

FINAL REPORT

CALORIFIC VALUES AND COMBUSTION CHARACTERISTICS  
OF SOUTH AFRICAN GROWN FUELWOODS

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## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The objective of this project is to determine calorific values of a range of South African grown fuelwoods. A secondary objective is to develop a technique for assessing the flammability or combustion characteristics of different fuelwoods.

Much anecdotal evidence exists on the relative quality of fuelwoods, but no objective measure is available to compare the combustion characteristics of various species. This information is of use to afforestation programmes for fuelwood production for underdeveloped rural areas, as well as industrial processes for energy recovery from wood residues.

The most commonly used parameters for comparing alternative fuels are calorific or heat values. The distinction between gross (high) and nett (low) calorific values at constant pressure or volume are discussed.

One hundred and fifteen (115) sets of samples, each consisting of heartwood and sapwood, were supplied to the Energy Research Institute by the South African Forestry Research Institute. They include 108 different species; 7 species from different sites were duplicated. A summary of the results obtained is shown below:

### CALORIFIC VALUE OF SOUTH AFRICAN GROWN TREE SPECIES

	No of Samples	Range MJ/kg	Mean MJ/kg	Variance
All woods	230	18,34-22,49	19,80	
Heartwood	115	18,34-22,49	19,88	0,41
Sapwood	115	18,83-21,09	19,73	0,41
Hardwood	86	18,77-20,97	19,70	
Softwood	13	20,07-21,25	20,43	

The most obvious conclusion which may be noted from the reported values is that the calorific value of wood, on an oven dry mass basis, varies surprisingly little. Because calorific value varies within such

narrow limits, it is not a good indicator of the usefulness of a tree species as a fuel. This is further borne out by the results obtained from the 7 duplicated species tested, for the determinations within a species were found to vary by 0,43 - 1,53 MJ/kg, which is nearly equal to the range of variation between all the different species examined. Thus the variation within a single species, allowing for differences of ages and site, is as significant as that between different species.

Although the main focus of this project was to document calorific values of South African grown fuelwood species, there was also the requirement to develop an appropriate measure of flammability or combustibility but without, at this stage, undertaking experimental combustibility tests on a full range of tree species.

The fundamentals of wood combustion are described. The thermogravimetric method for the determination of combustion characteristics of fuels is well known and widely used. This method enables the determination of the rate of mass loss during combustion, reactivities and activation energies for different fuels.

An experimental rig has been developed at the Energy Research Institute, for a parallel research project on reconstituted fuels, which will enable the combustion of small particles under controlled conditions to be studied. The results from three fuelwood species are described in order to demonstrate the usefulness and potential of this method. Marked differences in mass loss rates and reactivities were observed.

It is concluded that calorific value is not important in the choice of species for fuelwood production. In practice, other factors such as growth rate, plantation siting, moisture content, density and type of combustion system used are far more important.

The need still exists, however, for an objective measure of the worth of tree species as fuelwood. It has been argued that the most fruitful research direction would be a fundamental investigation into the combustion characteristics of different wood species under controlled conditions. An experimental rig has been developed which has indicated the usefulness of looking at such parameters as rate of mass loss during combustion, reactivity and activation energy. What remains to be done is the experimentation with very many more wood samples using this technique and for the data obtained to be correlated with

anecdotal and field information on fuelwood preferences so as to validate this approach as being useful for ranking fuelwood species. This information can then be related to silvicultural factors which are important in the selection of suitable fuelwood species.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Project objectives

This project aims to determine calorific values of a range of South African grown fuelwoods. A secondary aim is to develop a technique for assessing the flammability or combustion characteristics of different fuelwoods.

### 1.2 Background rationale

Much anecdotal evidence exists on the relative quality of fuelwoods, but no objective measure is available to compare the combustion characteristics of various species. This information is of use to afforestation programmes for fuelwood production for underdeveloped rural areas, as well as industrial processes for energy recovery from wood residues.

In underdeveloped areas, such as parts of South Africa, the predominant fuel is wood which is used to meet basic household energy requirements for cooking and heating. The demand for wood in many areas exceeds the supply from natural woodland with the result that supplies are often transported in from elsewhere and wood has become a commodity for sale. In order to meet the growing demand for fuelwood adequately, it is imperative that new plantations and woodlots be established.

What laboratory measurement should be used to objectively rank different tree species according to their desirability as a fuelwood? The most commonly used parameters for comparing alternative fuels are calorific or heat values. Up till now, very little data have been published on the calorific values of South African grown fuelwood species. The question arises as to whether calorific value is also an important parameter in the selection, pricing and combustion of fuelwood, and what other combustion related phenomena should be investigated?

This study aims to report the calorific values measured for a range of tree species, indigenous and exotic, occurring naturally or cultivated in South Africa. It looks critically at the usefulness of calorific measurements of fuelwood; the fuelwood preferences of rural users are

noted; and some of the other important factors in the selection and use of suitable fuelwood species are discussed. Finally, some preliminary results of fuelwood reactivity as a measure of combustibility are reported and recommendations made concerning future work in this area.

## 2. CALORIFIC VALUE MEASUREMENTS

### 2.1 Some definitions

Calorific value is one of the key factors to be taken into consideration when evaluating fuels. It has a bearing on the selection and pricing of fuels and for the design of combustion technologies.

All naturally occurring fuels are organic; being composed principally of the elements carbon, hydrogen and oxygen together with smaller amounts of sulphur and nitrogen. They may also contain traces of other elements. In addition, solid fuels may contain varying amounts of ash and moisture which do not contribute to the release of energy when the fuel is combusted. Combustion is simply an exothermic reaction in which one of the reactants is oxygen. Energy is released at varying rates depending on the conditions of temperature and pressure at combustion and on the final products of the reaction.

If different fuels are to be accurately compared, then it is important that the release of energy always be measured in the same way. For example, the quantity of heat produced by the combustion of hydrogen will depend on whether the water formed is in the vapour or liquid state; more heat will be produced in the latter case because of the latent heat which is released when water vapour condenses. Since most fuels contain hydrogen and many also contain moisture, water is often one of the products of combustion. Consequently, the distinction between water in the vapour and the liquid states is of primary importance in defining how the energy released by the combustion of a fuel is to be measured.

The unit of measurement generally used to express the potential quantity of energy released by a substance on burning is the heat value or calorific value, determinations of which are made under certain standard conditions - usually by explosive combustion in a bomb calorimeter under an initial pressure of 23 to 37 atm. at constant volume (British Standard BS 526:1961).

Two standard calorific values need to be defined; the high or gross calorific value, in which all the water formed by combustion is condensed to the liquid form; and the low or nett calorific value, which is less by the latent heat of evaporation of the water.

In addition to this, it is usual to define heat values both at constant pressure and at constant volume. In practice, most fuels are combusted under conditions of constant atmospheric pressure, and calorimetric measurements on gaseous fuels are also usually made under these conditions; but since complete combustion of solid and liquid fuels requires higher pressures, calorimetric measurements on these fuels are always carried out at constant volume in a bomb calorimeter.

The definition of calorific value determined in a bomb calorimeter is given in BS 526:

The gross calorific value at constant volume of a solid or liquid fuel is the number of heat units measured as being liberated per unit quantity of fuel burned in oxygen in a bomb under standard conditions in such a way that the materials after combustion consist of the gases oxygen, carbon dioxide, sulphur dioxide and nitrogen, liquid water in equilibrium with its vapour and saturated with carbon dioxide, hydrochloric acid in solution and solid ash.

The gross calorific value at constant pressure may be calculated from the following formula which assumes that the gaseous reactants and products behave as ideal gases.

$$E_{hp} - E_{hv} = 0.01 RT (.5H/2 - O/32 - N/28)$$

where  $E_{hp}$  = gross calorific value at constant pressure  
 $E_{hv}$  = gross calorific value at constant volume  
 $R$  = universal gas constant  
 $T$  = isothermal reaction temperature in Kelvin  
 $H$  = per cent hydrogen in fuel by mass  
 $O$  = per cent oxygen in fuel by mass  
 $N$  = per cent nitrogen in fuel by mass

However, the correction is generally only of the order of 20 kJ/kg which is about 0,1% of the gross calorific value of oven dried wood. Furthermore this correction is practically cancelled out by the adjustment (in the opposite direction) of  $E_{hv}$  to atmospheric pressure to approximate the actual conditions under which most fuels combust. For most solid and liquid fuels these corrections are ignored and gross calorific value at constant volume measured in a bomb calorimeter approximates gross calorific value at constant pressure as the difference will not exceed 0,12 MJ/kg for solid and liquid fuels or 0,5 MJ/m<sup>3</sup> for gaseous fuels (Bialy, 1979, p 10).

The heat or calorific value which corresponds most closely with the conditions under which a fuel is burnt in practice is the low heat value or nett calorific value (at constant pressure) as water in the combustion products will usually be in the gaseous state. The difference between the gross and nett calorific value is simply the latent heat of evaporation of the water at the reference temperature and either at constant volume or pressure. The nett calorific value may be deduced from the gross calorific value and the composition of the fuel in terms of moisture and hydrogen (which will combust to water).

Thus for solid and liquid fuels:

$$E_{hp} - E_{lp} = 0.01 L (H/2 + W/18) \text{ kJ/kg}$$

where  $E_{hp}$  = gross calorific value at constant pressure  
 $E_{lp}$  = nett calorific value at constant pressure  
 $L$  = molar latent heat of water at 25°C  
and constant pressure = 44 kJ/mol  
 $H$  = percentage by mass of hydrogen in fuel  
 $W$  = percentage by mass of water in fuel

$$\text{Thus } E_{lp} = E_{hp} - 220 H - 24 W \text{ kJ/kg}$$

Conventionally, moisture content is expressed on a dry basis (m%)

$$\text{then } W = 100m/(100+m)$$

and if  $h$  is the hydrogen percentage of the moisture-free fuel

$$\text{then } H = 100h/(100+m)$$

Hence the nett calorific value  $E_{lp}$  at a moisture content  $m$  will be

$$E_{lp}(m) = (100 E_{hpo} - 22h - 2.4m) / (100+m) \text{ MJ/kg}$$

where  $E_{hpo}$  = gross calorific value of oven-dried fuel

As will be shown later, for wood,  $E_{hpo} = 20$  MJ/kg on average and  $h = 6\%$ , whence

$$E_{lp}(m) = (1868 - 2.4m) / (100+m) \text{ MJ/kg}$$

Thus the nett calorific value of moisture free or oven-dried wood is on average 18.7 MJ/kg and decreases with increased moisture content.

Calorific value varies significantly with moisture content. Freshly harvested wood contains a generally large, but variable proportion of water (anything from 30% to a few hundred percent). The moisture content of air dry wood is much less, generally between 10 and 20 %, and depends mainly on the temperature and the humidity of the surrounding atmosphere. The equilibrium moisture content increases with increasing humidity but decreases with increasing temperature. A fuel with a moisture content of  $m\%$  will have a gross calorific value which is approximately a fraction  $100/(100+m)$  times that of the same fuel in the oven dried condition. At a typical air dried moisture content of 15% (d.b.) the average gross calorific value of wood is 17,4 MJ/kg.

## 2.2 Experimental method

A waterless COALAB CP400 automatic bomb calorimetric system conforming in general to BS 526:1961 was used. The apparatus is microprocessor controlled and takes approximately 12 minutes to complete a gross calorific value measurement.

One hundred and fifteen (115) sets of samples, each consisting of heartwood and sapwood, were supplied to the Energy Research Institute by the South African Forestry Research Institute. They include 108 different species; 7 species from different sites were duplicated. The samples measured not less than 20x2x1 cm in size. They were generally obtained from a radial section through the tree stem and were free

from pith, bark, blue stain and rot. From them, test samples of approximately 0,5 gm were prepared, oven dried and stored with silica gel in sealed moisture free containers.

Calorific measurements were made on two or more test samples from the heartwood and sapwood of each species. The difference between measurements for each sample set were less than .15 MJ/kg, i.e. an experimental variability of less than 1%. The values reported in Table 1 are the average of these readings and represent gross calorific values for oven dried wood. Reported calorific values from the literature have been included as a comparison, although only a few values are available and most are of species which have been cultivated abroad.

Density values (at 10% moisture content) and shrinkage factors on drying are also included (van Vuuren et al, 1978). These were used to calculate calorific values on a volumetric basis (for oven dried wood).

TABLE 1

No.	SPECIES	Gross			REPORTED CV (MJ/kg)	DENSITY (10ZMC) (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	SHRINKAGE volume	DENSITY (Dry) (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	CV. MJ/m <sup>3</sup>	SOFTWOOD/ HARDWOOD
		CALORIFIC VALUE	MJ/kg	AVERAGE						
33	<u>Abies religiosa</u>	20.45	19.69	20.07		470	9.0	440	8841	S
108	<u>Acacia caffra</u>	19.61	20.00	19.81		1060	9.2	994	19689	II
146	<u>Acacia davyi</u>	18.92	19.65	19.29		820	17.9	793	15289	
143	<u>Acacia dealbata</u>	19.17	19.35	19.26						
144	<u>Acacia decurrens</u>	19.30	19.72	19.51	19.47					II
109	<u>Acacia karroo</u>	18.69	18.85	18.77		890	18.5	862	16185	II
145	<u>Acacia meurnsii</u>	19.05	19.39	19.22						II
11	<u>Acacia melanoxylon</u>	19.15	19.49	19.32		670	10.0	630	12173	II
12	<u>Acacia sieberana</u>	19.28	19.46	19.37		650	10.0	611	11841	II
147	<u>Acacia tortilis</u>	20.78	21.17	20.97						II
110	<u>Acacia tortilis</u>	18.95	19.94	19.44		890	13.1	846	16450	II
13	<u>Agathis robusta</u>	20.46	19.97	20.22		480	7.4	447	9044	S
14	<u>Agathis robusta</u>	20.41	20.18	20.29		400	7.5	373	7568	S
56	<u>Albizia adianthifolia</u>	19.96	19.83	19.90		560	9.3	525	10452	II
57	<u>Anthocleista grandiflora</u>	19.88	19.74	19.81		610		555	10985	
34	<u>Apodytes dimidiata</u>	19.74	19.66	19.70		790	15.2	757	14903	II
58	<u>Araucaria angustifolia</u>	20.24	20.19	20.22	20.09	460	9.1	431	8718	S
111	<u>Burchardia zeyheri</u>	19.52	19.62	19.57						
59	<u>Breonadia salicina</u>	21.09	21.81	21.45						
15	<u>Driedelia micrantha</u>	18.99	18.99	18.99		650	10.8	613	11640	II
35	<u>Burkea africana</u>	20.31	21.13	20.72		820	10.4	772	16000	II
36	<u>Canthium mundianum</u>	19.56	20.41	19.99		850	16.0	816	16317	II
37	<u>Canthium obovatum</u>	19.66	19.76	19.71		930	13.3	885	17437	II
112	<u>Canthium obovatum</u>	18.83	18.90	18.87		930	13.3	885	16690	II
38	<u>Cassine peragua</u>	19.21	19.21	19.21		800	12.9	760	14599	II
1	<u>Casuarina cunninghamii</u>	19.63	20.04	19.84	19.98	850	15.0	813	16134	II
39	<u>Cedrela toona</u>	19.91	19.94	19.93		310	12.2	578	11521	II
60	<u>Cedrus libani</u>	20.19	20.54	20.37		530	12.0	502	10221	S
16	<u>Celtis africana</u>	19.55	19.35	19.45		760	12.9	722	14042	II
40	<u>Ceratonia siliqua</u>	19.47	19.36	19.42						
17	<u>Cinnamomum camphora</u>	20.08	20.48	20.28		510	12.2	483	9801	II
107	<u>Colospermum mopane</u>	19.58	21.19	20.39		1090	10.8	1028	20954	II
61	<u>Croton sylvaticus</u>	19.16	19.18	19.17		580	11.0	547	10491	II

TABLE 1 (cont)

No.	SPECIES	Gross			REPORTED CV (HJ/kg)	DENSITY (10ZHC) (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	SHRINKAGE volume	DENSITY (Dry) (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	CV. MJ/m <sup>3</sup>	SOFTWOOD/ HARDWOOD
		CAJORIFIC VALUE	MJ/kg							
		SAPWOOD	HEARTWOOD	AVERAGE						
18	<u>Cryptomeria japonica</u>	20.00	20.49	20.25	22.67	350	8.7	328	6634	S
62	<u>Cupressus lusitanica</u>	20.21	20.60	20.41		470	9.0	440	8988	S
63	<u>Cupressus torulosa</u>	20.01	22.49	21.25		510	9.3	478	10167	S
41	<u>Curtisia dentata</u>	19.34	18.34	18.84		900	16.8	867	16329	H
154	<u>Dichrostachys cinerea</u>	19.60	20.12	19.86						
42	<u>Diospyros whyteana</u>	19.14	19.17	19.16						II
114	<u>Dombeya rotundifolia var. rotundifolia</u>	19.37	19.29	19.33		870	14.4	831	16059	II
64	<u>Erythrina lysistemon</u>	19.20	18.80	19.00		320	6.7	298	5654	II
65	<u>Eucalyptus agglomerata</u>	19.85	19.91	19.88						II
133	<u>Eucalyptus camaldulensis</u>	19.78	19.60	19.69	19.74	930	24.7	921	18139	H
66	<u>Eucalyptus capitellata</u>	19.40	19.31	19.36		890	15.4	853	16507	II
2	<u>Eucalyptus citriodora</u>	19.81	19.35	19.58		1000	14.9	957	18230	II
43	<u>Eucalyptus deanii</u>	19.54	19.76	19.65						II
67	<u>Eucalyptus delegatensis</u>	20.25	20.83	20.54		750	29.0	755	15508	II
19	<u>Eucalyptus fraxinoides</u>	19.46	18.92	19.19		690	15.4	661	12689	II
135	<u>Eucalyptus globulus</u>	19.64	19.07	19.35	20.72	900	24.1	890	17215	II
3	<u>Eucalyptus grandis</u>	19.82	19.69	19.76		615	16.8	592	11700	II
136	<u>Eucalyptus macarthurii</u>	19.76	19.70	19.73		860	28.1	863	17018	II
4	<u>Eucalyptus maculata</u>	19.53	19.51	19.52	19.04	830	15.4	795	15526	II
7	<u>Eucalyptus maidenii</u>	19.56	19.68	19.62		910	13.9	867	17020	II
20	<u>Eucalyptus microcorys</u>	20.09	19.94	20.02	19.54	880	16.5	847	16944	II
21	<u>Eucalyptus muelleriana</u>	19.60	19.59	19.60		780	15.0	746	14626	II
137	<u>Eucalyptus nova anglica</u>	19.67	19.61	19.64						
68	<u>Eucalyptus obliqua</u>	19.55	19.90	19.73		720	16.9	694	13682	II
22	<u>Eucalyptus oreades</u>	19.43	19.38	19.41		670	15.7	643	12472	II
5	<u>Eucalyptus paniculata</u>	19.67	19.68	19.68		1070	19.8	1041	20491	II
6	<u>Eucalyptus punctata</u>	19.67	19.78	19.73		1010	17.4	975	19226	II
23	<u>Eucalyptus quadrangulata</u>	19.06	19.01	10.04		980	21.8	961	18287	II
78	<u>Eucalyptus rummeryi</u>	19.41	19.65	19.53		990	16.4	952	18593	II
140	<u>Eucalyptus sideroxylon</u>	19.65	19.59	19.62		1020	14.3	974	19103	II
24	<u>Eucalyptus smithii</u>	19.90	19.34	19.62		860	23.8	849	16661	II
141	<u>Eucalyptus tereticornis</u>	19.48	19.49	19.48	22.12	960	22.1	942	18357	

TABLE 1 (cont)

No.	SPECIES	Gross			REPORTED CV (MJ/kg)	DENSITY (102MC) (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	SHRINKAGE volume	DENSITY (Dry) (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	CV. MJ/m <sup>3</sup>	SOFTWOOD/ HARDWOOD
		CALORIFIC VALUE SAFWOOD	HEARTWOOD	MJ/kg AVERAGE						
115	<u>Faurea saligna</u>	20.46	20.41	20.44		1040	11.3	982	20076	II
44	<u>Ficus sycomorus</u>	19.52	19.48	19.50	18.60	480	8.5	449	8757	II
8	<u>Gmelina arborea</u>	20.71	20.79	20.75	19.61	470	8.3	439	9118	H
45	<u>Gonioma kawassi</u>	20.02	20.29	20.16		880	18.0	851	17157	II
10	<u>Grevillea robusta</u>	20.59	20.04	20.32	20.40	600	9.8	564	11455	II
46	<u>Halleria lucida</u>	19.55	19.58	19.57		770		700	13699	
156	<u>Heteropyxis natalensis</u>	19.86	19.91	19.89						
47	<u>Ilex mitis</u>	19.30	19.44	19.37		600	12.3	569	11017	II
48	<u>Jacaranda mimosaefolia</u>	20.13	19.93	20.03		530	8.8	496	9942	II
49	<u>Kirkia acuminata</u>	19.54	19.45	19.50		540	7.2	503	9808	II
132	<u>Leucaena leucocephala</u>	18.99	19.74	19.36						
31	<u>Liquidambar styraciflua</u>	19.32	19.24	19.28	19.89	630	15.4	604	11640	II
30	<u>Lophostemon confertus</u>	20.14	20.01	20.08		890	10.8	839	16849	
50	<u>Haytenus acuminata</u>	19.45	19.05	19.25		930	17.2	897	17265	II
120	<u>Haytenus heterophylla</u>	19.56	19.33	19.44		740	7.0	689	13392	
51	<u>Haytenus peduncularis</u>	19.60	19.99	19.80		1000	16.0	960	19014	II
52	<u>Melia azedarach</u>	19.45	19.03	19.24	20.90	600	12.2	569	10939	II
69	<u>Ocotea kenyensis</u>	19.64	19.61	19.63						II
124	<u>Olea capensis subsp. macrocarpa</u>	19.53	19.15	19.34		1020	19.1	990	19150	II
25	<u>Olea capensis subsp. macrocarpa</u>	19.77	20.62	20.20		1020	16.8	982	19837	II
53	<u>Olea europaea subsp. africana</u>	20.71	19.95	20.33		1080	13.7	1029	20915	H
125	<u>Olea europaea subsp. africana</u>	19.64	21.89	20.76						II
26	<u>Parinari curatellifolia</u>	19.79	19.86	19.83		710	10.1	668	13242	II
127	<u>Peltophorum africanum</u>	20.00	19.93	19.97		710	8.5	664	13263	II
32	<u>Pinus patula</u>	19.94	20.90	20.42		450	9.7	423	8633	S
9	<u>Pinus roxburghii</u>	20.75	20.18	20.47		510	10.0	480	9815	S
70	<u>Platylophus trifolius</u>	19.50	19.31	19.41		530	11.6	501	9726	II
71	<u>Podocarpus falcatus</u>	20.58	20.22	20.40		540	9.4	507	10338	S
72	<u>Podocarpus latifolius</u>	20.77	20.76	20.77		560	10.2	527	10943	S
73	<u>Populus Xcanescens</u>	19.46	19.42	19.44		480	11.5	454	8821	II
27	<u>Ptaeroxylon obliquum</u>	21.00	21.11	21.06		1030	10.3	970	20416	II
158	<u>Pterocarpus angolensis</u>	19.44	19.67	19.55						II

TABLE 1 (cont)

No.	SPECIES	Gross			REPORTED CV (MJ/kg)	DENSITY (10ZHC) (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	SHRINKAGE volume	DENSITY (Dry) (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	CV MJ/m <sup>3</sup>	SOFTWOOD/ HARDWOOD
		CALORIFIC VALUE		MJ/kg						
		SAPWOOD	HEARTWOOD	AVERAGE						
74	<u>Pterocarpus angolensis</u>	20.23	21.52	20.88		440	3.7	405	8454	H
28	<u>Quercus palustris</u>	19.20	19.49	19.35		720	14.9	689	13324	H
54	<u>Quercus sp.</u>	19.43	19.28	19.36	19.75					H
75	<u>Rapanea melanophloeos</u>	19.11	19.37	19.24		740	16.6	712	13701	H
128	<u>Rhus lancea</u>	19.85	20.49	20.17		1040	13.0	988	19934	H
129	<u>Rhus leptodictya</u>	19.58	19.64	19.61						H
104	<u>Rhus leptodictya</u>	20.11	21.23	20.67						H
105	<u>Schotia brachypetala</u>	19.80	20.88	20.34		800	8.0	747	15198	H
29	<u>Sequoia sempervirens</u>	20.00	20.98	20.49	21.29	460	9.1	403	8260	S
106	<u>Spirostachys africana</u>	19.86	21.62	20.74		970	8.5	908	18822	
76	<u>Strychnos decussata</u>	19.79	20.21	20.00		890	16.4	856	17117	H
159	<u>Syzygium cordatum</u>	19.57	19.54	19.55						H
103	<u>Terminalia sericea</u>	19.96	19.97	19.97		870	10.6	820	16369	H
77	<u>Trema orientalis</u>	19.42	19.32	19.37	19.49	440	9.5	413	8001	H
131	<u>Ziziphus mucronata</u>	19.62	19.71	19.66		800	13.6	762	14977	H
160	<u>Ziziphus mucronata</u>	19.17	18.66	18.92						H

### 2.3 Discussion of results

The most obvious conclusion which may be noted from the reported values is that the calorific value of wood, on an oven dry mass basis, varies surprisingly little. This is shown in the table below.

Table 2 : Summary of Gross Calorific Measurements  
of South African Grown Trees

	No of Samples	Range MJ/kg	Mean MJ/kg	Variance
All woods	230	18,34-22,49	19,80	
Heartwood	115	18,34-22,49	19,88	0,41
Sapwood	115	18,83-21,09	19,73	0,41
Hardwood	86	18,77-20,97	19,70	
Softwood	13	20,07-21,25	20,43	

These findings are confirmed by other researchers. Harker et al (1982) review 791 reported calorific values of wood and give an average value for all woods as 19.96 MJ/kg, for hardwood - 19.73, and for softwood - 20.82 MJ/kg. They also reported that 90% of observed calorific values of different wood species lie between 18 and 21 MJ/kg, but that the observed spread of calorific values is 15 to 25 MJ/kg. Standard deviation was 1,06 MJ/kg.

This relatively small range can be partially accounted for by the remarkably small variation in the elemental composition of wood, where carbon is generally 49-50%, hydrogen 6%, oxygen 43-44% and nitrogen, sulphur and ash 0,5-1%. Using Seyler's formula, which determines calorific value in terms of the constituent elements of coal and peat, and which reads as follows (Bialy, 1979):

$$E_{hv} = 1624 H + 518,5 C + 1,05 O^2 - 17860 \text{ KJ/kg}$$

where H, C, and O are the percentages of hydrogen, carbon, and oxygen respectively (all expressed on a dry, mineral free basis and assuming that there is no sulphur present but that the nitrogen content is 1%), one obtains a calorific value of 19,5 MJ/kg for wood. This is remarkably close to average calorific values which have been measured for wood.

The slight difference between the average softwood and hardwood values may be accounted for by variations in the proportion and calorific values of the five main wood constituents - resins, cellulose, hemicellulose, lignin and mineral matter. The presence of resins, which have calorific values between 35 and 40 MJ/kg, has a marked effect on the gross calorific value of wood. Softwood species such as pine have a higher resin content and thus slightly higher calorific value than hardwood. However, pine is not regarded highly as a fuelwood because it burns too rapidly, and does not make good coals. Formation of the latter may depend more on hemicellulose content which is generally higher in hardwoods (35%) compared with softwoods (28%) (Bialy, 1979).

Because calorific value varies within such narrow limits, it is not a good indicator of the usefulness of a tree species as a fuel. This is further borne out by the results obtained from the 7 duplicated species tested (table 3), for the determinations within a species were found to vary by 0,43 - 1,53 MJ/kg, which is nearly equal to the range of variation between all the different species examined. Thus the variation within a single species, allowing for differences of ages and site, is as significant as that between different species.

Table 3 : Gross calorific measurements  
of tree species from different sites (MJ/kg)

Species	Site One	Site Two	Difference
<u>Acacia tortilis</u>	20,97	19,44	1,53
<u>Canthium obovatum</u>	19,71	18,87	0,84
<u>Olea capensis</u> spp. <u>macrocarpa</u>	20,2	19,34	0,86
<u>Olea europaea</u> spp. <u>africana</u>	20,76	20,33	0,43
<u>Pterocarpus angolensis</u>	20,88	19,55	1,33
<u>Rhus leptodictya</u>	20,67	19,61	1,06
<u>Ziziphus mucronata</u>	19,66	18,92	0,74

Harker et al (1982) also report that trials on two species of timber conducted at the Tropical Products Institute in the UK have shown that the variation in gross calorific value between different trees of the same site is greater than the variation obtained from material taken from different parts of the same tree. Furthermore the large variation

in calorific value between these trees and the small standard deviation observed for the reported values of different species suggests that the calorific value determinations for wood are of limited value. As most tree species have a gross calorific value within 5% of 20 MJ/kg (oven-dried), this value is good approximation for nearly all fuelwoods.

It is clear from the above that other combustion parameters must be examined if we are to arrive at an objective measure or ranking of fuelwood species.

### 3. FUELWOOD COMBUSTIBILITY

Although the main focus of this project was to document calorific values of South African grown fuelwood species, there was also the requirement to develop an appropriate measure of flammability or combustibility but without, at this stage, undertaking experimental combustibility tests on a full range of tree species.

#### 3.1 Theory of wood combustion

Wood combustion takes place in the following stages: driving of moisture from the wood, pyrolysis of volatile constituents, combustion of the volatiles and combustion of the char.

When wood burns, approximately 80% (by mass) burns as volatiles and 20% burns as fixed carbon (char) (Brame, 1961). For a wood particle Wagoner and Winegartner (1973) observed that the volatiles and char do not burn simultaneously since the expanding hot flue gases prevent air reaching the char. However in a hearth or woodburning stove where the wood pieces are relatively large, it is possible for char and volatiles to combust at the same time.

Many of the gases produced during combustion have high ignition temperatures; for example,  $H_2$  -  $540^{\circ}C$ ;  $CO$  -  $600^{\circ}C$ ; and  $CH_4$  -  $650^{\circ}C$ .

A general, but pioneering, model of spontaneous and forced wood combustion was developed by Bramford and Crank (1946). They investigated temperatures and rates of decomposition inside sheets of wood of varying thicknesses. In spontaneous combustion, using oven dried wood of different thicknesses, they found that the core temperature was always approximately 480 K when spontaneous combustion could take place. The temperature of the wood then rose linearly until it reached 600 K, after which combustion occurred rapidly until 740 K, at which temperature all the volatiles had been released. They also found that spontaneous combustion occurred only when the rate of evolution of volatiles had reached a minimum value of  $2,5 * 10^{-4} \text{ g.cm}^{-2} \text{ sec}^{-1}$ . The evolution rate then increased rapidly, depending on the thickness of the wood and the diffusivity of the evolved gases, until completion of combustion.

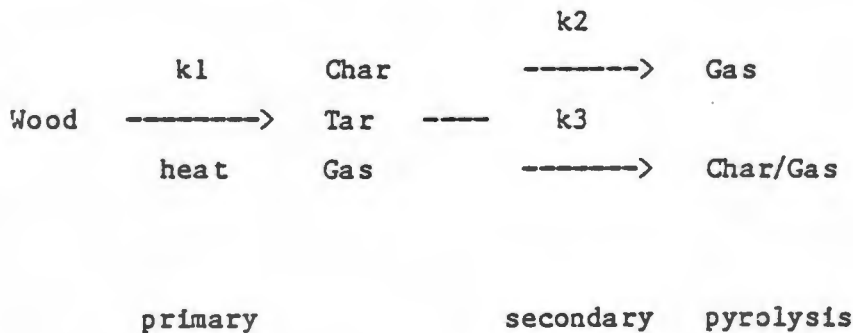
Later studies dealt with wood combustion by analysing the two main stages and their associated mechanisms.

Pyrolysis

Pyrolysis refers to the release of the volatile constituents from the wood, and generally takes place at temperatures between 500 and 775 K. (Simmons, 1983, p13).

The mechanisms involved in pyrolysis include;

- a) Convective and radiant heat transfer from the hot gaseous atmosphere to the wood. This is referred to as external heat transfer.
- b) Heat transfer inside the wood particle. Before decomposition this is mainly conduction, but once pyrolysis begins the volatile production may result in convective heat transfer to the surface (Kansa, 1977).
- c) Pyrolysis reaction. A large number of reactions take place during pyrolysis, some of which are endothermic and others exothermic. These reactions have been broadly grouped into two stages; primary and secondary pyrolysis.



Primary pyrolysis is endothermic whereas secondary pyrolysis is responsible for the heat release. Whether reaction two or three take place in secondary pyrolysis, depends on the permeability of the wood. In perpendicular grain orientation, reaction three is favoured due to the slow permeation of the volatiles and tar, and is associated with char build-up. In parallel grain orientation, reaction two is favoured.

Generally the pyrolysis reaction is represented by a first order Arrhenius equation:

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = C_r \cdot \exp^{(-E/R.T)} \cdot (1-m)$$

where  $C_r$  = rate constant (time<sup>-1</sup>),  $E$  = activation energy (J/mol),  $R$  = gas constant,  $T$  = temperature (K) and  $m$  = mass of volatiles as a fraction of total volatiles at total conversion (Zaror:1981).

- d) Diffusion of the volatiles through the wood; and
- e) Diffusion of the volatiles to the combustion air.

#### Char combustion

The char burn-off is the final stage of wood combustion. Although char represents only 20% of the total mass of the wood, it requires 50-74% of the total burn time (Simmons, 1983, p 149). Simmons found that char combustion was purely diffusion controlled. He also did some measurements of surface temperatures of the burning char particle.<sup>1</sup> At a free stream Reynolds number of 265, the surface temperatures were between 1226 K and 1409 K, depending on the free stream temperature (which was varied from 900 to 1200 K) and the type of wood (pine and oak were used).

#### Comparing the combustibility of different species

It is clear from the above that the processes of moisture release, pyrolysis, volatile and char combustion are dependant to some extent on the physical characteristics of the wood. One approach might be try to analyse the physical structure of wood and derive a series of indices which would serve to rank fuelwoods.

The chemical composition of wood also affects the combustion process. The main chemical constituents of wood - cellulose, hemicelluloses and lignin - begin breaking down at temperatures above 250 °C. Cellulose and hemicellulose yield most of the volatile products and only 8 - 15% of the char. However 50% of the lignins form char (Zaror and Pyle, 1981). The proportion of these compounds varies greatly from one wood species

<sup>1</sup>Using an optical pyrometer.

to another and these variations contribute to the reasons for differing combustibility between tree species.

But it is difficult to define precisely which chemical and physical properties of wood species determine their suitability as fuel and the literature does not provide any definite measure for ranking fuelwoods. All that is available is anecdotal information based on experience (see Appendix A). From observations in the field a good fuelwood was described as a hardwood that burnt without cracking or spitting and formed a large quantity of char which then burnt for a prolonged period of time (Poynton, 1984).

A more fruitful approach is to study the processes of wood combustion itself and to characterize these processes for different species in order to rank fuelwoods. The thermo-gravimetric which yields decomposition profiles during combustion is well known and widely used. A modification of this method, where the reactor temperature is kept constant, enables the determination of the rate of mass loss during combustion, reactivities and activation energies for different fuels.

An experimental rig has been developed at the Energy Research Institute, for a parallel research project on reconstituted fuels, which will enable the combustion of small particles under controlled conditions to be studied. The experimental equipment and procedures are outlined below. No provision was made in the current project to undertake extensive combustion analyses on a wide range of samples. The results from three fuelwood species are described in order to demonstrate the usefulness and potential of this method.

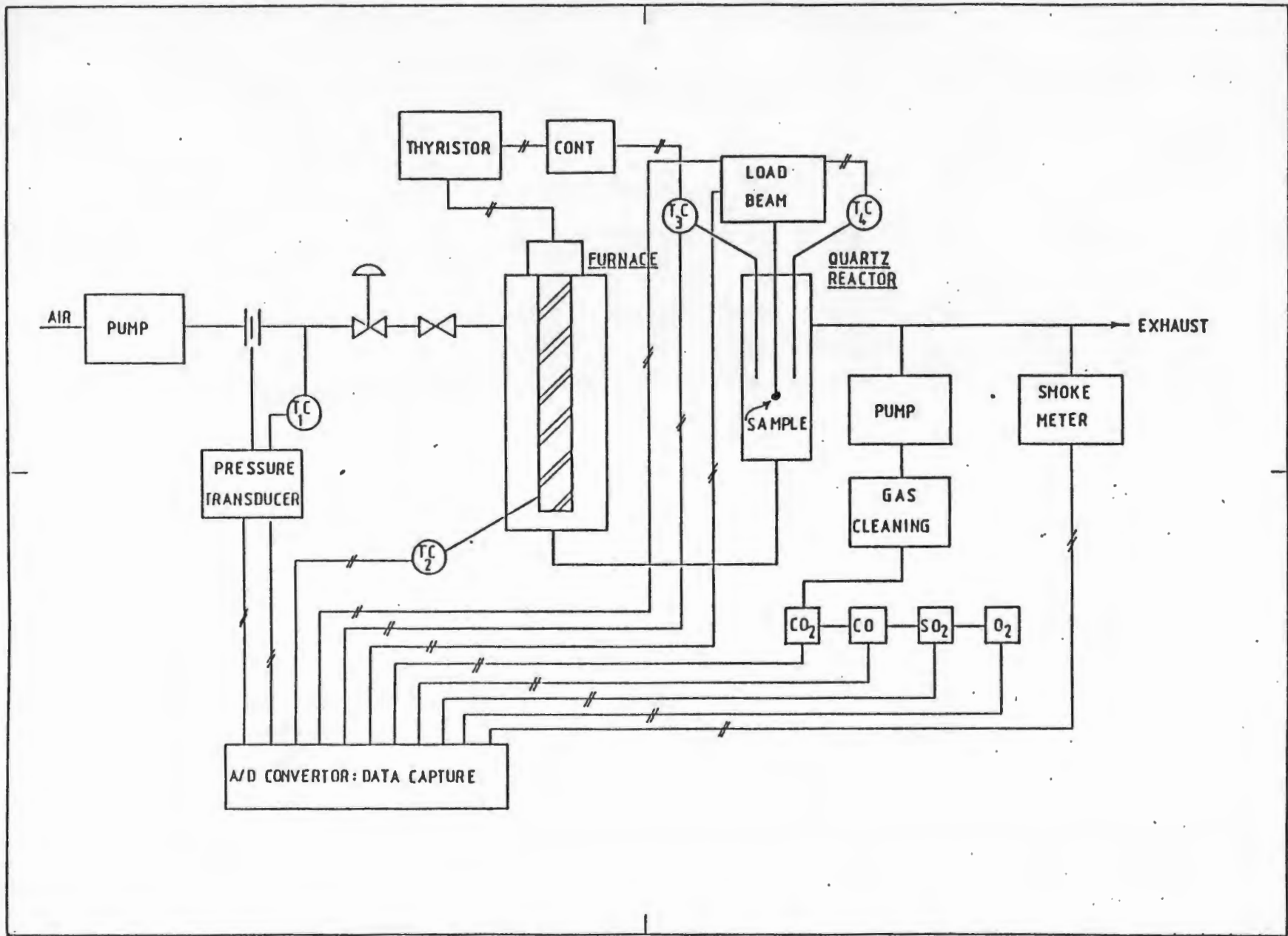


FIGURE 1 : ERI experimental rig for thermo-gravimetric combustion analysis

### 3.2 Experimental apparatus

The apparatus which was developed by Jim Petrie of the Energy Research Institute is illustrated in Figure 1.

Combustion air is blown through a furnace where it is heated to a required temperature which is regulated by a microprocessor controller. The heating element is a spiral silicon carbide form, with electrical power supplied to it via a bank of thyristors. From here it passes through a quartz reactor where combustion and decomposition of the sample takes place. A portion of the exhaust gases is drawn off for analysis of carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide and flue gas oxygen. The solid fuel sample is suspended in the quartz reactor from a load beam which monitors the mass loss during combustion. Two thermocouples are positioned in the reactor in the proximity of the sample. This provides a measure of gas film temperatures. Electronic signals from the thermocouples, load beam and gas analysers are digitised via an A/D board in a microcomputer. Software has been written to store and manipulate the data" (Petrie and Baldwin, 1987).

### 3.3 Experimental method

"Fuel samples were prepared as 14 mm sided cubes and suspended from a stainless steel rod in the reactor using nichrome wire, either wrapped around the sample or inserted through a hole drilled through the middle of the cube. Air flow to the reactor was permitted once the data capture system had been initialised. The sudden change in mass measurement due to the introduction of air was taken to be the effect of drag on the particle. A similar estimation on the drag on the ash remaining at the end if the experiment was performed so that mass measurements during combustion could be compared for drag effects by interpolating between these two values.

"The mass of the particle and the gas concentrations were recorded until constant mass signified the completion of combustion. The combustion period was divided into two phases, viz., devolatilisation and char combustion. The end of the former was determined as the time after which there were no more yellow flames (in all cases it was assumed that ambient furnace temperature was high enough, and gas residence times long enough to support ignition of volatiles).

"The final mass of the particle was determined from the average of the last ten values recorded. From this recorded mass (ash plus wire support), the combustible mass of the sample, at each time interval, was determined. A normalised value was calculated by dividing by the original sample mass. Because of the marked differences in devolatilisation and char combustion profiles, their resolution was conducted separately. The overall mass loss profile was prepared and the time derivative of this mass loss curve yielded the reactivity of the sample" (Petrie and Baldwin, 1987).

The apparent rate of reaction for the devolatilisation and char combustion phases can be derived from this data and hence the apparent rate constant may be calculated. The rate constant varies with temperature according to the Arrhenius equation and using experimental data from different controlled temperature runs, the activation energy may be derived in the usual way. A worked example is included in Appendix B.

#### 3.4 Some initial results

Rate of mass loss and reactivity curves for two different wood species, combusted under similar conditions, are shown below. Colophospermum mopane and Cryptomeria japonica were selected as representing very dense, good, and very lightweight, bad, fuelwood species respectively. The marked differences are readily apparent, with the japonica exhibiting rapid devolatilisation and poor char combustion compared with the mopane. It would appear that this technique might be fruitfully employed to differentiate between different potential fuelwood species. At the time of writing this report no further experimental runs had been conducted under different temperature conditions and no activation energies could be derived for these two species. A number of experiments, at different temperatures, were performed for pine and a worked example of the derivation of activation energy for that species is shown in Appendix B.

FIGURE 2  
COMPARISON OF MASS LOSS CURVES FOR TWO WOOD SPECIES

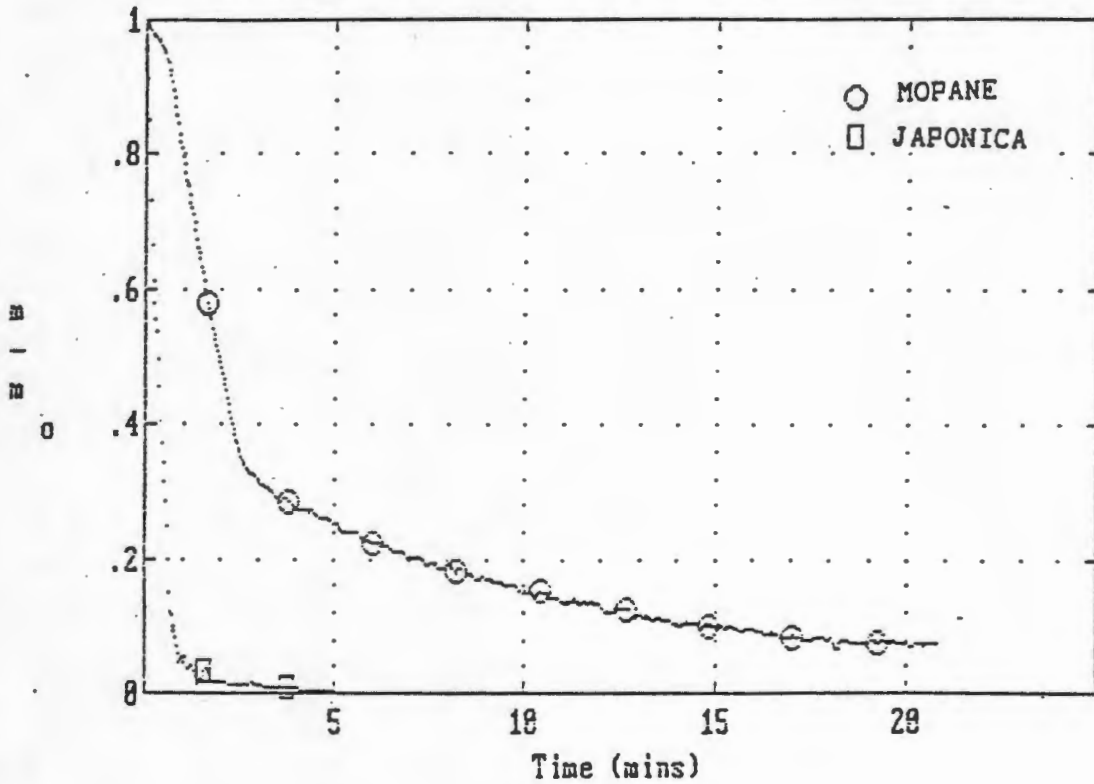


FIGURE 3  
REACTIVITY AND MASS LOSS PROFILES

Date: 17/12/86  
Fuel: Colo. Mopane  
Test No.: 1  
Free Stream  
Temperature: 587 C  
629 C  
Velocity: 1.57 m/sec  
Keu

○ Mass (g)

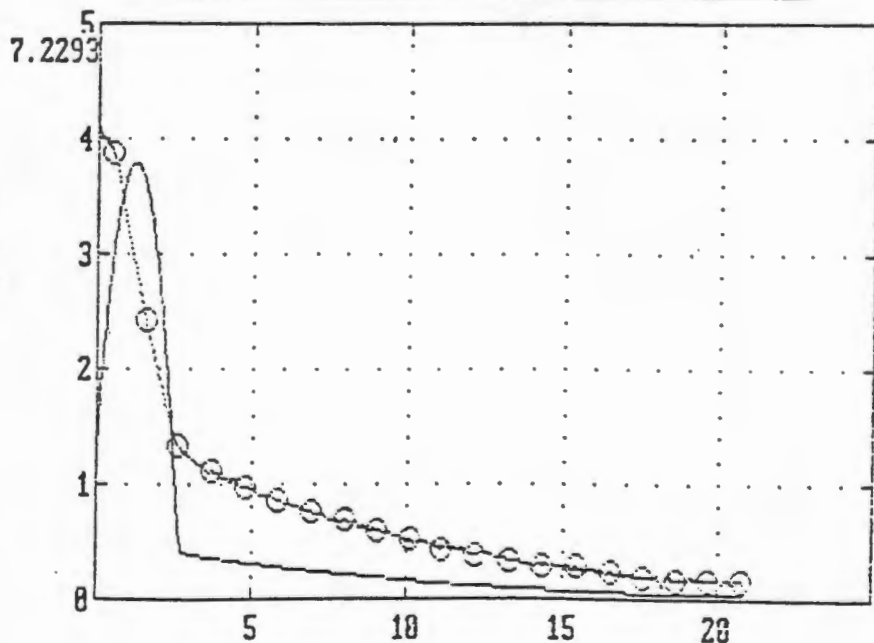
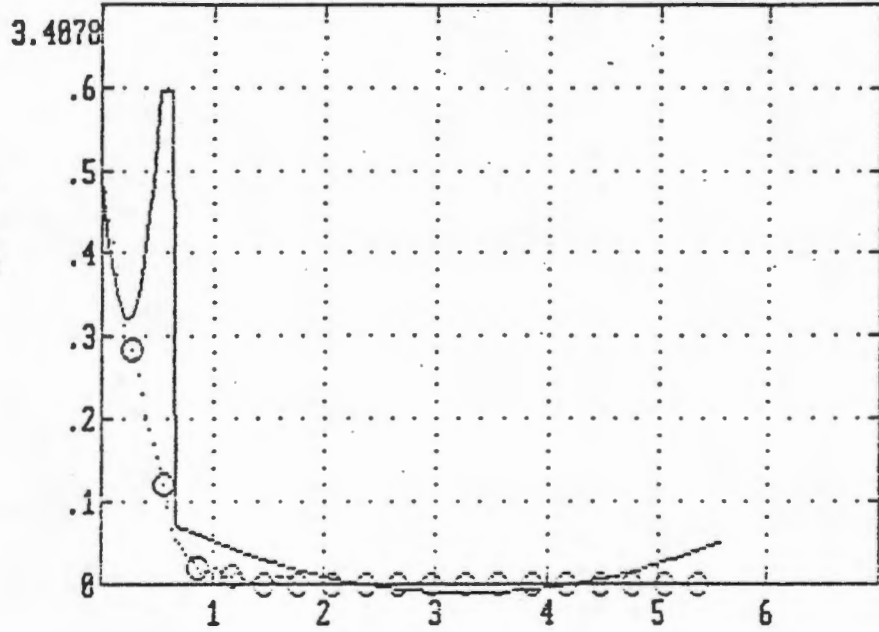


FIGURE 4  
REACTIVITY AND MASS LOSS PROFILES

Date: 18/12/86  
Fuel: Japonica  
Test No.: 1  
Free Stream  
Temperature: 601 C  
650 C  
Velocity: 1.61 m/sec  
Key  
○ Mass (g)



#### 4. CONCLUDING DISCUSSION

Calorific value is not important in the choice of species for fuelwood production. In practice, other factors such as growth rate, plantation siting, moisture content, density and type of combustion system used are far more significant.

The need still exists, however, for an objective measure of the worth of tree species as fuelwood. It has been argued that the most fruitful research direction would be a fundamental investigation into the combustion characteristics of different wood species under controlled conditions. An experimental rig has been developed which has indicated the usefulness of looking at such parameters as rate of mass loss during combustion, reactivity and activation energy. What remains to be done is the experimentation with very many more wood samples using this technique and for the data obtained to be correlated with anecdotal and field information on fuelwood preferences so as to validate this approach as being useful for ranking fuelwood species. This information can then be related to silvicultural factors which are important in the selection of suitable fuelwood species.

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## APPENDIX A

### FUELWOOD PREFERENCES

Rural households generally possess a very detailed local knowledge of the natural flora and have different vernacular names for the most subtly different tree species. They also have very definite preferences for different species depending on the use to which the wood is to be put. Eberhard (1986) studied energy consumption patterns in 6 villages in South Africa: Lujiko, near the Fish River valley in the Ciskei, Manzimahle, Clarkebury and Nkanga in the Transkei, Cottendale in the eastern Transvaal and Mokumuru near Bochum in the north-west Transvaal. Fuelwood preferences in these areas is shown in Table 2.

Most of the species noted are gathered primarily for fuel, although some are also used for the construction of kraals and fences. There is also a definite aversion to burning certain tree species, e.g., in Mokumuru, the Marula (Sclerocarya caffra), the Mogorogoro (Strychnos spinosa), the Morekuri (Spirostachys africana) because of its smell, the Mmilo (Vangueria infausta), and the Mogale (because, if burnt, it is believed that if burnt cows will produce bull calves only).

Gandar (1983b) also reports that certain species are avoided for fuelwood. It is believed, for example, that the burning of Euclea spp causes strife in the family while Vangueria infausta and Diospyros lycioides are believed to attract lightning. Spirostachys africana and Euphorbia tirucalli are generally only burnt outside because of their unpleasant or toxic smoke.

Expressed preferences are clearly linked to the local availability of particular species. For example, those households which indicated a liking for pine resided in areas which are dependent in large measure on plantation wood being trucked into the village.

Data from other areas is also of interest here. Liegme (1983) reports that in her area of study in Gazankulu, Colophospermum mopane and Combretum apiculatum were regarded as the best fuelwood species and that these were also the two which were most often used. Other species also mentioned as producing good firewood were Combretum imberbe and Acacia nigrescens. Altogether, 42 species were found to be used for fuelwood in her study area, but 3 species made up 77% by weight of the wood collected and 8 species over 90%.

Cunningham (1984) reports that the main fuelwood used in the Ingwavuma district, situated on the Maputaland coastal plains in Northern Kwazulu/Natal, are Scyreocarya caffra, Dialium schlechteri, Strychnos madagascariensis, Acacia burkei, Syzigium cordatum, Terminalia sericea, Trichilia emetica, Albizia adianthifolia and Macaranga capensis.

Gwaitta-Magumba (1983) writes that the preferred species in Swaziland are Acacia nigrescens (umkhanga) and A. davyi (umgambe).

Kgathi (1984) reports that traders who collect fuelwood in the Kaneng District of Botswana and sell it in Gaborone prefer Combretum imberbe and C. apiculatum. Less desired fuelwood species are Acacia karoo, A. erubescens, A. tortilis, and Dichrostachys cinerea.

Finally, Gandar (1983b) states that preferred species at Mahlabatini in Kwazulu are Maytenus heterophylla, Acacia nilotica, combretum apiculatum, Acacia nigrescens, A. tortilis, A. caffra, Ziziphus mucronata, Dichrostachys cinerea, Cassine transvaalensis, Berchemia zeyheri (this is a royal tree and generally protected), Acacia karoo, Olea africana, and Acacia robusta.

All the preferred fuelwood species reported above are hardwoods and many have dense timbers. The density of a wood determines to some extent the rate of release of volatiles and the degree to which good coals are formed, a dense wood usually making a longer lasting fire which gives off heat at a steadier rate. Households probably assess the rate of wood consumption primarily in terms of volumes rather than mass. Preferred fuelwood species are hence comparatively dense because they contain a greater quantity of energy per unit volume than lighter woods. Calorific value expressed in volumetric terms may thus be a more meaningful indicator of the desirability of a tree species for use as fuelwood.

Z Households Listing Tree Species In Top Five Preferences

Species	Manzimahle		Nkanga	Mokumuru	
	Lujiko	Clarkebury	Cottondale		
<u>Acacia karroo</u> (Umnga - (Xhosa), Mooka (N Sotho) or Mimosa)	8	- 24	100	-	10
<u>Combretum apiculatum</u> (Mohweleri (N Sotho) or Xikukutso (Tsonga))	-	-	-	2	97
<u>Acacia mearnsii</u> (Wattle)	-	79 2	9	-	-
<u>Eucalyptus spp.</u> (Gum)	-	6 78	-	10	-
<u>Scutia myrtina</u> (Ubobo or Sipingo)	-	- 44	73	-	-
<u>Ptaeroxylon obliquum</u> (Umthathi or Sneeze)	12	-	72	-	-
<u>Acacia burkei or robusta</u> (Mokgwa)	-	-	-	-	63
<u>Cussonia paniculata</u> (Motshe or motshetse?)	-	-	-	-	50
<u>Dalbergia obovata</u> (Uzungu)	-	-	45	-	-
<u>Pinus spp.</u> (Pine)	-	- 40	-	15	-
<u>Grewia lasiocarpa</u> ((U)hlolo)	-	-	36	-	-
<u>Combretum imberbe</u> (Mmondzo - Tsonga, Motswere - N Sotho)	-	-	-	6	33
<u>Acacia tortilis</u> (Moswana or mosu)	-	-	-	-	30
<u>Aloe spp.</u>	-	- 29	-	2	-
<u>Rhus lancea</u> (Umhlakotshane)	-	-	27	-	-

Z Households Listing Tree Species In Top Five Preferences

Species	Villages	Manzimahle		Nkanga	Mokumuru	
		Lujiko	Clarkebury		Cottondale	
<u>Olea europaea spp. africana</u>	20	-	-	9	-	-
(Umnquma or Olive)						
<u>Maytenus heterophylla</u>	20	-	-	9	-	-
(Umqaqoba)						
<u>Schotia brachypetala</u>	-	-	-	-	-	20
(Molope)						
<u>Turraea floribunda</u>	-	-	-	18	-	-
(Umvuma)						
<u>Calodendrum capense</u>	-	-	-	9	-	-
(Umbaba)						
<u>Zanthoxylum capense</u>	-	-	-	9	-	-
(Umunungu mabele)						
<u>Combretum erythrophyllum</u>	-	-	-	-	-	3
(Modibo or Moduba)						
<u>Strychnos innocua</u>	-	-	-	-	2	-
(Nkwakwa)						
<u>Dichrostachys cinerea</u>	-	-	-	-	8	-
(Ndzenga (Tsonga) Moretshe (N Sotho))						
<u>Diospyros mespiliformis</u>	-	-	-	-	2	-
(Ntoma)						

## APPENDIX B

### DETERMINATION OF COMBUSTION ACTIVATION ENERGY FOR PINE CHAR SAMPLE.

Wood reactivity data, obtained via a thermal balance reactor, can be used to determine fundamental combustion parameters such as the activation energy associated with the combustion of wood char. The numerical value of this "observed" activation energy should provide valuable information on the relative worth of various fuel wood species.

There are a number of assumptions implicit in this type of overall analysis. These are enumerated below. It should, however, be stressed that, in a more rigorous analysis, most, if not all of these, would be substantiated either by experimental measurement, or by making use of physical property correlations available in the open literature. This sample calculation serves only to outline the principles involved in this type of analysis.

Firstly, it is assumed that volatile release rate was fast compared to char combustion, and that volatile combustion and char combustion could be treated as consecutive, non interfering phenomena. For this analysis, the onset of char combustion was determined by the change in slope of the mass loss curve plotted as a function of time, and in all cases corresponded to between 20% and 30% of the original sample mass.

Secondly, no attempt has been made to resolve film diffusion and chemical limitations, nor to distinguish between reaction limitations at the char particle surface, and any intra particle diffusional constraints. The activation energy so derived is thus a "lumped" value. This is best explained as follows:

The specific reaction rate,  $R_a$ , is given by

$$R_a = k_c C_s^n \quad [1]$$

where  $k_c$  is the intrinsic chemical rate constant, but includes a factor to account for intra particle diffusion.

$C_s$  is the surface concentration of oxygen

and  $n$  is the true order of reaction.

The intrinsic activation energy,  $E_A$ , is determined from the value of  $k_c$ , assuming an Arrhenius dependence.

The surface concentration of oxygen is an unknown. Rewriting the expression for specific reaction rate in terms of the oxygen concentration gradient, gives

$$R_a = k_g (C_g - C_s) \quad [2]$$

and further, for a first order reaction ( a not unrealistic assumption), combining the above two equations gives

$$R_a = k_c k_g C_g / (k_c + k_g) \quad [3]$$

From this expression, a pseudo rate constant,  $K$ , given by

$$K = k_c k_g / (k_c + k_g) \quad [4]$$

is derived. An "observed" activation energy for char combustion can be derived from this effective rate constant, according to

$$K = A \exp (-E/RT) \quad [5]$$

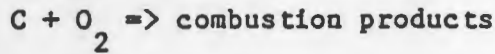
Depending on the relative importance of film mass transfer, chemical kinetics, and intraparticle diffusion, this pseudo rate constant,  $K$ , may approximate the true chemical rate constant, and the observed value of the char activation energy, so derived, approach the true intrinsic value. The intricacies of this type of analysis are not unwieldy, but go beyond the current requirement of fuelwood comparison. A comprehensive analysis is required if it is important to consider the combustion of various wood species in a range of combustion hardware, where temperatures and air velocity profiles may extend beyond the ranges covered in this investigation.

The specific reaction rate for char combustion, given by

$$R_a = K C_g \quad [6]$$

is determined from the time rate of mass loss for the char species, assuming, in addition, that these pine chars burn at constant density (taken as  $400 \text{ kg/m}^3$ ).

For the reaction



the specific rate of reaction can be related to the molar flux of oxygen by

$$R_a = - 1/S_A \frac{d N_A}{d t} \quad [7]$$

where  $N_A$  is moles of oxygen reacted, and  $S_A$  is outer surface area of the unreacted char particle ( which varies as the unreacted core shrinks with time).

The molar flux of oxygen (by stoichiometry) can be expressed in terms of carbon mass loss, to give

$$R_a = - 1/S_A \frac{d ( 4/3 \pi \rho r^3 / MW )}{d t} \quad [8]$$

The instantaneous char particle radius,  $r$ , is, for particles of constant density, related to instantaneous particle mass according to

$$(r/R_o)^3 = (m/m_o) \quad [9]$$

where  $R_o$  and  $m_o$  refer to initial particle radius and mass respectively. Expressing  $S_A$  in terms of particle mass, i.e.

$$S_A = 4\pi R_o^2 (m/m_o)^{2/3} \quad [10]$$

and rewriting the expression for specific reaction rate, gives

$$R_a = - \frac{ ( R_o \rho / 3MW ) \frac{d (m/m_o)}{d t} }{ (m/m_o)^{2/3} } \quad [11]$$

In other words, the apparent specific reaction rate for char combustion can be found from a plot of char reactivity versus normalised mass raised to the power 2/3.

This is the approach adopted here. A number of experiments were performed with pine samples in the temperature range of 600 °C to 850 °C. In all cases the combustion atmosphere was held constant at 21% oxygen.

Once the specific reaction rate for char combustion has been determined as a function of temperature, according to equation 11, a plot of the log of the specific reaction rate versus the inverse of the combustion temperature yielded a value for the "observed" char activation energy. Experimental data is shown in the accompanying table (A1).

The calculated value of E is 15,1 kJ / mol. This value is higher than one consistent with film mass transfer dominating, and indicates some intra-particle diffusional limitations.

TABLE A1.

PINE CHAR COMBUSTION IN AIR

EXPERIMENTAL PARAMETERS.

BULK GAS TEMP (K)	SLOPE	SPECIFIC RATE (kmol / s / m <sup>2</sup> )
880	0.0132	0.0012
884	0.0167	0.0015
887	0.015	0.0013
1006	0.0121	0.0017
1014	0.0203	0.0013
1079	0.0237	0.0021
1105	0.0203	0.0013

The slope (column 2) refers to the plot of char reactivity versus char mass according to equation 11, and is equal to

$$3 MW R_a / (R_o \rho).$$

No allowance was made for the difference between char surface temperature and gas film temperature. In practice, this measurement would be made directly by non intrusive thermometry.



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A A EBERHARD

APRIL 1988



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