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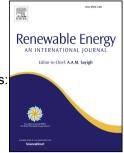
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Authors Contributions

Dr Zhao Ming and Dr Huabo Duan are the Corresponding authors for the manuscript, who owns the leadership responsibility of the research activity, planning and execution.

Dr Arun K. Vuppaladadiyam and Dr Elsa Antunes conceived the idea and designed the experiments;

Arun K. Vuppaladadiyam performed the experiments;

Arun K. Vuppaladadiyam wrote the paper;

Dr Paula Blanco performed the data analysis and proof reading;

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Influence of microalgae on synergism during co-pyrolysis with organic waste biomass: A thermogravimetric and kinetic analysis

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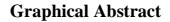
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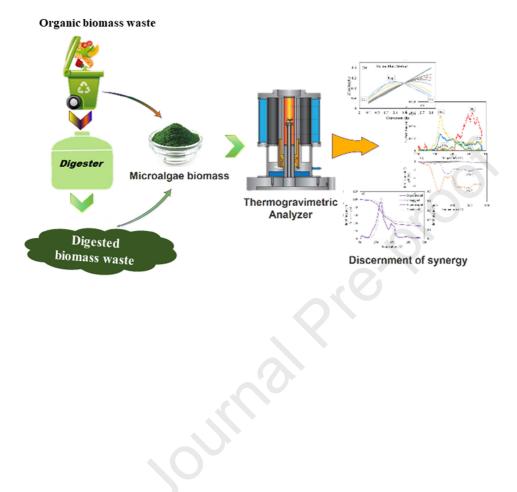
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1	Influence of microalgae on synergism during co-pyrolysis with organic waste
2	biomass: A thermogravimetric and kinetic analysis
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17	Abstract
18	The synergistic influence of microalgae on the two forms of organic waste biomasses, namely
19	biomass wastes (BW) and its digested form (DBW), during co-pyrolysis was evaluated based on
20	the thermal decomposition behaviour, gas yields, extent of thermal decomposition and reaction
21	kinetics. The biomasses and their blends were co-pyrolysed at three different heating rates (10,
22	15 and 20 \Box C min ⁻¹) in a thermogravimetric analyzer coupled with a mass spectrometer. Initial
23	assessment, based on TG-DTG data, revealed that the thermal degradation can be divided into

three zones (50-150 \Box C, 150-550 \Box C and 550-800 \Box C) for all the biomasses and their blends.

The thermogravimetric data was used to evaluate the kinetic triplet, which include apparent

activation energy (E_{α}), pre-exponential factor (A) and reaction mechanism, $f(\alpha)$. Semi-

quantitative method was used to quantify the gas species, H2, CO2 and CO were dominant

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1

species, implying the water gas reactions and oxidation reactions were predominant. The synergistic influence of microalgae was clearly evident in terms of reaction kinetics, as noted in the reduction in the apparent activation energy and increase in the total gas yields. The obtained kinetic triplet and thermodynamic parameters are expected to facilitate the design and optimization of co-pyrolysis of microalgae with other forms of organic wastes.

6 *Keywords*: Biomass, Co-pyrolysis, Thermogravimetric, Kinetic analysis, Microalgae.

7 1. Introduction

The global energy sector, till date, largely rely on fossil-based resources for energy production, 8 9 resulting in serious environmental issues such as global warming. However, it is to be noted that at the current consumption rate, the fossil reserves are estimated to last not more than 50 10 years.[1] Owing to facts such as depletion of fossil fuels, rises in greenhouse gases emissions, the 11 research in the last few decades has been directed to identify alternative energy resources [2]. 12 Biofuels generated from sources like biomass are considered to be ideal substitutes to traditional 13 fossil-based fuels and are extensively studied in the recent past [3-5]. Additionally, legislation of 14 15 biofuels, in many developed countries, as renewable fuel standard and renewable portfolio standard has been done to promote their early adoption [6]. Alongside the advantages, the first 16 generation biofuels (largely produced from edible crops) are reported to pose a range of issues 17 such as rise in price of edible crops, water shortage and competition between food and fuel [7]. 18 The second-generation biofuels, derived from lignocellulosic wastes, can address the issues 19 20 associated with its forerunner; although, they still have limitations such as transportation of biomass, cost-intensive and pre-treatment [8]. 21

22 The third-generation biofuels, produced from microalgae biomass, appear to be promising 23 alternatives to its predecessors. Microalgae present many advantages over lignocellulosic biomass, such as higher conversion efficiency of incident light, higher lipid contents and 24 25 exceptional growth rates, making them a sustainable feedstock for bioenergy based industry [9]. 26 Additionally, a sustainable and carbon neutral mode of biofuels production can be made possible when the microalgae cultivation units are integrated with powerplants/cement industries and 27 28 wastewater treatment units [10]. In addition to microalgae based biofuel production, domestic waste biomass, which contain materials such as paper, plastic food waste, textile and wood 29 materials, has been widely considered as potential resource for sustainable energy production 30

1 and resource recovery [3]. China, which is the world most populated country, has produced *ca*.

2 179.36 million tons of domestic wastes in 2011 and the production is expected to increase to 480
3 million tons by 2030 [11].

Biochemical (anaerobic digestion) and thermochemical (pyrolysis) techniques are widely 4 employed to convert biomass to bioenergy. However, either of them has their own advantages 5 and limitations. During the anaerobic digestion (AD) process, some polymers such as Klason 6 lignin are not effectively degraded and consequently gets accumulated in the digested residues, 7 making it an ideal feedstock for the pyrolysis process, for example, in an integrated system [12]. 8 9 There are, however, few drawbacks for pyrolysis, such as high oxygen and water content in the pyrolysis liquid products. These disadvantages can be eliminated by employing co-pyrolysis 10 where the synergistic interaction between two feedstocks help compensate the drawbacks of one 11 12 feedstock with the merits of other feedstock [5]. It is to be noted that the structural components 13 of microalgae, which are lipids, proteins and carbohydrates, are completely different from the 14 structural components of organic domestic wastes, which are cellulose, hemicellulose, lignin. Under such conditions, the mechanism of interactions between microalgae and domestic waste 15 16 biomass or its digested form during thermal conversion is still unclear. Kinetic analysis could 17 provide valuable information related to the rate and degree of reaction, which can help understanding the co-pyrolysis process [13]. The iso-conversional kinetics are highly 18 19 recommended by the International Confederation for Thermal Analysis and Calorimetry (ICTAC) to derive meaningful kinetic data for a solid-state process [14, 15]. 20

In the present study, the synergistic influence of microalgae, Spirulina platensis (SP) on domestic 21 22 biomass waste (hereafter will be referred as biomass wastes, BW) and its digestate (hereafter will be referred as digested biomass wastes, DBW) has been evaluated based on the thermal 23 behaviour, evolved gases and kinetic behaviour. Spirulina platensis has been widely investigated 24 than most of the microalgae and is reportedly one of the frontrunners as a feedstock for biofuel 25 production. Additionally, to the best of our knowledge, there is very limited research available on 26 co-pyrolysis of microalgae with organic form of solid waste [5, 16]. Under such conditions, it is 27 vitally important to understand the influence of an established microalgae on organic biomass 28 waste during co-pyrolysis process. Three different mixing ratios (w/w), under each combination, 29 were selected and were pyrolyzed under same conditions. The blends obtained from SP and BW 30 were named as SB-1 (25% SP and 75% BW), SB-2 (50% SP and 50% BW) and SB-3 (75% SP 31

and 25% BW) and the blends obtained from SP and DBW were named as SD-1 (25% SP and 1 75% DBW), SD -2 (50% SP and 50% DBW) and SD -3 (75% SP and 25% DBW). Two iso-2 conversional methods, Kissinger-Akira-Sunnose (KAS) method and Friedman method, were 3 used to obtain the apparent activation energy (E_a) and compensation effect was used to derive the 4 pre-exponential factor (A) and reaction mechanism function, $f(\alpha)$. Furthermore, the reaction 5 mechanism obtained using compensation effect was confirmed against the one obtained from 6 generalised master plots method. Finally, the obtained kinetic triplet (E_{α} , A and $f(\alpha)$) was 7 8 validated by comparing the experimental and simulated conversion vs temperature curves. The 9 most common reaction mechanism functions studied and reported in the literature can be found 10 in the Supplementary Information, Table S1.

11 **2. Materials and Methods**

12 **2.1. Materials**

Microalgae, Spirulina platensis (SP) was collected from Phycospectrum Environmental Research 13 Centre (PERC), Chennai, Tamil Nadu, India. Using a suitable media, the microalgae was further 14 cultivated in the lab under controlled conditions, with CFTRI media, temperature of 30°C and a 15 light intensity of 500 lux. After the cultivation phase, the solid phase of the culture was separated 16 from the liquid phase using a centrifuge at 6500 rpm for 15 min. The solid biomass was washed 17 with deionized water and was dried in an oven at 80°C to obtain dry biomass. organic biowaste 18 19 was synthetically prepared in the lab based on the available literature. Different fractions of BW, such as food waste, paper, textile, rubber and wood, were mixed according to their proportions in 20 real organic biowaste [3]. BW was then digested in an Automatic Methane Potential Test System 21 II (Bioprocess Control, Sweden) to completely digest the samples. The digestion process was run 22 23 in triplicates, in 0.6 L reactors, to ensure the complete digestion. Growth characteristics of the microalgae and digestion characteristics of BW are out of the scope of the present study, 24 25 therefore are not reported here. The proximate, ultimate, biochemical and structural analysis for the selected materials are presented in Table 1 and the elemental analysis is presented in Table 26 27 2.

Table 1. Characterization the biomass samples.

Parameters	Sample	SP	BW	DBW
Proximate analysis (wt %)	Moisture	4.73	7.13	6.88
	VM	84.30	75.73	42.79

	FC	5.85	6.38	9.21
	Ash	5.14	16.75	47.61
Ultimate analysis (wt %)	С	47.02	55.67	31.83
	Н	6.83	7.57	4.50
	0	27.81	33.99	60.53
	Ν	10.53	2.77	3.14
	S	0.82	0.43	0.78
Biochemical composition (wt %)	Carbohydrate	19.80	_	_
	Protein	62.60	_	_
	Lipid	8.70	_	_
Structural component analysis (wt %)	Lignin	_	7.38	17.67
	Cellulose	_	61.74	35.72
	Hemicellulose	_	12.42	29.49

1 Table 2. Heavy metal analysis of the selected samples.	1	Table 2.	Heavy metal	analysis of	the selected s	samples.
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Metal	Mg	Al	Si	Р	S	Cl	Κ	Ca	In Fe	Zn	Cu	Ni
SP (%)	19.30	0.72	0.59	33.6	8.46	2.52	21.6	1.62 0.2	25 0.50	0.01	0.01	0.01
BW (%)	3.41	0.78	2.76	5.5	1.78	6.83	14.4	21.70 0.	03 1.06	0.13	0.01	0.07
DBW (%)	4.98	2.16	10.40	8.3	1.69	0.25	2.88	14.70 0.2	22 3.19	0.75	0.22	0.01

2 2.2. TG-DTG and evolved gas analyses

The thermogravimetric (TG) and derivative thermogravimetric (DTG) analysis of the selected 3 samples (SB1-3, SD1-3) were carried out in a thermal analyzer (Q600), where ca. 6 mg of the 4 sample was heated from ambient temperature to 800°C. Three different heating rates, 10, 15 and 5 20 °C min⁻¹, were used to analyse the thermal and kinetic behaviour of pure materials and their 6 blends (SB1-3, SD1-3). Argon was used as purge gas at a flow rate of 500 mL min⁻¹ to maintain 7 8 and inert environment and assure accurate pyrolysis conditions within the system. The pyrolysis gas was delivered to a mass spectrometer (MS) via a heated capillary. The scanned ions and their 9 respective gas species are presented in Table 3. 10 Table 3. Ion fragments and their representative gas species. 11

<i>m/z</i> ,	Ion fragments	Representative Species
2	${\rm H_2}^+$	Hydrogen
15	$\mathrm{CH_4}^+$	Methane
28	CO^+	Carbon monoxide
40	Ar^+	Argon
44	$\mathrm{CO_2}^+$	Carbon dioxide

12 Taking into consideration the weight of the biomass sample and Ar flow rate, the raw signals

13 from MS were normalized using the below equation [ref];

1 Normalized signal for key molecule fragments 'i' = $(IC_i*500)/(IC_{Ar}*wt_{sample})$ (1)

where, IC_i and IC_{Ar} represents m/z signals for molecular ion fragments and Ar, respectively, 'i' represents arbitrary unit and wt.*sample* is the biomass weight (g). A more detailed explanation of the procedure is mentioned in our previous study [17].

5 2.3. Kinetic analysis of co-pyrolysis of biomass and their blends

6 Pyrolysis of biomass varies with the type of biomass because the chemical structure of the all 7 categories of biomass is not the same. However, the biomass pyrolysis pathway can be defined 8 as biomass decomposition into char, volatiles and gases. According to Arrhenius fundamental 9 equation, the rate constant k(T) could be defined;

10
$$k(T) = Ae^{\left(\frac{-E_{\alpha}}{RT}\right)}$$

where E_{α} and *A* represent apparent activation energy (J mole⁻¹) and pre-exponential (s⁻¹) of the reaction, respectively, and T and R represent absolute temperature (°K) and universal gas constant (8.314 J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹), respectively.

(2)

The thermal decomposition of biomass is reflected by the degree of conversion (α) and can bedefined as:

$$16 \qquad \alpha = \frac{m_0 - m_t}{m_0 - m_\infty} \tag{3}$$

where $m_{0,}$ reflects the initial mass, $m_{\infty,}$ reflects the final mass and m_{t} reflects the instantaneous masses during thermal conversion process.

19 The kinetics of a heterogeneous solid state reaction can be defined as [18]:

20
$$\frac{d\alpha}{dt} = k(T)f(\alpha) = Ae^{\left(\frac{-E_{\alpha}}{RT}\right)}f(\alpha)$$
(4)

21 where, $f(\alpha)$ and t represents reaction mechanism function and time, respectively.

Taking the logarithm on both side of Eqn. (4) and rearranging terms generates Friedmanequation [19]:

24
$$\ln\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}\alpha}{\mathrm{d}t}\right) = \ln\left[A(\alpha)f(\alpha)\right] - \frac{E_{\mathrm{a}}(\alpha)}{RT}$$
 (5)

The heating rate (β), since temperature is a function of time and increases with heating rate, can
be defined as;

1
$$\beta = \frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{dT}{d\alpha} \times \frac{d\alpha}{dt}$$
 (6)

2 Form the Eqns. (2) and (6),

3
$$\frac{d\alpha}{dT} = \frac{A}{\beta} e^{\left(\frac{-E_{\alpha}}{RT}\right)} f(\alpha)$$
(7)

4 The integrated form of $f(\alpha)$ is stated as follows;

5
$$g(\alpha) = \int_0^{\alpha} \frac{d\alpha}{f(\alpha)} = \frac{A}{\beta} \int_{T_0}^{T} e^{\left(\frac{-E_a}{RT}\right)} dT$$
 (8)

As Eqn. (8) does not have an exact solution, numerical methods or approximations are necessary to arrive at the final solution. Iso-conversional methods, taking into consideration their outstanding adaptability and validity, were considered to assess the apparent activation energy (E_{α}) of the pyrolysis process. Thus, one method from each category, differential (Friedman method) and integral (Kissinger-Akahira-Sunose) methods, were considered to obtain the E_{α} . Furthermore, the values of *A* and $f(\alpha)$ were obtained considering the E_{α} obtained from Friedman method.

13 The Kissinger-Akahira-Sunose (KAS) method is as follows [20]:

14
$$\ln(\frac{\beta}{T^2}) = \ln[\frac{AR}{E_{\alpha}g(\alpha)}] - \frac{E_{\alpha}}{RT}$$

By plotting $\ln(\beta/T^2)$ vs. 1/T for KAS method and $(\ln(d\alpha/dt)$ vs. 1/T for Friedman method and evaluating the slopes derived from the above plots, the apparent activation energy can be obtained for the conversion process.

(9)

18 **2.3.1.** Evaluation of pre-exponential factor and reaction mechanism

A strong linear relationship between the Arrhenius parameters, $\ln A_i$ and $E_{\alpha i}$, obtained under a single heating rate can be defined as compensation effect. As A_{α} is held together with $f(\alpha)$ in the evaluation function, using model-free methods such as Friedman or KAS methods, does not help evaluate the accurate values of A_{α} . However, compensation effect can be used to accurately evaluate the values of A_{α} [15, 21, 22]. By taking logarithm on both sides of Eqn. (4) and rearranging the terms;

25
$$\ln \left[\frac{1}{f_i(\alpha)} \frac{d\alpha}{dt} \right] = \ln A_i(\alpha) - \frac{E_{\alpha}(\alpha)}{RT}$$
 (10)

1 where, *i* refers to the mechanism function listed in Table S1. By substituting the mechanism 2 functions listed in Table S1 into Eqn. (10) a pair of $\ln A_i$ and $E_{\alpha i}$ could be generated. The 3 compensation equation can then be given by:

$$4 \qquad \ln A_i = a^* E_{ai} + b^* \tag{11}$$

5 The values of a^* and b^* can be obtained by linear fitting different pairs of $\ln A_i$ and $E_{\alpha,i}$. 6 Substituting the values E_{α} , obtained by using Friedman iso-conversional method, and a^* and b^* 7 obtained from the above equation, the values of $A(\alpha)$ can be obtained from Eqn. (12),

8
$$\ln A_{\alpha} = a^* E_{\alpha} + b^*$$

9 The reaction mechanism function can be obtained by rearranging the terms in Eqn. (4) and is10 given as,

(12)

11
$$f(\alpha) = \left(\frac{d\alpha}{dt}\right)_{\alpha} \left[A_{\alpha} \exp\left(-\frac{E_{\alpha}}{RT}\right)\right]^{-1}$$
 (13)

Substituting the values of A_{α} and E_{α} and using the experimental values of $(d\alpha/dt)$ and T_{α} , in Eqn. 12 (13), the mechanism function $f(\alpha)$ can be built numerically. All the mechanism functions listed in 13 Table S1 fall under three categories, namely accelerating, decelerating or sigmoidal. The $f(\alpha)$ 14 15 generated using compensation effect describes the nature of the reaction mechanism mentioned above. However, allowing to match experimental curves to theoretical curves, the master-plots 16 method helps to exactly identify the mechanism function. In the present study, $Z(\alpha)$ master-plots 17 18 method [23] was employed and by using the experimental values obtained for $d\alpha/dt$) and T_{α} the reaction mechanism can be obtained by using Eqn. (14): 19

$$20 \qquad \frac{Z(\alpha)}{Z(\alpha)_{0.5}} = \frac{f(\alpha)g(\alpha)}{f(\alpha)_{0.5}g(\alpha)_{0.5}} = \left(T/T_{0.5}\right)^2 \left(\frac{d\alpha}{dt}\right)_{\alpha} / \left(\frac{d\alpha}{dt}\right)_{0.5}$$
(14)

21 where, 0.5 implies conversion at $\alpha = 0.5$.

The experimental and theoretical curves obtained from the right-hand side and middle terms of Eqn. (14), respectively, are matched against each other to identify the accurate reaction mechanism function.

The most important thermodynamic parameters, such as, enthalpy (ΔH), Gibbs free energy (ΔG), and change in entropy (ΔS), which are crucial in designing a reactor for the pyrolysis process were identified by using Eqns. (15) to (17) [4, 24]:

$$\Delta H = \mathbf{E}_{\alpha} - \mathbf{R} \mathbf{T}$$
(15)

1
$$\Delta G = \mathbf{E}_{\alpha} + \mathbf{R}\mathbf{T}_{m}\ln\left[\frac{k_{B}\mathbf{T}_{m}}{hA}\right]$$
 (16)

$$\Delta S = \frac{\Delta H - \Delta G}{T_m}$$
(17)

3 where, k_B , T_m and h are Boltzmann constant (1.381 × 10⁻²³ J K⁻¹), DTG peak temperature and 4 Plank constant (6.626 × 10⁻³⁴ J s), respectively.

5 **3. Results and Discussions**

6 3.1. Influence of raw and digested organic biowastes on the thermal behavior during co7 pyrolysis with microalgae

8 The thermogravimetric (TG) and derivative thermogravimetric (DTG) curves for biomasses and their blends obtained from SP and BW and SP and DBW at 15 °C min⁻¹ are presented in Fig. 1 9 (a) - (f), respectively. It should be noted that, during pyrolysis, the mass loss of the biomass is 10 due to the release of vapours and gases. The DTG curves, shown in Fig. 1 (b), (d) and (f) can be 11 12 characterised into three stages. During the first stage, in temperature region $< 150 \square C$, there has 13 been a minimal weight loss noticed with all the samples and is mainly due to dehydration [25]. The weight loss in this stage was approximately 1.04, 0.36, 0.72, 0.95, and 1.3% for SP, BW, SB-14 1, SB-2 and SB-3, respectively. The second stage is considered as the main pyrolysis stage, in the 15 temperature range $150 - 600 \square C$, where the major weight loss has been noticed. The weight loss 16 was noticed to be 67.12, 77.57, 73.7, 71.98 and 76.47% for SP, BW, SB-1, SB-2, and SB-3 17 samples, respectively. For SP, in stage II, a main peak followed by a lean shoulder can be 18 noticed, where the main peak, at around 313 \Box C, can be attributed to the degradation of 19 carbohydrates and proteins. As the lipids are known to degrade over a wide range of temperature, 20 21 the shoulder at around $425 - 475 \square C$ can be attributed to the degradation of lipids in the microalgae. It has been reported that the cracking, decarboxylation and depolymerization of 22 23 carbohydrates, lipids and proteins, may happen in this temperature zone [26]. On the other hand, 24 the DTG profile of BW in stage II can be characterised by a shoulder followed by three peaks at temperatures 211, 319, 379, and 438 °C. The shoulder on the left can be the degradation of 25 26 hemicellulose and proteins, available in the wood and food portion of BW [27, 28]. The first peak can be attributed to the degradation of cellulose in wood and carbohydrates and proteins 27 present in the food portion of BW [27, 28]. The second peak can be ascribed to the degradation 28

of rubber and/or paper wastes, as described in results reported in literature [29, 30]. The third 1 peak corresponds to the degradation of plastic waste in BW [29, 31]. For DBW, from Fig. 1 (f) 2 the percentage of weight loss happened during stage I (0-150°C), II (150-600°C) and III (600-3 800°C) were noticed to be 1.43, 44.38, and 5.94%, respectively. The weight loss for DBW in 4 stage II was significantly lower than BW, which was 77%. The DTG profiles indicate a minor 5 weight loss in stage I, mainly due to the dehydration [25]. In the stage II, two characteristic peaks 6 were noticed at 339 and 430°C. Unlike BW, where three peaks were noticed in the stage II, the 7 DTG curve have not showed the third peak at 379°C for DBW. The reason could be the 8 9 degradation of paper waste occurred during the anaerobic digestion [32]. The first and second peaks in stage II for DBW could be attributed to the remains of cellulose and plastic waste, 10 respectively [33]. Additionally, a tiny shoulder was noticed in the temperature range 440-460 °C, 11 can be explained by further of degradation of lignin, which remained in DBW after anaerobic 12 13 digestion [32].

14 For the blended samples obtained from SP and BW, the overall trends appear much close to the dominant biomass. For SB-1, which contain BW as major part, the DTG profile is much similar 15 to BW, whereas SB-3, which contain SP as major part the DTG profile is much closer to SP 16 17 biomass. However, residual fraction left after pyrolysis for all blends fall in between the fraction left for individual biomasses, similar results were noticed during co-pyrolysis of Chlorella and 18 19 kitchen waste [16]. The DTG profiles for blends are characterized by two peaks, a shoulder followed by the first peak. The major weight loss peaks were noticed to be at temperatures 438, 20 311 and 310 °C for SB-1, SB-2 and SB-3, respectively. For the blended samples obtained from 21 22 SP and DBW, SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3, residual fraction left after pyrolysis for all blends fall in between the fraction left for individual biomasses, SP and DBW. Similar results were noticed 23 during co-pyrolysis of microalgae and textile dying sludge [34]. The final residual mass left for 24 25 SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3 were 43.53, 33.4 and 32.76%, respectively. It should be noted that there is no much difference in the residue left at the end of the pyrolysis for SD-2 and SD-2 even though 26 the composition of microalgae varied significantly. The blends obtained from SP and DBW, SD-27 1, SD-2 and SD-3, had the DTG profiles much similar to the dominant biomass of the blend. In 28 the second stage (150-600 °C), two significant peaks were noticed for SD-1 and SD-2; however, 29 one peak followed by a shoulder was noticed for SD-3. The mass loss rate was noticed to be 30 higher for SD-3 followed by the SD-2 and SD-1. This could be because of the high volatile 31

matter present in SP [34] and the order of dominance of SP in the blends followed SD-3>SD-1 2>SD-1. Similar behavior was noticed in other studies [35, 36]. The peaks at 313, 311 and 313°C 2 could represent the degradation of remaining carbohydrates and proteins after digestion. The 3 peaks at 434, 443 and 443°C and the shoulder in the same temperature range for SD-1, SD-2 and 4 SD-3, respectively could be due to the plastic wastes in DBW that remained after digestion. In 5 the third stage, significant peaks at 676, 620 and 620°C were noticed for SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3, 6 respectively. These peaks can be attributed to the decomposition of char and other inorganics 7 8 such as....

9 It should be noted form Fig. 1 that the initial decomposition temperature of BW was lower than SP, indicating that the volatile matter in BW was easily decomposed than SP. As the microalgae 10 contains carbohydrates, lipids and proteins as structural components, which are macromolecular 11 12 compounds with a complex structure, they require more energy to break down the chemical 13 bonds and consequently their decomposition started at relatively higher temperature than BW. 14 Additionally, as SP biomass contain more volatile matter than BW and DBW (Table 1), the pyrolysis intensity (dm/dt) was noticed to be higher. It should also be noted that the increase in 15 the proportion of SP in blends increased the pyrolysis intensity, indicating that the higher the 16 17 content of SP, the higher is the reactivity of blends and faster the mass loss rate, corresponding to the results reported in the study on co-pyrolysis of microalgae and textile dye sludge [34]. 18 19 Therefore, blending SP with BW or DBW could avoid the drawbacks of one another and improve pyrolysis performance. 20

Further, the mechanism of synergy can be understood as the digestion process initiates the 21 22 decomposition of biomass, which can be observed by data available in Table 1 where the volatile 23 matter in DBW is much lower than in BW. Another important aspect is the change in structural component analysis of BW and DBW presented in Table 1. DSMW has a much higher 24 25 percentage of hemicellulose, which decomposes at lower temperatures range (220-315 °C) than cellulose (300-400 °C). The cellulose content in DBW is about 58% of the percentage in BW. 26 Additionally, the high thermochemical reactivity of microalgae demonstrated in Fig. 1 and its 27 high volatile matter content (84.30wt% - Table 1) shows that synergistic effects are expected in 28 the simultaneous thermochemical decomposition with BW and DBW. Another important 29 synergetic mechanism of reaction is the devolatilization of proteins, which are 62.6 wt % of 30 biochemical composition of this microalgae. The devolatilization of proteins was positively 31

impacted by the decomposition of hemicellulose and cellulose present in BW and DBW. The devolatilization of carbohydrates in a temperature range (130–180 °C) could also enhance the thermal decomposition of hemicellulose. Also, the metals that are available in the ashes of DBW might have supported the enhancement of synergy between the microalgae and DBW samples. However, it is important to evaluate and characterize the pyrolytic products to further explain the potential reaction mechanisms.

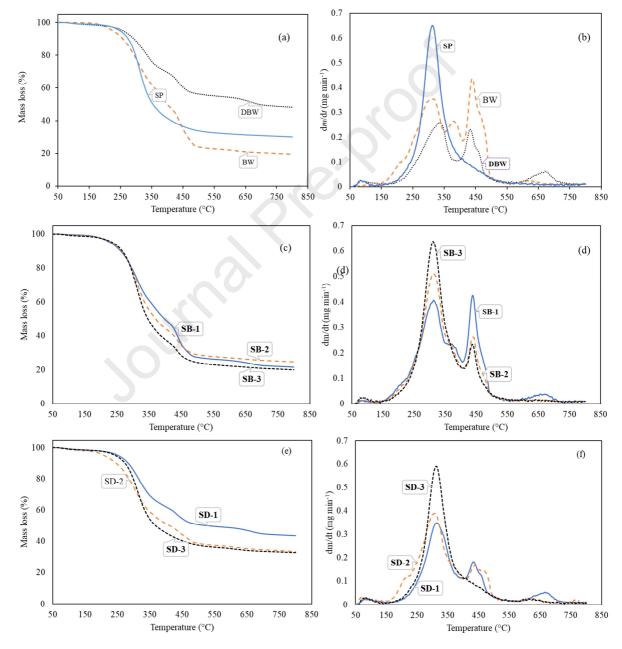




Fig. 1. Mass loss profiles at 15 °C min⁻¹, (a) TG for SP BW and DBW, (b) DTG for SP, BW and

DBW, (C) TG for SB-1, SB-2 and SB-3, (d) DTG for SB-1, SB-2 and SB-3 samples, (e) TG for
SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3, (d) DTG for SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3 samples.

3 3.2. Influence of raw and digested organic biowastes on evolved gases during co-pyrolysis with microalgae

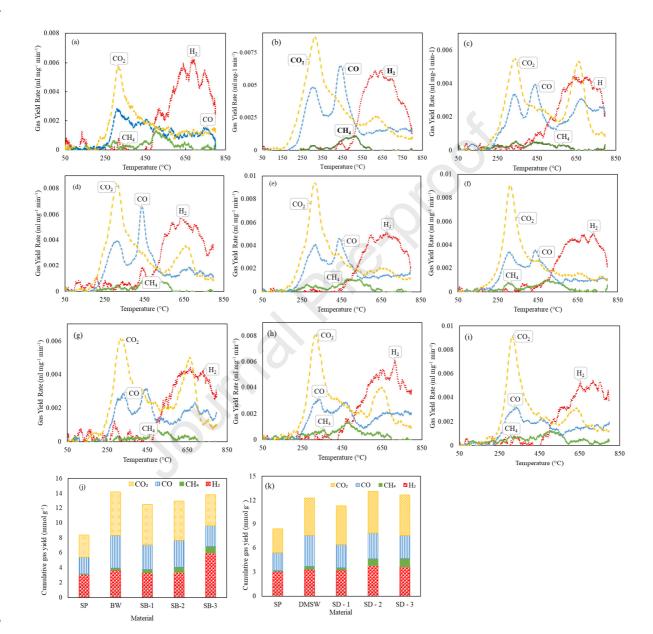
The evolved gas trends for all the samples SP, BW and DBW along with the blends of SP-BW 5 6 and SP-DBW are presented in Fig. 2 (a) - (k). For SP, BW, Fig. 2 (a) and (b), and their blends 7 Fig. 2 (d)-(f), it is evident from that the evolution of gaseous components that co- pyrolysis occurred in two phases. In the first phase (200 - 400 °C), CO and CO₂ were the dominant gas 8 species and in the second phase (400 -800 °C) H₂ was noticed to be dominant species for all the 9 samples. The CO₂ evolution started at around 200 °C for plain samples and 150 °C for blends, 10 whereas the CO evolution started a bit late, at around, 200-250 °C for samples and their blends. 11 The evolution of CO and CO₂ was observed throughout the thermogravimetric run and were in 12 accordance with major weight loss reported earlier. The possible reason for the evolution of CO₂ 13 during the major weight loss stage could be because of the cracking and reforming of carboxyl 14 (COOH) and carbonyl (C=O) groups [37]. One distinct peak was noticed for CO₂ for all the 15 samples, during the major weight loss stage. It should be noted that, with blends, the evolution of 16 CO_2 decreased sharply in the second phase (400 – 800 °C) with the increase in the proportion of 17 SP. Similar results were reported during the co-pyrolysis of textile dying sludge and microalgae 18 [34]. The evolution of CO, like CO₂, happened throughout the pyrolysis process. However, there 19 20 were two peaks noticed for all the samples during the major weight loss stage, including blends. 21 The formation of CO at temperatures $< 400 \,^{\circ}$ C could be mainly because of the by the cracking 22 and reforming of thermolabile ether and carbonyl groups [38, 39]. On the other hand, CO released at temperatures >400 °C could be due to the secondary reactions related to char 23 decomposition and scissions of diaryl ether groups [40]. There was a little CH₄ released during 24 25 the pyrolysis process for all the samples and the plausible reason could be the cracking of methyl 26 (-CH3) [41], methoxyl (-O-CH3) groups [40] and methylene (-CH₂) groups [39]. The release 27 of H₂ started at temperatures above 450°C and continued till 800°C, which is in agreement with the literature reported [4, 24]. The reasons could be mainly tar cracking and reforming reactions. 28 Additionally, the thermal decomposition of biomass enhanced by catalytic activity of alkali metal 29 in the SP and BW ash, which further increased the yield of H₂ [42]. However, there was a mutual 30 synergy noticed in the total gas yields, as reported in Fig. 2 (j). The total gas yields increased 31

1 with the increase in the proportion of SP in the blends. This could be mainly because of the high

2 alkali metals in the ash of microalgae that would have enhanced the yield of gas via tar cracking

3 and reforming reactions.

4



5

Fig. 2. Evolved gases for (a) SP, (b) BW, (c) DBW, (d) SB-1, (e) SB-2, (f) SB-3, (g) SD-1, (h)
SD-2, (i) SD-3, (j) total gas yields for SP, BW and blends and (k) total gas yields for SP, DBW
and blends.

9 For SP and DBW blends, Fig. 2 (g)-(i), two distinct phases of gas evolution were noticed for all
10 the samples including blends. In the first phase (150-400°C) CO and CO₂ were noticed to be the

predominant gas species. As the temperature was further increased, H₂ started getting evolved 1 and accompanying CO and CO2. The evolution of CO and CO2 occurred throughout the 2 experiment. It is to be noted that the increase in temperature increased the reactivity and 3 conversion of feedstock into gaseous products [43]. Furthermore, it is advisable to increase the 4 temperature over 600° C to produce more burnable gases from microalgae biomass [44]. The 5 6 evolution of CO started at around 250°C for all the samples and continued till the end of the run (800°C). The CO₂ evolution peaks for SP, DBW, SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3 were noticed to be 318, 7 338, 318, 315 and 312°C, respectively. It should be noted that the CO₂ yields decreased with the 8 9 increase in the DBW proportion in the blend. Similar results were noticed during the copyrolysis of microalgae and plastic [45]. However, a second peak for CO₂ was noticed at around 10 640-670°C for all the samples except for SP. The possible reason could be the decomposition of 11 calcium carbonate used as a filler on paper, which may be left undigested [46]. This is in good 12 13 agreement with the results reported for weight loss, discussed above. The possible reason for the 14 evolution of CO₂ during the major weight loss stage could be because of cracking and reforming of carboxyl (COOH) and carbonyl (C=O) groups [37]. In this case CO₂ and CO evolution was 15 noticed all through the run till 800 °C. However, unlike CO2, there were two distinct CO 16 17 evolution peaks noticed for all the samples in the major pyrolysis zone (150-600°C). Additionally, there was a significant peak noticed in the third stage (600-800°C). The CO 18 19 evolution in both, first and second stages can be attributed to the decomposition of volatiles and activation of Boudouard reaction, respectively [47]. The evolution of H₂ started form 400°C and 20 continued till 800°C for all the samples which is in agreement with the literature [4, 24]. 21 22 Additionally, the thermal decomposition of biomass enhanced by catalytic activity of alkali metal 23 in the SP and DBW ash, which further increased the yield of H₂ [42]. The CH₄ evolution started at around 200°C and continued till 800°C. The plausible reason could be cracking of methyl 24 (-CH3) [41], methoxyl (-O-CH3) groups [40] and methylene (-CH₂) groups [39]. However, 25 there was significant synergistic effect noticed in the total gas yields presented in Fig. 2 (i) and 26 27 (k). The total gas yields were high for SD-2 followed by SD-3 and SD-1.

3.3. Evaluation of synergy in the rate and extent of thermal decomposition during the copyrolysis of microalgae with raw and digested organic biowastes

To evaluate synergistic influence of microalgae on BW and DBW and vice-versa during the copyrolysis process, the experimental results (TGA data) were compared with the calculated

results. The calculated values for biomass pyrolysis are obtained using weighted additive model, 1 2 which indicates the values obtained if the biomass samples were pyrolysed independently. This indicates a scenario where there is no synergistic interaction between the two samples and the 3 4 calculated values are the sum of individual values corresponding to their mass ratio [16, 42]. 5 Using Eqn. (18) and (19) [ref], the theoretical conversions of biomass blends are compared with the experimental data and the results are presented in Fig. 3(a) - (h). 6

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{C} cal = (\mathbf{I} - f_{dx}) \mathbf{C} correct + f_{dx} \mathbf{C} cat \end{aligned} \tag{18} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \mathbf{W} = \mathbf{W}_{\text{EXP}} - \mathbf{W}_{\text{CAL}} \tag{19} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \mathbf{W} = \mathbf{W}_{\text{EXP}} - \mathbf{W}_{\text{CAL}} \tag{19} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{U}_{0} = \mathbf{W}_{\text{EXP}} - \mathbf{W}_{\text{CAL}} \tag{19} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{U}_{0} = \mathbf{U}_{0} - \mathbf{U}_{0} -$$

 $\alpha_{cal} = (1 - f_{MA}) \alpha_{OSW} + f_{MA} \alpha_{MA}$ 7

16

9

8

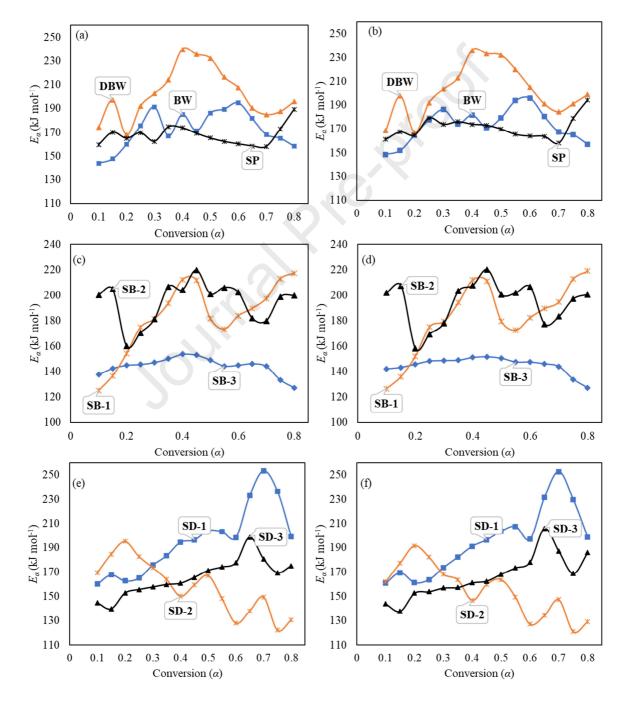
Fig. 3. Comparison of experimental and calculated TG and DTG profiles for biomass blends at the heating rate of 15 °C min⁻¹, (a) SB – 1, (b) SB – 2, (c) SB – 3 and (d) Δ TG curves, (e) SD – 1, (f) SD – 2, (g) SD – 3 and (h) Δ TG curves.

Fig. 3 demonstrates that the experimental and calculated TG and DTG profiles for SB-1 and SB-4 2 overlapped each other over most part of the conversion, indicating no possible synergy in 5 6 either conditions. However, there is a tiny discrepancy noticed for SB-2 in the temperature range 7 of 300-500°C, but the synergistic effect needs to be further clarified. The Δ TG values, as shown in Fig. 3 (d), indicate a clear positive value for SB-1, which explains it possessed an antagonistic 8 effect. As it can be noticed from Fig. 3 (b) the tiny discrepancy is further justified by the negative 9 values displayed for SB-2 in Fig. 3 (d). In the region of temperatures between $300 - 800^{\circ}$ C, a 10 significant disagreement was noticed between the calculated and experimental profiles of SB-3, 11 which was further justified in Fig. 3 (d) with intense negative values for ΔW . Among the blends 12 obtained from SP and BW, SB-3 has a higher thermal degradation than the other two blends, SB-13 1 and SB-2, corresponding the mutual synergy between the two biomasses during thermal 14 degradation and is discussed in greater details in the subsequent sections. For blends obtained 15 from SP and DBW, from the Fig. 3, the experimental and calculated TG and DTG profiles for 16 SD-1 overlapped each other over most part of the conversion, indicating no possible synergy in 17 such condition. However, there is a significant discrepancy noticed for SD-2 and SD-3 in the 18 temperature range of 300-800 °C. The experimental values of thermal degradation for blends 19 20 SD-2 and SD-3 were more intense than the calculated thermal degradation values of individual biomasses with same mass ratio, corresponding the mutual synergy between the two biomasses 21 22 during co-pyrolysis and is discussed in detailed in the subsequent sections.

3.4. Kinetic analysis to evaluate the impact of microalgae on raw and digested BW and vice-versa

Thermogravimetric data, at three heating rates 10, 15 and 20°C min⁻¹, was used to evaluate the kinetic parameters for plain biomass samples and their blends. Chemical kinetics along with the depiction of transport process are important for the design and optimization of thermochemical conversion systems. Two iso-conversional methods, Friedman method (FM) and Kissenger-Akira-Sunnose (KAS) methods were used to estimate the activation energy for the pyrolysis of samples and their blends. Using Eqns. (5) and (9) the apparent activation energy (E_a) was 1 calculated over a selected range of conversion from 0.1-0.8, with a step interval of 0.5 and are 2 presented in the supplementary information **Table S1**. Additionally, the average values of E_{α} , *A*, 3 and other important thermodynamic parameters are presented in **Table 4**. The variation of 4 activation energy, derived based on FM and KAS methods, with respect to conversion is 5 presented in **Fig. 4 (a)-(f)**.

6



7

Fig. 4. Variation in activation energy with conversion for (a) FM, (b) KAS for SP, BW and
DBW, (c) FM and (d) KAS for SB-1, SB-2 and SB-3, (e) FM and (f) KAS for SD-1, SD-2 and
SD-3 biomass samples.

Activation energy can be defined as the minimum energy that is necessary to start a reaction, 4 implying that the reaction with higher activation energy either need longer residence time or 5 higher reaction temperature to gain sufficient energy to start the reaction [48]. Fig. 4 shows that 6 7 the E_{α} is highly dependent on conversion, indicating the complex nature of biomass pyrolysis [49]. In general, as a result of parallel reaction routes wherein each route has a different 8 9 activation energy, the activation energy increased with an increase in temperature to a certain conversion and then decreased. At the initial stages of conversion, the activation energy exhibited 10 an increasing trend for two biomass samples and their blends. Subsequently, fluctuations in the 11 trends of activation energy were noticed till the end of the process, which can be attributed to the 12 complex reaction schemes mainly parallel complex reactions [50]. The lowest activation energy, 13 14 on the basis of Friedman method, that is required to initiate the reaction was determined to be 159.65, 144.07, 174.41, 125.09, 200.04, 137.73, 160.04, 169.12 and 144.87 kJ mol⁻¹ for SP, BW, 15 DBW, SB-1, SB-2, SB-3, SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3, respectively. On the other hand, the average 16 17 activation energy for the process was estimated to be 167.4, 172.3, 202.6, 182.92, 194.35, 144.36, 195.55, 157.45 and 165.50 kJ mol⁻¹ for SP, BW, DBW, SB-1, SB-2, SB-3, SD-1, SD-2 18 and SD-3, respectively. Similar results were reported in the literature for the pyrolysis of similar 19 feedstocks, for instance, for microalgae Dunaliella tertiolecta [51] and Nannochloropsis oculata 20 [52], for MSW [31] and co-pyrolysis of MSW with other wastes [36, 53, 54]. The activation 21 22 energy was high at lower conversion rates for the biomasses and their blends, indicating the initiation of pyrolysis of structural components such as lipids, proteins and carbohydrates and 23 24 cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin in SP, BW and DBW, respectively. There was no clear trend noticed for plain biomass samples, but for blends the pyrolysis conversion can be divided into 25 three stages. 26

The highest E_{α} values for SB-1, SB-2 and SB-3 were noticed to be 217.20 kJ mol⁻¹ at $\alpha = 0.8$, 220.13 kJ mol⁻¹ at $\alpha = 0.45$ and 153.65 kJ mol⁻¹ at $\alpha = 0.4$, respectively. The temperatures corresponding to the conversions having high activation energies were estimated to be 430°C (at $\alpha = 0.8$) for SB-1, 325°C (at $\alpha = 0.45$) SB-2 and 320 and 350°C (at $\alpha = 0.4$) for SB-3. These

temperatures are in good agreement with the DTG peaks discussed earlier. The peak value E_{α} for 1 SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3 were 253.2 kJ mol⁻¹ (at α =0.7), 195.15 kJ mol⁻¹ (at α =0.2) and 198.83 kJ 2 mol⁻¹ (at α =0.65), respectively. The average E_a values varied were in the range of 194.64-195.55, 3 154.89-157.65 and 165.6-166.25 SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3, respectively. The average E_{α} values for 4 all the biomasses and their blends obtained in this study are in agreement with the studies 5 6 reported in literature for microalgae [55, 56], organic solid wastes [51] and co-pyrolysis of 7 similar feedstocks [16, 45, 57, 58]. The calculated average activation energies reported in Table 4 indicate that there has been a significant synergistic effect occurred in between the two 8 9 biomasses in the blend SB-2, the calculated activation energy was much higher than the experimentally derived activation energy. In the other two cases, the calculated activation energy 10 was lower than the experimental activation energy, indicating no possible synergy in blends SB-1 11 12 and SB-2. The calculated E_{α} value of blends SD-2 and SD-3 (Table 4) were noticed to be higher 13 than the experimental E_{α} values, indicating synergistic interactions between both the feedstocks. The possible reasons for the synergistic effects could be the that the volatiles and extractives 14 present in the SP biomass may have enhanced the degradation of the structural components in 15 BW and DBW biomasses. The additional heating promoted by the volatile contents, present in 16 17 the biomasses, may have improved the degradation during the pyrolysis process [42]. Furthermore, microalgae ashes are reported to have high alkali metal contents, which could have 18 played the role of catalyst in enhancing the decomposition [59]. The variation in the activation 19 energy with respect to the temperature is presented for the plain biomass sampes and their blends 20 is shown in **Fig. 5**. 21

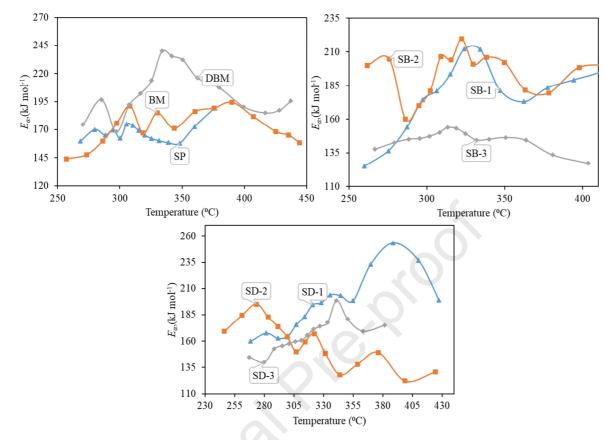


Fig. 5. Variation in the activation energy with respect to temperature for biomass samples.

It should be noted that the actiation energy for all the samples is in agreement with the discussion 3 done in Section 3.1. It is to be noted that the activation energy was high for all the sampels 4 corresponding to the DTG peaks shown in their blends is Fig. 1. According to the literature, the 5 6 activation energies required for the thermal decomposition of proteins, lipids and carbohydrates are the range of 20-220, 200-220 and 40-220 kJ mol-1, respectively and for cellulose, 7 hemicellulose and lignin the activation energies were reported in the range of 128-263, 90-165 8 and 20-100 kJ mol⁻¹, respectively [60]. The activation energies and corresponding temperatures 9 obtained int his study are in agreement with the literature. 10

Table 4. Average values of activation energy, pre-exponential factor, and other thermodynamic
 parameters for selected biomass materials.

Parameter	Activation Energy (E_{α}) Friedman method		Activation Energy (E_{α}) KAS method				Pre-exponential factor, A,	Enthalpy, ∆ <i>H</i> ,	Gibbs free energy, ΔG ,	Entropy, ΔS ,
Units	Average (kJ mol ⁻¹)	Calculated	Average (kJ mol ⁻¹)	Calculated	Average (s ⁻¹)	Average (kJ mol ⁻¹)	Average (kJ mol ⁻¹)	Average (J mol ⁻¹)		

SP	167.4	-	170.93	-	2.29×10^{13}	162.48	169.58	-22.47
BW	172.3	-	173.02	-	$1.81 imes 10^{10}$	167.12	173.04	-13.5
DBW	202.55	-	202.21	-	$1.04 imes 10^{18}$	197.37	184.94	36.68
SB-1	182.92	171.07	182.43	172.5	$4.45{\times}10^{16}$	177.89	171.87	13.75
SB-2	194.35	169.85	194.15	171.99	8.66×10^{16}	189.34	177.67	37.52
SB-3	144.36	168.63	145.17	171.45	$8.57 imes 10^{10}$	139.39	157.31	-57.78
SD-1	195.55	193.76	194.63	193.39	4.13×10^{15}	190.49	191.89	-4.48
SD-2	157.45	184.97	154.89	186.57	$3.73 imes 10^{14}$	152.47	161.82	-30.07
SD-3	165.6	176.19	166.25	178.75	$3.75 imes 10^{14}$	160.68	166.7	-19.25

1 The compensation effect was used to evaluate the pre-exponential factor (A) values and other

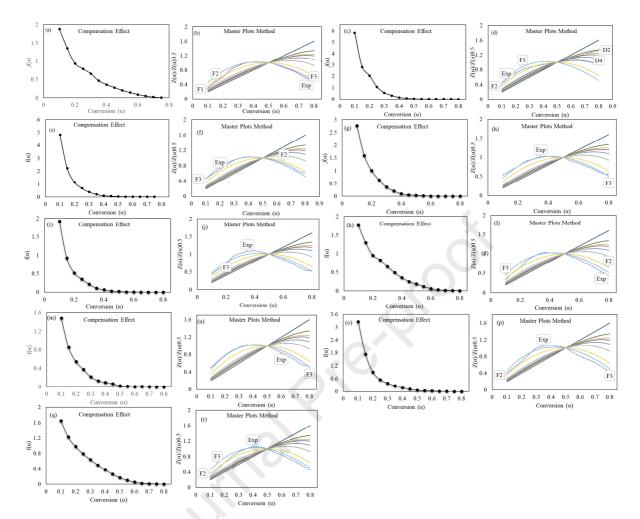
2 thermodynamic paramters were calculated by using Eqns. (15)-(17), are presented in Table S4-

3 S6. The avarage values of $A(s^{-1})$ and thermodynamic parameters are presented in Table 4. To

4 avoid the error associated with the integral methods [61], the activation energy values obtained

5 by using Friedman differential method were used to obtain accurate values of pre-exponential

6 factor, thermodynamic parameters and reaction mechanism function.



1

Fig. 6. Reaction mechanism function for (a), (b) SP, (c), (d) BW, (e), (f) DBW, (g), (h) SB-1, (i),
(j) SB-2, (k), (l) SB-3, (m), (n) SD-1, (o), (p) SD-2 and (q), (r) SD-3.

By selecting different $f_i(\alpha)$, presented in Table S1, and using Eqn. (10), a pair of ln Ai and E_i were 4 calculated and are presented in Fig. S1. Substituting the values of E_{α} obtained by using Friedman 5 iso-conversional method in the Eqns. (11)-(12) yields the values of A, as shown in Table S4-S6. 6 The values of A for all the samples varied from 10^{11} to 10^{14} for SP, 10^{10} to 10^{14} for BW, 10^{8} to 7 10^{17} for SB-1, 10^{12} to 10^{18} for SB-2 and 10^9 to 10^{11} for SB-3. The average A values for SP, BW, 8 DBW, SB-1, SB-2, SB-3, SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3 were noticed to be 2.29×10¹³, 1.81×10¹⁰, 9 1.04×10^{18} , 4.45×10^{16} , 8.66×10^{16} , 8.57×10^{10} , 4.13×10^{15} , 3.73×10^{14} , 3.75×10^{14} , respectively. The A 10 values $< 10^9$ s⁻¹ indicate surface reaction and if the reaction does not depend on the surface area 11 the low values of A indicate the formation of tight junctional complex. On the other hand, the 12 values of A over 10^9 s⁻¹ imply a loose junctional complex [62, 63]. The values of A fluctuating in 13

between $10^{10} - 10^{12}$ s⁻¹ imply that the activated complex formed from the reagents is restricted in 1 rotation [3]. The reaction mechanism function for all the biomass samples and their blends are 2 presented in Fig. 6 (a)-(r). The reaction mechanism function generally categorized in to three 3 categories, namely accelerating, decelerating and sigmoidal forms [21]. The overall trend of $f(\alpha)$ 4 derived by using compensation effect for all the samples was monotonous function decreasing 5 with respect to conversion, which are categorized under decelerating models, which is similar to 6 pyrolysis of similar feedstocks [61, 64-66]. The trends observed in the present study fall under 7 the category of decelerating models, such as reaction order or diffusion models. 8

9 While the mechanism function obtained by using compensation effect helps to identify the reaction mechanism type, master plots method helps to match the experimental reaction 10 mechanism function to the available theoretical mechanism function and accurately identify the 11 $f(\alpha)$ for a particular biomass under specified conditions. The generalized master plots strictly 12 13 depend on the kinetic model used to fit the reaction and does not depend on the heating rate. 14 Therefore, the master plots obtained under different heating rated should take similar shape [4]. The experimental and theoretical plots were obtained by using the right-hand side and left-hand 15 side of Eqn. (14) and were plotted against conversion, as shown in Fig. 6. The experimental plots 16 17 of SP closely matched with second order reaction model (F2) at lower conversions ($\alpha < 0.2$) and 18 then shifted to third order reaction model (F3) at $\alpha > 0.2$. For BW the experimental plots matched 19 with F3 model for $\alpha \leq 0.45$ and then shifted to second order diffusion model (D2) for $\alpha > 0.5$. Unlike BW which had the experimental plots matched with F3 model for $\alpha \leq 0.45$ and then 20 shifted to second order diffusion model (D2) for $\alpha > 0.5$, the experimental plots of DBW matched 21 22 with third order reaction model (F3) throughout the conversion range. The reason in the change of reaction mechanism of DBW as compared to the BW could be the influence of anaerobic 23 digestion on the organic matter in the BW. The experimental plots for SB-1 and SB-2 closely 24 matched with F3 reaction model for the whole process. However, the experimental plots of SB-3 25 were much similar to SP, were in close match with F2 at lower conversion ($\alpha \leq 0.2$) and shifted to 26 F3 at $\alpha > 0.25$. The experimental plots for SD-1 closely matched with F3 reaction model for the 27 whole process. However, the experimental plots of SD-2 and SD-3 were close match to F2 at 28 lower conversion ($\alpha \leq 0.2$) and shifted to F3 at $\alpha > 0.25$. 29

The master plots indicates that the degradation process closely resembles the nth order (random nucleation model). To find out the exact parameters, model fitting (nonlinear least square) was

carried out for the experimental data and the general model. Since, the process is multistep, first of all the $d\alpha/dt$ was deconvoluted into distinct peaks using Fraser–Suzukifunctionas it provided the best fit amongst other sigmoidal functions.. The model fitting was carried out for each stage (Stage 1, Stage 2 and Stage 3 (in some samples)) using MATHEMATICA© command "Non-Linear Model Fit" and the reaction order was calculated. All the models (general solid-state model) were checked and as expected the best fit was found for nth order mechanism. The results are listed in **Table 5**.

C	Stage 1		Stage 2		Stage 3	
Sample	Reaction order (n)	R^2	Reaction order (n)	R^2	Reaction order (n)	R^2
SP	2.34	0.994	1.41	0.999	-	-
BW	1.52	0.999	1.73	0.994	1.12	0.973
DBW	1.34	0.999	1.81	0.997	-	-
SB-1	1.47	0.999	1.38	0.987	1.6	0.999
SB-2	1.65	0.999	1.73	0.994	2.13	0.999
SB-3	2.03	0.998	1.58	0.995	-	-
SD-1	1.6	0.999	1.61	0.999	-	-
SD-2	1.66	0.998	1.36	0.999	-	-
SD-3	1.72	0.999	1.89	0.997	-	-

8 **Table 5.** Reaction order of biomass pyrolysis process.

The average values of thermodynamic parameters such, as activation enthalpy (ΔH), Gibbs free 9 energy (ΔG) and activation entropy (ΔS), for the plain samples and blends are listed in Table 4 10 and detailed values are provided in Table S4-S6. From Tables S4-S6, it is evident that the energy 11 difference between activated complex and reagent is in agreement with the activation energy. 12 The small energy difference between E_{α} and ΔH indicate favorable conditions for the formation 13 of activated complex. From the Tables 3, S4-S6, a small energy barrier of ~5 kJ mol⁻¹ between E_{α} 14 15 and ΔH indicate favorable conditions for the reaction to happen. The average ΔH values were noticed to be 162.48, 167.21, 197.37, 177.89, 189.34, 139.39, 190.49, 152.47 and 160.68 kJ mol⁻ 16 ¹ for SP, BW, DBW, SB-1, SB-2, SB-3, SD-1, SD-2 and SD-3, respectively. The average ΔH 17 value was low for SB-3 under SM blends and for SD-2 under SD blends, indicating the 18 requirement of low energy to break the bonds among the reactants. The change in Gibbs free 19 energy (ΔG), imply the increase in the total energy of the system in the process of formation of 20 activated complex. The high ΔG values indicate unfavorable conditions for the reaction to 21 happen, as high energy is required in such conditions [67]. Furthermore, activation entropy 22 23 indicates the degree of disorder of a reaction system. In case of pyrolysis, ΔS values imply the degree of alignment of carbon atoms in biochar. Also, the positive values of ΔS indicate that the 24

1 system is far from thermal equilibrium products and attainment of thermal equilibrium. While 2 the positive values of ΔS indicate little reactivity and demands an increase in the reaction time to 3 form activated complex, the negative values of ΔS indicate high reactivity and necessitates low 4 reaction time to form activated complex. Additionally, it should be noted that the negative values 5 of ΔS and the values of ΔH lower the ΔG , indicating that a significant proportion of heat 6 supplied to system is unused [42].

7 Conclusions

The present study attempted to investigate the synergistic influence of microalgae on raw and 8 9 digested forms of organic biowastes during co-pyrolysis process. The TG-DTG profiles of plain and blended samples showed three devolatilization with characteristic peaks and shoulders 10 depending on the biomass and its ratio. The synergistic influence was not prominent; however, 11 12 there was a change in the decomposition pattern during the co-pyrolysis process for all the 13 blends. The volatiles and extractives in the microalgae biomass and the mineral contents in the 14 ashes of the three biomass samples significantly enhanced the kinetics of the thermal decomposition process. The higher activation ΔG indicate the favourability of the raction to 15 occur. Additionally, it should be noted that the impact of microalgae was different in different 16 17 scenarios. A decrease in the values of activation energy and an increase in the gas yields were 18 noticed with the increase in the proportion of microalage in the blends. In addition, the second 19 peak of evolution for CO and CO₂ decreased with increase in the propostion of microlage. It is recommended to conduct similar co-pyrolysis studies on a wide range of microlage feedstocks 20 with organic biomass wastes to understand the mechanisms of synergy and the interactions 21 22 betweeen the major components of each category. Further, it is also recommended to conduct reactor scale studies to decide the optimum conditions, such as mixing ratios, heating rate and 23 final temperature, for co-pyrolysis of similar feedstocks. 24

25 Author Contributions

26 The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors approved the final

- 27 version of the manuscript.
- 28 Competing interests
- 29 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

1 Availability of data and materials

- 2 Not applicable.
- **3** Consent for publication
- 4 Authors agreed to publish this article.

5 Ethics approval and consent to participate

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- 8

Highlights

- Synergism between two dissimilar feedstocks during co-pyrolysis was evaluated. •
- Volatiles and extractives in microalgae improved the decomposition pattern of blends. •
- Kinetics and gas yields were significantly enhanced. •
- Synergistic effect was higher with microalgae -digested biowaste blends than with • microalgae-biowaste blends
- Co-pyrolysis can reduce the energy input •

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Declaration of interests

 \boxtimes The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: