1	A preliminary investigation of anaerobically digested municipal sludge cake and
2	contaminated soil for recycling by pyrolysis.
3	G. L. Sullivan ^{a, b*} , R. M. Prigmore ^b , P. Knight ^b , A. R. Godfrey ^a .
4	^a Institute of Mass Spectrometry, School of Medicine, Swansea University, UK, SA2 8PP.
5	^b Hendre Holdings Ltd, Excal House, Capel Hendre, UK, SA18 3SJ.
6	
7	*Corresponding author at:
8	Tel.: +44 1792 606646.
9	Email address: <u>g.l.sullivan@swansea.ac.uk</u>
10	Abstract
11	This work has investigated the potential of pyrolysis as a recycling solution for two largely
12	uncharacterised waste streams, anaerobically digested (AD) municipal sludge cake and
13	brownfield soil (contaminated with oily sludge). Characterisation of emitted organic
14	compounds from pyrolysis were captured in a solvent (acetone) scrubber and analysed by
15	GC-MS. Both AD sludge cake and brownfield soil showed considerable promise for 'green-er'
16	fuels, as a source of syngas (with CO supplementation) and volatile aromatics essential for
17	fuel quality. However, these waste streams also generated significant amounts of additional
18	highly toxic pollutants of varying chemistries, further emphasising the importance of using a
19	trapping approach applicable to a broader range of chemicals. Pleasingly the acetone trap
20	showed very good efficacy in capturing this breadth of chemistries, supporting its use as an
21	alternative capture and preparative method, for monitoring volatile and semi-volatile organic
22	tars
23	
24	
25	
26	
27	
28	

29	Keywords
30	Scrubber
31	Pyrolysis/gasification contaminants
32	Tar analysis
33	Gas chromatography-thermal conductivity detection (GC-TCD)
34	Gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS)
35	
36	
37	
38	
39	
40	
41	
42	
43	
44	
45	
46	
47	
48	
49	
50	
51	
52	
53	
54	
55	
56	

1. Introduction

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

Thermal conversion techniques, such as pyrolysis and gasification, can be used to generate value-added products from organic waste. During pyrolysis carbon-rich feedstocks are heated in anoxic environments between 400-700 °C, causing the organic material to decompose and generate products of a higher heating value (e.g. flammable syngas, bio-oils and bio-chars (Brownsort, 2009; Mohan et al., 2006; Ok, 2015)). Meanwhile, gasification involves higher temperatures above >700°C with the addition of controlled mounts of oxidant commonly, oxygen or steam. This causes partial combustion of the solid and volatile material, thereby increasing the yield of syngas Syngas is composed of carbon monoxide (CO), hydrogen (H₂) and methane (CH₄), and can be used to generate energy by forming liquid fuels using Fischer-Tropsch (FT) catalysts (Davis, 2001; Jahangiri et al., 2014; Krylova, 2014). However, syngas can also contain organic pollutants or 'tars' that consist of linear chain hydrocarbons and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) such as aromatic, phenolic, and polyaromatic hydrocarbon (PAH) species (Carpenter et al., 2007; Palma, 2013; Ponzio et al., 2006). Despite their importance to the calorific value of syngas for energy generation (Hossain and Davies, 2013; Sharma et al., 2012) small VOCs such as benzene, ethylene, and acetylene are particularly important to monitor as they can cause chemical contamination and catalyst deactivation at significant monetary cost (Bosmans et al., 2013; Rabou and Drift, 2011). Similarly, the components of bio-oils can provide economic value as an additional feedstock for fuels (Unyaphan et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019) however, they can also cause mechanical fouling of equipment if poorly captured. Thus, there remains a need to both capture the resulting pollution by-products and molecularly characterise the recycling approach, using fitfor-purpose trapping and measurement processes, prior to the re-use or disposal of 'new' organic waste. Unfortunately, this can come at significant cost, with VOCs often requiring specific sampling methods, using sorbents and modified instrumentation, when gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) analyses are required (Agilent, 2014). Therefore, a cheap(er) pollutant capture method, such as a solvent trap or 'scrubber' using methanol, water or isopropanol (Phuphuakrat et al., 2010; Prando et al., 2016), is important for process viability; however, these are often selected specifically to target pollutant classes common to well-characterised feedstocks such as biomass (pine wood), and are mainly untested on alternative wastes. Given the drive to recycle more sources of organic waste, current work has shown an increasing need to capture and monitor for a broader range of organic pollutants, from an expanding list of largely uninvestigated feedstocks (e.g. municipal sludge cake and contaminated brownfield soil). Although previous thermal studies on suitability sewage sludge as a feedstock exist (Gomez-Rico et al., 2008; Mohan et al., 2006; Oleszczuk et al., 2014; Rosa et al., 2018; Rulkens, 2008), the literature is lacking particularly with the treatment of AD sludge cake and the analysis of the volatiles organic compounds emitted in the process. AD sludge cake is the remaining solid material from sewage sludge treatment. Sewage sludge is treated firstly, by dewatering and centrifugation to form a solid material (19% dry mass) before it is thermally hydrolysed and anaerobically digested (Gavala et al., 2003). The undigested solids from this process is further dewatered to produce anaerobically digested (AD) municipal sludge (Gavala et al., 2003). A recent thermal gravimetric study on pine wood and anaerobically digested (AD) municipal sludge cake indicated significant differences in the evolved chemicals of these feedstocks during thermochemical conversion, with primary losses of sample occurring at 200-400 °C for pine wood (63.8 %), and 200-500 °C for AD municipal sludge cake (36.5 %) ((Sullivan et al., 2019)). Although studies on the suitability of sewage sludge as a thermochemical feedstock exist (Gomez-Rico et al., 2008; Mohan et al., 2006; Oleszczuk et al., 2014; Rosa et al., 2018; Rulkens, 2008), there is little published literature concerning AD sludge cake and the pollutants emitted during thermochemical conversion. Similarly, whilst research on brownfield soil contaminated with coal tar has shown harmful persistent organic pollutants following pyrolysis (e.g. volatile aromatics, furans and polyaromatic hydrocarbons) (Lara-gonzalo et al., 2015); (Abdel-Shafy and Mansour, 2016) there is again limited work in characterising oilcontaminated brownfield soil for land remediation. Therefore, to investigate the breadth of pollutants anticipated from the thermochemical recycling of these more complex waste materials, acetone was tested as a low cost scrubber, that offers compatibility with a standard

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

GC-MS set-up (Maštovská and Lehotay, 2004), and a wider dissolution range for alternative pollutants. For pollutant capture, the scrubber was initially tested using relevant volatile and semi-volatile standards, followed by application to the thermochemical recycling of these waste materials; to understand the limitations and benefits of the thermochemical processing of these feedstocks, further characterisation in terms of nitrogen content and calorific value was also carried out.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Standard reference materials

Acetone, methanol, 70% nitric acid (all ACS grade), pentane (GC grade), and triphenylethylene (internal standard, IS) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Suffolk, UK). The standard solutions for creating the calibration graph (QTM PAH mixture 1 and EPA 8040a phenol calibration mixture) were obtained from Supelco (Suffolk, UK), while those used for quality control (QC) samples (aromatic mixture 1 (PAHs), phenol mixture 1 and 2 8040a, volatile aromatic mixture (CLP Volatile mega mix™) and naphthalene-d₈ (IS) were sourced from Restek (Wycombe, UK). For GC-MS and gas chromatography-thermal conductivity detection (GC-TCD), ultra-pure helium and argon gases were purchased from Air Products (Swansea, UK), while high purity nitrogen for pyrolysis was acquired from BOC (Port Talbot, UK). To test the scrubbers with complex samples, pine wood (purchased from Waters and Morris in Ammanford, UK), AD municipal sludge cake (sourced from wastewater treatment plants in South Wales, UK and Accra, Ghana), and soil (10 % contamination with petrochemical waste from a field site in Rumney, UK) were pyrolysed for syngas production.

2.2. Standard (stock) solutions

A 10 mg/L VOC and equivalent QC stock solution (for quantitation) were prepared by spiking the volatile aromatic mixture and a separate batch of CLP Volatile mega mix[™], respectively in acetone. Similarly, 10 mg/L calibration stock solution for SVOCs were prepared using the

QTM PAH mixture 1 or EPA 8040a phenol solution along with an appropriate 10 mg/L QC stock solution for quantitation (see standard reference materials section). The IS solutions were also prepared in acetone as a 100 mg/L mixture of triphenylethylene and naphthalene-d₈.

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

140

141

142

143

2.3. Instrumentation

Analyses of volatile single-ring aromatics, phenols and polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) were undertaken using a Trace 1300 and ISQ GC-MS system, operating with Tracefinder Xcalibur™ software and a TG-5MS column (30 m x 0.25 mm, 0.25 µm) (Thermo Scientific, Hemel Hempstead, UK). Due to poor column retention and difficulties in differentiating from low mass fragment ions, simple combustion gases, such as CO, H₂ and CH₄, were measured using a Varian micro GC-TCD (Palo Alto, USA). This was operated with two columns using an argon carrier gas; an 8 m 100 % dimethyl-polysiloxane (CP-SIL 5CB) column (channel 1) to separate small organics (C3-C6) and a 10 m aluminosilicate molecular sieve column (Molsieve MSA BF, Varian, Palo Alto, USA) (channel 2) for simple gases (e.g. CO, H₂, CH₄). To generate the syngas, a pyrolysis rig (based on a commercial design) were fabricated inhouse; the latter consisted of a stainless steel (SS) tube (4.7 cm² x 70 cm) with a sample stage, a removable end cap to introduce the feedstock, an inlet valve for nitrogen, and an exit port for syngas that was connected to (1) an in-line scrubber system (containing acetone) and, (2) the GC-TCD system for real-time simple gas monitoring. The sample stage was located at the hottest part of the rig, with operating temperatures monitored here and at the end cap using two thermocouples. The rig was also fitted with a pressure sensor and a gas safety dump valve in case of emergencies. The scrubber system comprised of three glass impingers (max capacity of 250 mL), connected by a short length (~7-10 cm) of inert high temperature PTFE tubing; this was maintained at 20 °C by air recirculation to minimise evaporation of the scrubber solvent, with the PTFE exit-line of the rig to the first impinger fitted at a longer length

(~50 cm) to ensure gas cooling (please see the graphical abstract for a simplified schematic of the rig).

2.4. Analysis of volatile and semi-volatile organic pollutants

Two GC-MS methods were used based on analyte volatility, with each optimised for the relevant compound suites using a 2.5 µL split-less injection, operating at an inlet temperature of 300 °C. For VOCs, an oven temperature programme of 40-150 °C at 15 °C/minute (held for one minute), and 150-300 °C at 25 °C/minute was used, with the transfer line and ion source temperature set at 300 °C and 250 °C, respectively. Whilst for SVOCs alternative conditions to accommodate changes in volatility were applied; an oven temperature programme of 40-250 °C at 20 °C/minute, held for five minutes, 250-300 °C at 20 °C/minute, and, the transfer line and ion source temperatures of 300 °C and 310 °C, respectively. Data was acquired under full scan and single ion monitoring (SIM) conditions for the relevant analytes, with the latter operated as a segmented approach (see Supplementary for details). Compounds within the scrubbers were identified using the NIST 2.0 database, with reverse and forward match scores >800 (Vladimir and Sparkman, 2008), and quantified using the nearest eluting IS.

2.5. Validation of GC-MS Method for VOCs and SVOCs.

Prior to application, the method was validated for limit of detection (LOD), accuracy, precision, lower level of quantitation (LLOQ) and upper limit of quantitation (ULOQ), using two batches of samples run over separate days. To create and assess the calibration curve each batch contained a set of calibration standards (250-2000 µg/L and 50-1500 µg/L for SVOC and VOCs, respectively), five blanks, and five analytical quality controls (AQCs) spiked at 500 µg/L for VOCs and 1500 µg/L for SVOCs. The LOD for the GC-MS methods was initially calculated using 3x the standard deviation of the blank signal; however, this can often be misleading with discrepancies from the manual integration of the signal. Therefore, to confirm the LOD, the lowest standard with a signal to noise ratio (S/N) >3 was also used. To determine the LLOQ

and ULOQ, additional AQCs were analysed at low (50 μg/L for VOCs and 250 μg/L SVOCs) and high concentrations (1000 μg/L for VOCs and 1500 μg/L for SVOCs), respectively, whereby the LLOQ was confirmed as the concentration below or near the lowest standard with acceptable accuracy and precision (see Equations 1 and 2). The acceptance criteria used for method validation was based on a UKAS approved standard operating procedure (ISO, 2006), which required an accuracy and precision of ≤20 % for the AQCs at the specified concentration.

201
$$Accuracy (\%) = \frac{(Mean \ determined \ QC \ concentration - true \ QC \ concentration)}{true \ QC \ concentration} \ X100$$
202 Equation 1
203
204
$$Precision (\%) = \frac{standard \ deviation \ of \ determined \ QC \ concentration}{Mean \ determined \ QC \ concentration} \ X100$$
205 Equation 2

2.6. Pyrolysis of organic feedstock

Pine wood, AD municipal sludge cake (both 10 g), and contaminated soil (20 g to ensure sufficient amounts of VOC and SVOCs) were sieved to <2 mm and heated to >700 °C at 20 °C/minute under nitrogen, in the laboratory-scale test system to mimic slow pyrolysis. Given the greater anticipated variability of tar content from the raw feedstocks, the scrubber system comprised of a series of three impingers and each contained a 150 mL of solvent (chosen from the scrubber evaluation). To assess the usefulness of the target feedstock, the calorific value (CV) of the material and the producer gas was also determined using a bomb calorimeter (ISO 1928, "Solid mineral fuels - Determination of gross calorific value by the bomb calorimetric method; and calculation of net calorific value," 2009) and by the molar fraction results from the GC-TCD analysis, respectively.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Method validation

All of the analytes within the VOC methods showed acceptable signal at 1 µg/L for the LOD and, acceptable precision and accuracy for quantifying over the tested concentration range (including ULOQ), with 4.08-18.36 %relative standard deviation (%RSD) and -18.6-5.53 %accuracy (see Table 1). As expected, higher LOD values were observed for the less volatile SVOCs (phenol and PAH standards) but this method also showed acceptable precision and accuracy for the tested calibration range, with values between 3.24-15.93 %RSD and -9.27-19.81 %accuracy, respectively (Table 1). Given both protocols met the acceptance criteria for validation these were then applied for characterising and quantifying compounds observed in the scrubbers following pyrolysis of the waste samples.

3.2. Characterisation of AD sludge cake and brownfield soil during pyrolytic waste recycling.

Prior to application, the scrubbers and feedstocks were subjected to a programme of preliminary tests to understand limitations in their performance and suitability for recycling. Firstly, the capacity of the acetone scrubber to capture organic pollution was determined by measuring the 'bleed' of organic compounds between the series of scrubbers; this showed that a typical saturation range for acetone at 20 °C was equivalent to 125-200 g/L of pyrolysed feedstock, and a series of 3x150 mL scrubbers would be sufficient to capture detectable organic pollution generated from 10-20 g of feedstock. However, during this work it was noted that scrubber performance was volume dependent, with a potential loss of performance due to scrubber evaporation by the syngas. This was therefore tested repeatedly over a 30-40 minute process time to mimic the operation of the rig; pleasingly, despite some evaporative loss of the scrubber adjacent to the syngas line, this did not exceed 10 %, indicating a sufficient level of syngas cooling prior to the scrubber system. The largely un-investigated AD municipal sludge cake and contaminated soil samples were also characterised to understand their usability for recycling; measurements of inorganic composition, syngas production, CV and tar

content were taken as these are thought to differ with feedstock chemistry (and production method) (Chang et al., 2000; Palma, 2013; Tian et al., 2014; Werner et al., 2014). Interestingly, despite the common manufacturing method, the pre-pyrolysed Ghanaian AD sludge cake contained a greater amount of nitrogen (3.5 mg/Kg) and SVOCs (3500 mg/Kg) than that from the UK (2.5 mg/Kg and 230 mg/Kg, respectively), with the former generating more than double the amount of harmful nitrogen-containing aromatics following pyrolysis (e.g. to 188.2 mg/L, see Table 2). To the best of the authors' knowledge, this disparity of AD sludge cake composition between common production processes has been largely underreported in the literature and highlights the importance of feedstock (and tar) characterisation. Similarly, this finding also supports the use of a syngas clean-up that covers a broader range of pollutants, to minimise the exposure to harmful emissions prior to release/use. To understand the usefulness of recycling the (waste) feedstocks as an energy source, the syngas composition and CV were also established; the results again were significant, as they highlighted differences in syngas production, a variation in organic waste composition and the importance of material characterisation. Unlike brownfield soil, the syngas generated from AD sludge cake showed significant potential for thermochemical recycling, with competitive gas ratios to pine wood; therefore, with CO supplementation, this remains a promising route for 'green' fuel production due to the significant CV (~25-33%) and lower levels of greenhouse gas (CH₄) produced.

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

257

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

To provide data indicative of the final process, pine wood (as a well characterised sample), AD sludge cake and brownfield soil were therefore pyrolysed using the SS rig at >700 °C and an acetone scrubber. Despite the higher operating temperature of the process (and lower boiling point of acetone) minimal latent heating and evaporation of the scrubber was observed, indicating the continued capture of pollutants by solvation. As expected, the pyrolysis of pine wood showed significant amounts of typical breakdown products and minor constituents of biomass such as furan derivatives and phenols (Brebu and Vasile, 2010; Kibet et al., 2012), and terpenoid compounds, respectively. However, the use of acetone also proved very beneficial in terms of monitoring the volatile emission during the recycling of AD

sludge cake as it showed significant capture of highly toxic nitrogen-containing heterocyclic aromatics (see Table 3). In addition to these pollutants, acetone also captured significant levels of volatile aromatics desired for fuel production; pleasingly, sludge cake showed significant promise in generating these 'BTEX' compounds (e.g. benzene, toluene, ethyl benzene and xylene), with similar levels of observed to pine wood, further supporting the use of pyrolysis as a viable and valuable recycling solution. Similarly, pyrolysis of oil contaminated brownfield soil showed significant amounts of single ring aromatic and polyaromatic hydrocarbons (indicative of the oil content) with very high amounts of benzene and naphthalene captured in the initial scrubber (see Table 4). Interestingly, the compound profile observed in the scrubbers post-pyrolysis appear to be the same observed in a prior characterisation study of the pre-pyrolysed material (raw feedstock). This data is important as it shows a potential for soil remediation following contamination. Analysis of the post-pyrolysed soil (vial solvent extractions) showed a decrease of 80.5% of oily sludge contaminant in the remaining sample. This data is important as it shows potential for contaminated soil remediation and for recycling this feedstock to generate a source of fuel given the high calorific value (>30 MJ/kg) of these compounds.

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

3.3. The recycling of contaminated acetone scrubbers

In the interest of meeting the needs of a Circular Economy the remediation of contaminated acetone for less volatile species was also explored; this was achieved by comparing levels of VOCs and SVOCs before and after evaporating (and re-condensing) using a distillation apparatus, at a temperature representing heat that may be sequestered from pyrolysis through simple heat exchange (e.g. 60 °C). However, given this temperature was significantly lower than that of pyrolysis (700 °C), it was anticipated that the remediation of the more volatile BTEX components may be limited due to condensation within the acetone extract. Pleasingly a colourless liquid was generated following 'scrubber recycling' and most promisingly, SVOCs were undetectable within the scrubber, with some less volatile BTEX compounds

(ethylbenzene, p-xylene and styrene) showing a significant reduction in levels of 67 %, 65.4 %, 82.4 %, respectively (see Supplementary for details). This pilot data therefore, highlights the potential of acetone as a 'recyclable' capture method for pollution generated via thermochemical conversion of different feedstocks, aligned with the principles of a Circular Economy.

4. Conclusion

Analyte capture using an acetone scrubber and analysis via direct injection GC-MS provides a simple and effective approach for monitoring and facilitating the recycling of organic waste. The greater solubility range of acetone has enabled the measurement of a wider breadth of organic pollutants, essential for de-risking the recycling of 'newer' organic feedstocks such as oil-contaminated brownfield soil and AD municipal sludge cake. This work has also shown differences in pollutants generated from materials that have been produced using the same treatment processes, highlighting the importance of material characterisation prior to release/re-use of the resulting thermochemical products.

Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge funding from Hendre Holdings to undertake this work.

Declarations of interest

322 None.

References

- Abdel-Shafy, H.I., Mansour, M.S.M., 2016. A review on polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons:
- Source, environmental impact, effect on human health and remediation. Egypt. J. Pet.
- 327 25, 107–123. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejpe.2015.03.011
- 328 Agilent, 2014. Fundamentals. Agil. Present. 42, 2555–2568.

329	https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110289169
330	Bosmans, A., Wasan, S., Helsen, L., 2013. Waste-to-clean syngas: avoiding tar problems.
331	Status Accept. 1–21. https://doi.org/10.5772/54528
332	Brebu, M., Vasile, C., 2010. Thermal degradation of lignin—a review. Cellul. Chem. Technol.
333	44, 353–363.
334	Brownsort, P.A., 2009. Biomass Pyrolysis Processes: Review of Scope, Control and
335	Variability. Biomass 38. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004
336	Carpenter, D.L., Deutch, S.P., French, R.J., 2007. Quantitative measurement of biomass
337	gasifier tars using a molecular-beam mass spectrometer: Comparison with traditional
338	impinger sampling. Energy and Fuels 21, 3036–3043.
339	https://doi.org/10.1021/ef070193c
340	Chang, C.Y., Shie, J.L., Lin, J.P., Wu, C.H., Lee, D.J., Chang, C.F., 2000. Major Products
341	Obtained from the Pyrolysis of Oil Sludge. Energy and Fuels 14, 1176–1183.
342	https://doi.org/10.1021/ef0000532
343	Davis, B.H., 2001. Fischer-Tropsch synthesis: Current mechanism and futuristic needs. Fuel
344	Process. Technol. 71, 157–166. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-3820(01)00144-8
345	Gavala, H.N., Yenal, U., Skiadas, I. V., Westermann, P., Ahring, B.K., 2003. Mesophilic and
346	thermophilic anaerobic digestion of primary and secondary sludge. Effect of pre-
347	treatment at elevated temperature. Water Res. 37, 4561–4572.
348	https://doi.org/10.1016/S0043-1354(03)00401-9
349	Gomez-Rico, M.F., Fullana, A., Font, R., 2008. Volatile organic compounds released from
350	thermal drying of sewage sludge. WIT Trans. Ecol. Environ. 111, 425–433.
351	https://doi.org/10.2495/WP080411
352	Hossain, A.K., Davies, P.A., 2013. Pyrolysis liquids and gases as alternative fuels in internal
353	combustion engines - A review. Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev. 21, 165–189.
354	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2012.12.031
355	ISO, 2006. ISO 17025. General requirements for the competence of testing and calibration
356	laboratories. Technical corrigendum 1 1–55.

357	ISO 1928, "Solid mineral fuels - Determination of gross calorific value by the bomb
358	calorimetric method; and calculation of net calorific value," 2009.
359	Jahangiri, H., Bennett, J., Mahjoubi, P., Wilson, K., Gu, S., 2014. A review of advanced
360	catalyst development for Fischer–Tropsch synthesis of hydrocarbons from biomass
361	derived syn-gas. Catal. Sci. Technol. 4, 2210–2229.
362	https://doi.org/10.1039/C4CY00327F
363	Kibet, J., Khachatryan, L., Dellinger, B., 2012. Molecular products and radicals from
364	pyrolysis of lignin. Environ. Sci. Technol. 46, 12994–13001.
365	https://doi.org/10.1021/es302942c
366	Krylova, A.Y., 2014. Products of the Fischer-Tropsch synthesis (A Review). Solid Fuel
367	Chem. 48, 22–35. https://doi.org/10.3103/S0361521914010030
368	Lara-gonzalo, A., Kruge, M.A., Lores, I., Gutiérrez, B., Gallego, J.R., 2015. Organic
369	Geochemistry Pyrolysis GC – MS for the rapid environmental forensic screening of
370	contaminated brownfield soil. Org. Geochem. 87, 9–20.
371	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orggeochem.2015.06.012
372	Maštovská, K., Lehotay, S.J., 2004. Evaluation of common organic solvents for gas
373	chromatographic analysis and stability of multiclass pesticide residues. J. Chromatogr.
374	A 1040, 259–272. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2004.04.017
375	Mohan, D., Pittman, C.U., Steele, P.H., 2006. Pyrolysis of wood/biomass for bio-oil: A critical
376	review. Energy and Fuels 20, 848–889. https://doi.org/10.1021/ef0502397
377	Ok, Y., 2015. Biochar: production, characterisation and application. CRC press.
378	Oleszczuk, P., Zielińska, A., Cornelissen, G., 2014. Stabilization of sewage sludge by
379	different biochars towards reducing freely dissolved polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons
380	(PAHs) content. Bioresour. Technol. 156, 139–145.
381	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2014.01.003
382	Palma, C.F., 2013. Model for biomass gasification including tar formation and evolution.
383	Energy and Fuels 27, 2693–2702. https://doi.org/10.1021/ef4004297
384	Phuphuakrat, T., Namioka, T., Yoshikawa, K., 2010. Tar removal from biomass pyrolysis gas

- in two-step function of decomposition and adsorption. Appl. Energy 87, 2203–2211.
- 386 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apenergy.2009.12.002
- Ponzio, A., Kalisz, S., Blasiak, W., 2006. Effect of operating conditions on tar and gas
- composition in high temperature air/steam gasification (HTAG) of plastic containing
- 389 waste. Fuel Process. Technol. 87, 223–233.
- 390 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuproc.2005.08.002
- 391 Prando, D., Shivananda Ail, S., Chiaramonti, D., Baratieri, M., Dasappa, S., 2016.
- Characterisation of the producer gas from an open top gasifier: Assessment of different
- tar analysis approaches. Fuel 181, 566–572. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2016.04.104
- Rabou, L.P.L.M., Drift, A. Van Der, 2011. Benzene and ethylene in Bio-SNG production:
- nuisance, fuel or valuable products? Proc. Int. Conf. Polygeneration Strateg. 11 11,
- 396 157–162.
- Rosa, A.P., Chernicharo, C.A.L., Lobato, L.C.S., Silva, R. V., Padilha, R.F., Borges, J.M.,
- 398 2018. Assessing the potential of renewable energy sources (biogas and sludge) in a
- full-scale UASB-based treatment plant. Renew. Energy 124, 21–26.
- 400 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2017.09.025
- Rulkens, W., 2008. Sewage sludge as a biomass resource for the production of energy:
- Overview and assessment of the various options. Energy and Fuels 22, 9–15.
- 403 https://doi.org/10.1021/ef700267m
- Sharma, P.K., Kuinkel, H., Shrestha, P., Poudel, S., 2012. Use of Acetylene as an
- Alternative Fuel in IC Engine. Mech. Confab 1, 19–22.
- 406 Sullivan, G.L., Prigmore, R.M., Knight, P., Godfrey, A.R., 2019. Activated carbon biochar
- from municipal waste as a sorptive agent for the removal of polyaromatic hydrocarbons
- 408 (PAHs), phenols and petroleum based compounds in contaminated liquids. J. Environ.
- 409 Manage. 251, 109551. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2019.109551
- Thomas, S., 2008. Enhanced oil recovery-an overview. Oil Gas Sci. Technol. ... 63, 9–19.
- 411 https://doi.org/10.2516/ogst
- Tian, K., Liu, W.J., Qian, T.T., Jiang, H., Yu, H.Q., 2014. Investigation on the evolution of N-

413	containing organic compounds during pyrolysis of sewage sludge. Environ. Sci.
414	Technol. 48, 10888-10896. https://doi.org/10.1021/es5022137
415	Unyaphan, S., Tarnpradab, T., Takahashi, F., Yoshikawa, K., 2017. An Investigation of Low
416	Cost and Effective Tar Removal Techniques by Venturi Scrubber Producing Syngas
417	Microbubbles and Absorbent Regeneration for Biomass Gasification. Energy Procedia
418	105, 406-412. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egypro.2017.03.333
419	Vladimir, Z., Sparkman, J., 2008. NIST 2008 User Guide. Natl. Inst. Stand. Technol. NIST 1
420	49.
421	Werner, K., Pommer, L., Broström, M., 2014. Thermal decomposition of hemicelluloses. J.
422	Anal. Appl. Pyrolysis 110, 130–137. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaap.2014.08.013
423	Zhang, S., Yang, X., Zhang, H., Chu, C., Zheng, K., Ju, M., Liu, L., 2019. Liquefaction of
424	biomass and upgrading of bio-oil: A review. Molecules 24, 1–30.
425	https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules24122250
426	
427	
428	
429	
430	
431	
432	
433	
434	
435	
436	
437	
438	
439	
440	

Tables

Table 1: Summary validation data for VOCs and SVOCs showing linearity (coefficient of determination, R²), and precision (%Prec) and accuracy (%Acc) of the LLOQ, AQC and ULOQ. For the LLOQ, AQC and ULOQ, concentrations were spiked at 50 μ g/L, 500 μ g/L and 1000 μ g/L VOC protocol and 250 μ g/L, 1500 μ g/L and 2000 μ g/L for the SVOC method, respectively. All analytes showed acceptable linearity (R² \geq 0.99), precision and accuracy at each concentration level (<20%).

Compound	Linearity			А	QC	ULOQ		
Compound	R ²	%Acc	%Prec	%Acc	%Prec	%Acc	%Prec	
VOC method								
Benzene	0.9965	3.72	7.61	2.24	12.39	3.18	18.36	
Toluene	0.9973	-6.58	16.27	5.53	10.02	1.07	6.01	
Ethylbenzene	0.9978	-18.60	4.25	2.89	6.52	3.03	8.43	
1,3-dimethylbenzene	0.9984	-18.25	4.08	1.71	6.11	3.54	8.76	
P-xylene	0.9983	-15.18	4.52	2.33	6.12	4.09	9.11	
Styrene	0.9989	-17.38	4.11	-0.36	7.30	0.47	10.74	
1-methy-2-	0.0000	17 70	6 20	2 24	6.75	2.77	7.60	
ethylbenzene	0.9989	-17.79	6.30	2.34	6.75	2.11	7.60	
1,3-dichlorobenzene	0.9998	-12.66	7.67	0.73	5.90	3.55	8.71	
1, 4-dichlorobenzene	0.9998	-11.65	6.95	0.44	5.40	3.70	8.75	
1,2-dichlorobenzene	0.9998	-10.61	10.03	1.18	5.89	4.12	8.45	
SVOC method								
Napthalene	0.9992	18.00	5.42	-4.70	6.91	0.14	7.78	
Acenaphthylene	0.9994	15.03	9.93	-3.26	6.65	0.28	6.38	
Acenaphthene	0.9983	12.64	7.58	-3.13	5.66	1.27	6.95	
Fluorene	0.9992	14.16	8.52	-3.83	4.50	-0.25	6.71	
Phenanthrene	0.9994	15.25	7.46	-3.10	4.35	0.32	5.38	
Anthracene	0.9981	19.81	5.58	-5.98	4.94	-2.05	7.69	
Fluoranthene	0.9997	8.91	9.81	-3.21	4.59	-1.29	7.06	
Pyrene	0.9963	10.11	6.64	-3.48	4.60	-0.74	6.36	
Benza(a)anthracene	0.9990	10.98	15.93	-2.15	5.67	-0.73	4.01	
Chrysene	0.9963	16.12	9.09	-1.45	5.17	-0.71	3.95	
Benza(b)fluoranthene	0.9913	3.18	14.30	-2.64	6.00	-0.22	4.40	
Benzo(a)pyrene	0.9932	16.47	10.19	-2.00	6.35	-0.19	3.93	
Indeno(123-cd)pyrene	0.9904	15.65	9.98	-2.63	6.87	-0.24	5.11	
Dibenza(ah)anthracene	0.9920	14.25	9.53	-1.87	7.32	0.37	3.98	
Benzo (ghi) perylene	0.9981	11.15	10.42	-2.18	6.46	-1.02	5.27	
Phenol	0.9967	12.33	4.62	-1.74	10.32	3.09	10.93	
2-chlorophenol	0.9975	11.76	4.97	-3.71	9.12	0.44	9.45	
2-methyl phenol	0.9950	15.77	3.24	-1.51	8.31	0.81	9.24	
4-methyl phenol	0.9969	12.70	6.45	-2.58	7.73	0.97	9.31	
2-nitro phenol	0.9949	7.29	5.40	-2.75	10.86	-0.94	6.85	
2,3-dimethyl phenol	0.9982	6.33	6.44	-1.32	8.84	-2.00	6.76	
2,5-dichlorophenol	0.9973	13.82	6.08	-2.01	7.66	-0.46	8.23	
2,6-dichlorophenol	0.9997	8.21	6.84	-1.62	7.72	0.07	8.39	
4-chloro-3-	0.9930	14.44	3.38	-0.77	7.67	1.28	9.71	
methylphenol								
2,3,6-trichloro phenol	0.9977	8.60	7.67	-4.18	7.16	-1.70	6.34	
2,3,5-trichlorophenol	0.9993	5.01	7.76	4.70	10.17	5.48	9.91	
4-nitrophenol	1.000	-9.27	14.74	-2.80	8.58	-2.42	7.20	
Pentachlorophenol	0.9871	4.96	14.35	0.75	8.33	1.74	8.27	

Table 2: Table listing the compounds identified within the scrubbers from the pyrolysis of anaerobically digested sludge cake from a wastewater treatment plant in Ghana at 700 °C. Some of the compounds have been quantified by targeted analysis while those untargeted species have been elucidated by their mass spectrum and semi-quantified in 1 mL aliquot of scrubber (150 mL acetone) by comparing the peak area to an IS. ^targeted compounds, *nontargeted compounds, ND – none detected.

Anaerobically digested sludge cake (Ghana)	Compound name	Scrubber concentration (mg/L)			
		1	2	3	
Volatile aromatic compounds^	Benzene	8.00	19.47	ND	
	Toluene	22.10	44.18	ND	
	Ethylbenzene	4.91	2.13	ND	
	p-xylene	2.75	0.87	ND	
	Styrene	4.49	0.80	ND	
	1,3-dimethylbenzene	2.95	0.60	ND	
Phenolic compounds [^]	Phenol	5.20	ND	ND	
	4-methylphenol	2.27	ND	ND	
	2-methylphenol	22.49	ND	ND	
	2,3-dimethylphenol	3.13	ND	ND	
Nitrogen containing compounds	N-isopropyl cyclohexamine				
(LOD <0.1 mg/L)#	2-ethylamino methyl	5.47	2.07	ND	
	cyclohexanone	37.61	19.19	ND	
	2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-4- piperidinone	26.91	30.49	ND	
	n-cyclohexylacrylamide	1.53	1.47	ND	
	n-cyclohexyl-propanamide	13.62	13.73	ND	
	1-butyl-2,5 dimethyl-1H-pyrrol	6.33	2.33	ND	
	1,2,2,5-tetramethyl-3-	7.47	4.73	ND	
	piperidinone	4.80	ND	ND	
	Indole	4.87	ND	ND	
	7-methyl indolizine	5.53	ND	ND	
	Glutamic acid dibutyl ester				
Estimated total tar content (mg/L)		192.4 3	142.0 6	<0.10 0	
Mass of tar (mg)		28.86	21.31	<0.01 5	

Table 3: Table listing the compounds identified within the scrubbers from the pyrolysis of UK anaerobically digested (AD) sludge cake at 700 °C. Some of the compounds have been quantified by targeted analysis while those untargeted species have been elucidated by their mass spectrum and semi-quantified in 1 mL aliquot of scrubber (150 mL acetone) by comparing the peak area to an IS. ^targeted compounds, #non-targeted compounds, ND – none detected.

Anaerobically digested sludge	Compound name	Scrubb	er concer	ntration
cake (UK)	Compound name	1	(mg/L) 2	3
Volatile aromatic	Benzene	6.50	0.38	ND
compounds [^]	Toluene	32.40	0.35	ND
Compounds	Ethylbenzene	6.50	0.73	ND
	o-xylene	15.31	0.22	ND ND
	p-xylene	2.00	ND	ND ND
	styrene	11.40	0.15	ND ND
	1,3-dimethylbenzene	1.72	ND	ND
	1-methyl-2-ethylbenzene	0.66	ND ND	ND ND
Polycyclic aromatic	Naphthalene	5.00	0.36	ND
compounds [^]	Acenaphthylene	0.74	0.30	ND ND
Compounds	Phenanthrene	1.30	0.13	ND
	Anthracene	0.30	ND	ND
	Fluoranthene	0.30	0.01	ND
	Pyrene	0.30	ND	ND
	Benzo (b) fluoranthene	0.30	ND	ND
	Benzo (a) anthracene	0.11	ND	ND
Phenolic	Phenol	4.60	0.89	ND
compounds^	4-methylphenol	2.40	0.43	ND
Compoundo	2-methylphenol	6.50	0.83	ND
	2,3-dimethylphenol	6.50	0.60	ND
Nitrogen containing	N-isopropyl cyclohexamine			
compounds	2-ethylaminomethyl cyclohexanone	3.93	ND	ND
(LOD <0.1 mg/L)#	N-cyclohexylpropanamide	22.52	2.26	ND
(=== = = = = = = = = = = = = = = = = =	n-cyclohexylacrylamide	18.31	1.73	ND
	2,2,6,6-tetramethy-4-piperidinone	3.88	ND	ND
	1,2,2,5-tetramethyl-3-piperidinone	19.09	0.54	ND
	3-hydroxy-1-isopropyl-2-methyl-4(1H)-	7.52	2.05	ND
	pyridinone	1.29	ND	ND
	5-pentyl-1-H-1,2,4-triazol amine	0.83	ND	ND
	5-hexyl-1-H-1,2,4-triazol amine	1.13	ND	ND
Estimated total tar		183.06	11.72	<0.100
content (mg/L)				
Mass of tar (mg)		27.46	1.76	<0.015

Table 4: Table listing the compounds identified within the scrubbers from the pyrolysis of oil-contaminated brownfield soil at 700 °C. Some of the compounds have been quantified by targeted analysis while untargeted species have been elucidated by their mass spectrum and semi-quantified in 1 mL aliquot of scrubber (150 mL acetone) by comparing the peak area to an IS. ^targeted compounds, #non-targeted compounds, ND – none detected.

Oil contaminated	Compound name	Scrubb	Scrubber concentration (mg/L)			
brown field soil	-	1	2	3		
Volatile aromatic	Benzene	184.00	1.80	ND		
compounds^	Toluene	73.28	0.36	ND		
	Ethylbenzene	5.16	0.08	ND		
	Styrene	24.92	0.03	ND		
	p-Xylene	8.52	0.19	ND		
	m-Xylene	5.92	0.09	ND		
Phenolic compounds [^]	Phenol	2.50	ND	ND		
Targeted* and non-	Naphthalene*	169.61	4.13	ND		
_	•	2.12	0.74	ND		
targeted	2-methylnapthalene	11.71	0.74	ND		
polyaromatic	1-methylnapthalene	8.40	0.42	ND		
compounds	Biphenyl	5.79	0.33	ND		
	1, 6-dimethylnaphthalene					
	1, 7-dimethylnaphthalene	9.36 4.24	0.37	ND ND		
	2-ethenylnapthalene		0.02			
	Acenaphthylene*	27.6	1.02	ND		
	Acenaphthylene derivatives	5.46	0.21	ND		
	Phenalene	4.43	ND	ND		
	Fluorene*	14.22	0.04	ND		
	Dibenzothiophene	4.15	0.55	ND		
	Phenanthrene*	67.60	0.23	ND		
	2-methylanthracene	11.20	2.39	ND		
	8,9-dihydro-4-cyclopenta (def) - phenanthrene	9.14	0.40	ND		
	Anthracene*	16.23	0.43	ND		
	2-phenylnapthalene	4.92	0.64	ND		
	Fluoranthene*	20.41	0.22	ND		
	Pyrene*	27.62	0.73	ND		
	Benz(a)anthracene*	8.00	0.94	ND		
	Chrysene*	8.20	0.33	ND		
	Benzo (a) pyrene*	3.54	0.32	ND		
	Benz (b) fluoranthene*	5.47	0.32	ND		
	Indeno (123-cd) pyrene*	1.20	0.26	ND		
	Dibenza (ah) anthracene*	0.36	0.04	ND		
	Benzo (ghi) perylene*	1.52	ND	ND		
Estimated total tar		756.80	17.85	<0.10		
content (mg/L)						
Mass of tar (mg)		113.52	2.68	0.015		

Supplementary

Table S1: Table detailing the mass scan parameters used for quantitation of volatile and semi-volatile compounds.

Compound	Full mass scan (m/z)	Retention time (minutes)	SIM scan (m/z)
Volatile Benzene and Toluene Ethyl benzene Xylene and Styrene Benzene (1-methyl 2-ethyl) Dichlorobenzene D8-Napthalene, Trichlorobenzene	50-350	2.00-3.80 3.80-4.55 4.55-4.80 4.80-5.70 5.70-6.50 6.50-16.33	78, 91 91 91, 104 105 146 136, 179
Semi-volatile Chrysene and Benzo (a) anthracene Indeno (1,2,3 cd)-pyrene, Dibenzo (ab) anthracene, Benzo (ghi) perylene	50-450	14.00-20.00 20.00-24.00	228 276, 278

Table S2: Table detailing the typical chemical composition and energy content of the pyrolysis feedstocks and products generated. The lipid and semi-volatile composition of feedstocks were determined by pentane extraction and GC-MS full scan using spiked internal standards for semi-quantification. The nitrogen content for solid material was determined by standard Kjeldahl method. The total energy content of feedstocks was determined by bomb calorimetry and the syngas derived from pyrolysis of the feedstocks was calculated by from the GC-TCD analysis of the permanent gases calculated based on molar percentage.

Sample	Lipid/semi-volatile composition in e feedstock		Mass of nitrogen	Calorific value		Syngas composition Mol %			
-	Source	Mass (mg/Kg)	content (mg/Kg)	Feedstock (MJ/Kg)	Syngas (MJ/m³)	H ₂	со	CO ₂	CH₄
Pine wood	Terpenoids	195.84	N/A	18.67	6.34	45. 3	1.9 8	<0.1	2.71
UK AD sludge cake	Lipids and dietary fats	230.13	2.5	12.15	3.04	22. 6	1.1	<0.1	<0.1
Ghana AD sludge cake	Sterols	3500	3.5	18.00	6.41	45. 5	7.5 8	3.35	<0.1
Brown field soil	10% mass contaminated with PAHs	equiv. 2500	N/A (Kjeldahl)	7.02	0.725	3.3	<0. 1	<0.1	<0.1

Table S3: Table listing the compounds identified within the scrubbers from the pyrolysis of pine wood at 700 °C. Targeted compounds have been quantified while untargeted species have been elucidated by their mass spectrum and semi-quantified in 1 mL aliquot of scrubber (150 mL acetone) by comparing the peak area to an IS. ^targeted compounds, *mon-targeted compounds, ND – none detected.

Pine wood	Compounds identified	Scrubber (mg/L)	conce	ntration
		1	2	3
Volatile aromatic	Benzene	31.71	ND	ND
compounds^	Toluene	25.60	0.16	ND
·	Ethylbenzene	9.03	0.18	ND
	1,3-dimethylbenzene	5.50	ND	ND
	Styrene	3.00	ND	ND
	P-xylene	2.74	ND	ND
Polycyclic aromatic	Naphthalene	2.70	0.70	ND
compounds^	Acenaphthylene	0.46	0.13	ND
	Phenanthrene	0.41	ND	ND
	Anthracene	0.18	ND	ND
	Fluorene	0.21	0.15	ND
Phenolic	Phenol	10.98	1.90	ND
compounds^	4-methylphenol	5.79	1.52	ND
	2-methylphenol	6.84	1.01	ND
	2,3-dimethylphenol	7.40	1.00	ND
	4-chloro-3-methylphenol	3.02	0.52	ND
Non-Targeted	2-Furancarboxylic acid	5.70	2.05	ND
Other (LOD 0.05	2-Furanmethanol	7.30	2.79	ND
mg/L)#	2-Furanone	6.28	1.99	ND
,	2-Cyclopenten-1-one	7.11	2.76	ND
	Carbanicacic-phenyl ester	9.23	4.11	ND
	3-methylcyclopentane	10.06	3.43	ND
	Benzyl alcohol	4.47	1.98	ND
	2-methoxyphenol	20.86	10.35	ND
	Cresol	31.06	27.57	ND
	6-methyl-4-pyrimidinol	21.75	ND	ND
	4-ethyl-2-hydroxy-cyclopentene-1-one	5.21	5.29	ND
	Salicyl alcohol	6.32	3.65	ND
	p-ethylguaicol	16.20	3.21	ND
	4-ethenyl-2-methoxyphenol	16.20	5.06	ND
	Isoeugenol	32.00	11.91	ND
	Anhydro-D-mannosan	150.12	5.74	ND
	Conifyl aldehyde	10.78	2.15	ND
	Arabinose	6.35	0.67	ND
	Dehydroabietic acid	0.10	ND	ND
	Methyldehydroabietate	0.060	ND	ND
	Retene	0.067	ND	ND
Estimated total tar		482.80	101.98	<0.100
content (mg/L)				
Total mass of tar		72.42	15.30	<0.015
(mg)		1		

Table S4: Table describing the compounds identified in the acetone pooled scrubber before and after acetone remediation.

	Compounds identified	Scrubber concentration (mg/L)	
		Pre-recycling	Recycled
VOC Targeted	Benzene	10.84	9.17
	Toluene	9.86	8.19
	Ethylbenzene	1.37	0.46
	P-xylene	0.78	0.27
	Styrene	2.56	0.45
	Total	25.41	18.54
SVOC Targeted	Phenol	3.89	ND
	2-methylphenol	2.0	ND
	4-methylphenol	2.62	ND
	2,3-dimethylphenol	2.23	ND
	Naphthalene	0.60	ND
	4-chlorophenol	0.70	ND
	Phenanthrene	0.35	ND
	Total	12.39	<0.01
Non- targeted	2-propyl-1-pentanol methyl ether	1.09	ND
	N-cyclohexyl propanamide	6.21	ND
	2,2,6,6 Tetramethy-4-piperidinone	2.41	ND
	Cresol	8.69	ND
	2, 5-dimethoxytoluene	1.19	ND
	Isoegenol	1.37	ND
	Andro D-mannosan	3.00	ND
	Total	23.96	<0.100

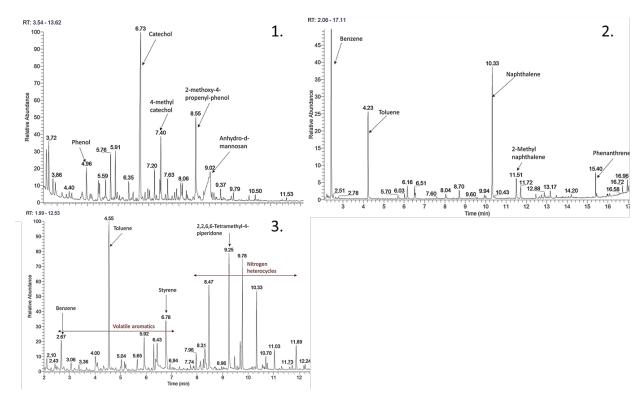


Figure S1: Shows the total ion chromatogram of scrubber 1 showing volatile and semi-volatile organic compounds captured during the thermal treatment (pyrolysis) of pine wood (1.), brown field soil contaminated with oily sludge (2.) and UK AD sludge cake (3.). The main components of each spectra were identified from NIST 2.0 library search.