.8
Volatile Matter	% (ar)	41.9	35.01 - 56.83	5.98	44.13	48.31	43.48	59.12	n/a	57.8	30.8
Fixed Carbon	% (ar)	7.81	5.03 - 11.72	1.61	5.95	n/a	13.06	14.07	n/a	24.3	43.9
HHV	GJ t <sup>-1</sup> (ar)	10.55	8.75 - 14.27	1.37	10.27	n/a	13.52	16.37	n/a	n/a	n/a
LHV	GJ t <sup>-1</sup> (ar)	8.75	6.93 - 12.79	1.48	8.46	n/a	12.69	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Ash Content	% (db)	15.49	10.61 - 19.58	1.59	0.46	39.18	37.79	2.8	n/a	3.9	20.9
Volatile Matter	% (db)	71.26	67.77 - 73.87	1.75	87.71	53.96	47.82	66.8	n/a	67.6	32.8
Fixed Carbon	% (db)	13.36	9.94 - 15.87	1.36	11.83	n/a	14.4	15.9	n/a	28.5	46.3
HHV	GJ t <sup>-1</sup> (db)	18.02	16.49 - 20.4	0.7	20.40	n/a	14.9	18.5	13.59	n/a	n/a

164 <sup>1</sup>[34]

165 <sup>2</sup>[35]

166 <sup>3</sup>[36]

167 <sup>4</sup>[37]

168 <sup>5</sup>[38]

169 Moisture content is perhaps the most important fuel parameter particularly when pre-  
170 treatment options are not available or desirable. Moisture in the feedstock results in a  
171 lowering of temperature inside the combustion unit as evaporation, as well as the  
172 reaction of steam with char, is endothermic [39]. High moisture content in fuels leads to  
173 an increased fuel throughput, increasing the volume of flue gas released [40]. Wet  
174 biomass needs longer residence time for drying before gasification and char combustion  
175 take place, resulting in a requirement for larger combustion units. The efficiency of the  
176 combustion system also decreases as the fuel moisture content increases. Heat recovery  
177 options are available to partly compensate for the loss in efficiency, e.g. flue gas  
178 condensation units, however for small scale applications this can prove too costly [41].

179 The moisture content of poultry litter ranged from 18.7 % to 51.8 %; however, the  
180 average was closer to 40 %. This results in approximately 700 kg of water vapour  
181 produced per tonne of poultry litter combusted, based on moisture and hydrogen  
182 content. This moisture is a mineralised aqueous solution, containing soluble phosphates,  
183 carbonates, sulphates, chlorides and nitrates, which are present in biomass [37].

184 The ash (A) mass fraction of poultry litter studied for this research ranged from 5.95 %  
185 to 15.15 % (ar) (see Table 1) with an average of just over 9 %. Wood shavings  
186 contained only 0.23 % (ar), indicating that the majority of ash forming compounds  
187 originate in the birds' excreta. When utilising poultry litter as a fuel, heat exchanger  
188 design, dust collection equipment and also the design of the combustion unit itself must  
189 be able to cope with the dust/ash load. Agglomeration and corrosion must also be  
190 monitored, as the ash load, coupled with high alkali (see Table 3) content mean than ash  
191 deposition on boiler and heat transfer surfaces can quickly build up. The ash that  
192 remains after combustion represents a reduction in the original material of over 90 % by

193 weight, and is a sterile, powder like material, with high levels of macro and micro  
194 nutrients, with potential for re-use as a soil additive. Sterility of the ash was verified via  
195 microbial tests, with no colonies visible after 72 hours of incubation.

196 Volatile matter (VM) is the percentage of combustible gaseous products, exclusive of  
197 moisture content, present in a fuel. High VM, as seen in poultry litter (35.01 % to 56.83  
198 % (ar), Table 1), indicates that it is an extremely reactive fuel. The major part of poultry  
199 litter is vaporised before homogeneous gas phase reactions take place, and the  
200 remaining char then undergoes heterogeneous combustion reactions [41]. VM  
201 comprises a number of hydrocarbons which are released in steps. The first release  
202 occurs around 500 °C to 600 °C and the final occurs at temperatures in excess of 800 °C  
203 [39]. Although proximate analysis provides an estimate of the VM, the actual yield can  
204 be affected by the rate of heating, initial and final temperature, exposure time at final  
205 temperatures, particle size, type of fuel and pressure inside the combustion unit.

206 Although volatile material oxidises faster than char, it can result in lower combustion  
207 efficiency if there is insufficient mixing, leading to increased CO emissions [39]. The  
208 combustion unit must therefore be chosen to manage mostly gas phase combustion, and  
209 care must be taken to prevent heat loss due to plug flow behaviour within the unit.

210

211 Fixed carbon (FC) is the solid residue other than ash, remaining after the volatile matter  
212 has been liberated from the fuel during combustion. VM and FC represent the  
213 combustible fraction of the fuel, and together provide an indication of the value of the  
214 fuel. FC represents the fraction of fuel which will undergo heterogeneous combustion  
215 reactions, normally in the lower part (bed) of the combustion unit. Also referred to as

216 char; FC burns quite slowly. Char combustion begins after the evolution of the VM,  
217 although the two processes can sometimes overlap. As the combustion of char takes  
218 much longer in comparison to VM, care must be taken to ensure it is not elutriated  
219 before being completely combusted, as this would result in combustion losses [39].  
220 Poultry litter contains on average 7.81 % FC (ar) and 13.36 % (db) (see Table 1). The  
221 selected combustion unit must be capable of maintaining thermal inertia in order to  
222 compensate for such low fixed carbon content; in the case of poultry litter with a low  
223 fixed carbon a relatively shallow bed is necessary. The mass of bed material creates a  
224 thermal inertia that absorbs moderate swings in fuel moisture contents and heating  
225 values without adverse output changes.

226 Ultimate analysis determines the exact concentration of carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen,  
227 sulphur, chlorine and oxygen, present in fuel. These are the basic elemental components  
228 of the fuel, and are important in understanding the value of a fuel. The results from  
229 poultry litter are presented on a dry basis (db) and a dry ash free basis (daf) in Table 2.  
230 The results shown in these tables show that the reported values for poultry litter differ  
231 from those collected in the current research. The primary reason for these differences  
232 could be climatic conditions and husbandry practices.

233 **Table 2: Ultimate Analysis of Poultry Litter and other Fuels**

<b>Ultimate Analysis</b>	<b>Units</b>	<b>Result</b>	<b>Range</b>	<b>Std Dev</b>	<b>Wood Shavings</b>	<b>Poultry Litter<sup>1</sup></b>	<b>Poultry Litter<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>Miscanthus<sup>3</sup></b>	<b>MSW<sup>5</sup></b>	<b>Peat<sup>4</sup></b>	<b>Coal<sup>4</sup></b>
Carbon	% (db)	45.17	42.02 - 48.61	1.55	52.37	27.82	37.38	48.1	43.9	54.1	61.86
Hydrogen	% (db)	5.85	4.97 - 6.55	0.49	5.67	5.08	4.19	5.4	5.6	5.57	4.11
Nitrogen	% (db)	5.16	3.83 - 6.4	0.57	0.12	4.25	3.76	0.5	1.1	1.44	1.03
Sulphur	% (db)	0.45	0.29 - 0.6	0.09	0.00	1.14	0.74	< 0.1	0.3	0.19	1.34
Chlorine	% (db)	0.35	0.23 - 0.52	0.23	n/a	n/a	0.5	n/a	n/a	0.04	0.03
Oxygen	% (db)	27.25	25.08 - 31.09	1.41	38.53	n/a	15.64	42.2	32.1	34.79	10.75
Ash	% (db)	15.49	10.61 - 19.58	1.59	0.46	39.18	37.79	2.8	17.1	3.9	20.9
Carbon	% (daf)	53.45	49.7 - 57.52	1.35	52.61	45.75	60.09	49.49	52.95	53.6	78.2
Hydrogen	% (daf)	6.92	5.88 - 7.75	0.55	5.70	8.37	6.73	5.56	6.75	5.8	5.2
Nitrogen	% (daf)	6.11	4.53 - 7.57	0.66	0.12	6.98	6.04	0.51	1.33	1.5	1.3
Sulphur	% (daf)	0.53	0.34 - 0.71	0.09	0.00	1.87	1.19	< 0.1	0.36	0.2	1.7
Chlorine	% (daf)	0.41	0.27 - 0.61	0.09	n/a	n/a	0.8	n/a	n/a	0.042	0.038
Oxygen	% (daf)	32.25	29.68 - 36.79	0.27	38.71	n/a	25.14	43.42	38.72	36.2	13.6

234 <sup>1</sup>[34]

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236 <sup>3</sup>[36]

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238 <sup>5</sup>[38]

239

240 The carbon (C) content of poultry litter was found to be in the range of 42.02 % - 48.61  
241 % (db) and 49.7 % to 57.52 % (daf) (Table 2). Tortosa Masiá et al. [35] found the C  
242 content of poultry litter to be 37.38 % (db) (Table 2). The variation in litter analysed,  
243 while not huge, suggests differences in the bedding materials, husbandry practices and  
244 possibly storage conditions of the litter. The C content in the wood shavings was found  
245 to be 52.37 % (db) (Table 2), and the lower C content in the poultry litter reflects the  
246 dilution effect of the excreta. This confirms the work carried out by Quiroga et al., [42]  
247 who reported results for the C content of poultry layer manure to be 36.2 % (db), as  
248 poultry layer operations generally use minimal bedding. The carbon in biomass tends to  
249 be present in partly oxidised forms, which is what lends to the low heating value (LHV)  
250 [41], especially in comparison to coal (approximately 62 % to 85 % C (db) LHV of ~35  
251 GJ t<sup>-1</sup>) [37, 43] which is included with miscanthus and peat in Table 2 for comparison.  
252 Peat is a fuel indigenous in Ireland, used traditionally for heat in homes, and now also  
253 used for power generation, both on its own and co-fired with miscanthus. The C content  
254 measured in poultry litter samples (45.17 % (db)) is higher than the reported values for  
255 poultry litter from literature (27.8 % to 37.4 % (db)) (see Table 2). This indicates the  
256 differences in husbandry practices in different broiler farms, namely the amount of  
257 bedding material used which significantly increases the C content.

258 The hydrogen (H) content of poultry litter measured varied between 4.97 % to 6.55 %  
259 (db) and 5.88 % to 7.75 % (daf) (Table 2). This range is similar to that found in peat  
260 (5.6 % H (db) and 5.8 % H (daf) Table 2). Tortosa Masiá et al. [35] found the hydrogen  
261 content in poultry litter to be 4.19 % (db), which is slightly lower than the observed  
262 result in this research.

263

264 Nitrogen (N) content in most biofuels is much higher than coal (1.03 % (db) and 1.3 %  
265 (daf), Table 2), with poultry litter measuring in the range of 3.83 % to 6.4 % (db) and  
266 4.53 % to 7.57 % (daf) (Table 2). According to Oberberger et al. [44] these levels may  
267 result in emission related problems, as these can generally be expected for solid biofuels  
268 with a fuel N content above 0.6 % (db). In comparison, miscanthus was found to have  
269 only 0.5 % (db) and 0.51 % (daf) N (Table 2). Wood shavings N content was measured  
270 at 0.12 % (db) (Table 2) indicating that excreta is the source of the high N.

271 Nitrogen oxide (NO<sub>x</sub>) emissions are considered a major environmental pollutant. The  
272 three primary mechanisms for NO<sub>x</sub> formation are: fuel NO<sub>x</sub>, thermal NO<sub>x</sub> and prompt  
273 NO<sub>x</sub> [45]. The majority of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions during combustion, and the primary cause for  
274 concern, originate from the fuel-bound N [46]. At temperatures of 800 °C to 1100 °C,  
275 fuel N is converted to NO (> 90 %) and NO<sub>2</sub> (< 10 %). The primary N containing  
276 elements are NH<sub>3</sub> and HCN which are oxidised to NO with sufficient oxygen. Thermal  
277 NO<sub>x</sub> occurs at temperatures above 1300 °C when N in the air starts to react with O  
278 radicals and forms NO [41]. A key advantage of using FBC is that the lower operating  
279 temperatures, typically around 850 °C to 950 °C, limits the formation of thermal NO<sub>x</sub>  
280 which can be an issue for fixed grate combustion units [47]. Prompt NO<sub>x</sub> is due to N in  
281 the air reacting with CH to form HCN which then follows the steps of the fuel NO<sub>x</sub>  
282 mechanism. The prompt NO<sub>x</sub> mechanism is much faster than the thermal NO<sub>x</sub>  
283 mechanism and is less temperature dependent. However, it is only important in fuel-rich  
284 conditions, is dependent on CH concentration; and is not a significant issues for  
285 biomass combustion, in comparison to fossil fuel combustion applications [41]. The  
286 fuel/air stoichiometry is closely linked to the relationship between CO and NO<sub>x</sub>  
287 emissions; lower combustion temperatures (high fuel/air ratio) mean less NO<sub>x</sub>



288 emissions, however, this leads to decreased combustion efficiency and increased CO  
289 emissions. Reversing the ratio (low fuel/air ratio) means that formation of thermal NO<sub>x</sub>  
290 will increase, especially when injection of secondary air is used as a combustion aid  
291 [48]. This can cause localised temperatures of over 1300 °C. The volume of flue gas at  
292 lower temperatures can mask the increase, but the concentration of NO<sub>x</sub> may rise  
293 markedly. This is an important consideration when using poultry litter as a fuel, as  
294 typically high air/fuel ratio is chosen for this application with air being introduced in  
295 two stages. Careful operational control is needed to ensure the level of NO<sub>x</sub> does not  
296 exceed legislative limits [48].

297

298 Sulphur (S) content of poultry litter was measured in the range of 0.34 % to 0.71 %  
299 (daf) (Table 2). In comparison, coal has a much wider range of 0.1 % to 10 % [39].  
300 Upon combustion, S will form acidic SO<sub>x</sub> (SO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>3</sub>) gases and basic alkali and  
301 alkaline earth – sulphates [49]. Generally levels of S in excess of 0.1 % (db) and 0.2 %  
302 (db) can lead to corrosion and SO<sub>x</sub> emissions respectively [44].

303 SO<sub>x</sub> emissions are linked to smoke type smog, acid rain and climate change. S in fuels  
304 can cause major issues for combustion units as it can volatilise from the fuel and  
305 condense on the cooler surfaces of the combustion unit or on bed particles, leading to  
306 agglomeration and slagging, as a result of inertial impaction and other chemical  
307 reactions [50]. SO<sub>2</sub> can also be bound to the fly ash by sulphation reactions. According  
308 to Loo and Koppejan [41], between 40 % to 90 % of S from biomass is bound in the ash  
309 while the rest is emitted with the flue gas. The efficiency of S fixation in the ash

310 depends on the concentration of alkaline earth elements, especially calcium (Ca) in the  
311 ash as well as the efficiency of dust collection equipment [41].

312

313 The oxygen (O) content in biomass is generally calculated by difference i.e.  $100\% - (C$   
314  $+ H + N + S + Cl + Ash)$ . Poultry litter measured between 25.08 % to 31.09 % (db) and  
315 29.68 % to 36.79 % (daf) (Table 2). In comparison, coal has been found to contain  
316 10.75 % (db) 13.6 % O (daf) (Table 2). A fundamental difference between biomass  
317 fuels and fossil fuels is the higher proportion of oxygen and hydrogen, and the reduced  
318 amount of carbon in biomass fuels. This reduces the energy value of a fuel, due to the  
319 lower energy contained in carbon-oxygen and carbon-hydrogen bonds, than in carbon-  
320 carbon bonds [36]. Coal typically has a carbon content of approximately 85 %, whereas  
321 poultry litter has a carbon content of approximately 45% (db). Additionally, the greater  
322 the amount of hydrogen and heteroatoms, particularly oxygen and nitrogen, the greater  
323 the volatility; hence poultry litter has a greater level of volatile matter than fuels such as  
324 coal [36, 51]. The O<sub>2</sub> level in fuel dictates the air/fuel ratio necessary for combustion.

325 Chlorine (Cl) is perhaps the most problematic of elements found in biomass fuels with  
326 respect to deposition, corrosion and fouling of combustion units. Upon combustion it  
327 will vaporise almost completely, forming HCl, Cl<sub>2</sub>, and alkali chlorides [41]. It can  
328 facilitate the mobility of many inorganic compounds, particularly potassium (K), which  
329 is the dominant alkali source in most biomass fuels [40]. As the flue gas temperature  
330 decreases, alkali and alkaline earth chlorides will condense on boiler surfaces, as a  
331 result, part of the Cl will become bound to the fly ash and the rest will be emitted as

332 HCl [41]. Deposit formation will increase with increasing degree of vaporisation of  
333 alkali compounds, and thus with increasing chlorine content of the fuel [50].

334 Another concern with Cl is the possibility of polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin and  
335 diobenzofuran (PCDD/F) emissions. Commonly known as ‘dioxins’, PCDD/F’s are  
336 considered a major environmental pollutant. Some isomers of dioxins are highly toxic  
337 and are thought to be carcinogenic, mutagenic and teratogenic. They can cause  
338 chloracne, damaged immune systems, endometriosis, birth defects, diabetes, and liver  
339 and thyroid cancer. They are known to bio-accumulate and due to their strongly  
340 lipophilic nature, they can climb the food chain rapidly and persist, making their way  
341 into the general population through humans consumption of contaminated food, such as  
342 fish, meat and dairy products [40].

343 It is generally accepted that three primary mechanisms lead to the formation of  
344 dioxins/furans in combustors: (1) homogenous gas-phase reactions involving  
345 chlorinated organic precursors such as chlorobenzenes and chlorophenols; (2)  
346 heterogeneous reactions between chlorinated organic precursor compounds and fly ash-  
347 based metallic catalysts such as copper; and (3) de novo synthesis involving fly ash  
348 containing residual carbon in the post combustion zone, e.g. dust collectors, at  
349 temperatures in the region of 250 °C to 500 °C in the presence of flue gases containing  
350 HCl, O<sub>2</sub> and metallic catalysts [41, 52]. The complexity of the reactions leading to  
351 dioxins/furans and the multiplicity of factors determining their formation has made it  
352 difficult to determine causal relationship between emissions and fuel input parameters;  
353 variability in parameters such as combustor design and operating conditions generally  
354 have a greater influence on emissions than fuel chlorine content [53]. However, the key  
355 factor is that chlorine is an integral atom for dioxin/furan formation.

356 Poultry litter was found to have Cl content in the range of 0.23 % to 0.52 % (db) and  
357 0.27 % to 0.61 % (daf). This relatively high Cl content (coal ranges from 0.005 % –  
358 0.11 % [37]) coupled with the high ash and moisture content found in the litter, indicate  
359 that both corrosion and PCDD/F emissions are significant concerns when utilising  
360 poultry litter as a biomass fuel. According to Obernberger et al. (2006) the guiding  
361 concentration for Cl in a fuel is < 0.1 % (db) for corrosion, < 0.1 % (db) for HCl  
362 emissions and < 0.3 % (db) for PCDD/F emissions. However, if care is taken to ensure  
363 complete combustion and that rapid cooling of the flue gas takes place, alongside  
364 adequate fly ash collection facilities; then the risk of harmful emissions can be  
365 decreased considerably.

366 The heating (calorific) value of the fuel is also listed in conjunction with the proximate  
367 analysis. It is an expression of the energy content, or heat value, released when burned  
368 in air and is derived from the combustible portion (volatile matter and fixed carbon) of  
369 the fuel. Reference is usually made to two heating values – a higher or gross heating  
370 value (HHV) and a lower or net heating value (LHV). The difference between these  
371 values is essentially the latent heat of vaporisation of the water vapour present in the  
372 exhaust products when the fuel is burned in dry air. In an actual combustion system, this  
373 includes the water present in the as-burned fuel (the moisture) and the water produced  
374 from the combustion of hydrogen. Most combustion tables list the higher heating values  
375 for fuel because the moisture content can vary so widely [43].

376 The lower heating value of poultry litter was found in the range of 8.75 GJ t<sup>-1</sup> to 14.27  
377 GJ t<sup>-1</sup> (ar) (Table 1). In comparison, the miscanthus referenced was measured at around  
378 16.37 GJ t<sup>-1</sup> (ar) (Table 1) and natural gas can measure 49.8 GJ t<sup>-1</sup>[39]. HHV can be  
379 determined directly or it can also be calculated from the elemental composition on a dry

380 basis (db). Numerous formulae exist for its calculation, and an extensive investigation  
381 was conducted by Channiwala and Parikh [54] which derived the following formula  
382 which holds true for most solid, liquid and gaseous fuels, within the defined limits.

$$383 \quad \mathbf{HHV = 0.3491 C + 1.1783 H + 0.1005 S - 0.1034 O - 0.0151 N - 0.0211 A} \quad (1)$$

384 Based on this formula, the theoretical HHV for poultry litter was calculated to be 19.5  
385 GJ t<sup>-1</sup> (db) versus 18 GJ t<sup>-1</sup> as obtained from testing.

386 It is also possible to calculate directly from proximate analysis, as given by the  
387 following equation [55]:

$$388 \quad \mathbf{HHV = 0.3536 FC + 0.1559 VM - 0.0078 A} \quad (2)$$

389 This equation gives a calculated HHV of 15.7 GJ t<sup>-1</sup>. The percentage error for the first  
390 equation lies at 8.3 %, while for the latter it stands at 12.8 %, which may indicate the  
391 unsuitability of these indicators when utilising a fuel such as poultry litter.

### 392 **3.1.2 Bulk Density**

393 The bulk density of poultry litter was found to be 670 kg m<sup>-3</sup> at 50 % moisture, which is  
394 relatively low compared to coal (900 kg m<sup>-3</sup>). A SEI (Sustainable Energy Ireland) report  
395 on dry agri-residues reported poultry litter to have a bulk density of 400 kg m<sup>-3</sup> at 35 %  
396 moisture. The low bulk density results in low energy density and impacts on the  
397 economics of the transportation of the material to a centralised treatment facility [15,  
398 21].

399

### 400 **3.1.3 Elemental Content**

401 The elemental content of the ash showed there to be high levels of phosphorous,  
402 potassium and calcium, ( $110 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ,  $170 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  and  $160 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  respectively). Table 3  
403 shows the results of analysis on fly ash samples, and also compares these values to  
404 given values for Fibrophos® which is a marketed mineral fertiliser. As they blend their  
405 product to suit different agronomic needs they do not report a value for potassium or  
406 phosphorous. Instead they report to the typical fertiliser ratio N:P:K. The values that  
407 have been determined here 0:11:17 (almost 0:2:3) is close to the blend that fibrophos  
408 market as “extra K” “perfect for lower potassium soils, silage, or where extra potassium  
409 is required”.

410

411 **Table 3: Elemental Content of Poultry Litter Ash**

Determinant	Unit	Method	Results	Fibrophos□
Phosphorous (Total)	mg/kg	ICP/OES	110000	□
Boron	mg/kg	ICP/OES	270	150
Calcium	mg/kg	ICP/OES	160000	250000
Potassium	mg/kg	ICP/OES	170000	□
Magnesium	mg/kg	ICP/OES	39000	50000
Selenium	mg/kg	ICP/OES	12	5
Sodium	mg/kg	ICP/OES	20000	30000
Cobalt	mg/kg	ICP/MS	8.8	10
Copper	mg/kg	ICP/MS	590	500
Iron	mg/kg	ICP/MS	6500	4000
Manganese	mg/kg	ICP/MS	4200	2500
Molybdenum	mg/kg	ICP/MS	79	30
Zinc	mg/kg	ICP/MS	3800	2000
Sulphur (Total)	%	Combustion	2.6	7
Neutralising Value	%	Titration	19	15

412

## 413 **4 Conclusion**

414

415 The results presented here show that poultry litter is a useful biomass source where  
416 produced locally. A key factor in selection of FBC is the ability to operate on a small  
417 scale, on-site application as described here. Transport of the litter off site is costly and  
418 fuel heavy. Care must be taken to minimise harmful emissions during combustion, and  
419 adequate dust collection must be employed. Using the litter in the manner described  
420 here reduces waste to 10 % of original mass, mitigates environmental pollution caused  
421 by land spreading and concentrates nutrients in a sterile and easily transportable ash.

422

423



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430

431

432 **Figure Captions**

433

434 Figure 1: Schematic of Process

435 Table 1: Proximate Analysis of Poultry Litter and other Fuels

436 Table 2: Ultimate Analysis of Poultry Litter and other Fuels

437 Table 3: Elemental Content of Poultry Litter Ash

438

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